

Einführung in die Stammzell- und Embryonenforschung II (ESF-II/9) WS2022/23

Zur Herstellen von Lebewesen aus einer Stammzelle

Biologische Grundlagen – Stand der Forschung – Gesellschaftliche
Auswirkungen

5. Doppelstunde

17.11.2022

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1

2.1.3. Embryoids - Synthetische Embryonen – Wiederholung der 4. Doppelstunde

1. Synthetische Embryonen entwickeln sich in wenigen Prozent der Fälle bis zum Beginn der Organogenese unter geeigneten Umweltbedingungen.
2. Die Plazentaentwicklung kann ex vivo noch nicht nachgestellt werden.

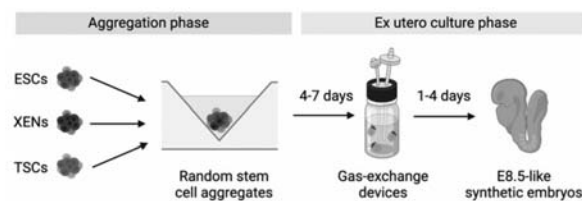


FIG. 1. Synthetic embryos cultured until an E8.5-like stage. In the first phase, embryonic and extraembryonic stem cells are combined into aggregates, which are cultured to promote the formation of self-organized synthetic embryos resembling E5.5–6.5 stages. In the second phase, successfully aggregated structures are selectively picked and transferred into gas-exchanging bioreactors, where they fully develop through gastrulation and into early neurulation and organogenesis.

[DOI: 10.1089/cell.2022.0111](https://doi.org/10.1089/cell.2022.0111)

Ethische Dimension dieser Experimente : → siehe 7. Doppelstunde

Potentiality	Potenzialität
Autonomy	Autonomie
Contingency	Bedingtheit

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2

Teil 2 Herstellung von Lebewesen - Stand der Forschung (3. bis 6. Doppelstunde)

2.1. Ex vivo Embryonen aus einer pluripotenten Stammzellen

- 2.1.1. Blastoide - Herstellung von Blastozysten aus Stammzellen
- 2.1.2. Gastruloide – Gastrulation in Stammzellaggregaten
- 2.1.3. Embryoids - Synthetische Embryonen

2.2. Ex vivo Keimzellen aus pluripotenten Stammzellen

- 2.2.1. **Der weibliche und männliche Reproduktionszyklus in vivo** und ex vivo
- 2.2.2. Herstellung von Zygoten - In vitro Fertilisation und Klonen
- 2.2.3. Herstellung von künstlichen Plazenten aus Stammzellen
(siehe auch 2.1.3., 4. Doppelstunde)
- 2.2.4. Herstellung von Mäusen aus Stammzellen in Leihmüttern
(siehe Einleitung zu 2.1.3., 4. Doppelstunde)

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3

2.2. Zur Herstellung von Lebewesen

- Über die Möglichkeit Lebewesen aus einer diploiden Zelle herzustellen.

Es geht hier nicht um die Herstellung von Leben an sich!

Es geht um die Herstellung von autonom vermehrungsfähigen komplexen Organismen ,
ohne Zeugung durch Eltern.

2.2.1. Die Herstellung von primäre Keimzellen (Primordial germ cells (PGCs))

Der männliche Reproduktionszyklus in vivo und ex vivo (2016 und 2021)
Der weibliche Reproduktionszyklus in vivo und ex vivo (2016)

2.2.2. Die Herstellung von Zygoten

Ausgangspunkt dieser Unternehmens:

Reproduktionsforschung und assistierende Reproduktionsmedizin bis hin zur In vitro Fertilisation (IVF)
als Resultat von circa 100 Jahren Gameten-, Befruchtungs- und Embryonenforschung an Tieren und
Menschen.

Intension: Erfüllung des Kinderwunsches
Sehnsucht nach langem Leben und Unsterblichkeit
Die Überwindung des Todes

... als Motive für die Forschung.

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4

Resumée

Herstellung von Lebewesen aus diploiden oder haploiden Zellen.

