

Review

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Spermatic mitochondria: role in oxidative homeostasis, sperm function and possible tools for their assessment

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Summary

Despite sperm mitochondrial relevance to the fertilization capacity, the processes involved in the production of ATP and functional dynamics of sperm mitochondria are not fully understood. One of these processes is the paradox involved between function and formation of reactive oxygen species performed by the organelle. Therefore, this review aimed to provide data on the role of sperm mitochondria in oxidative homeostasis and functionality as well the tools to assess sperm mitochondrial function.

Introduction

Nuclear power, including the production of low-carbon electricity, is responsible at this time for almost one-third of global total energy generation. According to the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), the main reason for this use is the low investment cost relative to the amount of energy produced and the fact that nuclear power plants produce virtually no greenhouse gas emissions or air pollutants during their operation, and very low emissions over their entire life cycle. Therefore, due to these benefits, there are now 447 nuclear power reactors in operation in 30 countries and another 58 reactors are under construction, based on IAEA information. However, the use of nuclear energy remains a cause of concern around the world, due to the devastating effects of accidents caused by core damage in nuclear plants. This concern is based on the long-term consequences of accidents, such as the accidents at Chernobyl (1986) and Fukushima-Daiichi (2011).

As in nuclear power plants, mitochondria exhibit high energy production capacities. However, in situations in which the structure of this organelle is compromised, the potential to release extremely toxic products is also worrying. Such toxic substances may lead to damage of the surrounding cells and other tissues. In fact, several studies have linked mitochondrial dysfunction to some pathological conditions such as neurodegenerative diseases (Lin & Beal, 2006), type 2 diabetes (Lowell & Shulman, 2005) and neoplasia (Modica-Napolitano & Singh, 2004).

In regards to the spermatozoa, several studies related mitochondria to be the main source of cell energy, playing an important role in cellular homeostasis and sperm motility (Travis *et al.*, 1998; St John, 2002). However, for some species, evidence suggests that glycolysis may be also an important source of ATP production for sperm motility, superior to oxidative phosphorylation (Mukai and Okuno, 2004; Ford, 2006; Nascimento *et al.*, 2008).

Despite the importance of mitochondria to sperm metabolism, during oxidative phosphorylation, metabolites called reactive oxygen species (ROS) are produced and are a trigger for several reproductive physiological mechanisms (de Lamirande *et al.*, 1997). Nevertheless, an unbalance between ROS production and mechanisms aiming to avoid their powerful oxidative potential (i.e. antioxidants), may be extremely harmful to the spermatozoa (Halliwell, 1999; Nichi *et al.*, 2007a).

In this context, mitochondria are highlighted as source of pro-oxidative factors that are crucial in the disruption of oxidative homeostasis (Agarwal *et al.*, 2014). Several studies have demonstrated correlations between impaired mitochondrial activity, oxidative stress and sperm DNA fragmentation, indicating a close relationship between these variables on sperm damage (Barros, 2007; Nichi *et al.*, 2007b; Blumer *et al.*, 2012).

Since the accident at Chernobyl, several safety improvements have been adopted and, after the Fukushima accidents, new generations of more safe designs for nuclear power stations have been developed. The main concern of nuclear energy specialists and the community, in general, is the approaches made to prevent the destruction and long-term consequences

caused by an eventual nuclear disaster. If possible, the deactivation of power plants prior to predictable stressful events would probably avoid most damage. Similarly, mitochondrial therapy is applied in situations in which organelle dysfunction occurs (i.e., sperm cryopreservation) (O'Connell *et al.*, 2002; Sariozkan *et al.*, 2009; Thomson *et al.*, 2009), and aimed to improve sperm viability by prevention of pro-oxidative factors release. Actually, some studies have suggested that, for certain cell types, uncouplers of oxidative phosphorylation are capable of reducing oxidative stress (Vincent *et al.*, 2004; Mailloux & Harper, 2011).

This review aimed to compile available data on the role of mitochondria in oxidative homeostasis and sperm functionality as well as suggesting some tools to assess the sperm mitochondrial function.

The mitochondrial paradox: physiological and pathological role on spermatozoa

According to the endosymbiotic theory, millions of years ago the mitochondrion was a prokaryotic unicellular organism. Formerly a free-living bacterium, the mitochondrion was capable of metabolizing oxygen in an environment rich in carbon dioxide. After penetrating a host eukaryotic cell that was incapable of metabolizing oxygen, a symbiotic relationship was established, later evolving into a more complex organism capable of producing energy more efficiently than the previously available glycolysis pathways (Margulis, 1970; Cummins, 1998). In fact, aerobic metabolism is highly dependent on mitochondrial functionality. The aerobic respiration is then, a consequence of the mitochondrial demand for oxygen which, by means of oxidative phosphorylation, is capable of producing approximately 90% of cellular energy (Saraste, 1999; Copeland, 2002).

