



Metformin inhibits human spermatozoa motility and signaling pathways mediated by PKA and tyrosine phosphorylation without affecting mitochondrial function

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1 **Metformin inhibits human spermatozoa motility and signaling**
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3 **affecting mitochondrial function**

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12 **Running Title:** Metformin inhibits human sperm motility

13

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22 **Abstract**

23 Metformin is a leading anti-diabetic drug to treat the worldwide pathology of diabetes
24 mellitus. This biguanide exerts metabolic and pleiotropic effects in somatic cell, although
25 its in vitro actions in human spermatozoa remain unknown. This work investigates
26 metformin effects on human spermatozoa function. Human spermatozoa were
27 incubated in presence/absence of metformin for different times (8h-20h) and motility
28 was evaluated by CASA whereas other functional parameters were evaluated by flow
29 cytometry. Metformin significantly reduces the percentages of motile, progressive and
30 rapid spermatozoa starting at 8h and significantly decreases sperm velocities.
31 Metformin does not affect viability, mitochondrial membrane potential and mitochondrial
32 superoxide anion generation in human spermatozoa. However, metformin clearly
33 inhibits the PKA pathway and sperm protein tyrosine phosphorylation, key regulatory
34 pathways for correct spermatozoa function. In summary, metformin treatment of human
35 spermatozoa causes a detrimental effect in motility and inhibits essential sperm
36 signalling pathways, PKA and protein tyrosine phosphorylation, without affecting
37 physiological parameters (viability, mitochondrial membrane potential, mitochondrial
38 superoxide anion generation). Given the growing clinical use of metformin in different
39 pathologies besides diabetes, we think that this study might be very relevant in terms of
40 human fertility in those patients that potentially could be treated with metformin in the
41 future.

42

43 **Key words:** metformin, human spermatozoa, motility, mitochondria, PKA, tyrosine
44 phosphorylation.

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Metformin is a compound isolated from *Galega officinalis*, the French lilac plant known
48 to ameliorate the symptoms of diabetes mellitus. It has been used for more than 50
49 years and currently is a leading oral drug included in the biguanide class to treat
50 diabetes mellitus type 2 (Coughlan *et al.*, 2014; Hardie *et al.*, 2013; Owen *et al.*, 2000;
51 Pernicova *et al.*, 2014; Rosilio *et al.*, 2014), a worldwide pathology that currently affects
52 over 400 million adults, and is estimated to growth to over 600 million in 2040 (Cho,
53 2017; World Health Organization 2010). Metformin exerts several actions on insulin
54 sensitivity in muscle and liver, including a decrease in hepatic glucose production, an
55 increase in peripheral glucose utilization, and positive effects on insulin receptor
56 expression and tyrosine kinase activity (Lee *et al.*, 2012). Metformin also reduces insulin
57 resistance by inducing translocation of the glucose transporter 4, GLUT4 (Lee *et al.*,
58 2012). However, its beneficial effects may also include its anti-inflammatory (Martin-
59 Montalvo *et al.*, 2013) and anti-cancer actions (Hardie *et al.*, 2014). Although metformin
60 action was originally thought to be mediated by AMP-activating kinase, AMPK (Zhou *et*
61 *al.*, 2001), likely through inhibition of AMP desaminase (Ouyang *et al.*, 2011), it is
62 currently established that many of metformin effects are AMPK-independent (Ben-Sahra
63 *et al.*, 2011; Corominas-Faja *et al.*, 2012; Kelly *et al.*, 2015; Miller *et al.*, 2010; Rosilio *et*
64 *al.*, 2014; Saeedi *et al.*, 2008; Scotland *et al.*, 2013). Thus, besides effects on glucose
65 metabolism, metformin also directly inhibits complex I (NADH:ubiquinone
66 oxidoreductase) of the mitochondrial electron transport chain (El-Mir *et al.*, 2000; Owen
67 *et al.*, 2000) with obvious consequences in cell energy production. However, a debate
68 highlighted the positions for (Hardie *et al.*, 2006) and against (Hoek, 2006) the notion
69 that metformin inhibits mitochondrial energy production. The real and potential benefits
70 of metformin therapy go beyond its prescribed usage, including cancer cells (Ben-Sahra

71 *et al.*, 2011; Dowling *et al.*, 2011; Pernicova *et al.*, 2014; Rosilio *et al.*, 2014) where
72 metformin was shown to interfere with purine/pyrimidine and glutathione synthesis,
73 upstream of AMPK (Corominas-Faja *et al.*, 2012; Menendez *et al.*, 2011) and in animal
74 models it delayed aging, an effect observed in rodents (Anisimov *et al.*, 2011; Martin-
75 Montalvo *et al.*, 2013) and in the nematode *C. elegans* (Onken *et al.*, 2010). The
76 mechanism underlying these positive effects remains unclear, although more recently it
77 has been pointed that metformin retards aging in *C. elegans* by altering microbial folate
78 and methionine metabolism (Cabreiro *et al.*, 2013) and in mice, chronic metformin
79 exposure lengthens lifespan and attenuates the deleterious effects of aging, resembling
80 to some extent the effects of caloric restriction (Martin-Montalvo *et al.*, 2013). Recently,
81 it has been also validated metformin as a promising therapeutic target in neuron-related
82 pathologies to treat neuropathic pain (Price *et al.*, 2013).

