1 **A systematic review of the factors affecting sperm binding and release from the oviduct**
2 **using *in vitro* experimental animal models**
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Abstract

After insemination, spermatozoa bind to epithelial cells of the isthmic part of the oviduct to

form a functional sperm reservoir responsible for regulating sperm viability and capacitation

before the ovulation signal that triggers its release. Understanding this information is

essential to optimizing *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) protocols and contributing to the efforts to

develop treatment for infertility resulting from fertilization failure. This review aims to

provide a comprehensive and systematic assessment of the literature on the non-steroid

hormone factors involved in sperm binding and release from the sperm reservoir in animal

species using *in vitro* experiments. PubMed, Web of Science, and Google Scholar databases

were searched, and eligible studies included articles published between 1st January 1990 and

31st July 2024 reporting factors involved in sperm binding and release from the oviduct, and

this could be used to optimize IVF systems and treatment of fertilization failure-related

infertility. Studies that co-cultured sperm and oviductal explants or oviductal epithelial cells

from bovine, porcine, canine, camelid, equine, hamster, and ovine were used, and different

culture systems were evaluated in this study. Overall, sperm binding to and from the

oviductal epithelial cells was influenced by several factors, such as carbohydrates and their

derivatives, seminal plasma proteins, glycoproteins, tyrosine phosphorylation of sperm,

endocannabinoids, sex-sorting, and glycosaminoglycans. These factors either promoted or

inhibited the binding sperm binding to and from oviductal cells. We therefore postulate that

these non-steroid factors are potential candidates that can be used to optimize IVF outcomes

in both human and animal species.

Keywords: sperm binding, sperm release, oviductal epithelium, sperm, semen-sorting, *in

vitro* fertilization

Introduction

During copulation, significantly large numbers of sperm are ejaculated into the female genital

tract. However, only a few reach the site of fertilization, located in the ampulla region of the

oviduct [1]. In most domestic animal species, such as the cow and gilt, a proportion of sperm

is stored and can survive in the female reproductive tract for at least 24 to 30 hours after

insemination [2]. This feature is attributed to the ability of sperm to form intimate

interactions with the oviductal epithelial cells (OECs) to create a reservoir that is located

mainly in the isthmus region of the oviduct [2]. Sperm-oviduct interactions help to reduce the

chances of polyspermy, maintain sperm's oocyte-fertilizing competency, and regulate

capacitation and hyperactivation [3]. Evidence shows that sperm that fail to bind to the

oviductal epithelium, probably due to damage or altered morphology, eventually become

immotile and are unable to be released from the reservoir to fertilize the oocyte [4]. This

feature suggests that sperm-oviductal interaction is also important for prolonging sperm

survival and sperm selection, ensuring that only competent spermatozoa have a chance to

fertilize the oocyte [4,5]

It has been reported that, due to the oviduct's narrow anatomy and its thicker fluid content,

sperm movement is slowed down, thereby increasing their contact and binding with the

oviductal mucosal epithelium to form a sperm reservoir [4]. It is known that the oviductal

environment plays a very critical role in mediating sperm binding and release from the

oviductal cells. This includes the action of steroid hormones, notably estrogen and

progesterone, whose effect on oviductal function coincides with the estrus cycle [6]. While

the effect of steroid hormones on the oviductal function has been comprehensively reviewed

elsewhere [7], the same has not been done for non-steroidal counterparts. Evidence shows

that sperm-oviductal binding could involve several factors beyond the action of steroid

hormones, including the need for carbohydrate recognition for sperm to bind to oviductal

cells. Carbohydrate recognition involves the binding of carbohydrates, such as fucose, found

on the surface of the oviductal epithelium, to the fucose-binding molecules on the surface of

sperm [8]. To date, interest in the research to further understand other factors and events

surrounding sperm binding and release from the sperm reservoir has increased. It is envisaged

that a comprehensive understanding of these factors would contribute to optimizing the

different assisted reproductive technologies (ARTs), especially *in vitro* fertilization (IVF)

technology using sexed or non-sexed semen as IVF media mostly excludes non-steroidal

hormone factors discussed in the present paper.

Therefore, our systematic review aims to: 1) provide a comprehensive systematic assessment

and consolidation of the findings from literature to identify the non-steroid hormone factors

involved in sperm binding to and release from the sperm reservoir in animal species, and 2)

to provide insights on the possibility to improving IVF and fertility treatment by exploring

the application of non-steroidal hormone factors as potential candidates.

