

1 **Title:** Predictors of Insulin Like Growth Factor-I responses to Growth Hormone replacement in young
2 adults with Growth Hormone deficiency

3 **Short Title:** IGF-I responses in young adults

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29 **Abstract:**

30 **Background/Aims:** Physiological growth hormone (GH) secretion and IGF-I levels are greater in young
31 compared to older adults. We evaluated IGF-I levels and predictors of IGF-I responses in young adults on
32 GH replacement.

33 **Design:** From KIMS database, 310 young adults (age, 15-26 years) with the severe GH deficiency related
34 to childhood-onset disease, and commenced on 'adult GH replacement' were identified. 'IGF-I responses'
35 were estimated from first-year increments in IGF-I SDS and adjusted for GH dose. Body composition
36 was assessed by bioimpedance in 143 patients.

37 **Results:** IGF-I levels increased markedly from baseline to 1-year of replacement (-3.75 ± 1.94 vs $-$
38 1.36 ± 1.86 SDS, $p < 0.0001$), but remained low compared to normative data despite dose titration. In
39 multivariate models, IGF-I responses were positively associated with age (B [SE] SDS/[mg/m²]; 0.52
40 [0.15], $p = 0.0007$) and BMI SDS (1.06[0.25], $p < 0.0001$), and inversely associated with female gender ($-$
41 $4.45[0.79]$, $p < 0.0001$) and baseline IGF-I SDS ($-1.44[0.20]$, $p < 0.0001$). IGF-I responses were positively
42 associated with first-year increases in lean body mass ($r = 0.19$, $p = 0.003$) and HbA1c ($r = 0.15$, $p = 0.031$).

43 **Conclusions:** Low IGF-I levels in young adults on treatment may reflect suboptimal GH replacement.
44 Identification of predictors for IGF-I responses could lead to a more appropriate replacement strategy.
45 Association between IGF-I responses and lean body mass suggests that maintaining age-appropriate IGF-I
46 levels is important during therapy.

47 **Introduction:**

48 Endogenous Growth Hormone (GH) secretion varies considerably with the developmental state [1]. It
49 peaks in late puberty, decreases rapidly in the first half of the third decade, and gradually declines
50 thereafter throughout adult life [2,3]. Circulating levels of insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I) follows a
51 similar pattern [4]. The GH output estimated per unit surface area in young adults is as high as in pre-
52 pubertal children, and almost two-fold greater than in middle-aged adults [2,3]. The post-pubertal state
53 with the relatively high GH secretion and IGF-I levels corresponds to a period of somatic maturation
54 which lasts until the middle of the third decade [5,6]. Reductions in lean body mass and bone mineral
55 density (BMD), and increases in fat mass in patients with childhood-onset GH deficiency (GHD) who
56 discontinued GH replacement, and physiological rates of accretion of lean body mass and bone mass on
57 replacement support a critical role of GH in the continued physical development after the completion of
58 linear growth [5-7]. However, the current recommendations for replacement in young adults with severe
59 GHD at final height are similar to older adults, and include restarting therapy on a low ‘adult dose’ of GH
60 (0.2-0.5mg) and titrating to achieve IGF-I levels in the upper half of age- and gender-appropriate normal
61 ranges (0 to +2 standard deviation scores [SDS]) [8]. Yet, the majority of studies on GH replacement in
62 young adults used considerably larger doses based on body size (10-25 $\mu\text{kg}/\text{kg}/\text{day}$), and the effects of the
63 current strategy for replacement are not known.

64
65 Young women have 1.5 fold greater endogenous GH secretion compared to young men [9], however, the
66 IGF-I levels are similar [4] and suggest lower IGF-I responses in women. Age, BMI and sex hormone
67 replacement are linked to IGF-I responses to GH in older adults [10], however, their impact on IGF-I
68 titrated GH treatment in young adults are not known. Although IGF-I levels are used to guide GH dose
69 titration in adults, its relationship with clinical outcomes or adverse effects are poor [10]. In contrast, IGF-
70 I levels are a sensitive marker of GHD in young adults compared to older adults [11], but, the relationship
71 between IGF-I responses and other treatment outcomes in young adults have not been studied. The aim of

72 the study was to determine the IGF-I levels on GH replacement, the factors associated with IGF-I
73 responses to GH, and the relationship between IGF-I responses and changes in body composition or
74 glucose metabolism in young adults.

