Reactive blue dye detects male reproductive toxicity

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Abstract

Background: Reactive blue 2 (RB2) dye specifically binds to the nuclei of spermatozoa under

weakly alkaline conditions, thus providing a new method to assess human sperm quality. However,

this technique has not yet been applied to other mammalian species, such as well-established

rodent models, which could enable evaluation of the testicular toxicity of drug candidates in non-

clinical studies.

Objectives: We sought to examine the usefulness of the novel RB2 staining technique for

evaluating mouse testicular and epididymal sperm toxicity using a common busulfan-induced

infertility mouse model.

Materials and methods: Busulfan (40 mg/kg) was intraperitoneally administered to C57BL/6J

male mice. Twenty-eight days later, the testes and epididymis were collected and stained with RB2

at pH 10. RB2 was mixed with protamines extracted from the spermatozoa or intracellular protein

components from somatic cells (HeLa cells) without protamines for *in vitro* evaluation on a non-

coated slide glass.

Results: RB2-positive cells were observed in elongating and elongated spermatids at all stages

except for stages IX–XI of the seminiferous epithelium, following peanut agglutinin (PNA) lectin

histochemistry. The percentage of RB2-positive germ cells in the seminiferous tubules

significantly decreased after busulfan administration. There were no RB2-positive spermatozoa in

the caput epididymis of busulfan-treated mice. Aggregates were observed in the mixture of RB2

dye (pH 10) with protamines but not in the mixture of intracellular protein components without

protamines. This specificity was lost at neutral pH.

Discussion and Conclusion: Identification of the stage of mouse seminiferous tubules using PNA

lectin histochemistry revealed that RB2 specifically stains stage 12–16 spermatids, indicating

specific binding to protamine expressed at these stages. This novel RB2 staining technique could

be helpful for the rapid visualization of protamination as a biomarker of male reproductive toxicity.

Introduction

The International Council for Harmonisation of Technical Requirements for Pharmaceuticals for Human Use guidelines require histopathological evaluation of the effects of a candidate drug using hematoxylin-eosin (HE) staining in non-clinical animal studies, including general toxicity studies as well as male reproductive toxicity studies.[1] Specifically, testicular toxicity must be evaluated prior to the first clinical trial in humans. If pharmaceutical candidates are shown to have potential testicular toxicity, non-clinical animal testing does not proceed. Although there are no specific recommendations in regulatory guidelines for general toxicity studies using animals regarding the evaluation of male reproductive toxicity, non-clinical testicular toxicity testing could be preferable to detect similar changes that may occur in clinical trials. However, the results of non-clinical animal testing do not necessarily match the effects in humans.[2,3] Furthermore, identification and interpretation of chemically induced changes in testis histology require fundamental knowledge of spermatogenesis; however, there is currently no staining technique available to specifically identify male germ cell development in complicated histology. Thus, the development of a novel method to specifically stain spermatogenic cells is needed to support the interpretation of the results of histopathological analysis using HE staining.

43  During the late haploid phase of spermatogenesis (spermiogenesis), mammalian

44 spermatozoa undergo protamination in which approximately 90% of the histones that package

45 DNA in early spermatids are removed from the DNA and are replaced by transition nuclear

46 proteins and finally by protamines (PRMs).[4] PRMs possess more domains rich in arginine (Arg),

47 a basic amino acid, than histones and transition nuclear proteins to promote sperm head

48 condensation and DNA stabilization by binding to the phosphoric group in DNA.[5] The importance

49 of PRMs in sperm chromatin condensation and the influence of protein expression on sperm

50 function have been shown in both mouse and human studies.[6-9] In most mammals, the sperm

51 chromatin is packaged by a single PRM, whereas primates and most rodents, as well as subset of

52 other placental mammals, express two PRMs: protamine 1 (PRM1) and protamine 2 (PRM2).

