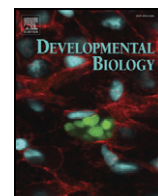


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## Review

# Trophoblast stem cell derivation, cross-species comparison and use of nuclear transfer: New tools to study trophoblast growth and differentiation

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## ABSTRACT

The trophoblast is a supportive tissue in mammals that plays key roles in embryonic patterning, foetal growth and nutrition. It shows an extensive growth up to the formation of the placenta. This growth is believed to be fed by trophoblast stem cells able to self-renew and to give rise to the differentiated derivatives present in the placenta. In this review, we summarize recent data on the molecular regulation of the trophoblast *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Most data have been obtained in the mouse, however, whenever relevant, we compare this model to other mammals. In ungulates, the growth of the trophoblast displays some striking features that make these species interesting alternative models for the study of trophoblast development. After the transfer of somatic nuclei into oocytes, studies in the mouse and the cow have both underlined that the trophoblast may be a direct target of reprogramming defects and that its growth seems specifically affected. We propose that the study of TS cells derived from nuclear transfer embryos may help to unravel some of the epigenetic abnormalities which occur therein.

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## Introduction

Trophoblast is an essential extra-embryonic tissue that arises during development of mammals. It supports embryonic patterning, foetal growth and nutrition. It gives rise to the foetal part of the placenta. Although being a temporary organ, disorders affecting the placenta may have long term effects (Godfrey, 2002). Trophoblast constitutes by itself an interesting cellular model due to its properties of extensive and fast growth, invasiveness, and cell migration. Intriguingly, it seems to be more easily affected than the embryo proper by the consequences of reprogramming of nuclear activity through nuclear transfer. Indeed, a recurrent phenotype displayed by clones in different mammalian species is placentomegaly. Is reprogramming “more difficult” in this tissue (Yang et al., 2007)?

In the mouse, trophoblast stem (TS) cells have been isolated *in vitro* from pre- and early post-implantation embryos (Tanaka et al., 1998). They can self-renew indefinitely in the presence of specific growth factors and in their absence readily differentiate into the different cell types present in the foetal part of the placenta.

In this review we will describe the development of the mouse trophoblast lineage during the early stages when it remains mostly undifferentiated and stem cells can be isolated: so from its origin up to the end of gastrulation. We will review the molecular regulation

involved in the control of growth and differentiation of TS cells. Trophoblast growth in other species such as the ungulates displays specific characteristics that we will compare with the mouse. In some of these species, trophoblast cell lines have been isolated, the stem cell nature of which has been neither questioned nor demonstrated so far. This will be discussed here as an alternative hypothesis to understand trophoblast proliferation establishment and maintenance across mammals. At last we will emphasize the usefulness of mouse TS cell models to understand some placental growth disorders such as those found after nuclear transfer.

## Specification of the trophoblast

The first visible differentiation event occurs at blastocyst stage in the mouse embryo, with the appearance of an epithelial sheet of cell (the trophoblast) surrounding a cavity and an inner cell mass (ICM) (for a review, see Yamanaka et al., 2006). The trophoblast is a multipotent tissue that will give rise to the few differentiated cell types in the foetal part of the placenta. The transcription factor *Cdx2* is a key marker of the first lineage separation (Niwa et al., 2005). In absence of *Cdx2*, a blastocyst-like structure can initially form but soon degenerates. It indicates that although essential for maintenance of the trophoblast, *Cdx2* may not be the first trigger of its initial formation. Indeed, recent studies suggest that cellular mechanisms such as polarization of the cells after asymmetric division in the morula play a triggering role and are initially independent of *Cdx2* expression (Dietrich and Hiiragi, 2007; Honda et al., 2008; Ralston and

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Rossant, 2008). Recently, a factor belonging to the TEAD family, *Tead4*, has been found to act at an earlier stage of trophoblast specification, but is not involved in the process of polarization (Yagi et al., 2007; Nishioka et al., 2008). Interestingly, this gene is only required during a narrow window of development, before implantation, and in its absence the trophoblast lineage does not appear. Its positioning in the complex model of trophoblast emergence and more specifically, its relationship with *Cdx2* remains to be elucidated. Initially present in all cells of the morula, *Cdx2* starts to be more concentrated in the nuclei of the outer cells than in the inner cells as epithelialisation progresses and blastocoel forms (Dietrich and Hiiragi, 2007; Strumpf et al., 2005). The transcription factor *Oct-4* is initially expressed in all cells of the morula and later become restricted to the ICM and then to the epiblast. *Cdx2* and *Oct-4* have been shown to reciprocally inhibit each other in embryonic stem cells in culture (Niwa et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2005). This mutual inhibition can be envisaged *in vivo* as a safety

mechanism to lock the lineage segregation. So far, the order of events leading to the establishment of the first two lineages at blastocyst stage is not completely clear. Some actors are probably missing, that could make the link between the cellular and mechanistic processes of polarization, the blastocoel formation and the network of transcription factors that give the genetic identity of both lineages.

Apart from *Cdx2* and *Tead4*, another transcription factor encoding gene has been shown to be essential for the first steps of trophoblast development, *Eomes* (Table 1). This T-box transcription factor is required slightly later than *Cdx2* in the embryo and although its expression is not initially dependant on *Cdx2*, the latter stimulates its expression (Niwa et al., 2005; Strumpf et al., 2005). In its absence, the blastocyst can be formed and maintained, but does not implant (Russ et al., 2000).