Vorgeschichte:

1.1. aus diploide (2n) Zellen (ESCs + iPSCs + ntESCs = PSCs) -alle habe Methoden derzeit unüberwindlichen Barrieren.

PSCs → Blastozysten + Placentoide (künstl. Plazenten) (Homunkulus / Retortenbaby)

PSCs → EBs → Primordial Germ cells (PGCs) Meose notwendig!

PGCs → Gonadiode → Ovarioide / Testiculoide → Oocyten/Spermine ... Nischenbedingungen unbekannt!

1.2. aus haploide (1n) Zellen

1. Partenogenetische PSCs → 1n ESCs¹ → PGCs/Keimzellen. ¹Martin Leeb bzw. Ulrich Elling, 2011; hpESC (2016)

2. Androgenic PGC-like ahESCs aus Spermien und entkernten Oocyten (2012) ABER: Alle sind 19+X und nicht 19+Y !

→Bi-parental Mäuse und auch Bi-maternal Mäuse (2018)

1. Was sind Keimzellen (Primordial Germ cells) und wie entstehen diese?

Vorgeschichte:

Der Ursprung der Gameten (Keimzellen) sind die Primordial Germ Cells. Primordial Germ Cells entstehen in der Maus am Tag 6.5 - 7.25

(Mensch: 3-4 Woche 21 - 28 dpf) im kaudalen primitiven extra-embryonalen Ektoderm und wandern dann in dem Mesonephros (Urnieren)

Region ein. Zur Erinnerung: [Pronethros (Vorniere) - Mesonephros (Urnieren) - Metanethros (eigentliche Niere)]

Epigenetic reprogramming in mouse pre-implantation development and primordial germ cells

