



Infertilità maschile: real clinical practice

Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017



L. Foppiani

S.C. Medicina Interna, E.O. Ospedali Galliera, Genova

Minicorso 6:

Infertilità maschile: tra tecnologia e farmaci

16° Congresso Nazionale AME

Joint Meeting with AACE Italian Chapter

9-12 novembre 2017, Roma



Prevenzione, diagnosi e cura
delle patologie andrologiche
dall'età pediatrica al giovane adulto



PANEL SCIENTIFICO

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INFERTILITÀ'



- **Infertilità:** mancanza di concepimento dopo almeno 12 mesi di rapporti non protetti con frequenza adeguata
- **Infertilità maschile:** impossibilità di concepire dopo almeno 12 mesi di rapporti non protetti mirati al periodo ovulatorio con una partner in perfette condizioni di fertilità. Questo periodo è ridotto a 6 mesi se la partner ha > 35 anni.

Probabilità di una coppia con partner femminile < 35 aa di concepire con rapporti non protetti

- 25% per mese
- 75% entro 6 mesi
- 90% entro 1 anno



Table 1. Etiology of Infertility

Factors	Percentage
Combined factors	40
Male factors	26 to 30
Ovulatory dysfunction	21 to 25
Tubal factors	14 to 20
Other (e.g., cervical factors, peritoneal factors, uterine abnormalities)	10 to 13
Unexplained	25 to 26

- **Infertilità primaria:** quando l'uomo non ha mai fecondato alcuna donna
- **Infertilità secondaria:** quando l'uomo ha già fecondato una donna (partner attuale o precedente)
- **8-15% delle coppie** non sono in grado di concepire dopo almeno 12 mesi di rapporti non protetti mirati al periodo ovulatorio
- **Il fattore maschile** è responsabile "da solo" nel **20-30%** dei casi e contribuisce in un altro 20-40% delle coppie.



- **L'infertilità è un sintomo di coppia e non una malattia/diagnosi.**
- **Neanche la dispermia è una malattia/diagnosi: è un segno laboratoristico aspecifico in un paziente che ha un sintomo (infertilità, non necessariamente sua) di una possibile malattia.**

- Il fallimento del processo riproduttivo è un evento frequente, dovuto a diverse variabili, presumibilmente molto numerose e sicuramente in parte ignote.
- *"The changes ... are usually non specific and ... with a few exceptions (Globozoospermia) ... give no clue as to the cause of the male infertility"*

Human Reproduction Vol.19, No.6 pp.1245-1249, 2004
Advance Access publication April 22, 2004

DOI: 10.1093/humrep/dek259

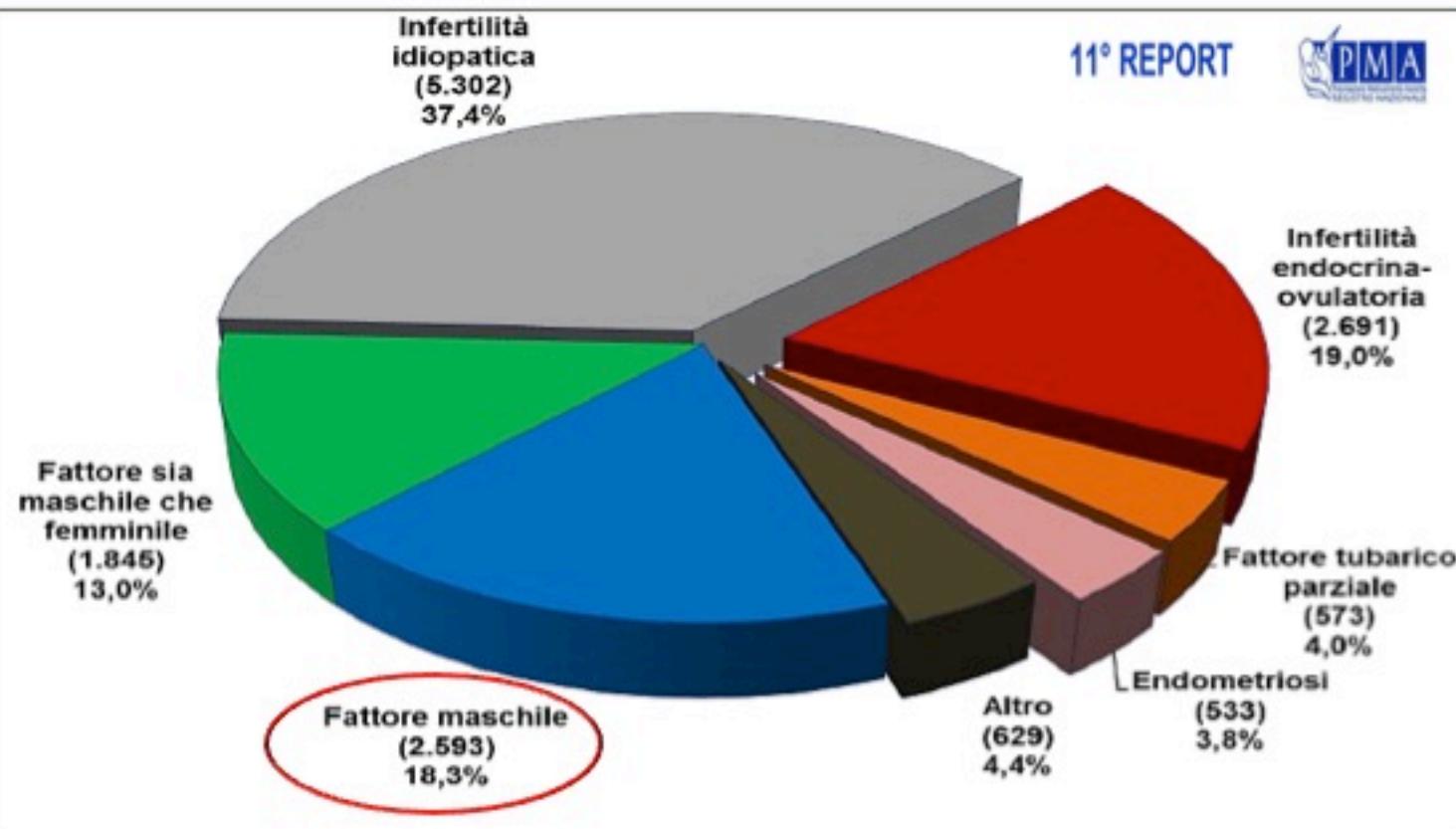
A. Jequier: Art for male infertility Praga 2006

OPINION

Clinical andrology—still a major problem in the treatment of infertility

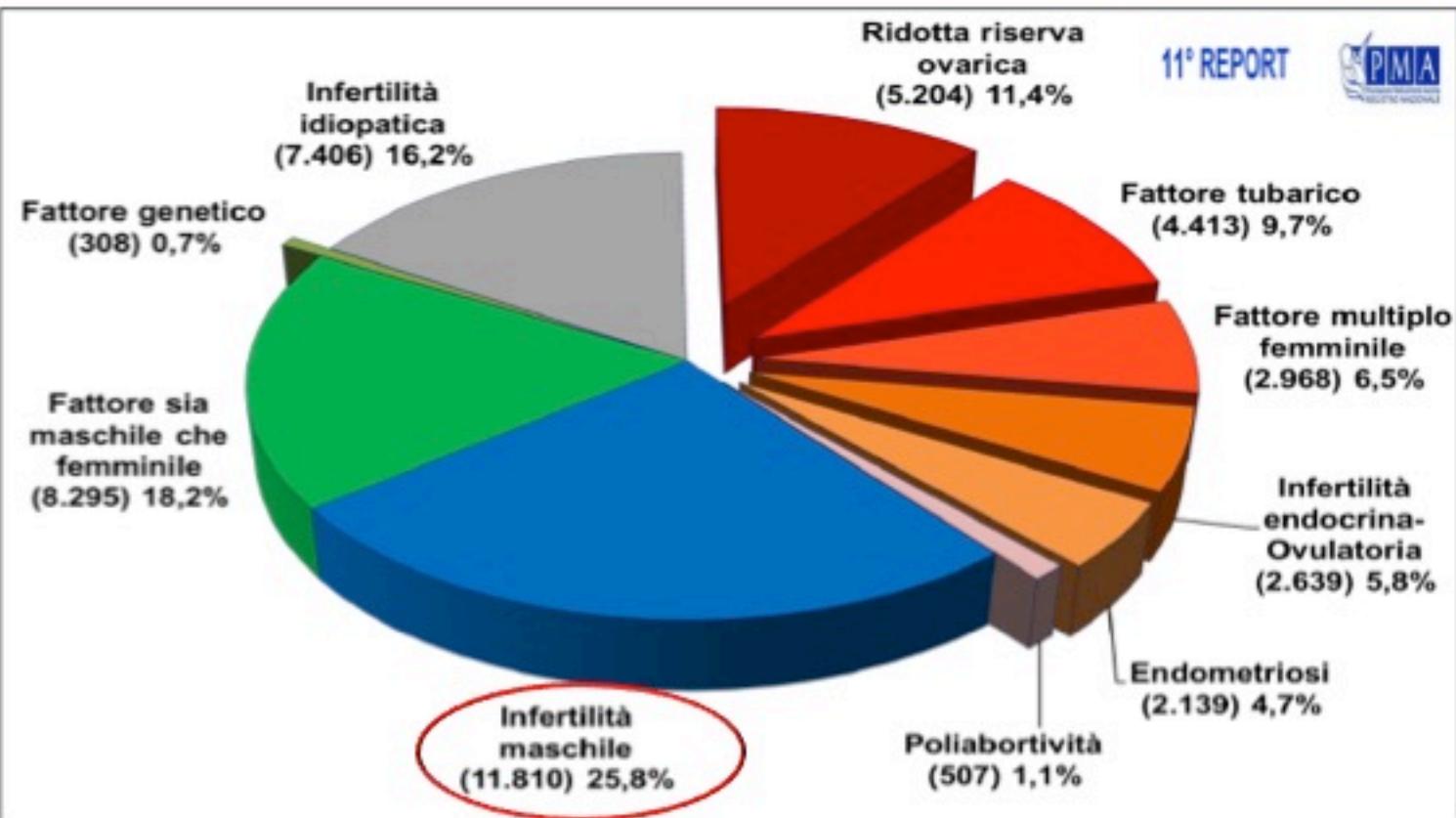
PMA primo livello: inseminazione semplice (ISS dati 2015)

11° REPORT





PMA secondo e terzo livello: FIVET/ICSI (ISS dati 2015)



The Epidemiology of Male Infertility

Brian R. Winters, MD, Thomas J. Walsh, MD*

Urol Clin N Am 41 (2014) 195–204

- The epidemiology of male infertility is difficult to study for well-described reasons:
 - Male infertility is not a reportable disease.
 - Male infertility is diagnosed and treated in the outpatient clinical setting.
 - Infertility care is often paid for out of pocket and, therefore, may not be noted on insurance billing.
 - Frequently, the empiric treatment of male factor infertility involves assisted reproductive technology (*in vitro* fertilization) that primarily treats the female partner.
- The true nature of male infertility incidence remains elusive and the prevalence has been weakly estimated in heterogeneous studies.
- Equally perplexing is the assertion of a global decline in male infertility, with many contradictory studies leading to significant debate.
- One consistency throughout this review of literature is that male infertility is variable, with a multitude of influencing factors (race, country, geography, and unique at-risk groups), many of which need further study to better characterize them.
- Future, large-scale, prospective epidemiologic studies may help physicians bridge these gaps in understanding male infertility.

