# **Causative Organisms of Pyospermia in Infertile Male Patients**

Mohamed Mahmoud Ramzy Mostafa\*, Samir Mohamed Elhanbly, Mohammed Fawzy Elkamel

Department of Dermatology, Andrology and STDs, Faculty of Medicine, Mansoura University, Egypt **\*Corresponding author:** Mohamed Mahmoud Ramzy, **Mobile:** (+20)1004985570, **E-Mail:** dr.ramzy10@gmail.com

# ABSTRACT

**Background:** Male urogenital tract infection is one of the most important causes of male infertility worldwide. Infection processes may lead to impairment of sperm quality, and obstruction of the seminal tract. On the light of this, there is a need to institute a microbiological intervention to detect the probable causative microbial agents.

**Objective:** The aim of the work was to detect the common bacteria causing pyospermia in a cross-section of infertile men and the sensitive antimicrobials against these bacteria.

**Patients and methods:** This study included 205 infertile men who were recruited from the outpatient clinic, Andrology Unit, Dermatology and Andrology & STDs Department, Mansoura University Hospital for management of infertility. Patients with grade II or grade III varicocele, more than 60-year, smoker, drug abuser and those who were treated with antibiotics during last 3 months were excluded from the study.

**Results:** Over the period of the study, out of 205 infertile male patients with documented pyospermia, 95.6 % of semen samples revealed bacteriologic growth. It was obvious that gram positive bacteria (75.1%) were common than the gram-negative bacteria (20.5%). Six bacterial species (Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococci, Enterococci, E. coli, Klebsiella and Pseudomonas) were isolated from semen samples. The most common causative organisms were Staph. Aureus (49.3%) followed by Streptococci (22.4%) then E. Coli (8.3%), Klebsiella (8.3%) then Pseudomonas (3.9%) and finally Enterococci (3.4%).

**Conclusion:** It could be concluded that semen analysis with peroxidase stain and semen culture are an important diagnostic tool in all patients undergoing fertility investigations to detect genitourinary infections and pyospermia. **Keywords:** Causative organisms of pyospermia, Infertile male, Sensitive antimicrobials

# **INTRODUCTION**

Infertility means the failure to achieve a clinical pregnancy after 12 months of regular unprotected sexual intercourse; it affects approximately 15% of couples <sup>(1)</sup>. The male factor is the main cause of infertility in 20% of cases and contributes in about 50% <sup>(2)</sup>. There are many etiologies for male factor infertility; Infectious processes contribute to about 15% of such cases <sup>(3)</sup>.

Pyospermia means the presence of more than one million leukocytes in 1 mL of semen <sup>(1)</sup>. It has been proposed as an indicator for genital tract infection and/or inflammation <sup>(4)</sup>. Pyospermia negatively impacts spermatogenesis or sperm maturation and has been linked to a worsening of many qualitative and quantitative sperm parameters. The white blood cells are produced by the body's immune system to fight off invading organisms that cause infection, but when leukocyte count is elevated in semen, male fertility can be compromised due to increase in oxidative stress and decrease in sperm quality <sup>(5)</sup>.

Infertile men have significantly increased ROS levels with a reduction in antioxidant capacity compared with fertile controls <sup>(6)</sup>. It is postulated that ROS generated by leukocytes are responsible for negatively affecting sperm function <sup>(7)</sup>. Excessive ROS can induce lipid peroxidation, disrupt DNA, RNA as well as protein functions in the spermatozoa and other testicular cells. Oxidative stress can also decrease success rates of assisted reproduction procedures <sup>(8)</sup>.

There is association between pyospermia and sperm DNA fragmentation in infertile men. Moderately increased leukocytes are also associated with increased levels of cytokines IL-6 and IL-8 in semen <sup>(9)</sup>.

Male genital tract infections are difficult to detect as they are asymptomatic in many cases <sup>(10)</sup>. A number of patients seeking treatment for impaired fertility are increasing so the diagnosis of "silent" genital tract infections should receive attention as the infection may be linked to asthenozoospermia <sup>(11)</sup>.

Infections are potentially treatable causes of male infertility, but the resistance to common antibiotics and the poor compliance may impede the efficacy of antibiotics in resolving complicated GTI or restoring fertility. In a study on 140 patients with pyospermia, 92 of them (65.7%) yielded bacterial growth with Staphylococcus aureus, Staphylococcus saprophyticus and Escherichia coli with the highest incidence rate by (28.3%), (19.6%) and (13.0%) respectively, then there were Proteus mirabilis, Klebsiella pneumonia and Proteus vulgaris with (10.8% for each). Pseudomonas aeruginosa was (5%) <sup>(12)</sup>.

The aim of the present study was to detect the common bacteria causing pyospermia in a crosssection of infertile men and the sensitive antimicrobials against these bacteria.



This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY-SA) license (<u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/</u>)

#### PATIENTS AND METHODS

This study included a total of 205 infertile men, attending at Outpatient Clinic, Andrology unit, Dermatology and Andrology & STDs Department, Mansoura University Hospitals for management of infertility. This study was conducted over a period of 12 months between June 2019 to June 2020.

**Inclusion criteria:** Infertile men with pyospermia (more than one million PMNL in 1 mL of semen) confirmed by peroxidase stain <sup>(1)</sup>, and age group 21-45 years old.

**Exclusion criteria:** Inability to conceive less than 1 year, grade II and grade III varicocele, cigarette smoking and drug abuser, and patients had taken antimicrobial within last three months.

#### All patients were subjected to:

**Full history taking with stress on the following:** Age. Fertility history: duration of infertility, and previous investigations and/or treatment. History of diseases with possible adverse effect on fertility. History of other factors with possible adverse effect on fertility, and sexual history.

General physical examination with stress on the following: Signs of hypogonadism, and gynecomastia and galactorrhea.

#### **Genital examination:**

- **Penis:** scars, hypospadias and others.
- **Testis:** site, volume, and consistency.
- **Epididymis:** head, body, and tail, thickened, tender or cystic.
- **Vas deferens:** palpable or non-palpable and if palpable weather beaded or not.
- Scrotal swelling.
- Varicocele: Examination of varicocele was done in both erect and supine positions, during both quiet respiration and valsalva maneuver to detect abnormal visible or palpable veins within the spermatic cord and around the testis with comparing both sides.