Maintenance of the trophoblast identity and more specifically, of its proliferation ability requires additional transcription factors (Table

**Table 1**  
Characteristics of genes expressed in the mouse trophoblast lineage and importance for TS cell derivation

Gene name	Expression pattern in embryo and trophoblast lineage	Phenotype of mutant embryos	TS derivation from mutant	References
<i>Tead4</i>	Starts at 2-cell stage, after implantation is restricted to trophoblast lineages	Die at 3.5 dpc, no blastocyst formation	No	(Hattori et al., 2007; Nishioka et al., 2008)
<i>Cdx2</i>	Polar and mural TE at 3.5 dpc, proximal ExE	No TE determination	No (from blastocyst)	(Beck et al., 1995; Niwa et al., 2005)
<i>Eomes</i>	TE, proximal ExE and chorion, posterior epiblast and primitive streak	Arrest at blastocyst stage, no implantation	No (from blastocyst)	(Ciruna and Rossant, 1999; Strumpf et al., 2005)
<i>Elf5</i>	ExE at 5.5 dpc and after	Loss of ExE at E5.5	No (from blastocyst)	(Donnison et al., 2005)
<i>Sox2</i>	ICM, epiblast, ExE, chorion	Die before 6.0 dpc, loss of epiblast and ExE	No (from blastocyst)	(Avilion, 2003)
<i>Foxd3</i>	ICM and epiblast, a subset of cells in ExE, primary and secondary TGC	Die at 6.5 dpc, loss of epiblast, expansion but precocious differentiation of Exe	No (from blastocyst and ExE)	(Tompers et al., 2005)
<i>Ets2</i>	Restricted to TE from 5.0 to 6.75 dpc, then in primitive streak after 7.75 dpc	Die at 8.0 dpc, loss of ExE, smaller EPC	No	(Georgiades and Rossant, 2006; Yamamoto et al., 1998)
<i>Esrrb</i>	ExE at 5.5 dpc, chorion at 7.5 dpc	Die at 10.5 dpc, reduced proliferation of trophoblast, no placental development	No (from blastocyst)	(Luo et al., 1997; Tremblay et al., 2001)
<i>Dll1</i>	ExE at 6.5 dpc	Die at 10 dpc, abnormal placenta development	Yes but abnormal differentiation	(Papadaki et al., 2007)
<i>Fgf signaling pathway</i>				
<i>Fgf4</i>	ICM, epiblast	Die before 5.5 dpc just after implantation	ND	(Feldman et al., 1995; Goldin and Papaioannou, 2003)
<i>Fgfr2</i>	Blastocyst, then restricted to ExE	Die at 4.5 dpc just after implantation	ND	(Arman et al., 1998; Goldin and Papaioannou, 2003)
<i>Frs2</i>	Polar and mural TE, ExE	Die at 8.5 dpc, defect in A-P polarity	No (from blastocyst and ExE)	(Gotoh et al., 2005)
<i>Ptpn11</i> (Shp2)	Ubiquitous	ICM death, reduced number of TGC	No	(Yamanaka et al., 2006)
<i>Erk2</i>	Ubiquitous, but P-Erk2 is present in EPC and ExE	Die at 8.0 dpc, no ExE and EPC	No (from blastocyst and ExE)	(Corson et al., 2003; Saba-El-Leil et al., 2003)
<i>Tgfb signaling pathway</i>				
<i>Nodal</i>	ICM and epiblast, then posterior epiblast	Die at 7.5 dpc, no primitive streak, defect in A-P polarity, defect in ExE molecular patterning (see text)	ND	(Brennan et al., 2001; Guzman-Ayala et al., 2004; Takaoka et al., 2006; Varlet et al., 1997)
<i>Activin A</i>	Decidua	ND	ND	(Chen et al., 2006; Crossley et al., 1995)
<i>Furin</i> and <i>Pace 4</i>	ExE	Double mutant: defect in primitive streak formation and A-P polarity	ND	(Beck et al., 2002; Guzman-Ayala et al., 2004)
<i>Smad2</i>	Ubiquitous (P-Smad2 throughout the embryo at 5.5 dpc–8.5 dpc)	Die at 8.5 dpc, size reduction, defect in ExE, defect in gastrulation and visceral endoderm patterning	ND	(Brennan et al., 2001; de Sousa Lopes et al., 2003; Weinstein et al., 1998)
<i>Wnt3</i>	Posterior epiblast at 5 dpc then primitive streak	Die at 8 dpc, no primitive streak	ND	(Ben-Haim et al., 2006; Liu, 1999)
<i>Bmp4</i>	At 3.5 dpc in ICM and polar TE, at 6.5 restricted to ExE	Die before 9.5 dpc, size reduction, impaired mesoderm formation and patterning of anterior visceral endoderm	ND	(Goldman et al., 2006; Soares et al., 2005; Winnier et al., 1995)
<i>Acvr1B</i> (ALK4)	In epiblast and ExE between 5.5 dpc and 7.5 dpc	Die between 8.5 and 9.5 dpc, ExE and epiblast intertwined and disorganised, defect in visceral endoderm	ND	(Gu, 1998; Chang et al., 2002; Erlebacher et al., 2004)
<i>Acvr2B</i> (ActRIIB)	In epiblast and ExE since 6.0 dpc	Post-natal lethality: cardiac and intestine defects	ND	(Feijen et al., 1994; Oh and Li, 1997; Song et al., 1999; Chang et al., 2002; Erlebacher et al., 2004)

Index: AP – Antero-Posterior; EPC – Ecto Placental Cone; ExE – Extra-Embryonic Ectoderm; dpc – day post-coitum; ND – not determined; TGC – Trophoblast Giant Cells; TE – trophoctoderm.

