


Testosterone-Optimizing Strategies in Athletes

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Context: Testosterone is a steroid hormone produced primarily in the testes in men and ovaries in women, playing crucial roles in androgenic, anabolic, and psychological functions, including muscle growth, bone formation, erythropoiesis, risk-taking, and aggression, making it important for athletes. Sports performance is linked closely to testosterone level, prompting athletes to explore legal and illegal ways to boost testosterone. This review examines testosterone physiology and legal strategies for optimizing testosterone levels in athletes, as well as their practical applications.

Evidence Acquisition: Database search.

Study Design: Narrative review.

Level of Evidence: Level 5.

Results: Maintaining healthy testosterone levels requires energy balance and optimal nutrition with adequate macronutrients and micronutrients, especially for athletes prone to dieting and food restriction. Testosterone boosters are marketed widely but lack strong evidence for efficacy and may pose risks. While some substances show promise, further research is needed. Sleep is critical as testosterone secretion is linked to the rapid eye movement phase, highlighting the need for proper sleep hygiene and addressing sleep disorders. Moderate-to-high intensity free-weight resistance exercises are most effective for increasing testosterone, while the effects of sexual activity remain unclear. Endocrine-disrupting chemicals can lower testosterone levels and should be avoided. While cold-water immersion may decrease testosterone, sauna bathing appears to be neutral. Radiofrequency electromagnetic radiation from modern electronic devices may harm the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis, warranting limited use. Over-the-counter analgesics, such as nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and acetaminophen, may decrease testosterone levels, suggesting cautious use. Seasonal changes in testosterone levels require further study. Testosterone-optimizing strategies excluding banned substances may aid in treating functional low testosterone or reducing harm in anabolic-androgenic steroid users.

Conclusion: Educating athletes on safe and effective strategies to increase testosterone is crucial, with ongoing research needed to explore additional methods.

Strength-of-Recommendation Taxonomy: B.

Keywords: anabolic androgenic steroids; athletes; exercise; testosterone

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Testosterone is a steroid hormone produced in Leydig cells of the testes in men, ovaries in women, and in the adrenal and peripheral tissues in both sexes.^{41,75} Testosterone production is regulated by the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis via gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) and luteinizing hormone (LH) through a negative feedback loop. Testosterone circulates as free testosterone (FT) or binds to sex-hormone binding globulin (SHBG) and albumin. FT either activates androgen receptors (ARs), converts to dihydrotestosterone via 5-alpha reductase, or transforms to estradiol via aromatase. AR upregulation increases receptor availability, enhancing testosterone action. Testosterone also acts nongenomically by stimulating transcription and translation via intracellular signaling molecules.

Testosterone has a role in androgenic (eg, masculinization, libido), anabolic (eg, muscle growth, bone formation, erythropoiesis), and psychological (eg, risk-taking, aggression) systems.⁵³ Athletes seek to optimize testosterone levels due to its association with improved physical performance, recovery, including strength, power, and endurance.⁷⁶ Studies show testosterone supplementation increases fat-free mass and muscle strength and reduces fat mass. Testosterone also influences competition, with precompetition testosterone spikes enhancing motivation and physical readiness.^{18,94,180,199} Winning increases testosterone levels, reinforcing positive behaviors, motivation, and reactivity—critical traits for athletes.^{6,202}

Athletes are motivated to explore methods for increasing testosterone levels, both legally and illegally. Legal methods for safely enhancing testosterone include optimized nutrition, supplements, exercise, sleep, stress management, and environmental adjustments. The purpose of this study was to review and evaluate these methods based on the medical literature available. Proper implementation of these methods may help athletes improve performance while maintaining health and compliance with antidoping regulations.

METHODS

We performed a literature search using PubMed to identify English-language, peer-reviewed articles on various potential legal methods to enhance testosterone in athletes and/or healthy adults. To provide the reader with a broader understanding of the subject and cover a wide range of methods, we chose a narrative review structure. Titles, abstracts, and full texts (when appropriate) were reviewed, and the most relevant papers were included based on the authors' judgment of relevance and scientific impact. We then performed a qualitative synthesis of the data and grouped key findings by topic to present a coherent narrative overview of the subject.

