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Different levels of estradiol are correlated with sexual dysfunction in adult men

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Abstract

Ejaculatory dysfunction, including premature ejaculation (PE) and delayed ejaculation (DE), as well as erectile dysfunction (ED), constitute the majority of male sexual dysfunction. Despite a fair amount of data on the role of hormones and erection and ejaculation, it is inconclusive due to controversy in the current literature. To explore the correlation of male sexual dysfunction with hormonal profile, 1,076 men between the ages of 19–60 years (mean: 32.12 years) were included in this retrospective case–control study; 507 were categorized as ED, PE and DE groups. Five hundred and sixty-nine men without sexual dysfunction were enrolled in the control group. The background characteristics and clinical features of the four groups were collected and analyzed. The estradiol value was significantly elevated in the ED group than the control group (109.44 ± 47.14 pmol/L vs. 91.88 ± 27.68 pmol/L; $P < 0.001$). Conversely, the DE group had significantly lower level of estradiol than control did (70.76 ± 27.20 pmol/L vs. 91.88 ± 27.68 pmol/L; $P < 0.001$). The PE group had similar level of estradiol (91.73 ± 31.57 pmol/L vs. 91.88 ± 27.68 pmol/L; $P = 0.960$) but significantly higher level of testosterone (17.23 ± 5.72 nmol/L vs. 15.31 ± 4.31 nmol/L; $P < 0.001$) compared with the control group. In conclusion, elevated serum testosterone concentration was an independent risk factor

for PE. Besides, there was a progressively increasing graded-distribution of estradiol values from DE to PE and ED groups.

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Introduction

Sexual dysfunction is a common clinical entity worldwide and has a deleterious role in quality of life for the couple¹. In men, erectile dysfunction (ED) and ejaculatory dysfunction are the most reported sexual dysfunction. According to the timing of ejaculation, ejaculatory dysfunction can be classified into premature ejaculation (PE) and delayed ejaculation (DE)². ED is involved in pathophysiological alterations via neurogenic, psychoneurologic, vasculogenic, endocrine and iatrogenic pathways. In contrast, the etiology of ejaculatory dysfunction is under-reported and the understanding of hormonal control in ejaculatory dysfunction is still in its infancy.

Hormones can regulate many aspects of male reproduction. Endocrine disorders, including hypogonadism, thyroid diseases and hyperprolactinaemia, has been implicated in the pathogenesis of ED³. Testosterone is the major hormonal regulator of penile development and physiology, and affects both the central and peripheral levels of the ejaculatory process¹. Aromatase is responsible for the conversion of testosterone to estrogen and localized abundantly in the male reproductive system. Levels of estradiol have been demonstrated to be correlated with the incidence and severity of ED⁴, which could be explained by two hypotheses. One hypothesis is that the imbalance between estradiol and testosterone decreases the relaxation of cavernosal smooth muscle via an NO-mediated pathway⁵. The other hypothesis is that estrogen could antagonize the effect of testosterone through the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous system, which in turn influence erectile function⁶. Apart from the effect on erectile function, estrogen also influences ejaculatory function. In mice, the expression pattern of estrogen receptor (ER) is unique throughout male reproductive tract other than the epididymis. In the epididymis, both ER α and ER β are expressed⁷. In doing so, epididymal

contractility, critical for the first step of emission phase during ejaculation, is regulated by estradiol⁸. ER α or aromatase knockout male mice displayed decreased intromissions and ejaculations compared with wild-type controls^{9,10}. In contrast to these findings, several case reports indicated that sexual behavior did not change in men lacking ER α or aromatase^{11,12}. Therefore, the influence of ER α or aromatase in males remains controversial.

Collectively, despite a fair amount of data on the role of hormones and erection and ejaculation, it is inconclusive due to controversy in the current literature. Besides, no prior study has investigated the relationship between estradiol and ejaculatory dysfunction in men to date. We hypothesized that testosterone and estradiol might be involved in the regulation of erection and ejaculation in men. To investigate the correlation of hormonal profile with ED, PE, and DE, we conducted a retrospective case–control study with 1,089 men at our institution.

Materials and methods

Study population

Between May 2016 and April 2018, adult men with ED, PE or DE who firstly attended andrology clinic of the hospital were enrolled in the current study. Exclusion criteria were: untreated endocrine disorders, psychiatric disorder, anatomical penile abnormality, alcohol or drug abuse in the previous two years, and taking drugs (pseudoephedrine, antidopaminergics, testosterone preparations, serotonin reuptake inhibitors, and antihypo/hyperthyroidism drugs) which might influence intra-vaginal ejaculation latency time (IELT) or hormonal values. Participants were dissuaded from drinking alcohol before sexual intercourse. The coincidence of ED and PE is common in clinical practice, and patients with ED and PE were not taken into the present study. During the same period, subjects from the control group were randomly selected among participants without sexual dysfunction who carried out a health examination before undergoing in-vitro fertilization (IVF). Clinical features of the participants, including background information

and hormonal profile, were collected. The study protocol was approved by the ethical committee at Center for Reproductive Medicine, Shandong University. Informed consent was obtained from all participants for this study. Besides, all methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations.

Assessment of ED, PE and DE

All participants possessed a stable, monogamous, heterosexual relationship with the partner, and the disease lasted for at least six months. The female partners of the subjects were proposed to apply a calibrated stopwatch to measure IELT. ED is the persistent inability to obtain or maintain an adequate erection to enable satisfactory sexual performance. A patient was diagnosed with ED when IIEF-5 score was smaller than 22¹³. During the screening period, the diagnosis of PE was confirmed when IELT results of sexual intercourse suggested a baseline IELT prior to or within one minute of vaginal penetration at least three times¹⁴. Furthermore, as the median IELT was 5.4 min in healthy men², the diagnosis of DE was confirmed when the baseline IELT was longer than 25 min (mean plus two standard deviations) and the patient ceased sexual activity due to irritation, exhaustion, partner request or erection loss¹⁵.

Measurement of hormonal parameters

For the determination of the hormonal profile, participants with overnight fast were arranged in sitting posture for 30 min before sampling, and then blood samples were drawn from the antecubital veins between 8 and 10 am. Serum samples were analyzed for follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), luteinizing hormone (LH), prolactin (PRL), total testosterone (T), estradiol (E₂), and thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH). When abnormal values appeared, a second sample of the blood was obtained for the re-assessment. The hormonal levels were investigated using the Cobas 6,000 analyzer series (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) in the laboratory department of the hospital. Among these hormones detected, serum estradiol levels were measured using Elecsys estradiol III kit (Roche Diagnostics Ltd., Shanghai, China). The lower and upper detection limits for estradiol were 28.0 and 156.0 pmol/L, respectively. In addition, the intra-assay

coefficient of variation was below 10%, and inter-assay coefficient of variation was below 15%.

Statistical analysis

We ran the data analysis using SPSS (version 22.0, Chicago, IL, USA) and two-sided P values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Data were assessed for normality using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. The population of the current study was categorized as four groups, namely, ED, PE, DE and control groups. The results were reported as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) for continuous variables and number with percentage for categorical variables. One-way ANOVA followed by Student–Newman–Keuls post-hoc test was used to assess the continuous variables. Kruskal–Wallis method was applied for the analysis of skewed variables. The categorical variables were analyzed using Pearson χ^2 test. For the comparison of differences between two groups, means of normally distributed parameters were analyzed using Student's t test. The contribution of different variables to ED, PE and DE groups was determined using multivariable logistic regression. The odds ratio (OR) was explained as the measurement of correlation.

Results

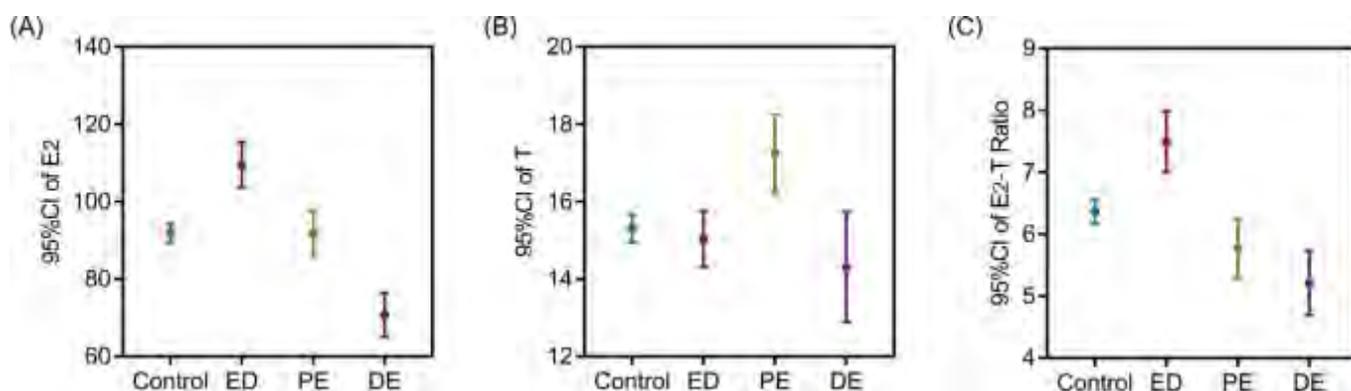
Patient characteristics and hormonal profile

Among 507 men with sexual dysfunction, 277 (53.1%) complained of ED, whereas 124 (23.8%) and 106 (20.3%) declared PE and DE, respectively. Besides, 569 men without sexual dysfunction were recruited in the control group. Table 1 indicates the baseline information of the participants. Figure 1 illustrates the means and 95% confidence interval (CI) of E_2 , T and E_2 -T ratio among control, ED, PE and DE groups, respectively. The comparison of hormonal profile among groups is summarized in Table 2. Testosterone values in the PE group were significantly higher than those in the control group (17.23 ± 5.72 nmol/L vs. 15.31 ± 4.31 nmol/L; $P < 0.001$). Furthermore, estradiol

levels were significantly higher for patients with ED (109.44 ± 47.14 pmol/L; $P < 0.001$), but significantly lower for patients with DE (70.76 ± 27.20 pmol/L; $P < 0.001$) compared with those in the control group (91.88 ± 27.68 pmol/L). The ED group had a significantly higher E₂-T ratio than control ($7.49 \pm 3.96 \times 10^{-3}$ vs. $6.37 \pm 2.41 \times 10^{-3}$; $P < 0.001$) did. Conversely, the E₂-T ratio was significantly decreased for patients with PE ($5.77 \pm 2.46 \times 10^{-3}$; $P = 0.021$) and DE ($5.21 \pm 2.42 \times 10^{-3}$; $P < 0.001$) than for patients in the control group ($6.37 \pm 2.41 \times 10^{-3}$).

Table 1 Background characteristics of the participants among groups.