1). *Esrrb* belongs to the family of estrogen-related orphan receptors (Giguere et al., 1988). In embryos, *Esrrb* is expressed in the extra-embryonic ectoderm until the end of gastrulation (Pettersson et al., 1996). Embryos deficient in *Esrrb* die at E10.5 from an arrest in trophoblast development (Luo et al., 1997). Thus *Esrrb* appears to be involved in late trophoblast or trophoblast (TE) maintenance. Two transcription factors containing a DNA-binding ETS domain, *Ets2* and *Elf5*, are also important for the maintenance of proliferation in the trophoblast. In their absence, the Exe cannot be maintained and disappears, *Elf5* being required earlier than *Ets2* (Wen et al., 2007; Donnison et al., 2005). Finally, two transcription factors have been shown to be essential for both trophoblast and epiblast development, *Sox2* and *Foxd3*. In absence of either of the two factors, the epiblast is lost and the extra-embryonic ectoderm differentiates completely into trophoblast giant cells, thus, pluripotent populations are not maintained in the embryo (Avilion, 2003; Hanna et al., 2002; Tompers et al., 2005).

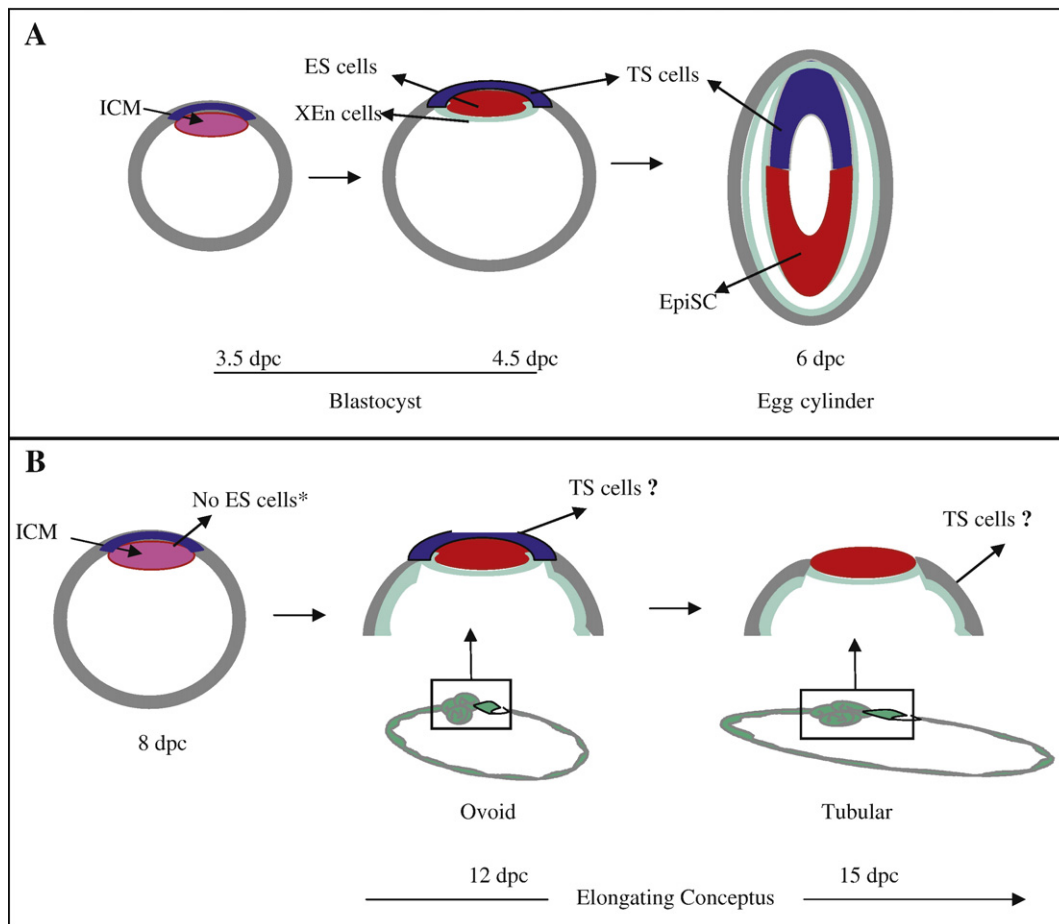
#### Development and maintenance of the trophoblast in the early post-implantation mouse embryo

ICM cells segregate to separate the pluripotent epiblast from the second extra-embryonic tissues, the primitive endoderm (Fig. 1A). Implantation in rodents is concomitant to this event. The polar trophoblast overlying the epiblast actively proliferates along with the epiblast to form an “egg cylinder” shaped embryo at E5 (Fig. 1A). The development of a cup-shaped embryo, specific to rodents, and the concomitance of implantation and gastrulation (in rodents and

primates; Eakin and Behringer, 2004; Viebahn, 1999) imply some specific constraints for cell proliferation and differentiation processes. Until the formation of the chorion (mid-gastrulation period at E7.5), the polar trophoblast (called the extra-embryonic ectoderm or Exe) remains directly in contact with the epiblast.

