# The modeling of human implantation and early placentation: achievements and perspectives

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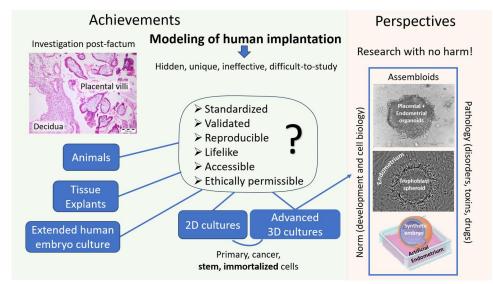
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#### **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**



Human implantation is a unique, ineffective, and difficult-to-model process, with a variety of in vivo, ex vivo, and in vitro models attempting to simulate certain phases of human implantation and related events; the advanced 3D implantation surrogates/assembloids are promising avenues for the future research of implantation.

#### ABSTRACT

**BACKGROUND:** Successful implantation is a critical step for embryo survival. The major losses in natural and assisted human reproduction appeared to occur during the peri-implantation period. Because of ethical constraints, the fascinating maternal-fetal cross-talk during human implantation is difficult to study and thus, the possibility for clinical intervention is still limited.

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**OBJECTIVE AND RATIONALE:** This review highlights some features of human implantation as a unique, ineffective and difficult-tomodel process and summarizes the pros and cons of the most used in vivo, ex vivo and in vitro models. We point out the variety of cell line-derived models and how these data are corroborated by well-defined primary cells of the same nature. Important aspects related to the handling, standardization, validation, and modus operandi of the advanced 3D in vitro models are widely discussed. Special attention is paid to blastocyst-like models recapitulating the hybrid phenotype and HLA profile of extravillous trophoblasts, which are a unique yet poorly understood population with a major role in the successful implantation and immune mother-embryo recognition. Despite raising new ethical dilemmas, extended embryo cultures and synthetic embryo models are also in the scope of our review.

**SEARCH METHODS:** We searched the electronic database PubMed from inception until March 2024 by using a multi-stage search strategy of MeSH terms and keywords. In addition, we conducted a forward and backward reference search of authors mentioned in selected articles.

OUTCOMES: Primates and rodents are valuable in vivo models for human implantation research. However, the deep interstitial, glandular, and endovascular invasion accompanied by a range of human-specific factors responsible for the survival of the fetus determines the uniqueness of the human implantation and limits the cross-species extrapolation of the data. The ex vivo models are short-term cultures, not relevant to the period of implantation, and difficult to standardize. Moreover, the access to tissues from elective terminations of pregnancy raises ethical and legal concerns. Easy-to-culture cancer cell lines have many limitations such as being prone to spontaneous transformation and lacking decent tissue characteristics. The replacement of the original human explants, primary cells or cancer cell lines with cultures of immortalized cell lines with preserved stem cell characteristics appears to be superior for in vitro modeling of human implantation and early placentation. Remarkable advances in our understanding of the peri-implantation stages have also been made by advanced three dimensional (3D) models i.e. spheroids, organoids, and assembloids, as placental and endometrial surrogates. Much work remains to be done for the optimization and standardization of these integrated and complex models. The inclusion of immune components in these models would be an asset to delineate mechanisms of immune tolerance. Stem cell-based embryo-like models and surplus IVF embryos for research bring intriguing possibilities and are thought to be the trend for the next decade for in vitro modeling of human implantation and early embryogenesis. Along with this research, new ethical dilemmas such as the moral status of the human embryo and the potential exploitation of women consenting to donate their spare embryos have emerged. The careful appraisal and development of national legal and ethical frameworks are crucial for better regulation of studies using human embryos and embryoids to reach the potential benefits for human reproduction.

**WIDER IMPLICATIONS:** We believe that our data provide a systematization of the available information on the modeling of human implantation and early placentation and will facilitate further research in this field. A strict classification of the advanced 3D models with their pros, cons, applicability, and availability would help improve the research quality to provide reliable outputs.

Keywords: human implantation / animal models / ex vivo models / 2D and advanced 3D models / stem cell-based embryolike models

#### Introduction

Successful interstitial implantation is a critical step for human embryo survival. There are still many gaps in our knowledge of the cell and molecular processes during implantation in humans. As a unique feature of the species, the implantation of the human embryo is characterized by deep interstitial, glandular, and endovascular invasion of the embryonic trophoblasts into specifically prepared endometrium (decidua) providing early histotrophic nutrition (Bischof and Irminger-Finger, 2005; Moser et al., 2010). The subsequent formation of the villous placenta ensures sufficient hematotrophic nutrition of the human fetus until term gestation. Trophoblasts (the fetal part of the placenta) comprise the utmost border of the barrier between the fetal and the maternal blood (the villous trophoblast) and the fetus and maternal tissue (extravillous trophoblast, EVT). The unique transformation of the decidual stromal cells together with the recruited immune cells at the place of materno-fetal contact is of great importance for the recognition of the developing embryo and the establishment of immune tolerance towards its paternal alloantigens (Harris et al., 2019; Muter et al., 2021). During implantation and early placentation, the initially local maternal-fetal crosstalk is further extended to the entire body and the whole immune system of the mother comes into contact with fetal immunogens. The most pregnancy losses appear to occur at the periimplantation stage or during the first week of implantation, the period which is not accessible for in vivo and ex vivo research in humans (Macklon et al., 2002). Consequently, the possibility of clinical intervention is still limited. This review highlights human implantation as a unique, ineffective, and difficult-to-study process and summarizes the most used in vivo, ex vivo, and in vitro models. The uniqueness of the process determines the

superiority of the ex vivo and in vitro models over the animal models. We discuss the models derived from primary gestational tissues and cells, cancer and immortalized cell lines, and stem cells. Their corresponding advanced three-dimensional (3D) cultures (spheroids, organoids, and assembloids) are thought to be more valuable for in vitro modeling of human implantation and early placentation since these recapitulate closely the in vivo environment. Emphasis is put on the extent to which these models succeed in representing maternal-fetal contact during human implantation and their study applications. Some aspects related to the generation, handling, standardization, validation, and modus operandi are also considered. As perspectives, the urgent need for systematization of the available 3D culture systems as well as consistency of the terminology and methodology is pointed out. The similarity of blastoid and gastruloid models to human blastocysts/gastrula provides promising avenues for implantation research, developmental biology, regenerative medicine, and drug discovery. However, these synthetic embryo models raise ethical and legal questions that affect future research and widespread adoption in industry and clinical settings, and need to be thoroughly discussed.

# Human implantation and placentation in brief: a unique, ineffective, and difficult-to-study process

During the first 7 days after fertilization, the embryo develops from a zygote to an early blastocyst comprised of the inner cell mass (ICM) (embryoblast) and trophectoderm (TE) and then to a late blastocyst consisting of epiblast (precursor to the embryo proper), the hypoblast (precursor to the yolk sac) and TE (precursor of all trophoblasts) (ref. in Gerri *et al.*, 2020). During the second week of development, the TE of the blastocyst implants into the decidua basalis (transformed endometrium), turning into

trophoblast, and undergoes subsequent complex morphogenesis and placentation (Enders, 2000). Human implantation is a highly complicated and unique phenomenon consisting of three steps: an apposition phase when an unstable contact of the blastocyst to the uterine epithelium occurs, followed by firm adhesion of the embryonic trophoblast to the endometrial epithelium, and an invasion phase when the blastocyst penetrates the uterine epithelium and embeds entirely within the decidua (Norwitz et al., 2001). This is the beginning of the formation of the human villous discoidal placenta. The invasive human implantation is preceded and accompanied by significant tissue remodeling and a massive endometrial reaction called decidualization. The latter prepares the tissue to accommodate the embryo and involves the development of new blood vessels, remodeling of the uterine glands, a transformation of normal fibroblasts into secreting decidual stromal cells (DSC), and recruitment of maternal immune cells (Wagner et al., 2014). In humans, decidualization starts during the latter half of each menstrual cycle and is therefore independent of the conceptus (Emera et al., 2012). However, the decidualization peaks when the embryo is embedding into the endometrium (Zhang et al., 2013). Successful implantation supports the decidual reaction; otherwise, the decidua is shed as controlled menstrual bleeding (Cha et al., 2012; Fritz et al., 2014). The endometrium becomes receptive to the embryo for a short period of 2-4 days during the mid-secretory phase of each menstrual cycle (Days 19–23), commonly known as the window of implantation (WOI) (Bergh and Navot, 1992). For a long time, it was assumed that the WOI is constant in time in all women but newly published data has shown that it is personalized (Ruiz-Alonso et al., 2013). The TE is the outer cell layer of the blastocyst-stage embryo, attaching to the receptive endometrial luminal epithelium to initiate implantation. The initial contact occurs via the polar TE, cells located adjacent to the ICM (Lindenberg et al., 1989; Aplin and Ruane, 2017). The TE-derived trophoblast is the only fetal tissue coming into direct contact with maternal tissue and blood during implantation, becoming the fetal part of the placenta. Trophoblast consists of three types: cytotrophoblasts (CT), syncytiotrophoblasts (ST), and EVTs. The CT are proliferating mononuclear cells, that function as stem cells-like progenitors of ST and EVT. Recently, a multi-model approach showed that the invasive multinucleate ST formation from TE is promoted by attachment to the endometrial epithelium (Ruane et al., 2022). Primary ST disrupts the basal lamina of the endometrial epithelium and invades the decidua, providing strong attachment to the uterus. It is important to note that the primary ST is highly invasive as compared with the secondary ST covering the definitive placental villi (Ruane et al., 2022; Siriwardena and Boroviak, 2022). By Day 12, the primary placental villi are formed from CT covered with ST that invade the underlying decidual tissue providing histotrophic nourishment of the embryo under low oxygen conditions (Kojima et al., 2022). These villi will eventually branch and acquire cores of mesenchyme with blood vessels and connective tissue to form the definitive placental villi (Kojima et al., 2022). As a result, the vascularization of the villi associated with an initiation of the embryonic circulation will provide the effective basis for the establishment of a functional hemochorial placenta (Hamilton and Boyd, 1960; Turco and Moffett, 2019). Humans have a hemochorial type of placenta, in which the trophoblast comes into direct contact with maternal blood to establish the most intimate relationship between the developing embryo and the source of nutrition from the mother (Loke and King, 1995; Benirschke and Kaufmann, 2000). In the villi that anchor the conceptus to the decidua (anchoring villi), CT forms a

continuous thick layer of trophoblast shell composed of highly proliferative CT. The formation of the shell depends on the stimulation of cytotrophoblast progenitors by histotrophs (Burton and Jauniaux, 2017). Between 11-12 and 90 days postfertilization, the anchoring villi are numerous and closely approximated together (Hamilton and Boyd, 1960). Cells towards the outer surface of the shell undergo a partial epithelialmesenchymal transition (EMT) to form EVT. The trophoblast shell is the source of highly invasive mononuclear EVT (Burton and Jauniaux, 2017) invading deeply into decidua basalis (maternal part of the future placenta) to reconstruct the uterine spiral arterioles into highly conductive sinusoids and adapting the blood supply to the site of implantation. At the end of pregnancy EVT in the placental bed are stationary giant cells (Moffett and Loke, 2006; Kojima et al., 2022). The floating placental villi are bathed in maternal blood in intervillous spaces, where the ST participates in the mother-fetus exchange of oxygen and nutrients. ST secretes a variety of pregnancy-specific hormones such as human placental lactogen (hPL), trophoblastic protein pregnancy-specific  $\beta$ -glycoprotein (SP-1), and human chorionic gonadotrophin (hCG) (Tal and Taylor, 2000). The initial adhesion of the blastocyst to the uterine epithelium has never been observed in vivo. Most information on human implantation and the first weeks of placental development has been derived from a series of specimens collected in the 1950s, which have been described extensively (Hertig et al., 1956). Some data on early human embryo development, implantation, and early pre-villous placenta (Carnegie stages 1-5) came from histological studies with archived material, and from studies with non-human primates (Boyd, 1950; Leiser and Kaufmann, 1994; Enders and Blankenship, 1999; Enders and Lopata, 1999). The available histological studies provided snapshots of events that occurred during the implantation without insights into the dynamics of the processes and possible alterations (West et al., 2019). Newer atlases, based on examination of the archived specimens, examined with modern techniques continue the enrichment of our knowledge of human implantation and early embryo development (Yamada et al., 2010). In Fig. 1, we show the maternal-fetal interface (MFI) in the first trimester of pregnancy (6-12 gestational weeks, gw) when both implantation and placentation are completed. Although not relevant to the implantation, the 10-12 gw period coincides with the second invasive wave of EVT and the main trophoblast subpopulations (ST, CT, EVT) could be visualized in situ. The decidualization of the endometrium is demonstrated by numerous decidual glands, blood vessels, immune cell recruitment, and fibroblasts transformed into DSC (Fig. 1A). Both parts of the placenta, decidua and trophoblast, are still separated (Fig. 1B). In such later specimens, the trophoblast shell becomes discontinuous, persisting only where cytotrophoblast columns are attached to the decidua basalis via anchoring villi (Fig. 1C). The distal end of the anchoring villa (in contact with the decidua) contains a CT column with highly proliferative CT giving rise to the EVT population. Floating placental villi are composed of ST, CT, and mesenchyme with numerous blood vessels (Fig. 1D). The EVT migrate as a group into early pregnancy decidua (Fig. 1E) but are the stationary giant cells in the placental bed in term pregnancy (Fig. 1F).

