

Low Testosterone Levels Predict Incident Depressive Illness in Older Men: Effects of Age and Medical Morbidity

Molly M. Shores, M.D.; Victoria M. Mocerri, Ph.D.; Kevin L. Sloan, M.D.;
Alvin M. Matsumoto, M.D.; and Daniel R. Kivlahan, Ph.D.

Objective: Prior studies found that chronic low testosterone levels are associated with an increased risk of depression. We investigated whether low testosterone levels in older men predict depressive illness over 2 years, while controlling for age and medical morbidity.

Method: Participants were 748 men, aged 50 years or older, without prior ICD-9–diagnosed depressive illness, with a testosterone level obtained between 1995 and 1997. Measures were age, mean total testosterone levels (low: ≤ 2.5 ng/mL), medical morbidity, and incidence and time to depressive illness.

Results: Men with low testosterone levels had a greater 2-year incidence of depressive illness (18.5% vs. 10.4%, $df = 1$, $p = .006$) and a shorter time to onset of depressive illness (log-rank $\chi^2 = 8.1$, $df = 1$, $p = .004$). The unadjusted hazard ratio (HR) for depressive illness in men with low testosterone levels was 1.9 (95% confidence interval [CI] = 1.2 to 3.0, $p = .005$). After adjustment for age and medical morbidity, men with low testosterone levels continued to have a shorter time to depressive illness (adjusted HR = 2.1; 95% CI = 1.3 to 3.2, $p = .002$). Due to a significant interaction between age and medical morbidity, we conducted stratified Cox regression analyses and found that low testosterone levels and high medical morbidity or an age of 50 to 65 years were associated with increased depressive illness ($p = .002$).

Conclusion: Low testosterone levels are associated with an earlier onset and greater incidence of depressive illness. Men with low testosterone levels who had high medical morbidity or were aged 50 to 65 years had an increased risk for depressive illness. Further prospective studies are needed to examine the role of testosterone in depressive illness in older men. (*J Clin Psychiatry* 2005;66:7–14)

Received June 13, 2004; accepted Aug. 16, 2004. From the Veterans Affairs (VA) Puget Sound Health Care System, Seattle (all authors); the Geriatric Research Education and Clinical Center (GRECC), Seattle (Drs. Shores and Matsumoto); and the Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences (Drs. Shores, Mocerri, Sloan, and Kivlahan) and the Department of Medicine (Dr. Matsumoto), University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.

Supported by the GRECC at the VA Puget Sound Health Care System, by the Royalty Research Fund of the University of Washington, Seattle, and by a VA Merit Review Grant (Dr. Matsumoto).

Dr. Shores has served as a consultant for and received grant/research support from Solvay. Dr. Matsumoto has served as a consultant for Solvay, Columbia, and Auxilium; has received grant/research support from Solvay and Columbia; and has served on the advisory boards of Solvay and Auxilium.

The authors wish to thank Edward Gottheil, M.D., Ph.D., for his comments and suggestions.

Corresponding author and reprints: Molly M. Shores, M.D., Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, University of Washington, VA Puget Sound Health Care System, 1660 S. Columbian Way, S-182 GRECC, Seattle, WA 98108 (e-mail: molly.shores@med.va.gov).

Testosterone levels decline gradually with aging, with approximately 20% of men in their 60s and 50% of men over the age of 80 years demonstrating low total testosterone levels.¹ In addition to aging, low testosterone levels are also associated with acute and chronic medical illnesses and medications. However, the symptoms of low testosterone are similar regardless of whether the etiology of low testosterone is primarily due to aging, medical illness, medications, or a combination of these factors.² The term *andropause* has been used to describe the clinical syndrome of low testosterone levels and symptoms of androgen deficiency in older men. However, *andropause* is not an accurate term. In contrast to menopause, in which estrogen secretion ceases entirely, resulting in negligible estrogen levels, in andropause, androgen secretion does not totally cease and androgen levels are highly variable.³ In fact, total testosterone levels remain within a normal range in approximately 80% of men at age 60 years and 50% of men at age 80 years.¹ Thus, although a significant number of men have low testosterone levels, the majority of older men have total testosterone levels that would be considered normal, even for younger men.

An association between testosterone and mood has been of interest for years, in part because some symptoms of low testosterone, such as irritability, decreased libido,

and fatigue, overlap with symptoms of depressive illness. However, despite studies^{4,5} since the 1940s, the association between testosterone and depressive illness in older men remains unclear. Although testosterone generally improves mood in hypogonadal men,^{6,7} studies^{8–10} of testosterone replacement in depressed men with low testosterone levels have been conflicting. Several methodological issues may explain the inconsistent results. Such issues include controversy regarding appropriate testosterone threshold levels in older men, the potential for a high placebo response to testosterone treatment, and heterogeneous effects of low testosterone levels on mood, possibly related to androgen receptor status.^{4,11}

In a recent study,¹² we found that men who had repeatedly low testosterone levels over several years had significantly increased incident depressive illness compared with men who had repeatedly normal testosterone levels. We wondered, on the basis of that study, if a single testosterone measurement could predict incident depressive illness. If so, then low testosterone levels could potentially serve as a marker to identify men at increased risk for depressive illness.

