Hypothyroidism

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Abstract | Hypothyroidism is the common clinical condition of thyroid hormone deficiency and, if left untreated, can lead to serious adverse health effects on multiple organ systems, with the

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(primary hypothyroidism) or in the pituitary or hypolevels is the hallmark of diagnosis³ (FIG. 1). thalamus (central hypothyroidism). Hypothyroidism Levothyroxine (LT4), a synthetic form of T_4 that is the mainstay of treatment for hypothyroidism, is the third can also result from severe iodine deficiency because most commonly prescribed drug in the United States, the synthesis of thyroid hormone requires the trace

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PRIMER





Epidemiology pathophysiology diagnosis optimal treatment quality of life of patients current knowledge gaps and research priorities

Hypothyroidism

- Overt hypothyroidism :TSH levels above the upper limit of the reference range while levels fT4 are below the lower limit of the reference range
- **subclinical hypothyroidism:**TSH levels are elevated but fT4 levels are still within reference range
- **reference range** : statistically defined by the **2.5th and 97.5th percentiles** of the measured circulating thyroid hormone values in populations defined as healthy

- iodine status
- Prevalence decreases with the declining severity of iodine deficiency and
- Prevalence **increases** as iodine intake shifts from mild deficiency to **optimal or** excessive intake
- the risk of Hashimoto thyroiditis



• Primary hypothyroidism <u>prevalence is highest</u> in populations with **high iodine** intake or severe iodine deficiency as compared with populations with a sufficient

• Improvement iodine status increases thyroid antibody positivity and therefore





Fig. 2 | Global prevalence of overt hypothyroidism and iodine status. a | Worldwide prevalence of overt hypothyroidism based on epidemiological studies (Supplementary Table 1). The median value was calculated for countries for which data are available from multiple studies. **b** | Global iodine nutrition status in 2021 (REF.¹⁸⁶) based on iodine intake in the general population as assessed by median urinary iodine concentration (mUIC) in school-aged children from studies conducted between 2005 and 2020.

- and environmental factors
- Individuals with a **TSH-based genetic risk score** in the **highest** quartile had a 2.5fold increased odds of hypothyroidism compared with individuals with a genetic risk score in the lowest quartile
- No differences were found between men and women in genetic variants for TSH and fT₄ in sex-stratified GWAS metaanalyses
- Nevertheless, the risk of developing primary hypothyroidism is up to **tenfold** higher in women than in men, suggesting an important contribution of non-genetic factors



• Hypothyroidism occurrence is dependent on genetic, inherent (for example, sex)



- **TPO antibody** concentrations are **lower** in **smokers** than in non-smokers
- **TSH** levels are **lower** in current **smokers** than in former smokers, and lower in former smokers than in never smokers
- Smoking initiation results in a significant decrease in serum TSH levels after 1 year in men
- **Obesity** is associated with **higher serum TSH** in adults and children
- small for gestational age have higher serum TSH levels than children born appropriate for gestational age
- Environmental factors : vitamin D and selenium deficiency, and moderate alcohol intake \bullet



Central and peripheral hypothyroidism

- <u>Central hypothyroidism</u>: **secondary** hypothyroidism (pathology of **pituitary**) or **tertiary** hypothyroidism (pathology of **hypothalamus**)
- most common causes :pituitary adenoma ,infiltrative disease , radiotherapy, immunecheckpoint inhibitors resulted in a surge in hypophysitis
- *Peripheral hypothyroidism* : reduce the effectiveness of thyroid hormone through altered cell membrane transport and metabolism
- rare
- genetic(congenital) : decreased sensitivity to thyroid hormone mutations in MCT8, THRA or THRB, specific set of clinical signs and symptoms.
- **consumptive hypothyroidism : increased** expression **DIO3** (an enzyme that inactivates thyroid hormone) in **tumours** (for example, **gastrointestinal stromal tumours**)

