

Doktorego-tesia
Doctoral Thesis

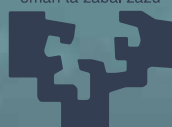
Lide Totorikaguena Iturriaga

**Sistema kannabinoidearen funtzioa
ugaztunen obarioen fisiologian eta
obozitoen heltze-prozesuan**

The role of the cannabinoid system in
ovarian physiology and oocyte
maturation in mammals

Leioa, 2019

eman ta zabal zazu



Universidad
del País Vasco

Euskal Herriko
Unibertsitatea

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physiology and oocyte maturation in mammals

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Leioa, 2019

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**MEDIKUNTZA
ETA ERIZAINZA
FAKULTATEA**
FACULTAD DE
MEDICINA Y
ENFERMERÍA

Euskal Herriko Unibertsitateak (EHU/UPV) diruz lagunduriko ikerketa. "Ikertzaileak prestatzeko doktoretza-aurreko beka" (PIF15/149) eta hiru hilabetetako egonaldia egiteko Bruselako Vrije Universiteit Brussel Unibertsitatean, Follicle Biology Unit (FOBI) ikerketa-taldeko Johan Smitz irakaslearen babespean.

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Dabilen harriari goroldiorik ez.

Esker onak

Gogoan dut nola, masterra egitera nindoala, laborategian hanka bat jarri orduko nire tesi zuzendaria izango zenak bota zidan lehenengo galdera: *“gustuko al duzu kozinatzea? Zientzia egitea bizkotxo bat egitea bezala delako”*. Eta tesi hau bukatzeaz nengoela nik bizitakoa eta hausnartutakoa borobiltzen zuen esaldia irakurri nuen Interneteko iritzi-artikulu batean: *“zientzia kozinatzea bezalakoa da: bakoitzak bere ukitua ematen dio, etxean eginda, maitasunez eginda eta familia eta lagunekin partekatuta, gozoagoa da”*.

Bagara, hortaz, sinisten dugunok zientzia gozoagoa eta hobe egitea posible dela bizitzak eta pertsonak erdigunean jarriz. Eta zorionekoa ni, bide malkartsu eta zirraragarri honetan, zientzia egiteko bestelako moduetan sinisten duzuenekin topo egin dudalako. Zortea izan dudalako eskuzabaltasunaz, elkartasunaz, maitasunaz eta poztasunaz inguraturik egoteagatik. Baina baita ere, lanaz, konstantziaz, kemenaz, disziplinaz eta pazientziaz. Niretzat zientzialari erreferenteak direnak aurrez aurre izan ditudalako. Eskerrik asko Ekaitz, mundu honetan sartzeko aukera emateaz gain erakutsi eta eskaini didazun guztiagatik. Prozesu honen giltza izan zarelako, eztabaidarako eta hausnarketarako iturri amaigabea. Eskerrik asko Naiara eman didazun konfiantza eta babesagatik. Zientziak dituen arantzei aurre egiteko zure aholku zintzoengatik. Eskerrik asko gure taldeari, TALDE hitzak bere osotasunean esan nahi duena erakutsi didazue, kolektiboki lan eginez, txikitasunean handi baikara. Zer esanik ez, nire eredu zairen neska gazte zientzialari bikain, baina, batik bat, pertsona izugarriei. Mila esker, Maider, Iraia eta, batez ere, zuri, Itziar. Baina bereziki Estiri, izan ahalko nukeen bidaiderik bereziena izateagatik, porturik ikusten ez bagenuen ere, amorerik eman gabe arraunean jarraitu duzulako. Sasi guztien gainetik, biok elkarrekin. Plazer bat izan da zurekin ikasi eta partekatutako guztia.

Bruselako familiari, *bedankt, merci, grazas, gràcies, grazie, gracias!* Zientziaren prekarietateak erbesteratu zintuzten eta enpatiagatik, akaso, hartu ninduzuen hain gozo. Zorionekoa ni, beste behin, zuek bezalako emakumeak ezagutzeagatik.

Eskerrik asko, bide honetan zehar babestu eta animatu nauzuen lagunei.

Amaitzeko, eskerrik beroenak etxekoei. Emandako sostengu, maitasun eta indarragatik. Nik neure buruarengan sinesten ez nuenetan ere, eskua eman eta altxatzen laguntzeagatik. Amumei, Gernikako bonbardaketatik biziraun zuten baserritarrei. Zuek su motelean irakindakotik edan dugulako gara garena. Eta, Ibai, mila esker bihotzez, bizitzako abentura honetan gozoagoa baita binaka ibiltzea bertan murgilduta.

Aipatu ez baina bihotzean zaituztedanei. Murrueen beste aldean egonda ere animoak ematen jarraitzen diguzuenoi.

“Pasatzen dugu bizitza urruneko adibideen bila miresgarriak diren pertsonen atzetik, eta azkenean konturatzen zara zure ondoan dagoena dela inoiz inon izan den jenderik onena. Jende xumea. Hala tokatutako lanetan energia guztia inbertitu ondoren, garagardo baten inguruan barre egiteko gai den jendea. Jende xumea. Defendatzen dituen gauzetan energia inbertitu ahala, bizitzari drama kentzen saiatzen dena” (O. Enbeita)

Gure hizkuntzan dugun esaera ederrenetarikoa da eta eskerrik asko.

Biba zuek!

Hitzaurrea

Esku artean duzun hau nazioarteko tesia dugu, doktore-tesia burutzeko ikerketak bi nazioetan egin baitira: Euskal Herriko Unibertsitatean (Leioako kanpuseko Medikuntza eta Erizaintza fakultatean) eta Flandriako Vrije Universiteit Brussel Unibertsitatean (Brusela hiriko Medikuntza eta Farmazia fakultatean). Beraz, tesi guztia bai euskaraz zein ingelesez idatzia izan da, bi atal izan ezik. Sarrerako atala euskara hutsean idatzi da eta emaitzen atala, aldiz, ingelesez. Izan ere, emaitzak 4 ataletan banatu dira eta bakoitzaren hasieran, sarrera txiki bat, egin diren esperimentuen materialak eta metodoak eta eztabaida laburki azalduta ageri dira.

Foreword

This is an international thesis that has been carried out over two countries: at the University of the Basque Country (Faculty of Medicine and Nursing, Leioa) and at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel University in Flanders (Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy, Brussels). Therefore, the entire thesis has been written in both Basque and English languages, with the exception of two sections. The introduction, that has been written entirely in Basque and the results in English. In fact, the results have been divided into 4 sections and at the beginning of each one there is a brief introduction, materials and methods of the experiments carried out and the discussion.

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Laburpena Summary

Laburpena

Ugaztun emeen obozitoen heltze-prozesua ugalkortasunean garrantzia handia duen prozesua da, obulua ernaldua izateko beharrezkoa delako. Obozitoak obulutegiko folikuluetan sortzen dira eta lehenengo meiosiaren profasean daude geldituta, obulutegietan. Oraindik ez dira ondo ezagutzen zeintzuk diren meiosiaren berraktibazioa eragiten duten seinaleak baina hauei esker abiatuko da obulazioa non, gizakietan, hilero obozito bakarra obulutegitik irtengo den. Gero eta ebidentzia gehiago dago seinale horietako asko G proteinei loturiko hartzailen (GPCR) menpe daudela eta horien aktibazioak edo inaktibazioak obozitoen heltze-prozesua modulatzeko dituzten seinaleztapen ur jauziak pizten dituela. Gakoa da aurkitzea zeintzuk diren berpizkunde meiotikoa eragiten eta erregulatzen dituzten kanpo seinaleak, seinale horiek farmakoen bidez kontrolatuz heltze-prozesua ere kontrolatu genezakeelako. Horrela, ikusi da kannabinoideek eragiten duten seinaleztapena eta obozitoen heltze-prozesua hasteko gertatu behar dena oso antzekoa dela, beraz, prozesuan lagungarriak izan litezkeen estekatzailen interesgarriak ditugu.

Tesi honetan sistema kannabinoidearen funtzioa aztertu da ugaztun emeen folikulugenesian, obogenesian eta obozitoen heltze-prozesuan eta haren parte-hartzea baieztatzeaz gain, THC fitokannabinoideak obozitoen heltze-prozesua modulatzeko duela ikusi da. Gainera, etorkizunerako kannabinoideen erabilera terapeutikoa aztertzen jarraitzea interesgarria litzateke, besteak beste, obozitoen *in vitro* heltze (IVM) medioetan osagai gisa erabilita. Nabarmendu behar da obozitoen *in vitro* heltzea askoz alternatiba onuragarriagoa, erosoagoa eta arrisku gutxiagokoa izango litzatekeela ugalkortasun klinika batera joan behar den edozein pazienterentzako, obarioen estimulaziorako beharrezkoak diren hormonak hartzea ekidingo litzatekeelako edo behintzat dosia murriztuko litzatekeelako. Are gehiago, hormonien estimulazioa kontraindikatu dagoen emakumeentzako haurdunaldia lortzeko aukera bakarra izan ahalko litzateke.

Ugalkortasuna, obozitoen heltzea, IVM, sistema kannabinoidea, THC fitokannabinoidea

Summary

Oocyte's maturation is a very important process in fertility. The oocyte meiotic maturation is a complex process whereby immature oocytes acquire the characteristics required for successful fertilization and embryogenesis. For that, immature oocytes arrested at the diplotene of prophase I (GV) must resume meiosis until the metaphase II of meiosis (MII). However, although all the mechanisms that leads for the reactivation of meiosis are not still known, there are known certain molecules that are able to modulate this process. In this sense, we were interested in the role that cannabinoids could have as IVM promoters because cannabinoid's molecular pathway is similar to the one by which oocyte's meiosis resumption is activated.

That's why, the aim of this Doctoral Thesis was to study the function of the cannabinoid system in the process of folliculogenesis, ovogenesis and oocyte maturation. The results obtained in the following PhD thesis confirm its participation. Beyond that, we have seen that in fact, the phytocannabinoid (THC) modulates oocyte maturation. We have characterized the role of the phytocannabinoid THC in the *in vitro* maturation (IVM) process, due to its possible use in clinic is most feasible and reliable than any synthetic cannabinoid. The most important goal of IVM method is that could be the only hope or alternative for a not insignificant number of patients.

Fertility, oocyte maturation, IVM, cannabinoid system, THC phytocannabinoid

Laburduren zerrenda

List of abbreviations

Laburduren zerrenda

- 2n:** Diploidea
- 2-AG:** 2-arakidonoilglizerola
- α-MEM:** Alpha- medio esentzial minimoa
- AC:** Adenilato ziklasa
- ACEA:** Arakidonoil-2'-kloroetilamida
- ACTB:** Aktina zitoplasmikoa
- AEA:** N-arakidonoiletanolamina (anandamida)
- AKT:** B proteina kinasa
- pAKT:** B proteina kinasa fosforilatua
- AMP:** Adenosina 5'-monofosfatoa
- ANOVA:** Bariantzaren analisisa
- ART:** Lagunduriko ugalketa teknikak
- ATP:** Adenosina 5'-trifosfatoa. Adenosine 5' Triphosphate
- BMP15:** Hezur-proteina morfogenetikoa 15
- BSA:** Behi-serum albumina.
- Ca²⁺:** Kaltzioa
- cAMP:** AMP ziklikoa
- CB1:** 1 motako kannabinoide-hartzailea
- CB2:** 2 motako kannabinoide-hartzailea
- CBD:** Kannabidiola
- CBN:** Kannabinola
- CC:** Kumuluko zelulak
- CDC25B:** M faseko fosfatasa eragilea
- CDK1:** Ziklinaren menpeko kinasa
- cDNA:** DNA osagarria
- cGMP:** Guanosina monofosfato ziklikoa
- Cnr1^{-/-}:** CB1 hartzailerik gabeko sagua
- Cnr2^{-/-}:** CB2 hartzailerik gabeko sagua
- Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}:** CB1 eta CB2 hartzailerik gabeko sagua
- CNP:** C-motako peptido natriuretikoa
- COC:** Kumulu-obozito konplexua
- CREB:** cAMPren erantzunerako elementuak kodetzen dituen DNA zatiari lotzen zaion transkripzio faktorea
- CYCB:** B ziklina
- CYP11A1:** Zitokromo P450, familia 11, subfamilia A, polipeptidoa 1
- DMSO:** Dimetil sulfoxidoa
- DNA:** Azido desoxirribonukleikoa
- dNTP:** Deoxirribonukleotido trifosfatoa
- E2:** Estrogenoa
- eCG:** Behorraren hormona gonadotropina korionikoa
- ECL:** Kimioluminiszentzia-areagotzailea
- ECS:** Sistema endokannabinoidea
- EDTA:** Azido diaminoetanotetraazetikoa
- EGF:** Epidermiseko hazkuntza-faktorea
- EGFR:** Epidermiseko hazkuntza-faktorearen hartzailea
- ERK1/2:** 1 eta 2 motako seinale extrazelularren kinasa erregulatzaileak
- pERK1/2:** Fosforilatutako 1 eta 2 motako seinale extrazelularren kinasa erregulatzaileak
- FAAH:** Gantz-azidoen amida hidrolasa
- FBS:** Behi fetuaren seruma
- FF-MAS:** Meiosia aktibatzen duen likido folikularreko esterola
- FSH:** Hormona folikulu-estimulatzailea
- FSHR:** Hormona folikulu-estimulatzailearen hartzailea
- G_α:** G proteina heterotrimerikoen alpha azpiunitatea
- G_{βγ}:** G proteina heterotrimerikoen beta eta gamma azpiunitateak
- G_{ia}:** G proteina inhibitzailea
- G_{sa}:** G proteina estimulatzailea
- GAPDH:** Glizeraldehido 3-fosfato Deshidrogenasa
- GDF9:** Hazkundearen desberdintzapen-faktorea 9
- GDP:** Guanosina 5'-difosfatoa
- GnRH:** Gonadotropinen jariatzen-jariapen-hormona

GPCR: G proteinei loturiko hartzailea	NPR2: 2-motako peptido natriuretikoaren hartzailea
GTP: Guanosina 5'-trifosfatao	P450scc: P450 Kolesterolaren alboko katearen zatiketa-entzima
GV: Besikula germinala	PAGE: Poliakrilamidazko gel elektroforesia
GVBD: Besikula germinalaren haustura	PB: Korpuskulu polarra
hCG: Giza gonadotropina korionikoa	PBS: Fosfato/gatz-indargetzailea
hpf: Ernaldu osteko orduak	PCR: Polimerasaren kate-erreakzioa
hRNA: RNA heterogeneoa	PCOS: Obario polikistikoaren sindromea
HTF: Giza tubuluko jariakina	PDE: Fosfodiesterasa
HU-210: [(6aR,10aR)-3-(1,1-Dimetil-heptil)-6a,7,10,10a-tetrahidro-1-hidroxi-6,6 dimetil-6H-dibenzo[b,d]piran-9-metanola]	PFA: Paraformaldehidoa
ICSI: Espermatzoide-injekzio intrazitoplasmatikoa	PI3K: Fosfatidilinositol-3 kinasa
IP3: Inositol trifosfatao	PKA: cAMParen menpeko proteina kinasa
IP3R: Inositol trifosfatoaren hartzailea	PVA: polibinil alkohola
IVF: <i>In vitro</i> ernalketa	PVDF: Polibinilideno difluoroa
IVM: Obozitoen <i>in vitro</i> heltzea/ Obozitoen <i>in vitro</i> heltze-prozesua	qRT-PCR: Polimerasaren kate-erreakzio kuantitatiboa denbora errealean
IZK: Immunozitokimika	RAS: Ras proteinak (arratoiren sarkoma)
JNK: Jun N-bukaera kinasa	RNA: Azido erribonukleikoa
JWH-015: (2-Metil-1-propil-1H-indol-3-il)-1-naftalenil-metanona	rRNA: RNA erribosomal
JWH-133: 3-(1,1-dimethylbutyl)-6aR,7,10,10aR-tetrahydro-6,6,9-trimethyl-6H-dibenzo[b,d]pyran	RT: Alderantzizko transkripzioa
KSOM: Potasioz osagarritutako simplex metodo bidez optimizaturiko ingurunea	RT-PCR: Alderantzizko transkripzio-polimerasaren kate-erreakzioa
LH: Hormona luteinizatzailea	SDS: Sodiododezil sulfatao
LHCGR: Hormona luteinizatzailearen hartzailea	Ser: Serina
MI: Metafase I	TAE: Tris/azetato indargetzailea
MII: Metafase II	TBS: Tris/gatz-indargetzailea
MAGL: Monoazilglizerollipasa	TEMED: N,N,N,N'-tetrametiletlenodiamina
MAP: Mitogenoz aktibaturiko proteina	THC: Δ^9 -tetrahidrokannabinola
MAPK: MAP kinasa	Thr: Treonina
MPF: Heltzea sustatzeko faktorea	tRNA: Transferentziazko RNA
mRNA: RNA mezularia	Tyr: Tirosina
n: Haploidea	WB: Western blot
NAPE: N-arakidonoilfosfatidiletanolamina	WT: Wild-type, basatia
NAT: N-aziltransferasa	ZP: Mintz peluzidoa
	ZP1: Mintz peluzidoa glikoproteina 1
	ZP2: Mintz peluzidoa glikoproteina 2
	ZP3: Mintz peluzidoa glikoproteina 3
	ZP4: Mintz peluzidoa glikoproteina 4

List of abbreviations

2n: Diploid	DMSO: Dimethyl sulfoxide
2-AG: 2-Arachidonoylglycerol	DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid
α- MEM: alpha- Minimum essential medium	dNTP: Deoxy-Nucleoside triphosphate
AC: Adenylyl cyclase	E2: Estrogen
ACEA: Arachidonyl-2'-chloroethylamide	eCG: Equine chorionic gonadotropin
ACTB: Actin, cytoplasmic	ECL: Enhanced chemoluminescence
AEA: N-arachidonylethanolamine, anandamide	ECS: Endocannabinoid system
AKT: Protein kinase B	EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
pAKT : phosphorylated-AKT	EGF: Epidermal growth factor
AMP: Adenosine monophosphate	EGFR: Epidermal growth factor receptor
ANOVA: Analysis of variance	ERK1/2: Extracellular-signal-regulated kinase 1 and 2
ART: Assisted reproductive techniques	pERK1/2: Phosphorylated extracellular-signal-regulated kinase 1 and 2
ATP: Adenosine triphosphate	FAAH: Fatty acid amide hydrolase
BMP15: Bone morphogenetic protein 15	FBS: Fetal bovine serum
BSA: Bovine Serum Albumin	FF-MAS: Follicle fluid meiosis activating sterol
Ca²⁺: Calcium	FSH: Follicle-stimulating hormone
cAMP: Cyclic adenosine-3', 5'- monophosphate	FSHR: Follicle-stimulating hormone receptor
CB1: Cannabinoid receptor type 1	G_α : Alpha subunit of the heterotrimeric G protein
CB2: Cannabinoid receptor type 2	G_{βγ} : Beta-gamma subunits of the heterotrimeric G protein
CBD: Cannabidiol	G_{ia} : Gi-protein inhibitor
CBN: Cannabinol	G_{sa} : G stimulatory
CC: Cumulus cells	GAPDH: Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
CDC25B: M-phase inducer phosphatase 2	GDF9: Growth differentiation factor 9
CDK1: Cyclin dependent kinase 1	GDP: Guanosine diphosphate
cDNA: Complementary Deoxyribonucleic acid	GnRH: Gonadotropin Releasing Hormone
cGMP: Cyclic guanosine monophosphate	GPCR: G protein coupled receptors
Cnr1^{-/-} : Mice missing CB1 receptor	GTP: Guanosine Triphosphate
Cnr2^{-/-} : Mice missing CB2 receptor	GV: Germinal vesicle
Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-} : Mice missing CB1 and receptors	GVBD: Germinal vesicle breakdown
CNP: C-type natriuretic peptide	hCG: Human chorionic gonadotropin
COC: Cumulus-oocyte complex	hpf: Hours post fertilization
CREB: cAMP response element-binding	hRNA: Heterogeneous RNA
CYCB: Cyclin B	HTF: Human Tubal Fluid
CYP11A1: Cytochrome P450, family 11, subfamily A, polypeptide 1	

HU-210: [(6aR,10aR)-3-(1,1-Dimethyl-heptyl)-6a,7,10,10a-tetrahydro-1-hydroxy-6,6 dimethyl-6H-dibenzo [b,d]pyran-9-methanol]

ICC: Immunocytochemistry

ICSI: Intracytoplasmic sperm injection

IP3: Inositol triphosphate

IP3R: Inositol triphosphate receptor

IVF: *In vitro* fertilization

IVM: *in vitro* maturation

JNK: Jun N-terminal kinase

JWH-015: 2-Methyl-1-propylindol-3-yl naphthalen-1-yl methanone

JWH-133: 3-(1,1-dimethylbutyl)-6aR,7,10,10aR-tetrahydro-6,6,9-trimethyl-6H-dibenzo[b,d]pyran

KSOM : Potassium simplex optimization medium

LH: Luteinizing Hormone

LHCGR: Luteinizing Hormone/choriogonadotropin receptor

MI: Metaphase I

MII: Metaphase II

MAP: Mitogen Activated Protein

MAPK: Mitogen Activated Protein Kinase

MGLL: Monoglyceride lipase

MPF: Maturation promoting factor

mRNA: Messenger ribonucleic acid

n: Haploid

NAPE: N-Acylphosphatidylethanolamine

NPR2: Natriuretic peptide receptor 2

P450scc: Cholesterol side-chain cleavage enzyme

PAGE: Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

PB: Polar body

PBS: Phosphate-buffered saline

PCOS: Polycystic ovary syndrome

PCR: Polymerase chain reaction

PDE: Phosphodiesterase

PFA: Paraformaldehyde

PI3K: Phosphoinositide 3-kinase

PKA: Protein Kinase A

PVA: Polyvinyl alcohol

PVDF: Polyvinylidene Fluoride

qRT-PCR: Quantitative real time PCR

RAS: Rat Sarcoma

RNA: Ribonucleic Acid

rRNA: Ribosomal RNA

RT: Reverse Transcriptase

RT-PCR: Reverse Transcriptase- Polymerase Chain Reaction

SDS: Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate

Ser: Serine

TAE: Tris-acetate-EDTA

TBS: Tris-buffered saline

TEMED: N,N,N',N'-Tetramethylethylenediamine

THC: Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol

Thr: Threonine

tRNA: Transfer RNA

Tyr: Tyrosine

WB: Western blot

WT: Wild-type

ZP: Zona Pellucida

ZP1: Zona pellucida glycoprotein 1

ZP2: Zona pellucida glycoprotein 2

ZP3: Zona pellucida glycoprotein 3

ZP4: Zona pellucida glycoprotein 4

1

Sarrera

Introduction

1. Sarrera

1.1 Obozitoaren heltze-prozesua

Obozitoa enbrioiaren hazkuntzaren oinarria da, ernaldutako zelulabakarreko zigototik hasita, independenteki bizirauteko gai den erabat osatutako eta funtzionala den organismo zelulaniztuneraino. Hori horrela izanda, obozitoa oso zelula konplexua da. Obozitoaren hazkundera eta heltzea oso ondo koordinaturiko prozesuak dira eta, akatsak egonez gero, epe luzean ondorioak izan ditzake ugalkortasunean eta, ondorioz, ondorengoen osasunean. Izan ere, heltze-prozesuak baldintzatzen du sortu behar den izaki berria (*Krisher, 2013*). Hortaz, obozitoaren garapen gaitasuna funtsezkoa da enbrioiaren garapenerako. Obozitoak enbrioiari osagai kromosomikoaren erdia ematen dio baina bi gurasoen genomak ez dira simetrikoak eta ez diote ekarpen berdina egiten enbrioiari (*Keefe, 2015*).

Obozitoak zelula oso espezializatuak dira eta espermatozoideekin batera prozesu meiotikoa burutzeko gai diren zelula bakarrak dira. Gainera, obozitoa ernaldutako eta enbrioiaren garapen goiztiarra aurrera eraman ahal izateko beharrezkoa da bai gameto emeak zein arrak gaitasun genetiko eta funtzional guztiak eskuratu izana (*Rahman eta lank., 2008*). Ez hori bakarrik, obozitoa izaki berri bat sortzeko beste zelula baten DNA barneratzeko gain den zelula bakarra da (*Rahman eta lank., 2008*).

Organismo baten ugalketa sexualaren lehen fasea gametogenesis da, obulutegietan eta testikuluetan dauden zelula germinaletatik gametoak eratzeko prozesua. Prozesu horri oogenesis deritzen emeetan eta espermatogenesis arretan eta zelula germinal haploideak (n) (obozitoak eta espermatozoideak) sortuko dira (*Rahman eta lank., 2008*). Hortaz, beharrezkoa da ernalketaren mekanismoak ulertzeko obozitoan gertatzen diren aldaketak zehatz-mehatz jakitea, jatorri enbrionariotik hasita ernaltzeko gai den zelula oso espezializatua bihurtzeraino, II. metafaseko estadioan dagoen obozitoraino, alegia.

1.1.1 Folikulogenesisia

Eme ugaztun guztien obozitoak fetuaren garapenean zehar sortzen dira. Horietako milaka obulutegian ageri dira eta bakoitza folikulu primordialen barruan dago. Folikulogenesisia prozesu jarraitua da, obulazioarekin hasi eta folikuluaren endekapenarekin (atresia) amaitzen dena. Prozesu horretan folikulua garatu ez ezik, obozitoa hazten da, pikor-geruzako zelulak eta teka-zelulak ugaritzen dira, antroa izeneko barrunbea agertzen da eta esteroidogenesis hasten da (*Rimon-Dahari eta lank., 2016*).

Obulutegietako oinarrizko unitatea folikulua da; obozito, pikor-geruzako zelulez eta teka zelulez osatuta dagoena. Izan ere, obulutegia garapen fase desberdinetan dauden folikuluen bilduma heterogeneo batez osatuta dago. Obulutegia, gonada femeninoa, zelula germinalen iturria da eta baita ere hormona sexual esteroideen hornitzaile nagusia (*McGee eta Hsueh, 2000*).

Ugaztunetan, folikulugenesia obozitoa pikor-geruzako zelula deituriko geruza bakarreko zelula aitzindariekin elkartzean hasten da, folikulu primordialak sortzean, hain zuzen ere. Espeziearen arabera, jaio aurretik edo ostean gertatzen da (*McGee eta Hsueh, 2000*). Esate baterako, behien, ardien eta gizakien kasuan, folikulu primordialak bizitza fetalean eratzen dira eta saguetan eta hamsterretan jaio eta handik gutxira (*Kurilo, 1981; McNatty eta lank., 1995; Fortune, 2003; Kezele eta Skinner, 2003; Wang eta Roy, 2007*). Pikor-geruzako zelulaz inguraturik ez dauden obogoniak obulutegitik kanporatzen dira (*Motta eta lank., 1997*).

Ugaztun emeean, jaiotzean, folikulu primordialen barnean dauden obozitoak diplotenoko I. profasean geldituta daude, zelula folikular lauez inguratuta. Adinarekin eta hilekoaren ziklo (gizakietan) edota ziklo estral (gainontzeko ugaztun gehienetan) bakoitzaren agerpenarekin, folikuluen erreserba kantitatean eta kalitatean gutxitzen doa, ugaztunen ugalketa adina zehaztuz (*Broekmans eta lank., 2007*). Esaterako, gizakietan, 500 obozito baino gutxiago obulatzten dira ugaltze-bizitzan zehar, baina jaiotzerakoan 300.000-400.000 obozito inguru daude (*Block, 1953; Forabosco eta lank., 1991; Hansen eta lank., 2008*). Beraz, oro har, 1600 folikulu primarioetatik bakarrak beteko du folikulugenesi prozesua eta obulaziora iritsiko da. Sexualki heltzean (gizakietan nerabezaroan), folikuluak multzoka hazten dira eta garapen fase guztietatik pasatu behar dira: folikulu primordiala, primarioa, sekundarioa, aurreantrala, antrala, dominatzailea eta obulatzaila (*Fair, 2003*). Gizakien kasuan, prozesu osoa egiteko, folikulu primarioaren hasierako faseetik obulazio aurreko folikulura, 6 hilabete baino gehiago behar direla kalkulatu da. Karraskarietan, folikulugenesiaren iraupena gizakian baino askoz ere laburragoa da, 30 egun ingurukoa. 28 egun behar dira folikulu primarioaren aktibaziotik antro folikularra daukan folikulu sekundarioa heldu arte. Behin fase horretan, folikuluak hormona zirkulatzaileekiko sentikorak dira eta hurrengo ziklo estralean eskuratuko dira, 2-3 egunen buruan obulazio aurreko folikuluetan (De Graaf-en folikulu ere deitua) bihurtuz (*McGee eta Hsueh 2000*).

Egoera latentean dauden folikulu primordialak etengabe multzokatzen eta metatzen dira eta oraindik ez daude gonadotropina hormonaren menpe. Folikuluak garatzen doazen heinean eta fase antralera iristen direnean (obulazio aurreko etapa) gonadotropinen eraginaren menpe egongo dira. Antro folikularra deituriko barrunbea sortzen denean pikor-geruzako zelulak bi zelula motetan banatzen dira: muralak (esteroidogenesia bultzatzen dute) eta kumuluko zelulak (obozitoaren aldamenean daude) (*Rimon Dahari eta lank., 2016*). Gonadotropinek antro folikularren hazkundera bultzatzen dute eta, azkenean, obozitoaren eta *corona radiata*-ren (obozitoa inguratzen duen pikor-geruzako zelulez osaturiko geruza) artean dauden zelulen arteko loturen apurketa, AMP ziklikoaren (cAMP) kontzentrazioa jaisten delarik. Orduan hasiko da obulazioa (*Picton eta lank., 1998*). Folikuluek ez badute garapenarekin jarraitzen endekatu egingo dira, hau da, atresia egoeran sartuko dira.

Ziklo bakoitzean garatzen den (folikulugenesia hasten duen) folikuluen kopurua erlatiboa da eta zenbait faktorek baldintzatuko dute: inaktibo dauden folikuluen gordailuaren tamainak, obulutegira heltzen den hormona folikulu estimulatzaile (FSH) kantitateak eta gonadotropinekiko folikuluek daukaten sentikortasunak. Aurretiaz aipatu bezala, folikuluen hazkundera prozesua jarraitua da eta ez da eteten egoera fisiologikoa edozein delarik ere. Beti gertatzen ez dena da De Graaf-en folikuluen eraketara

bideratzen duen heltze-prozesu osoa eta, beraz, ernaldia izateko gaitasuna duen obozitoaren eraketa (*Adashi eta Lank., 1991*).

- **Folikulugenesiaren faseak**

Ziklo bakoitzean, obulatzeko gaitasuna duten obozitoak sortuko dituzten folikuluak hormona gonadotropikoek zehaztuko dituzte. Hau da, teka zeluletan hormona luteinizatzailearen (LH) hartzaileek (LHCGR edo LHR) eta pikor-geruzako zeluletan FSH hormonarenak (FSHR) (*Espey, 1974*). FSH maila jaistean hormona honen hartzaile kopuru txikiena duten folikuluak atresian sartuko dira. Hala ere, hormonaren seinaleztapenaren inguruko zehaztasunak 1.1.2 atalean garatuko dira

Hauek dira, hurrenez hurren, folikulu motak (**1.1 irudia**):

- Folikulu primordiala:** Atresia prozesutik biziraun duen obozito primarioa epitelioko zelula lauen geruza bakarraz (aurre-pikor geruzako zelulak) inguratutik dago. Obozitoa txikia eta heldugabea da eta inguratzen duten pikor-geruzako zelulen efektu inhibitzaileari esker I. meiosis profasean etenda mantentzen da. Ugaztunetan, folikulu primordialak obulutegien garapenaren oinarritzko unitatea dira eta obozitoa ingurune kontrolatua egotea bermatuko dute, odol-fluxutik hel daitezkeen kaltegarriak diren substantzietatik babestuz. Gizakietan, folikuluen garapena fetuaren 4. hilabetetik aurrera hasten da (*Baker, 1963*).
- Folikulu primarioa:** folikulu primordialaren aktibazioa hastean folikulua helduz joango da folikulu primario bihurtu arte. Oraindik ez da ezagutzen zerk bultzatzen duen folikulu primordialetik primarioerako aldaketa (*Moor eta Lank., 1990*) nahiz eta jakina den erregulazioa obulutegi barnekoa dela eta gonadotropinekiko independentea (*Gosden eta Lee, 2010*). Fase honetan, obozitoa bera hazten doa eta pikor-geruzako zelulak ugaritzen eta desberdintzen hasten dira jardura mitotikoa oso altua dutelako, epitelioko zelula lauak kubiko bihurtuz (*Fair, 2003; Fortune eta Lank., 2000*). Etapa honetan pikor-geruzako zelulek ez dute inongo efektu inhibitzailearik obozitoaren hazkuntzan baina bai meiosis (*Thibault eta Lank., 1987*). Folikulu primordialaren hazkuntzaren aktibazioa hazkuntzaren desberdintzapen-faktorea 9 (GDF9) eta hezur-proteina morfogenetikoa 15 (BMP15) bezalako proteinei esker ematen da. GDF-9 hazkunde faktore β -eraldatzailearen (TGF β) familiako proteina espezifiko da, ugaztun guztien obozitoek ekoizten dutena (*Eppig, 2001*). BMP-15 ere familia berdineko proteina da eta bi hauen arteko sinergia beharrezkoa da ugaztunen folikuluen eta obarioen hazkunde normala egoteko (*Eppig, 2001*). Pikor-geruzako zelulen ugaritzea estimulatzen dute FSH hormonarekin batera edo gabe (*Eppig eta Lank., 2002*). Aipatu behar da zelula horiek jardura mitotikoa altua dutela eta, ondorioz, folikulua inguratzen duten zelulen geruzak ugarituz joango direla epitelioko geruzatua sortuz eta folikuluen tamaina handituz. Obozitoaren eta pikor-geruzako zelulen artean glikoproteinez osatutako geruza extrazelularra osatzen da, hots, mintz peluzidoa (ZP). Ia ornodun guztien obozitoak daude, gutxienez, glikoproteina geruza batez inguratuak eta leinu bakoitzean desberdin izendatzen da: koriona arrainetan, bilkin bitelinoa anfibioetan, bilkin peribitelinoa narrastietan eta hegaztietan eta mintz peluzidoa ugaztunetan (*Gupta, 2018*). Mintz peluzidoa 3 glikoproteinek osatzen dute (ZP1, ZP2, ZP3 saguetan eta ZP4 gehigarria gizakietan) eta oso antolatua dagoen egitura dinamikoa da. Gainera, funtsezkoa da obogenesirako, ernalketarako eta

enbrioiaren garapen goiztiarrerako, obozitoa elikatu eta babesten baitu. Gainera, espermatozoiden elkartzean laguntzen du eta polispermia blokeatzen laguntzen du (*Gupta, 2018*).

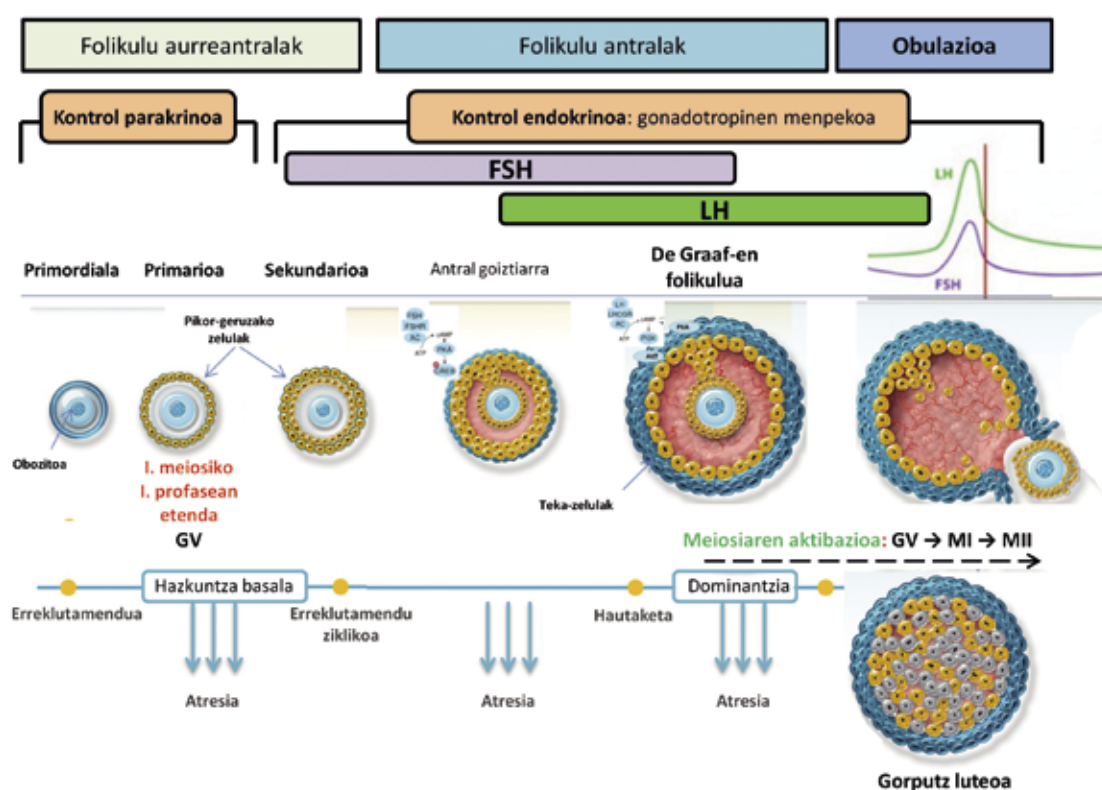
- c. **Folikulu sekundarioa edo aurreantrala:** Pikor-geruzako zelulak ugarituz doaz FSH hormonaren eraginez eta zelula horien bi geruza edo gehiago eratzen dira tamainaz handitu den obozito primarioaren inguruan. Ondoren, obulutegiaren estromako zeluletatik teka zelulak gauzatzen dira eta, alde batetik, barrualdeko teka sortzen da eta, bestetik, baskularizazio handiko kanpoaldeko teka, geruza bien arten odol-hodiak eta linfuzitoak agertuz (*Reynolds eta lank. 2002*). Barrualdeko teka xafla basaletik hurbil dauden zelula epiteloideek osatzen dute eta LH hormonarako hartzaileak dituzte. Kanpoaldeko teka zelulak dira estromako zelulekin elkartzen direnak kanpoaldeko teka osatzeko eta kanpoko teka geruzari esker, folikuluak hazkunde handiagoa ahalbidetzen duten faktore endokrino sistemikoak askatzen dira eta zelula kanpoko espazioan fluxu folikularrez beteriko barrunbeak eratzen dira (*Hirshfield, 1991*).

Ostean, zelula folikularren artean likidoz betetako gune bat sortuko da, antro folikularra (**folikulu antral goiztiarra**). Tekak zeluletan, LHak esteroidogenesia bultzatzen du eta kolesteroletik abiatuta androgenoak ekoizten dira (batez ere, androstenediona). Horiek xafla basaletik zehar pikor-geruzako zeluletara barreiatzen dira eta estradiolean bihurtzen dira FSH hormonak estimulatoriko aromatasaren entzimari esker (*Zlotkin eta lank., 1986*). Aipatu behar da folikulu antralek FSH eta LH hormonon beharra dutela euren garapenerako eta obulaziorako. FSHa beharrezkoa da, batez ere, folikulu antralaren biziraupenerako, pikor-geruzako zelulen biziraupenerako, LH hartzaileen adierazpenerako eta estradiolaren ekoizpenerako. FSHa G proteinari loturiko bere hartzailean lotzen da eta adenil ziklasa (AC)/cAMP/proteina kinasa A (PKA) bidezidor klasikoa aktibatzen du. Horrela CREB (cAMP-responso element-binding, ingelesez) transkripzio faktorea fosforilatzen da eta, ondorioz, aromatasaren eta LHaren hartzailea aktibatzen dira. LHari esker, obulazioa eragingo duten seinaleak pizten dira (*Sanchez eta Smits, 2012*). FSHak PKAren beste bide independente batzuk ere aktibatzen ditu, esaterako, fosfoinositola 3-kinasa (PI3K) bidezko B proteina kinasa (AKT) (*Ulloa-Aguirre eta lank., 2007*).

- d. **Folikulu tertziarioa, obulazio aurrekoa edo De Graaf-en folikulua:** Folikulua garatzen eta antroa handitzen doan heinean pikor-geruzako zelulak zeharo diferentziazatuta daude bi zelula funtzionaletan: alde batetik, pikor-geruzako zelula muraletan, zeinek folikuluaren horma estaltzen baitute eta xafla basalarekin kontaktuan dagoen epitelioko geruzatua osatzen baitute. Bestetik, kumuluko pikor-geruzako zeluletan. Horiek, obozitoaren inguruan zelula zilindrikoen hainbat geruza osatzen dituzte, *corona radiata* barne (*Eppig, 2001*). Azkenik, LHaren obulazioaren aurreko gailurrak seinale jakin batzuk aktibatuko ditu eta obulazioa piztuko da obozitoa obiduktuko finbrietarantz askatuz (*Baerwald, eta lank., 2012; Sanchez eta Smits 2012*). Folikuluak kumuluko obozito konplexua (COC) askatzeko gaitasuna lortzen du LHaren edo giza gonadotropina korionikoa (hCG) dosi batekin estimulatua izatean. LHaren emendioak, obulazioa ez ezik, beste hainbat prozesu bultzatuko ditu: obozitoaren meiosisaren berraktibazioa pizten da II. metafaserako arte, kumuluko zelulak hedatu egiten dira eta folikuluaren horma hautsi egiten da COC obiduktura askatzeko. Bestalde, pikor-geruzako zelula muraletan eta teka-zelulek luteinizazio prozesua hasiko dute. Pikor-geruzako zelula muraletan eta

teka zelulak luteinizazioarekin hasiko dira eta, COC obulatu ondoren, pikor-geruzako zelulak eta teka zelulak progesteronak sortzen duen guruin endokrino baskularizatuan bereiziko dira: gorputz luteoan.

Laburbilduz, folikulugenesian, folikuluen hazkundera gertatzeaz gain, hormona esteroideak ekoiztu eta jariatzen dira. Hormona horiek zeregin autokrinoa daukate folikuluen garapenean eta endokrinoa *feedback*-mekanismoan, FSHaren eta LHaren ekoizpena eta askapena kontrolatzeko nerbio-sistema zentralean. Hortaz, ugaztunetan esteroidogenesisia 2 zelula/2 gonadotropina modeloaren bidez azaltzen da. Modelo horretan, LHaren eraginez teka zeluletan androgenoak ekoizten dira kolesteroletik abiatuta eta, ondoren, FSHaren eraginez, estrogenoetan transformatzen dira pikor-geruzako zeluletan.



1.1 irudia. Folikulugenesiaren fase nagusien laburpena. Folikulugenesian folikulu primordialak aktibatzen dira, ondoren, folikulu primarioetan bihurtzeko. Pikor-geruzako zelulak ugaztunen doaz eta hainbat geruza eratzen dituzte obozitoaren inguruan. Etapa horretatik aurrera, teka zelulen geruza batek folikulu inguratzen du eta androgenoak ekoizten hasten dira, ondoren pikor-geruzako zeluletan estrogenoan bihurtzeko. Folikuluen hazkuntzaren lehenengo etapak folikulu sekundarioa eratu arte gonadotropinekiko independenteak dira. Hortik aurrera, hazkundera FSHaren estimulazioaren arabera da. Azkenik, obulazioa gertatzen da LHaren estimulazio-tontorrari esker.

Azpimarratu behar da ugaztunen guztien kasuan folikulugenesia ez dela guztiz berdina baina saguen eta gizakiaren arteko oinarrizko ezberdintasunak, batez ere, tamaina eta denbora dira. Folikulugenesia gizakien kasuan askoz luzeagoa da, karraskarien faseekin alderatuta (1.1 taula).

Giza folikulu baten hazkuntza-fase osoa 205 egunekoa edo hilekoaren zazpi zikloak baino askoz luzeagoa da, eta karraskarietan, osteran, 60 egunekoa. Hala ere, bi espezieetan folikulu goiztiarren hazkuntza oso luzea da. Bigarrenik, karraskarietan folikulugenesia jaio ondorengo prozesua da. Folikulu primordialak jaio eta hirugarren egunean eratzen dira eta folikuluen lehen olatua folikulu antraletaraino hurrengo hiru asteetan garatzen da.

Gizakietan, folikulu primordialak haurdunaldiaren erdialdetik hasi eta jaiotzera arte eratzen dira. Folikulu primordial batzuk biltegitik irten eta garatzen hasten dira. Behin hazkuntza-fasean sartu ondoren, hazten diren folikulu gehienak fase antralera igarotzen dira eta, ondorioz, atresiko bihurtzen dira nerabazarora iritsi arte (*Mcgee eta Hsueh, 2000*). Hori dela eta, jaio ondoren, gutxi gorabehera, aurretiaz aipatu bezala, obulutegietan 300.000 folikulu primordial inguru dauden arren erreserba hori gutxituz doa nerabazarora arte, 200.000 izatera iristeraino (*McGee eta Hsueh, 2000*).

Horrez gain, saguetan, besteak beste, folikulu primordialen erdia baino gehiago jaio eta 3-5 astera degeneratzen dira. Kontuan izan behar da, emeak heldutasun sexuala 6 asterekin eskuratzen duela (saguan duaren eta ingurugiroko baldintzen arabera) eta ordurako obulutegi bakoitzean 104 obozito inguru daudela hazkunde etapa desberdinetan.

Gizakian, hilero obarioan dauden 15-20 folikulu primordial hasiko dira garapen-prozesuarekin baina soilik bat izango da gai guztiz heltzeko, De Graaf-en folikulua. Soilik folikulu mota hori apurtzean askatuko da obozitoa *corona radiata*-rekin batera obulazioa hasteko. Hortik aurrera, egoera normal batean, 400 obozito inguru obulatuko dira bizitza osoan zehar, bakoitza 28 egun inguruko zikloetan (*Loneragan eta Fair, 2016*).

Beste ugaztun batzuetan, saguan adibidez, gauza bera gertatzen da baina zikloak motzagoak dira (gutxi gorabehera 5 egunekoak) . Gainera, folikulu antralen heltzea espontaneoki gertatzen da eta obulazioan folikulu eta obozitoen arteko erantzun koordinatua egon behar da. Saguetan, ziklo naturalean folikulu gutxi batzuek hasiko dute garapena FSHaren eraginez eta 8 eta 12 obozito askatuko dira obulazioan, bakoitza 2-3 orduko tartearrekin (*Behringer eta lank., 2014*).

1.1 taula. Folikuluen eta obozitoen batezbesteko diametroak folikulugenesian zehar saguan eta gizakian (*Griffin eta lank., 2006*).

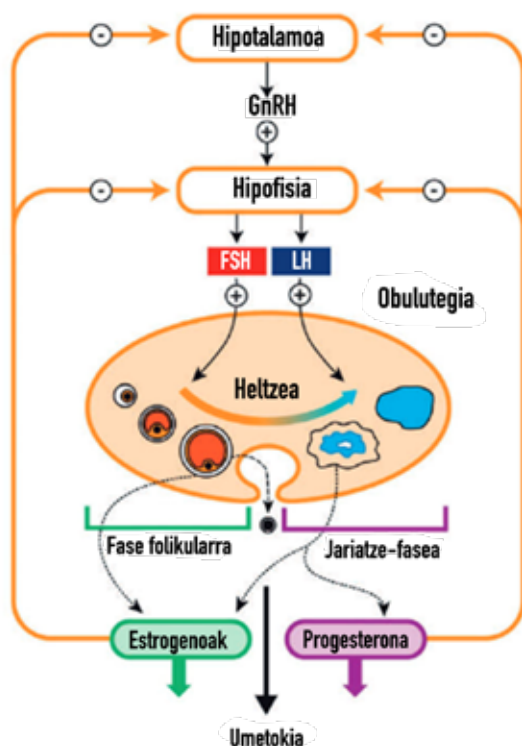
Folikulugenesiaren faseak	Sagua		Gizakia	
	Folikulua	Obozitoa	Folikulua	Obozitoa
Primordiala	17 µm	13 µm	44 µm	36 µm
Primarioa	52 µm	29 µm	70 µm	24 µm
Sekundarioa	104 µm	54 µm	114 µm	73 µm
Antral goiztiarra	248 µm	70 µm	889 µm	120 µm
De Graaf	424 µm	72 µm	18800 µm	120 µm

Hurrengo ataletan ikusiko dugun bezala, folikulugenesian zehar, obozitoak pixkanaka eta sekuentzialki lortuko ditu beharrezkoak diren makineria zitoplasmatikoak eta molekularrak garapen gaitasuna eskuratu eta enbrioaren garapen goiztiarrari aurre egiteko (*Sirard eta lank., 1988; Gilchrist eta lank., 2008*).

1.1.2 Hormonen seinalizatzen eta erregulazioa

Folikuluaren eta obozitoen garapena ziklikoa da eta ugaztun emeen ugaltze-ahalmena ere ziklikoa eta aldizkakoa da. Ahalmen horri gizakietan hilekoa esaten zaio eta gainontzeko ugaztun gehienetan ziklo estrala. Gizakien kasuan, batez bestez, 11-13 urterekin hasi eta menopausia arte irauten du. Ugalkorra den urteen buruan, hileroko aldaketa erritmikoak jasango ditu hormona sexualen jariatzea eta horrek dakartzan obulutegien eta sexu-organoen aldaketa fisikoetan. Ziklo bakoitzaren iraupena 28 egunekoa da, batez bestez. Hilekoak bi ondorio nagusi ditu. Alde batetik, gizakietan hilabete bakoitzean obulutegi batetik obozito bakarraren askapena gertatuko da eta, beraz, egoera normal batean zigoto bakarra eratuko da ziklo bakoitzean eta, beste alde batetik, endometrioan ernaldutako obozitoa txertatzeko prestatuko da. Bai bata zein bestea hormona desberdinen eraginean gertatzen da. Ziklo sexual horiek hipotalamoak kontrolatzen ditu. Hipotalamoan sintetizatzen den gonadotropinen jariatze-hormonak (GnRH) hipofisiaren erdiko gingilean eragiten du eta, ondorioz, gonadotropinak isurtzen dira. Hormona horiek, hormona folikulu estimulatzaileak (FSH) eta hormona luteinizatzaileak (LH), erregulatzen dituzte obulutegietan eta endometrioan aldaketa ziklikoak (*Sadler, 2004*).

Emeen sistema-hormonala hiru hormona multzoek osatzen dute eta hipotalamo-hipofisi-obario ardatz gisa ezagutzen da (**1.2 irudia**):



1.2. irudia Obozitoen garapena hipotalamo-hipofisi-obario ardatzaren bidez FSH eta LH hormonen jariatzea *feedback* positibo edo negatibo batek kontrolatzen du, hilekoaren etaparen arabera (*Astiz, 2016*).

- a. Hipotalamoan sintetizatzen den gonadotropinen jariapen-hormona (GnRH).
- b. Hormona adenohipofisarioak edo gonadotropinak: hormona folikulu estimulatzailea (FSH) eta hormona luteinizatzailea (LH). Hipotalamoko GnRHaren eraginez jariatzen dira.
- c. Obulutegiko hormonak: esteroideak (estrogenoak, progestagenoak) eta inhibina. Hormona adenohipofisarioei erantzunez jariatzen ditu obulutegiak.

1.1.2.1 Gonadotropinak

Emakumeen ugalketa zikloaren determinatzaile nagusiak dira FSHa eta LHa. Hormona horiek guztiak α azpi-multzo berdina eta hormona β kate espezifikoa daukate. Isoforma desberdinak deskribatu dira hainbat ugaztun espezieetan, besteak beste, gizakian (*Wide eta Bakos, 1993*), behian (*Cooke eta lank., 1997*) eta zaldian (*Matteri eta lank., 1986*) eta isoforma horien banaketa desberdina da nerabezaroran, hilekoaren zikloaren/ziklo estralaren eta sentsibilitatearen arabera. Espezieen arteko gonadotropinen aminoazidoen sekuentziaren homologia altua dela eta, gizakitik purifikatutako edo birkonbinatutako gonadotropinak (hCG) erabil daitezke saguaren folikuluen edo obozitoen heltzean (*Wolfenson eta lank., 2005*) edota behorraren hormona gonadotropina korionikoa (eCG) erabili daiteke hainbat espeziatarako *in vivo* obarioen estimulaziorako protokoloetan, tartean, saguekin egindako esperimentuetarako.

Arestian aipatu bezala, gonadotropinak G proteinei loturiko mintz-hartzaile espezifikoetara lotzen dira: FSHa FSHRra eta LHa eta hCG LHCGRra. Orokorrean, bi hartzaile horiek Gs proteinei lotuak daude, zeinek adenilil ziklasak aktibatzen dituzten eta, ondorioz, AMP ziklikoaren (cAMP) kontzentrazioak emendatzen dira. FSHRak cAMP seinalea aktibatzen duen bitartean, LHCGRk bigarren mezulari gehigarriak erabiltzen ditu [(Ca²⁺ eta inositol trifosfatoa (IP3)] eta, beraz, efektu dibergenteak sortzen ditu. Hala ere, oraindik eztabaida gaia da zein puntutaraino bultzatzen dituzten seinaleztapen desberdinak eta ez erredundanteak (*Conti, 2002; Palermo, 2007*).

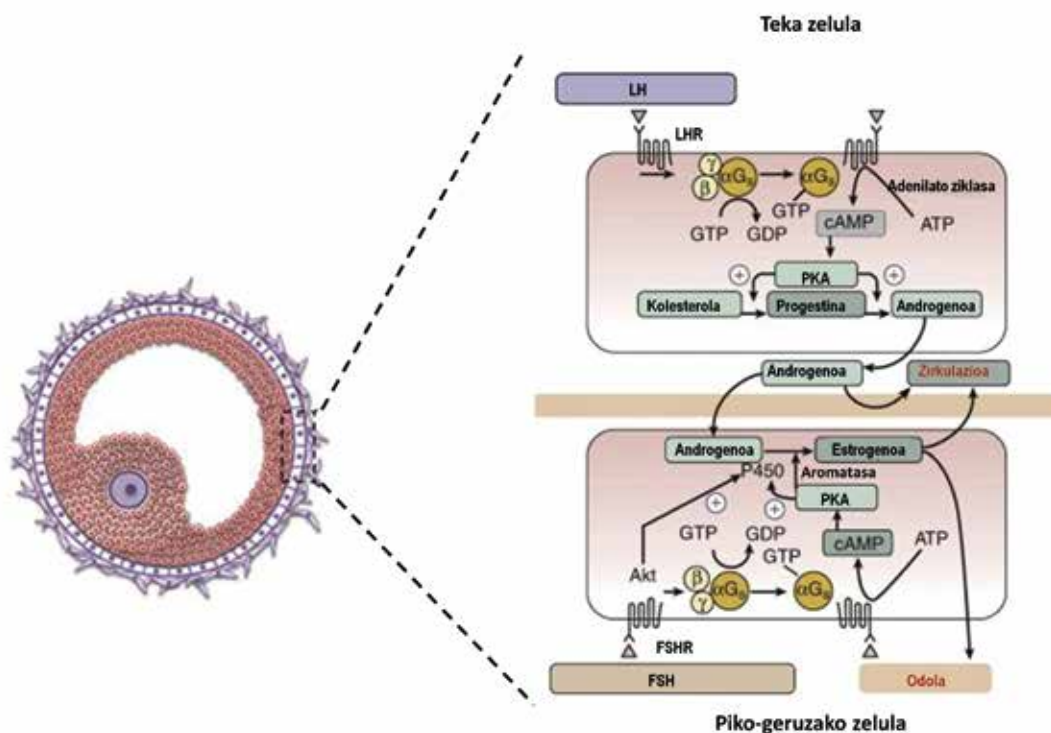
FSHak, batez ere, folikuluen hazkuntzan eragiten du, pikor-geruzako zelulen ugaritzea areagotuz. LHa asko emendatuko da folikulu dominatzailea heltzen denean eta obozitoaren heltze-prozesua, obulazioa eta gorputz luteoaren luteinizazioa indusituko ditu. LHa G proteinari loturiko bere hartzailera lotzean, hainbat bide metaboliko aktibatzen ditu, hala nola, AC/cAMP/PKA, PI3K/AKT eta RAS seinaleztapen ur jauziak, bakoitzak berebiziko garrantzia duelarik obulazioan (*Richards eta Pangas 2010b*). Gizakian, enbrioia hCG ekoizten du gorputz luteoaren degradazioa (luteolisia) saihesteko eta haurdunaldia babesteko (*Hirata eta lank., 2015*).

1.1.1.2 Hormona esteroideak

Ugalketa-funtzioa garunean ekoiztutako gonadotropinen bidez erregulatua egoteaz gain, folikuluetatik eratorritako hormona esteroideen bitartez ere erregulatzen da. Kolesterola erabiltzen da substratu gisa eta P450 zitokromo-11 familia-A azpifamilia-1 polipeptidoak (CYP11A1) esteroidogenesiaren lehenengo

pausoa katalizatzen du pregnenolona ekoizteko. Ondoren, obarioak progestagenoak, androgenoak eta estrogenoak sintetizatuko ditu modu sekuentzialean (Miller eta Auchus, 2011).

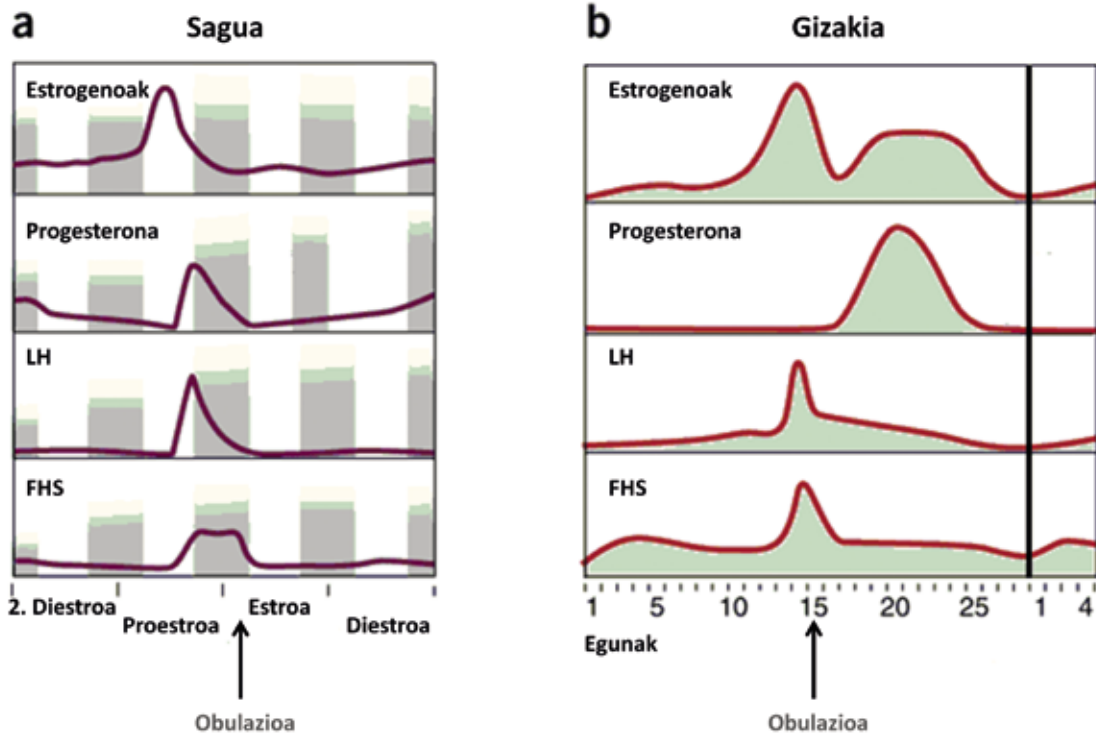
Aurretiaz 1.1.1 atalean aipatu bezala, folikulugenesian zehar gonadotropinek eta hormona esteroideek erregulatzen dituzten mekanismoak 2 zelula/2 gonadotropina teoriaren arabera azaltzen dira (1.3 irudia). LHak LHCGRaren bidez erregulatzen du teka zeluletan esteroideen ekoizpena. Folikulu aurreantralaren etapan, baskularizazio altuko teka zelulek progesterona eta androgenoak ekoizten dituzte odol-fluxutik etengabean askatzen den kolesterolek. Pikor-geruzako zelulek, bestalde, FSHRa adierazten dute, eta hartzaile honek CYP11A1 estimulatzen du teka zelulek askatutako androgenoak estrogenoetan bihurtzeko aromatasaren bidez. De Graaf-en folikulan edo obulazio aurreko folikulan gertatzen den LHaren emendioa eta gero, teka zelulek pikor-geruzako zelulak androstenedionarekin hornitzen jarraitzen dituzte.



1.3 irudia. Folikulugenesian eta esteroidogenesian zehar gertatzen diren prozesuak azaltzeko 2 zelula/2 hormona teoria irudikatzen duen sistema. Estradiola da pikor-geruzako zelulek sortzen duten hormona esteroide gakoa. Hormona hori sintetizatzeke bi zelulen arteko komunikazioa ezinbestekoa da. Tekaz zelulek androgenoak (dehidroepiandrosterona (DHEA), androstendiola, androstendiona eta testosterona) ekoizten dituzte LH hormonari erantzunez eta, ondoren, pikor-geruzako zeluletara hedatzen dira eta hor estrogenoetan bihurtuko dira (estronea eta estradiola) FSHari erantzunez (Strauss eta Lank, 2014-tik moldatua).

Ikusi da, aromatasaren bidez sexu-hormonak sortzeaz gain, hormonon menpeko minbizietan erabilgarria dela, aromatasaren inhibitzaileen bitartez estradiolaren mailak handitzea ekiditen delako. Baina endometrioko edo bularreko minbizia duten pazienteen kasuan, minbizi-zelulek estradiola behar dute garatzeko, beraz, tumore-zelulak hil egingo lirateke estradiolik gabe. Zenbat eta sexu-hormona horren maila handiagoak izan gorputzean, orduan eta errazago da minbizi-zelulak ugaltzea. Hori dela eta, in

in vitro ernaketaren (IVF) tratamenduak sortzen duen folikuluen estimulazioa arriskutsua da gaixotasun horiek dituzten emakumeetan, estimulazio horrek estradiol-mailak ere handitzen baititu (*Mukhopadhyay eta lank., 2015*).



1.4 irudia. Estrogenoen, progesteronaren eta LH eta FSH hormonien ikuspegi orokor eskematikoa a) saguen ziklo estralean eta b) gizakien hilekoan zehar. Estroan 4 etapa bereizten dira: proestroia, estroa, I. diestroia I eta II. diestroia. Estro zikloa bat dator hilekoaren fase folikularrekin eta diestro fasea luteinizazio fasearekin. Karraskariaren endometrioia ez da isurtzen, baina hurrengo ziklorako berrantolatzen da (*Staley eta Scharfman, 2005*).

Karraskarietan folikulu dominanteen hautaketa gizakien antzekoa da, eta FSHak, LHak, estrogenoek eta progesteronak erregulatzen dute (**1.4 irudia**). Desberdintasunik handiena da saguetan poliobulazioa eragiten duen ziklo estral bakoitzean folikulu ugari nagusitzen direla 1.1.1 atalean ikusi bezala. Horri erantzuteko hainbat mekanismo proposatu dira: obozito bakarra obulatzen duten espezieak eta espezie poliobulatorioak bereizten dira, seguruenik, erantzun negatiboaren seinaleen atarian edo folikulu bakoitzak jariatzen dituen *feedback* negatiboaren seinaleztapen mailan (estrogenoak eta inhibinak) eta espezie edo andui desberdinek FSHarekiko duen erantzun folikularrean bereizten dira (*McGee eta Hsueh, 2000*).

1.1.2.3 Hormonen seinaleztapena obulazioan

Gizakietan obarioaren ziklo bakoitza hastean fase primarioan dauden (folikulu aurreantralak) 15-20 folikulu bitartean garatzen joango dira FSH hormonaren eraginez eta, saguetan, 8-12 inguru. Lehenengo atalean azaldu bezala, FSHa ez da beharrezkoa folikulu primordialen hazkundea bultzatzeko (folikulu

primarioetan bilakatu daitezten) baina, hormona agertu ezean, folikulu primarioak hil egiten dira atresiko bihurtuz. Egoera normalean, gizakietan, folikulu hauetatik bakarrak lortuko du erabateko heldzea eta obozito bakarra askatuko da. Gainontzekoak degeneratu eta folikulu atresiko bihurtuko dira (*Sadler, 2004*). Pauso anitzeko prozesu hori LHaren aurre-igoerari erantzunez gertatzen da, hipotalamoaren, guruin hipofisarioaren eta obuluaren *feedback* sistemaren arabera sortzen baita. Lehen aipatu bezala, FSHak folikulu antralaren hazkundera eragiten du, estradiolaren ekoizpen altuarekin lotuta. Pikor-geruzako zelulak sortutako estradiol mailek GnRH pultsuak handitzen dituzte LHaren hazkundera eraginez (*Richards eta Pangas 2010b*). Beraz, folikulu dominatzailearen aukeraketaren ostean etorriko da obulazioa. De Graaf-en folikulua LHaren tontorra eta 16-24 ordura askatuko da obozitoa inguratzen duen kumulu-obozito konplexuarekin (COC) batera.

1.1.2.4 Hormonen seinaleztapena gorputz luteoaren eraketan

Obulazioa amaitzen da obulutegiko folikulutik obiduktora askatzen denean obozitoa, espermatozoideak ernaldu ahal izateko. Behin obozitoa askatzen dela, zelula folikularren hondarrek, pikor-geruzako zelulak eta teka zelulak, diferentziazio-prozesuaren berprogramazioa hasiko dute gorputz luteoa eratzeko. Hori dela eta, FSH hormonak hasi duen adierazpen genikoa desaktibatzen da eta luteinizazio-prozesua kontrolatzen duten geneak aktibatuko dira (*Edson eta al. 2009; Richards eta Pangas 2010a, b*). Gorputz luteoa ezinbestekoa da haurdunaldia bermatu eta mantentzeko, nagusiki progesteronaren jariaketaren bidez. Haurdunaldirik egon ez bada, gorputz luteoa degeneratu egiten da (*Rimon-Dahari 2016*). Karraskarrietan eta gizakietan, gorputz luteoak progesteronaz gain, androgenoak eta estrogenoak ekoizten ditu (*Desclin, 1970; Moore eta Persaud, 200*).

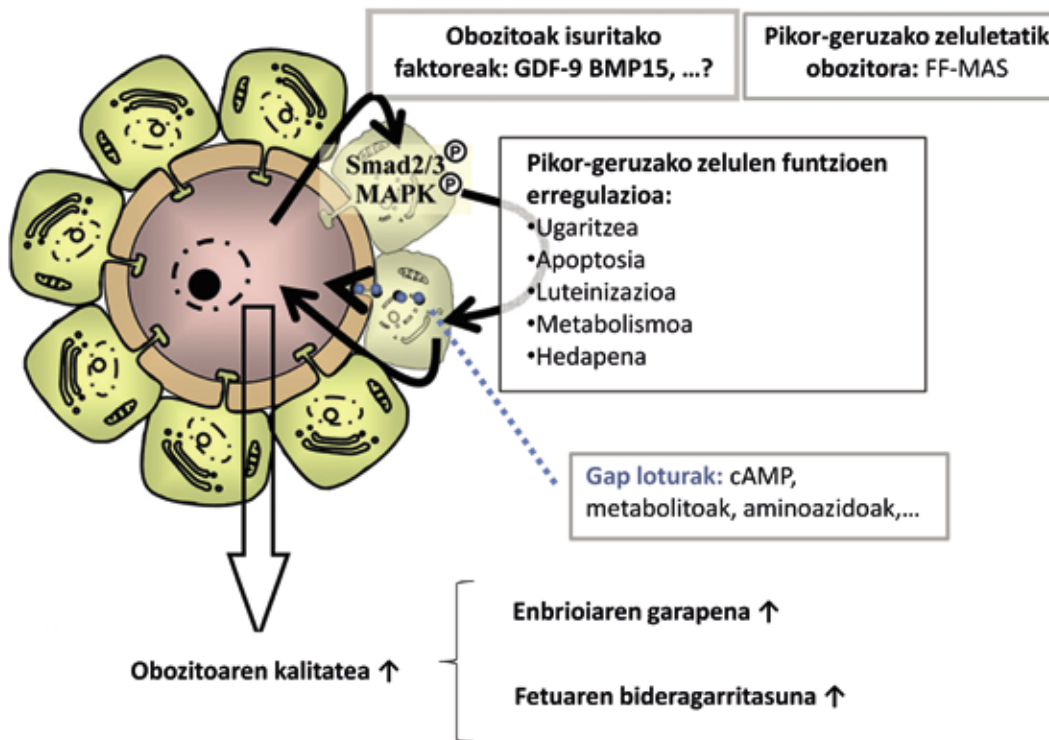
1.1.3 Obozitoaren eta kumulu-obozito konplexuaren (COC) arteko komunikazioa

Egiaztatu da folikulugenesia aurrera eramateko eta obozitoak garapen gaitasuna eskuratzeko beharrezkoa dela obozitoaren eta konpartimentu somatikoaren (pikor-geruzako zelulak eta teka zelulak) arteko koordinazioa. Zelula horien arteko komunikazioa funtsezkoa da obozitoaren hazkuntza eta bereizketa eragingo duten seinaleztapen-bide desberdinak arautzeko eta, ezinbestekoa, pisu molekular baxuko mantenugaien, metabolitoen eta molekulen ekarpenerako (*Eppig, 2001*).

Gaur egun, argi dago obozitoaren eta pikor-geruzako zelulen arteko komunikazioa bi norabidekoa dela, pikor-geruzako zelulen zitoplasmaren luzapenek mintz peluzidoa zeharkatu eta oboplasmarekin konektatzen baitute Gap motako loturen bidez (*Gilula eta lank., 1978*). Beraz, obozitoaren garapena, inguratzen duten pikor-geruzako zelulekin (kumuluko zelulak) duen loturaren arabera da. Alde batetik, obozitoak pikor-geruzako zelulen eta kumuluko zelulen funtzioak erregulatzen ditu (adibidez, glukosaren metabolismoa) (*Sugiura eta lank., 2005*), apoptosia saihestu eta zelulen proliferazioa eta esteroidogenesia bultzatzen duten faktore espezifikoak (GDF-9 eta BMP15) jariatzen ditu. Gainera, estradiolaren ekoizpena mantenduz eta progesteronaren ekoizpena inhibituz (*Vanderhyden eta*

Macdonald 1998), folikuluen diferentziazioa sustatzen du fase aurreantraletik antralera eta kumuluko zelulen luteinizazioa ekiditen du (Eppig 2001, Matzuk eta lank., 2002; Dragovic eta lank., 2005; Diaz eta lank., 2007a, 2007b.)

Bestalde, pikor-geruzako zelulek nukleosidoez, aminoazidoz eta fosfolipidoz hornitzen dute obozitoa, mRNAren egonkortasuna eta balantze ionikoa mantentzeko (Procházka eta lank., 1998; Hunter, 2000). Ez hori bakarrik, pikor-geruzako zelulen jarduera garrantzi handikoa da obozitoaren garapenerako, metabolito esentzialak eta seinale erregulatuak ematen dizkiolako. Gainera, obulazioa hasten da zuzenean teka zeluletan eta pikor-geruzako zeluletan eragiten duen LH hormonaren gorakadagatik, obozitoaren heltze-prozesua, folikuluaren apurketa eta gorputz luteoaren sorrera bultzatuz (Russell eta Robker, 2007) (1.5 irudia).



1.5 irudia. Obozitoaren eta pikor-geruzako zelulen arteko bi norabideko komunikazioa. Komunikazio parakrinoa eta Gap loturen bidezko komunikazioa beharrezkoak dira folikulu eta obozitoa garatzeko (FF-MAS: meiosis aktibatzen duen likido folikularreko esterola, GDF-9: hazkundearen desberdintzapen-faktorea 9, BMP-15). Obozitoek GDF-9 jariatzean SMAD familiako kidea 2 edo 3 (SMAD 2/3) edo MAP kinasen menpeko proteina (MAPK) aktibatzen da pikor-geruzako zeluletan. Halaber, horiek pikor-geruzako zelulen funtzio eta gene-adierazpen ugari arautzen dituzte. Badirudi zelula-obozitoaren arteko bi norabideko komunikazioak obozitoaren kalitatea hobetzen duten obozitoko prozesu ezezagunak erregulatzen dituela (Gilchrist eta lank., 2004-tik moldatua).

Horrez gain, folikuluetakoko zelula somatikoek obozitoak meiosian geldirik mantentzea ahalbidetzen dute eta seinale batzuk bidaltzen dituzte meiosis berraktibatze eta obozitoaren heltze-prozesua bukatzeko (metafase II-ra heltzeko) (Eppig, 2001). cAMP kontzentrazio altuek meiosis inhibitzen dutenez, proposatu da cAMPren kontzentrazio altuak, obozitoak ekoiztu ez ezik, pikor-geruzako zelulen bidez lortzea. Izan ere, besteak beste, pikor-zeluletan agertzen diren C-motako peptido natriuretikoak (CNP)

eta 2 motako peptido natriuretikoaren hartzailea (NPR2) izeneko molekulei esker mantentzen dira cAMParen maila altuak 1.1.4.2 atalean azalduko dugun bezala (Romero *eta lank.*, 2016). CNP da NPR2 hartzailearen estekatzailerendogenoa eta pikor-geruzako zeluletan ekoizten da (Zhang *eta lank.*, 2010). Gainera, obozitoak jariatutako faktoreek eta estradiolak erregulatzen dute kumuluko zeluletan dagoen NPR2ren adierazpena. Horrek iradokitzen du obozitoak berak babesten duela meiosiaren geldialdia kumuluko zeluletan gakoak diren faktoreen adierazpena erregulatzean (Zhang *eta lank.*, 2011). Obozitoak kumuluko zelulen funtzioaren gain duen kontrolak iradokitzen du COCaren mikroingurune egokia izatea garrantzitsua dela obozitoak gaitasun meiotikoa eta garapen gaitasuna eskura ditzan eta ikerketatalde ugari hipotesi hau indartzeko lanean dihardu (Assidi *eta lank.*, 2011; Wathlet *eta lank.*, 2012).

1.1.4 Obogenesisia

Obulutegian dauden obozitoak enbrioiaren endodermotik eratortzen diren zelula germinal primordialetik sortzen dira. Ondoren, mesenteriorantz migratuko dute eta gandar genitaletan kanporatzen dira. Zelula horiek handiak dira eta nukleo biribila dute nukleolo bat edo gehiagorekin. Gainera, mitokondria txikiak, erretikulu endoplasmatikoa, polierribosomak, Golgi aparatua bezalako organuluak, mikrofilamenduak eta glukogeno partikula eta lipido tanta kopuru aldakorak ageri dira zitoplasman (Picton, 2001). Hasieran, zelula germinal primordialak obulutegira garraiatuko dira transferentzia pasiboaren bidez, enbrioiaren garapenean zehar gertatzen diren aldaketengatik. Behin obulutegi primordialera heltzean, zelula hauek mugikortasuna galtzen dute eta obogonietan ($2n$) bihurtzen dira. Obogoniak zatiketa mitotikoaren ondorioz banatzen hasiko dira kopuruz handitu arte. Azken horiek meiosian sartuko dira eta obozito primarioak sortuko dira, lehen zatiketa meiotikoko profasean sartuko direlarik. Ugaztun emeean, bizitza fetalean zehar, obozitoen populazioa era bateratuan hasten da zatiketa meiotikoarekin.

Obozitoen heltze-prozesua obogenesiaren azken etapa da, guztiz garatua dagoen obozitoa (n) ernaldia izateko prestatzen denean. Ugaztunetan, obozitoek lehenengo aktibazio meiotikoa jasaten dute enbrioiaren garapenean zehar, eta, jaiotzean, I. profaseko diploteno fasean geldituta geratzen dira heldutasun sexuala lortu arte (gizakietan, nerabezaroan). Ugalketa ziklo bakoitzean zehar, LHaren kontzentrazioaren gorakadak meiosiaren berraktibazio eragiten du II. metafasea (MII) arte, hots, obozitoen heltze-prozesua bultzatzen du (Liu *eta lank.*, 2012). Ugaztunetan obozitoek meiosia obulutegian hasten dute oraindik etapa fetalean daudenean, baina helduen ugalketa-aparatuan ernaldu ondoren bakarrik amaitzen dute.

Obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar zitoplasman, mintzean eta nukleoan aldaketa ugari gertatzen dira obozitoa ernalketarako ondo prestatuta egon dadin eta enbrioia garapenaren hasierako etapan mantendu ahal izateko.

Obozitoen heltzea obulazio aurreko gonadotropinek bultzatutako erantzun folikularrak eraginda hasten da. Horrek obozitoari ernalkuntzari eta enbrioiaren garapen goiztiarrari eusteko gaitasuna ematen dio. Heltze fase horretan, pikor-geruzako zelulek esteroideak ekoizten jarraitzen dituzte, baina progesterona nagusitzen hasten da. Gainera, azido hialuronikoa ekoizten dute, kumuluko zelulak hedatzea eta obozitoaren eta zelula horien arteko Gap loturen galera ahalbidetzen duena. Heltze nuklearraren eta zitoplasmatikoaren gaitasuna batera eskuratzen da (Moor *eta lank.*, 1998; Picton *eta lank.*, 1998).

1.1.4.1 Obozitoaren garapen kompetentzia: zitoplasmaren heltzea

Aurretik aipatu dugun bezala, garapen-gaitasuna obozito batekernaldu eta enbrioi batean bihurtzeko duen gaitasuna bezala definitzen da eta zitoplasmaren heldutasunaren menpe dago (heltze zitoplasmatikoa). Heltze zitoplasmatikoa zehar obozitoaren barruan eman beharreko aldaketa guztiak gertatzen dira, hala nola, mRNAren eta proteinen metaketa, organuluaren eta zitoeskeletoaren berrantolaketa eta zelularen metabolismoan aldaketak. Beste era batera esanda, heltze nuklearrean meiosiaren berraktibazioa eta lehenengo korpuskulu polarraren askapena gertatzen bada, heltze zitoplasmatikoa, ezarpena baino lehen garapena burutzeko gaitasuna eskuratzen du obozitoak. *In vitro* heldutako obozitoen garapen gaitasuna *in vivo* heldutakoena baino askoz baxuagoa da, besteak beste, heltze zitoplasmatikoa akatsak egon direlako (Xie eta lank., 2016).

Aipatu bezala, zenbait organuluk kopuruan eta antolaketan aldaketak izaten dituzte, hala nola, erribosomak eta mitokondriak mobilizatzen dira eta lekuz aldatzen dira, erretikulu endoplasmatikoa berrantolatzen da, pikor kortikalen sekrezioa eragiten da, enbrioiaren garapen goiztiarrerako esentzialak diren transkriptoaren metaketa gertatzen da eta katioiak askatzeko gaitasuna eskuratzen da (Ducibella eta Buetow, 1994; Eppig eta lank., 1998a; Stojkovic eta lank. 2001; Terasaki eta lank. 2001; Abbott eta lank., 2001; Ducibella eta lank., 2006).

Golgi aparatua obozitoan daukan parte hartzeari buruz oso gutxi dakigu oraindik. Momentuz, argi dagoena da garapenean eta heltze-prozesuan zehar garrantzia duela eta beharrezkoa dela seinaleztapen desberdinetan parte hartzen duten proteinen adierazpenerako (Ferreira eta lank., 2009). Pikor kortikalak Golgi aparatutik eratorritako organuluak dira eta obozitoetan soilik aurkitzen dira. Horiek, proteinez, egiturazko molekulez, entzimez eta glikosaminoglikanoez osatuta daude eta obozitoek polispermia ekiditeko erabiltzen dituzte (Ferreira eta lank., 2009). Ugaztunen obozitoetan erreazio kortikala eragiten duten seinaleztapen zelularrek inositol fosfato kaskada aktibatzea dute (PIP 2). Horrez gain, G proteinek erregulatzen duten espermatozoidaren eta obozitoaren arteko fusioak bigarren mailako mezulari batzuen ekoizpena eragiten du, besteak beste, inositol 1,4,5 trifosfatoarena (IP 3) eta diazilglicerolarena (DAG) (Ferreira eta lank., 2009). Horrez gain, mintz peluzidoa eratzeko beharrezkoak diren glikoproteinen esportazioan parte hartzen du (Picton eta lank., 1998).

Erretikulu endoplasmatikoa funtzio ezagunen artean, proteinen tolestura eta degradazioa, lipidoen metabolismoa, nukleoaren banaketa, Ca^{2+} ioien gradientearen erregulazioa eta mintzen sintesia daude (Lippincott-Schwartz eta lank., 2000). Kaltzioa pilatu eta askatzean, sistema honek seinaleztapen intrazelularrean funtzio garrantzitsua betetzen du. Kanal ionikoetara loturiko hartzailak erregulatzen dute zitoplasmaren metatuta dagoen Ca^{2+} -aren askapena, esaterako, IP3aren eta rianodinaren hartzailak. Biak daude erretikulu endoplasmatikoa mintzean. Ernalketan zehar, obozitoaren aktibazioarako ezinbestekoa da Ca^{2+} askatzea IP3 eta bere hartzailaren bidez (IP3R) (Ferreira eta lank., 2009). Gainera, obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar erretikulu endoplasmatikoa egitura aldaketak eta aldaketa biokimikoak erabakigarriak dira kaltzioaren erregulazio intrazelular egokiarentzako. Kaltzioaren askapenarekiko sentikortasuna obozitoaren heltze-prozesuaren ondoren emendatzen da, ernalketan espermatozoidak obozitoan sartzen direnean erretikulutik Ca^{2+} askatzen baita (Ferreira eta lank. 2009).

Heltze zitoplasmatikoan, bestalde, kromosomek adierazitako mRNA-n transkripzioa, biltegiatzea eta prozesaketa gertatzen da, proteinetan itzuliak izango direnak gero, erribosometan. mRNA horietatik eratorriak izango diren proteinek, heltze-prozesuan inplikaturik egoteaz gain, ernalketan, pronukleoaren sorreran eta enbriogenesi goiztiarrean parte hartzen dute. Horrela, proteina horiek une egokian erabili arte gordetzen dira, enbrioiaren genoma aktibatuta arte, alegia (*Ferreira eta lank., 2009*).

Folikulogenesia zehar, RNA eta proteinen ekoizpenean ere aldaketak gertatzen dira. Hazkunde fasean, obozitoak hainbat RNA moten kantitate handiak sintetizatzen ditu: % 60-65 RNA erribosomala (rRNA), % 20-25 transferentzia RNA (tRNA) eta % 10-15 RNA heterogeneoa (hRNA). Azken horiek RNA mezularia (mRNA) barne hartzen du, obozitoan metatuko dena enbrioiaren garapenari laguntzeko (*Picton eta lank., 1998*). Obozitoaren mRNA-ren transkripzioa eta metaketa folikulogenesia gertatzen da, baina meiosia zehar besikula germinala apurtzen denean gelditzen da (*Watson, 2007*). Berehalako erabilerean eta erreserbako RNA mezulariaren arteko desberdintzapenak duen garrantzia dela eta, obozitoak degradazioen aurkako bi babes estrategia garatu ditu:

- a. poliadenilazioa 5' muturrean, bi mRNA motetarako ohikoa den poli-A sekuentziarekin, baina luzera desberdinekoa dena (*Picton, eta lank. 1998; Bashirullah, eta lank. 2001*).
- b. 3' poliadenilazio laburra erreserbako RNA mezularian (kontserbatua dagoen AAUAAA segidarekin) (*Picton eta lank., 1998; Bashirullah eta lank., 2001*). Aldatutako mRNA proteinekin ere lotzen da, degradazioetatik babesten duen konplexu erribonukleoproteiko bat eratuz eta obozitoaren zitoplasman gordetzea ahalbidetzen duena, heltze-prozesuan edo enbrioiaren garapenean beharrezkoa den arte (*Fulka eta lank., 1998*).

Hala ere, heltze zitoplasmatikoarekin lotutako zelularen aldaketa ugarietatik, metabolismoa da kritikoenetarikoa. Izan ere, animalia heldugabeen obozitoek enbrioiaren garapenerako gaitasun baxua daukate eta jarduera metabolikoa eraldatuta daukate animalia helduen obozitoekin alderatuta.

Metatzen doazen produktuen berrantolaketa eta erabilera obozitoen heltze-prozesuaren funtsezko atala da. Desberdintzapen gertaera hauek ez daude heltze nuklearraren menpe; hala ere, ziklo meiotikoaren progresioa kontrolatzen dute eta obozitoaren garapen gaitasuna eskuratzeko beharrezkoak diren gertaera intrazelularrak erregulatzen dituzte. Oraindik, ez dago metodorik garapen gaitasuna eskuratu duten eta bidean geratu diren obozitoak bereizteko eta obozitoen heltze-prozesuarekin lotutako nukleoaren morfologia aldaketak erabiltzen dira horretarako (*Hyttel eta lank., 1997*). Garapen gaitasun hori *in vitro* ernalkuntza eta enbrioiaren transferentzia-teknologiaren bidez soilik ebaluatu daiteke (*Sirard eta lank., 2003*).

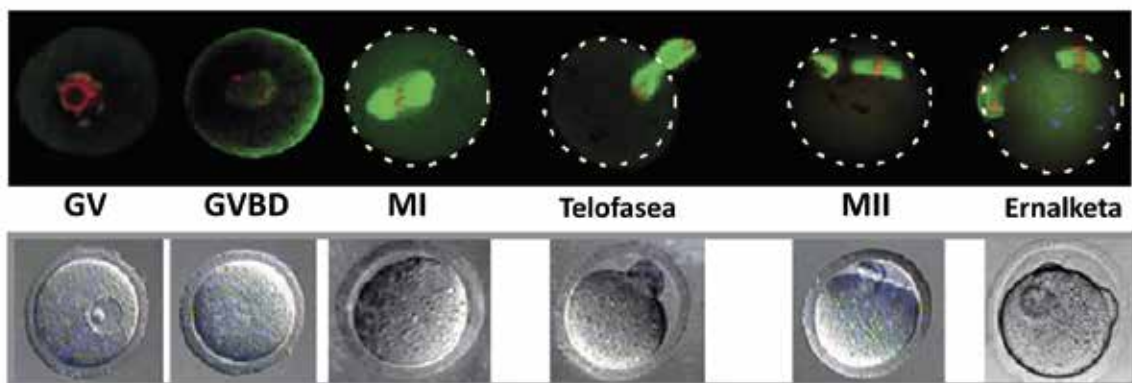
1.1.4.2 Obozitoaren garapen meiotikoa: nukleoaren heltzean

Obozitoen heltzea deritzo meiosiaren lehenengo blokeotik bigarren geldialdiko prozesuari eta ugaztun espezie gehienetan *in vivo* meiosiaren berraktibazioa edota nukleoaren heltzea obulazioaren aurreko

LHaren emendioak bultzatzen du (*Webb eta lank., 2002; Keefe eta lank., 2015*). Aldiz, *in vitro*, meiosiaren berraktibazioa eta heltzea espontaneoki gertatzen dira obozitoa folikulutik banatzean (*Moor, 1988*).

Aurreko atalean azaldu bezala, obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar zitoplasman, mintzean eta nukleoan aldaketa ugari gertatzen dira, obozitoa ernalketarako ondo prestatuta egon dadin eta enbrioia garapenaren lehenengo etapan mantendu ahal izateko. Heltze nuklearraren kasuan, aldaketa nagusien artean daude, besteak beste, besikula germinalaren (GV) haustura (GVBD), kromosomen kondentsazioa eta I. metafaseraino (MI) aurreratzea, lehenengo korpuskulu polarraren estrusioa eta bigarren zatiketa meiotikoaren metafasean (MII) gelditzea (*Picton eta lank., 1998*). Azpimarratu behar da meiosisia zelula germinalen (espermatogonia eta obogonia) bereizgarria den zelula-zatiketa mota dela. Bere helburua bikoitza da: kromosoma kopuru diploide ($2n$) bat kopuru haploide (n) batera murriztea eta informazio genetikoaren birkonbinazioa egitea (*Polanski eta lank., 2005*).

Meiosiaren ezaugarri bereizgarriak dira elkarren segidako bi zatiketa zelular (I. eta II. meiosisia) eta ziklo zelularreko bi geldialdi daudela: besikula germinalean (GV) I. profasean eta II. metafasean. Geldiarazte hauek hiru gertakari garrantzitsuren artean jazotzen dira: (1) fetuan, mitositik GVaren geldialdira, azido erretinoikoaren bidez erregulatua; (2) I. meiositik igarotzea eta (3) II. meiosiaren bukaera ernalketaren ondoren. Zatiketa meiotiko biak ziklinaren menpeko kinasaren (CDK1) jardueraren bidez erregulatuak daude (*Jones eta lank., 2008*). Azken finean, ugalketan, gameto haploideak (n) sortu behar dira bikoiztutako genoma diploide ($2n$) batetik. Obozitoetan, genomaren erdia I. meiosiaren anafasean kanporatzen da, korpuskulu polarra deituriko garatu gabeko zelula txiki batera. Ondoren, geratzen den genoma erdia bigarren korpuskulu polar batera kanporatzen da II. meiosiaren anafasean (*Fabritius eta lank., 2011*) (1.6 irudia).



1.6 irudia: Sagu obozitoaren heltze nuklearra. Goian: obozitoen immunofluoreszentzia heltze-prozesuan [mikrotubuluak (berdez), kromatina (gorriz) eta espermatozoidak (urdinez)]. Behean: obozitoen morfologia heltze-prozesuan. **Laburdurak:** GV: besikula germinala, GVBD: besikula germinalaren haustura, MI: I. metafasea, MII: II. metafasea. (*Kubiak eta lank., 2008-tik moldatua*).

Hurrengo paragrafoetan zehatzago deskribatuko dira obozitoen heltze-nuklearrean zeharreko etapak eta bakoitzean gertatzen diren aldaketak.

Nukleoaren heltzeak hiru fase ditu:

1. Fasea:

Lehenengoa, jaiotza aurreko lehen blokeo edo geldiarazte meiotikoa da. Ugaztunetan, enbrioi emeen obulategietan, obozitoak lehenengo meiosiaren profaseko fase diplotenean daude geldituta eta seinale zehatzak jasotzen dituzten arte ez dira berpizten bigarren fase meiotikora heltzeko. Obozito horiek hedugabeak dira eta besikula germinal bezala izendatzen dira (GV) (*Picton eta lank., 1998; Sagata, 1998*). Obozito horiek G2 fase mitotikoaren baliokidea den etapan daude, DNA bikoiztuta baitago meiosiarekin hasi aurretik. I. profasean, kromosoma homologoen artean sinapsiak eratzen dira, tetradak ikusten dira eta kromatida homologoen artean elkar-gurutzamenduak gauzatzen dira. Horregatik, GV fasean dauden obozitoek DNA kantitate tetraploidea daukate 46 kromosoma bikoitz dituztelako. GV edo obozitoaren nukleoa, esferikoa da eta nukleolo handi batez osatua dago, barneragarria eta exozentrikoa. Besikula germinala obozito heldugabeetan eta garapen fasea etenda daukaten obozitoetan oboplasmaren erdialdean kokatzen da. Obozito osasuntsuetan GV posizio kortikal baterantz mugitzen da 1.6 irudian ikus daitekeen bezala (*Jones, 2008*).

Eta honetan, meiosis ingurune folikularreko faktore desberdinek eta pikor-geruzako zelulek inhibitzen dute.

Horren ostean, obulazioa baino ordu batzuk lehenago (gizakietan 12-24 h), LHaren estimulazioak meiosiaren berraktibazioa eragiten du eta besikula germinalaren haustura (germinal vesicle breakdown, ingelesez; GVBD) gertatzen da (*Picton eta lank., 1998; Smith, 2001*). GVaren haustura hori da meiosiaren berraktibazioaren lehenengo adierazle mikroskopikoa.

2. Fasea:

Bigarren fasean, seinale espezifikoak jasotzean, meiosis berraktibatzen da I. metafaseraino (MI), hormonien estimulazioaren ondoren *in vivo* eta ingurune folikularretik askatzean *in vitro*. I. metafasean dagoen obozitoak lehenengo meiosisiko profase etapa bukatu du eta GVa eta haren nukleoloak desagertu dira.

Meiosiaren lehenengo berraktibazioan, kromosoma homologoak (kromatida bikoak eta kiasmetatik lotuta) banatzen dira, I. metafaseko ardatz mitotikoa eratzen da eta lehen gorputz polarra kanporatzen da. Aurreko etaparen aldean, honek ordu batzuk besterik ez du irauten. Hala ere, funtsezkoa da obozito kompetentea sortzeko (*Sun eta Nagai, 2003*).

Mikroskopioan, MI faseko obozitoetan ez da korpuskulu polarra ez eta GVa ageri. Oboplasma homogenea dauka (**1.6 irudia**).

3. Fasea:

Hirugarren fasea, obulazioa baino lehen gertatzen da lehenengo meiosisitik (MI) bigarren meiosiaren metafasera pasatuz (MII); eta orduan gertatzen da meiosiaren bigarren geldiaraztea. Bigarren meiosiaren

berraktibazioa espermatozoidearen bitartez (edota estimulu partenogenetikoaren bitartez) gertatzen da eta espermatozoideak obozitoarekin kontaktua dutenean obozitoa guztiz heltzen da, haploidea (n) bihurtuz eta bigarren gorputz polarra askatuz (*Sun eta Nagai, 2003*). MII estadioan dauden obozitoak jada helduak dira (*Jones, 2008*).

Beraz, azkenean, obozitoaren heltze nuklearra plaka metafasikoaren periferiaranzko migrazioarekin bukatu behar da eta korpuskulu polar baten formako kromosomen kanporatzearekin. Horrela, kromosoma haploideen multzo batez eratutako obozitoa ernaltzeko prest dago (*Sathananthan eta lank., 2006*).

- **Meiosiaren geldiaraztea:**

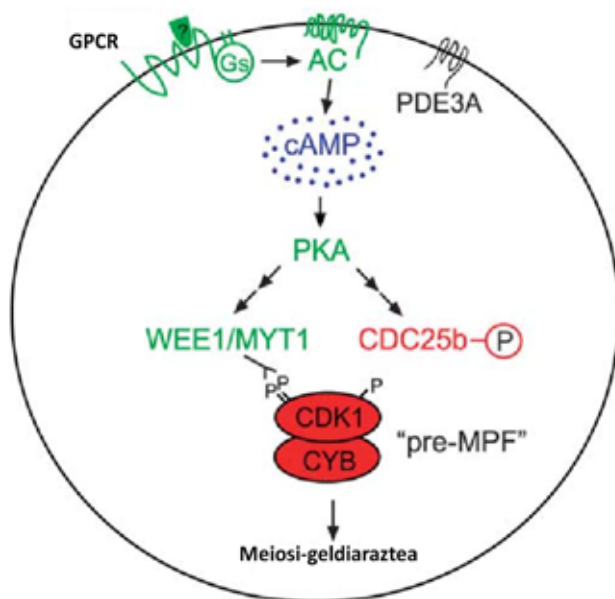
Meiosiaren geldiaraztea edota berraktibazioa folikulu antralen oboplasmako AMP ziklikoaren mailaren erregulazioak baldintzatzen du. cAMPren maila altuek meiosisia inhibitzen dute eta AMP ziklikoaren maila baxuek, aldiz, berraktibatu (*Downs eta lank., 1989, Nogueira eta lank., 2003a, Thomas eta lank., 2004, Vanhoutte eta lank., 2008*). Oraindik ez dira guztiz ezagutzen zeintzuk diren cAMPren mailak erregulatzen dituzten mekanismoak baina obozitoaren barruan cAMP mailak erregulatzeko prozesuen hipotesi ezberdinak planteatu dira:

- i. cAMPren sarrera obozitoaren eta pikor-geruzako zelulen arteko Gap loturen bidez (*Thomas eta lank., 2004*).
- ii. Obozitoaren cAMPren sintesi endogenoa G proteinari lorturiko hartzaile baten bidez (*Vaccari eta lank., 2008*).
 - a. Adenilato ziklasaren bidez, ATP cAMP bihurtzen da (*Kalinowski eta lank., 2004*).
 - b. PKAren aktibazioaren bidez heltzea sustatzeko faktorea (*Maturation Promoting Factor* ingelesez, MPF) inaktibatzen da.
- iii. Zelula somatikoek (teka zelulak, pikor-geruzako zelulak: muralak eta kumulukoak) Guanosina Monofosfato ziklikoz (cGMP) hornitzen dute obozitoa. cGMPk fosfodiesterasaren (PDE) jarduera inhibitzen du (cAMP degradatzen duen entzima) (*Tornell eta lank., 1991*)

Dena den, gero eta ebidentzia gehiago dago obozitoaren barneko cAMPren mailak MPFren jarduerak baldintzatzen duela. Animalia espezie ugarian, MPF da heltze-prozesuaren erregulatzaile unibertsala eta eginkizun garrantzitsua betetzen du obozitoaren heltze-prozesuko etapetan. MPF ziklinaren menpeko kinasaren konposatu heterodimeroa da (CDK1 azpiunitate katalitikoaz eta B ziklina (B1, B2 eta B3) azpiunitate erregulatzaileaz osatua).

Folikulugenesian zehar, obozitoak CDK1 eta ziklina B azpiunitateak metatzen ditu aurre-MPF konplexu bezala eta azken hori inaktibo mantentzen da cAMP kontzentrazio altuetan. Meiosiaren berraktibazioan CDK1ak bere itu proteinen serina eta treoninaren hondar espezifikoko fosforilatzen ditu baina guztiz aktibo izateko B ziklinara lotu behar da (*Pan eta Li, 2019*). CDK1 inaktibatzeke, aldiz, Thr14 eta Tyr15 fosforilatu behar dira. Laburbilduz, obozitoaren cAMP kontzentrazio altuek CDK1aren fosforilazioa eragiten dute Thr14n eta Tyr15-ean eta MPF inaktibo bihurtzen da (*Mehlmann, 2005*).

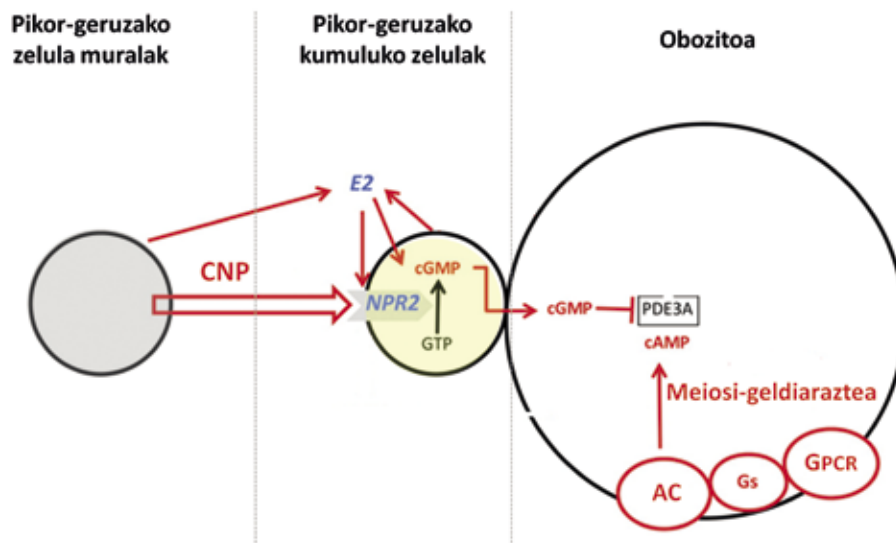
PKAren aktibazioaren bidez MPFa inaktibatzen da, zuzenean edo zeharka CDC25b fosforilatzen duelako (CDC25b-P). Zehaztugabeko pausu batzuen bidez, PKAk CDC25 fosfatasaren eta WEE1/MYT1 kinasaren jarduerak erregulatzen ditu. CDC25 fosfatasak CDK1 desfosforilatzen du eta WEE1/MYT1 kinasak, ordea, CDK1 fosforilatu egiten du. CDK1aren fosforilazioaren ondorioz, MPF inaktibo mantentzen da (**1.7 irudia**). Adibidez, Cdc25b genea galdu duten saguek ezin dute MPF aktibatu eta, ondorioz, meiosis berraktibatzea ezinezkoa zaie (Mehlmann, 2005).



1.7 irudia. Meiosiaren geldiaraztea bultzatzen duten seinaleztapen bidezidorrak. GPCRren aktibazioak, konstitutiboki edo ezagutzen ez den estekatzaile baten bidez, Gs aktibatzen du. Horrela, adenilato ziklasa (AC) estimulatzen da cAMP kontzentrazioak emendatuz. cAMPk proteina kinasa A (PKA) aktibatzen du, eta honek ziklo zelularren erregulazio-komplexua CDK1/B ziklina (CYB) fosforilatzen (P) inaktibatu egingo da. Berdez dauden proteinak aktibatutako proteinak dira eta proteina gorriak, aldiz, inhibiturik daudenak meiosis berrabiatzeko aktibazio-bide klasikoan. (Mehlmann 2005-etik moldatua).

Beraz, obozito barruan cAMPren kontzentrazioa bide desberdinetatik erregulatzen da. Alde batetik, ekoizpen aktiboaren bitartez (adibidez, adenilato ziklasaren bidez) eta, bestetik, hidrolisiaren bidez (fosfodiesterasen bitartez, PDE).

Azkenengo ikerketek baieztatu dute Guanosina Monofosfato ziklikoaren (cGMP) agerpenak ere obozitoan (Gap loturen bidez kumuluko zeluletatik bidalia) PDE3ren aktibazioa ekiditen duela eta, beraz, meiosiaren blokeoa mantentzen duela (Norris *eta lank.*, 2009). cAMP bezala, cGMP zelula eukariotoetan zein prokariotoetan agertzen den bigarren mezularia da, denbora luzean zehar bere zeregina ikertzaileen aldetik cAMParen itzalean egon den arren. cGMPa guadilil ziklasek ekoizten dute GTPtik abiatuz (Turko IV *eta lank.*, 1999). Orain arte, nahiko onartuta dago cGMPa kumuluko zeluletan ekoizten dela CNPak NPR2 aktibatu ondoren eta obozitara barreiatzen dela PDE3Ak cAMPan duen hidrolisi jarduna inhibitzeko (**1.8 irudia**). Ondorioz, obozitoetan geldiarazte meiotikoa I. faseko diplotenoan mantentzen da (GV) (Pan *eta Li*, 2019). Are gehiago, CNP molekulak obozitoaren eta kumuluko zelulen arteko konexioak hobetzen ditu (Zhang *eta lank.*, 2010).



1.8 irudia. CNP proteinak induzituriko meiosiaren geldiaraztea kontrolatzen duten seinaleztapen bidezidorrak. cAMP maila altuak cGMPri esker mantentzen dira, azken honek, PDE inhibitzen duelako. cGMP pikor-geruzako zeluletan ekoizten da, zelula muraletatik jariatzen den CNP a kumuluko zeluletan dagoen NPR2 hartzaileira lotzean, seguruenik, estradiolaren (E2) bidez. (Zhang eta lank., 2010-etik moldatua)..

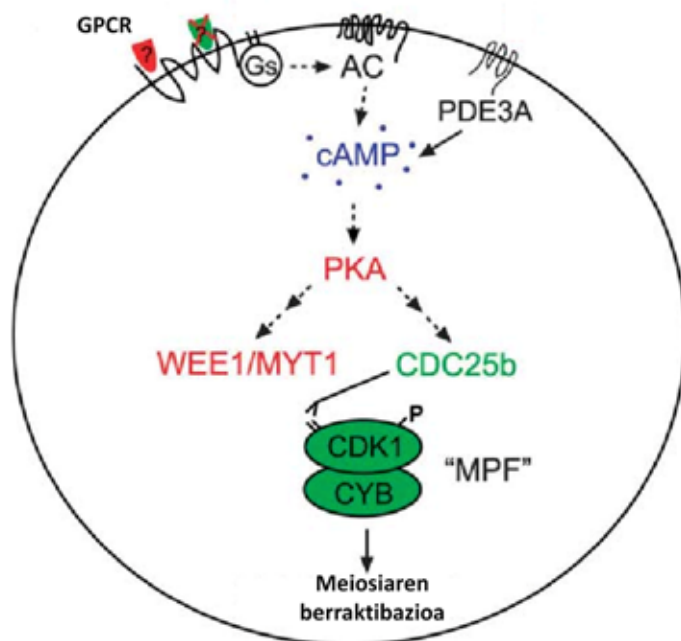
Arestian aipatutako aukera guztiak aztertu beharra dago zehazteko nola elkar eragiten duten folikuluko zelulek eta obozitoak cAMP maila altuak mantentzeko LHaren igoeraren aurretik.

- **Meiosiaren berraktibazioa:**

LHaren bidezko heltze meiotikoaren estimulazioa inguruko zelula somatikoaren gainean duen ekintzaren bidez gertatzen da eta ez obozitoan, LHaren hartzaileak ez direlako ez obozitoan ez inguruko kumuluko zeluletan antzeman, kanpoaldeko pikor-geruzako zeluletan (muraletan) baizik. Hala ere, oraino ezezaguna da LHak zein mekanismoren bidez jarduten duen, eta horrela, pikor-geruzako zeluletan eraginez nola berraktibatzen duen meiosis obozitoan (Mehlmann, 2005).

Badirudi, obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar cAMP mailak goiz jaisten direnez, aukera gehiago dagoela meiosis induzitzen duen substantzia horrek cAMPren beherakada eman baino lehen jardutea (Mehlmann, 2005), esaterako, G proteinari loturiko hartzaile baten bidez AC inaktibatuz edota PDE aktibatuz.

Gero eta indar handiagoa hartzen ari den hipotesiaren arabera, MPFaren fosforilazioak berrabiarazten du meiosis (Adhikari eta Liu 2014). Pre-MPF konplexua GVBDarekin batera aktibatzen da. Horretarako, CDK1 desfosforilatu behar da CYCBa lotzeko eta MPFa sortu dadin. Alde batetik, zenbait datuk baieztatzen dute folikularen barruan, PDE espezifikoek cAMParen mailak murrizten dituztela fosfoinositol 3-kinasa (PI3K) bidezidorraren aktibazioaren eraginez, AKT proteina fosforilatzen baitute eta azken honek PDE. PDEak cAMPa degradatzen du eta beherakada horrek PKA, WEE2 eta MYT1 kinasen desfosforilazioa eta inhibizioa dakar. CDC25Ba ere desfosforilatzen da, baina haren desfosforilazioak aktibatu egiten du. Aktiboa den CDC25Ba nukleora translokatzeko da eta CDK1 aktibatzen du desfosforilazioaren bidez. Horri esker, CDK1 eta B ziklina lotuko dira MPF aktiboa sortzeko eta orduantxe berraktibatuko da meiosis (Schindler, 2011) (1.9 irudia).



1.9 irudia. LHaren bidez eragindako obozitoen meiosiaren berraktibazioarako seinaleztapen bideak. Berdez dauden proteinak aktibatutako proteinak dira eta proteina gorriak, aldiz, inhibiturik daudenak meiosia berrabiatzeko aktibazio-bide klasikoan (Mehlmann, 2005-etik moldatua).

Gainera, frogatu da bai LH hormonak eragindako meiosiaren berraktibazioa bai berraktibazio espontaneoaren PDEaren bidezko cAMP zikloaren hidrolisiaren menpekoa dela obozitoan. Bitarteko farmakologikoen bidez baieztatu zen obozitoan cAMParen kontzentrazio altuak mantentzean obozitoaren PDEaren inhibitzaile espezifikoak administratuz, meiosiaren berraktibazioa ekiditen zela nahiz eta hCGarekin eta epidermisko hazkuntza-faktorearekin (EGF) estimulazio eragin zen (Shu eta lank., 2008).

Frogatua dago, baita ere, LH hormonak eragiten duen cAMPren beherakadak Gap loturen apurketa dakarrela eta Gap loturen komunikazioaren apurketak cAMPren hornidura gutxitzea eragiten duela obozitoan (Sun eta Nagai, 2003). Proposatuta da MAPK bidezidorrak eragiten duela Gap loturen fosforilazioa eta itxiera, cGMParen eta cAMParen hedapena mugatuz kumuluko pikor-geruzako zeluletatik obozitorara eta, ondorioz, meiosia berraktibatuko litzateke (Sun eta lank., 2009). Hala ere, azterketa esperimentalek baieztatu dute MAPK bidezidorraren inhibizioak Gap loturen ixtea eragozten duela, baina ez cGMPren kontzentrazioaren jaitsiera eta, beraz, ez duela meiosiaren berraktibazioa eteten (Norris eta lank., 2008, 2009). Oro har, aurkikuntza horiek iradokitzen dute seinaleztapen bide gehiago aktibatzen direla LHak bultzatutako berraktibazio meiotikoan zehar.

Hala ere, oraindik ezezagunak direnez obozitoen heltze-prozesua pizten dituzten seinaleak, oso garrantzitsua da jakitea zeintzuk diren meiosia berrabiarazteko seinaleztapen ur-jauzi horiek pizten eta erregulatzen dituzten kanpoko seinaleak, farmakoen bidez kontrolatuz gero heltze-prozesua ere kontrolatu genezakeelako.

- **II. metafasean (MII) geldiaraztea**

Lehenengo zatiketa meiotikoa ez bezala, bigarren zatiketa mitosiaren antzekoa da: MPFaren jarduera azkar handitzen da eta ardatz mitotikoa arin eratzen da. Horrez gain, MII faseko kromosomak

kromosoma mitotikoen berdinak dira, hots, zinetokoro aktiboak dituzten kromatida ahizpak dira. Hala ere, ernalkuntza gertatu arte obozitoak luzaroan gelditzen dira MII-an etenda eta, bitartean, kromosomak ondo lerrokatuta daude metafase-plakan. Meiosiaren geldiarazte hori MPFaren eta MAPKaren jardueraren bidez mantentzen da. MAPKaren seinaleztapenak geldiarazte meiotikoan zehar ardatzaren egitura eta kromosomak lerrokatuta mantentzen ditu (Jones, 2005).

Ernalketaren unean, espermatozoideak obozitoaren barruan sartzean, Ca^{2+} kontzentrazioak emendatzen dira eta horrek B ziklinaren degradazioa eta ziklo meiotikoaren amaiera bultzatzen du (Brunet eta lank., 2005).

1.1.5 Heltze-prozesuko seinaleztapen-bide garrantzitsuenak

1.1.5.1 G proteinari loturiko hartzaileak (GPCR) obozitoen heltzean zehar

Obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar MPFa aktibatuko duten eta bat egiten duten seinale transdukzio bide desberdinak aktibatzen dira (Schmitt eta Nebreda, 2002). Iradoki da meiosiaren heltze-prozesua modulatu lukeen G proteinari loturiko hartzailearen bat (GPCR) egotea. Obozitoetan G_s edo G_i bidezko seinaleztapena deskribatu da (Richard eta lank., 2001; Shitsukawa eta lank., 2001; Horner eta lank., 2003; Mehlmann, 2005) eta obozitoan adierazten diren 15 GPCR inguru identifikatu dira. Hala ere, oraindik ez da ezagutzen hartzaile gehien funtzioa ez eta haien ligandoena zein den ere (Mehlmann eta lank., 2004). Soilik GPR3 eta GPR12 barne hartzen dituzten hartzaileen talde bat aztertu da, biak G_s -ari lotuak, modu aktiboan egongo lirakeenak eta meiosiaren geldialdia mantenduko luketenak (Mehlmann eta lank., 2004; Hinckley eta lank., 2005). Adibidez, *Xenopus* espeziearen obozitoetan progesteronaren hartzailea adenilato ziklasa inhibitzen duen G proteinei lotuta dagoela iradoki da (Mehlmann eta lank., 2004; Hinckley eta lank., 2005).

Ugalketa funtzioa erregulatzen duten bi gonadotropina nagusien hartzaileak, FSHR eta LHR, GPCR familiaren zati dira (Themmen eta Huhtaniemi 2000; Ascoli eta lank., 2002;). FSHRak eta LHRak seinaleztapena GPCR gehienak bezala erregulatzen dute, β arrestinen bitartez mintzaren banaketaren ondoren aktibatuz (Ferguson eta lank., 1996; Lowther eta lank., 2011). LHaren tontorrek ere seinaleztapena aktibatzen du epidermisko hazkuntza-faktorea (EGF) eta bere hartzailearen (EGFR) bidez (Park eta lank., 2004; Su eta lank., 2010). EGFR sistemaren eta G proteinari loturiko hartzaileen arteko komunikazio estu hori beste zelula mota batzuetan ere ikusi da (Gschwind eta lank., 2001).

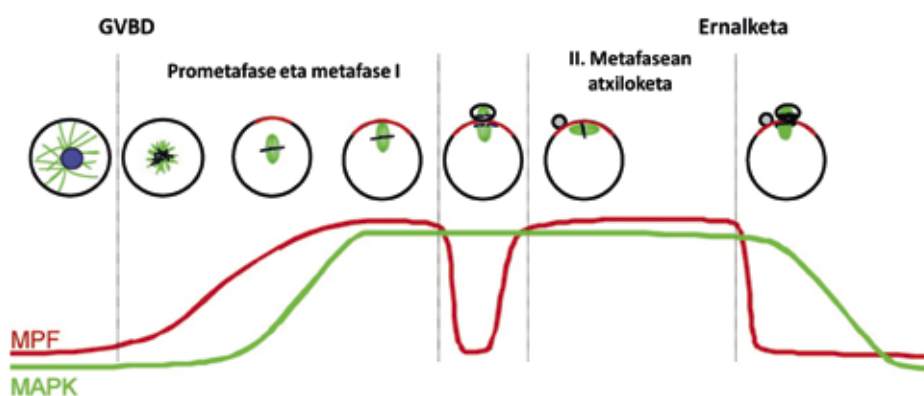
1.1.5.2 MAP kinasen (MAPK) bidezidorren seinaleztapena obozitoen heltze-prozesuan

Obozitoen heltze-prozesua ziklo zelularreko kinasek bultzatzen dute, batez ere, ziklo mitotikoaren erregulazioaz arduratzen direnak. MPFa eta mitogeno bidez aktibatutako proteina kinasak (MAPK) funtsezko molekulak dira meiosis erregulatzen dituzten bidezidorretan eta ardatz mitotikoaren eraketan

parte hartzen dute. Izan ere, haien aktibazioa GVaren hausturarekin batera gertatzen da. Heltze-prozesuan zehar haien jarduera emendatuz doa, jarduera-maximoa obozitoa heldua denean eskuratzen duten arte (**1.10 irudia**).

Horrez gain, obozitoetan, LHRaren eta FSHRaren estimulazioarekin lotutako lehen gertakarietako bat da MAPK bideen aktibazioa (*Seeger eta lank., 2001; Sela-Abramovich eta lank., 2005*), beste GPCR mota batzuekin ikusi den bezala (*Ferguson eta lank., 1996*).

MAPKak obozitoetan meiosiaren berraktibazioa bultzatzeaz gain ardatz mitotikoaren eraketan, MI-etik MII-rako trantsizioan eta MII-ko meiosiaren geldiaraztean parte hartzen du (*Liang eta lank., 2007*). Gainera, esteroidogenesiaren erregulazioan, pikor-geruzako zelulen biziraupenean eta ugaritzean esku hartzen du (*Sasseville eta lank., 2010*). Baina, batez ere, II. metafasearen antolaketa mantentzen laguntzen du eta, aipatu bezala, II. metafasean gehien adierazten den bidezidorretarikoa da. Horregatik proposatzen da MAPKaren bidezidorrak eginkizun garrantzitsua duela meiosiaren bigarren geldiaraztearen erregulazioan (*Wang eta lank., 2010*) (**1.10 irudia**).



1.10 irudia. MPFaren (gorriz) eta MAPKaren (berdez) jarduerak sagu-oboizitoetan heldze-nuklearrean zehar. Heltze-nuklearrean urrats desberdinak eskematizatu dira (*Brunet eta Maro, 2005*).

MAPKaren seinaleztapenaren barruan hobekien ezaugarritu diren proteinak ERK1 eta ERK2 (*Extracellular signal-regulated kinases*, ingelesez) dira (*Zhang eta Liu, 2002*). Bi ERK mota horiek oboizitoen heldze-prozesuan zehar isolatu dira (*Duranthon eta Renard, 2001*) eta zeregin garrantzitsua daukate nukleoaren garapen gaitasuna eskuratzeko beharrezkoak diren seinaleztapen ur-jauzietan (*Sun eta Nagai, 2003*). Horien aktibazioa tirosina (Tyr204/187) eta treonina (Thr202/185) hondarren fosforilazio bidez gertatzen da (*Crews eta Erikson, 1992; Roskoski, 2012*).

ERK 1/2 seinaleztapen-molekula oso garrantzitsua da meiosian zehar, batez ere, ardatz mitotikoaren muntaduran eta mikrotubuluaren antolaketan. Hain zuzen ere, ERKaren adierazpena ezabatuta duten (*Erk1/2^{-/-}*) saguen oboizitoetan ez da meiosis berraktibatzen nahiz eta hCG hormona ziztatu zaien (*Fan eta lank. 2009*). *In vitro* egindako lanetan, oboizitoen heldze-mediora hormonak gehitzean ERKaren adierazpena emendatzen da MII etapan eta blastozistoen garapenean ere igoera adierazgarria ikusten da (*Song eta lank., 2018*). Gainera, EGF hartzaileak ERK1/2aren aktibazioa bultzatzen du (*Fan eta*

lank., 2009; *Yamashita eta lank.*, 2009). Guzti hori kontuan izanda, ERK1/2 obozitoen heltze-prozesuan ebaluatu beharreko markatzaile garrantzitsu gisa proposatzen da (*Conti eta lank.*, 2012).

1.1.5.3 PI3K/AKT bidezidorraren seinaleztapena obozitoen heltze-prozesuan

Fosfatidilinositol 3-kinasaren (PI3K) seinaleztapena funtsezko bidezidorra da zelulen proliferazioa, biziraupena, migrazioa eta metabolismoa erregulatzeko. Minbizian parte hartzen duen seinaleztapen-bide garrantzitsua ere bada (*Lee eta Chang*, 2019) baina, azken urteetan, genetikoki eraldatutako saguek eman duten informazioari esker, ezagutzera eman da PI3Kak ezinbesteko eginkizuna duela saguen obarioen obogenesisian, folikulogenesisian (folikulu primarioen aktibazioan eta biziraupenean), obulazioan eta kartzinogenesisian (*Zheng eta lank.*, 2012).

PI3Kak inositol fosfolipidoen inositol eraztunean dagoen 3'-OH taldea fosforilatzen duten lipido kinasak dira. PI3Karen isoformak hiru klasetan banatu dira (I. klasea, II. klasea eta III. klasea), substratuen lehentasunetan eta sekuentzia-homologian oinarrituta. Funtzio fisiologikoei dagokienez, I. klaseko PI3Ka da ugaztunetan glukosaren homeostasia, zelulen migrazioa, hazkuntza eta ugaritzea erregulatzeko hobeto ezaugarritu dena (*Cantley*, 2002; *Engelman eta lank.*, 2006; *Vanhaesebroeck eta lank.*, 2010). I. klaseko taldea, gainera, tirosina kinasa hartzaileen bidez aktibatua izan daiteke, hurrenez hurren, EGFR, GPCR, FSHR eta LHRen bidez (*Vanhaesebroeck eta lank.*, 2010).

FSHak cAMP/PKA eta PI3K bidezidorrak aktibatzen ditu eta, horren ondorioz, aromatasaren adierazpena areagotzen da (CYP19). Aromatasak androgenoak estradiolean bihurtzen ditu, FSHaren eragina areagotzen du folikuluetan eta obulutegiko folikuluaren garapena bultzatzen du (*De Souza*, 2018).

PI3K bidezidorra osatzen duten osagaiak dira, besteak beste, B protein kinasa, AKT bezala ezagunagoa, 1 motako proteinaren menpeko kinasa (PDK1), FOXO transkripzio faktoreak, eta GSK-3 α eta GSK-3 β proteina kinasak (*Reddy eta lank.*, 2005; *Liu eta lank.*, 2007). Frogatuta dago horiek guztiak obozito mailan daudela eta, ondorioz, heltze-prozesuaren mekanismoak ulertzeko bidezidor aztertuenetakoa izan da (*Liu eta lank.* 2006).

AKTa serina/treonina familiako proteina kinasa bat da eta ugaztunen genomak 3 isoforma kontserbatu dira AKT1 (PKB α), AKT2 (PKB β) eta AKT3 (PKB γ), bakoitzak berezko propietate eta funtzioak dituenak. AKTaren aktibazioa PI3K bidezidorraren seinaleztapenarekin gertatzen da eta bide horren oinarritzko molekula da (*Manning eta Toker*, 2017). AKTa bi lekuetan fosforilatzen da: domeinu katalitikoan treonina hondarrean (T308) eta C-terminalean serina hondarrean (S473) eta seinale intrazelularrak itzultzen ditu fosforilatutako proteinen bidez (*Cecconi eta lank.*, 2010). AKTa oso molekula garrantzitsua da PI3K bidezidorrean eta 2 pausotan aktibatzen da:

1. PI3Kak fosfatidilinositol-3,4,5-trifosfatoa (PIP3) sintetizatzen du eta PIP3ak AKTa erakartzen du mintz zelularrerantz. Hor treonina 308 hondarrean fosforilatzen du partzialki aktibatzeke. Monofosforilatutako AKTa zitoplasmara askatzen da.
2. Zitoplasman AKTaren aktibazio maximorako rapamizinarekin 2 konplexuak (mTOR) fosforilatu behar du serina 473 (S473) hondar hidrofoboan (*Manning eta Toker, 2017*). Behin guztiz aktibatuta dagoenean, AKT proteinak seinaleztapen bidezidor asko erregulatzen ditu (*Manning eta Cantley, 2007*).

AKTa folikuluen garapenarekin (*Cecconi eta lank., 2012*), obozitoen heltze-prozesuan meiosiaren berraktibazioarekin, ardatz mitotikoaren eraketarekin (*Hoshino eta Sato, 2008; Kalous eta lank., 2009*) eta II. metafasean bigarren korpuskulu polarraren kanporatzearekin (*Cecconi, eta lank. 2010*) erlazionatu da. Horrez gain, AKTaren parte hartzea deskribatu da enbrioaren garapenean eta ikusi da haren aktibazioak sagu blastozistoen eklosioa kaltetu dezakeela (*Riley, eta lank. 2005*). Azkenik, AKTaren gabezia ugalkortasun arazoekin erlazionatu da saguetan (*Brown eta lank., 2010*) eta gizakien kasuan AKTaren erregulazioan egon diren akatsak ugalketa mailako gaixotasun batzuekin lotu dira, esate baterako, obario polikistikoa sindromearekin eta obulutegiko minbiziarekin (*Cecconi eta lank., 2012*).

1.2 ***In vitro* heltze-prozesuaren (ingelesez, *in vitro* maturation, IVM) teknika**

IVM teknikaren bidez pazienteari, hormonekin estimulatutako gabeko edo estimulazio txikia jasotzen duten obarioen folikulu antraletatik, COCak erazten zaizkio eta hazkuntza-medioetan heltzen dira (*De Vos eta lank., 2016*), ondoren, *in vitro* ernalketa (ingelesez, *in vitro fertilization*, IVF) edo espermatozoide-injekzio intrazitoplasmatikoa (ingelesez, *intracytoplasmic sperm injection*, ICSI) tekniken bidez haurdunaldia lortzen saiatzeko (*Barnes eta lank., 1995, 1996*).

IVM teknika lehenengo aldiz Pincus eta Enzemann-ek (1934) proposatu zuten eta 1965. urtean Edwards izan zen, untxietan garatutako lan aitzindaria oinarritzat hartuta (*Pincus eta Enzmann, 1934*), obozitoen *in vitro* heltzea zehatz-mehatz deskribatu zuen lehena. Espezie desberdinetako obozitoak heldu zituen laborategian, besteak beste, saguaren, ardiaren, behiaren, txerriaren, txakurraren, *Rhesus* espezieko tximinoaren eta gizakiaren obozitoak (*Chang, 1955; Edwards 1962*), obulutegiak estimultzeko hormona exogenoak administratu beharrik gabe. Hala ere, 1990. hamarkada hasierararte ez zen lehenengo haurra jaiotzeko IVM teknikaren bidez (*Cha eta lank., 1991*). Orduetik hona, munduan 5.000 haur baino gehiago jaiotzeko dira (*Lu eta lank., 2018*).

Ohiko IVF teknikan *in vivo* heldutako obozitoak erazten dira, ostean, *in vitro* ernaltzeko eta azkenean, *in vitro* sortutako enbrioak pazienteari transferitzen zaizkio (*Loneragan eta Fair, 2016*). IVM teknikarekin, ordea, obozito heldugabeak erazten dira *in vitro* heltzeko eta, ondoren, IVF teknikarekin jarraitzen da. IVM oso aukera erakargarria da, obozitoen eta enbroien kopurua emendatzeko erabiltzen den gonadotropinen bidezko obarioen estimulazioa gutxitzen edo ekiditen delako (*Loneragan eta Fair, 2016*). Izan ere, obario polikistikoko sindromea (PCOS) zeukaten emakumeentzako ugalketa-teknika bezala plazaratu zen, gonadotropinak induzituriko obarioen hiperestimulazio sindromea pairatzeko arriskua murrizten delako (*Trounson eta lank., 1994*). Beraz, obozitoen *in vitro* heltze-prozesua garatzeak abantaila garrantzitsuak ditu, haurdunaldia lortu nahi dutenentzat ez ezik, baita animalien ekoizpen sistemetarako ere.

Azken hamarkadan IVM teknikaren hobekuntza nabarmenak egon diren arren, IVMaren emaitzak ez dira beste ugalketa-teknikak bezain eraginkorrak eta oso aldakorak dira klinika batetik bestera (heltze-tasari, enbrio-tasari eta IVMtik eratorritako enbrioak ezartzeko ahalmenari dagokionez) (*Sanchez eta lank., 2017*). Horren arrazoia neurri batean izan liteke, alde batetik, ugalkortasun zentroen arteko IVM protokoloen eta ikuspuntu teknikoaren heterogeneotasuna. Izan ere, IVM protokoloaren aldaketa nabarienetarikoa izan da obulazioa hCGarekin induzitzea (albaitaritzan erabiltzen den moduan) denbora labur batez gonadotropinekin estimulatutako ondoren. Gonadotropina bidezko tratamendua, folikuluen garapena hobetzeko eta, horrela, obozitoen garapen gaitasuna emendatzeko egiten da (*Sanchez eta lank., 2017*). Metodo berri honi “hCGk bultzaturiko IVM edo trukaturako IVF” deritza (*De Vos eta lank., 2016*) eta obozitoen heltze-tasa hobetzen dela erakutsi duen arren (PCOS pazienteetan) jaiotza-tasa ez da emendatzen (*Sanchez eta lank., 2017*). Gainera, gaur egun, klinikan 6-12 mm bitarteko folikuluak obulaziora bultzatzean obozitoen bilduma heterogeneoa eskuratzen da, hau da, MII, MI edota GV fasean

dauden obozitoak obulatzea eragiten da eta, horrek, asko zailtzen du laborategian, hurrengo pausoa den IVF teknikaren bitartez, enbrioioak lortzea. Eta, bestetik, folikulu antral goiztiarretatik lortzen diren obozito heldugabeen garapen gaitasuna oraindik baxua da (*Herta eta lank.*, 2018).

1.2.1 Heltze-ingurunea eta hazkuntza

Lagunduriko ugalketa-tekniken (ingelesez assisted reproductive techniques, ART) artean, obozitoen *in vitro* heltzea (IVM) da gutxien garatuta dagoena (urtean zikloen % 0,1) (*Kupka eta lank.* 2016), baina bere ezarpenak aurrerapen kualitatiboa suposatuko luke.

Esan bezala, obozitoen *in vitro* heltzea *in vitro* ernalkuntza (IVF) baino lehen egiten den pausu bat da eta, teknika horretan, hormonekin estimulatutako gabeko edo estimulazio txikia jaso duten obulutegietako folikulu antraletatik heldu gabeko obozitoak erazten dira (besikula germinal fasean; GV), azkenik, hazkuntza-inguruneetan exogenoki heltzeko. Obozitoen heltzerako erabiltzen diren hazkuntza-inguruneak dituzten osagaiak dira gatzen disoluzio orekatuak, bikarbonato indargetzailea eta proteina- eta energia-iturriak. Heltze-ingurunean gehitzen diren ioi inorganikoak bide metabolikoetan eta seinaleztapen bidezidorretan parte hartzen dutenak dira, sodioa (Na^+), potasioa (K^+) eta kaltzioa (Ca^{2+}), hurrenez hurren (*Thompson*, 1996). Indargetzaile bezala erabiltzen den bikarbonatoak (25 mM) pH 7.2 eta 7.4 bitartean mantentzen laguntzen du, pH fisiologikoaren berdina. Prozesu hori guztia kontrolaturiko baldintzetan egiten da, orokorrean, % 5eko CO_2 -arekin. Normalean, energia-iturria pirubatoa izaten da baina proteinak eta aminoazidoak ere gehitzen dira. Azkenik FSHa, LHa, estradiola edota EGFa bezalako hormonak gehitzen dira LH hormonaren tontor aurreobulatorioa sorrarazten duen *in vivo* seinaleztapena simulatzeko eta modu horretan meiosiaren berraktibazioa bultzatzeko (*Sirard, eta lank.*, 1988). Osagai horiez gain, tenperatura faktore garrantzitsua da heltze-prozesuan, 37 °C eta 39 °C bitartekoa izanik ugaztun espeziearen arabera.

1.2.2 Balizko pazienteak eta onurak

Gaur gaurkoz, IVM teknika abeltzaintzan, zelula-ama enbrionarioen teknologietan, klonazioan eta animalia transgenikoen ekoizpenerako gehien erabiltzen den metodoa da (*Herta eta lank.*, 2018). Baina gizakietara bideratutako tratamenduetan ez dago hedatua, nahiz eta IVM metodoaren abantaila garrantzitsuen den hormonon estimulazioen ondorioz egon litezkeen albo-kalteak murriztuko liratekeela eta aukera bakarra izan daitekeela gonadotropina dosi altuak onartzen ez dituzten pazienteentzako, esate baterako:

- Obulutegietako sindrome polikistikoa (PCOS) daukatenen pazienteentzako (*Nader 2010; González-Ortega eta lank.*, 2019). Obario polikistikoa deituriko gaitza jasateko probabilitatea % 3tik % 7ra igo da azken urteotan eta paziente horientzako hormonon estimulazioa kontraindikatu dago (*Eilertsen*, 2012). Gainera, obulutegietako hiperestimulazio sindromea izateko arrisku altua daukate. PCOS duten emakume antzuetan obozito heldugabeak *in vitro* heldu ondoren enbrioien transferentziaren

bidez haurdunaldi klinikoaren eta inplantazioaren tasak % 35-40 eta % 15-20 izatera iritsi dira, hurrenez hurren, (*Chian eta lank., 2013*).

- Obulutegietako hiperestimulazio sindromea (OHSS) daukaten pazienteentzako. Hainbat ugalketa ziklo egitearen albo kalte ohikoena bihurtzen ari da OHSSa. IVF zikloen % 33an gertatzen da eta zikloen % 2a larria izan daiteke, gaixoaren bizia arriskuan jarritz (*Delvigne eta Rozenberg, 2002; Halupczok eta lank., 2015*).
- Aurretiaz izan duten gaixotasun batengatik obozitoak edota obulutegien zati bat izoztu eta bitrifikazioa egin zaien pazienteentzako, estimulazio hormonalak ez zelako gomendagarria edo ez zelako denbora nahikorik egon lagunduriko ugalketarako ziklo normal bat egiteko (ugal-adinean dauden pazienteak dira ohikoenak, minbiziaren aurka kimioterapia/radioterapiak jaso dituztenak) (*Nikseresht eta lank., 2015*). Nabarmendu beharra dago azken hamarkadatan % 1,5 igo dela ugaltze-aldian dauden emakumeen minbizia izateko arriskua (*Rodriguez-Wallberg eta Oktay, 2014*).
- Leuzemia izan duten pazienteentzako (haurren minbizi-kasu ohikoena da). Zelula ama hematopoietikoen transplanteetarako hautagaiak izan ohi dira eta kasuen artean % 70-90ak obulutegietan kalteak izaten ditu. Gainera horientzako kontraindikaturak dago obulutegiko ehunaren transplantea, minbizidun zelulak berriz ezartzeko arriskua dagoelako (*Grynberg eta lank., 2013*).
- Obulazioan disfuntzioa edo obulaziorik ez duten (anobulazioa) pazienteentzako: hormonekin estimulatu arren obozito helduak lortzeko ezintasuna duten pazienteak (*Luciano eta lank., 2013*).
- Obulutegiko erreserba gutxitua duten pazienteentzako: normalean zelula-germinalen kalitatea gutxitzen delako eta erabakigarria da haurdunaldia lortzeko; amatasun berantiarra da adibiderik ohikoena (*Lee eta lank., 2015*).
- Azaldu ezineko antzutasuna diagnostikatu zaien pazienteentzako: ezin da baztertu antzutasunaren kausa ugalketa prozesua baldintzatzen duen obozitoen heltze okerra dela (*Coticchio, eta lank., 2015*).

Horrez gain, badira antzutasun arazorik izan gabe lagunduriko ugalketen beharra dutenak eta kasu horietan ere IVM izango litzateke hormona jaso behar ez izateko aukerarik onena. Izan ere, obozitoak erauzteko hormona dosia murriztu edo ekidingo litzake (*Söderström-Anttila eta lank., 2005*). Horrela, ugalketa-tratamendu osoaren urrats arriskutsuena saihestuko litzateke, hain zuzen ere, hormonon administrazioak higadura handia dakar eta albo-kalte desatseginen agerpena maila desberdinetan (*Cousineau eta Domar 2007*).

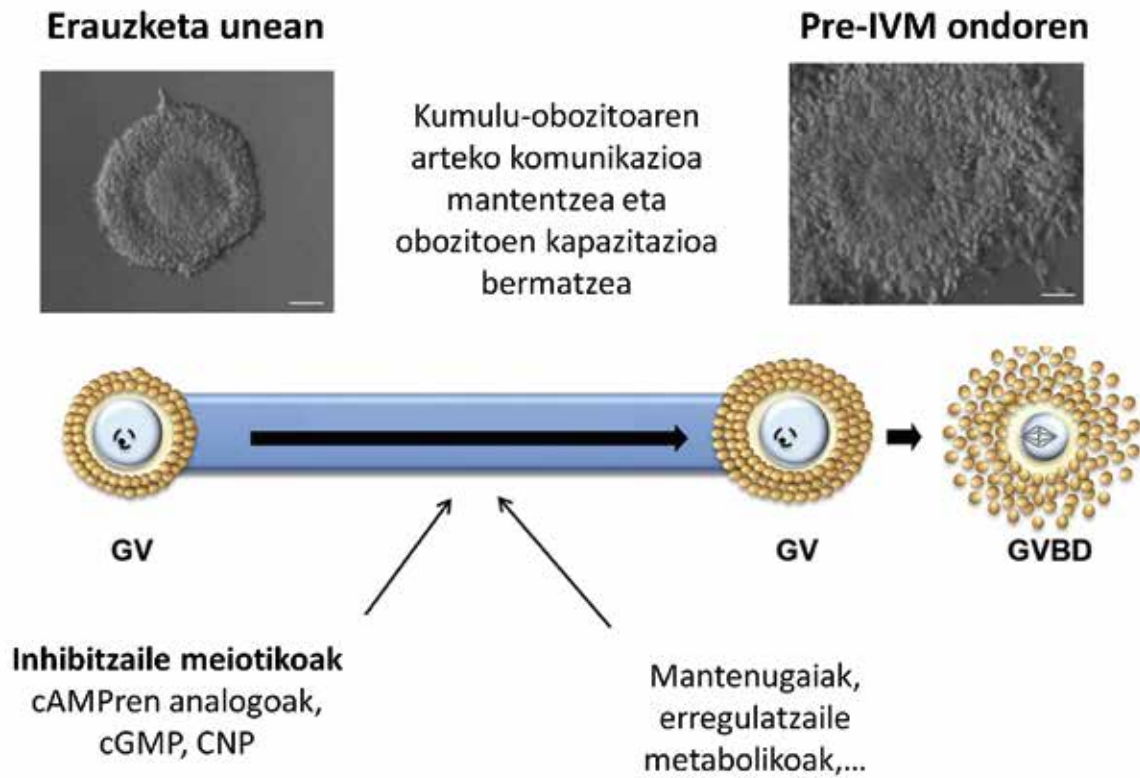
Amaitzeko, kontrolatutako obarioen estimulazio ekiditen denez, IVM prozedurarekin ez da beharrezkoa ultrasoinuen bidezko jarraipena eta, beraz, ez da ohiko *in vitro* ernalketa (IVF) bezain garestia (*Chang eta lank., 2014*).

1.2.3 Pre-IVM fasea edo kapazitazio-fasea (CAPA-IVM)

IVM teknikaren erabilgarritasuna handitzeko asmoz, teknika horren beste erronka bat da diametro txikiagoko COC talde homogeneoagoak eskuratzea, folikuluen gehiegizko garapena ekiditeko. Heltze-prozesuko etapa bereko COCak eskuratzeko (GV fasekoak) beharrezkoa da gizakietan hCGaren administrazioa ekiditea (eta animaliekin egindako tratamendu esperimentaletan, behorraren gonadotropina korionikoa (eCG) ematea) (Romero *eta lank.*, 2016). Saguekin egiten diren ikerketa gehienetan eCG hormona erabiltzen da nahiko garatuta dauden folikuluetatik obozitoak eskuratzeko. Hala ere, honek *in vitro* heltze-eredua baldintzatu dezake obozitoaren garapen gaitasuna ere baldintzatzeko delako. Hau da, obozitoaren garapen gaitasuna, ernaldua izateko gaitasuna eta enbrioi bideragarri baten bihurtzeko gaitasuna gradualki lortzen da folikulugenesian zehar. Prozesu hori obozitoaren hazkuntzarekin hasten da folikulugenesiaren lehenengo etapetan. Obozitoa bere amaierako tamainatik hurbil dagoenean, beste eraldaketa batzuk jasango ditu, hain ikusgarriak ez direnak baina zeharo garrantzitsuak izango direnak ugalketa-helburua lortzeko, garapen gaitasuna zehazteko, alegia. Folikuluak baldintzatzeko eraldaketa horiei deritze obozitoaren “kapazitazioa” eta garapen gaitasuna duten obozitoen proportzioa folikuluen tamainarekin handitzen da (horregatik erabiltzen da, adibidez, eCG) (Mermillod *eta lank.*, 1999). Kapazitazio-prozesuan obozitoak ezarpenaren aurreko garapenean laguntzen duen makineria zitoplasmatiko guztia eskuratzen du (Herta *eta lank.*, 2018). Hala ere, askotan, hazkuntza folikularraren eta obozitoaren garapen gaitasunaren arteko erlazioa ez da zorrotza izaten, obozito jakin batek gaitasun hori folikulugenesiaren edozein etapatan lor dezakeelako eta adibide ugari daude folikuluen tamainaren eta obozitoen kompetentziaren arteko desoreka gertatzen dela frogatzen dutenak (Mermillod *eta lank.*, 1999).

IVM teknikaren berrikuntza bide horretatik dator: hormonatu gabeko folikulu antral goiztiarretatik eratorritako obozito heldugabeek gaitasun meiotikoa eta garapen gaitasun osoa eskuratzea (Romero *eta lank.*, 2016). Horretarako, obozitoen heltze-prozesuan gertatzen den sinkronizazioa eza gainditu beharra dago (heltze zitoplasmatikoaren eta nukleoaren heltzearen artean). Izan ere, folikulu antraletatik erauzten diren obozitoetan heltze nuklearra arinegi berraktibatzen da eta kapazitazio-prozesua asaldatzen da (Herta *eta lank.*, 2018). Beraz, meiosiaren berraktibazio goiztiarra saihestu behar da, lehenago heltze nuklearraren eta zitoplasmatikoaren arteko sinkronizazioa hobetzeko (Herta *eta lank.*, 2018). Helburu hori lortzeko, *in vitro* heltzearen aurreko pauso luzeago bat gehitu da, pre-IVM (*in vitro* aurre heltze-prozesua) edo CAPA-IVM (kapazitazio-kultiboa). Etapa horretan, garapen gaitasuna eskuratzeko denbora nahikoa izateko helburuarekin, IVM egin aurretik meiosiaren geldiaraztea behartzen da eta cAMParen seinaleztapen bidezidorrak modulatzeko dira cAMP maila altuak mantentzeko obozito barnean. cAMP maila altuak mantentzeko bideetariko bat PDEa inhibitzen duten konposatuak erabiltzea izan da, esaterako, CNPa (Sanchez *eta lank.*, 2019) (1.11 irudia). Konposatu hori, obozitoaren heltze-prozesuaren inhibitzaile naturala da eta konposatu honen potentziala obozitoen garapen gaitasuna hobetzeko eta, ondorioz, enbrioiaren kalitatea emendatzeko, frogatua izan da ugaztunetan (Sanchez *eta lank.*, 2017).

Aipatutako guztia dela eta, garrantzitsua da obozitoen heltze-prozesuan jarduten duten seinaleztapen bideak zeintzuk diren jakitea, horrek *in vitro* heltze-prozesua nola hobetu dezakeen jakiteko.



1.11 irudia. Oboizitoen kapazitazioa eta in vitro heltzearen aurreko etapa (Pre-IVM). Oboizito guztiak ez dira kompetenteak enbrioi batean bihurtzeko. COCak folikulutik erauztean bat-bateko meiosiaren berraktibazioa gertatzen da eta, ondorioz, aukera gehiago dago heltze nuklearraren eta zitoplasmatikoaren artean sinkronizazio arazoak egoteko. Irudi honetan, Pre-IVM kultibo estrategia posible bat irudikatu da oboizitoen garapen gaitasuna eta IVM teknika hobetzeko xedearekin. Meiosiaren blokeoa eragile farmakologikoen bidez lor daiteke, oboizitoak denbora nahikoa izan dezan heltze nuklearra eta heltze zitoplasmatikoa sinkronizatzeko. GVaren haustura (GVBD) inhibitzean edo atzeratzean heltze gaitasun handiagoa eta blastozisto kopuru altuagoa eskuratzen da. (*Herta eta lank.*, 2018-tik moldatua).

1.3 Ernalketa eta enbrioaren garapena

1.3.1 Ernalketa

Ernalketan oso desberdintzapen altuko bi zelula haploide (n), obozitoa eta espermatozoidea, elkartuko dira eta elkar aktibatu ondoren zigoto diploide bat (2n) eratuko da. Horretarako, beharrezkoa da bai obozitoak bai espermatozoideak zigoto bideragarria sortzea bermatuko duten aldaketak jasan behar izatea. Tesi honetan nahiz eta obozitoan zentratu garen laburki azalduko dugu ernalketa gertatzeko beharrezkoa den beste zelula germinalaren sorrera nolakoa den eta ernalketarainoko prozesuan jasaten dituen eraldaketak zeintzuk diren.

1.3.1.1 Espermatozoideen heltzea

Espermatogenesisia bukatu eta gero, espermatozoideak, oso zelula espezializatuak izan arren, oraindik ez dira gai obozitoa ernaltzeko. Aldaketa morfologikoez gain, aldaketa fisiologiko eta biokimiko sakonak ere jasan behar izango dituzte epididimoan zeharreko garraioan. Aldaketa horiei guztiei espermatozoidearen heltze-prozesua deritze (*Yanagimachi, 1994*). Eiakulazioan zehar, espermatozoideak likido seminalean dauden faktore inhibitzaileekin batzen dira, ondoren azalduko diren kapazitazioa eta erreakzio akrosomikoa deituriko prozesuak saihesteko (*Töpfer-Petersen eta lank., 2000*). Espermatozoideen ernalketarako gaitasun osoa emeen ugaltze-aparatuan bukatzen da, kapazitazioarekin eta erreakzio akrosomikoarekin (*Sadler, 2004*).

1.3.1.2 Espermatozoideen kapazitazioa

Espermatozoideek ernalketaren azkeneko pausoak aurrera eramateko emearen ugaltze aparatuan jasaten duten aldaketa multzoari kapazitazio deritzo (*Sadler, 2004*). Espermatozoideek ernaltzeko gaitasuna lortu dezaten emearen ugaltze traktuarekin kontaktuan egon behar dira faktore inhibitzaileengandik askatzeko obozitoa ernaldia izan aurretik (*Töpfer-Petersen eta lank., 2000*). *In vitro*, saguetan eta gizakietan, espermatozoideen kapazitazioa epe laburrean gerta daiteke medio nahiko sinple eta kimikoki definituan inkubatuta (*Yanagimachi, 1994*).

1.3.1.3 Espermatozoideen akrosomaren erreakzioa eta ernalketa

Espermatozoideen kapazitazioa gertatu ondoren, akrosomaren (espermatozoidearen buruaren alde apikalean kokatzen den besikula) kanpo-mintza eta espermatozoidearen buruko mintz plasmatikoa fusionatzean dira (*Flesch eta Gadella, 2000*). Horrek, lehenik eta behin, akrosoman dauden entzimak askatzea eragiten du, nagusiki, hialuronidasa eta akrosina, eta horrela espermatozoideak pikor-geruzako zelulak zeharkatu ahal izango ditu. Obozitoaren mintz plasmatikoa granulu kortikalen mintzarekin fusionatzean proteinen exozitazioa ahalbidetzen du, askatzean polispermia blokeatzeaz arduratzen baitira (*Liu, 2011*).

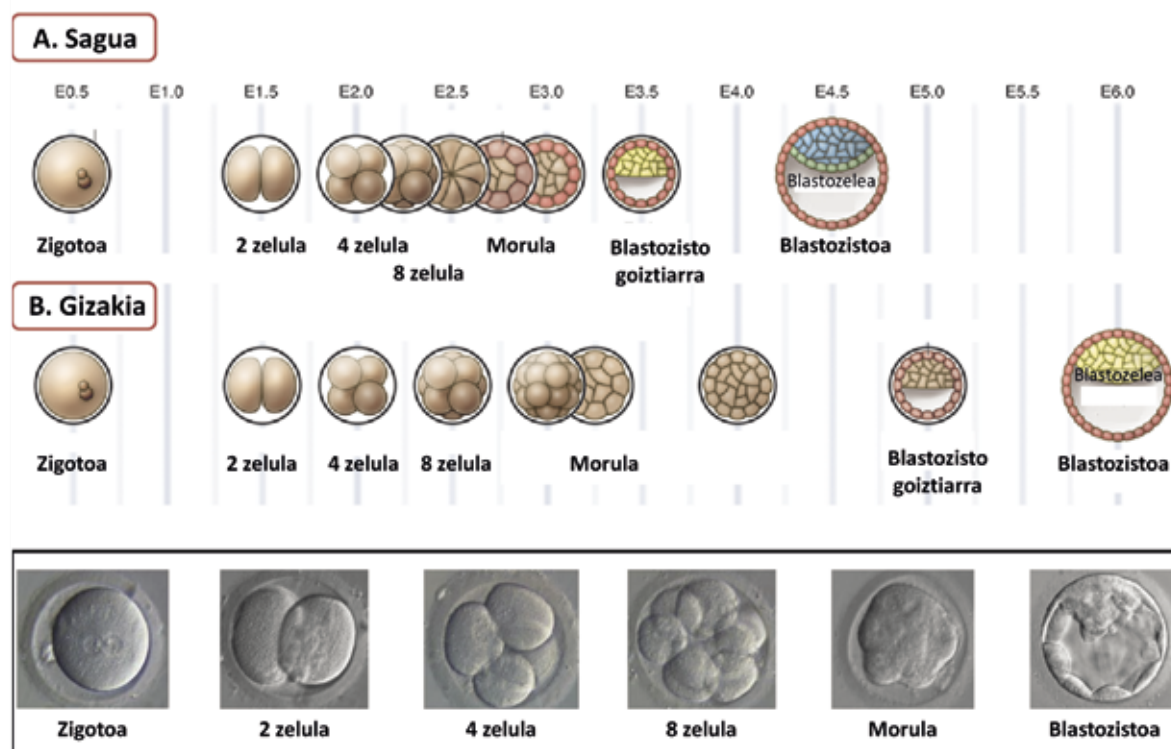
Ernalketa, gertaera bakar batez baino, prozesu multzo batzuez osatuta dago. Bere zentzurik zabalenean, espermatozoidea obozitoaren *corona radiata*-n barneratzen denean hasten da eta espermatozoidea obozitoan sartu ondoren emearen eta arraren kromosomak nahastean bukatzen da. Ernalketan obozitoaren metabolismoa aktibatzen da eta oso prozesu garrantzitsua da zigotoaren segmentaziorako eta enbrioiaren garapenerako (*Talmor-Cohen eta lank., 2002*).

1.3.2 Enbrioiaren garapena

Obozito sekundario helduen eta espermatozoide bideragarrien arteko ernalketak pronukleo maskulino eta femeninoa duen enbrioi zelulabakarraren sorrera dakar (zigotoa ere deritzo). Ernalketaren ondoren, enbrioi morfologikoki desberdindutako hainbat etapetatik pasatzen da eta zelula kopuruaren arabera sailkatzen da (**1.12 irudia**): zelula bakarreko enbrioiak zatiketa mitotiko sekuentzialak izaten ditu 2 zelula, 4 zelula, 8 zelula, 16 zelula, morula eta blastozisto etapetatik pasatzeko (*Assou eta lank., 2011*).

Hala ere, teknologia "omikoen" aroan, oraindik ere, ernalkuntzaren inguruko mekanismoen ezagutza mugatua da, prozesu honetan morfologikoki eta funtzionalki desberdinak diren bi zelula (obozitoak eta espermatozoideak) batzen baitira organismo oso bat eratzeko. Are gehiago, zelula germinal horiek hurrengo belaunaldirako informazio genetikoa eta epigenetikoa igortzeaz arduratuko dira (*Canovas eta lank., 2017*). Horregatik, ugaztunetan enbrioiaren garapenaren inguruan egindako ikerketek oso informazio garrantzitsua ematen digute etapa horietan gertatzen diren prozesu konplexuak ulertzeko, hala nola, garapen zinetikoa, enbrioiaren genoma aktibatzeke unea, genearen adierazpen patroia, kromosomen segregazioa eta aldaketa epigenetikoaren patroiak (*Schultz, 2002; Santos eta Dean, 2004; Niakan eta lank., 2012; Gutierrez-Adan eta lank., 2015*).

Urte askotan zehar egindako ikerketek enbrioiaren garapenaren eredu oso bat sortu dute saguan, erregulazio atal desberdinak integratzen dituen: morfologikoa, zelularra, transkripzionala, post-transkripzionala eta epigenetikoa. Hala ere, karraskariak ez ziren ugaztunetan egindako lehenengo ikerketek erakutsi zuten ugaztun espezieen artean nabarmen aldatzen direla bai denborak bai desberdintasun goiztiarreko gertakarien mekanismoak (*Oron eta Ivanova, 2012*). Hori dela eta, laburki deskribatuko dugu enbrioiaren garapen goiztiarra saguetan eta gizakietan **1.12 irudian** ikusi daitekeen bezala.



1.12 irudia. Saguaren eta gizakiaren enbrioiaren garapeneko etapak ezarpenerarte. (A) Saguaren, ernaldutako obozitoak hiru zatiketa jasango ditu, zortzi zelulako enbrioia sortuz. Hortik aurrera, zatiketa zelularrak bi zelula-populazio sortzen ditu, enbrioia barrualdea osatuko dutenak eta kanpoaldea osatuko dutenak. Blastozelea deituriko barrunbea enbrioiaren barruan 32 zelulako fasetik eratzen hasten da eta enbrioia hazten eta heltzen doa blastozistoaren faseraino. (B) Gizakiaren enbrioi goiztiarraren garapena (ezarpenaren aurrekoa) ere antzerakoa da, nahiz eta trinkotzea 8-16 zelularen fasean gertatzen den (Cockburn eta Rossant, 2010).

1.3.2.1 Ezarpen aurreko enbrioiaren garapena

Ezarpen aurreko fasearen iraupena, zigotetik (ernalketa unetik) blastozistora arte (ezarpen aurreko fasea), 4 egunekoa da saguetan (Bedzhov eta lank., 2014), eta behia eta gizakia bezalako beste espezie batzuetan, berriz, 7 egun behar dira prozesua osatzeko (Norwitz eta lank., 2001; Lonergan eta lank., 2016).

- **Zigotoa**

Lehenengo etapan, zigotoan, pronukleoa garatzen da, DNAREN erreplikazioa eta sintesia gertatzen da eta RNAREN transkripzioa hasten da. Azkenik, pronukleo femeninoak eta maskulinoak fusionatzen dira (singamia) zigotoa sortzeko (Rahman eta lank., 2008).

