



Potential Risk of Senescence on Male fertility and Sperm DNA damage on Progeny

Mathias Abiodun Emokpae^{1*} and Patrick Ojeifo Uadia²¹Department of Medical Laboratory Science, School of Basic Medical Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.²Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Life Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 14 July 2017

Revised 05 August 2017

Accepted 07 August 2017

Published online 09 August 2017

Keywords:

Male factor infertility,
oxidative DNA damage,
senescence,
spermatozoa.

ABSTRACT

There is a growing concern of the potential risk of producing genetically defective sperm and transmitting germ-line mutations to progeny by fathers who prefer their children at old age. Men with male factor infertility do not readily make themselves available for evaluation until very late when they seek assisted reproduction technique. The objective of this review is to highlight the impact of senescence on oxidative DNA damage on spermatozoa and possible effects on the progeny. Relevant literatures on oxidative sperm damage were reviewed in addition to the experience and publications we have made over the years on male factor infertility. Older men produce more spermatozoa with oxidative DNA damage probably due to enhance generation of reactive oxygen species, aberrant DNA repair mechanism leading to production of spermatozoa with abnormal genetic materials that could have adverse consequences on the progeny. It is suggested that men should have their children early and those with male factor infertility should seek medical attention early before old age. Adequate precaution should be taken when selecting spermatozoa for use during assisted reproduction technique.

Introduction

It is generally believed that men can reproduce their kind even at old age, unlike the women whose fecundity decline sharply by the fourth decade of life. The changing pattern of men to have children at old age is worrisome because of the potential risk of producing genetically defective sperm and transmitting germ-line mutations. Male fertility may be affected by senescence even though spermatogenesis continues into old age [1-3]. But the potential risk of abnormal pregnancies, production of genetically defective spermatozoa and transmitting germ-line mutations have not been sufficiently reported. Moreover, the understanding of the risk of male senescence on fertility and deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) damage is particularly important because of older men seeking reproductive assistance. The reliance on modern technologies such as Intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) and In-vitro fertilization (IVF) techniques which by-pass the natural barriers against fertilization by damaged spermatozoa [4] and increases the chances of fatherhood are relevant contributing factors that necessitated this review. Faulty sperm function is about the most single cause of male factor infertility. The objective of this review is to highlight the origin and contributions of sperm DNA damage to male factor infertility and the need to take adequate precaution in the selection of spermatozoa for use in assisted reproduction procedures.

The Human spermatozoon

The sperm cell is composed of a sperm head, a sperm neck and a sperm tail. Whole sperm is covered by the sperm plasma membrane called plasmalemma. The sperm head is composed of a nucleus and an acrosome. The nucleus contains sperm DNA (half number of chromosomes) while the acrosome has important enzymes that are vital for capacitation during fertilization. The sperm neck or midpiece has about 100 sperm mitochondria which generate energy for the sperm tail. The sperm tail has microtubule doublets which are connected by dynein arms.

*Corresponding author. E mail: mathias.emokpae@uniben.edu
Tel: +234 8034511182

<https://doi.org/10.26538/tjnpr/v1i2.3>

© 2017 Natural Product Research Group, University of Benin. All rights reserved.

Germ cells mediate the transfer of genetic information from generation to generation and are thus pivotal for the maintenance of life. Spermatogenesis is a continuous and precisely controlled process that involves extremely marked cellular, genetic and chromatin changes resulting in a generation of highly specialized sperm cells. Spermatogonia stem cells replicate and differentiate into primary spermatocytes that undergo genetic recombination to give rise to round haploid spermatids [5].

Contributions of sperm DNA damage to fertility

The contribution of DNA damage to male factor infertility has attracted more attention in recent years. This is important because half of the progeny's DNA is inherited from the paternal unit. Some epidemiological studies have reported abnormal reproductive outcomes and transmission of genetic defects in men with advancing age [4,5], developmental and morphological birth defects [6], gene mutations [5,7], chromosomal abnormality [3], pregnancy loss [8] and other diseases such as prostate cancer [9]. Accumulating evidence has associated spermatozoa DNA damage with the risk of fetal development and gene mutation in progeny which include childhood cancer and infertility [10]. Male senescence has been linked with increased incidence in the production of sperm of uncommon genetic and chromosomal defects [3,7,11-13]. It was reported that older men make more spermatozoa with mutations associated with Apert syndrome and achondroplasia [12,14] as well as sperm DNA damage which was measured by high biomarker levels of DNA damage [15-18]. Similarly, significant association between male senescence and sperm DNA strand damage in non-clinical specimens of apparently healthy non-smokers has been reported [1]. It was observed that spermatozoa produced by older men had significantly higher incidence of DNA damage which was assayed in alkaline milieu and this represents alkali-labile DNA sites and single strand DNA breaks [1]. In the same report, it was observed that age did not correlate with sperm damage under neutral environment which was hypothesized to indicate double-strand DNA breaks. Similar observation was made by Wyrobek et al [15]. They reported age-associated effects on DNA fragmentation and achondroplasia mutations and not aneuploidy, Apert syndrome mutation or sex ratio [15,16].