Mitsuru Saitou^{1,2,3,*}, Sora Kagawa¹ and Kazuki Kurimasa^{1,2}

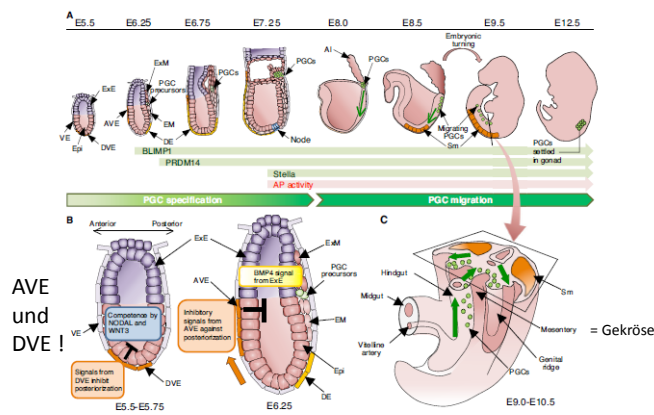
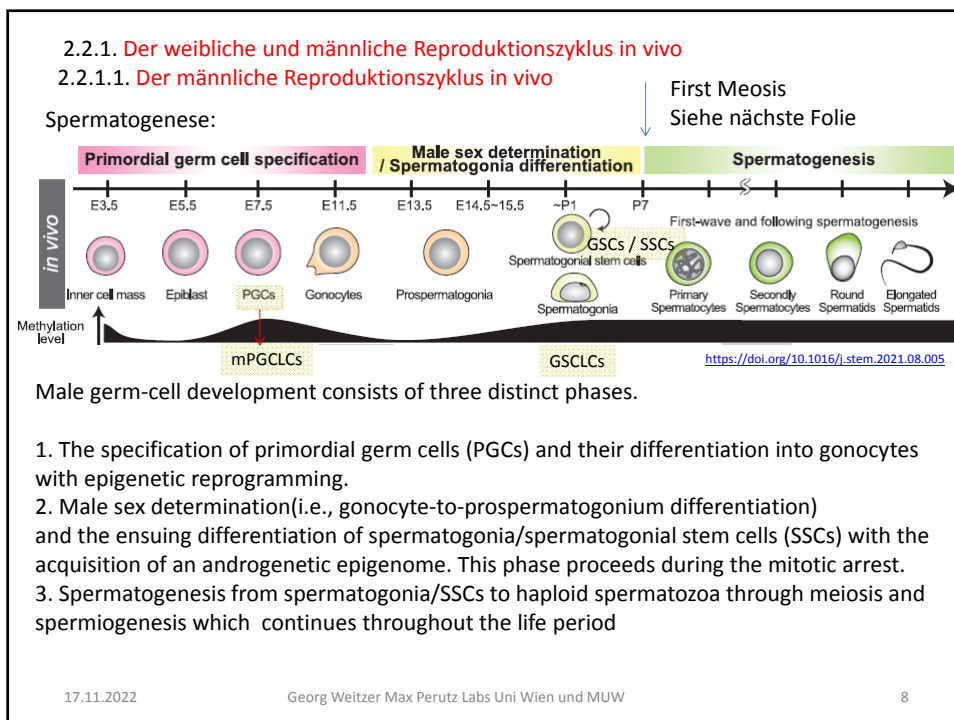
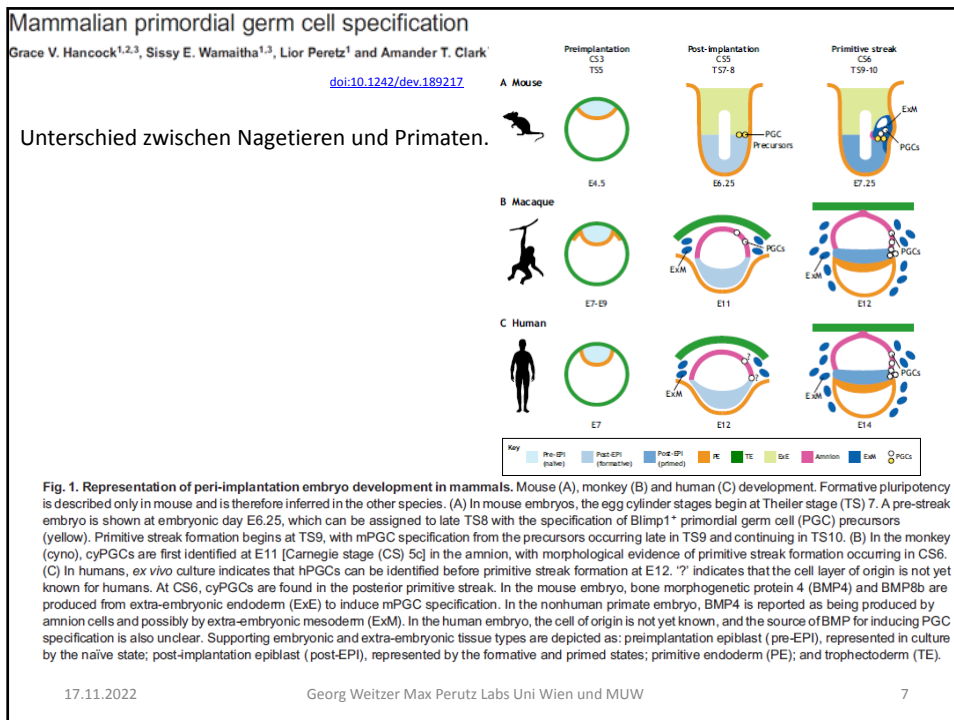
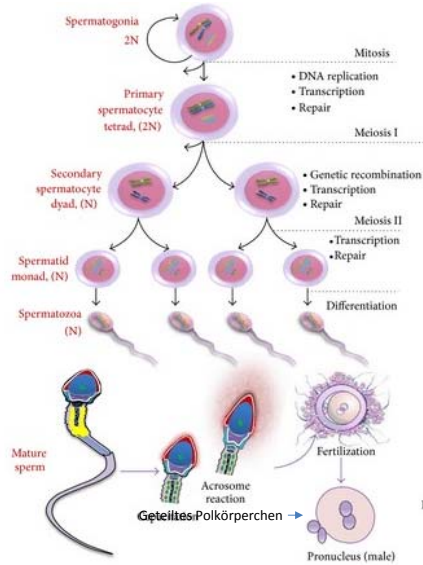


