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## A European Perspective On Testicular Tissue Cryopreservation For Fertility Preservation In Prepubertal And Adolescent Boys

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1 **Title**

2 **A European Perspective On Testicular Tissue Cryopreservation For Fertility Preservation In**  
3 **Prepubertal And Adolescent Boys**

4

5 **Running Title**

6 Testicular Tissue Cryobanking In Boys And Adolescents

7

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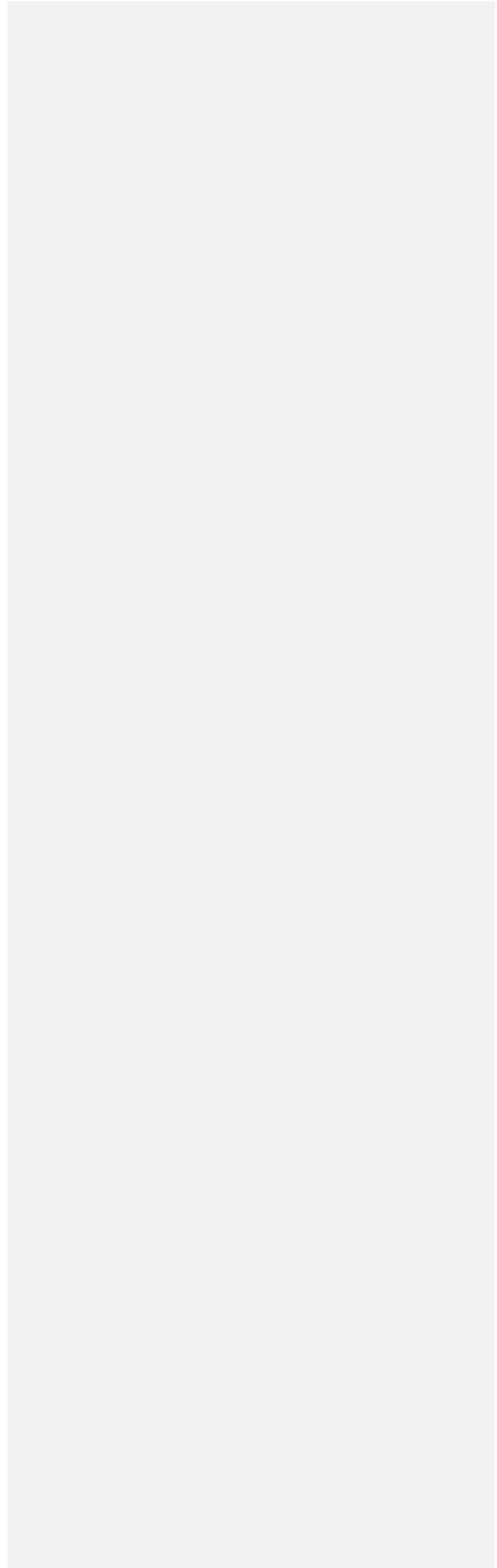
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62

63

64 **Abstract**

65 This Task Force paper explores the evidence base for fertility preservation in prepubertal boys and  
66 adolescents. It provides an overview of the current best clinical practices, patient management  
67 strategies and experimental methods used to preserve and restore the fertility for young male  
68 patients. Collection and cryopreservation of semen is acknowledged as the proven first line  
69 treatment for fertility preservation in adolescent males. However, semen retrieval is not possible in  
70 prepubertal boys and may not always be feasible in adolescents. For these young patients  
71 practitioners are already looking towards the experimental treatments of testicular tissue  
72 cryopreservation and the harvesting and banking of isolated spermatogonial stem cells as viable  
73 means of preserving fertility. Results of a recent survey of testis freezing practices in young patients  
74 from 24 European and Israeli university hospitals prior to December 2012 indicate that more than  
75 260 young patients (age range less than 1 year old to 16 years of age), had already undergone  
76 testicular tissue retrieval and storage for fertility preservation. In the greater majority of these cases  
77 tissue was cryobanked for boys prior to onset of oncological treatments. In light of this evidence,  
78 the ethical and legal challenges and outstanding clinical and research questions are discussed and an  
79 algorithm for the cryopreservation of sperm and testicular tissue in pre-pubertal and adolescent  
80 patients at high risk of infertility is proposed.

81

82 **Key words:** Adolescents, boys, fertility preservation, testis, spermatogonial stem cell

83

## 1-Introduction

Cancer is a major cause of non-accidental mortality in children and adolescents. However, as a result of the remarkable improvements in treatments, childhood and adolescent cancer mortality rates are now declining with significant declines being recorded for multiple cancer types (Smith *et al.*, 2014). Results from European and American data suggest that long-term survival can be expected in approximately 80% of the children and adolescent diagnosed with cancer (Desandes, 2007; Hudson 2010). Indeed, recent estimates suggest that approximately 1 in 530 young adults between the ages of 20 and 39 is a childhood cancer survivor (Ward *et al.*, 2014). Unfortunately, just like the rapidly dividing malignant cells that are their primary targets, proliferating spermatogonial stem cells (SSCs) in the testis are damaged by exposure to chemotherapy agents and radiation treatments. Thus the treatments used to cure the cancer may render the patients temporarily or permanently infertile. Furthermore, gonadotoxic treatments are increasingly used to cure a range of non-malignant conditions in children. Finally, underlying genetic causes such as Klinefelter's syndrome may lead to premature germ line stem cell loss in boys (*Gies et al., 2012; Van Saen et al., 2012; Rives et al., 2013*).

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~~As the loss of fertility in adult life following childhood illness is becoming increasingly unacceptable different~~ Different strategies ~~are being~~ have been developed to safeguard the fertility of these young patients. Cryopreservation of spermatozoa is routinely used to preserve fertility in men (~~for example,~~ Sharma 2011), and there is an increasing evidence base documenting the efficacy of sperm cryopreservation as the first line fertility preservation treatment in adolescents (Daudin *et al.*, 2015). However, for some adolescents it may not be possible to recover sperm prior to the onset of ablative therapies and semen production is clearly not an option for prepubertal boys. Testicular tissue and SSC cryopreservation are therefore now being considered as experimental strategies for fertility preservation in those young individuals who are facing the prospects of loss of their SSCs as a result of exposure to gonadotoxic therapies or for genetic conditions. This summary paper will

~~provide a comprehensive review of the best clinical practices and the evidence base for current practices used for~~ fertility preservation in prepubertal boys and adolescents. It will provide insights into the state of the art of SSC and testicular tissue cryopreservation as means to preserve the future fertility in young patients-. The reader is referred to accompanying long version of this paper for detailed overview of the cytotoxic impact of chemotherapy and radiations treatments on the testis and subsequent disruption of future fertility in boys and adolescents that underpins the need for fertility preservation in these young patients.

## **2. The Gonadotoxicity Of Chemotherapy And Radiation Treatments**

~~Chemotherapy agents and radiation treatments have been shown to adversely affect the male germinal epithelium. The amount of damage depends on the regimen and the cumulative dosage of treatments used (Van der Meer *et al.*, 1993; Wyns *et al.*, 2010). Testicular cells and especially dividing germ cells (spermatogonia) are highly sensitive to cytotoxic treatments. Low doses of these treatments deplete the pool of differentiating spermatogonia, while proliferating SSCs may initially survive and spermatocytes and spermatids continue their maturation into sperm (van Alphen *et al.*, 1988). Testicular involution after such gonadotoxic damage is a slow process that takes several weeks in sexually mature men until temporary or permanent azoospermia ensues.~~

~~The recovery of sperm production after a cytotoxic insult in adulthood or at puberty depends on the ability of quiescent SSCs to survive and resume mitotic activity to produce differentiating spermatogonia (van Alphen *et al.*, 1988). If the damage is severe all SSCs may commit to apoptosis and the patient will become permanently sterile. Spermatogonia have been shown to be susceptible to such depletion at all stages of life (Whitehead *et al.*, 1982; Relander *et al.*; 2000; Jahnukainen *et al.*, 2011b). Indeed, the presence of a steady turnover of spermatogonia that undergo spontaneous degeneration before the haploid stage is reached (Muller and Skakkebaeck, 1983; Kelnar *et al.*, 2002; van Alphen *et al.*, 1988) may explain why the prepubertal state does not offer any protection~~

136 against the deleterious effect of chemotherapy and irradiation. Furthermore, patient age, previous  
137 testicular disorders and the individual susceptibility to cancer treatment toxicity may also influence  
138 the potential of the seminiferous epithelium to support spermatogenesis after treatment (Rives *et al.*,  
139 2012). In addition, the different cellular compartments in the testis respond to toxic insults in  
140 different ways.

