Origin of the X-chromosome influences the development and treatment outcomes of Turner syndrome

Ying Zhang [1] , **Yong-chen Yang** [2] , **Pin Li** [1] , **Sheng Guo** [Corresp. 1]

[1] Department of Endocrinology, Shanghai Children's Hospital, Shanghai Jiaotong University, Shanghai, Shanghai, China

[2] Department of Laboratory Medicine, Shanghai Children's Hospital, Shanghai Jiaotong University, Shanghai, Shanghai, China

Corresponding Author: Sheng Guo
Email address: guosheng@shchildren.com

Turner syndrome (TS) affects 1/2500 live-born female infants. In the present study, we attempted to clarify the relationship between genetic factors (especially the X-chromosome origin), clinical features, body/sexual development, and treatment outcomes. We enrolled 39 female infants aged between 3 and 14 years. General demographic and clinical features were documented, and laboratory analysis of blood samples was performed. Subject karyotype was determined by G-banding of 50 peripheral white blood cells, and the parenteral origin of the retained X-chromosome was determined. Next, growth hormone (GH) treatment was prescribed for 12 months, with follow-ups performed as determined. For patient groups separated according to X-chromosome origin, the basal height, bone age, insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-1, and insulin-like growth factor binding protein-3 (IGFBP-3) levels were comparable; however, after the 12-month treatment, significant differences in the height increase and IGF-1 levels were observed. If the X-chromosome (or chromosomes) originated from both parents, the increase in height was less substantial, with lower serum IGF-1 levels. The uterine size, prolactin level, increased weight after treatment, and bone age difference after treatment negatively correlated with the mother's age at the time of birth. The mother's height at the time of birth demonstrated a negative correlation with the basal bone age difference and a positive correlation with the IGF-1 level. In summary, the retained X-chromosome derived from both parents is associated with poorer response to GH therapy. The mother's age and height at the time of birth can strongly impact the patient's body/sexual development and the response to GH treatment. Thus, the mother's age and height at the time of birth and the parental origin of the X-chromosome should be carefully considered before developing a treatment plan for TS.

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2 **syndrome**

3 **Running Title:** X origin influences Turner syndrome treatment

4 *Ying Zhang, MS[1], Yong-chen Yang, MS[2], Pin Li, MS [1], Sheng Guo, MD[1], **

5 [1] Department of Endocrinology, Shanghai Children's Hospital, Shanghai Jiaotong University, No. 355,

6   Luding Road, Putuo District, Shanghai, 200062, China,

7 [2] Department of Laboratory Medicine, Shanghai Children's Hospital, Shanghai Jiaotong University, No.

8   355, Luding Road, Putuo District, Shanghai, 200062, China.

10 ***Correspondence to:**

11 Sheng Guo

12 Department of Endocrinology, Shanghai Children's Hospital, Shanghai Jiaotong University, No. 355,

13 Luding Road, Putuo District, Shanghai, 200062, China.

14 Tel./Fax: +86-021-62474880

15 Email: guosheng@shchildren.com

16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Turner syndrome (TS) affects 1/2500 live-born female infants. In the present study, we attempted to

18 clarify the relationship between genetic factors (especially the X-chromosome origin), clinical features,

19 body/sexual development, and treatment outcomes. We enrolled 39 female infants aged between 3 and 14

20 years. General demographic and clinical features were documented, and laboratory analysis of blood

21 samples was performed. Subject karyotype was determined by G-banding of 50 peripheral white blood

22 cells, and the parenteral origin of the retained X-chromosome was determined. Next, growth hormone

23 (GH) treatment was prescribed for 12 months, with follow-ups performed as determined. For patient

24 groups separated according to X-chromosome origin, the basal height, bone age, insulin-like growth

25 factor (IGF)-1, and insulin-like growth factor binding protein-3 (IGFBP-3) levels were comparable;

26 however, after the 12-month treatment, significant differences in the height increase and IGF-1 levels

