



Heat stress and antioxidant agents: Effects on gamete development

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A mis padres y hermana,
por todo su apoyo y comprensión.

(...hacia atrás, ni para coger impulso)

Recordarás algo de lo que leas, bastante de lo que oigas, mucho de lo que veas, y todo lo que hagas.

John Little B.

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ABSTRACT

The general aim of this thesis has been the study of the effects of high temperatures on gamete development and how the use of antioxidant agents supplemented to the maturation medium and sperm storage/freezing extenders could counteract the negative effects of heat stress and/or the excessive production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), in order to find additional methods to improve fertility during the warm season of the year.

In chapter 1, the influence of heat stress on bovine oocyte maturation were evaluated and compared with overmatured oocytes by the use of a logistic regression. Based on the odds ratio, heat-stressed (41.5°C, 18-21h of maturation; HSO) and overmatured (28h of maturation; OMO) oocytes were, 14.5 and 5.4 times more likely to show anomalous metaphase II (MII) morphology, and 6.3 and 9.3 times more likely to show cortical granule (CG) distribution pattern IV (aging oocyte), respectively, than control oocytes (38.5°C; CO). Taking into account both maturation processes, the risk of undergoing anomalous oocyte maturation was 17.1 and 18 times greater in oocytes cultured in HSO and OMO groups, respectively, than those in the CO group. Hence, heat stress proved to be valuable in aging oocytes by advancing nuclear and cytoplasmic processes in a similar form to that of oocyte overmaturation.

The aim of chapter 2 was to compare by a logistic regression the effects of heat stress on bovine oocyte maturation from oocytes collected during the cold (February-March) or warm (May-June) periods of the year. Based on the odds ratio, HSO were 26.83 and 13.01 times more likely to show an anomalous MII morphology and CG pattern IV (aging oocyte), respectively. However, only a significant interaction between season of collection and treatment was found in terms of cytoplasmic maturation, being oocytes collected during the cold season 25.96 times more likely to show an anomalous maturation when exposed to the heat treatment. From this chapter, it can be concluded that exists a higher tolerance to heat stress from oocytes harvested in the warm season compared to those collected in the cold period of the year.

In chapter 3, the presumptive protective effects of antioxidant agents (retinol, retinyl and oleic acid) on maturation medium were evaluated on bovine HSO. Based on a Chi-square test ($P < 0.05$), heat stress affected negatively the MII progression ($P < 0.05$) and produced a premature CG exocytosis ($P < 0.01$). On the other hand, in terms of antioxidant supplementation, retinol allowed to improve the oocyte MII progression under heat stress conditions ($P = 0.031$), although retinyl and oleic acid, at the concentrations used in this study, could not counteract adverse effects of HS. Hence, retinol proved to be valuable in heat-stressed oocytes protecting nuclear maturation.

Chapter 4 aimed to assess the effect of long exposure to summer circadian heat stress cycles (31°C, 3 hours/day) on sperm parameters and the motile-subpopulation structure of epididymal sperm cells from rabbit bucks, by a PROC GLM procedure. Sperm total motility and progressivity were negatively affected by high temperature ($P < 0.05$), affecting also specific motility parameters ($P < 0.05$). According to motile sperm-subpopulations derived from a FASTCLUS procedure, heat stress significantly increased ratio of less motile subpopulations, although maintaining percentage of the high motile subpopulation. Hence,

the induced changes in sperm motility produced by environmental heat stress are linked to concomitant changes in the proportion of motile sperm-subpopulations of the epididymis, although these changes did not affect the subpopulation with the highest motile epididymal sperm cells.

In the chapter 5, the effect of antioxidant agents (bovine serum albumin, retinol and retinyl) supplemented at different concentrations into a commercial freezing extender was evaluated in order to improve post-thaw rabbit sperm quality since cryopreservation increases ROS levels. In general, all the sperm quality parameters were negatively affected by the cryopreservation process, specially total motility. However, the addition of antioxidant agents did not improve thaw-sperm quality, although retinyl supplementation seems to be toxic. More studies are required in order to find the appropriate antioxidants and their most effective concentrations, which will improve rabbit post-thaw sperm quality.

The aim of the last chapter was assess the effect of high temperatures on bull epididymal sperm cells and how the addition of retinol as antioxidant agent in the storage extender could improve sperm quality parameters. Sperm samples were submitted to four different temperatures (4, 22, 32 and 41.5°C for 3 hours). Hence, sperm quality parameters are mainly affected by high temperatures (41.5°C) and the addition of retinol to the storage extender did not show any effect on sperm quality parameters with an exemption of the percentage of altered acrosomes, which was reduced in presence of retinol. Thus, retinol may stabilize sperm acrosomal membrane in situations of oxidative stress due to high temperatures.

RESUMEN

El objetivo principal de esta tesis es el estudio de los efectos de las altas temperaturas en el desarrollo gamético y cómo el uso de agentes antioxidantes suplementados a los medios de maduración o mantenimiento/congelación de espermatozoides podría contrarrestar los efectos negativos del estrés térmico y/o de la excesiva producción de radicales libres de oxígeno (ROS), con la finalidad de encontrar métodos adicionales que mejoren la fertilidad durante la época cálida del año.

En el capítulo 1 se ha evaluado la influencia del estrés térmico sobre la maduración de ovocitos bovinos en comparación con los efectos producidos por una sobremaduración ovocitaria mediante regresión logística. En base a las odds ratio, los ovocitos estresados térmicamente (41.5°C, entre las 18-21h de maduración; HSO) y ovocitos sobremadurados (28h de maduración; OMO) tienen 14.5 y 5.4 veces más probabilidades de presentar metafase II (MII) anómalas, y 6.3 y 9.3 veces más probabilidades de mostrar patrón tipo IV de distribución de gránulos corticales (GC), respectivamente, en comparación con los ovocitos madurados bajo condiciones fisiológicas (38.5°C). Teniendo en cuenta ambos procesos de maduración, el riesgo de que se produzca una maduración ovocitaria anómala es 17.1 y 18 veces mayor en HSO y OMO, respectivamente, en comparación con el grupo control. Así pues, el estrés térmico produce un envejecimiento ovocitario mediante la aceleración de los procesos nucleares y citoplasmáticos de una forma similar a los que se producen durante la sobremaduración.

El objetivo del segundo capítulo fue comparar mediante regresión logística los efectos del estrés térmico en la maduración ovocitaria según si estos son obtenidos en la época fría (Febrero-Marzo) o cálida (Mayo-Junio) del año. Según las odds ratio, HSO tuvieron 26.83 y 13.01 más probabilidades de presentar una MII anómala y un patrón de GC tipo IV (ovocitos envejecidos), respectivamente. Sin embargo, sólo pudo detectarse la interacción entre la época del año y el tratamiento al que fueron expuestos los ovocitos en cuanto a maduración citoplasmática, siendo los ovocitos obtenidos durante la época fría 25.96 veces más probables de mostrar una maduración anómala cuando se someten a estrés térmico. Así pues, de este segundo capítulo se puede concluir que existe una mayor tolerancia al estrés térmico cuando los ovocitos provienen de la época cálida del año en comparación con los obtenidos en la época fría.

En el capítulo 3, se evaluó el supuesto efecto protector de agentes antioxidantes (retinol, retinyl y ácido oleico) suplementados en el medio de maduración de HSO bovinos. Basándonos en el test Chi-square ($P < 0.05$), el estrés térmico afectó negativamente la progresión nuclear a estadio de MII ($P < 0.05$) y produjo una excitosis prematura de GC ($P < 0.01$). Por otro lado, en cuanto al suplemento de antioxidantes, retinol mejoró la progresión de los ovocitos a MII cuando estos estaban sometidos a altas temperaturas ($P = 0.031$), aunque retinyl y ácido oleico no pudieron contrarrestar los efectos del estrés térmico a las concentraciones utilizadas en este estudio. Así, retinol parece ser válido protegiendo la maduración nuclear en ovocitos estresados térmicamente.

El objetivo del capítulo 4 fue evaluar el efecto de una exposición prolongada a ciclos circadianos de estrés térmico (31°C, 3 horas/día) en los parámetros espermáticos y la estructura de las poblaciones

espermáticas móviles de espermatozoides epididimarios de conejo, mediante el procedimiento PROC GLM. La motilidad total y progresividad se vieron afectadas negativamente por las altas temperaturas ($P < 0.05$), afectándose también los parámetros de motilidad específicos ($P < 0.05$). En relación a las poblaciones espermáticas móviles derivadas del procedimiento FASTCLUS, el estrés térmico incrementó la ratio de subpoblaciones menos móviles, aunque los porcentajes de subpoblaciones más móviles se mantuvieron. Así, los cambios en la motilidad espermática inducidos por el estrés térmico ambiental están ligados a cambios en las proporciones de las distintas subpoblaciones espermáticas del epidídimo, aunque estos cambios no afectaron la subpoblación más móvil.

En el capítulo 5, se evaluó el efecto del suplemento de agentes antioxidantes (albúmina sérica bovina, retinol y retinyl) a distintas concentraciones en un medio de congelación comercial como método para mejorar la calidad de los espermatozoides descongelados de conejo, ya que la congelación produce un incremento de los niveles de ROS. Por lo general, todos los parámetros de calidad espermática se vieron afectados negativamente por el proceso de congelación, especialmente la motilidad total. Sin embargo, el hecho de añadir agentes antioxidantes no mejoró la calidad espermática post-congelación, aunque el suplemento con retinyl parece ser tóxico. Por todo ello, es necesario realizar más estudios con el fin de encontrar el antioxidante apropiado y la concentración más efectiva con la cual pueda mejorarse la calidad espermática post-congelación.

El objetivo del último capítulo fue evaluar el efecto de las altas temperaturas sobre los espermatozoides epididimarios de toro y cómo suplementar retinol al medio de mantenimiento como agente antioxidante podría mejorar los parámetros de calidad espermática. Las muestras espermáticas fueron sometidas a cuatro temperaturas diferentes (4, 22, 32 y 41.5°C durante 3 horas). Los parámetros de calidad espermática se vieron afectados principalmente por las altas temperaturas (41.5°C). Por otro lado, el suplementar retinol en el medio de mantenimiento no mostró ningún efecto sobre los parámetros de calidad espermática con excepción del porcentaje de acrosomías, el cual se redujo en presencia de retinol. Así pues, el retinol podría estabilizar la membrana acrosomal de los espermatozoides en situaciones de estrés oxidativo debido a las altas temperaturas.

RESUM

L'objectiu principal d'aquesta tesi es l'estudi dels efectes de les altes temperatures en el desenvolupament gamètic i com l'ús d'agents antioxidants suplementats als medis de maduració o manteniment/congelació d'espermatozoos podria combatir els efectes negatius de l'estrès tèrmic i/o de l'excés de producció de radicals lliures d'oxigen (ROS), amb la finalitat de trobar mètodes addicionals que millorin la fertilitat a les èpoques càlides de l'any.

En el capítol 1 s'ha avaluat la influència de l'estrès tèrmic sobre la maduració d'oòcits bovins en comparació amb els efectes produïts per una sobremaduració oocitària mitjançant regressió logística. En base a les odds ratio, els oòcits estressats tèrmicament (41.5°C, entre les 18-21h de maduració; HSO) i oòcits sobremadurats (28h de maduració; OMO) tenen 14.05 i 5.4 vegades més probabilitats de presentar metafase II (MII) anòmala, i 6.3 i 9.3 vegades més probabilitats de mostrar patró tipus IV de distribució de grànuls corticals (GC), respectivament, en comparació amb els oòcits madurats sota condicions fisiològiques (38.5°C). Considerant tots dos processos de maduració, el risc que es produeixi una maduració oocitària anòmala és 17.1 i 18 vegades major en HSO i OMO, respectivament, en comparació amb el grup control. Així doncs, l'estrès tèrmic produeix un envelliment oocitari mitjançant l'acceleració dels processos nuclears i citoplasmàtics d'una forma similar als que es produeixen durant la sobremaduració.

L'objectiu del capítol 2 va ser comparar mitjançant regressió logística els efectes de l'estrès tèrmic sobre la maduració oocitària segons si aquests s'obtenen en l'època freda (Febrer-Març) o càlida (Maig-Juny) de l'any. Segons les odds ratio, HSO van tenir 26.83 i 13.01 més probabilitats de presentar una MII anòmala i un patró de GC tipus IV (oòcits envellits), respectivament. No obstant això, només es va poder detectar la interacció entre l'època de l'any i el tractament al que van ser exposats els oòcits en relació a la maduració citoplasmàtica, siguent els oòcits obtinguts durant l'època freda 25.96 vegades més probables de mostrar una maduració anòmala quan es sotmeten a estrès tèrmic. Així doncs, d'aquest segon capítol es pot concloure que existeix una major tolerància a l'estrès tèrmic quan els oòcits provenen de l'època càlida de l'any en comparació amb els obtinguts de l'època freda.

En el capítol 3, es va avaluar el possible efecte protector d'agents antioxidants (retinol, retinyl i àcid oleic) suplementats en el medi de maduració de HSO bovins. Basant-nos en el test Chi-square ($P < 0.05$), l'estrès tèrmic va afectar negativament la progressió nuclear a estadi de MII ($P < 0.05$) i va produir una exocitosi prematura de GC ($P < 0.01$). D'altra banda, segons el suplement d'antioxidants, el retinol va millorar la progressió dels oòcits a MII quan aquests estaven sotmesos a altes temperatures ($P = 0,031$), encara que retinyl i àcid oleic no van poder contrarestar els efectes de l'estrès tèrmic a les concentracions utilitzades en aquest estudi. Així, el retinol sembla vàlid protegint la maduració nuclear en oòcits estressats tèrmicament.

L'objectiu del capítol 4 va ser avaluar l'efecte d'una exposició prolongada a cicles circadianis d'estrès tèrmic (31°C, 3 hores/dia) sobre els paràmetres espermàtics i l'estructura de les poblacions

espermàtiques mòtils d'espermatozous epididimaris de conill, mitjançant el procediment PROC GLM. La motilitat total i progressivitat es van veure afectades negativament per les altes temperatures ($P < 0.05$), afectant també els paràmetres de motilitat específics ($P < 0.05$). En relació a les poblacions espermàtiques mòtils derivades del procediment FASTCLUS, l'estrès tèrmic va incrementar la ratio de subpoblacions menys mòtils, encara que els percentatges de les més mòtils es van mantenir. Així, els canvis en la motilitat espermàtica induïts per l'estrès tèrmic ambiental estan lligats a canvis en les proporcions de les diferents subpoblacions espermàtiques de l'epidídim, encara que aquests canvis no afecten a la subpoblació més mótil.

En el capítol 5, l'efecte del suplement d'agents antioxidants (albúmina sèrica bovina, retinol i retinyl) a diferents concentracions en un medi de congelació comercial va ser avaluat com a mètode per millorar la qualitat dels espermatozous de conill després de congelar, ja que la congelació produeix un increment dels nivells de ROS. En general, tots els paràmetres de qualitat espermàtica es van veure afectats negativament pel procés de congelació, especialment la motilitat total. No obstant això, afegir agents antioxidants no va millorar la qualitat espermàtica post-congelació, i a més el suplement amb retinyl sembla ser tòxic. Per tot això, cal realitzar més estudis per tal de trobar l'antioxidant apropiat i la concentració més efectiva que pugui millorar la qualitat espermàtica post-congelació en el conill.

L'objectiu de l'últim capítol va ser avaluar l'efecte de les altes temperatures sobre els espermatozous epididimaris de toro i com el suplement del medi de manteniment amb retinol com a agent antioxidant podria millorar els paràmetres de qualitat espermàtica. Les mostres espermàtiques van ser sotmeses a quatre temperatures diferents (4, 22, 32 i 41.5°C durant 3 hores). Els paràmetres de qualitat espermàtica es van veure afectats principalment per les altes temperatures (41.5°C) i el suplement amb retinol en el medi de manteniment no va mostrar cap efecte sobre els paràmetres de qualitat espermàtica amb excepció del percentatge d'acrosomies, que es va reduir en presència de retinol. Així doncs, el retinol podria estabilitzar la membrana acrosomal dels espermatozous en situacions d'estrès oxidatiu degut a les altes temperatures.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

One of the main purposes of livestock is the production of meat, milk and eggs, which has grown steadily during the past 40 years (FAO, 2011). The global production derived by is necessary by human population (FAO, 2009).

Cattle are able to convert forage and crop residues, which are useless for human consumption, into edible products (milk and meat). Milk production in Mediterranean countries is based in high industrialization of the process, where only herds with high production per cow are economically rentable (Line, 1986). But, despite this rapid progress in management and genetics, reproductive performance of high producing dairy herds has suffered a dramatic decrease since the mid 1980's (Beam & Butler, 1999; Royal *et al.*, 2000; Lucy, 2001; López-Gatius, 2003). On the other hand, rabbits are valuable for meat production, which is linked to the development of rabbit breeding programs, developed since the 1970's in Spain, which is one of the main producer and consumer countries in Europe (FAO, 2001; Baselga, 2004). Rabbits are also a common laboratory mammal used for experimental studies that are applied to human medicine (Suckow & Douglas, 1997).

It has been described that the most comfortable range of environmental temperatures for production/reproduction of dairy cattle and rabbits is between -0.5° and 20°C (Johnson, 1987) and $12-21^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Verga *et al.*, 2007), respectively. However, the Earth system has been changing rapidly over the past several decades due to natural and anthropic factors, and the reported data suggest a significant increase in heat stress pressure on global human population, animals and plants, displacing life from their thermal comfort zone (Lecha, 2007). In accordance, animals in our geographical area are submitted to high temperatures round 20-31 days during the warm months (May-September) and even 4 days during the cold months of the year (October-April; López-Gatius *et al.*, 2006).

Heat stress is one of the major causes of summer low fertility in livestock (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000) and their impact has been extensively reviewed in dairy cattle (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; López-Gatius, 2003; Collier *et al.*, 2006; Roth, 2008). Conception rate is reduced by high environmental temperatures from 40-60% in winter to 10-20% in summer (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Tseng *et al.*, 2004; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; Bridges *et al.*, 2005; Ju *et al.*, 2005; Lopez-Gatius 2003). However, in autumn the conception rate is still low (30%) although animals are not submitted to high temperatures anymore (Roth *et al.*, 2000). An explanation is the affectation of antral follicles during the summer (Roth *et al.*, 2001b; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; Roth *et al.*, 2008), being necessary 3 or 4 oestrus cycles after high temperatures for fertility restoration (Roth *et al.*, 2001a; Roth *et al.*, 2008).

The preovulatory follicle is sensitive to high environmental temperatures (Ball *et al.*, 1983), and the reactive oxygen species (ROS) derived from are able to provoke abnormal chromosome segregation (Blondin *et al.*, 1997; Roth *et al.*, 2008), anomalies in the development to metaphase II stage (MII) and polar body extrusion, condensation and fragmentation of chromatin, reduction in meiotic spindle diameter (Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Ju and Tseng, 2004), cytoplasmic defects, premature translocation of cortical

granules (Des Torres-Júnior *et al.*, 2008), and in general, an acceleration of oocyte maturation (Schrock *et al.*, 2007). All these alterations suggest that heat stress may premature aging the oocyte, reducing its developmental competence (Payton *et al.*, 2004).

High temperatures also have negative effects on reproductive processes in male, leading to subfertility, temporal or permanent infertility (Setchell, 1998; Lue *et al.*, 1999; Yaeram *et al.*, 2006; Tusell *et al.*, 2011). Animals submitted to heat stress show a reduction in testicular weight (Sailer *et al.*, 1997; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Rockett *et al.*, 2001), ejaculate volume (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985) and sperm concentration (De Alba & Riera, 1966; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985). On the other hand sperm quality is also affected, and an increase in the percentage of dead and abnormal spermatozoa (Casady *et al.*, 1953; Skinner & Louw, 1966; Borg *et al.*, 1993), a loss of motility (Ax *et al.*, 1987; Marai *et al.*, 2002), alterations in chromatin stability (Pérez-Crespo *et al.* 2008; Paul *et al.* 2008) and anomalies in plasmatic and acromosomal membrane integrity have been reported (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985; Borg *et al.*, 1993; Sanocka & Kurpisz, 2004; Roca *et al.*, 2005; Safaa *et al.*, 2008).

High temperatures are also linked to premature embryo loss (Ju *et al.*, 2005), mainly when high temperatures take place at the beginning of the fertile oestrus, at insemination or during the first embryo divisions (Edwards *et al.*, 1997). It has been reported that heat stress produces a reduction in the developmental competence to the blastocyst stage (Edwards & Hansen, 1997; Roth & Hansen, 2004), a reduction in the total number of cells per embryo and an increase in DNA alterations and apoptosis rate, (Paula-Lopez & Hansen, 2002) increasing embryo mortality (Ryan *et al.*, 1992). These alterations are more pronounced as the exposure to heat stress increases in duration (Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b), although embryo can become more tolerant as preimplantational development proceeds (Paula-Lopes *et al.*, 2002; Rocha *et al.*, 1998).

Hence, heat stress is a common worldwide problem affecting the 60% of the livestock population, which causes big economic losses (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000). It is the reason why research in the last decades has been focused on improving fertility during the warm months of the year, establishing refrigeration systems for animals in the major sensitive moments (Ealy *et al.*, 1993), using shades (West *et al.*, 2003), aids for oestrus detection (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995), diet reformulation (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995) and breeds or cross-breeds more tolerant to heat as *Bos indicus* (West *et al.*, 2003).

The use of antioxidant agents is another interesting way of research in order to improve fertility during summer. It is known that high temperatures induce an increase of ROS levels which are involved in the harmful effects on the integrity and function of cellular membranes (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Hansen *et al.*, 2001). However, ROS are also produced during normal cellular metabolism, and are necessary for some reproductive processes. In those cases, the organism can counteract the excess of ROS by antioxidant enzymes, although deficiencies in the antioxidant system or the excess of ROS that cannot be counteract results in oxidative stress. The oxidative stress causes alterations in lipids, proteins, polysaccharides, DNA and other macromolecules (Miller *et al.*, 1993). According to that, the use of antioxidant agents both *in vivo* as *in vitro* has been checked in order to improve fertility and sperm, oocyte and embryo quality

(Aréchiga *et al.*, 1998b; Tarín *et al.*, 1998; Hansen *et al.*, 2001; Yousef *et al.*, 2003; Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Marei *et al.*, 2011).

In accordance, the aim of this thesis has been the study of high temperature effects on gamete development and how the use of antioxidant agents supplemented to the maturation medium and sperm storage/freezing extenders could counteract the negative effects of heat stress and/or the excessive production of ROS, in order to find additional methods to improve fertility during the warm season of the year.

AIMS / OBJETIVOS

AIMS

The general aim of this thesis is to figure out the heat stress effects on gamete development, which leads impairments in animal fertility causing high annual economic losses in livestock. Additionally, the current thesis tries to achieve the development of techniques and methods to decrease negative heat stress impact at the cellular level through *in vitro* studies simulating high temperatures done at the central part of the day during the warm periods of the year.

The specific aims are to:

1. Analyze in which way oocyte maturation is affected by heat stress by the development of an *in vitro* model.
2. Find if a seasonal effect exists in oocytes submitted to heat stress conditions by an *in vitro* study.
3. Develop an *in vitro* system to counteract harmful effects of high temperatures by the supplementation of antioxidant agents to the oocyte maturation medium.
4. Determine how epididymal sperm cells are affected by high temperatures using an *in vivo* and *in vitro* study.
5. Analyze the effect of adding antioxidant agents to the storage/freezing extender in order to counteract the negative effects of heat stress or radical oxygen species derived from cryopreservation on sperm cells.

OBJETIVOS

El objetivo general de esta tesis es profundizar en el conocimiento acerca de los efectos del estrés térmico sobre el desarrollo gamético, que finalmente se expresan en una importante reducción de la fertilidad, causando graves pérdidas económicas en los animales de producción. Por otro lado, también se pretenden desarrollar técnicas o métodos que disminuyan los efectos negativos del estrés térmico mediante el desarrollo de estudios *in vitro* simulando las altas temperaturas que tienen lugar en las horas centrales del día durante el periodo más caluroso del año.

Los objetivos específicos son los siguientes:

1. Analizar de qué forma se ve afectada la maduración ovocitaria bajo condiciones de estrés térmico desarrollando un modelo de investigación *in vitro*.
2. Encontrar si existe efecto estacional en cuanto a la afectación de los ovocitos sometidos a estrés térmico mediante un estudio *in vitro*.
3. Suplementar el medio de maduración *in vitro* de ovocitos con agentes antioxidantes para contrarrestar los efectos negativos del estrés térmico.
4. Analizar de qué forma se ven afectados los espermatozoides epididimarios bajo condiciones de estrés térmico desarrollando modelos de investigación *in vivo* e *in vitro*.
5. Suplementar el medio de mantenimiento/congelación de espermatozoides con agentes antioxidantes para contrarrestar los efectos negativos del estrés térmico o de los radicales libres de oxígeno derivados del proceso de congelación.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. GLOBAL ECONOMIC SITUATION AND MILK PRODUCTION IN THE LAST DECADES

The profitability of dairy herds greatly depends on fertility. Yet despite rapid worldwide progress in genetics and management of high producing dairy herds, the past five decades and especially since the mid 1980s, have seen a drastic increase in the incidence of reproductive disorders and infertility of dairy cows as milk production increases (Foote, 1996; Beam & Butler, 1999; Butler, 2000; Royal *et al.*, 2000; Lucy, 2001; López-Gatiús, 2003) provoking a higher risk of infertility under suboptimal conditions (Rougeor *et al.*, 1999; Fahey *et al.*, 2002; Calus *et al.*, 2005). Hence, as increases in milk production correlates negatively with fertility (Pryce *et al.*, 1998; Rauw *et al.*, 1998; Abdallah & McDaniel, 2000), in recent years the main objective of development in mammalian reproductive technology has been to preserve fertility (Gosden & Nagano, 2002).

It is noteworthy that changes in the genetics and physiology of food animals for increased production are making these animals less adapted to warm environments reducing their thermoregulatory ability in the face of heat stress (Berman *et al.*, 1985) and magnifying the seasonal depression in fertility caused by this factor (Al-Katanani *et al.*, 1998; Roth, 2008). It is especially true for dairy cattle (Pryce *et al.*, 1998; Rauw *et al.*, 1998; Abdallah & McDaniel, 2000) during hot seasons in tropical and subtropical areas (Cavestany *et al.*, 1985; Roth *et al.*, 2002), where it could be commonly find a 3–5h hyperthermic stress under field conditions (Ju & Tseng, 2004).

The low fertility during the hot season is a worldwide problem affecting about 60% of the world dairy cattle population (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000) and is being commonly associated with high ambient temperatures (Roth *et al.*, 2001b). Hence, investigation through new management practices can improve the health and fertility of dairy cows (Windig *et al.*, 2005). Other species as rabbits are also sensitive to the negative effects of high temperatures with harmful consequences in their reproductive efficiency through the summer season (Finzi, 1987; Kennou, 1990; Yamani, 1990; Finzi, 1991; Berchiche y Lebas, 1994; Morera *et al.*, 1995).

2. HEAT STRESS

2. 1. Climate definition

The climate is a combination of elements that include temperature, humidity, rainfall, air movement, radiation, barometric pressure, and ionization (Johnson, 1987). Climatic zones differ around the world and are dependent on latitude, prevailing winds, evaporative conditions, water availability, elevation, proximity to mountains and other factors (West, 2003).

2. 2. Global Warming

The Earth system has been changing rapidly over the past several decades due to natural and anthropic factors. Studies have stated an increase in the global average surface temperature of about 0.6°C over the past 20th century. The predictions portend increments over 0.1-0.2°C per decade (MacCracken *et al.*, 2008), with an increase in medium and maximum temperatures of 1.5-2.1°C in 2020 (Lecha, 2007). These data suggest a significant increase in heat stress pressure on global human population, animals and plants (Lecha, 2007), displacing life from their thermal comfort zone. The effect of global warming are expected to be larger in the middle-high latitudes than in the tropics, over land areas than oceans, and larger in winter than in summer (MacCracken *et al.*, 2008).

2. 3. What is heat stress?

Heat stress can be defined as any combination of environmental variables, or the sum of forces external to the bodily system of a homeothermic animal, that acts to displace body temperature from its resting state to conditions that are higher than animal's thermoneutral zone (5-20°C; Lee, 1965; Yousef, 1984). The environmental temperature, radiant energy, relative humidity, and wind speed all contribute to the degree of heat stress (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003).

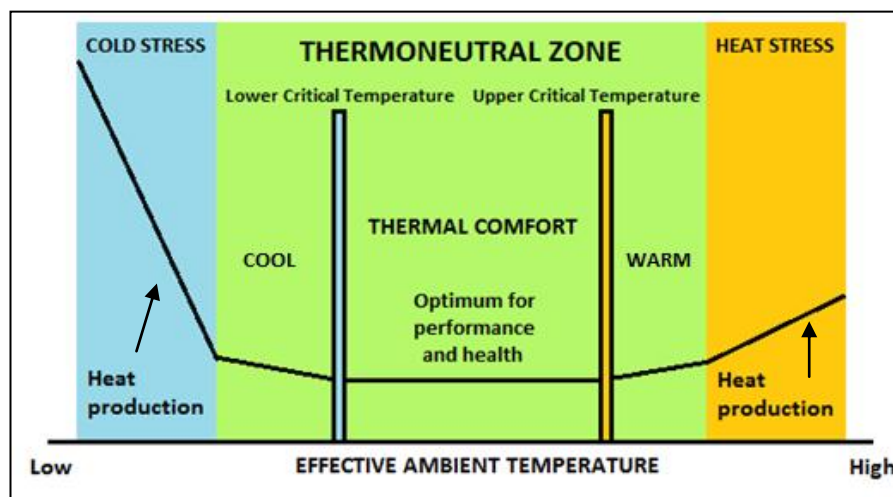
2. 4. Thermoneutral zone

Each homeotherm animal has an optimal ambient temperature zone (Thermoneutral Zone) within which metabolic rate is at minimum (Yousef, 1985; Johnson, 1987). The Thermoneutral Zone (Figure 1) is bounded by the lower critical temperature (LCT) and the upper critical temperature (UCT), which vary and depend upon age, level of production, breed and the degree of acclimatization (Fuquay, 1981; Young, 1981; Shearer & Beede, 1990b).

Thereby, the thermoneutral zone is subdivided into three subzones (Anderson & Bates, 1984; Yousef, 1985):

- **Cool Zone:** the range of ambient temperature where heat production remains minimal. The animal conserves energy by cover and tissue insulation (piloerection and peripheral vasoconstriction) and by heat production induced by cold (shivering).
- **Thermal Comfort Zone:** the range of ambient temperature where optimum productivity, efficiency, and performance is demonstrated.
- **Warm Zone:** the range of ambient temperature where heat production is minimal. The thermoregulatory responses are: a decrease in tissue insulation (vasodilatation) and an increase in heat exchange surface area by changing posture.

Figure 1. Thermal zones in animals (adapted from Yousef, 1985). The ambient temperatures above the UCT activate the thermoregulatory evaporative heat loss processes: increase the blood flow to peripheral tissues, sweating and panting, and decrease feed intake and nutrient absorption (Shearer & Beede, 1990b). Both sweating and panting require the expenditure of considerable amounts of energy, and as a consequence, the animal's heat production will rise above the minimal level in the heat stress zone (Anderson & Bates, 1984).



It has been described that the most comfortable range of environmental temperatures for milk production of dairy cattle is between -0.5° and 20°C (Johnson, 1987), while Berman *et al.* (1985) indicated that the upper critical air temperature at which Holstein cattle may maintain a stable body temperature is 25 to 26°C . This explains why high producing dairy cattle, which were originally bred in Holland and Germany (moderate climate), are less well adapted to the heat stress conditions as they prevail in the subtropical areas. High yielding dairy cows are more susceptible to heat stress than other cows because they have a lower UCT, due to the substantial increase in metabolic heat output that these cows are experiencing due to the high milk production (Kadzere *et al.*, 2002). On the other hand, the comfort zone temperature for productive and reproductive performance in rabbits has been established in $12\text{-}21^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Marai *et al.*, 1991; Verga *et al.*, 2007).

2. 5. THI index as a predictor of heat stress impact

In order to estimate the thermal stress to which the animal is exposed, it was developed a “temperature humidity index” (THI) (Thom, 1958; 1959) that incorporates the effects of both ambient air and dry bulb temperatures, and relative humidity in a sole index. THI is at present the most used stress index to evaluate the impact of climatic conditions and to assess the effect of heat stress on the livestock production all over the world (Bianca, 1962; Hahn, 1969; McDowell *et al.*, 1979; Fuquay, 1981; Rodriguez *et al.*, 1985; Igono & Johnson, 1990; Ravagnolo *et al.*, 2000; West, 2003; Garcia-Ispierto *et al.*, 2006).

The maximum THI (maximum temperature and minimum humidity) for dairy cattle has been calculated to be 72 (Thom, 1959; Johnson *et al.*, 1962), however, for high producing dairy cows this value has been shifted down to 68 (Finch, 1986; Zimbelman *et al.*, 2009) because of the concurrent rise in metabolic heat production associated with the vast amount of milk synthesis (Hansen, 2007a). Therefore, there is a clear

relationship between maximum THI over the period 21–30 days of gestation and subsequent fetal loss (García-Ispuerto *et al.*, 2006), because it is when implantation of the embryo occurs in the cow (Guillomot *et al.*, 1993).

Productive and reproductive performance in rabbits is also impaired with high THI (over 27.8), which implies the beginning of heat stress (Marai *et al.*, 2002; García-Tomás *et al.*, 2008). THI values in rabbits are lower than in cow due to the presence of few sweat glands and their less ability to dissipate the heat excess (Verga *et al.*, 2007). If the temperature is above 25-30°C, animals exhibit an increase in ear temperature (Lebas *et al.*, 1986; Marai & Habeeb, 1994) and also mortality among the offspring (Rafai and Papp, 1984; Marai *et al.*, 1991). When ambient temperature exceeds 30°C a significant increase in both rectal and ear temperature occurs (Kamar *et al.*, 1975; Shafie *et al.*, 1982; Abo-Elezz *et al.*, 1984 and Wolfenson & Blum, 1988; Marai & Habeeb, 1994). Thus the appetite is depressed, the productive and reproductive performances are impaired and the resistance to disease is decreased. Above 35°C, rabbits can no longer regulate their internal temperature and heat prostration sets in (Lebas *et al.*, 1986; Marai & Habeeb, 1994), finishing at 40°C with a considerable panting and salivation.

2. 6. Relation between ROS and heat stress

Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) are molecules with one or more unpaired electron(s) (Agarwal *et al.*, 2006). These highly reactive molecules attack the nearest stable molecule to obtain an electron. Subsequently, the targeted molecule becomes a free radical itself and initiates a cascade of events that can ultimately lead to cellular damage.

ROS are formed as necessary by-products during normal enzymatic reactions (Skibba *et al.*, 1991; Sikka *et al.*, 1995; Ikeda *et al.*, 1999; Kim *et al.*, 2005) and represent a broad category of molecules: radicals (i.e. hydroxyl radicals or superoxide anions), nonradicals (i.e. ozone or single oxygen) and oxygen derivatives (Agarwal & Prabakaran, 2005). The presence of physiological ROS levels mediate between gametes and crucial reproductive processes (Aitken, 1997; Attaran *et al.*, 2000) as sperm capacitation, acrosome reaction (Kothari *et al.*, 2010), fertilization, stabilization of the mitochondrial capsule in the mid-piece (Agarwal *et al.*, 2008; Desai *et al.*, 2009; Gonçalves *et al.*, 2010), sperm-oocyte interactions (De Lamirande *et al.*, 1997b), implantation and early embryo development (Sakkas *et al.*, 1998; Lapointe & Bilodeau, 2003).

It is noteworthy that cellular exposure to heat stress increases the production of ROS promoting cellular oxidation events (Skibba *et al.*, 1991; Sikka *et al.*, 1995; Ikeda *et al.*, 1999; Kim *et al.*, 2005), associated with cellular hyperthermia (Skibba & Stadnicka, 1986; Malayer *et al.*, 1990; Ando *et al.*, 1997). However, *in vitro* processes as cryopreservation of sperm cells are also involved in the production of an additional toxic source of ROS (Wang *et al.*, 1997; Bailey *et al.*, 2000; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2000).

The extent of ROS damage to cell systems depends on the balance between their production and removal rates (Guille & Joenje, 1991). If the protective mechanism cannot remove the high amount of ROS or the damage produced by, the organism gets into oxidative stress condition (Agarwal *et al.*, 2003). Due to their

highly reactive nature, ROS can combine readily with other molecules, directly causing oxidation that can lead to structural and functional changes (i.e. DNA and protein modifications or enzyme inactivation) and result in cellular damage (Ribarov & Benov, 1981; Comporti, 1989; De Lamirande & Gagnon, 1995; Wells *et al.*, 1997; Guérin *et al.*, 2001; Agarwal *et al.*, 2005a).

In addition, excess of ROS also attacks gametes, inhibiting sperm-oocyte fusion (Aitken *et al.*, 1993), altering oocyte maturation and oxidative status in oviduct (Matsuzuka *et al.*, 2005), impairing the preimplantation development of embryos, increasing rates of early pregnancy loss (Kao *et al.*, 2008), causing male infertility due to lipid peroxidation in sperm membranes (Sharma & Agarwal, 1996; Wang *et al.*, 2003; Bucak *et al.*, 2010a), decreasing sperm viability and motility (Rao *et al.*, 1989), increasing mid-piece morphological defects, altering sperm capacitation, acrosome reaction, and inducing sperm apoptosis (Sikka, 1996; Gandini *et al.*, 2000; Bansal & Bilaspuri, 2007; Bucak *et al.*, 2010a).

3. ANIMAL MECHANISMS TO COUNTERACT HEAT STRESS

Endothermic animals, as cattle, can maintain a relatively constant body temperature that is independent of the temperature of the surrounding environment. However, when heat production exceeds heat loss to the environment, the heat stress condition is established (Fuquay, 1981). To regulate its body temperature, the animal must dissipate the excessive amount of metabolic heat produced into the surrounding environment (Fuquay, 1981) through different ways of heat loss (Collier *et al.*, 2006): (i) physical ways (i.e. conduction, convection and radiation), (ii) evaporative ways or (iii) both.

The rate of exchange depends on the ability of the environment to accept heat and vapour, and also on the animal production status, color coat, the latitude of the world globe where the animal is located and if it is day or night (Finch, 1986; Shearer & Beede, 1990a; Ealy *et al.*, 1993). The sensible means of heat loss are most effective when THI values are low. However, when THI values increases, the animal relies more on evaporative heat loss (McClean, 1963; Finch *et al.*, 1982) by increasing sweating and respiratory rates (panting; Stevens, 1981; Maia *et al.*, 2005).

Rabbits in general use body position, breathing rate and peripheral temperature, especially ear temperature, as the three devices to modify heat loss. However, respiration and the ears are the most important dissipation pathways. Marai and Habeeb (1994) indicated that between 0 and 30°C, latent heat loss is controlled only by altering the breathing rate since rabbits are poor at sweating, a reaction made additionally less effective by the presence of the fur (Marai *et al.*, 2002).

4. CELL MECHANISMS TO COUNTERACT HEAT STRESS

The cellular response to stress is an essential defense mechanism against different stressors as heat stress. Cells exposed to heat shock can undergo an array of biochemical responses for protection from elevated temperature (Edwards & Hansen, 1997). In addition, if the heat stress effect is not lethal (short-term mild heat stress), the cell response documented experimentally is the induction of a thermotolerance process, which protects cells from a subsequent and more severe heat stress (Craig & Gross, 1991; Maresca & Lindquist, 1991; Georgopoulos & Welch, 1993; Li *et al.*, 1995). As an example, when embryos in culture are first exposed to a milder heat stress, they become more resistant (Ryan *et al.*, 1992; Ealy & Hansen, 1994; Arechiga *et al.*, 1995; Arechiga & Hansen, 1998).

4. 1. Heat Shock Protein family (HSPs)

The heat shock response is a rapid and transient gene-expression program (Richter *et al.*, 2010) based on the upregulated synthesis of HSPs to confer cell resistance to different stressors (Kiang & Tsokos, 1998), and thermotolerance (Li & Werb, 1982). However, HSPs also play an essential and physiological role in mammalian fertilization and embryo development.

HSPs are classified into two well characterized families according to their molecular weight and functions:

- **Molecular chaperones** (HSP100s, HSP90s, HSP70s (the major class), HSP60s and small HSP): the predominant class involved in facilitating protein folding and assembly (Grossman *et al.*, 1984).
- **Proteases**: as stabilizer of damaged proteins involved in the prevention of aggregation, allowing an opportunity for repair or degradation (Welch, 1992).

Oocytes are transcriptionally inactive after reaching about 110 μm (Hyttel *et al.*, 1997) and does not undergo increased synthesis of HSP70 in response to heat stress (Edwards & Hansen, 1997), making the oocyte sensible to stress (Welch & Suhuan, 1985; Edwards & Hansen, 1996; Sugiyama *et al.*, 2007). In fact, it has been reported that oocytes become more resistant to heat shock after HSP70 mRNA microinjection (Hendrey & Kola, 1991).

However, HSP may serve as a protector in embryo development and be involved in the acquisition of thermal resistance (Hansen, 2007b). HSP70 can be induced as early as the two-cell stage (Edwards & Hansen, 1996; Edwards *et al.*, 1997), but also in compact morulae or blastocysts (Bernardini *et al.*, 2004). The phenomenon has been described more evident as development proceeds (Muller *et al.*, 1985; Ealy & Hansen, 1994; Arechiga *et al.*, 1995; Arechiga & Hansen, 1998; Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002). According to this, the inhibition of HSP70 causes a reduction in blastocyst development by an increase in cell death (Matwee *et al.*, 2001).

Furthermore, HSP is also increased in testis from animals submitted to high temperatures, increasing their expression as the exposure time to heat increases (Cao *et al.*, 2009). It has been described that HSP70 is present on the acrosome in ejaculated bovine spermatozoa (Kamaruddin, 1998; Matwee *et al.*, 2001) and serves as a stress protector prior to fertilization (Miller *et al.*, 1992).

4. 2. Antioxidant molecules

Antioxidant molecules are the main defense factors in the cell against oxidative stress induced by ROS (both physiological and abnormal production; Loven, 1988; Sikka, 1996). This system includes enzymes as (Brigelius-Flohe *et al.*, 1994; Yu, 1994; Schwaab *et al.*, 1998; Bilodeau & Mirault, 1999): catalase, superoxide dismutase and glutathione peroxidases family (i.e. Glutathione reductase). Physiological processes produce high levels of ROS (Fisher & Aitken, 1997) that can induce a variety of DNA lesions. Fortunately the testis (Bauche *et al.*, 1994), seminal plasma (Sikka, 1996; Kim & Parthasarathy, 1998; Aitken & Baker, 2004; Sikka, 2004) and oviduct (Miller & Shultz, 1987) antioxidant system complement the DNA repair systems.

4. 3. Growth factors

Growth factors, such as insulin like growth factor-I (IGF-I), may exert also a protective action against a variety of stress by reducing the incidence of spontaneous apoptosis and by decreasing the oxidant effect (Vincent & Feldman, 2002; Jousan & Hansen, 2004; Mauro & Surmacz, 2004).

5. CONSEQUENCES IN THE ANIMAL WHEN HEAT STRESS CANNOT BE COUNTERACT

The reproductive processes in mammals are sensitive to hyperthermia in both males and females. Summer infertility has multifactorial nature, since hyperthermia directly alters and impairs the cellular functions of various tissues of the reproductive system (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000), but also elicits indirect responses such as redistribution of blood flow among body organs, reduction in food intake or respiratory alkalosis (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003).

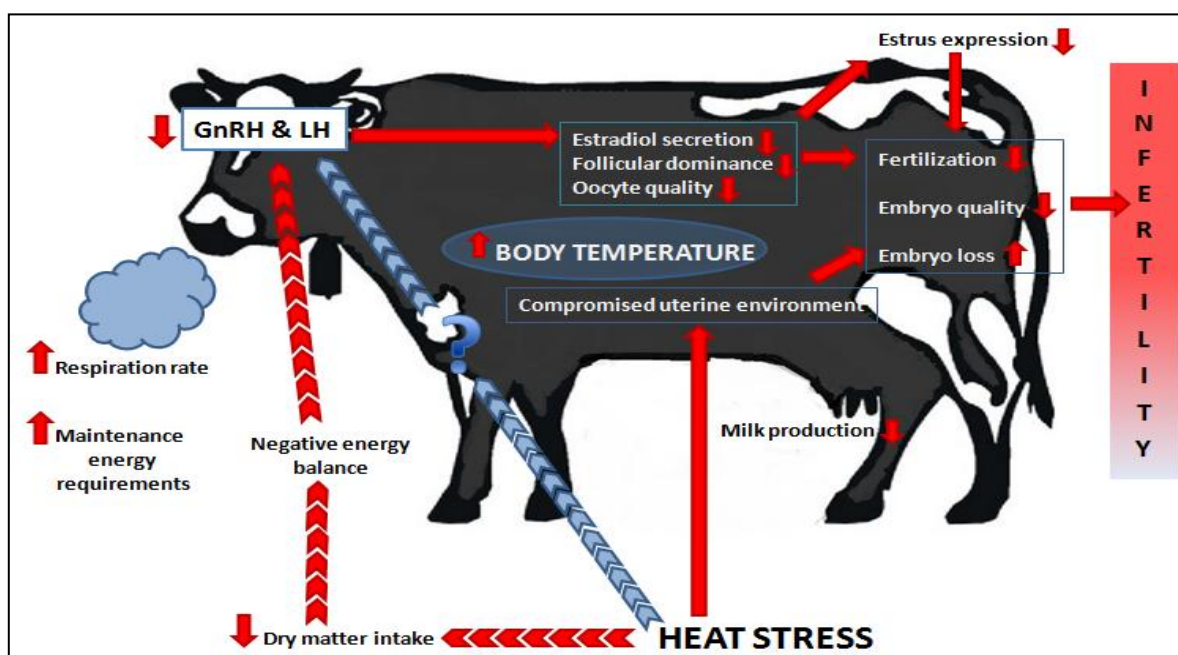
5. 1. Consequences in the female

It is well documented that mammalian females (cow (Monty & Racowsky, 1987; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b), sow (Omtvedt *et al.*, 1971), ewe (Dutt, 1963) and rabbit doe (Marai *et al.*, 2001)) exposed to heat stress have lower fertility during the summer than in any other season (Badinga *et al.*, 1985; Cavestany *et al.*, 1985), with reductions in conception rate, implantation sites, embryo development, litter size, milk production and survival rates (Dobao *et al.*, 1983; Edwards *et al.*, 1968; Omtvedt *et al.*, 1971; Marai *et al.*, 2001; 2002; Zimbelman *et al.* 2009; Kadokawa *et al.*, 2012).

