



Endocrine aspects of Klinefelter syndrome

Adriana Herrera Lizarazo, Michelle McLoughlin, and Maria G. Vogiatzi

Purpose of review

Klinefelter syndrome is the most common sex chromosome abnormality in men. Hypogonadism and testicular degeneration are almost universal. Truncal adiposity, metabolic syndrome and low bone mass occur frequently. This review summarizes the most recent advances in the pathogenesis and management of the endocrine abnormalities in Klinefelter syndrome. It is expected that optimal endocrine management will improve outcomes and quality of life in Klinefelter syndrome.

Recent findings

In Klinefelter syndrome, testosterone replacement is routinely prescribed despite lack of evidence on the optimal dose and time for initiation of therapy. Cross-sectional studies have linked hypogonadism to the development of metabolic abnormalities and low bone mass. Testosterone therapy, however, is not consistently associated with improved metabolic and bone outcomes. Increased truncal adiposity and high rates of metabolic syndrome are present in prepubertal children. A randomized trial of oxandrolone in prepubertal boys showed improvement in visual-motor function, socialization and cardiometabolic health. Testicular sperm extraction (TESE) has success rates similar to other causes of nonobstructive azoospermia when performed between 16 and 35 years of age.

Summary

Endocrine care in Klinefelter syndrome should start in childhood and include evaluation of metabolic risk factors and bone health. Further research to guide evidence-based endocrine care is very much needed.

Keywords

hypogonadism, Klinefelter syndrome, metabolic syndrome, osteoporosis, testicular degeneration, testicular sperm extraction

INTRODUCTION

Klinefelter syndrome is characterized by the presence of an extra X chromosome in male individuals leading to a 47XXY karyotype and rarely to 46XY/47XXY mosaicism [1,2[¶]]. It is the most common sex chromosomal aneuploidy with an estimated prevalence of approximately 1:650 male births. Individuals with Klinefelter syndrome have frequent developmental deficits, behavioural problems and social difficulties [1,2[¶]]. From an endocrine perspective, primary testicular insufficiency is the hallmark of the syndrome. In addition, abnormalities in body composition and high rates of metabolic syndrome, diabetes and low bone mass have been described. In this review, we summarize the most recent advances in our understanding and management of endocrine abnormalities in Klinefelter syndrome including an update on fertility preservation.

TESTICULAR DYSFUNCTION AND HYPOGONADISM

Testicular dysfunction in Klinefelter syndrome involves both Leydig and Sertoli cells. Hypogonadism

typically presents during adolescence. Onset of puberty is age appropriate. Testes enlarge to approximately 6–8 ml and then become firm and decrease in size. Serum testosterone concentrations rise, followed by an increase in both luteinizing hormone and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) concentrations and then plateau [1,2[¶]]. Testosterone levels are usually sufficient for appropriate virilization. In a cohort of 281 adolescent and young men with Klinefelter syndrome, 62% maintained serum testosterone concentrations above 280 ng/ml despite markedly elevated serum gonadotropins, indicating a state of relative androgen insufficiency [3]. Approximately 50% of adolescent boys and 30% of adults develop persistent gynecomastia [2[¶]]. Hypogonadism tends to worsen with age, and

Endocrinology and Diabetes, Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA

Correspondence to Maria G. Vogiatzi, MD, Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Endocrinology and Diabetes, 3401 Civic Center Blvd, Philadelphia, PA 19035, USA. Tel: +1 215 514 3174; e-mail: vogiatzim@email.chop.edu

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KEY POINTS

- Increased truncal adiposity and high rates of metabolic syndrome are found in both children and adults with Klinefelter syndrome.
- The effects of hypogonadism and testosterone replacement on the metabolic syndrome and bone mass in Klinefelter syndrome are not fully elucidated because of lack of clinical trials.
- Oxandrolone, a weak androgen, improves visual-motor function, socialization and cardiometabolic health in prepubertal boys with Klinefelter syndrome, according to a recent randomized trial.
- Germ cell loss starts in foetal life and progresses during childhood, while significant testicular fibrosis is already present during peri-pubertal years. Fibrosis worsens in adulthood, but foci of normal spermatogenesis usually remain to allow for fertility preservation.
- Testicular sperm extraction (TESE), when performed at the age between 16 and 35 years, offers fertility options to Klinefelter syndrome men with success rates similar to other causes of nonobstructive azoospermia.

