

Accepted Manuscript

Embryo- and endometrium-derived exosomes and their potential role in assisted reproductive treatments—liquid biopsies for endometrial receptivity

Hayden Homer, Gregory E. Rice, Carlos Salomon



PII: S0143-4004(16)30658-0

DOI: [10.1016/j.placenta.2016.12.011](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.placenta.2016.12.011)

Reference: YPLAC 3524

To appear in: *Placenta*

Received Date: 30 October 2016

Revised Date: 8 December 2016

Accepted Date: 8 December 2016

Please cite this article as: Homer H, Rice GE, Salomon C, Embryo- and endometrium-derived exosomes and their potential role in assisted reproductive treatments—liquid biopsies for endometrial receptivity, *Placenta* (2017), doi: 10.1016/j.placenta.2016.12.011.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

1 Embryo- and endometrium-derived exosomes and their potential role in assisted reproductive
2 treatments – liquid biopsies for endometrial receptivity

3

4 Hayden Homer¹, Gregory E. Rice^{2,3} and *Carlos Salomon^{2,3}

5

6 ¹Christopher Chen Oocyte Biology Research Laboratory, University of Queensland Centre
7 for Clinical Research. ²Exosome Biology Laboratory, Centre for Clinical Diagnostics,
8 University of Queensland Centre for Clinical Research, Royal Brisbane and Women's
9 Hospital, The University of Queensland, Brisbane QLD 4029, Australia. ³Maternal-Fetal
10 Medicine, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Ochsner Clinic Foundation, New
11 Orleans, USA.

12

13

14

***Correspondence:** Dr Carlos Salomon PhD, DMedSc, MSc, BSc

Head of the Exosome Biology Laboratory | Center for Clinical
Diagnostics | UQ Centre for Clinical Research | The University of
Queensland | Building 71/918 | Royal Brisbane Hospital | Herston
QLD 4029 | Faculty of Health Sciences | University of Queensland
Phone: +61 7 33465500 | Fax: +61 7 3346 5509 |
Email: c.salomongallo@uq.edu.au | Web: www.uqccr.uq.edu.au/

15

16

17 **Abstract**

18

19 Multiple pregnancies resulting from the transfer of more than one embryo pose a significant
20 threat to offspring born through Assisted Reproductive Treatments (ART). Transferring one
21 embryo at a time would eliminate this risk. However, current approaches of identifying the
22 highest quality embryo to transfer are either unreliable (*e.g.* morphology assessment) or
23 highly invasive and potentially detrimental to embryos (*e.g.* PGD). Approaches for non-
24 invasive embryo selection would be a major advancement that would increase efficiency and
25 reduce both the costs and the risks associated with ART. Exosomes are a particular subtype
26 of extracellular vesicles (EVs) that are secreted from a wide range of cells, including
27 placental and endometrium cells. Exosomes are very stable vesicles that contain a broad
28 spectrum of molecules, including proteins, mRNAs and miRNAs. Very little is known about
29 this form of cell-to-cell communication in the context of ovarian follicular biology and
30 implantation, but emerging data suggest that exosomes secreted by the blastocyst could
31 influence gene expression and receptivity of endometrial cells thereby controlling its own
32 implantation. Here we review emerging findings regarding exosomal signalling in
33 reproductive biology and the prospects for mapping blastocyst-derived exosomal profiles as a
34 means for supporting single embryo transfer policies.

35

36 Introduction

37 Implantation involves intricate communication between embryos and the maternal
38 endometrium. Increasing interest is centred on extracellular vesicles (EVs) and their
39 contained cargo, particularly microRNAs (miRs), as important mediators of this dialogue [1,
40 2]. Recently, a role for EVs in cell-to-cell communication has been established [3]

41 EVs are classified according to their size and origin into exosomes and microvesicles (MVs).
42 Microvesicles are released from budding of plasmatic membrane (PM) while exosomes
43 originate in the endosomal compartment (early and late endosomes) (Figure 1). Exosomes
44 circulate inside the cells as intraluminal vesicles (ILV), which are incorporated in the early to
45 late endosome and multivesicular bodies (MVB) and then travel to the PM and are released
46 by fusion of the MVB and PM to the extracellular environment as exosomes [4]. Exosomes
47 and MVs contain a wide array of molecules, including proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids.

