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IFPA meeting 2018 workshop report I

Reproduction and placentation among ocean-living species; placental imaging; epigenetics and extracellular vesicles in pregnancy

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IFPA meeting 2018 workshop report I: Reproduction and placentation among ocean-living species; placental imaging; epigenetics and extracellular vesicles in pregnancy

Ganesh Acharya, Marisa Bartolomei, Anthony M. Carter, Larry Chamley, Charles F. Cotton, Junichi Hasegawa, Yuri Hasegawa, Satoshi Hayakawa, Mari Kawaguchi, Chaini Konwar, Shoichi Magawa, Kiyonori Miura, Hirotaka Nishi, Carlos Salomon, Keiichi Sato, Hidenobu Soejima, Hiroaki Soma, Anne Sørensen, Hironori Takahashi, Takekeru Tomita, Camilla M. Whittington, Victor Yuan, Perrie O'Tierney-Ginn



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- 2 **species; placental imaging; epigenetics and extracellular vesicles in pregnancy**
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41 **Abstract**

42 Workshops are an important part of the IFPA annual meeting as they allow for discussion of
43 specialized topics. At IFPA meeting 2018 there were nine themed workshops, four of which are
44 summarized in this report. These workshops discussed new knowledge and technological
45 innovations in the following areas of research: 1) viviparity in ocean-living species; 2) placental
46 imaging; 3) epigenetics; and 4) extracellular vesicles in pregnancy.

47

48 **1 Reproduction and placentation among ocean-living species**

49 **Chairs:** Hiroaki Soma and Anthony M. Carter

50 **Speakers:** Anthony M. Carter, Charles F. Cotton, Satoshi Hayakawa, Mari Kawaguchi, Keiichi
51 Sato, Hiroaki Soma, Takateru Tomita, and Camilla M. Whittington

52 *1.1. Outline*

53 **Anthony Carter** opened by noting that many teleosts and a majority of sharks are viviparous.
54 They employ various strategies for the supply of nutrition to the embryos of marine
55 vertebrates. These range from histotrophic nutrition, as in the brood pouch of male sea horses
56 and pipefish or the uterus of the great white shark, to true placentation as in requiem sharks.

57 *1.2. Summary*

58 **Camilla Whittington** said there are at least 23 independent origins of viviparity in fish, but
59 syngnathid fish (seahorses and pipefish) are unique in exhibiting male pregnancy. Male
60 seahorses and pipefish have evolved specialized brood pouches that provide protection, gas
61 exchange, osmoregulation, and limited nutrient provisioning to developing embryos. Her work
62 had focused on identifying the genetic and physiological changes underpinning male pregnancy
63 in seahorses, which have the most complex brood pouch morphology (*Hippocampus*
64 *abdominalis*). The brood pouch facilitated a close apposition of paternal and fetal tissues to
65 form a placenta. She had identified paternal changes during pregnancy associated with brood
66 pouch remodeling, nutrient and waste transport, gas exchange, osmoregulation, and
67 immunological protection of developing embryos, as well as parturition. These genetic data

68 provided testable hypotheses about the functions of the seahorse brood pouch during
69 pregnancy, which she followed up with physiology-based experiments. Key shared mechanisms
70 underpinning pregnancy and birth in seahorses and other vertebrates suggest a common toolkit
71 of genes regulating pregnancy in divergent evolutionary lineages.

72 **Mari Kawaguchi** described how the brood pouch was formed during the development of male
73 seahorses from juvenile to adult. The primordium emerged as linear projections at the ventro-
74 lateral sides of the body. These projections then elongated and fused at the body midline.
75 Finally, a baggy structure was formed. The brood pouch specific tissue or pseudoplacenta,
76 which plays important roles during incubation, then developed to surround the lumen, ready to
77 incubate embryos.