83 In reproductive tissues, metformin has been used to treat anovulatory infertility in
84 woman with the endocrine disorder, polycystic ovary syndrome (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014a;
85 Palomba *et al.*, 2006). However, knowledge is still insufficient to establish the benefit of
86 metformin use during pregnancy (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014a; Legro, 2010), as metformin is
87 able to cross the human placenta (Kovo *et al.*, 2008) and more evidence is needed to
88 ensure the safety of fetuses upon metformin treatment (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014a). In male
89 reproductive function, metformin actions are less extensively studied and controversial
90 (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014a). In one hand, negative effects have been described during
91 development of human and mouse fetal testis exposed to metformin (Tartarin *et al.*,
92 2012). Thus, metformin decreases testosterone production and mRNA of key factors
93 involved in steroidogenesis in human and mouse fetal testis *in vitro*, reduces testicular
94 size and the population of Sertoli cells *in vivo* during mice fetal development (Tartarin *et*
95 *al.*, 2012), suggesting an alteration of the physiological function of Sertoli cells during

96 spermatogenesis. The idea that metformin might cause toxic effects has been
97 demonstrated later in adult male rats, showing an interference with normal testicular
98 physiological processes leading to spermatogenic failure and marked histological
99 alterations concomitant with a decrease in rat sperm count and motility (Adaramoye *et al.*,
100 *et al.*, 2012). However, it has also been suggested that metformin leads to an
101 enhancement of the glycolytic flux in rat Sertoli cells (Alves *et al.*, 2014).

102 The few studies about metformin in mature spermatozoa also render a controversial
103 issue. Whereas metformin (at 50 μ M concentration) did not induce negative effects on
104 mouse spermatozoa quality (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014b), it causes adverse effects such as a
105 clear decrease in sperm motility in boar (Hurtado de Llera *et al.*, 2018) and reduction of
106 testicular weight, spermatozoa count, sperm motility and increase in dead and abnormal
107 spermatozoa in rabbits with alloxan-induced (type 1) diabetes (Naglaa *et al.*, 2010).

108 Moreover, beneficial effects of metformin in spermatozoa from different animal species
109 have been also reported. Thus, metformin therapy for 8 weeks improves rat semen
110 parameters such as concentration, viability, motility and abnormal morphology induced
111 by high fat diet (Yan *et al.*, 2015). Additionally, an anti-oxidant protector function has
112 been attributed to metformin treatment during 4-8 weeks in spermatozoa from diabetic
113 rats (Attia *et al.*, 2009). Interestingly, only two studies about metformin in human
114 spermatozoa have been performed to date and suggest an improvement in semen
115 characteristics, although they were not performed in healthy men. In the first study,
116 oligo-terato-asthenozoospermic patients with metabolic syndrome treated with
117 metformin for 6 months showed light improvement in insulin resistance, increase of
118 serum androgen levels and slight sperm concentration and motility (Morgante *et al.*,
119 2011). In the second study, metformin treatment for 3 months in hyperinsulinaemic men

120 significantly improved human spermatozoa morphology and enhanced chromatin
121 packaging (Bosman *et al.*, 2015).
122 Besides the potential clinical use of metformin in other pathologies, the rising numbers
123 of diabetic individuals among younger populations points to an increase in the
124 consumption of metformin in individuals of this age group. Therefore, it is necessary any
125 effort to elucidate the cellular and molecular action of metformin in male reproductive
126 cells. In this clinical context, the objective of the present work is to investigate *in vitro*
127 metformin effects in human spermatozoa function. We consider that this study might be
128 very relevant in terms of human fertility in those patients that potentially could be treated
129 with metformin in the future.

130 **2. Material and Methods**

131 *2.1. Ethical approval*

132 The study was conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines in accordance with The
133 Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki), therefore,
134 informed and written consent was obtained from all individuals included in the study.
135 Human semen was obtained from healthy donors, prepared and evaluated in line with
136 the recommendations and current values of the World Health Organization (WHO)
137 (World Health Organization 2010). The University of Extremadura Ethical Committee
138 approved protocols.

139 *2.2. Chemicals and sources*

140 The spermatozoa density gradient Spermfilter® was from Gynotec (The Netherlands,
141 EU). SWM medium was from IrvineScientific (Daimler, St. Santa Ana, CA, USA).
142 Metformin was from Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, UK) and Rotenone was from Panreac
143 (Castellar del Vallés, Barcelona, Spain). Live/dead spermatozoa viability kit (including
144 both propidium iodide (PI) and SYBR-14 probes were from Molecular Probes (Leiden,

145 The Netherlands); MitoSOX Red Mitochondrial superoxide indicator and JC-1 probes
146 were from Life Technologies Ltd (Grand Island, NY, USA). Phosphotyrosine monoclonal
147 antibody (4G10 Platinum # 05-1050) was from Millipore (Billerica, MA, USA), anti
148 phospho-PKA substrate was from Cell Signaling Technology Inc. # 9624 (Beverly, MA,
149 USA) and anti α -Tubulin antibody was from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. (sc-8035,
150 Santa Cruz, CA, USA).

151 2.3. Human semen samples

152 Semen samples from 18 healthy donors were obtained by masturbation into a sterile
153 plastic container after 2-3 days of sexual abstinence, in line with the recommendations
154 of the WHO (World Health Organization 2010). After complete liquefaction (between 10
155 minutes and 1 hour at 37°C with 5% of CO₂), samples were processed. The semen
156 parameters (total fluid volume, spermatozoa concentration, motility and morphology) of
157 all the samples fell within the WHO normality criteria. Two different fractions of
158 spermatozoa were separated by Spermfilter®, a silane-silica based 40%-80% density
159 gradient medium used in artificial reproduction techniques for the separation and
160 purification of highly motile human spermatozoa (Calle-Guisado *et al.*, 2017). Highly
161 motile human sperm fraction was diluted in sperm washing medium, SWM®, for motility
162 and cytometry analysis.

163 2.4. Human spermatozoa motility analysis

164 High motility fractions of human spermatozoa were incubated (20×10^6 cells ml⁻¹) in
165 SWM in the absence or presence of metformin (10 mM) or rotenone (10 μ M) for
166 different times (8 and 20 h) at 37°C in a CO₂ incubator. Then, 6 μ l of sample were
167 placed in a pre-warmed Spermtrack sperm counting chamber and motility was
168 evaluated using the ISAS system, both from PROISER (Paterna, Valencia, Spain). The
169 following parameters were examined: percentages of motile and progressive

170 spermatozoa, curvilinear velocity (VCL), straight-line velocity (VSL), average path
171 velocity (VAP), amplitude of lateral sperm head movement (ALH), linearity coefficient
172 (LIN), straightness coefficient (SRT), wobble movement coefficient (WOB) and beat
173 cross of flagellum frequency (BCF), as previously described (Calle-Guisado *et al.*, 2017).
174 The total number of spermatozoa evaluated in each sample was at least 300.