#### 142 ***Chemotherapy-induced damage to the testis***

143 The impact of chemotherapy agents on the spermatogenic epithelium is dependent on the type,  
144 dosage of and combination of drugs used (Wallace *et al.*, 2005; Aubier *et al.*, 1989; Siimes and  
145 Rautonen, 1990; Wyns *et al.*, 2010, Figure 1); in some circumstances even one course of cytotoxic  
146 chemotherapy can lead to azoospermia. Acute leukaemia, the most common cancer type in children,  
147 involves treatment with antimetabolites and vinca alkaloids that inhibit DNA and RNA synthesis  
148 and mitosis. Long term follow up of childhood leukaemia survivors indicates that treatment with  
149 these cell cycle specific cytotoxic drugs, without a high dose of alkylating agents such as  
150 cyclophosphamide, does not totally deplete SSCs and that spermatogenesis may be reinitiated from  
151 the surviving SSCs (Jahnukainen *et al.*, 2011c; Nurmio *et al.*, 2009). The threshold dose of  
152 cyclophosphamide, in relation to infertility, has been shown to be between 7.5 and 10 g/m<sup>2</sup> (Aubier  
153 *et al.*, 1989; Meistrich *et al.*, 1992; Rivkees and Crawford 1988). Slow recovery of spermatogenesis  
154 may occur even after such high doses whereas permanent sterility may appear after 19–20 g/m<sup>2</sup> dose  
155 of cyclophosphamide (Gurgan *et al.*, 2008; Jahnukainen *et al.*, 2011c). Other alkylating agents and  
156 platinum-containing compounds such as carboplatin and cisplatin have also been reported to have a  
157 threshold dose above which there is an increased incidence of testicular failure (Figure 1, Meistrich  
158 *et al.*, 1992; Gurgan *et al.*, 2008; Bokemeyer *et al.*, 1994; Wyns *et al.*, 2010; Lampe *et al.*, 1997;  
159 Meistrich *et al.*, 1989). Both alkylating and platinum-containing agents cause direct DNA and  
160 RNA damage and so can affect even non-dividing, reserve stem cells. Germ cell toxicity is  
161 therefore a significant late effect of conditioning for hematopoietic stem cell transplantation such

162 ~~that germ cell depletion with raised serum FSH and decreased testicular growth in puberty is~~  
163 ~~observed among most male patients (van Casteren *et al.*, 2009; Anserini *et al.*, 2002). Long term~~  
164 ~~spermatogenetic recovery is more likely after chemotherapy than after total body irradiation based~~  
165 ~~conditioning regimens (Anserini *et al.*, 2002). Evidence for impairment of Sertoli cell function~~  
166 ~~following chemotherapy has also been reported (Bar Shira Maymon *et al.*, 2004).~~

167  
168 ~~Chemotherapy induced Leydig cell failure resulting in androgen insufficiency and requiring~~  
169 ~~testosterone replacement therapy is rare (Sklar 1999). The majority of males undergo a normal~~  
170 ~~puberty and most produce normal adult levels of testosterone. Compensated Leydig cell failure has~~  
171 ~~been reported in patients treated with a combination of mustine and procarbazine for Hodgkin~~  
172 ~~disease and also after treatment with high doses of cyclophosphamide (Meistrich *et al.*, 1992;~~  
173 ~~Heikens *et al.*, 1996; Bramswig *et al.*, 1990). In contrast, young boys and adolescent males who~~  
174 ~~receive 200 mg/kg (6.7 g/m<sup>2</sup>) cyclophosphamide or a combination of busulphan and~~  
175 ~~cyclophosphamide as conditioning therapy for bone marrow transplantation appear to retain normal~~  
176 ~~Leydig cell function (Sarafoglou *et al.*, 1997).~~

### 178 ***Irradiation induced damage to the testis***

179 ~~The germinal epithelium is very susceptible to radiation induced damage. The extent of these~~  
180 ~~effects depends on the field of treatment, total dose and fractionation (Brauner *et al.*, 1983; Sklar *et*~~  
181 ~~*al.*, 1990; Van der Meer *et al.*, 1993). Differentiating spermatogonia are radiosensitive to scattered~~  
182 ~~doses as low as 0.1 Gy leading to short term cessation of spermatogenesis (Rowley *et al.*, 1974).~~  
183 ~~Doses of 2-3 Gy also affect SSCs and cause long term azoospermia (van Alphen *et al.*, 1989);~~  
184 ~~whereas doses in excess of 6 Gy deplete the SSC pool and can lead to permanent infertility (Rowley~~  
185 ~~*et al.*, 1974; Centola *et al.*, 1994). Fractionation of radiotherapy increases the germ cell toxicity~~  
186 ~~because repeated hits to activated reserve stem cells (Centola *et al.*, 1994; Ash 1980) and total body~~  
187 ~~irradiation (TBI), used as conditioning for haematological stem cell transplantation, is associated~~

188 with significant germ cell failure (Sarafoglou *et al.*, 1997). Indeed, following TBI (10 or 13 Gy),  
189 azoospermia has been reported in 85% of men with oligozoospermia (Anserini *et al.*, 2002) and  
190 spermatogenesis did not recover until the 4th year after transplantation. Furthermore, azoospermia  
191 after hematopoietic stem cell transplantation may be overestimated if sperm samples are evaluated  
192 too early after transplantation (Anserini *et al.*, 2002).

193  
194 Leydig cells are susceptible to damage from external irradiation although the dose required is much  
195 higher than that needed to cause germ cell failure. Leydig cell damage is dose dependent and is  
196 inversely related to patient age at treatment, such that pubertal or younger males receiving 24Gy for  
197 testicular leukaemia are at a high risk of delayed sexual maturation associated with decreased  
198 testosterone levels and they require androgen replacement therapy (Brauner *et al.*, 1983; Sklar *et al.*  
199 1990). In contrast, the majority of males receiving 20Gy of fractionated testicular irradiation appear  
200 to retain their ability to produce normal amounts of testosterone (Sklar 1999; Sarafoglou 1997);  
201 elevated LH in these patients may indicate compensated Leydig cell failure as with some  
202 chemotherapy regimens.

#### 204 ***Sperm damage following chemotherapy or radiation treatment***

205 Apart from the cytotoxic effects detailed above, anti-neoplastic treatments have also been shown to  
206 have genotoxic effects (i.e. aneugenic, clastogenic and mutagenic) on male germ cells at different  
207 stages of maturation (Russo *et al.*, 2000; Adler *et al.*, 2012). Cancer treatments may induce a range  
208 of chromosome abnormalities in mature spermatozoa including: aneuploidy; structural  
209 rearrangements and alterations of chromosomes including sister chromatid exchanges; simple or  
210 double strand breaks; mutations; and micronucleus formation (Russo *et al.*, 2000; Arnon *et al.*,  
211 2001; Adler *et al.*, 2012). Sperm DNA damage may have a negative impact on male fertility and  
212 although in many cases these spermatozoa will not be able to fertilize oocytes when fertilization  
213 does occur, genetic damage may be transmitted to the next generation (Arnon *et al.*, 2001) as

214 ~~manifest by: (i) abnormal embryo development; (ii) undetected and detected spontaneous abortion;~~  
215 ~~(iii) malformations in offspring; or (iv) diseases later in life of the progeny.~~

216  
217 ~~While much of the evidence demonstrating the genotoxic effects of cancer treatments on~~  
218 ~~spermatozoa have been derived from animal studies (Adler *et al.*, 2012), reports on sperm DNA~~  
219 ~~damage in humans have also been obtained following exposure to multiple drugs or treatment~~  
220 ~~regimens used for common malignancies. For example, data have been derived both from young~~  
221 ~~adult males with testicular cancer, Hodgkin's lymphoma or non Hodgkin's lymphoma (Tempest *et*~~  
222 ~~*al.*, 2008; Burrello *et al.*, 2011; Smit *et al.*, 2010) and from survivors of childhood cancer (Thomson~~  
223 ~~*et al.*, 2002; Romerius *et al.*, 2010). These studies are frequently retrospective with different time~~  
224 ~~frames of follow up and the number of patients involved is often low. Furthermore, treatment~~  
225 ~~regimens are variable and depend on the type of malignancy and sperm DNA damage is often~~  
226 ~~evaluated using only one parameter of DNA alteration such as aneuploidy, defective chromatin~~  
227 ~~compaction, or sperm DNA fragmentation. Very few prospective studies have directly investigated~~  
228 ~~sperm DNA damage prior to, during and/or after treatment (Tempest *et al.*, 2008; Burrello *et al.*,~~  
229 ~~2011; Smit *et al.*, 2010) and in general the data lack consistency. For example, sperm DNA breaks~~  
230 ~~and low chromatin compaction were detected for up to 24 months post chemotherapy in survivors~~  
231 ~~of testicular cancer and Hodgkin's lymphoma (O'Flaherty *et al.*, 2012). In contrast, DNA damage~~  
232 ~~was significantly reduced in post treatment semen samples after 1.1 years in another study (Smit *et*~~  
233 ~~*al.*, 2010) whereas sperm DNA breaks were not increased in 23 childhood cancer survivors when~~  
234 ~~compared to the healthy population (Thomson *et al.*, 2002) but were impaired in young survivors~~  
235 ~~treated with radiotherapy or surgery only (Romerius *et al.*, 2010). In the case of testicular cancer~~  
236 ~~and Hodgkin's lymphoma in young adults, chemotherapy has been shown to significantly increase~~  
237 ~~aneuploidy rates in sperm 6 months after the initiation of treatment. Thereafter, chromosomal errors~~  
238 ~~generally declined to pre treatment levels around 12 (Burrello *et al.*, 2011) to 18 months after~~  
239 ~~treatment onset (Tempest *et al.*, 2008). Increased aneuploidy rates have been shown to persist in~~

