CLINICAL STUDY

Hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency following infectious diseases of the central nervous system

S Schaefer, N Boegershausen, S Meyer, D Ivan, K Schepelmann¹ and P H Kann*Division of Endocrinology and Diabetology, Philipps University Hospital, Baldingerstrasse, D-35033 Marburg, Germany and ¹Department of Neurology, Philipps University Hospital, Marburg, Germany**(Correspondence should be addressed to S Schaefer; Email: stscha@med.uni-marburg.de)*

Abstract

Objective: Hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency may have diverse causes. The aim of this study was to determine the incidence of hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency in patients with previous infectious diseases of the central nervous system (CNS) of different etiologies and mild-to-moderate clinical course.

Design: Patient series. Basal and stimulated (insulin tolerance test) pituitary function testing was performed in 19 patients with previous neuroborreliosis, encephalitis, or meningitis following an interval of between 10 and 56 months (mean 26.1 ± 13.1 months) after the acute event.

Results: Four patients (21%; two males, two females) showed an isolated corticotrophic insufficiency (peak cortisol <181.25 µg/l during the insulin tolerance test). Two patients (11%, males) showed borderline gonadotropic insufficiency (basal testosterone between 2.4 and 3.0 µg/l). No patient had somatotrophic or thyrotrophic insufficiency or evidence for diabetes insipidus; all had prolactin concentrations within the reference range.

Conclusions: Hypothalamic–pituitary dysfunction and especially isolated corticotrophic insufficiency may develop in a relevant proportion of patients after infectious diseases of the CNS.

European Journal of Endocrinology 158 3–9

Introduction

Hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency may have diverse causes: the most common ones being pituitary adenoma, craniopharyngeoma, Sheehan's syndrome, lymphocytic hypophysitis, irradiation, or surgery (1). Despite numerous case reports, the incidence of hypothalamic–pituitary dysfunction following traumatic brain injury (TBI) and subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH) has been underestimated for decades. In 1986, Edwards & Clark reported 6 own and 47 reviewed cases of post-traumatic hypopituitarism (2). Furthermore, in the year 2000, Benveniste *et al.* reviewed 314 cases, including 15 own patients (3). The endocrine dysfunctions reached from panhypopituitarism to various partial deficiencies and were sometimes transient. Hyperprolactinemia was reported in the majority of cases; diabetes insipidus occurred in up to 50% of the patients. A delay in diagnosis of months to years was common (2, 3). Since then, several studies evaluating the rate and risk factors of hypothalamic–pituitary dysfunction after TBI and SAH have been conducted (4–10).

Infectious diseases of the central nervous system (CNS) may also affect the hypothalamus and/or the pituitary, although this has not been reported very often and not yet been studied systematically. In most of the

early case reports, the deficient hormone secretion has been caused by tuberculous meningitis (11–13). There are, however, reports to show that other infectious agents may also cause hypothalamic–pituitary dysfunction (14–19). Therefore, the aim of the present investigation was to determine the incidence of hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency in patients with previous infectious diseases of the CNS of different etiologies and mild-to-moderate clinical course. To address this issue, patients underwent basal and stimulated (insulin tolerance test) pituitary function testing following an interval of at least 6 months after the acute event.

Subjects and methods

Patients and study visits

The study was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki, and the study protocol was reviewed and approved by the local ethics committee. Medical records of patients admitted to the Neurological Department of the University Hospital of Marburg/Germany during the last 5 years for in-hospital treatment of infectious diseases of the CNS (meningitis, meningoencephalitis, encephalitis, neuroborreliosis)

were screened. Patients of both sexes, aged 20–70 years, with an interval of at least 6 months between acute disease and medical record screening qualified for inclusion in this study. Exclusion criteria were any hormone intake, including oral contraceptives and topical/inhalative glucocorticoids; intake of neuroleptics; diabetes mellitus or other endocrine disorders; malignant disease; abuse of alcohol or drugs; or any other severe disease (especially coronary heart disease and a history of convulsion). Furthermore, severely disabled patients who were not able to give personal informed consent for participation in the study were excluded.

On the basis of 79 records screened, 5 had to be excluded, and another 8 patients could not be contacted any more because of unknown address. Of the remaining 66 patients, 38 refused to participate for personal reasons, and another 7 withdrew their consent after the first study visit before pituitary function testing.

During the first study visit, written informed consent was obtained from each subject. A physical examination, a routine laboratory testing, and an analysis of body composition using a body composition analyser (Akren-RJL BIA 101/S) were performed.

