**CLINICAL RESEARCH** 

e-ISSN 1643-3750 © Med Sci Monit, 2018; 24: 9265-9271 DOI: 10.12659/MSM.910348





MEDICAL

SCIENCE

MONITOR

## Background

Pituitary adenomas (PAs) are the most common endocrine neoplasms in the hypothalamus-pituitary axis. They account for 5-15% of all intracranial tumors and are the third most frequent tumor type after meningiomas and gliomas in the general population [1,2]. According to the World Health Organization's 2004 classification of pituitary tumors, PAs can be classified into 7 types: prolactinoma, growth hormone (GH)-secreting adenoma, adrenocorticotropin (ACTH)-secreting adenoma, non-functioning adenoma, thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH)secreting adenoma, gonadotroph adenoma, and plurihormonal pituitary adenoma [3]. All these PAs are commonly associated with gonadal dysfunction [4–10]. For example, prolactinoma, the most common type of PAs representing approximately 40% of all pituitary tumors [11], is a major cause of gonadal dysfunction. Similarly, gonadal dysfunction is also commonly seen in 50-75% [13,14] of women with acromegaly or GHsecreting adenoma, another relatively common type of PAs with an estimated prevalence of 2.8-13.7 cases/100 000 population or overall prevalence of 54.5% in females [12]. Although studies [7,15-17] have proven that restoration of gonadal function can be achieved by surgery or drugs in women with PAs, its risk factors remain unclear. In the present study, we retrospectively evaluated the effects of trans-sphenoidal surgery in restoring gonadal function and risk factors of gonadal dysfunction among Chinese women of reproductive age with PAs after trans-sphenoidal surgery.

## **Material and Methods**

## Patients

This retrospective study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Shanghai Fifth People's Hospital, Fudan University, and informed consent was obtained from all patients. A total of 1015 patients with PAs were treated and followed-up regularly at our hospital between 2003 and 2012. Of these patients, 317 women with PAs with age at the time of treatment being 16–44 years old who underwent endocrinological evaluation and pituitary imaging were included. Patients were excluded if they had undergone previous surgery, medication or radiotherapy for adenomas, were taking contraceptives, or had been diagnosed with premature ovarian failure, dysplasia of the genital tract, ovarian tumors, or autoimmune thyroid diseases.

The diagnosis of PAs was based on clinical symptoms and signs, including amenorrhea, oligomenorrhea, galactorrhea, infertility, hirsutism, acne, enlargement of the hands and feet, headaches, and vision loss, and was confirmed using data derived from hormone testing, pituitary imaging, and immunohistochemistry of tumor specimens. For our analyses, the following data were collected: 1) age, 2) anthropometric measurements, including body mass index (BMI) in kg/m<sup>2</sup> and galactorrhea, 3) signs or symptoms of gonadal dysfunction, including menstrual disturbances, vaginal dryness, and reduced libido, 4) hormone testing data, 5) pituitary imaging data, and 6) postoperative menstrual status (normal: cycles of 21–35 days; oligomenorrhea: cycles of 35 days to 6 months; or amenorrhea: cycles >6 months).

# Pituitary imaging, hormone testing, and pathological diagnosis

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was used to detect and measure PAs and evaluate tumor invasion. Cases of microadenoma, macroadenoma, and giant adenoma were defined as tumors with diameters  $\leq$ 10 mm, 10–40 mm, and >40 mm, respectively. Invasive PAs were classified as Hardy class III or based upon imaging findings.

Blood testing was performed prior to and 1 day after the surgery to evaluate the serum levels of follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), luteinizing hormone (LH), estradiol ( $E_2$ ), testosterone, prolactin (PRL), growth hormone (GH), thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), free thyroxine (FT<sub>4</sub>), adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), and cortisol. Electrochemiluminescence immunoassays were used to test FSH, LH,  $E_2$ , testosterone, and PRL, and chemiluminescence assays were used to test for the remaining hormones. Tumor specimens were fixed in Bouin's solution and embedded in paraffin for pathological testing and immunocytochemistry. Functional PAs were defined as tumors with positive immunohistochemical results for PRL, GH, ACTH, TSH, or gonadotropin.

## Diagnosis of gonadal dysfunction

Gonadal function was assessed on the basis of menstrual status. After ruling out menopause, eumenorrhea and normal sex hormone levels were considered to indicate eugonadal condition, while menstrual disorders were considered gonadal dysfunction.

