

Micromanagement: how the male reproductive microbiome shapes male fertility

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Importance: One in six couples worldwide experience infertility, and male factors contribute to at least half of these cases. The pathophysiology of male infertility is complex and often multifactorial, and the male reproductive microbiome has now been implicated as a potentially critical component in male reproductive health and disease.

Objective: To summarize the emerging evidence describing the male reproductive microbiome with a focus on clinically relevant aspects within spermatogenesis and reproductive outcomes.

Evidence review: We performed a librarian-led search of MEDLINE, Embase, and Web of Science and a targeted PubMed search for antibiotic and probiotic trials, focusing on human studies that reported male reproductive microbiome data together with semen parameters, oxidative, deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)-damage, or inflammatory indices, or assisted reproduction outcomes. Given heterogeneity in design and laboratory methods, we conducted a narrative synthesis and integrated relevant mechanistic animal work.

Findings: Across heterogeneous cohorts, anaerobe-leaning seminal profiles (often with *Prevotella* or *Atopobium*) are more often linked to higher oxidative stress, greater sperm DNA fragmentation, and lower motility or total motile count. In contrast, *Lactobacillus*-rich profiles more often align with better redox status and DNA integrity. Couple-level data show rapid and robust partner microbiome exchange that can shift semen over short periods. Work on the gut–testis axis has identified a link between gut dysbiosis and systemic inflammation with semen quality via the gut–testis axis. Proposed mechanisms underlying the effect of the microbiome on fertility include local inflammation, oxidative injury, altered seminal rheology (e.g., viscosity/viscoelastic properties of seminal plasma), adherence/biofilms, and immune–metabolic crosstalk. Small trials to date using antibiotics and/or probiotics show variable benefits; durability and reproductive endpoints remain limited.

Conclusion and relevance: Emerging evidence supports a role for the male reproductive microbiome in sperm function and fertility and highlights it as a potential target for clinical intervention. However, predominantly small, cross-sectional studies and methodological heterogeneity limit causal inference and immediate translation, underscoring the need for longitudinal, couple-integrated cohorts and adequately powered randomized trials of targeted microbiome modulation. (Fertil Steril® 2026;125:583–95. ©2026 by American Society for Reproductive Medicine.)

Key Words: male infertility, male reproductive microbiome, seminal microbiome, probiotics, gut–testis axis

Infertility is defined as a failure to conceive after ≥ 12 months of unprotected intercourse and conveys extensive social, relational, psychological, and medical consequences on the one in six couples worldwide who struggle with it (1). In half of these cases, male factor infertility is either a primary or contributing cause. Although some analyses have sug-

gested an increase in the global burden of male infertility in recent decades, findings remain heterogeneous across regions and methodologies (1–4). Nevertheless, there is growing concern that environmental exposures, lifestyle factors, and the overall decline in global cardiometabolic health may contribute to worsening male

reproductive outcomes (5–8). Beyond its reproductive implications, male infertility is increasingly recognized as a sentinel marker of overall health (9), with epidemiologic evidence suggesting that patients with infertility have increased all-cause mortality compared with their counterparts (10,11). Infertility is also associated with a higher prevalence of

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chronic conditions (12). Several of these conditions, such as obesity, metabolic syndrome, and genetic disorders, are part of a constellation of well-documented factors contributing to male factor infertility and worsened overall health (13–17).

Other established etiologies of male infertility include anatomic factors, such as varicocele and congenital absence of the vas deferens (18), infections, including orchitis and sexually transmitted infections (19), gonadotoxic treatments, such as chemotherapy (20), and environmental/lifestyle triggers (21). A substantial proportion of cases, however, remain idiopathic, underscoring the need for additional insight into the underlying mechanisms.

The human microbiome has emerged as a critical component of general health (22–25). Its composition is shaped by diet, environment, and the presence of various diseases, all of which have also been implicated in male infertility (26, 27). Thus, the male reproductive microbiome has become an emerging focus in efforts to understand how microbial ecology may contribute to male reproductive health.

The human microbiome refers to the community of symbiotic bacteria, viruses, fungi, and microbes residing within and on the body, whereas the term microbiome more broadly refers to their collective genomes, metabolic products, and functional interaction with the host (28). Although the gut microbiome is a principal component, microbial communities exist throughout body systems, including male reproductive organs (29). Although these microbes have important roles in homeostasis, dysbiosis, defined as a shift in their composition or function toward a pathogenic state, has been implicated in diverse disease processes (30). Historically, only overt acute infections, such as urethritis, epididymitis, or acute bacterial prostatitis, were considered relevant to male reproductive health, and microorganisms in the male tract were viewed primarily as pathogens causing sexually transmitted or inflammatory disease (31, 32). However, culture-based reports in the 1970s and 1980s, followed by modern molecular surveys, suggested that this assumption was incomplete (33). Contemporary next-generation sequencing (NGS)-based studies now demonstrate distinct, low-biomass yet diverse microbial communities within semen and related organs, with compositional differences reported between fertile and infertile men, which raises the possibility of microbiome involvement in reproductive function (34, 35). However, because most studies rely on 16S rRNA gene sequencing of extracted deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), such data cannot distinguish between viable and nonviable organisms, and rigorous contamination control is essential when conducting studies and interpreting results (36). Early investigations focused mainly on identifying pathogens causing urethritis, epididymitis, and prostatitis, whereas current work explores how commensal and opportunistic taxa may relate to inflammatory and oxidative pathways affecting sperm quality (37). This review summarizes current knowledge about microbial communities within the principal male reproductive organs and their clinical contexts. We provide this information as a foundational basis to understand future studies and provide a framework for the clinician interested in understanding how this may impact patient care in the near future.