After an overnight fast, basal concentrations of growth hormone (GH), insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I), adrenocorticotropin (ACTH), cortisol, luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), testosterone (in males), estradiol and progesterone (in females), thyrotrophin (TSH), free tri-iodothyronine (fT₃), free thyroxine (fT₄), and prolactin (PRL) were determined and an insulin tolerance test (ITT) was performed (Table 1). All subjects received 0.10–0.15 IU/kg regular i.v. insulin (Insuman Rapid; Sanofi-Aventis, Deutschland GmbH, Frankfurt, Germany). Additional insulin was given if blood glucose concentrations below 40 mg/dl were not reached within 15 min. Samples for the determination of glucose, GH, ACTH, and cortisol were drawn. In addition, bedside determinations of glucose levels were done throughout the test.

No adverse events occurred during the ITT. Adequate hypoglycemia with clinical symptoms was achieved in all but two patients. One of these patients showed elevated basal glucose concentrations before the test because of formerly unknown diabetes mellitus. One patient showed normal basal glucose concentrations but did not reach adequate hypoglycemia. The ITT was

repeated on a second occasion with an increased insulin dose, but again no adequate hypoglycemia was achieved. Diabetes mellitus was suspected and an oral glucose tolerance test proposed, but the patient denied further investigations. These two patients were excluded from the analysis.

Eventually, data of 19 patients (13 males, 6 females) were included in the final analysis. They were 22–65 years old (mean 38.7 ± 11.7 years). Time interval since diagnosis ranged from 10 to 56 months (mean 26.1 ± 13.1 months). Diagnosis was proved by lumbar puncture. In all patients, an elevation of protein concentrations and pleocytosis of cerebrospinal fluid indicated a disturbance in the blood–brain barrier. A direct examination of bacteria and antibody determinations (herpes simplex, varicella, Epstein–Barr, neuroborreliosis, tick-borne encephalitis) in the cerebrospinal fluid and serum were performed. Of all these patients, 4 suffered from neuroborreliosis, 2 from encephalitis (2 tick-borne encephalitis), and 13 from meningitis (1 herpes simplex, 1 varicella, 1 enterovirus, 10 of unknown origin). Imaging (cranial computed tomography or magnetic resonance imaging) was performed in patient numbers 2, 4–8, 10, 14, 15, and 19. The degree of disease was mild (no neurological deficits) or moderate (neurological deficits, no impairment of consciousness or other severe complication, no treatment at an intensive care unit) in all cases. All patients were treated with acyclovir and different antibiotics, leading to improvement of symptoms. Patient characteristics are given in Table 2.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 12.0 for Windows. Groups were compared by one-factorial ANOVA, and correlations established according to Pearson. $P < 0.05$ was considered significant. Data are given as mean $\pm$ s.d.

Assays and pituitary insufficiency

GH and IGF-I were determined using a solid-phase chemiluminescence immunometric assay (Immulite 2500; EURO/DPC, Llanberis, UK), and progesterone using a chemiluminescence assay (DXI 800; Beckmann

Table 1 Insulin tolerance test: time of cortisol, growth hormone (GH), and adrenocorticotropin (ACTH) determinations.

Hormone	Regular insulin i.v. bolus (0.10–0.15 IU/kg body weight) given at 0 min						
	–30 min	0 min	15 min	30 min	60 min	90 min	120 min
Cortisol		X		X	X		
GH	X	X		X	X	X	X
ACTH		X	X	X			

Table 2 Patient characteristics: age (years), sex (male, female), time from disease to testing (months), infectious disease, neurological deficits during acute CNS infection, and actual neurological and self-experienced deficits (corticotrophic insufficient patients are marked in gray shades).