Mechanisms/pathophysiology Physiological aspects

- Serum TSH levels follow a circadian rhythm: levels are highest between 9 pm and 5 am and lowest between 4pm and 7pm
- The thyroid gland secretes predominantly T4, to a lesser extent, T3, which accounts for up to only ~20% of circulating T3
- remaining T₃ is produced by peripheral tissues, such as liver and skeletal muscle, by the activating enzymes DIO1 and DIO2, respectively
- Most circulating T4 and T3 is bound to transport proteins such as **TBG**, **transthyretin** and **albumin**.
- Only ~0.02% of T4 and ~0.2% of T3 are present in an unbound form

Physiological aspects

- genes and their expression.
- TRβ1 in liver, kidney and thyroid.
- in the **pituitary gland**, is essential for the **negative regulation of TSH**

• Binding T₃ to the nuclear T₃ receptors (TRs), modulate hormone-responsive

• three **THR** α and three **THR** β isoforms, of which **TR** α **1**, **TR** β **1** and **TR** β **2** <u>bind to T</u>**3** • TRα1 and TRβ1 are ubiquitously expressed, **TRα1 in brain**, heart, and bone and

• **TR**^β has **restricted** expression pattern but is the **predominant** isoform expressed



Mechanisms/pathophysiology **Physiological aspects**

- thyroid hormone
- Regulation of intracellular thyroid hormone concentrations: **fT4 and fT3** enzymes that can activate or inactivate thyroid hormone

• Intracellular T₃ concentrations strongly determine the biological activity of

concentrations in serum, activity of the intracellular DIO1, DIO2 and DIO3

- TRH neurons receive various central modulators and other inputs
- TRβ2 expressed in TRH neurons mediates feedback thyroid hormones
- **DIO2** production of T3 from T4
- Production and release TSH from the anterior pituitary is modulated by both thyroid hormones and TRH
- In the periphery, only the free fraction of thyroid hormones can be transported into target cells
- effects of thyroid hormones are mediated via interaction of the active hormone T₃ with the nuclear T₃ receptor, which together bind to thyroid response elements (TREs) and modulate the expression of thyroid hormone-responsive genes.



• Chronic autoimmune thyroiditis (Hashimoto thyroiditis):

- most common cause of primary hypothyroidism
- Factors interact in the development of chronic autoimmune thyroiditis: genetic ,environmental factors, micronutrients (mainly iodine and selenium), drugs, infiltration, infection, polyglandular syndromes, molecular mimicry between microbial and host antigens
- High concentrations TPOAb and antithyroglobulin antibodies in most autoimmune thyroiditis
- occur in ~10% of the euthyroid population
- In pregnancy TPOAb positivity in 2–17%

Mechanisms/pathophysiology

- In more than 40% of pregnant women with thyroid autoimmunity, serum fT4 concentration falls in the hypothyroid range during late pregnancy, which may complicate diagnosing overt hypothyroidism during the third trimester
- This is due to inadequate maternal thyroid capacity in response to increased demands in thyroid hormone production imposed by stimulation of the thyroid by HCG, increases in TBG, and changes in placental deiodination and renal clearance of iodine during pregnancy
- rates of **miscarriages** and **preterm** delivery are increased with thyroid autoimmunity
- A negative association of TPOAb positivity during pregnancy with neurodevelopment of offspring has been suggested



Mechanisms/pathophysiology **Chronic autoimmune thyroiditis**

• Infiltration of thyroid tissue by lymphocytes, mainly T helper 1 cells, alter follicular cell function through IL-1, TNF, IFNy, Chemokines



Fig. 4 Pathogenetic mechanisms in Hashimoto thyroiditis. Thyroid autoimmunity is the result of the interplay of genetic and environmental factors that cause damage to thyroid cells, leading to autoantigen release and presentation. Entry of autoreactive immune cells into the thyroid leads to activation of cellular and humoral immune responses, cytokine production, and cytotoxicity and apoptosis. $T_{H}1$, T helper 1; TSHR, thyroid-stimulating hormone receptor.