27 were observed. If the X-chromosome (or chromosomes) originated from both parents, the increase in

28 height was less substantial, with lower serum IGF-1 levels. The uterine size, prolactin level, increased

29 weight after treatment, and bone age difference after treatment negatively correlated with the mother's age

30 at the time of birth. The mother's height at the time of birth demonstrated a negative correlation with the

31 basal bone age difference and a positive correlation with the IGF-1 level. In summary, the retained X-

32 chromosome derived from both parents is associated with poorer response to GH therapy. The mother's

33 age and height at the time of birth can strongly impact the patient's body/sexual development and the

34 response to GH treatment. Thus, the mother's age and height at the time of birth and the parental origin of

35 the X-chromosome should be carefully considered before developing a treatment plan for TS.

36   **Keywords:** Turner syndrome, X-chromosome origin, IGF-1.

37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 Turner syndrome (TS) is a common chromosomal disorder caused by the loss of all or a significant part of

39 one X-chromosome in a phenotypic female, usually presenting with short stature and premature ovarian

40 failure. This condition affects approximately 1/2500 live-born female infants. Previous studies have

41 described the cytogenetic characterization of patients with TS (*Chauhan et al., 2016; Burégio-Frota et al.,*

42 *2010; Moka et al., 2013*), with a majority of published reports focusing on karyotype-phenotype

43 associations (*Noordman et al., 2019; Cameron-Pimblett et al., 2017; Aversa et al., 2015; Verver et al.,*

44 *2014; Verver et al., 2011*). For example, a study assessing karyotype features associated with TS-specific

45 hearing loss has revealed that elevated air conduction thresholds can be associated with loss of the p arm

46 of chromosome X (*King et al., 2007*). In contrast, monosomy karyotype (45, X) has been associated with

47 a more severe, lymphatic, and skeletal phenotype of dysmorphic features and cardio-aortic malformations

48 (*Noordman et al., 2018*). The clinical features of TS largely depend on the involved regions of the X-

49 chromosome. These X-structural abnormalities include deletions, duplications, isochromosomes of the

50 long arm, isodicentric chromosomes, complex abnormalities with combined deletions and duplications,

51 inversions, rings, and translocations. Typically, around 40%-50% of patients exhibit monosomy (45, X),

52 around 10% of patients are diagnosed with mosaicism (45,X)/(46,XX), approximately 20% of patients

53 have karyotype with isochromosomes, and nearly 20% present other karyotypes (*Noordman et al., 2019;*

54 *King et al., 2007; Noordman et al., 2018; Ko et al., 2010; Alvarez-Nava et al., 2013*). Theoretically,

55 different karyotypes could influence phenotypes during body development, as well as impact treatment

56 outcomes; however, studies investigating these aspects remain limited. Known risk factors associated

57   with development and treatment outcomes predominantly include elevated blood pressure in childhood,

58   mid-parental height (MPH), and genetic factors (e.g., the SHOX deficiency phenotype)(*Nathwani et al.,*

59   *2000; Scalco et al., 2019; Jung et al., 2000; Child et al., 2015*) . Theoretically, some potential predictors

60   are worth investigating, including prolactin, mother's age, and height at the time of birth, and parental

61   origin of the X-chromosome. The parental origin of the X chromosome may impact the disease onset in

62   terms of different aspects (e.g., aortic stiffness) (*Binkert et al., 2010*; *Yeh et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2014*).

63   There have been very few studies investigating the influence of parental origin on treatment results, and

64   the controversy regarding the impact of the retained X-chromosome on clinical features persists. In the

65   present study, we attempted to clarify the relationship between genetic factors (especially the X origin),

66   clinical features, body/sexual development, and treatment outcomes in TS. For the first time, we observed

67   some novel links between the X origin and growth hormone (GH) therapy outcomes, as well as an impact

68   of maternal genetic factors on body/sexual development and GH responses.