Methods
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81 **Eligibility criteria**
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83 *Inclusion Criteria*
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The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA)

guidelines [9] were followed. Articles that met the following criteria were included: studies

regarding sperm-oviduct interaction and *in-vitro* experimental animal models conducted

between 1st January 1990 and 31st July 2024. The population, intervention, comparison,

outcome, and study design (PICOS) were followed. (1) population – all *in-vitro* animal

experimental studies assessing factors affecting sperm-oviduct interaction (2) intervention –

Any non-steroid hormone intervention affecting sperm binding and release (3) comparison –

oviduct cells not treated or any other control (4) outcome- effect of intervention, either

inhibits sperm binding or enhances sperm binding to the OECs (5) study design – *in-vitro*

experimental studies assessing sperm-OECs interaction investigating sperm release and

binding to the OECs. The systematic review protocol for the *in-vitro* study could not be

registered on PROSPERO, following the website guidelines.

Exclusion Criteria
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Studies were excluded from the comprehensive literature review if they centered on *in-vitro*

studies involving samples from humans, birds, and fish, focused on outcomes other than

sperm binding or release from the OECs, steroid hormone supplemented experiments, all *in-*

vivo experiments, reviews, letters to the editor, comments, studies not adequately translated

into English by google translator, conference proceedings and encyclopedias. Studies

published before 1st January 1990 or after 31st July 2024 were also excluded.

Information sources

The three online databases Web of Science, PubMed, and Google Scholar were used to obtain
the articles.

Search strategy

The inclusion criteria for the search used one phrase from the databases, which read as;

(sperm oviduct interactions OR sperm reservoir OR fallopian tube OR oviduct epithelial

monolayers OR epithelial explants OR epithelial spheroids AND in vitro techniques OR in

vitro experiments AND sperm binding OR sperm release OR sperm density AND in-vitro

fertilization AND animal models OR animal studies AND sperm survival OR sperm

viability) AND (molecules OR factors) AND (sorted sperm OR sorted spermatozoa OR

epididymal sperm). In addition, the bibliography of the selected papers was critically

reviewed to identify articles that the automated search could not capture. The online search in

the three databases was conducted on 10th August 2024

Study Selection

The initial review assessed the titles and abstracts of the articles, and any disagreements were

resolved through discussion until an agreement was established. Two researchers then

independently evaluated the full texts to assess the publications' appropriateness for

inclusion. Any differences between the authors were handled, with the option of discussion.

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128   **Data Extraction**
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Two authors conducted data extraction independently. Data extracted included the title of the

article, objectives, year of publication, authors, semen type used (i.e., fresh, frozen, ejaculated

or epididymal, conventional or sexed), species, sample size, factors affecting sperm binding

or release from the OEC monolayers, aggregates, or explants. A descriptive synthesis without

Meta-analysis was applied because of the inclusion of different methods and protocols in the

studies and due to the heterogeneity of the data obtained.

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138   **Results**

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140   **Study selection**

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142   723 articles were found in the three online database searches and 5 from back referencing. A

143   flow chart of the literature search and study selection is shown in Fig 1. After the removal of

144   duplicates, we reviewed 685 manuscripts. Only 46 articles met the inclusion criteria and were

145   included in the narrative synthesis.

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148   **Fig. 1. PRISMA flow diagram for the included studies**

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150   **Risk of Bias Assessment**

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The risk of bias in the included studies was assessed using the criteria compiled by the

National Toxicology Program-Office of Health Assessment and Translation (NTP-OHAT)

and adapted for the evaluation of *in-vitro* research [10]. Two independent reviewers

evaluated the risk of bias in the included studies. When reviewers could not agree, a

consensus was established after discussion. The risk of bias for each included study had six

categories assessed and entered in an Excel spreadsheet as definitely high risk, definitely low

risk, probably high risk, and probably low risk and later exported to the statistical package for

social sciences (SPSS) version 20 for analysis (Fig 2).

Fig. 2. Risk of bias in the included studies using the NTP-OHAT tool

Quality Assessment of the Included Studies

The quality of the publications included in the review was evaluated by MCS and MC using a

checklist compiled by [11] and blinded to the authors' names. The assessment revealed that

studies did not describe how sample sizes were statistically chosen to improve the power of

the studies. Besides, only one study reported blinding of investigators to the allocation of

treatment during the sperm binding experiments (Fig 3 and Table 1).

