## **University of Naples ''Federico II''**



## PhD Program in Neuroscience XXXV Cycle

## Course Director: *Prof. Maurizio Taglialatela* PhD Thesis

# *Erectile dysfunction and obstructive sleep apnoea: a cross-sectional clinical study*

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Academic Year 2021-2022

Il talento prende forma quando incontra la Guida che gli fornisce l'opportunità

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### Abstract

**State of the art:** Erectile Dysfunction (ED) is the inability to achieve or maintain an erection for satisfactory sexual performance. Recently, it has been suggested that obstructtive sleep apnoea (OSA) can induce ED. Sleep fragmentation and sympathetic hyperactivity after OSA that induce reduced nocturnal erections in the rapid eye movement (REM) periods and hormonal status modifications, as well as comorbidities observed in both diseases could be involved in the ED pathogenesis.

**Purpose:** In this study the impact of nonendocrine (neurogenic, vasculogenic and iatrogenic) and endocrine pathways involved in ED pathogenesis have been analyzed. In particular, a cross-sectional study has been performed to investigate the prevalence and clinical characteristics of ED in patients with OSA.

**Methods**: We enrolled 133 male patients with suspected OSA. Ear, nose and throat evaluation, laboratory tests, body mass index, Epworth sleepiness scale, 5-international index of erectile function, overnight ambulatory polygraphy and drug-induced sleep endoscopy patterns were assessed. Eighty patients reported OSA. 60% (n = 48) reported ED.

**Results**: Statistically significant correlations were found between 5-International Index of Erectile Function and age, hypertension, diabetes, Epworth sleepiness scale, apnoea-hypopnea index score,  $O_2$  saturation-nadir, and oxygen desaturation index. Age, diabetes and  $O_2$  saturation-nadir were independent predictors of ED. Epworth sleepiness scale, apnoea-hypopnea index score,  $O_2$  saturation-nadir, oxygen desaturation index and albumin were higher compared to patients without ED. No statistically significant differences were reported for drug-induced sleep endoscopy patterns and ED.

**Conclusions**: This study confirmed that OSA is a risk factor for ED. In particular, our data demonstrated that OSA parameters correlate with ED and age, while SatO<sub>2</sub>-nadir and diabetes are independent predictors of ED. Our research pointed out that men presenting to the Ear, nose and throat (ENT) clinic with OSA are at significant risk of having ED. Therefore, males with OSA should be investigated for ED.

**Keywords:** Erectile Dysfunction (ED), Obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA), ED etiopathogenesis; Aging; Diabetes mellitus; Hypertension; SatO2; Sex-hormones; ED management; ED treatment.

## 1. Introduction

Erectile Dysfunction (ED) represents the inability to achieve or maintain an erection for satisfactory sexual performance. ED affects a relevant number of men at least occasionally (Yafi et al., 2016). ED shows a high prevalence and incidence worldwide (Eardley, 2013). ED prevalence is higher in the United States, as well as in Eastern and South-eastern Asian countries, rather than in Europe or South America. Nevertheless, these differences could be related to cultural or socioeconomic factors. Two milestone studies, the Massachusetts Male Aging Study (MMAS) and the European Male Ageing Study (EMAS) (Corona et al., 2010; Feldman et al., 1994) are among the largest studies which have analysed ED prevalence. The MMAS reported a mild to moderate ED prevalence in 52% of men aged 40–70 years in the Boston area; with a specific prevalence for minimal, moderate, and complete ED of 17.2%, 25.2%, and 9.6%, respectively. (Feldman et al., 1994) The EMAS, instead, the largest European multicentre population-based study of ageing men (40–79 years), showed an ED average prevalence of 30% ranging, from 6% to 64% depending on different age subgroups, which increased with age (Corona et al., 2010) (Fig. 1).



Figure 1: Increasing prevalence of ED with age (Yafi et al., 2016)

In addition, the Cologne study, revealed an ED prevalence in men aged 30-80 years of 19.2%, with a steep age-related increase from 2.3% to 53.4% (Braun et al., 2000). Similarly, the incidence rate of ED was 19.2% (mean follow-up of 4.2 years) in a Dutch study (Schouten et al., 2005). In a cross-sectional real-life study among men seeking first medical help for new-onset ED, one in four patients was younger than 40 years, with almost 50% of the young men complaining of severe ED (Capogrosso et al., 2013). Further studies are needed to assess the influence of genetic background and the possible interaction with environmental conditions.

ED often impacts negatively on interpersonal relationships, mood and quality of life. Alterations of the reflex erection (achieved by directly touching the penile shaft, which is under the control of the peripheral nerves and the lower parts of the spinal cord) and psychogenic erection (achieved by erotic or emotional stimuli, using the limbic system of the brain), the two major aspects of male erection responsible of ED, are the target of therapeutic intervention. According to the five-item International Index of Erectile Function (IIEF-5) questionnaire, the ED severity is described as mild (score 8–11), moderate (score 8–11) or severe (score 1–7) while a 22–25 score indicates no ED. Although ED was considered a psychogenic disorder in the past, current evidence suggests an organic aetiology for more than 80% of cases (Fig. 2).



Figure 2: Timeline of the understanding and treatment of ED (Yafi et al., 2016)

Organic ED causes are grouped into nonendocrine and endocrine. While reduced serum testosterone levels represent the main endocrine factor responsible for ED, among nonendocrine causes, vasculogenic ones represent the most common and involve arterial inflow and venous outflow alterations albeit neurogenic and iatrogenic aetiologies have also been described (Yafi et al., 2016). In addition, it has been recently shown that obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA) could also induce ED (Hoyos et al., 2015). Although the exact mechanism linking OSA and ED is not well established, it has been proposed the role of comorbidities observed in both diseases, such as diabetes, hypertension and metabolic syndrome in in-flammation and vascular impairment (Bouloukaki et al., 2014; Hoyos et al., 2015; Kellesarian et al., 2018). Additionally, sleep fragmentation and sympathetic hyperactivity after OSA, which reduce nocturnal erections in the rapid eye movement (REM) periods, and hormonal status modifications could be involved in the ED pathogenesis (Andersen et al., 2010).

## 2. Etiopathogenesis of Erectile Dysfunction

The smooth muscle contraction is responsible for the flaccid state of the penis. A combination of adrenergic (noradrenaline), myogenic and endothelium-derived (prostaglandin and endothelin) contracting factors regulate smooth muscle contraction (Fig. 3) (Andersson & Wagner, 1995; Lue, 2000; Saenz de Tejada et al., 1989).



Figure 3: Penile smooth muscle contraction — the flaccid state

a |  $Ca^{2+}$  influx into cells is regulated by noradrenaline signalling and inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (Ins (1,4,5) P3 levels, produced from phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PtdIns (4,5) P2) by phospholipase C); increased intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  binds to calmodulin, facilitating the calmodulin–myosin light chain kinase (MLCK) complex formation. This leads to MLC phosphorylation, resulting in smooth muscle contraction and a flaccid penis. Noradrenaline signalling also inhibits adenylyl cyclase and modulates the RHO-associated protein kinase (ROCK) pathway, which increases the sensitivity of MLC to  $Ca^{2+}$ , a process negatively regulated by testosterone. Endothelins and prostaglandins from the endothelium also trigger an increase in intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  to promote smooth muscle contraction. b | When the smooth muscle is contracted, the inflow of blood through the cavernous artery is minimal, and the blood outflows freely through the subtunical venular plexus. ER,

endoplasmic reticulum; MLCP, myosin light chain phosphatase (Yafi et al., 2016).

The Nitric oxide (NO) release from non-adrenergic noncholinergic (NANC) nerve fibres and acetylcholine release from parasympathetic cholinergic nerve fibres induce erection upon sexual stimulation (Fig. 4). Subsequently, the signalling pathways activation increases cyclic GMP (cGMP) concentrations, decreases intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels and smooth muscle cell relaxation (Lue, 2000; Lue & Tanagho, 1987). Upon smooth muscle relaxation, blood fills the lacunar spaces in the corpora cavernosa, subtunical venules are compressed, and the venous outflow (veno-occlusion) is blocked. Phosphodiesterase type 5 (PDE5) reverted the process by cGMP hydrolysis (Lue, 2000; Lue & Tanagho, 1987). ED could occur when any of these processes are interrupted.



Figure 4: Penile smooth muscle relaxation — the erect state

a | Upon sexual stimulation, normal erection occurs after nitric oxide (NO) release from non-adrenergic non-cholinergic (NANC) nerve fibres causes the activation of guanylyl cyclase, which raises the concentration of cyclic GMP, and after parasympathetic cholinergic nerve fibres release acetylcholine, which activates adenylyl cyclase to increase the levels of cyclic AMP. Signalling pathways that are triggered decrease intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  levels and lead to smooth muscle cell relaxation.

b | As the smooth muscle relaxes, blood is able to fill the lacunar spaces in the cavernosa, leading to compression of the subtunical venules, thereby blocking the venous outflow.

The process is reversed as cGMP is hydrolysed by phosphodiesterase type 5 (PDE5). ER, endoplasmic reticulum; InsP3, inositol trisphosphate; NOS, NO synthase; PtdIns (4,5) P2, phosphatidylinositol 4,5 bisphosphate (Yafi et al., 2016).

#### 2.1 Nonendocrine causes

#### Psychogenic factors related to ED

Stress, depression and anxiety are generally related to the inability to achieve and maintain an erection before or during sexual relations and are commonly associated with psychogenic ED. Thus, non-organic ED causes, such as psychogenic or adrenaline-mediated ED (noradrenaline-mediated or sympathetic-mediated ED) are relevant factors that should be considered in ED evaluation and management. This association is unsurprising, given that noradrenaline is the primary erectolytic (anti-erectile) neurotransmitter (McCabe & Althof, 2014).

#### Neurogenic

Neurogenic ED, caused by a nerve signalling deficit to corpora cavernosa, could be seconddary to several diseases such as spinal cord injury, multiple sclerosis, Parkinson's disease, lumbar disc disease, traumatic brain injury, radical pelvic surgery (radical prostatectomy, radical cystectomy, abdominoperineal resection) and diabetes. Upper motor neuron lesions (above spinal nerve T10) do not result in local changes in the penis but could inhibit the central nervous system (CNS)-mediated control of the erection. By contrast, sacral lesions (S2–S4 are typically responsible for reflexogenic erections) causing functionnal and structural alterations owing to the decreased innervation (Brackett et al., 2010). Such injuries reduce the smooth muscle NO availability. The apoptosis of smooth muscle and endothelial cells of the blood vessels, as well as upregulation of fibrogenetic cytokines leading to smooth muscle collagen deposition, promotes the changes that result in veno-occlusive dysfunction (venous leak) (Monica G Ferrini, Kovanecz, et al., 2006; Monica G Ferrini, Davila, et al., 2006; Monica G Ferrini et al., 2009; Leungwattanakij et al., 2003; John P Mulhall et al., 2008).

