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Potential biomarkers of DNA quality in cryopreserved fish sperm: impact on gene expression and embryonic development

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Abstract

Sperm DNA quality and gene expression are crucial for early embryo development. Abnormal genomic processes can cause irreversible damage to totipotent cells, thereby altering the capacity for cell differentiation. Cryopreservation is a complex procedure that exposes cells to extreme conditions; it is therefore important to determine whether cryopreservation affects genomic stability. Despite this, few studies have focused on the effects of cryopreservation on the genomic stability of fish sperm. Thus, information is lacking to determine how the cryopreservation of fish sperm affects embryo quality and subsequently aquaculture. The aim of this review was to compile background information pertaining to the study of genomic stability in cryopreserved sperm. In this way, we hope to characterize more clearly the embryonic development of fish that are of biological and economic interest. We also discuss the potential use of antioxidants in cryopreservation to help preserve DNA integrity, gene expression and embryo quality. There is a current need to evaluate the use of potential biomarkers of genomic integrity to establish the effects of cryopreservation on the DNA quality of fish gametes and embryos.

Key words: biomarkers, cryopreservation, DNA integrity, embryos, gene expression, spermatozoa.

Introduction

Fish play a key role in the world's food supply and consumption has grown steadily during the last five decades (FAO/WHO 2014, 2016). Aquaculture production has also increased, due to demand from consumers and the depletion/restriction of wild capture fisheries, now accounting for 50% of all fish consumed globally; this industry is expected to become the main source of fish and seafood by 2030 (Henchion *et al.* 2017). The development of protocols for sperm preservation in salmonids and other commercially valuable fish species is fundamental for improving the productivity of global aquaculture. In this context, cryopreservation is a well-established technique used to preserve gametes and improve reproduction efficiency, and is widely used in aquaculture with acceptable results (Cabrita *et al.* 2010). It has been used to increase the longevity of

spermatozoa for periods extending to years (Betsy & Kumar 2014); however, it can cause extensive cellular and molecular damage, not yet studied in full, leading to a reduction in sperm quality and an increased rate of malformed embryos (Herráez et al. 2017). It has been shown that cryopreservation alters structural and physiological components of cells, specifically affecting plasma membrane integrity, mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta \Psi m$) and enzyme activity; while production of free radicals (ROS) increases and ATP concentrations are disrupted (Figueroa et al. 2017). All of these have been shown to affect the integrity, motility and fertilization capacity of post-thawed spermatozoa (Figueroa et al. 2017; Magnotti et al. 2018). On the other hand, several works have demonstrated that sperm cryopreservation generates damage to DNA in mammals (Hu et al. 2008) and fish (Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2009). Since the main purpose of spermatozoa is

the transmission of paternal genetic information to the next generation, the preservation of genome integrity must be prioritized when establishing cryopreservation protocols.

Although it is not yet clear how this damage is produced, the cryopreservation process has been shown to involve an increase in ROS such as superoxide (O2, hydroxyl radical (OH), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), hypohalous acids (HOX), nitric oxide (NO[•]) and peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻). These generate abasic sites, cross-linking and structural lesions in the DNA double strand, which modify base locations and cause DNA fragmentation (Aitken & De Iuliis 2007; Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2009). Furthermore, some studies have shown differing susceptibilities of sperm nuclear genes to cryodamage (Cartón-García et al. 2013; González-Rojo et al. 2014), affecting both nuclear DNA (nDNA) and mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA). These negative effects do not always decrease sperm functionality and fertilization capacity; however, they may affect cellular and molecular processes post-fertilization and generate defective embryos (Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2011; Herráez et al. 2017; Fernández-Díez & Herráez 2018). Studies in sheep and human gametes and embryos have shown that both DNA integrity and gene expression are negatively affected by cryopreservation. Moreover, studies in fish indicate that cryopreservation causes damage to certain regions of nDNA and mtDNA, however further studies are needed to fully characterize this damage (Cartón-García et al. 2013).