175 *2.5. Analysis of spermatozoa viability by flow cytometry*

176 Fluorescent staining using the Live/Dead sperm viability kit including SYBR-14 and PI
177 was performed to measure spermatozoa viability, as previously described (Calle-
178 Guisado *et al.*, 2017), followed by an analysis in the flow cytometer (ACEA NovoCyt
179 TM; ACEA Biosciences, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) using ACEA NovoExpress TM
180 software. The results of viable spermatozoa were expressed as the average of the
181 percentage of SYBR-14⁺ and PI⁻ labelled cells \pm standard error of the mean.

182 *2.6. Analysis of spermatozoa mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$) by flow* 183 *cytometry*

184 Mitochondrial membrane potential variations ($\Delta\Psi_m$) were evaluated using the specific
185 probe JC-1 (5,5',6,6' –tetrachloro-1,1',3,3' tetraethylbenzimidazolyl carbocyanine
186 iodine), as previously described (Calle-Guisado *et al.*, 2017). Results are expressed as
187 the average percentage of spermatozoa exhibiting high mitochondrial membrane
188 potential \pm standard error of the mean.

189 *2.7. Analysis of spermatozoa superoxide anion production by flow cytometry*

190 Mitochondrial superoxide anion production was measured using MitoSOX probe.
191 MitoSOX Red reagent is oxidized by superoxide anion and exhibits red fluorescence. It
192 is readily oxidized by superoxide anion but not by other ROS- or reactive nitrogen
193 species-generating systems. The oxidation product becomes highly red fluorescent
194 (580 nm) upon binding to nucleic acids. 200 μ l from each sperm sample were incubated

195 with 0.5 μ l of MitoSOX (1 mM) 15 minutes at 37°C. The fluorescence values were
196 collected in the channel BL2 using a 572/28 nm band pass filter. Results are expressed
197 as the average percentage of red-stained (MitoSOX⁺) spermatozoa \pm standard error of
198 the mean.

199 *2.8. Analysis of protein phosphorylation in human spermatozoa by western blotting.*

200 Human sperm lysates were prepared after isolation of human spermatozoa followed by
201 incubation at 37°C in the absence or presence of 10 mM metformin for 8 or 20 h.

202 Phosphorylation state of human sperm proteins was analysed by Western blot, as
203 described (Calle-Guisado *et al.*, 2017) using as primary antibodies anti-phosphotyrosine
204 (dilution 1:5000 v/v) and anti-phosphopeptide substrates of PKA (dilution 1:1000 v/v).

205 As protein loading control in the SDS-PAGE, we later blotted each membrane with anti-
206 tubulin (1:500 v/v) monoclonal antibody.

207 *2.9. Statistical analysis*

208 Two-way repeated measures ANOVAs have been used to compare the mean
209 differences between groups that have been split on two within-subjects factors
210 (treatment and time). Interactions and principal effects were analyzed. Applicability
211 conditions were directly met or, in the cases where any assumption was violated,
212 alternative solutions were obtained to overcome this problem. Results were considered
213 significant when p-values were lower than 0.05. IBM SPSS 19 has been used to
214 perform the statistical analysis.

215 **3. Results**

216 *3.1. Effect of metformin treatment in the viability of human spermatozoa*

217 To investigate the action of metformin in viability as an essential cell parameter
218 indicative of sperm quality and/or toxicity, human spermatozoa were incubated at 37°C
219 with 10 mM metformin over 20 h period and evaluated by flow cytometry. A shorter time

220 of 8 h was also evaluated. We have selected this metformin concentration based on our
221 concentration-response experiments performed on boar spermatozoa (Hurtado de Llera
222 *et al.*, 2018) because 10 mM metformin causes a clear effect in other mammalian
223 spermatozoa motility without resulting toxic or with side effects for these cells.
224 Additionally, a treatment of spermatozoa with rotenone (10 μ M), a specific inhibitor of
225 mitochondrial complex I, was also performed in parallel in order to compare results. As
226 observed in Figure 1, metformin does not significantly affect human sperm viability at
227 any time studied. Under these conditions, the inhibition of the mitochondrial complex I
228 with rotenone does not significantly affect human sperm viability either.

229 3. 2. *Effects of metformin treatment in motility parameters of human spermatozoa.*

230 To investigate the effect of metformin in sperm motility *in vitro*, human spermatozoa
231 were incubated at 37°C with 10 mM metformin for short (8 h) and long-time (20 h) and
232 kinetic parameters were evaluated by CASA. As observed in Figure 2A, metformin
233 treatment causes a significant reduction of the motile spermatozoa population, that
234 resulted time-dependent. Thus, shorter metformin treatment (8 h) significantly reduces
235 by 24% compared with control, whereas at longer time, metformin dramatically reduces
236 the percentage of motile spermatozoa by more than 50% (statistical significance
237 $P < 0.005$). Thus, at 20 h of metformin treatment only about 26% of human spermatozoa
238 remains motile (Fig. 2A, black histograms) compared with almost 60% of motile
239 spermatozoa in their absence (white histograms). Rotenone treatment exerts similar
240 effects to metformin in the percentage of motile spermatozoa. Considering the
241 progressivity of the sperm movement (Figure 2B), although at 8 h metformin and
242 rotenone slightly decrease it, however, at 20 h both treatments significantly reduce (by
243 67% and 87%, respectively) the percentage of human motile spermatozoa exhibiting
244 progressive movement. Similarly, metformin treatment reduces the percentage of rapid

245 and progressive human spermatozoa (a+b) in a time-dependent manner (Figure 2C),
246 being statistically significant at 20 h (causing 80% reduction). Rotenone treatment also
247 significantly reduces this motility parameter at any time evaluated.