Fig. 2. Specification and migration of mouse primordial germ cells. (A) A schematic of germ cell specification and migration in developing mouse embryos (prospective anterior is towards the left). Primordial germ cell (PGC) precursors (E6.25) and PGCs are shown as green circles in embryos from E6.25 to E12.5, and the direction of PGC migration is denoted by a green arrow. The timing of expression of key genes (*Blm1p1*, *Prdm14* and *Stella*) and alkaline-phosphatase activity is shown below. (B) Signalling activities for PGC specification at E5.5-E5.75 and at E6.25. (C) A detailed view of PGC migration from the hindgut through the mesentery to genital ridges at E9.0-E10.5. The direction of PGC migration is denoted by a green arrow and anterior is towards the top. AI, allantois; AVE, anterior visceral endoderm; DE, distal endoderm; DVE, distal visceral endoderm; EM, embryonic mesoderm; Epi, epiblast; Ect, extra-embryonic ectoderm; EAM, extra-embryonic mesoderm; PGCs, primordial germ cells; Sm, somite; VE, visceral endoderm.



2.2.1.1. Der männliche Reproduktionszyklus in vivo nach der Geburt und Pubertät



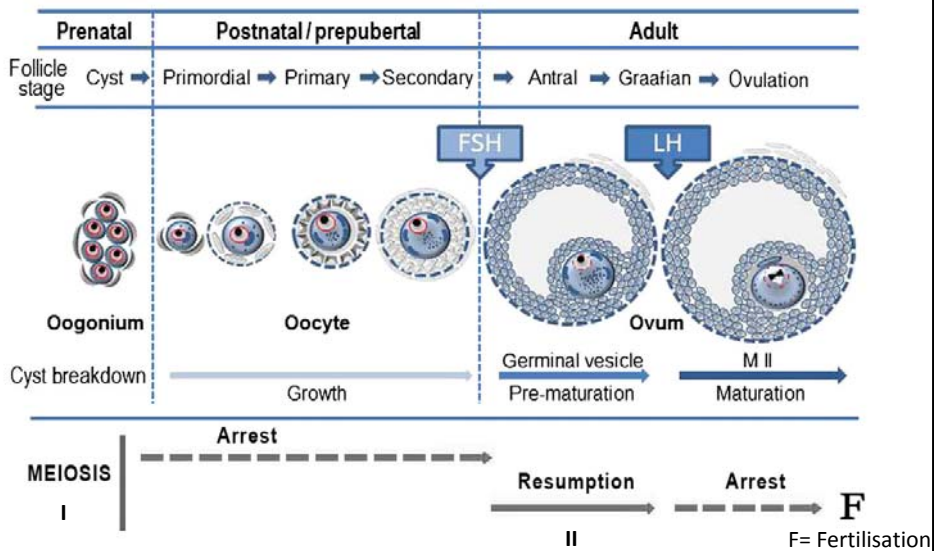
https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Schematic-diagram-showing-the-cellular-genetic-and-chromatin-changes-during_fig1_259450365

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9

2.2.1.2. Der weibliche Reproduktionszyklus in vivo vor der Geburt und ab der Pubertät



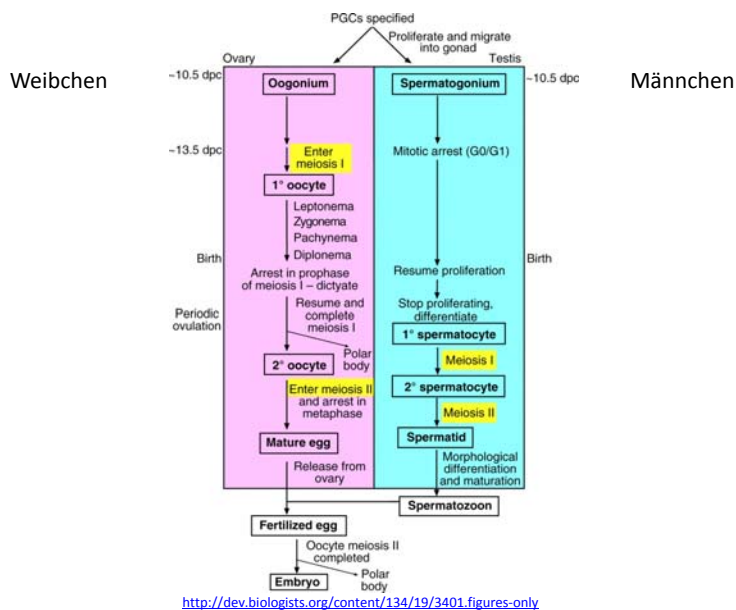
<https://embryologistmedia.weebly.com/patients/what-is-a-mature-egg-reasons-why-you-may-not-obtain-mature-eggs-in-your-art-cycle>