The negative effects of cryopreservation on sperm DNA may be repaired during embryonic growth and development; however, any loss of DNA integrity and changes in gene expression caused by cryopreservation could be related to alterations in morphogenesis and cell differentiation at the developmental level of the brain, ears, eyes and kidneys in both mammals and fish (Lin *et al.* 2008; González-Rojo *et al.* 2014; Kopeika *et al.* 2015). In fish, cryopreservation has also been shown to shorten telomeres, a region of non-coding DNA found at the ends of chromosomes, possibly affecting embryonic development and causing teratogenicity in offspring (Pérez-Cerezales *et al.* 2011).

In mammals, embryos produced by sperm with damaged DNA are generally not able to survive past the blastocyst stage, and suffer alterations in the transcription of genes involved in early growth and development (Menezo *et al.* 2010; Gawecka *et al.* 2013). Specifically, the transcription of genes encoding insulin-like growth factors (*Igf*), growth factors (*Gh*) and insulin (*Ins*) has been shown to be affected (Pérez-Cerezales *et al.* 2011), leading to multiple abortions during early embryo development. In addition, these genes associated with cell growth are related to cancer development, ageing, abnormal growth and abnormal behaviour in adult individuals (Aitken *et al.* 2009; González-Rojo *et al.* 2014; Kopeika *et al.* 2015). Since the integrity and correct replication of DNA, as well as proper gene expression, are

crucial for embryonic development, abnormal genomic processes can cause irreversible damage to totipotent cells and the embryo. Cryopreservation is a complex process involving physical and chemical factors that expose cells to extreme conditions. Therefore, it is important to study the extent to which cryopreservation adversely affects genomes, and the mechanisms involved. Despite this, studies focusing on this subject in fish spermatozoa and embryo quality are limited and sparse; hence the aim of this review was to compile background information pertaining to the study of DNA quality in cryopreserved fish spermatozoa, and its impact on gene expression and embryonic development, as well as identifying possible targets for future research.

Characteristics of sperm DNA

Chromatin integrity in spermatozoa has been shown to play an important role during embryonic development, and a close relationship has been established between the stability of chromosome structural organization and the fertilizing capacity of spermatozoa (Evenson et al. 1999). Moreover, sperm chromatin is reported to play a more important role in early embryonic development than during fertilization (Speyer et al. 2010). The DNA in the spermatozoa of most vertebrates is highly compacted in combination with protamines, providing better protection to the genetic material. During mammalian spermatogenesis, most histones are replaced by transition proteins, which are further substituted by protamines (Miller et al. 2010). This process, however, is not homogenous, then different regions of chromatin are finally packed in one of three different schemes: (i) DNA linked to histones with a nucleosomal organization (HDNA), representing up to 15% of chromatin; (ii) DNA linked to protamines (PDNA) adopting a toroids form characteristic of sperm nuclei; and (iii) a small fraction of DNA located between nucleosomes and toroids and bound to sperm nuclear matrix (Ward 2010; González-Rojo et al.2014). This differential compartmentalization of paternal genes leads to different accessibility, and has been shown to be related to early or late transcription during embryonic development. On the other hand, the packaging of sperm genome in teleost fish varies widely; some species use only histone, while others use protamine or protamine-like proteins in DNA compaction. These variations have been studied to understand their sensitivity to environmental effects, including exposure to toxins or radiation, ageing, cold storage, cryopreservation or changes in thermal regime during spermiogenesis (Saperas et al. 1997; Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2009). In some species, such as Oncorhynchus mykiss (Christensen et al. 1984), the chromatin is arranged with protamines, while in other species DNA is associated with somatic-like histones to form nucleosomes, as in

Danio rerio and Sparus aurata (Kurtz et al. 2009; Wu et al. 2011). Yet other species, such as Mullus surmuletus, have chromatin organized using both protamines and histones (Saperas et al. 1994).

The genes participating in early embryonic development are usually located in hypomethylated arrays associated with histones, meaning that they are readily accessible for early transcription (Ward 2010; Wu et al. 2011). These special characteristics have been observed in human sperm in studies of Hox loci (Hammoud et al. 2009). Additionally, these genes in particular are more exposed than others to harmful agents, and therefore are more susceptible to cryodamage. In line with this, differences in the level of oxidative damage in mouse sperm DNA have been found to target specific chromatin domains with lower compaction, associated with histones and bound to the nuclear matrix, due to oxidative lesions following treatment with H₂O₂ (Noblanc et al. 2013). Thus, it can be said that chromatin arrangement and interaction with proteins are related to the susceptibility of DNA to cryodamage by oxidative stress.

