Hormone replacement therapy (HRT) comprises natural oestrogens, including oestradiol 17β, conjugated equine oestrogens and oestrone sulphate, given in a continuous fashion, with the addition of a progestogen, either cyclically or continuously, in women who have not undergone hysterectomy. HRT may be administered systemically through tablets, transdermal patches and gels, subcutaneous implants, intra-nasal sprays or vaginal rings and pessaries. Oestrogen may be administered locally through intra-vaginal tablets, creams and pessaries, while progestogen may be given locally as a progestogen-releasing intra-uterine device.

Benefits of HRT

HRT has been widely used for the relief of menopausal symptoms over several decades. HRT remains the most effective treatment for the relief of menopausal vasomotor symptoms (e.g. hot flushes and night sweats), psychological symptoms (e.g. mood swings and irritability) and genitourinary symptoms (e.g. vaginal dryness and urinary frequency). In symptomatic women, HRT results in a considerable improvement in quality of life.

Over the past two decades, HRT has also been used for the prevention and treatment of osteoporosis, one of the long-term consequences of the menopause. HRT prevents and, to some extent, reverses post-menopausal bone loss, reduces bone turnover – primarily by reducing bone resorption – and, thus, maintains the micro-architecture of bone. These actions result in a reduced risk of osteoporotic fractures, including those of the vertebral, distal forearm and proximal femur.

HRT appears to be as effective as any currently available therapy for the prevention and treatment of osteoporosis in post-menopausal women. It has now been shown that lower doses than were previously thought necessary are effective in preventing post-menopausal bone loss. Indeed, one very low-dose oestradiol patch has been approved by the US regulatory authorities for prevention of osteoporosis. A recent study has also shown that the administration of HRT for just two to three years around the time of menopause may result in osteoporotic fracture reduction later in life, suggesting that long-term HRT use may not be necessary for osteoporosis prevention.

Oestrogens have been shown to have many beneficial effects on surrogate markers for coronary heart disease (CHD), such as the metabolic risk factors for CHD and various aspects of vascular function. There is a considerable body of evidence from observational studies that HRT use is associated with a reduction in CHD risk. However, randomised clinical trials of HRT have, to date, not shown any overall benefit in the reduction in coronary events. Indeed, most large studies have shown an initial increase in events, albeit followed by a later decrease. The question

4. Bagger Y Z, Tankó L B, Alexandersen P et al., “Two to three years of hormone replacement treatment in healthy women have long-term preventive effects on bone mass and osteoporotic fractures: the PERF study”, Bone (2004);34: pp. 728–735.
is, therefore, whether HRT constitutes a benefit or a risk of CHD.

**Dosage**

A major problem may lie with the doses of HRT that have been used in the randomised clinical trials. Standard doses, used for the relief of menopausal symptoms in women around the age of 50 years, have been given to women in their 60s and 70s. This may represent a relative overdose of HRT, resulting in initial cardiovascular harm due to adverse effects on thrombosis and vascular remodelling. It is also likely that there could be a greater beneficial cardiovascular effect of HRT when given to women aged 50 years, as in the observational studies, than when given to women aged 65 years or more, as in the randomised clinical trials.

**Women’s Health Initiative**

In the Women’s Health Initiative (WHI), the tendency towards CHD benefit or risk appeared to be related to menopausal or chronological age, with the oldest showing harm. Furthermore, there appeared to be less overall risk in the oestrogen-alone arm of the study than in the oestrogen–progestogen arm. Whether the use of metabolically different progestogens may result in a more beneficial outcome remains unknown. It is clear that further studies of appropriate design are needed to explore the potential CHD benefit of HRT.

Observational studies have suggested that HRT use is associated with a decrease in colorectal carcinoma. This was also seen with oestrogen–progestogen, but not oestrogen alone, in the WHI trial. Much further work is needed to clarify whether this is a real benefit of HRT.

**Risks of HRT**

The risks of HRT are not as well established as the benefits. HRT should not increase the risk of endometrial cancer if the oestrogen is adequately opposed by progestogen. A main concern for both clinicians and patients is the risk of breast cancer.

**HRT remains the most effective treatment for the relief of menopausal vasomotor symptoms ..., psychological symptoms ... and genitourinary symptoms ...**

However, the relationship between HRT and breast cancer risk is still not fully determined. Some, but not all, observational studies show an increased risk of developing breast cancer with continued exposure to HRT.

