# Increased Risk of Falls and Increased Bone Resorption in Elderly Men with Partial Androgen Deficiency: The MINOS Study

## P. SZULC, B. CLAUSTRAT, F. MARCHAND, AND P. D. DELMAS

Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale, 403 Research Unit (P.S., P.D.D.), Hôpital Edouard Herriot, 69437 Lyon, France; Hôpital Neuro-Cardiologique (B.C.), 69003 Lyon, France; and Société de Secours Minière de Bourgogne (F.M.), 71300 Montceau les Mines, France

The goal of this study was to identify the clinical and biological patterns of hypogonadism in a cohort of 1040 elderly men. Residual androgenic activity was estimated by total testosterone as well as the apparent free testosterone concentration (AFTC) and free testosterone index (FTI) calculated on the basis of concentrations of SHBG and total testosterone using appropriate formulae. The lower limit of the normal range defined by 2 sp below the mean in 150 healthy, nonobese, and nonsmoking men, aged 19-40 yr, was calculated for total testosterone (9.26 nmol/liter), AFTC (146 pmol/liter), and FTI (0.14 nmol/nmol). The prevalence of hypogonadism increased with ageing. Hypogonadal men were older and heavier (due to a higher fat body mass) and had lower concentrations of 17βestradiol and androstenedione than men with normal androgenic activity. Men with decreased AFTC had a slightly lower bone mineral density (BMD) at certain sites. Men with decreased FTI had lower appendicular skeletal muscle mass and relative skeletal muscle index. For all three measures of androgenic activity, hypogonadal men had increased levels of the markers of bone resorption. In the multiple regression models including both  $17\beta$ -estradiol and testosterone (total, AFTC, or FTI), 17 $\beta$ -estradiol was the only significant determinant of BMD. In the multiple regression models including

**P**ARTIAL ANDROGEN DEFICIENCY in ageing men (PADAM) is characterized by an age-related decrease in testicular secretion of testosterone (1, 2). Although PADAM contributes to the age-related decrease in bone mineral density (BMD), the positive correlation between testosterone concentration and BMD in men is weak (3–5) or not significant (6, 7). In contrast, many studies indicate a positive correlation of  $17\beta$ -estradiol and BMD in men (5–8). Muscle mass and strength decrease with age in men (9, 10). This decrease, along with an impairment of static and dynamic balance, contributes to the increased risk of falls (11, 12). As testosterone has a powerful effect on the striated muscles (13), PADAM may contribute to this decrease in muscle mass and strength and to the higher risk of falls and fractures in elderly men (14, 15).

Circulating total testosterone consists of three fractions:

17β-estradiol and AFTC or FTI, only testosterone was a significant determinant of the variability in bone formation markers, whereas both  $17\beta$ -estradiol and testosterone were significant determinants of the variability of the markers of bone resorption. Hypogonadism was associated with an increase in the risk of falls, an impairment of static and dynamic balance, as well as the inability to stand up from a chair and to perform the tandem walk. Decreased AFTC (<146 pmol/ liter) discriminated best men with functional disabilities (odds ratio, 1.54-7.95; P < 0.05-0.0001). Hypogonadal elderly men had increased bone resorption that was not adequately matched by an increase in bone formation, lower muscle strength, impaired static and dynamic balance, a higher risk of falls, and, in men with low AFTC, a slightly lower BMD. Low AFTC seems to have the best discriminative power for densitometric, biochemical, and functional parameters, followed by FTI, whereas total testosterone was the least discriminative. In multiple regression models, 17β-estradiol was the strongest determinant of BMD, and AFTC and FTI were significant determinants of the variability in bone formation markers, whereas both 17β-estradiol and testosterone determined the variability in bone resorption markers. (J Clin Endocrinol Metab 88: 5240-5247, 2003)

free testosterone, testosterone bound weakly and nonspecifically to albumin, and testosterone bound strongly and specifically to SHBG (16). Given the age-related decrease in testicular secretion and increase in SHBG concentration, the serum free testosterone level decreases with ageing more than that of total testosterone (7, 8). As the SHBG-bound fraction of testosterone does not enter cells and is largely inactive, the total testosterone concentration is not a sufficiently sensitive hormonal parameter of PADAM. In contrast, the concentration of free testosterone, which enters the cells, better reflects the residual androgenic activity. The free testosterone fraction can be measured in serum or approximated using the free testosterone index (FTI = total testosterone/SHBG).

However, measurement of the free testosterone level presents certain difficulties. Equilibrium dialysis and centrifugal ultrafiltration are reliable, but expensive and time-consuming (17, 18). Direct measurement of free testosterone in serum is inaccurate (19, 20). In comparison with the equilibrium dialysis, not only does it underestimate the level of free testosterone, but the correlation between these methods is not linear. We calculated the apparent free testosterone concentration (AFTC) using the levels of total testosterone and

Abbreviations: AFTC, Apparent free testosterone concentration; BAP, bone-specific alkaline phosphatase; BMD, bone mineral density;  $\beta$ CTX-1,  $\beta$ -isomerized C-terminal telopeptide of collagen type I; DPD, deoxypyridinoline; FTI, free testosterone index; 25OHD, 25-hydrochole-calciferol; PADAM, partial androgen deficiency in ageing men; PINP, propeptide of type I collagen; SSMB, Société de Secours Minière de Bourgogne.

SHBG as described by Vermeulen *et al.* (21). This method correlates well with the equilibrium dialysis (16).

Thus, the aim of this study was to evaluate the correlation of different determinants of the fracture risk (BMD, bone turnover, muscle strength, and balance) with the age-related decrease in the testosterone concentration in a large cohort of men and to verify which parameter of androgenic activity (total testosterone, AFTC, or FTI) discriminates best elderly men at risk.

## **Subjects and Methods**

## Cohort

The MINOS study is a prospective study of osteoporosis and its determinants in men that was initiated in 1995 (22). It is a collaboration between INSERM and Société de Secours Minière de Bourgogne (SSMB) in Montceau les Mines. Montceau les Mines is a town situated 130 km northwest of Lyon in the Department (District) of Saône et Loire. Its population is 21,000 inhabitants, including 7,150 men aged more than 19 yr. SSMB is one of the largest health insurance companies in this town. The MINOS cohort is composed of 2 groups: men aged 19-50 yr and men aged 51-85 yr. Invitations to our study with information about its aim were sent to a random sample of men aged 51-85 yr ensured by SSMB. Among 841 men who responded to the invitation, 786 consented to participate and had all the diagnostic examinations including bone densitometry at four sites of measurement. A group of 254 men aged 19-50 yr was recruited among male residents of Montceau les Mines who were contacted using several ways of information: men ensured by SSMB, families of the SSMB staff, all enterprises of Montceau les Mines (factories, firemen, national education, regional administration), sport and social associations, and announcement in a newspaper. All men responded to an epidemiological questionnaire covering demographic and behavioral information as well as detailed medical history.

Reference values for testosterone were calculated in 150 healthy, nonobese, nonsmoking men aged 19–40 yr. Then the analyses were performed in men aged 50–85 yr. In this age range, 818 men had hormonal and biochemical measurements as well as bone densitometry (at least at three sites). Among them, we excluded 26 men receiving oral glucocorticoids, gonadoliberine analogs, antiresorptive medications, and fluoride, leaving 792 men in whom the analyses were performed.