	Age	Sex	Time	Infectious disease	Neurological deficits	Actual symptoms
1	63	M	16	Neuroborreliosis	Vertigo	Fatigue, paraesthesia (legs)
2	37	M	49	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	Cephalgia
3	42	M	18	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	Fatigue
4	29	F	19	Meningitis, unknown etiology	Hemihypesthesia and hemiparesis	No
5	36	M	12	Herpes simplex meningitis	No	Lack of concentration
6	34	F	45	Neuroborreliosis	Cramps, generalized paresis	Myalgia, cramps, generalized paresis, cold intolerance, lack of concentration, reduced vision
7	42	M	56	Tick-borne encephalitis	No	No
8	35	M	19	Varicella meningitis	No	Cephalgia
9	24	M	43	Neuroborreliosis	Paraparesis (legs)	No
10	36	M	30	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	No
11	24	M	17	Tick-borne encephalitis	Reduced vision	No
12	65	M	31	Neuroborreliosis	Dysbasia	Fatigue, dysbasia, RLS, paraesthesia, sleep disturbance
13	22	F	16	Enterovirus meningitis	No	Fatigue
14	50	F	22	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	Fatigue
15	38	M	22	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	Fatigue, forgetfulness
16	43	F	20	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	Mood disturbance
17	38	M	28	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	No
18	30	F	22	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	Fatigue
19	48	M	10	Meningitis, unknown etiology	No	Cephalgia

Coulter, Krefeld, Germany). All other endocrine parameters were determined using the ADVIA Centaur System (Bayer HealthCare); cortisol, estradiol, testosterone, fT_3 , and fT_4 using a competitive immunoassay; and LH, FSH, PRL and TSH using a sandwich immunoassay (direct chemiluminescence technology). Due to technical reasons, the method of ACTH determination had to be changed during the study. ACTH was determined using an immunoluminometric assay (LUMitest ACTH; Brahms, Hennigsdorf, Germany) in patient numbers 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 16, and 18, and a solid-phase chemiluminescence immunometric assay (IMMULITE 2500; EURO/DPC) in patient numbers 2, 5, 7, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 17, and 19.

Corticotrophic insufficiency was defined as peak cortisol concentration during the ITT $<181.25 \mu\text{g/l}$ (500 nmol/l) (10). Severe somatotrophic deficiency was defined as peak GH concentration during the ITT $<3 \text{ ng/ml}$ (0.14 pmol/l), and partial deficiency as peak GH concentration between 3 and 5 ng/ml (0.23 pmol/l) (20). Gonadotrophic deficiency was defined as testosterone concentration $<2.4 \mu\text{g/l}$ (8.4 nmol/l) without LH elevation ($>9.2 \text{ U/l}$) in males, referring to the reference range given by the manufacturer of the assay, and the presence of menstrual disturbances in females. As a higher cut-off for males has also been proposed (21), a borderline gonadotrophic deficiency was defined as testosterone concentration between 2.4 and 3.0 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (10.5 nmol/l) in males. Thyrotrophic deficiency was defined as fT_3 concentration $<3.1 \text{ pmol/l}$ (2.0 pg/ml) and/or fT_4 concentration $<7.5 \text{ pmol/l}$

(0.59 ng/dl) without TSH elevation ($>5.6 \text{ mU/l}$). PRL concentrations were considered normal between 2.1 and 17.7 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (93.2 and 785.9 pmol/l) in men and between 2.8 and 25.0 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (124.3 and 1109.8 pmol/l) in women. Posterior pituitary insufficiency was considered in case of reported polydipsia and polyuria and electrolyte disturbances.

Results

Corticotrophic axis

Four patients (21%; two males, two females) showed a peak of cortisol $<181.25 \mu\text{g/l}$ during the ITT. In the patients with a corticotrophic deficiency, peak cortisol ranged from 115 to 172 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (mean $141.0 \pm 28.3 \mu\text{g/l}$), and in the non-deficient patients from 183 to 240 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (mean $210.5 \pm 19.7 \mu\text{g/l}$), the difference being highly significant ($P=0.000$). The corticotrophic insufficiencies were not combined with any further pituitary deficiency (Table 3).

In the patients with corticotrophic deficiency, basal cortisol ranged from 81 to 144 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (mean $103.3 \pm 29.3 \mu\text{g/l}$), basal ACTH from 7.5 to 14.1 pg/ml (mean $11.0 \pm 3.5 \text{ pg/ml}$), and peak ACTH during the ITT from 14.1 to 72.8 pg/ml (mean $35.3 \pm 25.9 \text{ pg/ml}$). In the non-deficient patients, basal cortisol ranged from 53 to 186 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (mean $121.6 \pm 36.5 \mu\text{g/l}$), basal ACTH from 4.6 to 40.5 pg/ml (mean $15.7 \pm 10.3 \text{ pg/ml}$), and peak ACTH during the ITT from 4.6 to 245.9 pg/ml (mean $70.0 \pm 74.7 \text{ pg/ml}$). The differences between both

Table 3 Hormone concentrations: basal and stimulated cortisol ($\mu\text{g/l}$), growth hormone (GH; ng/ml), adrenocorticotropin (ACTH; pg/ml), basal thyrotrophin (TSH; mU/l), free tri-iodothyronine (fT_3) and free thyroxine (fT_4 ; pmol/l), luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH; U/l), testosterone ($\mu\text{g/l}$), estradiol (ng/l), progesterone ($\mu\text{g/l}$), prolactin (PRL; $\mu\text{g/l}$), and insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I; ng/ml).