Varicocele was graded according to the clinical grading adopted by **Hargreave** <sup>(13)</sup> as in **table** (1).

Table (1): Clinical grading of varie	cocele <sup>(13)</sup> .
--------------------------------------	--------------------------

Grade	Clinical Criteria
Sub clinical	Veins not palpable or visible, with or without Valsalva but can be demonstrated by special means as Doppler examination.
Grade I	Palpable veins only during Valsalva maneuver on testicular examination.
Grade II	Palpable veins at rest but not visible during testicular examination.
Grade III	Palpable and visible veins at rest during testicular examination

#### **Investigations:**

#### Semen collection and processing:

Two hundred and five semen samples were collected from the infertile patients after 3-5 days of sexual abstinence. The patients were advised to urinate then wash their glans penis with regular water and soap then dry it with clean towel. The samples were obtained by masturbation and were ejaculated into sterile containers in a private room near the laboratory. The patients were carefully instructed to avoid contamination of inner containers by fingers or the penis. The semen samples were transferred directly to the laboratory with proper labeling (full name, age, serial number of the patient, date and time of collection).

#### Computer assisted semen analysis:

Semen samples were examined as soon as they were liquefied. ejaculate volume, pH, concentration, morphology, motility and pyospermia were evaluated according to **WHO** <sup>(1)</sup> guidelines. Pyospermia is a condition in which more than one million white blood cells per milliliter are present in the semen <sup>(1)</sup>. The pus cell count was done for each specimen as follow: 10  $\mu$ l of each liquefied semen was taken, the mixed seminal sample was mounted on a clean glass slide, covered with a standard cover slip, screened under the high-power lens (×40) objective, counted in 10 fields and the average was calculated. Peroxidase stain was done to differentiate pus cells from round cells to confirm pyospermia.

#### **Peroxidase test:**

Leukocyte concentrations in semen were quantified by a myeloperoxidase staining test. A 20 ul volume of liquefied semen specimen was placed in a Corning 2.0 mL cryogenic vial with 20 ul of phosphate buffered saline (PBS; pH 7.0) and 40 ul of benzidine solution. The solutions were mixed and allowed to sit at room temperature for 5 minutes. Peroxidase positive leukocytes staining brown were counted by a microcell counting chamber (Conception Technologies. San Diego, CA) under the bright-field objective (magnification, x20). The average of 5-10 fields was calculated. The results after correction for dilution were recorded as 1000000 peroxidase-positive leukocytes per milliliter of semen <sup>(14)</sup>.

#### **Culturing of semen samples:**

Confirmed semen sample with pyospermia was inoculated on three types of agar medium plates: nutrient agar, the MacConkey agar and blood agar within 1 hour of semen collocation and incubated aerobically at 37°C for at least 48 hours. Any growth of bacteria  $\geq 10,000$  colony forming units (CFU/ml) was considered to be significant. The identification of bacterial isolates was done by standard microbiological techniques as described in Bergey's manual of systematic bacteriology which comprises of studying the colony characters, staining reactions and biochemical tests <sup>(15)</sup>.

#### Identification of isolated bacterial colonies:

1) Colony character: Staph. aureus usually formed gray to deep golden yellow colonies with a smooth, shiny surface on nutrient agar media. Streptococci grow in blood agar media and make hemolysis (alpha, beta, and gamma hemolysis). Enterococci produced compact tiny red colonies either on or beneath the surface of the MacConkey Agar media. E. Coli produced dark pink, dry, donut shaped colonies on the MacConkey Agar media. Proteus produced successive waves to form a thin filmy layer of concentric circles (swarming) colonies in blood agar media. Klebsiella produced large shiny and dark pink colonies. These colonies were mucoid in shape in blood and MacConkey agar media.

**2) Microscopical examination: Gram stain**: It is used to differentiate the organism, whether it is grampositive or gram-negative. Gram-positive bacteria appeared purple in color and gram-negative bacteria appeared pink.

## **Biochemical reactions:**

- 1) The coagulase test: was used to differentiate between Staphylococcus aureus and other Staphylococcus species. Test tube with pooled human plasma was inoculated with a staphylococcal colony. The tube was incubated at 37 °C for 4 hours.
- Positive test: the plasma will coagulate as in Staph aureus.
- Negative test: the plasma remains liquid as in Staph epidermidis.
- 2) Hemolytic reactions of streptococcus: There are three types of hemolysis alpha, beta and gamma. Alpha hemolysis is a greenish discoloration that surrounds a bacterial colony growing on the agar. Beta hemolysis represents a complete breakdown of the hemoglobin of the red blood cells in the vicinity of a bacterial colony. There is a clearing of the agar around a colony. Gamma hemolysis is a lack of hemolysis in the area around a bacterial colony as in streptococcus faecalis <sup>(16)</sup>.
- 3) IMVic (indole, methyl red, Voges-Proskauer, and citrate) tests: It is used to differentiate between most of gram negative bacteria

## Antimicrobial susceptibility testing:

Antibiotic susceptibility test of different isolates was performed by Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method according to Clinical & Laboratory Standards Institute CLSI recommendations. The antibiotic disks were selected according to the protocol of laboratory, as recommended by the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards **NCCLS** <sup>(17)</sup>. Mueller Hinton agar (Oxoid, Hampshire, UK) with 5% sheep RBCs plates were inoculated over the entire

surface of the medium. The antimicrobial disks were placed using sterilized forceps. The disks were pressed firmly against the agar surface to ensure contact and subsequent antimicrobial diffusion. The plates were then incubated in aerobic environment at 37 C for 24 hours. The diameter of each inhibition zone was measured in mm using ruler on the under surface of the plate and interpreted using the interpretative chart as susceptible or resistant.

## **Ethical consideration:**

An approval of the study was obtained from Mansoura University Academic and Ethical Committee. Written informed consent of all the participants was obtained and submitted them to Mansoura University after IRB approval with code number (MS.19.06.673). This work has been carried out in accordance with The Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki) for studies involving humans.