Figure 1



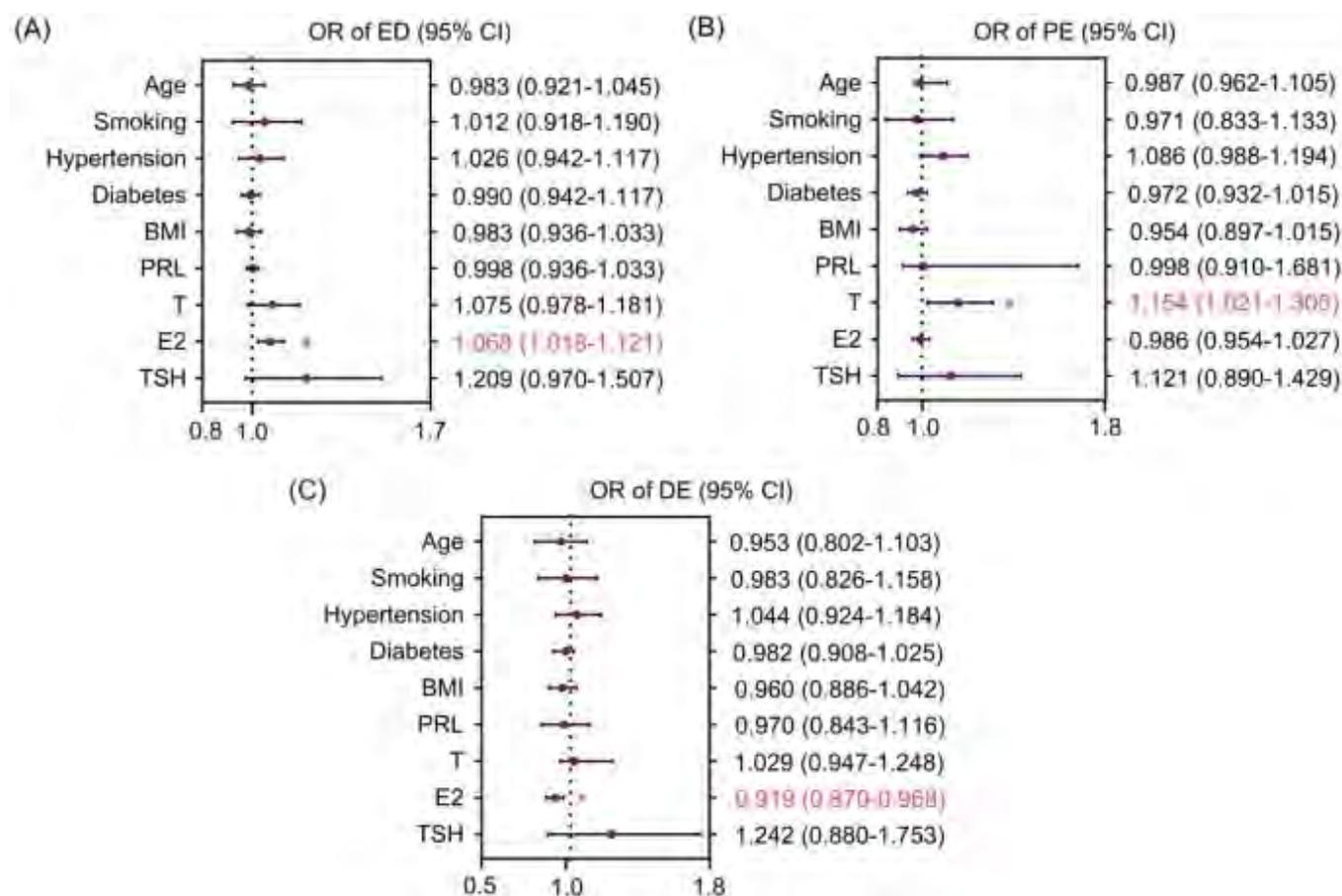
Error bar charts of E₂, T and E₂-T ratio among control, ED, PE and DE groups. **(A)** The means and 95% CI of E₂ among four groups; **(B)** The means and 95% CI of T among four groups; **(C)** The means and 95% CI of E₂-T ratio among four groups. E₂-T ratio: estradiol to testosterone ratio. *CI* confidence intervals.

Table 2 Hormonal profile of the participants among groups.

Independent risk factors for ED, PE and DE

Multivariable logistic regression analyses were conducted to explore the ORs for ED, PE or DE. In order to determine independent risk factors, age, BMI, smoking, hypertension, diabetes, testosterone, estradiol, TSH, and prolactin were considered as confounders in the regression models. Figure 2 shows the OR of ED, PE or DE group for controls as the reference. Estradiol was considered as an independent risk factor for ED and DE. Specifically, the OR of ED group versus controls was 1.068 (95% CI 1.018–1.121, $P < 0.001$), and the OR of DE group versus controls was 0.919 (95% CI 0.870–0.968, $P < 0.001$). Furthermore, testosterone was an independent risk factor for PE, and the OR of PE group versus controls was 1.154 (95% CI 1.021–1.305, $P < 0.001$).

Figure 2

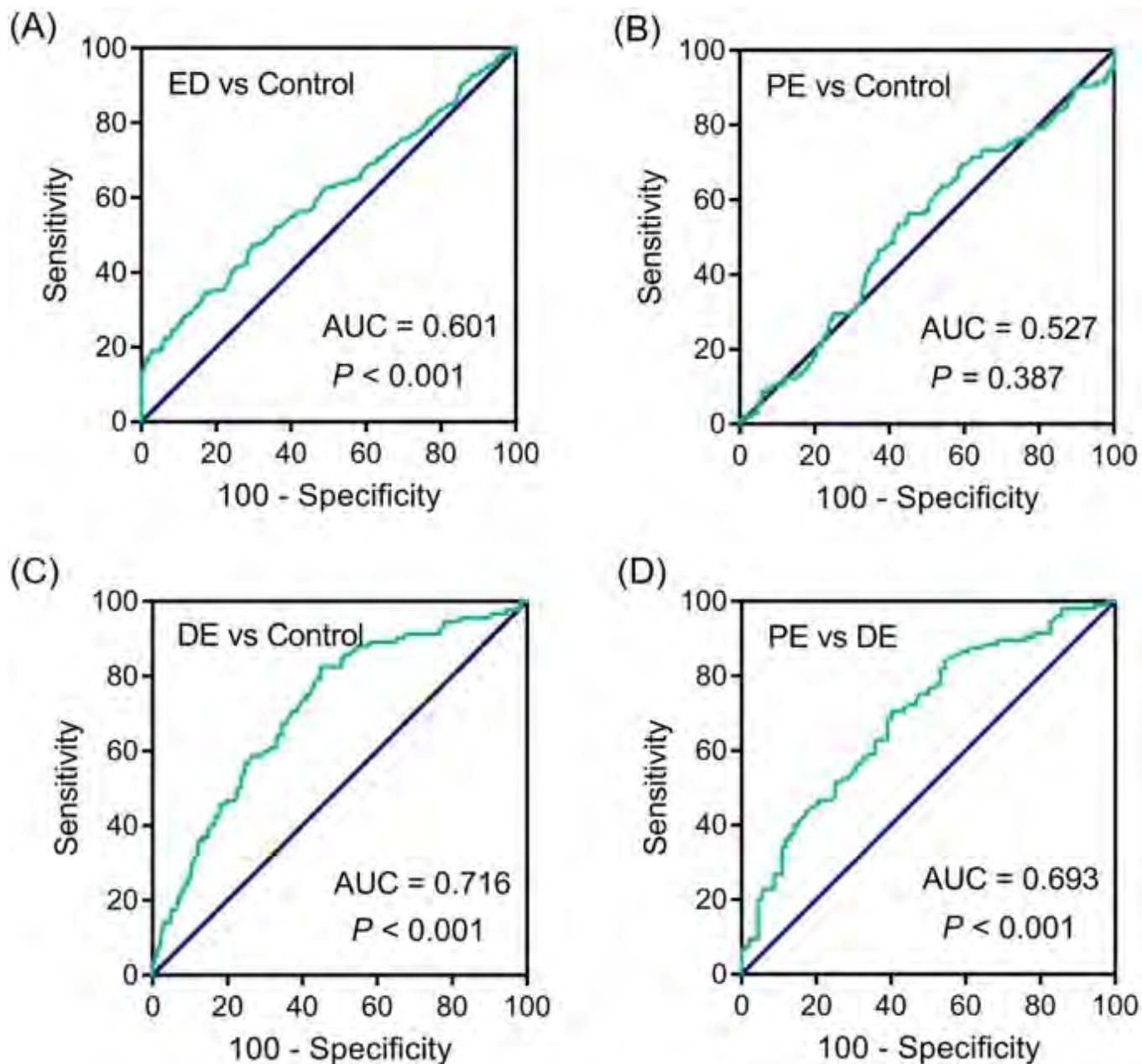


Risk for ED, PE and DE as estimated by different variables. **(A)** The OR of ED for normal controls as references; **(B)** The OR of PE for controls as references; **(C)** The OR of DE for controls as references. OR odds ratio; CI confidence interval.

Distinguishing ED, PE and DE using estradiol levels

As the mean level of estradiol was significantly different among groups, the diagnostic effect of the estradiol level for ED, PE, or DE was determined. The receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve was used to explore area under the ROC curve (AUC) in every group using the estradiol values (Fig. 3). The AUC of ED group is 0.601 and the estradiol level of ED patients is significantly higher than that of men in the control group (Fig. 3A, SE: 0.023, 95% CI: 0.556–0.645, $P < 0.001$). However, estradiol levels were unlikely to distinguish PE patients from normal cases (Fig. 3B, $P = 0.387$). In addition, the AUC of the DE group is 0.716 (Fig. 3C, SE: 0.028, 95% CI: 0.661–0.771, $P < 0.001$). Figure 3D indicates the significantly distinguishing ability of estradiol values between PE and DE groups (AUC = 0.693, SE: 0.037, 95% CI: 0.620–0.766, $P < 0.001$).