75 **Subjects & Methods:**

76 **Database**

77 The analyses were performed in the KIMS (Pfizer International Metabolic Database), an international
78 pharmaco-epidemiological registry established in 1994 for monitoring the long-term clinical and safety
79 outcomes of GH replacement (Genotropin[®]) in adult patients with GHD, and run until 2013, the details of
80 which have been described elsewhere [12]. Briefly, the KIMS is based on 14,000 adult GHD patients
81 from 31 countries and has the data on background characteristics, details of GH therapy, clinical
82 measurements, quality of life (QoL), adverse events and centrally measured IGF-I levels. The IGF-I
83 levels and the derived IGF-I SDS values were promptly fed back to the investigators to assist titration of
84 GH dose. However, the study did not specify or provide any guidance on the treatment, and the starting
85 dose of GH and the dose increments were decided by the investigators according to the local practice.

86 **Subjects**

87 Young adults aged 15-26 years with childhood-onset disease and evidence of severe GHD on re-
88 evaluation after attainment of final height, and had IGF-I measurements prior to (baseline) and after 1
89 year of starting adult GH replacement were selected from the KIMS (n=310). GH deficiency was defined
90 by peak GH levels <5µg/L on a provocation test (n=246), and when the data were not available, by the
91 presence of ≥2 additional pituitary hormonal deficiencies (n=54) or IGF-I levels ≤-2.0 SDS while off GH
92 therapy in patients with an organic cause for pituitary dysfunction (n=10) [8,13]. Among patients who
93 underwent GH provocation tests, a variety of stimuli were used including insulin (58.1% [n=143]),
94 arginine (15.9% [n=39]), glucagon (8.5% [n=21]), GHRH-Arginine (1.6% [n=4]) and others (4.1%
95 [n=10]) whereas the type of test was not documented in 11.8% [n=29]. The IGF-I levels in patients

96 evaluated using the commonly recommended tests for adults [14] (insulin, glucagon or GHRH-Arginine,
97 [n=168]) compared with other tests [n=78] were similar (baseline IGF-I SD: -3.84 ± 1.89 vs -3.64 ± 1.50 ,
98 $p=0.32$; IGF-I SDS at 1 year: -1.36 ± 1.93 vs -1.41 ± 1.74 , $p=0.58$). Although we used a higher threshold of
99 peak GH levels (<5 $\mu\text{g/L}$) for the diagnosis, only 5.7% (14/246) patients had peak levels in the ≥ 3 $\mu\text{g/L}$.
100 The patients included those who did not receive prior GH replacement (true naïve, n=61) or had previous
101 GH therapy, but discontinued treatment for >6 months (semi naïve, n=249). The true naïve patients had
102 childhood-onset pituitary disease (age of onset, 13.0 ± 5.1 years), but GHD was diagnosed (age, 18.0 ± 3.7
103 years) and GH replacement started (age, 21.0 ± 2.5 years) during adulthood. Appropriate ethics approval
104 was obtained in each country, the subjects or their parents provided written informed consent and the
105 study was conducted according to the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki [12].

106

107 **Assessments**

108 The weight, height, and waist and hip circumferences were measured at baseline, and at 1 and 2 years
109 after GH replacement. The body composition was estimated in a subgroup (n=143) using bioelectrical
110 impedance analysis (BIA) employing a variety of different instruments in the participating centres. The
111 QoL was evaluated using QoL-Assessment of GHD in Adults (QoL-AGHDA) questionnaire [14], which
112 is based on a scale where a lower score represents a higher QoL. Circulating levels of IGF-I, lipids,
113 fasting glucose and haemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) were also measured at these time points.

