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Metformin - An agent stimulating motility and acrosome reaction in chicken sperm

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ABSTRACT

Sperms have main functions of motility and acrosome reaction, they promote their essential role of the oocyte fertilization. Currently, many chemicals are added to the media to enhance sperm quality during artificial insemination. Metformin, commonly used for the treatment of type II diabetes, possesses properties impacting cell metabolism control that has not been assessed yet in sperm. The aims of this experiment were to determine the effects of Metformin on fresh chicken sperm motility and ability to perform acrosome reaction, and evaluate Metformin's effects on the functions of cryopreserved sperms. The results showed that the presence of Metformin in fresh semen has a positive impact on the quality of sperms and helps reducing the gradual decline in sperm motility caused by cryopreservation.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Metformin (*1,1-diMetforminhylobiguanide hydrochloride*) is a major actor in the treatment of type II diabetes, and it is the only drug of the biguanide class currently used. It promotes insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in muscle (Bailey, 1993) and lowers hepatic glucose output (Hundalet *et al.*, 1992). It also affects lipid metabolism, lowering plasma triglycerides (Cusiet *et al.*, 1996), and free fatty acids (Abbasi *et al.*, 1997), the latter possibly due to inhibition of catecholamine-stimulated lipolysis (Flechtner-Mors *et al.*, 1999). In addition, it has also been shown that Metformin can be used as an antineoplastic agent. Indeed, Metformin restricts the growth and proliferation of various neoplastic cells both in vitro and in vivo. These results were described in different tumors, such as bladder neoplastic cells (Zhang *et al.*, 2013), gastric (Kato *et al.*, 2012), ovarian (Shank *et al.*, 2012; Rattan *et al.*, 2011; Yasmeen *et al.*, 2011), pulmonary adenocarcinoma (Wu *et al.*, 2010), endometrial (Cantllet *et al.*, 2010), prostate and colon cancer (Za-

kikhaniet *al.*, 2008), and different types of breast cancer (Zakikhaniet *al.*, 2010; 2006; Hirsch *et al.*, 2009). Metformin can also be used in the treatment of an ovulatory infertility in women (Palombaet *al.*, 2006), inducing ovulation and increasing pregnancy rates (Creangaet *al.*, 2008; Lord *et al.*, 2003). However, if the effects of Metformin on several organs have been broadly studied, little is known about its effects on the male germinal cells.

Cryopreservation is the most convenient technique for the long-term storage of sperms. It is a valuable technique used to conserve precious genetic materials for domestic and endangered species and manage infertility in humans. However, despite the advancements made over the years, in most species, the post-thaw quality and function of sperm are impaired when compared with fresh sperms (Curry, 2000; Watson, 2000; Neild *et al.*, 2005; Morris *et al.*, 2012). Cryopreservation causes permanent damage to sperms such as loss of motility, reduced DNA integrity, damage to the acrosome and plasma membrane, and apoptosis (Curry, 2000; Watson, 2000; Neild *et al.*, 2005; Morris *et al.*,

2012). This is why the extender composition and the nature of the external cryoprotectant compounds are of critical importance for sperm survival following cryopreservation (Bucaket *et al.*, 2013; Cordova *et al.*, 2014). Various antioxidants have been added into the cryopreservation media and have improved sperm function such as motility and membrane integrity in numerous species (Branco *et al.*, 2010; Garcez *et al.*, 2010; Chhillaret *et al.*, 2012).

