



Efficacy of testosterone replacement therapy for treating metabolic disturbances in late-onset hypogonadism: a systematic review and meta-analysis

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Abstract

Purpose Late onset hypogonadism (LOH) is an age-dependent reduction of testosterone associated with alterations of metabolic profile, including glucose control, insulin sensitivity, and lipid profile. The purpose of this study was to investigate the efficacy of testosterone replacement therapy (TRT) for treating metabolic disturbances through a meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials (RCTs).

Methods A systematic review of literature published from 1964 to November, 2019 was performed using the PubMed/Medline, Embase, and Cochrane databases. Among the 1562 articles screened, 17 articles were selected for qualitative analysis and 16 articles ($n = 1373$) were included for data synthesis following the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analysis (PRISMA). Criteria for final inclusion were RCTs.

Results Sixteen studies were finally included (TRT group, $n = 709$; placebo group, $n = 664$). Among the metabolic markers, HbA1C [Mean difference (MD) = -0.172 , 95% CI -0.329 , -0.015], HOMA IR (MD = -0.514 , 95% CI -0.863 , -0.165), serum insulin (MD = -12.622 , 95% CI -19.660 , -5.585), and leptin (MD = -2.381 , 95% CI -2.952 , -1.810) showed significant improvement after TRT versus placebo. Among the lipid profiles, total cholesterol showed significant improvement (MD = -0.433 , 95% CI -0.761 , -0.105) after TRT. However, HDL showed a decrease (MD = -0.069 , 95% CI -0.121 , -0.018) after TRT. Among anthropometric markers, waist circumference showed significant improvement (MD = -0.1640 , 95% CI -2.857 , -0.423).

Conclusion This study demonstrated greater improvement in metabolic profiles for patients given TRT versus placebo. Further well-designed trials are needed to verify our findings and further elucidate effects of TRT on lipid profiles. This systematic review demonstrates that TRT can exert a net beneficial effect on metabolic profiles.

Keywords Hypogonadism · Hormone replacement therapy · Meta-analysis · Metabolic syndrome · Testosterone

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Introduction

It is well established that testosterone levels will decline with age. An age-related decrease of testosterone level combined with hypogonadal signs and symptoms in the absence of Hypothalamic–Pituitary–Thyroid axis pathology, which is called functional hypogonadism, can increase the risks of cardiovascular disease (CVD), diabetes, dementia, osteoporosis, and loss of libido and fertility [1–3]. Late-onset hypogonadism (LOH) is more prevalent in old age because of its direct relationship with the aging process, which might impair the function or production of sex steroid hormones, including testosterone, follicular stimulating hormone (FSH), luteinizing hormone (LH), and gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) [2, 4]. Moreover, it is important to note that LOH is often associated with metabolic disturbances, including metabolic syndrome (MS), obesity, type 2 DM, and hyperlipidemia clinically [1, 2]. Although sexual dysfunction is regarded as a typical clinical symptom of androgen deficiency for decreased androgen activity in LOH, commonly combined conditions, such as CVD, dementia, MS, type 2 DM, hyperlipidemia, and osteoporosis should also be considered to maintain a healthy life in old age.

Previous systematic reviews and meta-analyses have shown a favorable effect of testosterone replacement therapy (TRT) on sexual dysfunction. Such finding has encouraged clinicians to expect similar favorable effects of TRT on medical conditions associated with LOH [2, 5]. However, up to date, this conclusion remains controversial. The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) of the US has stated that TRT is approved only for congenital hypogonadism or acquired hypogonadism with brain or testis damage. Currently, there is no evidence that TRT is beneficial or has an additional effect compared to standard care.

The main reason for the US FDA's decision not to recommend clinical use of TRT in non-organic LOH is that there is limited evidence showing that TRT can improve medical conditions. In addition, there might be adverse events from using TRT, including coronary artery disease and thrombosis. Although there is an early warning for cardiovascular risk, including coronary artery disease and thrombosis, the FDA statement has emphasized that the real benefit and safety of TRT should be established and investigated more, which has left room for possible availability of TRT for non-organic use, including CVD, dementia, MS, type 2 DM, hyperlipidemia, and osteoporosis associated with LOH. About the safety issue of TRT, the American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists (AACE) has stated that there is no direct evidence of cardiovascular risk after TRT [6]. Recently, we have also shown that androgen activity is related to a low CVD death rate in a large prospective cohort study [7].

To date, there have been various systematic reviews and meta-analyses about TRT used to treat sexual dysfunction, lower urinary tract symptoms, CVD, DM, and dementia [2, 5, 8]. However, there has been no study about the effect of TRT on metabolic disturbances. Thus, the purpose of this study was to suggest quantitative evidence for the use of TRT on metabolic disturbances.

Materials and methods

We performed this systematic review and meta-analysis according to the standard Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement [9]. This study was registered in PROSPERO database (registration number: CRD42020201024).

Data sources and literature search

We screened the MEDLINE and Cochrane Library electronic databases up to November 2019 using Medical Subject Headings and text keywords. Subject headings and text keywords included interventions of TRT and outcomes of metabolic markers (HbA1C, HOMA IR, serum insulin, leptin), lipid profile (TC, TG, HDL, LDL), or anthropometric markers (BW, waist circumference, BMI). We included randomized controlled trials (RCTs) in this analysis. We grouped search terms according to Boolean operators OR and AND. We limited searches to human studies, covering all languages and study types. We adopted the same search strategy for the EMBASE using Emtree (Embase subject headings). Two independent investigators (SR Shim and JH Kim) identified additional studies.

Study selection

Our study inclusion criteria were as follows: (1) interventions included administration of TRT, (2) comparisons specified placebos, (3) outcomes were mean difference (MD, the difference between TRT and placebo) for metabolic markers (HbA1C, HOMA IR, serum insulin, leptin), lipid profile (TC, TG, HDL, LDL), or anthropometric markers (BW, waist circumference, BMI).