114 **Assays**

115 The serum IGF-I and lipids concentrations were measured centrally while blood glucose and HbA1c were
116 analysed at the participating centres. Serum IGF-I measurements were performed at Kabi Pharmacia,
117 Stockholm, Sweden during 1994-1997 and at Sahlgrenska University Hospital, Gothenburg, Sweden.
118 Thereafter. The IGF-I assays used were a radioimmunoassay following acid/ethanol precipitation of IGF
119 binding proteins (Nichols Institute Diagnostic, San Juan Capistrano, CA, USA) until November 2002 and
120 a chemiluminescence immunoassay (Nichols advantage system) thereafter as previously reported [4,15].

121 Serum total cholesterol (TC), triglycerides and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) were
122 measured as previously described and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) was calculated by the
123 Friedewald's formula [16].

124 **Calculations**

125 Physiological levels of IGF-I decline markedly from a peak at the end of puberty to the relatively stable
126 adult levels by the middle of the third decade [4]. As the age of patients at the start of 'adult replacement'
127 in the study ranged from 15 to 26 years, we used age and gender specific IGF-I SDS estimated using
128 assay-specific normative data in the calculations [15]. In patients with GHD, an increase in GH dose
129 results in a linear rise in IGF-I levels [17], however, the dose titration to achieve a target range of IGF-I
130 levels results in a wide range of GH doses. Therefore, in line with the previous reports [18,19], we
131 calculated 'IGF-I response' as a measure of responsiveness to GH, from the increments in IGF-I SDS
132 from baseline (when patients were off replacement) to 1 year of replacement, and adjusted for the GH
133 dose using the formula: $\text{IGF-I response} = [\text{IGF-I SDS at 1 year} - \text{IGF-I SDS at baseline}] / [\text{GH dose}$
134 $(\text{mg}/\text{m}^2) \text{ at 1 year}]$. GH doses were adjusted for body surface area estimated using the Mosteller formula.
135 The BMI SDS was calculated using normative data [20].

136 **Statistics**

137 Spearman correlation was used to estimate univariate associations and the biserial correlations [21]
138 between binary and continuous variables. The relationship between oestrogen treatment and IGF-I levels
139 were adjusted for the number of hormonal deficiencies in a regression model. Prediction models were
140 developed by multiple linear regression analysis, and a hierarchy of predictive factors was derived by the
141 all possible regression approach using Mallows' C(p) criterion for ordering predictive factors as described
142 by Weisberg [22]. Analyses were performed with SAS software (Statistical Analysis system, version 8.2,
143 SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (SD) unless otherwise

144 specified. The associations between IGF-I responses and changes in body composition and HbA1c were
145 adjusted for the baseline measurements in regression models.

146 **Results:**

147 **Baseline data**

148 The patients were recruited between 1994 and 2011 and the distribution of diagnoses and background
149 details (n=310, 180 men) are shown in Table 1 & 2. The diagnosis of GHD was made during childhood at
150 age 13.5 ± 6.4 years, re-evaluated by GH provocation tests at age 20.3 ± 2.6 years and the adult GH
151 replacement was started (KIMS start) at age 21.2 ± 2.5 years. Isolated GHD was seen in 23.2% (n=72)
152 patients, whereas 32.2% (n=100) had 1-2 additional hormonal deficiencies and 43.9% (n=138) were
153 deficient in ≥ 3 additional pituitary hormones. Deficiencies of TSH, ACTH, LH/FSH and antidiuretic
154 hormone were seen in 64.5% (n=200), 51.0% (n=158), 62.9% (n=194) and 26.3% (n=81) patients
155 respectively. Approximately half of the women (n=60, 46.1%) and men (n=82, 45.5%) were on
156 oestrogens and testosterone treatment respectively. Among the women on oestrogens (n=60), 37 were
157 treated with hormone replacement therapy (HRT), 21 with combined oral contraceptive pill, and 2 with
158 oestrogen patches. There were no significant differences between semi naïve and true naïve patients in the
159 age at start of 'adult replacement', GH doses, IGF-I levels at baseline or during treatment (data not
160 shown). Three patients who were treated for brain tumour had diabetes mellitus. In 33 patients, the IGF-I
161 levels were estimated by RIA at baseline, but by the chemiluminescence assay at 1 year. However, there
162 was no significant difference in the IGF-I SDS estimated by the two assays at baseline or at 1 year (data
163 not shown).