In a study that evaluated male participants in In-vitro fertilization (IVF) program, it was observed that sperm DNA damage correlated positively with donor age and with malfunctioning of post fertilization embryo cleavage. It was an indication of high level of decline in the integrity of

sperm DNA in older male participants [17]. The three types of DNA damage that occur in human genome are mainly single strand breaks, double strand breaks and alternation of bases.

Causes of Sperm DNA Damage

The origin of Sperm DNA damage can generally be divided into two- Intrinsic and Extrinsic factors.

1. Intrinsic factors

(a) Defective maturation process of spermatozoa

Naturally, sperm cells have small amount of cytoplasm hence limited contents of cytoplasmic antioxidants. This inherent nature makes the spermatozoa to be susceptible to oxidative stress. The plasma membrane of sperm cells is made up of high levels of polyunsaturated fatty acids which help to maintain the fluidity of the membrane. Again, these polyunsaturated free fatty acid contents readily attract free radical injury. These mechanisms make worse oxidative damage of spermatozoa [18-22]. Sperm DNA packaging process is a highly complicated system and any mistake may expose the DNA to damage by means of inappropriate execution of any of the steps [23-28].

(b) Oxidative stress

When there is excess generation of free radicals that exceeds the neutralizing potentials of naturally available cellular antioxidants, oxidative stress is said to occur. Studies have shown that upto 40% of infertile males have higher levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) than fertile males, which often lead to a cascade of events of lipid peroxidation and damage to cellular macromolecules. The structural and natural composition of spermatozoa in addition to limited antioxidant availability makes sperm cells susceptible to oxidative stress. The presence of leukospermia and varicocele has been associated with elevated free radicals in semen. Varicocele may exacerbate seminal DNA damage directly through increased scrotal temperature or indirectly via increased generation of ROS. Conversely, leukocytospermia contributes to an increased generation and secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines that could change the regulatory mechanisms of spermiogenesis and DNA damage [29].

(c) Abortive Apoptosis

By this mechanism, spermatozoa with damaged DNA may escape apoptosis and are incorporated into the gene pool. Apoptosis is a programmed cell death, which is a natural process aimed at removing old and senescent sperm cells. During spermatogenesis, the body uses apoptosis to regulate the number of proliferative germ cells [30]. The Fas cell surface proteins (transmembrane protein that belongs to tumour necrosis factor family) help to control apoptosis in sperm cells. These proteins and the associated ligands are used to assess genetic damage in spermatozoa. Studies have shown high levels of these biomarkers in men with abnormal sperm indices [31,32]. The presence of high levels of Fas cell surface proteins in infertile men may be due to the failure of the Sertoli cells to activate Fas ligand generation and carry-out apoptosis, such that immature sperm cells with high levels of Fas cell surface proteins that avoided apoptosis could get matured and their damaged DNA enter into the gene pool [18].

Any fault in the natural apoptosis pathway itself involving inadequate caspase activation can also occur. Caspases (cysteine-aspartate proteases) are a group of cysteine protease family which takes part in the initial steps of apoptosis cascade. It was observed that if the apoptotic pathway from caspase 8/9 to caspase 3 (final executioner of apoptosis) to caspase-activated deoxyribonuclease (CAD) is ineffectively or accurately carried out, apoptosis of the spermatozoa is inhibited [33]. When this occurs those spermatozoa with damaged DNA which were previously destined for death escape and proceed to maturation.

2. Extrinsic factors

Life style behaviours (smoking, obesity, excessive alcohol and caffeine consumption), inadequately treated sexually transmitted infections, radiation, medication and substance abuse are some of the predisposing external factors for sperm DNA damage. Cigarettes, medications, recreational drugs adversely impact sperm DNA damage, since they contain chemicals that are involved in DNA strand breaks or act indirectly through secondary oxidative methods. Some authors have reported that cigarette smoke can cause DNA damage in sperm cells via oxidative stress. Many of these chemicals and their metabolites could trigger the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and the generation of ROS in seminal plasma. They can also cause the release of other DNA adducts [34] which are responsible for mis-matched pairs, improper DNA replication

and incorrect protein synthesis [23,24]. Drugs such as cocaine and caffeine can impact sperm DNA strand breaks leading to apoptosis [35]. Their excessive consumption has been reported to cause double strand breaks in sperm DNA [36].

