

Cardiovascular disease and testosterone therapy in male hypogonadism

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Funding information

NIHR Imperial Biomedical Research Centre; National Institute for Health and Care Research; Medical Research Council

Abstract

This review assesses the evidence of the physiological effects of testosterone on cardiovascular health, the association between male hypogonadism and cardiovascular health, and the effects of testosterone therapy on cardiovascular health in male hypogonadism. Preclinical studies suggest complex effects of testosterone on cardiovascular risk by acting on skeletal muscle, cardiomyocytes, vasculature, adipocytes, insulin action, and erythropoiesis. Furthermore, low testosterone has a bi-directional association with cardiometabolic risk. Observational studies have reported worse metabolic profiles in men with organic hypogonadism. However, a consistent association between major cardiovascular events and male hypogonadism has not been established. Hematocrit increases with testosterone therapy; however, most studies do not report an increase in venous thromboembolism risk. Although some observational studies and a small randomized controlled study reported an increased risk of cardiovascular disease, recent data confirm the medium-term cardiovascular safety of testosterone therapy in middle-aged and older men with low testosterone.

KEYWORDS

androgens, cardiovascular risks, hypogonadism, metabolic disorders, testosterone

INTRODUCTION

Rates of testosterone prescriptions have risen exponentially over the last few decades without a substantial increase in the prevalence of organic male hypogonadism.^{1,2} This is predominantly due to the treatment of middle-aged or older men with low serum testosterone concentration.³ In parallel, a small randomized controlled trial (RCT) of older men with low serum testosterone concentration⁴ and two observational studies^{5,6} reported increased cardiovascular events in men treated with testosterone. This triggered the United States Food and Drug Administration (US FDA) to raise concerns over increased cardiovascular risk with testosterone in older men with low testosterone and required manufacturers to update labeling on this poten-

tial risk.⁷ However, the European Medicines Agency concluded that there was no need to update their existing guidance due to insufficient evidence for adverse cardiovascular effects of testosterone therapy.⁸ Guidelines by professional organizations have acknowledged the lack of conclusive evidence on cardiovascular safety and recommended further studies.^{9,10} A subsequent individual participant data (IPD) meta-analysis¹¹ and a dedicated cardiovascular outcome trial¹² have improved our understanding of the cardiovascular effects of testosterone in men with hypogonadism.

This review will explore the physiological effects of testosterone on cardiovascular health and the association between male hypogonadism and cardiovascular health. Subsequently, we critically appraise evidence from RCTs on the effects of testosterone therapy on

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cardiovascular risk factors, major adverse cardiovascular events (death from a cardiovascular cause/non-fatal myocardial infarction/non-fatal stroke), and other cardiovascular outcomes. We identified original studies, systematic reviews, and meta-analyses on cardiovascular risk factors and outcomes in male hypogonadism using PubMed and Google Scholar for this narrative review.

PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF TESTOSTERONE ON THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM AND CARDIOVASCULAR RISK FACTORS

Testosterone has a complex bi-directional relationship with cardiovascular health. Preclinical studies exploring the roles of androgens on cardiovascular physiology have helped in understanding the effects of hypogonadism and testosterone therapy on cardiovascular health. Androgen receptors (ARs) are expressed in many cells throughout the cardiovascular system, including cardiac myocytes, vascular endothelial cells, vascular smooth muscle cells, and platelets.¹³

Several animal studies have reported antiarrhythmic properties of testosterone through its actions on cardiomyocytes.^{14–16} Testosterone was observed to protect the myocardium from ischemic injury in several rodent models, although the exact mechanism has not been elucidated.^{17,18} Activation of the ATP-sensitive K⁺ channels in the cardiac mitochondrial inner membrane is one potential mechanism.¹⁹ Testosterone was also shown to promote the expression of adrenergic receptors in the cardiac myocytes, providing a positive inotropic effect.²⁰ However, studies using rat models have observed hypertrophic cardiac response to testosterone,²¹ with a potential risk of heart failure in the long term.²⁰ A study comparing AR gene (*Ar*) knockout mice to wild-type mice reported that *Ar* knockout mice had less cardiac hypertrophy in response to angiotensin-II, implicating the importance of androgen action on cardiac muscle growth.²²