164 **Baseline IGF-I levels**

165 At baseline, the IGF-I levels were very low (-3.75 ± 1.94 SDS) compared to the normative data and were
166 lower in women compared with men (-4.14 ± 1.86 vs -3.46 ± 1.96 SDS, $p=0.0018$) (Table 2). The IGF-I
167 levels were positively associated with peak GH levels on provocation tests ($r=0.39$, $p<0.0001$), and were

168 lower in patients with deficiencies of ACTH ($r=-0.25$, $p<0.0001$), TSH ($r=-0.29$, $p<0.0001$), LH/FSH ($r=-$
169 0.31 , $p<0.0001$) and in those with higher numbers of additional pituitary hormonal deficiencies ($r=-0.30$,
170 $p<0.0001$) (Table 3). The IGF-I levels were positively correlated with lean body mass at baseline, but
171 were not associated with age, age at diagnosis of GHD, BMI SDS or fat mass. Women on oestrogen
172 treatment had lower IGF-I levels at baseline compared to other women (-4.74 ± 1.56 SDS vs -3.62 ± 1.94
173 SDS, $p=0.015$).

174 **GH replacement**

175 The GH doses at start were low, however, during the first year of replacement, the doses almost doubled
176 (at start vs 1-year, 0.26 ± 0.23 vs 0.51 ± 0.28 mg, $p<0.0001$) (Table 2). The IGF-I levels increased markedly
177 following GH replacement (baseline vs 1-year, -3.75 ± 1.94 vs -1.36 ± 1.86 SDS, $p<0.0001$). However, at 1
178 year of replacement, the levels were considerably lower than the recommended targets (0 to +2SDS)
179 (Figure-1) and the majority of patients ($n=233$; 75.2%) had IGF-I SDS <0 . Moreover, no further increases
180 in IGF-I levels were observed at 2-years of replacement (IGF-I SDS: 1-year vs 2-years, -1.36 ± 1.86 vs -
181 1.46 ± 2.03 , p -NS). The starting doses of GH were similar in men and women, however, women were on
182 higher GH doses (0.59 ± 0.34 vs 0.45 ± 0.21 mg, $p<0.0001$), but had lower IGF-I levels (-1.83 ± 1.81 vs -
183 1.03 ± 1.82 SDS, $p=0.0002$) compared to men at 1 year. The IGF-I levels were positively associated with
184 age ($r=0.16$, $p=0.005$), waist circumference ($r=0.12$, $p=0.04$), waist-hip ratio ($r=0.13$, $p=0.025$), and BMI
185 SDS ($r=0.11$, $p=0.052$) (Table 3). In women, oestrogen treatment was not related to IGF-I levels at 1 year
186 (IGF-I SDS on vs not on oestrogen: -2.02 ± 1.67 vs -1.67 ± 1.92 , $p=0.56$).

187

188 **IGF-I responses to GH**

189 The IGF-I responses were lower in women compared with men ($p=0.0002$), and were inversely related to
190 baseline IGF-I levels ($r=-0.24$, $p<0.0001$) and peak GH levels on provocation tests ($r=-0.21$, $p=0.001$)
191 (Table-3). The responses were positively associated with age ($r=0.16$, $p=0.005$), BMI SDS ($r=0.12$,
192 $p=0.038$), waist circumference ($r=0.20$, $p=0.0015$) and waist-hip ratio ($r=0.15$, $p=0.019$) (Table-3).