Senescence, Infertility, oxidative stress and DNA damage

Older men may produce more spermatozoa with DNA damage as a result of age-related increased generation of oxidative stress in their reproductive tract [37-39]. We previously reported on the major causes, burden of male infertility and the relevance of proper diagnosis and treatment at subsidized cost among Nigerians [40-44]. Oxidative stress has harmful effect on sperm DNA and can damage sperm DNA, mitochondrial and nuclear membranes [10, 43,45]. An association between oxidative stress and nuclear membranes has been reported [46]. Similarly, the importance of high antioxidant intake in the management of male factor infertility has been suggested. High intake of antioxidants was associated with better semen indices in study participants [47]. Oxidative stress can cause lipid peroxidation, protein dysfunction, nucleic acid oxidation and impaired DNA repair. These could result in gene mutation and carcinogenesis [45,48]. Our group previously reported high levels of seminal plasma caspase 3, cytochrome c and low total antioxidant capacity in infertile men in Nigeria [49]. Defective mitochondrial dependent apoptotic signaling pathway may be an important contributing factor to infertility [49-54]. The control spermatogenesis is nurtured and aided by Sertoli cell and in the presence of large number of spermatozoa with damaged DNA, the Sertoli cells express FasL which induces sperm cell apoptosis by Fas/FasL pathway in order to maintain equilibrium necessary for normal spermatogenesis [55,56]. In older men with increased oxidative stress, the equilibrium mentioned above is not achieved. This may lead to increased rate of apoptosis, DNA damage and infertility [44]. High levels of DNA fragmentation and active caspase 3 were reported in testes of men with Sertoli cell only syndrome and maturation arrest [57].

We earlier reported lower levels of total antioxidant capacity in infertile than control male subjects [49]. The increased generation of ROS often observed in older men [37-39], may be due to several factors and include routine medical prescription and environmental pollutants [58]. The generation of ROS could be made worse by infection, prolonged stasis and abnormal spermatozoa, environmental and life style changes [44,45,59-61].

Oxidative stress and sperm function

Sperm motility is about the first function to be affected by oxidative stress and lipid peroxidation. Studies in human and experimental animals have associated lipid peroxidation with abnormal sperm motility [61-63]. The prolonged exposure of human spermatozoa to ROS using xanthine oxidase as free radical generating system has shown that sperm motility is readily affected by oxidative attack and that hydrogen peroxide is the most cytotoxic oxygen specie [64-68]. The mechanism by which sperm motility is lost in the presence of oxidative stress is not very clear, but oxidative injury to axonema and decreased intracellular adenosine triphosphate (ATP) have been suggested [64,69-71]. Several authors have shown that oxidative stress may compromise the fertilizing capacity of sperm cells even when motility is normal [71,72]. In this situation, it is the capacity of the spermatozoa to penetrate the vitelline membrane of the oocyte that is affected. A study of the impact of oxidative stress on sperm-oocyte fusion has shown a biphasic response depending on the levels of oxidants [73]. Some authors demonstrated that at low level of oxidative stress sperm-oocyte fusion rates were increased supporting the hypothesis which suggests the role ROS play in activation of the tyrosine phosphorylation events that occur during sperm capacitation [74] and the importance of sterol oxidation in driving the efflux of cholesterol from sperm plasma membrane [75]. Conversely, at higher levels of oxidative stress, lipid peroxidation was induced in the plasma membrane and sperm-oocyte fusion was impaired, probably as a result of damage to acrosome which is involved in the fusion process between spermatozoa and oocytes [76]. Again, our group previously demonstrated low acrosin activity in seminal plasma of infertile Nigerians compared to fertile subjects [77]. Acrosin is a sperm acrosomal enzyme that is involved in acrosomal reaction during sperm-oocyte fusion, that is, the union of spermatozoa to the zona pellucida and penetration of spermatozoa through the zona pellucida. The acrosomal membrane of the sperm head has been suggested to possess specific molecules for joining to the zona pellucida before penetration of the oocyte. This enzyme hydrolyzes the oocyte membrane to provide access for spermatozoa to penetrate the interstices of the corona radiata at adequate calcium environment [78-80]. This process may be affected by senescence. From our previous report, it was observed that seminal plasma

calcium levels decreased with decreasing concentrations of sperm density [81].

Impact of senescence on Progeny due to oxidative DNA Damage

Association between paternal age and abnormalities of progeny via oxidative DNA damage in spermatozoa was aptly described in a study using senescence-accelerated mouse prone 8 (SAMP8) [82]. The experimental mouse is a strain that possesses a suite of naturally occurring mutations resulting in accelerated senescence characteristics (phenotype) occasioned by oxidative stress. This oxidative stress was further enhanced by a mutation in the *Ogg1* gene, significantly decreasing the ability of the enzymes to completely remove 8OHdG adducts. A study of the reproductive characteristics of the male mice revealed a significantly higher level of DNA damage in epididymal spermatozoa examined using alkaline comet assay technique. Further examination of the lesions showed that they were oxidative damage as occur in nature as demonstrated by the presence of higher levels of 8OHdG adducts in the testicular tissue and mature sperm cells than control strains [62,82]. Since senescence correlated with oxidative DNA damage of spermatozoa, it is logical to expect these pathologies to reflect in the incidence of morbidity in the progeny of ageing fathers [64]. In fact, three main types of paternal age-associated pathologies have been described which are miscarriage, dominant genetic mutations and complex neurological conditions [64]. Other paternal age-related abnormalities include multiple endocrine neoplasias, Apert syndrome and achondroplasia [82,83]. These conditions occur as a result of replication error in the germ-line.