Endothelial cells and endothelial progenitor cells express ARs and estrogen receptors and respond to these hormones, affecting endothelial function, cell proliferation, and migration.²³ The effects of testosterone on vasculature are complex and dependent on multiple factors. A study of male and female rabbits observed endothelium-independent vasodilator properties of testosterone in coronary arteries and the aorta.²⁴ Similarly, studies using rat models^{25,26} and swine models²⁷ have also confirmed the vasodilatory properties of testosterone. Endothelium-independent vasodilatory effects might be through the inhibition of the voltage-gated calcium channels.²⁸ However, some animal studies have reported contradictory findings suggesting vasoconstrictor effects of testosterone.^{29,30} A study using a hybrid rat model reported lower blood pressures in rats with deficient functional ARs and in castrated rats.³¹ Overall, testosterone has vasodilator properties, particularly within the short term, predominantly through its non-genomic actions.¹³ However, genomic actions of testosterone seem to promote vasoconstrictor response by potentiating adrenergic effects on vascular smooth muscles.²⁰ Pre-

clinical studies have reported the potential of androgens to promote vascular calcification, the release of reactive oxygen species, and hypertrophy.¹³

Platelet action is another important factor affecting thrombotic diseases. In orchidectomized rats, testosterone deficiency was associated with platelet aggregation and hypercoagulability, which was reversed with testosterone therapy.^{32,33} This could partly be related to the effects of androgen on endothelial nitric oxide release.³⁴ In contrast, treating eugonadal male rats with testosterone resulted in increased thromboxane A2 receptor density in platelets.³⁵

Studies in rabbits using a standard diet³⁶ or a high-cholesterol diet^{37–39} have suggested anti-atherosclerotic effects of androgens on the endothelium. Physiological testosterone replacement inhibited fatty streak deposition in testicular-feminized mice.⁴⁰ In contrast, studies using human white blood cells and umbilical vein endothelial cells⁴¹ and human macrophages⁴² reported pro-atherosclerotic effects of androgens.

Adiposity and insulin resistance are other cardiovascular risk factors closely linked to androgen action. Testosterone was found to inhibit adipocyte differentiation in animal models.^{43–45} Preclinical studies have suggested that androgens impact adipocyte functions, such as insulin signaling, lipid metabolism, and adipokine production.⁴⁶ Testosterone is also known to increase insulin sensitivity by increasing GLUT-4-dependent glucose uptake in muscle and adipose tissue and glycolytic activity in cells.⁴⁷ Preclinical data suggest that testosterone potentiates glucagon-like peptide-1 action on pancreatic beta cells and promotes insulin secretion in males.⁴⁸ Similar findings were obtained using human islet cells, where the conversion of testosterone to dihydrotestosterone within the pancreas enhanced glucose-stimulated insulin secretion.^{49,50} Finally, testosterone is known to increase hematocrit by stimulating erythropoietin synthesis and suppressing hepcidin synthesis.⁵¹

Evidence from the above preclinical studies suggests a complex interrelationship between endogenous testosterone and cardiovascular health, which are likely to be disturbed in male hypogonadism. The following section explores current evidence on the association between male hypogonadism and cardiovascular health. Most of the evidence comes from studies of middle-aged and older men with low testosterone without an intrinsic pathology of the hypothalamic–pituitary–testicular axis (i.e., functional hypogonadism). Evidence from this patient population cannot be extrapolated to men with organic hypogonadism. Where available, literature for these distinct patient groups has been discussed separately. An additional complexity arises due to the challenges faced in diagnosing hypogonadism in men. Intra-individual biological variation in testosterone concentrations as well as variations in testosterone assays confound the biochemical confirmation of male hypogonadism.⁵² Male hypogonadism should only be diagnosed in the presence of suggestive clinical features using a standardized assay with repeated measurements of morning-fasted, fasted samples.⁵² Not following these prerequisites in some studies can affect the validity of the diagnosis of male hypogonadism in some participants.

