

Immune factors in human embryo culture and their significance

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Summary. There is increasing evidence that human development before implantation is regulated by embryonically and maternally derived growth factors. The “regulators” of embryonic origin such as soluble human leukocyte antigen G, platelet-activating factor, Th1/Th2 cytokines, insulin-like growth factor, epidermal growth factor, transforming growth factor α , colony-stimulating factor, platelet-derived growth factor may be used as indicators of embryo viability and implantation potential. The data prove the influence of growth factors on the development and growth of preimplantation embryos. Though there is a lot of research in the field of biomarkers during folliculogenesis and maternal-fetal interface, only few of them deal with regulators derived from embryonic cells to the cultivation medium. The aim of our study was to summarize the research dealing with immune markers produced by embryos in vitro and to estimate their impact on the cell growth, viability and implantation potential.

Introduction

A number of various exogenous and endogenous factors have been attributed to the regulation of embryo development and implantation. These embryonic “regulators” may be used as indicators of embryo viability and implantation potential. The data prove a cooperative interaction among preimplantation embryos and the role of growth factors on their development and growth. Human embryos produce transforming growth factor α and insulin-like growth factors, which are significantly involved in embryo ability to develop to the blastocyst stage (1). Platelet-activating factor (2), also produced by human embryos, is shown to be one of the markers of embryo viability. Menicuci et al. (3) reported an interaction between embryo implantation potential and soluble human leukocyte antigen G (sHLA-G) in early embryo cultures, and Fuzzi et al. (4) proved it later. It is clear that locally secreted cytokines of both the embryonic and the endometrium origin control the implantation process. Focusing on fetal-maternal dialogue during the implantation period promises to open a new era in assisted reproduction techniques that will be based on diagnostics of missing signaling molecules and impairments of uterine receptivity as well as on applications of embryo cultivating and transferring media.

Increasing interest is now being addressed to the soluble forms of biomarkers, because they might have prognostic properties in implantation and pregnancy process. Therefore, the aim of our study

was to summarize research dealing with immunological markers produced by embryos to cultivation medium and their impact on the cell growth, viability, and implantation potential.

Soluble human leukocyte antigen G

sHLA-G is a nonclassical HLA class I molecule that can be expressed in membrane-bound or soluble form and is well known for its tolerogenic properties. Data show that HLA-G promotes the production of Th2 cytokines, down-regulates the production of Th1 cytokines (5), and protects cells against natural killer (NK) cell lysis (6). Taking into account the evidence, there is no doubt that sHLA-G of embryonic origin plays an important role in implantation process and is responsible for fetal allograft tolerance.

Investigations of sHLA-G as a possible marker of embryo developmental potential started in 1996, when Juriscova et al. (7) reported data on total mRNA and protein in human embryos. In 1999, Menicucci et al. (3) evaluated the presence of sHLA-G molecules in supernatant cultures of early human embryos obtained by in vitro fertilization (IVF). The similar study of 101 patients (4) showed that clinical pregnancy was obtained only if sHLA-G molecules were detected in culture supernatants of growing embryos. Until now, embryo selection is based only on morphological and cleavage criteria, though embryo viability is not strictly correlated with embryo quality (8, 9). sHLA-G may be used as a marker for

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embryo selection, because its production correlates with embryo viability and implantation potential, but not with percentage of fragmentation and size of blastomeres. Gardner and Sakkas (10) suggested that by selecting specific embryos for transfer based on their individual sHLA-G expression, pregnancy and implantation rates can be maximized while the number of embryos transferred can be reduced; therefore, the incidence of high-order multiple pregnancies could be minimized. In 2005, Noci et al. (11) published article where sHLA-G was proposed as a potential marker of embryo development, and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) was introduced as a useful biochemical assay in addition to embryo morphology in embryo selection.

