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28 Contents

29 Oxidative stress represents a challenge during sperm manipulation. We have tested the 30 effect of increasing hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) levels on red deer spermatozoa after 31 cryopreservation, and the role of male-to-male variation in that response. In a first 32 experiment, eight thawed samples were submitted to 0, 25, 50, 100 and 200 μ M H₂O₂ 33 for 2 h at 37 °C. Intracellular ROS (H₂DCFDA-CM) increased with H₂O₂ concentration, 34 but we only detected a decrease in sperm function (motility by CASA and chromatin 35 damage by SCSA) with 200 µM. Lipoperoxidation (TBARS) increased slightly with 50 36 μ M H₂O₂ and above. In a second experiment, samples from 7 males were submitted to 0 37 and 200 μ M H₂O₂ for 2 h, triplicating the experiment within each male. Males differed 38 at thawing and regarding their response to incubation and H₂O₂ presence. We found that 39 the kinematic parameters reflected male-to-male variability, whereas the response of the 40 different males was similar for lipid peroxidation and viability. A multiparametric 41 analysis showed that males grouped differently if samples were assessed after thawing, 42 after incubation without H₂O₂, or after incubation with H₂O₂. Red deer spermatozoa are 43 relatively resilient to H_2O_2 after thawing, but it seems to be a great male-to-male 44 variability regarding the response to oxidative stress. The acknowledgement of this 45 individual variability might improve the development of optimized sperm work 46 protocols.

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48 Key words: Red deer, reproductive technology, oxidative stress, hydrogen peroxide,

49 individual variability.

51 Introduction

Oxidative stress is one of the major threats to sperm functionality, both in vivo 52 53 and in vitro. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) have a fundamental role in sperm 54 physiology, but in excess they can damage spermatozoa (Agarwal and Saleh, 2002). 55 During sperm work, ROS can be detrimental even within physiological levels, since 56 they may trigger early capacitation and irreversible events, such as acrosome reaction 57 (Hsu et al., 1999). Researchers generally use external sources of ROS to study oxidative 58 stress on spermatozoa such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), a potent membrane-permeable 59 oxidizing species (Oehninger et al., 1995). Armstrong et al. (1999) found that hydrogen 60 peroxide was not only responsible for the loss of motility, but also it caused the loss of 61 mitochondrial membrane potential. Moreover, ROS, including H₂O₂, have dual effects 62 on mammalian sperm. Low concentrations of ROS exogenously added are believed to 63 play a stimulatory role in sperm capacitation (Rivlin et al., 2004), hyperactivation (de 64 Lamirade and Gagnon, 1994), acrosome reaction (Griveau et al., 1995) and sperm-65 oocyte fusion (Aitken et al., 1995). However, excessive levels of ROS are linked to 66 impaired sperm function and infertility (Sharma et al., 2004). ROS can be also 67 detrimental to sperm DNA integrity (Baumber et al., 2003; Dominguez-Rebolledo et al., 68 2010).

We have previously reported that different reactive oxygen species generators affected quality parameters differently in red deer, showing that hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) was more cytotoxic to red deer spermatozoa than Fe²⁺/ascorbate (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2009a). Moreover, motility and mitochondrial membrane potential were quickly decreased by H₂O₂ (1 mM and 100 μ M), and only H₂O₂ (1 mM) was able to reduce sperm viability. Thus, the present study was designed to deepen on our previous results, analysing a broader range of H₂O₂ concentrations. Moreover, between-male variability represent a challenge for sperm 77 cryopreservation, since that variability can affect spermatozoa cryosurvival (Soler et al., 78 2003) and fertility (Gomendio et al., 2006;Malo et al., 2005). That is probably due to 79 differences regarding sperm biochemistry and metabolism (Loomis and Graham, 2008), 80 rooting in the genetic variability of individuals. The male-to-male variability could also 81 affect the resistance of spermatozoa to oxidative stress, for instance through changes in 82 the composition of sperm membranes (Waterhouse et al., 2006). In fact, high 83 polyunsaturated fatty acids levels have been related to higher vulnerability to ROS 84 (Ollero et al., 2001), and previous studies have shown that fatty acid profiles could be 85 modified in deers exposed to heavy metals (Castellanos et al., 2010).

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87 Thus, in the present study we used thawed epididymal spermatozoa of Iberian red deer 88 (*C. elaphus hispanicus*) to test the hypothesis that increasing concentrations of H_2O_2 89 affected differently to sperm characteristics, seeking for endpoints in which H_2O_2 could 90 noticeably affect spermatozoa. It is well known that epididymal spermatozoa are not 91 exposed to the complex secretions of the accessory sex glands (seminal plasma), which 92 are recognised as the prime source of antioxidant protection (Chen et al., 2003). In this 93 respect, it is needed a better understanding of the spermatozoa behaviour against 94 oxidative damage, since this damage represents a serious challenge for these 95 unprotected cells when they are outside the epididymal environment. Moreover, 96 spermatozoa might be submitted to stressing situations during in vitro procedures (IVF 97 or sorting), which could increase ROS and other oxidative species. Therefore, this study 98 could be useful to simulate the response of epididymal red deer spermatozoa to 99 oxidative stress *in vitro*, allowing to explore procedures to alleviate it. We also tested if male-to-male variability reflects on the spermatozoa response 101 to H_2O_2 , expecting to observe this effect when submitting samples from different males 102 to oxidative stress. Being a wild species, we have the advantage of working with 103 samples coming from unselected populations, thus allowing us to better analyse that 104 kind of variability (Garde et al., 2006).