248 Interestingly, we have also found a very clear and reproducible time-dependent effect of
249 metformin in human spermatozoa when velocities are studied (Figure 3). Treatment of
250 human spermatozoa with metformin for 20 h significantly diminished all sperm velocity
251 analyzed: curvilinear velocity VCL (Figure 3A), the straight-line velocity VSL (Figure 3B)
252 and the average path velocity VAP (Figure 3C).

253 Accordingly, metformin treatment for 20 h also leads to a significant reduction in other
254 kinetic coefficients that define sperm motility (Table 1) such as linearity LIN and
255 straightness STR, without any detectable effect in the wobble WOB, the beat cross
256 frequency BCF or the amplitude of lateral head displacement, ALH.

257 3. 3. *Effect of metformin treatment in the mitochondrial activity of human spermatozoa*

258 As observed in Figure 4A, metformin treatment of human spermatozoa does not
259 significantly affect the mitochondrial membrane potential at any time studied. However,
260 under same experimental conditions, spermatozoa incubation with rotenone for 20 h
261 significantly decreases the sperm population exhibiting high mitochondrial membrane
262 potential (statistical significance $P < 0.05$). Additionally, the ability of metformin to
263 generate mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS) was investigated in parallel
264 evaluating the production of superoxide anion. As observed in Figure 4B, metformin
265 treatment has no effect in the generation of mitochondrial superoxide anion in human
266 spermatozoa at any time tested. Rotenone does not significantly affect either the
267 production of superoxide anion from human sperm mitochondria, although a slight
268 increase effect is observed at any time.

269 3. 4. *Effects of metformin treatment in the intracellular signaling pathways mediated by*
270 *PKA and by protein tyrosine phosphorylation in human spermatozoa.*

271 As seen in Figure 5A, metformin treatment of human spermatozoa markedly inhibits the
272 phosphorylation of all the visualized protein substrates downstream of PKA at any time
273 studied. In parallel, metformin treatment of human spermatozoa also potently inhibits
274 the tyrosine phosphorylation of sperm proteins, as observed in Figure 5B. The inhibition
275 of tyrosine phosphorylation of sperm proteins caused by metformin is clear at 8 hours
276 but is complete at 20 hours, where no bands can be visualized under metformin
277 treatment.

278 4. Discussion

279 This is the first study that investigates *in vitro* metformin action in human spermatozoa
280 and demonstrates a clear adverse effect in human spermatozoa. Thus, this biguanide
281 molecule reduces the kinetic parameters of spermatozoa from healthy men and inhibits
282 signalling pathways mediated by PKA and by protein tyrosine phosphorylation without
283 affecting sperm viability, the mitochondrial membrane potential or the mitochondrial
284 superoxide anion generation at any time studied. Therefore, discarding possible toxic or
285 side effects, our study points to a specific adverse action of metformin on human sperm
286 motility.

287 An initial and relevant issue was to demonstrate that metformin, under conditions used
288 in this study, does not possess toxic or side effects that might compromise human
289 spermatozoa viability. Metformin concentration in the range of mM has been selected
290 according to published data performed in other cell types (Barreto-Torres *et al.*, 2015;
291 Loubiere *et al.*, 2017; Martin-Montalvo *et al.*, 2013) and also in mammalian
292 spermatozoa (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014b, Hurtado de Llera *et al.*, 2018). In human
293 spermatozoa, metformin treatment does not affect cell viability, which is in agreement

294 with results obtained in spermatozoa from animal species such as mouse (Bertoldo *et*
295 *al.*, 2014b), stallion (Cordova *et al.*, 2014) or boar (Hurtado de Llera *et al.*, 2018).

296 Accordingly, in human spermatozoa, only one study has evaluated sperm viability in
297 hyperinsulinaemic men, showing that *in vivo* metformin does not affect human sperm
298 viability (Bosman *et al.*, 2015).

299 The present work shows that metformin added to human spermatozoa *in vitro* causes a
300 clear and significant reduction in sperm motility, an adverse effect that has been also
301 reported in spermatozoa from mouse (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014b), rabbits with alloxan-
302 induced diabetes (Naglaa *et al.*, 2010) and recently in boar (Hurtado de Llera, *et al.*,
303 2018). However, in despite of the few studies about metformin in spermatozoa, results
304 are controversial, as it has been also reported a beneficial effect of metformin improving
305 motility in spermatozoa from rats subjected to high-fat diet (Yan *et al.*, 2015). Possible
306 explanations to these discrepancies might be due to different maturation state of
307 spermatozoa from distinct animal species studied (obtained from epididymis versus
308 mature or ejaculated spermatozoa) and/or the health condition of animal studied
309 (normal versus experimentally-induced pathology). This detrimental effect of metformin
310 in human sperm motility is accompanied with a marked reduction in all spermatozoa
311 velocities. Interestingly, metformin administered *in vivo* does not affect human sperm
312 motility in hyperinsulinemic men after 3 months treatment (Bosman *et al.*, 2015) or it
313 causes a very slight increase in sperm motility after 6 months treatment (Morgante *et al.*,
314 2011). These discrepancies with our findings may be attributed to several important
315 differences between both studies: a) our study has been performed in spermatozoa
316 from healthy donors, b) we added metformin *in vitro* to healthy human spermatozoa and
317 c) in our study sperm motility was objectively evaluated by CASA system versus a
318 subjective light microscopy analysis. It is worth mention that *in vitro* metformin also

319 reduces quality of the human sperm motility, causing that those human spermatozoa
320 that remain motile after metformin treatment exhibit a clearly less progressive
321 movement together with a less efficient motility, which results in an almost absence of
322 rapid and progressive human spermatozoa (a+b) in the presence of metformin.

323 Metformin effects reducing the quality of sperm motility cannot be discussed with other
324 studies, as the two works performed to date about in vivo metformin in human
325 spermatozoa do not evaluate any parameters that define sperm motility (Bosman *et al.*,
326 2015; Morgante *et al.*, 2011). Thus, summarizing all sperm kinetics data, we can
327 conclude that in vitro metformin treatment leads to a drastic reduction in human
328 spermatozoa motility.

