

Evaluation of sperm chromatin structure and DNA strand breaks is an important part of clinical male fertility assessment

Donald P. Evenson^{1,2,3}

¹South Dakota State University, Brookings, SD, USA; ²Department of OB/GY, Sanford Medical School, University of South Dakota, Sioux Falls, SD, USA; ³SCSA Diagnostics Inc., Brookings, SD, USA

Correspondence to: Donald P. Evenson. President and Director, SCSA Diagnostics Inc., 302 6th St. W., Brookings, SD 57006, USA. Email: don@scsatest.com.

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1 Introduction

2 As reviewed by Agarwal *et al.* (1) and recently stated by Vu
3 Bach and Schlegel (2), “numerous studies have attempted
4 to assess the association between elevated sperm DNA
5 fragmentation (SDF) and ART outcomes. Unfortunately,
6 variations between SDF assays, protocols, and thresholds and
7 differences in study populations have resulted in systematic
8 reviews and meta-analyses fraught with heterogeneity and
9 unable to come to robust conclusions”. However, these early
10 meta-analyses were considered a near impossible task leading
11 to vague and questionable conclusions. Recent studies have
12 refined protocols for the Sperm Chromatin Structure Assay
13 (SCSA) (3,4) TUNEL (5), SCD (6) and COMET (7) tests. A
14 major consideration for standardizing a protocol is to identify
15 the SDF thresholds. While this has often been described as
16 a single% SDF, e.g., 30% listed as the SCSA threshold in
17 Agarwal *et al.* (1), more recent SCSA studies have listed two
18 or three thresholds depending on the method of fertilization
19 (see below).

21 SDF tests

23 The authors (1) provided eight protocols to measure sperm
24 DNA/chromatin integrity. The first shown was the light
25 microscope “AO test” that uses acridine orange (AO) to
26 determine the percent (%) of sperm in a semen sample that
27 fluoresce red (broken DNA) or green (intact DNA) (8).
28 This test is considered unreliable for the sensitive human
29 clinic (9).

30 In 1980, the first SDF test, the SCSA[®] was introduced (10).

A very significant advantage of the SCSA test is that the
marker for DNA strand breaks is the very small, flat planer
AO molecule (MW 265). Thus, AO likely penetrates the
entire highly compact nuclear chromatin structure (9,11).
In contrast, the TUNEL assay requires the large terminal
deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT) enzyme to label at
sites of DNA strand breaks, except those breaks without
a 3' OH end (12). It is likely the protamine toroid is not
penetrable by this enzyme, thus reducing the efficiency of
flow cytometric TUNEL testing by 1/3 (9,11).

What does the SCSA test measure?

Agarwal *et al.* (1) have stated that the SCSA test “measures
the susceptibility of DNA to denaturation, which occurs more
commonly in fragmented DNA”. Also, a recent review (2)
stated that the “SCSA starts with an acid denaturation
step and depends on the principle that abnormal DNA is
more prone to further fragmentation by acid denaturation
than intact DNA”. Does that imply that the acid causes
fragmentation leading to DNA strand breaks? All data to
date strongly suggest that the function of the heat or pH
1.20 treatment for 30 secs is to denature (open) the two
DNA strands at the sites of existing single or double DNA
strand breaks, i.e., “normal DNA” with single or double
strand breaks in the phosphodiester backbone of DNA (13).
Since neither heat (100 °C, 5 min) nor acid (pH 1.20/30
sec) (13) break the DNA phosphodiester backbone, both the
TUNEL and the SCSA tests are likely measuring existing
DNA breaks available to each specific molecular probe (9).