Ondoren, zigotoak hiru zatiketa jasaten ditu. Momentu honetan gertatzen da aurre-ezarpenaren garapeneko gertakari garrantzitsuenetako bat: zigotoaren genomaren aktibazioa. Enbrioiaren

transkripzioaren aktibazioa obozitoak emandako RNAREN degradazioarekin batera gertatzen da, bi zelulako enbrioiaren fasean amaitzen dena (*Oron eta Ivanova, 2012*).

- **2 zelulako enbrioia, 4-8 zelulako enbrioia eta 8-16 zelulako enbrioia**

Hurrengo etapa, 2 zelularen etapa, bi zelula simetrikoren lehen zatiketa mitotikoari dagokio. Saguetan zatiketa hori garapeneko lehenengo egunean gertatzen da, gutxi gorabehera, ernalkuntzaren ondorengo 24 orduetan [*hours post fertilization* (hpf), ingelesez]; gizakietan, berriz, 25 hpf-tan ematen da. Prozesuak aurrera darrai eta zelulek simetrikoki zatitzen jarraituko dute. Saguetan, zatiketak 12 orduko periodoetan ematen dira; 36 orduetara 4-8 zeluletako enbrioia sortzen da eta 48 orduetara 8-16 zeluletakoa ikus daiteke. Gizakietan, aldiz, 4-8 zeluletako enbrioia 40 hpf-tara sortzen da eta 8-16 zeluletakoa 50 hpf-tara (*Rahman eta lank., 2008*).

- **Morula: trinkotzea eta polarizazioa**

Saguetan behin zortzi zelulako enbrioia osatuta trinkotu egiten da, zelulen arteko loturak sendotzen direlako eta enbrioi goiztiarraren zelulak (blastomeroak) lautu egiten dira. Trinkotzean E-katerinina eta kateninen (alfa, beta eta delta) arteko proteina konplexuak eratzen dira. Zelulen atxikimendua handitzen den momentu berean, blastomeroak polarizatu egiten dira eta, beraz, kanpoko eskualdeak (alde apikala) barrurantz begira dauden eskualdeetatik (basolateralak) berezitzen dira (*Oron eta Ivanova, 2012*). Enbrioiak masusta itxura hartzen duenez morula izenez ezagutzen da. Gizakietan 16 zelula izatean hasten da trinkotzea (*Rahman eta lank., 2008*). Oraindik ez dago argi nola hasten diren trinkotzea eta polarizazioa baina prozesu biak funtsezkoak dira blastozistoen leinuak ondo bereizteko.

- **Blastozistoa: Barneko zelula masaren (*Inner cell mass*, ICM, ingelesez) eta trofoektodermoaren (TE) desberdintzapena eta blastozelearen eraketa**

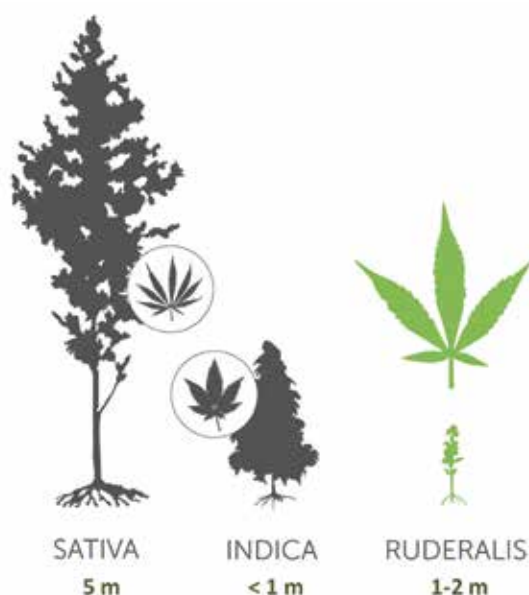
Enbrioia trinkotu eta polarizatu ondoren, kanpoko zelulak jariakina ponpatzen hasten dira enbrioiaren kanpoaldetik barrualdera eta jariakina pilatzen hasten da zelulen arteko espazio interzelularretan, pixkanaka-pixkanaka tamaina handitzen doan barrunbe bat eratzen delarik, blastozelea. Momentu horretatik aurrera enbrioia blastozistoaren fasean sartzen da. Blastozisto fasean bi zelula geruza desberdin sortzen dituzten bi zatiketa gehigarri gertatzen dira. Bi zelula-populazio horiek garapenerako helmugetan desberdintzen dira: kanpoko zelulek TE leinua eratuko dute, eta barneko zelulek, ICMA osatuko dute. ICMA da etorkizuneko enbrioiaren jatorria, eta ICMaren inguruan dagoen trofoektodermotik eratorriko da plazenta (*Oron eta Ivanova, 2012*).

Blastozistoaren etapa berantiarrean enbrioia mintz peluzidotik ateratzen da eta prozesu hori eklosio izenez ezagutzen da. Momentu horretan, trofoektodermoko zelulak endometrioko epitelioari atxikitzeko gai dira eta enbrioiaren ezarpena gertatuko da (*Cockburn eta Rossant, 2010*). Gizakiekin *in vitro* egiten diren esperimenduetan ezarpenaren aurreko enbrioiaren fase horretaraino heldu daiteke (14 eguneko enbrioia) (BOE-A-2006-9292).

1.4 Sistema kannabinoidea

1.4.1 Jatorria

Kalamu landarea (*Cannabis sativa* L.), herri-mailan marihuana izenarekin ezaguna, *Cannabaceae* familiako landare loredua da eta hainbat habitatetan eta altitudetan aurkitu daiteke, itsaso mailatik Himalaiako mendi alpinoetaraino. Badirudi jatorria hor bertan duela, Erdialdeko Asian, Himalaia mendikatean, nahiz eta 5000tik 6000 urte bitarteko antzinatasuna duenez zaila den espezie horren jatorria zehaztea (ElSohly MA, 2017). Gaur egun, hiru barietate geografiko nagusi deskribatzen dira, *Cannabis sativa* (Europa eta Erdialdeko Asia), *Cannabis indica* (Hego Asia, Afrika eta Hego Amerika) eta *Cannabis ruderalis* (Erdialdeko Asia) eta, nahiz eta barietate bakoitzak osagai aktibo berberak dituen, horien osaera eta kantitatea alda daitezke (ElSohly, 2017) **(1.13 irudia)**.



1.13 irudia. Cannabis landarearen barietate nagusiak: *C. sativa*, *C. indica* eta *C. ruderalis*

Cannabis sativa-k oso historia aberatsa du, duela 4000 urte gutxienez, medikuntzan, helburu espiritualekin edota dibertimendurako erabilia baitzen (Mechoulam, 1986) eta lehenengo aipuak Kristo aurreko III. mendekoak dira. Txinan, K.a. 2600. urtean Nei Ching deituriko mediku batek gomendatzen zuen malariaren sintomak, idorreria, erreumak eragindako minak eta dismenorrea arintzeko (Li, 1973). Kalamua janari-iturri eta ehungintzarako zuntz-iturri zaharrenetako bat da (ElSohly, 2017) eta aspaldidanik izan du oso harreman estua gizakiarekin. (Mechoulam, 1986). European ere aspaldikoa da landare horren erabilera. Egipton eta mendebaldeko Asian sortu zen ehungintzarako kannabis landarearen kultiboa Europara Kristo aurretik 1000. urte inguruan sartu zen (ElSohly, 2017) eta, jada, VI. mendean kalamua landatzen zen. Mendebaldeko medikuntzara XIX. mende erdialdean sartu zen, Willian B. O'Shaughnessy mediku irlandarraren eskutik, Indian egon baitzen britainiarrei zerbitzatzen eta han ezagutu zituen landarea eta bere erabilera terapeutikoak. Gerora, O'Shaughnessy-k, 1843an, "On the preparations of the Indian hemp, or gunjah" lana argitaratu zuen (Frankhauser, 2002). Garrantzia

handia izan zuen baita ere Moreu psikiatra frantsesak 1845ean argitaratu zuen liburuak, “*Du Hachisch et de l’Alienation Mentale: Etudes Psychologiques*” zeinetan kannabisaren eraginen deskribapen oso zehatzak egin zituen (Frankhauser, 2002).

O’Shaughnessy-ren eta Moreau-ren lanek eragin handia izan zuten mendebaldeko medikuntzan, batez ere, aukera terapeutiko gutxi zegoelako amorrua, sukar beltza eta tetanosa bezalako gaixotasun infekziosoentzako. Kalamuaren erabilera medikoa Ingalaterra eta Frantziatik Europa osora hedatu zen eta ondoren Ipar Amerikara (Frankhauser, 2002). 1860 urtean egin zen kalamuari buruzko lehenengo hitzaldi klinikoa Ohio Estatuko Medikuen Elkarteak antolatuta. XIX. mendearen bigarren erdialdean, 100 artikulua zientifiko baino gehiago argitaratu ziren European eta Estatu Batuetan kannabisaren balio terapeutikoari buruz. Gainera, XIX. eta XX. mendeen artean hainbat laborategik kannabisaren erazkinak eta tinturak merkaturatu zituzten, hala nola, Merck (Alemania), Burroughs-Wellcome (Ingalaterra), Bristol Meyers Squibb (Estatu Batuak), Parke-Davis (Estatu Batuak) eta Eli Lilly (Estatu Batuak) konpainiek (Frankhauser, 2002). Baina XX. mendeko lehen hamarkadetan, dosifikatzeko zituen zailtasunak eta konposatu berrien agerpenak, kannabis terapeutikoaren kontsumoaren gainbehera ekarri zuten. Horri gehitu behar zaizkio lege aldetik egin ziren murrizpenak (Murray eta lank., 2007).

Hala ere, ikertzaile batzuek jarraitu zuten kannabinoideen ikerketarekin eta XIX. mende amaieran kannabinola (CBN) izan zen isolatu zen lehenengo landare-kannabinoidea (fitokannabinoidea), kannabisaren olio gorri baten estraktutik abiatuta. Horren egitura 1930. urtean argitu zen R.S. Cahn-eri esker eta, 1940ko hamarkadan, lortu zen sintesi kimikoa egitea Estatu Batuetako R. Adams-en eta Erresuma Batuko Lord Tood-en laborategietan (Todd, 1946). Cannabidiola (CBD) izan zen eskuratu zen bigarren fitokannabinoidea Adams eta lankideen bidez, seguruenik azido kannabidiolikoarekin konbinatuta (Pertwee, 2006). Garai berdintsuan, 1942an, Wollner-ek, Matchett-ek, Levine-ek eta Loewe-k tetrahidrokannabinola edo delta-9-tetrahidrokarbokannabinola (THC) erauzi zuten lehenengoz kannabisetik, hau ere $\Delta 8$ - eta $\Delta 9$ -THCarekin nahaste bezala (Pertwee, 2006). Geroago, 1960ko hamarkadan, THC purifikatu eta egitura deskribatu zen (Gaoni eta Mechoulam, 1964). Mechoulam-en laborategian lortu zen baita ere, 1965ean THCa eta CBDa sintetizatzea, lehen aldiz (Pertwee, 2006).

Guzti horrek, kannabisaren osagai aktiboek buruzko ikerketak ugaritzen lagundu zuen (Gaoni eta Mechoulam, 1964) eta aro berria ireki zen kalamu landarea eta kannabinoideak izeneko haren konposatuak ikertzeko (Pertwee, 2006).

1.4.2 Kannabinoideak

Kannabinoideak kalamu landareak (*Cannabis sativa* L.) sintetizatutako metabolito sekundarioen multzo gisa definitzen dira.

Cannabis sativa landarea konposatu kimiko ugari osatzen dute. Identifikatutako 483 konposatuetako batzuk soilik kannabisaren landarean ageri dira, esate baterako, 60 kannabinoide baino gehiago;

aldiz, terpenoak, talde ugariena osatzen duten 140 mota inguru, landareen erresuman oso hedatuta daude. “Kannabinoide” terminoak orain arte *Cannabis sativa*-n soilik aurkitutako C21 konposatu terpenofenolikoaren multzoa adierazten du (*Brenneisen, 2007*).

1964. urtetik aurrera nagusitu zen kannabinoideen inguruko ikerketa, landare honen Δ^9 -tetrahidrokannabinola (THC) (*Mechoulam eta Gaoni 1965*) osagai psikoaktibo ugariena aurkitu zenean. THC da efektu bioaktiboaren arduradun nagusia eta kannabinoide ugariena, baina marihuanan dibenzopirantetik eratorritako 66 konposatu identifikatu dira (*ElSohly, 2002*). Horietatik, garrantzitsuenetarikoak Δ^9 -tetrahidrokannabibarina (THCren efektua antagonizatzen duena), kannabidiola (CBD, bigarren konposatu ugariena eta eragin psikoaktiborik gabea) eta kannabinola (CBN) dira (*Elsohly eta Slade, 2005*).

1.4.3 Barne-sistema kannabinoidea

Kannabinoideen izaera lipofilikoagatik luzaroan pentsatu zen konposatu ez-hidrodisolbagarrien (anestesikoak, disolbatzaileak...) moduan jokatzen zutela, efektua mintz zelularren jariatortasunean eragindako aldaketengatik zela, alegia (*Lawrence eta Gill, 1975*).

1980ko hamarkadaren erdialdean, bi aurkikuntza berritzaile egin ziren San Luis Unibertsitateko Allyn Howlett laborategian, kannabinoide-hartzaileak deskribatu ziren. Behaketa ugariak THCak hartzaile jakin batzuen bidez joka zezakeela iradokitzen zuten, Howlett-ek eta bere taldeak lehen aldiz hartzailea identifikatu zuten arte, 1 motako kannabinoide hartzailea (CB1, geroago CNR1 izendatuko dena) (*Howlett, 2005*). Urte batzuk geroago, hartzailea karakterizatu zen eta bere kokapena, batez ere, nerbio-sistema zentrolean deskribatu zen (*Devane eta lank., 1988; Matsuda eta lank., 1990*). Ondoren, 2 motako kannabinoidea (CB2, geroago CNR2 deitua) identifikatu zen nagusiki maila-periferikoan eta sistema immunologikoan (*Munro eta lank., 1993*).

Hartzaileen presentzia ezagututa, horiek aktibatzen dituzten barne-estekatzaileen bilaketa hasi zen, barne-kannabinoide edo endokannabinoide bezala ezagutzen direnak. Identifikatu zuten lehenengoa N-arakidonoleitolamina izan zen, anandamida (AEA) bezala ere ezaguna (*Devane eta lank., 1992*). “Ananda” hitzetik dator, sanskritoz barruko zorientasuna esan nahi duena eta estekatzaile horren efektu euforikoak deskribatzen ditu (*Fezza eta lank., 2014*). Aurkitu zen bigarrena 2-arakidonoleilglicerola (2-AG) izan zen (*Mechoulam eta lank., 1995*). Bi konposatuak azido arakidonikotik eratorriak dira eta zelulak behar dituen unean bertan ekoizten dira. Bi konposatu horiek, CB1 zein CB2 hartzaileetara lotzeko gaitasuna dute baina hartzaile bakoitzarekiko dituzten afinitateak desberdinak dira (**1.2 taula**). Endokannabinoide hauek metatu beharrean zelularen eskariaren arabera sintetizatzen dira eta, askatu ondoren, haien ekintza guneetatik ezabatzen dira zelularen andeakuntza prozesuen bidez.

Horrela, ondorioztatu zen sintesi eta andeakuntza entzimek ere parte hartzen dutela. Estimulu bati erantzunez, kaltzio zitoplasmikoaren metaketa gertatzen denean, endokannabinoideen sintesirako makineria aktibatuko litzateke, horrela, konposatu horien sorrera handituz. AEAren sintesia kaltzioaren menpeko bi entzimaren ekintza sekuentzialaren bidez gertatzen da, N-aziltransferasa (NAT) eta D

fosfolipasaren espezifikoa den N-arakidonoilfosfatanolamina (NAPE-PLD) (*Di Marzo eta lank., 1994; Maccarrone eta lank., 2015*).

Aitzitik, diazilglizerol lipasa (DAGL) α/β da 2-AG sintesiaren arduraduna (*Maccarrone eta lank., 2015*). Sortutakoan, (i) lipido haiek hartzaile jakin batzuetara lotu edo (ii) berriro bildu eta degradatu daitezke. Endokannabinoiden andeakuntza gehienbat bi entzimaren bidez egiten da: gantz-azidoen amida hidrolasa (FAAH) AEarentzat (*Giang eta Cravatt, 1997, Cravatt eta lank., 2001*) eta monoazilglizerolipasa (MGL), 2-AGarentzat (*Dinh eta lank., 2002*).

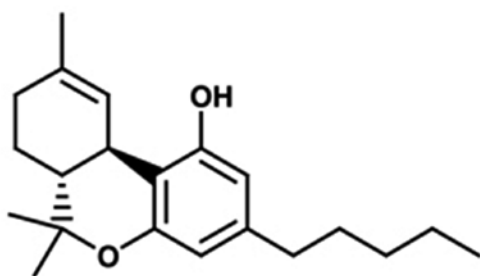
Modu honetan, barne-sistema kannabinoidea osatzen dute kannabinoide-hartzaileek, euren barne-estekatzzaileek (endokannabinoidak) eta sintesi eta degradazio-entzimek. Laburbilduz, gaur egun, kannabinoide hitzak landarearen kannabinoideak biltzen ditu, fitokannabinoidak bezala ere ezagutzen direnak, baina endokannabinoidetara buruz hitz egiten dugunean, animalien zelulek sor dezaketen kannabinoideetara buruz ari gara. Gainera, bi talde horien analogo sintetikoak ere badaude.

Barne-estekatzzaileak desberdintzen dituen ezaugarria da ez direla aldez aurretik sintetizatzen ez eta besikuletan gordetzen. Horregatik, jarraitzen da hauen inguruko ikerketa sakonak egiten, neurotransmisoreen jardueraren kontrolean duten funtzio garrantzitsua argitzeko helburuarekin, esate baterako, nerbioetan eta egitura periferikoetan (*Zou eta Kumar, 2018*).

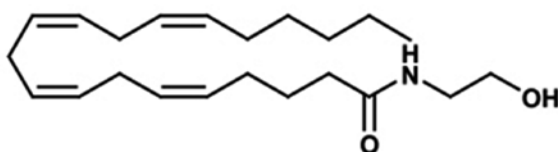
1.4.3.1 Δ^9 -tetrahidrokannabinol (THC) fitokannabinoida

THC fitokannabinoida ohikoena da kalamuan eta landarean CBDaren alelo ko-dominante baten bidez ekoizten da (*de Meijer eta lank., 2003*). THC fitokannabinoida AEAREN analogoa da (**1.14 irudia**) eta CB1 eta CB2 kannabinoide-hartzaileen agonista partziala da. THCak $K_i \sim 80,3-32,2$ nM afinitate-konstantea dauka, hurrenez hurren, bi hartzaileentzako (**1.2 taula**) (*Rhee eta lank., 1997*). Eragin psikoaktiboa, analgesikoa, muskulu erlaxatzaile eta antiespasmotikoak ditu (*Pacher eta lank., 2006*). Gainera, bronkodilatadorea da, antioxidatzaile neurobabeslea, ikterizia kolestatikoan agente antipruritikoa eta aspirina baino 20 aldiz eraginkorragoa hanturaren kontra eta hidrokortisona baino 2 aldiz indartsuagoa (*Russo, 2011*).

THCak interes handia piztu du haren analogo sintetikoak (dronabinola eta nabilona) erabilera medikorako baimenduak izan direnetik (*Dinis-Oliveira, 2016*) Izan ere, fitokannabinoiden erabilera eta, THCArena kasu honetan, klinikan errazagoa eta fidakorragoa da beste edozein kannabinoide sintetikorekin alderatuta (*Wiley eta lank., 2014; Schreiber eta lank., 2019*). Gaur egun, badaude merkatuan kannabinoideak dituzten baimendutako medikamentuak: Marinol[®]: THC sintetikodun kapsulak (dronabinola) sesamolioan disolbatuak. Sativex[®]: kannabis estandarizatuaren estraktua duen aerosola (THC: CBD 1:1 eta % 5 beste kannabinoideena). Cesamet[®]: THC sintetikoaren analogo baten kapsulak (nabilona). Sativex[®]-aren kasuan, esklerosi anizkoitza duten pazienteentzako erabiltzeko baimena daukate (*Feliú eta lank., 2015*).



Δ^9 -Tetrahidrokannabinola (THC)



Anandamida (AEA)

1.14 irudia. Δ^9 -tetrahidrokannabinolaren (THC) eta anandamidaren (AEA) egitura kimikoa. (Sharir eta Abood, 2010)

Nahiz eta kannabisaren erabilera terapeutikoaren edo aisialdiko erabileraren arteko eztabaidak erabat desberdinak izan, errealitatea da kannabisak gure gorputzean dituen eraginak ezagutzea ezinbestekoa dela, bere kontsumoaren balizko erabilera eta ondorioei aurre egiteko.

1.4.3.2 Kannabinoide-hartzaileak

Kannabinoide-hartzaileak hartzaile metabotropikoak dira eta mintz plasmatikoa zeharkatzen duten 7 domeinuz osatuta daude: N-muturra zelularen kanpoaldean kokatua dago eta C-muturra zelula barnean (Howlett eta lank., 2002). G proteinei loturiko hartzaileen (GPCR) familiako hartzaileak dira eta nagusiki $G_{\alpha/o}$ G proteina azpiunitateei lotuta daude (Howlett eta lank. 2002).

Kannabinoide-hartzaileak alfa, beta eta gamma azpiunitateez osatuta daudenez, heterotrimerikoak deritze. Alfa azpiunitatea (G_α) da garrantzi handiena duena, GDP (Guanosina difosfatoa) eta GTP (Guanosina trifosfato) nukleotidoei lotzeko aukera du, bi egoera horien artean aldatetako eginez. Gainera, erabakigarria da GPCR bidezko zelula barruko seinaleak aktibatzeak. Beta-gamma dimeroaz ($G_{\beta\gamma}$) osatutako azpitaldea seinaleztapen bide zehatzagoak aktibatzeak gai da. Egoera basalean α azpiunitatea GDPra lotua dago eta $\beta\gamma$ dimeroari hertsiki elkartua. G proteina horien aktibazioak α eta $\beta\gamma$ azpiunitateen banaketa dakar.

Kannabinoide-hartzaileak G proteina inhibitzaileekin (G_i) lotuta daude, batez ere, α azpiunitateak AC inhibitzen du, eta cAMParen ekoizpena txikitzen da. Horren ondorioz, PKAaren aktibazioa ere murrizten da. Bestalde, $\beta\gamma$ dimeroak seinaleztatze-bide desberdinak aktiba ditzake, hala nola, PI3K/AKT eta MAPK,

p38 MAPK eta Jun N-bukaera kinasak (JNK) (*Liu eta lank., 2000; Rueda eta lank., 2000; Herrera eta lank., 2005*). Deskribatu da hartzaille horiek neurri txikiagoan ere lotu daitezkeela AC aktibatzen duten G proteinetara (G_s), esaterako, G_q eta G_{13} -rekin (*Bonhaus eta lank., 1998; Lauckner eta lank., 2005*). Azken ikerketetan aurkitu da G_i azpiunitate klasikoez gain beste G azpiunitate batzuk estimulatzen direla, hala nola, G_{α_2} , $G_{\alpha_{q/11}}$ eta $G_{\alpha_{12/13}}$. Gainera, G proteinen azpiunitatearen aktibazioaren patroia espezifiko ezberdina da estekatzaileen arabera, hau da, THC edo ACEA (anandamidaren analogo sintetikoa) den ala ez (*Ibarra-Lecue, eta lank., 2015*). Izan ere, konposatu kannabinoideek hartzaille bakoitzarekiko afinitate desberdinak dituzte (**1.2 taula**).

1.2 taula. Estekatzaile kannabinoide ezagun batzuen afinitate-profilak *binding* esperimentu bidez lortuak (*Agirregoitia, 2008-tik moldatua*).

Estekatzailea	Ki (nM)		Erreferentzia
	CB1	CB2	
Barne-kannabinoideak			
AEA	78	>500	<i>Pertwee, 2005a</i>
2-AG	58	145	<i>Pertwee, 2005a</i>
Kannabinoide sintetikoak			
ACEA	1,4	>2.000	<i>Howlett eta lank., 2002</i>
JWH-015	383	13,8	<i>Howlett eta lank., 2002</i>
JWH-033	666±77	320±127	<i>Selwood, 2009</i>
HU-210	0.061	0.52	<i>Pertwee, 2006</i>
Fitokannabinoideak			
Δ^9 -THC	80,3	32,2	<i>Rhee eta lank., 1997</i>

Ikerketa farmakologiko goiztiarrek CB1 eta CB2 hartzailen arteko ezberdintasunak antzeman dituzte bi hartzailleetara lotu daitezkeen agonisten arabera. Oso adibide garrantzitsua da THCaren erantzuna, zeina CB1 hartzailleentzat agonista partziala baita COS edo CHO zeluletan, baina CB2 hartzailen kasuan, agonista partzial ahul edo antagonista gisa jarduten du adenil ziklasa jarduera inhibitzeko (*Bayewitch eta lank., 1996*). Milurteko berrian sendagaien diseinua nabarmen aurreratu da CB1 edo CB2 hartzailen artean hautatzeko aukera duten estekatzaile berrien garapenean. Anandamida eta 2-AG endokannabinoideek eta haien egiturazko analogoek beste hartzailleekin elkar eragiteko gaitasuna dute, modu horretan, zelula seinaleztapen sarea hedatuz (*Howlett, 2017*).

Estekatzaile kannabinoideak hartzailleetara lotzeko modua garrantzi handia duen azterketa-eremua da, agonista eta antagonista kannabinoideen diseinua hobetzen lagun dezakeelako. Horrela, estekatzaileek kannabinoide-hartzailleekin nola elkar eragiten duten ezagututa estrategia farmakologiko desberdinak diseinatu daitezke.

- **1 motako kannabinoide-hartzailea (CB1 edo CNR1)**

CB1 hartzailea oso kontserbatua agertzen da espezie batzuetan. Giza CB1 hartzaileak aminoazido bat gutxiago dauka N-terminalean, beste ugaztun espezieekin alderatuta (472 aminoazido vs 473 aminoazido), baina arratoiaren eta gizakiaren hartzaileak oso kontserbatuta daude. Esate baterako, arratoiaren eta gizakiaren CB1 hartzailearen aminoazidoen % 98an antzekotasuna dago. CB1 hartzailearen funtzioa oso ondo azter daiteke saguetan, izan ere, saguen eta gizakien artean ere oso ondo kontserbatzen da hartzailea: % 97ko antzekotasuna dago aminoazidoetan eta % 90koa nukleotidoetan (*Abood, 2005*). Hala ere, gizakiaren CB1 hartzailearentzat bi isoforma identifikatu dira, hartzailearen N-terminaletan desberdinak direnak (*Ruehle, 2017*).

CB1 hartzailea ugaria da nerbio-sistema zentrolean, batez ere, kognizioan eta epe laburreko memorian eta funtzio-motorrean eta mugimenduan parte hartzen duten eskualdeetan (*Ghosh eta lank., 2018*). Dentsitate handia du hipokanpoan, zerebeloan, amigdalari edo garun-enborrean. Garuneko zelula mota guztiek [neurona zentral eta periferikoen axoi terminalek (*Herkenham eta lank., 1990*), astrozitoek (*Sanchez eta lank., 1998*), oligodendrozitoek (*Molina-Holgado eta lank., 2002*) eta mikrogliek (*Cabral eta lank., 2001*)] CB1 hartzailea espresatzen dute. Neurona hauetan hainbat neurotransmisore askatzea inhibitzen dute, hala nola, azetilkolina, norepinefrina, dopamina, 5-hidroxitriptamina, glutamatoa eta GABA. Ehun periferikoetan ere agertzen da immunitate-sistemaren zeluletan, bihotzean, biriketean, hezur-muinean, umetokian, obarioetan, hestean (*Di Carlo eta Izzo, 2003*), prostatan, testikuluetan eta espermatozoidetan (*Galiegue eta lank., 1995; Rossato eta lank. 2005; Gervasi eta lank., 2009; Agirregoitia eta lank., 2010*), ehun adiposoan (*Cota eta lank., 2003*), erretinan (*Buckley eta lank., 1997*), gibelean (*Osei-Hyiaman eta lank., 2005*), endotelio baskularrean (*Liu eta lank., 2000*) eta ehun gastrointestinallean, non funtzio garrantzitsua betetzen duen glukosaren metabolismoan, zelulen ugaltzean, hanturan eta apoptosian (*Ghosh eta lank., 2018*).

CB1 hartzaileak funtsezko eginkizuna du hainbat funtzio fisiologikoren artean, hala nola, beldurrean, antsietatean, jateko gogoan, mina hautematean, etab. eta sistema endokannabinoidearen desorekak patologia ugari sor ditzake (*Ruehle, 2017*). Horregatik, CB1 iturri terapeutiko interesgarria da gaixotasun ugarietarako, besteak beste, hesteetako gaixotasunetarako, depresiorako, sindrome metabolikorako eta garun iskemiarako (*Ghosh eta lank., 2018*).

- **2 motako kannabinoide-hartzailea (CB2 edo CNR2)**

CB2 hartzaileari buruz oraindik informazio gutxiago daukagu CB1 hartzailearekin alderatuta. CB2 hartzaileak CB1ak baino espezieen artean homologia gutxiago erakusten du; adibidez, gizakien eta saguaren CB2 hartzaileek aminoazidoen % 82 partekatzen dute (*Shire eta lank., 1996*), eta saguak eta arratoiak % 93. Gizakien, arratoiaren eta saguen sekuentziak C-terminalean aldatzen dira: saguen sekuentzia 13 aminoazido motzagoa da, eta arratoiaren klonari gizakiaren CB2 baino 50 aminoazido luzeagoa (*Brown eta lank., 2002; Howlett, 2017*).

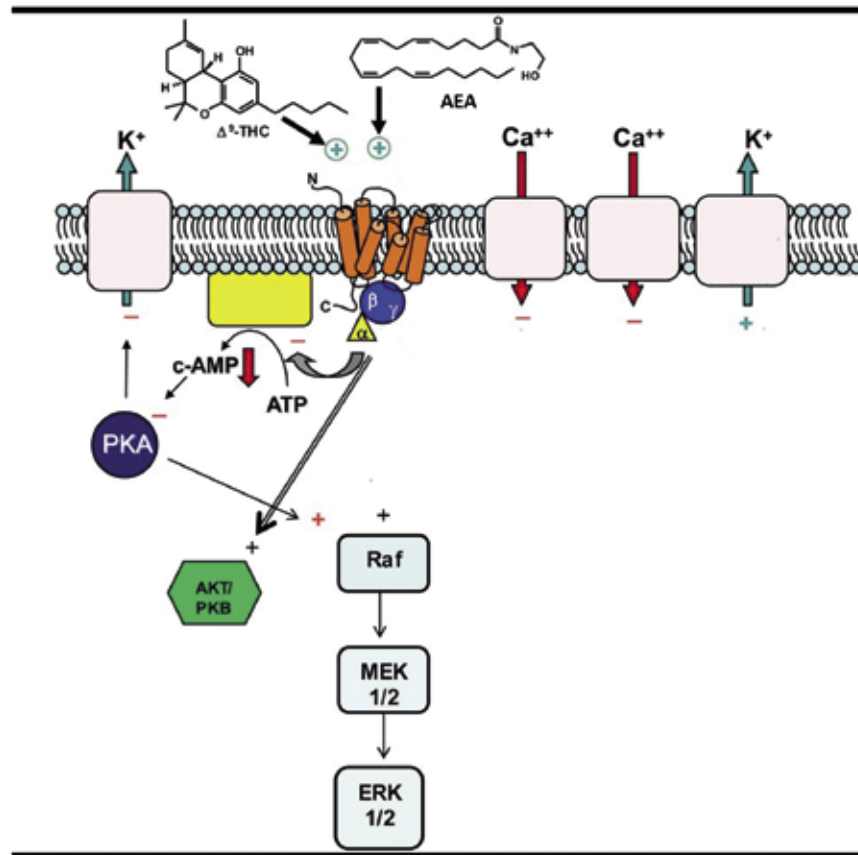
Nerbio-sistema zentralari dagokionez, CB2a zelula mikroglialetan (Nuñez *eta lank.*, 2004), garunaren hainbat neurona-azpipopulaziotan (Skaper *eta lank.*, 1996; Ashton *eta lank.*, 2006) eta garun-enborrean espresatzen da (Van Sickle *eta lank.*, 2005; Ashton *eta lank.*, 2006). Baita ere funtzio immunologikoa duten organo periferikoetan, makrofagoetan, barean, amigdaletan, timoan eta leukozitoetan eta baita biriketetan, obulutegietan, obozitoetan, testikuletan eta espermatozoidetan ere (Munro *eta lank.*, 1993; Galieue *eta lank.*, 1995; Brown *eta lank.*, 2002; El-Talatini *eta lank.*, 2009a; Agirregoitia *eta lank.*, 2010; Peralta *eta lank.*, 2011). Zelula immuneen aktibazioak, mikroglialak barne, CB2-aren espresio maila areagotzen du (Kaminski *eta lank.*, 1992; Croxford *eta Yamamura*, 2005).

1.4.4 Kannabinoide-hartzaileen bidezko seinaleztapena PI3K/ AKT eta MAP kinasen (MAPK) bidezidorretan

MAPK familiak zelulaz kanpoko estimuluak erantzun zelularrean transmititzeaz arduratzen diren bideetan parte hartzen du. MAP kinasen familiak zelulen proliferazioa, desberdintzapena, mugikortasuna eta biziraupen-mailako funtzioak erregulatzen dituzte (Roux *eta Blenis*, 2004). Familia horren barruan proteina aipagarrienetako bat MAPK da, zelulaz kanpoko seinaleen erregulazio kinasa izenez ere ezagutzen dena (ERK1/2). Aurreko ikerketek erakutsi dute CB1 hartzailearen estimulazioari esker, ERK 1/2 G proteinen bidez fosforilatzen dela hainbat zelula motatan, hala nola, fibroblastoetan, astrozitoetan eta glioma zeluletan (Bouaboula *eta lank.* 1995; Sánchez *eta lank.*, 1998; Guzmán *eta Sánchez* 1999). Kannabinoide-hartzaileen bidezko ERK 1/2aren aktibazio-mekanismoetariko bat $G_{\beta\gamma}$ dimeroaren bidezkoa da. Horren ostean, ERK 1/2ak PI3K ere aktibatu dezake, bere forma aktiboan mintz fosfolipidoen fosforilazioaz arduratzen baita, AKT bildu eta aktibatzeke (**1.15 irudia**). Hau da, PI3Karen seinaleztapenaren bide nagusia.

Kannabinoide-hartzaileen estimulatzaileen eta PI3K inhibitzaile farmakologikoen konbinazioa erabiltzen duten hainbat ikerketetan, PI3K bidearen parte hartzea frogatu da, AKTaren ondorengo aktibazioa kaltetuta baitago (Galve-Roperh *eta lank.*, 2002; Sánchez *eta lank.*, 2003). Hala ere, PI3K/AKT bidearen aktibazioa ez da beti ERK 1/2 aktibatuta dagoenaren araberakoa eta zelula mota bakoitzerako espezifikoa izan daiteke. Adibidez, frogatu da CB2aren estimulazioak HL60 gizakiaren leuzemia promelokitikoko zelulen lerroan ERK 1/2aren fosforilazioa aktibatzen duela, baina ez PI3K/AKT bidea (Kobayashi *eta lank.*, 2001). Ostera, ERK 1/2 aktibazioa beharrezkoa da PI3K eta AKT aktibatzeke CB1 edo CB2 estimulatzean prostatako minbiziko PC-3 zeluletan (Sánchez *eta lank.*, 2003). Harrigarriki, Molina-Holgado *eta lank.* frogatu dutenez, neurona kortikal primarioetan PI3K / AKT bidea aktibatzeak ez du ERK 1/2 aktibatzen (Molina-Holgado *eta lank.*, 2005).

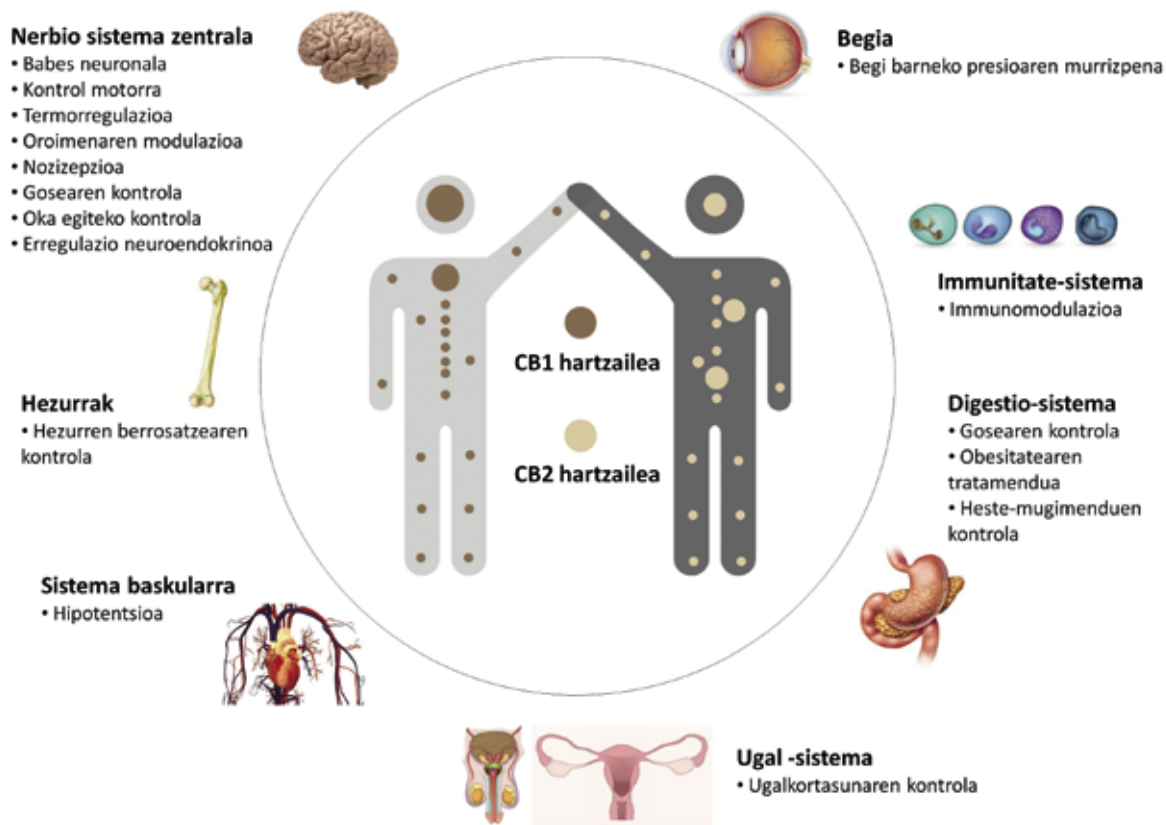
Beraz, bistakoa da PI3K/AKT bidea aktibatzea ez dela beti ERK 1/2 aktibazioak eragindakoa, ez eta ERK 1/2ren aktibazioa beti gertatzen dela kannabinoide-hartzaileen bidez. Kontuan izan behar da zelula motaren, CB1 edo CB2 hartzaileak edo bi hartzaileen estimulazioaren eta aktibazioak sortzen duten seinalearen erantzunean eragina izango dutela. Proposatuta da CB1aren estimulazioak ERK 1/2 aktibazioaren bidez PKA aktibatzen duela (Bouaboula *eta lank.*, 1995) eta hori garrantzia handiko da PKAk zelulen zikloaren berraktibazio prozesuetan parte hartzen duelako, obozitoetan meiosiaren berpizkundean, 1.1.5 atalean ikusi dugun bezala.



1.15 irudia. Kannabinoide-hartzaileen aktibazioa. Estekatzaile kannabinoidea mintz plasmatikokoan barneratzen da eta albo difusioaz proteina heptahelikoidalera lotzen da. Irudian agertu ez arren, kannabinoide-hartzaileak ere glikosilatu daitezke N- muturrean (*Dhopeswarkar eta Mackie, 2014-tik moldatua*).

1.5 Sistema kannabinoidea ugalkortasunean

Kannabinoideen inguruko jakintza izugarri handitu da azken urteetan eta ikerketa horiek ondorioztatu dute sistema kannabinoidearen funtzio garrantzitsuenetakoa neuromodulazioa dela. Izan ere, CB1 G proteinei loturiko hartzailerik ugariena da nerbio-sistema zentrolean. Hala ere, CB1 eta CB2 hartzailen presentzia eta sistema endokannabinoidearen deskribapena eta ekintza-mekanismoak nerbio-sistema zentrolean gertatzeaz gain, ehun periferikoetan ere deskribatu dira (**1.16 irudia**). Aurkikuntza horiek sistema honek burutzen dituen funtzioei buruzko ikerketa sakona ekarri dute. Funtzio horietako asko kannabisaren aisialdirako erabileraren ondorioak aztertzetik zehaztu dira, beste batzuk, aldiz, animalia ereduetan eta *in vitro* sistemetan kannabinoideen administrazioak izan ditzakeen ondorioetatik zehaztu dira (*du Plessis eta lank., 2015; Brents, 2016; Correa eta lank., 2016*).



1.16 irudia. Sistema endokannabinoidea sistema eta organo desberdinetan. Hartzailen presentzia CB1 marroi ilunean eta CB2 marroi argian agertzen da (*Carracedo, 2006a-tik moldatua*).

Sistema kannabinoidea inplikaturiko dagoen prozesu horietako bat ugalkortasuna da. Sistema hau gametogenesis, ernalketan, enbrioiaren ezarpenean, plazentazioan, haurdunaldian eta erditzean deskribatu da (*Battista eta lank., 2008; Maccarrone, 2009*) eta sistema kannabinoidean parte hartzen duen makinaria guztia ugalkortasuneko organo, ehun eta zeluletan dagoela frogatu da (*Galiegue eta lank., 1995; Sugiura eta lank., 1996; Brown eta lank., 2002; Schuel eta lank., 2002a; Ruiz-Llorente eta lank., 2003; Maccarrone eta lank., 2003,2005,2007; Gye eta lank., 2005; Rossato eta lank., 2005; Sarfaraz eta lank., 2005; El-Talatini eta lank., 2009a; Bagavandoss eta Grimshaw, 2010; Peralta eta lank., 2011*). Hori

horrela, sistema hau praktika klinikoan ugalketa potentziala aurreikusteko biomarkatzaile posible gisa proposatu da (*Sun eta Dey, 2012*). Horretarako, animalia-eredu desberdinek emandakoa berrikusi dugu, baita ugalketa-patologiaren inguruan egin den ikerketa ere.

1.5.1 Sistema kannabinoidea emearen ugalkortasunean.

Emeari dagokionez, sistema endokannabinoidea hainbat ugaztun espeziatiko hipotalamo-hipofisi-obulutegiaren ardatzean (*Brents, 2016*), likido folikularrean, obulutegietan, obozitoetan eta pikorgeruzako zeluletan deskribatu da (*Schuel eta lank., 2002a; El-Talatini eta lank., 2009a; Bagavandoss eta Grimshaw, 2010; Peralta eta lank., 2011; López-Cardona eta lank., 2016; López-Cardona eta lank., 2017*).

1.5.1.1 Hipotalamo-hipofisi-obario (HPO) ardatza

Sistema endokannabinoidea etengabe kontrolatua dago hainbat estimulu fisiologikoren arabera, hala nola, hormona-mailaren arabera. Sistema endokannabinoidea GnRH bezalako hormonaren ekoizpenaz arduratzen den hipotalamoaren guneetan antzeman da, zeinek hipotalamo-hipofisi-obario (HPO) ardatzaren bidez jarduten duten ugalketa-prozesuen hainbat alderdi kontrolatzeko. Oro har, sistema endokannabinoidearen efektoreek eragin handia dute ugalkortasunean, ugalketan eta funtzio endokrinoan, karraskariekin, primateekin eta gizakiekin egindako ikerketek frogatu duten moduan. Horrek kannabisak eta THCak ugalketaren fisiologiaren hainbat alderditan duten eragina azaldu dezake, besteak beste, hormonaren askatzean HPO ardatzean (*Walker eta lank., 2019*). Gonadotropinek, progesteronak eta estrogenoak, esaterako, AEA mailak (*El-Talatini eta lank., 2009b*) eta FAAH entzimaren adierazpena erregulatzen dituzte hilekoan zehar (*Bambang eta lank., 2010*).

Orokorrean, sistema endokannabinoidea kanpotik modulatu denean, kannabinoideek HPO ardatzaren erregulazioa asaldatu dute, ugal-sistema kaltetuz (obulaziorik gabeko hilekoak, adibidez). Hala nola, GnRH hormonaren jariatzea murrizten dute (*Gammon eta lank., 2005*) eta hormona horrek gonadotropinen (FSHa eta LH) askapena ekiditen du, gonaden funtzioa ezabatuz (*Brents, 2016*). Gainera, ikusi da kannabinoideekin tratatutako animalietan, GnRH exogenoki ematean LHaren jariatzea berrezartzen dela (*Ayalon eta lank., 1977; Tyrey, 1978; Smith eta lank., 1979*).

Deskribatu da CB1 hartzaileak erregulatuko lukeela GnRHaren sintesia eta liberazioa (*Scorticati eta lank., 2004; Meccariello eta lank., 2008; Chianese eta lank., 2011*) nahiz eta iradoki den CB1 hartzailearen aktibazioak LHaren askapena ere modulatu duela hipofisian (*Wenger eta lank., 2001*). Horrez gain, THCaren efektu inhibitzaile zuzena frogatu da folikulogenesian FSHaren menpeko hainbat funtzioen interferentziagatik, estrogenoaren eta progesteronaren metaketa inhibituz eta LHaren hartzaileen emendia eraginez (*Adashi eta lank., 1983*).

Era berean, sistema endokannabinoidearen adierazpenean egon litezkeen kalteak antzutasunarekin erlazionatuta daude (*Brents, 2016*) jakina baita kannabinoide-hartzaileen gabeziak HPO ardatzeko hormonaren askapena inhibitzen duela, besteak beste, GnRH, FSH, 17- β -estradiola (*Cacciola eta lank.,*

2013) eta LHarena (Wenger eta lank., 2001; Oláh eta lank., 2008). Gainera, CB1 hartzaila falta duten saguen (Cnr1^{-/-}) % 40k haurdunaldia galtzen du (Wang eta lank., 2004).

Laburbilduz, sistema endokannabinoidea eta HPO ardatza erlazionatuta daudela baieztatu da nahiz eta hori kontrolatzen duten mekanismoak oraindik ez diren guztiz ezagutzen (Brents, 2016).

1.5.1.2 Obulutegia: folikulugenesia eta obozitoen heltze-prozesua

Kannabinoideen eta ugalketa-sistemaren arteko lotura, lehenengoz, AEA fluxu folikularrean aurkikuntzari esker egin zen (Schuel eta lank., 2002a) eta, gainera, frogatu zuten bere kontzentrazioa aldatzen zihola obulazioan eta haurdunaldi goiztiarrean zehar (El-Talatini eta lank., 2009b). Horrez gain, bai AEA bai endokannabinoide hori metabolizatzen duten entzimak gizakiaren obulutegian lokalizatu ziren (El-Talatini eta lank., 2009a) eta, ondoren, sistema endokannabinoide osoa deskribatu zen giza (El-Talatini eta lank., 2009a) eta arratoien (Bagavandoss eta Grimshaw, 2010) obarioan. Azterketa immunohistokimikoei esker, kannabinoide hartzailak identifikatu ziren folikulu primario, folikulu sekundario eta folikulu antralen pikor-geruzako zeluletan, bai gizakian (El-Talatini eta lank., 2009a) zein arratoietan (Bagavandoss eta Grimshaw, 2010). Ikerketa guzti horiei esker, kannabinoide-hartzailen eta degradazio-entzimen lokalizazioa deskribatu zen eta frogatu zen AEAaren kontzentrazioa aldakorra dela obarioaren zikloan zehar, kontzentrazioaren gorakada bat ikusten baita obulaziora arte. Beraz, horrek guztiak iradokitzen du endokannabinoideen seinaleztapenak folikulugenesia erregulatzen lagun lezakeela (El-Talatini eta lank., 2009b; Bagavandoss eta Grimshaw, 2010).

Duela urte gutxi, sistema kannabinoidea gizakien (Peralta eta lank., 2011) behien (Lopez-Cardona eta lank., 2016) eta saguen obozitoetan espresatzen dela deskribatu da (Lopez-Cardona eta lank., 2017). Horrez gain, baieztatu da gutxienez azkenengo bi espezieetan kannabinoide sintetikoak gai direla obozitoen heltze-prozesua modulatzeko (Lopez-Cardona eta lank., 2016; Lopez-Cardona eta lank., 2017).

Sistema kannabinoidearen osagaien kontzentrazioen eta lokalizazioaren aldaketak “tonu kannabinoide” bat dagoela erakutsi du, izan ere, FAAHk erregulatzen dituen AEA maila intrafolikular altuek obulazioa ahalbidetzen dute baina ernaldutako obozitoa ezartzeko (<2 nM), hots, haurdunaldiaren arrakastarako, beharrezkoak dira maila baxuagoak (Maccarrone, 2009).

Bestalde, kannabinoideak kanpotik hartzean sistema endokannabinoide horren seinaleztapena asaldatzen da, tximinoekin egindako ikerketa batean ikusi baita, THCaren kontsumo kronikoa obulazioaren atzerapenarekin erlazionatuta dagoela (Asch eta lank., 1981).

1.5.1.3 Ernalketa eta enbrioaren garapena

Ernalketa, seguruenik, sistema endokannabinoideak kontrolaturiko ugalketaren beste gertaera bat da. Bi gametoetan hartzaila- eta entzima-kannabinoideak egoteak (El-Talatini eta lank., 2009a; Francavilla eta

lank., 2009; *Agirregoitia eta lank.*, 2010; *Bagavandoss eta lank.*, 2010; *Peralta eta lank.*, 2011; *Bari eta lank.*, 2011; *Lopez-Cardona eta lank.*, 2016; *López-Cardona eta lank.*, 2017) aukera ematen digu pentsatzeko espermatozoideen elkarrekintza nolabait kannabinoideen seinaleztapenarengatik araututa dagoela.

Esan bezala, AEAaren kontzentrazio-gradiente bat dago obiduktu proximalean (*Schuel eta lank.* 2002a) eta espermatozoideak AEAaren kontzentrazioaren murrizketaren eraginpean daudenean, kapazitazio-prozesua aktibatzen da. Sistema kannabinoideak arautzen dituen mekanismo posibleen barruan funtzio berri bat ezagutzeaz gain, gametoen arteko elkarreraginaren azterketa horiek gizonezko antzutasuna tratatzeko potentzial kliniko garrantzitsua dute.

Enbrioiairen garapenari dagokionez, ugaztunetan, sistema kannabinoidearen oreka funtsezkoa da haurdunaldi goiztiar arrakastatsua izateko. Etapa horretan, haurdunaldi bideragarria mantentzeko ezinbestekoa da enbrioiairen garapenaren eta ezarpenerako umetokiko harreraren sinkronizazioa. Sistema endokannabinoideak funtsezko rola betetzen du fase guztietan, ezarpen aurreko enbrioiairen garapenetik hasita enbrioiairen ezarpenera arte (*Sun eta Dey*, 2012).

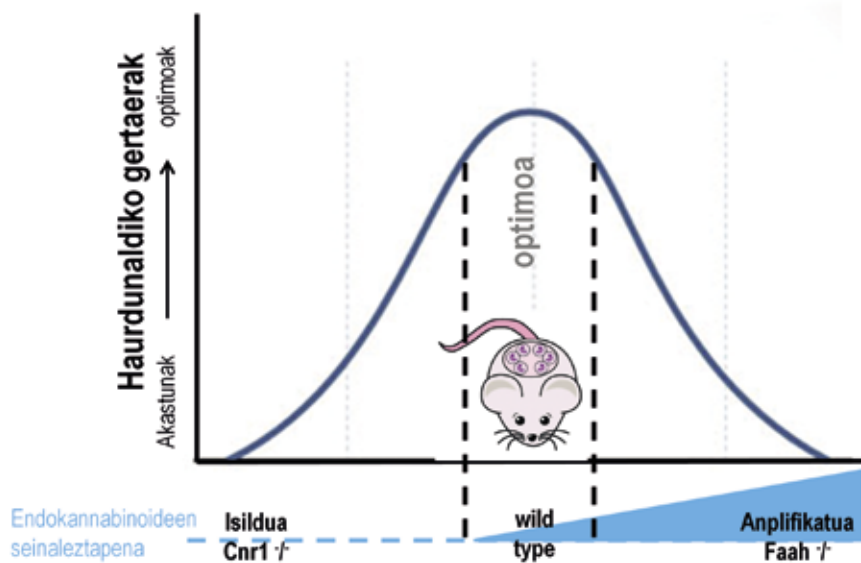
Enbrioiairen garapen goiztiarrean zehar kannabinoide hartzaiak, endokannabinoideak eta sintesi-eta degradazio-entzimak aurkitu izanak ikerketa larria zabaldu du. Ugaztunetan, AEAren sintesi eta degradazio-entzimak enbrioiairen garapenaren bi zelulen fasean adierazten dira (*Bambang eta lank.*, 2010; *Taylor eta lank.*, 2010). Bestalde, saguetan deskribatu da CB1 hartzaiak enbrioietan 2 zelulen etapa bukaeratik blastozistoaren etaparaino adierazten dela. Aitzitik, CB2a zelula 1eko fasetik blastozistoraino adierazten da (*Paria eta lank.*, 1995). Ezarpen aurreko fasean, CB1a, batez ere, trofoektodermoaren zeluletan agertzen da eta CB2a, aldiz, ICMan (*Paria, eta lank.*, 1995). Bi hartzaiak horien presentziaz gain, FAAH ere ageri da 1 eta 2 zeluletako enbrioietan baina 4 eta 8 zelulen faseetan, ordea, ez da antzeman; nahiz eta blastozistoan berriro hauteman daitekeen (ezarpen aurreko 4. egunean) (*Paria eta lank.*, 1999).

Beraz, egin diren azterketa sistematikoek ondorioztatzen dute CB1 eta CB2 hartzaiak modulatu duen seinaleztapena erabakigarria dela garapen goiztiarrean. Saguetan, CB1 hartzaiak bakarrik obiduktuan eta umetokian agertzen da eta, ostera, CB1 eta CB2 hartzaiak ezarpen aurreko enbrioian agertzen dira (*Bukiya*, 2019). Gainera, CB1aren funtzioaren galerak nerbio adrenergikoko terminaletatik norepinefrina askatzea areagotzen du eta muskulu leunaren uzkurdura handitzen du enbrioiairen mugimendua kaltetuz. CB1 hartzaiaren estimulazioak, ordea, obiduktuko muskulua erlaxatu eta enbrioiairen mugimendua bultzatzen du (*Bukiya*, 2019). Are gehiago, gizakietan, haurdunaldi ektopikoa daukaten pertsonen CB1 hartzaiaren eta FAAH entzimaren adierazpen ahulagoa dute obiduktuan eta Falopio tronpetan (*Horne eta lank.* 2008; *Gebeh eta lank.* 2012). Eta gaixotasun larria da, Ipar Amerikan bakarrik, 1000 haurdunaldi bakoitzeko 14 kasutan gertatzen baita eta haurdunaldiaren lehen hiruhilekoan amaren heriotza kausa nagusia da (*Stulberg eta lank.*, 2014).

Ezarpenaren aurreko enbrioiairen garapena erabakitzailea da blastozisto osoa eta osasuntsua lortzeko eta, horretarako, besteak beste, sistema endokannabinoidearen ondo zehaztutako seinaleztapena beharrezkoa da. Izan ere, ezarpenaren aurreko enbrioiairen garapenerako kaltegarriak dira kannabinoide sintetiko, fitokannabinoide zein endokannabinoide maila altuak egotea (AEA, 2-AG, THC eta WIN55212-2) (*Sun*

eta Dey, 2012). Genetikoki eraldatutako sagu-ereduetan egindako ikerketek erakutsi dute, baita ere, sistema endokannabinoidea oso zorrotz doituta egon behar dela ernalketan eta enbrioiaren garapenean haurdunaldia normaltasunez gerta dadin (**1.17 irudia**). Beraz, endokannabinoideen seinaleztapenak hainbat akats eragingo ditu haurdunaldian zehar isilarazita edo emendatua badago (*Sun eta Dey, 2012*). Hori dela eta, sistema endokannabinoidearen adierazpenean egon daitezkeen asaldurak zuzenean erlazionatuta daude antzutasunarekin, haurdunaldi ektopikoarekin eta bat-bateko abortuarekin (*Brents, 2016*)

Aurreko ataletan deskribatutako datuek agerian uzten dute sistema endokannabinoidearen edozein osagairen aktibazioak edo eraldaketek eragina izan dezaketela ugalketaren fase desberdinen erregulazioan eta bizitza berri baten hasiera arriskuan jar dezaketela. Horregatik, kannabinoideen erabilera aztertzen hasi da, antzutasunaren diagnostikoan biomarkatzaile posible gisa edota praktika klinikoan tratatzeko itxerako terapeutiko posible gisa (*Di Blasio eta lank., 2013; Rapino eta lank., 2014*).



1.17 irudia. Endokannabinoideen seinaleztapena haurdunaldian zehar. Haurdunaldiko gertaeretan (enbrioiaren garapena, obiduktuan zeharreko enbrioiaren garraioa, blastozistoaren garapen gaitasuna eta ezarpena) endokannabinoideen seinaleztapena isilarazita edo emendatua badago hainbat akats eragiten ditu (*Sun eta Dey, 2012-tik moldatua*).

2

Helburuak

Aims

2. Helburuak

Helburu nagusia:

Sistema kannabinoideak obarioaren fisiologian eta obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan duen parte hartzearen inguruan ezagutza handitzea.

1. helburua:

Obozitoen heltze-prozesua zorrotz koordinaturiko prozesua da, meiosiaren lehenengo geldialditik, besikula germinaleko (GV) fasean, II. metafaseko (MII) meiosiaren geldialdiraino. Heltze-prozesua folikulu barruan gertatzen da, obozitoen eta pikor-geruzako zelulen arteko komunikazioaren bidez. Jakina da anandamidaren (AEA) kontzentrazioaren aldaketak gertatzen direla obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar. Hori dela eta, tesi honen lehenengo helburua da sistema kannabinoidea deskribatzea gizakien pikor-geruzako zeluletan obozitoen heltze-prozesuan zehar.

Helburu zehatzak:

- 1.1. Kannabinoide-hartzaileen (CB1 eta CB2) eta kannabinoideen degradazio-entzimen (FAAH eta MAGL) adierazpena deskribatzea gizakien pikor-geruzako zeluletan.
- 1.2. Pikor-geruzako zeluletan, FAAH eta MAGL degradazio-entzimek CB1 kannabinoide-hartzailearekiko duten banaketa diferentziala ikertzea obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan.

2. helburua:

Gaur egun badakigu gizakiaren likido folikularrean AEA presente dagoela eta obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar kannabinoide-hartzaileen lekualdaketa gertatzen dela obozitoan. Hori dela eta, ezagutza handitzeko asmoz, tesiko bigarren helburua da AEA andeatzen duten entzimen (FAAH eta MAGL) presentzia eta banaketa aztertzea meiosiaren berraktibazioan zehar.

Helburu zehatzak:

- 2.1. AEA andeatzen duten FAAH eta MAGL degradazio-entzimen adierazpena eta banaketa ezaugarritzea giza obozitoetan heltze-prozesuan zehar.
- 2.2. Degradazio-entzima horiek giza obozitoetan CB1 hartzailearekiko duten harremana aztertzea meiosiaren berraktibazioan zehar.

3. helburua:

Sistema kannabinoidea ugalkortasuneko hainbat prozesutan inplikatur dagoela ikusi da eta badirudi obozitoen heltze prozesuaren modulazioan funtzio garrantzitsua betetzen duela. Hemendik aurrera proposatuko den esperimentazioa, gaur gaurkoz, ezin denez gizakian egin, animalia eredu bezala sagua erabiliko da. Ildo horretatik, hirugarren helburua da Δ^9 -tetrahidrokannabinol (THC) fitokannabinoidak obozitoaren heltze-prozesuaren modulatzailer gisa izan lezakeen papera aztertzea.

Helburu zehatzak:

- 3.1. Obozitoaren *in vitro* heltze-prozesua exogenoki THCaren bidez modulatu eta kannabinoide-hartzaileen (CB1 eta CB2) adierazpena eta lokalizazio-dinamika aztertzea.
- 3.2. Obozitoaren *in vitro* heltze-prozesua THCaren bidez modulatzeari obozitoaren heltze-abiaduran duen eragina aztertzea.
- 3.3. $Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ eta $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ *knockout* sagu ereduak erabiliz, obozitoak THCaren presentzian heldu eta prozesu horretan garrantzitsuak diren PI3K/AKT eta MAPK bidezidorren AKT eta ERK1/2 proteinen fosforilazio-patroia aztertzea. Era beran, THCak zein kannabinoide-hartzailearen bidez lan egiten duen zehaztea.
- 3.4. Obozitoen heltze-prozesuan THC gehitzeak geroko ernalketan eta enbrioiaren garapenean duen eragina ebaluatzea.

4. helburua:

Modu sistemikoan kannabinoideekin egiten den tratamenduak sistema endokannabinoidaren erregulazioa asaldatzen du eta ugalketa-prozesuak kaltetzen dira. Berdina gertatzen da sistemak berezko gabeziak dituenetan. Hala ere, asaldura horien zergatia ez da guztiz ezagutzen. Tesi honen laugarren eta azken helburua da kannabinoide-hartzaileen faltak emearen obarioan sortzen dituen eraginak aztertzea. Azkenik, THCa *in vitro* erabiliko da obozitoaren garapen kompetentzia eta kompetentzia meiotikoan duen eragina aztertzea.

Helburu zehatzak:

- 4.1. $Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ eta $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ *knockout* sagu ereduak erabiliz, kannabinoide-hartzaileen gabeziaren eragina ebaluatzea obarioen morfologian, folikulugenesian, obulazioan eta obozitoen heltzean.
- 4.2. THCaren bidezko IVM sistema eraginkorragoa diseinatzea hormonak eman gabeko sagu gazteen obozitoen garapen gaitasuna emendatzeko.

2. Aims of the study

The central aim:

To explore the involvement of the cannabinoid system in the physiology of the ovary and the oocyte maturation.

1. First aim:

Oocyte maturation is a highly coordinated process that includes the progression of the oocyte from the first meiotic blockage at the germinal vesicle (GV) stage to the second meiotic blockage at the metaphase II (MII) stage. This progression occurs inside the follicle due to a careful communication between oocytes and granulosa cells. It is known that the fluctuation of the anandamide concentration (AEA) occurs during the oocyte maturation, therefore, the first objective of this thesis is to describe the cannabinoid system, during the oocyte maturation process, in the human granulosa cells.

Specific aims:

- 2.1. To describe the expression of cannabinoid receptors CB1 and CB2 and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoglyceride lipase (MGLL) in human granulosa cells.
- 2.2. To investigate the differential distribution of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL with respect to CB1 at various stages during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte.

2. Second aim:

In view of the presence of AEA in human follicular fluid and the re-localization of cannabinoid receptors observed in the oocyte during its maturation, cannabinoid signaling can be postulated to be involved in the regulation of oocyte meiosis. Therefore, in order to increase the knowledge, the second objective of the thesis is to study the presence of AEA degrading enzymes (FAAH and MGLL) during the reactivation of oocyte meiosis in human.

Specific aims:

- 2.1. To characterize, in detail, the expression and distribution of the two AEA-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL during the meiotic resumption of oocytes.
- 2.2. To explore the relationship of FAAH and MGLL with the CB1 receptor in human oocytes during the meiotic resumption of oocytes.

3. Third aim:

The cannabinoid system is involved in many fertility processes and appears to play an important role in modulating the oocyte maturation. Due to the fact that today we cannot continue with the experimentation on humans proposed in the following aims, we have used an animal model, mice. Being this the general content, with the intention of advancing in the possible use of cannabinoids as supplements for the media for *in vitro* maturation of oocytes, the third aim is to characterize the role of the phytocannabinoid Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) in the *in vitro* maturation (IVM) process.

Specific aims:

- 2.1. To study whether the use of THC modulates oocyte maturation in a mouse model and to analyse the expression dynamics and location of the cannabinoid receptor (CB1 and CB2).
- 2.2. Examine whether the use of THC modulated oocyte meiotic velocity.
- 2.3. Generating knockout oocytes for CB1 and/or CB2 receptors ($Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$) to visualize the physiological effects of THC through the oocyte maturation acting via CB1 and/or CB2 and analysing the phosphorylation pattern of the AKT and ERK1/2 proteins.
- 2.4. To evaluate the impact of the addition of THC on oocyte maturation media in subsequent fertilization and embryonic development.

4. Fourth aim:

Generally, when the endocannabinoid system (ECS) is modulated by systemically administered cannabinoids, the cannabinoids alter HPO axis regulation, potentially leading to disruption of the reproductive system; but, in the same way, altered ECS expression is also associated with reduced fertility. However, the cause of these disorders is not fully known. The fourth and final objective of this thesis is to investigate the effects of cannabinoid receptor deficiency on the female's ovary. Finally, THC will be used *in vitro* to investigate the effect on oocyte development and meiotic competence.

Specific aims:

- 2.1. Using a genetic approach generating knockout mice for CB1 and/or CB2 receptors ($Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$) to study the effect of the lack of cannabinoid receptors in ovarian morphology, folliculogenesis, oocyte retrieval and oocyte maturation.
- 2.2. To design a more efficient IVM system using THC to improve the developmental competence of oocytes from unprimed juvenile mice.

3

Materialak eta metodoak
Materials and methods

3. Materialak eta metodoak

3.1 Materialak

3.1.1 Gailuak

Tesian zehar erabili ziren gailuak deskribatuko dira atal honetan.

3.1 taula. Teknika desberdinak egiteko erabilitako gailuen zerrenda.

Gailua	Etxe komertziala
Balantza	AE Adam
Berogailua	Kowell OP1-I
Biosegurtasun kabina Bio II A	Telstar
Centronic mikrozentrifuga	JP Selecta
CO ₂ inkubadorea	Memmert
Chemidoc XRS	Bio-RAD
Elektroforesi kubeta (Western Blot)	Bio-RAD
Elektroforesi kubeta agarosa gelerako	Bio-RAD
Fluoreszentziazko mikroskopia Axioskop	Zeiss
Fluoreszentziazko mikroskopia fokukidea Axio Observer, Apotome 2.0	Zeiss
Fluoreszentziazko mikroskopia fokukidea LSM800	Zeiss
Gasen erauzketarako beira-arasa	Indelab
Heraeus Fresco 21 zentrifuga	Thermo Scientific
Makler Kamera	Sefi Medical Institute
Mikroskopia estereoskopikoa SMZ 745	Nikon
Mikroskopia optikoa Olympus BX50	Olympus Optical
Mikroskopia optikoa Eclipse E200	Nikon
Nanodrop espektrofotometroa ND-100	Thermo Scientific
pH-metroa Basic 20	Crison
Plaka berogailua	Labolan
Rack magnetikoa DynaMan 2	Thermo Fisher
Shandon Citadel 1000	Thermo Fisher
Shandon Finesse 325 mikrotomoa	Thermo Scientific
Termoziklatzailea T100 (PCR)	Bio-RAD
Termoziklatzailea StepOne (qPCR)	Thermo Fisher
Hematoxilina-eosia tindaketarako makina	Thermo Scientific
Parafina blokeak egiteko makina	Thermo Scientific™ Shandon™ Histocentre™
Parafina bainu histologikoa	JP Selecta Termofin-3000459
Plaka hozgarria	JP Selecta

3.1.2 Erreaktiboak

3.1.2.1 Agonista kannabinoideak

THC: delta-9-tetrahidrokannabinola, Δ^9 -THC

Erreferentzia: 1972-08-3 THCpharm

Disolbagarria: **Dimetil sulfoxidoa (DMSO)**. Erreferentzia: Sigma

3.1.2.2 Beste erreaktibo batzuk

3.2 taula. Teknika desberdinak egiteko erabilitako erreaktiboen zerrenda.

Erreaktiboak	Etxe komertziala
DNA Taq Polimerasa	Sigma
Dynabeads mRNA Direct Micro Kit	Ambion
Etanola	Scharlau
Etidio Bromuroa	Sigma
Fluoromont G	Electron Microscopy Sciences (EMS)
Formaldehidoa	Electron Microscopy Sciences (EMS)
GoScript Reverse Transcription Kit	Promega
Hematoxilina	Richard-Allan Scientific
Hoechst 33342	Thermo Scientific
ImProm-II Reverse transcription System	Promega
Kloroformoa	Sigma
Nukleotidoen pisu molekularra	Nippon Genetics
Olio minerala (hazkuntza-medioetarako)	Sigma
Poli-L-lisina	Sigma
Proteinen pisu molekularra	Invitrogen
RNasy mRNA Purification Kit	Ambion
TaqMan Fast Universal PCR Master Mix	ThermoFisher
Tritoia X-100	Sigma
Trizol- Tri Reagent	Sigma
Vectamount	Vector Labs

3.3 taula. Esperimentu desberdinak egiteko erabilitako serum-en zerrenda.

Serumak	Etxe komertziala
Ahutz seruma (<i>Normal Goat Serum</i> , NGS)	Abcam
Behi fetuaren seruma (<i>Fetal Bovine Serum</i> , FBS)	Biowest
Behi-serum albumina (<i>Bovine Serum Albumin</i> , BSA)	Sigma

3.1.2.3 Antigorputz primarioak eta sekundarioak

3.4 taula. Antigorputz primarioen zerrenda.

Antigorputz primarioa	Etxe komertziala	Ostalaria	Diluzioa	Erabilera
1 motako hartzaile kannabinoidea (CB1) (anti-CB1)	Frontier Institute	Untxia	1:1000	WB (Gizakia)
2 motako hartzaile kannabinoidea (anti-CB2)	Invitrogen	Untxia	1:200	WB
1 motako hartzaile kannabinoidea (CB1) (anti-CB2)	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	Ahuntza	1:200	IZK (Sagua)
1 motako hartzaile kannabinoidea (CB1)(anti-CB1)	Cayman Chemicals	Untxia	1:100	IZK (Sagua)
2 motako hartzaile kannabinoidea (CB2)(anti-CB2)	Cayman Chemicals,	Untxia	1:400	IZK (Sagua)
Anti-FAAH	Cayman	Untxia	1:200	WB
Anti-MGL	Cayman	Untxia	1:200	WB
Anti-FAAH	Cayman	Untxia	1:200	IZK (Gizakia)
Anti-MGL	Cayman	Untxia	1:200	IZK (Gizakia)
Phospho-Akt (Ser473) (D9E) XP®	Cell Signaling	Untxia	1:200	IZK
Phospho-p44/42 MAPK (Erk1/2) (Thr202/Tyr204)	Cell Signaling	Untxia	1:400	IZK
<i>Anti-β-Actin</i>	Sigma	Sagua	1:1000	WB

3.5 taula. Antigorputz sekundarioen zerrenda.

Antigorputz sekundarioa	Etxe komertziala	Ostalaria	Diluzioa	Erabilera	Inkubazioa denbora
Alexa Fluor 488 anti-rabbit	Molecular Probes	Ahuntza	1:2500	IZK	37 °C 2 h
Alexa Fluor 680 anti-rabbit	Invitrogen	Ahuntza	1:4000	IZK/WB	37 °C 2 h
Alexa Fluor 594 anti-goat IgG	Molecular Probes	Astoa	1:2500	IZK	37 °C 2 h

3.1.2.4 Hormonak

3.6 taula. Hormonen zerrenda.

Hormonak	Etxe komertziala
Behorren hormona gonadotropina korionikoa (eCG)	Folligon
Giza gonadotropina korionikoa (hCG)	Veterin Corion

3.1.3 Soluzioak

Laborategian prestatu ziren soluzioak, honako hauek dira:

3.7 taula. Laborategian prestatutako soluzioen zerrenda.

Soluzioa	Prestaketa
Fosfato/gatz-indargetzailea (Phosphate buffered saline; PBS)	137 mM NaCl 2,7 mM KCl 1,5 mM KH_2PO_4 8,1 mM Na_2HPO_4 H_2O -a bolumena bete arte
Tris-HCl 10 mM pH-a:7,4	1000 ml H_2O 12,11 g Tris-Base HCl-aren pH-a 7,4-ra heldu arte
Tris-HCl / 1,5M / pH 8,8 Tris	1000 ml H_2O 121,14 g Tris-Base HCl-aren pH-a 8,8-ra heldu arte
Tris-HCl 0,5M pH:6,8	1000 ml H_2O 62,07 g Tris-Base HCl-aren pH-a 6,8-ra heldu arte
Homogeneizazio-soluzio indargetzailea	10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7,4 % 1 (b/b) Proteasen inhibitzaileen koktela H_2O -a bolumena bete arte
Bradford erreaktiboa	0,117 mM Coomasie urdin distiratsua % 5 (b/b) Etanola % 15 (p/b) Azido ortofosforikoa H_2O bolumena bete arte Prestakina bi orduz nahasten da, irabiatuz. Disolbatu ez den koloratzailea erauzteko, disoluzioa birritan iragazten da iragaz-paperaz.

Soluzioa	Prestaketa
Sodio dodezil sulfatoa (SDS) - % 10	100 ml H ₂ O 10 g SDS
Proteinenzako karga-indargetzailea (Laemmli sample buffer) - 5X	% 10 (p/b) SDS % 25 (b/b) Tris-HCl 250 mM pH 6,8 % 0,025 (p/b) bromofenol urdina % 50 (b/b) glizerola % 5 β-merkaptotetanola H ₂ O-a bolumena bete arte Karga-indargetzaileak 5 aldiz diluitua geratu behar du laginean
Gel banatzailea	% 30 akrilamida / % 1 bisakrilamida: akrilamida, % 30etik nahi den %ra eramateko, diluitu egin behar da (adibidez, % 12rako, 2,5 aldiz diluitu). Tris-HCl 1 M pH 8,8: % 25 (bol) % 10 SDS: % 1 (bol) H ₂ O-a bolumena bete arte % 10 (p/b) Persulfato amonikoa: 50 µl TEMED: 10 µl
Gel kontzentratzailea	% 30 akrilamida / % 1 bisakrilamida: akrilamida % 4ra (7,5 aldiz diluitu) Tris-HCl 0.5 M pH 6.8: % 25 (bol) % 10 SDS: % 1 (bol) H ₂ O: bolumena bete arte % 10 (p/b) persulfato amonikoa: 25 µl TEMED: 5 µl
Elektroforesi-indargetzailea - 10X	250 mM Trizma-Base % 1 (p/b) SDS 2 M Glizina H ₂ O-a bolumena bete arte pH 8,3 doitu atera behar da, ez ukitu Erabiltzeko, H ₂ O-rekin 10 aldiz diluitu behar da.
Transferentzia-indargetzailea - 10X	250 mM Trizma-Base % 0,25 (p/b) SDS 1,92 M Glizina H ₂ O bolumena bete arte pH 8,3 doitu atera behar da, ez ukitu Erabiltzeko, H ₂ O-rekin 10 aldiz diluitu behar da. Diluitzean, % 20 (b/b) metanola gehitu behar zaio..
Ponceau gorria	% 1 (p/b) Ponceau gorria % 5 (b/b) Azido azetiko glazial H ₂ O bolumena bete arte

Soluzioa	Prestaketa
Tris/gatz-indargetzailea (Tris buffered saline; TBS)	50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7,5 150 mM NaCl H ₂ O bolumena bete arte
Blotto soluzioa	TBS % 0,1 Tritioia X-100
Blokeo soluzioa	Blotto % 5 esne gaingabetua
Luminola (250 mM)	10 ml DMSO 0,44 g luminol
Azido p-kumarikoa (90 mM)	10 ml DMSO 0,15 g azido p-kumarikoa
Kimioluminiszentzia-areagotzailea (<i>Enhanced chemiluminescence</i> ; ECL)	1,25 mM luminol 0,2 mM azido p-kumariko 0,1 M Tris-HCl pH: 8.5 H ₂ O bolumena bete arte Nahastura hori 4 °C-an eta iluntasunean gordetzen da erabilia izan arte. Erabiliko den egunean, iluntasunean gordeta dugun nahasturara % 0,3 (b/b) H ₂ O ₂ (% 30) gehitu behar zaio..
Tris/azetato indargetzailea + EDTA (TAE)	0,4 M Tris-Base % 5,7 (b/b) Azido azetiko glaziala 10 mM EDTA pH 8
Agarosa-gela	% 1,5 agarosa 100 ml TAE 1X (DEPC) Irakiten jarri (1-2 min) % 1 etidio bromuro
PBS-PVA 0,1%	0,5 g PVA + 500 ml PBS 1X
Zitrato Trisodiko Bufferra 10 mM	1,47 g zitrato trisodikoa + 500 ml ur destilatua. pH 6

3.1.4 Inguruneak

3.1.4.1 Saguen obozitoen eta enbrioien manipulazio eta hazkuntzarako inguruneak

Jarraian, gametoen manipulaziorako, obozitoen *in vitro* heltzerako, *in vitro* ernalketarako eta *in vitro* enbrioien hazkuntzarako erabili ziren hazkuntza-inguruneen konposizioa deskribatzen da. Ingurune

guztiak laborategian prestatu ziren eta filtrazio bidez esterilizatu ziren (0,22 μm iragazkiak). Ingurune guztiak, M2 izan ezik, ondoko baldintza hauetan inkubatu ziren: CO_2 % 5 eta hezetasun-maila % 95. Esperimentuetan erabili baino 4-5 ordu lehenago sartu ziren inkubagailuan pHa orekatu zedin.