For overlapping studies with the same cohort, we selected the latest and most appropriate outcomes through strict discussions among all investigators. Two of us (Shim and Kim) independently screened the titles and abstracts of all articles using predefined inclusion criteria. We examined full-text articles independently (Shim and Kim) to decide whether they met the inclusion criteria. Then we independently extracted data using a data extraction form. Final inclusion articles were chosen after evaluation discussion all investigators. We carefully cross-checked all references and data for

each included study to ensure no overlapping of data and to maintain the integrity of the meta-analysis.

Meta-analysis assessment of outcome findings and statistical analysis

We provided all variables in continuous data. For studies that did not report standard deviations, an estimate of the pooled standard deviation of the two groups was applied. For studies that reported only medians, mean, and variance, we estimated means from the median, range, and sample size [10]. We calculated the MD along with their 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for continuous variables. The random-effects model published by Der Simonian and Laird was used to obtain pooled overall MD and 95% CIs for outcomes [11].

We performed meta-regression analysis for each moderator. To examine potential moderators (number of patients; publication year of > 2010 vs. ≤ 2010), we used a restricted maximum likelihood estimator of the variance of true effects. A two-sided $p \leq 0.05$ that did not contain a null value (MD = 0) within the 95% was considered to be significant. All analyses were performed using R software 3.6.0 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing).

Quality assessment

We evaluated the risk of bias and methodological quality in duplicate using Version 2 of the Cochrane risk-of-bias tool for randomized trials. We assessed the following six parameters: randomization process, deviations from intended interventions, missing outcome data, measurement of outcome, selection of reported result, and overall. We graded each parameter as having a low risk of bias, some concerns or high risk of bias. The quality of the evidence related to the estimation of benefits and disadvantages followed suggestions of the GRADE Working Group.

Assessment of heterogeneity

We evaluated statistical heterogeneity using Cochran's Q test and the I^2 statistic. Either a Cochran's Q statistic of $p < 0.1$ or an I^2 statistic > 50% indicated the existence of significant heterogeneity between studies. However, a non-significant χ^2 test result ($p \geq 0.1$) or I^2 statistic ($\leq 50\%$) indicated a lack of evidence for heterogeneity, not necessarily implying homogeneity because there might have been insufficient statistical power to detect heterogeneity. Thus, we used a random-effects model for the analysis.

Assessment of potential publication bias

A funnel plot was used to explain the publication bias based on standard error as the measure of study size and MD as

the measure of treatment effect. In the absence of publication bias, studies will be distributed symmetrically about the combined effect size. In addition, we performed a Begg and Mazumdar rank correlation test and Egger linear-regression test for publication biases [12].