Role of mitochondria in ATP production and sperm physiology

Studies have demonstrated the main role of mitochondria on sperm functionality, referring to this organelle as the main source of ATP for cellular homeostasis and motility (Travis *et al.*, 1998; St John, 2002). However, its role in sperm metabolism has been a matter of debate. Mukai & Okuno (2004), when inhibiting sperm mitochondrial activity in mice concomitantly to glycolytic pathway supplementation, observed that ATP production and flagella beat remained unaltered. However, when glycolysis was inhibited and oxidative phosphorylation was stimulated, a drastically reduction in flagella beat and ATP production occurred. This finding suggested that glycolysis is more relevant than oxidative phosphorylation in the energetic metabolism of murine sperm. In a recent study conducted by our group, we observed similar results in bovine epididymal spermatozoa subjected to mitochondrial uncoupling and glycolysis stimulation (Losano *et al.*, 2017a; Fig. 1). In addition, Nascimento *et al.* (2008) observed similar results in human sperm. These authors suggested that, despite the important contribution of oxidative phosphorylation for ATP production, glycolysis is the primary source of energy in human sperm. Conversely, other studies in humans have described the opposite effect when sperm samples are incubated with inhibitors of the enzymatic electron transport complexes, with a decrease in sperm motility (Ruiz-Pesini *et al.*, 2000; John *et al.*, 2005). Furthermore, we verified that ovine sperm undergoing mitochondrial depolarization that did not alter their total motility. Spermatic kinetic patterns were affected, suggesting that mitochondria are very

important in maintaining the quality of ovine spermatozoa movement (Losano *et al.*, 2017b; Fig. 2).

Mitochondria are essential to sperm functionality due to the relationship between their functional and fertilizing capacities (Marchetti *et al.*, 2002, 2004; Gallon *et al.*, 2006; St John *et al.*, 2006). Nonetheless, it is still not clear how mitochondria can contribute to the energy capacity of sperm. The organelle has distinct contributions to sperm metabolism, dependent on experimental conditions and animal species (Storey, 2008; Amaral *et al.*, 2013).

The importance of the glycolytic pathway on ATP generation and on sperm function, has been described previously (Mukai & Okuno, 2004). Lardy and colleagues (1945) first showed that mitochondrial inhibition leads to asthenospermia. However, with glucose supplementation to the samples, sperm motility was re-acquired. In addition, White & Wales (1961) observed that ovine sperm maintain their motility through two parallel mechanisms of energy generation, i.e. glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation. Moreover, Krzyzosiak and colleagues (1999) also observed that bovine sperm were capable of maintaining similar motility patterns in both aerobic and anaerobic conditions, assuming that glycolytic substrates are available. Furthermore, previous studies have suggested that ATP molecules supplied by oxidative phosphorylation in the sperm midpiece are not efficiently diffused to the more distal regions of the tail, indicating that glycolysis would probably play a key role in flagella beat in this region (Nevo & Rikmenspoel, 1970; Turner, 2003).

Role of calcium on mitochondrial function

A hypothesis on the main regulatory mechanisms of oxidative phosphorylation considers ADP and inorganic phosphate as feedback substrates for ATP synthesis through several cellular kinases. Therefore, an interesting analogy can be employed with the economic model of supply and demand, with ATP as the unit price for cellular energy. Evidence to support this theory showed that mitochondria isolated in suspension increased their ATP production when ADP and inorganic phosphate was supplemented in the presence of oxygen. Despite the well known 'economic model of equilibrium', recent studies have shown that ATP synthesis rate is not strictly controlled by such mechanisms (Gunter *et al.*, 2004).

Mitochondrial calcium ($[Ca^{2+}]_m$) has been referred to as the central regulator of oxidative phosphorylation, acting as the primary metabolic mediator for NADH production and activity controller of the enzymatic complexes pyruvate dehydrogenase, isocitrate dehydrogenase and α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase (McCormack *et al.*, 1990; McCormack & Denton, 1993). The $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ is also directly involved in ATP production, playing an important role in ADP phosphorylation through the enzyme ATP synthase (Territo *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, mitochondrial calcium also participates in the apoptotic mechanism of somatic cells, triggering the release of pro-apoptotic agents by the mitochondria (Szalai *et al.*, 1999).

If $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ action on physiological processes of somatic cells is established, the precise role of this ion in sperm mitochondria is still under debate (Amaral *et al.*, 2013). In a proteomic approach, studies identified sperm mitochondrial calcium uniporter (MCU) proteins that are responsible for controlling mitochondria calcium signalling, metabolism and cellular survival. However, sperm mitochondrial calcium concentration is seemingly unaltered by mitochondrial uncoupling (Machado-Oliveira *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2013). Additionally, in bulls, mitochondrial activity on hyperactivated sperm appears to be unregulated by calcium release. In this context, further studies are vital to