- Both iodine **deficiency** and iodine **excess** may cause **hypothyroidism** but overt accompanied by goitre
- prescription
- insufficient selenium intake is associated with elevated risk of thyroid disease

hypothyroidism **mainly** occurs in the context of **severe iodine deficiency** and is commonly

• following exposure to high iodine levels in high-risk individuals (such as those who are prone to **Hashimoto** thyroiditis), synthesis of thyroid hormone can be **inhibited** by the socalled Wolff-Chaikoff effect without resumption of iodine organification after a few days

• Hypothyroidism may be observed following <u>chronic</u> administration of large doses of iodine from iodinated *contrast* material, the heavily iodinated antiarrhythmic *amiodarone*, the topical antiseptic *povidone-iodine* or iodine-containing thyroid *supplements* that are available without

- Ablative doses of radioiodine recommended to treat Graves disease
- Radioiodine treatment of toxic nodular goitre or non-toxic nodular goitre results in hypothyroidism in ~25% of patients
- External radiation doses \geq 25 Gy (2,500 rad) head and neck region for malignant tumours : permanent hypothyroidism in >50% of patients
- total thyroidectomy
- Near-total thyroidectomy : removal of most of the thyroid gland except for <1 g of thyroid tissue to minimize risk of damaging the recurrent laryngeal nerve
- Subtotal thyroidectomy removal of most of the thyroid gland except for ~4–8g of tissue to maintain euthyroidism/hypothyroidism in ~50%

- 14–27% of primary thyroid lymphoma and 30–40% of patients with Reidel thyroiditis
- infection with Pneumocystis jirovecii, tuberculosis and brucellosis have been
- COVID-19 hypothyroidism as a consequence of subacute thyroiditis
- other autoimmune diseases, particularly type 1 diabetes mellitus, autoimmune gastric atrophy and coeliac disease (part of autoimmune polyendocrinopathies)
- 20% treated with lithium will develop hypothyroidism. Lithium increases intrathyroidal iodine content, and inhibits thyroid hormone release

- amiodarone: 5–15%
- IFN α and IL-2: 58% and 32% of patients respectively, activation of autoimmune
- tyrosine kinase inhibitor : in 18–52%
- Immune-checkpoint inhibitors are associated with immune-related adverse events, including thyroid dysfunction and hypophysitis
- anti-CTLA4 or anti-PD1 monoclonal antibodies: More than 20% of patients treated mainly with both in combination, develop either thyroiditis, with potentially subsequent hypothyroidism, and up to 15% develop hypophysitis

- **Cigarette** smoking causes a decrease in serum TSH and TPOAb levels and a <u>decreased risk of hypothyroidism in patients with underlying chronic autoimmune</u> thyroiditis
- Congenital primary hypothyroidism
- dysgenesis: absent, underdeveloped or ectopic thyroid gland/Mutations in TSHR, FOXE1, NKX2-1, PAX8 and NKX2-5
- dyshormonogenesis: by defective thyroid hormone biosynthesis/ SLC5A5, TPO, DUOX2, DUOXA2, SLC6A4 and DHEAL1

Mechanisms/pathophysiology Central and peripheral hypothyroidism

- Acquired disease is more common(than congenital)
- Most frequently caused by pituitary adenoma
- Most thyrotroph defect is combined with multiple other hormone deficiencies
- TSH is often within reference range but the secreted TSH isoform, has severely impaired biological activity
- Inappropriately normal serum TSH and low circulating fT4 levels is common in patients with central hypothyroidism
- Transient or reversible forms of central hypothyroidism may occur in patients with prolonged thyrotoxicosis, newborns of hyperthyroid mothers, treat with somatostatin, glucocorticoids, antineoplastic agents or dopaminergic compounds

Aetiology	Mechanism		
Primary hypothyroidism (thyroid)			
Chronic autoimmune thyroiditis (Hashimoto thyroiditis)	Failure of T c of the thyroid		
Disturbed iodine metabolism	lodine defici		
	lodine exces primary thyre		
Irradiation and/or thyroidectomy	Ablation of t		
Genetic disease	Loss of funct		
Infiltrative diseases and lymphoma	Infiltration of and thyroid of		
Infection and/or inflammation	Thyroid cell o		
Medications ^a	Lithium: incr of iodotyrosi		
	IFNa and IL-2		
	Tyrosine kina on thyroid ho		
	Immune-che primary hypo		
Industrial and environmental agents	Interference		
Central hypothyroidism (hypothalami	ic or pituitary)		
Pituitary or hypothalamic lesions and/or damage	Heterogeneo thyrotrophs a and pituitary deficiencies, pituitary neo		
Infection and/or inflammation	Infectious (fo sarcoidosis) o hypophysitis		
Congenital	Midline defe mutations ra part of comb defective ge		
Peripheral hypothyroidism (peripheral tissues)			
Consumptive hypothyroidism	Increased ex by tumour ce		
Resistance to thyroid hormone	Tissue-specif		

