

# **Prevalence and treatment of central hypogonadism and hypoandrogenism in women with hypopituitarism**

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## 1 **Abstract**

2

3 *Purpose:* Women with hypopituitarism have increased morbidity and mortality, and hypogonadism has been  
4 suggested to be a contributing mechanism. The purpose of this study was to investigate the prevalence of central  
5 hypogonadism and hypoandrogenism in women with hypopituitarism at a single Swedish center.

6 *Methods:* All consecutive women (n = 184) who commenced **growth hormone (GH)** replacement therapy at  
7 Sahlgrenska University Hospital in Gothenburg between 1995 and 2015 were included. In accordance with the  
8 Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guidelines, strict criteria, based on menstrual history combined with  
9 laboratory measurements, were used to define central hypogonadism. Hypoandrogenism was defined as  
10 subnormal levels of dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate and/or androstenedione.

11 *Results:* Central hypogonadism was present in 78% of the women, in 75% of those  $\leq 52$  years and in 82% of  
12 those  $> 52$  years of age. Hypoandrogenism was found in 61% of all the women and in 92% of those with  
13 **adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH)** deficiency. The estrogen substitution rate in hypogonadal women  $\leq 52$   
14 years was lower than the hormonal substitution rate in the other pituitary hormone axes (74% versus 100%,  $P <$   
15 0.001). The use of estrogen substitution tended to decrease between 2000 and 2016. Few women received  
16 androgen treatment.

17 *Conclusions:* In this first study of hypogonadism in women with hypopituitarism, using stringent diagnostic  
18 criteria for hypogonadism, the prevalence of central hypogonadism and low androgen levels was high and  
19 estrogen substitution was insufficient. Further studies are needed to elucidate the importance of hypogonadism  
20 and insufficient sex steroid replacement for the increased morbidity in hypopituitary women.

21

22 **Keywords:** Hypopituitarism, women, hypogonadism, estrogens, androgens, estrogen replacement therapy.

## 23 1. Introduction

24

25 Hypopituitarism has been associated with increased mortality, mainly due to the increased risk of death from  
26 cardiovascular events and infections [1-4]. Likely due to optimized treatment regimens, mortality in men with  
27 hypopituitarism has decreased in recent decades and now approaches the mortality of the background population  
28 [5-7]. In contrast, women with hypopituitarism still have increased mortality, mainly due to the increased risk of  
29 cardiovascular events [3,5-8]. In addition, women with hypopituitarism have poorer bone mineral density with a  
30 doubled fracture risk, compared with no increased fracture risk in hypopituitary men [9,10], and in a study from  
31 our own center, women with hypopituitarism with untreated hypogonadism had significantly more fractures, in  
32 contrast to women with an intact gonadal axis or estrogen treatment [11]. A nationwide Swedish study recently  
33 showed that women with hypopituitarism have a relatively higher risk of diabetes mellitus type 2, myocardial  
34 infarction, cerebral infarction and fractures, compared with hypopituitary men [10].

35           The reason why hypopituitary women have higher morbidity and mortality is not fully  
36 understood. Several theories have been discussed [5,12,13]: Firstly, estrogen deficiency may have been  
37 underdiagnosed and/or undersubstituted; secondly, low androgen levels in women with hypopituitarism may  
38 need substitution; and, thirdly, other pituitary deficiencies, such as hypocortisolism and **growth hormone (GH)**  
39 deficiency, may have been underdiagnosed and/or suboptimally treated in women [13,14].

40           Sex hormone substitution therapy to female patients is the main difference between the  
41 treatment of men and women, and some studies support the theory that hypogonadism is a key factor behind the  
42 increased mortality in hypopituitary women [3,15]. Surprisingly few studies have provided a comprehensive  
43 description of the prevalence and treatment of hypogonadism in women with hypopituitarism [14,8], and no  
44 earlier studies have applied the stringent criteria for central hypogonadism in the Endocrine Society's Clinical  
45 Practice Guidelines [16]. In addition, to our knowledge, there are no other studies presenting prevalence numbers  
46 on hypoandrogenism in women with hypopituitarism.

47           The aim of this study was to estimate the prevalence of central hypogonadism and  
48 hypoandrogenism in a cohort of Swedish women with hypopituitarism, and the extent to which the women  
49 received estrogen and androgen substitution.