Table 1

Examples of population-based studies focused on describing the scope of infertility in men and women

Title	Author, Year	Population	Female Factor? (%)	Male Factor? (%)	Both? (%)
Incidence and main causes of infertility in a resident population (1,850,000) of three French regions (1988–1989)	Thonneau et al, ¹⁶ 1991	1686 Couples	30	20	39
Infertility prevalence, needs assessment and purchasing	Gunnell & Ewings, ⁵ 1994	3141 Surveyed women	26.4	N/A	N/A
Estimation of the prevalence and causes of infertility in Western Siberia	Philippov et al, ⁶ 1998	2000 Married women surveyed, 186 couples	52.7	6.4	38.7
High prevalence of male infertility in southeastern Nigeria	Ikechelu et al, ¹⁸ 2003	314 Couples	25.8	42.4	20.7
Clinical patterns and major causes of infertility in Mongolia	Bayasgalan et al, ¹⁹ 2004	430 Couples	45.8	25.6	18.8



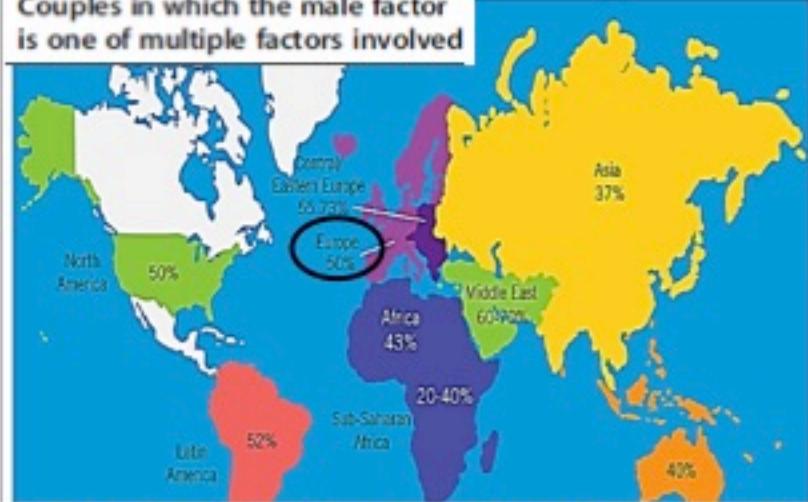
A unique view on male infertility around the globe

Ashok Agarwal^{1*}, Aditi Mulgund^{1,3}, Alaa Hamada² and Michelle Renee Chiyatte³ Reproductive Biology and Endocrinology (2015) 13:37



Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017

Couples in which the male factor is one of multiple factors involved



In summary, we strongly recommend, owing to the very low quality of evidence, that it is not currently possible to determine an unbiased prevalence of male infertility within the global, regional or national populations, including neglected individual populations. Additionally, it is not currently possible to determine what proportion of infertility in heterosexual couples is attributable to the male partner (Table 1) Barratt C.L. Hum Reprod Update 19: 1-21, 2017

Table 5 Infertility around the world^a, [12] reported from previous studies examining male infertility to summarize previous research

	Population	Author, year	Female factor	Male factor	Combination
French Regions (1988-1989)	1686 Couples	Thonneau et al. 1991 [13]	30%	20%	39%
Western Siberia	2000 Married women; 186 couples	Philippov et al. 1998 [27]	52.70%	64%	38.70%
Southeastern Nigeria	314 couples	Ikechelu et al. 2003 [19]	25.80%	42.40%	20.70%
Mongolia	430 Couples	Bayasgalan et al. 2004 [28]	45.80%	25.60%	18.80%
Poland/Eastern Europe	Unreported	Sanoda and Kurpisz 2008 [14]; Bablok et al. 2011 [6]	Unreported	40-60% [14]; 56% [6]	Unreported
Egypt	190 Women	Inhom, Buss 1994 [7]	82%	13%; 48% ^b [7]	Unreported
Yazd Province of Iran	5200 Couples	Afshorian et al. 2009 [8]	57.5%	25.3% [8]	8%
Sudan	710 couples	Elussein et al. 2008 [9]	49.3%	36.2% [9]	Unreported



Novel concepts in the aetiology of male reproductive impairment

Herman Tournaye, Csilla Krausz, Robert D Oates

Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol 2016



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Panel 1: Epidemiology of infertility

- Primary infertility: after 5 years of trying, 48.5 million women worldwide aged 20–44 years were unable to have any livebirth (prevalence 1.9%, 95% CI 1.7–2.2)²
- Secondary infertility: 10.5% (95% CI 9.5–11.7) of women worldwide aged 20–44 years were unable to have another child after at least one previous livebirth²
- In 2002, 186 million married couples in developing countries (ie, ≥25%) were unable to have any livebirth after 2 years of trying³
- Worldwide infertility rates have been stable for the past 20 years²
- >30 million men worldwide are estimated to be infertile⁴
- Data on decrease in sperm count over time remain controversial

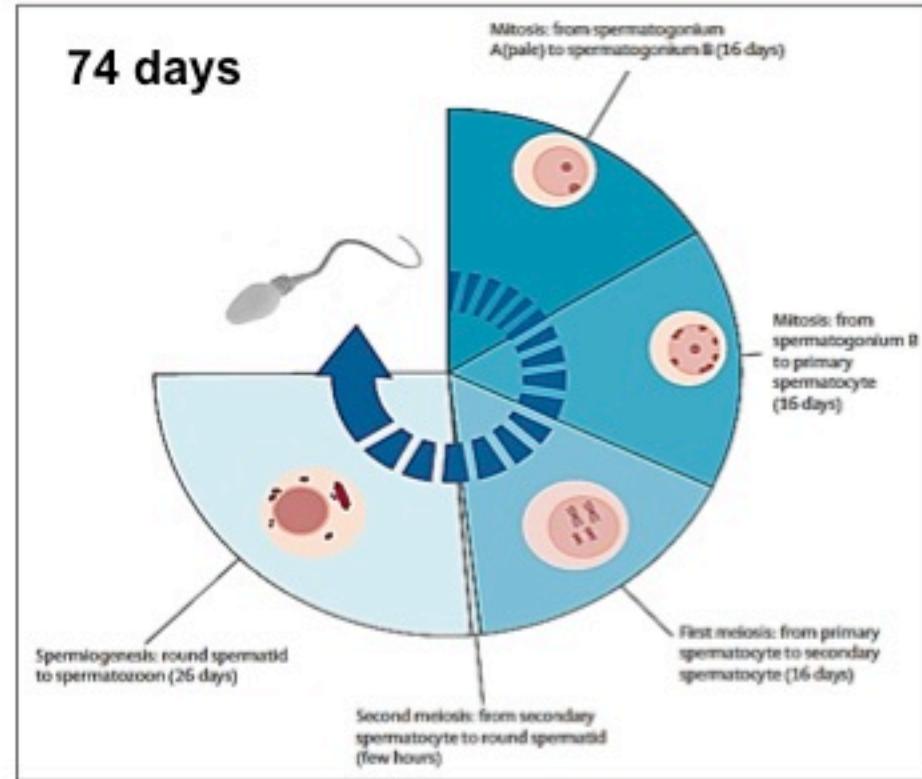


Figure: Spermatogenic cycle

Production of a mature spermatozoon from a testicular stem cell takes around 74 days (95% CI 69–80).

Evidence for decreasing quality of semen during past 50 years

BMJ 1992;305:609-13

Elisabeth Carlsen, Aleksander Giwercman, Niels Keiding, Niels E Skakkebæk

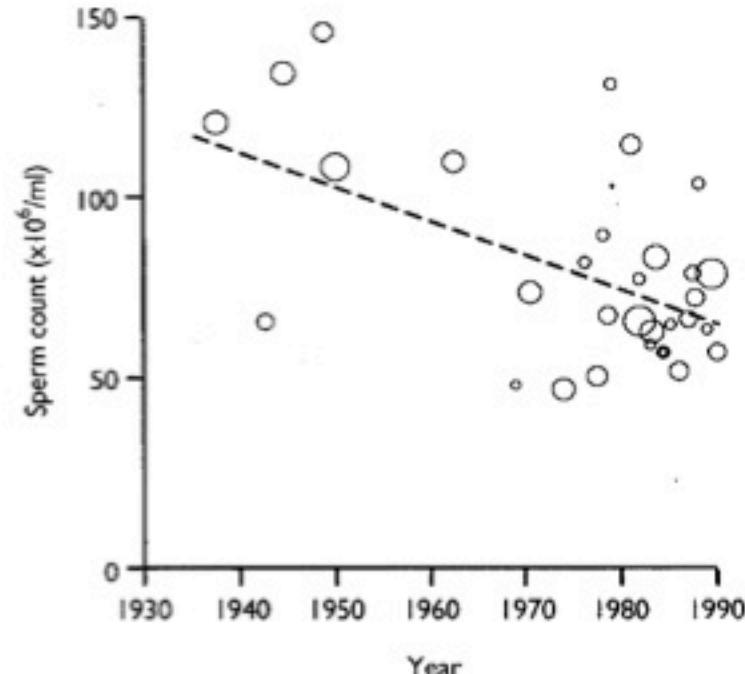
Subjects—14 947 men included in a total of 61 papers published between 1938 and 1991.

Main outcome measures—Mean sperm density and mean seminal volume.

Results—Linear regression of data weighted by number of men in each study showed a significant decrease in mean sperm count from $113 \times 10^6/\text{ml}$ in 1940 to $66 \times 10^6/\text{ml}$ in 1990 ($p < 0.0001$) and in seminal volume from 3.40 ml to 2.75 ml ($p = 0.027$), indicating an even more pronounced decrease in sperm production than expressed by the decline in sperm density.

Conclusions—There has been a genuine decline in semen quality over the past 50 years. As male fertility is to some extent correlated with sperm count the results may reflect an overall reduction in male fertility. The biological significance of these changes is emphasised by a concomitant increase in the incidence of genitourinary abnormalities such as testicular cancer and possibly also cryptorchidism and hypospadias, suggesting a growing impact of factors with serious effects on male gonadal function.

The analysis was based on a total of 61 papers published between 1938 and 1990, which included data on 14 947 men.

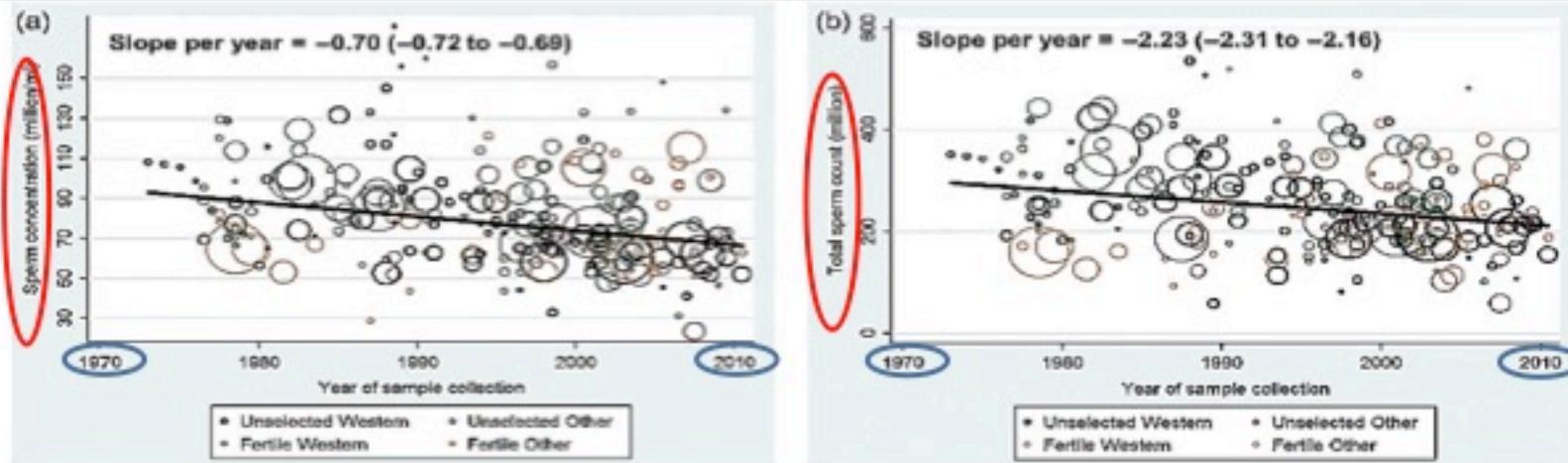


Temporal trends in sperm count: a systematic review and meta-regression analysis

Human Reproduction Update, pp. 1-14, 2017

Hagai Levine ^{1,2,*}, Niels Jørgensen ^{1,2,3}, Anderson Martino-Andrade ^{2,4}, Jaime Mendiola ⁵, Dan Weksler-Derri ⁶, Irina Mindlis ², Rachel Pinotti ⁷, and Shanna H. Swan ²

244 estimates from 42935 men who provided semen sample from 1973-2011



WIDER IMPLICATIONS: This comprehensive meta-regression analysis reports a significant decline in sperm counts (as measured by SC and TSC) between 1973 and 2011, driven by a 50–60% decline among men unselected by fertility from North America, Europe, Australia and New Zealand. Because of the significant public health implications of these results, research on the causes of this continuing decline is urgently needed.