#### Vasculogenic

Vascular disease and endothelial dysfunction lead to ED through reduced blood inflow, arterial insufficiency or arterial stenosis. Vasculogenic ED is the most common cause of organic ED. The risk of developing vasculogenic ED is increased in men with hypertension (odds ratio (OR) of 3.04 for those on anti-hypertensive medication, and 1.35 for those not on medication), diabetes (OR 2.57) and dyslipidaemia (OR 1.83) (Bacon et al., 2006; Francis et al., 2007; Kupelian et al., 2010; Wei et al., 1994). Cigarette smoking has also been shown to increase the risk of ED (OR 1.4) (Bacon et al., 2006; Francis et al., 2007; McVary et al., 2001; (Brackett et al., 2010). Vasculogenic ED is secondary to the arterial wall changes (decreased elasticity) in response to the blood pressure increase. In addition, atherosclerosis related to diabetes, dyslipidaemia and/or cigarette smoking can lead to arterial stenosis and induce vascular injury. Hypoxia of corpora cavernosal can cause a decrease in prostaglandin E1 levels, which inhibit pro-fibrotic cytokines, such as transforming growth factor β1 (TGFβ1) (Moreland et al., 1995). These pro-fibrotic cytokines promote collagen deposition, replacing the smooth muscle and resulting in decreased penis elasticity (Moreland, 1998). Consequently, the ability of the cavernosa to compress the subtunical veins decreases, leading to corporal veno-occlusive dysfunction (A Nehra et al., 1996).

#### Iatrogenic

Radical pelvic surgery represents the most common iatrogenic cause of ED. Generally, these procedures could primarily induce neurogenic damage (cavernous nerve injury) and, in some cases, pudendal artery injury (Tal, Valenzuela, et al., 2009). Similarly, pelvic fractures could cause ED in an analogous manner, owing to nerve distraction injury and arterial trauma. Various medications have also been shown to be associated with ED development: thiazide diuretics and  $\beta$ -blockers, used in the treatment of hypertension are well-known associated with ED, but others, such as psychotherapeutics, anti-androgens, anti-ulcer drugs, opiates and digoxin, could also induce ED (Francis et al., 2007). However, whether the ED results directly from the medication itself or the underlying disease - for example, hypertension - is difficult to define. The Treatment of Mild Hypertension Study (TOMHS) compared five anti-hypertensive drugs with a placebo for quality-of-life modi-fycations (Grimm et al., 1997). Chlorthalidone (a diuretic drug used to treat hypertension) had the greatest effect on sexual function at 2 years after treatment, but the placebo achieved a similar result at 4 years. Accordingly, chlorthalidone may potentiate ED earlier in those who are likely to develop the condition later in life.

### 2.2 Endocrine causes

Androgens are considered the major hormonal regulator of penile development and physiology (Baskin et al., 1997; Boas et al., 2006). However, the role of testosterone replacement therapy in ED is controversial due to the discrepancies in the findings from clinical trials. In addition, hypogonadism and ED are common in ageing. The increasing association of ED and the progressive decline of androgen levels with ageing does not necessarily imply a causal link. Studies performed to understand the role of reduced testosterone on erectile function focused on androgen ablation - a model that cannot be easily translated to ED in humans- permitted to describe three sites of action for androgens: the nuclei in the CNS52, the spinal neurons and pelvic ganglia, and the genital tissues (Filippi et al., 2009; Vignozzi et al., 2007) (Isidori et al., 2014) (Fig. 5).



Figure 5: Levels of androgen action in the control of sexual response (Yafi et al., 2016)

Albeit part of the erectile response to testosterone is mediated through sexual desire, it has been also reported a direct role of testosterone on cavernous smooth muscle cells, involving NO, RHO-associated protein kinase (ROCK), PDE5 and the adrenergic response.

#### Effects on smooth muscle cells

All animal studies support the idea that castration (i.e. the reduction of testosterone levels) causes a rapid drop in intracavernous pressure, owing to both reduced arterial inflow and altered veno-occlusion during stimulated erections (Mills et al., 1998). Castration is indeed associated with a rapid reduction in neuronal nitric oxide synthase (nNOS) (Lugg et al., 1996) and pelvic ganglion activity (Giuliano et al., 1993). However, in hypogonadism and castration models, the effects of testosterone replacement on nNOS have been variable, with some studies revealing increased expression but unaltered activity while other showing no effect (Lugg et al., 1996; A M Traish et al., 1999). Studies carried out in animals treated with l-NG-nitroargininemethyl ester (l-NAME, a NOS inhibitor) revealed that androgens trigger an additional NO-independent mechanisms that still require intact cGMP generation to control veno-occlusion. (Reilly, Lewis, et al., 1997) As result, androgens require cGMP to produce an erection, which suggests that androgens modulate the erectile response through redundant mechanisms involving cGMP generation. Among these NOindependent targets, the ROCK pathway, (Sopko et al., 2014) contributes to tonic smooth muscle cell contraction via calcium sensitization. Hypogonadism has been shown to induce activation of ROCK1, which counteracts smooth muscle cell relaxation. However, hypogonadism does not activate ROCK2, which is increased in response to testosterone in endothelial cells (Liao et al., 2013). Additional studies are necessary to understand the role of androgens in ROCK-dependent modulation of erection. NO-independent, pro-erectile mechanisms of androgens also include regulation of expression of smooth muscle myosin isoforms (X.-H. Zhang et al., 2011) and sphingosine-1-phosphate (S1P) (di Villa Bianca et al., 2006; Ohmori et al., 2003) binding to its natural receptors: a family of G protein-coupled receptors that are widely expressed in the cardiovascular system. S1P receptor activation sustains constriction of smooth muscle cells via phospholipase C (which cleaves phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PtdIns (4,5) P2) into inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (Ins (1,4,5) P3), leading to increased Ca<sup>2+</sup>) and the ROCK pathways. In endothelial cells, F1P receptor activation triggers the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)-AKT pathway, enabling crosstalk between the ROCK and the endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) pathways. (X.-H. Zhang et al., 2011) The latter findings reinforce the beneficial role of androgens on several overlapping NO-independent pathways (F1P, PI3K-AKT and ROCK) favouring erectile response. Several studies in vitro, using animal and human tissues, have shown that PDE5 expression is upregulated by androgens (Morelli et al., 2004; A M Traish et al., 1999; X.-H. Zhang et al., 2005). However, recent studies have questioned this evidence, suggesting that low PDE5 in hypogonadism simply reflects the overall reduction in smooth muscle cell content (Yang et al., 2009). Indeed, androgen deprivation triggers apoptosis of smooth muscle cells, extracellular matrix deposition (A M Traish et al., 1999) and accumulation of lipid droplets in mesenchymal cells (especially in the subtunical region) contributing to impaired veno-occlusion (Abdulmaged M Traish et al., 2005). In general, cGMP levels, regulated by the activity of PDE5 (the primary enzyme involved in cGMP degradation), seem crucial for any direct (Morelli et al., 2004; A M Traish et al., 1999; X.-H. Zhang et al., 2005) or indirect (Andric et al., 2010) androgenic regulation within the penis (Mills et al., 1998). A recognized mechanism of action of testosterone is the regulation of  $\alpha$ 1-adrenergic responsiveness of smooth muscle cells (Reilly, Stopper, et al., 1997; A M Traish et al., 1999). Castration in animals has also been shown to be associated with a decreased density of NANC innervating fibres and reduced NANC-mediated relaxation in isolated corpora cavernosa strips (A M Traish et al., 1999). These data suggest an effect of testosterone on the postganglionic parasympathetic neurons, or even further upstream within the autonomic nervous system (Andrea M Isidori et al., 2014). In line with this hypothesis, the effects of castration on penile haemodynamics, including NOS activity, can be transiently reversed in vivo by short-term electrical stimulation of the cavernosal nerve (Lugg et al., 1996). Accordingly, androgens might be necessary to support adequate neuronal stimulation to the corpora cavernosa, maintaining tissue structural integrity; denervation, as can occur following prostate surgery, and castration share some histological similarities (Andrea M Isidori et al., 2014).

#### Hypogonadism

In the 1980s, Bancroft performed pivotal studies to discriminate central effects from peripheral effects of testosterone replacement therapy. In acute settings, erectile capacity in response to visual stimulation is less sensitive to androgen than sexual interest, fantasies and cognitive sexual activities (Bancroft & Wu, 1983). Androgen enhances the sexual response to sexual fantasy more than it enhances the response to visual stimuli, which has implications for the kind of sexual activity measured in the research setting. Experimental endogenous hypogonadism induced by gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) agonists (Gray et al., 2005) (Buena et al., 1993) revealed that at least 8 nM of testosterone is required for erectile function. However, some hypogonadal men retain near-normal sexual activity despite very low testosterone levels (Kwan et al., 1983). In young adults, the androgen dependency of erectile function is maintained at threshold values that are far below those required to maintain the function of other target organs (that is, <8 nM or 230 ng/dl). However, erectile function, despite low androgen levels, may not apply to elderly men who have comorbidities, possibly owing to changes in androgen receptor expression and activity. To match testosterone levels to an individual's own requirement, the concept of compensated or subclinical hypogonadism (Giannetta et al., 2012) has been introduced. In this setting, it is suggested that when testosterone declines from a previously higher level, a rise in the levels of luteinizing hormone might be a biomarker for insufficient androgenization (Giannetta et al., 2012; Tajar et al., 2010). Other evidence for the role of testosterone in ED derives from clinical trials on testosterone replacement therapy. The few available randomized clinical trials (RCT) addressing the roles of testosterone treatment in ED have been extensively reviewed, with the largest and most updated meta-analysis confirming significant beneficial effects on various domains of erectile function, but only in men with testosterone levels of less than 12 nM (345 ng/dl) at baseline (Corona et al., 2014). Regression and subgroup analyses emphasized the role of ageing as a possible moderator of responsiveness to testosterone in those with ED (Corona et al., 2014). Another relevant emerging aspect is the time course of testosterone effects (i.e., the length of treatment necessary to achieve the maximum result). A systematic review (Saad et al., 2011) and different RCTs (Giltay et al., 2010; Hackett et al., 2013; Isidori et al., 2015) revealed that although the effects on libido, ejaculation and sexual activity were apparent within just 2-3weeks of commencing treatment, the effects on erectile function may take up to 6-12months to be evident. Recently, the largest and longest trial addressing the effects of testosterone replacement therapy on subclinical atherosclerosis progression in older men showed no significant difference in IIEF score compared with the placebo at 18 months or 36 months after the start of treatment. However, ED was not an inclusion criterion for the trial, and the relatively high baseline total IIEF score suggests that only some of the participants had ED at enrolment (Basaria et al., 2015). Several studies have recently reported growing concerns regarding the safety of sex steroid replacement therapy. These studies questioned the physiological roles of the various hormones and purposefully sought to amplify some sort of 'hormonophobia' by exaggerating or misrepresenting safety concerns. (Morgentaler, 2014) However, leaving aside the controversies surrounding both the alarming (Finkle et al., 2014) and reassuring studies (Sharma et al., 2015) - contrasts that impose a risk-benefit evaluation before any treatment - it seems clear that these considerations neither apply to young adults with hypogonadism (Isidori et al., 2015) nor question the physiological role of testosterone in erectile function. Finally, little data have addressed the roles of other hormones in ED (Sansone et al., 2014). Indeed, possible roles have been documented for thyroid hormones, prolactin, growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor 1, dehydroepiandrosterone and oxytocin. Although these hormones play a role in the erection pathophysiology, their epidemiological impact is likely to be small and is awaiting confirmation. After testosterone, prolactin is the most altered hormone in men with sexual dysfunction; its main effect is to inhibit gonadotropin secretion to induce hypogonadism. Thus, prolactin should be considered for screening, together with testosterone and luteinizing hormone in men with ED.

