

Review Article

Hormone Replacement Therapy in Adolescents with Turner Syndrome

Galicchio CT*, **Alves STF** and **Guimaraes MM**

Department of Endocrinology and Pediatric Endocrinology, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

***Corresponding author:** Galicchio CT, Department of Endocrinology and Pediatric Endocrinology, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil**Received:** October 24, 2016; **Accepted:** November 22, 2016; **Published:** November 25, 2016**Abstract**

Turner Syndrome (TS) is a common chromosome disorder in clinical practice occurring in approximately 1/2500 births. This syndrome is characterized by short stature, gonadal dysgenesis (streak ovaries), somatic alterations, multisystemic involvement and infertility. Most patients present delayed or even absent puberty. Premature ovarian failure can be expected even if spontaneous menarche occurs. Laboratory markers of gonadal dysgenesis are a markedly rise in plasma gonadotropins, especially FSH levels. The choice of optimal Hormone Replacement Therapy (HRT) in adolescents remains controversial, particularly regarding the age at which therapy should be initiated, as well as the dose and route of estrogen administration. Protocols for HRT are based on a risk-benefit assessment. The aim of this manuscript is based on a review of literature and the author's experience.

Keywords: Induction of puberty; Hormone Replacement Therapy (HRT); Turner syndrome**Abbreviations**

TS: Turner Syndrome; HRT: Hormone Replacement Therapy; ERT: Estrogen Replacement Therapy; GH: Growth Hormone; E2: Estradiol; CEE: Conjugated Equine Estrogen; MPA: Medroxyprogesterone

Introduction

Turner Syndrome (TS) is a genetic disease caused by complete or partial absence of the X chromosome with or without mosaicism, affecting approximately 1/2500 new-borns with female phenotype [1]. This syndrome may occur in the presence of multiple cell lines with varying chromosomal composition (mosaicism) [2]. The patients with mosaicism may have functional ovarian tissue and in some cases, normal puberty (including menses) occurs and only 2-5% of TS patients achieved spontaneous pregnancy. The prevalence of spontaneous puberty is 6% for 45, X and 54% for miscellaneous karyotypes. These patients frequently experience premature menopause [3,4].

In any case with "Y" chromosome material (or SRY presence) gonadectomy is indicated to reduce the risk of germ-cell tumors. These patients should be followed like other patients [5].

TS is the most prevalent example of hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. However, even when an ultrasensitive assay was used, spontaneous gonadotrophin levels in TS had a biphasic pattern: highest in childhood, declining at 6-10 years of age and then increasing again. The biphasic age pattern of gonadotrophins is preserved in all patients and spontaneous FSH and LH are not useful as a diagnostic marker of hypogonadism for TS girls aged 6-10 years [6].

The Anti-Müllerian Hormone (AMH) seems a promising marker of ovarian function in girls with TS and it seems potentially useful in counselling TS patients with regard to their fertility potential. Generally, the AMH concentration reflects the total number of non-

growing follicles and becomes undetectable following ovarian failure [7].

The past few years have seen significant advances in our understanding of Turner's syndrome and the ways in which quality of life of affected adolescents can be improved. Growth failure has been reported in 95-100% of patients and the majorities have no pubertal development due to gonadal dysgenesis [8].

A variety of disorders are associated with this syndrome including: obesity, dyslipidemia, osteoporosis, diabetes, insulin resistance, Hashimoto's thyroiditis, cardiovascular disease, renal malformations, ear and ophthalmological problems, certain phenotypic traits, bicuspid aortic valve, coarctation and rupture of the aorta [9]. *SHOX* deficiency is thought to cause the skeletal abnormalities (cubitus valgus, shortening of forearms, lower legs, the Madelung deformity and the shortened metacarpals) seen in TS [10].

The Role of Estrogen and Ovarian Failure in Turner Syndrome**The main role of estrogen**

The goals of estrogen replacement in adolescence include: developing secondary sexual characteristics, maximizing final height; improving the quality of life and optimize peak bone mass. However, there is no consensus in the doses and ideal forms of administration of estrogen to induce puberty and its use in adulthood [6]. Potential spontaneous pubertal development in girls with TS must be monitored by physical examination, assessment of follicle-stimulating hormone levels beginning and performing a pelvic ultrasonography at about age 10 years [3,6].