Fig. 3. Quality Assessment of the Included Studies

Table 1: Quality assessment category and Questions for Fig 3

Assessment Category	Question
I	Is the cell culture passage number reported?
II	Is the experimental unit clearly stated?
III	Replication of experiment reported?
IV	Source of cell lines provided?
V	Are cell seeding details reported?
VI	Are cell culture characteristics reported?
VII	Does the article report how the sample was selected to ensure adequate power?
VIII	Random allocation to groups reported?
IX	Are investigators blinded to the group allocation?
X	Attrition/Exclusions reported?

177   **Synthesis of Results**

178   ***Biochemical factors affecting sperm release and sperm binding to the oviduct epithelial***
179   ***cells in in-vitro studies.***
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Studies using bovine models (Table 2) showed that sperm binding density to the oviductal

epithelium was reduced by the glycosaminoglycan (GAG) heparin [12,13,14,15]. [15]

reported no significant difference in the number of sperm bound to the isthmus and ampulla

epithelia. This finding suggests that heparin plays a significant role in sperm-OEC interaction,

and the subsequent sperm capacitation and release from the oviductal cells that enables sperm

to migrate towards the site of fertilization. On the other hand, hyaluronic acid, a non-sulfated

GAG increased the binding ability of bull sperm to the epithelial spheroids but there was no

significant difference in the sperm binding density to the oviductal spheroids of the

preovulatory or postovulatory isthmus and ampulla [12], this signifies the importance of

hyaluronic acid contribution to the formation of the sperm reservoir. Another compound,

penicillamine enhanced sperm release from the OEC monolayers and OE [13,16]. Notably,

penicillamine is not naturally found in the oviductal fluid but is used *in vitro* to improve

sperm motility, capacitation, and IVF rates [17,18].

Another non-steroidal factor inducer of sperm release from the oviduct is the group of

molecules belonging to the endocannabinoid. Three studies showed that, anandamide (AEA)

facilitated the release of sperm from OEC monolayers and OE through the cannabinoid type 1

(CB1) and the transient receptor potential vanilloid type 1 (TRPV1) activation [19,20] and

through the nitric oxide pathway [21]. In contrast, no effect on sperm oviduct binding and

release was observed following supplementation with AEA [22]. In these studies, the breeds

of bulls and cows for sperm and oviduct collection went unreported respectively. It is

possible that variations in experimental conditions, use of sperm from different bulls and

differences in expression of the receptors in oviducts obtained from different cows may affect

sensitivity, abundance and signalling pathways associated with the receptors.

In-vitro models assessing carbohydrates effect on sperm-oviduct interaction reported that;

fucose, maltose and mannose, lewis a oligosaccharide fucoidan, and galactose inhibited

sperm bull and boar binding to the OEC monolayers and OE [8,23,24,25,26]. The oviductal

epithelium's natural ligands are mimicked by carbohydrates. Consequently, these

carbohydrates prevent the sperm from adhering to the epithelial cells by binding to the

sperm receptors. likewise, lectin-like interactions are frequently involved in sperm binding to

the oviduct. These interactions are likely blocked by excess carbohydrates by saturating the

sperm receptors, where sperm surface proteins identify certain carbohydrate structures on the

epithelium. Similarly, [27] found that N-acetyl galactosamine and galactose decreased Ilama

sperm binding to the OE. Nevertheless, N-acetyl-D glucosamine [28] enhanced bull sperm

binding to the OE. On the other hand, asialofentuin inhibited equine and porcine sperm

binding to the OEC monolayers and to the OE [26,29,30]. Besides, the terminal galactose

residues in asialofentuin mimic the binding sites of sperm on the oviductal epithelium thereby

blocking sperm from binding [30].

It is worth noting that monosaccharides are not by themselves on the cell surface but rather

components of larger oligosaccharides. The studies that used monosaccharides examined the

carbohydrate dependence by attempting to inhibit sperm binding to oviduct cells using very

high concentrations of monosaccharides. However, it is worth noting that the physiological

relevance of these studies is debatable because inhibition by millimolar concentrations of a

monosaccharide may have other effects on cells besides affecting carbohydrate-mediated

adhesion. Therefore, future studies must clarify this. Furthermore, [5] and [31] demonstrated

that the authentic oviduct glycans bind to porcine sperm and thus participate in the formation

of the sperm reservoir.