RESULTS

Energy Deficiency and Balance

Energy balance is vital for healthy testosterone production as the hypothalamus regulates GnRH pulses based on energy intake and expenditure. A deficiency in energy intake relative to

expenditure, low energy availability (LEA), often occurs in athletes due to intense exercise and is linked to an increased risk of developing Relative Energy Deficiency in Sport (REDs). While focused initially on female athletes, REDs was later recognized to also affect male athletes, highlighting that the physiologic consequences of LEA are not sex-specific.¹⁰⁵

REDs disrupts endocrine function, reducing testosterone, estradiol, and progesterone levels via hypothalamic hypogonadism, where decreased GnRH pulses lower LH and follicle-stimulating hormone, impairing reproductive hormone production. Traditionally associated with aesthetic and endurance sports, REDs is now recognized across various disciplines, including combat sports and jockeying. No athlete is immune, emphasizing the need for vigilance.²³

Management of REDs involves balancing energy by reducing training loads and increasing caloric intake. Recent research suggests that macronutrient composition may also influence REDs-related endocrine disruptions. Severe energy imbalance in REDs can lower testosterone levels and affect performance, recovery, and health, while even subtle imbalances may impair performance.⁶⁷

Nutrition

Optimal nutrition with sufficient energy intake and essential nutrients (ie, carbohydrates, proteins, fats, and micronutrients) is critical for athletes and significantly influences androgen levels.^{24,117} Proper nutrition helps prevent LEA and REDs—conditions linked to decreased testosterone levels.⁹⁷ Calorie restriction, which is associated with reduced testosterone, should be avoided.¹⁷⁹ Some foods, particularly polyphenol-rich products, may act as natural aromatase inhibitors by decreasing the conversion of testosterone to estradiol.²¹² This research, initially from breast cancer studies, highlights flavonoid-rich products for potential aromatase inhibition.^{26,63} Macronutrients, such as proteins and fats, micronutrients, such as vitamin D, zinc, magnesium, and boron, and certain supplements are also being studied for their testosterone-boosting potential.¹⁹⁸

Fat tissue increases estradiol through aromatization, lowering testosterone levels; however, testosterone deficiency from obesity is rare in athletes. Popular diets among athletes, such as vegetarianism, veganism, ketogenic diets, and intermittent fasting, are under investigation for their effects on performance and testosterone levels.⁹⁵ Low-fat diets appear to reduce testosterone in men, while saturated and monounsaturated fats predict higher testosterone levels.⁸⁴ However, excessive protein intake (>3.4 g/kg/day) with low carbohydrates may lower basal testosterone, likely due to liver SHBG synthesis.^{4,198} Low-carbohydrate diets can increase the risk of LEA, REDs, and low testosterone.¹³⁶ Contrary to popular belief, plant-based diets and soy-based proteins or phytoestrogens have no significant effect on testosterone levels in men.¹⁵¹

Testosterone Boosters

Testosterone boosters (TBs) are multi-ingredient supplements marketed to increase testosterone levels, enhance

performance,¹³² and prevent REDs or testosterone deficiency,¹⁰⁷ particularly in athletes with high training loads.⁷⁰ However, their efficacy is questionable, with most compounds lacking substantial evidence or showing conflicting results.¹³² Some substances, like *Eurycoma longifolia* (or tongkat ali), ashwagandha, fenugreek, β -hydroxy β -methyl butyrate, and betaine, have demonstrated potential to increase testosterone.^{25,188} Among these, *eurycoma longifolia* has the strongest evidence, shown to raise testosterone by inhibiting aromatase, boosting LH and follicle-stimulating hormone, and increasing FT by dissociation from SHBG. A meta-analysis of 5 randomized trials confirmed significant testosterone increases in men using *eurycoma longifolia*.¹⁰⁹

Zinc—a common TB component—has been shown to boost testosterone levels, particularly in people with both with and without zinc deficiency.^{17,80,88,98,138,148,164,170} Its effects are attributed to antioxidant activity in the testes and activation of steroidogenic enzymes.