Human implantation and the following growth and development of the semi-allogeneic fetus in the uterus, without rejection by the mature maternal immune system, is considered an immune paradox (Medawar, 1953). Accumulating data on the immune interaction between the mother's immune system and trophoblasts showed that human implantation is probably not

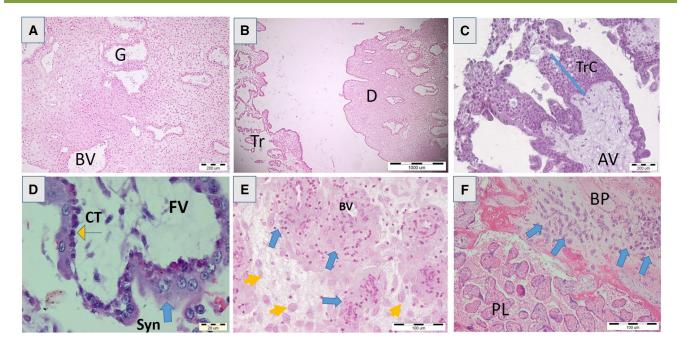


Figure 1. Maternal-fetal interface during early and term human pregnancy. Paraffin sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin were obtained according to the published protocol (Terzieva *et al.*, 2019). (A) decidualization of the endometrium, note numerous decidual glands and blood vessels. (B) Both parts of the placenta—decidua and trophoblast. (C) Anchoring placental villus with a column of cytotrophoblasts. (D) Floating placental villus with sincytio- (blue arrow) and cytotrophoblasts (yellow arrow). (E) Clusters of EVTs (blue arrows) remodeling blood vessel and decidual stronal cells (yellow arrows) around. (F) Term placental villus of the (maternal surface) with numerous EVTs (blue arrow). G, gland; BV, blood vessel; D, decidua; Tr, trophoblasts; AV, anchoring villus; TrC, cytotrophoblast column; FV, floating villus; Syn(ST), syncytiotrophoblasts; CT, cytotrophoblasts; EVT, extravillous trophoblasts; PL, placenta; BP, basal plate.

an immune paradox but rather 'a fascinating example of a very special challenge for the maternal immune system' (Juch et al., 2012). During implantation and placentation, the mother-embryo contact is always mediated by the trophoblast and is dual: (i) between maternal blood and ST of the floating placental villi and (ii) between maternal immune cells and EVT into decidua. The EVT invades deeply into decidua to the inner one-third of the myometrium to (i) establish immune tolerance via interaction with decidua-based immune cells, (ii) remodel the uterine glands to provide the early embryo with histotrophic nutrition, and (iii) remodel the uterine spiral arteries for definitive hemochorial placenta establishment. Probably different EVT populations are involved in these processes and their function is crucial for the success (or failure) of implantation. The invasion of the trophoblasts is a tightly regulated process by the maternal cells: the immune cells and DSC (Xu et al., 2021). Shallow trophoblast invasion and vascular remodeling result in poor placental blood flow, causing common disorders of pregnancy, such as recurrent miscarriage, preeclampsia, and fetal growth retardation (Roberts and Escudero, 2012). Conversely, excessive invasion can lead to a life-threatening complication (placenta percreta), where trophoblast cells can rupture the uterus (Jauniaux and Jurkovic, 2012). Thus, the understanding of trophoblast differentiation and function is crucial to improving the management of implantation disorders. The successful implantation is generally associated with the downregulation of the adaptive immune system (conventional T-cell responses), T-regulatory cell enrichment (Aluvihare et al., 2004; Dimova et al., 2011), and specific adaptation of the innate immune cell populations at the MFI (Robertson and Moldenhauer, 2014; Alexandrova et al., 2022b; Manchorova et al., 2022). Hence, local maternal immunity provides an immunosuppression of specific responses towards the fetus without massively compromising the ability to fight infection and tumor

transformation. The villous trophoblasts bathed in maternal blood do not express HLA class I molecules (Blaschitz *et al.*, 2001) but EVT contacting with maternal immune cells in the decidua express a unique pattern of HLA molecules non-classical (invariant) HLA class I molecules such as HLA-G, HLA-E and HLA-F (Apps *et al.*, 2009; Yang *et al.*, 2022) and the only classical polymorphic HLA-C molecule (Proll *et al.*, 1999). EVT invading decidual tissue interacts with maternal uterine natural killer (uNK) cells, macrophages, and T cells (Moffett and Loke, 2006; Hanna *et al.*, 2006). Killer immunoglobulin-like receptors (KIRs) on the maternal cytotoxic T and NK cells specifically recognize parental HLA-C allotypes (Hiby *et al.*, 2010). It seems that some maternal/ fetal KIR/HLA-C combinations might be favorable to implantation/placentation, while others could initiate allo-responses or insufficient placental growth (Hiby *et al.*, 2010).

Human reproduction (native and assisted) is an ineffective process and probably this is part of the price for the intimate coexistence of two different genomes. Only around one-third of natural human conceptions progress to a live birth, with the others resulting in failed pregnancy (Chard, 1991; Clark, 2003; Koot et al., 2012). Approximately half of all conception losses in healthy couples are pre-clinical (i.e. lost before registration of pregnancy) (Chard, 1991; Zinaman et al., 1996; Macklon et al., 2002; Clark, 2003). Of these failures, around 30% are before implantation, predominantly due to 'abnormal' embryos (e.g. chromosome abnormalities). Another 30% are lost following implantation, between the third and fourth week of gestation (Zinaman et al., 1996; Macklon et al., 2002). Early clinical pregnancy loss shows significant variation with age and accounts for 10% of all conceptions (Wang et al., 2003; Ojosnegros et al., 2021). Nowadays women tend to decide to conceive later in life and delay motherhood. However, with aging, the chance of natural conception and maintenance of pregnancy decreases, and an

assisted reproductive technology treatment might be needed. IVF-ET (in vitro fertilization-embryo transfer) allows the compartmentalization of the treatment process so that it becomes possible to know when an embryo was transferred and if implantation has occurred. Implantation failure or recurrent implantation failure (RIF) is one of the main reasons for the low success rate in IVF-ET (Cha et al., 2012) as only 34.6% of the transferred embryos successfully implant (European IVF Monitoring Consortium, ESHRE et al., 2023). Even though the embryologists are equipped with instrumentation to evaluate and choose top-quality embryos for transfer, the impact of the maternal side on implantation remains to be evaluated. There is now considerable interest in the role of the endometrium and peri-conceptus environment on implantation and subsequent embryo development. Because of ethical and practical constraints, the in vivo investigation of implantation in humans is not possible and the law in many EU countries also prohibits in vitro studies using human blastocysts (Matthews and Moralí, 2020).

In summary, the unique feature of human implantation is the deep interstitial, glandular, and endovascular invasion providing early histotrophic nutrition and subsequent formation of a single-disk hemochorial villous placenta. The majority of losses in natural and assisted human reproduction appear to occur at the peri-implantation stage or early after implantation. Unfortunately, this period is not accessible for *in vivo* and *ex vivo* research in humans. Thus, human implantation is still a considerable barrier and limiting step to natural and assisted reproduction, as the lack of detailed knowledge limits the possibilities for clinical intervention.

# Modeling of the human implantation: the status quo

In the next section of this review, we discuss the primates and rodents as *in vivo* animal models for studying human implantation (Tables 1 and 2) as well as the *ex vivo* and *in vitro* models derived from primary gestational tissues and cells, cancer and immortalized cell lines, and stem cells (Table 3), as well as the corresponding advanced 3D constructs such as spheroids and organoids. The complex assembloid models (Table 4) recapitulate, to the highest extent, the MFI during human implantation. Some of the models are schematically presented in Fig. 2.

#### In vivo (animal) models: primates and rodents

Although primates and rodents are valuable in vivo models for human implantation research (Fig. 2A), one must bear in mind that the mode of implantation and placenta type in humans are different (Schmidt et al., 2015; Aghajanova, 2020). The main differences in the implantation of humans, primates, and rodents are summarized in Table 1. Evolutionarily, humans are classified as one group with the great apes (gorillas, chimpanzees, orangutans, bonobos), separate from the old world monkeys (macaques, baboons) and new-world monkeys (marmosets) (Nakamura et al., 2021). Primates (great apes, old and new world monkeys) have been part of placental research for many years (Myers, 1972; Enders, 1995, 2000; Carter and Pijnenborg, 2011; Carter et al., 2015). Great apes have the greatest structural similarity to human beings in terms of decidualization, routes, and depth of trophoblast invasion, the timing of implantation, and placenta type (discoidal villous) (Enders, 1993; Nakamura et al., 2021) (Table 1). In chimpanzees, bonobos (pigmy chimpanzees), gorillas, oldworld monkeys, and humans, decidualization occurs before implantation (mid-secretory phase of each cycle), and is linked to the interstitial type of implantation (Dollar et al., 1982; James,

2014). It is driven by the progesterone of corpus luteum after ovulation (Carp, 2020). The available single histological samples of orangutans and gibbons have shown restricted interstitial invasion and decidualization remains an uncertain process (Carter and Pijnenborg, 2011). In other primates (new-world monkeys), the decidualization only occurs after implantation (Siriwardena and Boroviak, 2022). Chimpanzee and human embryos are entirely buried into decidua basalis, whereas the embryos of cynomolgus and rhesus macaques are only partially buried in the endometrium (Nakamura et al., 2016). It has been reported that all trophoblast cell types among non-human primates and humans are similar morphologically and functionally (Enders, 1995, 2000; Carter et al., 2015) but a species difference of central importance is in the EVT invasion depth, which is smaller in primates other than chimpanzees (Schmidt et al., 2015; Nakamura et al., 2021) (Table 1). Also, different kinetic gene expressions before and after implantation have been shown between humans and monkeys (Nakamura et al., 2016). Humans and great apes have a single placental disc, while macaques and marmosets have a bi-discoidal placenta (Myers, 1972). The primitive syncytium forming lacunae filled with maternal blood (Enders, 1989), later becoming large intervillous spaces, is observed in humans and non-human primates (Schlafke and Enders, 1975). Studying implantation in different primate species is helpful to identify conserved processes applicable to all primates including humans and conversely, the differences in implantation will dissect human-specific processes. Studies on the mechanisms controlling trophoblast invasion depth in primates of different implantation modes may elucidate early trophoblast invasion and the molecular mechanisms underlying pathophysiological changes in human placental development (Siriwardena and Boroviak, 2022). Future cross-species analysis of the recently generated in vivo single-cell transcriptome datasets of post-implantation trophoblast in humans, rhesus macaque, and marmoset will facilitate the discovery of new regulators of EVT differentiation (Ma et al., 2019; Bergmann et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2022).

In Table 2, we summarize most of the studies of primates and rodents as *in vivo* models of human implantation and early placentation emphasizing their advantages and disadvantages. Large-scale experiments with non-human primates are difficult because of higher expenses, longer life cycles and gestation time, specific requirements for their housing, low fertility, and inability to detect early pregnancy, as well as ethical considerations (Lee and DeMayo, 2004) (Table 2). Given the embargo on invasive procedures in apes, it seems that the best models available are macaques, baboons, and marmosets (Carter *et al.*, 2015).

From rodents, the most widespread models to study human implantation are mice and rats (Fig. 2A) because of their low cost, easy breeding, short maturation, available genetic information, and the possibility of genetic modifications (Table 2). Although rodent models can be highly informative, the translation and applicability of the findings to humans are under question because of some important differences. Unlike spontaneous decidualization in humans and some non-human primates in mice and other rodents, the presence of an embryo triggers a decidual response (Nakamura et al., 2021, Table 1). Mouse pregnancy is dependent on the corpus luteum for the production of progesterone through the whole gestation, while in humans at the beginning of pregnancy (first trimester) it is the corpus luteum, but after luteolysis the placenta is the main hormone producer (Malassiné et al., 2003). Mice and rats have discoidal hemochorial placenta of the labyrinth type (Malassiné et al., 2003; Burke et al., 2010; Elmore et al., 2022) and the embryo is never entirely embedded

	Human	Primates (great apes, old and new world monkeys)	Rodents (mice, rats, guinea pigs, rabbits)	References
Decidualization	Spontaneous cyclic process independent on the embryo	Spontaneous cyclic process independent on the embryo	Dependent on an embryonic stimulus	Dollar et al., 1982 Carter and Pijnenborg, 2011 James, 2014 Carp, 2020 Nakamura et al., 2021
Time and type of implantation	9 days post coitum, Interstitial	9 days post coitum, Interstitial (great apes), centric (cynomolgus, rhesus macaques)	4 days post coitum, interstitial (guinea pigs), centric (rabbits), eccentric (mice, rats)	Lee and DeMayo, 2004 Nakamura <i>et al.</i> , 2016 Siriwardena and Boroviak, 2022
Attachment	Polar trophoblast (ICM-adjacent) adheres to and breaches the endometrial epithelium	Polar trophoblast (ICM-adjacent) adheres to and breaches the endometrial epithelium	Mural trophoblast (non-ICM-adjacent) adheres to the endome- trial epithelium inducing apoptosis or entosis	Enders et al., 1983 Enders, 1993, 2000 Enders and Lopata, 1999 Carter, 2007
Trophoblast subpopulations	ST, CT and EVT	ST, CT and EVT	Two syncytial and a single mononuclear layer of unknown function, spongiotrophoblasts	Enders, 1989, 1995, 2000 Enders and Blankenship, 1999 Carter, 2007 Carter <i>et al.</i> , 2015 Elmore <i>et al.</i> , 2022
Large intervillous spaces	Yes	Yes	No, yes (guinea pigs)	Schlafke and Enders, 1975 Enders, 1989
EVT invasion depth	Decidua basalis and the inner 1/3 of the myometrium	Decidua basalis mainly, decidua basalis and the inner 1/3 of the myometrium (chimpanzee)	Decidua basalis mainly, deeper in rats, decidua basalis and the inner 1/3 of the myometrium (guinea pigs)	Enders, 2000 Caluwaerts et al., 2005; Vercruysse et al., 2006 Nakamura et al., 2021
Type of placenta	Hemochorial, villous, discoidal	Hemochorial, villous, discoidal or bi-discoidal (macaques and marmosets)	Hemochorial, labyrinth, discoidal	Myers, 1972 Carter, 2007 Burke et al., 2010 Elmore et al., 2022

Table 1. Main differences in implantation between humans, primates, and rodents.