There is not a single mechanism by which heat stress can reduce fertility in livestock females and the problem is due to the accumulation of the effects of several factors (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; Figure 2):

- **Direct effects** affecting reproductive organs: alterations in endocrine function (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003), ovarian follicular dynamics and oocyte maturation (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995), hormone secretions (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000), uterine environment (Putney *et al.*, 1988b) and embryo development and survival (Edwards & Hansen, 1997; Rivera & Hansen, 2001).
- **Indirect effects** mediated by changes in the metabolic axis in response to reduced dry matter intake: decline of performance (milk production and growth), reduced activity, increase in respiratory rate, body temperature, peripheral blood flow and sweating (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003).

Figure 2. A description of the mechanisms generated by heat stress which may affect reproduction in the lactating dairy cow. Heat stress can act in more than one way to reduce fertility in lactating dairy cow. Heat stress can reduce dry matter intake to indirectly inhibit GnRH and LH secretion from the hypothalamo-pituitary system (dashed red lines). However, it is not clear if heat stress can also directly influence the hypothalamo-pituitary system (dashed blue line) to reduce GnRH and LH secretion. Heat stress can directly compromise the uterine environment (solid lines) to cause embryo loss and infertility (modified from De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003).



It has been demonstrated that reproductive variables are significantly impaired during the warm period (Labèrnia *et al.*, 1998; López-Gatius, 2003). High temperatures at insemination time are one of the main factors associated with pregnancy loss up until 90 days of gestation (García-Ispiero *et al.*, 2006), with a significant correlation with early fetal loss (López-Gatius *et al.*, 2002; 2004b). Cows in the warm season of the year are 3.7-5.4 more likely to miscarry compared to the cold period (López-Gatius *et al.*, 2004a),

more specifically, when maternal hyperthermia is experienced between the onset of oestrus and insemination (Putney *et al.*, 1989b), and during the first few cleavage divisions of the early embryo (Dutt, 1963; Putney *et al.*, 1988a; Ealy *et al.*, 1993).

Females submitted to high temperatures experience detrimental effects on follicle development, oocyte physiology (leading to rise in oocytes of reduced competence; Payton *et al.*, 2004; Roth & Hansen, 2004), hormone profiles (Abdel- Samme and Marai, 1997), oestrus expression, uterine function and blood flow (Abdel- Samme and Marai, 1997) and embryo viability (increasing embryo mortality; Thatcher & Hansen, 1993), provoking pregnancy losses and a reduced conception rate (Hansen & Arechiga, 1999; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003).

5. 1. 1. Rectal temperature

It has been reported that rectal temperatures of cows during the summer are significantly higher than during winter (Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b). Usually, cows keep normothermia (38.7°C; Roth *et al.*, 2001b); whereas rectal temperatures reach or exceed 41°C due to high temperatures (heat stress; Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Torres-Junior *et al.*, 2008). This effect is also increased due to high milk production which leads high metabolic rates making impossible for the cow to maintain her body temperature at normal levels (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003). In those situations, heated environment combined with the body heat produced from metabolic processes produces a gradual increase in core temperature up to 41°C for up to 4 h before gradually returning to normal (Sugiyama *et al.*, 2007). On the other hand, it has been demonstrated that rabbit body temperature also increases when the environmental temperature exceeds 28°C (Amici *et al.*, 1995; Franci *et al.*, 1996; Marai *et al.*, 2001).

Elevations in rectal temperature are not without consequence. The higher rectal temperature during summer impairs fertility in dairy cows. Pregnancy rates have been shown to decrease with each 0.5°C or degree increased in rectal temperature (Ulberg & Burfening, 1967; Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1973). The explanation is that reproductive tract temperatures rise in parallel to rectal temperature (Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1973; Roman-Ponce *et al.*, 1981), and cellular function of different tissues of the reproductive tract are harmfully affected (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Hansen *et al.*, 2001) when body temperature increases above the set point by 1.5 to 2 °C (Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1973; Thatcher, 1974; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995). The effects of such increments are a reduction in embryonic development and increased proportion of degenerate/retarded embryos (Putney *et al.*, 1989a; b).

5. 1. 2. Dry matter intake

Hyperthermia associated with heat stress has been proven to reduce dry matter intake (Hansen, 1997b; Jonsson *et al.*, 1997; Fuquay, 1981; Ronchi *et al.*, 2001) by reducing the appetite, enlarging the energy gap between intake and expenditure through maintenance and milk production (Collier *et al.*, 1992; Moore *et al.*, 2005), and also prolonging the period of negative energy balance. In dairy cow, dry matter intake exhibits a significant decline when maximum THI reach 77 (Johnson *et al.*, 1963), although THI as low as 64 (Igono *et al.*, 1992) can cause also a reduction of the normal feed intake (6.5%; Ominski *et al.*, 2002).

Furthermore, the recovery from the negative effects is not immediate and remains depressed some time after the period of heat stress (Holter *et al.*, 1996; 1997).

In the case of rabbits, the primary effect of thermal stress is a reduction in feed intake (Simplicio *et al.*, 1988; Paci *et al.*, 1993; Morrow-Tesch *et al.*, 1994; Franci *et al.*, 1996; Marai *et al.*, 2001) with also an increase in water consumption (Marai *et al.*, 2001). However, a slight increase (1.8%) of the feed intake in short heat exposure has also been observed, which may be attributed to immediate compensatory growth with higher feed intake that followed the reduction in growth under thermal conditions (Abdel-Kafy *et al.*, 2008).

5. 1. 3. Negative energy balance period (NEB)

Metabolic changes associated with NEB, which is present in the high yielding dairy cow at the post partum period under thermoneutral conditions, are enlarged by summer heat stress conditions (Stott & Wiersma, 1976; Badinga *et al.*, 1985; De Rensis *et al.*, 2002). Heat stress aggravates NEB predominantly by the drop in dry matter intake (Collier *et al.*, 1992; Blackshaw & Blackshaw, 1994), leading to a decrease in plasma concentrations of insulin, glucose and IGF-I (altering follicle development; Jolly *et al.*, 1995; Bucholtz *et al.*, 1996; Rabiee *et al.*, 1997; O'Callagan & Boland, 1999), an increase in prolactin plasma concentrations (inhibiting follicular development; (Abilay *et al.*, 1975; Igono *et al.*, 1987; Ronchi *et al.*, 2001; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003) and non-esterified fatty acid (reducing fertility; Butler, 2001; Lucy *et al.*, 1992; Vanholder *et al.*, 2005; Leroy *et al.*, 2006), which can negatively affect reproduction, as reflected by the reduction in embryo quality following a NEB episode (Leroy *et al.*, 2008).

5. 1. 4. Milk production & Litter size

Lactating dairy cow's productivity declines significantly under heat stress conditions (West, 2003). In fact, milk yield declines when rectal temperature reaches (39°C) (Zimbelman *et al.* 2009; Kadokawa *et al.*, 2012). The estimated milk yield reduction is round 0.32 kg per unit increased in THI (Ingraham *et al.*, 1979), or 1.8 and 1.4 kg for each 0.55°C increase in rectal temperature (Johnson *et al.*, 1963). The same reduction has been described in rabbits. Milk yield in rabbits is significantly lower in summer than in the other seasons (El-Sayiad *et al.*, 1994), being especially lower when temperature reaches 30°C (Szendro *et al.*, 1998). Daily milk yield was found to be lower by nearly 10% during the hot period of the day (Maertens and De Groote, 1990), by 7.7 g when the temperature rise above 20°C (Rafai and Papp, 1984) and by 62.29% in summer (48.8g) than in winter (Ayyat and Marai, 1998).

On the other hand, litter size at birth is also lower during summer and highest during winter (Patial *et al.*, 1991; Ayyat and Marai, 1998; Bassuny, 1999; Habeeb *et al.*, 1999), estimating 5.8 kits in summer and 6.6 kits in winter (a reduction of 14%) and being also reduced at 21 days (Bassuny, 1999) and at weaning (at 28-35 days of age; Ayyat and Marai, 1998; Bassuny, 1999). The number of kits born alive is also lower during May and August (McNitt and Moody, 1990).

5. 1. 5. Oestrus alterations

Heat stress reduces the length (Abilay *et al.*, 1975) and intensity (Gangwar *et al.*, 1965) of oestrus expression (Hansen, 1997b; Nobel *et al.*, 1997), and in addition, increase the duration of anoestrus and silent ovulation (Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1981). It is possible that the major reason is because of the physical lethargy produced by high temperatures, possibly as an adaptative response that limits heat production. Oestrus alterations leads to a reduction in the number of mounts in hot weather compared to cold weather (Pennington *et al.*, 1985). However, some studies pointed that heat stress did not provoke alterations in oestrus expression (Howell *et al.*, 1994; Roth *et al.*, 2000).

5. 1. 6. Conception and pregnancy rate

Climate factors are highly relevant for conception rate, especially during the period 3 days before to 1 day after artificial insemination (AI) in cow (coincident with oocyte maturation and ovulation; Putney *et al.*, 1989b; García-Ispierto *et al.*, 2007). Heat stress at that point has been associated with a decrease in cattle fertility in countries with warm weather (Dutt, 1963; Putney *et al.*, 1989b; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 1999; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b). Moreover, the exposure during the first 3 or 7 days of pregnancy cause a decrease in embryonic viability and development (Dunlap & Vincent, 1973; Putney *et al.*, 1988a), due to the embryo at that point is more sensitive since resistance is adquired as development proceeds (Ealy *et al.*, 1993). Conception rates drops from about 40–60% in cooler months to 10–20% or lower in summer, depending on the severity of the thermal stress (Badinga *et al.*, 1985; Cavestany *et al.*, 1985; Roth *et al.*, 2000; De Rensis *et al.*, 2002; López-Gatiús, 2003). Negative effects seem to appear from 75 THI units, although the effects become more obvious from 80 (Hahn, 1981; García-Ispierto *et al.*, 2007). In terms of temperature, heat stress starts at 25°C (Bitman *et al.*, 1984) but conception rate decreases from 31°C (García-Ispierto *et al.*, 2007), declining 6.9–12.8% for each 0.5°C increase in uterine temperature (Gwazdauskas *et al.* 1973).

Pregnancy rate is also significantly impaired during the warm months (De Rensis *et al.*, 2002) due to the rise in rectal temperatures (Roth *et al.*, 2000). High temperatures increase the number of pregnancy losses that rise from 2.1 to 12.3% for cows that become pregnant during the warm period which contrasts clearly with the cold period. It seems that cool environment preserves gestation, probably as a reflection of cow well-being (Garcia-Ispierto *et al.*, 2006).

In the case of rabbits, conception rate also decreases with heat stress (Ulberg & Burfening, 1967; Marai *et al.*, 2001). Conception rate is reduced if the ambient temperature is high enough to elevate rectal temperature of females by 1-2°C. Particularly, severe sustained heat stress of 35°C reduces the conception rate from 66% in the first parity to 33% in the second parity against 100% in winter (Shafie *et al.*, 1984).

5. 1. 7. Negative effects still in autumn

Traditionally, low summer fertility has been associated mainly with the warm months of the year (June-September; 10-20%). However, fertility remains lower still in autumn (October-November; 30%), although cows are no longer exposed to thermal stress (Ron *et al.*, 1984; Badinga *et al.*, 1985; Cavestany *et al.*, 1985; Hansen, 1997b; Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Roth *et al.*, 2001a; Zeron *et al.*, 2001).

The delayed effect of summer heat stress on autumn fertility is a transient phenomenon; oocyte quality improves gradually towards the end of the autumn (Roth *et al.*, 2001a). For the present, once the pool of ovarian oocytes is damaged by high temperatures, two or four estrous cycles (about 2 months) are needed for recovery after the end of heat stress (Ron *et al.*, 1984; Roth *et al.*, 2001a). The reason is because small antral follicles take about 40–50 days to develop into large preovulatory follicles (Lussier *et al.*, 1987), although the time needed for recovery of quality may depend on the duration and severity of the thermal stress (Roth *et al.*, 2001a). Accordingly, autumn fertility can be enhanced by removal of impaired follicles by frequent follicle aspiration, leading a more rapid emergence of healthy oocytes (Roth *et al.*, 1999; 2001a).

However, the delayed impairment in fertility during autumn can be explained by more other factors than the oocyte itself. Delayed effects are related also with alterations in follicular dynamics and dominance (Badinga *et al.*, 1994; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; Roth *et al.*, 2000), impairments on steroidogenesis (in thecal and granulosa cells; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; Roth *et al.*, 2001b) and cell-cell communications (granulosa-cumulus cells and cumulus-oocyte; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; Ambrose *et al.*, 1999).

5. 1. 8. Hormones

Hot environment causes an endocrine imbalance and finally compromise folliculogenesis in dairy cows (Lucy, 2001; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003) by damaging follicular and luteal cells, reducing steroidogenesis and compromising follicular and oocyte development (Torres-Junior *et al.*, 2008).

Estradiol, Inhibin and Follicular Stimulation Hormone (FSH):

A decrease in plasma estradiol and inhibin concentration is found in heat-stressed cows during the follicular phase (Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1981; Wilson *et al.*, 1998a; b; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995), being more pronounced during the first follicular wave (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995) and even in heated cows in September compared with those heated in July (Badinga *et al.*, 1993). The reason is the extended period of exposure to daily heat stress in late summer (September), which may severely impair follicular function. However, plasma FSH concentrations are higher during the periovulatory period in heat stressed cows; thus, is induced synergically by the low secretion of both estradiol and inhibin, which can not inhibit FSH secretion (Roth *et al.*, 2000; Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000).

Progesterone & Luteinizing Hormone (LH):

The effect of heat stress on plasma progesterone and LH concentration is controversial. Some studies found that heat stress had no effect on progesterone (Wilson *et al.*, 1998b), although, other studies have reported reduced (Wise *et al.*, 1988; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1988; Howell *et al.*, 1994; Jonsson *et al.*, 1997; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1993b), increased (Abilay *et al.*, 1975; Vaught *et al.*, 1977; Trout *et al.*, 1998; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003) or unchanged (Roth *et al.*, 2000; Guzeloglu *et al.*, 2001) concentrations during summer in dairy cows. In the case of LH unchanged (Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1981), decreased (Madan & Johnson, 1973; Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1981; Rosenberg *et al.*, 1982), or increased (Roman-Ponce *et al.*, 1981) levels are also reported. Low concentration of plasma progesterone has consequences for fertility, especially during luteal phase and pre-conception estrous cycle: steroidogenesis alterations in the dominant follicles, abnormal oocyte maturation and endometrial morphology, failure on implantation and early embryonic death (Ahmad *et al.*, 1995; Shaham-Albalancy *et al.*, 1996a; b; Mann *et al.*, 1999).

Prostaglandin & Cortisol:

Heat stress can also affect endometrial prostaglandin secretion (Putney *et al.*, 1989b) leading to premature luteolysis and embryo loss (Vasconcelos *et al.*, 1998). In terms of blood cortisol profile, no alterations by immediate or delayed heat stress have been reported in a study (Torres-Junior *et al.*, 2008).

5. 1. 9. Blood flow redistribution effects on uterine environment and endometrial function

Heat stress leads to a redistribution of blood flow from the visceral organs to the periphery. The resultant decreased perfusion of nutrients and hormones could compromise the ovary blood flow (De Castro & Hansen, 2007), intrauterine environment, endometrial and oviductal function (Gwazdauskas *et al.*, 1975; Roman-Ponce *et al.*, 1978; Hansen & Arechiga, 1999), by a reduction in the production of interferon- γ and an increased production of prostaglandin PGF 2α from the endometrium (altering corpus luteum maintenance; Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000). All these effects lead to altered cellular function, inhibited or altered embryonic development and sometimes have been linked to early embryonic loss and unsuccessful inseminations (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Rivera & Hansen, 2001).

5. 2. Consequences in the male

Normal testicular function is temperature dependant (Harrison & Weiner, 1948; Ivell, 2007). Testes originate within the abdominal cavity and descend into a scrotum where they are appreciably cooler than the body (2-8°C below core body temperature; Setchell, 1978; Waites & Setchell, 1990). The importance of thermoregulation in the testis is illustrated by the fact that slight increases in temperature can disrupt spermatogenesis and ultimately cause problems with fertility (Lue *et al.*, 1999; Paul *et al.*, 2008).

High environmental or local temperatures (cryptorchidism or inflammation; Skinner and Louw, 1966; Mieusset *et al.*, 1987; Mieusset *et al.*, 1992b; Lue *et al.*, 2000; Banks *et al.*, 2005) increase testis temperature. The heat production is lost from the testes and scrotum to the environment by sweat glands from scrotal skin (Setchell & Breed, 2006) and the impact of heat stress will depend on the animal ability to dissipate the heat. In the case of pigs, they have a low capacity for increased sweating when the ambient temperature increases from 23 to 34°C (Stone, B.A. 1981), and rabbits are very susceptible to heat since they have few functional sweat glands (Verga *et al.*, 2007).

The exposure of males to severe heat stress (high THI) adversely affects their reproductive traits (Marai *et al.*, 2002) and takes to subinfertility (McLaren *et al.*, 1994; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Setchell, 1998; Lue *et al.*, 1999) or a total infertility (Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Setchell, 1998; Yaeram *et al.*, 2006). Hence, the effects of heat can be by direct actions on the testis or by indirect effects (cellular changes in the testis), causing disruption of spermatogenesis and infertility in a variety of species: mouse (Hand *et al.*, 1979), rat (Collins & Lacy, 1969), bull (Casady *et al.*, 1953), boar (Wettemann *et al.*, 1976), ram (Mieusset *et al.*, 1991), rabbit (Elnagar, 2010) and human (Baranski, 1993; Mieusset & Bujan, 1995).

5. 2. 1. Rectal and scrotal skin temperature

Animals placed in a hot environment can undergo hyperthermia and rise in rectal temperature if the evaporation system of the scrotal skin surface cannot keep the scrotal skin cool (Wettemann *et al.*, 1976; Egbunike & Dede, 1979; Wettemann & Desjardins, 1979; Wettemann *et al.*, 1979; Stone, 1982; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985; Zhu *et al.*, 2004); so then, the testis warms up (Setchell & Mieusset, 1996). Particularly, increasing environmental temperature from 10 to 30°C elevates body temperature from 39.7 to 40.5°C in rabbits (Johnson *et al.*, 1957). Hence, scrotal skin temperature can rise to values normally found in the abdomen (Stone, 1982; Trudeau & Sanford, 1986) leading to impair normal testicular function (Setchell *et al.*, 1994).

5. 2. 2. Respiratory rate, water consumption and feed intake

Respiratory rate is always increased when animals are submitted to high temperatures as a mechanism to dissipate the heat (rabbit (Shafie *et al.*, 1982; Marai *et al.*, 2002); Johnson *et al.*, 1957), boar (Egbunike & Dede, 1979; Wettemann & Desjardins, 1979; Wettemann *et al.*, 1979; Stone, 1982) and bulls (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985)). Water consumption is also incremented by animals submitted to high temperatures (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985; Marai *et al.*, 2002). However, feed intake is reduced (Marai & Habeeb, 1994; Marai *et al.*, 2002). The decrease in food consumption is due to the impairment of appetite as a result of the peripheral thermal receptors stimulation by the environmental temperature which transmits suppressive nerve impulses to the appetite centre in the hypothalamus.

5. 2. 3. Endocrinology

Testosterone is vital for the initiation of spermatogenesis, as well as for sperm maturation (Sharpe *et al.* 1992). The main physiological function of Leydig cells is testosterone production, which is transiently but

severely reduced by heat stress (Liu and Stocco 1997; Murphy *et al.* 2001), so then, spermatogenesis is impaired (Gwazdauskas, 1984). The effects of high temperatures on plasma testosterone concentrations depend largely on how stressful the environment has been to the animal. Testosterone levels declines some days after heat stress and then serum levels return to near normal values due to an acclimatization process (Rhynes & Ewing, 1973; Wettemann & Desjardins, 1979). Therefore, it seems that heat stress exposure causes a transitory decrease in peripheral testosterone concentrations by suppression of the synchronous diurnal rhythm in plasma testosterone levels (Stone & Seamark, 1984).

5. 2. 4. Libido

High temperatures affect reproductive behaviour in males as it does in females. In fact, it exists a decrease in the male libido due to heat, but animals can mate normally during the cooler part of the day (Winfield *et al.*, 1981). When heat stress gets severe enough, it can cause decreased libido in the bull and a decline in semen quality that persists for about two months after the end of heat stress as a result of the damage to the spermatozoa precursor cells (Hansen, 2005). The same tendency was found in male rabbits (Zeidan *et al.*, 1997; Daader and Seleem, 1999). On the other hand, as described in boars and bulls, libido can also be unaffected keeping the ability to ejaculate (Wettemann *et al.*, 1979) with an increase in the ejaculation time (De Alba, J. & Riera, S. 1966; Egbunike & Dede, 1979).

5. 2. 5. Testis weight

It has been widely reported that one of the more obvious effects of acute or chronic exposure to high scrotal temperatures is a decrease in testes weight (Gasinska & Hill, 1990), which reaches a minimum some days after heat shock and usually returns towards normal values some days after (Setchell & Waites, 1972; McLaren *et al.*, 1994; Sailer *et al.*, 1997; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Rockett *et al.*, 2001). Although, when the heat stress is such severe is difficult to recover it (Sailer *et al.*, 1997). This effect has been described in a wide range of species, such as mice (Sailer *et al.*, 1997; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Rockett *et al.*, 2001), rat (Aktas & Kanter, 2009) or rabbit (Chou *et al.*, 1974). This reduction suggests degeneration in the germinal epithelium and a partial atrophy in the seminiferous tubules (El-Sherry *et al.*, 1980).

5. 2. 6. Histological changes

Histological changes have been observed in testes so early after exposure to heat (Young, 1927). Pachytene spermatocytes (De Vita *et al.*, 1990; Banks *et al.*, 2005; Paul *et al.*, 2008) and early spermatids (Devkota *et al.*, 2010) are the most easily affected cells by heat. In general, heat stress produce a decline in the average number of round spermatids (coincident with a reduction in sperm number and impaired fertility; Wettemann *et al.*, 1976; Wettemann & Desjardins, 1979), degenerative lesions on seminiferous tubules (Rockett *et al.*, 2001; Devkota *et al.*, 2010) with a consequent loss of internal pressure (Devkota *et al.*, 2010) and changes in Sertoli cells (Devkota *et al.*, 2010). The impact of effects on male germinal cells depends on the ability to respond to stress by repairing their DNA and their ability to undergo apoptosis or necrosis (Rockett *et al.*, 2001). This effect has been described in a wide range of species (mice: Sailer *et*

al., 1997; Rockett *et al.*, 2001; hamster: Vigodner *et al.*, 2003; rabbit: Zhang *et al.*, 2002; boar: Wettemann & Desjardins, 1979; Malmgren, L. 1989; bull: Karabinus *et al.*, 1997; Devkota *et al.*, 2010).

5. 2. 7. Ejaculate volume and sperm output

Modifications in the ejaculate volume have been described by some authors in a wide range of species. Rabbits semen volume is seasonally influenced (Roca *et al.*, 2005). Seminal plasma volume and gel were significantly lower in boars (Stone, 1982) and bulls (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985) ejaculates subjected to thermal treatment, although no differences were appreciated by other authors (Johnson & Branton, 1953; McNitt & First, 1970; Wettemann *et al.*, 1976; 1979; Egbunike & Dede, 1979; Malmgren, 1989). Generally, changes in ejaculate volume may be due to a low sperm concentration, a decrease in seminal plasma volume (Macirone and Walton, 1983) or by the hypoactivity of the accessory glands (Zeidan *et al.*, 1997).

Taking into account spermatozoa concentration, season and high temperature effects are inconsistent, although in general, a drastic decrease in sperm output has been described (bull: De Alba & Riera, 1966; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985; boar: Egbunike & Dede, 1979; Wettemann *et al.*, 1979; Trudeau & Sanford, 1986; ram: Mieusset *et al.*, 1992b; mice: Jannes *et al.*, 1998; rabbit: Marai *et al.*, 2002; Roca *et al.*, 2005).

5. 2. 8. Ejaculate proteins and pH

Seminal plasma is a physiological secretion from multiple glands of the male reproductive tract that plays an important role in the final maturation of the spermatozoa through hormonal, enzymatic and surface-modifying events, and as a vehicle for ejaculated spermatozoa (Mann 1978). Seasonality may also change the secretory function of one or more of the accessory glands, influencing the amount of fluid produced and the chemical composition of the seminal plasma (Strzezek *et al.* 2000; Strzezek 2002). According to that, the protein content in the ejaculate tends to be higher during winter (Trudeau & Sanford, 1986), although semen pH values tend to be lower (Trudeau & Sanford, 1986; Cheon *et al.*, 2002).

5. 2. 9. Fertility

Males exposed to heat can produce sperm which do not produce normal offspring in exposed or unexposed females, due to embryo quality is linked to sperm quality (Dutt & Simpson, 1957; Fowler & Dun, 1966; Howarth, B. 1969; Rathore, A.K. 1970; Mieusset *et al.*, 1992b). So, reduced fertility can result from:

- **Failure in fertilization:** ram (Mieusset *et al.*, 1992b), boar (Wettemann & Bazer, 1985), rats (Setchell *et al.*, 1988) and rabbits (Cummins & Glover, 1970).
- **Embryonic death or abnormalities:** developmental competence affected after normal fertilization (mice (Bellvé, 1972; Zhu *et al.*, 2004), bull (Walters *et al.*, 2006), rabbit (Howarth *et al.*, 1965; Burfening, P.J. & Ulberg, L.C. 1968)).
- **Both:** ram (Rathore, 1970; Mieusset *et al.*, 1991; 1992b), boar (Wettemann & Bazer, 1985), mice (Burfening *et al.*, 1970), rat (Setchell *et al.*, 1988).

Hereby, thermal stress leads to low pregnancy rates (Wettemann et al, 1976; 1979), sperm production with low motility and low ability to attach and penetrate the zona pellucida of the oocyte (low polyspermy; Hendricks *et al.*, 2009), producing embryos with delayed or reduced pronuclear formation (Walters *et al.*, 2006), a reduction in the ability to cleavage and to become blastocysts (Walters *et al.*, 2004; 2005), an increase in apoptosis (Walters *et al.*, 2005) and a decrease in embryo survival (Wettemann et al, 1976; Stone, 1982).

6. CONSEQUENCES IN GAMETES WHEN HEAT STRESS CANNOT BE COUNTERACT

Oxidative insults occur to cells *in vivo* and *in vitro* from exposure to free radicals generated by exogenous agents (i.e., radiation, chemicals, hyperoxia or heat) and endogenous processes such as normal cellular metabolism. Under extreme oxidative conditions cellular injury and death may occur, especially if the antioxidant protective mechanisms of cells are compromised (Chow, 1979; Halliwell *et al.*, 1992).

In the last decade, considerable efforts have been dedicated to shedding light on the heat stress-induced impairment of processes in the reproductive system. *In vivo* and *in vitro* studies are among the means of achieving improved understanding of mechanisms by which thermal stress negatively influences fertility (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000). However, *in vivo* studies do not allow effective differentiation between direct effects of elevated temperature on the developmental competence of gametes. For that reason, *in vitro* studies have proven beneficial to identify it.

6. 1. CONSEQUENCES IN THE FEMALE GAMETE

6. 1. 1. Oocyte maturation

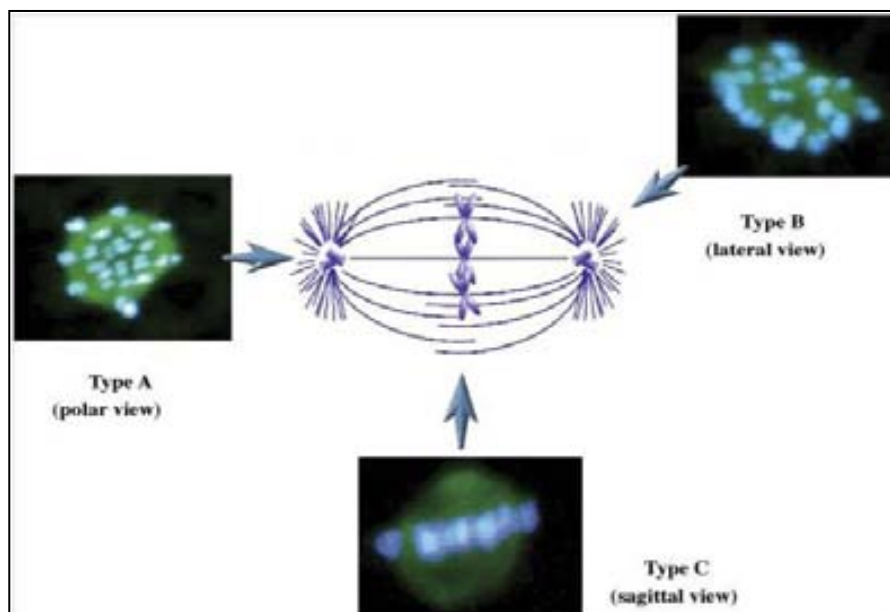
Oocyte enclosed in the follicle needs to undergo maturation to become able to support successful fertilization and embryo development (acquisition of developmental competence; Hyttel *et al.*, 1997; Mermillod *et al.*, 1999; Trounson *et al.*, 2001; Sutton *et al.*, 2003). The process is coincident with the expression of oestrus in the cow. This capacity to sustain early development is intrinsically linked to the process of folliculogenesis. In fact, the follicular environment maintains oocytes in an arrested state of meiosis, at the germinal vesicle (GV) stage (Sutton *et al.*, 2003).

Oocyte maturation involves both the nuclear and cytoplasmic events. While nuclear maturation includes the resumption of the first meiotic division and the progression of meiosis to the metaphase II stage (MII), with a correct dynamics of chromosome separation; cytoplasmic maturation includes a serie of processes as redistribution of cytoplasmic organelles and the storage of mRNA, proteins, and transcription factors, that are necessary for the oocyte to acquire the capacity to support male pronucleus formation, monospermic fertilization, and early embryonic development (Eppig *et al.*, 1996; Meirelles *et al.*, 2004).

Nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation are interlinked events that occur simultaneously at determined times, even though the molecular programming of the cytoplasm may have already started during the phase of oocyte growth. Progression to MII is often completed by 16 to 22h after resumption of meiosis, whereas translocation of cortical granules is noted between 20 to 30h (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997).

Marked changes in the nucleus are important in reducing number of maternal copies of chromosomes. Nuclear maturation involves the breakdown of the germinal vesicle (GVBD; oocyte becomes transcriptionally quiescent; Hyttel *et al.*, 1997), chromosome condensation and segregation, completion of meiosis I (MI), extrusion of the first polar body, and arrest at MII (Roth & Hansen, 2005), a progress induced by the pre-ovulatory gonadotrophic surge (Sutton *et al.*, 2003). Chromosomes are distributed in relation with the microtubules within the meiotic spindle during all nuclear stages (from MI to MII) and also in the first polar body. For oocytes freshly matured, the meiotic spindles are well organized characterized by a short wide, barrel-shaped structure with its width greater than its length (Ju *et al.*, 2005) with chromosomes aligned along the midline (Roth & Hansen, 2005) (Figure 3).

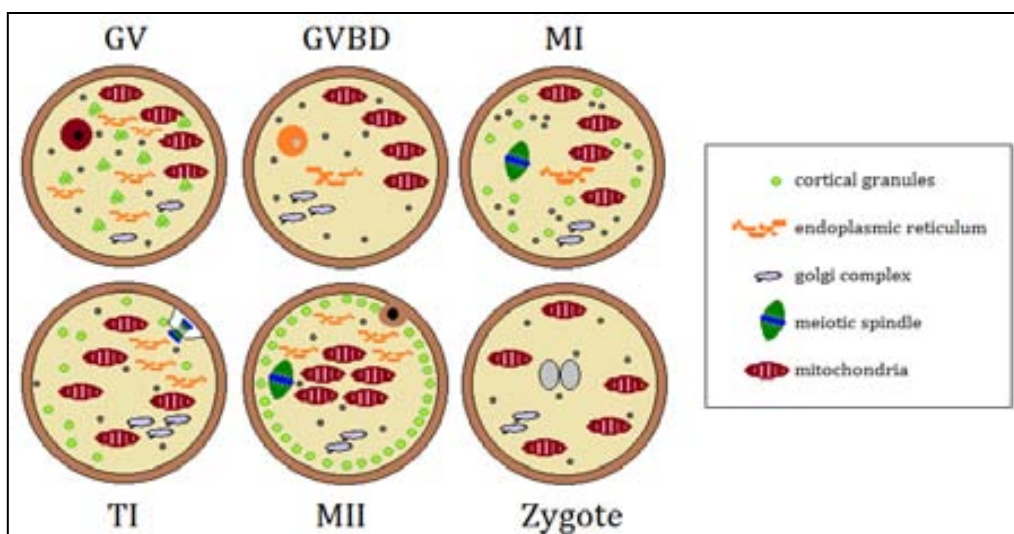
Figure 3. Classification of spindle views in mature bovine oocytes during immunocytochemical examination. Types A and C show the spindle from the polar (top) and sagittal directions, respectively. Type B represents a lateral view (angle, 30–45°, Ju *et al.*, 2005).



On the other hand, the cytoplasmic maturation process can be divided into three main events (Ferreira *et al.*, 2009): (i) redistribution of cytoplasmic organelles, (ii) dynamics of the cytoskeleton and (iii) molecular maturation.

- **Redistribution of cytoplasmic organelles (Figure 4)** through the cytoskeleton network in which the organelles encased by a membrane move and occupy defined positions (Albertini, 1992; Hosoe & Shioya, 1997):
 - Mitochondria: synthesizes the ATP necessary for the synthesis of proteins which supports the completion of subsequent maturation processes and embryo development (Krisher & Bavister, 1998; Stojkovic *et al.*, 2001). The mitochondria moves from a more peripheral position to a more disperse distribution throughout the cytoplasm after the extrusion of the polar body, occupying a central position in the cell (Hyttel *et al.*, 1986; 1997).
 - Cortical granules (CG): exclusively found in oocytes, are derived from the Golgi complex (Ducibella *et al.*, 1994; Hoodbhoy & Talbot, 1994; Wessel *et al.*, 2001) and formed by proteins, structural molecules, enzymes, and glycosaminoglycans. CG are distributed in clusters throughout the cytoplasm of oocytes in the GV stage (Ducibella *et al.*, 1994; Hoodbhoy & Talbot, 1994; Hosoe & Shioya, 1997). At the end of the maturation period (MII stage) the granules are distributed throughout the inner surface close to the plasma membrane (Ducibella *et al.*, 1994; Hoodbhoy & Talbot, 1994; Conner *et al.*, 1997), waiting for the spermatozoon entry and egg activation. Once the spermatozoon enters, the polyspermy is prevented by the exocytosis of cortical granules (cortical reaction; Hosoe & Shioya, 1997) to the perivitelline space as a response to elevated cytoplasmic calcium upon fertilization (Schuel, 1985), modifying the zona pellucida (Yanagimachi, 1994).

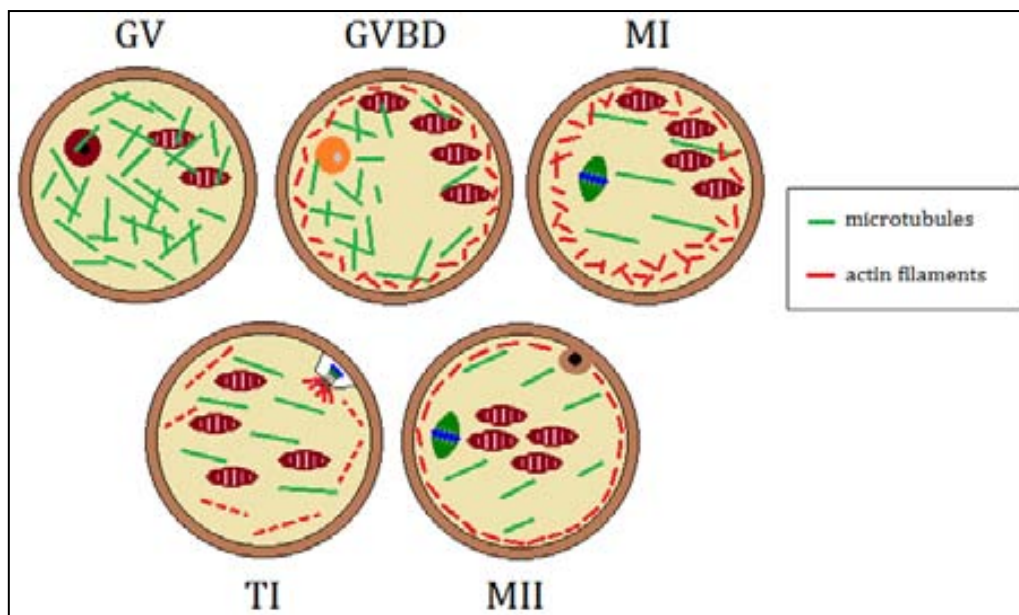
Figure 4. Distribution of cytoplasmic organelles during maturation and bovine zygote formation. Nuclear maturation progression and cytoplasmic organelle movement from the immature stage of germinal vesicle to the mature stage of metaphase II and zygote formation (modified from Ferreira *et al.*, 2009).



▪ **Dynamics of the cytoskeleton (Figure 5):**

- Microtubules: appears close to the condensed chromatin during GVBD. However, during MI they are forming the meiotic spindle and the metaphase plate in which the chromosomes are arranged in an equatorial manner (Albertini, 1992; Stojkovic *et al.*, 2001). At that stage the metaphase plate is proportionally larger than that formed in MII and the spindle is barrel-shaped and its poles are flattened (Li *et al.*, 2005). During Anaphase I (AI) chromosomes start to separate and therefore a large portion of microtubules placed between the two segregating chromosome sets forming a cone-like triangular structure having a wider and a more tapered shape during Telophase I (TI). The wider portion of the microtubules is linked to the chromosome set destined for extrusion out of the cell, thus forming the first polar body. The tapered portion is associated with the set that will remain in the oocyte and enter MII, again forming the metaphase plate (Li *et al.*, 2005). Finally, during MII the interkinesis takes place as a rapid chromatin condensation process with the disappearance of the microtubules of the meiotic spindle (Fan & Sun, 2004). The metaphase plate reappears soon after this event, although is smaller than in MI by the reduction of chromosome number to half the initial amount (Li *et al.*, 2005).

Figure 5. Dynamics of cytoskeleton filaments during cytoplasmic and nuclear maturation of bovine oocytes (modified from Ferreira *et al.*, 2009).



- Actin filaments: distributed in the cortical area below the oolema (Li *et al.*, 2005) during the transition to AI but are absent among the microtubules, although a relationship exists among them since chromosomes movements depends on processes mediated by actin filaments (Kim *et al.*, 2000; Sun & Schatten, 2006). During AI the spindle elongates and a large quantity of actin filaments can be observed around the chromosomes (Li *et al.*, 2005), and associated to chromosomes and microtubules in TI. Finally, during MII the interkinesis takes place as a rapid chromatin condensation process with the disappearance of the microfilaments (Fan & Sun, 2004).
- **Molecular maturation:** protein synthesis is indispensable for oocyte maturation and also for zygote formation and early embryogenesis which is synthesized by the transcription of ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes (Cetica *et al.*, 2001; Sirard *et al.*, 2006). During metaphase I protein synthesis in the oocyte is approximately three times greater than that during the GVBD stage. Although, when the cell reaches MII the oocyte exhibits basal levels of mRNA translation (Tomek *et al.*, 2002).

6. 1. 2. Heat stress effects

Cortical granule exocytosis, resumption of meiosis and pronuclear development are considered to be temperature dependent, which their best performance is likely to occur at the 39°C core body temperature of the bovine (Sugiyama *et al.*, 2007). However, exposing the follicle-enclosed oocyte at the germinal vesicle (GV)-stage to elevated temperatures interferes with oocyte maturation and impairs its ability to become fertilized and form a viable embryo. The effect of maternal hyperthermia on the oocyte may be direct or mediated through the changes in the follicular environment by alterations in follicular fluid content (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997) or in the surrounding follicular cells (Shimizu *et al.*, 2005). One of the most sensitive stages of cattle oocytes to the elevation of ambient temperature is at the pre-ovulatory stage (Ingraham *et al.*, 1976), as has also been observed in pigs (Tseng, 2004) and sheep (Dutt, 1961). Furthermore, early mammal embryos are also susceptible to damage from ROS produced by elevated temperatures (Johnson & Nasr-Esfahani, 1994).

Heat stress directly affects the dominant follicle and its ability to exert dominance, altering also the oocyte enclosed in (Cavestany *et al.*, 1985; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b). It is noteworthy that one of the major causes of the decline in summer female fertility is due to perturbation in oocyte physiology that results in oocytes of reduced competence to develop embryo (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Roth & Hansen, 2004). Although, embryo development are also directly altered by high temperatures, as described by Putney *et al.* (1989a; b). All the effects depend on the duration and severity of heat stress. These mechanisms ultimately lead to an arrest of the cell cycle, growth and proliferation (Lindquist, 1986; Yost & Lindquist, 1986) and may result in cell death.

Heat stress effects on ovarian follicles

Follicle environment is essential for oocyte growth and development, and it is absolutely dependent on the nurturing capacity of the follicle, in particular by the granulosa cells. Communication between the germ cell and somatic cell compartments of the follicle is essential for normal oogenesis and folliculogenesis (Dong *et al.*, 1996; Simon *et al.*, 1997; Albertini *et al.*, 2001) mainly done by paracrine (Eppig, 2001) and gap-junctional signalling (Eppig, 1991). Usually, the pre-ovulatory follicles are approximately $1.5 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ cooler than the ovarian stroma (pig: Hunter *et al.*, 1997; 2000; human: Grinsted *et al.*, 1985; cow: Grøndahl *et al.*, 1996). However, no differences in temperature were observed between the stromal tissue and small antral follicles (Grøndahl *et al.*, 1996; Hunter *et al.*, 1997).

Hyperthermia can directly disrupt follicular function with adverse carry-over effects on its competence (Roth *et al.*, 2000) by altering the follicle or by the metabolic and hormone changes produced by heat stress. All the alterations are reflected in the follicular fluid of the dominant follicle (Shehab-El-Deen *et al.*, 2010) and hence directly affect the developmental capacity of the enclosed oocyte (Leroy *et al.*, 2005) and granulosa cells (Vanholder *et al.*, 2005), increasing apoptosis rate and decreasing embryonic development (Aroyo *et al.*, 2007). However, not only the antral follicles emerged in the follicular wave are affected by high temperatures, also the ovarian pool of small antral follicles (Roth *et al.*, 2000) which extends the negative heat stress effects through autumn.

The heat stress effects on follicle impair the follicle dynamics (Badinga *et al.*, 1993) and developmental competence (Rocha *et al.*, 1998; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b). Follicular growth can be suppressed (Delasota *et al.*, 1993; Gong, 2002) by the compromise of plasma hormone levels (LH, FSH, inhibin, estradiol, IGF-I; Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003). On the other hand, dominance is also affected by high temperatures (Badinga *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995; Roth *et al.*, 2000) due to the decrease in size of the first-wave of dominant follicles and the earlier emergence of the second-wave of dominant preovulatory follicle (Badinga *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995; Roth *et al.*, 2000). Hence, the population of subordinate follicles increases (Badinga *et al.*, 1993) resulting in the ovulation of an aged follicle (Mihm *et al.*, 1999), in follicular co-dominance (Sartori *et al.*, 2004), anovulation or double ovulation (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; López-Gatiús *et al.*, 2005). These alterations have also potentially adverse effects on the quality of oocytes (Badinga *et al.*, 1993; Roth *et al.*, 2001a; b) and follicular steroidogenesis (Roth *et al.*, 2001a; b; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b).

Heat stress effects on steroidogenesis

Impaired dominant follicle during heat stress also compromise follicle steroidogenic capacity (Faust *et al.*, 1988; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997) and gonadotropin secretion (Gilad *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; Roth *et al.*, 2000). The altered metabolic conditions in the follicular fluid

are known to directly affect granulosa cell growth and decrease steroidogenic capacity (Vanholder *et al.*, 2005) which involve:

- Lower aromatase activity and viability of the granulosa cells (60% of its winter value; Badinga *et al.*, 1993).
- Lower estradiol concentration (50% of that in winter; Badinga *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997) and higher progesterone (Roth *et al.*, 2001b) in the follicular fluid of dominant follicles (Badinga *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997) due primarily to a drastic reduction of androstenedione production by theca cells during summer (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; Roth *et al.*, 2001b).

Hence, elevated temperature causes follicular cells to luteinize prematurely, accompanied by premature meiotic maturation of the oocyte (Mihm *et al.*, 1999), subsequent embryonic development is retarded (Ahmad *et al.*, 1995) and fertility is dramatically compromised (Stock & Fortune, 1993; Mihm *et al.*, 1994). In fact, the steroidogenic effects are lasted until autumn (Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; Roth *et al.*, 2000; Roth & Hansen, 2004). However, the extent of the heat stress effects is transient and a spontaneous improvement of fertility take place throughout autumn and early winter (Zeron *et al.*, 2001).