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10

Vergleich der Meiose in Keimzellen beider Geschlechter:



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11

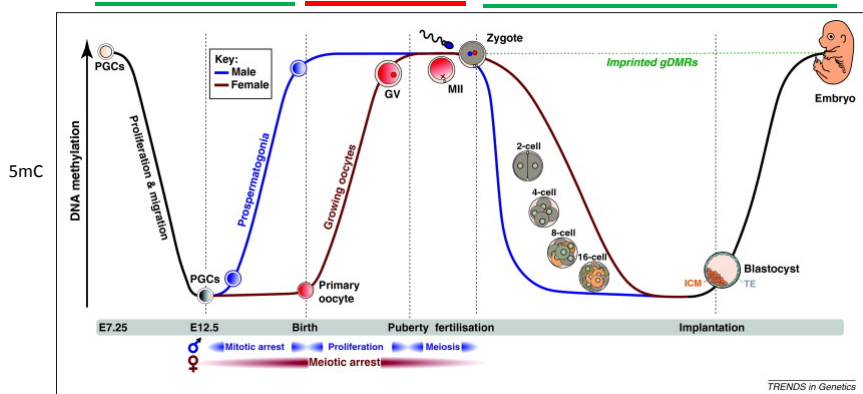
Vergleich:

Die Primordial germ cells (PGCs) entwickeln sich bei weiblichen und männlichen Organismen unterschiedlich.

Gametenentwicklung
während der
Foetalentwicklung

Geburt bis
Geschlechtsreife

Embryogenese



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12

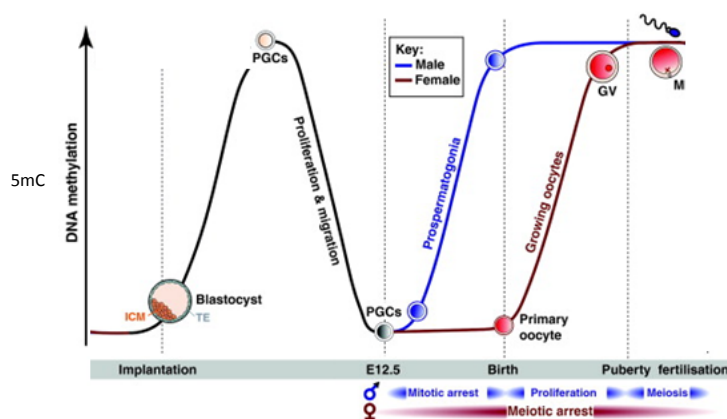
Legende zu vorhergehenden Abbildung:

Figure 1. DNA methylation changes during developmental epigenetic reprogramming. Primordial germ cells (PGCs) emerge in embryos at E7.5 and, concomitant with their proliferation and migration towards the genital ridge, DNA methylation is globally erased (black line). Following sex-determination, new DNA-methylation landscapes are established in germ-cell precursors in an asymmetrical fashion in male and female embryos. In the male embryo (blue line), *de novo* methylation takes place before meiosis in mitotically arrested cells (G1-phase; prospermatogonia) and is completed before birth. In the female embryo (red line), primary oocytes enter meiosis and arrest in prophase-I (diplotene stage); DNA methylation is established after birth during the follicular/oocyte growth phase. At puberty, under specific endocrine triggers, fully-grown germinal vesicle (GV) oocytes resume the first meiotic division. After extrusion of the first polar body, oocytes arrest in metaphase of the second meiotic division (MII oocytes) and meiosis is completed only upon fertilisation. Following fertilisation, a new wave of DNA demethylation takes place that is distinct on the parental genomes. In the zygote, DNA methylation of the paternal genome is rapidly erased by an active mechanism (blue line). Demethylation of the maternal genome is slower (red line) and is dependent on DNA replication (passive demethylation). These post-fertilisation demethylation events do not include imprinted gDMRs (green dotted line), resulting in parental-allele-specific methylation of these elements in early embryos and consequent parental-allele-specific expression of associated imprinted genes. Concomitant with blastocyst implantation and cell-lineage determination, new methylation landscapes become established, associated with cellular differentiation.

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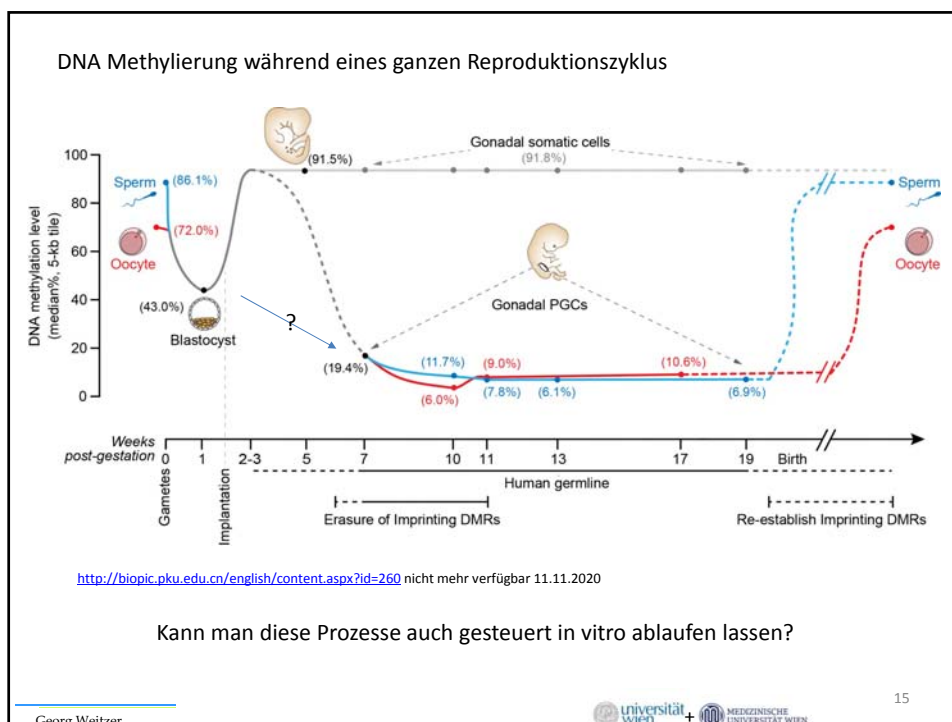
13

Es sind zwei unterschiedliche Wellen von DNA Methylierung notwendig, um aus ESCs Keimzellen herzustellen.