53 Alterations in the content of sperm PRMs induce negative effects on sperm concentration, motility,

54 and sperm head morphology in men.[8] Haploinsufficiency of PRMs in mice results in sperm

55 morphological abnormalities, DNA damage, and decreases in sperm motility.[10] In particular,

56 PRM2 deficiency has a negative impact on chromatin packaging and sperm head morphology.[7]

57 Incorrect condensation of sperm chromatin leads to head abnormalities such as larger heads.[11]

58 These findings suggest that PRM levels could serve as a biomarker of male infertility.[6]

A previous study showed that reactive blue 2 (RB2) dye specifically bound to the nucleus

of spermatozoa under weakly alkaline conditions (pH 10), offering a new method to assess human

sperm quality.[12] At this weakly basic pH, three sulfate residues in the RB2 molecule may, in

principle, bind electrostatically to the guanidyl groups in Arg, enabling specific staining of PRMs

in human spermatozoa.[12] Considering the chemical structure of RB2, we hypothesized that RB2

binding is a specific dye for PRMs in male haploid germ cells under weakly alkaline conditions.

However, testicular histological analysis is needed for invasive procedures such as biopsy;

therefore, it is difficult to confirm the specificity of RB2 to human testicular germ cells. Therefore,

it would be useful to apply RB2 staining in non-clinical studies for evaluating male reproductive

toxicity in rodent models; however, this technique has not yet been attempted in mammalian

species other than humans.

Therefore, the aim of the present study was to examine whether the germ cell specificity

of RB2 found in humans is consistent in experimental mammalian models such as mice, which

would enable research on drug toxicity in the context of complicated testicular histology.

Specifically, we examined whether PRMs could be visualized by RB2 using an *in vitro* experiment

to examine the usefulness of this novel staining technique for evaluating mouse testicular and

epididymal sperm toxicity using a standard mouse model of infertility established by the

administration of busulfan.[13-16]

Materials and Methods

Animals

Twelve C57BL/6J male mice (CLEA Japan, Tokyo, Japan) aged 5 weeks were maintained

under standard laboratory conditions. The mice were housed individually in ventilated cage

systems (Lab Product Inc., Seaford, DE, USA) at $23 \pm 2°C$ under a 12-h light/dark cycle (lights on

from 8:00 to 20:00), with food and water provided *ad libitum*. Body weight was measured once a

week (three mice per cage). This study followed the guidelines established by the Ethical

Committee for Animal Experiments of the National Institutes of Health Sciences (NIHS). The

animal facility was approved by the Health Science Center for the Accreditation of Laboratory

Animal Care in Japan. All experimental protocols in the study were reviewed and approved by the

Committee for Proper Experimental Animal Use and Welfare, a peer-review panel established at

the NIHS, under experimental approval no. 816.

Experimental design

After 1-week habituation, the 12 mice were randomly divided into two groups: vehicle

control group (n = 6) and busulfan-treated group (n = 6). The vehicle control group received two

intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections of vehicle containing 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; 031-24051;

CultureSure®DMSO; FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd., Osaka, Japan) in saline

(Otsuka Pharmaceutical Co.; Tokyo, Japan) with a 3-h interval between injections. Busulfan (B-

2635; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was dissolved in DMSO at a concentration of 10

mg/mL and then gradually added to a nine-times volume of saline (final concentration: 1 mg/mL).

Similar to the vehicle control group, the busulfan-treated group also received two i.p. injections

(20 mL/kg per injection) of busulfan at a total dose of 40 mg/kg body weight, as previously

described.[13, 17] After 28 days, the reproductive organs of the male mice were collected under

isoflurane anesthesia. All efforts were made to minimize animal suffering. Each mouse was

weighed, blood was collected from the inferior vena cava, and the testes and epididymis were

removed. Dissected tissues were fixed for histopathological analysis as described below.