ASSOCIATIONS OF MALE HYPOGONADISM WITH CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE AND RISK FACTORS

Cardiovascular risk factors

Studies have observed low testosterone concentration among men with metabolic syndrome and diabetes, partly explained by low sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG).⁵³ However, even after correcting for low SHBG, testosterone concentrations are lower among men with diabetes and obesity.⁵⁴ Functional hypogonadism due to the suppression of the hypothalamic-pituitary axis is the likely mechanism.⁵⁵ On the other hand, due to the possible favorable effects of testosterone on body composition, hypogonadism can be causally linked to obesity, diabetes, and metabolic syndrome.⁵⁶ In a study assessing the association among obesity, testosterone, and insulin resistance in men, low-serum testosterone was associated with obesity and insulin resistance measured using hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamp testing.⁵⁷ Prospective studies have reported an increased risk of a future diagnosis of diabetes and metabolic syndrome in men with low testosterone.⁵⁸ Metabolic syndrome⁵⁹ and diabetes⁶⁰ were reported to be more prevalent among men with low testosterone in two different meta-analyses of observational studies. Overall, male hypogonadism is likely to have a bi-directional association with diabetes and metabolic syndrome, with visceral adiposity being a mediator.⁵⁶

The association of male hypogonadism with lipid parameters does not show a consistent pattern. A retrospective study of older Chinese men reported a negative correlation of total cholesterol, triglycerides, and low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol and a positive correlation of high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol with total testosterone.⁶¹ In a study of Taiwanese men over 40 years old, testosterone quartiles were positively correlated with both HDL and LDL cholesterol.⁶² A recent cross-sectional study from China reported higher triglycerides and lower LDL cholesterol concentration in men with late-onset hypogonadism.⁶³

A possible association between hypertension and low testosterone in men had been observed several decades ago with observational studies reporting low testosterone among men with hypertension.^{64,65} In a cross-sectional study, men with late-onset hypogonadism were found to have slightly higher systolic blood pressures.⁶³ In a cohort study of men aged 20–79 years, incident hypertension was higher among men with low testosterone, and men with hypertension were noted to have low testosterone concentration.⁶⁶ Another cross-sectional study of middle-aged and elderly men also reported an inverse association between testosterone and the prevalence of hypertension.⁶⁷ According to a population-based, cross-sectional study, lower testosterone was associated with higher blood pressure and left ventricular mass, which reduced after adjusting for the body mass index (BMI).⁶⁸

Inflammation is an important mediator of cardiovascular disease. A study of over 10,000 men revealed increased high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (CRP), IL-6, IL-17A, and tumor necrosis factor- α in

men with total testosterone <250 ng/dL.⁶⁹ Another population-based cross-sectional study also reported an inverse association between high-sensitivity CRP and free and total testosterone.⁷⁰

There are a few studies assessing cardiovascular risk factors in men with organic hypogonadism. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance was reported to be greater in Klinefelter syndrome compared with healthy controls in some observational studies.^{71,72} Atherogenic lipid profiles have also been reported in this population compared to healthy controls.⁷¹ There is no consistent evidence of hypertension within this population.⁷³ In a retrospective study of 332 men with congenital hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (CHH) and 395 controls, the prevalence of metabolic syndrome was higher, with higher arterial blood pressure, waist circumference (WC), triglyceride, fasting glucose, and lower HDL cholesterol in men with CHH.⁷⁴ A higher triglyceride-glucose index (a marker of insulin resistance) has been observed in men with CHH compared with healthy men.⁷⁵ One of the oldest studies comparing normogonadal men to men with normoprolactinemic and hyperprolactinemic hypogonadism reported higher LDL-cholesterol and triglycerides in both groups of hypogonadal men.⁷⁶

Data from studies of men with prostate cancer receiving androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) can also provide insight into the effects of hypogonadism on cardiovascular health as this provides a group of men who develop severe, new-onset hypogonadism. ADT for prostate cancer was associated with increased insulin resistance⁷⁷ and new-onset diabetes⁷⁸ in men without diabetes and poor diabetes control in men with diabetes,⁷⁹ suggesting a causal effect of male hypogonadism on insulin resistance and diabetes. This could be related to increased visceral and subcutaneous fat mass observed with ADT.^{77,80} Elevated total cholesterol has also been observed with ADT, although the effects on individual lipoproteins are variable.^{81,82} Studies have suggested increased arterial stiffness with ADT;^{83,84} however, a clear association with hypertension has not been confirmed.⁸⁵

Overall, there is a suggestion of poor metabolic health among middle-aged and older men with low testosterone, though the causality cannot be established. However, worse metabolic profiles seen in men with organic hypogonadism likely suggest a causal link in this population. These associations are summarized in Table 1.