### Clinical tests

Getting up from a chair and sitting down allows to evaluate the strength of knee extensors and flexors (23–25). The participants were seated on a hard chair and asked to stand up and sit down from a chair five times as quickly as possible. The examiner recorded the number of chair-stands, the time required to perform the test, and the degree of difficulty (pushes up with arms, moves forward in chair first, unsteady on first standing). The inability to perform the test was diagnosed when the subject got up less than five times (zero to four times). If the subject made this test with difficulty but managed to get up five times regardless of the time he required, he was classified as able.

Standing balance was evaluated based on standing with the feet in the side by side position (24, 26). Participants were evaluated for 10 sec with eyes open and for 5 sec with eyes closed. The timing was stopped when the participant moved his feet or grasped the examiner for support or when the time (10 or 5 sec, respectively) had elapsed. The participant was scored as able if he could stand for 10 sec with eyes open or 5 sec with eyes closed, otherwise, he was classified as unable.

To test dynamic balance, participants performed a 10-step tandem walk on the line drawn on the floor (11). The examiner recorded the time, the number of steps really performed, and the number of errors (stepping off the line, grabbing an object, and taking steps with the heel and toe visibly separated). After the subject had finished the tandem walk forward, he was asked to perform the same 10-step tandem walk backward. Similarly, the examiner recorded the time, the number of steps really performed, and the number of errors.

Participants were interviewed about the falls during the 12 months preceding the questionnaire. We recorded all falls from standing height or less then standing height.

#### **Biochemical measurements**

Fasting serum as well as 24-h urine were collected and stored at -80 C until assayed.

Serum total osteocalcin was measured with a human-specific, twosite immunoradiometric assay (ELSA-OSTEO, CIS BioInternational, Bagnols/Cèze, France) that recognizes a large N-terminal midfragment in addition to the intact molecule (27). Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation are less than 4% and 6%, respectively, and the sensitivity is 0.4 ng/ml. Serum bone-specific alkaline phosphatase (BAP) was measured with an immunoassay using a monoclonal antibody directed against BAP purified from human SAOS-2 osteosarcoma cells as a standard, followed by a conventional colorimetric detection using paranitrophenyl phosphate (Alkphase-B, Metra Biosystems, Inc., Mountain View, CA) (28). This assay has a low cross-reactivity with the circulating liver, placental, and intestinal isoenzymes (<15%). The sensitivity of the assay is 0.7 U/liter. Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation are less than 6% and 8%, respectively. Serum N-terminal extension propeptide of type I collagen (PINP) was measured by a new RIA that recognizes the intact circulating form of PINP (Intact PINP, Farmos Diagnostica, Uppsala, Sweden) (29). Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation are less than 5% and 8%, respectively, and the detection limit is 1 ng/ml.

Urinary  $\beta$ -isomerized C-terminal telopeptide of collagen type I (BCTX-I) was measured with an ELISA (CrossLaps ELISA, Osteometer BioTech A/S, Rodovre, Denmark) as described previously (30, 31). The antigen Glu-Lys-Ala-His-B-Asp-Gly-Gly-Arg is a fragment of the Ctelopeptide of the  $\alpha$ 1-chain of type I collagen (32). The sensitivity of the assay is 0.5  $\mu$ g/liter. Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation are less than 10% and 15%, respectively. This assay does not react with free cross-links, and its cross-reactivity with aCTX is less than 1%. Serum βCTX-I was measured with an ELISA (CrossLaps One Step ELISA, Osteometer BioTech A/S) as described previously (33, 34). The sensitivity of the assay is 92 pmol/ml. Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation are less then 8%. Free deoxypyridinoline (DPD) was measured by an ELISA (Pyrilinks-D, Metra Biosystems Inc.) that uses a monoclonal antibody with less than 1% cross-reactivity with free pyridinoline and 10% cross-reactivity with cross-linked polypeptides (35). The sensitivity of the assay is 3 nm. Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation are less than 10%. Urinary total DPD was measured with the same assay after acid hydrolysis. Urinary peptide-bound DPD was defined as the difference between total and free DPD in the same 24-h sample, and it corresponds to different DPD-containing peptides, being a product of collagen type I catabolism.

#### BMD measurement

BMD was measured at the lumbar spine, right hip, and whole body using dual energy x-ray absorptiometry (QDR-1500, Hologic, Inc., Waltham, MA). Distal and ultradistal sites of nondominant forearm were measured using single energy x-ray absorptiometry (Osteometer DTX 100). Both bone densitometers were calibrated daily using a phantom of the lumbar spine for the QDR 1500 and a calibration standard for the DTX 100 as described previously (22). Appendicular skeletal muscle mass was estimated as a sum of the lean tissue mass of four limbs (36, 37). Relative skeletal muscle index was calculated as appendicular skeletal muscle mass divided by the square of body height (38).

#### Hormones

Serum total  $17\beta$ -estradiol and total testosterone were measured by tritiated RIA after diethyl ether extraction (39). For testosterone, the limit of detection is 0.06 nm/liter, and the interassay coefficient of variation is 10% for a concentration of 1 nm/liter and 7.8% for 6 nm/liter. For  $17\beta$ -estradiol, the limit of detection is 11 pm/liter, and the interassay coefficient of variation is 9.4% for a concentration of 169 pm/liter and 6.2% for 510 pm/liter. SHBG was measured by immunoradiometric assay (125 I SBP Coatria, Bio-Mérieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France) with an interassay coefficient of variation of 4.1% for a concentration of 16 nmol/liter and 5.3% for 100 nmol/liter. The limit of detection is 0.5 nmol/liter. The AFTC was calculated as described previously by Vermeulen *et al.* (16, 21). The FTI was calculated as total testosterone/SHBG and expressed as nanomoles/nanomoles. Serum androstenedione was measured by tritiated RIA after diethyl ether extraction (39). The inter-

assay coefficient of variation is 6% for a concentration of 1.96 nm/liter and 8.3% for 3.98 nm/liter. Serum 25-hydrocholecalciferol (25OHD) was measured by RIA (Incstar Corp., Stillwater, MN), which excludes any interference from lipids (40). Intra- and interassay coefficients of variation were 5% and 11%, respectively. The detection limit was 7.5 nmol/liter.

#### Statistical methods

All calculations were performed using SAS software. Some biochemical and BMD measurements could not be performed in some participants due to insufficient volume of serum, lack of reliable and full 24-h urine collection, or prostheses of both hips. The number of subjects in different analyses may vary slightly, but the number of measurements lacking did not exceed 10%. Given the skewed distribution of the concentrations of total testosterone, AFTC, and FTI, the reference normal ranges were calculated after the logarithmic transformation. Pearson's simple correlation coefficients were calculated for continuous variables. BMD at different sites and serum concentrations of biochemical markers of bone turnover were compared in men with normal and low AFTC using the analysis of covariance adjusted for age, body weight, tobacco smoking, concentration of 25OHD, and comorbidities. For urinary levels of the markers of bone resorption, the analysis of covariance was adjusted for lean body mass (source of creatinine) instead of body weight. Analyses of body composition were also adjusted for the professional physical activity (scored as low, medium, high, or very high) and for body height (except relative skeletal muscle index), but not for body weight. The inability to perform clinical tests, expressed as an increase of risk per decrease in AFTC by 1 sp, was evaluated using the logistic regression adjusted for age, body weight, tobacco smoking, 25OHD concentration, and comorbidities. Comorbidities included arterial hypertension, coronary heart disease, chronic pulmonary disease necessitating corticosteroid treatment, liver cirrhosis, diabetes mellitus, vascular brain disease, hemiplegia, Parkinsonism, and treatment with psychotropic medicines. For both the analysis of covariance and the logistic regression, a backward procedure was used; first all of the independent variables were introduced, then removed progressively, leaving in the final model only the independent variables for which P < 0.2.