Studies in frozen sperm of *Sparus aurata*, whose DNA is homogenously compacted with histones, revealed lesions in two nuclear genes related to embryonic growth and development (*igf1* and *Gh*) (Cartón-García *et al.* 2013); however, they were less susceptible to DNA damage than spermatozoa of *Salmo trutta* and *O. mykiss* (Cabrita *et al.* 2005; Martínez-Páramo *et al.* 2009; Pérez-Cerezales *et al.* 2009). Chromatin groups, all homogenously compacted with histones, include genes that regulate embryonic development; these sets of genes are similar in humans and mice (Wu *et al.* 2011). Nevertheless, limited information exists regarding candidate genes or genetic biomarkers that could be used for evaluation of cryopreservation effects on spermatozoa genes associated with early development of fish embryos.

The methodologies traditionally used for evaluating chromatin integrity, such as the comet assay, sperm chromatin structure assay (SCSA), sperm chromatin dispersion (SCD) and terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labelling assay (TUNEL), analyse different aspects of the complete nuclear genome state, but they are not sufficiently sensitive to detect damage in specific genes (González-Rojo et al. 2014; Figueroa et al. 2016b). At present, microarray analysis, real-time PCR analysis (qPCR), next-generation sequencing (NGS) and bioinformatics analysis are the available technologies capable of detecting genomic variation, including single nucleotide polymorphisms, point mutations, insertions, deletions, inversions and translocations. They are powerful tools for defining the characteristics of individual cells and identifying differences between them (Bäumer et al. 2018).

Effects of cryopreservation on DNA quality and gene expression

It has been demonstrated in human, monkey, boar, ram, mouse and fish that cryopreservation damages the DNA of sperm, altering the expression of the genes involved in early and late embryo development (Ron-el et al. 1991; Donnelly et al. 2001; Hammadeh et al. 2001; Labbe et al. 2001; Zilli et al. 2003; Fraser & Strzezek 2004; Peris et al. 2004; Li et al. 2007; Yildiz et al. 2007). These alterations in gene expression patterns have been associated with abnormal segmentation patterns, alterations in organogenesis and embryonic malformations, causing increased mortality in fish embryos and hatched larvae (Kopeika et al. 2004; Park et al. 2006; Bobe & Labbé 2010; Labbé et al. 2017; Martínez-Páramo et al. 2017). In addition, DNA damage is related to an increase in mutagenic alterations in genes associated with embryonic development (Valcarce et al. 2013; Kopeika et al. 2015).

DNA fragmentation is a classic approximation parameter for evaluating DNA quality in the frozen spermatozoa of fish that are of biological and economic interest for aquaculture (Labbe et al. 2001; Zilli et al. 2003; Cabrita et al. 2005; Dietrich et al. 2005; Beirão et al. 2008; Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2009; Riesco et al. 2011; Figueroa et al. 2018). Damage to sperm chromatin has been shown to have greater effects on early embryonic development than on the fertilization process (Speyer et al. 2010) due to the role that sperm chromatin plays in the first steps of embryonic development (Delbès et al. 2010; Ward 2010). For example, Pérez-Cerezales et al. (2010) reported in O. mykiss sperm with 10% fragmented DNA that oocyte fertilization and production of viable larvae are possible, with survival values above 60%. In another study of the same species, increased abortion rates and differential expression of genes related to larval growth and development were found when sperm with fragmented DNA was used (Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2011).

In salmonids in general, sperm DNA fragmentation during freezing exceeds 20%, more than in other teleost species, but this could decrease depending on the oocyte repair mechanism during the fertilization and embryo development processes described in mammals and fish (Cabrita et al. 2005; Zhou et al. 2016; Huang et al. 2017). However, this repair capacity is limited. Yamauchi et al. (2007) observed in mice that the zygote was unable to repair 50 kb fragments of sperm with fragmented DNA. In the case of fish, oocytes have a high capacity to repair damaged DNA, with up to 10% repair of fragmented sperm chromatin estimated during the process of fertilization and embryonic development (Fernández-Díez et al. 2015, 2016).