#### Role of *Cdx2*

We have seen that *Cdx2* is clearly essential for trophoblast specification in the mouse. It can induce trophoblast specification if its expression is forced in ES cells (Niwa et al., 2005). What is its role after? Does it play a role in controlling self-renewal or preventing differentiation? Paradoxically, *Cdx2* has been initially discovered for its role as a tumour-suppressor in the gut (Guo et al., 2004). The protein is subjected to serine 60 phosphorylation via the MapK pathway, which modulates its transactivating activity (Rings et al., 2001). Interestingly, the phosphorylated form is localized in the proliferating cells of the crypt in the gut, whereas the non-phosphorylated form is present in more differentiated cells, where it regulates the expression of differentiation genes. As the activated MapK P-Erk1/2 is present in the blastocyst and the Exe (Corson et al., 2003; Wang and Jaenisch, 2004), *Cdx2* is probably subjected to phosphorylation in the early embryo, which may also modulate its transactivation properties. The presence of ser60P-*Cdx2* has been detected in the blastocyst (Liu et al., 2004) but the localization of the different isoforms of *Cdx2* in the Exe awaits further investigation. The genes regulated by *Cdx2* in the trophoblast are not known, except



**Fig. 1.** Changes in the morphology in the mouse embryo (A) during early post-implantation development and in bovine embryo (B) during pre-implantation development. Embryologically equivalent stages are depicted. The tissues of origin of the different embryonic stem cells are shown. These simplified drawings do not take into account the mesoderm layer present in the bovine embryo at tubular stage (Eakin and Behringer, 2004) and are not represented at scale. \*Up to now, no true ES cells have been isolated from bovine embryos. In dark blue, polar trophoblast (then mouse extra-embryonic ectoderm and ruminant Rauber's layer). In gray, mural trophoblast (then mouse giant cells) and bovine trophoblast (then bovine binucleated cells). In light blue, primitive endoderm, then visceral and parietal endoderm. In red, epiblast.



(Fléchon et al., 1986; Gray et al., 2001; Heyman et al., 1984), the molecular cascades downstream of these secretions wait for being deciphered *in vivo*.

The differences underlined here between ruminants and rodents, as well as the relatively easy access to early gastrulating embryos make the cow an interesting and likely alternative model for the study of trophoblast development and proliferation in mammals.

**Trophoblast stem cells, a model for trophoblast growth and differentiation**

Cell proliferation *in vivo* is supposedly sustained by a pool of stem cells able to self-renew and to give rise to rapidly proliferating progenitors. As for the mouse trophoblast, it is first formed at 3.5 dpc while the placenta is fully functional at 13.5 dpc. During this period of time, the tissue has to maintain a proliferating compartment in order to be able to provide all the trophoblastic cells of the placenta, such as: trophoblast giant cells, syncytiotrophoblasts, glycogen cells, spongio-trophoblasts (Simmons and Cross, 2005). In this regard it was not surprising that the team of Janet Rossant demonstrated in 1998 that trophoblast stem cells could be isolated from mouse blastocysts or extra-embryonic ectoderm of post-implantation embryos (Fig. 1A; Tanaka et al., 1998). They are unspecialized; they have the ability to self-renew indefinitely and *in vivo* to participate to the development of the placenta and thus were called trophoblast stem cells according to the NIH definition of a stem cell (<http://stemcells.nih.gov/info/basics/basics2.asp>). Recently, trophoblast stem (TS) cells have been shown to be able to rescue the placental defect of *Socs3*-deficient embryos (Takahashi et al., 2006). The mutant placenta displays an increased differentiation towards secondary trophoblast giant cells at the expense of the precursor population in the spongio-trophoblast. However, *Socs3*-deficient embryos are by themselves able to survive until E11 and thus start to form a placenta. It is yet not known whether

TS cells could rescue an earlier defect affecting the formation of the extra-embryonic ectoderm. It means that the *in vivo* multipotency of TS cells, which is the ability to autonomously build a placenta, has not yet been demonstrated.