Isolation of spermatozoa from the caput or cauda epididymis and RB2 staining

For isolation of spermatozoa, the caput or cauda epididymis from each animal was cut using

a surgical blade and then minced using small scissors in 10 mM HEPES-buffered TYH culture

medium (119 mM NaCl, 4.8 mM KCl, 1.7 mM $CaCl_2$, 1.2 mM KH_2PO_4, 1.2 mM $MgSO_4$, 25 mM

$NaHCO_3$, 5.6 mM glucose, 1.0 mM sodium pyruvate, and 4 mg/mL bovine serum albumin; pH

7.4). Briefly, an aliquot of the caput- or cauda-derived sperm suspension was smeared on a glass

slide using a centrifugal auto-smear (Cyto-Tek; Sakura, Tokyo, Japan). The spermatozoa were then

fixed with methanol for 5 min and stained with 0.1% RB2 (catalog no. 12236-82-7; RB2; R115;

Sigma-Aldrich) in 100 mM carbonate-bicarbonate buffer (pH 10) for 30 min. The excess dye was

washed out with carbonate-bicarbonate buffer. The slides were mounted using ProLong Diamond

Antifade Mountant (P36961; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Kyoto, Japan) prior to microscopic

examination. We observed 200 spermatozoa per mouse (n = 6 per group) using a microscope

(BX51; Olympus Co., Tokyo, Japan) equipped with cellSens imaging software (Olympus Co.,

Tokyo, Japan).

RB2 staining of spermatids in the testes and of spermatozoa in the epididymis

For histopathological analysis, the testes and epididymis were removed and immersed in a

freshly prepared 4% paraformaldehyde phosphate buffer fixative (161-20141; FUJIFILM Wako

Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd.) for 48 h. Following fixation, the testes and epididymis were

processed using a graded alcohol series, cleared in xylene, and embedded in paraffin. Sections (4-

µm thick) were prepared, deparaffinized, and stained with HE using our routine method for overall

morphological evaluation. Two serial testis sections were prepared: one was used for visualization

of male germ cells expressing protamine according to RB2 staining, and the other was applied for

staging of the mouse seminiferous epithelium cycle using peanut agglutinin (PNA) lectin

histochemistry, as previously described.[18, 19] For the former analysis, the testicular and epididymal

cross-sections were stained with 0.1% RB2 in 100 mM carbonate-bicarbonate buffer (pH 10) for

30 min, and the excess dye was then washed out with the carbonate-bicarbonate buffer. For the

latter, the sections were immersed in 20 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 9) and heated at 90°C for 30 min

for antigen retrieval. After cooling to room temperature, the sections were washed in phosphate-

buffered saline, incubated with Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated lectin PNA antibody (L21409, 1:1000;

Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA) for 30 min at room temperature to visualize the acrosomes,

and then counterstained with Hoechst 33258 (Sigma-Aldrich). Each stage of spermatogenesis was

determined to simplify the identification of the cell population, as previously reported.[18, 19] Briefly,

testis sections from the control mice were observed to determine the staging of the seminiferous

epithelium cycle. The 12 stages (I–XII) of spermatogenesis in mice were then determined using

the combination of PNA lectin histochemistry for the acrosomes of spermatids and Hoechst

staining for chromatin in the nuclei, according to the established criteria of stages based on the

position, size, and shape of acrosomes.

The slides were mounted using ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant (P36961; Thermo

Fisher Scientific) prior to microscopic examination. To quantify the proportion of RB2-positive

germ cells in the seminiferous tubules, 200 seminiferous tubule sections were observed in two

tissue sections obtained from two discrete portions of a testis from a single mouse. We evaluated

the two tissue sections per mouse (n = 6 per group) using the BX51 microscope equipped with

cellSens imaging software.