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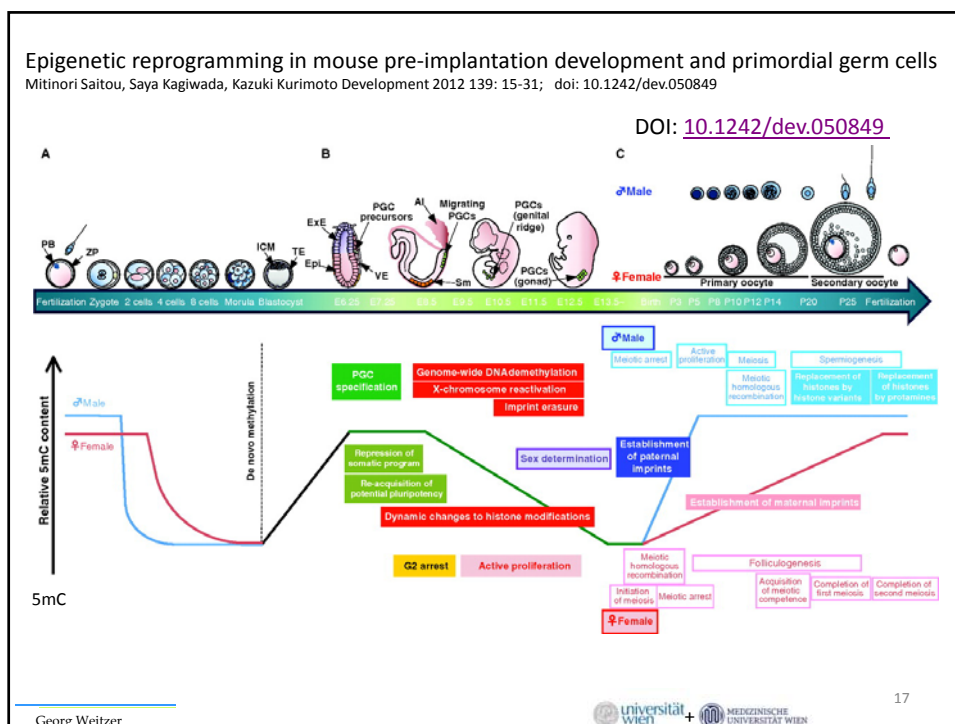
14



Legende zu vorhergehenden Abbildung:

The epigenetic genome-wide reprogramming cycle involves two phases of DNA erasure in the mouse (from [[91],[161],[162]]). (1) A first wave of DNA demethylation takes place in the male (blue curve) or female (red curve) primordial germ cells (PGC) of the F1 individuals; this occurs throughout the genome, including the imprinted genes (embryonic day (E)10.5-13.5). (2) Then, the genome of the gametes undergoes de novo methylation, with maternal methylation marks established at a later stage (ovulation) than paternal marks (E14). (3) A second wave of DNA demethylation takes place after fertilization in the F2 zygote (E0.5), with a more rapid demethylation in the paternal than the maternal genome. However, the paternal and maternal imprinted genes maintain their methylation pattern throughout this preimplantation reprogramming (dotted curves), allowing the inheritance of parent-specific monoallelic expression in somatic tissues of the F2 individual. (4) Finally, genome-wide remethylation occurs in both parental genomes at about the time of implantation (E3.5). Altogether the very early embryonic development corresponds to an epigenomic reprogramming step, during which the new epigenetic marks are more prone to being impacted by the environment. This explains why the environment experienced during early development has a greater impact on the adult phenotype than that experienced later in life [163]. Moreover, the timing of the two global DNA demethylation and remethylation waves differs between male and female genomes, possibly explaining why they may be differently impacted by a stress applied during these stages [91,164].

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16



Legende zu vorhergehenden Abbildung:

Fig. 1. A schematic of mouse pre-implantation and germ cell development. (Top) A schematic of pre-implantation and germ-cell development in mice. (A) Pre-implantation development stages; (B) post-implantation embryonic development, following blastocyst implantation at around E4.5; and (C) postnatal germ cell development and maturation. Primordial germ cell (PGC) precursors (E6.25) and PGCs are shown as green circles in embryos from E6.25 to E12.5. (Bottom) Key genetic and epigenetic events are shown that are associated with pre-implantation and germ cell development, together with relative levels of 5-methylcytosine (5mC) at different developmental stages. Al, allantois; Epi, epiblast; ExE, extra-embryonic ectoderm; ICM, inner cell mass; PB, polar body; PGCs, primordial germ cells; Sm, somite; TE, trophoctoderm; VE, visceral endoderm; ZP, zona pelucida.

Visualization of X chromosome reactivation in mouse primordial germ cells in vivo
 Yoshikazu Haramoto ¹, Mino Sakata ¹, Shin Kobayashi
 2021 Apr 15;10(4):bio058602. doi: 10.1242/bio.058602.

