

Zygote

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Oocyte genome cloning used in biparental bovine embryo reconstruction

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Summary

Oocyte genome cloning is a method by which haploid maternal embryos are obtained in such a way that parthenogenetic haploid blastomeres from these embryos can be considered as a clone of the original gamete. Our objective was to generate oocyte genome replicates and use them to reconstruct biparental embryos by fusion with haploid male hemizygotes. Furthermore, we generated biparental homogeneous transgene-expressing embryos using parthenogenetic haploid blastomeres that expressed a transgene (EGFP). In the first experiment, parthenogenetic haploid embryos were generated by incubation of oocytes in ionomycin and 6-dimethylaminopurine (DMAP) with a 3 h interval to permit their second polar body extrusion. The cleavage rate was 87.3%. To generate transgene-expressing blastomeres, activated oocytes were injected with pCX-EGFP-liposome complexes 3 h post ionomycin exposure, resulting in a cleavage rate of 84.4%. In the second experiment, haploid parthenogenetic blastomeres that were positive or negative for EGFP expression were used to reconstruct biparental embryos. Cleavage and blastocyst rates for the reconstructed embryos were 78.4% and 61.1% and 10.8% and 8.4%, using EGFP-positive or -negative blastomeres, respectively ($P < 0.05$). All of the reconstructed embryos showed EGFP expression, with 96.6% of them showing homogenous expression. Oct-4 expression in the reconstructed blastocysts displayed a similar pattern as IVF-blastocyst controls. In conclusion, our results proved that it is possible to use oocyte genome replicates to reconstruct biparental bovine embryos and that this technique is efficient to generate homogeneous transgene-expressing embryos.

Keywords: Bovine, Cloning, Gamete, Oocyte, Transgenic

Introduction

Oocyte genome cloning is a method by which haploid parthenogenetic embryos can be obtained in such a way that blastomeres from these embryos can be considered as a clone of the original gamete (Surani *et al.*, 1986; Escribá *et al.*, 2001). Parthenogenetic activation can be stimulated in several mammalian species, including humans (Revazova *et al.*, 2007), by a wide variety of artificial chemical and physical

stimuli that induce oocyte activation. These include electrical stimulation, and treatment with ethanol, thimerosal, strontium, ionomycin (Io) or calcium ionophore (Collas *et al.*, 1993; Machaty *et al.*, 1997; Loi *et al.*, 1998; Rho *et al.*, 1998; Liu *et al.*, 2002; Yi *et al.*, 2005; Bhak *et al.*, 2006; Méo *et al.*, 2007). In the bovine, Io in combination with 6-dimethylaminopurine (DMAP; non-specific kinase inhibitors) has been shown to be particularly effective in inducing oocyte activation and subsequent embryo development (Susko-Parrish *et al.*, 1994; Wells *et al.*, 1999).

Ionomycin in combination with DMAP (Io + DMAP) was used to activate cytoplasts during nuclear transfer that produced a cloned bovine, demonstrating the suitability of this treatment in promoting full-term development (Cibelli *et al.*, 1998; Salamone *et al.*, 2006). However, if oocytes activated by Io + DMAP are treated with a 3-h interval between Io activation and DMAP (Io + 3h + DMAP), allowing time for the

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²Laboratorio de Biotecnología Animal, Facultad de Agronomía, Universidad de Buenos Aires, Av. San Martín 4453, C1417 Buenos Aires, Argentina.