#### Treatment and follow-up

Of the 317 women included in this study, 291 women underwent trans-sphenoidal resection performed by the same experienced neurosurgeon (Shiqi Li at the Hua Shan Hospital, Fudan University); 12 women underwent craniotomy, 8 women were treated with bromocriptine, 2 women underwent radiotherapy, and 4 women rejected any form of treatment. Data regarding menstrual status after trans-sphenoidal resection were available for 189 women, with follow-up periods ranging from 6 months to 10 years.

### Statistical analysis

Epidata software (*http://epidata.dk*) was used for data entry and SPSS software (version 21.0; SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL) was used for statistical analysis. Data are presented as medians (interquartile range) or numbers (percentage). Continuous variables were compared using the Mann-Whitney U test. Categorical variables were compared using the chi-square tests or Fisher's exact test or McNemar-Bowker test. A logistic regression model was used to analyze the risk factors of gonadal dysfunction after trans-sphenoidal surgery among Chinese women of reproductive age with PAs. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were used to evaluate the ability of postoperative PRL to predict gonadal dysfunction. All tests were 2-sided and a *P* value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

### Results

#### Patient baseline characteristics

Of the 317 women with PAs, 128 (40.38%) were age 26-35 years old, 102 (32.18%) were age of 36-44 years old, and 87 (27.44%) were 16-25 years old. All patients underwent MRI to determine tumor size and evaluate tumor invasiveness. The results revealed 105 (33.12%) cases of microadenoma, 210 (66.25%) cases of macroadenoma, 2 (0.63%) cases of giant adenoma, 183 (57.73%) cases of invasive adenoma, and 134 (42.27%) cases of non-invasive adenoma. Prolactinoma was the most common subtype, accounting for (39.1%), followed by PRL- and GH-co-secreting mixed adenoma (8.1%), GHsecreting adenoma (7.5%), non-functioning adenoma (6.9%), ACTH-secreting adenoma (5.9%), and plurihormonal pituitary adenoma (4.4%). In addition, 283 (89.3%) women exhibited preoperative menstrual disorders (the best clinical method for diagnosing gonadal dysfunction) and 34 (10.7%) women had eumenorrhea (indicating eugonadal function). Among patients with menstrual disorders, 161 (56.9%) had amenorrhea and 122 (43.1%) had oligomenorrhea. Compared with eugonadal patients, patients with gonadal dysfunction were younger (P<0.01) and exhibited higher PRL level (P<0.01) and lower levels of GH (P<0.05) and E<sub>2</sub> (P<0.01), but no significant differences in tumor invasion, tumor size, BMI, and levels of LH, FSH, testosterone, ACTH, cortisol, TSH, and  $FT_4$  (all P>0.05) (Table 1).

#### Characteristics of patients after trans-sphenoidal surgery

Menstrual status data after trans-sphenoidal surgery were available for 189 women with PAs. Of these 189 women, 130 (68.7%) had eumenorrhea (i.e., eugonadal function) and 59 (31.2%) had menstrual disorders (i.e., gonadal dysfunction). A comparison of gonadal function status before and after transsphenoidal surgery revealed that trans-sphenoidal resection was significantly associated with the recovery of normal gonadal function (P<0.01, Table 2). As shown in Table 2, compared with patients with postoperative gonadal dysfunction, patients with postoperative eugonadal function had shorter duration of menstrual disorder at baseline (P<0.05), lower frequency of invasive pituitary tumors (P<0.01), smaller tumor size (P<0.05), lower PRL level (P<0.01), and higher levels of E, (P<0.01), testosterone (P<0.05), and LH (P<0.01) at day 1 after trans-sphenoidal surgery. In addition, patients with postoperative eugonadal function had higher reduction rate of PRL level (P<0.01), and lower reduction rate of  $E_{2}$  (P<0.01) and LH (P<0.05) than patients with postoperative gonadal dysfunction. However, there were no significant differences in age, BMI, levels of pituitary hormones (including GH, FSH, ACTH, cortisol, TSH and FT<sub>a</sub>) at day one after trans-sphenoidal surgery or reduction rate of hormones (including GH, testosterone, FSH, ACTH, cortisol, TSH and FT<sub>4</sub>) at day 1 after trans-sphenoidal surgery.