Results

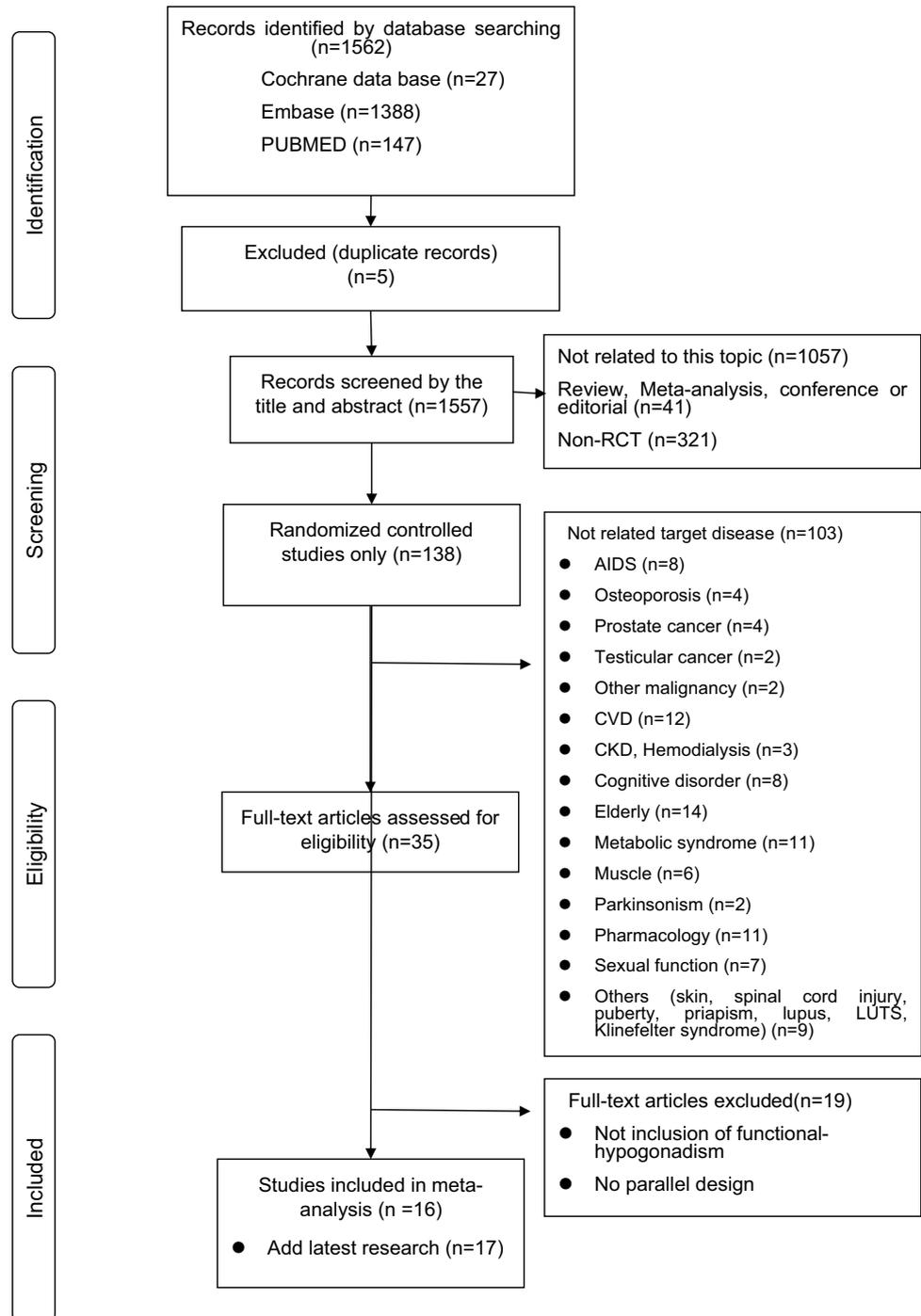
Study selection

The initial search identified a total of 1562 articles from electronic databases (PubMed $n = 147$; Cochrane $n = 27$; Embase $n = 1388$). Five studies were excluded because they contained overlapping data or appeared in more than one database. After screening titles and abstracts, 1057 papers were eliminated because they were not related to this topic, including 41 review, conference, or editorial studies. Upon a more detailed review, we found that 138 studies were eligible as randomized controlled studies. Of these, we further excluded 103 studies not focusing on the topic of the present study, including those on AIDS ($n = 8$), osteoporosis ($n = 4$), prostate cancer ($n = 4$), testicular cancer ($n = 2$), other malignancies ($n = 2$), CVD ($n = 12$), chronic kidney disease and hemodialysis ($n = 3$), cognitive disorder ($n = 8$), elderly ($n = 14$), metabolic syndrome ($n = 11$), muscle ($n = 6$), parkinsonism ($n = 2$), pharmacology ($n = 11$), sexual function ($n = 7$), skin, spinal cord injury, puberty, priapism, lupus, lower urinary symptoms, and Klinefelter syndrome ($n = 9$). Finally, 35 studies were about the topic of the present study. However, nineteen studies were excluded because they did not meet the criteria for functional hypogonadism. Finally, we selected 16 studies and added one latest study for the meta-analysis (Fig. 1).

We performed a systematic review of 17 studies [13–29] to assess detailed experimental differences and subject descriptions (Table 1). All studies were randomized placebo-controlled trials conducted in Western countries except for Shigehara [21]. The study duration ranged from 3 to 24 months.

Outcome findings

Basic biological characteristics of subjects are shown in Supplementary Fig. 1. Pooled overall MDs for metabolic markers between TRT vs. placebo group were -0.172 (95% CI $-0.329, -0.015$) for HbA1C, -0.514 (95% CI $-0.863, -0.165$) for HOMA IR, -12.622 (95% CI $-19.660, -5.585$) for serum insulin, and -2.381 (95% CI $-2.952, -1.810$) for leptin. In fasting plasma glucose (FPG), there was no statistically significant difference in overall analysis. However, in FPG subgroup analysis, the MD for secondary functional hypogonadism without DM was -0.590 (95%

Fig. 1 Flow chart showing study inclusion

CI – 1.140, – 0.040) (Fig. 2). There was no significant difference in MD between adiponectin and hsCRP (Supplementary Fig. 2). The I^2 statistic was 94% for HbA1C, 93% for HOMA IR, 94% for serum insulin, 45% for leptin and 98% for FPG.

The pooled overall MD for lipid profiles between TRT and placebo groups was – 0.433 (95% CI – 0.761, – 0.105) in TC, – 0.272 (95% CI – 0.622, 0.077) for TG, – 0.069 (95% CI – 0.121, – 0.018) for HDL, and 0.023 (95% CI

– 0.087, 0.132) for LDL. Overall TC and HDL were significantly reduced compared to those in the placebo. However, there was no statistically significant difference in subgroup analysis. (Fig. 3). The I^2 statistic was 99% for TC, 97% for TG, 92% for HDL, and 92% for LDL.

The pooled overall MD for anthropometric markers between TRT and placebo groups was – 0.126 (95% CI – 0.337, 0.086) for BMI, – 0.393 (95% CI – 1.112, 0.327) for BW, – 1.640 (95% CI – 2.857, – 0.423) for waist

Table 1 Characteristics of selected studies for qualitative analysis (*n* = 17)

| Publication Author | Inclusion Year | Study Period | Western or Asian | Design | TRT indication disease | Inclusion criteria | Number of participants | | Mean age (year) | | BMI (kg/m ²) | | TRT formulation | Testosterone kinds | Study duration | Cut-off for androgen deficiency |
|-----------------------|----------------|--------------|------------------|--|--|--|------------------------|-----------|------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|---|------------------------------------|----------------|---|
| | | | | | | | Tx | Pla- cebo | Tx | Pla- cebo | Tx | Pla- cebo | | | | |
| Basu et al. [13] | Yes | 2007 | Western | Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind study | Primary functional hypogonadism | Relative testosterone deficiency | 26 | 29 | 67 | 67 | 27 | 29 | Testosterone patch | Testosterone (Alza, Mountain view) | 24 months | FT < 103 ng/dL and DHEA < 1.57 µg/mL |
| Magnussen et al. [14] | Yes | 2017 | Western | Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind trial | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | Caucasian men aged 50–70 years, diagnosis of T2DM and stable treatment with metformin | 20 | 19 | 61 | 59 | 30.6 | 30.8 | Gel (daily, 7 times a week, applying to skin) | Testosterone (Testim) | 24 weeks | FT < 7.3 nmol/L |
| Hackett et al. [15] | Yes | 2017 | Western | Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind multicenter study | Primary functional hypogonadism | Men aged 18–80 years, hypogonadism with symptoms | 86 | 103 | 61.7 | 61.5 | | | IM (0.6, 18, 30 weeks) | Testosterone undecanoate | 30 weeks | TT ≤ 12 nmol/L and/or FT ≤ 0.25 nmol/L |
| Hackett et al. [16] | Yes | 2014 | Western | Double-blind, placebo-controlled intervention study | Primary functional hypogonadism | Men aged 18–80 years, hypogonadism with symptoms, T2DM population | 27 | 48 | 61.7 | 61.5 | | | IM (0.6, 18 weeks) | Testosterone undecanoate | 30 weeks | Severe: TT < 8 nmol/L or FT < 0.18 nmol/L Mild: TT 8.1–12 nmol/L or FT 0.181–0.25 nmol/L |
| Magnussen et al. [17] | Yes | 2016 | Western | Randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind study | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | White men, age 50–70 years, T2DM, receiving metformin for > 3 months | 20 | 19 | 61 | 59 | | | Gel (daily, 7 times a week, applying to skin) | Testosterone (Testim) | 24 weeks | FT < 7.3 nmol/L |
| Aversa et al. [18] | Yes | 2010 | Western | Randomized, double-blind, double-dummy study | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | Age 50–65 years with metabolic syndrome and/or T2DM, symptomatic hypogonadism | Oral 10 IM 32 | 10 | Oral 57 IM 58 | 55 | Oral 32.5 IM 30.2 | 31 | p.o (2 capsules of 40 mg/ twice per day) IM (12 weeks from week 6) | Testosterone undecanoate | 6 months | TT < 3.20 ng/mL (11 nmol/L) or FT level < 250 pmol/L (10 pg/mL) |
| Fui et al. [19] | Yes | 2016 | Western | Randomized double-blind, parallel, placebo-controlled trial | Primary functional hypogonadism | Aged 18–70 years, obese (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m ²) | 44 | 38 | 54.3 | 52.8 | 37.5 | 37.3 | IM (0.6, and every 10 weeks from week 6) | Testosterone undecanoate | 56 weeks | TT < 12 nmol/L |
| Grofi et al. [20] | Yes | 2018 | Western | Double blind, randomized, placebo-controlled clinical study | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | Aged > 35 years, BMI ≥ 30 kg/m ² , treated with oral antidiabetic medications | 28 | 27 | 60.15 | 61.5 | 33.34 | | IM (0.6, and every 10 weeks from week 6) | Testosterone undecanoate | 12 months | TT < 11 nmol/L and/or FT < 220 pmol/L |
| Shigehara et al. [21] | Yes | 2017 | Asian | Randomized controlled study | Secondary functional hypogonadism without DM | Waist circumference ≥ 85 cm with HTN, dyslipidemia, DM | 32 | 33 | 67.0 | 69.3 | | | IM (every 4 weeks) | Testosterone enanthate | 12 months | FT < 11.8 pg/mL |