Despite claims of safety, TB consumption poses risks, including thromboembolic events, liver injury, and pancreatitis.^{21,139} Adulteration and contamination, affecting up to 50% of samples, are major issues, with many supplements containing prohibited substances that risk both health and anti-doping violations.⁸⁷ More research is needed to evaluate TB safety and effectiveness.

Recreational Substances

Recreational substances are used widely by athletes.¹²⁴ We review the substances used most, namely, alcohol, nicotine, and cannabinoids. The relationship between testosterone and alcohol remains unclear. Some studies have shown association between higher alcohol intake may increase testosterone and FT levels, with Jensen et al⁹⁰ reporting higher FT in men consuming over 20 units weekly (1 unit = 12 g). Moderate alcohol consumption might influence testosterone levels positively due to altered liver steroid metabolism during alcohol detoxification, favoring androstenedione conversion to testosterone and estradiol.⁹⁰ However, chronic alcohol abuse has been linked to decreased testosterone levels, potentially due to Leydig cell toxicity or HPG-axis disruption.^{119,137} Alcohol's effects on SHBG are inconsistent, with some studies suggesting it lowers SHBG and total testosterone levels,¹⁶⁰ while others find no association¹⁸⁶ or even increases in SHBG levels with alcohol consumption.⁸⁶ Overall, the testosterone-alcohol relationship is complex and warrants further research.

Nicotine use is high in sports (>20% of athletes),¹⁴⁶ with team sports (eg, baseball and football) and winter sports (eg, ice hockey, skiing, and biathlon) showing the highest numbers.^{120,190} The relationship between nicotine and testosterone is not clear. Some studies reported higher testosterone and FT in smokers compared with nonsmokers^{40,184}; Wu et al²⁰⁶ reported elevation in total but not FT and increased SHBG. At the same time, Halmenschlager et al⁷³ failed to show this effect, and there were reports that nicotine can cause increased apoptosis of Leydig cells and thus lower

testosterone.²¹⁵ Interestingly, in women, cigarette smoking was associated with higher testosterone levels in 1 study.¹⁶ Those who quit smoking were reported to have lower testosterone levels than their smoking counterparts.¹⁹¹ Altogether, a systematic review and meta-analysis of related observational studies showed a positive association between smoking and testosterone levels, which might be related etiologically to competitive inhibition of androgen disposal, aromatase inhibition, central nervous system, and LH stimulation.²¹⁴

Cannabis use is prevalent among athletes, with approximately 1 in 4 athletes using cannabis.¹²⁵ The association between cannabis and testosterone is unclear. Results vary, with reports of higher testosterone values in cannabis users,^{52,173} no difference,^{12,39,102} and decreased testosterone in users versus nonusers.⁹⁹ Further research is needed to fully establish the effects of cannabis on testosterone levels.

Sleep

Testosterone is secreted primarily during the rapid eye movement (REM) phase of sleep, explaining its peak levels in the morning. REM sleep occurs later in the night, so reduced sleep duration or quality can lower REM episodes, decreasing testosterone secretion.³ Athletes often experience sleep issues, including poor quality sleep, less REM sleep,¹⁹⁷ insomnia, nonrestorative sleep, sleep apnea, and fatigue.⁶⁵ Swinbourne et al¹⁸⁷ reported that 38% of elite athletes identified as snorers, and 8% experienced apneic episodes. Apnea risk increases with higher body mass index, particularly among American football and rugby players, with studies showing a 30% prevalence of obstructive sleep apnea in contact sport athletes.¹⁵⁶ While earlier research linked obstructive sleep apnea treatment to improved testosterone levels,^{64,163} a more recent study did not confirm that.²⁹ In addition, jetlag from frequent travel across time zones may disrupt hormonal balance.⁶¹