METHODS

Information sources and librarian-led comprehensive search

A health sciences librarian executed database searches in Ovid MEDLINE ALL (1946–2025-08-26), Embase (1974–2025-08-26), and Web of Science–Science Citation Index (1965–present). Strategies combined controlled vocabulary (MeSH/Emtree) and free-text terms for male reproductive anatomy/infertility and microbiome/microbiota, with animal-only records and nonarticle document types excluded. Language was limited to English, and publication years to 2015–current. Result counts at the final librarian run were as follows: MEDLINE $n = 933$, Embase $n = 921$, Web of Science $n = 1,027$ (details of line-by-line strategies are provided in [Supplementary Table S1](#)).

Author-performed PubMed targeted search (interventions)

Because male-focused trials were sparse, we ran a PubMed targeted search restricted to human trials, using two Boolean queries (antibiotics, probiotics) and processing the pooled records as one set (deduplicated together; queries in [Supplementary Table S2](#)). PRISMA (combined set): identified 714, duplicates 329, screened 385, full texts 31, included 17 ([Supplementary Figure S1](#)).

Eligibility criteria

Inclusion (humans): male reproductive microbiome studies reporting at least one of: (i) semen parameters (concentration, motility, morphology, composite indices), (ii) DNA fragmentation/oxidative stress, (iii) inflammation/symptoms (e.g., leukocytospermia, NIH-CPSI), or (iv) Assisted Reproductive Technology (ART)-relevant outcomes (fertilization, embryo, clinical pregnancy, live birth). Interventions included antibiotics, probiotics/pre-/synbiotics, and related adjuncts.

Exclusion: animal-only, pediatric-only, case reports, conference abstracts only, reviews, or studies lacking primary microbiome data relevant to male reproductive sites/semen.

Deduplication and screening

Across MEDLINE/Embase/Web of Science, 2,881 records were retrieved. After deduplication (1,488 removed), 1,393 titles/abstracts were screened by two reviewers independently; 164 full texts were assessed; 143 studies met inclusion criteria for the main domains (semen, couple-level, gut-testis, other male sites) ([Supplementary Figure S2](#)). Of the 143 included reports, 60 were review articles without primary data and were excluded from synthesis. Among the remaining 100, five were subsequently excluded upon detailed appraisal because of scope mismatch, leaving 95 original studies for final synthesis, including 17 intervention trials identified through targeted PubMed search.

Data extraction, quality flags, and risk-of-bias notes

Two reviewers extracted prespecified items (design, participants, specimen/fraction, microbiome method/region, outcomes, key taxa/findings). In situations of disagreement, a third reviewer provided clarification. We flagged low-biomass rigor (negative/kit/extraction blanks, decontamination, abstinence interval, recent antibiotics/antiseptics, leukocytospermia handling). Given heterogeneity, we used narrative synthesis with vote counting (positive/negative/mixed/neutral/unclear), and qualitative sensitivity analyses restricted to higher-rigor subsets. In addition to human studies, relevant animal data and recent human reports identified outside the initial search were reviewed to provide mechanistic and up-to-date context.

Ethics/IRB

Not applicable. This study is a systematic review of published literature and did not involve new human participant research or identifiable private information.

OVERVIEW OF MALE REPRODUCTIVE TRACT MICROBIOME RESEARCH

Early investigations of the male reproductive tract focused on identifying pathogenic bacteria responsible for infections such as urethritis, epididymitis, and prostatitis (38, 39). With the advent of molecular methods, particularly 16S rRNA sequencing that amplifies and profiles bacterial ribosomal gene regions to infer community composition, evidence has accumulated that even asymptomatic men harbor detectable bacterial DNA in the genital tract (35, 40, 41). This section summarizes current knowledge about microbial communities within the principal male reproductive organs and their clinical contexts.

Urethra and periurethral/penile surfaces

The urethra and glans penis are among the most microbially diverse regions of the male reproductive tract. Commonly identified taxa include *Corynebacterium*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Streptococcus* species, reflecting both skin and mucosal sources (42, 43). Their composition varies with hygiene, circumcision, and sexual activity (41, 44–46). Although dysbiosis has been linked to urethritis and other inflammatory conditions (47, 48), the significance of urethral community structure for semen quality in asymptomatic men remains unclear.

Prostate and seminal vesicles

The prostate and seminal vesicles (male accessory glands) have long been considered low-biomass environments, and sequencing studies now detect microbial DNA, particularly in chronic prostatitis/chronic pelvic pain syndrome (CP/CPPS; NIH category III), a condition historically considered nonbacterial (49–51). Reports often describe low-level signals from *Lactobacillus*, *Corynebacterium*, or anaerobes such as *Prevotella* (52), alongside elevated cytokines or

oxidative markers in semen (53), consistent with a model in which accessory-gland inflammation could alter semen rheology, referring to the physical properties of seminal plasma, and sperm function (54). Seminal plasma also shapes the female genital tract immune response after intercourse, promoting tolerance to paternal antigens and supporting early reproductive events (55, 56). Therefore, accessory-gland inflammation and dysbiosis may plausibly influence not only sperm function but also female tract inflammation and reproductive outcomes. Causality, however, remains unproven, and detection of bacterial DNA by PCR or sequencing does not itself establish infection or pathogenicity, as these methods cannot distinguish live from dead organisms or exclude background contamination (57, 58).