AMPK (5' adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase) is the downstream component of a protein kinase cascade that acts as a sensor of cellular energy charge. AMPK activation stimulates catabolic pathways that produce adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and simultaneously inhibits ATP-consuming anabolic pathways, thus adjusting the cellular energy balance (Hardie and Hawley, 2001; Hardie *et al.*, 2003, 2006). AMPK is a heterotrimeric protein consisting of a catalytic α -subunit and two regulatory subunits, β and γ , with different species and tissue-specific isoforms. AMPK is phosphorylated by upstream kinases, including STK11 (LKB1), Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-dependent protein kinase kinase (CaMKK) and TAK1 (Woods *et al.*, 2003; 2005; Momcilovic *et al.*, 2006). AMPK is also activated by Metformin (Zhou *et al.*, 2001). Recently, AMPK has been shown in sperms and its activation affects the sperm quality in some species such as boar, mouse, stallion, or chicken. Metformin improves the quality of boar (Hurtado de Lleret *et al.*, 2012) and mice frozen-thawed sperm (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014) through AMPK activation. However, the role of Metformin in chicken sperm has not been thoroughly studied. Based upon these interesting characteristics of Metformin, the study evaluated its influence on sperm quality before and after cryopreservation by adding it directly into semen.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, Missouri, USA) unless otherwise noted. Metformin (1,1-dimethylbiguanide hydrochloride) was from Calbiochem (Billerica, Massachusetts). Stock solutions of Metformin were prepared in deionized water. Complete mini EDTA-free, protease inhibitor cocktail tablets were from Roche diagnostics (Mannheim, Germany). Tris/glycine buffer (10X), Tris/glycine/SDS buffer (10X), and Precision Plus Protein All Blue Standards (Catalog #161-0373) were from Bio-Rad (Hercules, California) and anti-AMPK α from Millipore (Billerica, MA), anti-phospho-Thr172-AMPK α and anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) (DyLight 680 Conjugate) antibodies from

Cell Signaling technology, Inc (Danvers, MA). SYBR-14/PI (LIVE/DEAD sperm viability kit) was from Molecular Probes (Saint Aubin, France). The LPO-586 kit was from Oxis Research (Burlingame, CA, US).

Animals

The animals used were 28-55-week-old adult *Gallus domesticus* at the Unit Poultry Experimentation of National Institute of Agricultural Research (INRA) in Tours, France. All the animals were housed in individual battery cages under a 14L/10D photoperiod and fed a standard diet of 12.5 MJ/day.

Semen collection

Semen was routinely collected twice a week by the abdominal massage method (Burrows and Quinn, 1937). Sperm concentration was determined by light absorption of semen with a photometer (IMV, L'Aigle, France) at a wavelength of 530 nm. The semen was gently mixed after collection from each male and split into two groups for the fresh and frozen treatments. Fresh sperms were diluted in Beltsville Poultry Semen Extender (BPSE) (Sexton, 1977) to get a final sperm concentration of 1×10^9 cells/ml. For all experiences with fresh sperms, sperm samples were incubated in the presence or absence of different doses of Metformin (0.5, 1, 2 and 5mM). Then, the concentrations affecting sperm parameters (viability, motility, and acrosome reaction) were chosen in the most positive way to perform the experiments on frozen sperms.

Sperm cryopreservation

The semen was diluted 1:1 with Lake PC in the presence or absence of 1mM Metformin and 11% glycerol based cryoprotectant in Lake PC (Lake, 1978). The diluted semen and cryoprotectant were then equilibrated for 10min at 4°C. After equilibration, the semen was transferred to 0.5 ml plastic freezing straws (IMV, L'Aigle, France) which were sealed and finally frozen from +4 to -35°C at -7°C/min and from -35 to -140°C at -20°C/min using a programmable Minidigitcool 1400 freezer (IMV, L'Aigle, France). The straws were then plunged into liquid nitrogen (-196°C).

Thawing procedures

Sperms were thawed for 4 minutes in a water bath adjusted to 4°C. After thawing, the straws were quickly opened and semen transferred to a glass beaker. Semen was progressively diluted (6 times 2 minutes) with Lake PC (Lake, 1978) at 4°C to final dilution of 1:19. Glycerol was removed by centrifugation (15 minutes at 700 G, 4°C). After removal

of the supernatants, the resulting pellets were re-suspended in 100 ml of Lake PC (Lake, 1978). Concentration of sperm was estimated at a wavelength of 530 nm. Concentrations were close to 1×10^9 cells/ml.

Sperm viability

SYBR-14/PI was used to assess sperm membrane integrity before freezing and after thawing. The red fluorescence from PI shows dead sperms while the green fluorescence from SYBR-14 shows those whose plasma membrane is intact (PMI), which are therefore alive. A total of 300 sperms per slide were counted (two slides/sample = 1 replicate) under fluorescence microscopy (Zeiss Axioplan 2; Zeiss Gruppe, Jena, Germany) and a total of six replicates/treatment examined. All preparations were analyzed by the same observer.