54	extrusion of the second polar body (2PB), a specifically	105
55	haploid parthenote is induced (Susko-Parrish <i>et al.</i> ,	106
56	1994; Vichera <i>et al.</i> , 2009). If a 3-h interval between	107
57	Io and DMAP treatments is absent, the 2PB is not	108
58	extruded in most activated oocytes, resulting in the	109
59	formation of diploid parthenotes, (Susko-Parrish <i>et al.</i> ,	110
60	1994; Wells <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Cibelli <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Salamone	111
61	<i>et al.</i> , 2006; Vichera <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	112
62	Previous reports on haploid parthenogenetic activa-	113
63	tion have indicated that no difference in cleavage	114
64	ability was found between haploid and diploid	115
65	parthenogenetic embryos; however only some of the	116
66	haploid parthenogenetic embryos developed to the	117
67	blastocyst stage (Surani <i>et al.</i> , 1986; Escribá <i>et al.</i> ,	118
68	1999, 2000; Lagutina <i>et al.</i> , 2004). Parthenogenetic	119
69	embryos are unable to develop to term due to the	120
70	imprinting process that has an essential role during	121
71	embryogenesis (MacGrath <i>et al.</i> , 1983, 1984; Surani	
72	<i>et al.</i> , 1984, 1986). Therefore, to obtain viable offspring	
73	from haploid parthenogenetic embryos, every single	
74	blastomere from these embryos should be combined	
75	with the male counterpart (haploid male hemizygotes)	
76	in order to restore the normal heteroparental condition.	
77	Haploid male hemizygous eggs can be produced	
78	by removing the female pronucleus from fertilized	
79	eggs (Barton <i>et al.</i> , 1984; McGrath and Solter 1984;	
80	Surani <i>et al.</i> , 1984; Kaufman <i>et al.</i> , 1989; Latham and	
81	Solter 1991; Hagemann <i>et al.</i> , 1992), fertilization of	
82	enucleated oocytes (McGrath and Solter 1984; Surani	
83	<i>et al.</i> , 1984; Kaufman <i>et al.</i> , 1989; Latham and Solter	
84	1991; Hagemann <i>et al.</i> , 1992; Obata <i>et al.</i> , 2000) and	
85	injection of spermatozoa into oocytes followed by	
86	maternal chromosomes removal (Miki <i>et al.</i> , 2009).	
87	In this work, we compared the developmental	
88	ability of haploid and diploid parthenogenetic bovine	
89	embryos. Once obtained, blastomeres of haploid	
90	parthenogenetic embryos were used, as female genome	
91	donors, to reconstruct biparental embryos by	
92	fusion with haploid male hemizygotes. In addition,	
93	we generated homogeneous transgene-expressing em-	
94	broys by fusing parthenogenetic haploid blastomeres	
95	that expressed a transgene, with haploid male	
96	hemizygotes.	
97	Materials and methods	
98	Reagents	
99	All chemicals were obtained from Sigma Chemical	
100	Company (St. Louis, MO, USA), except when other-	
101	wise indicated.	
102	Oocyte collection and in vitro maturation	
103	Ovaries were collected at a slaughterhouse and trans-	
104	ported to the laboratory. Cumulus–oocyte complexes	
	were aspirated from follicles with a diameter of 2 to	105
	8 mm into Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (PBS;	106
	GIBCO BRL, Grand Island, NY, USA) that contained	107
	10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; GIBCO BRL) and 2%	108
	antibiotic–antimycotic (ATB; GIBCO BRL). Follicular	109
	oocytes covered by at least three layers of granulosa	110
	cells and with an evenly granulated cytoplasm were	111
	selected for <i>in vitro</i> maturation. The maturation	112
	medium was bicarbonate-buffered TCM-199 (GIBCO	113
	BRL) that contains 2 mM glutamine, 10% FBS, 2 µg/ml	114
	follicle-stimulating hormone (Follitropin®, Bioniche,	115
	Belleville, Ontario, Canada), 0.3 mM sodium pyruvate	116
	(P2256), 100 µM cysteamine (M9768) and 2% ATB.	117
	Oocytes were incubated in 100-µl droplets of medium	118
	covered with mineral oil (M8410), in 32 mm Petri	119
	dishes. <i>In vitro</i> maturation conditions were 6.5% CO ₂	120
	in humidified air at 39°C for 22 h.	121
	Production of parthenogenetic haploid and diploid	122
	embryos	123
	Matured oocytes vortexed for 2 min in hyaluronidase	124
	(1 mg/ml in DPBS) to remove cumulus cells, and	125
	washed three times in TALP-H (Bavister <i>et al.</i> , 1977).	126
	Metaphase II (MII) oocytes were identified by first	127
	polar body visualization and immediately used for	128
	parthenogenetic activation or micromanipulation tech-	129
	niques. Parthenogenetic haploid activation consisted	130
	of: (1) incubation with 5 µM Io (Invitrogen, California,	131
	USA) for 4 min; (2) incubation with 5 µM Io for 4	132
	min, then in synthetic oviductal fluid (SOF) for 3 h	133
	to permit extrusion of the second polar body (2PB),	134
	and finally placed in 1.9 mM 6-DMAP in SOF for 3 h.	135
	For parthenogenetic diploid activation, oocytes were	136
	placed in 5 µM Io for 4 min, followed by 1.9 mM 6-	137
	DMAP in SOF for 3 h.	138
	DNA construction	139
	The plasmid used was pCX-EGFP that contains	140
	enhanced green fluorescent protein gene (<i>egfp</i>) under	141
	the control of chimeric cytomegalovirus-IE–chicken β-	142
	actin enhancer–promoter (Ikawa <i>et al.</i> , 1995).	143
	Liposome–DNA coinubation	144
	For the injection experiments, 1 µl of 4 µg/ml	145
	DNA in combination with 3 µl of commercial	146
	liposome (Fugene; Boehringer-Manheim, Germany)	147
	were coinubated for 15 min. The liposome–DNA	148
	mixture was diluted to half concentration with 10%	149
	polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP; Irvine Scientific, Santa	150
	Ana, CA, USA), resulting in a final DNA concentration	151
	of 0.5 µg/ml.	152

153 **Intracytoplasmic injection of DNA–liposome** 154 **complexes**

155 After 3 h of haploid parthenogenetic activation, the
156 ooplasm of the activated oocytes was injected with
157 approximately 2 pl of DNA–liposome/PVP mixture,
158 using an injection capillary (0.7 μm in diameter)
159 attached to a Narishige hydraulic micromanipulator
160 (Medical Systems, Great Neck, NY, USA) mounted on a
161 Nikon Eclipse E-300 microscope (Nikon, Melville, NY,
162 USA).