# Risk factors for gonadal dysfunction after trans-sphenoidal surgery

A binary logistic regression analysis was performed to investigate the risk factors of gonadal dysfunction in women of reproductive age with PAs after trans-sphenoidal surgery (Table 3). Model 1 identified that age, tumor invasion, BMI, tumor size, and duration of menstrual disorder were risk factors for gonadal dysfunction, and gonadal dysfunction was independently associated with invasive adenoma [odds ratio (OR)=7.680; 95% confidence interval (CI)=2.704-21.812; P<0.01]. Model 2 included all variables in Model 1 plus hormone levels (PRL, GH, ACTH, cortisol,  $E_2$ , testosterone, FSH, LH, TSH, and  $FT_4$ ) at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery and revealed that gonadal dysfunction was independently associated with higher PRL level at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery (OR=1.027; 95%CI=1.010-1.044; *P*<0.01) and tumor invasion (*OR*=7.661; 95%*CI*=2.330–25.188; P < 0.01). Moreover, to adjust for potential confounding factors, Model 3 included the reduction rate of hormone levels at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery besides all variables in Model 2 and found gonadal dysfunction were still independently associated with higher PRL level at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery (OR=1.024; 95%CI=1.005-1.043; P=0.012) and tumor invasion (OR=5.752; 95%CI=1.618-20.447; P<0.01).

Based on the ROC curve analysis, using PRL level at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery for predicting gonadal dysfunction in women at reproductive age with PAs has an area under the ROC curve of 0.701 (95%CI=0.606-0.797) and sensitivity of 88%, specificity of 95%, positive predictive value (PPV) of 98%, and a negative predictive value (NPV) of 76% at the optimal cut-off for PRL level of 46.82 µg/L (Figure 1).

| Variables                   | Gonadal dysfunction<br>(n=283) |                 | Eugo   | Eugonadal function<br>(n=34) |        |  |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|--------|------------------------------|--------|--|
| Tumor invasion              |                                |                 |        |                              |        |  |
| Invasive                    | 164                            | (57.95%)        | 19     | (55.88%)                     | >0.05  |  |
| Non-invasive                | 119                            | (42.04%)        | 15     | (44.12%)                     |        |  |
| Tumor size                  |                                |                 |        |                              |        |  |
| Micro (≤10 mm)              | 96                             | (33.92%)        | 9      | (26.47%)                     | >0.05  |  |
| Macro (10–40 mm)            | 185                            | (65.37%)        | 25     | (73.53%)                     |        |  |
| Giant (>40 mm)              | 2                              | (0.71%)         | 0      | (0)                          |        |  |
| Age (years)                 | 30                             | (25–37)         | 38     | (27.75–41.50)*               | <0.001 |  |
| BMI (kg/m²)                 | 22.49                          | (20.32–24.80)   | 22.60  | (20.72–24.76)                | >0.05  |  |
| Pre-PRL (µg/L)              | 115.60                         | (45.68–241.30)  | 30.79  | (16.25–63.06)*               | <0.001 |  |
| Pre-GH (μg/L)               | 0.60                           | (0.20–1.90)     | 1.23   | (0.41–15.65)**               | 0.024  |  |
| Pre-E <sub>2</sub> (pg/mL)  | 28.48                          | (15.00–49.64)   | 41.85  | (21.97–100.70)**             | 0.019  |  |
| Pre-T (ng/mL)               | 0.29                           | (0.15–0.49)     | 0.20   | (0.10–0.42)                  | >0.05  |  |
| Pre-LH (IU/L)               | 3.96                           | (1.46–6.60)     | 3.15   | (1.28–7.52)                  | >0.05  |  |
| Pre-FSH (IU/L)              | 5.36                           | (3.74–7.02)     | 4.61   | (3.03–5.73)                  | >0.05  |  |
| Pre-ACTH (pg/mL)            | 27.90                          | (11.30–35.80)   | 28.80  | (15.70–39.40)                | >0.05  |  |
| Pre-F (nmol/L)              | 320.16                         | (155.75–486.32) | 390.50 | (78.64–555.06)               | >0.05  |  |
| Pre-TSH (mIU/L)             | 1.33                           | (0.78–2.20)     | 1.35   | (0.53–2.09)                  | >0.05  |  |
| Pre-FT <sub>4</sub> (pg/mL) | 1.24                           | (1.08–1.44)     | 1.34   | (1.13–1.65)                  | >0.05  |  |

Table 1. Preoperative clinical and laboratory data according to gonadal function.