## Results

## Descriptive characteristics

Reference values for testosterone were calculated in 150 healthy, nonobese, nonsmoking men aged 19–40 yr (Table 1). Descriptive data for 792 men aged 50–85 yr in whom subsequent analyses were performed are also presented. In the entire cohort, the concentration of total testosterone, AFTC,

and FTI decreased with ageing (Table 2). At the age of 80 yr, average levels of total testosterone, AFTC, and FTI were lower by 14.1%, 41.5%, and 44.7%, respectively, compared with those in young men. These decreases correspond to 0.43, 1.82, and 1.56 sp below the mean in young men.

Hypogonadism was defined after logarithmic transformation as the concentration more than 2 sp below the mean in young men for total testosterone, AFTC, and FTI (Table 1). In men more than 50 yr of age, the prevalence of hypogonadism increased with ageing (Fig. 1). For a given age range, the percentage of hypogonadal men was lowest for total testosterone and highest when AFTC was used for the diagnosis of hypogonadism. Hypogonadal men were older and heavier (Table 3). For all three diagnostic thresholds, levels of all hormonal parameters were significantly lower than in men with normal values.

Unexpectedly, the SHBG concentration was lower in men with a decreased total testosterone level (<8.92 nmol/liter). However, these men were older, more obese, and had a lower concentration of  $17\beta$ -estradiol. After adjustment for these determinants of SHBG level, the serum SHBG concentration did not differ in men with low and normal total testosterone concentrations (80.4 ± 64.5 *vs.* 85.1 ± 40.7 nmol/liter; partial F = 0.70; *P* = 0.40).

The 17 $\beta$ -estradiol concentration was correlated positively with total testosterone, AFTC, and FTI (r = 0.48, r = 0.30, and r = 0.18, respectively; *P* < 0.0001). However, for the three testosterone parameters, about 22–23% of eugonadal men had 17 $\beta$ -estradiol concentrations below the first quartile, and 46–64% of hypogonadal men had 17 $\beta$ -estradiol concentrations in the three highest quartiles.

## BMD

After adjustment for age, body weight, and comorbidities, BMD did not differ between men with normal and decreased total testosterone concentrations or FTI at any site of measurement. Differences in average BMD between the healthy and hypogonadal men were less than 1.6% (P > 0.27) for total testosterone and less than 2.8% (P > 0.08) for FTI. In contrast,

**TABLE 1.** Descriptive characteristics of 150 men, aged 19-40 yr (control group), and of 792 men, aged 50-85 yr, in whom thesubsequent analyses were performed

Parameter	Men aged 19–40	Men aged 50–85 yr		
Farameter	yr (mean $\pm$ sD)	Mean $\pm$ sp	Median (IQ)	
Age (yr)	$32\pm7$	$65\pm7$	65 (58, 71)	
Body weight (kg)	$75\pm11$	$80 \pm 13$	79 (71, 87)	
Body height (cm)	$176 \pm 7$	$169\pm 6$	169 (165, 173)	
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	$24.5\pm3.4$	$28.1\pm3.8$	27.6 (25.6, 30.2)	
Lean body mass (kg)	$56.4\pm6.5$	$54.5\pm 6.8$	54.2 (50.0, 58.3)	
Fat body mass (kg)	$14.8\pm 6.8$	$22.1\pm7.7$	21.2 (17.0, 26.4)	
Appendicular skeletal muscle mass (kg)	$24.3 \pm 3.1$	$22.9\pm3.2$	22.9 (20.8, 24.8)	
Total testosterone (nmol/liter) <sup><i>a</i></sup>	$18.94\pm5.01$	$17.69\pm7.00$	17.4 (13.2, 21.5)	
AFTC $(pmol/liter)^a$	$268\pm 61$	$200\pm79$	192 (151, 236)	
FTI (nmol/nmol) <sup>a</sup>	$0.32\pm0.09$	$0.24\pm0.10$	0.22 (0.17, 0.28	
17β-Estradiol (pmol/liter)	$110 \pm 28$	$114\pm29$	110 (95, 128)	
Androstenedione (nmol/liter)	$2.16\pm0.59$	$1.66\pm0.60$	1.60 (1.21, 2.02	
SHBG (nmol/liter)	$66.0 \pm 32.8$	$84.7\pm43.6$	75.6 (57.4, 100.9	
25OHD (nmol/liter)	$71.4\pm27.8$	$67.7\pm29.0$	65 (47, 85)	

FTI = total testosterone/SHBG; IQ, interquartile range.

<sup>a</sup> Given the skewed distribution, the normal range was calculated after logarithmic transformation.

**TABLE 2.** Correlation of hormone concentration and parameters of body composition with age

Parameter	$Age^a$	Change until 80 yr <sup>b</sup>		
		%	SD	
Total testosterone	-0.16	-14.1	-0.43	
AFTC	-0.44	41.5	-1.82	
FTI	-0.44	-44.7	-1.56	
SHBG	0.28	48.5	0.99	
Androstenedione	-0.37	-38.4	-1.41	
Total 17β-estradiol	0.04	3.7	0.14	
Lean body mass	-0.24	-12.8	-1.07	
Fat body mass	0.27	43.7	0.95	
Appendicular skeletal muscle mass	-0.29	-16.2	1.29	

<sup>*a*</sup> P = 0.0001 for all except total 17 $\beta$ -estradiol.

<sup>b</sup> Compared with reference data in Table 1.

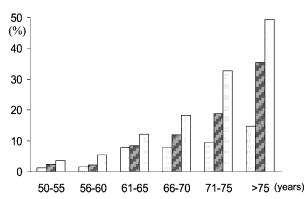


FIG. 1. Prevalence of hypogonadism in the MINOS cohort according to age group and testosterone parameter: *first bar*, total testosterone less than 8.92 nmol/liter; *second bar*, FTI less than 0.14 nmol/nmol; *third bar*, apparent free testosterone concentration less than 146 pmol/liter.

after similar adjustments, BMD was lower at several sites in men with decreased AFTC (Table 4).

Explanatory contributions of AFTC and 17 $\beta$ -estradiol for the BMD variability was evaluated using multiple regression models, including AFTC, 17 $\beta$ -estradiol, age, and body weight as independent variables. For all sites, 17 $\beta$ -estradiol was a significant determinant (partial t = 2.58-4.50; P =0.01–0.0001), whereas AFTC was not significant (partial t =0.06–1.29; P = 0.20-0.95). In the models including fat mass and lean mass, 17 $\beta$ -estradiol was a significant determinant of BMD for all sites, whereas AFTC was not significant. In the analysis of covariance, AFTC, used as a dichotomous variable, was a borderline significant determinant of BMD of total hip and ultradistal radius (P < 0.05) in the models including body weight.