Figure 3

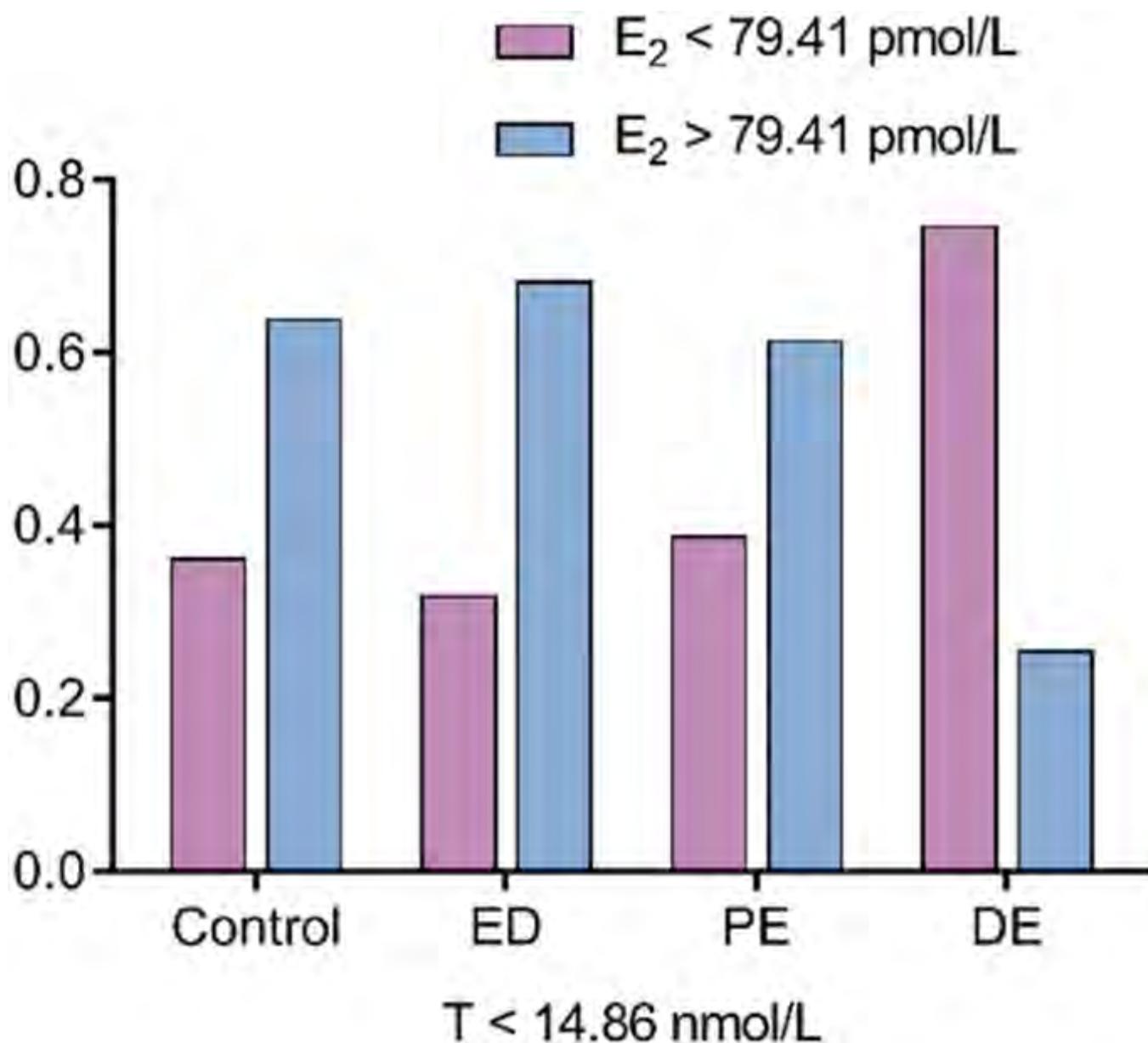


ROC curves of E_2 with values correlated with AUC. **(A)** The ROC curve of E_2 to diagnose ED; **(B)** The ROC curve of E_2 for to diagnose PE; **(C)** The ROC curve of E_2 to diagnose DE; **(D)** The ROC curve of E_2 to distinguish between PE and DE.

The best value to distinguish PE from DE was explored using ROC curve and AUC that was 14.86 nmol/L of testosterone (AUC: 0.671, SE: 0.036, 95% CI: 0.600–0.742, $P < 0.001$). Subjects with testosterone > 14.86 nmol/L were more likely to report PE compared with those with testosterone < 14.86 nmol/L (Sensitivity = 0.619, Specificity = 0.726). PE and DE subjects with testosterone < 14.86 nmol/L were further explored using

ROC curve followed by AUC of estradiol, and the best value was 79.41 pmol/L (Sensitivity = 0.741, Specificity = 0.613; AUC: 0.703, SE: 0.061, 95% CI: 0.584–0.823, $P < 0.001$). However, levels of estradiol were unlikely to distinguish DE from PE in these patients with testosterone > 14.86 nmol/L ($P = 0.058$). Therefore, we arranged all 528 cases with testosterone < 14.86 nmol/L into eight groups according to the crucial cutoff value of estradiol, and Fig. 4 illustrates the proportion of each group. For cases with testosterone < 14.86 nmol/L, it was likely for DE subjects to possess lower absolute value of estradiol, whereas the other subjects tended to have higher estradiol values.

Figure 4



The number of the participants in the four groups. All the participants with T < 14.86 nmol/L were then categorized as two groups based on E₂ of 79.41 pmol/L.

Discussion

Overall, our data indicated that significantly higher testosterone values were found in the PE group than in the control group. Levels of estradiol were significantly higher for ED patients, but significantly lower for DE patients when compared with control. The OR of DE was 0.919 for normal controls as the reference. Moreover, the OR of ED was 1.068 for normal controls as references. The best value to distinguish PE from DE was explored using ROC curve and AUC that was 14.86 nmol/L of testosterone.

The pathophysiological role of testosterone in ED has been extensively investigated. However, evidences on the correlation of testosterone levels with ED still remains controversial. Some studies documented that testosterone levels were not associated with ED^{16,17}, whereas others reported associations between definitely subnormal levels of testosterone and ED¹⁸. Our data demonstrated that no statistically significant differences were observed between ED and control groups. Furthermore, as hypothesized, ED was affected by high estradiol levels or the imbalance between estradiol and testosterone¹⁹. Men with higher estradiol levels had reduced spontaneous erections, decreased nocturnal penile tumescence and greater levels of psychological distress²⁰. In animal models by use of rabbits, increased estrogen levels were associated with ED²¹, and the structure of corpus cavernosum was damaged by administration of exogenous estrogen¹⁹. The current study, with 88.39% of participants being younger than 40 years old, indicated that elevated estradiol levels were associated with ED in young men. Simultaneously, one interesting finding is that BMIs in the groups did not show a significant difference, but the estradiol level was significantly higher in the ED group. As the majority of aromatase is localized to lipid cells²², it is plausible to assume that men with higher estradiol levels are those who are most obese and obesity has clearly been associated with ED^{23,24}. To the best of our knowledge, body weight is

made up of the sum of fat and lean mass. In men with reduced muscle mass, excess body fat can occur within the normal BMI range. In addition, BMI does not take into account the accumulation of visceral fat that characterizes the most morbid form of obesity: central obesity. Waist circumference appears to be more suitable to explain obesity-related health risks than BMI²⁵. Also, previous studies demonstrated that waist circumference was superior to BMI in predicting ED^{23,24}. Therefore, the reasonable explanation is that the percent of men with central obesity in the ED group might have been higher compared with that in the other groups. Central obesity may not lead to an elevated BMI but can give rise to a higher estradiol level. Similar to our results, recent study reported that elevated estradiol level was significantly associated with ED independent of BMI²⁶.

The effect of testosterone on ejaculatory reflex could be explained by central, spinal and peripheral mechanisms¹. In animal models, elevated testosterone levels decreased serotonin and its metabolite, contributing to PE¹⁸. Our results reported that PE patients had significantly higher levels of testosterone compared with control. Similar results were reported by other studies^{27,28}. Yet, Patrick et al. found no association between PE and testosterone levels²⁹. One possible explanation was that saliva samples, instead of blood samples, were applied to measure testosterone levels in Patrick's study²⁹. Although some previous studies reported that low testosterone values were correlated with DE^{27,28}, there was no relationship between testosterone values and DE in the present study. This discrepancy could be illustrated by various populations and different eligibility criteria. One advantage of the current study was that the mean age of DE patients and normal controls were 32.19 and 32.33 years, respectively, eliminating the potential influence of aging on testosterone levels. In line with these observations, a recent prospective study reported that normal testosterone levels were found in most of the patients with DE³⁰. It has been proposed that thyroid function and prolactin can modulate and interact with the male genital tract even within the normal range^{31,32}. Besides, low level of prolactin is associated with a lessened ability to control ejaculation reflex³². However, our data demonstrated that there was no significant difference in levels of TSH or prolactin among the groups. Population-related differences might justify

this discrepancy, and the association between TSH or prolactin and ejaculatory disorders merits further investigation.

Although high estradiol milieu may adversely affect male sexual function, a moderate estradiol value is beneficial. Men with decreased estradiol levels reported low libido and sexual activity, which could be improved by estrogen administration³³. Ramasamy et al. demonstrated that in men with decreased libido and testosterone levels below 300 ng/dl, libido was significantly improved when the estradiol level was over 5 ng/dl³⁴. ER α , ER β and aromatase were widely expressed in male genital tract⁸. Particularly, ER α and ER β were abundantly localized in epididymal cauda, suggesting the role of estrogen in regulating epididymal function¹. Specifically, in the emission phase during ejaculation, estrogen influences epididymal contractility, thus affecting the latency time⁸. Estradiol could revert hypogonadism-induced downregulation of RhoA/ROCK pathway and restore epididymal contractility²⁰. In both rats and humans, ER α , ER β and aromatase were profusely expressed in male brain, and masculinization of male brain is modulated by locally produced estrogen²⁰. Estrogen can influence mood, mental state, cognition, and emotion through an interaction with serotonin receptors²⁰. In men with aromatase deficiency, estrogen treatment enhances libido, sexual activity, and erotic fantasies²¹. Animal experiment revealed that aromatase inhibitors significantly reduce ejaculatory activity and sexual motivation, which could be improved by estradiol administration²⁰. Decreased intromissions and no ejaculation were observed in ER α or aromatase knockout mice^{9,10}. However, a man lacking ER α was reported to have no change in sexual behavior¹². The current study indicated that estradiol values were significantly decreased for subjects in the DE group than for subjects in the control group. Due to anxiety, fear or attention deficit disorder, DE is characterized by disorders of arousal and sexual cues. Decreased estradiol values might lead to mood disorders before or during sexual intercourse. Also, the contractility of epididymis might be decreased in the setting of low estradiol levels. It was hypothesized that the expulsion phase was mediated by sympathetic excitation, whereas the emission phase was regulated by parasympathetic excitation⁶. In addition, sympathetic excitation might be modulated by estrogen, whereas parasympathetic sexual excitation might be dominated by testosterone⁶. Thus,

decreased estradiol values may attenuate the accumulation of sympathetic excitation, which in turn decelerate the expulsion process.

Our study has some limitations. First, estradiol levels in serum samples were not measured using mass spectrometry, which is considered the gold standard method for quantifying estradiol levels²⁹. Second, SHBG was not determined, and thyroid function would be better assessed including free triiodothyronine (FT3) and free thyroxine (FT4)³¹. Third, ejaculatory function can be modulated by psychological characteristics to some extent^{35,36}, which was not evaluated in this study. Fourth, seminal/infertility status may play a role in male sexual dysfunction^{35,37}. However, we did not evaluate seminal/infertility status of the included subjects. Fifth, our data did not include prostate inflammation, which may lead to an altered perception of the ejaculatory reflex and acquired PE^{36,38}. Finally, some patients with ejaculatory dysfunction preferred self-reported perceived IELT rather than stopwatch measured IELT. Despite this, it should be noted that self-reported perceived IELT has been proved to be closely correlated with stopwatch measured IELT³⁹.

In conclusion, elevated serum testosterone level was an independent risk factor for PE. Moreover, there was a progressively increasing graded-distribution of estradiol values from DE to PE and ED groups.

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Ethics declarations

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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ED: NON-HORMONAL CAUSES Handout/Protocol

LIFESTYLE AND HABITS THAT CAUSE ED—Things You Never Think Of !

There are many habits of daily life that a man might participate in that can cause ED. There are no warning labels to tell you that these habits, activities and substances are dangerous to your sex life, but I have accumulated a list from my experiences talking to patients and their wives about everyday activities that cause a man to lose his ability to have sex. Sadly this is usually after I have investigated every medical reason for their problem and thrown up my hands.

Jerry and the Monster that caused ED!

Jerry is a 47 year old plumber who came to me for ED and lack of sex drive. He had a low free testosterone and several other minor medical issues that could affect his ability to get and keep a rigid erection. He was obviously fit with well-defined muscles despite his low free T, which is not typical of my patient's pre pellet body type. I decided to treat him with pellets after unsuccessfully attempting to increase his free T and lower his estrogens with Arimidex.