As men age, the risk of mutation increases due to increased incidence of replication error because the germ cells of older men experience multiple rounds of pre-meiotic replication and cellular iteration or repetition. However, the exception to this hypothesis is the fibroblast growth factor receptor 2 (*FGFR2*) mutation associated with Apert syndrome. In this case there is correspondence between the incidence of mutation in spermatozoa and the occurrence of the condition in children [84]. The underlying cause is not just replication error but over-expression of the mutation that caused the condition in the spermatozoa as a result of age-dependent clonal expansion, which are mutant spermatogonial stem cells that have a proliferative advantage over normal cells. Studies have also suggested that such mutations take place in clusters within the seminiferous tubules probably due to failures of unequal division within the germ-line [84].

Abnormal Repair of DNA damage

Abnormal (incomplete) repair of oxidative DNA damage in the mature spermatozoa that escaped apoptosis and used to fertilize oocytes was explained as one of the causes of paternal age effect on offspring. This may explain the increased rate of miscarriage observed as a function of male senescence [85] and other various complex polygenic conditions that are associated with paternal age at the time of conception. Paternal age has also been associated with increased incidence of complex polygenic neurological conditions such as epilepsy, schizophrenia and autism in the progeny [86]. In a study conducted among Icelandic population it was observed that the mutation load inherited by progeny was overwhelmingly associated with the age of their fathers at the time of conception and the moment this load exceeds a certain critical level, overt abnormalities occur in the progeny [87]. The relationship between age-dependent increase in mutational load in progeny and the unusual repair of oxidative sperm DNA damage in the zygote is not completely understood. The potential contributions of a wide range of environmental and lifestyle factors interacting with the human genome to enhance oxidative DNA damage cannot be ruled out. It was reported that about 4% of new born children in Australia are products of artificial reproductive technique (ART) [88]. Most couples with infertility in Nigeria (those that can afford) are increasingly embracing the use of ART to resolve their problem. Since about 40-50% of this condition is occasioned by male factor infertility, careful selection of spermatozoa is needed to avoid mutations which would not have taken place if natural method was adopted for conception. Recent studies have reported that the incidence of birth defects following ART has doubled and imprinting disorder are frequently seen in children conceived in-vitro [89,90]. Some authors observed that children born by ART were more likely to be admitted to neonatal intensive care unit, to stay in hospital longer than those naturally conceived [86]. Abnormal patterns of retinal vascularization and high incidence of undescended testicles in boys conceived by Intra cytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) have been reported [91-93].

Impact of Senescence on DNA Repair processes in the Germ line

Age exerts profound influence on DNA repair in the germ-line. The occurrence of oxidative injury in early stages of spermatogenesis results in several oxidative damages in germ cells entering meiosis and these may precipitate an increase in apoptosis. But milder levels of oxidative stress may induce compensatory mechanisms on the spermatocytes that confer longevity and survival of the progeny. A good example of the impact of paternal age is on DNA repair in the germ line is on telomere length. One of the ways that the germ line responds to senescence-associated oxidative stress is by upregulation of telomerase activity and increase the length of telomeres in the spermatozoa [94]. Telomere length is a paternally inherited trait such that children of ageing fathers confer longevity on the progeny since telomere length is associated with longevity [95]. This perhaps may be one of the few benefits of having an older father; he may confer upon the progeny the molecular basis for a long life [1]. Conversely, if the paternal germ line experienced adverse oxidative damage after meiosis when the telomerase can no longer increase then telomere length in the spermatozoa will be abnormally short and this may adversely affect the health of progeny conceived by ART [96].

Conclusion

In order to minimize sperm DNA damage, it is important to avoid those extraneous factors that predispose an individual to oxidative DNA damage. Lifestyle modifications such as avoiding smoking, excessive alcohol and caffeine consumption as well as observing adequate exercise should be taken into consideration. It is suggested that men should endeavour to have their children early before old age to avoid the transmission of aberrant genome to their progeny. Adequate precaution should be taken when selecting spermatozoa to be used for fertilization during the process of assisted reproduction technique.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Authors' Declaration

The authors hereby declare that the work presented in this article are original and that any liability for claims relating to the content of this article will be borne by them.