In contrast to our earlier study¹² of men with repeatedly low testosterone levels, in this study, we examined men with baseline testosterone levels who had a less severe testosterone deficiency (testosterone cutoff level of 2.5 ng/mL in contrast to 2.0 ng/mL). We used this cutoff level so that we could assess men with less severely low testosterone levels and yet remain consistent with testosterone threshold levels recognized as low, even for older men.^{13,14} In the current study, we also were able to examine the influence of the covariates of age and medical morbidity on incident depressive illness because of a much larger sample size of men with low testosterone levels. We examined the effect of age and medical morbidity, because these covariates are independently associated with decreased testosterone levels and depressive illness.^{1,2,15,16} We hypothesized that low testosterone levels would predict depressive illness and that the greatest risk for depressive illness would be in older men with high medical morbidity.

METHOD

We utilized data from computerized clinical records of men aged 50 years and older from the Veterans Affairs (VA) Puget Sound Health Care System (Seattle, Wash.). The computerized medical records contained demographic information, laboratory and pharmacy data, and inpatient and outpatient *International Classification of Diseases* (ICD-9) diagnostic codes.¹⁷ For men meeting the inclusion criteria, we abstracted testosterone levels from the baseline period (1995–1997) and then the occurrence and date of documented depressive illness during the follow-up period (1998–1999).

Sample Selection

We identified male patients meeting the following inclusion criteria: (1) age ≥ 50 years as of 1998, (2) seen at the medical center at least twice a year during the baseline period, and (3) at least 1 available testosterone level obtained during the baseline period (1995–1997). We excluded men who had a diagnosis of depressive illness prior to or during the baseline period. The following ICD-9 codes were used for depressive illness diagnoses: 296.2–296.9 (major depressive disorder and bipolar disorder), 300.4 (dysthymic disorder), or 311.0 (depressive disorder not otherwise specified). These ICD-9 codes were recorded by clinicians following routine evaluation in any outpatient or inpatient setting. Thus, the depressive illness diagnoses were not necessarily made by mental health practitioners. Besides excluding men with prior depressive disorders, we excluded men ($N = 25$) with high testosterone levels more than 2 standard deviations above the mean (≥ 8.7 ng/mL) due to reports that high testosterone levels may be associated with mood dysregulation.¹⁸ We also excluded men with chronic low testosterone levels who were in our prior study¹² and men treated with antiandrogens. This study of existing data was approved by the University of Washington Human Subjects Division as exempt from written informed consent by patients.

Testosterone Measures

Because we required only 1 testosterone level for entry into the study, we did not characterize the subjects as hypogonadal since that diagnosis is established by repeatedly low testosterone levels and a clinical evaluation.² Some men, however, had more than 1 testosterone level obtained ($N = 135$, 18.0%), and in these cases, the mean testosterone level was used. Our original study¹² of low testosterone levels and depressive illness used a very low threshold level of total testosterone of 2.0 ng/mL, which is a lower threshold level than that used in most studies. In this study, we used a higher testosterone threshold level of 2.5 ng/mL. This level was selected because our earlier study found that increased depressive illness occurred at testosterone levels up to 2.8 ng/mL. We did not select 2.8 ng/mL as the cutoff level, however, because it has not been identified as a potential testosterone threshold level in older men. However, a total testosterone threshold level of 2.5 ng/mL has been identified as a testosterone level that is “frankly low, even for older men,”^{13(p41)} and is associated with symptoms of clinical hypogonadism in older men.¹⁴ Thus, we used a threshold level of total testosterone of ≤ 2.5 ng/mL to designate low testosterone. For conciseness, we called the remaining testosterone levels (> 2.5 ng/mL) “normal” testosterone, even though levels between 2.5 and 3.5 ng/mL are frequently considered borderline low testosterone levels.^{13,14}

Of note, we used total testosterone levels and did not include free testosterone levels in our study. Although as-

says for free testosterone levels done with equilibrium dialysis, or bioavailable testosterone done with ammonium sulfate precipitation, are the most accurate ways to assess testosterone status, these assays are very expensive and are usually only available at commercial reference labs. Most clinical laboratories, including our own laboratory, use analog immunoassay kits or automated platform assays to measure free testosterone. These assays are influenced by changes in sex-hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) and may underdiagnose or overdiagnose low testosterone levels in older men, who often demonstrate alterations in SHBG.¹⁹ Since the analog-free testosterone immunoassay did not offer advantages over the total testosterone measurement and created variability in the study measures, we did not use free testosterone levels.