**Million Women Study**

The Million Women Study (MWS) suggested a doubling of risk over 10 years of treatment and found that all forms of HRT, including oestrogen alone and tibolone, caused an increased risk. However, there are major concerns regarding the validity of the MWS findings. For example, the complete disappearance of risk of breast cancer within 14 months of stopping HRT is biologically implausible. Furthermore, the WHI showed a

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Pharmaceutical form: Tablets for oral administration. Therapeutic indications: Hormone replacement therapy. Also counteract the effects of unopposed oestrogen on the endometrium in hormone replacement therapy for women with an intact uterus. Progestosterone deficiencies: treatment of progestosterone deficiencies such as dysmenorrhoea, endometriosis, secondary amenorrhoea, irregular cycles, dysmenorrhoea, uterine bleeding, pre-menstrual syndrome, threatened and habitual abortion, infertility.

Pozology and method of administration: Hormone replacement therapy. In combination with continuous oestrogen therapy, one tablet of 10mg dydrogesterone daily during 14 consecutive days of a cycle of 28 days. In combination with cyclical oestrogen therapy, one tablet of 10mg dydrogesterone daily during the last 12-14 days of oestrogen therapy. If endometrial biopsies or ultrasound reveal insufficient endometrial development, 10mg dydrogesterone should be prescribed. Dydrogesterone: 10mg twice daily from day 5 to day 25 of the cycle. Dydrogesterone: 10mg twice daily from day 5 to day 25 of the cycle, continuously. Functional bleeding: 10mg twice daily from day 1 to day 25 of the cycle, together with 10mg dydrogesterone twice daily from day 11 to day 25 of the cycle. Pre-menstrual syndrome: 10mg twice daily from day 11 to day 20 of the cycle. Irregular cycles: 10mg twice daily from day 12 to day 25 of the cycle. Threatened abortion: 40mg at once, then 10mg every eight hours until symptoms remit. Habitual abortion: 10mg twice daily until the twentieth week of pregnancy. Infertility due to luteal insufficiency: 10mg daily from day 1 to day 25 of the cycle. Treatment should be maintained for at least six consecutive cycles. It is advisable to continue treatment for the first few months of pregnancy as described under Habitual abortion. Contraindications: Hypersensitivity to the active substance or to any of the excipients. Pregnancy and lactation: Until now there is no evidence that dydrogesterone can not be used during pregnancy. Dysgenesis is expected in the milk of nursing mothers. Effects on ability to drive and use machines: Dydrogesterone has no effect on this ability. Undesirable effects: Breakthrough bleedings may occur. Infrequently, alterations in liver function may occur, sometimes with atheroma or malaise, jaundice and abdominal pain. Aplastic anemia is reported very rarely. In isolated cases, haemolytic anemia has been reported. Overdose: No reports of ill effects from overdoses have been recorded. Pharmacological Properties: Dysgenesis is an orally active progestogen which is indicated in all cases of endogenous progestosterone deficiency. Dysgenesis has no androgenic, no androgenic, no androgenic, no androgenic, no androgenic, no androgenic properties. Pyrimidinysis and pyrimidinysis have been observed. Preclinical safety data: Dydrogesterone has been used in several animal species without dysgenesis to be an entity with low toxicity, not having mutagenic or carcinogenic properties. No effects were seen in reproduction experiments. Shelf life: 5 years. Special precautions for storage: Store in a dry place, not below 0°C or above 30°C, in the original packaging, keep out of the reach of children. Date of approval / revision of this SMPC text: April 16, 2002.
reduction in breast cancer incidence with oestrogen alone, a result that is in sharp contrast to the MWS findings. The MWS appears to have overestimated the risk of breast cancer quite considerably, and it is therefore questionable as to whether its findings should be used in any evidence base. The WHI showed an increased risk of breast cancer with oestrogen–progestogen, but only in those women who had previously used HRT before participating in the study. In women with no prior HRT use, no significant increase in breast cancer risk was seen over five years.

Thus, an increased risk of breast cancer should be considered possible in women using combined HRT, but only after several years and not necessarily with oestrogen alone. What is not known is whether this finding applies to all oestrogen–progestogen combinations, or whether some progestogens may not convey this risk. In this respect, HRT that combines oestrogens with selective oestradiol receptor modulators (SERMs) may prove advantageous, and further study outcomes on such combinations are awaited. Finally, in the analysis of benefit and risk, it has to be considered that there is evidence for a lower breast cancer mortality rate in HRT users despite the apparent increase in incidence.