240 ~~some chromosomes for up to 24 months after drug exposure but other studies have reported no~~  
241 ~~increased aneuploidy frequency after 24 months but these data are based on small patient numbers~~  
242 ~~(reviewed by Tempest *et al.*, 2008). Another confounding factor is the influence of the cancer itself~~  
243 ~~since it has been shown that both testicular cancer and Hodgkin's lymphoma can exert a detrimental~~  
244 ~~effect on chromosome segregation during the meiotic process prior to treatment and so can also lead~~  
245 ~~to an increased rate of sperm aneuploidy prior to treatment (Tempest *et al.*, 2008).~~

246  
247 ~~One explanation for the discrepancies between studies is the observation that differentiating~~  
248 ~~premeiotic and meiotic germ cells are more sensitive to the induction of mutations than SSCs. Thus~~  
249 ~~the risk of transmission of genetic errors to the next generation is temporary and lasts for only a few~~  
250 ~~months after treatment. In contrast, surviving SSCs containing mutations will continue to produce~~  
251 ~~sperm with these mutations and if not repaired these may be transmitted to the next generation for~~  
252 ~~the life time of the individual (reviewed in Meistrich 2009). Finally, epigenetic changes such as~~  
253 ~~abnormal sperm methylation patterns are known to be associated with infertility and trans-~~  
254 ~~generational effects (Kobayashi *et al.*, 2009). Examination of rodent sperm after exposure to a~~  
255 ~~combination chemotherapy regimen normally used for testicular cancer treatment, demonstrated~~  
256 ~~that the anti-neoplastic treatment altered spermatozoa DNA methylation (Chan, 2011). Largely due~~  
257 ~~to the lack of large prospective studies that simultaneously evaluate the impact of chemotherapy~~  
258 ~~and radiation treatment on the risk of genetic and epigenetic alterations of spermatozoa, the~~  
259 ~~consensus regarding fertility preservation is therefore that gamete storage should take place before~~  
260 ~~the beginning of medical anti-neoplastic treatment (Menon *et al.*, 2009; Rives *et al.*, 2012; Nahata~~  
261 ~~*et al.*, 2013).~~

### 264 **3. Risks To The Offspring Of Male Survivors Of Childhood Cancer**

265 ~~While the potential for reproductive loss or congenital abnormalities in the children born of cancer~~

266 survivors remains a concern, there are now sufficient populations of childhood cancer survivors who  
267 have reached their reproductive years to address this issue directly. Beyond the impact of sperm DNA  
268 damage on early embryo development, there are two main areas to address: risks associated with  
269 pregnancy i.e. stillbirth, and the possibility of increased risk of congenital abnormalities, genetic  
270 disease or neonatal death in the offspring of male childhood cancer survivors. The risk of stillbirth  
271 (defined in the US as occurring after 20 weeks of pregnancy) or neonatal death among the offspring  
272 of men who had survived childhood cancer have been reported in a retrospective cohort analysis  
273 within the Childhood Cancer Survivor Study (CCSS) (Signorello *et al.*, 2010). Among 1148 men  
274 who had survived childhood cancer, there were 2031 pregnancies. Irradiation of the testes (16 [1%] of  
275 1270 men; adjusted relative risk 0.8 [95% CI 0.4–1.6] and chemotherapy with alkylating drugs (10  
276 [1%] of 732 men; adjusted relative risk 1.2 [0.5–2.5]) were not found to be associated with an  
277 increased risk of stillbirth or neonatal death. The risks of stillbirth (from 28 weeks of gestation);  
278 neonatal disease and genetic disease have been reported in a population-based cohort of 472 male and  
279 female Danish survivors of cancer in childhood and adolescence, that included 1,037 pregnancies  
280 (Winther *et al.*, 2012). This study revealed that the risk of genetic disease was similar among the  
281 children of irradiated survivors compared with children born of non-irradiated survivors (RR 1.02,  
282 95% CI 0.59 to 1.44) and was unchanged amongst those who received alkylating agents both when  
283 compared with those who did not receive chemotherapy (RR 0.9, 95% CI 0.5 to 1.3) and those  
284 without any potential mutagenic treatment (RR 0.8, 95% CI 0.3 to 2.1).

285  
286 The risk of congenital abnormality or genetic disease in the children of male childhood cancer  
287 survivors is low. A Danish population-based cohort study of 1715 children born of 3,963 cancer  
288 survivor parents examined the association between gonadal radiation and risk of malformation in  
289 the offspring, including malformations diagnosed later in life (median follow-up time 8.2 years;  
290 Winther *et al.*, 2009). The prevalence of congenital malformations in the offspring of cancer  
291 survivors was not increased when compared to either sibling controls or the general population;

292 either overall or when male and female cancer survivors were separated. The prevalence proportion  
293 ratio was 1.1 (95% CI 0.8 to 1.5) compared with sibling controls, and the observed to expected ratio  
294 was 1.2 (95% CI 0.9 to 1.6) when compared with the general population (Winther *et al.*, 2009).  
295 There was also no detectable relationship with dose of gonadal radiotherapy. These reassuring  
296 findings support the recent data from the CCSS on 4,699 children of 1128 male and 1627 female  
297 childhood cancer survivors, which again provides strong evidence that neither chemotherapy nor  
298 gonadal radiotherapy increase the risk of congenital abnormality in offspring (Signorello *et al.*,  
299 2012). The prevalence of abnormality after testicular radiotherapy was 1.9%, vs. 1.7% following  
300 treatment with alkylating agents, and 2.1% in the offspring of men who did not receive  
301 radiotherapy. There was no relationship between testicular radiation dose and risk of congenital  
302 abnormality (OR 1.01; 95% CI, 0.36 to 2.83 for >5cGy). These data support previous analyses from  
303 the CCSS (Green *et al.*, 2009). In contrast, a recent Swedish/Danish birth register study of 8670  
304 children whose fathers had cancer, compared with over 1.7 million children who did not, suggests a  
305 small increased risk of birth abnormalities, from 3.2% to 3.7% (RR 1.17, 95% CI 1.05 to 1.31)  
306 (Stahl *et al.*, 2011). The increased risk applied to both natural and assisted conceptions and was  
307 higher if the child was born within 2 years of the father's cancer diagnosis. The use of birth  
308 registers does not permit the analysis of the effects of specific cancer treatments. While these data  
309 demonstrate that the direct risks to the offspring of male childhood cancer survivors, both in terms  
310 of congenital abnormality and genetic disease, do not seem to be increased by either chemotherapy  
311 or radiotherapy, these studies only evaluated the risks to the offspring of long term cancer  
312 survivors, they do not contradict the evidence presented for an increased risk in the short term i.e.  
313 during and for the first 2 years after therapy. This important issue requires further investigation.

#### 316 **4-Current Practices Of Fertility Preservation In Prepubertal Boys And Adolescents**

317 The current interventions used to preserve fertility in males range from the use of validated clinical  
318 procedures such as semen collection and sperm cryopreservation to the adoption of experimental  
319 methodologies such as slow freezing or vitrification of immature testicular tissue or the use of  
320 research-based drug therapies that reduce or shield the testis from the gonadotoxic impact of  
321 chemotherapy or radiation treatments (Wyns *et al.*, 2010). Hormonal approaches to conserve  
322 fertility have not proven to be useful in males (for review see Shetty and Meistrich, 2005) and anti-  
323 apoptotic agents such as spingosine-1-phosphate have been shown to be of limited value  
324 (Suomalainen *et al.*, 2003). Co-administration of the immunomodulating compound AS101 during  
325 cyclophosphamide treatment appears to provide protection against cytotoxic damage without  
326 attenuating the anticancer effect in animal studies. AS101 may act via Akt/GSK-3beta  
327 phosphorylation (Carmely *et al.*, 2009). Whether AS101 has a similar protective effect in primate  
328 testes has yet to be evaluated.

329

### 330 ***Sperm cryopreservation and storage for adolescent patients***

331 The fertility preservation strategy that has been used for many decades to safeguard the future  
332 fertility of adults (Crabbé *et al.*, 1999; ~~for review see~~ Sharma 2011) and adolescents (Daudin *et al.*,  
333 2015) is the cryopreservation and long-term storage of ejaculated or testicular spermatozoa. With  
334 regard to adolescent patients recommendations advocate that patients are informed of their need for  
335 fertility preservation and the options available to them as early as possible during the planning of  
336 their treatment (Lee *et al.*, 2006). Indeed the presence of a cryostorage depot facility for  
337 spermatozoa has been shown to contribute positively to the patient's psychological health and  
338 confidence in post-survival fatherhood in both adults and adolescents (Saito *et al.*, 2005; Edge *et*  
339 *al.*, 2006). Despite the fact that cryopreservation of spermatozoa is recognized as the only effective  
340 fertility preservation technique for males facing gonadotoxic treatments, a study performed in the  
341 US revealed that only about 50% of physicians offered cryopreservation to a quarter of their  
342 patients prior to the start of potentially gonadotoxic therapies (Schover *et al.*, 2002). A recent

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343 study of 23 French regional sperm banks recorded considerable inter-centre variation in practices  
344 involving young patients seeking to preserve their fertility before cancer therapy (Daudin *et al.*,  
345 2015). Indeed, it is mostly young adults who undertake sperm storage and the mean age varies  
346 depending on the underlying disease. Stable partnerships are rare in the younger males (up to 24%)  
347 (Kliesch *et al.*, 2010, Behringer *et al.*, 2012) and are not relevant when considering fertility  
348 preservation in prepubertal boys and adolescents. The most common malignant diseases for semen  
349 storage are testicular tumours, Hodgkin or Non-Hodgkin lymphoma, leukaemia or bone tumours  
350 with some additional non-malignant conditions with indications for gonadotoxic treatments  
351 (Kliesch *et al.*, 2010; Daudin *et al.*, 2015). Semen characteristics vary with both patient age and  
352 type of cancer (Daudin *et al.*, 2015). However in testicular cancer patients, semen parameters may  
353 be significantly reduced at time of diagnosis compared to other malignancies with oligozoospermia  
354 occurring in up to 60% of cases. Approximately 60% of males with lymphoma or leukaemia are  
355 normozoospermic, but 14% of testis cancer patients are azoospermic (with an additional 5% with  
356 anejaculation) compared to only 3% azoospermia in lymphoma (Kliesch *et al.*, 2010; van der Kaaij  
357 *et al.*, 2009).