Table 1 (continued)

| Publication | Author | Inclusion for meta-analysis | Year | Study Period | Western or Asian | Design | TRT indication disease | Inclusion criteria | Number of participants | | Mean age (year) | | BMI (kg/m ²) | | TRT formulation | | Testosterone kinds | Study duration | Cut-off for androgen deficiency |
|-----------------------|--------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|---|--|---|--------------------|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|---------|--|--------------------------|--|-----------|---|----------------|---------------------------------|
| | | | | | | | | | Tx | Placebo | Tx | Placebo | Tx | Placebo | Tx | Placebo | | | |
| Jones et al. [22] | Yes | 2011 | February 2006–March 2007 | Western | Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicenter study | Secondary functional hypogonadism with at least two symptoms, T2DM, metabolic syndrome | Aged ≥40 years, hypogonadism with at least two symptoms, T2DM, metabolic syndrome | 108 | 112 | 59.9 | 29.3 | 29.5 | Transdermal (high or abdomen) 2% testosterone gel, daily | Testosterone (Tosttran) | 60 mg | 12 months | TT ≤11 nmol/L or FT ≤255 pmol/L | | |
| Simon et al. [23] | Yes | 2001 | | Western | Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial | Primary functional hypogonadism | Hypogonadal men | Testosterone 6 | Testosterone 6 | Testosterone 55.4 | 29.9 | 28.0 | Gel | Testosterone | 125 mg | 3 months | TT ≤3.4 ng/mL and <4.0 ng/mL | | |
| Heufelder et al. [24] | Yes | 2009 | | Western | Single blind, randomized clinical trial | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | Hypogonadal men with MetS, T2DM | 16 | 16 | 57.3 | 32.1 | 32.5 | Gel (once daily) | Testosterone (Testogel) | 50 mg | 52 weeks | TT <12 nmol/L | | |
| Fui et al. [25] | Yes | 2017 | April 2013–November 2015 | Western | Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial | Secondary functional hypogonadism without DM | Obesity (BMI >30 kg/m ²) | 49 | 51 | 54 | 37.5 | 37.3 | IM (0, 6, 16, 26, 36, 46 weeks) | Testosterone undecanoate | 1000 mg | 56 weeks | TT <12 nmol/L | | |
| Hackett et al. [26] | Yes | 2014 | September 2008–June 2012 | Western | Double-blind, placebo-controlled study | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | Aged 18–80 years with T2DM | 92 | 98 | 61.2 | 33.0 | 32.4 | IM (0, 6, 18 weeks) | Testosterone undecanoate | 1000 mg | 30 weeks | TT <8 nmol/L or FT <0.18 nmol/L, TT 8.1–12 nmol/L or FT 0.181–0.25 nmol/L | | |
| Jensen et al. [27] | No | 2018 | January 2008–September 2009 | Western | Single-center, randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind study | Secondary functional hypogonadism without DM | Aged 60–78 years with lower bioavailable testosterone, WC >94 cm | 11 | 13 | 69 | 29.8 | 28.4 | Gel (once daily) | Testosterone (Testim) | 50 mg (100 mg after three weeks of intervention, FT <7.3 nmol/L) | 3 months | FT <7.3 nmol/L | | |
| Janigava et al. [28] | No | 2014 | 2010–2013 | Western | Randomized in a placebo-controlled study | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | T2DM, BMI 27–48 kg/m ² , aged 30–65 years, positive screening questionnaire for androgen deficiency in males | 43 | 42 | 49.8 | 35.65 | 36.0 | IM (once every 3 months) | Testosterone undecanoate | 250 mg/mL | 6 months | TT <10.4 nmol/L | | |