#### Body composition

Lean body mass and appendicular skeletal muscle mass decreased, whereas fat body mass increased with age (Table 2). After adjustment for age, body height, and comorbidities, fat body mass (in absolute values and as a percentage of body weight) was higher in hypogonadal men (Table 3). In hypogonadal men discriminated using AFTC or total testosterone, lean body mass and appendicular skeletal muscle mass were slightly higher than in eugonadal men. In contrast, men with low FTI had a lower appendicular skeletal muscle mass and relative skeletal muscle index. However, hypogonadal men discriminated using AFTC or total testosterone were heavier. When lean mass was expressed as a percentage of body weight, AFTC and total testosterone discriminated better than FTI the men with a decreased fraction of lean mass (Table 3).

## Biochemical markers of bone turnover

After adjustment for age, lean body mass, and comorbidities, men with the decreased total testosterone concentration (<8.92 nmol/liter) had higher urinary excretion of DPD (Table 5). Men with decreased AFTC (<146 pmol/liter) had increased urinary and serum levels of bone resorption markers as well as slightly increased concentrations of BAP and PINP. Similar differences of the levels of bone markers were found when FTI (0.14 nmol/nmol) was used as the diagnostic threshold for hypogonadism.

Explanatory contributions of testosterone and  $17\beta$ -estradiol to the variability in biochemical bone markers was evaluated by multiple regression models, including testosterone (total, AFTC, or FTI),  $17\beta$ -estradiol, age, as well as body weight or fat mass and lean mass. Both models provided very similar results and are presented jointly. In the models including total testosterone, 17β-estradiol was a determinant of the variability of bone resorption markers, except for free DPD (partial t = -2.57 to -3.68; P = 0.01-0.002), but not of bone formation markers. Total testosterone was not a significant determinant for any marker. In the models including FTI and 17β-estradiol, FTI determined the variability in bone formation markers (partial t = -2.26 to -4.10; P < 0.03-0.0001), whereas  $17\beta$ -estradiol did not. Both FTI and  $17\beta$ estradiol were determinants of the variability in bone resorption markers (partial t = -2.64 to -4.69; P < 0.01– 0.0001). Similarly, AFTC, but not  $17\beta$ -estradiol, was a determinant of the variability in bone formation markers (partial t = -2.06 to -3.24; P < 0.05-0.002). Variability in bone resorption markers was explained by AFTC (partial t =-2.01 to -4.14; P < 0.05 - 0.0001) and by  $17\beta$ -estradiol (partial t = -2.19 to -3.01; P < 0.03-0.003).

## Functional capacity

The risk of inability to perform clinical tests was evaluated by logistic regression after adjustment for age, body weight, 25OHD level, and comorbidity for total testosterone, AFTC, and FTI below the threshold of hypogonadism and for these parameters examined as continuous variables (Table 6). Total testosterone poorly discriminated men who were unable to perform clinical tests (five consecutive chair stands, standing with the feet in the side by side position for 10 sec with open eyes and for 5 sec with closed eyes, and forward or backward tandem 10-step walk) or had fallen during a preceding year. In contrast, a decrease in AFTC was associated with a significantly higher risk of inability to perform the clinical test and with a higher risk of falls when it was introduced as dichotomous or continuous variable. FTI disclosed a similar or a slightly lower discriminative power for different clinical tests and falls. Interestingly, low AFTC and FTI were associated with a higher risk of inability to perform the tests, but

TABLE 3. Comparison of the hormonal parameters in 792 men aged 50-85 yr divided according to the levels of total testosterone, AFTC, and FTI

Parameters	$\begin{array}{l} Testosterone \\ < 8.92 \ nmol/liter \\ (n = 68) \end{array}$	Testosterone $\geq 8.92 \text{ nmol/liter}$ (n = 724)	Р	$\begin{array}{c} \text{AFTC} \\ <146 \text{ pmol/liter} \\ (n = 177) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} AFTC \\ \geq 146 \ pmol/liter \\ (n = 615) \end{array}$	Р	$\begin{array}{l} FTI < \!\! 0.14 \\ nmol/nmol \\ (n = 91) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} FTI \geq \! 0.14 \\ nmol/nmol \\ (n = 701) \end{array}$	Р
Age (yr)	$67\pm8$	$65\pm7$	< 0.03	$69\pm8$	$64 \pm 7$	< 0.0001	$71\pm8$	$64\pm7$	< 0.0001
Body weight (kg)	$89\pm17$	$79\pm12$	< 0.0001	$83\pm16$	$79\pm12$	< 0.002	$79\pm14$	$80\pm13$	0.24
Body height (cm)	$170\pm 6$	$169\pm 6$	0.34	$169\pm 6$	$169\pm 6$	0.54	$168\pm 6$	$169\pm 6$	0.15
RASM (kg/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$30.5\pm4.4$	$27.8\pm3.6$	< 0.0001	$28.8\pm4.6$	$27.8\pm3.4$	< 0.001	$27.8\pm4.2$	$28.1\pm3.7$	0.53
Testosterone (nmol/liter)	$5.93 \pm 2.65$	$18.71\pm6.30$	< 0.0001	$12.09\pm5.94$	$19.32\pm6.42$	< 0.0001	$12.97\pm6.89$	$18.44\pm6.67$	< 0.0001
AFTC (pmol/liter)	$91\pm56$	$209\pm74$	< 0.0001	$107\pm35$	$226\pm67$	< 0.0001	$87 \pm 38$	$214 \pm 70$	< 0.0001
FTI (nmol/nmol)	$0.14\pm0.12$	$0.24\pm0.10$	< 0.0001	$0.13\pm0.04$	$0.27\pm0.09$	< 0.0001	$0.10\pm0.04$	$0.25\pm0.09$	< 0.0001
Total 17β-Estradiol (pmol/liter)	$88\pm28$	$116 \pm 28$	< 0.0001	$103\pm29$	$117\pm29$	< 0.0001	$98 \pm 31$	$116 \pm 28$	< 0.0001
Androstenedione (nm/liter)	$1.47\pm0.63$	$1.68\pm0.60$	$<\!0.005$	$1.40\pm0.52$	$1.73\pm0.60$	< 0.0001	$1.33\pm0.53$	$1.70\pm0.60$	< 0.0001
SHBG (nmol/liter)	$68.7\pm60.0$	$85.9\pm40.6$	$<\!0.005$	$103.3\pm59.1$	$79.0\pm35.4$	< 0.0001	$126.5\pm67.8$	$79.2\pm35.3$	< 0.0001
Fat body mass $(kg)^a$	$28.3\pm9.7$	$21.5\pm7.3$	< 0.0001	$25.2\pm9.5$	$21.2\pm6.8$	< 0.0001	$23.6\pm8.9$	$21.9\pm7.5$	$<\!\!0.06$
Lean body mass $(kg)^a$	$56.8\pm8.6$	$54.3\pm6.5$	< 0.003	$55.4\pm7.6$	$54.2\pm6.5$	0.12	$53.8\pm6.9$	$54.6\pm6.7$	0.27
$ASM (kg)^a$	$23.9\pm4.0$	$22.9\pm3.1$	< 0.02	$23.3\pm3.6$	$22.8\pm3.1$	0.12	$22.2\pm3.0$	$23.0\pm3.2$	$<\!0.02$
RASM $(kg/m^2)^{\alpha}$	$8.22 \pm 1.08$	$7.98 \pm 0.87$	$<\!0.04$	$8.01 \pm 1.07$	$8.00\pm0.82$	0.80	$7.71\pm0.89$	$8.04\pm0.87$	< 0.001
Fat mass/weight (%)	$31.6\pm6.1$	$26.9\pm5.5$	< 0.0001	$29.6\pm6.6$	$26.6\pm5.7$	< 0.0001	$28.9\pm7.0$	$27.1 \pm 5.9$	$<\!0.02$
Lean mass/weight (%)	$64.3\pm5.9$	$68.8\pm6.0$	< 0.0001	$66.1\pm6.5$	$69.1\pm5.7$	< 0.0001	$67.1\pm6.8$	$68.6\pm5.9$	< 0.04

Thresholds of normality correspond to 2 SD below the mean in young men aged 19–40 yr. ASM, Appendicular skeletal muscle mass; RASM, relative skeletal muscle index.