48 Protein constituents of EVs have been widely studied due to their roles in signalling cascades.
49 As such, the delivery of proteins via exosomes may shape the bioactivity of target cells and
50 tissues. For example, EVs contain matrix metalloproteinases, commonly secreted in the EVs
51 of tumours in particular leading to potentially oncogenic effects. It has also been found that
52 exosomes may contain a subset of proteins that is dependent on the cell type of origin. On the
53 other hand, exosomes also contain proteins such as membrane-derived proteins and
54 endosomal proteins that are ubiquitously found in most exosomes. Contrastingly, proteins
55 derived from other organelles such as the Golgi apparatus and the endoplasmic reticulum are
56 not included in most exosomes [4]. Some proteins highly abundance in EVs, particularly
57 exosomes, include ALIX, TSG101, CD63, and CD81. MHC II molecules are also found
58 abundantly in MVs. Nucleic acids are also a notable component within EVs. Valadi *et al.*
59 uncovered the presence of mRNA and miRNA in exosomes, thus further broadening the
60 understanding of exosomal content [5]. mRNA has also been reportedly found in MVs. Thus,

61 this content suggests EVs, particularly MVs and exosomes, may be a pathway for the transfer
62 of genetic information and the alteration of gene expression in recipient cells. Notably,
63 mRNA inside EVs is resistant to digestion by RNase treatment [6]. Lipid composition of
64 EVs has not been as extensively studied. However, it has been found that EVs tend to be
65 enriched in sphingomyelin, saturated fatty acids, and cholesterol. Exosomes are particularly
66 thought to be enriched with ganglioside GM3 and ceramide derivatives. Variations in lipid
67 content may be indicative of different origins from the plasma membrane, including lipid
68 rafts. It is also noteworthy that the composition of EVs changes based on the extracellular
69 environment, as illustrated by various studies. For example, RNA and protein content of EVs
70 may be altered due to vascular injury or acidic environments as occurs in cancer.

71 The mechanisms involved in the incorporation of specific molecules such as proteins and
72 RNAs in EVs remain to be established, however, there exists a paucity of data showing that
73 changes in the microenvironment milieu regulates the secretion and composition of this
74 vesicles in a wide range of cells including placental cells [7-10]. Moreover, placental
75 exosomal signalling has been characterised across gestation [11-13], and placental exosomes
76 are involved in the maternal immunological response during pregnancy [8, 14].

77 Here we review recent findings pertaining to EVs secreted by embryos and endometrial
78 epithelium with a particular focus on instances in which mechanistic pathways have been
79 elucidated. Because miRs are a prominent cargo of EVs mediating many of their effects [4],
80 reference will also be made to new findings involving miRs. For more extensive accounts of
81 miRs during implantation the reader is referred to recent reviews on this topic [15, 16].

82

83 **Overview of implantation and extracellular vesicles**

84 Successful pregnancy depends on proper implantation involving three recognised stages,
85 apposition, attachment (or adherence) and invasion. Completion of these stages in turn
86 depends on a receptive endometrium, a viable embryo at the appropriate developmental stage
87 and a well-orchestrated dialogue between the two. Inadequate implantation can result in
88 spontaneous miscarriage whilst defects in trophoblast invasion required for proper placental
89 formation predispose to complications of later pregnancy such as pre-eclampsia and
90 intrauterine growth restriction. Surprisingly little is known about the molecular details
91 underpinning a productive embryo-endometrium rapport.

92 In recent years, there has been increasing interest in the role of EVs, particularly
93 microvesicles (MVs) and exosomes, in mediating the embryo-endometrial cross-talk [1]. EVs
94 contain diverse cargo including cell surface receptors, lipids, messenger RNAs (mRNAs),
95 miRs, proteins and even DNA, and are identified by their size and the presence of cell surface
96 markers such as the tetraspanins, CD9, CD81 and CD63 [4]. EVs are increasingly recognised
97 as an important mode of cell-to-cell communication as they can transfer their contents to
98 other cells thereby altering the recipient's behaviour [17].

99

100 **Embryo-derived pathways involving EVs and their cargo**

101 Surprisingly little is known about EVs secreted by preimplanted mammalian embryos.
102 Indeed, in a review in 2014, it was noted that embryo-derived EVs had not yet been reported
103 [2]. Since then, two papers have investigated embryo-secreted EVs whilst the majority have
104 studied embryo-secreted miRs, a well-known EV cargo. miRs are small (18-23 nucleotide)
105 non-coding RNA sequences that are largely regarded as post-transcriptional silencers of gene
106 expression through engaging the 3' untranslated region of target mRNAs via complementary
107 base-pairing leading to their degradation or repression [18].