Oral oestrogen has a greater impact on haemostasis and the risk of venous thromboembolism (VTE) than transdermal administration and increases thrombotic tendencies in a dose-dependent manner. A transient increase in thromboembolism may be seen with commencement of HRT, but this might be avoided by the initial use of low doses and non-oral preparations. A significant increase in VTE was reported in the WHI oestrogen–progestogen arm, but not in the oestrogen–alone arm. Furthermore, the risk in younger post-menopausal women who were not overweight was minimal. Similarly, an increase in stroke was seen in both arms of the WHI. While no randomised clinical trial has examined the effect of HRT dose on risk of stroke, there is observational study evidence to suggest that this is also dose-dependent, and such risk may therefore be minimised by the use of low doses. Whether the route of administration of HRT has any influence on the risk of stroke is unknown. Some observational studies have suggested an increased risk of ovarian cancer with very long-term use, but no significant increase in risk was seen in the WHI trial.

Conclusions

In all aspects of life, decisions for taking certain actions are made with consideration of their benefits and risks. The only medications that are completely free from any risks are those that do not work. Overall, when appropriate HRT regimens are given for appropriate clinical reasons, the benefits of HRT would appear to outweigh any risks quite considerably.

This finding applies to all oestrogen–progestogen combinations, or whether some progestogens may not convey this risk. In this respect, HRT that combines oestrogens with selective oestradiol receptor modulators (SERMs) may prove advantageous, and further study outcomes on such combinations are awaited. Finally, in the analysis of benefit and risk, it has to be considered that there is evidence for a lower breast cancer mortality rate in HRT users despite the apparent increase in incidence.

Overall, when appropriate HRT regimens are given for appropriate clinical reasons, the benefits of HRT would appear to outweigh any risks quite considerably.

Pharmaceutical form: Tablets for oral administration. Therapeutic indications: Hormone replacement therapy. To counteract the effects of unopposed oestrogen on the endometrium in hormone replacement therapy for women with an intact uterus. Progesterone deficiencies: Treatment of progesterone deficiencies such as: dysmenorrhoea, irregular cycles, dysfunctional uterine bleeding, pre-menstrual syndrome, threatened and habitual abortion, pre-eclampsia.

Posology and method of administration: Hormone replacement therapy: in combination with continuous oestrogen therapy, one tablet of 10mg dydrogesterone daily during 14 consecutive days per cycle of 28 days. In combination with cyclical oestrogen therapy, one tablet of 10mg dydrogesterone daily during the last 12-14 days of oestrogen therapy. If endometrial biopsies or ultrasound would reveal inadequate progesterational response, 20mg dydrogesterone should be prescribed. Dysmenorrhoea: 10mg twice daily from day 6 to day 25 of the cycle. Endometriosis: 10mg two or three times daily from day 5 to day 25 of the cycle or continuously. Dysfunctional bleeding (to arrest bleeding): 10mg twice daily for five to seven days. Dysfunctional bleeding (to prevent bleeding): 10mg twice daily from day 11 to day 25 of the cycle. Amenorrhoea: or oestrogen since daily from day 1 to day 25 of the cycle, together with 10mg dydrogesterone twice daily from day 11 to day 25 of the cycle. Pre-menstrual syndrome: 10mg twice daily from day 11 to day 25 of the cyde. Irregular cycles: 10mg twice daily from day 11 to day 25 of the cycle. Premature abortion: 10mg at once, then 10mg every eight hours until symptoms remit. Habitual abortion: 10mg twice daily until the twentieth week of pregnancy, if necessary due to initial insufficiency: 10mg daily from day 14 to 25 of the cycle. Treatment should be maintained for at least six consecutive cycles. It is advisable to continue treatment for the first few months of pregnancy as described under Habitual abortion.

Contraindications: Hypersensitivity to the active substance or to any of the excipients. Pregnancy and lactation: Until now there is no evidence that dydrogesterone can not be used during pregnancy. Dydrogesterone is excised in the milk of nursing mothers.

Effects on ability to drive and use machines: Dydrogesterone has no effect on this ability. Undesirable effects: Breakthrough bleedings may occur. Infrequently, alterations in liver function may occur, sometimes with asthma or malaise, jaundice and abdominal pain. Allergic skin rash, pruritus and urticaria are infrequently reported undesirable effects. Oedema including pre-gigantism is reported very rarely. In isolated cases, haemolytic anemia has been reported. Overdosage: No reports of ill-effects from overdose have been recorded.

Pharmacological Properties: Dydrogesterone is an orally active progestogen which is indicated in all cases of endogenous progesterone deficiency. Dydrogesterone has no oestrogenic, no androgenic, no thermogenic, no anabolic and no corticoid activity.

Preclinical safety data: Dydrogesterone has been used in several animal models and has been proven to be an entity with low toxicity, not having mutagenic, or carcinogenic effects. No effects were seen in reproduction experiments. Shelf life: 5 years. Special precautions for storage: Store in a dry place, not below 0°C or above 30°C, in the original package. Keep out of the reach of children.

Date of approval / revision of this SNPC text: April 18, 2002.

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