

Functional relationship between obesity and male reproduction: from humans to animal models

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

- Abstract
 - Introduction
 - Overweight and obesity: some facts
 - Methods
 - Inclusion criteria and outcomes of interest
 - Exclusion criteria
 - Search strategy
 - Results
 - Overweight and obesity: consequences for human male reproduction
 - Semen parameters
 - Hormones and testicular function
 - Genetic obesity syndromes and human male fertility
 - Animal models for overweight and obesity: effects on reproduction
 - Leptin, leptin signaling and Kiss I
 - NPY and leptin signaling
 - Discussion
 - How do animal models help to understand the relation between obesity and fertility in human males?
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BACKGROUND: The increase in the incidence of obesity has a substantial societal health impact. Contrasting reports have been published on whether overweight and obesity affect male fertility. To clarify this, we have reviewed published data on the relation between overweight/obesity, semen parameters, endocrine status and human male fertility. Subsequently, we have used results obtained in animal models of obesity to explain the human data.

METHODS: Pubmed, Scopus, Web of Science and Google Scholar databases were searched between September 2009 and October 2010 for a comprehensive publication record. Available studies on adult human males were examined. The included animal studies examined obesity and fertility, and focused on leptin, leptin receptor signaling, kisspeptins and/or NPY.

RESULTS: Most overweight/obese men do not experience significant fertility problems, despite the presence of reduced testosterone alongside normal gonadotrophin levels. Only a subgroup of subjects suffers from hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. Animal models offer several explanations and show that reduced leptin signaling leads to reduced GnRH neuronal activity. This may be due to decreased hypothalamic *Kiss I* expression, a potent regulator of GnRH/LH/FSH release. As the *Kiss I* neurons express leptin receptors, the *Kiss I* system may participate in transmitting metabolic information to the GnRH neurons, thus providing a bridge between metabolic regulation and fertility.

CONCLUSIONS: Infertility in overweight/obese males may be explained by leptin insensitivity. This implies a possible role for the KISS1 system in human obesity-related male infertility. If substantiated, it will pave the way for methods to restore fertility in these subjects.

Key words: human male fertility / semen parameters / endocrine status / leptin / animal models

Introduction

Overweight and obesity: some facts

Overweight and obesity have become a major societal problem and their incidence is rapidly increasing. Globally, more than 1.6 billion adults are overweight and at least 300 million of these subjects are clinically obese (WHO, 2006). In general, obesity rates have increased more than 3-fold since 1980 in North America, the UK, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, the Pacific Islands, Australasia and China (WHO, 2003). In the USA, the incidence of obesity in adult males has increased from 11.7% in 1991, 17.9% in 1998, to 30.6% in 2004 (Hedley et al., 2004), emphasizing that the incidence of overweight and obesity is reaching epidemic levels. Although there is no generally accepted definition for obesity in children and adolescents, it is clear that the prevalence of overweight is also increasing for children. For the USA, the WHO reported that ~17% of the children (age .6–11) and adolescents (age 12–19) were overweight or obese in the period 2001–2004 (WHO, 2006). Recently, the WHO has emphasized that the prevalence of childhood obesity is growing at an alarming rate (WHO, 2007). Intriguingly, the rise in the incidence of obesity is not restricted to the industrialized societies, but is even more pronounced in developing countries (WHO, 2003).

Overweight and obesity are characterized by an excess of fat mass and are most commonly defined by the ratio between weight (kg) and the square of the height (m), the so-called BMI. The WHO considers persons with a BMI over 25 kg/m² as overweight, and as obese when BMI is over 30 kg/m². Another way to express the severity of overweight/obesity is by determining waist circumference and waist/hip ratio (Fejes et al., 2005). Although it has been suggested that these may be even better markers for overweight and obesity, the majority of the studies uses BMI as the marker. We therefore use BMI as the indicator of overweight and obesity in the present review.

Overweight and obesity are known risk factors for diseases such as diabetes, coronary heart disease, stroke, hypertension and sleep apnea, and hence have become major contributors to the global burden of chronic disease (NIDDK, 2007). Changes in food composition and diet, such as increased consumption of energy-dense, highly palatable, nutrient-poor foods with high levels of sugar and saturated fats, combined with reduced physical activity are considered primary causes of this problem.

Negative effects of obesity on male fertility have been described as early as the 10th century by Avicenna, a Persian scientist and medical doctor in his encyclopedic medical book *The Canon of Medicine*. However, until recently, the possible relationship between obesity and male reproduction has been largely ignored. Here, we provide an overview of what is known about effects of overweight and obesity on human male fertility. We will try to find answers to questions like ‘Does obesity indeed contribute to male infertility? What are the consequences of maternal obesity for the fertility of the male offspring? And, if one considers fat tissue as an endocrine organ, how can hormones released by fat tissue (adipokines) modulate testicular functioning?’ In the second part of the review, the effects of these

adipokines on male reproduction will be further analyzed using results obtained in animal models for obesity research and related to human fertility in overweight/obese male individuals.

Methods

In the first part of this review, we systematically analyze the effects of overweight and obesity on semen parameters and endocrine hormones in human males of reproductive age. In the second part of the review, selected animal models for obesity are analyzed and related to the human studies, in order to find an explanation for obesity-related fertility problems. The included animal studies involve models for leptin and leptin signaling deficiency and NPY signaling in relation to hypothalamic–pituitary function. Only peer-reviewed studies have been included in the review. Review articles have been used as a source of references and are referred to as such.

Inclusion criteria and outcomes of interest

Included are those studies in which the participants were adult human males of reproductive age, independent of the number of subjects involved. The outcomes included are: (i) any measures of semen volume, sperm concentration, sperm motility, sperm morphology and sperm DNA integrity, or (ii) any basal measurements of the following hormones: steroid hormone-binding globulin (SHBG), total testosterone (T), free-testosterone (free-T), estradiol (E₂), LH, FSH, inhibin-B and leptin.

In general, the outcome of all eligible studies must be related to BMI. We also included a few cases in which waist/hip ratio was used as the marker for overweight and obesity. No exclusion is applied to the statistical methods used in the included papers, although in Tables I and II only true values are included, not correlations.

The included animal model studies were only those that investigated leptin and leptin receptor dysfunction, leptin receptor signaling, kisspeptins or NPY in relation to male fertility.

Exclusion criteria

Studies in which the individuals included had not yet reached adulthood are excluded from the analysis. No upper-age limit is applied. Studies that included primarily men with particular diseases or a history of disorders of the reproductive organs not related to overweight/obesity (e.g. varicocele, cryptorchidism, trauma, vasectomy, testicular torsion) are excluded. Studies that involve primarily males with azoospermia are also excluded, as it is not possible to determine a relationship between semen parameters and BMI in these subjects. Similarly, studies focusing on men who had been exposed to particular environmental toxicants known to compromise male fertility, such as pesticide factory workers, are excluded.

Studies that reported reproductive hormone measurements only after stimulation are excluded, as are studies in which overall fertility was assessed by pregnancy rate. In those cases where duplicate data sets are used in multiple articles, only the article including the largest sample size is included.

Search strategy

The Pubmed, Web of Science, Scopus and Google Scholar databases are comprehensively searched. At least two searches were conducted for each database. Search terms used included combinations of the following terms: BMI, body weight, overweight, obesity, male fertility, semen quality, semen volume, sperm morphology, sperm count, sperm motility, sperm

Table 1 Summary of studies that have investigated semen parameters in overweight and obese men compared with normal-weight men with a BMI of >18.5 and <24.99 (↑, increased; ↓, decreased; NI, not clearly indicated in reference).