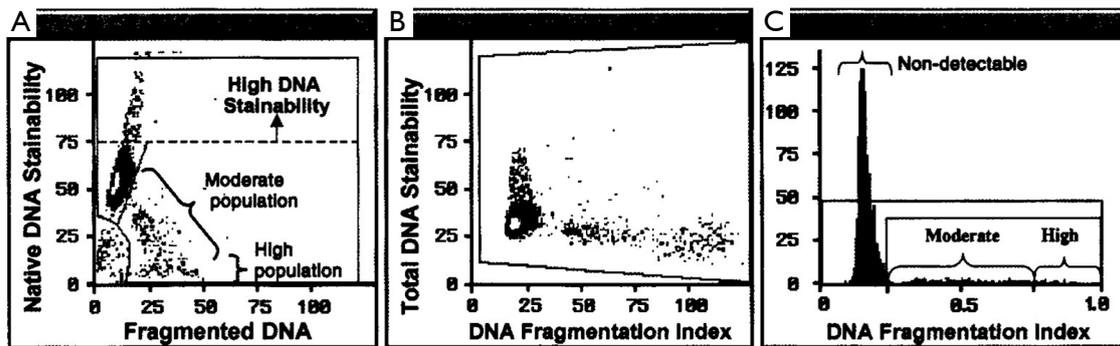


Figure 1 SCSA data for clinical report. (A) Raw data from a flow cytometer showing each of 5,000 sperm as a single dot on a scattergram. Y = native DNA stainability, X = fragmented DNA; high DNA stainability (HDS) sperm with uncondensed chromatin; (B) SCSSA_{soft}[®] software conversion to: Y = total DNA stainability, X = DNA fragmentation index; (C) frequency histogram of data in middle panel. Three levels of DNA fragmentation: non-detectable, moderate level and high level. SCSA, Sperm Chromatin Structure Assay.

DEMO Flow cytometry (FCM) SDF tests: SCSA and TUNEL

60
61 Of critical importance for validation of any test is its
62 precision and accuracy. Without a doubt, FCM is invaluable
63 to achieve this requirement for the SCSA and TUNEL tests.
64 Measurement by using FCM is highly rapid with exceptional
65 mechanical precision that avoids human eye biases. Both the
66 SCSA and the TUNEL test measure five to ten thousand
67 single cells, one at a time, at rates of about 250 cells/sec (14).
68 SCSA has a significant advantage of being a dual parameter
69 measurement. Thus, each spermatozoon is characterized by
70 1,024×1,024 units (channels) of green *vs.* red fluorescence.
71 Data are presented as a dot plot (one dot for each of 5,000
72 sperm) with both X and Y axes of 1,024 channels or 1,024
73 degrees of DNA damage (14) as seen in *Figure 1*.

74 The SCSA test measures two sperm nuclear parameters
75 simultaneously: (I) sperm DNA strand breaks (%DFI);
76 and (II) uncondensed chromatin [% high DNA stainability
77 (HDS)] (15). AO stains histone complexed DNA 2.3× more
78 than protamine complexed DNA (16) and is clearly resolved
79 as seen in *Figure 1*.

80 From SCSA scatterplots, in live time, populations of
81 normal, increased red fluorescence and increased green
82 fluorescence can be FCM-sorted out into test tubes for
83 further morphological or biochemical analyses (17).
84 Normal and moderate level DFI populations have normal
85 morphology while the high DFI populations have abnormal
86 morphology (17) consistent with apoptotic sperm.

87 Both DFI populations have pH 10 Comet positivity
88 (double strand breaks) confirming that SCSA DFI
89 populations have Comet-confirmed sperm DNA strand
90

breaks (17). The sperm nuclei of the HDS population are
more rounded consistent with morphological immature
sperm and no Comets (17,18). For the SCSA test, raw
or extended aliquots of semen (fresh or frozen) are sent
to a diagnostic center on dry ice or in LN2 dry shippers.
Immediately after thawing, the sample is treated with a
low pH buffer (pH 1.20, 30 sec), stained with AO and
immediately measured (14). SCSA data clearly show that
these frozen and rapidly thawed samples have the exact same
SCSA values as fresh samples (19,20).