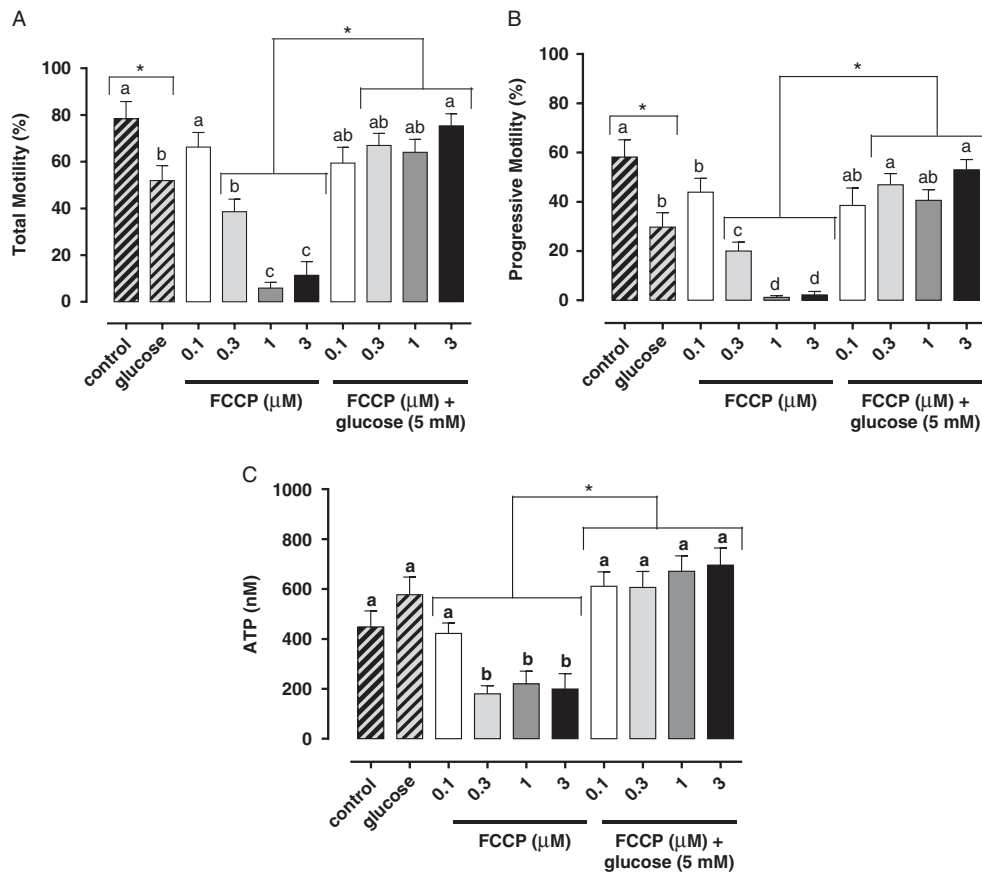


Figure 1. In this study, we verified that the stimulated glycolytic pathway (glucose 5 mM) is able to maintaining total (A) and progressive (B) motilities and ATP levels (C) of bovine epididymal spermatozoa subjected to mitochondrial uncoupling [carbonyl cyanide 4-trifluoromethoxy phenylhydrazone (FCCP); 0.1, 0.3, 1 and 3 μ M] (Losano *et al.*, 2017a). ^{a,b,c,d}Different letters on the bars indicate significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$).

establish the real function of calcium in mitochondrial physiology, the reference values for $[Ca^{2+}]_m$, and to correlate such values with sperm function (Irvine and Aitken, 1986; Ramalho-Santos *et al.*, 2009; Amaral *et al.*, 2013).

Reactive oxygen species and the spermatozoa

During aerobic cell metabolism, ROS are formed. This event occurs firstly because the mitochondrial environment is rich in oxygen and electrons, and almost all of these electrons participate in the reduction of oxygen directly to water, the final product of oxidative phosphorylation. Physiologically, some of these electrons escape from the oxidative phosphorylation enzymatic complex and bind to molecular oxygen, leading to first ROS, the superoxide anion, generation. From this primary product, a redox reaction cascade occurs leading to the formation of other reactive oxygen species, such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and the hydroxyl radical (OH^\cdot) respectively.

ROS produced are involved in many physiological triggers such as sperm hyperactivation (de Lamirande & Cagnon, 1993), sperm capacitation (Aitken *et al.*, 2004), acrosome reaction (de Lamirande *et al.*, 1998), and interaction between spermatozoa and the zona pellucida (Aitken *et al.*, 1995). While ROS are formed by other mechanisms, such as glycolysis, mitochondria are the main ROS source with approximately 2% of consumed oxygen being converted to superoxide anions (Koppers *et al.*, 2008).

Some enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants act synergistically to prevent ROS accumulation, in which each of these

metabolites is inactivated by specific antioxidants. Superoxide dismutase (SOD) is considered the primary line of antioxidant defence acting through dismutation of two molecules of superoxide anion (O_2^\cdot) forming an oxygen molecule and a hydrogen peroxide molecule (H_2O_2 ; Fig. 3) (Alvarez *et al.*, 1987). Hydrogen peroxide can be destroyed by two antioxidant independent systems, the enzyme catalase and the glutathione peroxidase/reductase systems (Fig. 3; Nordberg & Arnér, 2001). If these two systems fail, the H_2O_2 will react with an Fe^{2+} or Cu^+ molecule (called the Fenton reaction) and will produce the hydroxyl radical (OH^\cdot , Fig. 3). This ROS is considered the most reactive in biological systems, and can be destroyed by non-enzymatic antioxidants such as ascorbic acid and α -tocopherol (Fig. 3; Halliwell & Gutteridge, 1985).