329 Metformin has been described as indirect activator of AMP-activating kinase (AMPK),
330 although the molecular mechanisms underlying this metformin action have not been
331 elucidated yet. We demonstrated that AMPK is essential to maintain the proper sperm
332 motility adequate to fluctuating extracellular media within the female reproductive tract
333 in mammalian spermatozoa from boar (Hurtado de Llera *et al.*, 2012; Hurtado de Llera
334 *et al.*, 2015; Hurtado de Llera *et al.*, 2016) and human (Calle-Guisado *et al.*, 2016;
335 Calle-Guisado *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, it is logical to assume that the metformin effect in
336 human sperm motility might be, at least partially, attributed to its AMPK activating action.
337 However, this is not likely the explanation, as we have not been able to show that
338 metformin increases AMPK phosphorylation in human spermatozoa in our conditions
339 (data not shown). This is in agreement with metformin effect in boar spermatozoa
340 (Hurtado de Llera *et al.*, 2018) and with established actions of metformin by AMPK-
341 independent mechanisms in several cell types (Rosilio *et al.*, 2014), such as cultured
342 heart-derived cells (Saeedi *et al.*, 2008), mouse embryonic fibroblasts (Ben-Sahra *et al.*,
343 2011), acute myeloid leukemia cells (Scotland *et al.*, 2013) or breast cancer cells

344 (Corominas-Faja *et al.*, 2012) where metformin interferes with purine/pyrimidine and
345 glutathione synthesis, upstream of AMPK. Thus, the molecular mechanisms induced by
346 metformin appear to vary depending on the cellular context (Rosilio *et al.*, 2014).
347 A possible explanation for metformin effect in human sperm motility includes the
348 mitochondria activity as one of the major spermatozoa sources of oxidative energy
349 through ATP production. It has been demonstrated that metformin causes an inhibition
350 of the mitochondrial complex I, NADH: ubiquinone oxidoreductase, in hepatic cells (El-
351 Mir *et al.*, 2000; Owen *et al.*, 2000) and cardiomyocytes (Barreto-Torres *et al.*, 2015), as
352 well as inhibition of mitochondrial respiration in skeletal muscle cells of obese rats
353 (Kane *et al.*, 2010) with obvious consequences in cell energy production. However, in
354 human spermatozoa, metformin does not likely act through inhibition of the
355 mitochondrial complex I, as the membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$) and the superoxide anion
356 generation in the mitochondria are not affected at all by this biguanide. In agreement
357 with this observation, it has been also reported in human muscle cells a preservation of
358 mitochondrial complex I activity after long-term metformin treatment (Larsen *et al.*,
359 2012). Interestingly, a study reported differential effects of metformin *in vitro* and *in vivo*
360 in the mitochondrial complexes activity (Martin-Montalvo *et al.*, 2013). Whereas in
361 mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) metformin lowers the activity of I, III and IV
362 mitochondrial complexes, in mice the treatment with metformin had a remarkable
363 increase in hepatic complex I activity and remained unchanged the activity of
364 complexes III and IV (Martin-Montalvo *et al.*, 2013). In spermatozoa, metformin
365 treatment causes a decrease in the mitochondrial membrane potential in mouse
366 (Bertoldo *et al.*, 2014b) and a total inhibition in boar (Hurtado de Llera *et al.*, 2018). This
367 effect in mouse and boar spermatozoa contrasts with the lack of effect in human
368 spermatozoa and points to the idea that metformin action in the mitochondria activity is

369 likely dependent on the animal specie, besides the cell type. The idea that the sperm
370 mitochondria is not likely responsible for the human sperm motility inhibition triggered by
371 metformin is also supported by rotenone data. This classical well-known inhibitor of the
372 mitochondrial complex I, which in the same experimental conditions causes a reduction
373 in human spermatozoa motility in a very similar extent to metformin, effectively inhibits
374 the human $\Delta\Psi_m$. This rotenone effect in the $\Delta\Psi_m$ is specific, as it does not affect
375 human spermatozoa viability. Thus, evidence in this work suggests that, unlike rotenone,
376 the inhibition of human sperm motility caused by metformin is not likely mediated by an
377 inhibitory action of metformin in the mitochondrial activity. In this regard, our results in
378 human spermatozoa would be in accordance with the established proposal that
379 metformin effects cannot be only due to inhibition of mitochondrial energy production
380 (Hoek, 2006).

381 The fact that metformin does not affect the production of mitochondrial superoxide anion
382 in human spermatozoa contrasts with the unique work performed in spermatozoa where
383 an anti-oxidant protector function has been attributed to *in vivo* metformin treatment in
384 diabetic rats (Attia *et al.*, 2009), reducing the levels of sperm malondialdehyde and
385 increasing sperm glutathione levels. Discrepancies can be attributed to the different
386 species studied, distinct oxidative marker evaluated, different ways of metformin
387 administration and to the fact that this later is performed in diabetic animals. In somatic
388 cells, metformin might also exert antioxidative effects, although it depends on the
389 oxidative stress stimuli (Algire *et al.*, 2012; Barreto-Torres *et al.*, 2015). In
390 cardiomyocytes, metformin attenuates H_2O_2 -induced ROS generation and improves the
391 H_2O_2 -induced decrease in the mitochondrial membrane potential (Barreto-Torres *et al.*,
392 2015). In fibroblasts, metformin also attenuates paraquat-triggered ROS elevation,
393 however has not effect in H_2O_2 -induced ROS (Algire *et al.*, 2012). Differences with our