#### Pelvic surgery and prostate cancer treatment

Pelvic surgery, especially for oncological disease- e.g., radical prostatectomy (RP) (Emanu et al., 2016), radical cystectomy (Modh et al., 2014) and colorectal surgery (Celentano et al., 2017)- may have a negative impact on erectile function and sexual health. The most relevant causal factor is a lesion occurring in the neurovascular bundles that control the complex mechanism of the cavernous erectile response, whose preservation (either partial or complete) during surgery eventually configures nerve-sparing (NS) approach (Walz et al., 2016). Therefore, surgery resulting in damage to the neurovascular bundles is responsible for ED, although NS approaches have been adopted over the last few decades. This approach is applicable to all types of surgery that are potentially harmful to erectile function, although, to date, only the surgical treatment of prostate cancer (PCa) shows enough scientific evidence supporting its potential pathophysiological association with ED (Capogrosso et al., 2020; Salonia et al., 2017). However, even non-surgical treatments of PCa (i.e., radiotherapy, or brachytherapy) can be associated with ED (Hunt et al., 2021; Nolsøe et al., 2021). The active surveillance for the treatment of PCa has been developed to avoid over-treatment of non-significant localised low-risk diseases, while limiting potential functional adverse effects, including ED. However, it has been suggested that also active surveillance has a detrimental impact on erectile function and sexual well-being (Fenton et al., 2018; Lardas et al., 2017; Martina Maggi et al., 2019). To date, some of the most robust data on PROMs (Phatients Reported Outcome Measures) including erectile function, comparing treatments for clinically localised PCa come from the Prostate Testing for Cancer and Treatment (ProtecT) trial, in which 1,643 patients were randomised to active treatment (either RP or RT) and active monitoring and were followed-up for 6 years (Donovan et al., 2016). Sexual function (including erectile function) and its effect on QoL (Quality of Life) were assessed with the Expanded Prostate Cancer Index Composite with 26 items (EPIC-26) instrument (Szymanski et al., 2010; Volz-Sidiropoulou et al., 2008). At baseline, 67% of men reported erections firm enough for sexual intercourse but this fell to 52% in the active monitoring group, 22% in the RT group, and 12% in the RP group, at 6months assessment. The worst trend over time was recorded in the RP group (with 21% of erections firm enough for intercourse after 3 years vs. 17% after 6 years). In the RT group, the percentage of men reporting erections firm enough for intercourse increased between 6 and 12 months, with a subsequent decrease to 27% at 6-year assessment. The percentage declined over time on a yearly basis in the active monitoring group, with 41% of men reporting erections firm enough for intercourse at 3 years and 30% at 6-year evaluations (Donovan et al., 2016). Radical prostatectomy (open, laparoscopic or robot-assisted) is a widely performed procedure with a curative intent for patients presenting with clinically localised intermediate- or high-risk PCa and a life expectancy of > 10 years based on health status and co-morbidity (Mottet et al., 2017). This procedure may lead to treatmentspecific sequelae affecting health-related QoL. Men undergoing RP (any technique) should be adequately informed before the operation that there is a significant risk of sexual changes other than ED, including decreased libido, changes in orgasm, anejaculation, Peyronie's-like disease, and changes in penile length. (Nolsøe et al., 2021; Salonia et al., 2017) These outcomes have become increasingly important with the more frequent diagnosis of PCa in both younger and older men. (H. J. Boyle et al., 2019; Salonia et al., 2012) Research has shown that 25-75% of men experience post-RP ED, (Sanda et al., 2008) even though these findings had methodological flaws; in particular, the heterogeneity of reporting and assessment of ED among the studies. (Capogrosso et al., 2020; Tal, Alphs, et al., 2009). Conversely, the rate of unassisted post-operative erectile function recovery ranged between 20 and 25% in most studies. These rates have not substantially improved or changed over the past 17 years, despite growing attention to post-surgical rehabilitation protocols and refinement of surgical techniques. (Capogrosso, Vertosick, et al., 2019; Schauer et al., 2015; Tal, Alphs, et al., 2009) Overall, patient age, baseline erectile function and surgical volume, with the consequent ability to preserve the neurovascular bundles, seem to be the main factors in promoting the highest rates of postoperative potency. (Khoder et al., 2015; Salonia et al., 2012, 2017; Sanda et al., 2008) Regardless of the surgical technique, surgeons' experience may clearly impact on post-operative erectile function outcome; in particular, when surgeons have a caseload greater than 25 radical prostatectomy cases per year or total cumulative experience of >1,000 prostatectomy cases results in better erectile function outcomes after RP (Ju et al., 2021). Patients being considered for nerve-sparing RP (NSRP) should ideally be potent pre-operatively (Salonia et al., 2012). The recovery time following surgery is of clinical importance in terms of postoperative recovery of erectile function. Available data confirm that post-operative erectile function recovery can occur up to 48 months after RP. (Glickman et al., 2009) Likewise, it has been suggested that post-operative therapy (any type) should be commenced as soon as possible after the surgical procedure, (Salonia et al., 2012; Sanda et al., 2008) although evidence suggests that the number of patients reporting the return of spontaneous erectile function has not increased. In terms of the effects of surgical interventions (e.g., robot-assisted RP [RARP] vs. other types of surgery), data are still conflicting. An early systematic review showed a significant advantage in favour of RARP in comparison with open retropubic RP in terms of 12-month potency rates, (Novara et al., 2012) without significant differences between laparoscopic RP and RARP. Some recent reports confirm that the probability of erectile function recovery is about twice as high for RARP compared with open RP (Stolzenburg et al., 2015). More recently, a prospective, controlled, non-randomised trial of patients undergoing RP in 14 Swedish centres comparing RARP versus open retropubic RP, showed a small improvement in erectile function after RARP (Haglind et al., 2015). Conversely, a randomised controlled phase 3 study of men assigned to open RP or RARP showed that the two techniques yielded similar functional outcomes at 12 weeks (Yaxley et al., 2016). More controlled prospective well-designed studies, with longer follow-ups, are necessary to determine if RARP is superior to open RP in terms of post-operative ED rates (Isgoren et al., 2014). To overcome the problem of heterogeneity in the assessment of erectile function, for which there is variability in terms of the PROMs used (e.g., International Index of Erectile Function [IIEF], IIEF-5, Expanded Prostate Cancer Index Composite with 26 items [EPIC 26], Sexual Health Inventory for Men, etc.) to measure potency or erectile function, the criteria used to define restoration of erectile function should be reevaluated utilising objective and validated thresholds (e.g., normalisation of scores or return to baseline erectile function) (Capogrosso et al., 2020). ED is also a common problem after both external beam radiation therapy (EBRT) and brachytherapy for PCa. A systematic review and meta-analysis including men treated with EBRT (65%), brachytherapy (31%) or both (4%) showed that the post-treatment prevalence of ED was 34% at 1 year and 57% at 5.5 years (Gaither et al., 2017; Stember & Mulhall, 2012). Similar findings have been reported for stereotactic radiotherapy with 26-55% of previously sexually functioning patients reporting ED at 5 years (Loi et al., 2019). Recently other modalities have emerged as potential therapeutic options in patients with clinically localised PCa, including whole gland and focal (lesion-targeted) treatments, to ablate tumours selectively while limiting sexual toxicity by sparing the neurovascular bundles. These include high-intensity focused US (HIFU), cryo-therapeutic ablation of the prostate (cryotherapy), focal padeliporfin-based vascular-targeted photodynamic therapy and focal radiation therapy (RT) by brachytherapy or CyberKnife ®. All these approaches have a less-negative impact on erectile function with many studies reporting a complete recovery at a one-year follow-up (Fallara et al., 2021). However, prospective randomised controlled studies are needed to compare the functional and oncological outcomes using different treatment modalities (Valerio et al., 2017; van der Poel et al., 2018).

## 3. Management of erectile dysfunction

### **3.1** Patient education - consultation and referrals

Educational intervention often represents the first approach to treat ED. It consists of informing patients on psychological and physiological processes subtending sexual response, discussing the expectations and needs of the patients and their sexual partner. It should also review the patient's and partner's understanding of ED, the results of diagnostic tests, and provide a rationale for treatment selection (Francesco Montorsi et al., 2010). This firstlevel approach prompts sexual satisfaction in ED patients (Frühauf et al., 2013). Patient and partner education is an essential part of ED management, (Hatzichristou et al., 2010; Francesco Montorsi et al., 2010) and may prevent misleading information that can be responsible for dysfunctional psychological processes underpinning ED.

## **3.2 Treatment options**

Currently, available evidence proposed a novel comprehensive therapeutic and decisionmaking algorithm for ED treatment (Fig. 6).





This newly developed treatment algorithm better tailor a personalised therapy, according to the invasiveness, tolerability and effectiveness of the different therapeutic options and patients' expectations. ED may be associated with modifiable or reversible risk factors, including lifestyle ones (Gupta et al., 2011). These factors may be modified either before, or at the same time as, specific therapies are used. Likewise, ED may be associated with concomitant and underlying conditions (e.g., endocrine disorders and metabolic disorders such as diabetes, and some cardiovascular diseases such as hypertension) which should always be well-controlled as the first step of any ED treatment (Hatzimouratidis et al., 2016). Several clinical potential benefits of lifestyle changes may be achieved in men with CV or metabolic disorders, such as diabetes or hypertension (Gupta et al., 2011; Moyad et al., 2004). ED can be treated successfully with current treatment options, but it cannot be cured, except for psychogenic ED, post-traumatic arteriogenic ED in young patients, and hormonal causes (e.g., hypogonadism) (Andrea M Isidori et al., 2014; Mario Maggi et al., 2013). Most men with ED are not treated with cause-specific therapeutic options. This results in a tailored treatment strategy that depends on invasiveness, efficacy, safety and cost, as well as patient preference (Francesco Montorsi et al., 2010). In this context, physician-patient (partner, if available) dialogue is essential throughout ED management. Interesting insights come from a recent systematic review that showed a consistent discontinuation rate for all available treatment options (4.4-76% for PDE5Is); 18.6-79.9% for intracavernous injections; 32-69.2% for urethral suppositories; and 30% for penile prostheses). Men's beliefs about ED treatment, therapeutic ineffectiveness, adverse effects, quality of men's intimate relationships and treatment costs are the most prevalent barriers to treatment actual use (Williams et al., 2021).

#### **3.2.1** Oral pharmacotherapy

Four potent selective PDE5 inhibitors (PDE5Is) have been approved by EMA for ED treatment (Table 1) (JinQiu Yuan et al., 2013).

<b>Table 1- Properties of available</b>	phosphodiesterase	type 5 inhibitors
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Drug	Trade name	Peak absorption post	Serum half-	Take on empty
name	(company)	ingestion (hours)	life (hours)	stomach?
Sildenafil <u>*</u>	Viagra (Pfizer)	1–2	3–5	Yes
Vardenafi	Levitra	1–2	3–5	Yes
l <sup>*</sup>	(GlaxoSmithKline)			
Tadalafil	Cialis (Lilly)	2–4	18	No
Avanafil	Stendra (Mitsubishi	0.5	6	No
	Tanabe)			

\*Consider taking 1–2 hours prior to a meal.