BMI – body mass index; Pre-PRL – preoperative prolactin; Pre-GH – preoperative growth hormone; Pre- $E_2$  – preoperative estradiol; Pre-T – preoperative testosterone; Pre-LH – preoperative luteinizing hormone; Pre-FSH – preoperative follicle-stimulating hormone; Pre-ACTH – preoperative adrenocorticotropin; Pre-F – preoperative cortisol; Pre-TSH – preoperative thyroid-stimulating hormone; Pre-FT<sub>4</sub> – preoperative free thyroxine. Data are presented as median (interquartile range) or number (percentage). Categorical variables were compared using Pearson's Chi-squared test or Fisher's exact test. Continuous variables were compared using the Mann-Whitney U test. \* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05.

# Discussion

Gonadal dysfunction is very common in women of reproductive age with PAs, as shown in our study that 89.3% of premenopausal patients with PAs had gonadal dysfunction as assessed by menstrual disorders, which is a highly valuable technique for diagnosing gonadal dysfunction in women of reproductive age [7,18]. Treatment of patients with PAs with dopamine agonists or surgical approaches can generally restore gonadal function and facilitate conception in >85% of patients with prolactinomas [15]. In addition, gonadal function can be restored by surgery or administration of somatostatin analogs in women with acromegaly [7,16]. In an earlier paper, Caputo et al. reported that surgery restored gonadal axis function in 60% of premenopausal women with non-functional pituitary macroadenomas [17]. Our study also revealed that trans-sphenoidal surgery restored gonadal function in 67.4% of women of reproductive age with PAs. Risk factors of gonadal dysfunction in women of reproductive age with PAs after trans-sphenoidal surgery have been unclear. In the present study, we found that tumor invasion and high PRL level at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery are associated with gonadal dysfunction among Chinese women of reproductive age who underwent trans-sphenoidal surgery for PAs. Moreover, our findings also suggested that PRL >46.82  $\mu$ g/L at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery can predict gonadal dysfunction.

The relationship between tumor invasion and gonadal dysfunction may involve invasion and destruction of tumor cells into gonadotrophic pituitary cells, which would affect the synthesis

Table 2. Postoperative clinical and laboratory data according to gonadal function.