The literature shows that treatment with Growth Hormone (GH) and the recommended dose for girls between two and twelve years is 0.05 mg/kg/day (0,15 IU/kg/day). The interruption of treatment will depend on the growth rate (less than 2.0 cm for year and the bone

Table 1: Protocols of induce puberty in adolescents with turner syndrome.

Type of Estradiol	*First 6 m	6-12 m	12-18 m	After 18 m
E ₂	2,5 mcg/day	5 mcg/day	7,5-10 mcg/day	10 mcg
CEE	0,15 mg/day	0,3 mg/day	0,3-0,625 mg/ day	0,625-1,125 mg 1 ^a to 25 ^a day
17 β estradiol (percutaneous)	0,5 mg/day	1,0 mg/day	1,5 mg/day	1,5 a 2,0 mg 1 ^a to 25 ^a day
17 β estradiol transdermally	25 mcg/day or 0.05-0.07 µg/kg	50 mcg/day	100 mcg/day	100 mcg 1 ^a to 25 ^a day

M: Months; E₂: Estradiol; CEE: Conjugated Equine Estrogens; MPA: Medroxyprogesterone

*Induction Pubertal- first 6 monthlys

**MPA 5 to 10 mg - 15^a to 25^a day

Table 2: Associated problems in turner syndrome: Birth to young adulthood.

Birth and neonatal period	Growth: often borderline small for gestational age
	Lymphoedema
	Cardiac abnormalities: e.g. coarctation of aorta, aortic stenosis, bicuspid aortic valve
Infancy	Growth: length-usually close to and parallel to the 3 rd percentile
	Feeding difficulties with weight faltering
	Poor sleeping pattern
Preschool	Short stature: growth velocity usually low/normal
	Behavioral difficulties with exaggerated fearfulness
	Recurrent middle ear infections; otitis media; variable conductive hearing loss
Adolescence	Growth: impaired pubertal growth spurt even with estrogen induction
	Ovarian failure: absent/incomplete puberty
	Obesity
	Hypertension
	Increased prevalence of immune disorders
	Autoimmune thyroiditis
	Celiac disease
	Inflammatory bowel disease
	Specific learning difficulties
	Social vulnerability
Foot problems	
Young adulthood	Long term estrogen replacement
	Fertility
	Obesity
	Hypertension
	Cardiovascular diseases
	Hyperlipidemia
	Aortic dilation/dissection
	Autoimmune thyroiditis
	Osteoporosis
	Visuospatial difficulties
Sensorineural deafness	

[Adapted from Donaldson and cols [47]].

age up to 14 years) [11]. The GH is essential to improve short stature and patients with ovarian insufficiency require estrogen therapy to induce puberty at 12 ou 13 years of age, in accordance with the consent of the patient and their parents. Estrogen Replacement Therapy (ERT) allows for a normal pubertal development without interfering with the positive effect of GH on final adult stature. The use of estrogen may be delayed in patients who used growth hormone.

Delaying estrogen therapy until 15 years of age to optimize potential stature, as previously recommended, appears inadvisable because it underestimates the psychosocial importance of normal pubertal maturation [11-14].

Bone mass gain and prevention of fractures

Although data on impairment of bone density and geometry and

Table 3: Suggested guideline in turner syndrome.

Yearly	Height, weight, blood pressure and complete physical examination
Special attention to pubertal staging	Pelvic ultrasound-after puberty
	Mammography-after 40 years
	Laboratory tests: Blood cell count, fasting glucose, renal and liver function tests, lipid profile and thyroid function
	At 10 years of age until the end of puberty: LH, FSH and estradiol
2 in 2 years	Audiometry
	Ophthalmological examination
5 to 5 years	Echocardiography
	Bone densitometry
When necessary: refer to gynecologist, cardiologist, otolaryngologist and orthopedist	

[Adapted from: Collett-Solberg and cols [49] and Lucaccioni and cols].

fracture risk are often controversial, bone fragility is recognized as one of the major lifelong comorbidities in TS subjects. The pathogenetic mechanisms responsible of bone impairment remain to be well clarified, although estrogen deficiency (reduced bone formation), high FSH serum levels (FSH enhances osteoclastogenesis and bone resorption directly by binding to FSH receptor expressed on osteoclasts) and X chromosomal abnormalities (SHOX deficiency) represent important factors [10,13-17].