78 **Satoshi Hayakawa** said that though viviparity evolved several times in invertebrate animals,
79 placenta associated immune regulation including non-classical major histocompatibility
80 complex (such as HLA-G), PD-1/PD-L1 system, and FoxP3⁺ regulatory T cells first appeared in
81 jawed vertebrates. Together with Wahei Yoshida and Kiyoshi Asahina, he had observed
82 sequential changes in yolk sac umbilical cord and placental structure of the blacktip reef shark
83 (*Carcharhinus melanopterus*) with immunohistochemical methods and also searched for
84 immune-related genes from vertebrate and non-vertebrate genome databases (Global
85 Invertebrate Genomics Alliance). This work had revealed that co-evolution of placental
86 viviparity and the adaptive immune system was the fruit of two rounds of gene duplication
87 which took place 500 million years ago.

88 **Charles F. Cotton** noted that most viviparous elasmobranchs lack a connection with the
89 mother. Thus, the embryos must acquire oxygen from the surrounding uterine fluid for a period
90 ranging from several months to two years. To test the hypothesis of uterine-supplied oxygen
91 delivery, he had applied a "gas diffusion model" to the uterine wall of two dogfish species
92 (*Squalus cf. mitsukurii* and *S. cubensis*) and compared theoretical delivery to the theoretical
93 demand of developing embryos. This model showed that oxygen supply via diffusion through
94 the uterine wall contributed less than 15-30% of the total oxygen demand of late-stage
95 embryos, suggesting an alternate mode of oxygen delivery, likely uterine flushing.

96 Introducing a section on reproduction in the great white shark (*Carcharodon carcharias*), **Keiichi**
97 **Satoh** noted that gestation in viviparous sharks and the maternal input to intrauterine embryos
98 can be very complex. In lamniform sharks, including the great white shark, oophagy was one of
99 the primary modes of embryonic nutrition. However, the nutrition of embryos appeared to be
100 more complex than thought previously as embryos probably relied on a changing source of
101 nutrition over the course of their development. Lipid-rich fluid was secreted from the uterine
102 epithelium only in early gestation before the onset of oophagy; the embryos probably used the
103 abundant uterine fluid, and then encased nutrient eggs, for nutrition at this stage of their
104 development; but the uterine fluid was the major source of embryonic nutrition before
105 oophagy onset. Histochemical staining suggested that the villous strings of the uterine
106 epithelium were implicated in the secretion of lipid droplets and at least two types of PAS-
107 positive granular and fluid substances. Lipid secretion in the white shark was a novel mode in
108 shark reproduction, and resembled that from the trophonemata of pregnant manta rays.

109 **Hiroaki Soma** then described findings on the fine structure of the pregnant uterus of a great
110 white shark weighing 1,526 kg caught by drift-net fishing in the Okinawa Islands Sea. There
111 were three embryos on each side of the uterus without placentation. The uterus contained a
112 large amount of milk and egg-shells. The uterine specimens were investigated by
113 histochemistry and electron microscopy. The thickened uterine endometrium stained well
114 histochemically with PAS, hPL and SP1 in addition to GLUT-1 and GLUT-3. The surface
115 ultrastructure of the uterine endothelium showed mosaic sheet patterns. In the endometrial
116 gland surface of uterine epithelium, very active milk-like proteins were produced and released
117 to the uterine cavity for nourishment of the fetuses. It was concluded that uterine
118 endometrium served as an alternative to placentation for fetal nutrition in the pregnant uterus
119 of the great white shark.

120 **Takateru Tomita** added that one of the mysteries of great white shark reproduction is how the
121 embryo acquires oxygen in utero without a placental connection. His group had applied the
122 “gas-diffusion model” to the great white shark uterus, and revealed that it had a high capacity
123 for oxygen exchange, which was almost comparable to that of fish gills. This result supported
124 the hypothesis that, unlike in dogfish, embryonic respiration was fully supported by oxygen
125 diffusing from the uterine wall. The study shed novel light on the mechanism of oxygen transfer
126 from mother to embryo in non-mammalian vertebrates.