Beyond CP/CPPS, several studies have compared intra-prostatic or urinary microbiota between prostate cancer cases and controls (59, 60). Although some cohorts note differences (e.g., anaerobe enrichment or distinct urinary profiles), specific taxa are inconsistent, and mechanisms may also involve gut–prostate inflammatory crosstalk (61).

Epididymis and testis

Historically, epididymis and testis have been viewed as immune-privileged and essentially sterile, and in practice, they represent ultralow-biomass environments (62, 63). Detection of bacterial sequences from these sites has been inconsistent and frequently attributed to contamination (64). A limited number of reports suggest microbial DNA or RNA in association with epididymitis (65), obstructive azoospermia (66), and idiopathic nonobstructive azoospermia (67), yet no evidence supports a stable “testicular microbiome.” In oncology, exploratory work has examined associations with testicular germ-cell tumors, often via systemic inflammatory/metabolic pathways (68); however, evidence for a stable local “testicular microbiome” remains unsubstantiated. To substantiate such a microbiome, future studies would need to demonstrate reproducible, site-specific communities across independent cohorts with rigorous low-biomass contamination controls, spatial localization within testicular tissue, and ideally some indication of microbial viability or local host responses.

Seminal microbiome

Semen represents a composite specimen integrating contributions from the prostate, seminal vesicles, and distal urethra. Sequencing studies consistently identify *Lactobacillus*, *Corynebacterium*, and *Gardnerella* among dominant genera (35), with variable detection of anaerobes such as *Prevotella* or *Fingoldia* (69). Because of its accessibility and direct relevance to reproductive outcomes, semen has become the primary specimen for characterizing the male reproductive microbiome and linking community shifts to sperm motility, morphology, DNA integrity, and inflammation (70, 71).

In summary, evidence across anatomical sites indicates that the male reproductive tract harbors low-abundance but biologically active microbial communities. Although many signals are disease-associated or transient, growing

data imply that shifts in these communities, particularly within semen, may contribute to inflammation, oxidative stress, and impaired spermatogenesis.

CURRENT EVIDENCE FOR THE MALE REPRODUCTIVE MICROBIOME

Seminal microbiome

Semen harbors a low-biomass yet polymicrobial community, whose composition varies with fraction (cell pellet vs seminal plasma), abstinence interval, and laboratory pipeline. Signals were most coherent in studies reporting negative controls and leukocyte handling. Across 42 human cohorts, almost all studies have used 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing or pan-bacterial qPCR to profile the seminal microbiome, with rare application of shotgun metagenomics (37). In these studies, recurrent genera were *Lactobacillus*, *Corynebacterium*, *Staphylococcus*, *Streptococcus/Enterococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Escherichia/Shigella*, *Acinetobacter*, *Bacteroides*, *Prevotella*, *Gardnerella*, *Atopobium*, and *Fingoldia*, although single-taxon dominance was uncommon (37, 70, 72–75).

Associations. Despite heterogeneity, a reproducible pattern emerges. Anaerobe-leaning profiles, often enriched for *Prevotella*, *Corynebacterium*, or *Sneathia*, more often accompany lower sperm progressive motility or total motile count and, in some cohorts, lower concentration (71, 76–78). In contrast, *Lactobacillus*-enriched states are generally associated with neutral-to-favorable trends in sperm motility and morphology, although results are not entirely consistent across cohorts (71, 79, 80). Across individual studies, some groups have linked higher seminal *Lactobacillus* abundance to lower sperm DNA fragmentation (71), higher motility (71), or normal morphology (79) and concentration (80), whereas others have reported associations between *Lactobacillus* detection and abnormal motility (81) or oligoasthenoteratozoospermia (82). The genus-level signal for *Lactobacillus* likely masks species/strain heterogeneity and amplicon-resolution limits. For example, short-read 16S (V3–V4/V4) can under-resolve *L. crispatus* vs. *L. iners* (83). Nevertheless, several 16S-based studies have reported contrasting associations tentatively attributed to these taxa. *L. iners* has been linked to adverse markers (higher sperm DNA fragmentation, impaired motility) (70, 81), whereas *L. crispatus* tends to align with healthier states or favorable partner-level ART profiles (84, 85). These apparent differences should be interpreted cautiously, as current evidence relies entirely on low-resolution 16S assignments rather than species-specific validation. In the only human semen study to date that applied shotgun metagenomic sequencing, community shifts in a pilot male-infertility cohort were accompanied by alterations in S-adenosyl-L-methionine and related metabolic pathways, suggesting links between microbiome composition, redox imbalance, and DNA methylation biology (37).

Outside the male reproductive tract, strain-resolved shotgun metagenomics has repeatedly shown that clinically relevant heterogeneity is often invisible at the genus or spe-

cies level. In pregnancy cohorts, strain-level analyses of the vaginal microbiome have demonstrated that within-species nucleotide diversity and gene content in key taxa, such as *Gardnerella* and *Lactobacillus*, discriminate women who subsequently deliver preterm from those delivering at term, even when species-level community state types appear similar (86). In the gut, longitudinal strain-resolved metagenomics in Crohn's disease has shown that only a subset of *Escherichia coli* strains, closely related to adherent-invasive pathotypes, expand in synchrony with inflammatory flares, whereas co-colonizing *E. coli* strains of the same species are preferentially observed during remission (87). These examples underscore that strain-level resolution can fundamentally change disease-risk prediction, reinforcing the need for strain-resolved approaches (e.g., deep shotgun metagenomics) in future studies of the semen microbiome.