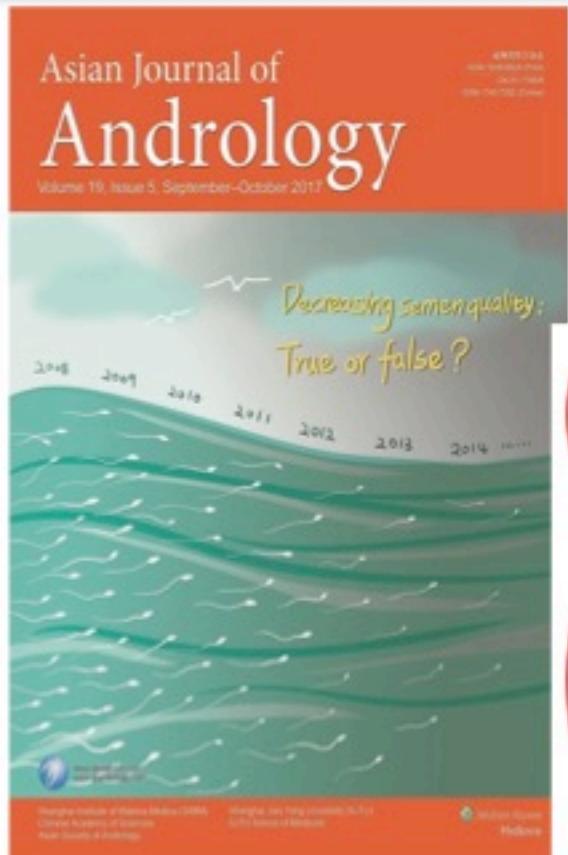


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ITALIAN CHAPTER

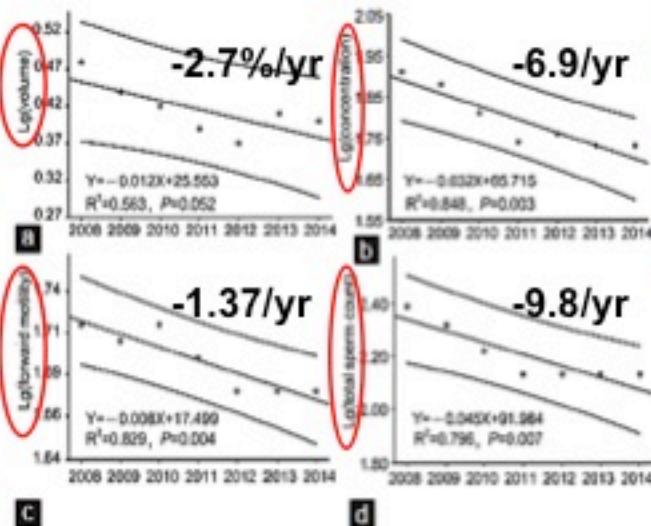
ENDOCRINE-DISRUPTING CHEMICALS BEHIND SPERM DECLINE?



Decline of semen quality among Chinese sperm bank donors within 7 years (2008–2014)

Li Wang^{1,2*}, Lin Zhang^{1,2}, Xiao-Hui Song^{1,2}, Hao-Bo Zhang^{1,2}, Cheng-Yan Xu^{1,2}, Zi-Jiang Chen^{1,2}

Asian Journal of Andrology (2017) 19, 521–525





Declining sperm counts— the never-ending story

Jens Peter Bonde and Egbert te Velde NATURE REVIEWS | UROLOGY 2017

A recent systematic review on worldwide declining trends in sperm counts has fuelled alarming reports in national and international news media. However, methodological issues exist with data gathering and analysis precluding any conclusion and no solid data exist to indicate increasing frequency of couple infertility during past decades.

“ Whether sperm counts are actually declining in some regions and across time periods is still unknown... ”



The recent review by Levine and co-authors¹ updates the 1992 meta-analysis, covering the period 1973–2011 (REF. 1), and amends the applied methodologies. A rigorous literature search identified 185 papers published in English from 50 countries with data on sperm counts from 42,935 men who were not recruited from infertility clinics in their conclusions, the authors ignore the severe methodological limitations that apply to all retrospective sperm trend studies using antecedent data collected for other purposes, such as high nonresponse in semen studies, large variation in sperm counting between laboratories, and geographical variation. studies of sperm counts is the lack of comparability of study populations across space and time — a violation of the main principle of any trend analysis⁵. In fact, more valid data are



Editorial

Ever growing demand for in vitro fertilization despite stable biological fertility—A European paradox

before [28]. The 1-year “infertility-is-a-disease” definition has become the standard in clinical practice, and is endorsed by influential organizations like the American Society for Reproductive Medicine (ASRM), the International Committee for Monitoring Assisted Reproductive Technology (ICMART) and WHO [27,28].

In addition, three studies using 2-years- [10], 5-years- [11] and lifelong- primary infertility rates [12] also found no decreasing trend in infertility rates.

However, so called tailored expectant management (TEM) [49] is a realistic and successful alternative for couples who do not yet require IVF because their chances for a natural conception are still good. To find out for whom such an approach is suitable, the couples’ chance of a natural pregnancy is assessed by applying a prediction rule (e.g. the Hunault’s model [50]). Those couples who still have a (fairly) good chances of achieving a natural pregnancy, are then encouraged to continue trying for some time while making use of the fertile period and adapt intercourse frequency.

We conclude that the combined evidence indicates that the prevalence of infertility in high-income countries did not increase, thus refuting the hypothesis that the growing demand for IVF is caused by an infertility epidemic in high-income countries.

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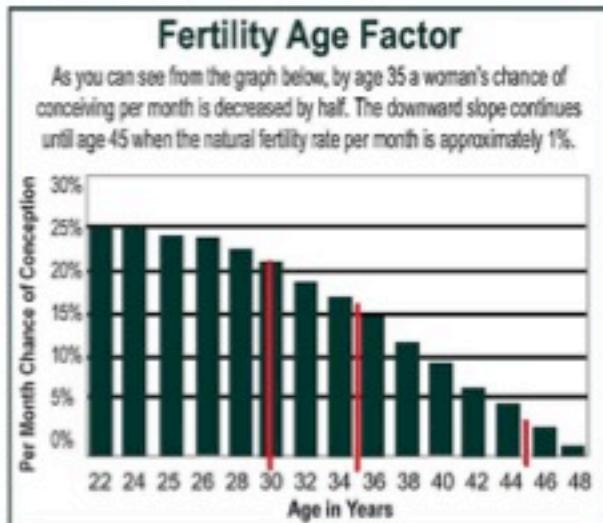
^bCenter of Excellence of Genomic Medicine Research, King Abdulaziz
University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia



3A.1.2 Recommendations on epidemiology and aetiology

EAU 2015

Recommendations	GR
To categorise infertility, both partners should be investigated simultaneously.	C
In the diagnosis and management of male subfertility, the fertility status of the female partner must also be considered, because this might determine the final outcome [5].	B
The urologist/andrologist should examine any man with fertility problems for urogenital abnormalities. This applies to all men diagnosed with abnormal semen parameters. A diagnosis (even if idiopathic) is mandatory to start appropriate therapy (drugs, surgery, or assisted reproduction).	C



ANAMNESI DEL MASCHIO INFERTILE

Dati anamnestici generali	Anamnesi familiare	Anamnesi patologica remota	Malattie dell'apparato uro-genitale	Interventi chirurgici alle vie genitali	Anamnesi lavorativa e stile di vita	Anamnesi sessuale
Età Etnia Religione Professione Infertilità primaria o secondaria Durata infertilità	Infertilità Aborti spontanei Nati morti Malattie genetiche ed endocrine	Febbre > 38° (nei 3 mesi precedenti) Diabete mellito Malattie surrenaliache Bronchietasie Fibrosi cistica Tubercolosi Infezioni croniche Allergie BPCO Nefropatie/ Epatopatie Neuropatie Farmaci	Criptorchidismo Pubertà precoce o ritardata Traumi testicolari Torsione funicolo Orchiti Epididimiti Prostatiti Vescicoliti Uretriti Malattie sessualmente trasmesse Dermatosi dei genitali	Orchidopessi Orchiectomia Ernia inguinale Detorsione funicolo Varicocelectomia Idrocelectomia Vasectomia Epididimo-vasostomia Vasovasostomia Prostatectomia Interventi vescicali Ipospadia Circoncisione	Esposizione a fattori ambientali e occupazionali Abitudini alimentari Sport Alcool Fumo Stupefacenti Sauna Pantaloni stretti	Rapporti nel periodo fertile Frequenza dei rapporti Libido Disfunzione erettile Dispareunia della partner Caratteristiche della eiaculazione Caratteristiche dell'orgasmo
Da Infertilità maschile A. Lenzi e L. Gandini, Neolibro 2004 (modificato)						

Fattori di rischio

Da Infertilità maschile
A. Lenzi e L. Gandini, Neolibro 2004

Per tutto l'arco della vita di un uomo, numerosi fattori possono influenzare negativamente la sua capacità riproduttiva, determinando situazioni di infertilità transitorie o meno.

Fattori principali nel determinismo dell'infertilità maschile anche transitorio la cui rimozione o trattamento può ricondurre alla normalità

- Febbre
- Patologie quali: diabete, infezioni urinarie, orchite etc.
- Terapie mediche
- Trattamenti chirurgici
- Fattori ambientali e occupazionali
- Abuso di sostanze voluttuarie

Principali fattori che influenzano la fertilità

I fattori che possono influenzare negativamente la fertilità maschile sono molti: alcuni agiscono più frequentemente in età particolari.