Indication for Testosterone Levels

The computerized database did not contain information on the indications for obtaining testosterone levels. However, in a prior study,¹² we manually reviewed the charts of nearly 300 patients who had testosterone levels drawn during the same time period. From that chart review, we found that testosterone assays were obtained for the following indications: sexual dysfunction (31.6%), osteoporosis (21.6%), current testosterone treatment or follow-up of a prior low testosterone level (15.4%), geriatric rehabilitation (10.4%), genitourinary conditions (9.0%), cancer (3.2%), endocrine conditions (3.0%), and other or unknown reasons (5.6%). Most clinicians ordering testosterone levels were primary care practitioners (60.2%), urologists (10.3%), endocrinologists (8.6%), and geriatricians (7.3%). Mental health practitioners ordered only 0.3% of testosterone level tests. Since the current study involved a much larger sample, we were unable to manually review all of the charts. However, it is highly likely that the findings from the prior chart review are somewhat representative of the current sample, given the large sample size of the original chart review and that the levels were ordered from the same medical facility during a similar time period.

Outcomes

We ascertained the occurrence and initial date of clinically diagnosed depressive illness during a 2-year follow-up period from January 1, 1998, through December 31, 1999, using the ICD-9 diagnostic codes for depressive illness (296.2–296.9, 300.4, 311.0). Information was not available on testosterone levels in the follow-up period, since most of the men did not have repeated blood draws for testosterone levels. We did not include testosterone treatment in the follow-up period as a variable in our analysis, because we discovered from the manual chart review that the computerized records for testosterone treatment were inaccurate during that time period because intramuscular testosterone injections were frequently re-

corded in a paper chart rather than in the computerized medical record.

Covariates

Our major covariates of interest were medical morbidity and age, since these are both known to be associated with low testosterone levels. We used the Chronic Disease Score (CDS)²⁰ as an estimate of overall medical morbidity. The CDS is obtained algorithmically from the VA computerized patient record system and gives a score of 0 to 29 that represents a count of 29 chronic medical conditions. It has been validated as an index of general medical morbidity among VA patients.²¹ The CDS was based on medical conditions that were present prior to or during the baseline period.

Statistics

All statistical analyses were done with SPSS software, version 11 (Chicago, Ill.). Differences between groups were examined with independent sample *t* tests for continuous measures and χ^2 tests for categorical measures. Survival curves and median time to diagnosed depression were compared using the log-rank χ^2 test.²² Cox proportional hazards regression models²³ were used to adjust for the influence of categorical covariates of age and medical morbidity and to examine potential interactions between the covariates. After finding a significant interaction between age and medical morbidity, we used a stratified Cox regression analysis to examine the risk for incident depressive illness within subgroups defined by age and medical morbidity. Finally, since there is no clear threshold level for low testosterone in older men,^{2,13,14} we performed an analysis to assess whether our results would vary using different testosterone threshold levels to define low and normal testosterone levels.

RESULTS

From the computerized clinical data, we identified 748 men who met study inclusion criteria. The mean \pm SD age of the entire sample was 67.1 ± 9.1 years and the mean CDS score was 3.6 ± 2.4 . There were 151 men (20.2%) with low testosterone levels and 597 men (79.8%) with normal testosterone levels. There were no significant differences between men with low and normal testosterone levels in the mean \pm SD number of baseline testosterone levels (1.3 ± 0.7 vs. 1.3 ± 0.6 ; $t = .39$, $df = 746$, $p = .70$) or in the proportion with multiple testosterone levels (19.2% vs. 17.8%; $\chi^2 = 1.7$, $df = 1$, $p = .68$). The men with low total testosterone levels had a mean \pm SD testosterone level of 1.8 ± 0.7 ng/mL compared with 4.4 ± 1.3 ng/mL in men with normal levels ($t = 23.0$, $df = 746$, $p < .001$). The men with low testosterone levels were older (69.1 ± 9.4 vs. 66.5 ± 8.9 years; $t = 3.1$, $df = 746$, $p = .002$) and had higher medical mor-

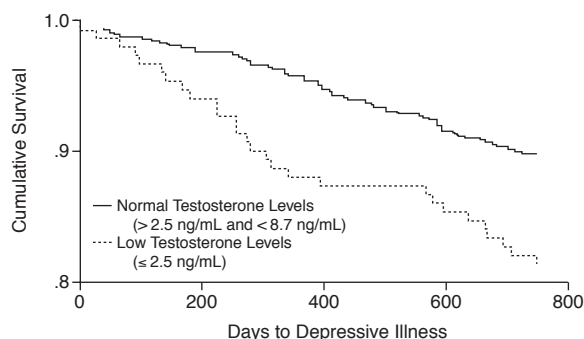
Table 1. Comparison of Men With Low Versus Normal Testosterone Levels^a

Variable	Low Testosterone Level ^b (N = 151)	Normal Testosterone Level ^c (N = 597)	Test Statistic
Age, mean (SD), y	69.1 (9.4)	66.5 (8.9)	t = 3.1; p = .002
50–65	45 (29.8)	248 (41.5)	$\chi^2 = 7.0$; p = .008
> 65	106 (70.2)	349 (58.5)	
Chronic Disease Score, mean (SD)	3.9 (2.5)	3.5 (2.3)	t = 1.8; p = .07
Low score (0–3)	73 (48.3)	310 (51.9)	$\chi^2 = 0.6$; p = .43
High score (≥ 4)	78 (51.7)	287 (48.1)	
Ethnicity, N (%)			
White	127 (84.1)	480 (80.4)	$\chi^2 = 3.4$; p = .18
Black	18 (11.9)	67 (11.2)	
Other	6 (4.0)	50 (8.4)	
Total testosterone level, mean (SD), ng/mL	1.8 (0.7)	4.4 (1.3)	t = 23.0; p < .001
> 1 testosterone value, N (%)	30 (19.2)	106 (17.8)	$\chi^2 = 1.7$; p = .68

^aSignificant differences were noted in testosterone levels and age. There were no significant differences in ethnicity or Chronic Disease Score.