Analysis of motility of spermatozoa

Spermatozoa were collected according to our previously reported method with minor

modifications.[19, 20] Briefly, the cauda epididymis was dissected, and the connective tissue, fat pad,

muscles, and vas deferens were removed. For sampling of spermatozoa, the cauda epididymis from

each animal was cut using a surgical blade and then minced using small scissors in 10 mM HEPES-

buffered TYH culture medium, as described above. The suspensions of spermatozoa were left to

disperse and swim up for 15 min on a warming tray at 37°C. The suspension was then filtered

through a 40-μm nylon filter (PP-40N; Kyoshin Rikoh, Tokyo, Japan) to remove any undigested

tissue fragments and cauda spermatozoa were collected to evaluate motility. The motile

spermatozoa were incubated for 2 h at 37 °C to allow for hyperactivation.

The percentage of motile or hyperactivated spermatozoa was measured on a 37°C heated

stage of a constant-temperature unit (MP-10; Kitazato Supply Co., Shizuoka, Japan), according to

a previously described method.[20] Sperm motility was recorded using a phase-contrast microscope

(CX43; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) with Moticam 1080 (Shimadzu Rika Co., Tokyo, Japan). Using

a 10× phase-contrast objective, each field was recorded for 30 s, and the numbers of total

spermatozoa and motile and/or hyperactivated spermatozoa were manually counted in three

random fields for each sample. The analyses were performed in a blinded manner. Motile

spermatozoa that exhibited asymmetric and whiplash flagellar movements and a circular and/or

octagonal swimming locus were defined as hyperactivated.[20, 21] The percentage of motile

spermatozoa was calculated as the number of forward motile and sub-motile spermatozoa or

hyperactivated spermatozoa/total number of spermatozoa × 100 (%).

***In vitro* experiment of RB2 binding**

RB2 dye in 100 mM carbonate-bicarbonate buffer (pH 10) was mixed with human spermatozoa

PRM (Briar Patch Biosciences, CA, USA) or mouse synthetic PRM1 or PRM2 (Briar Patch

Biosciences) on non-coated glass slides. After the reaction, the glass slides were mounted using a

mountant and observed under a microscope. As a negative control, bovine serum albumin (BSA;

23209; Pierce™ BSA standard ampules, 2 mg/mL; ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)

and an extracted intracellular protein from HeLa cells were mixed with RB2 dye (pH 10). HeLa

cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (D5030, Sigma-Aldrich)

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (10099, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 100 μg/mL

kanamycin (420311, Sigma-Aldrich). The cells were lysed with sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)

lysis buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl at pH 8, 10% glycerol, and 1% SDS) to extract the intracellular

proteins.

Statistical analysis

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation (GraphPad Prism version 9, GraphPad

Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). Welch's t-test was used to detect significant differences

between the control and busulfan-treated groups (GraphPad Prism version 9). Statistical

significance was assessed at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Body and organ weights

There were no significant differences in body weights of the control and busulfan-treated mice

(control; 25.3 ± 0.7 g, busulfan-treated; 24.9 ± 0.4 g). The absolute weights of the testes (left:

control = 104.6 ± 3.1 mg, busulfan-treated = 32.6 ± 2.7 mg, $P < 0.001$; right: control = 108.7 ± 7.8

mg; busulfan-treated = 31.5 ± 3.9 mg, $P < 0.001$) and the epididymis (left: control = 36.4 ± 3.3 mg,

busulfan-treated = 25.3 ± 2.0 mg, $P < 0.001$; right: control = 36.6 ± 3.2 mg, busulfan-treated =

25.6 ± 2.2 mg, $P < 0.001$) were significantly lower in the busulfan-treated mice than in the control

mice. In particular, the caput epididymis of busulfan-treated mice was grossly much smaller than

that of the control mice (**Data not shown**).

RB2 specifically stains male haploid germ cells expressing PRMs

Based on the shape of the acrosomes of the round and elongating spermatids (steps 1–12), the

corresponding staging of the mouse seminiferous epithelium cycle was determined (stages I–XII).

After identification of the germ cell population by staging of the mouse seminiferous epithelium

cycle (**Figure 1A, C, E, G, I, K, M, O, Q, S, U, W**), using the adjacent testis sections from the

control mice, RB2-positive cells were observed in steps 12 to 16 of elongating and elongated

spermatids in stages XII and I to VIII, but not in stages IX to XI of the seminiferous epithelium

cycle (**Figure 1B, D, F, H, J, L, N, P, R, T, V, X**).

