

1 **Title:** Embryo gene expression in pig pregnancy

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13 **Summary:** Pregnancy is a complex process which significant changes occurring continually in both the corpora lutea
14 and in the endometrium of the females and varies depending on the embryonic, pre-implantation, or foetal stages. In the
15 embryonic stages, the majority of genes expressed in the pig embryo correspond to the loss of cellular pluripotency. In
16 contrast, the implantation consists of three phases: elongation of the conceptus, adhesion, and union of the embryo to
17 the endometrial epithelium. During these phases, many factors are expressed, including growth factors, molecules that
18 facilitate adhesion, and cytokines, among others. All these changes are ultimately regulated by different lipid and
19 hormonal substances, specifically by progesterone, oestradiol, and prostaglandins, which regulate the expression of
20 many proteins necessary for the development of the embryo, endometrial remodelling, and embryo-maternal
21 communication. This paper is a review of primary gene regulatory mechanisms in pigs during different stages of
22 implantation.

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24 **Keywords:** gene expression, molecular mechanisms, reproduction

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31 **Main text**

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33 **Pluripotency transcription factors**

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35 The most critical transcription factors related to pluripotency in all mammals species are the *Oct4* transcription factor
36 (belonging to the *POU* gene family), *Nanog* and *SOX2* transcription factor, expressed predominantly in pluripotent cells
37 (Boyer et al., 2006). Among these, previous studies have shown *Oct4* is required to cell differentiation processes in
38 different mammalian species, such as human, mice, rabbit and pig, and is expressed earlier, and required for embryonic
39 cells differentiation (Assadollahi et al., 2019; De Los Angeles et al., 2019; Dode et al., 2006; Fair et al., 2004; Llobat et
40 al., 2012; Shen et al., 2019). *Oct4* transcription factor binds to DNA during embryonic development and acts as a gene
41 activator or repressor during cell differentiation and early embryonic development (Smith et al., 2007). In pigs, *Oct4*
42 expression is present in trophoblast and inner cell mass (ICM) (Hall et al., 2009; Vejlsted et al., 2006). Both *Nanog* and
43 *SOX2* are expressed in swine ICM, and are also detected on day 8.5 in the early epiblast, whereas *Oct4* seems to start on
44 day 10 (du Puy et al., 2011; Hall et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2019; Yoon et al., 2019)

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46 However, in porcine and mouse ICM, other transcription factors related to pluripotency such as *GATA6* have been
47 detected (Kuijk et al., 2008; Meng et al., 2018; Schrode et al., 2014).. Nevertheless, Hall (2012) indicate a possible
48 entry of the embryo at rest due to the lack of genes expressed in the ICM, while during the same stage, the epiblast
49 expresses several genes, such as *SMAD* (1, 2, 3, 4 and 5) or *BMP4*, demonstrates higher pluripotent activity in porcine
50 epiblast than in ICM, which exhibits a very premature pluripotency (Hall et al., 2010; Hall & Hyttel, 2014; Kuijk et al.,
51 2008; Wolf et al., 2011). Furthermore, recent studies in cloned embryos showed the dependence of pluripotency-related
52 and apoptosis gene expression on epigenetic transformations (Samiec et al., 2019). The single-cell expression analysis
53 technique pluripotency-related genes in pig embryos, such as paired box 6 (*PAX6*) and aquaporin 3 (*AQP3*), and, in late
54 blastocysts, clathrin adaptor protein (*DAB2*), platelet-derived growth factor receptor alpha (*PDGFRA*), fibronectin 1
55 (*FNI*), hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 alpha (*HNF4A*), goosecoid homeobox (*GSC*), nuclear receptor subfamily 5 group A
56 member 2 (*NR5A2*) and lysine acetyltransferase 6A (*KAT6A*) (Wei et al., 2018). However, the underlying factors
57 involved in pluripotency and its regulation require further study.