Inflammation and leukocytospermia. Cross-sectional cohorts suggest that leukocytospermia co-occurs with distinct seminal community patterns (e.g., higher alpha diversity, a relative increase in Bacteroidetes, and a shift away from *Lactobacillus*-enriched toward *Streptococcus*-enriched profiles) and with less favorable semen parameters (82, 88, 89). These studies support a link between inflammatory tone (baseline inflammatory state, e.g., cytokine/chemokine profiles and leukocyte-associated signals) and the seminal microbiota, but formal mediation through inflammatory intermediates has not been demonstrated, and reporting of leukocyte quantification, recent antimicrobials, and contamination controls remains variable. Leukocytospermia can arise from both infectious and noninfectious etiologies. Noninfectious contributors include oxidative stress (90), prolonged abstinence (91), and local immune activation, so microbial associations in cross-sectional studies should be interpreted with caution when inferring causality (92).

Oxidative stress and DNA-damage endpoints. Where oxidative and DNA endpoints were measured (e.g., ORP [oxidation–reduction potential], MDA [malondialdehyde], 8-OHdG [8-Hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine], DFI [DNA Fragmentation Index]), *Lactobacillus*-enriched or anaerobe-reduced profiles more often aligned with lower oxidative load and DFI, whereas anaerobe-rich states aligned with higher values (70, 71). In several studies, taxon–semen associations were attenuated after accounting for inflammatory markers, consistent with partial mediation by inflammation and oxidative stress (70, 71, 93). However, all available data are cross-sectional, so these relationships should be interpreted as associative rather than causal. Although most conceptual models assume that microbial shifts drive inflammation, oxidative stress, and ultimately sperm injury, the reverse direction is also plausible and has been raised in prior work: primary spermatogenic or epididymal dysfunction could alter seminal plasma composition (e.g., protein, lipid, and redox milieu), thereby selecting for particular bacterial communities without those bacteria necessarily being pathogenic. At present, no study has formally disentangled these directions of effect, underscoring the need for longitudinal and interventional designs.

Overall directionality. Determinate findings modestly favor better oxidative/DFI outcomes in *Lactobacillus*-enriched states, whereas effects on concentration and morphology are mixed. To visualize the overall pattern of associations, we summarized all study-level reports linking major genera with semen parameters (Figure 1). In this bubble chart, each circle represents the cumulative sample size of studies reporting a given association, with color indicating whether the genus was generally beneficial (linked to improved semen quality or reduced oxidative/inflammatory load) or detrimental (associated with impaired parameters, higher oxidative stress, or inflammation). At present, genus-level signatures are best interpreted as contextual markers of inflammatory and oxidative status rather than diagnostic targets; species-resolved, couple-integrated, contamination-aware longitudinal studies are needed to define actionable thresholds.

ART relevance. Evidence directly linking the seminal microbiome to ART outcomes is emerging but limited. In a couple's cohort, a semen *Acinetobacter*-dominated community was associated with higher ART success, and vaginal *L. crispatus* dominance also tracked with better outcomes; couples in which both partners had beneficial community types achieved a higher success rate (53% vs 25%) (84). Assay and cut-off heterogeneity and unmeasured partner factors, however, limit causal interpretation.

Complementary male/female genitourinary couple microbiome

Although unprotected sexual intercourse involves the exchange of a plethora of microbes through bodily fluids,

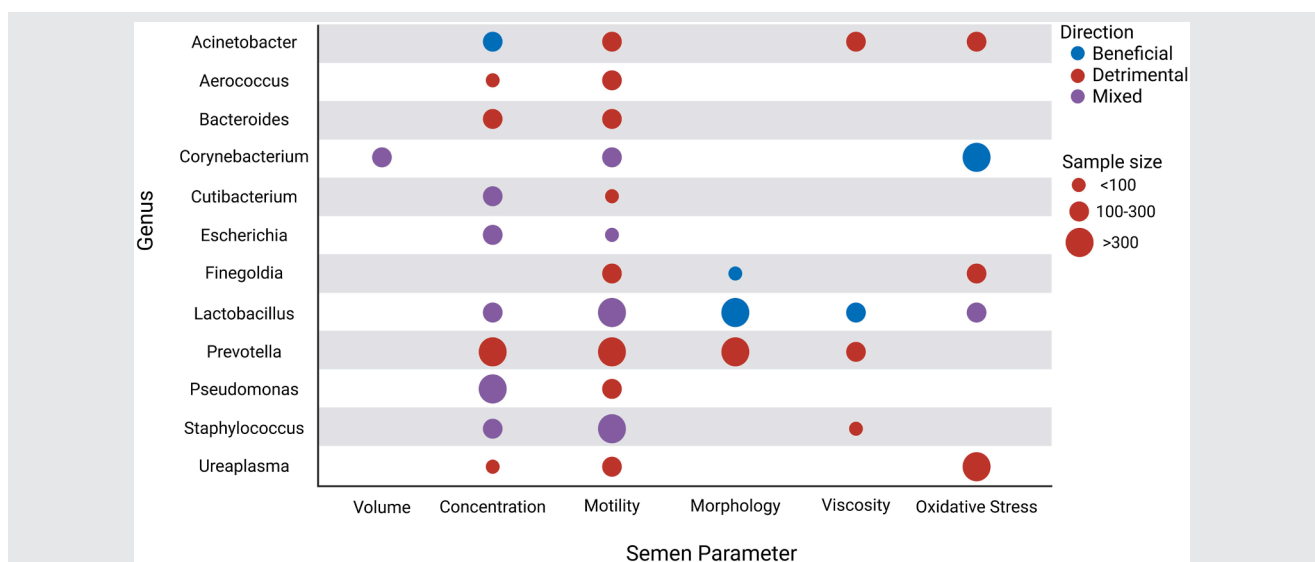
which inevitably interact, these microbiomes have typically been separately studied. A limited number of couple-level studies (n = 9) have characterized both male and female genital tract microbiomes in parallel, revealing substantial within-couple similarity that exceeds between-couple similarity even after accounting for abstinence and hygiene. Overlapping taxa commonly include *Lactobacillus*, *Gardnerella*, and *Prevotella*, supporting substantive microbial exchange at the couple level (94–97).

