

Title: A population-level decline in serum testosterone levels in American men

Short title: Population-level declines in male serum T

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ABSTRACT

Context. Age-specific estimates of mean testosterone (T) concentrations appear to vary by year of observation and by birth cohort, and estimates of longitudinal declines in T typically outstrip cross-sectional decreases. These observations motivate a hypothesis of a population-level decrease in T over calendar time, independent of chronologic aging.

Objective. To establish the magnitude of population-level changes in serum T concentrations, and the degree to which they are explained by secular changes in relative weight and other factors.

Design. A prospective cohort study of health and endocrine functioning in randomly selected men of age 45-79 y. Three data collection waves: baseline (T1: 1987-89) and two follow-ups (T2: 1995-97, T3: 2002-04).

Setting. An observational study of randomly selected men residing in greater Boston, MA, USA.

Participants. Data obtained on 1374, 906 and 489 men at T1, T2, and T3, respectively, totaling 2769 observations taken on 1532 men.

Main outcome measures. Serum total testosterone and calculated bioavailable testosterone.

Results. We observe a substantial age-independent decline in T that does not appear to be attributable to observed changes in explanatory factors, including health and lifestyle characteristics such as smoking and obesity. The estimated population-level declines are greater in magnitude than the cross-sectional declines in T typically associated with age.

Conclusions. These results indicate that recent years have seen a substantial, and as yet unrecognized, age-independent population-level decrease in T in American men, potentially due to birth cohort differences or to health or environmental effects not captured in observed data.

1 INTRODUCTION

2

3 Considerable loss of serum testosterone (T) is thought to be a feature of male chronologic aging (1-9).

4 Low serum T has been associated with numerous age-related adverse health conditions including

5 abdominal obesity, diabetes and pre-diabetic states (such as insulin resistance, impaired glucose

6 tolerance, and metabolic syndrome), dyslipidemia, low bone and muscle mass, impaired sexual

7 function, depressed mood, frailty, and decreased quality of life (10-12). T decline across the life span

8 therefore represents an issue of great concern for public health, but large studies of within-person

9 decreases in T are rare.

10

11 A previous analysis of baseline (T1: 1987-89) and initial follow-up (T2: 1995-97) data from the

12 Massachusetts Male Aging Study (MMAS) indicated that the mean longitudinal (within-subject)

13 decline in serum total testosterone (TT) per year of aging was more than twice the baseline cross-

14 sectional decrease in mean TT per year of age (13). Qualitative comparisons of other existing studies

15 likewise indicates that longitudinal decline within subjects is generally of greater magnitude than

16 corresponding cross-sectional trends. We have hypothesized (13) that this disparity may be due to

17 rapid intra-subject declines in health among subjects enrolled in longitudinal studies. A competing

18 hypothesis, however, asserts that a population-level decline in T concentrations confounds cross-

19 sectional and longitudinal estimates of T decline with age. A population-level decrease in serum T

20 levels could accelerate the longitudinal declines in T concentrations typically associated with subjects'

21 aging and compress cross-sectional decreases associated with age. Completion of the latest follow-up

22 wave of MMAS data collection (T3: 2002-04) allows us, for the first time, to formally investigate the

23 possibility of an age-independent decline in serum T levels with calendar time.

24

25 To our knowledge, there exist no extensive published studies of changes in the age-matched
26 distribution of T over time, but a population-level decline in serum T concentrations would be
27 consistent with evidence of secular decreases in male fertility and sperm count (14, 15). In this
28 analysis, we estimated differences in serum total testosterone and calculated bioavailable testosterone
29 (BT) concentrations obtained from individuals of like age observed at different times (e.g. comparing
30 TT in men who were 65 years old in 1988 to those in comparable men who were 65 years old in 2003).
31 Our working hypothesis was that age-independent differences would be attributable to population-level
32 changes in health and lifestyle observable during the nearly 20 years of study follow-up.