/pathophysiology

ell-mediated inflammatory response, cytokine release, infiltration d by lymphocytes and development of fibrotic tissue in the thyroid

ency leads to decreased thyroid hormone production

s leads to thyroid hypofunction in patients with underlying oid disease

hyroid cells

ion, pathogenetic variants

f various cells or materials, granuloma and fibrosis formation, cell destruction

destruction (most recently COVID-19 infection)

reased intrathyroid iodine content, decreased coupling ine and hormone release

2: possible activation of autoimmune process

ase inhibitors: multiple mechanisms described, including effects ormone metabolism and transport, and destructive thyroiditis

eckpoint inhibitors: immune-related adverse events, including othyroidism, sometimes preceded by thyroiditis

in various steps of intrathyroidal metabolism

ous mechanisms leading to altered secretion of TSH by and/or bioactivity of TSH, involving both hypothalamic structures, usually combined with other pituitary hormone including surgery, head trauma, neoplastic lesions, apoplexy, crosis, (partial) empty sella, infiltrative lesions or irradiations

or example, tuberculosis) or inflammatory (for example, causes leading to pituitary or hypothalamic infiltration or (for example, due to immune-checkpoint inhibitors)

cts, Rathke pouch cyst or genetic mutation; congenital genetic arely cause isolated central hypothyroidism but are more often pined pituitary hormone deficiencies and the most common nes are PROP1 and POU1F1

pression of type 3 iodothyronine deiodinase (for example, ells)

fic hypothyroidism owing to decreased sensitivity to thyroid hormone (resulting from mutations in, for example, MCT8, THRA or THRB)

Diagnosis, screening and prevention **Common symptoms and clinical presentation**

• Almost all of the manifestations associated with: or

accumulation of matrix glycosaminoglycans in tissue interstitial spaces (leading to coarse hair and hoarseness of voice)

- Most common symptom : <u>fatigue</u>, <u>dry skin</u>, <u>weight gain</u>, <u>constipation</u>
- gallbladder hypotonia and **bile duct stone** formation
- Mild hepatocellular dysfunction occur
- A risk factor for **NAFLD** and **steatohepatitis**

metabolic processes (such as fatigue, cold intolerance, bradycardia, weight gain)

• Reduced gastrointestinal tract and gallbladder motility underlying mechanisms for constipation,

Common symptoms and clinical presentation

- Impaired memory, poor concentration
- Musculoskeletal symptoms
- Sleep apnea
- Depression, psychiatric disturbances
- Myocardial injury, pericardial effusion
- Hypertension, increased waist circumference and dyslipidaemia

• Impaired glomerular and tubular function, impaired free water clearance and hyponatraemia • Entrapment neuropathies (such as carpal tunnel syndrome) and metabolic polyneuropathies

Increased vascular resistance, decreased cardiac output, decreased left ventricular function



Fig. 1 | **Common symptoms and signs associated with hypothyroidism.** Most symptoms attributed to hypothyroidism are common in the general population and are non-specific. Less common symptoms of hypothyroidism (not shown) include dry skin (when severe, a non-pitting oedema termed myxoedema), hoarseness, anaemia (usually normochromic and normocytic but occasionally macrocytic), increased thrombosis risk (due to impaired coagulation and fibrinolysis) and various neurological (carpal tunnel syndrome and encephalopathy), musculoskeletal (myalgia and increased serum creatine kinase levels) and metabolic (hyponatraemia and increase in serum creatine kinase levels) symptoms.