Melatonin supplementation might assist in reducing sleep latency and increasing duration,¹¹² although its effects on testosterone remain unclear.³⁰ Studies suggest mixed outcomes, with some reporting inhibitory, stimulatory, or neutral effects on testosterone production.¹⁵⁰ Napping, which can include REM phases, may also support testosterone synthesis, but its impact on testosterone remains understudied.^{123,197} Other strategies, such as sleep extension and pre-sleep high-glycemic meals, may counteract insufficient sleep, which can reduce testosterone by 15%.¹¹⁶ However, sleep extension studies, including a trial of 10-hour sleep for 6 nights, failed to show substantial testosterone benefits, and further research into nutraceutical approaches is needed.¹⁷⁷

Exercise

Given the anabolic effects of testosterone, the interaction of testosterone and various exercise regimens has been studied extensively.^{2,38,69,210} Moderate- to high-intensity exercise triggers testosterone release, while mild activity shows no impact.³⁸ Testosterone showed the highest increase when measured immediately after, and up to 30 minutes after, exercise.³⁸ While

high volumes of endurance exercise without sufficient energy intake might result in LEA, REDs, and testosterone decrease, acute endurance exercise has been shown to increase testosterone in some studies.^{56,89} For example, Galbo et al⁵⁶ showed a 31% increase in testosterone concentration occurring 40 minutes after exhaustive treadmill running, and Jensen et al⁸⁹ showed 37% increase in testosterone levels during hard endurance training.

The link between resistance exercise and testosterone is well-studied. Resistance exercise does increase testosterone, especially moderate- and high-intensity, with large muscle involvement, bigger exercise volume, and short resting intervals between sets.^{153,196} Smaller muscle exercises do not lead to significant testosterone increase, even when the intensity is high. In a study of young untrained men, unilateral biceps curls did not lead to a significant increase in testosterone concentration; however, a bilateral knee extension and leg press using the same protocol did.⁷⁷ Free weight training has been measured against machine training to determine benefit to FT levels.¹⁷² Free weights showed a significant change in FT levels from before to after workouts, likely related to increased muscle mass required for exercise performance.¹⁶⁶ Regarding the mechanism, exercise appears to increase FT in the blood, with some authors proposing an association with HPG-axis upregulation and LH release stimulation; however, there are insufficient data to be conclusive.³⁶ Over time, transient elevations in testosterone with resistance training may result in more muscle mass and better performance.^{38,82} Resistance exercise also upregulates the AR content in skeletal muscle, thus increasing sensitivity to testosterone.^{38,152}

Masturbation, Coitus, and Abstinence

Although commonly believed in sports, there is no evidence of sexual activity reducing performance, with studies showing ejaculation may boost testosterone levels.^{48,55,149} The association between the number of sexual encounters and testosterone levels has been described previously, with loss of sexual activity related to decreased testosterone and restoration of it related to increased testosterone.¹²²

Masturbation is prevalent in the general population⁵⁴; however, the effects of masturbation and abstinence on testosterone levels remain understudied. Exton et al⁵¹ showed that abstinence from masturbation for 3 weeks significantly increased testosterone levels; however, ejaculation did not lead to changes in testosterone levels. Jiang et al⁹² showed a 145% increase in testosterone levels after 1 week of abstinence from masturbation. This study gained high popularity and even led to the formation of an anti-masturbation movement called “Nofap,” which reported multiple benefits of abstinence.^{122,217} Later an English version of the Jiang et al⁹² article was retracted due to duplicate publication; however, the Chinese version is still available.⁹¹ Isenmann et al⁸⁵ found that masturbation reduced circadian drop of FT, but recommended larger studies for validation.