Semen parameters	Overweight BMI >25 <29.99 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects	Obese BMI >30 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects
Semen volume (normal)	Jensen <i>et al.</i> (2004)	299	Strain <i>et al.</i> (1982)	21
	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	233	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	127
	Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	63	Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	21
Sperm concentration ↓	Jensen <i>et al.</i> (2004)	299	Koloszár <i>et al.</i> (2005)	58
	Magnusdottir <i>et al.</i> (2005)	25	Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2008)	128
	Fejes <i>et al.</i> (2006)	81	Roth <i>et al.</i> (2008)	1
	Hanafy <i>et al.</i> (2007)	50	Stewart <i>et al.</i> (2009)	35
	Qin <i>et al.</i> (2007)	241	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	19
	Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2008)	168	Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	80
	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	35	Wegner <i>et al.</i> (2010)	36
Sperm concentration (normal)	Koloszár <i>et al.</i> (2005)	91	Strain <i>et al.</i> (1982)	21
	Magnusdottir <i>et al.</i> (2005)	47	Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008)	163
	Hanafy <i>et al.</i> (2007)	30	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	108
	Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008)	773	Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	42
	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	198	Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	21
	Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	63		
Sperm motility ↓	Magnusdottir <i>et al.</i> (2005)	25	Kort <i>et al.</i> (2006)	NI
	Kort <i>et al.</i> (2006)	NI	Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2008)	128
	Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2008)	168	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	55
	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	105	Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	80
Sperm motility (normal)	Jensen <i>et al.</i> (2004)	299	Wegner <i>et al.</i> (2010)	35
	Magnusdottir <i>et al.</i> (2005)	47	Strain <i>et al.</i> (1982)	21
	Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008)	773	Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008)	163
	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	128	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	72
	Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	63	Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	42
			Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	21
Abnormal sperm morphology ↑	Qin <i>et al.</i> (2007)	241	Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2008)	128
	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	57	Stewart <i>et al.</i> (2009)	17
			Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	29
			Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	80
			Wegner <i>et al.</i> (2010)	19
No abnormal sperm morphology	Jensen <i>et al.</i> (2004)	299	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	98
	Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2008)	168	Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	42
	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	176	Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	21
	Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	63		
Sperm DNA integrity ↓	Kort <i>et al.</i> (2006)	NI	Kort <i>et al.</i> (2006)	NI
			Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	127

DNA integrity, SHBG, (free)testosterone, estradiol, LH, FSH, inhibin, leptin, NPY, kisspeptin, GnRH, Stat3, hypothalamus, arcuate nucleus and pituitary. Appropriate synonyms, variant spelling and truncations are included for each search term. Only papers published in English are included, while abstracts are excluded.

Results

Overweight and obesity: consequences for male reproduction

Semen parameters

Several reports suggest that an increasing BMI or waist/hip ratio is associated with alterations in testicular volume, semen parameters and fertility. Other investigators were unable to link changes in BMI to reduced fertility. In Table 1, an overview of the available literature

on the relation between BMI and various semen parameters is presented, revealing contradictory observations by different investigators. While some studies confirm the existence of a relation between BMI and male fertility, a similar number of studies do not. The studies that do show a relation between overweight/obesity and male fertility implicate a wide range of mechanisms. Altogether, obesity seems to enhance a predisposition to fertility problems rather than cause it, except in cases of developmental obesity due to gene mutations. Below, selected studies are discussed to illustrate these points.

Among the studies implicating a relation between overweight/obesity and semen parameters, Fejes *et al.* (2005) found a negative correlation between semen volume and waist/hip ratio but did not observe changes in total sperm count and numbers of motile sperm. The presence of a negative correlation between semen parameters and overweight/obesity was confirmed by Kort *et al.* (2006) reporting the presence of a significantly decreased percentage of normal motile

sperm in both overweight and obese men. Unfortunately, in this study, the percentage of normal motile sperm is based on semen volume \times concentration \times %motility \times %morphology, making it impossible to evaluate effects on separate semen parameters.

In line with these observations, Sallmen *et al.* (2006) reported a relationship between increasing male BMI and infertility with adjusted odds ratio of 2.13 and 1.83 for the two highest male BMI categories of 32–34 and >35 kg/m², respectively. These observations were confirmed by Nguyen *et al.* (2007) after adjustment for the female partners, BMI, age and smoking habits of both partners. Based on these observations, it may not come as a surprise that overweight and obesity not only in males but also in females coincides with a higher risk of subfecundity, particularly for couples where both partners are overweight or obese. In that case, the odds ratio for subfecundity were 1.41 (95% CI: 1.28–1.56) and 2.74 (95% CI: 2.27–3.30), respectively, compared with couples where both partners had a normal BMI. Thus, weight reduction may very well improve fecundity (Ramlau-Hansen *et al.*, 2007a).

Another important question is whether maternal obesity leads to semen abnormalities in male offspring. Ramlau-Hansen *et al.* (2007b) hypothesized in a pilot study that maternal overweight/obesity may have a programming effect on testicular development during fetal life. These authors observed that sons of mothers who were overweight/obese during pregnancy had a tendency toward a higher birthweight, a condition that persisted, as these sons had a higher BMI in adulthood compared with sons of normal-weight mothers. Possibly, the reduced SHBG levels and consequently higher free estrogen levels in overweight/obese mothers (reviewed in Pettigrew and Hamilton-Fairley, 1997), and hence in the fetus, may interfere with the hormonal control of testicular development (reviewed in Sharpe, 2003) and, together with an elevated BMI, affect semen quality in adulthood. Although an interesting hypothesis, in a more recent study, the same group reported that no obvious relation existed between high birthweight and prepubertal body fat on semen quality in young adult life. This study did not include an analysis of the possible influence of maternal BMI on male offspring, and suggested an effect of adult BMI rather than an effect of childhood BMI on semen parameters (Ramlau-Hansen *et al.*, 2010). Taken together, these studies implicate that maternal BMI during pregnancy is not an important determinant of male offspring fertility in adulthood.

Fertility parameters do not correlate negatively to BMI in all overweight and obese subjects. On the contrary, in many of these subjects, semen quality has consistently shown to be normal (reviewed in Hammoud *et al.*, 2006). Nevertheless, a higher prevalence of obesity appears to occur among men with poor semen quality compared with those with normal semen quality (Magnusdottir *et al.*, 2005). Thus, one can wonder as to what the decisive factor is: obesity or pre-existing fertility problems? In line with this, Ramlau-Hansen *et al.* (2007a) have suggested that a high BMI may lead to sterility in persons with additional fecundity problems.

Another explanation for the affected fertility in obese men may be the accumulation of fat tissue in the suprapubic and thigh region, causing elevated scrotal temperatures that may have detrimental effects on spermatogenesis (Shafik and Olfat, 1981a, b). In obese subjects, specific patterns of scrotal lipid tissue accumulation may occur that are not seen in infertile, non-obese subjects. According to the authors, surgical removal of excessive fat pads resulted in a significant

improvement of semen quality. Unfortunately, this study did not include a control group of obese subjects with normal fertility, and therefore, it is difficult to draw any firm conclusions.

As adipose tissue is an important site of hormone production and metabolism, accumulation of large amounts of body fat may interfere with the hormonal regulation of testicular function. Several older studies suggest that metabolic parameters associated with obesity, such as high levels of plasma cholesterol and/or triglycerides, have direct adverse effects on testicular function, leading to poor semen quality and infertility (Jones *et al.*, 1979; Padron *et al.*, 1989). These observations are expanded by a more recent investigation that reported a 65% incidence of dyslipidemia as defined by isolated hypercholesterolemia, triglyceridemia or both, in 106 male partners from infertile couples (Ramirez-Torres *et al.*, 2000).

Obesity-related fat accumulation is associated with increased oxidative stress and lipid peroxidation (Vincent *et al.*, 2007). Several studies have shown that reactive oxygen species (ROS), causing lipid peroxidation, are extremely toxic to human spermatozoa (Jones *et al.*, 1979; Selly *et al.*, 1991), implicating a significant role for oxidative stress as cause of male infertility (Tremellen, 2008; Agarwal *et al.*, 2009; Kefer *et al.*, 2009). In line with this, spermatozoa from infertile men show signs of greater oxidative injury compared with normal fertile controls (Kodama *et al.*, 1997). These observations are confirmed by an *in vitro* study in which endogenously generated ROS led to an increase in sperm DNA fragmentation (Aitkin *et al.*, 1998; Twigg *et al.*, 1998). From these data, Kasturi *et al.* (2008) concluded that oxidative stress may result in lipid peroxidation in the sperm plasma membrane. This could then lead to decreased motility and membrane dysfunction possibly by impairing cell membrane ion exchange essential for normal sperm motility (Rao *et al.*, 1989). Excessive oxidative stress may also result in DNA damage with diminished genetic variability of the affected sperm. Kasturi *et al.* (2008) suggested that the elevated DNA fragmentation index noted in obese men by Kort *et al.* (2006) may indeed reflect an abnormal oxidative state in the testicular microenvironment and efferent duct system of these men. In support of these data, it has been suggested that α -tocopherol (vitamin E), a compound with strong antioxidant properties, might help to preserve the functional competence of spermatozoa subjected to an oxidative attack. *In vitro* studies made clear that α -tocopherol indeed protected sperm DNA against oxidative damage (Sierens *et al.*, 2002), and that the percentage of motile sperm in a semen sample is correlated with sperm α -tocopherol content (Thérond *et al.*, 1996). The protective role of antioxidants against sperm DNA damage is confirmed in an animal study in which male rats were fed a high-fat diet containing 1% cholesterol. Due to the diet-induced hypercholesterolemia, fertility was reduced in these rats, a condition that could be improved again by the concomitant administration of α -tocopherol and the hypolipidemic and hypocholesterolemic drug simvastatin (Shalaby *et al.*, 2004). The antioxidant treatment apparently protected the spermatozoa from lipid peroxidation and in this way restored membrane fluidity and thus sperm function and fertilizing capacity. Independent of obesity, the general concept that antioxidant therapy may be beneficial for sperm quality is supported by a recent systematic review (Ross *et al.*, 2010).

