Recent decades have seen substantial improvements in childhood cancer therapies leading to increased survival rates, such that one in 900 young adults is a survivor of childhood cancer (1). As a result, late complications of these therapies are becoming more prevalent in both the adolescent and adult patient populations. Endocrine disorders resulting from hypothalamic-pituitary axis dysfunction are one of the most frequent late complications of these therapies, with growth hormone deficiency (GHD) being the most common. However, the mitogenic and proliferative properties of GH have prompted concern regarding the safety of administering GH replacement therapy to these deficient patients. There are many known consequences of GHD in both children and adults; however, studies evaluating cancer recurrence risk and the development of a secondary neoplasm after GH treatment have shown variable results.

The most common presentation of GHD in children is impaired linear growth evidenced by decreased growth velocity. Survivors who are GH deficient prior to completion of linear growth will often have short final adult height. In addition, GH plays an important role in the accrual of peak bone mineral density when entering adulthood (2, 3). Other symptoms of GHD in adults include diminished muscle mass and increased fat mass (4-7), abnormal lipid profiles (8), decreased bone mineral density (9, 10), and diminished sense of well being (11-13). In addition, GH deficient individuals have been shown to have increased risk of cardiovascular disease (14) and increased inflammatory cardiovascular risk markers (15). All of these possible complications of GHD illustrate the importance of evaluating GH status of individuals at risk.

GHD may result from anatomic defects associated with primary or metastatic tumors near the hypothalamic-pituitary region or from the treatment of other central nervous system (CNS) tumors (16). In addition, CNS radiation, including radiation therapy for leukemia or prior to bone marrow transplant, may result in pituitary hormone deficiencies, particularly GHD (17). Animal studies have shown a marked sensitivity of the GH-producing somatotroph cells to radiation doses as low as 300 cGy (18). In addition, variable degrees of GHD may result from dual damage to both the pituitary and hypothalamus (19). The risk of GHD after cranial irradiation is increased in younger patients (20) and in

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th># Total patients</th>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Secondary neoplasm</th>
<th>Study Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moshang, et al., 1996 (51)</td>
<td>1,262</td>
<td>GH: 6.6% overall brain tumor recurrence</td>
<td>Not evaluated</td>
<td>GH therapy does not increase brain tumor recurrence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swerdlow, et al., 2000 (52)</td>
<td>1,071</td>
<td>GH: 35 of 180 (19.4%)</td>
<td>No GH: 437 of 891 (49%)</td>
<td>Not evaluated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packer, et al., 2001 (55)</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>GH: 40 of 170 (23.9%)</td>
<td>Not evaluated</td>
<td>GH therapy does not increase risk of medulloblastoma relapse or progression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sklar, et al., 2002 (20)</td>
<td>12,963</td>
<td>GH: 6 of 361 (1.7%)</td>
<td>No GH: 502 of 12,293 (4%)</td>
<td>GH: 15 of 354 (4.2%) No GH: 344 of 12,868 (2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ergun-Longmire, et al., 2006 (47)</td>
<td>14,108</td>
<td>Not evaluated</td>
<td>GH: 20 of 361 (5.5%) No GH: 555 of 13,747 (4.0%)</td>
<td>Increased risk of SN following GH treatment appears to diminish with length of follow-up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darendeliler, et al., 2006 (54)</td>
<td>2,503</td>
<td>GH: 213 of 2,503 (8.5%)</td>
<td>Not evaluated</td>
<td>GH therapy does not increase brain tumor recurrence, GH dose did not differ between those with or without recurrence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karavitaki, et al., 2006 (53)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>GH: 4 of 32 (12.5%) No GH: 22 of 53 (41.5%)</td>
<td>Not evaluated</td>
<td>GH therapy is not a predictor of craniopharyngioma recurrence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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patients receiving higher total and fractionated doses of radiation (21). Doses greater than 24 Gy result in GHD in up to two-thirds of patients (21-26) but doses as low as 10 Gy can cause GHD in young children (22, 27, 28). Cranial radiation greater than 30 Gy is associated with a 10 year post-radiation risk of GHD in more than 80 percent of patients (24). Chemotherapy alone may lead to GHD but at a much lower rate than that of radiotherapy (29).