	Cortisol	Cortisol peak	GH	GH peak	ACTH	ACTH peak	TSH	fT_3	fT_4	LH	FSH	Testo.	Estr.	Prog.	PRL	IGF-I
1	139	186	1.2	5.6	22.5	22.5	1.7	3.9	10	1.7	4.7	4.7	—	—	6.2	133
2	53	219	<0.05	18.1	7.8	38.7	0.56	6.1	10	2.6	1.8	4.7	—	—	5.4	136
3	144	158	0.1	36.5	14.1	14.1	0.5	4.6	12	4.1	11	5.5	—	—	5.9	121
4	97	221	0.08	17.3	9.8	127	1.2	4.7	11	13	7.3	—	135	1	9.4	179
5	104	188	1.96	19.5	10.0	10.0	1.3	4.6	12	3.7	2.1	3.0	—	—	4.8	155
6	159	185	7.17	14.2	13.2	13.2	1.9	4.4	11	4.6	13	—	185	1.7	16.7	170
7	119	221	0.081	18.5	14.3	14.3	0.94	4.5	12	3.1	3.1	4.0	—	—	7.2	192
8	179	212	<0.05	9.57	29.8	90.7	0.49	5.2	11	2.7	5	3.1	—	—	5.0	143
9	142	240	2.19	36.9	16.9	135	2.1	5.1	13	4.3	7.8	4.9	—	—	9.3	177
10	136	228	<0.05	8.92	8.9	166	0.86	4.5	13	2.3	7.1	3.6	—	—	5.0	130
11	122	214	0.33	11.9	40.5	245.9	0.95	4.4	12	2.5	3.6	3.0	—	—	8.1	165
12	105	183	1.03	8.81	4.6	4.6	1.2	3.8	9.8	2.6	4.3	2.9	—	—	7.8	100
13	81	115	9.59	9.59	8.6	72.8	0.68	5.1	10	5.9	5.9	—	51	0.55	7.2	209
14	86	225	0.366	9.72	6.3	15.1	0.84	4.6	9.3	7.1	32	—	<20	0.75	6.9	147
15	83	172	0.125	31.7	7.5	30.2	0.23	4.3	13	2.3	2.9	5.9	—	—	2.4	211
16	81	210	0.26	16.4	5.5	13.5	1.1	5.2	12	2.3	8.5	—	49	2.1	8.7	86.3
17	186	237	17.9	33.1	25.3	133	0.8	4.5	10	4.1	2.5	3.6	—	—	5.4	113
18	105	119	4.3	8.9	13.9	24.1	3.4	5.1	12	3.6	2.7	—	83	6.2	6.9	170
19	116	188	3.26	14.3	19.9	19.9	0.79	4.9	12	3	5.1	2.7	—	—	6.7	124

groups were not significant ($P=0.369$, 0.391 , and 0.382). Peak cortisol concentrations were not correlated with basal cortisol, basal ACTH, or peak ACTH concentrations ($P=0.315$, 0.412 , and 0.080).

In patients reporting self-experienced fatigue, peak cortisol concentrations were lower than those in patients not reporting fatigue (165.4 ± 38.9 vs 213.6 ± 18.4 $\mu\text{g/l}$; $P=0.002$).

Somatotropic axis

No patient showed a peak GH < 5.0 ng/ml during the ITT. Only one patient showed a response close to a partial somatotrophic insufficiency (peak GH 5.6 $\mu\text{g/l}$). This particular patient showed a sufficient cortisol response during the ITT and normal IGF-I concentrations.

Basal GH ranged from 0.05 to 17.9 ng/ml (mean 2.63 ± 4.55 ng/ml), peak GH from 5.6 to 36.9 ng/ml (mean 17.34 ± 9.98 ng/ml), and basal IGF-I from 86.3 to 211 ng/ml (mean 150.6 ± 34.9 ng/ml). Fifteen patients had IGF-I concentrations within the age-related reference range, three patients between -2 and -1 s.d., and one patient below -2 s.d. (22).