## 50 **2. Materials and methods**

51

### 52 *Patient cohort*

53 At the Centre for Endocrinology and Metabolism (CEM), Sahlgrenska University Hospital, a registry of all **adult**  
54 patients who received treatment with GH started in 1990 (The Gothenburg Pituitary study). All female patients  
55 (n = 281) who started GH treatment at the CEM after 1995 were evaluated for the present study. Patients who  
56 started their treatment before 1995 were not included due to incomplete documentation during the first years of  
57 the registry. The exclusion criteria were hormonally active pituitary adenoma, except prolactinoma (n = 38),  
58 extrapituitary tumors or malignancies, except dermoid cysts and craniopharyngioma (n = 44), serious systemic  
59 diseases (n = 7), and malformations (n = 7). One patient died before any data had been registered. After  
60 exclusion of these patients, 184 women (**age range 17-77 years**) were included in the study. The date when GH  
61 therapy was initiated was denoted the “baseline” of the study. The local recommendation has been to initiate  
62 estrogen replacement at least three months before GH therapy. The patients were examined (including  
63 anthropometry) by a physician and fasting serum was collected for laboratory analyses at baseline and after six  
64 months, one year, and 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 12, 17, 20 and 25 years of follow-up.

65

### 66 *Data collection*

67 An endocrinology specialist (Dr. Olivius) made a retrospective evaluation of data in the medical records and in  
68 the registry. Hormone deficiencies and how they were diagnosed, hormone substitution treatment, hormonal  
69 levels and cigarette use were registered. Premenopausal age was defined as being 52 years or younger and  
70 postmenopausal age as being older than 52 years [17].

71

### 72 *Diagnosis of central hypogonadism.*

73 The retrospective evaluation of central hypogonadism was performed using the following stringent criteria,  
74 based on the recommendations in the Endocrine Society’s Clinical Practice Guidelines [16]: 1) In premenopausal  
75 women ( $\leq 52$  years of age), amenorrhea or severe oligomenorrhea without other gynecological explanation,  
76 supported by available measurements of serum estradiol, **luteinizing hormone (LH)**, **follicle-stimulating**  
77 **hormone (FSH)**, and, in a few cases, gonadotropin-releasing hormone stimulation test (n = 4); 2) in  
78 postmenopausal women ( $> 52$  years), amenorrhea with absence of both high FSH and LH, and no estrogen  
79 treatment; 3) in childhood-onset hypopituitarism, absent puberty and puberty induction; and 4)

80 panhypopituitarism, where other assessment was impossible, e.g., due to absence of FSH/LH measurements in  
81 postmenopausal women or estrogen treatment at the time of evaluation. Deficiencies of **adrenocorticotrophic**  
82 **hormone (ACTH), thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), GH and antidiuretic hormone (ADH)** were  
83 assessed by the attending physician.

84

85 *Lifetime assessment of estrogen substitution therapy*

86 **For the women fulfilling the criteria of central hypogonadism at any time point, a life-time assessment of**  
87 **the number of years with central hypogonadism was performed, using an integrated assessment as**  
88 **described above. Similarly, a life-time assessment of the number of years with estrogen substitution**  
89 **therapy was performed.** The implementation of estrogen substitution was calculated as the total number of  
90 **“estrogen-substituted years”** divided by the total number of **“estrogen-deficient years”** until 52 years of age  
91 **In essence, this is an estimate how well guidelines have been followed.**

92

93 *Laboratory analyses and definition of low androgen levels*

94 At baseline; i.e., the start of GH treatment, the routine laboratory analyses included serum testosterone,  
95 dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate (DHEAS) and androstenedione. The reference ranges for all three androgens  
96 varied between laboratories and changed several times during follow-up, making direct comparisons of androgen  
97 levels impossible. The DHEAS/androstenedione levels in the study were thus presented as being below, within  
98 or above the current reference ranges. The reference ranges of the DHEAS analyses were age-specific  
99 throughout the study period. For androstenedione, the reference ranges were age-specific until 2009. The  
100 testosterone analyses used at the time of this study had reference ranges with no exact lower reference limit,  
101 which made discrimination between low and normal testosterone levels difficult. Instead, testosterone levels  
102 were defined as being measurable or unmeasurable, according to the current lower limit of quantification (<  
103 0.35, < 0.4, < 0.7, or < 1.0 nmol/L). Serum estradiol, LH and FSH were not routinely analyzed at baseline, but  
104 had often been measured earlier in the patient’s medical history.

105 Having a low androgen level was defined in the present study as having a DHEAS and/or  
106 androstenedione level below the lower reference range, or ongoing androgen treatment at the time of androgen  
107 measurement, assuming these women had low androgen levels originally. Testosterone levels were not included  
108 in this definition, for the reasons detailed above.