GH is known to have mitogenic and proliferative effects on many tissues either directly or indirectly through the action of insulin like growth factor-1 (IGF-1). Studies have demonstrated the increased expression of GH receptors in human breast cancer cells (30), melanoma (31), and colorectal carcinoma (32). In addition, IGF-1 mRNA expression has been found to be increased in tumor cells of many types of cancers when compared to normal cells, including glioblastoma, astrocytoma (33), meningioma (34), colon carcinoma (35), pancreatic carcinoma (36), and breast cancer (37) cells among others. IGF-1 has been shown to stimulate thyroid cell growth and increased numbers of IGF-1 receptors have been found on malignant thyroid epithelial cells (38). These actions of GH and IGF-1 have prompted concerns that administering GH may stimulate tumor cell growth or proliferation and lead to cancer recurrence, development of secondary neoplasm, or leukemia.

The associations of leukemia with GH have been a source of some controversy. Data are conflicting with some studies describing an increased incidence of leukemia in children treated with GH (39, 40), whereas more recent studies have not been able to replicate these results (41, 42). In 1981, Mercola et al. demonstrated that human lymphocytes have GH receptors and that the addition of GH to tissue culture stimulated the proliferation of normal T lymphocytes (43). Giesbert et al. evaluated 44 leukemic cell lines and found GH receptors in the cytoplasm of all cell lines but only some of the cells displayed GH receptors on the cell surface. Those cells with surface GH receptors did undergo a dose dependent increase in receptor number when incubated with GH. However, GH stimulated cell proliferation only occurred in three of the 13 leukemic cell lines (44). Estrov et al. obtained leukemic cells from bone marrow aspirates and evaluated the effects of both GH and IGF-1 on cell proliferation. They found that cell proliferation did occur but only in the presence of phytohemagglutinin-stimulated T-cell-conditioned medium, suggesting that the presence of GH receptor does not ensure that GH or IGF-1 will stimulate cell proliferation (45). To evaluate the incidence of leukemia in children with multiple causes of GHD, Allen et al. evaluated the National Cooperative Growth Study database with 24,417 children who had received recombinant GH between November 1985 and December 1995. A total of eleven new cases of leukemia were diagnosed, however eight of these were found in patients who had risk factors for leukemia including various genetic conditions and previous tumors or radiation (41). Another important study by Rappaport et al. described four patients with primary CNS tumors who were treated with radiation and developed GHD. These patients did not receive GH therapy and still developed a secondary leukemia suggesting that radiation rather than GH may lead to the development of leukemia (46).

Studies evaluating the risk of cancer recurrence and the development of a secondary neoplasm have also shown variable results. Sklar et al. evaluated 13,539 patients in the Childhood Cancer Survivor Study, a cohort of five year survivors of childhood cancer. There were 361 patients who received GH therapy. Six patients receiving GH therapy experienced a recurrence of primary cancer. All of these cancer survivors had also received radiation of the face or brain. Recurrences were described in 502 patients who did not receive GH therapy. The authors adjusted for age at diagnosis, radiation, and chemotherapy effects with a time-dependent Cox model and found a relative risk of 0.83 (95% confidence interval, 0.37-1.86; P=0.65) for recurrence in GH-treated survivors when compared with patients not treated with GH. Thus, GH-treated patients were not found to have an increased risk of developing primary cancer recurrence. Complete information regarding secondary neoplasms was available for 13,222 patients in this cohort, of which 354 had been treated with GH. Fifteen GH-treated patients developed a secondary neoplasm compared to 344 of the non-GH treated patients. Thirteen of the GH-treated patients developed the secondary neoplasm at a site previously exposed to radiation. After adjusting for age at diagnosis, sex, radiation, and alkylating agents, the relative risk of developing a secondary neoplasm after GH therapy was 3.21 (95% confidence interval 1.88-5.46; P<0.0001) when compared to patients not receiving GH. This overall increased risk appears to be driven in part by the higher number of secondary neoplasms developing in primary acute leukemia survivors (relative risk 4.98). It is also important to note that all 15 secondary neoplasms were solid tumors