69

70   **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

71   **Patients**

72   Female children who visited the examination center from January 2019 to April 2020 were selected, and

73   those diagnosed with TS were enrolled. All recruited patients provided signed informed consent. The

74   inclusion criteria for TS children were as follow: (1) females, aged between 3 and 14 years old, (2)

75   diagnosed with TS according to chromosome examination results, (3) who had received GH treatment. TS

76   was diagnosed by lymphocyte chromosomal analysis, in combination with an analysis of clinical features.

77   None of the subjects had received GH therapy or anabolic steroids previously. Potentially relevant

78   demographic data were recorded, including age, weight, height, father's age at birth, mother's age at birth,

79   father's height at birth, and mother's height at birth. Abnormalities in uterine and ovary size

80   (small/normal/large) were recorded according to previously reported standards(*Cohen et al., 1993; Cohen*

81   *et al., 1990;Orsini et al., 1984*) .

82

83   **Laboratory analysis**

84   For each subject, whole blood samples from an antecubital vein were collected and immediately

85   centrifuged. The serum was stored or sent to the laboratory within 3 h. Subsequently, the following serum

86   biochemical indicators were measured using the enzymatic method: GH level, GH excitation peak,

87   alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), total cholesterol, high density

88   lipoprotein (HDL), low density lipoprotein (LDL), insulin, Free T3, Free T4, triiodothyronine, thyroxine,

89   thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-1, insulin-like growth factor binding

90   protein-3 (IGFBP-3), luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), estradiol (E2),

91   prolactin, progesterone, human chorionic gonadotropin (HCG), and sex hormone-binding globulin

92   (SHBG).

93

94   **Parental origin of the X-chromosome using X-chromosome short tandem repeats analysis**

95   We performed chromosome karyotype analysis and microsatellite analysis for each patient to jointly infer

96   the parental origin of the X-chromosome. Karyotype analysis is a classic technique for detecting

97   abnormal chromosome numbers, large fragment copy number variation, and chromosome fusion. We

98   used chromosome G-banding technology to analyze 550 bands of chromosomes; microsatellite analysis

99   was then performed for each patient and the parents. The karyotype analysis of chromosomes

100   demonstrates good consistency with the microsatellite analysis. Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization using

101   X- and Y-specific α satellite DNA probes was used to characterize marker-chromosomes and ring-

102   chromosomes. To analyze the influence of different karyotype groups, the following types were defined:

103   (1) Type-1: 45, X (all cells had karyotype 45, X); (2) Type-2: 46, Xdel (X); (3) Type-3: both 46, Xdel

104   (X)(q) or 46, Xdel(X)(q) and 45, X; (4) Type-4: other types. We excluded the karyotype with Y

105   chromosomes. In all samples, the fragmented X-chromosome was present in 20 to 100% of white blood

106   cells. The parental origin of the X-chromosome was determined by detecting 9 X-chromosome short

107   tandem repeat (X-STR) loci on the X-chromosome (GATA172D05, DXS10159, DXS6797, HPRTB,

108   DXS10079, DXS6789, DXS9895, DXS10146, and GATA31E08), which are highly polymorphic in the

109   Han population (*Huang et al., 2015*); their positions on the X-chromosome were q23.00, c, q22.30,

110   q26.20, q12.00, q21.33, p22.32, q28.00, and q27.10, respectively. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

111   amplification of 9 X-STR loci was performed, followed by a comparison of the patient's result versus the

112   mother and the father. The result of the X origin was documented for further analysis.

113

114   **GH treatment and follow-up**

115   All patients received GH therapy for twelve months (1.5IU/d/kg), and the height increase, bone age, and

116   IGF-1 and IGFBP3 levels were examined following treatment. Patients lost during follow-up were

117   excluded.