358

359 Semen can be cryopreserved for adolescent boys in more than 80% of cases (Bahadur *et al.*, 1999;  
360 Kliesch *et al.*, 1996; van Casteren *et al.*, 2008a; Menon *et al.*, 2009; Daudin *et al.*, 2015). The rate  
361 of azoospermia varies between 2.6 to 18% of patients (Menon *et al.*, 2009; van Casteren *et al.*,  
362 2008a). However, up to 15% of adolescent or adult patients may either fail to produce a semen  
363 sample or have insufficient spermatozoa present in the collected semen (see Table 1). In  
364 adolescents, measurements of testicular volume have been shown to be helpful in predicting the  
365 chance for successful retrieval of spermatozoa and semen production (Kliesch *et al.*, 1996;  
366 Kamischke *et al.*, 2004). As soon as spermatogenesis has been induced, semen parameters can be  
367 comparable to those of adult patients irrespective of the underlying disease (Kliesch *et al.*, 1996;  
368 Kamischke *et al.*, 2004) (Table 1).

369

370 The rules and recommendations for fertility preservation in males differ between countries. There  
371 are no strict limitations concerning semen quality or sperm numbers for fertility preservation  
372 strategies and there are no international guidelines for the duration of storage of spermatozoa,  
373 whether ejaculated or testicular. While standard semen evaluation and documentation according to  
374 World Health Organisation (WHO, 2010) criteria prior to sperm cryopreservation is valuable for  
375 fertility preservation patients, if vital sperm can be recovered even in small numbers then sperm  
376 storage is possible, as ARTs post-thaw will facilitate the selection and use of viable sperm for  
377 insemination (Nordhoff *et al.*, ~~2012~~2013). However, it must be noted that if there are fewer than 0.1  
378  $\times 10^6$  sperm/ml present in the semen sample on freezing, then the success of semen cryopreservation  
379 is likely to be significantly reduced. Most cancer patients have reduced semen parameters at the  
380 time of cryopreservation that will cause a decline in sperm quality after thawing. Never-the-less  
381 successful inseminations with samples stored for cancer patients have been documented and range  
382 from 5 to 16% of patients (van Casteren *et al.*, 2008b) provided that semen quality is high post-  
383 thaw. When IVF or ICSI are applicable using cryopreserved spermatozoa success rates are  
384 comparable to standard IVF and ICSI procedures in infertile couples. Indeed, depending on the  
385 Centre, pregnancy rates of 23-57% have been recorded for fertility preservation patients, (Agarwal  
386 *et al.*, 2004; Freour *et al.*, 2012; Hourwitz *et al.*, 2008; Schmidt *et al.*, 2004; van Casteren *et al.*,  
387 2008b). To date no adverse effect of the combination of cryopreservation of semen and subsequent  
388 ART has been reported concerning the health of the offspring.

389

390 For patients with non-obstructive azoospermia, severe oligozoospermia, necrozoospermia or  
391 ejaculation disorders, testicular sperm extraction (TESE) and storage are often the only acceptable  
392 means of tissue retrieval for fertility preservation. The same techniques can be applied in  
393 oncological (adolescent or adult) patients with azoospermia with good results prior to cancer  
394 treatment. Post-therapeutically, TESE has also been used successfully to obtain sperm in up to 50%

395 of cases of persistent azoospermia with previous failure of cryopreservation or when  
396 cryopreservation had not been considered (Hsiao *et al.*, 2011) (Table 2). The TESE procedure  
397 requires surgical intervention, either with local or general anaesthesia with higher recovery rates  
398 obtained following microsurgical techniques (Donoso *et al.*, 2007; Ramasamy *et al.*, 2009; Colpi *et*  
399 *al.*, 2009). If microsurgery is not available, multifocal testicular biopsies from different sites of the  
400 testis can be used to increase the chance to detect focal spermatogenesis (Tournaye *et al.*, 2006;  
401 Dieckmann *et al.*, 2007). However, this procedure may have a negative impact on the  
402 vascularisation of the testis following the surgery. In patients with ejaculation disorders either  
403 medical or interventional treatments have been described (Sonksen and Ohl, 2002) but how widely  
404 they are used is unclear.

405

#### 406 ***Testicular tissue preservation for young patients***

407 There is increasing evidence of the use of testicular tissue cryopreservation as a means to preserve  
408 the fertility of prepubertal and peripubertal boys of up to 16 year-old (Wyns *et al.*, 2011). This  
409 statement is supported by the findings of a recent questionnaire from the ESHRE Task Force on  
410 Fertility Preservation that was distributed to 24 European and Israeli University hospitals prior to  
411 December 2012. Of the 14 respondents, half (n=7) were actively offering testis tissue cryobanking  
412 for fertility preservation in boys and adolescents, the remainder were considering the  
413 implementation of a tissue-based fertility preservation program for boys undergoing oncological  
414 treatments (Table 3). At the time of the survey, more than 260 young patients had already  
415 undergone testicular tissue retrieval for fertility preservation although the number of cases reported  
416 between Centres was highly variable (range 8-98) (Table 3). The age range of patients who had  
417 banked tissue was comparable between Centres and ranged from less than 1 year to 16 years of age.  
418 With very few exceptions, the greater majority of preserved tissue samples were still in cryostorage  
419 at the time of survey. While the majority (n=6) of Centres had cryobanked testicular tissue from  
420 boys prior to oncological treatments for the indications detailed in Table 4, the remaining 4 Centres

421 had also preserved testicular tissue from patients with non-malignant indications that carried a high  
422 risk for fertility loss. One Centre had exclusively collected testicular tissue from Klinefelter  
423 patients. All Centres preserving testicular tissue in this survey had used slow (equilibrium) freezing  
424 protocols to preserve tissue integrity during long-term storage at liquid nitrogen temperatures. The  
425 majority of Centres preserving tissue used Dimethyl Sulphoxide (DMSO) combined with sucrose  
426 as the preferred cryoprotective agents. Only 1 Centre had used an ethylene glycol-based protocol.

427

428

#### 429 **5.-Management Of Fertility Preservation In Prepubertal Boys And Adolescents**

430 Fertility preservation management ~~is a multidisciplinary task employing~~requires a specialist team of  
431 highly trained physicians and nurses involved in both oncology and reproductive medicine. ~~Indeed,~~  
432 ~~identifying and educating key staff capable of initiating discussions on fertility preservation is vital~~  
433 ~~to the success of fertility preservation strategies (Nagel and Neal, 2008).~~ ~~Information flow must be~~  
434 ~~accurate and timely and is vital to the uptake of fertility preservation services by young patients and~~  
435 ~~their parents. Pediatric oncologists, together with oncology nurses and reproductive medicine~~  
436 ~~specialists will have multiple interactions with patients and parents prior to the initiation of~~  
437 ~~treatment and are therefore in an ideal position to discuss the late effects of gonadotoxic treatment,~~  
438 ~~quality of life and survivor issues with patients and their families (Vadaparampil *et al.*, 2007). Close~~  
439 ~~collaboration between pediatric, oncologic and fertility specialists (gynecologists, andrologists and~~  
440 ~~reproductive biologists) is essential for the preparation of sperm or testicular tissue for~~  
441 ~~cryopreservation. Informative letters and/or presentations during medical meetings allow~~  
442 ~~oncologists to be aware of spermatogenesis physiology, onset of spermatogenesis and potential fertility~~  
443 ~~preservation approaches related to age and pubertal status. Clear instructions on who to contact in~~  
444 ~~the infertility department to discuss the matter on an individual patient basis, unrestricted access to~~  
445 ~~educational patient information and rapid and flexible access to medical consultation and surgical~~  
446 ~~biopsy for tissue recovery and storage should be provided to accommodate the short time scales~~