^bLow total testosterone level: ≤ 2.5 ng/mL.

^cNormal total testosterone level: > 2.5 ng/mL and < 8.7 ng/mL.

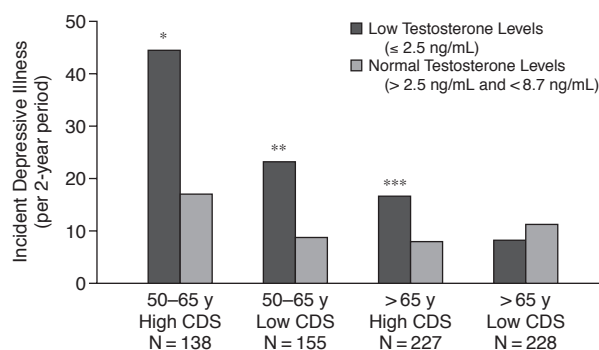
Figure 1. Survival Time to Depressive Illness in Men With Low Versus Normal Testosterone Levels^a

^aMen with low testosterone levels had a significantly shorter time to onset of depressive illness than men with normal testosterone levels (log-rank $\chi^2 = 8.1$, df = 1, p = .004).

bidity (CDS), although this did not reach statistical significance (3.9 ± 2.5 vs. 3.5 ± 2.3 ; t = 1.8, df = 746, p = .07). There were no significant differences in ethnicity (Table 1).

Over the 2-year follow-up period, men with low testosterone levels had significantly more depressive illness than men with normal testosterone levels (18.5% vs. 10.4%; $\chi^2 = 7.6$, df = 1, p = .006) and had a significantly shorter time to onset of depressive illness (log-rank $\chi^2 = 8.1$, df = 1, p = .004) (Figure 1). The unadjusted hazard ratio (HR) for depressive illness in men with low testosterone levels was 1.9 (95% confidence interval [CI] = 1.2 to 3.0; $\chi^2 = 7.1$, df = 1, p = .005). After adjusting for categorical covariates of age and medical morbidity in Cox proportional hazards regression models, low testosterone levels continued to be associated with a shorter time to onset of depressive illness (adjusted HR = 2.1, 95% CI = 1.3 to 3.2; $\chi^2 = 11.3$, df = 1, p = .002).

The Cox regression analysis was repeated to examine for significant interactions between the covariates. We

Figure 2. Incident Depressive Illness in Men With Low Versus Normal Testosterone Levels by Age and Chronic Disease Score (CDS)^{a,b}

^aMen aged 50–65 years with low testosterone levels had significantly more depressive illness at both high and low CDS than men of the same age and medical morbidity, but with normal testosterone levels. Men with low testosterone levels who were older than age 65 years with high medical morbidity had an increase in incident depression compared with men of the same age and medical morbidity, but with normal testosterone levels, although this did not reach statistical significance.

^bLow CDS: 0–3; high CDS: ≥ 4 .

*p < .01.

**p \leq .05.

***p = .06.

found that there was a significant interaction between age and medical morbidity ($\chi^2 = 3.7$, df = 1, p = .054). Due to the interaction between age and medical morbidity, we conducted stratified Cox regression analyses of subgroups on the basis of age and medical morbidity, with the referent group being men in the same subgroup but with normal testosterone levels. Figure 2 and Table 2 show the results of the stratified analyses. Among men aged 50 to 65 years, those with low testosterone levels had a significantly increased risk for incident depressive illness compared with those with normal testosterone levels (HR = 3.2, 95% CI = 1.7 to 5.9; $\chi^2 = 14.9$, df = 1,

Table 2. Cox Regression Stratified Subgroup Analyses of Risk of Incident Depressive Illness in Men With Low Testosterone Levels Versus Men With Normal Testosterone Levels^a

Low Testosterone Levels	N	Hazards Ratio (95% CI) (vs normal testosterone levels)		Test Statistic
Total	151	1.9 (1.2 to 3.0)		$\chi^2 = 7.1$; $p = .005$
Age 50–65 y	45	3.2 (1.7 to 5.9)		$\chi^2 = 14.9$; $p < .001$
Age > 65 y	106	1.4 (0.7 to 2.6)		$\chi^2 = 0.9$; $p = .34$
Chronic Disease Score				
Total				
Low score	73	1.3 (0.6 to 2.7)		$\chi^2 = 0.4$; $p = .51$
High score	78	2.4 (1.4 to 4.3)		$\chi^2 = 9.9$; $p = .002$
Age 50–65 y				
Low score	22	2.8 (0.99 to 8.2)		$\chi^2 = 4.1$; $p = .053$
High score	23	3.5 (1.6 to 7.4)		$\chi^2 = 11.3$; $p = .002$
Age > 65 y				
Low score	51	0.7 (0.3 to 2.1)		$\chi^2 = 0.4$; $p = .55$
High score	55	2.3 (0.97 to 5.3)		$\chi^2 = 3.8$; $p = .059$