Directionality and strain resolution. When longitudinal or strain-resolved sampling was performed, the balance of evidence favored transfer from female to male for shared taxa, with less persistent male-to-female transmission (98, 99). Strain- or ASV-level analyses demonstrated that identical *Lactobacillus* or *Gardnerella* lineages can be detected within couples over short intervals but diverge substantially between couples, suggesting that shared strains are transiently acquired from the female partner and gradually replaced by the male's resident microbiota over time (95, 98, 99).

Temporal dynamics. Pre/postintercourse and short-interval designs show that penile and urethral communities can shift within hours of exposure, followed by partial reversion. The magnitude of change depends on vaginal community state types (CSTs), condom use, hygiene, and time since intercourse (94, 98). These rapid dynamics likely inflate cross-sectional heterogeneity when behavioral metadata are incomplete.

Fertility-relevant readouts. In couple-level analyses integrating semen and vaginal profiles, anaerobe-enriched states (e.g., *Gardnerella*, *Prevotella*) were linked to less favorable semen parameters and poorer embryo morphology, whereas

FIGURE 1



Overall directionality of genus-level associations within the seminal microbiome. Bubble area corresponds to the cumulative sample size (infertile and control combined). Colors indicate beneficial (blue), detrimental (red), or mixed (purple) associations. Alternating gray shading distinguishes genera for clarity.

Kuribayashi. Male reproductive microbiome. Fertil Steril 2026.

Lactobacillus-dominant vaginal CSTs corresponded to more favorable semen and embryo outcomes (95). Nonetheless, assay variability and unmeasured couple behaviors limit causal interpretation. These anaerobe-enriched community types broadly overlap with bacterial vaginosis or vaginal dysbiosis. Outside of couple-level studies, bacterial vaginitis (BV), and related vaginal dysbiosis are more prevalent among infertile women and have been associated with tubal factor infertility and an increased risk of early pregnancy loss after in vitro fertilization (IVF) in several cohorts and meta-analyses (100, 101), although effects on implantation and live-birth rates are inconsistent (102, 103). Although assay variability and unmeasured couple behaviors still limit causal interpretation, future couple-based studies may better disentangle these bidirectional microbiome–reproductive interactions.

Clinical implications and future directions. Collectively, these findings support a bidirectional model of couple-level interaction. On short timescales (hours to days), exposure to a female partner appears to be the predominant determinant of male genital tract communities (95, 98), with female-to-male microbial transfer more frequently observed than the reverse. Randomized trials demonstrate that male circumcision reduces BV and *Trichomonas* infection in female partners (104), and a recent partner-treatment trial showed lower BV recurrence when male partners were treated concurrently with women (105). Although these studies were outside our PRISMA-defined couple-profiling corpus, they reinforce that semen exposure, penile ecology, and sexual behavior jointly shape the microbial landscape of both partners. Future couple-integrated, strain-resolved designs with standardized behavioral metadata will be essential to quantify the relative contributions and persistence of these reciprocal influences in relation to semen quality and ART outcomes.

Gut–testis axis

Like the well-established gut–brain axis, the emerging “gut–testis axis” links intestinal microbes to testicular function through systemic immune–metabolic pathways. The gut–brain axis is firmly supported by mechanistic studies showing that microbial metabolites, such as short-chain fatty acids (106) and tryptophan derivatives (107), modulate neuroendocrine and inflammatory pathways that affect mood, stress, and cognition (108–110). In comparison, evidence for gut–testis communication remains preliminary but increasingly suggestive. Intestinal dysbiosis has been linked to male reproductive phenotypes through systemic immune–metabolic pathways. Across 16 human studies, stool microbiome profiles were paired with semen parameters, inflammatory/oxidative markers, and hormones. Despite heterogeneous pipelines, convergent trends suggest that gut community structure and function track with sperm quality and redox status (37, 80, 111, 112).

Community signatures. Men with abnormal semen parameters more often show reduced gut microbiota alpha diversity and enrichment of taxa associated with endotoxemia

(e.g., *Bacteroides*, *Bilophila*) (113, 114), whereas SCFA-producing profiles (e.g., *Bifidobacterium*, *Blautia*) tend to associate with higher concentration/motility and lower oxidative or DNA-fragmentation indices (80, 115).

Inflammation and metabolic comorbidity. Gut dysbiosis can facilitate translocation of microbial products and low-grade systemic inflammation, which in turn may impair Leydig and Sertoli cell function. Obesity, insulin resistance, and other metabolic traits frequently cosegregate with dysbiotic signatures and poorer semen quality, supporting a model in which gut-derived metabolic inflammation contributes to oxidative stress and suboptimal sperm function (116, 117).

Metabolite and hormonal pathways. Direct human evidence that specific circulating metabolites or hormones mediate gut–semen links remains limited. However, cross-site profiling in couples has identified genus-level shifts together with inferred differences in microbial molecular functions/pathways between fertile and infertile participants, which is consistent with altered microbial metabolic output that could influence redox or endocrine tone (118). In parallel, two-sample Mendelian randomization (MR) combining MiBioGen (gut-microbiota Genome-Wide Association Study [GWAS]) and FinnGen (male infertility) identified genes with putative causal effects on male infertility risk; whereas MR does not specify mediators, it strengthens the rationale to test metabolite- and hormone-centered mechanisms prospectively (115, 119).