Taken together, though Table I may give the impression that obesity affects fertility in ~50% of the studies cited, one has to keep in mind

that in only four of these studies, overweight or obesity was related to an increased incidence in oligospermia due to hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (Magnusdottir *et al.*, 2005; Fejes *et al.*, 2006; Hanafy *et al.*, 2007; Hammoud *et al.*, 2008). In most studies, the observed effects on sperm concentration are small, and sperm numbers and quality in overweight and obese men are within the normal range (e.g. Jensen *et al.*, 2004; Koloszár *et al.*, 2005; Hofny *et al.*, 2010; Stewart *et al.*, 2009; Chavarro *et al.*, 2010; Wegner *et al.*, 2010). It has therefore been suggested that a high BMI may lead to reduced fertility only in those males who suffer from additional fecundity problems. In line with the above conclusions, in a recent meta-analysis on the impact of BMI on semen parameters and reproductive hormones in human males, MacDonald *et al.* (2010) using very strict inclusion and exclusion criteria also conclude that there was no evidence for a relationship between BMI and sperm concentration or total sperm count. Our approach expands the analysis by MacDonald *et al.* as we use less strict inclusion and exclusion criteria and present the relevant references and the number of subjects involved in these studies in Table I.

Hormones and testicular function

Although changes in plasma cholesterol and triglyceride levels may be important factors in obesity-related infertility, these factors are in general not taken into account when analyzing endocrine parameters in overweight and obese subjects. On the contrary, most studies focus on changes in gonadotropic hormone levels, steroid hormone-binding globulin (SHBG), testosterone, estradiol and inhibin levels. A few studies also include the levels of the adipokine leptin. As is the case in the relation between overweight/obesity and semen parameters, the reports on correlations between overweight/obesity and endocrine parameters are contradictory. An overview of the relevant literature is presented in Table II.

Steroid hormone-binding globulin

There is a general consensus that obesity is negatively correlated with plasma SHBG levels (Table II), although in some cases, this correlation is only observed in obese men with fertility problems (Jarow *et al.*, 1993). The relation between BMI and SHBG is further strengthened by the observation that when massively obese men lose weight, SHBG steroid binding capacity increases again (Vermeulen *et al.*, 1996) and plasma SHBG levels return to the normal range when a near-normal body weight is achieved (Pasquali *et al.*, 1997). The cause of the reduction in plasma SHBG levels is that obese males are at risk of developing insulin resistance and consequently hyperinsulinemia. Hyperinsulinemia, by affecting liver function, is thought to be the major determinant in the obesity-related decrease in SHBG levels (Isidori *et al.*, 1999).

Testosterone and estradiol

The majority of the studies investigating the effect of obesity on total and free-testosterone levels report decreased levels (Table II). This reduction is presumably at least in part caused by the decrease in SHBG levels that will affect the half-life of testosterone (Jarow *et al.*, 1993; Giagulli *et al.*, 1994; Foresta *et al.*, 2009). Whether the reduction in testosterone levels is sufficient to exert a biological effect, influencing spermatogenesis, is a subject of debate. In mild to moderate obese males, the decrease in total testosterone is thought

to be biologically ineffective, as SHBG levels are concomitantly decreased (Kley *et al.*, 1981). In massively obese males, however, the decrease in SHBG is too small to compensate for the decrease in testosterone levels, resulting in a marked reduction in free-testosterone levels in this subgroup of subjects.

Several explanations have been offered for the decrease in testosterone levels in overweight and obese subjects. Due to the decrease in SHBG levels, more testosterone is available to be converted into estradiol in fat tissue (e.g. Foresta *et al.*, 2009). In some cases, this has led to a modest increase in plasma estradiol levels (e.g. Schneider *et al.*, 1979) but even if estradiol levels are not increased, the testosterone (T)/estradiol (E₂) ratio may be decreased due to the decreased testosterone levels. In humans, a decrease in T/E₂ ratio has been shown to be associated with infertility (Pavlovich *et al.*, 2001). Although it is doubtful whether these relatively small changes are sufficient to alter testicular steroid concentrations and influence spermatogenesis, one has to keep in mind that estradiol can exert a physiological effect at a much lower concentration than testosterone (Hammoud *et al.*, 2008).

Treatment of morbid obese patients with aromatase inhibitors, such as testolactone, letrozole or anastrozole, to prevent the conversion of testosterone into estradiol, results in normalization of testosterone levels, suppression of estradiol levels and in some cases, to normalization of spermatogenesis and fertility (Pavlovich *et al.*, 2001; Raman and Schlegel, 2002; Zumoff *et al.*, 2003; De Boer *et al.*, 2005; Roth *et al.*, 2008). Unfortunately, in most cases, these studies are not case-controlled and include a limited number of subjects. Therefore, it is too early to draw any conclusions about the use of aromatase inhibitors as a possible treatment for obesity-related fertility problems.

Another way to improve the T/E₂ ratio is by suppressing estradiol levels with anti-estrogens. Treatment of normal-weight men suffering from idiopathic oligozoospermia with the anti-estrogen tamoxifen citrate results in improved sperm quantity and quality (Adamopoulos *et al.*, 1997). When this treatment is combined with testosterone undecanoate, sperm variables are improved even further, resulting in a higher pregnancy incidence (Adamopoulos *et al.*, 1997, 2003; reviewed in Liu and Handelsman, 2003). Despite these positive results, no case-controlled study has been published yet in which this treatment was applied to overweight/obese subjects suffering from reduced fertility.

It has also been suggested that the mildly elevated estradiol levels in obese men influence pituitary gonadotrophin release by affecting LH pulsatility and bioactivity without influencing plasma LH levels (Veldhuis and Dufau, 1987). In line with these observations, Vermeulen (1993) reported a reduction in the frequency of the large amplitude LH pulses in obese subjects.

FSH and LH

Sertoli cells provide developing germ cells with structural and hormonal support. The number of Sertoli cells in the adult testis determines both testis size and daily sperm production, as each Sertoli cell can only support and nourish a fixed number of germ cells (Orth *et al.*, 1988; Brendtson and Thompson, 1990). In human males, Sertoli cells undergo two distinct periods of proliferation, in the neonatal and in the (peri)pubertal period. Suppression of FSH levels during these periods reduces the final number of Sertoli cells in adulthood

(reviewed in Sharpe 2003). Both the neonatal and (peri)pubertal increases in Sertoli cell number are paralleled by a rise in circulating inhibin-B levels (Andersson et al., 1998; Winters and Plant, 1999; Winters et al., 2006). Winters et al. (2006) further observed that inhibin-B levels were lower in obese young adult men compared with normal-weight men, whereas inhibin-B levels were unrelated to BMI among prepubertal boys. Winters et al. hypothesize that this reduction in inhibin-B levels reflects suppressed Sertoli cell proliferation during puberty. Support for this assumption comes from Globerman et al. (2005) who report that the low levels of inhibin-B in some morbidly obese men fail to increase after weight loss, despite a rise in testosterone levels. This implicates that the negative impact of obesity on Sertoli cell proliferation during (peri)puberty might compromise male reproductive function in adulthood. Unfortunately, these conclusions are based on inhibin-B levels as a surrogate marker for Sertoli cell numbers, while Sertoli cell proliferation and plasma FSH levels as such have not been determined in obese (peri)pubertal boys. Therefore, the hypothesis by Winter et al. still needs to be confirmed.