EVT, extravillous trophoblast; ICM, inner cellular mass; ST, syncytiotrophoblast; CT, cytotrophoblast.

Table 2. Advantages and disadvantages of the primates and rodents studied as models for human implantation.

	Advantages	Disadvantages	Studies
<b>Primates</b> (great apes, old and new world monkeys)	Decidualization, same or similar type and time of implantation, the same type of placenta	Expensive experiments long life cycle and gestation time Specific housing Low fertility Ethical considerations	Myers, 1972 Enders, 1993, 1995, 2000 Carter and Pijnenborg, 2011; Carter et al., 2015 Schmidt et al., 2015 Nakamura et al., 2016, 2021
Rodents (mice, rats, guinea pigs, rabbits)	Low-cost experiments Easy breeding, short maturation, available genetic information Possibility of genetic modifications	Different decidualization, substantial mechanistic differences in implantation Different trophoblast subpopulations	Schlafke and Enders, 1975 Enders and Schlafke, 1969 Enders, 1989 Caluwaerts et al., 2005 Simmons and Cross, 2005 Cross, 2005 Carter, 2007 Vercruysse et al., 2006 Burke et al., 2010 Ramathal et al., 2010 Aplin and Ruane, 2017 Elmore et al., 2022

(eccentric implantation). Thus, histotrophic nutrition is additionally ensured by the formation of a second yolk sac (Ramathal *et al.*, 2010; Elmore *et al.*, 2022). Moreover, the mouse placenta has three (two syncytial and a single mononuclear layer of unknown function) (Enders and Lopata, 1999). While in the chorionic villi of the human placenta, there is a huge amount of proliferating CT, the labyrinth zone of the mouse placenta does not have an exact such layer. Nevertheless, the labyrinth zone is differentiated from the intensively proliferative polar TE of the ectoplacental cone, a structure specific for mice and rats (Enders and Lopata, 1999; Elmore *et al.*, 2022). Spongiotrophoblasts are the putative mouse counterparts of human CT and mouse trophoblast giant cells and glycogen cells (analogous to human EVT) are their derivatives but never reach the huge invasive capacity of human EVT (Cross, 2005; Simmons and Cross, 2005; Soncin *et al.*, 2018). An EVT invasion depth in mice is restricted to the decidua basalis (Schmidt *et al.*, 2015; Nakamura *et al.*, 2021) while rats show deeper trophoblast invasion, involving both endovascular and

Table 3. Ex vivo and in vitro models used to study human implantation.

Type	Endometrium: to study decidualization and endometrial receptivity	Reference	Trophoblast: to study CT proliferation, differentiation into EVT or ST, EVT migration and invasion, syncytialization/ fusion, immune interactions (tolerogenic mecha- nisms), apoptosis.	Reference
zīnsīdxə əuzsiT	<ul> <li>Segments of late-luteal-phase         <ul> <li>(4-7 days after the LH peak)</li> <li>(4-7 days after the LH peak)</li> <li>(4-7 days after the LH peak)</li> <li>Prost: Closest to the in vivo/in situ features, n                  Production and regulation of the endo-</li></ul></li></ul>	<ul> <li>Kliman et al., 1990</li> <li>Dudley et al., 1992</li> <li>Landgren et al., 1996</li> <li>Teklenburg and Macklon, 2009</li> <li>Bersinger et al., 2010</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Segments of the villous part of 5–10 gw human placenta man placenta</li> <li>Pros: Closest to the in vivo/in situ features to study the early stages of placentation (proliferation and differentiation of EVT from the cytotrophoblastic columns in a preserved villous structure</li> <li>Cons: Short-term cultures; difficult standardi- zation; restricted access to specimens; de novo isolation for each experiment</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Genbacev et al., 1992</li> <li>Vicovac et al., 1995</li> <li>Caniggia et al., 2006</li> <li>Popovici et al., 2006</li> <li>Miller et al., 2013</li> <li>Baczyk et al., 2016</li> <li>Horii et al., 2016</li> </ul>
Primary cells	<ul> <li>Epithelial and stromal endometrial cells: Pros: Closest to the in vivo/in situ features; express progesterone-regulated markers of endometrial receptivity</li> <li>Cons: Time- and source-consuming isolations; considerable differences in protocols for isolation; variable yields, purity and differentiation; limited viability; constant isk for unwanted spontaneous transformations, difficult standardization and propagation; fresh cell isolates are needed for each experiment</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Satyaswaroop et al., 1979</li> <li>Bentin-Ley et al., 1995</li> <li>Chan et al., 2004</li> <li>Macklon, 2009</li> <li>Masuda et al., 2016</li> <li>Horii et al., 2016</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Cytotrophoblasts (CT): Pros: Closest to the in vivo/in situ features; dynamic phenotype; Specific upregulation of surface HLA-C and HLA-G upon differentiation; provide combination of protein and non-protein-coding markers for validation of a particular first-trimester trophoblast subpopulation</li> <li>Cons: Time- and source-consuming isolations; considerable difference in protocols; Often mixed population; Limited life span, rapidly cease proliferation in vitro; Lack of generally accepted minimal criteria for a line to be determined as a pure primary. 1<sup>st</sup> trimester, human trophoblast cell line; De novo isolation for each experiment</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Kliman et al., 1990</li> <li>Fisher et al., 1989</li> <li>King et al., 2000</li> <li>Genbacev et al., 2011</li> <li>Lee et al., 2016</li> <li>Abbas et al., 2020</li> <li>Horii et al., 2020</li> <li>Eikmans et al., 2023</li> <li>Greenbaum et al., 2023</li> </ul>
				(continued)

Tyne	Endometrium	Reference	Tronhohlast	Reference
- 16-	<b>Pros</b> : Immortal and easy to propagate <b>Cons</b> : Turnor cell features, constant possibility for unwanted spontaneous transformation	unwanted spontaneous transforma		
	<ul> <li><b>HEC-1A/B – luminal epithelium.</b></li> <li><b>Pros:</b> Express cytokeratin 13 and 18, and retain estrogen, progesterone and androgen receptors, and CD55 found in implantation. Used as a model for non-receptive endometrium</li> <li><b>Cons:</b> Considerable difference in expression estrogen metabolism. Poor apical adhesiveness due to epithelial polarization</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Mo et al., 2006</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2010</li> <li>Hevir-Kene and Rižner, 2015</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>A BeWo - CT able to differentiate into EVT or ST.</li> <li>Pros: Express HLA-C and HLA-G mRNA, pro- duce hCG, Adhesiveness to endometrial epithelium. Suitable for syncytialization Cons: Near-triploid; HLA-G is not expressed</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Pattillo et al., 1968</li> <li>Kovats et al., 1990</li> <li>Al-Nasiry et al., 2006</li> <li>Bhat and Anderson, 2007</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2016</li> <li>Jarnes et al., 2016</li> <li>Rothbauer et al., 2017</li> <li>Ban et al., 2020</li> <li>Weber et al., 2021</li> <li>Li et al., 2023</li> </ul>
Cancer cells	<ul> <li>ECC-1 – luminal epithelium.</li> <li>Pros: Well-differentiated, steroid-responsive; MUC secretion. Attachment surface with capacity to acquire a recep- tive phenotype</li> <li>Cons: N.B.I The original line has been lost. Currently available ECC-1 cells are shown to be an Ishikawa 3-H-12 deriva- tive, MCF-7 breast cancer cells, or a mix- ture of both</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Satyaswaroop and Tabibzadeh, 1991</li> <li>Mo et al., 2006</li> <li>Evans et al., 2020</li> <li>Ban et al., 2020</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>JEG-3 - CT able to differentiate into EVT or ST. Pros: Express HLA-C, HLA-G and secrete HLA-G; adhesiveness to endometrial epithe-lium. Non-classical cell fusion model for syncytialization</li> <li>Cons: Near tetraploid which correlates with HLA-G expression, Limited intercellular membrane fusion</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Kohler and Bridson, 1971</li> <li>Kovats et al., 1990</li> <li>Apps et al., 2001</li> <li>Apps et al., 2011</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2016</li> <li>Zou et al., 2015</li> <li>Poloski et al., 2016</li> <li>McConkey et al., 2016</li> <li>James et al., 2017</li> <li>Weber et al., 2021</li> <li>Eikmans et al., 2022</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Ishikawa cells - glandular + lumi- nal epithelium.</li> <li>Pros: Widely considered as good model for a receptive endometrium, normal endo- metrial function, and endo- crine signaling</li> <li>Cons: Stable up to 45passages; N.B.! Sub clone 3-H-12 has been distributed since 1996 - not deposited in any cell bank</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Nishida,2002</li> <li>Castelbaum et al., 1997</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2010</li> <li>Vergaro et al., 2019</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>JAR-CT able to differentiate into EVT or ST. Pros: Adhesiveness to endometrial epithelium. Non- classical cell fusion model for syn- cytialization</li> <li>Cons: Express no or minimal amounts of HLA- C and HLA-G and did not secrete sHLA- G; Near- triploid; Limited intercellular membrane fusion</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Kovats et al., 1990</li> <li>Heneweer et al., 2005</li> <li>Al-Nasiry et al., 2006</li> <li>Apps et al., 2009</li> <li>Apps et al., 2011</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2010</li> <li>James et al., 2016</li> <li>Rothbauer et al., 2017</li> <li>Weber et al., 2021</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>RL95-2—glandular epithelium.</li> <li>Pros: Receptive glandular epithelial cells with lack of epithelial polarization; strong tendency to accumulate and to form gland-like structures</li> <li>Cons: The line is trisomic 8 and has an 8% frequency of polyploidization</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Way et al., 1983</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2010</li> <li>Evans et al., 2020</li> <li>Ban et al., 2020</li> <li>John et al., 1993</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>A AC1M-88—EVT to model EVT adhesion and migration Pros: Adhesiveness to endometrial epithelium; constitutively express HLA-G mRNA Cons: The trophoblast cells are from the cho- rion leave- the non-villous part of the chorion that is not part of the placenta</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Frank et al., 2000</li> <li>King et al., 2000</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2010</li> </ul>
				(continued)

Table 3. (continued)

Type	Endometrium	Reference	Trophoblast	kerence
pitheliai Pros: 1 Cons:	Epithelial and stromal endometrial cells Pros: Derived from normal early pregnancy endometrium; easy to propagate; Healthy placental cell features; signs of preserved stemness Cons: Immortalization includes viral transduction or plasmid transfection that may alter initial cell features; sourced from different cycle	v propagate; Healthy placental cell nsfection that may alter initial cell	thelial and stromal endometrial cells Pros: Derived from normal early pregnancy endometrium; easy to propagate; Healthy placental cell features; signs of preserved stemness Cons: Immortalization includes viral transduction or plasmid transfection that may alter initial cell features; sourced from different cycle time points or women in menopause	in menopause
Immortalized cell lines	<ul> <li>EM-E6/E7/TERT (epithelial, glandular)</li> <li>Pros: Retain the natural characteristics of endometrial glands</li> <li>Cons: Preferential use for cancer research</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Kyo et al., 2003</li> <li>Fitzgerald et al., 2021</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>HESC (stromal)</li> <li>Pros: Typical stroma morphology, karyotype and phenotype, similar reaction to treat- ment with ovarian steroids, retain the ability to undergo decidualization Cons: Not clear if the decidualization is sustainable</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Krikun et al., 2004</li> <li>Holmberg et al., 2012</li> <li>You et al., 2019; You et al., 2021; You et al., 2023</li> <li>Ban et al., 2020</li> </ul>
rophobl Pros:   Cons:	Trophoblast cell lines Pros: Derived from normal early pregnancy primary trophoblast; easy Cons: Immortalization includes viral transduction or plasmid transfe implantation.	easy to propagate; healthy placent nsfection that may alter initial cell	phoblast cell lines Pros: Derived from normal early pregnancy primary trophoblast; easy to propagate; healthy placental cell features; signs of preserved stemness Cons: Immortalization includes viral transduction or plasmid transfection that may alter initial cell features; sourced from an advanced stage of trophoblasts differentiation than at implantation.	fferentiation than at
Immortalized cell lines	<ul> <li><b>HTR-8/SVneo - CT</b> able to differentiate in vitro to EVT</li> <li><b>Pros:</b> CK7 positive, secrete hCG. non-tumorigenic into nude mice. Express stemness-associated factors; Can express HLA-A, HLA-B and HLA-class II molecules upon IFN-y induction</li> <li><b>Cons:</b> Mixed population of CK7+ trophoblasts and Vim+ mesenchymal cells; Near triploid; may not be suitable for the study of intrauterine infection</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Graham et al., 1993</li> <li>King et al., 2000</li> <li>Paiva et al., 2009</li> <li>Apps et al., 2009</li> <li>Weber et al., 2013</li> <li>Weber et al., 2015</li> <li>James et al., 2016</li> <li>Abou-Kheir et al., 2017</li> <li>Eikmans et al., 2022</li> <li>Sheridan et al., 2022</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Swan71 (Sw71) - EVT phenotype, migration and invasion models, immune interactions, and apoptosis</li> <li>Pros: Expression of trophoblast markers, cytokines and growth factors, migration, and invasion abilities close to the primary trophoblasts. Preserved stemmess; hybrid CK7+/Nim+, HLA- C+/HLA-G+ phenotype like primary EVT. Secrete fetal fibronetype like primary EVT. Secrete fetal fibronetype like ability to fuse spontaneously. can expression; near how levels of hCG; also retain the ability to fuse spontaneously. Can expression; near pentaploid</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Straszewski-Chavez et al., 2009</li> <li>Apps et al., 2009</li> <li>Fraccaroli et al., 2009</li> <li>Holmberg et al., 2014</li> <li>Recicct et al., 2014</li> <li>Recicct et al., 2017</li> <li>You et al., 2019</li> <li>You et al., 2021</li> <li>You et al., 2023</li> <li>Guzman-Genuino</li> <li>et al., 2020</li> <li>Alexandrova</li> <li>et al., 2023</li> <li>Alexandrova</li> <li>et al., 2020</li> <li>Pastuschek et al., 2021</li> <li>Dietrich et al., 2023</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>HChEpC1b (EVT)—EVT function, autophagy as a protective mechanism Pros: Derived from normal early pregnancy (7gw) placenta. CK7, HLA-G, and CD9 positive. Vimentin positive. Non-tumori- genic in nude mice. Near-diploid karyotype</li> <li>Cons: Difficult to determine the origin</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Omi et al., 2009</li> <li>Takahashi et al., 2017</li> <li>Nakashima et al., 2019</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>SGHPL-4 (MC-4)—EVT function and apoptosis, phagocytic activity.</li> <li>Pros: Derived from early pregnancy primary EVT; constitutively express HLA-G mRNA; secrete hCG and express CK7 when grown on collagen, fibronectin, and gelatin; amenable to stable genetic manipulation</li> <li>Cons: Rather long-lived than immortal</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Choy and Manyonda, 1998</li> <li>Cartwright et al., 1999</li> <li>Cartwright et al., 2002</li> <li>McCormick et al., 2000</li> <li>Hannan et al., 2010</li> <li>James et al., 2016</li> </ul>