^aThe table shows subgroup analyses with calculated hazard ratios for each subgroup of men with low testosterone levels, with men with normal testosterone levels as the referent group. There is significantly increased risk of depressive illness in men aged 50–65 years (hazard ratio = 3.2, $p < .001$) and in men with high Chronic Disease Scores (hazard ratio = 2.4, $p = .002$). The greatest risk for incident depressive illness occurred in men aged 50–65 years with a high Chronic Disease Score (hazard ratio = 3.5, $p = .002$).

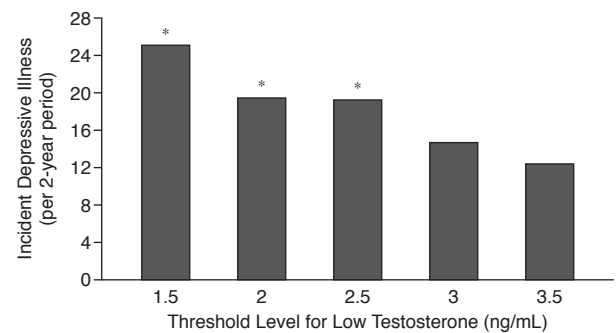
$p < .001$). Among men with high medical morbidity, those with low testosterone levels had an increased risk for depressive illness compared with those with normal testosterone levels (HR = 2.4, 95% CI = 1.4 to 4.3; $\chi^2 = 9.9$, $df = 1$, $p = .002$). Men with low testosterone levels who had both high medical morbidity and were aged 50 to 65 years had the greatest risk for depressive illness (HR = 3.5, 95% CI = 1.6 to 7.4; $\chi^2 = 11.3$, $df = 1$, $p = .002$) and had incident depressive illness at a rate of 43.5% over the 2-year follow-up period. Men older than age 65 years with high medical morbidity also had an increased risk for depressive illness (HR = 2.3, 95% CI = 0.97 to 5.3; $\chi^2 = 3.8$, $df = 1$, $p = .059$), although this did not reach statistical significance.

Finally, we performed an analysis to assess whether our results would vary using different testosterone threshold levels to define low and normal testosterone levels. Figure 3 shows that lower testosterone threshold levels were associated with greater incident depression. When the threshold level for low testosterone was 1.5 ng/mL, the 2-year incidence of depression was 24.6%. By contrast, at a total testosterone threshold level of 3.5 ng/mL, incident depressive illness was 12.5%, which was comparable with the overall rate of depressive illness of 12.0% in the entire sample.

DISCUSSION

In a cohort analysis of 748 older men, we found that low total testosterone levels (≤ 2.5 ng/mL) predicted significantly greater incident depressive illness. Our primary covariates of interest were medical morbidity and age due

Figure 3. Depression Incidence in Men With Low Testosterone Levels Using Different Threshold Levels for Low Total Testosterone



* $p < .05$; significant difference in incident depression between men with low vs. normal testosterone levels.

to the known decrease in testosterone levels that occurs with medical illnesses and aging.^{1,2} However, we found that even after controlling for age and medical morbidity, low testosterone levels continued to be associated with increased depressive illness, with risk for incident depressive illness nearly doubling in men with low testosterone levels.

From stratified analyses, we found that men with low testosterone levels who had the greatest risk for depressive illness were men with high medical morbidity who were aged 50 to 65 years. Medical morbidity has been found to be associated with increased depressive illness in several studies.^{24,25} However, we do not believe that the increase in depressive illness in the men with high medical morbidity was due primarily to medical morbidity because the comparison group had similarly high medical morbidity, but normal testosterone levels.

We had not anticipated that the younger men in the cohort, aged 50 to 65 years, with low testosterone levels would have significantly higher incident depressive illness than older men (> 65 years) with low testosterone levels. The increase in depressive illness in men with low testosterone levels, aged 50 to 65 years, may be because low testosterone levels are less common in this age group. Population-based studies¹ indicate that less than 20% of men younger than age 65 years have total testosterone levels below 2.5 ng/mL and that the mean total testosterone level for men aged 50 to 65 years is approximately 5.0 ng/mL.^{1,15} Thus, low total testosterone levels at this age represent an early onset of gonadal decline, which may result in greater depressive illness than in older men. For active men in their 50s to early 60s, an early onset of symptoms of testosterone deficiency, such as fatigue, poor concentration, and decreased libido, may be more distressing to them than to older men who may have a more limited lifestyle.