PDE5Is have been beneficial in correcting ED in a wide range of patients with varying aetiologies of sexual dysfunction. Sildenafil has been shown to improve erections, leading to successful intercourse in 63% of men with ED compared with 29% of men using a placebo. A study in 2001 showed that 59% of patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus were (Permpongkosol et al., 2016) able to have successful intercourse while taking sildenafil compared with only 14% of those using a placebo (Debruyne et al., 2017). In hypogonadal patients who have not responded to treatment with PDE5 inhibitors alone, recent studies have suggested that a combination of testosterone supplementation and a PDE5 inhibitor can improve erectogenic outcomes (Rastrelli et al., 2016). In men with PCa who have undergone nerve-sparing radical prostatectomy, erectile function declines while the caver-

nous nerves recover from the surgical trauma. Although data regarding the efficacy of penile rehabilitation in radical prostatectomy patients are mixed, the design of studies outside of the Pfizer-sponsored sildenafil study (Calof et al., 2005) is fraught with significant methodological limitations. Thus, so far, no study has defined the exact role of PDE5Is in penile rehabilitation in this patient population. Of note, one randomized placebo-controlled trial in men who have undergone radiotherapy for PCa has demonstrated greater presservation of sexual function in those treated with PDE5Is versus a placebo (P. Boyle et al., 2016). Since they are not initiators of erection, PDE5Is require sexual stimulation to facilitate an erection. Efficacy is defined as an erection, with rigidity sufficient for satisfactory intercourse (Eardley et al., 2010).

To date, the comparison of the most widely available PDE5Is (i.e., sildenafil, tadalafil, vardenafil, and avanafil) in terms of efficacy and/ or patient preference has not been performed in double- or triple-blind multicentre studies. Drug choice depends on intercourse frequency (occasional use or regular therapy, 3-4 times weekly) and patient's personal experience. Two different network meta-analyses demonstrated that ED patients who prioritise high efficacy must use sildenafil 50 mg whereas those who optimise tolerability should initially use tadalafil 10 mg and switch to Udenafil 100 mg if the treatment is not sufficient (however, Udenafil 100 mg is not EMA or US Food and Drug Administration approved and is not available in Europe) (L. Chen et al., 2015; Madeira et al., 2021). The results of another clinical trial have revealed that tadalafil 5 mg once daily may improve erectile function among men who have a partial response to on-demand PDE5I therapy (Burns et al., 2015).

In animal studies, it has been demonstrated that the chronic use of PDE5Is significantly improves or prevents the intracavernous structural alterations caused by age, diabetes or surgical damage (Behr-Roussel et al., 2005; M G Ferrini et al., 2007; Monica G Ferrini,

Davila, et al., 2006; Kovanecz et al., 2008; Vignozzi et al., 2006). An RCT has shown that there is no clinically beneficial effect on endothelial dysfunction measured by flow-mediated dilation with a daily tadalafil administration when compared to a placebo (Brock et al., 2016). In 2007, tadalafil 2.5 and 5 mg/day have been approved by EMA for ED treatment. Tadalafil, 5 mg once daily, is well-tolerated, effective, and provides an alternative to ondemand tadalafil for couples preferring spontaneous rather than scheduled sexual activities (Hartmut Porst et al., 2014). Moreover, there is no clinically significant difference between a tadalafil treatment administered continuously (once daily) vs. on-demand regimen (Brock et al., 2016). The appropriateness of the continuous use of a daily regimen should be reassessed periodically (Buvat et al., 2014; Hartmut Porst et al., 2014).

#### Safety issues for PDE5Is

#### (i) Cardiovascular safety

Several studies on patients receiving PDE5Is have demonstrated no increase in myocardial infarction rates. In addition, PDE5Is do not have an adverse effect on total exercise time or time-to-ischaemia during exercise testing in men with stable angina (Kloner et al., 2018; JinQiu Yuan et al., 2013). Both chronic and on-demand use of PDE5Is is well-tolerated with a similar safety profile. However, PDE5Is should be prescribed according to the 3rd Princeton Consensus Panel recommendations in patients with CVD or in those with high CV risk (Ajay Nehra et al., 2012). Coadministration of PDE5Is with antihypertensive agents (e.g., angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, angiotensin-receptor blockers, calcium blockers,  $\beta$ -blockers, and diuretics) can result in small additive decreases in blood pressure (Ajay Nehra et al., 2012). However, the adverse event profile of PDE5Is is not worsened by antihypertensive administration (Pickering et al., 2004).

#### (ii) Contraindication for the PDE5Is use

An absolute contraindication to PDE5Is is the use of any form of organic nitrate (e.g., nitroglycerine, isosorbide mononitrate, and isosorbide dinitrate) or NO donors (e.g., other nitrate preparations used to treat angina, as well as amyl nitrite or amyl nitrate such as "poppers" that are used for recreation). They result in cGMP accumulation and unpredictable falls in blood pressure and symptoms of hypotension. The duration of interaction between organic nitrates and PDE5Is depends upon the PDE5I and nitrate used. If a PDE5I is taken and the patient develops chest pain, nitroglycerine must be withheld for at least 24 hours if sildenafil (and probably also vardenafil) is used (half-life, 4 hours), or at least 48 hours if tadalafil is used (half-life, 6-17 hours) (G Corona et al., 2008; Gur et al., 2013; Kloner, 2004; Pickering et al., 2004; Swearingen et al., 2013). In addition, the concurrent use of PDE5Is and nicorandil is contraindicated. Nicorandil, a potassium channel opener, can promote vasorelaxation by increasing cyclic GMP levels (Satake et al., 1995). A possible explanation is the nitric oxide donating properties of nicorandil.

#### (iii) PDE5I interaction with $\alpha$ -Blocker interactions

Currently, Tadalafil 5 mg is the only licensed drug for both ED and lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) treatment showing an overall good efficacy in relieving urinary symptoms and improving erectile function (Gacci et al., 2016). Therefore, Tadalafil should be considered in patients with mild to moderate LUTS associated with ED either alone or in combination with alpha-blockers. However, considering that both drugs are vasodilators with a potential risk of hypotension, historically there has always been caution in the combination of alpha-blockers and PDE5I (any) because of the fear of possible cumulative effects on blood pressure, based on the evidence from some individual studies that reported the tolerability of combination therapy. (Adamou et al., 2020; Capogrosso et al., 2017; Moncada et al., 2004) However, a recent meta-analysis concluded that concomitant treatment with  $\alpha$ -blockers [both non-uroselective (e.g., terazosin and doxazosin) and uro-selective (e.g., alfuzosin, tamsulosin and silodosin) and PDE5Is may produce changes in haemodynamic parameters, but it does not increase the rate of adverse events due to hypotension (Satake et al., 1995).

#### Management of non-responders to PDE5Is

Two main reasons why patients fail to respond to a PDE5I are either incorrect drug use or lack of efficacy (McCullough et al., 2002). The management of non-responders depends upon identifying the underlying cause (Hatzichristou et al., 2005).

The most common causes of incorrect drug use are:

- i) failure to use adequate sexual stimulation. PDE5I action is dependent on the NO release by the parasympathetic nerve endings in the erectile tissue of the penis. The usual stimulus for NO release is sexual stimulation, and without adequate sexual stimulation (and NO release), the medication is ineffective. Furthermore, the reduced production of NO that occurs in diabetic patients due to peripheral neuropathy is thought to be the justification for the higher failure rate of PDE5Is in this category of patients;
- ii) failure to use an adequate dose. There is a large counterfeit market in PDE5Is. The amount of active drug in these medications varies enormously and it is important to check how and from which source the patient has obtained his medication;
- iii) failure to wait an adequate amount of time between taking the medication and attempting sexual intercourse. Oral PDE5Is take different times to reach maximal plasma concentrations (Cmax) (Debruyne et al., 2011; Forgue et al., 2006; Moncada et al., 2004; Nichols et al., 2002; Raymond C Rosen et al., 2004; Tsertsvadze et al., 2009; H. Wang et al., 2014). Although pharmacological activity is achieved at plasma levels below the maximal plasma concentration, there will be a period of time following oral ingestion of the medication during which the drug is ineffective. Even though all four drugs have an onset of action in some patients within 15-30 minutes of oral ingestion, (Debruyne et al., 2004; Tsertsvadze et al., 2006; Nichols et al., 2002; Raymond C Rosen et al., 2004; Tsertsvadze et al., 2009) most patients require a longer delay between taking the medication (Eric Chung & Broc, 2011; Francesco Montorsi, Padma-Nathan, et al., 2004; H Padma-Nathan et al., 2003; H. Wang et al., 2014). Absorption of both sildenafil and vardenafil can be delayed by a heavy, fatty meal (Rajagopalan et al., 2003). Absorption of tada-

lafil is less affected, and food has negligible effects on its bioavailability (Forgue et al., 2006). When avanafil is taken with a high-fat meal, the rate of absorption is reduced with a mean delay in Tmax of 1.25 hours and a mean reduction in Cmax of 39% (200 mg) (Kyle et al., 2013; H. Wang et al., 2014; R. Wang et al., 2012). It is possible to wait too long after taking the medication before attempting sexual intercourse. The half-life of sildenafil and vardenafil is ~4 hours, suggesting that the normal window of efficacy is 6-8 hours following drug ingestion, although responses following this time period are recognised. The half-life of avanafil is 6-17 hours. Tadalafil has a longer half-life of ~17.5 hours, so the window of efficacy is longer at ~36 hours. Data from uncontrolled studies suggest that patient education can help salvage an apparent non-responder to a PDE5I (Gruenwald et al., 2006; Hatzichristou et al., 2005; Park et al., 2013a, 2013b; Hartmut Porst et al., 2013). After emphasising the importance of dose, timing, and sexual stimulation to the patient, erectile function can be effectively restored following re-administration of the relevant PDE5I (Gruenwald et al., 2006; Hatzichristou et al., 2005; Park et al., 2013b). A systematic review has addressed the association between genetic polymorphism, especially those encoding endothelial nitric oxide synthase, and the variability in response to PDE5Is (Mostafa et al., 2020). Similar recent data have suggested that response to sildenafil treatment is also dependent on polymorphism in the PDE5A gene, which encodes the principal cGMP-catalysing enzyme in the penis, regulating cGMP clearance, and it is the primary target of sildenafil (Azevedo et al., 2017; Lacchini et al., 2018; Marchal-Escalona et al., 2016).