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106 Materials and Methods

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108 Reagents and media

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110 CM-H₂DCFDA, YO-PRO-1 and TO-PRO-3 were purchased from Invitrogen 111 (Barcelona, Spain). Flow cytometry equipment, software and consumables (including 112 the sheath fluid, BD FACSFlow) were purchased from BD Biosciences (San Jose, CA, 113 USA). Acridine orange (chromatographically purified) was purchased from 114 Polysciences Inc. (Warrington, PA, USA). Other fluorescence probes and chemicals 115 (high grade) were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (Madrid, Spain). Stock solutions 116 of the fluorescence probes were as follows: propidium iodide, 7.5 mM in water; CM-117 H₂DCFDA, 0.5 mM in DMSO; YO-PRO-1 and TO-PRO-3, 50 μM in DMSO. All 118 solutions were stored at -20 °C and in the dark until needed, except oxidant working 119 solutions, which were prepared the same day. Preparation and staining of samples for 120 flow cytometric analysis were performed by flow cytometer PBS (BD FACSFlow; BD 121 Biosciences).

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123 Animals, spermatozoa collection and cryopreservation

For this study, we used spermatozoa recovered from the epididymides of mature stags (age > 4.5 years, weight > 130 kg) that were legally culled and hunted in their natural habitat during the rutting season (September-October). Gamekeepers collected the complete male genitalia and provided the hour of the death. Hunting was in accordance with the harvest plan of the game reserve, which made following Spanish Harvest Regulation, Law 2/93 of Castilla-La Mancha, which conforms to European Union Regulation.

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Immediately upon removal, the testes with attached epididymides were placed into plastic bags and transported to the laboratory at ambient temperature (approximately 22 °C) within 2 h after being removed. The samples were processed as soon as they arrived at the laboratory. The elapsed time between animal death and sperm recovery ranged from 3 to 6 hours, which is an adequate and reliable time interval for sevaluating sperm parameters, as decreases in the quality of sperm traits begin to take place 12 hours after the death of a male (Soler and Garde, 2003). For the collection of epididymal spermatozoa, the testes and epididymides were removed from the scrotal takes. The cauda epididymides, which included 5–10 cm of the proximal ductus deferens, were separated and transferred to 35-mm plastic dishes (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark).

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Spermatozoa were collected from the distal portion of the epididymis as described 145 by Soler et al. (2003). Epididymal contents from both testicles of the same male were 146 pooled for processing. Then, the sperm mass was diluted to a sperm concentration 147 ~400×10⁶ sperm/mL in fraction A of a Tris- Citrate-Fructose (TCF: Tris 27.0 g/L, citric 148 acid 14.0 g/L, fructose 10.0 g/L, and 20% clarified egg yolk) (Fernandez-Santos et al., 149 2006). Then, the sperm was further diluted with the same volume of Fraction B of the 150 extender (12%, v/v of glycerol), at ambient temperature (22 °C). Samples were cooled 151 down to 5 °C and, after 2 h of equilibration, were loaded into 0.25 ml plastic straws 152 (IMV, L'Aigle Cedex, France) and frozen in liquid nitrogen vapor (4 cm above liquid 153 nitrogen; -120°C) for 10 min. The straws remained for a minimum period of 1 year in 154 liquid nitrogen (-196°C). Thawing was carried out by immersing straws in a water bath 155 at 37 °C for 30 s.

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158 Experimental Design

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160 Experiment 1. Effects of increasing doses of H₂O₂ on thawed epididymal 161 spermatozoa from red deer.

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Experiment 1 was designed to explore the effect of several H_2O_2 concentrations on sperm parameters after thawing, and to evaluate the relation of H_2O_2 with sperm have been approximately and the evaluate the relation of H_2O_2 with sperm and the same medium to 30×10^6 spermatozoa/mL. The sperm solution was split among 5 aliquots in microtubes. One of them was left untreated as the control. The other aliquots were subjected to oxidative stress by adding H_2O_2 in four concentrations (25 μ M, 50 μ M, 169 100 μ M and 200 μ M). With this approach we seeked to expand the study initiated previously (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2009a), exploring concentrations between 10 μ M 171 (which had no negative effects in that study) and 1 mM (which was patently cytotoxic). 172 All treatments were split into two aliquots. One of them was incubated with 0.5 μ M 173 H₂DCFDA (for assessing ROS production) and the other was used to evaluated the rest 174 of sperm parameters. The microtubes were incubated at 37 °C and analyzed 120 min 175 after starting the incubation (the control was analyzed at 0 and 120 min). This 176 experiment was replicated 8 times with samples from 8 different males (one straw per 177 male).

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179 Experiment 2. Individual male-to-male variation in the response to oxidative 180 stress.

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This experiment evaluated the presence of male to male individual differences on the effect of oxidative stress. Thawed semen was washed in TCF (300xg, 5 min.) and diluted in the same medium to $30x10^6$ spermatozoa/mL. The sperm solution was split among 2 aliquots in microtubes. One of them was left untreated as control and the other was incubated with 200 μ M H₂O₂ at 37 °C, evaluating the samples after 120 min. The experiment was replicated with samples from 7 males, with triplicates within each male, using a different cryopreserved straw each time.