Thyrotrophic axis

No patient showed fT_3 or fT_4 concentrations below the reference range. Basal fT_3 ranged from 3.8 to 6.1 pmol/l (mean 4.7 ± 0.52 pmol/l), basal fT_4 from 9.3 to 13.0 pmol/l (mean 11.3 ± 1.2 pmol/l), and basal TSH from 0.23 to 3.4 mU/l (mean 1.13 ± 0.73 mU/l).

Gonadotrophic axis

No male patient showed testosterone concentrations below 2.4 $\mu\text{g/l}$; all women had a regular menstrual cycle. Two male patients showed a borderline gonadotrophic insufficiency with testosterone concentrations between 2.4 and 3.0 $\mu\text{g/l}$ and low LH concentrations. One of these patients reported loss of erection and libido, and the other did not show any clinical evidence for a gonadotrophic insufficiency.

Basal testosterone ranged from 2.7 to 5.9 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (mean 4.0 ± 1.1 $\mu\text{g/l}$), basal estradiol from 20.0 to 185.0 ng/l (mean 87.2 ± 61.9 ng/l), basal progesterone from 0.55 to 6.20 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (mean 2.1 ± 2.1 $\mu\text{g/l}$), basal sex hormone binding globulin (SHBG) from 13.0 to 87.0 nmol/l (mean 37.1 ± 19.5 nmol/l), basal LH from 1.7 to 46.0 U/l (mean 6.2 ± 10.0 U/l), and basal FSH from 1.8 to 32.0 U/l (mean 6.9 ± 6.8 U/l).

Lactotrophic axis

All patients showed PRL concentrations within the reference range. Basal PRL ranged from 2.4 to 16.7 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (mean 7.1 ± 2.9 $\mu\text{g/l}$).

Posterior pituitary insufficiency

No patient showed evidence for diabetes insipidus.

Body impedance analysis

Body mass index (BMI) ranged from 16.6 to 34.7 kg/m² (mean 25.5 ± 5.1 kg/m²), fat mass from 5.7 to 42.2 kg (mean 17.4 ± 9.9 kg), fat-free mass from 34.0 to 84.0 kg (mean 63.3 ± 12.8 kg), and body water from 24.9 to 61.5 kg (mean 46.3 ± 9.4 kg).

BMI and body composition were not different between patients with a corticotrophic insufficiency and non-deficient patients (23.8 ± 5.3 vs 25.9 ± 5.2 kg/m², 13.7 ± 8.1 vs 18.3 ± 10.4 kg, 58.8 ± 12.8 vs 64.5 ± 13.0 kg and 43.1 ± 9.3 vs 47.2 ± 9.5 kg; *P* = 0.473, 0.417, 0.445, and 0.448).

Discussion

Infectious diseases of the CNS may cause hypothalamic and/or pituitary dysfunction. The aim of this study was to determine the incidence of hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency in patients with previous infectious diseases of the CNS of different etiologies and mild-to-moderate clinical course.

In most previous case reports, isolated posterior pituitary insufficiency following infectious diseases of the CNS has been described in children: in a retrospective analysis, severe CNS infection was seen in 8 out of 73 children with central diabetes insipidus. The infectious agents were group B streptococcus, *Haemophilus*

influenzae, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, and unknown virus (23). Central diabetes insipidus developed in five infants with congenital cytomegalovirus infection (24) and in a 5-year-old boy with encephalitis caused by Coxsackie virus B1 after resuscitation (25). Only few cases of isolated posterior pituitary insufficiency in adults following CNS infections have been reported, mainly affecting immuno-compromised patients. Infectious agents were herpes simplex (26), *S. pneumoniae* (27), and cryptococci (28) in patients with AIDS, and herpes simplex in one female with ectopic ACTH-dependent Cushing’s syndrome due to metastatic carcinoid. Autopsy revealed involvement of the hypothalamus with a viral destruction of vasopressin-producing neurons in this particular patient (29). Finally, an otherwise healthy woman developed diabetes insipidus 3 weeks after acute herpes simplex encephalitis (30).

Basal anterior pituitary hormone levels were normal (26, 30) or were not determined (23, 25, 27, 28) in these patients, and stimulation tests have been performed in only few (24). Reports of anterior pituitary dysfunction following infectious diseases of the CNS are rare, and the incidence has not yet been studied systematically. In almost all reported cases, the anterior pituitary insufficiency was caused by viruses (14–18), and only one bacterial meningoencephalitis associated with diabetes insipidus and suspected corticotrophic insufficiency has been reported. A CT of the head revealed a contrast-enhanced suprasellar lesion in this particular patient (19). The endocrine deficiencies reached from complete panhypopituitarism including diabetes insipidus (14–16, 18) to various partial defects (14, 15, 17). Data of these patients are given in Table 4.

