

Thyroid Status in Pregnant & Non Pregnant Women

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ABSTRACT

Introduction Thyroid function is altered during pregnancy. Various factors plays an important role in the development of thyroid gland during pregnancy. Thyroid hormone during pregnancy also plays an important role for neuroendocrine development of the fetus. Thyroid function is assessed to evaluate thyroid abnormalities, and monitor pre-existing thyroid disease. The interpretation of thyroid status is based on the normal physiological changes during pregnancy, the iodine adequacy, medical consideration, medication and ambient goitrogens in different geographical region⁽¹⁻²⁾.

Materials and Methods Study group of 50 pregnant women in each trimester as case group and control group of 50 non pregnant healthy women at RIMS Ranchi. Serum FT₃, FT₄ and TSH measured by chemiluminescent microparticle immunoassay (CMIA) method.

Result Conclusion. In the third trimester, the mean FT₄ significantly decreased than the mean for non-pregnant women. Mean FT₃ values showed declining over the trimesters relative to the non-pregnant control group that were significant in second and third trimesters. In each trimester, the mean TSH levels of pregnant women were lower than the mean level of non-pregnant but were not statistically significant in second and third trimesters possibly due to increased TBG, increased formation of deiodinase by placenta and increased in Albumin and free fatty acid³.

Keywords: Thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH), Free thyroxine (FT₄), Total thyroxine (T₄), Free triiodothyronine (FT₃).

1. INTRODUCTION

Normal pregnancy results in a number of important physiological and hormonal changes altering thyroid function. In last twenty years, major expansion of our knowledge has taken place regarding the relationships between pregnancy and the thyroid hormones. The most important finding include maternal thyroid hormones play a vital role in early fetal brain formation, and their deficiency may impair future neuropsychological development of the fetus [1–3]. Pregnancy is associated with certain physiological changes and the maternal thyroid gland has to adapt accordingly [1, 4]. The first factor is the adjustment of bound to free ratio of T₄ and T₃ against the marked increase in the circulating levels of thyroxine binding globulin (TBG) levels due to enhanced estrogen production. The second factor is the direct stimulation of the thyroid gland by elevated concentration of human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG). These two factors occur in the first trimester of pregnancy [1]. The third factor is the increased enzymatic activity of type III monodeiodinase. It converts T₄ to reverse T₃ (rT₃) and thus increases the turnover rate of maternal T₄ at the placental level, operative in later stages of pregnancy [1, 4]. During pregnancy maternal iodine requirement increases which is further increased due to increased renal clearance of iodine. Moreover, a part of the available iodine from the maternal circulation is diverted to fetal thyroid gland which becomes progressively functional by the end of the first trimester [1, 4]. Thus, the regulation of maternal thyroid function is complex and varies with each stage of pregnancy [1]. Moreover, human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) can stimulate the thyroid gland during first trimester because of its structural similarity to thyrotrophin (TSH) [5]. Both normal pregnancy, and pregnancy complicated by conditions like hyperemesis gravidarum (HG) that can be associated with thyroid function study changes, strongly suggestive of hyperthyroidism, in the absence of primary thyroid disease [6-8]. Thus, a local reference range for thyroid hormones in pregnant women is essential [9-14]. The availability of gestational age-dependent reference intervals for thyroid hormones for local population should help to avoid the under diagnosis of hyperthyroidism or the over diagnosis

of hypothyroidism, with inadvertent use of thyroxine replacement in later pregnancy, also allowing an accurate interpretation of thyroid hormone results in complicated pregnancies, which may have abnormal thyroid function, such as pre-eclampsia and HG [9, 11, 14]. Therefore, we conducted a study to find out alterations in thyroid function tests in each trimester in normal pregnant women as compared to non pregnant women.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was undertaken in the Department of Biochemistry, RIMS Ranchi Jharkhand as per the standard protocol followed in the institute and with prior approval from ethical committee and proper consent of patient was taken. It is a case control study. Study group of 50 pregnant women in each trimester as case group and 50 non pregnant healthy women as control group at RIMS Ranchi. Serum FT₃, FT₄ and TSH measured by chemiluminescent microparticle immunoassay (CMIA) method. Inclusion criteria includes women with euthyroid status with adequate diet and iodine intake. Exclusion criteria includes women with Diabetes Mellitus, thyroid disorder, polycystic ovary disease, Pre-eclampsia & eclampsia, hepatitis and liver dysfunction and HIV, cancer or severe illness.

Statistical analysis

All data were expressed as mean \pm SD of number of experiments. The statistical significance was evaluated by Student's t-test using SPSS. p value <0.05 was the level of statistical significance.