Mitochondrial dysfunctions and spermatozoa

Despite the physiological function, any imbalance in ROS production and antioxidant mechanisms can lead to oxidative stress, which may be lethal for sperm cells (Fig. 4; de Lamirande *et al.*, 1997; Agarwal *et al.*, 2004). Sperm is particularly susceptible to oxidative stress due to a limited amount of cytoplasm and consequently low antioxidant activity and also a high quantity of polyunsaturated fatty acids which is easily oxidized. Thus, oxidative stress may cause damage to different sperm structures such as in plasma and acrosomal membranes, mitochondria and sperm DNA. Spermatozoa cannot restore damages caused by oxidative stress due to deficiency of cytoplasmic repair enzymes (Vernet *et al.*, 2004; Nichi *et al.*, 2007b; Agarwal *et al.*, 2014).

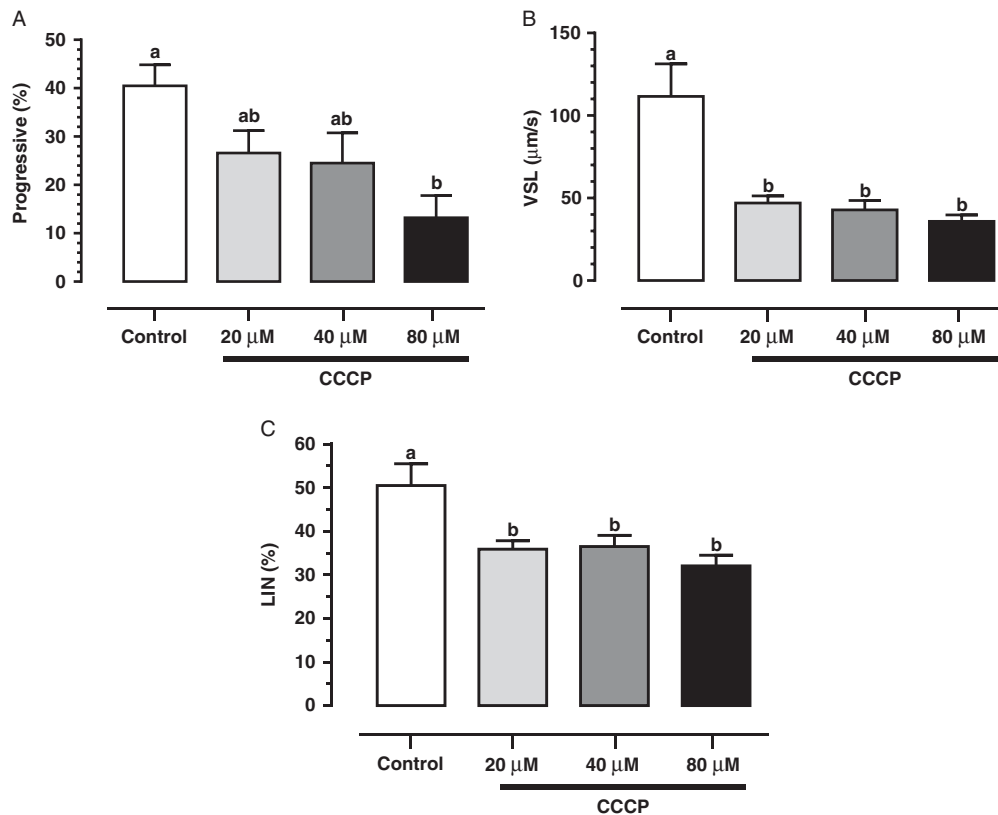


Figure 2. We verified that mitochondrial uncoupling [carbonyl cyanide 3 chlorophenylhydrazone (CCCP); 20, 40 and 80 µM] impairs ovine sperm kinetic patterns such as progressive motility (A), straight-line velocity (VSL; B) and linearity (LIN; C), indicating an essential role of mitochondria to sperm quality movement related to progressivity (Losano *et al.*, 2017b). ^{a,b}Different letters on the bars indicate significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$).

As mitochondria are the major source of pro-oxidative agents, it is suggested therefore that dysfunction in this organelle would have a fundamental role in the oxidative imbalance affecting sperm function (Agarwal *et al.*, 2014). Wang and colleagues (2003) identified low mitochondrial membrane potential and high ROS production in sperm from infertile patients, probably as a consequence of such mitochondrial injury, suggesting that mitochondrial function can be a marker of male fertility. In fact, other researchers have observed changes in mitochondrial function in sperm derived from infertile men (Troiano *et al.*, 1998; Gallon *et al.*, 2006). However, sperm samples with high mitochondrial membrane potential have been identified in fertile patients (Kasai *et al.*, 2002; Marchetti *et al.*, 2002).

Studies performed in different species have shown a negative correlation between both oxidative stress and high mitochondrial activity. The occurrence of this stress and the sperm DNA integrity indicated that these variables are linked and lead a single pathogenic mechanism (Barros, 2007; Nichi *et al.*, 2007b; Blumer *et al.*, 2012). Correlation was also found between variables in spermatid oxidative stress and lower blastocyst rates, as rates of blastomeres increased with DNA damage, confirming the negative effect of seminal oxidative stress in *in vitro* embryonic development (Simões *et al.*, 2013).