33

34 **METHODS**

35

36 The MMAS is a prospective cohort study of men's health and endocrine function. Its design and prior
37 results are described elsewhere (1, 5, 13, 16). Briefly: from a randomly-chosen sample of 1709 men
38 living in and around Boston, blood samples and interview data were obtained during in-home visits by
39 trained staff, with data collection comprising a baseline (T1) and two follow-up (T2, T3) waves. All
40 study activities, including informed consent protocol, were approved by the Institutional Review Board
41 of the New England Research Institutes (NERI).

42

43 T concentrations are subject to systematic variation due to components of study design (17-19).
44 Accordingly, the MMAS took steps to minimize design bias. To counteract the effects of episodic
45 secretion of hormones, two samples were obtained at each visit and pooled in equal aliquots at the time
46 of assay. To control the effects of diurnal variation in hormone concentrations (20), samples were
47 obtained within 4 hours of subjects' waking. Blood was kept in an ice-cooled container for transport
48 and centrifuged within 6 hours. Serum was stored in 5 mL scintillation vials at -20°C, shipped to the
49 laboratory within one week by same-day courier, and stored at -70°C until the time of assay. All

50 hormone values were obtained by a single technician at the Endocrine Laboratory, University of
51 Massachusetts Medical Center, under the direction of Christopher Longcope, MD. TT concentrations
52 were obtained by radioimmunoassay (Diagnostic Products Corporation, Los Angeles, CA). T1 assays
53 were performed in 1994, while T2 and T3 samples were assayed shortly after in-home visits. TT
54 inter-assay coefficients of variation were 8.0, 9.0, 8.3 at T1, T2, T3, respectively. TT concentrations
55 obtained in the MMAS fall near the center of the distribution of concentrations obtained in other major
56 epidemiologic studies (16), and quality control testing indicated negligible change in concentrations
57 between T1 and T2 due either to sample storage or assay drift (5).

58

59 Serum sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) was measured using RIA kits at T1 and T2, and at T3
60 by chemiluminescent enzyme immunometric assay using the DPC Immulite technology. SHBG inter-
61 assay CVs were 10.9%, 7.9%, and 3.0% at T1, T2, T3, respectively. BT was calculated using the mass
62 action equations described by Södergard et al (21), with association constants taken from Vermeulen et
63 al. (22)

64

65 **Covariate Data.** Demographic characteristics (age, education, income, marital status), health
66 conditions (cancers, diabetes, heart disease, hypertension, and ulcer), self-assessed general health (a
67 five-point ordinal scale), and smoking and daily alcohol consumption (23) were obtained via self-
68 report. Self-reported diagnoses of prostate cancer were supplemented with examination of available
69 medical records. Height, weight and waist and hip circumference were obtained using methods
70 developed for large-scale epidemiologic field work (24). Body mass index (BMI) and waist-to-hip
71 ratio were derived by calculation. A comprehensive inventory of all prescription medications used by
72 subjects was obtained. Daily caloric intake was measured using the Willett 1-year food frequency
73 questionnaire (25). Physical activity and energy expenditure were derived from subjects' seven-day

74 recall of duration and frequency of their activities (26). Depressive symptoms were measured using
75 the Centers for Epidemiological Studies – Depression (CES-D) scale (27).

76

77 **Analysis Sample.** In order to enhance comparability of age distributions across study waves and to
78 allow for analyses of T concentrations by subjects' birth cohorts, data were restricted to observations
79 obtained on men of age 45 to 79 years born between 1916 and 1945, inclusive. This yielded potential
80 samples of 1399, 975, and 579 observations at T1, T2, and T3, respectively. Of these, we excluded all
81 observations on the seven men who had T1 serum total T < 100 ng/dL (3.5 nmol/L), and two outlying
82 observations with total T > 1200 ng/dL (41.6 nmol/L). One hundred twenty-six observations were
83 excluded because they were taken on subjects who, prior to the relevant study wave, had a diagnosis of
84 prostate cancer, for which treatment via hormone suppression therapy could not be ruled out. An
85 additional 44 observations were excluded because apparent health status could not be determined.
86 This yielded samples of 1374, 906 and 489 observations at T1, T2, and T3, respectively, totaling 2769
87 observations taken on 1532 men.