Given the complex relationship between gonadal status and mood,²⁶ there probably are several biological mechanisms involved in the association between low testosterone levels and depressive illness. Some of these potential mechanisms include changes in central neurotransmitters.²⁷ For example, in animal models, testosterone increases cortical 5-HT_{2A} receptor-binding densities,^{28,29} and in humans, cortical 5-HT_{2A} receptors decrease with depression³⁰ and aging.³¹ Thus, low testosterone levels may cause depression via alterations in central serotonin function and decreases in 5-HT_{2A} receptor density. If so, older men may be at greater risk for this type of depressive illness, since 5-HT_{2A} receptors may already be decreased from aging.³¹ Low testosterone levels also may create a biological vulnerability for depressive illness, analogous to other hormone changes associated with affective disorders, such as postpartum and premenstrual conditions or hyperthyroidism or hypothyroidism.^{32–34}

Of note, we found higher rates of incident depressive illness than rates reported for major depression in community elders (1.4%–1.9%/year).^{35,36} Factors that may explain this include the following: (1) The study included subjects receiving outpatient medical care for chronic medical illnesses. Studies have found that depressive illness increases as medical morbidity and intensity of medical care increases.^{24,25} All subjects in our study were followed in VA outpatient clinical settings and had moderately high medical morbidity with a mean of more than 3 chronic medical conditions. In prior studies, elderly patients followed in outpatient clinics or by home health services had incident depressive illness of 5.2% to 11.9%/year^{37,38} and prevalent depressive illness ranging from 13.5% to 25.0%. Thus, the rates of incident depressive illness we found in men with normal testosterone levels (5.2%/year) and low testosterone levels (9.3%/year) are consistent with findings of other studies of depressive illness in the elderly in outpatient medical settings. (2) The incidence rate included diagnoses for any depressive illness. Although major depression in community elderly has been estimated to be less than 5%,^{35,36} the prevalence of subsyndromal depressive illness is common in the elderly and is associated with morbidity and mortality.^{37,38} Studies that have estimated the incidence of clinically significant depressive illness in community dwelling elders have found rates from 5.2% to 11.7%/year.^{39,40} Thus, the incident rate of depressive illness in our study is likely to be higher in part because the study included diagnoses for any depressive illness rather than diagnoses solely for major depression.

The results from this study could be limited by several factors such as selection bias, detection bias, survival bias, differing phlebotomy times, or other unmeasured or confounding factors. We discuss each of these factors briefly, noting some reasons why these potential biases probably do not fully explain our results.

Selection Bias

The VA patient population has greater medical morbidity and socioeconomic stressors than a community-based sample,⁴¹ so it is unclear if these results would generalize to other populations of middle-aged and older men. In addition, if testosterone levels were ordered preferentially in men who reported depressive symptoms or who appeared depressed, one would expect increased depressive illness in this sample. However, based on a prior chart review, testosterone levels were rarely ordered by mental health practitioners or for evaluation of a mood disorder. Nevertheless, it is possible that men with prodromal depressive illness had testosterone levels drawn for symptoms such as fatigue or low libido or even that symptoms of low testosterone are indistinguishable from mild, chronic depressive illness such as dysthymia. A potential association between low testosterone levels and dysthymia is supported by a study that found an increase in low testosterone levels in men with dysthymia, but not in men with major depression.⁴²

Detection Bias

Since depression is frequently underdiagnosed in primary care settings, it is likely that depression was not detected in some cases. However, at the time period covered by this study, depression screening was mandated in VA primary care, which would tend to minimize the problem of underdetection of depressive illness.

Survival Bias

Our findings could also be influenced by survival bias due to early mortality in men with low testosterone levels. This possibility is supported by studies that noted increased mortality in men with low testosterone levels^{43–45} and by studies that have linked depressive illness to increased mortality.⁴⁶ However, to conduct a prospective study free of survival bias would require great time and expense.

Variable Phlebotomy Times

The phlebotomy times for the testosterone samples were not standardized. In younger men, testosterone has a diurnal variation with peak testosterone levels occurring in the morning. However, in older men, the diurnal variation of testosterone is markedly diminished or absent.⁴⁷ Thus, we believe that the effect of variable phlebotomy times is minimal, since the circadian secretion of testosterone is markedly attenuated in older men.

Other Known or Suspected Confounders

We did not have information regarding testosterone levels or treatment during the follow-up period. However, these effects would seem to bias the results conservatively. For example, if a man with low testosterone levels in the baseline period was subsequently treated with tes-

tosterone in the follow-up period, his testosterone levels would increase, and this would tend to minimize the differences between groups and bias the results toward the null hypothesis.

These results should be viewed as preliminary given these potential limitations and our reliance on medical records. However, despite these limitations, our study suggests that low testosterone levels are associated with increased depressive illness, particularly in men who are aged 50 to 65 years and have high medical morbidity. If these results are confirmed in other studies, low testosterone levels could be a marker for preventive treatment or increased surveillance for depressive illness. If so, such a marker could help to enhance the care of older men, particularly since they suffer from poor detection of depressive illness,⁴⁸ yet have the highest suicide rate⁴⁹ in the United States.

