



This is a repository copy of *Cross talk during the periconception period*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/99663/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Fazeli, A. orcid.org/0000-0003-0870-9914 and Holt, W.V. (2016) Cross talk during the periconception period. *Theriogenology*, 86 (1). pp. 438-442. ISSN 0093-691X

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.theriogenology.2016.04.059>

Article available under the terms of the CC-BY-NC-ND licence
(<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

1 **Cross-talk during the periconception period**

2
3 **Alireza Fazeli* and William V. Holt**

4
5 **Academic Unit of Reproductive and Developmental Medicine**

6 **The University of Sheffield, Level 4, Jessop Wing, Tree Root Walk, S10 2SF Sheffield,**

7 **United Kingdom**

8
9 ***Corresponding author email: A.Fazeli@sheffield.ac.uk**

10
11 **Abstract**

12 The cross-talk between gametes, embryos and female reproductive tract plays a crucial role
13 in fine tuning of different reproductive events as well as influencing the epigenetic profile of
14 offspring and their health in adulthood. Here, we describe some background to the recent
15 investigations leading to the discovery of this cross talk. We will also point to important
16 requirements for understanding the maternal communication with gametes and embryos.
17 Finally we mention two probable hypotheses regarding how gametes and embryos are
18 recognised by the female reproductive tract. It is clear that understanding this cross talk is
19 leading to the production of new means for increasing fertility and potentials for affecting
20 the epigenomic profile of an individual.

21
22 **Keywords**

23 **Periconception; Oviduct; Fallopian Tubes; Embryo; Spermatozoa; Oocyte**

24
25 **The fall and the rise of research on cross-talk during the periconception period**

26 Transport of the gametes, the final gamete maturation process, fertilization, early embryonic
27 development and embryo implantation take place in the oviduct/Fallopian tubes and the
28 uterus/uterine horns. These are all very important events that occur during the periconception
29 period, leading to creation of new offspring. However, our knowledge of the periconception
30 environment and how it is regulated is very limited. In the last forty years, the support for research
31 in this field has been limited. Neglecting this area of reproductive research has not only been due to
32 a lack of funding opportunities and limited financial support from the funders; the negligence has
33 also originated from the scientific community. The dominant view in the scientific community has
34 been rather dismissive of the importance of the periconception milieu and the important role that it
35 may play in regulating important reproductive events. This attitude, at least for the last three
36 decades of the twentieth century, was the dominant view in the scientific community even going as

37 far as rejecting grant applications based on the lack of importance in researching this area of
38 reproductive sciences. One of the authors of the current paper (AF), once had a research grant
39 application rejected because of a reviewer's comment, stating that the topic of investigation – the
40 periconception environment - is "interesting", but not "important".

41 Probably the origins of this view - dismissing the importance of the periconception milieu – partially
42 resulted from the success of in vitro fertilization (IVF) and other assisted reproductive technologies.
43 The successful establishment of IVF as the method of choice for infertility treatment was not just a
44 huge advance in helping infertility patients, but was a turning point for our understanding of the
45 events taking place during the periconception period. IVF allowed detailed investigation of different
46 events that take place in the maternal tract. Indeed, IVF contributed substantially to research
47 findings in our field. However, at the same time it supported the view that the milieu of the
48 oviduct/Fallopian tube and the upper parts of the female reproductive tract is replaceable by a
49 simple combination of buffered salts called "IVF culture media". Hence, from the mid 1970's, the
50 leading view gaining support between experts was that the oviduct/Fallopian tubes, and generally
51 the upper parts of the female reproductive tract (that are the exact location/host of periconception
52 events), are just passive contributors towards the events taking place during the periconception
53 period. Their only function was regarded as providing a milieu with the right temperature, pH and
54 nutrients, but without involvement/contribution in the fine tuning and regulation of different events
55 taking place during this period.

