plus chorionic gonadotrophin.^{2,3} In another case in which thrombosis followed the use of human menopausal gonadotrophins alone, hereditary activated protein C resistance and smoking may have been contributing factors.

- 1. Kemmann E, et al. Adnexal torsion in menotropin-induced pregnancies. Obstet Gynecol 1990; 76: 403-6.
- Kaaja R, et al. Severe ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome and deep venous thrombosis. Lancet 1989; ii: 1043.
- Sobande AA, et al. Ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome and deep vein thrombosis. Saudi Med J 2000; 21: 783–4.
- 4. Ludwig M, et al. Deep vein thrombosis during administration of HMG for ovarian stimulation. Arch Gynecol Obstet 2000; 263:

Precautions

Human menopausal gonadotrophins should not be given to pregnant patients. Use should be avoided in patients with abnormal genital bleeding, hormone sensitive malignancies such as those of the breast, uterus, prostate, ovaries or testes, or ovarian cysts or enlargement not caused by the polycystic ovary syndrome. Pituitary or hypothalamic lesions, adrenal or thyroid disorders, and hyperprolactinaemia should be treated appropriately to exclude them as causes of infertility before attempting therapy with human menopausal gonadotrophins. Patients who experience ovarian enlargement are at risk of rupture; pelvic examinations should be avoided or carried out with care and the recommendation has been made that sexual intercourse should be avoided while there is such a risk.

There is a risk of multiple births.

Interactions

In women who show evidence of excessive ovarian stimulation while receiving human menopausal gonadotrophins the use of drugs with luteinising-hormone (LH) activity increases the risk of ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome.

Uses and Administration

Human menopausal gonadotrophins possess both follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) activity (see p.2104) and luteinising hormone (LH) activity (see p.2112).

Human menopausal gonadotrophins are used in the treatment of male and female infertility due to hypogonadism. In anovulatory infertility unresponsive to clomifene, human menopausal gonadotrophins are given to induce follicular maturation and are followed by treatment with chorionic gonadotrophin to stimulate ovulation and corpus luteum formation, a topic discussed further on p.2080.

The dosage and schedule of treatment for female infertility must be determined according to the needs of each patient; it is usual to monitor response by studying the patient's urinary oestrogen excretion or by ultrasonic visualisation of follicles, or both. Human menopausal gonadotrophins may be given daily by intramuscular or subcutaneous injection to provide a dose of 75 to 150 units of FSH and gradually adjusted if necessary until an adequate response is achieved. Treatment is then stopped and followed after 1 or 2 days by single doses of chorionic gonadotrophin 5000 to 10 000 units (see p.2085). In menstruating patients treatment should be started within the first 7 days of the menstrual cycle. In the UK it has been suggested that the treatment course should be abandoned if no response is seen in 3 weeks although in the US the manufacturers recommend that an individual course should not exceed 12 days. This course may be repeated at least twice more if necessary.

An alternative schedule is to give three equal doses by intramuscular or subcutaneous injection, each providing 225 to 375 units of FSH on alternate days followed by chorionic gonadotrophin one week after the first dose

In IVF and other assisted conception techniques, human menopausal gonadotrophins are used with chorionic gonadotrophin and sometimes also clomifene citrate or a gonadorelin analogue. Stimulation of follicular growth is produced by human menopausal gonadotrophins given by intramuscular or subcutaneous injection, in a dose providing 75 to 300 units of FSH daily, usually beginning on the 2nd or 3rd day of the menstrual cycle. Treatment is continued until an adequate response is obtained and the final injection of human menopausal gonadotrophins is followed 1 to 2 days later with up to 10 000 units of chorionic gonadotrophin. Oocyte retrieval is carried out about 32 to 36 hours later.

In men with infertility due to hypogonadotrophic hypogonadism (see Infertility, p.2080), spermatogenesis is stimulated with chorionic gonadotrophin and then human menopausal gonadotrophins are added in a dose of 75 or 150 units of FSH two or three times weekly by intramuscular or subcutaneous injection. Treatment should be continued for at least 3 or 4 months.

Infertility. Systematic reviews have not found evidence of a significant difference in efficacy for human menopausal gonadotrophins compared with urinary-derived gonadotrophins in women with anovulatory infertility¹ (p.2080), or compared with recombinant follicle-stimulating hormone in assisted reproduction cycles.2 UK guidelines3 consider that human menopausal gonadotrophins, urinary follicle-stimulating hormone, and recombinant follicle-stimulating hormone are equally effective in achieving pregnancy for women with ovulatory disorders, such as polycystic ovary syndrome, and for IVF treatment.

- Nugent D, et al. Gonadotrophin therapy for ovulation induction in subfertility associated with polycystic ovary syndrome. Available in The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews; Issue 3. Chichester: John Wiley; 2000 (accessed 16/09/05).
- 2. Van Wely M, et al. Human menopausal gonadotropin versus recombinant follicle stimulation hormone for ovarian stimulation in assisted reproductive cycles. Available in The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews; Issue 1. Chichester: John Wiley; 2003 (accessed 16/09/05).
- National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's National Containing control of women's and creatment for people with fertility problems. February 2004. Available at: http://www.nice.org.uk/nicemedia/pdf/CG011fullguideline.pdf (accessed 28/07/08)

Preparations

BP 2008: Menotrophin Injection; **USP 31:** Menotropins for Injection.