118

119 **Statistical analysis**

120 All categorical data were expressed as frequencies and percentages; continuous data were expressed as

121 the mean ± standard deviation (SD). SPSS software 25.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) was used for

122 statistical analysis. The Chi-Square test was used to compare frequencies in different groups, and one-way

123 ANOVA was used to compare continuous data. A p-value < 0.05 was set as the significance level.

124

125 **Ethics statement**

126 This study was approved by Ethics Review Committee, Children's Hospital of

127 Shanghai/Shanghai Children's Hospital, Shanghai Jiao Tong University (Approval No:

128 2017R027-E04), and we strictly followed the standard of ethics established by the committee.

129

130 **RESULTS**

131 **Clinical characteristics of included children**

132 A total of 39 patients were enrolled, whose demographic information is presented in Table 1. The average

133 age was 90.90 months (44-154), the average weight was 20.69 kg (12.60-36.50), and the average was

134 height was 108.72 cm (88.9-131.4). The mean age of the patients' fathers at birth was 28.59 years (25-35),

135 and that of mothers was 26.74 years (23-31). The average height of the patients' fathers was 169.41 cm

136 (160-177), and that of mothers was 157.59 cm (152-165). Blood biochemical indicators for enrolled

137 patients are presented in Table 2. Overall, patients had relatively low GH, free T4, prolactin, and

138 progesterone levels.

139   The genotypes of chromosomes were as follows: 38.5% (15 cases) children showed a type-1 chromosome

140   category, 10.3% (4 cases) belonged to type-2, 43.6% (17 cases) were the type-3 chromosome category,

141   and 7.7% (3 cases) belonged to type-4. Based on the parenteral chromosome examination, the X-

142   chromosome(s) origins were classified into three categories: from father, from mother, and from both.

143   Overall, 15.4% (6 cases) had X chromosomes from the father, 41.0% (16 cases) had X chromosomes

144   from the mother, and 43.6% (17 cases) had X chromosomes from both.

145

146   **Association between X origin and treatment effects**

147   Firstly, we observed the association between the X origin and treatment outcomes. According to the

148   retained X-chromosome origin (father, mother, or both), all patients were divided into three groups. The

149   basal height, bone age, and IGF-1 and IGFBP3 levels were comparable between groups; however,

150   significant differences in the height increase (HI) ($p<0.001$) and IGF-1 levels ($p<0.001$) were observed

151   following GH therapy (Table 3). If the X-chromosome (or chromosomes) was/were derived from both

152   parents, the HI and serum IGF-1 levels were lower than those observed in any parent. Furthermore, the

153   age range of subjects enrolled in this study varied widely. To avoid the impact of age on HI, we used age-

154   matched samples to ensure that only those subjects whose age was within the 90.90±28.99 range of total

155   samples were selected. In this set, the results were highly consistent with the total samples (Table 3).

156   These findings indicated more significant challenges in treating those patients who present chromosome

157   disorders from both parents.

158

159   **Maternal genetic factors influencing the development and GH treatment**

160 Theoretically, maternal genetic factors have a greater impact on child development and GH treatment.

161 Among the basal clinical characteristics, uterine size, and prolactin level both negatively correlated with

162 the mother's age at birth of the subject (p < 0.01) (Table 4). For prolactin, the relevance was above 0.5 (-

163 0.508), with a high significance (p=0.001). Following GH therapy, the weight increase and bone age

164 difference negatively correlated with the mother's age at birth of the subject (p<0.05). These results may

165 suggest that an elder pregnant woman may bear a TS child with a poor status and more significant

166 treatment challenges. Moreover, the mother's height at the subject's birth may impact development and

167 GH treatment. Accordingly, the basal bone age difference was negatively associated with the mother's

168 height (R=-0.336, p=0.036), while the IGF-1 level after treatment was positively correlated with the

169 mother's height (R=0.388, p=0.015). However, these relationships have not been observed in paternal

170 genetic factors.