Heat stress effects on oocyte (Figure 6)

Although, it is suggested that the recent zygote is most susceptible to maternal heat stress (Dutt, 1961; Sugiyama *et al.*, 2007), the preovulatory bovine oocyte is very sensitive to elevated ambient temperatures (Ingraham *et al.*, 1976; Putney *et al.*, 1988a). Heat stress during the period of follicular growth has the potential to compromise the oocyte, being temperature (Edwards & Hansen, 1996) and duration dependent (Payton *et al.*, 2004). Oocyte quality is then compromised either because of direct actions of elevated temperature on the oocyte or because of alterations in follicular function (Hansen & Arechiga, 1999). After the harmful effects of heat stress it is required a period of two to three estrous cycles for recovery from heat damage and the appearance of competent oocytes (Roth *et al.*, 2001a).

The viability of bovine oocytes is lower in warm versus cold seasons (Monty & Racowsky, 1987; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b), being those oocytes obtained in summer morphologically abnormal displaying a degenerated dark ooplasm, incompletely filled oolemic cavity and dispersed cumulus-cells (Rocha *et al.*, 1998). Furthermore, heat-stress increases the proportion of denuded and/or degenerated cumulus-oocyte complexes (COCs; Torres-Junior *et al.*, 2008).

Taking into account that direct effects on oocyte cannot be studied *in vivo*, the development of *in vitro* studies is indicated, where oocytes are matured 24-48h until reach MII. The use of *in vitro* studies to study heat shock effects facilitates direct determination with the absence of indirect effects on follicles (Gilad *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; 2000) or the endometrium (Putney *et al.*, 1988b). The temperatures applied on *in vitro* maturation (IVM) process are based on

visceral temperature, being higher than temperatures within the ovary (Grøndahl *et al.*, 1996; Hunter *et al.*, 1997; 2000). However, this variation in temperature did not alter the developmental rates of bovine oocytes (Shi *et al.*, 1998).

A variety of studies have reported that heat shock impairs both nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation events, such as translocation of cortical granules to the oolemma (Payton *et al.*, 2004), cytoskeleton rearrangement (Roth & Hansen, 2005) and spindle formation (Ju *et al.*, 2005; Roth & Hansen, 2005). As observed during *in vitro* studies, oxidative stress during meiotic maturation may also induce chromosomal errors that prove undetectable in the living oocytes and whose developmental consequences may become manifest after fertilization (Tarín *et al.*, 1996), compromising embryo development. Therefore, continued efforts to identify ovum components perturbed after direct application of heat stress are important, because the oocyte contributes greater than 99% of cytoplasm and half the genetic material to the resulting embryo after fertilization (Schrock *et al.*, 2007).

Exposure of the oocyte to heat stress at the germinal vesicle stage (Payton *et al.*, 2004) or during early stages of maturation (Edwards & Hansen, 1997; Roth & Hansen, 2004) results in deleterious effects on the internal organelles, being reduced the oocyte ability for fertilization and further embryonic development. One of the major damages observed in bovine oocytes in response to heat stress conditions are cytoskeleton defects (Gallicano, 2001; Figure 5). The cytoskeleton is mainly composed by microtubuli and microfilaments, and their structure is altered in mature bovine oocytes and two-cell bovine embryos exposed to 41-41.5°C (Tseng *et al.*, 2004). Mild heat stress leads to the reorganization of actin filaments into stress fibers, while severe heat stress results in the aggregation of vimentin or other filament-forming proteins, leading to the collapse of intermediary, actin, and tubulin networks (Welch & Suhan, 1985; Toivola *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, the loss of the correct localization of organelles and a breakdown of intracellular transport processes are observed. The Golgi system and the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) become fragmented under stress conditions and the number of mitochondria and lysosomes decreases (Welch & Suhan, 1985), which lead to a dramatic drop in ATP levels during heat stress (Patriarca & Maresca, 1990). Accordingly, many intracellular processes which are relying on these organelles are negatively affected.

- **Nuclear maturation:** The exposure of germinal vesicle oocytes to heat stress reduce the ability of the oocyte to reach the MII stage (Payton *et al.*, 2004). Roth and Hansen (2005) reported a higher proportion of bovine oocytes matured at 38.5°C reaching MII (characterized by a metaphase plate and formation of the first polar body) than oocytes matured at 40 and 41°C. Since heat shock reduce the proportion of oocytes that reached MII, there was a corresponding increase in the proportion of heat-shocked oocytes at other stages (MI, AI and TI), in fact, more of the arrested oocytes were at MI for oocytes matured at 41°C (Roth & Hansen, 2005).

It is known that the meiotic spindle microtubules are susceptible to temperature changes (Aman & Parks, 1994) by affecting the polymerization or depolymerization of meiotic spindle microtubules (Ju *et al.*, 2005). Consequently, the dispersion and segregation of the chromosomes is altered and ultimately can cause chromosomal imbalance and cell death (Ju *et al.*, 2005). The altered or elongated spindle is the predominant pattern on heat-stressed oocytes. Abnormal spindles are characterized by being wider than length (width < length), often with reduced size or aberrant microtubules (Ju *et al.*, 2005) and some unaligned chromosomes, or amorphous shape and a large degree of disorganization of chromosomal alignment (Roth & Hansen, 2005). A decrease in spindle sizes is generally observed as the duration of heat shock increases (Ju *et al.*, 2005), being reduced in all dimensions (Ju & Tseng, 2004; Ju *et al.*, 2005). In fact, chromatin starts to aggregate during heat shock, which appears to be correlated with depolymerization of spindle microtubules. These alterations in the spindle microtubules may contribute to altered chromosome separation during fertilization and subsequent embryonic division (Streffer, 1984). These deleterious effects provided a plausible explanation for the low developmental competence observed in heat-stressed bovine oocytes, as well as the low conception rates during warm season (Ju *et al.*, 2005).

- **Cytoplasmic maturation:** It has been described that heat stress during maturation affects mainly the cytoplasm rather than the nuclear components of the oocyte, may be due to cytoplasmic maturation is better accomplished *in vivo* than *in vitro* (Wang *et al.*, 2008). Hence, oocyte cytoplasmic maturation is less tolerant to heat stress than nuclear maturation (Wang *et al.*, 2008) since it is impaired at 40°C and nuclear maturation is not affected until 40.7°C.

Cytoplasmic maturation is completed when cortical granules migrate from the Golgi apparatus through the oolemma to the vitelline surface, assuming a position 0.4–0.6 µm below the plasma membrane (Ducibella & Buetow, 1994). The translocation of cortical granules to the oolemma after resumption of meiosis occurs via actin microfilaments (Wessel *et al.*, 2002) which are also affected by high temperatures.

The effect of heat stress on migration of cortical granules is controversial. While an incomplete migration of cortical granules has been described in mouse (Wang *et al.*, 2008), a pre-mature translocation has been described in bovine oocytes (Payton *et al.*, 2004). The incomplete migration of cortical granules in heat stressed oocytes could have been by alterations in microfilament structure (Ju & Tseng, 2004; Rivera *et al.*, 2004). In those cases the peri-cellular actin ring and trans-zonal actin processes are generally absent for heat-stressed oocytes (Roth & Hansen, 2005). Whereas, the pre-mature migration can be explained since heat stress seems to induce premature aging of oocytes (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005; Schrock *et al.*, 2007).

On the other hand, mitochondrial congregation around the spindle in the oocyte (Ju & Tseng, 2004; Ju *et al.*, 2005; Roth & Hansen, 2005) and membrane potential (Soto & Smith, 2009) is also affected by high temperatures. It is suggested that the incomplete congregation of mitochondrial distribution observed in the heat-stressed oocytes could have resulted from a poor mediation of mitochondrial translocation by the microtubules (Ju & Tseng, 2004; Ju *et al.*, 2005; Roth & Hansen, 2005).

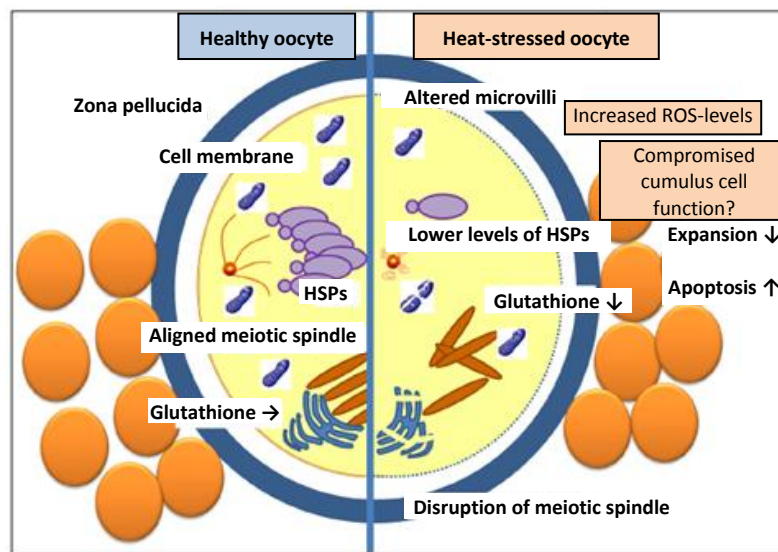
- **Molecular maturation:** Although studies on molecular events occurring during oocyte maturation under heat stress are scarce, it appeared that protein synthesis is affected by 30 to 50% in heat-stressed oocytes, as reported in mice (Curci *et al.*, 1987) and cattle (Edwards & Hansen, 1996; 1997).
- **Apoptosis:** When heat shock takes place during oocyte maturation, apoptosis rate increases (Ju & Tseng, 2004; Roth & Hansen, 2004; 2005; Tseng *et al.*, 2006;), leading to apoptosis in the oocyte (Roth & Hansen, 2004) and cumulus cells, reducing their expansion and associated with reduced developmental competence (Arav & Roth, 2008). Apoptosis events mainly occur by activation of the sphingomyelin pathway, generating the second messenger ceramide (Mathias *et al.*, 1998). Ceramide, in turn, may regulate apoptosis via different signaling cascades (Bcl-2, apoptotic protease-activating factor-1 (Apaf-1), family of cysteine-aspartic acid-specific proteases (caspases)). According to that, heat-stressed oocytes show a higher caspase (Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002; Roth & Hansen, 2004) activity compared with freshly oocytes, characterized also by expanded cytoplasm with a small perivitelline space (Roth & Hansen, 2004).

However, the fact that only a fraction of oocytes exposed to heat stress experienced apoptotic changes points out that some oocytes are better equipped to survive to cellular stress. In accordance, cumulus cells are found to have a critical role in protecting porcine oocytes against oxidative stress-induced apoptosis (Tatemoto *et al.*, 2000) and provide thermoprotection to bovine oocytes (Edwards & Hansen, 1996). Another possibility is that oocytes differ in amounts of HSP70, although oocytes cannot synthesize increased amounts of HSP70 in response to heat shock (Edwards & Hansen, 1996; Edwards *et al.*, 1997).

- **Aging:** Previous studies have demonstrated that an increase in temperature may modify the kinetics of maturation (Payton *et al.*, 2003). It has been described that heat-stressed oocytes mature faster than controls (Edwards *et al.*, 2005), inducing a premature aging of the oocytes which have reduced developmental competence (Fissore *et al.*, 2002) as in heat-stressed (Edwards & Hansen, 1996; 1997; Lawrence *et al.*, 2004) oocytes, reducing its fertile lifespan. A premature CG-exocytosis prior to fertilization was reported in early studies and was suggested to be responsible for the enlargement of perivitelline space and altered properties of the zona pellucida (Okada *et al.*, 1993). Taking together, altered kinetics within the ooplasm (premature or accelerated translocation of the cortical granules to the oolemma)

and possible increases in free radical production suggest that a major effect of heat stress may be to “age” the oocyte.

Figure 6. Effects of heat stress on the organization of the oocyte at the cellular level (Shehab-el-deen, 2011). Left: an unstressed oocyte, right: oocyte under heat stress. Heat stress leads to damage to the cytoskeleton and as such to poor alignment of the chromosomes (brown filaments). Organelles like the golgi and the endoplasmic reticulum (blue) become fragmented and disassemble. The number and integrity of mitochondria (dark blue) decreases. The synthesis of heat shock proteins (HSPs) decreases (purple). Also, there are changes in the membrane morphology, aggregation of membrane proteins, and an increase in membrane fluidity. Together, all these effects stop cell growth and lead to cell-cycle arrest.



- **Membrane alterations:** Seasonal variations in membrane composition have been reported (Zeron *et al.*, 2001). Oocyte membrane is composed by more saturated fatty acids during the warm season than during the cold season of the year, composed mainly by mono- and polyunsaturated fatty acids (i.e. palmitic acid, oleic acid). These alterations in membrane composition are associated with a decrease in oocyte viability and developmental competence.

There is evidence that heat stress can alter oocyte phospholipid composition (Zeron *et al.*, 2001) by lipid peroxidation and calcium oscillations (Takahashi *et al.*, 2003). In accordance, zona pellucida structure and the microvillus pattern of the oolemma are affected (Ju *et al.*, 1999). The changes that can be observed in membrane morphology are: (i) alteration in the protein:lipid ratio, and (ii) an increased fluidity of membranes (Vigh *et al.*, 2007). These changes led to an increase in membrane permeability, a drop in cytosolic pH and changes in ion homeostasis (Piper *et al.*, 2003). However, it has also been described that heat stress does not compromise membrane integrity (Payton *et al.*, 2003; Lawrence *et al.*, 2004).

- **Sperm-egg fusion:** Hirao and Yanagimachi (1978) reported negative effects on sperm–egg fusion and on post-fusion events because of high ambient temperatures. These results imply that fertilization of heat-stressed oocytes is reduced. However, the observed effects conflict with the fact that it has been also described an increase in polyspermy rate by Ju *et al.* (2005).
- **Development alterations:** Taken together, these negative effects by high temperatures suggest perturbations occurring in the ooplasm, nucleus, or cumulus cells by heat may compromise continued development of the bovine oocyte (Edwards *et al.*, 2005). Heat shock during the onset of oestrus and insemination (Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Putney *et al.*, 1989a), or during IVM, reduces developmental competence (Roth & Hansen, 2005; Roth, 2008) as determined by a reduction in cleavage rate (Roth & Hansen, 2004; 2005; Shimizu *et al.*, 2005) and in the percentage of oocytes and cleaved embryos that develop into blastocysts (Edwards *et al.*, 1997; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b; Roth & Hansen, 2004; Payton *et al.*, 2004; Tseng *et al.*, 2006), with an increased proportion of abnormal and retarded embryos (Putney *et al.*, 1989a; Ealy *et al.*, 1993). Blastocyst quality is also decreased by a reduction of total cell number (Sakatani *et al.*, 2004; Matsuzuka *et al.*, 2005). It is consistent with the fact that oocytes harvested from follicles during summer have reduced ability to develop to the blastocyst stage after *in vitro* fertilization than oocytes harvested during winter (Rocha *et al.*, 1998; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002). In addition, it is a time dependant process. The oocyte exposition to high temperatures have more pronounced effects on subsequent blastocyst development after fertilization during the first half than during the last 12h of maturation (Edwards *et al.*, 2005; Schrock *et al.*, 2007).

Heat stress effects on cumulus cells

Cumulus cells have a close connection with oocytes during the course of maturation (Eppig, 1982; Buccione *et al.*, 1990) through gap junctions (Moor *et al.*, 1980), which facilitates the transfer of nutrients and molecular signals between oocytes and cumulus cells (Warnes *et al.*, 1977). Gonadotropins, steroids, and other factors from the follicle cells also interact with oocytes to provide essential support for *in vivo* maturation of oocytes (Warnes *et al.*, 1977).

It is generally accepted that cumulus cells support the maturation of oocytes to the MII stage and greatly enhance cytoplasmic maturation (Tanghe *et al.*, 2002), which is responsible for the capacity to undergo normal fertilization and subsequent embryonic development (Tatemoto *et al.*, 2000). Around meiotic resumption, cumulus cells begin to withdraw from the oocyte and there is almost complete loss of gap-junctional communication by the time oocytes reach MI due to a considerable extracellular production of hyaluronic acid by cumulus cells that causes the dispersion of cumulus cells or cumulus expansion (Chen *et al.*, 1990).

However, cumulus cells play also an important role protecting oocytes against irremediable cell damage encompassed by oxidative stress during oocyte maturation, by increasing glutathione content in the oocyte (Tatemoto *et al.*, 2000). The level of antioxidants in the oocyte may be important for the defense against heat stress since it has been shown that addition of an antioxidant (as retinol) could prevent heat-induced reductions in blastocyst development (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004).

During heat stress the surrounding cumulus cells might be affected. Certainly, some of the negative effects of heat stress in reducing ovum development or the ability for fertilization (Zhang *et al.*, 1995) may be mediated through cumulus. Prolonged exposure to heat stress reduces hyaluronic acid production and cumulus cell expansion (Lenz *et al.*, 1983), and also increases DNA damage (Yuan *et al.*, 2008).

Heat stress effects on embryo

Preimplantational embryo development involves processes as cell proliferation, differentiation, and death; all of them tightly regulated by signalling between the embryo and the maternal environment (Ozawa *et al.*, 2002; Matsuzuka *et al.*, 2005). Changes in its environment can affect the embryo, especially during the first cleavage divisions, when most of the embryonic genome is still inactive (Memili & First, 2000) and when systems for regulating osmotic balance are not completely functional (Lane, 2001), making embryos particularly sensitive to certain forms of stress (as heat stress or fever; Ozawa *et al.*, 2002; Sartori *et al.*, 2002). Hence, a rise in body temperature above its regulated set point can compromise the viability of an early developing embryo (Hansen, 2009).

It has been reported that high ambient temperatures between the onset of oestrus (day 1) to the seventh day after oestrus increase the number of abnormal and retarded embryos, and also embryo mortality (Edwards *et al.*, 2001), in artificially inseminated superovulated heifers (Putney *et al.*, 1988a; 1989a). It is a common phenomenon reported in a wide range of species such as bovine (Ingraham & Wager, 1971), ovine (Woody & Ulberg, 1964), porcine (Wildt *et al.*, 1975), rodents (Ozawa *et al.*, 2002). The susceptibility to heat stress increases at the same time that production, so, the harmful effects are more pronounced in dairy cows of high milk production (Sartori *et al.*, 2002).

During the maternal hyperthermia, an increase in ROS concentrations take place coincident with a reduction in antioxidant molecules in embryos (Ozawa *et al.*, 2002). Furthermore, ambient temperature can cause modifications in the physical and chemical biomembrane properties (Zeron *et al.*, 2001), although no alterations have been found in other studies (Edwards & Hansen, 1997). On the other hand, the harmful effects due to heat stress include a decrease in development (Arechiga *et al.*, 1995; Edwards & Hansen, 1997; Rivera & Hansen, 2001) and protein synthesis (Edwards *et al.*, 1995), resulting in a reduced embryo survival rate (Dutt, 1963; Putney *et al.*, 1988a; Ealy *et al.*, 1993). All these effects have been constated by *in vitro* studies,

were oocytes submitted to high temperatures during oocyte maturation showed a reduced cleavage rate and number of embryos which develop to blastocyst stage (Guérin *et al.*, 2001; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b; Roth & Hansen, 2004). On the other hand, embryos submitted to high temperatures also show a reduction in the embryo development to blastocyst stage (Edwards & Hansen, 1997), a decrease in the total number of cells per embryo and an increase in DNA alterations, apoptosis rate (Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002; Matsuzuka *et al.*, 2005) and embryo mortality (Ryan *et al.*, 1992; Ozawa *et al.*, 2002), which tend to be more harmful as the severity of heat stress increase, being more vulnerable male than female embryos (James, 1998).

However, effects of heat stress on embryonic survival decrease as embryos proceed through development (Hansen & Arechiga, 1999). This has been shown *in vivo* in sheep (Dutt, 1963), pigs (Tompkins *et al.*, 1967), cattle (Putney *et al.*, 1988a) and rabbits (Wolfenson & Blüm, 1988), and also *in vitro* for cattle (Ealy *et al.*, 1995; Edwards & Hansen, 1997; Ju *et al.*, 1999). The fact that the deleterious effects of maternal heat stress decline as pregnancy proceeds (Ealy *et al.*, 1993) may reflect the acquisition of thermal resistance by the preimplantation embryo as it progresses from the zygote to blastocyst (Edwards & Hansen, 1997). These results suggest that the embryo acquires thermotolerance during development and fertility can be improved during periods of heat stress if cooling is provided for a limited period when embryos are most sensitive to thermal stress (Ealy *et al.*, 1993). In fact, the effects are more severe when high temperatures are applied during *in vitro* fertilization than during *in vitro* maturation (Sugiyama *et al.*, 2007). These results indicate that the oocyte and early embryo undergo a biphasic developmental pattern of resistance to heat shock, with fertilization and cleavage to the two-cell stage being associated with an increase in thermal sensitivity (Edwards & Hansen, 1997). This is followed by morula stage with the restoration of resistance to elevated temperatures. Thus, the embryo acquires one or more thermoprotective responses as embryonic development proceeds. One of the processes that may be involved in developmental acquisition of resistance to heat shock may be stress-induced apoptosis (Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002).

Possible explanations why the susceptibility to heat stress effects varies upon development are:

- **Cumulus cells:** may provide protection to the oocyte from elevated temperatures (Edwards & Hansen, 1996). Their loss following fertilization and cleavage may increase thermal sensitivity of two-cell embryos (Chian & Sirard, 1995; Edwards & Hansen, 1996).
- **Increase cell number:** allows a larger embryo survive to the loss of a fraction of its cells.
- **Adquisition of biochemical mechanisms for thermoprotection:** the increase in the synthesis of HSPs (Edwards & Hansen, 1996) limits the deleterious effects of heat stress. While heat shock has no effect on synthesis of either form of HSP70 in oocytes (Edwards & Hansen, 1996; 1997), synthesis of HSP70 molecules is increased by heat shock as early as the 2-cell stage (Edwards & Hansen, 1996; Edwards *et al.*, 1997).

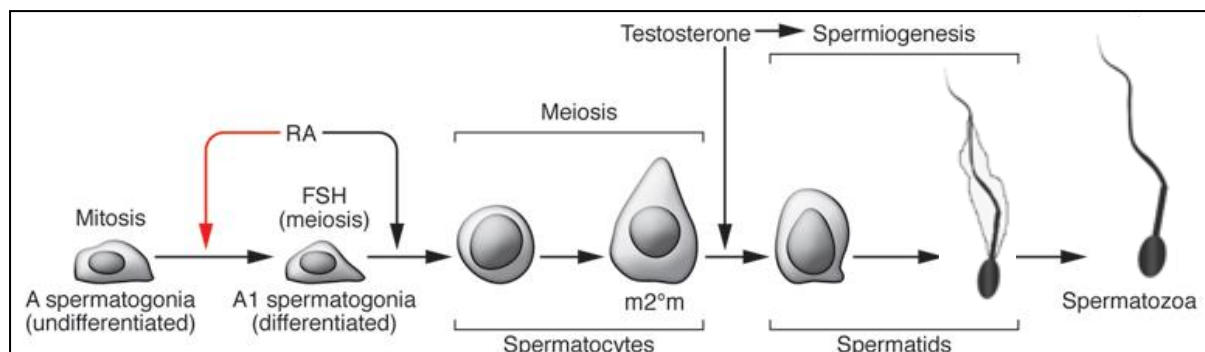
In addition, *in vitro* studies tested found that exposure to a mild heat shock would make embryos more resistant to apoptosis induced by a severe heat shock (Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002). The biochemical mechanisms by which mild heat shock prevents apoptosis induced by a more severe heat shock presumably involves HSP70 (Beere & Green, 2001). Therefore, those embryos at stages of development that are capable of heat-induced apoptosis are more resistant to the deleterious effect of heat shock on development. One possibility is that the sensitivity of the early embryo to heat shock is a reflection, at least in part, of the failure of the embryos to undergo heat-induced apoptosis to remove damaged cells from the embryonic lineage (Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002).

6. 2. CONSEQUENCES IN THE MALE GAMETE

6. 2. 1. Spermatogenesis

The male germ cell development takes place in testes (Clermont, 1972). Spermatogenesis is a complex biological process which includes changes in diploid cells (spermatogonia) until spermatozoa formation (haploid cells). The process includes three phases: mitotic, meiotic and post-meiotic maturation (spermiogenesis). Spermatogenesis in the meiotic process occurs in spermatocytes, and these cells can be divided into different subpopulations based on their chromatin structure (Russell *et al.*, 1990). Recombination and separation of homologous chromosomes occurs in pachytene spermatocytes during meiosis I and results in the formation of secondary spermatocytes. These cells then proceed through meiosis II, wherein sister chromatids are separated into individual cells. At the completion of meiosis, four haploid gametes, termed round spermatids, result from the division of every spermatocyte. Each round spermatid then undergoes dramatic changes in its cellular morphology (spermiogenesis) to form first an elongating spermatid and finally a spermatozoon (Hogarth & Griswold, 2010; Figure 7). Spermiogenesis takes place in 7 days and includes the morphological modification of round spermatids to spermatozoa, losing cytoplasm and acquiring a flagellum. The spermiogenesis takes several days depending on the species (i.e. 35 days in mice (Paul *et al.*, 2008), 43-44 days in rabbit (Swiestra & Foote, 1965), 72 in man (Paul *et al.*, 2008) or 65 in bull (Saunders, 2003)). During this maturation process the DNA of the germ cell is vulnerable (Robaire & Hales, 2003) and altered cells with damaged DNA are routinely eliminated by apoptosis (Paul *et al.*, 2008).

Figure 7. Expansion of both the undifferentiated (A spermatogonia) and differentiated (A1 spermatogonia) spermatogonial populations occurs by mitosis of these cell types, regulated in part by FSH. The red arrow denotes the required action of vitamin A (RA) in this transition. The subsequent conversion of differentiated spermatogonia to spermatocytes, representing the initiation of meiosis, also requires RA activity. The differentiation of secondary spermatocytes ($m2^{\circ}m$) and the process of spermiogenesis (round spermatids to elongated spermatids, then spermatozoa) require testosterone (modified from Hogarth & Griswold, 2010).



6.2.2. Heat stress effects on spermatozoa

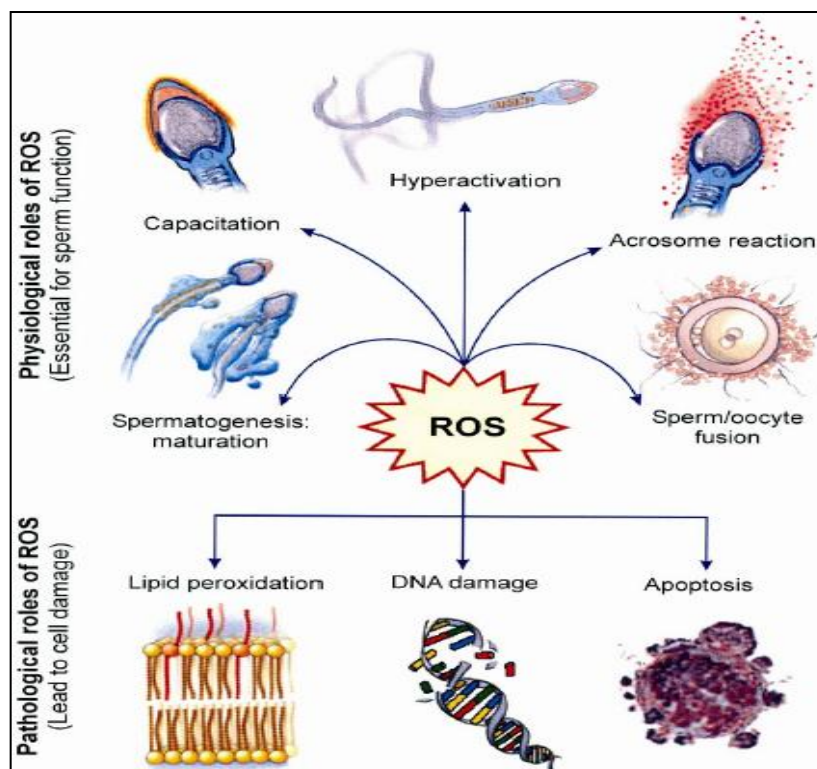
Heat stress effects on the testis can be direct on specific cell types within them, but also from indirect effects resulting from the cellular changes occurring in the testis (Setchell, 1998). These effects can be classified at four levels:

- On the testis itself.
- On the number, structure or motility of spermatozoa leaving the testis.
- On the fertilizing ability of the spermatozoa when are apparently normal in appearance and motility.
- On the embryo development from heat-stressed spermatozoa.

It is noteworthy that semen characteristics are not immediately affected by heat. In fact, it will depend on the duration of spermatogenesis, when damaged spermatogenic cells do not enter ejaculates for some time after heat stress. In general, alterations in semen occur about two weeks after heat stress and do not return to normal values until up to eight weeks following the end of the stress (Hansen, 2009).

Sperm quality is directly related with the fertilizing ability of the spermatozoa, and also with the reproductive success (Rodriguez-Martinez & Barth, 2007). The negative effects reported are related with a high exposure of spermatozoa to ROS, which are particularly sensitive to ROS damages mediated by lipid peroxidation because of their high content of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA; Aitken & Clarkson, 1987; Alvarez *et al.*, 1987). In fact, human *in vitro* studies pointed that exposure of sperm to ROS (i.e. hydrogen peroxide) reduces sperm motility, sperm viability, induces acrosome reaction and lipid peroxidation (Fatma *et al.*, 2009; Figure 8). All the ROS generated within semen could produce infertility (Tremellen, 2008). Some of the alterations produced are similar with an "immature" semen picture (i.e. low sperm motility, high numbers of proximal cytoplasmic droplets and abnormal sperm head shapes; Malmgren, 1989).

Figure 8. Physiological roles of ROS include maturation, capacitation, hyperactivation, the acrosome reaction and sperm-oocyte fusion. Pathological roles of ROS include lipid peroxidation, DNA damage and apoptosis (Kothari *et al.*, 2010).



Effects on sperm viability

Sperm quality is better during cold season than during warm season, with higher percentages of live sperm (Borg *et al.*, 1993; Daader *et al.*, 1997). Low levels of testosterone induced by high temperatures altered the normal epididymal function producing an increase in number of dead spermatozoa (Mieusset *et al.*, 1992b; Marai *et al.*, 2002; Banks *et al.*, 2005). As a consequence male fertility decreases. The exposure to high THI had immediate negative effects on sperm viability (Roca *et al.*, 2005; Theau-Clement *et al.*, 1995; Marai *et al.*, 2002), although in general, the increased number of dead spermatozoa show a great rise above two weeks after the highest THI (García-Tomás *et al.*, 2008), and the effects tend to persist between 40 and 60 days after the end of heating (Casady *et al.*, 1953; Skinner & Louw, 1966).

Effects on sperm morphological normalcy

Semen quality varies according to the temperatures among the year. Hence, increased incidence of sperm abnormalities have been reported during the warmer seasons of the year (Ax *et al.*, 1987; Finzi *et al.*, 1995; Daader *et al.*, 1997; Safaa *et al.*, 2008), which are immediately evidenced after actual exposure to high THI (Roca *et al.*, 2005; Theau-Clement *et al.*, 1995; Marai *et al.*, 2002), showing a great drop two weeks later of the highest THI (Moule & Waites, 1963; Smith, 1971; Roca *et al.*, 2005; García-Tomás *et al.*, 2008). The reduction in the percentage of normal sperm does not return to the physiological levels until 6-8 weeks after the end of heat stress (Casady *et al.*, 1953; Skinner & Louw, 1966; Stone, 1981; Malmgren and Larsson, 1984; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985).

Some of the most frequent defects recorded are proximal (Malmgren, 1989) and distal protoplasmic droplets (Stone, 1982), being higher the proportion of spermatozoa with proximal protoplasmic droplet during the summer months (Vilakazi & Webb, 2004). Heat stress causes also a significant increase of coiled tails (Finzi *et al.*, 1995), decapitated sperm (tailless (Rathore, 1968; Wildeus & Entwistle, 1983) and also pyriform cells (i.e. cells showing posterior constriction of the head region; Vilakazi & Webb, 2004). In accordance, Morrow (1980) indicated that a reduction in fertility may occur in domestic animals when more than 30% of the ejaculated spermatozoa have structural defects.

Effects on sperm acrosomal membrane

The acrosome reaction is an essential event for sperm membrane fusion, being acrosome integrity, as well as enzyme maintenance, essential for fertilization (Ōura & Toshimori, 1990; Fleisch & Gadella, 2000). The evaluation of the acrosome integrity can also be crucial to predict sperm fertilizing ability (Celeghini *et al.*, 2007). Seasonal changes are described in terms of acrosomal membrane, being the acrosome membrane less altered during winter than in summer season (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985; Borg *et al.*, 1993; Roca *et al.*, 2005; Safaa *et al.*, 2008). Spermatozoa with changes or abnormalities in sperm acrosomal membrane indicate that have suffered damage by heat stress (Finzi *et al.*, 2010), especially due to the secondary oxidative stress derived from high temperatures (Yin *et al.*, 1997). *In vitro* studies revealed that elevated temperatures little as 40°C are enough to negatively affect the sperm acrosome and acrosome reaction (Lenz *et al.*, 1983; Malmgren, 1989), causing cell death (Lenz *et al.*, 1983). Abnormalities do not return to physiological levels until 5-8 weeks after the end of heat stress (Wettemann *et al.*, 1979; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985), although the severity of the effects will depend on the exposition time to heat (Finzi *et al.*, 2010).

Effects on other sperm membranes

Membranes exert a crucial role in the maintenance of sperm fertilizing ability. The plasma membrane is responsible for the maintenance of cell osmotic equilibrium, and its integrity is crucial to sperm survival inside the female reproductive tract (Ōura & Toshimori, 1990). However, spermatozoa are especially sensitive to oxidative stress derived from high temperatures due to their high content in PUFA in their membranes, and also by their limitable content in antioxidant molecules (Baker & Aitken, 2005). Sperm plasma membrane can be damaged by ROS which lead to sperm dysfunction resulting in the inability of sperm to penetrate the oocyte (Sanocka & Kurpysz, 2004). Furthermore, sperm plasma membranes damaged show an increase in membrane permeability leading to antioxidant enzymes get out from sperm (Lasso *et al.*, 1994), being described in rabbits (Roca *et al.*, 2005) and boars (Waberski *et al.*, 2010) submitted to high THI.

Effects on sperm motility

Motility is the main factor that allows sperm to reach the oviduct through the cervix and the utero tubal junction (Nakanishi *et al.*, 2004). Season affects sperm motility index, being the lowest motility index recorded in summer (Ax *et al.*, 1987; El-Sherbiny, 1987). Nevertheless, motility increases gradually until reach the highest values during spring (Roca *et al.*, 2005; Safaa *et al.*, 2008). The reduction in progressive motility in presence of high temperatures (Lenzi *et al.*, 1993; Agarwal *et al.*, 1994; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Armstrong *et al.*, 1999; Roca *et al.*, 2005) is related with the production of ROS (Aitken *et al.*, 1989). However, the exact mechanism through which ROS causes a reduction in motility is not understood. One hypothesis shows that H₂O₂ can diffuse across the membrane into the cells and inhibit the activity of some vital enzymes that controls glucose flux and the intracellular availability of NADPH. This is used as a source of electrons by spermatozoa to fuel the generation of ROS (Aitken *et al.*, 1997). Another hypothesis involves a decrease in axonemal protein phosphorylation and sperm immobilization, both associated with a reduction in membrane fluidity that is necessary for sperm-oocyte fusion (De Lamirande & Gagnon, 1992).

Motility is one of the most sensitive indicators of heat stress. The negative effects on semen quality have been reported for mice (Ren *et al.*, 2006; Pérez-Crespo *et al.*, 2008), rabbits (Roca *et al.*, 2005; Theau-Clement *et al.*, 1995; Marai *et al.*, 2002), rams (Moule & Waites, 1963; Smith, 1971; Mieusset *et al.*, 1992b), boars (McNitt & First, 1970; Stone, 1981; Malmgren & Larsson, 1984) and bulls (Monterroso *et al.*, 1995; Brito *et al.*, 2003), returning to physiological levels 6-8 weeks after the end of heat stress (Heitman & Cockrell, 1984; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985).

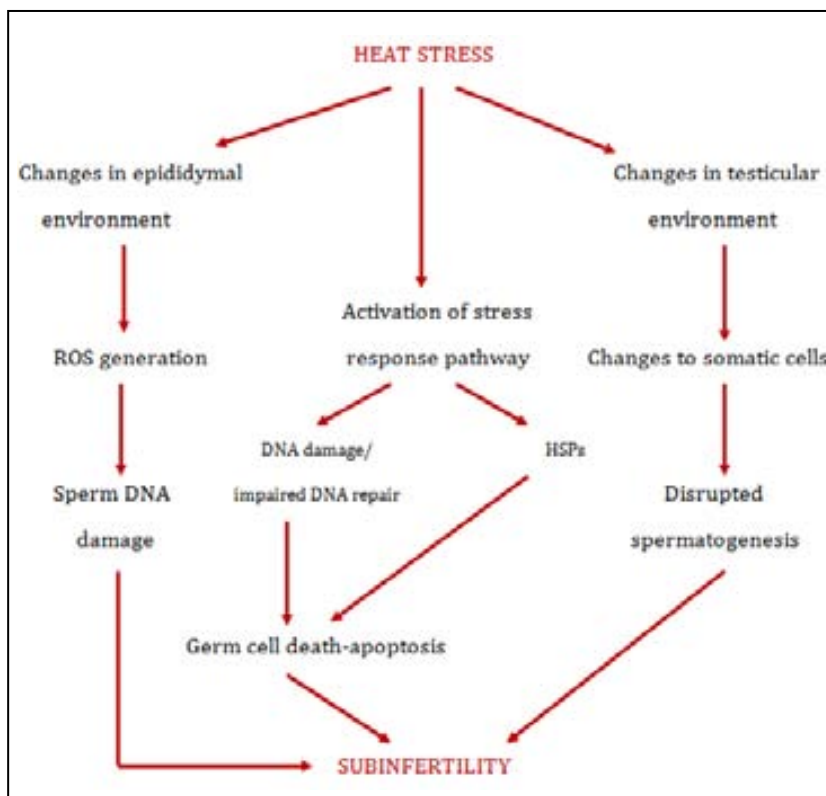
Effects on DNA integrity (Figure 9)

Severe sperm DNA damage is produced during spermatogenesis when oxidative stress due to high temperatures is higher (Karabinus *et al.*, 1997; Sailer *et al.*, 1997; Yin *et al.*, 1997; Banks *et al.*, 2005; Pérez-Crespo *et al.*, 2008; Paul *et al.*, 2008; Kusakabe & Tateno, 2011) even just for a short period of time (Karabinus *et al.*, 1997; Sailer *et al.*, 1997; Banks *et al.*, 2005). The negative effects on DNA will depend on the cell ability to repair their DNA or undergo apoptosis or necrosis (Rockett *et al.*, 2001). Males with sperm DNA damage have low fertility values (Banks *et al.*, 2005) due to lose of sperm fertilizing ability (Aitken *et al.*, 1998). However, some cells can complete their development resulting in motile spermatozoa with DNA damage (Banks *et al.*, 2005), and also keeping their fertilizing ability, being able to reach the oviduct and attach to the zona pellucida (Hourcade *et al.*, 2010). However, in those cases the modifications in DNA not repaired by the oocyte can alter the normal embryo and foetus development (Virro *et al.*, 2004; Aitken & Baker, 2006).

A negative correlation exists between the genetic material in the spermatozoa nucleus and the fertilizing ability, both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Spano *et al.*, 2005). Sperm DNA is half of the genetic material contributed to the embryo, necessary for fertilization and embryo/foetus development.

The DNA alterations may include: defects on nuclear maturation or condensation, protamine deficiencies, DNA fragmentation or defect in DNA integrity (i.e. single and double strand breaks; Perreault *et al.*, 2003). Abnormalities in chromatin structural integrity are also related with a decrease in sperm viability and morphological abnormalities (Karabinus *et al.*, 1990).

Figure 9. Possible mechanisms involved in male subfertility: heat stress may give rise to lesions in sperm DNA which can result in male subfertility if they escape DNA repair and apoptotic death of affected germ cells (modified from Paul *et al.*, 2008).



Effects on fertilization ability

Developmental competence of the mammalian embryo is dependent on genetic and non-genetic contributions from its parents (Sirard *et al.*, 2006; Baumann *et al.*, 2007), and it is reduced if fertilization is performed by a spermatozoon exposed to heat stress (Hansen, 2009), mainly by DNA damage (Virro *et al.*, 2004). It is clear that heat stress can adversely affect semen quality which could lead to a reduction in the ability to fertilize the ovum (Karabinus *et al.*, 1997) or produce a viable embryo (Mieusset *et al.*, 1992b; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Yaeram *et al.*, 2006), both leading to a partial or total infertility. It is known that ROS blocks the motility (Aitken *et al.*, 1989; De Lamirande & Gagnon, 1992; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2000), and also decrease sperm-oocyte penetration and block sperm-egg fusion (Aitken *et al.*, 1989; Mammoto *et al.*, 1996). Thus, the use of heat-stressed spermatozoa produce embryos with delayed or reduced pronuclear formation (Walters *et al.*, 2006), cleavage rate (Ulberg & Burfening, 1967; Burfening & Ulberg, 1968; Hendricks *et al.*, 2009) and a reduced ability to become blastocysts with an increase on embryo apoptosis rate (Ulberg & Burfening, 1967; Burfening & Ulberg, 1968; Cozzi *et al.*, 2001; Walters *et al.*, 2004; 2005).

7. HOW TO IMPROVE FERTILITY IN THE WARM SEASON?

7. 1. ENVIRONMENTAL AND NUTRITIONAL MANAGEMENT

In order to improve fertility during the warm season or under conditions of heat stress, some management procedures can be developed, although, conception rate is still pronouncedly below than in winter (Hansen, 1997a; Kadokawa *et al.*, 2012).

7. 1. 1. Shade and fans

To enable animals to maintain normothermia during heat stress in dairy farms, a combination of shade and evaporative cooling systems (sprinkling and ventilation) should be the most common strategy to alleviate the effect of high temperatures (Roth, 2008). The strategy could reduce total heat load from 30 to 50% with a well-designed shade (Bond & Kelly, 1955). It also diminished rectal temperatures and respiratory rates, yielding 10% more milk than cows under no shade environment (Roman-Ponce *et al.*, 1977; Collier *et al.*, 1981; Hansen, 1997a), and improved semen quality, where a significant increase in sperm motility, viability and normalcy was evident (Salah *et al.*, 1992). However, although it is possible to achieve a positive effect on fertility by intensive and frequent use of the sprinkling and ventilation cooling system (Igono *et al.*, 1987; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1988; Bucklin *et al.*, 1991; Huber, 1996; Hansen, 1997a; Collier *et al.*, 2006), results are limited due to the inability of the cooling procedures to totally eliminate hyperthermia during the summer season (Hansen, 1997a; b; Bucklin *et al.*, 1991; Berman & Wolfenson, 1992; Armstrong, 1994; Huber, 1996).

7. 1. 2. Nutritional management

Dry matter intake is reduced by heat stress. In accordance, the reviews of nutritional management for the lactating dairy cow in hot climates (Fuquay, 1981; Collier *et al.*, 1992) appointed to use an appropriate feed supply, including high quality of food (rumen-active fat over concentrate; Collier *et al.*, 2006) an adequate feeding time, mineral supplementation (potassium demand increases; Collier *et al.*, 2006), and readily available cool drinking water to compensate the negative effects of heat stress (García-Ispierto *et al.*, 2006).

7. 1. 3. Aids for oestrus detection

Aids for oestrus detection are important to avoid the increase of the calving-conception interval during the warm months of the year when there is a reduction in oestrus symptoms (Armstrong, 1994). The systems that have been developed include the application of paint to the tailhead (Macmillan *et al.*, 1988), the Heat Watch system (a radiotelemetric pressure transducer to inform about the number of times the animal is mounted; Walker *et al.*, 1996) and podometers (to measure increased locomotor activity associated with oestrus; Maatje *et al.*, 1997).

7. 1. 4. Hormonal therapy and timed artificial inseminations protocol

The use of hormones to induce ovulation in a timed artificial insemination protocol improves summer fertility of dairy cows (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003) by eliminating the need for oestrus detection. These procedures are based on the administration of GnRH or hCG to induce ovulation, followed by a luteolytic dose of prostaglandin F2 α 6 to 7 days later and a second treatment with GnRH or hCG 24–60 h after to induce a fertile ovulation (Pursley *et al.*, 1995; Schmitt *et al.*, 1996a;b; Pursley *et al.*, 1997). The principal benefit of these treatments is to induce cyclicity and the development of normal corpora lutea leading to good fertility. Conception rates rise (Ullah *et al.*, 1996; Hansen & Arechiga, 1999) by increasing the number of cows pregnant by 120 days postpartum and reducing the number of days open (Arechiga *et al.*, 1998a; De la Sota *et al.*, 1998; Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Almier *et al.*, 2002; De Rensis *et al.*, 2002). However, it is not always successful (Schmitt *et al.*, 1996a).

7. 1. 5. Embryo transfer

Timed embryo transfer can improve pregnancy rates under heat stress conditions if fresh embryos are transferred (Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002a). Hereby, results can be higher if the procedure is performed 7 days after oestrus, when takes place the most thermosensitive period of development (Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Edwards & Hansen, 1997), due to the harmful effects of heat stress on oocyte quality limit embryonic development (Zeron *et al.*, 2001; Al-Katanani *et al.*, 2002b). Nevertheless, recovery of transferable embryos from superovulated recipients is also reduced by heat stress (Monty & Racowsky, 1987; Putney *et al.*, 1988a), and the use of frozen embryos collected at cool periods of the year or in regions not susceptible to heat stress is needed (Hansen & Arechiga, 1999). Furthermore, the high cost of the procedure must be highlighted, and can be alleviated through the use of *in vitro* fertilization using slaughterhouse material (Hansen & Arechiga, 1999).