According to <http://www.haveababy.com/>, the detection of sHLA in vitro is a revolutionary new test that seems to be highly predictive of the ability of individual embryos to successfully produce a pregnancy following IVF. The one-year study carried out by Sher et al. (12) indicates that individually cultured embryos producing sufficient concentrations of a marker, sHLA-G, give previously infertile women a better than 60% pregnancy success rate, which is double the current success rates for IVF. In the study, the presence of high levels of sHLA-G had a positive predictive value greater than 70% in women under the age of 39 and greater than 50% in women aged 39 to 44 years.

Platelet-activating factor

Platelet-activating factor (PAF) is a lipid mediator endowed with a diversity of biological effects on various cells and tissues. PAF is a signaling phospholipid that has pleiotropic biological properties. Exogenous PAF binds to the cell surface receptors initiating the formation of inositol triphosphate and diacylglycerol (13), which affects intracellular levels of calcium. Calcium regulates the activity of signal transducing molecules and influences embryonic development.

The preimplantation embryos of a number of species – human, mouse, sheep, rabbit, pig – secrete PAF (14). The highest level of these molecules can be measured in the medium of expanded blastocysts. Evidence indicates that PAF has an important function in autocrine stimulation of embryonic metabolism, growth, and viability (15). Exogenous PAF stimulates embryo metabolism and cell division (16). Punjabi et al. (17) showed that PAF concentration was higher in media associated with clinical pregnancies when compared to preclinical pregnancies. The production of PAF by the preimplantation embryo was not related to follicle size or embryo morphology. However, differences in PAF concentrations in the culture media were related to the age of the embryo culture medium and the developmental stage of the embryo. Later Roudebush

et al. (18) showed that patients who became pregnant had a higher PAF level in their culture mediums than patients who did not become pregnant. Embryo-derived platelet-activating factor may be an important mediator of early maternal recognition of pregnancy.

Th1/Th2 cytokines

Cytokines are low-molecular weight glycoproteins that exhibit pleiotropy and redundancy. Cytokines are responsible for intercellular interactions (19). Cytokines secreted by the embryos and cells within the uterus are important for implantation process, because can be responsible for causing miscarriages. The activity of these cytokines has been characterized as proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory. Prolonged exposure to Th1 cytokines is detrimental to pregnancy, while Th2 cytokines are necessary to stimulate the invasion of the blastocyst and formation of blood vessels during the implantation period.

Trophoblastic cells, as well as uterine epithelium and maternal immune cells, secrete cytokines, which promote immunotolerance. Some of these cytokines are transforming growth factor beta, progesterone-induced blocking factor, and regeneration and tolerance factor. The sources of proinflammatory cytokines, such as interleukins (IL), chemokines, tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α), are macrophages and NK cells, which infiltrate the implantation sites destined to pregnancy loss. T cells produce anti-inflammatory cytokines – interferons (IFN) and IFN-like cytokines.

Human trophoblast in the fetal-maternal interface has been shown to produce IL-1 (20), IL-2 (21), IL-4 (20, 22, 23), TNF- α (20). Interleukin-10 was first recognized for its ability to inhibit activation and effector function of T cells, monocytes, and macrophages. IL-10 has a negative effect on macrophage activation and IFN- γ secretion. Interferon- γ , along with other Th2 cytokines, is related to antiviral, antiproliferative, and immunomodulatory activity. According to Wegman et al. (24), interleukin-10 is a potent immunomodulatory cytokine and promotes development of a humoral or T-helper 2 type immune response, which is associated with a successful outcome to pregnancy. Other authors showed that IL-10 is not associated with pregnancy, followed by embryo transfer after in vitro fertilization procedure, rate (19). According to Ozornec et al. (25), no effect of IL-10 and IFN- γ on fertilization process could be shown. Preimplantation human embryos express interleukin-1 (26), and this system may play an important role in embryo implantation (27). Zolti et al. (28) showed that IL-6 is released by cultured oocytes and early stage embryos. This fact suggests a potential role of IL-6 in embryogenesis.