56

57 This was the dominant view in the field until around the beginning of the 21st century several lines of
58 evidence started to challenge this dogma. Better understanding of how events such as "sperm
59 storage" in the female reproductive tract are mediated or the discovery of phenomena such as
60 "large offspring syndrome", attracted the attention of scientists to the importance of the
61 periconception milieu and the role that the periconception milieu plays in regulating fertility as well
62 as the future health and development of offspring. Discovery of the sperm storage mechanisms, and
63 the fact that majority of internally fertilising species are able to preserve sperm viability, not only by
64 providing nutrients for spermatozoa, but by influencing diverse functional regulatory processes such
65 as sperm plasma membrane fluidity, pointed to the presence of active sperm regulatory processes in
66 the oviduct [1-4]. In cattle and sheep, embryos exposed to in vitro culture environments prior to
67 the blastocyst stage had resulted in the development of unusually large offspring (large offspring
68 syndrome) that also exhibited a number of organ defects [5]. The cause of large offspring syndrome
69 was blamed on the presence of the serum in the in vitro culture media [6]. These interesting
70 observations and the fact that these small changes in in vitro conditions can have such profound
71 effects in the fate of the offspring, in addition to advances made in the field of epigenetics, attracted
72 a lot of attention towards understanding how changes in the periconception milieu can affect the
73 future health of the offspring, as well as how the periconception milieu is regulated and organised.

74

75 **Difficulties in the discovery of cross-talk mechanisms during the periconception period**

76 Early work on deciphering communication between the maternal tract, gametes and embryos was
77 mainly focused on understanding the effect that the maternal tract components had on gametes or
78 embryos. The majority of research in this field was driven by application and commercial interest to
79 understand what molecules or components of the tract are responsible for improving the

80 preservation of sperm, supporting the maturation of oocyte and/or help with the development of
81 embryos.

82 Seldom in the literature, was there a report, aimed at understanding whether the interactions
83 between the maternal tract, gametes and embryos were truly cross-talks between the female
84 reproductive tract from one side and gametes or embryos from the other side. Moreover, whether
85 the cross-talk was directed from gametes and embryos towards the female reproductive tract. Part
86 of the reason for this negligence may have been caused by a lack of a commercial interest or a
87 practical application to drive the research in this field. For example, the discovery of molecules
88 responsible for the maintenance of sperm viability in the female reproductive tract, and their use in
89 commercial diluents for semen preservation, or finding the factors that promote the in vitro
90 development of embryo to help infertile couples, were attracting big commercial interests and
91 fuelling further research in understanding what is produced by the maternal tract in support of
92 gametes or embryo function. However, at the same time, the main driver of research and discovery
93 of the changes in the maternal tract responses to spermatozoa or embryo was pure basic scientific
94 interest.

95

96 The other hindrance in research to understand the responses of the female reproductive tract to
97 gametes and embryos was unavailability of an, easy to measure, so called “end point of assay” for
98 evaluating the oviduct/Fallopian tube responses to gametes and embryo.

99

100 For example, in the case of measuring the sperm responses to oviductal factors, scientists were able
101 to use viability or general andrology routine tests such as measuring the percentage of motile
102 spermatozoa to check whether different components of oviductal fluid had any effects on sperm
103 function. In the case of oocytes, several tests existed to check the effect of oviduct/ Fallopian tubes
104 on the maturational stages of oocytes i.e., nuclear or cytoplasmic maturation or even zona pellucida
105 hardening [7]. Even in the case of embryos, simple microscopy was enough to measure the rate of
106 growth and development of an embryo. However, such proper and relatively easy to measure end
107 points of assay were not available to the scientists investigating the maternal responses to gametes
108 and embryo until the latter years of the previous century.

109

110 The other major issue that had stalled investigation in this field, was the subtlety of the reactions of
111 the female reproductive tract to gametes and embryos. Today we know that changes happening in
112 the maternal tract - for example at the transcriptomic level - in response to gametes and embryos
113 only require small stimuli. Hence, it is very important to employ technologies that have a holistic
114 ability and can detect the relatively minute changes between large and diverse populations of
115 transcripts. Maternal responses to gametes and embryos are not major physiological events that
116 produce huge transcriptomic or proteomic changes in the tissues and organs involved. They produce
117 subtle modifications, and detecting these changes needs careful experimental design/planning as
118 well as avoiding the background noise levels that can mask or hinder the detection of these
119 reactions. Potential factors that may cause vast physiological transcriptomic and proteomic
120 alterations in the female reproductive tract milieu e.g., changes in the reproductive tract milieu due
121 to sex hormone alterations in the reproductive cycle, can themselves substantially alter the genome
122 or proteome of the female reproductive tract and completely hide the minute responses of the
123 female reproductive tract due to the arrival of gametes or embryos in the tract [8]. Hence, a need

124 exists to try to differentiate and recognise the fine responses of the maternal tract to gametes and
125 embryo from the background noise.