The main mechanisms responsible for sperm DNA fragmentation during cryopreservation are the production

of ROS and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) (Aitken et al. 2012; Figueroa et al. 2017). Oxidation weakens the guanine and adenine bonds at position 8 (8-oxodG and 8-oxodA) adjacent to the ribose unit, allowing the formation of abasic sites or thymine dimers that destabilize and break down DNA structure (Dianov & Parsons 2007; Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2009; González-Rojo et al. 2014), affecting the expression of genes associated with the fertilizing capacity of spermatozoa, such as bdnf (brainderived neurotrophic factor) and hspa8 (heat shock protein 8) (Najafi et al. 2017; Riesco et al. 2017). In addition, other significant effects have been reported in sperm mitochondria of mammals and fish that are susceptible to damage by cryopreservation, altering the mitochondrial function and mtDNA integrity (Yakes & Van Houten 1997; Cartón-García et al. 2013; Figueroa et al. 2016a, 2018). This is presumably due to the absence of chromatin organization and the generation of secondary ROS caused by alterations in the electron transport chain; these could be the main causes of the greater vulnerability of mitochondrial DNA to damage (Figueroa et al. 2017).

Currently, damage to spermatic DNA derived from the effects of ROS is evaluated through classic techniques such as 8-oxodG and 8-oxodA detection. It can be quantified by flow cytometry with specific probes or with a Western blot of 8-Oxoguanine glycosylase (OGG1), allowing the repair expression of OGG1 enzymes in the spermatozoa to be identified and evaluated (Martínez-Páramo et al. 2009; Shaliutina et al. 2013; Farias et al. 2018). Another technique in which progress has been made in detecting damage in specific genes or regions of the genome is reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (Cawthon 2002; Bennetts & Aitken 2005; Fernandez-Gonzalez et al. 2008; Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2009). A complementary analysis would be the evaluation of telomere length using real-time PCR analysis (qPCR). It has been reported that telomere regions remain associated with histones and situated near the periphery of the nucleus (Gineitis et al. 2000; Wykes & Krawetz 2003). This fact could be associated with higher susceptibility to cryodamage caused by ROS.

In frozen fish sperm, the number of lesions in specific genes has been quantified with quantitative PCR (qPCR). This analysis is based on the ability to detect DNA lesions (abasic sites, cross-linking, double lesions, modification of nitrogenous bases, chain breaks and DNA fragmentation) that delay and block the advance of polymerase in the DNA template, causing a decrease in the number of amplified products and a displacement in the threshold cycle (Ct) (Cartón-García et al. 2013). This method, used in studies involving the cryopreservation of human sperm, has been applied to detect lesions in genes that are key to

the fertilization and early development of human embryos. Additionally, lesions have been quantified in specific genes in the primordial germ cells (PGCs) of zebrafish (Cartón-García *et al.* 2013; Riesco & Robles 2013; González-Rojo *et al.* 2014; Herráez *et al.* 2017).

In recent years, the evaluation of DNA quality in spermatozoa has gained special attention as an important quality biomarker in Oncorhynchus mykiss, Salmo salar, Acipenser ruthenus, Acipenser gueldenstaedtii and Acipenser baerii during storage and cryopreservation. In addition, the incorporation and evaluation of genes of interest have improved the quality of these markers of spermatic and embryonic quality, for example of the Hox (HoxA3a-1, HoxB5bi, HoxC4a-2, HoxD4ai, HoxD9aii), Sox2 and Eif1b genes which are responsible for the regulation of morphogenesis and cell differentiation during early embryonic development; these have been shown to be susceptible to oxidative stress induced by cryopreservation (Table 1) (Pérez-Cerezales et al. 2011; González-Rojo et al. 2014). According to González-Rojo et al. (2014), the Hox, Sox2 and Eif1b genes would be good candidate genes as biomarkers of genotoxic damage (UV irradiation, hydrogen peroxide treatment and cryopreservation) in O. mykiss spermatozoa. The gene expression of other candidate genes, such as Igf1 and Gh which are related to embryonic growth and development, should be analysed to determine the relationship between these genes and the quality of the fish embryo (Cartón-García et al. 2013).