Analysis of sperm motility by computer-assisted sperm analysis (CASA) system

The sperm motility parameters were evaluated by the computer-assisted sperm analysis (CASA) system with an HTM-IVOS (Hamilton-Thorn Motility Analyzer, IVOS) (Blesboiset *al.*, 2008). In this experiment, the parameters measured were percentage of motile sperm (%), and rapid cells (percentage of motile sperm with VAP > 50 $\mu\text{m/s}$, in %).

Acrosome reaction (AR) assessment with FITC-PNA

The completion of the acrosome reaction was detected by FITC-conjugated peanut agglutinin (FITC-PNA) binding (Horrockset *al.*, 2000). The sperms having completed their acrosome reaction were identified and counted under fluorescence microscopy (Zeiss Axioplan 2; Zeiss Gruppe, Jena, Germany). A minimum of 100 sperms was counted for each sample (two slides/sample = 1 replicate) and a total of six replicates/treatment examined. Acrosome reaction was characterized by the green fluorescence of the acrosomal region. All preparations were analyzed by the same observer.

Western-Blotting

For western-blotting experiments, total proteins from chicken sperm were extracted in lysis buffer (10mM Tris, 150mM NaCl, 1mM EGTA, 1mM EDTA, 100mM sodium fluoride, 4mM sodium pyrophosphate, 2mM sodium orthovanadate, 1%

Triton X-100, 0.5% NP40 containing a protease inhibitor cocktail with EDTA). Cell lysates were centrifuged at 12000g for 30minutes at 4°C and the protein concentration in each supernatant was determined by a colorimetric assay (Bio-Rad DC Protein Assay; Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). The proteins were then separated by 10% SDS-PAGE (SDS Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis) and transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane (Whatman Protran, Dassel, Germany). Afterwards, the membranes were incubated in anti-phospho-Thr172AMPK α (62kDa) or in anti-total AMPK α (62kDa) diluted in 5% BSA in TBS-Tween 0.1% as primary antibodies (final dilution 1:2000) overnight at 4°C. Finally, the membranes were further incubated for one hour in (HRP)-conjugated secondary goat anti-rabbit antibody (final dilution 1:2000). The intensity of bands in the signal was analyzed using Odyssey Software, version 1.2 (LICOR Biosciences, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA).

Statistical analyses

Differences between treatments were analyzed by 1-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparisons using GraphPad Prism version 5.0d for Mac (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). The minimum level of significance retained was $P < 0.05$.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Metformin significantly increasing motile sperm percentage

To evaluate the effect of Metformin on fresh sperm motility, sperms were incubated in BPSE for 30 minutes without or with Metformin at different concentrations (0, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, and 5.0mM). As observed in Figure 1, the percentage of sperm motility (Figure 1A) and rapid sperm (Figure 1B) is significantly reduced after 30minutes of incubation compared with the positive control (Ctrl) which has not undergone incubation. However, after having treated the sperms with Metformin, the sperm motility and rapid sperm parameters significantly increased (by about 41%) with 1mM Metformin, but did not change with other concentrations. Moreover, the percentage of rapid sperm tended to significantly decrease with increasing concentration of Metformin (5mM Metformin, $P = 0.04$) compared with other concentrations of Metformin, but there was no difference compared to Ctrl (Figure 1B).

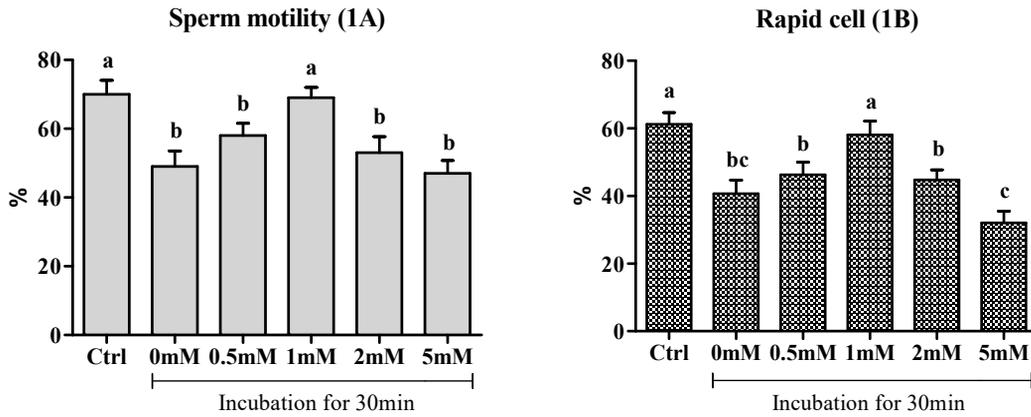


Fig. 1: Effect of Metformin on sperm motility (2A) and rapid sperm (2B)