Mitochondrial disorders have multifactorial origins, and some mechanisms have not been totally elucidated (Amaral *et al.*, 2013). These changes can be triggered even in the testis during spermatogenesis, for example if the testicular thermoregulatory mechanism is inefficient. Only 50% of the blood supply reaches the testes through the testicular artery, therefore male gonads are subjected to near hypoxic environments (Meijer & Fentener Van

Vlissingen, 1993). Testis metabolism increased as consequence of pathological conditions that raised testicular temperature and were not compensated by increase in blood flow, causing a testicular hypoxic condition (Paul *et al.*, 2009). Beyond these conditions and at the beginning of oxygenation, there is an increase in ROS production that leads to oxidative stress. This mechanism is known as ischaemia-reperfusion injury (Nichi *et al.*, 2006; Reyes *et al.*, 2012). Increase in ROS production in this condition is related to mitochondrial dysfunction and the subsequent activation of enzymes that play a role in a ROS generated systems, such as xanthine oxidase (XO). These changes in the mitochondria are related to lack of O₂ during ischaemia, which leads to ATP depletion and consequently mitochondrial injury. Moreover, the increase in testicular temperature promotes an influx of calcium and is also related to changes in this organelle (Dorweiler *et al.*, 2007; Reyes *et al.*, 2012).

Sperm cryopreservation is a key process in assisted reproduction techniques (Hammerstedt *et al.*, 1990; Zapzalka *et al.*, 1999; Holt, 2000). However this technique promotes a decrease in sperm quality, and also in mitochondrial damage during cryopreservation due to excessive production of pro-oxidative factors that, ultimately, cause post-thaw sperm damage and decrease in motility (O'Connell *et al.*, 2002; Sariozkan *et al.*, 2009; Thomson *et al.*, 2009). Additionally, the process promotes a reduction in antioxidant capacity after sperm cryopreservation, a further factor that also predisposes these cells to oxidative stress (Bilodeau *et al.*, 2000).

Consequently, several studies have used antioxidant treatment in sperm samples submitted to cryopreservation, aimed at preventing oxidative stress caused by mitochondrial injuries (Askari *et al.*, 1994; Bilodeau *et al.*, 2001; Fernández-Santos *et al.*, 2007;

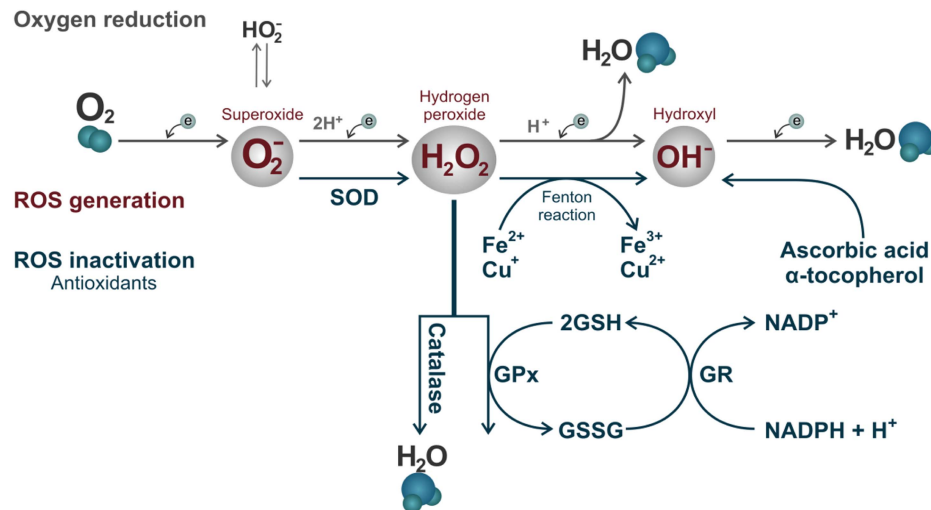


Figure 3. Reactive oxygen species formed by the oxy-reduction process from O_2 to H_2O and their respective inactivation antioxidant systems. The enzyme superoxide dismutase (SOD) acting through dismutation of two molecules of superoxide anion (O_2^-) forming an oxygen molecule and a hydrogen peroxide molecule. Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) can be destroyed by two antioxidant independent systems, the enzyme catalase and glutathione peroxidase (GPx)/glutathione reductase (GR) system, with the participation of oxidized (GSSG) and reduced (GSH) glutathione. If these two systems fail, H_2O_2 will react with an iron (Fe^{2+}) or (Cu^+) molecule (Fenton reaction) and will form the hydroxyl radical (OH^\cdot). This ROS can be destroyed by non-enzymatic antioxidants such as ascorbic acid and α -tocopherol.

Taylor *et al.*, 2009). However, the use of a specific mitochondrial shield during cryopreservation also appeared as an option, aimed at improving post-thaw sperm quality (Schober *et al.*, 2007). A possible alternative would be to reduce mitochondrial activity, which can be induced by uncouplers of oxidative phosphorylation during the cryopreservation process, thus preventing ROS accumulation caused by any mitochondrial dysfunction that can occur during this process. Some uncoupler activities have been identified in the physiological processes of somatic cells, acting even in oxidative stress reduction (Vincent *et al.*, 2004; Brand & Esteves, 2005).

Inhibitors and uncouplers of oxidative phosphorylation: action mechanisms and their possible applications

Inhibitors and uncouplers of oxidative phosphorylation are important in the study of mitochondrial physiology, and have been widely used in pharmacology as many chemical compounds can inhibit the specific processes of oxidative phosphorylation. Therefore, it is possible to observe their role by preventing a single process without inhibiting other mechanisms (Nelson & Cox, 2008).