Cardiovascular disease and mortality

A meta-analysis of 37 observational studies published until 2017 with over 40,000 participants observed an increased incidence of cardiovascular morbidity (1.17, 95% CI: [1.01, 1.36]) and mortality (1.54, 95% CI: [1.25, 1.89]) among men with low endogenous testosterone concentration at baseline after adjusting for confounders.⁸⁶ There is also evidence of increased carotid intima-media thickness (CIMT), a marker of subclinical atherosclerosis, in middle-aged or older men with symptomatic low testosterone.^{87–89} Some studies report long QT interval in men with hypogonadism,⁹⁰ which can be a risk factor for torsades de pointes ventricular tachycardias.^{91,92}

TABLE 1 Association of cardiovascular risk factors and outcomes with male hypogonadism and effects of testosterone treatment.

Cardiovascular risk factor/outcome	Association with hypogonadism from observational studies	Effects of testosterone treatment from interventional studies of middle-aged and older men
Obesity/visceral adiposity	Positive association ⁵⁹	No effect on body mass index and waist circumference; ^{99,101,108} decrease in fat mass and increase in lean mass ^{106,110,111}
Insulin resistance	Positive association with insulin resistance and risk of diabetes ^{57,58}	Inconsistent results on insulin sensitivity; no effect ^{99,107} or slight improvement ^{101,106} Inconsistent results on diabetes; no effect ^{99,100,103} or reduced risk ^{104,105}
Dyslipidemia	Possible association with atherogenic lipid profile, inconsistent findings for individual lipoproteins ^{61–63}	Inconsistent results; no effects ^{113,114} or reduced LDL, HDL, and total cholesterol levels ^{11,100,101,108}
Hypertension	Positive association ^{64–66}	Inconsistent results; no effect ¹¹ or slight increase ^{12,115,116}
Hematocrit	Associated with anemia ^{139,140}	Risk of polycythemia ^{104,119}
Major adverse cardiovascular events	Inconsistent results; positive ⁸⁶ or no association ^{93–95}	No increased risk in the medium term ^{11,12}
Venous thromboembolism	No association ^{95,141,142} (apart from Klinefelter syndrome, where the risk is increased ^{96,97})	Inconsistent results; no effect ^{11,136} or slight increase ¹²
Arrhythmias	Possible association with long QT interval ⁹⁰ and ventricular tachycardia ^{91,92}	Inconsistent results; no effect ^{11,137} or slight increase ¹²

In contrast, a subsequent prospective study of community-dwelling elderly men without an incident of cardiovascular disease failed to demonstrate any association between testosterone and cardiovascular outcomes.⁹³ Similarly, a recently published UK Biobank prospective cohort study of middle-aged men reported no association between cardiovascular mortality and low total or corrected free testosterone.⁹⁴ Another cohort study from Denmark suggested that men with low testosterone levels had a higher 5-year risk of myocardial infarction, stroke, venous thromboembolism, and all-cause mortality in an unadjusted model compared to men with normal testosterone levels; however, after adjusting for age and co-morbidities, there was only an association with all-cause mortality.⁹⁵

Men with Klinefelter syndrome are at increased risk of venous and arterial thromboembolism and thrombotic deaths,⁹⁶ which is distinct from other men with hypogonadism due to a presumed relationship to excess X-linked gene dosage.⁹⁷ Increased thrombin generation in Klinefelter syndrome possibly related to increased factor VIII levels might be contributory.⁹⁸ Evidence from the effects of ADT on cardiovascular events and mortality is mixed, with most observational studies indicating increased cardiovascular risk, whereas RCTs report no association.⁸⁵

In summary, there is no strong evidence of an association between cardiovascular disease and hypogonadism from observational studies (Table 1). The observed association between cardiovascular disease and mortality in men with low testosterone in some studies may be related to associated co-morbidities without having a causal link. Hence, it is difficult to explore which of the cardiovascular risk factors discussed earlier are strongly associated with cardiovascular outcomes in men with hypogonadism.