Spezifische Reaktivierung, z.B. PGK-1 locus wird vor dem Hprt locus auf dem X Chromosom reaktiviert.

Parallel dazu werden imprinted autosomale genes wieder aktiviert.

DOI: [10.1242/bio.058602](https://doi.org/10.1242/bio.058602)

Fig. 4. Schematic diagram of PGC proliferation and X chromosome reactivation during embryogenesis. PGCs in the genital ridge are evenly distributed. Each PGC proliferates and forms clusters. Reactivation at the *Pgk1* locus starts at ~E10.5 and is almost complete at E13.5 (reactivated cells are shown in yellow; >85% of total cells). The XCR of PGCs progresses simultaneously with proliferation. The whole image of the embryo is shown on a modified diagram (top panel), based on Kaufman's Atlas of Mouse Development (Kaufman, 1992). The location of the GR analyzed is shown in red.

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Zur Erinnerung: Meiose

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meiosis>

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2. BASICS OF THE MEIOTIC CELL CYCLE: ANOTHER LAYER OF COMPLEXITY (NACHTRAG ZU 2.4. MEIOSE)

Meiosis is restricted to germ line cells and has features of cell division that simply do not exist in somatic cells. One striking unique feature, for example, is that there are **two metaphase segregation events that occur without an intervening round of DNA synthesis**. Another aspect of meiosis that distinguishes it from mitosis is the behaviour of sister chromatids during the first meiotic division. That is, in mitosis, the sister chromatids separate in the single phase of chromosome segregation, while **in meiosis, sister chromatids do not separate from one another until the second round of segregation**—the first stage involves segregation of homologous chromosomes. In addition, it is critical that meiosis-unique processes, including the synapsis or pairing of homologous chromosome, **recombination** and formation of chiasmata, be strictly coordinated with cell cycle progression, as it would be catastrophic for the gamete cell to attempt to move into the cell cycle without these other processes having been completed.

Higher organisms are characterized by having sexually dimorphic gametes. While male and female germ cells have stages of cell cycle regulation in common, including a mitotic proliferative stage, entry into meiosis, completion of a reductive division and entry into a quiescent state prior to fertilization, **the timing of these events** and the stage of development at which they occur **differ in the two sexes** (reviewed in Wolgemuth *et al.* 1995, 2002; Handel & Eppig 1998). In the **mouse model**, the germ line is specified early in embryonic development, probably as early as embryonic day 6.0–6.5. The progenitor germ cells migrate from the proximal epiblast to the gonadal ridge, at which point sexual determination based upon genotype occurs. The germ cells then follow either a **male pathway**, in which the cells enter into a **mitotic arrest**, or alternatively, a **female pathway**, in which they enter into **pre-meiotic DNA synthesis and meiotic prophase**. Thus, germ cells of both sexes undergo mitotic divisions in the embryonic gonad, **but the female germ cells enter meiosis during foetal development, whereas this is a postnatal event in the male.**

Once the **male germ cell** has entered **meiosis**, the process **continues without interruption** until the **haploid sperm** is produced. In contrast, the **oocyte is arrested in the diplotene stage of meiotic prophase I**, where it can remain for months or years depending on the species. Following a growth period, which begins at **puberty**, the **oocyte resumes meiosis**, but **arrests a second time, at metaphase II**. Fertilization then triggers the completion of meiosis and extrusion of the second polar body. Given these striking differences in the sequence of mitotic and meiotic events, it is almost given that the genetic programme underlying this regulation will be distinct between the male and female and will be reflected in a sexual dimorphism in the genes involved in regulating these processes (Handel 1998; Wolgemuth *et al.* 2002).

. See Regulating mitosis and meiosis in the male germ line: critical functions for cyclins. 2012 D.J. Wolgemuth and S.S. Roberts. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 365(1546):1653–1662. doi: 10.1098/rstb.2009.0254

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21

Wir suchen für Mitte 2023 eine n
Studierende n die/der seine
Masterarbeit bei uns machen will.

Anfragen ab sofort persönlich (bitte
keine Emails) in meinem Büro 2.118
oder Labor 2.522.

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22