Endocrine Disruptors

Endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs), such as bisphenol A, phthalates, and dioxins, are common synthetic hormonal substances. EDCs have been associated with multiple adverse events, including obesity, male and female infertility, cardiovascular disease, and cancer.^{8,34,42,114,194,211} EDCs disrupt primarily normal endocrine system functioning. For example, Skakkebaek¹⁷⁵ linked EDCs to a combination of adverse health outcomes related to men’s health, including decreased testosterone levels in men. EDCs can affect testosterone levels during testicular production and HPG-axis regulation.⁴⁴ For example, higher pesticide levels were associated with lower testosterone levels in consumers.¹²⁷ Intake of organic food, which has fewer pesticide residues,¹⁷⁶ was associated with better sperm profile (but not testosterone levels) in 1 study.²⁷ Phthalates and bisphenol A exposure (commonly found in packaging, solvents, fragranced household products, and personal care products) were also associated with low testosterone levels in men.^{126,203,216} Interest in reducing personal EDC exposure is growing. For example, limited use of plastics, personal care products and cosmetics, consumption of homegrown food, and limited automobile use were associated with lower levels of EDCs.¹²¹ Limiting plastic use in favor of metal and glass cartons, prevention of dust formation at home, and consumption of fresh organic produce have also been recommended.³⁵ Interventional studies have shown that consumption of fresh foods and dietary supplements, replacement of plastic packaging for household products, personal products, and food, and education are all efficient methods of decreasing EDCs levels.^{78,79,144,158,169,208} Further studies should evaluate the effects of these interventions on testosterone levels, but their simplicity and safety make them recommended.

Sauna

Sauna bathing is used actively by many athletes and has been shown to have multiple endocrine effects.^{13,83} The impact of sauna use on testosterone remains unclear. A study by Leppaluoto et al¹¹⁰ showed no changes in testosterone in 10 healthy men visiting a Finnish sauna (80°C) for 1 hour twice a day for 7 days. Kukkonen-Harjula et al¹⁰¹ observed testosterone increases during dry heat exposure at 80°C until exhaustion. Another study performed by Opaszowski et al¹⁴⁰ showed elevation in testosterone-cortisol ratio (but not in testosterone) in participants exposed to a 1-hour sauna, with rehydrated participants experiencing higher increases. Similar results were obtained by Podstawski et al,¹⁴⁷ showing no significant increase in testosterone but a decrease in cortisol (thus increasing the testosterone-cortisol ratio) in 30 men who attended 4 12-minute sauna sessions of 90°C followed by a 6-minute cool down. A longitudinal study by Garolla et al⁵⁷ showed no changes in testosterone in patients undergoing 2 15-minute sauna sessions per week for 3 months. Mero et al¹²⁹ showed no testosterone increases after traditional and infrared sauna. While it appears

that sauna use does not change testosterone levels, the effects of sauna bathing on testosterone-cortisol ratio need to be further studied.

Cold-Water Immersion

Cold-water immersion (CWI) has been studied relative to testosterone. One study showed that testosterone increased by 21% after exercise but decreased by 10% after cold water stimulation.¹⁶¹ Furthermore, Earp et al⁴⁶ found that CWI after exercise may reduce circulating testosterone levels as post-CWI testosterone levels decreased below that of pre-exercise levels. Burke et al²² and Roberts et al¹⁵⁵ have also observed attenuated strength and hypertrophy after resistive training associated with CWI. This may result from reduced testosterone availability, increased muscle fluid viscosity, and decreased neural stimulation.

Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Radiation

Radiofrequency electromagnetic radiation (RF-EMR) is abundant in modern environments, with mobile phones and Wi-Fi devices being the most common sources of RF-EMR.¹¹⁸ Most animal studies have shown a significant decrease in testosterone levels from mobile phones and Wi-Fi devices.^{7,60,96,103,128,141,142,167,168,171,207} It appears to be a dose-dependent effect. A low (8 h/day) and middle (16 h/day) exposure to a 900-MHz mobile phone for 30 days in mice did not affect the testosterone synthesis function of the testes, but high (24 h/day) exposure showed a reduction in testosterone level.²¹³ A decrease in testosterone was also observed after exposure to a 2.45-GHz Wi-Fi device for 2 hours per day in rats.¹⁰⁵

