

revised highlighted

Title: Effect of several antioxidants on thawed ram spermatozoa submitted to 37 °C up to 4 h

Abridged title: Incubation of thawed ram spermatozoa with antioxidants

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17 **Contents**

18 Thawed ram spermatozoa were incubated at 37 °C in presence of dehydroascorbic acid (DHA), TEMPOL
19 (TPL), N-acetyl-cysteine (NAC) and rutin (RUT), at 0.1 and 1 mM, in order to test their effects on sperm
20 physiology. Cryopreserved spermatozoa from four rams were thawed, pooled, washed and incubated in
21 TALP-Hepes with 1 mM or 0.1 mM of each antioxidant, performing a replicate with induced oxidative
22 stress (Fe²⁺/ascorbate). Motility (CASA), viability and mitochondrial membrane potential (flow
23 cytometry) were analyzed at 2 and 4 h. Lipoperoxidation (MDA production), intracellular ROS and DNA
24 status (TUNEL) were analyzed at 4 h. Antioxidants, except DHA 0.1 mM, decreased motility and
25 kinematic parameters, but had little effect on viability or mitochondrial activity. Except 1 mM DHA, the
26 antioxidants reduced ROS at 4 h. Moreover, NAC 1 mM, rutin and TEMPOL reduced ROS and DNA
27 damage in presence of oxidative stress. NAC, rutin 1 mM and TEMPOL reduced lipoperoxidation in
28 presence of oxidative stress. However, DHA did not affected lipoperoxidation. At 1 mM, DHA increased
29 DNA damage in absence of oxidative stress. DHA effects could arise from spermatozoa having a low
30 capacity for reducing it to ascorbic acid, and it may be tested in presence of other antioxidants or
31 reducing power. Future research should focus in testing if the inhibition of motility observed for NAC,
32 rutin and TEMPOL is reversible. These antioxidants might be useful at lower temperatures (refrigerated
33 storage or cryopreservation) when their protective effects could be advantageous.

34 Keywords: ram, spermatozoa, antioxidant, oxidative stress, DNA damage

1. Introduction

Artificial insemination (AI) with frozen-thawed semen has been proposed as a valuable tool for genetic improvement programs for sheep (Anel et al., 2006). This technique has still to gain a widespread use, because of very variable and frequently low fertility with cervical AI, forcing the use of short-term refrigerated semen or laparoscopic insemination. The main problem with the cervical AI consist in the difficulty of perform a deep insemination, due to the sheep anatomy and to the convoluted shape of the cervical channel, forcing to deposit the semen in the vagina or to perform shallow intracervical inseminations (Kaabi et al., 2006; Druart et al., 2009). Moreover, cryopreservation impairs sperm quality (Salamon and Maxwell, 2000), and possibly its ability to migrate to the oviduct, which explains the requirement of laparoscopic AI to achieve acceptable results when using cryopreserved semen in sheep.

Antioxidants have been proposed for improving results of artificial reproductive techniques. Many attempts have been tried in different species (Bilodeau et al., 2001; Roca et al., 2005; Fernandez-Santos et al., 2007; Gadea et al., 2005; Fernández-Santos et al., 2009; Domínguez-Rebolledo et al., 2009), although field trials have not been as successful as in vitro experiments (Foote et al., 2002; Mara et al., 2007). In this study, we have tested the effect of several antioxidants on ram sperm quality, following an in vitro design that we used previously in red deer (Domínguez-Rebolledo et al., 2010). Such a test was designed as a preliminary step to study the physiological changes of spermatozoa upon being submitted to the antioxidants at 37 °C and to uncover toxic effects.

The antioxidants TEMPOL, N-acetyl-cysteine (NAC), rutin and dehydroascorbic acid (DHA) were used in our experiment. TEMPOL has been tried for the refrigerated storage of ram spermatozoa (Mara et al., 2005), apparently improving the conservation of sperm quality and the in vitro fertility. However, the base extenders used for TEMPOL and non-TEMPOL treatments were different, preventing a proper comparison on the effect of this antioxidant. Furthermore, TEMPOL did not affected the motility of cryopreserved bull spermatozoa (Foote et al., 2002), and it could not improve the kidding rate of goats inseminated with refrigerated semen (Mara et al., 2007). However, this antioxidant seems promising, because it has been defined as having a SOD-like activity (Mitchell et al., 1990).

The other antioxidants have not been tested in ram spermatozoa before, although

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3 62 N-acetyl-cysteine (NAC) has yielded good results in other species. NAC is a thiol antioxidant, which are
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5 63 regarded as excellent radical scavengers and blockers of lipid peroxidation (Deneke, 2000). Thus, Oeda
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7 64 et al. (1997) showed that NAC decreased reactive oxygen species (ROS) in human semen. Several studies
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9 65 in cryopreserved and refrigerated dog semen have reported positive effects of NAC supplementation of
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11 66 semen extenders (Michael et al., 2007, 2009, 2010), although no significant ROS reduction was observed.
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13 67 NAC has been also tested in bull (Bilodeau et al., 2001), with good results against induced oxidative
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15 68 stress.