Common symptoms and clinical presentation

- 12% of individuals with overt hypothyroidism, 7.4% of those with mild (or hypothyroid symptoms
- Presence of symptoms of hypothyroidism alone has a low sensitivity and lacksquarepositive predictive value
- Patients with hypothyroidism Might present with one or more symptoms of atrial fibrillation, cognitive decline, unexplained weight gain or subfertility

subclinical) hypothyroidism and 7.7% of those who were euthyroid reported

hypothyroidism or when abnormal thyroid test results are noted as part of routine screening tests in the setting of other medical conditions such as dyslipidaemia,

Box 1 | Differential diagnoses of hypothyroidism based on similar presenting symptoms

Endocrine conditions

- Addison disease: may present with increased thyroid-stimulating hormone levels that normalize after glucocorticoid replacement is commenced
- Obesity (particularly if associated with obstructive sleep apnoea)
- Menopause
- Hypopituitarism
- Type 1 diabetes mellitus
- Hypercalcaemia

Autoimmune conditions

- Coeliac disease
- Pernicious anaemia
- Rheumatoid arthritis

Chronic end organ damage conditions

 Chronic kidney disease

- Chronic liver disease
- Chronic heart failure

Haematological conditions

- Iron deficiency anaemia
- Multiple myeloma

Nutritional deficiencies

- Vitamin B₁, B₁₂ or D deficiency
- Folate deficiency

Mental health conditions

- Depression
- Anxiety
- Chronic stress
- Poor sleep pattern

Others

- Chronic fatigue syndrome
- Fibromyalgia
- Post-viral syndromes
- Dementia

Myxoedema coma

- mortality rate of 50–60%
- might present de novo or more likely, precipitated in a patient with hypothyroidism by a number of drugs, systemic illnesses (such as pneumonia) or other causes
- in **older women** in **winter** and might present with the typical signs of severe hypothyroidism as well as **hypothermia**, **hyponatraemia**, **hypercarbia** and **hypoxaemia**
- treatment with thyroid hormone therapy is initiated in ICU
- type of thyroid hormone to administer (thyroxine, triiodothyronine or both) is unclear
- ventilation, warming, fluids, antibiotics, vasopressor agents and corticosteroids, are essential for survival

Diagnostic workflow

- <u>TSH levels</u> is the most reliable marker for assessing thyroid status ,provided that **pituitary diseas**e is excluded and patients are **not on medications** that alter TSH secretion
- There is a log-linear relationship between TSH and thyroxine: a **twofold decrease** in fT4 levels is associated with a 100-fold increase in circulating TSH
- <u>TSH-fT4 relationship might be non-linear in some</u> individuals and influenced by <u>age</u>, <u>sex</u>, <u>smoking</u> and <u>TPOAb</u> status
- Abnormal circulating <u>TSH</u> level is the <u>earliest</u> indicator of thyroid dysfunction



Differential diagnosis

- usually normal
- TSH elevation is persistent
- retesting

• True subclinical hypothyroidism must be distinguished from the recovery phase of non-thyroidal illness when serum TSH levels are often transiently elevated (having been low or normal during the acute phase) and serum fT₄ levels are

• For patients with **apparent subclinical hypothyroidism**, it is recommended that thyroid function should be retested after 8–12 weeks to determine whether the

<u>30–50%</u> of individuals who initially had <u>high serum TSH</u> levels have <u>normal</u> levels on

Differential diagnosis

- Misdiagnosed with hypothyroidism:
- **Overestimation** of TSH levels due to interference with the TSH assay
- presence of macro-TSH can lead to misdiagnosed hypothyroidism Rarely
- individuals with resistance to thyroid hormone due to THRB mutation (high TSH and high fT₄ levels), or TSH or TRH resistance (normal fT₄ levels), can occasionally be misdiagnosed with hypothyroidism