Further prospective studies are needed to clarify these findings and the role of testosterone replacement in depressive illness in older men. In men with current depressive illness, the therapeutic potential of testosterone is unclear. A recent study of testosterone replacement for major depression in older, hypogonadal men found that testosterone was no more effective than placebo.¹⁰ However, several factors may have limited the ability of that study to find a significant difference between testosterone treatment and placebo. These factors include a high placebo response rate (41%), small sample size, and a lower testosterone dose than that used in prior positive studies.^{8,9,50} In addition, the study included men with mild testosterone deficiency (threshold level for low total testosterone of ≤ 3.5 ng/mL) who may be less responsive to testosterone replacement. This hypothesis is supported by a study⁵¹ of hypogonadal men with osteoporosis, which found that increased treatment response occurred in men with lower baseline testosterone levels. In contrast to this negative study, a different study⁹ found that testosterone replacement was significantly more effective than placebo in treating major depression in hypogonadal, human immunodeficiency-virus-positive men with major depression, and 2 small studies found that testosterone augmentation significantly decreased depressive symptoms^{8,50} in hypogonadal men with refractory depression. Thus, testosterone replacement in depressive illness may be beneficial in men with refractory depressive illness or potentially beneficial in men with more severe testosterone deficiency. Further prospective trials are needed to examine which subgroups of men with depressive illness are most likely to benefit from testosterone replacement. In addition, although prior testosterone studies have not found an increased risk of prostate cancer, this remains a concern, because these studies have been too small to adequately evaluate that risk.⁵² Thus, despite our findings that low testosterone levels are associated with increased depressive illness and some prior

studies that found testosterone was beneficial for hypogonadal men with depressive illness, large prospective trials are needed to clarify the overall risks and benefits of testosterone before it can be routinely used in the treatment of older, hypogonadal men with depressive illness.

Drug names: estrogen (Cenestin, Premarin, and others), testosterone (Androderm, Testim, and others).

REFERENCES

1. Harman SM, Metter EJ, Tobin JD, et al. Longitudinal effects of aging on serum total and free testosterone levels in healthy men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2001;86:724–731
2. Matsumoto AM. Andropause: clinical implications of the decline in serum testosterone levels with aging in men. *J Gerontol Med Sci* 2002; 57A:M76–M99
3. Heaton JPW, Morales A. Andropause: a multisystem disease. *Can J Urol* 2001;8:1213–1222
4. Seidman SN, Walsh BT. Testosterone and depressive illness in aging men. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry* 1999;7:18–33
5. Sternbach H. Age-associated testosterone decline in men: clinical issues for psychiatry. *Am J Psychiatry* 1998;155:1310–1318
6. Wang C, Cunningham G, Dobs A, et al. Long-term testosterone gel (AndroGel) treatment maintains beneficial effects on sexual function and mood, lean and fat mass, and bone mineral density in hypogonadal men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2004;89:2085–2098
7. Wang C, Alexander G, Berman N, et al. Testosterone replacement therapy improves mood in hypogonadal men: a clinical research center study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1996;81:3578–3583
8. Pope HG Jr, Cohane GH, Kanayama G, et al. Testosterone gel supplementation for men with refractory depression: a randomized, placebo-controlled trial. *Am J Psychiatry* 2003;160:105–111
9. Rabkin JG, Wagner G, Rabkin R. A double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of testosterone therapy for HIV-positive men with hypogonadal symptoms. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2000;57:141–147
10. Seidman SN, Spatz E, Rizzo C, et al. Testosterone replacement therapy for hypogonadal men with major depressive disorder: a randomized, placebo-controlled clinical trial. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2001;62:406–412
11. Seidman SN, Araujo AB, Roose S, et al. Testosterone level, androgen receptor polymorphism and depressive symptoms in middle-aged men. *Biol Psychiatry* 2001;50:371–376
12. Shores MM, Sloan KL, Matsumoto AM, et al. Increased incidence of diagnosed depressive illness in hypogonadal older men. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2004;61:162–167
13. Institute of Medicine. Testosterone and health outcomes. In: Liverman CT, Blazer DG, eds. *Testosterone and Aging: Clinical Research Directions*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press; 2003:41
14. National Institute on Aging Advisory Panel. Report of National Institute on Aging Advisory Panel on testosterone replacement in men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2001;86:4611–4614
15. Gray A, Berlin JA, McKinlay JB, et al. An examination of research design effects on the association of testosterone and male aging: results of a meta-analysis. *J Clin Epidemiol* 1991;44:671–684
16. Wells KB, Burnam A, Rogers W, et al. The course of depressive illness in adult outpatients: results from the Medical Outcomes Study. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1992;49:788–794
17. US Dept of Health and Human Services. The International Classification of Disease. Clinical Modification: ICD-9-CM. 9th ed. Washington, DC: Public Health Service, Health Care Financing Administration; 1991
18. Booth A, Johnson DR, Granger DA. Testosterone and men's depression: the role of social behavior. *J Health Soc Behav* 1999;40:130–140
19. Winters SJ, Kelley DE, Goodpaster B. The analog free testosterone assay: are the results in men clinically useful? *Clin Chem* 1998;44: 2178–2182
20. Clark DO, von Korff M, Saunders K, et al. A chronic disease score with empirically derived weights. *Med Care* 1995;33:783–795
21. Sloan KL, Sales AE, Liu CF, et al. Construction and characteristics of the Rx Risk-V: a VA-adapted pharmacy-based case-mix instrument. *Med Care* 2003;41:761–774