109

110 *Ethics*

111 This study was approved by the Regional Ethical Review Board in Gothenburg, Sweden.

112

113 *Statistical analysis*

114 To determine the relationship between categorical variables, the Chi-square test and Fisher's exact test were

115 used. A p value of  $< 0.05$  was considered statistically significant. Statistical analyses were performed using the

116 IBM SPSS (version 24; SPSS Institute) software.

### 117 3. Results

118

#### 119 *Baseline characteristics*

120 **The mean ( $\pm$  SD) age at baseline was  $47.5 \pm 15.6$  years, with an age distribution as illustrated in Figure 1.**

121 **In the premenopausal age group ( $\leq 52$  years;  $n=108$ ) the mean age was  $37.0 \pm 10.7$  years and in the**

122 **postmenopausal age group ( $> 52$  years;  $n= 76$ ) the mean age was  $62.6 \pm 6.2$  years.** Due to the inclusion

123 criteria of the registry, all patients had GH deficiency, 70% had TSH deficiency, 52% ACTH deficiency, 24%

124 ADH deficiency, and 46% had panhypopituitarism (Table 1). Sixteen patients died during follow-up, eight

125 patients moved and three were lost to follow-up for other reasons.

126

#### 127 *Prevalence of central hypogonadism*

128 Using our criteria (see Methods), 143 women (78% of the participants) were determined to have central

129 hypogonadism. The diagnosis of central hypogonadism was mainly based on menstrual history in 60 (42%) of

130 the patients, low FSH and LH despite postmenopausal amenorrhea in 62 (43%), childhood-onset hypopituitarism

131 with puberty induction in 18 (13%), and panhypopituitarism, when other assessment was impossible, in three

132 patients (2%).

133 In the premenopausal age group ( $\leq 52$  years), 81/108 (75%) were hypogonadal; 76 were defined

134 as hypogonadal at baseline and five patients developed central hypogonadism later than baseline. In the

135 postmenopausal age group ( $> 52$  years), 62/76 (82%) were hypogonadal (premenopausal women vs.

136 postmenopausal women;  $P = 0.29$ ). In the older age group ( $> 52$  years), 88% had low LH and 83% had low FSH

137 according to the postmenopausal reference range of the local laboratory.

138

#### 139 *Estrogen treatment at baseline*

140 At the baseline visit; i.e., at the start of GH treatment when estrogen treatment should have been initiated

141 according to local guidelines, 56/76 (74%) of the hypogonadal women of premenopausal age ( $\leq 52$  years) were

142 treated with estrogen. Treatment was more common among relatively younger women; 43/51 (84%) of the

143 women  $< 45$  years versus 13/25 (52%) of the women aged 45-52 years ( $P < 0.01$ ). The substitution treatment

144 rate was significantly lower in the gonadotropic axis compared with the other pituitary axes, 74% versus 100%

145 ( $P < 0.001$ , Table 1). The reasons for not treating the remaining 20 patients with estrogen were unclear medical

146 records for eight patients, adverse side effects for four, near menopausal age for three, partial deficiency with  
147 sporadic menstruations for three, earlier cerebral infarction for one and fear of side effects for one patient(s).

148           Among the older women with central hypogonadism (>52 years), 15/62 (24%) had estrogen  
149 treatment at the time of the baseline visit.

150

#### 151 *Estrogen treatment over time*

152 To analyze estrogen treatment over time, the proportion of all women who received estrogen treatment in the  
153 year 1996, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2012 and 2016 was recorded (Figure 2). In the older age group (all women > 52  
154 years of age), the estrogen treatment rate decreased sharply during the same time period ( $P < 0.001$ , Figure 2).  
155 There was a trend towards less estrogen substitution treatment also in the younger women ( $\leq 52$  years) with  
156 central hypogonadism, from 91% in the year 2000 to 73% in 2016 ( $P = 0.12$ ).

157

#### 158 *Lifetime assessment of estrogen substitution therapy*

159 For 91 women in the study, estrogen therapy was indicated at any time before or after the study had started due  
160 to central hypogonadism and age  $\leq 52$  years at the time of this diagnosis. The implementation of estrogen  
161 substitution, calculated as the total number of “**estrogen-substituted years**” divided by the total number of  
162 “**estrogen-deficient years**” until 52 years of age, was 809/1253 (65%). It is noteworthy that **only** 54% of the  
163 women with an indication for estrogen treatment received estrogen 75-100% of the time, while 46% received  
164 estrogen treatment 0-74% of the time with a treatment indication.