PRIMA DEL CONCEPIMENTO
Uso di farmaci da parte della madre

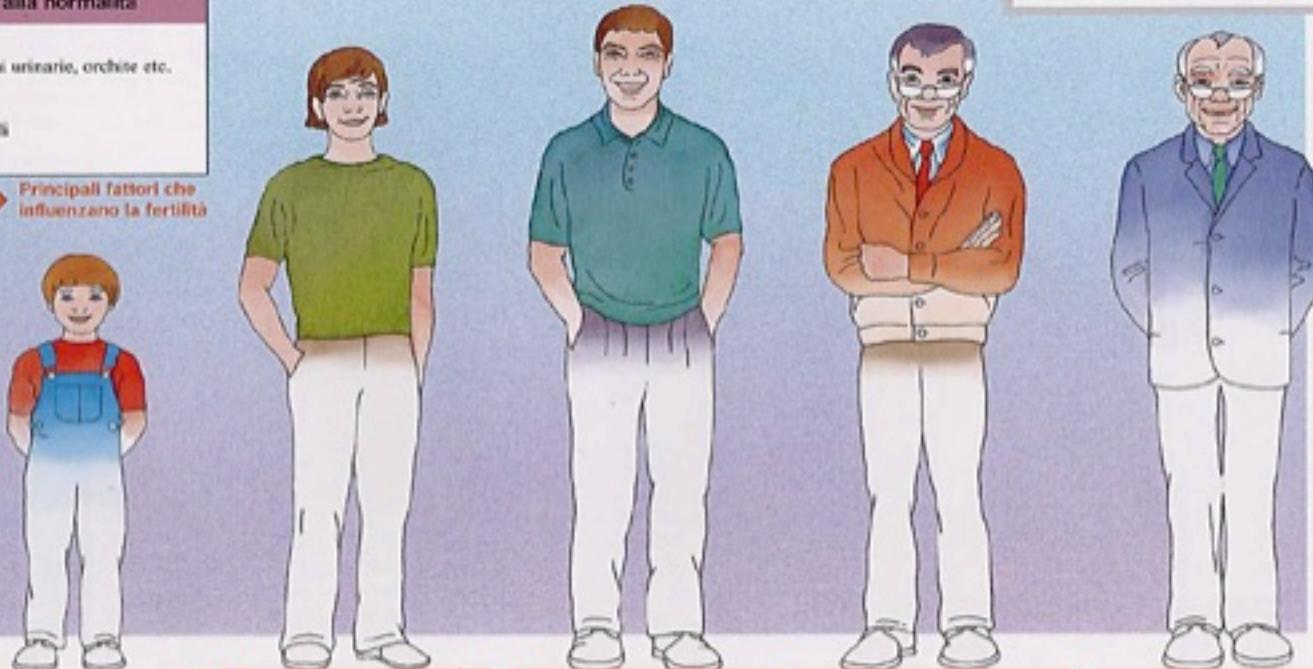
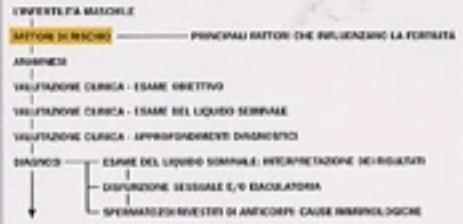
FINO AI 10 ANNI
Criptorcoide, chirurgia erinaria

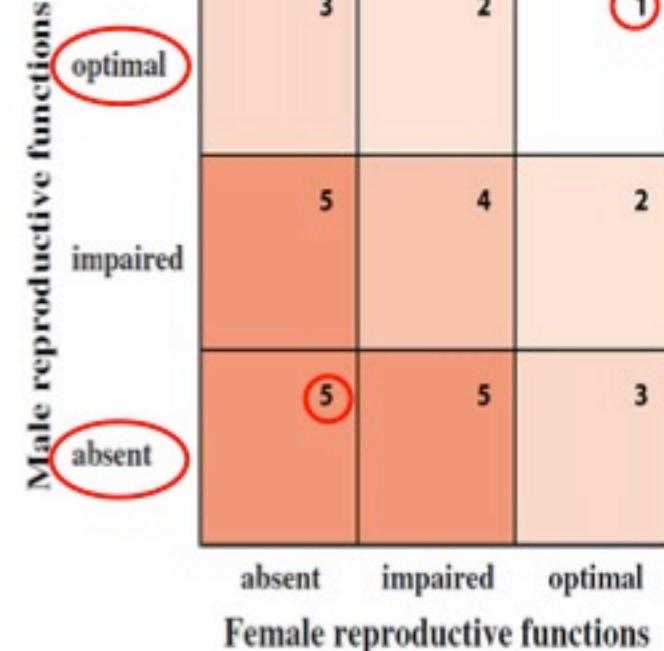
FINO AI 20 ANNI
Torsioni funicolo, traumi, orchite postparotitica, steroidi anabolizzanti

FINO AI 30 ANNI
Infezioni genitali, varicocele, orchiepididimite

FINO AI 50 ANNI
Uso di farmaci, patologie professionali, abusi di alcol e fumo

DOPO I 50 ANNI
Patologie prostatiche, infezioni urinarie





- La spermatogenesi continua fino in **età avanzata**
- Comunque, la motilità nemaspermica si riduce con l'età
- TTP e aborti spontanei aumentano significativamente quando l'età del partner maschile è > 40 anni
- Il rate di anomalie cromosomiche e malattie genetiche autosomiche dominanti è più elevato tra i figli/figlie di padri di età “avanzata”





Prior fertility in the male partner does not predict a normal semen analysis



R. Scott Lucidi, M.D.
J. David Pierce, B.S.
Shahryar K. Karoussi, M.D.
Craig A. Witz, M.D.

R

Roma, 9-12 novembre

TABLE 1

Semen parameters in men of proven and unproven fertility.

	n	Mean concentration (million/mL)	Mean motility (%)	Mean normal morphology (%)	No. of normal concentration	No. of normal motility	No. of normal morphology	No. of normal semen analysis
<u>Proven fertility</u>	73	65.9	54.8	60.6	58 (79%)	53 (73%)	69 (95%)	44 (60%)
<u>Unproven fertility</u>	96	61.7	57.2	61.3	66 (69%)	74 (77%)	91 (95%)	57 (59%)

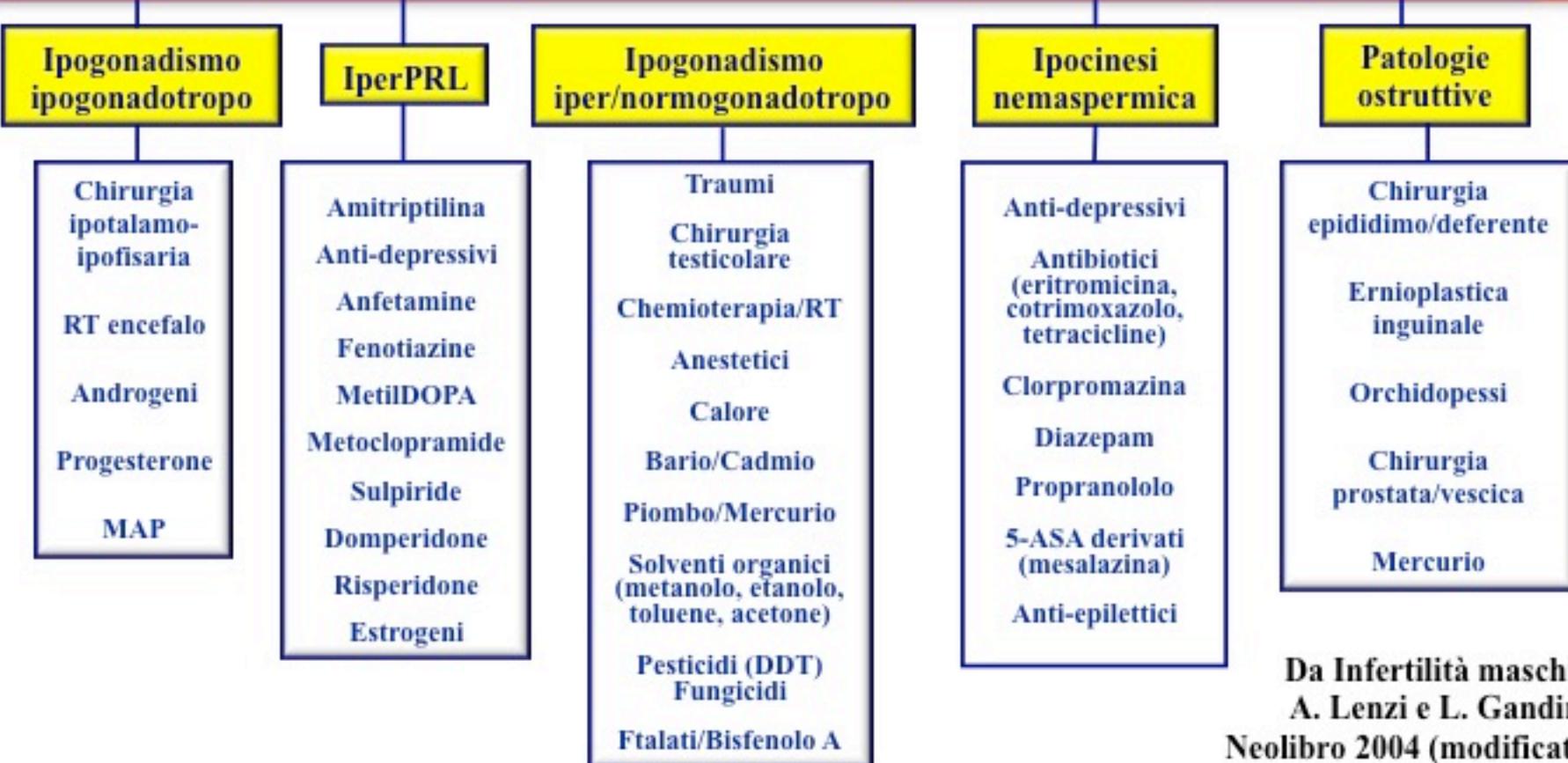
Note: No comparison is statistically significant.

Lucidi. Prior fertility and semen analysis. Fertil Steril 2005.

A history of male fertility is not an accurate predictor of a normal semen analysis result. The semen analysis should remain part of the evaluation of the infertile couple even in cases where a history of male fertility is reported. (Fertil Steril® 2005;84:793–4. ©2005 by American Society for Reproductive Medicine.)

ANAMNESI DEL MASCHIO INFERTILE (II)

orientata per patologie ambientali, occupazionali e chimici



Da Infertilità maschile
A. Lenzi e L. Gandini,
Neolibro 2004 (modificato)



Endocrine disruptors and estrogenic effects on male reproductive axis

Suresh C. Sikka, Run Wang

Roma, 9-12 novembre 2014



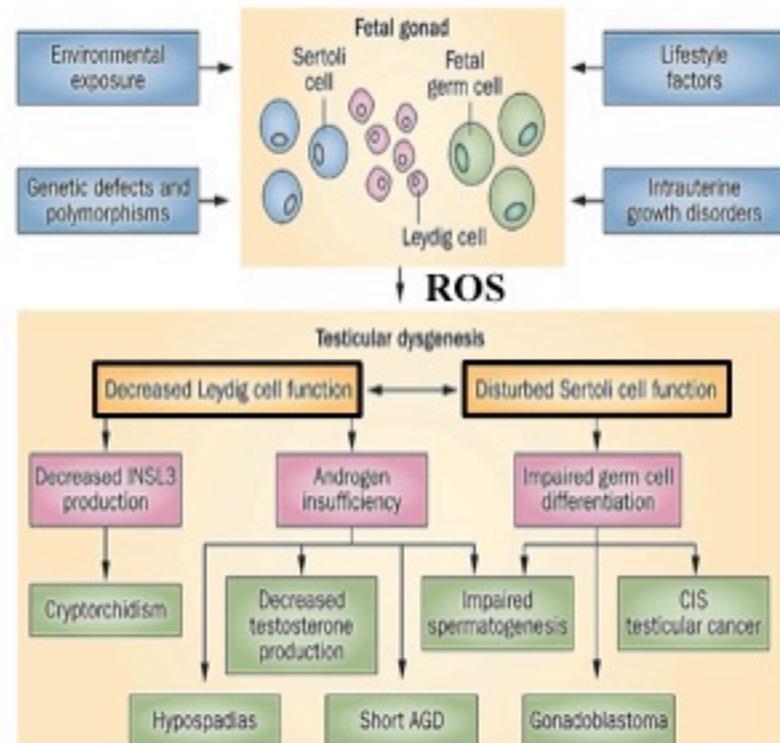
Asian Journal of Andrology,
2008 Jan; 10: 134-145.