Integrative multiomics. A cross-site multiomic study integrating gut, urine, and semen microbiomes with shotgun metagenomics, reported coordinated taxonomic and functional shifts across all three sites, including alterations in the S-adenosyl-L-methionine cycle that link microbial metabolism to redox, methylation, and polyamine pathways in infertile men (37). A complementary gut-only shotgun metagenomic study in men with nonobstructive azoospermia similarly identified species-level shifts and altered carbohydrate, amino-acid, and methane-metabolism pathways, which correlated with hormonal and clinical parameters (80). Together, these shotgun data support a role for gut microbial metabolic capacity in male reproductive dysfunction. By contrast, most work to date relies on 16S-based functional inference rather than measured metabolomics; future contamination-aware, standardized pipelines that integrate targeted metabolomics/lipidomics and immune panels with longitudinal semen outcomes are needed to establish mechanisms and clinical utility.

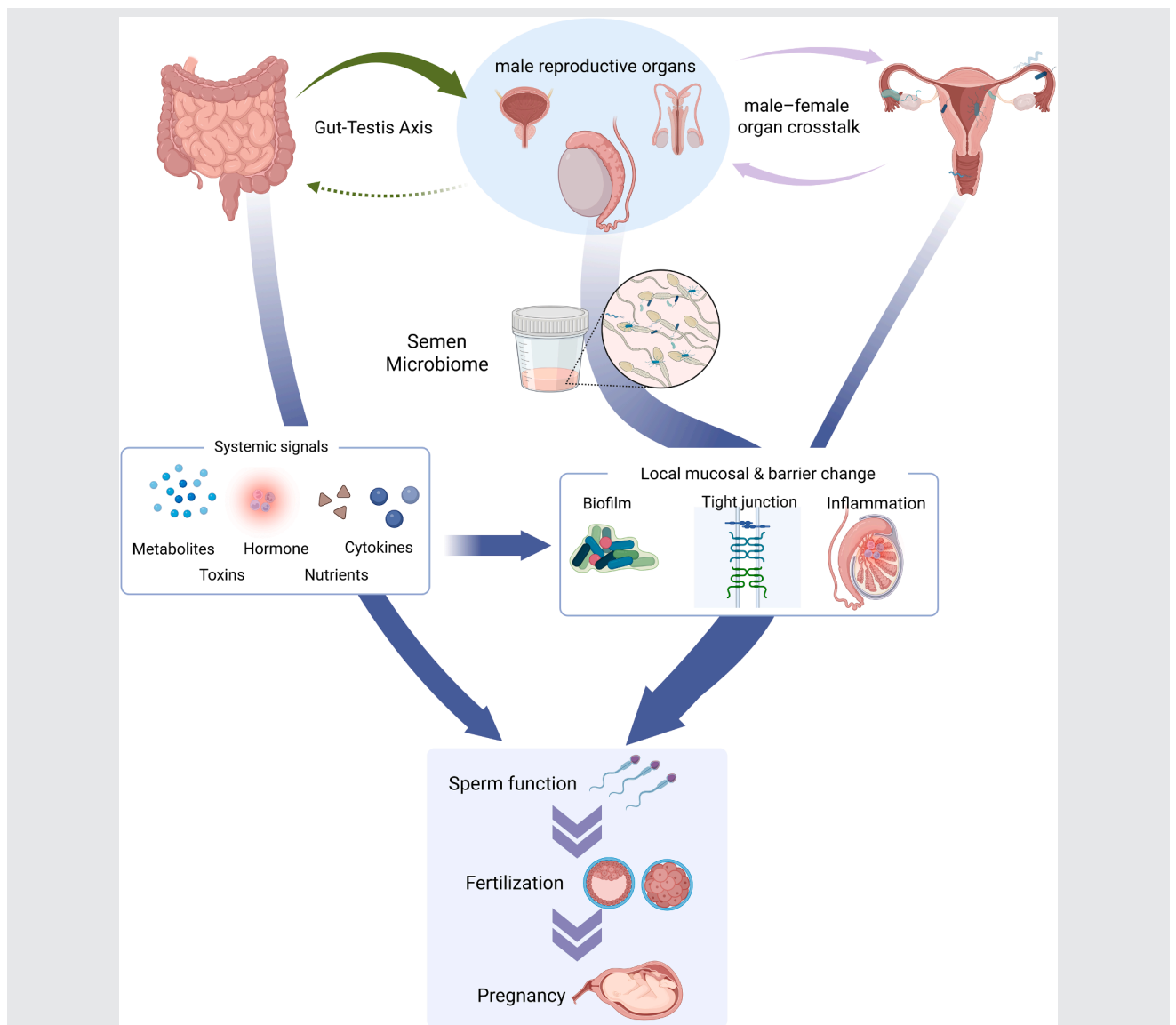
Experimental model. Animal studies provide causal support for a gut–testis axis (120–125). In high-fat-diet–induced metabolic-syndrome models, gut dysbiosis alters bile acid composition and impairs intestinal vitamin A absorption, leading to disrupted testicular retinoic-acid signaling and defective spermatogenesis (122). In antibiotic-induced microbiota depletion models, exosome-mediated dysregulation of testicular retinoic acid likewise causes meiotic failure and impaired sperm production, which is mitigated by restoring the gut microbiota or providing short-chain fatty acid supplementation (123). These findings demonstrate causality

between gut microbial perturbation and testicular dysfunction through multiple intersecting metabolic and inflammatory pathways.