163 **Haploid male hemizygotes production**

164 Haploid male hemizygotes were generated by fertil-
165 ization of enucleated oocytes. Enucleation was per-
166 formed as follows: oocytes were held and manipulated
167 in TALP-H supplemented with 3 mg/ml bovine serum
168 albumin (BSA). Denuded MII oocytes were enucleated
169 mechanically using micromanipulators mounted on a
170 Nikon Eclipse E-300 microscope and 20 μm diameter
171 pipettes. Metaphase chromosomes were visualized
172 under UV (<10 s) after staining with 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$
173 Hoechst 33342 for 10 min. Fertilization of enucleated
174 oocytes was performed as follows: bovine frozen
175 semen was thawed in a 37°C water bath for 30 s.
176 Spermatozoa were centrifuged twice (490 g , 5 min)
177 and resuspended in Brackett–Oliphant medium (BO)
178 supplemented with 5 mM caffeine and 20 IU/ml hepar-
179 in. Spermatozoa were diluted to half concentration
180 with BO that contained 10 mg/ml fatty acid-free BSA
181 (A6003), resulting in a final sperm concentration of
182 $15 \times 10^6/\text{ml}$. Spermatozoa were coincubated with
183 enucleated oocytes in 100- μl droplets, for 3 h at 39°C
184 in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in air. After
185 this incubation, hemizygotes were immediately used
186 for biparental embryo reconstruction.

187 **Karyotype analysis**

188 Embryos were cultured in SOF supplemented with
189 0.05 g/ml demecolcine (D1925) for 6 h at 72 h after IVF
190 (in vitro fertilization) and parthenogenetic activation.
191 Embryos were then exposed to a hypotonic 0.8% so-
192 dium citrate solution for 10 min at 37°C. Subsequently,
193 embryos were placed on a clean glass slide and treated
194 with a drop of methanol–acetic acid solution (3:1).
195 Slides were dried and then stained with 5% Giemsa
196 solution (Invitrogen) for 10 min. Chromosome spreads
197 were evaluated at $\times 400$ magnification.

198 **Biparental bovine embryo reconstruction by** 199 **parthenogenetic haploid blastomere fusion**

200 Parthenogenetic haploid embryos (2–16 cells) that
201 expressed EGFP, or not, were treated with 1.5 mg/ml
202 pronase (Sigma protease) dissolved in TALP-H to
203 remove the zona pellucida (ZP). Gentle pipetting

was applied to disaggregate blastomeres from these 204
embryos. Parthenogenetic blastomeres that expressed 205
EGFP were then selected under blue light using an 206
excitation filter at 488 nm and an emission filter 207
at 530 nm. Parthenogenetic blastomeres were fused 208
with haploid male hemizygotes as described below. 209
Haploid male hemizygotes were incubated in 1.5 mg/ 210
ml pronase for 5–10 min on a warm plate to remove 211
the ZP. ZP-free haploid male hemizygotes were 212
then transferred individually to a drop of 1 mg/ml 213
phytohemagglutinin dissolved in TCM-199 without 214
serum for a few seconds. Following this step, they were 215
dropped quickly over a single parthenogenetic haploid 216
blastomere resting on the bottom of a 100 μl TALP-H 217
drop. Following attachment, the ZP-free haploid male 218
hemizygote/parthenogenetic haploid blastomere pair 219
was picked up, transferred to fusion medium (0.3 M 220
mannitol, 0.1 mM MgSO_4 , 0.05 mM CaCl_2 , 1 mg/ml 221
PVA), for 2–3 min and then to a fusion chamber (BTX 222
Instrument Division; Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, 223
MA, USA) that contained 2 ml of warm fusion 224
medium. Fusion (Fig. 1) was performed with a double 225
direct current (dc) pulse of 65 V, each pulse was for 226
30 ms, 0.1 s apart. The biparental reconstructed 227
zygotes were then removed carefully and placed in 228
culture. 229

***In vitro* culture**

230 Parthenogenetic, IVF and reconstructed embryos were 231
cultured in SOF medium in a system similar to the 232
well of the well (WOW) method (Vajta *et al.*, 2000), 233
whereby microwells were produced using a heated 234
glass capillary slightly pressed to the bottom of a Petri 235
dish and covered with a 100- μl microdrop of culture 236
medium (16 WOW each microdrop, one embryo 237
each WOW). Culture conditions were a humidified 238
atmosphere of 5% O_2 , 5% CO_2 and 90% N_2 in air, 239
at 39°C. The medium was supplemented with 10% 240
FBS on day 5 during embryo culture. Cleavage was 241
evaluated on day 2 and blastocysts (Fig. 2) on day 7, 242
post fusion. 243