394 finding can be explained by several reasons: i) our study is done in spermatozoa versus
395 somatic cells; ii) metformin effects in somatic cells are referred to total cellular ROS
396 levels, whereas we have specifically measured superoxide anion produced in the sperm
397 mitochondria; iii) metformin effects in somatic cells are produced in response to
398 oxidative stress inducers, whereas metformin effect in human spermatozoa is evaluated
399 in the absence of stress inducers; iv) the metformin action in cardiomyocytes was
400 accompanied to an improvement of the H₂O₂-reduced $\Delta\Psi_m$ [44]. In human
401 spermatozoa none of these mitochondrial parameters are affected by *in vitro* metformin,
402 indicating that metformin acts through alternative molecular mechanisms, probably
403 exerting different modifications in the cell metabolism according to the specific cell type.
404 In fact, our results show that metformin treatment causes a rapid and potent inhibition of
405 essential transduction pathways that regulate spermatozoa function, such as PKA and
406 also signalling those involving sperm protein tyrosine phosphorylation. In this regard, it
407 has been demonstrated that metformin treatment decreases the phosphorylation state
408 of proteins in distinct somatic cells types that belong to different signalling pathways
409 such as ERK in MEFs cells (Algire *et al.*, 2012), α -synuclein in substantia nigra cells
410 from mice (Katila *et al.*, 2017), Akt and members of the EFGR family, HER2 and HER3,
411 in MCF-7 and TR MCF-7 cells (Kim *et al.*, 2016). Interestingly, metformin also induces a
412 significant inhibition of protein phosphorylation downstream of PKA in both basal and
413 stimulated conditions in B16-F10 melanoma cells by inhibiting the cAMP production
414 (Lehraiki *et al.*, 2014). In addition to cancer cells, metformin also decreases cAMP
415 accumulation in hepatocytes, antagonizing glucagon action (Miller *et al.*, 2013).
416 Therefore, it is not surprising that metformin inhibits protein phosphorylation
417 downstream of PKA also in human spermatozoa as we demonstrate here, likely by
418 inhibiting the cAMP production.

419 Considering our results, it is becoming clear that the adverse effect of metformin on
420 human sperm motility is likely due to the inhibition of the PKA pathway and signalling
421 involving protein tyrosine phosphorylation, the most preponderant pathways involved in
422 the regulation of a proper spermatozoa function.

423 Despite the well-known link between diabetes and male reproductive dysfunction
424 (Tavares *et al.*, 2018), and to the rising prevalence of diabetes mellitus in younger
425 population, which involves a high percentage of males in reproductive age exposed to
426 the chronic metformin treatment (Ferreira *et al.*, 2015), the influence of metformin on
427 this male reproductive dysfunction has been barely investigated. Metformin is currently
428 a leading anti-diabetic drug to treat the worldwide pathology of diabetes mellitus, and
429 given its anti-inflammatory (Martin-Montalvo *et al.*, 2013) and anti-cancer (Hardie *et al.*,
430 2014) effects, metformin could be widely used in the future to clinically treat other
431 pathologies.

432 In conclusion, this work demonstrates undesirable effects of metformin at the human
433 reproductive level: reduction of spermatozoa motility and inhibition of essential
434 signalling pathways for the correct function of these cells. In this scientific or clinical
435 context, the present work, that demonstrates the detrimental effect of metformin in
436 human sperm motility, might be very relevant in terms of human fertility in those patients
437 that potentially could be treated with metformin in the future.

438 **Conflict of interest**

439 Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

440 **Acknowledgements**

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445

446 **Authors' roles**

447 V.C-G performed majority of experiments, analysed the data and contributed to the draft
448 of the manuscript. L.G-F performed western blot experiments, discussed the data and
449 critically revised the paper. D. M-H analysed the data, discussed and critically revised
450 the paper. L.G-M and M.J.B obtained funding, designed the study, analysed and
451 discussed the results and critically wrote and revised the paper. All authors have read
452 and approved the final version of manuscript.

453

454 **5. References**

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- 667

668 Figure Legends

669 Figure 1. Effect of metformin in human spermatozoa viability. After isolation by
670 density gradient, human spermatozoa were incubated at 37°C in the absence (white
671 histograms) or presence of metformin (10 mM, black histograms) or rotenone (10 µM,
672 grey histograms) for indicated times (8-20 h). Sperm viability was measured by flow
673 cytometry using SYBR-14 and PI as probes. Representative two-dimensional SYBR-14
674 fluorescence versus PI fluorescence dot plots for sperm samples incubated in presence
675 or absence of metformin or rotenone for the maximum time (20 h) are shown at the right
676 side. This experiment was performed 9 times and results, which are expressed as
677 percentage of total sperm cells analyzed, are shown as the mean ± standard error of
678 the mean (SEM). Statistical differences were not found.

679 Figure 2. Effect of metformin in mitochondrial membrane potential (A) and
680 superoxide anion production (B) in human spermatozoa. After isolation by density
681 gradient, human spermatozoa were incubated at 37°C in the absence (white
682 histograms) or presence of metformin (10 mM, black histograms) or rotenone (10 µM,
683 grey histograms) for indicated times (8-20 h). A: Mitochondrial membrane potential
684 ($\Delta\Psi_m$) was measured by flow cytometry using JC-1. Sperm population exhibiting high
685 $\Delta\Psi_m$ is expressed as percentage of total sperm cells analyzed. B: Mitochondrial
686 superoxide anion production was measured using MitoSOX. Human sperm population
687 MitoSOX⁺ is expressed as percentage of total sperm cells analyzed. Each experiment
688 was performed at least 9 times and results express the mean ± standard error of the
689 mean (SEM). Statistical differences are shown with * ($P < 0.05$).

690 Figure 3. Effects of metformin in the percentages of motile (A), progressive (B)
691 and rapid progressive (C) human spermatozoa. After isolation by density gradient,
692 human spermatozoa were incubated at 37°C in the absence (white histograms) or

693 presence of metformin (10 mM, black histograms) or rotenone (10 μ M, grey histograms)
694 for indicated times (8-20 h). Following human sperm motility parameters were evaluated
695 by ISAS system: percentage of motile spermatozoa (A), motile spermatozoa with
696 progressive motility (B), and rapid and progressive (a+b) spermatozoa (C). This
697 experiment was performed at least 9 times and results express the mean of the
698 percentages of total sperm \pm standard error of the mean. Statistical differences are
699 shown with * ($P < 0.05$).