127 *1.3. Conclusions*

128 Viviparity is an important biological innovation that has evolved convergently many times in
129 mammals, reptiles, fish, amphibians, and invertebrates. It is therefore an ideal model to study

130 evolutionary innovations, offering the opportunity to compare and contrast naturally replicated
131 evolutionary experiments. Seahorses are unique in their mode of reproduction as the male, not
132 the female, carries embryos in a brood pouch located on the ventral surface of the tail.
133 Viviparity in sharks is instructive because it is seldom associated with true placentation.
134 Alternative strategies have been adopted to supply the developing embryos with oxygen and
135 nutrients. Thus, consideration of viviparity in these ocean-going species offers a unique
136 opportunity to study the convergent evolution of matrotrophy, both with and without a
137 placenta.

138

139

140 **2 Placental Imaging**

141 **Chair:** Ganesh Acharya and Junichi Hasegawa

142 **Speakers:** Ganesh Acharya, Junichi Hasegawa, Shoichi Magawa, and Anne Sørensen

143 *2.1 Outline*

144 Different modalities of placental imaging are used to study its structure and function from
145 molecular/subcellular to organ/system level. Some of them are emerging new techniques,
146 whereas others are a refinement of conventional imaging modalities that has been possible
147 with the advancement in technology. This workshop presented recent advances in some of the
148 most important methods of placental imaging (ultrasound, magnetic resonance imaging and
149 microscopy) applicable to basic, clinical and translational research in placentology.

150 *2.2 Summary*

151 **Ganesh Acharya** discussed the application of high-resolution live cell imaging in placental
152 research. Light microscopy has the advantage of live cell imaging compared to other
153 techniques, such as electron microscopy, but lower resolution has been its major limitation.
154 Recent developments in optical nanoscopy, such as structured illumination microscopy (SIM),
155 have allowed high-resolution imaging of the smallest human cells, such as spermatozoa, and
156 their subcellular structures without the use of electron microscopy. However, it requires the
157 use of fluorescent labeling which may be toxic to cells. On the other hand, quantitative phase
158 microscopy (QPM) can be utilized for label-free imaging, and phototoxicity can be avoided as
159 the phase information is obtained from a single recorded intensity pattern. Morphological

160 changes in the trophoblasts and other placental cells exposed to different conditions can be
161 studied and tracked *ex vivo* using these imaging methods. Combining SIM and QPM can be
162 useful as fluorescence microscopy provides excellent morphological information with
163 subcellular resolution, while phase microscopy provides quantitative information. Multimodal
164 microscopic imaging modalities may become standard techniques of evaluating cellular
165 structure and function in trophoblast research in the near future.

166 **Anne Sørensen** reviewed T2* weighted placental MRI as a promising marker of placental
167 dysfunction. The potential of detecting placental dysfunction *in vivo* has increased interest in
168 placental MRI over the last decade. In particular, T2* weighted MRI has proven to be a simple
169 and useful method of assessing placental function. Previous studies have demonstrated that
170 the dysfunctional placenta has an increased hyperoxic response in T2* signal intensity, which is
171 mainly caused by a low baseline T2* relaxation time. From a clinical perspective, this method
172 may be a simple tool to discriminate between constitutionally small fetuses and fetuses
173 suffering from intrauterine growth restriction and placental hypoxia.

174 **Junichi Hasegawa** discussed the application of Superb Microvascular Imaging (SMI) with high
175 frequency ultrasound transducers in placental evaluation. The technological improvement of
176 high frequency linear ultrasound transducers offers significant clinical benefits since the
177 anatomical structures and hemodynamics of minute vessels can be delineated. SMI is a new
178 blood flow imaging technique that employs a unique algorithm to minimize motion artifacts.
179 This improved imaging technique is useful for evaluation of structural placental abnormalities,
180 such as placental infarction, hematoma, and abnormally invasive placentation, as well as
181 placental vascularity and blood flow in fetal growth restriction.