| Variables                            | Gonadal dysfunction<br>(n=59) |                 | Eug     | P values         |        |  |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|---------|------------------|--------|--|
| Gonadal status at baseline           |                               |                 |         |                  |        |  |
| Gonadal dysfunction                  | 57                            | (96.61%)        | 118     | (90.77%)*        | <0.001 |  |
| Eugonadal function                   | 2                             | (3.39%)         | 12      | (9.23%)          |        |  |
| Duration of menstrual disorder (year | s)                            |                 |         |                  |        |  |
| ≤0.5                                 | 10                            | (17.54%)        | 30      | (22.88%)**       |        |  |
| 0.5–1                                | 21                            | (35.09%)        | 66      | (50.85%)         | 0.017  |  |
| 1–5                                  | 20                            | (33.33%)        | 30      | (22.88%)         |        |  |
| >5                                   | 8                             | (14.04%)        | 4       | (3.39%)          |        |  |
| Tumor invasion                       |                               |                 |         |                  |        |  |
| Invasive                             | 48                            | (81.25%)        | 61      | (47.06%)*        | <0.001 |  |
| Non-invasive                         | 11                            | (18.75%)        | 69      | (52.94%)         |        |  |
| Tumor size                           |                               |                 |         |                  |        |  |
| Micro (<10 mm)                       | 12                            | (20.83%)        | 52      | (40.20%)**       | 0.015  |  |
| Macro (10–40 mm)                     | 46                            | (77.08%)        | 78      | (59.80%)         | 0.015  |  |
| Giant (>40 mm)                       | 1                             | (2.09%)         | 0       | (0)              |        |  |
| Age (years)                          | 31                            | (26–37)         | 30      | (25–38)          | >0.05  |  |
| BMI (kg/m²)                          | 23.31                         | (20.43–25.63)   | 22.48   | (20.28–24.65)    | >0.05  |  |
| Post-PRL-1 (μg/L)                    | 19.75                         | (5.27–90.34)    | 9.88    | (3.33–20.05)*    | <0.001 |  |
| Post-GH-1 (μg/L)                     | 0.95                          | (0.60–2.47)     | 1.30    | (0.60–2.75)      | >0.05  |  |
| Post-E <sub>2</sub> -1 (pg/mL)       | 23.20                         | (10.88–37.55)   | 34.71   | (21.53–69.47)*   | 0.001  |  |
| Post-T-1 (ng/mL)                     | 0.25                          | (0.10–0.45)     | 0.31    | (0.19–0.57)**    | 0.021  |  |
| Post-LH-1 (IU/L)                     | 2.40                          | (0.62–4.49)     | 2.83    | (1.34–5.80)*     | 0.007  |  |
| Post-FSH-1 (IU/L)                    | 4.47                          | (2.87–6.12)     | 4.90    | (3.07–7.11)      | >0.05  |  |
| Post-ACTH-1 (pg/mL)                  | 21.70                         | (9.92–33.50)    | 18.50   | (9.61–36.55)     | >0.05  |  |
| Post-F-1 (nmol/L)                    | 368.00                        | (156.18–706.83) | 438.84  | (191.48–642.50)  | >0.05  |  |
| Post-TSH-1 (mIU/L)                   | 0.68                          | (0.42–1.13)     | 0.75    | (0.46–1.11)      | >0.05  |  |
| Post-FT <sub>4</sub> -1 (pg/mL)      | 1.25                          | (1.15–1.43)     | 1.25    | (1.15–1.43)      | >0.05  |  |
| ∆PRL rate (%)                        | 65.75                         | (32.33–81.97)   | 90.97   | (79.49–97.21)*   | <0.001 |  |
| ∆GH rate (%)                         | -85.94                        | (–375.00–14.99) | -150.32 | (-500.00-6.26)   | >0.05  |  |
| $\Delta E_2$ rate (%)                | 13.77                         | (–39.32–51.26)  | -16.97  | (–90.50–24.56)*  | 0.006  |  |
| ΔT rate (%)                          | 0                             | (-72.25-49.01)  | -12.90  | (-74.17-26.17)   | >0.05  |  |
| ΔLH rate (%)                         | 16.32                         | (–32.95–58.28)  | -4.62   | (-67.74-37.98)** | 0.011  |  |
| ΔFSH rate (%)                        | 6.80                          | (–23.67–23.68)  | 2.30    | (-30.27-27.07)   | >0.05  |  |
| ∆ACTH rate (%)                       | 8.63                          | (–25.46–29.12)  | 0       | (-32.62-31.90)   | >0.05  |  |

## Table 2 continued. Postoperative clinical and laboratory data according to gonadal function.

| Variables              | Gonadal dysfunction<br>(n=59) |                | Eug    | P values        |       |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|--------|-----------------|-------|
| ∆F rate (%)            | -37.95                        | (-99.11-28.97) | -34.41 | (-200.83-31.11) | >0.05 |
| ∆TSH rate (%)          | 38.73                         | (19.37–67.15)  | 56.43  | (21.00–69.30)   | >0.05 |
| $\Delta FT_4$ rate (%) | 0.85                          | (–14.50–13.97) | -2.63  | (–17.51–9.58)   | >0.05 |