Table 2: Description of studies assessing the effect of biochemical supplements on sperm
binding and release from oviductal epithelial cells *in-vitro* in different animal species

Species	Chemical factor	Effect on sperm binding or release	Oviduct Model	Incubation Duration	Reference
Bovine	Heparin sulphate	Decreases binding	Spheroids	60min	Mahé *et al.* (2023)[12]
	Hyaluronic acid	Increases binding			
	Anandamide	Enhances	Monolayers,	60min	Gervasi *et al.*

	sperm release	Explants		(2016)[19]
Heparin	Enhances sperm release	Ex vivo	30min	Ardon *et al.* (2016)[3]
Heparin, Penicillamine	Enhances sperm release	Monolayers, Explants	30min	Gualtieri *et al.* (2013)[13]
Anandamide	Induce sperm release	Monolayers	60min	Osycka-Salut *et al.* (2012)[21]
Sulfated glycoconjugates, Penicillamine	Induce sperm release	Monolayers, Explants	30min	Gualtieri *et al.* (2010)[16]
Heparin, Penicillamine, Anandamide	Heparin & penicillamine induce sperm release, Anandamide has no effect	Monolayers, Explants	30min	Talevi *et al.* (2010)[22]
Heparin, Penicillamine	Induce sperm release	Monolayers, Explants	30min	Gualtieri *et al.* (2009)[32]
N-acetyl-D-glucosamine, D-mannose, D-Fucose	Enhance sperm binding	Aggregates	3hr	Kon *et al.* (2009)[28]
R (+) Methanandamide	Inhibits sperm binding and induce sperm release	Monolayers	15min or 60min	Gervasi *et al.* (2009)[20]
Annexins	Enhance sperm binding	Explants	30min	Ignotz *et al.* (2007)[33]
Penicillamine, Beta-Mercaptoethanol, Cysteine, Dithiotreitol	Induce sperm release	Monolayers	30min	Talevi *et al.* (2007)[34]
BSP-A3 and BSP-30-kDa	Increase binding of epididymal sperm and inhibits binding of Ejaculated sperm.	Explants	15min	Gwathmey *et al.* (2006)[35]
PDC-109	Enhance epididymal sperm binding to the level of ejaculated	Explants	15min	Gwathmey *et al.* (2003)[36]

		sperm.			
	Heparin	Induce sperm release	Monolayers	2hr	Bosch *et al.* (2001)[14]
	PDC-109	Inhibits sperm binding	Explants	15min	Ignotz *et al.* (2001)[37]
	heparin and fucoidan	Inhibits sperm binding and triggers sperm release	Monolayers, Explants	1hr	Talevi & Gualtieri, (2001)[23]
	Lewis a-oligosaccharide, Fucose	Inhibits sperm binding	Explants	15min	Suarez *et al.* (1998)[25]
	Fucose and Fucoidan	Reduce binding density	Explants	15min	Lefebvre *et al.* (1997)[8]
	Heparin	Reduce binding density	Explants	15min	Lefebvre & Suarez, (1996)[15]
Camelid	N-acetyl galactosamine and galactose	Decreases sperm binding	Explants	1hr	Apichela *et al.* (2010)[27]
	Presence of sperm-binding agent	Enhance sperm binding	Explants	1hr	Apichela *et al.* (2009)[38]
Equine	Galactose, Asialofentuin	Reduces sperm binding	Monolayers	95min	Dobrinski, Ignotz, *et al.* (1996)[26]
Porcine	Natriuretic peptide type C	Facilitates release	Aggregates	30min	Wu *et al.* (2023)[39]
	Caudal epididymal components	Enhances ejaculated sperm binding	Explants	15min	Pena *et al.* (2015)[40]
	Lewis X trisaccharides	Enhance binding	Aggregates	15min	Machado *et al.* (2014)[5]
	6-sialylated biantennary glycans	Enhance sperm binding	Aggregates	15min	Kadirvel *et al.* (2012)[31]
	Spermadhesin AQN1	Inhibits sperm binding	Explants	15min	Ekhlasi-hundrieser *et al.* (2005)[42]
	Glycoproteins asialofetuin and ovalbumin	Inhibits sperm binding	Explants	15min	Wagner *et al.* (2002)[29]
	Disaccharides Maltose, Lactose and monosaccharide	Reduce sperm binding	Monolayers	30min	Green *et al.* (2001)[24]

	Mannose				
Equine	Glycoprotein asialofetuin and its terminal sugar galactose	Inhibits sperm binding	Explants	50min	Lefebvre *et al.* (1995)[30]
Hamster	Fetuin and its terminal sugar, N-acetylneuraminic acid	Inhibits Epididymal sperm binding	Ex vivo oviduct	15min	Demott *et al.* (1995)[43]

PDC 109 (Protein Disulfide Isomerase); BSP (Bovine Seminal Plasma)

Effect of biochemical supplementation to ejaculated and epididymal semen on sperm-

oviduct Interaction.