For their self-renewal and to keep them undifferentiated (see Fig. 3), TS cells are under the strict control of FGF4, heparin and medium conditioned by inactivated foetal fibroblasts (Tanaka et al., 1998). This conditioned medium can be replaced by ActivinA or TGF-β1 (Erlebacher et al., 2004). Under these conditions, they grow as flat epithelial colonies (Figs. 4A, B) and express many genes, the expression of which being essential for trophoblast growth and maintenance and TS derivation (see Table 1), such as: *Cdx2* (Fig. 4D), *Eomes*, *Esrrb* and *Fgfr2* (Tanaka et al., 1998). They also express *Sox2* and *Foxd3*. As other cells with rapid doubling time, nearly half of the cell population is in S-phase (46%, Fig. 4C and Rielland et al., in preparation). Fgf4-activated Erk2 signaling pathway (Fig. 4E) has been shown to inhibit differentiation and apoptosis in TS cells (Saba-El-Leil et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2006). By contrast, removal of FGF4 or Activin blocks self-renewal and leads to the down-regulation of *Cdx2*, *Esrrb* and *Eomes* (Erlebacher et al., 2004). Without both factors, TS cells readily differentiate and express markers of giant cells such as *Prl3d1* (PI-1) and *Hand-1* (Riley et al., 1998; Scott et al., 2000), of spongio-trophoblasts such as *Tpbp2* (Lescisin et al., 1988) and *Ascl2*, and of syncytiotrophoblasts *Gcm1* (Hemberger et al., 2004; Hughes et al., 2004; Tanaka et al., 1998). The differentiated derivatives are apparently functionally equivalent to their *in vivo* counterparts: the giant cells display the migratory behaviour characteristic of invasive cells (Hemberger et al., 2004; Yan et al., 2001).

In ungulates, the huge elongation of the trophoblast also raises the issue of the existence of stem cells. There have been different trophoblastic cell lines established from goat, cow or pig embryos isolated before or after implantation. These cells can grow continuously in culture and are characterised as epithelial cells (cell polarity,

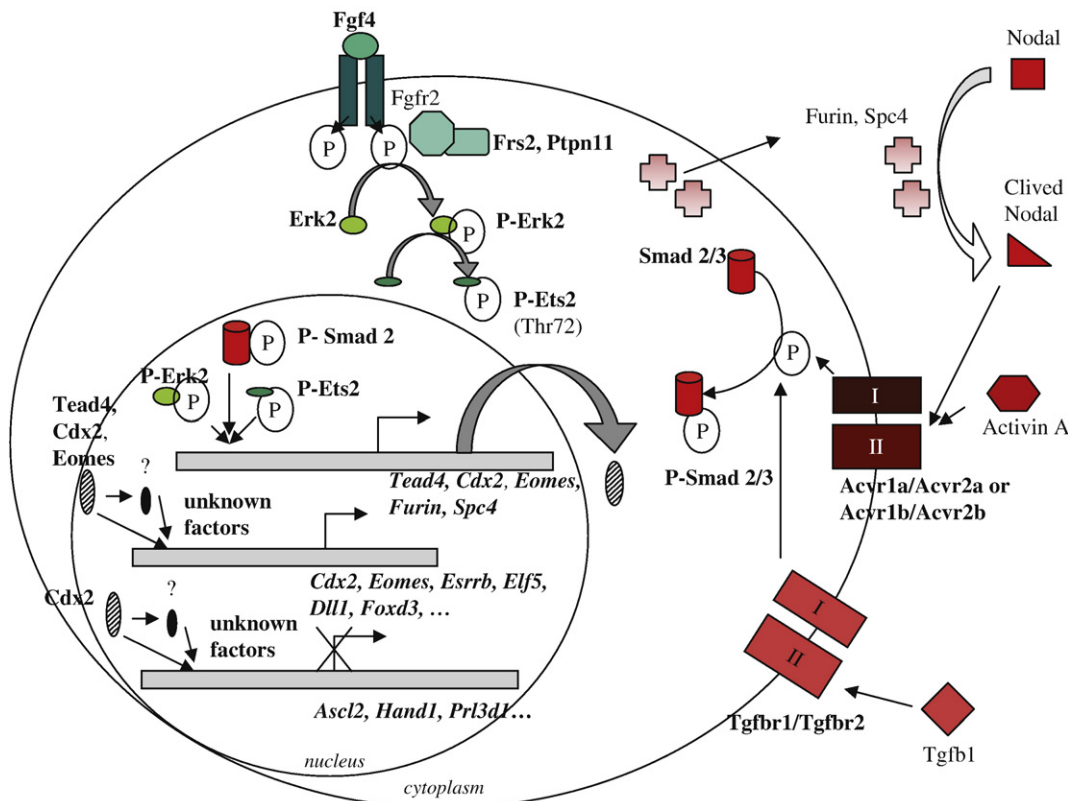
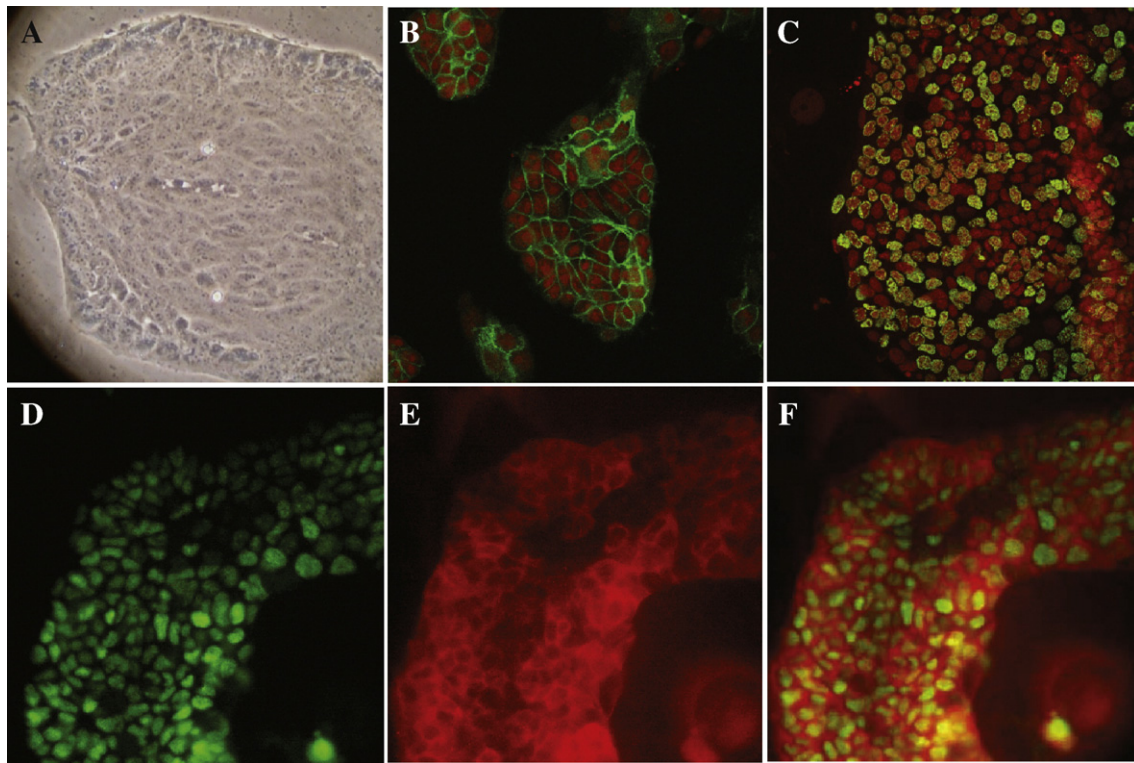