Table 4 Reported cases of anterior pituitary insufficiency after infectious diseases of the CNS: age (years), sex (male, female), time from disease to diagnosis (years), infectious agent, neurological and endocrine deficits.

	Age	Sex	Time	Infectious agent	Neurological deficits	Endocrine deficits	Reference
1	43	F	0	Unknown virus	Retrobulbar neuritis	Gonadotropic, thyrotropic and somatotrophic insufficiency, diabetes insipidus	Hagg <i>et al.</i> (14)
2	53	M	0	Coxsackie B5	Paresis of the sixth nerve on both sides	Gonadotropic, thyrotropic and somatotrophic insufficiency	Kupari <i>et al.</i> (15)
3	23	M	3	Influenza A	No	Somatotropic and corticotrophic insufficiency	
4	39	F	0	Unknown virus	Paresis of the right arm, face and third nerve, retrobulbar neuritis	Panhypopituitarism, diabetes insipidus	Lichenstein <i>et al.</i> (18)
5	54	F	0	Herpes simplex	Convulsions and unresponsiveness	Corticotrophic and somatotrophic insufficiency, hypoprolactinemia	
6	41	M	0	Unknown virus	Somnolence and disorientation	Panhypopituitarism, hyperprolactinemia, diabetes insipidus	Jew <i>et al.</i> (19)
7	53	F	0	Unknown bacteria	Tremor, lethargy, loss of cognitive functions and visual hallucinations	Corticotrophic insufficiency, diabetes insipidus	
8	76	F	0	Herpes simplex	Akinetic parkinsonian syndrome	Corticotrophic, thyrotropic and gonadotropic insufficiency, hyperprolactinemia, diabetes insipidus	Ickenstein <i>et al.</i> (16)
9	49	M	27	Herpes simplex	Expressive aphasia	Thyrotropic and gonadotropic insufficiency	Vesely <i>et al.</i> (17)

In our study, we found no evidence for posterior pituitary deficiencies; however, no dynamic testing (i.e., water deprivation test) has been performed and partial posterior pituitary insufficiencies might have been missed. On the contrary, there were a substantial number of isolated corticotropic deficiencies. With these findings, we are in concordance with Kreitschmann-Andermahr *et al.* (10), who found a high incidence of isolated corticotropic deficiencies in patients with previous SAH. Contrary to their data, in our present study, other anterior pituitary deficits despite two borderline gonadotropic deficiencies were not seen, especially no somatotrophic deficiencies and no differences in body composition.

It is reasonable to assume that the incidence and pattern of hormonal deficiencies after an acute infectious (meningo-) encephalitis may vary with the type of causative agent, the localization of brain lesion, as well as with the severity of disease. The hormonal deficiencies may be transient (15, 19) or permanent (15–17, 23, 30).

Endocrine deficiencies have been reported following infectious diseases of the CNS of different etiologies. Three of the patients with corticotropic insufficiency in our study had suffered from meningitis of unknown origin; in one patient meningitis caused by enterovirus had been diagnosed. It has been suggested that focal neurological symptoms from the basal regions of the brain might be suggestive of an increased risk of hypothalamic–pituitary damage (14, 15), but heterogeneous neurological deficits have been reported in affected patients. Few patients (15) and also all patients with corticotropic deficiency in our study had presented with symptoms of general illness (cephalgia, myalgia, fever), but no neurological deficits at all. In only one patient (15), imaging of the head had been performed during acute illness, revealing no abnormalities of the pituitary gland or hypothalamus. In earlier case reports, endocrine investigations and elevated basal PRL levels (probably due to the loss of tonic inhibition of the pituitary lactotrophs by the hypothalamus) were suggestive of a hypothalamic rather than a pituitary lesion (14, 16, 18). On the contrary, in other patients, the pituitary gland seemed directly affected (15, 17). In our investigation, PRL concentrations were within the normal ranges in all patients. However, the presence of an isolated corticotropic deficiency has been taken as a hint for a hypothalamic rather than a pituitary damage (10). The site of the endocrine dysfunction and the reason for the predominance of isolated corticotropic insufficiency remain speculative.