Proprietary Preparations (details are given in Part 3)

Proprietary Preparations (details are given in Part 3)

Arg.: HMG Ferring; Lifecell; Menopur; Pergonal†; Austral.: Humegon;
Austria: Menopur; Belg.: Menopur; Braz.: Menogon†; Menopur†; Merional-HMG†; Pergonal†; Candd.: Humegon†; Pergonal†; Repronex Chile:
Menopur; Pergonal†; Cz.: Humegon†; Menogon; Menopur; Merional;
Denm.: Menogon†; Menopur; Fin.: Menogon; Menopur; Merional;
Denm.: Honogon†; Menopur; Fin.: Menogon; Menopur; Merional;
Pergonal†; Hung.: Menogon†; Menopur; Menogon; Menopur; Merional;
Pergonal†; Hung.: Menogon†; Menopur; Israel: Humegon†; Menogon; Menopur; Pergonal†; Menopur; Menopur;

Hydroxyestrone Diacetate

Hidroxiestrona, diacetato de; 16α-Hydroxyoestrone Diacetate. 3,16α-Dihydroxyestra-1,3,5(10)-trien-17-one diacetate.

 $C_{22}H_{26}O_5 = 370.4.$

CAS — 566-76-7 (hydroxyestrone); 1247-71-8 (hydroxyestrone diacetate).

Hydroxyestrone diacetate is an oestrogen (see Estradiol, p.2097). It has been given in vulvovaginal disorders and for female infer-

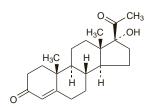
Hydroxyprogesterone Caproate (BANM, rINN)

17-AHPC; Caproate d'hydroxyprogestirone; Caproato de hidroxiprogesterona; Hidroksiprogesteron Heksanoat; Hidroksiprogesteron Kaproat; Hydroxyprogesterone Hexanoate; Hydroxyprogesteroni Caproas; NSC-17592. 3,20-Dioxopregn-4-en-17αyl hexanoate; 17α-Hydroxypregn-4-ene-3,20-dione hexanoate. Гидроксипрогестерона Капроат

 $C_{27}H_{40}O_4 = 428.6.$

CAS — 68-96-2 (hydroxyprogesterone); 630-56-8 (hydroxyprogesterone caproate). ATC — G03DA03.

ATC Vet - QG03DA03.



(hydroxyprogesterone)

Pharmacopoeias. In Chin. and US.

USP 31 (Hydroxyprogesterone Caproate). A white or creamywhite, crystalline powder. Odourless or having a slight odour. Insoluble in water; soluble in ether; slightly soluble in benzene. Protect from light. Store at a temperature of 25°, excursions permitted between 15° and 30°.

Adverse Effects and Precautions

As for progestogens in general (see Progesterone, p.2125). There may be local reactions at the site of injection. Rarely, coughing, dyspnoea, and circulatory disturbances may occur during or immediately after injection of hydroxyprogesterone caproate but can be avoided by injecting the drug very slowly.

Pregnancy. Abnormalities reported in infants born to mothers who had received hydroxyprogesterone during pregnancy have included tetralogy of Fallot in one infant, genito-urinary abnormalities in 2 infants,2 and adrenocortical carcinoma in one in-

- 1. Heinonen OP, et al. Cardiovascular birth defects and antenatal exposure to female sex hormones. N Engl J Med 1977; 296: 67-70.
- 2. Evans ANW, et al. The ingestion by pregnant women of substances toxic to the foetus. *Practitioner* 1980; **224:** 315–19.

 3. Mann JR, *et al.* Transplacental carcinogenesis (adrenocortical
- carcinoma) associated with hydroxyprogesterone hexanoate Lancet 1983; ii: 580.

Interactions

As for progestogens in general (see Progesterone, p.2126).

Uses and Administration

Hydroxyprogesterone caproate is a progestogen structurally related to progesterone (p.2125) that has been used for recurrent miscarriage and various menstrual disorders. In recurrent miscarriage associated with proven progesterone deficiency, doses of 250 to 500 mg weekly by intramuscular injection have been given during the first half of pregnancy. Hydroxyprogesterone caproate has also been used to prevent premature labour (see below).

The acetate and the enantate have also been used.

Premature labour. In women who have a history of spontaneous premature delivery (p.2003), there is some evidence to suggest that prophylactic progesterone, may reduce the risk for premature delivery in subsequent pregnancies. A placebocontrolled study has used intramuscular injections of hydroxyprogesterone caproate, starting in weeks 16 to 20 of gestation and continuing until delivery or week 36. The risk of delivery at less than 37 weeks was reduced in women given hydroxyprogesterone, but the rate was still high at 36.3% of 306 women compared with 54.9% of 153 given placebo. Vaginal progesterone has been found to reduce the frequency of uterine contractions and the rate of preterm delivery in women at high risk,² and to reduce preterm delivery in women with a short cervix at mid-gestation.³ The best timing of therapy is unclear, although two retrospective analyses^{4,5} found that rates of preterm delivery were similar for two groups of women started on hydroxyprogesterone prophylaxis at either 16 to 20.9 weeks of gestation or 21 to 26.9 weeks. Another retrospective study⁶ suggested that early cessation of hydroxyprogesterone was associated with an increased risk of spontaneous recurrent preterm delivery and that treatment should continue until 36 weeks of gestation.

Systematic reviews^{7,8} of studies using progestogens (mainly hydroxyprogesterone) have concluded that prophylaxis does reduce the risk of preterm delivery and low birth-weight (less than 2.5 kg). However, further study is required, particularly to identify the optimal timing, route, and dose of treatment, and long-term effects on infant health.⁸ Based on limited data, an expert committee in the USA has recommended9 that the use of progesterone and hydroxyprogesterone should be restricted to women with a history of previous spontaneous delivery at less than 37