## Statistical analysis:

The collected data was revised, coded, tabulated and introduced to a PC using Statistical package for Social Science (IBM Corp. Released 2011. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 20.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.). Data were presented and suitable analysis was done according to the type of data obtained for each parameter. Mean, Standard deviation ( $\pm$  SD) for parametric numerical data; median, range for non-parametric numerical data. Frequency and percentage of non-numerical data. Shapiro test was done to test the normality of data distribution. Significant data was considered to be nonparametric. Student T-test was used to assess the statistical significance of the difference between two study group means. Mann Whitney Test (U test) was used to assess the statistical significance of the difference of a non-parametric variable between two study groups. Chi-Square test was used to examine the relationship between two qualitative variables. Fisher's exact test was used to examine the relationship between two qualitative variables when the expected count is less than 5 in more than 20% of cells. P value < 0.05 was considered significant.

## RESULTS

The present study was carried out on 205 infertile male patients, with documented pyospermia. The following tables and figures represent the results of the current study.

Mean age of studied cases was 31.1 years. Most of them had secondary infertility (60.5%), while 39.5% had primary infertility. Mean duration of infertility was 3.5 years. Only 17.1% suffered from systemic diseases; 9.3% had DM, 5.4% had hypertension and 2.4% had heart diseases (**Table 2**).

				ases =205
Ag	ge (years)	mean±SD	31.1	±5.8
T	Primary	N, %	81	39.5%
Infertility	Secondary	N, %	124	60.5%
Duration of	f infertility (years)	mean±SD	3.5	±1.7
	Primary	mean±SD	2.9	±1.6
	Secondary	mean±SD	3.8	±1.9
	Absent	N, %	170	82.9%
	Present	N, %	35	17.1%
Systemic diseases	DM	N, %	19	9.3%
	Hypertension	N, %	11	5.4%
	Heart disease	N, %	5	2.4%

SD, standard deviation.

Samples with bacterial growth had significantly higher pus cell count and urinary symptoms when compared to samples which revealed no growth. Age, infertility type, duration, systemic diseases, and sperm count did not differ significantly between those with and without bacterial growth (**Table 3**).

<b>Table (3):</b> Comparison of age, clinical and laboratory data between those with and without bacterial growth.
--

			No growth N=9		Growth N=196		р	
Age (	years)	mean±SD	30.9	±4.9	31.1	±5.8	0.930	
Primary		N, %	4	44.4%	77	39.3%		
Infertility	Secondary	N, %	5	55.6%	119	60.7%	0.742	
Duration of in	fertility (years)	Median (range)	3	2-4	3	2-10	0.233	
Systemic		N, %	9	100%	161	82.1%	0.262	
diseases	Present	N, %	0	0%	35	17.9%	0.363	
Sperm count (million)		mean±SD	60.2	±6.4	40.6	±9.9	0.594	
Pus cells (million/mL)		Median (range)	1	1-7	3	1-30	0.006	
Urinary s	symptoms	N, %	0	0%	76	38.8%	0.028	

SD, standard deviation

Gram negative bacilli were significantly associated with secondary infertility, DM, urinary symptoms. Age, sperm count and pus cell count in the semen did not differ significantly between gram positive and gram-negative cultures (**Table 4**).

			Gram positive N=154		Gram negative N=42		р
Age	e (years)	mean±SD	30.9	±5.8	31.5	±5.7	0.563
T 6 4114	Primary	N, %	68	44.2%	9	21.4%	0.000
Infertility	Secondary	N, %	86	55.8%	33	78.6%	0.008
Duration of infertility (years)		Median (range)	3	2-9	4	2-10	0.164
Absent		N, %	130	84.4%	31	73.8%	0.110
Present	Present	N, %	24	15.6%	11	26.2%	0.112
Systemic DM		N, %	9	5.8%	10	23.8%	
	Hypertension	Median (range)	10	6.5%	1	2.4%	0.016
	Heart disease	N, %	5	3.2%	0	0%	
Sperm co	ount (million)	mean±SD	40.3	±9.9	41.6	±10.1	0.465
Pus cells	(million/mL)	Median (range)	3	1-30	3	1-10	0.450
Urinary	y symptoms	N, %	35	22.7%	41	97.6%	<0.001

Table (4): Comparison of age,	clinical and laboratory data	a between samples with Gra	m positive and negative stains.
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

All studied samples were subjected to antimicrobial sensitivity tests. The most sensitive antibiotics were cefoprazone, rifampicin, amikacin and Cefoperazone/ subactam. While the most resistant antibiotics were cotrimoxazole, ceftazidime, piperacillin and ciprofloxacin. Other antimicrobial sensitivity pattern (**Table 5**).

	Culture Growth N=196					
	Sen	sitive	Intermediate		Resistant	
	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%
Ciprofloxacin	28	14.3%	8	4.1%	160	81.6%
Levofloxacin	86	43.9%	32	16.3%	78	39.8%
Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid	92	46.9%	36	18.4%	68	34.7%
Ampicillin/sulbactam	95	48.5%	38	19.4%	63	32.1%
Tetracyclin	32	16.3%	8	4.1%	156	79.6%
Gentamycin	21	10.7%	29	14.8%	146	74.5%
Piperacillin	34	17.3%	2	1%	160	81.6%
Piperacillin/tazobactam	66	33.7%	23	11.7%	107	54.6%
Cefoperazone/sulbactam	110	56.1%	25	12.8%	61	31.1%
Rifampicin	135	68.9%	14	7.1%	47	24%
Cefotaxime	48	24.5%	14	7.1%	134	68.4%
Amikacin	112	57.1%	19	9.7%	65	33.2%
Cotrimoxazole	17	8.7%	3	1.5%	176	89.8%
Ceftazidime	21	10.7%	0	0%	175	89.3%
Cefoprazone	144	73.5%	10	5.1%	42	21.4%
Ceftrixone	39	19.9%	9	4.6%	148	75.5%

Regarding Gram positive cocci, the most sensitive was rifampicin and cefoprazone, while the most resistant was cotrimoxazole and ceftazidime. Regarding Gram negative bacilli, the most sensitive was amikacin and levofloxacin while the most resistant was piperacillin and ceftazidime. Gram negative bacilli showed significant association with higher frequency of sensitivity towards levofloxacin, amikacin, cefoprazone, higher frequency of resistant towards Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid, ampicillin-sulbactam, gentamycin, piperacillin, rifampicin, ceftazidime when compared to Gram positive cocci (**Table 6**).