(continued)

H H	epithelium, stromal migration/invasion Cons: The same as of the sourced cells/tissues, hard to find human embry	nard to	find human embryos for research, 1	os for research, require high expertise and expensive resources
Phase	Endometrium Endometrial explants of late-lu- teal-phase (4-7 days after the LH peak)	+ +	<b>Trophoblast</b> First/second/third-trimester pri- mary trophoblast cells	Reference           • Kliman et al., 1990           Endometrial receptivity, trophoblast adhesion to the stroma, ultrastructure of trophoblast-endometrial interaction.
	I	+	IVF embryos	Landgren et al., 1996 Embryo penetration of the endometrial epithelium and stroma invasion
	Primary human endometrial epi- thelial cells in monolayer	+	IVF embryos	<ul> <li>Simon <i>et al.</i>, 1998; Meseguer <i>et al.</i>, 2001; Caballero-Campo <i>et al.</i>, 2002; Dominguez <i>et al.</i>, 2010 Endometrial epithelium receptivity, trophoblast differentiation <ul> <li>Galán <i>et al.</i>, 2000</li> <li>Apoptosis of the endometrial epithelial cells upon contact with the embryo-derived TE during apposition and adhesion</li> <li>Evans <i>et al.</i>, 2020</li> <li>Adhesion and differentiation of the TE upon contact to the primary endometrial epithelial cells</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
	Primary human endometrial epi- thelial cells in monolayer	+	Blastoids	• Kagawa <i>et al.</i> , 2022 Endometrial receptivity and epiblast-induced local maturation of the polar TE, endowing blastoids with the capacity to directionally attach to hormonally stimulated endometrial cells as during implantation
	HEC-1A cells	+	JAR or JEG-3 spheroids	<ul> <li>John et al., 1993</li> <li>Attachment of spheroid to uterine epithelial cell monolayer</li> <li>Thie and Denker, 2002</li> <li>Adhesiveness of endometrial epithelial cells</li> </ul>
	I	+	Mouse embryo	Martin <i>et al.</i> , 2000     Adhesiveness of endometrial epithelial cells
	ECC-1 cells	+	Sw71 BLS	<ul> <li>Holmberg et al., 2012</li> <li>Attachment of spheroids to endometrial epithelial cells with acquired receptive phenotype</li> </ul>
	I	+	Stem cell-derived spheroids	Evans et al., 2020

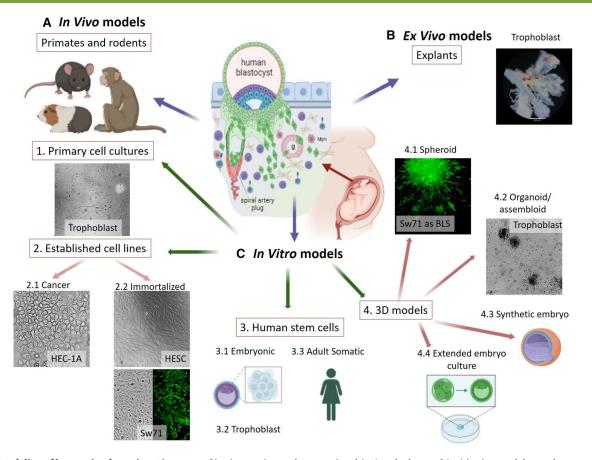
ons: Th	Cons: The same as of the sourced cells/tissues, hard to find human embry	nara		os for research, require mign expertise and expensive resources
Phase	Endometrium	+	Trophoblast	Reference
				Adhesion of the spheroids to the endometrial epithelial cell lines
	Ishikawa cells	+	JAR or JEG-3 spheroids	<ul> <li>Vergaro et al., 2019         Transcriptomic analysis of the interaction of the trophoblasts with receptive vs. non-receptive (HEC-1A) endometrial epithelium cell lines         Evans et al., 2020         Adhesion of the spheroids to endometrial epithelial cell lines     </li> </ul>
	I	+	IVF embryos or stem cell-de- rived spheroids	<ul> <li>Ruane et al., 2020, 2022</li> <li>Human embryo breaching of the epithelium and the gene networks involved in implantation</li> </ul>
	RL95-2 cells	+	BeWo, JEG-3 or JAR spheroids	<ul> <li>Thie and Denker, 2002 Thie <i>et al.</i>, 1998</li> <li>Adhesiveness of the apical plasma membrane of endometrial epithelial cell lines</li> <li>Hohm <i>et al.</i>, 2000</li> <li>The relationship between the adhesion of the trophoblast to epithelium and its differentiation</li> <li>Heneweer <i>et al.</i>, 2005</li> <li>Modulation of epithelial adhesiveness and apicobasal polarity by contact with JAR spheroids</li> <li>Ho <i>et al.</i>, 2012</li> <li>A high-throughput in vitro model for fluorometric assessment of spheroid attachment to human endometrial epithelial cells</li> </ul>
	hTERT-EEC cells	+	JAR spheroids	<ul> <li>Aboussahoud et al., 2010</li> <li>Trophoblast attachment</li> </ul>
s ,rroitizoqqA	Matrix-embedded epithelial and stromal cells (EMO)	+	IVF embryos	<ul> <li>Bentin-Ley <i>et al.</i>, 2000         Ultrastructure of human blastocyst-endometrial interactions during attachment and invasion showing a displacement of endometrial epithelial cells, and formation of a penetration cone with no endometrial or trophoblastic degeneration. Epithelial penetration was achieved primarily by cellular syncytiotrophoblast-like cells, developed simultaneously with penetration of the epithelium         Lalitkumar <i>et al.</i>, 2007         Endometrial receptivity and TE attachment         Rawlings <i>et al.</i>, 2021         Single-cell transcriptomics of differentiated and senescent subpopulations in both glands and stroma and role of the senescence in glandular epithelium and in the stroma on the implantation.     </li> </ul>
	I	+	JAR spheroids	• Wang et al., 2012 Attachment of human trophoblast spheroids to a 3D endometrium-like culture system with overall archi- tecture, similar to that seen in endometrial tissue
	Apical-out (AO)–EMO	+	IVF embryos or blastoids	<ul> <li>Shibata et al., 2024 Model with exposed apical epithelium surface, dense stromal cells, and a self-formed endothelial network to recapitulate apposition, adhesion, and Syn invasion.</li> </ul>
	OFEL, open-faced endometrial layer from EMO	+	Blastoids	<ul> <li>Kagawa et al., 2022         Attachment on the receptive endometrial epithelium, epiblast-induced local maturation of the polar TE endows blastoid with the canacity to directionally attach to hormonally stimulated endometrial cells.     </li> </ul>

(continued)	sest similarity
Table 4.	Pros: Clos

Pros: Closest similarity to maternal-fetal contact during human implantation and early placentation. Suitable to study the ultrastructure of trophoblast-endometrial contact, breaching of the endometrial
epithelium, stromal migration/invasion
Canor The count of the correct file (Horner hand to find horner combured for uncounter and companying and companying and

Cons: T	Cons: The same as of the sourced cells/tissues, hard to find human embryos	hard to		for research, require high expertise and expensive resources
Phase	Endometrium	+	Trophoblast	Reference
	Primary human endometrial stromal cells monolayer	+	AC-1M88 cells or spheroids	<ul> <li>Gellersen et al., 2010</li> <li>The invasiveness of human endometrial stromal cells promoted by decidualization and by trophoblast-derived signals, by encapsulation of the conceptus the decidua supports trophoblast invasion.</li> <li>Weimar et al., 2012</li> <li>DSC of women with recurrent miscarriage have higher migratory response to trophoblast</li> <li>Gonzalez et al., 2011</li> <li>DSC supports trophoblast invasion by paracrine signals</li> </ul>
	I	+	First trim villous trophoblasts	Vicovac et al., 1995     Trophoblast-stroma interaction, differentiation of trophoblasts
eceptivity	I	+	Mouse embryos	<ul> <li>Hanashi et al., 2003</li> <li>Human decidual b1-integrin and focal adhesion kinase participate in the trophoblast invasion</li> <li>Grewal et al., 2010</li> <li>Rho GTPase-PTK2-dependent remodeling of the endometrial stromal cell compartment may be critical for successful embryo implantation</li> </ul>
r lsirtəmobnə lsmorts	I	+	IVF embryos	<ul> <li>Weimar et al., 2012 DSC of fertile women discriminate between high- and low-quality embryos unlike women with recurrent miscarriage         <ul> <li>Carver et al., 2003</li> <li>Trophoblast attachment to endometrial stroma and further implantation (invasion and migration of EVT)                 of the human embryo into the endometrial stroma</li></ul></li></ul>
,noizeval	Decidua parietalis explants	+	First-trimester villous tropho- blast explants	<ul> <li>Dunk et al., 2003</li> <li>Trophoblast-mediated decidual blood vessel remodeling</li> <li>Hazan et al., 2010</li> <li>Trophoblast-mediated decidual blood vessel remodeling and role of uNK cells and macrophages</li> </ul>
	Proliferative-phase endometrial stromal cells	+	I	Popovici et al., 2006     Trophoblasts attachment and gene expression of the endometrial stromal cells during implantation
	HEC-1A spheroids	+	AC-1M88 cells	Buck et al., 2015, 2021
	Ishikawa spheroids	+	1	Model system for trophoblast invasion into gland-like endomethal spheroids
	RL95-2 spheroids	+	1	
	HESC	+	Sw71 trophoblast spheroids	<ul> <li>Holmberg et al., 2012</li> <li>Trophoblast migration into endometrial stroma</li> <li>You et al., 2019, 2021, 2023</li> <li>Trophoblast invasion and migration into endometrial stroma</li> </ul>
	Spiral arteries' segments from myometrial biopsies	+	Primary trophoblasts or SGHPL-4 cells	Cartwright <i>et al.</i> , 2002     To study interstitial invasion and endovascular invasion

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**Figure 2.** Modeling of human implantation. The range of *in vivo*, *ex vivo*, and conventional (2D) and advanced (3D) *in vitro* models, used to recapitulate trophoblast or/and decidua behavior in the peri-implantation period. (**A**) *In vivo* (animal) models: primates and rodents. (**B**) *Ex vivo* models: placental explants, representing the fetal part of the placenta. (**C**) *In vitro* conventional (2D) models: (1) primary cells (isolated from the maternal or fetal part of the placenta); (2) cancer (2.1) and immortalized (2.2) cell lines of maternal or fetal origin); (3) stem cells; (4) advanced 3D models: 4.1. spheroids of maternal or fetal origin, 4.2. self-organized organoids or assembloids, 4.3. synthetic embryos (blastula/gastrula) and 4.4. extended embryo culture. The scheme is created on Biorender.com. The microscope images are the authors' property and have not been published before.

interstitial invasion (Caluwaerts et al., 2005; Vercruysse et al., 2006). In guinea pigs, the invasion involves decidua basalis and the inner third of the myometrium like in humans, thus, it is the only rodent model for intervillous space formation (Schlafke and Enders, 1975; Enders, 1989).