447 infertility specialist by pediatric hematologists and oncologists before gonadotoxic treatment is  
448 initiated (Redig *et al.*, 2011). ~~Therefore, oncologists face a challenging decision making process~~  
449 ~~that must take into account the possibility of delaying therapy and achieving optimal curative~~  
450 ~~success rates. Delaying therapy by a few days is only appropriate when there is a good prognosis,~~  
451 ~~combined with a high risk of permanent infertility and no evidence of decreased success rate of~~  
452 ~~treatment. Such decisions should be guided by an institutional policy and shaped by physicians,~~  
453 ~~mental health professionals and an ethical board. During this emergency consultation with a fertility~~  
454 ~~specialist, children (when applicable, usually from the age of 5 with adapted words) and adolescents~~  
455 ~~should receive adapted counseling and appropriate information on sexual maturation, including~~  
456 ~~pubertal events and testicular maturation and reproduction (with content linked to age, physical~~  
457 ~~examination and previous history).~~ It is essential that the clinical team has a detailed knowledge of  
458 the hormonal events and testicular physiology around puberty in order to provide patients /parents  
459 with accurate information. Parents need to be made aware of\_ and be receptive to\_ fertility  
460 preservation options while young patients must also be receptive to discussions about fertility  
461 preservation, suitable to their age, and be made aware of their health status\_ as appropriate. Access  
462 to institution guidelines, human resources and appropriate educational materials are also vital  
463 (Vadaparampil *et al.*, 2008). There is currently some debate as to whether testicular tissue should be  
464 frozen in conjunction with sperm freezing as discrepancies may also be found in the  
465 presence/absence of spermatozoa between intraoperative analyses and definitive  
466 anatomopathological observations (Wyns *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, the protocols used to preserve  
467 mature germ cells differ from those used to preserve spermatogonia. This raises the question of  
468 whether testicular tissue should be cryopreserved using both protocols during peri-pubertal life  
469 from the age of 12. Such a recommendation is based on concerns about the reproductive potential of  
470 immature, haploid germ cells retrieved at early pubertal stages. Indeed, although *in vitro* maturation  
471 of round spermatids from adult testicular tissue has already led to the birth of healthy offspring

472 (Tesarik *et al.*, 1999), the fertilization competence of immature haploid cells retrieved from peri-  
473 pubertal tissue still remains to be proven.

474

475 Where there is a risk of gonadal damage and fertility loss, patients should be referred to the  
476 infertility specialist by pediatric hematologists and oncologists before gonadotoxic treatment is  
477 initiated (Redig *et al.*, 2011). ~~Therefore, oncologists face a challenging decision-making process  
478 that must take into account the possibility of delaying therapy and achieving optimal curative  
479 success rates. Delaying therapy by a few days is only appropriate when there is a good prognosis,  
480 combined with a high risk of permanent infertility and no evidence of decreased success rate of  
481 treatment. Such decisions should be guided by an institutional policy and shaped by physicians,  
482 mental health professionals and an ethical board. During this emergency consultation with a fertility  
483 specialist, children (when applicable, usually from the age of 5 with adapted words) and adolescents  
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489 preservation options while young patients must also be receptive to discussions about fertility  
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491 to institution guidelines, human resources and appropriate educational materials are also vital  
492 (Vadaparampil *et al.*, 2008). There is currently some debate as to whether testicular tissue should be  
493 frozen in conjunction with sperm freezing as discrepancies may also be found in the  
494 presence/absence of spermatozoa between intraoperative analyses and definitive  
495 anatomopathological observations (Wyns *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, the protocols used to preserve  
496 mature germ cells differ from those used to preserve spermatogonia. This raises the question of  
497 whether testicular tissue should be cryopreserved using both protocols during peri-pubertal life

498 from the age of 12. Such a recommendation is based on concerns about the reproductive potential of  
499 immature, haploid germ cells retrieved at early pubertal stages. Indeed, although *in vitro* maturation  
500 of round spermatids from adult testicular tissue has already led to the birth of healthy offspring  
501 (Tesarik *et al.*, 1999), the fertilization competence of immature haploid cells retrieved from peri-  
502 pubertal tissue still remains to be proven.

503

504

### 505 ***Cryopreservation of spermatozoa for boys and adolescents***

506 The collection and cryopreservation of spermatozoa is the only validated, clinical technique  
507 available currently to safeguard the future fertility of peripubertal boys and adolescents (Figure 2).

508 ~~Therefore, sperm~~ Sperm banking should always be ~~used-offered~~ as the first line treatment in those  
509 young patients who can produce a semen sample since live births can be obtained after ICSI even  
510 when only a few spermatozoa are available (Palermo *et al.*, 1992). Although semen samples can be  
511 obtained from boys from the age of 12 onwards (Bahadur *et al.*, 2006) the onset of sperm  
512 production (spermarche) in boys can be very difficult to predict. Spermatogenesis is known to start  
513 at very early stages of pubertal development (Muller and Skakkebaeck, 1983; Hovatta, 2001) and  
514 may occur before the ability to produce an ejaculate (Nielsen *et al.*, 1986). Moreover, gonadal  
515 maturation in boys is not characterized by critical visible events as is the case in girls, and defining  
516 the age below which the experimental immature testicular tissue cryopreservation would be the best  
517 choice for fertility preservation is not easy because of the great variability in age at spermarche (Ji  
518 and Oshawa, 2000). At the onset of spermarche there also appears to be a wide variation in both  
519 testicular size and secondary sex characteristics (Nielsen *et al.*, 1986). Spermarche may occur when  
520 little or no pubic hair has developed and when the testicular volume has increased only slightly.  
521 Indeed, the presence of spermatozoa (based on spermaturia, as a marker for spermarche) was found  
522 in 5% of clinically prepubertal boys and in 50% of boys between Tanner stage II and III for pubic  
523 hair pattern. Serum hormone levels are not useful to predict sperm production since at the onset of

524 spermaturia, gonadotrophin and testosterone concentrations are low and only start to increase after  
525 Tanner stage II (Radicioni *et al.*, 2005; van Casteren *et al.*, 2008a). Correlations between  
526 spermaturia and clinical parameters have been established (Schaefer *et al.*, 1990), but do not allow  
527 clear cut-offs for allocating a boy to either sperm banking or spermatogonial preservation. The  
528 detection and preservation of sperm extracted from morning urine is not considered an appropriate  
529 therapy because of its time-consuming nature. In cases of failure to produce a semen sample by  
530 masturbation, assisted ejaculation techniques such as penile vibratory stimulation or electro-  
531 ejaculation under general anesthesia should be considered as a second-line treatment option. These  
532 methods may have advantages over experimental techniques such as immature testicular tissue  
533 sampling as the former will facilitate collection and storage of mature sperm. Since there is no  
534 reliable sensitive estimate for the presence of spermatozoa in the testes, intra-operative examination  
535 of testicular tissue (Wyns *et al.*, 2011) should be carried out to determine the presence of either  
536 spermatozoa or late spermatids in order to choose an appropriate freezing protocol.

537 ~~Once collected, liquefied ejaculates should be analysed according to the guidelines of the~~  
538 ~~World Health Organization (WHO, 2010) and standard parameters of sperm concentration total~~  
539 ~~number of spermatozoa, morphology and motility determined prior to cryopreservation. According~~  
540 ~~to WHO recommendations, if possible sufficient specimens should be stored to provide 10 or more~~  
541 ~~inseminations, in order to ensure a good chance of pregnancy. However, when sperm preservation~~  
542 ~~is conducted in an emergency situation in response to a young patient's disease it is not always~~  
543 ~~possible to adhere to WHO recommendations. For samples with severely reduced semen quality~~  
544 ~~and/or only a few motile spermatozoa and sperm suspensions from surgically retrieved~~  
545 ~~spermatozoa, it may be necessary to concentrate the sperm into a minimum volume by~~  
546 ~~centrifugation before the addition of cryoprotective agents and sample preservation according to~~  
547 ~~local practises. At the time of writing, the evidence base for vitrification of spermatozoa or~~  
548 ~~testicular tissue using specialist vitrification devices is limited but this approach may prove useful~~

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550 ~~in the future (Isachenko *et al.*, 2004; 2005; Poels *et al.*, 2013). The storage of individual sperm in~~  
551 ~~empty zona pellucida may be advocated in some situations (Cohen *et al.*, 1997).~~ In all cases, the  
552 best cryobiology practises used for the preservation and long-term storage of samples ~~are advocated~~  
553 ~~but the procedures used~~ will be informed by the physical principles and the specific properties and  
554 nature of the cells/tissues to be stored (Benson *et al.*, 2012).