As discussed above, estradiol levels are mildly elevated in overweight and obese subjects. Besides influencing LH pulsatility (Veldhuis and Dufau, 1987), it has been hypothesized that these elevated estradiol levels may also influence GnRH, LH and FSH release, resulting in hypogonadotropic hypogonadism and decreased fertility in overweight and obese subjects (reviewed in Strain et al., 1982; Jensen et al., 2004; Hammoud et al., 2006; Fig. 1). Careful screening of the available literature shows that there is not much support for this assumption as the majority of the studies do not report changes in LH and FSH levels in overweight and obese men (Table II). The reason for this may be that the, in general, small elevation in estradiol levels is counteracted by the concomitant small decrease in testosterone levels with as net result no change in gonadotrophin release. Despite this, there is a subset of men in whom obesity is correlated with significantly reduced gonadotrophin levels and subsequent hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (Table II). Possibly, these men suffer from a genetic predisposition that together with the obese condition leads to reduced fertility or even infertility. In the second part of this review, an attempt will be made to offer an explanation for this phenomenon.

Leptin

An alternative explanation for the obesity-related reduction in testosterone levels may be the impairment of Leydig cell function. Testosterone levels are inversely correlated with circulating leptin levels, an adipokine produced by adipocytes and which receptor is expressed by Leydig cells (Caprio et al., 1999; Isidori et al., 1999; Ishikawa et al., 2007). In an *in vitro* study using rodent Leydig cells, it is shown that leptin at concentrations within the range present in obese men directly inhibits hCG-stimulated testosterone production by inhibiting the conversion of 17OH-progesterone to testosterone (Caprio et al., 1999; Isidori et al., 1999).

Besides influencing testicular function through Leydig cell testosterone production, leptin may also have a direct effect on germ cells. Spermatozoa express a functional leptin receptor in a stage-dependent way (El-Hefnawy et al., 2000). Furthermore, the presence of leptin has been demonstrated in spermatozoa in human male testes, while dysfunction of spermatogenesis is associated with increased testicular leptin levels (Ishikawa et al., 2007). Regrettably,

it is not clear from this study how leptin is able to reach the spermatozoa.

Leptin levels are correlated with adipose tissue mass (Tatti et al., 2001). Interestingly, plasma leptin levels correlate positively with semen leptin levels, thus an increase in plasma leptin levels may concomitantly lead to an elevated exposure of germ cells to leptin (Von Sobbe et al., 2003). In an *in vitro* study using washed human spermatozoa from normozoospermic donors, it is further demonstrated that leptin stimulates sperm motility (Lampio and du Plessis, 2008). However, the possible consequences of prolonged increased exposure to leptin for sperm cell quality and function are at present not clear.

Summary of endocrine effects

In conclusion, the endocrine profile of overweight and obese men is more clearly affected than semen parameters. Most studies report decreased plasma SHBG and testosterone levels (Table II). Surprisingly, in 88% of the studies, the decrease in testosterone levels does not coincide with reduced LH and FSH levels (Table II). Therefore, in analyzing the effects of overweight and obesity on male fertility, it is important to determine semen parameters and relate these to the endocrine profile of the men. Specific emphasis should be given to the pituitary–testis axis to determine whether the decrease in testosterone levels is caused by hypogonadotropic hypogonadism or Leydig cell dysfunction. This information would provide important clues for possible treatment.

In a recently published meta-analysis, MacDonald et al. show that 18 of the 20 included studies measuring testosterone levels and 15 of the 16 studies measuring SHBG levels report a negative relationship between increased BMI and plasma testosterone, free-testosterone and SHBG levels (MacDonald et al., 2010). Of the 12 studies that investigate free-testosterone levels, 10 report a negative correlation with BMI, although this relationship is not as strong as that for total testosterone or SHBG (MacDonald et al., 2010). The fact that, despite this negative correlation, most studies do not report changes in LH and FSH levels is not further discussed by these authors. The present review offers possible physiological explanations for the decrease in testosterone levels and the absence of changes in gonadotrophin levels.

Genetic obesity syndromes and human male fertility

Overweight and obesity are complex traits, in which interactions between environmental and multiple genetic factors lead to varied clinical presentations (Zondervan and Cardon, 2004). Indeed, a human genome-wide association study has shown that many loci are associated with obesity (Speliotes et al., 2010). The first gene to be causally implicated in obesity was leptin, originally identified in rodents (Zhang et al., 1994). Analysis of animal models of obesity has led to the identification of many other obesity genes. Most of these genes, as well as additional obesity-predisposing genes identified in association studies, encode molecular components of the physiological systems regulating energy balance (Duarte et al., 2007; Chamberland et al., 2009; Vimalaswaran and Loos, 2010). The most strong association with obese susceptibility has recently been revealed for gene variants of fat-mass- and obesity-associated (FTO) (Speliotes et al., 2010). However, it is beyond the scope of this review to provide an overview on the genetic predisposition to obesity, especially, since