It has been reported that the binding ability of boar spermatozoa develops in the epididymis

and that caudal EP components enhance boar sperm binding to the OE [40]. In this study, the

binding of EJ spermatozoa to porcine isthmus was higher than that for caudal EP

spermatozoa, and EJ boar sperm attached to the isthmus than ampulla epithelium.

Interestingly, the seminal plasma protein PDC-109, BSP-A3 and BSP-30-KDa inhibited bull

EJ sperm binding to the OE, whereas these proteins enhanced bull EP binding to the level of

EJ sperm [35,36,37]. The contrasting effects of PDC-109 on bull EJ sperm and EP sperm

binding to the OE could be attributed to differences in the sperm membrane composition and

the way PDC-109 interacts with these membranes. Excess PDC-109 might compete with the

natural binding sites on EJ sperm, inhibiting their interaction with OE, while it provides EP

sperm with the necessary binding capability. Furthermore, the protein annexin was reported

to enhance bovine EJ sperm binding ability to the OE [33]. In addition, [16] reported that

sulfated glycoconjugates are potent inducers of bovine EP sperm release from the oviductal

epithelium. In this study, EP was able to bind to the oviductal epithelium at a lesser extent

than frozen-thawed EJ. Likewise, fetuin and its terminal sugar, N-acetylneuramic acid,

inhibited hamster EP sperm binding to the oviductal epithelium [43]. This is probably

because they may interfere with interactions that are mediated by carbohydrates. N-

acetylneuraminic acid and other sialic acid residues found in fetuin can mimic the oviductal

epithelium's natural ligands thus stopping sperm from adhering to the epithelium by

competing with these ligands.

Effect of semen sorting on sperm binding and release from the oviduct

In the studies involving bovine, boar, and ovine sperm-OEC co-cultures (Table 3), it was

generally reported that sex-sorting reduces sperm binding to the oviductal epithelium

[4,44,45,46]. Therefore, sex sorting and *in-vitro* conditions could significantly affect the

expression of adhesion molecules thereby decreasing sperm binding ability to the oviductal

epithelium. Interestingly, [47] did not find any differences between the number of ram sperm

sex-sorted from frozen-thawed samples and then re-cryopreserved and sex-sorted from fresh

ejaculates then cryopreserved binding ability to the oviductal cells. Although not significant

the binding ability tended to be lower for sperm sorted from frozen thawed samples than

sperm sorted from fresh ejaculates. Therefore, it may be valuable to sort spermatozoa from

fresh ejaculates and not from frozen-thawed sperm to prevent further deleterious effects that

the cryopreservation and sex sorting processes may cause to sperm.

Table 3: Description of studies assessing the effect of sex-sorting and physiological
status on sperm binding and release from oviductal cells *in-vitro* in different animal
species

Species	Biotechnological/ Physiological factor	Effect on sperm release or binding	Oviduct Model	Incubation duration	Reference
Bovine	DNA fragmentation Index (DFI)	Low DFI enhances binding	Explants	30min, 1hr, 2hr	Nag *et al.* (2021)[48]
	Sex sorting	Reduces binding	Ex vivo	45min	Camara Pirez *et al.* (2020)[4]
	Sex sorting	XY bound less than non-sorted	Explants	30min, 24hr	Carvalho *et al.* (2018)[44]
	Mitochondria	High MMP			