He was very motivated to get better because he and his wife had always had a very active sex life, sometimes having sex more than once a day. The loss of this form of communication with his wife was damaging his marriage.

Finally after several office visits I had exhausted all of my "tricks" to resolve his ED problem when his wife suggested a weird habit that he had that might "mean something"; He drank "Monster" caffeine drinks all day long, and then took a highly caffeinated power before he worked out every night. When he got home he could not perform! Eureka! That was the problem---Caffeine!

Caffeine is a vasoconstrictor, and when taken in large amounts (Monster Energy drink has 160 mg/can), and his energy power had 360 mg of caffeine per dose, causes impotence. Remember that an erection requires dilation of the blood vessels to become rigid. Caffeine does the opposite, and constricts blood vessels. Some men are more sensitive to caffeine than others, but one of the first things that a man should do when faced with this problem is wean off caffeine!

Over the next 2 months Jerry weaned off all caffeine except 2 cups of coffee a day, and voila, his erections were back! Remember if you do this, caffeine withdrawal is a painful process, so do it slowly!

PS. His lack of sex drive was not a lack of T but came from fear that he would not be able to perform!

Other Vasoconstrictors contained in foods and drugs that you may not think of. If you have high blood pressure these substances can be deadly!

Vasoconstrictors That Can Cause ED

- **Caffeine**
- **Nicotine**
- **Sudafed, pseudoephedrine**
- **Cold medications, antihistamines**
- **Asthma medications and inhalers**
- **Methylphenidate**
- **Green tea**
- **ADD medicines-amphetamines**
- **Diet pills-over the counter and prescription-all of them**
- **Cocaine**
- **Epinephrine/adrenaline**
- **Adrenal supplements**
- **Phenylephrine**
- **Dopamine**
- **Angiotensin**
- **Atherosclerosis**
- **High Blood pressure**
- **Chronic stress**

Remember the words of your science teacher in high school? “For every action there is an equal and opposite reaction”, and in the world of substances and drugs it is the same. If you want to improve your erection then you can employ substances and medications that relax blood vessels.

Vasodilators that Can Help Treat ED

- **Nitric oxide (Neo 40 -supplement)**
- **Viagra, Levitra, Cialis**
- **Magnesium supplement**
- **L-arginine and ornithine**
- **Diazoxide**
- **Minoxidil**
- **Retigabine- anti-seizure**
- **flupirtine**
- **Nitroglycerine**
- **Exercise**
- **Deep Breathing and Yoga**

BLOOD PRESSURE MEDICINE

Yes, high blood pressure and low blood pressure can cause ED, so the blood pressure medicine you take is very important, and must leave you with a normal pressure, not one that is too low (less than 110/70).

The *best blood pressure medications* to take are (ARBs-angiotensin Receptor Blockers) Benecar® (olmesartan) and (Calcium Channel Blockers) Cardizem® (diltiazem).

The *worst blood pressure drugs for your ED* is Lisinopril ® (angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor or ACE inhibitor) and Metoprolol ® Procardia® and nifedipine (Beta Blockers). Diuretics like HCTZ (hydrochlorothiazide), Lasix® (furosemide) and Maxide® also lower blood volume and can decrease erection firmness and longevity. I feel obligated to emphasize that if the only blood pressure medication that you respond to is one of these, then it is more important to control your blood pressure, and you can add Viagra or other meds to help with your ED.

ANTI-INFLAMMATORY MEDS: MOTRIN, ADVIL, HYDROCORTISONE, AND ANTI-PROSTAGLANDINS

We all take anti-inflammatory drugs over the counter and prescription medications to treat aches and pains, but high dosage and daily dosing, and prescription anti-inflammatory medications can decrease the prostaglandins necessary to create an erection.

This effect is rarely the primary drug causing ED, but it may contribute. You can skip a dose if you are anticipating having sex.

DRUGS AND ED

By drugs, I mean illicit or illegal drugs that are obtained without a prescription from the doctor's office. The categories are THC (Marijuana), Cocaine/Ecstasy/Meth, Heroin and Morphine. All of these drugs decrease your ability to either get an erection or have a sex drive. If you want to keep your sex life intact then avoid these addictive drugs (not THC).

DEHYDRATION - Your "tank" must be full to get an erection!

Blood volume must be close to normal to get an erection. That means that you must drink *water, or non-caffeinated liquids* to fill up your blood volume "tank" if you want to get an erection. You can become dehydrated if you drink alcohol, fly, sweat, or exercise so pay attention to life activities prior to scheduling sex!

Exercise is good for you, lowers blood pressure and dilates your blood vessels but you must provide enough blood volume to avoid ED. That means that 8 - 8 ounce glasses of water a day if you are not doing anything physical, and double that if you

are exercising. Not only do you need to replace water if you are exercising, but electrolytes salt and potassium are necessary so the product G2 is a wise choice to replenish your body during exercise.

STRESS Can Decrease Both Your Sex Drive And Your Ability To Perform

Stress of modern life is unavoidable however long working hours, fear for your ability to support yourself or your family, or constant intrusion of messages and phone calls can increase your cortisol, estrone and adrenalin and these hormones bind up your testosterone and counteract your erections.

It is important to have time to yourself where you can relax and enjoy life. Find out what activity allows you to relax and have fun and schedule it into your day. Aerobic exercise, weight lifting, stretching, yoga, reading sitting and watching TV or golf are all ways you can chill your adrenal gland out and get your sex life back on track.

SEDENTARY Lifestyle—Will Counteract Testosterone and cause ED

Most of us currently use our brains more than our bodies, so we sit around making fat out of our food and fat makes estrogen. In men too much estrogen counteracts testosterone and results in impotence. The fatter a man is, the worse this gets!

Another outcome of sedentary lifestyle is that we don't use our muscles enough and therefore inhibit blood flow everywhere and there is a decrease in nitric oxide. We can't just sit everyday and expect to have a great sex life!

Veganism—lack of animal protein

I am not a fan of veganism, not just because I am a confirmed omnivore (eats everything), but because in my experience my vegan patients do not have the education as to what they need to eat every day to provide their bodies with vital proteins required for their bodies to function. Those men who are vegans and are not obsessive about the amount of plant protein they take in to replace meat, cheese, eggs and other animal products that provide amino acids for bodily functions, end up without the muscle mass and hormones (all stimulatory hormones to every gland are made of proteins), and ED can come from lack of NO (Nitrous Oxide which comes from meat proteins).

Rarely have I found that veganism is properly done, but even then muscle mass is low and weak without the building blocks of animal proteins. The worst form of veganism is that type that consists of a salad every day and all the junk food you can ingest! For adequate sex hormones and nitric oxide you will need to ingest eggs, cheese and some meat.

SMOKING (NICOTINE)- SMOKING CAN KILL YOU AND YOUR SEX LIFE

Tobacco contains nicotine a vasoconstrictor, and creates hypoxia (lack of oxygen) throughout your body. A pack of cigarettes is equal to one cigar, so you can't deny that you are a smoker if you smoke cigars! I have seen several long term smokers that continued to smoke against all warnings and then were angry that they were completely impotent, such that Viagra doesn't work. That is what smoking does, besides requiring you to give up physical hobbies you love, and make you immobile. Stop before it is too late, to save your sex life, if the fear of losing your whole life hasn't motivated you yet!

4/18

KCM

Extra information Male Sexual Dysfunction

Male Sexual Dysfunction

Erectile Dysfunction Etiology

- Testosterone deficiency
- Vascular compromise, arteriosclerosis, low blood pressure, dehydration.
- Medications that interfere:
 - Antihypertensives
 - Diuretics
 - Finasteride
 - Beta Blockers
 - Alpha adrenergic blockers
- Anti-prostaglandins
- Penile scar tissue

- Morgentaler, Abraham, *Testosterone for Life*, c. 2009, p. 33,44-58,81-83.

Testosterone is Critical to Men's Erections and Libido

In Two Ways:

#1. T stimulates the sexual centers of the brain--→
convert arousing thoughts and sensations into
nervous stimulation to dilate blood vessels.

#2. Testosterone directly stimulates the T receptors
in the penile corpora cavernosa to create chemicals
that bring about an erection.

Morgentaler, Abraham, *Testosterone for Life*, c. 2009, p. 33,44-58,81-83.

Neuro-transmitters and Receptors involved in Erections

- Adrenergic nerves secrete Noradrenaline (NA) receptors that stimulate sympathetic contraction
- NA is the main neurotransmitter controlling tumescence
- Parasympathetic nerves secrete Acetylcholine resulting in smooth muscle relaxation of arteries, cavernosal smooth muscle
- Nitric oxide (NO) is the primary neurotransmitter resulting in an erection.
- There is an alternating stimulation of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves to maintain erection

PSA Special Instructions

- It is a screening test
- Avoid sex and prostate exam, riding a bike and hot tubs for 72 hours before test
- If abnormal then order Total and Free PSA
- If still abnormal refer for exam to Urologist
- Some men maintain high PSAs from
 - Infection-prostatitis
 - Other systemic infections
 - Allopurinol
 - BP medication-minoxidil orally

Erectile Function:

Other neuro-transmitters include..

- Vasoactive Peptide (VIP)
- Calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP)
- Prostaglandins
- Other Peptides

Association of Concussion Symptoms With Testosterone Levels and Erectile Dysfunction in Former Professional US-Style Football Players

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IMPORTANCE Small studies suggest that head trauma in men may be associated with low testosterone levels and sexual dysfunction through mechanisms that likely include hypopituitarism secondary to ischemic injury and pituitary axonal tract damage. Athletes in contact sports may be at risk for pituitary insufficiencies or erectile dysfunction (ED) because of the high number of head traumas experienced during their careers. Whether multiple symptomatic concussive events are associated with later indicators of low testosterone levels and ED is unknown.

OBJECTIVE To explore the associations between concussion symptom history and participant-reported indicators of low testosterone levels and ED.

DESIGN, SETTING, AND PARTICIPANTS This cross-sectional study of former professional US-style football players was conducted in Boston, Massachusetts, from January 2015 to March 2017. Surveys on past football exposures, demographic factors, and current health conditions were sent via electronic and postal mail to participants within and outside of the United States. Analyses were conducted in Boston, Massachusetts; the data analysis began in March 2018 and additional analyses were performed through June 2019. Of the 13 720 male former players eligible to enroll who were contacted, 3506 (25.6%) responded.

EXPOSURES Concussion symptom score was calculated by summing the frequency with which participants reported 10 symptoms, such as loss of consciousness, disorientation, nausea, memory problems, and dizziness, at the time of football-related head injury.

MAIN OUTCOMES AND MEASURES Self-reported recommendations or prescriptions for low testosterone or ED medication served as indicators for testosterone insufficiency and ED.

RESULTS In 3409 former players (mean [SD] age, 52.5 [14.1] years), the prevalence of indicators of low testosterone levels and ED was 18.3% and 22.7%, respectively. The odds of reporting low testosterone levels or ED indicators were elevated for previously established risk factors (eg, diabetes, sleep apnea, and mood disorders). Models adjusted for demographic characteristics, football exposures, and current health factors showed a significant monotonically increasing association of concussion symptom score with the odds of reporting the low testosterone indicator (highest vs lowest quartile, odds ratio, 2.39; 95% CI, 1.79-3.19; $P < .001$). The ED indicator showed a similar association (highest quartile vs lowest, odds ratio, 1.72; 95% CI, 1.30-2.27; $P < .001$).