126

127 Finally another major improvement, particularly in the *in vivo* analysis of periconception cross talk
128 between gametes and embryos has been the application of *in vivo* models that provide both the test
129 and the control within one female to check for the responses of the female reproductive tract to
130 gametes and embryo. These *in vivo* models are the ultimate tools in investigation of the
131 periconception milieu. They are very accurate and allow detection of minute changes in the
132 transcriptomic and proteomic profile of the maternal tract. They have been successfully used in mice
133 [9], pig [10, 11] and cattle [12].

134

135 **A bit of history**

136 The first reports indicating that there is cross talk happening between gametes, embryos and the
137 maternal tract, appeared in the literature in the 1990's. This was the work done by Joanne Ellington
138 et. al. [13] and Thomas et. al., [14] demonstrating *de novo* production of proteins in response to
139 spermatozoa during *in vitro* co-culture of sperm-oviductal epithelial cells in cattle and mares
140 respectively. Although these reports demonstrated the *de novo* production of oviductal proteins in
141 response to spermatozoa, and as such the existence of a cross talk between sperm and oviductal
142 epithelial cells, the identity of the proteins produced in response to spermatozoa was not known.
143 But the fact remains that these were very intriguing reports. Although, these investigations were
144 performed *in vitro* and may not have been as credible as those investigation that were later
145 performed *in vivo*, they cracked the well-established dogmas that spermatozoa are inert cells and
146 not recognised by the female reproductive tract. The evidence presented in these reports showed
147 that spermatozoa could trigger a response in the female reproductive tract cells and intrigued many
148 scientists regarding the nature of the sensory mechanisms involved in recognising spermatozoa and
149 the identity and function of the molecules produced by the oviduct in response to spermatozoa.

150 Another seminal study was published by Lee et. al., [9] using an *in vivo* mouse model and comparing
151 the genes that changed within the mouse oviduct in response to oocytes and embryos. This study
152 employed suppressive subtractive hybridization (SSH) [15]. Lee's report was probably the first to
153 identify genes in the oviduct that are upregulated in the presence of embryos during the
154 periconception period. SSH was one of the initial technologies developed for high through-put
155 transcriptomic analysis before microarray based technologies gained major popularity in the field of
156 high throughput transcriptomic analysis. SSH was based on PCR amplification of cDNA fragments
157 that differ between a control (driver) and the experimental transcriptome. Employing SSH, it was
158 possible to highlight the differences in relative quantity of transcripts between the two samples.
159 Hence, the report of Lee et. al., [9] was probably the first *in vivo* work using a high through-put
160 genomic analysis technology and a controlled *in vivo* model, allowing the discovery of the responses
161 of the maternal tract to oocytes and embryos. This was a seminal study that applied many principles
162 that today we know are crucial for the detection of maternal responses to gametes and embryo.

163 Being inspired by Lee et al., paper [9], we tried to use the SSH technique to look at changes in the
164 oviductal transcriptome in response to spermatozoa in porcine oviductal cells. Although, our
165 attempts showed some signs of alterations in oviductal transcripts in response to spermatozoa, we
166 were unable to produce concrete evidence of these effects of spermatozoa on porcine oviductal
167 cells *in vivo* or *in vitro*. Part of the failure of these experiments was the fact that we were pushing

168 the technology of SSH to its limits and facing problems such as false positive identification of genes
169 that were not differentially transcribed [16]. SSH did not have the ability to differentiate between
170 the transcripts of the samples that were very similar to each other. The level of differences created
171 in porcine oviductal genomes in response to spermatozoa was too small and it was nearly impossible
172 to detect these differences with SSH.