165           Estrogen substitution therapy was prescribed and followed up in collaboration with a  
166 gynecologist. At baseline, the treatment was administered as oral estrogen in 55/78 (71%) patients, transdermal  
167 estrogen in the form of patches or gel in 14/78 (18%) patients, and as combined oral contraceptives in 9/78  
168 (12%) patients. The active substance was estradiol in 61 (78%) of the medications, ethinylestradiol in nine  
169 (12%), which were the oral contraceptives, conjugated estrogens in four (5%), estriol in three (4%) and tibolone  
170 in one patient (1%).

171

#### 172 *Prevalence of low androgen levels*

173 A majority of the patients in whom androgens had been measured had levels below the lower reference limit of  
174 DHEAS (53%), androstenedione (51%) or unmeasurable levels of testosterone (62%), **and the prevalence of**



175 **low levels was similar in the younger ( $\leq 52$  years) and older ( $>52$  years) age groups.** Five women had  
176 ongoing androgen treatment at the time of measurement.

177           Low androgen levels, defined as low DHEAS and/or low androstenedione and/or ongoing  
178 androgen treatment, were found in 99/163 (61%) of the women with DHEAS and/or androstenedione  
179 measurements **available (Table 2)**. For sixteen patients (9%), no androgen levels were recorded.

180           Of the women with ongoing estrogen treatment, 49/64 (77%) had low DHEAS and/or  
181 androstenedione levels, compared with 45/96 (47%) of those with no estrogen treatment at the time of  
182 measurement. Low androgen levels were more common among patients with ACTH and/or LH/FSH deficiency  
183 (central hypogonadism; **Table 2**).

184

#### 185 *Androgen treatment*

186 Of all the women, 32/184 (17%) received androgen treatment at any time during follow-up; 26 were treated with  
187 dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA), three with testosterone and three with other androgenic steroids. Of the 32  
188 women who received androgen treatment, 18 patients experienced positive effects and continued treatment and  
189 14 discontinued treatment due to a lack of effect ( $n = 4$ ), unwanted side effects such as acne, nausea and hair loss  
190 ( $n = 3$ ), or for unknown reasons ( $n = 7$ ).

191           To analyze androgen treatment over time, the proportion of all women who received androgen  
192 treatment in the year 1996, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2012 and 2016 was recorded, showing no change in the  
193 substitution rate over time (Figure 2).

## 194 4. Discussion

195  
196 In this large and well-defined patient cohort of women with GH deficiency due to hypopituitarism, a majority  
197 had central hypogonadism, according to the criteria of the Endocrine Society's Clinical Practice Guidelines [16].  
198 Low androgen levels were common in the study cohort. The substitution treatment rate was significantly lower  
199 in the LH/FSH axis than in the other pituitary axes. The proportion of younger women ( $\leq 52$  years) with central  
200 hypogonadism who received estrogen therapy tended to decrease from 2000 to 2016. Few of the women received  
201 androgen treatment.

202 To our knowledge, this is this first study using stringent criteria to define central hypogonadism,  
203 based on the Endocrine Society's Clinical Practice Guidelines [16], in a cohort of women with hypopituitarism.  
204 Despite that, the prevalence of hypogonadism in the present study, 78%, is higher than previously reported in  
205 other studies. A Danish study reported that 38% of the women (0-91 years,  $n = 1794$ ) with GH deficiency had  
206 hypogonadism [8], and in another study of women (18-50 years,  $n = 628$ ) with GH deficiency, 50% had  
207 hypogonadism [14]. A reason for this discrepancy between the present and previous studies may be that partial  
208 gonadal deficiencies are easily missed, e.g., due to the cyclic variations in estradiol, LH and FSH, and the fact  
209 that partially deficient women may still have oligomenorrhea [16]. Indeed, the diagnostic criteria for  
210 hypogonadism differed between these three studies [8,14]. The validity of our data is strengthened by the fact  
211 that we found a similar prevalence of hypogonadism in younger (75%) and older (82%) women. While both low  
212 LH and FSH levels were required for a diagnosis of central hypogonadism in our study, the high prevalence  
213 figure in the older age group is further supported by the fact that as many as 88% of the women  $> 52$  years had  
214 LH levels below the normal postmenopausal range.