TALIAN CHAPTER

Table 1. Endocrine disruptors that affect male reproduction. CNS, central nervous system; DBCP, dibromochloropropane; DDT, dichlorodiphenyl-trichloroethane; HPG, hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal; KTZ, ketoconazole; ROS, reactive oxygen species; LPO, lipid peroxidation; T, testosterone.

Class	Agent	Adverse effects
Environmental		
Organochemicals and pesticides	DBCP	[↓ fertility, ↓ libido, embryo fetal loss, birth defects, cancer, estrogenic effects, poor semen quality]
	DDT	
	PCBs	
	Dioxins	
Heavy metals	Methyl chloride	
	Lead	[↓ HPG-axis, ↓ spermatogenesis, CNS effects, testicular damage]
	Mercury	
	Cadmium	
	Cobalt	
	Chromium	
	α- and β-rays	[direct/indirect effect on gonads]
Biological		
	Hyperthermia	[↑ ROS, ↓ T biosynthesis, ↓ spermatogenesis, testicular damage, poor sperm morphology]
	Superoxide, and Nitric oxide radicals	[↑ ROS, ↓ antioxidants, ↓ sperm function]
	Oxidative Stress	[↑ ROS, ↑ LPO, ↑ cytokines, ↓ T, ↓ sperm function]
Pharmacological		
Radiation therapy	X-rays, γ-rays	[germ cell and Leydig cell damage]
Drugs/Phytoestrogens	GnRH-analogs	[↓ HPG-axis, ↓ sperm, ↓ libido, ↓ steroidogenesis]
	KTZ, Lenoprolide	
	Cyclosporine	
	Lithium, Narcotics	
	Anabolic steroids	
	Ethanol, Nicotine	
	Flutamide, Cossypol	
	Marijuana	

Possible fetal determinants of male infertility Juul et al. Nat Rev Endocrinol 10: 553-562, 2014.





**Recommendations for gonadotoxicity surveillance in male childhood, adolescent, and young adult cancer survivors:
a report from the International Late Effects of Childhood
Cancer Guideline Harmonization Group in collaboration with
the PanCareSurFUp Consortium**



Lancet Oncol 2017; 18: e75-90

Roma, 9-12 novembre 2016

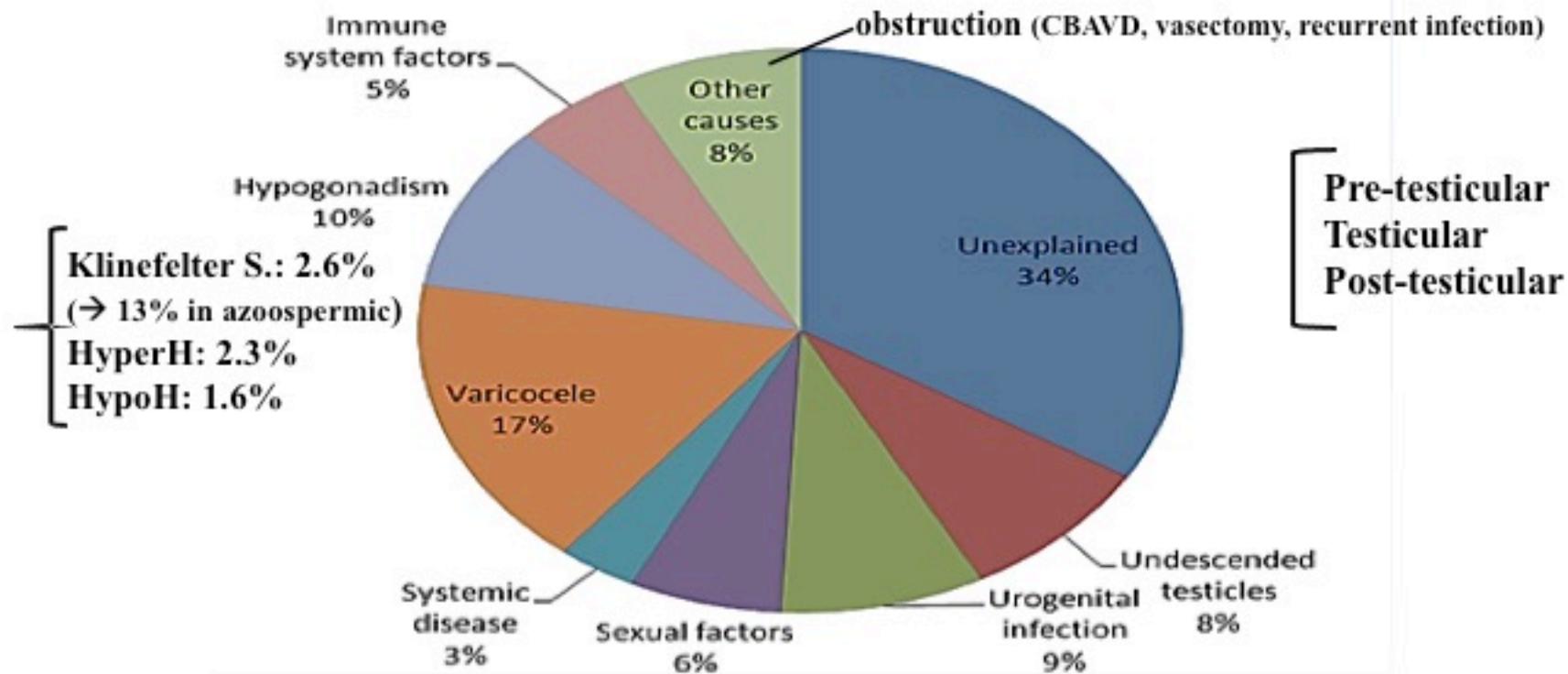
	North American Children's Oncology Group	Dutch Childhood Oncology Group	UK Children's Cancer and Leukaemia Group	Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network	Concordant or discordant
Who needs impaired spermatogenesis surveillance?					
At risk		All survivors	Yes	Yes	Discordant
Alkylating agents*	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Precarcinogenic ciclofosfamide	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Temozolamide, carbazine	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Carboplatin, cisplatin	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Cytarabine	Not specified	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Radiotherapy exposing testes†	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Yes	Discordant
Unilateral orchectomy	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Highest risk					
Higher doses alkylating agents	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Alkylating agent dose	MDPP 3 cycles or more Busulfan (≥ 600 mg/m 2) Cyclophosphamide (≥ 7.5 g/m 2) Cyclophosphamide for HSCT Busulfan (≥ 60 g/m 2)	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Low-risk: vincristine, vinblastine, methotrexate					
Combination alkylating agents	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Higher dose radiotherapy exposing testes	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Radiotherapy dose	> 0.35 Gy Alkylating agents and radiotherapy exposing testes Unilateral orchectomy and radiotherapy exposing testes or alkylating agents Bilateral orchectomy†	4-8 Gy: azoospermia possibly reversible 8-6 Gy: azoospermia possibly reversible (but unlikely) 6 Gy or more: azoospermia probably permanent	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified
Alkylating agents and radiotherapy exposing testes	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Unilateral orchectomy and radiotherapy exposing testes or alkylating agents	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Bilateral orchectomy†	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Which surveillance modality should be used?					
Tumour staging	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Concordant
Testicular volume	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Concordant
FSH	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Concordant
Inhibin B	Not specified	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Semen analysis	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Concordant
At what frequency should impaired spermatogenesis surveillance be performed?					
Tumour staging	every 3 years (until sexually mature)	every visit	Every 0-5 year (all survivors, until sexually mature)	Not specified	Discordant
Testicular volume	Every 1 year	Every visit	Every 0-5 year (all survivors)	Not specified	Discordant
FSH	In sexually mature patients if unable to obtain semen analysis	As clinically indicated	Every 0-5-3 years	Not specified	Discordant
Inhibin B	N/A	N/A	Every 0-5-3 years (if available)	N/A	N/A
Semen analysis	As requested by patient	As clinically indicated	When appropriate	Not specified	Partly concordant

	North American Children's Oncology Group	Dutch Childhood Oncology Group	UK Children's Cancer and Leukaemia Group	Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network	Concordant or discordant
Who needs testosterone deficiency surveillance?					
At risk					
<u>Alkylating agents*</u>	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Yes	Discordant
Procarbazine	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Temozolamide, dacarbazine	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Carboplatin, cisplatin	Yes	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Cytarabine	Not specified	Not specified	Yes	Not specified	Discordant
Radiotherapy exposing testes†	Yes if 20 Gy or more	Not specified	Yes	Yes	Discordant
Unilateral orchectomy	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Highest risk					
Higher doses alkylating agents	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Alkylating agent dose	MOPP Cyclophosphamide (≥ 20 g/m 2) Cyclophosphamide for HSCT Ifosfamide (≥ 60 g/m 2)	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Combination alkylating agents	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Higher doses radiotherapy exposing testes	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
<u>Radiotherapy dose</u>	<u>20 Gy or more</u>	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Radiotherapy exposing testis	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Alkylating agents and radiotherapy exposing testes	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Bilateral orchectomy‡	Yes	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Discordant
Which surveillance modality should be used?					
Height and weight	Not specified	Yes	Yes	Yes	Discordant
Testicular volume	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Concordant
LH	Not specified	Yes	Yes	Yes	Discordant
Testosterone	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Concordant
At what frequency should testosterone deficiency surveillance be performed?					
Tanner staging	Every 1 year (until sexually mature)	Every visit	Every 0-5 year (all survivors, until sexually mature)	Not specified	Discordant
Testicular volume	Every 1 year	Every visit	Every 0-5 year (all survivors)	Not specified	Discordant
LH	N/A	As clinically indicated	Every 0-5-1 years	Not specified	Discordant
Testosterone	Baseline at age 3-4 years and as clinically indicated (ideally morning)	As clinically indicated	Every 0-5-1 years	Not specified	Discordant

European Association of Urology Guidelines on Male Infertility: The 2012 Update

Andreas Jungwirth ^{a,*}, Aleksander Giwercman ^b, Herman Tournaye ^c, Thorsten Diemer ^d,
Zsolt Kopa ^e, Gert Dohle ^f, Csilla Krausz ^g,
EAU Working Group on Male Infertility EUROPEAN UROLOGY 62 (2012) 324–332

Causes of male infertility





ESAME OBIETTIVO

Da Infertilità maschile

A. Lenzi e L. Gandini, Neolibro 2004

L'obesità ($BMI \geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$) si associa a VT ridotto e ridotta spermatogenesi

Distribuzione pilifera: peli radi o distribuzione femminile possono essere segno di ipoandrogenismo.

Per valutare le anomalie nello sviluppo sessuale secondario si usa la scala di Tanner

In età puberale una lieve ginecomastia può essere normale. La ginecomastia può derivare anche dalla esposizione ad estrogeni esogeni o endogeni o a farmaci (digitale, spironolattone)

Generale

Peso

Altezza

Pressione arteriosa

Esame fisico generale

Caratteri sessuali secondari

Ginecomastia

Dopo ortostatismo per qualche minuto.

Importante la temperatura ambientale ($> 20^\circ\text{C}$) e la manovra del Valsalva.

Urogenitale

Pene

Testicoli

Epididimi

Vasi deferenti

Varicocele

Esplorazione inguinale

Esplorazione rettale

Può essere omessa in assenza di sospetto di patologie alle ghiandole accessorie

Eventuale ipospadia, fimosi, frenulo corto, cicatrici, placche fibrotiche, deviazioni, lesione infiammatorie

L'esame va eseguito in ortostatismo. Il VT può essere valutato con l'orchidometro.