- **M2 ingurunea**

Inkubagailutik kanpo aldi luzeetan manipulatu beharreko prozesuetan erabili zen M2 ingurunea, eta baita laginen berreskurapenerako prozedura guztietarako, izan obulutegi, obozito zein arren epididimoak. 4 °C-an gorde zen, gehienez, 30 egunez. Plaka berogailuan 37 °C-an berotu zen erabili baino 30 minutu lehenago, pHa prestaketan egonkortu baitzen (**3.8 taula**).

3.8 taula. M2 ingurunearen osaketa.

M2			
ERREAKTIBOAK			KANTITATEAK
Pausuak	Izena	ERREFERENTZIA	gr/mL
1	Hepes	Sigma H-4034	2,4845
2	Kaltzio kloruroa ($\text{Cl}_2\text{Ca}\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$)	Sigma C-7902	0,1260
3	Sodio kloruroa (NaCl)	Sigma S-5886	2,7665
4	Potasio kloruroa (KCl)	Sigma P-5405	0,1780
5	Fosfato potasikoa (KH_2PO_4)	Sigma P-5655	0,0810
6	Magnesio sulfatoa ($\text{MgSO}_4\cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$)	Sigma M-1880	0,1465
7	Sodio bikarbonatoa (NaHCO_3)	Sigma S-8875	0,1745
8	Pirubato sodikoa	Sigma P-2256	0,0180
9	Glukosa anhidra	Sigma G-7021	0,5000
10	Sodio laktatoa % 60 syrup	Sigma L-7900	1,8850
11	Gorri fenola	Sigma P-5530	0,0050
12	Penizilina	Sigma P-4687	0,0312
13	Estreptomizina	Sigma S-9137	0,0250
14	Ondo disolbatu		
15	pH-a doitu Na OH-rekin (7,3-7,4)		
16	Osmolaritatea neurtu (285-287 mosmol)		
17	Albumina (<i>Bovine Serum Albumine</i> , BSA, ingelesez)	Sigma A-3311	4
18	Filtrazioz esterilizatu (0,22 μm -ko filtroekin)		
19	Errotulatu (M2, data,...) bakarrik gomazko tapoiekin estali		
20	4 °C-an gorde, 30 egunez erabili		

- **Obozitoen *in vitro* heltze-ingurunea (ingelesez, *in vitro maturation* (IVM) ingurunea)**

Obozito heldugabeak heltzeko erabili zen ingurunea. Esperimentuaren egun berean, IVM prozesua hasi baino 5 ordu lehenago prestatu zen eta inkubagailuen gorde zen 37 °C-an egonkortzeko (**3.9 taula**).

3.9 taula. IVM ingurunearen osaketa.

Erreaktiboak	IVM ingurunea	
	Etxe komertziala	Kantitateak
TCM-199	Sigma / M4530	Bolumena bete arte
Gentamizina	Sigma / G1397	1:200
Behi fetuaren seruma % 10 (FSB)	Biowest / S181B	% 10 bol/bol
Epidermiseko hazkuntza-faktorea (EGF)	Sigma / E9644	10 ng/ml

- **HTF ingurunea**

In vitro ernalketak (IVF) egiteko erabili zen . HTF izenez egin zen ezaguna (*Human Tubal Fluid*) eta orekan dagoen gatz disoluzioa da, aminoazidorik gabea eta potasio ioiaren kontzentrazioa emearen ugaltzarako dagoen berdina da (*Quinn eta lank., 1985*). 4 °C -an gorde zen , gehienez 30 egunez (**3.10 taula**).

3.10 taula. HTF ingurunearen osaketa.

HTF			
ERREAKTIBOAK			KANTITATEAK
Ordena	Izena	ERREF.	gr/mL
1	Kaltzio kloruroa (Cl ₂ Ca.2H ₂ O)	Sigma C-7902	0,1500
2	Sodio kloruroa (NaCl)	Sigma S-9625	2,96875
3	Potasio kloruroa (KCl)	Sigma P-5405	0,1780
4	Fosfato potasikoa (KH ₂ PO ₄)	Sigma P-5655	0,02520
5	Magnesio sulfatoa(MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O)	Sigma M-1880	0,02460
6	Sodio laktatoa %60 syrup	Sigma L-7900	1,71000
7	Pirubato sodikoa	Sigma P-2256	0,01820
8	Glukosa anhidra	Sigma G-7021	0,2500
9	Sodio bikarbonatoa (NaHCO ₃)	Sigma S-5761	1,0500
10	Penizilina	Sigma P-4687	0,03750
11	Estreptomizina	Sigma S-9137	0,02500
12	Gorri fenola	Sigma P-5530	0,00200
13	Ondo disolbatu		
14	pH-a ez da doitu behar		
15	Osmolaritatea neurtu (300 mosmol)		
16	Albumina (BSA)	Sigma A-3311	2
17	Filtrazioz esterilizatu (0,22µm-ko filtroekin)		
18	Errotulatu (HTF, data,...) bakarrik gomazko tapoiekin estali		
19	4 °C-an gorde, 30 egunez erabili		

- **KSOMaa ingurunea**

Sagu enbrioien hazkuntzarako KSOMaa ingurunea erabili zen. Behin prestatuta -20 °C-an gorde zen, gehienez 60 egunez. Esperimentua baino egun bat lehenago atera zen hozkailuan 4 °C-an desizoztu zedin (3.11 taula).

3.11 taula. KSOMaa ingurunearen osaketa.

KSOMaa			
Sagu enbrioien hazkuntza-ingurunea			
ERREAKTIBOAK			KANTITATEAK
Ordena	Izena	ERREFERENTZIA	gr/mL
1	Kaltzio kloruroa (Cl ₂ Ca.2H ₂ O)	Sigma C-7902	0,1257
2	Sodio kloruroa (NaCl)	Sigma S-5886	2,7759
3	Potasio kloruroa (KCl)	Sigma P-5405	0,0932
4	Fosfato potasikoa (KH ₂ PO ₄)	Sigma P-5655	0,0238
5	Magnesio sulfatoa(MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O)	Sigma M-1880	0,0246
6	Sodio laktatoa %60 syrup	Sigma L-7900	0,715
7	Glukosa anhidra	Sigma G-7021	0,0180
8	Pirubato sodikoa	Sigma P-2256	0,011
9	Sodio bikarbonatoa (NaHCO ₃)	Sigma S-5761	1,05
10	Glutamina	Sigma G-5763	0,0735
10	EDTA	Sigma E-6635	0,0019
11	Penizilina	Sigma P-4687	0,03145
12	Estreptomizina	Sigma S-9137	0,0250
13	Gorri fenola	Sigma P-5530	0,005
14	Aminoazido esentzialak 50X	Sigma B-6766	10 ml
15	Aminoazido ez-esentzialak 100X	Sigma M-7145	5 ml
16	Ondo disolbatu		
17	Ez da pH-a doitu behar % 5eko CO ₂ rekin doitzen da		
18	Osmolaritatea neurtu (250-255 mosmol)		
19	Albumina (BSA)	Sigma A-3311	0,5 mg/mL
20	Filtrazioz esterilizatu (0,22µm-ko filtroekin)		
21	Errotulatu (KSMO, data,...) bakarrik gomazko tapoiekin estali		
22	4 °C-an gorde, 15 egunez erabili		

- **Pre-IVM faserako α -MEM oinarritzko hazkuntza-ingurunea.**

Hormonekin estimulatutako gabeko eta sexualki heldu gabeko (aurre puberreak) saguen obozitoak *in vitro* heldu aurretik heltze-zitoplasmatikoa eta nukleokoa sinkronizatzeko erabili zen ingurunea. Esperimentuaren egun berean, IVM prozesua hasi baino 5 ordu lehenago prestatu zen eta inkubagailuan gorde zen 37 °C-an egonkortzeko (3.12 taula).

3.12 taula. Oinarritzko ingurunearen osaketa.

Pre-IVM etaparako oinarritzko hazkuntza-ingurunea (BM)		
Erreaktiboak	Etxe komertziala	Kantitateak
α -MEM (Minimum Essential Media)	Life Technologies	15,536 μ l
Behi fetuaren seruma %10 (FBS)	Life Technologies	400 μ l
Intsulina	SIGMA	16 μ l (stock 5 μ g/ml)
T-S mix (Apo-transferrina+Selenioa)	SIGMA	16 μ l (stock 5 μ g/ml)
• Apo-Transferrina	SIGMA T-2036	5 μ g/ml
• Sodio selenitoa	SIGMA S-9133	5 μ g/ml
E2 (Estradiola)	SIGMA	16 μ l (stock 10 μ M)
Pre-IVM etaparako α -MEM oinarritzko hazkuntza-ingurunea		
Erreaktiboak	Etxe komertziala	Kantitateak
BM	-	7980 μ l
CNP-22 (C-type Natriuretic Peptide-22)	Phoenix Pharmaceuticals, INC.	20 μ l (10 μ M)

- **IVM faserako α -MEM oinarritzko hazkuntza-ingurunea.**

Hormonekin estimulatutako gabeko sagu aurre puberren obozito heldugabeak *in vitro* heltzeko erabili zen ingurunea. Esperimentuaren egun berean, *in vitro* heltze-prozesua (IVM) hasi baino 5 ordu lehenago prestatu zen eta inkubagailuan gorde zen 37 °C-an egonkortzeko (3.13 taula).

3.13 taula. Pre-IVM ingurunearen osaketa.

α -MEM ingurunea // Pre-IVM		
Erreaktiboak	Etxe komertziala	Kantitateak
α -MEM	Life Technologies	9580 μ l
Behi fetuaren seruma %10 (FBS)	Life Technologies	250 μ l
Intsulina	SIGMA	10 μ l (stock 5 μ g/ml)
T-S mix	SIGMA T-2036/S-9133	10 μ l (stock 5 μ g/ml)
E2 (17- β -estradiol)	SIGMA	10 μ l (stock 10 μ M)
FSH	Merck-Serono	100 μ l (2,5 mIU/ml)
Epidermiseko hazkuntza-faktorea (EGF)	R&D systems	40 μ l

- **L-15 ingurunea.**

Hormonekin estimulatutako gabeko sagu aurre puberren obozito heldugabeak biltzeko ingurunea. IBMX konposatuari esker GV egoeran blokeatuta geratzen dira obozitoak. Inkubagailutik kanpo aldi luzeetan manipulatutako beharrek prozesuetan erabili zen L-15 ingurunea, eta baita laginen berreskurapenerako prozedura guztietarako, izan obulutegi zein obozito. 4 °C -an gorde zen, gehienez 30 egunez. Plaka berogailuan 37 °C-an berotu zen erabili baino 30 minutu lehenago (**3.14 taula**).

3.14 taula. L-15 ingurunearen osaketa.

L-15		
Erreaktiboak	Etxe komertziala	Kantitateak (50 ml)
Leibovitz's L-15 Ingurunea, GlutaMAX™ gehigarriarekin	Life Technologies	45 ml
IBMX (3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine)	SIGMA I5879	50 µl

- **M16 ingurunea**

Sagu aurre puberren enbrioien *in vitro* ernaketarako eta *in vitro* hazkuntzarako M16 ingurunea erabili zen. Esperimentua baino 12h arinago prestatzen zen eta inkubagailuan gordetzen zen egonkortzeko (**3.15 eta 3.16 taulak**).

3.15 taula. M16 *in vitro* ernaketarako ingurunearen osaketa.

M16			
Sagu prepubereen enbrioien <i>in vitro</i> ernaketarako hazkuntza-ingurunea			
ERREAKTIBOAK			KANTITATEAK
Ordena	Izena	ERREF.	5 ml
1	M16	Sigma M-7292	4950 µl
2	NEAA (aminoazido ez-esentzialak)	Invitrogen 11140-035	50 µl
3	BSA (bovine serum albumine,	Sigma A-9647	0,130 gr (% 3)

3.16 taula. M-16 enbrioien *in vitro* hazkuntzarako ingurunearen osaketa.

M16			
Sagu prepubereen enbrioien <i>in vitro</i> hazkuntza-ingurunea			
ERREAKTIBOAK			KANTITATEAK
Ordena	Izena	ERREF.	5 ml
1	M16	Sigma M7292	4850 µl
2	NEAA (aminoazido ez-esentzialak)	Invitrogen 11140-035	50 µl
3	EAA (aminoazido esentzialak)	Invitrogen 11130-036	100 µl

3.2 Metodoak: gizakia

3.2.1 Teknikak

3.2.1.1 Giza obozitoen eta pikor-geruzako zelulen lorpena

Giza obozitoak eta pikor-geruzako zelulak Gurutzeta Unibertsitate Ospitaleko Giza Ugalkortasun Unitateko FIV/ICSI programako pazienteetatik eskuratu ziren. Lagin biologikoen eta giza laginen erabilera dela eta, ikerketa UPV/EHUren eta Osakidetzaren Ikerkuntza Klinikoaren Batzorde Etikoaren oniritziarekin egin zen (Osakidetza, CEIC E07/54 kodea, 3.akta/2008). Pazienteek ere, onarpen sinatua eman zuten.

Obozitoak erauzteko hormonon bidezko obulutegien estimulazioa egin zitzaizkien pazienteei, ahalik eta folikulu gehien eskuratzeko asmoz. Obulutegien estimulazioa egiteko FSH hormona birkonbinantea eta LH hormona birkonbinantea erabili ziren. Tratamenduan zehar, kontrolak egin zitzaizkien obarioetako folikuluen kopurua eta tamaina zehazteko. Paziente horiei hCG (giza hormona gonadotropinakorionikoa) izeneko hormona injektatu eta 36 ordura erauzi zitzaizkien obozitoak. Behin obozito-kumulu konplexua (COC) identifikatuta, heldutasun-maila estimatu zen bolumena, dentsitatea eta inguratzen duten zelulen egoera aztertuz, eta lau mailatan sailkatu ziren: heldua (i), heldugabea (ii), erabat heldugabea (iii) eta/edo oso heldua (iv). Obozitoak 2 orduraz inkubatu ziren *in vitro* ernalketa (IVF) medioan (FIV Medio, Medicult) 37 °C-an eta % 6 CO₂ko kontzentrazioarekin.

Bestalde, espermatozoiden injekzio intrazitoplasmatikoa (ingelesez, *intracytoplasmic sperm injection*, ICSI) teknikaren ondoren, obozitoei hialuronidasa 40 UI/l-ko kontzentrazioa (Hyadase; Medicult) erabiliz pikor-geruzako zelulak erauzi zitzaizkien. Pikor-geruzako zelulak inguratzen zuten obozitoaren nukleoaren heldutasun mailaren arabera sailkatu ziren [GV (besikula germinala), MI (I. metafasea) edo MII (II. metafasea)]. Azkenik, zentrifugatu ostean, hialuronidasa medioa eta zelulak 4 °C-ra gorde ziren eta pikor-geruzako zelulen *pellet*-a -80 °C-ra izoztu zen gerora erabiltzeko.

3.2.1.2 Sistema kannabinoidearen espresio genikoaren analisia

Heltze-prozesuan zehar, kannabinoide sistema osatzen duten kannabinoide hartzaileen eta kannabinoideen degradazio-entzimen adierazpena ikusteko obozitoen eta pikor-geruzako zeluletan, polimerasaren kate-erreakzio kuantitatiboa denbora errealean (RT-qPCR) teknika maneiatu zen. Teknika horren bidez, adierazpen genikoa neurtzen da eta, horretarako, DNA zati jakin baten kopia asko lortzeko polimerasaren kate-erreakzioa (*Polymerase Chain Reaction*; PCR) erabiltzen da, oligonukleotido espezifikoak (*primer-ak*) erabiliz.

- **RNA: eraztea eta kontzentrazioa neurtzea**

Obozitoen RNA, pikor-geruzako zelulen RNA (fase bakoitzeko 10 obozitoetatik eskuratuak), garuneko kortexaren RNA (CB1a, FAAH eta MGLLarako kontrol positiboa) eta Jurkat zelulen RNA (CB2 hartzailerako kontrol positiboa) erauzi ziren Dynabeads® mRNA Purification Kit-arekin (Ambion) hornitzailearen argibideak jarraituz.

Isolamendu protokoloa mRNA gehien 3' muturreko poliA hondakinen eta Dynabeads® azalerarekin kobalenteke loturiko oligo (dT) hondarren arteko base pareetan oinarritzen da. PoliA buztana ez duten beste RNA mota batzuek ez dute hibridatzen pikorrekin eta erraz deuseztatzen dira. RNA erribosomikoa, DNA, proteinak eta RNA molekula txikiak (esaterako, transferentziako RNA (tRNA), mikro RNA eta RNA nukleolar txikiak) ez dira pikorrekin lotzen eta baztertu egiten dira.

Lortutako RNA laginak 30 µl Tris-HCl soluzioarekin birsuspenditu ziren erretrotranskripzio protokoloarekin jarraitzeko.

RNAren kuantifikazioa NanoDrop®ND-1000 (Thermo Scientific) izeneko espektrofotometroaren bidez neurtu zen. Laginaren RNAren kontzentrazioa eta absorbantzia neurtu ziren eta laginaren purutasuna zehazteko uhin-luzera ezberdinen arteko ratioa kalkulatu zen. Ur puruarekin RNA lagina 20 aldiz diluitu ondoren espektroekorketa egin zen 200-350 nm artean. Espektrofotometroak ohiko kurba sortu behar zuen. Kurba horretan, 280 nm-an (proteina) eta 260 nm-an (RNA) absorbantzia-puntu maximoak agertzen ziren. Gure RNA purutzat hartzeko 2 baliotik gertu egon beha ziren A260/280 eta A260/230 ratioak.

Bestalde, RNAren kalitatea neurtzeko, RNA % 1,5-2 agarosa-gel batean kargatzen zen. Lagineko RNA kalitate onekoa izateko, gelean korriaraztean, 28S eta 18S RNA erribosomikoen banda diskretuak eta 2:1 proportzioan agertzea gomendatzen zen.

- **Alderantzizko transkripzioa (RT)**

RNA mezulariaren azterketa egiteko DNA osagarria (cDNA) sintetizatu behar da alderantzizko transkriptasa baten bidez. cDNA eratzeko ImProm II Alderantzizko Transkripzio sistema (Promega) erabili zen.

0,2 ml-ko Eppendorf saio-hodi batean nahastu ziren 159 ng RNA, 2 µl azarezko hexamero eta ur purua (RNasa-rik gabe). Azarezko hexameroak RNAra lotzeko, nahasketa 10 minutuan 65 °C-an berotu zen, eta, ondoren, izotzean bost minutuz utzi ziren RNAren egitura sekundarioak desegiteko. Horren ostean, behin alderantzizko transkripzio mix-a gehituta lagina termozikladorean inkubatu zen 5 minutuz 25 °C-an, 60 minutuz 55 °C-an (cDNA eratzeko) eta 15 minutuz 75°C-an (RT inhibitzeko). Azkenean, izotzean mantendu zen. Lortutako cDNA -20 °C-an gorde zen erabilia izan arte.

- **Denbora errealean egindako PCR kuantitatiboa qRT-PCR (*Quantitative Real Time Polymerase chain Reaction*)**

Lagin bateko mRNA guztien cDNA eratu eta gero, intereseko genearen sekuentzia-tartea amplifikatu zen 2 primer-ak erabiliz. Sortutako DNAREN kopurua zehazteko zunda fluoreszentsia erabili zen.

qRT-PCR egiteko StepOne Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) 96 putzutako termoziklagailua, erabili zen, espezifikoki diseinatu CB1a (Hs01038522_s1), CB2a (Hs00361490_m1), FAAH (Hs01038660_m1) eta MGLLa (Hs00200752_m1) bereizteko.

Kontrol positiborako ehun desberdinak erabili ziren, esaterako, garuneko kortexa CB1a, FAAH eta MGLLarako eta Jurkat zelulak CB2 hartzailerako.

qPCRa burutzeko, Taq-polimerasa, *primer*-ak eta beharrezko erreaktibo guztiak etxe komertzialak azaldutako kontzentrazio zehaztutan gehitu ziren eta lagin bakoitza termozikladorean sartu zen. Ondoren, denbora-tarte, tenperatura eta ziklo egokiak ezarri ziren: lehenik eta behin atxikipen-etapa deiturikoa 95°C-an 20 segundoz, 40 zikloko etapa 95°C-an segundo batez eta 60°C-an 20 segundoz. Lagin bakoitzeko mRNA kantitatea analizatzeko $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ metodoa erabili zen GAPDH (Applied Biosystems-ekoa 4333764-0906029) erreferentzia genea erabiliz. Non $-\Delta\Delta Ct = \Delta Ct$ (lagina) – ΔCt (kalibratzailea), eta $\Delta Ct = Ct$ (itu-genea) – Ct (erreferentzia-genea) diren.

Atari-zikloari Ct deritzogu (*cycle threshold*). Amplifikazio-kurba konkretu batentzat fluoreszentiaren detekzio-ataria gainditzeko behar den ziklo kopuruak markatuko du Ct -ak. PCR-erreakzioaren ziklo bakoitzak PCR-produktua bi aldiz handiagoa dela adierazten digu. Hau da, ziklo baten desberdintasuna duten bi laginen artean, bata besteak baino bi aldiz material gehiago du.

3.2.1.3 Proteinen presentziaren identifikazioa

Intereseko proteinak identifikatzeko Western Blot edo Immunoblot teknikak erabiltzen dira, intereseko proteina antzematen duen antigorputz espezifikoa erabiliz. Proteinaren lokalizazioari buruzko informazioa emateaz gain, kuantifikazio erlatiboa ere jakin daiteke.

- **Proteinen erauzketa eta kuantifikazioa (*Bradford* metodoa)**

Pikor-geruzako zelulen proteinen erauzketarako, 10 obozitoetatik erauzitako pikor-geruzako zelulak multzokatu ziren (n=5).

Obozito eta pikor-geruzako zeluletan dagoen proteinaren kontzentrazioa *Bradford* metodoaren arabera kalkulatu zen (*Bradford, 1976*), *Coomasie* koloratzaile urdin argitsuarentzako polipeptidoen afinitatean oinarrituta. Koloratzailea proteinei lotzean, *Coomasie* urdinaren gehienezko uhin-luzeraren aldaketa eragiten du, 465 nm-tik 595 nm-ra igarotzen baita. Absortzioaren hazkundera, 595 nm-tan neurtutakoa,

laginean dagoen proteinaren kontzentrazioarekiko proportzionala da zuzenean eta horren balioa xurgapen patroia estrapolazio bidez kalkulatu daiteke.

Lerro estandarra egiteko, BSA kontzentrazio ezagun batetik hasten da (1 mg/ml 10 mM Tris-HCl), bolumen desberdinetan banatzen dena (0 ml-tik 25 ml-ra) eta *Bradford* (Bio-Rad) errektiboarekin inkubatzen da 10 minutuz. 595 nm-tara neurtutako absorbantzia baloreak batzen dira eta grafikoki adierazten dira ($y = ax + b$) funtzio lineala lortzeko.

Laginak 190 μ l *Bradford*arekin inkubatu ziren (200 μ l-ko disoluzioan) 10 minutuz.

- **Western Blot (WB): Elektroforesia (SDS-PAGE), transferentzia eta immunodetekzioa**

Teknika hau hiru etapetan banatzen da. Lehenengoan, poliakrilamidazko gel elektroforesian (SDS-PAGE) proteinak eremu elektriko bati esker gelaren poroetan zehar barreiatzen dira eta poroen tamainaren eta proteinaren kargaren, neurriaren, pisu molekularren, egituraren eta hidrofobizitatearen arabera banatzen dira. Ondoren, transferentzia deritzon etapan, gelean barreiatutako proteinak nitrozululosa, nylon edo PVDF (Polibinilideno difluorua, ingelesez *polyvinylidene difluoride*) mintz baten azalera itsatsiko dira, elektroforesi bidez intereseko proteina aurkitu ahal izateko antigorputz espezifikoei.

Western Blot teknikarekin hasi aurretik elektroforesirako akrilamidazko bi gel prestatu behar dira, gel banatzailea eta gel kontzentratzailea, besteak beste. Lauki formako bi kristal aurrez aurre elkartzen dira 0,75 mm-ko tartea utzita eta oinarria ixten da, tarte horretan gelaren zati banatzailea (beheko partean) eta kontzentratzailea (goiko partean) doazelako. Gel kontzentratzailea goiko aldean egotearen arrazoia proteinak gel banatzailean igaro baino lehen lerrokatu behar direla da. Gel banatzaileari esker, SDSagatik proteinak negatiboki kargaturik daudenez eta, ondoren, SDS, β -merkaptotanol eta beroagatik desnaturalizatzen direnez, pisu molekularren arabera banatzen doaz.

Bi gel mota hauek egiteko osagai desberdinak nahastu behar dira proportzio zehatz batzuetan. Lehenenik eta behin, gel banatzailea egiten da eta kristalen artean isurtzen da. Behin polimerizatuta dagoenean gel kontzentratzailea gehitzen da. Hauek dira, hurrenez hurren, gel bakoitza egiteko protokoloak (**3.17 eta 3.18 taulak**):

3.17 taula. Western Blot teknikarako gel banatzailearen osagaiak.

Gel banatzailea	
Osagaiak	% 12ko akrilamida
H ₂ O	Bolumena bete arte
Tris-HCl pH 8,8 1.5 M	3,75ml
Akrilamida %30-Bis %1	6 ml
SDS %10	150 μ l
PSA %10	80 μ l
TEMED	10 μ l

3.18 taula. Western Blot teknigarako gel kontzentratzailearen osagaiak.

Gel kontzentratzailea	
Osagaiak	% 4ko akrilamida
H ₂ O	Bolumena bete arte
Tris-HCl pH 6,8	0,9 ml
Akrilamida %30-Bis %1	635 µl
SDS %10	40 µl
PSA %10	20 µl
TEMED	5 µl

Gela polimerizatu eta gero elektroforesi-indargetzaileaz beteriko elektroforesi-euskarrian jartzen da.

Konparatu beharreko laginen proteina kontzentrazioa berdindu ostean, bai pikor-geruzako zelulena baita kontrol positiboa bezala erabili zen garun kortexarena ere (2 µg/ml), proteinentzako karga indargetzailearekin berreseki edo diluitu ziren (50 mmol/L Tris-HCl pH 6,8, % 2 SDS, % 10 glizerola, % 5 β-mercaptoetanola eta % 0.1 bromofenol urdina) eta 3-5 minutuz irakiten jarri ziren 95 °C-an. Jarraian, akrilamidazko gelaren kale bakoitzean pikor-geruzako zelulak eta garun kortexa kargatu ziren pisu molekular ezaguneko proteina markatzailearekin batera (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Elektroforesian zehar, 100 V-eko boltaian korriarazi ziren proteinak kontzentrazio-gela zeharkatu arte eta, hortik aurrera, korronea 200 V-era aldatu zen gelaren bukaeraraino heldu arte eta proteinak tamainaren arabera banatzeko.

Elektroforesia amaitutakoan, proteinak nitrozulosazko mintz batean transferitu ziren hotzean (ordu batez, 0,3A) transferentzia elektroforetikoa erabiliz (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Horretarako, transferentzia-*sandwich*-aren muntaiaren prestaketa egin zen honako ordena hau jarraituz polo positibotik negatibora: kuxina, *Whatman* paperak (x3), gela (zati kontzentratzailearik gabe), transferentzia-mintza (PVDF), *Whatman* paperak (x3) eta kuxina.

Hurrengo pausurako, PVDF mintza errekuperatu zen eta lotura ez-espezifikoak ekiditeko blokeo-soluzioan (esne gaingabetua % 5 TBST-rekin (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 140 mM NaCl)) inkubatu zen ordu betez giro tenperaturan. Garbiketa egin eta gero, gizakientzako antigorputz poliklonal primario espezifikoekin inkubatu zen gau osoan zehar 4 °C-an. Hurrengo egunean, *Blotto* soluzioarekin (TBS, % 0,1 Tritoi X-100, % 5 eko esne gaingabetuarekin) garbiketak egin ziren (5 minutuko 3 garbiketa) eta untxiaren IgG-aren kontrako antigorputz sekundario fluoreszentearekin inkubatu zen giro-tenperaturan. Lehortu ostean, *Odyssey* izpi infragorrien irudi sistema erabiliz errebelatu zen (system LICOR Biosciences).

3.2.1.4 Proteinen lokalizazioa

- **Immunozitokimika (IZK) pikor-geruzako zeluletan eta obozitoan**

Immunozitokimika teknikari esker zeluletan dauden proteinak lokalizatu ditzakegu. Immunodetekzio ez-zuzena antigorputz primario espezifikoa eta antigorputz sekundario markatua erabiliz egiten da eta antigorputzen marka fluorogenikoa bada, antigeno espezifikoak fluoreszentsia-mikroskopia bidez detektatu eta lokalizatuko dira.

Immunofluoreszentsia bidez hartzaile bakoitzaren kokalekua zehazteko, pikor-geruzako zelulak PBS + BSA (1µg/µl)-an eseki ziren. Mikroskopia-estalki baten gainean, Poli-L-lisina jarri zen pikor-geruzako zelulak euskarri horretan itsasteko. Zelulak finkatzeko, paraformaldehido % 3 (10 min) erabili zen. Pauso bakoitzaren bukaeran, estalkiak PBSarekin garbitu ziren (3 aldiz 5 minutuz). Finkatze-prozesua amaituta, zelulak PBS + % 10 (bol/bol) behi-umekiaren serumarekin + Tritoi X100-ekin blokeatu ziren 45 minutuz giro tenperaturan. Tindaketa immunofluoreszente ez-zuzena egiteko, untxi-antigorputz poliklonal primario espezifiko bakoitzarekin (**3.4 taulan** ikusten den bezala) inkubatu ziren gau osoan zehar 4 °C-an. Lotura bikoitzeroako anti-CB1 ahutz antigorputz poliklonal primarioa erabili zen eta PBSarekin berriro garbiketak (3x 5 min) egin eta gero konposatu fluorogenikoz (Alexa Fluor 488) konjugatutako untxiaren IgGen kontrako ahuntz-antigorputz sekundarioarekin inkubatu zen iluntasunean, bi orduz eta 37 °C-an. Estalkien azkeneko garbiketa egin ondoren lagin guztietan nukleoak Hoechst 33342 koloratzailearekin tindatu ziren, amaitzeko, Fluoromont G-rekin G (EMS) muntatzeko porta baten gainean. Pikor-geruzako zelulak eta obozitoak mikroskopia fokukidearen bidez aztertu ziren argon ioi bidezko laserrarekin, alde batetik, 488 nm-an (urdina) kitzikatuz eta 505- 520 nm-an (berdea) jasoz eta, bestetik, 594 nm-an (berdea) kitzikatuz eta 617 nm-an (gorria) jasoz. Nukleoen markaketa argon ioi bidezko laserrarekin 405 nm-an (UV) kitzikatuz, 440 nm-an (urdina) jaso zen, baina, sekuentzialean, Alexa-488 eta Hoestch 33342-ren seinaleak nahas ez zitezen.

Bi kontrol negatibo egin ziren. Alde batetik, antigorputz bakoitzeroako peptido blokeatzaile espezifikoak erabili ziren eta, bestetik, tratamendu batean antigorputz primarioarekin egindako inkubaketa ez zen egin.

Obozitoekin egindako immunofluoreszentsiaren kasuan, meiosiaren fase bakoitzeko obozitoak multzokatu ziren (GV, MI eta MII). Aurreko atalean pikor-geruzako zelulekin egindako prozedura berdina jarraitu zen.

3.3 Metodoak: sagua

Tesi honetan zehar erabili diren animalia guztiak (saguak) kontrolaturiko tenperaturan mantendu dira (23 ± 1 °C), 14 h-ko argi-zikloan eta 10 h-ko iluntasunean eta ura eta janaria *ad libitum* (modu librean) eman zazkie. Saguekin egindako esperimentu guztiak Euskal Herriko Unibertsitateak (UPV/EHU, CEEA erreferentzia zenbakia: M20-2015-016-027-028-173) onartuak izan ziren. Animaliekin egindako esperimentuak, Europako legediaren arabera eta “Laborategiko animalien erabilera eta zaintza” gidaren jarraibideen arabera burutu ziren. Erabilitako animalia guztiak lepondoko lokadura bidez hil ziren sufrimendua ahalik eta gehien ekiditeko.

3.3.1 Genotipo basatidun animaliak (*Wild type*, WT)

Obozitoak eta espermatozoidak lortzeko B6D2F1 lerroko animalia hibridoak erabili ziren, C57BL6/J emeen eta DBA/2 arren (Envigo) gurutzaketatik sortuak. Animalien zaintza eta ekoizpena Euskal Herriko Unibertsitateko Animaliategi zerbitzu orokorraren (SGIker) gomendioak jarraituz egin ziren.

Lerro bereko sagu aurrepubereak erabili ziren obozito heldugabeekin egindako esperimентuentzako. Azken animalia horiek Bruselako *Vrije Universiteit Brussel* Unibertsitateko *Follicle Biology Unit* taldeko kideen adeitasunez lortuak dira.

3.3.2 CB1, CB2 eta KO bikoitzerako hartzailleentzako *knockout* animaliak

Tesi honetan, Cb1 ($Cnr1^{-/-}$) hartzaillearen genea, Cb2 ($Cnr2^{-/-}$) hartzaillearen genea edota bi hartzailleak ($Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$) ezabatuak zituzten sagu ereduak erabili ziren obozitoak eta enbrioak eskuratzeko, bai *in vivo* bai *in vitro* egindako esperimентuetan.

$Cnr1^{-/-}$ eta $Cnr2^{-/-}$ genotipoko sortze animaliak Madrilgo Unibertsitate Complutense-ko (UCM), Biokimika eta Biologia molekularreko saileko *Grupo de Señalización por Cannabinoides* taldeak utziak dira.

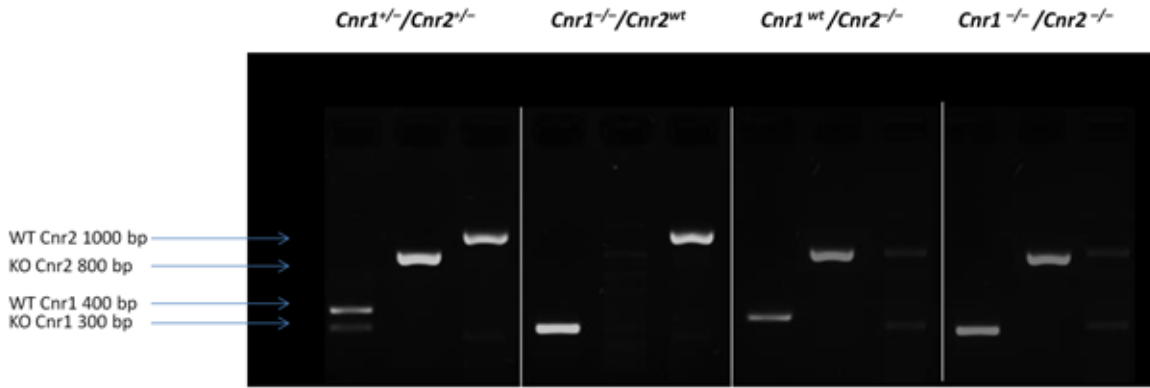
3.3.2.1 Hazkuntza

Animalien lerroen mantentzerako gurutzaketak egiteko 2 eme/ar-eko proportzioa erabili zen eta lortutako kumaldiari titia kendu zitzaion erditu ondorengo 21. egunean. Emeak eta arrak bereiziz banatu ziren.

3.3.2.2 Sagu-ehunaren DNAREN lorpena genotipoa aztertzeko

Saguen buztan zati bat ebaki zen eta 35 μ l-ko indargetzaile-soluzio batean inkubatu zen [Tris-HCl 10 mM, EDTA 100 mM, SDS % 0.5 (p/bol), pH 7.4] 20 mg/mL proteinasa Krekin batera (Sigma P-8044)

gau osoan zehar 55 °C-an. Hurrengo egunean, 200 µl ddH₂O gehitu ziren lagina diluitzeko eta astintze bizia egin ondoren 10.000 rpm-ra zentrifugatu zen 5 minutuz giro tenperaturan. Ondoren PCR konbentzionala egin zen aurreko soluzioaren 1 µl-rekin . **3.1 irudian** emaitzak ageri dira eta **3.19 taulan** erabilitako oligonukleotidoak.



3.1 irudia. Sagu genotipoen azterketaren emaitzak PCR bidez. Kontrolerako saguak: bi geneentzako heterozigosia erakusten dutenak *Cnr1^{+/-}/Cnr2^{+/-}*. Erabili diren sagu transgenikoen genotipoak: *Cnr1^{-/-}*, *Cnr2^{-/-}* edo *knockout* bikoitza *Cnr1^{+/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}*.

3.19 taula. Genotipoen azterketa egiteko erabili diren oligonukleotidoak. *Cnr1*arentzako 3 *primer*-ak batera joan daitezke PCRan, *Cnr2*arentzako 2 PCR egitea komeni da: 2 PCR: P1+P2 eta P1+P3.

Genea	Primer-a	Sekuentzia	Produktua (bp)	T° eta zikloak
<i>Cnr1</i>	P1	5' GCTGTCTCTGGTCCTCTTAAA 3'	WT: 400	54 °C, 35 ziklo
	P2	5' GGTGTCACCTCTGAAAACAGA 3'	CB1 KO: 300	
	P3	5' CCTACCCGGTAGAATTAGCTT 3'		
<i>Cnr2</i>	P1	5' AAATGCTTGATTGGTGTGTCAGCTCTC 3'	WT: 1100	54 °C, 35 ziklo
	P2	5' GGCTCCTAGGTGGTTTTTCACATCAGCCTCT 3'	CB2 KO: 850	
	P3	5' TAAAGCGCATGCTCCAGACTGCCTT 3'		

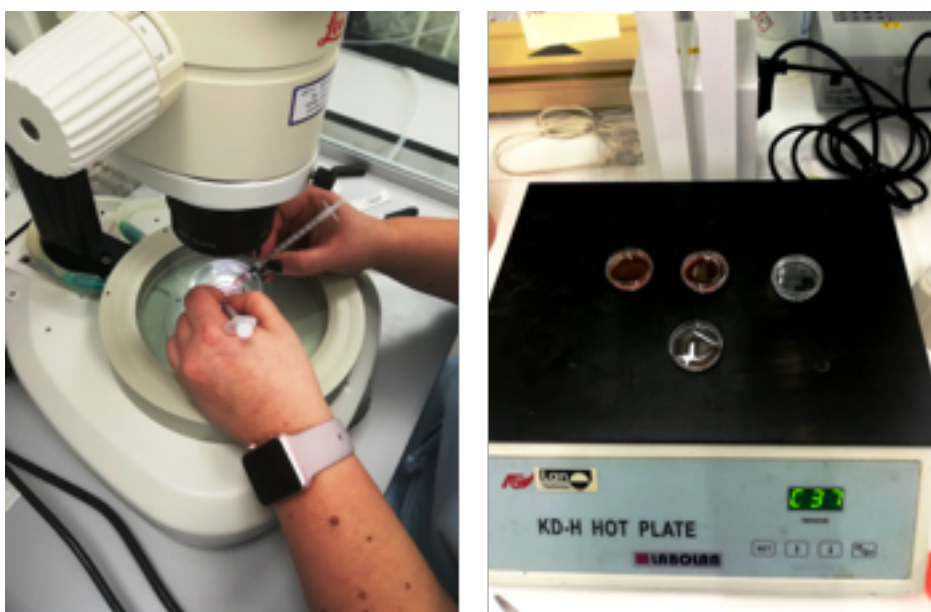
3.3.3 Sagu enbrioien *in vitro* ekoizpena

3.3.3.1 Kumulu-obozito konplexuen (COC) lorpena

8-10 asteko sagu emeen obozitoak erabili ziren eta umedun behorren (eCG) hormona eta giza gonadotropina korionikoa (hCG) injektatu zitzaien obulatzeko. Serum fisiologikoan disolbatuta 5 UI kantitate erabili zen bi hormonentzako eta animalia bakoitzari 0,1 ml injektatu zitzaien.

Obozitoen *in vitro* madurazioa egin zen kasuetan bakarrik eCG hormona injektatu zitzaien. Enbrioien ekoizpenerako, ordea, *in vivo* heldutako obozitoak eskuratzeko bi hormonak injektatu ziren (eCG eta hCG) 48 orduko tartearekin.

COCak eskuratzeko, laburki azalduta, saguak lepondoko lokadura bidez hil ziren. Ondoren, abdomenaren behealdean mozketa txiki bat egin zitzaien diafragmaren hertzeetaraino zabaltzeko eta, modu horretan, organoak ikusi ahal izateko. Jarraian, obarioak erauzi ziren eta M2 media zeukaten plaketan jarri. Horren ostean, orratz baten bidez folikuluak ziztatu ziren barruko COCak jasotzeko (3.2 irudia)



3.2 irudia. COC-en erauzketa

3.3.3.2 Sagu obozitoen *in vitro* heltzea (*in vitro* maturation, IVM, ingelesez)

(Martin-Coello eta lank., 2008)-ren protokoloari aldaketa batzuk eginez burutu zen (3.4 irudia):

Obozitoen *in vitro* heltzerako, eCG eman eta 48 ordura saguak hil ziren lepondoko lokadura bidez. Esan bezala, ondoren, abdomenaren behealdean mozketa txiki bat egin zen diafragmaren hertzeetaraino zabaltzeko, modu horretan organoak ikusi ahal izateko. Jarraian, obarioak erauzi ziren eta M2 media zeukaten 35 mm-ko plaketan jarri ziren. Gantz guztia garbitu ondoren folikuluak ziztatu ziren 30-G kalibredun orratzarekin. GV fasean zeuden COCak aukeratu ziren, hain zuzen ere, besikula germinala eta zitoplasma uniformeak zituztenak eta pikor-geruzako zelulez osatutako geruza ugariz guztiz inguraturik zeudenak (3.3 irudia). Obulutegien erauzketatik aurrerako prozedura guztiak mikroskopia estereoskopikoa erabiliz egin ziren eta plaka berogailu batean 37 °C-an.

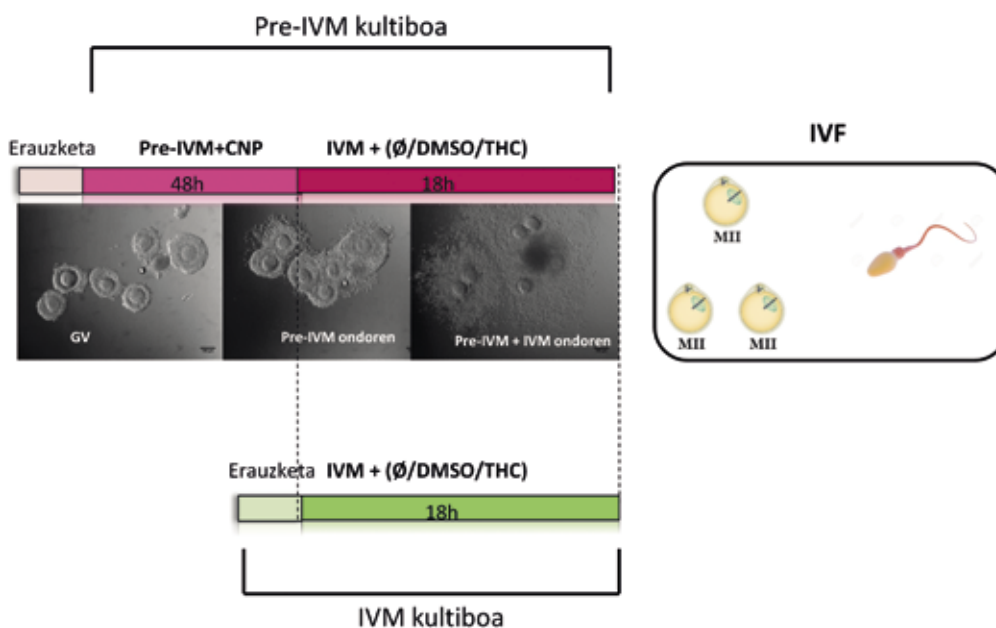


3.3 irudia. IVM teknigarako COCak hautatzeko irizpideak: a) COC egokiak kumuluko pikor-geruzako zelulez inguratuak eta b) egokiak ez diren COC, biluziak (*Nikseresht eta lank., 2017*).

Obarioen puntzioaren eta COCen aukeraketak ez zuen iraun 30 minutu baino gehiago horien kalitatean eraginik izan ez zezan. TCM-199 heltze-medioa erabili zen eta % 0.5-eko gentamizina (Sigma G-1272) , 0,01 mg/mL epidermiseko hazkuntza-faktorea (EGF; Sigma E-4127) eta % 10 (bol/bol) behi-umekiaren seruma (FBS) gehitu ziren medio horretara. Heltze-mediora pasatu aurretik aukeratutako COCak birritan garbitu ziren M2 medioan. Ostean, 20ko taldeetan inkubatu ziren 17 orduz, 500 μ l heltze-medioa zeukaten 4 putzutako Nunc plaketan (Nunc, Roskilde) 37 °C-an, CO₂ % 5eko atmosfera kontrolatuan eta % 95eko hezetasunarekin.

3.3.3.3 Sexualki heldu gabeko saguen (aurre-pubereak) COCen erauzketa, kultiboa eta PRE-IVM heltze prozesua

19-21 eguneko WT (C57BL/6xCBA) leinuko sagu heldugabeen COCak eskuratu ziren. Sagu horiei ez zitzaien hormonarik injektatu. Saguak lepondoko lokadura bidez hil ziren eta, ondoren, aurretik deskribatu bezala obarioak erauzi zitzaizkien. Obulutegiak L-15 Leibovitz medioa (Invitrogen) eta IBMX % 0,001 zeukaten 35 mm plaketan jarri ziren. Gantz guztia garbitu ondoren obulutegiak ziztatu ziren 30-G kalibredun orratzarekin. GV fasean zeuden COC heldugabeak batu eta MEM medioan (% 2,5 FBS, 5 μ g/ml intsulina, 5 lg/ml apo-transferrina eta 5 μ g/ml sodio selenittoa) inkubatu ziren. Pre-IVM esperimentuak egiteko mediora CNP-22 (CNP) eta 17- β -estradiola (E2) gehitu ziren eta 48 orduz utzi ziren inkubatzan. Geroxeago, IVM esperimentuak egiteko, aldiz, MEM mediora epidermiseko hazkuntza-faktorea (EGF) eta hormona folikulu estimulatzailea (FSH) gehitu ziren eta 17 orduz egon ziren kultiboan (3.4 irudia).



3. 4 irudia. Hormonarik jaso gabeko sagu heldugabeen obozitoen *in vitro* heltzea: Pre-IVM eta IVM faseak. IVM teknikaren kasuan, obozitoak THCarekin edo THCririk gabe heldu ziren. (FOBI taldetik moldatua)

Horrez gain, bi kontrol egin ziren obozitoaren garapen gaitasuna ebaluatzeko: 1) IVM kontrola, hormonarik jaso gabeko 20 eguneko saguen obozitoak zuzenean inkubatu ziren heltze-medioan 18 orduz. 2) *In vivo* kontrola, non *in vivo* heldutako obozitoak eskuratu ziren, 2.5 IU eCGa eta 2.5 IU hCG hormona-dosiak jasotako 25-27 eguneko sagu helduetatik. Obozito guztiak esperma lagin berarekin ernaldutako eta enbrioien kultiboa baldintza berdinetan egin zen.

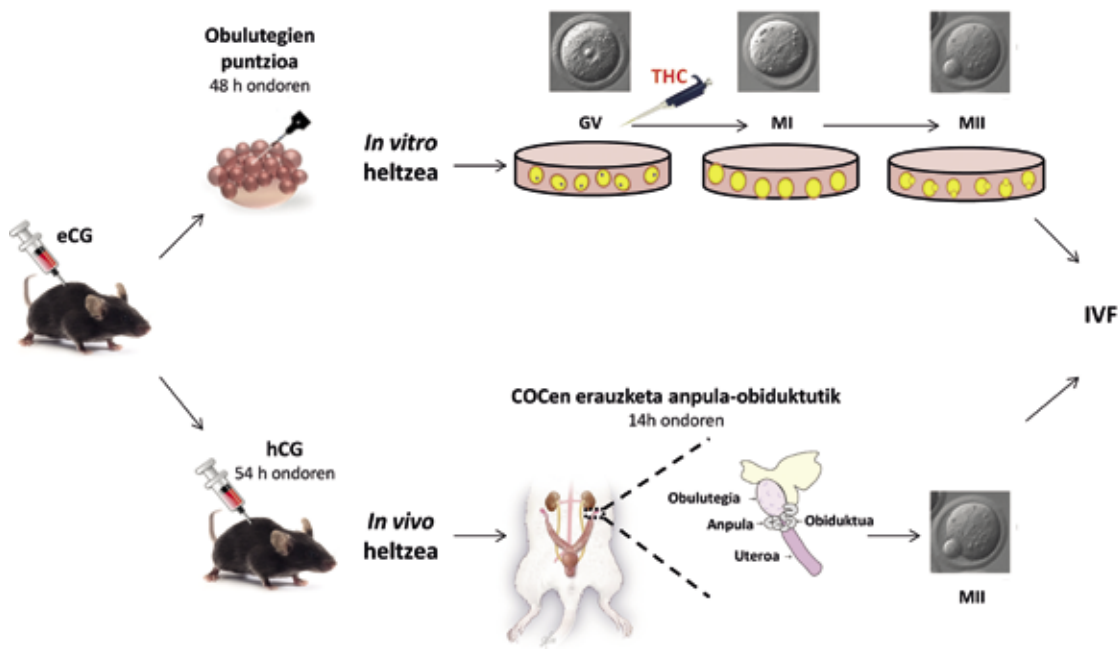
3.3.3.4 THC fitokannabinoidearekin inkubazioak

Heltzean zehar COCak THC fitokannabinoidearen dosi desberdinekin inkubatu ziren. *Stock*-eko soluzioak DMSO garraiatzailearekin prestatu ziren konposatu kannabinoideen izaera lipofilikoa dela eta. Dosi gorakorrek aukeratu ziren hartzaile kannabinoideen aktibazioan egon zitekeen eragina neurtzeko, besteak beste, 1 nM, 10 nM, 100 nM eta 1 μ M. Kontrolerako COC talde bat konposatu kannabinoideentzako erabili zen DMSO kantitate berarekin inkubatu zen.

THC fitokannabinoidea eta THCa diluitzen den konposatua (DMSO, garraiatzailea) heltze-mediora gehitu ziren obozitoak jarri baino 5 minutu lehenago, farmako horien degradazioa ekiditeko. Heltze-prozesua amaitutakoan COC horiek *in vitro* ernalkuntza egiteko edota ondoren deskribaturik dauden esperimentuak egiteko erabili ziren.

3.3.3.5 Sagu obozitoen *in vivo* heldzea

In vivo heldutako obozitoak eskuratzeko sagu emeak lepondoko lokadura bidez hil ziren hCG eman eta 14 ordutara. Laparotomia bidezko “V” formako ebakia egin zen diafragmaren hertzeetaraino zabalduz, barrunbe peritonealeko organo guztiak agerian uzteko. Obiduktuak eskuratzeko mozketak egin ziren obulutegi eta infundibuluaren artean eta obiduktu-isatsaren eta uteroko adarraren zati kranealaren artean eta, ondoren, 35 mm-ko plaketan jarri ziren M2 medioarekin. #5 Pintzekin anpula ziztatu zen meiosis berrabiarazi zuten obozitoen multzoa berreskuratzeko, MI edo/eta MII fasean zeuden obozitoak, alegia (3.5 irudia).



3.5. irudia. *In vivo* eta *in vitro* heldutako obozitoak eskuratzeko teknikak *in vitro* ernalketa (IVF) egin aurretik. *In vitro* heldutzean (IVM) obozitoak THCaren presentzian edo THCririk gabe heldu ziren.

3.3.4 *In vitro* ernalketa (IVF)

In vitro ernalketa Martín-Coello eta lankideen (2008) metodoa jarraituz egin zen. Horretarako, HTF (*Human Tubular Fluid*, ingelesez) media erabili zen 2 mg/ml BSA gehituta, bai esperma prestatzeko baita obozitoekin inkubatzeko ere.

3.3.4.1 Espermatzoideen prestaketa

Aurretiaz bakartutako eta 8-10 aste bitarteko B6D2F1 lerroko sagu arrak erabili ziren. Espermatzoideak ugalkortasun arazorik gabekoak zirela frogatutako arren epididimoetatik eskuratu ziren. *In vitro* heldutze-prozesua egin eta 16 ordutara edota *in vivo* heldutze-prozesuan hCG ziztatu eta 13 ordu ondoren sakrifikatu

ziren saguak. Lepondoko lokadura bidez hil eta gero, epididimoaren isatsa eta konduktu deferentearen zati bat erauzi zitzaizkien eta 35 mm-ko plaka batean jarri ziren. Material kirurgikoaren laguntzaz soberan zegoen gantz kantitate handiena garbitu eta konduktu deferentean dagoen odol-hodia kendu ostean, epididimoaren isatsa egun bat lehenagotik egonkortutako 500 μ l-ko HTF tanta batean jarri zen. Aipatu behar da HTF tanta olio mineralez estali zela eta aurretiaz egonkortu zela medioaren pHa orekatua egon zedin.

3.3.4.2 Espermatzoideen kapazitazioa

HTF tanta horretan, mikroskopia esteroidoskopikopean semena lortzeko pintza batzuen laguntzarekin isatsaren oinarrian presionatu zen. Jarraian, plaka inkubagailuan gorde zen espermatzoideak ordu betez inkubatzeko 37 °C-an, % 95eko hezetasunean eta % 5eko CO₂ kontzentrazioarekin, horrela, espermatzoideen sakabanatzea errazteko. 10 minututara Makler-kamararen bidez kontzentrazioa kuantifikatu zen eta ernalketa orduan ml-ko miloi bat espermatzoideko kontzentrazioa izateko hartu beharreko bolumena kalkulatu zen.

3.3.4.3 Gametoen inkubazioa

In vitro zein *in vivo* superobulazioaren bidez heldu ziren obozitoak HTF medioan bi aldiz garbitu ziren 4 putzutako Nunc plaketan jarri aurretik. Putzu bakoitzean 500 μ l HTF gehitu ziren eta jarraian olio mineralez estali. Azkenik, 1 x 10⁶ espermatzoideak/ml dosia gehitu zen. Gametoak 5 orduz inkubatu ziren 37 °C-tan, % 95eko hezetasunean eta % 5eko CO₂ kontzentrazioarekin.

3.3.5 Enbrioien *in vitro* hazkuntza

Ernalketarako beharrezko denbora bete eta gero ustezko zigotoak berreskuratu ziren eta HTF medioa zeukaten 35 mm-ko plaketara pasatu ziren, bertan, pipetaren laguntzaz pikor-geruzako zelulak eta zona peluzido-an itsatsitako espermatzoideak kanporatzeko. Amaitzeko, zigotoak birritan garbitu ziren HTF medioan, 25 μ l-ko KSOMaa medioarekin egindako tantetan jarri aurretik. Berriz ere, medio hori olio mineralez estali zen eta enbrioiak blastozisto fasera heldu arte kultibatu ziren inkubagailuan.

Zatiketa-tasa 1go egunean ebaluatu zen, ernalketa egin eta 24 ordura, eta azkenik, blastozisto-tasaren analisia 4. egunean (96-100 ernalketa ondorengo orduak, ingelesez *hours post fertilization*, hpf) egin zen.

3.3.5.1 Ezarpenaren aurreko enbrioien garapenaren ebaluazioa

24 orduko kultiboaren ondoren, zatitu ez ziren zelula horiek Hoechst 33342 (Thermo Scientific) bidez tindatu ziren eta fluoreszentiako mikroskopioarekin (Axioskop, Zeiss) ebaluatu ziren. Era berean, 2 zeluletan zatitu ziren enbrioitasak aztertu ziren eta baita *in vitro* kultiboko hurrengo etapetako enbrioitasak ere: 4-8 zelula, morula eta blastozistoa.

3.3.6 Obozitoen eta pikor-geruzako zelulen immunofluoreszentzia

Inmunofluoreszentzia teknikaren bidez zeluletan proteina/antigeno espezifiko baten kokapena, adierazpena eta lokalizazioa aztertu daitezke. Hain zuzen ere, intereseko proteina antigeno-antigorputz elkarrekintzaren bitartez detektatzen da, fluoreszentea den antigorputza erabiltzean honek igorritako fluoreszentzia mikroskopioan analizatuz.

CB1 eta CB2 hartzaileen presentzia aztertu zen sagu obozitoetan THC fitokannabinoidarekin *in vitro* heldu ondoren. Fase-meiotiko desberdinetako obozitoak ebaluatzeko, bai *in vitro* bai *in vivo* heldutakoak, 20 obozitoko lagina (n=20) eskuratu zen eta, horretarako, genotipo desberdin bakoitzeko WT (C57BL/6xCBA) edo $Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$, eta $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ anduieko 3 eme erabili ziren 3 erreplika independenteetan.

AKT eta ERK1/2 proteinen fosforilazio-patroia analizatu zen THC fitokannabinoidaren presentzian edo absentsian *in vitro* heldutako obozitoetan. Obozitoak heltze-prozesuan zehar denbora-tarte desberdinetan hartu ziren, 0 h, 10 min, 30 min eta 1 h, THCaren hasierako erantzuna aztertzeko, eta 17 h-tara, ikusteko fosforilazio-patroian antzemandako aldaketak heltze-prozesu osoan zehar mantentzen ziren.

Obozitoak PBS + % 1eko polibinil alkoholarekin (PBS-PVA) (Sigma P-8136) garbitu ziren eta ostean, % 4 paraformaldehidoarekin 10 minutuz fixatu ziren giro tenperaturan (Panreac). Ondoren, obozitoak 3 aldiz garbitu ziren PBSarekin eta 45 minutuz iragazkortu ziren giro tenperaturan % 10 (bol/bol) behi-umekiaren serumarekin (FBS) eta % 1 tritoi X-100 detergentearekin (zelulak iragazkortu eta zelula barneko antigenoak markatu ahal izateko). Serumaren kontzentrazio altuaren bitartez antigorputzak ehunarekiko duen espezifikotasun eza blokeatu zen. Iragazkortasunaren ondoren, tindaketa immunofluoreszente ez-zuzena egiteko, obozitoak PBS-PVAan diluitutako untxi-antigorputz poliklonal primario espezifiko bakoitzarekin + % 5 FBS inkubatu ziren gau osoan zehar 4 °C-an. Antigorputz ezberdinentzako kontzentrazioak **3.4** eta **3.5 tauletan** ageri dira.

Antigorputz primarioarekin inkubazio-aldia bete ondoren, obozitoak PBSarekin 3 aldiz garbitu ziren eta PBS-PVAan eta % 5eko FBSan diluitutako konposatu flourogenikoz konjokatutako untxiaren IgG-en kontrako ahuntz-antigorputz sekundarioarekin inkubatu ziren bi orduz giro tenperaturan. Alexa Fluor® 488 antigorputz sekundarioa erabili zen. Geroxeago, PBS-PVAarekin 3 garbiketa egin ondoren nukleoak Hoechst 33342 5µg/mL markatzailearekin tindatu ziren 10 minutuz giro tenperaturan obozito bakoitzaren heltze-fasea errazago zehazteko. Behin obozitoak azkenengoz garbituta, mikro-tantetan estalki borobilen gainean jarri ziren kontu handiz eta buruz behera muntatu ziren porta baten gainean Fluoromont (EMS) muntai medioaren laguntzaz. Zelulak, mikroskopio fokukidearen bidez analizatu ziren Euskal Herriko Unibertsitateko (UPV/EHU) SGIker mikroskopia zerbitzu orokorrean. Irudiak Image J softwarea erabiliz aztertu ziren.

Esperimentu guztietan kontrol negatiboak egin ziren antigorputz primarioa kenduta.

3.3.7 Fluoreszentziako mikroskopia eta mikroskopia fokukidea

Obozioten nukleoa aztertzeko eta, era horretan, meiosiaren faseak zehazteko, fluoreszentziako mikroskopia erabili zen (*Gutiérrez-Adán eta Pintado, 2000*). Nukleoen tindaketarako erabili zen Hoechst 33342 markatzailea argon ioi bidezko laserrarekin 405 nm-an (UV) kitzikatuz eta 440 nm-an (urdina) jasoz ikusi zen.

Proteinen presentzia eta kokapena analizatzeko ApoTome.2 (Zeiss) eta LSM 800 (Zeiss) mikroskopia fokukideak erabili ziren. Markaketa detektatzeko argon ioi bidezko laserra erabili zen 488 nm-an (urdina) kitzikatuz eta 505-520 nm-an (berdea) jasoz baina era sekuentzialean, Alexa-488 eta Hoechst 33342 markatzailearen seinaleak ez nahasteko. 2 µm-ko xafla optikoak moztu ziren obozitoaren irudi tridimentsionala egiteko. 20X handipena erabili zen 1.5x eko zoom-arekin.

3.3.8 Obozitoen apoptosiaren azterketa

Zelula apoptotikoak detektatzeko TUNEL (Terminal Deoxynucleotidil Transferase-mediated dUTP Nick end-Labeling) teknika erabili zen.

In situ cell death detection Kit, TMR red (ROCHE) kit-a erabili zen eta fabrikatzailearen argibideak jarraitu ziren. Proba honen bidez DNAn egon litezkeen apurketak deoxinukleotidil transferasa edo TdT terminalaren bidez identifikatu daitezke eta entzima batek bigarren markatzaile batekin (fluorokromoa) lotuta dauden dUTPak katalizatuko ditu. 60 µl erreakzio erabili zen guztira, Label Soluzioko 55 µl + 5 µl entzima.

Kontrolako obozitoak eta DMSOarekin eta THCarekin heldutako obozitoak fabrikatzailearen argibideen arabera prozesatu ziren. Bukatzeko, nukleoa tindatzeko Hoechst 33342 markatzailea erabili zen.

3.3.9 Obulutegien morfologiaren eta folikulugenesiaren ebaluazioa

3.3.9.1 Obulutegien bilketa eta histologia

WT eta Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-}, eta Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-} sagu emeak 3.3.3.2 atalean deskribatzen den bezala hil ziren, horietariko batzuei eCG ziztatu eta 48 ordura. Obulutegiak osorik erauzi ziren azterketa histologikoa egiteko eta M2 medioan jarrita soberan zeukaten gantza kendu zitzairen. PBSan garbitu ondoren *Bouin* soluzioan murgildu ziren (% 1 azido pikrikoa (pisu/bol), % 10 formaldehidoa (bol/bol) eta % 5 azido

azetikoa (pisu/bol)) eta 4-5 orduz utzi ziren. Denbora hori pasatuta % 70eko etanolean garbitu ziren eta obulutegiak kutxatiletan sartu ondoren % 50eko etanolera pasatu ziren parafina blokeak egiteko (3.19 taula). Alkoholean deshidratatu eta gero xilolean tratatu ziren parafina histologikora pasatu aurretik.

Parafina solidifikatuzko blokeak 8 µm-ko lodieran moztu ziren mikrotomoarekin eta zatiak portetan jarri ziren.

3.19 Taula. Parafina blokeak egin aurretiko ehunaren tratamendua.

Parafinan murgilketa protokoloa	
Alkohola % 50	1 h 30 min
Alkohola % 70	1 h 30 min
Alkohola % 96	1 h 30 min
Alkohola % 96	1 h 30 min
Alkohola % 100	1 h 30 min
Alkohola % 100	1 h 30 min
Alkohola % 100	1 h 30 min
Metilo benzoatoa	1 h
Metilo benzoatoa	1 h 45 min
Zitrosola	45 min
Parafina	2 h 30 min
Parafina	2 h 30 min

3.3.9.2 Hematoxilina-eosina tindaketa

Obulutegi zatiekin zeuden portei parafina kentzeko xilolean murgildu ziren eta, ondoren, kontzentrazio beherakorreko etanoletatik (% 100, % 96, % 70, % 50) pasatu ziren. Hurrengo taulan agertzen den protokoloa jarraiki hematoxilina-eosina tindaketa egin zen folikuluen kontaketa egiteko. Azpimarratu behar da hematoxilina-eosina tindaketa, gehienetan, modu automatikoan egin zela makina tindatzailea erabiliz.

3.20 Taula. Ehunak hematoxilina-eosinarekin tindatzeko protokoloa.

Hematoxilina-eosia tindaketa protokoloa	
Zitrosola	10 min
Zitrosola	10 min
Zitrosola	5 min
Alkohola % 100	10 seg
Alkohola % 96	10 seg
Alkohola % 96	10 seg
Alkohola % 70	10 seg
Alkohola % 50	10 seg
Ura	5 min
Harris Hematoxilina	45 min
Ura	2 min

Hematoxilina-eosia tindaketa protokoloa	
Ur klorhidrikoa	3 seg
Ura	5 min
Eosina Y	25 seg
Ura	5 min
Alkohola % 50	10 seg
Alkohola % 70	10 seg
Alkohola % 96	10 seg
Alkohola % 100	10 seg
Alkohola % 100	10 seg
Alkohola % 100: Zitrosola 1:1	10 seg
Zitrosola	5 min
Zitrosola	5 min
Zitrosola	5 min

Portak prestaketa histologikoentzako espezifikoa den erretxina batekin muntatu ziren.

Mozketa histologikoak fixatzeko erabili ziren portak aldeaz aurretik polilisinatu egin ziren: 24 orduz % 70eko etanola eta HCl 5 ml/l soluzioan eduki ondoren garbitu, ondo sikatu eta Poli-L-lisinan (% 0,1) murgildu ziren 10 minutuz. Azkenik, lehortzen utzi ziren.

3.3.9.3 Obulutegien azterketa eta folikuluen kontaketa

Folikuluen kopurua estimatzeko porta bakoitzean zeuden mozketa histologikoen argazkiak atera ziren. Irudi guztiak kamera digital batera konektaturiko mikroskopio optiko batekin atera ziren (Olympus XC50). Analisia bost mozketero egin zen.

Obulutegien azalera FIJI softwarea erabiliz neurtu zen eta, aldiz, bolumena kalkulatu zen azalera, mozketaren lodiera eta mozketa kopurua biderkatuz Tilly J-ak (2003) deskribatu bezala.

Folikuluen kopuruaren zenbaketa eta sailkapena bi pertsonak egin zuten, subjektibotasunak ahalik eta gutxien eragiteko. Folikuluak 4 taldetan sailkatu ziren, besteak beste, folikulu primordialak (obozitua inguratzen duten pikor-geruzako zelula lauen geruza bakarra), folikulu primarioak (obozitua inguratzen duten pikor-geruzako zelula kubiko geruza bakarra), folikulu sekundarioak (obozitua inguratzen duten pikor-geruzako zelula kuboide geruza) eta De Graaf-en folikuluak edo antralak (antroa deituriko likidoz beteriko barrunbea ageri da obozito barruan) (Silva eta lank., 2004).

Obulutegi bakoitzaren bolumena neurtu eta (mozketaren azalera x mozketaren lodiera x mozketa kopurua) folikuluen zenbaketa egin ostean folikuluen kopurua ezarri zen folikuluak/obario-ehun mm³ kalkulua eginda. Horren ondoren, genotipo bakoitzean, obulutegi bakoitzean zeuden folikulu desberdinen ehunekoak kalkulatu ziren.

3.4 Erabilitako programak

3.4.1 Irudiak

- (Olympus XC50).
- Adobe Photoshop CS3: (Adobe) Irudien doikuntza
- ImageJ (National Institutes of Health) Dohaineko software irudien analisi eta neurketetarako (azalera) eta *blots*-en dentsitometria neurtzeko.

3.4.2 Bestelakoak

- Graphpad
- SPSS Statistics (v.22)
- Excell

3.5 Datuen analisi estatistikoak

Emaitzen analisi estatistikoa aurreko atalean aipatutako softwareekin egin zen, esaterako, IBM SPSS Statistics (v.22) eta GraphPAD Prism-arekin (v. 5.01).

Konparazio anizkoitzak behar zituzten esperimenteren froga estatistikoak, bide bakarreko bariantza ANOVA analisi sinplearen bitartez egin ziren, eta jarraian Tukey edo Bonferroni-ren *post hoc* frogak egin ziren. Desberdintasunak estatistikoki adierazgarriak kontsideratu ziren $p < 0,05$ edo $p < 0,01$ izanik. Bi talde desberdinen batez bestekoen erkaketetarako, desberdintasunak *Student* testatekin egin ziren eta emaitzak estatistikoki esanguratsuak kontsideratu ziren $*p < 0,05$.

4

Emaitzak **Results**

4.1 Dynamics of expression and localization of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells during oocyte nuclear maturation

4.1 Dynamics of expression and localization of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells during oocyte nuclear maturation

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Abstract

Objective: To describe the expression of cannabinoid receptors CB1 and CB2 and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoglyceride lipase (MGLL) in human granulosa cells and to investigate their differential distribution with respect to CB1 at various stages during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte.

Design: Analysis of granulosa cells from germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI), and MII oocytes by quantitative reverse transcriptase—polymerase chain reaction, Western blot, and indirect immunofluorescence assays.

Setting: Academic research laboratory.

Patient(s): Patients from the Human Reproduction Unit of Cruces University Hospital undergoing intracytoplasmic sperm injection.

Intervention(s): We analyzed the granulosa cells of 300 oocytes from 53 patients. The oocyte maturation stages were 75 at GV stage, 51 at MI, and 174 at MII.

Main Outcome Measure(s): The mRNA and protein expression of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL and localization in granulosa cells at each oocyte maturation stage.

Result(s): CB1, FAAH, and MGLL are present in human granulosa cells during oocyte maturation, but the presence of CB2 receptor is not entirely clear in those cells. CB1 and FAAH were detected in the periphery of the granulosa cells from the GV to the MII oocytes, and they colocalized in some portions of the cell membrane. On the other hand, MGLL immunostaining was more homogeneous across the cell and overlapped with CB1 only weakly.

Conclusion(s): The presence of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells suggests a possible

role of this system in the nuclear maturation of the oocyte. (Fertil Steril_ 2015;104:753–60. ©2015 by American Society for Reproductive Medicine.

Key Words: *Cannabinoid, granulosa cells, oocyte maturation*

Introduction

Oocyte maturation is a highly coordinated process that includes the progression of the oocyte from the first meiotic blockage at the germinal vesicle (GV) stage to the second meiotic blockage at the metaphase II (MII) stage. This progression occurs inside the follicle owing to a careful communication between oocytes and granulosa cells. These granulosa cells are somatic cells that surround the oocyte, but, when the follicle antrum is formed, they separate into mural granulosa cells forming the follicle inner wall and into cumulus granulosa cells, which are closely communicated with each other and with the oocyte through gap junctions (*Sanchez and Smitz, 2012*).

Oocyte maturation can also be carried out *in vitro* as long as the oocyte is cultured without removing the surrounding granulosa cells. This cumulus-oocyte complex (COC) is the structure that is ovulated *in vivo*. For oocyte maturation bidirectional communication is necessary, via gap junctions and via paracrine signaling, between the oocyte and granulosa cells (*Albertini et al., 2001*). In this sense, many substances from the COC have been implicated in the regulation of the oocyte maturation; some of these act once they are translocated by the gap junction, and others act on receptors present on the cumulus cells and/or the oocyte (*Gilchrist et al., 2004*).

Among all these substances, the cannabinoid compounds have been highlighted in some studies. Endocannabinoids are fatty acid derivatives that exert their effects by binding to membrane Gi/o protein-coupled receptors CB1 and CB2. Anandamide (AEA) and 2 arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) are the better characterized endocannabinoids. AEA and 2-AG are degraded by fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH), which is found on the internal membranes of cells, although 2-AG is degraded by monoglyceride lipase (MGLL) as well. Several studies have been published concerning the role of cannabinoids in the female reproductive system (*de Miguel et al., 1998; Wenger et al., 1999; Wenger et al., 2001*), and the cannabinoid receptors and degradation enzymes have been found in various parts of the mammalian female reproductive system as uterus, oviduct (*Das et al., 1995; Paria et al., 2001; Denny et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2004*), preimplantation embryos, and placenta (*Park et al., 2003; Helliwell et al., 2004; Habayeb et al., 2008*).

In regard to the oocyte maturation, it is known that AEA is present in the human follicular fluid (*Schuel et al., 2002a*) and that its concentration in follicles with mature oocytes is higher than in follicles with immature oocytes (*El-Talatini et al., 2009a*). The localization of the cannabinoid receptors and enzymes in rat (*Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010*) and human ovary led to the hypothesis that AEA plays a role in folliculogenesis, preovulatory follicle maturation, oocyte maturity, and/or ovulation (*El-Talatini et al., 2009a*). The hypothesis about oocyte maturation was reinforced with the localization of cannabinoid receptors (*Peralta et al., 2011*) and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes (authors' unpublished data) during the nuclear maturation of human oocytes, where each protein is relocated during that maturation.

Taking into account the necessary bidirectional communication between the oocyte and the granulosa cells, our study aimed to characterize in depth, using a variety of experimental methods, the differential

expression of the two cannabinoid receptors and the two degrading enzymes in human granulosa cells that surround oocytes at each stage of meiotic resumption.

Material and methods

Granulosa Cells Collection

Granulosa cells were obtained from 53 patients (ages 25–40 years; mean, 36.7 ± 2.6) undergoing intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) at the Human Reproduction Unit of the Cruces University Hospital. Ethical approval was obtained from the Clinical Research Ethical Committee of the Basque Health System (Osakidetza, CEIC reference no.r E07/54, 3/ 2008). Informed consent was obtained from all patients. We analyzed the granulosa cells of 300 oocytes from 53 patients. Of the 300 oocytes studied, 75 were at the GV stage, 51 at MI, and 174 at MII. The main ICSI indications were male factor (79.9%) and failure of IUI. The main female-associated conditions were endometriosis (9.8%) and tubal factor (11.2%). Patients had no history of cannabinoid drug consumption.

The ovarian stimulation protocol has been published elsewhere (*Matorras et al., 2002; Matorras et al., 2004*). Briefly, it consists of down-regulation with GnRH agonist and triptorelin acetate on a long protocol or with GnRH antagonist and the cetrorelix protocol, ovarian stimulation with recombinant FSH and highly purified urinary menopausal gonadotropins or recombinant LH, and ovulation being triggered with 250 μ g recombinant hCG. Oocyte retrieval was performed 35–37 hours after hCG administration. Follicles were aspirated with a negative pressure of 115–120 mm Hg with a single lumen 18-gauge oocyte pick-up needle (K-OPS-6035-RWH-B-ET; Cook) under transvaginal ultrasound guidance. Follicular fluids were observed at low magnification (x 40–100) under the stereomicroscope at 37 °C. The COCs were incubated for 2 hours in IVF Medium (IVF Medium, Medicult, Origio) at 37 °C and 6% CO₂ in air. Immediately before micromanipulation for the ICSI procedure, oocytes were denuded from the cumulus oophorus one by one in 30- μ L droplets by a brief exposure to 40 IU/L hyaluronidase solution (Hyadase; Medicult, Origio), followed by mechanical removal of the corona radiata cells with the use of plastic pipettes of defined diameters (denuding pipette; Cook). The droplets containing the cumulus and granulosa cells after oocyte denuding were recovered in Eppendorf tubes, taking into account the nuclear maturation stage of the oocyte for separation into granulosa cells from GV, MI, or MII, and were centrifugated at 800 g. Finally, the medium containing the hyaluronidase solution was removed and the cells were placed at 4 °C for early use or in the freezer at -80 °C for later study.