#### 3.2.2 Topical/Intraurethral alprostadil

The vasoactive agent alprostadil administration can be performed intraurethrally using a cream that includes a permeation enhancer to facilitate absorption of alprostadil (200 and 300 µg) via the urethral meatus (Anaissie & Hellstrom, 2016; Rooney et al., 2009). Although clinical evidence is still limited, the treatment significantly improves the outcome in mild-to-severe ED patients (Harin Padma-Nathan & Yeager, 2006). In addition, alprostadil efficacy can be increased by direct delivery within the urethral meatus (Cai et al., 2019). Adverse effects of topical alprostadil include penile erythema, penile burning, and pain that usually resolve within 2 hours of application. Systemic adverse effects are rare. The second delivery method is by intra-urethral insertion of a specific formulation of alprostadil (125-1000 µg- initial recommended dose 500 µg) in a medicated pellet (MUSE<sup>TM</sup>) (Suarez-Ibarrola et al., 2020). Erections sufficient for intercourse are achieved in 30-65.9% of patients (Costa & Potempa, 2012; J P Mulhall et al., 2001; H Padma-Nathan et al., 1997). The application of a constriction ring at the root of the penis may improve efficacy (Costa & Potempa, 2012; J P Mulhall et al., 2001). The most common adverse events are local pain (29-41%) and dizziness with possible hypotension (1.9-14%). Penile fibrosis and priapism are rare (< 1%). Urethral bleeding (5%) and urinary tract infections (0.2%) are adverse events related to the mode of administration. Efficacy rates are significantly lower than for intracavernous pharmacotherapy, (Shabsigh et al., 2000) with ~30% adherence to long-term therapy. Intraurethral pharmacotherapy provides an alternative to intracavernous injections in patients who prefer a less-invasive, although less-efficacious treatment.

#### **3.2.3** Shockwave therapy

In the last decade, LI-shockwave therapy (SWT) has been increasingly proposed as a treatment for vasculogenic ED, being the only available option that might offer a cure that represents the most desired outcome for ED patients (Capogrosso, Frey, et al., 2019; Eric Chung & Cartmill, 2015; Fode et al., 2017; Gruenwald et al., 2012, 2013; Hisasue et al., 2016; Kitrey et al., 2016; Olsen et al., 2015; Yoram Vardi et al., 2010). LI-SWT has shown a beneficial effect on patient-reported erectile function in several single-arm trials. However, data from prospective randomised trials are conflicting, especially because of the heterogeneity among shockwave generators (i.e., electrohydraulic, electromagnetic, piezoelectric and electro-pneumatic); type of shockwaves delivered (i.e., focused, linear, semifocused and unfocused); set-up parameters (e.g., energy flux density and number of pulses per session) and treatment protocols (i.e., duration of treatment, number of sessions per week, total number of shockwave pulses delivered and penile sites of application) (Hartmut Porst, 2021; Sokolakis & Hatzichristodoulou, 2019). In a recent trial trying to assess the best treatment parameters, no significant differences were observed between various energy flux density levels although a 0.10 mJ/mm<sup>2</sup> seems to perform slightly better than lower energies (Kalyvianakis & Hatzichristou, 2017). Several studies have suggested that LI-SWT can significantly improve the outcome in mild vasculogenic ED patients. However, the improvement appears modest and the rates of patients reporting a satisfactory improvement range between 40-80% (Capogrosso, Frey, et al., 2019; Sokolakis & Hatzichristodoulou, 2019). Few studies have shown an improvement in penile haemodynamic parameters after LI-SWT, but the clinical meaning of this improvement remains unclear (Kalyvianakis & Hatzichristou, 2017; Sokolakis & Hatzichristodoulou, 2019). Likewise, LI-SWT could ameliorate erection quality also in severe ED patients either PDE5Is nonresponders (Amado Bechara et al., 2016; Kitrey et al., 2016; Vinay et al., 2021) or inadequate responders (Lu et al., 2017). The treatment effect is evident starting from 1-3 months after treatment completion, with a subsequent progressive decrease of the achieved benefit in terms of erectile function over time, although some effects could be still detected up to 5 years after treatment (Eric Chung & Cartmill, 2021; Kalyvianakis & Hatzichristou, 2017; Sokolakis & Hatzichristodoulou, 2019). Recently, the LI-SWT impact has been also tested for penile rehabilitation after radical prostatectomy in two randomised trials showing only a modest advantage compared to conventional PDE5Is (Baccaglini et al., 2020; Ladegaard et al., 2021). Large prospective RCTs and long-term follow-up studies are needed to assess the LI-SWT effectiveness for ED and to define the correct treatment protocols (Campbell et al., 2019; Fojecki et al., 2017).

#### **3.2.4** Psychosocial intervention and therapy

Different psychosocial approaches including sexual skills training, marital therapy, psychosexual education (Frühauf et al., 2013) and Cognitive and Behavioural Therapy (CBT group or couple format), are recommended to treat dysfunctional cognitive and behavioural patterns influencing ED (Brotto et al., 2016). In particular, several CBT techniques aim to identify triggers responsible for erectile difficulties, restructure dysfunctional thinking styles, learn coping skills to deal with erectile difficulties and emotional symptoms, improve communication skills with the partner, and relapse prevention. The CBT approach combined with medical treatment for ED is considered an optimal procedure (Dewitte et al., 2021). Moreover, there is preliminary evidence supporting the role of mindfulness-based therapy for ED and associated outcomes (Bossio et al., 2018).
## 3.2.5 Hormonal treatment

Both primary testicular failure and secondary pituitary/hypothalamic causes (e.g., a functional pituitary tumour resulting in hyperprolactinaemia) result in testosterone deficiency (Maggi et al., 2013; Tajar et al., 2012).

Men with low or low-normal testosterone levels and related sexual desire, erectile function and sex-life dissatisfaction, when clinically indicated, can be treated with testosterone therapy (intramuscular, transdermal, or oral) (Rizk et al., 2017).

## 3.2.6 Vacuum erection devices

Corpus cavernosum engorgement can be passively achieved with vacuum erection device (VED) with a constrictor ring placed at the penis base to retain blood within the corpus. The efficacy of this strategy on erections satisfactory for intercourse is as high as 90%, and satisfaction rates range between 27% and 94%. Pain, inability to ejaculate, petechiae, bruising, and numbness represent the most common adverse events (J Yuan et al., 2010). VED is contraindicated in patients with bleeding disorders or on anticoagulant therapy (Lewis & Witherington, 1997; Trost et al., 2016). VED can be recommended in well-informed older patients with infrequent sexual intercourse and co-morbidity requiring non-invasive, drug-free management of ED (L A Levine & Dimitriou, 2001; Pajovic et al., 2017; J Yuan et al., 2010).

### 3.2.7 Intracavernous injections therapy

The first medical treatment of ED was the intracavernous administration of vasoactive drugs (Eardley et al., 2010; Hartmut Porst et al., 2013). These vasoactive agents injected directly into the corpora cavernosa via a small needle, include prostaglandin E1, papaverine and phentolamine (and sometimes atropine), which work alone or in combination to

elicit an erection. The intracavernous injections show a high success rate (85%) (Coombs et al., 2012; Shabsigh et al., 2000).

Current available drugs, that can be used alone or in combination, taking advantage of the different modes of action as well as alleviating adverse effects by using lower concentrations of each drug, are:

- Papaverine (20-80 mg) was the first oral drug used for intracavernous injections. It is most commonly used in combination therapy because of its high incidence of adverse effects as monotherapy. Papaverine is currently not licensed for the treatment of ED.
- Phentolamine has been used in combination therapy to increase efficacy. As monotherapy, it produces a poor erectile response.
- Alprostadil (Caverject<sup>TM</sup>, Edex/Viridal<sup>TM</sup>) was the first and only drug approved for the intracavernous treatment of ED. Intracavernous alprostadil is most efficacious as monotherapy at a dose of 5-40 µg (40 µg may be offered off-label in some European countries). The erection appears after 5-15 minutes and lasts according to the dose injected, but with significant heterogeneity among patients. Efficacy rates for intracavernous alprostadil of > 70% have been found in the general ED population, as well as in patient subgroups (e.g., men with diabetes or CVD), with reported satisfaction rates of 87-93.5% in patients and 86-90.3% in partners after the injections (Eardley et al., 2010; Hartmut Porst et al., 2013). Complications of intracavernous alprostadil include penile pain (50% of patients reported pain only after 11% of total injections), excessively prolonged undesired erections (5%), priapism (1%), and fibrosis (2%) (Eardley et al., 2010; Lakin et al., 1990; Hartmut Porst et al., 2013). Pain is usually self-limited after prolonged use and it can be alleviated with the addition of sodium bicarbonate or local anaesthesia (Eardley et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Rajfer, 1993; Hartmut Porst et al., 2010; Moriel & Ra

2013). Cavernosal fibrosis (from a small haematoma) usually clears within a few months after the temporary discontinuation of the injection programme. However, tunical fibrosis suggests the early onset of Peyronie's disease and may indicate stopping intracavernous injections indefinitely. Systemic adverse effects are uncommon. The most common is mild hypotension, especially when using higher doses. Contraindications include men with a history of hypersensitivity to alprostadil, men at risk of priapism, and men with bleeding disorders. Despite these favourable data, drop-out rates of 41-68% have been reported for intracavernous pharmacotherapy, (Eardley et al., 2010; Hartmut Porst et al., 2013; Ruchira Gupta, Jill Kirschen, Robert C. Barrow, n.d.; Sundaram et al., 1997) with most dropouts occurring within the first 2-3 three months. In a comparative study, alprostadil monotherapy had the lowest discontinuation rate (27.5%) compared to overall drug combinations (37.6%), with an attrition rate after the first few months of therapy, of 10% per year. Reasons for discontinuation included desire for a permanent mode of therapy (29%), lack of a suitable partner (26%), poor response (23%) (especially among early drop-out patients), fear of needles (23%), fear of complications (22%), and lack of spontaneity (21%) (Duncan et al., 2019; H Porst et al., 1998; Y Vardi et al., 2000).

Other drugs, such as vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), NO donors (linsidomine), forskolin, potassium channel openers, moxisylyte or calcitonin gene-related peptide, are usually combined with the main drugs (Buvat et al., 1998; J P Mulhall et al., 1997). However, most combinations are not standardized formulations and show a limited availability worldwide. The current available intracavernous injection therapies based on the combination of different drugs are:

- Bimix, Trimix: papaverine (7.5-45 mg) plus phentolamine (0.25-1.5 mg) (also known as Bimix), and papaverine (8-16 mg) plus phentolamine (0.2-0.4 mg) plus alprostadil (10-20 µg) (also known as Trimix), have been widely used with improved efficacy rates, although they have never been licensed for ED (A Bechara et al., 1997; Meinhardt et al., 1994). Trimix has the highest efficacy rates, reaching 92%; this combination has similar adverse effects as alprostadil monotherapy, but a lower incidence of penile pain due to lower doses of alprostadil. However, fibrosis is more common (5-10%) when papaverine is used (depending on the total dose).
- Invicorp<sup>TM</sup>: Vasoactive intestinal peptide (25 μg) plus phentolamine mesylate (1-2 mg Invicorp), currently licensed in Scandinavia, is a combination of two active components with complementary modes of action.

Several clinical studies have revealed that the drug combination is effective for intracavernous injections in > 80% of men with ED, including non-responders to other therapies and shows a low incidence of penile pain and a trascurable priapism risk (Dinsmore & Wyllie, 2008). The combination of intracavernous injections has no effects in 5-10% of patients. The sildenafil combination with intracavernous injection of the triple combination regimen may rescue as many as 31% of patients who do not respond to the triple combination alone (McMahon et al., 1999). However, combination therapy is related to an increased incidence of side effects in 33% of patients. This strategy can be considered in seleted patients before proceeding to a penile implant.