Values are means \pm SEM (n = 10). Different letters above bars indicate values that were statistically significantly different at P < 0.05

3.2 Metformin significantly increasing the percentage of sperm viability and acrosome reaction

The effect of Metformin in sperm viability was studied in order to correlate it with motility studies and to know whether Metformin treatment might cause side effects that lead to germ cells death. According to the results in Figure 2A, sperm viability is sensitive to time of incubation: after 30 minutes, the percentage of sperm viability significantly decreases compared with positive control. However, sperm viability of incubation after 30 minutes was greatly reduced in the presence of

1mM Metformin compared with control without Metformin; while the other Metformin doses did not affect sperm viability.

The ability of spermatozoa to undergo the acrosome reaction was also negatively affected after 30 minutes of incubation for the positive control as well as for the treated samples (P < 0.01). However, the acrosome reaction rate was significantly increased by Metformin at 0.5mM (mean increase ~ 22%), at 1mM (mean increase ~ 39%) and at 2mM (mean increase ~ 17%) compared with the control (Figure 2B).

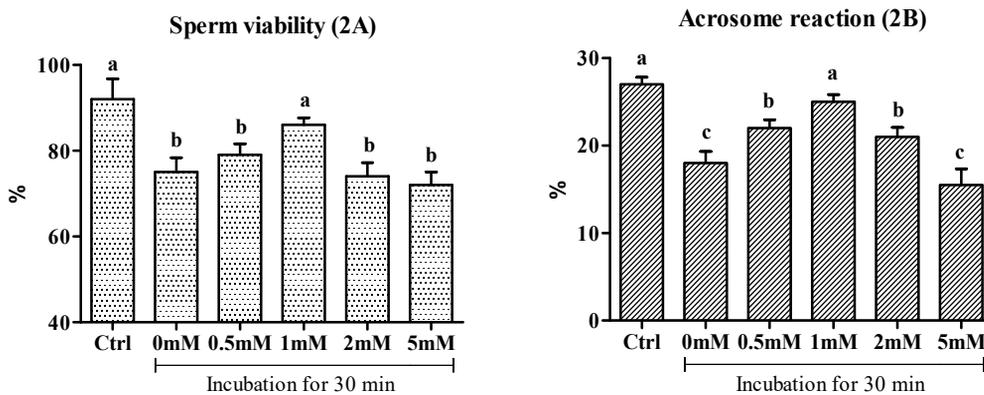


Fig. 2: Effect of Metformin on the sperm viability (2A) and acrosome reaction (2B)

Values are means \pm SEM (n = 10). Different letters above bars indicate values that were statistically significantly different at P < 0.05

3.3 Effect of Metformin supplementation in cryopreservation media on spermatozoa

Based on the results obtained from experiments with fresh sperms and according to the observation, 1mM Metformin is the most effective dose to im-

prove chicken sperm quality. Therefore, the potential effect of 1mM Metformin on cryopreserved sperm was tested.

Sperm parameters were assessed 15 minutes after thawing. The results show that the sperm viability

of the samples treated with Metformin slightly increased (by 10%) compared with control without Metformin (Figure 3A). In addition, results obtained for motility were higher than those of the control without Metformin. The percentage of motile sperm treated with Metformin increased by 23% compared with control without Metformin (Figure 3B).