Post-PRL-1 – prolactin level; Post-GH-1 – growth hormone at one day after operation; Post- $E_2$ -1 – estradiol level at one day after operation; Post-FSH-1 – fulcienizing hormone level at one day after operation; Post-FSH-1 – follicle-stimulating hormone level at one day after operation; Post-ACTH-1 – adrenocorticotropin level at one day after operation; Post-FSH-1 – follicle-stimulating hormone level at one day after operation; Post-ACTH-1 – adrenocorticotropin level at one day after operation; Post-FSH-1 – cortisol level at one day after operation; Post-TSH-1 – thyroid-stimulating hormone level at one day after operation; Post-FSH-1 – thyroid-stimulating hormone level at one day after operation; Post-FT<sub>4</sub>-1 – free thyroxine level at one day after operation;  $\Delta$ PRL rate is calculated as 1-Post-FRL-1/Pre-PRL;  $\Delta$ GH rate is calculated as 1-Post-GH-1/Pre-GH;  $\Delta E_2$  rate is calculated as 1-Post- $E_2$ -1/Pre- $E_2$ ;  $\Delta$ T rate is calculated as 1-Post-T-1/Pre-T;  $\Delta$ LH rate is calculated as 1-Post-LH-1/Pre-LH;  $\Delta$ FSH rate is calculated as 1-Post-FSH-1/Pre-FSH;  $\Delta$ ACTH rate is calculated as 1-Post-F-1/Pre-F;  $\Delta$ TSH rate is calculated as 1-Post-TSH-1/Pre-TSH;  $\Delta$ FT<sub>4</sub> rate is calculated as 1-Post-F1/Pre-FT<sub>4</sub>; Data are presented as median (interquartile range) or number (percentage). Categorical variables were compared using Pearson's Chi-squared test, Fisher's exact test, or the McNemar-Bowker test. Continuous variables were compared using the Mann-Whitney U test. \* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05.

Table 3. Logistic regression analysis of risk factors for gonadal dysfunction after trans-sphenoidal surgery.

|                      | Variables       | Estimated coefficients | SE    | OR    | 95% CI       | P values |
|----------------------|-----------------|------------------------|-------|-------|--------------|----------|
| Model 1ª             | Tumor invasion* | 2.039                  | 0.533 | 7.680 | 2.704-21.812 | <0.001   |
| Model 2 <sup>b</sup> | Tumor invasion* | 2.036                  | 0.607 | 7.661 | 2.330–25.188 | 0.001    |
|                      | Post-PRL-1*     | 0.027                  | 0.008 | 1.027 | 1.010–1.044  | 0.002    |
| Model 3 <sup>c</sup> | Tumor invasion* | 1.749                  | 0.647 | 5.752 | 1.618–20.447 | 0.007    |
|                      | Post-PRL-1**    | 0.024                  | 0.009 | 1.024 | 1.005-1.043  | 0.012    |

SE – standard error; OR – odds ratio; CI – confidence interval; Post-PRL-1 – prolactin level at one day after operation; \* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05. <sup>a</sup> Model 1 was adjusted for age, tumor invasion, body mass index, tumor size, and duration of menstrual abnormality. <sup>b</sup> Model 2 included all variables in Model 1 plus hormone levels level at one day after operation, such as prolactin, growth hormone, adrenocorticotropin, cortisol, estradiol, testosterone, follicle stimulating hormone, luteinizing hormone, thyroid stimulating hormone, and free thyroxine. <sup>c</sup> Model 3 included all variables in Model 2 plus reduction rate of hormone levels level at one day after operation, such as prolactin, growth hormone, adrenocorticotropin, cortisol, estradiol, testosterone, follicle stimulating hormone, luteinizing hormone, thyroid stimulating hormone, and free thyroxine.



**Figure 1.** Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve of prolactin level at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery for predicting gonadal dysfunction in Chinese women of reproductive age who underwent trans-sphenoidal surgery for pituitary adenomas.

of LH and FSH, and ultimately result in gonadal dysfunction. Hyperprolactinemia has been shown to interrupt hypothalamic production of gonadotropin-releasing hormone, inhibiting the release of LH, FSH, and  $E_2$  [15,19]. In addition, hyperprolactinemia in mice induced hypogonadotropic anovulation, diminished kisspeptin expression, inhibited peripheral kisspeptin administration, and restored GnRH, gonadotropin secretion, and ovarian cyclicity, suggesting that kisspeptin neurons

play a major role in hyperprolactinemic gonadal disorder [5], consistent with the results showing that chronic prolactin administration suppressed serum LH and reduced Kiss1 mRNA levels in the rostral periventricular region of the third ventricle and arcuate nucleus [20]. Unfortunately, kisspeptin protein expression and Kiss1 mRNA level were not tested in our study. Although few studies have shown that gonadal dysfunction is also correlated with high levels of GH and cortisol as well as abnormal sex hormone binding globulin [5,5,10,11], these factors were not related to the gonadal dysfunction of women of reproductive age who underwent trans-sphenoidal surgery for PAs in our study.