555

556

### 557 *Cryopreservation of testicular tissue in prepubertal boys and adolescents*

558 In cases where no semen can be collected, the experimental techniques of cryopreservation of  
559 testicular tissue or suspensions of immature testicular cells including SSCs should be considered  
560 (Figure 2). To minimise trauma to the patient, the surgical recovery of testicular tissue should be  
561 combined with other interventions requiring anaesthesia, such as bone marrow sampling or  
562 implantation of venous ports. ~~Close interdisciplinary cooperation between paediatric oncologist and~~  
563 ~~urologists or paediatric surgeons is therefore required.~~ To date 4 freezing protocols for human  
564 immature testicular tissue have been described using cryoprotective agents that range from  
565 1.5M ethylene glycol and sucrose (Kvist *et al.*, 2006), 0.7M DMSO (Keros *et al.*, 2005; 2007) or  
566 0.7M DMSO and sucrose (Wyns *et al.*, 2007; 2008; Poels *et al.*, 2014). Expensive bio-freezers may  
567 not be essential for the cryopreservation of human testicular tissue (Baert *et al.*, 2013). Indeed,  
568 evaluation of human immature testicular tissue following xenotransplantation into nude mice  
569 suggests that vitrification may be as effective for tissue preservation as slow freezing methods  
570 ([Curaba \*et al.\*, 2011](#); Poels *et al.*, 2013). To maximise the quality and viability of human testicular  
571 tissue post thaw all aspects of the tissue collection and processing, the type and concentration of  
572 cryoprotectants used as well as the cooling and warming protocols must be fully optimised. Since  
573 the reproductive potential of cryopreserved immature testicular tissue has still to be proven in  
574 humans, the technique remains experimental and no one preservation protocol has been shown to be

575 superior over any other published method (Kvist *et al.*, 2006; Keros *et al.*, 2007; Wyns *et al.*, 2008;  
576 Baert *et al.*, 2013; Goossens *et al.*, 2013; Poels *et al.*, 2013).

577

### 578 **Biosecurity and long-term storage of tissues for fertility preservation**

579 The long-term storage of fertility preservation samples, whether in the form of semen sperm,  
580 epididymal sperm or testicular tissue samples, requires that the patient and/or his parents maintain a  
581 contract with the host institution to guarantee the continued storage of tissue and that the storage  
582 facility adheres to national guidelines and international recommendations for good tissue banking  
583 practices. Annual tissue banking charges may apply according to local practices. The associated  
584 costs may be covered by the patient or their family, or be borne by health insurance or the hospital  
585 or an institutional grant (Table 3). Provided optimal low temperatures are maintained throughout  
586 long-term freeze-banking there is no obvious deterioration of sperm quality with time. Indeed,  
587 children have been born from semen stored for over 28 years (Feldschuh *et al.*, 2005). ~~However,~~  
588 ~~maintenance of the physical and bio-security of fertility preservation samples is key if samples are~~  
589 ~~to be stored for many decades. Adherence to national guidelines and international~~  
590 ~~recommendations for good tissue banking practices is essential from the outset in terms of~~  
591 ~~witnessing, sample processing and labelling, infection screening, and the need for regular cryobank~~  
592 ~~audit and patient follow up. There is also a significant chance that fertility preservation samples will~~  
593 ~~need to be transported at some point in their history either for continuation of storage if patients~~  
594 ~~move or prior to their use for fertility restoration in later life.~~

595

596

### 597 **6. Fertility Restoration Using Cryopreserved Testicular Tissues And Stem Cells**

598 Development of the procedures used for the preservation of SSCs and testicular tissues from boys  
599 and adolescents is far more advanced than research into the methods needed to realise the fertile  
600 potential of these cells and these techniques have yet to be proven to be safe for clinical use. In

601 summary, fertility restoration strategies include the auto-transplantation of a suspension of SSCs by  
602 injection into the testis to restore spermatogenesis or auto-transplantation of frozen-thawed  
603 testicular grafts ~~back into the testis or an ectopic site. Where there is any risk of reintroduction of~~  
604 ~~malignant cells via the transplant then the only option is to~~ and the growth and maturation of the  
605 SSCs *in vitro*. ~~These issues are discussed in full below.~~

606

#### 607 ***Propagation and autotransplantation of spermatogonial stem cells***

608 Currently, SSC injection is considered the most promising tool for fertility restoration in pre-  
609 pubertal cancer patients. The technique was originally described in the mouse (Brinster and  
610 Zimmerman, 1994) and it has been successfully used to infuse SSC through the efferent duct into  
611 the rete testis of sterile recipients with the resultant reinstatement of spermatogenesis and the  
612 restoration of fertility ~~(Brinster and Averbock 1994)~~. However, because of differences in anatomy  
613 and consistency and the larger testis size, injection of SSC via the rete testis, has proved to be a  
614 better treatment site for species such as the bovine, primate, and human (Schlatt *et al.*, 1999; Ning  
615 *et al.*, 2012).

616

617 If SSCs are to be used to restore male fertility, then they first need to be isolated and propagated *in*  
618 *vitro* before they can be autotransplanted in the numbers required to efficiently recolonize the testis  
619 and reinstate spermatogenesis. For example, it has been demonstrated that only 5-10% of  
620 transplanted SSCs result in colony formation in the recipient testis and the extent of donor-derived  
621 spermatogenesis is directly related to the number of transplanted cells (Dobrinski *et al.*, 1999).  
622 Furthermore, murine studies have indicated that factors such as glial cell line derived neurotrophic  
623 factor (GDNF)—which facilitates self-renewal of the SSCs and supports SSC replication *in vitro*  
624 (Kanatsu-Shinohara *et al.*, 2003) are essential for SSC propagation. This evidence has been  
625 replicated in several species (Honaramooz *et al.*, 2002, ~~Izadyar *et al.*, 2003~~, Schlatt *et al.*, 1999,  
626 Nobrega *et al.*, 2010, Aponte *et al.*, 2008). Importantly, in the context of human fertility restoration

627 adult and prepubertal human SSCs have been successfully grown *in vitro*, without losing their stem  
628 cell capacity or ability to colonize the seminiferous tubules upon xenotransplantation (Sadri-  
629 Ardekani *et al.*, 2009, Sadri-Ardekani *et al.*, 2011). A number of other studies, mostly in mice, have  
630 evaluated the recovery of fertility after non-cultured SSC injection. Transplanted mice were able to  
631 produce live born offspring with normal birth weights, growth rates and fertility (Goossens *et al.*,  
632 2009). No numerical chromosomal aberrations were detected in spermatozoa from transplanted  
633 males, or in their offspring (Goossens *et al.*, 2010). Importantly, studies of methylation patterns and  
634 histone modifications in post-transplantation germ cells revealed that apart from two minor  
635 alterations, epigenetic marks following uncultured mouse SSC injection were not different  
636 compared to control spermatogenesis (Goossens *et al.*, 2009; Goossens *et al.*, 2011). Most recently  
637 Rhesus monkey SSCs have been injected under slow constant pressure into the rete testis under  
638 ultrasound-guidance, both autologously and allogeneically and into both adult and prepubertal  
639 rhesus monkeys sterilised by alkylating chemotherapy. Following the completion of  
640 spermatogenesis *in vivo*, sperm cells that were able to fertilize oocytes by ICSI were found in the  
641 ejaculate of recipients (Hermann *et al.*, 2012). While the demonstration of functional donor  
642 spermatogenesis following SSC transplantation in primates is an important milestone towards using  
643 SSC to restore human fertility it remains vitally important to prove that the epigenetic programming  
644 and stability of SSC are not compromised following cryopreservation, culture and transplantation in  
645 humans (Struijk *et al.*, 2013).

646

#### 647 ***Restoration of fertility by autotransplantation of testicular tissue***

648 Transplantation of fragments of testicular tissue provides an alternative strategy to the use of SSC  
649 suspensions. This approach maintains the SSCs within their non-exposed natural niche, thus  
650 preserving the interactions between the germ cells and their supporting somatic cells. Nutrients and  
651 hormones from the body will reach the graft and induce spermatogenesis and the resultant sperm  
652 can be extracted and used in ICSI procedures. Autologous transplantation of the testicular biopsy

653 back into the testis (Van Saen *et al.*, 2009), scrotum (Wyns *et al.*, 2007) or ectopically under the  
654 skin (Jahnukainen *et al.*, 2007) can however only be used to restore spermatogenesis if the presence  
655 of malignant cells can be excluded. In initial research using mouse models, testis grafts were placed  
656 at ectopic sites such as in the peritoneal space, on the ear or under the back skin (Boyle *et al.*, 1975;  
657 Schlatt *et al.*, 2002). However, these grafts become sclerotic or showed meiotic arrest. Autologous  
658 grafting to several locations in the irradiated primate body also showed that spermatogenesis could  
659 only be re-established when the graft was placed in the scrotum but the efficiency of fertility  
660 restoration remained poor (Jahnukainen *et al.*, 2012). Transplantation of the tissue under the tunica  
661 albuginea of the testis (intra-testicular grafting) might improve results as, in mice, this technique  
662 has proved to be highly efficient with the re-establishment of full spermatogenesis in all of the  
663 grafts (Van Saen *et al.*, ~~2008~~2009). At the time of writing, little is known about the functionality of  
664 the sperm generated in such grafts as only a few groups have addressed this important question  
665 using mouse and rabbit donor tissue. However, with sperm retrieved from ectopic and intra-  
666 testicular mouse allografts, insemination studies using ICSI have demonstrated that the spermatozoa  
667 so derived were able to support full-term development of the progeny (Schlatt *et al.*, 2003; Ohta and  
668 Wakayama, 2005). It was also possible to obtain offspring using rabbit sperm that had developed in  
669 intra-testicular transplanted xenografts (Shinohara *et al.*, 2002). Normal blastocyst development has  
670 been achieved *in vitro* following ICSI with sperm from ectopic porcine and monkey xenografts  
671 (Honaramooz *et al.*, 2004; 2008; Nakai *et al.*, 2010).