	membrane potential (MMP) of sperm	enhances sperm binding	Explants	4hr	Saraf et al. (2017) [50]
	Tyrosine phosphorylation status of sperm	Low tyrosine status enhances sperm binding.			
	β-defensin haplotype	Enhances binding	Explants	30min	Whiston et al. (2017)[51]
Porcine	Sex sorting	Decreases binding	Aggregates	15min	Winters et al. (2018)[45]
	Protein tyrosine phosphorylation	high levels of protein tyrosine phosphorylation inhibit binding	Monolayers, Ex vivo	1hr	Luno et al. (2013) [52]
	Reduced/absent tyrosine phosphorylation of membrane proteins	Enhance sperm binding Enhance sperm binding	Monolayers	3-180min	Petrunkina et al. (2001)[53]
	Decreased cytosolic Ca2+ concentration				
Equine	Low calcium concentration	Enhance binding	Monolayers	6hr	Dobrinski, Suarez, et al. (1996)[54]
	Tyrosine phosphorylation status of sperm	Enhance sperm binding	Explants	2hr	Leemans et al. (2014)[55]
Canine/ Porcine	Non-tyrosine phosphorylated sperm heads. Higher tyrosine phosphorylation of sperm tail proteins	Enhance sperm binding	Explants	3-360min	Petrunkina et al. (2004)[56]
	Non-phosphorylated sperm heads	Enhance sperm binding	Monolayers	3-360min	Petrunkina et al. (2003)[57]
Ovine	Sex sorting	No effect on binding	Monolayers	2hr	de Graaf et al. (2006)[47]
	Sex sorting	Reduce sperm binding	Monolayers	4hr	Hollinshead et al. (2003)[46]

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Effect of Sperm Physiological Status on Sperm-Oviduct Interaction

It has been reported that bull, boar, equine, and canine spermatozoa with high mitochondrial

membrane potential and absent or reduced tyrosine phosphorylation enhanced sperm binding

to the OE [50,55,56,57,53]. Likewise, high levels of protein phosphorylation inhibited boar

sperm binding to the oviductal epithelium [52].

In addition, bull sperm with low DFI enhanced binding to the OE [48], whereas low calcium

concentration of sperm enhanced stallion and boar sperm binding to the OEC monolayers

[53,54]. Because the oviduct selects uncapacitated sperm to bind, low tyrosine

phosphorylation indicates, low calcium concentration that the sperm are in this pre-

capacitated state, making them more likely to bind, while sperm with low DFI tend to have

intact plasma membranes, which are crucial for interactions with the oviductal epithelium.

The oviduct sections used in the *in vitro* experiments.

This synthesis shows that various stages of the oviduct sections were used to assess the effect

of non-steroid hormone factors on sperm-oviduct interaction in the animal species (Fig 4).

The preovulatory stage sections of the oviduct involving bovine, camelid, equine, hamster,

and porcine species were used. Further, oviducts sections at different stages of the estrous

cycle in bovine and porcine, and in studies involving a heterologous system of canine and

porcine sperm-oviduct co-cultures were used. Postovulatory, pubertal, oviducts sections from

all diestrus stages and oviducts obtained ipsilateral to ovaries without the corpus luteum used

oviducts from bovine, whereas peri-pubertal sections of the oviducts were obtained from

porcine. Likewise, pre-pubertal and post-pubertal oviducts from porcine and bovine were

used, whereas some bovine studies used non-luteal stage sections of the oviducts.

Nonetheless, these studies did not report the influence of the estrous cycle stage of the

oviduct sections used on sperm oviduct interaction following supplementation with non-

steroid hormone factors. It is essential to evaluate the impact of the estrus cycle stage of the

oviducts used in these investigations if our understanding on what happens *in vivo* is to be

improved. Moreover, the expression of receptors on the oviductal epithelium is modulated by

steroid hormones, including progesterone and estrogen [7,58]. These receptors improve

sperm binding and capacitation by interacting with non-steroid compounds such as

carbohydrates and glycoproteins. In addition, steroid hormones promote the release of non-

steroid substances including glycoproteins and heparin, which foster sperm oviduct

interaction and survival [2,59]. Indeed, sperm release from the oviductal reservoir is

regulated by a combination of steroid hormones and non-steroid factors, ensuring the

optimal timing for fertilization.

Fig 4. Estrous cycle stage of the oviduct sections used in the *in vitro* experiments

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312 **Discussion**
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This review highlights crucial aspects of sperm oviduct interaction, particularly those

pertaining to sperm binding and release from the OECs across animal species. The oviduct

serves as a critical site for sperm storage and maturation, and the interaction between sperm

and oviductal cells is influenced by various biochemical factors, including glycoproteins and

carbohydrates. By elucidating these interactions, researchers can improve ARTs, such as TAI

and IVF, by optimizing conditions that enhance sperm viability and fertilization success. This

understanding may also lead to the development of targeted therapies that improve sperm

binding and release mechanisms, ultimately increasing the success rates of reproductive

technologies.