215 According to the clinical guidelines, estrogen replacement is recommended in hypopituitary  
216 women with hypogonadism until the age of the natural menopause [16]. The substitution treatment rate among  
217 women of premenopausal age in the present study was significantly lower in the gonadal axis (74%) than in the  
218 other pituitary axes. This figure is similar to that of a Danish study of GH-deficient patients from 2007, where  
219 the proportion of women with central hypogonadism  $< 55$  years of age who received estrogen substitution was  
220 78% [8]. In a study of hypopituitary patients of all ages, studied retrospectively between 1967 and 1994, only  
221 27% of the women with hypogonadism received estrogen substitution treatment, possibly illustrating a  
222 historically even lower substitution treatment rate [18]. In a lifetime assessment of estrogen substitution, we  
223 found that only half of the women received estrogen treatment during 75-100% of their estrogen-deficient years,

224 **further illustrating that most women in our study did not receive adequate estrogen substitution therapy;**  
225 to our knowledge, no similar analyses have previously been performed.

226           Several studies suggest cardiovascular benefits of estrogen replacement therapy in younger  
227 [19,20], but not older, women with central hypogonadism. Estrogen replacement therapy in hypogonadal women  
228 also protects against fractures [11,21,22]. It may thus be speculated that the undertreatment with estrogen could  
229 be one of the factors behind the increased morbidity and mortality among women with hypopituitarism.

230           One reason for the undertreatment with estrogen in relation to the guidelines could be that  
231 estrogen therapy is prescribed by a gynecologist and not by the endocrinologist, potentially leading to poorer  
232 control of the substitution treatment. A second reason could be adverse side effects, which was the most  
233 commonly reported reason for not using estrogen therapy in this study. A third reason could be the fear of  
234 causing a late-term increased risk of breast cancer, thromboembolism or cardiovascular events, especially after  
235 the Women's Health Initiative (WHI) study was published in 2002 [23]. Indeed, in the present study, the  
236 decreased estrogen therapy to women > 52 years with hypogonadism might reflect a reluctance towards estrogen  
237 treatment after publication of the WHI results. Estrogen supplementation use in postmenopausal women of the  
238 general population in the same region decreased from 37% to 10% during approximately the same time period  
239 (1995 to 2008) [24]. In parallel, the fracture frequency increased from 17% to 29% [24]. Other studies have  
240 shown a similar, decreasing trend in estrogen use in postmenopausal and hysterectomized women from 2002  
241 onwards [25]. One study found that the discontinuance rate of estrogen replacement therapy was lower in the  
242 "late post-WHI era", 2010-2013, compared with the "early post-WHI era", 2007-2009, which might indicate a  
243 change towards a somewhat more positive attitude towards estrogen treatment in the most recent years [26];  
244 however, no similar trend was seen in our cohort.

245           A majority of the women in this study had low DHEAS and/or androstenedione levels. There are  
246 few studies reporting prevalence rates of low androgen levels in hypopituitary women. One study found  
247 unmeasurable testosterone levels in 55% of the women with hypopituitarism [12]. In the present study, 70% of  
248 the women had unmeasurable testosterone levels. Importantly, unmeasurable testosterone levels, may—  
249 depending on the analysis method used—be a normal finding in women [27]. Recently, highly sensitive assays  
250 have been developed for analyses of low testosterone levels [28], and an important task for future studies will be  
251 to assess testosterone levels in women with hypopituitarism.

252           Low androgen levels may reflect deficiency of LH/FSH and/or ACTH and thereby insufficient  
253 androgen production by the ovaries and adrenals. Low DHEAS and/or androstenedione levels were consequently

254 more common in women with deficiency of LH/FSH, ACTH, or both. Low DHEAS/androstenedione levels were  
255 also more prevalent in the women with ongoing estrogen treatment than in the women without, and even more so  
256 in women with both central hypogonadism and ongoing estrogen treatment. The reason for this could be that  
257 estrogen treatment suppresses the androgen levels [29], and/or that central hypogonadism also manifests itself as  
258 androgen deficiency. Treatment with corticosteroids also suppresses androgen levels in women, which, in  
259 addition to the absence of ACTH, may contribute to lower androgen levels in ACTH-deficient women [27].