88

89 **Statistical Analysis.** Exploratory analyses were conducted to assess the functional form of
90 associations. We used mixed-effects linear regression (28) with random subject-level intercepts and
91 slopes to estimate trends and test hypotheses. Hormone concentrations were log (base e) transformed
92 to remove any effects of the mild skew in the data. For a covariate with associated regression estimate
93 β^* , we approximated the corresponding percent change in mean hormone concentrations using the
94 quantity $100 \times (e^{\beta^*} - 1)$. Results were considered statistically significant if null hypotheses could be
95 rejected at the 0.05 level. The significance of effects was evaluated using Wald and likelihood ratio
96 (LR) tests. Confounders were employed in multivariate models if they had considerable theoretical
97 importance or were significantly associated with T concentrations in the presence of other predictors.

98 All confounders were allowed to vary with time and were treated as internal time-dependent covariates
99 (29).

100

101 **RESULTS**

102

103 A description of the analysis sample is given in Table 1. Median baseline age was 58 years, with
104 interquartile range (IQR) 52 to 64 years. Seven hundred nineteen (52%) subjects reported at least one
105 chronic illness, 340 (25%) were current smokers, 296 (22%) were obese (BMI \geq 30), and 252 (18%)
106 reported use of at least three prescription medications. Over the course of study follow-up, we
107 observed marked increases in the proportion of subjects reporting at least one chronic illness or who
108 were overweight or obese, as well as in the number of medications being used by subjects; there were
109 dramatic decreases in the proportion of subjects who were current smokers or who were employed.

110

111 Table 2 presents descriptive statistics for age and T concentrations at all study waves. Median TT at
112 baseline was 501 ng/dL (17.4 nmol/L), with IQR 392-614 ng/dL (13.6 – 21.3 nmol/L); the
113 corresponding values at T3 were 391 ng/dL (13.6 nmol/L) and 310-507 ng/dL (10.7 – 17.6 nmol/L).
114 Among subjects on whom follow-up data could be obtained, the median lag time between observations
115 at T1 and T2 was 8.8 years, and between T2 and T3 was 6.4 years.

116

117 **Exploratory Analyses.** We used graphical displays to assess three interrelated quantities: first, the
118 cross-sectional association between T concentrations and age at any study wave; second, the
119 longitudinal decline of T over time associated with subjects' aging; third, the *age-matched* difference
120 between, for instance, mean T concentrations obtained from 65 year-old men in 1988 and
121 concentrations obtained from 65 years old men in 2003 (equivalently, we sought to compare T

122 concentrations obtained in 1988 from men born circa 1923 to concentrations obtained in 2003 from
123 men born circa 1938). A depiction of mean TT concentrations is given in Figure 1, which displays
124 nonparametric locally weighted estimates of TT by age separately for each study wave. The negative
125 slopes of the wave-specific fits correspond to the relatively modest cross-sectional decline of mean TT
126 with age. The age-matched difference by time (denoted by the vertical distance between the fitted
127 curves in overlapping age ranges) is likewise evident. The data suggest that the cross-sectional decline
128 of TT within T1 is smaller than the age-matched difference between concentrations taken at T2 versus
129 T1, which are separated by only about nine years in time; simple linear regression estimates indicate
130 cross-sectional TT decreases of 17 and 20 ng/dL (0.6 and 0.7 nmol/L) per 10 years of age at T1 and
131 T2, respectively, whereas the mean difference between subjects age 65 at T1 versus subjects age 65 at
132 T2 is roughly 50 ng/dL (1.7 nmol/L).

133
134 To more carefully explore trends associated with age and time, it is useful to depict subjects by birth
135 cohort. Figure 2 displays all (log-transformed) TT concentrations in the analysis sample versus age,
136 and includes mixed-effects regression (28) estimates of the average within-subject TT decline by 5-
137 year birth cohort. A display fitting nonparametric locally weighted regression smooths (not shown)
138 was similar. We refer to five-year birth cohorts as Cohort I (men born in the years 1916-19), Cohort II
139 (1920-24), ... , Cohort VI (1940-45). Although the design of the MMAS precludes all cohorts from
140 being observed over all ages, the pattern of decreasing TT concentrations across adjacent cohorts is
141 compelling. That the regression lines are approximately parallel indicates that the age-matched decline
142 over time (again indicated by vertical distances between pairs of fitted lines) is consistent across age
143 groups.

