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1 2	Latest Insight into the Relation of Metabolic Syndrome with Thyroid Dysfunction
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4	<sup>1</sup> SKIMS
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### 7 Abstract

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The Metabolic syndrome is a modern epidemic and is considered to be one of the major public 8 health issues of this century. It is constellation of physical conditions and metabolic 9 abnormalities commonly found in association with increased risk for development of Type II 10 diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular disease and other medical conditions. Thyroid hormones play 11 an important role in regulating energy homeostasis. In addition, thyroid hormones can 12 regulate lipoprotein, glucose metabolism and blood pressure. Thus there is possibility of 13 thyroid dysfunction (may be cause or effect) having an association with metabolic syndrome 14 and its component. The study was aimed to find out occurrence of metabolic syndrome in 15 hypothyroid patients and to determine the association between the components of metabolic 16 syndrome and thyroid hypofunction. 17

<sup>19</sup> *Index terms*— thyroid, hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism, subclinical, lipoprotein. TRH (thyroid releasing 20 hormone), TSH (thyroid stimulating hormone).

<sup>21</sup> Patient's receiving any medication that may alter thyroid function and lipid profiles.

Thyroid Hormones are important for multiple reasons. Thyroid hormones play an important role in regulating 22 energy homeostasis. 1 They can stimulate expression of uncoupling proteins in the mitochondria of fat and 23 skeletal muscle, modulate adrenergic receptor numbers by enhancing responsiveness of catecholamine, and thus 24 25 regulate metabolic rate and body weight. 2 In addition, thyroid hormones can regulate lipoprotein and glucose 26 metabolism and blood pressure. Thyroid function testing is obtained more frequently than any other endocrine screen in the evaluation of thyroid dysfunctions. The synthesis of thyroid hormone is almost entirely T 4. 27 but as iodine becomes scarce, the synthesis of T 3 increases. T 3 is the more active form of the hormone, and 28 peripheral tissues can regulate the conversion of T 4 into either T 3 (more active) or rT 3 (not active). Thyroid 29 hormones increase the metabolic rate of most tissues. Although it does not affect the metabolic rate of nervous 30 tissue, it is absolutely necessary for postnatal brain maturation. TSH is regulated mainly by circulating T 31 4, but the T 4 entering the thyrotrophs must be converted to T 3 before it affects the negative feedback 32 loop. Thyroxine causes: Hyperthyroidism results from the excess synthesis of thyroid hormones by the thyroid 33 gland. The prevalence of hyperthyroidism in the general population is about 0.5% and is associated with the 34 Graves disease in 80% of cases. Other causes include toxic modular goitre, thyroid and pituitary adenomas, 35 36 thyrioditis, use of exogenous thyroid hormones, thyroid carcinoma, hydatiform moles and stromal ovaries. Signs 37 and symptoms of hyperthyroidism includes increases appetite, weight loss, palpitation, tachycardia, frequent 38 bowel movements, menstrual disturbance, muscle weakness and catabolism of muscle protein, exophthalmia, lid lag, infrequent blinking and hyperactive deep tendon reflexes. In case of thyrioditis, patients may experience 39 pain and tenderness in the thyroid region. ? Increase in BMR ? Increase in( D D D D ) F b) Hypothyroidism 40 Hypothyroidism results from the inadequate production of thyroid hormone, and is classified as clinical or 41 sub-clinical depending on the degree of clinical severity and the extent of abnormalities in thyroid indices. 42

<sup>43</sup> In overt or clinical hypothyroidism hormones level are low and TSH is elevated. Subclinical hypothyroidism 44 describes a condition in which T 3 and T 4 levels are normal but TSH is elevated, or the TSH response to

TRH infusion is exaggerated. The prevalence of clinical hypothyroidism is approximately 2% in women and 45 less than 0.1% in men. 5 The significantly higher rate of hypothyroidism in women may reflect the stimulating 46 effect of female reproductive hormones on immunologic function, producing greater rate of autoimmune disease 47 in women. 6 The prevalence of thyroid antibodies is approximately 3 to 4 times higher in women compared 48 with men and rise with age. Women aged 44 to 54, 21% to 26% have been found to have thyroid antibodies. 7 49 The prevalence of overt hypothyroidism also rises with age, particularly in women; coincident with the rise in 50 the prevalence of autoimmune thyroiditis. 8 Subclinical hypothyroidism also predominates in women, occurring 51 in approximately 75% of women and 3% in men. Elderly women are estimated to have up to 16% rate of 52 subclinical hypothyroidism. 9 Hashimotos thyroiditis (chronic lymphocytic thyroiditis) is the most common 53 cause of clinical hypothyroidism in the United States. Other causes include idiopathic atrophy, deficiency of 54 dietary iodine, hypopituitrism, and hypothalamic disease resulting in deficiency TRH production and iatrogenic 55 hypothyroidism (i.e. from medication such as lithium). In patients experiencing a severe medical condition, T 56 3 level may be low from decreased conversion of T 4 to T 3 a condition known as euthyroid sick syndrome. 57 10 Symptoms of hypothyroidism tend to manifest once TSH level surpass 8-12 mIU/L and include low energy 58 appetite and sleep change, poor concentration, apathy and lung expanse latency. 11 Other symptoms include 59 cold intolerance, constipation, muscle cramps, parathesis, mental disturbances (amenorrhea or menorrhagea) 60 61 dyspenia dizziness, syncope, reduced hearing, poor appetite, weight gain, brittle and thinning hair, husky voice, 62 bradycardia, cardiomegaly low voltage complexes on ECG, elevated levels of cholesterol and triglycerides and 63 normochromic, normocytic anemia from a reduced rate of RBC production.