EFFECTS OF TESTOSTERONE THERAPY ON CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE AND CARDIOVASCULAR RISK FACTORS

Cardiovascular risk factors

Several placebo-controlled RCTs and a meta-analysis have failed to show a significant improvement in HbA1c or fasting glucose concentration in older men with low serum total testosterone concentration given testosterone therapy.^{99–102} Many of the participants in these studies had pre-existing Type 2 diabetes (T2D). The TRAVERSE sub-study found no difference between testosterone therapy or placebo groups in progression from prediabetes to diabetes or in diabetes remission.¹⁰³

These findings contrast with the T4DM study, where older overweight men were randomized to receive a placebo or testosterone undecanoate.¹⁰⁴ After 2 years of intervention, men given testosterone therapy had improved 2-h glucose concentration on oral glucose tolerance tests, with a mean glucose change from baseline of -1.7 mmol/L, although there was no difference in HbA1c concentration. These differences may be explained by the differences in the study participants' characteristics. The T4DM trial used a higher serum total testosterone concentration cut-off for inclusion compared with many other RCTs and included men with impaired glucose tolerance or newly diagnosed T2D. It may be that any beneficial effect of testosterone is observed in the early stages of diabetes development rather than well-established diabetes; however, further studies need to be performed. Similarly, another small RCT of men with hypogonadism and newly diagnosed T2D or metabolic syndrome reported beneficial effects on glycemic

outcomes.¹⁰⁵ The effects of testosterone therapy on insulin sensitivity are also inconclusive, with some showing modest improvements^{101,106} in fasting insulin levels and Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance (HOMA-IR) values, whereas others do not report any significant difference.^{99,107}

The effect of testosterone therapy on body composition is also important due to the bi-directional relationship between obesity and diabetes. Multiple RCTs have failed to consistently show any improvement in BMI or WC with testosterone,^{99,101,108} though a recent observational study reported improvement in weight, BMI, and WC in men treated with testosterone.¹⁰⁹ However, studies have reported a change in body composition, with an increase in lean mass and a decrease in fat mass in men given testosterone therapy.^{106,110,111}

Some interventional studies have reported reductions in total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, and HDL-cholesterol in men given testosterone therapy compared with placebo.^{11,100,101,112} Others have shown no significant change in lipid parameters.^{113,114} A recently published double-blind placebo RCT in older men suggested that testosterone therapy may blunt the HDL-cholesterol rise seen with intensive lifestyle intervention.⁹⁹ Testosterone therapy does not appear to have a significant effect on triglyceride concentration. These mixed observations are likely a result of significant heterogeneity in the studies with different formulations and durations of testosterone therapy often used.

The effect of testosterone therapy on blood pressure also shows some conflicting results. In many studies administering testosterone, blood pressure did not significantly change.^{4,100} Others, however, have reported increases in systolic and diastolic blood pressure during testosterone replacement therapy, particularly with oral testosterone undecanoate.^{115,116} Although a small increase in mean systolic blood pressure was reported in the TRAVERSE study, this was only 0.3 mmHg (95% CI: [−0.3, 0.9]).¹² The clinical significance of this slight increase is likely to be minimal.

Testosterone stimulates erythropoiesis, and one of the biggest treatment-limiting factors in testosterone therapy is increased hematocrit.^{117,118} Erythrocytosis is a commonly reported adverse event in trials administering testosterone.^{104,119} Although testosterone therapy in Klinefelter syndrome was not associated with changes in cardiovascular risk factors in some observational studies,^{72,120} an RCT reported improved total and abdominal fat with testosterone therapy.¹²¹ Testosterone therapy was associated with a reduction in fibrinogen levels in men with Klinefelter syndrome in an observational study.¹²² Interestingly, an observational study followed testosterone-treated men with CHH and reported an increase in BMI, systolic blood pressure, and triglycerides and a decrease in HDL cholesterol after 5.63 ± 2.6 months of treatment.⁷⁴

In summary, current published literature fails to show a consistent benefit, or risk, of testosterone therapy on cardiovascular risk factors (Table 1).