Measures of uncondensed chromatin (%HDS)

HDS sperm have uncondensed chromatin easily detectable
by SCSA since more ds DNA is exposed to AO staining.
The final structure of sperm chromatin is dependent
upon post-translational methylation and acetylation
that affects chromatin stability and the acquisition of
epigenetic/imprinting marks impacting on embryonic
development. This faulty compaction makes an abnormal
tertiary chromatin structure that is crucial for correct
timing during the process of fertilization and early pre-
implantation development (21,22). The threshold for HDS
related embryo failure is 20% to >25% HDS; 22% of 1,417
infertility patients were at these levels (23).

Repeatability of multi-lab flow cytometric measures of human clinical samples

Now that flow cytometers are available in numerous
laboratories and medical institutions around the world, it

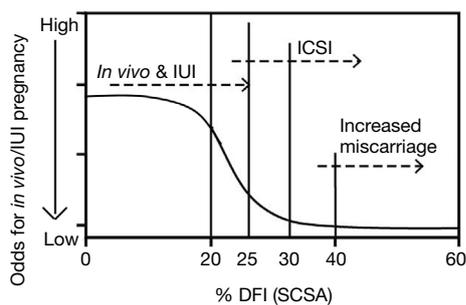


Figure 2 Odds of *in vivo*/IUI pregnancy vs. %DFI. The curve of decreasing odds with increasing %DFI is drawn from data on semen samples used for *in vivo* (n=732) [10, 27, 28] and IUI (n=387) [29] clinical studies. Vertical lines between 20–40 %DFI indicate suggested clinical intervention thresholds from data (n≥1,500 semen samples) in ART clinical studies [e.g., 23, 29, 30].

121 is very important to know whether multiple types of flow
 DEMO 122 cytometers are applicable to measure SDF in the SCSA
 123 and TUNEL tests. In 1995, Evenson and ten collaborators
 124 in seven centers on two continents made comparative
 125 SCSA %DFI measurements of aliquots of the same frozen
 126 samples from human, mouse, rat, turkey, bull, ram, boar
 127 and stallion (24). Both epiillumination and orthogonal
 128 optic flow cytometers were compared. Of great importance,
 129 the overall %DFI values for the total 132 samples had
 130 correlations of 0.9886 (P<0.001). This number solidly
 131 demonstrates that the crucial SCSA measurements around
 132 the world on very different flow cytometers produced with
 133 SCSA software (or equivalent red/red + green fluorescence)
 134 produced the near exact results. Similarly, Ribeiro *et al.* (25)
 135 have recently shown that TUNEL measurements on two
 continents gave the same data.

136 Comparative measurements of aliquots of human
 137 patient semen samples by SCSA Diagnostics, Inc.
 138 (SDI) personnel and SDI trained FCM operators at the
 139 University of Copenhagen (10 samples; R²=0.9812) and
 140 the Andrology Lab, Coimbatore, India (57 samples;
 141 R²=0.962) (9) showed that the near exact SCSA data can be
 142 obtained between labs.

143
 144 **SCSA data and pregnancy outcomes are**
 145 **predictive of male infertility via intercourse, IUI,**
 146 **IVF and ICSI**
 147

148 The major use of many thousands of SCSA tests has been
 149 to determine the %DFI, i.e., the percent of sperm in a
 150 population that has measurable single or double strand

DNA breaks of the phosphodiester DNA backbone. This 151
 has also been called “sperm with fragmented DNA (*Latin* 152
fragmentum: a broken piece), thus, DNA with pieces of 153
 broken single or double DNA strands. 154
 155

Pioneer *in vivo* male factor studies

156 The first well executed clinical *in vivo* study correlating 157
 sperm DNA integrity with pregnancy outcome was done 158
 in collaboration with Mike Zinaman at Georgetown 159
 University (26). The SCSA test was used to measure 160
 human semen samples from 165 presumably fertile couples 161
 wishing to achieve pregnancy over twelve menstrual cycles. 162
 Any woman with female infertility factors was excluded. 163
 SCSA data from the male partners of 73 couples (group 1) 164
 achieving pregnancy during months 1–3 were compatible 165
 with “high fertility”. These SCSA values were significantly 166
 different from those of 40 couples (group 3) achieving 167
 pregnancy in months 4–12 (P<0.01) and of those male 168
 partners of 31 couples (group 4) not achieving pregnancy 169
 (P<0.001). Group 2 included couples who had a miscarriage. 170
 “Based on logistic regression, the level of %DFI was the 171
 best predictor for whether a couple would not achieve 172
 pregnancy”. Some 84% of males in group 1 had <15% DFI; 173
 no couples achieved pregnancy in group 1 with >30% DFI. 174

