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ESTRESSE METABÓLICO EM CÉLULAS ENDOMETRIAIS E ESPERMATOZOIDES BOVINOS: EFEITO DE ÁCIDOS GRAXOS NÃO ESTERIFICADOS E HIPOCALCEMIA

Santa Maria, RS 2024 **Camila Cupper Vieira**

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Tese apresentada ao Curso de Doutorado do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Medicina Veterinária, da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM, RS), como requisito parcial para a obtenção do título de **Doutora em Medicina Veterinária**.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Paulo Bayard Dias Gonçalves Coorientador: Prof. Dr. Rogério Ferreira

> Santa Maria, RS 2024

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Camila Cupper Vieira

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RESUMO

IMPACTO DO ESTRESSE METABÓLICO E HIPOCALCEMIA SUBCLÍNICA NA FERTILIDADE DE VACAS LEITEIRAS: ANÁLISE DOS EFEITOS NO MICROAMBIENTE UTERINO

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No período de transição, o qual compreende três semanas antes e três semanas após o parto, as fêmeas bovinas desenvolvem balanço energético negativo (BEN). O BEN é o período em que as demandas de energia são maiores do que o aporte nutricional, levando à intensa mobilização de reversas corporais, o que se reflete no aumento dos níveis sanguíneos de ácidos graxos não esterificados (NEFA) e β-hidroxibutirato (BHBA), e diminuição das concentrações de insulina e glicose. Estudos demonstraram que essas alterações sanguíneas têm reflexo no microambiente ovidutal e uterino de bovinos. Por isso, é importante avaliar como essas alterações podem afetam os espermatozoides quando eles entram em contato com o trato reprodutivo da fêmea. Portanto, o objetivo do primeiro trabalho desta tese é avaliar os efeitos dos NEFA na morfologia, cinética e status oxidativo dos espermatozoides bovinos in vitro. Os resultados demonstram que diferentes concentrações de ácido palmítico (PA), ácido esteárico (SA) e ácido oleico (OA) não alteram a cinética e morfologia espermática, nem o status oxidativo dos espermatozoides. O objetivo do segundo trabalho desta tese é avaliar os efeitos da hipocalcemia subclínica transitória sobre a via de sinalização de insulina uterina em vacas leiteiras. Sabe-se que as vacas leiteiras no pós-parto apresentam hipocalcemia, e que esta condição é um fator de risco para infecções uterinas e podem culminar em alterações na sinalização da insulina. Os resultados primeiramente demonstraram que o nosso protocolo de indução de hipocalcemia com solução de EDTA a 5% foi eficaz reduzindo as concentrações de cálcio ionizado circulante. Observamos que os níveis sanguíneos de glicose, insulina e NEFA não foram alterados pela hipocalcemia, enquanto os níveis de BHBA foram reduzidos. Com relação à expressão de genes relacionados a via de sinalização de insulina e glicose, INSR, IRS1, IGF, GLUT1 e GLUT3, a hipocalcemia não afetou negativamente nenhum dos genes avaliados. A partir dos dados obtidos com esta tese foi possível determinar que os NEFA nas condições testadas não afetam negativamente a viabilidade de espermatozoides bovinos e que a hipocalcemia subclínica transitória não altera a via de sinalização da insulina no útero de vacas leiteiras.

Palavras-chave: Balanço energético negativo. Ácidos graxos não esterificados. Resistência à insulina. Hipocalcemia. Endométrio.

ABSTRACT

IMPACT OF METABOLIC STRESS AND SUBCLINICAL HYPOCALCEMIA ON FERTILITY OF DAIRY COWS: AN ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTS ON THE UTERINE MICROENVIRONMENT

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In the transition period, which comprises three weeks before and three weeks after calving, bovine females develop a negative energy balance (BEN). The BEN is the period in which the energy demands are greater than the nutritional intake, leading to the intense mobilization of body reverses, which is reflected in the increase in blood levels of nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA) and β -hydroxybutyrate (BHB), and decreased insulin and glucose concentrations. Studies have shown that these blood alterations are reflected in the oviductal and uterine microenvironment of cattle. Therefore, it is important to evaluate how these changes can affect sperm when they meet the female's reproductive tract. Therefore, the objective of the first work of this thesis is to evaluate the effects of NEFA on the morphology, kinetics, and oxidative status of bovine spermatozoa in vitro. The results demonstrate that different concentrations of palmitic acid (PA), stearic acid (SA), and oleic acid (OA) do not alter sperm kinetics, morphology, or sperm oxidative status. The objective of the second work of this thesis is to evaluate the effects of transient subclinical hypocalcemia on the uterine insulin signaling pathway in dairy cows. It is known that postpartum dairy cows have hypocalcemia and that this condition is a risk factor for uterine infections and can culminate in changes in insulin signaling. The results first demonstrated that our protocol for inducing hypocalcemia with 5% EDTA solution was effective in reducing circulating ionized calcium concentrations. We observed that blood levels of glucose, insulin, and NEFA were not altered by hypocalcemia, while BHB levels were reduced. Regarding the expression of genes related to the insulin and glucose signaling pathway, INSR, IRS1, IGF, GLUT1, and GLUT3, hypocalcemia did not negatively affect any of the genes evaluated. From the data obtained with this thesis, it was possible to determine that NEFA in the tested conditions does not negatively affect the viability of bovine spermatozoa and that transient subclinical hypocalcemia does not alter the insulin signaling pathway in the uterus of dairy cows.

Keywords: Negative energy balance. Non-esterified fatty acids. Insulin resistance. Hypocalcemia. Endometrium.

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1. INTRODUÇÃO

A redução da fertilidade de vacas leiteiras no pós-parto tem sido associada a ocorrência de doenças metabólicas (LEROY et al., 2015). Nesse sentido, o estresse metabólico em vacas leiteiras leva ao balanço energético negativo (BEN), uma questão multifatorial com implicações negativas para vários sistemas fisiológicos, incluindo a reprodução. Na reprodução, BEN influencia o microambiente folicular (LEROY et al., 2005), ovidutal (FENWICK et al., 2008) e uterino (WATHES et al., 2009), diminuindo a eficiência reprodutiva. Durante o período de BEN, há um aumento nas concentrações plasmáticas de ácidos graxos não esterificados (NEFA) e corpos cetônicos, enquanto os níveis de fator de crescimento semelhante à insulina 1 (IGF1), glicose e insulina diminuem (KAWASHIMA et al., 2012). Em vacas leiteiras em BEN, os principais NEFA que aumentam são o oleico (OA, C18:1), palmítico (PA, C16:0) e esteárico (SA, C18:0; VAN HOECK et al., 2014).

Assim como outros metabólitos, concentrações elevadas de NEFA no plasma resultam em concentrações elevadas em outros fluidos, como fluido folicular (LEROY et al., 2005) e secreções ovidutais em vacas (JORDAENS et al., 2017). Considerando que os microambientes do útero e do oviduto desempenham papéis fundamentais nos processos de seleção, armazenamento, motilidade espermática e fecundação (COY et al., 2012; GHERSEVICH; MASSA; ZUMOFFEN, 2015; HOLT; FAZELI, 2010), alterações na composição desses ambientes durante o transporte espermático pode afetar a viabilidade espermática e, consequentemente, a fertilização. Estudo anterior demonstrou que a exposição in vitro de espermatozoides bovinos a altas concentrações combinadas dos principais NEFAs (PA, SA e OA), reduz a motilidade total e progressiva, velocidade média da trajetória, velocidade em linha reta, e velocidade curvilínea dos espermatozoides (DESMET et al., 2018). Sabe-se então que os NEFAs combinados prejudicam os espermatozoides quando expostos in vitro, porém não se sabe os efeitos individuais dos principais NEFAs. Uma vez que foi observado em outras células, como as células endometriais, que o PA é responsável por alterar parâmetros genéticos e os ácidos OA e SA alteram o perfil oxidativo das células (FERST et al., 2021). É importante analisar os efeitos individuais de PA, SA, e OA na motilidade, perfil oxidativo e morfologia espermatozoides bovinos in vitro.

Além do aumento de NEFA, outra alteração metabólica do pós-parto de vacas é a resistência à insulina (RI). A RI é definida como um estado em que determinada concentração fisiológica de insulina induz uma resposta biológica diminuída em tecidos sensíveis à insulina (RONALD KAHN, 1978). Assim, a RI tem duas apresentações distintas, redução na responsividade e na sensibilidade à insulina. Num primeiro momento há redução da sensibilidade à insulina no qual uma maior concentração de insulina é necessária para atingir a resposta máxima nos tecidos sensíveis, logo após se o quadro de RI se manter há redução da responsividade à insulina no qual o tecido produz uma resposta menor ao hormônio (MUNIYAPPA et al., 2008; RONALD KAHN, 1978). Em vacas leiteiras ocorre resistência periférica à insulina no final da gestação e início da lactação (BARUSELLI et al., 2016; DE KOSTER; OPSOMER, 2013; KERESTES et al., 2009b), sendo essa condição necessária para garantir suprimento suficiente de glicose para o útero gestante e para a glândula mamária lactante (BELL; BAUMAN, 1997).

O mecanismo da RI em tecidos reprodutivos, como o útero, ainda não foi totalmente elucidado. Sabe-se que a RI uterina ocorre por meio de alterações nas vias de sinalização PI3K e MAPK (ZHANG et al., 2016), o que culmina em menor expressão gênica do receptor de insulina (INSR), substrato do receptor de insulina tipo 1 (IRS1) e IGF1. Estudos avaliando alterações na via de sinalização da insulina no endométrio de vacas têm demonstrado que essas alterações prejudicam a involução uterina (LLEWELLYN et al., 2008; WATHES et al., 2011) e a resposta inflamatória pós-parto (WATHES et al., 2009). Diversas condições e estímulos que aumentem o risco de inflamação podem causar RI (HIRABARA et al., 2012; KHODABANDEHLOO et al., 2016), entre elas a hipocalcemia.

A hipocalcemia ocorre no início da lactação, pois as vacas não conseguem se adaptar à alta demanda de cálcio necessária para a produção leiteira e manter a normocalcemia (GOFF, 2008). A diminuição das concentrações de cálcio circulantes nesse período é um fator de risco para distúrbios uterinos como a involução uterina tardia (HEPPELMANN et al., 2015), prolapso uterino (RISCO; REYNOLDS; HIRD, 1984), retenção de placenta (MELENDEZ et al., 2004), metrite e endometrite (MARTINEZ et al., 2012; RIBEIRO et al., 2013). Portanto, a hipocalcemia pode contribuir para a RI uterina, uma vez que vacas com hipocalcemia subclínica apresentam maior predisposição para desenvolverem alterações inflamatórias uterinas (MARTINEZ et al., 2012). E por sua vez essa inflamação uterina pode alterar a via de sinalização a insulina (HIRABARA et al., 2012; KHODABANDEHLOO et al., 2016). Por isso, nossa hipótese é que as alterações inflamatórias provenientes da hipocalcemia, causa alterações na via de sinalização à insulina uterina no pós-parto de vacas leiteiras.