mechanisms remain unclear. By utilizing testicular biopsies and transcriptome analysis from foetuses and individuals with Klinefelter syndrome at different ages, recent studies support that germ cell loss is initiated in foetal life [11^{••},12[•],13,14[•]]. Foetuses with Klinefelter syndrome had normal testicular architecture and number of germ cells [11^{••}], but gonocyte maturation into prespermatogonia was impaired, a process that may be linked to an aberrant testicular expression of long noncoding RNAs [12[•]]. Prepubertal boys with Klinefelter syndrome demonstrated reduced number of spermatogonia, while the testicular architecture was still preserved and fibrosis was absent. Further reduction in germ cells was seen in peri-pubertal boys, and at this age, a variable degree of testicular fibrosis was already present [11^{••}]. In adults, typical histological findings include absence of germ cells, hyalinization of the seminiferous tubules and Leydig cell hyperplasia, while transcriptome analysis revealed disturbed differentiation of Sertoli and Leydig cells [14[•]]. Despite extensive fibrosis, foci of normal spermatogenesis usually remain, which allows for fertility preservation by applying sperm retrieval techniques.

although normal testosterone levels can occasionally be seen in adults, circulating testosterone concentrations fall below normal in most individuals [1].

Sexual function is considered normal [2[•]]. More recently, however, increased rates of erectile dysfunction were found compared with healthy men [4^{••},5[•]]. Androgen deficiency and treatment are not consistently associated with erectile dysfunction in Klinefelter syndrome [2[•]]. Men with Klinefelter syndrome may experience decreased libido, and psychological factors, such as depression, have been linked to sexual dysfunction [5[•],6]. Few recent reports of gender dysphoria and increased homosexual or bisexual behaviour have emerged, but these findings need further confirmation [4^{••},7[•],8].

Whether endocrine insufficiency is present before adolescence remains a topic of debate. Both low and normal serum testosterone concentrations have been described during the mini-puberty of infancy [2[•],9]. Congenital urogenital abnormalities, such as micropenis or hypospadias, can be the result of androgen insufficiency during foetal life. Indeed, certain investigators have observed increased frequency of micropallus, cryptorchism and small testis, and perhaps hypospadias, in Klinefelter syndrome [9,10]. Nonetheless, amniotic fluid testosterone concentrations are not different from that of 46 XY male foetuses [2[•]].

Sertoli cell dysfunction leading to azoospermia or oligospermia affects almost all patients with non-mosaic Klinefelter syndrome, albeit the underlying

TESTOSTERONE THERAPY

Testosterone replacement is typically initiated when there are clinical signs of hypogonadism or biochemical evidence of gonadal insufficiency [1,2[•]]. However, practices vary and certain physicians prefer to start testosterone therapy at the beginning of puberty when LH and FSH concentrations start rising with the rationale that signs and symptoms of hypogonadism can be subtle and easily missed [15]. These differences in management stem from the fact that only few studies examine the effects of testosterone replacement on various metabolic, bone and mental health outcomes in Klinefelter syndrome, while randomized testosterone trials are missing [16].

Early androgen replacement has been proposed in Klinefelter syndrome to improve motor function, behaviour and cognition. In a retrospective study, Samango-Spruce *et al.* [17] reported on a group of 34 children with Klinefelter syndrome who were treated with testosterone 25 mg monthly for 3 months for correction of micropallus at ages 4–15 months. Neurocognitive assessment was performed at 36–72 months of age and results were significant for improved performance in multiple neurocognitive domains, including language and neuromotor skills, in treated children compared with untreated controls [17]. In a follow-up study of the same cohort, when the children had reached the ages of 9–11 years, boys treated with testosterone were found to have fewer behavioural problems

and improved social skills [18]. Finally, the effect of low-dose androgens in prepubertal children was examined in a randomized trial by Ross *et al.* [19¹¹]. Eighty-four boys with Klinefelter syndrome were randomized to oxandrolone at 0.06 mg/kg daily vs. placebo. After 24 months, children treated with oxandrolone fared better than controls in visual-motor function and anxiety/depression and social assessment scales. The therapy had no effect on cognitive function, or hyperactive or aggressive behaviours [19¹¹].

FERTILITY PRESERVATION

Approximately 8% of Klinefelter syndrome men have enough spermatogenic activity that sperm can be found in the semen [1,2¹,20]. For those with azoospermia, fertility preservation is possible using urology techniques such as testicular sperm extraction (TESE) along with intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI). During TESE, the surgeon identifies and targets the foci of normal spermatogenesis that exist within the testis in Klinefelter syndrome. The retrieval rate per TESE cycle is approximately 44% [21¹¹]. Pregnancy and live birth rates are the same, in the order of 40% [21¹¹]. These results are similar to men with nonobstructive azoospermia who have a normal karyotype. Of importance, the risk of chromosomal abnormalities is not increased in the offspring of men with Klinefelter syndrome [21¹¹]. This is likely due to the fact that the extra X is lost from the normal foci of spermatogenesis that are used for sperm retrieval [22]. Preimplantation genetic diagnosis is not currently recommended.