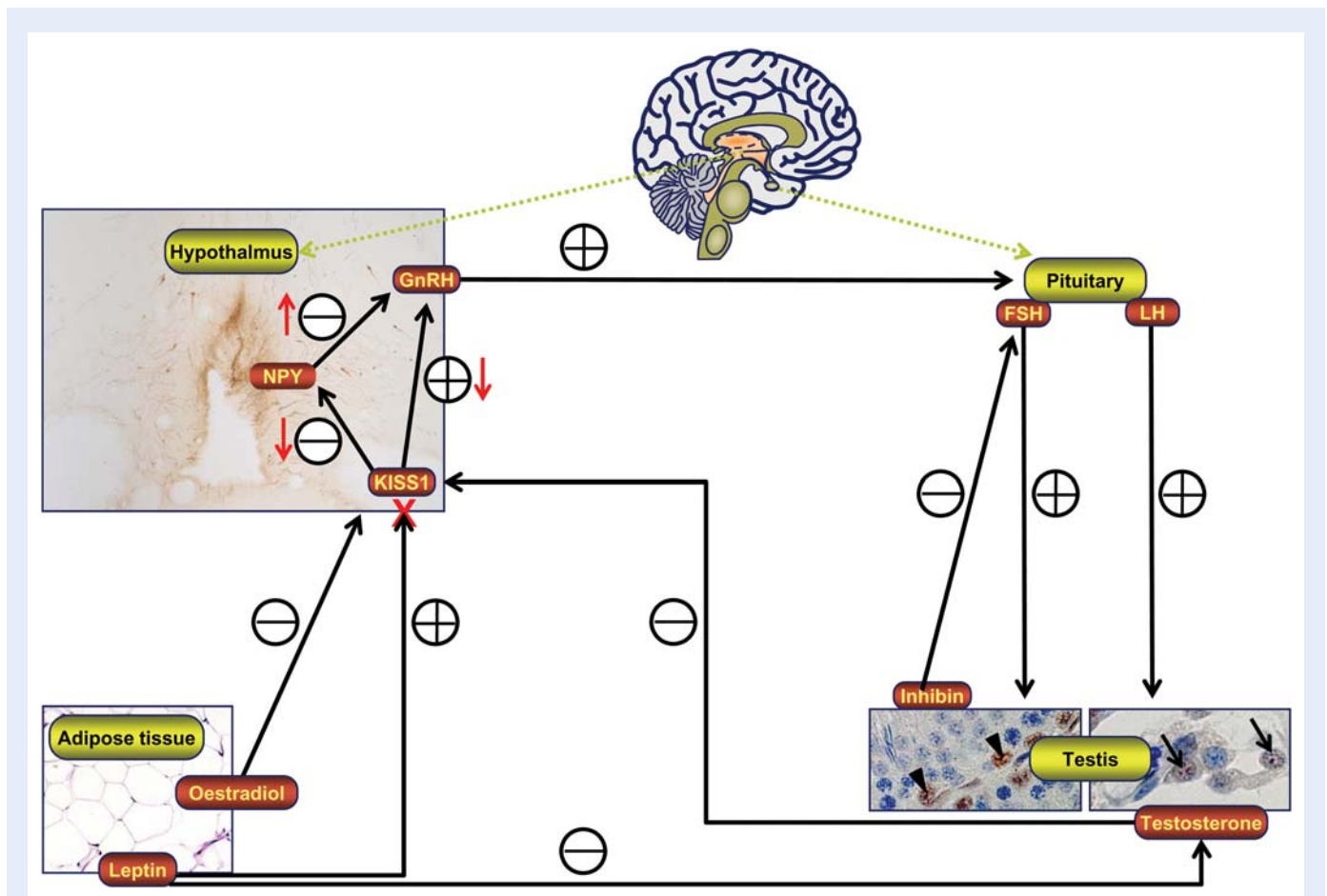


Figure 1 Schematic overview of the hypothalamic–pituitary–testicular axis: KISS1 and leptin resistance. GnRH released by the ARC of the hypothalamus stimulates the synthesis and release of the gonadotrophins FSH and LH by the pituitary. These gonadotrophins are transported to the testis where FSH stimulates, among others, inhibin production by the Sertoli cells (indicated by black arrowheads). Inhibin has a direct and specific negative feedback effect on the pituitary release of FSH. LH stimulates testosterone production by the Leydig cells (indicated by small black arrows). Testosterone has an indirect local effect on spermatogenesis by binding to its receptors in the Sertoli cell nuclei. After entering the circulation, testosterone can either be transported to the hypothalamus or to the adipose tissue, where it is converted to estradiol. Both testosterone and estradiol exert an indirect negative feedback effect on hypothalamic GnRH release through activation of KISS1 neurons. These neurons are found in large numbers in the ARC, possess androgen and estrogen receptors, and have been shown to make contact with the GnRH neurons in the ARC. KISS1 stimulates GnRH release. Besides influencing GnRH release, estradiol and testosterone have a direct negative effect on the release of FSH and LH by the pituitary. In normal-weight men, estradiol concentrations are extremely low and have a negligible effect on hypothalamic–pituitary function. On the contrary, in overweight and obese subjects, with increased adipose tissue volumes, more testosterone will be converted to estradiol. As a consequence, testosterone levels become slightly decreased while estradiol levels are somewhat increased. In general, these changes in steroid hormone levels compensate for each other, resulting in normal (unaffected) FSH and LH levels in most overweight and obese subjects (see also Table II). The major secretory product of the adipose tissue is the adipokine leptin. Leptin exerts several different effects in the body; among these, the inhibition of testosterone production. In normal-weight men, this effect is negligible, but in overweight and obese men, leptin levels increase and can have a direct inhibitory effect on Leydig cell testosterone production. Furthermore, leptin can stimulate, indirectly through activation of its receptors on the KISS1 neurons, GnRH release. Besides projecting to the GnRH neurons, KISS1 neurons also make contact with the NPY neurons in the ARC. In this way, leptin can influence the expression of NPY and prevent the NPY neurons from inhibiting GnRH release. In normal-weight men, NPY expression is kept in abeyance by leptin and therefore its effect on GnRH release is thought to be negligible. In overweight and obese men with normal fertility, leptin levels are normal or elevated (Table II). The leptin receptors (LRb) on the KISS1 neurons function normally, indirectly stimulating GnRH release and suppressing NPY. We hypothesize that the subcategory of overweight/obese men with fertility problems may suffer from leptin resistance; LRb no longer functions properly (indicated by a red cross), possibly due to a genetic predisposition or due to prolonged elevation of leptin levels. As a consequence, KISS1 expression becomes reduced, resulting in less stimulation of the GnRH neurons and reduced suppression of NPY expression (red arrows), leading to increased NPY levels. As a result, GnRH levels become even further suppressed, resulting in reduced LH and FSH release and hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. Although under this condition testosterone levels will also be reduced and therefore KISS1 neurons will be less suppressed by testosterone, this effect is too small to compensate for the effects induced by hypothalamic leptin resistance. Besides influencing GnRH release, NPY also has a direct effect on pituitary LH release, although this is not considered to be an important regulatory pathway.

Table II Overview of reported changes in hormone levels due to overweight and obesity (SHBG, steroid hormone-binding globulin; T, testosterone; E₂, estradiol; LH, luteinizing hormone; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; NI, not clearly indicated in reference).

Hormone levels	Overweight BMI >25 <29.99 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects	Obese BMI >30 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects
SHBG↓	Jensen et al. (2004)	299	Glass et al. (1977)	10
	Fejes et al. (2005)	81	Kley et al. (1981)	NI
	Aggerholm et al. (2008)	773	Strain et al. (1988)	11
	Wu et al. (2008)	1590	Jarow et al. (1993)	15
	Chavarro et al. (2010)	233	Giagulli et al. (1994)	40
	Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	63	Tchernof et al. (1995)	51
			Vermeulen et al. (1996)	50
			Pasquali et al. (1997)	63
			Isidori et al. (1999)	28
			Allen et al. (2002)	41
			Osuna et al. (2006)	NI
			Vincennati et al. (2006)	22
			Winters et al. (2006)	8
			Aggerholm et al. (2008)	163
			Wu et al. (2008)	786
			Foresta et al. (2009)	31
			Hammoud et al. (2009)	42
			Stewart et al. (2009)	36
			Chavarro et al. (2010)	127
			Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	21
SHBG normal range	Winters et al. (2006)	21	Jarow et al. (1993)	9
	Osuna et al. (2006)	NI	Pasquali et al. (1995)	8
			Roth et al. (2008)	1
			Hofstra et al. (2008)	149
Total T↓	Jensen et al. (2004)	299	Glass et al. (1977)	10
	Fejes et al. (2005)	81	Amatruda et al. (1978)	22
	Aggerholm et al. (2008)	773	Schneider et al. (1979)	NI
	Wu et al. (2008)	1590	Kley et al. (1981)	NI
	Chavarro et al. (2010)	233	Strain et al. (1982)	21
	Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	63	Strain et al. (1988)	11
			Zumoff et al. (1990)	NI
			Jarow et al. (1993)	15
			Giagulli et al. (1994)	40
			Pasquali et al. (1995)	8
			Tchernof et al. (1995)	51
			Vermeulen et al. (1996)	50
			Isidori et al. (1999)	28
			Allen et al. (2002)	41
			Zumoff et al. (2003)	6
			Luboshitzky et al. (2005)	5
			Mohr et al. (2005)	460
			Vincennati et al. (2006)	22
			Osuna et al. (2006)	NI
			Aggerholm et al. (2008)	163
			Pauli et al. (2008)	30
			Roth et al. (2008)	1
			Hofstra et al. (2008)	51
			Wu et al. (2008)	786
			Foresta et al. (2009)	31
			Hammoud et al. (2009)	42
			Stewart et al. (2009)	36
		Chavarro et al. (2010)	127	
		Hofny et al. (2010)	80	
		Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	21	
Total T normal range	Winters et al. (2006)	21	Jarow et al. (1993)	9
	Osuna et al. (2006)	NI	Giagulli et al. (1994)	11
	Hanafy et al. (2007)	80	Leenen et al. (1994)	37
			Winters et al. (2006)	8
			Hofstra et al. (2008)	98
			Hofny et al. (2010)	42

