

# MALE INFERTILITY: CAUSES AND OPTIMAL EVALUATION

MD. ABUL HOSSAIN<sup>1</sup>, MD. FAZAL NASER<sup>1</sup>, MD. SHAFIQUZ AZAM<sup>1</sup>, MD. WALIUZ ISLAM<sup>2</sup>, NITAI PADA BISWAS<sup>2</sup>, AKM MUSA BHUIYAN<sup>3</sup>, MOHAMMAD SALAHUDDIN FARUQUE<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Dept. of Urology, Shaheed Suhrawardy Medical College, <sup>2</sup>Dept. of Urology, National Institute of Kidney Diseases and Urology, <sup>3</sup>Dept. of Urology, Dhaka Medical college, <sup>4</sup>Dept. of Urology, BSMMU

### Abstract

**Objective:** To find out the optimum evaluation tools for male infertility.

**Methods:** Hinari database were searched for articles related to male infertility for review to find out how a male infertile patient can be evaluated optimally. EUA guidelines on Male Infertility and AUA best practice statement on Optimal Evaluation of the Infertile Male updated on 2010 were also considered for review.

**Results:** Initially thirty five articles were obtained and finally twenty eight articles were considered for review. Some cross references were considered to be cited in the reference section. We have mentioned in this review the evaluation tools those are necessary for male factor infertility at the optimum.

**Conclusion :** As male infertility problem are increasing so optimum evaluation should be carried out to diagnose every possible underlying cause.

**Key Words:** Male infertility, optimum evaluation, investigation, Epidemiology.

Bangladesh J. Urol. 2016; 19(1): 43-48

### Introduction:

The World Health Organization currently defines infertility as the inability of a sexually active couple (at least three times per month), not using contraception, to achieve pregnancy within one year [1]. Infertility can be classified as primary infertility when no pregnancy has ever occurred or secondary if it occurred after one or more pregnancies. Approximately 15% of couples are unable to conceive after one year of unprotected intercourse. A male factor is solely responsible in about 20% of infertile couples and contributory in another 30-40% [2]. Male infertility refers to a male's inability to result pregnancy in a fertile female. "Male factor" infertility is seen as an alteration in sperm concentration and/or motility and/or morphology in at least one sample of two sperm analyzes, collected 1 and 4 weeks apart. Males with sperm parameters below the WHO normal values are considered to have male factor infertility[3].

**Correspondence:** Md. Abul Hossain, Dept of Urology, Shaheed Suhrawardy Medical College, Dhaka, Bangladesh, E-mail:drmahossain.qpm@gmail.com

The prevalent rate varies between and within countries. For instance, in the United Kingdom and the United States of America it is estimated to be 6% and 10% respectively[4]. Male infertility is increasing on a global level is controversial and challenging to confirm [5,6]. Beyond the increasing burden of disease, male infertility causes significant psychosocial and marital stress, and is associated with a high cost of infertility care [7,8]. In Bangladesh one study suggest in 60% cases male are responsible for infertility either fully or partially. Of them 40% were azoospermic, 34% were oligospermic, 5% were asthenospermia and teratospermia and 1% were unexplained infertility[9]. In a World Health Organization multicentre study, 45% of infertile men were found to have either oligo-zoospermia or azoospermia [10]. In addition to the impact on family building, male infertility may be associated with increased risks of testis and prostate cancer[11,12]. Kolettis and Sabanegh found that 6% of all men referred for infertility harbored a serious disease [13]. Failure to identify diseases such as testicular cancer or pituitary tumors may have serious consequences, including, in rare cases, death. So, a

full evaluation preferably by a urologist or other specialist in male reproduction should be done for proper diagnosis and treatment. Detection of conditions for which there is no treatment will spare couples the distress of attempting ineffective therapies. Detection of certain genetic causes of male infertility allows couples to be informed about the potential to transmit genetic abnormalities that may affect the health of offspring. Thus, an appropriate male evaluation may allow the couple to better understand the basis of their infertility and to obtain genetic counseling when appropriate.

### **Causes of male infertility:**

There are both known and unknown causes of male infertility. Unfortunately, 30 — 50% of the etiologies of male infertility are unknown [14]. Possible known male factors that affect fertility include the following categories:

#### **Pre testicular:**

The pre testicular causes of infertility may be defined as extragonadal endocrine disorders, such as those originating in the hypothalamus, pituitary, or adrenals, which have an adverse effect on spermatogenesis through aberrant hormonal stimulation or suppression.

