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

2  
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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 21<sup>st</sup> 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

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388