Cardiovascular disease and mortality

Data from pharmacovigilance studies and retrospective analyses have played an important role in the initial discussions on testosterone safety. A retrospective study of men who underwent coronary angiography with low testosterone reported increased mortality, myocardial infarctions, and strokes in men receiving testosterone therapy.⁵ Major flaws in the data analysis and contamination of the sample with females resulted in questioning of the validity of these results.¹²³ Another prospective cohort study also found increased myocardial infarction rates with testosterone prescription in older men and younger men with pre-existing heart disease.⁶ However, the study methodology comparing pre- and post-treatment cardiovascular events was considered unsound.¹²³

Some other observational studies have reported no increase in cardiovascular risk in men treated with testosterone.¹²⁴ Interestingly, another study following up on men with T2D whose testosterone was measured reported increased survival in men whose low testosterone was treated.¹²⁵ A large retrospective study of male veterans reported reduced myocardial infarctions, strokes, and all-cause mortality in those whose low testosterone was corrected with testosterone replacement.¹²⁶ Caution should be exercised in interpreting these results because these observational studies introduce a high risk of bias. Patients treated with testosterone may have different characteristics compared with those who were not treated with testosterone.

Data from multiple RCTs of testosterone therapy in middle-aged and older men have provided insight into the cardiovascular effects of testosterone, although none of them were primarily designed to assess the cardiovascular safety of testosterone. The Testosterone Efficacy and Safety (TestES) consortium analyzed individual patient data (IPD) from RCTs that reported cardiovascular outcomes of testosterone and placebo experimental groups.¹¹ IPD of 3431 participants from 17 countries were analyzed, with a mean treatment duration of 9.5 months. Cardiovascular events occurred in 120 men (7.5%) receiving testosterone and 110 (7.2%) men receiving placebo (OR 0.17, 95% CI: [0.81, 1.42]). Overall mortality was not significantly lower in the testosterone group (6 deaths, 0.4%) compared with the placebo group (12 deaths, 0.8%) (OR 0.46, 95% CI: [0.17, 1.42]). Men in the analysis had high cardiovascular risk, with a mean age of 65 years, mean BMI of 30 kg/m², and diabetes in 27%. The robust methodology used in the study selection, data extraction, and data analysis, and the use of IPD strengthen the validity of the reported results. Furthermore, this study design has enabled the use of previously unpublished cardiovascular outcome data. However, shorter follow-up duration and cardiovascular outcomes not being primary outcomes in the studies need to be considered when interpreting these results.

Out of the studies included in the above-mentioned IPD analysis, a few studies warrant further attention. The Testosterone in Older Men with Mobility Limitations (TOM) trial enrolled men over the age of 65

years with total testosterone between 100 and 350 ng/dL. The study was terminated prematurely because the data and safety monitoring board observed excess cardiovascular events in men treated with testosterone.⁴ However, these events were not pre-specified primary or secondary outcomes and were of questionable clinical significance, such as pedal edema and electrocardiography changes. Testosterone Trials (TTrials) were a set of seven coordinated RCTs recruiting men over 65 years of age with total testosterone <275 ng/dL who were treated with testosterone or placebo for 12 months. Out of a total of 394 men, there was no difference in major cardiovascular events, with 7 men in each group developing myocardial infarction, stroke, or death from a cardiovascular event.¹²⁷ However, the cardiovascular trial of this study observed an increase in non-calcified plaque volume with testosterone therapy.¹²⁸ The Testosterone's Effects on Atherosclerosis Progression in Aging Men (TEAAM) trial randomized 308 men older than 60 years of age and total testosterone concentrations between 100 and 400 ng/dL or free testosterone <50 pg/mL and administered testosterone gel or placebo for 3 years. Only a few cardiovascular events occurred during the study period, and there was no statistically significant difference among the groups.¹²⁹ The study also did not observe any difference in the CIMT test or coronary calcium scores.