182 **Shoichi Magawa** presented the findings of his research using non-invasive blood oxygen level
183 dependent magnetic resonance imaging (BOLD-MRI) to investigate human placental intravillous
184 capillary and fetal brain oxygenation during maternal oxygenation. Magawa and colleagues
185 evaluated the placenta and fetal brain in late pregnancy of healthy Japanese women by BOLD
186 using their own protocol. In all cases of normal pregnancy, the BOLD value (ΔT_2^*) increased due
187 to maternal oxygen administration, and it will be possible to compare the BOLD value of normal
188 and abnormal pregnancies in the future. The BOLD value of the fetal brain did not change even in
189 late pregnancy, due to auto-regulation of fetal cerebral blood flow. They also used BOLD in cases
190 with intrauterine fetal death and discussed placental hemodynamics after fetal demise.

191 2.3 Conclusion

192 Major advances are happening in imaging technologies that are applicable to study placental
193 structure and function in research settings. However, it is important to identify strengths,
194 limitations, and pitfalls of using different imaging techniques to evaluate placenta. Defining
195 indications regarding their application for screening and diagnostic purposes, standardizing
196 protocols and improving interpretation of findings are important for optimal use of these
197 techniques both in research as well as clinical settings.

198 **3 Epigenetics**199 **Chairs:** Leslie Myatt and Kiyonori Miura200 **Speakers:** Marisa Bartolomei, Chaini Konwar, Kiyonori Miura, Hidenobu Soejima, and Victor
201 Yuan202 *3.1 Outline*

203 Placental function is known to be affected significantly by the intrauterine environment, which
204 in turn is influenced by amount and type of nutrition, maternal stress, hormonal and
205 inflammatory milieu among others. These varying environmental signals influence the placenta
206 epigenome but we lack detailed information related to effects on specific placental cell types,
207 differences across gestational age, and whether or how the changes seen at the epigenetic level
208 relate mechanistically to differences in transcription and ultimately in placental function. In this
209 workshop we discussed interpretation of epigenetic data, and current knowledge regarding the
210 influence of sex, ethnicity, cellular composition, gestational age and environmental conditions
211 on placental epigenetics and how this relates to placental function.

212 *3.2 Summary*

213 **Victor Yuan** and **Chaini Konwar** presented their research on population-specific DNA
214 methylation differences and their involvement in placental pathologies. DNA methylation
215 (DNAm) is an epigenetic modification that can affect gene expression and can be influenced by
216 genetic and environmental factors. As in other tissues, our group has identified significant
217 population-specific variation in placental DNAm. We also found that differences in placental

218 allele frequencies of immune-system genes such as *IL6* were associated with chorioamnionitis
219 only in specific populations. Additionally, DNAm was altered in chorioamnionitis-affected
220 placentas and the *IL6* genotype significantly influenced DNAm levels, which negatively
221 correlated with gene expression. Therefore, placental DNAm studies should account for
222 population specific variability, as differences in population structure can confound the variable
223 of interest, and thus may drive DNAm differences between groups.

224 **Marisa Bartolomei** discussed the regulation of DNAm in the placenta from an imprinted gene
225 perspective. Imprinted genes comprise a small number of genes in mammals and are expressed
226 from a single parental allele. These genes, which are found in clusters, are the main block to
227 uniparental development. That is, uniparental maternal embryos develop into tissues of
228 embryonic origin with a failure of extraembryonic development and uniparental paternal
229 embryos develop into extraembryonic/placental derivatives, with a failure of embryonic
230 development. Imprinted genes are regulated by DNAm at imprinting control regions (ICRs).
231 DNAm at ICRs is acquired in the maternal or paternal germline, maintained when the embryo
232 undergoes post-fertilization reprogramming, and erased during gametogenesis to prepare for
233 the next generation. DNAm erasure employs both active and passive DNAm strategies and
234 deletion of *Tet1*, an enzyme that oxidizes methylcytosine, results in defects in DNA methylation
235 reprogramming and imprinted gene perturbations.

236 **Hidenobu Soejima** presented their data on the association between the imprinting disorder
237 Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome and placental mesenchymal dysplasia. Beckwith-Wiedemann
238 syndrome (BWS) is caused by aberrant expression of imprinted genes due to several genetic or
239 epigenetic abnormalities at 11p15.5. A subset of placental mesenchymal dysplasia (PMD), a

240 morphological aberration of the placenta defined by placentomegaly and multicystic changes, is
241 associated with infants with BWS and androgenetic/biparental mosaicism (ABM), suggesting
242 disrupted imprinting. Soejima and colleagues analyzed PMD tissues genetically and
243 epigenetically and found that most PMDs showed ABM, but some had normal biparental
244 inheritance. In biparental cases, aberrant methylations at several imprinted genes were found.