144
145 Detailed exploratory analyses provide additional evidence of an age-matched time trend. Table 3
146 provides an illustrative example. Here we restrict our attention to Cohorts II and IV and their

147 associated TT concentrations at T1 and T2. Calculation indicates that among subjects in Cohort IV
148 (born 1930-34), the proportionate decline in mean TT from T1 to T2 was 16.1% (the median age at T1
149 was 56 years and at T2 was 64 years). By contrast, a cross-sectional comparison at baseline indicates
150 that Cohort II (median age 65 years) T levels are only 5.5% lower than those of Cohort IV (median age
151 56 years). The age-matched time difference (comparing observations on men of similar age separated
152 by time: Cohort IV at T2 versus Cohort II at T1) is roughly 11.2%, approximately the difference
153 between the cross-sectional and longitudinal trends. Similar effects may be observed in other
154 combinations of birth cohorts and study waves.

155

156 **Formal Results: Total Testosterone.** An analysis of all data yields results in agreement with our
157 exploratory observations. In order to estimate cross-sectional and longitudinal trends, we partition
158 subjects' ages into two pieces: age at baseline and subsequent aging, the latter defined as calendar
159 time since study entry. The per-year age-matched time trend was estimated as the difference between
160 the associated longitudinal and cross-sectional regression estimates (30-32). Mean cross-sectional,
161 longitudinal and age-matched trends derived from mixed-effects models of TT as a function of age and
162 aging are depicted on the left side of Table 4. The estimated cross-sectional decline in TT is -0.4% per
163 year of age, with a corresponding 95% confidence interval (CI) of (-0.6%, -0.2%). The longitudinal
164 within-subject decline is approximately -1.6% per year (CI: -1.8%, -1.4%). The age-matched time
165 trend is -1.2% per year (CI: -1.4%, -1.0%).

166

167 We hypothesized that the presence of the age-matched time trend could be accounted for by observable
168 secular changes in health status or lifestyle characteristics. This hypothesis relies upon an assertion
169 that for men of, say, 65 years of age, health/lifestyle characteristics vary by observation time. For
170 instance, the well-known and ongoing secular increase in obesity might explain the fact that the typical
171 blood sample taken from a 65-year-old man in 2003 exhibited lower TT concentrations than a sample

172 taken from a different 65-year-old subject in 1988 (the latter subject having been born approximately
173 15 years earlier than the former). In this analysis we observed little evidence of age-independent
174 trends with respect to most covariate factors; notable exceptions to this rule, however, were the
175 aforementioned increases in relative weight, as well as population-level changes in the prevalence of
176 smoking and the concurrent use of multiple medications (polypharmacy). There were substantial age-
177 specific increases in obesity and polypharmacy over the course of study follow-up, whereas the
178 proportion of subjects who smoked cigarettes declined dramatically in all age groups. These trends are
179 potentially important in accounting for an apparent secular decline in TT levels, as weight gain,
180 smoking cessation, and the use of medications have been associated with decreases in serum T (33-37).
181 However, while controlling for these and other factors significantly associated with TT concentrations
182 was sufficient to substantially decrease the estimates of cross-sectional and longitudinal decline in TT,
183 the estimate of the age-matched time trend was only slightly reduced (see Table 4). Results were
184 essentially unchanged when all covariate effects (see Methods) were included in multivariate analyses.

185

186 **Bioavailable Testosterone.** As noted above, the technology by which SHBG was measured at T1 and
187 T2 (RIA) differed from that employed at T3 (Immulite). Because of this, observed variation in
188 calculated BT concentrations between T2 and T3 could be artificially inflated. We therefore restricted
189 formal estimation of cross-sectional, longitudinal and age-matched time trends in BT to values
190 obtained at T1 and T2.