Quantitative histological analysis showed that busulfan-treated mice had approximately half of

the seminiferous epithelium tubules than those in the control, with loss of step 12 to 16 elongating

and elongated spermatids (**Figure 2A–G**).

RB2 staining to evaluate epididymal sperm toxicity

The percentage of motile spermatozoa in busulfan-treated mice was significantly lower than that

in control mice ($P < 0.01$) (**Figure 3A**). The percentage of hyperactivated spermatozoa in busulfan-

treated mice also showed a significant decrease compared with that in the control group ($P < 0.05$)

(**Figure 3B**). Swim-up spermatozoa collected from the cauda epididymis of both control (**Figure**

3C) and busulfan-treated (**Figure 3D**) mice were stained with RB2. Spermatozoa collected from

the caput epididymis in control mice were also stained with RB2 (**Figure 3E**), whereas those of

busulfan-treated mice showed no positive staining (**Figure 3F**).

RB2-positive germ cells were detected in the caput epididymis of the control mice (**Figure**

4A, C, E, G), but not in the caput epididymis of busulfan-treated mice (**Figure 4B, D, F**), matching

the observations of the spermatozoa collected from the caput epididymis (**Figure 3E**).

pH-dependence of RB2 specificity for PRMs

Aggregates were observed in the mixture of RB2 dye (pH 10) with both human spermatozoa

PRMs and mouse synthetic PRMs (**Figure 5A–F**) but were not detected in the mixture with BSA

and the extracted intracellular proteins from HeLa cells (**Figure 5G–I**). In addition, this PRM

specificity of RB2 was lost at neutral pH in which both PRMs and histones of the somatic cells

were positively stained (data not shown).

Discussion

Histopathology of the testes is the best non-clinical endpoint for the evaluation of

testicular toxicity. However, identification and interpretation of chemically induced side effects on

testis histology require fundamental expertise in spermatogenesis. If a drug candidate compound

has side effects on male germ cell development, further efforts toward drug evaluation should be

avoided. However, the results of non-clinical animal testing may not necessarily align with the

effects found in humans.[2, 3] Ideally, it is desirable to have an evaluation system that can easily

determine testicular toxicity with as much accuracy as possible in non-clinical toxicological

studies of drug development. However, there is currently no available staining technique to identify

male germ cell development, specifically in cases of complicated histology.

Kaneko et al.[12] demonstrated that RB2 dye at pH 10 specifically stained the nucleus of

human spermatozoa without staining other cellular components of the human seminal fluid,

providing a new method to evaluate sperm quality. The present study further demonstrates that this

RB2 staining technique is also applicable to other mammalian species such as well-established

rodent models used for evaluation of the testicular toxicity of drug candidates in pre-clinical

studies, providing a novel staining technique for visualizing the nuclei of male mouse haploid germ

cells. This demonstration that both human and rodent spermatogenic cells can be visualized by

RB2 staining may be useful for extrapolation of the effects of pharmaceuticals on the testes and

epididymis of rodents to humans in a non-clinical toxicity test under conditions of limited time

and resources.

In mice, the 12 stages (stages I–XII) of spermatogenesis were determined using the

combination of PNA lectin histochemistry for the acrosomes of spermatids and Hoechst staining

for the chromatin in the nuclei, according to the established criteria of stages based on the position,

size, and shape of acrosomes, which is a common method to clearly identify step 1–16

spermatids.[18, 19] With this approach, we found that RB2 staining could only visualize steps 12–16

haploid elongating and elongated spermatids, but not spermatogonia, spermatocyte, and steps 1–

11 spermatids at pH 10; these findings match those for human spermatozoa.[12] Primates and most

rodents, as well as a subset of other placental mammals, express two PRMs: PRM1 and PRM2.[6]