Semen antioxidant system components are present in seminal plasma and within the spermatozoa; however, lower availability of antioxidant molecules in the cell cytoplasm limits the antioxidant activity in this compartment (Lahnsteiner & Mansour 2010; Shiva et al. 2011). On the other hand, seminal plasma antioxidant activity decreases when semen is diluted with cryoprotective media prior to freezing, since concentration of both, enzymatic and nonenzymatic antioxidants, is reduced. This generates higher vulnerability to oxidative stress, leading to structural alterations of spermatozoa during cryopreservation (Figueroa et al. 2017). Several recent studies, though, have shown that in mammals and fish, supplementing cryoprotective media with antioxidants successfully reduces the effects of ROS on spermatozoa, exhibiting different degrees of protection depending on species (Jeong et al. 2009; Cabrita et al. 2011; Figueroa et al. 2018).

Embryo survival and quality

Measures of fish embryo survival, or the ability of fertilized eggs to develop successfully, can be used to evaluate the quality of gametes produced. Survival is usually evaluated at different stages (early/late), that is, in the first cell divisions of the embryo, during organogenesis, or in more

Table 1 Genetic biomarkers of interest for the study of the effect of cryopreservation of semen at the sperm, mitochondrial and embryonic levels in fish

| Cell | Target Genes | Role | Species | Author |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|---|------------|------------------------------|
| Genomic sperm DNA | hspa 8 | Sperm maturity, fertility, spermatogenesis | | |
| | bdnf | Fertility | | |
| | kita | Sperm factor at fertilization, TR-KIT expression appears to | | |
| | | correlate particularly with sperm DNA integrity | | |
| | lepa | Sperm physiology and energy metabolism | | |
| | myca | Capacitation | | Déna- Cana-alas et al. 2011 |
| | acvr 1/Ihcgr bik | Potential male fertility markers | D. rerio | Pérez-Cerezales et al., 2011 |
| | dmrtl | Totertial male rectility markers | O. mykiss | Cartón-Garcia et al., 2013. |
| | fshb | | O. HIJKISS | curton durcia et al., 2015. |
| | hsdl7b4 | | S. aurata | Guerra et al., 2013. |
| | gh | Cell growth, reproduction and regeneration | | González-Rojo et al., 2014 |
| | igfl | Regulation of neuronal development | | |
| | hox a3a-l | | | |
| | hox b5bi | Embryonic development and organogenesis | | |
| | hox c4a-2 | | | |
| | hoxd 9aii | | | |
| | SOX | Regulation of embryonic development and cell | | |
| | : (1) | differentiation | | |
| | eiflb | Early development | | |
| | tert | Role in cellular senescence in response to stress and damage occurred in a cell | | |
| Mitochondrial sperm DNA | cyt b | Electron transport and the generation of ATP | | |
| | co i | Election transport and the generation of An | | Cartón-Garcia et al., 2013 |
| | co i | | S. aurata | curtori Garcia et al., 2015 |
| | atpSgl | | O. mykiss | |
| | tp5g3 | | , | Fernández-Diez et al., 2015 |
| | atp5s | ATP production | | |
| | cmc1 | | | |
| | sdhafl | | | |
| Embryonic and larvae genomic DNA | igfl | | | |
| | igf2 | | | |
| | igfr la | | | |
| | igfr lb sox 2 | | | |
| | sox 3 | | | |
| | wntl6 | Regulation early/late development and growth | | |
| | id2 | regulation early late development and growth | | |
| | ube2b | | | Gabillard et al., 2003 |
| | kif3a | | | |
| | angptl | | | Caruso et al., 2008. |
| | dadl | | | |
| | hlx | | | |
| | ghl | | C. auratus | Pérez-Cerezales et al., 2011 |
| | gh2 | | D. rerio | Marandel et al, 2013 |
| | gfr4 | Growth of bones, soft tissues and viscera | O. mykiss | Diago and Dobles 2012 |
| | glgl gflr | | | Riesco and Robles, 2013 |
| | 9111 Ptn | | | Fernández-Diez et al., 2015 |
| | ins 1 | Regulation of carbohydrate and lipid metabolism | | remandez biez et ai., 2015 |
| | ins 2 | riegaliation of carbony arate and lipia metabolism | | |
| | tert | Role in cellular senescence in response to stress and | | |
| | | damage occurred in a cell | | |
| | hsp 70 | Survival in situations of thermal shock or osmotic stress | | |
| | hsp 90 | | | |

