Original Article

Impact of Chronic Ethanol and Cannabis Intake on Reproductive Hormones and Associated Histopathological Changes in Adult Albino Rats


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ABSTRACT

Background: Cannabis is a versatile plant in conventional medicine, and intera-peritoneal infusion of its hydroalcoholic extract reduced sperm motility substantially over time. Seminiferous tubule diameter and sperm count both significantly reduced when compared to the control group. The reproductive system of animals undergoes morphological and physiological alterations as a result of chronic ethanol intake. Vitamin C has a crucial part in the male reproductive system and plays an antioxidant role in organisms by scavenging reactive oxygen species [ROS] created by oxidizing agents.

Aim of the work: Evaluation of effects of ethanol and cannabis consumption on adult albino's reproductive hormones together with histopathological changes.

Patients and Methods: The forty animals were divided into four groups: group I, which received only normal saline; group II, which was given oral ethanol [30% [v/v]] at a dose of 2 g/kg; group III, which obtained oral cannabis at an amount of 1.5 mg/kg; and group IV, which acquired alcohol and cannabis by way of ingestion and at the dose indicated above for 28 days. 24 hours after the last dose had been administered, rats were killed, blood was taken, and the resulting serum chemical profile was evaluated. Testes were gathered and measured. Glutathione, catalase, superoxide dismutase peroxidase inhibitor glutathione, malondialdehyde, and histology [hematoxylin and eosin] levels in the testes were measured.

Results: In comparison to controls, all experimental groups had significantly lower testosterone levels and testicular glutathione, catalase, superoxide dismutase [SOD], and peroxidase glutathione levels. Malondialdehyde, on the other hand, was markedly elevated in each group of experiments as compared to controls. Alcohol and/or cannabis produced structural abnormalities in the testes.

Conclusion: Ethanol and cannabis abuse had comparable, additive, and synergistic effects that were detrimental to male reproductive health. These effects may be related to how they damaged the body's antioxidant protection mechanism.

Keywords: Ethanol; Cannabis; Histopathological; Albino.

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INTRODUCTION

Cannabis [also known as marijuana] is made up of the vegetative and flowering segments of the Cannabis Sativa plant. It is typically smoked in pipes, cigarettes [also known as "joints" or "reefers"], or added to food [typically brownies or cookies]. The most widely used drug in the world, particularly among men and women who are of reproductive age, is marijuana. This is worrisome since marijuana usage may interfere with the body's natural endo-cannabinoid system, which may have an impact on both male and female reproductive well-being. There are cannabinoid receptors in the brain, pituitary, ovary, uterus, testes, and sperm, among other parts of the body [1].

A change in the reproductive system might occur in the anterior pituitary, hypothalamus, or gonads. This change may most likely cause reproductive issues, which would result in male infertility [2]. Male infertility occurs when a guy is unable to become pregnant after a year of sexual liaisons with a viable woman. Male infertility can be caused by a variety of factors, such as poor sperm quality, erectile dysfunction, aberrant sperm shape and function, low sperm counts, or blockages that limit sperm delivery [3]. Genetic defects, prolonged exposure to toxins and chemicals, medications that affect spermatogenesis like anabolic steroids, cimetidine, chemotherapy, spironolactone and those which lower fol [4], as well as those that decrease sperm motility including sulfasalazine and nitrofurantoin, as well as surrounding factors like smoking and substance misuse, can all lead to an imbalance in the concentration [5].

Drug addiction is a global problem that has a negative impact on a country's security, prosperity, and health. According to reports, substance misuse has a number of detrimental effects on women's and men’s reproductive health, which can lead to both sexes’ infertility. 20% of infertile couples have male-factor infertility as the only contributing factor, which is a result of male reproductive abnormalities [5]. Increased exposure to endocrine-disrupting substances, environmental pollutants, and substance addiction have all been linked to higher incidences of infertility [6].

Young people tend to combine alcohol use with other misused drugs in both developed and developing nations across the world. Since the beginning of ancient history, drinking alcohol has been a fundamental component of many civilizations. It is also seen as a lifestyle in connection with entertainment, relaxation, and other nighttime activities [7].