58

59 **Vascular endothelial and transforming growth factors**

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61 The adhesion process can be affected by growth factors that regulate vascularisation and cell motility. One such factor
62 the vascular endothelial growth factor (*VEGF*), is associated with *de novo* vascularisation during processes such as
63 implantation, embryogenesis, menstrual cycle, development of luteal bodies, development of ovarian follicles and
64 tumorigenesis (Ferrara et al., 1998; Valdés et al., 2008). In pigs, *VEGF* expression has recently been associated with
65 foetal weights at 80 and 105 days of pregnancy (Guimarães et al., 2017). Moreover, studies in vitro shows an increase
66 development of porcine embryos *VEGF* dependent, suggesting *VEGF* functions related not only to vascularization, but
67 also to development and growth (Biswas et al., 2018).

68

69 Transforming growth factor superfamily (*TGF*) is another group of transcription factors present in embryos of different
70 species both before and during implantation. The *TGF- β* regulates blastocyst differentiation and maturation events,
71 including modulating the interactions between the uterus and embryo during implantation (Paria and Dey, 1990; Pauken
72 and Capco, 1999). In pigs, the expression of integrin-mediated *TGF- β* increases at the time of embryonic elongation and
73 pre-implantation. This increase is related to several functions of *TGF- β* in the maternal-embryonic interface, such as
74 communication between the endometrium and conceptus (Jaeger et al., 2005; Li et al., 2019). Furthermore, recent
75 studies have shown that *GFD8* (member of *TGF- β*) is involved in the expression of ICM marker *SOX2* during embryo
76 in vitro development, indicating their role in preimplantation embryonic development (Yoon et al., 2019). Other growth
77 factors, such fibroblast growth factor 2 (*FGF2*) and angiopoietins (*ANGPTs*), has been related to vascularization during
78 peri-implantation process, since it has recently been shown that prostaglandin increases the expression of *VEGF* in
79 trophoblast and *FGF* and *ANGPTs* in swine endometrium on days 15 and 20 (Kaczynski et al., 2019). These results
80 suggest an important function of different growth factors mediated by prostaglandins in embryo development and
81 creation of new blood vessels between endometrium and trophoblast in pigs.

82

83 **Family of Integrins**

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85 Integrins are adhesion molecules involved in the maternal-embryonic interaction in different species. Pigs show
86 increased expression of different integrin subunits in the endometrium on day 18 of pregnancy (*$\alpha V\beta 3$*). However,
87 integrin expression decreases on day 25 before implantation, which indicates a critical role for integrins during
88 elongation and implantation stages (Lin et al., 2007). Among the group of integrins and their subunits, osteopontin
89 (*SSPI*) is a phosphoprotein secreted by the matrix that binds integrin heterodimers *αV* and *$\beta 6$* subunits and promotes the
90 migration and binding of the trophoblast to the endometrium (Erikson et al., 2009). *SSPI* is involved in the

91 regulation of signalling events related to adhesion, including invasion by the trophoblast and its migration (Johnson et
92 al., 2003). In pigs, it was shown to contain an Arg-Gly-Asp (RGD) peptide sequence that joins the surface of the
93 endometrium with the trophoctoderm. *In vitro* studies showed that this peptide sequence is essential for both the
94 elongation of the blastocyst and later stages of pregnancy, since it activates the ion transporters, thereby increasing
95 nutrient transport (Laughlin et al., 2017). Furthermore, the mechanical forces from the union of the conceptus to the
96 endometrium appear to be generated from the focal adhesions created during implantation and formed by *SSPI* and the
97 αV subunit of the integrin. These focal adhesions are lost as placentation proceeds (Frank et al., 2017). The *SSPI* protein
98 present on the entire apical surface of the uterine cells and trophoctoderm Nevertheless its expression is limited to the
99 endometrium. Endometrial expression begins on day 11 and is induced by oestradiol to regulate maternal embryonic
100 recognition (Burghardt et al., 2002; Johnson et al., 2003). Besides, increased expression of *SSPI* in the porcine
101 endometrium has been observed between days 25-30, and remains until day 85, indicating the role of *SSPI* not only in
102 implantation, but also in later stages of pregnancy (Garlow et al., 2002). In pigs, the placenta is epitheliochorial, so that
103 the placental barrier includes both the trophoctoderm and the uterine epithelium (Wildman et al., 2006). Therefore, the
104 factors that regulate or are related to the process of implantation are of great importance in the placentation. Recent
105 studies showed relationship between foetal size and integrin expression, since regulate adhesion and foeto-maternal
106 interface by interacting with *SSPI* (Stenhouse et al., 2019). Concretely, *SSPI* has a fundamental role, primarily in the
107 non-invasive epitheliochorial placentation, and similar relates to processes that are occurring in pigs (Garlow et al.,
108 2002; Rashev et al., 2005).