### 3.2.8 Novel therapies for ED

Currently, innovative vasoactive agents, trophic factors, stem cell therapy and gene therapy have been proposed as potential novel strategies for ED treatment. Among trophic factors, intracavernous injection of platelet-rich plasma (PRP) has been recently investigated in several prospective and retrospective trials (Banno et al., n.d.; Chalyj et al., 2015; M. Epifanova et al., 2020; Matz et al., 2018; Poulios et al., 2021). The regenerative PRP effect is deemed to be exerted through growth factors such as VEGF, EGF, IGF-1, PDGF and FGF that are the highly concentrated into the platelets. These factors may be responsible for angiogenesis stimulation and stem cell recruitment (Oudelaar et al., 2019). In addition, stem cell therapy has been recently proposed as a promising approach for restorative ED treatment (Lokeshwar et al., 2020). Further investigation in large-scale, blinded, placebocontrolled randomised studies are strongly needed to achieve adequate evidence-based and clinically-reliable recommendation grades (Maya V Epifanova et al., 2020; J. H. Kim et al., 2016; Matz et al., 2019; D. P. Patel et al., 2019; Scott et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2018). Preclinical studies have shown a neuro-regenerative effect and an improved penile vascularrisation in both cavernous nerve injury and diabetic rat-model (Alkandari et al., 2022). To date, several clinical trials, one randomised placebo controlled-trial, (Poulios et al., 2021) two prospective randomised trials, (Chalyj et al., 2015) two prospective cohorts (M. Epifanova et al., 2020; Oudelaar et al., 2019) and two retrospective studies (Banno et al., n.d.; Matz et al., 2018) demonstrated favourable outcomes of PRP injections for ED treatment (Alkandari et al., 2022). In the only randomised placebo-controlled trial, 60 patients with mild to moderate vasculogenic ED were randomised to receive two injections of 10 mL PRP (n=30) or placebo (n=30). (Poulios et al., 2021) At 1, 3 and 6-month follow-ups, the rate of patients reporting an MCID (minimal clinically important differences) improvement in the IIEF-EF score was significantly higher in the treatment group, with 69% achieving MCID 6 months after PRP compared to 27% in the placebo group (p < 0.001). IIEF-EF scores improved by a mean of 2.7 points at 1 month and 3.9 points at 6-month assessment after treatment. Regarding safety, the mean VAS score was higher as compared with the placebo (2.6 vs. 2.2, respectively, p = 0.008) but no haemorrhagic events or other side effects were reported (Poulios et al., 2021). Despite these encouraging results, the available evidence is still insufficient to provide a recommendation regarding the use of PRP for ED treatment in clinical practice. Indeed, current studies are limited by the low number of patients included (ranging from 10-100), the lack of placebo comparison (except for 1 small RCT) and the heterogeneity in terms of the modality of PRP preparation. The concentration of platelets and growth factors could vary according to the system used for preparation (Mazzucco et al., 2009) and there is a lack of consensus concerning the optimal platelet concentration as well as the need for combining PRP with activating agents to maximise the growth factors release (Alkandari et al., 2022; Mazzucco et al., 2009).

### 3.2.9 Surgical management

Oral and vacuum erection treatment represent the first- and second-line management choice for ED patients. However, these therapeutic options often fail, show adverse effects or have contraindications (i.e., ED and penile fibrosis secondary to Peyronie disease; priapism or severe infections; genital or pelvic trauma). Therefore, surgery is the only strategy to treat ED. Penile revascularization and penile prosthesis have been described below.

### Penile revascularization

Penis revascularization has been developed to anastomose the inferior epigastric artery to either the deep dorsal vein or the dorsal artery, to increase penile vascular inflow and reduce venous outflow. Currently, this strategy is recommended for young men (<55 years) that are non-smokers, not diabetic, and showing isolated stenosis at the segment of the internal pudendal artery without a concomitant venous leak. In young patients with perineal or pelvic trauma, penile revascularisation has a success rate of 60-70% in the long-term (Sohn et al., 2013; Trost et al., 2016). Corporeal veno-occlusive dysfunction is contra-indicated to revascularisation and should be excluded by dynamic infusion cavernosometry or cavernosography.

#### **Penile prostheses**

The penile prosthesis implantation is applied for patients that need a definitive therapy, or patients that are not suitable for different drugs or do not respond to pharmacological therapies (Fig. 7) (Antonini et al., 2016).



Figure 7: Penile prostheses (Yafi et al., 2016)

Frequently, men treated with penile prosthesis implantation show an organic ED cause, such as diabetes, vascular disease, previous pelvic surgery/trauma and Peyronie's disease (Bajic et al., 2020) (Muneer et al., 2020). The mean duration of ED symptoms before surgical intervention ranges from 3-6 six years (Bajic et al., 2020). Currently, available penile implants are inflatable (two- and three-piece) and semi-rigid devices (malleable, mechanical and soft flexible) (Casabé et al., 2016; Hellstrom et al., 2010; Laurence A Levine et al., 2016; Montague, 2011; Salonia et al., 2012). Semi-rigid prostheses result in a firm penis, that can be manually placed in an erect or flaccid state and offer the advantage of a simple implant technique, as well as easy use for the patient (Hellstrom et al., 2010; Laurence A Levine et al., 2016; Montague, 2011; Salonia et al., 2012). However, an unnatural persistent erection and reduced concealability represent disadvantages (Montague, 2011; John J Mulcahy et al., 2004). Penile prosthesis implantation is performed by two surgical approaches: peno-scrotal and infrapubic (E Chung et al., 2013; Laurence A Levine et al., 2016; Montague, 2011; John J Mulcahy et al., 2004). The peno-scrotal approach has been suggested to provide excellent exposure; afford proximal crural exposure, avoid dorsal nerve injury, and permit direct visualisation of pump placement. However, with this approach, the reservoir is either placed blindly into the retropubic space, which can result in visceral injury in patients with a history of major pelvic surgery (mainly radical cystictomy) or a separate incision in the abdomen is placed under direct vision. A recent systematic review comparing the satisfaction and complication rates of the different surgical approaches has shown that there is no specific advantage between the two, but rather it is recommended that surgeons have knowledge of both techniques and are capable of tailoring the incision strategy for complex cases (Palmisano et al., 2018). Revision surgery is associated with poorer outcomes and may be more challenging. Regardless of the indication, prosthesis implantation has one of the highest satisfaction rates (92-100% in patients and 91-95% in partners) among the treatment options for ED with appropriate counselling. (Chierigo et al., 2019; E Chung et al., 2013; Dewitte et al., 2021; Falcone et al., 2013; Hellstrom et al., 2010; Henry, Brinkman, et al., 2012; Laurence A Levine et al., 2016; Lux et al., 2007; Natali et al., 2008; Otero et al., 2017; Salonia et al., 2012) In patients with favourable oncological prognosis after RP for PCa, the penile prosthesis implantation to treat ED, and a male sling or artificial urinary sphincter implantation to hold stress urinary incontinence is effective and durable (Hellstrom et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011, 2013; Salonia et al., 2012; Segal et al., 2013). After penile implant surgery, sexuality and sexual well-being can be improved by psychosexual counselling in both patients and partners (Pisano et al., 2015). Infection and mechanical failure represent the main penile prosthesis implantation complications. Technical improvement of the commonly employed prostheses (e.g., AMS 700CX/CXR<sup>TM</sup> and Titan Zero degree<sup>TM</sup>) resulted in a mechanical failure rate of < 5% 5 years of follow-up (C. C. Carson et al., 2000; Hellstrom et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 1999).

In the last few decades, several pieces of evidence suggests that the penile prosthesis risk of infection has reduced with device improvement and surgical expertise (Christodoulidou & Pearce, 2016). A reduction of the infection rates to 2-3% can be reached by careful surgical techniques with appropriate antibiotic prophylaxis against both Gram-positive and

Gram-negative bacteria in low-risk patients (Eric Chung et al., 2018; Mahon et al., 2020; Mandava et al., 2012; Trost et al., 2013). A further reduction of the infection rate to 1-2% can be obtained by implanting an antibiotic-impregnated prosthesis (AMS Inhibizone<sup>TM</sup>) or hydrophilic-coated prosthesis (Coloplast Titan<sup>TM</sup>) (C. C. 3rd Carson et al., 2011; Darouiche et al., 2013; Mandava et al., 2012; Serefoglu et al., 2012; Zargaroff et al., 2014). Additionally, infection risk can be further decreased by using coated prostheses, performing prolonged post-operative antibiotics (> 24 hours), treating the skin with chlorhexidine alcohol, and applying surgical techniques that avoid prolonged wound exposure and reduce skin contact (i.e., no-touch technique) (Dropkin & Kaufman, 2021; Pineda & Burnett, 2016). Identification and pre-treatment of patients who are colonised with nasal Staphylococcus aureus with mupirocin and chlorhexidine prior to surgery have been shown to reduce the incidence of postoperative surgical site infection from 4.4% to 0.9% in a placebo-controlled randomised trial (Bode et al., 2010). Higher-risk patients include those undergoing revision surgery, or with impaired host defences (immunosuppression, diabetes mellitus, or spinal cord injury) or with penile corporal fibrosis (Hatzimouratidis et al., 2012; Hellstrom et al., 2010; Henry, Donatucci, et al., 2012; Laurence A Levine et al., 2016; Laurence A Levine & Burnett, 2013; Trost et al., 2013). Diabetes mellitus is a relevant risk factor for penile prostheses infection. It is debated if lowering this risk by optimising glycaemic control before surgery or excluding diabetic patients from penile prostheses implantation (Lipsky et al., 2019). Unfortunately, there are no RCTs determining the ideal and/or correct threshold of glycated haemoglobin that is acceptable prior to implant surgery in diabetic patients (Canguven et al., 2018). Recently, it has been demonstrated that vancomycin + gentamicin treatment of men with diabetes who received a Coloplast Titan<sup>™</sup> implant is effective to prevent postoperative infection and subsequent explanation and revision (Cihan et al., 2009; Towe et al., 2020). Infection requires removal of the prosthesis and antibiotic administration. Alternatively, removal of the infected device with immediate salvage and replacement with a new prosthesis has been described using a wash-out protocol with successful salvages achieved in > 80% of cases (Gross et al., 2016; Henry, Donatucci, et al., 2012; J J Mulcahy, 2000; Trost et al., 2013). The majority of revisions are secondary to mechanical failure and combined erosion or infection (Pineda & Burnett, 2016; Serefoglu et al., 2012). Ninety-three percent of cases are successfully revised, providing functioning penile prosthesis (C. C. 3rd Carson et al., 2011; Habous et al., 2016; Laurence A Levine et al., 2016; Serefoglu et al., 2012; Trost et al., 2013).

There is sufficient evidence to recommend this approach in patients not responding to lessinvasive treatments due to its high efficacy, safety and satisfaction rate (Akakpo et al., 2017). However, there are no studies comparing the different manufacturers' implants, demonstrating the superiority of one implant type over others (Atri et al., 2020).