Inhibitors can act towards complex electron carriers and also in mitochondrial channels. Rotenone (e.g. insecticide class), can block the transfer of electrons from complex I to ubiquinone, inhibiting the overall process of oxidative phosphorylation (Sherer *et al.*, 2003). Conversely, antimycin A, an antibiotic produced by the *Streptomyces* fungus, blocks the transport of electrons from complex III to complex IV (Slater, 1973). Cyanide inhibits the electron transport complex IV to oxygen. Furthermore, it is possible to directly inhibit ATP synthesis with oligomycin, which is widely used in this process. This compound acts on the enzyme ATP synthase by blocking the flow of protons through the F₀ subunit of this enzyme to the mitochondrial matrix and, consequently, preventing ATP synthesis (Penefsky, 1985). As well as enzyme complex inhibitors, there are also calcium channel blockers such as RU360, Na^+/Ca^{2+} pump inhibitors or CGP 37157 (García-Rivas *et al.*, 2006; Thu *et al.*, 2006).

In addition to these inhibitors, uncouplers of oxidative phosphorylation were widely used not only as a tool to study cell physiology, but also as a possible therapeutic application (Kasianowicz

et al., 1984). ATP synthesis occurs through coupling of two reactions, electron transport and phosphorylation, as a result of a proton gradient this class of substances uncouples these two reactions, preventing or decreasing ATP synthesis. However, electron flow activity across the mitochondrial complexes is not inhibited, and even could be increased (Terada, 1990). Most of these molecules are hydrophobic and have protonophore activity, depolarization of mitochondrial membranes allows protons to return to the mitochondrial matrix and dissipate the mitochondrial membrane potential and pH difference, inhibiting the driving proton force, essential for ATP synthesis (Chen, 1988; Terada, 1990). Uncoupling proteins have been identified in some cells and are related to some physiological roles such as in adaptive thermogenesis in adipose tissue.

Moreover, these proteins have been identified in researches related to obesity, diabetes, neurodegenerative disease and ageing in humans (Brand and Esteves, 2005). These studies emerged as previous researches found out that mitochondrial uncouplers can control mitochondria ROS production and, therefore, prevent oxidative stress, which is related to these diseases. Therefore, the use of these proteins in cell therapy for the treatment of these pathologies is suggested (Brand & Esteves, 2005; Lowell & Shulman, 2005; Lin & Beal, 2006; Mailloux & Harper, 2011). Decrease in ROS production promoted by uncouplers is due to an increase in the respiratory rate followed by a decrease in mitochondria intermediate reduced states, capable of donating single electrons to oxygen, thereby preventing the generation of superoxide anions.

The uncoupled process has been applied in an energy study of spermatozoa (Mukai & Okuno, 2004), however there is still no evidence that these compounds can control ROS production by sperm mitochondria. However, the use of these substances may bring interesting results for the prevention of oxidative stress in seminal samples in front of possible mitochondrial dysfunction. Thus, the application of this treatment can be attractive, especially for use in reproductive biotechnologies due to the highest susceptibility to oxidative stress.

Tools for assessing sperm mitochondrial function

Sperm mitochondria can be involved in both physiological as pathological processes, therefore the importance of assessing the