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE Concussion symptoms at the time of injury among former football players were associated with current participant-reported low testosterone levels and ED indicators. These findings suggest that men with a history of head injury may benefit from discussions with their health care clinicians regarding testosterone deficiency and sexual dysfunction.

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Healthy sexual function is important for psychosocial well-being^{1,2} and intimate partner relations.^{3,4} *Erectile dysfunction* (ED), defined as the inability to maintain an erection sufficient for sexual activity,⁵ and pituitary hormone deficiencies may be long-term sequelae of traumatic brain injury (TBI).⁶ A plausible biological mechanism for such effects is trauma-induced pituitary damage, which may lead to insufficiencies in testosterone, growth hormone, or cortisol levels,^{7,8} termed *posttraumatic hypopituitarism*.⁹⁻¹¹

Studies on sexual function in participants with brain injuries have reported a reduced frequency of intercourse,^{10,12-14} diminished libido,^{10,12-19} impaired ability to orgasm,^{10,12,13,18,19} ED,^{6,10,13-15,17} and sexual arousal issues.^{10,12,18} However, these studies were conducted in clinical settings,^{6,9,10,12-19} many were small (N < 100)^{9,13-15,17,19} or did not specifically investigate ED.^{12,16,18,19} Only 1 large study examined ED subsequent to a single TBI in 73 000 clinical patients and 218 000 controls.⁶ Over a 10-year follow-up, the adjusted hazard ratio for ED in patients with TBI was 2.5 compared with participants without injuries, and greater TBI severity was associated with higher risk of ED.⁶ However, this study focused only on medically evaluated single head injuries, rendering results less applicable to often underdiagnosed sports-related head traumas.^{20,21} Furthermore, this study did not evaluate dose-response associations with repeated head injuries and lacked covariate data, such as body mass index (BMI; calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared).²²

Limited research has been conducted on populations likely to receive repeated head injuries, such as athletes in combative and contact sports or the military. Small studies of professional boxers have found hormone insufficiencies²³⁻²⁵ and smaller pituitary volumes²³ when compared with controls. One study of 68 National Football League (NFL) players with poor quality-of-life scores found significant associations between repeated mild head injury and pituitary and sexual dysfunction.²⁶ Three small studies (all N < 40) reported that veterans with mild blast-related head injury were more likely to have a pituitary hormone insufficiency compared with civilians and uninjured veterans.²⁷⁻²⁹ Exploring these end points in professional US-style football players could yield new insights given that prior studies were small, looked only at clinically defined single head injuries, were conducted in players with a low quality of life, or were conducted in veterans with blast-related rather than mechanical trauma.

We examined the association between football-related concussion symptoms at the time of football injury and self-reported medication recommendations for low testosterone levels or ED in a large cohort of former professional US-style football players. Because former players are at increased risk for ED comorbidities, such as sleep apnea,^{30,31} cardiometabolic disease,³²⁻³⁴ opioid use,³⁵ depression,^{30,36-41} obesity,³⁰ and prior use of performance enhancing drugs,⁴² we conducted analyses further adjusted for these factors.

Methods

Participants

The Football Players' Health Study (FPHS)⁴³ recruited men who played for the NFL after 1960, when the adoption of hard plas-

Key Points

Question Are professional US-style football players with a history of multiple concussion symptoms more likely to report indicators of low testosterone levels or erectile dysfunction (ED)?

Findings In this cross-sectional study of 3409 former players, a monotonically increasing association was found between the number of concussion symptoms and the odds of reporting an indicator of low testosterone level and ED.

Meaning Concussion symptoms among former football players were associated with low testosterone levels and ED indicators, suggesting that men with a history of head injury may benefit from discussions with their health care clinicians regarding these treatable outcomes.

tic helmets was mostly complete. Of the 14 906 player addresses obtained from the NFL Players' Association, 1186 (8.6%) were invalid. Questionnaires were sent to the remaining 13 720 former players, of whom 3506 (25.6%) had responded as of March 2017. The Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center institutional review board approved this study. Informed written consent was obtained from all participants prior to participation.

Concussion Symptoms

Respondents were asked: "While playing or practicing football, did you experience a blow to the head, neck, or upper body followed by any of the following: headaches, nausea, dizziness, loss of consciousness (LOC), memory problems, disorientation, confusion, seizure, visual problems, or feeling unsteady on your feet?" Response options were: none, once, 2 to 5 times, 6 to 10 times, or 11 times or more for each symptom.

Outcomes

Respondents were asked "Has a medical provider ever recommended or prescribed medicine for: (1) low testosterone or (2) ED?" An affirmative answer served as an indicator of a history of low testosterone levels or ED, respectively. Participants reporting that a health care clinician had ever recommended or prescribed medication for either outcome were considered cases. Participants were additionally asked whether they currently took medication for low testosterone levels or ED.

Covariates

Participants chose the category that best described their race/ethnicity and were categorized by investigators as black, white, or other. Football position may be a proxy for training regimen, nutrition, and other unmeasured variables and has been associated with injuries.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁷ Respondents provided the position(s) played most frequently, which included defensive back, defensive line, kicker/punter, linebacker, offensive line, quarterback, running back, special teams, tight end, or wide receiver. Respondents who selected "special teams" in addition to strength-based positions (eg, offensive line, defensive line, or tight end) were assigned "special line."⁴⁸ Players who selected "special teams" and speed-based positions (eg, running back, wide receiver, defensive back, or linebacker) were assigned to "special speed." For the 1037 players (29.6% of all respondents) who endorsed multiple

positions, we assigned the highest-risk position based on mild TBI risk per 100 game positions.⁴⁴

Body mass index during professional play was calculated using self-reported height and professional weight (<25.0, 25.0-30.0, or >30.0). Participants reported the number of seasons of professional play. For 70 men (2.1%) missing these data, total seasons were calculated using the first and last year of professional play or from Pro-Football Reference (PFR) data.⁴⁹ Participants were asked “During your active playing years, did you take any medications or other drugs to help performance?”

Participants were asked whether they had ever been recommended or prescribed medication for hypertension, high cholesterol levels, diabetes, heart failure, heart rhythm issues, and/or pain. They were separately asked if they had received a diagnosis of cancer, sleep apnea, or myocardial infarction or had undergone cardiac surgery. Participants were considered to have a heart condition if they reported heart rhythm issues, myocardial infarction, heart failure, or cardiac surgery. Self-reported weight and height were used to calculate their current BMI.

Anxious and depressive symptoms over the prior 2 weeks were assessed using the Patient Health Questionnaire 4. Responses were separately summed for anxious and depressive symptoms and dichotomized at more than 3 to indicate high depressive or anxiety symptoms.^{50,51} Participants were considered to have depression or anxiety if they reported high symptoms or were currently prescribed antidepressants or anxiolytics, respectively. Alcohol intake was quantified as the total number of alcohol beverages consumed per week.

Statistical Analyses

We calculated the mean age, number of seasons, start year, and end year for study participants. To examine selection bias, we used PFR data to compare the FPHS cohort with all former players who played after 1960. Two-sample *t* tests and χ^2 tests were used to identify differences between the FPHS and PFR.

Concussion symptom frequency responses of none, once, 2 to 5 times, 6 to 10 times, or 11 or more were coded as 0, 1, 3.5, 8, and 13, respectively, and then summed to create a concussion symptom score. This score was then divided into quartiles to minimize the influence of outliers. Participants who did not respond to more than 5 concussion symptoms were excluded (*n* = 97). Of the 3409 remaining participants, 1 or more missing symptoms were imputed for 365 players (10.7%) via multiple imputation using chained equations.⁵² Thirty-nine participants (1.1%) who did not respond to the LOC question were excluded from models examining LOC as the exposure. Data from participants who did not respond to outcome questions were excluded from related analyses (low testosterone levels, $N_{\text{missing}} = 75$ [2.2%]; ED, $N_{\text{missing}} = 77$ [2.3%]). Multiple imputation was used for covariates with missing data ($N_{\text{missing}} = 3$ to 88).

To determine whether indicators of low testosterone levels and ED were more prevalent among men with established low testosterone levels and ED risk factors (eg, diabetes), we examined associations between risk factors and outcomes in age- and race-adjusted models. To measure the association of concussion symptom scores with indicators of low testosterone levels and ED, we calculated odds ratios (ORs) separately for indicators of low testosterone levels and ED as the

dependent variable and concussion symptoms as the independent variable after adjusting for age and race. Models were further adjusted for football exposures and current health factors in exploratory analyses. To address the possibility that recall bias may have affected the number of reported concussion symptoms, we used LOC as a more easily recalled exposure.^{53,54} To test for linear trends, the median of the concussion symptom quartile or LOC category was assigned to each participant and entered in models as a continuous variable. We additionally examined concussion scores and LOC as continuous measures. To determine whether current health factors statistically mediated associations between concussion scores and low testosterone levels or ED, we fit fully adjusted models with and without each current health factor. We calculated the percentage mediation for each variable as: $100 * ((\beta_{\text{without mediator}} - \beta_{\text{with mediator}}) / \beta_{\text{without mediator}})$.

To increase the likelihood that we were capturing men with low testosterone levels and ED, we separately considered only the subset of men who reported currently taking medication for low testosterone levels or ED as cases, excluding men who reported a history of medication recommendation or prescription but no current use. We next examined associations in younger players by restricting the data set to men 50 years or younger. We also restricted the data set to men who last played 20 years or fewer before the survey to determine whether concussion symptoms experienced 2 or more decades prior were associated with the outcomes. Depression and anxiety can lead to ED,⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ and low testosterone levels⁵⁸ and ED^{59,60} may cause or exacerbate depression. We therefore included indicators of depression and anxiety in sensitivity analyses. To address the possibility that stigma associated with ED was associated with the response rate, we ran analyses in which all ED nonrespondents were imputed as either “no ED” or “have ED.”

We used inverse probability weighting⁶¹ to account for possible selection bias from nonparticipation in the FPHS. We predicted the probability of participation in the FPHS based on position, BMI, career length, and first and last year of professional play using PFR data. The inverse of these probabilities, stabilized and truncated at the 5th and 95th percentiles to minimize the effect of outliers, were used as weights in fully adjusted models of low testosterone levels and ED.^{49,61} Odds ratios for all analyses were estimated using generalized linear models (“glm” package; R Statistical Software; R Foundation) and statistical significance was set at $P < .05$.