Table 1 (continued)

| Publication | Author | Inclusion for meta-analysis | Year | Study Period | Western or Asian | Design | TRT indication disease | Inclusion criteria | Number of participants | Mean age (year) | BMI (kg/m ²) | TRT formulation | Testosterone kinds | Study duration | Cut-off for androgen deficiency |
|---------------------|--------|-----------------------------|------|-----------------------|------------------|--|---|--|------------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|----------------|---------------------------------|
| | | | | | | | | | Tx | Plac | Tx | Plac | Drug | Dose | |
| Wittert et al. [29] | No | | 2021 | January 2013–May 2019 | Western | Multi-center, double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial | Secondary functional hypogonadism with DM | Men aged 50–74 years with lower total testosterone. Waist circumference \geq 95 cm, DM | 504 | 59.8 | 34.8 | IM (0.6 weeks and then 12-weekly for 2–4 years) | Testosterone undecanoate | 2 years | TT < 11 nmol/L |

TRT testosterone replacement therapy, BMI body mass index, DM diabetes mellitus, T2DM type 2 diabetes mellitus, TT total testosterone, FT free testosterone, DHEA dehydroepiandrosterone, HTN hypertension, MetS metabolic syndrome, IM intramuscular injection

circumference. In the overall and primary functional hypogonadism group, the waist circumference was significantly reduced. Body weight was decreased only in the primary functional hypogonadism group (Fig. 4). There was no statistically significant difference in total lean body mass or total fat mass (Supplementary Fig. 3). The I^2 statistic was 33% for BMI, 46% for BW, and 85% for waist circumference.

The pooled overall MD for blood pressure between TRT and placebo groups was -2.271 (95% CI $-5.631, 1.089$) for SBP and -0.763 (95% CI $-2.197, 0.671$) for DBP. There was no significant reduction compared to the placebo. However, in the primary functional hypogonadism group, SBP was decreased (Fig. 5). The I^2 statistic was 96% for SBP and 89% for DBP.

Moderator analyses

The meta-regression analysis revealed no significance in the number of patients except for total lean body mass and SBP. However, the publication year (before 2010 for all studies) was significantly associated with elevated MDs of serum insulin, SBP, and DBP (all $p < 0.05$).

Quality assessment

All studies described randomized methods and reasonable ITT analysis. All studies were randomized in allocation sequence and concealed until participants were enrolled and assigned to interventions. There was no baseline difference between intervention groups and non-intervention groups. Blinding method included single-blind in one study and double-blind in all other studies. After we rated each item of the critical appraisal, allocation concealment, blinding method, and detection bias had a moderate grade. A summary of methodological domain assessment for each subject is detailed in Table 1. Seven studies demonstrated the possibility of bias for missing outcome data. Overall, the risk of bias was considered to be low (Supplementary Fig. 4).

Publication bias

We evaluated funnel pictures of all results to detect publication bias. They were distributed symmetrically. After performing additional analysis with the Begg and Mazumdar rank correlation test and Egger linear regression test for publication biases, we found no evidence of publication bias for studies included for this meta-analysis.

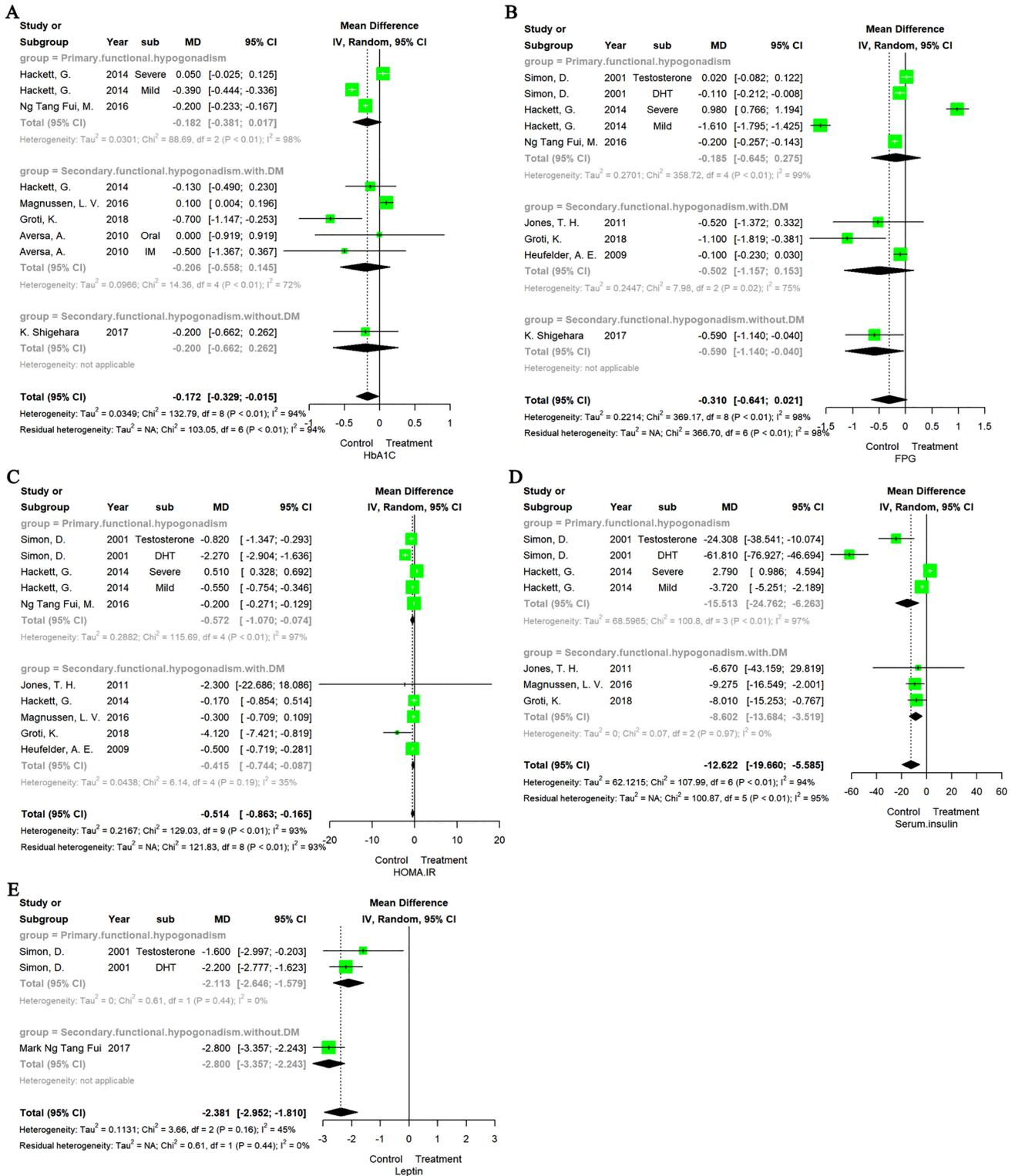


Fig. 2 Changes of metabolic markers after testosterone replacement therapy: a HbA1C; b FPG; c HOMA IR; d serum insulin; e leptin