17 69 Rutin (a flavonol) and DHA (the oxidized form of vitamin C) have not been tested in the context
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19 70 of artificial reproductive techniques previously. Rutin has been chosen because of the interesting results
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21 71 of flavonols in genotoxicity assays. Flavonols have a double-edge behavior, since they can act as
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23 72 pro-oxidants or antioxidants, depending on concentration and experimental conditions (Liu and Zheng,
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25 73 2002; Liu et al., 2010). Moreover, several studies have shown that quercetin, another flavonol, can
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27 74 modulate the capacitation of bull spermatozoa, while lowering the concentration of reactive oxygen
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29 75 species (ROS) (Córdoba et al., 2006, 2007, 2008). Moreover, this flavonol prevented DNA damage in
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31 76 spermatozoa in genotoxicity studies (Anderson et al., 1998). Regarding DHA, our interest in this
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33 77 molecule arises from previous studies showing that it can enter the spermatozoon through glucose
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35 78 transporters (GLUT family) (Angulo et al., 1998). Once in the mitochondria, DHA is reduced to
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37 79 ascorbic acid, increasing the antioxidant pool of the cell (KC et al., 2005). These studies suggest that the
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39 80 addition of DHA to cell media could increase intracellular ascorbic acid more efficiently than the addition
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41 81 of ascorbic acid itself, due to the preference of GLUT transporters for the oxidized form.

44 82 In this study, we tested these four antioxidants during a 4-h incubation at 37 °C and at 0.1 and
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46 83 1 mM. The main objective of the study is to identify the physiological changes that the antioxidants
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48 84 produce at that temperature, trying to characterize their effects and possible toxicity. We aimed at
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50 85 providing basic information about the use of these antioxidants on ram spermatozoa, providing
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52 86 information prior to testing their usefulness on the refrigerated storage or cryopreservation of ram
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54 87 spermatozoa.
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88 2. Materials and Methods

89 2.1. Reagents and media

90 Common reagents (Reagent grade or higher) and antioxidants were acquired from Sigma (Madrid,
91 Spain). Fluorescence probes and the ApoTarget™ APO-BRDU Kit (TUNEL test) were purchased from
92 Invitrogen (Barcelona, Spain). The spectrophotometric assay for malondialdehyde (BIOXYTECH®
93 MDA-586) was purchased from Oxis International (Beverly Hills, CA, USA). Flow cytometry
94 equipment, software and consumables were purchased from Beckman Coulter (Fullerton, CA, USA).
95 Spermatozoa were incubated in a TALP-Hepes medium, composed of: 87 mM NaCl, 3.1 mM KCl, 2 mM
96 CaCl₂, 0.4 mM MgCl₂, 0.3 mM NaH₂PO₄, 40 mM HEPES, 21.6 mM sodium lactate, 1 mM sodium
97 pyruvate, 50 µg/mL kanamidine, 10 µg/mL phenol red and 6 mg/mL BSA (pH 7.5). The antioxidants
98 were prepared as stock solutions of 100 mM and 10 mM in double-distilled water, except rutin, which
99 was diluted in 1 M NaOH in water. An oxidant solution was prepared with 10 mM FeSO₄ and 50 mM
100 sodium ascorbate (Fe²⁺/ascorbate) in water. Stocks of fluorescence probes were prepared in DMSO and
101 kept at -20 °C in the dark: YO-PRO-1: 50 µM; Mitotracker Deep Red: 1 mM; CM-H₂DCFDA: 500 µM.
102 Antioxidant stocks and the oxidant solution were prepared fresh just before starting each experimental
103 session.

104 2.2. Animals and semen processing

105 We used four adult males (2-9 years old) of the Churra breed, of proven fertility and trained for semen
106 collection by artificial vagina. Semen collection was performed during the breeding season (Autumn).
107 Ejaculates were collected by artificial vagina (40 °C), and the tubes were maintained at 35 °C during the
108 initial evaluation of semen quality. The volume was estimated by using the graduation marks of the
109 collection tube. Mass motility was assessed by microscopy (warming stage at 37 °C, ×40; score: 0–5),
110 and the sperm concentration was assessed by the photolorimetric method (540 nm), on a specifically
111 calibrated scale. Only ejaculates of good quality were used and frozen (volume: ≥0.5 mL; mass motility:
112 ≥4; sperm concentration: ≥3000×10⁶ mL⁻¹).

113 Semen was diluted with the same volume of freezing extender. The freezing extender (Anel et al.,

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3 114 2003) consisted of a TTF medium (TES-Tris-fructose, 320 mOsm/kg, pH 7.2) supplemented with 10%
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5 115 egg yolk and 4% glycerol. The sample was then refrigerated to 5 °C for two hours. Samples were packed
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7 116 into 0.25-mL plastic straws and equilibrated for 1 h at 5 °C. Then, the straws were frozen using a
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9 117 programmable biofreezer (Kryo 10 Series III; Planer plc., Sunbury-On-Thames, UK) using a rate of
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11 118 -20 °C/min down to -100 °C. The straws were kept in liquid nitrogen containers. For each experimental
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13 119 session, one straw per male was thawed in a water bath at 37 °C for 30 s. The contents of the four straws
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15 120 were pooled and diluted with three volumes of TALP-Hepes. After centrifugation (600×g for 5 min), the
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17 121 supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was slowly resuspended in TALP-Hepes up to
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19 122 30×10⁶ cells/mL. The washed pool was assessed (motility, membrane and mitochondrial status, DNA,
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21 123 lipoperoxidation and ROS) ten minutes after washing.
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25 124 2.3. *Experimental design*