Especially, self-reported persisting fatigue following an infectious CNS disease might be suggestive of the presence of a hypothalamic–pituitary damage. Of the seven patients reporting fatigue, four proved to have an isolated corticotropic insufficiency in our study. A hydrocortisone substitution therapy was started. One patient (no. 18) experienced massive subjective

improvement of well-being and vitality. Two patients (numbers 3 and 15) seemed not to benefit from the hormone substitution. Both had a moderately diminished peak cortisol during the ITT. Another patient (no. 13) declined a substitution therapy. Although these early results do not allow any final conclusions, they point toward a possible use and necessity of hormone substitution therapy in some patients following infectious diseases of the CNS.

Finally, it has to be mentioned that our data might be biased for the following two reasons: during recruitment many patients denied to take part in our study as they felt completely healthy and favoring the inclusion of patients with self-experienced deficits might lead to an overestimation of the incidence of hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiencies. On the other hand, the acute disease of most patients in the published case reports were more severe than that in our patients, resulting in neurological deficits and even death. Only slightly or moderately ill patients with a good neurological outcome were included in our study, and the incidence of pituitary insufficiencies might be higher in patients with severe persistent neurological deficits.

In summary, it may be that hypothalamic–pituitary dysfunction and especially isolated corticotropic insufficiency may develop in a relevant proportion of patients after mild and moderate infectious diseases of the CNS, and that the clinical picture of some patients with endocrine insufficiency might be misinterpreted as an ordinary post-encephalitic syndrome. Furthermore, prospective studies investigating patients during and after infectious diseases of the CNS and the effects of hormone replacement therapy are warranted.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Novo Nordisk, Mainz, Germany for providing the grants, which made this investigation possible.

References

- 1 Dexter RN. Hypopituitarism. In *Principles and Practice of Endocrinology and Metabolism*, edn 2, Eds KL Becker, JP Bilezikian, WJ Bremner, W Hung, CR Kahn, DL Loriaux, ES Nylen, RW Rebar, GL Robertson & L Wartofsky, Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1995.
- 2 Edwards OM & Clark JD. Post-traumatic hypopituitarism. Six cases and a review of the literature. *Medicine* 1968 **65** 281–290.
- 3 Benvenga S, Campenni A, Ruggeri RM & Trimarchi F. Clinical review 113: hypopituitarism secondary to head trauma. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2000 **85** 1353–1361.
- 4 Kelly DF, Gonzalo IT, Cohan P, Berman N, Swerdloff R & Wang C. Hypopituitarism following traumatic brain injury and aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage: a preliminary report. *Journal of Neurosurgery* 2000 **93** 743–752.