Reverse Transcription

RNA from granulosa cells (obtained from 10 oocytes of each stage; n = 3), cerebral cortex (positive control for CB1, FAAH, and MGLL) and Jurkat cells (positive control for CB2), were isolated with the Dynabeads mRNA Purification Kit (Ambion). The procedure for obtaining the cDNA was performed with ImProm-II Reverse Transcription System (Promega). Briefly, about 150 ng of RNA and random

primers were heated at 65 °C for 10 minutes and chilled on ice for 5 minutes. Then, once the reverse transcription mix was added, it was annealed at 25 °C for 5 minutes. A firststrand synthesis reaction was carried out at 55 °C for 60 minutes, and the reverse transcriptase was inactivated at 70 °C for 15 minutes. Real-time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) Analysis Quantitative PCR was performed in three replicates with the StepOne thermocycler using a TaqMan assay (Applied Biosystems) specifically designed for recognizing CB1 (Hs01038522_s1), CB2 (Hs00361490_m1), FAAH (Hs01038660_m1), and MGLL (Hs00200752_m1). All the primers used were functional because we detected mRNA amplification when we used different tissues as positive controls (human cerebral cortex for CB1, FAAH, and MGLL and Jurkat cells for CB2). In addition, the controls performed in the absence of reverse transcriptase or in the absence of template were negative (data not shown).

The thermal profile for this PCR consisted of a “holding stage” of 20 seconds at 95 °C and 40 cycles with two steps: 1 second at 95 °C and 20 seconds at 60 °C. We used GAPDH (4333764-0906029) as the endogenous control gene. The amount of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL mRNA in each sample was determined by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$ method with GAPDH as the reference gene. The average ΔC_T of the cortex samples was used as the calibrator.

SDS/PAGE and Immunoblotting

Granulosa cells from 10 oocytes were collected and pooled (n= 5) in sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) sample buffer (50 mmol/ L Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 5% β -mercaptoethanol, and 0.1% bromophenol blue). Human cerebral cortex membranes were prepared as described elsewhere (*Urriaguen et al, 2009*). Jurkat cells were purchased from Merck Millipore (Molsheim). Gel electrophoresis was carried out in SDS polyacrylamide gels, composed of 5% stacking (0.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 10% SDS) and 12% resolving (1.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.8, 10% SDS), using a miniprotean system with molecular weight standards (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Proteins were then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (1 hour, 0.3 A) using an electrophoretic transfer system (Bio-Rad Laboratories). The nonspecific binding sites in the membranes were blocked for 1.5 hours with Tris-buffered saline with Tween (TBST; 10 mM Tris- HCl, pH 7.4, 140 mM NaCl) containing 5% skimmed milk.

The membranes were incubated with a primary rabbit polyclonal anti-CB1 receptor antibody (1:1,000; Frontier Institute), anti-CB2 receptor antibody (1:200), anti-FAAH antibody (1:200), and anti-MGL antibody (1:200; Cayman Chemicals), overnight at 4 °C and all in TBST, 5% skimmed milk and 0.1% Tween buffer. Membranes were incubated with fluorescent antirabbit IgG secondary antibody (Alexa 680 Rabbit, Invitrogen) at a dilution of 1:4,000. They were then dried and imaged using the Odyssey infrared imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences). Integrated intensities were analyzed using Excel (Microsoft Corp.) and Prism (GraphPad Software) software.

Immunofluorescence

Granulosa cells were suspended in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) + bovine serum albumin (BSA; 1 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$), smeared onto a slide coated with poly-L-lysine, and fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes. Then the slides were washed 3 times in PBS and incubated for 45 minutes in PBS/10% (v/v) bovine fetal serum and 1% Triton x 100 at room temperature. For indirect immunofluorescence staining, slides were incubated with primary rabbit polyclonal anti-CB1, anti-CB2, anti-FAAH, and anti-MGL antisera at a dilution of 1:200 overnight at 4 °C. For double staining, primary goat polyclonal anti-CB1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) was used. Slides were then washed in PBS + BSA (1 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$) 3 times, incubated with Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody (Molecular Probes) for 2 hours at 37 °C in the dark (1:2,500), washed in PBS + BSA (1 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$) 3 times (in all cases we stained the nuclei with Hoechst 33342 during the second wash), assembled with Fluoromount G (EMS), and finally examined by confocal microscopy. Two negative controls were performed using a specific blocking peptide for each antibody and by omitting the primary antibody before addition of the secondary antibody.

Statistics

Results shown represent mean \pm SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by analysis of variance with a post hoc analysis by Bonferroni's multiple comparison test (GraphPad Prism® 5).

Results

Quantitative Reverse Transcriptase (RT-) PCR Analysis of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL mRNA in Human Granulosa Cells during Nuclear Maturation of Oocytes

We detected the presence of CB1, FAAH, and MGLL but not CB2 receptor transcripts in human granulosa cells using quantitative RT-PCR. However, when we analyzed the relative amount of each mRNA, we did not find significant differences between granulosa cells of oocytes in GV, MI, or MII (Fig. 4.1).

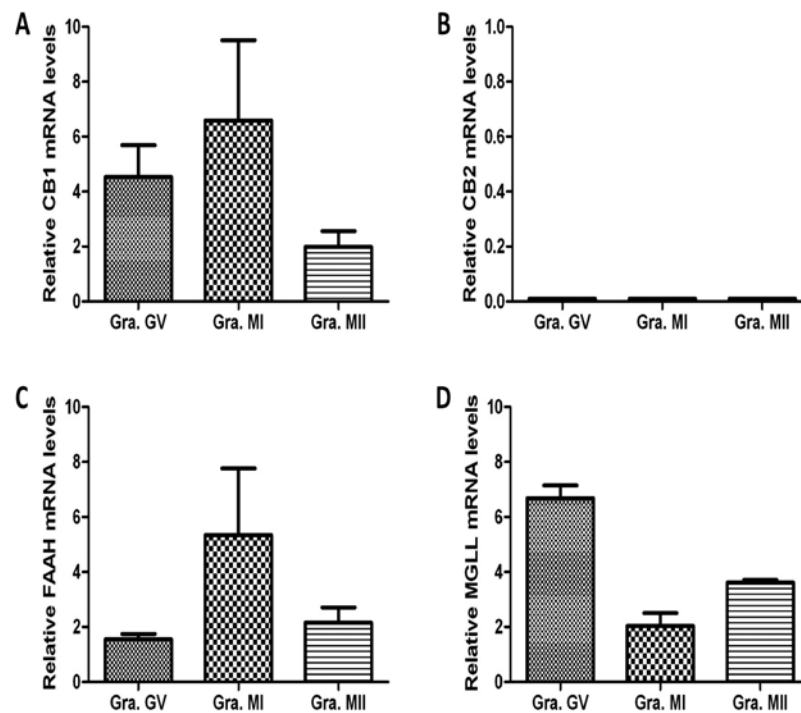


Figure 4.1 mRNA expression of CB1, CB2, FAAH and MGLL in human granulosa cells (Gra.) come from GV, MI and MII oocytes using specific primers. The relative concentrations of proteins mRNA were determined by quantitative RT-PCR. Cycle threshold values were normalized to GAPDH and the average ΔC_t of the cortex sample (for CB1, FAAH and MGLL) and Jurkat cells (for CB2) were used for calibration. Each value is the mean (\pm SEM) of 3 replicates.

Immunocytochemical Localization CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL in Human Granulosa Cells during Nuclear Maturation of Oocytes

Immunofluorescence analysis revealed that CB1 receptor was present in the human granulosa cells and that its localization was predominantly in the periphery of the cells (**Fig. 4.2**). When we evaluated whether the localization of CB1 receptor changed if the granulosa cells came from GV, MI, or MII oocytes, we did not observe any change in the localization (**Fig. 4.2**). With regard to CB2, this receptor showed a very weak immunostaining and although it is difficult to ensure that it was a specific staining, it appears to be a more peripheral staining than that within the granulosa cells from all studied maturation stages (**Fig. 4.2**). On the other hand, the FAAH-degrading enzyme's immunostaining pattern did not change regardless of whether the granulosa cells came from a GV, MI, or MII oocyte, but, in this case, its localization was present over the entire granulosa cell (**Fig. 4.2**). Finally, similar results were found for the MGLL, although the staining was weaker than for the FAAH (**Fig. 4.2**). When the antibodies were blocked with the specific peptide before addition to the granulosa cells, no specific fluorescence was observed (**Fig. 4.2**).

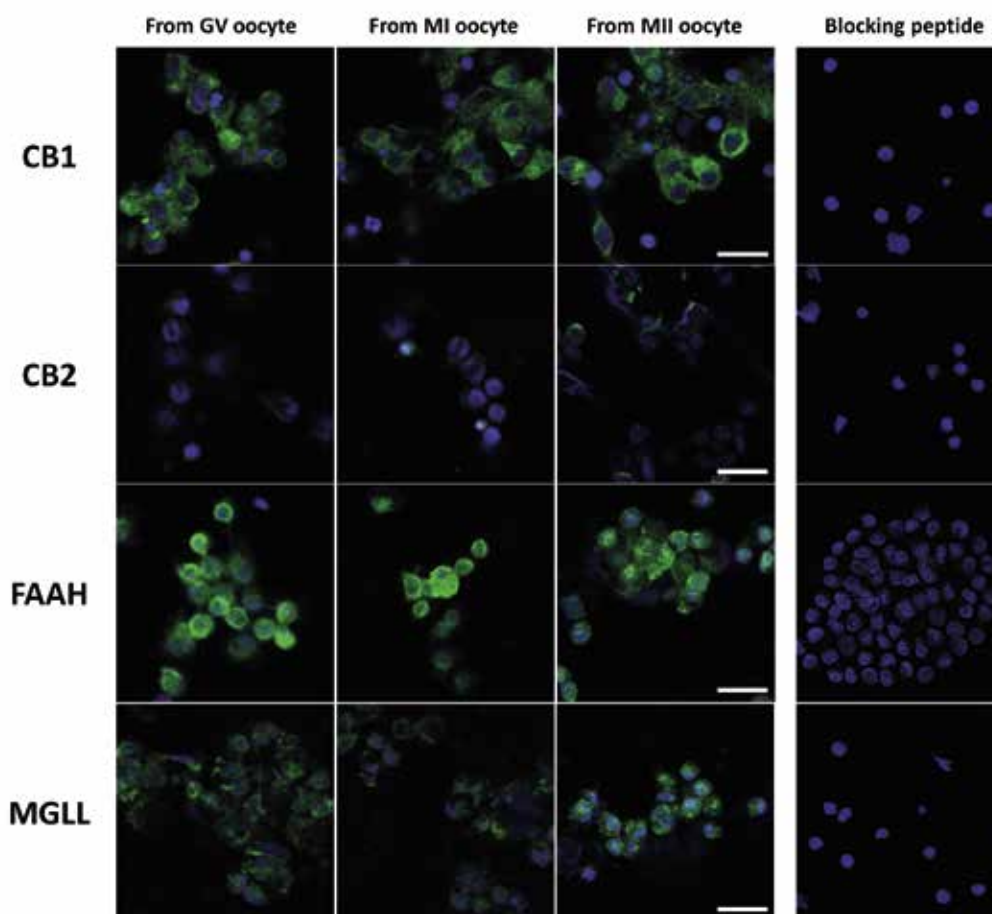


Figure 4.2 Immunofluorescence analysis of CB1, CB2, FAAH and MGLL in human granulosa cells come from GV, MI and MII oocytes. The distribution of cannabinoid receptors and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes is shown in green. A negative control consisting of preadsorption of primary antibody with each specific blocking peptide is shown. Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in blue. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. The scale bar represents $10 \mu\text{m}$.

Immunoidentification of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL Proteins in Human Granulosa Cells

To confirm the presence/absence of studied proteins, **Figure 4.3** shows representative Western blots using human granulosa cells, human prefrontal cerebral cortex gray matter, and Jurkat cells. The anti-CB1 receptor polyclonal antiserum labeled a major band at ~60 kDa in granulosa cells and cortex protein extracts. The anti-CB2 receptor polyclonal antiserum recognized a major band at ~40 kDa in granulosa cells and in Jurkat cells. The anti-FAAH polyclonal antibody labeled a major band at about ~60 kDa in granulosa cells and cortex protein extracts. Finally, the anti-MGLL polyclonal antibody labeled two major bands around ~35 kDa in granulosa cells and in cortex.

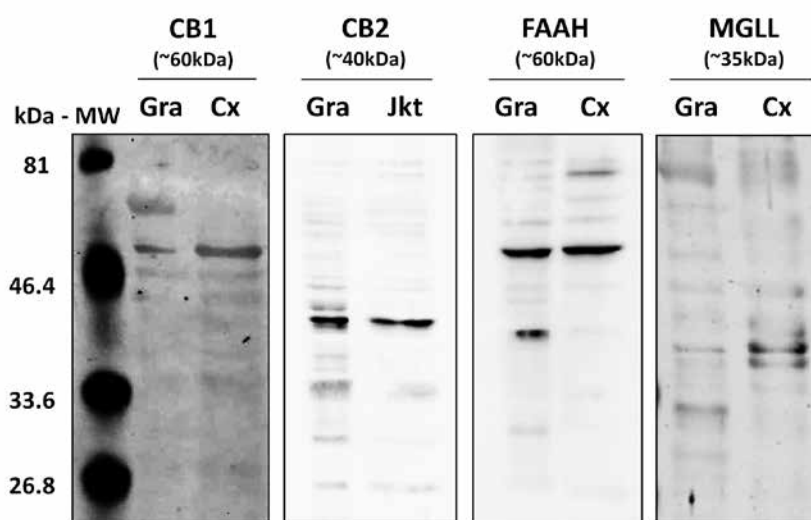


Figure 4.3 Western blotting analysis of CB1 and CB2 receptor, FAAH and MGLL in human granulosa cells (Gra), gray matter from the human prefrontal cerebral cortex (Cx) and jurkat cells (Jur) using a rabbit antiserum against the CB1, CB2, FAAH and MGLL. Molecular weights (MW-kDa) are indicated on the left. n=3; representative western blots are shown.

Immunocytochemical Localization of CB2, FAAH, and MGLL Compared with that of the CB1 Receptor in Human Granulosa Cells during Nuclear Maturation of Oocytes

As we observed that there was no change in the location of the studied proteins in human granulosa cells during nuclear maturation of oocytes, we analyzed in depth the localization of each protein and the colocalization of those proteins in comparison with CB1 receptor since this was the most abundant (and maybe the unique) cannabinoid receptor in these cells. For this purpose, we used granulosa cells coming from different stages, and the results were the same for all stages. For that reason, only representative data are shown (**Fig. 4.4**).

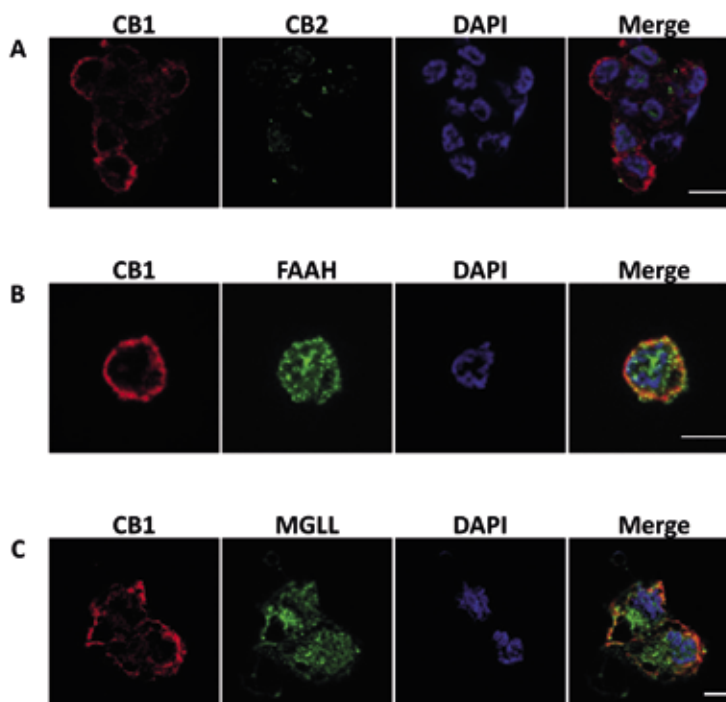


Figure 4.4 Immunofluorescence analysis of CB2, FAAH and MGLL compared to CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human granulosa cells. The distributions of CB2, FAAH and MGLL are shown in green and the distributions of CB1 is shown in red. Their overlap are shown in yellow. Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in blue. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. The scale bar represents $10 \mu\text{m}$.

We confirmed that CB1 receptor was localized in the periphery of granulosa cells (**Fig. 4.4A, 4.4B, and 4.4C**), unquestionably in the cell membrane. In the same way, we again found a very weak presence of the CB2 receptor in those cells (**Fig. 4.4A**). With regard to FAAH, this degrading enzyme was present in both the cytoplasm and the plasma membrane of granulosa cells, in fact, FAAH colocalized with the CB1 receptor at the cell membrane (**Fig. 4.4B**). Finally, MGLL showed a weak colocalization with the CB1 receptor in the periphery of the cell, but its localization was predominantly in the cytoplasm of the granulosa cells (**Fig. 4.4C**).

Discussion

The role of the endocannabinoid system has been studied in mammalian reproductive events, such as spermatogenesis, sperm motility, fertilization, embryo oviductal transport, preimplantation embryo development, implantation, and postimplantation embryonic growth (Wang *et al.*, 2006b; Taylor *et al.*, 2007; Sun and Dey, 2012). Even so, the role of this system in the ovary and oocyte events has rarely been analyzed (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a; Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010; Peralta *et al.*, 2011). The aim of the present study was to gather further data on the presence and localization of cannabinoid receptors CB1 and CB2 as well as cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in granulosa cells during the resumption of meiosis of the human oocyte to determine possible role of the cannabinoid system in this process. Western blot analysis revealed the presence of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL proteins in human granulosa cells. With regard to CB1, the band of about 60 kDa (positive control: gray matter from the human prefrontal cerebral cortex) accords in size with previous reports (Rossato *et al.*, 2005; De Jesus *et al.*, 2006). In the case of CB2, the bands of approximately 40 kDa (positive control: Jurkat cells) correspond to its theoretical molecular mass (Filppula *et al.*, 2004) and are in agreement with previous reports (Zhang *et al.*, 2007; Agirregoitia *et al.*, 2010). We have to note that we needed to load a great amount of sample to see a positive mark in granulosa cells. On the other hand, the band around 60 kDa observed in human granulosa cells using an anti-FAAH antibody, which also appeared in the human cerebral cortex, has been described in some studies using rat brain (Bisogno *et al.*, 1998) and human sperm (Francavilla *et al.*, 2009) and bladder (Bakali *et al.*, 2013). Finally, the two major bands observed around 35 kDa in granulosa cells and in the cortex are near the theoretical molecular weight for MGLL around 33.3 kDa (Dinh *et al.*, 2002). However, we cannot exclude that the band around 33 kDa shown in granulosa cells (**Fig. 4.3**) corresponds to MGLL too.

Two previous works have described the presence of cannabinoid system components in the granulosa cells using immunohistochemical assays in ovarian sections. Thus, with regard to granulosa cells, in rat ovaries it has been described in the presence of CB1 receptor in the plasma membrane of granulosa cells of antral follicles (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010), and the same result has been observed in human antral follicles as well (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2019a). In our study we have gone a step further, and we have seen that CB1 is still present in the plasma membrane of granulosa cells from ovulated oocytes (GV) and that it is maintained there at least until oocyte and granulosa cells are separated after oocyte maturation (MII). Moreover, we have detected that the mRNA of CB1 is present in granulosa cells during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte, but we cannot confirm whether the expression pattern observed during the maturation changed significantly. Even so, we have to point out that the mRNA expression pattern of both cannabinoid receptor CB1 and cannabinoid-degrading enzyme FAAH in granulosa cells during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte is the same, although we cannot corroborate this expression pattern at the protein level.

The presence of CB2 receptor in granulosa cells is controversial because this receptor is not present in granulosa cells of rat antral follicles (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010), but its signal has been described in the antral follicles of human ovary, although more weakly than that of CB1 (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2019a). In that sense, we immunodetected CB2 signal by Western blot (loading a great amount of granulosa

cells); we did not find the mRNA of CB2 in granulosa cells, and the immunocytochemical assays showed a weak staining of CB2. Taking into account all of these data, we are not able to discard the presence of CB2 in granulosa cells, but we can affirm that its presence would be more residual and much lower than CB1 receptor.

On the other hand, the absence of FAAH described in rat granulosa cells from antral follicles (*Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010*) and the weak staining observed in human granulosa cells from secondary and antral follicles (*El-Talatini et al., 2019a*) are not consistent with our observations. Our study was carried out in granulosa cells from ovulated oocytes and the presence of FAAH has been corroborated using immunocytochemistry, Western blot, and PCR. For this reason, we can conclude that the nondetection of this enzyme in granulosa cells from antral follicles described in other studies could be due to a relatively low level of FAAH expression rather than its absence. Even so, it could also be possible that FAAH would start its expression once the ovulation has occurred. But this hypothesis should be checked because we have not performed experiments with granulosa cells from non stimulated follicles.

Finally, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that MGLL has been found to be localized in the granulosa cells. Although we are not able to confirm whether the expression pattern observed during oocyte maturation changed significantly the mRNA expression pattern of MGLL seem to be just the contrary compared with CB1 and FAAH. In our study we used granulosa cells isolated from follicles matured *in vivo* after hormone stimulation of the patient. For this reason, the recovered oocytes had already been stimulated and only the final nuclear maturation steps were carried out *in vitro* during 2 hours. This could be the reason that we did not see significant differences in the protein or mRNA pattern between granulosa cells from GV, MI, or MII oocytes.

The regulation of “AEA tone” by FAAH has been proposed as an important event in the oviduct during early pregnancy (*Wang et al., 2006a*), as well as in blastocyst activation (*Wang et al., 2003*) and implantation (*Paria et al., 1999*), but no hypotheses have been proposed in relation to such a process in oocyte maturation. Even so, it has been described that AEA concentration in human follicular fluid rises during oocyte maturation (*El-Talatini et al., 2019a*) and that the concentration is even higher in the oviduct than in follicular fluid (*Gebeh et al., 2012*).

In humans, one oocyte completes its growth each month and is ovulated in response to a midcycle surge of LH, and in response to this LH surge, the oocyte resumes meiosis (*Hunt and Hassold, 2008*). Therefore, the oocyte and its granulosa cells find increasing concentrations of AEA while they mature and so the presence of the cannabinoid system in the granulosa cells leads to the hypothesis that the resumption of meiosis in the oviduct, where AEA concentration is higher than it is in follicular fluid, could be modulated, *inter alia*, by the cannabinoid system. In contrast, the elevated levels of cyclic AMP (cAMP) produced by adenylyl cyclase are crucial in maintaining oocytes under meiotic arrest, and the source of cAMP has been suggested to be the product of the influx of cAMP through gap junction communication from the cumulus cells to the oocyte (*Sanchez and Smitz, 2012*). Taking all these data into account, we hypothesize that the stimulation of CB1 cannabinoid receptor by its agonist in granulosa cells, first in the follicle and then in the oviduct, could activate a number of signal transduction pathways via the Gi/o

family of G proteins, leading to the inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and the consequent inhibition of cAMP production (Wang *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, although the most abundant protein in the plasma membrane of granulosa cells was CB1, FAAH colocalized with it. This overlapping pattern in the expression of CB1 and FAAH has been reported in other cell types, such as neurons, suggesting that the endocannabinoid system might be responsible for an autocrine control of neurotransmitter release (Bouskila *et al.*, 2012).

Finally, Schuel and Burkman (Schuel and Burkman, 2005) observed that sea urchin eggs might release AEA after activation by the fertilizing sperm and this released AEA might then react with cannabinoid receptors in sperm to block acrosome reaction, thereby helping to prevent polyspermy. So as granulosa cells from ovulated oocytes have the enzymatic machinery to degrade AEA, this fact led us to hypothesize that granulosa cells could regulate the AEA tone near the microenvironment where the fecundation takes place to modulate the sperm physiology, as Schuel and Burkman proposed.

It will be interesting to analyze what the role of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells is in relation to the oocyte where CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL relocate during the nuclear maturation (Peralta *et al.*, 2011; author's unpublished data). To date, the presence of 2-AG has only been described in the uterus (Wang *et al.*, 2007), but it remains unknown whether it is present in the ovary or the oviduct, a question that merits investigation.

In conclusion, we report for the first time the presence of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells from GV, MI, and MII oocytes. This could suggest that AEA, which is present in follicular and oviductal fluids (Schuel *et al.*, 2002a; El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a), also has a role during the final nuclear maturation of the oocyte. It should be noted that the granulosa cells used in this study were obtained in the context of an IVF/ICSI program and hence may not reflect the real status of oocyte maturation during spontaneous natural ovarian cycles. Further studies are needed to investigate the cannabinoid receptors in unstimulated cycles.

4.2 Dynamic of expression and localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in relation to CB1 during meiotic maturation of human oocytes

4.2 Dynamic of expression and localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in relation to CB1 during meiotic maturation of human oocytes

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Abstract

The endogenous cannabinoid system has been characterized in some female reproductive organs but little is known about the expression and localization pattern of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes in relation to the CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. In this study, we focus on the investigation of the presence and differential distribution of fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoglyceride lipase (MGLL) in relation to CB1 during the maturation of human oocytes. We used a total of 290 human oocytes not suitable for *in vitro* fertilization/intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI): germinal-vesicle (GV) and metaphase-I (MI) stages and metaphase-II (MII) oocytes that had not developed into an embryo after ICSI. Cannabinoid-degrading enzymes and the cannabinoid CB1 receptor were present in human oocytes. Specifically, FAAH was detected in the periphery of the oocyte from the GV to MI stage and co-localized with CB1. Later, by the MII stage, FAAH was spread within the oocyte, whereas MGLL immune staining was homogeneous across the oocyte at all stages of maturation and only overlapped with CB1 at the GV stage. This coordinated redistribution of cannabinoid system proteins suggests a role for this system in the maturation of the female gamete.

Keywords: *Meiosis. Resumption. Enzyme. Maturation. Gamete*

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Introduction

Oocyte meiotic maturation is the process by which immature oocytes become fertilizable eggs. Fully grown oocytes are arrested at the first meiotic prophase, in the germinal vesicle (GV) stage and, once they become meiotically competent, resume meiosis upon receiving specific ovulatory signals. Meiotic maturation continues with the transition from meiosis I to meiosis II until oocytes are then arrested at metaphase of meiosis II (MII); an oocyte does not complete meiosis II until it is fertilized by sperm (Schindler, 2011).

The molecular mechanisms responsible for oocyte maturation are not fully understood and several different molecules have been implicated as modulators of the process. Among these molecules, the role of the cannabinoid compounds has been highlighted by some authors (Sun and Dey, 2012). Endocannabinoids are fatty acid derivatives that exert their effects by binding to membrane Gi/o protein-coupled receptors CB1 and CB2. Anandamide (AEA) and 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) are the best characterized endocannabinoids. Both are degraded by fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH), which is an integral membrane protein with its hydrolytic site facing the lipid bilayer, although 2-AG is also degraded by monoacylglycerol lipase (MGLL), which, in contrast, is a cytosolic enzyme. The distributions of FAAH and MGLL overlap in the central nervous system, but they are not identical. For example, in some cerebral areas, MGLL is localized presynaptically, whereas FAAH is localized postsynaptically. Nevertheless, one proposal is that, together, endocannabinoid-metabolizing enzymes can complement the distribution of cannabinoid receptors in the brain and that this provides multiple opportunities for local regulation of endocannabinoid tone (Yazulla, 2008).

Several papers have been published on the role of cannabinoids in the female reproductive system (de Miguel et al., 1998; Wenger et al., 1999, 2001) and both cannabinoid receptors and degradation enzymes have been found in various parts of the mammalian female reproductive system, namely, the uterus and oviduct (Das et al., 1995; Paria et al., 2001; Denny et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2004) preimplantation embryos and the placenta (Park et al., 2003; Helliwell et al., 2004; Habayeb et al., 2008). With regard to oocyte maturation, AEA is known to be present in human follicular fluid (Schuel et al., 2002a) and its concentration is higher in follicles with mature oocytes than in those with immature oocytes (El-Talatini et al., 2009a). The localization of the cannabinoid receptors and degrading enzymes in rat (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010) and human ovary has led to the hypothesis that AEA plays a role in folliculogenesis, preovulatory follicle maturation oocyte maturity, and ovulation (El-Talatini et al. 2009a). Finally, the hypothesis with respect to the role of the cannabinoid system in oocyte maturation has been reinforced by findings concerning the localization of cannabinoid receptors during the nuclear maturation of human oocytes, in which each receptor is re-localized (Peralta et al., 2011).

In view of the presence of AEA in human follicular fluid and the re-localization of cannabinoid receptors observed in the oocyte during its maturation, cannabinoid signaling can be postulated to be involved in the regulation of oocyte meiosis (Peralta et al., 2011). Therefore, to shed further light on this issue,

our aim is to characterize, in detail and to compare the expression and distribution of the two AEA-degrading enzymes, FAAH and MGLL and further to explore their relationship with the CB1 receptor in human oocytes during the meiotic resumption of oocytes obtained during *in vitro* fertilization (IVF)/intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) cycles.

Materials and methods

Oocyte collection

Human oocytes were obtained from 90 patients (aged 25-40 years; mean 35.02 ± 3.23 years) undergoing IVF/ICSI at the Human Reproduction Unit of Cruces University Hospital. Ethical approval was obtained from the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Health System (Osakidetza, CEIC reference number E07/54, 3/2008). Informed consent was obtained from all patients. Overall, 290 oocytes from these patients were analyzed. The main indications for IVF/ICSI were: male factor (62%), failure of intrauterine insemination (7%) and idiopathic infertility (10%). The main associated female conditions were endometriosis (9.5%) and tubal factor (11.5%). Patients had no previous history of cannabinoid drug consumption.

All the oocytes used for this study, were those discarded from treatment cycles. The majority of oocytes corresponded to immature oocytes (GV and MI) or to MII oocytes from IVF/ICSI procedures in which fertilization failed. Additionally, there were 8 cases (44 oocytes) in which IVF/ICSI could not be attempted because of failure to obtain a sperm sample, since at that time oocyte vitrification was not available in our laboratory. After removing the corona cumulus cells, they were stored and transported in minimal media in micro-centrifuge tubes at 4°C to the laboratory for processing. The zona pellucida of oocytes used for RT-PCR was removed by incubating oocytes into a Tyrodé's acidic solution at 37°C for 30 seconds in order to remove possible attached granulose cells.

Our IVF cycle management has been described previously (Matorras et al., 2009). Briefly, it consists of long down-regulation with the gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonist triptorelin (Decapeptyl, Ipsen Pharma, Spain) or the GnRH antagonist cetrorelix (Cetrotide, Merck Serono, Spain). Then, ovarian stimulation was carried out with recombinant FSH (Gonal F, Merck Serono, Spain) and highly purified urinary menopausal gonadotropins (Menopur, Ferring, Spain) or recombinant LH, ovulation being triggered with 250 mg recombinant hCG (Ovitrelle, Merck Serono, Spain). Transvaginal ultrasound-guided oocyte retrieval was scheduled 36 h after hCG injection.

All IVF/ICSI procedures and assessments were performed by members of the research group. Oocyte retrieval was performed 35-37 hours after hCG administration. Follicles were aspirated with a negative pressure of 115–120 mm Hg with a single lumen 18-gauge oocyte pick-up needle (K-OPS-6035-RWH-B-ET; Cook, Spain) under transvaginal ultrasound guidance. Follicular fluids were examined at low

magnification (40X to 100X) under the stereomicroscope at 37°C. The oocyte–cumulus-complex were incubated for 2 h in IVF Medium (IVF Medium, Origio, Denmark) at 37°C and in 6% CO₂ in air. Immediately prior to micromanipulation for the ICSI procedure, oocytes were denuded of the cumulus oophorus by a brief exposure to 40 IU/L hyaluronidase solution (Hyadase; Origio, Denmark, Sweden), followed by mechanical removal of the corona radiata cells with the use of plastic pipettes of (denuding pipette; Cook, Spain). Each oocyte was examined under the microscope to assess its maturation stage and integrity. MII oocytes were defined by the absence of the germinal vesicle and the presence of an extruded polar body. Metaphase II oocytes were microinjected and placed in the culture incubator following the standard IVF culture protocol. Oocyte fertilization assessment involved careful analysis of the two pronuclei and the nucleoli within them, during a single examination 16-18 h after the insemination procedure. Normally fertilized and non-fertilized oocytes were then placed in the incubator for a 24-hour culture period until embryo selection for transfer. The immature oocytes (at MI and GV stages) and the non-fertilized MII oocytes were placed in microcentrifuge tubes with a minimal amount of Flushing Medium (Origio, Denmark, Sweden) and stored in the fridge at 4°C or in the freezer at -80°C until use for the present study.

Of the 290 studied oocytes, 59 were at the GV, 65 at the MI and 166 at the MII stage. MII oocytes were collected on day 1 after IVF/ICSI, when fertilization failed, i.e., they were unfertilized. GV and MI oocytes were collected the day of oocyte pick up in ICSI cases. During the period of study, the fertilization rate of MII oocytes was 64% in our ICSI program.

RT-PCR analysis

Total RNA from oocytes (3 samples of ~30 oocytes, from each maturation stage: GV, MI and MII) and cerebral cortex was extracted by using the Dynabeads mRNA-DIRECT Kit (Ambion, Austin) following the manufacturer's instructions. Immediately after extraction, total RNA was kept frozen at -80 °C until further use. cDNA was obtained with the ImProm-II Reverse Transcription System (Promega, Madison). Briefly, a mixture of about 150 ng RNA and random primers was heated at 65 °C for 10 min and chilled on ice for 5 min. Then, after addition of the reverse transcription mix, it was annealed at 25 °C for 5 min. First strand synthesis was carried out at 55 °C for 60 min and the reverse transcriptase was inactivated at 70 °C for 15 min. Primers used for PCR were as follows: human FAAH, 5'-AAGCAACATACCCCATGCTC-3' and 5'-GTTTTGCGGTACACCTCGAT-3' (276-bp product; *Storr et al., 2009*); human MGLL, 5'-CAAGGCCCTCATCTTTGTGT-3' and 5'-ACGTGGAAGTCAGACACTAC-3' (162-bp product; *Ludanyi et al., 2008*). Human ACTB (β -actin) primers, 5'-TCCCTGGAGAAGAGCTACGA-3' and 5'-ATCTGCTGGAAGGTGGACAG-3' (362-bp product; *Agirregoitia et al., 2010*) were used as internal controls. All primer pairs were located on different exons to avoid amplification of genomic DNA. PCR was performed under the following conditions: 95 °C for 5 min, 40 cycles at 95 °C for 30 s, 59 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 1 min, followed by a final extension step at 72 °C for 5 min. The mixture was electrophoretically separated on a 2% agarose gel

Immunofluorescence

After assessment of the meiotic stage, oocytes were suspended in phosphate-buffered saline plus bovine serum albumin (PBS+BSA; 1 μ g/ μ l) and smeared onto a slide coated with poly-L-lysine, in order to localize the target protein immuno-cytochemically. They were then fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde for 10 min followed by incubation in Triton X100 (0.1%) for 10 min to permeabilize the oocytes. Subsequently, slides were washed three times in PBS and incubated for 20 min in PBS/10% (v/v) bovine fetal serum at room temperature. For indirect immunofluorescence staining, slides were incubated with rabbit polyclonal FAAH and MGLL antibodies (Cayman Chemicals) at a dilution of 1:200 overnight at 4 °C. For double-staining, in addition to the anti-FAAH or anti-MGLL antibodies, we used goat polyclonal CB1 antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) at a dilution of 1:50. Slides were then washed in PBS+BSA (1 μ g/ μ l) three times, incubated with Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG and Alexa Fluor 594 donkey anti-goat IgG secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes) for 2 h at 37 °C in the dark and washed in PBS+BSA (1 μ g/ μ l) three times with staining of the nuclei with Hoechst 33342 during the second wash to facilitate assessment of the maturational stage of each oocyte. Finally, oocytes were mounted with Fluoromount G (EMS) and examined by confocal microscopy. Images were acquired with an Olympus Fluoview FV500 confocal microscope by using a 40 \times lens (UPLAPO; NA: 0.85). Each fluorochrome was sequentially acquired in order to avoid overlapping of fluorescent emission spectra. Two negative controls were performed by using specific blocking peptides for each antibody (Cayman Chemicals) and by omitting the primary antibody before addition of the secondary antibody to set the background acquisition parameters.

Results

RT-PCR analysis of CB1 and cannabinoid-degrading enzyme mRNA in human oocytes

We detected the presence of CB1 and FAAH but not MGLL degrading-enzyme transcripts in human oocytes by using RT-PCR. The expected 276-bp fragment for FAAH was detected during all stages of oocyte maturation and in samples of gray matter of human prefrontal cerebral cortex (positive control; **Fig. 4.5a**). The 162-bp fragment corresponding to MGLL was detected in human cortex (positive control) but not in oocytes at any stage of maturation (**Fig. 4.5b**). The housekeeping gene ACTB was detected in all tissues (**Fig. 4.5c**).

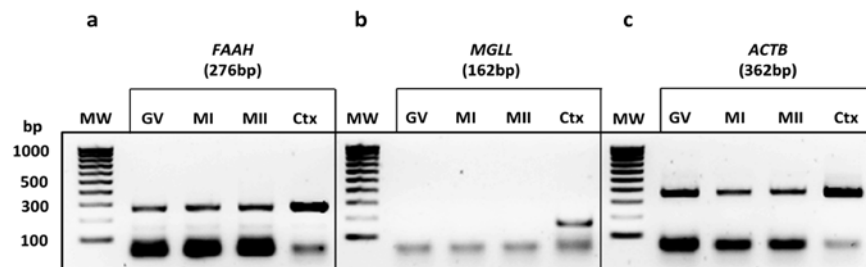


Figure 4.5 Ethidium bromide-stained 2% agarose electrophoresis gel of the RT-PCR products for CB1, FAAH, MGLL and β -actin (ACTB) in the human oocyte at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages and gray matter from the human prefrontal cerebral cortex (Ctx). CB1: amplified fragment using primers specific for the human cannabinoid receptor 1 (402-bp band). FAAH: amplified fragment using primers specific for the human cannabinoid-degrading enzyme FAAH (276-bp band). MGLL: amplified fragment using primers specific for the human cannabinoid-degrading enzyme MGLL (162-bp band). ACTB was used as an internal control (362-bp band). Molecular weights (MW; bp) are indicated on the left. $n = 3$; a representative RT-PCR experiment is shown.

Immunocytochemical localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in human oocytes

Immunofluorescence analysis revealed that both FAAH and MGLL were present in the human oocytes. However, the localization of these enzymes showed variations through the stages of the resumption of meiosis in human oocytes. On the one hand, FAAH localization in the oocyte was peripheral at the GV (**Fig. 4.6a**) and MI (**Fig. 4.6b**) stages, whereas at the MII (**Fig. 4.6c**) stage, it was found peripherally but also appeared homogeneously over the entire oocyte (z-stack images in **Supplementary Figs.1, 3**). On the other hand, MGLL immunostaining was found homogeneously in oocytes from the GV to MII stages (**Fig. 4.6e-g**; see also z-stacks images in **Supplementary Figs.2, 4**). When the anti-FAAH and anti-MGLL receptor antibodies were blocked with the specific peptide before addition to the oocyte, no specific fluorescence was observed (**Fig. 4.6d, h**).

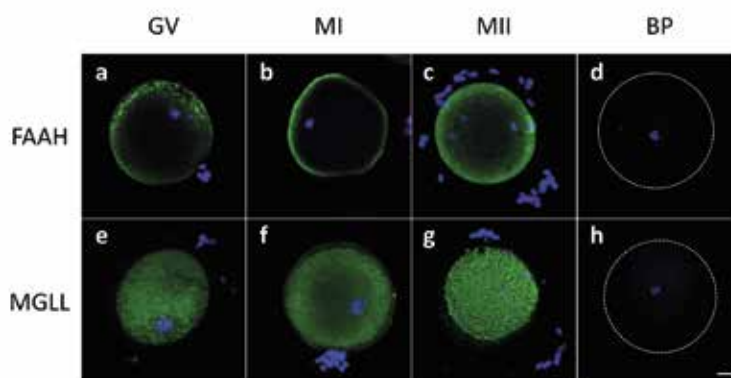


Figure 4.6. Immunofluorescence analysis of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes in human oocytes. The distributions of FAAH and MGLL are shown in green at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages. A phase contrast images are shown of the negative control, consisting of pre-adsorption of the primary antiserum with the specific blocking peptide (BP). Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in blue. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. The scale bar represents $20 \mu\text{m}$.

Immunocytochemical localization of FAAH and MGLL compared with that of CB1 receptor during maturation of human oocytes

In the GV (**Fig. 4.7c**) and MI (**Fig. 4.7f**) stages, FAAH colocalized with the CB1 receptor at the periphery of the oocyte, although the CB1 receptor was also observed in the cytoplasm at MI (**Fig. 4.7d, f**). At the MII stage, the localization of FAAH had changed (**Fig. 4.7h**): the enzyme appeared homogeneously over the entire oocyte, whereas all the CB1 immunostainig appeared at the periphery at MII (**Fig. 4.7g**). At MII, FAAH colocalized with CB1 to a lesser extent than at previous stages (**Fig. 4.7i**; see also z-stack images in **Supplementary Fig. 1**). With regard to MGLL, this enzyme showed a weak co-localization with the CB1 receptor at the GV (**Fig.4c**) stage, but generally, in other stages, the localization of CB1 and MGLL was different: peripheral for CB1 (**Fig. 4.8d, g**) and cytoplasmic for MGLL (**Fig. 4.8e, h**; see also z-stack images in **Supplementary Fig.2**).

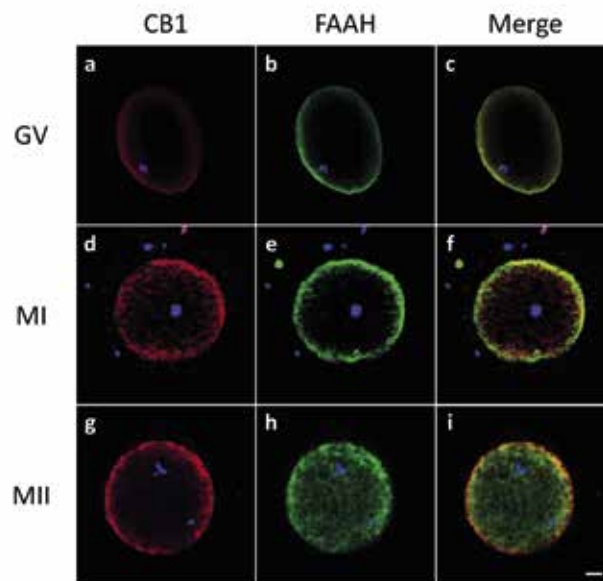


Figure 4.7 Immunofluorescence analysis of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes compared to CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. The distributions of FAAH, CB1 and their overlap are shown in green, red and yellow respectively at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. The scale bar represents $20 \mu\text{m}$.

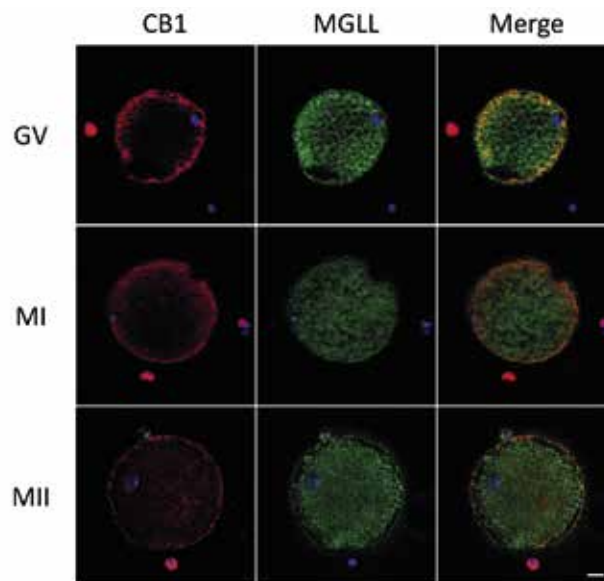


Figure 4.8 Immunofluorescence analysis of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes compared to CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. The distribution of MGLL, CB1 and their overlap are shown in green, red and yellow respectively at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. The scale bar represents $20 \mu\text{m}$.

Discussion

The role of the endocannabinoid system has been studied in various mammalian reproductive processes, such as spermatogenesis, sperm motility, fertilization, embryo oviductal transport, preimplantation embryo development, implantation, and post-implantation embryonic growth (Wang *et al.*, 2006a, 2006b; Taylor *et al.*, 2007; Sun and Dey, 2012). Even so, the part played by this system in the ovary and in oocyte events has rarely been analyzed (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a; Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010; Peralta *et al.*, 2011). The aim of the present study was to gather further data on the presence and localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes in relation to the CB1 cannabinoid receptor during the resumption of meiosis in human oocytes in order to form a basis for explaining a possible role of the cannabinoid system in this process.

Our immunofluorescence analysis of human oocytes has confirmed the presence of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in these cells. As FAAH is a membrane-bound protein (Deutsch *et al.*, 2002), its observed localization in the oocyte periphery indicates that it is localized to the oolemma. On the contrary, MGLL is a cytosolic serine hydrolase (Dinh *et al.*, 2002) and this could explain the homogeneous localization of MGLL over the entire oocyte observed in our experiments.

Several authors have described the presence of cannabinoid system components in the oocyte. In rat ovaries, FAAH and the CB2 receptor have been found in both preantral and antral follicle oocytes, whereas the CB1 receptor is not present (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw 2010). In human ovaries, however, only FAAH has been found localized to the theca cells of secondary and tertiary follicles, whereas CB1 immunostaining appears in oocytes from primordial to secondary follicles but not in tertiary follicles and, in contrast, intense CB2 staining has been observed in oocytes during all stages of follicle maturation (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a). Finally, in a study focused on human oocytes separated from follicles, the presence of both CB1 and CB2 has been corroborated during the resumption of oocyte meiosis from the GV to MII stages (Peralta *et al.*, 2011). Whether the differences in the localization of CB1, CB2 and FAAH during the follicle and/or oocyte maturation observed in the aforementioned three studies reflect differences between species or are also attributable to differences in methodology (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010; Peralta *et al.*, 2011) is unclear. In any case, taken together, all the evidence to date leads us to believe that the previous non-detection of FAAH in human oocytes (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a) is attributable to a relatively low level of expression of FAAH rather than its absence. Three statements uphold this view. First, FAAH has previously been detected in rat oocytes (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010) and has again been detected in our present study by using only the human oocyte separated from follicles. Second, the staining observed specifically in the plasma membrane in the present study was achieved by using a specific anti-FAAH antibody and verified with a blocking peptide. Finally, we detected, for the first time, the presence of FAAH mRNA in human oocytes. Further, the observed progression of the localization of the CB1 receptor in the present study is similar to that observed in a previous study of our group with a different antibody (Peralta *et al.*, 2011) and as such, strengthens the evidence for its presence and re-localization pattern during the resumption of oocyte meiosis. In contrast, we were unable to compare our

MGLL localization with the results of other studies, since, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that MGLL has been localized to the oocyte.

The CB1 and FAAH immunostaining patterns changed during the various stages of meiosis resumption, as occurs with other proteins (Kume *et al.*, 1997; Agirregoitia *et al.*, 2012) and also with the CB2 receptor in mouse spermatogenesis (Grimaldi *et al.*, 2009) and in human oocyte maturation (Peralta *et al.*, 2011). In contrast, MGLL maintained its cytoplasmic location throughout all the observed stages. Moreover, CB1 and FAAH co-localized in the periphery at the GV and MI stages but they overlapped less at MII. An overlapping pattern in the expression of CB1 and FAAH has been reported in other cell types, such as neurons, suggesting that the endocannabinoid system is responsible for an auto-feedback control of neurotransmitter release (Bouskila *et al.*, 2012). In meiotic progression, CB1 shows some internalization at MI but is then re-localized to the periphery at MII, whereas FAAH is internalized at the MII stage. This differing re-localization suggests a possible coordinated redistribution of CB1 and FAAH during the resumption of oocyte meiosis in order to regulate local endocannabinoid tone, as has been proposed for other cell types (Yazulla, 2008). This is plausible since, in mammals, all of the qualitative and quantitative changes in protein synthesis occurring during oogenesis take place at the time of the resumption of meiosis (Picton *et al.*, 1998). Additionally, Ji *et al.* (1997) observed modifications in the protein pattern of human oocyte membranes during preovulatory maturation. More interesting still is our study in which we detected CB1 and FAAH in granulosa cells from GV to MII oocytes and their co-localization in some portions of the cell membrane. Moreover, MGLL immunostaining was more homogeneous across the cell and only overlapped with CB1 weakly (Agirregoitia *et al.*, 2015).

The reason for CB1 and FAAH re-localization during meiosis has not been studied at all. Even so, according to the classical theory of G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) functionality, these receptors have to reach the cell surface to act and, after agonist binding, GPCRs undergo a rapid “desensitization” and the ligand-receptor complex is internalized prior to being recycled back to the cell surface or being degraded (Cahill *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, taking into account our data for the CB1 receptor and FAAH-degrading enzyme, we can retain our previous hypothesis that CB1 is activated at the GV stage (when CB1 is localized at the plasma membrane) and subsequently internalized when the oocyte reaches the MI stage (when CB1 is also found within the cytoplasm; Peralta *et al.*, 2011). Thus, as FAAH co-localizes with CB1 at the GV and MI stages, it could participate in the degradation of the cannabinoid that is bound to CB1 when the cannabinoid is internalized together with CB1 at MI. Additionally, at least at the GV and MI stages, FAAH might degrade free cannabinoids, which would enter the active site via the membrane (McKinney and Cravatt, 2005). Then, according to our results, the receptor could be recycled, being mostly localized at the plasma membrane once again when the oocyte is blocked at the MII stage but FAAH cannot act at the periphery of oocyte because of its internalization. The presence of MGLL in the cytoplasm of oocytes might help FAAH in the degradation of cannabinoids (Yazulla, 2008). Nevertheless, the co-localized MGLL and CB1 observed at GV might have a coordinated function, as has also been described in axon terminals of some rat cerebral areas (Gulyas *et al.*, 2004).

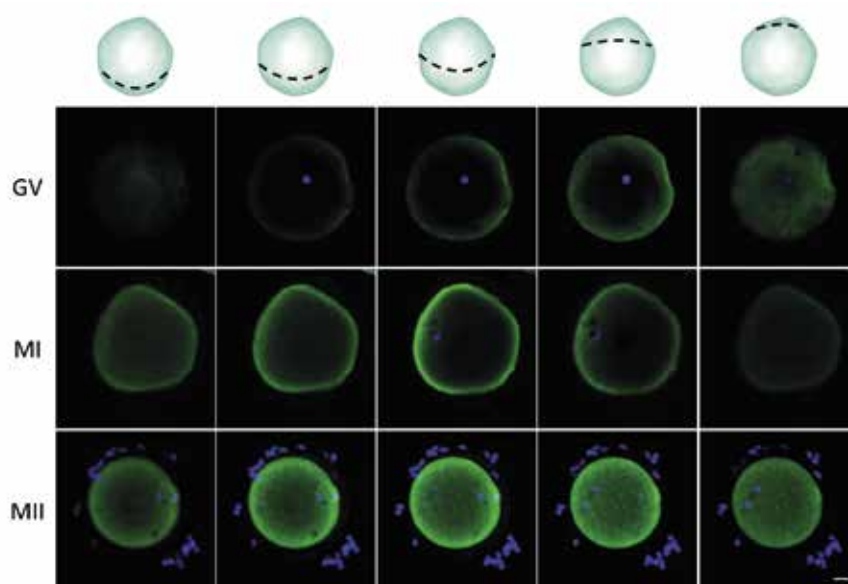
The regulation of “AEA tone” by FAAH has been proposed as an important event in the oviduct during early pregnancy (Wang *et al.*, 2006a, 2006b), in blastocyst activation (Wang *et al.*, 2003) and during

implantation (Paria *et al.*, 1999), but no hypotheses have been proposed in relation to such a process in oocyte maturation. Even so, the AEA concentration in human follicular fluid has been reported to rise during oocyte maturation (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a) and this concentration is even higher in the oviduct (Gebeh *et al.*, 2012). In humans, on average, one oocyte completes growth each month and is ovulated in response to a mid-cycle surge of LH and in response to this LH surge, the oocyte resumes meiosis (Hunt and Hassold, 2008). Hence, the resumption of meiosis in oocytes occurring in the oviduct, where the AEA concentration is higher than in follicular fluid and the relocation of CB1 and FAAH during nuclear maturation lead to the hypothesis that signaling involving AEA, CB1 and FAAH in the oocyte is involved in the resumption of meiosis. To date, the presence of 2-AG has only been described in the uterus of the female reproductive tract (Wang *et al.*, 2007) but whether it is present in the ovary or the oviduct is unknown; this merits investigation to elucidate the role of MGLL during the resumption of meiosis. In addition, the presence of CB1, FAAH and MGLL in granulosa cells suggests that the endocannabinoids act not only over the oocyte but also over the granulosa cells (Agirregoitia *et al.*, 2015).

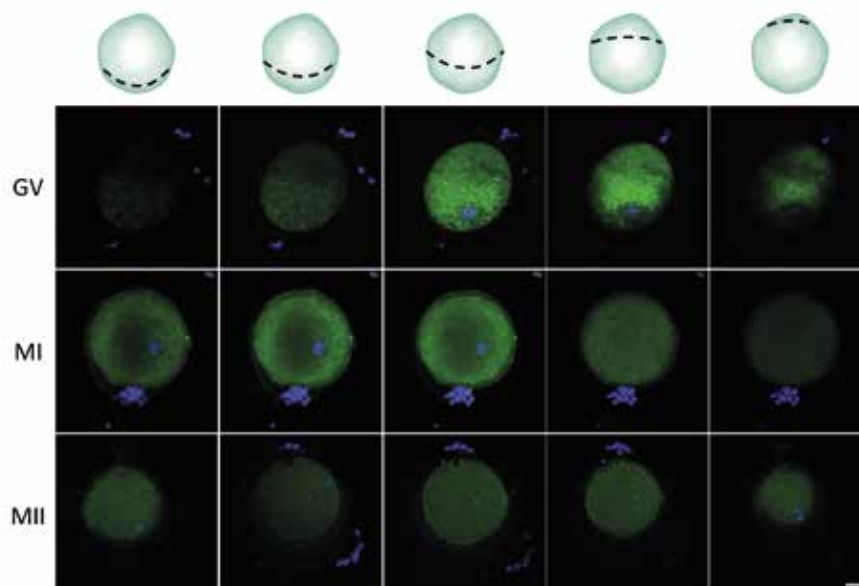
In the present study, we found FAAH but not MGLL mRNA in mature oocytes, although the proteins of both receptors are present during all stages of meiotic resumption. MGLL mRNA might be absent because its transcription becomes silent after the resumption of meiosis until the 4- to 8-cell stage (Gosden and Lee, 2010) and because the mRNA is selectively degraded during oocyte maturation (Stitzel and Seydoux, 2007). Moreover, the timing and pattern of RNA synthesis in the oocyte is known not necessarily to coincide with translation into an active protein (Picton *et al.*, 1998). Importantly, we do not consider that our observations concerning the behavior of the compounds of the cannabinoid system studied in this work can be attributed to an artifact associated with fertilization failure, since our results from unfertilized oocytes and non-sperm-exposed oocytes are not significantly different (**Supplementary Fig. 5**).

In conclusion, our study reports, for the first time, the presence of the cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL during the meiotic resumption in human oocytes. As CB1 and CB2 are present in oocytes (Peralta *et al.*, 2011) and as AEA is present in follicular and oviductal fluids (Schuel *et al.* 2002a; El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a), our results suggest that oocytes can regulate the “AEA tone” near the microenvironment in which the communication between oocyte and granulosa cells takes place. Further studies are needed to investigate the role of the cannabinoid system during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte, because our results might have an impact on the design of culture media for assisted reproductive technology and treatments, especially for *in vitro* maturation.

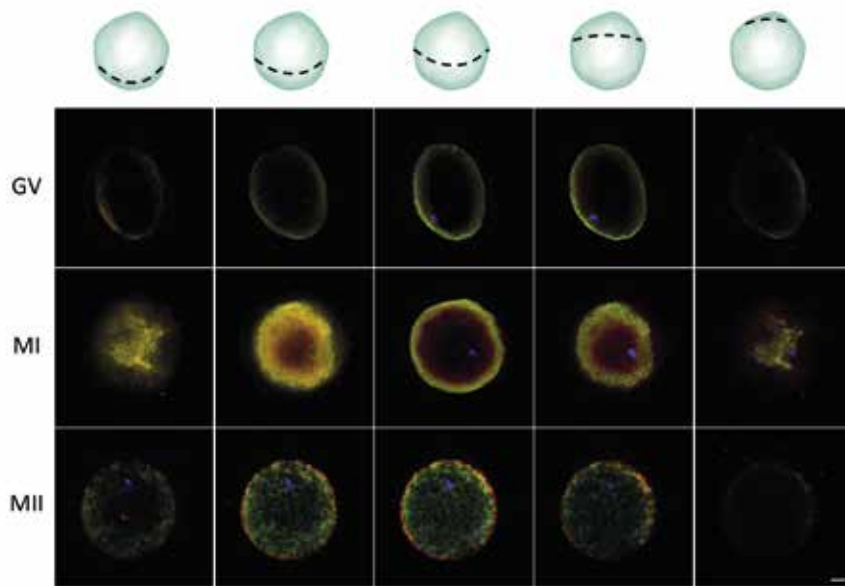
Supplementary figures



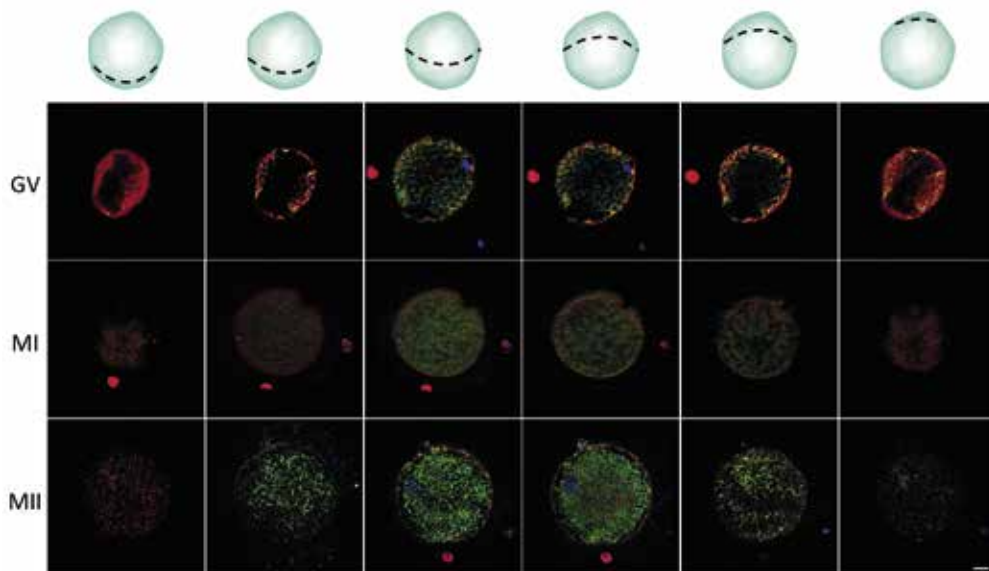
Supplementary figure 1. Immunofluorescence analysis of Z-stack images of cannabinoid-degrading enzyme FAAH in human oocytes. The distribution of FAAH is shown in green at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages. Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in blue. The scale bar represents 20 μm .



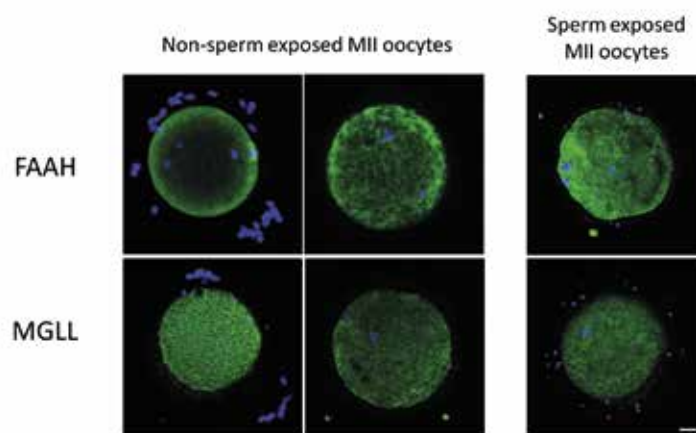
Supplementary figure 2. Immunofluorescence analysis of Z-stack images of cannabinoid-degrading enzyme MGLL in human oocytes. The distribution of MGLL is shown in green at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages. Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in blue. The scale bar represents 20 μm .



Supplementary figure 3. Immunofluorescence analysis of Z-stack images of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes compared to CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. The distributions of FAAH, CB1 and their overlap are shown in green, red and yellow respectively at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages. The scale bar represents 20 μm .



Supplementary figure 4. Immunofluorescence analysis of Z-stack images of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes compared to CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. The distributions of MGLL, CB1 and their overlap are shown in green, red and yellow respectively at germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII) stages. The scale bar represents 20 μm .



Supplementary figure 5. Immunofluorescence analysis of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes in human oocytes to verify the similar distributions in non-sperm exposed MII oocytes and in sperm exposed but unfertilized MII oocytes. The distributions of FAAH and MGLL are shown in green. Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in blue. The scale bar represents 20 μm .

4.3 Tetrahydrocannabinol Modulates *in Vitro* Maturation of Oocytes and Improves the Blastocyst Rates after *in Vitro* Fertilization

4.3 Tetrahydrocannabinol Modulates *In Vitro* Maturation of Oocytes and Improves the Blastocyst Rates after *In Vitro* Fertilization

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Key Words

Oocyte • Maturation • THC

Abstract

Background/Aims: Among the assisted reproductive techniques, the *in vitro* maturation of oocytes (IVM) is less developed than other techniques, but its implementation would entail a qualitative advance. This technique consists in the extraction of immature oocytes from antral ovarian follicles with the patient under low hormone stimulation or without hormone to mature exogenously in culture media supplemented with different molecules to promote maturation. In this sense, we are interested in the role that cannabinoids could have as IVM promoters because cannabinoid's molecular pathway is similar to the one by which oocyte's meiosis resumption is activated. With the intention of advancing in the possible use of cannabinoids as supplements for the media for *in vitro* maturation of oocytes, we intend to deepen the study of the function of the phytocannabinoid Δ -9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) in the IVM process.

Methods: By immunocytochemistry, we detected the location pattern of cannabinoid receptor type 1 (CB1) and type 2 (CB2) during oocyte maturation in presence or absence of THC, as well as, the staining pattern of p-AKT and p-ERK. We used a genetic/ pharmacological approach generating knockout oocytes for CB1 and/or CB2 and they were incubated with THC during the oocyte maturation to visualize the physiological effects of THC, observing the rate of blastocyst achieved by oocyte.

Results: This study confirms that the incubation of oocytes with THC during IVM accelerated some events of that process like the phosphorylation pattern of ERK and AKT and was able to increase the blastocyst rate in response to IVF. Moreover, it seems that both CB1 and CB2 are necessary to maintain a healthy oocyte maturation.

Conclusion: Our data suggest that THC may be useful IVM supplements in clinic as is more feasible and reliable than any synthetic cannabinoid.

Introduction

For years now, growing fertility problems and current changes in family patterns have resulted in a wider use of assisted reproduction techniques (ART) among couples trying to get pregnant (*Jose-Miller et al., 2007; Gonzalez and Morgado, 2008; SEF, 2016*). Even so, the success of ARTs is not yet complete and the research work continues to improve these techniques. Among the ARTs, the *in vitro* maturation of oocytes (IVM) is less developed than other techniques, but its implementation would entail a qualitative advance. This technique consists in the extraction of immature oocytes from antral ovarian follicles with the patient under low hormone stimulation or without hormone. The oocytes are then exogenously matured in culture media supplemented with different molecules to promote maturation (*Barnes et al., 1995, 1996*).

The most important goal of IVM method is that could be the only hope or alternative for a high number of patients unable to tolerate high doses of gonadotropins, such as patients with polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) or ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome (OHSS) (*Nader, 2010; González-Ortega et al., 2019*). In general, clinical pregnancy and implantation rates per embryo transfer have reached 35%–40% and 15%–20%, respectively, in infertile women with PCOS after IVM of immature oocytes (*Chian et al., 2013*). Further candidates for oocyte IVM are patients whose ovarian tissue was frozen due to a pre-existing disease such as cancer, in whom hormone stimulation was not recommended or there was insufficient time to undergo a normal *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) cycle (*Nikseresht et al., 2015*). In addition, by avoiding controlled ovarian stimulation, the IVM procedure eliminates the need for frequent ultrasound monitoring and is thus less costly than conventional IVF (*Chang et al., 2014*).

The complexity lies in that the oocyte meiotic maturation is a complex process whereby immature oocytes acquire the characteristics required for successful fertilization and embryogenesis. For that, immature oocytes arrested at the diplotene of prophase I (designed as germinal vesicles -GV-) must resume meiosis until the metaphase II of meiosis (MII) (*Coticchio et al., 2015*).

However, although some mechanisms that lead the reactivation of meiosis are still to be explained, it is known that the oocyte maturation involves the activation of various signal transduction pathways that converge to activate maturation-promoting factor. Among others, there are some evidence that heterotrimeric G-proteins, which inhibit adenylate cyclase, can interact with both PI3K and MAPK to promoting the oocyte maturation (*Schmitt and Nebreda, 2002*). In this sense, we are interested in the role that cannabinoids could have as IVM promoters. On the one hand, the molecular cascade that cannabinoids exerts when they activate the G-protein coupled cannabinoid receptors (inhibition of adenylate cyclase, reducing cAMP, and activation of PI3K/Akt and MAPK pathways) is very similar to the one that occurs during oocyte meiotic resumption (*Schindler, 2011; Dalton and Howlett, 2012*). On the other hand, some studies described the presence of the cannabinoid system in human (*Reich et al., 1982; Paria et al., 1995; Peralta et al., 2011; Agirregoitia et al., 2015; Agirregoitia et al., 2016*), bovine (*López-Cardona et al., 2016*) and murine (*López-Cardona et al., 2017*) oocytes, and, at least in the two last species, synthetic cannabinoids were able to modulate the oocyte maturation (*López-Cardona et al., 2016, 2017*).

Being this the general content, with the intention of advancing in the possible use of cannabinoids as supplements for the media for *in vitro* maturation of oocytes, we intend to deepen the study of the function of the phytocannabinoid Δ -9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC). The THC is called phytocannabinoid because it is a compound of the plant *Cannabis sativa*, and it has attracted particular attention since its synthetic analogs dronabinol and nabilone are licensed for medicinal use (*Dinis-Oliveira, 2016*). Even so, the use of phytocannabinoids as THC in clinic is more feasible and reliable than any synthetic cannabinoid (*Wiley et al., 2014; Schreiber et al., 2019*).

The aim of this study is to characterize the role of the phytocannabinoid THC in the IVM process. To that end, we used a genetic/pharmacological approach generating knockout oocytes for CB1 and/or CB2 receptors. They were modulated pharmacologically during the oocyte maturation to visualize the physiological effects of THC. Our results support the notion that the incubation of oocytes with THC during IVM accelerated some events of that process like the phosphorylation pattern of ERK and AKT and was able to increase the blastocyst rate in response to IVF. Moreover, it seems that both CB1 and CB2 are necessary to maintain a healthy oocyte maturation.

Materials and methods

Experimental animals

The adult wild-type, *Cnr1*^{-/-} (Marsicano et al., 2002), *Cnr2*^{-/-} (Buckley et al., 2000) and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice used in this study were kept in an animal house under controlled conditions of temperature (22 ± 1°C) and photoperiod (light/dark cycle 14 h:10 h). Animals were given free access to water and food. All experimental procedures using mice were approved by the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU, CEEA reference number: M20-2015-016-027- 028-173) and were performed according to the Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, endorsed by the Society for the Study of Reproduction and European legislation.

Isolation and *in vitro* maturation of cumulus–oocyte complexes

Female 8 to 10 week old WT (C57BL/6xCBA) or KO on a C57BL/6N background (*Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-}, and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}) mice were superovulated by intraperitoneal injections of 5 IU equine chorionic gonadotropin (Folligon, Intervet), and ovaries were collected 46 to 48 h later. The ovaries were cleaned of any connective tissue and placed in handling medium M2 supplemented with 4 mg/ml bovine serum albumin fraction V. Antral follicles were punctured with 30-gauge needles, and immature cumulus–oocyte complexes (COCs) were collected in handling medium. Only COCs with 3 compact cumulus cells were used. COCs were matured for 17 h in TCM-199 supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (FCS) and 10 ng/ml epidermal growth factor at 37 °C under an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in air with maximum humidity.

IVM supplementation with cannabinoid agonist THC

The THC stock solutions were prepared in DMSO. During maturation (17 h), COCs were incubated with different doses of THC (10^{-9} M, 10^{-8} M, 10^{-7} M and 10^{-6} M) to evaluate the effects of activation of cannabinoid receptor by this agonist. Once obtained the most efficient concentration for oocyte maturation, to see the phosphorylation pattern of ERK and AKT proteins and the effect on embryo development, the COCs were incubated with 10^{-7} M (100nM) of THC. COCs containing the same amount of DMSO were used as an incubation control.

Meiotic progression of mice oocytes undergoing IVM with THC

To determinate the impact of THC on germinal vesicle breakdown (GVBD), COCs from experimental group and control with DMSO at 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 17 h of IVM were used as described previously (*Khatir et al., 1998*). In sum, COCs were partially denuded in 0, 1% of hyaluronidase (Sigma H3506) and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Panreac) for 20 min. Then, were washed twice in PBS and incubated in PBS containing Hoescht 33342 (0.01 mg/ml) for 15 min. Oocytes were then placed in glass slides and squashed with coverslip in order to visualize the nuclear stage under microscopy (Zeiss Axioskop).

Immunofluorescence

For these experiments, 3 females per genotype were used in 3 replicate trials. Once meiotic stages were established, to immunocytochemically localize the CB1 and CB2, 20 WT oocytes per stage were treated as previously described (*Peralta et al., 2001*). Briefly, *in vitro* matured oocytes in presence or absence of THC were washed in PBS supplemented with 1% polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (*Panreac*) for 10 min at room temperature. The oocytes were then permeabilized by incubation in PBS with 10% (v/v) FCS and 1% Triton X-100 for 45 min at room temperature. After permeabilization, oocytes were incubated overnight at 4 °C in PBS containing 1% PVA, 5% normal FCS serum, and 1:100 rabbit polyclonal anti-cannabinoid CB1 (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) and 1:400 rabbit polyclonal anticannabinoid CB2 (Cayman Chemicals). After incubation, oocytes were washed twice in PBS containing 1% PVA and incubated in PBS supplemented with 1% PVA, 5% FCS serum, and 1:500 goat polyclonal secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 488 (Molecular Probes, Eugene) for 2 h at room temperature. Next, the oocytes were washed 3 times in PBS–1% PVA. In all cases, nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342 (0.01 mg/ml) during the second wash to facilitate the determination of the maturation stage of each oocyte (*Gutiérrez-Adán and Pintado, 2000*). Finally, oocytes were mounted in microdrops with Fluoromount G (EMS) and examined by confocal microscopy (Fluoview FV500, Olympus). Negative controls were prepared in the same way omitting the primary antibody before addition of the secondary antibody.

To monitor the activation of pERK1/2 and pAKT signaling during oocyte maturation in the presence of cannabinoids, an average number of 20 oocytes was collected at 0 h, 10 min, 30 min and 1 h to evaluate the initial response, and at 17 h as the optimal time for maturation. Rabbit polyclonal phospho-ERK1/2 (Cell

Signaling Technology) primary antibody was used at a 1:400 dilution and Rabbit phospho- Akt (Ser473) (Cell Signaling Technology) 1:200 primary antibody was used at a 1:400 dilution. Finally, oocytes were mounted in microdrops with Fluoromount G (EMS) and examined by confocal microscopy (LSM 800, Zeiss). Negative controls were performed in the same way, except for omission of the primary antibody before secondary antibody addition.

Isolation and *in vivo* maturation of COCs

MII oocytes were collected from 8- to 10-week-old oviducts of female WT (C57BL/6xCBA) or KO (Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-} and Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}) superovulated by intraperitoneal injections of 5 IU equine chorionic gonadotropin (Folligon), followed 48 h later by 7.5 IU of human chorionic gonadotropin (Veterin Corion). Briefly, at 14 h after human chorionic gonadotropin administration, oviducts were removed from superovulated female mice and placed in a Petri dish containing M2 at 37 °C. After washing, collected oviducts were placed in fresh M2 medium, and COCs were released from the ampulla with the aid of Dumont #5 forceps and washed in new M2 medium until fertilization.

***In vitro* fertilization**

Sperm from C57BL/6xCBA male mice aged 6 to 24 wk and of proven fertility were incubated for 1 h in human tubal fluid (HTF) medium under 5% CO₂ at 37 °C for capacitation. After *in vitro* or *in vivo* maturation, COCs were transferred to a 500 µl equilibrated HTF drop and overlaid with mineral oil and a 1 × 10⁶ concentration of spermatozoa. All *in vitro* fertilization experiments were repeated 9 times using 3 females per genotype.

Rates of oocyte nuclear maturation and fertilization

To assess whether adding THC affected rates of oocyte nucleus maturation and fertilization, the presence of the first polar body and pronuclear formation were identified respectively. At 24 h after fertilization, all presumptive zygotes that had not divided into 2 cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min and then stained with Hoechst 33342 (0.01 mg/ml) for observation with a immunofluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axioskop) under UV light.

***In vitro* culture of embryos**

Five hours after *in vitro* fertilization, 10-25 presumptive zygotes from oocytes of female WT (C57BL/6xCBA) or KO (Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-} and Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}) were washed in HTF medium and cultured in 20-µl drops of equilibrated culture medium KSOMaa overlaid with mineral oil at 37 °C under an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in air with maximum humidity. Embryos were cultured for 5 d, and cleavage rates were assessed on d 1 (24 h after fertilization) and blastocysts on d 4 (96–100 h after fertilization).

TUNEL analysis

Apoptosis was determined by in situ DNA 3 end labelling of histological sections using a non-radioactive labelling method [Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase mediated dUTP nick-end labelling assay (TUNEL) from detection Kit, TUNEL POD (ROCHE). The control oocytes, the vehicle (DMSO) group and THC group were processed as per the manufacturer's instructions. The apoptotic cells appear in fluorescent green whereas the nucleus was marked in blue with Hoechst 33342.

Statistical analysis

All statistical tests were performed by using Graphpad software (GraphPad Software). The mean and standard error of the mean of cleavage rates, blastocyst yields, the percentage change of blastocyst rate between the 4 genotypes were compared by 1-way ANOVA followed by multiple pairwise comparisons by using the Tukey's post hoc test in most data. Paired t-test was performed to compare the difference between treatments (without and with THC). Values of $P < 0.05$ were considered significant.

Statement of Ethics

All experimental procedures using mice were approved by the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU, CEEA reference number: M20-2015-016-027-028-173) and were performed according to the Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, endorsed by the Society for the Study of Reproduction and European legislation.

Results

CB1 receptor location-pattern during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation of oocyte in presence or absence of THC

To analyse if the THC has any effect on the relocation of CB1 during the oocyte maturation, we incubated the immature oocytes with increasing concentrations of THC during 17 h and we collected the oocytes at 10 min, 30 min, 1 h and 17 h to observe the CB1 location-pattern.

As it is known, in immature oocytes, CB1 is homogeneously localized over the GV and the receptor is relocated to the periphery of the oocyte after GVBD, when meiosis resume, which happens after more than one hour of maturation (Control of **Fig. 4.9**). However, the presence in the incubation media of any tested concentration of THC (from 10^{-9} M to 10^{-6} M) accelerated the relocation of CB1 receptor from GV to the periphery of oocytes. Thus, the staining of CB1 in GV disappeared before 1 h of incubation (quicker than in control) and, specifically, the concentration of 10^{-7} M of THC led to accelerate that relocation before 30 min (**Fig. 4.9**).