Two small RCTs have assessed the effects of testosterone on sub-clinical atherosclerosis, with contradictory findings to the above. A small RCT of 13 men randomized to receive testosterone undecanoate injections or placebo for 12 months found significant beneficial effects of testosterone on CIMT.¹³⁰ Another RCT of 50 men with metabolic syndrome and late-onset hypogonadism observed improved CIMT and high-sensitivity CRP with testosterone undecanoate injections.¹¹⁴

None of the above individual studies were long enough or large enough to ascertain the cardiovascular safety of testosterone. Due to the requirement of the FDA, the TRAVERSE trial was conducted to assess the cardiovascular safety of testosterone replacement in middle-aged and older men with low testosterone.¹² This trial enrolled 5246 men with symptoms of hypogonadism, testosterone concentration <300 ng/dL, and high cardiovascular risk and randomized them to receive testosterone gel or placebo. After a mean follow-up of 33 months, the first adjudicated major adverse cardiovascular event occurred in 182 (7%) in the testosterone group and 190 (7.3%) in the placebo group. The hazard ratio for death from cardiovascular disease was 0.84 (0.63–1.12). This being the largest study to date, with a longer follow-up duration and having cardiovascular outcomes as the primary outcome, it provides good-quality evidence on the medium-term cardiovascular safety of testosterone in the given population. There are, however, several limitations of this study. Mean testosterone concentration in the treatment group was consistently below 16 nmol/L (460 ng/dL), which is considered relatively low. Over 60% of the participants discontinued treatment.

Population and case-crossover studies have reported an association between testosterone therapy and venous thromboembolism.^{131,132} Polycythemia during testosterone therapy has been independently associated with venous thromboembolism.¹³³ Though TRAVERSE reported an increased incidence of pulmonary embolism in the testosterone group compared to placebo (24; 0.9% vs. 12; 0.5%), statistical

significance was not tested. The reported increased incidence of venous thromboembolism also did not reach statistical significance.¹² Previous meta-analyses of aggregate data^{134–136} and the recent TestES IPD meta-analysis¹¹ also did not observe any increased risk of venous thromboembolism with testosterone, irrespective of the route of administration.

TRAVERSE reported an increased incidence of non-fatal arrhythmias warranting interventions, including atrial fibrillations. However, a recent updated meta-analysis did not observe an increased risk of non-fatal arrhythmias with testosterone in RCTs (excluding TRAVERSE).¹³⁷ Interestingly, a database study has found a reduced incidence of atrial fibrillation with testosterone therapy in men with low testosterone.¹³⁸

CONCLUSIONS

Testosterone has multiple physiological effects on the cardiovascular system. Although male hypogonadism seems to be associated with an adverse metabolic profile, there is no consistent evidence for increased cardiovascular risk in men with low testosterone. Similarly, testosterone therapy has not consistently improved cardiovascular risk factors or outcomes in men with hypogonadism. On the other hand, recent data suggest medium-term cardiovascular safety of testosterone therapy in middle-aged and older men with low testosterone; long-term cardiovascular safety is yet to be established.

In men with hypogonadism, baseline assessments for pre-existing cardiovascular disease and risk factors (e.g., obesity, diabetes, dyslipidemia, hypertension, and smoking) and optimization of these risk factors are vital and independent of testosterone therapy to improve overall cardiovascular outcomes. In middle-aged and older men with low testosterone, lifestyle modifications (weight loss, exercise, and smoking cessation) and optimization of risk factors would take precedence over testosterone therapy for improved cardiovascular outcomes. Apart from hematocrit, any additional monitoring for cardiovascular risk reduction would not be routinely required during testosterone therapy.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

N.L.d.S. and B.G. reviewed the literature and drafted the initial manuscript. C.N.J. and S.M. revised the manuscript. All authors read and agreed on the final manuscript.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Section of Endocrinology and Investigative Medicine is funded by grants from the MRC, NIHR and is supported by the NIHR Biomedical Research Centre Funding Scheme and the NIHR/Imperial Clinical Research Facility. The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR, or the Department of Health. C.N.J. was also funded by the NIHR post-doctoral fellowship.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

C.N.J. received investigator-led grants from Logixx Pharma Ltd.

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PEER REVIEW

The peer review history for this article is available at: <https://publons.com/publon/10.1111/nyas.15211>.

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How to cite this article: de Silva, N. L., Grant, B., Minhas, S., & Jayasena, C. N. (2024). Cardiovascular disease and testosterone therapy in male hypogonadism. *Ann NY Acad Sci.*, 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nyas.15211>