Una palpazione leggera deve consentire di apprezzare la dimensione e la struttura. Non devono essere presenti noduli

Devono essere entrambi palpabili senza dolore e noduli

Cicatrici chirurgiche, lesioni infettive, linfonodi

Table 1: Summary of report recommendations

	AUA ^a	ASRM/SMRU ^b	EAU ^c
Guideline title	The optimal evaluation of the infertile male: AUA best practice statement	Report on varicocele and infertility: a committee opinion	Guidelines on male infertility
Objective	To offer recommendations for the optimal diagnostic evaluation of the male partner of an infertile couple	To provide clinicians with principles and strategies for the evaluation of couples with male infertility problems	To assist urologists and healthcare
Infertile male evaluation	A complete medical history, physical examination by a urologist or other specialist in male reproduction and at least two semen analyses	A careful medical and reproductive history, a physical examination, and at least two semen analyses	Asian Journal of Andrology (2016) 18, 269–275
Optimal method to detect varicoceles	Physical exam. Varicoceles graded from 1 to 3	Physical exam. Varicoceles graded from 1 to 3	
Role of scrotal ultrasonography	Indicated in those patients in whom physical examination of the scrotum is difficult or inadequate or in whom a testicular mass is suspected	For inconclusive physical exam	
Role of additional testing	Not stated	Ancillary diagnostic measures, thermography, Doppler	
Indications for treatment of varicocele	Not stated	When the male partner of a couple attempting to conceive has a varicocele, treatment of the varicocele should be considered when most or all of the following conditions are met	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The varicocele is palpable on physical examination – The couple has known infertility – The female partner has normal fertility or a potentially treatable cause of infertility, and time to conception is not a concern – The male partner has abnormal semen parameters An adult male who is not currently attempting to achieve conception but has a palpable varicocele, abnormal semen analyses and a desire for future fertility, and/or pain related to the varicocele is also a candidate for varicocele repair 	
Contraindications to treatment	Not stated	Varicocele treatment is not indicated in patients with either normal semen quality, isolated teratozoospermia, or a subclinical varicocele. Also it is not indicated when IVF or IVF-ICSI is otherwise required for the treatment of a female factor infertility	

Present in 25% of pts with abnormal semen analysis

The significance of clinical practice guidelines on adult varicocele detection and management

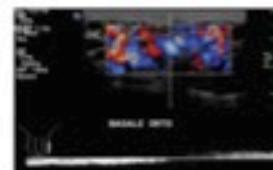
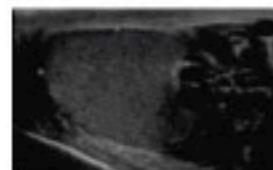
Anand Shridharani¹, Ryan C Owen², Osama O Elkelany², Edward D Kim²

3E.5 Conclusions and recommendations for varicocele

EAU 2015

Conclusions	LE
Current information supports the hypothesis that the presence of varicocele in some men is associated with progressive testicular damage from adolescence onwards and a consequent reduction in fertility.	2a
Although the treatment of varicocele in adolescents may be effective, there is a significant risk of overtreatment.	3
Varicocele repair may be effective in men with subnormal semen analysis, a clinical varicocele and otherwise unexplained infertility.	1a

Recommendations	GR
Varicocele treatment is recommended for adolescents with progressive failure of testicular development documented by serial clinical examination.	B
No evidence indicates benefit from varicocele treatment in infertile men who have normal semen analysis or in men with subclinical varicocele. In this situation, varicocele treatment cannot be recommended.	A
Varicocele repair should be considered in case of a clinical varicocele, oligospermia, infertility duration of > 2 years and otherwise unexplained infertility in the couple.	A





3A.2.2 *Recommendations for the diagnostic evaluation of male infertility*

Recommendations	GR
According to WHO criteria, andrological investigations are indicated if semen analysis is abnormal in at least two tests to define a diagnosis.	A*
Diagnosis and evaluation of male subfertility according to the WHO Manual for the standardised investigation, diagnosis and management of the infertile male is recommended [10].	C
Semen analysis must follow the guidelines of the WHO Laboratory Manual for the Examination and Processing of Human Semen (5th edn.) [9].	A*
The WHO laboratory manual proposes reference values based on fertility, hence, these reference values do not allow to classify a man as being infertile.	A



WORK-UP PER L'INFERTILITÀ MASCHILE (I°LIVELLO)

Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017

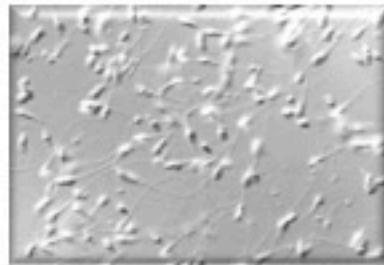
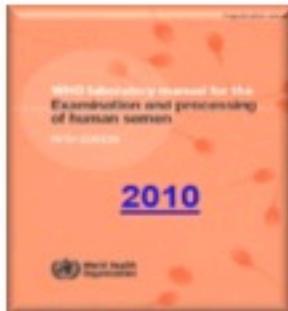


I. ESAME OBIETTIVO

- internistico
- andrologico



II. ESAME STANDARD DEL LIQUIDO SEMINALE (WHO 2010) +ASA (anti-sperm antibodies, MAR test (IgG, IgA), immunobead test) (fattori di rischio: orchiti, biopsie, varicocele, tumore testicolare, trauma, vasectomia)

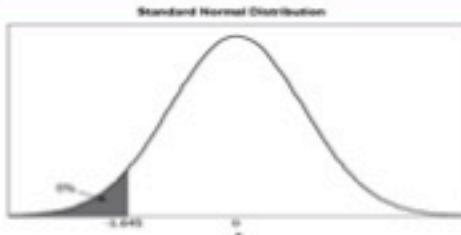




WHO 2010 - 5°percentile

Parametri	Valori di riferimento minimi
Volume (ml)	1.5 (1.4-1.7)
Numero spermatozoi/eiaculato (10 ⁶ /eiaculato)	39 (33-46)
Numero spermatozoi/ml (10 ⁶ /ml)	15 (12-16)
Motilità totale (PR + NP,%)	40 (38-42)
Motilità progressiva (PR,%)	32 (31-34)
Vitalità (spermatozoi vitali,%)	58 (55-63)
Morfologia (forme normali,%)	4 (3.0-4.0)
<i>Altri valori di riferimento</i>	
pH	≥7.2
Leucociti perossidasi-positivi (10 ⁶ /ml)	<1.0
MAR test (% di spermatozoi mobili con particelle adese)	<50
Immunobead test (% di spermatozoi mobili con sferule adese)	<50
Zinco seminale (μmol/eiaculato)	≥2.4
Fruttosio seminale (μmol/eiaculato)	≥13
Glucosidasi neutra seminale (mU/eiaculato)	≥20

Valori di riferimento minimi delle caratteristiche seminali (5° percentile e intervallo di confidenza del 95%)



Il 5°percentile **NON** discrimina la popolazione fertile da quella infertile, ma vuole identificare i **VALORI MINIMI** sotto quali i maschi, con maggiore probabilità, contribuiscono alla infertilità in una coppia.

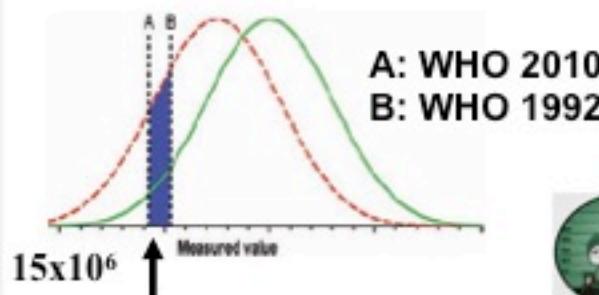


Table 1. Cutoff reference values for semen characteristics as published in consecutive WHO manuals

Semen Characteristics	WHO 1980	WHO 1987	WHO 1992	WHO 1999	WHO 2010*
Volume (mL)	ND	≥2	≥2	≥2	1.5
Sperm count (10^6 /mL)	20-200	≥20	≥20	≥20	15
Total sperm count (10^6)	ND	≥40	≥40	≥40	39
Total motility (% motile)	≥60	≥50	≥50	≥50	40
Progressive motility [†] (%)	≥2 [‡]	≥25	≥25 (grade a)	≥25% (grade a)	32 (grade a + b)
Vitality (% alive)	ND	≥50	≥75	≥75	58
Morphology (% normal forms)	80.5	≥50	≥30 [§]	14 [¶]	4
Leukocyte count (10^6 /mL)	<4.7	<1.0	<1.0	<1.0	<1.0

Table 3. Distribution of semen characteristics of fertile men whose partners had a time-to-pregnancy of ≤12 months, used to establish 2010 WHO manual reference limits, according to percentiles 1800 recent fathers, TTP≤1yr

Characteristic	Percentile		
	5%	50%	95%
Volume (mL)	1.5	3.7	6.8
Sperm count ($\times 10^6$ /mL)	15.0	73.0	213.0
Sperm count ($\times 10^6$ /ejaculate)	39.0	255.0	802.0
Motility (%)			
Total	40	61	78
Progressive	32	55	72
Normal*	4	15	44
Alive [†]	58	79	91

It is important to stress that the reference semen values proposed by the new WHO manual are not suitable to indicate a treatment modality. They merely represent the distribution of the semen profile of a small group of fertile individuals. The choice of assisted reproductive technology, not only to compare patient results with the lower reference limit, but also with the 50th percentile, which represents a value into which 50% of the reference population of "fertile" men falls. This strategy might be more realistic and can help in understanding a patient's seminal profile in relation to the reference group.

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Interpretation of semen analysis using WHO 1999 and WHO 2010 reference values: Abnormal becoming normal

S. Alshahrani, K. Aldossari, J. Al-Zahrani, A. H. Gabr, R. Henkel, G. Ahmad 

First published: 3 August 2017 Full publication history

DOI: 10.1111/and.12838 View/save citation

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Early View



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Online Version of Record
published before inclusion
in an issue

Summary

Reference values of WHO 1999 manual were used for the interpretation of semen analysis until 2010 when new reference values were introduced which have lower cut-off compared to WHO 1999. Therefore, several men who previously were diagnosed abnormal based on their semen analysis have now become normal using new reference values. This study was conducted on semen analyses of 661 men from Middle East region and Pakistan. All semen analyses were reviewed using WHO 1999 and WHO 2010 criteria. Results showed that based on new criteria, 19% of the population changed classification from abnormal to normal when all normal semen parameters were considered. When at least one or more abnormal semen parameters were considered, of the total 661, 44% (288) of the population changed its classification from abnormal to normal with shift from WHO 1999 to 2010 criteria. These findings show that using new cut-off

Normal reference ranges for semen quality and their relations to fecundity

Niels E. Skakkebaek Asian Journal of Andrology (2010) 12: 95–98

However, I have some concerns. The most important problem is that the new WHO guidelines may be less useful for practising physicians working on infertile couples. In our daily work we need a demarcation line between semen quality with 'full reproductive competence' and that of subfertile men who should be referred for andrological work-up. Several recent publications show that a sperm concentration of 15 million spermatozoa per mL is far too low in general to be associated with normal fertility, although some will be able to achieve a conception. Even the previous WHO cut-off value of 20 million spermatozoa per mL was probably too low to identify a significant group of males who need to be referred to andrology experts [7]. We have suggested a higher cut-off value of 40 million spermatozoa per mL, on the basis of a prospective study of first time pregnancy planners (Figure 1) [8]. Similarly, Slama [9], Guzick [10]

the guidelines may do more harm than good. Two cut-off values for sperm counts seem needed. One of them should be much higher than the proposed, probably in the range of 40 million spermatozoa per mL, as previously suggested [12]. It is common knowledge that unless a man has azoospermia, conception may occur. Therefore it is not surprising that the WHO databases on semen quality of men whose partners were pregnant contained some very low values. Nevertheless, the fecundity of a man decreases progressively with sperm concentrations below 40 million per mL. The other cut-off value could be 15 million spermatozoa per mL as suggested. Thus, the area between 15 and 40 million spermatozoa per mL would delineate a grey subfertility zone.