Portanto, os objetivos dessa tese foram: (1) avaliar os efeitos dos NEFA na morfologia, cinética e status oxidativo dos espermatozoides bovinos *in vitro*; e (2) avaliar os efeitos das alterações inflamatórias provenientes da hipocalcemia subclínica transitória sobre a via de sinalização à insulina uterina em vacas leiteiras.

2. REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

2.1. Período de transição de balanço energético negativo em vacas

O período mais crítico na vida produtiva de vacas leiteiras de alto rendimento é conhecido como o período de transição, que compreende o período entre três semanas pré-parto e três semanas pós-parto (RINGSEIS; GESSNER; EDER, 2015). Esse período é marcado por intensas mudanças metabólicas, endócrinas e imunológicas, as quais refletem na alta incidência de doenças (DRACKLEY, 1999). No final da gestação, o crescimento fetal associado à produção de leite impõe demandas nutricionais elevadas (BELL, 1995). Na mesma proporção em que a demanda nutricional aumenta há uma diminuição do consumo de matéria seca. Esse declínio do consumo de matéria seca induz a mobilização de reservas corporais antes do parto, tendo como consequência o aumento dos níveis de NEFA e β-hidroxibutirato (BHBA; BELL, 1995). O aumento dos níveis sanguíneos de NEFA e BHBA caracteriza o BEN, período em que as demandas de energia são maiores que o aporte nutricional e levam a mobilização de reservas corporais (DRACKLEY; CARDOSO, 2014). Nessa fase, o aumento de NEFA e BHBA tanto no sangue quanto no fluido do oviduto, pode afetar o oócito e os espermatozoides.

Os NEFA estão presentes nos fluidos biológicos na sua forma livre e, são definidos como ácidos graxos que não estão ligados a qualquer fração lipídica (VAN HOECK et al., 2014). Eles podem ser classificados como saturados ou insaturados, sendo que os ácidos graxos insaturados podem ser monoinsaturados (MUFA) ou poliinsaturados (PUFA), dependendo do número de ligações duplas que possuem entre os pares de carbono. Os principais ácidos graxos aumentados no período de transição em vacas leiteiras em BEN são o ácido monoinsaturado oleico (OA, C18:1), e os ácidos saturados palmítico (PA, C16:0) e esteárico (SA, C18:0; VAN HOECK et al., 2014).

Durante o BEN, os níveis de NEFA dependem da intensidade da deficiência energética (BELL, 1995), causando efeitos no sistema imunológico e predispondo a doenças metabólicas. Níveis elevados de NEFA induzem o acúmulo de lipídios nos hepatócitos que, associado à baixa disponibilidade de glicose e redução do oxalacetato, impedem a oxidação completa das moléculas de acetil-CoA, oriundas da β -oxidação (BELL, 1995). O acúmulo de acetil-CoA é convertido em corpos cetônicos (acetoacetato, β -hidroxibutirato e acetona) ou pode ser substrato para a síntese de acetato (MULLIGAN; DOHERTY, 2008). O BHBA é a cetona mais abundante e sua concentração sanguínea é um indicador de cetose em vacas (LEBLANC, 2010). As condições metabólicas das vacas no BEN passam para um estado de catabolismo, causando aumento plasmático do hormônio do crescimento (GH), das concentrações de NEFA, diminuição das concentrações do IGF1, insulina e glicose (KAWASHIMA et al., 2012). Além da queda nos níveis de insulina, a sua sensibilidade também é afetada, gerando a resistência à insulina. A RI é a condição em que as células falham em responder às ações normais do hormônio insulina (VAN HOECK et al., 2014).

O aumento nas concentrações de NEFA é um fator chave para o desequilíbrio metabólico, disfunção celular e apresentação de patologias com a RI (JORRITSMA et al., 2004; LEROY et al., 2004, 2005; VANHOLDER et al., 2005). Por isso, as concentrações sanguíneas de BHBA e NEFA podem ser utilizadas como ferramentas para avaliação da intensidade do BEN e da predisposição à ocorrência de doenças. Sendo que a mensuração de NEFA demonstra a intensidade de mobilização de reservas corporais, e a mensuração do BHBA demonstra o grau de oxidação dos ácidos graxos mobilizados (BELL, 1995; LEBLANC, 2010). Assim, essas ferramentas podem ser utilizadas para monitorar o *status* metabólico das vacas leiteiras durante o período crítico do pós-parto e, acompanhar as alterações reprodutivas que podem aparecer nesse período.

A excessiva mobilização lipídica que ocorre durante o período de BEN também desempenha um papel importante entre o metabolismo energético, estresse oxidativo e eficiência do sistema imunológico (SORDILLO, 2016; SORDILLO; RAPHAEL, 2013). Assim, durante o período de BEN, os processos intensificados de oxidação de NEFA resultam no aumento da produção de espécies reativas a oxigênio (ROS - do inglês, *Reactive Oxygen Species*) e no desenvolvimento de estresse oxidativo (BIONAZ et al., 2007). Análise de expressão gênica e ensaios funcionais de oócitos, células do cumulus e blastocistos expostos aos NEFA apontaram a importância de vias relacionadas ao metabolismo oxidativo, *status* redox e estresse oxidativo (VAN HOECK et al., 2013), havendo um crescente reconhecimento que o estresse oxidativo pode estar implicado em muitas condições fisiopatológicas de vacas leiteiras que incluem distúrbios reprodutivos (MILLER; BRZEZINSKA-SLEBODZINSKA; MADSEN, 1993). O estresse oxidativo é

uma das principais vias pelas quais as quantidades elevadas de NEFA afetam oócitos e embriões bovinos (VAN HOECK et al., 2013). Uma vez que os espermatozoides expostos a elevadas concentrações de NEFA apresentam motilidade reduzida (DESMET et al., 2018), nossa hipótese é que essa alteração pode estar ligada a alterações no *status* redox dos espermatozoides.

2.2. Resistência à insulina

A RI é definida como um estado em que uma concentração normal de insulina induz uma resposta biológica diminuída nos tecidos sensíveis à insulina (RONALD KAHN, 1978). Além disso, a RI pode ser subdividida com base em duas características distintas: diminuição da sensibilidade à insulina e diminuição da responsividade à insulina. Sendo que, o efeito máximo da insulina determina a resposta à insulina dos tecidos. Num primeiro momento há redução da sensibilidade à insulina no qual uma maior concentração de insulina é necessária para atingir a resposta máxima nos tecidos sensíveis, logo após se o quadro de RI se manter há redução da responsividade à insulina no qual o tecido produz uma resposta menor ao hormônio (MUNIYAPPA et al., 2008; RONALD KAHN, 1978). As vacas leiteiras apresentam RI periférica no final da gestação e início da lactação (BARUSELLI et al., 2016; DE KOSTER; OPSOMER, 2013; KERESTES et al., 2009a). Essa condição de resistência à insulina é necessária para garantir um suprimento de glicose suficiente para o útero gestante e a glândula mamária em lactação em apoio ao crescimento do terneiro, tanto no pré-natal quanto no pós-natal (BELL; BAUMAN, 1997).

As concentrações de insulina e a resposta dos tecidos ao seu estímulo podem prejudicar a fertilidade das vacas leiteiras. Condições adversas, como balanço energético negativo que leva ao estado de RI, podem afetar a foliculogênese levando a problemas subsequentes na competência dos oócitos no momento da ovulação (BARUSELLI et al., 2016). Há uma gama de estudos avaliando os efeitos da RI em diversos tecidos, como: tecido adiposo (KARIS et al., 2020; SAKODA et al., 2000), hepatócitos (LU et al., 2017), células da granulosa (XU et al., 2019; YUAN et al., 2014), células da teca (ZHAO et al., 2011) e oviduto (FENWICK et al., 2008), e em processos como o desenvolvimento

folicular (LLEWELLYN et al., 2007), ovulação (HACKBART et al., 2013) e no embrião pré-implantação (SINCLAIR, 2010). Contudo, carecemos de estudos voltados para os efeitos da RI no tecido uterino.

A insulina é um dos hormônios que promove metabolismo adequado, equilíbrio energético e manutenção do peso corporal normal (KANZAKI; PESSIN, 2001). A ligação da insulina a subunidade α do seu receptor (INSR) ativa a atividade quinase da subunidade β do receptor (PATTI; KAHN, 1998). Que fosforila 10 substratos proteicos em tirosina, sendo o mais importante o substrato do receptor de insulina 1 (IRS1; WHITE, 1998). As proteínas IRS, os principais substratos do receptor de insulina, funcionam como andaimes de sinalização que propagam a ação da insulina através da criação de sítios de reconhecimento de moléculas homólogas a Src 2 (SH2; KHAN; PESSIN, 2002; LE ROITH; ZICK, 2001). Onde destaca-se as três principais vias de sinalização que são propagadas em resposta à ativação da INSR: fosfatidilinositol 3-quinase (PI3K), MAP quinase e a via Cbl/CAP (SALTIEL; KAHN, 2001). A cascata MAP quinase leva a um aumento da proliferação celular, enquanto a cascata Cbl/CAP media o transporte de glicose pela membrana plasmática (LODHI et al., 2007).

E a cascata PI3K é ativada para desencadear as funções metabólicas da insulina, como por exemplo enviar um sinal para o transportador de glicose sensível à insulina (GLUT4; WHITE, 1998). A cascata PI3K é um dos efetores downstream mais bem caracterizados de proteínas IRS (CANTLEY, 2002). Ele se associa a proteínas IRS fosforiladas por Tyr após a estimulação da insulina e catalisa a formação de fosfatidilinositol-3,4,5-trifosfato, que estimula a atividade da quinase dependente de fosfoinositídeo (PDK-1) e inicia a ativação de seus efetores downstream da proteína quinase B (PKB, Akt), alvo mamífero de rapamicina (mTOR), e p70 S6 quinase (S6K1), levando ao transporte de glicose e síntese de proteínas e glicogênio (BANDYOPADHYAY et al., 1997; WANG et al., 1999).

Há uma variedade de agentes e condições que induzem RI nos tecidos, como TNFα, ácidos graxos livres e estresse celular, que ativam várias proteínas quinases que têm como alvo elementos ao longo da via de sinalização da insulina (WELLEN; HOTAMISLIGIL, 2005). O IRS1 é importante para que ocorra a sinalização de insulina corretamente, uma vez que foi observado de camundongos knockout para IRS1 apresentam resistência à insulina e retardo de crescimento (SAAD et al., 1994). Alterações na fosforilação das proteínas IRS inibem a sua função e interferem com a sinalização da insulina, levando assim ao desenvolvimento de um estado de RI (BOURA-HALFON; ZICK, 2009). Embora o útero possa não ser um tecido alvo clássico para a ação da insulina, existem evidências que sugerem que o INSR e seus alvos downstream contribuem para a regulação da função reprodutiva (ZHANG et al., 2016).