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190 Sperm evaluation

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192 Sperm motility
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194 Sperm motility was assessed using a computer-assisted motility analyzer 195 (SCA2002, CASA system; Microptic, Barcelona, Spain) coupled to an optical phase-196 contrast microscope (Nikon Eclipse 80i), equipped with negative phase-contrast 197 objectives, a warming stage at 37 °C and a Basler A302fs camera (Basler Vision 198 Technologies, Ahrensburg, Germany). A pre-warmed Makler counting chamber (10 μm 199 depth) was loaded with 5 ü L of sample and analyzed. The parameters used in this 200 study were: percentage of motile spermatozoa (total motility, TM, %), velocity 201 according to the actual path (VCL, μ m/s), linearity (LIN, %) and amplitude of the 202 lateral displacement of the sperm head (ALH, μ m). Sample acquisition rate was 25 203 images/s, and motile spermatozoa were defined as those with VCL>10 μ m/s. At least 204 five fields per sample were recorded and analysed afterwards.

205

206 Sperm viability

Viability was assessed by the monomeric cyanine nucleic acid stain YO-PRO-1. 208 Samples were diluted down to 10^6 spermatozoa/mL in flow cytometry PBS with 0.1 μ M 209 YO-PRO-1 and 10 μ M PI. After 20 min in the dark, the samples were run through a 210 flow cytometer. Labelling cells with the apoptotic marker YO-PRO-1 yielded three 211 subpopulations: viable (unstained: YO-PRO-1-/PI-), apoptotic-like membrane changes 212 (YO-PRO-1+/PI-), and non-viable (membrane damaged: PI+). Hoechst 33342 was 213 included at 5.1 μ M.

214

215 Detection of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS)

The derivative of fluorescein, CM-H₂DCFDA, was used for the detection of 217 ROS. Oxidation of this probe is detected by monitoring the increase in fluorescence 218 with a flow cytometer, using excitation sources and filters appropriate for fluorescein 219 (green fluorescence). This fluorescence probe was combined with TO-PRO-1, a red-220 fluorescence analogue to YO-PRO-1. Stock solutions of the fluorescence probe were 221 prepared as CM-H₂DCFDA 0.5 mM in DMSO, TO-PRO-3 50 μ M in DMSO, to give a 222 final concentration of 0.5 μ M of CM-H₂DCFDA and 0.1 μ M of TO-PRO-1. Hoechst 223 33342 was included at 5.1 μ M.

225 Flow Cytometry Analyses

226 We used a Becton Dickinson LSR-I flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San José, CA, 227 USA), furnished with a 325 nm He-Cd (excitation for Hoechst 33342), a 488 nm Ar-Ion 228 laser (excitation for YO-PRO-1 and PI) and a 633 nm He-Ne laser (excitation for 229 Mitotracker Deep Red). Hoechst 33342 fluorescence was read with the FL5 230 photodetector (424/44BP filter), YO-PRO-1 and CM-H₂DCFDA fluorescences were 231 read with the FL1 photodetector (530/28BP filter), and PI and TO-PRO-1 fluorescences 232 were read with the FL3 photodetector (670LP filter). FSC/SSC signals and Hoechst 233 fluorescence were used to discriminate spermatozoa from debris. Fluorescence captures 234 were controlled using the Cell Quest Pro 3.1 software (BD Biosciences, San José, CA, 235 USA). All the parameters were read using logarithmic amplification. For each sample, 236 5000 spermatozoa were recorded at 200 events/s, saving the data in flow cytometry 237 standard (FCS) v. 2 files. The analysis of the flow cytometry data was carried out using 238 WEASEL v. 2.6 (WEHI, Melbourne, Australia). The YO-PRO-1/PI stain was analyzed 239 as previously described for red deer (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2008). From this stain, 240 viability was defined as the percentage of membrane intact spermatozoa (PI-) and the 241 "apoptotic" ratio, as the relation among the YO-PRO-1+/PI- and PI- (YO-PRO-1-/PI-242 plus YO-PRO-1+/PI- spermatozoa) subpopulations, expressed as percentage. This ratio 243 estimated the proportion of spermatozoa with apoptosis-like membrane changes within 244 the PI– subpopulation.

245

246 Sperm chromatin assessment

247 Chromatin stability was assessed following the SCSA (Sperm Chromatin 248 Structure Assay), based on the susceptibility of sperm DNA to acid-induced 249 denaturation in situ and on the subsequent staining with the metachromatic fluorescent 250 dye acridine orange (Evenson et al., 1980). Acridine orange (AO) fluorescence shifts 251 from green (dsDNA; double strand) to red (ssDNA; single strand) depending on the 252 degree of DNA denaturation. Samples were diluted in TNE buffer (0.01 M Tris-HCl, 253 0.15 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4) to a final sperm concentration of $2x10^6$ cells/mL in 254 cryotubes. Samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in an ultracold freezer at 255 -80 °C until needed. For analysis, the samples were thawed on crushed ice. Acid-256 induced denaturation of DNA in situ was achieved by adding 0.4 mL of an acid-257 detergent solution (0.17% Triton X-100, 0.15 M NaCl, 0.08 N HCl, pH 1.4) to 200 μ L 258 of sample. After 30 seconds, the cells were stained by adding 1.2 mL of an acridine 259 orange solution (0.1 M citric acid, 0.2 M Na₂HPO₄, 1 mM EDTA, 0.15 M NaCl, 6 260 μ g/mL acridine orange pH 6.0). The stained samples were analyzed by flow cytometry 261 exactly at 3 minutes after adding the acridine orange solution.