Determination of EGFP fluorescence in embryos

244 Embryos were briefly exposed to blue light during *in* 245
vitro culture, using an excitation filter at 488 nm and 246
an emission filter at 530 nm, to determine EGFP ex- 247
pression at different stages of development. Embryos 248
were analyzed on days 3 and 7, after parthenogenetic 249
activation or biparental embryo reconstruction. 250

Determination of blastocyst cell number

251 Embryos were stained in TCM-199 containing 252
1 mg/ml Hoechst 33342 (B2261), for 2 min and 253

Oocyte Genome Cloning and Biparental Bovine Embryo Reconstruction Procedure

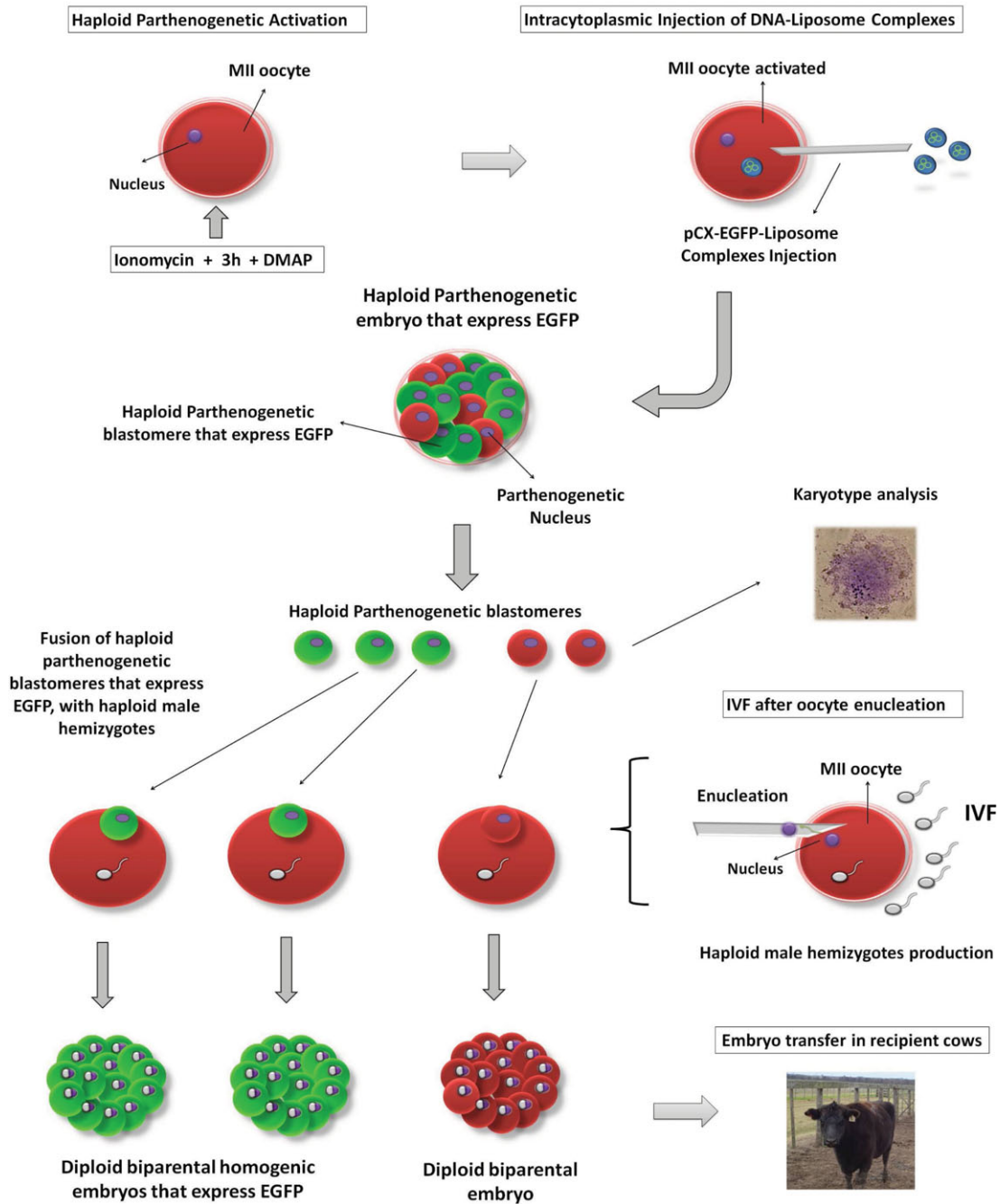


Figure 1 Schematic diagram showing the production of haploid parthenogenetic embryos and the biparental embryo reconstruction procedures. (See online for a colour version of this figure.)