Human studies have had inconsistent results; some have reported decreased testosterone with prolonged exposure (900 MHz Global System for Mobile Communications radiofrequency from regular cellular phone use or from base stations),^{45,50} and some have reported increased testosterone in cell phone users.⁶⁶

RF-EMR might have deleterious effects on the HPG-axis at various levels. Possible mechanisms include thermal (ie, increased temperature) and nonthermal (eg, increased reactive oxygen species production) effects on the testes,^{11,162} causing Leydig cell dysfunction, or direct effect on the hypothalamus or hypophysis, causing gonadotropin decrease.^{60,174,213} RF-EMR effects depend on usage duration, with longer exposure linked to lower testosterone (60 minutes a day vs 0-30 minutes a day in rats).¹²⁸ Tissue absorption varies by device proximity, closer locations (eg, side pockets) increasing impact.¹⁴ Thus, it might be wise for athletes to decrease their RF-EMR exposure by limiting excessive mobile phone and Wi-Fi device use.

Analgesics

Analgesic use, including nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), opioids, and acetaminophen, is widely prevalent among athletes. For example, NSAID use has a 90% prevalence in some disciplines.^{28,62,81,157,200} In 1 study, 32% of American football players used NSAIDs daily, compared with 20% reported for professional soccer players using NSAIDs during

the World Cup competitive period.^{143,192} NSAIDs, used to reduce pain and inflammation, have poorly studied endocrine effects. One study on humans suggested ibuprofen may suppress testicular endocrine cell activity, potentially causing hypogonadism.¹⁰⁰ Another in vitro study reported that aspirin and indomethacin caused endocrine disruption at the level of the testes.¹ Another study showed that men with NSAID prescriptions had lower testosterone levels compared with their counterparts without NSAIDs.⁵⁸ In contrast, Halpern et al⁷⁴ did not establish a relationship between regular NSAID use and testosterone levels. Interestingly, another study of women with hyperandrogenism showed a testosterone decrease attributed to a direct inhibitory effect of ibuprofen on ovarian steroidogenesis.⁹

Although acetaminophen use is not as common as NSAID use, it is still consumed frequently by athletes.^{49,111,154,201,209} Acetaminophen has been shown to be associated negatively with gonadal development in animal fetuses.^{15,35,113,193} In 1 in vitro study, acetaminophen was shown to cause endocrine disruption in the testes.¹

Opioid use is prevalent in sports, even at the high school level,⁴⁷ with some studies showing misuse among athletes at 7%,¹⁵⁹ making the effects of opioid important to review. Both acutely and chronically, opioids are known to suppress GnRH, inhibiting upstream regulation of testosterone production and to decrease the negative feedback of sex steroids on pituitary LH secretion.¹¹⁵ Hypogonadism was estimated to occur in >60% of male opioid users, with long-acting opioids at higher dosages leading to a higher degree of hypogonadism.⁴³ Clearly, opioid use in athletes should be very limited given the significant effects on testosterone levels seen in previous studies (in addition to other adverse effects, including addiction).

Seasonal Variation in Testosterone Levels and Daylight

Given that a significant number of athletes migrate to the warmer climate during the wintertime to continue training and competition,^{19,59,130} information on seasonal variation of testosterone is of great interest. While the diurnal pattern of testosterone secretion is well established, there is conflicting evidence about testosterone and seasonality.¹⁷⁸ The Tromsø study by Svartberg et al¹⁸⁵ found men in Northern Norway had peak testosterone in December with the lowest levels in August. The investigators attributed these fluctuations to temperature and daylight changes in the Arctic climate.¹⁸⁵ In a follow-up study, Svartberg and Barrett-Connor¹⁸³ did not establish testosterone variation in men residing in Southern California, proposing that the difference in study results was due to a milder climate with fewer changes in weather, daylight, and sleep patterns between the seasons. Lee and Lee¹⁰⁸ studied testosterone levels in male Korean police officers, suggesting links to daylight and weather. They reported that the participants' testosterone was highest in January and lowest in May, with a negative relationship between amount of daylight and outdoor temperature and testosterone levels.¹⁰⁸ Recently,