173

174 Early in 2002, with the popularity of oligonucleotide arrays in the applications of high through-put
175 gene expression analysis investigations [17], we tried to construct a murine oligonucleotide array to
176 compare transcripts produced in mouse oviducts in response to spermatozoa. Part of the cDNA
177 spotted on our homemade glass microarrays were made available through a collaboration
178 agreement with Lee's lab in Hong Kong. These were mouse oviductal tissue specific transcripts as
179 reported by Lee et. al. [18]. Unfortunately that attempt failed too. We had only around 240 genes
180 spotted on our oligonucleotide glass arrays. Looking in hindsight, with our current knowledge of the
181 amount of alterations in oviductal transcriptome in response to spermatozoa, we now know that
182 with such low number of random transcripts spotted on our homemade glass oligonucleotide arrays,
183 we had a very low chance (>1%) of discovery of any transcripts that might have been altered in
184 oviduct in response to spermatozoa. Hence, this attempt failed too.

185

186 After nearly 5 years of trial and error, following many different protocols and trying to refine the
187 techniques in our hands, finally in 2004 we published the first report describing alterations in
188 oviductal transcriptomes in response to spermatozoa in mice mated to (a) fertile males and (b)
189 mutant males unable to produce spermatozoa in their ejaculates [19]. This was probably the first
190 report showing that the presence of spermatozoa in the female reproductive tract can itself send
191 signals to the maternal tract and alter the oviductal transcriptome. The strategy we developed to
192 discover transcripts altered in response to spermatozoa in oviduct involved two steps. First, using an
193 Affymetrix high density oligonucleotide array, we screened transcripts of mouse oviducts that
194 originated from two mouse populations, one at the onset of estrus and the other just 6 hours after
195 mating. During this screening exercise, we looked at alterations in more than 12000 transcripts in
196 these two groups and reduced the number of transcripts being potentially altered in response to
197 spermatozoa arrival in the oviduct to just around 400 transcripts. In the next stage we utilised a
198 quantitative PCR technique and compared the expression of two transcripts; adrenomedullin and
199 prostaglandin endoperoxidase synthase 2 in the oviducts of two populations of mice, one mated to
200 fertile males and the other to T145H mutant mice. The T145H mutant mouse is a sterile strain,,
201 where males produce seminal plasma in their ejaculates without spermatozoa [20]. There were clear
202 differences in the expression of adrenomedullin and prostaglandin endoperoxidase synthase 2
203 transcripts between oviducts obtained from females mated to fertile and mutant mice. Differences
204 in transcription expression activity could only be attributed to the presence or absence of
205 spermatozoa in the oviduct and not any other factors such as the act of mating. This report not only
206 showed that spermatozoa are recognised by the female reproductive tract under physiological
207 conditions, but allowed us to pinpoint the exact transcripts being altered in response to
208 spermatozoa arrival in the female reproductive tract.

209 Since then a comprehensive list of publications from different labs worldwide have looked at this
210 cross talk in different mammalian species and have documented the cross talk between maternal
211 tract, gametes and embryos in both in vivo and in vitro model systems. Evidence for similar cross-
212 talk has also been demonstrated in turkeys, where the arrival of spermatozoa in the sperm storage

213 tubules was shown to stimulate de novo gene transcription [21]. This paper cannot list all these
214 investigations and we recommend the interested reader to recent reviews and papers published
215 elsewhere [22-26]. What is of particular interest to our discussion here is to understand the
216 mechanisms used by the maternal tract to recognise the gametes and embryos as well as the
217 consequences of the cross talk and potential future research directions in this field.

218

219 **How does the maternal tract recognise gametes and embryos?**

220 It is still not known how the maternal tract recognises the presence of gametes and embryo. In the
221 absence of concrete evidence to explain this phenomenon, we have put two hypotheses forward to
222 explain how the maternal tract recognises and reacts to gametes and embryos.

223

224 *Gametes and embryo pattern recognition receptors*

225 One theory hypothesises the existence of an intrinsic ability/system in the maternal tract to
226 recognise gametes and embryos associated molecular patterns and then respond to them
227 accordingly. Examples of such pattern recognition mechanisms exist elsewhere in the body. For
228 example Toll like receptors (TLRs) in the innate immune system are classed as pattern recognition
229 receptors (PRRs). In the innate immune system, TLRs are responsible for the recognition of
230 pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs). Hence, TLRs differentiate between self and non-
231 self-entities and alert individuals to the presence of pathogens. In human 10 different TLRs exist
232 where each is responsible for the recognition of particular pathogenic signature molecules. For
233 example LPS (Lipopolysaccharide), is a major component of the outer membrane of Gram-negative
234 bacteria, and takes part in the structural integrity of the bacteria. LPS is recognised by TLR4. Nearly
235 all cells in the body that have TLR4 at their surface recognise LPS and respond to it.