Results

Table 1 shows the distribution of demographic, football, and current health-related variables by concussion symptom quartile. Participants’ mean (SD) age was 52.5 (14.1) years. Participants had played a mean (SD) of 6.8 (3.8) seasons. Respondents of the FPHS began their careers 4 years earlier than nonrespondents, ended their careers 3 years earlier, and had slightly longer careers (career start: $t = 13.1$; 95% CI, 3.2-4.4; career end: $t = 9.3$; 95% CI, 2.1-3.2; career duration: $t = 14.3$; 95% CI, -1.3 to -1.0; $P < .001$ for all). Playing position differed among respondents vs nonrespondents (offensive linemen:

Table 1. Demographic, Football, and Current Health Factors by Concussion Symptom Quartile for 3409 Participants

Quartile (Concussion Score Range)	Concussion Symptom Quartile, No. (%)			
	1 (0.0-10.5)	2 (10.5-23.0)	3 (23.5-43.5)	4 (43.5-130.0)
No.	853 (25.0)	852 (25.0)	852 (25.0)	852 (25.0)
Demographic Factors				
Age, y				
21-40	202 (23.7)	198 (23.2)	228 (26.8)	240 (28.2)
41-60	308 (36.1)	341 (40.0)	398 (46.7)	416 (48.8)
>60	343 (40.2)	313 (36.7)	226 (26.5)	196 (23.0)
Race/ethnicity				
Black	310 (36.6)	286 (34.2)	347 (41.2)	331 (39.1)
White	514 (60.8)	534 (63.9)	479 (56.8)	475 (56.1)
Other	22 (2.6)	16 (1.9)	17 (2.0)	40 (4.7)
Football Exposures				
BMI while playing professional football ^a				
<25.0	63 (7.4)	36 (4.2)	49 (5.8)	39 (4.6)
25.0-30.0	427 (50.1)	404 (47.4)	379 (44.5)	322 (37.8)
>30.0	363 (42.6)	412 (48.4)	423 (49.6)	491 (57.6)
Professional use of PED	87 (10.2)	99 (11.6)	135 (15.8)	229 (26.9)
Position				
Defensive back	117 (13.7)	118 (13.8)	142 (16.7)	122 (14.3)
Defensive line	104 (12.2)	83 (9.7)	82 (9.6)	100 (11.7)
Kicker/punter	61 (7.2)	23 (2.7)	14 (1.6)	6 (0.7)
Linebacker	81 (9.5)	79 (9.3)	86 (10.1)	113 (13.3)
Offensive line	137 (16.1)	179 (21.0)	155 (18.2)	157 (18.4)
Quarterback	51 (6.0)	58 (6.8)	36 (4.2)	18 (2.1)
Running back	70 (8.2)	68 (8.0)	87 (10.2)	94 (11.0)
Special teams only	3 (0.4)	10 (1.2)	8 (0.9)	6 (0.7)
Special speed	20 (2.3)	34 (4.0)	43 (5.0)	37 (4.3)
Special strength	36 (4.2)	49 (5.8)	48 (5.6)	56 (6.6)
Tight end	59 (6.9)	64 (7.5)	68 (8.0)	71 (8.3)
Wide receiver	114 (13.4)	87 (10.2)	83 (9.7)	72 (8.5)
Current health-related factors				
Hypertension	322 (37.7)	306 (35.9)	326 (38.3)	329 (38.6)
High cholesterol levels	272 (31.9)	289 (33.9)	309 (36.3)	303 (35.6)
Diabetes	60 (7.0)	92 (10.8)	76 (8.9)	72 (8.5)
Heart condition ^b	160 (18.8)	170 (20.0)	155 (18.2)	152 (17.8)
Prescription pain medication	127 (14.9)	203 (23.8)	280 (32.9)	360 (42.3)
Prostate or testicular cancer	33 (3.9)	42 (4.9)	24 (2.8)	33 (3.9)
Sleep apnea	127 (14.9)	178 (20.9)	198 (23.2)	257 (30.2)
Current BMI ^a				
<25.0	60 (7.0)	46 (5.4)	52 (6.1)	20 (2.3)
25.0-30.0	388 (45.5)	372 (43.7)	337 (39.6)	333 (39.1)
>30.0	401 (47.0)	429 (50.4)	457 (53.6)	494 (58.0)
Mood indicators				
Anxiety only	28 (3.3)	42 (4.9)	68 (8.0)	98 (11.5)
Depression only	17 (2.0)	30 (3.5)	47 (5.5)	45 (5.3)
Depression and anxiety	26 (3.0)	68 (8.0)	113 (13.3)	262 (30.8)
Alcohol drinks per wk				
None	268 (31.4)	270 (31.7)	253 (29.7)	271 (31.8)
1-7	314 (36.8)	329 (38.6)	309 (36.3)	314 (36.9)
8-14	158 (18.5)	146 (17.1)	145 (17.0)	137 (16.1)
≥15	99 (11.6)	101 (11.9)	134 (15.7)	122 (14.3)

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; PED, performance-enhancing drugs.

^a Calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared.

^b Heart condition includes self-reported heart rhythm issues, myocardial infarction, heart failure, or cardiac surgery.

Table 2. Prevalence of History of Low Testosterone Levels and Erectile Dysfunction Indicators by Demographic, Football, and Current Health Factors for 3409 Participants

Characteristic	No.	Prevalence of History of Prescription Recommendation by Self-report, No. (%)	
		Low Testosterone Levels	Erectile Dysfunction
All		611 (18.3)	755 (22.7)
Demographic Factors			
Age, y			
21-40	868	70 (8.2)	46 (5.4)
41-60	1463	301 (20.9)	307 (21.4)
>60	1078	240 (23.1)	402 (38.6)
Race			
Black	1274	210 (16.8)	280 (22.5)
White	2002	373 (19.1)	454 (23.2)
Other	95	23 (24.2)	14 (15.2)
Missing	38	5 (13.5)	7 (18.9)
Football Exposures			
BMI while playing professional football ^a			
<25.0	187	33 (17.7)	36 (19.9)
25.0-30.0	1532	243 (16.3)	353 (23.6)
>30.0	1689	334 (20.2)	365 (22.0)
Professional use of PED			
No	2859	471 (16.8)	608 (21.8)
Yes	550	140 (26.1)	147 (27.3)
Current Health-Related Factors			
Hypertension			
No	2083	287 (13.9)	297 (14.5)
Yes	1283	318 (25.5)	450 (35.9)
High cholesterol levels			
No	2165	292 (13.7)	352 (16.5)
Yes	1173	309 (27.0)	387 (33.6)
Diabetes			
No	3021	504 (16.9)	596 (20.0)
Yes	300	95 (32.5)	136 (46.7)
Heart condition ^b			
No	2772	437 (16.0)	522 (19.2)
Yes	637	174 (28.5)	233 (37.8)
Prescription pain medication			
No	2439	328 (13.7)	415 (17.4)
Yes	970	283 (29.9)	340 (35.7)
Prostate or testicular cancer			
No	3277	576 (18)	686 (21.4)
Yes	132	35 (27.1)	69 (54.3)
Sleep apnea			
No	2582	367 (14.5)	478 (18.8)
Yes	760	236 (31.9)	264 (35.7)
Current BMI ^a			
<25.0	178	16 (9.1)	32 (18.4)
25.0-30.0	1430	211 (15.1)	276 (19.8)
>30.0	1781	383 (22.0)	442 (25.4)

(continued)

Table 2. Prevalence of History of Low Testosterone Levels and Erectile Dysfunction Indicators by Demographic, Football, and Current Health Factors for 3409 Participants (continued)

Characteristic	No.	Prevalence of History of Prescription Recommendation by Self-report, No. (%)	
		Low Testosterone Levels	Erectile Dysfunction
Mood indicators^c			
No depression or anxiety	2562	357 (14.3)	479 (19.1)
Anxiety only	236	44 (19.0)	49 (21.2)
Depression only	139	36 (26.5)	43 (31.9)
Depression and anxiety	469	174 (37.8)	184 (40)
Alcohol drinks per wk			
None	1062	213 (20.5)	240 (23.1)
1-7	1266	210 (17.0)	266 (21.5)
8-14	586	97 (17.0)	128 (22.1)
≥15	456	85 (19.0)	111 (24.8)

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; PED, performance-enhancing drugs.

^a Calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared.

^b Heart condition includes self-reported heart rhythm issues, myocardial infarction, heart failure, or cardiac surgery.

^c Derived from Patient Health Questionnaire 4.

FPHS, 21.7%; nonrespondents, 3.6%; $\chi^2 = 100.9$; $P < .001$; defensive backs: FPHS, 14.8%; nonrespondents, 9.9%; $\chi^2 = 40.7$; $P < .001$; running backs: FPHS, 9.4%; nonrespondents, 13.3%; $\chi^2 = 32.3$; $P < .001$; tight ends: FPHS, 7.7%; nonrespondents, 5.9%; $\chi^2 = 11.7$; $P < .001$; wide receivers: FPHS, 0.5%; nonrespondents, 12.4%; $\chi^2 = 7.9$; $P < .001$).

Of 3409 participants, 611 (18.3%) reported indicators of low testosterone levels, and 755 (22.7%) reported indicators of ED. Fewer than 10% of participants reported indicators of low testosterone levels and ED (335 [9.8%]). Of 611 players with low testosterone indicators, 243 (39.8%) were currently taking medication. Among players with indicators of ED, half were currently taking medication (379 [50.2%]). The prevalence of indicators of low testosterone levels and ED was greater in men with established risk factors (Table 2). In models that included age and race, indicators of low testosterone levels and ED were significantly associated with hypertension, high cholesterol levels, diabetes, heart conditions, prescription pain medication, reproductive cancer, sleep apnea, obesity, and mood disorders (Table 3).

We found statistically significant, monotonically increasing associations between concussion symptoms and indicators for low testosterone levels and ED in models adjusted for age and race (Figure; low testosterone OR, 3.49; 95% CI, 2.68-4.56; ED OR, 2.41; 95% CI, 1.87-3.11). In models further adjusted for professional football-related exposures (eg, position, BMI during professional play, and self-reported use of performance enhancing drugs), estimates remained essentially unchanged from age- and race-adjusted models (Figure; low testosterone OR, 3.38; 95% CI, 2.57-4.45; ED OR, 2.32; 95% CI, 1.78-3.02).

Associations in models further adjusted for current health factors were slightly attenuated but remained statistically significant (Figure; low testosterone OR, 2.39; 95% CI, 1.79-3.19;

ED OR, 1.72; 95% CI, 1.30-2.27). Loss of consciousness was associated with indicators of low testosterone levels and ED in models adjusted for demographics, football exposures, and current risk factors (Figure). In fully adjusted models with concussion symptoms and LOC coded as continuous variables, both were significantly associated with low testosterone levels and ED (concussion symptoms: low testosterone $\beta = 1.01$; 95% CI, 1.01-1.02; $P \leq .001$; ED $\beta = 1.01$; 95% CI, 1.01-1.01; $P \leq .001$; LOC: low testosterone $\beta = 1.08$; 95% CI, 1.04-1.12; $P \leq .001$; ED $\beta = 1.06$; 95% CI, 1.02-1.10; $P = .001$). For low testosterone, men with relatively low concussion scores (the second quartile) had significantly elevated ORs compared with men in the lowest quartile (OR, 1.41; 95% CI, 1.05-1.89; $P = .02$).

The largest statistical mediators of the association between concussion score and the outcomes were current use of prescription pain medication (low testosterone mediation, 7.9%; ED mediation, 20.4%) and sleep apnea (low testosterone mediation, 9.7%; ED mediation, 5.9%). All other current health factors statistically mediated the associations by less than 4%.

Results were similar in analyses restricted to participants currently using low testosterone and ED medication among players younger than 50 years, among players who played 20 years or longer before the study, and in inverse probability-weighted analyses. Further adjustment for mood indicators somewhat attenuated associations (Table 4). We conducted a post hoc analysis to compare associations among men with low testosterone levels only, ED only, and men with both. Associations with concussion symptoms were stronger among men reporting low testosterone levels and ED compared with men reporting only 1 of the 2 outcomes (eTable in the Supplement; highest concussion quartile vs lowest; men with low testosterone only: OR, 2.66; 95% CI, 1.84-3.83, $P < .001$; men with ED only: OR, 1.47; 95% CI, 1.06-2.04; $P = .02$; men with both outcomes: OR, 4.95; 95% CI, 3.40-7.22; $P < .001$).