171

172 **DISCUSSION**

173 TS is typically caused by karyotype variations, but it can also be heritable according to some typical case

174 reports (*Ramachandram et al., 2013; Periquito et al., 2016*). GH therapy is the most widely used strategy,

175 apart from estrogen and oxandrolone therapies. This treatment can effectively improve the bone mineral

176 density and body height in patients with TS (*Wasniewska et al., 2013; Soucek et al., 2011; Menke et al.,*

177 *2010; Bannink et al., 2009; Spiliotis 2008; Morin et al., 2009; Lanes et al., 2019*). In particular, the GH-

178 IGF-IGFBP axis is altered in TS (*Gravholt et al., 2006*); long-term GH treatment can restore IGF-1 and

179 IGFBP-3 levels, which are valuable indicators of treatment outcomes (*Pankowska et al., 2007; Baş et al.,*

180   *2012; Bautembach-Minkowska et al., 2018; Blanco-López et al., 2020*). Notably, IGF-I has been

181   considered a marker of growth response (*Darendeliler et al., 2007*). Moreover, some laboratory indicators

182   are potentially relevant to TS, e.g., prolactin, as implied by previous reports; hence, we included several

183   candidate factors in laboratory analysis*(Amendt et al., 1992; Salvarci et al., 2018; Yeh et al., 2017)*. In the

184   present study, we performed a follow-up survey, mainly focusing on changes in height, body weight,

185   IGF-1, IGFBP-3, and bone age.

186   Generally, the TS karyotype can be classified into four types: monosomy, mosaic, variant, and mosaic

187   with variant (*Wu&Li, 2019*). Monosomy 45,X has been detected in approximately 45%-50% of cases,

188   with other patients presenting various chimeras and structural abnormalities (*Cui et al., 2018*).

189   Theoretically, genetic factors can strongly decide the disease state and treatment outcomes. Growth

190   retardation tends to be more severe in patients with XrX, isoXq, and (45,X) karyotypes than in patients

191   with (45,X)/(46,XX) karyotypes or a Y chromosome (*Fiot et al., 2016*). Several studies have assessed the

192   effect of parental origin of the X-chromosome on clinical features, associated complications, and the

193   response to GH therapy. Francisco Álvarez-Nava et al. have shown that parental origin of the retained X-

194   chromosome may influence lipid metabolism in patients with TS, but its effect on growth seems to be

195   minimal (*Alvarez-Nava et al., 2013*). The authors did not detect any impact on phenotypic features,

196   associated anomalies, or the growth response to GH in (45,X) TS individuals. This negative result

197   corroborates the conclusions of Devernay M and Ko JM (*Ko et al., 2010; Devernay et al., 2012*), although

198   Kochi C et al. previously reported a strong influence of genes located on the maternal X-chromosome,

199   particularly on stature (*Kochi et al., 2007*). To date, the present study is among few research endeavors

200   revealing the impact of X-chromosome origin on GH treatment effects. We noted that when a patient with

201   TS presents an X-chromosome (or X chromosomes) from both parents, she is more likely to have a lower

202   HI and IGF-1 level; however, no difference was observed in patients with X chromosomes derived from

203   the father or mother. These results suggest that X chromosomes from both parents may induce a less

204   functional loss in growth and development, with a complex etiology, such that single exogenous GH

205   supplementation may afford only limited effects. Nevertheless, we did not undertake detailed sequencing

206   and, so far, we are unable to implicate the mechanism underlying the influence of combined variation

207   sources.

208   Another unexpected finding is that the mother's age and height at the time of the subject's birth might

209   strongly influence body development and GH treatment. The clear mechanism is still to be explored. To

210   our best knowledge, this is the first work showing the correlation between mother's age and height at the

211   time of the patient's birth and GH treatment response, and no direct evidence was found for reference.