IL-4, secreted by the maternal decidual tissue and by the developing embryo, may stimulate the production of IL-6, IL-8, monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF). Successful embryo implantation requires Th1/Th2 cytokine balance. The expression of these cytokines and growth factors is thought to be important in implantation and maintenance of early pregnancy (29).

Insulin-like growth factors

Insulin-like growth factors (IGF) I and II are the only members of the insulin-like family of growth factors. They have their own features different from proinsulin: are secreted by many cells and circulate in extracellular fluid, bound to IGF-binding proteins. IGF-I stimulates glucose uptake and is well known for its significance in the cell cycle (30). IGF-II is responsible for the growth rate during fetal development (31). In human embryos, transcripts for both insulin-like growth factors receptors – IGF-1R and IGF-2R – were proved by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (32). While searching for ligands, only IGF-II transcripts were detected in human embryo culture (32). IGF-II ligands are provided in human oocytes and persist through pre-implantation development from fertilized oocyte to blastocyst. Hemmings et al. (1) proved that IGF-II is produced by human embryos. In cultivating medium, the concentration of IGF-II increases with the growth of embryo and is well detected at the time of morula-to-blastocyst transformation. Insulin-like growth factors are associated with effects on cell proliferation and differentiation in mouse embryos (33). Many authors investigated the effect of IGF-I, IGF-II, and their receptors employing mouse embryos carrying null mutations of the genes encoding these factors and their receptors (34–36). Studies showed that mentioned growth factors cannot be attributed to the major factors influencing preimplantation development, but perhaps they play some minor role.

Epidermal growth factor and transforming growth factor α

Epidermal growth factor (EGF) and transforming growth factor α (TGF- α) are the members of the epidermal growth factor family with similar amino acid sequence and ability to bind to the EGF receptor. In several species, EGF stimulates cell proliferation and differentiation (37), enhances mitogenesis, development, and implantation. Paria and Dey (38) showed that the development of singly cultured mouse embryos was markedly improved by addition of epidermal growth factor: blastocysts in the presence of EGF showed a higher incidence of zona hatching compared with those cultured singly

in the absence of EGF. Earlier it was suggested that EGF might have a role in the differentiation of the trophoctoderm cells (39). Transcripts for EGF were detected in human unfertilized oocytes and embryos between 8-cell and blastocyst stages on day 3 to 6 postinsemination (40). Due to the coculture of mouse embryos, the cell number and proportion developing to the blastocyst stage could be increased.

TGF, produced by embryo, may be bound to a transmembrane protein from which it is released by proteolytic cleavage. Hemmings et al. (1) showed that human embryos produce TGF- α to the cultivation medium and that activity of this protein can be documented on day 3 after fertilization. TGF- α may be involved in blastocyst growth, implantation, and early postimplantation development (41). Paria and Dey (38) found that TGF- α stimulated the development of 2-cell mouse embryos to blastocysts. Data show that TGF- α stimulates protein secretion into the blastocoels (42), affects formation of specific blastocyst proteins in mouse (43), and stimulates blastocyst growth in rabbits (44). Paria and Dey (38) suggested that TGF- α produced by the embryo participates in morula-to-blastocyst division, zona shedding, and blastocyst activation in an autocrine manner. Machida et al. (45) demonstrated the effect of growth factors on the mouse embryos. The results suggest that EGF and TGF- α play an important role in the implantation process by directly stimulating trophoblast development. There are multiple studies presenting clear evidence that specific growth factors of embryonic origin participate in preimplantation embryo development and blastocyst functions in an autocrine/paracrine way.