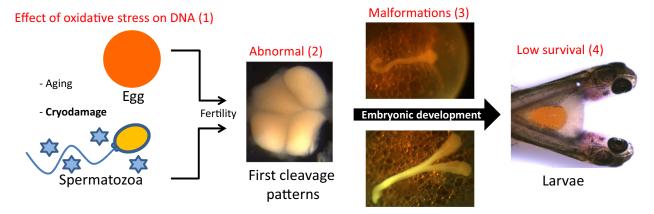


Figure 1 Effects of *in vitro* gamete management techniques and their relationship with the quality of embryonic development in fish: (1) Effects of cellular ageing (increased production of reactive oxygen species (O_2^-) and lipoperoxidation) and cryodamage (\swarrow) on the integrity of genomic DNA in gamete quality (fertilizing capacity); (2) and (3) effect of altered genomic DNA in the expression of genes that control early (first cleavages) and late (organogenesis) embryonic development; (4) Possible activation of lethal genes that increase changes in phenotype expression, increasing teratogenic levels and mortality of larvae produced in aquaculture.

advanced phases such as during hatching and reabsorption of the yolk sac. This monitoring can be extremely valuable to evaluate embryonic development and how it relates with the quality of the gametes (fertilization capacity) produced in experimental and productive conditions in aquaculture (Kopeika *et al.* 2007; Valdebenito *et al.* 2017).

The appearance of embryonic or larval malformations can be a useful tool for characterizing the development potential of fertilized gametes during in vitro handling (Figure 1). In O. mykiss, it has been shown that the conditions of reproductive fish which produce low quality gametes induce some specific types of malformations in the offspring (Bonnet et al. 2007). This phenomenon could increase when cryopreserved gametes are used. For example, in Clarias gariepinus, an increase in the rate of malformations was observed in larvae that were produced with cryopreserved spermatozoa (Horvath & Urbanyi 2000); however, not all species are affected equally – see the example of O. mykiss reported by Labbe et al. (2001). One explanation for the discrepancies between species is that some species may have more resistant DNA than others (Cabrita et al. 2014; Fernández-Díez et al. 2015; Figueroa et al. 2017; Magnotti et al. 2018). It is also possible, in some cases, that DNA defects in the sperm may be repaired by the oocyte repair system after fertilization, as in the case of Logurnus fossilis (Kopeika et al. 2004).

It is clear, nonetheless, that DNA integrity and sperm quality are crucial for the survival and proper development of fish embryos. In addition to the traditional evaluations therefore (for example of sperm DNA fragmentation), there is a need to identify and study specific genes susceptible to cryodamage, or those in which further transcription is altered as result of freezing processes, in order to find

specific markers for predicting and optimizing the reproduction efficiency of fish species of biological and commercial value.

Perspectives

Currently, there is little information regarding the effects of fish sperm genomic quality on embryo quality, hence further studies are necessary in order to gain new insights into the genes involved in early embryo development which might be prone to damage or altered expression, leading to mortality or malformations. The object of this review was to provide available information to support future studies and identify possible targets for further investigation, especially those related to cryopreservation-induced damage. Particular attention should also be paid to gene expression after fertilization and in early embryonic development. This knowledge is necessary to optimize cryopreservation protocols and to establish biomarkers of DNA quality (candidate genes) associated with the control and traceability of embryonic development in fish. Identification of these predictive indicators or biomarkers of gamete quality would have major applications both in research and in industry. The development of this area of research will contribute to general scientific knowledge and will provide standardized tools to guarantee the successful use of cryopreservation for fish of interest for aquaculture.

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