Table (6): Comparison of susceptibility patterns between samples with Gram positive and neg	ative stains
<b>Table (0).</b> Comparison of susceptionity patterns between samples with Oram positive and neg	,auve stams.

		Gram positive N=154		oositive and Gram N	р	
		Ν	%	Ν	%	-
	S	18	11.7%	10	23.8%	0.116
ciprofloxacin	Ι	6	3.9%	2	4.8%	
-	R	130	84.4%	30	71.4%	
	S	60	39.0%	26	61.9%	0.021
Levofloxacin	Ι	29	18.8%	3	7.1%	
	R	65	42.2%	13	31%	
	S	81	52.6%	11	26.2%	0.001
Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid	Ι	31	20.1%	5	11.9%	
	R	42	27.3%	26	61.9%	
	S	83	53.9%	12	28.6%	<0.001
Ampicillin-sulbactam	Ι	33	21.4%	5	11.9%	
	R	38	24.7%	25	59.5%	
	S	26	16.9%	6	14.3%	0.336
Tetracyclin	Ι	8	5.2%	0	0.0%	
	R	120	77.9%	36	85.7%	-
	S	120	8.4%	8	19.0%	0.005
Gentamycin	I	18	11.7%	11	26.2%	0.002
	R	123	79.9%	23	54.8%	-
Piperacillin	S	33	21.4%	1	2.4%	0.005
	I	2	1.3%	0	0%	0.005
	R	119	77.3%	41	97.6%	-
	S	50	32.5%	16	38.1%	0.774
Piperacillin/ tazobactam	I	19	12.3%	4	9.5%	0.774
	R I	85		22		-
	R S	92	55.2% 59.7%	18	52.4%	0.126
	S I	<u>92</u> 19	12.3%	6	42.9% 14.3%	0.120
Cefoperazone/sulbactam						-
	R	43	27.9%	18	42.9%	-0.001
	S	133	86.4%	2	4.8%	<0.001
Rifampicin	I	6	3.9%	8	19.0%	_
	R	15	9.7%	32	76.2%	
	S	41	26.6%	7	16.7%	0.298
Cefotaxime	Ι	12	7.8%	2	4.8%	_
	R	101	65.6%	33	78.6%	
	S	78	50.6%	34	81.0%	0.002
Amikacin	Ι	17	11.0%	2	4.8%	
	R	59	38.3%	6	14.3%	
	S	13	8.4%	4	9.5%	0.680
Cotrimoxazole	Ι	2	1.3%	1	2.4%	_
	R	139	90.3%	37	88.1%	
	S	20	13.0%	1	2.4%	0.049
Ceftazidime	Ι	0	0%	0	0%	4
	R	134	87.0%	41	97.6%	
	S	120	77.9%	24	57.1%	0.013
Cefoprazone	Ι	8	5.2%	2	4.8%	
	R	26	16.9%	16	38.1%	
	S	27	17.5%	12	28.6%	0.103
Ceftrixone	Ι	9	5.8%	0	0%	
	R	118	76.6%	30	71.4%	1

Regarding Staph aureus, the highest sensitivity was attributed to rifampicin followed by cefoperazone. While the highest frequency of resistance was directed to cotimoxazole and ceftazidime. Regarding Streptococci, the highest frequency of sensitivity was towards rifampicin and cefoperazone, while the highest frequency of resistance was towards piperacillin, gentamycin and cotrimoxazole. Regarding enterococci, the highest frequency of sensitivity was towards rifampicin, ampicillin/sulbactam and cefoperazone, while the highest frequency of resistance was towards ciprofloxacin, cotrimoxazole and ceftazidime. Piperacillin showed significant differences between the three strains of Gram positive cocci, as Enterococci showed significant sensitivity to it, while Staphyloccocci showed significant resistance to it (**Table 7**).

Table (7): Comparison of susce	priority pu	Staph aurous		Streptococci		Enterococci		<i>p</i>
		N=101		N=46		N=7		
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
	S	10	9.9%	8	17.4%	0	0%	0.632
Ciprofloxacin	Ι	4	4%	2	4.3%	0	0%	
	R	87	86.1%	36	78.3%	7	100%	
Levofloxacin	S	31	30.7%	25	54.3%	4	57.1%	0.135
	Ι	24	23.8%	5	10.9%	0	0%	
	R	46	45.5%	16	34.8%	3	42.9%	
Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid	S	49	48.5%	26	56.5%	6	85.7%	0.378
	Ι	22	21.8%	8	17.4%	1	14.3%	
	R	30	29.7%	12	26.1%	0	0%	
Ampicillin-sulbactam	S	48	47.5%	28	60.9%	7	100%	0.101
	Ι	25	24.8%	8	17.4%	0	0%	
	R	28	27.7%	10	21.7%	0	0%	
Tetracyclin	S	20	19.8%	5	10.9%	1	14.3%	0.066
	I	2	2.0%	6	13%	0	0%	1
	R	79	78.2%	35	76.1%	6	85.7%	1
Gentamycin	S	10	9.9%	1	2.2%	2	28.6%	0.125
	Ι	11	10.9%	6	13%	1	14.3%	
	R	80	79.2%	39	84.8%	4	57.1%	
Piperacillin	S	24	23.8%	4	8.7%	5	71.4%	0.003
	I	2	2%	0	0%	0	0%	
	R	75	74.3%	42	91.3%	2	28.6%	
Piperacillin /tazobactam	S	29	28.7%	17	37%	4	57.1%	0.454
	Ι	15	14.9%	4	8.7%	0	0%	
	R	57	56.4%	25	54.3%	3	42.9%	
Cefoperazone/sulbactam	S	62	61.4%	24	52.2%	6	85.7%	0.434
	Ι	14	13.9%	5	10.9%	0	0%	
	R	25	24.8%	17	37%	1	14.3%	
Rifampicin	S	91	90.1%	35	76.1%	7	100%	0.139
	I	2	2%	4	8.7%	0	0%	
	R	8	7.9%	7	15.2%	0	0%	
Cefotaxime	S	30	29.7%	9	19.6%	2	28.6%	0.721
	Ι	8	7.9%	4	8.7%	0	0%	
	R	63	62.4%	33	71.7%	5	71.4%	
Amikacin	S	55	54.5%	19	41.3%	4	57.1%	0.495
	Ĩ	12	11.9%	5	10.9%	0	0%	1
	R	34	33.7%	22	47.8%	3	42.9%	1
Cotrimoxazole	S	7	6.9%	6	13%	0	0%	0.545
	Ī	2	2%	0	0%	0	0%	1
	R	92	91.1%	40	87%	7	100%	1
Ceftazidime	S	13	12.9%	7	15.2%	0	0%	0.697
	R	88	87.1%	39	84.8%	7	100%	
Cefoprazone	S	79	78.2%	34	73.9%	7	100%	0.774
	Ĩ	5	5.0%	3	6.5%	0	0%	
	R	17	16.8%	9	19.6%	0	0%	1
	S	18	17.8%	6	13%	3	42.9%	0.159
Ceftrixone	I	3	3%	6	13%	0	0%	
	R	80	79.2%	34	73.9%	4	57.1%	1