108

109 **Embryo-derived EVs exert extra- and intra-embryonic effects**

110 Two papers have shown that EVs produced by embryos contain cargo that can influence the
111 behaviour of neighbouring cells [19, 20]. In one case the cargo is mRNA with the potential to
112 impact the viability of other embryos [20] whilst in the other case EVs are proposed to shuttle
113 protein from embryonic stem cells (ES cells) of the inner cell mass (ICM) to trophectoderm
114 cells [19].

115 Exosomes and MVs have been isolated from conditioned media following culture of
116 parthenogenetic porcine embryos. These EVs were found to contain mRNAs for the
117 pluripotency genes, Oct4, Sox2, Klf4, c-Myc and Nanog [20]. The authors found that the *in*
118 *vitro* blastocyst development rates of cloned embryos (produced by somatic nuclear transfer
119 into enucleated oocytes) were more than doubled by co-culturing them with parthenogenetic
120 embryos. Notably, co-cultured cloned embryos exhibited increased expression of Oct4, Klf4
121 and Nanog. Since these were the cargo of EVs isolated from conditioned media, this raised
122 the possibility that the transfer of pluripotency factors via EVs could have a role to play in
123 improved development. As proof-of-concept that embryos could assimilate EVs from the
124 surrounding environment, purified exosomes/MVs derived from parthenogenetic embryo
125 conditioned media were labelled with the green fluorescent dye, PKH67 (which stably
126 incorporates into lipid regions of cell membranes). Culturing cloned embryos with PKH67-
127 labelled EVs for 22 hours led to the appearance of green fluorescence signals in cloned
128 blastomeres consistent with uptake of EVs from the media. Interestingly, although it appeared
129 that transfer of EVs during co-culture improved cloned porcine embryo development, bolus
130 addition of parthenogenetic embryo conditioned media was not beneficial [20]. The authors
131 speculated that this could be because of the need for continuous mRNA transfer due to the

132 active destruction and reduced translational potential of foreign mRNA. Taken together, these
133 data show that mammalian embryos secrete EVs into their surrounding environment and
134 support the notion that such EVs can be taken up by neighbouring cells to influence their
135 development.

136 A very recent paper found that MVs were shed by mouse ES cells, which are derived from
137 the ICM of the blastocyst [19]. These MVs were shown to express the extracellular matrix
138 proteins, fibronectin and laminin $\alpha 5$. Moreover, MV fibronectin and laminin interacted with
139 integrin receptors on trophoblast cells in turn leading to the activation of focal adhesion
140 kinase (FAK) and c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK), which are often implicated in promoting
141 cell migration. Indeed, using an *in vitro* migration assay, the authors could show that either
142 ES cell spent media or EVs purified from spent media promoted trophoblast migration that
143 was abolished when FAK and JNK activation were inhibited. To determine whether ES cell-
144 derived MVs could promote trophoblast migration and invasion of intact murine blastocysts,
145 an elegant approach was used involving ES cells expressing a plasma membrane-targeted
146 green fluorescent protein (PM-GFP), which produced fluorescent MVs. Fluorescence that
147 was restricted to the trophectoderm following microinjection of blastocysts with purified
148 fluorescent MVs from PM-GFP-expressing ES cells supported that trophectoderm could
149 indeed internalise MVs produced by cells in the ICM. Strikingly, following transfer to the
150 uteri of surrogate females, blastocysts injected with MVs from ES cells exhibited
151 significantly increased implantation rates entirely in keeping with *in vitro* data showing that
152 ES cell MVs augmented trophoblast migration [19]. Unlike the majority of studies that have
153 focused on communication between maternal tissue and embryonic trophoblast during
154 implantation, here the authors reveal a novel pathway of signalling between the two major
155 compartments of the preimplantation embryo that ultimately promotes implantation.

156

157 Evidence for miRNA secretion from human embryos

158 It has been established that exosomes provide a protective and enriched source of miRs [6].
159 The foregoing studies demonstrated that EVs are secreted by mouse and porcine embryos.
160 Human embryos are routinely cultured as part of *in vitro* fertilisation (IVF) treatment and
161 therefore present an opportunity to investigate their secretory products, especially since
162 analysis of spent media does not incur any risk to the embryo or compromise the patient's
163 treatment success. Significantly however, EVs have not yet been shown to be secreted by
164 human embryos. In addition, initial attempts to isolate miRs from spent human blastocyst
165 media were unsuccessful. However, in recent years, miRs have been identified in spent media
166 from human blastocysts derived from IVF treatment [21-25].