236

237 It is now well known that several classes of PRRs exist and that each of these systems is responsible
238 for the recognition of different associated molecular pattern molecules. Some, like TLRs, are
239 responsible for recognition of PAMPs. Others have been found to alert and to respond to Damage-
240 associated molecular pattern molecules (DAMPs), also known as danger-associated molecular
241 pattern molecules. One can speculate that a comparable associated molecular pattern system may
242 exist, or is produced by gametes and embryos, allowing gametes and embryos to be recognized by
243 the maternal tract. Such a system if present should work in close collaboration with the innate
244 immune system and, moreover should operate through ancient and conserved mechanisms present
245 in all species that have an internal fertilization system [27].

246

247 Both spermatozoa and embryo are non-self-entities and should create a major immune reaction in
248 the female reproductive tract, leading to the rejection of gametes and embryo from the female
249 reproductive tract. However, in reality, spermatozoa and embryo are well received in the maternal
250 tract. Sperm viability is maintained and embryos are allowed to implant. This cannot be achieved
251 without a mechanism recognising their arrival and alerting the females to their existence within the
252 reproductive tract. If gamete and embryo specific PRRs exist in the female reproductive tract, one of
253 their functions would be to suppress the innate immune system as soon as it recognises the arrival

254 of spermatozoa and embryos within the female reproductive tract, thus allowing for sperm viability
255 maintenance in the reproductive tract and embryo implantation.

256

257 *Gametes and embryo produce exosomes and molecules capable of modulation of maternal tract*
258 *responses*

259 The other theory to explain the responses of the maternal tract towards gametes and embryo is that
260 gametes and embryos produce molecules that can affect and modulate the function of the maternal
261 tract cells. In this theory a need for the recognition of gametes and embryo by the female
262 reproductive tract does not exist. The idea is that molecules produced by the gametes and the
263 embryos themselves will take control of the reproductive cells and stimulate maternal responses
264 towards gametes and embryos. Currently evidence of exosome production by different reproductive
265 cell types (endometrial epithelial cells, embryo and...) as means of cell to cell communication is
266 expanding (For a review see [28]). However, currently, direct evidence that gametes and embryos
267 are capable of producing exosomes or molecules that can directly affect the function of the maternal
268 tract is lacking. But as the field is growing and several reports of production of exosomes and
269 microvesicles by different cell types is accumulating, such a chance is not improbable.

270

271 In conclusion, currently there is no substantial support for either of these theories or, indeed any
272 credible opposition either. What is apparent is that the processes mediating potential recognition of
273 gametes or embryos are very well tuned. It seems that the female reproductive tract is capable of
274 recognizing and differentiating between the X and Y chromosome bearing spermatozoa, and is
275 capable of responding to each of them in a different manner [29]. At the same time the maternal
276 tract also responds to embryo and can differentiate between different developmental stages of
277 embryos. How this recognition is achieved is currently a mystery.

278

279 **The future of research**

280 Understanding cross talk at the periconception period is gaining importance and is becoming
281 attractive for many reasons. Partially, advances in understanding epigenomic is guiding us towards
282 further research in understanding the periconception milieu. How the field will progress and where
283 it will go is hard to predict. However, the general feeling is that the importance of the
284 periconception milieu is no longer disputed and investigations in this field will raise more significant
285 questions.

286

287 A crucial part of the periconception milieu is the maternal tract responses to gametes and embryos,
288 which, at least at transcriptomic and proteomic level, are very diverse. Computational modelling (in
289 silico models) that can combine different aspects of these interactions and define what would be the
290 consequences of the cross-talk between gametes and embryos are very attractive routes for better
291 understanding the modulation of the periconception milieu [30]. Our lab has initiated a number of
292 investigations towards creating an in silico model of the oviduct [31-33]. However, it is already clear
293 that these interactions are very diverse and complex. In the short term compared to other potential
294 applications for modelling, the periconception milieu complexity seems to be a hindrance and is not

295 very attractive to modellers. Despite this fact, creating in silico models remains very important and
296 looks inevitable for future progress of this field.