In addition to revising reference limits for sperm counts the committee should perhaps look again at other cut-off values for semen quality parameters, including 'normal forms'. Here the proposed new lower reference limit of 4% normal forms (using strict criteria) seems to be rather low, neglecting results from recent studies suggesting that values up to 9%–12% normal forms may be associated with subfertility or infertility [10].

In conclusion, a high proportion of subfertile men in involuntary childless relationships have parameters of semen quality above the new WHO proposed cut-off values. If the new guidelines are left unchanged, a large group of subfertile men all over the world may not receive appropriate andrological help in the future. In addition,

Methods We evaluated two semen specimens from each of the male partners in 765 infertile couples and 696 fertile couples at nine sites. The female partners in the infertile couples had normal results on fertility evaluation. The sperm concentration and motility were

Results The subfertile ranges were a sperm concentration of less than 13.5×10^6 per milliliter, less than 32 percent of sperm with motility, and less than 9 percent with normal morphologic features. The fertile ranges were a concentration of more than 48.0×10^6 per milliliter, greater than 63 percent motility, and greater than 12 percent normal morphologic features.

Values between these ranges indicated indeterminate fertility. There was extensive overlap between the fertile and the infertile men within both the subfertile and the fertile ranges for all three measurements. Although each of the sperm measurements helped to distinguish between fertile and infertile men, none was a powerful discriminator. The percentage of sperm with normal morphologic features had the greatest discriminatory power.

Conclusions Threshold values for sperm concentration, motility, and morphology can be used to classify men as subfertile, of indeterminate fertility, or fertile. None of the measures, however, are diagnostic of infertility. (N Engl J Med 2001;345:1388-93.)

Abbassare la soglia

➤ riduce la sensibilità

(identificare correttamente gli infertili)

➤ aumenta la specificità

(identificare correttamente i fertili)

i, M.D.,

345:1388-93.)

R COMBINATIONS

SPERM MEASUREMENT	SENSITIVITY	SPECIFICITY	F SPERM MEASUREMENTS.*		
			percent		
Concentration					
$10.0 \times 10^6/\text{ml}$	10.2	96.8			
$13.5 \times 10^6/\text{ml}^*$	14.8	96.1			
$48.0 \times 10^6/\text{ml}^{\dagger}$	57.1	58.0			
$60.0 \times 10^6/\text{ml}$	67.7	45.0			
Percentage of motile sperm					
25	8.1	97.7			
32*	15.3	95.1			
63†	84.6	26.2			
75	98.6	2.7			
Percentage with normal morphologic features					
5	18.6	93.8			
9*	43.3	81.4			
11†	60.8	65.3			
15	75.6	41.0			
			UREMENT RANGE	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	
			Subfertile	CONCENTRATION	
			Subfertile	Fertile	1.0
			Subfertile	Fertile	1.9 (2.2-3.7)
			Fertile	Fertile	2.5 (1.6-4.2)
			Subfertile	Subfertile	2.2 (1.3-3.6)
			Subfertile	Fertile	7.2 (4.3-12.2)
			Subfertile	Subfertile	6.3 (3.8-10.3)
			Fertile	Subfertile	5.5 (3.0-10.2)
			Fertile	Subfertile	15.8 (8.7-29.0)

New WHO-reference limits—revolution or storm in a teapot?

Gerhard Haidl Asian Journal of Andrology (2011) 13, 208–211

- Routine semen analysis provides useful information concerning sperm production by the testes, sperm motility and viability, the patency of the male genital tract, the secretions of the accessory organs, as well as ejaculation and emission. Hence, the information obtained by this procedure is obviously useful for the initial evaluation of the infertile male.
- During andrological work-up, reductions in a single semen parameter has only limited prognostic value. In a comprehensive approach, the results of physical examination as well as the cumulative importance of various laboratory findings including hormone analysis, etc., have to be considered.
- The investigation and treatment should not focus on unspecific symptoms but on any potential underlying disorder, thus reducing or even eliminating the contribution of the male partner to couple subfertility.
- However, as far as the diagnosis of sub- or infertility is concerned, **semen analysis does not represent a definitive test of male fertility.**



WORK-UP PER L'INFERTILITÀ MASCHILE (II°LIVELLO)

Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017



III. VALUTAZIONE ORMONALE (conta nemaspermica < 10 mil/ml, reperti clinici suggestivi di endocrinopatie, alterazione della funzione sessuale)

- LH, FSH (v.n. < 7-8 U/L), PRL, testosterone totale (h. 7-11, v.n. > 350 ng/dL)

- I livelli di FSH correlano in maniera inversa con il numero di spermatogoni
- I livelli di FSH sono normali se l'arresto maturativo avviene a livello di spermatociti o spermatidi e nelle azoospermie ostruttive



IV. VALUTAZIONE MICROBIOLOGICA

- Spermiocoltura/Tampone uretrale: Mycoplasma hominis, Ureaplasma Urealyticum, Clamidia Trachomatis, Gram +, Gram-

**Table 3** Characteristic endocrine profiles of infertile men.

Condition	T	FSH	LH	PRL
Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal
Primary testis failure	Low	High	Normal/high	Normal
Hypogonadotropic hypogonadism	Low	Low	Low	Normal
Hyperprolactinemia	Low	Low/normal	Low	High
Androgen resistance	High	High	High	Normal

FSH, follicle stimulating hormone; LH, luteinizing hormone; PRL, prolactin; T, testosterone.

Turek PJ. Practical approaches to the diagnosis and management of male infertility.
Nat Clin Pract Urol 2: 226–238, 2005.





WORK-UP PER L'INFERTILITÀ MASCHILE (II° LIVELLO)

Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017



V. TEST GENETICI



- **Cariotipo** (aneuploidia, inversioni, translocazioni): da eseguire nell'azoospermia non ostruttiva (NOA): 10-15% e nell'oligozoospermia severa: < 5 mil/ml: ~5%
- **Microdelezioni del cromosoma Y**: da ricercare nell'azoospermia non ostruttiva (NOA): 8-16% e nell'oligozoospermia severa < 5 mil/ml: 3-7%.
Rare (< 1%) se conta nemaspermica > 5 mil/ml.
AZFc (65-70%, azoospermia → oligozoospermia, TESE+), AZFa (5%) → SCO
- **Mutazioni del gene CFTR (cystic fibrosis conductance regulator)**: da ricercare se almeno un vaso deferente è assente alla palpazione + azoospermia (ostruttiva) + volume seminale < 1.5 ml e pH < 7. Mutazioni trovate nel 80% pts (max ΔF508)





Recommendations	GR
From a diagnostic view point, standard karyotype analysis should be offered to all men with damaged spermatogenesis (spermatozoa < 50 million/mL) who are seeking fertility treatment by IVF.	B
Genetic counselling is mandatory in couples with a genetic abnormality found in clinical or genetic investigation and in patients who carry a (potential) inheritable disease.	A
All men with Klinefelter's syndrome need long-term endocrine follow-up and usually require androgen replacement therapy.	A
Testing for microdeletions is not necessary in men with OA (with normal FSH) when ICSI is used because spermatogenesis should be normal.	A
Men with severely damaged spermatogenesis (spermatozoa < 5 million/mL) should be advised to undergo Yq microdeletion testing for both diagnostic and prognostic purposes. Yq microdeletion also has important implications for genetic counselling.	A
If complete AZFa or AZFb microdeletions are detected, micro-TESE should not be performed because it is extremely unlikely that any sperm will be found.	A
If a man with Yq microdeletion and his partner wish to proceed with ICSI, they should be advised that microdeletions will be passed to sons, but not to daughters.	A
When a man has structural abnormalities of the vas deferens (unilateral or bilateral absence), he and his partner should be tested for CF gene mutations.	A

Guidelines on Male Infertility

A.Jungwirth (Chair), T. Diemer, G.R.Dohle, A. Giwercman,
Z. Kopa, C.Krausz, H. Tournaye

© European Association of Urology 2015

Genetic infertility





Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017

WORK-UP PER

L'INFERTILITÀ MASCHILE (2°LIVELLO)



ITALIAN CHAPTER

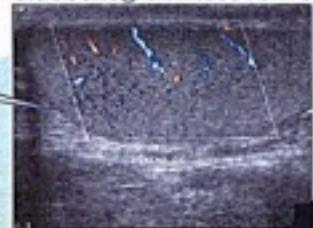
Valutazione clinica - Approfondimenti diagnostici

Per completare la diagnosi può essere opportuno approfondire le indagini con tecniche di imaging (ultrasonografia e u. Doppler) e biopsia testicolare.

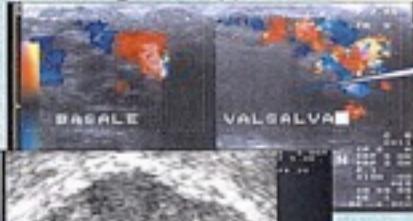
Eco-doppler testicolare

«Deve essere eseguita con sonda lineare 7,5 MHz; devono essere descritte le dimensioni testicolari, l'eventuale presenza di idrocele, una accurata descrizione dei didini (posizione, forma, struttura, ecogenicità parenchimale, lesioni focali) e fornita una accurata descrizione degli epididimi nelle varie parti (testa, corpo, coda) e dei deferenti.»

Ultrasonografia testicolare

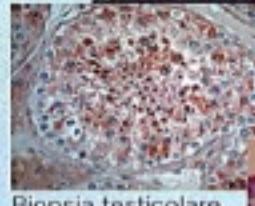


Ultrasonografia Doppler



«Devono essere descritti i parametri velocimetrici arteriosi e venosi con rilievo di eventuali reflussi da varicocelle. Una valutazione accurata intratesticolare può identificare focali di spermatogenesi attiva.»

Valutazione clinica
- Esame obiettivo



Biopsia testicolare

«Si può eseguire un citoaspirato con ago sottile o una biopsia a cielo aperto. La prima indagine citologica dovrebbe essere di routine nei centri andrologici; la seconda, istologica, dà informazioni sull'architettura tessutale.»

Citoaspirato testicolare

Ultrasonografia prostatovaescicolare

«Deve essere eseguita con sonda transrettale e deve descrivere con accuratezza anche piccole lesioni, depositi calcifici, ipodensità che denunciano una flogosi prostatica o dilatazioni, fibrosi o concamernazioni vesicolari che siano suggestive di un ristagno seminale.»

Da Infertilità maschile

A. Lenzi e L. Gandini, Neolibro 2004



Ultrasound of the male genital tract in relation to male reproductive health



Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017

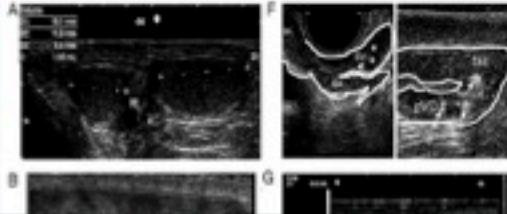
Francesco Lotti and Mario Maggi*

Human Reproduction Update, Vol.21, No.1 pp. 56-83, 2015

ITALIAN CHAPTER

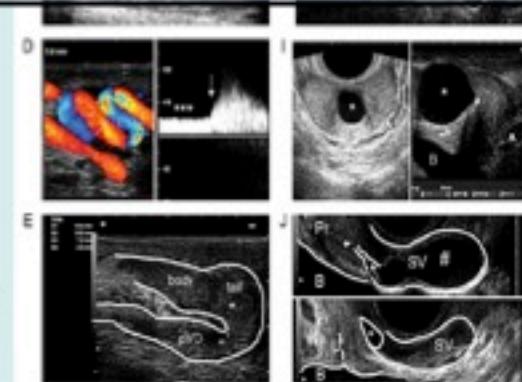
Table IV Schematic summary of seminal, ultrasound and hormonal abnormalities in different etiological causes of male infertility.