Both genes are transcribed in round spermatids (steps 7–9 in mice)[22, 23], and the mRNA is then

stored in the form of cytoplasmic ribonucleoprotein particles until their translation in elongating

and elongated spermatids (steps 12–16).[24, 25] Following transcript storage, mouse *Prm1* mRNA

seems to be translated earlier (stage 12) than *Prm2* mRNA (stage 14, 15).[26] Therefore, our results

suggest that RB2 stain specifically binds to PRMs expressed in the step 12–16 haploid spermatids

in mouse seminiferous tubules.[24-26]

We further detected aggregates in the mixture of RB2 dye (pH 10) with human sperm PRM-

or mouse synthetic PRM reference standards, but not with BSA standard or intracellular proteins

without PRMs extracted from the lysis of somatic cells (HeLa cells). These results suggest that a

certain molecular component of PRMs can chemically interact with a component of RB2.

Coomassie brilliant blue (CBB) staining is a widely used method for the routine visualization of

various proteins such as BSA, which binds via ionic bonds and van der Waals forces. However,

CBB staining is not specific for a certain protein, requiring an additional protein separation step

for identification, such as polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.[27] The present study thus highlights

the use of RB2 dye as a novel staining technique capable of the rapid and specific visualization of

PRMs without protein separation, which could offer breakthroughs in the field of reproductive

toxicology and andrology.

We further explored the mechanism by which RB2 dye stains PRMs. We hypothesized that

the unique binding specificity of RB2 with PRMs indicates an electrostatic ionic interaction.

Lysine (Lys) and Arg are two positively charged amino acids in proteins that have high aqueous

dissociation constants (~10.5 for lysine[28] and ~12.5 for Arg[29]), indicating a strong propensity to

carry a positive charge at neutral pH. In contrast, at pH > 10, Arg is a positively charged amino

acids, whereas Lys is a neutral residue.[28, 29] Therefore, the negative charge of the three sulfate

residues in RB2 could ionically combine with the guanidyl group in Arg at pH 10, but not with the

neutral chemical components of lysine. The present study demonstrated that RB2 specifically

stained step 12–16 spermatids, in which the majority of PRMs are translated, at pH 10, as

previously reported.[24-26], whereas the specificity of RB2 staining was lost at neutral pH when both

Lys and Arg are positively charged. This pH-dependent specificity could be due to differences in

the Arg content among the basic proteins, histones, transition proteins, and PRMs. PRMs are

typically short basic proteins with a high number of positively charged Arg-rich residues, allowing

the formation of a highly condensed complex with the paternal genomic DNA, which has a strong

negative charge.[30-33] The higher Arg content thus allows PRMs to form more stable complexes

with DNA than other basic proteins such as histones and transition proteins.[4] Lys and Arg account

for approximately 20–30% of the amino acids in histones, whereas Arg accounts for 70% of the

amino acids in PRMs.[4] Thus, the higher content of Arg in the PRMs of the step 12–16 spermatids

could explain the specificity of the novel RB2 staining technique under weakly alkaline conditions

(pH 10).

Finally, with respect to the technical application of this method for male reproductive

toxicity evaluation, we demonstrated that the percentage of RB2-positive spermatids in the

seminiferous tubules of mice was decreased following busulfan administration. In addition, no

RB2-positive spermatozoa were detected in the caput epididymis of busulfan-treated mice,

whereas spermatozoa of the cauda epididymis were stained with RB2 in both control and busulfan-

treated mice. These results suggest that busulfan administration during spermiogenesis and sperm

maturation decreases the abundance of PRMs to cause male infertility. Indeed, busulfan treatment

significantly decreased the percentage of motile or hyperactivated spermatozoa, as a common

index of male fertility. These results suggest that the RB2 staining technique can offer a rapid

assessment of the male reproductive toxicity of a drug, such as spermatogenic dysfunction and/or

impairment of sperm maturation, with simple visualization of the protamination of male haploid

germ cells, providing useful and supportive data to complement the results of conventional HE

staining.