297

298 In summary, a research question initiated on the basis of scientific curiosity is leading to the
299 production of new means for increasing fertility and potentials for affecting the epigenomic profile
300 of an individual. Nature has used alterations in the periconception environment as a strategy to
301 increase the adaptive ability of the offspring to survive in their new environment even before they
302 are born. Understanding how the periconception environment affects the newborn will open a new
303 window on the subtleties of reproductive processes.

304

305

306

307

308 **References**

- 309 [1] Lloyd RE, Elliott RM, Fazeli A, Watson PF, Holt WV. Effects of oviductal proteins, including heat
310 shock 70 kDa protein 8, on survival of ram spermatozoa over 48 h in vitro. *Reprod Fertil Dev.*
311 2009;21:408-18.
- 312 [2] Holt WV, Fazeli A. Sperm Storage in the Female Reproductive Tract. *Annu Rev Anim Biosci.* 2015.
- 313 [3] Montazeri M, Sanchez-Lopez JA, Caballero I, Maslehat Lay N, Elliott S, Lopez-Martin S, et al.
314 Activation of Toll-like receptor 3 reduces actin polymerization and adhesion molecule expression in
315 endometrial cells, a potential mechanism for viral-induced implantation failure. *Human*
316 *reproduction.* 2015.
- 317 [4] Holt WV, Lloyd RE. Sperm storage in the vertebrate female reproductive tract: how does it work
318 so well? *Theriogenology.* 2010;73:713-22.
- 319 [5] Young LE, Fernandes K, McEvoy TG, Butterwith SC, Gutierrez CG, Carolan C, et al. Epigenetic
320 change in IGF2R is associated with fetal overgrowth after sheep embryo culture. *Nat Genet.*
321 2001;27:153-4.
- 322 [6] Thompson JG, Allen NW, McGowan LT, Bell AC, Lambert MG, Tervit HR. Effect of delayed
323 supplementation of fetal calf serum to culture medium on bovine embryo development in vitro and
324 following transfer. *Theriogenology.* 1998;49:1239-49.
- 325 [7] Coy P, Canovas S, Mondejar I, Saavedra MD, Romar R, Grullon L, et al. Oviduct-specific
326 glycoprotein and heparin modulate sperm-zona pellucida interaction during fertilization and
327 contribute to the control of polyspermy. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*
328 *United States of America.* 2008;105:15809-14.
- 329 [8] Seytanoglu A, Georgiou AS, Sostaric E, Watson PF, Holt WV, Fazeli A. Oviductal cell proteome
330 alterations during the reproductive cycle in pigs. *J Proteome Res.* 2008;7:2825-33.
- 331 [9] Lee KF, Yao YQ, Kwok KL, Xu JS, Yeung WS. Early developing embryos affect the gene expression
332 patterns in the mouse oviduct. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun.* 2002;292:564-70.
- 333 [10] Almiñana C, Heath PR, Wilkinson S, Sanchez-Osorio J, Cuello C, Parrilla I, et al. Early Developing
334 Pig Embryos Mediate Their Own Environment in the Maternal Tract. *PloS one.* 2012;7:e33625.
- 335 [11] Georgiou AS, Snijders AP, Sostaric E, Aflatoonian R, Vazquez JL, Vazquez JM, et al. Modulation of
336 the oviductal environment by gametes. *J Proteome Res.* 2007;6:4656-66.
- 337 [12] Munoz M, Corrales FJ, Caamano JN, Diez C, Trigal B, Mora MI, et al. Proteome of the early
338 embryo-maternal dialogue in the cattle uterus. *J Proteome Res.* 2012;11:751-66.

339 [13] Ellington JE, Ignatz GG, Ball BA, Meyers-Wallen VN, Currie WB. De novo protein synthesis by
340 bovine uterine tube (oviduct) epithelial cells changes during co-culture with bull spermatozoa. *Biol*
341 *Reprod.* 1993;48:851-6.

342 [14] Thomas PG, Ignatz GG, Ball BA, Brinsko SP, Currie WB. Effect of coculture with stallion
343 spermatozoa on de novo protein synthesis and secretion by equine oviduct epithelial cells. *Am J Vet*
344 *Res.* 1995;56:1657-62.