A number of studies have looked at predictors of a successful TESE. Initial studies supported that higher circulating testosterone levels combined with lower LH values result in higher retrieval rates [23]. However, this was not confirmed in a recent meta-analysis [21¹¹]. Other hormonal values, such as FSH and inhibin B, testicular size or surgical technique (i.e. conventional TESE vs. microdissection TESE) do not appear to make a difference [21¹¹]. As testicular fibrosis and germ cell loss increase in Klinefelter syndrome during adult life, it has been proposed that TESE performed at a younger age will improve retrieval rates. Indeed, a number of studies have shown that success rates are higher in individuals younger than 35 [24]. However, performing TESE in adolescents or young men in their early twenties does not further increase retrieval rates [25,26]. A recent meta-analysis of 1248 patients with a mean age 30.9 ± 5.6 years failed to document an effect of age on sperm recovery [21¹¹]. Furthermore, TESE retrieval rates in adolescents younger than 16 years are much lower (0–20%), and therefore,

the procedure is not recommended at this age [27,28]. Banking of testicular tissue from prepubertal children with Klinefelter syndrome is considered experimental at this point and it may even reduce overall fertility rates, as the procedure may remove functional immature germ cells that may develop into spermatozoa after puberty [27,28]. On the basis of this set of data, the optimal age for TESE in Klinefelter syndrome is a time window between 16 and 35 years.

As sperm recovery rates by TESE are similar between late adolescence and adults, the timing of the procedure can be chosen according to the wishes of the individual. Many teenagers with Klinefelter syndrome are not interested in fertility [29], and the procedure may increase their psychological stress. In contrast, parents and older individuals with Klinefelter syndrome are more eager to pursue a fertility treatment [29,30], and the current data support allowing the individual to reach his own decision on the matter.

Whether previous testosterone therapy affects retrieval rates remains a topic of debate that needs to be clarified with further studies [31]. Moreover, the impact of treatments such as human chorionic gonadotropin or aromatase inhibitors that increase intratesticular testosterone secretion is not well understood in Klinefelter syndrome [31].

ANTHROPOMETRY AND BODY COMPOSITION

Individuals with Klinefelter syndrome typically have tall stature, which is thought the result of *SHOX* duplication [2¹]. They also have specific anthropometric findings, such as increased leg length, bi-iliac width and hip circumference [32]. Increased BMI has been described in both children and adults, with rates of obesity rising up to 42% among men [33,34]. Frequently described changes in body composition include an increase in fat mass with truncal adiposity and a decrease in lean mass [35¹]. Similar changes have been observed in other men with hypogonadism. However, testosterone replacement has not consistently been found to reverse the body composition changes in Klinefelter syndrome [32,36]. Furthermore, findings of increased visceral fat and unfavourable metabolic profile are seen in children with Klinefelter syndrome compared with their healthy peers [36,37], suggesting that hypogonadism alone may not be solely responsible for these outcomes. Pertinent animal data reveal that X chromosome dosage influences food intake, adiposity and metabolic parameters, further supporting that chromosomal abnormalities may play a role in the unfavourable

body composition and metabolic profile of Klinefelter syndrome [38[¶]].

METABOLIC AND CARBOHYDRATE ABNORMALITIES AND EFFECT OF TESTOSTERONE THERAPY

Klinefelter syndrome is associated with an increased risk of insulin resistance, impaired carbohydrate metabolism, dyslipidaemia, diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome [32,33,35[¶],39]. Metabolic syndrome has been reported in adults with Klinefelter syndrome at rates four to five times greater than controls [1,35[¶]]. Hypogonadism has been identified in a number of studies as an independent predictor of truncal adiposity, insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome in Klinefelter syndrome [33,35[¶]]. Although it is well known that testosterone replacement in hypogonadal men improves their metabolic and cardiovascular profile, the data in Klinefelter syndrome indicate that testosterone therapy may improve but not fully restore the cardiometabolic abnormalities of the syndrome [2[¶],32,35[¶]]. Beyond some cross-sectional studies, however, there is lack of randomized trials to fully elucidate the outcomes of testosterone therapy in Klinefelter syndrome and guide clinical practice.

An unfavourable cardiometabolic profile and high rates of truncal adiposity have also been described in children, suggesting that these changes are intrinsic to Klinefelter syndrome and unrelated to hypogonadism [35[¶]]. However, certain investigators proposed that subtle androgen deficiency exists even in prepubertal children with Klinefelter syndrome, which may also contribute to their increased metabolic risk. In a recent cross-sectional study in 93 boys with Klinefelter syndrome aged 4–12 years, markers of prepubertal gonadal dysfunction, such as inhibin B and antimüllerian hormone (AMH), were associated with an unfavourable metabolic profile [37]. To further examine this association, the same cohort was treated with oxandrolone, a weak androgen, in a randomized, placebo-controlled trial. A modest decrease not only in percentage body fat, total cholesterol, triglycerides and SBP, but also in serum high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, were found in the oxandrolone-treated group [40^{¶¶}].