Interpretation. Taken together, human data support a biologically coherent link between intestinal dysbiosis and impaired testicular/seminal environments via systemic immune–metabolic crosstalk. Effect sizes are modest, and most studies are cross-sectional, so causality remains unresolved; routine stool microbiome testing for male infertility

is not currently justified. Priority should be given to contamination-aware, couple-integrated longitudinal trials that combine strain-level metagenomics with targeted metabolomics/lipidomics and immune profiling, use standardized semen endpoints, including concentration, motility, morphology, and DNA fragmentation index/oxidative reduction potential (DFI/ORP). When possible, incorporation of pregnancy or live-birth outcomes would clarify whether targeted modulation of the gut microbiome offers sustained reproductive benefits.

FIGURE 2



Pathways linking seminal, gut, and male/female microbiomes to male fertility Proposed framework illustrating how distinct microbiome sites may influence sperm function. Evidence is strongest for associations within the seminal microbiome, with potential contributions from the gut–testis axis (via systemic inflammatory or metabolic mediators) and complementary male/female genitourinary couple microbiome (within-couple transfer).

Kuribayashi. Male reproductive microbiome. Fertil Steril 2026.

Mechanistic insights

Emerging evidence suggests several biologically plausible pathways through which the microbiome may influence male reproductive function (Figure 2). These mechanisms are not mutually exclusive and may operate in parallel.

Local inflammation and immune activation. Although leukocytospermia is often used as a marker of inflammation, direct measurements of seminal cytokines and oxidative mediators more accurately reflect the local immune milieu. Elevated IL-6, IL-8, and TNF- α levels have been associated with reduced motility, increased DNA fragmentation, and granulocyte-derived oxidative stress, supporting an inflammatory pathway linking dysbiosis to sperm dysfunction (126, 127).

Adaptive immune response and antisperm antibodies. - Chronic genital-tract inflammation and disruption of the blood–testis or blood–epididymis barrier can expose sperm antigens to the immune system, leading to loss of gamete immune tolerance, which in turn drives inflammation and gamete damage (128) and may, but does not necessarily, result in antisperm antibody (ASA) production (129, 130). In a 16S-based cohort, taxa such as *L. crispatus* and *G. vaginalis* were associated with normal ASA (IgA) levels and favorable semen parameters, whereas anaerobe-dominated profiles coincided with multiple abnormalities, including ASA positivity (126). However, no study has yet established that specific semen microbiome states directly drive ASA induction.

Beyond effects on sperm, seminal plasma also conditions the female genital tract immune milieu after intercourse (131). Thus, inflammation- or dysbiosis-associated changes in seminal plasma may modulate female tract inflammation and tolerance to paternal antigens, with potential downstream effects on implantation and reproductive outcomes (55, 56).

Seminal environment and rheology. Microbial activity may perturb the physicochemical milieu that supports motility and capacitation, most notably the timing/efficiency of liquefaction and semen viscosity. Human cohorts report pathogen-leaning communities in hyperviscosity phenotypes and identify microbiome shifts alongside semen-feature differences, consistent with altered proteolysis and redox pathways; direct taxa–pH associations remain limited in current datasets (132, 133).

Biofilm formation and microbial adherence. Bacteria have been observed to adhere to spermatozoa and, in some reports, to form aggregates or biofilm-like structures within semen or distal ducts (134–136). Such an organization may create localized hypoxic and inflammatory microenvironments that impede motility and perpetuate chronic inflammation, although direct human evidence remains limited.

Barrier integrity and paracrine support. Inflammatory cytokines and reactive oxygen species (ROS) can modulate Sertoli-cell tight junctions (e.g., ZO-1/claudins) (137), compromising the blood–testis barrier and perturbing the paracrine support and redox homeostasis required for

spermatogenesis, which are concepts consistent with broader microbiome–gonadal crosstalk models.

Systemic and metabolic crosstalk. Beyond local effects in the male genital tract, systemic immune–metabolic disturbances can shape the testicular/seminal niche and thereby influence observed associations between the seminal microbiome and semen quality. Such disturbances may reflect distal microbiome inputs (particularly the gut) and/or non-microbiome host factors, including hyperglycemia, micronutrient deficiency, systemic inflammation/autoimmunity/infection, and environmental toxin exposures (138, 139). In experimental models, microbially derived metabolites such as short-chain fatty acids, bile acids, and tryptophan derivatives, together with endocrine and cytokine signaling, can modulate oxidative balance, steroidogenesis, and blood–testis–barrier integrity (121, 122). However, direct human data linking specific systemic microbial or metabolite signatures to semen quality remain limited, so these pathways should currently be viewed as mechanistic hypotheses rather than established causal routes.

Interventions

Therapeutic modulation of the male reproductive microbiome has been explored through two main approaches: antimicrobial suppression and probiotic-based restoration. Twenty-two human studies (13 antibiotic, 9 probiotic or pre/synbiotic) form the current evidence base, although most are small, unblinded, and short-term. Despite heterogeneity, a consistent theme emerges: interventions that temper inflammation and oxidative stress tend to yield modest improvements in semen quality.