175 Shortly after the above publication, Spano *et al.* (27) 176
 published a “time to natural pregnancy” on 215 “Danish 177
 first pregnancy planners” with no previous knowledge of 178
 their fertility status. SCSA data was obtained on 1,301 179
 cycles (838 cycles, months 1–6; 463 cycles, months 7–24). 180
 At 20% DFI, fecundability started dropping and became 181
 very small for values of 30–40% as seen in *Figure 2*.

182 Thus, the probability of fathering a child sharply 183
 declined beginning at 20% DFI and was negligible when 184
 this fraction added up to 40%. As stated by the authors, 185
 “this level makes this individual a good candidate not to 186
 conceive”. The results of both above studies are consistent 187
 with the finding that sperm chromatin structure is reflective 188
 of fertility potential, which significantly deteriorates when 189
 %DFI is >30%. The Evenson study (26) and the Spano 190
 study (27) had ORs of 6–7 (28) for higher probability of 191
 pregnancy when DFI <30% compared with DFI >30%. 192

193
SCSA and the ART clinic

194
IUI

195 Bungum *et al.* (29) studied a total of 998 cycles (387 196
 197

198 IUI, 388 IVF and 223 ICSI). Of great interest was the
 DEMO observation that when the SCSA %DFI value was greater
 199 than 30%, the IUI pregnancy rate was a dramatically
 200 low 1.5% in contrast to those with DFI <30% who had
 201 a successful pregnancy rate of 19.0% (29). These data
 202 strongly suggested that men with a DFI of >30% had a
 203 very low chance with both natural and IUI conception
 204 and should move to ICSI. Considering the above data, the
 205 threshold for IUI and natural fertility has been set at 25%
 206 DFI since this level is at the statistical limit for significant
 207 loss of rapid and successful pregnancy.

208

209

210

IVF and ICSI

211 A recent SCSA study by Oleszczuk *et al.* (30) included 1,633
 212 IVF or ICSI cycles. DFI values were categorized into four
 213 intervals: DFI $\leq 10\%$ (reference group), $10\% \leq \text{DFI} \leq 20\%$,
 214 $20\% < \text{DFI} \leq 30\%$, DFI $> 30\%$. For the three latter intervals,
 215 the following outcomes of IVF/ICSI procedures were
 216 analyzed in relation to the reference group: fertilization,
 217 good quality embryo, pregnancy, miscarriage, and live
 218 births. In the standard IVF group, a significant negative
 219 association between DFI and fertilization rate was found.
 220 When calculated per ovum pick up (OPU), odds ratios
 221 (ORs) for at least one good quality embryo (GQE) were
 222 significantly lower in the standard IVF group if DFI $> 20\%$.
 223 OR for live birth calculated per OPU was significantly
 224 lower in standard IVF group if DFI $> 20\%$ (OR, 0.61; 95%
 225 CI: 0.38–0.97; $P=0.04$). No such associations were seen
 226 in the ICSI group. OR for live birth by ICSI compared to
 227 IVF were statistically significantly higher for DFI $> 20\%$
 228 (OR, 1.7; 95% CI: 1.0–2.9; $P=0.05$). OR for miscarriage
 229 was significantly increased for DFI $> 40\%$ (OR, 3.8; 95%
 230 CI: 1.2–12; $P=0.02$). The results suggest that ICSI might
 231 be a preferred method of *in vitro* treatment in cases with
 232 high DFI. Extensive SCSA data on infertility patients have
 233 shown that when a patient has $< 20\%$ DFI, such semen
 234 sample with regards to sperm DNA integrity is consistent
 235 with normal pregnancy by intercourse or IUI unless other
 236 classical semen analysis shows one or two abnormal scores
 237 which decrease the odds for pregnancy (29,30). Decreasing
 238 odds are present with $> 20\%$ DFI and at 25% DFI the odds
 239 become poor for pregnancy by intercourse or IUI. At 30%
 240 DFI, reasonable success requires ICSI. And at 40% DFI
 241 the odds become very poor for pregnancy and increased
 242 odds for miscarriage. Values above 50% may rarely achieve
 243 pregnancy, but the odds are indeed poor (30). *Figure 2*
 244 graphically summarizes the three thresholds for SCSA: (I