109

110 **Cytokines**

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112 Cytokines are a group of proteins and glycoproteins (interleukins (*IL*), tumour necrosis factors (*TNF*), interferons (*IFN*),
113 colony-stimulating factors (*CSFs*), and chemokines) produced by different cell types that act primarily as regulators of
114 immune and inflammatory responses and are essential for maternal-embryonic recognition (Sharkey, 1998).
115 Aproximately at day 12, pig embryo secretes *IFNs* (γ and δ), and *IL* (1B and 6) (Bazer, 2013). Specifically, the
116 expression of interleukin 1 β , *IL1B2* increases in the pig embryo around day 14, indicating cytokine requirement for
117 conceptus elongation and attachment to the uterine wall (Whyte et al., 2018). Other interleukins, such as *IL-2* or *IL-4*,
118 are produced by the foetal and maternal placentas from day-30, suggesting their role in maternal-foetal recognition
119 (Vélez et al., 2019). Other important cytokines for successful pregnancy are interferons (*IFN*), which are classified into
120 two families, type I and II interferons. The type II interferon family is composed of a single known gene, whose product

121 is γ interferon (De Maeyer and De Maeyer-Guignard, 1992), the primary product of T cells, and is found in different
122 placental cell types, and human embryonic membrane and porcine trophoblast cells (Bazer et al., 1997). The other
123 group of interferons, type I, is composed of different subtypes with similar biological properties, and interaction with
124 the same receptor. This group includes interferons α , β , δ , ω and interferon τ . Each subtype is different from each other
125 in their amino acid sequence and serological properties, although all are involved in maternal-embryonic recognition
126 (Aboagye-Mathiesen et al., 1995; Charlier et al., 1993; Charpigny et al., 1988; Cross and Roberts, 1989; Fung et al.,
127 2004; Godornes et al., 2007; Imakawa et al., 1987; Kawasaki et al., 1992; Li et al., 2007; Muscettola et al., 2003).
128 During pregnancy in pigs, interferons exert both paracrine and autocrine effects; however, the effects in the uterus are
129 not well understood, although expression of interferon γ type 2 has been observed in the trophectoderm cells (Lefèvre et
130 al., 1998). In addition, the conceptus also expresses interferons, specifically γ and δ interferons between days 12-20 of
131 gestation (Cencic et al., 2003; Cencic and La Bonnardière, 2002; Joyce et al., 2007a, 2007b). The expression of
132 interferon-stimulated genes (*ISG*), including *Mx*, *ISG15/17*, *IRF1*, *STAT1*, and *STAT2*, is limited to specific uterine cells
133 in pigs between days 14-18 of pregnancy (Hicks et al., 2003; Joyce et al., 2007a). The induction of *ISG* expression
134 occurs, not only in pigs, but also in other mammalian species such as sheep, cows, mice, rat, primates, and humans,
135 suggesting that the induction of *IFN* promotes the gene expression in the uterine epithelium to facilitate implantation,
136 placentation, and foetal development (Bazer et al., 2011). Recently, it has been shown that the *IFN- γ* in the porcine
137 trophoblast influences the expression of specific chemokines (*CCL2*, *CCL5*, *CCL11*, and *CXCL12*) required for
138 endometrial communication with the trophoblast or recruitment of immune cells and establishment of an
139 immunotolerant environment (*CXCL9*, *CXCL10*) for the embryo (Złotkowska and Andronowska, 2019).