7. 1. 6. Genetic selection

Genotype is a major determinant of resistance to heat stress. Cattle breeds of *Bos indicus* origin are more resistant to tropical conditions than breeds that evolved in a temperate climate (*Bos taurus*) due to their superior ability to regulate body temperature (Bennett *et al.*, 1985; Gaughan *et al.*, 1999). *Bos indicus* cattle experience less severe negative effects in response to heat stress (Cartwright, 1955; Johnson, 1965; Skinner & Louw, 1966; Seif *et al.*, 1979; Finch, 1986; Rocha *et al.*, 1998). Taking this into account, a strategy to increase production of dairy cattle in hot climates is the use of breeds that are genetically adapted to the local environment or crosses between European and local breeds, suggesting that selection for lower rectal temperature would improve fertility (Turner, 1982). However, these actions are only useful in areas of the world where high-quality feeds are scarce, the price of milk is low, or where the utilization of European breeds of cattle is impractical (Hansen & Arechiga, 1999).

7. 2. USE OF ANTIOXIDANT AGENTS

The exposure of cows to heat stress reduces the total antioxidant activity in blood plasma, which is negatively associated with THI among lactating cows (Harmon *et al.*, 1997). Hence, the administration of antioxidants (Arechiga *et al.*, 1998a) *in vivo* has been shown to provide slight improvements in pregnancy rates in heat-stressed cows. On the other hand, the addition of antioxidant agents *in vitro* as supplementation of culture media as ROS scavengers has proved improvements in oocyte/embryo culture (Cetica *et al.*, 2001) and sperm quality (Yousef *et al.*, 2003; Bucak *et al.*, 2010a).

7. 2. 1. Enzymatic antioxidants

Enzymatic antioxidants are also known as natural antioxidants; neutralize the excess of ROS and prevent it from damaging the cellular structure (Agarwal & Prabakaran, 2005). Enzymatic antioxidants are composed by:

- Superoxide dismutase (SOD): protects the cell against spontaneous ROS toxicity and lipid peroxidation (Sikka, 1996), and also remove superoxide anion (O_2^-) by conversion to H_2O_2 which in turn is removed by catalase and glutathione peroxidase (Meister, 1983). SOD has proven ability protecting spermatozoa (Sikka, 1996; Vallorani *et al.*, 2010) and embryos from oxidative stress (Nonogaki *et al.*, 1992), increasing the proportion of zygotes developed to the expanded blastocyst stage.
- Catalase: controls the oxidative stress in cells mainly resulting from H_2O_2 (Bucak *et al.*, 2007), and also remove O_2^- (Sikka, 1996). It has been proved improving sperm quality (Foote, 1967; Maia *et al.*, 2010; Hu *et al.*, 2011).
- Glutathione peroxidase (GPx), Glutathione reductase (GR): play a role in the elimination of hydrogen peroxide (Meister & Anderson, 1983) as demonstrated by protecting spermatozoa from oxidative stress (Irvine, 1996).

7. 2. 2. Nonenzymatic antioxidants

They are also known as synthetic antioxidants or dietary supplements. The body complex antioxidant system is influenced by dietary intake of antioxidants, vitamins, and minerals such as vitamin C, vitamin E, taurine and glutathione (Agarwal *et al.*, 2005a).

- Glutathione (GSH): is a natural antioxidant present in both gametes (Perreault *et al.*, 1988; Yoshida, 1993; De Matos *et al.*, 1996). It plays an important role in protecting cells from oxidative damage (De Matos & Furnus, 2000). It is implicated in cellular resistance to heat stress and oxidative stress (Mitchell *et al.*, 1983; Loven, 1988; Arechiga *et al.*, 1995), and also in the formation of the male pronucleus (Calvin *et al.*, 1986; Yoshida, 1993). It is able to react with many ROS directly (Bucak *et al.*, 2008). GSH supplementation improves semen quality (Monteiro *et al.*, 2009) and their precursor, cysteine, may play an important role as an antioxidant supplement in *in vitro* culture systems (Yoshida, 1993; Bilodeau & Sirard, 2003).

- Cysteine and cysteamine (Cyst): It has been shown to penetrate the cell membrane easily, enhancing the intracellular GSH biosynthesis both *in vivo* and *in vitro* and protecting the membrane lipids and proteins due to indirect radical scavenging properties (Hendin *et al.*, 1999). It has protective effects on sperm (Hendin *et al.*, 1999; Uysal & Bucak, 2007; Tuncer *et al.*, 2010) and oocyte during IVM (De Matos *et al.* 1996; Nabenishi *et al.*, 2011).
- Bovine serum albumin (BSA): is known to eliminate free radicals generated by oxidative stress and protect membrane integrity. It has been useful in protect sperm quality (Uysal & Bucak, 2007).
- Taurine: displayed antioxidative properties by elevating catalase level in close association with SOD concentration (Reddy *et al.*, 2010). It has been used to protect spermatozoa against ROS production (Reddy *et al.*, 2010).
- Carotenoids: such as β -carotene and lycopene are also important components of antioxidant defense. Both protect sperm quality parameters (Uysal & Bucak, 2007) or conception rate (Arechiga *et al.*, 1998a).
- Fatty acids: It has been widely accepted that HS can aggravate the negative energy balance (NEB) during lactation, predominantly due to a drop in dry matter intake (Collier *et al.*, 1992). Moreover, fatty acids in the diet seem to be valuable at improving NEB, having positive effects over the follicle, oocyte and embryo in dairy cows.
- Vitamins: Vitamins A (retinol), E (a-tocopherol), and C (ascorbate) have been reported to act as major antioxidants for protection against diseases and degenerative processes that are caused by oxidative stress (Chaudiere & Ferrari-Illiou, 1999; Wong *et al.*, 2000) as lipid peroxidation (Beconi *et al.*, 1993; Geva *et al.*, 1996; Hsu *et al.*, 1998.). It has been described positive effects using them *in vivo* (Ealy *et al.*, 1994; Arechiga *et al.*, 1998a; b; Castellini *et al.*, 2000; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; Yousef *et al.*, 2003) or *in vitro* (Beconi *et al.*, 1993; Olson & Seidel, 2000; Bansal & Bilaspuri, 2007; Córdova *et al.*, 2010; Marques *et al.*, 2010) on sperm quality and also on oocyte/embryo culture protecting them from ROS.

Vitamin A and derivatives:

Vitamin A (all-trans retinol; RO) and its metabolites, known as retinoids, are regulators of cell growth, differentiation of many types of cells (Hidalgo *et al.*, 2005), and have ROS scavenger activity (Ikeda *et al.*, 2005). Cows take up vitamin A as naturally contained β -carotene in forages or as a diet supplementation with esterified retinol (NRC Nutrient requirements on Beef -2000- and Dairy -2001- cattle; Gómez *et al.*, 2006).

The derivatives from vitamin A have also an important role on reproduction (folliculogenesis, steroidogenesis, oocyte maturation and embryo development) (Gomez *et al.*, 2004; Ikeda *et al.*, 2005; Chiamenti *et al.*, 2010), and their metabolism in cattle reproduction has been reviewed by Ikeda *et al.* (2005). The predominant retinoid is retinyl palmitate, but other retinol esters, such as retinyl oleate, stearate or acetate (retinyl; RI), are also found (Blomhoff & Blomhoff, 2006). Through a series of oxidative reactions, vitamin A generates retinoic acid (RA) and their isomeres

all-trans-RA (ATRA) and 9-cis-RA. Retinol is essential for pregnancy maintenance in mammals, the RA is the most relevant retinoid during vertebrate development (Morris-Kay & Ward, 1999) and the isomere ATRA is the most important retinol metabolite for vertebrate embryogenesis (Morris-Kay & Ward, 1999; Ross *et al.*, 2000). In the live cell, RA binds to two different kinds of nuclear receptors, namely, retinoic acid receptors (RARs) and retinoid X receptors (RXRs). Most of these receptors are present from the oocyte to the hatched blastocyst stage and in cumulus cells (Mohan *et al.*, 2001; 2002).

The vitamin A metabolites are essential for reproduction in both the male and female, as well as for many events in the developing embryo (Clagett-Dame & Knutson, 2011). The oocyte itself is under the retinoid influence within their intrafollicular growth, as the bovine follicular fluid contains RO and β -carotene in proportion to the respective blood contents (Chew *et al.*, 1984; Haliloglu *et al.*, 2002; Hidalgo *et al.*, 2005). These findings are consistent with the stimulation of oocyte development capacity by retinoid in cows (Shaw *et al.*, 1995; Duque *et al.*, 2002), sheep (Eberhardt *et al.*, 1999), gilts (Whaley *et al.*, 2000), and rabbits (Besenfelder *et al.*, 1996) that had higher blood levels of vitamin A. On the other hand, vitamin A is essential for normal testicular structure and function. The combined actions of FSH, testosterone, and RA are essential for normal mammalian spermatogenesis. RA acts on both Sertoli cells and germ cells and pushes undifferentiated spermatogonia into the differentiation pathway and, eventually, meiotic prophase (Hogarth & Griswold, 2010). Vitamin A is known to be present in rabbit semen (Velazquez *et al.*, 1975) and bull (Gambhir & Ahluwalia, 1975) spermatozoa. Velazquez *et al.* (1975) reported a vitamin A concentration of 3.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ in rabbit seminal plasma, and 2.6 $\mu\text{g}/10^8$ cells in rabbit spermatozoa. This value is markedly higher than in bull spermatozoa (29 $\text{ng}/10^8$ cells; Gambhir & Ahluwalia, 1975). When animals are deprived of vitamin A, their germinal epithelium degenerates and spermatogenesis ceases (Wolbach & Howe, 1925). Moreover, there was a positive correlation between intracellular content of retinol in seminal plasma and sperm motility (Kao *et al.*, 2008), membrane integrity (Roels *et al.*, 1969), and also with sperm normalcy, since lower levels of vitamin A result in higher sperm midpiece abnormalities and coiled tail (Abdulkareema *et al.*, 2005).

The use of retinoids *in vivo* as antioxidant agents has been used both in males and females. It has been reported that dairy cow fertility can be improved at the second artificial insemination by a diet rich in retinol and β -carotenes during the warm months (Arechiga *et al.*, 1998a). However, it has been suggested that a retinoid cumulative effect is needed to obtain an effective concentration in oviduct and uteri (Guerin *et al.*, 2001; Livingston *et al.*, 2004). This effect is due to β -carotene metabolism and location of retinoid receptors, which are present in the COC. Hence, retinoids could counteract HS effects by receptor mediated effects (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004). Developmental competence of the oocyte is enhanced by a RO treatment as reported in the cow (Shaw *et al.*, 1995), sheep (Eberhardt *et al.*, 1999) and gilt (Whaley *et al.*, 2000), as well as in rabbits that have high blood levels of vitamin A (Besenfelder *et al.*, 1996). Vitamin A may

influence embryonic development by advancing resumption of meiosis and altering follicular hormonal environment during follicle maturation (Whaley *et al.*, 2000). In accordance, *in vivo* administration of retinoids has been shown to enhance pre-implantation embryonic development (Shaw *et al.* 1995; Chiamenti *et al.*, 2010) and their quality (Shaw *et al.*, 1995; Eberhardt *et al.*, 1999).

Due to their ROS scavenger activity, retinoids have been used in previous *in vitro* studies, some of them done under heat stress conditions, alleviating the negative effects derived from. The supply of retinoid to oocyte and embryos must be ensured within a physiological range, since both excess and deficiency of retinoid cause abundant teratogenic defects due to its pleiotrophic activity (Lane *et al.*, 1999). Therefore, an improvement in the conception rate (Gómez *et al.*, 2006), a beneficial effect on nuclear (Vahedi *et al.*, 2009; Nasiri *et al.*, 2011; Taheit *et al.*, 2011; Liang *et al.*, 2012) and cytoplasmic competence after oocyte IVM (Duque *et al.*, 2002; Gomez *et al.*, 2003; Hidalgo *et al.*, 2003; Nasiri *et al.*, 2011; Liang *et al.*, 2012), and enhanced embryo development rates to blastocyst have been reported (Gómez *et al.*, 2003; Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Livingston *et al.*, 2004; Gómez *et al.*, 2008; Hajjalizadeh *et al.*, 2008; Rajesh *et al.*, 2010; Atikuzzaman *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand they have been proved to be valuable inhibiting cumulus cell apoptosis during IVM (Deb *et al.*, 2012). However, to our knowledge there are no reports on the use of retinoids in sperm extenders.

Fatty acids:

Fatty acids in the diet seem to be valuable at improving NEB, having positive effects over the follicle, oocyte and embryo in dairy cows. Given the importance of the oxidative status of the oocyte and the fact that bovine oocytes are rich in fatty acids (McEvoy *et al.*, 2000), seasonally increases variation in the fatty-acid profiles of the follicular fluid and oocyte being associated with reduced development of the oocyte (Zeron *et al.*, 2001). In the hot summer, the proportions of saturated fatty acids in oocyte and granulosa cells are higher than those of mono- and polyunsaturated fatty acids, implying reduced oxidative status of the oocyte. It has been reported that oleic acid is present in high concentrations in bovine oocyte membranes during winter and its low concentration in summer can be related to the poor quality of oocytes (Zeron *et al.*, 2001). Zeron Y. *et al.* (2001) also suggested that oleic acid concentration has an important role on temperature oocyte membrane adaptation, and high levels of it have been related with high embryo recovery rates (Leroy *et al.*, 2005; Fouladi-Nashta *et al.*, 2007). According to that, saturated fatty acids (palmitate (C16:0) and stearate (C18:0)) can induce apoptosis (Paumen *et al.*, 1997; Lu *et al.*, 2003) by contrast with the monounsaturated fatty acids (palmitoleate, oleate and linoleate) which were found to prevent the pro-apoptotic effect (Eitel *et al.*, 2002). So, the use of specific fatty acids could improve fertility during warm months.

The use of fatty acids *in vivo* in an attempt to improve fertility has been reported feeding ewes with a diet supplemented with fish oil, increasing the proportion of polyunsaturated fatty acids in

the plasma and cumulus cells and improving oocyte quality as determined by membrane integrity (Zeron *et al.*, 2002). Similarly, lactating dairy cows fed with a diet rich in calcium salts of palm oil increase the number of resultant embryos produced *in vitro* following oocyte aspiration (Fouladi-Nashta *et al.*, 2004). Hence, a high level of feeding (Adamiak *et al.*, 2005) or a high level of fat in the diet (Fouladi-Nashta *et al.*, 2007) improves oocyte developmental competence in cows. There are evidences that suggest that dietary supplementation with omega-3 fatty acids affects reproduction in male (Paulenz *et al.*, 1999; Rooke *et al.*, 2001), by increasing the percentage of sperm with membrane integrity, total motility and progressivity. On the other hand, omega-3 fatty acids have also been reported to be important for sperm membrane integrity, sperm motility and viability, as well as cold sensitivity (Robinson *et al.*, 2006).

The use of fatty acids on *in vitro* studies has revealed controversial results. It is noteworthy that lipid-rich oocytes possess better developmental competence (Jeong *et al.*, 2009; Aardema *et al.*, 2011). However, the exposure to higher concentrations of palmitic or stearic acid during maturation resulted in small number of lipid droplets, whereas oleic acid resulted in more and larger lipid droplets, suggesting better developmental competence (Aardema *et al.*, 2011). Despite of these results, a negative effect of oleic acid on metaphase progression has been described by Jorritsma *et al.* (2004), as a significant decrease in the cleavage rate and subsequent development. However, Leroy *et al.* (2005) described no effects on nucleus of bovine oocytes. On the other hand, the saturated fatty acids palmitic and stearic had a significant inhibitory effect on granulose cell proliferation (Vanholder *et al.*, 2005), inhibiting bovine thecal cell proliferation, viability and progesterone production, whereas oleic acid did not alter these parameters (Vanholder *et al.*, 2006).

Moreover, the treatment of COCs with linoleic acid significantly inhibited cumulus cell expansion and retarded development of the oocytes to the MII stage in a dose-dependent manner. The supplementation to bovine oocytes during maturation alters the molecular mechanisms regulating oocyte maturation and results in a decrease in the percentage of oocytes at MII stage and the inhibition of the subsequent early embryo development (Marei *et al.*, 2010). Hence, linoleic acid induced alterations in mitochondrial distribution and activity as well as increasing ROS levels, which mediate, at least in part, the inhibitory effect on oocyte maturation (Marei *et al.*, 2011). However, an appropriate level of linolenic acid in oocyte maturation medium can induce molecular changes associated with oocyte maturation, leading to an increase in oocyte developmental potential and improving blastocyst quality. Treatment of COCs with it significantly increased the percentage of oocytes at the MII stage resulted in a significantly higher percentage of cleaved embryos, blastocyst rate and better-quality embryos (Marei *et al.*, 2009).

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

In order to get the objectives exposed previously, we designed six different experiments that are shown in different chapters in this thesis:

1. **Chapter I** was designed to analyze in which way bovine oocyte maturation is affected by heat stress by the development of an *in vitro* model. The study was performed by using slaughterhouse bovine ovaries since the *in vivo* experiment would affect farm productivity. However, the *in vivo* effect of high temperatures was evaluated in a preliminary study with rabbit does being affected the oocyte progression to the metaphase II. The number of oocytes obtained from the experimental does was insufficient for a complete paper, although results were presented at the 11th Congreso internacional de la Asociación Española de Reproducción Animal (2012).
2. **Chapter II** was planned once we get the results about how oocytes are affected by high temperatures, being necessary to find if a seasonal effect exists in bovine oocytes submitted to heat stress conditions, again by an *in vitro* study.
3. **Chapter III** was designed to try counteracting harmful effects derived from high temperatures by supplementing the *in vitro* oocyte maturation medium with the use of several antioxidant agents.
4. **Chapter IV** was performed to figure out high temperature effects on male gametes. For this purpose an *in vivo* study was developed to determine how rabbit epididymal sperm cells are affected by high temperatures. Epididymal sperm cells are more sensitive to high temperatures than ejaculated spermatozoa and not protected by seminal plasma.
5. **Chapter V** was designed to analyze the effect of adding antioxidant agents to the freezing extender in order to improve sperm quality after cryopreservation, since it is affected by reactive oxygen species derived from the process. Ejaculated rabbit spermatozoa were used trying to find a practical application. The use of rabbit samples allowed to avoid the additional freezing-thawing process find by using commercial bovine straws.
6. **Chapter VI** was performed to detect how bovine epididymal sperm cells are affected by high temperatures by using an *in vitro* study, since the use of commercial bovine straws implies additional variable factors to the experiment as the freezing-thawing effect on spermatozoa. Additionally, retinol as an antioxidant agent was used to counteract the negative effects derived from heat stress. Only retinol was assessed as antioxidant supplementation due to the results obtained from previous chapters.

In future experiments additionally to this doctoral thesis, we are planning to perform other experiments to figure out additional points related with heat stress and gamete development:

1. To develop an *in vivo* study to assess heat stress effects on rabbit oocyte maturation.
2. To analyze antioxidant agent supplementation on rabbit epididymal sperm cells to counteract heat stress effects.
3. To analyze cleavage and embryo development by the use of oocytes and sperm cells matured or stored in presence of antioxidant agents and heat stress conditions.

CHAPTERS

Does heat stress provoke the loss of a continuous layer of cortical granules beneath the plasma membrane during oocyte maturation?

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Abstract

The objective of the present study was to evaluate the influence of heat stress on bovine oocyte maturation. Both nuclear stage and distribution of cortical granules (CG) were simultaneously evaluated in each oocyte. Oocyte overmaturation under standard conditions of culture was also evaluated. For this purpose, logistic regression procedures were used to evaluate possible effects of factors such as heat stress, overmaturation, replicate, CG distribution and metaphase II (MII) morphology on oocyte maturation. Based on the odds ratio, oocytes on heat stressed (HSO) and overmaturated (OMO) oocyte group were, respectively, 14.5 and 5.4 times more likely to show anomalous MII morphology than those matured under control conditions (CO). The likelihood for an oocyte of showing the CG distribution pattern IV (aging oocyte) was 6.3 and 9.3 times higher for HSO and OMO groups, respectively, than for the CO group. The risk of undergoing anomalous oocyte maturation, considering both nuclear stage and distribution of CG was 17.1 and 18 times greater in oocytes cultured in HSO and OMO groups, respectively, than those in the CO group. In conclusion, heat stress proved to be valuable in aging oocytes. Heat stress advanced age for nuclear and cytoplasmic processes in a similar form to that of oocyte overmaturation.

Keywords: Aging, cortical granules, heat stress, oocyte maturation, overmaturation

Introduction

Although molecular studies are now considered especially important (Bhojwani *et al.*, 2006; Fair *et al.*, 2007; Evsikov & Marin de Evsikova, 2009; Siemer *et al.*, 2009) classical concepts concerning the maturation of mammalian oocytes (Szollosi, 1975b; Thibault *et al.*, 1987) still focus on two aspects: nuclear maturation and cytoplasmic maturation (Sirard, 2001; Ferreira *et al.*, 2009) that are usually highly coordinated (Eppig, 1996). Nuclear maturation involves the transition from a germinal vesicle nucleus to a second metaphase arrangement of the chromosomes and formation of a first polar body by the time of ovulation in most species so far studied. Cytoplasmic maturation is expressed as changes in protein composition, but most conspicuously in the redistribution of organelles that are termed the cortical granules (CG) (Szollosi, 1962, 1967). Such granules are, in fact, small vesicles that contain enzymes. During resumption of meiosis, the CG migrate from the Golgi apparatus to close to the vitelline surface, assuming a position 0.4–0.6 μm below the plasma membrane (Ducibella & Buetow, 1994). Only when situated just beneath the plasma membrane can they undergo exocytosis by fusing with the egg membrane. This fusion enables release of the CG contents into the perivitelline space, an important step in membranous maturation and in instigating a block to polyspermy (Szollosi, 1967; Hosoe & Shioya, 1997; Wang *et al.*, 1997).

There have been diverse studies that focussed on the formation and distribution of the CG in mammalian oocytes (Szollosi, 1967, 1978; Flechon, 1970; Thibault *et al.*, 1987; Hosoe & Shioya, 1997; Wang *et al.*, 1997; Wessel *et al.*, 2001, 2002) but none in the present context. In this study on maturation of bovine oocytes, the influence of heat stress on both nuclear stage and distribution of cortical granules has been evaluated in each oocyte. As heat stress seems to induce premature aging of oocytes (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005; Schrock *et al.*, 2007) the effect of overmaturation on nuclear and cortical granules distribution features was also evaluated. This research has relevance to bovine reproduction as heat stress has been associated with reduced fertility in many countries (de Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; López-Gatiús, 2003) especially when it coincides with the insemination time (Putney *et al.*, 1989; García-Isperto *et al.*, 2007).

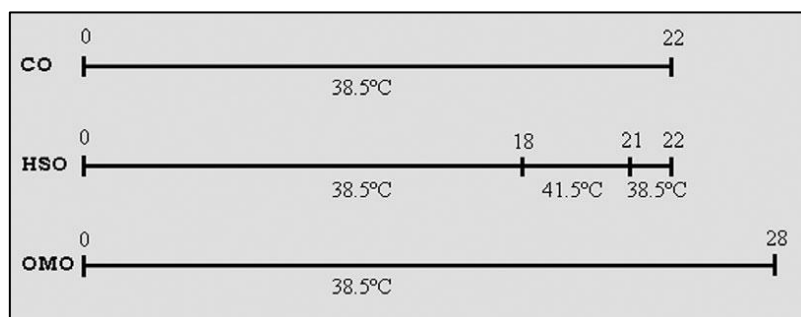
Materials and methods

Experiment design

Three groups were established: (1) control oocytes (CO; n=75), maintained under culture conditions (38.5°C for 22 h); (2) heat stressed oocytes (HSO; n=80) submitted to the heat treatment; and (3) overmatured oocytes (OMO; n=20) cultured for 28 h (Fig. 1).

As a 3 h heat treatment mimics hyperthermia real conditions (Tseng *et al.*, 2004) of the 22 h of the *in vitro* maturation (IVM) process, the HSO group was exposed to 41.5°C during the period of 18 to 21 h of maturation.

Figure 1. A time-line figure illustrating the experimental setup for cumulus-oocyte complexes (COCs) culture and groups of study: CO (control oocytes; n=75), HSO (heat stress oocytes; n=80) and OMO (overmaturation oocytes; n=20).



Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma unless otherwise indicated.

Collection of oocytes

Ovaries recovered from slaughter housed young heifers and placed into Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS; DPBS 10×; GIBCO-Invitrogen) including 1% (v/v) antibiotic antimycotic solution (AA; 10,000 units/ml penicillin, 10 mg/ml streptomycin and 25 mg/ml amphotericin B) and carried to the laboratory at room temperature. Ovaries were then washed twice in warm sterile PBS and were kept at 37.5°C until ovarian puncture that took place within 2 h from their recovery. Next, 2 to 8 mm-sized follicles were aspirated using an 18-gauge needle joined to a 5ml syringe. Cumulus-oocyte complexes (COCs) were obtained and placed into working medium (WM; Medium 199 with Earle's salts 25 mM HEPES and NaHCO₃, 1% v/v AA solution). Only oocytes enclosed in three or more layers of compact cumulus cells and presenting a homogeneous and translucent ooplasm were selected.

In vitro maturation

Selected COCs were washed twice in WM and once in maturation medium (MM; Medium 199 with Earle's salts, L-glutamine and NaHCO₃, supplemented with 20 µg/ml epidermal growth factor, 2 mM sodium pyruvate and 1% v/v AA solution) that had been pre-equilibrated for 3 h at 38.5°C in 5% (v/v) CO₂ in humidified air.

After washing, COCs were randomly allocated to groups of 20–25 and placed into 4-well dishes (Nunc) containing 500 µl of MM. All the processes were performed in a laminar flux booth during approximately 2 h from follicular aspiration to the entrance of COCs to IVM.

COCs were cultured at different temperature conditions for 22 h (CO and HSO groups) or 28 h (OMO group) according to the experimental design in an atmosphere of 5% (v/v) CO₂ in humidified air. To reduce variation of temperature during culture, incubation of control and overmaturation groups and heat stress group COCs were performed in two different CO₂ incubators. While one incubator was set at

38.5°C, the other was used for the heat treatment. Both incubators were kept closed during the whole maturation period and their temperature was verified by checking of clinical thermometers that were placed inside of the incubators.

Zona pellucida digestion and oocyte fixation

After 22 h (CO and HSO groups) or 28 h (OMO group) of IVM, COCs were removed from maturation wells and denuded of cumulus cells by pipetting and washed twice in PBS with 0.05% (w/v) of bovine serum albumin (BSA; fraction V BSA). Oocytes were then immersed in PBS containing 0.4% (w/v) pronase for 3 min to dissolve zona pellucida and washed five times in PBS with 0.05% (w/v) BSA. Oocytes were fixed in a PBS solution containing 4% (w/v) of paraformaldehyde for 45min at room temperature and washed five times in PBS with 0.05% (w/v) BSA.

Oocyte permeabilization and cortical granules staining

Oocytes were immersed in a permeabilizing solution of PBS containing 0.3% Triton X100 and 0.05% (w/v) BSA for 5 min at room temperature and washed five times in PBS with 0.05% BSA. Oocytes were then incubated in the dark for 30 min at room temperature into a staining solution of PBS containing 100 µg/ml of fluorescein isothiocyanate-labelled *Lens culinaris* agglutinin (FITC-LCA) and 0.05% BSA.

Nuclear staining and mounting

Stained oocytes were thoroughly washed in PBS with 0.05% (w/v) BSA to remove excess of FITC-LCA before mounting, and mounted between a pretreated with poly-L-lysine coverslip and a glass slide supported by a washer. The antifade mounting medium contained 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylidole (DAPI; Vectashield; Vector laboratories, Inc.) for counterstaining DNA. The coverslip was sealed with nail polish and preparations were kept at 4°C and protected from light until examination by fluorescence and laser confocal microscopy.

Nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation evaluation

Nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation status was evaluated for each oocyte. Nuclear content and apical and equatorial section of each oocyte were photographed under UV epifluorescent microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE 2000S) and laser confocal microscope (Leica TCS SP2) respectively.

Cultured oocytes were checked to have reached metaphase II (MII) or not. Normality in MII morphology was furthermore registered according to the modified classification of Tseng (2004) (normal MII: uniform alignment of the chromosomes on the spindle; anomalous MII: nuclear content changed into chromatin-like structure forming condensed aggregates or forming aberrantly distributed chromosomes).

Translocation of CG to the oolemma was used as an indicator of cytoplasmic maturation (Damiani *et al.*, 1996). The distribution of GC was classified into four patterns according the classification of Hosoe &

Shioya (1997) (pattern I: GCs distributed in clusters or large aggregates; pattern II: GC individually dispersed and partially clustered or aggregated; pattern III: GC completely dispersed; pattern IV: no CG).

Statistical analysis

Only oocytes that reached MII nuclear stage were included in the statistical analysis. The following data were recorded for each oocyte: replicate (1–4), group (CO, HSO or OMO), MII morphology (normal MII versus anomalous MII) and CG distribution pattern (I, II, III or IV).

On data from each oocyte, a first logistic regression analysis was performed using MII anomalous morphology as the dependent variable (0 or 1) and replicate, group and CG distribution pattern as independent factors. A second logistic regression analysis was performed using CG distribution pattern IV as dependent variable (0 or 1) and replicate, group and MII morphology as independent factors. A further logistic regression analysis was performed using anomalous oocyte maturation, considering both MII anomalous morphology and GC distribution pattern IV as the dependent variable (0 or 1) and replicate and group as independent factors. All variables above were considered as class variables.

Logistic regressions analyses were performed using the SPSS package, version 17.0 (SPSS Inc.) according to the method of Hosmer & Lemeshow (1987). Basically, this method involves five steps as follows: (1) preliminary screening of all variables for univariate associations; (2) construction of a full model using all the variables found to be significant in the univariate analysis; (3) stepwise removal of non-significant variables from the full model and comparison of the reduced model with the previous model for model fit and confounding; (4) evaluation of plausible two ways interactions among variables; and (5) assessment of model fit using Hosmer–Lemeshow statistics. Variables with univariate associations showing p-values <0.25 were included in the initial model. We continued modelling until all the main effects or interaction terms were significant according to the Wald statistic at $p < 0.05$.

Results

Effects of heat stress on nuclear maturation

Of the 175 cultured and evaluated oocytes, four showed immature nuclear stages after IVM and were excluded from the study.

Logistic regression analysis indicated no significant effect of replicate or CG distribution pattern on MII morphology. Table 1 shows the adjusted odds ratios of the variable finally included in the logistic model. No significant interactions were found. Based on the odds ratio, oocytes in HSO and OMO groups were, respectively, 14.5 and 5.4 times more likely to showed anomalous MII morphology after the IVM than those matured under control conditions.

Table 1. Odds ratios of variables included in the final logistic regression model for metaphase II (MII) anomalous morphology.

Factor	Class	MII anomalous morphology		Odds ratio	95% CI ^a	p-value
		n	%			
Group	Control	8/73	10.9	Reference	-	-
	Heat stress	28/78	35.9	14.5	6.1-34.6	<0.001
	Overmaturation	8/20	40.0	5.4	1.7-17.2	0.004

Likelihood ratio test 48.85; 2 d.f., $p < 0.0001$. Nagelkerke $r^2 = 0.337$.

^aConfidence interval for the odds ratio.

Effects of heat stress on cortical granule distribution

Figure 2 shows laser confocal microscopic images of the equatorial section of FITC-LCA-labelled bovine oocytes showing representative CG distribution patterns and the number of oocytes for each pattern and group of study.

Logistic regression analysis indicated no significant effect of replicate or MII morphology on CG distribution pattern IV. Table 2 shows the adjusted odds ratios of the variable finally included in the logistic model. No significant interactions were found. Based on the odds ratio, the likelihood for an oocyte of showing CG distribution pattern IV was 6.3 and 9.3 times higher for HSO and OMO groups, respectively, than for the CO group.

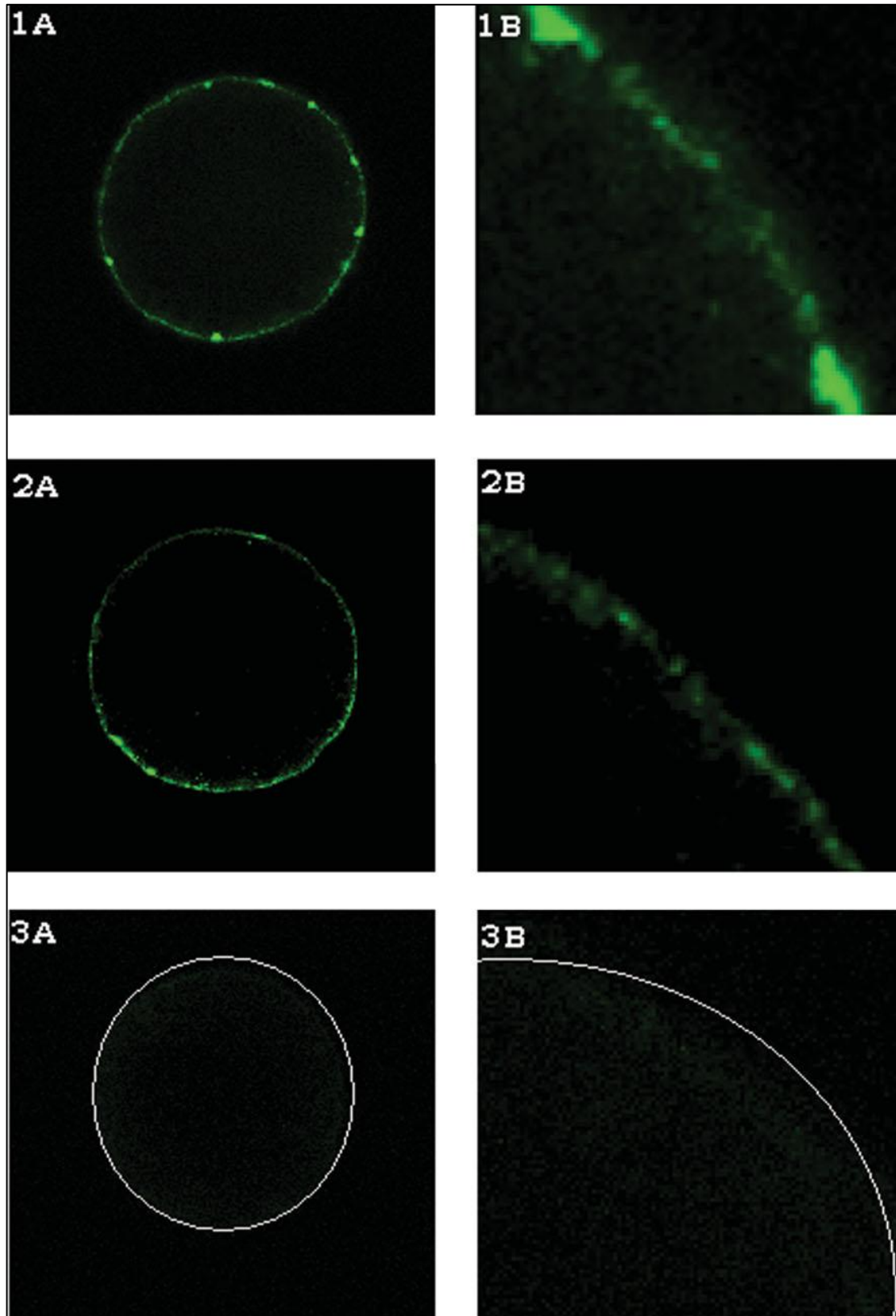
Table 2. Odds ratios of variables included in the final logistic regression model for cortical granules (CG) distribution pattern IV.

Factor	Class	CG distribution pattern IV		Odds ratio	95% CI ^a	p-value
		n	%			
Group	Control	4/73	5.6	Reference	-	-
	Heat stress	21/78	26.9	6.4	2.1-19.6	0.001
	Overmaturation	7/20	35.0	9.3	2.4-36.3	0.001

Likelihood ratio test 17.88; 2 d.f., $p < 0.0001$. Nagelkerke $r^2 = 0.154$.

^aConfidence interval for the odds ratio.

Figure 2. Laser confocal microscopic images of the equatorial section (A) and its detail (B) of fluorescein isothiocyanate Lens culinaris agglutinin (FITC-LCA)-labelled bovine oocytes showing representative patterns of CG distribution for the different groups: pattern II (1A, 1B: CO=14/73, HSO=12/78, OMO=1/20), pattern III (2A, 2B: CO=54/73, HSO=45/78, OMO=12/20), pattern IV (3A, 3B: CO=14/73, HSO=21/78, OMO=7/20). CO, control oocytes; HSO, heat stress oocytes; OMO, overmaturation oocytes.



Effects of heat stress on oocyte maturation considering both nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation

Logistic regression analysis indicated no significant effect of replicate on anomalous maturation considering both MII anomalous morphology and CG distribution pattern IV. Table 3 shows the adjusted odds ratios of the variable finally included in the logistic model. No significant interactions were found. Based on the odds ratios, the risk of undergo anomalous oocyte maturation was 17.1 and 18 times greater in oocytes cultured in HSO and OMO groups, respectively, than those in CO group.

Table 3. Odds ratios of variables included in the final logistic regression model for anomalous oocyte maturation, considering both anomalous patterns of metaphase II (MII) morphology and cortical granules (CG) distribution pattern.

Factor	Class	MII anomalous morphology and CG distribution pattern IV		Odds ratio	95% CI ^a	p-value
		n	%			
Group	Control	1/73	1.4	Reference	-	-
	Heat stress	15/78	19.2	17.1	2.0-133.5	0.007
	Overmaturation	4/20	20.0	18.0	1.9-172.0	0.012

Likelihood ratio test 16.45; 2 d.f., $p < 0.0001$. Nagelkerke $r^2 = 0.178$.

^aConfidence interval for the odds ratio.

Discussion

Heat stress proved to be valuable in aging oocytes. For this purpose nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation for each oocyte were assessed simultaneously. Similar figures of aged oocytes (Szollosi, 1971, 1974, 1975a) were registered for heat stressed and overmatured oocytes. By using logistic regression procedures, the models were highly explanatory and significant. Three consecutive analyses showed how dramatically heat stress advanced age for nuclear and cytoplasmic processes. Including both nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation measurements, and based on the odds ratio, heat stressed and overmatured oocytes were 17 and 18 times, respectively, more likely to age than controls, used as reference.

Heat stress during the last period of IVM resulted in a high percentage of oocytes showing a pattern IV of CG distribution. Pattern IV, which is characterized by the loss of the continuous layer of CG, was firstly described in bovine oocytes by Hosoe Shioya (1997) and is the most common pattern of CG distribution for oocytes that had underwent exocytosis after insemination or activation. Although heat stress

advanced oocyte maturation in previous studies (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005), pattern IV of CG distribution related to the final maturation of oocyte was not described. We describe herein how heat treatment or overmaturation can result in a pattern IV of CG distribution in a large number of oocytes. These results suggest that heat stress applied at the end of the period of oocyte maturation can induce CG loss.

As observed in the present study, an anomalous progression to second meiotic metaphase was a feature of heat stressed oocytes. A modified behaviour of the cytoskeleton may be the underlying cause, as it has been described in previous studies (Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Ju *et al.*, 2005; Roth & Hansen, 2005). Nonetheless, other aspects of nuclear behaviour may be modified by temperature stress, such as the rate and normality of chromosomal condensation (Roti, 2008). The behaviour of contractile proteins of the cytoskeleton will be perturbed by inappropriate temperature. Aspects that remain to be clarified are: (1) how much variation in temperature an oocyte can withstand; and (2) whether tolerance to shifts in temperature changes with the stage of meiotic maturation.

Overall, there is the question as to whether tolerance to temperature modifications *in vitro* differs from that in the living animal. There is already a body of evidence indicating that the temperature of preovulatory Graafian follicles is lower than temperature elsewhere in the ovary of rabbits (Grinsted *et al.*, 1980), women (Grinsted *et al.*, 1985), pigs (Hunter *et al.*, 1997, 2000, 2006) and perhaps cattle (Greve *et al.*, 1996). This finding suggests the existence of sensitive systems of temperature regulation *in vivo* that may be difficult to mimic *in vitro*.

A further experiment that would be relevant would be to culture individual Graafian follicles (Baker & Neal, 1972, 1974; Picton *et al.*, 2008) under different protocols of heat stress. Such a study might reveal greater perturbations in oocyte maturation when within a heat stressed follicle.

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Bovine oocytes show a higher tolerance to heat shock in the warm compared to the cold season of the year.

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Abstract

Heat stress is especially harmful for bovine ovarian follicle development and oocyte competence. In this study, we assessed the effects of heat shock on oocyte maturation in oocytes collected during the cold (February-March; n = 114) or warm (May-June; n = 116) periods of the year. In both cases, cumulus-oocyte complexes were matured under control (38°C) and heat shock conditions (41.5°C, 18-21h of maturation). For each oocyte, nuclear stage, cortical granule (CG) distribution and steroidogenic activity of cumulus cells were evaluated. Based on the odds ratio, heat-stressed oocytes were 26.83 times more likely to show an anomalous metaphase II (MII) morphology. When matured under heat shock conditions, oocytes obtained in both seasons were similarly affected in terms of nuclear maturation, whereas a seasonal effect was observed on cytoplasmic maturation. For oocytes collected during the cold season, the likelihood to show an anomalous maturation was 25.96 times higher when exposed to the heat treatment than when matured under control conditions. By contrast, oocytes collected during the warm season matured under control or heat shock did not show significant risk of showing an anomalous cytoplasmic maturation. Our findings indicate an increased rate of premature oocytes in response to heat shock as well as a higher tolerance to this stress of oocytes harvested in the warm season compared to those collected in the colder period.

Keywords: Oocyte, heat shock, stress tolerance, cortical granules, cold season, warm season.

Introduction

In dairy cows, the optimum air temperature range for milk production and reproduction is 25-26°C (Hansen *et al.*, 2001; West, 2003). In northeastern Spain, animals endure high temperatures (> 25°C) for 20-31 days in each of the warm months (May-September) and up to four days in each of cold months (October-April) (López-Gatius *et al.*, 2006). Nevertheless, due to high genetic selection for milk production, a decline in heat tolerance has recently been observed (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000). Heat stress is known to cause an increase in rectal temperature and reductions in dry matter intake, milk production, and fertility (Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995; West, 2003). Problems related to heat stress have economic repercussions worldwide but especially affect animals in the Northern hemisphere (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Edwards *et al.*, 2005). Conception rates in these animals are lower in summer (June-September) than winter (10-20% vs. 40-60%) (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; Ju *et al.*, 2005).

Fertility effects of heat stress are the outcome of damage to antral follicles produced in warm months (Roth *et al.*, 2000). Thus, after exposure to high temperatures, three to four oestrous cycles are needed to recover fertility (Roth, 2001; García-Ispuerto *et al.*, 2007). Heat stress to oocytes is especially harmful three days before and one day after insemination, and affects follicle development and oocyte competence (Hansen *et al.*, 2001; García-Ispuerto *et al.*, 2007). Oocyte maturation is usually assessed in terms of nuclear and cytoplasmic events (Sirard, 2001; Ferreira *et al.*, 2009; Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010), which are usually highly coordinated (Eppig, 1996). In most of the species examined so far, nuclear maturation involves the transition from a germinal vesicle nucleus to a second metaphase arrangement of the chromosomes and formation of a first polar body by the time of ovulation. Cytoplasmic maturation manifests as changes in protein contents, but most conspicuously in the redistribution of organelles such as cortical granules (CG) (Szollosi, 1962; 1967). During resumption of meiosis, the CG migrates from the Golgi apparatus to the vitelline surface, assuming a position 0.4–0.6 µm below the plasma membrane (Ducibella & Buetow, 1994). Only when situated just beneath the plasma membrane can they undergo exocytosis by fusing with the egg membrane. This fusion enables the release of CG contents into the perivitelline space and is an important step in membrane maturation and blockade of polyspermy (Szollosi, 1967; Hosoe & Shioya, 1997; Wang *et al.*, 1997).

Under high temperature conditions, anomalous chromosome segregation and cytoplasmic defects in oocyte maturation have been attributed to a rise in reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Blondin *et al.*, 1997; Schrock *et al.*, 2007; Roth, 2008). Thus, oocytes matured under heat conditions show lower rates of nuclear maturation, chromatin fragmentation, and premature translocation of cortical granules (Ju & Tseng, 2004; Tseng *et al.*, 2004; De S Torres-Junior *et al.*, 2008). A recent study has shown that heat shock causes premature ageing of bovine oocytes (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010). Notwithstanding, Ealy *et al.* (1993) and Hansen *et al.* (1999) found that by preincubating oocytes and embryos at slightly higher temperatures than usual, heat adaptation occurred before heat shock could block cell apoptosis.

Heat stress has been linked to reduced fertility in many countries (De Rensis & Scaramuzzi, 2003; López-Gatius, 2003), producing high economic losses. In particular, reproductive problems are observed when

high temperatures coincide with the time of insemination (Putney *et al.*, 1989; García-Ispuerto *et al.*, 2007). This study was designed to examine the effects of heat shock on oocyte maturation and to identify possible seasonal differences in oocyte heat tolerance.