Zornitzki et al²¹⁸ found significant seasonal variations in testosterone levels of Israeli men, with the highest values in August to October compared with March (northern hemisphere). In contrast, some studies have shown no changes in testosterone levels between seasons. Moskovic et al¹³⁵ studied circannual patterns of sex hormones and whether seasonality should be considered in clinical practice guidelines. Data from their men's health practice showed no significant seasonal differences in testosterone levels.¹³⁵ Similarly, an analysis of men in Miami and Pittsburgh found no seasonal variation, although Miami men had higher overall testosterone levels.¹³¹ Current data on seasonal testosterone level changes are limited, requiring further research.

Contraceptive Methods in Female Athletes

While most of the reviewed research has focused on male athletes due to higher amount of data available for male athletes compared with female athletes, there is a unique modifiable behavior in women that can also affect testosterone levels. Contraception can be hormonal and nonhormonal, with most female athletes using hormonal contraception both in oral (predominantly) and nonoral forms.^{104,106,195} A systematic review and meta-analysis of combined oral contraceptive (COC) pills showed decreased total (31%) and FT (61%), with a degree of FT decrease higher due to concurrent increase of SHBG.³¹ COC with second-degree progestins were shown to have less effect on SHBG, while third- and fourth-degree progestins had higher effects. Apart from SHBG-mediated FT decrease, COC can suppress androgen production in ovaries and adrenals, with the resulting decreased peripheral conversion of testosterone precursors.³¹ Interestingly, both free and total testosterone levels were maintained when dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) was added orally,³² but DHEA has been banned by the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA).²⁰⁴ Other forms of hormonal contraception, such as depot medroxyprogesterone acetate (DMPA) injection, resulted in higher FT levels compared with COC.¹⁶⁵ Levonorgestrel implant caused even less testosterone decrease, compared with DMPA.¹⁸⁹ Compared with hormonal methods, the copper intrauterine device does not affect testosterone levels and remains the preferred contraceptive method for female athletes concerned about hormonal effects.

DISCUSSION

Although many testosterone-optimizing strategies are used by athletes, many lack supporting evidence. Athletes, coaches, and healthcare providers should evaluate strategies based on their clinical safety, resource demands (eg, time, cost), supporting evidence, and compliance with WADA regulations. Our research highlights considerations for implementing testosterone-optimizing approaches.

We emphasized testosterone-related factors but acknowledged the influence of other anabolic components. As mentioned earlier, in its mechanism of action, testosterone binds to ARs to

induce physiologic changes; receptor expression and functionality is critical to testosterone effectiveness on anabolic parameters.¹⁵² AR upregulation could indirectly enhance testosterone's effects by increasing the body's sensitivity to it. Previously, the genetic composition of the AR gene (ie, number of CAG triplets in the gene) was shown to affect personal sensitivity to testosterone, with a smaller number of triplets connected to higher sensitivity to testosterone. AR upregulation was observed in anabolic-androgenic steroid (AAS) intake, electrical stimulation of the muscle, and high-intensity resistance exercise. Muscle contraction and elevated testosterone may synergistically increase AR content, enhancing tissue anabolism; however, the relationship between these 2 variables is complex. Interestingly, some researchers have postulated that it is AR content, and not hormone levels (including testosterone), that play the primary role in evoking the noted response to resistance exercise.¹³⁴ Further research should investigate methods to enhance AR sensitivity. Strategies such as energy balance, avoiding alcohol, and managing cortisol effects may prevent AR downregulation, supporting anabolic action.