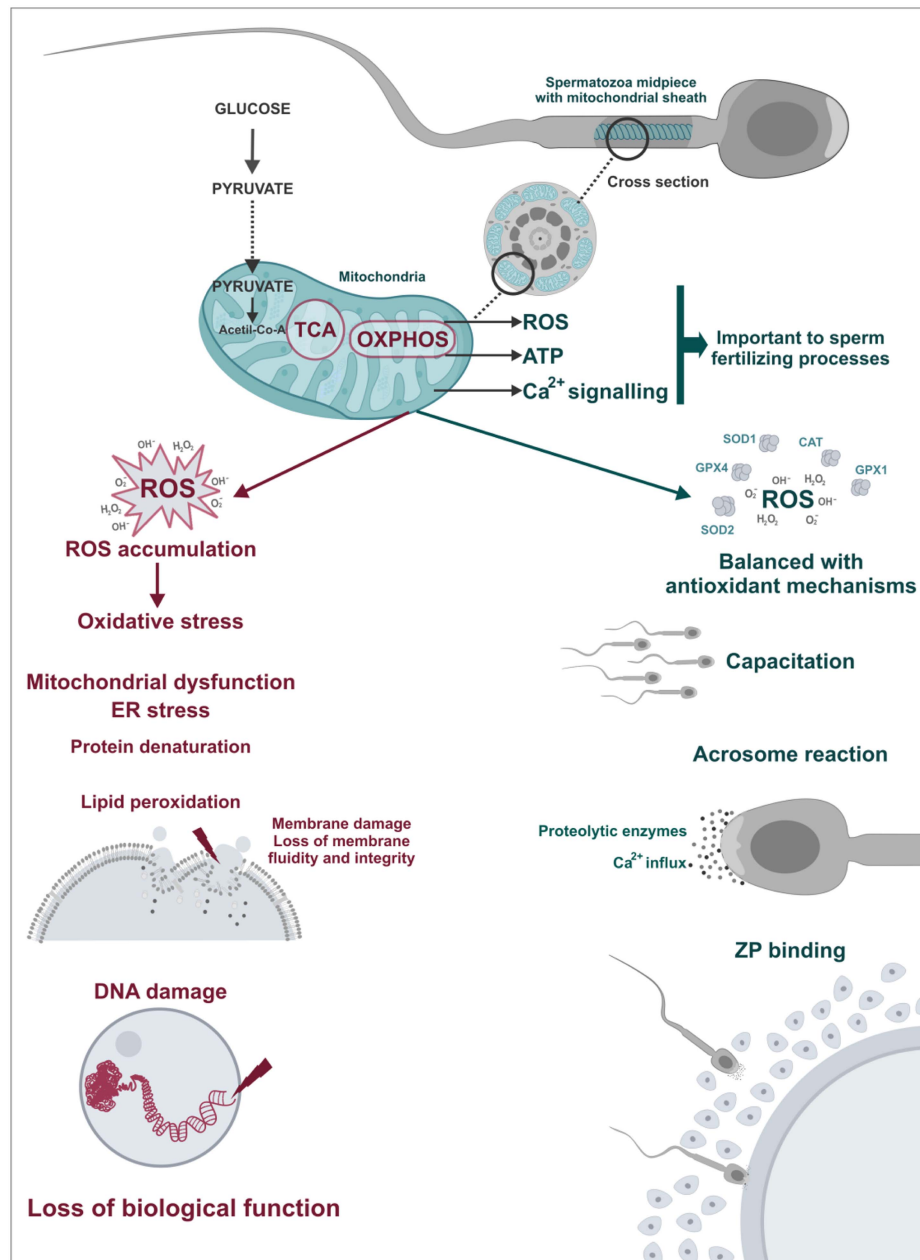


Figure 4. Physiological and pathological role of sperm mitochondria. ROS play an important role in sperm physiology acting as triggers of fertilization processes such as hyperactivation, acrosome reaction and spermatozoa–oocyte binding. However, in cases of mitochondrial dysfunctions, there is an imbalance between ROS production and antioxidant capacity, the oxidative stress. In this case, ROS cause damage to sperm structures including lipid peroxidation of the plasma membrane and DNA damage leading to loss of biological function of spermatozoa.

functionality of this organelle is evident. The use of tools to evaluate sperm mitochondrial function associated with other sperm analysis can be applied for the prediction of fertilizing capacity (Troiano *et al.*, 1998; Kasai *et al.*, 2002; Aitken, 2006). In this context, sperm mitochondria have been studied for some decades (Christen *et al.*, 1983; Hrudka, 1987; Graham *et al.*, 1990) Thus, several tools have been developed for assessment of mitochondrial function (Table 1).

Mitochondria activity evaluation aims to infer the efficiency of electron transport between enzymatic complexes and also in the redox processes involved in oxidative phosphorylation. In classic research, Hrudka (1987) developed a cytochemical technique to evaluate mitochondrial activity. This cytochemical assay is based on the oxidation of 3′3-diaminobenzidine (DAB) by cytochrome c, an enzyme involved in electron transport between the enzymatic

complexes. Subsequently, some fluorescent probes such as H2-CMXros and CMXros, were developed with the same purpose and commercially sold as Mito Tracker Red[®] (Poot *et al.*, 1996; Wojcik *et al.*, 2000; Celeghini *et al.*, 2007).

Fluorescent probes, such as JC-1 (5,5′,6,6′-tetrachloro-1,1′,3,3′-tetraethylbenzimidazolyl-carbocyanine iodide; Garner *et al.*, 1997), Mito Tracker Green FM[®] (Gillan *et al.*, 2005) and Rhodamine 123[®] (Graham *et al.*, 1990), were also developed to assess mitochondrial membrane potential. These probes diffuse freely through the plasma membrane to the cell cytosol and accumulate electrophoretically in the mitochondrial matrix, determined by proton motive force and acting in accordance with mitochondria ability to pump protons from the matrix to the intermembrane area (Chen, 1988; Garner *et al.*, 1997; Piccoli *et al.*, 2006).

Table 1. Available tools for assessing sperm mitochondrial functionality (mitochondrial activity, mitochondrial membrane potential and calcium levels assessments)