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27 125 **The experiments followed a factorial design.** In all experiments, the washed pool was split among nine
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29 126 tubes. Eight of them were supplemented with either 1/100 of the 100 mM solution (1 mM final) or the
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31 127 10 mM solution (0.1 mM final) of each antioxidant: TEMPOL, N-acetyl-cysteine (NAC), rutin or
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33 128 dehydroascorbic acid (DHA). The ninth tube was used as control (no antioxidant). All the experiments
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35 129 were replicated seven times. Half of the volume of each tube was passed to another series of tubes, which
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37 130 were submitted to oxidative stress by adding 1/100 of the oxidant solution (100 μM of FeSO₄ and
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39 131 500 μM of sodium ascorbate). The tubes were incubated at 37 °C and analyzed at 2 h and 4 h.
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43 132 2.4. *Sperm motility assessment*

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45 133 The motility of the tubes without oxidative stress was assessed at 2 and 4 h. Sperm were diluted down to
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47 134 10–20×10⁶ spermatozoa/mL and loaded into a Makler counting chamber (10 μm depth) at 37 °C. The
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49 135 CASA system consisted of a triocular optical phase contrast microscope (Nikon Eclipse 80i; Nikon;
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51 136 Tokyo, Japan), equipped with a warming stage at 37 °C and a Basler A302fs digital camera (Basler
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53 137 Vision Technologies, Ahrensburg, Germany). The camera was connected to a computer by an IEEE 1394
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55 138 interface. Images were captured and analyzed using the Sperm Class Analyzer (SCA2002) software
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57 139 (Microptic S.L.; Barcelona, Spain). Sampling was carried out using a ×10 negative phase contrast
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3 140 objective (no intermediate magnification). Image sequences were saved and analyzed afterwards. The
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5 141 standard parameter settings were: 25 frames/s; 20 to 90 μm^2 for head area; VCL > 10 $\mu\text{m/s}$ (curvilinear
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7 142 velocity) to classify a spermatozoon as motile. We used four motility parameters in this study: total
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9 143 motility, progressive motility (VCL > 25 and STR –straightness– > 80%), VCL and ALH (amplitude of
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11 144 the lateral displacement of the sperm head).

145 2.5. Fluorescence probes and flow cytometry analysis

146 The membrane and mitochondrial status of the tubes without oxidative stress were assessed at 2 and 4 h.
147 Samples were diluted down to 10^6 spermatozoa/mL in TALP-Hepes containing 0.1 μM YO-PRO-1 and
148 0.1 μM Mitotracker Deep Red. YO-PRO-1 stains spermatozoa with increased membrane permeability,
149 while spermatozoa with high mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\psi_{\text{m}}$) were stained by Mitotracker
150 Deep Red. Spermatozoa were incubated 20 min in the dark before being run through a flow cytometer.

151 The DNA status, lipoperoxidation and ROS production of all the tubes were assessed at 4 h. For
152 assessing intracellular ROS, spermatozoa were diluted in TALP-Hepes with 0.5 μM CM-H₂DCFDA and
153 incubated for 30 min in the dark at 37 °C before being analyzed by flow cytometry. CM-H₂DCFDA is
154 retained within cells after being cleaved by cellular sterases. When it is oxidized, it fluoresces green,
155 indicating presence of intracellular ROS.

156 DNA damage was assessed by TUNEL [terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT)-mediated
157 dUTP nick end-labeling assay], as carried out previously (Domínguez-Rebolledo et al., 2009). Briefly,
158 samples were diluted in PBS at 10^6 cells/mL and fixed for 1 h with 2% paraformaldehyde. The cells were
159 washed and stored at -20 °C in 70% ethanol. Cells were washed, and labeled for 60 min at 37 °C. The
160 cells were washed, incubated 30 min in the antibody solution (FITC-Anti-BrdUTP mAb) at room
161 temperature and resuspended in a PI/RNase A solution before being analyzed by flow cytometry. Positive
162 and negative controls (incubation with DNase A and substituting water for the DNA labeling solution,
163 respectively) were used to standardize the assay.

164 Lipoperoxidation was assessed by measuring malondialdehyde concentration. We used the
165 Bioxitech® MDA-586 kit (Oxis International, Foster, CA, USA) to detect malondialdehyde (MDA) in
166 the samples, as described by Domínguez-Rebolledo et al. (2010). Samples were diluted with PBS to

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3 167 $10 \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C with 40 μM of Fe^{2+} and 200 μM ascorbate, to release
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5 168 MDA (Aitken et al., 1993). Samples were mixed with the reactive provided in the kit and incubated at
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7 169 45 °C for 1 h. The tubes were centrifuged and the supernatant was transferred to wells in a 96-well flat
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9 170 bottom transparent plate (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark). The plate absorbance at 586 nm was read on a
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11 171 multipurpose microplate reader (Synergy HT, BIO-TEK, Winooski, Vermont, USA). The MDA
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13 172 concentrations were calculated from a standard curve generated from know quantities of MDA, and
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15 173 presented as nmol of MDA per 10^8 spermatozoa.