2.4. Hipocalcemia

O cálcio é um mineral importante para diversos processos biológicos. O papel do cálcio na contração muscular, inflamação e função imune, tornam este mineral um componente chave na ocorrência de alguns transtornos metabólicos e infecciosos no pósparto (KIMURA; REINHARDT; GOFF, 2006). Os diversos papéis fisiológicos do cálcio, como na mineralização óssea, coagulação, potenciais de ação cardíaca, sinalização celular como segundo mensageiro e contratilidade muscular, requerem uma regulação extremamente precisa do cálcio nos fluidos intracelulares e extracelulares (WILKENS et al., 2020). A hipocalcemia grave pode levar à paresia ou morte. Mesmo pequenos desequilíbrios na homeostase do cálcio podem ter efeitos prejudiciais nas funções muscular, endócrina e imunológica, o que pode explicar os efeitos negativos da hipocalcemia na saúde e produção de vacas leiteiras.

A função do cálcio na musculatura desempenha um papel crucial no parto e na função gastrointestinal de vacas periparturientes. Sua presença extracelular é fundamental para a excitabilidade de neurônios e células musculares, especialmente no músculo liso, onde é essencial para o acoplamento excitação-contração (HAN; TRINIDAD; SHI, 2015). A hipocalcemia pode ter efeitos negativos na contratilidade e motilidade dos tratos reprodutivo e gastrointestinal devido ao papel do cálcio nessas funções (AL-EKNAH; NOAKES, 1989; DANIEL, 1983; HEPPELMANN et al., 2015; JORGENSEN et al., 1998). Além disso, o cálcio atua como segundo mensageiro em diversas funções endócrinas e imunológicas de vacas periparturientes. Em células imunes e nas células β pancreáticas, sua função como segundo mensageiro pode explicar a redução nas

concentrações de insulina e a ativação de neutrófilos observadas em vacas leiteiras com subclínica hipocalcemia (MARTINEZ et al., 2014).

No início da lactação, a homeostase do cálcio é perturbada por um redirecionamento maciço de cálcio para a produção do colostro e de leite (GOFF; EL-SAMAD; KHAMMASH, 2000), gerando hipocalcemia pós-parto. A hipocalcemia pode ser clínica, conhecida como a febre do leite, ou subclínica. A febre do leite é um problema reconhecido há décadas, sendo sabido quase a um século que é causada por hipocalcemia. Surpreendentemente, apesar dos aumentos significativos na produção de leite por vaca nas últimas décadas, a incidência da febre do leite não aumentou (REINHARDT et al., 2011). No entanto, a hipocalcemia subclínica ainda é uma ocorrência persistente. Dado que diversos processos fisiológicos vitais dependem do cálcio, os efeitos da hipocalcemia subclínica têm um impacto negativo significativo na saúde e na produtividade das vacas leiteiras.

A hipocalcemia subclínica é definida como concentração sanguínea de Ca abaixo do limite desejado, porém as vacas não apresentam sinais clínicos (COUTO SERRENHO et al., 2021). Assim, testes para medir a concentração de cálcio no sangue são necessários para o diagnóstico. A hipocalcemia subclínica é uma condição prevalente associada ao comprometimento da saúde e do desempenho pós-parto do gado leiteiro, uma vez que os baixos níveis séricos de cálcio persistem por vários dias (COUTO SERRENHO et al., 2021). Isso muitas vezes dificulta avaliar o impacto da hipocalcemia no desenvolvimento de doenças, pois é necessário diferenciar se a redução da calcemia é a causa da maior incidência de enfermidades ou, se a enfermidade é a responsável pela redução dos níveis séricos de cálcio (COUTO SERRENHO et al., 2021).

A hipocalcemia subclínica, embora menos óbvia, é muito mais comum e pode ter efeitos significativos na saúde e na produção das vacas em nível de rebanho. Estudos recentes que utilizam diferentes limiares diagnósticos para o cálcio total sérico ou plasmático, variando de 2,0 a 2,15 mmol/L nas 24 e 48 horas pós-parto, indicam que esse distúrbio pode afetar até 50% das vacas nesse período (MARTINEZ et al., 2012; REINHARDT et al., 2011). Essas pesquisas, juntamente com outras, evidenciam que vacas com hipocalcemia subclínica têm de 3 a 5 vezes mais chances de desenvolver doenças pós-parto e 50% mais probabilidade de serem removidas do rebanho no início da

lactação, em comparação com vacas com níveis normais de cálcio sérico (CHAPINAL et al., 2011a; RODRÍGUEZ; ARÍS; BACH, 2017; VENJAKOB et al., 2018).

A hipocalcemia é frequentemente referida como uma condição de porta de entrada para resultados indesejáveis. Concentrações sanguíneas de cálcio abaixo de vários limites são relatadas como um fator de risco para cetose (RODRÍGUEZ; ARÍS; BACH, 2017), abomaso deslocado (CHAPINAL et al., 2011b; MARTINEZ et al., 2018; RODRÍGUEZ; ARÍS; BACH, 2017) e distúrbios uterinos (MARTINEZ et al., 2012, 2018; RODRÍGUEZ; ARÍS; BACH, 2017). Embora essas associações sejam descritas na literatura, o emaranhado de interações entre alterações metabólicas periparto e inflamação torna um desafio estudar a relação entre hipocalcemia e saúde, produção de leite e desempenho reprodutivo.

A diminuição das concentrações de cálcio circulantes no pós-parto é um fator de risco para distúrbios uterinos como a involução uterina tardia (HEPPELMANN et al., 2015), prolapso uterino (RISCO; REYNOLDS; HIRD, 1984), retenção de placenta (MELENDEZ et al., 2004), metrite e endometrite (MARTINEZ et al., 2012; RIBEIRO et al., 2013). Portanto, a hipocalcemia pode contribuir para a RI uterina, uma vez que vacas com hipocalcemia subclínica apresentam maior predisposição para desenvolverem alterações inflamatórias uterinas (MARTINEZ et al., 2012). E por sua vez essa inflamação uterina pode alterar a via de sinalização a insulina (HIRABARA et al., 2012; KHODABANDEHLOO et al., 2016). Por isso, nossa hipótese é que as alterações inflamatórias provenientes da hipocalcemia, causa alterações na via de sinalização à insulina uterina no pós-parto de vacas leiteiras.

ARTIGO 1

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Motility, oxidative status, and morphology of frozen-thawed bovine semen are not impacted by fatty acid exposure in vitro.

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28 Abstract

29 While sperm migrate within the reproductive tract of cows experiencing negative energy 30 balance, they come into contact with elevated concentrations of non-esterified fatty acids 31 (NEFA). For this reason, this study aimed to investigate the effects of three different 32 NEFA - palmitic acid (PA), stearic acid (SA), and oleic acid (OA) - on bovine sperm 33 motility, kinetic parameters, oxidative status, and morphology. Frozen thawed semen 34 samples from Bos taurus bulls were incubated with varying concentrations of each fatty 35 acid, and the sperm's characteristics were analyzed at different time points. Computer-36 Assisted Sperm Analysis (CASA) was employed to assess sperm motility and kinetic 37 parameters. Concurrently, the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and total 38 antioxidant capacity were measured to determine the oxidative status. Additionally, 39 sperm morphology was evaluated. In Experiment 1, different concentrations of PA did 40 not show significant effects on total motility, progressive motility, or any kinetic 41 parameters analyzed. Similarly, PA did not have a significant impact on oxidative status 42 or sperm morphology. In Experiment 2, SA at various concentrations did not lead to 43 significant changes in total motility, progressive motility, or any kinetic parameters 44 evaluated. Furthermore, SA did not affect oxidative status or sperm morphology. In 45 Experiment 3, the concentrations of OA used did not result in significant changes in total 46 motility, progressive motility, or any kinetic parameters studied. Likewise, OA did not 47 induce any alterations in oxidative status or sperm morphology. Overall, the results from all three experiments indicate that PA, SA, and OA, at the in vitro conditions and tested 48 49 concentrations, do not exert detrimental effects on bovine sperm function and 50 morphology. These results provide insights that contribute to our understanding of how 51 fatty acids can impact the reduction of fertility rates in cows facing negative energy 52 balance. This, in turn, lays the foundation for additional critical investigations in this area. 53 Further studies are necessary to validate these findings in vivo.

54 **1. INTRODUCTION**

55 Maternal metabolic diseases have been associated with reduced fertility, 56 particularly in postpartum dairy cows (Leroy et al., 2015). Metabolic stress in dairy cows 57 can lead to negative energy balance (NEB), a multifactorial issue with implications for 58 various physiological systems, including reproduction. NEB can impact reproductive 59 efficiency by influencing the microenvironment of the follicular (Leroy et al., 2005), 60 oviductal (Fenwick et al., 2008), and uterine systems (Wathes et al., 2009). During the 61 NEB period, there is an increase in plasma concentrations of non-esterified fatty acids 62 (NEFA) and ketone bodies, while levels of insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1), glucose, 63 and insulin in the blood decrease (Kawashima et al., 2012). NEFA refers to fatty acids present in biological fluids in their free form, not associated with lipid fractions (Van 64 65 Hoeck et al., 2014). In dairy cows during the transition period, the main NEFA that 66 increase are monounsaturated oleic acid (OA, C18:1), saturated palmitic acid (PA, 67 C16:0), and saturated stearic acid (SA, C18:0) (Van Hoeck et al., 2014).

68 Elevated NEFA concentrations in plasma also result in similar changes in other 69 fluids, such as follicular fluid (Leroy et al., 2005) and oviductal fluid in cows (Jordaens 70 et al., 2017). The uterine and oviductal microenvironments play pivotal roles in sperm 71 selection, storage, motility, and fertilization processes (Coy et al., 2012; Ghersevich et 72 al., 2015; Holt & Fazeli, 2010), and any alterations in these environments can impact 73 sperm viability. Research on boar sperm by Zhu et al., (2020) indicates that NEFA (OA 74 and PA) serve as an energy source via β -oxidation, promoting increased motility, 75 mitochondrial activity, and reduced apoptosis. Similar observations have been made in 76 bovine spermatozoa when testing PA and SA, showing increased linear sperm motility 77 due to NEFA serving as an energy source (Islam et al., 2021).

Despite these promising findings, the exact mechanism through which NEFA protects progressive motility and sperm viability remains unclear. Conflicting reports in the literature regarding the effects of NEFA on sperm function may be attributed to variations in the type of NEFA used, their concentrations, and the exposure time. For instance, exposure to OA for 4 hours has been shown to increase the motility, viability, and acrosome reaction of boar sperm (Hossain et al., 2007). Conversely, exposure to OA and PA did not affect motility but reduced mouse sperm fertility (Quinn & Whitfingham, 85 1982). Additionally, exposure to SA did not affect motility or stimulate the acrosome
86 reaction in hamster spermatozoa (Meizel & Turner, 1983).

87 Considering the diverse outcomes reported in various species, the question arises 88 as to how NEFA may influence the function and fertility of bovine spermatozoa. In this 89 study, we hypothesize that exposure to NEFA may affect sperm physiology and oxidative 90 state. To investigate this hypothesis, we examined the influence of three NEFA - oleic, 91 palmitic, and stearic acids - on sperm kinetics, oxidative state, and bovine sperm 92 morphology. The aim of this research is to shed light on the potential impact of NEFA on 93 bovine reproductive outcomes, contributing to a deeper understanding of fertility-related 94 challenges in dairy cows with negative energy balance.