260           Few women received androgen treatment, and the androgen use did not change over time. There  
261 is currently no established laboratory definition of androgen deficiency in women. Hence, there is no consensus  
262 on whether women with hypopituitarism and low androgen levels should be prescribed androgen substitution or  
263 not. Limited data support a clinical improvement from androgen supplementation, but no studies of long-term  
264 benefits and risks are available [16,27]. However, androgens are important for bone mass in women and low  
265 androgen levels may be a contributing factor to the increased fracture risk in hypopituitary women [30]. Indeed,  
266 testosterone levels have been shown to correlate positively with bone mineral density, especially in older  
267 postmenopausal women [31]. Androgen receptor deficiency leads to increased atherosclerosis, dyslipidemia and  
268 adiposity in female mice, suggesting that androgens may play an important cardiometabolic role in women [32].  
269 In a randomized controlled study of transdermal testosterone in women with hypopituitarism, testosterone  
270 increased bone mass, sexual function and quality of life, and decreased fasting insulin and insulin resistance  
271 [12,33]. In a placebo-controlled study from our own center, a low dose of DHEA to hypopituitary women  
272 resulted in improved alertness, stamina, initiative and sexual relations in women with hypopituitarism, as  
273 reported by their spouses [34]. It remains unclear whether androgen deficiency has an impact on morbidity and  
274 mortality in hypopituitary women. Improved analysis methods for androgens may contribute to the delineation of  
275 a possible androgen deficiency syndrome in women. This might facilitate future studies of the long-term benefits  
276 and risks of androgen supplementation.

277           A limitation of the present study is that only **GH-treated** women were included and not all  
278 women with hypopituitarism at our center. **Unfortunately, no similar data were available for those without**  
279 **GH treatment.** This may have left out some of the older patients and those with poor general health, as well as  
280 patients with less severe pituitary disease. Those selected for GH replacement are generally younger and have  
281 more severe hypopituitarism [35]. A weakness in the comparison of treatment rates is that central hypogonadism  
282 was assessed retrospectively, while other pituitary deficiencies were determined by the attending physician.  
283 **Another limitation of the study was that laboratory methods and reference ranges changed during the**

284 **study, making direct comparisons of hormone levels impossible.** The strengths of the study include the  
285 consecutive inclusion of 184 well-controlled patients, followed up at one single center, and the long-term follow-  
286 up.

287                   In conclusion, central hypogonadism and low androgen levels were common in this unique study  
288 of women with hypopituitarism. The substitution treatment rate was lower in the LH/FSH axis than in the other  
289 pituitary axes. The proportion of women receiving estrogen therapy decreased between the years 2000 to 2016 in  
290 older women. Few women received androgen therapy. As women with hypopituitarism have a worse overall  
291 prognosis than men, further studies are needed to elucidate the importance of hypogonadism and sex steroid  
292 replacement for outcomes in women with hypopituitarism.

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## 8. Tables

**Table 1** Characteristics of the cohort of women with hypopituitarism

	All women, baseline (n = 184)
Age, mean (range)	47.5 (17-77)
<b>Body mass index</b> , kg/cm <sup>2</sup> mean (range)	29.4 (18.0-49.1)
Current smoking, n (%)	34 (18)
Diagnosis, n (%):	
Non-functioning pituitary adenoma	63 (34)
Idiopathic growth hormone deficiency	25 (14)
Craniopharyngeoma	23 (13)
Prolactinoma	17 (9)
Empty sella	16 (9)
Pituitary cyst	14 (8)
Hypophysitis	12 (7)
Sheehan's syndrome	10 (5)
Other <sup>a</sup>	4 (2)
ACTH	
Deficiency (number, % of all)	96 (52)
Substitution (number, % of the deficient)	96 (100)
TSH	
Deficiency (number, % of all)	129 (70)
Substitution (number, % of the deficient)	129 (100)
GH	
Deficiency (number, % of all)	184 (100)
Substitution (number, % of the deficient)	184 (100)
ADH	
Deficiency (number, % of all)	44 (24)
Substitution (number, % of the deficient)	44 (100)
LH/FSH	
Deficiency (central hypogonadism, number, % of all) <sup>b</sup>	143 (78)
Substitution (number, % of the deficient women ≤ 52 years, n = 76)	56 (74)
Panhypopituitarism <sup>c</sup> (number, % of all)	85 (46)

<sup>a</sup> Kallman's syndrome (n = 1), dermoid cyst (n = 1), traumatic brain injury (n = 2).

<sup>b</sup> Central hypogonadism. According to the retrospective evaluation.

<sup>c</sup> Deficiency of ACTH, TSH, GH and LH/FSH.

**Table 2** Prevalence of low androgen levels<sup>a</sup> in all women with hypopituitarism, women with ACTH deficiency, LH/FSH deficiency (central hypogonadism), or both

	Low androgen levels <sup>a</sup> , n (%)
Women	
All	99/163 (61)
With ACTH deficiency	82/89 (92)
With LH/FSH deficiency	
All	92/126 (73)
With estrogen treatment <sup>b</sup>	50/59 (85)
With ACTH and LH/FSH deficiency	77/83 (93)
With panhypopituitarism	73/78 (94)

Only women with available measurements of DHEAS and/or androstenedione were included in this analysis.