Discussion

We identified a highly robust, monotonically increasing association between self-reported concussion symptoms at the time of football injury and self-reported low testosterone levels and ED indicators. Even participants with relatively few concussion symptoms (ie, those in the second quartile) had significantly elevated odds of reporting low testosterone levels compared with men in the lowest quartile.

Our findings add to a literature composed of studies linking single head injuries with pituitary dysfunction in the general population,^{6,9-11} small studies of professional boxers,^{23-26,62,63} and findings from veterans with blast-induced head injury,²⁷⁻²⁹ indicating that mechanical and blast-induced trauma may have associations with pituitary and sexual function. To our knowledge, this is the first large study to examine low testosterone levels and ED, albeit indirectly, in a nonclinical population with a high prevalence of repeated injuries. This is also the first study to adjust for risk factors such as BMI.

Several hypothesized mechanisms, including concussion-associated hypopituitarism, may explain the associations of

Table 3. Low Testosterone Levels or ED Indicators in Association With Established Low Testosterone Levels and ED Risk Factors for 3409 Participants

Characteristic	Prevalence of History of Prescription Recommendation by Self-report, OR (95% CI)	
	Low Testosterone	ED
Model 1: Mutually Adjusted for Age and Race		
Age, y		
21-40	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
41-60	2.99 (2.27-3.94) ^a	4.82 (3.49-6.66) ^a
>60	3.41 (2.56-4.55) ^a	12.22 (8.79-16.98) ^a
Race/ethnicity		
White	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
Black	0.97 (0.80-1.17)	1.4 (1.17-1.69) ^a
Other	1.61 (0.98-2.64)	0.87 (0.47-1.59)
Missing	0.64 (0.25-1.67)	0.63 (0.27-1.50)
Models 2-10: Age and Race Adjusted		
Model 2: hypertension	1.81 (1.50-2.19) ^a	2.26 (1.89-2.71) ^a
Model 3: high cholesterol levels	1.96 (1.62-2.37) ^a	1.69 (1.41-2.02) ^a
Model 4: diabetes	2.04 (1.55-2.69) ^a	2.66 (2.04-3.45) ^a
Model 5: heart condition ^b	1.73 (1.39-2.15) ^a	1.64 (1.34-2.01) ^a
Model 6: prescription pain medication	2.53 (2.10-3.05) ^a	2.3 (1.93-2.75) ^a
Model 7: prostate or testicular cancer	1.31 (0.87-1.97)	2.54 (1.75-3.69) ^a
Model 8: sleep apnea	2.51 (2.07-3.05) ^a	2.04 (1.69-2.46) ^a
Model 9: current BMI ^c		
<25.0	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
25.0-30.0	1.93 (1.13-3.32) ^d	1.35 (0.88-2.06)
>30.0	3.11 (1.82-5.30) ^a	1.99 (1.31-3.02) ^e
Model 10: mood disorders		
None	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
Anxiety indicators only	1.63 (1.14-2.33) ^e	1.59 (1.12-2.26) ^d
Depression indicators only	2.22 (1.48-3.34) ^a	2.11 (1.41-3.15) ^a
Depression and anxiety indicators	4 (3.19-5.02) ^a	3.37 (2.67-4.24) ^a
Model 11: alcohol drinks per wk		
None	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
1-7	0.84 (0.68-1.05)	1.03 (0.84-1.27)
8-14	0.81 (0.61-1.06)	0.99 (0.76-1.28)
15+	0.94 (0.71-1.26)	1.27 (0.96-1.67)

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; ED, erectile dysfunction; OR, odds ratio.

^a $P < .001$.

^b Heart condition includes self-reported heart rhythm issues, myocardial infarction, heart failure, or cardiac surgery.

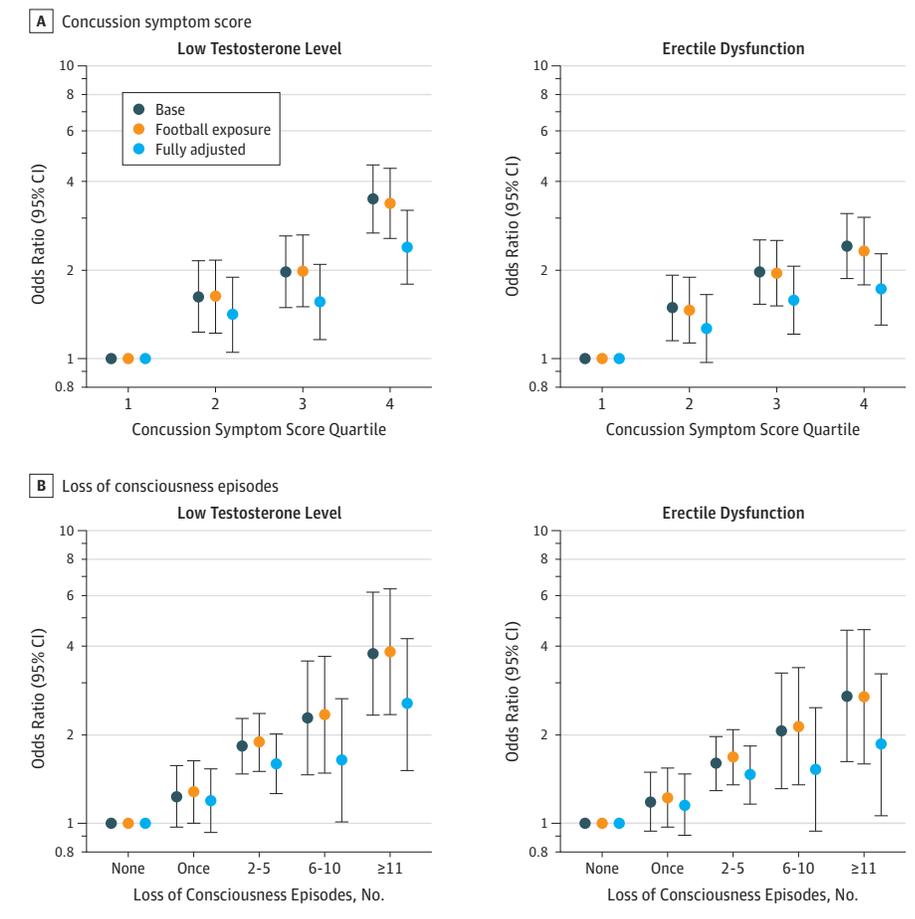
^c Calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared.

^d $P < .05$.

^e $P < .01$.

concussion with low testosterone levels and ED. The pituitary gland is perfused by long portal vessels branching off the internal carotid artery,⁶⁴ making it susceptible to mechanical trauma, low cerebral blood flow, and increased intracranial pressure associated with head injury.^{65,66} Acceleration and deceleration forces can shear axonal tracts that connect the pituitary to the hypothalamus. Thus, the combination of intracranial pressure, reduced blood flow, and diffuse axonal injury

Figure. Association Between Concussion Symptom Quartile and Loss of Consciousness With Low Testosterone and Erectile Dysfunction



A and B, The lowest quartile served as the reference for all models. The base model is adjusted for age and race/ethnicity; the football exposure model is further adjusted for body mass index (BMI) (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared) while playing professional football, position, and use of performance-enhancing drugs; and the fully adjusted model is further adjusted for current BMI, heart condition, diabetes, high cholesterol levels, hypertension, sleep apnea, use of prescription pain medication, alcohol drinks per week, and a history of testicular or prostate cancer. Linear tests of trend were significant ($P < .01$).

between the pituitary and the hypothalamus could cause diminished pituitary function, leading to low testosterone levels and ED. In exploratory mediation analyses, we found that adjusting for current prescription pain medication use and sleep apnea modestly attenuated the association of concussion symptoms with low testosterone levels and ED. These results suggest that pain medication and sleep apnea should be explored as possible pathways through which head injury affects hormone levels and sexual function.

Limitations

Our study has several limitations. First, we used indirect measures of low testosterone levels and ED. However, participant-reported health care clinician medication recommendations may be reasonable proxies: self-reported sexual dysfunction single-question assessments^{67,68} have largely replaced invasive physiological tests in clinical and research settings.⁶⁹⁻⁷¹ Medical records, often a criterion standard for case ascertainment for other outcomes, may be less reliable for sexual dysfunction given that only 30% of men seek medical treatment for ED.⁷² Nevertheless, US men are comparatively more likely to seek treatment vs men in European countries (56% vs 10%-47%) and more willing to take ED

medication.⁷³ Moreover, the validity of our indicators is supported by statistically significant associations with known low testosterone and ED risk factors and by sensitivity analyses in men who self-reported currently using testosterone therapy and ED medication.

Second, concussion data were collected retrospectively, raising the possibility of recall bias. However, the robust monotonic association of the concussion exposure with the outcomes suggests simple recall bias may not solely account for our findings. Third, the concussion symptom scale has not been validated. To our knowledge, there is no validated retrospective measure of concussion symptoms. In our data, findings were similar using LOC count.^{53,54,74,75} Moreover, simpler metrics, such as the number of diagnosed concussions, may not adequately capture the experience of concussion or concussion severity; at least 30% of concussions may be undiagnosed,^{21,75,76} players may hide concussions,²¹ and concussion management during professional play has changed over time.⁴⁵ Concussion symptoms have been used previously as a surrogate for head injury exposure and severity.⁷⁷⁻⁸⁰

Fourth, we do not know whether low testosterone levels or ED preceded men's exposure to professional football.

Table 4. Sensitivity Analyses for Low Testosterone Levels and Erectile Dysfunction Indicators for Each Quartile of Concussion Symptom Score for 3409 Participants

Model	No.		Concussion Symptom Quartile	History of Prescription Recommendation, OR (95%)	
	Low Testosterone Levels	Erectile Dysfunction		Low Testosterone Levels	Erectile Dysfunction
Model 1: base model ^a	3334	3332	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.62 (1.23-2.15) ^b	1.49 (1.15-1.92) ^b
			3	1.97 (1.49-2.6) ^c	1.96 (1.53-2.53) ^c
			4	3.49 (2.68-4.56) ^c	2.41 (1.87-3.11) ^c
Model 2: case definition includes only current medication users ^a	3334	3332	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.67 (1.10-2.56) ^d	1.21 (0.88-1.67)
			3	1.93 (1.26-2.94) ^b	1.65 (1.21-2.24) ^b
			4	3.02 (2.02-4.5) ^c	1.62 (1.18-2.24) ^b
Model 3: restricted to men ≤50 y ^a	1460	1457	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.41 (0.84-2.38)	1.69 (0.90-3.18)
			3	1.72 (1.05-2.83) ^d	2.75 (1.53-4.93) ^b
			4	2.92 (1.83-4.66) ^c	3.29 (1.85-5.85) ^c
Model 4: men who last played ≥20 y prior ^a	1953	1953	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.57 (1.14-2.17) ^b	1.48 (1.12-1.95) ^b
			3	1.76 (1.27-2.44) ^b	1.79 (1.35-2.38) ^c
			4	3.08 (2.24-4.24) ^c	2.09 (1.56-2.80) ^c
Model 5: fully adjusted including mood disorders ^e	3334	3332	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.33 (0.99-1.78)	1.19 (0.91-1.56)
			3	1.41 (1.05-1.90) ^d	1.43 (1.09-1.88) ^d
			4	1.89 (1.39-2.55) ^c	1.36 (1.02-1.83) ^d
Model 6: missing imputed as no ^a	3409	3409	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.61 (1.22-2.13) ^b	1.48 (1.15-1.91) ^b
			3	1.91 (1.45-2.52) ^c	1.96 (1.52-2.52) ^c
			4	3.43 (2.63-4.48) ^c	2.34 (1.82-3.02) ^c
Model 7: missing imputed as yes ^a	3409	3409	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.67 (1.29-2.17) ^c	1.51 (1.18-1.92) ^b
			3	2 (1.54-2.60) ^c	1.93 (1.52-2.46) ^c
			4	3.37 (2.61-4.34) ^c	2.46 (1.92-3.14) ^c
Model 8: inverse probability weighted ^e	3334	3332	1	1 [Reference]	1 [Reference]
			2	1.40 (1.04-1.89) ^d	1.34 (1.01-1.77) ^d
			3	1.50 (1.11-2.03) ^b	1.65 (1.25-2.19) ^c
			4	2.44 (1.82-3.29) ^c	1.90 (1.43-2.54) ^c

Abbreviation: OR, odds ratio.