193 Multivariate regression models were constructed using age, gender, aetiology (idiopathic vs organic
194 cause), deficiencies of ACTH, LH/FSH, TSH, ADH, number of pituitary hormonal deficiencies, cranial
195 irradiation, BMI SDS, waist circumference, waist-hip ratio, baseline IGF-I SDS, oestrogen and
196 testosterone treatment, and duration of treatment. Male gender, older age, greater BMI SDS and lower
197 IGF-I SDS at baseline independently predicted higher IGF-I responses ($R^2=0.22$, $p<0.0001$) (Table-4).
198 When the data were analysed separately by gender, significant measures of adiposity in the models were
199 BMI SDS in men and waist circumference in women (Table-4). In women, oestrogen treatment was not
200 associated with IGF-I responses.

201 **Changes in body composition and metabolic parameters during GH replacement and the** 202 **relationship with IGF-I response**

203 During the first year of GH replacement, waist-hip ratio ($p=0.010$) and fat mass ($p=0.034$) decreased
204 whereas lean body mass ($p<0.0001$) and BMI SDS ($p=0.039$) increased (Table-5). Total cholesterol
205 ($p=0.001$) and LDL cholesterol ($p=0.0003$) decreased while HbA1c increased ($p=0.001$) without
206 significant changes in fasting blood glucose levels. At 2 years of replacement, the changes in BMI SDS,
207 lean body mass, total and LDL cholesterol remained significant compared with the baseline whereas
208 alterations in fat mass were no longer significant. Furthermore, fasting blood glucose levels increased
209 ($p=0.019$) and the HbA1c tended to be higher ($p=0.08$) at 2 years compared to the baseline. The QoL-
210 AGHDA score was lower at 1 and 2 years compared with the baseline (both $p<0.0001$) suggesting an
211 improvement in QoL on GH replacement.

212
213 The IGF-I responses were associated with increases in lean body mass ($r=0.19$, $p=0.007$) and HbA1c
214 ($r=0.15$, $p=0.033$) during the first year and the first two years of treatment ($r=0.28$, $p=0.003$, and $r=0.16$,
215 $p=0.057$ respectively) (Supporting Information, Figure-1). The responses were also positively associated
216 with increases in BMI SDS during 2 years of replacement ($r=0.16$, $p=0.013$). However, IGF-I responses
217 were not related to changes in fat mass, lipids, fasting blood glucose levels and QoL-AGHDA scores. The

218 IGF-I responses were also not associated with changes in body composition or metabolic parameters from
219 1 to 2 years (data not shown).

220 **Discussion**

221 We explored a large cohort of young adults with GHD and found that IGF-I levels on replacement were
222 suboptimal. Age, gender, BMI and baseline IGF-I levels predicted IGF-I responses to GH. Furthermore,
223 IGF-I responses were related to increases in lean body mass and HbA1c during replacement.

224
225 The GH doses at the start of replacement were consistent with the low ‘adult doses’ currently
226 recommended in young adults[14], but the GH dose titration resulted in a two-fold increase by 1 year.
227 Despite the availability of IGF-I SDS measurements to the investigators in the KIMS study, the dose
228 titration was inadequate as the IGF-I levels on replacement were >1SDS below the mean for healthy
229 individuals during 2 years of treatment. The reasons for insufficient dose titration are not clear in this
230 study, however, there are several plausible explanations. Lack of robust evidence to define optimal GH
231 doses in young adults and a low starting dose may hinder titrating to a considerably higher age-
232 appropriate doses compared to older adults. Low IGF-I levels with no patients achieving 50th centile of
233 normative data in a small prospective study of young adults treated by dose titration (median GH doses
234 ~11µg/kg) [23] and studies using fixed doses showing that the recommended IGF-I levels are achieved
235 only with doses as high as 25µg/kg suggest that young adults [24,25] require considerably larger doses
236 than currently used. Treatment concordance was not evaluated in the current study, however satisfactory
237 IGF-I levels in middle-aged adults from the KIMS (current study vs middle-aged adults, -1.36 SDS vs
238 +0.8 SDS) on lower GH doses (0.51mg vs 0.43mg) [26] suggest that lower IGF-I responses substantially
239 contribute to the suboptimal levels on replacement in young adults. Furthermore, a randomised double-
240 blind study reported dose-dependent effects in young adults with the ‘paediatric dose’ (25µg/kg) resulting
241 in greater effects on fat mass, BMD and IGF-I levels (+1 vs ‘0’ SDS) compared with an ‘adult dose’
242 (12.5µg/kg) [24]. Although these findings were not reproduced in an open-label study [25], many studies