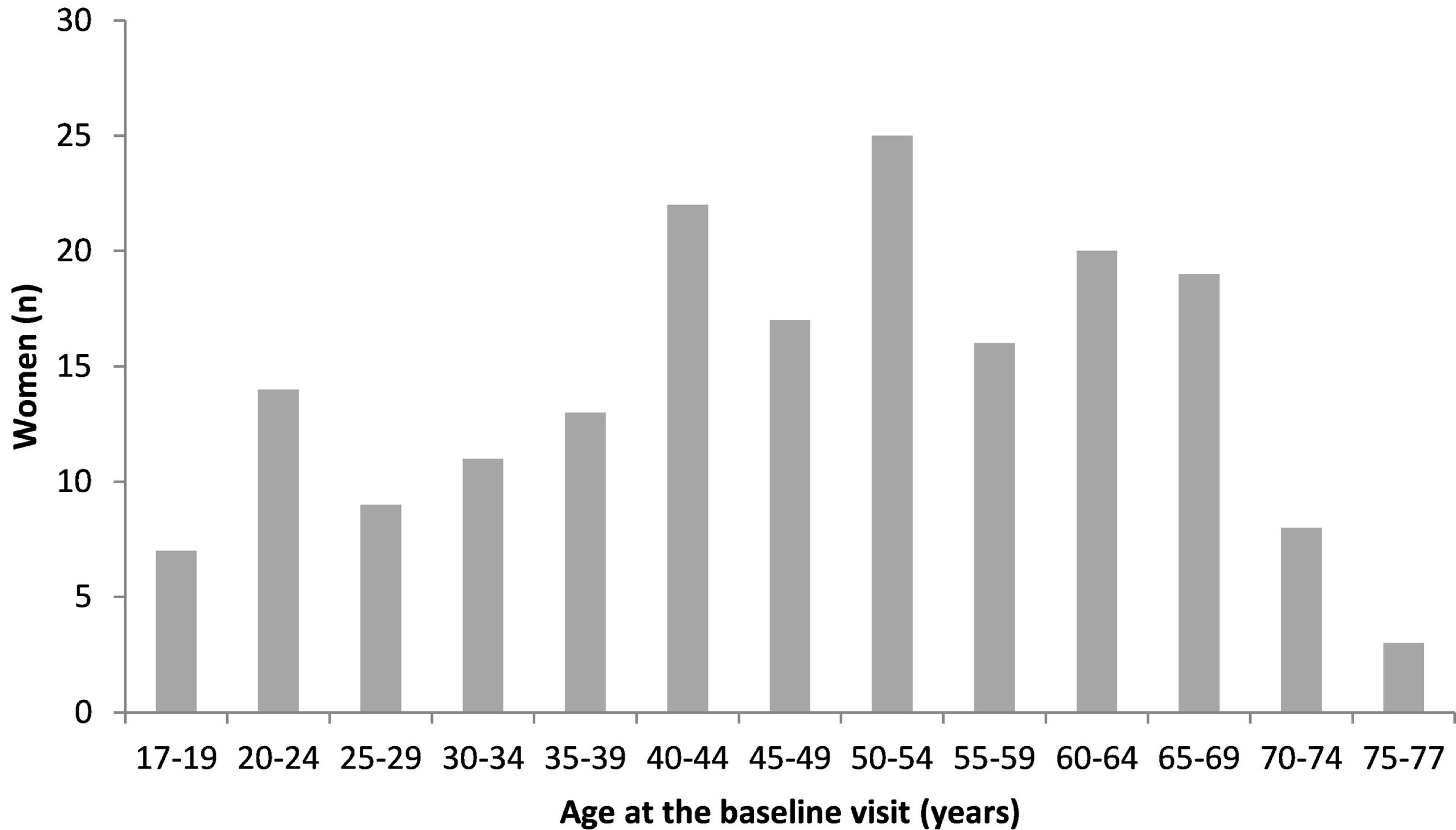
<sup>a</sup> Low (below lower reference limit) level of DHEAS and/or androstenedione, or ongoing androgen treatment (n = 5) at baseline.