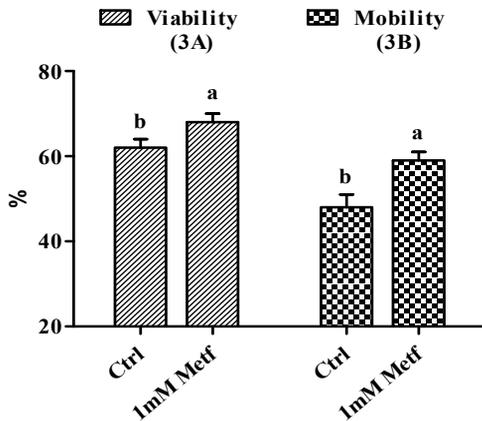


Fig. 3: Effect of Metformin on the frozen-thawed sperm viability (3A) and motility (3B)

Values are means ± SEM (n = 6). Different letters above bars indicate values that were statistically significantly different at P < 0.05.

3.4 Phosphorylation of AMPK in frozen/thawed spermatozoa after Metformin treatment

Western-blot analyses using antibodies against phospho-Thr172-AMPKα and total AMPKα (as control) were performed on chicken sperm incubated in the absence or presence of 1mM Metformin during freezing and thawing (Figure 4). The AMPK phosphorylation was increased by 30% with Metformin after the freeze-thaw process compared with control without Metformin.

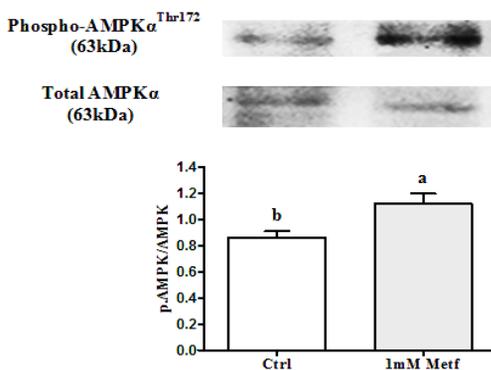


Fig. 4: Effects of Metformin on AMPK phosphorylation in frozen-thawed chicken sperm

Sperm lysates were prepared and resolved by SDS-PAGE, transferred to nitrocellulose membrane, and probed with anti-phospho-Thr172-AMPKα and anti-AMPKα antibody. Bands for phospho-Thr172-AMPKα were detected at 63kDa (top lanes). Total AMPKα was used as loading control (63kDa) (bottom lanes) and the phosphorylated protein AMPKα (Thr172)/total AMPKα ratio is shown at the bottom. Cryopreserved sperms were either treated in the presence of 1mM Metformin (in dark gray) or without anything for the Ctrl in white. Values represent means ± SEM from 6 different experiments. Different superscripts indicate significant differences between Ctrl and Metformin in frozen-thawed semen (P<0.05).

4 DISCUSSION

There are few reports assessing the effects of Metformin on the viability of fresh or cryopreserved spermatozoa in vitro. This study figured that treatment of fresh or cryopreserved chicken spermatozoa with Metformin presents a beneficial effect on motility, viability, and acrosome reaction. The results obtained with fresh spermatozoa in the present study differed from those of Hurtado de Llera *et al.* (2012) who observed a partial reduction in motility of boar spermatozoa following 5mM treatment with Metformin in fresh spermatozoa for two hours. Furthermore, they reported a complete inhibition with very high concentrations (between 10 and 20 mM). Another study of Bertoldo *et al.* (2014) also showed that treatment of fresh mouse spermatozoa with 5mM Metformin decreased sperm motility, but not sperm viability.

In this study, 1mM Metformin treatment leads to a significant increase in the percentage of viable, motile, and rapid spermatozoa (VAP >50 μm/s). However, Metformin with a high concentration of 5mM does not affect sperm motility and viability but causes a significant reduction of the number of rapid spermatozoa. Moreover, the spermatozoa acrosome reaction is affected by Metformin. The acrosome reaction occurs by fusion of the sperm head cytoplasmic membrane and the underlying outer acrosomal membrane, so that the acrosome content is released (Okamura and Nishiyama, 1978). In most mammalian species, acrosome reaction occurs only in capacitated spermatozoa (Yanagimachi, 1994; Baldi *et al.*, 2000), and capacitation requires specific environments and different substrates. But in chicken spermatozoa, the acrosome reaction can be induced very rapidly in vitro (Horrocks *et al.*, 2000) without previous capacitation (Lemoine *et al.*, 2008). Unlike in mice sperm (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014), there is no modification in acrosome reaction by Metformin;

the study indicates that Metformin significantly increases chicken sperm acrosome reaction at 0.5, 1 and 2mM but not 5mM, which means that the effect of Metformin is not the same in all animal species.