Table (7): Comparison of susceptibility patterns according to organism type in all studied Gram positive isolates.

Regarding E. coli, the highest sensitivity was attributed to amikacin and cefoperazone. While the highest frequency of resistance was directed to ceftazidime, cefotaxime, piperacillin and tetracyclin. Regarding Klebsiella, the highest sensitivity was attributed to amikacin and levofloxacin. While the highest frequency of resistance was directed to piperacillin and ceftazidime. Regarding Pseudomnas, the highest sensitivity was attributed to levofloxacin. While the highest frequency of resistance was directed to piperacillin and ceftazidime. Regarding levofloxacin, while the highest frequency of resistance was directed to piperacillin and ceftazidime. Regarding levofloxacin, the highest sensitivity was directed to to to to to to to the highest frequency of resistance was directed to E. coli. Regarding gentamycin, cefotaxime as well as ceftriaxone, the highest sensitivity was directed towards Klebsiella. While the highest frequency of resistance was directed to E. coli (Table 8).

		E coli		Kleb	Klebsiella spp		Pusdomous spp.	
		N=17		N=17		N=8		p
		Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	
	S	2	11.8%	6	35.3%	2	25.0%	0.228
Ciprofloxacin	Ι	0	0%	1	5.9%	1	12.5%	_
	R	15	88.2%	10	58.8%	5	62.5%	
Levofloxacin	S	6	35.3%	12	70.6%	8	100.0%	0.007
	Ι	3	17.6%	0	0%	0	0%	
	R	8	47.1%	5	29.4%	0	0%	
Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid	S	7	41.2%	3	17.6%	1	12.5%	0.153
	Ι	3	17.6%	0	0%	2	25.0%	
	R	7	41.2%	14	82.4%	5	62.5%	
Ampicillin-sulbactam	S	6	35.3%	5	29.4%	1	12.5%	0.596
	Ι	3	17.6%	1	5.9%	1	12.5%	
	R	8	47.1%	11	64.7%	6	75.0%	
Tetracyclin	S	1	5.9%	2	11.8%	3	37.5%	0.167
	R	16	94.1%	15	88.2%	5	62.5%	
Gentamycin	S	0	0%	7	41.2%	1	12.5%	0.012
	Ι	5	29.4%	5	29.4%	1	12.5%	
	R	12	70.6%	5	29.4%	6	75.0%	
D	S	1	5.9%	0	0%	0	0%	0.471
Piperacillin	R	16	94.1%	17	100%	8	100%	-
Piperacillin/tazobactam	S	8	47.1%	7	41.2%	1	12.5%	0.485
	Ι	2	11.8%	1	5.9%	1	12.5%	
	R	7	41.2%	9	52.9%	6	75.0%	
Cefoperazone/sulbactam	S	10	58.8%	4	23.5%	4	50.0%	0.208
	Ι	2	11.8%	4	23.5%	0	0%	_
	R	5	29.4%	9	52.9%	4	50.0%	
Rifampicin	S	0	0%	1	5.9%	1	12.5%	0.107
	Ι	6	35.3%	1	5.9%	1	12.5%	
	R	11	64.7%	15	88.2%	6	75.0%	
Cefotaxime	S	1	5.9%	5	29.4%	1	12.5%	0.030
	Ι	0	0%	0	0%	2	25.0%	
	R	16	94.1%	12	70.6%	5	62.5%	
Amikacin	S	14	82.4%	14	82.4%	6	75.0%	0.846
	Ι	0	0%	1	5.9%	1	12.5%	
	R	3	17.6%	2	11.8%	1	12.5%	
Cotrimoxazole	S	1	5.9%	2	11.8%	1	12.5%	0.759
	Ι	1	5.9%	0	0%	0	0.0%	
	R	15	88.2%	15	88.2%	7	87.5%	
Ceftazidime	S	0	0%	1	5.9%	0	0.0%	0.471
	R	17	100%	16	94.1%	8	100%	7
Cefoprazone	S	11	64.7%	9	52.9%	4	50.0%	0.743
	Ι	0	0%	1	5.9%	1	12.5%	_
	R	6	35.3%	7	41.2%	3	37.5%	
Ceftrixone	S	2	11.8%	9	52.9%	1	12.5%	0.026
	R	15	88.2%	8	47.1%	7	87.5%	

Table (8): Comparison of susceptibility patterns according to organism type in all studied Gram negative isolates.

# DISCUSSION

In the current study, the recruited cases were in the age range 21-45 years, and this is similar to **Elgozali and Omer** <sup>(18)</sup> who studied a group of patients with infertility and pyospermia and found that their age range was 22-45. The range of age showed a little difference from **Bhatt el al.** <sup>(15)</sup> **and Abdulla** <sup>(19)</sup> (31- 40 years) and (25- 50 years) respectively.