GH is effective in stimulating linear growth and bone formation and estrogen treatment reduced the bone turnover and levels of FSH, retarding the development of osteopenia in such patients [13-16].

There is a cortical bone deficit in girls with TS characterized by low cortical area, thin cortex and probably decreased cortical volume Bone Mineral Density (vBMD) [18]. This ovarian estrogen independent selective reduction in cortical BMD would primarily be ascribed to SHOX deficiency. In addition, although SHOX expression is primarily identified in the growth plate and is absent from osteoblasts and osteoclasts, SHOX are known to interact with multiple factor relevant for skeletogenesis [10].

Achieving optimal bone density is of critical importance for fracture prevention in TS and should be pursued by timely introduction of hormone replacement therapy, adequate dose of estrogens during young adult life, optimal calcium and vitamin D intake and regular physical exercise [15-17].

Glucose homeostase, lipidis and cardiovascular diseases

Glucose homeostasis is altered in TS. Glucose intolerance has been reported in both TS girls and women and type 2 diabetes is four times more common (relative risk: 4.4) [9]. TS patients' present central obesity and a more sedentary lifestyle and these factors may contribute to the risk of developing diabetes. Most of the patients with TS present estrogen deficiency, which results in the loss of the cardio-protector effect of estrogen observed in menopause. Estradiol deficiency can influence several conditions related to glucose homeostasis, like endothelial dysfunction, decreased insulin production, an abnormal lipid pattern, increased central adiposity and early atherosclerosis. However, there is no consensus regarding the ideal dosage, route of administration, type of estrogen, type of gestagen and forms of administration of these hormones for the induction of puberty and for their use in adolescence and adult life in TS patients [19].

Hepatic enzymes

Elevated liver enzymes are a common feature in Turner syndrome, with a prevalence of 58.3%, compared to reference ranges. The most frequently elevated enzyme was Gamma-Glutamyl Transferase (GGT) in 55.8%, followed by Aminotransferase De Alanine (ALT) and Aspartate Aminotransferase (ALP) in 17.9% and 21.4% of cases, respectively. Compared to the control population, almost 91% of women with TS demonstrated liver enzyme elevation. Clinical studies show positive effects of HRT on liver function. Elevated ALT, GGT and ALP decreased after a 2-month HRT [20].

Role of Ovaries: Physiology and Hormone Replacement Therapy

Estrogens

Ovaries serve two main roles: germ cell development and steroid production. Estradiol (E2) is classified as the main estrogen, which regulates gonadotropin secretion and promotes the development of female secondary sexual characteristics, uterine growth, thickening of vaginal mucosa, thinning of the cervical mucus and a linear growth of the ductal system of the breast. Estrone, produced by the ovaries and estriol, produced by the metabolism of estrone and estradiol in extraovarian tissues are only weakly estrogenic and must be converted to estradiol to show full estrogenic action [19].

There are many different types of sex hormones used in HRT, including partially synthetic, semisynthetic, derived from animal sources and bioidentical. Therefore, bioidentical human estrogen (E2: Estradiol) is preferred instead of non-bioidentical (ethinylestradiol and conjugated equine estrogens) [21].

The formulations with most commonly used oral estrogen are: estradiol valerate, ethinyl estradiol and most often a mixture of several conjugates (CEE: Conjugated Equine Estrogens) which are predominantly converted to estrone [21-24].

The administration of estrogen transdermally (17 β estradiol-patches or gel) provides a more stable plasma concentrations E2 and reduces its conversion to estrone when compared the use of formulations oral, by not making a first pass through the liver. The use of estrogen in this way prevents the deleterious effects on hepatic enzymes, coagulation and levels of triglycerides; although not favor cholesterol levels (reduction in LDL and increase in HDL) [21-26]. The adhesives are available in two systems: the reservoir system

(ethanol) and the matrix (propylene glycol), the latter being preferred, to cause less allergic reaction [27].