The purpose of this study was to look at the implications of continuous alcoholic and cannabis consumption on male reproductive hormones together with histopathological variations in adult albinos.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Forty male albino rats that were between 165 and 190 g in weight and were 8 weeks old were used in the experiment. The Department of Physiology Animal House at Mansura University in Egypt is home to the animals, which were bought from the Veterinary Institute, Mansura, Egypt. The New Damietta Al-Azhar University ethics committee [23- 01 - 012] gave its approval to the experiment methodology. Five animals were housed in each of the metabolic cages, which were kept at a temperature of 22 °C with a relative humidity of 50% and a 12-h/12-h light/dark cycle in accordance with established laboratory practices. They had unrestricted access to fresh water and rat food. The animals were acclimated for seven days before the trial began.

The administration of cannabis began after a 7-day acclimatization period. An orogastric tube [gavage] was used to give the cannabis orally once daily for 28 days.

The forty animals were separated into four groups: group I, which received only normal saline; group II, which was given oral ethanol [30% [v/v]] at a dose of 2 g/kg; group III, which was given oral cannabis at a dosage of 1.5 mg/kg; and group IV, that's was given ethanol and cannabis by way of ingestion and at the dose indicated above for 28 days.

The New Damietta, Al-Azhar University research committee gave permission to utilize cannabis and authorized it. It was crushed into a powder and dissolved in 250 cc of n-hexane for
72 hours before being filtered through paper and drying in a water bath. The dosage was then increased to 1.5 mg/kg body weight.

Each rat had blood drawn from the retro-orbital vein, which was then immediately transferred to heparinized tubes. The serum was extracted from the sera and centrifuged at 2000 g for 5 min at 4°C before being stored at 20°C for biochemical and hormonal analyses. The rats were then removed and cleaned with a 0.9% normal saline solution following the removal of blood samples and testing.

**Tissue-extract preparation**

Rats' left testes were promptly removed after they were decapitated, rinsed in 1.15% ice-cold solution, pat-dried, and then weighed to the closest milligrams using an electronic scale made by Shimadzu [model no. BL-220H; Kyoto, Japan]. The following formula was used to determine the tissue somatic indices:

\[
\text{Tissue somatic indices} = \frac{\text{weight of the tissue [g]}}{\text{body weight of the animal [g]}} \times 100.
\]

Each rat had its left testis painstakingly removed for the purpose of histological and oxidative stress testing. Slices of testicle have been homogenized to a 10% homogenate in a 0.1M Tris-HCl buffer was used at a pH 7.4 temperature. The homogenate was spun around at 5000 g for a period of fifteen minutes at 4 °C. The supernatant had been separated in order to analyze the oxidative stress indicators.

**Assay of superoxide dismutase and catalase activities**

The Misra and Fridovich \[8\] approach was used to measure the efficiency of superoxide dismutase [SOD]. In order to begin the reaction, 2.5 ml of carbonate buffer [0.05 M, pH 10.2] and 0.2 ml of the sample were added together with 0.3 ml of newly manufactured epinephrine [0.01%]. With the exception of the enzyme source, the mixture of ingredients was promptly mixed by inversion and read at 480 nm against a blank in a spectrophotometer after three minutes of intervals of 30 seconds. Activity was measured in units of protein per milligrams.

Clairborne \[9\] described how to measure the activity of the catalase enzyme [CAT]. Briefly, 1 ml of [0.7 ml] 50mM phosphate buffer [pH 7.4] containing [0.1 ml] 100mM H2O2 was added to 0.2 ml of sample [corresponding to 20–50 mg of protein]. The mixture used to react was incubated for a two-minute period at 37°C, and the rate of change in absorbance at 240 nm was noted. This signaled the H2O2's breakdown.

The quantity of protein required to convert 1 mmol of H2O2 per minute is equivalent to one unit of CAT activity. The amount of H2O2 used per milligrams of protein was used to indicate activity.

**Assay of glutathione peroxidase activity**

Using Rotruck *et al.* \[10\] techniques, Glutathione peroxidase [GSH-Px] efficiency had been assessed. The sample supernatant was collected, and the volume has been raised to two milliliters with distilled water. It included 0.5 milliliters of sodium phosphate buffering solution, 0.1 milliliter of 10 mM azide of sodium, 0.2 milliliters of 4 mM lesser glutathione [GSH], 0.1 ml of two and a half mM H2O2, and a rate of 0.5ml of the assay combination. The reaction was halted by introducing 0.5 milliliters of 10% trichloroacetic acid to the tubes after three minutes at 37 degrees Celsius. The supernatant had been separated in order to analyze the oxidative stress indicators.