# 4. Exploring the relationship between obstructive sleep apnoea and erectile dysfunction: a cross sectional clinical study

Obstructive Sleep Apnoea (OSA) is a frequent disease caused by episodes of partial or total airway obstruction during the sleep resulting in hypoxia, poor sleep quality and narcolepsy. Over 100 million people are estimated to be affected worldwide, with a prevalence in the range of 9-38% (Benjafield et al., 2019; Y. Zhang et al., 2019). OSA is capable to exert a profoundly negative effect on the quality of life (Stepnowsky et al., 2019; İrer et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2016), and it is also associated with obesity, increasing age, and male gender (Gabbay & Lavie, 2012; Hull et al., 1999; Jehan et al., 2017, 2018). Furthermore, patients with OSA are frequently diagnosed with diabetes, hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, and sexual dysfunctions (Bonsignore et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2020). Although OSA cannot be included among the well-established causes of ED, conclusive evidence indicates that patients with OSA are at higher risk of ED (Manfredi et al, 2022; C.-M. Chen et al., 2015; Hoyos et al., 2015; Kellesarian et al., 2018; Romero-Otero et al., 2021; Sperlongano et al., 2014), while it is noteworthy that treatment with continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) is associated with an improved erectile function (Li et al., 2010; Pascual et al., 2018). The exact pathogenic mechanisms that make patients with OSA at higher risk of sexual dysfunctions remain elusive, although several hypotheses have been made (Kalejaiye et al., 2017) (Hoyos et al., 2015). Comorbidities that are prevalent both in patients with ED and OSA, such as diabetes, hypertension and metabolic syndrome, may contribute to the onset of both conditions, e.g., by increasing systemic inflammation levels and causing vascular damage (Bouloukaki et al., 2014; Hoyos et al., 2015; Kellesarian et al., 2018). Decreased nocturnal erections during the rapid eye movement (REM) periods, increased adrenergic tone and hormonal imbalances can also contribute to ED pathogenesis in OSA patients (Andersen et al., 2010). Patients at higher risk of OSA can be identified using several validated questionnaires such as the Berlin questionnaire (BQ), STOP-Bang questionnaire and the Epworth Sleepiness Scale (ESS) (Amra et al., 2018; Pereira et al., 2013). Polysomnography (PSG) represents the gold standard for the diagnosis of OSA, but it is expensive, time-consuming and available only in referral centers (Gregório et al., 2011). On this basis, overnight ambulatory respiratory polygraphy (RP) is more commonly used, as it only requires a portable monitoring and recording device, which makes it possible to use it at home (Berry et al., 2012).

This clinical study was conceived to assess the prevalence and evaluate the clinical characteristics of ED in a cohort of patients with a diagnosis of OSA. We also explored the relationship between polygraphic and endoscopy parameters, with erectile function scores, with the intent to gather evidence regarding the etiopathogenetic links between ED and OSA.

## 4.1 Methods

This prospective observational study was approved by the Research Ethics Board of the University of Naples "Federico II" (n. 316/20) and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki Guidelines. Informed consent was obtained from all patients. We evaluated 133 consecutive male patients complaining of snoring, sleepiness, morning dry mouth, and tiredness compatible with OSA between January 2018 and November 2019 (Y. Zhang et al., 2019). We excluded patients under the age of 18; those with psychiatric, neurological, hepatic, pulmonary, oncological, or endocrinological diseases (other than diabetes); and those with previous diagnosis and treatment for ED. This study excluded also patients with cardiovascular diseases due to their association with ED (Terentes-Printzios et al., 2022). Furthermore, patients with chronic liver disease were excluded due to an altered hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis, which may influence erectile function (Burra et al., 2010). Full medical history, complete ear nose and throat evaluation and sexual hormonal assessment (serum total testosterone (T), prolactin (PRL), luteinizing hormone (LH), and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH)) were obtained from all subjects at the time of the enrolment in the study. C-reactive protein (CRP), albumin, total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein (LDL), high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol and triglycerides were assessed as well. We measured the height and weight of all patients, calculating their Body Mass Index (BMI) based on weight (Kg)/height (m). The Epworth Sleepiness Scale (ESS) and the 5-International Index of Erectile Function (IIEF-5) questionnaires were then administered to patients. An eight-item questionnaire, the ESS (range 0-24), assesses the likelihood of falling asleep under different circumstances, with a cut-off of  $\geq 10$  points indicating excessive daytime sleepiness (Trimmel et al., 2018; Vignatelli et al., 2003). International Index of Erectile Function (IIEF) 5 is an abridged five-item version of the 15-item International Index of Erectile Function, designed to assess erectile function over the previous four weeks. Erectile dysfunction is indicated by a score of 21 (D'Elia et al., 2012; R.C. Rosen et al., 1999).

All subjects underwent overnight ambulatory RP (Weinmann SOM-NOlab 2, Hamburg, Germany) in accordance with the American Academy of Sleep Medicine Guidelines (Berry et al., 2012). Electrocardiogram, thoracic and abdominal excursion, oral and nasal airflow by thermistor, breath sounds, body position, and oxygen saturation by pulse oximeter were all recorded. Our evaluations included the Apnea-Hypopnea Index (AHI), Oxygen Desaturation Index (ODI), the frequency of events per night, mean arterial blood oxygen saturation (SaO2), and sleep time below 90% SaO2 (SatO2-nadir). Berry et al. (2012) determined apnoea severity based on AHI values: mild (AHI 5–15), moderate (AHI 16–30) or severe (AHI >30). At RP, an AHI greater than 5 was diagnosed as OSA. Successively, drug-induced sleep endoscopy (DISE) was performed, in order to evaluate potential surgical treatment candidates and clinical mismatches. DISE was performed employing a flexible rhinopharyngolaryngoscope (Storz, Tuttlingen, Germany) in the operating theatre using a propofol target-controlled infusion (TCI) to achieve a complete evaluation of the upper airways (UA) collapse. Bispectral Index (BIS) was used to check the level of sedation during DISE. Blinded VOTE classification scoring was used for classifying the type of obstruction detected at DISE. The VOTE classification represents a method to assess the type of obstruction, based on the collapse and closure of the airway of different oropharyngeal structures (velum, oropharynx, tongue base, epiglottis) (Kezirian et al., 2011).

IBM SPSS software was used for statistical analysis (version 25, IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA). Continuous variables were described as means and standard deviations, while categorical variables were described as frequencies and percentages. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test and parametric tests were used to determine whether the data were normal. In order to assess sample size, a power analysis was conducted based on the assumption that 50% of OSA patients have erectile dysfunction, according to alpha = 0.005 and beta = 0.2 (Feng et al., 2022; Rosner, 2015). In relation to IIEF-5, every variable was correlated using Pearson's correlation coefficient. To compare continuous variables between patients with and without ED, an independent-sample t-test was performed, while a Chi-Square test was performed for categorical variables. IIEF-5 scores were compared using a two-way ANOVA. The IIEF-5 score was then predicted using univariate and multivariate linear regression based on variables that showed statistically significant correlations. A p-value of 0.05 was considered significant.

# 4.2 **Results**

According to polygraphic parameters, 80 male patients with OSA met the inclusion criteria and were enrolled (Figure 1).



Figure 1Patients included in the study. COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary<br/>disease; ED, Erectile dysfunction; OSA, obstructive sleep apnoea

16 (20%) patients presented a mild OSA (AHI 5–15),35 (44%) a moderate OSA (AHI 15– 30), and 29 (36%) a severe OSA (AHI >30). 60% of patients (48/80), based on IIEF-5  $\leq$ 21 (mean score 18.15 ± 5.63 SD), were diagnosed with ED. Laboratory data and RP parameters are reported in Table 1.

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	54,99	9,2
BMI	27,03	3,33
ESS	8,13	4,66
IIEF-5	18,15	5,63
AHI/h	27,63	15,05
ODI	22,68	11,54
SaO <sub>2</sub> -nadir (%)	85,60	3,86
Total Colesterol (mg/mL)	194,75	32,56
LDL (mg/mL)	120,66	29,30
HDL (mg/mL)	46,71	7,79
Triglycerides (mg/dL)	135,78	37,62
Albumin (mg/dL)	4,46	0,62
Testosterone (ng/dL)	564,26	143,94
PRL (ng/mL)	11,68	4,53
FSH (mlU/mL)	5,43	2,99
LH (mIU/mL)	6,55	3,09
PCR (mg/L)	3,73	2,32
	Yes	No
Hypertension (%)	33 (41.3)	47 (58.8)
Diabetes (%)	12 (15)	68 (85)
Smoking (%)	21 (26.3)	59 (73.8)
	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pack/year	36,95	17,47

**TABLE 1** Descriptive characteristics

Abbreviations: AHI, Apnea-Hypopnea Index; BMI, body mass index; CRP, C-reactive protein; ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; HDL, high density lipoproteins; IIEF-5, 5-International Index of Erectile Function; LDL, low density lipoproteins; LH, luteinizing hormone; ODI, Oxygen Desaturation Index; PRL, prolattin; SaO2, oxygen saturation.

A statistically significant correlation was reported between IIEF-5 and age, hypertension, diabetes, ESS, AHI, ODI and SaO2-nadir, reporting, in particular, an inverse correlation between OSA parameters and IIEF-5 (Figure 2).



Figure 2: Scatter plots of IIEF-5 and OSA parameters obtained via linear regression.

AHI/h and IIEF-5) r2 = 0.218, p = 0.001; ESS and IIEF-5) r2 = 0.103, p = 0.026; ODI and IIEF-5) r2 = 0.200, p = 0.001; Sat02-nadir (%) and IIEF-5) r2 = 0.218, p = 0.001; r2 = 0.200, p = 0.001. ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale; ODI, Oxygen Desaturation Index; OSA, obstructive sleep apnoea

ANOVA analysis showed no statistically significant differences between VOTE patterns and IIEF-5 scores (V patterns, p = 0.397; O patterns, p = 0.413; T patterns, p = 0.433; E patterns, p = 0.322). In a multiple linear regression analysis, age, diabetes, and SaO2-nadir were significantly associated with IIEF-5 (Table 2).

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	r	r <sup>2</sup>		Р				
Age	-0.415	0.17		<0.0001				
Hypertension	-0.327	0.11		0.003				
Diabetes	-0.412	0.17		<0.0001				
Smoking	0.147	0.02		0.194				
BMI	-0.214	0.045		0.057				
ESS	-0.375	0.14		0.001				
AHI	-0.524	0.27		<0.0001				
ODI	-0.516	0.26		<0.0001				
SatO <sub>2</sub> -nadir	0.569	0.32		<0.0001				
Cholesterol	0.134	0.01		0.237				
LDL	0.125	0.01		0.268				
HDL	0.146	0.02		0.196				
Triglycerides	-0.059	0.003		0.605				
Albumin	-0.217	0.047		0.053				
Testosterone	0.131	0.017		0.247				
PRL	0.020	0.0004		0.860				
FSH	-0.174	0.03		0.122				
LH	-0.025	0.0006		0.825				
PCR	0.176	0.031		0.119				
	MULTIVARIA	TE ANALYSIS						
	Beta Coefficient	95% C.I		Р				
Age	-0.164	-0.279	-0.05	0.006				
Hypertension	-0.702	-2.928	1.524	0.532				
Diabetes	-3.332	-6.373	-0.291	0.032				
ESS	-0.210	-0.454	0.034	0.091				
AHI	0.022	-0.14	0.184	0.789				
ODI	-0.027	-0.225	0.170	0.784				
SatO <sub>2</sub> -nadir	0.558	0.149	0.967	0.008				

TABLE 2. Univariate and multivariate linear regression between parameters and IIEF-5

Abbreviations: AHI, Apnea-Hypopnea Index; BMI, body mass index; CRP, C-reactive protein; ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; HDL, high density lipoproteins; IIEF-5, 5-International Index of Erectile Function; LDL, low density lipoproteins; LH, luteinizing hormone; ODI, Oxygen Desaturation Index; PRL, prolattin; SaO2, oxygen saturation. Bold indicates statistically significant P < 0.05.