22. Kaplan EL, Meier P. Nonparametric estimation from incomplete observations. *J Am Stat Assoc* 1958;53:457–481
23. Cox DR, Oakes D. *Analysis of Survival Data*. London, England: Chapman & Hall; 1984
24. Wells KB, Golding JM, Burnam MA. Psychiatric disorder in a sample of the general population with and without chronic medical conditions. *Am J Psychiatry* 1988;145:976–981
25. Sutor B, Rummans T, Jowsey SG, et al. Major depression in medically ill patients. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1998;73:329–337
26. Yates WR. Testosterone in psychiatry risks and benefits. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2000;57:155–156
27. Almeida OV. Sex playing with the mind: effects of estrogen and testosterone on mood and cognition. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr* 1999;57:701–706
28. Sumner B, Fink G. Testosterone as well as estrogen increases serotonin_{2A} receptor mRNA and binding site densities in the male rat brain. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* 1998;59:205–214
29. Fink G, Sumner B, Rosie R, et al. Androgen actions on central serotonin neurotransmission: relevance for mood, mental state and memory. *Behav Brain Res* 1999;105:53–68
30. Biver F, Wikler D, Lotstra F, et al. Serotonin 5-HT_{2A} receptor imaging in major depression: focal changes in orbito-insular cortex. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997;171:444–448
31. Rosier A, Dupont P, Peuskens J, et al. Visualisation of loss of 5-HT_{2A} receptors with age in healthy volunteers using [¹⁸F]altanserin and positron emission tomographic imaging. *Psychiatry Res* 1996;68:11–22
32. Pearlstein TB. Hormones and depression: what are the facts about premenstrual syndrome, menopause, and hormone replacement therapy? *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1995;173:646–653
33. Eberhard-Gran M, Eskild A, Tambs K, et al. Depression in postpartum and non-postpartum women: prevalence and risk factors. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2002;106:426–433
34. Jackson IM. The thyroid axis and depression. *Thyroid* 1998;8:951–956
35. Eaton WW, Anthony JA, Gallo J, et al. Natural history of Diagnostic Interview Schedule/DSM-IV major depression: the Baltimore Epidemiologic Catchment Area follow-up. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1997;54:993–999
36. Kessler RC, Berglund P, Demler O, et al. The epidemiology of major depressive disorder: results from the National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R). *JAMA* 2003;289:3095–3105
37. Blazer DG. Depression in late life: review and commentary. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2003;58:249–265
38. Hybels CF, Blazer DG, Pieper CF. Toward a threshold for subthreshold depression: an analysis of correlates of depression by severity of symptoms using data from an elderly community sample. *Gerontologist* 2001;41:357–365
39. Callahan CM, Hui SL, Neinaber NA, et al. Longitudinal study of depression and health services use among elderly primary care patients. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 1994;42:833–838
40. Unutzer J, Patrick DL, Simon G, et al. Depressive symptoms and the cost of health services in HMO patients aged 65 years and older: a 4-year prospective study. *JAMA* 1997;277:1618–1623
41. Kazis LE, Miller DR, Clark J, et al. Health-related quality of life in patients served by the Department of Veterans Affairs: results from the Veterans Health Study. *Arch Intern Med* 1998;158:626–632
42. Seidman SN, Araujo AB, Roose SP, et al. Low testosterone levels in elderly men with dysthymic disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* 2002;159:456–459
43. Dong Q, Hawker F, McWilliam D, et al. Circulating immunoreactive inhibin and testosterone levels in men with critical illness. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 1992;36:399–404
44. Tomlinson JW, Holden N, Hills RK, et al. Association between premature mortality and hypopituitarism. *Lancet* 2001;357:425–431
45. Shores MM, Moceri VM, Gruenewald DA, et al. Low testosterone is associated with decreased function and increased mortality risk: a preliminary study of men in a geriatric rehabilitation unit. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2004;52:2077–2081
46. Rovner BW, German PS, Brant LJ. Depression and mortality in nursing homes. *JAMA* 1991;265:993–996
47. Bremner WJ, Vitiello MV, Prinz PN. Loss of circadian rhythmicity in blood testosterone levels with aging in normal men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1983;56:1278–1281
48. Garrard J, Rolnick SJ, Nitz NM, et al. Clinical detection of depression among community-based elderly people with self-reported symptoms of depression. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 1998;53:M92–101
49. Meehan PJ, Saltzman LE, Sattin RW. Suicide among older United States residents: epidemiologic characteristics and trends. *Am J Public Health* 1991;81:1198–1200
50. Seidman SN, Rabkin JG. Testosterone replacement therapy for hypogonadal men with SSRI-refractory depression. *J Affect Disord* 1998;48:157–161
51. Snyder PJ, Peachey H, Hannoush P, et al. Effect of testosterone treatment on bone mineral density in men over 65 years of age. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1999;84:1966–1972
52. Rhoden EL, Morgentaler A. Risks of testosterone-replacement therapy and recommendations for monitoring. *N Engl J Med* 2004;350:482–492