191

192 In the resulting models, as is consistent with other published results, cross-sectional and longitudinal
193 age trends in BT were substantially sharper than those in TT. However, the age-matched time trend
194 was similar in magnitude to that in TT, and was likewise robust to control for all covariates. When
195 only the effects of age and aging were controlled, the estimated age-matched time trend in BT values
196 was approximately -1.4% per calendar year (95% CI: -1.8%, -1.1%), whereas when the effects of all

197 other covariates were accounted for, the estimated age-matched trend was -1.3% per year (95% CI: -
198 1.7%, -1.1%).

199

200 **Sensitivity Analyses.** In order to test the robustness of all findings, we performed a number of
201 additional analyses. Analyses including effects for town of residence, assay batch, month of interview,
202 and time of study visit yielded results nearly identical to those described above. Results did not change
203 substantially when analyses of TT were restricted to data from any two of the three study waves.
204 Likewise, results were similar when analyses of either TT or BT were restricted to men above or below
205 certain ages, to men with complete data at all three waves, or to men in particular birth cohorts. In
206 addition, we examined the distribution of baseline TT and BT concentrations among those subjects
207 who had complete data versus those who did not, and found that they were comparable.

208

209 **DISCUSSION**

210

211 These findings indicate that the past twenty years have seen substantial age-independent decreases in
212 male serum T concentrations, decreases that do not appear to be the consequence of the
213 contemporaneous trends in health and lifestyle considered here. It remains unclear to what these
214 apparent population-level decreases in T are attributable.

215

216 Because age, birth year and observation time are perfectly confounded (that is, knowledge of any two
217 determines the third), their influences are not separable through data analysis. Age-matched time
218 differences cannot, therefore, be definitively attributed to historical (pre-study) trends affecting
219 different birth cohorts in different ways or, rather, to contemporary secular changes in the underlying
220 population (e.g., to age-independent increases in obesity beyond those captured in the analyses
221 described here). As noted previously, there is little evidence that the association between T and age

222 (that is, the slope of a line depicting the relationship between the two) depends upon birth year, so that
223 irrespective of birth cohort, decreases in T with age are constant (see Figure 2). This evidence is
224 consistent with - but does not prove - the notion that the linear T/age association is consistent across
225 different generations, and implies that the age-matched declines in T levels associated with each year
226 of calendar time apply equally to men from 45 to 80 years of age.

227

228 The presence of the age-matched trend itself, however, suggests that neither cross-sectional nor
229 longitudinal investigations may properly describe the true effect of aging *per se* on T (30-32).

230 Suppose, for instance, there were an unmeasured but persistent environmental exposure associated
231 with decreased T levels, affecting recent generations of men at birth. In that case the cross-sectional
232 decline in T with age might be underestimated, as younger men could have lower T levels than their
233 historic counterparts and appear more like their older contemporaries (born prior to the advent of the
234 exposure) than one would normally expect in the absence of such a hypothetical exposure.

235

236 On the other hand, if the age-matched trend is not historic but rather indicative of population-level
237 changes occurring during the time subjects were under study, the age-matched trend denotes a secular
238 trend in T concentrations over that time. Under this scenario it is easy to see that longitudinal
239 estimates of change in T concentrations may in fact overstate the true effect of aging, because the
240 observed effect of a year of aging would include not only the true age-related decreases in T but also
241 whatever decreases the population-level secular trend imposed on all men simultaneously. Such a
242 secular trend in T might be attributable to parallel population-level changes in the distribution of health
243 and lifestyle factors, independent of age. We have observed, however, that while baseline and
244 evolving health states in the study sample successfully account for a substantial proportion of the
245 cross-sectional and longitudinal associations between age and T, they do not explain the age-matched
246 decline in T concentrations.

247

248 We therefore hypothesize that the observed age-matched decline in serum testosterone is due to some
249 undocumented historical or contemporary influence, health-related or environmental, which manifests
250 in observable age-matched differences in T concentrations separated either by time of observation or
251 by birth cohort.