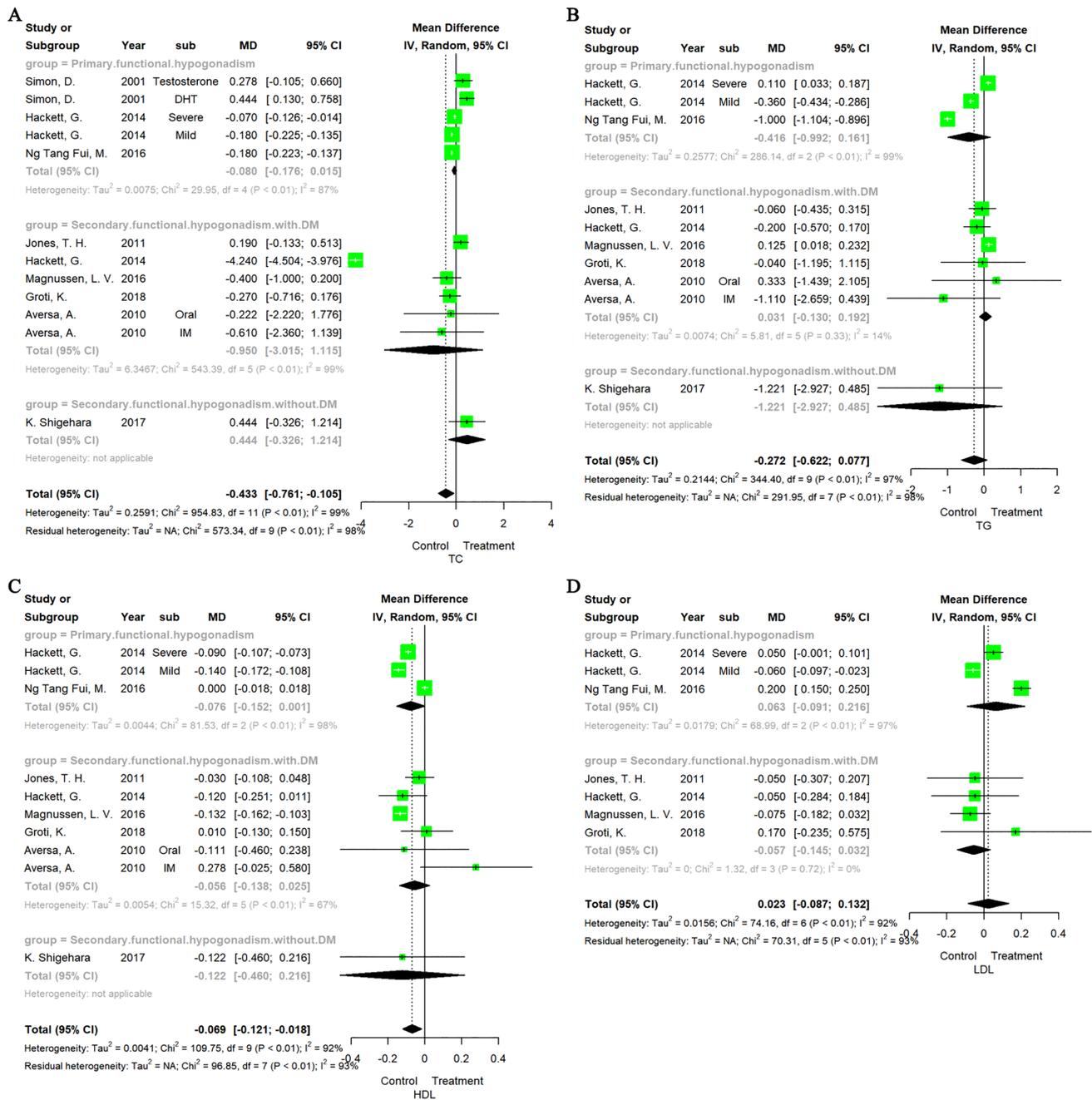


Fig. 3 Changes of lipid profiles after testosterone replacement therapy: a total cholesterol; b triglyceride; c HDL cholesterol; d LDL cholesterol

Discussion

There have been several meta-analyses about improvement of erectile dysfunction, CVD risk, and prostate cancer safety among RCTs of TRT. However, there has been no meta-analysis about the efficacy of TRT for treating metabolic disturbances among RCTs. We focused on the possible beneficial effect of TRT on metabolic disturbances, including diabetes,

hyperlipidemia, MS, and obesity. As a result, it was found that TRT was efficacious for controlling diabetes, hyperlipidemia, and MS for the first time using meta-analysis among RCTs in LOH.