245 **Kiyonori Miura** discussed the clinical significance of C19MC and C14 MC microRNA in perinatal
246 management. Pregnancy-associated microRNAs (miRs) on the chromosome 19 miR cluster
247 (C19MC) region are imprinted in the placenta with expression from the paternally inherited
248 chromosome. The pregnancy-associated, but not placenta-specific, miR-323-3p is located on
249 the chromosome 14 miR cluster (C14MC) region, which is imprinted in embryonic and placental
250 tissues with expression from the maternally inherited chromosome. The plasma concentration
251 of miRs from the C19MC and C14MC regions can be measured by quantitative real-time reverse
252 transcription (RT)-PCR, and aberrant levels have been reported in various pregnancy-associated
253 diseases and abnormal pregnancies (e.g. preeclampsia, molar pregnancy, ectopic pregnancy).

254 *3.3 Conclusions*

255 This workshop highlighted the role of DNA methylation in gene expression in different settings.
256 The influence of differences in population structure on driving differences in methylation
257 between groups was clearly illustrated. The role of DNA methylation at imprinting control
258 regions in regulation of imprinted genes was highlighted and it appears both active and passive
259 DNA methylation strategies are involved. A subset of placental mesenchymal dysplasia is
260 associated with disrupted imprinting in infants with Beckwith Wiedemann Syndrome with some

261 showing androgenetic/biparental mosaicism but some with normal biparental inheritance with
262 aberrant methylation at several imprinted genes, illustrating the complexity of the
263 phenomenon. Imprinting also regulates expression of microRNAs on chromosome 19 (paternal)
264 and 14 (maternal) with differential expression and appearance of these miRNAs in maternal
265 plasma with pregnancy complications.

266

267 **4 Extracellular vesicles in pregnancy**

268 **Chairs:** Carlos Salomon and Hirotaka Nishi

269 **Speakers:** Larry Chamley, Yuri Hasegawa, Carlos Salomon, and Hironori Takahashi

270 *4.1 Outline*

271 During the past decade, there has been an extraordinary explosion of research in the field of
272 extracellular vesicles (EVs), especially in the specific type of EV originating from endosomal
273 compartments called exosomes. EVs are released from a wide range of cell including the human
274 placenta and are capable of transferring their contents (e.g. proteins and miRNAs) to other cells, a
275 process that is thought to be essential to several biological processes including immune response, cell
276 metabolism and intercellular communication during pregnancy. Unfortunately, progress in the field has
277 been hindered by a lack of standardized protocols relating to the taxonomy and isolation of exosomes.
278 This has confounded data interpretation within the current body of literature. This workshop discussed
279 the heterogeneity, isolation, purification and characterization of placental exosomes and their capacity
280 to interact and deliver bioactive molecules to target cells during pregnancy.

281 *4.2 Summary*

282 **Larry Chamley** discussed the interaction between extracellular vesicles secreted from the
283 human placenta with maternal tissues. It has been known for more than a century that once
284 deported from the placenta, trophoblast macrovesicles/syncytial nuclear aggregates are
285 trapped in the capillaries of the maternal lungs but the much smaller placental micro and
286 nanovesicles would intuitively be expected to pass through the maternal lungs and be
287 distributed throughout her body. However, we have shown that is not the case and that both

288 micro and nanovesicles show considerable tropism for the lungs and also are targeted to the
289 liver while nanovesicles but not microvesicles also target the kidneys. Neither type of placental
290 vesicles target to the other investigated organs including the spleen. Comparison of the
291 interactions between placental microvesicles and leucocytes *in vitro* and *in vivo* suggests that *in*
292 *vitro* experiments may overestimate this interaction.