After exercise, testosterone and cortisol exhibit a negative interrelationship.^{5,10} The negative effect is more prominent in the case of total testosterone levels and is absent or less robust in the case of FT levels.⁷¹ It has been postulated that elevated cortisol levels might serve as a testosterone suppressor.³⁷ That is, cortisol might affect the HPG-axis in differing ways, including decreased release of regulatory hormones (ie, GnRH and LH), direct inhibition of steroidogenesis in the testicles, and downregulation of AR.⁵ On the contrary, FT demonstrates a positive association with cortisol, possibly due to competition between cortisol and testosterone and carrier proteins, as well as greater adrenal contribution toward FT levels.²⁰ At the same time, the dynamics of testosterone and cortisol changes after exercise are complex and influenced by exercise mode, intensity, and duration⁷²; however, it does appear cortisol levels recover faster than testosterone levels. The ratio between FT and cortisol—the anabolic-catabolic ratio—has been studied as an indicator of training loads and overtraining state.¹⁰ The importance remains unclear, but reducing cortisol levels may indirectly enhance testosterone action.

Testosterone-optimizing strategies may prevent or treat testosterone deficiency—a common issue among athletes with estimates showing high prevalence (from 25% up to 80%) of testosterone deficiency among athletes.^{133,181,182} Possible etiologies of testosterone deficiency in athletes include exercise-hypogonadal male condition,⁶⁸ LEA, REDs, AAS-induced hypogonadism, trauma-induced hypopituitarism, and readjustment in HPG-axis regulation.⁷⁰ WADA does not allow therapeutic use exemption for testosterone medication for nonorganic causes of low testosterone.²⁰⁵ Legal testosterone-optimizing strategies can aid athletes in maintaining testosterone levels.

Another possible application of testosterone-optimizing strategies is the treatment of current or former AAS users. AAS

use is a significant public health problem, especially among athletes. Prevalence of the AAS use in the athletic population, both professional and amateur, might be as high as 46% in the former and 14% in the latter.^{93,145} Testosterone-optimizing strategies may complement harm reduction protocols for AAS users under study, while education on natural, legal methods could reduce AAS use.

Athletes should exercise caution when implementing testosterone-optimizing strategies, as many advertised methods lack evidence and are speculative, costly, or time-consuming. Searching for ways to boost testosterone often yields unproven techniques, diverting resources from effective strategies. Worse, some improper interventions, even if well-intentioned, can harm athletes' health or end their careers. For instance, supplements containing AAS could result in WADA antidoping violations. An evidence-based approach is essential when evaluating such claims. Education is crucial, involving sports physicians, coaches, and nutritionists to develop and monitor training and recovery plans. Notably, most studies focus on men, with limited research on women. Our narrative approach aims to provide a broad overview of testosterone-optimizing strategies. The efficiency of the strategies described should be evaluated in further studies with both hormonal and performance measures calculated, with accurate comparisons between various techniques as well as combination studies.

CONCLUSION

Sports performance is associated closely with testosterone levels, with several testosterone-optimizing strategies available, such as maintaining energy balance via a calorie-neutral or calorie-proficient, balanced healthy diet; moderation of alcohol; implementing high- or moderate-intensity resistance exercises with short rest intervals; maintain proper sleep hygiene and addressing sleep disorders; limiting exposure to EDCs, RF-EMR, CWI, analgesics, and alcohol. Evaluating the efficacy of these strategies requires further research considering hormonal and performance outcomes. Athletes should adopt these approaches carefully to optimize testosterone levels safely.

CLINICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

- Athletes should be educated on the importance of testosterone for exercise training and performance as well as the prevalence of low testosterone. Strength of recommendation: B.
- Athletes should be educated on strategies to increase testosterone that are not prohibited by WADA. Strength of recommendation: B.
- Athletes should maintain a healthy balanced diet to avoid energy deficiency with a cautious approach to various supplements to increase testosterone. Strength of recommendation: B.
- EDCs and CWI exposure should be avoided. Strength of recommendation: B.
- In respect to testosterone production, NSAID, acetaminophen, and opioid use should be minimized. Strength of recommendation: B.

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