The symptoms of hypothyroidism are correctable with thyroid supplementation but may not resolve until several weeks after the normalization of serum thyroid hormone levels. 12 Exogenous thyroid hormine is administered as L-thyroxin, I-triiodothyronine (Synthetic T 3 ), preparations of mixed synthetic T 4 and T 3 and descented thyroid. L-thyroxin and L-triiodothyronine typically range between 25 to 100pgm/day and 12.5 to 50pgm/day respectively.

### <sup>69</sup> 1 c) Subclinical Hypothyroidism

Subclinical hypothyroidism (SCH) is defined as a serum thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) level above the 70 upper limit of normal despite normal levels of serum free thyroxine. Serum TSH has a log-linear relationship 71 72 with circulating thyroid hormone levels (a 2-fold change in free thyroxine will produce a 100-fold change in TSH). 73 Thus, serum TSH measurement is the necessary test for diagnosis of mild thyroid failure when the peripheral 74 thyroid hormone levels are within normal laboratory range. 13 The individual range for peripheral thyroid 75 hormones is narrower than the population reference laboratory range; therefore, a slight reduction within the normal range will result in elevation of serum TSH above the normal range. Subclinical hypothyroidism or mild 76 thyroid failure is a common problem, with a prevalence of 3% to 8% in the population without known thyroid 77 disease. 14 The prevalence increases with age and is higher in women. After the sixth decade of life, the prevalence 78 in men approaches that of women, with a combined prevalence of 10%. Antithyroid antibodies can be detected 79 in 80% of patients with SCH have a serum TSH of less than 10 mIU/L. 80

Before diagnosis of SCH, other causes of an elevated TSH level, such as recovery from nonthyroidal illness, 81 assay variability, presence of heterophile antibodies interfering with the SCH assay, and certain cases of central 82 hypothyroidism with biologically inactive TSH and thyroid hormone resistance, should be excluded. However, 83 the most common cause of elevated TSH is autoimmune thyroid disease. Previous radioiodine therapy, thyroid 84 surgery, and external radiation therapy can also result in mild thyroid failure. Transient SCH may occur after 85 episodes of postpartum, silent, and granulomatous thyroiditis. 15 The clinical importance of and therapy for 86 87 mild elevation of serum TSH (<10 mIU/L)5 and the exact upper limit of normal for the serum TSH level remain subjects of debate. 16 When the TSH is above 10mIU/L, levothyroxine therapy is generally agreed to be 88 appropriate. However, management of patients with a serum TSH level of less than 10 mIU/L is controversial. 17 89 Some authors argue for routine and some for selective therapy. A recent 2007 meta-analysis of 14 randomized 90 clinical trials enrolling a total of 350 patients concluded that levothyroxine replacement therapy for SCH does 91 not result in improved survival or decreased cardiovascular morbidity. 92

Data on health-related quality of life and symptoms did not show significant differences between intervention 93 groups. Some evidence indicates that levothyroxine replacement improve some parameters of lipid profiles and left 94 ventricular function. 18 clinical feature of hypothyroidism, but subtle somatic symptoms, cognitive defects have 95 been observed in association with this condition. symptoms include dry skin, cold intolerance, fatigue, alteration 96 in lipid metabolism and cardiac function and lower score on memory tests. These symptoms had improved by 97 thyroid hormone treatment. Approximately 5 to 15% of patients with subclinical hypothyroidism progress to 98 overt hypothyroidism within a year. Patients with any thyroid antibodies are at high risk, 80% progressing to 99 overt hypothyroidism within four years. 100

### <sup>101</sup> 2 III. Results

<sup>102</sup> The study sample comprises 118 subjects, fulfilling the inclusion criteria were recruited in the study with <sup>103</sup> their consent. After detailed history and clinical evaluation, blood sample was taken for estimation of various biochemical parameters in serum namely fT 3 , fT 4 , TSH, Insulin, Triglycerides, HDL-C, and fasting glucose.
 The results obtained are presented in various tables diagrams.