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141 **Insulin-like growth factors**

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143 Insulin-like growth factors (*IGFs*) are polypeptides with insulin-like sequences with mitogenic properties, for inducing
144 proliferation and growth of somatic cells (Rinderknecht and Humbel, 1978). *IGFs* are also required for the regulation of
145 amino acid and glucose transport in the placenta (Ashton and Spencer, 1983; Kniss et al., 1994). Type I receptor (*IGF-*
146 *IR*) is a transmembrane tetrameric glycoprotein that resembles the insulin receptor and has a high affinity for both *IGF-I*
147 and *IGF-II* (Germain-Lee et al., 1992; Ullrich et al., 1986). In contrast, the type II receptor (*IGF-IIIR*) is a single chain
148 polypeptide with a high affinity for *IGF-II* and is unable to bind *IGF-I* or insulin (Liu et al., 1993). *IGF* deficiencies
149 exhibit distinct functional differences, and studies with *IGF-IIIR* knock-out mice showed excessive placental and foetal
150 growth (Kitamura et al., 2003). Studies in humans showed that mutations in the *IGF-IR* gene resulted in reduced

151 functionality associated with low pre- and post-natal growth, or that excessive foetal growth occurs when *IGF-II* is
152 overexpressed (Abuzzahab et al., 2003; Lau et al., 1994; Murrell et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2017). These results
153 demonstrate that *IGFs*, together with their receptors, have an important role in the regulation of foetal and placental
154 growth in most species (Wilson et al., 1982). Also, Fant and colleagues (1986) showed that the placenta produces both
155 *IGF-I* and *IGF-II*, which act as local growth regulators in human. Specifically, *IGF-II* is expressed predominantly in the
156 placenta, with both paracrine and autocrine functions, which are especially important during implantation and
157 trophoblastic invasion (Giudice, 1997; Hamilton et al., 1997). However, the *IGFs* are not only related to the foetal and
158 placental growth but also regulate different signalling cascades to promote both cell proliferation and differentiation
159 (Clemmons & Maile, 2005; Kitamura et al., 2003). Studies with preimplantation mouse embryos showed that decreased
160 *IGF-IR* induced apoptosis through a cascade of signal transduction pathways and enhanced embryonic resorption (Chi
161 et al., 2000). Similar studies demonstrated the relationship between *IGFs* and embryonic losses in rat, pig, or humans
162 (Katagiri et al., 1997; Pinto et al., 2002; Sferruzzi-Perri et al., 2007, 2006). The final group in the *IGF* family is the
163 IGF-binding protein group (*IGFBP*), a large group in humans consisting of six different proteins (Denley et al., 2005).
164 Of these, dephosphorylated *IGFBP-1* is found in the serum of pregnant women (Westwood et al., 1994), while *IGFBP-*
165 *3* is produced by the placenta and foetal membranes (Han, 1996; Rogers et al., 1996). *IGFBP-1* is involved in the
166 regulation of *IGFs* by inhibiting their functions, such as cell proliferation and differentiation, and trophoblastic
167 migration (Gleeson et al., 2001; Hamilton et al., 1997; Irving et al., 1995; Ritvos et al., 1988). In pigs, the expression of
168 *IGF-I* is explicitly observed in both the uterine lumen and glandular epithelium of pregnant pigs, while the *IGF-IR* is
169 expressed in endometrial cells and the embryo, indicating the presence of both paracrine and autocrine functions
170 (Letcher et al., 1989).

171

172 **Conclusions**

173

174 During different pregnancy stages in pigs, several cellular and molecular mechanisms are activated, each involving
175 different transcription factors, growth factors, cytokines and others, related to cell differentiation, implantation,
176 placentation, vascularisation and maternal-embryonic recognition. Despite extensive knowledge of these factors, the
177 interaction of these factors with each other and the metabolic pathways involved remain to be clarified. The use of new
178 technologies, such as single-cell gene expression, could help reveal the genes involved and their interactions. However,
179 many questions about these and other molecules, as well as the interactions between them, remain to be discovered.

180

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185

186 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

187

188 The author are not conflict of interest.

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190 **Data Availability Statement**

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192 Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analysed in this study.

193

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