References

- Schmid TE, Eskenazi B, Baumgartner A, Marchetti F, Young S, Welblon R, Anderson D, Wyrobek AJ. The effects of male age on sperm DNA damage in healthy non-smokers. *Human Reprod* 2007; 22(1):180-187.
- Kidd SA, Eskenazi B and Wyrobek AJ. Effects of male age on semen quality and fertility: a review of the literature. *Fertil Steril* 2001; 75(2):237-248.
- Sloter E, Nath J, Eskenazi B and Wyrobek A. Effects of male age on the frequencies of germinal and heritable chromosomal abnormalities in humans and rodents. *Fertil Steril* 2004; 81(4):925-943.
- Maher ER, Brueton LA, Bowdin SC, Luharia A, Cooper W, Cole TR, Macdonald F, Sampson JT. Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome and assisted reproduction technology (ART). *J Med Genet* 2003; 40(1): 62-64.
- Baccetti B, Afzelius BA. The biology of sperm cell. *Monographs Development Biol* 1976; 10:1-14.
- Lian ZH, Zack MM and Erickson JD. Paternal age and the occurrence of birth defects. *Am J Hum Genet* 1989; 39(5):648-660.
- Crow JF. The origins, patterns and implications of human spontaneous mutation. *Nat Rev Genet* 2000;1(1):40-47.
- Risch N, Reich EW, Wishnick MM and McCarthy JG. Spontaneous mutation and parental age in humans. *Am J Hum Genet* 1987; 41(2):218-248.
- Zhang Y, Kreger BE, Dorgan JF, Cupples LA, Myers RH, Splansky GL, Schatzkin A, Ellison RC. Parental age at child's birth and son's risk of prostate cancer. The Framingham Study. *Am J Epidemiol* 1999; 150(11):1208-1212.
- Aitken RJ, Baker MA and Sawyer D. Oxidative stress in the male germ line and its role in the aetiology of male infertility and genetic disease. *Reprod Biomed Online* 2003;7(1):65-70.