Progesterone

Progesterone, together with pregnenolone and 17-hydroxyprogesterone, belongs to progestagens. This hormone is responsible for the progestational effects: cell differentiation and induction of secretory activity in the endometrium, implantation of the fertilized ovum and maintenance of pregnancy and promotes lateral development of the breast glands. If a uterus is present, progesterone must be added, due to the risk of endometrial cancer associated with unopposed estrogen. Progestins, synthetic progestagens are most frequently used. Progesterone is the only bioidentical progestagen. Both estrogens and progestagens can be used orally, transdermally, intranasally or intramuscularly [19,21].

Puberty Induction

The aim of pubertal induction with estrogen in TS is to achieve physical and psychological development and establish adequate peak bone mass in the first two decades of life. However, girls with TS are usually introduced to the estrogens late in their lives to prevent stunting of growth [12,13].

The international consensus is to initiate HRT at the age 12 or 13 years old, if there is no spontaneous puberty and FSH levels are elevated. It permits relatively appropriate feminization without interfering in growth [22,23]. For pubertal induction in girls without spontaneous puberty, the preferred regimen is low-dose and should be increased gradually over a period of 2-4 years. The HRT is adjusted at regular time intervals to stimulate the progression of the development of secondary sexual characters (Table 1) [3,15].

The optimal route of estrogen replacement in TS is controversial. Nevertheless, according to a various authors the oral replacement with estrogenic steroids is traditionally most used. This route is the most used due to low cost, long accumulated experience and the convenience of the patient. However, the intestinal absorption and hepatic first-pass inhibiting the generation of IGF-I and IGF-II. After the hepatic metabolism observed an increased synthesis of coagulation factors, angiotensinogen and SHBG. This effect reducing the growth velocity in puberty and increased risk of hypertension and cardiovascular events [19-21,27-30].

There are many options for HRT. However, systemic administration of estradiol, usually by transdermal application in a patch or gel, is the only form of therapy to achieve natural levels of estradiol in blood [31].

In practice, the most useful method of administration is the transdermal route of estrogen replacement therapy. Theoretical advantages of transdermal over oral estrogen include a more physiologic mode of delivery, without first-pass mechanism in the liver and avoidance of unphysiological changes and action of the hormones. Moreover, transdermal E2 results in faster bone accrual at the spine, increased uterine growth and better final height [31,32]. Compared with oral E2, transdermal E2 results in E2, E1 and bioestrogen concentrations closer to normal; it also achieves greater suppression of LH/FSH in lower doses [33,34]. The use of percutaneous estrogen gel/patches leads to a gradual development of

secondary sexual characteristics and uterine growth, mimicking natural puberty [33,34].

The adhesive can be used for the induction of puberty; it also permits titration of dose (release presentations with 25-100 mcg/day) and monitoring by means of serial dosages of estradiol [26-28]. Additionally, the possibility to cut a transdermal patch in four pieces and use only its part, facilitates mimicking the spontaneous levels as well as the diurnal pattern of serum E2 in early puberty [31]. Commercially available patches releasing 25 or 50 mcg of estradiol per 24 h can be cut (the matrix patches) and 1/2 to 1/4 (12.5 mcg/24 h), respectively or even less (6.25 mcg/24 h) may be used as an initial dose [35].

The percutaneously (gel) can be used in the form of sachets and bottles with metering valve to release the gel (0.50 mg to 0.75 mg 17- β -estradiol per dose). The advantage of this presentation is the convenience for the patient, with minimal side effects [33,34]. We observed in our patients a great acceptance to treatment, with positive effects on bone mass, insulin resistance quality of life. The main disadvantage of long-term use was the higher cost and noncompliance with the omission of prescribed doses [14,24].

Progesterone should be added to Estrogen (E2) when the first menstrual bleeding or after 24 months of use of estrogen in order to enable normal breast, uterine development and establishing regular menstrual cycles [6,24,35, 36]. The most presentations used are: Medroxyprogesterone (MPA) and compounds present in an ovulatory pills as norethindrone, gestodene, levonogestrel, desogestrel, among others. Ideally, use natural micronized progesterone, however, due to high cost; it is used in selected cases [37].

About 90% of TS patients require or will require HRT to initiate progress and maintain puberty. Estrogen administration should be advised as continuous therapy. Despite the known advantages of HRT in hypogonadism, a rather high percentage of adult TS patients discontinue their estrogen therapy. It is recommended that women with TS should receive estrogen and progestin, which have a longterm [37,38].