^a Adjusted for age and race.^b $P < .01$.^c $P < .001$.^d $P < .05$.^e Adjusted for age, race, professional body mass index (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared), position, use of performance-enhancing drugs, current body mass index, heart condition (eg, heart rhythm issues, myocardial infarction, heart failure, or cardiac surgery), diabetes, high cholesterol levels, hypertension, sleep apnea, alcohol beverages per week, use of prescription pain medication, and history of testicular or prostate cancer.

Fifth, the stigma surrounding sexual dysfunction could affect participants' likelihood of speaking to their health care clinician or responding honestly on the survey.⁸¹ However, this would only produce the results presented in this article if such under-reporting were less likely among men with more reported concussion symptoms. Sixth, bias from the relatively low participation rate could have affected our estimates,⁸² although statistically significant monotonic relationships persisted in inverse probability of participation-weighted analyses. Seventh, illicit drug use may affect low testosterone^{83,84} and ED⁸⁵; however, we did not query illicit drug use. Finally, health status may have been associated with players' decisions to participate: the healthiest players may have been less motivated to participate and the players with the most impairment may have been unable to participate.⁸² However, measures of association would be biased only if participation was concurrently

associated with the exposure (concussion symptoms) and the outcome (low testosterone levels or ED).⁸⁶

Conclusions

This study's data suggest that concussion symptoms experienced during playing years may place NFL players at risk of low testosterone levels and ED decades later. These findings have implications for civilians and veterans who have experienced head injury, as well as for participants in combative and contact sports (eg, mixed martial arts, hockey, boxing, and soccer) who may experience repeated head trauma. Replication of our findings among nonprofessional football players and in the general population is a critical next step. Treatments for testosterone insufficiency and ED, including testosterone replacement therapy and phosphodiesterase type 5 inhibitors,

are generally considered safe and have high efficacy rates.⁸⁷⁻⁸⁹ Our results could encourage clinicians to proactively query these treatable outcomes in patients with brain injuries as well

as motivate future longitudinal studies to increase our understanding of the causal association between concussion and low testosterone levels and ED.

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Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Grashow, Weisskopf, Miller, Zafonte, Speizer, Courtney, Baggish, Taylor, Pascal-Leone, Nadler, Roberts.

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Sexual Medicine Reviews

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Review

Testosterone Replacement Therapy for Sexual Symptoms

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Abstract

Background

Several data have clearly shown that the endocrine system—and androgens in particular—play a pivotal role in regulating all the steps involved in the male sexual response cycle. Accordingly, testosterone (T) replacement therapy (TRT) represents a cornerstone of pharmacologic management of hypogonadal subjects with erectile dysfunction.

Aim

The aim of this review is to summarize all the available evidence supporting the role of T in the regulation of male sexual function and to provide a comprehensive summary regarding the sexual outcomes of TRT in patients complaining of sexual dysfunction.

FEEDBACK 

Methods

A comprehensive PubMed literature search was performed.

Main Outcome Measure

Specific analysis of preclinical and clinical evidence on the role of T in regulating male sexual function was performed. In addition, available evidence supporting the role of TRT on several sexual outcomes was separately investigated.

Results

T represents an important modulator of male sexual response function. However, the role of T in sexual functioning is less evident in epidemiologic studies because other factors, including organic, relational, and intrapsychic determinants, can orchestrate their effect independently from the state of androgens. Nonetheless, it is clear that TRT can ameliorate several aspects of sexual functioning, including libido, erectile function, and overall sexual satisfaction. Conversely, data on the role of TRT in improving orgasmic function are more conflicting. Finally, further controlled studies are needed to investigate the combination of TRT and PDE5 inhibitors.

Conclusion

Positive effects of TRT are observed only in the presence of a hypogonadal status (ie, total T < 12 nmol/L). In addition, TRT alone can be effective in restoring only milder forms of erectile dysfunction, whereas the combined therapy with other drugs is required when more severe vascular damage is present.

Rastrelli G, Guaraldi F, Reismann Y, et al. Testosterone Replacement Therapy for Sexual Symptoms. Sex Med Rev 2019;7:464–475.

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Key Words

Testosterone; Testosterone Replacement Therapy; Sexual Desire; Erectile Dysfunction; Ejaculation

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Conflict of Interest: The authors report no conflicts of interest.

FEEDBACK 

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FEEDBACK 



Systematic Review or Meta-analysis

Testosterone therapy for sexual dysfunction in men with Type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials

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Abstract

Aim

To evaluate the effectiveness of testosterone therapy on a range of sexual function domains in men with Type 2 diabetes.

Method

Electronic databases were searched for studies investigating the effect of testosterone therapy on sexual function in men with Type 2 diabetes. All randomized controlled trials were considered for inclusion if they compared the efficacy of testosterone therapy with that of placebo and reported sexual function outcomes. Statistical analysis was performed using a random-effects model, and heterogeneity was expressed using the I^2 statistic.

Results

A total of 611 articles were screened. Six randomized control trials, in a total of 587 men with Type 2 diabetes, were eligible for inclusion. The pooled data suggested that testosterone therapy improves sexual desire (random-effects pooled effect size 0.314; 95% CI 0.082–0.546) and erectile function (random-effects pooled effect size 0.203; 95% CI 0.007–0.399) when compared with control groups. Testosterone therapy had no significant effect on constitutional symptoms or other sexual domains compared with control groups. No studies have investigated the incidence of prostate cancer, fertility and cardiovascular disease after testosterone therapy in men with Type 2 diabetes.

Conclusion

Testosterone therapy may moderately improve sexual desire and erectile function in men with Type 2 diabetes; however, available data are limited, and the long-term risks of

testosterone therapy are not known in this specific patient group. We conclude that testosterone therapy is a potential treatment for men with Type 2 diabetes non-responsive to phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitors. Testosterone therapy could be considered for men with Type 2 diabetes when potential risks and benefits of therapy are carefully considered and other therapeutic options are unsuitable.

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Testosterone Treatment in Adult Men With Age-Related Low Testosterone: A Clinical Guideline From the American College of Physicians

Amir Qaseem, MD, PhD, MHA, Carrie A. Horwitch, MD, MPH, Sandeep Vijan, MD, MS, ... [See More +](#)[Author, Article and Disclosure Information](#)<https://doi.org/10.7326/M19-0882>[Eligible for CME Point-of-Care](#)

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Description:

The American College of Physicians (ACP) developed this guideline to provide clinical recommendations based on the current evidence of the benefits and harms of testosterone treatment in adult men with age-related low testosterone. This guideline is endorsed by the American Academy of Family Physicians.

Methods:

The ACP Clinical Guidelines Committee based these recommendations on a systematic review on the efficacy and safety of testosterone treatment in adult men with age-related low testosterone. Clinical outcomes were

evaluated by using the GRADE (Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation) system and included sexual function, physical function, quality of life, energy and vitality, depression, cognition, serious adverse events, major adverse cardiovascular events, and other adverse events.

Target Audience and Patient Population:

The target audience includes all clinicians, and the target patient population includes adult men with age-related low testosterone.

Recommendation 1a:

ACP suggests that clinicians discuss whether to initiate testosterone treatment in men with age-related low testosterone with sexual dysfunction who want to improve sexual function (conditional recommendation; low-certainty evidence). The discussion should include the potential benefits, harms, costs, and patient's preferences.

Recommendation 1b:

ACP suggests that clinicians should reevaluate symptoms within 12 months and periodically thereafter. Clinicians should discontinue testosterone treatment in men with age-related low testosterone with sexual dysfunction in whom there is no improvement in sexual function (conditional recommendation; low-certainty evidence).

Recommendation 1c:

ACP suggests that clinicians consider intramuscular rather than transdermal formulations when initiating testosterone treatment to improve sexual function in men with age-related low testosterone, as costs are considerably lower for the intramuscular formulation and clinical effectiveness and harms are similar.

Recommendation 2:

ACP suggests that clinicians not initiate testosterone treatment in men with age-related low testosterone to improve energy, vitality, physical function, or cognition (conditional recommendation; low-certainty evidence).

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Review Article | [Published: 27 March 2019](#)

What are the benefits and harms of testosterone therapy for male sexual dysfunction?—a systematic review

[Konstantinos Dimitropoulos](#) , [Paolo Verze](#), [Thomas Van den Broeck](#), [Andrea Salonia](#), [Cathy Yuhong Yuan](#), [Konstantinos Hatzimouratidis](#) & [Gert Dohle](#)

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Abstract

The role of Testosterone Therapy (TTh) in the management of male sexual dysfunction remains unclear. Objective of the authors was to systematically review the relevant literature assessing the benefits and harms of TTh in men with sexual dysfunction. EMBASE, MEDLINE, Cochrane Systematic Reviews—Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) (Cochrane HTA, DARE, HEED), Google Scholar, WHO international Clinical Trials Registry Platform Search Portal, CINAHL databases and clinicaltrial.gov were searched systematically in March 2015 and an updated search was performed in March 2016. Randomized and non-randomized comparative studies assessing the benefits and harms of TTh in hypogonadal, borderline eugonadal and eugonadal men suffering from sexual dysfunction were included. Risk of bias and confounding assessments were performed. A narrative synthesis was undertaken. Of the 6410 abstracts identified, 36 studies were judged to be eligible for inclusion, including 25 randomized clinical trials (RCTs) and 11 non-randomized comparative studies (NRCSs), recruiting a total of 4944 patients. RCTs were judged to have low or unclear risk of bias, while NRCSs had high risk of bias and thus, overall quality of

evidence was judged to be at least unclear. Based on the evidence mainly provided by the RCTs included in this systematic review, TTh could be considered for men with low or low-normal testosterone levels and problems with their sexual desire, erectile function and satisfaction derived from intercourse and overall sexual life. The exact testosterone formulation, dosage and duration of treatment remain to be clarified, while the safety profile of TTh also remains unclear. TTh could be used with caution in hypogonadal and most probably borderline eugonadal men to manage disorders of sexual desire, erectile function and sexual satisfaction. The overall low-to-moderate evidence quality highlights the need for robust and adequately designed clinical trials.

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Ethics declarations

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The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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