Samples were run through the LSR-I flow cytometer described above. Green fluorescence was detected using the FL-1 photodetector and red fluorescence with the FL-3 photodetector. Data were collected from 10000 events at 200 events/s for further analysis with Cell-Quest software (Becton Dickinson). A tube with 0.4 mL of detergentacid solution and 1.2 mL of acridine orange solution was run through the system before running any samples and between samples. At the beginning of each session, a standard semen sample was run through the cytometer, and settings were adjusted in order that mean fluorescence values (0-1023 linear scale) for FL-1 and FL-3 were 475 and 125, respectively. Results of the DNA denaturation test were processed to obtain the ratio of run fluorescence to total intensity of the fluorescence (red/[red+green]×100), called DFI (DNA fragmentation index; formerly called α t) for each spermatozoa, representing the area fluorescence. High values of DFI indicate chromatin 274 abnormalities. Flow cytometry data was processed to obtain %DFI (% of spermatozoa 275 with DFI>25) and HDS (High DNA Stainability: % of spermatozoa with green 276 fluorescence higher than channel 600, of 1024 channels).

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278 TBARS assay for quantification of lipid peroxidation (LPO)

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280 The susceptibility of the spermatozoa to lipoperoxidation (LPO) was estimated by the 281 thiobarbituric acid reactive substance (TBARS) method according to Ohkawa et al. 282 (1979). Samples of 100 μ L were thoroughly mixed with 200 μ L of a stock solution 283 containing 15% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid, 0.375% (w/v) thiobarbituric acid and 0.25 M 284 HCl. This mixture was heated at 90 °C for 15 min, and then the reaction was stopped by 285 placing the tubes in ice-cold water for 5 min. The tubes were centrifuged at 1500×g for 286 15 min to pellet the precipitate, and the clear supernatant was collected and transferred 287 to wells (200 μ L/well) in a 96-well flat bottom transparent plate (Nunc, Roskilde, 288 Denmark). The plate was completed with a calibration curve prepared from a 289 malondialdehyde (MDA) stock (1,1,3,3-tetramethoxypropane). Sample absorbance at 290 532 nm was read on a multipurpose microplate reader (Synergy HT, BIO-TEK, 291 Winooski, Vermont, USA). MDA concentration was calculated from a standard curve. 292 The lipid peroxidation index was calculated as nmol of MDA per 10⁸ sperm. This assay 293 was duplicated for each sample.

294

295 Statistical analysis

296 Statistical analyses were carried out using the R statistical package (http://www.r-297 project.org). For the analysis of H_2O_2 (Experiment 1), data were analyzed using linear 298 mixed-effects models, treating the male effect as the random part of the model, and time 299 or H_2O_2 concentration as the fixed part of the model. For the analysis of the male-to300 male variability (Experiment 2), results were arc sine (proportions) or log-transformed 301 (other variables), and male, treatment (values at 0 h, 2 h and 2 h with 200 μ M of H₂O₂) 302 and their interaction were analyzed by ANOVA. For the graphical analysis of the data, 303 we used interaction plots and principal component analysis (with TM, VCL, LIN, ALH, 304 LPO and viability). Unless otherwise stated, results are presented as mean±SEM, and 305 statistical significance was accepted for P<0.05.

306

307 Results

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309 Experiment 1. Effects of increasing doses of H₂O₂ on thawed epididymal 310 spermatozoa from red deer

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We evaluated how increasing H_2O_2 concentration affected sperm quality 313 parameters, looking after H_2O_2 concentrations that might induce critical changes on 314 sperm quality during incubation. Intracellular ROS (Fig. 1) spontaneously increased 315 from 0 to 2 h (210±12 at 0 h and 309±9 at 2 h, in mean fluorescence units; P<0.001). 316 When H_2O_2 was added to the samples, ROS concentration increased with H_2O_2 , 317 comparing with incubation without H_2O_2 (25 µM: 379±13, P=0.011; 50 µM: 413±27, 318 P<0.001; 100 µM: 428±22, P<0.001; 200 µM: 521±37, P<0.001).

319

320 The effect of H_2O_2 on incubated spermatozoa is showed in Figure 2 as effect sizes 321 respect to the Control at 2 h (0 μ M H₂O₂). In general, only the highest H₂O₂ 322 concentration (200 μ M) showed an effect in this experiment. Total motility decreased 323 with the incubation (from 36.6±5.7% to 28.6±8.4% at 2 h; P=0.031). It did not 324 decreased further with H₂O₂ (effect size not significant; Fig. 2a), except for 200 μ M, 325 which decreased motility down to $21.4\pm7.5\%$ (P=0.037). While linearity neither 326 changed with incubation nor H₂O₂ treatments (Fig. 2c), velocity and ALH decreased 327 after 2 h of incubation (101.2±6.2 µm/s to 88.5±6.1 µm/s, P<0.031; 4.1±0.2 µm to 328 3.6±0.2 µm, P<0.020). Their values when they were incubated with 200 µM H₂O₂ were 329 72.7±9.1 µm/s and 3.0±0.2 µm (P=0.020 and P=0.009, respectively), not changing 330 significantly with other H₂O₂ treatments (Figures 2b and 2d).