To control HRT in adolescence, the access to sensitive estradiol determination methods (RIA or mass spectrometry) are very desirable, nevertheless, unavailable in most countries [12,21]. Practically, the decision concerning the modification of HRT is based on puberty assessment (Tanner stage), uterus development and growth velocity in the context of bone age [34-39].

In most cases, earlier diagnosis of TS allows for early HRT induction. Nevertheless, further research is warranted, establishing the optimal time, dose and route of HRT, not only in TS, but also in other types of female hypogonadism [40].

Protocols of Puberty Induction

Several Protocols for pubertal induction are used in literature to induce puberty. The ERT should be started with low dose (1/4 of the adult woman maintenance dose) and increased gradually (every 3/6 months), according to stage pubertal, bone age and uterus growth [37-40]. The protocols of induce puberty with low dose of estrogens are demonstrated in (Table 1).

Estrogens

- Ethinyl estradiol was used at a dose of 0.01 to 0.02 mg for/day [39].
- The Conjugated Estrogen Equine (CEE): can be started in the dose that may vary from 0.15 to 0.3 mg. The final dose may vary from 0.625 to 1.250 mg [40-42].
- Estradiol percutaneously-initial dose 0.1 mg to 1.5 mg in the end, suggesting that this type of administration E2 safe and provides the individualized induction, it is easy to use and well accepted by patients [33,34,38,40,42].
- Adhesive E2: initial dose ¼ of the adhesive. The application of a dose of 50 to 100 mg of estradiol adhesive twice a week or 1.5 g of gel is equivalent the oral ingestion of 0.625 to 1.25 mg of CEE [26,28,29,31,35,39,40].
- Valerate micronized Estradiol: 1 to 2 mg/day [37,39].

Progestagens

- Medroxyprogesterone (MPA): 2,5 to 10 mg- Example: 15th to 25th day / month.
- Micronized progesterone: 100 to 200mg/ day) [24,35,37,40].
- Gestodene (0.75 mg/dose): is androgenically neutral, meaning that contraceptive pills containing gestodene do not exhibit the androgenic side effects (e.g. acne, hirsutism and weight gain) often associated with second-generation contraceptive pills, such as those containing levonorgestrel [37].
- Levonorgestrel-is used in monophasic and triphasic formulations of combined oral contraceptive pills, with available monophasic doses ranging from 100-250 µg and triphasic doses of 50 µg/75 µg/125 µg [35,38].

Estrogen is used cyclically with progesterone during the first 21 or 25-day cycle associated with progesterone for seven to ten days of the month and interval of five or seven days without replacement to mimic the menstrual cycle. The most used type of estrogen in our clinic was CEE 24. The optimal protocol of induce puberty is demonstrated in (Table 1).

Hormone replacement therapy after puberty induction

The dose and route of administration should be individualized. The recommended treatment plan includes 1 to 2 mg valerate micronized estradiol or 0.625 to 1.25 mg of CEE or 0.01 to 0.02 mg for ethinyl estradiol. In generally, these dosages determine serum levels of estradiol from 30 and 50 pg/ml, which correspond to the beginning of follicular phase [38-40,43]. The ideal hormone replacement therapy should be based on the use of a more natural estrogen as 17-β-estradiol as well as more neutral progesterone like natural micronized progesterone.

Because in the literature are described higher prevalence of elevated liver enzymes, heart disease, hypertension and obesity [1,19,20]. The ideal way to use estrogen in ST would probably be the transdermal or percutaneous because oral estrogens present bioavailability variable that depends on the intestinal absorption and the first pass the liver, which may promote high levels of estrogens the portal circulation, stimulate liver protein synthesis and consequently,

elevated hepatic enzymes [24,29,32,44]. The use of oral contraceptive pills in ST appears to be not appropriate, it may worsen the hepatic function and cause undesirable changes in the lipid profile and insulin resistance [44,45]. Recent study has shown a two-fold higher risk of vein thrombosis and possibly of myocardial infarction in users of oral conjugated equine estrogens [40].