174 Flow cytometry analyses were carried out with a Cytomics™ FC 500 flow cytometer (Beckman
175 Coulter, Brea, CA, USA), with a 488 nm Ar-Ion laser (excitation for YO-PRO-1, CM-H₂DCFDA and
176 FITC [TUNEL]), and a 633 nm He-Ne laser (excitation for Mitotracker Deep Red). Fluorescence from
177 YO-PRO-1, CM-H₂DCFDA and FITC were read using a 525/25BP filter, and Mitotracker Deep Red
178 (MT) was read using a 675/40BP filter. FSC/SSC signals were used to discriminate spermatozoa from
179 debris. Fluorescence captures were controlled using the RXP software provided with the cytometer. All
180 the parameters were read using logarithmic amplification. For each sample, 5000 spermatozoa were
181 recorded, saving the data in flow cytometry standard (FCS) v. 2 files. The analysis of the flow cytometry
182 data was carried out using WEASEL v. 2.6 (WEHI, Melbourne, Australia). The YO-PRO-1/MT stain was
183 analyzed as previously described for red deer (Martinez-Pastor et al., 2008). We obtained three
184 populations: YO-PRO-1+ spermatozoa (increased membrane permeability or damaged membranes),
185 YO-PRO-1-/MT- (viable spermatozoa with inactive mitochondria) and YO-PRO-1-/MT+ (viable
186 spermatozoa with active mitochondria). For ROS assessment, we recorded the median fluorescence
187 intensity (MFI) corresponding to CM-H₂DCFDA. For TUNEL analysis, the negative control allowed to
188 define the TUNEL- population, thus events with increased fluorescence were considered as TUNEL+
189 cells. Only events with high PI fluorescence (single nucleus) were taken into account for TUNEL
190 analysis. PI- (debris) or events with very high PI fluorescence (cell aggregates) were discarded.

191 2.6. Statistical Analysis

192 Data were analyzed in the R statistical environment (R Development Core Team, 2011). To analyze the
193 effects of time, antioxidant supplement and oxidant effect on sperm parameters, we used linear

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3 194 mixed-effects models, with incubation time, antioxidant type and antioxidant concentration as fixed
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5 195 effects. Replicate was the grouping factor in the random part of the models. Results are presented as
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7 196 means and 95% confidence intervals (within parentheses). $P < 0.05$ was considered significant.
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10 197 **3. Results**

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13 198 Results are showed in figures 1–4 as means and 95% confidence intervals. Considering the effect of the
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15 199 incubation on the control samples (without antioxidants), we noted a slight decrease on motility variables
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17 200 at 2 h (Figure 1), which was not significant for total, progressive motility nor mean VCL. Nevertheless,
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19 201 the mean ALH of the samples decreased significantly, from an initial value $3.20 (0.30) \mu\text{m}$ to
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21 202 $2.57 (0.08) \mu\text{m}$ at 2 h. After 4 h, the total motility decreased from 80.8% (3.3) to 63.13% (3.8) and VCL
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23 203 from $125.9 (11.4) \mu\text{m/s}$ to $94.4 (6.0) \mu\text{m/s}$ ($P < 0.05$). ALH did not show significant changes respect to
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25 204 2 h, with $2.23 (0.06) \mu\text{m}$ at 4 h. Viability and mitochondrial status (Figure 2), good indicators of the
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27 205 overall integrity of spermatozoa, did not vary at 2 h [0 h: 42.4% (4.6) and 40.9% (4.5), respectively; 4 h:
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29 206 43.5% (1.9) and 41.0% (2.0)]. At 4 h, the mean values decreased not significantly to 33.2% (2.84) and
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31 207 31.23% (2.68), respectively. The variables related with oxidative stress, ROS and malondialdehyde
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33 208 production (Figure 3), and DNA damage (TUNEL, Figure 4) did not vary with incubation [0 h: 11.3 (1.5)
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35 209 MFI, 18.3 (2.6) nmol MDA/ 10^8 cells and 10.0% (5.1), respectively; 4 h: 13.1 (1.9) MFI, 15.6 (3.5)
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37 210 nmol MDA/ 10^8 cells and 1.8% (0.42)]. Induced oxidative stress during the incubation caused an increase
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39 211 in these parameters, which became significantly higher: 22.9 (2.7) MFI for ROS, 29.2 (3.6)
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41 212 nmol MDA/ 10^8 cells and 34.7% (4.7) TUNEL+ spermatozoa.
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44 213 The incubation of spermatozoa with antioxidants caused important changes in motility. Except for
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46 214 DHA 0.1 mM and TEMPOL 0.1 mM, all treatments significantly affected total motility at 2 h, causing an
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48 215 overall decrease of about 23 points (Subfigure 1a). At 4 h, total motility further decreased in all
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50 216 treatments, except in DHA 0.1 mM (no significantly different to the control). This decrease in motility
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52 217 was larger in DHA 1 mM, RUT 1 mM and TEMPOL 1 mM, with an average decrease of 25 points respect
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54 218 to the control at 4 h. Progressive motility (Subfigure 1b) showed a similar trend at both times, whereas
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56 219 VCL changes were less evident (Subfigure 1c). DHA 1 mM, NAC 1 mM, Rutin 0.1 mM and TEMPOL
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58 220 1 mM induced a small decrease of mean VCL at 2 h ($13 \mu\text{m/s}$ less on average), while at 4 h only DHA
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3 221 1 mM had a significant effect, decreasing mean VCL to 75.3 (4.5) $\mu\text{m/s}$. ALH (Subfigure 1d) was slightly
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5 222 affected by all the antioxidants at 2 h (average decrease of 0.29 μm , $P < 0.05$), except for TEMPOL
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7 223 0.1 mM. At 4 h, only DHA 1 mM (1.88 (0.06) μm) significantly decreased ALH respect to the control.
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9 224 Contrarily, only a few antioxidants affected sperm viability and mitochondrial activity (Figure 2).
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11 225 After 2 h of incubation, DHA and rutin at 1 mM decreased significantly these parameters, but at 4 h, NAC
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13 226 at 0.1 and 1 mM increased significantly both parameters above the control, and rutin 0.1 mM increased
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15 227 the proportion of viable spermatozoa. These changes were small, 4 points less for 2 h and 5 points more
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17 228 for 4 h, on average.