254 mounted immediately between coverslips to count
255 total nuclei under an epifluorescence microscope.

256 Immunocytochemical analysis

257 Immunocytochemical analysis was performed on
258 bovine blastocysts, obtained as result of biparental

embryo reconstruction ($n = 2$), and on IVF bovine 259
blastocyst controls ($n = 3$). Briefly, embryos were 260
fixed for 30 min in 4% v/v paraformaldehyde in 261
PBS and permeabilized by 15 min incubation in PBS 262
that contained 0.2% v/v Triton X-100. Non-specific 263
immunoreactions were blocked by incubation with 264
3% v/v FBS and 0.1% v/v Tween-20 (Promega, 265

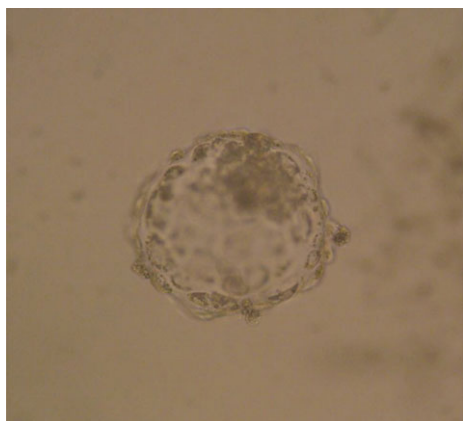


Figure 2 Biparental bovine blastocyst produced by fusion of a parthenogenetic haploid blastomere with a haploid male hemizygote and cultured in the well of the well system. Original magnification $\times 200$. (See online for a colour version of this figure.)

H5152) in PBS (blocking buffer) for 30 min. After this pretreatment, affinity-purified primary polyclonal antibody against Oct-4 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, California, USA) was diluted 1:100 in PBS and applied for 1 h at room temperature. Blastocysts were washed extensively in blocking buffer for 15 min. Then, the samples were incubated with secondary Alexa 488–donkey anti-goat IgG 2 mg/ml (Molecular Probes, Inc. Eugene, USA) diluted 1:1000 for 40 min at room temperature in the dark. After additional washing, the embryos were incubated in PBS that contained propidium iodide for 10 min in the dark. Embryos were mounted on slides in 70% v/v glycerol. Oct-4 negative controls were produced using only the secondary antibody. The embryos were analyzed on a Nikon confocal laser scanning microscope. An excitation wavelength of 488 nm was selected from an argon-ion laser to excite the Alexa-conjugated secondary antibody and a 544 nm wavelength to excite propidium iodide. Images of serial optical sections were recorded every 1.5 to 2 μm along the Z-axis of each embryo. Three-dimensional images were constructed using software EZ-C1 2.20.

Transfer of embryos

Reconstructed embryos were transferred to Aberdeen Angus recipients on day 7 of the oestrous cycle. Reconstructed embryos at the blastocyst stage (day 7) were used for embryo transfer. Each reconstructed embryo was washed several times in TL-HEPES and loaded into a 0.25 ml straw. Fresh embryos were transported to the farm at 35°C within 3 h. Embryos were transferred non-surgically to the uterine horn ipsilateral to the ovary bearing the corpus luteum,

using a transverse hole-type transfer device. Each recipient received one embryo. Pregnancies were diagnosed by fetal membrane palpation through rectal inspection at approximately days 60–70 after oestrus.

Experimental design

In the first experiment we compared the developmental ability of parthenogenetic haploid and diploid bovine embryos produced with Io, Io + 3h + DAMP or Io + DMAP. For the best parthenogenetic haploid treatments (Io + 3h + DAMP) we injected a mixture of pCX–EGFP–liposome complexes 3 h following activation, in order to obtain exogenous gene expression to be used as a parthenogenetic cytoplasmic marker. Karyotype analysis was done in order to determine the ploidy of the parthenogenetic embryos and male hemizygotes generated. In the second experiment, haploid parthenogenetic embryos (4–16 cells) either expressing EGFP or not, were disaggregated and the parthenogenetic haploid blastomeres obtained were fused with zona-free haploid male hemizygotes in order to reconstruct biparental embryos. The developmental ability of the reconstructed embryos and the blastocyst cell numbers were evaluated. Additionally, the Oct-4 expression pattern of blastocysts obtained from biparental embryo reconstruction was analyzed by immunocytochemistry. Finally, reconstructed biparental embryos were transferred to recipient cows on day 7 of *in vitro* development. The procedure is shown in Fig. 1.