**Determination of glutathione content**

The Rahman \[11\] approach was used to determine the GSH level using GSH as a reference. Homogenates were momentarily deproteinized with 10% TCA. After the precipitate was removed by centrifugation, a total of 0.5 ml of the residue, four milliliters of a buffer containing phosphate [0.1 M, pH 7.4], and half ml of the reaction mixture [0.4% in 0.1 M, pH 7.4] were added. The samples were then permitted to sit at the temperature of the room in the dark for five minutes after the vortex, and the yellow color that appeared was subsequently read at 412 nm with GSH as a reference. The total amount of GSH per milligrams protein content was measured.
Measurement of malondialdehyde content

The technique of Kong et al. [12] was used to quantify the amount of malondialdehyde (MDA) as thiobarbituric acid-reactive compounds in testicular tissues. In a nutshell, 0.5 ml of the supernatant were divided into aliquots, thoroughly mixed with 0.5 ml of 20% TCA, and centrifuged at 3000 g. The supernatant was combined with an equivalent amount of 0.67% thiobarbituric acid, which was dissolved in a 0.1M HCl solution. The combination was then heated at 100°C for one hour. The pink solution's absorbance was then determined at 532 nm using 1,1,3,3-tetraethoxypropane as a reference after being cooled with tap water. MDA concentration was measured in micromoles per milligram of protein.

Hormone determination

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kits were used to quantify the blood concentrations of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH), luteinizing hormone, testosterone, follicle-stimulating hormone and prolactin in accordance with the manufacturer's recommendations [13].

Histopathological evaluation of testis

Testes are extracted and then placed in Bouin's solution, which contains 0.2% formaldehyde and 0.2% picric acid in PBS. Haematoxylin and eosin (H & E) stains were applied to various segments. The little slides have accurate markings. Under a light microscope [Leica DM 750, Switzerland], photomicrographs were obtained at 400 times their original size.

Statistical analysis of data

The social sciences statistical software, version 20 [IBM®SPSS® Inc., USA], was fed the obtained data. The arithmetic mean and standard deviation were used to provide numerical data, and groups were compared using the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test [F-test] with the post-HOC least significant differences (LSD) calculation for comparison between each pair of groups. Significant was defined as a P value less than 0.05.

RESULTS

In the current study, group III and IV had considerably less amount of glutathione and SOD compared to group I, whereas group III and IV had substantially greater levels of catalase and MDA [Table 1].

In this particular study, GnRH, LH, and FSH levels substantially decreased in groups III and IV comparable to group I, whereas GnRH levels were significantly higher in groups II relative to group I. [Table 2].

| Table [1]: Comparison of the testicular antioxidant across the groups under study |
|---------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Glutathione                     | Group I | 2.7±0.42 | Group II | 2.1±0.21* |
| SOD                             | 0.78±0.08 | 0.76±0.2 | 0.34±0.01* | 0.31±0.03* |
| Catalase                        | 8.34±0.68 | 7.34±0.23 | 12.34±0.98* | 11.14±0.42* |
| MDA                             | 0.32±0.01 | 0.72±0.002* | 0.77±0.04* | 0.87±0.01* |
| Glutathione peroxidase          | 0.95±0.09 | 0.91±0.06 | 0.92±0.08 | 0.9±0.02 |
| * Significant compared to group I|

| Table [2]: Comparison between studied groups regarding reproductive hormones |
|---------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| GnRH                            | Group I | 80.45±7.8 | Group II | 62.7±4.5* |
| LH                              | 0.14±0.001 | 0.29±0.04 | 0.31±0.002* | 0.45±0.001* |
| Testosterone                    | 0.71±0.01 | 0.66±0.03 | 0.75±0.09 | 0.98±0.08 |
| FSH                             | 0.47±0.01 | 0.63±0.04 | 0.97±0.04* | 0.89±0.01* |
| Prolactin                       | 0.91±0.01 | 1.02±0.08 | 1.04±0.02 | 1.12±0.07 |
| * Significant compared to group I|
**DISCUSSION**

Antioxidant enzymes which involves glutathione peroxidase, SOD, and CAT are crucial for enhancing human health. They enhance human health by avoiding cell destruction brought on by radicals known as free radicals, reactive oxygen species created by the processes of metabolism, as well as during chronic diseases, according to Skrzydlewska et al. [14].