In our study regarding the type of infertility, 81 cases (39.5%) had the primary type, whereas the remaining 124 cases (60.5%) had the secondary type, these results did not go with **Merino** *et al.* <sup>(20)</sup> who noted that samples from 180 infertile patients with pyospermia; primary infertility was 112 (59%) and secondary infertility was 78 (41%) and **Elgozali and Omer** <sup>(18)</sup> who found that samples from 50 infertile men with pyospermia; 45 men (90%) were primary infertile, while only 5 men (10%) were secondary infertile patients with pyospermia had primary infertile patients with pyospermia had primary infertility while 43.8% had secondary type.

In our work, the mean of pus cells was 3.6 million/ml as similar as **Moubasher** *et al.* <sup>(22)</sup> who found that the mean of pus cells in 25 infertile men with documented pyospermia was 3.6 million/ml. It showed a little difference from **Oliva and Multigner** <sup>(23)</sup> who found that the mean of pus cells of 55 infertile men with documented pyospermia was 4 million/ml

In the current study, systemic comorbidities were present in 35 cases (17.1%). Diabetes mellitus was the commonest one (19 cases - 9.3%), followed by hypertension (11 cases - 5.4%), and heart disease (5 cases - 2.4%).

Patients suffering from diabetes mellitus are prone to a higher occurrence of certain infections compared with the general population. Indeed, diabetes is considered a risk factor for urinary and genital tract infections, particularly in the setting of uncontrolled hyperglycemia <sup>(24)</sup>.

Regarding microbiological profile of the included cases, bacterial growth was detected in 196 cases (95.6%), while no growth was detected in the remaining 9 cases (4.4%). **Al-Dahmoshi** *et al.* <sup>(25)</sup> also found that 61(87.1%) semen specimens of 70 infertile men with documented pyospermia revealed positive bacterial culture. In another study, out of 120 seminal fluid samples collected from infertile men with pyospermia, 74(61.66%) of samples revealed positive significant growth of bacteria on culture media, while 46(38.33%) with no growth <sup>(26)</sup>.

On comparing cases with and without bacterial growth (196 and 9 cases respectively) in our study, no significant difference was detected between the two groups in age, type and duration of infertility and sperm count. This is agreement with **Elgozali and Omer** <sup>(18)</sup> that also reported no difference between cases with and without bacterial growth.

Nevertheless, in our study the group with bacterial growth had significantly more pus cells and

the prevalence of urinary tract infections was higher in cases with bacterial growth. **Kim** *et al.* <sup>(27)</sup> reported that genital tract infections may arise from organism spread form the urinary tract. It should be noted that presence of urogenital tract infection may pose a danger to married couples and it should be eradicated by thorough antibiotics and anti-inflammatory therapy <sup>(28)</sup>.

In our study, when comparing gram positive and negative cases, gram negative bacilli were significantly associated with secondary infertility. Besides, urinary symptoms were more prevalent in gram negative cases. Also, **Uneke and Ugwuoru** <sup>(29)</sup> reported that all the subjects with genital infections also had urinary tract infection (UTI) and the commonest bacteria implicated were Proteus species and E. coli. As UTI is commonly caused by gramnegative organisms, it is expected to encounter more urinary symptoms in cases with genital infections.

In the current study, Staph. Aureus was the commonest gram-positive organism (49.3%), followed by streptococci (22.4%), and enterococci (3.4%). Furthermore, E. coli together with Klebsiella were the commonest gram-negative organism (8.3% for each), followed by Pseudomonas (3.9%). It is similar to Nasralla et al. (30) that found the commonest isolated organisms were Staph. Aureus (46.2%) and Elgozali and Omer <sup>(18)</sup> that found the commonest organism isolated was Staph. Aureus (61.7%) followed by Escherichia coli (35.3%), and Proteus mirabilis (2.9%). Also, the frequency rate of staphylococcal aureus infection was 62.5% in seminal fluid infection <sup>(30)</sup>. Moreover, Isaiah et al. <sup>(12)</sup> found that out of a total number of 140 specimen, 92 (65.7%) yielded bacterial growth with Staphylococcus aureus, S. saprophyticus and Escherichia coli having the highest incidence rate of 28.3%, 19.6% and 13.0%, respectively.

Conversely, another study reported much less prevalence of staph aureus infections. Significant growth of positive isolates was Enterococcus faecalis (30%), coagulase positive staphylococci (20%), Escherichia coli (13.3%). Pseudomonas aeruginosa (10%), and Klebsiella pneumoniae (10%)<sup>(19)</sup>. Another study reported that pathogens detected in the semen of infertile males were as follows; E coli (26.9%), proteus (25%), staph aureus (15%), streptococci (11.5%), klebsiella (11.5%), and pseudomonas (9.6%)<sup>(29)</sup>. Also Sasikumar et al. <sup>(32)</sup> noticed that the dominant isolated bacteria were E. coli (40%), S. aureus (28%), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (14%), and Proteus mirabilis (8%). Moreover, Bhatt el al. (15) noticed that the commonest isolates were E. coli (41.9%) followed by S. aureus (17.7%), Streptococcus faecalis (11.2%), Klebsiella pneumoniae (9.6%), Staphylococcus saprophyticus (8%). and Pseudomonas aeruginosa (4.8%).

All studied samples were subjected to antimicrobial sensitivity tests. The most sensitive

antibiotics were cefoperazone (73.5%), rifampicin (68.9%), amikacin (57.1%) and Cefoperazone/sulbactam (56.1%). While the most resistant antibiotics were cotrimoxazole (89.8%), ceftazidime (89.3%), piperacillin (81.6%) and ciprofloxacin (81.6%). Conversely Nasralla et al. (30) found that piperacillin/tazobactam, imipenem, meropenem, amikacin, gentamicin, doxycycline, and nitrofurantoin were the most sensitive antibiotics. While Elgozali and Omer (18) found that most of the tested strains were susceptible to azithromycin (97.1%), ciprofloxacin (94.1%), ofloxacin (94.1%), and sparfloxacin (94.1%).Also, Another study reported that most of the tested strains were ciprofloxacin, susceptible to cefloxacin, cephaloridine, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, and erythromycin<sup>(19)</sup>.