252

253 It is interesting to note that the estimated age-matched time trends in TT and BT are of comparable
254 magnitude. This may not in itself be surprising, as the time trends are explicitly intended to remove
255 the effects of aging itself, leaving only secular changes in other factors as contributors to changes in T
256 levels with time. We can currently offer, however, no additional speculation as to whether one would
257 expect a secular trend in BT to differ markedly from that in TT.

258

259 Some limitations of this study should be acknowledged. Though the consistency of the methods by
260 which TT concentrations were obtained - as well as that of the age-matched time trend across all pairs
261 of study waves - indicates that design artifacts are likely not the cause of these observations, they
262 cannot be completely discounted as contributors to the age-matched time trends, as relatively subtle
263 changes in measurement may contribute substantially to differences between observations separated by
264 time. Likewise, though the evidence suggests that subject loss to follow-up has not influenced our
265 result, we must acknowledge the possibility of biases arising from subject dropout. However, under
266 the assumption of such a survival bias, those subjects who remain in the study, being younger (and
267 presumably more healthy) than those lost to follow-up, would be likely to exhibit higher mean T
268 concentrations during follow-up than would the complete sample had it been fully observed. Under
269 such a scenario, it is likely that the estimates of longitudinal and age-matched decline described here
270 would be too low, rather than too high.

271

272 An added concern is that the covariates considered in this analysis cannot account for all known causes
273 of T decline. Indeed it is exceedingly unlikely that population-level T concentrations would decline
274 with calendar time - independently of age - of their own accord. Rather, if such declines exist, they
275 have one or several causes which themselves may be evolving over time. We have observed that
276 several candidate causes observable at the level of the individual subject, most notably the well-known
277 secular declines in smoking rates and increases in relative weight, do not appear to completely explain
278 the observed age-matched trends in T. It remains possible, however, that more detailed and
279 comprehensive measurement of such factors could fully account for the age-matched trends in T.

280

281 If the trends observed in the MMAS are real and continue, the prevalence of low T in American men
282 will exhibit increases in excess of those to be expected given the projected aging of the population
283 (38). As such, it is important that future research endeavors to confirm or disprove the existence of
284 age-independent T declines, and to discover their causes, environmental or otherwise, so that they may
285 be addressed through prevention.

286

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Crude mean total testosterone concentrations, by MMAS study wave (T1, T2, T3), with confidence bands (dotted lines). Estimates are obtained from a generalized additive model with a lowess smoothing term.

Figure 2. MMAS mean total testosterone (TT) versus age, by five-year birth cohort. Fitted lines are obtained from cohort-specific mixed-effects regression of the log of TT on centered age, with random effects for each subject. Data points in the analytic sample are also depicted; each subject contributes up to three observations. Models are fit using maximum likelihood.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics by MMAS study wave, Mean (Standard Deviation) or Count (%).

	T1 (1987-1989) N = 1374	T2 (1995-1997) N = 906	T3 (2002-2004) N = 489
Age (y)	57.7 (7.2)	63.2 (7.8)	67.3 (6.5)
Chronic Illness			
Non-Prostate Cancers	89 (6%)	124 (14%)	85 (17%)
Diabetes	120 (9%)	80 (9%)	62 (13%)
Heart Disease	196 (14%)	155 (17%)	114 (23%)
Hypertension	449 (33%)	340 (38%)	248 (51%)
Ulcer	146 (11%)	117 (13%)	64 (13%)
Any	719 (52%)	545 (60%)	349 (71%)
Depressive Symptoms (CES-D \geq 16)^a	149 (11%)	96 (11%)	43 (9%)
Self-assessed General Health			
Excellent	417 (30%)	280 (31%)	127 (26%)
Very good	475 (35%)	336 (37%)	190 (39%)
Good	360 (26%)	219 (24%)	110 (27%)
Fair / Poor	120 (9%)	71 (8%)	42 (9%)
Prescription Medications			
0	517 (38%)	196 (22%)	0 (0%)
1-2	557 (41%)	351 (39%)	170 (37%)
3-5	252 (18%)	270 (30%)	178 (38%)
6+	48 (3%)	89 (10%)	116 (25%)
Education			
< High school	173 (13%)	83 (9%)	34 (7%)
High School Graduate	263 (19%)	137 (15%)	81 (17%)
> High School	938 (68%)	680 (76%)	374 (76%)
Marital Status			
Single / Never Married	108 (8%)	63 (7%)	40 (8%)
Married	1044 (76%)	701 (77%)	367 (75%)
Divorced/Separated	171 (12%)	97 (11%)	55 (11%)
Widowed	51 (4%)	45 (5%)	27 (5%)
Household Income			
< \$40,000 / y	546 (41%)	271 (31%)	122 (26%)
\$40,000 – 79,000 / y	530 (40%)	299 (34%)	153 (32%)
> \$80,000 / y	250 (19%)	302 (35%)	199 (42%)