Because of the short-term pregnancy and fast apposition, attachment, and invasion of the luminal epithelium, the mice and rats cannot model the mechanisms of early implantation in humans. However, they are a good model for studying decidualization because the decidual response can be elicited without trophoblastic attachment (Lee and DeMayo, 2004), highlighting the potential other factors, such as hormonal or environmental stimuli, as triggers of the decidual response. Of note, guinea pigs might serve as an efficient model for apposition and attachment, trans-epithelial penetration, and deep endovascular invasion but there are other limitations such as longer estrous and hidden implantation sites (Hennessy, 2014). Although many substantial differences between mouse and human implantation, gene ablation techniques in the mouse have proven to be a powerful tool in elucidating gene function during implantation (Table 2). For instance, the key transcriptional regulators of human TE specification and development (Cdx2, Tead4, and Gcm1) were first identified in mice (Baczyk et al., 2013; Blakeley et al., 2015).

In summary, although the experiments on animals are controversial due to a deficiency in cross-species extrapolation, the primates and rodents are valuable *in vivo* models for human implantation research and have already shed some light on the 'black box' of human implantation. As early human implantation stages are not accessible, non-human primate models are imperative for our understanding of embryo implantation. The comprehensive analysis of the expressed genes in mouse, monkey and human embryos is important for understanding trophoblast specification. It must be taken into account that human TE establishment differs in terms of the expression of some crucial genes during early development (Soncin et al., 2018; Hemberger et al., 2020; Shibata et al., 2020). The formation of the human blastocyst is regulated differently as well (Niakan and Eggan, 2013; Rossant and Tam, 2018). The difference of central importance, however, is the deep interstitial, glandular, and endovascular invasion of EVT into the inner third of the human myometrium which is extremely important for the survival of the fetus. This invasion depth is accompanied by a range of human-specific factors and is responsible for the difference in the supplied blood volume. We accept the statement of Schmidt et al. in their review from 2015, that 'only humans have human placentas' and consequently, an animal model that exactly reflects human placentation does not exist (Schmidt et al., 2015).

# Ex vivo models: endometrial and trophoblast explants

The maternal-fetal crosstalk during human implantation involves the emergence of different, constantly changing

decidual and trophoblast cell phenotypes (Hannan et al., 2010). These two principal compartments should be present in any model mimicking human implantation as a whole. However, some scientists rely on in vitro culture or full reconstruction of the 'pregnant' endometrium, while others rely on de novo construction of blastocyst-like models from explanted gestational tissue, stem cells, or cell lines. Since human endometrial tissue is often biopsied due to abdominal or menstrual pain or infertility, these endometrial explant cultures have been used as decidualization models for many years (Bersinger et al., 2010) (Table 3). The idea for endometrium culture emerged in the late 1960s (Csermely et al., 1969; Schatz et al., 1985), and an endometrial explant system was described in the early 1990s by Dudley et al. (1992) where segments of late-luteal-phase endometrium were obtained aseptically, cut into small pieces, and cultured for a few days. These explants remained viable and responsive for about 5 days. Although useful in the study of the production of cytokines and other bioactive substances, the orientation of the endometrium in this model is not preserved and thus the investigation of the blastocyst-endometrium interactions cannot be guaranteed (Lindenberg et al., 1989; Kliman et al., 1990; Dudley et al., 1992).

By using this model, it has been shown that the addition of progesterone initiates decidualization and prolongs the survival of the primary endometrial stromal cells of the explant (Bersinger *et al.*, 2010) (Table 3). Nevertheless, a later detailed study pointed out that human endometrial explants are a complex model due to limited viability and difficult standardization (Schäfer *et al.*, 2011; Teklenburg and Macklon, 2009).

Human trophoblast explants are valuable ex vivo models for the fetal part of the embryo-endometrial interaction that mimics the in vivo situation as closely as possible (Aghajanova, 2020). Table 3 shows the main reports using villus placenta explants as a model of CT proliferation and bi-potency differentiation. Genbacev et al. (1992) described a model to study the differentiation of EVT through a culture of first and second-trimester human chorionic villi explants on Matrigel and proved that the EVTs differentiation was restricted to first-trimester villous tissue. Accumulating data noted the great importance of the trophoblasts explants, containing both anchoring and floating first-trimester chorionic villi to study early stages of placentation like the reconstitution of cell columns and CT to EVT differentiation in vitro (Vicovac et al., 1995; Caniggia et al., 2000; Miller et al., 2005; Popovici et al., 2006; Baczyk et al., 2013) (Table 3). Previous results from our laboratory showed that after 48-72h in culture, near the villous explants abundant cytotrophoblast clusters containing HLA-C positive EVTs emerged. Explants remained vital for at least a week (Alexandrova et al., 2022b) (Fig. 2B-1).

In summary, although the placental explants closely reflect peri-implantation placental development, they are short-term cultures, and difficult to standardize. Of note, the access to tissues from elective terminations of pregnancy is often limited by ethical and/or legal constraints. All the pros and cons of explants and extended culture of human embryos as *ex vivo* models of human implantation are summarized in Table 3.

### *In vitro* models: primary cells, cell lines, stem cells, and 3D models

Most of the models currently being used do not recreate the entire implantation process but rather certain steps of implantation or implantation-related events. These include the conventional 2D mode of cultured endometrial or trophoblast cells or their 3D derivatives such as spheroids and organoids. The endometrial or trophoblast cells can be sourced either from early pregnancy gestational tissues or established cancerous, normal immortalized cells and stem cells. Table 3 lists the available endometrial and trophoblast primary and established cell lines used as models in the studies of decidualization and receptivity of human endometrium as well as of apposition, attachment, and invasion phases of implantation, respectively, alongside their pros and cons.

# Primary endometrial (epithelial and stromal) and trophoblast cell cultures

Early pregnancy-derived gestational tissues allow the isolation of relatively pure primary cell cultures to model either endometrial receptivity status near implantation (Satyaswaroop et al., 1979; Bentin-Ley et al., 1995; Chan et al., 2004; Masuda et al., 2016) or early differentiation and function of ready-to-implant trophoblasts (Kliman et al., 1986; Fisher et al., 1989; Lee at al., 2016) (Fig. 2C-1, Table 3). Of note, primary endometrial epithelial cells fall into senescence within 2 weeks when cultured on plastic dishes (Kyo et al., 2003). Moreover, primary endometrial (epithelial and stromal) cells showed reduced biological activities and diminished response towards sex hormones after several passages. Therefore, results could not be directly extrapolated to the in vivo situation (Li et al., 2023). The same is valid for the primary trophoblasts. CT after isolation could be differentiated into EVT or ST but due to their primary nature and limited life span, rapidly cease proliferation in vitro (Genbacev et al., 2011; Horii et al., 2020). Another important aspect is that the nature and purity of isolated populations must be confirmed with a panel of phenotypic markers. Unfortunately, the lack of generally accepted minimal criteria for a line to be determined as a pure primary, firsttrimester, human trophoblast cell line obscures the trophoblast research. This is determined partly by the preserved stemness of these cells and their dynamic phenotype (Lee et al., 2016; West et al., 2019; Abbas et al., 2020; Greenbaum et al., 2023). For example, the relatively specific trophoblast markers such as hCG, hPL, HLA-G, and cytokeratin-7 (CK-7) are also expressed by a range of malignant cells (Loke, 1978; Heyderman et al., 1985; Cabestre et al., 1999; Real et al., 1999). Lack of Vimentin (Vim) is mostly considered normal for the trophoblast lineage, but it is expressed to varying extents by EVT in EMT or vice versa (MET, mesenchymalepithelial transition) (Loke, 1988; Aboagye-Mathiesen et al., 1996; Alexandrova et al., 2023). While the HLA class I expression pattern is null in villous trophoblast and ST, the EVTs are HLA-G+ and HLA-C+ (Papúchová et al., 2019; Salvany-Celades et al., 2019; Eikmans et al., 2022; Alexandrova et al., 2023). Eikmans et al. (2022) published a detailed characterization of HLA profiles and immune cell interactions of their primary trophoblast cultures. For trophoblast isolation, they used enzymatic digestion of firsttrimester placental tissue (6-9 gw) and subsequent Percoll gradient separation and trophoblast enrichment by magnetic bead retraction. These primary trophoblasts were easily maintained for several passages with upregulated trophoblast markers (GATA3, TFAP2C, chromosome-19 microRNAs). Cultured CT was differentiated into EVT in a Matrigel-containing medium expressing HLA-C and HLA-G with HLA-G1 predominance and secreting soluble HLA-G. The CT fraction abundantly secreted the cytokines  $TNF-\alpha$ and IL-8, which levels were minimal in EVT cultures. In their hands, 3 days of co-culturing of EVT and peripheral immune cells led only to a decreased HLA-DR expression on CD4 T cells (Eikmans et al., 2022). The EVT-conditioned media alone had no such effect, while other authors reported the same effect but with conditioned media from first-trimester placental explants (Svensson-Arvelund et al., 2015). The EVT-conditioned medium is composed 1:1 mixture of EVT medium (DMEM/F-12 supplemented with 0.1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 0.5%

Penicillin-Streptomycin, 0.3% BSA, 1% ITS-X supplement, 7.5  $\mu$ M A 83-01, 2.5  $\mu$ M Y-27632, 100 ng/ml of NRG1, and 4% KnockOut Serum Replacement) (Okae *et al.*, 2018) with RPMI medium with supplements. In our hands, the trophoblasts, gained through enzymatic digestion and subsequent Percoll gradient separation (to reduce fibroblast contamination) (Stenqvist *et al.*, 2008), showed a tendency to form CT clusters with varying morphology and STlike fragments abundant in the mixture. The cell passaging led CT clusters to self-organization of spheroid-like structures. The EVTs expanded from such structures showed preserved strong migration capacity and HLA-G+/HLA-C+ profile (Alexandrova *et al.*, 2023). New technologies constantly add novel markers corresponding to the dynamics of trophoblast differentiation during peri-implantation (West *et al.*, 2019; Greenbaum *et al.*, 2023).

In summary, many studies utilize primary isolated and cultured endometrial epithelial and/or stromal cells, and human trophoblasts as simple monolayer models or as a part of more complex 3D constructs or assembloids to study human implantation (discussed later). Although they closely represent the *in vivo* or *in situ* features, the isolations are time- and source-consuming with unpredictable outcomes (variable yields, purity, differentiation). Fresh cell isolates are needed for each new experiment to keep the initial characteristics that obscure their standardization. In addition, the primary cells are difficult to propagate in long-term culture.

# Endometrial (epithelial and stromal) and trophoblast cell lines: cancer and immortalized cells

The limitations of primary cultures have forced researchers to turn towards the use of established cancer (Hannan et al., 2010) and immortalized non-cancer human cell lines, of which multiple have been generated over the years (Horii et al., 2020) (Fig. 2C-2, Table 3). Since cancer cell lines are relatively easy to obtain and maintain (Mirabelli et al., 2019), it is not surprising that most endometrial epithelial cell lines originate from endometrial adenocarcinomas. For example, the HEC-1A cells widely used for endometrium research were isolated from a well-defined human endometrial adenocarcinoma (Kurarmoto et al., 2002; Hannan et al., 2010) (Fig. 2C-2.1, Table 3). The ECC-1 line closely represents luminal epithelial cells since expresses CK-13 and -18, and retains estrogen, progesterone, and androgen receptors, while HES cells express the adhesion molecule mucin1 (MUC1) and have embryotrophic potential (Satyaswaroop and Tabibzadeh 1991; Mo et al., 2006; Ban et al., 2020; Evans et al., 2020). MUC1expressing Ishikawa cells (mixed glandular and luminal epithelium characteristics) are considered a good model for endometrium receptivity (Castelbaum et al., 1997; Nishida, 2002). The epithelioid RL95-2 cells, isolated from moderately differentiated adenosquamous carcinoma, are generally used as a model for receptive glandular epithelial cells, as these are highly adhesive to trophoblast cell lines (Way et al., 1983; John et al., 1993).

Trophoblast-derived choriocarcinoma cell lines have been used extensively as an alternative to primarily trophoblasts for elucidation of the biology and functionality, and to model the early placental formation/development (King *et al.*, 2000; Hannan *et al.*, 2010) (Table 3). By the year 2000, there was already data from 14 cell lines originating from malignant tissue and five cell lines from embryonal carcinomas which have evidence of trophoblast differentiation (King *et al.*, 2000). Of them, BeWo (1968), JAR (1971), and JEG-3 (1971) are still popular trophoblast model systems and are widely used to study *in vitro* trophoblast cell fusion, migration, and invasion (Table 3). BeWo and JEG-3 cells are capable of fusing to form ST, retaining the ability to secrete specific hormones, and are used to study syncytialization, adhesion, proliferation, and early placental endocrine function (Zhou et al., 2021), whereas JAR is mostly used to model differentiation of CT to EVT (Table 3).

It is important to mention that both the choriocarcinoma cell lines and primary trophoblastic cells are already at a later developmental stage than TE/trophoblasts in implantation and thus, do not perfectly recapitulate the multipotent early trophoblasts. Choriocarcinoma cells show an abnormal chromosome number, a substantially different transcriptomic profile from EVT, and genome-wide DNA methylation patterns that are different from primary trophoblast (Abbas *et al.*, 2020; Nikitina and Lebedev, 2022). Moreover, cancer cells have HLA status differing considerably from primary tissues (Bilban *et al.*, 2010). The advantages and disadvantages of cancer cell lines are highlighted in Table 3.