700 **Figure 4. Effects of metformin in human spermatozoa velocities: curvilinear VCL**
701 **(A), straight-line VSL (B) and average path VAP (C).** After isolation by density
702 gradient, human spermatozoa were incubated at 37°C in the absence (white
703 histograms) or presence of metformin (10 mM, black histograms) or rotenone (10 μ M,
704 grey histograms) for indicated times (8-20 h). Following sperm motility parameters were
705 evaluated by ISAS system: curvilinear velocity VCL (A), straight-line velocity VSL (B)
706 and average velocity VAP (C), expressed as μ m/s. This experiment was performed at
707 least 9 times and results express the mean of the percentages of total sperm \pm standard
708 error of the mean (SEM). Statistical differences are shown with * ($P < 0.05$).

709 **Figure 5. Effect of metformin in the phosphorylation of proteins in human**
710 **spermatozoa.** After isolation by density gradient, human spermatozoa were incubated
711 at 37°C in the absence or presence of metformin (10 mM) for indicated times (8-20 h)
712 and cell lysates were prepared. A: Phosphorylation state of sperm proteins downstream
713 of PKA was evaluated using a specific antibody. B: Tyrosine phosphorylated protein
714 pattern was analyzed by western blot with anti-phosphotyrosine as primary antibody
715 (upper film). Loading control was performed with anti-tubulin antibody (lower film).

716 **Table 1. Effects of metformin in human spermatozoa motility coefficients.** After
717 isolation by density gradient, human spermatozoa were incubated at 37°C in the

718 absence or presence of metformin (10 mM) or rotenone (10 μ M) for indicated times (8-
719 20 h). Following coefficients that characterize human sperm motility were evaluated by
720 ISAS system: LIN: linearity; SRT: straightness; WOB: wobble movement coefficient;
721 BCF: beat cross frequency and ALH: amplitude of lateral sperm head displacement.
722 This experiment was performed at least 9 times and values are expressed as indicated
723 and represent the mean \pm SEM. Values bearing an * differ statistically from their own
724 control at the same incubation time ($P < 0.05$).

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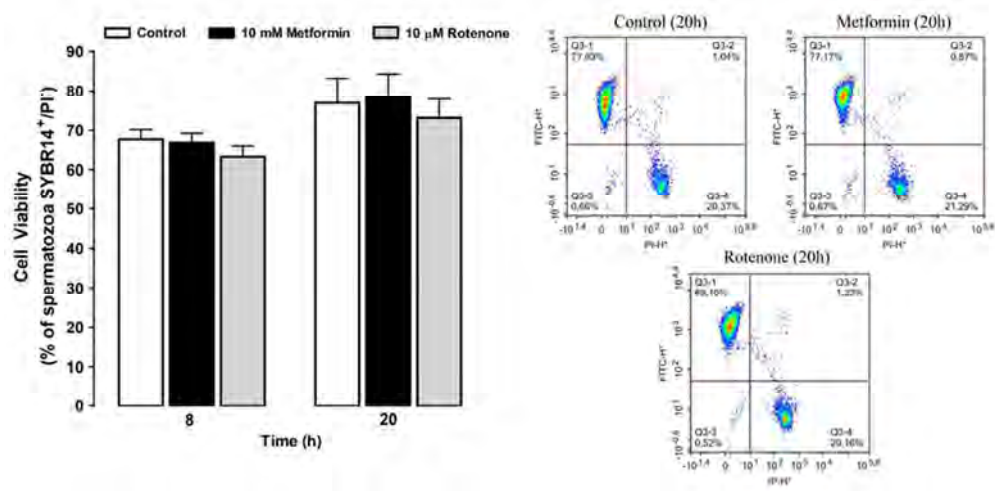


Figure 1. Effect of metformin in human spermatozoa viability.

74x36mm (300 x 300 DPI)

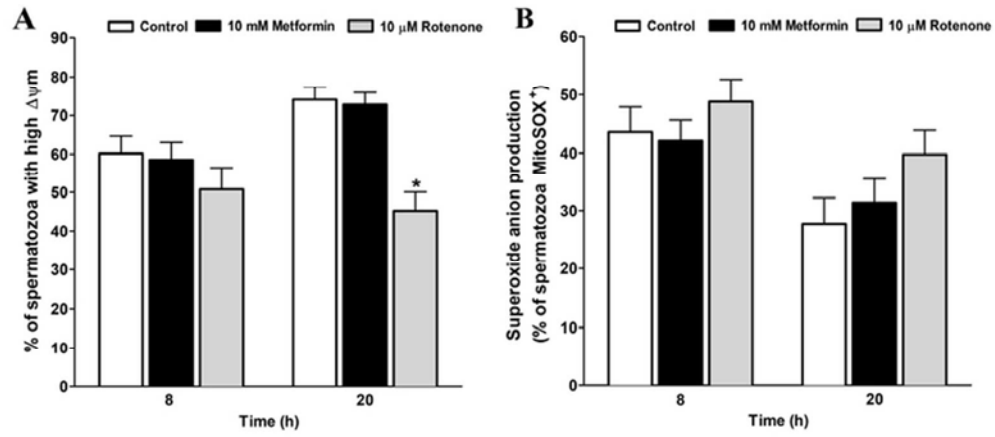


Figure 2. Effect of metformin in mitochondrial membrane potential (A) and superoxide anion production (B) in human spermatozoa.