#### **Hypothalamic causes**

Gonadotropin deficiency (Kallmann syndrome)  
Isolated LH deficiency (“fertile eunuch”)  
Isolated FSH deficiency  
Congenital hypogonadotropic syndromes

#### **Pituitary causes**

Pituitary insufficiency (tumors, infiltrative processes, operation, radiation, deposits)

#### **Hyperprolactinemia**

Exogenous hormones (estrogen-androgen excess, glucocorticoid excess, hyper- and hypothyroidism)  
Growth hormone deficiency

#### **Testicular:**

The testicular causes of infertility are primary defects of the testes. These may be congenital or occur secondarily to environmental insults or other disease processes.

#### **Congenital**

Chromosomal (Klinefelter syndrome [XYY], XX sex reversal, XYY syndrome)  
Noonan syndrome (male Turner syndrome)

Myotonic dystrophy

Vanishing testis syndrome (bilateral anorchia)

Sertoli-cell-only syndrome (germ cell aplasia)

Y chromosome microdeletions (*DAZ*)

#### **Acquired**

Gonadotoxins (radiation, drugs)

Systemic disease (renal failure, liver failure, sickle cell anemia)

Defective androgen activity

Testis injury (orchitis, torsion, trauma)

Cryptorchidism

Varicocele

Idiopathic

#### **Post testicular**

The posttesticular causes of infertility consist primarily of obstructions of the ducts leading away from the testes. Congenital or acquired factors that disrupt normal transport of sperm through the ductal system.

#### **Reproductive tract obstruction**

##### **Congenital blockages**

Congenital absence of the vas deferens (CAVD)  
Idiopathic epididymal obstruction  
Ejaculatory duct obstruction

##### **Acquired blockages**

Vasectomy  
Groin surgery  
Infection  
Functional blockages  
Sympathetic nerve injury  
Pharmacologic  
Disorders of sperm function or motility  
Immotile cilia syndromes  
Maturation defects  
Immunologic infertility  
Infection

Disorders of coitus

Impotence

Hypospadias

Timing and frequency

#### **Other Factors that affect the fertility :**

- Environmental/occupational factors
- Toxic effects related to tobacco, marijuana, or other drugs
- Excessive exercise
- Inadequate diet associated with extreme weight loss or gain
- Advanced age

## Evaluation

Male factor infertility contributes partially and solely to the problem of childlessness in around 50% of the cases. Thus, evaluation of male infertility is essential in counseling couples for their fertility options. The full evaluation for male infertility should include a complete medical and reproductive history, a physical examination by a urologist or other specialist in male reproduction. The goals of the optimal evaluation of the infertile male are to identify:

- potentially correctable conditions;
- irreversible conditions that are amenable to assisted reproductive techniques using the sperm of the male partner;
- irreversible conditions that are not amenable to the above, and for which donor insemination or adoption are possible options;
- life- or health-threatening conditions that may underlie the infertility and require medical attention; and
- genetic abnormalities that may affect the health of offspring if assisted reproductive techniques are to be employed.

## Clinical evaluation

Clinical evaluation of male fertility begins with a detailed history and physical examination, which generally will provide valuable information to guide what additional laboratory investigations or imaging studies to complete the evaluation.

## History

The cornerstone of the male partner evaluation is the history. It should note the duration of infertility, earlier pregnancies with present or past partners, and whether there was previous difficulty with conception. A sexual history should be addressed. Most men (80%) do not know how to precisely time intercourse to achieve a pregnancy. A general medical history is also important. Because any generalized insult such as a fever, viremia, or other acute infection can decrease testis function and semen quality. The effects of such insults are not noted in the semen until 2 months after the event, because spermatogenesis requires at least 60 days to complete [Smith]. Surgical procedures on the bladder, retro peritoneum, or pelvis can also lead to infertility, by causing either retrograde ejaculation of sperm into the bladder or anejaculation (aspermia).

Childhood diseases may also affect fertility. A history of mumps can be significant if it occurs post-ubertally. After age 11, unilateral orchitis occurs in 30% of mumps infections and bilateral orchitis in 10%. Mumps orchitis is thought to cause pressure necrosis of testis tissue from viral edema. Marked testis atrophy is usually obvious later in life [15].