Among 48 emergency department patients with mild ED (IIEF-5 scores of 17–21), 27.1% mild to moderate ED (IIEF-5 scores of 12–16), 20.8% moderate ED (IIEF-5 scores: 8–11), and 6.3% severe ED (IIEF-5 scores: 5–7), according to the study. There was a significant difference in the main EES score between patients with an ED and those without an ED (t(77.71) = -2.646; p = 0.010). The mean AHI score in ED subjects was  $32.1 \pm 16$  whereas in non-ED subjects was  $24.5 \pm 12.8$  [t(77.9) = -3.767; p < 0.0001]; with analogous results for ODI [26.17 ± 11.8 vs.  $17.43 \pm 8.99$  with t(76.5) = -3.754; p < 0.0001] and SaO2-nadir (%) [84.38 ± 3.8 vs.  $87.44 \pm 3.19$  t (73.9) = 3.749; p < 0.0001]. Also, the average age of ED and non-ED patients was significantly different [t(78) = -3.801; p 0.0001]. We found normal testosterone levels in OSA patients with (555.38 ± 150 ng/dl) and without ED (577.59 ± 135 ng/dl). There was no statistically significant difference between the first and second groups, despite lower values reported in the first. Albumin concentrations, however, were statistically significantly different between the two groups [4.6 + 0.62 in ED and 4.26 + 0.57 in OS] non-ED, t(78) = -2.455, p = 0.016]. ED patients also had a higher prevalence of diabetes [22.9% vs. 8.3% with X2 (1) = 3.79, p = 0.015] (Table 3).

[]	No ED		ED		Р
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Age	50.56	7.750	57.94	8.964	< 0.0001
BMI	26.2253	2.67900	27.5615	3.61751	0.062
Pack/year	31.75	21.519	40.15	14.473	0.296
ESS	6.63	3.240	9.13	5.205	0.010
IIEF-5	23.25	1.078	14.75	4.787	<0.0001
AHI/h	20.928	10.5065	32.106	16.0328	<0.0001
ODI	17.434	8.9935	26.179	11.7972	<0.0001
SaO <sub>2</sub> -nadir (%)	87.44	3.192	84.38	3.813	<0.0001
Col	196.97	35.618	193.27	30.665	0.622
LDL	122.16	31.943	119.67	27.706	0.712
HDL	48.59	8.860	45.46	6.804	0.078
Triglycerides	128.25	35.360	140.79	38.592	0.145
Albumin (mg/dL)	4.263	0.5701	4.600	0.6230	0.016
Testosterone (ng/dL)	577.59	135.022	555.38	150.324	0.502
PRL (ng/mL)	11.8700	4.78751	11.5606	4.39693	0.769
FSH (mIU/mL)	4.759	2.9024	5.875	2.9980	0.103
LH (mIU/mL)	6.472	3.1089	6.610	3.1155	0.846
PCR (mg/L)	4.200	2.2606	3.413	2.3319	0.138
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Hypertension	9 (28.1)	23 (71.9)	24 (50)	24 (50)	0.052
Diabetes	1 (8.3)	31 (96.9)	11 (22.9)	37 (77.1)	0.015
Smoking	8 (25)	24 (75)	13 (27.1)	35 (72.9)	0.836

**TABLE 3**. Differences in parameters in patients with and without ED. Independent sample t-test and Chi square test was performed for continuous and categorical variables respectively

Abbreviations: AHI, Apnea-Hypopnea Index; BMI, body mass index; CRP, C-reactive protein; ED, Erectile dysfunction; ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; HDL, high density lipoproteins; IIEF-5, 5-International Index of Erectile Function; LDL, low density lipoproteins; LH, luteinizing hormone; ODI, Oxygen Desaturation Index; PRL, prolattin; SaO2, oxygen saturation. Bold indicates statistically significant P < 0.05.

## 4.3 Discussion

Sleep apnea is a common medical condition associated with sleep fragmentation, episodes of hypoxia, and daytime somnolence (Kalejaiye et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2020). Researchers found that OSA patients with ED had a prevalence of 41% to 80%; interestingly, CPAP treatment improved not only the ED but also possible hormonal deficiencies (Hoyos et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2020). Likewise, in our sample size, we found that 60% of OSA patients were diagnosed with ED with a mean IIEF-5 value of  $18.1 \pm 5.6$  (SD). Among possible causative factors linking ED and OSA, increased oxidative stress with reduced vasodilation and bioavailability of nitric oxide (NO), an increase in catecholamines and endothelin levels, sleep fragmentation, decreased amounts of REM sleep, daytime sleepiness, impaired vigilance, longer bulbocavernosus reflex latency, and decreased testosterone are among the most important. (Schulz et al., 2019). The literature supports the hypothesis that OSA is associated with low libido and biochemical androgen deficiency, but these relationships are not clearly assessed and are far less recognized (Pascual et al., 2018; Schulz et al., 2019).

In our study population, testosterone levels were normal in the overall cohort as well as in the ED patients. It is possible that this is due to the relatively young age of patients involved in our study. Hypoxia, reduced sleep time, and sleep fragmentation can reduce testosterone levels (Wittert, 2014). Due to the prevalence of obesity among patients with OSA, BMI could play a significant role in determining testosterone levels (Barone, 2022; Shamim et al., 2015). It could be due to the increased expression of aromatase in adipose tissue and the reduction of sex hormone-binding globulin (Colleluori et al., 2020). There is probably no correlation between OSAS and hormonal status in our cohort of patients due to a relatively low BMI. It is however to be noted that the testosterone threshold required to maintain an erection is relatively low and therefore, the influence of BMI and the expression of adipose-tissue aromatase on erectile dysfunction could only be significant in men with severe cases of hypogonadism (Andrea M Isidori et al., 2014). Participants in our study complained of snoring, sleepiness, morning dry mouth, and fatigue. Over-night ambulatory RP confirmed the diagnosis of OSA. As observed in our study population, most apneic patients were overweight, cigarette smokers, hypertensive, and diabetic type 2 (DM2). In spite of the finding of OSA symptoms in our patients (27.6  $\pm$  15), the ESS score did not show values compatible with OSA (8.1  $\pm$  4.6; Johns, 1991). For a clear diagnosis of OSA, an overnight RP is recommended (Laratta et al., 2017).

In our cohort of 80 OSA patients, 26.3% were smokers, 41% were hypertensive, and 15% were type 2 diabetic. In the literature, there has been no conclusive evidence linking OSA to smoking. Despite some studies suggesting that AHI increases with the smoking rate, this relationship could not be confirmed (Hsu et al., 2019). Similarly to literature reports, 26.3% of OSA patients smoke, which is consistent with our findings which show that 22% of newly diagnosed OSA patients were current/ former smokers. (Shao et al., 2020)

According to recent literature, approximately half of our OSA patients had systemic hypertension. We also found that 15% of patients had DM2 and were overweight (Goldberger et al., 2008). There is probably a multidirectional relationship between OSA, DM2 and obesity. As a result, obesity, increased visceral fat, and leptin and insulin resistance are perpetuating factors for DM2 in patients with OSA (Berger & Polotsky, 2018; Jehan et al., 2018). OSA, when combined with DM2, may affect glycemic control, increasing the risk of DM2 complications (Khaire et al., 2020).

Diabetes prevalence and mean age were higher among ED patients, confirming their role as ED risk factors. In non-ED patients, the ESS score was higher, but still less than 10. Additionally, we found a significant correlation between ESS and RP parameters (AHI, ODI and SatO2-nadir). The level of albumin in OSA patients with ED was slightly higher in our study. Contrary to different studies in the literature that report a correlation between hypoalbuminemia and ED in chronic hepatitis and cirrhosis patients (Hunter et al., 2014), these results are contrary to these studies. In patients with liver disease, however, the causes of ED are unknown and the disruption of vascular, hormonal, and neurological integrity may result in an increased and independent risk for sexual dysfunction (M. Kim et al., 2015). Hypoalbuminemia could also explain ED in patients with altered ratios of free and albumin-bound testosterone. These premises make our controversial data regarding albumin level an interesting topic for discussion. Further research is needed to evaluate the clinical significance of this finding.

This is the first study to correlate ED parameters with DISE evaluation. Despite inconclusive data regarding ED and DISE, our data indicated that ED correlated with OSA regardless of VOTE patterns, which, however, are subject to subjective interpretation. Further, we demonstrated that OSA severity affected erectile function, with a negative correlation between OSA parameters (AHI, ESS, and O2 Saturation Nadir) and IIEF-5. The results of multiple logistic regression showed that age, diabetes, and SaO2-nadir were independent predictors of IIEF-5 and ED (p = 0.001, p = 0.001, p = 0.037, respectively). We found that IIEF-5 scores decreased by 0.164 points per year of age, and by 3.33 points per year of diabetes, but improved by 0.558 points per 1% increase in SatO2-nadir, based on our model. Despite the relatively small sample size, this study found that treating and preventing diabetes is crucial to preventing ED, especially in patients with OSA, where diabetes is a major comorbidity associated with the ineffectiveness of PDE5-I therapy. (Garrido-Abad et al., 2022). It is also possible to improve ED by improving oxygenation through CPAP treatment, oral appliances, or surgery following OSA treatment. The study has several limitations. Firstly, the study design is prone to sampling bias. Secondly, RP and DISE assessments were performed by different operators, even though they were conducted in the same clinic. Lastly, the IIEF-5 and the ESS assessment are subjective questionnaires with wide intervariability; fourth, despite being similar to other studies in the literature, our sample size is still too small to evaluate the influence of DISE patterns in ED. These limitations necessitate a cautious evaluation of the results obtained.

## 4.5 Conclusions

This study revealed that among the non endocrine factors affecting ED, OSA displays an emerging role. Our results emphasize the relevance of OSA screening in patients that undergo investigations for ED, and vice versa, cosidering the high ED prevalence among OSA patients. Accordingly, several measurements could be used for the identification of OSA patients at higher risk for ED. In our study we pointed out that OSA parameters correlate with ED and age, whereas SatO2-nadir and diabetes are independent predictors of ED. We found that men with OSA who attend the Ear, Nose, and Throat (ENT) clinic are at significant risk of developing ED. In conclusion, although several therapeutic approaches have been proposed but with a limited improvement of ED, as CPAP treatment, novel therapeutic approaches are strongly needed for a tailored precision medicine to overcome ED. The CPAP treatment could be combined with other therapeutic options, such as weight reduction or sildenafil, depending on ED severity. However, the improvement in patient awareness of both OSA and ED could reduce the drop out frequently observed in therapy and consequently could be useful for achieving a better treatment adherence.

# 5. References

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