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tumour characteristics</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Age at tumour diagnoes (y)</th>
<th>Age at onset of GH therapy (y)</th>
<th>Dose of GH start (mg/kg/week)</th>
<th>Surgery, n (%)</th>
<th>Surgery radiotherapy, n (%)</th>
<th>Surgery chemotherapy, n (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Astrocytoma</td>
<td>561</td>
<td>8.5 (5.2 - 13.4)</td>
<td>10.2 (6.4 - 14.1)</td>
<td>0.18 (0.10 - 0.28)</td>
<td>44 (16.9)</td>
<td>156 (60.0)</td>
<td>60 (23.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without recurrence</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.0 (1.8 - 10.4)</td>
<td>8.0 (4.1 - 13.1)</td>
<td>0.17 (0.12 - 0.24)</td>
<td>6 (20.0)</td>
<td>17 (55.7)</td>
<td>7 (23.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With recurrence</td>
<td>917</td>
<td>9.8 (4.3 - 14.9)</td>
<td>10.7 (5.3 - 15.4)</td>
<td>0.17 (0.10 - 0.25)</td>
<td>507 (62.2)</td>
<td>290 (35.6)</td>
<td>18 (22.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germ cell sarcoma</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>8.6 (1.2 - 13.2)</td>
<td>9.0 (4.3 - 13.6)</td>
<td>0.17 (0.11 - 0.25)</td>
<td>76 (79.0)</td>
<td>20 (20.0)</td>
<td>1 (10.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without recurrence</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>7.0 (2.1 - 12.7)</td>
<td>9.7 (4.3 - 13.6)</td>
<td>0.19 (0.13 - 0.27)</td>
<td>1 (1.0)</td>
<td>41 (45.9)</td>
<td>54 (55.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With recurrence</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.8 (5.0 - 9.8)</td>
<td>9.0 (5.1 - 12.5)</td>
<td>0.20 (0.16 - 0.27)</td>
<td>3 (33.3)</td>
<td>6 (66.7)</td>
<td>1 (10.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ependymoma</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.1 (7.9 - 15.4)</td>
<td>12.6 (9.3 - 16.0)</td>
<td>0.16(0.11 - 0.26)</td>
<td>9 (9.0)</td>
<td>80 (48.4)</td>
<td>86 (46.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without recurrence</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>11.8 (6.3 - 13.6)</td>
<td>12.1 (9.3 - 13.8)</td>
<td>0.18 (0.11 - 0.24)</td>
<td>2 (20.0)</td>
<td>2 (20.0)</td>
<td>2 (20.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With recurrence</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.5 (3.8 - 12.3)</td>
<td>10.1 (6.3 - 14.0)</td>
<td>0.20 (0.14 - 0.29)</td>
<td>7 (11.5)</td>
<td>179 (32.2)</td>
<td>172 (32.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medulloblastoma</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>10.8 (6.8 - 14.0)</td>
<td>11.2 (9.1 - 15.2)</td>
<td>0.21 (0.14 - 0.31)</td>
<td>5 (17.9)</td>
<td>23 (82.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are given as medians, with the 10th–90th percentile values shown in parentheses.

and none of these patients developed secondary leukemias (20). Although several similar studies have been done, the large number of patients evaluated in this study should not be overlooked.

A follow-up study of patients in the Childhood Cancer Survivor Study by Ergun-Longmire et al. (47), found that although GH-treated survivors appear to have an increased risk of developing a secondary neoplasm, the elevation in risk diminishes with increasing length of follow-up. Data for this retrospective evaluation were obtained 32 months after the initial evaluation by Sklar et al. During this follow-up analysis, 14,028 survivors were eligible for evaluation. Twenty cases of secondary neoplasm were found in the 361 patients who received GH (five new cases in addition to the initial 15 patients described by Sklar et al.) and all of these patients had also received radiation. Secondary neoplasms were detected in 555 of the 13,747 survivors who were not treated with GH (41%).

Patients with craniopharyngiomas were not included in this group of patients. The authors found a recurrence of primary brain tumors in 35 of the 180 GH-treated patients (19.4%) versus 437 of the 891 patients not treated with GH (49%). After adjusting for age at diagnosis and tumor histology, the overall relative risk was 0.6 (95% confidence interval 0.4-0.9; p<0.05), thus indicating that GH-treated patients were not at increased risk for brain tumor recurrence (52). These authors did point out that although their results may appear to suggest that those patients who were treated with GH had a lower rate of recurrence, caution should be used when interpreting their results in this way. Karavitaki et al. specifically evaluated the recurrence risk of craniopharyngioma in 85 patients over a 40 year period. There were 32 patients treated with GH and 53 non-treated patients. Four GH-treated patients (12.5%) developed a tumor recurrence. Two patients had partial resections of the initial tumor and two had surgical excision plus radiotherapy. Twenty-two non-GH treated patients (41.5%) developed a recurrence. Eighteen of these patients had partial resection and four had surgical excision plus radiotherapy (53).