243 which observed beneficial effects of GH replacement in older adults maintained a mean IGF-I level above
244 '0' SDS [27]. Whereas GHD is associated with adverse cardiovascular and metabolic outcomes [28], low
245 IGF-I levels in the general population have also been linked to increased risks for type 2 diabetes and
246 cardiovascular disease [29]. Therefore, suboptimal GH treatment and relative IGF-I deficiency during a
247 period of somatic development could adversely affect the long-term outcomes. While alternate strategies
248 using larger starting doses (e.g. continuing the same or half of the dose at final height) [30] and
249 subsequent down-titration may assist in achieving IGF-I levels within recommended ranges, future
250 studies should compare the effects of different replacement regimens on body composition, BMD,
251 cardiovascular health and glucose metabolism.

252
253 Similar to older adults [26], we also observed marked inter-individual differences in GH doses consistent
254 with variations in IGF-I response in young adults. The findings that IGF-I levels are unrelated to GH
255 doses is consistent with dose titration according to IGF-I levels as previously reported [26]. Among the
256 several inter-related factors associated with IGF-I responses to GH, we identified age, gender, BMI SDS
257 and baseline IGF-ISDS as the independent predictors. Although the prediction model accounted for a
258 lower proportion of the variance in IGF-I responses compared to similar models for the first-year growth
259 response in children with idiopathic GHD (22% vs 61%) [22], the patients in our study were
260 heterogeneous in the underlying diagnoses and possibly the comorbidities. Nevertheless, identification of
261 the key predictors of IGF-I responses is useful in deciding the starting dose of GH and the incremental
262 dose changes.

263
264 The findings of increased IGF-I responses with age suggest that physiological age-related declines in GH
265 secretion are clinically relevant in young adults [2,31] and support a strategy for down-titrating from the
266 dose at final height. Our cohort was older at the start of adult GH treatment compared to the patients who
267 undergo the currently recommended seamless childhood-adult transition of GH treatment (20 vs 17 years)
268 [32]. We speculate that the lower starting dose of GH may have an even greater adverse impact on the

269 IGF-I levels in the younger patients. While low IGF-I responses to GH in adolescent girls compared to
270 boys with GHD have been inferred previously [33,34], our observations suggesting a direct effect of
271 gender on GH replacement support a gender-appropriate replacement in young adults [18]. Although
272 gender differences in IGF-I responses are thought to be mediated by oestrogen [35], we did not find an
273 association with oral oestrogen treatment. Nevertheless, it showed negative associations or trends with
274 baseline and 1- year IGF-I levels respectively possibly indicating the lack of power of the study or
275 underreporting of the oral contraceptive use. Observations of increased IGF-I responses linked to
276 measures of adiposity is particularly relevant to this population with high prevalence of hypothalamic
277 obesity and are mediated through the effects of hyperinsulinaemia on hepatic IGF-I generation [14]. The
278 association between lower baseline IGF-I levels and greater IGF-I responses may reflect the severity of
279 GHD and is supported by a similar relationship with increased growth responses in children [22].
280 Although we used clinically relevant parameters, evaluation of other variables related to GH action such
281 as GH binding protein and insulin levels, and GH receptor gene polymorphisms may provide further
282 insights [19] into the variations in IGF-I responses to GH.

283
284 Whereas GH doses in the current study are lower than previous studies in young adults (~ 8µg/kg vs 10-
285 25µg/kg), we observed lesser improvements in lean body mass (2.3kg vs 4-5kg) and reductions in fat
286 mass (0.9kg vs 1.6-5.5kg) [24,36,37], which suggest a dose-dependent effect of GH on body composition.
287 However, the improvements in lipid profile in the study are similar to other smaller studies [23,24]. Direct
288 effects of short-term GH therapy on insulin sensitivity may explain our findings of small increases in
289 HbA1c during replacement [37]. Long-term improvements in the body composition are reported to
290 reverse the effects on insulin sensitivity, however, these findings are not universal [38,39]. Our findings
291 of consistent improvements in the QoL-AGHDA scores at 1 and 2 years on replacement extend a previous
292 report [16] and support the beneficial effects of GH replacement on QoL in young adults.