# <sup>106</sup> 3 a) Sex Distribution of Metabolic Syndrome

107 The sex distribution of prevalence of metabolic syndrome is shown in Table 1. The percentage of male and female 108 in metabolic syndrome were 20% and 38.4% respectively of total subjects in the study.

## <sup>109</sup> 4 c) Distribution of Metabolic Syndrome in Thyroid Groups

Out of total 118 subjects studied 60 were in overt hypothyroid group and 58 in subclinical hypothyroid group. 110 Among these groups metabolic syndrome is almost equally distributed. Similarly male and female subjects were 111 almost equal in both groups with more number of females (n = 22 and n = 24) in overt and subclinical hypothyroid 112 groups respectively. Results in Table 2. In overt hypothyroid case fT 3 is negatively correlated with systolic blood 113 pressure, fasting glucose triglyceride level and HDL levels. T 3 negatively correlated with systolic blood pressure 114 and HDL-C level in subclinical hypothyroid group. Results in Table ?? Table ?? was found between fT4 and any of 115 the components of metabolic syndrome. 8. The -HOMA-IR (insulin resistance) is comparable is over  $(5.38\pm3.4)$ 116 and subclinical hypothyroid  $(6.27\pm3.87)$  groups. Therefore screening and treatment of subclinical hypothyroids 117 may be warranted due to its adverse effect on glucose metabolism Hence the fact that insulin resistance was 118 similar in both thyroid groups where there is significant difference in the levels of thyroid hormones indicate that 119 thyroid hormone per se may not be responsible for this phenomenon. 9. Elevated triglyceride is the most prevalent 120 (81%) component of metabolic syndrome in all thyroid patients of present study. Hence hypertriglyceridemia 121 on routine evaluation may warrants screening for other components of metabolic syndrome. 10. There is a 122 significant correlation (p=0.03) between waist circumference and triglyceride levels. It is the visceral fat which is 123 responsible for hypertriglyceridemia. Hence it can be concluded that those having high TG levels and high waist 124 circumference, have visceral adiposity. Therefore screening for other parameters of metabolic syndrome may be 125 126 warranted as visceral adipose tissue causes the most metabolic derangements.

127 The Various results conclude that a significantly deep association exists between Thyroid dysfunction and 128 Metabolic Syndrome.

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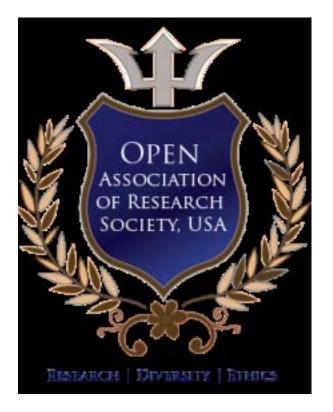


Figure 1: I

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Figure 2: P

1					
Sex	Metabolic Syn- drome	Non Metabolic Syndrome	Total		
Male	24 (20%)	19~(16.1%)	$43 \\ (36.4\%)$		
Female	$45 \\ (38.4\%)$	30~(25.4%)	75(63.5%)		
Total	$69 \\ (58.4\%)$	49~(41.5%)	118		
b) Age Wise Distri	bution of Metabolic Syndrome	years and we can observe that maximum number			
The prevalence of r	metabolic syndrome is	hypothyroid patients are in	hypothyroid patients are in age group of 30-39 year		
increasing with age	e with maximum in age group 40-	-49 with $59\%$ of prevalence of n	with $59\%$ of prevalence of metabolic syndrome.		

Figure 3: Table 1 (

 $\mathbf{1}$ 

Age classes (years)	All patients (n)	Metabolic Syndrome (n)
20-29	17 (14%)	5(29%)
30-39	49 (41.5%)	29~(59%)
40-49	22 (18.6%)	16~(72%)
50-59	18 (15%)	7 (38.8%)
60-69	12 (10%)	7~(58.3%)

Figure 4: Table 1 (

### $\mathbf{2}$

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Met syn F 22 F 24 In overt hypothyroid group, both metabolic and Overt Hypothyroid M 12 Subclinical Hypothyroid M 11 Total 69 d) Thyroid Function Test in Metabolic Syndrome non metabolic syndrome group, fT 3 , fT 4 are comparably decreased but TSH is significantly increased in metabolic syndrome group. Global Journal of Non Met Syn Total Total 26 60 34(56%) Total 23 58 35(60%) 49 118

Figure 5: Table 2 :