<sup>*a*</sup> Adjusted for age.

TABLE 4. Comparison of BMD in men according to the AFTC by analysis of covariance adjusted for age, body weight, and comorbidities

Site of measurement	$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{AFTC} < \!\!\! 146 \ \mbox{pmol/liter} \\ (n  =  177) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} \text{AFTC} \geq 146 \text{ pmol/liter} \\ (n = 615) \end{array}$	Р
Lumbar spine (g/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$1.021\pm0.205$	$1.036 \pm 0.181$	0.35
Total hip (g/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$0.943\pm0.146$	$0.973\pm0.130$	< 0.01
Femoral neck (g/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$0.831\pm0.139$	$0.846 \pm 0.114$	0.12
Trochanter (g/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$0.720\pm0.124$	$0.743 \pm 0.104$	< 0.02
Whole body BMC (g)	$2645.5 \pm 490.6$	$2716.3 \pm 396.6$	< 0.02
Whole body BMD (g/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$1.194\pm0.129$	$1.213 \pm 0.105$	< 0.05
Distal forearm (g/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$0.513\pm0.070$	$0.525 \pm 0.063$	< 0.03
Ultradistal radius (g/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$0.416\pm0.067$	$0.432\pm0.064$	< 0.005

BMC, Bone mineral content.

TABLE 5. Comparison of the levels of biochemical markers of bone turnover according to the AFTC

Parameter	Testosterone <8.92 nmol/liter (n = 68)	$\begin{array}{l} Testosterone\\ \geq 8.92 \ nmol/liter\\ (n=724) \end{array}$	Р	$\begin{array}{l} AFTC <\!\!146 \\ pmol/liter \\ (n = 177) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} AFTC \geq \!$	Р	$\begin{array}{l} FTI < \! 0.14 \\ (n = 91) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} FTI \geq \! 0.14 \\ (n=791) \end{array}$	Р
Osteocalcin (ng/ml)	$20\pm10$	$19\pm7$	0.21	$20\pm9$	$19\pm7$	0.39	$20\pm10$	$19\pm7$	0.16
BAP (U/liter)	$18\pm 6$	$17\pm 6$	0.41	$18\pm9$	$17\pm5$	< 0.03	$18\pm7$	$17\pm 6$	$<\!\!0.09$
PINP (ng/ml)	$38\pm19$	$36\pm18$	0.61	$39 \pm 23$	$36 \pm 16$	< 0.02	$40 \pm 22$	$36\pm17$	$<\!\!0.05$
Total DPD (nm/mm cr)	$8.38 \pm 4.20$	$6.98 \pm 2.76$	< 0.001	$7.95\pm3.88$	$6.89 \pm 2.60$	< 0.0001	$8.69 \pm 4.33$	$6.92\pm2.67$	< 0.0001
Free DPD (nm/mm cr)	$3.87 \pm 1.46$	$3.46 \pm 1.12$	$<\!0.01$	$3.79 \pm 1.54$	$3.42\pm1.08$	< 0.001	$4.01 \pm 1.67$	$3.43 \pm 1.12$	< 0.0001
Bound DPD (nM/mM cr)	$4.47 \pm 2.98$	$3.55\pm1.99$	< 0.002	$4.19\pm2.69$	$3.49 \pm 1.97$	< 0.001	$4.73\pm3.06$	$3.51\pm1.98$	< 0.0001
$\beta$ -CTX-I ( $\mu$ g/mg cr)	$147.2\pm99.0$	$124.3\pm78.0$	< 0.04	$142.1\pm100.9$	$121.0\pm72.0$	< 0.005	$158.2\pm126.9$	$121.5\pm70.2$	< 0.0001
β-CTX-I (nm/liter)	$2.67 \pm 1.87$	$2.45 \pm 1.25$	0.23	$2.64 \pm 1.57$	$2.39 \pm 1.21$	$<\!0.05$	$2.89 \pm 1.95$	$2.40\pm1.18$	< 0.002

Calculations were adjusted for age, body weight, and comorbidities for serum markers and for age, lean body mass, and comorbidities for urinary markers. cr, Creatinine.

not with the difficulty of performing the test (*e.g.* longer time required to perform the test and number of different errors).

## Discussion

Hypogonadal elderly men had a higher risk of falls, lower muscle strength, impaired static and dynamic balance, increased bone resorption not adequately matched by an increase in bone formation, and, in men with low AFTC, lower BMD. AFTC had the best discriminative power for densitometric, biochemical, and functional parameters, followed by FTI, whereas total testosterone was the least discriminative. FTI better discriminated men with low muscle mass but total testosterone, and AFTC better discriminated men with low fraction of lean mass. In multiple regression models,  $17\beta$ -estradiol was the strongest determinant of BMD, AFTC and FTI were determinants of the variability in bone formation markers, and both  $17\beta$ -estradiol and testosterone determined the variability in bone resorption markers.

The age-related decrease in testicular secretion of testosterone and the increase in SHBG concentration result in a decrease in the concentrations of total and free testosterone (41). The decreased total testosterone level reflects the decrease in testicular secretory activity, whereas free testoster-

**TABLE 6.** Risk of inability to perform clinical tests in men as a function of total testosterone, AFTC, or FTI adjusted for age, body weight, concentration of 25OHD, and comorbidities

Clinical test	Total testosterone	AFTC	FTI
A) Odds ratio of the risk in men with decreased	l level of hormone <i>vs.</i> men wit	h normal level of hormone	
Five chair stands	$3.04 (1.08 - 8.59)^a$	$7.95(2.78-22.8)^{b}$	$4.61 (1.78 - 12.0)^c$
Static balance <sup><math>d</math></sup> with open eyes (10 sec)	1.54(0.44 - 5.40)	$2.96 (1.19 - 7.38)^a$	2.40(0.89 - 6.50)
Static balance <sup><math>d</math></sup> with closed eyes (5 sec)	1.73(0.66 - 4.54)	$2.68 (1.29 - 5.55)^c$	1.62 (0.72-3.66)
Tandem walk forward (10 steps)	2.25(0.92-5.51)	$2.64(1.34-5.21)^{c}$	1.94(0.93 - 4.05)
Tandem walk backward (10 steps)	1.31 (0.52-3.32)	$2.09 (1.13 - 3.87)^a$	1.56(0.76 - 3.22)
Falls during last yr	1.16 (0.63-2.12)	$1.54 (1.01 - 2.33)^a$	$2.20 (1.31 - 3.70)^c$
B) Odds ratio of the risk per 1 SD decrease in h	ormone concentration		
Five chair stands	$1.60 (1.15 - 2.22)^c$	$2.47 (1.52 - 3.99)^e$	$3.28 (1.82 - 5.90)^b$
Static balance <sup><math>d</math></sup> with open eyes (10 sec)	1.19(0.86 - 1.64)	$1.65 (1.06 - 2.58)^a$	$2.18(1.24 - 3.83)^{c}$
Static balance <sup><math>d</math></sup> with closed eyes (5 sec)	$1.30 (1.01 - 1.68)^a$	$1.51 (1.07 - 2.12)^a$	$1.58 (1.03 - 2.42)^a$
Tandem walk forward (10 steps)	$1.31 (1.01 - 1.70)^a$	$1.52 (1.10 - 2.10)^a$	$1.74 \ (1.16 - 2.61)^c$
Tandem walk backward (10 steps)	1.21(0.98 - 1.51)	1.23 (0.93-1.61)	1.18(0.84 - 1.65)
Falls during last yr	1.10 (0.98-1.26)	$1.20 \ (1.03 - 1.40)^a$	$1.21 \ (1.03 - 1.41)^a$