## Physical Examination

A general physical examination is an integral part of the evaluation of male infertility. In addition to the general physical examination, particular focus should be given to the genitalia including 1) examination of the penis; including the location of the urethral meatus; 2) palpation of the testes and measurement of their size; 3) presence and consistency of both the vasa and epididymides; 4) presence of a varicocele; 5) secondary sex characteristics including body habitus, hair distribution and breast development; and 6) digital rectal exam. The diagnosis of congenital bilateral absence of the vasa deferentia (CBAVD) is established by physical examination. Scrotal exploration is not needed to make this diagnosis. [optimal evaluation]

Two features should be noted about the testis: size and consistency. Size is assessed by measuring the long axis and width; as an alternative, an orchidometer can be placed next to the testis for volume determination. Standard values of testis size have been reported for normal men and include a mean testis length of 4.6 cm (range 3.6–5.5 cm), a mean width of 2.6 cm (range 2.1–3.2 cm), and a mean volume of 18.6 mL ( $\pm$  4.6 mL). Consistency is more difficult to assess but can be described as firm (normal) or soft (abnormal). A smaller or softer than normal testis usually indicates impaired spermatogenesis [16].

## Diagnostic evaluation

Based on the results of the full evaluation, the physician may recommend other procedures and tests to elucidate the etiology of a patient's infertility. These tests may include additional semen analyses, endocrine evaluation, post-ejaculatory urinalysis, ultrasonography, specialized tests on semen and sperm, and genetic screening.

## Semen analysis

A medical history and physical examination are standard assessments in all men, including semen analysis. In 2010 the World Health Organization (WHO) updated its reference values for the Semen Analysis [17].

**Table-I**  
*Lower reference limits (5th centiles and their 95% CIs) for semen characteristics [WHO]*

Parameter	Lower reference limit (range)
Semen volume (mL)	1.5 (1.4-1.7)
Total sperm number	(10 <sup>6</sup> /ejaculate) 39 (33-46)
Sperm concentration	(10 <sup>6</sup> /mL) 15 (12-16)
Total motility (PR + NP)	40 (38-42)
Progressive motility (PR, %)	32 (31-34)
Vitality (live spermatozoa, %)	58 (55-63)
Sperm morphology (normal forms,%)	4 (3.0-4.0)
Other consensus threshold values pH >	7.2
Peroxidase-positive leukocytes (10 <sup>6</sup> /mL)	< 1.0
Optional investigations	
MAR test (motile spermatozoa with bound particles, %)	< 50
Immunobead test (motile spermatozoa with bound beads, %)	< 50
Seminal zinc ( $\mu$ mol/ejaculate)	$\geq 2.4$
Seminal fructose ( $\mu$ mol/ejaculate)	$\geq 13$
Seminal neutral glucosidase (mU/ejaculate)	$\leq 20$

*CIs = confidence intervals; MAR = mixed antiglobulin reaction NP = non-progressive; PR = progressive.*

If the results of semen analysis are normal according to WHO criteria, one test is sufficient. If the results are abnormal in at least two tests, further andrological investigation is indicated.

### Hormonal Essay

Hormonal abnormalities of the hypothalamic-pituitary testicular axis are well-recognized, though not common causes of male infertility. An initial endocrine evaluation should include at least a serum testosterone and FSH. It should be performed if there is: (1) an abnormally low sperm concentration, especially if less than 10 million/ml; (2) impaired sexual function; or (3) other clinical findings suggestive of a specific endocrinopathy.

### Post-ejaculatory urinalysis

Low-volume or absent ejaculate suggests retrograde ejaculation, lack of emission, ejaculatory duct obstruction, hypogonadism or CBAVD. In order to diagnose possible retrograde ejaculation, the physician should perform a post-ejaculatory urinalysis for any man whose ejaculate volume is less than 1.0 ml, and who has not been diagnosed with hypogonadism or CBAVD.

### Scrotal ultrasonography

Most scrotal pathology is palpable on physical examination. This includes varicoceles, spermatoceles,

absence of the vasa, epididymal induration and testicular masses. Scrotal ultrasonography is indicated in those patients in whom physical examination of the scrotum is difficult or inadequate or in whom a testicular mass is suspected.

### Transrectal ultrasonography

Normal seminal vesicles are less than 2.0cm in anteroposterior diameter[18]. The finding of dilated seminal vesicles, dilated ejaculatory ducts and/or midline prostatic cystic structures on transrectal ultrasonography (TRUS) is suggestive of, but not diagnostic of, complete or partial ejaculatory duct obstruction[19]. Transrectal ultrasonography is indicated in azoospermic patients with palpable vasa and low ejaculate volumes to determine if ejaculatory duct obstruction exists.