Fig. 3. Signal transduction controlling self-renewal in mouse TS cells. The link between the genes listed as transcriptionally regulated and the indicated transcription factors such as Cdx2, Eomes, P-Erk2, P-Smad2/3 ... may be direct or indirect.



**Fig. 4.** Morphology and expression of typical markers of mouse TS cells. (A) Aspect of a TS cell colony under phase-contrast microscopy. (B) Expression of  $\beta$ -catenin showing that TS cells are epithelial cells. (C) High rate of proliferation: more than 60% of the cells are already BrdU positive after only 10 min of BrdU incorporation. (D–F) Double immuno-staining of Cdx2 (D) and P-Erk1/2 (E). All TS cells are positive for both markers (merge on panel F).

tight junctions or apical microvilli) with morphological or biochemical properties equivalent to *in vivo* trophoblast cells, such as secretion of IFN- $\tau$  or  $\gamma$ : caprine HTS-1: (Miyazaki et al., 2002); porcine TE1 and TB: (Fléchon et al., 1995; La Bonnardiére et al., 2002); bovine CT-1 and BT-1: (Shimada et al., 2001; Talbot et al., 2000). Trophoblast cell lines were also derived from sheep conceptuses at different stages prior to implantation (Liszewska E, submitted) or at one late elongating stage (Dunlap et al., 2006). The bovine BT-1 trophoblast cell line is the best characterised one. The cells grow in medium containing serum and fibroblast conditioned medium, but no added growth factors. In contrast to mouse TS cell culture requirements, such conditioned medium, although enhancing proliferation of BT-1 cells, is not strictly required for their self-renewal (Shimada et al., 2001). BT-1 cells express *Bmp4*, *Fgfr2* and *Oct-4*, but not *Eomes* (Hashizume et al., 2006; Ushizawa et al., 2005) and at the same time, markers of differentiated trophoblast cells such as placental lactogen or *PAG-1* (for Pregnancy-Associated Proteins). In ruminants, the only differentiated cell type derived from trophoblast cells is bi-nucleate cells (Cross et al., 2003). *In vivo*, prior to implantation, mono-nucleate trophoblast cells differentiate into bi-nucleate cells by acytokinesis and probable endoreplication (Klisch et al., 1999; Wathes and Wooding, 1980). As recently evidenced this process likely involves oncoproteins encoded by the *Env* proteins of endogenous retroviruses, expressed in trophoblast mono-nucleate cells once elongation has started (Dunlap et al., 2006). *In vitro*, the bovine trophoblast cell line BT1 spontaneously differentiates into bi-nucleate cells capable of *Prl3d1* expression when they are plated on collagen (Terada et al., 2002). So in this bovine cell line, there is an intrinsic balance (not dependent on exogenous factors) between proliferation and differentiation. Due to these characteristics such trophoblast cell lines are unlikely to be true stem cells. So far, they are more immortalised cells alike.

Nevertheless, if trophoblast proliferation in these species do not rely on TS cells, the question is even more puzzling: how, then, is this proliferation sustained? One possibility might be through the long

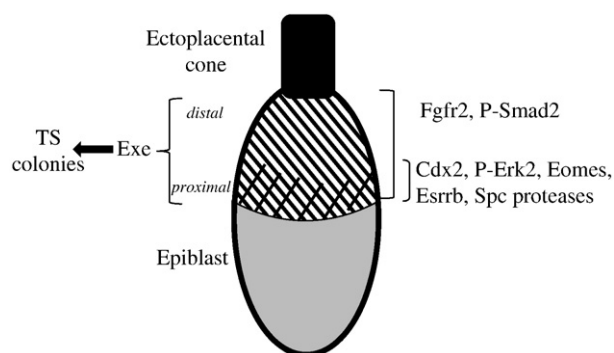
lasting expression of epiblast specific genes to ensure these cells a durable undifferentiated state (Degrelle et al., 2005), another could be that cellular oncoproteins favour a fairly autonomous cell proliferation (en]SRV: Dunlap et al., 2006) and another that proliferation depends on uterine secretions. Sorting out such hypotheses awaits further studies.