345 [15] Diatchenko L, Lau YF, Campbell AP, Chenchik A, Moqadam F, Huang B, et al. Suppression
346 subtractive hybridization: a method for generating differentially regulated or tissue-specific cDNA
347 probes and libraries. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of*
348 *America.* 1996;93:6025-30.

349 [16] Goetz FW. The "ups" and "downs" in Using Subtractive Cloning Techniques to Isolate Regulated
350 Genes in Fish. *Integr Comp Biol.* 2003;43:786-93.

351 [17] Bumgarner R. Overview of DNA microarrays: types, applications, and their future. *Curr Protoc*
352 *Mol Biol.* 2013;Chapter 22:Unit 22 1.

353 [18] Lee KF, Kwok KL, Yeung WS. Suppression subtractive hybridization identifies genes expressed in
354 oviduct during mouse preimplantation period. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun.* 2000;277:680-5.

355 [19] Fazeli A, Affara NA, Hubank M, Holt WV. Sperm-induced modification of the oviductal gene
356 expression profile after natural insemination in mice. *Biol Reprod.* 2004;71:60-5.

357 [20] Fellmann N, Andre M, Jarrige JF, Boucher D. Pituitary-gonadal axis in sterile male mice
358 heterozygous for autosomal reciprocal translocation T145H. *J Reprod Fertil.* 1982;66:723-8.

359 [21] Long EL, Sonstegard TS, Long JA, Van Tassell CP, Zuelke KA. Serial analysis of gene expression in
360 turkey sperm storage tubules in the presence and absence of resident sperm. *Biol Reprod.*
361 2003;69:469-74.

362 [22] Fazeli A. Maternal communication with gametes and embryos. *Theriogenology.* 2008;70:1182-7.

363 [23] Fazeli A, Pewsey E. Maternal communication with gametes and embryos: a complex
364 interactome. *Brief Funct Genomic Proteomic.* 2008;7:111-8.

365 [24] Wright PC, Noirel J, Ow SY, Fazeli A. A review of current proteomics technologies with a survey
366 on their widespread use in reproductive biology investigations. *Theriogenology.* 2012;77:738-65 e52.

367 [25] Fazeli A, Moein Vaziri N, Holt WV. Proteomics of the periconception milieu. *Proteomics.*
368 2015;15:649-55.

369 [26] Lopez-Ubeda R, Garcia-Vazquez FA, Romar R, Gadea J, Munoz M, Hunter RH, et al. Oviductal
370 Transcriptome Is Modified after Insemination during Spontaneous Ovulation in the Sow. *PLoS one.*
371 2015;10:e0130128.

372 [27] Palumbi SR. Speciation and the evolution of gamete recognition genes: pattern and process.
373 *Heredity (Edinb).* 2009;102:66-76.

374 [28] Saadeldin IM, Oh HJ, Lee BC. Embryonic-maternal cross-talk via exosomes: potential
375 implications. *Stem Cells Cloning.* 2015;8:103-7.

376 [29] Alminana C, Caballero I, Heath PR, Maleki-Dizaji S, Parrilla I, Cuello C, et al. The battle of the
377 sexes starts in the oviduct: modulation of oviductal transcriptome by X and Y-bearing spermatozoa.
378 *BMC Genomics.* 2014;15:293.

379 [30] Soom VA, Vandaele L, Peelman LJ, Goossens K. Modeling the interaction of gametes and
380 embryos with the maternal genital tract: from in vivo to in silico. *Theriogenology.* 2010.

381 [31] Burkitt M, Walker D, Romano DM, Fazeli A. Computational modelling of maternal interactions
382 with spermatozoa: potentials and prospects. *Reprod Fertil Dev.* 2011;23:976-89.

383 [32] Burkitt M, Walker D, Romano DM, Fazeli A. Using computational modeling to investigate sperm
384 navigation and behavior in the female reproductive tract. *Theriogenology.* 2012;77:703-16.

385 [33] Burkitt M, Walker D, Romano DM, Fazeli A. Constructing complex 3D biological environments
386 from medical imaging using high performance computing. *IEEE/ACM Trans Comput Biol Bioinform.*
387 2012;9:643-54.

388