- Despite the high prevalence of hypothyroidism in the general population, there is **no** evidence that early detection and treatment improves clinical outcomes
- ATA, AACE and Latin American Thyroid Society, recommend screening at different intervals among individuals above a particular age, ranging from every 5 years for individuals >35 years of age to an unspecified period for individuals >60 years of age, particularly among women
- Royal College of Physicians in the_UK concluded that screening of the general population is unjustified given the low number of overt hypothyroidism cases detected with screening
- US Preventive Services Task Force concluded that the available evidence was inadequate to determine the balance of benefits and harms of screening

screening

- high risk of thyroid dysfunction with risk factors for hypothyroidism :
- goitre
- partial thyroidectomy
- history of neck irradiation
- medications affecting thyroid function
- presence of other **autoimmune** diseases

previous treatment for hyperthyroidism such as radioactive iodine therapy

screening

- Dyslipidaemia
- Hyponatraemia
- Unexplained high levels of muscle enzymes
- Macrocytic anaemia
- Pericardial or pleural effusions without any other cause
- Down syndrome, Turner syndrome
- Pituitary disease,

should also be assessed regularly for the development of hypothyroidism

childbearing age

- Women from areas of **moderate to severe iodine deficiency**
- Women with <u>symptoms</u> potentially attributable to thyroid dysfunction
- Personal and/or family **history** of thyroid disease
- Recurrent miscarriage
- Unexplained infertility

- In **pregnancy**:
- treatment of mild thyroid dysfunction with thyroid hormones improves <u>neurocognitive outcomes in offspring</u>

• Screening for **milder** forms of hypothyroidism is **controversial** and remains of debate owing to the possibility of overtreatment and the lack of evidence that

Dietary modifications to prevent hypothyroidism in individuals at risk

- Adequate intake of iodine is important for underlying **autoimmune** thyroid disease as iodine deficiency may trigger or worsen hypothyroidism
- recommended daily dose of iodine is <u>90 µg for pre-school children</u>, <u>120 µg for school</u> children, 150 µg in adults and 250 µg in pregnancy
- <u>Chronic excessive iodine intake usually increased serum TSH levels</u> in susceptible lacksquareindividuals.
- Selenium supplementation may reduce TPOAb levels in patients with autoimmune thyroid disease
- There is insufficient evidence that selenium therapy normalizes increased serum TSH levels in individuals with chronic autoimmune thyroid disease



Management

Thyroid hormone replacement with LT4

- full replacement doses in adults are <u>**1.6 µg/kg/day</u>**</u>
- cardiovascular disease
- have been developed
- primary hypothyroidism, target to the normalization of serum TSH levels
- \bullet
- in dose and then every 6–12 months thereafter

• Lower starting doses in <u>older</u> individuals, <u>mild</u> hypothyroidism or those with <u>untreated</u>

• Over- estimate the requirements of individuals with **obesity**, <u>BMI-adjusted dosing algorithms</u>

central hypothyroidism, target serum fT4 level in the upper half of the reference range • Serum TSH levels should be monitored <u>6 weeks</u> after initiation of treatment or any change



- LT4 should be taken ideally <u>60 min before breakfast</u> but taking LT4 <u>30 min</u> before breakfast or at bedtime on an empty stomach is also acceptable
- Malabsorption of LT4 might also occur following bariatric surgery or owing to gastrointestinal disorders
- In patients with **malabsorption**, treatment with **liquid** rather than tablet LT4 formulations might help to stabilize TSH levels
- TSH levels should be monitored after starting or stopping medications that might interfere with LT4 absorption, binding or metabolism(Table 2)

Table 2 Medications that alter thyroid hormone absorption, binding or metabolism				
Medications	Mechanism	Effect on LT4 requirements		
Calcium carbonate, calcium citrate or calcium acetate; ferrous sulfate; proton-pump inhibitors; aluminium hydroxide; sucralfate; raloxifene; bile acid sequestrants	Decreased LT4 absorption	Increased (if LT4 doses not taken 4 h apart)		
Phenytoin; phenobarbital; carbamazepine; rifampin; ryrosine kinase inhibitors	Increased thyroid hormone metabolism	Increased		
Bile acid sequestrants	Reduced enterohepatic thyroid hormone circulation	Increased		
Oral oestrogens; selective oestrogen receptor modulators; mitotane; opiates; 5-fluorouracil	Increased thyroxine-binding globulin levels	Increased		
Androgens; nicotinic acid; chronic glucocorticoid therapy; danazol; L-asparaginase	Decreased thyroxine-binding globulin levels	Decreased		
Amiodarone	Inhibition of 5'-deiodination (inhibits production of T_3 from T_4)	Increased		