 $^{a}P < 0.05.$ 

 $^{b}P = 0.0001.$ 

 $^{c}P < 0.01.$ 

 $^{d}$  Static balance was evaluated by standing with the feet in the side by side position.

 $^{e}P < 0.001.$ 

one corresponds better to the residual androgenic activity (16, 42).

Osteoporosis is one of the manifestations of hypogonadism in men. However, data on osteoporosis in elderly hypogonadal men are limited (14, 15). In elderly men, the correlation of BMD with testosterone was relatively weak or not significant (3–7). In contrast, total and bioavailable 17 $\beta$ estradiol were correlated positively with BMD and negatively with levels of bone markers and the rate of bone loss in elderly men (5–8, 43, 44). Our data also indicate that a low 17 $\beta$ -estradiol level is a strong determinant of BMD. Two mechanisms may lead to a low concentration of 17 $\beta$ -estradiol in hypogonadal men: 17 $\beta$ -estradiol is cosecreted with testosterone by testicles and is also a product of the peripheric aromatization of testosterone; in addition, hypogonadal men had a lower concentration of androstenedione, which is also a substrate of aromatase.

In elderly men, severe osteoporosis due to hypogonadism is observed in patients with prostate cancer receiving antiandrogen therapy (45–48). They have a barely detectable testosterone concentration, but also a markedly decreased  $17\beta$ -estradiol level. They have increased bone resorption, which results in accelerated bone loss, decreased BMD, and increased risk of fractures. These observations confirm the importance of sex steroids for bone turnover in elderly men. However, this drug-induced, rapidly developing, and severe hypogonadism is different from the progressively developing, less severe hypogonadism in elderly men.

Our cross-sectional data suggest that in hypogonadal elderly men, increased bone resorption not matched by an adequate increase in bone formation is the mechanism leading to bone loss. Both young and elderly hypogonadal men had increased levels of bone markers, mainly those of bone resorption (45, 49). In elderly men, increased levels of bone resorption markers are correlated negatively with BMD (4, 50). Despite a marked difference in bone resorption marker levels between hypogonadal and eugonadal men, BMD was only slightly lower in men with decreased AFTC, but not in men with hypogonadism diagnosed using total testosterone

or FTI. Moreover, hypogonadal men can have low or normal concentrations of 17β-estradiol. Multiple regression models show that a low testosterone level is associated with an acceleration of both bone formation and bone resorption, whereas in men with low  $17\beta$ -estradiol levels, increased bone resorption may not be matched by increased bone resorption. Thus, low  $17\beta$ -estradiol may be a stronger determinant of low BMD than a low testosterone level. These results seem interesting, but must be interpreted cautiously. They are based on the cross-sectional associations, which do not necessarily prove causation. A part of circulating testosterone will be aromatized to 17β-estradiol in fat tissue before entering bone cells, and a part of testosterone entering bone cells will be aromatized and act as  $17\beta$ -estradiol. Moreover, only a part of  $17\beta$ -estradiol will enter bone cells. Thus, circulating levels of sex steroids do not necessarily reflect the biological reality at the tissue level.

Hypogonadal men were older and heavier. After adjustment for age, they had higher fat body mass than eugonadal men. Lean body mass, appendicular skeletal muscle mass, and relative skeletal muscle index were comparable in both groups when hypogonadism was diagnosed using total testosterone or AFTC, but was lower when hypogonadism was diagnosed using FTI.

Main findings of our study are lower muscle strength, impaired static and dynamic balance, and increased risk of falls in elderly hypogonadal men. Hypogonadal men failed to perform five chair stands more often than eugonadal men. Thus, they had less muscle strength despite similar appendicular skeletal muscle mass and relative skeletal muscle index.

This discrepancy between decreased muscular strength and preserved skeletal muscle mass is the most intriguing point of our study. The age-related decrease in muscle strength is higher than that in muscle mass (51). Lower extremity performance is correlated with muscle strength, but not with muscle mass, in elderly men (52). Several mechanisms result in the age-related decrease in muscle mass and strength: decreased number of muscle fibers (mainly of type IIA), loss of contractile proteins (mainly myosin heavy chains), lower activity of mitochondrial enzymes, and changes in the motor units innervating muscles (9, 53). Consequently, single fibers develop lower maximal force in older men compared with younger ones even after adjustment for fiber size (54). Thus, decreased muscle strength is not necessarily accompanied by a detectable decrease in muscle mass. Hypogonadal men were heavier due to a higher body fat mass; thus, their normal muscle mass may not be able to develop the strength sufficient to carry a heavier body.

In cross-sectional studies, appendicular skeletal muscle mass was weakly positively correlated with the testosterone concentration (55). In longitudinal studies performed in both young and elderly men, drug-induced severe, rapidly developing hypogonadism resulted only in a mild decrease in lean body mass (56, 57). Several studies indicated a positive correlation of the bioactive fraction of testosterone with muscle strength and static balance (3, 57, 58). In hypogonadal men, testosterone replacement increased the synthesis of mixed muscle proteins, including that of myosin heavy chains, which determine the strength of striated muscles (59).

These pathophysiological observations should be discussed in the context of therapeutic studies. In young hypogonadal men, testosterone replacement therapy increases both muscle mass and strength (49, 60). In contrast, in elderly men with PADAM, hormone replacement therapy increased muscle mass, whereas its effect on muscle strength was very weak or not significant (61–63). Thus, testosterone replacement therapy can increase the synthesis of muscle protein and skeletal muscle mass, but it may not be able to entirely restore the functional integrity of skeletal muscle (especially the levels of motor units) that has deteriorated due to the ageing process.

In conclusion, elderly men with partial androgen deficiency have markedly higher bone resorption that is not adequately matched by increased bone formation, decreased muscle strength (but not mass), impaired static and dynamic balance, increased risk of falls, and, in men with low AFTC, a slightly lower BMD. Thus, they can have an increased risk of osteoporotic fractures. Low AFTC is more discriminative for densitometric, biochemical, and functional parameters than FTI or total testosterone, whereas FTI is more discriminative for muscle mass. In multiple regression models,  $17\beta$ estradiol was the strongest determinant of BMD; AFTC and FTI were significant determinants of the variability in bone formation markers, whereas both  $17\beta$ -estradiol and testosterone determined the variability in bone resorption markers.

#### Acknowledgments

Received February 7, 2003. Accepted July 16, 2003.