331

Incubation decreased the proportion of viable spermatozoa (55.2±4.4% to 333 46.1±5.1%; P=0.018), tended to increase the apoptotic ratio (47.9±5.3% to 52.5±5.9%; 334 P=0.060) and slightly increased the lipid peroxidation of the samples, as estimated by 335 the LPO by-product malondialdehyde, but not significantly (3.8±0.7 nmol MDA/10⁸ 336 spermatozoa to 3.9±0.6 nmol MDA/10⁸ spermatozoa; P=0.051). Addition of H₂O₂ did 337 not modify the proportion of viable spermatozoa or the apoptotic ratio, comparing with 338 2 h incubation without H₂O₂ (Figures 2e and 2f). LPO levels did not increase in any 339 H₂O₂ treatment comparing with the incubation without H₂O₂ (Fig. 3a); nevertheless, 340 when comparing with the results at 0 h, 50 μ M H₂O₂ and above significantly increased 341 MDA concentration (effect sizes of +0.4±0.1 for 50 μ M, +0.5±0.1 for 100 μ M and 342 +0.4±0.1 for 200 μ M, indicating increases above the 0 h levels, P<0.05; the effect size 343 of 2 h incubation without H₂O₂ was +0.3±0.1, P=0.051).

344

The SCSA test revealed that incubation alone did not cause significant changes 346 to chromatin stability (%DFI: 4.9±1.5% at 0 h and 3.2±0.6% at 2 h, P=0.353; HDS: 347 2.7±0.8% at 0 h and 4.1±1.3% at 2 h, P=0.198). Only 200 μ M H₂O₂ increased %DFI 348 significantly, up to 10.3±2.9% (Fig. 3b), not having effect on HDS (Fig. 3c).

350 Experiment 2. Individual male-to-male variation in response to oxidative stress.

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In this experiment, we tested the effect of male-to-male variation during the incubation, including the response to oxidative stress caused by the higher dose of H₂O₂. In general, males differed at thawing (P<0.01 for TM, VCL, ALH and viability). Three groups were differentiated (see group at 0 h in Fig. 4): males 1, 2 and 6 were characterized by higher motility (TM: 40.9 \pm 3.0%; VCL: 104.7 \pm 5.3 µm/s; ALH: 4.1 \pm 0.2 mm) and viability (64.3 \pm 2.2%); males 3 and 4 were characterized by low motility (TM: 18.9 \pm 2.2%; VCL: 66.7 \pm 6.5 µm/s; ALH: 3.0 \pm 0.2 µm) while maintaining a relatively high viability (54.1 \pm 2.4%); and males 5 and 7 were characterized by low motility (TM: 16.8 \pm 1.4%), while maintaining high kinematic parameters (VCL: 94.9 \pm 2.0 µm/s; ALH: 361 4.0 \pm 0.1 µm) and lower viability (40.7 \pm 2.8%).

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Considering the whole experiment, male-to-male variability did not disappear 364 after incubation with or without H₂O₂, but it was a significant factor for all studied 365 parameters (P<0.001 for TM, VCL, ALH and viability; P<0.01 for apoptotic ratio; 366 P<0.05 for LIN and LPO). What is more important, that variability affected how 367 samples from different males responded to the incubation and oxidative stress 368 (male±treatment interaction). We found that interaction significant for VCL 369 (F_{12,27}=3.036, P=0.007), LIN (F_{12,27}=3.107, P=0.007) and ALH (F_{12,27}=2.662, P=0.017). 370 These differences throughout treatments can be appreciated in the interaction plots 371 showed in the Figure 4. It is clear that the behaviour of the samples was similar in the 372 case of LPO and viability (Fig. 4e and 4f, change during incubation and little difference 373 among 2 h and 2 h plus H₂O₂), whereas most of the variability was showed in motility 374 parameters. Total motility (Fig. 4a) suggested some degree of male-to-male variability 375 on the response to treatments, but not reaching significance ($F_{12,27}$ =1.838, P=0.092).

376

Therefore, most of the variability concerning treatment response was expressed 378 on the kinematic parameters. For VCL (Fig. 4b), males 1, 3 and 5 underwent little 379 change after incubation, but dropped if H_2O_2 was included in the medium, whereas 380 males 2, 6 and 7 were affected by incubation without H_2O_2 (and in a higher degree, 381 specially for 6, in presence of H_2O_2), and male 4 was little affected by the treatments. A 382 similar pattern was detected for ALH (Fig. 4d). For LIN (Fig. 4c), a different grouping 383 developed. In a first group (males 2, 4 and 5), LIN was little affected by incubation or 384 oxidative stress. Contrarily, LIN dropped during incubation in the samples of males 6 385 and 7, whereas it did not decrease during incubation in the samples of 1 and 3 (in fact, 386 increased for 3), but decreased (considerably for 1) in presence of H_2O_2 .

387

A principal component analysis of averaged results for each male and treatment allowed to show these results in the bidimensional space defined by the first two go principal components extracted (Figure 5a). The male-to-male variability (initial characteristics, after incubation characteristics —either in presence or absence of H_2O_2 and the response to the treatments) are displayed in the Figure 5b. In that plot it is made clear that samples from different males behaved differently, as showed by the different directions and lengths of the vectors joining the points for each sample. According to the direction of change after incubation without H_2O_2 , males could be grouped in three groups: one grouping males 1 and 3, other with males 2 and 7 and a and third one with males 4, 5 and 6. When H_2O_2 was included, male 2 was just affected by the effect size, while maintaining the same direction. Others showed a different 399 response (males 4, 5 and 7), but only in one or two parameters and not too large; male 6 400 could be included in this group, although the differences were much larger for that male. 401 Finally, males 1, 3 showed a dramatically different response if incubated in absence or 402 presence of H_2O_2 .