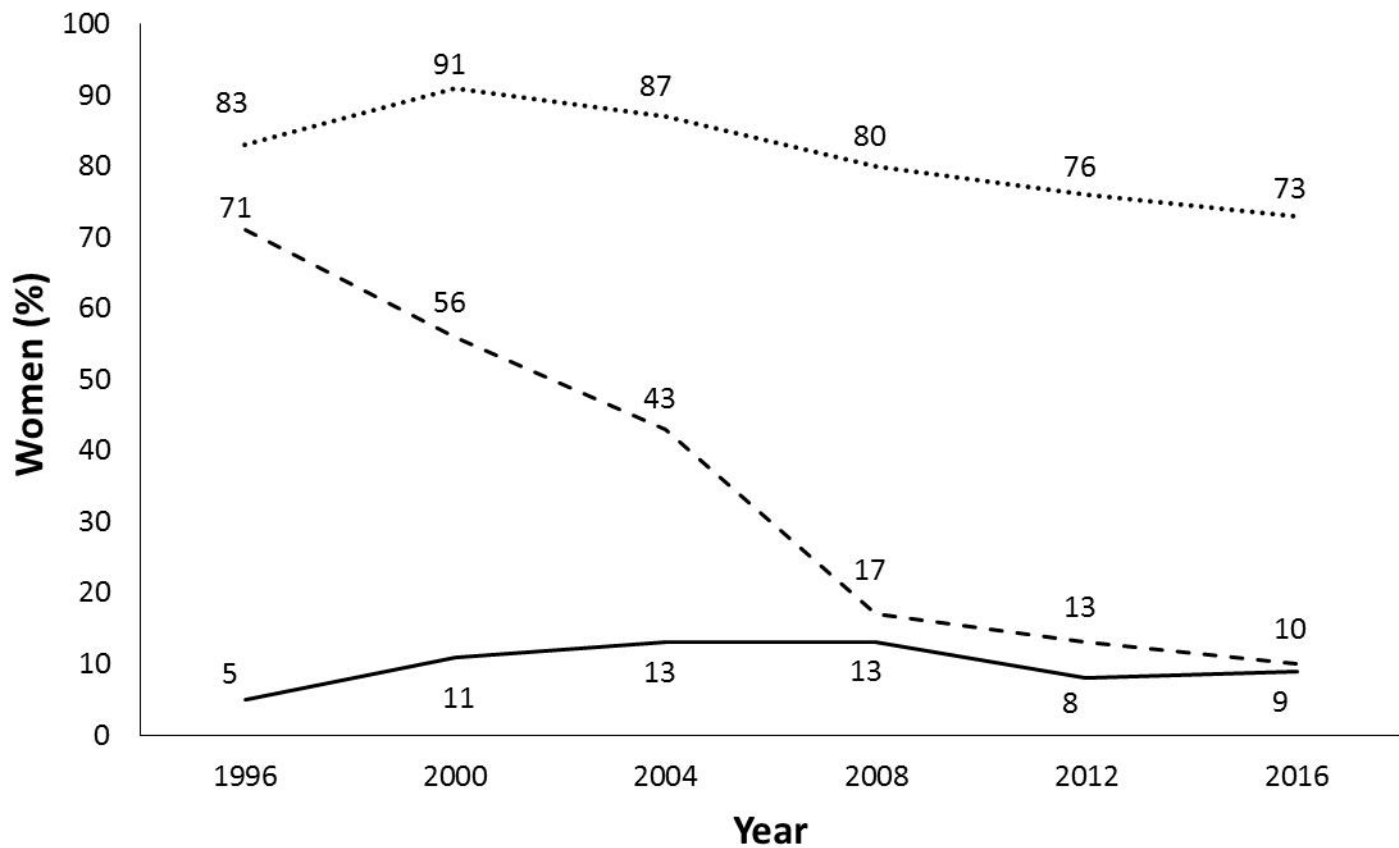
<sup>b</sup> LH/FSH deficiency (central hypogonadism) and estrogen treatment at the time of measurement.

## 9. Figure legends

**Fig. 1** Age distribution of the 184 women with hypopituitarism at the time of the baseline visit (i.e., at the start of GH therapy).

**Fig. 2** Estrogen and androgen treatment over time. The proportion (percentage) of women with hypopituitarism who received treatment in the year 1996, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2012 and 2016 was recorded. The age groups ( $\leq$  or  $>$  52 years) were updated for each year of assessment.





- ..... Estrogen treatment, % of women ≤52 years with central hypogonadism
- - - Estrogen treatment, % of all women >52 years
- Androgen treatment, % of all women