Address all correspondence and requests for reprints to: Prof. Pierre D. Delmas, Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale (INSERM), Research Unit 403, Hôpital Edouard Herriot, place d'Arsonval, 69437 Lyon, France. E-mail: delmas@lyon.inserm.fr.

This work was supported by a contract from INSERM/Merck Sharp & Dohme (Chibret, France).

This work was presented in abstract form (oral presentation) at the 24th Annual Meeting of the American Society for Bone and Mineral Research, San Antonio, TX [J Bone Miner Res, 2002, 17(Suppl 1):S174, Abstract 1209].

## References

- Vermeulen A 2001 Androgen replacement therapy in the aging male: a critical evaluation. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 86:2380–2390
- Morales A, Heaton JPW, Carson III CC 2000 Andropause: a misnomer for a true clinical entity. J Urol 163:705–712
- van den Beld AW, de Jong FH, Grobbee DE, Pols HAP, Lamberts SWJ 2000 Measures of bioavailable tesosterone and estradiol and their relationships with muscle strength, bone density, and body composition in elderly men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 85:3276–3282
- Goemaere S, van Pottelbergh I, Zmierczak H, Toye K, Daems M, Demuynck R, Myny H, de Bacquer D, Kaufman JM 2001 Inverse association between bone turnover rate and bone mineral density in community-dwelling men >70 years of age: no major role of sex steroid status. Bone 29:286–291
- Greendale GA, Edelstein S, Barrett-Connor E 1997 Endogenous sex steroids and bone mineral density in older women and men: the Rancho Bernardo study. J Bone Miner Res 12:1833–1843
- Amin S, Zhang Y, Sawin CT, Evans SR, Hannan MT, Kiel DP, Wilson PWF, Felson DT 2000 Association of hypogonadism and estradiol levels woth bone mineral density in elderly men from the Framingham study. Ann Intern Med 133:951–963
- Szulc P, Munoz F, Claustrat B, Garnero P, Marchand F, Duboeuf F, Delmas PD 2001 Bioavailable estradiol may be an important determinant of osteoporosis in men: the MINOS study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 86:192–199
- Khosla S, Melton LJ III, Atkinson EJ, O'Fallon WM, Klee GG, Riggs BL 1998 Relationship of serum sex steroid levels and bone turnover markers with bone mineral density in men and women: a key role for bioavailable estrogen. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 83:2266–2274
- Short KR, Nair KS 1999 Mechanisms of sarcopenia of aging. J Endocrinol Invest 22:95–105
- Balagopal P, Rooyackers OE, Adey DB, Ades PA, Nair KS 1997 Effects of aging on in vivo synthesis of skeletal muscle myosin heavy-chain and sarcoplasmic protein in humans. Am J Physiol 273:E790–E800
- Nevitt MC, Cummings SR, Kidd S, Black D 1989 Risk factors for recurrent nonsyncopal falls. A prospective study. JAMA 261:2663–2668
   Graafmans WC, Ooms ME, Hofstee HMA, Bezemer PD, Bouter LM, Lips P
- Graafmans WC, Ooms ME, Hofstee HMA, Bezemer PD, Bouter LM, Lips P 1996 Falls in the elderly: a prospective study of risk factors and risk profiles. Am J Epidemiol 143:1129–1136
- 13. Bhasin S, Woodhouse L, Storer TW 2001 Proof of the effect of testosterone on skeletal muscle. J Endocrinol 170:27–38
- Jackson JA, Riggs MW, Spiekerman AM 1992 Testosterone deficiency as a risk factor for hip fractures in men: a case-control study. Am J Med Sci 304:4–8
- Stanley HL, Schmitt BP, Poses RM, Deiss WP 1991 Does hypogonadism contribute to the occurrence of a minimal trauma hip fracture in elderly men? J Am Geriatr Soc 39:766–771
- Vermeulen A, Verdonck L, Kaufman JM 1999 A critical evaluation of simple methods for the estimation of free testosterone in serum. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 84:3666–3672
- Sinha-Hikim I, Arver S, Beall G, Shen R, Guerrero M, Sattler F, Shikuma C, Nelson JC, Landgren BM, Mazer NA, Bhasin S 1998 The use of a sensitive equilibrium dialysis method for the measurement of free testosterone levels in healthy, cycling women and in human immunodeficiency virus-infected women. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 83:1312–1318
- Hammond GL, Nisker JA, Jones LA, Siiteri PK 1980 Estimation of the percentage of free steroid in undiluted serum by centrifugal ultrafiltration-dialysis. J Biol Chem 255:5023–5026
- Rosner W 2001 An extraordinarily inaccurate assay for free testosterone is still with us. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 86:2903
- 20. Rosner W 1997 Errors in the measurement of plasma free testosterone. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 82:2014–2015
- 21. Vermeulen A, Stoïca T, Verdonck L 1971 The apparent free testosterone concentration, an index of androgenicity. J Clin Endocrinol 33:759–767
- Szulc P, Marchand F, Dubeouf F, Delmas PD 2000 Cross-sectional assessment of age-related bone loss in men: the MINOS study. Bone 26:123–129
- Tinetti ME, Ginter SF 1988 Identifying mobility dysfunctions in elderly patients. Standard neuromuscular examination or direct assessment? JAMA 259: 1190–1193
- Guralnik JM, Simonsick EM, Ferrucci L, Glynn RJ, Berkman LF, Blazer DG, Scherr PA, Wallace RB 1994 A short physical performance battery assessing lower extremity function: association with self-reported disability and prediction of mortality and nursing home admission. J Gerontol Med Sci Biol Sci 49:M85–M94
- Ferrer M, Lamarca R, Orfila F, Alonso J 1999 Comparison of performancebased and self-rated functional capacity in Spanish elderly. Am J Epidemiol 149:228–235
- Guralnik JM, Ferruci L, Simonsick EM, Salive ME, Wallace RB 1995 Lowerextremity function in persons over the age of 70 years as a predictor of subsequent disability. N Engl J Med 332:556–561
- Garnero P, Grimaux M, Demiaux B, Preaudat C, Seguin P, Delmas PD 1992 Measurement of serum osteocalcin with human-specific two-site immunoradiometric assay. J Bone Miner Res 7:1389–1398
- 28. Gomez Jr B, Ardakani S, Ju J, Jenkins D, Cerelli MJ, Daniloff GY, Kung VT

1995 Monoclonal antibody assay for measuring bone-specific alkaline phosphatase activity in serum. Clin Chem 41:1560–1566