The HRT must be maintained at least until 50 years of age. However, most patients interrupt the treatment irregularly, increasing the risk of cardiovascular disease, hypertension, diabetes, reduction in bone mass and fractures [1,6,14,24,44-46]. HRT should be monitored regularly with evaluation clinical, especially in hypertensive, dyslipidemic and patients with congenital disease [47,48]. In (Table 2) we described the associated problems in Turner syndrome [47].

In this group of patients is essential to educate patients on the importance of continuing HRT until the normal age of menopause to maintain feminization, reduce cardiovascular disease and prevent osteoporosis. In (Table 3) we suggested a guideline for the management of Turner syndrome: at the time of diagnosis to adult life [49].

Conclusion

In most TS cases, premature ovarian failure can be expected, even if the patient presents some symptoms of puberty.

Estrogen therapy should be initiated around the age of 12-14, at a low-dose and gradually increased over two to four years.

The use of progesterone derivatives can be started two years after use of estrogen aimed to mimic the menstrual cycles, avoid undesirable uterine bleeding and prevent endometrial hyperplasia and endometrial carcinoma.

Ideally, use both a more natural estrogen as 17-β-estradiol as well as more neutral progesterone. The ideal way for the use of estrogen is the transdermal or percutaneous.

It is recommended that patient with TS should receive estrogen and progestin, which have a longterm impact on puberty, in metabolism, in psychological functioning and support normal bone maturation and calcification.

The HRT in the ST should be regularly monitored with close clinical evaluation. Irrespective of the form of estrogen therapy, liver function is improved; HDL-cholesterol increases and it may also be cardioprotective.

Decisions, concerning sex steroid replacement therapy, should be made individually.

Sex steroid replacement for girls with TS remains an area of active investigation and there is no consensus regarding optimal approaches in terms of dosage, type and route of administration.

References

1. Devernay M, Ecosse E, Coste J, Carel J. Determinants of medical care for young women with Turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2009; 94: 3408-3413.
2. Hall J, Gilchrist DM. Turner syndrome and its variants. *Pediatr Clin North Am.* 1990; 37: 1421-1440.
3. Pasquino AM, Passeri F, Pucarelli I, Segni M, Municchi G. Spontaneous