167 Kropp et al. probed for the presence of 5 miRs and identified miRs in spent media following
168 culture of human and bovine embryos [23]. Around the same time, Rosenbluth and co-
169 workers profiled 754 miRs and detected 10, of which only two (miR-372 and miR-191) were
170 specific to human embryo conditioned media [25]. Both miRs were increased in spent media
171 derived from embryos that were fertilised using intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI)
172 compared to those fertilised by standard insemination. Three miRs (miR-372, miR-191 and
173 miR-645) were differentially expressed in conditioned media from non-ICSI cycles
174 depending on whether or not the blastocyst led to a successful pregnancy whilst miR-191
175 alone was enriched in spent media from aneuploid embryos versus euploid ones [25].

176 Capalbo et al. found that 59 out of 377 miRs could be detected in 3 out of 5 replicates of
177 spent media from human blastocysts [21]. Furthermore, 57 of these 59 miRs (96.6%) could
178 also be detected in biopsied trophectoderm cells suggesting their release from blastocysts
179 into media. They next sought to determine whether miR profiles in spent media might
180 correlate with implantation potential. To rule out confounding effects of embryonic

181 aneuploidy, analyses were restricted to embryos that were proven to be euploid by
182 comprehensive chromosome screening of trophoctoderm biopsies. Spent media from 53
183 euploid blastocysts were prospectively analysed, 25 of which resulted in an on-going
184 pregnancy. Two miRs (miR-20a and miR-30c) were found to be increased in media from
185 implanting blastocysts and 5miRs (miR-220, miR-146b-3p, miR512-3p, miR-34c and miR-
186 375) were preferentially detected with implanted blastocysts. Interestingly, based on in silico
187 prediction and experimentally validated miR targets, miR-20a and miR-30c miRNAs would
188 be predicted to influence endometrial cell growth and proliferation [21].

189 The same group subsequently compared the profiles of 377 miR sequences in spent media
190 from “twin” human blastocysts created by artificial embryo splitting at the cleavage stage
191 with that of control blastocysts that produced healthy pregnancies [24]. They found 59 miRs
192 secreted by control blastocysts and 48 miRs by twin embryos of which, only 22 were shared.
193 Interestingly, in twin embryo spent media, they found significantly lower levels of miR-30c,
194 which they previously identified as a putative biomarker of implantation potential.

195

196 **Embryo-mediated regulation of the uterine epithelium**

197 Studies showing that embryos secrete EVs and/or miRs, which target genes predicted to
198 mediate cellular activities such as adhesion and migration, suggest that embryos could
199 potentially modify implantation events. The next question pertains to whether secreted
200 miRs/EVs can be internalised by uterine cells and can alter endometrial function and
201 implantation.

202 Cuman et al. showed that human blastocysts secrete miRs into media and went one step
203 further by interrogating the mechanisms by which the secreted miRs might influence
204 implantation [22]. Using a 784 miR array panel, they found that the miR profile of spent

205 media from human blastocysts failing to implant differed markedly from implanting media
206 and identified miR-661 as the most highly differentially expressed miR. *In vitro* studies
207 showed that miR-661 was readily internalised by primary human endometrial epithelial cells
208 (HEEC) cultured in non-implanting spent media supporting that human endometrial cells
209 could take up blastocyst-secreted miR-661. Following ultracentrifugation of spent media,
210 miR-661 did not co-segregate with the pellet containing MVs but was enriched in the
211 supernatant where it co-immunoprecipitated with the RNA binding complex (RBC) protein,
212 Argonaute 1, indicating that miR transport involved RBC-binding rather than encapsulation
213 within MVs. *In silico* analyses revealed that miR-661 targets included genes involved in
214 adhesion/invasion. Significantly, the protein levels of two of these genes, *PVRL1* and *MTA2*,
215 which were shown to be expressed in human endometrial glandular and luminal epithelial
216 sections, were down-regulated in HEEC exposed to miR-661-containing conditioned media.
217 Collectively, these data indicated that miR-661 could be secreted from blastocysts and taken
218 up by endometrial cells to reduce the expression of key pro-implantation factors. To further
219 test this, the authors employed an *in vitro* adhesion assay and showed that adhesion of
220 spheroids to HEEC was severely hampered following miR-661 treatment and importantly,
221 that protecting *PVRL1* from being targeted by miR-661 could rescue adhesion [22]. Although
222 MV-dependent pathways are the focus of this review and miR-661 in this paper partnered
223 with RBC rather than MVs, it nevertheless provides compelling proof-of-concept that
224 embryos actively modulate endometrial receptivity via miR-mediated pathways and offer a
225 paradigm by which EV cargo might also influence implantation through their miR cargo. It is
226 possible that miR cargo might act at the epigenetic level to bring about changes in
227 endometrial gene expression. In line with this, transient over-expression of miR-30d in HEEC
228 led to changes in the levels of regulatory factors involved in DNA methylation such as DNA
229 methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1)[26].