Darendeliler et al. (54) analyzed the Pfizer International Growth Database (KIGS) to evaluate the recurrence risk of brain tumors in survivors treated with GH compared to published reports of tumor recurrence in non-GH treated patients. They evaluated 2,503 patients in the database and found that 213 had tumor recurrence and that the overall incidence did not differ from non-GH treated patients in other published reports. GH dose was also evaluated and did not significantly differ between the GH-treated patients with or without tumor recurrence. Recurrence rates did vary with different types of initial treatments as shown in Table 2 (54).

Five hundred forty-five patients with medulloblastoma from eleven neuro-oncology centers were retrospectively evaluated by Packer et al. to determine the effects of GH therapy on tumor relapse. All patients were 15 years old or younger at tumor diagnosis and 170 were treated with GH replacement therapy. The authors found no statistical evidence of association between the use of GH and progression-free survival in either infants (relative risk 0.710 with 95% confidence interval 0.468-1.267, P=0.71) or older children (relative risk 0.648 with 95% confidence interval 0.365-1.150, P=0.138). Although this study had an impressive number of 545 survivors of medulloblastoma, it is important to note that GH treatment criteria varied widely between the eleven different institutions and may have influenced the results (55).

Important considerations in the interpretation of these studies are the potential selection bias and multiple unknown con-
founders. Patients with more aggressive cancers often require more extensive treatment which may lead to increased deleterious effects on the hypothalamic-pituitary axis. These patients are not only at an increased risk for the development of hormonal deficiencies but also the detrimental effects of the chemotherapy and/or radiation used in their treatment. In addition, unknown genetic factors leading to predispositions for the development of cancer may increase the risk for some patients to develop secondary cancers regardless of the administration of GH. Also, some of the data in these studies was collected prior to the routine use of recombinant human GH (rhGH). Of the studies discussed here, only two verified that all of their subjects received rhGH (51, 54).

Although data regarding the use of GH therapy in cancer survivors with GH deficiency are conflicting, several studies have now shown that the risk of tumor recurrence is not elevated compared to non-GH treated survivors. In addition, the potential elevated risk of a secondary neoplasm following GH therapy appears to diminish with increased length of follow-up. This suggests the possibility that those patients who are predisposed to develop a secondary neoplasm will do so earlier but do not necessarily have an overall increased risk secondary to the administration of GH. Additional studies are needed; however, this medical problem is complicated by the difficulty in obtaining randomized controlled trials to control for multiple known and unknown confounders. In conclusion, the benefit of GH therapy in GH deficient childhood cancer survivors may outweigh the risks but patients should still undergo frequent screening for the development of recurrence or a secondary neoplasm.

References

Growth hormone deficiency (GHD) commonly develops after treatment of pituitary tumors in adults and is complicated by many clinical sequelae, including impairment of quality of life (1-4). Moreover, randomized, placebo-controlled studies have demonstrated that growth hormone replacement therapy reverses many of the deleterious effects of GHD, including on quality of life (5-9). Studies have also shown that patients at the other end of the GH spectrum — those with growth hormone (GH) excess due to GH-secreting pituitary tumors (acromegaly) — also experience a diminished quality of life (4, 10-14). To further complicate matters, such patients may develop GH deficiency after definitive treatment (surgery and/or radiation therapy) for their acromegaly. Studies have demonstrated a 30 to 50% percent risk of GHD in patients treated for acromegaly with conventional radiotherapy (15-17). A recent study demonstrated a 61% incidence of GHD in patients after definitive treatment for acromegaly, including 71% in patients who received surgery followed by conventional radiation therapy (18). Interestingly, a 55% incidence of severe GHD was reported in patients treated with surgery alone (i.e. in patients without any history of radiation whatsoever) (18). These data raise the question of whether patients who have developed GHD after definitive treatment of acromegaly experience impaired quality of life compared with patients who have normal GH levels after cure of acromegaly and, if they do, whether they would benefit from GH replacement therapy.