Continued

Table II Continued

Hormone levels	Overweight BMI >25 <29.99 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects	Obese BMI >30 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects
Free T↓	Wu <i>et al.</i> (2008)	1590	Amatruda <i>et al.</i> (1978)	10
			Kley <i>et al.</i> (1981)	NI
			Strain <i>et al.</i> (1982)	21
			Strain <i>et al.</i> (1988)	11
			Zumoff <i>et al.</i> (1990)	NI
			Giagulli <i>et al.</i> (1994)	22
			Pasquali <i>et al.</i> (1995)	8
			Vermeulen <i>et al.</i> (1996)	50
			Isidori <i>et al.</i> (1999)	28
			Allen <i>et al.</i> (2002)	41
			Zumoff <i>et al.</i> (2003)	6
			Mohr <i>et al.</i> (2005)	460
			Hofstra <i>et al.</i> (2008)	160
			Roth <i>et al.</i> (2008)	1
			Wu <i>et al.</i> (2008)	786
Free T normal range	Jensen <i>et al.</i> (2004) Winters <i>et al.</i> (2006)	299 21	Foresta <i>et al.</i> (2009)	31
			Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2009)	42
T / E ₂ ratio↓	Tchernof <i>et al.</i> (1995) Jensen <i>et al.</i> (2004) Fejes <i>et al.</i> (2005) Fejes <i>et al.</i> (2006) Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008) Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010) Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	51 299 81 NI 773 233 63	Glass <i>et al.</i> (1977)	10
			Schneider <i>et al.</i> (1979)	NI
			Giagulli <i>et al.</i> (1994)	18
			Winters <i>et al.</i> (2006)	8
			Hofstra <i>et al.</i> (2008)	160
			Schneider <i>et al.</i> (1979)	NI
			Jarow <i>et al.</i> (1993)	15
			Isidori <i>et al.</i> (1999)	28
			Zumoff <i>et al.</i> (2003)	6
			Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008)	163
			Hofstra <i>et al.</i> (2008)	149
			Pauli <i>et al.</i> (2008)	30
			Roth <i>et al.</i> (2008)	1
			Foresta <i>et al.</i> (2009)	31
			Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2009)	42
T / E ₂ ratio normal range	Winters <i>et al.</i> (2006)	21	Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	80
			Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	127
LH↑			Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	21
			Jarow <i>et al.</i> (1993)	9
LH↓			Winters <i>et al.</i> (2006)	8
			Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	80
LH normal range	Jensen <i>et al.</i> (2004) Fejes <i>et al.</i> (2006) Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008) Winters <i>et al.</i> (2006) Wu <i>et al.</i> (2008) Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010) Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	299 NI 773 21 1590 233 63	Kley <i>et al.</i> (1981)	NI
			Strain <i>et al.</i> (1988)	11
			Giagulli <i>et al.</i> (1994)	22
			Allen <i>et al.</i> (2002)	41
			Luboshitzky <i>et al.</i> (2005)	5
			Roth <i>et al.</i> (2008)	1
			Glass <i>et al.</i> (1977)	9
			Amatruda <i>et al.</i> (1978)	22
			Schneider <i>et al.</i> (1979)	NI
			Strain <i>et al.</i> (1982)	21
			Jarow <i>et al.</i> (1993)	24
			Giagulli <i>et al.</i> (1994)	18
			Pasquali <i>et al.</i> (1995)	8
			Isidori <i>et al.</i> (1999)	28
			Vincennati <i>et al.</i> (2006)	22
Winters <i>et al.</i> (2006)	8			
Aggerholm <i>et al.</i> (2008)	163			
Hofstra <i>et al.</i> (2008)	149			
Pauli <i>et al.</i> (2008)	30			
Wu <i>et al.</i> (2008)	786			
Foresta <i>et al.</i> (2009)	31			
Hammoud <i>et al.</i> (2009)	42			
Chavarro <i>et al.</i> (2010)	127			
Hofny <i>et al.</i> (2010)	42			
Ramlau-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2010)	21			

Continued

Table II *Continued*

Hormone levels	Overweight BMI >25 <29.99 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects	Obese BMI >30 (kg/m ²)	Number of subjects
FSH↑			Hofny et al. (2010)	80
FSH↓			Strain et al. (1982)	21
			Strain et al. (1988)	11
			Zumoff et al. (2003)	6
			Qin et al. (2007)	17
			Pauli et al. (2008)	30
			Roth et al. (2008)	1
FSH normal range	Jensen et al. (2004)	299	Glass et al. (1977)	9
	Fejes et al. (2006)	NI	Amatruda et al. (1978)	22
	Winters et al. (2006)	21	Schneider et al. (1979)	NI
	Qin et al. (2007)	241	Pasquali et al. (1995)	8
	Aggerholm et al. (2008)	773	Isidori et al. (1999)	28
	Chavarro et al. (2010)	233	Vincennati et al. (2006)	22
	Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	63	Winters et al. (2006)	8
			Aggerholm et al. (2008)	163
			Hofstra et al. (2008)	149
			Roth et al. (2008)	1
			Foresta et al. (2009)	31
			Hammoud et al. (2009)	42
			Stewart et al. (2009)	36
			Chavarro et al. (2010)	127
			Hofny et al. (2010)	42
			Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	21
Inhibin-B↓	Jensen et al. (2004)	299	Winters et al. (2006)	8
	Chavarro et al. (2010)	233	Aggerholm et al. (2008)	163
	Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	63	Pauli et al. (2008)	30
			Stewart et al. (2009)	36
			Chavarro et al. (2010)	127
			Ramlau-Hansen et al. (2010)	21
Inhibin-B normal range	Winters et al. (2006)	21		
	Aggerholm et al. (2008)	773		
Leptin↑	Hanafy et al. (2007)	50	Isidori et al. (1999)	28
			Hofny et al. (2010)	80
Leptin↓			Strobel et al. (1998)	1
Leptin normal range	Hanafy et al. (2007)	30	Hofny et al. (2010)	42
	Zorn et al. (2007)	210		

to our knowledge neither in the genome-wide association studies, nor in studies focusing on specific obesity-associated polymorphisms, the relation with male fertility has been investigated.

The most convincing evidence that the leptin gene and leptin receptor gene are involved in the development of obesity comes from subjects who suffer from complete loss of gene function. Characteristic features of the rare condition of classical congenital leptin dysfunction include hyperphagia and morbid obesity. Although polymorphisms in the leptin gene have not been related to reproductive disorders in males, subjects in which the leptin gene is completely ablated are unable to pass through puberty, resulting in infertility in adulthood when not treated. Thus far, 12 subjects have been identified who suffer from this genetic defect; in most cases, the defect in leptin synthesis is identified during childhood (Montague et al., 1997; Farooqi et al., 2002; Gibson et al., 2004; Farooqi and O'Rahilly, 2009). hCG treatment of an adult male suffering from this defect restored total testosterone and free-testosterone levels to the control range within 3 days, while a GnRH test in this patient revealed a normal FSH and

LH response (Strobel et al., 1998). In another study, males with this mutation received recombinant leptin over a period of 18 months, which improved their physical and metabolic condition enormously, and resulted in the initiation of puberty, growth of a penis and testes and normal ejaculation (Licinio et al., 2004).

Complete loss of function mutations in the leptin receptor gene are even more rare than in the leptin gene. So far five nonsense and four missense mutations have been identified in eight subjects. In general, these patients are of prepubertal age at the time of diagnosis, except for a 15-year-old male subject who demonstrated clear clinical signs of hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. His sex steroid hormone, LH and FSH levels were low, suggesting that pubertal development was prevented (Farooqi et al., 2007). Surprisingly, the phenotypic features of subjects with a mutation in the leptin receptor are less severe than in cases of leptin deficiency (Farooqi et al., 2007). Possibly, the leptin receptor can make use of more than one signaling pathway. Nevertheless, for normal reproductive development and fertility in humans, leptin and a functional canonical leptin receptor seem to be essential.

Animal models for overweight and obesity: effects on reproduction

Obese model animals frequently display reproductive problems. In the following section, an overview is presented of those animal models that may help us to understand the sometimes contradictory observations made in human studies concerning the relation between obesity and male infertility.

Leptin, leptin signaling and Kiss I

Mice with a loss of function mutation in the obesity (*ob*) gene are in general infertile with low sex steroid and gonadotrophin levels, as is the case in humans with the same defect. Testes of *ob/ob* mice are characterized by multinucleated spermatids, few spermatozoa and hypotrophic interstitial tissue with Leydig cells that have an abnormal fibroblast-like morphology. However, within the *ob/ob* testis, there are also regions in which tubular morphology and spermatogenesis are apparently normal (Mounzih *et al.*, 1997; Bhat *et al.*, 2006), possibly offering an explanation for the few occasions that *ob/ob* males have been reported to reproduce successfully (Lane and Dickie, 1954; Mounzih *et al.*, 1997).

The underlying nature of the sterility in the *ob/ob* mice is thought to be of a central origin, presumably due to a hypothalamic defect, as evidenced by low levels of FSH, LH and sex steroids (Runner, 1954). Low levels of gonadal steroids should stimulate gonadotrophin secretion in the presence of a functioning hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal feedback mechanism (Fig. 1). However, in the *ob/ob* mouse, this is obviously not occurring. Indeed, more recent results from Swerdloff *et al.* (1976) indicate that the hypothalamic–pituitary sensitivity in *ob/ob* mice is altered. Further evidence for a hypothalamic defect comes from a study showing that exogenous GnRH administration to *ob/ob* mice leads to increased LH levels (Swerdloff *et al.*, 1978). Leptin treatment of *ob/ob* mice results in a significant decrease in body weight as well as an increase in testis and seminal vesicle weights, plasma FSH levels, and normal spermatogenesis and Leydig cell morphology (Barash *et al.*, 1996; Chehad *et al.*, 1996; Cioffi *et al.*, 1996; Mounzih *et al.*, 1997). The observation that male *ob/ob* mice on a feed-restricted diet losing about the same amount of weight, are unable to impregnate normal lean female mice, indicates that, with leptin treatment, it is leptin itself that is responsible for the restoration in fertility and not the decrease in body weight (Mounzih *et al.*, 1997).