Platelet-derived growth factor

Platelet-derived growth factor B (PDGF-B) is a member of the platelet-derived growth factor family. The four members of this family are mitogenic factors for the cells of mesenchymal origin. Proteins can exist either as a homodimer (PDGF-BB) or as a heterodimer with the platelet-derived growth factor alpha polypeptide (PDGF-AB). PDGF is expressed in mouse preembryos (46) and in human placental cells (47). Lopata and Oliva (48) showed that PDGF receptor is expressed in human blastocysts as well. Transcripts for PDGF in human embryos were detected by reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (49). The authors proved the presence of PDGF-A at the oocyte, 8-cell, morula, and blastocyst stage, but not at 4-cell stage. According to Osterlund et al. (49), no RT-PCR products for PDGF B were detected at any developmental stage of human embryos. Although earlier Svalander et al. (50) reported PDGF presence in human blastocyst culture, no one later was able to prove these findings. Taking into account that PCR is considered

one of the most sensitive methods, it seems more likely that human embryos produce only PDGF-A. There is no doubt that PDGF is essential for formation of tissues and fetal development. Still little is known about the impact of PDGF A on preimplantation embryos. Taking into account that PDGF-A transcripts were found not in all embryos of the same developmental stage (49), there must be some correlation between embryo quality and developmental potential. Further investigation is required.

Colony-stimulating factor

Colony-stimulating factor 1 (CSF-1) is the growth factor for cells of the monocyte-macrophage

lineage. It is known to support the proliferation, survival, and differentiation of macrophages and to induce macrophages to secrete cytokines and proteases. CSF-1 has been suggested to play a role in trophoblastic growth and embryonic development. Observation was made that during pregnancy CSF-1 is secreted by the uterine epithelium with the coordinate expression of CSF-1R in the trophoblasts. Macrophage colony-stimulating factor accelerates the formation of the blastocyst cavity and increases embryonic cell number (51). Gene transcripts for the CSF-1 were not detected in mouse preimplantation embryos (52). Human embryos cultured in GM-CSF are twice as likely to reach the blastocyst stage of de-

Table 1. Expression of ligands of preimplantation human embryo-derived immune factors

| Factor | 2–4-cell stage | 6–8-cell stage | Blastocyst | Reference |
|---------------|----------------|----------------|------------|-----------|
| sHLA-G | + | + | | 11 |
| | + | | | 12 |
| PAF | | + | | 18 |
| CSF-1 | + | + | | 28 |
| | – | – | – | 58 |
| PDGF-A | | | + | 49 |
| PDGF-B | | | + | 50 |
| | – | – | – | 49 |
| IGF-I | | + | | 59 |
| | – | – | – | 32 |
| IGF-II | | | + | 1 |
| TGF- α | | | + | 1 |
| | | + | + | 40 |
| | + | + | | 59 |
| EGF | | + | + | 40 |
| IL | + | + | + | 28 |
| | + | + | + | 58 |
| | + | + | + | 60 |

Notes: +, ligand found; –, ligand not found. sHLA-G, soluble human leukocyte antigen G; PAF, platelet-activating factor; CSF-1, colony-stimulating factor 1; PDGF-A, platelet-derived growth factor A; PDGF-B, platelet-derived growth factor B; IGF-I, insulin-like growth factor I; IGF-II, insulin-like growth factor II; TGF- α , transforming growth factor α ; EGF, epidermal growth factor; IL, interleukin.

Table 2. Effect of preimplantation human embryo-derived immune factors on cell development and implantation

| Factor | Blastocyst formation | Cell proliferation and differentiation | Embryo implantation | Pregnancy rate |
|--------|----------------------|--|---------------------|----------------------------|
| sHLA-G | n. d. | + (63) + (11) | + (12) | + (61) + (12) + (11) |
| PAF | n. d. | n. d. | n. d. | + (2) + (18) |
| CSF | n. d. | n. d. | n. d. | n. d. |
| PDGF | n. d. | n. d. | n. d. | n. d. |
| IGF | + (32) | + (32) | n. d. | 0 (63) |
| | + (64) | + (64) | | |
| EGF | + (65) | + (37) | n. d. | + (63) |
| IL | n. d. | n. d. | + (27) | 0 (19) |