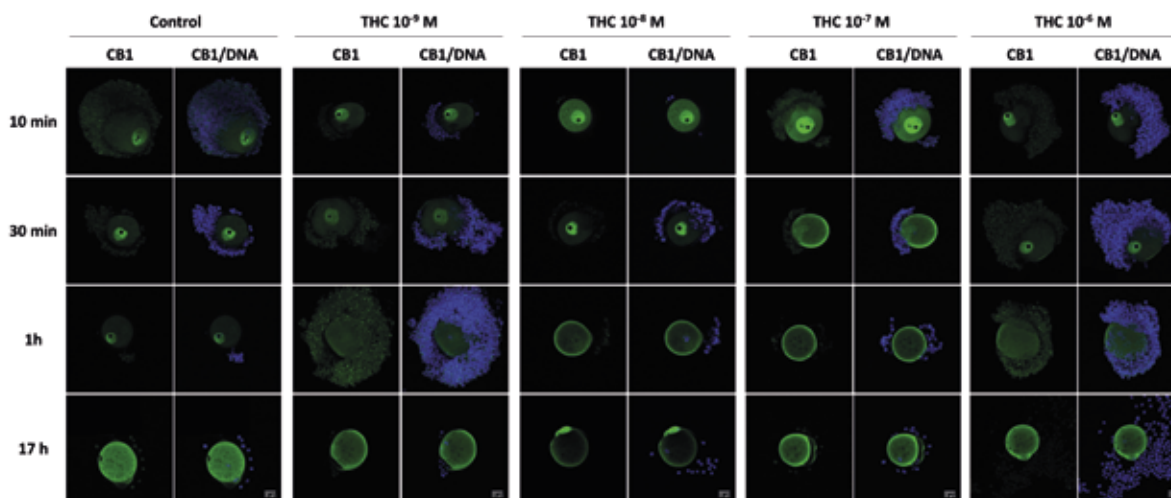


Figure 4.9 Immunolocalization of CB1 during the maturation of mouse oocytes. Immature COCs were cultured *in vitro* in absence of THC and in presence of THC at 1 nM (10^{-9} M), 10 nM (10^{-8} M), 100 nM (10^{-7} M) and 1 μ M (10^{-6} M) during 10 min, 30 min, 1h and 17 h. The distribution of CB1 is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. n = 5 independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had the same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown. Scale bars, 25 μ m.

CB2 receptor location-pattern during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation in presence or absence of THC

To continue understanding the role of THC in oocyte maturation and after determining its effect on CB1 receptor relocation, we also examined the effect of THC on location of CB2 receptor. We performed the same experiment explained previously for CB1. CB2 showed a homogeneous distribution-pattern in the whole oocyte with more staining intensity in the periphery of the oocyte at all tested times both in absence or in presence of THC (Fig. 4.10).

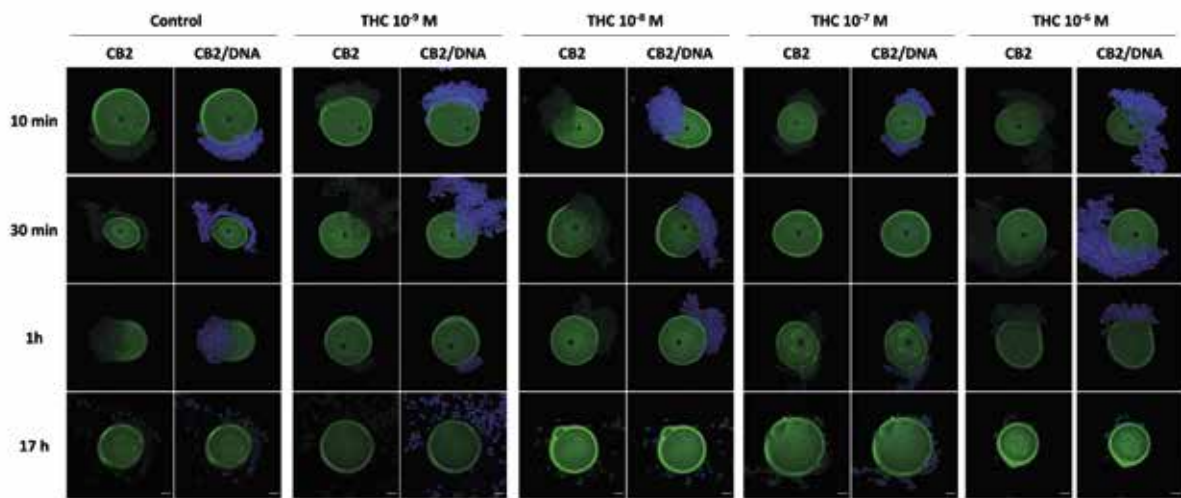


Figure 4.10. Immunolocalization of CB2 during the maturation of mouse oocytes. Immature COCs were cultured *in vitro* in absence of THC and in presence of THC at 1 nM (10^{-9} M), 10 nM (10^{-8} M), 100 nM (10^{-7} M) and 1 μ M (10^{-6} M) during 10 min, 30 min, 1h and 17 h. The distribution of CB1 is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. n = 5 independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown. Scale bars, 20 μ m.

Meiotic progression of mice oocyte's exposed to THC

To determinate if THC has also some effect on oocyte nuclear maturation we fixed oocytes after 0, 2, 4, 6, 8 and 12 h of IVM where media was supplemented with 10^{-7} M of THC or vehicle (DMSO). Oocytes nuclear stage was classified in germinal vesicle (GV), germinal vesicle break down (GVBD), pro-metaphase I (PMI), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII). At 0h all the oocytes were in GV stage (Fig. 4.11A) and after 2 h of IVM a significant higher percentage of PMI was detected when we used THC compared with the oocytes matured in presence of the vehicle (Fig. 4.11B). After 4 h of IVM the majority of the oocytes were at PMI, but no differences were observed among treatments. Also after 8 h of IVM, all groups reached MI (Fig. 4.11C) at the same time. After 12 h of maturation a higher percentage of MII stage was found in THC experimental groups compared with control (Fig. 4.11D) but that difference was not significant. Finally, after 17 hours, all the oocytes of both treatments arrived at MII (data not shown).

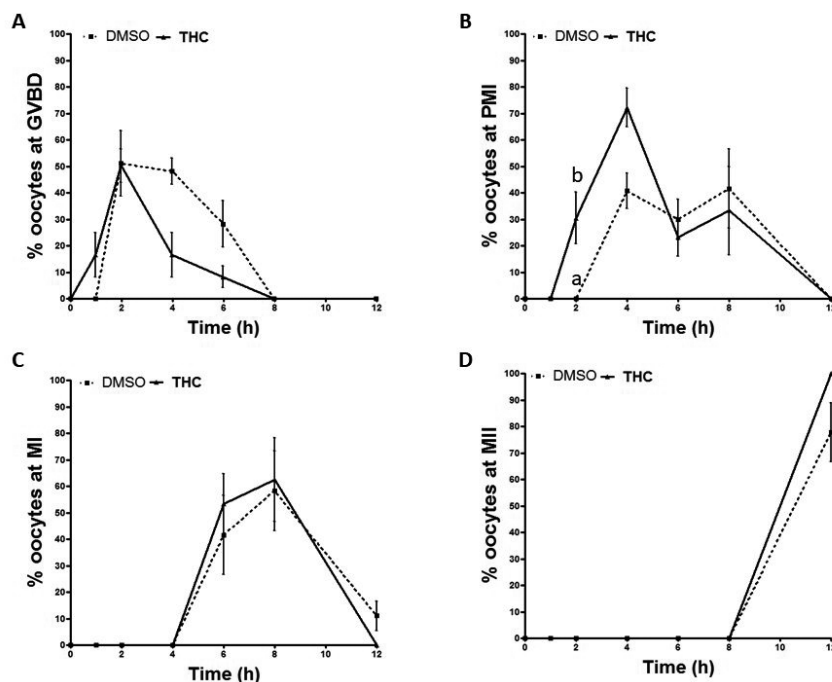


Figure 4.11. Changes in nuclear maturation of oocytes. Results are expressed as percentage of oocytes at each stage of maturation at each point: (A) germinal vesicle break down, GVBD; (B) pro-metaphase I stage, PMI; (C) metaphase I stage, MI; (D) metaphase II stage, MII. $n = 5$ independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. Significant differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; $p < 0.05$ in all cases.

Phosphorylation pattern of ERK1/2 during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation in presence or absence of THC

As signaling via MAPKs plays a role in the oocyte maturation and that pathway is commonly modulated by cannabinoids, we used the cannabinoid agonist THC to determine whether the activation of the CB1 and CB2 receptors during oocyte maturation could affect the phosphorylation pattern of ERK1/2 compared with oocytes matured in presence of the vehicle (DMSO). According to the results obtained in the relocation of cannabinoid receptors during the maturation of oocytes, for these experiments we used the concentration of THC that generated the most changes regarding the relocation of the receptors in comparison to the control (10^{-7} M).

In immature oocytes, ERK1/2 was dephosphorylated but, after 17 h of incubation (the time required for mouse oocyte maturation), ERK1/2 was phosphorylated in oocytes. At 10 min, ERK1/2 appeared phosphorylated only in the granulose cells of oocytes incubated with THC. We did not observe the phosphorylation of granulose cells of control oocytes until 30 min. However, at that time, the COCs incubated with THC had already dephosphorylated its granulose cells but, instead, we could observe the presence of phosphorylated ERK1/2 inside the oocyte. At 1 h of incubation, the oocytes incubated with THC showed more intense phosphorylated ERK1/2 compared with the control and, at that time, the granulose cells of control COCs had already been dephosphorylated (**Fig. 4.12A**).

When we used oocytes from knockout mice where the cannabinoids receptors were absent ($Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$), we did not observe difference in the phosphorylation pattern of ERK1/2 between the oocytes matured in the presence or absence of THC (Fig. 4.12B, 4.12C and 4.12D).

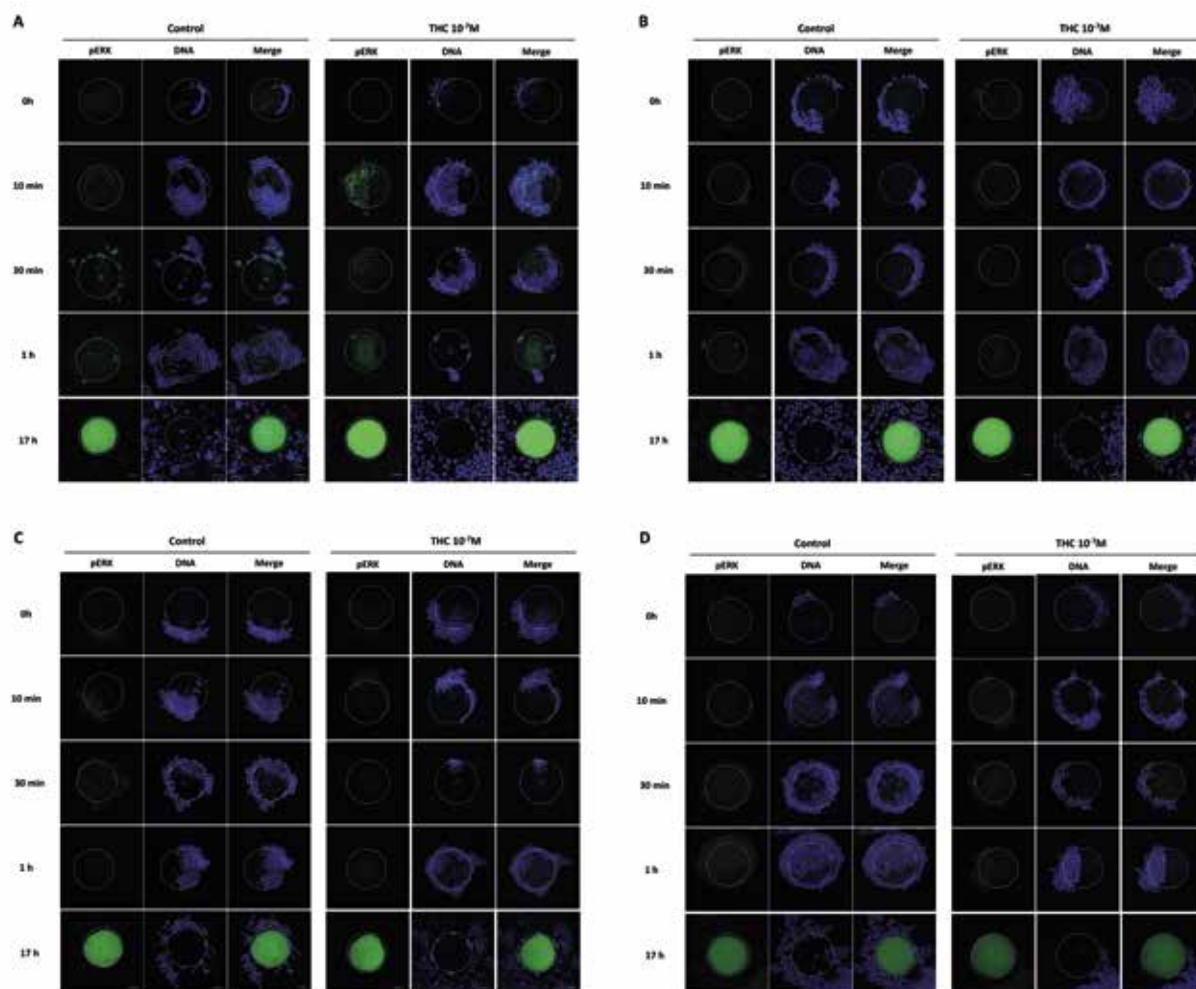


Figure 4.12. Phosphorylation of ERK by THC during oocyte maturation. Immature GV oocytes from (A) wild type mice, (B) $Cnr1^{-/-}$ mice, (C) $Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice and (D) $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice were cultured *in vitro* in presence of 10^{-7} M of THC or in absence of it (control) for 17 h and the phosphorylation status of ERK (pERK) was observed at 0, 10 min, 30 min, 1 h and 17 h. pERK is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. $n = 5$ independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown. Scale bars, 20 μ m.

Phosphorylation pattern of AKT during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation in presence or absence of THC

The pathways mediated by AKT are also key in the oocyte maturation and that kinase is also modulated by cannabinoids, so, we used THC to determine whether the activation of the CB1 and CB2 receptors during oocyte maturation could affect the phosphorylation pattern of AKT compared with oocytes matured in presence of the vehicle (DMSO).

We performed the same experiments as previously explained for pERK1/2. In this case, we observed few differences in the phosphorylation pattern of AKT in response to 10 and 30 min of treatment with THC, where the AKT was phosphorylated in granulose cells while it was undetectable in granulose cells exposed to vehicle. From that moment, the pattern of phosphorylation observed in the COCs treated with THC or vehicle was similar (Fig. 4.13A).

When we used oocytes from knockout mice where the cannabinoids receptors were absent ($Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$), we did not observe difference in the phosphorylation pattern of AKT between the oocytes matured in the presence or absence of THC (Fig. 4.13B, 4.13C and 4.13D).

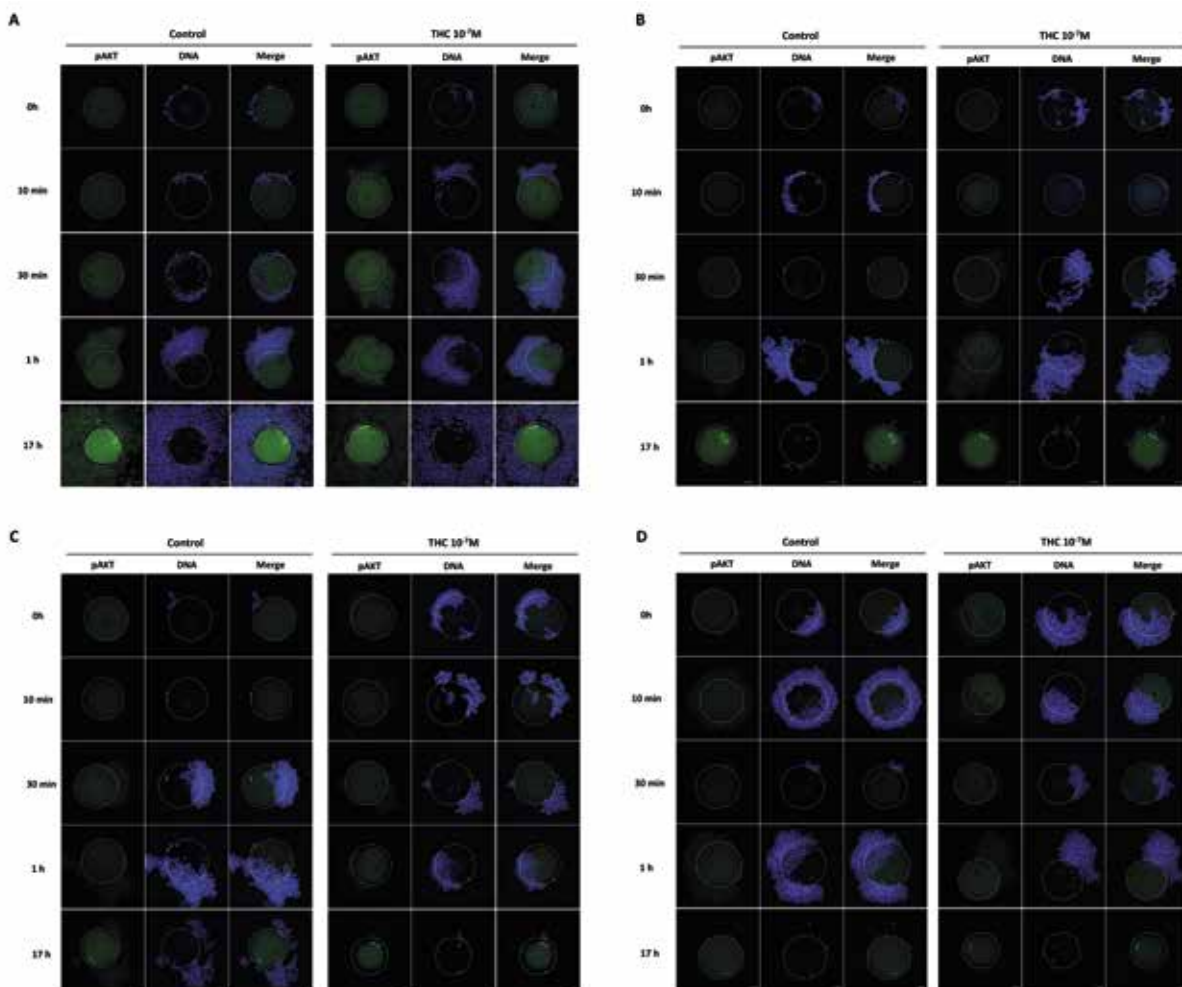


Figure 4.13. Phosphorylation of AKT by THC during oocyte maturation. Immature GV oocytes from from (A) wild type mice, (B) $Cnr1^{-/-}$ mice, (C) $Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice and (D) $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice were cultured *in vitro* in presence of 10^{-7} M of THC or in absence of it (control) for 17 h and the phosphorylation status of AKT (pAKT) was observed at 0, 10 min, 30 min, 1 h and 17 h. pAKT is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. $n = 5$ independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown.

Scale bars, 20 μ m.

Apoptosis analysis in oocytes exposed to THC during maturation

To check if the presence of THC, during the 17 hours it was in contact with the COCs, was harmful, the detection of apoptotic oocytes or granulosa cells was performed using the in situ TUNEL analysis. We did not observe any apoptotic cell in the COCs treated with THC during maturation or in those treated only with the vehicle (DMSO) (Fig. 4.14).

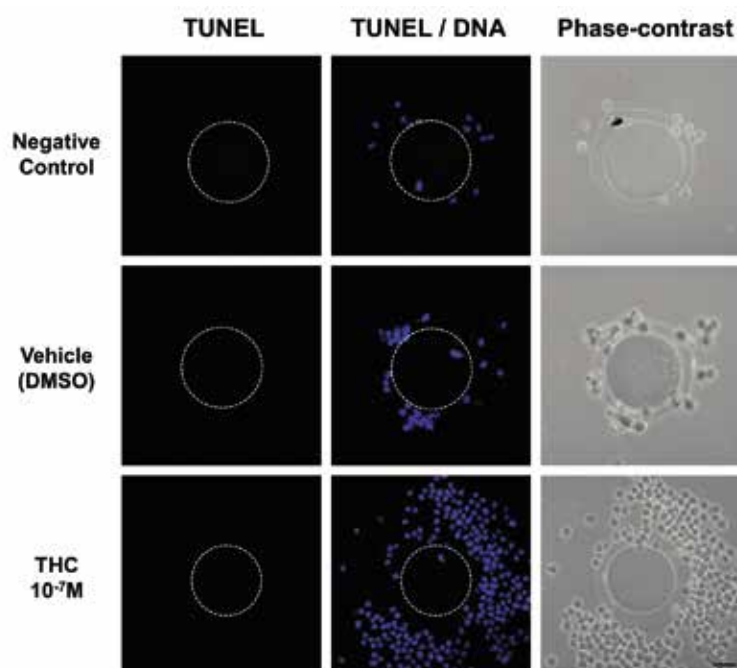


Figure 4.14 Analysis of apoptotic cells, by TUNEL, in COCs treated with vehicle (DMSO) or THC. Apoptotic cells showed in green and DNA, stained by Hoechst 3342, in blue. Representative photomicrographs are shown

Blastocyst rate produced from oocytes matured in presence or absence of THC

Our next objective was to test whether exposure of COCs to THC during oocyte maturation would affect the maturation observing the fertilization and/or subsequent embryo development rate. For that purpose, we cultured, *in vitro*, immature COCs during 17 h (the average time to mature mice oocytes) in absence or presence of 10^{-7} M of THC and, then, we performed the *in vitro* fertilization (IVF).

The incubation with THC had no significant effect on rates of mature oocytes (MII), fertilized zygotes and 2-cell embryos compared to vehicle-treated oocytes. However, THC led to a significant improvement in blastocysts rate since twice as many embryos were produced when we used a 10^{-7} M concentration of THC, compared to vehicle (Fig. 4.15A).

To be able to know if the observed action of THC was carried out by CB1 and/or CB2 receptor, we also performed the IVM with COCs from knockout mice $Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$, followed

by the subsequent IVF done using sperm from wild type male mice. That way, we were able to verify that the effect observed on *in vitro* embryo development were effectively attributable to the absence of the cannabinoid receptor during maturation and not to the *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) or embryo culture processes.

We did not observe any improvement on blastocyst rate between the oocytes treated with THC or with vehicle for any genotype (Fig. 4.15B, C and D). In that sense, taking into account the percentage change of blastocyst rate between control and treatment for each genotype, we observed that the only genotype where incubation of oocytes with THC is beneficial for an increase in the number of blastocysts is the wild type (Fig. 4.16).

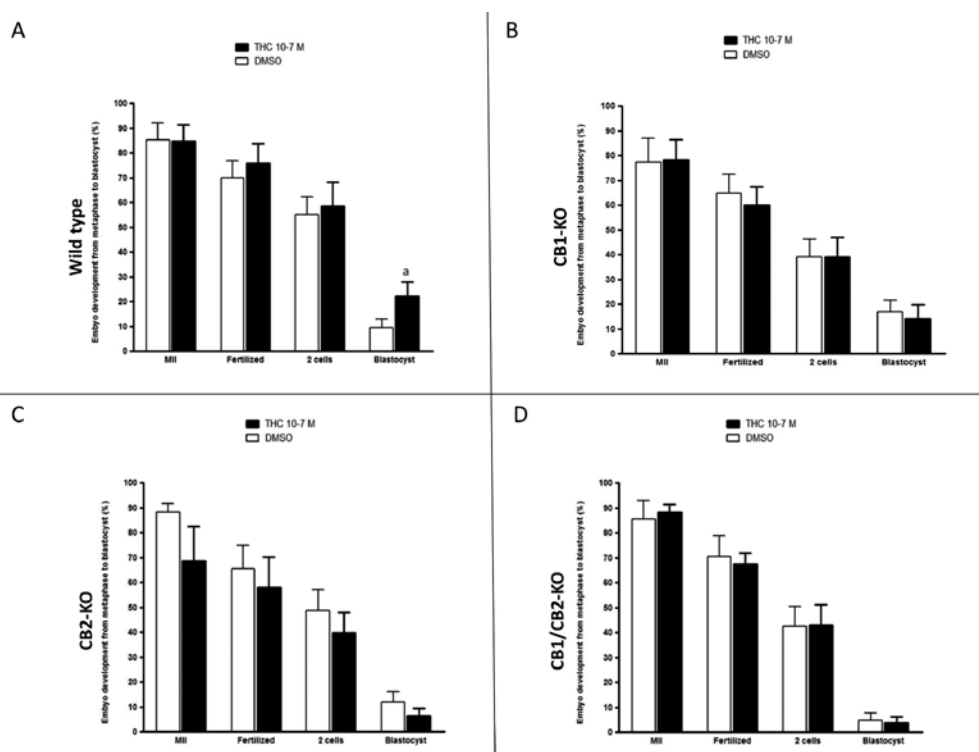


Figure 4.15. Response to THC 10⁻⁷ M during oocyte maturation (17 h) measured as rates of metaphase II oocytes (MII), fertilized oocytes, 2 cell-stage embryos and blastocysts after IVF. The figure shows the embryo development observed for oocytes incubated with vehicle (DMSO) (white) and incubated with THC 10⁻⁷ M (black). The sperm always came from WT mice and the oocytes came from A) wild type (WT) mice, B) Cnr1^{-/-} mice, C) Cnr2^{-/-} mice and D) Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-} mice. Results are the mean of % ± SEM of 10 independent experiments. Significant differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; p < 0.005 in all cases.

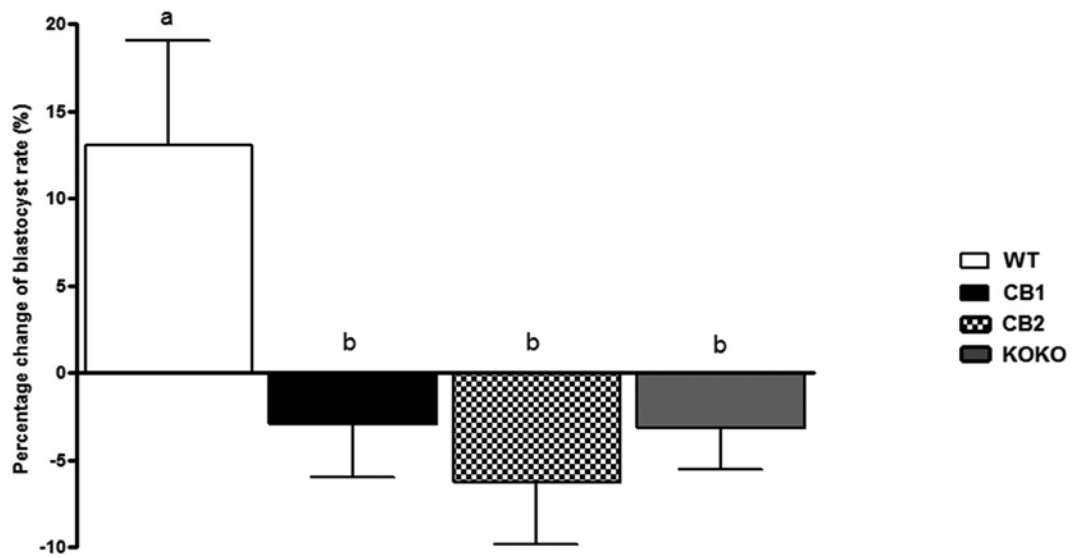


Figure 4.16. Percentage change of blastocysts rate between control and treatment. Blastocysts rate changes using oocytes from wild type (WT) mice (white), $Cnr1^{-/-}$ mice (black), $Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice (dotted) and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice (grey). Results are the mean \pm SEM of 10 independent experiments. Significant differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; $p < 0.05$ in all cases

Discussion

Through systematic series of genetic and pharmacologic experiments, we examined whether the use of THC acting via CB1 and/or CB2 modulated oocyte maturation in a mouse model, and we tried to elucidate the mechanisms of such actions. The choice of using the phytocannabinoid THC has to do with the controversy generated by the use of synthetic cannabinoids (Wiley *et al.*, 2014; Schreiber *et al.*, 2019), which is why it seems that the use of THC in the clinic could be more feasible and reliable. Our observations in wild type, Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-}, and Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-} mice indicated that, when present during IVM of oocytes, the THC accelerated the relocation of CB1 receptor in oocytes. Moreover, the incubation of oocytes with THC during the IVM produced modulations in ERK1/2 and AKT phosphorylation and increased blastocyst rates achieved. Those effects seem to be achieved through both cannabinoid receptors studied (CB1 and CB2).

The first evidence that linked the endocannabinoid system and the oocyte maturation was that the endocannabinoid AEA (N-arachidonoyl ethanolamide) was present in human follicular fluid (Coy *et al.*, 2008) and its concentration rose during oocyte maturation (El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a, 2009b). In previous works, it was detected the Cnr1 mRNA transcript and protein of CB1 receptor in oocytes during *in vitro* and *in vivo* maturation (Peralta *et al.*, 2011; López-Cardona *et al.*, 2016, 2017). Furthermore, CB1 receptor could be an indicator of oocyte nuclear maturation, because it was clearly localized over GV oocyte and it moves towards the periphery as it changes to the stage MII (Peralta *et al.*, 2011; López-Cardona *et al.*, 2016, 2017). In the present work we saw how the presence of THC in the maturation media accelerated that relocation of CB1 receptor from GV to the periphery. That difference in relocation velocity is interesting because, in oocytes matured *in vivo*, CB1 was localized peripherally sooner than in oocytes matured *in vitro* (López-Cardona *et al.*, 2017) and, as is well established, the *in vitro* maturation process is delayed in comparison with *in vivo* maturation (Chian *et al.*, 2004). The presence of THC in the maturation media also accelerated the oocyte nuclear maturation of immature oocytes between 1 and 2 hours of incubation, similar times observed in the aforementioned acceleration of the relocation of CB1 receptor. The meiosis resumption also began earlier (around 2 h) when THC was present in the IVM media of bovine oocytes (López-Cardona *et al.*, 2016).

Although CB2 did not show any relocation difference during the IVM, we detect a peripheral location of this receptor did not previously found. So, as according to the classic theory of GPCR functionality, to exert its actions, a receptor needs to reach the cell surface (Cahill *et al.*, 2007), both CB1 and CB2 could have any involvement in oocyte maturation. Actually, there are data supporting the notion that GPCR-Gai (such as CB1 and CB2) is a meiotic maturation inducer (Mehlmann, 2005).

To know if the changes observed during the maturation of oocytes incubated with THC were observed in other processes of IVM, we analysed the phosphorylation-pattern of ERK1/2 and AKT, since those essential kinases regulate the oocyte meiosis progression (Sanchez and Smits, 2012). Interestingly, the presence of THC during the oocyte maturation accelerated the phosphorylation-pattern of ERK1/2 and, to a lesser extent, the phosphorylation-pattern of AKT. Previously, it was described that the selective CB2

receptor agonist, JWH133, induced the ERK1/2 and AKT phosphorylation cascade in spermatogonia and their progression toward meiosis (Grimaldi et al., 2009; Giacomo et al., 2016). In addition, in the previous functional experiments done with cows showed how the presence of THC during the IVM led to accelerate the phosphorylation pattern of ERK1/2 and AKT kinases (López-Cardona et al., 2016). These results are in accordance with the fact that the activation (phosphorylation) of AKT stimulates the meiosis resumption, it is involved in the MI/MII transition and it regulates polar body emission and spindle organization (Tomek and Smiljakovic, 2005; Kalous et al., 2006, 2009; Cecconi et al., 2012). In the same way, the prompt activation of ERK1/2 induces premature chromosome condensation and meiosis resumption as well as pronucleus breakdown (Fissore et al., 1996). It is interesting to highlight that the activation of CB2 by a treatment with JWH133 induced and accelerated the meiosis progression in fetal oocytes of mice, although they observed how also decreased the pool of primordial and primary follicles (De Domenico et al., 2017). Even so our treatment with THC was *in vitro* and it only lasted 17 hours, and, that could be why we do not observe apoptosis in oocytes or granulosa cells as observed by De Domenico and co-workers (2017) after systemic treatment with JWH133.

Finally, our last objective was to test whether all that changes described regarding the exposure of COCs to THC during oocyte maturation would affect the fertilization and/or subsequent embryo development rate in positive or negative manner. Although the incubation with THC had no significant effect on rates of mature oocytes (MII), fertilized zygotes and 2-cell embryos compared to vehicle-treated oocytes, the THC led to an improvement in blastocysts rate (2 times more number of embryos). That improvement in the amount of blastocysts achieved had not been observed in previous experiments performed with THC in bovine oocytes (López-Cardona et al., 2016), although it was observed using a synthetic agonist for CB1 in mice oocytes (López-Cardona et al., 2017). In addition, the experiments carried out by knockout mice for CB1 and/ or CB2 receptors, confirmed that both receptors are involved in the modulation of oocyte maturation by THC since, when one of the two receptors is absent, the THC is not able to generate improvements in the ratio of blastocysts compared to the control.

4.4 The endocannabinoid system modulates the physiology of the ovary and its activation can improve the maturation of the oocytes *in vitro*

4.4 The endocannabinoid system modulates the physiology of the ovary and its activation can improve the maturation of the oocytes *in vitro*

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Introduction

Fitocannabinoids are lipophilic compounds derived from the *Cannabis sativa* L. Research on cannabinoids began in the 1960s, when cannabis Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) was purified and described (Mechoulam and Gaoni, 1967). THC is the most abundant cannabinoid in the plant and the primary responsible for bioactive effects in human (ElSohly and Slade, 2005). Thanks to these early studies, an endogenous cannabinoid system was described in animals that consists of cannabinoid receptors (CB1 and CB2), their internal ligands (endocannabinoids) and the synthesis and degradation enzymes (Correa et al., 2016).

The endocannabinoid system (ECS) has been identified in the regulation of female and male reproductive events and the ECS has been involved in reproduction processes such as, gametogenesis, fertilization, preimplantation embryo development, implantation and postimplantation embryonic growth (Walker et al., 2019). Regarding the female, the ECS has been described in hypothalamus-pituitary-ovary (HPO) axis (Brents, 2016), as well as, follicular fluid, oocytes and granulosa cells from various species like mice, rats, cows and humans (Schuel et al., 2002a; El-Talatini et al., 2009a; Bagavandoss and Grimshaw, 2010; Peralta et al., 2011; Agirregoitia et al., 2015, 2016; López-Cardona et al., 2016, 2017).

Generally, when the ECS is exogenously modulated, the cannabinoids alter HPO axis regulation, potentially leading to disruption of the reproductive system generating, among others, anovulatory menstrual cycles; but, in the same way, altered ECS expression is also associated with reduced fertility (Brents, 2016). In that sense, it is known that the lack of cannabinoid receptors inhibits the hormone release in HPO axis (Wenger et al., 2001; Oláh et al., 2008; Cacciola et al., 2013), although it is not known what happen in the ovary of knock out animals for cannabinoid receptors. It seems that the absence of CB1 in oocytes causes embryo development failure (López-Cardona et al., 2017).

Therefore, if both a cannabinoid overexposure and a cannabinoid under-exposure could be harmful to the oocyte physiology, it is not surprising that there are evidences where endocannabinoid signaling could regulate human follicle maturation and development (Schuel et al., 2002; El-Talatini et al., 2009b). In fact, in mice and cows, the cannabinoids are able to improve the *in vitro* oocyte maturation (IVM) (López-Cardona et al., 2016, 2017; Totorikaguena et al., 2019). Even so, the positive effect of cannabinoids on IVM could be improved since, in the studies mentioned above, the oocytes used derived from the largest cohort of follicles induced with exogenous equine chorionic gonadotropin (eCG), and that process may affect the *in vitro* model because the oocytes would begin at an advanced stage of development (Romero et al., 2016). Nowadays, the best rate of maturation developmental potential was achieved using a previous “pre-maturation” step during which meiotic arrest is imposed via modulation of the cAMP signaling pathway using the “natural oocyte maturation inhibitor (C-type Natriuretic Peptide-22,CNP)” (Zhang et al., 2010; Romero et al., 2016).

In summary, as oocyte meiotic maturation is an important process whereby immature oocytes acquire the characteristics required for successful fertilization and embryogenesis (Lonergan and Fair, 2016),

the aim of this work is double. On the one hand, to continue understanding the role of ECS in oocyte physiology, using a genetic approach generating knockout mice for CB1 and/or CB2 receptors, we are going to study the effect of the lack of cannabinoid receptors in ovarian morphology, folliculogenesis, oocyte retrieval and oocyte maturation. On the other hand, as the effectiveness of the IVM technique still does not generate the results of the *in vivo* maturation of oocytes, using immature oocyte cumulus complexes from unprimed juvenile mice, and performing a “pre-maturation” step, we are going to evaluate the use of THC in the oocyte’s developmental competence.

Materials and methods

Experimental animals

Wild-type (WT), *Cnr1*^{-/-} (Marsicano *et al.*, 2002), *Cnr2*^{-/-} (Buckley *et al.*, 2000), and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice used in this study were kept in an animal house under controlled conditions of temperature (22 ± 1°C) and photoperiod (light/dark cycle 14 h:10 h). Animals were given free access to water and food. All experimental procedures using mice were approved by the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU, CEEA reference number: M20-2015-016-027-028-173) and were performed according to the Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, endorsed by the Society for the Study of Reproduction and European legislation.

Animals used for the study with immature oocytes from unprimed juvenile mice were C57BL/6J x CBA/ca. These animals were housed and bred following the national legislation and with the consent of the ethical committee of the Vrije Universiteit Brussel (Project numbers: 09-216-1 and 14-216-1).

Ovary collection and histology

Ovaries from female 8 to 10-week-old WT (C57BL/6 x DBA) or KO on a C57BL/6N background (*Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}) mice were collected and some of them were superovulated by intraperitoneal injections of 5 IU equine chorionic gonadotropin (Folligon, Intervet). In this way, twenty four ovaries (n= 24) were transferred to M2 medium at 37 °C and cleaned of any connective tissue. We used some of them to measure the total volume and the area using the image J software. For that, the whole ovary was selected and its digital image was captured. All images were examined and captured using an Olympus BX50 optical microscope (Olympus Optical Co.) connected to a digital color camera (Olympus XC50).

The ovaries were mixed with Bouin’s solution for 2-4 h and then, the ovaries were washed in 70% ethanol. After that, the ovaries were parafined in blocks. They were dehydrated in alcohol, clarified using xylol, embedded in histological paraffin, and the blocks were sectioned at 8 µm with a retraction microtome

(Shandon AS 325). Finally, the slides were stained with hematoxylin-eosin every fifth section and analyzed (48 μm between analyzed sections).

Follicle counting

As it has been described previously, the number of follicles was estimated by determining the mean total number of follicles per section after sampling every fifth section and section thickness for 8 μm (Tilly, 2003). The slides were examined and captured using an Olympus BX50 optical microscope with 40x enlargement, by which the follicles and other structures of the ovary were observed. After that, all areas of the fragment were photographed using a digital colour camera (Olympus XC50) coupled to the objective of the light microscope to assess the structures of interest.

Follicles were classified as primordial (a single layer of flattened granulosa cells surrounding the oocyte); primary follicles (a single layer of cubic-shaped granulosa cells surrounding the oocyte); secondary follicles (a single layer of cuboidal-shaped granulosa cells surrounding the oocyte), and antral or preovulatory (a fluid-filled cavity inside the oocyte) (Silva *et al.*, 2004).

The total volume of each ovary was measured (section area x section thickness x number of sections), and the follicle count is stated as follicles per millimetre cubed of ovarian tissue (Aiken *et al.*, 2013).

Isolation and *in vitro* maturation of Cumulus–Oocyte Complexes to determinate meiotic progression

Female 8 to 10 week old WT, Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-} and Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-} mice were superovulated by intraperitoneal injections of 5 IU equine chorionic gonadotropin, and ovaries were collected 46 to 48 h later. The ovaries were cleaned of any connective tissue and placed in handling medium M2 supplemented with 4 mg/ml bovine serum albumin fraction V. Antral follicles were punctured with 30-gauge needles, and immature cumulus cell–oocyte complexes (COCs) were collected in handling medium. COCs were matured for 17 h in TCM-199 supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (FCS) and 10 ng/ml epidermal growth factor at 37°C under an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in air with maximum humidity.

In order to determine the impact of the lack of cannabinoid receptors in mice oocyte maturation, COCs at 0, 1, 2, 4, 8, 12 and 17 h of IVM (n = 30 per time point and group in three independent replicates) were used as described previously (Khatir *et al.*, 1998). Briefly, COCs were partially denuded by vortexing during 3 min in 0.1% of hyaluronidase (Sigma H3506) and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Panreac) for 20 min. Then were washed twice in PBS and incubated in PBS containing 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ Hoechst 33342 for 15 min. Oocytes were then placed in glass slides and squashed with coverslip for observation with an immunofluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axioskop) under UV light.

Collection of Cumulus-Oocyte Complexes from Small Antral Follicles from Unprimed Mice and Pre-Ovulatory Cumulus-Oocyte Complexes from Large Antral Follicles

Compact COCs of the first wave of follicular development were collected from small antral follicles of prepubertal mice (19–21 days old) without prior gonadotropin administration. For the collection of pre-ovulatory COCs (controls), compact COCs were collected by puncturing large antral follicles of prepubertal female mice (25–27 days old) following 48 h of priming with 2.5 IU eCG. Collection medium consisted of Leibovitz L-15 containing 10% heat-inactivated FCS, (all from Life Technologies), and supplemented with 200 μ M 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (Sigma) to prevent meiosis reinitiation during the period of collection and preculture handling (Romero *et al.*, 2016).

Isolation and culture of prepubertal mice COCs (Pre-*In vitro* maturation)

COCs from prepubertal female mice to 19–21 days old WT (C57BL/6xCBA) without prior gonadotropin administration were collected. Basal culture medium for the culture of COCs (Pre-IVM and IVM phases) consisted of a-MEM, 2.5% FCS (both from Life Technologies), 5 μ g/ml insulin, 5 μ g/ml apo-transferrin, and 5 μ g/ml sodium selenite (all from Sigma). For Pre-IVM experiments, we cultured, *in vitro*, COCs from small antral follicles of unprimed female mice aged 19–20 days old for 48 h in presence of 25 nM CNP-22 (CNP; Phoenix Europe) and 10 μ M 17- β -estradiol (E2; Sigma). For IVM experiments, recombinant epidermal growth factor was used as ovulatory stimuli, recombinant follicle stimulating hormone (FSH; Merck-Serono) was added and COCs were directly incubated in the medium of IVM in the presence or absence of THC 10^{-7} M for 18 h.

Additionally, two conditions were evaluated for oocyte developmental capacity: 1) an IVM control, in which COCs from small antral follicles of unprimed mice aged 20 days old were directly *in vitro* matured for 18 h and, 2) an *in vivo* control, where *in vivo* grown and matured oocytes were obtained from female aged 25–27 days old primed for 48 h with 2.5 IU eCG, followed by 14 h with 2.5 IU hCG (Chorulon; Intervet). These oocytes were inseminated with the same sperm sample and oocytes/embryos cultured under the exact same conditions as the IVM oocytes.

Incubation with Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC)

The THC stock solutions were prepared in DMSO. During maturation (17 h), COCs were incubated with 100 nM THC to evaluate the effects of activation of cannabinoid receptor by this agonist. The control group was performed using only the same amount of DMSO.

Evaluation of Meiotic progression

COCs from prepubertal female mice to 19–21 days old WT (C57BL/6xCBA) without prior gonadotropin administration were collected. Basal culture medium for the culture of COCs (Pre-IVM and IVM phases) consisted of α -MEM, 2.5% FCS (both from Life Technologies), 5 μ g/ml insulin, 5 μ g/ml apo-transferrin, and 5 μ g/ml sodium selenite (all from Sigma). For Pre-IVM experiments, we cultured, *in vitro*, COCs from small antral follicles of unprimed female mice aged 19–20 days old for 48 h in presence of 25 nM CNP-22 (CNP; Phoenix Europe) and 10 μ M 17- β -estradiol (E2; Sigma). For IVM experiments, recombinant epidermal growth factor was used as ovulatory stimuli, recombinant follicle stimulating hormone (FSH; Merck-Serono) was added and COCs were directly incubated in the medium of IVM in the presence or absence of THC 10^{-7} M for 18 h.

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In vitro fertilization

COCs were collected after oocyte maturation and washed once in IVF medium. COCs were transferred to 200 μ l equilibrated IVF medium (M16 - Sigma; NEAA - Thermo Fisher; BSA - Sigma) and overlaid with mineral oil and a 2×10^6 spermatozoa/ml concentration of spermatozoa obtained from CBAB6F1 male donor aged 6 to 12 weeks. After 1 h of co-incubation at 37 °C, 5% CO₂, 5% O₂, and 100% humidity, presumptive zygotes were denuded, washed twice, and cultured in groups of 10–15 zygotes in 30 μ l of embryo culture medium overlaid with oil for embryo culture (Sigma) at 37 °C in 5% CO₂, 5% O₂, and 100% humidity. Cleavage (2- cell) rate was scored 24 h after IVF. On Day 5, blastocyst development and hatching were recorded. In total, 60–70 COCs (from four independent replicates) were assessed per condition.

Rates of oocyte nuclear maturation and fertilization

To assess whether adding THC fitocannabinoid also affected rates of fertilization, the presence of pronuclear formation was identified. At 24 h after *in vitro* fertilization, all presumptive zygotes that had not divided into 2 cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min and then stained with Hoechst 33342 (0.01 mg/ml) for observation with an immunofluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axioskop) under UV light.

Statistical analysis

All statistical tests were performed by using Microsoft Excel software and Graphpad software (GraphPad Software).

All the results were indicated as the mean \pm S.E.M. Differences in ovary volume, ovary area, oocyte meiotic resumption, oocyte diameter and rates of fertilization and blastocyst formation between the 4 genotypes were compared by one-way ANOVA, followed by a Bonferroni's Multiple Comparison test. Values of $P < 0.05$ were considered significant.

Results

Effect of the absence of CB1 and CB2 receptors on the size of mouse ovary

To study the role of CB1 and CB2 cannabinoid receptors in mouse folliculogenesis, firstly, we observed the macroscopic morphology of mice ovary and we measured the size of ovaries from $Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mutant genotypes, as well as, the ovaries from wild type (WT) mice.

On one hand, comparing the volume of ovaries from different mice genotypes, ovaries from $Cnr1^{-/-}$ mice were clearly smaller and irregular than WT and, although this difference did not become significant, when both receptors, CB1 and CB2, were disrupted, the difference in ovary volume was significantly notable (**Fig. 4.17A**). On the other hand, we also measured ovarian volume after administration of 5 IU eCG. After that, the volume of WT ovary was significantly higher than the rest of studied genotypes (**Fig. 4.17B**), in fact, although the ovary volume increased regardless the mouse genotypes after the administration of eCG, that increase only was significant in WT mice (**Fig. 4.17C**).

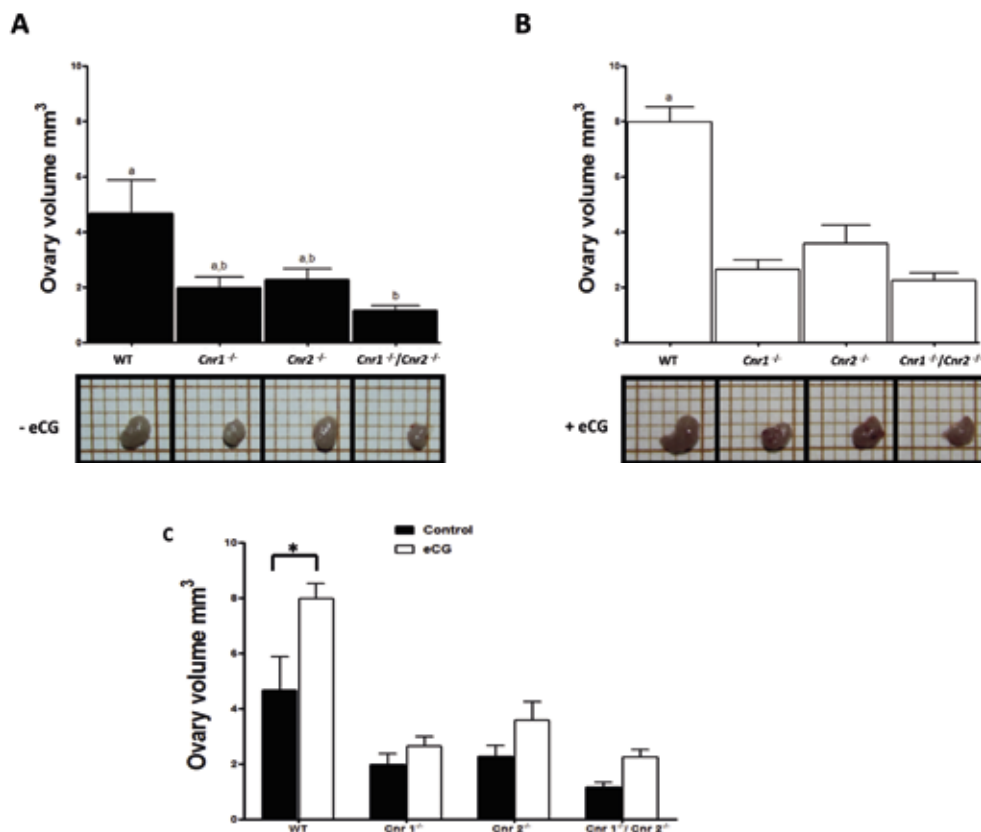


Figure 4.17 Effects of cannabinoid receptors' lack in ovarian morphology and volume. Representative photographs and the measurement of the volume of ovaries of wild type (WT), $Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice (A) before and (B) after eCG administration. (C) Ovary volume comparison between eCG treated and not treated mice. Results are the means \pm S.E.M. of 6 independent experiments. The different combinations of letters or an asterisk (*) indicate significant differences between groups; $p < 0.05$ in all cases.

To continue analysing the impact of the lack of cannabinoid receptors on the ovaries, we analysed histological sections of the ovaries and we measured the area of each ovary. Maintaining the trend of the previous results, the lack of cannabinoid receptors affected the size of the ovary, being smaller when the CB1 receptor was missing but increasing this difference, until significant, when both receptors, CB1 and CB2, were missing in comparison with WT mice (**Fig. 4.18A**). Again, after the administration of eCG, the differences in the section of the ovary between genotypes grew, being significantly smaller the area when the CB1 receptor was missing and even smaller when CB1 and CB2 were missing (**Fig. 4.18B**).

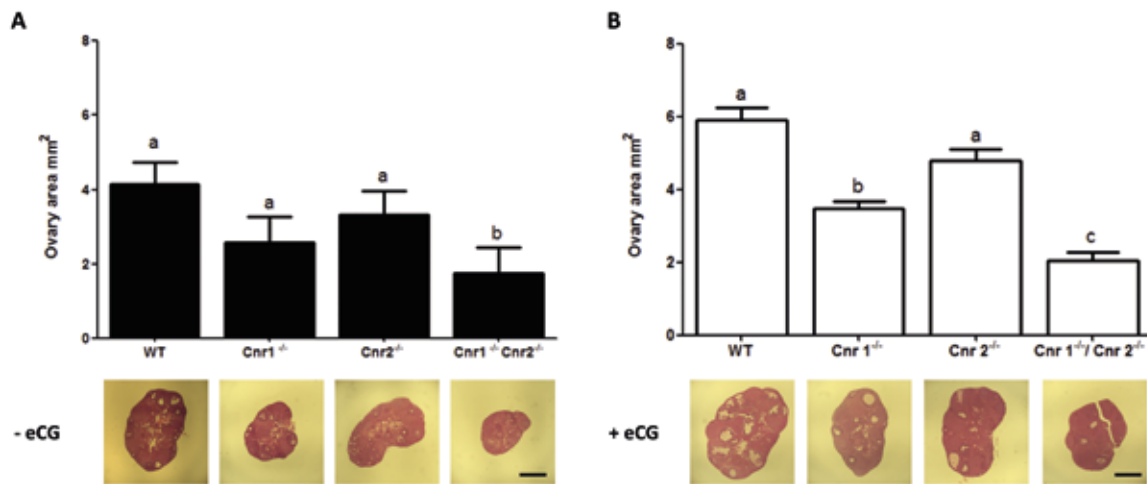


Figure 4.18 Effects of cannabinoid receptors' lack in ovarian size. Representative photographs of histological cross-section and the measurement of the area of ovaries of wild type (WT), Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-} and Cnr1^{-/-}Cnr2^{-/-} mice (A) before and (B) after eCG administration. Results are the means \pm S.E.M. of 6 independent experiments. The different combinations of letters indicate significant differences between groups; $p < 0.05$ in all cases. Scale bar: 500 μ m

Effect of the absence of CB1 and CB2 receptors on the number of mouse follicles

Ovarian morphology was assessed by histological examination of the different growing follicles using hematoxylin and eosin staining. The number of total follicles varied between the different genotypes, being smaller in those mice ovaries where the CB1 receptor or both receptors, CB1 and CB2, were absent (**Fig. 4.19A**). Furthermore, total number of follicles 48 hours after eCG treatment maintained the same pattern (**Fig. 4.19B**).

In order to study in deep the development of those follicles, the initial (primordial and primary follicles) and advanced (secondary and antral follicles) growth follicles were counted. Although all genotypes showed a greater amount of primary follicles, the wild type mice showed a higher number of primary follicles (60.9%) than the knock out genotypes (around 45-50%) (**Fig. 4.19C**). In fact, the KO mice, especially the Cnr1^{-/-} (32.4%) and Cnr1^{-/-}Cnr2^{-/-} (24.4%), had a higher number of secondary follicles than WT mice (10.8%) (**Fig. 4.19C**). The Cnr1^{-/-} (13.5%) and Cnr1^{-/-}Cnr2^{-/-} (11.8%) genotypes also showed a lower number of primordial follicles than the rest of genotypes (around 17%) (**Fig. 4.19C**). Finally, we did not find much difference in the number of antral follicles between genotypes (**Fig. 4.19C**). After the ovarian stimulation (48 h post-eCG injection), wild type mice showed a higher number of

antral follicles (33.7%) in comparison with the other genotypes (**Fig. 4.19D**). In addition, the mutant mice for cannabinoid receptors showed more follicles in early stages (primordial and primary) than WT mice (**Fig. 4.19D**).

To further elucidate the effect of the cannabinoid receptor absence in the quantity of oocytes, we counted the number of oocytes after puncturing the ovary stimulated with eCG derived from $Cnr1^{-/-}$, $Cnr2^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mutant genotypes, as well as, the ovaries from WT mice. Considering that oocyte quality is predetermined by the appearance of oocytes under a microscope, we classified the oocyte as compact, denuded or expanded according to the appearance of their cumulus cells and the degree of expansion of the mural cells (*Hinrichs, 2010a; González-Fernández et al., 2018*). We extracted less amount of oocytes on $Cnr1^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ ovaries, although the difference was only significant when both receptors, CB1 and CB2, were absent (**Fig. 4.19E**). We obtained the highest number of expanded oocytes from the WT mice, being significantly high than $Cnr1^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice. The amount of expanded oocytes obtained from $Cnr2^{-/-}$ genotype was also significantly higher than those obtained from double-KO mice (**Fig. 4.19E**).

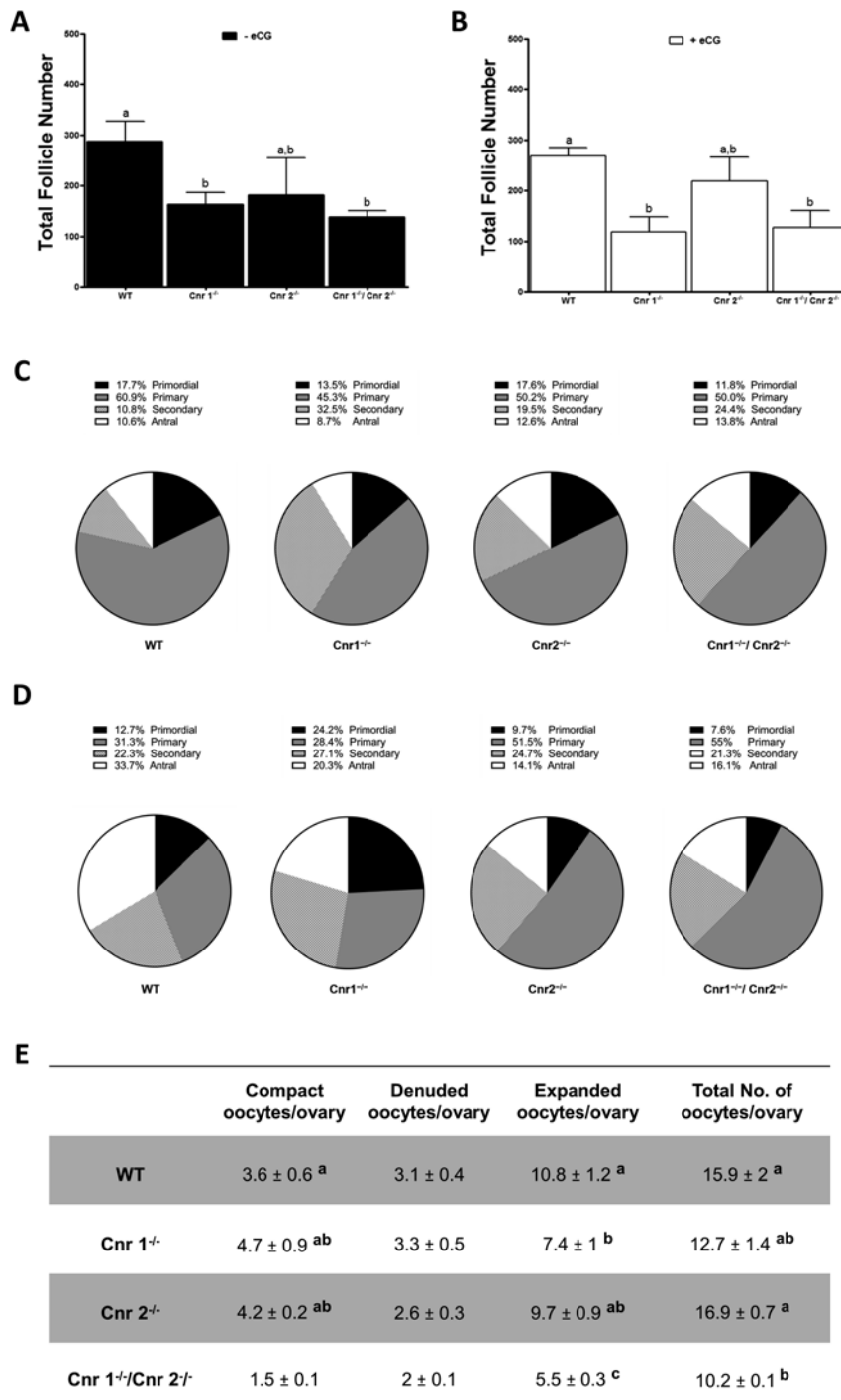


Figure 4.19 Effects of cannabinoid receptors' lack in ovarian folliculogenesis. (A and B) Total number of follicles per ovary of wild type (WT), Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-} and Cnr1^{-/-}Cnr2^{-/-} mice (A) before and (B) after eCG administration. Results are the means ± S.E.M. of 6 independent experiments. The different combinations of letters indicate significant differences between groups; p<0.05 in all cases. (C and D) Percentage of primordial, primary, secondary and antral ovarian follicles per ovary of wild type (WT), Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-} and Cnr1^{-/-}Cnr2^{-/-} mice (C) before and (D) after eCG administration. (E) The number of oocytes achieved after the punctured antral follicles of eCG stimulated wild type (WT), Cnr1^{-/-}, Cnr2^{-/-} and Cnr1^{-/-}Cnr2^{-/-} mice. Results are the means ± S.E.M. of 6 independent experiments. The different combinations of letters indicate significant differences between groups; p<0.05 in all cases

Effect of the absence of CB1 and CB2 receptors on the velocity of meiotic progression of mice oocytes

We next examined whether the absence of cannabinoid receptors would have any impact on meiotic progression of mice oocytes. We fixed oocytes after 0, 1, 2, 4, 8, 12 and 17 h of IVM. Oocytes nuclear stage was classified in germinal vesicle (GV), germinal vesicle break down (GVBD), pro-metaphase I (PMI), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII). As it can be seen in **Fig. 4.20A**, at 0 h all the oocytes were at GV stage and after 1 h of IVM, we observed oocytes from mutant mice at GVBD, while all the WT oocytes remained at the GV phase (**Fig. 4.20B**). At 2 h and 4 h of IVM, the KO-genotypes continued to be more advanced than WT oocytes (**Fig. 4.20C** and **4.20D**) but, at 4 h, although the only oocytes that had not reached PMI were those of the WT genotype, the oocytes without the two types of receptors (CB1 and CB2) had the highest amount of oocytes at GV (**Fig. 4.20D**). Thereafter, at 8h and 12h, the oocytes of WT and *Cnr2*^{-/-} genotypes accelerated their maturation process in comparison with the genotypes lacking the CB1 receptor (*Cnr1*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}), in fact, at 12 h, almost all the oocytes of WT and *Cnr2*^{-/-} have reached the MII (**Fig. 4.20E** and **4.20F**). Finally, at 17h of maturation, most oocytes of *Cnr1*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} genotypes had also been able to reach MII stage (**Fig 4.20G**).

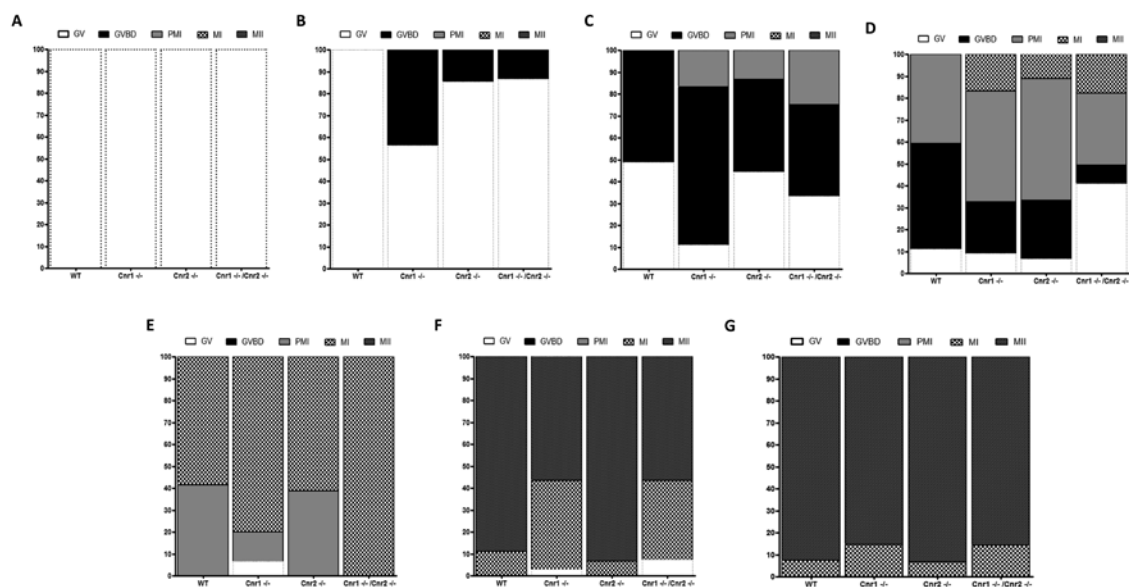


Figure 4.20 Changes in nuclear status of oocytes throughout maturation. Results are expressed as percentage of oocytes at each stage of maturation at each time point: (A) 0 h (B) 1 h (C) 2 h (D) 4 h (E) 8 h (F) 12 h and (G) 17 h. Five stages are shown in different colours: germinal vesicle (GV), germinal vesicle breakdown (GVBD), pro-metaphase I (PMI), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII).

Developmental capacity of oocytes recovered from unprimed ovaries following prolonged pre-IVM and IVM

Experiments were set up to evaluate developmental competence of oocytes undergoing the Pre-IVM called step, followed by an IVM culture period in absence or presence of 10^{-7} M of THC.

Following the Pre-IVM culture period, the oocytes from almost all culture conditions showed a high rate of meiotic resumption compared to those who did not mature with the previous stage (**Fig. 4.21A**). Even so, only the cumulus cell-oocyte complexes (COCs) incubated in Pre-IVM medium for 48 h followed by maturation with THC 10^{-7} M had a significant high occurrence of PB oocytes (69.2%) in comparison to control IVM media ($P < 0.05$). In addition, those COCs incubated directly in IVM media with THC 10^{-7} M exceeded the percentage of PB (60.5%) reached in the control of the Pre-IVM (57.5%).

After measuring the diameter of the mature oocytes, the same pattern as the previous results was maintained (**Fig. 4.21B**), although COCs obtained after Pre-IVM culture reached a larger mean of diameter than COCs cultured directly in IVM medium, only those COCs that were matured with THC 10^{-7} M had a significantly larger diameter than the COCs cultured in IVM medium. In fact, those COCs incubated with THC got the largest diameter. Finally, is interesting to note that when COCs were incubated with THC directly in IVM medium, the diameter of the COCs did not differ from the diameter found in the Pre-IVM conditions.

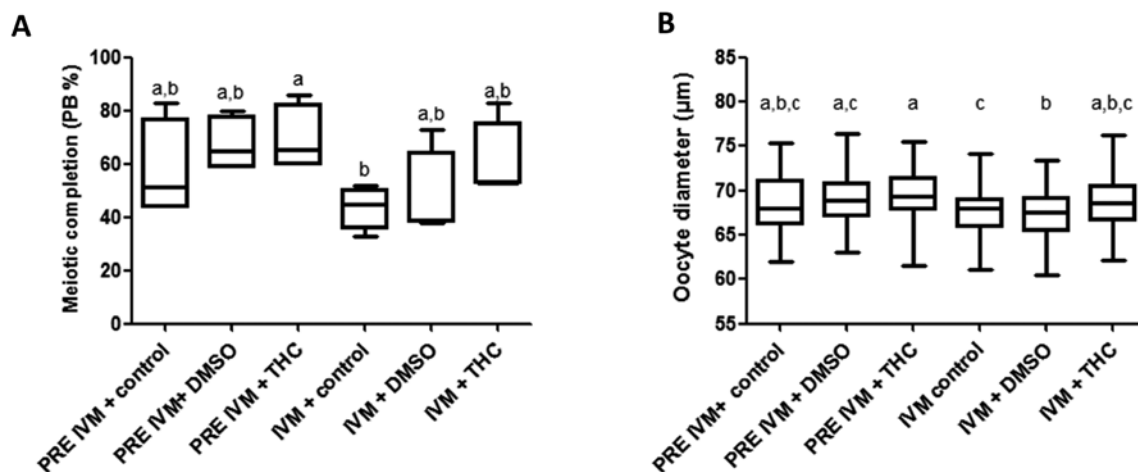


Figure 4.21 Evaluation of THC in meiotic maturation : meiotic completion up to (A) PB extrusion and (B) diameter of MII oocytes. Oocytes were collected from unprimed mice following Pre-IVM step in the presence of CNP conditions or without doing the Pre-IVM step. Then, the IVM was performed in presence or in absence of THC 10^{-7} M. Results are the mean \pm S.E.M. of 4 independent experiments. At least 60 MII oocytes/treatment were measured. Significant differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; $p < 0.05$ in all cases.

Evaluation of the developmental competence of prepuberal mice oocytes

The last objective was to evaluate the developmental competence of oocytes undergoing Pre-IVM followed by an IVM culture period in presence of THC 10^{-7} M, observing the fertilization and the subsequent embryo development rate. Following IVM, the oocytes were *in vitro* fertilized, and embryos were cultured up to Day 5.

There were no significant differences in fertilization rate (two-cell) between the different culture and treatments (Fig. 4.22A and 4.22B). Nevertheless, although the blastocyst rates of Pre-IVM and then matured in presence of THC 10^{-7} M was higher than controls and *in vivo* matured oocytes, that difference was not significant (Fig. 4.22C). However, in the unique medium where we obtained blastocysts from COCs cultured directly in IVM medium (without Pre-IVM step) was where the COCs were matured in the presence of THC (Fig. 4.22D).

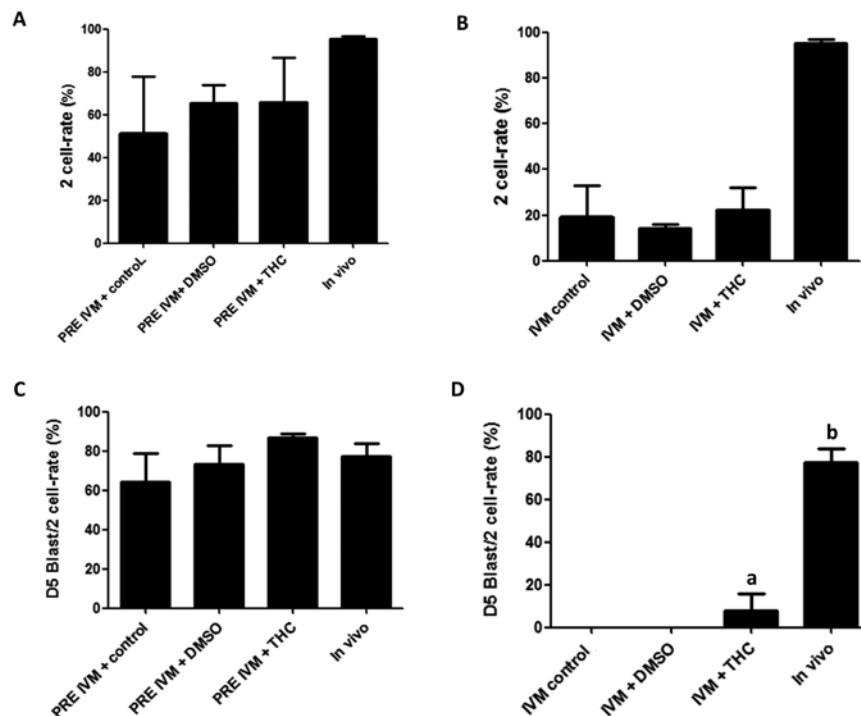


Figure 4.22 Evaluation of THC in developmental competence of oocytes collected from unprimed prepuberal mice.

Oocytes were collected from unprimed mice (A and C) following Pre-IVM step in the presence of CNP conditions or (B and D) without doing the Pre-IVM step. Then, the IVM was performed in presence or in absence of THC 10^{-7} M. Finally, the oocytes were *in vitro* fertilized and embryos were cultured for up to 5 days. Evaluation parameters were (A and B) 2-cell rate and (C and D) blastocyst formation on Day 5 related to 2-cell rate (D5 Blast/2-cell). Results are the mean \pm S.E.M. of 4 independent experiments. Differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; $p < 0.05$ in all cases.

Discussion

The results of the present study indicate that the lack of cannabinoid receptors affects the oocyte development, from the morphology of the ovary to the development of follicles and the maturation of oocytes. Even so, the use of THC in the medium during the maturation of wild type oocytes *in vitro* improves the maturation process, especially if the oocytes have passed a “pre-maturation” stage prior to *in vitro* maturation (IVM).

Endocannabinoid system (ECS) is present in the hypothalamus, pituitary (Gammon *et al.*, 2005) and ovary (Galiègue *et al.*, 1995; El-Talatini *et al.*, 2009a) and, therefore, the negative effects of cannabinoids (CBs) described in reproduction may come from their action at different levels of the hypothalamic-pituitary-ovary (HPO) axis. The most accepted hypothesis is that exogenous CBs exert untoward effects on reproduction by reducing GnRH secretion (Gammon *et al.*, 2005), preventing this hormone from stimulating the release of gonadotropins [follicle stimulating hormone (FH) and luteinizing hormone (LH)] and suppressing gonadal function (Brents, 2016). This idea is supported by the observation that the peripheral administration of exogenous GnRH restores LH secretion in CB-treated animals (Ayalon *et al.*, 1977; Tyrey, 1978; Smith *et al.*, 1979). It has been described that it would be the CB1 receptor which regulates GnRH synthesis and release (Scorticati *et al.*, 2004; Meccariello *et al.*, 2008; Chianese *et al.*, 2011), although, it has also been postulated that the activation of CB1 modulates the LH release at pituitary level (Wenger *et al.*, 2001). In addition, it has been demonstrated a direct inhibitory effect of THC on folliculogenesis due to the interference with several FSH-dependent functions, inhibiting the accumulation of estrogens and progesterone as well as inhibiting the increase of LH receptors (Adashi *et al.*, 1983). In summary, it is known that the regulation of the ECS and HPO axis are linked, although the mechanisms underlying this link it is not fully known (Brents, 2016).

Another observation that reinforces the idea of the well-regulated ECS is required for the optimal function of HPO axis is that, not only cannabinoid treatment but also the lack of cannabinoid receptors causes a decrease in the levels of GnRH, FSH and 17- β -estradiol (Cacciola *et al.*, 2013), as well as, LH (Wenger *et al.*, 2001; Oláh *et al.*, 2008). In addition, it is postulated that around the 40% of *Cnr1*^{-/-} mice show pregnancy loss (Wang *et al.*, 2004).

After the analysis of the experiments carried out in this work, we have understood the effects on the ovary, folliculogenesis and maturation of the oocytes due to the lack of cannabinoid receptors. Thus, mice without CB1 or CB2 cannabinoid receptors generated smaller ovaries, which was accentuated when none of the receptors was present. This observation was reinforced by data that showed that CB-KO mice had fewer ovarian follicles compared to WT mice. Our observations indicate that the absence of cannabinoid receptors worsens the functional life span of the ovaries due to that life span is determined by the number of oocytes in the ovary, in fact, the infertility is characterised by a gradual decrease in follicle quantity and quality (Shi *et al.*, 2016).

Ovarian stimulation is widely used to improve the efficiency of oocyte production (Takeo *et al.*, 2019), but it is interesting to note how the ovarian stimulation with eCG did not generate an ovarian size growth as pronounced as in WT mice when cannabinoid receptors were absent. That fact probably was due to the less effect that eCG generated in CB-KO mice, since mutant mice for cannabinoid receptors showed less competent follicles than WT mice (the majority of the follicles in CB-KO mice are primordial and primary) after eCG administration. Following this observation, when we analysed the type of oocytes achieved from antral follicles punctured with needles, although the total amount of oocytes only was significantly less in $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice, both $Cnr1^{-/-}$ and $Cnr1^{-/-}/Cnr2^{-/-}$ mice achieved a smaller number of expanded oocytes than WT mice. This fact is important because the meiotic competence is different between the different types of oocytes, since it has been demonstrated in equine species that only 21% of compact oocytes mature while 71% of expanded ones reach the MII stage (Hinrichs, 2010b).

Finally, although almost all the extracted oocytes at GV stage reached the MII stage in all studied genotypes, we observed an evident acceleration in the first steps of maturation of the oocytes without cannabinoid receptors, more or less, until reaching the stage of MI, because from MI the maturation was decelerated, especially in oocytes without CB1. It is accepted that the failures in the acquisition of nuclear and cytoplasmic maturation (i.e. condensed chromatin configuration, transcriptionally silencing) compromise the obtaining of oocyte development capacity and reduces the successful fertilization and subsequent embryonic development (Coticchio *et al.*, 2015; Sánchez *et al.*, 2017). Even so, it is difficult to know only by observing the velocity of maturation if an acceleration or a deceleration will lead to some improvement or some failure in maturation. For example, a systemic treatment with a CB2 agonist accelerates meiotic progression of fetal oocytes, but decreasing the pool of primordial and primary follicles, negatively affecting the ovarian reserve in the offspring (De Domenico *et al.*, 2017). The acceleration in the first steps of nuclear maturation also occurs when the bovine or mice WT oocytes are incubated *in vitro* with CB agonists during the IVM (López-Cardona *et al.*, 2016), or deceleration when mice oocytes are incubated with CB antagonists (Ceconi *et al.*, 2019). Even so, in the case of CB agonists, up to 50% more blastocysts are achieved compared to the control (López-Cardona *et al.*, 2016). However, these oocytes matured in the presence of cannabinoids also arrive earlier at MII stage (López-Cardona *et al.*, 2016), unlike the KO oocytes used in the present work that slowed maturation after reaching MI. The biggest difference is that, as we just said, while incubating with cannabinoids during IVM improves the achievement of embryos, when CB1-KO oocytes are used to perform IVF, 40-60% less blastocysts are achieved compared to WT oocytes (López-Cardona *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, it seems that the maturation pattern observed in CB-KO oocytes is not the most appropriate.