The use of immortalized endometrial cell lines in implantation models is not common. Researchers prefer to use instead endometrial biopsies containing both epithelial and stromal cells for a short time to represent the receptive or non-receptive human endometrium (Fitzgerald et al., 2021). However, Desai et al. (1994) generated spontaneously immortalized human endometrial epithelial cell line with excellent embryotrophic potential for mice embryos (Desai et al., 1994). Human endometrial glandular EM-E6/E7/TERT cells were established in 2003 as useful tools for various experimental models including the implantation model. EM-E6/E7/TERT cells maintain responsiveness to sex steroids, such as estrogen and progesterone, lack a transformed phenotype, and have an unlimited life span (Kyo et al., 2003). Krikun et al. (2004) created a new immortalized human endometrial stromal cell line (HESC) with a normal progestational response and no clonal chromosomal structural or numerical abnormalities (Fig. 2C-2.2, Table 3). Barbier et al. (2005) elaborated the stromal cell line SHT290 used as a model for endometrium decidualization. This cell line is similar to the parental strain regarding proliferation and karyotype as well as basal gene expression (Barbier et al., 2005).

Nowadays, several immortalized trophoblast cell lines derived from healthy human placentas are in use (Table 3). These were created from first-trimester CT/EVTs by genetic manipulation, virus transfection, or fusion with choriocarcinoma cells. These include B6-TERT1 (Rong-Hao et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2006), HTR8/ SVneo (Graham et al., 1993), HPT-8 and its HBV transfected variant (Zhang et al., 2011), ACH-3P (Hiden et al., 2007), HChEpC1b (Omi et al., 2009), Swan 71 (Straszewski-Chavez et al., 2009), TEV-1 (Feng et al., 2005), and HIPEC65 (Pavan et al., 2003). Of them, the HIPEC65 cells that do not endogenously secrete hCG and express the luteinizing hormone/choriongonadotropin receptor were used to study the effect of hCG on the invasion process in vitro (Handschuh et al., 2007). The HTR-8/SVneo cell line was widely used to study trophoblast cell fusion, migration, and invasion (Bačenková et al., 2022) (Table 3). It was developed from primary EVT and interestingly expresses the pluripotency markers OCT4 and NANOG. Such expression of stemness-associated factors is a sign of self-renewal and repopulation activity of these cells (Weber et al., 2013). However, some authors question their homogeneity (Abou-Kheir et al., 2017) raising doubt about whether they are truly representative of either villous or extravillous normal trophoblast (Abbas et al., 2020). Interesting data from Abbas et al. (2020) on first-trimester trophoblast models used in human implantation research between 2015 and 2020 showed that from 1044 studies only 76 used primary human EVT and another 629 used the cancer JEG-3, BeWo, or JAR cell lines. The other 339 studies used the immortalized HTR-8/Svneo and Swan-71 (Sw71)

pointing out their accumulating popularity. Of note, the Sw71 line was from the newest established immortalized normal human trophoblast cell lines explaining its still limited usage (only 31 of the listed studies) (Abbas et al., 2020). Sw71 cells exhibit EVT characteristics, preserve stemness, and an ability to attach to the endometrium, migrate, and invade in ECM and between endometrial stromal cells (Straszewski-Chavez et al., 2009; Holmberg et al., 2012; Hackmon et al., 2017; You et al., 2019; Alexandrova et al., 2022b) (Fig. 2C-2.2). This cell line is amenable to gene editing, and a gene-specific knockout clone targeting the TWIST1 gene, which is involved in the regulation of mesenchymal differentiation and cell motility was recently created (You et al., 2023). This line was established more than 10 years ago and has been used in several models over the years to test different factors crucial for human implantation. For example, it was used to test EVT invasion properties (You et al., 2021; Alexandrova et al., 2022), the impact of maternal-fetal immune interactions on trophoblast migration and invasion as well as the reciprocal effect of Sw71 cells on the degranulation of the cytotoxic immune cells (Racicot et al., 2014; Grasso et al., 2018). The Sw71 line was successfully validated by primary trophoblast in the context of their hybrid phenotype (CK7+/Vim+) and HLA pattern (HLA-G+/HLA-C+) (Straszewski-Chavez et al., 2009; Alexandrova et al., 2023) unlike cancer trophoblast cell lines JEG-3 and JAR which do not specifically upregulate HLA-C and HLA-G on their surface (Eikmans et al., 2022). On the contrary, some authors reported no HLA-G or CK7 expression by Sw71 cell line (Apps et al., 2009; Pastuschek et al., 2021; Dietrich et al., 2023).

In summary, while carcinoma cells are easy to culture, there are many limitations including their nature of being prone to spontaneous transformation and their lack of decent tissue characteristics. Therefore, it is not surprising that parallel research with immortalized, non-cancer human endometrial and trophoblast cell lines has been done over the years. Altogether, monolayer cell cultures from human immortalized endometrium and trophoblast are an important part of the implantation research since aspects of the very early microenvironment during periimplantation and early placentation can be investigated at the level of a single cell type. The source and characteristics of the cancer and immortalized cell lines and their potential as models of human implantation are shown in Table 3.

#### Stem cells (embryonic and trophoblast)-derived models

Human pluripotent embryonic (ESC) and induced (iPSC) stem cells as well as trophoblast stem cells are another possible source for the generation of human implantation models (Fig. 2C-3). The potential of ESC or iPSC to generate 3D advanced models to study embryogenesis and/or implantation is discussed thoroughly in the section below. The report of the first human ESC lines that emerged from outgrowths of peri-implantation human blastocysts dates from 1998 (Thomson et al., 1998). Within the next few years, it was defined that the pluripotent ESC can differentiate into trophoblast cells when induced with bone morphogenetic protein-4 (BMP4) or in specific culture conditions (Xu et al., 2002; Gerami-Naini et al., 2004). Currently, the conversion of ESC and iPSC to trophoblast-like cells by BMP4 treatment, alone or in combination with small important molecules is a common method (Takahashi et al., 2007; Amita et al., 2013; Horii et al., 2016, 2020; Wei et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019; Castel et al., 2020; Cinkornpumin et al., 2020; Dong et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Kobayashi et al., 2022). The resulting cells show bi-potency: some express ST-specific markers and secrete placental hormones, such as hCG, progesterone, and hPL, while others are capable of differentiating to invasive HLA-G+ EVT-like cells (Horii et al.,

2016). Whether the cells obtained from BMP4-treated iPSC correspond to the trophoblast is still under discussion, since different protocols may result in a mixture of trophoblast and mesoderm cells and further separation or purification may be needed (Horii et al., 2019; Tsuchida et al., 2020; Nikitina and Lebedev, 2022). Amita et al. (2013) introduced the so-called BAP protocol to inhibit mesoderm induction and accelerate trophoblast differentiation of hESC to terminally differentiated ST or EVT, compared to BMP4 treatment alone. The main limitation of this approach is the lack of self-renewal, short-time proliferation, and quick differentiation. Importantly, even though many TE- and trophoblast-associated genes are induced in this system, BMP4treated PSCs do not fully resemble primary trophoblast based on marker expression (Li et al., 2013; Aghajanova, 2020). Nevertheless, the use of iPSC as a cell source offers the possibility to generate patient-specific trophoblast-like cells and to perform genetic manipulations (Shpiz et al., 2015; Horii et al., 2016; Ahern et al., 2022; Nikitina and Lebedev, 2022). The possibility of reprogramming cells of a full-term placenta to iPSC and then differentiating them into trophoblast could be a key to overcome the need for first-trimester specimens and would give models for primary trophoblasts from cells with known pregnancy outcomes (Horii et al., 2020). Another approach is to obtain trophoblast cells by establishing culture conditions for the growth and expansion of human trophoblast stem cells (hTSC) (Okae et al., 2018). In 2018, the first derivation of self-renewing trophoblast stem cells from human blastocyst TE and first-trimester placental isolates was implemented. These hTSCs use a combination of WNT (Wingless and Int-1) activation and transforming growth factor beta (TGF $\beta$ ) inhibition to self-renew, giving rise to long-term expanding CT that can differentiate into ST and EVT and can be cryopreserved for later usage. Of note, Okae et al. (2018) proved that hTSC has similar transcriptomes and methylomes to the primary trophoblast cells and mimic trophoblast invasion during implantation. The exact location of trophoblast stem cells within the placenta remains unknown but they probably reside in a specific niche within the first-trimester placenta, since they could not be derived from later gestation placental tissues. Recently, Wei et al. (2021) obtained hTSC from primed pluripotent stem cells (hESC lines H1 and HN10) and revealed that BMP4 treatment significantly enhanced the efficiency of the process. These cells are named hTSPS cells and share identical features with primary blastocyst-derived hTSC, including morphological characteristics, gene expression profiles, and the capacity for differentiation toward EVT and ST cells. Endometrial stem/progenitor cells were discovered 10 years ago (Chan et al., 2004) and studied mainly in the context of endometrium regeneration, rather than modeling of human implantation.

In summary, the work with ESC is labor-intensive and highly restricted, and the generation of iPSC has varying success and reproducibility. Although embryonic and trophoblast stem cells could be a valuable source for the generation of patient-specific models suitable for genetic manipulations, they may remain of limited value due to the ethical and legal challenges against their use.

# Advanced 3D cultures: spheroids, organoids, IVF embryos and embryoids, and assembloids

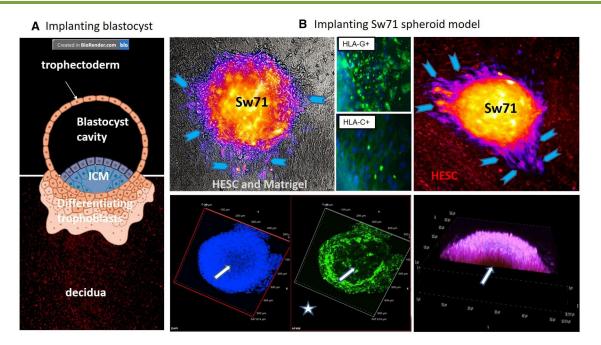
A single endometrial or trophoblast culture system is unlikely to address all of the biological questions related to human implantation but is the first step towards this is complex 3D models and assembloids. In the last decade, the researchers turned to 3D spheroid and organoid systems using most of the

above-mentioned cells: primary, cancerous, immortalized or stem cells (Fig. 2C-4, Table 3). In these systems, cells benefit from cell-to-cell and cell-to-ECM contacts. Moreover, the cells exist in a more biochemically relevant state with gradients of oxygen, nutrients, and metabolites. There are two ways of constructing 3D models of human implantation: (i) self-organizing cultures to model early blastocyst/TE differentiation and migration (spheroids, organoids), and (ii) controlled assembly approaches to model embryo attachment and trophoblast invasion. De novo construction of both the pregnant endometrial wall (endometrial organoids) and implanting blastocyst (blastocyst-like structures, BLS) is based on the use of scaffold-dependent or matrix-free cell culture techniques to facilitate self-organization of the cells in organoid-like structures. A fundamental requirement is the correlation to clinical outcomes. The more closely certain 3D model represents receptive endometrium, blastocyst, or early placenta as well as maternal-fetal interface as a whole, the more likely it can provide accurate results. With the implication of 3D cell cultures worldwide, the terminology about the types of 3D cultures gets more and more complicated. For example, while the definition of spheroids, as self-assembling cell aggregates in an environment preventing their attachment to a flat surface (Białkowska et al., 2020), is common for laboratories working with healthy and cancer cell models, the definition of organoids is more unspecified. Some authors have determined organoids as 3D cultures that contain more than one type of differentiated cells and their progenitors (Mulaudzi et al., 2024). Organoids might be derived from ESC or adult progenitor cells that selforganize in particular culture conditions and recapitulate the differentiation and function of the organ of origin (Clevers, 2016; Abbas et al., 2020). Others have stated that organoids are genetically stable, 3D culture systems containing both progenitor (stem) and differentiated cells (Cui et al., 2020). A third party described the organoids just as 3D multicellular tissue models that mimic their corresponding in vivo tissue (Francés-Herrero et al., 2021). On the other hand, assembloids are 3D cultures created by the combination of two or more distinctly patterned organoids or an organoid plus additional cells or tissues that are used to model usually cell migration, invasion, and attachment during implantation (Levy and Pasca, 2023). In the current review, we consider the spheroids as single-cell type-based, self-assembling 3D cultures, the organoids as self-organizing 3D co-cultures of two or more cell types independent of the origin of the cell lines, and the assembloids as controlled organoids co-culture or an organoid along additional types of cell or tissue.

The idea for a 3D model of the human endometrium dates from the 1980s, and organoid-like structures from endometrial epithelial cells were first derived from primary gland fragments seeded into Matrigel (Rinehart et al., 1988). The endometrial organoids (EMO) with primary endometrial epithelial cells as 3D endometrial models are promising tools for recapitulation of the receptivity of maternal tissue in human implantation (Bentin-Ley et al., 1995). Despite being relatively complex to generate and maintain, EMOs originate from more easily obtainable specimens and can be manipulated in various ways. To generate and maintain human EMOs, Matrigel droplets with enzymatically dissociated primary endometrial tissue or iPSCs-derived endometrial fibroblasts were cultured in a defined medium (Turco et al., 2017; Miyazaki et al., 2018). The defined medium includes activators of WNT signaling (WNT ligands and R-respondin-1), growth factors (epidermal growth factor, EGF, fibroblast growth factor 10, FGF10), TGFβ inhibitors (A83-01), BMP inhibitor (Noggin), and nicotinamide. Importantly, the organoids could be generated from

biopsies obtained from cycling and non-cycling (pregnant or post-menopausal) endometrium. Moreover, these can be extensively cultured (more than 6 months) and cryopreserved showing stable genotypes and phenotypes, (Turco et al., 2017; Turco and Moffett, 2019). EMOs are an unprecedented opportunity to study the human endometrium in terms of normal endometrial development and menstrual cycle, and their remarkable aspects have been comprehensively discussed (Hibaoui and Feki, 2020). However, the cystic structure and reversed apico-basal polarity of conventional EMOs limit their utility in studying interactions with embryo surrogates during implantation (Bergmann et al., 2021). To reconstitute normal apico-basal polarity, Shibata et al. created apical-out EMOs (AO-EMO) that expose the apical surface of the epithelium to be available for interaction with trophoblasts (Shibata et al., 2024). In the same year, Francés-Herrero broadly discussed the importance of mimicking a favorable native microenvironment for the development of human EMO and proposed supplementations based on hydrogels from pig endometrium (Francés-Herrero et al., 2021). Fraser et al. presented a 3D endometrial organotypic model simulating the acute inflammatory decidualization initiation phase characterized by epithelial induction of the key endometrial receptivity marker integrin  $\alpha V\beta 3$ as a new concept to investigate endometrial receptivity. Accumulating data show a continuous tendency for the generation of closer-to-the-natural settings models to serve as irreplaceable tools for studying human implantation (Fraser et al., 2021).