## **References:**

- Agustsson TT, Baldvinsdottir T, Jonasson JG: The epidemiology of pituitary adenomas in Iceland, 1955–2012: A nationwide population-based study. Eur J Endocrinol, 2015; 173: 655–64
- Aflorei ED, Korbonits M: Epidemiology and etiopathogenesis of pituitary adenomas. J Neurooncol, 2014; 117: 379–94
- 3. Kovacs K: The 2004 WHO classification of pituitary tumors: Comments. Acta Neuropathol, 2006; 111: 62–63
- 4. Grattan DR: 60 years of neuroendocrinology: The hypothalamo-prolactin axis. J Endocrinol, 2015; 226: T101–22
- Sonigo C, Bouilly J, Carre N et al: Hyperprolactinemia-induced ovarian acyclicity is reversed by kisspeptin administration. J Clin Invest, 2012; 122: 3791–95
- 6. Kaltsas GA, Mukherjee JJ, Jenkins PJ et al: Menstrual irregularity in women with acromegaly. J Clin Endocrinol Metab, 1999; 84: 2731–35
- Grynberg M, Salenave S, Young J, Chanson P: Female gonadal function before and after treatment of acromegaly. J Clin Endocrinol Metab, 2010; 95: 4518–25
- Unuane D, Tournaye H, Velkeniers B, Poppe K: Endocrine disorders & female infertility. Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab, 2011; 25: 861–73
- Lado-Abeal J, Rodriguez-Arnao J, Newell-Price JD et al: Menstrual abnormalities in women with Cushing's disease are correlated with hypercortisolemia rather than raised circulating androgen levels. J Clin Endocrinol Metab, 1998; 83: 3083–88
- HalupczokJ, Kluba-Szyszka A, Bidzinska-Speichert B, Knychalski B: Ovarian hyperstimulation caused by gonadotroph pituitary adenoma-Review. Adv Clin Exp Med, 2015; 24: 695–703

## Conclusions

Our study showed that trans-sphenoidal surgery is able to restore normal gonadal function in Chinese women of reproductive age with PAs and tumor invasion and high PRL level at 1 day after trans-sphenoidal surgery are risk factors of gonadal dysfunction of patients who underwent trans-sphenoidal surgery for PAs. In addition, PRL >46.82 µg/L at 1 day after transsphenoidal surgery is an indicator for postoperative gonadal dysfunction.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to numerous investigators and fellows for patient data acquisition and analysis and research coordinators who participated in the study.

- 11. Wong A, Eloy JA, Couldwell WT, Liu JK: Update on prolactinomas. Part 1: Clinical manifestations and diagnostic Challenges. J Clin Neurosci, 2015; 22: 1562–67
- 12. Petrossians P, Daly AF, Natchev E et al: Acromegaly at diagnosis in 3173 patients from the Liege Acromegaly Survey (LAS) database. Endocr Relat Cancer, 2017; 24: 505–18
- Jadresic A, Banks LM, Child DF et al: The acromegaly syndrome: Relation between clinical features, growth hormone values and radiological characteristics of the pituitary tumours. Q J Med, 1982; 202: 189–204
- 14. Nabarro JD: Acromegaly. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf), 1987; 26: 481-512
- 15. Molitch ME: Prolactinoma in pregnancy. Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab, 2011; 25: 885–96
- Cheng S, Grasso L, Martinez-Orozco JA et al: Pregnancy in acromegaly: Experience from two referral centers and systematic review of the literature. ClinEndocrinol (Oxf), 2012; 76: 264–71
- 17. Caputo C, Sutherland T, Farish S et al: Gender differences in presentation and outcome of nonfunctioning pituitary macroadenomas. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf), 2013; 78: 564–70
- Schneider HJ, Aimaretti G, Kreitschmann-Andermahr I et al: Hypopituitarism Lancet, 2007; 369: 1461–70
- 19. Faje A, Nachtigall L: Current treatment options for hyperprolactinemia. Expert Opin Pharmacother, 2011; 14: 1611–25
- Brown RS, Herbison AE, Grattan DR: Prolactin regulation of kisspeptin neurons in the mouse brain and its role in the lactation-induced suppression of kisspeptin expression. J Neuroendocrinol, 2014; 26: 898–908
- 21. Katznelson L, Kleinberg D, Vance ML et al: Hypogonadism in patients with acromegaly: Data from the multi-centre acromegaly registry pilot study. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf), 2001; 54: 183–88