95

96 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

97 **2.1. Experimental design**

98 This study employed semen samples from four Bos taurus bulls with confirmed 99 fertility, which were housed at Renascer Biotecnologia, a breeding center. These semen 100 samples were generously provided by the breeding center, having undergone full 101 processing. Authors had no direct involvement with the animals or the sample processing 102 procedures until after the samples had been frozen. It should be mentioned that, in 103 accordance with Brazilian regulations, the ethics committee does not evaluate the 104 procedures for such cases. It is essential to note that Renascer Biotecnologia adhered to 105 all ethical requirements for international semen marketing.

106 Spermatozoa were selected and divided into NEFA treatment groups using the 107 Percoll gradient, following the experimental setup. The samples were incubated at 37°C 108 with a concentration of 4 x 106 spermatozoa/mL for 3 hours. The effect of NEFA on spermatozoa was analyzed by evaluating sperm kinetics at 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 109 110 180 minutes. Oxidative status was evaluated at 90 and 180 minutes by assessing the 111 production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and total antioxidant capacity. Sperm 112 morphology analysis was performed at 180 minutes. The literature still lacks data on the 113 exact concentrations of each NEFA present in the uterine and oviductal environment. For 114 the study, we considered the concentrations of NEFA described by Leroy et al., (2005) in serum, in which the authors describe the variation from 22.3 μ M to 200 μ M depending on the type of NEFA (PA, SA, or OA). Based on these data, we tested a concentrationresponse curve of 0, 50, 100, and 200 μ M for each NEFA.

In experiment 1, the effects of PA on sperm were evaluated, using four treatment groups: control (0 μ M), 50 μ M, 100 μ M, and 200 μ M PA. In experiment 2, the effects of SA were evaluated at the following concentrations: control (0 μ M), 50 μ M, 100 μ M, and 200 μ M of SA. Experiment 3 evaluated the effects of OA at concentrations of control (0

122 μ M), 50 μ M, 100 μ M, and 200 μ M of OA. Each experiment was repeated three times.

123

124 **2.2. Chemicals**

The PA (ref. 10006627) and SA (ref. 10011298) used in this study were acquired
from Cayman Chemical, and OA (O1008) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical
Company. NEFA was diluted in pure ethyl alcohol (Sigma E7023) at concentrations of
80 mM of PA, 70 mM of SA, and 70 mM of OA. The dilutions were performed in spTALP medium to produce concentrations of 50, 100, and 200 μM of PA in experiment 1,
SA in experiment 2, and OA in experiment 3.

131

132 **2.3. Sperm preparation**

For this study, we used frozen semen, because artificial insemination has been widely used in dairy farming and we need to understand how cow-related factors can interfere with frozen semen. For this study, four semen straws were used per replicate, one from each bull. Therefore, we used three semen straws per bull totaling twelve straws per experiment. We chose to make a semen pool to reduce a possible individual effect on the experiment since our goal was to evaluate the effect of NEFA and we would not be able to isolate the effect of the individual.

For the experiment, a semen straw from each bull was thawed at 37°C for 30
seconds, and the samples were mixed to create a pooled sperm sample. The samples were
homogenized, spermatozoa were selected, and the diluent from semen was removed,
using a discontinuous Percoll density gradient. A Percoll solution was prepared for the
formation of 90% and 45% solutions with a modified Talp-Fert medium. Briefly, 300 μL

of thawed semen was placed at the top of the gradient, and the tubes were centrifuged for minutes at 2,200 x g. The pellet was then resuspended in sp-TALP and centrifuged for minute at 2,200 x g. Finally, the pellet was collected to determine the final sperm concentration and exposed to the treatment groups in sp-TALP with the addition of NEFA, with a dose of 4 x 106 sperm/mL.

To assess the effects of NEFA on sperm kinetics, sperm were distributed into treatment groups according to the experiment and incubated for 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes at 37°C. At 90 and 180 minutes, oxidative status was determined. Additionally, at 180 minutes, sperm morphology analysis was performed.

154

155 **2.4. Sperm kinetics**

156 Sperm kinetic evaluations were conducted using the SCA 6.6.15 system (Sperm 157 Class Analyser, Microptic). The CASA settings were followed in accordance with the 158 manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, an aliquot of 5 µL of the semen sample was placed 159 on a preheated microscope slide (37°C) and covered with a preheated 15 x 15 mm slide. 160 The parameters for sperm kinetics were analyzed in 5 different fields using an objective 161 of 10x positive phase contrast. The fields were analyzed by capturing 25 frames/field at 162 a rate of 25 frames/s. The specific parameters assessed were as follows: head area: 25-70 163 μm²; velocity limit for slow spermatozoa: 10 μm/s, velocity limit for medium 164 spermatozoa: 25 µm/s, velocity limit for fast spermatozoa: 50 µm/s, minimal straightness 165 for progressive spermatozoa: 70%, and the maximal percentage of linearity: 50%. The 166 following parameters were analyzed: total motility (%); progressive motility (%); 167 curvilinear velocity (VCL, µm/s); straight line velocity (VSL, µm/s); average path 168 velocity (VAP, µm/s); linearity (LIN, %); straightness index (STR, %); the amplitude of 169 the lateral displacement of the head (ALH, µm); cross beat frequency (BCF, Hz); 170 Wobble (WOB, %); and hyperactivity (%, spermatozoa with VCL $>35\mu$ m/s, ALH >2.5171 μ m and STR >85%), as proposed by Mortimer, (2000).

172

173 **2.5. Semen oxidative status**

174 To evaluate oxidative status, the samples underwent two assessments: ROS 175 production and total antioxidant capacity. The ROS production was determined using a 176 spectrofluorimetric method (Loetchutinat et al., 2005). In brief, the samples were 177 incubated in the dark with 5 ml of 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCHF-178 DA). Upon oxidation, DCHF-DA is converted into fluorescent 2',7'- dichlorofluorescein 179 (DCF). The oxidation of DCHF-DA to DCF allowed the detection and measurement of 180 intracellular ROS concentrations. The fluorescence intensity emitted at 520 nm 181 (excitation at 488 nm) was monitored 60 minutes after adding DCF-DA. The results are 182 expressed in units of fluorescence (UF).

For the assessment of total antioxidant capacity, the ferric reducing antioxidant potential (FRAP) technique was employed, based on the iron ion's ability to be reduced to the ferrous state at low pH (Benzie & Strain, 1996). The formation of an intense, bluecolored product was quantified using spectrophotometry at 593 nm, employing a standard curve with ascorbic acid as an antioxidant. The results are expressed as micrograms of ascorbic acid equivalents.

189

190 **2.6. Sperm morphology**

A semen aliquot was fixed in 4% formaldehyde, and the morphology of two hundred spermatozoa per slide was determined using differential interference contrast microscopy with an oil immersion objective at 1,000x magnification. Morphological defects were classified according to the region of the spermatozoa. The classification system identified five general categories: morphologically normal, head defects, midpiece defects, tail defects, and cytoplasmic droplets, including the subcategories proximal and distal (Burns et al., 2013; Fordyce et al., 2006).

198

199 **2.7. Statistical analysis**

The effect of treatment, time, and their interaction on sperm kinetics was evaluated using mixed models with a repeated measurement statement followed by Tukey HSD post-hoc test to compare all possible pairs of treatment groups at each specific time-point. Different covariance structures were tested for each model, and the one with the smallest Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) was selected as the best fit. The differences in oxidative status variables were analyzed by ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD post-hoc test. The percentage of sperm defects and normal sperm cells was evaluated using the Kruskal-Wallis test. To assess the normal distribution of continuous data and model residuals, the Shapiro-Wilk test was used. All statistical analyses were performed using JMP Statistical software (SAS Institute Inc.), and a significance level of P < 0.05 was used to determine statistical significance.

211

3. RESULTS

213 **3.1. Experiment 1: palmitic acid**

The incubation of semen with different concentrations of PA did not lead to significant changes in total motility and progressive motility (Figure 1, P > 0.05). Furthermore, none of the kinetic parameters assessed by CASA, including VCL, VSL, VAP, LIN, STR, WOB, ALH, and BCF, showed any significant alterations in response to PA concentrations at any of the analyzed time points (Figure 2a-h; P > 0.05).

219 To investigate the effects of PA on the oxidative status of bovine spermatozoa, we 220 evaluated the production of reactive oxygen species and total antioxidant capacity. Two 221 measurements were conducted, one at 90 minutes of incubation (Figure 3a-b) and the 222 other at the end of incubation (180 minutes, Figure 3c-d). However, no statistically 223 significant differences were observed in the evaluated parameters at either time point. 224 Similarly, PA did not have any significant impact on normal sperm morphology, total 225 defects, head defects, intermediate part defects, tail defects, or cytoplasmic droplets 226 (Table 1).

The findings from Experiment 1 indicate that the different concentrations of PA tested did not exert significant effects on sperm motility, kinetic parameters, oxidative status, or sperm morphology in bovine semen.

230

231 **3.2. Experiment 2: stearic acid**

In this experiment, none of the concentrations of SA used showed any significant effects on total motility and progressive motility at any of the analyzed time points (Figure 4). Similarly, the concentrations of SA did not lead to any significant alterations in the kinetic parameters evaluated, including VCL, VSL, VAP, LIN, STR, WOB, ALH, and BCF (Figure 5 a-h; P > 0.05).

Moreover, SA did not induce changes in the oxidative status of bovine spermatozoa. The production of ROS and FRAP were analyzed at 90 minutes and 180 minutes of incubation, respectively (Figure 6 a-b and c-d). However, there were no statistically significant differences in the evaluated parameters at either time point.

Furthermore, the different concentrations of SA used in the experiment did not affect normal sperm morphology, total defects, head defects, midpiece defects, tail defects, or cytoplasmic droplets (Table 2).

The results from Experiment 2 indicate that the various concentrations of SA tested did not have significant effects on sperm motility, kinetic parameters, oxidative status, or sperm morphology in bovine semen.

247

248 **3.3. Experiment 3: oleic acid**

In this experiment, the concentrations of OA used did not result in significant changes in total motility or progressive motility of the spermatozoa (Figure 7, P > 0.05). Furthermore, there were no alterations in any of the kinetic parameters evaluated, including VCL, VSL, VAP, LIN, STR, WOB, ALH, and BCF, at the analyzed time points (Figure 8 a-h; P > 0.05).

Regarding the oxidative state, none of the OA concentrations significantly affected the production of ROS or the FRAP when evaluated after 90 minutes (Figure 9 a-b) and 180 minutes of incubation (Figure 9 c-d). Similarly, OA did not induce any changes in normal sperm morphology, total defects, head defects, intermediate part defects, tail defects, or cytoplasmic droplets (Table 3).

Overall, the results from Experiment 3 demonstrate that the various concentrations of OA tested did not have significant effects on sperm motility, kinetic parameters, oxidative status, or sperm morphology in bovine semen. 262

263 **4. DISCUSSION**

264 In this study, we set out to explore the potential effects of three distinct fatty acids 265 - PA, SA, and OA - on the motility, kinetic parameters, oxidative status, and sperm 266 morphology of bovine spermatozoa. Understanding the impact of these fatty acids on 267 sperm function is crucial, especially considering the question regarding whether the 268 oviduct of cows in a NEB, with increased levels of fatty acids (Jordaens et al., 2017), 269 could influence sperm function. Addressing the implications of NEB in cows, we have 270 found that none of the three fatty acids studied exhibited interference with the 271 characteristics assessed through CASA or oxidative status. These findings provide 272 significant reassurance for reproductive processes and future research in cattle under 273 these specific conditions.