Currently Employed	1032 (75%)	565 (62%)	257 (53%)
Weight and Body Shape			
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	27.4 (4.4)	27.6 (4.4)	28.3 (4.8)
Waist-to-hip ratio	.95 (.06)	.96 (.06)	.97 (.06)
Cigarette smoking	340 (25%)	118 (13%)	45 (9%)
Dietary Intake			
Total kcal / day	2069 (817)	2006 (720)	1911 (743)
Animal fat (g /day)	40.3 (22)	36.6 (19)	38.0 (20)
Sedentary Activity Levels	488 (36%)	285 (31%)	139 (28%)

Table 2: Total and calculated bioavailable testosterone concentrations, by study wave and corresponding age range.

Study Wave	Observation Years	Age Range (y)	N	Total Testosterone (ng/dL ^a)		Bioavailable Testosterone (ng/dL ^a)	
				Median	Interquartile Range	Median	Interquartile Range
T1	1987-89	45 – 71	1383	501	392 – 614	237	179 – 294
T2	1995-97	50 – 80	955	435	350 – 537	188	150 – 234
T3	2002-04	57 – 80	568	391	310 – 507	130	101 – 163

^aMay be converted to nmol/L via multiplication by 0.03467.

Table 3: Age-matched trends: illustrative example.

Crude cross-sectional, longitudinal and age-matched trends in mean total testosterone (TT) per year age or time, restricted to men born 1920-24 (Cohort II) or 1930-34 (Cohort IV). Men in Cohort II have comparable age when observed at T1 (upper left) to that of men in Cohort IV when observed at T2 (lower right); the disparity between these measurements approximates the unadjusted age-matched time trend in TT. Median time between observation at T1 and T2 is roughly 8.8 years.

Cohort	Birth Years	<u>T1: 1987-89</u>		<u>T2: 1995-97</u>		Longitudinal Difference^b:
		Median Age (y)	Mean (SD) Total Testosterone (ng/dL^d)	Median Age (y)	Mean (SD) Total Testosterone (ng/dL^d)	
II	1920 – 24	65	500 (161)			-16.0 %
IV	1930 – 34	56	529 (183)	64	444 (145)	
Cross-Sectional Difference^a:			-5.5 %			
Age-Matched Time Difference^c: -11.2%						

^a T1: Cohort II versus Cohort IV, estimates mean cross-sectional decrease per nine years age.

^b Cohort IV: T2 versus T1; estimates mean longitudinal decline per nine years aging.

^c Cohort IV, T2, versus Cohort II, T1; estimates mean age-matched decline per nine years time.

^d May be converted to nmol/L via multiplication by 0.03467.

Table 4: Longitudinal regression results. Though apparent cross-sectional and longitudinal associations with age are reduced by statistical control for health and lifestyle, the age-matched time trend remains large.

	Unadjusted Results			Adjusted Results ^a		
	Mean Decline (% / y)	95% CI	p-value ^b	Mean Decline (% / y)	95% CI	p-value ^b
Cross-sectional trend (per y age)	- 0.4	(- 0.6, - 0.2)	< .001	- 0.1	(- 0.3, 0.1)	0.42
Longitudinal trend (per y aging)	- 1.6	(- 1.8, - 1.4)	< .001	- 1.1	(- 1.3, - 0.9)	< .001
Age-matched time trend (per y time)	- 1.2	(- 1.5, - 1.0)	< .001	- 1.0	(- 1.3, - 0.8)	< .001

^a Adjusted for chronic illness, general health, medications, smoking, BMI, employment, marital status.