- Melkko J, Kauppila S, Niemi S, Risteli L, Haukipuro K, Jukkola A, Risteli J 1996 Immunoassay for intact amino-terminal propeptide of human type I procollagen. Clin Chem 42:947–954
- Garnero P, Gineyts E, Riou JP, Delmas PD 1994 Assessment of bone resorption with a new marker of collagen degradation in patients with metabolic bone disease. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 79:780–785
- Pedersen BJ, Ravn P, Bonde M 1998 Type I collagen C-telopeptide degradation products as bone resorption markers. J Clin Ligand Assay 21:118–127
- 32. Fledelius C, Johnsen AH, Cloos PAC, Bonde M, Qvist P 1997 Characterization of urinary degradation products derived from type I collagen. Identification of a β-isomerizes Asp-Gly sequence within the C-terminal telopeptide (α1) region. J Biol Chem 272:9755–9763
- 33. Christgau S, Rosenquist C, Alexandersen P, Bjarnason NH, Ravn P, Fledelius C, Herling C, Qvist P, Christiansen C 1998 Clinical evaluation of the serum CrossLaps one step ELISA, a new assay measuring the serum concentration of bone-derived degradation products of type I collagen C-telopeptides. Clin Chem 44:2290–2300
- Rosenquist C, Fledelius C, Christgau S, Pedersen BJ, Bonde M, Qvist P, Christiansen C 1998 Serum CrossLaps one step ELISA. First application of monoclonal antobodies for measurement in serum of bone-related degradation products from C-terminal telopeptides of type I collagen. Clin Chem 44:2281– 2289
- Robins SP, Woitge H, Hesley R, Ju J, Seyedin S, Seibel MJ 1994 Direct, enzyme-linked immunoassay for urinary deoxypyridinoline as a specific marker for measuring bone resorption. J Bone Miner Res 9:1643–1649
- Heymsfield SB, Smith R, Aulet M, Bensen B, Lichtman S, Wang J, Pierson Jr RN 1990 Appendicular skeletal muscle mass: measurement by dual-photon absorptiometry. Am J Clin Nutr 52:214–218
- Wang ZM, Visser M, Ma R, Baumgartner RN, Kotler D, Gallagher D, Heymsfield SB 1996 Skeletal muscle mass: evaluation of neutron activation and dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry methods. J Appl Physiol 80:824–831
- Baumgartner RN, Koehler KM, Gallagher D, Romero L, Heymsfield SB, Ross RR, Garry PJ, Linderman RD 1998 Epidemiology of sarcopenia among the elderly in New Mexico. Am J Epidemiol 147:755–763
- Bremond AG, Claustrat B, Rudigoz RC, Seffert P, Corniau J 1982 Estradiol, androstenedione, and dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate in the ovarian and peripheral blood of postmenopausal patients with and without endometrial cancer. Gynecol Oncol 14:119–124
- Chapuy MC, Preziosi P, Maamer M, Arnaud S, Galan P, Hercberg S, Meunier PJ 1997 Prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency in an adult normal population. Osteoporos Int 7:439–443
- 41. Feldman HA, Lonhcope C, Derby CA, Johannes CB, Araujo AB, Coviello AD, Bremner WJ, McKinlay JB 2002 Age trends in the level of serum testosterone and other hormones in middle-aged men: longitudinal results from the Massachusetts Male Aging Study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 87:589–598
- Morales A, Lunenfeld B 2001 Androgen replacement therapy in aging men with secondary hypogonadism. Aging Male 4:151–162
- Khosla S, Melton III LJ, Riggs BL 2002 Estrogen and the male skeleton. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 87:1443–1450
- Khosla S, Melton III LJ, Atkinson EJ, O'Fallon WM 2001 Relationship of serum sex steroid levels to longitudinal changes in bone density in young versus elderly men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 86:3555–3561
- Stoch SA, Parker RA, Chen L, Bubley G, Ko YJ, Vincelette A, Greenspan SL 2001 Bone loss in men with prostate cancer treated with gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 86:2787–2791
- 46. Smith MR, McGovern FJ, Zietman AL, Fallon MA, Hayden DL, Schoenfeld

DA, Kantoff PW, Finkelstein JS, Pamidronate to prevent bone loss during androgen-deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. N Engl J Med 345:948–955

- Daniell HW 1997 Osteoporosis after orchiectomy for prostate cancer. J Urol 157:439-444
   Diamond T, Campbell J, Bryant C, Lynch W 1998 The effect of combined
- Diamond T, Campbell J, Bryant C, Lynch W 1998 The effect of combined androgen blockade on bone turnover and bone mineral densities in men treated for prostate carcinoma. Cancer 83:1561–1566
- 49. Wang C, Eyre DR, Clark R, Kleinberg D, Newman C, Iranmanesh A, Veldhuis J, Dudley RE, Berman N, Davidson T, Barstow TJ, Sinow R, Alexander G, Swerdloff RS 1996 Sublingual testosterone replacement improves muscle mass and strength, decreases bone resorption, and increases bone formation markers in hypogonadal men: a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 81:3654–3662
- 50. Szulc P, Garnero P, Munoz F, Marchand F, Delmas PD 2001 Cross-sectional evaluation of bone metabolism in men. J Bone Miner Res 16:1642–1650
- Reed RL, Pearlmutter L, Yochum K, Meredith KE, Mooradian AD 1991 The relationship between muscle mass and muscle strength in the elderly. J Am Geriatr Soc 39:555–561
- Visser M, Deeg DJ, Lips P, Harris TB, Bouter LM 2000 Skeletal muscle mass and muscle strength in relation to lower-extremity performance in older men and women. J Am Geriatr Soc 48:381–386
- Morley JE, Baumgartner RN, Roubenoff R, Mayer J, Nair KS 2001 Sarcopenia. J Lab Clin Med 137:231–243
- 54. Frontera WR, Suh D, Krivickas LS, Hughes VA, Goldstein R, Roubenoff R 2000 Skeletal muscle fiber quality in older men and women. Am J Physiol 279:C611–C618
- Baumgartner RN, Waters DL, Gallagher D, Morley JE, Garry PJ 1999 Predictors of skeletal muscle mass in elderly men and women. Mech Aging Dev 107:123–136
- Smith MR, Finkelstein JS, McGovern FJ, Zietman AL, Fallon MA, Schoenfeld DA, Kantoff PW 2002 Changes in body composition during androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 87:599–603
- Mauras N, Hayes V, Welch S, Rini A, Helgeson K, Dokler M, Veldhuis JD, Urban RJ 1998 Testosterone deficiency in young men: marked alterations in whole body protein kinetics, strength and adiposity. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 83:1886–1892
- 58. Morley JE, Kaiser F, Raum WJ, Perry III HM, Flood JF, Jensen J, Silver AJ, Roberts E 1997 Potentially predictive and manipulable blood serum correlates of aging in the healthy human male: progressive decreases in bioavailable testosterone, dehydroepiandrosterone sulphate, and the ration of insulin-like growth factor 1 to growth hormone. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 94:7537–7542
- Brodsky IG, Balagopal P, Nair KS 1996 Effects of testosterone replacement on muscle mass and muscle protein synthesis in hypogonadal men–a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 81:3469–3475
- 60. Wang C, Swerdloff RS, Iranmanesh A, Dobs A, Snyder PJ, Cunningham G, Matsumoto AM, Weber T, Berman N 2000 Transdermal testosterone gel improves sexual function, mood, muscle strength, and body composition parameters in hypogonadal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 86:2839–2853
- Morley JE, Perry III HM, Kaiser FE, Kraenzle D, Jensen J, Houston K, Mattammal M, Perry Jr HM 1993 Effects of testosterone replacement therapy in old hypogonadal males: a preliminary study. J Am Geriatr Soc 41:149–152
- Kenny AM, Prestwood KM, Gruman CA, Marcello KM, Raisz LG 2001 Effects of transdermal testosterone on bone and muscle in older men with low bioavailable testosterone levels. J Gerontol Med Sci Biol Sci 56A:M266–M272
- 63. Sih R, Morley JE, Kaiser FE, Perry III HM, Patrick P, Ross C 1997 Testosterone replacement in older hypogonadal men: a 12-month randomized controlled trial. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 82:1661–1667