274 There are reports in the literature of NEFA causing changes in the oxidative stress 275 of other cells, hence the importance of evaluating the effects on spermatozoa. In bovine 276 endometrial cells, OA and SA were responsible for lipid accumulation in these cells, and 277 the association of three NEFA (PA, SA, and OA) increased ROS production when 278 compared to the control group (Ferst et al., 2021). In human hepatoma HepG2 cells with 279 high glucose in culture, PA caused severe oxidative stress, increasing ROS production, 280 lipids, proteins, and DNA damage to the cells (Alnahdi et al., 2019). However, these 281 effects on the oxidative state were not observed in our study with bovine spermatozoa. 282 The mechanism by which NEFA can cause oxidative stress in cells is not yet well defined, 283 so more studies are needed in this area.

284 The effects of PA, in the first experiment, were assessed. Interestingly, none of the 285 concentrations of PA used in this study showed any significant alterations in total 286 motility, progressive motility, or any of the kinetic parameters evaluated. These findings 287 suggest that PA, at the tested concentrations, does not influence sperm movement or 288 velocity. A recent study demonstrated that rapid incubation (30 minutes) with PA 289 increases the progressive motility of bovine spermatozoa (Islam et al., 2021) and after 290 incubation for 3 hours in boar spermatozoa (Zhu et al., 2020). Both studies demonstrate 291 that PA is used as an energy source by β -oxidation (Islam et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2020). 292 On the other hand, PA does not alter sperm motility in long incubations from 1 to 4 hours, 293 in boar (Am-in et al., 2011; Hossain et al., 2007), human (Aksoy et al., 2006; Siegel et 294 al., 1986), and mouse spermatozoa (Quinn & Whitfingham, 1982). Moreover, the 295 oxidative status of the spermatozoa, measured by ROS production and total antioxidant 296 capacity, remained unchanged in the presence of PA for 90 and 180 minutes. When 297 evaluating the generation of ROS in bull spermatozoa stored for up to 7 days, it is 298 observed that the PA reduces ROS on days 1 and 3 compared to the control (Kiernan et 299 al., 2013). Furthermore, there were no observable effects on normal sperm morphology 300 or any specific defects in the sperm structure. These results collectively indicate that PA, 301 within the concentrations tested, does not have a detrimental impact on bovine sperm 302 function and morphology.

303 The focus on SA was studied in the second experiment. Similarly, to PA, SA did 304 not cause any significant alterations in total motility, progressive motility, or the various 305 kinetic parameters evaluated. These findings align with those observed in other species, 306 including boar (Am-in et al., 2011; Hossain et al., 2007), hamster (Meizel & Turner, 307 1983), and human (Aksoy et al., 2006; Siegel et al., 1986). In these studies, incubation 308 was carried out for 1 to 4 hours using similar methodologies, and no significant alterations 309 in sperm motility were noted compared to the control group. The sperm's oxidative status 310 was also unaffected, as there were no changes in ROS production or total antioxidant 311 capacity. Furthermore, SA did not lead to any abnormal sperm morphology or defects in 312 the head, midpiece, tail, or cytoplasmic droplets. These findings demonstrate that SA, like 313 PA, does not negatively affect bovine sperm functionality and morphology.

314 The effects of OA on bovine spermatozoa were investigated in the third experiment. 315 Once again, no significant changes were observed in total motility, progressive motility, 316 or any of the kinetic parameters studied. A study involving boar spermatozoa revealed 317 that incubation for 3 hours with OA results in increased total and progressive motility as 318 well as VSL (Zhu et al., 2020). The authors attributed these changes in parameters to the 319 utilization of OA as an energy source through β -oxidation (Zhu et al., 2020). Furthermore, 320 Hossain et al. (2007) reported that in addition to enhancing motility, OA also triggers the 321 acrosome reaction in boar sperm. Contrarily, studies in humans have demonstrated that 322 OA either has no impact (Aksoy et al., 2006) or may even decrease total motility (Siegel 323 et al., 1986). The oxidative status of the spermatozoa, as indicated by ROS production 324 and FRAP, remained unaltered in the presence of OA. When assessing the generation of ROS in bull spermatozoa stored for a duration of up to 7 days, it becomes evident that OA postpones the peak of ROS production to day 3, in contrast to the control group where the peak is observed on day 1 (Kiernan et al., 2013). Our study marks the initial assessment of the oxidative condition of bovine spermatozoa after exposure to OA. Additionally, there were no adverse effects on sperm morphology, including no changes in normal sperm structure or defects in any specific regions of the sperm.

Overall, the findings from all three experiments suggest that PA, SA, and OA, at the concentrations used in this study, do not have any detrimental effects on the motility, kinetic parameters, oxidative status, or morphology of bovine spermatozoa. It's important to emphasize that this study primarily concentrated on the immediate effects of these fatty acids. The assessments were carried out after 90 minutes and 180 minutes of incubation, which is roughly around half the time it takes for a sperm cell to penetrate an oocyte in physiological terms (Wilmut & Hunter, 1984).

338 However, it is crucial to acknowledge certain limitations in our study. Firstly, the 339 investigation was confined to a specific set of fatty acids, and there may be other 340 compositions worth exploring, such as linoleic, palmitoleic, and myristic acids, which are 341 also elevated in NEB (Leroy et al., 2005). Additionally, our experiments were carried out 342 in vitro, and in vivo studies are imperative to validate these findings in a real-life setting, 343 specifically to assess the impact of the cow's uterine and oviduct conditions in a NEB on 344 spermatozoa for fertilization. This study represents one of the initial efforts focusing on 345 the effects of fatty acids on bovine spermatozoa (Desmet et al., 2018; Islam et al., 2021; Kiernan et al., 2013). 346

347

348 **5. CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, our comprehensive study provides evidence that PA, SA, and OA, when tested at the specified concentrations under in vitro conditions, exert no detrimental impact on bovine sperm activity and morphology as assessed by CASA or oxidative status. These findings contribute valuable insights to the growing comprehension of how fatty acids impact low fertility rates in cows with NEB, thus paving the way for future research in this critical area. 355

356 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS** 357 Camila Cupper Vieira: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing -358 Original Draft. 359 Daniele Missio: Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Project 360 administration. 361 Daniela dos Santos Brum: Methodology, Investigation, Resources. 362 Rafaela Dalmolin Menezes: Methodology, Investigation. 363 Francielli Weber Santos Cibin: Methodology, Investigation, Resources. 364 Fernando Silveira Mesquita: Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. 365 Paulo Bayard Dias Goncalves: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, 366 Resources, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Project administration, 367 Funding acquisition. 368 Rogério Ferreira: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis; Investigation, 369 Resources; Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Project administration, 370 Funding acquisition.

371

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

383 The author(s) declare(s) that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication384 of this paper.

385

386 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

387 The data supporting this study's findings are available from the corresponding388 author, Ferreira, R. upon reasonable request.

389

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- 492 493

Legends:

495 Figure 1 - Total motility (a) and progressive motility (b) of bovine spermatozoa at 496 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes of in vitro exposure without or with 50, 100, or 497 200 μ M of palmitic acid (PA). The data are expressed as a percentage means \pm SEM of 498 three repetitions.

499

500 Figure 2 - Curvilinear velocity (VCL; a), straight-line velocity (VSL; b), mean path 501 velocity (VAP; c), linearity (LIN; d), straightness (STR; e), wobble (f), the amplitude of 502 lateral head displacement (ALH, g), and beat cross frequency (BCF, h) of bovine 503 spermatozoa at 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes of in vitro exposure without or 504 with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of palmitic acid (PA). The data are expressed as means ±SEM 505 of three replications. P > 0.05

506

507 Figure 3 – Production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and ferric reducing 508 potential (FRAP) of bovine spermatozoa after 90 minutes (a, b) and 180 minutes (c, d) of in vitro exposure without or with 50, 100, or 200 µM of palmitic acid (PA). The data are 509 510 expressed as means \pm SEM of three repetitions. P > 0.05

511

512 **Figure 4** - Total motility (a) and progressive motility (b) of bovine spermatozoa at 513 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes of in vitro exposure without or with 50, 100, or 514 200 μ M of stearic acid (SA). The data are expressed as a percentage means \pm SEM of 515 three repetitions.

516

517 Figure 5 - Curvilinear velocity (VCL; a), straight-line velocity (VSL; b), mean path 518 velocity (VAP; c), linearity (LIN; d), straightness (STR; e), wobble (f), the amplitude of 519 lateral head displacement (ALH, g), and beat cross frequency (BCF, h) of bovine spermatozoa at 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes of in vitro exposure without or 520 521 with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of stearic acid (SA). The data are expressed as means ±SEM of 522 three replications. P > 0.05

Figure 6 – Production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and ferric reducing potential (FRAP) of bovine spermatozoa after 90 minutes (a, b) and 180 minutes (c, d) of in vitro exposure without or with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of stearic acid (SA). The data are expressed as means ± SEM of three repetitions. P > 0.05

528

Figure 7 - Total motility (a) and progressive motility (b) of bovine spermatozoa at 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes of in vitro exposure without or with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of oleic acid (OA). The data are expressed as a percentage means \pm SEM of three repetitions.

533

Figure 8 - Curvilinear velocity (VCL; a), straight-line velocity (VSL; b), mean path velocity (VAP; c), linearity (LIN; d), straightness (STR; e), wobble (f), the amplitude of lateral head displacement (ALH, g), and beat cross frequency (BCF, h) of bovine spermatozoa at 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes of in vitro exposure without or with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of stearic acid (SA). The data are expressed as means ±SEM of three replications. P > 0.05

540

541 Figure 9 – Production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and ferric reducing 542 potential (FRAP) of bovine spermatozoa after 90 minutes (a, b) and 180 minutes (c, d) of 543 in vitro exposure without or with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of stearic acid (SA). The data are 544 expressed as means ± SEM of three repetitions. P > 0.05.

545

546 **Table 1 -** Morphology of bovine spermatozoa after 180 minutes of in vitro exposure 547 without or with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of palmitic acid (PA). The data are expressed as the 548 median (lower and upper confidence limit of 95%).

- 550 **Table 2** Morphology of bovine spermatozoa after 180 minutes of in vitro exposure 551 without or with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of stearic acid (SA). The data are expressed as the 552 median (lower and upper confidence limit of 95%).
- 553
- 554 **Table 3 -** Morphology of bovine spermatozoa after 180 minutes of in vitro exposure 555 without or with 50, 100, or 200 μ M of oleic acid (OA). The data are expressed as the 556 median (lower and upper confidence limit of 95%).

558 Figure 1.









Figure 3.













Figure 6.





















Figure 9.