Individuals with Klinefelter syndrome have an increased risk for type 2 diabetes mellitus. Diabetes occurs at rates approximately 10% and is one of the causes of increased mortality in Klinefelter syndrome [41,42]. In a recent study of 375 men aged 18–53 years and with a mean BMI of 24.7 kg/m², prediabetes was observed in 36% and diabetes in 13%, suggesting that carbohydrate abnormalities

occur at a younger age and at a lower associated BMI in Klinefelter syndrome compared with the general population [33]. In addition, type I diabetes and presence of diabetes auto-antibodies were recently documented to occur more frequently in Klinefelter syndrome [35[¶],43]. These findings are not surprising, as autoimmunity, in general, is increased in Klinefelter syndrome.

BONE HEALTH

Low bone mass at rates around 25–48% has been reported in Klinefelter syndrome [44]. However, the results vary among reports, and normal bone mass is documented by some investigators [36,44]. The exact fracture rates are unknown. Nonetheless, epidemiologic studies have linked increased morbidity and mortality to fractures in Klinefelter syndrome [41,42], which suggests that bone health is compromised in this population.

Presence of low bone mass is observed in early adolescence [45] and the disease worsens during adulthood [44]. Hypogonadism is frequently considered the underlying culprit and testosterone replacement to improve or prevent bone loss is routinely recommended in hypogonadal individuals with KS. However, the exact effect of hypogonadism and testosterone therapy on skeletal health in Klinefelter syndrome is unclear. Positive correlations between bone mass and serum testosterone levels have been reported, but not consistently [36,44,46]. Furthermore, testosterone therapy may improve but does not fully reverse the low bone mass [44,46,47[¶]], indicating that additional factors, beyond hypogonadism, may affect bone mass in Klinefelter syndrome. Others have suggested that early therapy starting in adolescence is important to normalize bone mass [44,48].

In addition to hypogonadism, decreased lean mass and increased adiposity have been associated with low bone mass in Klinefelter syndrome [36,47[¶]]. Few studies point to low circulating 25-hydroxy vitamin D concentrations in Klinefelter syndrome and vitamin D supplementation was able to improve bone mass [49]. In terms of bone turnover, decreased bone formation was described in adolescence and increased resorption in untreated hypogonadal men [50,51^{¶¶}]. Insulin-like protein 3 (INSL3), a bone-anabolic protein produced by the Leydig cells, is reduced in adolescents and adults with Klinefelter syndrome and is proposed as a factor that regulates the cross-talk between testis and bone in Klinefelter syndrome [50,51^{¶¶}]. INSL3 has been shown to act directly on the osteoblast and a recent study provides evidence that it also regulates osteocyte function, which through sclerostin

secretion, may exert a bone antianabolic effect in Klinefelter syndrome [51[■]]. Elevated serum sclerostin levels were negatively associated with BMD in Klinefelter syndrome [51[■]], raising the role of sclerostin as a therapeutic target for the treatment of osteoporosis in Klinefelter syndrome.

CONCLUSION

Although testosterone therapy is routinely prescribed in Klinefelter syndrome, there is still a lack of understanding about the optimal timing for initiation of therapy, appropriate dosing and its exact effects on body composition, metabolic syndrome and bone health. Pertinent studies are cross-sectional or retrospective and randomized controlled trials are missing. Hypogonadism has been implicated in the development of metabolic and skeletal abnormalities of the syndrome, but testosterone therapy does not consistently improve or restore metabolic and bone health. Prepubertal children manifest increased truncal adiposity and high rates of metabolic syndrome, similar to adults. Emerging evidence suggests that low-dose androgens in prepubertal and peri-pubertal boys may improve visual-motor function, socialization and cardiometabolic health. TESE offers fertility options to Klinefelter syndrome men with results similar to other causes of nonobstructive azoospermia. Data indicate that the optimal age for this procedure is between 16 and 35 years. Overall literature data support that endocrine care should be comprehensive, and not just focused on hypogonadism, and appropriate endocrine evaluation should start in childhood to avoid long-term endocrine-related comorbidities.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

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- This study describes a negative association between the Leydig-specific marker INSL3 and sclerostin, which is an osteocyte secreted negative regulator of bone formation, in 103 men suffering from Klinefelter syndrome compared with controls. The association was further confirmed with in-vitro experiments. This study strengthens previous data on the cross-talk between testis and bone in Klinefelter syndrome and highlights sclerostin as a potential therapeutic target for the treatment of osteoporosis in Klinefelter syndrome.