The genetic background on which the mutation is maintained may influence the severity of the infertility-associated state of *ob/ob* mice. The sterility of *ob/ob* mice on a C57BL/6J background was at least partially corrected in the absence of leptin by cross-breeding with BALB/cj mice. The transfer of the *ob* mutation onto a BALB/cj-background results in a clear improvement of the obesity-associated fertility problem. Not surprisingly, the testicular histology of F₂ *ob/ob* males on a BALB/cj mixed background is significantly better than on a homogenous C57BL/6J background. This suggests that the stimulatory effect of leptin on the reproductive system can, at least in part, be substituted genetically by modifier genes or allelic variants brought onto the obese-sterile phenotype by a mouse strain different from the one on which the *ob* mutation is maintained. Interestingly, the leptin-independent genetic rescue of sterility in the F₂ BALB/cj *ob/ob* mice was applicable only to obese males and not to obese

females, implicating that leptin is essential for the initiation of reproduction in females and cannot be substituted at least partially, as in males, by the effect of modifier genes (Ewart-Toland *et al.*, 1999).

The *db/db* mouse has a loss of function mutation in the leptin receptor. As in humans, this mutation, among others, results in severe early-onset obesity, insulin resistance, hyperphagia and infertility. There are multiple alternatively spliced isoforms of the leptin receptor (LRa to LRf), of which only the long form (isoform b, LRb) is able to mediate leptin signaling (Lee *et al.*, 1996; Tartaglia, 1997). Mutations of the leptin receptor have also been described in the rat. The Zucker rat has a recessive mutation in the leptin receptor and shows many similarities with the *db/db* mouse. In young male rats, fertility can be improved by food restriction or by treating the males with extremely high doses of testosterone. Although adult male Zucker rats have a normal LH and FSH response upon GnRH stimulation, testicular morphology is different from lean control rats. The Leydig cells show a hypertrophied morphology and contain many lipid droplets indicative of a disturbed function. Infertility in these rats is thought to be the consequence of reduced testosterone levels (Young *et al.*, 1982).

The nonsense mutation in the leptin receptor of the obese Koletsky rat causes a phenotype very similar to that in the Zucker rat, as obese male Koletsky rat are also infertile and have reduced GnRH levels in the hypothalamus. What the consequences of the leptin receptor mutation are for the testis of the Koletsky rat is not known (Rhinehart *et al.*, 2004).

Animal model studies have made clear that following binding to its receptor, leptin can activate several signaling pathways. In order to investigate which pathway is involved in the effects of leptin on male fertility, several mutant leptin receptor mouse models have been generated. Binding of leptin to LRb activates Jak 2, leading to phosphorylation and dimerization of signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (Stat3) which then acts as a transcription factor to regulate transcription of leptin target genes (Münzberg *et al.*, 2005; Piper *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, leptin has been suggested to signal via the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase and ERK pathways. This assumption is supported by the fact that the *db/db* phenotype is less severe than the *ob/ob* phenotype (Niswender *et al.*, 2001; Münzberg *et al.*, 2005; Xu *et al.*, 2005). Additional support for an alternative signaling pathway comes from Farooqi *et al.* (2007) who reported that, as in mice, in general the phenotypic features seen in human subjects with leptin-receptor deficiency are not as severe as those in subjects with leptin deficiency.

To study whether leptin influences fertility through the Stat3 pathway or one of the other signaling pathways, mouse models have been established in which leptin receptor-mediated Stat3 signaling was partially or completely prevented. Bates *et al.* (2003) generated a *lepr*^{S1138} mutant in which the encoded protein fails to induce Stat3 tyrosine phosphorylation and nuclear translocation, while LRb is expressed on the cell surface and normally mediates other leptin signals. *Lepr*^{S1138} homozygotes are hyperphagic and obese, but in contrast to *db/db* mice, these mutant mice are fertile, suggesting that the hypothalamic control of reproduction by leptin is predominantly regulated by signaling pathways other than Stat3 (Bates *et al.*, 2003). These observations were confirmed by Piper *et al.* (2008) who used a genetic strategy to disrupt Stat3 function, especially in neurons expressing LRb, such that Stat3 signaling was abolished only in relevant cell

types and only after the onset of LRb expression. In contrast to these studies, Gao et al. (2004), using a different approach, generated a neural-specific deletion of Stat3 by using gene targeting to create a conditional Stat3 allele. These Stat3^{N-/-} mutants were like *db/db* mice hyperleptinemic and obese, suggesting that leptin did not lower body weight in these animals, thus rendering a phenotype closely resembling that of leptin-deficient mice. In contrast to the *lepr*^{S1138} and neural Stat3^{-/-} mutants (Bates et al., 2003; Piper et al., 2008), Stat3^{N-/-} mutants were infertile (Gao et al., 2004). The inconsistency between the Stat3 mutants is probably due to the nature of the mutations, with Stat3^{N-/-} mice ablating Stat3 directly and *lepr*^{S1138} mice having only diminished Stat3 activation by leptin (Bates et al., 2003; Gao et al., 2004). This does not, however, explain the conflicting results between the studies of the groups of Gao et al. (2004) and Piper et al. (2008). Possibly, the genetic background on which the mutants were generated provides an explanation for this apparent discrepancy. The Stat3^{N-/-} mice were generated on a background different from the mixed genetic background of the mutants generated by Piper et al. (2008), which is less severely affected by leptin deficiency as the C57BL/6J background (Ewart-Toland et al., 1999).

There are other indications that obesity in model animals does not always coincides with fertility problems. The effects of leptin in the hypothalamus are thought at least in part to be mediated by pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC) and its derivatives. Mutations in the POMC gene lead to severe obesity and reduced adrenal function both in humans and in mice (Krude et al., 1998; Yaswen et al., 1999). One of the products of the POMC gene is α -melanocyte-stimulating hormone (α -MSH), which binds with high affinity to the melanocortin 4 (MC4) receptor to inhibit appetite (Yeo et al., 1998). Mutation of the MC4 receptor in humans and mice leads to obesity (Yeo et al., 1998; reviewed in Carroll et al., 2004). The obesity observed in humans with a POMC null mutation or in *pomc* knockout mice is thought to be the result of the absence of MC4 stimulation (Krude et al., 1998; Yeo et al., 1998; Yaswen et al., 1999). Despite their obesity, MC4 receptor knockout mice are fertile (reviewed in Schiöth and Watanobe, 2002), while in *pomc* knockout mice, the fertility status is not known. As the focus of this part of the review is on animal models in which obesity coincides with infertility, these animal models are not further discussed.

Although leptin contributes to the regulation of the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis, GnRH neurons do not express leptin receptors, suggesting that leptin must act indirectly to regulate GnRH neuronal activity (Quennell et al., 2009). Downstream targets for leptin action include neuropeptide Y (NPY), agouti gene-related peptide, POMC, kisspeptin and nitric oxide synthase, all of which modulate GnRH neuronal activity and/or gonadotrophin levels (reviewed in Ojeda et al., 2006). In support of a role for kisspeptins (*Kiss1*, nomenclature as suggested by Gottsch et al., 2009) as intermediate in the communication between leptin and GnRH neurons, *Kiss1* mRNA levels in the arcuate nucleus (ARC) of the hypothalamus, a nucleus that contains large numbers of GnRH neurons, were significantly reduced in *ob/ob* mice in the absence of leptin (Smith et al., 2006). This effect could be reversed by treatment with leptin, implicating a causative relationship between the absence of leptin and suppressed *Kiss1* mRNA levels. These authors also showed that almost half of the *Kiss1* mRNA expressing neurons in the ARC expressed

LRb, suggesting that *Kiss1* neurons in the ARC are direct targets for regulation by leptin, providing further evidence for the presence of a neuro-endocrine leptin–kisspeptin–GnRH pathway (summarized in Fig. 1).