Notes: +, positive impact; 0, no impact; n.d., no data. sHLA-G, soluble human leukocyte antigen G; PAF, platelet-activating factor; CSF, colony-stimulating factor; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; IGF, insulin-like growth factor; EGF, epidermal growth factor; IL, interleukin. Numbers in brackets mean reference number.

velopment and have increased cell numbers both in the inner cell mass and trophoctoderm (53) with reduced apoptosis (54). In both mouse and human embryos, the effects of GM-CSF are mediated through binding to the subunit of the GM-CSF receptor (54, 55). Experiments with mouse embryos (deficiency of CSF-1 leads to the reduced number of blastomeres) (56) strongly suggest that this factor may play important roles in cell development and growth.

Concluding remarks

There are multiple factors responsible for cell fertilization, differentiation, proliferation, and implantation processes. The ultimate goal in in vitro fertilization cycle is implantation. However, the success of assisted reproductive technologies (ART) (implantation, pregnancy, birth rate) seems to be far from desired. Data from 75 individual groups presented in "The World Collaborative Report on in Vitro Fertilization and Embryo Replacement: Current State of the Art in January 1984" (57) showed an overall clinical pregnancy rate of 14.2%. Until now, the probability of a successful pregnancy during an IVF cycle is approximately 18%, with a baby take-home rate of about 14%. These numbers are not very different from the numbers occurring during natural cycles and can vary throughout different IVF clinics around the world. Patients and specialists are extremely interested in the possibility to find new methods to increase fertilization, implantation, and pregnancy rate after ART procedures.

One of the main tasks leading to the success of IVF procedure is the selection of an embryo with the best chances to implant. Now embryo selection is based only on morphological and cleavage criteria, although embryo viability is not strictly correlated with embryo quality. There is no doubt that creating noninvasive techniques for the selection of the best embryo is of major significance. The detection of soluble markers in the surrounding environment may be the way to control embryo selection and implantation in its very early stage without damage to the patient and embryo.

There is increasing evidence that human development before implantation is regulated by embryonically and maternally derived growth factors. Studies on other mammalian species have shown that the preimplantation embryo expresses a number of immune factors (Table 1). Furthermore, a number of growth factors have been shown to affect embryo development to the blastocyst stage, number of blastomeres, and implantation (Table 2). They also influence metabolism and apoptosis of cells. Supplementation of culture medium with exogenous growth factors affects cell fate, development, and metabolism of embryos in vitro. Therefore, an interest in the molecular factors involved in each phase of implantation and early pregnancy is very understandable. Hopefully, research in this area will help to reveal the mechanism controlling reproduction and will enable us to achieve better results in infertility treatment.

Žmogaus embrionų kultūros imuniniai veiksniai ir jų svarba

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Raktažodžiai: imuniniai veiksniai, embrionas, apvaisinimas mėgintuvėlyje.

Santrauka. Pateikiama vis daugiau įrodymų, kad ikiimplantacinį žmogaus vystymąsi reguliuoja embrioninės ir motininės kilmės augimo veiksniai. Tokie „regulatoriai“, kaip tirpus žmogaus leukocitų antigenas G, trombocitų aktyvuojamasis faktorius, Th1/Th2 citokinai, epidermio augimo faktorius, transformuojamasis augimo faktorius α , kolonijas stimuliuojamasis faktorius, trombocitų augimo faktorius, gali būti svarbūs nuspėjant embriono gyvybingumo ir implantacijos potencialą. Duomenys patvirtina augimo faktorių įtaką ikiimplantacinio embriono vystymuisi. Daugelis tyrimų, susijusių su biologiniais žymenimis, apima folikulogenezės ir implantacijos etapus, o tyrimų, kurie tyrinėtų embrioninės kilmės veiksnius *in vitro*, yra vos keli. Šiame straipsnyje siekėme apibendrinti tyrimų duomenis apie embrionų į auginimo terpę išskiriamus imuninius veiksnius bei jų svarbą ląstelės vystymuisi, gyvybingumui ir implantacijos potencialui.

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