Trophoblast spheroids (Fig. 2C-4.1) constructed from either primary immortalized trophoblasts or choriocarcinoma cell lines are commonly used as blastocyst surrogates for implantation studies. Their greatest advantage is that they do not include the use of human stem cells and they lack an ICM so they could not potentially give rise to an organism. This lifts many of the ethical constraints related to human stem cell usage (Caulfield et al., 2015; Matthews and Moralí, 2020; Matthews et al., 2021). Meanwhile, this kind of embryo surrogate contains trophoblast cells that, in particular settings, sufficiently represent TE development and differentiation during peri- and early implantation. Therefore, the trophoblast spheroid models have been used for many years to assess embryo attachment (Tacey et al., 1988; Wang et al., 2012), trophoblast migration and invasion during implantation (Holmberg et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2019; You et al., 2019) (Table 4). Mor's group created spheroid models from the immortalized, non-cancer, seventh gestational week derived trophoblast Sw71 cell line. As mentioned above this line has an EVT nature, and preserved stemness so the models effectively resemble the human blastocyst during the peri-implantation period. Sw71 spheroids were proven to migrate between endometrial stromal cells in appropriate conditions and by numerous protrusions to digest and invade Matrigel, which resembles the behavior of the invasive EVT in vivo (Holmberg et al., 2012; You et al., 2019). Recently, we extended these data showing over 70% production efficiency, closer to hatched or implanting blastocyst morphology and behaviors or functions that describe the 3D Sw71 spheroids as destined to be implanting structures, able to survive and migrate in serum-free media (Alexandrova et al., 2022b). Most importantly, we validated the Sw71 blastocyst-like model by direct comparison to primary trophoblasts regarding their hybrid (Vim+/CK7+) phenotype and HLA-G+/HLA-C+ pattern as well as by their ability to generate differentiated and functional spheroid models (Alexandrova et al., 2023). After the significant compactization during their 48h of differentiation, these BLS lacking inner cellular mass have a blastocoel-cavity,



**Figure 3.** Suitability of the 3D Sw71 spheroid model as a blastocyst-like surrogate to study trophoblast migration and invasion during human implantation. (A) Overall view of an implanting human blastocyst (Day 7–9 post-fertilization). (B) Upper panel (light microscopy, ECHO Revolve microscope RVL-100-M, Echo, San Diego, CA, USA, magnification 10x): Left—Sw71 spheroid (yellow) placed on human endometrial stromal cells (HESC) monolayer (grey), covered with Matrigel as a substitute for ECM. Note the invading trophoblast cells from the spheroid periphery (blue arrowheads, purple zone). Right—Sw71 spheroid trophoblast cells (blue arrowheads, purple zone), migrating between the stromal endometrial cells (HESC in red). Middle—HLA-G and HLA-C expression (in green) by Sw71 spheroid's trophoblast cells. The staining is performed with antibodies against HLA-G (rabbit, polyclonal, E-AB-18031, Elabscience) and HLA-C (mouse, monoclonal, sc-166088, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), and cell nuclei are counterstained with Hoechst (in blue); B. Lower panel (confocal microscopy, Nikon AX/AX R Confocal Microscope System): Blastocoel-like cavity (white arrow) of the Sw71 spheroid. Left and right—The nuclei of Sw71 cells are visualized with Hoechst staining (blue and magenta, respectively); middle—Sw71 trophoblast cells are stained for HLA-G molecule (green).

proven by confocal imaging (Fig. 3B, lower panels). Both events compactization and cavitation are specific for early blastocyst development *in vivo*. The comparison of the Sw71 spheroids to implanting human blastocyst confirms the invasion and migration of HLA-G- and HLA-C-positive trophoblast cells from a differentiated Sw71 spheroid, placed on endometrial stromal monolayer with or no ECM (Fig. 3B, upper panels).

The trophoblast is a functional bridge between the embryo and the mother and an important player in the establishment of immune tolerance during implantation. The trophoblast Sw71 cells express/produce both HLA-G and HLA-C molecules (Hackmon *et al.*, 2017; Alexandrova *et al.*, 2022b) as ligands for maternal KIRs on both NK cells and T cells. Thus, the Sw71 spheroid model may be a key structure for the evaluation of the immune interactions via the KIR/HLA axis at the MFI during implantation and early placentation (Alexandrova *et al.*, 2022a). The inclusion of immune components in our model would be an asset to delineate mechanisms of immune tolerance, albeit at the expense of increased complexity. Sw71 blastocyst surrogate is a promising model for studying human implantation either in the presence or absence of partner endometrial cells.

In addition to immortalized and cancer trophoblast cell lines, an embryonic stem cell line VAL3 was differentiated into solely trophoblastic cells that were cultured in a AggreWell plate to form a human embryonic stem cell-derived trophoblastic spheroid implantation model, cultured in BAP differentiation medium (Lee *et al.*, 2015; Yue *et al.*, 2020). BAP differentiation medium is mouse embryonic fibroblast conditioned medium (MEF-CM), supplemented with 10 ng/ml BMP4,  $1 \mu$ M of an ALK4/5/7 inhibitor, and  $0.1 \mu$ M of an FGF2-signaling inhibitor (PD173074). BAPinduced differentiation leads to reduced OCT4 expression and upregulation of trophoblastic markers HLA-G,  $\beta$ -hCG, and CK7. Moreover, the BAP-treated VAL3 cells showed enhanced capacity for invasion and migration *in vitro*, consistent with their trophoblastic properties. Their mRNA resembled that of the TE of blastocyst before implantation (Yue *et al.*, 2020). Compared to the classic trophoblast spheroids, BAP spheroids are derived from ESC, enabling long-term culture with an unlimited supply, but an ethical issue needs to be considered. BAP spheroids possess a blastocoel-like cavity, resembling the human blastocyst at a more physiological extent, and selectively attach to the receptive endometrial cells (Li *et al.*, 2022).

The establishment of trophoblast organoids sourced from first-trimester placental villi (Fig. 2C-4.2) was a major advancement in the trophoblast research field. Early placenta-derived villous CT proved to differentiate to hCG-secreting ST and/or HLA-G+ invading EVT could serve as a sophisticated 3D model for trophoblast differentiation, invasion and migration studies. For more than 20 years, Moffet's team strived to grow a human placental model for the first few weeks of pregnancy (King et al., 2000; Moffett and Loke, 2006; Moffett and Shreeve, 2023). In 2018, they reported the generation of a human, single donor-based long-term, genetically stable trophoblast organoids that grow as complex 3D structures with the fusion of villous trophoblasts to hCG-secreting ST or differentiate to HLA-G+ EVT cells that vigorously invade and digest Matrigel, and anatomically and functionally resemble the villous placenta in vivo (Turco et al., 2018). By ameliorating culture conditions for these 'mini-placentas', they stated that the organoid culture system provides a translational model for early placentation that may be passaged for more than a year and also may be frozen (Turco et al., 2018; Sheridan et al., 2020, 2022). Concurrently, Knöfler's group reported the

establishment of long-term living human CT organoids from purified from pooled early placental tissues, expressing markers of human CT stemness, and proliferation, and with gene expression profiles highly similar to those of the primary human trophoblasts. The authors succeeded in establishing 16 different organoid cultures with 100% efficiency, that could be cryopreserved and re-cultivated (Haider et al., 2018). Both groups suggested that the activation of Wnt and EGF signaling and inhibition of the TGFb pathway could be sufficient for the derivation and longterm expansion of human trophoblast organoids (Nikitina and Lebedev, 2022). These reports remain highly debated as effective ways to derive trophoblast organoids from primary cells to model both normal and pathological human placenta in Horii et al., (2020), Li et al. (2022), Nikitina and Lebedev (2022), James et al. (2022). However, much work remains to be done to translate these models in the research of implantation-based complications (Nishiguchi et al., 2019; Horii et al., 2020; Li et al., 2022). For example, these 'mini-placentas' need further optimization like reversing the polarity since they have internal ST covered by EVT (Sheridan et al., 2020; James et al., 2022) or the treatment should be consistent with these features (Sheridan et al., 2022).

Recent studies have highlighted the potential of ESC or iPSC to generate 3D BLS called 'blastoid' or 'iBlastoid' respectively (Yu et al., 2021; Kagawa et al., 2022; Karvas et al., 2022) (Fig. 2C-4.3). These structures have many names such as blastoids (Rivron et al., 2018), iBlastoids, BLS (Nikitina and Lebedev, 2022), embryoid bodies (Li et al., 2022), embryoids (Nicolas et al., 2021), and stem cell-based embryo models (SCB-Ems). Synthetic human embryo models show functional, molecular and morphological similarities to the human blastocysts at Days 6-10 post-fertilization in vivo consisting of epiblast, hypoblast and TE layers (Ball, 2023). These structures are derived from naïve hESC (Yu et al., 2021) or iPSC (Liu et al., 2021) exposed to designated differentiation media ensuring sequential lineage differentiation and self-organization. Up to now, human blastoids have been successfully generated using hESC in both the naive (Yanagida et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021; Kagawa et al., 2022; Karvas et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2023) and primed-to-naive intermediate pluripotency states (Tu et al., 2023) as well as from iPSCs (Fan et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Sozen et al., 2021; Mazid et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2022). These studies exploit single-cell transcriptome analyses to confirm the segregation of TE, hypoblast, and epiblast. By mimicking the interaction between the epiblast and TE, the crucial role of the epiblast was revealed as an inductor of the local maturation of polar TE and its attachment to the endometrial epithelium (Kagawa et al., 2022). They might serve as embryo surrogates in modeling normal and impaired implantation as well as genetic and other manipulations (Morris, 2017). Blastoids cultured on threedimensional (3D) extracellular matrix undergo early postimplantation events, including epiblast lumenogenesis, rapid expansion, and diversification of trophoblast lineages, and robust invasion of EVT by Day 14. By Day 21, the extended blastoid culture shows localized activation of the markers of the primitive streak and the emergence of embryonic germ layers. This structure is called a gastruloid (post-implantation model) (Karvas et al., 2022, 2023) (Fig. 2C-4.3). So far, there have been no reports of human blastoid formation using human trophoblast cells (Okae et al., 2018) probably due to the closer similarity of human trophoblasts to post-implantation cytotrophoblasts rather than TE (Okae et al., 2018; Castel et al., 2020; Mischler et al., 2021).

Advanced assisted reproduction requires the maintenance of human gametes, fertilization, and optimal development of the zygote to the blastocyst stage *ex utero*, permitting an evaluation

of embryo quality before transfer. Although ethically controversial, the extended cultures of human embryos bring remarkable advances in our understanding of the peri-implantation stages of human development (Fig. 2B-4.4). In 2016, the successful growth of human embryos up to Day 14 post-fertilization (start of gastrulation, the legal limit of human embryo culture) (Warnock, 1884) was reported and approved for replication of the in vivo transition from pre- to post-implantation stages (Morris, 2017). These extended embryo cultures reveal self-organization of the human embryo after attachment in the absence of maternal influence as well as the early TE and subsequent trophoblast differentiation (Deglincerti et al., 2016; Shahbazi et al., 2016; Popovic et al., 2019; West et al., 2019; Xiang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021; Greenbaum et al., 2023). By using single-cell RNA sequencing, plenty of trophoblast lineages from peri-implantation embryos in culture were assessed to gain insights into events driving early placental emergence (Blakeley et al., 2015; Petropoulos et al., 2016). The transcriptome dynamics in trophoblast cells occurring between D8 and D12 post-fertilization, a time that, in vivo, corresponds to the first 5 days after the embryo begins to implant into the uterine wall, were successfully captured (West et al., 2019; Greenbaum et al., 2023). Zhou et al. (2021) made a great parallel between data obtained from the 13th day post-fertilization human embryo culture and from the Cambridge and Carnegie collections of in situ developing human embryos.

The perfect in vitro implantation model would present the interaction between endometrial epithelial, stromal, endothelial, and immune cells and embryos (or surrogates). But this complex model is still hypothetical. In their efforts to reach the complete recapitulation of maternal-fetal contact during implantation, the researchers turned to different assembloid (layered) models. As shown in Table 4, these two-part assembloids could be less or more complex.