230 Whilst miRs and/or EVs might be taken up *in vitro* by cultured cell-lines as shown in the
231 above study, does this also apply in the *in vivo* context of a 3-dimensional uterine cavity?
232 Recent data from the ovine model provide evidence in this regard [27]. In sheep, attachment
233 to the uterine epithelium begins by Day 16 post-mating at the filamentous stage, an elongated
234 stage that arises 8 days after blastocyst hatching. Conditioned media obtained following *in*
235 *vitro* culture of elongated Day 14 conceptuses for 24 h was found to contain EVs with an
236 average diameter of 150 nm and a size range consistent with both exosomes and MVs. Mass
237 spectrometry analysis of EV content identified 231 proteins while RNA sequencing detected
238 512 mRNAs. To investigate which cells were targeted by embryo-secreted EVs, an *in vivo*
239 model was used in which EVs isolated from spent media were first labelled *in vitro* with the
240 PKH67 green fluorescent dye and then infused into the uterine horn using a catheter and
241 osmotic pump from Days 8-14 postestrus prior to necropsy [27]. Distinct green fluorescence
242 signals were observed in cross-sections of luminal epithelium and superficial glandular
243 epithelium of the uterine horn but not in the uterine stroma or myometrium or more distant
244 sites such as ovary, parametrial lymph nodes or lung. Thus, these findings provide evidence
245 that uterine epithelia can take up EVs secreted by embryos *in vivo*.

246

247 **Extracellular vesicles secreted by the endometrium**

248 The success of human pregnancy is dependent of the interaction between blastocyst and
249 endometrium. The human endometrium is a complex tissue in which the implantation takes
250 place [28]. The endometrium exhibits several morphological changes that allow the
251 interaction with the blastocyst. Interestingly, it has been proposed that exosomes secreted
252 from the endometrium influence the blastocyst to attach and invade the endometrial
253 epithelium [29, 30]. Synchronous crosstalk between the endometrium and blastocyst in the

254 placental developmental and pre-implantation phase is essential for initiating pregnancy. It
255 has previously been suggested that the endometrial luminal epithelium may become more or
256 less receptive to extracellular signals through molecular exchange by exosomes and other
257 EVs. Ng et al., suggested that exosomes could be released from the endometrial epithelium,
258 thereby transferring molecular cargo to the blastocyst or the endometrium. Exosomes as well
259 as MVs were found to be present in preparations of uterine fluid/mucus and endometrial
260 epithelial cells. miRNA were found to be sorted into exosomes/MVs, with 13 of the 227
261 isolated miRNAs being exclusively found to the EVs. Has-miR-200c, has-miR-17 and has-
262 miR-106a were found at the highest levels within the EVs. Bioinformatic analysis revealed
263 that these particular miRNAs may have roles in biological processes associated with
264 implantation [30]. The endometrium is marked by cyclical changes, including the transitions
265 between the proliferative (nonreceptive) and secretory (receptive) phases throughout
266 menstruation. During the non-receptive phase, these transitions are modulated by estrogen.
267 On the other hand, progesterone is the key modulatory factor during the receptive phase.
268 Recently, Greening *et al.*, have establish that the exosomal cargo is regulated by both
269 hormones, as well as the phase of the menstrual cycle during which the exosome is packaged
270 and secreted [29]. Interestingly, uptake of exosomes and release of exosomal content has
271 been associated with changes in the properties of trophoblasts. For example, exosomal uptake
272 has been linked to increased trophoblast adhesive capacity at the time of implantation.