403

404 Discussion

Oxidative stress has an important role in sperm physiology. In this study, we 406 have studied this topic on cryopreserved epididymal spermatozoa, therefore, we must to 407 point out that results might be different in fresh or ejaculated doses. Cryopreservation 408 not only reduces sperm quality, but also induces oxidative stress and decreases the 409 antioxidants in semen (Aisen et al., 2005;Peris et al., 2007), and epididymal 410 spermatozoa have not contacted with seminal plasma, which contributes to the 411 antioxidant defence of semen. Furthermore, male-to-male variability also affects to the 412 resistance to cryopreservation-derived damage (Esteso et al., 2006;Loomis and Graham, 413 2008), possibly enhancing post-thawing differences among males. These facts were 414 considered when planning this study, and therefore our analysis and conclusions are 415 within the context of cryopreserved epididymal spermatozoa.

416

In our previous study on oxidative agents (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2009a), we 418 found that 10 μ M H₂O₂ did not affect thawed spermatozoa, but 100 μ M and 1 mM 419 depressed motility within 1 h of incubation (in fact, 1 mM abolished sperm motility 420 almost immediately after adding it to the sample). We determined that a similar effect of 421 xanthine oxidase/hipoxanthine was in fact caused by H₂O₂ generation. In our study, the 422 only significant effects of H₂O₂ were caused by 200 μ M, not by 100 μ M. Apart from 423 some differences on the experimental design (Dominguez-Rebolledo et al., 2009), it is 424 possible that the limit above which H_2O_2 causes a detectable effect (regarding our 425 experimental tests) would lay in the order of magnitude of 10^{-4} M. Individual males 426 might present a different sensitivity to H_2O_2 within that order of magnitude, as 427 suggested by the male-to-male variability experiment. In our previous study, we used 428 samples from other set of males, which could be the source of the observed differences.

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430 Although addition of H₂O₂ increased intracellular ROS, no other effects were 431 observed below 200 μ M. We found that even 10 μ M H₂O₂ could increase intracellular 432 ROS above Control (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2009a), but this increase did not result in a 433 noticeable change of motility or sperm physiology. However, Peris et al. (2007), 434 working with fresh ram sperm, found that 50 µM H₂O₂ decreased motility in only 1 h of 435 incubation. Nevertheless, these authors did not observe capacitation-related changes 436 (chlortetracycline stain) among different H_2O_2 concentrations (0, 50 and 150 μ M), 437 except for 300 µM, which caused a significant increase in acrosome-reacted 438 spermatozoa at 1 h of incubation (but not after 4 or 24 h). In the present study, H₂O₂ did 439 not induce changes in the apoptotic ratio of the samples, a parameter depending on YO-440 PRO-1 stain, putatively related to membrane condition and possibly connected to the 441 physiological status of the sperm cell (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2008; Peña et al., 2007). 442 Previous studies have highlighted the role of ROS on the modulation of sperm 443 physiology, and their role activating capacitation (Awda et al., 2009;Baumber et al., 444 2003;O'Flaherty et al., 1999). For instance, Roy and Atreja (2008) induced capacitation 445 and associated tyrosine phosphorilation in buffalo spermatozoa by incubating with 50 446 µM H₂O₂. More detailed studies, such us analysis of tyrosine phosphorilation of specific 447 proteins, should be performed in small ruminants, in order to determine if H_2O_2 induces 448 physiological changes beyond those reported by Peris et al. (2007) and us. The detection

449 of these changes is of capital importance, since they might be unnoticed, affecting 450 sperm functionality farther in sperm work protocols.

451

Agreeing with previous studies (Aitken et al., 1993;Armstrong et al., 453 1999;Martinez-Pastor et al., 2009a;Peris et al., 2007), sperm motility was the most 454 sensitive parameter to H_2O_2 . Motility loss by H_2O_2 has been primarily attributed to the 455 inactivation of glycolytic enzymes, leading to energetic draining in the flagellum 456 (Armstrong et al., 1999;Baumber et al., 2000). However, the sensitivity of spermatozoa 457 to H_2O_2 varies dramatically among studies. Ramos and Wetzels (2001) found an almost 458 total loss of motility after incubating 5 min human spermatozoa with 25 μ M H_2O_2 . 459 Bilodeau et al. (2002), testing a wide range of H_2O_2 concentrations on bovine semen, 460 found that 75 μ M of H_2O_2 immediately decreased sperm motility, and that just 12.5 μ M 461 H_2O_2 decreased motility after 1 h of incubation. This might imply that small ruminant 462 spermatozoa might be more resilient to this effect, as we suggested in a previous study 463 (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2009a).