Research has established that OEC binding is selective, occurring only with morphologically

normal, high-quality sperm that attach via their head region to the oviductal cilia [34]. Our

synthesis strengthens the findings that have shown that the carbohydrates and their

derivatives enhance sperm binding to the OA [28]. However, contrasting evidence shows that

other carbohydrate compounds decrease sperm binding to the oviductal epithelium

[24,25,26,27,30]. These contradictory findings likely reflect species-specific differences,

highlighting the need for comprehensive cross-species studies to evaluate carbohydrate

effects on sperm-oviduct interaction. Such research would enable the development of species-

specific protocols to enhance semen sorting and IVF outcomes. During the natural

capacitation process that precedes ovulation, changes in sperm surface carbohydrate

composition reduce oviductal epithelial adhesion, facilitating sperm migration toward the

oocyte [60]. This regulated release mechanism promotes successful *in-vivo* fertilization [60].

Consequently, *in-vitro* sperm-oviduct binding assays incorporating carbohydrate

supplementation may serve as an effective tool for selecting high-quality sperm for IVF.

Ejaculated and EP sperm oviduct interaction differences observed could be because, EJ

sperm have already undergone modifications during ejaculation, including the incorporation

of SP proteins like PDC-109. This protein may saturate or alter the binding sites on EJ sperm,

leading to inhibition of binding to OE. On the contrary, while EP sperm typically lack PDC-

109, its exogenous addition improves their binding capacity by mimicking the changes that

take place after ejaculation. Apparently, the addition of SP proteins PDC-109, BSP-A3, and

BSP-30-kDa to EP sperm can improve its fertilizing potential by enhancing various aspects

of sperm function [36]. SP proteins can be added to EP in sperm-OEC co-cultures recovered

from the caudal epididymis of animals after the slaughter of male animals or the unexpected

death of genetically highly valuable animals, and for the preservation of endangered species

to improve its fertilizing potential. Strikingly, the conception and farrowing rates were higher

in sows and gilts that received insemination using sperm diluted in SP [61]. These factors can

contribute to enhanced ARTs by optimizing conditions for sperm selection, capacitation, and

fertilization using sperm-OEC co-cultures [62].

Our synthesis showed that sperm bound to the oviduct epithelium had lower levels of tyrosine

phosphorylation, implying that the binding process could be a mechanism for selecting sperm

with optimal tyrosine phosphorylation levels essential for successful fertilization [52].

Therefore, sperm-OEC co-cultures may be used as alternative methods in the selection of

sperm with high fertilizing ability to improve IVF rates. Further, the ability of the sperm to

interact with and penetrate the oocyte is strongly associated with the tyrosine phosphorylation

of proteins in the sperm head. This alteration improves the sperm's ability to bind to the zona-

pellucida of the oocyte, which promotes optimal fertilization [63].

GAGs such as heparin and fucoidan, and the thiol-reducing agents penicillamine,

mercaptoethanol, and dithiotreitol have been shown to play a fundamental role in inducing

sperm release from the sperm reservoir. Nonetheless, thiol-reducing agents are not naturally

found in the oviduct and thus do not play a fundamental role *in-vivo*, instead they are only

used experimentally *in-vitro* to test the importance of protein disulfide bonds in which they

induce sperm release from the oviduct epithelium through the reduction of sperm surface

protein disulfides to sulfhydryl's leading to the selection of high-quality and capacitated

sperm able to fertilize oocytes [32,34]. The presence of GAGs ensures that only capacitated

and motile sperm get released, thus increasing the odds of fertilization [23]. In a study

conducted by [64], the supplementation of GAGs to sperm improved the kinematic

parameters of sperm, increased the levels of capacitation and acrosome reacted sperm thereby

improving the *in-vitro* fertilizing ability of sperm, embryo development rates, and embryo

quality and increased the total blastocyst cell number after IVF. Overall, understanding

mechanisms that govern sperm release from oviductal cells are critical as they are associated

with the selection of high-quality and capacitated sperm with high oocyte fertilizing potential

[48]. The oviduct is capable of synthesizing and regulating the concentrations of

endocannabinoids along the isthmus and ampulla [22]. Interestingly, fluctuating levels of

AEA were found during the estrus cycle in the bovine oviduct [65]. Therefore, understanding

the role of the endocannabinoid system in the regulation of mammalian male fertility may

provide valuable insights for improving IVF protocols and other ARTs using sperm-OEC co-

cultures.