#### ***In vivo* localization of putative TS cells**

It has been shown that mouse trophoblast stem (TS) cells could be derived from embryos until the 11-somite stage and that the proportion of cells with a TS cell potential (*id est*, able to form TS colonies when transplanted *in vitro*) increased until the first-somite stages (Uy et al., 2002).

All the genes listed in Table 1 are expressed *in vivo* in the trophoblast lineage of the blastocyst, in the Exe, and/or in the chorion. They delineate a micro-environment where cells with TS potential are supposed to be maintained (Guzman-Ayala et al., 2004) (Fig. 5). Most of these markers are co-expressed in the well delimited region of the Exe proximal to the epiblast, such as *Cdx2*, P-Erk1/2, *Eomes*, *Esrrb*, and *Spc* proteases (Beck et al., 2002; Corson et al., 2003; Guzman-Ayala et al., 2004).

Strikingly, the region defined molecularly is partially in discrepancy with the detailed embryological analysis of the spatial localisation of putative TS progenitors made by Uy et al. (2002). They showed that cells able to give rise to TS cell colonies and then TS cell lines after transplantation *in vitro* are present in the entire Exe region except in the ectoplacental cone/Exe transition tissue. In addition, these TS progenitors do not account for more than 1% to 2% of the total Exe cells, whereas in the proximal Exe, all cells apparently express the same set of markers. *Fgfr2* is expressed in the entire Exe, but its downstream signaling pathway is probably activated only inside the proximal Exe where P-Erk1/2 has been detected (Corson et al., 2003). By contrast, the Nodal/Activin pathway is activated in the



**Fig. 5.** *In vivo* spatial localization of factors known to be expressed in mouse TS cells (schematic drawing of the egg cylinder at 6.5 dpc).

whole Exe, as indicated by the detection of PSmad2 (Gao et al., 2003). However, experiments using Exe explants have shown that only one active signaling pathway is not sufficient to maintain expression of genes such as *Cdx2* and *Eomes* and to prevent differentiation (Guzman-Ayala et al., 2004). One possibility could be that among cells outside the proximal Exe could be some dormant progenitors of TS cells that would be stimulated to grow by the *in vitro* culture conditions. Alternatively, other important genes with a pattern of expression specifically restricted to proliferating TS cells may exist and not have been unravelled yet.

Stem cells *in vivo* are usually considered to reside into the niche where they self-renew very slowly, under the tight control of the supporting cells (Li and Xie, 2005; Moore and Lemischka, 2006). In this context, the extensive growth of the bovine trophoblast *in vivo* could be due to the rapid but finite proliferation of already committed progenitors. Alternatively, a phenomenon such as a community effect could play a role in the ruminant trophoblast growth so that this tissue would only grow as a whole, the signal to proliferate being transduced to a group of cells depending on how they respond to uterine secretions and interact with the underlying extra-embryonic endoderm which displays striking features during elongation (Fléchon, 2007). Such community effect has been shown to exist during morphogenesis or within a tumour (Gurdon, 1988; Jouanneau et al., 1994). In our opinion, a better characterisation of the bovine trophoblast *in vivo*, the trophoblast cell lines established *in vitro* as well as new attempts to derive bovine TS cells appear necessary to better understand (i) the nature of the biological processes underlying the trophoblast growth in ruminants and (ii) the differences in these processes between ruminants and rodents.

### Abnormal development of the trophoblast following nuclear transfer

Reprogramming of the foreign chromatin occurs through still poorly known processes involving epigenetic and chromatin remodeling and eventually leads to the development of an embryo up to birth and adulthood. Although being able to give rise to healthy adults, nuclear transfer (NT) in mammals is a very inefficient process. We have previously shown that, although the epiblast apparently differentiates normally *in vivo*, half of the embryos at early post-implantation stages already exhibit morphological abnormalities that can be classified in a few recurrent types, including embryos with a rounded shape instead of being elongated and embryos with an enlarged Exe region, at the expense of the embryonic region (Jouneau et al., 2006). Inclusion of normal ES or ICM cells (chimeras) does not rescue the NT embryos, whereas tetraploid cells do, indicating that the trophoblast was the primary source of the defects. Later at foetal stages, the extra-embryonic region grows apparently without control, resulting in an oversized placenta in all surviving foetuses (Ono and Kono, 2006; Tanaka et al., 2001). Interestingly, such abnormal growth

of the placenta has also been observed after NT in cattle (Constant et al., 2006). This study suggests that foetal abnormalities may be a consequence rather than a cause of the defect in placental growth and development.