There are two main reasons that TRT therapy can be useful for treating metabolic disturbances in LOH. First, clinical phenotypes of type 2 DM and LOH are correlated. Although there are well-known genetic or organic etiological factors

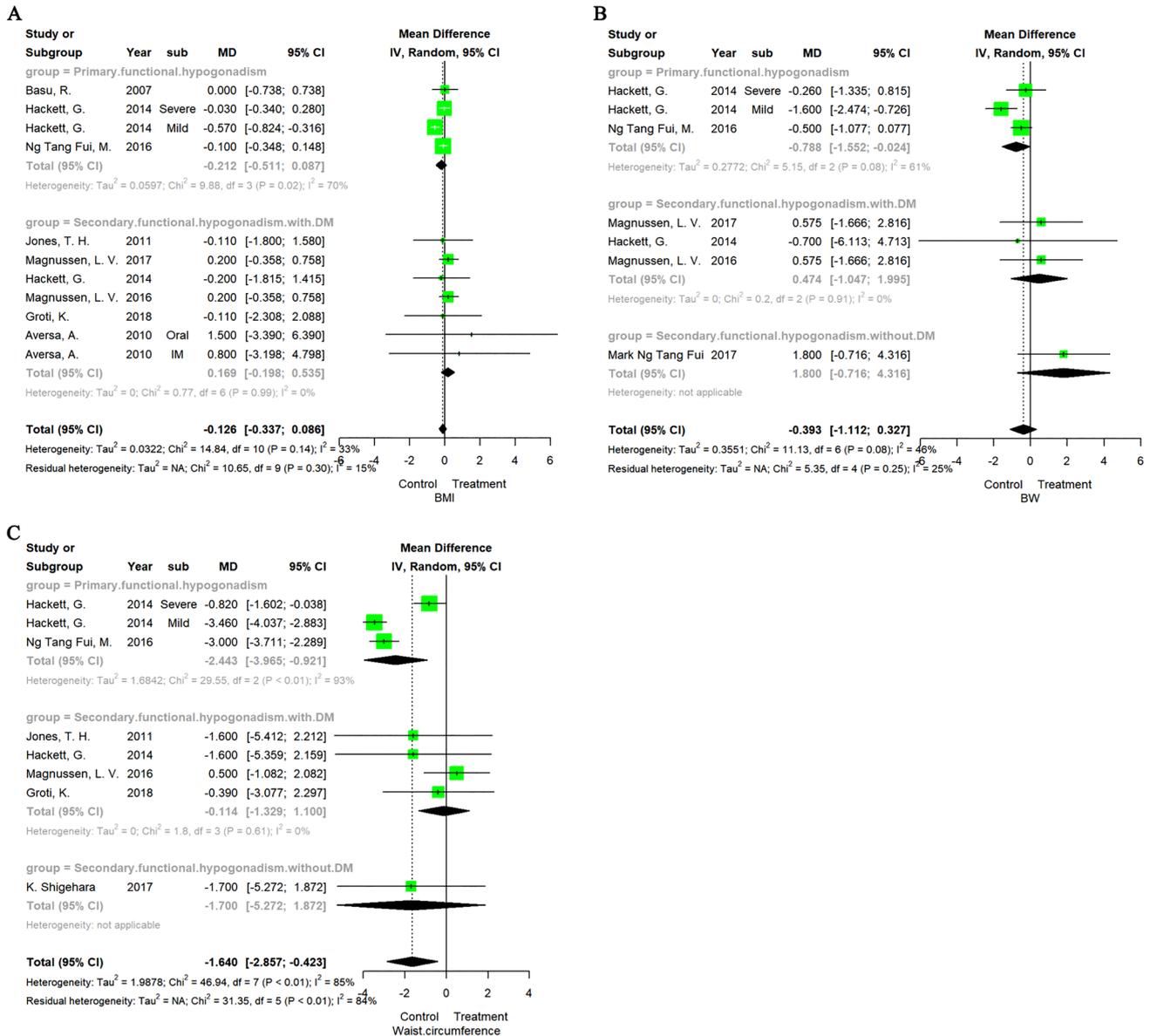


Fig. 4 Changes of anthropometric markers after testosterone replacement therapy: a body mass index; b body weight; c waist circumference

in DM, there is only limited evidence of etiological factors in LOH. Nevertheless, clinical phenotypes include prevalence, clinical association with aging or sexual dysfunction or obesity, and symptom specificity. Both disease conditions are associated with age, sexual dysfunction, and obesity. The prevalence of these two clinical conditions is 2–15%. There is no strong symptom specificity [2, 30].

Second, these two conditions have similar treatment process in that these two conditions could be improved by weight loss or lifestyle change and by a specific therapy [30]. In Type 2 DM, although weight control and life style modification are recommended as the first-line therapy, anti-diabetic medication including metformin is also recommended

strongly in newly diagnosed type 2 DM, regardless of front-line therapy or lifestyle modification [2, 5, 30]. The first-line pharmacologic effect on type 2 DM is controversial in terms of clinical efficacy. However, recent RCTs have shown that the use of TRT itself can decrease the proportion of patients with T2DM [29]. A similar strategy could be applied to LOH. Although more RCTs are needed to recommend TRT as a specific therapy in LOH to treat non-organic symptoms, TRT is very hopeful because it has shown efficacy and safety for treating sexual dysfunction based on RCT studies [2]. TRT could be extended to non-organic symptoms including CVD, DM, MS, dementia, and osteoporosis, considering similarities between type 2 DM and LOH [5].