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19 229 The production of ROS (Subfigure 3a) dropped on many antioxidant treatments, both with and
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21 230 without induced oxidative stress. All antioxidants reduced intracellular ROS significantly after 4 h of
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23 231 incubation, except for DHA 1 mM, with an average drop of 3.4 in the median fluorescence intensity of
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25 232 the samples. NAC 1 mM, rutin and TEMPOL were able to significantly reduce the MFI values even in
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27 233 presence of exogenous oxidative stress. In fact, MFI values of rutin and TEMPOL (0.1 and 1 mM) were
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29 234 not significantly different from those of the control at 0 h. MDA production in absence of oxidative stress
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31 235 was similar to the control (Figure 3b), with only TEMPOL 1 mM significantly decreasing it
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33 236 (9.57 (4.26) $\text{nmol}/10^8$ cells). With induced oxidative stress, NAC, rutin 1 mM and TEMPOL caused a
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35 237 significant decline of MDA concentrations (average decrease of 8 $\text{nmol}/10^8$ cells for NAC and TEMPOL
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37 238 0.1 mM, and of 16 $\text{nmol}/10^8$ cells for rutin and TEMPOL at 1 mM).

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39 239 DNA damage (Figure 4) was very low, even after 4 h of incubation, with no significant differences
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41 240 with the control, except DHA 1 mM, which increased TUNEL+ spermatozoa to 7.7% (1.2). NAC 1 mM
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43 241 [19.6% (5.6)], rutin [0.1 mM: 13.2% (3.2); 1 mM: 11.8% (4.5)] and TEMPOL [0.1 mM: 18.8% (8.8);
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45 242 1 mM: 6.0% (3.0)] decreased the high proportion of TUNEL+ spermatozoa induced by oxidative stress.
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47 243 The values achieved by rutin and TEMPOL at 1 mM were not significantly different from the control at
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53 245 **4. Discussion**

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56 246 Many studies have tested the effects of antioxidants on spermatozoa, with variable results. While there is
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58 247 a general agreement that spermatozoa is highly vulnerable to the oxidative stress (Donnelly et al., 1999;
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3 248 Aitken and Sawyer, 2003) and that the use of antioxidants could improve the results of artificial
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5 249 reproductive techniques (Donnelly et al., 2000; Foote et al., 2002), some authors have reported a lack of
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7 250 benefits or even detrimental effects of antioxidant supplementation in sperm media (Donnelly et al., 1999,
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9 251 2000; Foote et al., 2002; Fernandez-Santos et al., 2007). In our study, we have found that most
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11 252 antioxidant treatments exerted an inhibitory effect on sperm motility, although most of them were
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13 253 efficient removing free radicals and protecting DNA and membranes from oxidation. Moreover, whereas
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15 254 NAC, rutin and TEMPOL behaved similarly, dehydroascorbic acid behaved differently regarding
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17 255 antioxidant activity and DNA protection.

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20 256 Rutin and TEMPOL were especially efficient removing intracellular ROS, even in presence of
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22 257 induced oxidative stress, and this efficiency was further demonstrated by indirect measures of oxidative
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24 258 stress such as MDA production and DNA fragmentation. NAC was not so effective in presence of
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26 259 oxidative stress, but it also decreased ROS during the incubation and had an effect on lipoperoxidation
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28 260 and DNA protection. The loss of motility could be related to this efficient removal of free radicals from
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30 261 the spermatozoon cytoplasm. Free radicals take part in the physiological regulation of spermatozoa
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32 262 (Aitken and Curry, 2010), and several studies have shown that the application of oxidative stress promotes
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34 263 capacitation and tyrosine phosphorylation, whereas the application of radical scavengers inhibits these
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36 264 processes (O'Flaherty et al., 2006; de Lamirande and O'Flaherty, 2008). Thus, motility can be affected
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38 265 by ROS concentration via transduction signals affecting the flagellar beat (Aitken, 2000). Some studies
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40 266 have reported loss of motility upon addition of antioxidants to the sperm media. For instance, Aitken
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42 267 et al. (1995) reported an inhibitory effect of 1 mM dithiothreitol in human spermatozoa motility.