Studies at blastocyst stage and early post-implantation mouse embryos have indicated that the trophoblast lineage is correctly specified, as suggested by the correct expression of *Cdx2* (Jouneau et al., 2006; Kishigami et al., 2006). TS cell derivation from NT embryos can be used as a cellular model to study the regulation of trophoblast proliferation and differentiation *in vitro*. Indeed, we have been able to establish TS cell lines from ES NT blastocysts with higher derivation efficiency than from fertilised blastocysts (Rielland et al., in preparation). It suggests that some epigenetic changes have occurred in the trophoblast of the NT blastocyst that confers the TS cells some modified features of proliferation. The re-methylation of the genome occurs at late blastocyst stage *in vivo* and this process ends up with the trophoblast being hypo-methylated compared to the epiblast (Monk et al., 1987; Santos et al., 2002). At least in the bovine, it has been shown that the trophoblast of NT blastocysts remains more methylated than control (Kang et al., 2003). Key genes for pluripotency maintenance in the epiblast such as *Oct-4* and *Nanog* are stably silenced by methylation in the trophoblast and can be re-activated in cells treated with demethylating agent (Hattori et al., 2004, 2007). Aberrant expression of some specific genes may account for the abnormal development of the trophoblast of clones (Degrelle et al., in preparation). Perturbation of the parental imprint has often been claimed as one of the cause of cloning defects (Rideout et al., 2001; Yang, 2007). It is true that many imprinted genes are expressed in the placenta and involved in its development. Genome-wide transcriptome analyses of placentas from cloned foetuses have revealed a set of abnormally expressed genes, imprinted (Humpherys et al., 2002; Singh et al., 2004), or not (Everts et al., 2008). However, Tanaka and colleagues, by using *in situ* hybridisation and northern blot couldn't show any obvious deregulation of the transcription of some imprinted genes in NT placentas (Tanaka et al., 2001). In addition, little is known about their expression and role in the trophoblast of the early embryo. Our opinion is that different genes may be involved in the abnormal phenotypes of NT trophoblast and that the use of trophoblast stem cells may help to unravel the epigenetic defects affecting development of clones.

Trophoblast cell lines from cloned blastocysts and controls have been derived from bovine blastocysts prior to elongation with no statistical difference in (i) the success rate of establishing them between clones and controls and (ii) the morphology, growth and maintenance of these lines (Talbot et al., 2007), the main difference residing in a reduced IFN-tau production (Talbot et al., 2008). Whether these data reinforce the differences between rodents and ruminants with regard to trophoblast development or the difference between long term trophoblast and TS cultures awaits further studies.

### Conclusion and perspectives

The study of different kinds of stem cells derived from the embryo such as TS cells and ES cells and comparison between different species will provide information about how growth and stemness are controlled within an embryo. Molecular determinants of stemness are clearly different for TS and ES cells, exemplified by the opposite role of *Cdx2* and *Oct-4* in these cells, whereas some common gene expression may exist, such as for *Sox2* and *Foxd3*. Many studies have tried to bring to light a molecular portrait of a stem cell prototype, but it seems that stemness cannot be defined easily by a set of molecular determinants (Evsikov and Solter, 2003; Fortunel et al., 2003). Rather, the "stem state" (Zipori, 2004) may result from different combination of factors and signaling pathways interacting within the frame of specific chromatin conformation. By instance, ES cells have been shown to exhibit very peculiar local structures of chromatin that

reflect their molecular plasticity (Bernstein et al., 2006; Meshorer et al., 2006). Interestingly, the dependence of TS cells on both Fgf and Activin is similar to that of the epiblast stem cells, or EpiSC (Brons et al., 2007; Tesar et al., 2007) and also of human embryonic stem (ES) cells (Vallier et al., 2005). It is clear that the cell is able to read growth factor signaling differently depending of the interplay of downstream effectors. In TS and hES/EpiSc, although the molecular targets are different (*Cdx2* for TS and *Oct-4* for the other embryonic cells), both signaling pathways converge on inducing self-renewal and proliferation. The embryo itself provides the niche for EpiSc and TS cells: Fgf4 and Nodal are provided by the epiblast, later other Fgf such as Fgf8 and Fgf5 are produced by the epiblast and the primitive streak (Crossley et al., 1995; Hebert et al., 1991). After being processed by the proteases produced by the Exe, Nodal can signal back to the epiblast cells. For hES cells, it has been shown recently that they create their own niche as the surrounding differentiated cells produce IGF1, which is mitogenic for the stem cells (Bendall et al., 2007). In bovine, no true ES cells have been derived so far, despite many attempts in different labs (reviewed in Keefer et al., 2007), and even no TS nor TS-like cells. Crucial information is still missing, such as the signaling pathways active in bovine epiblast and trophoblast cells. The peculiar structure of the ungulate embryo, with its embryonic disc open to the uterine medium and the surrounding trophoblast elongating dramatically makes it unlikely that the niche can be completely provided by the embryo itself. Therefore, the source of growth factors that would control the maintenance of proliferation and stemness in both populations of cells might be looked for in the uterine environment. Moreover, the presence of *Oct-4* expression detected in the bovine trophoblast cells blurs the clear separation between ES and TS cells that has been depicted in the mouse. Further studies of the molecular determinants of the trophoblast and epiblast lineage in the bovine embryo will be necessary to clarify this paradox. Molecular comparisons between bovine trophoblast cell lines and mouse TS cells will also provide information about similarities and differences in the establishment and maintenance of trophoblast proliferation among mammals.

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