- pubertal development in Turner's syndrome. Italian Study Group for Turner's syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1997; 82: 1810-1813.
4. Hagen CP, Main KM, Kjaergaard S, Juul A. FSH, LH, inhibin B and estradiol levels in Turner syndrome depend on age and karyotype: longitudinal study of 70 Turner girls with or without spontaneous puberty. *Hum Reprod.* 2010; 25: 3134-3141.
 5. Esposito C, Escolino M, Bagnara V, Eckoldt-Wolke F, Baglaj M, Saxena A, et al. Risk of Malignancy and Need for Surgery in Pediatric Patients with Morris or Y-chromosome Turner Syndrome: A Multicenter Survey. *J Pediatr Adolesc Gynecol.* 2015; 28: 333-336.
 6. Alves ST, Gallicchio CT, Guimaraes MM, Santos M. Gonadotropin levels in Turner's syndrome: Correlation with breast development and hormone replacement. *Gynecol Endocrinology.* 2003; 17: 295-301.
 7. Broer SL, Broekmans FJ, Laven JS, Fauser BC. Anti-Mullerian hormone: ovarian reserve testing and its potential clinical implications. *Hum Reprod Update.* 2014; 20: 688-701.
 8. Ranke MB, Pfluger h, Rosendahl E, Stubbe P, Enders H, Bierich JR, et al. Turner syndrome: spontaneous growth in 150 cases and review of the literature. *Eur J Pediatr.* 1983; 141: 81-88.
 9. Gravholt CH, Juul S, Naeraa RW, Hansen J. Morbidity in Turner Syndrome. *J Epidemiol.* 1998; 51: 147-158.
 10. Kosho T, Muroya K, Nagai T, Fujimoto M, Yokoya S, Sakamoto H, et al. Skeletal features and growth patterns in 14 patients with haploinsufficiency of SHOX: implications for the development of Turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1999; 84: 4613-4621.
 11. Spiliotis BE. Growth and long-term hormonal therapy. *Pediatric Endocrinology Review* 3(Suppl 1). 2006; 192-194.
 12. Chernausk SD, Attie KM, Cara JF, Rosenfeld RG, Frane J, Genentech Inc. Collaborative Study Group. Growth hormone therapy of Turner syndrome: the impact of age of estrogen replacement on final height. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2000; 85: 2439-2445.
 13. Beckett PR, Copeland KC, Flannery TK, Sherman LD, Abrams SA. Combination growth hormone and estrogen increase bone mineralization in girls with Turner syndrome. *Pediatric Res.* 1999; 45: 709-713.
 14. Gallicchio CT, Alves STF, Tortora RP, Mendonca LM, Farias MLF, Guimaraes MM. Effect of puberty on the relationship between bone markers of turnover and bone mineral density in Turner's syndrome. *Horm Res.* 2004; 61: 193-199.
 15. Baron J, Manolagas SC, Shaw NJ, Rappold GA, Donaldson MD, Gault EJ, et al. Hormones and genes of importance in bone physiology and their influence on bone mineralization and growth in and their influence on bone mineralization and growth. *Horm Res Paediatric.* 2010; 73: 161-165.
 16. Faienza MF, Ventura A, Colucci S, Cavallo L, Grano M, Brunetti G. Bone fragility in Turner Syndrome: Mechanisms and Prevention Strategies. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne).* 2016; 7: 34.
 17. Elsheikh M, Bird R, Casadei B, Conway GS, Wass JA. The effect of hormone replacement therapy on cardiovascular hemodynamics in women with Turner's syndrome. *J of Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2000; 85: 614-618.
 18. Soucek O, Lebl J, Snajderova M, Kolouskova S, Rocek M, Hlavka Z, et al: Bone geometry and volumetric bone mineral density in girls with Turner syndrome of different pubertal stages. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf).* 2011; 74: 445-452.
 19. Larsen, Kronenberg, Melmed, et al. *Williams Textbook of Endocrinology.* Saunders. 2003; 591-603.
 20. Koulouri O, Ostberg J, Conway GS. Liver dysfunction in Turner's syndrome: prevalence, natural history and effect of exogenous oestrogen. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf).* 2008; 69: 306-310.
 21. Shifren JL, Gass MLS: The North American Menopause Society Recommendations for Clinical Care of Midlife women. *Menopause.* 2014; 21: 1-25.
 22. Rosenfield RL, Devine N, Hunold JJ, Murras N, Moshang T Jr, Root AW. Salutary effects of combining early very low dose systemic estradiol with growth hormone therapy in girls with Turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2005; 90: 6424-6430.
 23. Bondy CA. Care of girls and women with Turner syndrome: a guideline of the Turner Syndrome Study Group. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2007; 92: 10-25.
 24. Alves ST, Gallicchio CT, Guimaraes MM. Insulin resistance and body composition in Turner syndrome: effect of sequential change in the route of estrogen administration. *Gynecol Endocrinol.* 2006; 22: 590-594.
 25. Kirk JMW, Wickramasuriya N, Shaw NJ. Estradiol: micrograms or milligrams. *Endocrinology.* 2016; 192-194.
 26. Taboada M, Santen R, Lima J, Hossain J, Singh R, Klein KO, et al. Pharmacokinetics of oral and transdermal 17 β estradiol in girls with Turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2011; 96: 3502-3510.
 27. Trolle C1, Hjerrild B, Cleemann L, Mortensen KH, Gravholt CH. Sex hormone replacement in Turner syndrome. *Endocrine.* 2012; 41: 200-219.
 28. Nabhan ZM, Dimeglio LA, Qi R, Perkins SM, Eugster EA. Conjugated oral versus transdermal estrogen replacement in girls with Turner syndrome a pilot comparative study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2009. 94: 2009-2014.
 29. Crook D, Cust MP, Gangar KF, Worthington M, Hillard TC, Stevenson JC, et al. Comparison of transdermal and oral estrogen and progestin replacement therapy: effects on serum lipids and lipoproteins. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1992; 166: 950-955.
 30. Van Panderen YK, De Muinck Keizer-Schrama SM, Stijnen T, Sas TC, Jansen M, Otten BJ, et al. Final height in girls with Turner syndrome after long-term growth hormone treatment in three dosages and low dose of estrogens. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2003; 88: 1119-1125.
 31. Ankarberg-Lindgren C, Elfving M, Wikland KA, Norjavaara E. Nocturnal application of transdermal estradiol patches produces levels of estradiol that mimic those seen at the onset of spontaneous puberty in girls. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2001; 86: 3039-3044.
 32. Murras N, Shulman D, Hsiang HY, Balagopal P, Welch S. Metabolic effects of oral versus transdermal estrogen in growth hormone-treated girls with Turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2007; 92: 4154-4160.
 33. Figueiredo Alves ST, Gomes MAS, Clapauch R. Comparison of gel and patch estradiol replacement in Brazil, a tropical country. *Maturitas.* 2000; 36: 69-74.
 34. Piipo S, Lenko H, Kainulainen P, Spila I. Use of percutaneous estrogen gel for induction of puberty in girls with Turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2004; 89: 3241-3247.
 35. Gawlik A, Hankus M, Such K, Drosdzol-Cop A, Madej P, Borkowska M, et al. Hypogonadism and sex steroid replacement therapy in girls with Turner syndrome, *J Pediatric Adolescent Gynecol.* 2016.
 36. Saenger P, Wikland KA, Conway GS, Davenport M, Gravholt CH, Hintz R, et al. Recommendations of diagnosis, treatment and management of individuals with Turner Syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2001; 86: 3061-3069.
 37. Orbananos IR, Desojo AV, Martinez-Indart L, Bolado GG, Estevez AR, Echevarria IR. Turner syndrome: From birth to adulthood. *Endocrino Nutr.* 2015; 62: 499-506.
 38. Davenport ML. Approach to the Patient with Turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2010; 95: 1487-1495.
 39. Mashcak CA, Lobo RA, Takano-Dozono R, Eggena P, Nakamura RM, Brenner PF, et al. Comparison of pharmacodynamic properties of various estrogen formulations. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1982; 144: 511-518.
 40. Norjavaara E, Ankarberg-Lindgren C, Kristrom B. Sex Steroid Replacement Therapy in Female Hypogonadism from Childhood to Young Adulthood. *Endocr Dev.* 2016; 29: 198-213.
 41. Powers MS, Schenkel L, Darley PE, Good WR, Balestra JC, Place VA. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of transdermal dosage forms of 17 β estradiol: comparison with conventional oral estrogens used for hormone replacement. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1985; 152: 1099-1106.
 42. Quigley CA, Wan X, Garg S, Kowal K, Cutler GB Jr, Ross JL. Effects of low-