Materials and methods

Experimental design

In northern Spain, we can clearly differentiate a warmer (May to September) and colder (October to April) period of the year (López-Gatius *et al.*, 2006). Mean monthly climate variables were similar to those published previously for the area of the study (Santolaria *et al.*, 2010). Briefly, mean temperature (T), maximal T, minimal T, mean relative humidity (RH), minimal RH, mean Temperature-Humidity Index (THI) and maximal THI were 10.3°C, 16.6°C, 4.4°C, 71%, 43%, 50.2 THI and 60.3 THI for the cold period of the study (February-March) and 20.6°C, 26.9°C, 14.3°C, 65%, 37% and 65.6 THI and 72.9 THI, respectively, for the warm period of the study (May-June). Seasonal effects were thus evaluated in bovine oocytes (n = 230) collected in the cold season (CS; February-March; n = 114) or warm season (WS; May-June; n = 116). Two study groups were established as follows: control oocytes (C) cultured at 38.5°C for 22 hours; and heat-shocked (HS) oocytes subjected 3 hours at the end of the maturation period (from 18 to 21h) to 41.5°C, simulating the animal rectal temperature during the warmer hours of the day (Tseng *et al.*, 2004). The four groups finally compared were: CCS; HSCS; CWS; HSWS.

Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma (Madrid, Spain) unless otherwise indicated.

Collection of oocytes

Ovaries from heifers recovered at a slaughterhouse were placed in Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS) supplemented with 1% (v/v) antibiotic/antimycotic solution (AA; 10 000 units Penicillin, 10 mg streptomycin and 25 mg amphotericin B per ml) and transported to the laboratory at room temperature. The mesovarium, oviduct and fat were removed, and the ovaries then washed twice in warm sterile PBS and kept at 37.5°C until follicle puncture within two hours of ovary recovery. Ovarian follicles (2-8 mm) were aspirated using an 18-gauge needle and 5 ml syringe and placed in working medium (WM; TCM 199-Hepes and 1% v/v AA solution).

In vitro maturation and oocyte preparation for staining

For *in vitro* maturation (IVM), cumulus-oocyte complexes (COCs) larger than 120 µm with three or more layers of compact cumulus cells and a homogeneous translucent ooplasm were selected.

Selected COCs were washed twice in WM and randomly placed in groups of 20-25 in four-well dishes (Nunc Tm 150288; Biocen; Spain) containing 500 µl of maturation medium (MM; TCM 199 supplemented with 20 µg/ml epidermal growth factor, 0.2 mM sodium pyruvate and 1% v/v AA solution).

All procedures took place in a laminar flow cabinet within two hours of follicular puncture.

COCs were cultured according to the experimental design in an atmosphere of 5% (v/v) CO₂ in humidified air. Control and HS oocytes were incubated in two different CO₂ incubators equipped with temperature and humidity probes.

COCs were morphologically assessed for cumulus cell expansion after 22 hours of IVM. Next, the COCs were denuded of cumulus cells by pipetting inside the wells and washing three times in PBS with 0.05% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA Fraction V).

Maturation media were kept in Eppendorfs and recovered after centrifugation (2 500 rpm, 37°C for 15 minutes) for hormone determinations. Aliquots were kept at -20°C until analysis.

Denuded oocytes were immersed in PBS containing 0.4% (w/v) pronase E at 37.5°C for 1-2 minutes until zona pellucida digestion. The oocytes were then washed five times in PBS-BSA 0.05% (w/v) and fixed in a PBS solution containing 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde (Panreac, PRS 141451.1210) at refrigeration temperature for 30 minutes.

Oocytes were washed three times in PBS-BSA 0.05% and then incubated for 5 minutes in a permeabilizing solution of PBS containing 0.3% Triton X100 and 0.05% (w/v) BSA at room temperature. Next, the oocytes were washed five times in PBS-BSA 0.05%.

Cortical granule staining

Oocytes were incubated under dark conditions for 30 minutes at room temperature in a 100 µg/ml fluorescein isothiocyanate-labeled lens culinaris agglutinin (FITC-LCA) solution and washed five times to eliminate lectin excess.

Nuclear staining and mounting

Oocytes were immersed for 10-20 minutes in the dark at room temperature in a Hoechst 33342 (1 µl/ml; Invitrogen H1399) solution for nuclear staining and then washed three times. The oocytes were mounted between a coverslip and a glass slide treated with poly-L-lysine. The antifade Vectashield mounting medium for fluorescence (Vector H-1000) was used. The coverslip was sealed with nail polish and preparations kept at 4°C in dark conditions until analysis.

Oocyte evaluation

Nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation were evaluated in each oocyte. Nuclear stages were determined under an UV epifluorescent microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE 2000S) and a laser-confocal microscope (Leica TCS SP2). Metaphase II (MII) was considered the correct nucleus stage after oocyte maturation. Nuclear stages were classified according to the modified classification of Tseng (2004): Anaphase-Telophase I (A-T), normal MII (uniform alignment of the chromosomes on the spindle) or anomalous MII (nuclear contents

appearing as a chromatin-like structure forming condensed aggregates or forming aberrantly distributed chromosomes).

Translocation of CG to the oolema was considered to be an indicator of cytoplasmic maturation (Damiani *et al.*, 1996) and was checked under an UV epifluorescent microscope and a laser-confocal microscope for each oocyte. Four patterns of CG translocation were observed according to Hosoe and Shioya (1997) classification: pattern I (CGs distributed in clusters or large aggregates), pattern II (CGs individually dispersed and partially clustered), pattern III (correct distribution of CGs, completely dispersed in monolayer), pattern IV (no CG).

Hormone determinations

For each study group, the steroidogenic activity of cumulus cells was assessed in the maturation medium. Estradiol and progesterone concentrations were determined after IVM using commercial enzyme immunoassay kits (Neogen Corporation, EIA #402210, EIA #402310, respectively) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Validation of the assay was performed after parallelism and extraction tests. Sensitivities of the estradiol and progesterone assays were 0.03 ng/ml and 0.35 ng/ml, respectively.

Statistical analysis

Only oocytes that reached MII nuclear stage were included in the study. The following data were recorded for each oocyte: replicate (1-5), season of collection (Cold Season versus Warm Season), treatment (Control versus Heat Shock), MII morphology (normal MII versus anomalous MII) and CG distribution pattern (I –IV).

The probability of differences between the proportion of oocytes showing anomalous MII and GC distribution pattern IV among replicates was determinate by Chi-square analysis.

According to the results of a previous study (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010) two consecutive logistic regressions were performed on data from each oocyte. A first binary logistic regression analysis was performed using MII anomalous morphology as the dependent variable (0 or 1) and season of collection, treatment and their interaction as independent factors. A second was performed using anomalous oocyte maturation, considering both MII anomalous morphology and CG distribution pattern IV, as dependent variable (0 or 1) and replicate, group, season of collection, treatment and their interaction as independent factors. All independent variables were considered as class variables for both analyses.

Logistic regressions analyses were performed using the SPSS package, version 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) according to the method of Hosmer and Lemeshow (1987). Basically, this method involves five steps as follows: preliminary screening of all variables for univariate associations; construction of a full model using all the variables found to be significant in the univariate analysis; stepwise removal of non-significant variables from the full model and comparison of the reduced model with the previous model for model fit and confounding; evaluation of plausible two ways interactions among variables and assessment of model fit using Hosmer–Lemeshow statistics. Variables with univariate associations showing P values <0.25 were

included in the initial model. We continued modelling until all the main effects or interaction terms were significant according to the Wald statistic at $P < 0.05$.

A T-Student test for unpaired data was performed to evaluate hormone production, using the Welch correction for the groups who did not have equal variances through GraphPad InStat (version 3.01, Windows 95, Graph Pad Software, San Diego, USA). Differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Effects of heat shock and season of oocyte collection on nuclear maturation

Of the 230 cultured oocytes, only 190 could be evaluated for both nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation processes. Furthermore, four showed immature nuclear stages after IVM and were excluded from the study. Figure 1 shows laser-confocal microscopic images of Hoechst 33342 labelled bovine oocytes showing different nuclear stages.

No differences were detected on the percentage of oocytes showing anomalous MII morphology or CG distribution pattern IV among replicates ($p=0.232$ and $p=0.165$). Logistic regression analysis indicated no significant effects of the season of collection or interaction between season and treatment on MII morphology. MII anomalous morphology was registered in 2.2% (2/89) and 38.1% (37/97) of the control and HS oocytes, respectively. Based on the odds ratio, oocytes in HS group were 26.83 times more likely to show anomalous MII morphology than controls ($p < 0.001$; 6.2-115.6 confidence interval for the odds ratio; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.321$).

Effects of heat shock and season of oocyte collection on cytoplasmic maturation

Figure 2 shows laser-confocal microscopic images of the equatorial section of FITC-LCA labelled bovine oocytes showing representative CG distribution patterns and number of oocytes for each pattern and group of study.

Anomalous Cortical Granules (CG) distribution pattern (pattern IV) was registered in 4.5% (4/89) and 37.1% (36/97) of the control and HS oocytes, respectively. Based on the odds ratio, oocytes in HS group were 13.01 times more likely to show CG pattern IV than controls ($p < 0.001$; 4.4-38.8 confidence interval for the odds ratio; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.289$).

Variables included in the final logistic regression model for anomalous oocyte maturation, considering both anomalous patterns of Metaphase II (MII) morphology and Cortical Granules (CG) distribution pattern are shown in Table 1. According to the odds ratio, the likelihood of an oocyte showing an anomalous maturation was 27.55 times higher for HS group than for the control group. Furthermore, a significant interaction between season of collection and treatment was found. For oocytes collected during the cold season, the likelihood to show an anomalous maturation was 25.96 times higher when exposed to the heat treatment than when matured under control conditions. However, the risk of showing an anomalous maturation was not significantly different between oocytes from HS and C groups when oocytes were collected during the

warm season. The likelihood of showing an anomalous maturation was not different among HS and C groups in the warm and C group in the cold season.

Figure 1. Laser confocal microscopy images of Hoechst 33342 and FITC-LCA-labeled bovine oocytes showing different nuclear stages (blue) after 22h of maturation: (A) Metaphase II (MII) (control=87/89, HS=60/97), (B, C) anomalous MII (control=2/89, HS=37/97). CG are shown in the same pictures (green). Polar bodies are not shown due to the zona pellucida digestion.

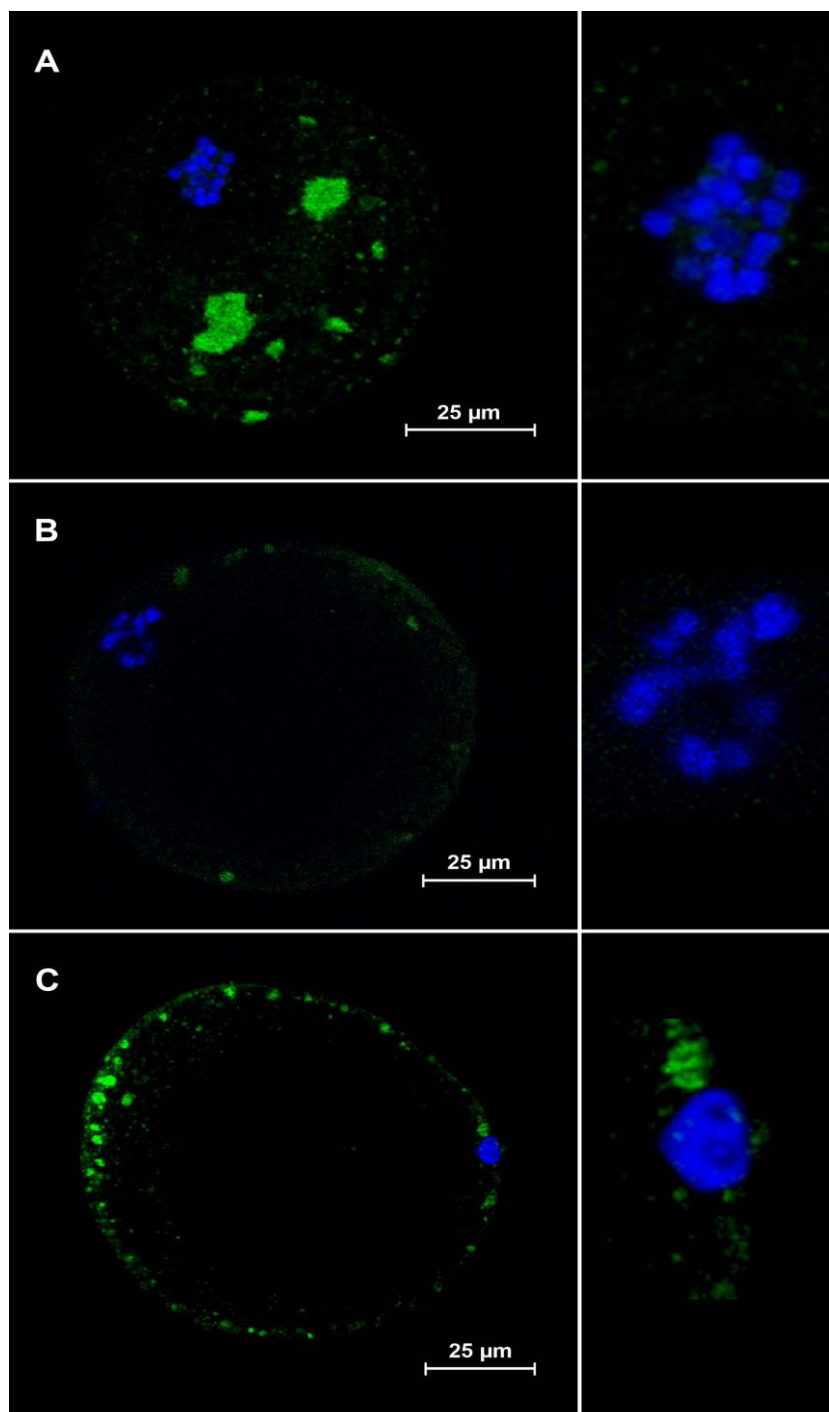


Figure 2. Laser-confocal microscopy images of an equatorial section (A) and detail (B) of FITC-LCA-labeled bovine oocytes showing representative CG distribution patterns (green) for the different groups after 22h of maturation: Pattern II or CGs partially clustered in the ooplasm (1A-B; C=22/89, HS=11/97), Pattern III or CGs dispersed in a monolayer (2A-B; C=64/89, HS=50/97), Pattern IV or no CG (3A-B; C=3/89, HS=36/97).

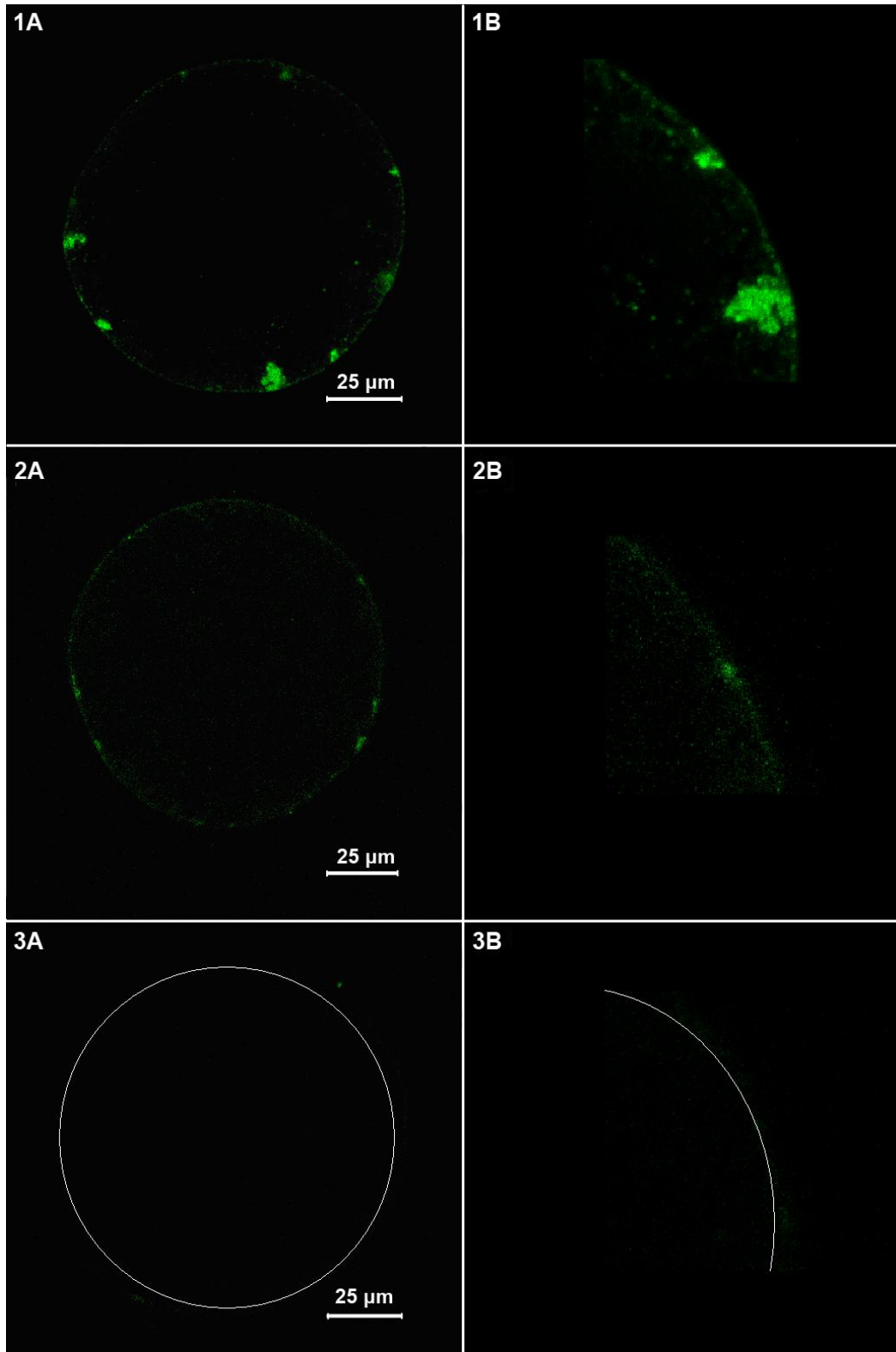


Table 1. Odds ratios of variables included in the final logistic regression model for anomalous oocyte maturation, considering both anomalous patterns of Metaphase II (MII) morphology and Cortical Granules (CG) distribution pattern.

Factor	Class	MII anomalous morphology and CG distribution pattern IV		Odds Ratio	95% CI ^a	P- value
		n	%			
Treatment	Control	2/89	2,2	Reference		
	Heat Shock	26/97	26,8	27,55	6,1 - 125,3	<0,001
Treatment by Season	Control-Cold Season	1/42	2,4	Reference		
	Control-Warm Season	1/47	2,1	-	-	NS
	Heat Shock Cold Season	19/49	38,8	25,96	3,9 - 204,8	0,002
	Heat Shock Warm Season	7/48	14,6	-	-	NS

Likelihood ratio test 33, 140; 1 d.f., $P < 0,0001$. Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0,286$

^aConfidence interval for the odds ratio

Effects of heat shock and season of oocyte collection on steroidogenic activity

No significant differences were observed in estradiol or progesterone contents per oocyte after IVM in the maturation media according to season (cold or warm season) or IVM conditions (Control or HS). However, we detected a trend toward higher estradiol concentrations ($P=0.059$) available per oocyte in the IVM medium for the two HS groups (HSCS: 34 pg/oocyte; and HSWS: 30 pg/oocyte) than for the control ones (CCS: 25 pg/oocyte; and CWS: 20 pg/oocyte). Progesterone concentrations available per oocyte were 1.4 ng/oocyte in the groups of the cold season (CCS and HSCS) and 0.6-0.8 ng/oocyte in the groups of the warm season (CWS and HSWS).

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that heat shock impaired nuclear and cytoplasmic processes, in agreement with our previous findings (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010). In addition, oocytes were found to better tolerate heat shock during the warm period compared to the colder period of the year.

Compared to controls, a significantly greater percentage of heat-shocked oocytes showed an anomalous MII stage and CG distribution pattern IV. Aberrant progression to the second meiotic metaphase stage was recorded in 38% of the heat-shocked oocytes, probably as the result of chromosomal and meiotic spindle alterations, as described by other authors (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Roth & Hansen, 2005). Our observation of a high proportion of oocytes showing CG distribution pattern IV, presumptive of premature exocytosis, when exposed to high temperatures has also been described previously (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010). Thus, heat shock at the end of the IVM period seems to provoke anomalies compatible with oocyte aging (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010). This pattern, characterized by loss of a continuous CG layer, is the most common pattern produced in oocytes after fertilization or activation due to exocytosis. Heat shock could thus be the cause of an advanced state of oocyte maturation (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005) resulting in CG loss (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010).

A seasonal effect on the capacity of the oocytes to undergo nuclear maturation (MII percentage) could not be demonstrated. Thus, oocytes collected in both seasons were similarly affected under heat shock conditions. Conversely however, seasonal effects were produced on the cytoplasmic maturation capacity of the oocytes. Hence, oocytes recovered in the cold season were more sensitive to heat shock than those obtained in the warmer months. It therefore seems that bovine oocytes are more sensitive to high temperatures suffered during cold months. The climate change effects of natural and anthropogenic factors have been estimated as a global temperature rise of 0.1-0.2°C/decade (MacCracken, 2008) and since the 70's, average annual temperatures have tended to rise. This temperature increase is more evident during winter (UNFCCC, 2009). In effect, in our geographical area, acute changes in the temperature-humidity index (THI), which have been linked to early fetal loss, occur more severely during the cool period of the year (Santolaria *et al.*, 2010).

The fact that oocytes obtained in the warm season were better able to adapt to high temperatures in terms of their cytoplasmic maturation could reflect a mechanism of heat shock tolerance. It has been described that a defined and properly applied sublethal stress may induce general adaptation and increase tolerance (Pribenszky *et al.*, 2010). This phenomenon has been described *in vitro* in a study in which bovine embryos were progressively exposed to increasing heat shock (Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Hansen & Arechiga, 1999; Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002). Heat tolerance could be related to heat shock protein (HSP) expression, as HSP-70 protects oocytes from apoptotic stimuli that harmfully affect DNA (Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002). This mechanism of heat tolerance warrents further investigation in future studies designed to improve oocyte and embryo development in warm regions. It also would be of interest to develop experiments to check if the phenomenon of thermal tolerance can be reproduced *in vivo*.

Several studies have clearly shown a detrimental effect of summer heat stress on oocyte and embryo quality or competence in terms of cleavage and blastocyst formation rates (Hansen *et al.*, 2001; Payton *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005; Ju *et al.*, 2005). However, the present study does not show an evident detrimental effect of heat shock on oocyte maturation when the oocytes were recovered during the warm season. The warm season was limited to May-June, which corresponds to early summer in the region of study (Santolaria *et al.*, 2010); it could confirm that oocyte donors were exposed to relatively mild heat stress conditions during May-June, and this might explain why oocyte maturation was not affected by the warm season. We aimed to check the effect of *in vitro* heat shock over oocytes not previously affected by severe *in vivo* heat stress. Furthermore, the study was performed on oocytes collected from non-lactating heifers, strengthening the assumption that the heifers, and their ovaries, were not exposed to deep thermal stress during the warm season. Future experiments are needed to study if oocytes undergoing *in vivo* maturation would be able to develop heat tolerance when cows are exposed to severe heat stress *in vivo*, in August for instance, when their body temperatures can rise to 41-41.5°C.

In conclusion, heat shock was found to increase the rate of premature oocytes although oocytes collected in the cold season were more sensitive to the negative effects of stress than their counterparts collected in the warm season.

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Retinol improves in vitro oocyte nuclear maturation under heat stress in heifers.

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Abstract

Heat stress (HS) is especially harmful for bovine ovarian follicle development and oocyte competence. Furthermore, HS causes premature aging on oocytes due to high levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS), involved in the harmful effects over the oocyte maturation and the steroidogenic activity of follicular cells. In this study, the presumptive protective effects of antioxidant agents on heat-stressed oocytes were evaluated. Heifer oocytes were matured for 22 hours under control (38°C) and heat stress conditions (41.5°C at 18-21 h of maturation). For each oocyte, nuclear stage and cortical granules (CG) distribution were evaluated. Steroidogenic activity of cumulus cells was also recorded. The antioxidant agents used in the study were: Retinol (1.43 µg/ml), Retinyl (0.28 µg/ml) and Oleic acid (0.05 mg/ml). Based on a Chi-square test ($P < 0.05$), HS affected negatively the metaphase II (MII) progression and produced a premature CG exocytosis. Retinol allowed to improve the oocyte MII progression. However, retinyl and oleic acid, at the concentrations used in this study, could not counteract adverse effects of HS. A decrease in progesterone and increase in estradiol availability were observed when retinyl and oleic acid were supplemented to the maturation medium, respectively. In conclusion, retinol proved to be valuable in heat-stressed oocytes protecting nuclear maturation.

Key words: Oocyte, heat stress, retinol, retinyl, oleic acid.

Introduction

Heat stress (HS) has been linked to reduced fertility in dairy cows in many countries (De Rensis and Scaramuzzi, 2003; Lopez-Gatius, 2003), which leads to high economic losses. The optimum air temperature range for efficient milk production and reproduction has been established at 25-26°C (Hansen *et al.*, 2001; West, 2003). However, in northeastern Spain, animals endure high temperatures (> 25°C) for 20-31 days during the warm months (May-September) and up to four days during cold months (October-April) (Lopez-Gatius *et al.*, 2006). HS is known to affect negatively the animal causing an increase in rectal temperature (up to 41°C), reductions in dry matter intake, milk production, and fertility (Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1995; West, 2003; Edwards *et al.*, 2005).

HS affects the ovarian follicles development, the oocyte competence and the embryo development, probably due to high levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Ikeda *et al.*, 1999; De S Torres-Junior *et al.*, 2008; Roth *et al.*, 2008). Their effects are especially harmful three days before and one day after the insemination (Hansen *et al.*, 2001; García-Ispierto *et al.*, 2007). When oocytes are matured under heat conditions show lower rates of nuclear maturation, chromatin fragmentation, and a premature translocation of cortical granules (Ju and Tseng, 2004; Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010), causing premature ageing of bovine oocytes (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010).

In cells, ROS levels are normally blocked by antioxidant molecules (Miller *et al.*, 1993). Therefore, in attempt to improve fertility rates in dairy cattle exposed to heat stress conditions, some antioxidants agents such as vitamins and some fatty acids have been used *in vivo*. Moreover, *in vitro* studies have also been developed, focusing on oocyte maturation/embryo culture (Hansen *et al.*, 2001; Zeron *et al.*, 2001; Duque *et al.*, 2002; Gomez *et al.*, 2003; Livingston *et al.*, 2004; Hidalgo *et al.*, 2005; Ikeda *et al.*, 2005; Leroy *et al.*, 2005) or steroidogenic activity of granulosa cells (Wolfenson *et al.*, 2000; Hansen *et al.*, 2001). Some of these studies take into account the oxidative stress produced during normal *in vitro* culture (Rajesh *et al.*, 2010) and some of them the negative heat stress effects (Arechiga *et al.*, 1998; Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Bilby *et al.*, 2006).

Vitamin A (all-trans retinol) and its metabolites are regulators of cell growth, differentiation of many types of cells (Hidalgo *et al.*, 2005), and have ROS scavenger activity (Ikeda *et al.*, 2005). The derivatives from vitamin A have also an important role on reproduction (folliculogenesis, steroidogenesis, oocyte maturation and embryo development) (Gomez *et al.*, 2004; Ikeda *et al.*, 2005; Chiamenti *et al.*, 2010). Due to their ROS scavenger activity, retinoids have been used in previous studies, some of them done under HS conditions. Therefore, an improvement in the conception rate (Gomez *et al.*, 2006), a beneficial effect on cytoplasmic competence after *in vitro* maturation (Duque *et al.*, 2002; Gomez *et al.*, 2003) and on embryo development rates to blastocyst, were reported (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Livingston *et al.*, 2004; Fouladi-Nashta *et al.*, 2007).

It has been widely accepted that heat stress can aggravate the negative energy balance (NEB) during lactation, predominantly due to a drop in dry matter intake (Collier *et al.*, 1992). Moreover, fatty acids in

the diet seem to be valuable improving NEB, having positive effects over the follicle, oocyte and embryo in dairy cows. Zeron Y. *et al.* (2001) suggest that oleic acid concentration has an important role on temperature oocyte membrane adaptation, and high levels of it have been related with high embryo recovery rates (Leroy *et al.*, 2005; Fouladi-Nashta *et al.*, 2007). So, the use of fatty acids could improve fertility during warm months.

This study was designed to examine the effect of antioxidant products on heat-stressed oocytes identifying presumptive beneficial effects on *in vitro* oocyte maturation.

Materials and methods

Experimental design

Two study groups were established as follows: control oocytes (C) cultured at 38.5°C for 22 hours; and heat-stressed (HS) oocytes subjected from 18 to 21 h of maturation at 41.5°C to simulate environmental conditions of heat stress (Tseng *et al.*, 2004). The effect of antioxidant agent addition to the maturation medium was assessed in three experiments using a different antioxidant agent in each of them: Retinol (RO; n = 185), Retinyl (RI; n = 236) and Oleic acid (OA; n = 134).

Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma (Madrid, Spain) unless otherwise indicated.

Collection of oocytes

Ovaries from heifers recovered at a slaughterhouse were placed in Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS), that was supplemented with 1 % (v/v) antibiotic/antimycotic solution (AA; 10 000 units Penicillin, 10 mg streptomycin and 25 mg amphotericin B per ml), and transported to the laboratory at room temperature. The mesovarium, oviduct and fat were removed, and afterwards the ovaries were washed twice in warm sterile PBS and kept at 37.5°C until follicle puncture within two hours of ovary recovery. Ovarian follicles (2-8 mm) were aspirated using an 18-gauge needle and 5 ml syringe and were placed in working medium (WM; TCM 199-Hepes and 1% v/v AA solution).

COCs selection

Only oocytes enclosed in three or more layers of compact cumulus cells and presenting a homogeneous and translucent ooplasm were selected for *in vitro* maturation (IVM).

***In vitro* maturation**

Selected COCs were washed twice in WM and randomly placed in groups of 20-25 in four-well dishes (Nunc Tm 150288; Biocen; Spain) containing 500 µl of maturation medium (MM; TCM 199 supplemented with 20 µg/ml epidermal growth factor, 0.2 mM sodium pyruvate and 1 % v/v AA

solution) and the corresponding supplementation in each experiment. In the first one, RO was used at 1.43 µg/ml (5 µM) diluted in 0.03 % (v/v) pure Ethanol (Panreac 141086.1214). A study group with only Ethanol as supplementation was established to confirm there was no effect of the vehicle over the oocyte. In the rest of experiments, RI was used at 0.28 µg/ml and OA at 0.05 mg/ml (200 µM). All procedures took place in a laminar flow cabinet within two hours of follicular puncture.

COCs were cultured according to the experimental design in an atmosphere of 5 % (v/v) CO₂ in humidified air. Control and heat-stressed oocytes were incubated in two different CO₂ incubators equipped with temperature and humidity probes.

COCs were morphologically assessed for cumulus cell expansion after 22 hours of IVM. Afterwards, the COCs were denuded of cumulus cells by pipetting inside the wells and washing three times in PBS with 0.05 % (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA Fraction V).

Maturation medium were kept in Eppendorfs and recovered after centrifugation (2 500 rpm, 37°C for 15 minutes) in order to be used for hormone determinations. Aliquots were kept at -20°C until analysis.

Cortical granule staining

Denuded oocytes were immersed in PBS containing 0.4 % (w/v) pronase E at 37.5°C for 1-2 minutes until zona pellucida digestion. The oocytes were then washed five times in PBS-BSA 0.05 % (w/v) and fixed in a PBS solution containing 4 % (w/v) paraformaldehyde (Panreac, PRS 141451.1210) at refrigeration temperature for 30 minutes.

Oocytes were washed three times in PBS-BSA 0.05 % and then incubated for 5 minutes in a permeabilizing solution of PBS containing 0.3 % Triton X100 and 0.05 % (w/v) BSA at room temperature. Afterwards, the oocytes were washed five times in PBS-BSA 0.05 %.

Oocytes were incubated in dark conditions for 30 minutes at room temperature in a 100 µg/ml fluorescein isothiocyanate-labeled lens culinaris agglutinin (FITC-LCA) solution and were washed five times to eliminate lectin excess.

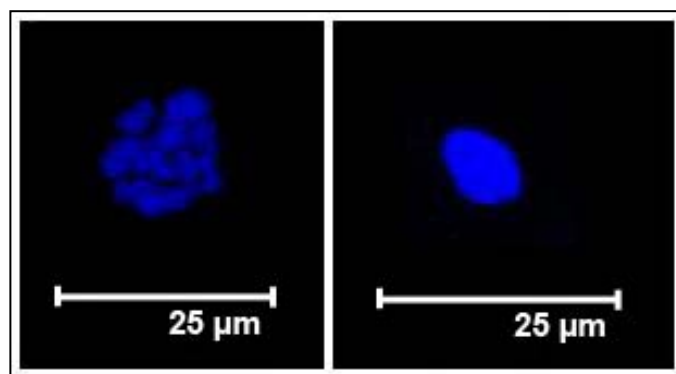
Nuclear staining and mounting

Oocytes were immersed for 10-20 minutes in dark conditions at room temperature in a Hoechst 33342 (1 µl/ml; Invitrogen H1399) solution for nuclear staining and were then washed three times. The oocytes were mounted between a coverslip and a glass slide treated with poly-L-lysine. The antifade Vectashield mounting medium for fluorescence (Vector H-1000) was used. The coverslip was sealed with nail polish and preparations were kept at 4°C in dark conditions until analysis.

Oocyte evaluation

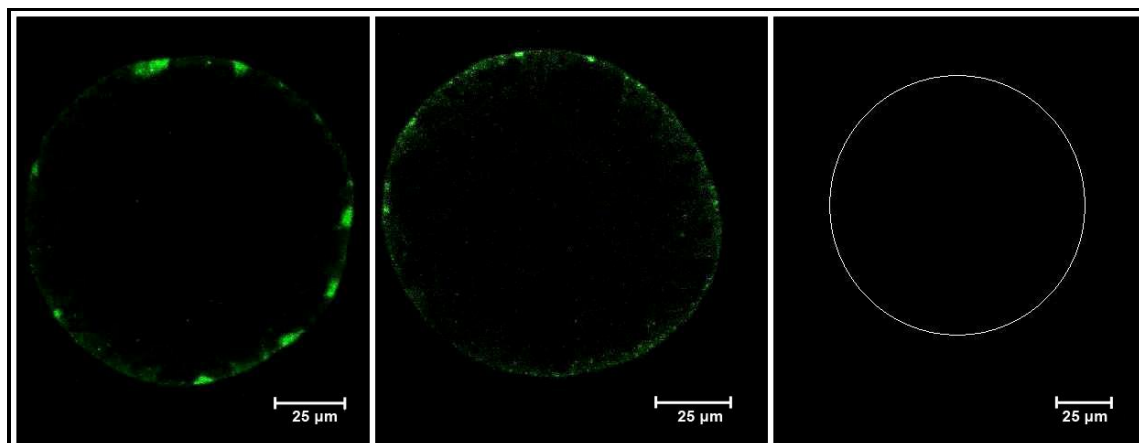
Nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation were evaluated in each oocyte. Nuclear stages were observed under an UV epifluorescent microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE 2000S) and a laser-confocal microscope (Leica TCS SP2). Metaphase II (MII) was considered to be the correct nucleus stage after oocyte maturation. Nuclear stages were classified according to a modified classification by Tseng (Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010): Anaphase-Telophase I (A-T), normal MII (uniform alignment of the chromosomes on the spindle) or anomalous MII (nuclear contents appearing as a chromatin-like structure forming condensed aggregates or forming aberrantly distributed chromosomes; Figure 1).

Figure 1. Laser confocal microscopy images of Hoechst 33342-labeled bovine oocytes showing a Metaphase II (MII) and anomalous MII.



Translocation of CG to the oolema was considered to be an indicator of correct cytoplasmic maturation (Damiani *et al.*, 1996) and was checked under an UV epifluorescent microscope and a laser-confocal microscope for each oocyte. Four patterns of CGs translocation were observed according to Hosoe and Shioya (1997) classification: Pattern I (CGs distributed in clusters or large aggregates), pattern II (CGs individually dispersed and partially clustered), pattern III (correct distribution of CGs, completely dispersed in monolayer), pattern IV (no CG; Figure 2).

Figure 2. Laser-confocal microscopy images of an equatorial section of FITC-LCA-labeled bovine oocytes showing representative CG distribution patterns for the different groups: Pattern II, Pattern III, Pattern IV.



Hormone determinations

For each study group, the steroidogenic activity of cumulus cells was assessed in the maturation medium. Estradiol and progesterone concentrations were determined after IVM using commercial enzyme immunoassay kits (Neogen Corporation, EIA #402210 and EIA #402310 respectively) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Validation test were performed for each assay.

Statistical analysis

Only oocytes that reached MII nuclear stage were included in the statistical analysis. The following data were recorded for each oocyte: replicate (1-7), antioxidant agent (RO or RI or OA), treatment (C versus HS), MII morphology (normal MII versus anomalous MII) and CG distribution pattern (I -IV).

The probability of differences in the proportions of oocytes showing anomalous MII and GC distribution pattern IV among replicates was determinate by Chi-squared analysis.

The results of the nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation were expressed in percentage. The data were analyzed using contingency tables and Pearson's Chi-square statistical test using SPSS (version 15.0 for Windows, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL., USA). A T-Student test for unpaired data was performed to evaluate hormone production, using the Welch correction for groups who did not have equal variances through GraphPad InStat (version 3.01, Windows 95, Graph Pad Software, San Diego, USA). Significant differences were considered at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Heat stress effects on oocyte maturation

Heat-stressed oocytes showed lower MII percentages ($P < 0.05$) and higher percentage of oocytes with cortical granules pattern IV than the oocytes matured under control conditions ($P < 0.010$). The rise of pattern IV was at the expense of a decrease in the correct pattern III percentage.

Effect of antioxidant agents on oocyte nuclear maturation

When retinol was added to the maturation medium, heat stressed oocytes showed a higher percentage of correct nuclear maturation stage ($P = 0.031$; Figure 3).

Nevertheless, the addition of retinyl or oleic acid to the maturation medium reduced the percentage of MII oocytes regardless the maturation conditions (C group $P = 0.003$, HS group $P = 0.006$; C and HS group $P = 0.000$, respectively; Figure 4 and 5).

Effect of antioxidant agents on cortical granules distribution pattern

A reduction in the percentage of oocytes showing exocytosis pattern (pattern IV) was observed under heat stress conditions ($P = 0.010$) when retinol was added to the medium (Figure 3). It was linked to an increase in CG pattern II percentage. However, when retinyl was added to the maturation medium, cytoplasmic maturation was significantly altered in heat-stressed oocytes showing a lower GC pattern III percentage ($P = 0.002$) and a higher exocytosis pattern IV ($P = 0.025$) (Figure 4). On the other hand, oleic acid supplementation did not significantly affect the cytoplasmic maturation patterns (Figure 5).

Figure 3. Percentage of control and heat-stressed oocytes that reached the MII stage and different CG distribution patterns when retinol was added to the maturation medium. * $P < 0.05$.

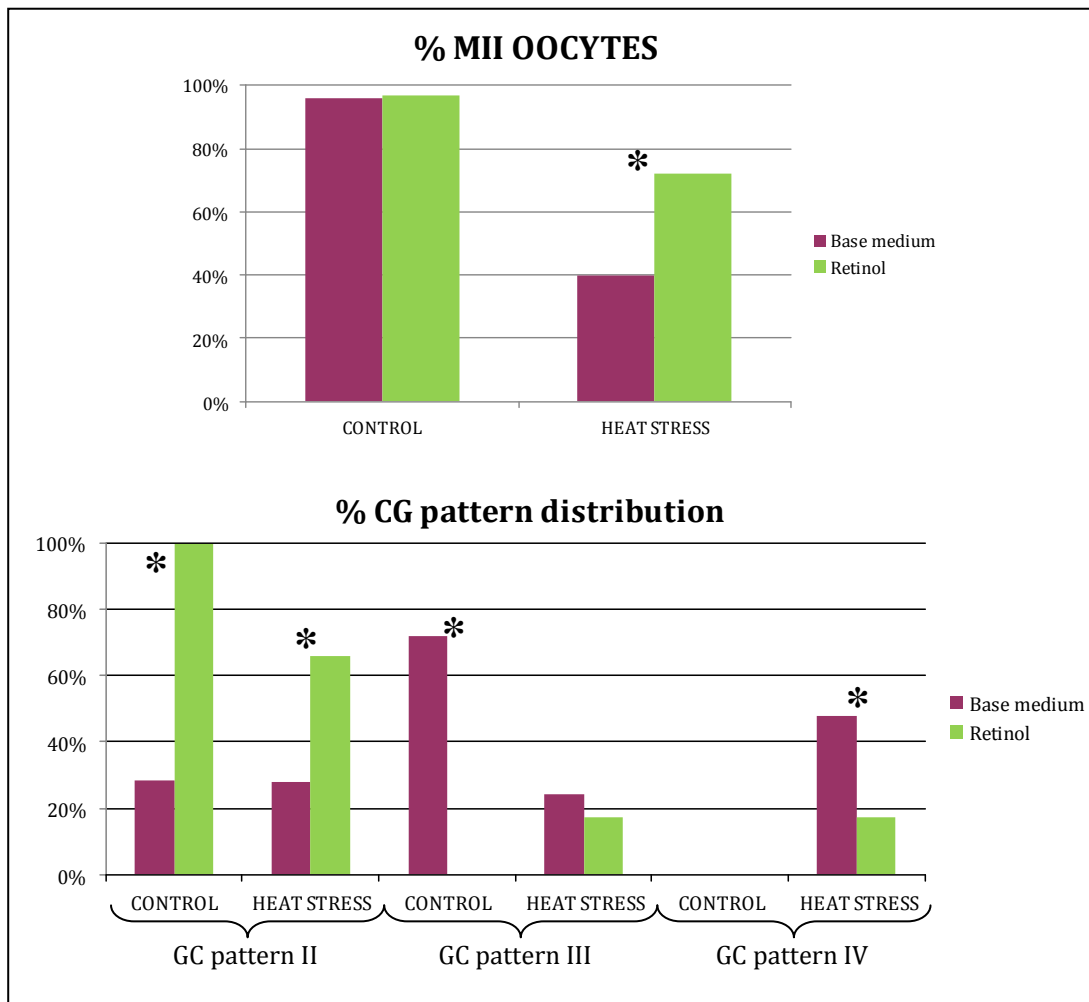


Figure 4. Percentage of control and heat-stressed oocytes that reached the MII stage and different CG distribution patterns when retinyl was added to the maturation medium. * P < 0.05.