Antioxidants guard against oxidative harm to proteins and tissue. The effectiveness of GSH is influenced by the coenzyme accessibility and level of lipid peroxidation. Malondialdehyde [MDA] levels are employed as indicators of the peroxidation of lipids [oxidative damage] and the antioxidant status in cancer patients. Reactive oxygen species break down polyunsaturated lipids to produce malondialdehyde. Overproduction of MDA is brought on by an increase in free radicals [4].
As a result, the substantial rise in testicular MDA in rats given extract is a symptom of severe lipid peroxidation. In contrast, Abdel-Salam et al. [15] observed that mice fed cannabis had lower MDA levels. The considerable drop in testicular GSH levels observed in rats given extract may be related to inadequate selenium availability for GSH production. In contrast to the findings of Abdel-Salam et al. [15], who revealed higher GSH in mice administered cannabis found a significant decrease in GSH in our investigation. SOD converts superoxide anion into hydrogen peroxide, which is then cleaned up by CAT and GPx both inside and outside of cells. The significant increase in CAT seen in rats given extract may have been caused by hydrogen peroxide's negative health effects, which are caused by a number of chemical reactions and environmental variables.

The pronounced loss in sperm characteristics may be the cause of the decrease in these antioxidant enzyme concentrations and the rise in MDA in the testis of the extract rats compared to the control. This is due to the fact that oxidative stress impairs sperm functional competence by changing membrane fluidity and permeability [16].

According to Allery et al. [17]’s research, the reactive oxygen species [ROS] or radicals that are free of charge are the main source of oxidative stress. This may explain why SOD and catalase activities elevated in this study. Similar to that, this study’s increase in glutathione levels was a biological endeavor to combat lipid peroxidation. The cell membrane’s lipid peroxidation results in the generation of MDA. The plasma membrane’s lipid peroxidation is inversely correlated with MDA levels. The enhanced activity of antioxidant enzymes was supported by the raised MDA levels in the treated groups [18].

In the current study, there were significant decreases in gonadotropin-releasing hormone in groups II [alcohol], III [cannabis], and IV [combination] compared to group I. There were also significant increases in luteinizing hormone in groups III [cannabis] and IV [combination] compared to group I, as well as significant decreases in follicular stimulating hormone in groups III and IV.

The high plasma testosterone levels in these groups may have prevented GnRH release from the hypothalamus, which may have contributed to the GnRH drop in the rats given cannabis or cannabis combined with ethanol. In addition to being activated, the long loop negative feedback mechanism also inhibits GnRH. The central cannabinoid receptor located in the hypothalamus was said to be the mechanism causing this action [19]. High levels of serum FSH and LH in rats given extract are likely linked to lower levels of GnRH and higher levels of testosterone in this population, which may indicate a negative feedback inhibition [20].

Alcohol has an immediate harmful impact on the testes, leading to impaired seminiferous tubule function, in accordance with Muthusami and Chinnaswamy [21]’s research. After eight weeks of alcohol treatment, Oremosu and Akang [22] demonstrated that the rats displayed minimized GSH and testosterone levels. Alcohol’s influence on the anterior pituitary gland led to an overall decrease in LH and FSH production. This result is consistent with Ren et al. [23]’s studies that alcohol inhibits LH and FSH secretion as well as LH and FSH production. Alcohol significantly lowered GnRH levels following the sixteen-week research. This shows that chronic alcohol consumption affected the hypothalamus cells, causing them to secrete less GnRH. Alcohol affects Leydig cell activity in the testis immediately after administration, but it lowered pituitary gonadotropin secretions after eight weeks and decreased hypothalamus cell production of releasing hormones after sixteen weeks.

Alcohol, nicotine, and/or their combined applications resulted in architectural distortions and death of cells in testis, which reflected the biochemical adjustments. Testicular cell defects or death impact steroid production in the endoplasmic reticulum and a mitochondrial structure of the Leydig cell. Rats receiving just cannabis have normal histological cell structure. This would suggest that marijuana smoke’s chemical constituents don’t harm testicular cells. Tetrahydrocannabinol’s strong affinity for the prostatic acid phosphate active site raises the possibility that it may be utilized to prevent prostate cancer, and it also raises the possibility that cannabis smoking alone may not be detrimental to testicular function until paired with alcohol [24].

Conflict of Interest and Financial Disclosure: None.
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