273 Proteomic analysis in exosomes isolated from endometrial cells suggest that glycoproteins
274 (fibulin-1, in particular) and integrins in exosomes are associated with cell adhesion factors,
275 cell migration, and remodeling of the ECM. Furthermore, Fibulin-1, was expressed ~9-fold
276 higher in estrogen/progesterone exosomes, compared to estrogen exosomes [29]. This
277 suggests selective packaging of integrins into endometrium-derived exosomes. Taken
278 together, these results suggest that endometrium exosomes may play an important role in cell-

279 to-cell communication crosstalk between the endometrium and blastocyst during
280 implantation. Therefore, exosomes of endometrial origin may be a platform for potentiating
281 implantation of the embryo and enhancing fertility and gestational outcomes.

282

283 **Potential clinical applications**

284 Recent IVF data for Australia show that of 71,516 initiated IVF cycles in 2013, only 23.8%
285 resulted in a clinical pregnancy and even fewer, 18.2%, in a live delivery. To increase success
286 rates, the temptation is to transfer more than one embryo but at the risk of increasing perinatal
287 morbidity well-known to be associated with multiple pregnancies. A major reason for poor
288 success rates is failed implantation. Surprisingly however, very little is known regarding the
289 molecular embryo-endometrium “cross-talk” required for successful implantation. Exosomes
290 mediate communication between different cell-types via their content of signalling molecules
291 including miRNAs and mRNAs. An intriguing possibility is that the miRNA profile of
292 exosomes from high-quality blastocysts is pivotal for their higher implantation potential and
293 that defining such a profile could improve embryo selection capability and greatly refine
294 Assisted Reproductive Treatment (Figure 2). The capacity to identify a predictive biomarker
295 from spent media – and therefore at no risk to the embryo – would be a powerful non-
296 invasive innovation. This can be contrasted with current selection approaches involving
297 tedious scoring systems for embryologic morphology, which have notoriously poor predictive
298 value, and invasive embryo biopsy for chromosomal analyses, which are traumatic to
299 embryos. It should be noted however, that EVs have been reported to be present in IVF
300 culture media alone [2]. Furthermore, some findings indicate that media components such as
301 protein supplements could be miRNA carriers [23, 25]. Use of spent media would therefore
302 need to take into account possible contaminants from the media itself, which could vary from

303 one lab to the next if different media formulations are used, making it important to
304 incorporate steps for ensuring that only embryo-derived products are being analysed. Given
305 that exosomes secreted by the endometrium might promote implantation, another potential
306 clinical application could be the delivery of specific cargo via exosomes into the uterine
307 cavity for the purposes of enhancing embryonic implantation and placentation.

308

309

310

311 **References**

- 312 [1] Machtinger R, Laurent LC and Baccarelli AA. Extracellular vesicles: roles in gamete maturation,
313 fertilization and embryo implantation. *Hum Reprod Update*. 2016;22(2):182-93.
- 314 [2] Tannetta D, Dragovic R, Alyahyaei Z and Southcombe J. Extracellular vesicles and reproduction-
315 promotion of successful pregnancy. *Cell Mol Immunol*. 2014;11(6):548-63.
- 316 [3] Théry C. Exosomes: secreted vesicles and intercellular communications. *F1000 biology reports*.
317 2011;3:15.
- 318 [4] Colombo M, Raposo G and Théry C. Biogenesis, secretion, and intercellular interactions of
319 exosomes and other extracellular vesicles. *Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol*. 2014;30:255-89.
- 320 [5] Valadi H, Ekstrom K, Bossios A, Sjostrand M, Lee JJ and Lotvall JO. Exosome-mediated transfer of
321 mRNAs and microRNAs is a novel mechanism of genetic exchange between cells. *Nature Cell Biology*.
322 2007;9(6):654-U72.
- 323 [6] Cheng L, Sharples RA, Scicluna BJ and Hill AF. Exosomes provide a protective and enriched source
324 of miRNA for biomarker profiling compared to intracellular and cell-free blood. *Journal of*
325 *extracellular vesicles*. 2014;3.
- 326 [7] Salomon C, Kobayashi M, Ashman K, Sobrevia L, Mitchell MD and Rice GE. Hypoxia-induced
327 changes in the bioactivity of cytotrophoblast-derived exosomes. *PLoS One*. 2013;8(11):e79636.
- 328 [8] Mincheva-Nilsson L and Baranov V. Placenta-derived exosomes and syncytiotrophoblast
329 microparticles and their role in human reproduction: immune modulation for pregnancy success. *Am*
330 *J Reprod Immunol*. 2014;72(5):440-57.
- 331 [9] Salomon C, Yee S, Scholz-Romero K, Kobayashi M, Vaswani K, Kvaskoff D, Illanes SE, Mitchell MD
332 and Rice GE. Extravillous trophoblast cells-derived exosomes promote vascular smooth muscle cell
333 migration. *Frontiers in pharmacology*. 2014;5:175.
- 334 [10] Rice GE, Scholz-Romero K, Sweeney E, Peiris H, Kobayashi M, Duncombe G, Mitchell MD and
335 Salomon C. The Effect of Glucose on the Release and Bioactivity of Exosomes From First Trimester
336 Trophoblast Cells. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2015;100(10):E1280-8.
- 337 [11] Salomon C, Torres MJ, Kobayashi M, Scholz-Romero K, Sobrevia L, Dobierzewska A, Illanes SE,
338 Mitchell MD and Rice GE. A gestational profile of placental exosomes in maternal plasma and their
339 effects on endothelial cell migration. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(6):e98667.