11. Shi Q and Martin RH. Aneuploidy in human sperm: a review of the frequency and distribution of aneuploidy, effects of donor age and lifestyle factors. *Cytogenet Cell Genet* 2000; 90(3-4):219-226.
12. Tiemann-Boege I, Navidi W, Grewal R, Cohn D, Eskenazi B, Wyrobek AJ and Arnheim N. The observed human sperm mutation frequency cannot explain the achondroplasia paternal age effect. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2002; 99(23):14952-14957.
13. Bosch M, Rajmil O, Egozcue J and Templado C. Linear increase of structural and numerical chromosome 9 abnormalities in human sperm regarding age. *Eur J Hum Genet* 2003; 11(10):754-759.
14. Glaser RL, Broman KW, Schulman RL, Eskenazi B, Wyrobek AJ and Jabs EW. The paternal-age effect in Apert syndrome is due, in part, to the increased frequency of mutations in sperm. *Am J Hum Genet* 2003; 73(4):939-947.
15. Wyrobek AJ, Evenson D, Arnheim N, Jabs EW, Young S, Pearson F, Evenson D. Advancing male age increase the frequencies of sperm with DNA fragmentation and certain gene mutations, but not aneuploidies or diploidies. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; 103(25):9601-9606.
16. Spano M, Kolstad AH, Larsen SB, Cordelli E, Leter G, Giwercman A and Bonde JP. The applicability of the flow cytometric sperm chromatin structure assay in epidemiological studies. *Hum Reprod* 1998; 13(9):2495-2505.
17. Morris ID. Sperm DNA damage and cancer treatment. *Int J Androl* 2002; 25(5):255-261.
18. Singh A and Agarwal A. The role of sperm chromatin integrity and DNA damage on male infertility. *The Open Reprod Sci J* 2011; 3:65-71.
19. World Health Organization. WHO laboratory manual for the examination and processing of human semen. 5th ed. 2010.
20. Marchettini P, Solaro C. To become a pain specialist one has to understand the nervous system, yet the specialists of the nervous system still have a long way to go before understanding pain. *Neurol Sci* 2007; 28: 161-162.
21. Fuentes-Mascorro G, Serrano H, Rosado A. Sperm chromatin. *Arch Androl* 2000; 45:215-225.
22. Ward WS. Function of sperm chromatin structural elements in fertilization and development. *Mol Hum Reprod* 2010; 16:30-36.
23. Sotolongo B, Lino E, Ward WS. Ability of hamster spermatozoa to digest their own DNA. *Biol Reprod* 2003; 69:2029-2035.
24. Martins RP, Ostermeier GC, Krawetz SA. Nuclear matrix interactions at the human protamine domain: a working model of potentiation. *J Biol Chem* 2004; 279:51862-51868.
25. Ajduk A, Yamauchi Y, Ward MA. Sperm chromatin remodeling after intracytoplasmic sperm injection differs from that of *in vitro* fertilization. *Biol Reprod* 2006; 75:442-451.
26. Ogura A, Matsuda J, Yanagimachi R. Birth of normal young after electrofusion of mouse oocytes with round spermatids. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1994; 91:7460-7462.
27. Hammoud SS, Nix DA, Zhang H, Purwar J, Carrell DT, Cairns BR. Distinctive chromatin in human sperm packages genes for embryo development. *Nature* 2009; 460:473-478.
28. Ostermeier GC, Goodrich RJ, Diamond MP, Dix DJ, Krawetz SA. Toward using stable spermatozoal RNAs for prognostic assessment of male factor fertility. *Fertil Steril* 2005; 83: 1687-1694.
29. Arpanahi A, Brinkworth M, Iles D, Krawetz SA, Paradowska A, Platts AE, Saida M, Steger K, Tedder P. Endonuclease-sensitive regions of human spermatozoal chromatin are highly enriched in promoter and CTCF binding sequences. *Genome Res* 2009; 19:1338-1349.
30. Van der Heijden GW, Ramos L, Baart EB. Sperm-derived histones contribute to zygotic chromatin in humans. *BMC Dev Biol* 2008; 8: 34.
31. Shaman JA, Yamauchi Y, Ward WS. The sperm nuclear matrix is required for paternal DNA replication. *J Cell Biochem* 2007; 102:680-688.
32. Spano M, Seli E, Bizzaro D, Manicardi GC, Sakkas D. The significance of sperm nuclear DNA strand breaks on reproductive outcome. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol* 2005; 17: 255-260.
33. Singh NP, Muller CH, Berger RE. Effects of age on DNA double strand breaks and apoptosis in human sperm. *Fertil Steril* 2003; 80:1420-1430.