Treatment of subclinical hypothyroidism in adults

- risk for progression from subclinical to overt hypothyroidism is -2-4% annually and is more likely when patients have positive TPOAb
- TSH levels >10 mIU/l are associated with increased cardiovascular and mortality risk
- A meta-analysis suggested that LT4 might decrease mortality in patients with subclinical hypothyroidism aged <65-70 years old but not in older individuals



Treatment of subclinical hypothyroidism in adults

- one guideline recommends against treatment when TSH levels are <20 mIU/l
- Most authors suggest individualized consideration of **low-dose LT4** in patients:
- \leq 70 years of age
- symptoms potentially referable to hypothyroidism
- cardiovascular risk factors
- goiter
- positive TPOAb
- **planning** pregnancy
- <u>and/or</u> have a serum TSH level persistently >10 mIU/l





Treatment in pregnant women

- Developing fetus relies entirely on maternal thyroid hormones during of <u>brain</u> <u>development</u> (usually <u>before gestation weeks 16–20)</u>
- Untreated overt hypothyroidism in pregnancy is associated with increased risks for miscarriage, preterm delivery, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, low birthweight, fetal death and impaired child intellectual development
- Overt hypothyroidism in pregnancy requires prompt LT4 initiation

Treatment in pregnant women

- Maternal subclinical hypothyroidism is associated with increased risks for pregnancy loss, placental abruption, premature rupture of membranes, preterm delivery, and neonatal death
- Maternal hypothyroxinaemia (low fT₄ in the setting of normal serum TSH levels) has also been associated with adverse obstetric and child neurodevelopmental outcomes
- clinical trials to date have not clearly shown a benefit of LT4 treatment for subclinical hypothyroidism or hypothyroxinaemia in pregnancy
- Current recommendations in clinical practice guidelines are variable (Table 3).

Table 3 Clinical guidelines for LT4 treatment of thyroid disease in pregnancy				
Organization (year of recommendations)	Subclinical hypothyroidism	Isolated maternal hypothyroxinaemia		
American College of Obstetrics and Gynecology (2020)	Do not treat	Not discussed		
American Thyroid Association (2017)	Treat if TSH level >10 mIU/l or if positive for TPOAb	Do not treat		
	Consider treating if TSH level >4 mIU/l without TPOAb positivity			
American Society for Reproductive Medicine (2015)	Treat with LT4	Not discussed		
European Thyroid Association (2014)	Treat with LT4	Consider LT4 treatment if isolate hypothyroxinaemia is detected i the first trimester		

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Treatment in pregnant women

- pregnant on LT4 therapy will require an increase in LT4 dosing <u>(25–30% as soon as</u> pregnancy is diagnosed) when serum TBG levels are markedly increased and thyroid hormone is rapidly metabolized by placental DIO3
- Serum TSH levels should be closely monitored, approximately <u>every 4 weeks</u> <u>during the first half of gestation</u>
- In pregnancy and pre-conception period, LT4 dosing should target a serum TSH level of <2.5 mIU/l



Treatment of women with subfertility

- LT4 treatment started before conception improves assisted reproductive who are **positive for TPOAb**
- The recommended TSH target level in <u>treated</u> women is $\leq 2.5 \text{ mIU/I}$
- improves fertility or pregnancy outcomes in women who conceive without assisted reproduction

technology outcomes when the baseline TSH > 4.0 mIU/l, particularly in women

• it is **not known** whether pre-conception treatment of **subclinical** hypothyroidism

Treatment in infants and children

- first <u>2 weeks</u> after delivery
- Starting LT4 doses in infants should be <u>10–15 μ g/kg daily</u>
- completed
- primary hypothyroidism : <u>TSH within the age-specific reference range</u>

• **congenital** hypothyroidism infants require rapid initiation of LT4 therapy within the