The difference in antibiotic sensitivity results could be explained by different microbiological profiles and the tested antibiotics between different studies. This may explain why our susceptibility results were not similar to previous studies in the literature.

In this study, the most sensitive antibiotics for gram positive organisms were rifampicin and cefoperazone, while the most resistant antibiotics were cotrimoxazole and ceftazidime. Gram negative pathogens were sensitive to amikacin and levofloxacin whereas they were resistant to piperacillin and cotrimoxazole. Conversely, Nasralla et al. (30) found that both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria were highly sensitive to piperacillin/tazobactam, imipenem, meropenem, gentamicin, doxycycline, amikacin, and nitrofurantoin. The gram-positive bacteria are highly sensitive to linezolid, vancomycin, azithromvcin. clindamycin. teichoplanin. erythromycin, and azithromycin, and Bhatt el al.<sup>(15)</sup> reported that both gram-positive and gram-negative organisms were sensitive to nitrofurantoin (91.5% and 71.7%, respectively) followed by ampicillinsulbactam (73.9% and 58.9%, respectively), levofloxacin (56.5% and 71.7%, respectively), and gentamicin (56.5% and 53.8%, respectively).

As regard gram-positive organisms in our study, staph. Aureus was more sensitive to rifampicin, followed by cefoperazone, while it was resistant to cotrimoxazole and ceftazidime. Streptocooci were sensitive to rifampicin and cefoperazone, whereas it was resistant to piperacillin, cotrimoxazole. Moreover, enterococci expressed sensitivity towards rifampicin, ampicillin-sulbactam, and cefoperazone, while the highest frequency of resistance was towards ciprofloxacin, cotrimoxazole, ceftazidime, but Isaiah et al. (12) found that Staphylococus aureus and Staphylococcus saprophyticus was sesnstive to Imipenem and vancomycin, while Uneke and Ugwuoru <sup>(29)</sup> reported that staph aureus was more sensitive to nitrofurantoin and perfloxacin, while it resistant to ampicillin, penicillin, was and

chloramphenicol. Moreover, streptococci was sensitive to cotrimoxazole and tetracycline, whereas it was resistant to ampicillin and penicillin. In another staph aureus was more sensitive study, to azithromycin, ofloxacin, and sparfloxacin, while it was resistant to cephalexin and cotrimoxazole (14). While Abdulla <sup>(19)</sup> reported that staph aureus was sensitive to ciprofloxacin and cephaloridine, while it was resistant to penicillin. Furthermore, enterococci was more sensitive to ciprofloxacin and cephaloridine compared to staph, whereas it was resistant to both penicillin and erythromycin.

Regarding gram-negative organisms in the current study, E coli expressed high sensitivity for amikacin and cefoperazone, whereas it was resistant to ceftazidime, cefotaxime, piperacillin, tetracyclines. Klebsiella was sensitive to amikacin while it was resistant to piperacillin, ceftazidime. Besides, Pseudomonas was sensitive to levofloxacin, while being resistant to piperacillin, ceftazidime, but in another study, E coli was sensitive to azithromycin, while it was resistant to cotrimoxazole. Moreover, Proteus mirabilis expressed almost resistance to azithromycin, ofloxacin, sparfloxacin, cephalexin and cotrimoxazole <sup>(14)</sup>. Also Uneke and Ugwuoru <sup>(29)</sup> reported that E.coli was more sensitive to erythromycin, while it was resistant to perfloxacin. Besides, klebsiella was sensitive to nitrofurantoin, whereas it was resistant to cotrimoxazole and Pseudomonas penicillin. was sensitive to erythromycin, chloramphenicol, tetracycline, and penicillin, while it showed resistance to nitrofurantoin and perfloxacin. While Abdulla (19) reported that all gram-negative pathogens including E coli. Pseudomonas, and Klebsiella were sensitive to ciprofloxacin, while they were resistant to both erythromycin and penicillin.

Generally, there is a large variation in the antimicrobial sensitivity and resistance in the literature. Hence, it is recommended to perform culture and sensitivity for all cases presented with pyospermia, rather than following sensitivity parameters reported in the existing literature.

# CONCLUSIONS

It could be concluded that semen analysis with peroxidase stain and semen culture are an important diagnostic tool in all patients undergoing fertility investigations to detect genitourinary infections and pyospermia.

95.6 % of semen samples revealed bacteriologic growth. Gram positive bacteria were more common than gram negative bacteria in semen culture.

The most common gram-positive bacteria of pyospermia in infertile men were Staph Aureus. The most common gram-negative bacteria of pyospermia in infertile men were E. Coli and Klebsiella.

The most sensitive antibiotics were cefoprazone, rifampicin, amikacin and Cefoperazone/sulbactam.

The most sensitive antibiotics for gram positive bacteria were rifampicin and cefoperazone.

The most sensitive antibiotics for gram negative bacteria were amikacin and levofloxacin.

#### RECOMMENDATION

Large sample size is recommended to detect the most common organisms causing pyospermia in a wider range. Additional studies with another multiple cultures to detect more bacteria causing pyospermia.

Using PCR for detecting viral infections and atypical bacteria. Using more antibiotic discs in disc diffusion method to detect more sensitive antibiotics. Frequent use of broad spectrum antibiotics should be avoided and antibiotic susceptibility testing should be performed to prevent more resistance.