464

We observed a non-significant increase of MDA with time, which seemed to be accelerated by H_2O_2 presence. This increase on LPO was unrelated to motility changes. These observations suggest that red deer sperm might be little prone to H_2O_2 -induced lipoperoxidation. Peris et al. (2007) did not found increasing LPO levels when submitting the samples to H_2O_2 levels up to 300 μ M, but after incubating their samples for 24 h. However, these authors found correlations among MDA concentration and other sperm parameters, which was not noticed in our study. It seems that there are between species differences regarding susceptibility and consequences of lipid array peroxidation. For instance, Alvarez and Storey (1989) could increase LPO and loss of 474 motility in human and mouse sperm by adding H_2O_2 (1 and 5 mM), whereas the same 475 concentrations of H_2O_2 were insufficient to induce LPO in rabbit sperm. Similarly, we 476 could detect an increase on LPO using the TBARS technique in deer spermatozoa after 477 incubating with 1 mM H_2O_2 , but we could not detect a significant increase when 478 applying 100 μ M H_2O_2 (Domínguez-Rebolledo et al. 2010)

479

480 Subjecting thawed spermatozoa to oxidative stress can affect chromatin integrity, 481 and the SCSA test can be used to detect it (Fernandez-Santos et al., 2009;Martinez-482 Pastor et al., 2009b). Sperm chromatin integrity was affected by 200 µM H₂O₂. 483 Previously (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2009a), we could not identify such chromatin insult, 484 possibly because of the different set of males used. Again, it is possible that individual 485 sample quality (different stocks of semen doses) could have a role, although we cannot 486 discard variations in the experimental protocol (lack of sperm washing in our previous 487 study). In fact, we found that washed samples were more vulnerable to oxidative stress 488 than unwashed ones (Dominguez-Rebolledo et al., 2009). Other studies have shown 489 apparently lower chromatin damage susceptibility in similar species. For instance, Peris 490 et al. (2007) reported that SCSA showed that 150 and 300 µM H₂O₂ increased the %DFI 491 on ram spermatozoa, but only after 24 h incubation. In human spermatozoa, Ramos and 492 Wetzels (2001) did not detect DNA damage when sperm from normospermic men were 493 incubated for 1 h in the presence of 25 µM of H₂O₂, but damage was observed after 24 h 494 (using TUNEL), alerting that low levels of ROS can be damaging given long incubation 495 times. Another study (Hughes et al., 1996), using the COMET assay, showed that 496 applying 100 and 200 μ M H₂O₂ for only one hour caused an important increase on DNA 497 damage, and that only 40 µM H₂O₂ was required to cause a small increase of DNA 498 damage in asthenozoospermic samples (although baseline levels were similar to those of 499 normozoospermic samples). This study highlights the importance of previous 500 susceptibility to oxidative stress and the importance of between sample heterogeneity, 501 regarding ROS resistance.

502

In the second part of our study, we aimed at studying the male-to-male source of H_2O_2 . Although we worked with a limited number of males, it was evident that male-to-male variability had an effect, not only regarding the resilience to oxidative stress, but also to incubation without oxidants. In other studies, we have reported that sperm male-to-male variability seems to be high in red deer, some possibly due to the unselected nature of the populations from which we obtained our samples (Garde et al., 2006). In fact, working with those wild populations allows us to samples (Garde et al., 2006). In fact, working with those wild populations allows us to working with animals submitted to strong human selection. We have previously showed that red deer present evident male-to-male differences in sperm characteristics and fertility (Malo et al., 2005) and in sperm sensitivity to cryopreservation (Soler et al., 2003). Moreover, we have proposed that that variability could even reflect in biased sex stors, depending on the fertility of different males (Gomendio et al., 2006).

516

In the present study, motility parameters were affected by incubation in some males, whereas in others motility was maintained almost unaltered for the duration of incubation, being only affected if oxidative stress was present. Contrarily, although individual variability was evident considering initial MDA concentration and sperm viability, it did not affect the changes on these variables after incubation with or without oxidative stress. It is known that many factors can affect membrane composition, among them individual variability, and that its composition influences its resistance and susceptibility to oxidative stress (Lenzi et al., 2002). It is possible that the small increase of LPO observed after incubation and H_2O_2 might have prevented us from detecting the interaction among males and treatments. Another reason could be that the high dilution and the freezing-thawing of the cryopreserved samples would have dimmed membranerelated differences, a hypothesis that could be tested in another study using fresh spermatozoa. It is important to consider that in vivo studies (Reglero et al., 2009) have showed no differences on LPO between deer living in areas contaminated with heavy metals and other living in uncontaminated areas, but the same study found differences among deer living in different estates. These findings suggest that some oxidative stress markers, such as LPO, could indeed depend more on the male than on environmental stressors.

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Motility can be affected by multiple factors, and therefore it is a good candidate Motility can be affected by multiple factors, and therefore it is a good candidate to detect variability among males or samples (Malo et al., 2005). The resistance of multiple factors, and et al., 2005). The resistance of multiple factors apparently not dependent on their initial quality. Thus, multiple factors male 1 and 6 had similar initial motility, but whereas male 1 maintained the same multiple factors multiple factors multiple factors multiple factors multiple multiple factors multiple factors multiple factors multiple factors. The resistance of multiple factors multiple 548 techniques may be used to predict the performance of spermatozoa beyond 549 cryopreservation (Grunewald et al., 2008;Thurston et al., 2002).

In summary, we conclude that oxidative stress caused by H_2O_2 clearly affected kinematic parameters of cryopreserved red deer spermatozoa, but only at relatively high concentrations (considering previous studies, at a magnitude of 10^{-4} M). It did not seem viability or apoptotic markers (as defined with YO-PRO-1). This and be a consequence of membrane resilience to oxidative stress, but also to the effect of cryopreservation, which might have already removed susceptible spermatozoa from the samples. We have to point out that we utilized only epididymal spermatozoa, and that results might vary when using ejaculated samples. In a previous study on red deer (Martínez-Pastor et al., 2006)), we that cryopreservation conditions of epididymal and sof ejaculated samples might vary. These differences could also affect the response of coxidative stress of ejaculated samples.