65x28mm (300 x 300 DPI)

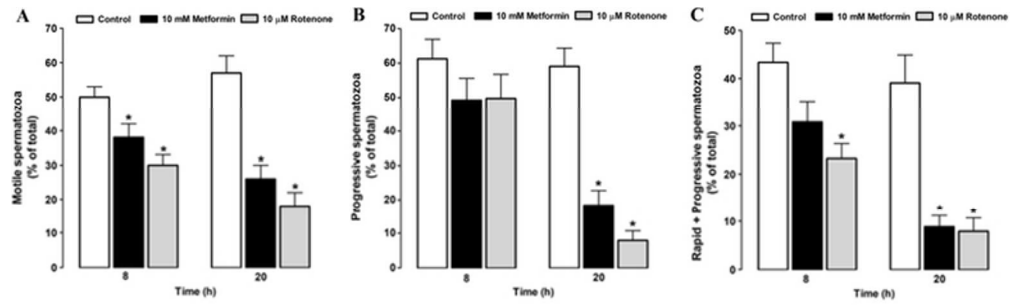


Figure 3. Effects of metformin in the percentages of motile (A), progressive (B) and rapid progressive (C) human spermatozoa.

60x18mm (300 x 300 DPI)

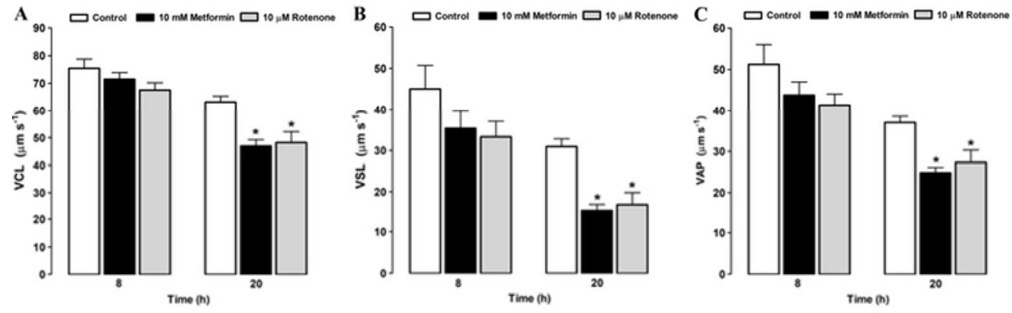


Figure 4. Effects of metformin in human spermatozoa velocities: curvilinear VCL (A), straight-line VSL (B) and average path VAP (C).

62x19mm (300 x 300 DPI)

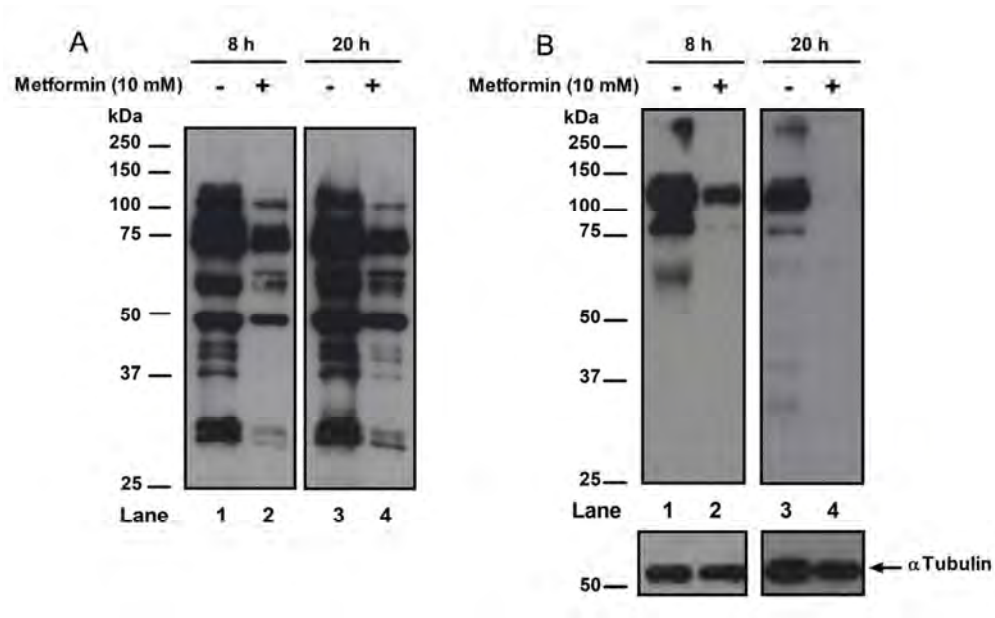


Figure 5. Effect of metformin in the phosphorylation of proteins in human spermatozoa.

92x56mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Table 1. Effects of Metformin and Rotenone in motility parameters coefficients of human spermatozoa.

	8 h			20 h		
	Control	Metformin (10 mM)	Rotenone (10 μ M)	Control	Metformin (10 mM)	Rotenone (10 μ M)
LIN (%)	54.7 \pm 4.6	46.6 \pm 4.0	46.3 \pm 4.1	47.4 \pm 2.5	32.2 \pm 1.8*	32.8 \pm 2.1*
STR (%)	78.1 \pm 2.9	72.7 \pm 3.3	71.3 \pm 3.5	77.6 \pm 2.3	59.0 \pm 2.4*	56.1 \pm 2.7*
WOB (%)	66.1 \pm 3.2	60.5 \pm 2.1	61.3 \pm 2.1	58.7 \pm 1.3	54.5 \pm 0.7*	56.8 \pm 0.6
BCF (Hz)	8.1 \pm 0.4	7.9 \pm 0.5	7.7 \pm 0.6	7.8 \pm 0.4	5.3 \pm 0.3	5.3 \pm 0.6
ALH (μ m)	2.6 \pm 0.1	2.7 \pm 0.1	2.6 \pm 0.1	2.5 \pm 0.1	2.3 \pm 0.1	2.1 \pm 0.1*

After isolation by density gradient human sperm were incubated at 37°C in the absence or presence of metformin (10 mM) or rotenone (10 μ M) for indicated times (8-20 h). Following coefficients that characterize human sperm motility were evaluated by ISAS system: LIN: linearity; STR: straightness; WOB: wobble movement coefficient; BCF: beat cross frequency and ALH: amplitude of lateral sperm head displacement. This experiment was performed at least 9 times and values are expressed as indicated and represent the mean \pm SEM. Values bearing an * differ statistically from their own control at the same incubation time ($P < 0.05$).