Result

Parameter	FT3(pg/ml)	FT4(ng/dl)	TSH(microIU/ml)
1 st Trimester	2.78 \pm 0.45 ^{NS}	1.33 \pm 0.83 ^{p<0.01}	2.02 \pm 1.11 ^{NS}
2 nd Trimester	2.62 \pm 0.58 ^{<0.05}	1.31 \pm 0.83 ^{p<0.01}	2.20 \pm 0.97 ^{<0.05}
3 rd Trimester	2.60 \pm 0.69 ^{p<0.05}	1.29 \pm 0.90 ^{p<0.01}	2.55 \pm 1.22 ^{NS}
Pregnant women	2.67 \pm 0.59 ^{p<0.05}	1.31 \pm 0.85 ^{p<0.01}	2.26 \pm 1.12 ^{p<0.05}
Non Pregn. Women	2.76 \pm 0.56	1.38 \pm 0.11	2.66 \pm 0.83

The mean FT₄ levels in the first and the second trimesters were significantly lower than that of the non-pregnant subjects. But in the third trimester, the mean FT₄ significantly decreased than the mean for non-pregnant women. Mean FT₃ values showed declining over the trimesters relative to the non-pregnant control group that were significant in second and third trimesters. In each trimester, the mean TSH levels of pregnant women were lower than the mean level of non-pregnant but were not statistically significant in second and third trimesters.

3. DISCUSSION

This study was planned to document the gestational associated changes in thyroid related hormones with respect to nonpregnant women residing in the same area. Compared to nonpregnant women, the relatively low TSH in pregnant women during the first trimester was due to TSH suppression in 14% of them. This early pregnancy TSH suppression is attributed to extremely high concentration of hCG that has TSH-like activity [15] and inhibits thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH) secretion [16]. It is plausible as both TSH and hCG are heterodimeric glycoproteins composed of a common α -subunit, and they share considerable similarity in their β -subunits with similar receptors [1]. This additional stimulation of thyroid gland diminishes during the second and the third trimesters [15, 17]. The increase in TSH levels during pregnancy is reported in many studies [18–22].

Panesar NS *et al.* Performed a study with 343 healthy pregnant women (5–41 weeks) and 63 non-pregnant controls to establish gestation related reference intervals for thyroid hormones in pregnant Chinese women [9]. The study revealed that FT₃ decreased during pregnancy, whereas FT₄ initially increased, peaking between 9–13 weeks and then decreased, the decline becoming significant by week 21, and TSH changes was similar to FT₄. We also found declining in FT₃ over the pregnancy. FT₄ changes during pregnancy in our study was decreased in each trimester. In contrast to Panesar *et al.* [9], this study finds a significant change in the mean TSH level in the second trimesters, but not in the first trimester and third trimester.

McElduff found that the FT₄ decreased during pregnancy compared to non-pregnant women, and this resulted in the need for each laboratory to develop its own reference range for FT₄ levels in pregnancy [11]. Erem *et al.* investigated maternal

thyroid function in 29 pregnant women with goiter and 51 pregnant women without goiter. The location of the women was the eastern black sea region of Turkey, which is an endemic goiter area [13]. It was found that TT4, FT4, TT3, FT3, and thyroxine binding globulin increased during pregnancy. They also found that serum TSH levels

declined in pregnant women without goiter compared with non-pregnant women without goiter. In our study, changes in the serum levels of TT4 & TT3 in pregnant women were closely similar to those reported by Erem *et al.* [13].

But in contrast to their findings, we found that serum levels of FT4, FT3 & TSH in pregnant women decreased compared to those of non-pregnant women. The etiology of increase in total circulating thyroid hormones primarily involves increased concentrations of plasma thyroxine binding globulin during pregnancy [5]. Another proposed mechanism for the increased total thyroid hormone concentrations is production of type III deiodinase by the placenta. This enzyme, which

converts T4 to reverse T3, and T3 to diiodotyrosine (T2), has extremely high activity during fetal life. Increased demand for T4 and T3 has been suggested to increase production of these hormones which ultimately increases the circulating concentrations of the hormones [5]. Increased sialylation, mediated by oestrogens, reduces the hepatic clearance of thyroxine binding globulin, resulting in increased levels of both TT4 and TT3 [9]. Changes in albumin and free fatty acid concentrations sustain the binding of T4 and T3 to carrier proteins; this lowers the blood levels of FT4 and FT3 as pregnancy progresses [8, 9].

4. CONCLUSION

It is important that thyroid function tests in pregnancy should be interpreted against gestational age related reference intervals, and the result of this study could decline the possibility of the misinterpretation of thyroid function in pregnant women. The availability of gestational age-dependent reference intervals for thyroid hormones for local population should help to avoid the under diagnosis of hyperthyroidism or the over diagnosis of hypothyroidism. It also allows an accurate interpretation of thyroid hormone results in complicated pregnancies. In summary, we found the evidence to support the hypothesis that, during pregnancy, thyroid function adapt in a physiological way to meet the increased demands for iodine and energy.

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