These assembloids combine primary or cancer endometrial (epithelial and/or stromal cells) or endometrial segments/tissue or EMO organoids with genuine human embryos or embryo surrogates (mouse embryo, trophoblast spheroid or organoid) to study embryonic adhesion and attachment, trophoblasts differentiation, and migration/invasion (Table 4) (Kliman et al., 1990; Galán et al., 2000; Hohn et al., 2000; Heneweer et al., 2003, 2005; Harun et al., 2006; Uchida et al., 2007; Aboussahoud et al., 2010; Gonzalez et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011; Ho et al., 2012; Holmberg et al., 2012; He et al., 2019; Kinnear et al., 2019).

Assembling of extended embryo cultures with maternal tissue is an optimal system allowing modeling of the in vivo endometrium-conceptus crosstalk in norm and pathology (Menezo et al., 1995; Cartwright et al., 1999, 2002; Carver et al., 2003; Teklenburg and Macklon, 2009; Teklenburg et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2021). Rawlings et al. (2021b) assembled endometrial organoids with human IVF embryos to study the impact of the senescence of decidual stromal cells on embryo invasion. Buck et al. (2015) used an original approach to develop a novel 3D assembloid cell culture system consisting of trophoblast choriocarcinoma monolayer (AC-1M88) co-cultured with spheroids from endometrial epithelial cell lines HEC-1A, Ishikawa, or RL95-2 cells to mimic trophoblast invasion into endometrial glands (Table 4). In this model, three differently differentiated and polarized endometrial adenocarcinoma cell lines formed gland-like structures in a reconstituted basement membrane with apicobasal polarization towards their well-developed internal lumen, for studying the impact of the epithelial junction on trophoblastendometrium interaction and trophoblast invasion of endometrial glands (Buck et al., 2015). By the same approach, an Ishikawa

cell spheroid culture served as an experimental model system to prove the effect of hormonal changes during the window of implantation (Buck *et al.*, 2021).

The invasion of the decidual vessels by endovascular trophoblasts and the role of uNK cells and macrophages in this process was followed by an *in vitro* co-culture system of first-trimester villous explants and decidua parietalis embedded in paraffin (Dunk et al., 2003; Hazan et al., 2010). Earlier, the uterine biopsy embedded in fibrin gel and seeded with fluorescence-tagged trophoblasts (SGHPL-4 line) was used as an assembloid model for evaluation of the interstitial and spiral artery invasion (Cartwright et al., 1999, 2002).

To evaluate the attachment potential of recently created blastoids, these were placed onto an open-faced endometrial layer (OFEL) obtained from endometrium organoids (Kagawa *et al.*, 2022). These models are promising tools for the study of periimplantation and early (post-implantation) events (Sozen *et al.*, 2021; Kagawa *et al.*, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2022). For example, they may provide important insights into the validation of the expression profile of the primary ST (Sheridan *et al.*, 2022).

A relatively complete in vitro model of maternal-fetal contact during human implantation was recently created by Shibata *et al.* (2024). In their complex assembloid, they co-cultured AO-EMO (containing endometrial epithelial and stromal cells), and an endothelial network with human blastoids or human embryos. Although lacking the immune cells, this feto-maternal assembloid successfully recapitulated all stages of implantation. The direct interaction between fetal and maternal cells could be observed, including the breaching of the endometrial epithelial barrier by ST as well as the subsequent invasion between stromal cells (Shibata *et al.*, 2024).

Of note, the 2021 guidelines of the International Society for Stem Cell Research were updated to ban the transfer of human research embryos, human-animal chimeric embryos, or human embryo models into an animal or human uterus. However, this restriction did not apply to blastoids or gastruloids. Recently it has been shown that blastoids can induce decidualization upon transfer into the uteri of pseudo-pregnant mice, and they showed improved differentiation into post-implantation embryo-like structures both in vitro and/or in utero (Li et al., 2019; Sozen et al., 2019; Oura et al., 2023). In the primate study, the authors stated that the results reveal the capacity of cynomolgus monkey blastoids to implant although the pregnancies all aborted spontaneously (Li et al., 2023). In their press statement, the team recognized that the work may be controversial but they noted that discussions between the scientific community and the public are needed for progress to be made in this field of research (https://www.wired.com/story/stem-cells-monkey-synthetic-em bryos/). These results raise active discussion on the findings as well as the ethical aspects in recent scientific publications (Conroy, 2023) and numerous public-oriented science communications (Devlin, 2023; Hamzelou, 2023). We would like to note that although they could bring valuable findings on the implantation processes, the studies confronting the published rules and guidelines raise ethical concerns.

In summary, for accurate results with the endometrial 3D cultures, researchers should carefully control the maturation process of endometrial and trophoblast spheroids or organoids, while also being critical in discriminating true phenotypes from the observations of sporadic events in a dish. Another hurdle is the limited size and the appearance of necrotic central zones due to insufficient internal oxygen and nutrient supply. Although all these facts question reproducibility and sustainability, the advanced 3D models and especially assembloids are valuable and very promising tools for fundamental research in periimplantation and early placentation events. Since the interaction of the immune cells with trophoblasts is a readout for successful implantation, key steps forward would be the selective incorporation of components of the immune system. The extended cultures of human embryos as well as the embryoid models are considered only the beginning of the full discovery of the periimplantation stages in humans. However, the use of such models is still restricted by the specific culturing conditions, and the requirement for expertise, as well as the ethical and legal concerns raised. There has been an ongoing discussion on the appropriacy of the extension of these cultures beyond the legal 14 days (Hurlbut *et al.*, 2017).

#### Perspectives

As Rivron has noted, 'embryos teach us everything about how we are formed and how we fail'. Therefore, we must profit from the highly advanced 3D models to study and understand implantation and to employ the findings in favor of infertile couples (Rivron et al., 2018; Powell, 2021). Since the terminology still lacks systematization, it would be of great value if a robust classification of all the available 3D endometrial, embryo culture systems, and assembloids is produced. The existing type of models should be defined under certain designations. After determining the best models, they should be implemented in practice, their handling should be mastered, and they should be proved reliable in parallel with natural settings (primary cells, extended embryo cultures, possible in vivo observations). Thus, scientists all over the world could use standardized protocols for generation and maintenance, as well as strict guidelines to work with 3D human MFI surrogates. New sources for information about human implantation are the extended human embryo cultures and the synthetic embryo models. Both models raise controversies and ethical questions. To date, none of the synthetic embryos can biologically produce a fetus. Since some artificial models could originate from iPSC, they could even escape the use of ESC but 'as they get more sophisticated, with the potential to form recognizable structures or even organs, they enter their ethical grey area' (Powell, 2021). Their similarity to human blastocysts/gastrula provides promising avenues of research and treatment for developmental biology, regenerative medicine, drug discovery, and reproductive health, but they still raise social, ethical, and legal questions that will affect future research and widespread adoption in industry and clinical settings. Moreover, such cultures are not widely accessible. A very recent comment on the artificial embryo models in Nature presented data for a pair of studies with the most advanced to date lab-grown human embryo models. The main message was that those most advanced synthetic human embryos spark controversy provoking many arguments about the merits of claims made, and raising ethical concerns and legal questions (Ball, 2023). New ethical dilemmas such as the moral status of the human embryo and whether we should treat synthetic embryos in the same way as natural ones or whether, because of their laboratory origin, we have no moral responsibility. As Foreman et al. stated recently, it would be of benefit for scientists to voluntarily and proactively strive for efficient regulation and consistent ethical guidelines for research on human embryoids in collaboration with members of the public, clinicians, patients, bioethicists, sociologists, legal experts, and funding organizations (Nicolas et al., 2021; Foreman et al., 2023). The embryos generated through ART but not used for

reproductive purposes are at disposal (where this is allowed by the country's ART regulation) as donated human embryos for research (spare embryos, surplus embryos). The usage of such embryos also raises moral unease about the instrumentalization of human life (Scully et al., 2012), whether the donation of the embryo could be an act of possible coercion 'wrapped' in altruism, and whether is acceptable for the embryo to be 'a gift'. The statement that synthetic embryos will eliminate the need to use natural human embryos is controversial because, their creation involves the extraction of a stem cell from a natural embryo, which could reduce, but not eliminate, the use of natural embryos at this stage. On the other hand, there are great uncertainties about their comparability with natural embryos and how well they can show actual early embryonic development. If the synthetic embryos created from manipulated somatic cells develop into full-grown humans, it will confront us with the ethical dilemma of access to this technology for reproductive purposes in same-sex couples. It will lead us to the questions of genetic parentage in the background of genetic manipulation and the moral justification of asexual reproduction as a whole. The opportunity of synthetic embryos to replace donated human embryos provokes the question of 'what's next for lab-grown human embryos?' (Powell, 2021) or even 'what is an embryo'? Although the potential of the new artificial human embryo models to induce a pregnancy is yet unknown (Ball, 2023), some researchers speculate that it is time to change the definition of the human embryo and include embryo models with the potential to develop into a fetus (Rivron et al., 2023) They propose the embryo to be defined as 'a group of human cells supported by elements fulfilling extraembryonic and uterine functions that, combined, have the potential to form a fetus'. We and others remain conservative, stating that it is too soon to start formalizing such distinctions (Ball, 2023). We state that genuine donated-for-research or synthetic embryos should not in any circumstances complete this cycle since it will exceed any ethical tolerance and would highly impact society in a negative way. Also, natural and model human embryos used in science should be classified under a single term like 'human research embryo' or another term, to distinguish them from human embryos that will eventually develop into humans. Surplus embryos should be replaced with BLS for research and used only in the final validation steps under strict regulation.

### **Concluding remarks**

The human implantation process is still obscure and remains a limiting step for the success of in vivo and in vitro fertilization. Conventional animal and 2D culture models have had an important role in the first steps of revealing the uniqueness of this process, helping to define the stages, and suggesting important study targets. Tissue explants and extended human embryo cultures as well as primary, cancer, and immortalized cell line models, with all their pros and cons, have given crucial results in human implantation research. Of them, the normal immortalized cell lines promise to model the closest to the in situ process. The advanced 3D models might be the key to widening the knowledge of the intimate maternal-embryo contact at the very beginning of pregnancy. From the already available models, the endometrium spheroids or organoids are a powerful tool for assessing the impact of different factors on implantation/early placentation with increased physiological relevance. The relative autonomy in early trophoblast development makes trophoblast spheroids relevant models for studying their implantation

potential independently of the embryoblast and/or maternal signals. Since these models comprise a single cell line (independent of the origin), they overcome all the legal and ethical constraints for work with ESC and are more accessible and affordable for laboratories all over the world. However, such models need to be validated with similar constructs from primary cells and confronted with small decidua biopsies recapitulating the MFI. For example, the Sw71 spheroids are useful and biologically relevant embryo surrogates for the evaluation of TE behavior during human implantation, including maternal-fetal immune recognition at peri-implantation. The natural or induced pluripotent stem cell-derived embryoids could be used in studies on human implantation/placentation and embryogenesis. For epiblast research, the trophoblast stem cells or stem cells generated from iPSC should be preferentially used to avoid the use of ESC. The complex assembloids including organoid-based 3D culture endometrial and trophoblast models can better recapitulate the trophoblast-endometrium interaction for the investigation of the successful (and failed) human implantation. Patient-derived endometrial organoids/assembloids are a new avenue for developing novel treatment strategies. Much work remains to be done for the optimization and standardization of these integrated and complex models. Given their diversity as well as the frequent lack of validation with primary cultures or in vivo observations, it is preferable that findings from studies on human implantation, using a particular model are confirmed with others and/or verified in vivo. We believe that the proposed consecutive approach including systematization of the available information and creation of strict classification with denomination of the 3D models with their advantages, limitations, preferred use, and methodology for modeling of a particular event, would tremendously aid the modeling of human implantation. When combined with contemporary molecular techniques such as genomic microarrays, RT-PCR, multiplex assays, and proteomics, these models could provide reliable and important data about human implantation. This would be a key for reproductive science providing an opportunity to investigate fundamental pathways of human implantation as well as to evaluate the impact of many factors, new therapies, and treatments related to women's health, IVF success, and embryo development. Last but not least, it would be ideal if the legislation and regulations on the 3D embryo models were unified and applicable worldwide to ensure the same standards and practices, equalize research quality, and provide reliable output. Synthetic embryo research presents scientists with the dilemma of how both science and ethics can go hand in hand. Warnock's report (1884) as a regulatory framework for the oversight of experiments with human embryos was questioned and new guidelines relaxing the '14-day rule' about human embryo culture took away the hard barrier for researchers (Powell, 2021). Some research groups admired such an extension envisaging possible scientific and clinical advances and determining an ethical basis for such an extension (Williams and Johnson, 2020; McCully, 2021), while others denied it (Blackshaw and Rodger, 2021; Nicolas et al., 2021). Warnock herself was concerned that the extension would put at risk the whole field of embryo research (Hurlbut et al., 2017). We support Warnock's opinion that it is too soon to continue past Day 14 for human embryo cultures. Moreover, extended human embryo cultures have to be used as a last resort tool for in vivo confirmation purposes only. Nevertheless, the careful appraisal and development of national legal and ethical frameworks are crucial for better regulation of studies using human embryo models to obtain all the potential benefits for human reproduction.

### **Data availability**

The data underlying this article are available in the article.

### **Authors' roles**

T.D.: conceptualization, data curation, funding acquisition, supervision, writing of the original draft, review, and editing. M.A.: data curation, visualization, formal analysis, investigation, writing of original draft. I.V.: formal analysis, investigation. Y.Y.: formal analysis, investigation. G.M.: resources, writing—review and editing. All authors revised the article critically for important intellectual content. All authors approved the final version of the article to be published.

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### **Conflict of interest**

All authors declare no conflict of interest.

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