Antibiotics. Most antibiotic trials enrolled infertile men with leukocytospermia, male accessory gland infection, or asymptomatic urogenital colonization (e.g., *Chlamydia*, *Ureaplasma*, *Mycoplasma*), and all reported semen endpoints. Across randomized and before–after designs, antibiotics frequently reduced seminal inflammation (e.g., leukocyte counts and/or ROS generation) and were often accompanied by modest gains in total or progressive motility; effects on concentration and morphology were inconsistent (140–145). Notably, one randomized control trial found that levofloxacin did not resolve asymptomatic leukocytospermia (146). Contemporary evidence syntheses and American Urologic Association/AUA/American Society of Reproductive Medicine (ASRM) and European Association of Urology guidelines no longer support empiric antibiotic therapy for idiopathic leukocytospermia or abnormal semen parameters in the absence of microbiologic confirmation (e.g., positive culture or nucleic acid amplification test for a specific pathogen) (147, 148). Treatment is now reserved for documented infections such as *C. trachomatis*, *U. urealyticum*, or *M. genitalium*, following organism-specific protocols. Indiscriminate antimicrobial use carries risks of resistance and partner-mediated recolonization. Overall, antibiotics may transiently lower seminal inflammatory tone in selected infection-associated phenotypes, but current data are insufficient to justify routine use solely to improve semen quality.

Probiotics/pre-/synbiotics. Interventions have attracted growing interest as lower-risk adjuncts. Most formulations combined *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* species, administered orally for 3–6 months. Three randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trials in infertile men reported improvements in at least some semen endpoints, most consistently motility, with concurrent reductions in oxidative-stress or inflammatory indices; effects on concentration and morphology were variable (149–151). These patterns align with a redox-mediated mechanism rather than a simple change in total bacterial load.

Beyond semen readouts, an open-label couple-based intervention using a defined *Ligilactobacillus salivarius* strain documented shifts in local/systemic cytokines, changes in reproductive-tract microbiota, and reported pregnancies during follow-up (152). Although not placebo-controlled, the study supports a gut/urogenital-immune axis in idiopathic infertility and underscores the potential importance of partner ecology.

Mechanistic support also comes from controlled in vitro exposure of purified human spermatozoa to a vaginal probiotic *Lactobacillus*, which altered immune-related readouts, including sperm-surface human leukocyte antigens class I/II expression and peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC)-derived IgG and antipaternal cytotoxic antibody following sperm-PBMC coculture (153). Related in vitro work further showed that probiotic treatment can modify toll-like receptor (TLR) 2 and TLR4 expression on spermatozoa, although downstream signaling was not directly measured (154). Although these experiments do not establish clinical benefit, they provide a biologically plausible route by which probiotic-dominated environments could dampen inflammatory signaling at the gamete interface.

Taken together, available trials suggest that probiotic supplementation can improve oxidative/DNA-integrity surrogates and modestly enhance motility in some men. Key gaps remain: small sample sizes, heterogeneous study design and technical platforms, limited use of sequencing to confirm strain persistence, and sparse reproductive endpoints.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Limitations

Most studies are small and cross-sectional, which limits causal inference. Low-biomass safeguards and negative controls are inconsistently applied, so contamination cannot be excluded despite field guidelines (36, 155, 156). Sampling and processing differ across studies (fraction profiled, abstinence interval, time to liquefaction/processing, leukocyte handling). Short-read 16S region/primer choices constrain species/strain resolution, and most datasets report relative, not absolute or viable, loads (156, 157). Partner-integrated and longitudinal designs, and pregnancy or live-birth endpoints, remain uncommon; clinic-based sampling may also limit generalizability.

In addition to methodological sources of heterogeneity, a substantial component of the observed inconsistency may reflect the inherently stochastic nature of microbial

colonization in the male reproductive tract. Neutral modeling of reproductive tract microbiomes suggests that sexually associated microbial exposure is largely stochastic, with transient seeding events that vary widely across individuals (94). Similar stochastic, exposure-driven assembly has been described in other low-biomass ecosystems, for example, in the lung, where communities largely reflect immigration from the upper airway and occasional enrichment with gut-associated taxa in critical illness (158). Although speculative, these dynamics may amplify between-study variability and contribute to inconsistent genus-level signatures.

Future directions

Progress in this field will depend on overcoming current design and methodological limitations. Longitudinal, couple-resolved cohorts with strain-level resolution and detailed behavioral metadata are needed to define temporal and partner-mediated effects. Standardized protocols for specimen handling, negative controls, and metadata reporting tailored to low-biomass niches will be essential to ensure reproducibility. Mechanistic multiomics studies integrating microbiome, metabolome, and immune profiling could clarify how specific taxa or metabolites mediate oxidative stress, DNA fragmentation, and cytokine signaling. Beyond observational human work, further development and application of germ-free and microbiota-manipulated animal models, ex vivo testicular and epididymal cultures, and in vitro sperm functional assays will be essential to move from association to causality and to dissect tissue-specific pathways by which microbial signals influence spermatogenesis and sperm function. Clinical translation will require blinded, adequately powered randomized trials of species-defined probiotics or targeted antibiotics, ideally incorporating pregnancy and live-birth endpoints with durability assessments beyond 3–6 months. Finally, defining clinically validated quantitative thresholds, such as anaerobe load or species-specific cut-offs, will be crucial for integrating microbiome testing into diagnostic and therapeutic decision-making.

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CRedit Authorship Contribution Statement

Sohei Kuribayashi: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Noopur Naik:** Writing – original draft, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Aaron W. Miller:** Writing – review & editing. **Scott D. Lundy:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Conceptualization.

Declaration of Interests

S.K. has nothing to disclose. N.N. has nothing to disclose. A.W.M. has nothing to disclose. S.D.L. reports consultant fees from Give Legacy. S.D.L. serves as an advisory board member for PS Fertility and as a consultant for Give Legacy.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

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