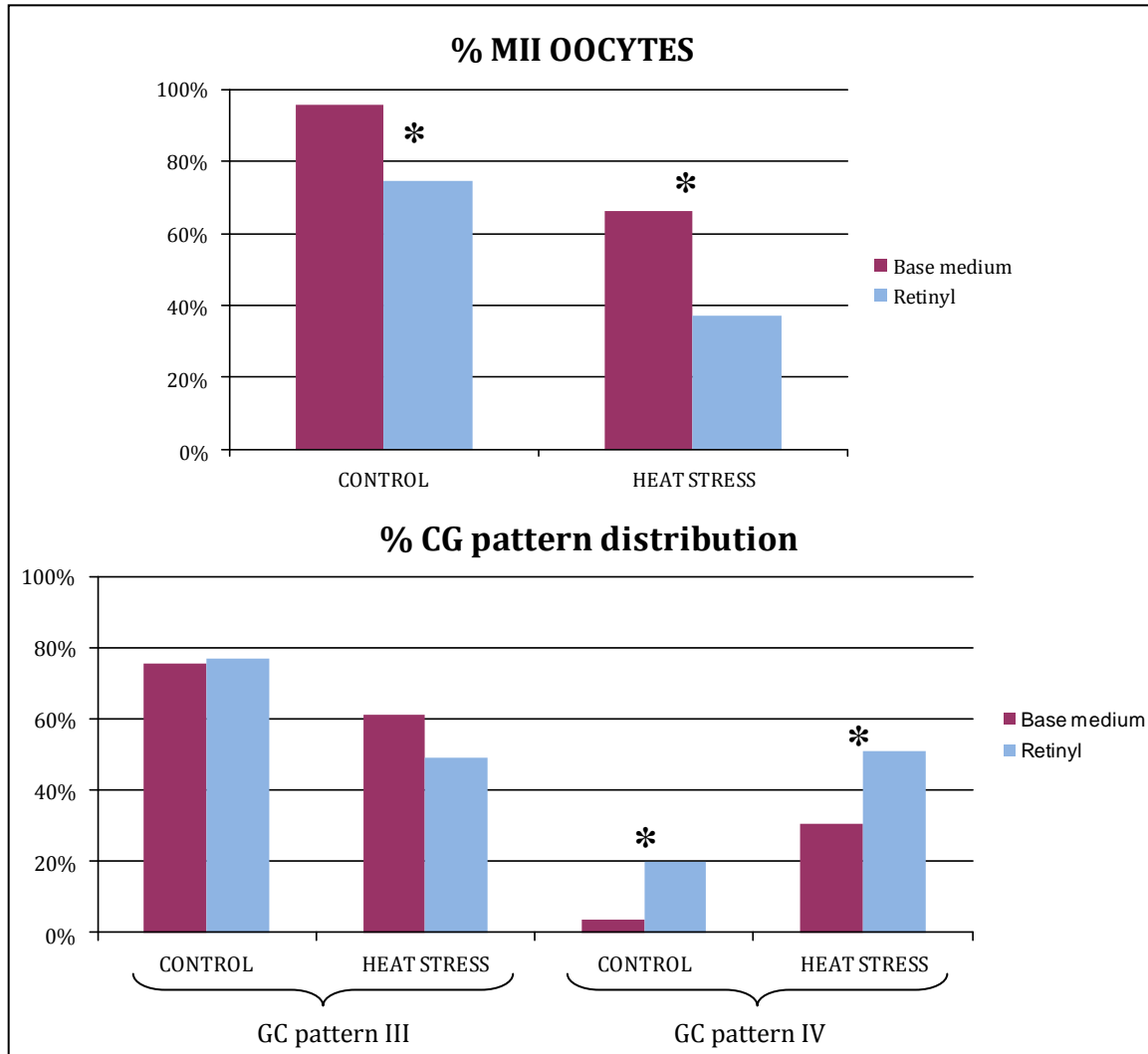
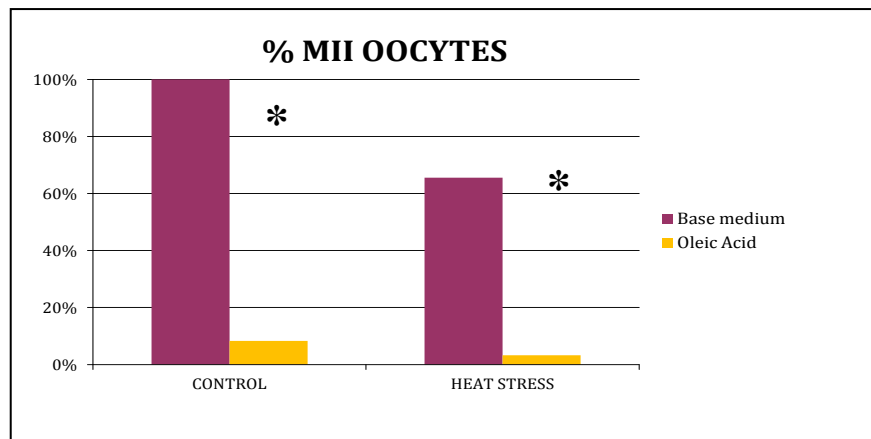
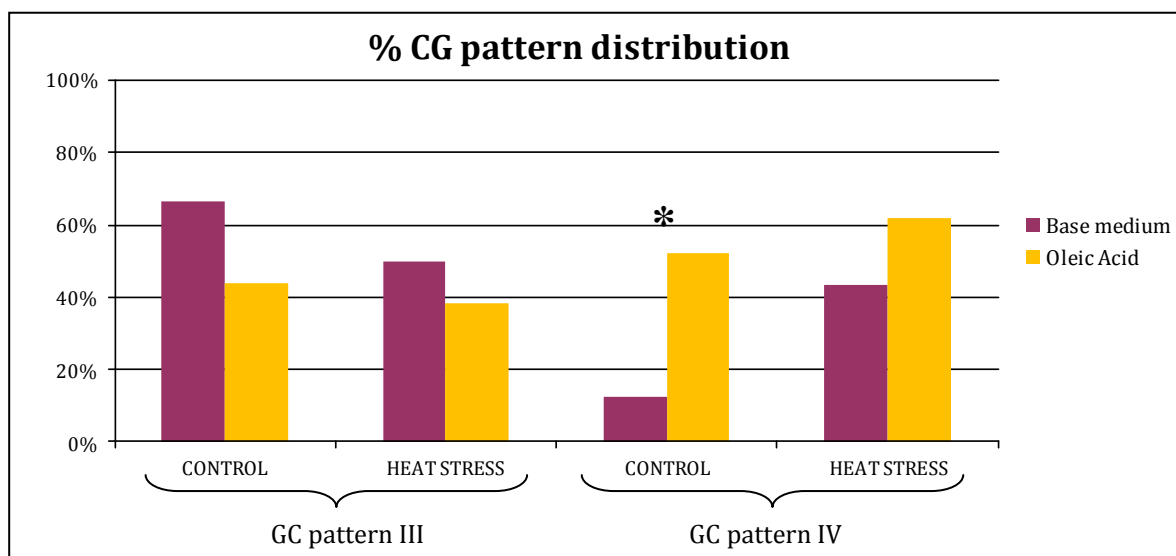


Figure 5. Percentage of control and heat-stressed oocytes that reached the MII stage and different CG distribution patterns when oleic acid was added to the maturation medium. * P < 0.05.





Effect of antioxidant agents on steroidogenic activity

Neither Retinol nor heat stress conditions had effects on steroidogenic activity.

Nevertheless, under physiological conditions, a slight increase on estradiol production ($P = 0.0669$) and a decrease on progesterone production was observed ($P = 0.0275$) when retinyl was added to the medium. On the other hand, oleic acid supplementation significantly increased estradiol availability ($P = 0.0163$), although no effect was found on progesterone.

Discussion

The current study demonstrated that heat stress dramatically affected oocyte maturation at nuclear and cytoplasmic level, in agreement with our previous findings (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, heat-stressed oocytes were less affected when retinol was added to the maturation medium, at least at nuclear level.

The greater percentage of heat-stressed oocytes showing an aberrant progression to the second meiotic metaphase stage was probably as a result of chromosomal and meiotic spindle alterations, as described by other authors (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Roth and Hansen, 2005; Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010). The higher proportion of oocytes showing CG distribution pattern IV, presumptive of premature exocytosis, under high temperatures has also been described previously (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010). This pattern, characterized by loss of a continuous CG layer, is the most common pattern produced in oocytes after fertilization or activation due to exocytosis. Thus, heat stress at the end of the IVM period seems to cause an advanced state of oocyte maturation (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005), resulting in CG loss, abnormality compatible with oocyte aging (Andreu-Vázquez *et al.*, 2010).

HS affects follicle development and oocyte competence (Hansen *et al.*, 2001; García-Ispuerto *et al.*, 2007) due to high levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Ikeda *et al.*, 1999; De S Torres-Junior *et al.*, 2008; Roth *et al.*, 2008). Mammalian cells, including oocytes and early embryos, have evolved several

mechanisms, as antioxidant molecules, to be protected against ROS damage. Antioxidants present in the oocyte, embryo and/or its environment include vitamins as A (retinol), C and E, pyruvate, glutathione (GSH), hypotaurine, taurine, and cysteamine (Guerin *et al.*, 2001).

Some *in vivo* studies described beneficial effects on the use of antioxidant agents or fatty acids in the diet improving fertility during the warm period of the year and also during NEB. It has been reported that dairy cow fertility can be improved at the second artificial insemination by a diet rich in retinol and β -carotenes during the warm months (Arechiga *et al.*, 1998). However, it has been suggested that a retinoid cumulative effect is needed to obtain an effective concentration in oviduct and uteri (Guerin *et al.*, 2001; Livingston *et al.*, 2004). It is due to beta-carotene metabolism and location of retinoid receptors. Those receptors are present in the cumulus oocyte complex, so it is suggested that retinoids could counteract HS effects by receptor mediated (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004). On the other hand, other nutritional management, involving fatty acids, improved some aspects on dairy cow fertility in summer (Bilby *et al.*, 2006).

HS affects harmfully the oocyte maturation at both nuclear and cytoplasmic levels. However, in our study, nuclear oocyte maturation was improved when retinol was added to the maturation medium of heat-stressed oocytes. Vahedi *et al.* (2009) also reported a beneficial effect on bovine nuclear oocyte maturation when all-trans retinoic acid at 1 μM was supplemented *in vitro* at physiological conditions, observing an increase on development rate to MII. Nevertheless, the beneficial effects of retinol are noted only when the effects of heat stress were pronounced enough to reduce continued development of oocytes (Livingston *et al.*, 2004). However, there are controversial results regarding retinol effects on embryo development. Some studies suggested that ovine embryo development to blastocyst could be improved under oxidative stress conditions adding retinol at 6 μM (Rajesh *et al.*, 2010), and also bovine heat-stressed oocytes and embryos, after addition of retinol at 5 μM (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Livingston *et al.*, 2004). Nevertheless, these studies take into account the effect on the oocyte through the embryo development but not the retinoid effects done into the oocyte itself. Therefore, in this study we tried to elucidate the effects that retinoids exert into the oocyte itself under heat stress conditions.

On the other hand, a retinol effect on CG was observed in our study, decreasing the exocytosis pattern IV due to HS, but also increasing the CG pattern II oocytes. Although the correct maturation distribution pattern is CG pattern III, the pattern II is considered an immature pattern but not an undesirable distribution. A possible explanation is that retinol could cause a delay effect on CG migration through the oolema, not considering it as a negative effect. It has been described previously that other retinoids improve cytoplasmic maturation of bovine oocytes under physiological conditions (Hidalgo *et al.*, 2003), possibly because retinoids can act as antioxidant agents, regulating the expression of the gonadotrophin receptor, increasing midkine levels (MK; growth differentiation factor) in follicular fluid, suppressing cyclooxygenase synthesis and nitric oxide synthesis in follicle cells, cumulus-granulosa cells and oocytes (Ikeda *et al.*, 2005).

Nevertheless, when other retinoid was used (retinyl) a decrease in the correct oocyte maturation rate was observed, especially on nuclear stage. This effect was seen at both culture conditions. So, retinyl seems to be useless to counteract heat stress effects on bovine oocytes, at least at the concentration used in this study. To our knowledge there is no literature about effects of retinyl on bovine oocyte maturation, neither under physiological or heat stress conditions. However, retinyl has been used on embryos and did not show a beneficial effect on development or blastocyst rates (Lima *et al.*, 2004). Although retinoic acid supplementation helps murine embryos to overcome the two-cell block (Hajjalizadeh *et al.*, 2008), and seems to be valuable in co-cultures of goat embryos with oviductal cells. So, it could suggest that retinyl needs to be metabolised to be effective (Chiamenti *et al.*, 2010).

It has been reported that oleic acid is present in high concentrations in bovine oocyte membrane during winter and its low concentration in summer is related to the poor quality of oocytes (Zeron *et al.*, 2001). Nevertheless, our results showed a negative effect of oleic acid on metaphase progression, as described previously by Jorritsma *et al.* (2004), and did not improve cytoplasmic oocyte maturation under heat stress, at least at the concentration used in this study. However, the addition of oleic acid in the maturation medium seemed to not cause any effect on nucleus of bovine oocytes in a previous study (Leroy *et al.*, 2005). To our knowledge there are no other works taking into account the effect of oleic acid on oocyte cytoplasmic maturation. It is necessary to take into account that the concentrations used in this study could be not appropriate to improve oocyte maturation under heat stress conditions.

HS affects steroidogenic activity as well as oocyte development. Although no effect was found in hormone production when antioxidant agents were added to the culture medium under HS, some effects were noticed on physiological conditions, except using retinol. Our findings suggested that retinyl supplementation was able to maintain cumulus oophorus cell phenotype, maintaining estradiol secretion, and avoiding its premature luteinisation, thus decreasing progesterone availability for the oocyte. These findings do not correspond with an *in vitro* study in gilts, where an increase in progesterone secretion, but not in estradiol concentration, was reported in those oocytes cultured after an *in vivo* injection of vitamin A before mating (Whaley *et al.*, 2000). Finally, oleic acid supplementation was able to increase estradiol availability per oocyte, as described in other study where estradiol production by granulosa cells was also stimulated, but at higher concentrations than used in our study (500 μ M; Vanholder *et al.*, 2005).

In conclusion, heat stress increased the rate of aged oocytes after *in vitro* maturation, and the use of retinol as supplementation in the maturation medium could be useful improving nuclear maturation in bovine heat-stressed oocytes. However, the addition of retinyl or oleic acid to the medium was not useful to improve maturation of heat-stressed oocytes, at least at the concentrations used in this study. So, further studies are needed in this direction to elucidate the existence of effective concentrations of the assessed antioxidant agents.

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**Daily exposure to summer temperatures affects
epididymal sperm cells
in an in vivo rabbit model.**

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Abstract

High temperatures have negative effects on sperm quality leading to temporary or permanent sterility. The aim of the study was to assess the effect of long exposure to summer circadian heat stress cycles on sperm parameters and the motile-subpopulation structure of epididymal sperm cells from rabbit bucks. Twelve White New Zealand rabbit bucks were exposed to 17°C (control group) or to summer circadian heat stress cycles (31°C, 3 hours/day; heat stress group). Spermatozoa were flushed from the epididymis and assessed for sperm quality parameters at recovery. Sperm total motility and progressivity were negatively affected by high temperature in the heat stress group ($P < 0.05$). Heat stress also negatively affected motility parameters (VCL, VSL, VAP, STR, LIN, WOB and BCF; $P < 0.05$, but not ALH). According to motile sperm-subpopulations, heat stress significantly increased ratio of less motile subpopulations, although maintaining percentage of the high motile subpopulation. In conclusion, our results suggest that the induced changes in sperm motility produced by environmental heat stress are linked to concomitant changes in both the specific motility parameters and the proportion of motile sperm-subpopulations of the epididymis. However, these changes did not affect the subpopulation with the highest motile epididymal sperm cells, which it is still conserved despite the detrimental effect of heat stress.

Key Words: Summer circadian heat stress cycles, rabbit, spermatozoa, epididymis, motile sperm-subpopulation.

Introduction

The Earth system has been changing rapidly over the past several decades due to natural and anthropic factors. Studies have stated an increase in the global average surface temperature of about 0.6°C over the past 20th century. The predictions presage increments over 0.1 to 0.2°C per decade (MacCracken, 2008), with an increase in medium and maximum temperatures of 1.5 to 2.1°C in 2020 (Lecha, 2007). These data suggest a significantly increase in heat stress pressure on global human population, animals and plants (Lecha, 2007), displacing life from their thermal comfort zone. Effects of global warming are expected to be larger in the middle-high latitudes than in the tropics, over land areas than oceans, and in winter than in summer (MacCracken, 2008). Heat stress is known to alter the physiology of livestock, reducing male and female reproduction and production, and increasing mortality (Hoffmann, 2010). In males, high temperatures have negative effects on libido and sperm quality leading to sub-fertility, temporary or permanent sterility (Setchell, 1998a; Lue *et al.*, 1999; Yaeram *et al.*, 2006; Tusell *et al.*, 2011). Similar effects have been reported on human reproduction, where seasonally high temperatures increase the incidence of low fertilization rates, due to spermatogenesis and ovulation suppression, as well as a reduction in early embryo survival (Bronson, 1995).

Heat stress effects on male fertility or their semen characteristics have been widely evaluated. The whole body heating approach is one of the most physiological ways for studying the effect of high temperatures on the testis (Setchell, 1998a), but it can also be analyzed by local heating (cryptorchidism, scrotal insulation or immersion in a water bath; Setchell, 1998a). In ruminants and pigs, the most common technique to study heat stress effects *in vivo* is scrotal insulation (Malmgren, 1989; Vogler *et al.*, 1991, 1993; Mieusset *et al.*, 1992; Karabinus *et al.*, 1997; Walters *et al.*, 2005, 2006), although, some studies have also been developed in climatic chambers (De Alba and Riera, 1966; Skinner and Louw, 1966; Rathore, 1968; Wettemann *et al.*, 1976; Wettemann and Desjardins, 1979; Cameron and Blackshow, 1980; Heitman *et al.*, 1984). On the other hand, rodents are usually submitted to high temperatures by immersing body and testes in water bath (Sailer *et al.*, 1997; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Setchell *et al.*, 1998b; Rockett *et al.*, 2001; Banks *et al.*, 2005; Pérez-Crespo *et al.*, 2008), and also in climatic chambers (Zhu *et al.*, 2004; Yaeram *et al.*, 2006). In addition, in rabbits the effects of high temperatures have been assessed by observation of seasonal effects (cool vs. warm seasons of the year; Marai *et al.*, 2002; Roca *et al.*, 2005; Safaa *et al.*, 2008), although there exist a report using a climate chamber at 30°C for 22 hours per day (Finzi *et al.*, 1995). Rabbits are an important livestock species in Mediterranean countries, but it is also a common laboratory mammal used for reproductive toxicological studies that are applied to human medicine. Rabbits are very sensitive to high temperatures since they have few functional sweat glands limiting their ability in eliminating excess body heat when the environmental temperature is high.

General effects of heat stress in males encountered in those studies are a decrease in testis weight, ejaculate volume, spermatozoa concentration, total sperm output, motility, acrosome integrity, sperm chromatin stability, fertility rate and pregnancy rate. Moreover, they have also described an increase in rectal temperature, respiratory rate, and the proportion of dead and abnormal spermatozoa, embryonic

loss and sex ratio distortion. However, all these studies have limited value since they evaluate seasonal effects or simulate unreal situations as local heating and constant exposure to high temperatures along the day in a climatic chamber. The results obtained from those studies should be analyzed with caution, because they are ignoring other factors as the ability of the scrotal skin to sweat or animal physiological, metabolic and endocrinological reactions that can counteract or diminish heat stress effects on male reproductive traits. According to that, this study try to evaluate the high temperature effects on male reproductive traits, simulating as possible the real environmental conditions which animals are submitted to in our latitudes during the warm months of the year.

Furthermore, previous studies usually take into account motility values based on subjective observations. Usually, the subjective scales reported are different between studies and are not comparable. In our study, we evaluate sperm movements using an objective system (CASA) to analyze sperm motility and takes into account specific sperm parameters. In addition, Quintero-Moreno *et al.* (2007) described the existence of specific, motile sperm-subpopulation structures in rabbit fresh ejaculates. These subpopulations have been found before in other species such as boar, dog, horse, donkey and human (Thurston *et al.*, 1999; Rigau *et al.*, 2001; Quintero-Moreno *et al.*, 2003; Buffone *et al.*, 2004; Miró *et al.*, 2005). However, no reports exist analyzing the motile subpopulations of sperm samples from epididymal origin. Sperm-subpopulations are composed by a group of sperm with varying degrees of structural and functional differentiation, which results in subpopulations of different quality. It is believed that only a very small percentage of sperm is able to achieve fertilization (Holt and Van Look, 2004; Holt, 2005). Hence, such structure could suggest the existence of a relationship between changes in the concrete subpopulation structure of an ejaculate and its fertilizing ability (Hirai *et al.*, 2001; Quintero-Moreno *et al.*, 2003). In accordance to that, it is important to elucidate the changes on motile sperm-subpopulation induced by high temperatures to find if fertilization ability can be or not altered.

The aim of the study was to assess the effect of long exposure to *in vivo* summer circadian heat stress cycles, based on data from 3 previous summer seasons, on motile sperm parameters and sperm motile-subpopulation structure of epididymal sperm cells from rabbit bucks.

Material and methods

Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma (Madrid, Spain) unless otherwise indicated.

Animals and samples collection

Animals used in this study came from the Caldes line (Gómez *et al.*, 2002), which is selected for growth rate during the fattening period. Twelve White New Zealand rabbit bucks (180 days old and from different litters) individually housed in commercial wire cages were divided in two buildings. Six males were housed at 17°C mean temperature (control group) and the rest of males at 17°C, 18 hours a day, and at 31°C the rest 3 hours (heat stress group), simulating a summer circadian heat stress cycle. Mean,

minimum and maximum summer temperature values were obtained from 3 previous summers in our geographical area (NE Spain). Animals were also submitted to 60% of relative humidity and cycles of 16h day-light. The experimental animals were part of a study of the effect of heat stress exposure over behavioral and physiological features, and 2 ejaculates per male were collected weekly. At the end of the study (more than a year) animals were euthanized at approximately 2 years old. Epididymal spermatozoa were recovered after flushing cauda epididymis and vas deferens with 10ml of Gent A diluent® (Minitüb, Tiefenbach, Germany). At recovery, sperm quality parameters were assessed.

Analysis of sperm quality parameters

Sperm concentration and total sperm number were determined after counting in a haemocytometer chamber (Neubauer improved). Percentages of viability, morphological abnormalities and intact acrosomes were determined by using the eosin-nigrosin staining. This technique shows viable spermatozoa as being those with a uniform, white stain in all of the cells, whereas the presence of a pinkish stain was indicative of non-viable sperm cells (Bamba, 1988). All determinations were performed after analyzing a minimum of 200 spermatozoa/sample through optical microscope (magnification: 1000x). Motility and progressivity was analyzed by a computer assisted sperm analysis (CASA; Integrated Sperm Analysis System, V1.0, Proiser S.L., Valencia, Spain). Five-microliter aliquots of pre-warmed samples were placed on a warmed (37°C) slide and covered with a 22 mm² coverslip. The analysis was based upon the study of 25 consecutive, digitalized photographic images obtained from a single field at a magnification of 100x on a dark field. These 25 consecutive photographs were taken in a time lapse of 1 s, which implied a velocity of image-capturing of one photograph every 40 ms. Four to five separate fields were taken for each sample. The motility descriptors obtained after CASA analyses were:

Curvilinear velocity (VCL): The mean path velocity of the sperm head along its actual trajectory (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).

- Linear velocity (VSL): The mean path velocity of the sperm head along a straight line from its first to its last position (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Mean velocity (VAP): The mean velocity of the sperm head along its average trajectory (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Linearity coefficient (LIN): $(\text{VSL}/\text{VCL}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Straightness coefficient (STR): $(\text{VSL}/\text{VAP}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Wobble coefficient (WOB): $(\text{VAP}/\text{VCL}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Mean amplitude of lateral head displacement (ALH): The mean value of the extreme side-to-side movement of the sperm head in each beat cycle (units: μm).
- Frequency of head displacement (BCF): The frequency with which the actual sperm trajectory crosses the average path trajectory (units: Hz).

Finally, total motility was defined as the percentage of spermatozoa which showed a VAP above 10 $\mu\text{m/s}$, and progressivity as the percentage of spermatozoa which showed a VAP above 50 $\mu\text{m/s}$ and 70% of STR.

Statistical analysis

Data were processed by using the Statistical Analysis Systems Package (SAS. SAS/STAC Software. Cary, NC, USA: SAS Inst. Inc.; 2000). Normality of data distributions was assessed by the Shapiro–Wilks Test, which is included in the UNIVARIATE procedure. Afterwards, the FASTCLUS clustering procedure included in the SAS package was used to separate motile spermatozoa into specific subpopulations. The FASTCLUS procedure performs a disjointed cluster analysis based on Euclidean distances computed from one or more quantitative parameters. In the current study, these variables were the different sperm motility parameters measured by the CASA system. Spermatozoa were divided into clusters such that every observation belonged to a single cluster. Sperm cells that shared similar motility characteristics were assigned to the same cluster, whereas differing spermatozoa were assigned to different clusters. A PROC GLM procedure was applied to evaluate significant differences among clusters ($P < 0.05$) and the LSMEANS procedure was applied to list these differences. Finally, another general linear model (the PROC GLM routine) was used to test for significant differences in sperm parameters ($P < 0.05$) among the samples subjected to different group of temperature conditions. The LSMEANS procedure was used to identify significant differences. The total number of spermatozoa analyzed following this protocol was 2,298 (1168 and 1130 from control and heat stress group, respectively).

Results

Effect of circadian heat stress cycles on epididymal sperm cells

At recovery, percentages of viability, morphological abnormalities and intact acrosomes were similar for both groups of study, without significant differences (Table 1). There were also no differences in sperm concentration and total sperm number (136.7 and 130.3 millions sperm cells/ml and 1167.3 and 1166 millions of sperm cells for control and HS groups, respectively). However, sperm total motility and progressivity were negatively affected in sperm samples from the heat stress group ($P = 0.048$ and $P = 0.0030$, respectively).

These alterations were also associated with significant changes in motility parameters (Table 2). Thus, heat stress group showed significant decreases ($P < 0.0001$) in VCL, VSL, VAP, STR, LIN and WOB. The heat stress group had also higher values of frequency of head displacement (BCF; $P < 0.0001$). No significant differences were detected for the mean amplitude of lateral head displacement (ALH) between groups.

Table 1. Means \pm SEM of the sperm quality analysis of epididymal sperm samples from control and heat stress groups.

	Control	Heat Stress
Viability (%)	78.26 \pm 3.28 ^a	77.09 \pm 3.46 ^a
Total motility (%)	78.53 \pm 1.37 ^a	55.63 \pm 14.57 ^b
Progressivity (%)	38.23 \pm 2.70 ^a	20.07 \pm 7.17 ^b
Altered acrosomes (%)	17.87 \pm 4.24 ^a	29.35 \pm 7.12 ^a
Morphological abnormalities (%)	37.09 \pm 2.35 ^a	42.43 \pm 14.93 ^a

Note: a-b Different superscripts in a row indicate significant differences.

Table 2. Means \pm SEM of the motility parameters of epididymal sperm samples from control and heat stress groups.

	Control	Heat Stress
VCL (μ m/s)	102.24 \pm 1.11 ^a	93.80 \pm 1.26 ^b
VSL (μ m/s)	36.59 \pm 0.68 ^a	28.68 \pm 0.76 ^b
VAP (μ m/s)	54.44 \pm 0.70 ^a	45.55 \pm 0.86 ^b
LIN (%)	37.18 \pm 0.64 ^a	29.74 \pm 0.64 ^b
STR (%)	64.38 \pm 0.71 ^a	59.14 \pm 0.77 ^b
WOB (%)	54.44 \pm 0.52 ^a	47.77 \pm 0.55 ^b
ALH (μ m)	4.22 \pm 0.05 ^a	4.30 \pm 0.06 ^a
BCF (Hz)	8.85 \pm 0.12 ^a	7.50 \pm 0.13 ^b

Note: a-b Different superscripts in a row indicate significant differences.

Effect of circadian heat stress cycles on motile sperm-subpopulation structure

The FASTCLUS procedure detected four subpopulations of motile sperm cells. Percentages of motile sperm-subpopulations obtained in the control and heat stress groups are shown in Graphic 1. Table 3 shows the mean values for each motility variable in each subpopulation. According to that, motile sperm-subpopulations were characterized as follows:

CONTROL GROUP

- Subpopulation 1: This subpopulation was defined by overall high values of velocity (VCL, VSL and VAP), low values of linearity (LIN), and high frequency of head displacement (BCF). This subpopulation accounted for the 26.69% of all motile sperm cells.
- Subpopulation 2: This subpopulation was also characterized by overall high values of velocity and high frequency of head displacement. However, it was also characterized by high values of linearity. Subpopulation 2 was made up of the highest percentage of cells, since it included 32.08% of all motile sperm.
- Subpopulation 3: This subpopulation showed middle velocity, low linearity and middle frequency of head displacement. Cells included in this subpopulation accounted for 22.67% of all motile sperm.
- Subpopulation 4: Finally, this subpopulation included sperm with middle-to-low velocity, high linearity and high frequency of head displacement. This subpopulation had the lowest percentage of motile sperm including only a 18.56% of the total motile-sperm subpopulation.

HEAT STRESS GROUP

- Subpopulation 1: This subpopulation was defined as the corresponding one described for the control group. The percentage of spermatozoa included in this subpopulation was 25.52% of all motile sperm.
- Subpopulation 2: This subpopulation was also characterized as the corresponding one described for the control group. The percentage of motile sperm included in this subpopulation was the lowest including 15.73% of the total motile sperm-subpopulation.
- Subpopulation 3: This subpopulation showed middle velocity, low linearity and middle-to-low frequency of head displacement. Subpopulation 3 was made up of the highest percentage of cells, since it included 33.77% of all of motile sperm.
- Subpopulation 4: Finally, this subpopulation included sperm with low velocity, middle linearity and middle-to-low frequency of head displacement. The cells included in this subpopulation accounted for 24.97% of all motile sperm.

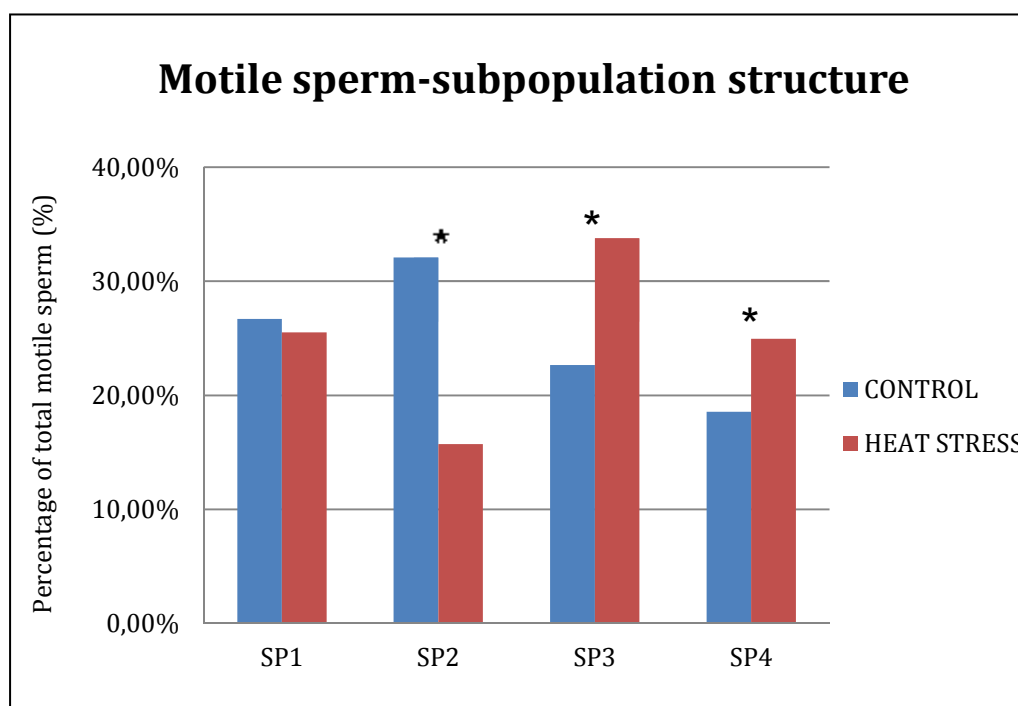
Significant differences were found regarding subpopulation structure between both groups of study. Taking into account these results, circadian heat stress cycles significantly decreased ($P < 0.05$) the percentage of subpopulation 2 (high velocity) by increasing the two less motile subpopulations (3 and 4).

However, samples from the heat stress group kept high percentages of the highest motile subpopulation (25.52 vs. 26.69% of sperm cells in subpopulation 1 for heat stress and control group, respectively).

Table 3. Motile sperm-subpopulations determined in rabbit buck samples from control and heat stress groups. Results are expressed as means \pm S.E.M. Different superscripts between rows in the same subpopulation indicates significant ($P < 0.05$) differences.

	Subpopulation 1		Subpopulation 2	
	Control	Heat Stress	Control	Heat Stress
VCL ($\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$)	134.78 \pm 1.28 ^a	137.70 \pm 1.48 ^a	119.70 \pm 1.16 ^a	113.58 \pm 1.88 ^a
VSL ($\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$)	25.81 \pm 0.68 ^a	36.17 \pm 0.78 ^b	62.71 \pm 0.62 ^a	68.65 \pm 1.00 ^b
VAP ($\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$)	59.15 \pm 0.78 ^a	64.32 \pm 0.90 ^b	76.71 \pm 0.71 ^a	81.05 \pm 1.15 ^a
LIN (%)	19.59 \pm 0.69 ^a	26.68 \pm 0.79 ^b	53.98 \pm 0.63 ^a	61.66 \pm 1.01 ^b
STR (%)	44.68 \pm 0.90 ^a	58.44 \pm 1.05 ^b	81.69 \pm 0.82 ^a	84.94 \pm 1.33 ^a
WOB (%)	44.51 \pm 0.72 ^a	47.03 \pm 0.83 ^a	65.78 \pm 0.66 ^a	72.51 \pm 1.06 ^b
ALH (μm)	5.85 \pm 0.07 ^a	6.16 \pm 0.08 ^a	4.28 \pm 0.06 ^a	3.87 \pm 0.10 ^a
BCF (Hz)	9.02 \pm 0.21 ^a	8.97 \pm 0.24 ^a	10.69 \pm 0.19 ^a	10.36 \pm 0.31 ^a
	Subpopulation 3		Subpopulation 4	
	Control	Heat Stress	Control	Heat Stress
VCL ($\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$)	66.81 \pm 1.38 ^a	78.84 \pm 1.29 ^b	68.55 \pm 1.53 ^a	56.70 \pm 1.50 ^b
VSL ($\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$)	12.08 \pm 0.73 ^a	11.62 \pm 0.68 ^a	36.89 \pm 0.81 ^a	18.92 \pm 0.79 ^b
VAP ($\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$)	25.78 \pm 0.84 ^a	29.42 \pm 0.78 ^a	44.17 \pm 0.93 ^a	25.82 \pm 0.91 ^b
LIN (%)	19.30 \pm 0.74 ^a	14.27 \pm 0.69 ^b	55.27 \pm 0.82 ^a	33.69 \pm 0.80 ^b
STR (%)	47.62 \pm 0.98 ^a	38.86 \pm 0.91 ^b	83.28 \pm 1.08 ^a	71.02 \pm 1.06 ^b
WOB (%)	40.55 \pm 0.78 ^a	37.59 \pm 0.73 ^a	66.11 \pm 0.86 ^a	46.70 \pm 0.84 ^b
ALH (μm)	3.36 \pm 0.07 ^a	4.20 \pm 0.07 ^b	2.83 \pm 0.08 ^a	2.81 \pm 0.08 ^a
BCF (Hz)	5.93 \pm 0.23 ^a	5.63 \pm 0.21 ^a	9.00 \pm 0.25 ^a	6.72 \pm 0.25 ^b

Figure 1. Mean \pm SEM of proportion of motile sperm-subpopulations (SP_i for $i=1,\dots,4$) in control and heat stress groups. (*) Indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between groups of study within subpopulation.



Discussion

Our results clearly demonstrated the harmful effects of *in vivo* circadian heat stress cycles on epididymal sperm quality, especially on sperm motility and sperm motile-subpopulation structure.

It has been described that testis temperature rises up when animals are placed in a hot environment and have problems in evaporation of sweat from the scrotal skin (Setchell and Mieusset, 1966). Consequently, histological abnormalities are found in the testis, where the most susceptible cells to heat are spermatids and spermatocytes (Banks *et al.*, 2005; Paul *et al.*, 2008; Devkota *et al.*, 2010).

High temperature impairs semen quality as it has been reported in a variety of species (bull, ram, boar or mice). In all cases, one or more of the following sperm parameters are affected, usually several weeks after the high temperature period: an increase in dead spermatozoa, morphological abnormalities and acrosomal alterations, and a decrease in sperm concentration and motility (Skinner and Louw, 1966; Wettemann *et al.*, 1976; Wettemann and Desjardins, 1979; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Pérez-Crespo *et al.*, 2008; Safaa *et al.*, 2008). In rabbits, seasonal effects on male reproduction have been usually studied through seminal parameters. It has been established that in summer and beginning of autumn males exposed to acute high temperatures show impairments on sperm concentration, total number of spermatozoa per ejaculate, sperm motility, and variables related to viability and sperm normalcy, compared to winter (Panella and Castellini, 1990; Theau-Clément *et al.*, 1995; Alvariño, 2000; Marai *et al.*, 2002; Nizza *et al.*,

2003; Roca *et al.*, 2005; Safaa *et al.*, 2008). However these effects can be explained also by other season factors than temperature, due to they are not using contemporaneous animals submitted to identical environmental and management conditions with the exception of temperature, as it has been done in our study.

It has been reported that rabbits exposed to chronic heat stress can develop thermotolerance, an adaptation process to high temperatures (Finzi *et al.*, 1988; 1995; Welch, 1993), as seen in rabbit embryos (Makarevich *et al.*, 2007). According to that, it is not surprising to find no significant differences in sperm parameters other than motility or progressivity, due to our experimental animals were submitted to circadian heat stress cycles for a long period of time. A possible explanation to that is that animals even submitted to high temperatures in a climatic chamber, had some hours per day with low temperature coinciding with the night when they fed, allowing them to recovery from the high temperatures. On the other hand, the adaptation process can be explained by the submission to high temperatures at the beginning of the animal's reproductive life (180 days old in our study).

Our results demonstrate the presence of specific, four well-defined sperm subpopulations in rabbit epididymal sperm cells as those reported previously in ejaculates (Quintero-Moreno *et al.*, 2007), which can be easily defined by their motility characteristics. The subpopulations most present in the epididymal sperm samples are coincident with those showing the highest values of motility, including high velocity (VCL, VSL and VAP) and linearity. The motile sperm structure of the other two subpopulations is characterized as those with middle-lower motility.

As described hereby, heat stress negatively affected total sperm motility and progressivity. Furthermore, it is shown that motility changes induced by heat stress are linked to changes in both the specific sperm parameters and the percentages of each motile sperm-subpopulations present in rabbit epididymal sperm cells. The motile sperm-subpopulation structure in heated animals was affected by increasing the proportion of middle-lower motile subpopulations. However, it is noteworthy that these changes did not affect the percentage of one of the highest motile sperm-subpopulation present in rabbit bucks. This could indicate that an overall subpopulation structure is preserved under chronic high temperatures in order to maintain the general function of the ejaculate and their fertilizing ability.

To our knowledge this is the first report taking in to account the effect of heat stress on motile sperm-subpopulations structure. Seasonality effect on sperm-subpopulations has been only studied in male goats (Abdelwahab *et al.*, 2006), rams (Bravo *et al.*, 2011) and deer (Martínez-Pastor *et al.*, 2005). Further research is needed in order to find differences in the effect on the sperm-motile subpopulation structure between acute and chronic exposure to circadian heat stress cycles. This would elucidate if the sperm-motile subpopulation structure is adaptable to heat stress or just maintained in time regardless on environmental conditions.

In conclusion, to our knowledge this is the first report determining effects of heat stress applied *in vivo* on motile sperm-subpopulation structure from epididymal sperm cells in rabbits. In conclusion, our results seem to indicate that the sperm motility changes induced by environmental heat stress are linked to

concomitant changes in both the specific motility parameters and the proportion of motile sperm-subpopulations of the epididymis. However, these changes did not affect the subpopulation with the highest motile epididymal sperm cells, which it is still conserved despite the detrimental effect of heat stress.

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Absence of beneficial effects on rabbit sperm cell cryopreservation by several antioxidant agents.

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Abstract

The generation of reactive oxygen species associated to cryopreservation can be responsible for mammalian sperm damage and limitable value of stored semen in artificial insemination. The aim of this study was to assess several antioxidant agents supplemented in a commercial freezing extender (Gent B®) in order to improve post-thaw rabbit sperm quality. Ejaculates of twenty-six White New Zealand rabbit bucks were collected, evaluated and frozen using a conventional protocol. Antioxidant agents were supplemented at different concentrations: Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA; 5 mg/ml, 30 mg/ml, 60 mg/ml), Retinol (RO; 50 µM, 100 µM, 200 µM) and Retinyl (RI; 0.282 µg/ml, 2.82 µg/ml). Percentages of viability, morphological abnormalities and intact acrosomes were determined by using the eosin-nigrosin staining. Motility and progressivity were analyzed by a computer assisted sperm analysis (CASA). In general, all the sperm quality parameters were negatively affected by the cryopreservation process, the total motility being the most affected one. The addition of antioxidant agents did not improve thaw-sperm quality. Furthermore, for RI groups a significant decrease in sperm quality parameters was recorded. In conclusion, rabbit sperm quality is negatively affected by the cryopreservation process. To our knowledge this is the first report using these antioxidants as supplementation in rabbit freezing extender. BSA and RO at concentrations used in the study did not improve sperm quality parameters after thawing whereas RI supplementation seems to be toxic. More studies are required in order to find the appropriate antioxidants and their most effective concentrations, which will improve rabbit post-thaw sperm quality.

Key Words: Spermatozoa, rabbit, bovine serum albumin, retinol, retinyl.

Introduction

Artificial insemination (AI) in rabbits is widely extended in Mediterranean countries, performed mainly by cooled semen due to the low fertility and prolificacy rates achieved with cryopreserved sperm cells (Viudes de Castro *et al.*, 1999; Roca *et al.*, 2000; Lopez-Gatius *et al.*, 2005).

During cryopreservation, mammalian sperm cells can suffer physical and chemical stress derived from low temperatures, cryoprotectants, ice formation and osmolarity alterations (Watson, 2000). In fact, less than 50% of the sperm cells which survive keep their fertilizing ability (Holt, 2000; Watson, 2000; Prathalingam *et al.*, 2006; Waterhouse *et al.*, 2006). The generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) induced by the cryopreservation process (Griveau and Le Lannou, 1997; Calamera *et al.*, 2001; Neild *et al.*, 2003) and the reduction in the antioxidant enzyme activities in semen after a cycle of freezing-thawing (Bilodeau *et al.*, 2000; Chatterjee and Gagnon, 2001; Bucak *et al.*, 2008; Martí *et al.*, 2008) can be responsible for mammalian sperm damage (Griveau and Le Lannou, 1997; Calamera *et al.*, 2001; Neild *et al.*, 2003) and limitable value of stored semen in AI (La Falci *et al.*, 2011). The oxidative stress derived from the overproduction of ROS induces a sublethal damage which results in a reduction of spermatozoa life span, loss of motility, viability, antioxidant enzyme activity, *in vivo* fertilizing ability, alteration on acrosome and plasma membrane integrity, and DNA damage (Aitken *et al.*, 1998; Vishwanath and Shannon, 2000; Medeiros *et al.*, 2002; Sanacka and Kurpisz 2004). However, the negative effects produced on sperm cells will vary between species depending on the initial sperm plasma membrane composition (Holt, 2000) since the plasma membrane is the primary site of damage induced by cryopreservation (Hammerstedt *et al.*, 1990, Parks and Graham, 1992, Holt and North, 1994; Watson, 1995).

Differences in fatty acid composition and sterol levels have been associated with tolerance to cold-shock and cryopreservation (Parks & Lynch, 1992; White, 1993). In general, mammalian sperm cells can be divided in two groups according to their susceptibility to cold temperatures. Sperm cell membranes composed of a high content of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) and low cholesterol levels (i.e. bull, boar or ram) make membranes susceptible to peroxidative damage, compared with those with low PUFA and high cholesterol levels (i.e. dog, human), making these species more resistant to cold shock (Bailey *et al.*, 2000, La Falci *et al.*, 2011). Rabbit sperm plasma membrane presents a high cholesterol:phospholipid ratio and a low ratio of PUFA:saturated fatty acid in phospholipids (Darin-Bennet and White, 1977, Castellini *et al.*, 2006), giving the membrane structure of intermediate fluidity. This composition makes rabbit sperm cells quite resistant to cold shock (Darin-Bennet and White, 1977). The high concentrations of PUFA within the lipid structure require efficient antioxidant systems to defend against peroxidative damage produced by ROS (Alvarez and Storey, 1989; Aitken and Fisher, 1994; La Falci *et al.*, 2011). However, the protective antioxidant systems in spermatozoa are primarily of cytoplasmic origin, which is mostly discarded during the terminal stages of differentiation (Bucak *et al.*, 2010), and it is also reduced by the storage protocol (Lasso *et al.*, 1994; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2000) being insufficient in preventing lipid peroxidation (LPO) during the freeze-thawing process (Aurich *et al.*, 1997; Storey, 1997). Consequently,

sperm cells are unable to resynthesize their membrane components (Michael *et al.*, 2007), which leads to structural damage (Sinha *et al.*, 1996) and subsequent sperm dysfunction (Alvarez and Storey, 1989; Aitken and Fisher, 1994; Storey, 1997).

Antioxidant molecules could reduce the impact of oxidative stress, and thus improve semen quality after thawing. In fact, it was stated that supplementation of antioxidants (i.e. glutathione, cysteine, lipid-soluble vitamins) improved sperm quality (even post-thawing) in boar (Funahashi and Sano, 2005; Szczesniak-Fabianczyk *et al.*, 2006), bull (Bilodeau *et al.*, 2001; Bucak *et al.*, 2010; Tuncer *et al.*, 2010), ram (Maxwell and Stojanov, 1996; Bucak *et al.*, 2008; Anghel *et al.*, 2009), stallion (Denniston *et al.*, 2000; Baumber *et al.*, 2005), dog (Neagu *et al.*, 2010) and rabbit (Castellini *et al.*, 2000; Yousef *et al.*, 2003) sperm cells. However, antioxidants were not beneficial in other studies (Denniston *et al.*, 2000; Marco-Jimenez *et al.*, 2006). Antioxidants play an important role in scavenging ROS (Baumber *et al.*, 2000) and there are many varieties of antioxidant agents that could be used in this matter, without eliminating completely ROS, because oxidative mechanisms play an important role in the physiological control of mammalian sperm functions as well (sperm capacitation or sperm-egg fusion; Aitken and Fisher, 1994; Griveau and Le Lannou, 1997; Saleh and Agarwal, 2002; Aitken *et al.*, 2004; Ford, 2004; Bennetts and Aitken, 2005; Agarwal *et al.*, 2006).

Although rabbit cryopreserved sperm is not used for commercial purposes at present, it is a valuable laboratory animal, and there is a need for reliable methods of rabbit sperm resource banking (Foote and Carney, 2000). Furthermore, sperm cryopreservation can be an alternative to the transport of animals between countries (Liu *et al.*, 2007) or to the preservation of endangered rabbit breeds (Bolet *et al.*, 2000). However, the methods of freezing semen require further improvements.

The aim of this study was to test bovine serum albumin (BSA), retinol and retinyl as antioxidant agents supplemented at different concentrations in a commercial freezing extender in order to improve rabbit post-thawing sperm quality.

Material and methods

Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma (Madrid, Spain) unless otherwise indicated.

Experimental design

The extender used in the study was the commercial Gent B® (Control group; Minitüb, Tiefenbach, Germany), containing egg yolk and glycerol. The effect of antioxidant agent addition to the commercial extender sperm quality after freezing-thawing was assessed in three different experiments:

- Gent B with Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) supplemented at 3 different concentrations: 5 mg/ml (BSA 1), 30 mg/ml (BSA 2), 60 mg/ml (BSA 3).

- Gent B with Retinol (RO) at 3 different concentrations: 50 μM (RO 1), 100 μM (RO 2), 200 μM (RO 3).
- Gent B with Retinyl (RI) at 3 different concentrations: 0.282 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (RI 1), 2.82 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (RI 2).