To address the first question, we compared quality of life measures in 27 patients with GHD following cure of acromegaly with those of 19 patients with normal GH levels (“GH sufficiency”) after treatment of acromegaly (19). GH deficiency was defined as a peak GH level of less than 5 ng/ml on stimulation (with GHRH-arginine or an insulin tolerance test) or a low IGF-1 level in the presence of at least three pituitary hormone deficiencies. Three validated quality-of-life questionnaires were administered, as follows: 1) Quality of Life Adult Growth Hormone Deficiency Assessment (QoL-AGHDA), 2) Short-Form Health Survey (SF-36) and 3) The Symptom Questionnaire. The results are shown in Figures 1 and 2 and demonstrate significant impairment of quality of life on nearly all subscales in the GH-deficient compared with GH-sufficient study participants, all of whom previously had acromegaly (19). This included a higher mean score on the QoL-AGHDA, a questionnaire developed as an integrated measure of impaired quality of life in domains particularly affected by GHD. It also included decreased energy (“Vitality”) on the SF-36, a questionnaire widely used to detect impaired quality of life in patients with medical conditions, and increased depressive and somatic symptoms on the Symptom Questionnaire. Of note, the mean scores of four out of eight subscales on the SF-36 questionnaire were below normal in the GH-deficient group, whereas mean scores for the GH-sufficient group were all well within the normal range (19).

The degree of impairment we observed for patients with GHD after cure of acromegaly was similar to that published for patients with GHD after treatment of non-somatotroph tumors (1, 20-22), and was comparable to that of patients with type II diabetes mellitus or recent acute myocardial infarction. The degree of quality of life impairment was greater than in subjects with hypertension and other minor medical conditions (23, 24). This suggests that the severity of impairment of quality of life observed in our study is clinically important.

These data raise two important questions. First, would GH replacement therapy improve quality of life and/or other abnormalities, such as increased visceral adiposity, in patients with GHD but who have had a history of acromegaly, as has been established in patients who develop GHD after treatment of other types of tumors? Moreover, is GH replacement therapy well-tolerated in such patients? Stay tuned — these questions will be addressed in a future Neuroendocrine Clinical Center Bulletin.

References
Celebration of the Laurie Carrol Guthart Professorship in Medicine in the Field of Neuroendocrinology

On May 29, 2009 in a formal ceremony at Harvard Medical School (HMS), Dr. Anne Klibanski, Chief of the MGH Neuroendocrine Unit, was honored as the first incumbent of the Laurie Carrol Guthart Professorship in Medicine in the Field of Neuroendocrinology at HMS.

The chair was established in 2008 by Leo A. Guthart, MBA, DBA, his family, daughters Rebecca Guthart and Margaret Guthart Strauss, and his son-in-law, Edward Strauss in honor of Dr. Guthart’s late wife Laurie to advance research in Neuroendocrine disorders. Mr. Guthart provided a moving history of Mrs. Guthart’s battle with Cushing’s disease.

Cushing’s Disease Patient Education Day

On Saturday, February 28, 2009, the Cushing’s Support and Research Foundation (CSRF) hosted the first Patient Education day. About 120 patients with Cushing’s disease, many accompanied by family and friends, attended the day-long event at the Boston Intercontinental Hotel.

Nine MGH Neuroendocrine Clinical Center members, Dr. Karen K. Miller, Dr. Beverly M.K. Biller, Dr. Anne Klibanski, Dr. Lisa Nachtigall, Dr. Brooke Swearingen, Dr. Elena Valassi, Dr. Madhu Misra, Michelle Gurel, BSN, R.N. and Karen J.P. Liebert, BSN, R.N., and speakers from other institutions donated their time to teach the attendees. Topics included normal pituitary gland function and the clinical features, diagnosis, testing paradigms and treatment of Cushing’s syndrome in adults and children. One highlight of the day was a video of a transphenoidal operation narrated by the MGH expert pituitary neurosurgeon, Dr. Brooke Swearingen. Other highlights included a talk by nurse Michelle Gurel who spoke about what patients could expect prior to and after transsphenoidal surgery and a panel of patients who shared their experiences with the audience. Said one attendee, “Aside from the wealth of information you provided to all of us, you also provided a forum where we all could finally feel we were amongst others who understood exactly what we’d been through”.

Louise Pace, CSRF Founding President and Karen Campbell, Director of CSRF organized the event, which was free for attendees. According to Ms. Pace, “This day is truly a milestone. We all know how important it is to have excellent information about Cushing’s.” Further information, including details about the information packets assembled by Neuroendocrine Clinical Center nurses Karen JP Liebert and Michelle Gurel for patients at the event, can be found on the CSRF website at: http://www.csrf.net/page/cushings_patient_education_day.php
Patients may qualify for research studies in the Neuroendocrine Clinical Center. We are currently accepting the following categories of patients for screening to determine study eligibility. Depending on the study, subjects may receive free testing, medication and/or stipends.