Statistical analysis

In vitro embryo development and transgene expression were compared by non-parametric Fisher's exact test. For all statistical analyses, the SAS program was used (SAS Institute, 1989). Differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Experiment 1: Development of haploid parthenogenetic embryos, injected or not, with pCX–EGFP–liposome complexes

Development and EGFP-expression rates of haploid parthenogenetic embryos are summarized in Table 1. Statistical differences in cleavage rates were observed between the Io + 3h + DMAP group and the Io group, but not with the Io + 3h + DMAP injected with pCX–EGFP–liposome group. No differences were observed in rates of blastocyst development between the Io + 3h + DMAP and the Io + 3h + DMAP injected with pCX–EGFP–liposome groups, but significant differences were observed between the Io + 3h + DMAP

Table 1 Parthenogenetic haploid bovine embryo development and transgene expression

Parthenogenetic haploid activation treatment	Replicates	Injection of pCX-EGFP-liposome	<i>n</i>	Cleaved (%)	Morulae (%)	Blastocysts (%)	Blastocysts + EGFP embryos 4–16 cell (%)
Io	3	–	67	15 (22.4) ^a	1 (1.5) ^a	0 (0) ^a	NA
Io + 3h + DMAP	3	–	118	103 (87.3) ^b	23 (19.4) ^b	15 (12.8) ^b	NA
Io + 3h + DMAP	3	+	64	54 (84.4) ^b	33 (51.6) ^c	7 (10.9) ^b	35 (54.7)
Diploid activation control (Io + DMAP)	3	–	122	108 (88.5) ^b	53 (43.4) ^c	49 (40.2) ^c	NA

^{a-d}Values with different superscripts in a column are significantly different ($P < 0.05$, Fisher's test). +, injected; –, not injected; DMAP, 6-dimethylaminopurine; EGFP, enhanced green fluorescent protein; Io, ionomycin; NA, not applicable.

Table 2 Development and transgene expression (+ EGFP) of bovine embryos reconstructed by parthenogenetic blastomere fusion

Method of production	Replicates	Parthenogenetic blastomere	<i>n</i>	Fused	Cleaved (%)	Blastocysts (%)	+ EGFP Embryos 2–16 cell (%)	+ EGFP in all embryo cells%
Biparental embryo	4	–EGFP	146	131 (89.7)	80 (61.1)	11 (8.4) ^a	NA	NA
Biparental embryo reconstructed	2	+EGFP	38	37 (97.4)	29 (78.4)	4 (10.8) ^{a,b}	29 (100)	28/29 (96.6)
Biparental IVF control	4	–EGFP	98	NA	63 (64.3)	22 (22.5) ^b	NA	NA

^{a-d}Values with different superscripts in a column are significantly different ($P < 0.05$, Fisher's test). +, injected; –, not injected; DMAP, 6-dimethylaminopurine; EGFP, enhanced green fluorescent protein; Io, ionomycin; IVF, *in vitro* fertilization; NA, not applicable

348 and the Io group. All haploid parthenogenetic groups
349 showed statistical differences in blastocyst rates
350 compared with the diploid parthenogenetic control
351 40.2% (49/122), but no differences were seen in
352 cleavage rates. The EGFP-expression pattern was
353 evaluated in cleaved embryos (day 3 post activa-
354 tion). Parthenogenetic haploid embryos obtained by
355 Io + 3h + DMAP treatment and then injected with
356 pCX-EGFP-liposome complexes showed an EGFP-
357 expression rate of 54.7% (35/54). Moreover, karyotype
358 analysis of parthenogenetic embryos generated by
359 Io + 3h + DMAP, confirmed that 83.3% (10/12)
360 were indeed haploid. The remaining embryos were
361 mixoploid. Karyotype analysis performed on male
362 hemizygotes confirmed that 80.0% (8/10) of them were
363 indeed haploid. The remaining male hemizygotes
364 were diploid.

365 Experiment 2: Development and transgene 366 expression of biparental bovine embryos 367 reconstructed by fusion of parthenogenetic haploid 368 blastomeres (EGFP-positive or -negative), with 369 haploid male hemizygotes.

370 Development and EGFP-expression rates of ZP-free
371 biparental embryos reconstructed with parthenogen-
372 etic haploid blastomeres that were either positive or
373 negative for transgene expression, are summarized
374 in Table 2. No differences were observed between
375 these groups in the percentages of fusion and

376 development, while biparental IVF controls showed 376
377 a significantly higher blastocyst rate. All embryos 377
378 that were reconstructed with EGFP-positive partheno- 378
379 genetic haploid blastomeres expressed the transgene 379
380 during development (100%, 29/29) and 96.6% (28/29) 380
381 of them showed expression in all its blastomeres. 381
382 Immunocytochemical analysis to determine the Oct-4 382
383 expression pattern was positive for the inner cell mass 383
384 (ICM) and the trophoblast in the blastocysts analyzed 384
385 ($n = 2$). A similar result was seen in IVF control 385
386 embryos. To determine the number of blastocyst cells, 386
387 biparental reconstructed blastocysts ($n = 6$) and IVF 387
388 control blastocysts ($n = 8$) were stained on day 8, 388
389 resulting in an average of 72.8 ± 7.0 and 97.0 ± 7.3 cells, 389
390 respectively. 390