$< 20\%$; (II) $> 25\%$; (III) 30–40%. The 20–25% DFI has been
 DEMO considered the “grey zone” by Spano *et al.* (27), Erenpreiss
 245 *et al.* (31), Oleszczuk *et al.* (30) and Hamadi *et al.* (21) and
 246 fertility problems may start to occur when SCSA DFI
 247 reaches this level. It is noted, however, that our SDI clinical
 248 service has seen natural full-term pregnancy with up to
 249 68% DFI. The observation illustrated that these clinical
 250 thresholds are statistical values and not absolute values.
 251

252 The striking observation in *Figure 2* is that as little of
 253 5% (20–25%) DFI units, and certainly 10% (20–30%) DFI
 254 units, have different odds for success. This demands that
 255 SDF tests deliver the highest levels of precision, accuracy,
 256 and repeatability.

257 Despite the greater cost of flow cytometric (SCSA,
 258 TUNEL) tests, this high precision is obtained by FCM in
 259 contrast to potential human eye error with light microscopy.
 260 Each clinic must decide the cost/benefit ratio from selection
 261 of SDF tests.
 262

Conclusions

263
 264
 265 Agarwal *et al.* (1) reviewed the evolution of SDF tests from
 266 their origin to current utility in the urology and infertility
 267 clinics. The recognition of SDF testing as a valuable tool
 268 for male fertility evaluation has been acknowledged. For the
 269 past decade, the American Society of Reproductive Medicine
 270 (ASRM) consensus on SDF has indicated an increased
 271 potential for clinical use but note that meta- analyses have
 272 been fraught with the complexities of four major tests
 273 done with different protocols in multiple labs and different
 274 clinical thresholds, thus causing a near impossible consensus
 275 on their overall utility. Agarwal *et al.* (1) have brought an
 276 updated and a clearer picture on the utility of SDF tests and
 277 noted that the latest American Urological Association (AUA)
 278 and the European Association of Urology (EAU) guidelines
 279 have acknowledged the importance of DNA fragmentation
 280 in sperm as assessment of male infertility. This review (1)
 281 provides clinical scenarios where SDF testing is important.
 282 The positive utility of SDF testing on clinical varicocele
 283 patients was a primary focus on this study. Of greater
 284 impact, the current utility of SDF testing in the infertility
 285 clinic was highlighted focusing on their role in the ART
 286 clinic with specific emphasis on strongly recommending
 287 SDF testing in patients with recurrent ART failure.

288 Agarwal *et al.* (1) concluded their review with the
 289 statement: “SDF testing should be included in the
 290 evaluation of male factor fertility along with the standard
 291 semen analysis”. This concurs with the summary of Simon

DEMO *et al.* (32) “There is sufficient evidence in the existing literature suggesting that sperm DNA damage has a negative effect on clinical pregnancy following IVF and/or ICSI treatment”. Any couple that fails to obtain a pregnancy within a year would gain a valuable insight into the potential that couple infertility may be due to SDF and, if so, to proceed with recommendations presented here (1) to reduce SDF by lifestyle changes or select an ART procedure in part determined by the results of the SDF test.

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None.

Footnote

Conflicts of Interest: The author has no conflicts of interest to declare.

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