Considering all the data exposed so far, it appears that the alteration of the systemic ECS affects the stages prior to the oocyte maturation, but, in the same way, the cannabinoids are able to improve the oocytes IVM. Thus, as one of the biggest challenges is to develop systems to improve the developmental competence of oocytes and to adapt culture conditions to the stage-dependent oocyte needs (Sánchez *et al.*, 2017), our last objective was to test if the exposure to THC could improve oocyte competence acquisition from small antral follicles from juvenile unprimed mice without eCG stimulation. The intention was to try to improve the synchronization of meiotic and cytoplasmic maturation in antral oocytes arrested at the immature GV-stage introducing a pre-maturation step during which meiotic

arrest was imposed via CNP, a “natural oocyte maturation inhibitor” (Romero *et al.*, 2016) and then, to perform the IVM in presence of THC. Thus, we observed that those oocytes reached a significantly higher polar body rate and a larger diameter when, after a Pre-IVM step for 48 h, were matured with THC. In addition, the best result on blastocysts rate was achieved when THC was used after a Pre-IVM step. In fact, when the Pre-IVM step was not used, blastocysts were only achieved in the medium with THC.

In conclusion, we have shown that the lack of cannabinoid signalling causes damages to the ovarian function. In addition, since studies to date report a damage to reproduction due to a systemic overexposure to cannabinoids, our study raises the idea that, at least, the *in vitro* use of cannabinoids in the oocyte maturation process could yield positive results.

5

Eztabaida orokorra
General discussion

5. Eztabaida orokorra

Gaur egun, gero eta gehiago dira ugalketa tekniken laguntza behar dutenak haurdun geratu ahal izateko, bai ugalkortasunarekin lotutako arazoak emendatu direlako (haurdun geratu nahi duten bikoteen % 15-20) (*Siristatidis eta lank., 2018*) baita familia ereduak aldatu direlako ere (*Jose-miller eta lank. 2007; Gonzalez eta Morgado 2008*). Lagunduriko ugalketa tekniken artean, badago berebiziko garrantzia duen bat obozitoa ernaldia izateko: obozitoen *in vitro* heltzea (ingelesez, *in vitro maturation*, IVM). IVM teknikan, pazienteari, hormonekin estimulatutako gabeko obarioetatik edo estimulazio txikia jaso duten obarioetatik, heldu gabeko obozitoak erazten zaizkio eta hazkuntza-ingurunean heltzen dira, ondoren, *in vitro* ernalketa (ingelesez, *in vitro fertilization*, IVF) edo espermatozoide-injekzio intrazitoplasmatikoa (ingelesez, *intracytoplasmic sperm injection*, ICSI) tekniken bidez haurdunaldia lortzen saiatzeko (*Barnes eta lank., 1995, 1996*). IVM teknika Pincus eta Enzmann-ek (1934) proposatu zuten 1934an. Hala ere, 1991 urtera arte ez zen IVM bidezko lehenengo giza haurdunaldia deskribatu (*Cha et al., 1991*). Trounson eta lankideek obario polikistikoko sindromea (ingelesez, *Polycystic ovary syndrome*, PCOS) zeukaten emakumeentzako ugalketa-teknika bezala plazaratu zuten, gonadotropinak induzituriko obarioen hiperestimulazio sindromea pairatzeko arriskua murrizten duelako (*Trounson eta lank., 1994*). Kontrolaturiko obarioen hiperestimulazio oso erabilia da ahalik eta obozito heldu gehien ekoizteko *in vitro* ernalketarako tratamenduan eta enbrioien transferentziaren arrakasta-tasa hobetzeko (*Lu eta lank., 2018*). 1990ko hamarkadan IVM teknikaren bidezko lehenengo jaiotzaz geroztik (*Cha eta lank., 1991*) 5.000 haur baino gehiago jaio dira munduan teknika hori erabiliz (*Lu eta lank., 2018*).

Animalia ereduetan, adibidez, txerrietan (*Hirao eta lank., 1994*) eta behietan (*Van den Hurk eta lank., 2000; Hirao eta lank., 2013; Dieci eta lank., 2016*), IVM bihurtu da abereen hazkuntzarako metodo arrakastatsuen, eta baita enbrioien zelula amen teknologian, klonazioan eta animalia transgenikoen ekoizpenean ere (*Herta eta lank., 2018*). IVM teknikak kostu baxuagoak eta albo-ondorio gutxiago dituen arren, gizakiei bideraturiko lagunduriko ugalkortasunean gutxi erabiltzen den teknika da oraindik (ziklo guztien % 1 baino gutxiagotan) (*Lu eta lank., 2018*), alde batetik, bestelako tekniken emaitzen erabateko arrakasta-mailara heldu ez delako eta, bestetik, haren inguruan dagoen ezjakintasunagatik. Hala ere, teknika horren ezarpenak aurrerapen kualitatiboak suposatuko luke. Ugalkortasuna babesteko eman den jakintzaren eta garapenaren emendioak etorkizun eta bide berriak zabaldu dizkio IVMaren esparruari. Izan ere, balizko paziente kopurua asko handitu da (*Delvigne eta Rozenberg 2002; Grynberg eta lank., 2013; Luciano eta lank., 2013; Coticchio, eta lank., 2015; Halupczok, eta lank., 2015; Lee eta lank., 2015; Nikseresht M eta lank., 2015*).

Azken urteetan folikulugenesia, obogenesisia eta obozitoen heltze-prozesua erregulatzen dituzten mekanismo biologikoen ezagutza handituz joan da eta jakintza horrek aplikazio klinikorako bidea erraztu du (*Herta eta lank., 2018*). Ugaztun emeen obozitoen heltze-prozesua ugalkortasunean garrantzia handia duen prozesua da, obulua ernaldia izateko ezinbestekoa delako. Baina, jakina den horretaz gain, gero eta ebidentzia gehiago dago obozitoaren kalitateak zeharo eragiten duela ernalketan eta enbrioien garapen egokian. Esaterako, azken urteetan gora egin duen gurasotasun berantiarrek zelula germinalen kalitatean eragina du eta, horrek, haurdunaldi arrunta izateko arazoak dakartzala erakutsi du (*Munné eta lank., 1995*;

Dailey eta lank., 1996; *Munné eta lank.*, 2007). Obozitoen kalitatearen determinatzaile nagusienetariko bat obozitoaren beraren heltze-prozesua da nahiz eta, oraindik, gutxi dakigun obozitoaren kalitateari buruz eta haren kalitatea egokia izateko parte hartzen duen makinaria guztiaren inguruan (*Gilchrist eta lank.*, 2008).

Ez da arraroa gure ikerketa taldeak IVM teknika hobetzeko intentzioarekin, sistema kannabinoideak eduki lezakeen parte hartzeari erreparatzea. Izan ere, sistema kannabinoidea ugalkortasunean inplikatur dagoela baieztatu da: gametogenesisian, ernalketan, enbrioaren ezarpenean, plazentazioan, haurdunaldian eta erditzean (*Battista, eta lank.* 2008, *Maccarrone*, 2009). Gainera, sistema kannabinoidean parte hartzen duen makinaria guztia ugal-aparatuko organo, ehun eta zeluletan dagoela frogatu da (*Brents*, 2016; *Schuel eta lank.*, 2002a; *El-Talatini eta lank.*, 2009a,b; *Bagavandoss eta lank.*, 2010; *Peralta eta lank.*, 2011; *López-Cardona eta lank.*, 2016; *López-Cardona eta lank.*, 2017). Baina, guretzat garrantzitsua dena eta gure ikerketa-lerro honen hasiera suposatzen zuena izan zen, ikusi dela kannabinoideek eragiten duten seinaleztapena eta obozitoen heltze-prozesua hasteko gertatu behar den seinaleztapena oso antzekoak direla. Esan bezala, hortaz oharturik, 2010ko hamarkada honetan, gure ikerketa-taldea prozesuan lagungarriak izan zitezkeen estekatzailerik interesgarrien bila hasi zen. Izan ere, gure lan-taldeak, saguen (*López-Cardona eta lank.*, 2017) behien (*López-Cardona eta lank.*, 2016) eta gizakien (*Peralta eta lank.*, 2011) obozitoen meiosiaren berraktibazioan CB1 eta CB2 kannabinoide-hartzaileak identifikatu ditu, bai RNA mezulari mailan bai proteina-mailan ere.

Tesi honetako emaitzen lehenengo bi kapituluak gure ikerketa-taldeko lehenengo lanen artean barne bildu ditzakegu. Alde batetik, giza obozitoetan kannabinoideentzako degradazio-entzimak, FAAH eta MAGLa, espresatzen zirela deskribatu genuen. Are gehiago, obozitoaren heltze-prozesuko etapa bakoitzean (GV, MI eta MII) CB1a, FAAH eta MAGLa proteinen lokalizazio denborala aldatzen joaten dela erakutsi genuen. Beste alde batetik, giza pikor-geruzako zeluletan kannabinoide-hartzaileak, CB1a eta CB2a, eta endokannabinoideen andeatzea katalizatzen duten bi entzimak, FAAH eta MGLLa, lokalizatu genituen obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan zehar. Aurkikuntza hori oso interesgarria izan zen, izan ere, obulazioan, pikor-geruzako kumuluko zelulak-obozito konplexua (ingelesez, *cumulus-oocyte complex*, COC) askatzen da eta obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan oso garrantzitsua da obozitoaren eta pikor-geruzako zelulen arteko bi norabideko komunikazioa. Hau da, pikor-geruzako zelulek ere obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan parte hartzen duten mekanismoak erregulatzen dituzte (*Albertini eta lank.*, 2001). Jakinaenez anandamidaren (AEA) kontzentrazioa altuagoa dela obozito helduak dituen folikuluen likidoan heldu gabeko obozitoak dituzten folikuluetan baino (*El-Talatini eta lank.*, 2009b), gure lehenengo emaitza horien ondorioz, endokannabinoideen seinaleztapenak folikulugenesia, obulazioa edota obozitoen heltze-prozesua modulatu lezakeela pentsatzera eramaten gintuen, hipotesi modura, behinik behin.

Deskribatu da meiosiaren berraktibazioa zein geldialdia cAMParen kontzentrazioak baldintzatzen duela eta cAMParen kontzentrazioaren aldaketa hori, hormonon estimulazioaz gain, G proteinen familia bidez aktibaturiko seinaleztapen bideek eragin lezaketela. Frogatu da obozitoan lokalizatzen den GPR3 hartzaileak meiosiaren geldiaraztea mantendu lezakeela (*Mehlmann eta lank.*, 2004) eta horrek indartu egin du G proteinei loturiko hartzaileen funtzioa heltze-prozesuaren baitan (*Mehlmann eta lank.*, 2005). G_{ai} azpiunitateak AC inaktibatzeke pizten duen bidezidorra eta, ondorioz, cAMPa murrizten dela,

ondo zehaztuta dago (Simonds, 1999) eta saguan eta arratoian G_{ai} -k inaktibatzen dituen AC isoforma desberdinak deskribatu dira (Hanoune eta Defer, 2001). Hori guztia kontuan izanda, gure hipotesiari forma ematen jarraitzeko, pentsatu genuen agian GPCR inhibitzaileak, eta hortaz, CB1 edo/eta CB2 hartzaileak, meiosis berraktibatu lezaketela heltze-prozesuan, izan ere, onartua da kannabinoide-hartzaileak AC inaktibatzean cAMPA murrizten dutela (Francis eta lank., 2002); obozitoek behar duten seinalea meiosis berraktibatzeke (Mehlmann, 2005), alegia.

Beraz, kannabinoide-hartzaileek meiosiaren berraktibazioan parte hartuko balute, posiblea litzateke exogenoki kannabinoideen bidez meiosis berraktibatu eta *in vitro* heltze-prozesua modulatzeko?

Bada, behiekin eta saguekin egindako esperimentuetan ikusi da kannabinoide sintetikoak erabiliz gure hipotesi hori baieztatzen dela (López-Cardona eta lank., 2016; López-Cardona eta lank., 2017). Hain zuzen ere, HU-210 heltze-mediora gehitzean, obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan garrantzitsuak diren eta meiosis erregulatzen duten AKT eta ERK1/2 kinasen fosforilazio patroietan aldaketak antzeman ziren (López-Cardona eta lank., 2016; López-Cardona eta lank., 2017), batez ere, CB1 hartzailearen bidez (López-Cardona eta lank., 2017). Gainera, behietan enbrioaren kalitatearekin erlazionaturiko geneen adierazpena emendatu zen (López-Cardona eta lank., 2016).

Ikusirik kannabinoideak obozitoaren heltze-prozesua modulatzeko gai direla, THC fitokannabinoideak IVM prozesuan duen papera karakterizatzea izan zen hurrengo pausoa. Izan ere, THCak interes handia piztu du haren analogo sintetikoak (dronabinol eta nabilona) erabilera medikorako baimenduak izan direnetik (Dinis-Oliveira, 2016). Hala ere, fitokannabinoideen erabilera, kasu honetan THCarena, beste edozein kannabinoide sintetikorekin alderatuta errazagoa eta fidakorra da klinikara eramateko (Wiley eta lank., 2014; Kowal eta lank., 2016; Schreiber eta lank., 2019). Baina nola justifikatu daitezke THCak eragiten dituen albo-ondorioak, batez ere, antsietatea, paranoia, memoria eta lokomozioaren narriadura (Hill eta lank., 2017a)? Sintoma kaltegarriak, adibidez, psikotikoak, bakanak izan arren, batez ere, THC dosi altuen aurrean ager daitezke (40-300 µg/kg). Prozesu horietako asko kortex aurrefrontalaren jardueraren araberakoak dira, erabakiak hartzeko prozesuekin eta kontrol kognitiboarekin lotutako jarduera neuronala koordinatzen duen burmuinaren atala (Gilman eta lank., 2019). Baina obozitoen *in vitro* heltzerako THCarekin egindako tratamenduan, esan bezala, exogenoki gehitzen den THCa obozitoarekin bakarrik dago kontaktuan, eta soilik 17 orduz (heltze-prozesuak saguetan irauten duen denbora). THC erabiltzeko modu segurua izan zitekeela baieztatu genuen ez baigenuen apoptosirik behatu THCarekin trataturiko obozitoetan ez eta pikor-geruzako zeluletan ere, de Domenico eta lankideek (2017) antzeman bezala kannabinoide sintetiko batekin (JWH-133) egindako tratamendu sistemikoaren ostean.

Ondo ezarria dago *in vitro* heltze-prozesua atzeratu egiten dela *in vivo* prozesuarekin alderatuta (Chian eta lank. 2004), baina kannabinoideen bidez obozitoak exogenoki heltzean behietan meiosiaren berraktibazioa azkarrago gertatzen da GVaren haustura aurreratzen delako (López-Cardona eta lank., 2016). Guk ere, THCa erabiliz *in vitro* heltze-prozesuan, CB1 hartzaileak periferiarantz azkarrago migratzen duela baieztatu dugu. Izan ere, CB1 hartzailearen mugimendua obozitoaren nukleotik, GV fasean, periferiara antzeman da behian (López-Cardona eta lank. 2016) eta saguan (López-Cardona eta

lank. 2017, gure lan honetan). Beraz, G proteinei loturiko hartzaileen teoriari jarraiki, hau da, GPCRrek zelularen gainazala eskuratu behar dutela lan egin ahal izateko (*Cahill eta lank.* 2007), baliteke CB1 hartzailea aktibo bilakatzea obozitoen heltze-prozesuan zehar. Gainera, lokalizazio dinamika hainbat animalia eredutan mantentzeak iradoki liezaguke sistema endokannabinoidea, CB1 hartzailearen bidez, ondo kontserbaturiko mekanismoa izan daitekeela ugaztunen obozitoen heltze-prozesuan. Hala ere, nahiz eta CB2 hartzaileak ez duen lokalizazio denboralaren dinamikan desberdintasunik erakutsi, azpimarratu behar dugu, gure lan honetan, CB2a lehenengo aldiz lokalizatu dugula periferian. Aurretiaz aipaturiko GPCRren teoria klasikoaren arabera, baliteke bai CB1a bai CB2a aktibo egotea obozitoen heltze-prozesuan. Zenbait datuk hipotesi hori indartuko lukete, izan ere, badirudi GPCR-G_{ai}-ek (CB1 eta CB2 hartzaileek duten alfa subunitate nagusia) meiosiaren berraktibazioa bultzatzen dutela (*Mehlmann,* 2005).

Bestalde, aipatu bezala, obozitoaren heltze-prozesuan hainbat seinaleztapen bidezidor daude inplikatuak, besteak beste, MPFaren aktibazioa bultzatzen duten PI3K/AKT eta MAPK bidezidorrak (*Schmitt eta Nebreda* 2002, *Cecconi eta lank.* 2012; *Conti eta lank.,* 2012). Alde batetik, mielinaren 1 transkripzio faktorea (MYT1) MPF konplexuaren kinasa inhibitzailearik handiena, AKT proteinaren jardueraren bidez inhibitzen da, meiosiaren berraktibazioa estimulatuz (*Okumura eta lank.,* 2002). Saguen eta arratoien obozitoetan behatu da AKTaren jarduera blokeatzerakoan cdc25-ren jarduera ere murrizten dela eta, ondorioz, meiosiaren berraktibazioa atzeratu (*Kalous eta lank.,* 2009). Aldiz, obozitoak kannabinoideen presentzian heltzerakoan AKTaren fosforilazioa aurreratzen da behien pikor-geruzako zeluletan eta obozitoan (*López-Cardona eta lank.,* 2016) eta guk ere, THCa erabiltzean, emaitza berdina behatu dugu saguetan. Horrek ere, obozitoen *in vitro* heltze-prozesuko kannabinoideen rol azeleratzaile bat iradokiko luke. Beste alde batetik, MAPK bidezidorrari dagokionez, gaur egun, IVM protokolo batzuetan EGF hartzailearen bidezko seinaleztapen bidezidorrak erabiltzen dira meiosis berraktibatzeke eta frogatu da hartzaile horren bitartez ERK1/2a aktibatzen dela, obozitoaren eta pikor-geruzako zelulen arteko Gap loturak apurtuz (*Su eta lank.,* 2002; *Fan eta lank.,* 2009). Horrek guztiak cAMParen beherakada eragiten du, kumuluko pikor-geruzako zelulak hedatzen dira eta, beraz, meiosiaren aktibazioa hasten da (*Gonzalez-Robayna eta lank.,* 2000; *Wayne eta lank.,* 2007). ERK1/2 proteinak paper garrantzitsua dauka obozitoen heltze-prozesuan, beharrezkoa baita mikrotubuluaren antolaketan, ardatz mitotikoaren muntaduran eta ernalketa ondorengo pronukleoaren eraketarako (*Fan eta Sun,* 2004). Gure emaitzek erakusten dute ERKren aktibazio-maila gorena obozitoa heldua denean (MII) ematen dela eta kannabinoideek EGFa eta beste heltze-promotore batzuen antzerako efektuak (*Conti eta lank.,* 2012) erakusten dituztela. Izan ere, THC fitokannabinoidearen presentzian heldu ondoren, proteina horren fosforilazio-patroia aldatu egiten da, aktibazio hori pikor-geruzako zeluletan zein obozitoan azkartuz, *López-Cardona eta lankideek* (2016) behietan kannabinoide sintetikoekin frogatu bezala.

Orokorrean, barne-sistema kannabinoidea exogenoki modulatzeko, hipotalamo-hipofisi-obario ardatzaren erregulazioa eraldatzen da eta, ondorioz, ugalketa-sisteman kalteak sortzen dira (*Gammon eta lank.,* 2005; *Brents,* 2016). Baina, era berean, barne-sistema kannabinoidearen adierazpen asaldaturik ugalkortasun murriztuarekin erlazionatu da (*Brents,* 2016). Alde batetik, frogatu da kannabinoide-hartzaileen faltak HPO ardatzeko hormonien askapena inhibitzen duela (*Wenger eta lank.,* 2001; *Oláh eta lank.,* 2008). Bestaldetik, deskribatu da CB1 hartzailea obozitoetan ez egoteak enbrioaren garapenean

akatsak eragiten dituela (*López-Cardona eta lank., 2017*). Gainera, publikatu da *Cnr1*^{-/-} genotipoko saguen % 40 inguruk haurdunaldiaren galera erakusten duela (*Wang eta lank., 2004*). Hala ere, orain arte ez zen ezagutzen zer gertatzen zen obarioen morfologian, folikulugenesian eta obozitoen heltze-prozesuan kannabinoideen seinaleztapena ezabatzen zenean, eta hori izan da gure esperimenduek ekarri duten berrikuntza. Zentzu horretan, esan dezakegu aurretik geneukan susmoa baieztatu dugula, izan ere, gure emaitzek iradokitzen dute CB1 hartzailearen gabeziak efektu kaltegarriak dituela obarioaren morfologian (kontrolarekin alderatuz azalera eta bolumen txikiagoko obulutegiak dituzte), folikulugenesian (folikulu gutxiago dituzte kontrolarekin alderatuz eta eCG tratamenduaren aurrean ez dute ondo erantzuten), obulatzen duten obozitoen kalitatean (obozito hedatuen kopuru baxuagoa erakusten baitute) eta meiosiaren progresioan (obozitoaren nukleoaren heltzean sinkronizazio falta nabari da, besikula germinalaren apurketa aurreratzen da baina MII fasera beranduago heltzen dira). Are gehiago, CB2 hartzailearen galerak aipatu berri ditugun prozesu horietan akats hain esanguratsuak sortzen ez dituen arren, kannabinoide-hartzaile biak ez egoteak areagotu egiten du kaltea, batez ere, obulutegien tamaina txikiagoak eta folikulu kopuru gutxiago aurkituz; CB2 hartzaileak ere garrantzia duela erakutsiz. Ez hori bakarrik, eCG hormonaren eraginkortasuna ere kaltetua ikusi da KO animalietan. Ondorioz, badirudi kannabinoide-hartzaileen faltak obulutegien bizitza funtzionala eta kalitatea okertzen duela. Hain zuzen ere, antzutasuna obulutegien folikuluen kantitatearen eta kalitatearen beherakadaren ondorioa da (*Shi eta lank., 2016*) eta obozitoen garapen gaitasuna folikuluen tamainagatik eta kalitateagatik baldintzatua egon daiteke (*Otoi eta lank., 1997*).

Hortaz, orain arte azaldutako aurrekari guztiek eta gure emaitzek iradoki badute sistema kannabinoidearen parte-hartzea obozitoen heltze-prozesuan, ez litzateke harritzekoa pentsatzea kannabinoideen bidezko modulazio exogenoa lagungarria izan litekeela, esaterako, *in vitro* heltzean. Hori dela eta, heltze-prozesuan THCaren eragina baieztatzeko (heldutako obozito horien garapen gaitasunean eta garapen meiotikoan, hain zuzen), THCaren presentzian heldutako obozitoak *in vitro* ernaldutako genituen eta lortutako blastozistorainoko enbrioi-tasa aztertu genuen. Eta esperimendu horiek erakutsi zituzten emaitzarik interesgarrienak izan dira, aurkeztu dugun bezala, blastozisto kopuru bikoitza eskuratu genuela THCrik gabe heldutako obozitoekin alderatuta, nahiz eta ernalketa-tasari dagokionez ez genuen desberdintasunik antzeman. Gainera, THCaren eragina bai CB1 eta baita CB2 hartzaileen bidez gertatzen dela ondorioztatu genuen, hartzaile horietariko bat edo biak falta zirenean THC ez zelako gai izan blastozistoen tasa emendatzeko kontrolarekin alderatuta. Emaitza horiek bat datoz aurretik kannabinoide sintetikoekin egindako lanekin (*López-Cardona eta lank., 2017*), THCaren balioa indartuz obozitoen heltze-prozesua hobetzeko.

IVM prozeduraren ahulguneetariko bat da *in vivo* heldutako obozitoekin alderatuz, *in vitro* obozitoen heldutasun-maila eta blastozistoen tasa baxuagoak direla nahiz eta ernalketa-tasak antzerakoan diren (*Lu eta lank., 2018*). Eta badirudi arazoaren muina heltze zitoplasmatikokoan egotea. Izan ere, nahiz eta nukleo mailan heldu diren obozitoak ernalduak izan daitezkeen, baliteke ondorengo garapenean arazoak izatea obozitoen heltze-prozesu osorako beharrezkoak diren faktore zitoplasmatikokoetan gabeziak egon direlako (*Herta eta lank., 2018*). Hau da, garapen gaitasuna edo kapazitatea bukatzen ez duten obozitoak ez dira gai izango garapen egokia aurrera eramateko nahiz eta meiosis berraktibatzeke eta ernaltzeko gai izan. Adibidez, *in vitro* egiten den heltze-prozesuan gerta liteke organuluek ez amaitzea egin beharreko

ibilbidea eta horrek heltze-prozesu osoa baldintzatuko du (*Sun eta lank., 2001*). Osatu gabeko heltze zitoplasmatikoaren eraginez, ernalketan akatsak gertatzen dira, hala nola, polispermia eta pronukloen eraketaren sinkronizazio eza (*Mattioli eta lank., 1988; Moor eta lank., 1990*).

In vitro heldutako eta ernaldutako obozitoen garapen eskasaren arazoari aurre egiteko, laborategietan hainbat inhibitzaile (fisiologiko eta kimiko) erabili dira meiosiaren berraktibazioa inhibitzeko eta garatzen ari den folikuluaren barruan gertatzen dena imitatzen saiatzeko, obozitoari denbora emanaz transkriptoak metatzeko eta haren kalitate zitoplasmikoa hobetzeko. Posiblea da obozitoak meiosiaren geldiaraztean mantentzea cAMParen degradazioa ekiditen duten fosfodiesterasaren inhibitzaileekin (PDE fosfodiesterasaren inhibitzaileekin) (*Sirard, 2001*). GVa etapa oso garrantzitsua da transkripzio eta itzulpen prozesuetarako, ez bakarrik GVBD fase espezifikoko molekulentzat (*Khatir eta lank., 1998*), baizik eta enbrioiaren garapenean garrantzitsuak diren proteina eta transkripto sintesi eta biltegirako. Datu klinikoek adierazten dute IVM sistemen barruan erronka handiena dela 2 eta 8 mm bitarteko folikuluetan obozitoaren nukleoaren eta zitoplasmaren heltzea sinkronizatzea meiosiaren berraktibazioa bultzatu aurretik. Folikulu antral ertainetatik eratorritako obozitoetan nukleoaren heltzearen berraktibazio "goiztiarra" gertatzen da, eta horrek, eten egiten du ezarpenaren aurreko enbrioiaren garapena bermatzen duen "kapazitazio" prozesua (makineria zitoplasmatikoaren lorpena) (*Hyttel eta lank., 1997; Dieleman eta lank., 2002; Gilchrist eta Thompson, 2007*).

Datu horiek guztiak kontuan izanda, hurrengo belaunaldiko IVM sistemaren helburuak izango dira (1) lehenik eta behin fosfodiesterasa inhibitzaileak edo C-motako peptiko natriuretikoa (CNP) erabiliz bat-bateko meiosiaren berraktibazioa ekiditea, (2) obozitoen cAMP maila artifizialki emendatzea eta/edo, azkenik, (3) meiosiaren berraktibazioa eragitea. IVM sistema sofistikatuago horiek normalean MII obozitoen kopurua handitzea eta blastozistoen tasa hobetzea eragin nahi dute (*Herta eta lank., 2018*).

Romero eta lankideek (2016) finkatu zuten Pre-IVM protokoloa moldatuz, IVM pausuan THCa gehitu genuen. Hori eginez, ikusi dugu THCaaren presentziak sexualki garatu gabeko saguen obozitoen garapen gaitasuna emendatzen duela. CNParen bidez obozitoaren meiosis geldiarazterakoan (nukleoaren eta zitoplasmaren heltzea sinkronizatzeke) eta, ondoren, THCaaren bidez meiosis berraktibatzerakoan; alde batetik, eskuratutako obozitoek diametro handiagoak erakutsi zituzten, *in vivo* eskuratzen diren balioetatik oso gertu (*Griffin eta lank., 2006*) eta, bestetik, korpuskulu polarren tasa altuagoak lortu zituzten. Bi faktore horiek garapen gaitasunarekin zuzenean lotuta daude, izan ere, nukleoaren heltzea, besteak beste, MII fasean eskuratzen den korpuskulu polarraren agerpenarekin egiaztatu daiteke, eta heltze zitoplasmatikoa, aldiz, obozitoaren diametroarekin (*Loneragan eta lank., 1994; Romero eta lank., 2016*). Folikulu txikiagoen obozitoak, nahiz eta heldutasun nuklearra mantentzeko gai izan, zitoplasmatikoki heldugabeak direla frogatu da (*Barnes eta lank., 1991; Arlotto eta lank., 1996*), obozitoaren garapen gaitasunaren eta obozitoaren tamainaren artean erlazio zuzena dagoelako (*Otoi eta lank., 1997*). Azkeneko esperimientuetan, berriro ere, obozitoen garapen gaitasuna enbrioiaren ekoizpen-tasari erreparatuta ebaluatu genuen, eta gure hipotesia baieztatu zen, hau da, enbrioi-tasa altuagoa eskuratu zen IVM protokolo berritzailearen bidez.

Laburbilduz, tesi honetan jasotako emaitza guztiak aztertuta, ondorioztatu dezakegu sistema kannabinoideak folikulugenesia, obogenesia eta obozitoen heltze-prozesua modulatzeko duela *in vivo*. Gainera, THC fitokannabinoideak obozitoaren garapen gaitasuna hobetu dezake *in vitro* eta, obozitoen heltze-prozesua exogenoki modulatzeko THCarekin, emaitza positiboak eman ditzake IVF eta geroko enbrioi-tasari erreparatuz.

Tesi honetan egindako aurkikuntzak, beraz, erabilgarriak izan daitezke obozitoaren *in vitro* heltze-prozesua hobeto ulertzeaz gain, IVM teknikaren eraginkortasuna emendatzeko eta antzutasuna tratatzeko itxerako berrien identifikaziorako. Izan ere, THC fitokannabinoidea IVM inguruneetan osagai gisa erabiltzeak abantaila gehiago eskainiko lituzke klinikara bideratzerakoan. Azkenik, nabarmentzekoa da IVM teknikak ugalkortasun klinikara jo behar duen emakumeen bizi-kalitatea hobetuko lukeela askoz aukera onuragarriagoa, erosoagoa eta arrisku gutxiagokoa izango litzatekeelako eta, zenbait kasutan, haurdunaldia lortzeko aukera bakarra.

Hala ere, eta bukatzeko, klinikara heltzeko ziurtatu behar da THCa gehituta egindako IVM teknikaren bidez jaiotzen diren belaunaldi berriek garapen normal bat izango dutela.

Baliteke, gainera, THCa gehituta bakarrik ez lortzea guztiz IVM teknikaren arrakasta. Nolanahi ere, pauso bat izan litzateke fitokannabinoide hori gehituta “formula berri bat” topatzeko IVM ingurune eraginkor bat sortzerako bidean.

6

Ondorioak Conclusions

6. Ondorioak

1. Sistema kannabinoidea gizakiaren obozitoetan espresatzen da. Obozitoen heltze-prozesuan zehar MAGLak kokapen zitoplasmatikoa mantentzen duen bitartean, CB1aren eta FAAHren kokapena aldatzen doa zelularen periferia eta zitoplasmaren artean. Kokapen aldaketa horiek meiosiaren berraktibazioarekin lotutako mintz-proteinen funtzioaren bat iradoki dezake.
2. Gizakiaren pikor-geruzako zeluletan CB1 eta CB2 hartzaileak eta FAAH eta MAGL degradazio-entzimak espresatzen dira obozitoen heltze-prozesuan zehar, nahiz eta CB2aren presentzia oso mugatua egon. FAAHk eta MAGLak kokapen zitoplasmatikoa dute, baina FAAH ere CB1arekin kolokalizatzen da pikor-geruzako zelulen mintzean. Horrek, heltze-prozesuan zehar, AEA bezalako endokannabinoideen kontzentrazioa kontrolatzeko pikor-geruzako zelulek daukaten auto-*feedback* mekanismoa adierazi dezake.
3. Kannabinoide-hartzaileen gabeziak saguen obozitoaren garapen gaitasunean eragiten du, izan ere, obarioaren morfologian, folikuluen garapenean, obulazioan eta obozitoen heltze-prozesuan asaldurak eragiten ditu. Horrez gain, eCG hormonaren eraginkortasuna murrizten da kannabinoide-hartzaileak falta direnean. Beraz, sistema kannabinoidea emearen ugalketa-prozesuetarako bereziki garrantzitsua dela iradoki daiteke.
4. THC fitokannabinoidea obozitoen heltze-mediora gehitzean, CB1 hartzailearen lokalizazioaren denborazko dinamika aldatu egiten da saguen obozitoen *in vitro* heltze-prozesuan, nukleoaren inguruan kokatzetik periferiara azkarrago migratuz. Aldiz, mediora THC gehitu arren, CB2 hartzaileak kokapen nagusiki periferikoa mantentzen du. Hortaz, obozitoen heltze-prozesuan zehar THCak CB1aren bidez eragin dezakeela erakusten du eta, gainera, CB1 hartzailea obozitoaren heltze-nuklearraren abiaduraren adierazle egokia izan daiteke.
5. Heltze-mediora gehitutako THCaren eraginez, *in vitro* heldutako obozitoen meiosiaren berraktibazioa azkartzen da. Horrek adierazi dezake THCak obozitoen heltze-prozesuan parte hartze duela meiosiaren berraktibazioa modulatur.
6. THCak obozitoen heltze-prozesuan garrantzitsuak diren seinaleztapen-bidezidorrak aktibatzen ditu CB1 eta CB2 hartzaileen bidez, izan ere, THCaren presentzian *in vitro* heldutako sagu obozitoetan, PI3K/AKT eta MAPK bidezidorretan inplikatur dauden AKT eta ERK1/2 proteinen fosforilazio-patroian aldaketak sortzen ditu soilik WT saguetan.
7. THCaren presentzian heldutako obozitoetatik eratorritako enbrioi-tasa altuagoa da eta, badirudi, THCak hobetze-eragin hori gauzatzeko bi hartzaile kannabinoideak, CB1a eta CB2a, presente egon behar direla obozitoetan.
8. Garapen kompetentzia lortzeko beharrezkoa den Pre-IVM protokoloa moldatuz, hau da, ondoren IVM protokolora THCa gehituz, THCaren presentziak sexualki garatu gabeko saguen obozitoen garapen gaitasuna eta enbrioi-tasa emendatzen du. Ondorioz, badirudi THC fitokannabinoideak obozitoaren garapen gaitasuna hobetu dezakeela eta obozitoen heltze-prozesuan THCa *in vitro* erabiltzeak emaitza positiboak eman ditzakeela.

6. Conclusions

1. The cannabinoid system is present in human oocytes. MGLL maintains its cytoplasmic location throughout all the observed stage whereas CB1 and FAAH change their location during oocyte maturation between cellular periphery and cytoplasm. These changes in location may suggest a role for membrane proteins associated with meiotic resumption.
2. Cannabinoid receptors CB1 and CB2 and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL are present in human granulosa cells during oocyte nuclear maturation although the presence of CB2 receptor is more residual than the other compounds. FAAH and MGLL have a cytoplasmic location but CB1 and FAAH co-localized in the membrane of granulosa cells, suggesting that they could have an autotfeedback mechanism to control the concentration of endocannabinoids like AEA during the oocyte maturation.
3. The lack of cannabinoid signaling causes damages to the oocyte developmental competence. In fact, affects the oocyte development, from the morphology of the ovary to the development of follicles and the maturation of oocytes. Furthermore, the absence of cannabinoid receptors worsens the efficiency of eCG. Therefore, the endocannabinoid system would be an important modulator of female reproduction.
4. When present during IVM of oocytes, the THC accelerates the relocation of CB1 receptor in oocytes from germinal vesicle to the periphery. Nevertheless, CB2 do not show any relocation difference during the IVM in the presence of THC. CB1 receptor could be an indicator of oocyte nuclear maturation velocity and THC could modulate oocyte maturation through CB1.
5. The presence of THC during the oocyte maturation accelerate the meiotic resumption suggesting that THC could modulate oocyte maturation as meiotic inducer.
6. THC activates the PI3K/AKT and MAPK signaling pathways that are important in the oocyte maturation process through CB1 and CB2 receptors because the presence of THC during the *in vitro* oocyte maturation changes the phosphorylation-pattern of AKT and ERK1/2 only in wild type mice.
7. THC exposure during IVM led to an improvement in the blastocysts rate and it seems that both CB1 and CB2 receptors are required in the oocyte for THC to exert this potentiating effect.
8. Adapting a “pre-maturation” step following IVM in presence of THC improves the quality of oocytes from unprimed prepubertal mice as evidenced by a higher embryo rate. As a result, the *in vitro* use of THC in the oocyte maturation process could yield positive results.

7

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7. Bibliografia / References

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Argitalpenak **Publications**

8. Argitalpenak / Publications

- **Lide Totorikaguena**, Estibaliz Olabarrieta, Francesca Lolicato, Jon Romero Aguirregomezcorta, Johan Smitz, Naiara Agirregoitia and Ekaitz Agirregoitia. The endocannabinoid system modulates the physiology of the ovary and its activation can improve the maturation of the oocytes in vitro. *Under revision*.
- **Lide Totorikaguena**, Estibaliz Olabarrieta, Ángela-Patricia López-Cardona, Naiara Agirregoitia, Ekaitz Agirregoitia. Tetrahydrocannabinol Modulates in Vitro Maturation of Oocytes and Improves the Blastocyst Rates after *in Vitro* Fertilization. *Cell Physiol Biochem*. 2019;53(3):439-452. doi: 10.33594/000000149.
- Ekaitz Agirregoitia, **Lide Totorikaguena**, Antonia Expósito, Rosario Mendoza, Roberto Matorras, Naiara Agirregoitia. Expression and localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes during the maturation of human oocytes *Cell Tissue Res*. 2016 Aug;365(2):393-401.
- Ekaitz Agirregoitia, Inés Ibarra-Lecue, **Lide Totorikaguena**, Rosario Mendoza, Antonia Expósito, Roberto Matorras, Iyegre Urigüen, Naiara Agirregoitia. Dynamics of expression and localization of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells during oocyte nuclear maturation. *Fertility and Sterility* 2015. F and S20361.

8.1 Publications not included in the PhD thesis

- Asier Valdivia, Lorea Cortés, Mainer Beitia, **Lide Totorikaguena**, Naiara Agirregoitia, Beatriz Corcostegui, Roberto Matorras, Jon Irazusta, Ekaitz Agirregoitia. Role of Angiotensin-(1-7) via Mas receptor in human sperm motility and acrosome reaction. *Reproduction*. *Under revision*.
- Estibaliz Olabarrieta, **Lide Totorikaguena**, Jon Romero-Aguirregomezcorta, Naiara Agirregoitia, Ekaitz Agirregoitia. Mu opioid receptor expression and localisation in murine spermatozoa and its role in fertilisation *in vitro*. *Reproduction, Fertility and Development*. 2019. Nov 13. doi: 10.1071/RD19176.
- Estibaliz Olabarrieta, **Lide Totorikaguena**, Naiara Agirregoitia, Ekaitz Agirregoitia . Implication of mu opioid receptor in the *in vitro* maturation of oocytes and its effects on subsequent fertilization and embryo development in mice. *Mol Reprod Dev*. 2019 Sep;86(9):1236-1244. doi: 10.1002/mrd.23248.
- **Lide Totorikaguena**, Esti Olabarrieta, Roberto Matorras, Edurne Alonso, Ekaitz Agirregoitia, Naiara Agirregoitia. Mu opioid receptor in the human endometrium: dynamics of its expression and localization during the menstrual cycle. *Fertil Steril*. 2017 Apr; 107(4):1070-1077

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Appendixes

Dynamics of expression and localization of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells during oocyte nuclear maturation

Ekaitz Agirregoitia, Ph.D.,^{a,b} Inés Ibarra-Lecue, B.S.,^c Lide Totorikaguena, B.S.,^a Rosario Mendoza, B.S.,^{c,d} Antonia Expósito, Ph.D.,^{b,d} Roberto Matorras, M.D., Ph.D.,^{c,d} Leyre Urigüen, Ph.D.,^{b,c,e} and Naiara Agirregoitia, Ph.D.^{a,b}

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Objective: To describe the expression of cannabinoid receptors CB1 and CB2 and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoglyceride lipase (MGLL) in human granulosa cells and to investigate their differential distribution with respect to CB1 at various stages during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte.

Design: Analysis of granulosa cells from germinal vesicle (GV), metaphase I (MI), and MII oocytes by quantitative reverse transcriptase–polymerase chain reaction, Western blot, and indirect immunofluorescence assays.

Setting: Academic research laboratory.

Patient(s): Patients from the Human Reproduction Unit of Cruces University Hospital undergoing intracytoplasmic sperm injection.

Intervention(s): We analyzed the granulosa cells of 300 oocytes from 53 patients. The oocyte maturation stages were 75 at GV stage, 51 at MI, and 174 at MII.

Main Outcome Measure(s): The mRNA and protein expression of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL and localization in granulosa cells at each oocyte maturation stage.

Result(s): CB1, FAAH, and MGLL are present in human granulosa cells during oocyte maturation, but the presence of CB2 receptor is not entirely clear in those cells. CB1 and FAAH were detected in the periphery of the granulosa cells from the GV to the MII oocytes, and they colocalized in some portions of the cell membrane. On the other hand, MGLL immunostaining was more homogeneous across the cell and overlapped with CB1 only weakly.

Conclusion(s): The presence of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells suggests a possible role of this system in the nuclear maturation of the oocyte. (Fertil Steril® 2015;104:753–60. ©2015 by American Society for Reproductive Medicine.)

Key Words: Cannabinoid, granulosa cells, oocyte maturation

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Oocyte maturation is a highly coordinated process that includes the progression of the

oocyte from the first meiotic blockage at the germinal vesicle (GV) stage to the second meiotic blockage at the

metaphase II (MII) stage. This progression occurs inside the follicle owing to a careful communication between oocytes and granulosa cells. These granulosa cells are somatic cells that surround the oocyte, but, when the follicle antrum is formed, they separate into mural granulosa cells forming the follicle inner wall and into cumulus granulosa cells, which are closely communicated with each other and with the oocyte through gap junctions (1).

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Supported in part by a grant from the University of the Basque Country (no. GIU14/26). Reprint requests: Ekaitz Agirregoitia, Ph.D., Department of Physiology, Faculty of Medicine and Dentistry, University of the Basque Country, P.O. Box 699, E-48080 Bilbao, Bizkaia, Spain (E-mail: e.agirregoitia@ehu.es).

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Oocyte maturation can also be carried out *in vitro* as long as the oocyte is cultured without removing the surrounding granulosa cells. This cumulus-oocyte complex (COC) is the structure that is ovulated *in vivo*. For oocyte maturation bidirectional communication is necessary, via gap junctions and via paracrine signaling, between the oocyte and granulosa cells (2). In this sense, many substances from the COC have been implicated in the regulation of the oocyte maturation; some of these act once they are translocated by the gap junction, and others act on receptors present on the cumulus cells and/or the oocyte (3).

Among all these substances, the cannabinoid compounds have been highlighted in some studies. Endocannabinoids are fatty acid derivatives that exert their effects by binding to membrane Gi/o protein-coupled receptors CB1 and CB2. Anandamide (AEA) and 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) are the better characterized endocannabinoids. AEA and 2-AG are degraded by fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH), which is found on the internal membranes of cells, although 2-AG is degraded by monoglyceride lipase (MGLL) as well. Several studies have been published concerning the role of cannabinoids in the female reproductive system (4–6), and the cannabinoid receptors and degradation enzymes have been found in various parts of the mammalian female reproductive system as uterus, oviduct (7–10), preimplantation embryos, and placenta (11–13).

In regard to the oocyte maturation, it is known that AEA is present in the human follicular fluid (14) and that its concentration in follicles with mature oocytes is higher than in follicles with immature oocytes (15). The localization of the cannabinoid receptors and enzymes in rat (16) and human ovary led to the hypothesis that AEA plays a role in folliculogenesis, preovulatory follicle maturation, oocyte maturity, and/or ovulation (15). The hypothesis about oocyte maturation was reinforced with the localization of cannabinoid receptors (17) and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes (authors' unpublished data) during the nuclear maturation of human oocytes, where each protein is relocated during that maturation.

Taking into account the necessary bidirectional communication between the oocyte and the granulosa cells, our study aimed to characterize in depth, using a variety of experimental methods, the differential expression of the two cannabinoid receptors and the two degrading enzymes in human granulosa cells that surround oocytes at each stage of meiotic resumption.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Granulosa Cells Collection

Granulosa cells were obtained from 53 patients (ages 25–40 years; mean, 36.7 ± 2.6) undergoing intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) at the Human Reproduction Unit of the Cruces University Hospital. Ethical approval was obtained from the Clinical Research Ethical Committee of the Basque Health System (Osakidetza, CEIC reference no.r E07/54, 3/2008). Informed consent was obtained from all patients.

We analyzed the granulosa cells of 300 oocytes from 53 patients. Of the 300 oocytes studied, 75 were at the GV stage,

51 at MI, and 174 at MII. The main ICSI indications were male factor (79.9%) and failure of IUI. The main female-associated conditions were endometriosis (9.8%) and tubal factor (11.2%). Patients had no history of cannabinoid drug consumption.

The ovarian stimulation protocol has been published elsewhere (18, 19). Briefly, it consists of down-regulation with GnRH agonist and triptorelin acetate on a long protocol or with GnRH antagonist and the cetrorelix protocol, ovarian stimulation with recombinant FSH and highly purified urinary menopausal gonadotropins or recombinant LH, and ovulation being triggered with 250 μ g recombinant hCG.

Oocyte retrieval was performed 35–37 hours after hCG administration. Follicles were aspirated with a negative pressure of 115–120 mmHg with a single lumen 18-gauge oocyte pick-up needle (K-OPS-6035-RWH-B-ET; Cook) under transvaginal ultrasound guidance. Follicular fluids were observed at low magnification ($\times 40$ – 100) under the stereomicroscope at 37°C. The COCs were incubated for 2 hours in IVF Medium (IVF Medium, Medicult, Origio) at 37°C and 6% CO₂ in air. Immediately before micromanipulation for the ICSI procedure, oocytes were denuded from the cumulus oophorus one by one in 30- μ L droplets by a brief exposure to 40 IU/L hyaluronidase solution (Hyadase; Medicult, Origio), followed by mechanical removal of the corona radiate cells with the use of plastic pipettes of defined diameters (denuding pipette; Cook). The droplets containing the cumulus and granulosa cells after oocyte denuding were recovered in Eppendorf tubes, taking into account the nuclear maturation stage of the oocyte for separation into granulosa cells from GV, MI, or MII, and were centrifugated at 800 *g*. Finally, the medium containing the hyaluronidase solution was removed and the cells were placed at 4°C for early use or in the freezer at –80°C for later study.

Reverse Transcription

RNA from granulosa cells (obtained from 10 oocytes of each stage; *n* = 3), cerebral cortex (positive control for CB1, FAAH, and MGLL) and Jurkat cells (positive control for CB2), were isolated with the Dynabeads mRNA Purification Kit (Ambion). The procedure for obtaining the cDNA was performed with ImProm-II Reverse Transcription System (Promega). Briefly, about 150 ng of RNA and random primers were heated at 65°C for 10 minutes and chilled on ice for 5 minutes. Then, once the reverse transcription mix was added, it was annealed at 25°C for 5 minutes. A first-strand synthesis reaction was carried out at 55°C for 60 minutes, and the reverse transcriptase was inactivated at 70°C for 15 minutes.

Real-time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) Analysis

Quantitative PCR was performed in three replicates with the StepOne thermocycler using a TaqMan assay (Applied

Biosystems) specifically designed for recognizing CB1 (Hs01038522_s1), CB2 (Hs00361490_m1), FAAH (Hs01038660_m1), and MGLL (Hs00200752_m1). All the primers used were functional because we detected mRNA amplification when we used different tissues as positive controls (human cerebral cortex for CB1, FAAH, and MGLL and Jurkat cells for CB2). In addition, the controls performed in the absence of reverse transcriptase or in the absence of template were negative (data not shown).

The thermal profile for this PCR consisted of a “holding stage” of 20 seconds at 95°C and 40 cycles with two steps: 1 second at 95°C and 20 seconds at 60°C. We used GAPDH (4333764-0906029) as the endogenous control gene. The amount of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL mRNA in each sample was determined by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method with GAPDH as the reference gene. The average ΔCt of the cortex samples was used as the calibrator.

SDS/PAGE and Immunoblotting

Granulosa cells from 10 oocytes were collected and pooled ($n = 5$) in sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) sample buffer (50 mmol/L Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 5% β -mercaptoethanol, and 0.1% bromophenol blue). Human cerebral cortex membranes were prepared as described elsewhere (20). Jurkat cells were purchased from Merck Millipore (Molsheim). Gel electrophoresis was carried out in SDS polyacrylamide gels, composed of 5% stacking (0.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 10% SDS) and 12% resolving (1.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.8, 10% SDS), using a miniprotean system with molecular weight standards (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Proteins were then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (1 hour, 0.3 A) using an electrophoretic transfer system (Bio-Rad Laboratories). The nonspecific binding sites in the membranes were blocked for 1.5 hours with Tris-buffered saline with Tween (TBST; 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 140 mM NaCl) containing 5% skimmed milk. The membranes were incubated with a primary rabbit polyclonal anti-CB1 receptor antibody (1:1,000; Frontier Institute), anti-CB2 receptor antibody (1:200), anti-FAAH antibody (1:200), and anti-MGL antibody (1:200; Cayman Chemicals), overnight at 4°C and all in TBST, 5% skimmed milk and 0.1% Tween buffer. Membranes were incubated with fluorescent antirabbit IgG secondary antibody (Alexa 680 Rabbit, Invitrogen) at a dilution of 1:4,000. They were then dried and imaged using the Odyssey infrared imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences). Integrated intensities were analyzed using Excel (Microsoft Corp.) and Prism (GraphPad Software) software.

Immunofluorescence

Granulosa cells were suspended in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) + bovine serum albumin (BSA; 1 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$), smeared onto a slide coated with poly-L-lysine, and fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes. Then the slides were washed 3 times in PBS and incubated for 45 minutes in PBS/10% (v/v) bovine fetal serum and 1% Triton $\times 100$ at room temperature. For indirect immunofluorescence staining, slides were incubated with primary rabbit polyclonal

anti-CB1, anti-CB2, anti-FAAH, and anti-MGL antisera at a dilution of 1:200 overnight at 4°C. For double staining, primary goat polyclonal anti-CB1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) was used. Slides were then washed in PBS + BSA (1 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$) 3 times, incubated with Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody (Molecular Probes) for 2 hours at 37°C in the dark (1:2,500), washed in PBS + BSA (1 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$) 3 times (in all cases we stained the nuclei with Hoechst 33342 during the second wash), assembled with Fluoromount G (EMS), and finally examined by confocal microscopy. Two negative controls were performed using a specific blocking peptide for each antibody and by omitting the primary antibody before addition of the secondary antibody.

Statistics

Results shown represent mean \pm SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by analysis of variance with a post hoc analysis by Bonferroni's multiple comparison test (GraphPad Prism® 5).

RESULTS

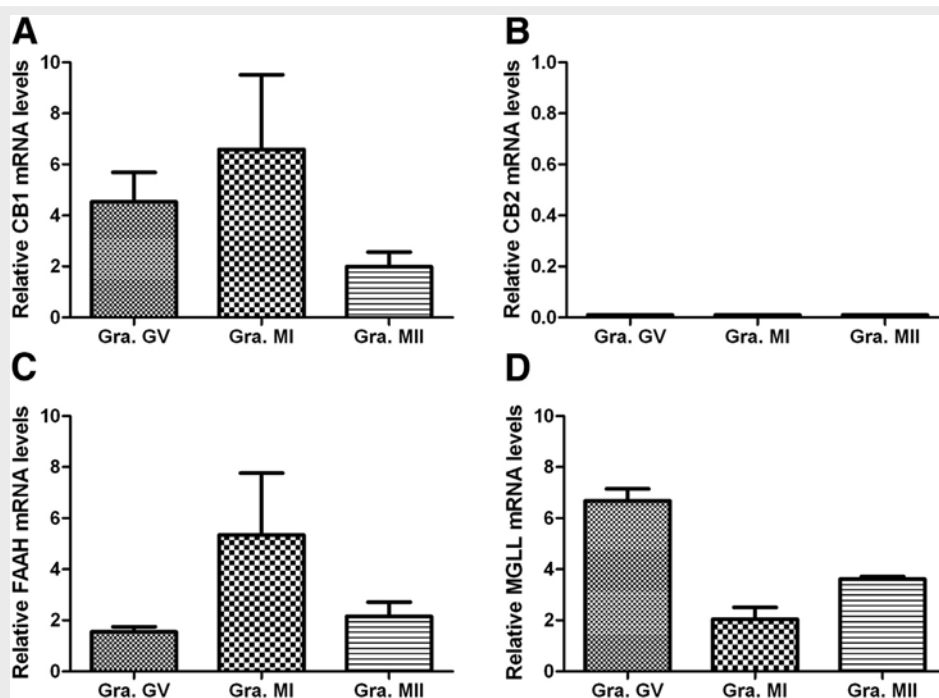
Quantitative Reverse Transcriptase (RT-) PCR Analysis of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL mRNA in Human Granulosa Cells during Nuclear Maturation of Oocytes

We detected the presence of CB1, FAAH, and MGLL but not CB2 receptor transcripts in human granulosa cells using quantitative RT-PCR. However, when we analyzed the relative amount of each mRNA, we did not find significant differences between granulosa cells of oocytes in GV, MI, or MII (Fig. 1).

Immunocytochemical Localization CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL in Human Granulosa Cells during Nuclear Maturation of Oocytes

Immunofluorescence analysis revealed that CB1 receptor was present in the human granulosa cells and that its localization was predominantly in the periphery of the cells (Fig. 2). When we evaluated whether the localization of CB1 receptor changed if the granulosa cells came from GV, MI, or MII oocytes, we did not observe any change in the localization (Fig. 2). With regard to CB2, this receptor showed a very weak immunostaining and although it is difficult to ensure that it was a specific staining, it appears to be a more peripheral staining than that within the granulosa cells from all studied maturation stages (Fig. 2). On the other hand, the FAAH-degrading enzyme's immunostaining pattern did not change regardless of whether the granulosa cells came from a GV, MI, or MII oocyte, but, in this case, its localization was present over the entire granulosa cell (Fig. 2). Finally, similar results were found for the MGLL, although the staining was weaker than for the FAAH (Fig. 2). When the antibodies were blocked with the specific peptide before addition to the granulosa cells, no specific fluorescence was observed (Fig. 2).

FIGURE 1



The mRNA expression of (A) CB1, (B) CB2, (C) FAAH, and (D) MGLL in human granulosa cells (Gra) from GV, MI, and MII oocytes using specific primers. The relative concentrations of protein mRNA were determined by quantitative RT-PCR. Cycle threshold values were normalized to GAPDH, and the average Δ Ct of the cortex sample (for CB1, FAAH, and MGLL) and Jurkat cells (for CB2) were used for calibration. Each value is the mean (\pm SEM) of three replicates.

Agirregoitia. Cannabinoid system in human granulosa cells. *Fertil Steril* 2015.

Immunoidentification of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL Proteins in Human Granulosa Cells

To confirm the presence/absence of studied proteins, Figure 3 shows representative Western blots using human granulosa cells, human prefrontal cerebral cortex gray matter, and Jurkat cells. The anti-CB1 receptor polyclonal antiserum labeled a major band at ≈ 60 kDa in granulosa cells and cortex protein extracts. The anti-CB2 receptor polyclonal antiserum recognized a major band at ≈ 40 kDa in granulosa cells and in Jurkat cells. The anti-FAAH polyclonal antibody labeled a major band at about ≈ 60 kDa in granulosa cells and cortex protein extracts. Finally, the anti-MGLL polyclonal antibody labeled two major bands around ≈ 35 kDa in granulosa cells and in cortex.

Immunocytochemical Localization of CB2, FAAH, and MGLL Compared with that of the CB1 Receptor in Human Granulosa Cells during Nuclear Maturation of Oocytes

As we observed that there was no change in the location of the studied proteins in human granulosa cells during nuclear maturation of oocytes, we analyzed in depth the localization of each protein and the colocalization of those proteins in comparison with CB1 receptor since this was the most abundant (and maybe the unique) cannabinoid receptor in these

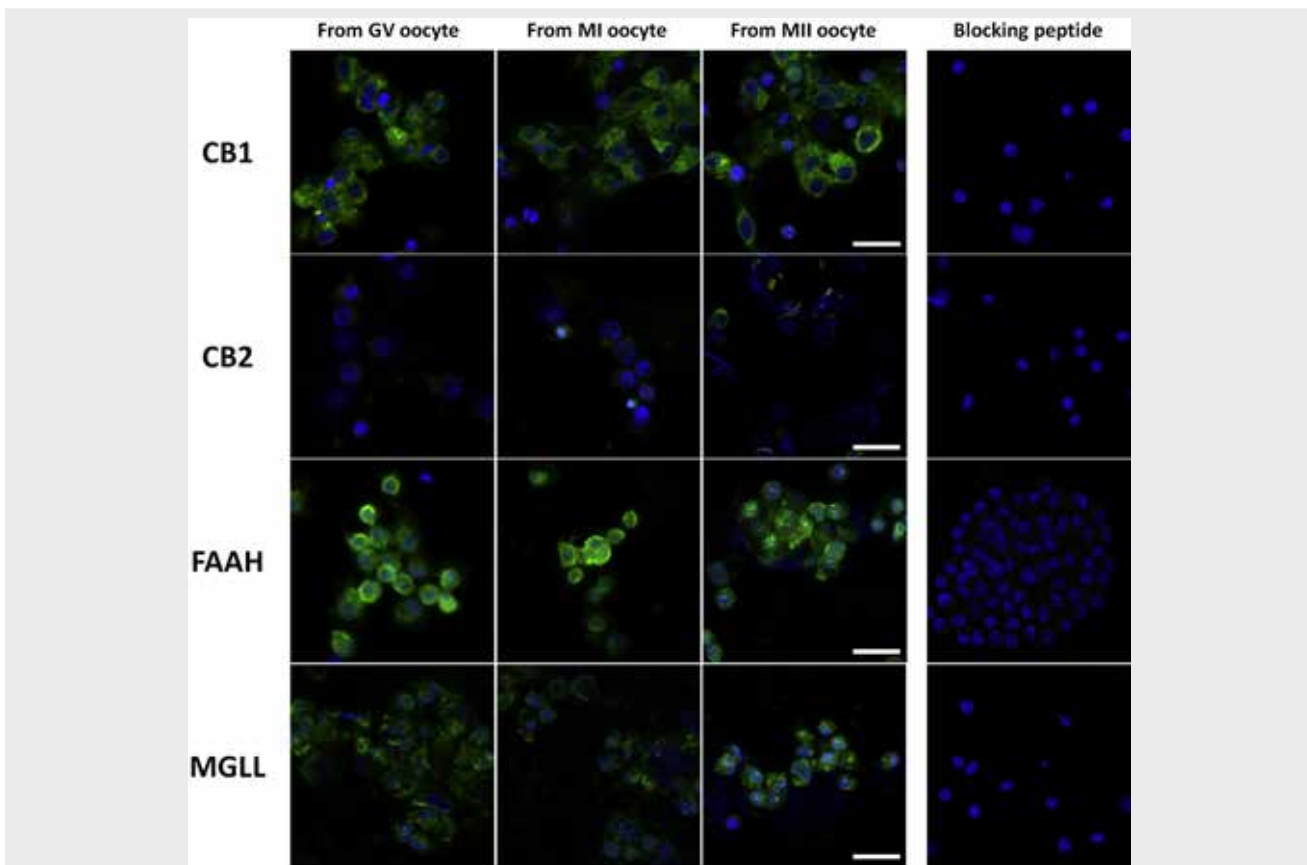
cells. For this purpose, we used granulosa cells coming from different stages, and the results were the same for all stages. For that reason, only representative data are shown (Fig. 4).

We confirmed that CB1 receptor was localized in the periphery of granulosa cells (Fig. 4A, 4B, and 4C), unquestionably in the cell membrane. In the same way, we again found a very weak presence of the CB2 receptor in those cells (Fig. 4A). With regard to FAAH, this degrading enzyme was present in both the cytoplasm and the plasma membrane of granulosa cells, in fact, FAAH colocalized with the CB1 receptor at the cell membrane (Fig. 4B). Finally, MGLL showed a weak colocalization with the CB1 receptor in the periphery of the cell, but its localization was predominantly in the cytoplasm of the granulosa cells (Fig. 4C).

DISCUSSION

The role of the endocannabinoid system has been studied in mammalian reproductive events, such as spermatogenesis, sperm motility, fertilization, embryo oviductal transport, pre-implantation embryo development, implantation, and post-implantation embryonic growth (21–23). Even so, the role of this system in the ovary and oocyte events has rarely been analyzed (15–17). The aim of the present study was to gather further data on the presence and localization of cannabinoid receptors CB1 and CB2 as well as cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in granulosa cells during the

FIGURE 2



Immunofluorescence analysis of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL in human granulosa cells from GV, MI, and MII oocytes. The distribution of cannabinoid receptors and cannabinoid-degrading enzymes is shown in *green*. A negative control consisting of preadsorption of primary antibody with each specific blocking peptide is shown. Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in *blue*. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. The scale bar represents $10 \mu\text{m}$.

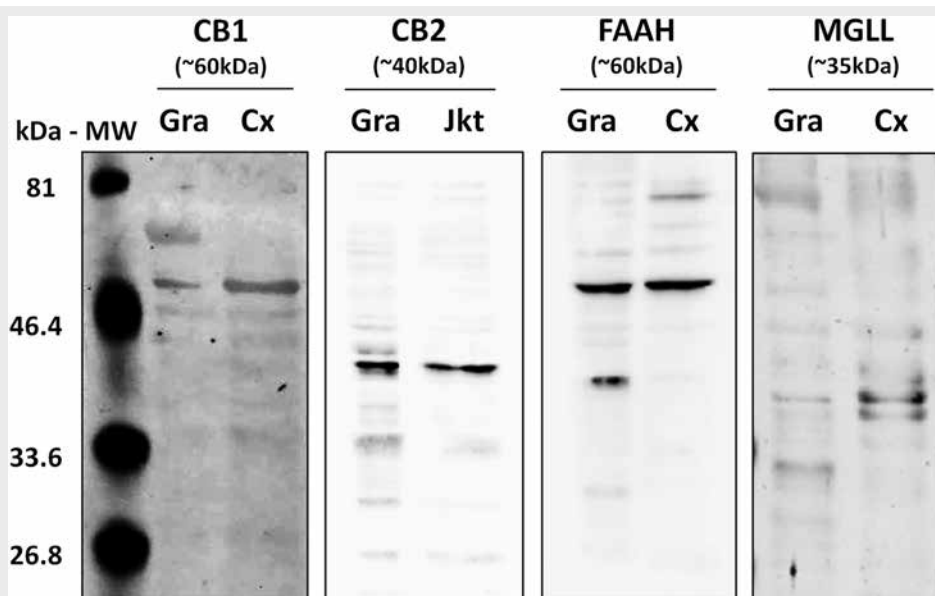
Agirregoitia. Cannabinoid system in human granulosa cells. *Fertil Steril* 2015.

resumption of meiosis of the human oocyte to determine possible role of the cannabinoid system in this process.

Western blot analysis revealed the presence of CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL proteins in human granulosa cells. With regard to CB1, the band of about 60 kDa (positive control: *gray matter* from the human prefrontal cerebral cortex) accords in size with previous reports (24, 25). In the case of CB2, the bands of approximately 40 kDa (positive control: Jurkat cells) correspond to its theoretical molecular mass (26) and are in agreement with previous reports (27, 28). We have to note that we needed to load a great amount of sample to see a positive mark in granulosa cells. On the other hand, the band around 60 kDa observed in human granulosa cells using an anti-FAAH antibody, which also appeared in the human cerebral cortex, has been described in some studies using rat brain (29) and human sperm (30) and bladder (31). Finally, the two major bands observed around 35 kDa in granulosa cells and in the cortex are near the theoretical molecular weight for MGLL around 33.3 kDa (32). However, we cannot exclude that the band around 33 kDa shown in granulosa cells (Fig. 3) corresponds to MGLL too.

Two previous works have described the presence of cannabinoid system components in the granulosa cells using immunohistochemical assays in ovarian sections. Thus, with regard to granulosa cells, in rat ovaries it has been described in the presence of CB1 receptor in the plasma membrane of granulosa cells of antral follicles (16), and the same result has been observed in human antral follicles as well (15). In our study we have gone a step further, and we have seen that CB1 is still present in the plasma membrane of granulosa cells from ovulated oocytes (GV) and that it is maintained there at least until oocyte and granulosa cells are separated after oocyte maturation (MII). Moreover, we have detected that the mRNA of CB1 is present in granulosa cells during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte, but we cannot confirm whether the expression pattern observed during the maturation changed significantly. Even so, we have to point out that the mRNA expression pattern of both cannabinoid receptor CB1 and cannabinoid-degrading enzyme FAAH in granulosa cells during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte is the same, although we cannot corroborate this expression pattern at the protein level.

FIGURE 3



Western blotting analysis of CB1 and CB2 receptor, FAAH, and MGLL in human granulosa cells (Gra), gray matter from the human prefrontal cerebral cortex (Cx), and Jurkat cells (Jkt) using a rabbit antiserum against CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL. Molecular weights (MW-kDa) are indicated on the left; $n = 3$; representative Western blots are shown.

Agirregoitia. Cannabinoid system in human granulosa cells. Fertil Steril 2015.

The presence of CB2 receptor in granulosa cells is controversial because this receptor is not present in granulosa cells of rat antral follicles (16), but its signal has been described in the antral follicles of human ovary, although more weakly than that of CB1 (15). In that sense, we immunodetected CB2 signal by Western blot (loading a great amount of granulosa cells); we did not find the mRNA of CB2 in granulosa cells, and the immunocytochemical assays showed a weak staining of CB2. Taking into account all of these data, we are not able to discard the presence of CB2 in granulosa cells, but we can affirm that its presence would be more residual and much lower than CB1 receptor.

On the other hand, the absence of FAAH described in rat granulosa cells from antral follicles (16) and the weak staining observed in human granulosa cells from secondary and antral follicles (15) are not consistent with our observations. Our study was carried out in granulosa cells from ovulated oocytes and the presence of FAAH has been corroborated using immunocytochemistry, Western blot, and PCR. For this reason, we can conclude that the nondetection of this enzyme in granulosa cells from antral follicles described in other studies could be due to a relatively low level of FAAH expression rather than its absence. Even so, it could also be possible that FAAH would start its expression once the ovulation has occurred. But this hypothesis should be checked because we have not performed experiments with granulosa cells from nonstimulated follicles.

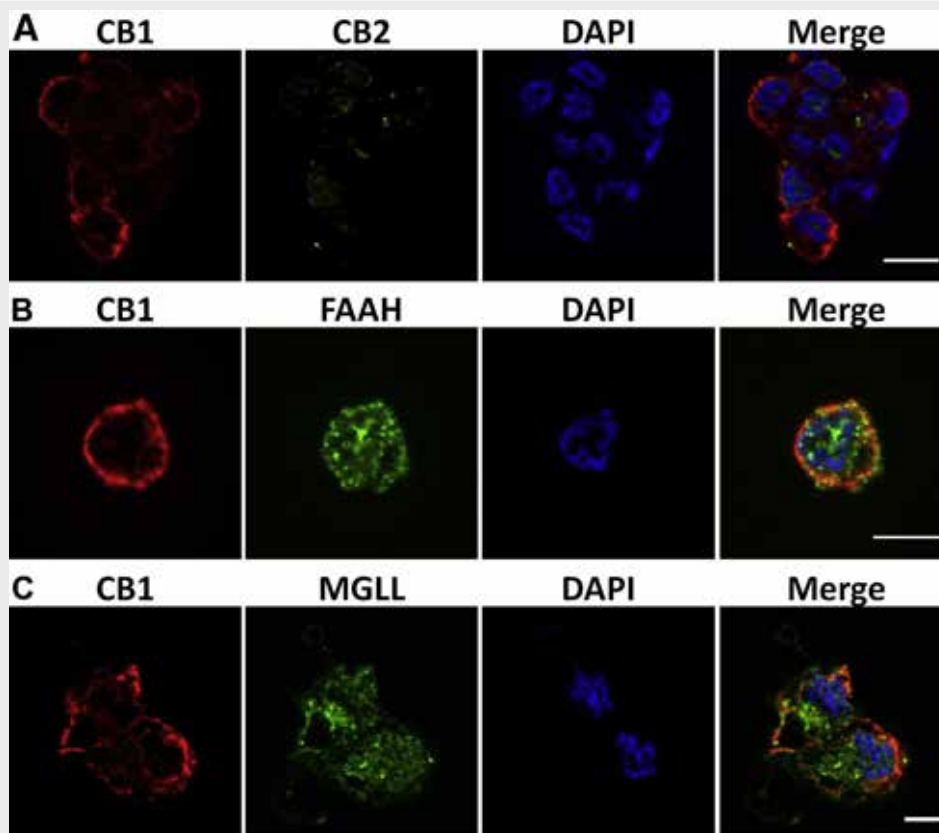
Finally, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that MGLL has been found to be localized in the granulosa cells. Although we are not able to confirm whether the expression pattern observed during oocyte maturation changed signifi-

cantly, the mRNA expression pattern of MGLL seem to be just the contrary compared with CB1 and FAAH.

In our study we used granulosa cells isolated from follicles matured *in vivo* after hormone stimulation of the patient. For this reason, the recovered oocytes had already been stimulated and only the final nuclear maturation steps were carried out *in vitro* during 2 hours. This could be the reason that we did not see significant differences in the protein or mRNA pattern between granulosa cells from GV, MI, or MII oocytes.

The regulation of "AEA tone" by FAAH has been proposed as an important event in the oviduct during early pregnancy (33), as well as in blastocyst activation (34) and implantation (35), but no hypotheses have been proposed in relation to such a process in oocyte maturation. Even so, it has been described that AEA concentration in human follicular fluid rises during oocyte maturation (15) and that the concentration is even higher in the oviduct than in follicular fluid (36). In humans, one oocyte completes its growth each month and is ovulated in response to a mid-cycle surge of LH, and in response to this LH surge, the oocyte resumes meiosis (37). Therefore, the oocyte and its granulosa cells find increasing concentrations of AEA while they mature and so the presence of the cannabinoid system in the granulosa cells leads to the hypothesis that the resumption of meiosis in the oviduct, where AEA concentration is higher than it is in follicular fluid, could be modulated, *inter alia*, by the cannabinoid system. In contrast, the elevated levels of cyclic AMP (camp) produced by adenylyl cyclase are crucial in maintaining oocytes under meiotic arrest, and the source of cAMP has been suggested

FIGURE 4



Immunofluorescence analysis of (A) CB2, (B) FAAH, and (C) MGLL compared with CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human granulosa cells. The distributions of CB2, FAAH, and MGLL are shown in *green*, and the distribution of CB1 is shown in *red*. Their overlap is shown in *yellow*. Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in *blue*. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. The scale bar represents $10 \mu\text{m}$.

Agirregoitia. Cannabinoid system in human granulosa cells. *Fertil Steril* 2015.

to be the product of the influx of cAMP through gap junction communication from the cumulus cells to the oocyte (1). Taking all these data into account, we hypothesize that the stimulation of CB1 cannabinoid receptor by its agonist in granulosa cells, first in the follicle and then in the oviduct, could activate a number of signal transduction pathways via the Gi/o family of G proteins, leading to the inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and the consequent inhibition of cAMP production (34). Moreover, although the most abundant protein in the plasma membrane of granulosa cells was CB1, FAAH colocalized with it. This overlapping pattern in the expression of CB1 and FAAH has been reported in other cell types, such as neurons, suggesting that the endocannabinoid system might be responsible for an auto-feedback control of neurotransmitter release (38). Finally, Schuel and Burkman (39) observed that sea urchin eggs might release AEA after activation by the fertilizing sperm and this released AEA might then react with cannabinoid receptors in sperm to block acrosome reaction, thereby helping to prevent polyspermy. So as granulosa cells from ovulated oocytes have the enzymatic machinery to degrade AEA, this fact led us to hypothesize that granulosa cells could regulate

the AEA tone near the microenvironment where the fecundation takes place to modulate the sperm physiology, as Schuel and Burkman proposed.

It will be interesting to analyze what the role of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells is in relation to the oocyte where CB1, CB2, FAAH, and MGLL relocate during the nuclear maturation (17; author's unpublished data). To date, the presence of 2-AG has only been described in the uterus (40), but it remains unknown whether it is present in the ovary or the oviduct, a question that merits investigation.

In conclusion, we report for the first time the presence of the cannabinoid system in granulosa cells from GV, MI, and MII oocytes. This could suggest that AEA, which is present in follicular and oviductal fluids (14, 15), also has a role during the final nuclear maturation of the oocyte. It should be noted that the granulosa cells used in this study were obtained in the context of an IVF/ICSI program and hence may not reflect the real status of oocyte maturation during spontaneous natural ovarian cycles. Further studies are needed to investigate the cannabinoid receptors in unstimulated cycles.

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Dynamic of expression and localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in relation to CB1 during meiotic maturation of human oocytes

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Abstract The endogenous cannabinoid system has been characterized in some female reproductive organs but little is known about the expression and localization pattern of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes in relation to the CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. In this study, we focus on the investigation of the presence and differential distribution of fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoglyceride lipase (MGLL) in relation to CB1 during the maturation of human oocytes. We used a total of 290 human oocytes not suitable for in vitro fertilization/intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI): germinal-vesicle (GV) and metaphase-I (MI) stages and metaphase-II (MII) oocytes that had not developed into an embryo after ICSI. Cannabinoid-degrading enzymes and the cannabinoid CB1 receptor were present in human oocytes. Specifically, FAAH was detected in the periphery of the oocyte from the GV to MI stage and co-localized with CB1. Later, by the MII stage, FAAH was spread within the oocyte, whereas MGLL immunostaining was homogeneous across the oocyte at all stages of maturation and only

overlapped with CB1 at the GV stage. This coordinated redistribution of cannabinoid system proteins suggests a role for this system in the maturation of the female gamete.

Keywords Meiosis · Resumption · Enzyme · Maturation · Gamete

Introduction

Oocyte meiotic maturation is the process by which immature oocytes become fertilizable eggs. Fully grown oocytes are arrested at the first meiotic prophase, in the germinal vesicle (GV) stage and, once they become meiotically competent, resume meiosis upon receiving specific ovulatory signals. Meiotic maturation continues with the transition from meiosis I to meiosis II until oocytes are then arrested at metaphase of meiosis II (MII); an oocyte does not complete meiosis II until it is fertilized by sperm (Schindler 2011).

The molecular mechanisms responsible for oocyte maturation are not fully understood and several different molecules have been implicated as modulators of the process. Among these molecules, the role of the cannabinoid compounds has been highlighted by some authors (Sun and Dey 2012). Endocannabinoids are fatty acid derivatives that exert their effects by binding to membrane Gi/o protein-coupled receptors CB1 and CB2. Anandamide (AEA) and 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) are the best characterized endocannabinoids. Both are degraded by fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH), which is an integral membrane protein with its hydrolytic site facing the lipid bilayer, although 2-AG is also degraded by monoacylglycerol lipase (MGLL), which, in contrast, is a cytosolic enzyme. The distributions of FAAH and MGLL overlap in the central nervous system, but they are not identical. For example, in some cerebral areas, MGLL

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is localized presynaptically, whereas FAAH is localized postsynaptically. Nevertheless, one proposal is that, together, endocannabinoid-metabolizing enzymes can complement the distribution of cannabinoid receptors in the brain and that this provides multiple opportunities for local regulation of endocannabinoid tone (Yazulla 2008).