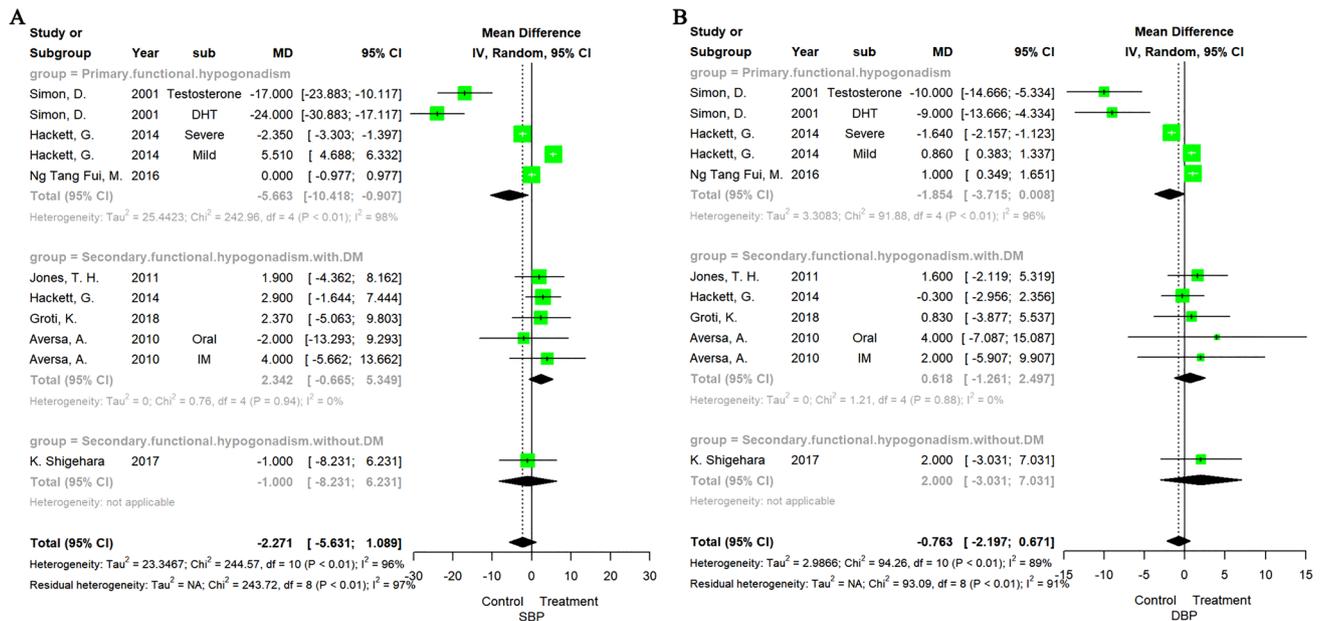


Fig. 5 Changes of blood pressures after testosterone replacement therapy: **a** systolic blood pressure; **b** diastolic blood pressure

Although our study is the first to show the efficacy of TRT for LOH using RCTs, there have been several meta-analyses about this issue using observational studies [31, 32]. These studies have shown that TRT has a favorable effect on body composition and insulin sensitivity [2, 31, 32]. Moreover, there is robust evidence that TRT could be useful not only for organic LOH, but also for non-organic, metabolic LOH [2, 4].

Among robust evidence, studies showing adverse events of androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) in prostate cancer have shown that ADT could negatively affect cardiovascular and metabolic conditions [33]. This reminds us of the importance of androgen and androgen activity in non-organic LOH. Adverse events in body composition after castration (ADT) have already been reported in many animal studies [34]. The mechanism of such adverse effects of ADT could be explained by its direct and indirect effects: direct effect of androgen on beta cells and hepatocytes and indirect effects on body composition changes (increase of adipose tissue, aggravating fatty liver, and loss of muscle volume) [2].

Regarding metabolic markers, Janjgava et al. [28] have shown that TRT could be used with anti-diabetic medication to reduce diabetic complications. In their study, the group with combined treatment using TRT and anti-diabetic medication showed more improvement of HbA1c than the single-treatment group with anti-diabetic medication. Hackett et al. [35] have performed a 4-year metabolic follow-up of results from a BLAST study and found that the TRT group has fewer prescriptions of anti-diabetic medication because of an increase in muscle volume. Magnusson et al.

[36] have reported the role of TRT in CVD and metabolic disturbances. Although they failed to show a positive effect of TRT for reducing the CVD risk, TRT still showed a positive effect on metabolic disturbances, including reducing subcutaneous fat, adiponectin, and leptin.

In our study, among metabolic markers, HbA1C, HOMA IR, leptin, and serum insulin showed significant improvement after TRT compared to those in the placebo-treated group. Among anthropometric markers, our study showed a significant improvement in waist circumference after TRT. BMI and body weight also showed some decreases after TRT, although such decreases were not statistically significant. Regarding lipid profiles, total cholesterol showed significant improvement after TRT compared to that in the placebo. Triglyceride also showed improvement, although such improvement was not statistically significant. Interestingly, HDL showed a significant decrease after TRT compared to the placebo. About the role of TRT in HDL, there was limited evidence with inconsistent results. However, it is generally accepted that TRT could affect serum levels of lipids and lipoproteins and that high-dose TRT could decrease HDL and lipoprotein A levels [37].

Although this study presented quantitative results of TRT effects on metabolic disturbance using meta-analysis of RCT studies for the first time, it had several limitations. First, we could not fully explain possible adverse events of TRT. Earlier studies have been concerned about side effects of TRT, including cardiovascular risk and erythrocytosis [4]. About the cardiovascular risk, results are inconsistent. Several cohort studies have shown that TRT could increase CV

risk, including heart attack and cerebrovascular events [38, 39], whereas other studies have shown that low serum testosterone level is associated with increased cardiovascular risk, which could be prevented by TRT [5, 40]. Although our study did not include variable of cardiovascular risk, it did include the variables of blood pressure (SBP and DBP) proved to be not affected by TRT. Second, there was heterogeneity in defining LOH, which might have affected clinical outcomes of TRT. Although most studies used serum testosterone to define LOH, there might be measuring bias because of the difficulty of sampling considering the diurnal variation of testosterone level. Moreover, serum testosterone does not fully represent androgen activity, which could be bioavailable testosterone, sex hormone binding globulin, and AR expression [41]. Although we divided groups into primary functional hypogonadism and secondary functional hypogonadism with DM or without DM, we could not interpret those results from subgroup analysis due to underpowered and insufficient studies included. Third, some studies combining TRT with other interventions were included, which could have a major impact on outcomes [19, 25]. Moreover, the interrelationship between TRT and other interventions was not considered. However, this study was a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between TRT and metabolic markers. Finally, we could not consider the ethnicity variable known to different clinical and pathological phenotypes in type 2 DM and metabolic disturbances [4, 30]. In this study, only one RCT was performed in a non-western region.

Conclusion

Our study showed a positive effect of TRT on metabolic disturbances among RCT trials for the first time. It could provide useful information for clinicians who treat LOH patients. It also gives guidance for individual personalized treatment care of LOH patients. Proper guidance could prevent both overprescribing and passive treatment of TRT. For better shared decision-making, future studies are needed to show the long-term efficacy and safety of TRT for non-organic LOH.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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