Animals and samples collection

The animals used in this study came from the Caldes line (Gómez *et al.*, 2002), which is selected for growth rate during the fattening period. Twenty-six White New Zealand rabbit bucks (180 days old and from different litters) individually housed in commercial wire cages were submitted to 17°C as mean temperature, 60% of relative humidity and cycles of 16h day-light. An ejaculate per male was manually collected using the gloved-hand method and analyzed to guarantee the quality and the homogeneity of the ejaculates. Immediately after collection, the ejaculated semen was diluted (1:2; v/v) in the commercial extender Galap liquid diluent (IMV Technologies). Semen samples with the presence of calcium carbonate deposits and urine were discarded. The ejaculates underwent standard analysis for volume and sperm concentration. Part of the diluted semen was sent at room temperature to the laboratory within 30 min. Once in the laboratory, the samples were kept in an incubator at 37°C until sperm quality analysis were done.

Sperm cell cryopreservation

Semen was centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 10min at 25°C in a programmable refrigerated centrifuge (Hermle Z300K). Afterwards supernatants were discarded and each pellet was re-extended with the different freezing extenders achieving a final concentration of 100×10^6 spermatozoa/mL. Diluted sperm samples were then packaged into 0,25mL straws and immediately cooled to 4°C for 2h. Subsequently, straws were exposed 10 min to liquid nitrogen (N₂) vapours and then plunged into liquid N₂ (-196°C) for storage. Frozen samples were stored in liquid N₂ for at least 2 months. Thawing process was performed then by an immediate immersion of the straws in a water bath at 37°C for 30s. Straws were carefully wiped and opened, and samples were evaluated to determine post-thaw sperm quality parameters on a warmed platina.

Sperm cell quality parameters

Percentages of viability, morphological abnormalities and intact acrosomes were determined by using the eosin-nigrosin staining. This technique shows viable spermatozoa as being those with a uniform, white stain in all of the cells, whereas the presence of a pinkish stain was indicative of non-viable sperm cells (Bamba, 1988). All determinations were performed after analyzing a minimum of 200 spermatozoa/sample through an optical microscope (magnification: 1000x). Motility and progressivity were analyzed by a computer assisted sperm analysis (CASA; Integrated Sperm Analysis System, V.1.2., Proiser S.L., Valencia, Spain). Five-microliter aliquots of pre-warmed samples were placed on a warmed (37°C) slide and covered with a 22 mm² coverslip. The analysis was based upon the study of 25 consecutive, digitalized photographic images obtained from a single field at a magnification of 100x on a dark field. These 25 consecutive photographs were taken in a time lapse of 1 s, which implied a velocity of

image-capturing of one photograph every 40 ms. Four to five separate fields were taken for each sample. The motility descriptors obtained after CASA analyses were:

- Curvilinear velocity (VCL): The mean path velocity of the sperm head along its actual trajectory (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Linear velocity (VSL): The mean path velocity of the sperm head along a straight line from its first to its last position (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Mean velocity (VAP): The mean velocity of the sperm head along its average trajectory (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Linearity coefficient (LIN): $(\text{VSL}/\text{VCL}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Straightness coefficient (STR): $(\text{VSL}/\text{VAP}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Wobble coefficient (WOB): $(\text{VAP}/\text{VCL}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Mean amplitude of lateral head displacement (ALH): The mean value of the extreme side-to-side movement of the sperm head in each beat cycle (units: μm).
- Frequency of head displacement (BCF): The frequency with which the actual sperm trajectory crosses the average path trajectory (units: Hz).

Finally, total motility was defined as the percentage of spermatozoa which showed a VAP above $10 \mu\text{m/s}$, and progressivity as the percentage of spermatozoa which showed a VAP above $50 \mu\text{m/s}$ and 70% of STR.

Statistical analysis

Data were processed by using the Statistical Analysis Systems Package (SAS. SAS/STAC Software. Cary, NC, USA: SAS Inst. Inc.; 2000). Normality of data distributions was assessed by the Shapiro–Wilks Test, which is included in the UNIVARIATE procedure. A PROC GLM procedure was applied to test for significant differences in sperm parameters ($P < 0.05$) among the samples subjected to different groups of study. The LSMEANS procedure was used to identify significant differences. The total number of spermatozoa analyzed following this protocol was 9521 (4195, 2031 and 3295 from BSA, RO and RI groups, respectively).

Results

Effect of cryopreservation on post-thawing sperm cell quality

In accordance to the sperm quality parameters, significant differences were found between fresh ejaculates and post-thawed sperm cells (Table 1). In general, all the quality parameters were negatively affected by the cryopreservation process. The total motility was the most affected parameter by the freezing-thawing protocol (74.07% vs. 4.86%, for fresh and sperm cells frozen with Gent B respectively).

Table 1. Means \pm SEM of the sperm quality analysis from fresh and thawed ejaculates.

	Viability (%)	Total motility (%)	Progressivity (%)	Altered acrosomes (%)	Morphological abnormalities (%)
Fresh	77.0 \pm 2.2 ^a	74.1 \pm 3.9 ^a	30.1 \pm 2.8 ^a	27.4 \pm 3.1 ^a	24.2 \pm 2.4 ^a
Gent B	36.5 \pm 2.6 ^{b,d}	4.9 \pm 0.6 ^b	2.7 \pm 0.4 ^b	67.7 \pm 2.3 ^b	18.9 \pm 1.7 ^a
BSA 1	39.6 \pm 4.3 ^{b,d}	6.3 \pm 0.8 ^b	4.0 \pm 0.6 ^b	68.7 \pm 3.1 ^b	19.8 \pm 2.0 ^a
BSA 2	42.3 \pm 5.1 ^{b,d}	4.5 \pm 0.9 ^{b,c}	3.0 \pm 0.7 ^{b,c}	64.8 \pm 3.3 ^b	20.5 \pm 2.5 ^a
BSA 3	45.4 \pm 4.6 ^b	6.5 \pm 1.3 ^b	4.8 \pm 1.2 ^b	68.4 \pm 4.1 ^b	21.6 \pm 4.6 ^a
RO 1	34.7 \pm 4.0 ^{b,d}	4.1 \pm 1.0 ^{b,c}	1.1 \pm 0.4 ^{b,c}	62.4 \pm 2.8 ^b	15.2 \pm 2.7 ^a
RO 2	34.6 \pm 5.2 ^{b,d}	2.7 \pm 1.0 ^{b,c}	1.1 \pm 0.4 ^{b,c}	66.1 \pm 4.6 ^b	14.6 \pm 3.3 ^a
RO 3	36.6 \pm 3.7 ^{b,d}	1.6 \pm 0.5 ^{b,c}	0.8 \pm 0.3 ^{b,c}	66.3 \pm 3.9 ^b	15.0 \pm 1.7 ^a
RI 1	27.0 \pm 2.3 ^d	2.3 \pm 0.5 ^{b,c}	1.6 \pm 0.4 ^{b,c}	72.8 \pm 3.9 ^b	20.7 \pm 1.9 ^a
RI 2	9.5 \pm 2.0 ^c	0.2 \pm 0.1 ^c	0.1 \pm 0.1 ^c	92.5 \pm 2.6 ^c	20.8 \pm 2.9 ^a

Note: a-d Different superscripts in a column indicate significant differences.

Alterations in total motility and progressivity were also associated with significant changes in specific motility parameters (Table 2). Thus, specific motility parameters were decreased in general after cryopreservation process except STR and ALH. Only normalcy, those sperm cells without any morphological abnormality (i.e. head abnormality, coiled-tail, tailless), was not affected by the process.

Table 2. Means \pm SEM of the specific motility parameters from fresh and thawed ejaculate.

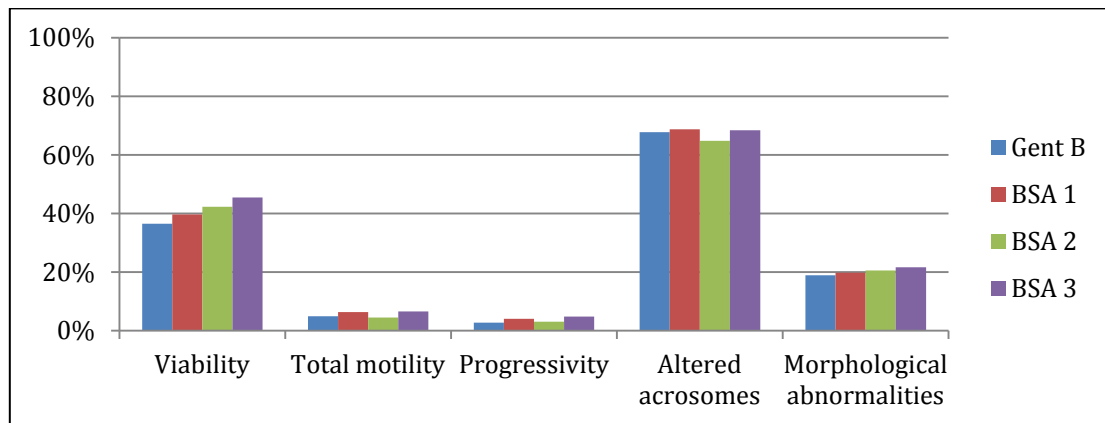
	VCL ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	VSL($\mu\text{m/s}$)	VAP (%)	LIN (%)
Fresh	109.6 \pm 0.5 ^a	44.3 \pm 0.3 ^a	76.7 \pm 0.4 ^a	43.9 \pm 0.3 ^a
Gent B	84.7 \pm 1.7 ^b	29.7 \pm 0.8 ^{b,c}	44.7 \pm 0.9 ^{b,c}	37.8 \pm 0.9 ^b
BSA 1	92.8 \pm 2.9 ^{b,c}	34.1 \pm 1.4 ^b	49.8 \pm 1.6 ^b	38.9 \pm 1.4 ^{a,b}
BSA 2	90.5 \pm 3.5 ^{b,c}	33.4 \pm 1.7 ^{b,c}	47.7 \pm 1.8 ^{b,c}	40.1 \pm 1.8 ^{a,b,c}
BSA 3	86.5 \pm 3.1 ^{b,c}	32.9 \pm 1.4 ^{b,c}	44.5 \pm 1.7 ^{b,c}	40.6 \pm 1.4 ^{a,b}
RO 1	89.7 \pm 4.5 ^{b,c}	24.0 \pm 1.6 ^c	46.2 \pm 2.4 ^{b,c}	30.1 \pm 1.5 ^{c,d}
RO 2	96.6 \pm 5.9 ^{a,c}	28.7 \pm 2.4 ^{b,c}	47.8 \pm 3.1 ^{b,c}	33.3 \pm 2.2 ^{b,c,d}
RO 3	103.6 \pm 6.0 ^{a,b,c}	35.2 \pm 3.3 ^{a,b,c}	56.9 \pm 3.3 ^b	36.3 \pm 3.1 ^{a,b,c}
RI 1	69.4 \pm 3.5 ^e	28.3 \pm 1.7 ^{b,c}	36.4 \pm 1.9 ^{c,d}	40.6 \pm 1.7 ^{a,b}
RI 2	28.1 \pm 8.4 ^d	13.1 \pm 4.1 ^{b,c}	17.4 \pm 5.4 ^d	22.6 \pm 7.2 ^d
	STR (%)	WOB (%)	ALH (μm)	BCF (Hz)
Fresh	59.7 \pm 0.3 ^a	70.9 \pm 0.2 ^a	3.70 \pm 0.02 ^{a,b}	9.4 \pm 0.1 ^a
Gent B	68.5 \pm 1.1 ^{b,c}	53.7 \pm 0.6 ^b	3.71 \pm 0.08 ^{a,b}	9.7 \pm 0.2 ^{a,b,c}
BSA 1	69.4 \pm 1.8 ^{b,c}	54.5 \pm 0.9 ^b	4.04 \pm 0.14 ^{a,b,c}	9.6 \pm 0.4 ^{a,b,c}
BSA 2	71.7 \pm 2.4 ^{b,c}	53.7 \pm 1.2 ^b	3.89 \pm 0.18 ^{a,b,c}	10.5 \pm 0.4 ^{a,b,c}
BSA 3	76.0 \pm 1.7 ^c	52.4 \pm 1.1 ^b	3.68 \pm 0.15 ^{a,b}	10.5 \pm 0.4 ^b
RO 1	56.0 \pm 2.7 ^a	52.7 \pm 1.1 ^b	4.16 \pm 0.20 ^{b,c}	7.8 \pm 0.4 ^c
RO 2	62.8 \pm 2.9 ^{a,b}	50.8 \pm 1.6 ^b	4.43 \pm 2.73 ^c	8.9 \pm 0.6 ^{a,c}
RO 3	63.1 \pm 4.5 ^{a,b,c}	56.1 \pm 1.9 ^b	4.73 \pm 0.32 ^c	9.5 \pm 0.7 ^{a,b,c}
RI 1	75.2 \pm 1.9 ^{b,c}	51.9 \pm 1.5 ^b	2.97 \pm 0.14 ^e	9.8 \pm 0.5 ^{a,b}
RI 2	34.8 \pm 10.1 ^d	29.7 \pm 9.1 ^c	1.11 \pm 0.35 ^d	4.7 \pm 1.6 ^d

Note: a-e Different superscripts in a column indicate significant differences.

Effect of BSA on thawed quality parameters

In general, the addition of BSA to the freezing extender was not more beneficial than the use of Gent B alone. However, in terms of viability, the percentages were higher as the BSA concentration increases, although without significant differences (Figure 1). In terms of altered acrosomes and normalcy, no differences were found between groups of study. Hence, similar sperm quality was obtained by using or not BSA as supplementation.

Figure 1. Semen quality parameters with the addition of BSA to the freezing extender compared with no supplemented samples.



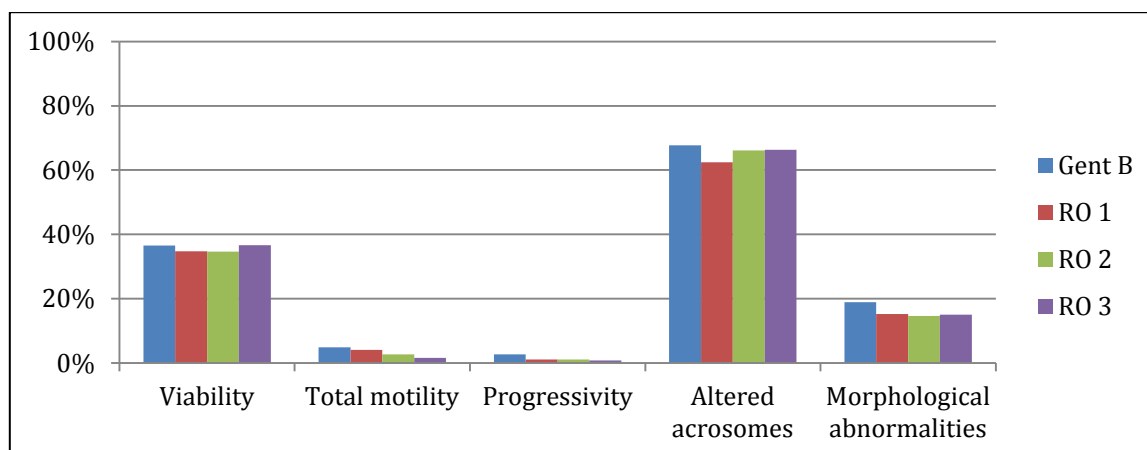
Taking into account total motility and progressivity, the best results were found when BSA at 5 and 30 mg/ml concentrations were present in the freezing extender. Nevertheless, significant differences were not detected once more. Hence, similar results in sperm motility are expected by both using BSA or not. According to that, changes in specific motility parameters after cryopreservation varied according to BSA supplementation (Table 2). In general, all BSA concentrations showed higher parameters of sperm velocity (as represented by VCL, VSL, VAP), LIN and STR and also BCF. However, no significant differences were detected.

Effect of RO on thawed quality parameters

RO supplementation did not show a beneficial effect in comparison with the use of Gent B without antioxidant addition. Significant differences were not found in terms of viability, acrosome integrity or normalcy (Figure 2).

However, according to sperm movements, the supplementation of RO decreased sperm total motility and progressivity as its concentrations increased (Figure 2), although the findings were not significant. Therefore, improvements are not expected by using or not RO in the extender. According to these results the changes in specific motility parameters after cryopreservation varied also according to supplementation (Table 2). RO concentrations showed higher values of sperm velocity, although the best results were detected using RO at 200 μ M concentration (higher values of VCL, VSL, VAP, WOB and ALH).

Figure 2. Semen quality parameters with the addition of RO to the freezing extender compared with no supplemented samples.

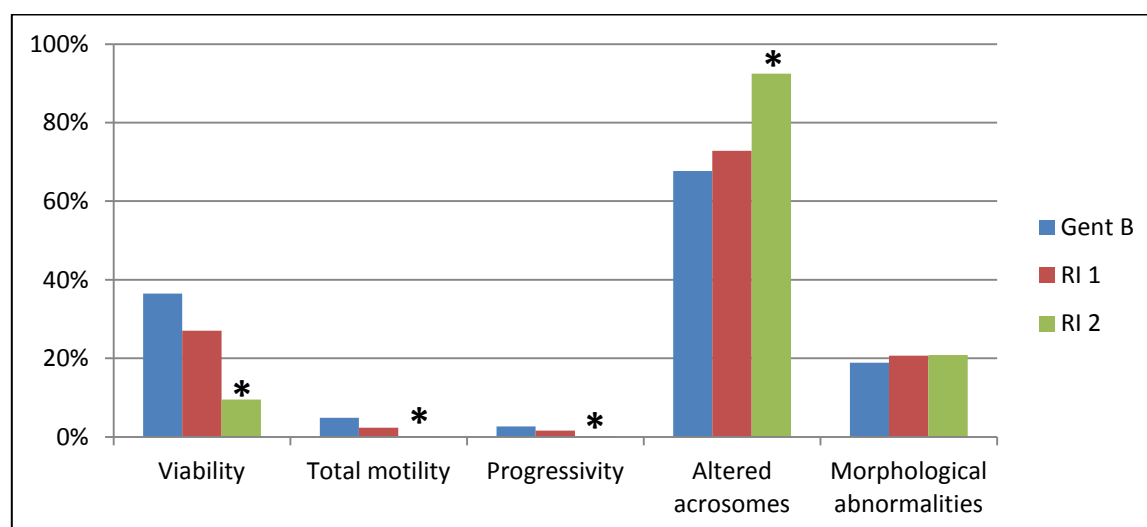


Effect of RI on thawed quality parameters

The supplementation of RI to the freezing extender implied no significant differences in sperm parameters when RI at 0.282 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration was used. However, the use of RI at 2.82 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration significantly decreased sperm quality comparing it with the use of the commercial extender without additives.

In general, supplementation of RI had negative effect on all sperm quality parameters except normalcy (Figure 3), although only RI 2 showed significant differences. Low values were found in terms of viability and acrosome integrity (9.50% vs. 36.49%; 7.48% vs. 32.3%, respectively) between RI 2 and Gent B groups.

Figure 3. Semen quality parameters with the addition of RI to the freezing extender compared with no supplemented samples.



Note: Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between RI 2 and commercial extender (*).

In terms of total motility and progressivity, the lowest values obtained were also detected in those samples frozen in presence of RI at 2.82 µg/ml concentration (Table 1). According to that, changes in specific motility parameters after cryopreservation were found (Table 2), and in general, low values were found by using both concentrations in comparison to the control samples remarking that the worst values were always found in RI 2 group.

Discussion

Our results clearly demonstrated the harmful effects of cryopreservation process on rabbit sperm quality, especially on sperm motility and progressivity. However, the use of the antioxidant agents in an attempt to improve thaw-sperm quality was inadequate to achieve significant results, at least at the concentrations used in this study.

The ROS derived from the freezing process affects sperm membrane integrity leading to a decrease of sperm quality and consequently their fertilizing ability. The high content of unsaturated fatty acids on sperm membranes (White, 1993; Buhr *et al.*, 1994) makes the spermatozoa particularly sensitive to oxidative stress by ROS. As a result, lipid peroxidation increases resulting in loss of viability (Aitken *et al.*, 1998; Vishwanath and Shannon, 2000; Medeiros *et al.*, 2002) reduced sperm motility (de Lamirande and Gagnon, 1992; Baumber *et al.*, 2000; Guthrie and Welch, 2006), loss of acrosomal and plasma membrane integrity (Aitken *et al.*, 1998; Vishwanath and Shannon, 2000; Medeiros *et al.*, 2002) and leads to DNA fragmentation (Aitken *et al.*, 1998; Vishwanath and Shannon, 2000; Medeiros *et al.*, 2002; Bennetts and Aitken, 2005). Rabbit sperm membranes have lower levels of PUFA (Darin-Bennet and White, 1977; Castellini *et al.*, 2006) making these cells less sensitive to oxidative damage, although reduction of sperm quality is still significant as shown in the present study, with a dramatic decrease on total sperm motility and progressivity. Our results are in accordance with Moce and Vicente (2009) who reviewed rabbit cryopreservation studies remarking that the freezing-thawing cycle causes decreases of the percentages of motile and live sperm cells and sperm with intact acrosomes.

Although cryopreserved sperm is not used for commercial purposes at present, there is a need for reliable methods of rabbit sperm resource banking. It can facilitate animal genetic diffusion between countries (Liu *et al.*, 2007), and it can be also useful for preserving endangered rabbit breeds (Bolet *et al.*, 2000). The values of sperm quality after cryopreservation observed in our study are significantly lower than those found in other species. The reason is that there are many extenders and protocols developed for rabbit sperm cryopreservation as reviewed by Moce and Vicente (2009). There is no consensus about the best extender and protocol for rabbit sperm cell cryopreservation. Finally, each research group uses their own protocol and extender, in our case a commercial one that may not have an appropriate composition for rabbit sperm cryopreservation. This may explain why if rabbit sperm is more resistant to cold shock than other species (Darin-Bennet and White, 1977; Castellini *et al.*, 2006), the sperm quality parameters in our study are so critically affected.

In an attempt to minimise the negative effects of all these stressors, research efforts have been focused on the optimization of cryopreservation methods, trying to find the best freezing extender composition. Since spermatozoa and seminal plasma have a limited antioxidant capacity (Aurich *et al.*, 1997; Storey, 1997), the effort to decrease ROS overproduction due to freezing process by the use of antioxidant agents as quenchers of ROS has been studied in a wide range of species ((i) human: Sinclair, 2000; (ii) ram: Maxwell and Stojanov, 1996; Upreti *et al.*, 1998; Baumber *et al.*, 2005; Uysal and Bucak, 2007; Anghel *et al.*, 2009; Maia *et al.*, 2010; (iii) bull: Beconi *et al.*, 1991; 1993; Chen *et al.*, 1993; Foote *et al.*, 1993; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2001; Bucack *et al.*, 2010; Tuncer *et al.*, 2010; (iv) boar: Funahashi and Sano, 2005; Szczesniak-Fabianczyk *et al.*, 2006; (v) dog: Michael *et al.*, 2007; Eulenberger *et al.*, 2009; Neagu *et al.*, 2010; (vi) buffalo: El-Kon, 2011; (vii) stallion: Aurich *et al.*, 1997; Baumber *et al.*, 2000). The aim of using antioxidant treatments should not be the complete ROS elimination since oxidative mechanisms play an important role in the physiological control of mammalian sperm functions (Aitken and Fisher, 1994; Griveau and Le Lannou, 1997; Saleh and Agarwall, 2002; Aitken *et al.*, 2004; Ford, 2004; Bennetts and Aitken, 2005; Agarwal *et al.*, 2006). There are many varieties of antioxidants that could be used in this matter. Unfortunately controversial results have been described. It is therefore necessary to adjust the extender composition, cryoprotectants and cryoprotectant concentrations, as well as the cryopreservation protocol for each single species or even breeds. In rabbits, antioxidants have been specially used to improve semen quality by adding them in the diet (especially vitamin E and C; Yousef *et al.*, 2003; Castellini *et al.*, 2000). Hence, to our knowledge there is no literature about the addition of antioxidant agents on freezing extenders trying to improve rabbit post-thaw quality.

Bovine serum albumin has been used in some studies as an antioxidant agent improving sperm quality. It is known their function eliminating free radicals generated by oxidative stress (Lewis *et al.*, 1997), and the protection of membrane integrity of sperm cells from heat shock during freezing-thawing of canine semen (Uysal *et al.*, 2005). It has also been used to enhance motility and viability of ram sperm cells following cryopreservation process (Matsuoka *et al.*, 2006), being 20mg/ml the concentration more beneficial detected (Uysal and Bucak, 2007). This reported concentration is similar to those used in our investigation. However, our results did not show significant findings, and only quantitative records in terms of viability. As reported by Uysal and Bucak (2007) lower concentrations did not protect sperm cells from lipid peroxidation, although in our study higher concentration (60mg/ml) was insufficient to improve sperm quality. In accordance to that higher concentrations may be needed in rabbit sperm since progressive improvements were found in viability as BSA concentration increases. Further investigations in that way are needed to elucidate the best BSA concentration for rabbit sperm supplementation in freezing extender.

To our knowledge it is the first study using retinol and retinyl as supplementation for freezing extenders in order to improve thaw-sperm quality. They had been used to improve the quality of oocytes and embryos with significantly good results (Lima *et al.*, 2004; Livingstone *et al.*, 2004; Hajjalizadeh *et al.*, 2008; Vahedi *et al.*, 2009; Rajesh *et al.*, 2010). Some precursors of them, such as beta-carotene and lycopene, are known to be important components of antioxidant defence against lipid peroxidation in

living cells (Agarwal *et al.*, 2005) and protecting plasma membrane against lipid peroxidation (Di Mascio *et al.*, 1989). However, it should be pointed out that the concentrations used in our study were not sufficient to alleviate the harmful effects of cryopreservation, and even retinyl may be toxic for sperm cells since a drastic decrease in sperm quality has been recorded as concentration increases. So, further investigations in the use of retinol are needed to find the best concentration, mainly by using lower concentrations since the sperm quality decreases as retinol presence in the extender increases. Although, the use of retinyl should be avoided as our results demonstrate.

In conclusion, rabbit sperm quality is negatively affected by the cryopreservation process and it could be improved by the used of some antioxidant agents supplemented in the freezing extender. To our knowledge this is the first report using these antioxidants as supplementation in rabbit freezing extender. BSA and retinol did not improve sperm quality parameters after thawing at concentrations used in our study. However, retinyl supplementation seems to be toxic for rabbit sperm (and is not recommendable). More studies are needed in order to find the appropriate antioxidants and to define the most effective concentrations, which will improve post-thaw quality.

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Retinol stabilizes acrosome membrane in heat-shocked bull spermatozoa.

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Abstract

High temperatures have negative effects on sperm quality leading to temporary or permanent sterility. The aim of the study was to assess the effect of high temperatures on epididymal sperm cells in comparison with other temperatures (scrotal, environmental and refrigeration temperatures). The effect of the addition of retinol as an antioxidant agent in order to improve sperm quality parameters was also evaluated. Testes from ten bulls were collected from a slaughterhouse. Spermatozoa were flushed from the caudal epididymis and deferent duct and assessed for sperm quality parameters at recovery. Afterwards, sperm samples were exposed to one of four different temperatures (4, 22, 32 and 41.5°C for 3 hours) in presence or absence of retinol in the storage extender. Percentages of viability and morphological abnormalities were determined by using the eosin-nigrosin staining. Acrosome integrity and sperm plasma membrane integrity were assessed by fluorescence PSA-lectin staining and the hypo-osmotic swelling test (HOST), respectively. Motility and progressivity were analyzed by a computer assisted sperm analysis (CASA). Sperm quality parameters were mainly affected by high temperatures (41.5°C). The addition of RO to the storage extender did not show any effect on sperm quality parameters. However, the percentage of spermatozoa with altered acrosome was significantly reduced when retinol was present in the extender under heat stress conditions (41.5°C). In conclusion, retinol may stabilize sperm acrosomal membrane in situations of oxidative stress due to high temperatures.

Key Words: calves, epididymal spermatozoa, retinol, heat stress.

Introduction

The Earth system has been changing rapidly over the past several decades due to natural and anthropic factors. Studies have stated an increase in the global average surface temperature of about 0.6°C over the past 20th century, being predicted increments over 0.1 to 0.2°C per decade (MacCracken *et al.*, 2008), with an increase in medium and maximum temperatures of 1.5 to 2.1°C in 2020 (Lecha, 2007). These data suggest a significantly increase in heat stress pressure on global human population, animals and plants (Lecha, 2007), displacing life from their thermal comfort zone. In accordance, animals in our geographical area are submitted to high temperatures round 20-31 days during the warm months (May-September) and even 4 days during the cold months of the year (October-April; López-Gatius *et al.*, 2006). Heat stress is known to alter the physiology of livestock, reducing male and female reproduction and production, and increasing mortality (Hoffmann, 2010).

General effects of heat stress in male have been described as an increase in rectal temperature and respiratory rate (Stone, 1982; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985; Zhu *et al.*, 2004), and negative effects on production and reproduction leading to sub-fertility, temporary or permanent sterility (Setchell, 1998; Lue *et al.*, 1999; Yaeram *et al.*, 2006; Tusell *et al.*, 2011). It has also been described a decrease in testis weight (Sailer *et al.*, 1997; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Rockett *et al.*, 2001), ejaculate volume (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985), spermatozoa concentration and total sperm output (De Alba & Riera, 1966; Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985), fertility and pregnancy rate (Hansen, 2009; Hendricks *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, the direct effects of high temperatures reported on spermatozoa are a decrease in the percentage of live and morphologically normal spermatozoa (Casady *et al.*, 1953; Skinner & Louw, 1966; Borg *et al.*, 1993), a loss of motility (Ax *et al.*, 1987; Marai *et al.*, 2002), alterations in acrosome and plasma membrane integrity (Meyerhoeffer *et al.*, 1985; Borg *et al.*, 1993; Sanocka & Kurpisz, 2004; Roca *et al.*, 2005; Safaa *et al.*, 2008), sperm chromatin stability (Pérez-Crespo *et al.* 2008; Paul *et al.* 2008), embryonic loss (Wettemann *et al.*, 1976; Stone, 1982; Walters *et al.*, 2005) and sex ratio distortion (Hendricks *et al.*, 2009).

It is noteworthy that cellular exposure to heat stress increases the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) promoting cellular oxidation events (Ikeda *et al.*, 1999; Kim *et al.*, 2005). Sperm cell membranes composed of a high content of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) and low cholesterol levels (i.e. bull, boar or ram) make membranes susceptible to peroxidative damage, compared with those with low PUFA and high cholesterol levels (i.e. dog, human, rabbit), making these species more resistant to cold shock (Bailey *et al.*, 2000, La Falci *et al.*, 2011). The high concentrations of PUFA within the lipid structure require efficient antioxidant systems to defend against peroxidative damage produced by ROS (Aitken & Fisher, 1994; La Falci *et al.*, 2011). However, the protective antioxidant systems in spermatozoa are primarily of cytoplasmic origin, which is mostly discarded during the terminal stages of differentiation (Bucak *et al.*, 2010), and it is also reduced by the storage protocol (Lasso *et al.*, 1994; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2000). Consequently, sperm cells are unable to resynthesize their membrane components (Michael *et al.*, 2007), which leads to structural damage (Sinha *et al.*, 1996) and subsequent sperm dysfunction (Storey, 1997).

The administration of antioxidant agents *in vivo* has been shown to provide slight improvements in pregnancy rates in heat-stressed cows (Arechiga *et al.*, 1998). On the other hand, the addition of antioxidant agents *in vitro* as supplementation of culture media as ROS scavengers has proved improvements in oocyte/embryo culture (Córdova *et al.*, 2010; Marei *et al.*, 2011; Liang *et al.*, 2012). Hence, antioxidant molecules could reduce the impact of oxidative stress, and thus improve semen quality (Yousef *et al.*, 2003; Szczesniak-Fabianczyk *et al.*, 2006; Bucak *et al.*, 2010; Tuncer *et al.*, 2010). There are many varieties of antioxidant agents that could be used to improve sperm quality under oxidative events, without eliminating completely ROS, because oxidative mechanisms play an important role in the physiological control of mammalian sperm functions as well (sperm capacitation or sperm-egg fusion; Aitken *et al.*, 2004; Agarwal *et al.*, 2006).

The aim of the study was to assess the direct effect of high temperatures on epididymal spermatozoa of bulls simulating the conditions reported during summer season, and also the use of retinol as an antioxidant agent for improving sperm quality after the oxidative stress produced by heat stress.

Material and methods

Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma (Madrid, Spain) unless otherwise indicated.

Animals and samples collection

Testes from ten bulls (12-30 months old) recovered at a slaughterhouse were transported to the laboratory at room temperature within 15 min since the slaughter. Once in the laboratory, testes were measured and dissected. Epididymal spermatozoa were recovered after flushing cauda epididymis and vas deferens with 10ml of Kenney medium (Kenney *et al.*, 1975), composed mainly by milk and glucose. At recovery, sperm quality parameters were assessed.

Experimental design

After initial sperm cell evaluation samples were centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 10 min at 25°C (Hermle Z300K) and re-suspended with the storage extender. Four study groups were then established as follows: refrigeration temperature (4°C; RT), environmental temperature (22°C; ET), scrotal temperature (32°C; ST) and rectal temperature simulating that reached during the central part of the day in a hot summer day (41.5°C; HT; Tseng *et al.*, 2004). On the other hand, the same four groups of study were established with 6 µM retinol (all-trans-retinol; RO) as antioxidant agent added into the storage extender (RT + RO, ET + RO, ST + RO, HT + RO).

Analysis of sperm quality parameters

Sperm concentration and total sperm number were determined after counting in a haemocytometer chamber (Neubauer improved). Percentages of viability and morphological abnormalities were

determined by using the eosin-nigrosin staining. This technique shows viable spermatozoa as being those with a uniform, white stain in all of the cells, whereas the presence of a pinkish stain was indicative of non-viable sperm cells (Bamba, 1988). Acrosome integrity was assessed by fluorescence PSA-lectin staining. Sperm plasma membrane functional integrity was assessed by the use of the hypo-osmotic swelling test (HOST) as reported by Gholami *et al.* (2010). All determinations were performed after analyzing a minimum of 200 spermatozoa/sample through optical microscope (magnification: 1000x). Motility and progressivity was analyzed by a computer assisted sperm analysis (CASA; Integrated Sperm Analysis System, V1.2, Proiser S.L., Valencia, Spain). Five-microliter aliquots of pre-warmed samples were placed on a warmed (37°C) slide and covered with a 22 mm² coverslip. The analysis was based upon the study of 25 consecutive, digitalized photographic images obtained from a single field at a magnification of 100x on a dark field. These 25 consecutive photographs were taken in a time lapse of 1 s, which implied a velocity of image-capturing of one photograph every 40 ms. Four to five separate fields were taken for each sample. The motility descriptors obtained after CASA analyses were:

- Curvilinear velocity (VCL): The mean path velocity of the sperm head along its actual trajectory (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Linear velocity (VSL): The mean path velocity of the sperm head along a straight line from its first to its last position (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Mean velocity (VAP): The mean velocity of the sperm head along its average trajectory (units: $\mu\text{m/s}$).
- Linearity coefficient (LIN): $(\text{VSL}/\text{VCL}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Straightness coefficient (STR): $(\text{VSL}/\text{VAP}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Wobble coefficient (WOB): $(\text{VAP}/\text{VCL}) \times 100$ (units: %).
- Mean amplitude of lateral head displacement (ALH): The mean value of the extreme side-to-side movement of the sperm head in each beat cycle (units: μm).
- Frequency of head displacement (BCF): The frequency with which the actual sperm trajectory crosses the average path trajectory (units: Hz).

Finally, total motility was defined as the percentage of spermatozoa which showed a VAP above 10 $\mu\text{m/s}$, and progressivity as the percentage of spermatozoa which showed a VAP above 50 $\mu\text{m/s}$ and 70% of STR.

Statistical analysis

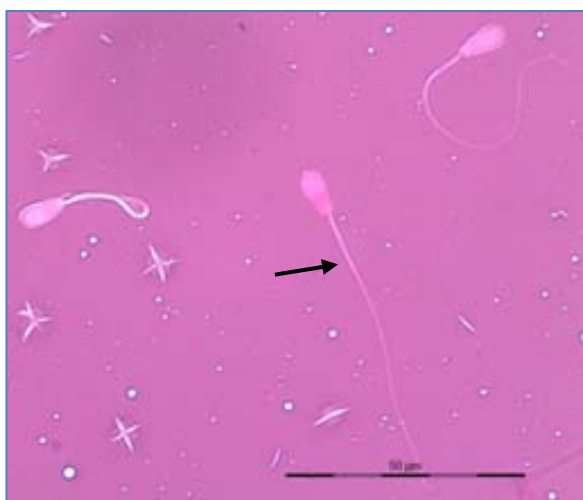
Data were processed by using the Statistical Analysis Systems Package (SAS. SAS/STAC Software. Cary, NC, USA: SAS Inst. Inc.; 2000). Normality of data distributions was assessed by the Shapiro–Wilks Test, which is included in the UNIVARIATE procedure. A general linear model (the PROC GLM routine) was used to test for significant differences in sperm parameters ($P < 0.05$) among the samples subjected to different group of study. The LSMEANS procedure was used to identify significant differences. The total number of spermatozoa analyzed following this protocol was 10,565 (2031, 2541, 2534, 2317 and 1142 from samples at recovery, RT, ET, ST, HT groups, respectively).

Results

Effect of temperature on epididymal sperm cells

Sperm quality parameters were mainly affected by high temperatures (41.5°C) but not by the incubation at scrotal, environmental or refrigeration temperatures (Table 1). In terms of viability, the percentages of live spermatozoa decreased after incubation at the different temperatures used in this study, being significantly lower in those samples incubated at 41.5°C (Figure 1). All groups of study showed significant lower values of total motility and progressivity compared with fresh samples, although the most significant decrease was observed again by 41.5°C samples. Comparing altered acrosomes, the tendency was similar to those parameters with the fresh values reported before. Altered acrosome percentages increased in all treatment groups compared, being significantly higher in those samples incubated at 32°C and even higher at 41.5°C (Figure 2). The percentage of membrane integrity was also negatively affected by temperatures, being significantly lower for groups stored at 4 and 32°C, and even lower in 41.5°C groups (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Sperm cells after HOST and eosin-nigrosin staining. Presence of live and dead cells (in pink) and spermatozoa with coiled and non-coiled tail (altered membrane; arrow).



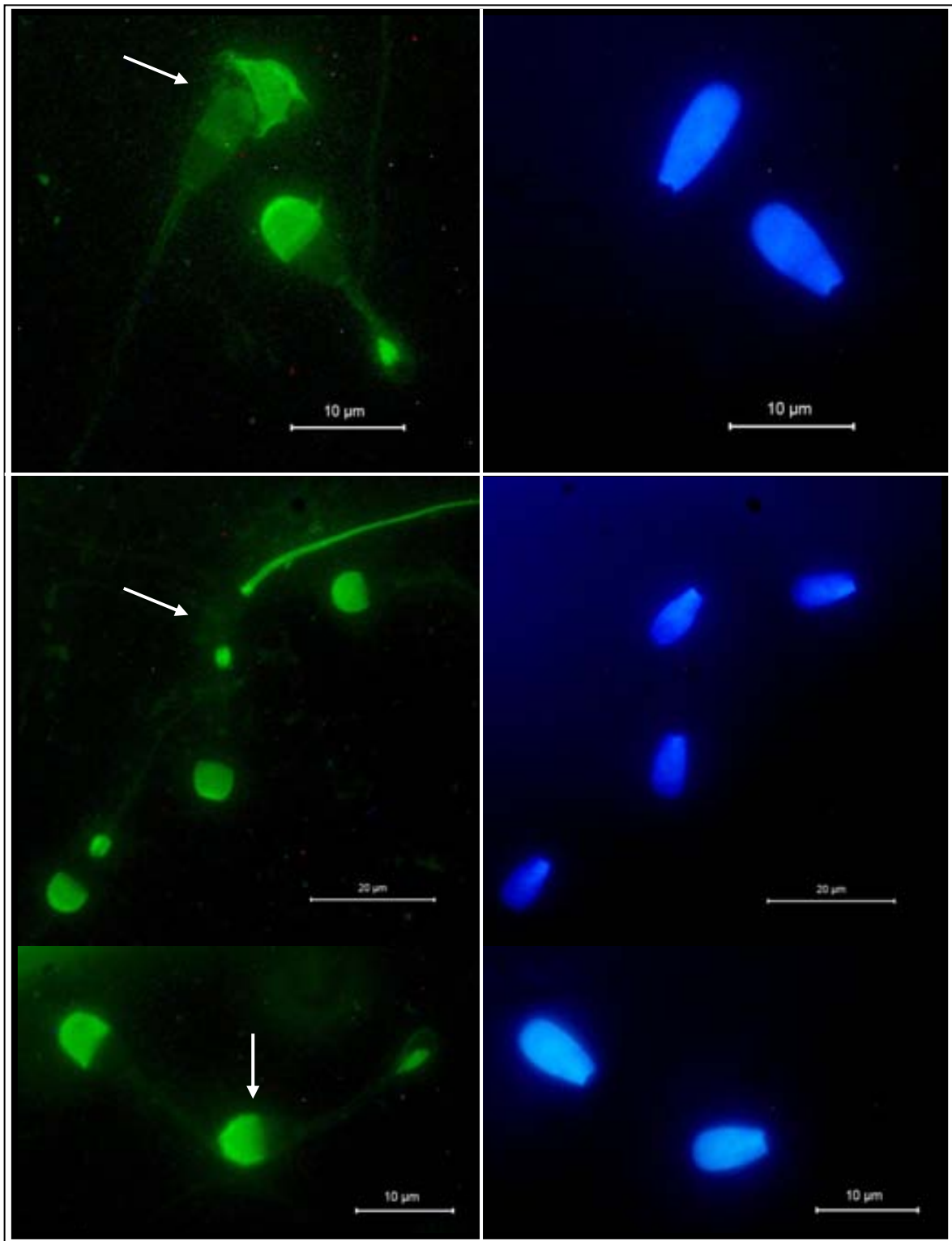
However, no differences were detected in terms of morphological abnormalities, although when we classified each abnormality, significant differences were found in distal droplets, folded and coiled tails. Fresh samples showed higher percentages of distal droplets than any other group of study. On the other hand, more folded tails were detected in all of the study groups. Finally, coiled tails significantly increased when spermatozoa were incubated at high temperatures (41.5°C).

Table 1. Means \pm SEM of the sperm quality analysis of epididymal sperm samples from fresh, and study groups.

	Fresh	HT	HT + RO	ST	ST + RO
Viability (%)	85.3 \pm 1.4 ^a	69.0 \pm 2.6 ^b	75.8 \pm 2.3 ^{b,c}	81.7 \pm 2.4 ^{a,c}	82.7 \pm 1.5 ^{a,c}
Total motility (%)	71.2 \pm 3.0 ^a	17.9 \pm 2.2 ^b	24.5 \pm 4.0 ^b	46.9 \pm 4.5 ^c	46.6 \pm 3.7 ^c
Progressivity (%)	48.9 \pm 3.5 ^a	9.3 \pm 1.3 ^b	15.8 \pm 3.6 ^b	31.1 \pm 3.4 ^c	31.8 \pm 3.3 ^c
Altered acrosomes (%)	3.5 \pm 0.6 ^a	14.2 \pm 1.5 ^b	9.2 \pm 1.2 ^c	7.3 \pm 1.1 ^{c,d}	6.5 \pm 0.9 ^{a,c,d}
Membrane integrity (%)	90.8 \pm 0.8 ^a	65.3 \pm 3.3 ^b	72.3 \pm 3.4 ^{b,c}	79.6 \pm 1.7 ^{c,d}	79.8 \pm 1.9 ^{c,d}
Morphological abnormalities (%)	70.4 \pm 4.1 ^a	68.6 \pm 6.5 ^a	76.9 \pm 4.9 ^a	69.5 \pm 4.5 ^a	68.8 \pm 4.1 ^a
Head abnormalities (%)	0.6 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.9 \pm 0.3 ^a	0.6 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.5 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.7 \pm 0.2 ^a
Proximal droplets (%)	5.7 \pm 1.8 ^a	4.7 \pm 1.6 ^a	4.2 \pm 1.6 ^a	5.3 \pm 2.0 ^a	4.1 \pm 1.4 ^a
Distal droplets (%)	49.2 \pm 6.9 ^a	4.3 \pm 0.9 ^b	3.2 \pm 0.7 ^b	5.5 \pm 1.1 ^b	3.9 \pm 1.0 ^b
Folded tail (%)	2.9 \pm 0.6 ^a	34.8 \pm 4.2 ^b	47.8 \pm 3.6 ^b	45.3 \pm 4.5 ^b	48.5 \pm 4.3 ^b
Coiled tail (%)	4.1 \pm 0.9 ^a	17.7 \pm 3.1 ^b	15.0 \pm 2.3 ^b	5.6 \pm 1.0 ^a	6.7 \pm 1.1 ^a
Tailles (%)	7.3 \pm 2.4 ^a	5.7 \pm 2.1 ^a	5.7 \pm 2.0 ^a	6.8 \pm 2.8 ^a	4.4 \pm 1.4 ^a
Mid-piece abnormalities (%)	0.5 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.6 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.4 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.5 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.4 \pm 0.2 ^a
	Fresh	ET	ET + RO	RT	RT + RO
Viability (%)	85.3 \pm 1.4 ^a	81.9 \pm 2.3 ^{a,c}	83.9 \pm 1.7 ^{a,c}	85.0 \pm 1.5 ^a	85.2 \pm 1.3 ^a
Total motility (%)	71.2 \pm 3.0 ^a	49.8 \pm 4.1 ^c	46.8 \pm 3.9 ^c	48.8 \pm 4.3 ^c	46.3 \pm 4.6 ^c
Progressivity (%)	48.9 \pm 3.5 ^a	29.8 \pm 2.5 ^c	29.1 \pm 2.4 ^c	30.3 \pm 3.3 ^c	28.4 \pm 4.0 ^c
Altered acrosomes (%)	3.5 \pm 0.6 ^a	5.1 \pm 0.6 ^{a,d}	5.4 \pm 0.6 ^{a,c,d}	5.3 \pm 0.6 ^{a,c,d}	4.8 \pm 0.7 ^{a,d}
Membrane integrity (%)	90.8 \pm 0.8 ^a	83.0 \pm 1.9 ^{a,d}	83.1 \pm 1.6 ^{a,d}	82.1 \pm 2.0 ^{c,d}	83.5 \pm 2.3 ^{a,d}
Morphological abnormalities (%)	70.4 \pm 4.1 ^a	66.5 \pm 3.3 ^a	65.2 \pm 3.6 ^a	68.4 \pm 2.4 ^a	67.3 \pm 2.9 ^a
Head abnormalities (%)	0.6 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.8 \pm 0.1 ^a	0.7 \pm 0.3 ^a	0.5 \pm 0.1 ^a	0.9 \pm 0.2 ^a
Proximal droplets (%)	5.7 \pm 1.8 ^a	6.1 \pm 1.8 ^a	6.4 \pm 1.8 ^a	5.8 \pm 2.0 ^a	5.6 \pm 2.2 ^a
Distal droplets (%)	49.2 \pm 6.9 ^a	5.6 \pm 1.0 ^b	4.7 \pm 1.2 ^b	6.2 \pm 2.0 ^b	4.1 \pm 0.9 ^b
Folded tail (%)	2.9 \pm 0.6 ^a	43.3 \pm 4.1 ^b	43.0 \pm 4.5 ^b	46.3 \pm 4.3 ^b	46.9 \pm 4.9 ^b
Coiled tail (%)	4.1 \pm 0.9 ^a	4.4 \pm 0.9 ^a	4.6 \pm 0.6 ^a	4.1 \pm 0.9 ^a	4.1 \pm 0.9 ^a
Tailles (%)	7.3 \pm 2.4 ^a	6.1 \pm 1.7 ^a	5.5 \pm 2.1 ^a	4.9 \pm 1.7 ^a	5.2 \pm 1.8 ^a
Mid-piece abnormalities (%)	0.5 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.2 \pm 0.1 ^a	0.3 \pm 0.1 ^a	0.4 \pm 0.2 ^a	0.6 \pm 0.2 ^a

Note: a-d Different superscripts in a row indicate significant differences.