561

562 In conclusion, cryopreservation of gametes and embryos and the development of 563 Genetic Resource Banks (GRB) allow us to have a gene resource for an indefinite time 564 (Watson and Holt., 2001). These assisted reproductive technologies (ART) are 565 potentially capable of improving the propagation and conservation of wild and 566 endangered species (Wildt et al., 1997). Of the genetic material in cryobanks, the 567 collection, storage, and subsequent use of spermatozoa has found the most widespread 568 application (Watson and Holt., 2001). According to this, cryopreservation of 569 spermatozoa combined with artificial insemination (AI) has been the method of ART 570 that has been most extensively applied to deer species (Asher et al., 2000). In the 571 present work, male-to-male variability was evident in the response to incubation both 572 with and without H_2O_2 . This male-to-male variability is important, since it reflects on 573 fertility and in the outcome of other artificial reproductive techniques (artificial 574 insemination and IVF success). Thus, we must discriminate among samples from 575 different males not only according to their "freezability", but also to their performance 576 after thawing and in stressing situations. We must take into account these differences as 577 much to improve freezing protocols as in the post-thawing protocols, considering 578 protective agents such as antioxidants, and adjusting them to the characteristics of 579 different kind of samples. This is especially important when dealing with valuable 580 specimens of endangered animals, which is usual working with wild species. Actually, 581 there is a remarkable interest in the use of ART for the management of Iberian deer 582 (*Cervus elaphus hispanicus*) populations. Specifically, ART may play an important role 583 for the purpose of ensuring genetic preservation and/or genetic progress. Moreover, our 584 results can contribute to the development of adequate protocols for red deer as a farming 585 species, and also for other small ruminants.

586

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Figure 1. Representative histograms from samples stained with CM-H₂DCFDA/TO-773 PRO-3, showing fluorescence intensity for CM-H₂DCFDA in the TO-PRO-1– 774 subpopulation (viable spermatozoa). A higher fluorescence (given as fluorescence 775 channel number, 1–1024) indicates higher intracellular ROS. The mean fluorescence 776 increased from baseline values at 0 h (a) to 2 h (b), and within 2 h, with increasing H₂O₂ 777 concentrations [100 µM (c) and 200 µM (d) are showed here].

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Figure 2. Effect sizes of the H_2O_2 treatments, for the CASA analysis and YO-PRO-1/PI stain (viability and apoptotic ratio). In each case, the Control value at 2 h (0 μ M H₂O₂) was used as the intercept of the model (mean±SEM showed), effect sizes being the relative variation of the parameter from the Control value. For each H₂O₂ treatment, P values are given above of the x-axis (H₀: effect not different from 0). Total motility (TM; a), curvilinear velocity (VCL; b) and the mean amplitude of the lateral movement of the head (ALH; d) were significantly reduced after 200 μ M H₂O₂ treatment, whereas linearity (LIN; c), viability (e) and the apoptotic ratio (f) were not significantly affected pH₂O₂ addition.

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Figure 3. Model effect sizes of the H_2O_2 treatments, showed for the lipoperoxidation analysis (LPO) and SCSA (DNA damage). In each case, the Control value at 2 h (0 μ M H₂O₂) was used as the intercept of the model (mean±SEM showed), and the effect sizes are the relative variation of the parameter from the Control value. For each H_2O_2 treatment, P values are given above of the x-axis (H₀: effect not different from 0). Neither LPO (a) nor HDS (high DNA stainability; c) were significantly affected by the tested H_2O_2 concentrations, but the percentage of spermatozoa with high DNA 796 fragmentation index (%DFI; b) significantly increased after incubation with 200 μ M 797 H₂O₂.

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Figure 4. These interaction plots shows the effect of the individual males (1-7) and treatments (0 h, 2 h incubation and 2 h incubation with 200 μ M H₂O₂) on sperm parameters (mean values displayed). Lines do not imply a continuity among 2 h incubation and 2 h incubation plus 200 μ M H₂O₂, but they are used to highlight the different values and changes, among the treatments, of samples from different males. Differences among males are evident for motility parameters, while male-to-male differences (regarding different behaviour among treatments) were minimal for LPO and viability.

808 **Figure 5.** Representation of the multivariate data showed in Figure 4 in the 809 bidimensional space resulting from performing a principal component analysis (PCA) 810 with TM, VCL, LIN, ALH, viability (V) and LPO (the first two principal components, 811 PC1 and PC2, were selected). Subfigure (a) shows the variable loadings (linear 812 relationships among the principal components and the variables), represented by the six 813 eigenvectors, in order to help to interpret subfigure (b): for instance, in subfigure (b), 814 samples "moving" towards the lower-right quadrant would indicate samples with 815 decreasing kinematic parameters, while those "moving" towards the upper-right 816 quadrant would have decreasing motility and viability, while increasing LPO. Subfigure 817 (b) presents the changes underwent by samples from different males (1–7) as 818 translations throughout the PC coordinates. Samples at 0 h are represented by circled 819 numbers, which are the starting point for vectors representing the change underwent by 820 these samples after 2 h of incubation (plain numbers) or 2 h of incubation with 200 μM 821 of H_2O_2 (italic-bold numbers). The male-to-male differences showed in Figure 4, 822 regarding treatment effects, are evident in this plot.

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