293

294 The findings that IGF-I responses are related to gains in lean body mass are consistent with the
295 physiological role of IGF-I in mediating the anabolic actions of GH in skeletal muscles [40]. While GH
296 signalling in liver influences the IGF-I levels, changes in lipid metabolism represents the direct actions in
297 adipose tissue, and may explain the lack of associations between IGF-I responses and fat mass or lipid
298 profile [40]. Although GH actions on glucose metabolism involve both direct and IGF-I mediated
299 mechanisms, the direct effects on hepatic insulin sensitivity are predominant [41]. We speculate that
300 common pathways for GH signalling for IGF-I generation and regulation of glucose metabolism in the
301 liver underlie the association between IGF-I responses and increases in HbA1c [40]. Our findings suggest
302 that IGF-I responses are a marker of outcomes of GH replacement in young adults, and are consistent
303 with the high sensitivity of low IGF-I levels in the diagnosis of GHD in young compared to older adults
304 [8,11].

305
306 This study based on KIMS database has several strengths such as a large cohort of relatively rare, young
307 adults with GHD [42] which provided sufficient power for multivariate analysis, the data reflecting real-
308 life patient management, and centrally analysed IGF-I levels with the use of appropriate normative data.
309 However, there are a few limitations mainly related to passively collected data with no reliable measures
310 of concordance with therapy. The subjects were evaluated by a variety of GH provocation tests, some of
311 which are not currently recommended in adults, although, their performance in young adults with a
312 relatively high endogenous GH secretion is not well-defined [14,39,43]. The details the GH assays
313 performed locally or evaluations for GHD during childhood were also not available. Data on GH
314 provocation tests were available in only 80% of the patients, and in the remaining cases, we applied well-
315 established criteria for a high likelihood for severe GHD in young adults to increase the study size
316 [6,8,14]. Despite these drawbacks, the proportion of idiopathic and isolated GHD in our study is similar
317 to previous studies in young adults [7,24,36]. The different assays for IGF-I used in the study are not
318 directly comparable, however, we used assay-specific normative data in the analysis. The heterogeneity
319 in age and diagnoses, and possibly the associated comorbidities in our study population is a potential

320 drawback and may reduce the strength of associations we explored, however, they are unlikely to
321 influence the direction of relationships in this large study. The correlations of individual predictors of
322 IGF-I responses and the relationship between IGF-I responses and changes in HbA1c were small.
323 However, our findings are consistent with observations in older adults, reflect plausible biological
324 mechanisms, and are potentially useful in formulating treatment strategies. Furthermore, when combined,
325 the effect of the predictors in the prediction model for IGF-I responses explained a clinically significant
326 proportion of the variance. Although BIA has been validated against DXA [44], the measurements are
327 limited by the heterogeneous study population and the use of varying instruments [45]. However, our
328 analysis focussed on the changes in body composition rather than the absolute values.

329

330 In summary, we report novel data on the effects of the current strategy for GH replacement in young
331 adults with GHD showing suboptimal IGF-I levels on treatment. The associations between the IGF-I
332 responses to GH and increases in lean body mass suggest that it is a marker for the outcomes of GH
333 replacement in young adults and that maintaining age appropriate IGF-I levels is important for optimising
334 the benefits of replacement. The predictors for IGF-I responses that we describe could lead to a more
335 appropriate GH replacement strategy in young adults.

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473 **Figure legends**

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475 Figure 1: IGF-I levels before and 1 year following GH treatment in females and males. Each dot
476 represents one patient. Black dots represent the levels prior to replacement and gray dots levels at 1 year
477 of treatment. The lines represent age and gender-specific normative data of IGF-I levels (-2, -1, 0, +1 and
478 +2 SDS).

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