- dose estrogen replacement during childhood on pubertal development and gonadotropin concentrations in patients with Turner syndrome: results of a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2014; 99: 1754-1764.
43. Lufkin EG, Ory SJ. Relative value of transdermal and oral estrogen therapy in various clinical situations. *Mayo Clin Proct.* 1994; 69: 131-135.
44. Elsheikh M, Bird R, Casadei B, Conway GS, Wass JA. The effect of hormone replacement therapy on cardiovascular hemodynamics in women with Turner's syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2000; 85: 614-618.
45. Koulouri O, Ostberg J, Conway GS. Liver dysfunction in Turner's syndrome. Prevalence, natural history and effect of exogenous oestrogen. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf).* 2008; 69: 306-310.
46. Mauras N, Shulman D, Hsiang HY, Balagopal P, Welch S. Metabolic effects of oral *versus* transdermal estrogen in growth hormone-treated girls with turner syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2007; 92: 4154-4160.
47. Donaldson MDC, Gault EJ, Tan KW, Dunger DB. Optimising management in Turner syndrome: from infancy to adult transfer. *Arch Dis Child.* 2006; 91: 513-520.
48. Collett-Solberg PF, Gallicchio CT, Coelho SCS, Siqueira RA, Alves STF, Guimaraes MM. Endocrine diseases, perspectives and care in Turner syndrome. *Arq Bras Endocrinol Metab.* 2011; 55: 550-558.
49. Lucaccioni L, Wong SC, Smyth A, Lyall H, Dominiczak A, Ahmed SF, et al. Turner syndrome-issues to consider for transition to adulthood. *British Medical Bulletin.* 2015; 113: 45-58.
46. Mauras N, Shulman D, Hsiang HY, Balagopal P, Welch S. Metabolic effects