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44 268 Our results support that, for NAC, rutin and TEMPOL, the inhibition of motility could be due to
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46 269 excessive ROS scavenging, rather than to a direct toxic effect. Toxicity would have expressed in the form
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48 270 of decreased viability and increased apoptotic features (loss of mitochondrial activity and DNA
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50 271 fragmentation). Contrarily, these antioxidants had little effect on sperm viability and mitochondrial status
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52 272 and, in fact, NAC had a significantly positive effect in these parameters after 4 h of incubation.
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54 273 Considering these results, and the fact that these antioxidants could block lipid peroxidation and protect
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56 274 the sperm DNA, future studies could explore the possibility that motility could be resumed given the
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58 275 adequate conditions, by washing or adding stimulating factors. Moreover, the application of these
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3 276 antioxidants using different conditions (media, temperature, cryopreservation) may prevent the inhibition
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5 277 of motility while preserving the antioxidant and DNA-protecting effects.
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7 278 Moreover, these effects could depend on the experimental conditions. For instance, we obtained
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9 279 good results incubating thawed spermatozoa from red deer in presence of Trolox (a soluble form of
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11 280 vitamin E) (Domínguez-Rebolledo et al., 2009, 2010), but results were suboptimal when the
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13 281 cryopreservation extender was supplemented with this antioxidant (Fernandez-Santos et al., 2007). Foote
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15 282 et al. (2002) reported that TEMPOL had toxic effects in bull spermatozoa frozen in whole milk extender
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17 283 (with only 0.2 mM), while these effects were greatly decreased when using an egg yolk-Tris extender.
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19 284 Moreover, Mara et al. (2005) reported that 2 mM TEMPOL in sodium citrate buffer supported the
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21 285 refrigerated storage of ram spermatozoa. Similarly, Bilodeau et al. (2001) tested 0.5 and 1 mM NAC in
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23 286 thawed bull spermatozoa, finding a positive effect in sperm motility after 6 h. In this case, the authors
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25 287 incubated the spermatozoa in the freezing extender (a Tris-egg yolk medium), in which the antioxidants
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27 288 were added. Other authors have tested NAC in fresh human semen (Oeda et al., 1997) and refrigerated
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29 289 stallion spermatozoa (Pagl et al., 2006), obtaining no motility inhibition. **Another possible confounding**
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31 290 **effect is the presence of pyruvate in the incubation media, which has antioxidant properties** (Upreti et al.,
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33 291 1998). This reinforces the hypothesis that the effect of these antioxidants on motility could be modulated
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35 292 by the medium and incubation conditions.
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38 293 The DNA protective ability of rutin deserves a comment, since some studies have shown
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40 294 genotoxic effects in lymphocytes (Liu and Zheng, 2002). Flavonoids can act either as genotoxicants or
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42 295 antimutagens, due to their ability to interact with DNA, although in vivo assays have not found genotoxic
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44 296 effects (Utesch et al., 2008). In previous studies, flavonoids showed a pro-oxidant activity at low
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46 297 concentrations (100 μ M), and protective effects at higher concentrations of 500 μ M (Cemeli et al., 2009;
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48 298 Liu et al., 2010). In studies with human lymphocytes and spermatozoa, rutin at low concentrations (50 to
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50 299 250 μ M) did not prevent —and, in some cases, exacerbated— the genotoxic effects of mutagens, but
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52 300 prevented the genotoxic effects of the mutagens if used at 0.5 mM (Anderson et al., 1997, 1998). Our
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54 301 results show that rutin prevented DNA breaks as assessed by TUNEL at both concentration levels
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56 302 (100 μ M and 1 mM). We have not observed the effects reported for other flavonoid, quercetin, which has
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58 303 been used to induce bull sperm capacitation because of its effects as a calcium ATPase inhibitor (Córdoba
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3 304 et al., 2007).

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5 305 The effect of DHA was different to the other antioxidants tested. At 0.1 mM, it reduced
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7 306 intracellular ROS in the absence of oxidative stress, while not affecting motility (except for a slight
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9 307 decrease of ALH at 2 h). Nevertheless, its ROS scavenging effect seemed weak, not having effect in the
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11 308 presence of oxidative stress, nor reducing lipoperoxidation and DNA damage. However, at 1 mM, DHA
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13 309 not only had a strong effect on motility, but also affected sperm functionality, did not reduce intracellular
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15 310 ROS nor lipoperoxidation, and induced a small increase in DNA damage in samples incubated without
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17 311 oxidative stress. These paradoxical results could be explained considering that DHA needs to be reduced
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19 312 to ascorbic acid upon entering the cell (KC et al., 2005) in order to contribute to the antioxidant pool.
20
21 313 However, the mammal spermatozoon has a very reduced cytoplasm, and seems to have a limited capacity
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23 314 to regenerate antioxidants to its reduced form (Bilodeau et al., 2001). In these conditions, DHA may enter
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25 315 in the sperm cytoplasm efficiently, but its usefulness as an antioxidant would be very limited due to its
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27 316 slow reduction to ascorbic acid. Therefore, it may be acting as a pro-oxidant if applied at high
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29 317 concentrations.

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31
32 318 In conclusion, NAC (at 1 mM), TEMPOL and rutin showed a strong antioxidant activity,
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34 319 accompanied by a high capacity for protecting sperm DNA in presence of oxidative stress. It is necessary
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36 320 to test if the inhibition of motility observed in our experiment is transient or irreversible, and how these
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38 321 antioxidants affect sperm physiology in other conditions (especially in refrigerated or frozen storage). We
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40 322 have to consider that we incubated the spermatozoa at 37 °C, and thus the results might be different if
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42 323 spermatozoa are exposed to the antioxidants at lower temperatures, or if they are removed before or
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44 324 shortly after taking the sample to physiological temperatures. Moreover, the fertility of samples
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46 325 supplemented with these antioxidants might not reflect the sperm quality showed in this paper. DHA
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48 326 could still be used pairing it with another antioxidant or with a source of reducing power —improving the
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50 327 capacity of spermatozoa to reduce it to ascorbic acid— while retaining the advantage of its efficient
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52 328 internalization via GLUT transporters.
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4 329 **5. Acknowledgements**

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23 338 cytometry analyses and lab work.