The study is also the first showing a positive effect of Metformin on the capacity of mature sperm to restore their biological functions after cryopreservation. Metformin indeed improved sperm motility, acrosome reaction and viability in frozen-thawed chicken sperm. These results differ from those obtained with stallion sperm, where Metformin did not affect sperm viability and motility after cryopreservation (Cordova *et al.*, 2014). However, in addition to the use of highly different doses of Metformin in the two studies, the work on stallion sperm by Cordova *et al.* in 2014 used a very specific hypo-metabolic medium of sperm storage, with restricted access to energetic substrate that greatly limits the potential comparisons with this study. In accordance with a previous study on epididymal mice sperm (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014), Metformin showed a low but significant positive effect on sperm viability after cryopreservation.

In order to explain the positive action of Metformin on fresh and frozen sperm functions, this study investigated the effects of Metformin on AMPK phosphorylation. Recently, it showed the presence of the AMPK α protein in chicken sperm. AMPK presence in the acrosome, midpiece and flagellum of chicken sperm is in relation to its possible function in sperm motility and acrosome reaction process (Nguyen *et al.*, 2014). In this study, an increased AMPK phosphorylation in frozen/thawed sperms with 1mM Metformin was measured. This indicates that the positive action of Metformin on chicken sperm functions is done through AMPK activation. Metformin is known as an indirect activation of AMPK which inhibits complex I of the mitochondrial respiratory chain, suggesting an AMPK activation through the increase of the AMP/ATP ratio (Owen *et al.*, 2000). As presented, AMPK protein acts as a sensor that detects the cell energy state and subsequently regulates metabolism; when AMPK becomes activated it stimulates catabolic pathways that produce ATP and simultaneously inhibits ATP-consuming anabolic pathways. Therefore, the data strongly suggest that AMPK phosphorylation has a central role in regulating the improvement of metabolic functions and ATP production needed to ensure high energy consuming process such as sperm motility and acrosome reaction.

However it is possible that Metformin is a molecule of the biguanide family, and has the ability to decrease reactive oxygen species (Ouslimani *et al.*, 2005; Piwkowska *et al.*, 2010; Esteghamati *et al.*, 2013) and to activate the transcription factor to increase expression of antioxidant genes (Onken and Driscoll, 2010). Sperm membranes are enriched in polyunsaturated fatty acids in mammalian (Dandekar *et al.*, 2002) and bird species (Blesbois and Hermier, 2003), sperms are very susceptible to lipid peroxidation (LPO) with subsequent alterations of structure and functions (Griveau *et al.*, 1995). Superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), glutathione reductase and catalase are the major antioxidant enzymes naturally presenting in mammalian and bird semen to protect sperm from lipid peroxidation and to maintain its integrity against ROS (Surai *et al.*, 1998). Reductions in SOD, GPx, catalase activities, and increases in ROS and lipid peroxidation have been shown after chicken sperm cryopreservation (Partyka *et al.*, 2012). Previous studies have provided evidence that Metformin exerts an anti-inflammatory effect on non-alcoholic steato-hepatosis mice by impeding depletion in GPx, SOD, and catalase, and by decreasing ROS and MDA (Buldaket *et al.*, 2014). Metformin could also directly reduce ROS production via inhibition of complex I. Indeed, the inhibition of complex I by Metformin is known to reduce the number of electrons entering the electron transport chain, thus blocking NADH oxidation by complex I (Piwkowska *et al.*, 2010), and therefore reducing ROS production by both complex I and III (Ouslimani *et al.*, 2005). It suggests that the impact of Metformin on sperm quality is made through both AMPK-dependent and AMPK-independent pathways (Kita *et al.*, 2012).

5 CONCLUSIONS

The results demonstrate that Metformin increases the quality of fresh chicken sperm. Furthermore, chicken sperm has improved post-thaw motility and viability in the presence of Metformin. This is the first assessment of the effect of Metformin on chicken sperm through their influence on AMPK activity to reduce cryopreservation damages in avian sperm. Such data will most certainly be helpful to develop and improve semen handling and storage techniques in the near future.

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