To date, semen sorting has been reported to alter motility, plasma membrane adhesion

receptor for the oviduct, membrane destabilization, and capacitation-like changes in

mammalian sperm [4,44]. However, the modified sex-sorted sperm behavior, mechanisms,

and processes to improve the binding ability of sex-sorted semen to the OEC need further

investigation if the conception rates using sex-sorted semen both *in-vitro* and *in-vivo* are to be

improved. Our findings showed that sex-sorting reduced the ability of sperm to bind to the

oviductal epithelium. Therefore, understanding the sperm structural changes due to the

sorting process may help to deduce methods to mitigate these effects leading to increased

conception rates following AI *in-vivo* and increased IVF rates. A previous study found the

mean blastocyst rates to be low using sexed sperm [66], implying that improvements to the

sorting process are required. In our opinion, incorporating specific seminal plasma proteins

during the *in-vitro* handling of sex-sorted semen may enhance sperm binding efficiency.

Indeed, sex-sorted semen can be enhanced by modifying the sorting process to reduce

mechanical stress, thereby improving adhesion molecule expression.

Conclusion

This review suggests that factors affecting sperm binding and release from the oviduct in

different species includes, but are not limited to sex-sorting, glycoproteins, GAGs,

carbohydrates, and tyrosine phosphorylation. These factors either reduce or enhance the

binding density of sperm to the OECs and may influence the outcomes of ARTs. Moreover,

non-steroid factors may provide an alternative to the use of steroid hormones *in-vitro* cultures

for the selection of high-quality sperm to be used in IVF program to improve outcomes.

Limitations

The study has the following limitations. Different methods were used in the studies, which

were composed of various components that may affect sperm binding and release differently.

Some studies used spherical everted vesicles (epithelial spheroids or explants), while others

used monolayers and *ex-vivo* oviducts. This may affect the determination of sperm binding

density and the conclusions derived from the studies, making it difficult to compare with the

sperm bound to oviductal spheroids. Further, limited publications are assessing sex-sorted

semen oviduct interactions, and also wildlife species sperm-oviduct interactions. We suggest

that subsequent *in-vitro* experiments should focus on improving the methodological quality

of the studies for purposes of enhancing the power of the studies through appropriate sample

size determination, random allocation of samples to experimental groups, and ensuring that

investigators are blinded to the group allocation during the experiments or when assessing

outcomes. Several studies did not report the estrous cycle stage of the oviduct sections used,

hence difficult to assess the possible influence of prior exposure of the oviduct to steroid

hormones on sperm-oviduct interaction following supplementation with non-steroid hormone

factors. Moreover, studies that reported the estrous cycle stage of the oviduct section did not

report any effect of the oviduct section on sperm behavior after supplementation with non-

steroid factors.

Future Perspectives

To improve IVF outcomes, further research needs to focus on investigating specific seminal plasma components and their interaction with oviductal glycoconjugates for optimized IVF outcomes. Investigating the effects of different seminal plasma protein concentrations and biochemical supplementation on adhesion molecule expression in sex-sorted versus conventional semen under controlled *in-vitro* conditions is required.

Comparative analyses across species to identify shared versus species-specific mechanisms are required. This can enhance methods for breeding animals and shed light on evolutionary adaptations. Moreover, continued refinement of *in-vitro* models to more closely mimic *in-vivo* conditions, including modulation of the oviduct's pH and ion concentration, is required. There is further a need to assess and clarify the sperm head protein and molecule composition alteration on the sperm head following the sorting process because these proteins are important in mediating sperm binding to the tubal epithelium. Besides, there is a need to assess and clarify the effectiveness of calcium signaling cascades following the sex-sorted sperm binding to the oviduct epithelium in different animal species. Additionally, there is a need to assess and clarify the impact of the influence of the estrous cycle stage of the oviduct section used to the supplementation with various non-steroid factors on sperm-oviduct behavior in animal species to fully understand *in-vivo* situations. The results derived from such studies may also be used to improve the IVF rates and improve protocols for AI programs.

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Identification of studies via databases

Identification

Records identified from Databases (n = 723)

Additional records from back referencing (n= 5)

Total records after removing duplicates (n = 685)

Screening

Records screened on Title and Abstracts (n = 685)

Records excluded (n = 624)

Records assessed for eligibility (n = 61)

Full text articles excluded with reasons (n = 15)
8 used steroid hormones as intervention
3 wrong outcome
2 wrong study setting
2 wrong design

Included

Studies included in the review (n= 46)