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450 FIGURE LEGENDS

451 Figure 1.

452 Effects of antioxidant treatments on motility parameters at 2 h and 4 h of incubation (VCL: curvilinear
453 velocity; ALH: amplitude of the lateral movement of the head). Mean and 95% C.I. are showed for each
454 treatment: C: Control; DHA: Dehydroascorbic acid; NAC: N-acetyl-cysteine; RUT: rutin; TPL:
455 TEMPOL. Letters on the top show significant differences among the three incubation times for the
456 control samples (different letters indicate $P < 0.05$). Asterisks indicate significant differences among the
457 antioxidant treatments and the control *within* each sampling time (* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).

458 Figure 2.

459 Effects of antioxidant treatments on the results of the YO-PRO-1/Mitotracker Deep Red stain, at 2 h and
460 4 h of incubation. Viable spermatozoa is the proportion of YO-PRO-1- events, and active mitochondria is
461 the proportion of YO-PRO-1-/Mitotracker Deep Red+ events. Mean and 95% C.I. are showed for each
462 treatment: C: Control; DHA: Dehydroascorbic acid; NAC: N-acetyl-cysteine; RUT: rutin; TPL:
463 TEMPOL. Letters on the top show significant differences among the three incubation times for the
464 control samples (different letters indicate $P < 0.05$). Asterisks indicate significant differences among the
465 antioxidant treatments and the control *within* each sampling time (* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).

466 Figure 3.

467 Effects of antioxidant treatments on ROS (reactive oxygen species) and malondialdehyde (MDA)
468 production, after 4 h of incubation without or with oxidative stress. ROS were assessed as median
469 fluorescence intensity (MFI) of oxidized CM-H₂DCFDA. Mean and 95% C.I. are showed for each
470 treatment: C: Control; DHA: Dehydroascorbic acid; NAC: N-acetyl-cysteine; RUT: rutin; TPL:
471 TEMPOL. Letters on the top show significant differences among the three incubation times for the
472 control samples (different letters indicate $P < 0.05$). Asterisks indicate significant differences among the
473 antioxidant treatments and the control *within* each sampling time (* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).

474 Figure 4.

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3 475 Effects of antioxidant treatments on TUNEL results (DNA damage), after 4 h of incubation without or
4
5 476 with oxidative stress. Mean and 95% C.I. are showed for each treatment: C: Control; DHA:
6
7 477 Dehydroascorbic acid; NAC: N-acetyl-cisteine; RUT: rutin; TPL: TEMPOL. Letters on the top show
8
9 478 significant differences among the three incubation times for the control samples (different letters indicate
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11 479 $P < 0.05$). Asterisks indicate significant differences among the antioxidant treatments and the control
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13 480 *within* each sampling time (* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).