672

### 673 *In vitro spermatogenesis*

674 The major hurdle which must be overcome in patients with a prior haematological malignancy  
675 when restoring fertility by autotransplantation of propagated SSCs or testicular tissue is the risk of  
676 reintroducing residual malignant cells via the transplanted tissue. While it is possible to avoid the  
677 transfer of malignant cells by using testicular xenografts, the risk of zoonosis means that  
678 xenografting of human testicular tissue is unlikely to provide an acceptable clinical solution for

679 fertility restoration. Although, positive and negative cell sorting strategies have the potential to  
680 target and remove cells from cultured mouse SSC populations and after xenografting (Dovey *et al.*,  
681 2013; Hermann *et al.*, 2011). Sorting protocols using magnetic activated cell sorting (MACS),  
682 FACS or differential plating have been found to have variable efficiency when used to enrich  
683 human SSCs (Geens *et al.*, 2006; ~~Geens *et al.*, 2011~~; Nickkholgh *et al.*, 2014a). Thus, at the time of  
684 writing autotransplantation of cell suspensions or tissues still runs the risk of reintroducing cancer  
685 via the graft.

686

687 The risk of reintroduction of malignant cells via the autograft may be circumvented by *in vitro*  
688 spermatogenesis. *In vitro*-derived spermatozoa that are free from residual disease can then be used  
689 to inseminate oocytes using ICSI. Strategies which support the *in vitro* growth and differentiation of  
690 germ cells include the 3 dimensional (3D) culture of testicular cells (Stukenborg *et al.*, 2008) or  
691 organ culture (Sato *et al.*, 2011). The main difference between the two approaches lies in the fact  
692 that in organ culture the testicular biopsy remains intact and is layered upon an island of agar that is  
693 maintained in a liquid medium. In 3D culture, the germ cells are dissociated from their somatic cells  
694 prior to culture and they are then suspended in medium containing 35 and 50% agar, the so-called  
695 Soft-Agar-Culture-System. In both systems SSCs are co-cultured with somatic cells from the same  
696 biopsy so resembling the *in vivo* situation and supporting two-way communication between the  
697 different cellular compartments. In the mouse model, *in vitro* spermatogenesis has been successful  
698 up to the elongated spermatid stage of spermatogenesis but so far offspring have only been  
699 generated with sperm derived following organ culture (Sato *et al.*, 2011). Although encouraging  
700 results have recently been obtained regarding the genetic and epigenetic stability of human SSCs  
701 during long-term culture (Nickkholgh *et al.*, 2014b), the fertility of *in vitro* derived sperm have still  
702 to be established before the clinical value of this type of experimental approach can be fully  
703 assessed. When no germ cells are available in the initial testis biopsy, an alternative option may be  
704 the *in vitro* derivation of sperm cells from the patient's somatic cells, such as skin fibroblasts, by

705 induced pluripotency or transdifferentiation of these cells (Yang *et al.*, 2012). This approach is  
706 however still in its infancy.

707

708

### 709 ~~7.~~ **Follow-Up Of Patients At Risk Of Gonadal Dysfunction Following Treatment For** 710 **Childhood Cancer**

711 Predicting the likelihood of gonadal dysfunction in individual patients who are survivors of  
712 childhood disease may be difficult. Guidance on this topic has recently been published (Wallace *et*  
713 *al.*, 2013). Measurements of gonadotrophins and testosterone in pre-pubertal patients are unlikely to  
714 be helpful as the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis is not active priori to puberty (Mann and  
715 Fraser 1996). Therefore, the accurate clinical assessment of growth during childhood using  
716 appropriate growth charts is very important, particularly in the context of pubertal staging as  
717 puberty may be delayed (or occasionally advanced) following cancer treatment. Treatment for  
718 childhood cancer may result in central effects on the hypothalamus and/or pituitary that will affect  
719 gonadotrophin production, or primary testicular failure may result from direct damage to the testis  
720 (Mitchell *et al.*, 2009). Leydig cell damage may reduce testosterone production and hence delay or  
721 arrest puberty (>14y), whilst effects on Sertoli cells and germ cells of the seminiferous epithelium  
722 may impair spermatogenesis and decreased adult testicular size. Normal pubertal development with  
723 full hair- and penis- growth indicates normal Leydig cell function, irrespective of testicle size. ~~It is~~  
724 ~~described earlier,~~ the seminiferous epithelium is more sensitive to the effects of cancer treatment  
725 than the Leydig cells and patients may still have small adult testis size and impaired fertility despite  
726 having undergone a normal puberty with sufficient testosterone production (Jahnukainen *et al.*,  
727 2011a).

728

729 Assessment of male pubertal development should include: (i) measurement of testicular volume; (ii)  
730 Tanner staging of secondary sexual development; (iii) measurement of serum FSH, LH,

731 testosterone and inhibin B (if available); (iv) yearly bone age x-ray from any signs of initiation until  
732 completion of puberty. For patients with delayed or arrested puberty (>14y), treatment with  
733 increasing doses of testosterone should be considered (Kenney *et al.*, 2012). Once puberty has been  
734 established, measurement of testicular volumes, and FSH and inhibin B levels may also indicate  
735 effects on the seminiferous epithelium and hence spermatogenesis (Lahteenmaki *et al.*, 2008).  
736 ~~Azoospermia is likely if the testicular volumes are <10ml and the FSH is >10 IU/L (Muller *et al.*,  
737 1996; Siimes *et al.*, 1995).~~ Where possible and, as requested by the patient himself, semen analysis  
738 can be performed and the patients referred for ART, as appropriate. Should semen analysis reveal  
739 azoospermia, it is worth repeating the test annually, as the recovery of surviving stem cells  
740 (spermatogonia) may take several years.

741

#### 742 ***Post-surgical complications***

743 ~~While the collection and storage of testicular tissue can be proposed as a means of fertility~~  
744 ~~preservation in young patients who are unable to produce a semen sample, the procedure is~~  
745 ~~experimental and invasive and~~ The evidence from testicular biopsy in adults (Schlegel and Su 1997;  
746 Manning *et al.*, 1998) suggest that ~~the~~ risk of the biopsy procedure itself should not be overlooked  
747 in younger patients (Mitchell *et al.*, 2009). Immediate surgical complications include bleeding and  
748 infection where as later complications may be indicative of damage to the remaining testis. ~~In a~~  
749 ~~study of 64 men with non-obstructive azoospermia undergoing biopsy for sperm extraction, 82%~~  
750 ~~had hypoechoic lesions indicative of haematoma 3 months after biopsy, which had resolved by 6~~  
751 ~~months leaving linear scars (Schlegel and Su 1997). Another study in adults with obstructive~~  
752 ~~azoospermia who underwent a large bore needle, testicular biopsy demonstrated no difference in~~  
753 ~~LH, FSH or testosterone levels at 4 weeks of follow up compared to the pre-biopsy levels (Steel *et*~~  
754 ~~*al.*, 2001). In contrast, a large open testicular biopsy has been associated with a significant reduction~~  
755 ~~in testosterone at 6 months post biopsy; although testosterone concentrations increased by 12~~  
756 ~~months but did not not revert to original levels (Manning *et al.*, 1998).~~

757

758 The evidence base concerning the effects of testicular biopsy in prepubertal patients is limited. In a  
759 US study of 24 boys, 14 underwent testis tissue biopsy without any short term complications and no  
760 post-operative orchitis or reports of excessive pain (Ginsberg *et al.*, 2010). In a series of 62  
761 prepubertal and peripubertal patients under 16 years-old, who underwent unilateral testicular biopsy  
762 for fertility preservation, no short-term post-surgical complications were observed (Wyns *et al.*,  
763 2011). Longer-term follow up of patients undergoing testicular biopsy has been reported in  
764 cryptorchid boys undergoing orchidopexy (Patel *et al.*, 2005). In this study 112 boys were followed  
765 up for a mean of 11 years post-surgery (age range 18-29). None of the patients required re-operation  
766 for bleeding, received treatment for post-operative orchitis or sustained loss of a testis. An  
767 ultrasound scan at follow-up revealed no cases of testicular atrophy or biopsy related damage to the  
768 testis, or development of anti-sperm antibodies (Patel *et al.*, 2005). In a study of 23 patients who  
769 underwent an open wedge testis biopsy during treatment or on cessation of treatment in childhood  
770 for acute lymphoblastic leukaemia, 8 patients receiving standard risk therapy had FSH, inhibin B  
771 and testosterone levels comparable to the general population (Nurmio *et al.*, 2009).

772

773

#### 774 *Future fertility*

775 ~~Determining the effects-impact of prepubertal testicular biopsy on-on~~ future fertility is difficult to  
776 predict for prepubertal patients, given the limited amount of tissue taken and the favourable results  
777 regarding post-operative complications. To date the evidence ~~base~~ suggests that the procedure itself  
778 is unlikely to result in a significant impairment of fertility. Nevertheless, Meticulous record keeping  
779 and monitoring of young patients who have undergone a biopsy is vital to ensure that there are no  
780 complications related to the procedure including any damage to the remaining testis tissue. In  
781 addition, meticulous records must be kept by institutions undertaking these procedures and the  
782 outcomes reported in the literature. Multi-centre studies ~~to facilitate data collection from on~~ these

783 relatively rare patients ~~will are needed to~~ provide clearer insights into the requirements for long-  
 784 term follow-up ~~needed~~.