50 100 200

Oleic Acid (µM)



583 Table 1.

	ΡΑ (μΜ)				
Variable (%)	0	50	100	200	p-value
Normal spermatozoa	92.5 (92-96)	93.5 (85-94.5)	90.5 (89.5-91.5)	94 (91.5-94.5)	0.3062
Total defects	7.5 (4-8)	6.5 (5.5-15)	9.5 (8.5-10.5)	6 (5.5-8.5)	0.3062
Head defects	5.5 (3.5-5.5)	5 (3.5-10)	6 (5.5-9.5)	5.5 (3.5-7)	0.6423
Midpiece defects	0 (0-0)	0.5 (0-0.5)	0.5 (0-1)	0 (0-0)	0.1818
Tail defects	2 (0.5-2)	1 (1-4.5)	2.5 (0.5-3)	1.5 (0-2)	0.8252
Cytoplasmic droplets	0 (0-0.5)	0 (0-1)	0 (0-0)	0 (0-0.5)	0.9999
Proximal droplets	0 (0-0.5)	0 (0-1)	0 (0-0)	0 (0-0.5)	0.9999
Distal droplets	-	-	-	-	-

585 Table 2.

	SA (μM)				
Variable (%)	0	50	100	200	p-value
Normal spermatozoa	89 (84.5-92)	88.5 (87-93.5)	93 (88.5-93)	87 (86.5-88)	0.2858
Total defects	11 (8-15.5)	11.5 (6.5-13)	7 (7-11.5)	13 (12-13.5)	0.2858
Head defects	6.5 (2-14)	11 (4.5-11.5)	5.5 (5-6)	11 (9.5-12)	0.4736
Midpiece defects	0 (0-1)	0 (0-0.5)	0 (0-0.5)	0 (0-0.5)	0.9999
Tail defects	1.5 (1.5-6)	0.5 (0-1.5)	1.5 (0.5-2)	1 (0.5-3)	0.3844
Cytoplasmic droplets	0 (0-2)	0.5 (0-1)	0 (0-0)	0.5 (0-0.5)	0.5909
Proximal droplets	0 (0-2)	0 (0-0.5)	0 (0-0)	0 (0-0.5)	0.9999
Distal droplets	0 (0-0)	0 (0-1)	0 (0-0)	0 (0-0.5)	0.9999

587 Table 3.

Variable (%)	0	50	100	200	p-value
Normal spermatozoa	90.5 (90-91.5)	88.5 (88-95)	92 (91.5-94.5)	91 (86-92)	0.5256
Total defects	9.5 (8.5-10)	11.5 (5-12)	8 (5.5-8.5)	9 (8-14)	0.5256
Head defects	7.5 (5.5-10)	6.5 (4-7)	4 (3.5-6.5)	7.5 (4.5-13)	0.2451
Midpiece defects	0.5 (0-0.5)	0 (0-0)	0 (0-0)	0 (0-0)	0.1818
Tail defects	1.5 (0-1.5)	3 (1-4.5)	2 (1-2.5)	1.5 (1-2.5)	0.5625
Cytoplasmic droplets	0 (0-1)	0.5 (0-2)	0.5 (0-2)	0 (0-1)	0.8714
Proximal droplets	0 (0-1)	0.5 (0-2)	0 (0-1.5)	0 (0-0)	0.6182
Distal droplets	0 (0-0)	0 (0-0)	0.5 (0-0.5)	0 (0-1)	0.5091

ARTIGO 2

TRABALHO SUBMETIDO PARA PUBLICAÇÃO:

Transient-induced subclinical hypocalcemia does not alter uterine insulin sensitivity in dairy cows.

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Reproduction in Domestic Animals, 2024

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2	sensitivity in dairy cows.
3	
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21 Abstract

22 The cause of insulin resistance (IR) in uterus has not yet been fully elucidated. In the 23 postpartum period, dairy cows go through several changes and stimuli that can cause IR 24 in the uterus, such as hypocalcemia. Knowing that hypocalcemia causes several 25 reproductive disorders, we hypothesized that hypocalcemia causes changes in uterine insulin sensitivity in the postpartum period of dairy cows. To test this hypothesis, we used 26 27 an induced subclinical hypocalcemia model to isolate other postpartum factors and 28 evaluate exclusively the effect of hypocalcemia on uterine insulin sensitivity. The study 29 was carried out with eight dairy cows, in the 2x2 crossover model, for the control groups 30 (normocalcemia; C-NOR) and EDTA (induced subclinical hypocalcemia; T-ISH). All 31 animals were evaluated 7 days before each round (M7) by clinical examination and 32 endometrial cytology. On the day of treatment (M0), blood was collected, and the 33 mammary vein was cannulated for infusion of the treatments. Cows in the C-NOR group 34 were infused for 45 min with saline solution and those in the T-ISH group were infused 35 with a calcium chelator, 5% EDTA. After 15 min infusions (M1), blood samples were 36 collected. After 45 min infusions (M2), blood samples were collected, and all animals 37 received an intrauterine challenge with LPS to generate an endometrial immune response. 38 After 3 hours of the challenge with LPS (M3), blood collection and uterine biopsy were 39 performed. Total and ionized calcium levels were measured in blood samples from all 40 time points (M0, M1, M2, and M3), and glucose, insulin, nonesterified fatty acids, and beta hydroxybutyrate (BHBA) levels were also measured in samples from M3. Gene 41 42 expression analysis of glucose and insulin receptors and genes of the insulin signaling 43 pathway was performed in the uterine biopsies. The significant reduction in tCa and iCa 44 levels after EDTA infusion confirmed the successful induction of subclinical 45 hypocalcemia. Despite the decrease in calcium levels, none of the cows showed clinical symptoms of hypocalcemia, underscoring the subclinical nature of the condition induced 46 47 in the study. The T-ISH group exhibited a significant reduction in BHBA levels compared 48 to the control group. However, no significant differences were observed in glucose, 49 insulin, and non-esterified fatty acid concentrations between the two groups. Our 50 comparative analysis between the C-NOR and T-ISH groups did not reveal significant 51 differences in the expression levels of the genes of interest, INSR, IRS1, IGF1, GLUT1, 52 and GLUT3. This study provides valuable information on the metabolic effects of 53 transient induced subclinical hypocalcemia, as it does not adversely affect insulin 54 sensitivity and responsiveness in utero.

55 Keywords: induced hypocalcemia, blood metabolites, insulin responsiveness

57 **1. Introduction**

58 Insulin resistance (IR) is defined as a state in which a physiological concentration 59 of insulin induces a decreased biological response in insulin-sensitive tissues (Ronald 60 Kahn, 1978). In addition, IR has two distinct presentations, reduced insulin sensitivity 61 and reduced insulin responsiveness. At first, there is a reduction in insulin sensitivity, in 62 which a higher concentration of insulin is necessary to achieve the maximum response in 63 sensitive tissues, and soon after, if the IR condition is maintained, there is a reduction in insulin responsiveness, in which the tissue produces a lower response to the hormone 64 65 (Muniyappa et al., 2008; Ronald Kahn, 1978). Dairy cows show peripheral IR in late pregnancy and early lactation (Baruselli et al., 2016; De Koster & Opsomer, 2013; 66 67 Kerestes et al., 2009). This insulin-resistant condition is necessary to ensure a sufficient 68 supply of glucose to the pregnant uterus at the end of pregnancy and to the lactating 69 mammary gland (Bell & Bauman, 1997).

The mechanism of IR in reproductive tissues such as the uterus has not yet been fully elucidated. Uterine IR is known to occur through alterations in the PI3K and MAPK signaling pathways (Zhang et al., 2016), which culminates in lower gene expression of insulin receptor (INSR), insulin receptor type 1 substrate (IRS1), and insulin-like growth factor type 1 (IGF1). Studies evaluating changes in endometrial insulin sensitivity have demonstrated that these alterations impair uterine involution (Llewellyn et al., 2008; Wathes et al., 2011), and the postpartum immune response (Wathes et al., 2009).

77 Several conditions and stimuli that increase the risk of inflammation can cause IR 78 (Hirabara et al., 2012; Khodabandehloo et al., 2016), including hypocalcemia. 79 Hypocalcemia occurs in early lactation because cows cannot adapt to high calcium 80 demand and maintain normocalcemia (Goff, 2008). The decrease in calcium 81 concentrations during this period is a risk factor for uterine disorders such as delayed 82 uterine involution (Heppelmann et al., 2015), uterine prolapse (Risco et al., 1984), 83 retained placenta (Melendez et al., 2004), metritis and endometritis (Martinez et al., 2012; 84 Ribeiro et al., 2013). Therefore, hypocalcemia may contribute to uterine IR, since cows with subclinical hypocalcemia are more predisposed to develop uterine inflammatory 85 86 changes (Martinez et al., 2012). And in turn, this uterine inflammation can alter the insulin 87 signaling pathway (Hirabara et al., 2012; Khodabandehloo et al., 2016). Therefore, our hypothesis is that the inflammatory changes resulting from hypocalcemia cause changes in the uterine insulin signaling pathway in the postpartum period of dairy cows. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of inflammatory changes resulting from transient subclinical hypocalcemia on the uterine insulin signaling pathway in dairy cows.

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2. Materials and Methods

94 **2.1 Animals**

The experiment was conducted on a dairy farm located in South Brazil, from April to May 2023. The study was carried out with 8 multiparous Holstein dairy cows, nonpregnant and non-lactating cows. The study was approved by the Committee for Ethics in Animal Use of the University of Passo Fundo (protocol n° 027/2022).

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2.2 Preparation of 5% EDTA solution

101 A 5% (w/v) ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) solution was used to induce 102 subclinical hypocalcemia. The solution was prepared using 900 mL of 0.9% (w/v) sodium 103 chloride saline solution, to which 50 g of EDTA was added. The pH was corrected to 7.4 104 using about 50 mL of 5 M sodium hydroxide solution. The solution was filtered using a 105 0.45 μ m filter, stored at 4°C, and used within 10 days of preparation.

106

107 **2.3 Experimental design**

The study was carried out in the 2x2 crossover model, for the control groups (normocalcemia; C-NOR) and EDTA (induced subclinical hypocalcemia; T-ISH) as depicted in Figure 1. Each animal underwent both treatments, with a 3-week interval between treatments, to minimize the risks of interference with the results due to the previous treatment. All animals were evaluated 7 days before each round (M7) through clinical examination and endometrial cytology, to exclude cows with previous endometrial inflammation. 115 On the day of treatment (M0), the mammary vein was cannulated with a 14G 116 catheter for the infusion of the treatments. Immediately before the start of the infusion 117 with the treatments, blood was collected in tubes with coagulum activator. After blood 118 collection, the cows in the C-NOR group received an infusion of saline solution and those 119 in the T-ISH group received an infusion with a previously prepared Ca chelator. The 120 initial infusion rate was 500 mL/h, which was adjusted according to the levels of iCa and 121 tCa, and the infusion was performed for approximately 45 min (Martinez et al., 2014). 122 Every 15 minutes of infusion, blood samples were collected to measure serum levels of 123 total calcium (tCa) and ionized calcium (iCa) in loco using portable analyzers (Ca+ Vet 124 TD-5220 from Eco Diagnóstico Veterinário; and HI98190 and HI4104, from Hanna 125 Instruments). The infusion was maintained until the levels of tCa were between 5.5 and 126 8 mg/dl and iCa 2.8 and 3.6 mg/dl, thus inducing a subclinical hypocalcemia state. None 127 of the animals presented clinical hypocalcemia (tCa <5.5 mg/dl) during the experiment.