212   The etiology of this finding can be explained as follow. First, the uterine size was found to be smaller if

213   the child was born to an older mother, which can be expected. Consistently, the patient's prolactin level

214   significantly decreased as the mother's age at birth increased. Prolactin ay partially impact the GH

215   response to growth hormone-releasing hormone *(Losa et al., 1988)*. Besides, elderly women tend to have

216   chromosomal abnormality of oocyte, which leads to a high incidence rate of fetal chromosomal

217   abnormality*(Ben-Meir et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2018)* . However, it is still early to recommend for early

218   childbirth towards mothers of potential TS children. The mother's height at the time of birth positively

219   correlated with the GH therapy response, as indicated by the IGF-1 level after treatment, suggesting that

220   patients with TS may benefit from a taller mother; however, the underlying mechanism needs to be

221   explored. Intriguingly, the bone age difference at the baseline level negatively correlated with the

222   mother's height at the time of birth, with no association observed following treatment. This may be

223   attributed to the following reasons. Firstly, the p-value was not sufficiently small, and our sample size

224   was limited; hence, this conclusion needs to be confirmed with more evidence. Secondly, the mother's

225   increased height may suppress the bone development in the TS child, despite benefits for GH responses.

226   Therefore, a negative correlation was observed at baseline, but the correlation was not observed after

227   treatment. This hypothesis warrants further corroborative investigations.

228   The present study has some limitations. First, this study was conducted over an extremely brief timeframe

229   (only one year), and the results may therefore not best predict the outcomes. Accordingly, we plan to

230   perform an investigation with a more extended follow-up period. In addition, the age range of subjects

231   varied greatly; this is to be expected, as mildly affected patients are diagnosed late, and presumably, those

232   diagnosed late demonstrate poor growth potential. Their poor height outcome may be due to missed

233   treatment. Our future investigation will accumulate more samples and narrow the age range. Moreover,

234   based on the present findings, our ensuing investigation will focus on a potentially effective strategy for

235   those TS patients with retained X chromosomes derived from both parents, as well as high-risk children

236   with TS sisters.

237

238   **CONCLUSION**

239   In summary, the retained X-chromosome derived from both parents weakens the response to GH therapy.

240   The mother's age and height at the time of birth can impact the patient's body/sexual development and

241   GH treatment outcomes. Based on these data, considerable attention should be paid to analyzing the

242 mother's age and height at the time of birth, as well as to the parental origin of the X-chromosome, prior

243 to developing an effective treatment plan for TS.

244

245 **ABBREVIATIONS**

246 TS, Turner syndrome; GH, growth hormone; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate

247 aminotransferase; HDL, high density lipoprotein; LDL, low density lipoprotein; TSH, thyroid-stimulating

248 hormone; LH, luteinizing hormone; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; HCG, human chorionic

249 gonadotropin; SHBG, sex hormone binding globulin; X-STR, X-chromosome short tandem repeats; SD,

250 standard deviation.

251

252

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258

259 **Competing Interests**

260 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

261

262 **Author Contributions**

263   Experimental operation, subject design, execution: Ying Zhang

264   Guide: Pin Li and Sheng Guo

265   Experimental operation: Yong-Chen Yang.

266

267   **Data Availability**

268   The raw data summary is available as a Supplemental File.

269

270

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451   **Supplemental Files**

452   Human Studies Approval.

453   Consent Form.

454   Raw Data.

Table 1. Demographic information of enrolled patients and general chromosome genotypes

1 **Table 1. Demographic information of enrolled patients and general chromosome genotypes**

Index		Value or number	%
Age (month)		90.90±28.99 (44-154)	
Weight (kg)		20.69±5.10 (12.60-36.50)	
Height (cm)		108.72±11.73 (88.9-131.4)	
Father's age when born		28.59±1.83 (25-35)	
Mother's age when born		26.74±1.80 (23-31)	
Father's height (cm)		169.41±3.73 (160-177)	
Mother's height (cm)		157.59±3.07 (152-165)	
Karyotyping	Type 1	15	38.5%
	Type 2	4	10.3%
	Type 3	17	43.6%
	Type 4	3	7.7%
Source of variation	Father	6	15.4%
	Mother	16	41.0%
	Both	17	43.6%