The proposed method offers a more convenient and rapid tool for the visualization of PRMs

compared with immunohistochemical analysis using anti-PRM antibodies, which will be useful

not only for the field of reproductive toxicology but also in general research in the fields of

reproductive medicine and andrology to improve the diagnosis of infertility in both humans and

rodents. Altered levels of PRMs may result in increased susceptibility to injury of the spermatozoa

DNA, causing infertility or poor outcomes in assisted reproduction.[34] In general, mammalian

reproduction relies on successful transport of the paternal genome to the oocyte via motile

spermatozoa, and the formation of functional spermatozoa requires a specific and well-

orchestrated differentiation process in the testes.[35] PRMs have been suggested to be important for

remodeling of the chromatin complex following the elongation and condensation of the

spermatogenic cell nucleus into a hydrodynamic shape.[34, 36] Paternal chromatin is completely

remodeled from nucleo-histones (nucleosomes) to nucleo-protamines during spermiogenesis to

prepare for fertilization.[6, 34] In clinical studies, PRM deficiency was found to be related to the

exacerbation of sperm quality and to cause DNA fragmentation.[37] Thus, application of

spermatozoa with abnormalities in PRM abundance during assisted reproductive technology raises

serious concerns for the developing embryo.[38] Therefore, altered PRM abundance in spermatozoa

could serve as an important biomarker of male infertility. In this regard, use of RB2 as a novel and

specific staining technique of PRMs could enable the rapid evaluation of protamination during

spermiogenesis as supportive data for histopathological analysis in assisted reproduction.

Another major finding of the present study was that RB2 staining did not detect any

spermatozoa in the caput epididymis within 28 days after the administration of busulfan to mice

at 40 mg/kg body weight. Spermatogenesis is a complex process in which many spermatozoa are

produced from a relatively small pool of spermatogonial stem cells, which occurs during the entire

reproductive life of males.[35] To the best of our knowledge, most studies on busulfan have focused

largely on the testicular toxicity. As an alkylating agent, busulfan causes DNA damage by cross-

linking DNA, and was reported to specifically kill A1 spermatogonia (a type of spermatogonial

stem cell) as a side effect.[39] In mice, busulfan administered at 40 mg/kg body weight caused

complete depletion up to the pachytene spermatocytes in stage VIII within 12 days.[40] Since the

proliferation and differentiation of A1 spermatogonia into elongated spermatids takes

approximately 34.4 days in the testes[35], the spermatozoa in the caput epididymis were not

considered to be triggered by damage to the A1 spermatogonia within 28 days after busulfan

administration. In general, epididymal sperm toxicity evaluation may be more challenging than

the evaluation of testicular toxicity. The epididymis is a single, highly convoluted duct lined by a

complex pseudostratified epithelium consisting of multiple cell types, including principal cells,

basal cells, clear cells, apical cells, and halo cells.[41] The number and appearance of individual cell

types also vary between the segments of the epididymis (i.e., initial segment, caput, corpus, and

cauda). The present study demonstrated that RB2 is a specific dye for staining the spermatozoa

and could therefore increase the throughput of epididymal toxicity evaluation.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated a novel methodology for visualizing male haploid

germ cells using RB2 dye, which provides an important basis for evaluating the effects of

pharmaceuticals such as anticancer drugs on testicular and epididymal toxicity. However, this

study had some limitations. The data obtained were insufficient for time-course evaluation.

Spermatogenesis is a continuous, cyclical, and synchronized process that occurs in the epithelium

of the seminiferous tubules of the testes, spanning approximately 34.4 days in mice and 74 days

in humans.[35] In addition, sperm maturation requires approximately 10 days in both mice and

humans.[35] Chemicals may influence the testes and epididymis at any time point in these cycles.