128 After 15 min of infusions (M1), blood samples were collected for subsequent Ca 129 analysis. After the infusions (M2), blood samples were collected, and all animals received 130 an intrauterine challenge with LPS to generate an endometrial immune response. A 131 uterine infusion containing 20 mL of 0.9% NaCl and 300 µg of LPS (Escherichia coli 132 O26:B6, SIGMA) was performed with a rigid probe and sanitary sleeve, and the vulva 133 was properly cleaned before the procedure. After 3 hours of the LPS challenge (M3), 134 blood collection and uterine biopsy were performed, which were stored in liquid nitrogen 135 until processing.

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137 **2.4 Processing of blood samples**

Blood samples were collected from the coccygeal vein with the aid of the vacutainer system and tubes with coagulation accelerator gel, at the following moments: M0, M1, M2, and M3. The samples were centrifuged at 1,000 g for 10 minutes, the serum was collected and stored at -20°C. The serum samples were sent to a commercial laboratory for animal clinical analysis. At all-time points (M0, M1, M2, and M3) the levels of total and ionized calcium were measured, and in the samples at the last moment (M3), the levels of glucose, insulin, NEFA, and BHBA were also measured.

146 **2.5 Gene expression**

147 Total RNA was extracted from uterine biopsies for gene expression analysis. The 148 RNA was extracted using AllPrep® DNA/RNA/Protein Mini Kit (Qiagen, Ref. 80004), 149 according to the manufacturer's instructions. During RNA purification, it was treated with 150 an RNase-Free DNase Set (Qiagen, Ref. 79254) for 15 min, following the manufacturer's 151 instructions. RNA was quantified using a Nano-Vue Plus spectrophotometer (Healthcare 152 Bio-Sciences). The samples were then incubated with iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit 153 (BioRad) for complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis, according to the manufacturer's 154 instructions.

155 Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was conducted in the Bio-Rad CFX 156 Opus 384 equipment, using the BRYT Green® fluorophore and Taq DNA Polymerase 157 present in the GoTaq® qPCR Master Mix (Promega), specific primers for cattle and 158 according to pre-established criteria (Taylor & Mrkusich, 2014). All samples were 159 analyzed in duplicate. The variability in the amount of messenger RNA (mRNA) was 160 corrected by the geometric mean of the expression of constitutive genes. To ensure the 161 accuracy of our findings, we initially examined the expression of five reference genes and 162 identified GAPDH and PPIA as the most suitable representatives of our dataset. The 163 reference and interest genes are listed in Table 1.

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165 **2.7 Statistical analysis**

166 Serum ionized calcium and total calcium concentrations were analyzed using mixed 167 models. Treatment, time, and their interaction were included as fixed effects, with the 168 cow as the subject. Different covariance structures were tested for each model, and the 169 one with the smallest AIC (Akaike Information Criteria) value was chosen. Other 170 continuous variables were analyzed by ANOVA. The data and residuals of each model 171 were tested for normal distribution using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Homoscedasticity was 172 assessed using Levene's test. Variables without a Gaussian distribution were transformed 173 according to each distribution. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, and mean differences 174 were considered significant when P < 0.05. All analyses were performed using JMP 175 software (JMP Statistical Discovery LLC, Cary, NC).

177 **3. Results**

178 **3.1 Induction of subclinical hypocalcemia**

179 All cows in the T-ISH group underwent induction of subclinical hypocalcemia via 180 infusion of 5% EDTA solution (Figure 2). Before the initiation of the infusion, the mean 181 tCa levels were 9.13 ± 0.66 and 7.94 ± 0.66 mg/dl in the C-NOR and T-ISH groups, 182 respectively. Following a 45 min infusion with 5% EDTA, the T-ISH group exhibited a 183 reduction in tCa levels to 6.14 ± 0.94 mg/dl. This reduction was similarly observed for iCa, 184 which decreased from 2.98 ± 0.53 mg/dl before infusion to 1.84 ± 0.53 mg/dl afterward. It 185 is noteworthy that none of the animals presented clinical hypocalcemia symptoms.

186

187 **3.2 Blood metabolites**

In this experiment, no statistical differences were observed in the blood concentrations of glucose, insulin, and NEFA between the C-NOR and T-ISH groups, three hours after exposure to LPS (Figure 3). However, an intriguing finding emerged with a notable reduction in BHBA levels within the T-ISH group (0.16 ± 0.04 mmol/l) compared to the C-NOR group (0.38 ± 0.09 mmol/l; P < 0.05).

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3.3 Insulin signaling pathway

To assess the potential impact of subclinical hypocalcemia on insulin sensitivity, we analyzed gene transcription related to insulin receptors and glucose transponders (INSR, GLUT1, and GLUT3), as well as genes implicated in insulin signaling pathways (IRS1 and IGF1). Our comparative analysis between the C-NOR and T-ISH groups revealed no significant differences in the expression levels of the genes of interest (Figure 4).

201

4. Discussion

Pregnant and lactating dairy cows undergo intense hormonal and metabolic adaptations typical of this period. To isolate the effects of these adaptations, we used nonpregnant or lactating dairy cows as a model for the induction of subclinical hypocalcemia. The significant reduction in both tCa and iCa levels following the EDTA infusion confirmed the successful induction of subclinical hypocalcemia (Ro et al., 2020). Despite the decrease in calcium levels, none of the cows exhibited clinical symptoms of hypocalcemia, highlighting the subclinical nature of the condition induced in the study.

210 Blood metabolite analysis revealed intriguing findings regarding the levels of 211 BHBA, a ketone body associated with metabolic stress and negative energy balance 212 (NEB) in dairy cattle (Bell, 1995; Drackley & Cardoso, 2014; Kawashima et al., 2012). 213 The T-ISH group exhibited a significant reduction in BHBA levels compared to the 214 control group, suggesting potential alterations in energy metabolism or hepatic 215 ketogenesis pathways associated with subclinical hypocalcemia. However, no significant 216 differences were observed in the concentrations of glucose, insulin, and non-esterified 217 fatty acids (NEFA) between the two groups.

218 Towards the end of pregnancy, bovine females experience significant nutritional 219 demands due to fetal growth associated with milk production (Bell, 1995). This period 220 often entails NEB, wherein energy demands surpass nutritional intake, leading to the 221 mobilization of body reserves (Drackley & Cardoso, 2014). Consequently, there is a rise 222 in NEFA and BHBA levels, accompanied by a decline in IGF1, insulin, and glucose 223 concentrations (Bell, 1995; Kawashima et al., 2012). These physiological changes also 224 trigger the secretion of large quantities of calcium in the colostrum, inducing a state of 225 hypocalcemia in the animals. Cows inherently struggle to mobilize calcium from their 226 bones to restore normocalcemia (Goff, 2008). Such alterations serve as primary risk 227 factors for reproductive changes, underlining the importance of studying them to 228 comprehend their occurrence and interconnections. Exploring these changes is crucial for 229 identifying potential strategies to mitigate their adverse effects.

We anticipated that inducing subclinical hypocalcemia would lead to an increase in NEFA and BHBA levels, given previous findings suggesting elevated plasma levels of these metabolites in cows with subclinical hypocalcemia (Martinez et al., 2012; Ribeiro et al., 2013). To facilitate this increase, the body needs to mobilize reserves, resulting in heightened NEFA levels. Elevated NEFA prompts lipid accumulation in hepatocytes,
which coupled with limited glucose availability and reduced oxaloacetate, hinders the
complete oxidation of acetyl-CoA (Bell, 1995). Consequently, acetyl-CoA is converted
into ketone bodies, leading to increased BHBA levels (Mulligan & Doherty, 2008).
However, contrary to our expectations, our data did not exhibit this pattern; NEFA levels
remained unchanged, and BHBA levels decreased. This discrepancy likely arose because
the cows were not experiencing NEB.

241 The study on pancreatic β cells emphasizes the essential role of calcium influx into 242 the cytosol for insulin granule release and responsiveness to insulin during glucose 243 tolerance tests (Rorsman et al., 2012). Additionally, dairy cows afflicted with milk fever 244 exhibit impaired insulin release linked to spontaneous hypocalcemia (Littledike et al., 245 1968). Moreover, inducing subclinical hypocalcemia in non-pregnant, non-lactating dairy 246 cows has been shown to elevate glucose levels while decreasing blood insulin levels 247 (Martinez et al., 2014). These findings underscore the influence of calcium levels on 248 insulin sensitivity and responsiveness. Nevertheless, despite these observed effects, the 249 absence of significant differences in glucose and insulin levels, as well as in the 250 expression of insulin sensitivity-related genes, suggests that the impact of subclinical 251 hypocalcemia on insulin sensitivity may be intricate and multifaceted, necessitating 252 further investigation.

253 For an effective insulin response to occur within tissues, insulin must bind to the α 254 subunit of the insulin receptor (INSR), triggering kinase activity in the β subunit of the 255 receptor (Patti & Kahn, 1998). Following activation, ten protein substrates undergo 256 phosphorylation, primarily IRS1 (insulin receptor substrate 1). The phosphorylation of 257 IRS1 activates three main pathways: PI3K, CAP/Cbl, and MAPK, which play pivotal 258 roles in increasing glucose uptake and promoting cell growth (White, 1998). Disruption 259 in IRS1 function results in insulin resistance and growth retardation, as observed in rats 260 lacking IRS1 (Saad et al., 1994). While the uterus may not conventionally be regarded as 261 a primary target tissue for insulin action, emerging evidence suggests that the insulin 262 receptor and its downstream targets contribute to the regulation of reproductive function 263 (Zhang et al., 2016).

It is crucial to acknowledge the limitations of the study, foremost among them being the short-term nature of the experimental induction of subclinical hypocalcemia. This short duration may not adequately reflect the long-term metabolic adaptations that dairy cows might undergo in response to chronic hypocalcemia. Future research endeavors should aim to elucidate the longitudinal effects of subclinical hypocalcemia on metabolic parameters and insulin sensitivity in dairy cattle across varying management and nutritional contexts.

271

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study provides valuable insights into the metabolic effects of transient-induced subclinical hypocalcemia. Particularly, it reveals that such inflammation arising from hypocalcemia and challenge with LPS does not adversely affect the insulin signaling pathway in the uterus. These findings underscore the necessity for additional research to elucidate the intricate interplay among calcium homeostasis, energy metabolism, and insulin signaling pathway in the context of dairy cattle health and production.

280

281 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

282 Camila Cupper Vieira: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing -283 Original Draft.

284 Jerbeson Hoffmann da Silva: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation.

285 Monique Tomazele Rovani: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation,
286 Resources, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Project administration.