# **Financial support and sponsorship:** Nil. **Conflict of interest:** Nil.

#### REFERENCES

- 1. WHO (2010): WHO laboratory manual for the examination and processing of human semen. Fifth edition World Health Organization, Department of Reproductive Health and Research. Pp. 271. https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/44261
- 2. Agarwal A, Mulgund A, Hamada A *et al.* (2015): A unique view on male infertility around the globe. Reprod Biol Endocrinol., 13(1): 37.
- **3.** Sandoval J, Raburn D, Muasher S (2013): Leukocytospermia: overview of diagnosis, implications, and management of a controversial finding. Middle East Fertil Soc., 18(3):129-134.
- **4. Bachir B, Jarvi K (2014):** Infectious, inflammatory, and immunologic conditions resulting in male infertility. Urol Clin North Am., 41(1):67-81.
- 5. Domes T, Lo K, Grober E *et al.* (2012): The incidence and effect of bacteriospermia and elevated seminal leukocytes on semen parameters. Fertil Steril., 97(5):1050-5.
- 6. Kullisaar T, Türk S, Kilk K *et al.* (2013): Increased levels of hydrogen peroxide and nitric oxide in male partners of infertile couples. Int J Reprod Biomed., 1(6):850-8.
- 7. Gambera L, Serafini F, Morgante G *et al.* (2007): Sperm quality and pregnancy rate after COX-2 inhibitor therapy of infertile males with abacterial leukocytospermia. Hum Reprod., 22(4):1047-51.
- Barraud-Lange V, Pont J, Ziyyat A *et al.* (2011): Seminal leukocytes are Good Samaritans for spermatozoa. Fertil Steril., 96(6):1315-9.
- Aghazarian A, Stancik I, Huf W et al. (2015): Evaluation of Leukocyte Threshold Values in Semen to Detect Inflammation Involving Seminal Interleukin-6 and Interleukin-8. Urology, 86 (1):52-6.
- Low N, Chersich M, Schmidlin K *et al.* (2011): Intravaginal practices, bacterial vaginosis, and HIV infection in women. PLoS Med., 8(2): 1-5.
- 11. Solomon M, Henkel R (2017): Semen culture and the assessment of genitourinary tract infections. Indian J Urol., 33(3):188-193.
- **12.** Isaiah I, Nche B, Nwagu I *et al.* (2011): Current studies on bacterospermia the leading cause of male infertility: a protégé and potential threat towards mans extinction. N Am J Med Sci., 3(12):562-4.

- **13. Hargreave T (1993):** Varicocele a clinical enigma. Br J Urol., 72(4):401-8.
- **14.** WHO (1999): Manual for the Examination of Human Semen and Sperm-Cervical mucus interaction. https://www.aab.org/images/WHO%204th%20manual.pdf
- **15. Bhatt C, Mishra S, Bhatt A** *et al.* (2015): Bacterial pathogens in semen culture and their antibiotic susceptibility pattern in vitro. Biomed Research International, 6(11):909-14.
- **16.** Krzyściak W, Kościelniak D, Papież M *et al.* (2017): Methods of Biotyping of Streptococcus mutans Species with the Routine Test as a Prognostic Value in Early Childhood Caries. ECAM., (4):1-15.
- NCCLS (1999): Performance standard for antimicrobial disk and dilution susceptibility tests for bacteria isolated from animals. Approved standard M31-A. NCCLS, Wayne, Pa. Pp. 107. https://demo.nextlab.ir/getattachment/45f0bc90-98b5-4705-a4ad-83c4723c6310/M23-A2.pdf
- **18. Elgozali S, Omer A (2016):** Pyospermia among Infertile Males in Khartoum, Sudan. Afr J Med Med Sci., 1(9)22-26.
- **19.** Abdulla R (2016): Bacterial Pathogens associated with pyospermia among sudanese infertile males. Afr J Med Med Sci., 1(6):32-36.
- **20.** Merino G, Carranza-lira S, Murrieta S *et al.* (1995): Bacterial Infection and Semen Characteristics in Infertile Men. Archives of Andrology, 35(1):43-47.
- **21. Abbas D, Aljanabi A, Waleed N (2019):** Bacterial Infection in Male Infertility in Al-Anbar Province West Of Iraq. Egypt Acad J Biolog Sci (G. Microbiolog), 11 (1):35-40.
- 22. Moubasher A, Sayed H, Mosaad E *et al.* (2018): Impact of leukocytospermia on sperm dynamic motility parameters, DNA and chromosomal integrity. Cent European J Urol., 71(4): 470–475.
- **23.** Oliva A, Multigner L (2006): Ketotifen improves sperm motility and sperm morphology in male patients with leukocytospermia and unexplained infertility. Fertil Steril., 85(1):240-3.
- 24. Soh P, Vidal F, Huyghe E *et al.* (2015): Urinary and genital infections in patients with diabetes: How to diagnose and how to treat. Diabetes Metab., 42 (1): 16-24.
- **25. Al-Dahmoshi H, Naher H, Al-Charrakh A (2013):** Study of Some Bacterial Isolates Associated with Leukocytospermia in Asthenospermic Patients in Hilla City, Iraq. Int Res J Medical Sci., 1(1):1-6
- **26.** Alabbasy A, Hussein J, Al-Rammahi S *et al.* (2019): Isolation, Identification and Antibiotic Susceptibility Testing of Bacterial Pathogens causing Seminal Fluid infection in Human Males Admitted to the infertility centers in Najaf Province. Indian J Public Health Res Dev., 10(9):186-191.
- 27. Kim G, Gerich J, Salsali A *et al.* (2014): Urinary tract infections and genital infections in patients with Type 2 diabetes treated with empagliflozin: pooled data from four randomised, placebo-controlled phase III trials. Diabetic Medicine, 31(1):125-29.
- **28.** Rodin D, Larone D, Goldstein M (2003): Relationship between semen cultures, leukospermia, and semen analysis in men undergoing fertility evaluation. Fertil steril., 79(3):1555-1558.
- **29.** Uneke C, Ugwuoru C (2010): Antibiotic susceptibility of urogenital microbial profile of infertile men in South-eastern Nigeria. Andrologia, 42 (4): 268-73.
- **30.** Nasralla Y, Anani M, Omar H *et al.* (2018): Microbiological profiles of semen culture in male infertility. Hum Androl J., 8(2): 34-42.
- **31.** Amadi E, Nwofor G, Ogbu O *et al.* (2007): Resistance of Staphylococcus aureus to commonly used antibiotic obtained from Different sources in Abakaliki. Afr J Sc., 8(1):1728-39.
- **32.** Sasikumar S, Dakshayania D, Franklinb A *et al.* (2014): Study of microbial infection in Asthenozoospermia patients. Int J Curr Sci., 10(1): 37-48.