### Tests for antisperm antibodies

Pregnancy rates may be reduced by antisperm antibodies (ASA) in the semen[20]. Risk factors for ASA include ductal obstruction, prior genital infection, testicular trauma and prior vasovasostomy or vasoepididymostomy. ASA testing should be considered when there is isolated asthenospermia with normal



sperm concentration, sperm agglutination or an abnormal postcoital test. Some physicians recommend ASA testing for couples with unexplained infertility.

### **Sperm viability tests**

The use of the hypoosmotic swelling (HOS) test [21] assays determine whether non-motile sperm are viable by identifying which sperm have intact cell membranes. Nonmotile but viable sperm, as determined by the HOS test, may be used successfully for ICSI.

### **Computer-aided sperm analysis**

In principle, CASA can be used to objectively measure sperm numbers, motility and morphology. They may be useful in a small number of patients for identifying a male factor contributing to unexplained infertility, or for selecting therapy, such as assisted reproductive technology.

### **Genetic testing**

A male presenting with infertility is more likely than the general population to harbor a gene mutation or chromosomal abnormality. Indeed, up to 15% of men with azoospermia have an abnormality in their karyotype[22,23,24,25], Y chromosome microdeletion[26,27] or mutation in the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulating (CFTR) gene.

### **Karyotype**

Chromosome abnormalities account for about 6% of all male infertility, and the prevalence increases with increased spermatogenic impairment (severe oligospermia and nonobstructive azoospermia. Karyotyping and genetic counseling should be offered to all patients with nonobstructive azoospermia and severe oligospermia (<5 million sperm/ml).

### **Y-chromosome microdeletions**

Approximately 13 % of men with nonobstructive azoospermia or severe oligospermia have an underlying Y-chromosome microdeletion[28].The results of Y chromosome deletion analysis cannot absolutely predict the absence of sperm.

### **Genetic screening**

Genetic abnormalities may cause infertility by affecting sperm production or sperm transport. The three most common genetic factors known to be related to male infertility are: 1) cystic fibrosis gene mutations associated with congenital absence of the vas deferens; 2) chromosomal abnormalities resulting in impaired testicular function; and 3) Y-chromosome microdeletions

associated with isolated spermatogenic impairment. Approximately 70% of men with CBAVD and no clinical evidence of cystic fibrosis have an identifiable abnormality of CFTR gene[29,30]. Men with congenital bilateral absence of the vasa deferentia should be offered genetic counseling and testing for cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator mutations.

### **Testicular biopsy**

Testicular biopsy is generally reserved for men with azoospermia, or absence of sperm from the ejaculate, a finding identified in about 5% to 10% of men evaluated for infertility[31]. Testicular biopsy should be combined with extraction of testicular spermatozoa (i.e., TESE) for cryopreservation.

### **Conclusion:**

Optimal evaluation for male infertility should include a complete medical and reproductive history, a physical examination by a urologist or other specialist in male reproduction and at least two semen analyses. Based on the results of history and physical examination the physician may recommend other procedures and tests to elucidate the etiology of a patient's infertility. These tests may include additional semen analyses, hormonal evaluation, post-ejaculatory urinalysis, ultrasonography, specialized tests on semen and sperm, and genetic testing.

**Conflict of interest:** None declared

### **References:**

1. Hamada AJ, Montgomery B, Agarwal A. Male infertility: a critical review of pharmacologic management. *Expert Opin Pharmacother* 2012;13:2511-31
2. Thonneau P, Marchand S, Tallec A et al: Incidence and main causes of infertility in a resident population (1,850,000) of three French regions (1988-1989). *Hum Reprod* 1991; **6**:811.
3. Plachot M, Belaisch-Allart J, Mayenga JM, Chouraqui A, Tesquier L, Serkine AM. Outcome of conventional IVF and ICSI on sibling oocytes in mild male factor infertility. *Hum Reprod.* 2002;17:362–9.[PubMed]
4. Ugwuja E1, Ugwu NC, Ejikeme BN. Prevalence of Low Sperm Count and Abnormal Semen Parameters in Male Partners of Women Consulting at Infertility Clinic in Abakaliki, Nigeria. *Afr Reprod Health* 2008; 12:67-73.