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FIGURE 1

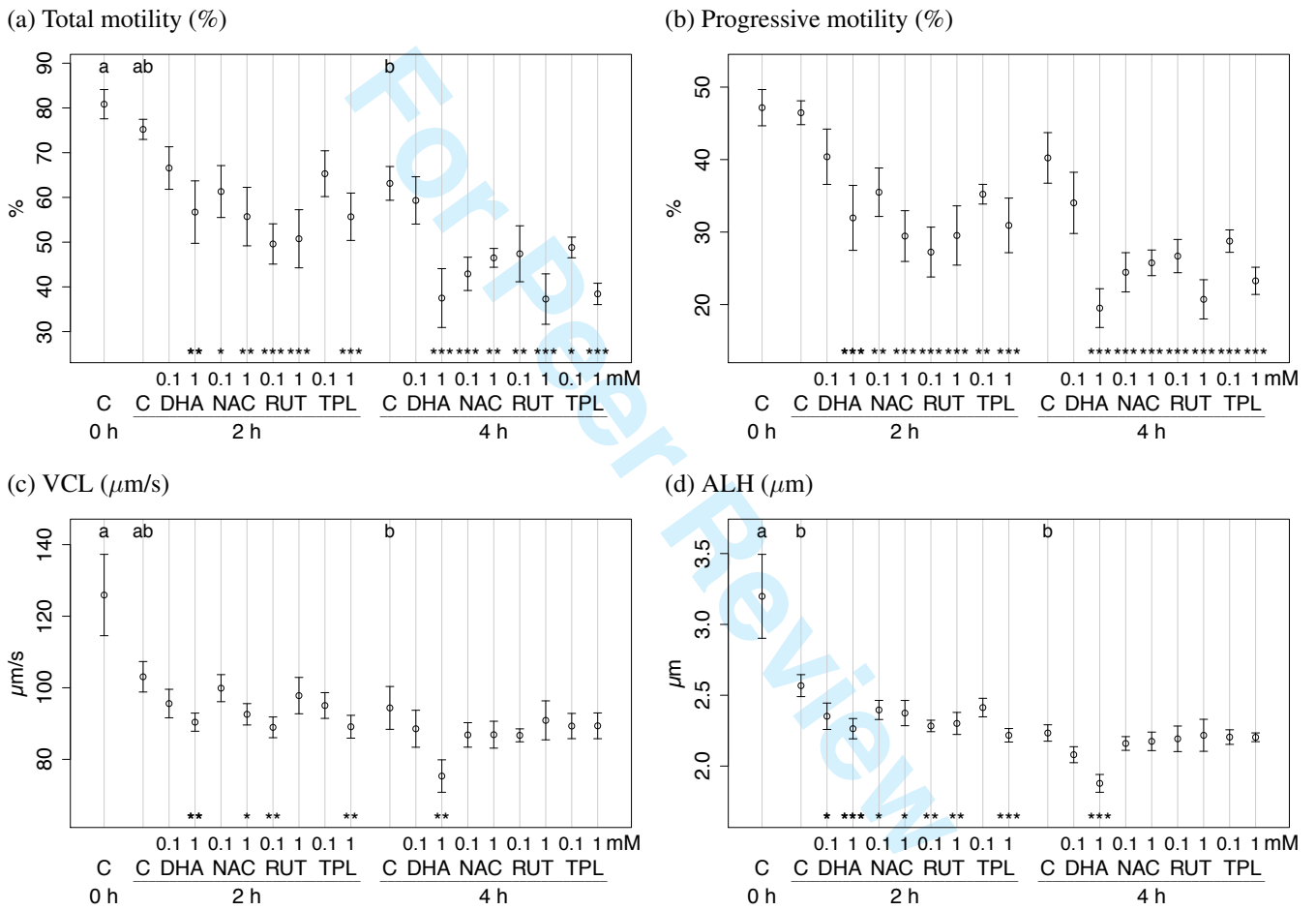
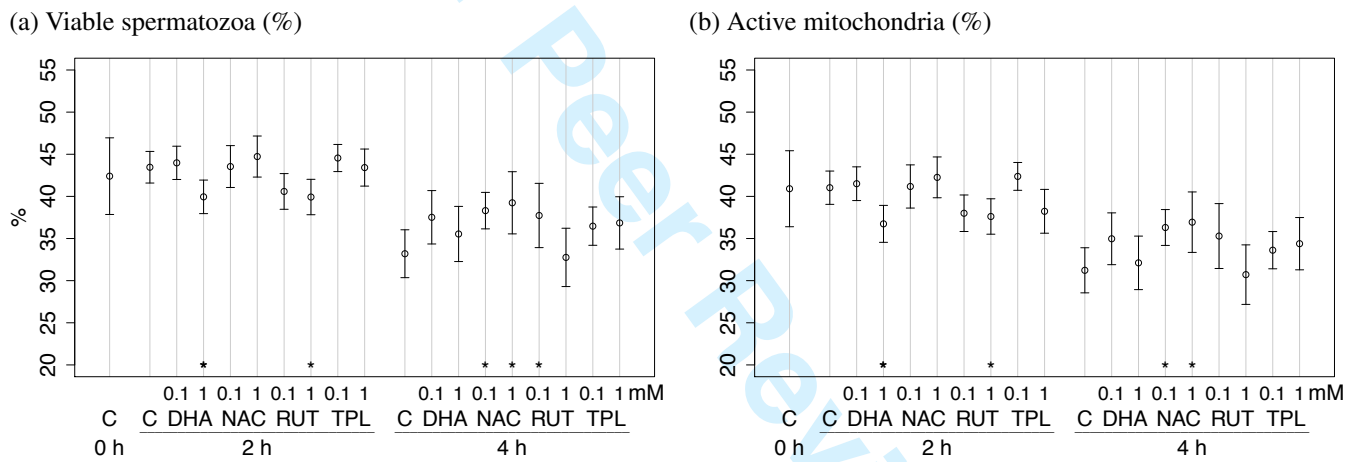


FIGURE 2



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FIGURE 3

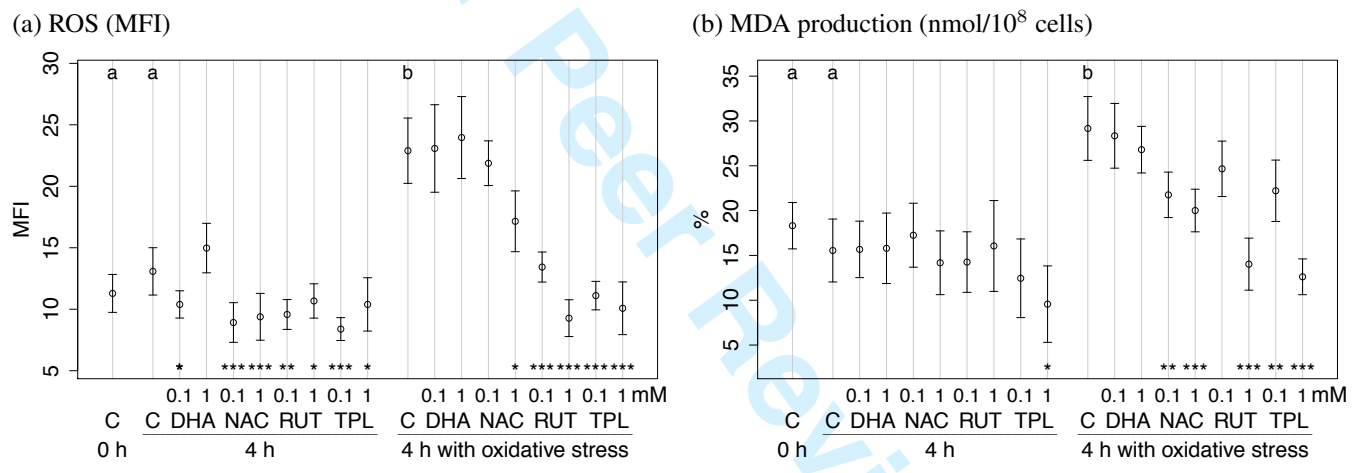


FIGURE 4