Several papers have been published on the role of cannabinoids in the female reproductive system (de Miguel et al. 1998; Wenger et al. 1999, 2001) and both cannabinoid receptors and degradation enzymes have been found in various parts of the mammalian female reproductive system, namely, the uterus and oviduct (Das et al. 1995; Paria et al. 2001; Wang et al. 2004; Denny et al. 2004) preimplantation embryos and the placenta (Park et al. 2003; Helliwell et al. 2004; Habayeb et al. 2008). With regard to oocyte maturation, AEA is known to be present in human follicular fluid (Schuel et al. 2002) and its concentration is higher in follicles with mature oocytes than in those with immature oocytes (El-Talatini et al. 2009). The localization of the cannabinoid receptors and degrading enzymes in rat (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw 2010) and human ovary has led to the hypothesis that AEA plays a role in folliculogenesis, preovulatory follicle maturation oocyte maturity, and ovulation (El-Talatini et al. 2009). Finally, the hypothesis with respect to the role of the cannabinoid system in oocyte maturation has been reinforced by findings concerning the localization of cannabinoid receptors during the nuclear maturation of human oocytes, in which each receptor is re-localized (Peralta et al. 2011).

In view of the presence of AEA in human follicular fluid and the re-localization of cannabinoid receptors observed in the oocyte during its maturation, cannabinoid signaling can be postulated to be involved in the regulation of oocyte meiosis (Peralta et al. 2011). Therefore, to shed further light on this issue, our aim is to characterize, in detail and to compare the expression and distribution of the two AEA-degrading enzymes, FAAH and MGLL and further to explore their relationship with the CB1 receptor in human oocytes during the meiotic resumption of oocytes obtained during *in vitro* fertilization (IVF)/intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) cycles.

Materials and methods

Oocyte collection

Human oocytes were obtained from 90 patients (aged 25–40 years; mean 35.02 ± 3.23 years) undergoing IVF/ICSI at the Human Reproduction Unit of Cruces University Hospital. Ethical approval was obtained from the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Health System

(Osakidetza, CEIC reference number E07/54, 3/2008). Informed consent was obtained from all patients. Overall, 290 oocytes from these patients were analyzed. The main indications for IVF/ICSI were: male factor (62 %), failure of intrauterine insemination (7 %) and idiopathic infertility (10 %). The main associated female conditions were endometriosis (9.5 %) and tubal factor (11.5 %). Patients had no previous history of cannabinoid drug consumption.

All the oocytes used for this study were those discarded from treatment cycles. The majority of oocytes corresponded to immature oocytes (GV and MI) or to MII oocytes from IVF/ICSI procedures in which fertilization failed. Additionally, 8 cases (44 oocytes) were included in which IVF/ICSI could not be attempted because of failure to obtain a sperm sample, since at that time oocyte vitrification was not available in our laboratory. After removal of the corona cumulus cells, the oocytes were stored and transported in minimal media in micro-centrifuge tubes at 4 °C to the laboratory for processing. The zona pellucida of oocytes used for analysis by the reverse transcription plus polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) was removed by incubating oocytes in a Tyrode's acidic solution at 37 °C for 30 s in order to detach possible granulosa cells.

Our IVF cycle management has been described previously (Matorras et al. 2009). Briefly, it consists in long down-regulation with the gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonist triptorelin (Decapeptyl, Ipsen Pharma, Spain) or the gonadotrophin-releasing hormone antagonist cetrorelix (Cetrotide; Merck Serono, Spain). Then, ovarian stimulation was carried out with recombinant follicle-stimulating hormone (Gonal F; Merck Serono) and highly purified urinary menopausal gonadotropins (Menopur, Ferring, Spain) or recombinant luteinizing hormone (LH), ovulation being triggered with 250 mg recombinant human chorionic gonadotrophin (hCG; Ovitrelle; Merck Serono). Transvaginal ultrasound-guided oocyte retrieval was scheduled 36 h after hCG injection.

All IVF/ICSI procedures and assessments were performed by members of the research group. Oocyte retrieval was performed 35–37 h after hCG administration. Follicles were aspirated with a negative pressure of 115–120 mmHg with a single lumen 18-gauge oocyte pick-up needle (K-OPS-6035-RWH-B-ET; Cook, Spain) under transvaginal ultrasound guidance. Follicular fluids were examined at low magnification (40× to 100×) under a stereomicroscope at 37 °C. The oocyte–cumulus-complexes were incubated for 2 h in IVF Medium (Origio, Denmark) at 37 °C and under 6 % CO₂ in air. Immediately prior to micromanipulation during the ICSI procedure, oocytes were denuded of the cumulus oophorus by brief exposure to 40 IU/L hyaluronidase solution (Hyadase; Origio), followed by mechanical removal of the corona radiata cells with the use of plastic pipettes (denuding pipette; Cook, Spain). Each oocyte was examined under the microscope to assess its maturation stage and integrity. MII oocytes were

defined by the absence of the germinal vesicle and the presence of an extruded polar body. Metaphase II oocytes were microinjected and placed in the culture incubator following the standard IVF culture protocol. Oocyte fertilization assessment involved careful analysis of the two pronuclei and the nucleoli within them, during a single examination 16–18 h after the insemination procedure. Normally fertilized and non-fertilized oocytes were then placed in the incubator for a 24-h culture period until embryo selection for transfer. The immature oocytes (at MI and GV stages) and the non-fertilized MII oocytes were placed in microcentrifuge tubes with a minimal amount of Flushing Medium (Origio) and stored at 4 °C or at –80 °C until used in the present study.

Of the 290 studied oocytes, 59 were at the GV stage, 65 at the MI stage and 166 at the MII stage. MII oocytes were collected on day 1 after IVF/ICSI, when fertilization failed, i.e., they were unfertilized. GV and MI oocytes were collected on the day of oocyte pick up in ICSI cases. During the period of study, the fertilization rate of MII oocytes was 64 % in our ICSI program.

RT-PCR analysis

Total RNA from oocytes (3 samples of ~30 oocytes, from each maturation stage: GV, MI and MII) and cerebral cortex was extracted by using the Dynabeads mRNA-DIRECT Kit (Ambion, Austin, Tex., USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. Immediately after extraction, total RNA was kept frozen at –80 °C until further use. cDNA was obtained with the ImProm-II Reverse Transcription System (Promega, Madison, Wis., USA). Briefly, a mixture of about 150 ng RNA and random primers was heated at 65 °C for 10 min and chilled on ice for 5 min. Then, after addition of the reverse transcription mix, it was annealed at 25 °C for 5 min. First-strand synthesis was carried out at 55 °C for 60 min and the reverse transcriptase was inactivated at 70 °C for 15 min. Primers used for PCR were as follows: human *FAAH*, 5'-AAGCAACATACCCCATGCTC-3' and 5'-GTTTTGCGGTACACCTCGAT-3' (276-bp product; Storr et al. 2009); human *MGLL*, 5'-CAAGGCCCTCATCTTTGTGT-3' and 5'-ACGTGGAAGTCAGACACTAC-3' (162-bp product; Ludanyi et al. 2008). Human *ACTB* (β -actin) primers, 5'-TCCCTGGAGAAGAGCTACGA-3' and 5'-ATCTGCTGGAAGGTGGACAG-3' (362-bp product; Agirregoitia et al. 2010) were used as internal controls. All primer pairs were located on different exons to avoid amplification of genomic DNA.

PCR was performed under the following conditions: 95 °C for 5 min, 40 cycles at 95 °C for 30 s, 59 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 1 min, followed by a final extension step at 72 °C for 5 min. The mixture was electrophoretically separated on a 2 % agarose gel.

Immunofluorescence

After assessment of the meiotic stage, oocytes were suspended in phosphate-buffered saline plus bovine serum albumin (PBS+BSA; 1 μ g/ μ l) and smeared onto a slide coated with poly-L-lysine, in order to localize the target protein immunocytochemically. They were then fixed with 3 % paraformaldehyde for 10 min followed by incubation in Triton X100 (0.1 %) for 10 min to permeabilize the oocytes. Subsequently, slides were washed three times in PBS and incubated for 20 min in PBS / 10 % (v/v) bovine fetal serum at room temperature. For indirect immunofluorescence staining, slides were incubated with rabbit polyclonal FAAH and MGLL antibodies (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, Mich., USA) at a dilution of 1:200 overnight at 4 °C. For double-staining, in addition to the anti-FAAH or anti-MGLL antibodies, we used goat polyclonal CB1 antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, Calif., USA) at a dilution of 1:50. Slides were then washed in PBS+BSA (1 μ g/ μ l) three times, incubated with Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG and Alexa Fluor 594 donkey anti-goat IgG secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes; Eugene, Ore., USA) for 2 h at 37 °C in the dark and washed in PBS+BSA (1 μ g/ μ l) three times with staining of the nuclei with Hoechst 33342 during the second wash to facilitate assessment of the maturational stage of each oocyte. Finally, oocytes were mounted with Fluoromount G (EMS; Hatfield, England) and examined by confocal microscopy. Images were acquired with an Olympus Fluoview FV500 confocal microscope by using a 40 \times lens (UPLAPO; NA: 0.85). Each fluorochrome was sequentially acquired in order to avoid overlapping of fluorescent emission spectra. Two negative controls were performed by using specific blocking peptides for each antibody (Cayman Chemicals) and by omitting the primary antibody before addition of the secondary antibody to set the background acquisition parameters.

Results

RT-PCR analysis of CB1 and cannabinoid-degrading enzyme mRNA in human oocytes

We detected the presence of *CB1* and *FAAH* but not *MGLL* degrading-enzyme transcripts in human oocytes by using RT-PCR. The expected 276-bp fragment for *FAAH* was detected during all stages of oocyte maturation and in samples of gray matter of human prefrontal cerebral cortex (positive control; Fig. 1a). The 162-bp fragment corresponding to *MGLL* was detected in human cortex (positive control) but not in oocytes at any stage of maturation (Fig. 1b). The housekeeping gene *ACTB* was detected in all tissues (Fig. 1c).

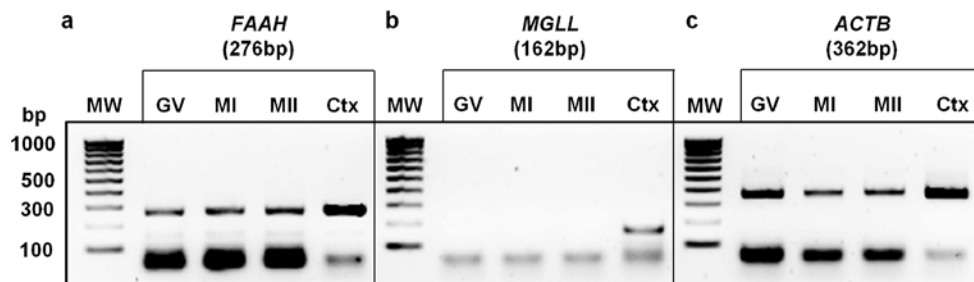


Fig. 1 Ethidium-bromide-stained 2 % agarose electrophoresis gels of the reverse transcription plus polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) products for fatty acid amide hydrolase (*FAAH*), monoglyceride lipase (*MGLL*) and β -actin (*ACTB*) in the human oocyte at the germinal vesicle (*GV*), metaphase I (*MI*) and metaphase II (*MII*) stages and in gray matter from the human prefrontal cerebral cortex (*Ctx*). **a** Amplified fragments

obtained with primers specific for the human cannabinoid-degrading enzyme *FAAH* (276-bp band). **b** Amplified fragments obtained with primers specific for the human cannabinoid-degrading enzyme *MGLL* (162-bp band). **c** *ACTB* was used as an internal control (362-bp band). Molecular weights (*MW*; *bp*) are indicated *left*. $n = 3$. A representative RT-PCR experiment is shown

Immunocytochemical localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes *FAAH* and *MGLL* in human oocytes

Immunofluorescence analysis revealed that both *FAAH* and *MGLL* were present in the human oocytes. However, the localization of these enzymes showed variations through the stages of the resumption of meiosis in human oocytes. On the one hand, *FAAH* localization in the oocyte was peripheral at the *GV* (Fig. 2a) and *MI* (Fig. 2b) stages, whereas at the *MII* (Fig. 2c) stage, it was found peripherally but also appeared homogeneously over the entire oocyte (z-stack images in Supplementary Figs. 1, 3). On the other hand, *MGLL* immunostaining was found homogeneously in oocytes from the *GV*

to *MII* stages (Fig. 2e-g; see also z-stacks images in Supplementary Figs. 2, 4). When the anti-*FAAH* and anti-*MGLL* receptor antibodies were blocked with the specific peptide before addition to the oocyte, no specific fluorescence was observed (Fig. 2d, h).

Immunocytochemical localization of *FAAH* and *MGLL* compared with that of *CB1* receptor during maturation of human oocytes

In the *GV* (Fig. 3c) and *MI* (Fig. 3f) stages, *FAAH* co-localized with the *CB1* receptor at the periphery of the oocyte, although the *CB1* receptor was also observed in the cytoplasm at *MI* (Fig. 3d, f). At the *MII* stage, the localization of *FAAH*

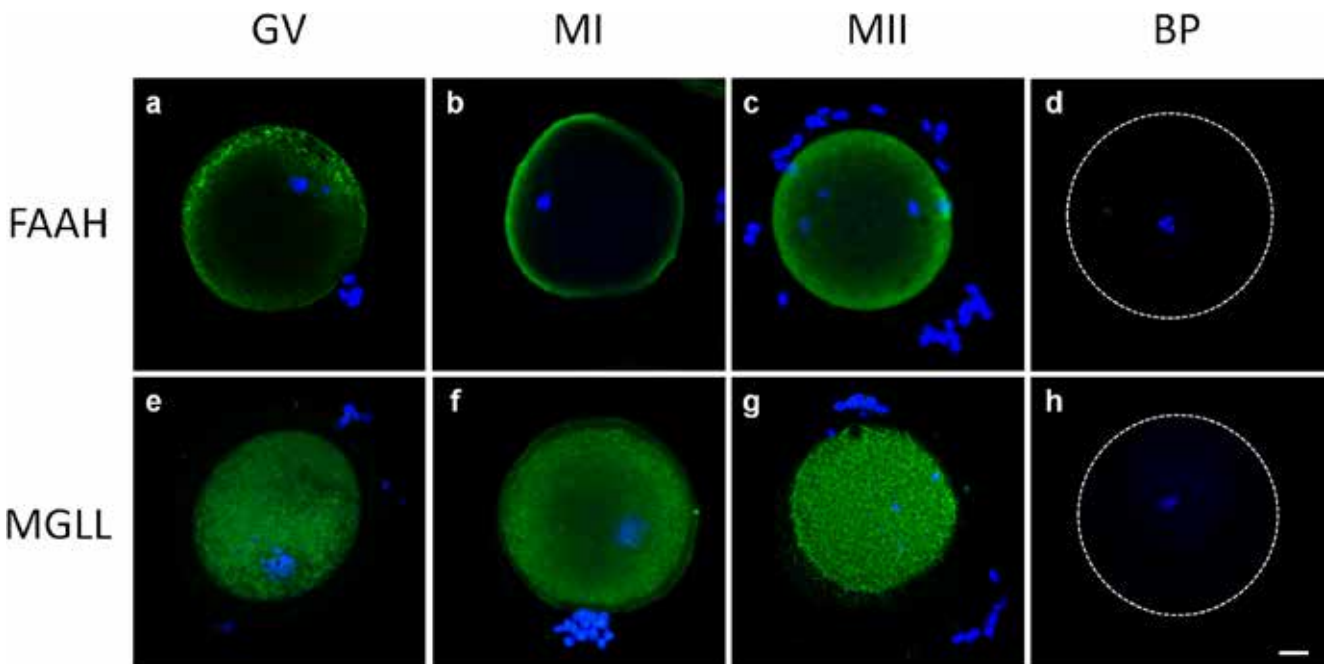


Fig. 2 Immunofluorescence analysis of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes in human oocytes. Distributions of *FAAH* and *MGLL* are shown in *green* at (**a**, **e**) the germinal vesicle (*GV*), (**b**, **f**) metaphase I (*MI*) and (**c**, **g**) metaphase II (*MII*) stages. Phase contrast images (**d**, **h**) are shown of the

negative control, consisting in pre-adsorption of the primary antiserum with the specific blocking peptide (*BP*). Hoechst-labeled DNA is shown in *blue*. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. *Bar* 20 μm

had changed (Fig. 3h): the enzyme appeared homogeneously over the entire oocyte, whereas all the CB1 immunostaining appeared at the periphery at MII (Fig. 3g). At MII, FAAH co-localized with CB1 to a lesser extent than at previous stages (Fig. 3i; see also z-stack images in Supplementary Fig. 1). With regard to MGLL, this enzyme showed a weak co-localization with the CB1 receptor at the GV (Fig. 4c) stage, but generally, in other stages, the localization of CB1 and MGLL was different: peripheral for CB1 (Fig. 4d, g) and cytoplasmic for MGLL (Fig. 4e, h; see also z-stack images in Supplementary Fig. 2).

Discussion

The role of the endocannabinoid system has been studied in various mammalian reproductive processes, such as spermatogenesis, sperm motility, fertilization, embryo oviductal transport, preimplantation embryo development, implantation, and post-implantation embryonic growth (Wang et al. 2006a, 2006b; Taylor et al. 2007; Sun and Dey 2012). Even so, the part played by this system in the ovary and in oocyte events has rarely been analyzed (El-Talatini et al. 2009; Bagavandoss

and Grimshaw 2010; Peralta et al. 2011). The aim of the present study was to gather further data on the presence and localization of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes in relation to the CB1 cannabinoid receptor during the resumption of meiosis in human oocytes in order to form a basis for explaining a possible role of the cannabinoid system in this process.

Our immunofluorescence analysis of human oocytes has confirmed the presence of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL in these cells. As FAAH is a membrane-bound protein (Deutsch et al. 2002), its observed localization in the oocyte periphery indicates that it is localized to the oolema. On the contrary, MGLL is a cytosolic serine hydrolyase (Dinh et al. 2002) and this could explain the homogeneous localization of MGLL over the entire oocyte observed in our experiments.

Several authors have described the presence of cannabinoid system components in the oocyte. In rat ovaries, FAAH and the CB2 receptor have been found in both preantral and antral follicle oocytes, whereas the CB1 receptor is not present (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw 2010). In human ovaries, however, only FAAH has been found localized to the theca cells of secondary and tertiary follicles, whereas CB1 immunostaining appears in oocytes from primordial to secondary follicles but

Fig. 3 Immunofluorescence analysis of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes compared with CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. Distributions of FAAH (b, e, h), CB1 (a, d, g) and their overlap (c, f, i) are shown in green, red, yellow, respectively, at (a–c) the germinal vesicle (GV), (d–f) the metaphase I (MI) and (g–i) the metaphase II (MII) stages. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. Bar 20 μm

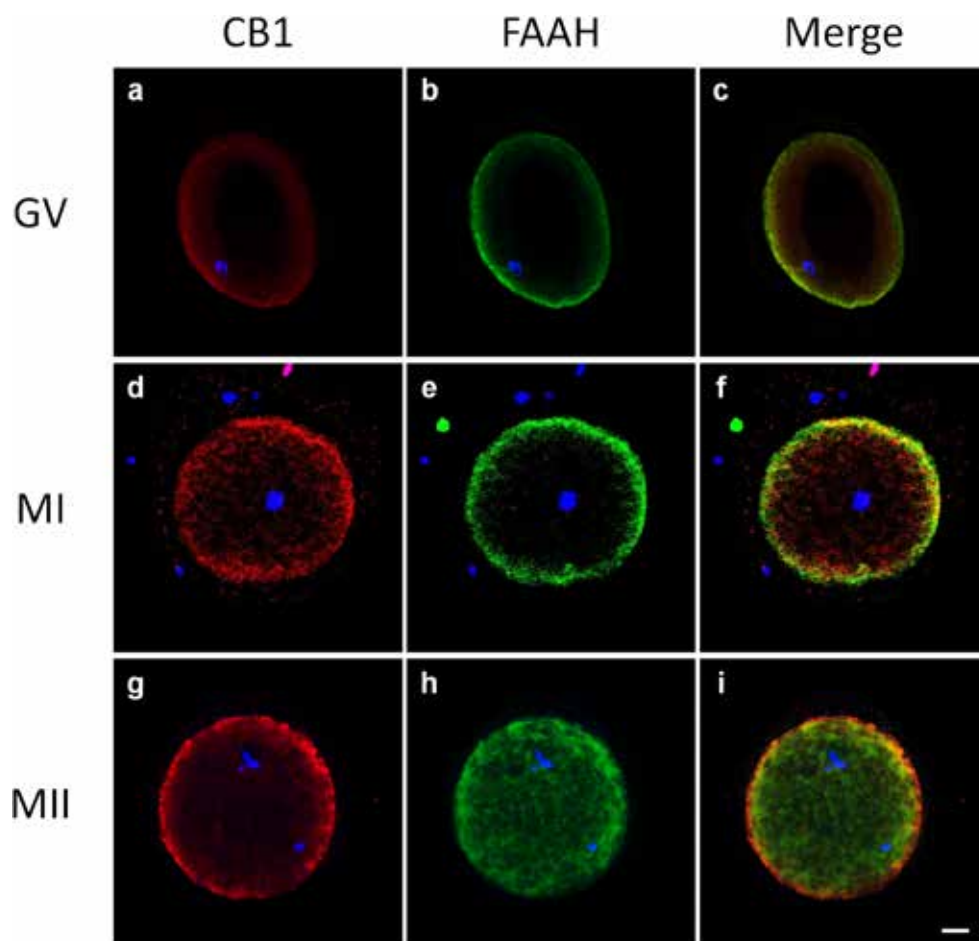
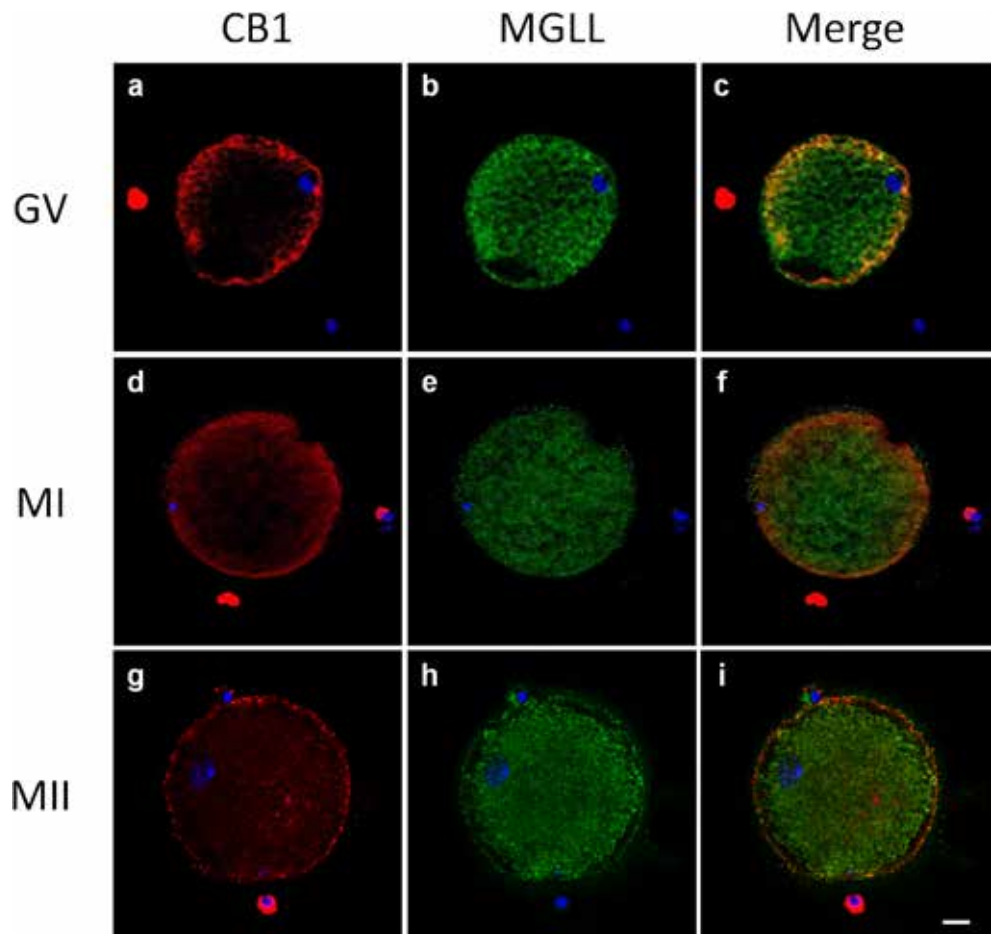


Fig. 4 Immunofluorescence analysis of cannabinoid-degrading enzymes compared with CB1 cannabinoid receptor in human oocytes. Distributions of MGLL (**b, e, h**), CB1 (**a, d, g**) and their overlap (**c, f, i**) are shown in *green, red* and *yellow*, respectively, at (**a-c**) the germinal vesicle (GV), (**d-f**) the metaphase I (MI) and (**g-i**) the metaphase II (MII) stages. $n = 15$ per stage. Representative photomicrographs are shown. *Bar* 20 μm



not in tertiary follicles and, in contrast, intense CB2 staining has been observed in oocytes during all stages of follicle maturation (El-Talatini et al. 2009). Finally, in a study focused on human oocytes separated from follicles, the presence of both CB1 and CB2 has been corroborated during the resumption of oocyte meiosis from the GV to MII stages (Peralta et al. 2011). Whether the differences in the localization of CB1, CB2 and FAAH during the follicle and/or oocyte maturation observed in the aforementioned three studies reflect differences between species or are also attributable to differences in methodology (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw 2010; Peralta et al. 2011) is unclear. In any case, taken together, all the evidence to date leads us to believe that the previous non-detection of FAAH in human oocytes (El-Talatini et al. 2009) is attributable to a relatively low level of expression of FAAH rather than its absence. Three statements uphold this view. First, FAAH has previously been detected in rat oocytes (Bagavandoss and Grimshaw 2010) and has again been detected in our present study by using only the human oocyte separated from follicles. Second, the staining observed specifically in the plasma membrane in the present study was achieved by using a specific anti-FAAH antibody and verified with a blocking peptide. Finally, we detected, for the first time,

the presence of FAAH mRNA in human oocytes. Further, the observed progression of the localization of the CB1 receptor in the present study is similar to that observed in a previous study of our group with a different antibody (Peralta et al. 2011) and as such, strengthens the evidence for its presence and re-localization pattern during the resumption of oocyte meiosis. In contrast, we were unable to compare our MGLL localization with the results of other studies, since, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that MGLL has been localized to the oocyte.

The CB1 and FAAH immunostaining patterns changed during the various stages of meiosis resumption, as occurs with other proteins (Kume et al. 1997; Agirregoitia et al. 2012) and also with the CB2 receptor in mouse spermatogenesis (Grimaldi et al. 2009) and in human oocyte maturation (Peralta et al. 2011). In contrast, MGLL maintained its cytoplasmic location throughout all the observed stages. Moreover, CB1 and FAAH co-localized in the periphery at the GV and MI stages but they overlapped less at MII. An overlapping pattern in the expression of CB1 and FAAH has been reported in other cell types, such as neurons, suggesting that the endocannabinoid system is responsible for an auto-feedback control of neurotransmitter release (Bouskila et al.

2012). In meiotic progression, CB1 shows some internalization at MI but is then re-localized to the periphery at MII, whereas FAAH is internalized at the MII stage. This differing re-localization suggests a possible coordinated redistribution of CB1 and FAAH during the resumption of oocyte meiosis in order to regulate local endocannabinoid tone, as has been proposed for other cell types (Yazulla 2008). This is plausible since, in mammals, all of the qualitative and quantitative changes in protein synthesis occurring during oogenesis take place at the time of the resumption of meiosis (Picton et al. 1998). Additionally, Ji et al. (1997) observed modifications in the protein pattern of human oocyte membranes during preovulatory maturation. More interesting still is our study in which we detected CB1 and FAAH in granulosa cells from GV to MII oocytes and their co-localization in some portions of the cell membrane. Moreover, MGLL immunostaining was more homogeneous across the cell and only overlapped with CB1 weakly (Agirreagoitia et al. 2015).

The reason for CB1 and FAAH re-localization during meiosis has not been studied at all. Even so, according to the classical theory of G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) functionality, these receptors have to reach the cell surface to act and, after agonist binding, GPCRs undergo a rapid “desensitization” and the ligand-receptor complex is internalized prior to being recycled back to the cell surface or being degraded (Cahill et al. 2007). Therefore, taking into account our data for the CB1 receptor and FAAH-degrading enzyme, we can retain our previous hypothesis that CB1 is activated at the GV stage (when CB1 is localized at the plasma membrane) and subsequently internalized when the oocyte reaches the MI stage (when CB1 is also found within the cytoplasm; Peralta et al. 2011). Thus, as FAAH co-localizes with CB1 at the GV and MI stages, it could participate in the degradation of the cannabinoid that is bound to CB1 when the cannabinoid is internalized together with CB1 at MI. Additionally, at least at the GV and MI stages, FAAH might degrade free cannabinoids, which would enter the active site via the membrane (McKinney and Cravatt 2005). Then, according to our results, the receptor could be recycled, being mostly localized at the plasma membrane once again when the oocyte is blocked at the MII stage but FAAH cannot act at the periphery of oocyte because of its internalization. The presence of MGLL in the cytoplasm of oocytes might help FAAH in the degradation of cannabinoids (Yazulla 2008). Nevertheless, the co-localized MGLL and CB1 observed at GV might have a coordinated function, as has also been described in axon terminals of some rat cerebral areas (Gulyas et al. 2004).

The regulation of “AEA tone” by FAAH has been proposed as an important event in the oviduct during early pregnancy (Wang et al. 2006a, 2006b), in blastocyst activation (Wang et al. 2003) and during implantation (Paria et al. 1999), but no hypotheses have been proposed in relation to such a process in oocyte maturation. Even so,

the AEA concentration in human follicular fluid has been reported to rise during oocyte maturation (El-Talatini et al. 2009) and this concentration is even higher in the oviduct (Gebeh et al. 2012). In humans, on average, one oocyte completes growth each month and is ovulated in response to a mid-cycle surge of LH and in response to this LH surge, the oocyte resumes meiosis (Hunt and Hassold 2008). Hence, the resumption of meiosis in oocytes occurring in the oviduct, where the AEA concentration is higher than in follicular fluid and the relocation of CB1 and FAAH during nuclear maturation lead to the hypothesis that signaling involving AEA, CB1 and FAAH in the oocyte is involved in the resumption of meiosis. To date, the presence of 2-AG has only been described in the uterus of the female reproductive tract (Wang et al. 2007) but whether it is present in the ovary or the oviduct is unknown; this merits investigation to elucidate the role of MGLL during the resumption of meiosis. In addition, the presence of CB1, FAAH and MGLL in granulosa cells suggests that the endocannabinoids act not only over the oocyte but also over the granulosa cells (Agirreagoitia et al. 2015).

In the present study, we found *FAAH* but not *MGLL* mRNA in mature oocytes, although the proteins of both receptors are present during all stages of meiotic resumption. *MGLL* mRNA might be absent because its transcription becomes silent after the resumption of meiosis until the 4- to 8-cell stage (Gosden and Lee 2010) and because the mRNA is selectively degraded during oocyte maturation (Stitzel and Seydoux 2007). Moreover, the timing and pattern of RNA synthesis in the oocyte is known not necessarily to coincide with translation into an active protein (Picton et al. 1998). Importantly, we do not consider that our observations concerning the behavior of the compounds of the cannabinoid system studied in this work can be attributed to an artifact associated with fertilization failure, since our results from unfertilized oocytes and non-sperm-exposed oocytes are not significantly different (Supplementary Fig. 5).

In conclusion, our study reports, for the first time, the presence of the cannabinoid-degrading enzymes FAAH and MGLL during the meiotic resumption in human oocytes. As CB1 and CB2 are present in oocytes (Peralta et al. 2011) and as AEA is present in follicular and oviductal fluids (Schuel et al. 2002; El-Talatini et al. 2009), our results suggest that oocytes can regulate the “AEA tone” near the microenvironment in which the communication between oocyte and granulosa cells takes place. Further studies are needed to investigate the role of the cannabinoid system during the nuclear maturation of the oocyte, because our results might have an impact on the design of culture media for assisted reproductive technology and treatments, especially for in vitro maturation.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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Original Paper

Tetrahydrocannabinol Modulates *in Vitro* Maturation of Oocytes and Improves the Blastocyst Rates after *in Vitro* Fertilization

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Key Words

Oocyte • Maturation • THC

Abstract

Background/Aims: Among the assisted reproductive techniques, the *in vitro* maturation of oocytes (IVM) is less developed than other techniques, but its implementation would entail a qualitative advance. This technique consists in the extraction of immature oocytes from antral ovarian follicles with the patient under low hormone stimulation or without hormone to mature exogenously in culture media supplemented with different molecules to promote maturation. In this sense, we are interested in the role that cannabinoids could have as IVM promoters because cannabinoid's molecular pathway is similar to the one by which oocyte's meiosis resumption is activated. With the intention of advancing in the possible use of cannabinoids as supplements for the media for *in vitro* maturation of oocytes, we intend to deepen the study of the function of the phytocannabinoid Δ -9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) in the IVM process. **Methods:** By immunocytochemistry, we detected the location pattern of cannabinoid receptor type 1 (CB1) and type 2 (CB2) during oocyte maturation in presence or absence of THC, as well as, the staining pattern of p-AKT and p-ERK. We used a genetic/pharmacological approach generating knockout oocytes for CB1 and/or CB2 and they were incubated with THC during the oocyte maturation to visualize the physiological effects of THC, observing the rate of blastocyst achieved by oocyte. **Results:** This study confirms that the incubation of oocytes with THC during IVM accelerated some events of that process like the phosphorylation pattern of ERK and AKT and was able to increase the blastocyst rate in response to IVF. Moreover, it seems that both CB1 and CB2 are necessary to maintain a healthy oocyte maturation. **Conclusion:** Our data suggest that THC may be useful IVM supplements in clinic as is more feasible and reliable than any synthetic cannabinoid.

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Introduction

For years now, growing fertility problems and current changes in family patterns have resulted in a wider use of assisted reproduction techniques (ART) among couples trying to get pregnant [1–3]. Even so, the success of ARTs is not yet complete and the research work continues to improve these techniques. Among the ARTs, the *in vitro* maturation of oocytes (IVM) is less developed than other techniques, but its implementation would entail a qualitative advance. This technique consists in the extraction of immature oocytes from antral ovarian follicles with the patient under low hormone stimulation or without hormone. The oocytes are then exogenously matured in culture media supplemented with different molecules to promote maturation [4, 5].

The most important goal of IVM method is that could be the only hope or alternative for a high number of patients unable to tolerate high doses of gonadotropins, such as patients with polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) or ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome (OHSS) [6, 7]. In general, clinical pregnancy and implantation rates per embryo transfer have reached 35%–40% and 15%–20%, respectively, in infertile women with PCOS after IVM of immature oocytes [8]. Further candidates for oocyte IVM are patients whose ovarian tissue was frozen due to a pre-existing disease such as cancer, in whom hormone stimulation was not recommended or there was insufficient time to undergo a normal *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) cycle [9]. In addition, by avoiding controlled ovarian stimulation, the IVM procedure eliminates the need for frequent ultrasound monitoring and is thus less costly than conventional IVF [10].

The complexity lies in that the oocyte meiotic maturation is a complex process whereby immature oocytes acquire the characteristics required for successful fertilization and embryogenesis. For that, immature oocytes arrested at the diplotene of prophase I (designed as germinal vesicles -GV-) must resume meiosis until the metaphase II of meiosis (MII) [11].

However, although some mechanisms that lead the reactivation of meiosis are still to be explained, it is known that the oocyte maturation involves the activation of various signal transduction pathways that converge to activate maturation-promoting factor. Among others, there are some evidence that heterotrimeric G-proteins, which inhibit adenylate cyclase, can interact with both PI3K and MAPK to promoting the oocyte maturation [12]. In this sense, we are interested in the role that cannabinoids could have as IVM promoters. On the one hand, the molecular cascade that cannabinoids exerts when they activate the G-protein coupled cannabinoid receptors (inhibition of adenylate cyclase, reducing cAMP, and activation of PI3K/Akt and MAPK pathways) is very similar to the one that occurs during oocyte meiotic resumption [13, 14]. On the other hand, some studies described the presence of the cannabinoid system in human [15–19], bovine [20] and murine [21] oocytes, and, at least in the two last species, synthetic cannabinoids were able to modulate the oocyte maturation [20, 21].

Being this the general content, with the intention of advancing in the possible use of cannabinoids as supplements for the media for *in vitro* maturation of oocytes, we intend to deepen the study of the function of the phytocannabinoid Δ -9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC). The THC is called phytocannabinoid because it is a compound of the plant *Cannabis sativa*, and it has attracted particular attention since its synthetic analogs dronabinol and nabilone are licensed for medicinal use [22]. Even so, the use of phytocannabinoids as THC in clinic is more feasible and reliable than any synthetic cannabinoid [23, 24].

The aim of this study is to characterize the role of the phytocannabinoid THC in the IVM process. To that end, we used a genetic/pharmacological approach generating knockout oocytes for CB1 and/or CB2 receptors. They were modulated pharmacologically during the oocyte maturation to visualize the physiological effects of THC. Our results support the notion that the incubation of oocytes with THC during IVM accelerated some events of that process like the phosphorylation pattern of ERK and AKT and was able to increase the blastocyst rate in response to IVF. Moreover, it seems that both CB1 and CB2 are necessary to maintain a healthy oocyte maturation.

Materials and Methods

Experimental animals

The adult wild-type, *Cnr1*^{-/-} [25], *Cnr2*^{-/-} [26] and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice used in this study were kept in an animal house under controlled conditions of temperature (22 ± 1°C) and photoperiod (light/dark cycle 14 h:10 h). Animals were given free access to water and food. All experimental procedures using mice were approved by the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU, CEEA reference number: M20-2015-016-027-028-173) and were performed according to the *Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals*, endorsed by the Society for the Study of Reproduction and European legislation.

Isolation and in vitro maturation of cumulus–oocyte complexes

Female 8 to 10 week old WT (C57BL/6x6CBA) or KO on a C57BL/6N background (*Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-}, and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}) mice were superovulated by intraperitoneal injections of 5 IU equine chorionic gonadotropin (Folligon, Intervet, Castle Hill, NSW, Australia), and ovaries were collected 46 to 48 h later. The ovaries were cleaned of any connective tissue and placed in handling medium M2 supplemented with 4 mg/ml bovine serum albumin fraction V. Antral follicles were punctured with 30-gauge needles, and immature cumulus–oocyte complexes (COCs) were collected in handling medium. Only COCs with 3 compact cumulus cells were used. COCs were matured for 17 h in TCM-199 supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (FCS) and 10 ng/ml epidermal growth factor at 37°C under an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in air with maximum humidity.

IVM supplementation with cannabinoid agonist THC

The THC stock solutions were prepared in DMSO. During maturation (17 h), COCs were incubated with different doses of THC (10⁻⁹ M, 10⁻⁸ M, 10⁻⁷ M and 10⁻⁶ M) to evaluate the effects of activation of cannabinoid receptor by this agonist. Once obtained the most efficient concentration for oocyte maturation, to see the phosphorylation pattern of ERK and AKT proteins and the effect on embryo development, the COCs were incubated with 10⁻⁷ M (100nM) of THC. COCs containing the same amount of DMSO were used as an incubation control.

Meiotic progression of mice oocytes undergoing IVM with THC

To determinate the impact of THC on germinal vesicle breakdown (GVBD), COCs from experimental group and control with DMSO at 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 17h of IVM were used as described previously [27]. In sum, COCs were partially denuded in 0, 1% of hyaluronidase (Sigma H3506) and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Panreac, Barcelona, Spain) for 20 min. Then, were washed twice in PBS and incubated in PBS containing Hoechst 33342 (0.01 mg/ml) for 15 min. Oocytes were then placed in glass slides and squashed with coverslip in order to visualize the nuclear stage under microscopy (Zeiss Axioskop, NY, USA).

Immunofluorescence

For these experiments, 3 females per genotype were used in 3 replicate trials. Once meiotic stages were established, to immunocytochemically localize the CB1 and CB2, 20 WT oocytes per stage were treated as previously described [17]. Briefly, *in vitro* matured oocytes in presence or absence of THC were washed in PBS supplemented with 1% polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Panreac, Barcelona, Spain) for 10 min at room temperature. The oocytes were then permeabilized by incubation in PBS with 10% (v/v) FCS and 1% Triton X-100 for 45 min at room temperature. After permeabilization, oocytes were incubated overnight at 4°C in PBS containing 1% PVA, 5% normal FCS serum, and 1:100 rabbit polyclonal anti-cannabinoid CB1 (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) and 1:400 rabbit polyclonal anti-cannabinoid CB2 (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI, USA). After incubation, oocytes were washed twice in PBS containing 1% PVA and incubated in PBS supplemented with 1% PVA, 5% FCS serum, and 1:500 goat polyclonal secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 488 (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA) for 2 h at room temperature. Next, the oocytes were washed 3 times in PBS–1% PVA. In all cases, nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342 (0.01 mg/ml) during the second wash to facilitate the determination of the maturation stage of each oocyte [28]. Finally, oocytes were mounted in microdrops with Fluoromount G (EMS, Hatfield, United Kingdom) and examined by confocal microscopy (Fluoview FV500; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). Negative controls were prepared in the same way omitting the primary antibody before addition of the secondary antibody.

To monitor the activation of pERK1/2 and pAKT signaling during oocyte maturation in the presence of cannabinoids, an average number of 20 oocytes was collected at 0 h, 10 min, 30 min and 1 h to evaluate the initial response, and at 17 h as the optimal time for maturation. Rabbit polyclonal phospho-ERK1/2 (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA) primary antibody was used at a 1:400 dilution and Rabbit phospho-Akt (Ser473) (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA) 1:200 primary antibody was used at a 1:400 dilution. Finally, oocytes were mounted in microdrops with Fluoromount G (EMS, Hatfield, United Kingdom) and examined by confocal microscopy (LSM 800, Zeiss, NY, USA). Negative controls were performed in the same way, except for omission of the primary antibody before secondary antibody addition.

Isolation and in vivo maturation of COCs

MII oocytes were collected from 8- to 10-week-old oviducts of female WT (C57BL/6xCBA) or KO (*Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}) superovulated by intraperitoneal injections of 5 IU equine chorionic gonadotropin (Folligon), followed 48 h later by 7.5 IU of human chorionic gonadotropin (Veterin Corion; Divasa-Farmavic S.A., Spain.). Briefly, at 14 h after human chorionic gonadotropin administration, oviducts were removed from superovulated female mice and placed in a Petri dish containing M2 at 37°C. After washing, collected oviducts were placed in fresh M2 medium, and COCs were released from the antrum with the aid of Dumont #55 forceps and washed in new M2 medium until fertilization.

In vitro fertilization

Sperm from C57BL/6xCBA male mice aged 6 to 24 wk and of proven fertility were incubated for 1 h in human tubal fluid (HTF) medium under 5% CO₂ at 37°C for capacitation. After *in vitro* or *in vivo* maturation, COCs were transferred to a 500 µl equilibrated HTF drop and overlaid with mineral oil and a 1 × 10⁶ concentration of spermatozoa. All *in vitro* fertilization experiments were repeated 9 times using 3 females per genotype.

Rates of oocyte nuclear maturation and fertilization

To assess whether adding THC affected rates of oocyte nucleus maturation and fertilization, the presence of the first polar body and pronuclear formation were identified respectively. At 24 h after fertilization, all presumptive zygotes that had not divided into 2 cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min and then stained with Hoechst 33342 (0.01 mg/ml) for observation with a immunofluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axioskop, NY, USA) under UV light.

In vitro culture of embryos

Five hours after *in vitro* fertilization, 10-25 presumptive zygotes from oocytes of female WT (C57BL/6xCBA) or KO (*Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}) were washed in HTF medium and cultured in 20-µl drops of equilibrated culture medium KSOMaa overlaid with mineral oil at 37°C under an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in air with maximum humidity. Embryos were cultured for 5 d, and cleavage rates were assessed on d 1 (24 h after fertilization) and blastocysts on d 4 (96-100 h after fertilization).

TUNEL analysis

Apoptosis was determined by in situ DNA 3 end labelling of histological sections using a non-radioactive labelling method [Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase mediated dUTP nick-end labelling assay (TUNEL) from detection Kit, TUNEL POD (ROCHE)]. The control oocytes, the vehicle (DMSO) group and THC group were processed as per the manufacturer's instructions. The apoptotic cells appear in fluorescent green whereas the nucleus was marked in blue with Hoechst 33342.

Statistical analysis

All statistical tests were performed by using Graphpad software (GraphPad Software, Inc. La Jolla, CA 92037 USA). The mean and standard error of the mean of cleavage rates, blastocyst yields, the percentage change of blastocyst rate between the 4 genotypes were compared by 1-way ANOVA followed by multiple pairwise comparisons by using the Tukey's *post hoc* test in most data. Paired t-test was performed to compare the difference between treatments (without and with THC). Values of *P* < 0.05 were considered significant.

Statement of Ethics

All experimental procedures using mice were approved by the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU, CEEA reference number: M20-2015-016-027-028-173) and were performed according to the Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, endorsed by the Society for the Study of Reproduction and European legislation.

Results

CB1 receptor location-pattern during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation of oocyte in presence or absence of THC

To analyse if the THC has any effect on the relocation of CB1 during the oocyte maturation, we incubated the immature oocytes with increasing concentrations of THC during 17h and we collected the oocytes at 10 min, 30 min, 1 h and 17 h to observe the CB1 location-pattern.

As it is known, in immature oocytes, CB1 is homogeneously localized over the GV and the receptor is relocated to the periphery of the oocyte after GVBD, when meiosis resume, which happens after more than one hour of maturation (Control of Fig. 1). However, the presence in the incubation media of any tested concentration of THC (from 10^{-9} M to 10^{-6} M) accelerated the relocation of CB1 receptor from GV to the periphery of oocytes. Thus, the staining of CB1 in GV disappeared before 1 h of incubation (quicker than in control) and, specifically, the concentration of 10^{-7} M of THC led to accelerate that relocation before 30 min (Fig. 1).

CB2 receptor location-pattern during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation in presence or absence of THC

To continue understanding the role of THC in oocyte maturation and after determining its effect on CB1 receptor relocation, we also examined the effect of THC on location of CB2 receptor. We performed the same experiment explained previously for CB1. CB2 showed a homogeneous distribution-pattern in the whole oocyte with more staining intensity in the periphery of the oocyte at all tested times both in absence or in presence of THC (Fig. 2).

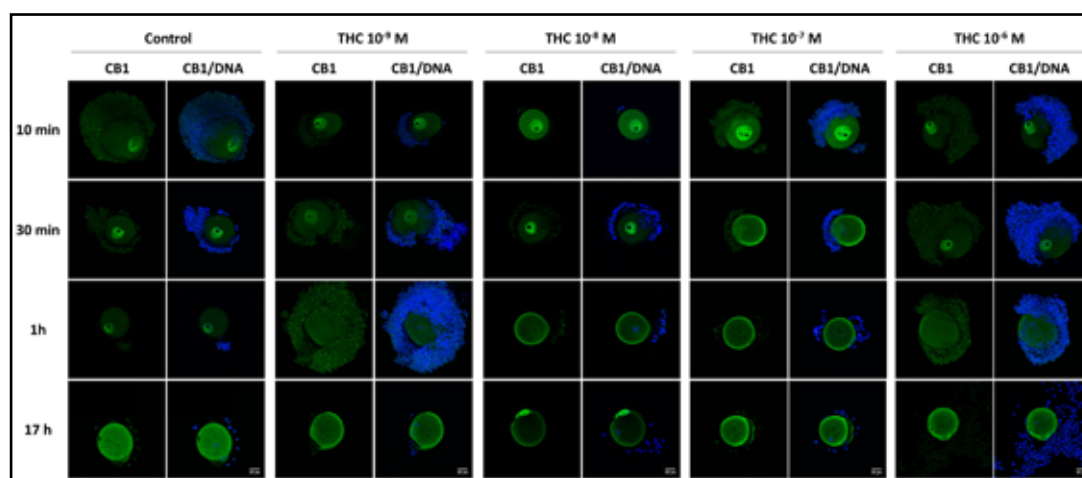


Fig. 1. Immunolocalization of CB1 during the maturation of mouse oocytes. Immature COCs were cultured *in vitro* in absence of THC and in presence of THC at 1 nM (10^{-9} M), 10 nM (10^{-8} M), 100 nM (10^{-7} M) and 1 μ M (10^{-6} M) during 10 min, 30 min, 1h and 17 h. The distribution of CB1 is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. n = 5 independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had the same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown. Scale bars, 25 μ m.

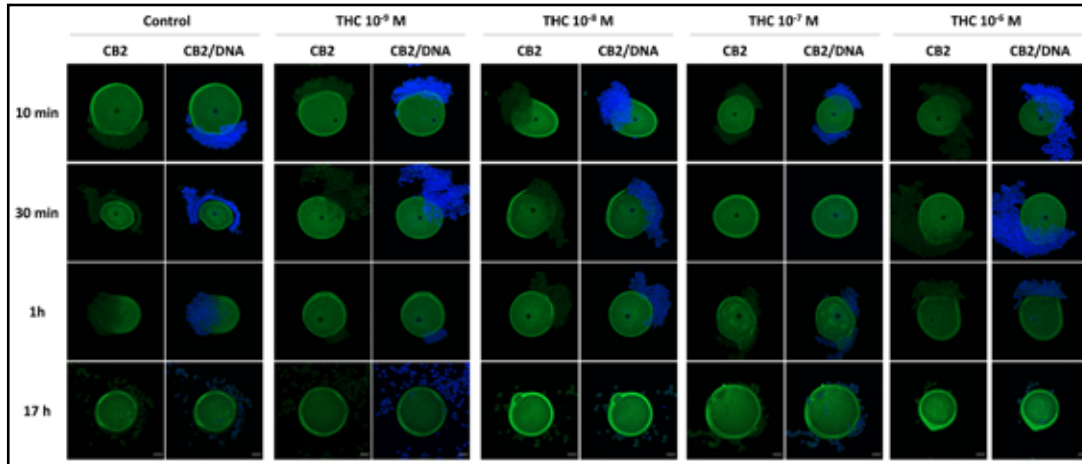


Fig. 2. Immunolocalization of CB2 during the maturation of mouse oocytes. Immature COCs were cultured *in vitro* in absence of THC and in presence of THC at 1 nM (10^{-9} M), 10 nM (10^{-8} M), 100 nM (10^{-7} M) and 1 μ M (10^{-6} M) during 10 min, 30 min, 1h and 17 h. The distribution of CB1 is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. $n = 5$ independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown. Scale bars, 20 μ m.

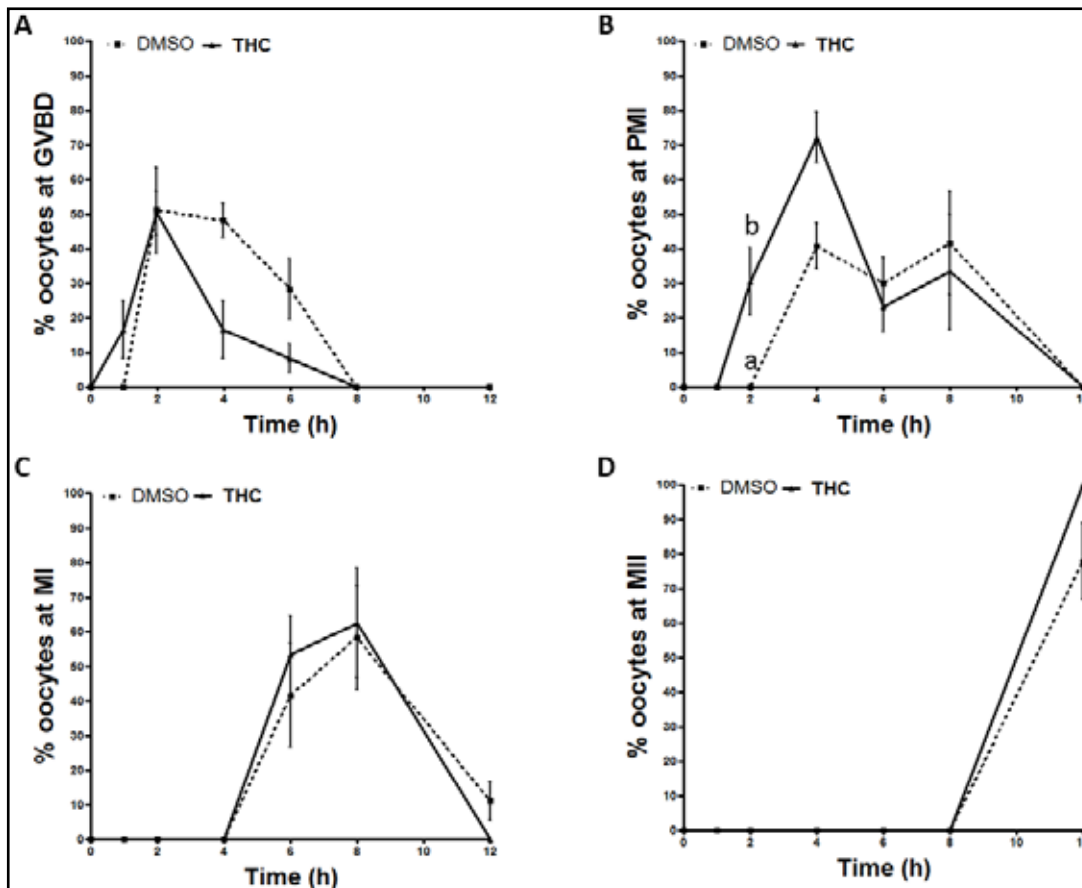


Fig. 3. Changes in nuclear maturation of oocytes. Results are expressed as percentage of oocytes at each stage of maturation at each point: (A) germinal vesicle break down, GVBD; (B) pro-metaphase I stage, PMI; (C) metaphase I stage, MI; (D) metaphase II stage, MII. $n = 5$ independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. Significant differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; $p < 0.05$ in all cases.

Meiotic progression of mice oocyte's exposed to THC

To determinate if THC has also some effect on oocyte nuclear maturation we fixed oocytes after 0, 2, 4, 6, 8 and 12h of IVM where media was supplemented with 10^{-7} M of THC or vehicle (DMSO). Oocytes nuclear stage was classified in germinal vesicle (GV), germinal vesicle break down (GVBD), pro-metaphase I (PMI), metaphase I (MI) and metaphase II (MII). At 0h all the oocytes were in GV stage (Fig. 3A) and after 2h of IVM a significant higher percentage of PMI was detected when we used THC compared with the oocytes matured in presence of the vehicle (Fig. 3B). After 4h of IVM the majority of the oocytes were at PMI, but no differences were observed among treatments. Also after 8 h of IVM, all groups reached MI (Fig. 3C) at the same time. After 12 h of maturation a higher percentage of MII stage was found in THC experimental groups compared with control (Fig. 3D) but that difference was not significant. Finally, after 17 hours, all the oocytes of both treatments arrived at MII (data not shown).

Phosphorylation pattern of ERK1/2 during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation in presence or absence of THC

As signaling via MAPKs plays a role in the oocyte maturation and that pathway is commonly modulated by cannabinoids, we used the cannabinoid agonist THC to determine whether the activation of the CB1 and CB2 receptors during oocyte maturation could affect the phosphorylation pattern of ERK1/2 compared with oocytes matured in presence of the vehicle (DMSO).

According to the results obtained in the relocation of cannabinoid receptors during the maturation of oocytes, for these experiments we used the concentration of THC that generated the most changes regarding the relocation of the receptors in comparison to the control (10^{-7} M).

In immature oocytes, ERK1/2 was dephosphorylated but, after 17 h of incubation (the time required for mouse oocyte maturation), ERK1/2 was phosphorylated in oocytes. At 10 min, ERK1/2 appeared phosphorylated only in the granulose cells of oocytes incubated with THC. We did not observe the phosphorylation of granulose cells of control oocytes until 30 min. However, at that time, the COCs incubated with THC had already dephosphorylated its granulose cells but, instead, we could observe the presence of phosphorylated ERK1/2 inside the oocyte. At 1 h of incubation, the oocytes incubated with THC showed more intense phosphorylated ERK1/2 compared with the control and, at that time, the granulose cells of control COCs had already been dephosphorylated (Fig. 4A).

When we used oocytes from knock out mice where the cannabinoids receptors were absent (*Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}), we did not observe difference in the phosphorylation pattern of ERK1/2 between the oocytes matured in the presence or absence of THC (Fig. 4B, 4C and 4D).

Phosphorylation pattern of AKT during the resumption of meiosis and nuclear maturation in presence or absence of THC

The pathways mediated by AKT are also key in the oocyte maturation and that kinase is also modulated by cannabinoids, so, we used THC to determine whether the activation of the CB1 and CB2 receptors during oocyte maturation could affect the phosphorylation pattern of AKT compared with oocytes matured in presence of the vehicle (DMSO).

We performed the same experiments as previously explained for pERK1/2. In this case, we observed few differences in the phosphorylation pattern of AKT in response to 10 and 30 min of treatment with THC, where the AKT was phosphorylated in granulose cells while it was undetectable in granulose cells exposed to vehicle. From that moment, the pattern of phosphorylation observed in the COCs treated with THC or vehicle was similar (Fig. 5A).

When we used oocytes from knock out mice where the cannabinoids receptors were absent (*Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}), we did not observe difference in the phosphorylation pattern of AKT between the oocytes matured in the presence or absence of THC (Fig. 5B, 5C and 5D).

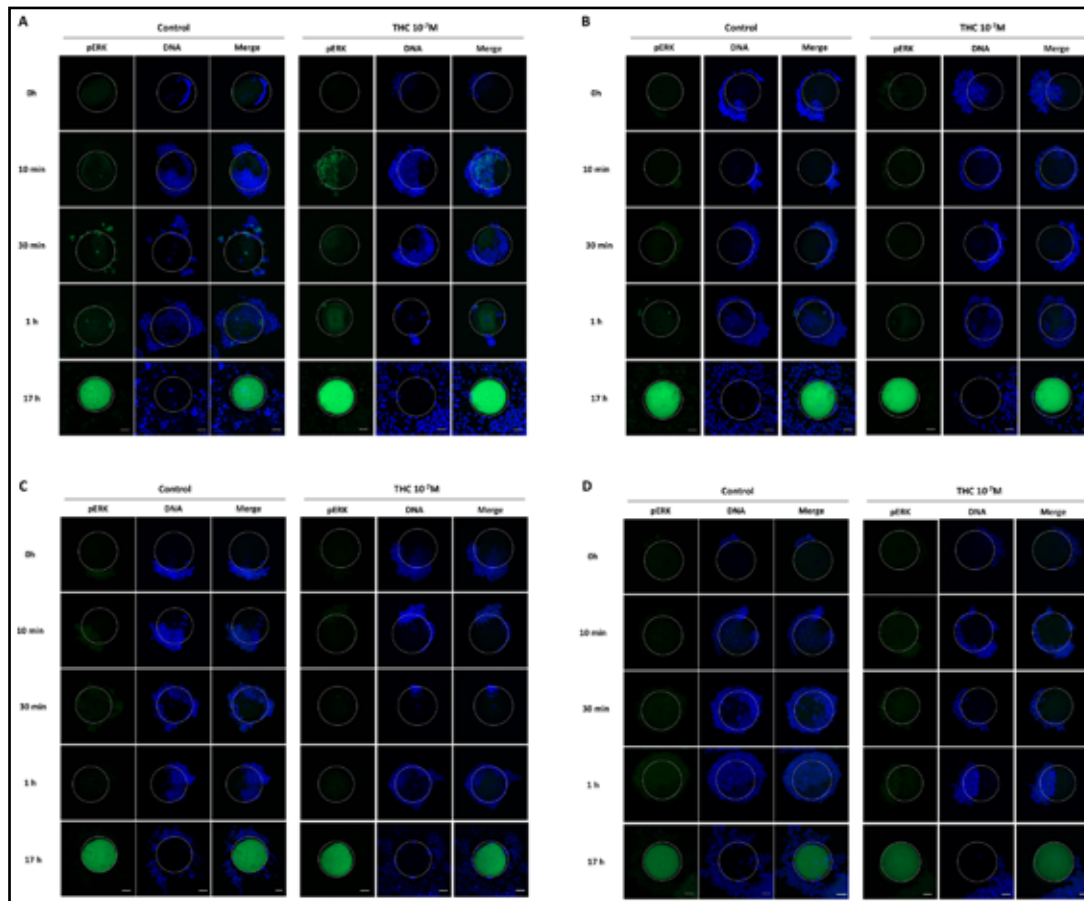


Fig. 4. Phosphorylation of ERK by THC during oocyte maturation. Immature GV oocytes from (A) wild type mice, (B) *Cnr1*^{-/-} mice, (C) *Cnr2*^{-/-} mice and (D) *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice were cultured *in vitro* in presence of 10⁻⁷ M of THC or in absence of it (control) for 17 h and the phosphorylation status of ERK (pERK) was observed at 0, 10 min, 30 min, 1 h and 17 h. pERK is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. n = 5 independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown. Scale bars, 20 μ m.

Apoptosis analysis in oocytes exposed to THC during maturation

To check if the presence of THC, during the 17 hours it was in contact with the COCs, was harmful, the detection of apoptotic oocytes or granulosa cells was performed using the *in situ* TUNEL analysis. We did not observe any apoptotic cell in the COCs treated with THC during maturation or in those treated only with the vehicle (DMSO) (Fig. 6).

Blastocyst rate produced from oocytes matured in presence or absence of THC

Our next objective was to test whether exposure of COCs to THC during oocyte maturation would affect the maturation observing the fertilization and/or subsequent embryo development rate. For that purpose, we cultured, *in vitro*, immature COCs during 17 h (the average time to mature mice oocytes) in absence or presence of 10⁻⁷ M of THC and, then, we performed the *in vitro* fertilization (IVF).

The incubation with THC had no significant effect on rates of mature oocytes (MII), fertilized zygotes and 2-cell embryos compared to vehicle-treated oocytes. However, THC led to a significant improvement in blastocysts rate since twice as many embryos were produced when we used a 10⁻⁷ M concentration of THC, compared to vehicle (Fig. 7A).

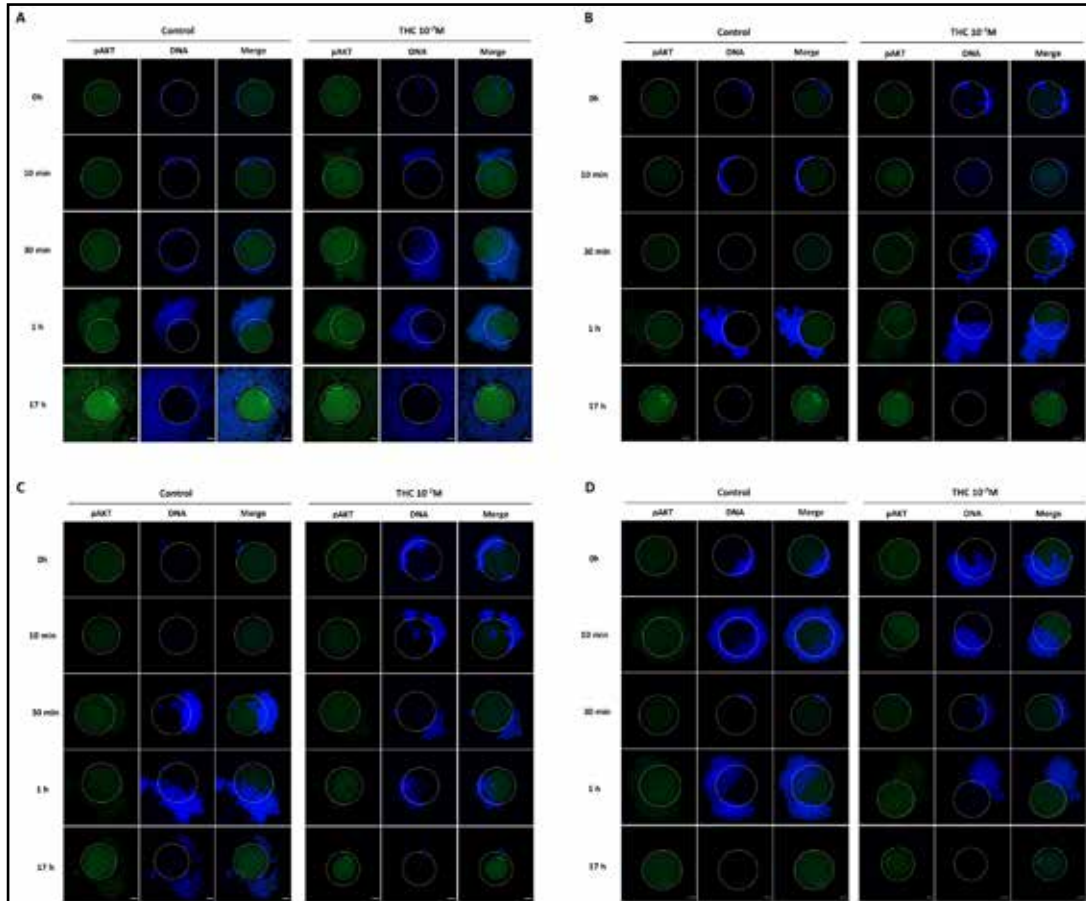


Fig. 5. Phosphorylation of AKT by THC during oocyte maturation. Immature GV oocytes from from (A) wild type mice, (B) *Cnr1*^{-/-} mice, (C) *Cnr2*^{-/-} mice and (D) *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice were cultured *in vitro* in presence of 10⁻⁷ M of THC or in absence of it (control) for 17 h and the phosphorylation status of AKT (pAKT) was observed at 0, 10 min, 30 min, 1 h and 17 h. pAKT is shown in green. Hoechst-labelled DNA is shown in blue. n = 5 independent experiments of 15 oocytes per treatment. All of analysed oocytes had same staining pattern; representative photomicrographs are shown. Scale bars, 20 μ m.

Fig. 6. Analysis of apoptotic cells, by TUNEL, in COCs treated with vehicle (DMSO) or THC. Apoptotic cells showed in green and DNA, stained by Hoechst 3342, in blue. Representative photomicrographs are shown.

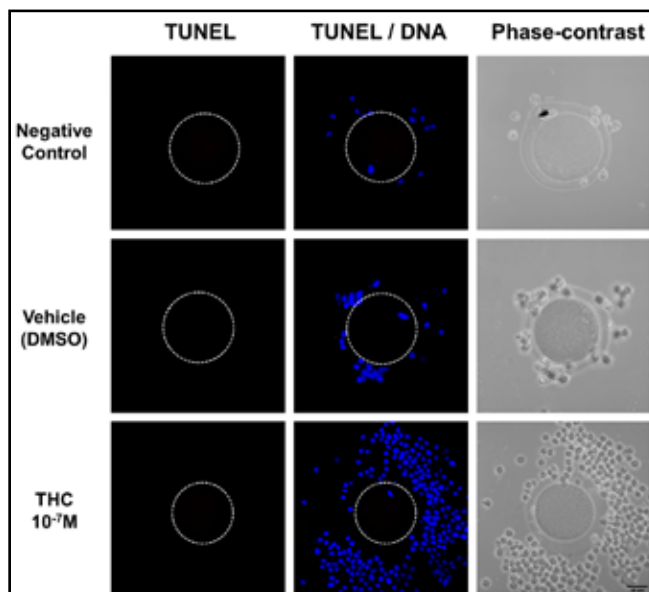


Fig. 7. Response to THC 10^{-7} M during oocyte maturation (17 h) measured as rates of metaphase II oocytes (MII), fertilized oocytes, 2 cell-stage embryos and blastocysts after IVF. The Fig. shown the embryo development observed for oocytes incubated with vehicle (DMSO) (white) and incubated with THC 10^{-7} M (black). The sperm always came from WT mice and the oocytes came from A) wild type (WT) mice, B) *Cnr1*^{-/-} mice, C) *Cnr2*^{-/-} mice and D) *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice. Results are the mean of % ± SEM of 10 independent experiments. Significant differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; $p < 0.005$ in all cases.

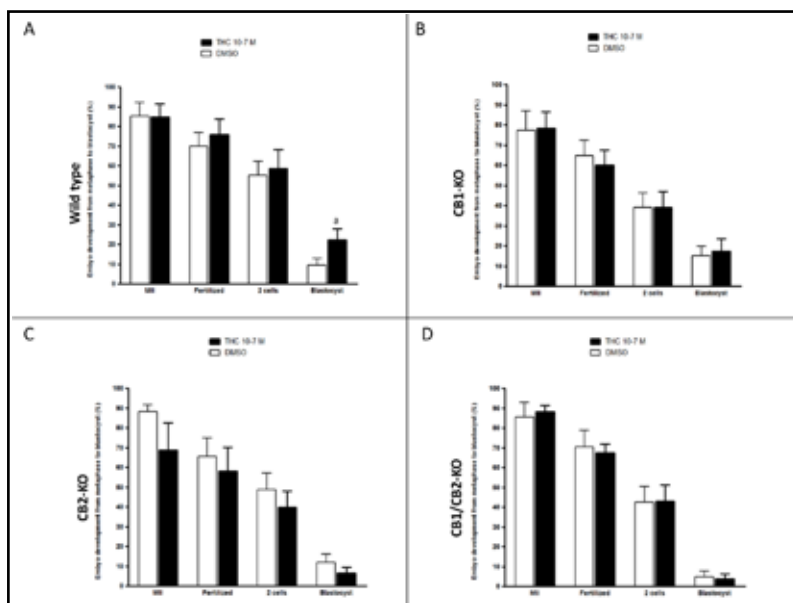
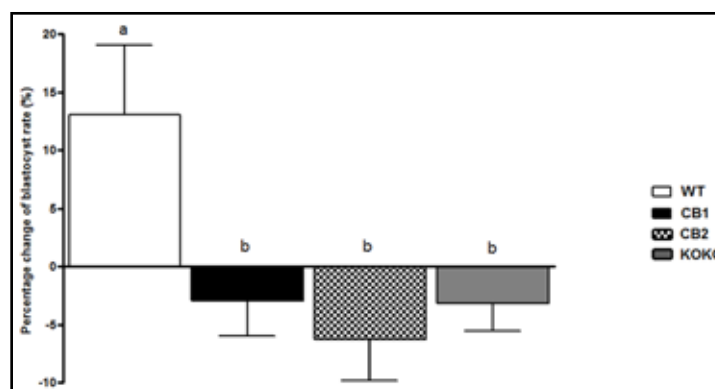


Fig. 8. Percentage change of blastocysts rate between control and treatment. Blastocysts rate changes using oocytes from wild type (WT) mice (white), *Cnr1*^{-/-} mice (black), *Cnr2*^{-/-} mice (dotted) and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice (grey). Results are the mean ± SEM of 10 independent experiments. Significant differences between treatments are indicated with different letters; $p < 0.05$ in all cases.



To be able to know if the observed action of THC was carried out by CB1 and/or CB2 receptor, we also performed the IVM with COCs from knock out mice *Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-} and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-}, followed by the subsequent IVF done using sperm from wild type male mice. That way, we were able to verify that the effect observed on *in vitro* embryo development were effectively attributable to the absence of the cannabinoid receptor during maturation and not to the *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) or embryo culture processes.

We did not observe any improvement on blastocyst rate between the oocytes treated with THC or with vehicle for any genotype (Fig. 7B, C and D). In that sense, taking into account the percentage change of blastocyst rate between control and treatment for each genotype, we observed that the only genotype where incubation of oocytes with THC is beneficial for an increase in the number of blastocysts is the wild type (Fig. 8).

Discussion

Through systematic series of genetic and pharmacologic experiments, we examined whether the use of THC acting via CB1 and/or CB2 modulated oocyte maturation in a mouse

model, and we tried to elucidate the mechanisms of such actions. The choice of using the phytocannabinoid THC has to do with the controversy generated by the use of synthetic cannabinoids [23, 24], which is why it seems that the use of THC in the clinic could be more feasible and reliable. Our observations in wild type, *Cnr1*^{-/-}, *Cnr2*^{-/-}, and *Cnr1*^{-/-}/*Cnr2*^{-/-} mice indicated that, when present during IVM of oocytes, the THC accelerated the relocation of CB1 receptor in oocytes. Moreover, the incubation of oocytes with THC during the IVM produced modulations in ERK1/2 and AKT phosphorylation and increased blastocyst rates achieved. Those effects seem to be achieved through both cannabinoid receptors studied (CB1 and CB2).

The first evidence that linked the endocannabinoid system and the oocyte maturation was that the endocannabinoid AEA (*N*-arachidonylethanolamide) was present in human follicular fluid [29] and its concentration rose during oocyte maturation [30, 31]. In previous works, it was detected the *Cnr1* mRNA transcript and protein of CB1 receptor in oocytes during *in vitro* and *in vivo* maturation [17, 20, 21]. Furthermore, CB1 receptor could be an indicator of oocyte nuclear maturation, because it was clearly localized over GV oocyte and it moves towards the periphery as it changes to the stage MII [17, 20, 21]. In the present work we saw how the presence of THC in the maturation media accelerated that relocation of CB1 receptor from GV to the periphery. That difference in relocation velocity is interesting because, in oocytes matured *in vivo*, CB1 was localized peripherally sooner than in oocytes matured *in vitro* [21] and, as is well established, the *in vitro* maturation process is delayed in comparison with *in vivo* maturation [32]. The presence of THC in the maturation media also accelerated the oocyte nuclear maturation of immature oocytes between 1 and 2 hours of incubation, similar times observed in the aforementioned acceleration of the relocation of CB1 receptor. The meiosis resumption also began earlier (around 2 h) when THC was present in the IVM media of bovine oocytes [20].

Although CB2 did not show any relocation difference during the IVM, we detect a peripheral location of this receptor did not previously found. So, as according to the classic theory of GPCR functionality, to exert its actions, a receptor needs to reach the cell surface [33], both CB1 and CB2 could have any involvement in oocyte maturation. Actually, there are data supporting the notion that GPCR-Gαi (such as CB1 and CB2) is a meiotic maturation inducer [34].

To know if the changes observed during the maturation of oocytes incubated with THC were observed in other processes of IVM, we analysed the phosphorylation-pattern of ERK1/2 and AKT, since those essential kinases regulate the oocyte meiosis progression [35]. Interestingly, the presence of THC during the oocyte maturation accelerated the phosphorylation-pattern of ERK1/2 and, to a lesser extent, the phosphorylation-pattern of AKT. Previously, it was described that the selective CB2 receptor agonist, JWH133, induced the ERK1/2 and AKT phosphorylation cascade in spermatogonia and their progression toward meiosis [36, 37]. In addition, in the previous functional experiments done with cows showed how the presence of THC during the IVM led to accelerate the phosphorylation-pattern of ERK1/2 and AKT kinases [20]. These results are in accordance with the fact that the activation (phosphorylation) of AKT stimulates the meiosis resumption, it is involved in the MI/MII transition and it regulates polar body emission and spindle organization [38–41]. In the same way, the prompt activation of ERK1/2 induces premature chromosome condensation and meiosis resumption as well as pronucleus breakdown [42]. It is interesting to highlight that the activation of CB2 by a treatment with JWH133 induced and accelerated the meiosis progression in fetal oocytes of mice, although they observed how also decreased the pool of primordial and primary follicles [43]. Even so our treatment with THC was *in vitro* and it only lasted 17 hours, and, that could be why we do not observe apoptosis in oocytes or granulosa cells as observed by De Domenico and co-workers [43] after systemic treatment with JWH133.

Finally, our last objective was to test whether all that changes described regarding the exposure of COCs to THC during oocyte maturation would affect the fertilization and/or subsequent embryo development rate in positive or negative manner. Although the incubation

with THC had no significant effect on rates of mature oocytes (MII), fertilized zygotes and 2-cell embryos compared to vehicle-treated oocytes, the THC led to an improvement in blastocysts rate (2 times more number of embryos). That improvement in the amount of blastocysts achieved had not been observed in previous experiments performed with THC in bovine oocytes [20], although it was observed using a synthetic agonist for CB1 in mice oocytes [21]. In addition, the experiments carried out by knockout mice for CB1 and/or CB2 receptors, confirmed that both receptors are involved in the modulation of oocyte maturation by THC since, when one of the two receptors is absent, the THC is not able to generate improvements in the ratio of blastocysts compared to the control.

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Author Contribution: Conceptualization and designed the experiments, L.T., N.A. and E.A.; Methodology and Investigation, L.T., E.O., A.P.L.C. (IVM, IVF, CIV); Methodology and Investigation, (immunocytochemistry) L.T., E.O., A.P.L.C.; L.T. and E.A. wrote the first draft of the manuscript. A.P.L.C., N.A. and E.A. contributed to editing and revising the manuscript. N.A. and E.A. supervised the project.

Disclosure Statement

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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