5. Skakkebaek NE, Jorgensen N, Main KM, et al. Is human fecundity declining? *Int J Androl* 2006; 29(1):2–11
6. Auger J, Kunstmann JM, Czyglik F, et al. Decline in semen quality among fertile men in Paris during the past 20 years. *N Engl J Med* 1995;332(5):281–5.
7. Nelson CJ, Shindel AW, Naughton CK, et al. Prevalence and predictors of sexual problems, relationship stress, and depression in female partners of infertile couples. *J Sex Med* 2008;5(8): 1907–14.
8. Smith JF, Glidden D, Walsh TJ, et al. Is socioeconomic status associated with higher infertility costs? An analysis of the interaction between education and income on total cost among infertile couples followed for 18 months. *Fertil Steril* 2008; 90(Suppl).
9. Bashed MA, Alam GM, Kabir MA and Amin AQA. Male Infertility in Bangladesh: What Serve Better Pharmacological help or Awareness programme?. *Int.J.Pharmacol.*,8(8):687-694;2012.
10. Irvine DS. Epidemiology and aetiology of male infertility. *Hum Reprod* 1998;13 (Suppl 1):33–44.
11. Walsh TJ, Schembri M, Turek PJ et al: Increased risk of high-grade prostate cancer among infertile men. *Cancer* 2010; **116**: 2140.
12. Walsh TJ, Croughan MS, Schembri M et al: Increased risk of testicular germ cell cancer among infertile men. *Arch Intern Med* 2009; **169**: 351.
13. Kolettis PN and Sabanegh ES: Significant medical pathology discovered during a male infertility evaluation. *J Urol* 2001; **166**: 178.
14. Dohle GR, et al. EAU guidelines on male infertility. *Eur Urol* 2005;Nov48(5):703-11
15. Carlsen E et al: History of febrile illness and variation in semen quality. *Hum Reprod* 2003;18:2089. [PMID: 14507826]
16. Turek PJ. Practical approaches to the diagnosis and management of male infertility, *Nat Clin Pract Urol*. 2005 May;2(5):226-38
17. Cooper, TG et al. WHO reference values for human semen characteristics. *Hum. Reprod. Update*. 2010. 16(5):559
18. Carter SS, Shinohara K and Lipshultz LI: Transrectal ultrasonography in disorders of the seminal vesicles and ejaculatory ducts. *Urol Clin North Am* 1989; **16**:773.
19. Jarow JP: Transrectal ultrasonography of infertile men. *Fertil Steril* 1993; **60**:1035.
20. Ayvaliotis B, Bronson R, Rosenfeld D et al. Conception rates in couples where autoimmunity to sperm is detected. *Fertil Steril* 1985;**43**:739
21. WHO laboratory manual for the examination of human semen and sperm-cervical mucus interaction; 4th edition, Cambridge University Press, 1999
22. Bourrouillou G, Bujan L, Calvas P et al: Role and contribution of karyotyping in male infertility. *Prog Urol* 1992; **2**:189.
23. Rao MM and Rao DM: Cytogenetic studies in primary infertility. *Fertil Steril* 1977; **28**:209.
24. Gekas J, Thepot F, Turleau C et al.: Chromosomal factors of infertility in candidate couples for ICSI: An equal risk of constitutional aberrations in women and men. *Hum Reprod* 2001; **16**:82.
25. Van AE, Bonduelle M, Tournaye H et al.: Cytogenetics of infertile men. *Hum Reprod* 1996; **11**:1.
26. Seifer I, Amat S, Delgado-Viscogliosi P et al: Screening for microdeletions on the long arm of chromosome Y in 53 infertile men. *Int J Androl* 1999; **22**:148.
27. Nakahori Y, Kuroki Y, Komaki R et al: The Y chromosome region essential for spermatogenesis. *Horm Res* 1996; **46**:20.
28. Reijo R, Alagappan RK, Patrizio P et al: Severe oligozoospermia resulting from deletions of azoospermia factor gene on Y chromosome. *Lancet* 1996; **347**:1290.
29. Anguiano A, Oates RD, Amos JA et al: Congenital bilateral absence of the vas deferens. A primarily genital form of cystic fibrosis. *JAMA* 1992; **267**:1794.
30. Chillon M, Casals T, Mercier B et al: Mutations in the cystic fibrosis gene in patients with congenital absence of the vas deferens. *New Engl J Med* 1995; **332**: 1475.
31. Lisa A. Cerilli, MD; Wayne Kuang, MD; David Rogers, MD. A Practical Approach to Testicular Biopsy Interpretation for Male Infertility; *Arch Pathol Lab Med*. 2010;134:1197–1204 .

**Abbreviations:**

ASA	Antisperm Antibodies
HOS	Hypoosmotic swelling
CASA	Computer-aided sperm analysis
CBAVD	Congenital Bilateral Absence of Vasa Deferentia