293 **Carlos Salomon** discussed the variability of isolation methods for different types of extracellular
294 vesicles with an emphasis on exosomes. The term extracellular vesicle is a non-specific
295 classification that suits all membrane-bound vesicles of different sizes and biogenic origins (i.e.,
296 endosomal and plasma membrane origins). Exosomes are a subtype of extracellular vesicles
297 that are defined explicitly by endosomal biogenesis and particle size (around 100 nm) and
298 density (1.13-1.19 g.ml⁻¹) in a sucrose gradient. Several reports have described the presence of
299 exosomes and other types of extracellular vesicles in maternal circulation under normal and
300 pathological conditions including preeclampsia, gestational diabetes, preterm birth, and fetal
301 growth restriction. The levels of circulating exosomes seem to be pregnancy-condition specific
302 and dependent on gestational age. To understand the role of extracellular vesicles during
303 pregnancy several sources of vesicles have been used such as primary cell (e.g., trophoblast
304 cells), cell lines (e.g., BeWo, JEG-3, and HTR-8/Svneo), placental perfusion, and placental
305 explants. Finally, several methods to isolate extracellular vesicles and enrich a specific type such
306 as exosomes have been used; however, inconsistency in these procedures might compromise
307 the interpretation and reproducibility of the results.

308 **Yuri Hasegawa** discussed the association between placental microRNA and placental
309 abnormalities. Hasegawa and colleagues identified aberrant circulating levels of pregnancy-

310 associated placenta-specific miRNA in women with diseases caused by placental dysfunction
311 (e.g. placenta previa and gestational trophoblastic disease). Several placental miRNAs on
312 chromosome 19 miRNA cluster region (C19MC) are associated with the development of
313 placental vessels. Therefore, miRNAs predominantly expressed in the placenta are probably
314 involved in placental differentiation and in the maintenance of pregnancy.

315 **Hironori Takahashi** presented the potential role of exosomal placental-associated microRNA for
316 extravillous trophoblast (EVT). EVT invasion into the decidua is essential for successful
317 pregnancy, yet it is unclear how it is regulated. Takahashi and colleagues investigated whether
318 placenta-associated miRNAs derived from C19MC are involved in EVT invasion. Placenta-
319 associated miRNAs were significantly downregulated in EVTs compared with first-trimester
320 chorionic villous trophoblasts (CVTs). Next, they hypothesized that CVT-derived exosomal
321 placenta-associated miRNAs transferred to EVT. Using an *in vitro* model system, BeWo-derived
322 exosomal miRNAs were internalized into the EVT cell lines with subsequently reduced cell
323 invasion via target gene repression.

324 4.3 Conclusions

325 In the last ten years, we have seen an explosion in the extracellular vesicles field, and specific
326 types of extracellular vesicles called exosomes have received the primary attention. The
327 different types of extracellular vesicles can be classified as exosomes, microvesicles, and
328 apoptotic bodies. Exosomes are small vesicles of around 100nm originated from the endosomal
329 compartment usually enriched in CD63, TSG101, CD81, and CD9 proteins. Microvesicles or
330 shedding vesicles are 50-1000nm in size, budding from the plasma membrane, and are enriched
331 in CD40 protein. Apoptotic bodies are 800-5000nm in size and are fragments from dying cells.

332 All types of extracellular vesicles have been identified in maternal plasma; however,
333 important questions about their biodistribution and interaction with maternal tissues have not
334 yet been answered. Placental extracellular vesicles are packed with signaling molecules such as
335 miRNAs that may regulate the activity of both proximal and distal target cells, including
336 trophoblast migration and placental development. As such, exosomal signaling represents an
337 essential pathway mediating intercellular communication. Finally, it is urgent that methods to
338 isolate vesicles are standardized to increase the reproducibility of extracellular vesicle research.

Highlights

- Evolution of matrotrophy, with and without a placenta, studied in ocean-going species
- Standardizing protocols is essential for use of placental imaging for screening and diagnostic purposes
- Placental methylation differences between groups is influenced by differences in population structure
- Exosomal signaling represents an essential pathway mediating intercellular communication