Several studies further support the importance of kisspeptins in the regulation of GnRH neuronal function. Irwig et al. (2004) were the first to show that centrally administered *Kiss1* stimulated the release of LH and FSH by the pituitary, and that this stimulation was dependent upon activation of the GnRH neurons. *In situ* hybridization and immunohistochemical studies demonstrated the presence of kisspeptin receptors (*kiss1r*) on GnRH neurons (Irwig et al., 2004; Herbison et al., 2010). Direct evidence for *Kiss1* modulation of GnRH neuronal activity came from *in vivo* studies in rats and monkeys treated with a potent kisspeptin antagonist. Intracerebroventricular injections of kisspeptin antagonist reduced serum LH levels in castrated male rats, and inhibited pulsatile GnRH release in female monkeys (Roseweir et al., 2009). Moreover, *Kiss1* mRNA expression in the ARC was increased following castration in male rats (Irwig et al., 2004), an effect that could be reversed by sex steroid replacement (Smith et al., 2005a, b). Analogous observations in other species, such as sheep, monkey and human (reviewed in Oakley et al., 2009; Pineda et al., 2010), suggested that *Kiss1* gene expression was under the negative feedback control of sex steroids. Indeed, most *Kiss1* neurons in the ARC co-expressed either the estrogen receptor α or the androgen receptor (Smith et al., 2005b).

These observations have led to the concept that the kisspeptins belong to the most potent activators of the hypothalamic GnRH system (Rao et al., 2008; reviewed in Oakley et al., 2009; Fig. 1). Moreover, as kisspeptin neurons also express functional leptin receptors, it is tempting to propose the hypothesis that the hypothalamic KISS1 system participates in the transmission of metabolic information to the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis (reviewed in Castellano et al., 2009).

NPY and leptin signaling

The hypothalamic neuropeptide NPY exerts rather complex effects on the hypothalamic–pituitary axis. In ovariectomized steroid-primed rats, NPY stimulates the gonadotropic axis (Kalra and Crowley, 1984a, b), while in castrated male rats and mice, central NPY administration inhibits the release of LH (Kerkerian et al., 1985; Raposinho et al., 1999). In line with the latter observations, in intact male rats chronic NPY infusion or repeated injections into the lateral ventricle result into severely reduced plasma LH and testosterone levels, reduced testicular and seminal vesicle weights, impaired sexual motivation, and hence a profound inhibition of the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis (Clark et al., 1985; Pierroz et al., 1996; Raposinho et al., 2000, 2001). Clearly, NPY is a major central regulator of reproductive functions.

The expression of NPY is negatively influenced by leptin as in *ob/ob* mice, which lack leptin, hypothalamic NPY levels are elevated (Stephens et al., 1995; Schwartz et al., 1996; Widdowson and Wilding, 2000). Treatment of *ob/ob* mice with leptin reduces NPY mRNA expression and induces fertility by improving the function of the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis (Stephens et al., 1995; Chehad et al., 1996; Mounzih et al., 1997). Food restriction in *ob/ob* mice results in a similar weight loss as leptin treatment but does not

reduce central NPY expression nor does it restore fertility (Mounzih *et al.*, 1997).

In massively obese *db/db* mice, hypothalamic NPY levels are dramatically increased. Generation of *db/db* transgenic mice carrying a neuron-specific leptin receptor results in a complete correction of obesity and related phenotypes, normalizes expression of NPY and restores fertility (De Luca *et al.*, 2005). Together, these data indicate that leptin is an important regulator of NPY expression.

The Y receptor family mediates the various functions of NPY and consists of several members, including Y4 (Blomqvist and Herzog, 1997). Significant amounts of Y4 mRNA have been found in the hypothalamus in areas involved in the regulation of reproductive functions, such as the paraventricular nucleus (Parker and Herzog, 1999; Larsen and Kristensen, 2000). Crossing the Y4 receptor knockout to an *ob/ob* background restores fertility in *ob/ob* mice. Plasma testosterone levels in the double knockouts are significantly higher than in *ob/ob* mice, as are testis and seminal vesicle weights, while testicular morphology is normal (Sainsbury *et al.*, 2002). Although these observations suggest an important role for the Y4 receptor in regulation of reproductive functions, it cannot be excluded that other NPY receptor subtypes are also involved. For example, the Y5 receptor subtype appears to be involved in the regulation of GnRH/LH release (Raposinho *et al.*, 1999, 2001), while the Y1 receptor subtype has been implicated in the inhibition of hypothalamic GnRH release (Sahab *et al.*, 2003).

Further support for a role of NPY in infertility of *ob/ob* mice comes from a study by Erickson *et al.* (1996) who crossed the *ob/ob* strain onto NPY-deficient mice. Fertility in these double knockout mice is significantly improved compared with the *ob/ob* single knockout mice.

NPY neurons in the ARC express LRb, suggesting that leptin can directly influence NPY activity. Recent evidence suggests, however, that binding of leptin to its receptor on these NPY neurons leads to activation of the STAT3 signalling transduction pathway (Draper *et al.*, 2010), a pathway most likely not involved in leptin's effects on fertility (Bates *et al.*, 2003; Piper *et al.*, 2008). The fertility-related effects of leptin on NPY expression most likely take place indirectly through the kisspeptin system, as Fu and Pol (2010) have recently shown that *Kiss1* inhibits NPY neuronal activity (Fig. 1).

Discussion

How do animal models help to understand the relation between obesity and fertility in humans?

The most surprising conclusion that can be drawn from the present analysis of the literature is that most overweight and obese men do not experience significant fertility problems, despite the presence of reduced testosterone levels and normal gonadotrophin levels, a conclusion recently also drawn by MacDonald *et al.* (2010). Only a subgroup of overweight and obese men suffers from hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. The animal models described in the second part of this review offer several possible explanations for this phenomenon. First of all, adipose tissue can be considered as an important endocrine organ (Wang *et al.*, 2010). It synthesizes and releases hormones and cytokines that can exert their effects elsewhere in the body. Under conditions of overweight or obesity, the levels of these adipokines may increase, resulting in a disturbance of homeostasis. For

example, elevated levels of leptin may negatively influence Leydig cell testosterone synthesis by inhibiting the conversion of 17OH-progesterone into testosterone.

Despite its direct effects on testosterone production at the testicular level, the peripheral effects of leptin on the activity of the GnRH neurons in the hypothalamus seem to be far more important in the regulation of testosterone production. Leptin does not directly affect the activity of the GnRH neurons in the hypothalamic ARC, but exerts its effect through activation of the LRb-expressing kisspeptin neurons in the ARC. The kisspeptin neurons in the ARC belong to the most potent activators of the hypothalamic (GnRH)/pituitary (LH/FSH)/gonadal axis, as they not only mediate the effects of leptin but also of sex steroids, on GnRH neuronal activation.

As discussed above, several animal models for obesity have made clear that NPY also plays an important role in obesity-related infertility (Fig. 1). NPY expression is under normal conditions negatively influenced by leptin. In the infertile obesity model animals, such as the *ob/ob* and *db/db* mice, NPY expression is significantly increased. Administration of leptin to *ob/ob* mice leads to a decrease in hypothalamic NPY expression and activation of reproductive function. ICV infusion of NPY to lean control animals leads to a reduction in GnRH and LH release and a disturbed reproductive function, suggesting that NPY directly influences fertility by inhibiting hypothalamic and pituitary function.

Obesity can lead to leptin resistance by either a defect in leptin transport over the blood–brain barrier, defects within the LRb signalling cascade (cellular leptin resistance) or defective neuronal wiring and functioning (reviewed in Münzberg, 2010). This may prevent a suppressive effect of leptin on NPY (Fig. 1).

Turning back to humans, chronically elevated leptin levels in males resulting from overweight and obesity may lead to leptin resistance. This can have two consequences: first of all, this will result in elevated NPY expression; secondly, the stimulatory effect of leptin on *KiSS1* gene expression will be reduced, alleviating the negative effect of *KiSS1* on NPY. Together this will affect hypothalamic GnRH and pituitary LH levels. Since the NPY phenotype does not explain leptin resistance in full, it seems likely that kisspeptins also affect GnRH release along other pathways. Ultimately, this may lead to a reduced activity of the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis and subsequent hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. It would be of interest to determine whether infertile overweight and obese males suffer from the same degree of leptin insensitivity as fertile overweight and obese subjects. This could, indirectly, give information about the possible role of kisspeptins and NPY in human obesity-related male infertility, thus offering a physiological basis for observations made in earlier reviews such as by Hammoud *et al.* (2006) and MacDonald *et al.* (2010). Based on the outcome of these investigations, animal model studies could then be used to develop methods to influence hypothalamic *KiSS1* and NPY levels and restore human male fertility in overweight and obese subjects who suffer from this type of hypogonadotropic hypogonadism.

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