3

		fT 3	fT 4	TSH
Overt	Non Met Syn 2.4 $\pm$		$6.4~\pm$	11.5 $\pm$
hypothyroid		1.12	2.14	4.8
	Met Syn	2.73	7.30 $\pm$	14.6 $\pm$
		±	2.80	$5.42^{*}$
		1.32		
Subclinical	Non Met Syn 5.6 $\pm$		14.9 $\pm$	$8.24~\pm$
Hypothyroid		1.12	2.4	5.28
	Met Syn	$5.1 \pm$	16.2 $\pm$	9.1 $\pm$
		1.17	2.8	5.03
p < 0.05				

Figure 6: Table 3 :

 $\mathbf{4}$ 

	Overt Hypothyrc	bid	Subclinical Hypothyroid		
	Non Met Syn	Met Syn	Non Met Syn	Met Syn	
WC (inch)	$32.8\pm2.5$	$36.9 \pm 3.6$	$33.3\pm2.4$	$37.17\pm3.12$	
SBP (mmHg)	$127.6\pm12.7$	$136.7 \pm 17.1$	$123 \pm 11.1$	$138.4 \pm 15.4$	
$\mathrm{DBP}(\mathrm{mmHg})$	$83.9\pm7.1$	$89.2\pm9.7$	$84\pm7.3$	$91.39 \pm 10.67$	
$\rm FG(mg/dl)$	$90.7\pm16.0$	$111.8 \pm$	$95.2 \pm 11.2$	$136 \pm 33.1^{*}$	
		19.2*			
TG(mg/dl)	$136.3 \pm 33.1$	$198.1 \pm$	$175.2\pm52$	$155.29 \pm$	
		58.6*		45.65	
HDL(mg/dl)	$44.2\pm8.2$	$41.9 \pm 8.3$	$44.6\pm8.8$	$41.73\pm8.98$	
p<0.05 in comparison to subclinical hypothyroidism by student test					

Figure 7: Table 4 :

Year 2 015 16.10%10 38.98%Volume XV Issue III Version I DDDD)F ( Research Medical Global Journal of Overt Hypothyroid P value -0.338 r 0.03\* -0.008 0.951 WC (inch) SBP (mmHg) DBP(mmHg) FG(mg/dl)TG(mg/dl)HDL--0.0250.849C(mg/dl)fT 4 is negatively correlated with waist circumference, fasting glucose, triglycerides and HDL levels in overt hypothyroid group. Similarly in subclinical group there is negative correlation with waist circumference and systolic blood pressure. Result in Table 6.

25.42%

19.49%

Figure 8: :

Overt Hypothyroid

WC (inch)

SBP (mmHg)

DBP(mmHg) FG(mg/dl)

TG(mg/dl)

HDL-C(mg/dl)

IV. Summary and Conclusion

1. In the present study females hypothyroid cases have more prevalence of Metabolic syndrome  $\{n=45 (38.4\%)\}$ , than male hypothyroid cases  $\{24 (20\%)\}$  Hence it will be worthwhile to screen female patients with hypothyroidism, for risk of metabolic syndrome.

2. Highest prevalence of metabolic syndrome in hypothyroid patient was in 40-49 years of age group  $\{\text{total } n=22, \text{ cases of metabolic syndrome is } n=16$ (72%). This is also the age group where there is highest risk of subclinical hypothyroidism. 3. The prevalence of Metabolic Syndrome is comparable in overt hypothyroid cases  $\{56\%$ (n=34) and subclinical hypothyroid cases  $\{60\%$ (n=35). Hence this warrants the intensive screening of subclinical hypothyroid group. 4. TSH values were high in metabolic syndrome group  $(14.6 \pm 5.42 \text{ mIU/L})$  in comparison to non metabolic syndrome group  $(11.5 \pm 4.8 \text{ mIU/L})$  in both the thyroid groups. Therefore patients with higher TSH in subclinical hypothyroidism are not more risk of developing metabolic syndrome.

5. When components of metabolic syndromes were compared, overt hypothyroid group had significantly elevated triglyceride levels  $(198.1\pm58.6 \text{ mg/dl})$  than subclinical hypothyroid group  $(155.29\pm45.65 \text{ mg/dl})$  and subclinical hypothyroid group had significantly elevated fasting glucose  $(136\pm33.1 \text{ mg/dl})$  as compared to overt hypothyroid group  $(111.8\pm19.2 \text{ mg/dl})$ . Hence it can be made out that subclinical patents are at higher risk of metabolic syndrome as they also had greater mean of abdominal obesity, and diastolic blood pressure.

6. TSH had significant positive correlation with fasting glucose (r=0.337, p=0.009), diastolic blood pressure (p = 0.049) and triglycerides level (p=0.40) in overt hypothyroid cases. In subclinical cases TSH is negatively correlated with fasting glucose and HDL-C levels and significant positive

Subclinical Hypothyroid Р r Ρ r value value 0.5180.7350.0845 0.0610.143.276 0.305 0.1370.063.633.056.675 0.599.0440.7430.069 0.725.1770.184 \_ 0.0460.140.0440.7430.192

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