34. Menezes Y, Dale B, Cohen M. DNA damage and repair in human oocytes and embryos: a review. *Zygote* 2010; 4: 357-365.
35. Erenpreiss J, Spano M, Erenpreisa J, Bungum M, Giwercman A. Sperm chromatin structure and male fertility: biological and clinical aspects. *Asian J Androl* 2006; 8:11-29.
36. Twigg J, Fulton N, Gomez E, Irvine DS, Aitken RJ. Analysis of the impact of intracellular reactive oxygen species generation on the structural and functional integrity of human spermatozoa: lipid peroxidation, DNA fragmentation and effectiveness of antioxidants. *Hum Reprod* 1998; 13: 1429-36.
37. Barnes CJ, Hardman WE, Maze GL, Lee M and Cameron IL. Age dependent sensitization to oxidative stress by dietary fatty acids. *Aging (Milano)* 1998; 10(6):455-462.
38. Barroso G, Morshedi M and Oehninger S. Analysis of DNA fragmentation, plasma membrane translocation of phosphatidylserine and oxidative stress in human spermatozoa. *Hum Reprod* 2000; 15(6):1338-1344.
39. Garrido N, Meseguer M, Simon C, Pellicer A, Remohi J. Pro-oxidative and anti-oxidative imbalance in human semen and its relation with male fertility. *Asian J Androl* 2004; 6:59-65.
40. Emokpae MA, Uadia PO, Mohammed AZ, Omale-Itodo A. Hormonal abnormalities in azoospermic men in Kano, Northern Nigeria. *Indian J Med Res* 2006; 124:299-303.
41. Emokpae MA, Uadia PO, Omole-Ohonsi A. Pattern of hormonal abnormalities and Association with sperm parameters among oligospermic male partners of infertile couples. *Nig Endoc Pract* 2014; 8(1):13-19.
42. Emokpae MA, Uadia PO, Omale- Itodo A, Orok TN. Male infertility and Endocrinopathies in Kano, North Western Nigeria. *Ann Afri Med* 2007; 6(2):64- 67.
43. Uadia PO, Emokpae MA. Male infertility in Nigeria: A neglected Reproductive Health issue requiring attention. *J Basic Clin Reprod Scis* 2015; 4(2):45-53.
44. Uadia PO, Emokpae MA. Implications of Oxidative Stress on Male Infertility. *Trans Nig Soc Biochem Mole Biol* 2015; 1(1):19-29.
45. Esteves SC, Agarwal A. Novel Concepts in male infertility. *Int Braz J Urol*. 2011; 37(1):5-15.
46. Gonzalez-Flecha B. Oxidant mechanisms in response to ambient air particles. *Mol Aspects Med* 2004; 25:169-182.
47. Agarwal A, Makker K, Sharma R. Clinical relevance of oxidative stress in male factor infertility: an update. *Am J Reprod Immunol* 2008; 59:2-11.
48. Oremosu AA, Akang EN. Impact of alcohol on male reproductive hormones, oxidative stress and semen parameters in Sprague-Dawley rats. *Middle East Fertil Soc J* 2015; 20:114-118.
49. Emokpae MA, Chima HN, Ahmed M. Seminal plasma caspase 3, cytochrome c and total antioxidant capacity in oligospermic males and association with sperm indices. *J Experiment Integrat Med* 2016; 6(4):1-4.
50. Almeida C, Sousa M, Barros A. Phosphatidylserine translocation in human spermatozoa from impaired spermatogenesis. *Reprod Biomed Online*. 2009; 19:770-777.
51. Gandini L, Lombardo F, Paoli D, Caponecchia L, Familiari G, Verlengia C, et al. Study of apoptotic DNA fragmentation in human spermatozoa. *Hum Reprod*. 2000; 15(4):830-839.
52. Marchetti C, Gallego MA, Deffoesez A, Formstecher P, Marchetti P. Staining of human sperm with fluorochrome-labeled inhibitor of caspases to detect activated caspases: correlation with apoptosis and sperm parameters. *Hum Reprod*. 2004; 19(5):1127-1134.
53. Oosterhuis GJ, Mulder AB, Kalsbeek-Batenburg E, Lambalk CB, Schoemaker J, Vermees I. Measuring apoptosis in human spermatozoa: a biological assay for semen quality? *Fertil Steril*. 2000; 74:245-250.
54. Zhang H, Chen Z, Ma C, Lu S, Wang L, Li X. Early apoptotic changes in human spermatozoa and their relationships with conventional semen parameters and sperm DNA fragmentation. *Asian J Androl*. 2008; 10:227-235.
55. Johnson L, Thompson Jr DL, Varner DD. Role of Sertoli cell number and function on regulation of spermatogenesis. *Anim Reprod Sci*. 2008; 105(1-2):23-51.
56. Pentikainen V, Erkkila K, Dunkel L. Fas regulates germ cell apoptosis in the human testis *in vitro*. *Am J Physiol*. 1999; 276(2 Pt 1):E310-306.