Therefore, it is difficult to predict precisely when and where testicular and epididymal toxicity

may occur, which should not be evaluated at only one time point but rather over several time points

to further assess the potential recovery from drug toxicity, which is particularly important for

anticancer drugs. Thus, further investigations are needed to evaluate the time-course changes in

PRMs abundance in histological testes specimens and in the spermatozoa using the RB2 staining

technique.

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Conflict of interest

The authors do not have any conflicts of interest to declare.

Author contributions

SY conceived and designed the experiments. S Kitajima supervised this study. SY, TW, HM, KS,

and MF performed the experiments. SY, TW, S Kaneko, and S Kitajima discussed the results of

the data. SY drafted the manuscript. All authors critically revised the article for intellectual content.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Distribution of reactive blue 2 (RB2)-positive male germ cells in the seminiferous

tubules. (A, C, E, G, I, K, M, O, Q, S, U, W) Determination of stages (I–XII) and identification

of cell types. The nuclei of mouse control testis sections were stained with Hoechst 33258 (blue)

and the acrosomes were stained with PNA lectin histochemistry (green). M, spermatocytes

undergoing the first meiotic division; S1–16, steps 1–16 spermatids. White lines: S1–11. White

arrows: S12–16. Black arrows: RB2-positive S12–16 spermatids. Scale bars: 20 μm.

Figure 2. Representative photographs of hematoxylin and eosin (HE)- or reactive blue 2

(RB2)-stained testicular cross-sections from control and busulfan-treated mice. The incidence

of RB2-positive spermatids in the seminiferous tubules was examined via light microscopy. (A)

HE- or (D) RB2-stained sections from the testes of control mice. (B, C) HE- or (E, F) RB2-stained

sections from the testes of busulfan-treated mice. Black arrows: RB2-positive spermatids. (G)

Quantification of the percentage of RB2-positive spermatids in the seminiferous tubules from

control (200 tubules/section, n = 6) and busulfan-treated (200 tubules/section, n = 6) mice. Each

column shows the mean percentage (± SD) of seminiferous tubules not stained with RB2. Asterisks

indicate significant differences between the control and busulfan-treated groups (***P < 0.001).

Black arrows: RB2-positive spermatids. Scale bars: 20 μm.

Figure 3. Sperm parameters in the control and busulfan-treated mice. Percentage of (A)

motile or (B) hyperactivated spermatozoa in the control (n = 6) and busulfan-treated (n = 6) mice.

Reactive blue 2 (RB2)-stained spermatozoa from the cauda epididymis in the (C) control and (D)

busulfan-treated mice. RB2 staining of spermatozoa from the caput epididymis in the (E) control

mice and (F) busulfan-treated mice. Data are presented as mean ± SD. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01 vs.

control.

Figure 4. Representative photographs of hematoxylin (HE)- and reactive blue 2 (RB2)-

stained caput epididymal cross-sections from control and busulfan-treated mice. Low-

magnification images of the morphology in the caput epididymis of (A) control and (B) busulfan-

treated mice. High-magnification images of the morphology in the caput epididymis of (C) control

and (D) busulfan-treated mice. RB2-positive spermatozoa in the caput epididymis of (E) control

mice adjacent to the HE-stained section (C), with no RB2 staining detected in the (F) busulfan-

treated group adjacent to the HE-stained section (D). (G) RB2-positive spermatozoa in the caput

epididymis of the control under the highest magnification (1000×). Black arrows: RB2-positive

spermatozoa. Scale bars: (A, B) 500 μm, (C–F) 100 μm, (G) 20 μm.

Figure 5. Representative photographs of the mixture of reactive blue 2 (RB2) dye and

proteins. Aggregates detected in (A, D) human protamine, (B, E) mouse synthetic protamine 1,

and (C, F) mouse synthetic protamine 2 standards. No aggregates were detected in the RB2 dye

only, bovine serum albumin standard, and intracellular proteins (without protamines) extracted

from HeLa cells. Scale bars: (A–C, G–I) 100 μm, (D–F) 20 μm.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 5