• Follow-up every <u>1–2 weeks</u> until the serum <u>TSH level normalizes</u>, every <u>1–3 months</u> until 12 months of age, and then every few months thereafter until growth is

• central hypothyroidism: <u>fT4 in the upper half of the reference range in children</u>

Treatment in infants and children

- In children without a clear underlying cause of permanent congenital hypothyroidism, re-evaluation of the pituitary-thyroid axis should be performed at **about 3 years of age** to determine whether ongoing LT4 treatment is needed.
- Younger children require higher doses of LT4 per kilogram of body weight than older children:
- $4-6 \mu g/kg$ is recommended from 1–3 years of age,
- $3-5 \mu g/kg$ from 3-10 years of age,
- $2-4 \mu g/kg$ for 10–16 years of age

Treatment in infants and children

- Most children with subclinical hypothyroidism do not progress to overt hypothyroidism, most are asymptomatic
- only:
- <u>TSH levels are >10 mIU/l,</u>
- particularly in the setting of **TPOAb positivity**
- hyperlipidaemia
- concerns about growth velocity
- Children with milder TSH elevation can be monitored without therapy

• Treatment of subclinical hypothyroidism in children over 3 years of age is considered

Treatment in older patients

- >65-70 years of age increased risk of adverse effects from excessive LT4 dosing:
- cardiac arrhythmia, progressive heart failure, increased bone turnover leading to osteoporosis, catabolic muscle loss, impaired quality of life and increased mortality
- start with <u>low</u> LT4 doses (25–50 μg daily)
- physiological increase in serum TSH with normal aging which argues against treatment of modest TSH elevations in older patients
- Subclinical hypothyroidism : confirm the persistence of TSH elevations above ageappropriate levels over time prior to treatment initiation as thyroid function might <u>normalize spontaneously in almost 50% of individuals >65 years of age</u>
- Targeting a serum TSH of 4-6 mIU/l has been advocated in patients >70 years of age

Challenges in treatment

- A minority of patients feel unwell on LT4 despite optimal TSH levels
- Normalization of serum TSH level typically might not fully normalize serum T₃ **levels**, and it is plausible that persistent symptoms on LT4 monotherapy might result from low systemic or tissue-specific T₃ levels, particularly in individuals with **polymorphisms in DIO2**, who might not efficiently convert T4 into the active hormone T₃
- Combination T₃ and T₄ therapy in patients who feel unwell on LT₄ alone • T3-containing therapies should not be used in pregnancy or in young children



Quality of life

- 84-item instrument Thyroid Patient Related Outcome (**ThyPRO**) is the most commonly used and has been identified as the most appropriate tool
- A **39-item** shortened version, ThyPRO-39, is currently available and includes a composite measure score to evaluate HRQOL
- After 6 months of LT4 treatment, improvement in HRQOL is observed but full recovery is not achieved
- Persistence of <u>residual symptoms</u> in patients with hypothyroidism after treatment has been described in up to <u>15%</u> of patients

Quality of life

- hypothesized to contribute to reduced HRQOL:
- stigma and the labelling effect of receiving the diagnosis of a chronic disease
- need to take medications every day,
- specific effect of autoimmunity on HRQOL.
- No difference in HRQOL using only LT4 compared with a combination of LT4 and LT3 $\,$
- There was also no improvement in HRQOL using different doses of LT4 or desiccated thyroid extract

Quality of life

- follow-up
- <u>roidism in individuals >80 years of age</u>

• **TRUST** trial to **compare LT4 versus placebo** for the treatment of **subclinical** hypothyroidism using ThyPRO as the main outcome in individuals <u>>65 years of age</u>. This trial demonstrated **no benefit** of LT4 treatment on **HRQOL** during 1 year of

• A more recent analysis that combined data from the TRUST study and the IEMO 80-plus study did not show any benefits of treatment of subclinical hypothy-

- Further research
- treatment thresholds, particularly in pregnancy
- and
- symptom relief, patient satisfaction and long-term adverse effects.

• is needed regarding the appropriateness of currently applied reference ranges and

• the potential benefit of LT_4 /liothyronine combination therapy for thyroid-related