

I believe that the clinical use of mitochondrial DNA replacement therapy is an ethical and scientifically justified option for preventing the transmission of severe mitochondrial diseases. When safety standards are met and families give informed consent, this therapy can offer significant health benefits that outweigh its manageable ethical concerns.

Mitochondrial DNA replacement therapy is designed for women who carry pathogenic mtDNA mutations, which affect about 1 in 5,000-10,000 children and can cause debilitating, multisystems disorders involving the brain, heart, liver, pancreas, and muscles (Mitalipov and Wolf, 2014). The therapy prevents transmission of mutated mtDNA by transferring the parents' nuclear DNA into donor oocytes or zygotes containing healthy mitochondria. Two methods—spindle transfer and pronuclear transfer—have been developed. In both, the nuclear genetic identity of the intended parents is preserved while the donors contribute only the healthy mitochondrial genome which is less than 0.1% of total DNA (Mitalipov and Wolf, 2014). Studies in human embryos and nonhuman primates show normal development, low mtDNA carryover, and no detectable nuclear-mitochondrial incompatibility, supporting the therapy's potential safety and efficacy (Mitalipov and Wolf, 2014).

The therapy introduces several ethical challenges. First, mtDNA replacement alters the germline which means modifications will be passed to future generations. This raises concerns about consent from individuals not yet born. Second, because it involves combining genetic material from three individuals, some fear that it could complicate concepts of parentage, even though the donor contribution is minimal and limited to mitochondrial genes (Mitalipov and Wolf, 2014). Third, critics worry about safety uncertainties and possibility of reintroducing mutated mtDNA during nuclear transfer. Regulatory bodies like the FDA and HFEA emphasize the need for careful oversight and phased clinical trials (Mitalipov and Wolf, 2014).

Despite these concerns, permitting mtDNA replacement therapy is ethically justified because it directly prevents severe, fatal diseases for which no alternative reproduction options exist. Families affected by mtDNA disorders typically face repeated miscarriages, early childhood mortality, or children with progressive, painful degenerative diseases. This therapy allows such families to have genetically related children without the burden of mitochondrial disease. Evidence shows extremely low mtDNA carryover which indicates the therapy fulfills its biomedical purpose while minimizing the risk (Mitalipov and Wolf, 2014).

The ethical concern about “three-parent children” is more so symbolic rather than biological. Mitochondrial DNA contributes only to cellular energy production and does not affect traits like appearance or personality; thus calling mtDNA donors “parents” misrepresents their role. Moreover, the Nuffield Council on Bioethics has concluded that the social and health benefits to families outweigh this concern if the techniques are shown to be acceptably safe (Mitalipov and Wolf, 2014).

Alternative options—such as using donor eggs or adopting—do not provide the same combination of genetic relatedness and disease prevention. Though some may argue to prohibit all germline interventions, doing so would deny affected families a therapy that can eliminate suffering across generations. With proper regulation, transparency, and long-term follow-up, mtDNA replacement therapy aligns with the ethical principles of beneficence and autonomy; it reduces harm and respects the reproductive choices of uninformed families.

Since mitochondrial DNA replacement therapy offers a safe, effective, and ethically defensible means of preventing inherited disease, it should be permitted within regulated clinical trials and, eventually, clinical practice. This therapy provides families with hope, autonomy, and the possibility of healthy biological children.

## References

Mitalipov S, Wolf DP. Clinical and Ethical Implications of Mitochondrial Gene Transfer. *Trans Endocrinol Metab.* 2014 January; 25(1): 5-7. Doi: 10.1016/j.tem.2013.09.001. PMID: 24373414; PMCID: PMC4005369