Table 2. Blood biochemical indicators of enrolled patients

Table 2. Blood biochemical indicators of enrolled patients

Index	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
GH excitation peak	38	3.89	19.60	9.73	3.37
GH (IU/d/kg)	39	1.5	2.0	1.54	0.13
ALT (U/L)	39	6	43	15.72	6.82
AST (U/L)	39	19	61	32.44	7.98
Total cholesterol (mmol/l)	38	2.98	6.11	4.97	0.86
HDL (mmol/l)	38	1.16	2.28	1.68	0.25
LDL (mmol/l)	35	1.40	3.64	2.64	0.50
Insulin (pmol/l)	39	3.02	112.00	39.60	27.67
Free T3 (pmol/l)	39	4.46	9.10	6.16	0.92
Free T4 (pmol/l)	39	11.06	26.77	13.67	2.58
Triiodothyronine (nmol/l)	39	1.33	2.62	2.02	0.27
Thyroxine (nmol/l)	38	87.88	140.64	112.27	11.31
TSH (uIU/ml)	39	0.01	17.98	3.51	2.64
IGF-1 (ng/ml)	38	36.7	375.0	144.09	71.90
IGFBP3 (ug/ml)	39	1.76	5.11	3.55	0.89
LH (IU/L)	39	0.10	25.20	0.83	4.01
FSH (IU/L)	39	0.62	133.00	6.86	20.94
E2 (pmol/l)	39	73.0	277.0	84.26	33.06
Prolactin (mIU)	39	110.00	772.74	357.89	132.71
Progesterone (nmol/l)	39	0.19	2.01	0.72	0.42
HCG (mIU/ML)	39	0.20	1.38	0.52	0.18
SHBG (nmol/l)	39	28.00	109.00	59.75	22.82

2 GH: growth hormone   HDL: high density lipoprotein   LDL: low density lipoprotein

3 TSH: thyroid-stimulating hormone   LH: Luteinizing hormone   FSH: Follicle-Stimulating Hormone

4 HCG: human chorionic gonadotropin   SHBG: sex hormone binding globulin   SD: Standard deviation

Table 3. The impact of X origin on treatment effects

Table 3. The impact of X origin on treatment effects

	Father		Mother		Both		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
All samples	N = 6		N = 16		N = 17			
Height								
Baseline (cm)	103.02	7.43	110.92	12.20	108.65	12.36	0.991	0.381
Increase (cm)	8.00	0.00	8.24	1.53	6.25	1.26	10.693	0.000
IGF-1								
Baseline (ng/ml)	127.50	49.31	157.17	90.86	137.24	57.81	0.483	0.621
9-month (ng/ml)	270.83	48.22	318.31	70.37	213.71	52.05	12.589	0.000
Age matched	N = 5		N = 10		N = 12			
Height								
Baseline (cm)	104.28	7.56	103.76	9.06	106.38	8.10	0.291	0.750
Increase (cm)	8.00	0.00	8.31	1.24	6.56	1.31	6.744	0.005
IGF-1								
Baseline (ng/ml)	137.40	48.01	104.77	45.26	127.52	35.60	1.295	0.292
9-month (ng/ml)	284.80	37.99	302.80	66.81	203.58	42.66	10.736	0.000

2   SD: Standard deviation

Table 4. Association between mother's age and height when born on development and GH treatment

1   **Table 4. Association between mother's age and height when born on development and GH treatment**

Factors	Spearman R	P value
Association between mother's age when born and following factors		
Uterine size (small/normal/large)	-0.442	0.005
Prolactin (mIU)	-0.508	0.001
Weight increase after treatment	-0.351	0.028
Bone age difference after treatment	-0.353	0.028
Association between mother's height when born and following factors		
Bone age difference (baseline)	-0.336	0.036
IGF-1 level after treatment	0.388	0.015