57. Eguchi J, Koji T, Nomata K, Yoshii A, Shin M, Kanetake H. Fas-Fas ligand as a possible mediator of spermatogenic cell apoptosis in human maturation-arrested testes. *Hum Cell*. 2002;15(1):61-68.
58. Hassan MA, Killick SR. Effect of male age on fertility: Evidence for the decline in male fertility with increasing age. *Fertil Steril* 2003;79 Suppl 3:1520-1527.
59. Gennart JP, Buchet JP, Roels H, Ghyselen P, Cuelemans E, Lauerys R. Fertility of male workers exposed to cadmium, lead or manganese. *Am J Epidemiol* 1992; 135:1208-1219.
60. Kasahara E, Sato EF, Miyoshi M, Konaka R, Hiramoto K, Sasaki J, Tokuda M, Nakano Y, Inoue M. Role of oxidative stress in germ cell apoptosis induced by di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate. *Biochem J* 2002; 365:849-856.
61. Gonzalez-Flecha B. Oxidant mechanisms in response to ambient air particles. *Mol Aspects Med*. 2004; 25:169-182.
62. Aitken RJ, Curry BJ. Redox regulation of human sperm function: from the physiological control of sperm capacitation to the etiology of infertility and DNA damage in the germ line. *Antioxid Redox Signal* 2011; 14: 367–381.
63. Aitken RJ, Gibb Z, Mitchell LA, Lambourne SR, Connaughton HS, De Luliis GN. Sperm motility is lost *in vitro* as a consequence of mitochondrial free radical production and the generation of electrophilic aldehydes but can be significantly rescued by the presence of nucleophilic thiols. *Biol Reprod* 2012; 87:110.
64. Aitken RJ, Smith TB, Jobling MS, Baker MA, De Luliis GN. Oxidative stress and male reproductive health. *Asian J Androl* 2014; 16:31-38.
65. Baumber J, Ball BA, Gravance CG, Medina V, Davies-Morel MC. The effect of reactive oxygen species on equine sperm motility, viability, acrosomal integrity, mitochondrial membrane potential, and membrane lipid peroxidation. *J Androl* 2000; 21: 895–902.
66. Aitken RJ, Buckingham D, Harkiss D. Use of a xanthine oxidase free radical generating system to investigate the cytotoxic effects of reactive oxygen species on human spermatozoa. *J Reprod Fertil* 1993; 97:441–450.
67. Awda BJ, Mackenzie-Bell M, Buhr MM. Reactive oxygen species and boar sperm function. *Biol Reprod* 2009; 81:553–561.
68. Martinez-Pastor F, Aisen E, Fernandez-Santos MR, Estes MC, Maroto-Morales A, et al. Reactive oxygen species generators affect quality parameters and apoptosis markers differently in red deer spermatozoa. *Reproduction* 2009; 137: 225–235.
69. de Lamirande E, Gagnon C. Reactive oxygen species and human spermatozoa. II. Depletion of adenosine triphosphate plays an important role in the inhibition of sperm motility. *J Androl* 1992; 13: 379–386.
70. Tsunoda S, Kawano N, Miyado K, Kimura N, Fujii J. Impaired fertilizing ability of superoxide dismutase 1-deficient mouse sperm during *in vitro* fertilization. *Biol Reprod* 2012; 87: 121.
71. Wishart GJ. Effects of lipid peroxide formation in fowl semen on sperm motility, ATP content and fertilizing ability. *J Reprod Fertil* 1984; 71: 113–118.
72. Gomez E, Irvine DS, Aitken RJ. Evaluation of a spectrophotometric assay for the measurement of malondialdehyde and 4-hydroxyalkenals in human spermatozoa: relationships with semen quality and sperm function. *Int J Androl* 1998; 21:81–94.
73. Aitken RJ, Gordon E, Harkiss D, Twigg JP, Milne P, Jennings Z, Irvine DS. Relative impact of oxidative stress on the functional competence and genomic integrity of human spermatozoa. *Biol Reprod* 1998; 59: 1037–1046.
74. Aitken RJ, Harkiss D, Knox W, Paterson M, Irvine DS. A novel signal transduction cascade in capacitating human spermatozoa characterised by a redox-regulated, cAMP-mediated induction of tyrosine phosphorylation. *J Cell Sci* 1998; 111:645–656.
75. Brouwers JF, Boerke A, Silva PF, Garcia-Gil N, van Gestel RA, Helms JB, va de Lest CH, Gadella BM. Mass spectrometric detection of cholesterol oxidation in bovine sperm. *Biol Reprod* 2011;85: 128–136.
76. Christova Y, James PS, Jones R. Lipid diffusion in sperm plasma membranes exposed to peroxidative injury from oxygen free radicals. *Mol Reprod Dev* 2004; 68:365–372.
77. Emokpae MA, Uadia PO. Acrosin Activity in Spermatozoa of Infertile Nigerian Males. *Indian J Clin Biochem*, 2006; 12(1): 199-201.
78. Zalata AA, Ahmed AH, Allamaneni SSR, Comhaire FH and Ashok A. Relationship between acrosin activity of human spermatozoa and oxidative stress. *Asian J Androl*. 2003; 6:313-318.
79. Iannaccone PM. Conception, implantation and early development. In: Principles and practice of Endocrinology and metabolism. ed. Kenneth L. Becher, JB Lippincott company Philadelphia, Grand Rapids New York St. Louis San Francisco, London, Sydney, Tokyo: 1990:881-882.
80. Emokpae MA, Emokpae LA. Calcium concentration in semen Of Azoospermic Nigerians. *J Med Lab Sci* 1997; 6:43 – 44.
81. Singh NP, Muller CH and Berger RE. Effects of age on DNA double strand breaks and apoptosis in human sperm. *Fertil Steril* 2003; 80(6):1420–1430.
82. Paul C, Nagano M, Robaire B. Aging results in differential regulation of DNA repair pathways in pachytene spermatocytes in the Brown Norway rat. *Biol Reprod* 2011; 85: 1269–1278.
83. Crow JF. The origins, patterns and implications of human spontaneous mutation. *Nat Rev Genet* 2000; 1:40–47.
84. Crow JF. Upsetting the dogma: germline selection in human males. *PLoS Genet* 2012; 8: e1002535.
85. Goriely A, McVean GA, Rojmyr M, Ingemarsson B, Wilkie AO. Evidence for selective advantage of pathogenic FGFR2 mutations in the male germ line. *Science* 2003; 301:643–646.
86. Koppers AJ, Garg ML, Aitken RJ. Stimulation of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species production by unesterified, unsaturated fatty acids in defective human spermatozoa. *Free Radic Biol Med* 2010; 48: 112–119.
87. Kong A, Frigge ML, Masson G, Besenbacher S, Sulem P, Magnusson G, Gudjonsson SA, Sigurdsson A, Jonasdottir A, Jonasdottir A, Wong WSW, Helgason H, Thorleifsson G, Gudbjartsson DF, Helgason A, Magnusson OT, Thorsteinsdottir U, Stefansson K. Rate of de novo mutations and the importance of father's age to disease risk. *Nature* 2012;488:471-475.
88. Aitken RJ, Roman SD. Antioxidant systems and oxidative stress in the testes. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2008; 636: 154–171.
89. Gosden R, Trasler J, Lucifero D, Faddy M. Rare congenital disorders, imprinted genes, and assisted reproductive technology. *Lancet* 2003; 361: 1975-1977.
90. Hansen M, Kurinczuk JJ, Bower C, Webb S. The risk of major birth defects after intracytoplasmic sperm injection and *in vitro* fertilization. *N Engl J Med* 2002; 346: 725-730.
91. Ericson A, Nygren KG, Olausson PO, Kallen B. Hospital care utilization of infants born after IVF. *Hum Reprod* 2002; 17: 929-932.
92. Kallen B, Finnstrom O, Nygren KG, Olausson PO. *In vitro* fertilization in Sweden: child morbidity including cancer risk. *Fertil Steril* 2005; 84: 605–610.
93. Klemetti R, Sevon T, Gissler M, Hemminki E. Health of children born as a result of *in vitro* fertilization. *Pediatrics* 2006; 118: 1819–1827.
94. Aitken RJ, Findlay JK, Hutt KJ, Kerr JB. Apoptosis in the germ line. *Reproduction* 2011; 141: 139–150.
95. Unryn BM, Cook LS, Riabowol KT. Paternal age is positively linked to telomere length of children. *Aging Cell* 2005; 4: 97–101.
96. Shammas MA. Telomeres, lifestyle, cancer, and aging. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care* 2011; 14: 28–34.