391 Experiment 3: Embryo transfer in recipient cows. 391

392 Reconstructed embryos ($n = 2$) were transferred at 392
393 the blastocyst stage to Aberdeen Angus recipients. 393
394 One pregnancy was diagnosed by fetal membrane 394
395 palpation through rectal inspection at approximately 395
396 60 days after embryo transfer. 396

397 Discussion 397

398 Generation of parthenogenetic haploid embryos al- 398
399 lows obtaining several blastomeres as identical copies 399
400 of a single oocyte genome (Surani *et al.*, 1986; Escribá 400

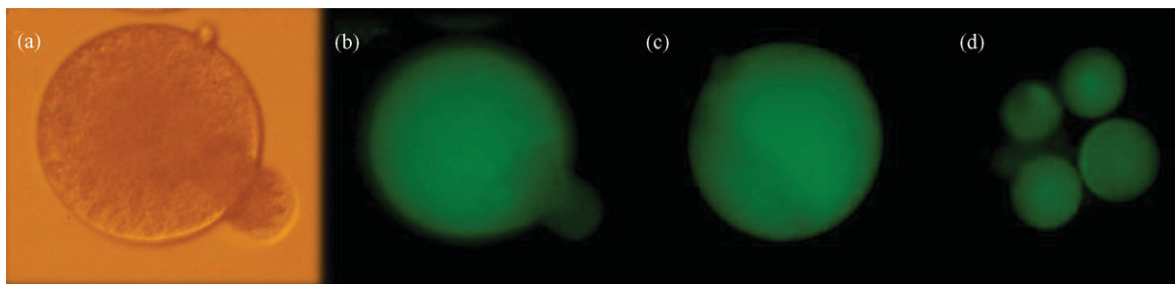


Figure 3 (a) ZP-free haploid male hemizygote fusing to an enhanced green fluorescent protein (+EGFP) parthenogenetic haploid blastomere (using phytohemagglutinin), prior to fusion. (b) The same zona pellucida (ZP)-free haploid male hemizygote fusing to a +EGFP parthenogenetic haploid blastomere under blue light. (c) The same ZP-free haploid male hemizygote completely fused to a +EGFP parthenogenetic haploid blastomere under blue light. (d) Biparental reconstructed ZP-free embryo expressing the transgene in all its blastomeres. The fluorescence was evaluated under blue light (488 nm). Original magnification $\times 200$. (See online for a colour version of this figure.)

401 *et al.*, 2001). Initially, we evaluated two methods to
 402 generate haploid parthenogenetic embryos, Io and
 403 Io + 3h + DMAP treatments. The parthenogenetic
 404 embryos produced by activation with only Io expo-
 405 sure, showed low cleavage rates and no blastocysts
 406 were obtained. However, parthenogenetic embryos
 407 produced by the Io + 3h + DMAP method cleaved and
 408 developed successfully regardless or not of whether
 409 they were injected with pCX-EGFP-liposome com-
 410 plexes (Table 1). Both these groups showed significant
 411 differences only in blastocyst development rates when
 412 compared with the diploid parthenogenetic control
 413 group. These results agree with previous reports
 414 that showed that haploid parthenogenetic embryos
 415 are compromised developmentally compared with
 416 diploid parthenogenetic embryos in different species
 417 such as cow, mouse and pig (Kaufman *et al.*, 1983;
 418 Henery *et al.*, 1992; Van De Velde *et al.*, 1999; Lagutina
 419 *et al.*, 2004). Recently, we demonstrated that in-
 420 tracytoplasmic injection of DNA-liposome complexes
 421 produces IVF and parthenogenetic embryos with
 422 an efficient expression of exogenous genes (Vichera
 423 *et al.*, 2010). In the present report, we also showed
 424 that haploid parthenogenetic embryos, produced by
 425 Io + 3h + DMAP and confirmed by karyotype
 426 analysis, cleaved successfully and showed high EGFP
 427 expression after injection of pCX-EGFP-liposome
 428 complexes (Table 1).

429 In the second experiment we demonstrated that
 430 it is possible to reconstruct biparental bovine em-
 431 bryos using female genome donors obtained from
 432 parthenogenetic haploid embryos up to the 16-cell
 433 stage (Table 2). Moreover, efficient fusion rates were
 434 obtained (90%), regardless of the embryonic stage of
 435 the donors (4–16 cells) and these embryos were capable
 436 of development to the blastocyst stage (Fig. 2). A
 437 previous report in mice observed that nuclear transfer
 438 of a maternal genome at the fourth cellular division, or
 439 more, in haploid male hemizygotes, severely impaired

the developmental ability of the embryos generated
 (Surani *et al.*, 1986). This situation could be due to
 the existence of asynchrony between both parental
 genomes making a functional integration of both
 nuclei difficult.