287 Daniele Missio: Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Project
288 administration.

289 Fernando Silveira Mesquita: Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing.

290 Paulo Bayard Dias Gonçalves: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, 291 Resources, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Project administration, 292 Funding acquisition. 293 Rogério Ferreira: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis; Investigation, 294 Resources; Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Project administration, 295 Funding acquisition. 296 297 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS 298 We thank Carlos and Cleo Bondan for providing the animals and the farm structure 299 to carry out the experiment. 300 301 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST STATEMENT** 302 The author(s) declare(s) that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication 303 of this paper. 304 305 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT** 306 The data supporting this study's findings are available from the corresponding 307 author, Ferreira, R. upon reasonable request. 308 309 FUNDING STATEMENT 310 This study was supported by grants from Brazilian National Council for Scientific 311 and Technological Development (CNPq; 302031/2019-7; 407240/2021-7; 406866/2022-312 8), Research Support Foundation of the State of Rio Grande do Sul (FAPERGS; RITEs 313 22/2551-0000391-5), Brazilian Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education 314 Personnel (CAPES; Finance Code 001) and Foundation of the Santa Catarina State 315 (FAPESC; 2023TR000636). CCV was supported by a scholarship from CNPq. 316

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423 LEGENDS

424

425 FIGURE 1 – Experimental Design. Eight Holstein multiparous dairy cows were 426 submitted to the 2x2 crossover model. Seven days before treatment (M7) the cows were 427 evaluated by clinical examination and endometrial cytology. Immediately before the 428 infusions with treatment (M0), blood was collected from the animals. The cows in the C-429 NOR group received an infusion of saline solution and those in the T-ISH group received 430 an infusion with a previously prepared 5% EDTA solution. After fifteen minutes of 431 infusion (M1), blood was collected from the animals. After 45 min of infusion (M2), 432 blood samples were collected, and all animals received an intrauterine challenge with 433 LPS. Three hours after the LPS challenge (M3), blood collection and uterine biopsy were 434 performed. After 21 days, the design was repeated, inverting the cows in the groups, so 435 that they underwent each treatment once.

436

FIGURE 2 – Serum ionized calcium (iCa; a) and total calcium (tCa; b) concentrations in cows submitted to normocalcemia (C-NOR) or induced subclinical hypocalcemia (T-ISH). Immediately before the infusion (M0), after 15 min of infusion (M1), at the end of the 45 min of infusion (M2), and three hours after the LPS challenge (M3). For iCa, statistical analysis revealed the effects of time (P=0.002) and treatmenttime interaction (P=0.004), but not of treatment (P=0.163). For tCa there were no effects of treatment (P=0.051), time (P=0.183), and treatment-time interaction (P=0.067).

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FIGURE 3 – Blood metabolite concentrations in cows submitted to normocalcemia (C-NOR) or induced subclinical hypocalcemia (T-ISH) three hours after the LPS challenge (M3). Blood concentrations of (a) glucose, (b) insulin, (c) BHBA, and (d) NEFA. The data are expressed as means \pm SEM and statistical differences (P < 0.05) were identified with different letters.

450

FIGURE 4 – Relative mRNA abundances in uterine biopsies of cows submitted to
 normocalcemia (C-NOR) or induced subclinical hypocalcemia (T-ISH) three hours after

453 the LPS challenge (M3). Relative mRNA abundances for genes of insulin and glucose 454 receptors (INSR, GLUT1, and GLUT3) and those involved in insulin signaling pathways 455 (IRS1, and IGF1). Results are presented as means \pm SEM, there was no statistical 456 difference (P > 0.05). 457

458 **TABLE 1** - List of primers used as reference genes and genes of interest in qPCR.








469 Figure 3.



Figure 4.



478 Table 1.

Gene name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Accession number
GAPDH	F: GCCATCAATGACCCCTTCAT	NM_001034034.2
	R: TGCCGTGGGTGGAATCA	
PPIA	F: GGTCATCGGTCTCTTTGGAA	NM_174152.2
	R: TCCTTGATCACACGATGGAA	
INSR	F: TCCTCAAGGAGCTGGAGGAGT	XM_590552.4
	R: TTTCCTCGAAGGCCTGGGGAT	
IRS1	F: TCCGCCTTTCCTCAAGTTCC	XM_003585773.5
	R: AGCTGTGTCCACCTTTCGAG	
GLUT1	F: CCTTCACTGTCGTGTCGCTA	
	R: GCCACAATGCTCAGGTAGGA	NM_174602.2
GLUT3	F: GCCGCCGATAGAGGACATTT	NM_174603.3
	R: ATGGCGAAGATCAGAGGTGC	
IGF1	F: AGTTGGTGGATGCTCTCCAGT	NM_001077828.1
	R: CTGATTCTCCCTGGGCAAAG	

3. DISCUSSÃO

No período de transição, as vacas leiteiras passam por diversas mudanças metabólicas, endócrinas e imunológicas, as quais refletem em alta incidência de doenças (DRACKLEY, 1999), o que compromete a fertilidade das fêmeas. O BEN, que ocorre nesse pós-parto, é um dos principais fatores de risco determinantes de alterações reprodutivas e é caracterizado pelo aumento dos níveis circulantes de NEFA, BHBA e diminuição das concentrações do IGF1, insulina e glicose (KAWASHIMA et al., 2012). Nesse sentido, Jordaens et al., (2017) demonstraram que ocorre um aumento de NEFA no fluido ovidutal refletindo os níveis sanguíneos. Além disso, ocorre queda nos níveis de insulina, sendo a sua sensibilidade afetada e gerando RI. Essa condição de RI é necessária para garantir um suprimento suficiente de glicose para o útero gestante no final da gestação e para a glândula mamária lactante (BELL; BAUMAN, 1997). O mecanismo da RI em tecidos reprodutivos, como o útero, ainda não foi totalmente elucidado. No pósparto, as vacas leiteiras passam por diversas alterações e estímulos que podem causar RI no útero, como a hipocalcemia. Nesse sentido, nosso grupo de pesquisa vem tentando entender quais são os efeitos de NEFA nos gametas e como os metabólitos e as alterações do BEN interferem ambiente uterino de bovinos. A partir dos resultados obtidos nesta tese, foi possível observar que as concentrações específicas de PA, SA e OA quando testadas em espermatozoides bovinos in vitro, não exercem impacto negativo na cinética e morfologia espermática nem no status oxidativo das células. Ainda, foi possível demonstrar que a indução de hipocalcemia subclínica transitória, não prejudica a sensibilidade uterina à insulina.

Esta tese é constituída por dois trabalhos. No primeiro, nos utilizamos uma metodologia *in vitro* para avaliar o impacto de NEFA (PA, SA e OA) na cinética, status oxidativo e morfologia de espermatozoides bovinos. Os resultados revelaram que diferentes concentrações de PA, SA ou OA isoladamente, não alteram a motilidade total e progressiva dos espermatozoides bovinos. Além disso, nenhum dos parâmetros cinéticos avaliados pelo CASA, incluindo VCL, VSL, VAP, LIN, STR, WOB, ALH e BCF, apresentou alterações significativas em resposta às concentrações de PA, SA ou OA em qualquer um dos momentos analisados. Para investigar os efeitos de PA, SA e OA, no status oxidativo das células espermáticas, avaliamos a produção de ROS e a

capacidade antioxidante total em duas mensurações. No entanto, nenhuma diferença foi observada. Da mesma forma, os NEFA não tiveram qualquer impacto significativo na morfologia normal dos espermatozoides, defeitos totais, defeitos de cabeça, defeitos de peça intermediária, defeitos de cauda ou gotas citoplasmáticas. Existem estudos demonstrando que NEFA causam estresse oxidativo em diferentes tipos celulares, como nas células endometriais bovinas (FERST et al., 2021) e em hepatoma humano (células HepG2; ALNAHDI; JOHN; RAZA, 2019), por isso a importância de avaliar o status oxidativo nos espermatozoides. O mecanismo pelo qual os NEFA podem causar estresse oxidativo nas células ainda não está bem definido, por isso são necessários mais estudos nesta área. Portanto, os resultados do primeiro trabalho indicam que diferentes concentrações de PA, SA e OA não exerceram efeitos significativos sobre a cinética, status oxidativo ou morfologia de espermatozoides bovinos. Este estudo representa um dos esforços iniciais focados nos efeitos dos ácidos graxos nos espermatozoides bovinos (DESMET et al., 2018; ISLAM et al., 2021; KIERNAN; FAHEY; FAIR, 2013).

No segundo trabalho, buscamos compreender o que ocorre com a sensibilidade à insulina em células uterinas de vacas com hipocalcemia subclínica. Assim, primeiramente observamos que o nosso protocolo de indução de hipocalcemia subclínica transitória utilizando solução de EDTA a 5% foi eficaz reduzindo as concentrações de cálcio ionizado circulantes. Observamos que os níveis sanguíneos de glicose, insulina e NEFA não foram alterados pela hipocalcemia, enquanto os níveis de BHBA foram reduzidos. Com relação a expressão de genes relacionados a sensibilidade à insulina como INSR, IRS1, IGF, GLUT1 e GLUT3, a hipocalcemia não afetou nenhum deles. A indução de hipocalcemia subclínica em vacas leiteiras não prenhes e não lactantes demonstrou elevar os níveis de glicose enquanto diminui os níveis de insulina no sangue (MARTINEZ et al., 2014). Esses achados reforçam a influência dos níveis de cálcio na sensibilidade e responsividade à insulina. No entanto, apesar dos efeitos observados, a ausência de diferenças nos níveis de glicose e insulina, bem como na expressão de genes relacionados à sensibilidade à insulina, sugere que o impacto da hipocalcemia subclínica sobre a sensibilidade à insulina pode ser intrincado e multifatorial, necessitando mais investigações.

A partir dos dados obtidos com esta tese foi possível fornecer evidências de que PA, SA e OA, quando testados em concentrações específicas sob condições in vitro, não exercem impacto prejudicial sobre a viabilidade espermática em bovinos. Esses resultados contribuem com insights valiosos para a crescente compreensão de como os ácidos graxos afetam a fertilidade em vacas com BEN, abrindo caminho para pesquisas futuras nesta área. Ainda, fornece informações importantes sobre os efeitos metabólicos da indução de hipocalcemia subclínica transitória, revelando que a hipocalcemia não afeta negativamente a sensibilidade à insulina no útero bovino. Esses achados ressaltam a necessidade de pesquisas adicionais para elucidar a intrincada interação entre a homeostase do cálcio, o metabolismo energético e a sensibilidade à insulina no contexto da saúde e produção de bovinos leiteiros.

4. CONCLUSÃO

Com os resultados obtidos no conjunto de experimentos que compõem esta tese, foi possível demonstrar os efeitos de NEFA nos espermatozoides. Foi observado que PA, SA e OA, quando testados em concentrações específicas sob condições *in vitro*, não exercem impacto prejudicial sobre a cinética, morfologia e status oxidativo de espermatozoides bovinos. Ainda, foi observado que a hipocalcemia transitória subclínica e o desafio com o LPS, não prejudica a via de sinalização a insulina no útero de vacas. Esses resultados fornecem informações importantes para a compreensão do efeito de NEFA na fertilidade de vacas em BEN, e sobre os efeitos metabólitos da hipocalcemia subclínica induzida transitoriamente. Esses achados abrem caminho para pesquisas adicionais sobre os efeitos de NEFA e a interação entre a homeostase do cálcio, o metabolismo energético e a via de sinalização a insulina no contexto da saúde e produção de bovinos leiteiros.

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