Technique	Assay/Probe/kit	Application/Procedure
Mitochondrial activity evaluation		
Cytochemical technique	DAB; 3',3'-diaminobenzidine	Oxidation of DAB by cytochrome c. Analysis by optical microscopy (Herzog & Fahimi, 1973; Pariz & Hallak, 2016)
Fluorescent probes	H2-CMXros; 8-(4'-chloromethyl) phenyl-2,3,5,6,11,12,14,15-octahydro-1H,4H,10H,13H-diquinolizino-8H-xanthene	Stains mitochondria in live cells. The extent of dye uptake reflects the redox potential across the mitochondrial membrane. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry (Rasola & Geuna, 2001; Celeghini <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
	CMXros; 8-(4'-chloromethyl) phenyl-2,3,5,6,11,12,14,15-octahydro-1H,4H,10H,13H-diquinolizino-8H-xanthylum chloride	Stains mitochondria in live cells. The extent of dye uptake reflects the redox potential across the mitochondrial membrane. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry (Rasola & Geuna, 2001; Celeghini <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
	Mito Tracker Red®	Stains mitochondria in live cells and its accumulation is dependent upon membrane potential. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry (Rasola & Geuna, 2001; Hallap <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
Mitochondrial membrane potential evaluation		
Fluorescent probes	JC-1; 5,5',6,6'-tetrachloro-1,1',3,3'-tetraethylbenzimidazolyl-carbocyanine iodide	A cationic carbocyanine dye that accumulates in mitochondria. At higher concentrations, the dye forms J-aggregates that exhibit a broad excitation spectrum. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry (Smiley <i>et al.</i> , 1991; Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
	Rhodamine 123®	A cell-permeant, cationic, green-fluorescent dye that is readily sequestered by active mitochondria without cytotoxic effects. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy (Forster <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Celeghini <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
	Mito Tracker Green FM®	MitoTracker Green FM is green-fluorescent mitochondrial stain which localizes to mitochondria regardless of mitochondrial membrane potential. The dye stain live cells but is not well-retained after aldehyde fixation. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry (Chazotte, 2011; Celeghini <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
Mitochondrial calcium levels evaluation		
Fluorescent probes	Quin-2 AM; 2-[[2-amino-5-methylphenoxy)methyl]-6-methoxy-8-aminoquinoline-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid tetrakis(acetoxymethyl ester), 2-[[2-bis(carboxymethyl)amino-5-methylphenoxy]-methyl]-6-methoxy-8-bis(carboxymethyl)aminoquinoline tetrakis(acetoxymethyl) ester	A cell-permeant acetoxymethyl ester of the high-affinity fluorescent calcium indicator quin-2. Used for fluorescent determination of free calcium in intact cells. Penetrates cell membranes and undergoes enzymatic hydrolysis to quin-2 in the cytoplasm. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry (Mahanes <i>et al.</i> , 1986; Zhang & Wu, 1996)
	Fluo-3/AM; 4-(6-acetoxymethoxy-2,7-dichloro-3-oxo-9-xanthenyl)-4'-methyl-2,2'-(ethylenedioxy)dianiline-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid tetrakis(acetoxymethyl) ester	Cell permeable fluorescent indicator of intracellular Ca ²⁺ ; non-fluorescent until it is hydrolyzed intracellularly and/or in the presence of Ca ²⁺ . Analysis can be made by confocal and fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry (Merritt <i>et al.</i> , 1990; Del Olmo <i>et al.</i> , 2013)
	Indo-1, AM; 4-(6-carboxy-2-indolyl)-4'-methyl-2,2'-(ethylenedioxy)dianiline-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid tetrakis(acetoxymethyl) ester	A cell-permeant, UV light-excitable, ratiometric Ca ²⁺ indicator. Analysis can be made by fluorescence microscopy, microphotometry and flow cytometry (Collin <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Bailey & Macardle, 2006)

Membrane potential and mitochondrial activity are indicators of mitochondrial function and are related, however it is important to note that these parameters cannot be confused, as the mitochondria can maintain their redox processes by electron transport even with low membrane potential (Chen, 1988; Terada, 1990). Therefore, evaluation of these two parameters can be used in a complementary form.

Furthermore, it is possible to measure mitochondria calcium levels, as this mineral is considered to be the central regulator of

oxidative phosphorylation (Irvine and Aitken, 1986; McCormack & Denton, 1993). Calcium measurement in spermatozoa has been reported by the use of the fluorescent probes Quin-2 AM (Irvine & Aitken, 1986), fluo-3/AM (Giojalas, 1998; Harrison *et al.*, 1993) and indo-1AM (Brewis *et al.*, 2000). However, it would ideal to measure intramitochondrial calcium, as well as create reference indices, considering that calcium has other functions in the cell such as its role in sperm capacitation (Breitbart, 2002).

Although these assessments are indicative of mitochondria function, these techniques cannot be applied to quantify energy efficiency of sperm cells. Studies aimed at the evaluation of sperm energy metabolism using measurement of ATP levels are important to complement the mitochondria status assessment (Mukai and Okuno, 2004). High-performance liquid chromatography (Samizo *et al.*, 2001) or dosage by commercial kits are among the methods that can be used to measure the ATP and ADP levels (Perchec *et al.*, 1995). Measurement of ATP and ADP molecules was performed in several species such as mice (Mukai & Okuno, 2004), birds (Rowe *et al.*, 2013) and humans. However, more studies are necessary to develop indexes between production and ATP consumption, and relate these with sperm function.

Conclusion

In conclusion, there are still several questions covering the real contribution of the mitochondrial metabolism in sperm function in each species, although it is clear that this organelle can affect reproductive processes both positively and negatively (Amaral *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, as mitochondria are the main ROS source and sperm are extremely susceptible to oxidative damage (Nichi *et al.*, 2007b; Vernet *et al.*, 2004), the development of studies aimed at the prevention of mitochondrial dysfunction in sperm cells is extremely important, such as the regarding improvement of mechanisms to reduce ROS release or inactivation of mechanisms for a better mitochondrial function.

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Conflicts of interest. None of the authors has any conflict of interest to declare.

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