All the biparental embryos reconstructed with
 EGFP-positive parthenogenetic haploid blastomeres
 expressed the transgene (100%) and most of them
 showed transgene expression in all blastomeres
 (96.6%). Development was not affected in this ex-
 periment, which suggested that transgene expression
 does not compromise *in vitro* embryonic progression.
 Expression of EGFP verified the cytoplasmic contri-
 bution of parthenogenetic haploid blastomeres in the
 reconstructed embryos (Fig. 3). On the other hand,
 positive expression of Oct-4 observed both in the ICM
 and the trophoblast in the blastocysts analyzed, as well
 as in the IVF control group embryos, was consistent
 with appropriate nuclear programming, agreeing with
 previous reports (Kirchhof *et al.*, 2000). In this study,
 statistical differences were found in cell numbers,
 between reconstructed biparental blastocysts and
 control IVF blastocysts. This finding indicates that
 the cell divisions kinetics could be modified by the
 biparental embryo reconstruction procedure.

Transfer of reconstructed embryos, at the blastocyst
 stage, to recipient cows, resulted in one pregnancy
 diagnosed by fetal membrane palpation through rectal
 inspection at approximately 60 days after embryo
 transfer. However this pregnancy was subsequently
 lost. Previous reports in mice showed that viable
 offspring could be produced by nuclear transfer of
 haploid parthenogenetic nuclei (Surani *et al.*, 1986).
 Offspring produced with this technique were not
 identical to one another nor to their parents, as
 variability is given by the parental counterpart.
 Moreover, live offspring were obtained from chimeras
 reconstructed from aggregation of parthenogenetic
 and *in vitro* fertilized bovine embryos (Boediono

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479 *et al.*, 1999). In the rabbit, oviductal transfer of
 480 reconstructed zygotes resulted in 100% pregnancy on
 481 day 12, but no pregnancies were diagnosed on day
 482 21 after ovulation (Escribá *et al.*, 2001). One year
 483 later, the same authors obtained viable offspring when
 484 biparental embryos were reconstructed from cryop-
 485 reserved haploid rabbit parthenotes (García-Ximénez
 486 *et al.*, 2002). These results indicate that the female
 487 gametic endowment can be successfully stored by
 488 cryopreservation of parthenogenetic haploid embryos.
 489 Germplasm cryopreservation makes the establishment
 490 of genetic banks possible for the conservation
 491 of biodiversity and contributes to the preservation of
 492 endangered species. In the future, the cryopreservation
 493 of parthenogenetic haploid embryos could be a
 494 very attractive option to maximize the conservation
 495 of genetic resources due to its greater resistance
 496 compared to oocyte cryopreservation.

497 In this work, we demonstrated that it is possible
 498 to multiply the haploid oocyte genome from a
 499 single bovine oocyte and that this haploid oocyte
 500 genome replicate can be used to generate biparental
 501 bovine embryos. Future research might consider the
 502 generation of stable haploid parthenogenetic cell
 503 lines as an alternative source of female gametes.
 504 The generation of parthenogenetic embryos has been
 505 achieved in several mammalian species (Kaufman
 506 *et al.*, 1983; Machaty *et al.*, 1997; Loi *et al.*, 1998; Liu
 507 *et al.*, 2002; Grabiec *et al.*, 2007; Méo *et al.*, 2007;
 508 Revazova *et al.*, 2007). Previously, karyotypically stable
 509 cell lines that maintain a haploid karyotype have been
 510 isolated from amphibians and insects (Freed *et al.*,
 511 1970; Debec *et al.*, 1984). More recently the generation
 512 of haploid embryonic stem cells was described in
 513 Mekada fish (Yi *et al.*, 2009). This situation opens the
 514 possibility for oocyte genome cloning by multiplying
 515 the parthenogenetic haploid line. This would have
 516 the potential to generate an unlimited number of
 517 biparental embryos by combining these female haploid
 518 cells with haploid male hemizygotes to create a new
 519 combination of genetic traits from both parents.

520 In conclusion, we have shown that it is possible
 521 to obtain a consistent number of female haploid
 522 genome replicates from a single bovine oocyte and,
 523 subsequently, to use these replicates to generate
 524 biparental embryos. This approach offers enormous
 525 potential for livestock production as the use of genetic
 526 markers could allow the selection of certain favorable
 527 attributes prior to embryo reconstruction. Biparental
 528 embryo reconstruction by fusion of haploid oocyte
 529 genome replicates also could improve transgenic
 530 animal production because, in addition to increasing
 531 the number of transgenic embryos produced from
 532 a single oocyte, it also generates homogeneous
 533 transgene-expressing embryos. The capacity to alter
 534 the genome, by the introduction of exogenous genes
 535 with high efficiency and homogeneous expression,

could increase the generation of transgenic farm
 animals that are useful in the pharmaceutical industry,
 in biomedicine or for livestock production.

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