- 340 [12] Sarker S, Scholz-Romero K, Perez A, Illanes SE, Mitchell MD, Rice GE and Salomon C. Placenta-
341 derived exosomes continuously increase in maternal circulation over the first trimester of
342 pregnancy. *J Transl Med.* 2014;12:204.
- 343 [13] Salomon C, Scholz-Romero K, Sarker S, Sweeney E, Kobayashi M, Correa P, Longo S, Duncombe
344 G, Mitchell MD, Rice GE and Illanes SE. Gestational Diabetes Mellitus Is Associated With Changes in
345 the Concentration and Bioactivity of Placenta-Derived Exosomes in Maternal Circulation Across
346 Gestation. *Diabetes.* 2016;65(3):598-609.
- 347 [14] Stenqvist AC, Nagaeva O, Baranov V and Mincheva-Nilsson L. Exosomes secreted by human
348 placenta carry functional Fas ligand and TRAIL molecules and convey apoptosis in activated immune
349 cells, suggesting exosome-mediated immune privilege of the fetus. *J Immunol.* 2013;191(11):5515-
350 23.
- 351 [15] Galliano D and Pellicer A. MicroRNA and implantation. *Fertil Steril.* 2014;101(6):1531-44.
- 352 [16] Liu W, Niu Z, Li Q, Pang RT, Chiu PC and Yeung WS. MicroRNA and Embryo Implantation.
353 *American journal of reproductive immunology (New York, NY : 1989).* 2016;75(3):263-71.
- 354 [17] Valadi H, Ekstrom K, Bossios A, Sjostrand M, Lee JJ and Lotvall JO. Exosome-mediated transfer of
355 mRNAs and microRNAs is a novel mechanism of genetic exchange between cells. *Nat Cell Biol.*
356 2007;9(6):654-9.
- 357 [18] Bartel DP. MicroRNAs: target recognition and regulatory functions. *Cell.* 2009;136(2):215-33.
- 358 [19] Desrochers LM, Bordeleau F, Reinhart-King CA, Cerione RA and Antonyak MA. Microvesicles
359 provide a mechanism for intercellular communication by embryonic stem cells during embryo
360 implantation. *Nature communications.* 2016;7:11958.
- 361 [20] Saadeldin IM, Kim SJ, Choi YB and Lee BC. Improvement of cloned embryos development by co-
362 culturing with parthenotes: a possible role of exosomes/microvesicles for embryos paracrine
363 communication. *Cellular reprogramming.* 2014;16(3):223-34.
- 364 [21] Capalbo A, Ubaldi FM, Cimadomo D, Noli L, Khalaf Y, Farcomeni A, Ilic D and Rienzi L. MicroRNAs
365 in spent blastocyst culture medium are derived from trophoblast cells and can be explored for
366 human embryo reproductive competence assessment. *Fertil Steril.* 2016;105(1):225-35.e1-3.
- 367 [22] Cuman C, Van Sinderen M, Gantier MP, Rainczuk K, Sorby K, Rombauts L, Osianlis T and
368 Dimitriadis E. Human Blastocyst Secreted microRNA Regulate Endometrial Epithelial Cell Adhesion.
369 *EBioMedicine.* 2015;2(10):1528-35.
- 370 [23] Kropp J, Salih SM and Khatib H. Expression of microRNAs in bovine and human pre-implantation
371 embryo culture media. *Frontiers in genetics.* 2014;5:91.
- 372 [24] Noli L, Capalbo A, Dajani Y, Cimadomo D, Bvumbe J, Rienzi L, Ubaldi FM, Ogilvie C, Khalaf Y and
373 Ilic D. Human Embryos Created by Embryo Splitting Secrete Significantly Lower Levels of miRNA-30c.
374 *Stem cells and development.* 2016.
- 375 [25] Rosenbluth EM, Shelton DN, Wells LM, Sparks AE and Van Voorhis BJ. Human embryos secrete
376 microRNAs into culture media--a potential biomarker for implantation. *Fertil Steril.*
377 2014;101(5):1493-500.
- 378 [26] Moreno-Moya JM, Vilella F, Martinez S, Pellicer A and Simon C. The transcriptomic and
379 proteomic effects of ectopic overexpression of miR-30d in human endometrial epithelial cells. *Mol*
380 *Hum Reprod.* 2014;20(6):550-66.
- 381 [27] Burns GW, Brooks KE and Spencer TE. Extracellular Vesicles Originate from the Conceptus and
382 Uterus During Early Pregnancy in Sheep. *Biol Reprod.* 2016;94(3):56.
- 383 [28] Horne AW, White JO and Lalani EN. The endometrium and embryo implantation. A receptive
384 endometrium depends on more than hormonal influences. *BMJ.* 2000;321(7272):1301-2.
- 385 [29] Greening DW, Nguyen HP, Elgass K, Simpson RJ and Salamonsen LA. Human Endometrial
386 Exosomes Contain Hormone-Specific Cargo Modulating Trophoblast Adhesive Capacity: Insights into
387 Endometrial-Embryo Interactions. *Biol Reprod.* 2016;94(2):38.
- 388 [30] Ng YH, Rome S, Jalabert A, Forterre A, Singh H, Hincks CL and Salamonsen LA. Endometrial
389 exosomes/microvesicles in the uterine microenvironment: a new paradigm for embryo-endometrial
390 cross talk at implantation. *PLoS One.* 2013;8(3):e58502.