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<th>Studies</th>
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<tr>
<td>Cushing’s Syndrome</td>
<td>• Evaluating a potential new medical therapy</td>
<td>Karen Pulaski-Liebert, R.N. Dr. Beverly M.K. Biller</td>
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<td>• Investigating impact of hormonal alterations on menstrual function and bone density</td>
<td>Dr. Madhu Misra Dr. Anne Klibanski</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adolescent boys and girls with depressive disorders</td>
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<td>Dr. Karen K. Miller Dr. Anne Klibanski</td>
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<td>• Investigating hormones and brain circuitry involved in appetite</td>
<td>Dr. Elizabeth Lawson Dr. Anne Klibanski</td>
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<td>• Investigating hormones and brain circuitry involved in appetite</td>
<td>Dr. Elizabeth Lawson Dr. Anne Klibanski</td>
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<td>• Investigating the effects of GH administration on abdominal obesity</td>
<td>Dr. Karen K. Miller</td>
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<td>Girls and women with current anorexia nervosa or a history of anorexia nervosa, ages 10 and up</td>
<td>• Investigating genetics of appetite-regulating and stress hormones</td>
<td>Dr. Elizabeth Lawson Dr. Karen K. Miller Dr. Madhu Misra</td>
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<tr>
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<td>• Investigating genetics of appetite-regulating and stress hormones</td>
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<td>• Short-term GHRH</td>
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<td>Dr. Amy Fleischman Dr. Steven Grinspoon</td>
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<td>• Assessment of coronary artery atherosclerosis • Lifestyle modification strategies, including exercise and insulin sensitization • Short-term GH • Statin therapy for coronary plaque</td>
<td>Dr. Steven Grinspoon Dr. Janet Lo Katie Fitch, ANP Dr. Takara Stanley</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUPERVISING STAFF

Endocrinology:
Anne Kilbanski, MD
Chief, Neuroendocrine Unit

Beverly M.K. Biller, MD
Steven K. Grinspoon, MD
Elisabeth A. Lawson, MD
Hideo Makimura, MD, PhD
Janet Lo, MD
Karen K. Miller, MD
Lisa B. Nachtigall, MD
Melissa K. Thomas, MD, PhD
Nicholas A. Tritos, MD, DSC

Neurology:
Thomas N. Byrne, MD

Neurosurgery:
Robert L. Martuza, MD
Chief, Neurosurgical Service
Brooke Swearingen, MD
Nicholas T. Zervas, MD

Radiation Oncology:
Jay S. Loeffler, MD
Chief, Radiation Oncology
Helen A. Shih, MD

Psychiatry:
George Papakostas, MD

Pediatric Endocrinology
Madhusmita Misra, MD, MPH

SERVICES AVAILABLE

Facilities
The Neuroendocrine Center is located on the 1st floor (Suite 112) of Zero Emerson Place at the Massachusetts General Hospital. A test center is available for complete outpatient diagnostic testing, including ACTH (Cortrosyn) stimulation; insulin tolerance; CRH stimulation; oral glucose tolerance and growth hormone stimulation testing. Testing for Cushing’s syndrome can also be arranged, including bilateral inferior petrosal sinus ACTH sampling for patients with ACTH-dependent Cushing’s syndrome.

Neuroendocrine Clinical Conference
A weekly interdisciplinary conference is held to discuss all new patients referred to the Neuroendocrine Center and to review patient management issues. It is a multidisciplinary conference, attended by members of the Neuroendocrine, Neurology, Neurosurgery, Psychiatry and Radiation Oncology services.

Physicians’ Pituitary Information Service
Physicians with questions about pituitary disorders may contact Dr. Biller or Dr. Kilbanski at (617) 726-3965 within the Boston area or toll free at (888) 429-6863, or e-mail to pituitary.info@partners.org.

Scheduling
Outpatient clinical consultations can be arranged by calling the Neuroendocrine Center Office at (617) 726-7948.

In 2009, the MGH Neuroendocrine Clinical Center Bulletin was supported in part by unrestricted educational grants from: Corcept and LG Life Sciences. Dr. Biller, Editor of the Neuroendocrine Clinical Center Bulletin, has served as consultant for LG Life Sciences and is the primary investigator on a research grant to the Neuroendocrine Unit from Corcept.