^b Wald test of regression effect.

Figure 1

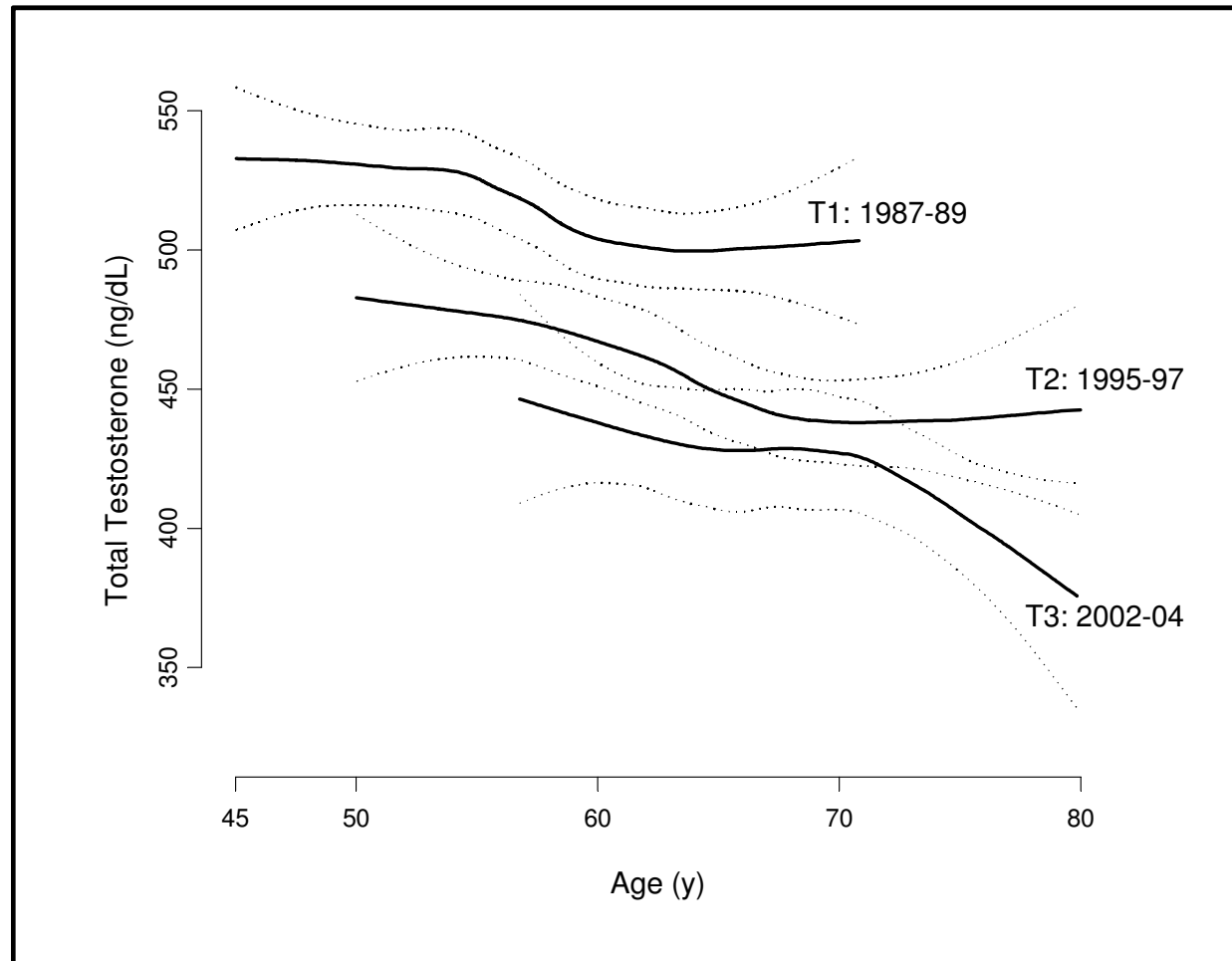


Figure 2