Figure 2. Sperm cells with intact and altered (arrow) acrosome membrane after FITC-PSA lectin staining (green fluorescence) and DAPI nuclear staining (blue fluorescence).



Motility and progressivity differences can be explained by specific motility parameters (Table 2). VCL, VSL and VAP decreased significantly in all study groups compared with fresh samples, being more accused in samples stored at 41.5°C. LIN percentages decreased significantly only at high temperatures (41.5°C). STR parameter also decreased significantly except for 32°C groups. WOB increased significantly for all study groups, except at 41.5°C where WOB parameter significantly decreased. ALH decreased significantly in all study groups and even more at 41.5°C. Finally, BCF parameter decreased significantly in 4 and 22 groups, being more accused at 41.5°C.

Table 2. Means \pm SEM of the motility parameters of epididymal sperm samples from fresh and study groups.

	Fresh	HT	HT + RO	ST	ST + RO
VCL ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	112.5 \pm 1.0 ^a	62.9 \pm 1.8 ^b	72.1 \pm 1.7 ^c	91.1 \pm 1.4 ^d	85.7 \pm 1.3 ^{d,e}
VSL ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	67.4 \pm 0.9 ^a	30.4 \pm 1.2 ^b	37.3 \pm 1.1 ^c	54.8 \pm 1.1 ^d	51.1 \pm 1.0 ^{d,e,f}
VAP ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	86.0 \pm 0.9 ^a	40.0 \pm 1.2 ^b	45.4 \pm 3.6 ^b	69.0 \pm 1.1 ^c	63.7 \pm 1.1 ^d
LIN (%)	58.2 \pm 0.5 ^{a,d}	51.7 \pm 1.3 ^b	53.5 \pm 0.9 ^{b,c}	59.2 \pm 0.7 ^a	58.8 \pm 0.7 ^a
STR (%)	76.4 \pm 0.5 ^{a,c}	72.4 \pm 1.2 ^{b,d}	77.8 \pm 0.9 ^a	76.0 \pm 0.7 ^{a,c}	77.9 \pm 0.6 ^a
WOB (%)	74.8 \pm 0.4 ^a	67.5 \pm 1.1 ^b	66.8 \pm 0.8 ^b	76.4 \pm 0.6 ^{c,d}	74.5 \pm 0.6 ^{a,c}
ALH (μm)	3.52 \pm 0.03 ^a	2.45 \pm 0.07 ^b	2.68 \pm 0.06 ^{b,c}	2.85 \pm 0.05 ^c	2.75 \pm 0.04 ^c
BCF (Hz)	9.4 \pm 0.1 ^a	7.8 \pm 0.2 ^b	9.5 \pm 0.2 ^a	8.9 \pm 0.1 ^{a,c}	9.5 \pm 0.13 ^a
	Fresh	ET	ET + RO	RT	RT + RO
VCL ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	112.5 \pm 1.0 ^a	91.2 \pm 1.3 ^d	89.6 \pm 1.3 ^{d,f}	84.9 \pm 1.3 ^{e,f}	82.7 \pm 1.3 ^e
VSL ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	67.4 \pm 0.9 ^a	53.0 \pm 1.1 ^{d,e}	49.7 \pm 0.9 ^{e,f}	51.0 \pm 1.0 ^{d,e,f}	48.3 \pm 1.0 ^f
VAP ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	86.0 \pm 0.9 ^a	70.6 \pm 1.1 ^c	66.5 \pm 1.0 ^{c,d}	66.4 \pm 1.1 ^{c,d}	62.3 \pm 1.0 ^d
LIN (%)	58.2 \pm 0.5 ^{a,d}	56.2 \pm 0.7 ^{c,d}	55.0 \pm 0.7 ^{b,c,e}	58.0 \pm 0.7 ^{a,d,e}	56.8 \pm 0.7 ^{a,c,d,e}
STR (%)	76.4 \pm 0.5 ^{a,c}	72.1 \pm 0.7 ^{b,d}	73.0 \pm 0.7 ^{b,d}	74.1 \pm 0.7 ^{c,d}	74.2 \pm 0.7 ^{c,d}
WOB (%)	74.8 \pm 0.4 ^a	77.5 \pm 0.5 ^d	74.7 \pm 0.5 ^{a,c}	77.6 \pm 0.5 ^d	75.7 \pm 0.5 ^{a,c,d}
ALH (μm)	3.52 \pm 0.03 ^a	2.86 \pm 0.04 ^c	2.84 \pm 0.04 ^c	2.68 \pm 0.04 ^{b,c}	2.69 \pm 0.04 ^{b,c}
BCF (Hz)	9.4 \pm 0.1 ^a	8.6 \pm 0.1 ^c	9.2 \pm 0.1 ^a	8.6 \pm 0.1 ^c	9.0 \pm 0.1 ^{a,c}

Note: a-f Different superscripts in a row indicate significant differences.

Effect of the addition of retinol to the storage extender

The addition of RO to the storage extender showed variable results (Table 1). In terms of viability, total motility, progressivity, membrane integrity and morphological abnormalities no significant differences were detected by the use of RO. However, higher percentages of live, motile and progressive spermatozoa

with also higher membrane integrity percentages were detected in 41.5 groups supplemented with RO compared with no supplemented groups. Altered acrosome percentages decreased significantly when RO was present in the storage extender at high temperatures (41.5°C), being those values more similar to those obtained at lower temperatures (4, 22, 32°C).

Although no differences were detected in terms of total motility and progressivity, some differences were found observing specific motility parameters (Table 2). VCL and VSL increased significantly in presence of RO when spermatozoa were stored at high temperatures (41.5°C). However, in terms of VAP no significant differences were detected at 41.5 + RO, but decreased in 32 + RO groups. STR percentages were significantly higher when RO was present at high temperatures (41.5°C). Moreover, the WOB parameter decreased significantly when RO was present at 22°C. In terms of BCF, the presence of RO significantly increased the parameter at 22 and 41.5°C. Finally, in accordance of LIN and ALH no significant differences were observed.

Discussion

Our results clearly demonstrated the harmful effects of high temperatures on epididymal sperm quality, and the fact that the presence of retinol in the storage extender may be valuable stabilizing the sperm acrosomal membrane.

It has been described that high temperatures impair semen quality as it has been reported in a variety of species. The ROS derived from heat stress affects sperm membrane integrity leading to a decrease of sperm quality and consequently their fertilizing ability. The decision to use epididymal spermatozoa in our study was done by the fact that sperm from the caudae epididyma is more sensitive to the effects of ROS (Fernández-Santos *et al.*, 2009), being easily to mimic the conditions on the field with just 3 hours of incubation.

The high content of PUFA on bull sperm membranes (Parks & Lynch, 1992) makes the spermatozoa particularly sensitive to oxidative stress by ROS. As a result, lipid peroxidation increases resulting in loss of viability (Medeiros *et al.*, 2002) reduced sperm motility (Baumber *et al.*, 2000; Guthrie & Welch, 2006), loss of acrosomal and plasma membrane integrity (Aitken *et al.*, 1998; Medeiros *et al.*, 2002) and leading to DNA fragmentation (Bennetts & Aitken, 2005). Our results are consistent with all the harmful effects reported in the literature. Sperm submitted to 41.5°C showed a decrease in all the sperm quality parameters. However, it is noteworthy that the storage of sperm at other temperatures (scrotal, environmental and refrigeration temperature) during 3 hours did not modify the quality of sperm with the exception of the percentages of motility and progressivity. These results are in accordance with those reported by Monterroso *et al.* (1995) and Bansal & Bilaspuri (2009), where the bull sperm motility was reduced after 2-3 hours of incubation.

In an attempt to minimize the negative effects of ROS overproduction due to high temperatures the use of antioxidant agents as quenchers of ROS has been studied in a wide range of species (Baumber *et al.*, 2000; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2001; Szczesniak-Fabianczyk *et al.*, 2006; Bucack *et al.*, 2010; Maia *et al.*, 2010; Neagu *et*

al., 2010; Tuncer *et al.*, 2010). The aim of using antioxidant treatments should not be the complete ROS elimination since oxidative mechanisms play an important role in the physiological control of mammalian sperm functions (Bennetts & Aitken, 2005; Agarwal *et al.*, 2006). There are many types of antioxidant agents that could be used in this matter. Unfortunately, controversial results have been described. In bulls, antioxidants have been specially used to improve semen post-thaw quality by addition into the freezing extender (Beconi, 1993; Foote *et al.*, 2002; Andrabi *et al.*, 2008; El-Sheshtawy *et al.*, 2008; O'Flaherty *et al.*, 2009; Bucak *et al.*, 2010; Reddy, 2010), but it is necessary to adjust the extender composition, cryoprotectants and cryoprotectant concentrations, as well as the cryopreservation protocol for each single species or even breeds. To our knowledge there is no literature about the addition of antioxidant agents on storage extenders trying to improve bull sperm quality under heat stress conditions.

Vitamin A (all-trans retinol) and its metabolites, known as retinoids, are regulators of cell growth, differentiation of many types of cells (Hidalgo *et al.*, 2005), and have ROS scavenger activity (Ikeda *et al.*, 2005). Vitamin A is essential for normal testicular structure and function (Hogarth & Griswold, 2010) being present in human, rabbit and bull spermatozoa (Gambhir & Ahluwalia, 1975; Velazquez *et al.*, 1975; Virji *et al.*, 1981). In the bovine spermatozoa 90% of the total vitamin A is present in the acrosomal membrane (Gambhir & Ahluwalia, 1975). There was a positive correlation between retinol content in seminal plasma and sperm motility (Kao *et al.*, 2008), membrane integrity (Roels *et al.*, 1969), and also with sperm normalcy, since lower levels of vitamin A result in higher sperm midpiece abnormalities and coiled tail (Abdulkareema *et al.*, 2005). In our study all parameters, with the exception of normalcy, were improved by the addition of retinol to the storage extender at high temperatures, although only in a quantitative manner. An explanation would be that the concentration used in the study was unable to counteract all the negative effects derived from ROS. The fact that retinol had no effect on the other storage temperatures may support the fact that retinol, as an antioxidant agent and ROS quencher, only is effective when high amounts of ROS are present. However, our study reveals that retinol significantly reduce the percentage of spermatozoa with altered acrosomes when they are submitted to heat stress conditions, which are consistent with the fact that vitamin A at physiological concentrations stabilizes membranes (Roels *et al.*, 1969), and some precursors of vitamin A are known to be important components of antioxidant defense against lipid peroxidation in living cells (Agarwal *et al.*, 2005) and protecting plasma membrane against lipid peroxidation (Di Mascio *et al.*, 1989).

Retinoids have been used in previous *in vitro* studies with oocytes and embryos, some of them done under heat stress conditions, alleviating the negative effects derived from. A beneficial effect on nuclear (Vahedi *et al.*, 2009; Nasiri *et al.*, 2011; Liang *et al.*, 2012; Maya-Soriano *et al.*, 2012; Tahei *et al.*, 2012) and cytoplasmic competence after oocyte IVM (Gomez *et al.*, 2003; Nasiri *et al.*, 2011; Liang *et al.*, 2012) and embryo development rates were reported (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Rajesh *et al.*, 2010; Atikuzzaman *et al.*, 2011). However, to our knowledge, it is the first study using retinol as supplementation for sperm storage extenders in order to improve sperm quality. It should be pointed out that the concentrations used in our study were not sufficient to alleviate all the harmful effects of high temperatures, although have been

proved to be valuable for stabilizing the sperm acrosomal membrane at the same concentrations as used for oocytes or embryos. So, further investigations in the use of retinol are needed to find if there exists a concentration able to improve all sperm quality parameters.

In conclusion, to our knowledge this is the first report using retinol as supplementation for sperm storage extender. Our results seem to indicate that retinol may stabilize sperm acrosomal membrane in situations of oxidative stress due to high temperatures.

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DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

The aim of this thesis has been the study of the effects of high temperatures on gamete development and how the use of antioxidant agents could counteract the negative effects of heat stress and/or the excessive production of ROS.

The current thesis demonstrated that heat stress impaired bovine oocyte maturation at both nuclear and cytoplasmic level, in agreement with previous findings (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005; Roth and Hansen, 2005). These negative effects are important since the nuclear and cytoplasmic status of the oocyte at the time of fertilization is the major determining factor of the developmental program of the resultant embryo (Hansen, 2002).

High temperatures *in vitro* simulating those rectal temperatures obtained in dairy cattle during the central part of the day in summer (exceeding 41°C; Putney *et al.*, 1988b; 1989a; Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1993a), reveal a greater percentage of oocytes showing an aberrant progression to the second meiotic metaphase stage (MII) and CG distribution pattern IV. The alterations found on the nuclear maturation, such as expanded or condensed nucleus, were probably as a result of chromosomal and meiotic spindle alterations, as described by other authors (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Roth and Hansen, 2005). On the other hand, alterations on CG migration by high temperatures lead oocytes to achieve a distribution pattern presumptive of premature exocytosis characterized by the loss of a continuous CG layer. This is the most common pattern produced in oocytes after fertilization or activation due to exocytosis. Hence, heat shock could be the cause of an advanced state of oocyte maturation (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005) resulting in CG loss. The premature CG exocytosis prior to fertilization was reported in early studies and was suggested to be responsible for the enlargement of perivitelline space and for altering the properties of the zona pellucida (Okada *et al.*, 1986; 1993).

Although, the best way to study direct effects of high temperatures on oocytes could be through *in vitro* studies, avoiding the presence of indirect effects (Putney *et al.*, 1988b; Gilad *et al.*, 1993; Wolfenson *et al.*, 1997; 2000), all the *in vitro* studies found in the literature should be taken with caution because they did not mimic the physiological conditions in which cows are submitted in the field. Some of them applied high temperatures for just 30-60 min (Ryan *et al.*, 1992; Ju *et al.*, 1999), for the first 12 h of IVM (Edwards *et al.*, 2005; Roth & Hansen, 2004; 2005; Schrock *et al.*, 2007) or the majority for the whole 24h of IVM (Lenz *et al.*, 1983; Soto & Smith, 2009). A most appropriate *in vitro* model would be applying around 3 hours simulating those high temperatures of the central part of the day. The exposure to this interval of high temperatures at the end of the oocyte maturation period would be more demonstrative of the resistance to heat shock of the oocyte, since the preovulatory oocyte seems to be the most sensitive stage to heat stress (Ingraham *et al.*, 1976; Putney *et al.*, 1988b).

As observed in the present thesis, an anomalous progression to MII was a feature of heat stressed oocytes. A plausible explanation could be that high temperatures modify cytoskeleton behaviour (Tseng *et al.*, 2004; Ju *et al.*, 2005; Roth & Hansen, 2005) since nuclear maturation is dependent upon extensive

rearrangement of the cytoskeleton (Gallicano, 2001; Shin & Kim, 2003). Nonetheless, other aspects of nuclear behaviour may be modified by temperature stress, such as the rate and normality of chromosomal condensation (Roti, 2008). On the other hand, the high percentage of oocytes showing a pattern IV of CG distribution was firstly described in bovine oocytes by Hosoe & Shioya (1997). Although heat stress advanced oocyte maturation in previous studies (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005), CG pattern IV related to the final maturation of oocyte was not described.

Our current research confirms the fact that heat stress proved to be valuable in aging oocytes, in accordance with previous findings where heat stress at the end of the IVM period seems to cause an advanced state of oocyte maturation (Payton *et al.*, 2004; Edwards *et al.*, 2005). Similar figures of aged oocytes (Szollosi, 1971; 1974; 1975) were registered for heat stressed and overmatured oocytes. The analyses showed how dramatically heat stress advanced age for nuclear and cytoplasmic processes as overmaturation did, since aged oocyte were 17 and 18 times more likely in heat stressed and overmatured oocytes than control group, respectively.

Once it has been proved that high temperatures affects oocyte maturation by aging them, seasonal effect must be evaluated since the viability and quality of bovine oocytes and embryos is lower in warm versus cold seasons (Monty & Racowsky, 1987; Al-Katani *et al.*, 2002b). The present thesis tried to find if high temperatures affects in a different way oocytes obtained from different seasons of the year, since global warming effects are going to be more evident during winter (MacCracken, 2008), being animals in our geographical area submitted to high temperatures round 4 days during the cold months of the year (López-Gatius *et al.*, 2006). Hence, seems that bovine oocytes are more sensitive to high temperatures suffered during cold months, and oocytes from the warm season tolerate better heat shock. However, a seasonal effect on the capacity of the oocytes was only found on cytoplasmic maturation, whereas the effect on undergoing nuclear maturation (MII percentage) could not be demonstrated.

The fact that oocytes obtained in the warm season were better able to adapt to high temperatures in terms of their cytoplasmic maturation could reflect a mechanism of heat shock tolerance. It has been described that a defined and properly applied sublethal stress may induce general adaptation and increase tolerance to subsequent stress (Pribenszky *et al.*, 2010). This phenomenon has been described *in vitro* in studies in which bovine embryos were progressively exposed to increasing heat shock (Ealy *et al.*, 1993; Hansen & Arechiga, 1999; Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002). Heat tolerance could be related to HSP expression, since HSP70 protects oocytes from apoptotic stimuli that harmfully affect DNA (Paula-Lopes & Hansen, 2002). This mechanism of heat tolerance warrents further investigation in future studies designed to improve oocyte and embryo development in warm regions.

The use of antioxidant agents have been studied in the current thesis in oocyte IVM with a variety of results.

Retinyl used as supplementation in IVM medium showed a harmful effect on oocyte maturation under physiological conditions by decreasing the correct progression of the nucleus to the MII stage. Furthermore, it was stated that this retinoid is useless in counteract heat stress effects on bovine oocytes,

at least at the concentrations and conditions used in this thesis. To our knowledge it is the first time that retinyl is used for IVM. However, there is literature in their use on embryos development, with no beneficial effects on cleavage or blastocyst rates (Lima *et al.*, 2004), although its supplementation helped murine embryos to overcome the two-cell block (Hajializadeh *et al.*, 2008), and seemed to be valuable in goat embryos when co-culture with oviductal cells, suggesting that retinyl needs to be metabolized to be effective (Chiamenti *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, the presence of retinyl in IVM is able to maintain cumulus oophorus cell phenotype, maintaining estradiol secretion, and avoiding its premature luteinisation, thus decreasing progesterone availability for the oocyte.

Oleic acid was another antioxidant agent evaluated in the present thesis. It has been reported that oleic acid is present in high concentrations in bovine oocyte membrane during winter and its low concentration in summer is related to the poor quality of oocytes (Zeron *et al.*, 2001). Nevertheless, a negative effect of oleic acid on metaphase progression confirms the negative effect described previously by Jorritsma *et al.* (2004), although as described by Leroy *et al.* (2005), their addition did not cause any effect on the nucleus. This fatty acid proved to be unvaluable in counteract heat stress effects on bovine oocyte maturation, and even to be harmful for nuclear progression under control conditions. However, it is necessary to take into account that the concentrations used in this study could be not appropriate for oocyte maturation and even to improve it under heat stress conditions. On the other hand, the presence of oleic acid in IVM medium increased estradiol availability per oocyte, as described in other study (Vanholder *et al.*, 2005) but at higher concentrations than those used in our study.

However, our thesis clearly demonstrated that heat-stressed oocytes were less affected when retinol was added to the maturation medium, at least at nuclear level. The beneficial effect of retinol on the nucleus progression to MII has also been reported by Vahedi *et al.* (2009) at physiological conditions. In terms of high temperatures, retinol proved to be valuable improving development of oocytes (Livingston *et al.*, 2004). On the other hand, retinol has also been used on embryo studies, being valuable improving ovine embryo development to blastocyst under oxidative stress (Rajesh *et al.*, 2010), and also bovine heat-stressed oocytes and embryos (Lawrence *et al.*, 2004; Livingston *et al.*, 2004), being the concentrations used 5-6 μM . Nevertheless, these studies take into account the effect on the oocyte through the embryo development but not the retinoid effects done into the oocyte itself. Therefore, in this thesis we tried to elucidate the effects that retinoids exert into the oocyte itself under heat stress conditions.

On the other hand, it has been described previously that other retinoids improve cytoplasmic maturation of bovine oocytes under physiological conditions (Hidalgo *et al.*, 2003). In our study, the presence of retinol produce a delay effect on CG migration by increasing the CG pattern II, decreasing the exocytosis pattern IV due to heat stress. It is not the correct pattern of cytoplasmic maturation (III) and although it is considered an immature pattern it is not considered an undesirable distribution.

In terms of sperm quality, our results clearly demonstrated the harmful effects of *in vivo* and *in vitro* high temperatures on rabbit and bovine epididymal sperm quality, respectively. The decision to use

epididymal spermatozoa in our study was done by the fact that sperm from the caudae epididyma is more sensitive to the effects of ROS (Fernández-Santos *et al.*, 2009).

It has been reported in a variety of species that high temperatures impair semen quality by an increase in the percentage of dead spermatozoa, morphological abnormalities, acrosomal alterations, and a decrease in sperm motility (Skinner and Louw, 1966; Wettemann *et al.*, 1976; Wettemann and Desjardins, 1979; Jannes *et al.*, 1998; Pérez-Crespo *et al.*, 2008; Safaa *et al.*, 2008).

Despite of all these reported effects, only motility and progressivity were affected by *in vivo* circadian high temperatures cycles in our experimental rabbits. A possible explanation is that the other sperm quality parameters were not affected by the development of thermotolerance (Finzi *et al.*, 1988; 1995; Welch, 1993) due to they were exposed to chronic heat stress. This phenomenon has also been reported in rabbit embryos (Makarevich *et al.*, 2007). Experimental animals may develop thermotolerance because they were able to recover from high temperatures at night, coinciding with low temperatures and the feeding time, or because the submission to high temperatures was at the beginning of the animal's reproductive life (180 days old).

The present thesis first demonstrates the existence of four well-defined sperm subpopulations in rabbit epididymal sperm cells as those reported in ejaculates (Quintero-Moreno *et al.*, 2007), which can be easily defined by their motility characteristics. As described hereby, motility changes due to heat stress are linked to changes in the percentages of each motile sperm subpopulations by increasing the proportion of middle-lower motile subpopulations. However, these changes did not affect the percentage of one of the highest motile sperm subpopulation present in rabbit bucks, indicating that an overall subpopulation structure is preserved under chronic high temperatures in order to maintain the general function of the ejaculate. In fact, preliminary studies support this hypothesis since fertility and prolificacy were not affected when the ejaculates of these rabbit bucks were used in artificial inseminations, suggesting that a percentage of enough high motile spermatozoa able to fertilize always exists (unpublished data). Although, further research is needed to elucidate if sperm-motile subpopulation structure is adaptable to heat stress or just maintained in time regardless on environmental conditions by acute heat stress studies.

Trying to avoid the indirect effects that could induce thermotolerance in our *in vivo* rabbit model, it has been evaluated the direct effects of high temperatures on bull epididymal sperm cells by the development of an *in vitro* model comparing with other three reference temperatures (scrotal, environmental and refrigeration temperatures). The high content of PUFA on bull sperm membranes (Parks & Lynch, 1992) makes the spermatozoa particularly sensitive to oxidative stress by ROS. The impairment of quality of sperm cells exposed to 41.5°C are consistent with all the harmful effects reported in the literature: loss of viability (Medeiros *et al.*, 2002), reduced sperm motility (Baumber *et al.*, 2000; Guthrie & Welch, 2006) and loss of acrosomal and plasma membrane integrity (Aitken *et al.*, 1998; Medeiros *et al.*, 2002).

Since antioxidant agents could act as quenchers of ROS, their use in an attempt to minimize the negative effects of high temperatures has been studied in a wide range of species (Baumber *et al.*, 2000; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2001; Szczesniak-Fabianczyk *et al.*, 2006; Bucak *et al.*, 2010b; Maia *et al.*, 2010; Neagu *et al.*, 2010; Tuncer *et al.*, 2010). In bulls, antioxidants have been specially used to improve semen post-thaw quality by addition into the freezing extender (Beconi, 1993; Foote *et al.*, 2002; Andrabi *et al.*, 2008; El-Sheshtawy *et al.*, 2008; O'Flaherty *et al.*, 2009; Bucak *et al.*, 2010b; Reddy, 2010). However, to our knowledge there is no literature about the addition of antioxidant agents on storage extenders trying to improve bull sperm quality under heat stress conditions.

For this purpose retinol was selected to improve sperm quality since vitamin A is essential for normal testicular structure and function (Hogarth & Griswold, 2010) and some precursors of vitamin A are known to be important components of antioxidant defense against lipid peroxidation in living cells (Agarwal *et al.*, 2005b) and protecting plasma membrane against lipid peroxidation (Di Mascio *et al.*, 1989). To our knowledge, it is the first study using retinol as supplementation for sperm storage extenders in order to improve sperm quality. It was described a positive correlation between retinol content in seminal plasma and sperm motility (Kao *et al.*, 2008), membrane integrity (Roels *et al.*, 1969), and also with sperm normalcy, since lower levels of vitamin A result in higher sperm midpiece abnormalities and coiled tail (Abdulkareema *et al.*, 2005). However, all sperm quality parameters, with the exception of morphological normalcy, were only improved in a quantitative manner by the addition of retinol to the storage extender at high temperatures. Although, our study reveals that retinol significantly reduce the percentage of spermatozoa with altered acrosomes when they are submitted to heat stress conditions, which are consistent with the fact that vitamin A at physiological concentrations stabilizes membranes (Roels *et al.*, 1969), being specially present in acrosomal membrane (Gambhir & Ahluwalia, 1975).

On the other hand, the fact that retinol had no effect on the other storage temperatures may support the hypothesis that retinol, as an antioxidant agent and ROS quencher, only is effective when high amounts of ROS are present. It should be pointed out that the concentration used in our study were not sufficient to alleviate all the harmful effects of high temperatures, although have been proved to be valuable for stabilizing the sperm acrosomal membrane at the same concentrations as used for oocytes and embryos. So, further investigations in the use of retinol are needed to find if there exists a concentration able to improve all sperm quality parameters.

Our thesis also demonstrated the harmful effects of cryopreservation process on rabbit sperm quality, especially on sperm motility and progressivity due to the high levels of ROS derived from the freezing process. However, the use of the antioxidant agents in an attempt to improve thaw-sperm quality was inadequate to achieve significant results, at least at the concentrations and conditions used in this study. Although cryopreserved sperm is not used for commercial purposes at present, there is a need for reliable methods of rabbit sperm resource banking. It can facilitate animal genetic diffusion between countries

(Liu *et al.*, 2007), and it can also be useful preserving endangered rabbit breeds (Bolet *et al.*, 2000). Hence, in an attempt to minimise the negative effects of ROS on sperm quality the use of antioxidant agents as quenchers of ROS has been studied.

The use of retinoids as antioxidant agents improving thaw-sperm quality is first described in the current thesis. Some precursors of them, such as β -carotene and lycopene, are known to be important components of antioxidant defence against lipid peroxidation in living cells (Agarwal *et al.*, 2005b) and protecting plasma membrane against lipid peroxidation (Di Mascio *et al.*, 1989). They had also been proved to be useful improving oocyte and embryo quality with significant good results (Lima *et al.*, 2004; Livingston *et al.*, 2004; Hajjalizadeh *et al.*, 2008; Vahedi *et al.*, 2009; Rajesh *et al.*, 2010). However, the concentrations of retinol used in our thesis had no effect on sperm quality after thawing and even retinyl concentrations used were toxic for sperm cells since a drastic decrease in sperm quality was recorded as concentration increased. So, the use of retinyl should be avoided in freezing extenders of rabbit sperm cells.

On the other hand, BSA has been used in the current thesis since it is able to eliminate ROS (Lewis *et al.*, 1997), protect sperm membrane integrity (Uysal *et al.*, 2005), and enhance motility and viability of sperm cells after cryopreservation process (Matsuoka *et al.*, 2006). The more beneficial concentration reported in the literature is at a concentration of 20mg/ml (Uysal and Bucak, 2007), but at that concentration, BSA did not improve post-thawing sperm quality in our study. It should be needed higher concentrations for rabbit sperm cells since progressive improvements were found in viability as BSA concentration increased, and taking into account that Uysal and Bucak (2007) described no effects in protecting sperm cells from lipid peroxidation in the use of concentrations below 60mg/ml in ram.

CONCLUSIONS / CONCLUSIONES

CONCLUSIONS

1. Heat stress impairs bovine oocyte maturation at both nuclear and cytoplasmic level by increasing the percentage of oocytes showing an aberrant progression to the second meiotic metaphase stage and cortical granule premature exocytosis.
2. Oocytes collected in the cold season are more sensitive to the negative effects of heat stress than their counterparts collected in the warm season, especially at cytoplasmic level.
3. Retinol as an antioxidant agent supplied in the oocyte maturation medium is useful for improving nuclear maturation in bovine heat-stressed oocytes.
4. The chronic exposure to *in vivo* circadian high temperature cycles proved to be harmful for rabbit epididymal sperm motility and progressivity. Accordingly, motile sperm-subpopulation structure is also modified by high temperatures by increasing less-motile subpopulations, although these changes do not affect the highest motile sperm-subpopulation. On the other hand, high temperatures reduce the percentages of viability, motility, progressivity and cause the loss of acrosomal and plasma membrane integrity on bovine epididymal sperm cells.
5. Retinol is proved to be valuable stabilizing the acrosome membrane in bovine epididymal sperm cells exposed to heat stress. However, the use of retinyl as radical oxygen species quencher during rabbit cryopreservation process should be avoided since it is toxic for sperm, at least under our experimental conditions.

CONCLUSIONES

1. El estrés térmico afecta negativamente la maduración ovocitaria en bovino tanto a nivel nuclear como citoplasmático mediante el incremento del porcentaje de ovocitos con progresión anómala al estadio de metafase II y exocitosis prematura de gránulos corticales.
2. Los ovocitos obtenidos en la época fría del año son más sensibles a los efectos negativos del estrés térmico que aquellos obtenidos durante la época cálida, especialmente a nivel citoplasmático.
3. El retinol como agente antioxidante en el medio de maduración ovocitario es útil mejorando la maduración nuclear en ovocitos bovinos estresados térmicamente.
4. La exposición crónica *in vivo* a ciclos circadianos de altas temperaturas afecta negativamente la motilidad y progresividad de los espermatozoides epididimarios de conejo. Además, la estructura de subpoblaciones espermáticas también se ve afectada por las altas temperaturas incrementando las menos móviles aunque sin afectar demasiado a una de las más móviles. Por otro lado, las altas temperaturas sobre los espermatozoides epididimarios bovinos reducen los porcentajes de viabilidad, motilidad y progresividad, alterando también la integridad de la membrana acrosomal y plasmática.
5. El retinol es válido como estabilizador de la membrana acrosomal en espermatozoides epididimarios bovinos sometidos a estrés térmico. Sin embargo, el uso de retinyl como quelante de radicales libres durante el proceso de congelación de espermatozoides de conejo debe evitarse por ser tóxico, al menos bajo nuestras condiciones experimentales.

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Zhang, R.D., Wen, X.H., Jong, L.S., Deng, X.Z., Peng, B., Huang, A.P., Wan, Y., Yang, Z.W. 2002. A quantitative (stereological) study of the effects of experimental unilateral cryptorchidism and subsequent orchidopexy on spermatogenesis in adult rabbit testis. *Reproduction*, **124**: 95-105.

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Zhu, B., Walker, S.K., Oakey, H., Setchell, B.P. and Maddocks, S. 2004. Effect of paternal heat stress on the development in vitro of preimplantation embryos in the mouse. *Andrologia*, **36**: 384-394.

Zimbelman, R.B., Rhoads, R.P., Rhoads, M.L., Duff, G.C., Baumgard, L.H., and Collier, R.J. 2009. A Re-Evaluation of the Impact of Temperature Humidity Index (THI) and Black Globe Humidity Index (BGHI) on Milk Production in High Producing Dairy Cows. *The American Registry of Professional Animal Scientists, Southwest Nutrition & Management Conference*, Proceedings 26-27.

APPENDIX

Author information

Academic degrees

- 2008–2012 **Ph.D. in Veterinary Science.**
Fellowship from UAB (PIF), Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.
PhD thesis: Heat stress and antioxidant agents: Effects on gamete development.
Expected date (viva defense): November 2012.
- 2010 **Postgraduated course: Research staff user of animals for experimental research and other aims.**
Personal investigador usuario de animales para experimentación y otras finalidades (FELASA), Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.
- 2008–2009 **Master in Veterinary Research**
Special field: Animal medicine and surgery, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Research dissertation (awarded with honours): Effect of antioxidant agents on oocyte maturation under heat stress conditions.
- 2003–2008 **Degree in Veterinary Science**
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.

Academic experience

- 2008-2012 **Teaching and research staff.**
Department of Animal Health and Anatomy, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.
Member of the domestic and wild animal's reproductive diagnosis laboratory.
- 05-06/2012 **Short stay at the *In vitro* fertilization laboratory, UAB.**
Supervisors: Dr. Maite Paramio, Dr. Maria Catalá.
- 10/2011 **Research stay at the European Xenopus Resource Centre.**
School of Biological Science, University of Portsmouth, Portsmouth, UK.
Awarded scholarship stay ESTPIF 2011-30 from UAB.
Amphibian cellular and embryo cryopreservation for Gene-banks.
Protein crystallography (X-ray crystallography).
Supervisors: Dr. Rhiannon Lloyd, Dr. Matt Guille.
- 05/2011 **Short stay at the Department of Genetics from Biology Faculty, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid.**
Nuclear DNA fragmentation using the chromatin dispersion test.
Supervisor: Dr. Jaime Gosálvez.

- 12/2010-02/2011 **Research stay at the Institute of Zoology (ZSL).**
Institute of Zoology, London, UK.
Awarded scholarship stay ESTPIF 2010-39 from UAB.
Development of molecular barcoding techniques in endangered amphibian tissues from the Amphibian Ark (genebank).
Cellular cryopreservation for genebanks.
Supervisors: Dr. William V. Holt, Dr. Rhiannon Lloyd.
- 05/2010 **Workshop: Ultrasonography of marine mammals (by Thomas Hildebrandt).**
International conference on diseases of zoo and wild animals (EAZWV), Madrid.
Ultrasonography techniques (conventional and 3D) developed on dolphins, gray seals, sea lions and bamboo sharks.
- 10/2008 **Volunteer at the 43 European Veterinary Conference SEVC 2008, Barcelona.**
- 10/2006-10/2008 **Professional practices at ARS Veterinary Hospital, Barcelona.**
Services in: Intensive care unit, Orthopedics, Neurology, Intern medicine, Anaesthesia, Ophthalmology.
- 10/2007 **Workshop: Reconstructive surgery in small animals (by Dick White).**
42 AVEPA-SEVC, Barcelona.
- 07/2007 **Practices at the Neurology service, UAB Veterinary Hospital.**

Grants

2009-2012

Heat stress on reproduction and survival. Determination of environmental and genetic variable factors which influences on their tolerance. Study of their effects on gamete and embryo development (MICINN, Ref. RTA2008-00070-C02-02).

Publications

Bovine oocytes show a higher tolerance to heat shock in the warm compared to the cold season of the year.

M.J. Maya-Soriano, F. López-Gatius, C. Andreu-Vázquez, M. López-Béjar
Theriogenology (2012). Accepted for publication (THE_12268).

Retinol improves in vitro oocyte nuclear maturation under heat stress in heifers.

MJ Maya-Soriano, E Taberner, M López-Béjar
Zygote (2012), Epub 11 julio. DOI : 10.1017/S0967199412000135.

Biobanked amphibian samples confirmed to species level using 16S rRNA DNA barcodes.

MJ Maya-Soriano, R Lloyd, WV Holt.

Biopreservation & Biobanking (2012), 10(1): pp 22-28.

Does heat stress provoke the loss of a continuous layer of cortical granules beneath the plasma membrane?

Andreu-Vázquez C., María José Maya Soriano, López-Gatius F., García-Ispierto I., Hunter RHF., López-Béjar M.

Zygote (2010), 18(4): pp 293-299.

Papers under review

Absence of beneficial effects on rabbit sperm cell cryopreservation by several antioxidant agents.

Maya-Soriano M.J., Taberner E., Sabés-Alsina M, Piles M, López-Béjar M.

Zygote (2012).

Daily exposure to summer temperatures affects epididymal sperm cells in an *in vivo* rabbit model.

Maya-Soriano M.J., Taberner E., Sabés-Alsina M., Ramon J., Rafel O., Tussell LL, Piles M., López-Béjar M.

Reproduction (2012).

Retinol stabilizes acrosome membrane in heat-shocked bull spermatozoa.

Maya-Soriano MJ, Taberner E, Sabés-Alsina M, López-Béjar M.

Theriogenology (2012).

Published communications

***In vivo* heat stress affects spermatogenesis in rabbits.**

M Sabes, N Planell, E Torres-Mejía, E Taberner, M Maya-Soriano, L Tusell, J Ramon, M Piles, M Lopez-Bejar.

Reproduction in Domestic animals (2012), 47(Suppl 5): pp 94. Poster at 16th ESDAR conference.

***In vivo* heat stress affects development of preimplantational rabbit embryos.**

E Torres, M Sabés-Alsina, E Taberner, MJ Maya-Soriano, J Ramon, O Rafel, M Piles, M López-Béjar

Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2012), 47(Suppl 4) : pp 419. Poster at 17th ICAR conference.

Cryopreservation of giraffe (*Giraffa camelopardalis*) epididymal sperm cells.

MJ Maya-Soriano, H Fernández-Bellón, E Taberner, P Mayor, V Almagro, C Enseñat, M López-Béjar.

Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2012), 47(Suppl 3): pp 122-123. Poster at 11th AERA conference.

***In vivo* heat stress affects potential oocyte maturation in rabbits.**

E Torres, M Sabés-Alsina, E Taberner, MJ Maya-Soriano, LL Tusell, O Rafel, J Ramon, M Piles, M López-Béjar.

Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2012), 47(Suppl 3): pp 120. Poster at 11th AERA conference.

Daily exposure to summer temperatures affects epididymal sperm cells in an *in vivo* rabbit model.

MJ Maya-Soriano, E Taberner, M Sabés-Alsina, LL Tusell, J Ramon, O Rafel, M Piles, M López-Béjar.
Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2012), 47(Suppl 3): pp 120. Poster at 11th AERA conference.

Biobanked amphibian samples confirmed to species level using 16S rRNA DNA barcodes.

MJ Maya-Soriano, R Lloyd, WV Holt.

Biopreservation & Biobanking (2011), 9(3): pp 303. Oral communication at ESBB conference.

Retinol improves in vitro oocyte nuclear maturation under heat stress in dairy cows.

MJ Maya-Soriano, C Andreu-Vazquez, F López-Gatius, M López-Béjar.

Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2010), 45(Suppl 3): pp 63-113. Poster at 14th ESDAR conference.

Cryopreservation of epididymal sperm cells from zoo ruminants.

M López-Béjar, MJ Maya-Soriano, E Taberner, C Andreu-Vazquez, C Enseñat, H Fernández-Bellon.

Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2010), 45(Suppl 3): pp 63-113. Poster at 14th ESDAR conference.

Successful refrigeration storage of epididymal sperm cells from a black-faced impala (*Aepyceros melampus petersi*).

MJ Maya-Soriano, H Fernández-Bellon, C Andreu-Vazquez, C Enseñat, M López-Béjar.

Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2010), 45(Suppl 2): pp 100. Poster at 10th AERA conference.

Role of antioxidant agents on steroidogenic activity of cumulus cells during oocyte *in vitro* culture.

MJ Maya-Soriano, C Andreu-Vazquez, M López-Béjar.

Reproduction in Domestic Animals (2010), 45(Suppl 2): pp 85. Poster at 10th AERA conference.

Other communications

Successful electroejaculation and long-term refrigeration of epididymal sperm cells from a lowland tapir (*Tapirus terrestris*).

MJ Maya-Soriano, E Taberner, H Fernández-Bellon, P Mayor, V Almagro, M López-Béjar.

Poster at International Conference on Disease of Zoo and Wild Animals, EAZWV, Lisbon (2011).

Successful refrigeration storage of epididymal sperm cells from an african hunting dog (*Lycaon pictus pictus*) for 72 hours.

MJ Maya-Soriano, E Taberner, H Fernández-Bellon, V Almagro, M López-Béjar.

Poster at International Conference on Disease of Zoo and Wild Animals, EAZWV, Lisbon (2011).

Effect of antioxidant agents on oocyte maturation under heat stress conditions.

Maria José Maya Soriano.

Oral communication for the Animal Health and Anatomy Department, Veterinary Faculty, UAB (2010).

Preliminary results of long-term refrigeration and cryopreservation of sperm cells from a drill (*Mandrillus leucopaheus*) after electroejaculation.

MJ Maya-Soriano, MT Abelló, H Fernández-Bellon, J Vidal, C Salvador, M López-Béjar.

Poster at International Conference on Disease of Zoo and Wild Animals, EAZWV, Madrid (2010).

Successful long-term refrigeration and cryopreservation of epididymal sperm cells from a patas monkey (*Erythrocebus patas*).

MJ Maya-Soriano, MT Abelló, H Fernández-Bellon, M López-Béjar.

Poster at International Conference on Disease of Zoo and Wild Animals, EAZWV, Madrid (2010).

Successful cryopreservation of epididymal sperm cells from a black-faced impala (*Aepyceros melampus petersi*).

MJ Maya-Soriano, H Fernández-Bellon, C Andreu-Vazquez, C Enseñat, M López-Béjar.

Oral communication at VIIe Congrès international francophone sur les animaux sauvages et exotiques, Paris (2010).

Adenocarcinoma de glándulas hepatoideas : tres casos clínicos.

C Díaz-Bertrana, MJ Maya-Soriano, I Durall, A Burballa, A Martínez, J Franch.

Poster at 43 Congreso Europeo Veterinario, SEVC, Barcelona (2008).

Tratamiento de una otitis media mediante ablación del conducto auditivo externo y trepanación de la bulla timpánica.

C Díaz-Bertrana, I Durall, A Burballa, A Martínez, E Rapado, MJ Maya-Soriano.

Poster at 43 Congreso Europeo Veterinario, SEVC, Barcelona (2008).

Attended courses

So long, and thanks for all the frogs!

Dr. Phil Bishop, Chief Scientist, IUCN Amphibian Survival Alliance, New Zealand.

European Xenopus Resource Center, University of Portsmouth (2011).

From endangered species to tracking cars; Reproductive biology, Wildlife and Modern biotechnology. A Symposium to celebrate contributions in comparative reproductive biology at ZSL.

Institute of Zoology (ZSL), Londres (2011).

The contribution of the international zoo community to the conservation of great apes and their habitats.

Consorci Universitat Internacional Menéndez Pelayo de Barcelona-Centre Ernest Lluch and Zoo de Barcelona (2011).

The current mission of zoos: new allies of biodiversity.

Consorci Universitat Internacional Menéndez Pelayo de Barcelona-Centre Ernest Lluch and Zoo de Barcelona (2009).

Creative teaching in the use of educational resources.

Unitat d'Innovació Docent en Educació Superior (IDES), UAB, Bellaterra, Barcelona (2009).

Felid intern medicine.

IVSA-Hill's, Veterinary Faculty, UAB, Bellaterra, Barcelona (2008).

Primate conservation and medicine.

AVAFES, Veterinary Faculty, UAB, Bellaterra, Barcelona (2006-2007).

Clinical cases in wild animals.

AVAFES, Veterinary Faculty, UAB, Bellaterra, Barcelona (2006-2007).

Felid conservation and medicine.

AVAFES, Veterinary Faculty, UAB, Bellaterra, Barcelona (2005-2006).