	Primary hypogonadism*	Secondary hypogonadism†	Complete bilateral EDO	CBAVD‡	Proximal bilateral (sub)obstruction	Maturity arrest and SCOS
Semen parameters:						
Sperm concentration	Oligo/azoospermia	Oligo/azoospermia	Azoospermia	Azoospermia	Oligo/azoospermia	Azoospermia
Ejaculate volume [§]	~Reduced	~Reduced	Low	Normal Reduced if SV	Normal	Normal



CONCLUSIONS: MGT-CDUS is a useful tool in detecting abnormalities related to impaired male reproductive health. However, it suffers from a lack of standardization and often produces subjective/vague diagnoses. To fill this gap, the European Academy of Andrology has promoted an ongoing multicenter study aimed at defining the MGT-CDUS characteristics of healthy, fertile men.

Proximal vs deferent [¶]	Normal width	Normal width	Normal/increased	Normal/increased	Normal	Normal width
Deferential ampulla [¶]	Normal width	Normal width	Normal/increased	Normal/increased	Normal	Normal width
Prostate volume [¶]	Reduced	Reduced	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal
Ejaculatory ducts [¶]	Normal	Normal	Dilated and/or cysts and/or calcifications	Possible abnormalities	Normal	Normal
SV [¶]	Reduced (?)	Reduced (?)	Dilated. No modification with ejaculation [¶]	Possible abnormalities	Normal	Normal
Kidneys	Present	Present	Present	Usually present	Present	Present
Hormones						
T [¶]	Low	Low	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal
FSH [¶]	Elevated	Normal/low	Normal	Normal	Normal	- Maturity arrest normal - SCOS: normal/high
LH [¶]	Elevated	Normal/low	Normal	Normal	Normal	





WORK-UP PER L'INFERTILITA' MASCHILE (2°LIVELLO)



Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017

Limitations of semen analysis as a test of male fertility and anticipated needs from newer tests

Christina Wang, M.D.^{AB} and Ronald S. Swerdloff, M.D.^A

Fertility and Sterility® Vol. 102, No. 6, December 2014

There are a number of biochemical tests to measure functions of the accessory gland including zinc and acid phosphatase (prostate), fructose (seminal vesicle), and carnitine and alpha-glucosidase (epididymis) (1). These biochemical tests are not routinely performed and are of rare clinical usefulness as biomarkers of male factor infertility.

IV. TEST BIOCHIMICI E DI FUNZIONE SPERMATICA

- Fruttosio seminale (vescichette seminali)
- Test di funzione spermatica: CASA, Sperm DNA fragmentation (TUNEL, COMET assay)

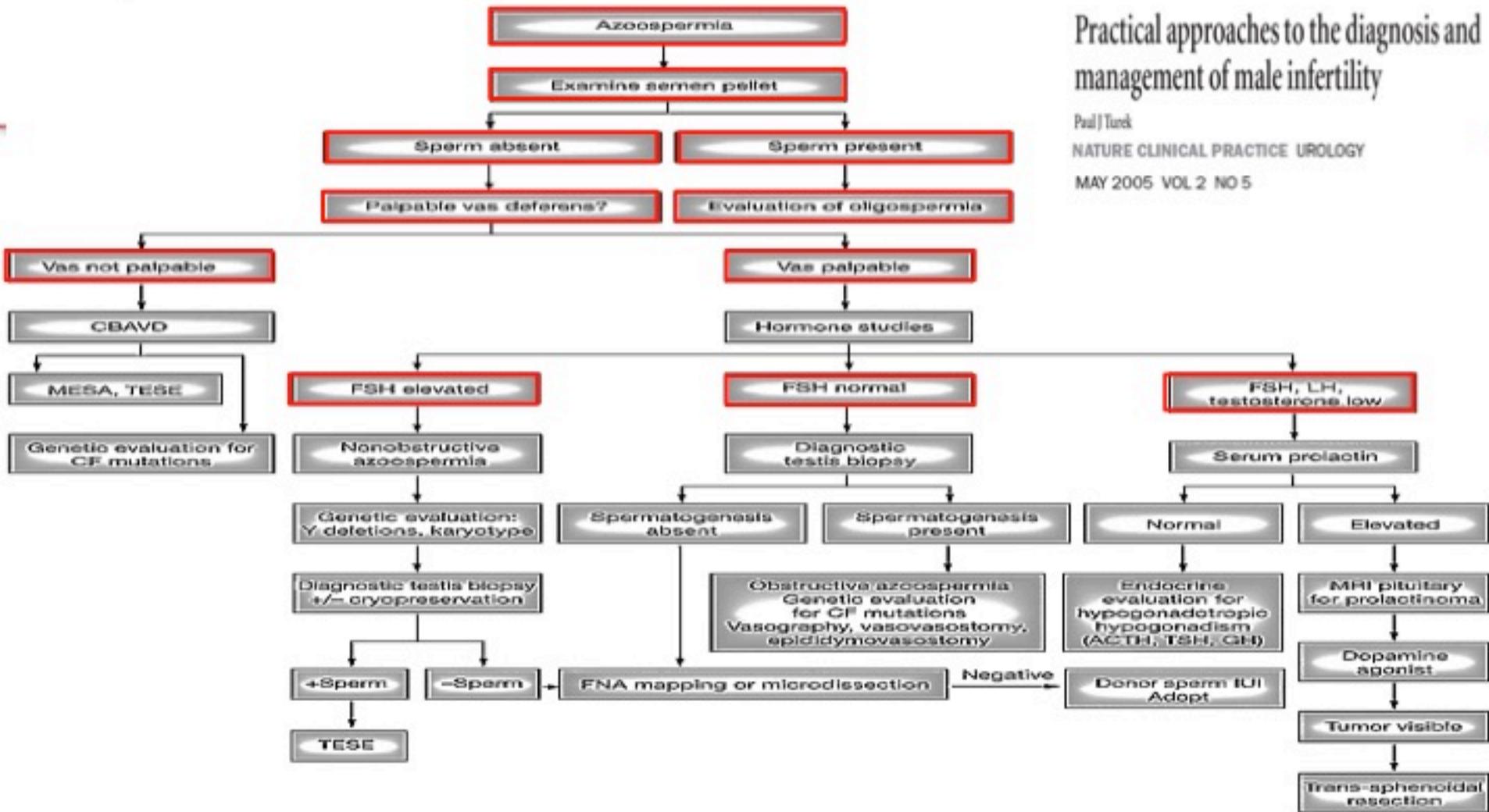


Practical approaches to the diagnosis and management of male infertility

Paul J. Turck

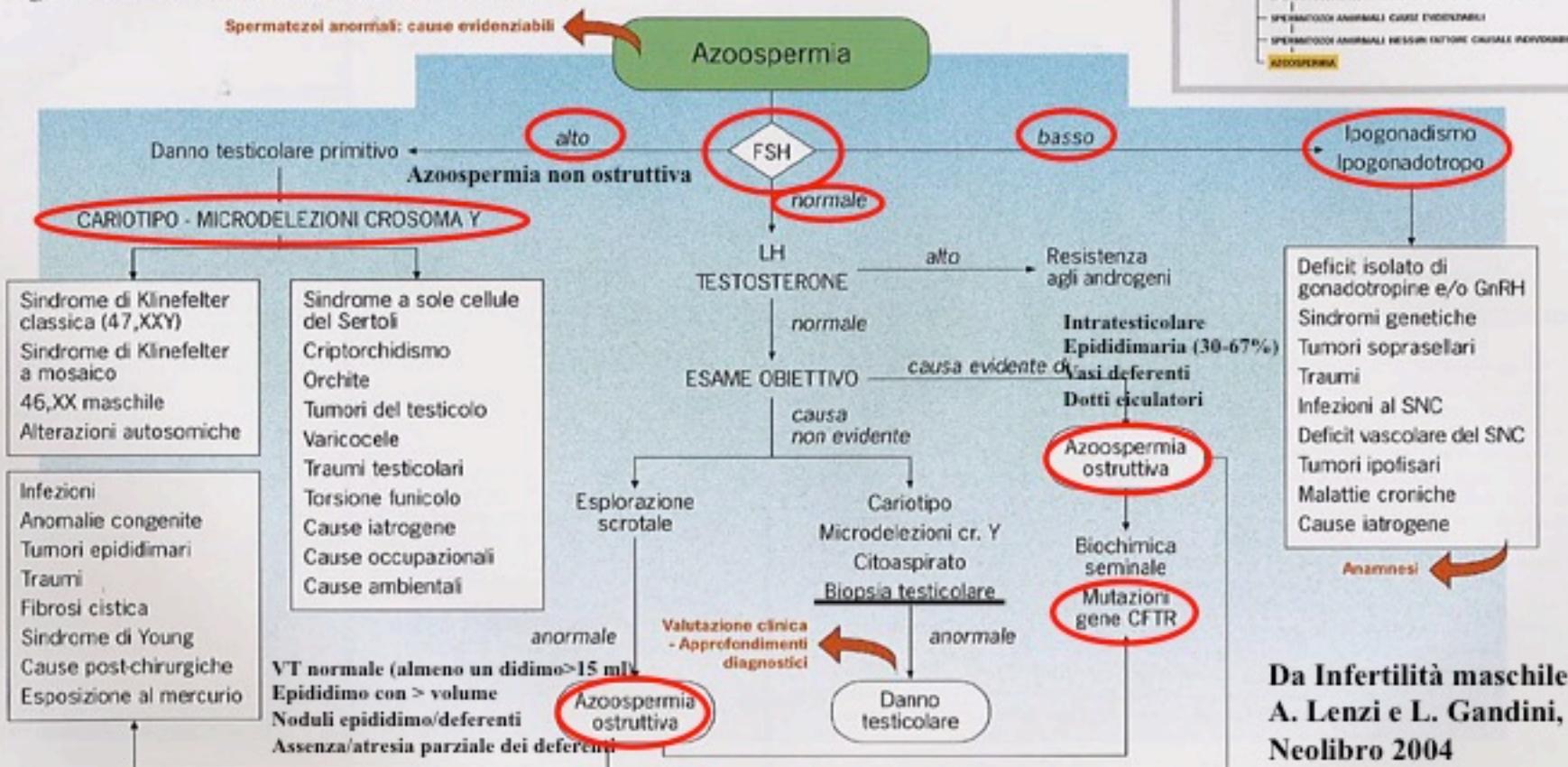
NATURE CLINICAL PRACTICE UROLOGY

MAY 2005 VOL 2 NO 5



Azoospermia

Indica la carenza di spermatozoi maturi nel seme, possono essere presenti cellule germinali immature se non vi è ostruzione.





Roma, 9-12 novembre 2017

CONCLUSIONI



- L'infertilità maschile è presente in una significativa percentuale (20-30%) di coppie infertili
- Comprende cause :
 - che possono essere corrette (modifica dello stile di vita, farmaci, chirurgia)
 - irreversibili possibilmente risolvibili con la PMA
 - irreversibili: sperm donation o adozione
- Richiede un work-up accurato che comprenda una accurata anamnesi, l'esame obiettivo, la valutazione ormonale, genetica (quando indicata) e microbiologica, l'imaging ultrasonografico
- Un work-up in centri dedicati permette la risoluzione del problema in una percentuale significativa di soggetti