- 5 Richard I, Rome J, Lemene B, Louis F, Perrouin-Verbe B & Mathe JF. Post-traumatic endocrine deficits: analysis of a series of 93 severe traumatic brain injuries. *Annales de Readaptation et de Médecine Physique* 2001 **44** 19–25.
- 6 Aimaretti G, Ambrosio MR, Di Somma C, Fusco A, Cannavo S, Gasperi M, Scaroni C, De Marinis L, Benvenia S, degli Uberti EC, Lombardi G, Mantero F, Martino E, Giordano G & Ghigo E. Traumatic brain injury and subarachnoid haemorrhage are conditions at high risk for hypopituitarism: screening study at 3 months after the brain injury. *Clinical Endocrinology* 2004 **61** 320–326.
- 7 Lieberman SA, Oberoi AL, Gilkison CR, Masel BE & Urban RJ. Prevalence of neuroendocrine dysfunction in patients recovering from traumatic brain injury. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2001 **86** 2752–2756.
- 8 Agha A, Rogers B, Sherlock M, O'Kelly P, Tormey W, Phillips J & Thompson CJ. Anterior pituitary dysfunction in survivors of traumatic brain injury. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2004 **89** 4929–4936.
- 9 Agha A, Thornton E, O'Kelly P, Tormey W, Phillips J & Thompson CJ. Posterior pituitary dysfunction after traumatic brain injury. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2004 **89** 5987–5992.
- 10 Kreitschmann-Andermahr I, Hoff C, Saller B, Niggemeier S, Pruemper S, Huetter BO, Rohde V, Gressner A, Matern S & Gilsbach JM. Prevalence of pituitary deficiency in patients after aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2004 **89** 4986–4992.
- 11 Brooks MH, Dumlao JS, Bronsky D & Waldstein SS. Hypophysial tuberculoma with hypopituitarism. *American Journal of Medicine* 1973 **54** 777–781.
- 12 Summers VK, Hipkin LJ, Osborne R & Davis JC. Panhypopituitarism after cured tuberculous meningitis. *BMJ* 1968 **1** 359.
- 13 Haslam RHA, Winternitz WW & Howieson J. Selective hypopituitarism following tuberculous meningitis. *American Journal of Diseases of Children* 1969 **118** 903–908.
- 14 Hagg E, Astrom L & Steen L. Persistent hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency following acute meningoencephalitis. *Acta Medica Scandinavica* 1978 **203** 231–235.
- 15 Kupari M, Pelkonen R & Valtonen V. Post-encephalitic hypothalamic–pituitary insufficiency. *Acta Endocrinologica* 1980 **94** 433–438.
- 16 Ickenstein GW, Klotz JM & Langohr HD. Virus encephalitis with symptomatic Parkinson Syndrome diabetes insipidus and panhypopituitarism. *Fortschritte der Neurologie Psychiatrie* 1999 **67** 476–481.
- 17 Vesely DL, Mastrandrea P, Samson C, Argyelan G & Charvit S. Post-herpes encephalitic anterior pituitary insufficiency with hypothermia and hypotension. *American Journal of the Medical Sciences* 2000 **320** 273–277.
- 18 Lichtenstein MJ, Tilley WS & Sandler MP. The syndrome of hypothalamic hypopituitarism complicating viral meningoencephalitis. *Journal of Endocrinological Investigation* 1982 **5** 111–115.
- 19 Jew K, Piziak V, Gilliland PF & Hurley DL. Meningoencephalitis complicated by pituitary insufficiency and a spontaneously resolving suprasellar mass. *Neurosurgery* 1984 **14** 567–569.
- 20 Consensus guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of adults with growth hormone deficiency: summary statement of the growth hormone research society workshop on adult growth hormone deficiency. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 1998 **83** 379–381.
- 21 Nieschlag E, Swerdloff R, Behre HM, Gooren LJ, Kaufmann JM, Legros JJ, Lunenfeld B, Morley JE, Schulman C, Wang C, Weidner W & Wu FC. Investigation, treatment and monitoring of late-onset hypogonadism in males. ISA, ISSAM, and EAU recommendations. *European Urology* 2005 **48** 1–4.
- 22 Elmlinger MW, Kuhnel W, Weber MM & Ranke MB. Reference ranges for two automated chemiluminescent assays for serum insulin-like growth factor I (IGF-I) and IGF-binding protein 3 (IGFBP-3). *Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine* 2004 **42** 654–664.
- 23 Greger NG, Kirkland RT, Clayton GW & Kirkland JL. Central diabetes insipidus. 22 years' experience. *American Journal of Diseases of Children* 1986 **140** 551–554.
- 24 Mena W, Royal S, Pass RE, Whitley RJ & Phillips JB, III. Diabetes insipidus associated with symptomatic congenital cytomegalovirus infection. *Journal of Pediatrics* 1993 **122** 911–913.
- 25 Lee YJ, Yang D, Shyur SD & Chiu NC. Neurogenic diabetes insipidus in a child with fatal Coxsackie virus B1 encephalitis. *Journal of Pediatric Endocrinology and Metabolism* 1995 **8** 301–304.
- 26 Madhoun MD, Dubois DB & Rosenthal J. Central diabetes insipidus: a complication of herpes simplex type 2 encephalitis in a patient with AIDS. *American Journal of Medicine* 1991 **90** 658–659.
- 27 Franco-Paredes C, Evans J & Jurado R. Diabetes insipidus due to *Streptococcus pneumoniae* meningitis. *Archives of Internal Medicine* 2001 **161** 1114–1115.
- 28 Woredekal Y. Recurrent central diabetes insipidus secondary to cryptococcal meningitis. *Journal of the Association for Academic Minority Physicians* 1998 **9** 22–24.
- 29 Torres AM, Kazee AM, Simon H, Knudson PE & Weinstock RS. Central diabetes insipidus due to herpes simplex in a patient immunosuppressed by Cushing's syndrome. *Endocrine Practice* 2000 **6** 26–28.
- 30 Canton A, Simo R, Mesa J, Molina C, Rovira A & Montalban X. Central diabetes insipidus: a complication of herpes simplex encephalitis. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery, and Psychiatry* 1996 **61** 325–326.

Received 9 October 2007

Accepted 14 October 2007