## 787 ~~8.~~The Ethical and Legal Frameworks For Fertility Preservation In Prepubertal Boys And 788 Adolescents

789 The setting for making decisions and developing and implementing fertility preservation strategies  
 790 in young boys and adolescents are heavily influenced by life-changing and life-threatening  
 791 diagnoses and treatment options that not only distress patients, parents and physicians but also raise  
 792 a raft of complex ethical and legal issues. The main ethical justification for interventions associated  
 793 with fertility preservation is the need to safeguard the best interests of the child. ~~This is generally  
 794 expressed in a favorable risk-benefit ratio. This balancing is highly complex due to a number of  
 795 factors such as: the intervention is performed on incompetent minors; there is a lack of scientific  
 796 and clinical evidence of the efficiency and safety of fertility preservation technologies such as testis  
 797 and SSC cryopreservation and no proof of principle about their feasibility in humans; and the need  
 798 for tissue recovery from young patients generates a highly emotional and stressful situation for both  
 799 patients and parents. In the absence of evidence regarding future success, utilization rate,  
 800 psychological consequences etc., the current position seems to be largely determined by 2 elements:  
 801 (i) the importance attributed to the wish to have genetically related children (patient autonomy), and  
 802 (ii) the optimism regarding the development of medical technology in the future (Murphy, 2010).~~

803  
 804 ~~A key~~ The first question that must be addressed in consideration of fertility preservation strategies  
 805 is to whom storage of sperm and/or testicular tissue should be offered (Murphy 2010). Indeed,  
 806 recent surveys suggests that the issue of sterility is hardly discussed with parents of boys  
 807 undergoing chemotherapy (Lee *et al.*, 2006; Anderson *et al.*, (2008). There are 2 schools of thought.  
 808 It can be argued that as paediatric oncology teams treat a patient with the intent to cure, then

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809 fertility preservation strategies should be discussed with all young patients and their families. The  
810 alternative view, however, is that young patients and/or their parents should only be approached to  
811 discuss fertility preservation options if there is ~~both not only~~ a good prognosis ~~and but also~~ a high  
812 risk of permanent infertility (Wallace *et al.*, 2005).

813  
814 ~~The diagnosis of genetic disease or cancer in a child inevitably creates a highly distressing and~~  
815 ~~stressful situation that may seriously hamper rational decision making. For many, cancer treatment~~  
816 ~~will have to start as soon as possible, resulting in considerable time pressure. Moreover, other~~  
817 ~~intervening psychological forces such as feelings of guilt and panic and mechanisms such as~~  
818 ~~anticipated decision regret should be taken into account (Van Den Broecke *et al.*, 2001). Still,~~  
819 ~~careful counseling can lead to a well-considered informed consent from either the patient or the~~  
820 ~~parents (Ginsberg *et al.*, 2010). In all cases,~~ informed consent from parents or legal guardians  
821 should be taken before tissue is harvested. Even when minors are legally incompetent, an effort  
822 should be made to inform them about the implications of the procedure (at a level appropriate for  
823 their age and maturity) and to obtain assent (Bahadur *et al.*, 2001). The consent form must include  
824 sections on safety (mentioning the possibility of both expected and unexpected adverse events) and  
825 on the experimental nature of testis freezing and SSC preservation and that the research methods for  
826 fertility restoration in animals have not yet been successfully translated to humans.

827  
828 The risks of fertility loss must be balanced against the potential for fertility restoration from stored  
829 samples and explained to each individual child and his parents to make sure that they understand  
830 that there is no guarantee of success. In this context it is useful to consider the procedure as a two-  
831 step process. Phase 1 involves the collection and storage of semen as the priority or the recovery of  
832 testicular tissue if semen collection is impossible. Phase 2 incorporates the replacement and/or  
833 subsequent use of the material for fertility restoration. The risks associated with these two phases  
834 differ. While ~~t~~he collection and cryopreservation of semen for fertility preservation is an

835 established, non-invasive, technology for adolescents with cancer (Daudin *et al.*, 2015). ~~In marked~~  
836 ~~contrast,~~ the recovery of a testicular biopsy from boys in whom sperm is not yet produced must  
837 be regarded as ~~an~~ experimental ~~procedure~~ as key issues such as how much tissue to collect, which  
838 preservation and fertility restoration techniques to use, and the potential risk of reintroduction of  
839 malignant cells during fertility restoration etc. all remain to be resolved. The direct costs of phase I  
840 (general anesthesia, pain etc.) are relatively small, especially when they can be combined with  
841 necessary cancer-related interventions. ~~Nevertheless, attention should be paid to unknown risk~~  
842 ~~factors such as complications after testis biopsy in prepubertal boys and the possibility of~~  
843 ~~reintroduction of cancer in the patient or defects in the offspring.~~ Both the beneficence and the non-  
844 maleficence principle imply that the cost-benefit balance should be maximized. This means that the  
845 least harmful and the most beneficial intervention(s) should be chosen, taking into account the other  
846 aspects of the intervention. It should be made clear to the patient and his parents that storage does  
847 not guarantee that he has a right to have the material replaced in the future.

848  
849 ~~When calculating the benefits for the patient, one should not only look at the possibility to have~~  
850 ~~one's own genetic children in the future but also at the psychological benefits that having testicular~~  
851 ~~tissue in storage may have on the patient both now and in the future. Stored material may put~~  
852 ~~patients at ease, give them hope, promote recovery and create less stress (Crawshaw and Sloper,~~  
853 ~~2010). However, emphasis should be put on the experimental nature of the intervention to avoid~~  
854 ~~therapeutic misconception (the failure to distinguish between research and treatment) and~~  
855 ~~unrealistic expectations. If the cryostored material proves to be useful for reproductive purposes in~~  
856 ~~the future, it will most likely be with limited success.~~ Clinics offering cryobanking are morally  
857 obliged to participate in data collection and follow-up research in order to improve information  
858 provision and decision-making. ▲

## 9. The Legal Context Of Fertility Preservation In Boys and Adolescents

The ~~application~~ development and uptake of fertility preservation strategies in prepubertal boys ~~assumes that the~~ needs be supported by the creation of suitable ~~legislation~~ and regulatory ~~frameworks~~ on. Legal rules should cover key points such as: differences associated with the handling and storage of gametes vs. gonadal tissue; maximal storage period- storage for several decades may be required; and tissue disposal in the event of death. The possibility of (partial) reimbursement of treatment and storage costs through some form of insurance and rules about proxy consent by parents or legal guardians regarding tissue collection and storage may also need to be considered. Further discussion of the ethical and legal issues surround fertility preservation in boys and adolescents is provided in the accompanying long version of this paper. ~~within each country covers a number of points including: the possibility to store the material (gametes and/or gonadal tissue) for several decades if necessary; a regulation detailing how to dispose of the material in the event of death; the possibility of (partial) reimbursement of treatment and storage costs through some form of insurance; and rules about proxy consent by parents or legal guardians regarding tissue collection and storage. The results of the current survey of the uptake of testicular tissue cryopreservation for boys and adolescents indicated that testicular tissue collection and cryopreservation is already in limited use either with approval of the local ethics committee of the University or Hospital or according to the current bioethics law as for example in France. In all cases procedures were considered to be experimental such that no costs were charged to the patients. The costs for tissue retrieval and cryobanking as well as for analysis of tissue samples prior to and after cryobanking were covered either by public health insurance or by hospital research grants or grants from public or private funding agencies. One Centre charged patients a yearly fee for continued cryostorage of samples.~~

~~The legal rules relevant for fertility preservation vary on 3 points: differences regarding handling~~

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889

## 890 **10. Future Challenges For Fertility Preservation In Boys and Adolescents**

891 The development of strategies for fertility preservation ~~of fertility~~ in prepubertal boys and  
892 adolescents is still in its ~~early~~-infancy and represents a balance between biological, clinical and  
893 technical knowns, technological unknowns and ethical and legal questions. Progress in this field is  
894 ~~very~~ encouraging and ~~our ability to it has enabled us to~~ design treatment algorithms that have the  
895 potential to safeguard the future fertility of these young patients ~~by the cryopreservation of sperm~~  
896 ~~when present or the use of new technologies of SSC and/or testicular tissue freezing when sperm~~  
897 ~~are absent~~ (Figure 2). The algorithm is built on a detailed understanding of human spermatogenesis  
898 combined with significant improvements in cancer treatments and advances in cryobiology and  
899 stem cell technology. However, ~~although the field is advancing there are~~ many important questions  
900 ~~that~~ remain unanswered (Table 5). Experimental techniques such as SSC and testicular tissue  
901 freezing, while promising, require further validation as efficient and safe methods for clinical use  
902 before they can be fully integrated into routine treatment strategies and the decision making process  
903 used to ensure the most effective use of cryopreserved tissues for the future restoration of fertility in  
904 these patients.

905

### 906 **Authors Roles**

907 HM Picton led on the preparation, drafting and editing of this comprehensive review. C Wyns, RA  
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909 AMM Van Pelt, all contributed to manuscript drafting and critical review. S Schlatt distributed and  
910 analysed the survey data and contributed to manuscript drafting and critical review. U Eichenlaub-  
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