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

Acknowledgements

392 This review was generated as part of the Queensland Perinatal Consortium Inaugural
393 Conference held on July 15th 2016 in Brisbane, Queensland Australia. The conference was
394 supported by an Intra-Faculty Collaborative Workshop grant from the Faculty of Medicine
395 and Biomedical Sciences, The University of Queensland. CS hold a Lions Medical Research
396 Foundation Fellowship.

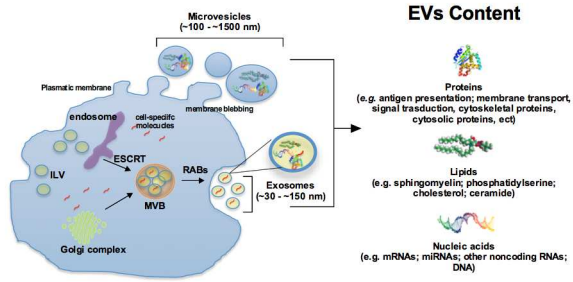
397

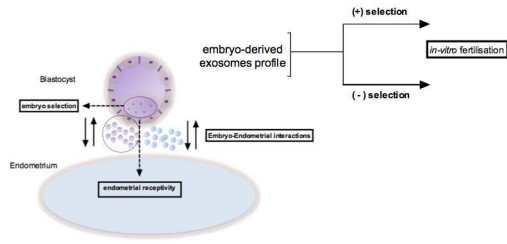
398

399 **Figure 1. Biogenesis and content of exosomes and microvesicles.** Exosomes are nanosized
400 vesicles (30-150 nm) of endocytic origin that are released from cells into the extracellular
401 space by exocytosis following the fusion of multivesicular bodies with the cell membrane.
402 MVs are larger (100 nm – 1.5 µm) and are produced by direct budding of the plasma
403 membrane. Exosomes and microvesicles contain proteins, lipids and nucleic acids, mediating
404 intercellular communication to modify the different biological function of target cells.

405

406 **Figure 2. Single embryo selection via exosomes profile.** Current approaches for identifying
407 the highest quality embryo to transfer are either unreliable (e.g. morphology assessment) or
408 highly invasive and damaging to embryos (PGD). Approaches for non-invasive embryo
409 selection would be a major advance that would increase efficiency and reduce both cost and
410 risks associated with ART. We suggest that embryo-derived exosomes profile may be used to
411 single embryo selection to in vitro fertilisation implantation potential as a means for deriving
412 a novel non-invasive biomarker which will greatly advance embryo selection and single
413 embryo transfer capability.





ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT