MATERNAL IODINE STATUS AND THYROID FUNCTION DURING PREGNANCY

TAHRIM MEHDI, MD. MOZAMMEL HOQUE, ZINNAT ARA NASREEN, FARZANA SHIRIN, MD. MAQSUDUL HAKIM KHAN

Abstract

Background: Pregnant ladies are most likely to develop relative iodine deficiency during pregnancy to affect thyroid function in our population unless specific dietary care or therapeutic iodine supplementation is taken into account which is yet to be materialized.

Methods: In this cohort study sixty uncomplicated normal pregnant women were enrolled in 1st trimester and followed up till delivery. In every trimester maternal iodine status & thyroid status were determined by urinary iodine & serum thyroid hormone concentration respectively.

Results: Women progressively become more iodine deficient & tends to be hypothyroid as pregnancy advances. At 3rd trimester of pregnancy maternal Urinary Iodine found to be negatively correlated with their serum TSH.

Conclusion: During pregnancy women develop iodine deficiency which adversely affects the thyroid function. So adequate iodine monitoring and iodine nutrition during pregnancy is necessary.

Keywords: Urinary iodine level, TSH, FT3, FT4.

Introduction:

Thyroid status is known to have an important bearing on the ability of women to conceive and to bring a normal infant to term. Both maternal hyper and hypothyroidism have deleterious effect on pregnancy out come and thyroid hormone excess has direct toxic effect on fetus.1,2

Very few longitudinal studies abroad but none in our country have considered the maternal thyroid function during the course of pregnancy in relation to maternal iodine status. Our people get iodine mainly from iodized salt provided by nationwide salt iodization program. Strict quality control & the strict maintenance of optimum iodine content of our iodized salt is still in question. So this study has been designed to explore the iodine status & thyroid status of Bangladeshi pregnant women used to conventional dietary practice during pregnancy.

Materials & Methods:

In a observational cohort study through convenient sampling 80 uncomplicated nonsmoker, nonalcoholic, normotensive healthy pregnant women free from DM, renal disease, liver disease, thyroid disorder, thyroid auto Ab, iron deficiency & bad obstetrical history were selected for the study in their early 1st trimester from the Gynaecology out patient department, BSMMU hospital. Ethical clearance was taken from the central ethical committee of BSMMU & Informed written consent was taken from all study subjects preserving their rights, previlages & freedom. Since enrollment all subjects were followed up till delivery. During follow up 20 study subjects were dropped out at different stages of pregnancy. During the total course of follow up all subjects were evaluated clinically & in 1st, 2nd, 3rd trimester of pregnancy blood were collected to assess thyroid status (FT3, FT4, TSH) and simultaneously spot urine was collected to assess the iodine status of pregnant women.

Thyroid hormones of all study subjects were estimated by Micropartical Enzyme Immunoassay Method with commercially available kits using AxSYM system. Urinary iodine was estimated by Sandell-Kolthhoff reaction principle.3

Statistical analysis:

All data were recorded systematically in a preformed data sheet. Statistical analysis was performed by using SPSS for windows version 12.0. Anova test, unpaired t test, pearson’s correlation coefficient test & $\chi^2$ test done as tests of significance. 95% confidence limit (p<0.05) was taken as level of significance.

1. Department of Biochemistry, Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujib Medical University, Dhaka,
2. Department of Gynae & Obstetrics, Shikder women’s Medical College, Dhaka,
3. Department of Biochemistry, Khwaja Yunus Ali Medical College, Sirajganj,
4. Department of Cardiology, United Hospital Limited, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Correspondence: Dr. Tahrim Mehdi, Department of Biochemistry, Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujib Medical University, Dhaka.
thyroid hormones to support the increased metabolic demand in pregnancy.\textsuperscript{7,8} Therefore it is not unlikely for pregnant ladies to develop relative iodine deficiency during pregnancy unless specific dietary care is taken in this regard.

Since iodine is critical for normal development of baby in the womb, so for women who plan to become pregnant; iodine intake is one of the important nutritional factors they need to take into account. Mestman et al. and Ardawi et al. cautioned about low birth weight baby born to iodine deficient and hypothyroid mother.\textsuperscript{9,10}

Till about twelve weeks of gestation; fetal thyroid can’t concentrate iodine and depends on maternal thyroid hormones. Moreover due to increased placental deiodinase most of the maternal thyroid hormone gets inactivated in placenta & very little get access to fetal blood to maintain early fetal brain development. After twelve weeks fetus depends largely on its own thyroid hormones but it is of course dependent on transplacental transfer of iodine from maternal blood.\textsuperscript{11}

In iodine sufficient areas the physiological iodine losses that happen to be usual in pregnancy may not be associated with significant changes in maternal thyroid hormones to support the increased metabolic demand in pregnancy.\textsuperscript{7,8} Therefore it is not unlikely for pregnant ladies to develop relative iodine deficiency during pregnancy unless specific dietary care is taken in this regard.

Results and Observation:

**Table-I**

*Maternal urinary iodine & iodine status at different trimester of pregnancy*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>1\textsuperscript{st} trimester n=60</th>
<th>2\textsuperscript{nd} trimester n=60</th>
<th>3\textsuperscript{rd} trimester n=60</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urinary iodine((\mu)g/L)</td>
<td>143.02(\pm)25.26</td>
<td>132.65(\pm)25.57</td>
<td>120.48(\pm)28.7</td>
<td>(p &lt;0.001)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m(\pm)SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of iodine deficient</td>
<td>1 (1.7 %)</td>
<td>7 (11.7%)</td>
<td>13 (21.7%)</td>
<td>(p &lt;0.05)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subjects(U.Iodine &lt; 100 (\mu)g/L)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(**\) p- value reached by one way ANOVA & multiple comparison (Bonferroni) test. 
\(*p\)- value reached by \(\chi^2\) test.

**Table –II**

*Maternal Thyroid hormones & Thyroid status at different trimester of pregnancy period*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>1\textsuperscript{st} trimester n=60</th>
<th>3\textsuperscript{rd} trimester n=60</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TSH (m IU/L)(m(\pm)SD)</td>
<td>2.0(\pm)1.6(6.0-7.9)</td>
<td>3.01(\pm)1.3(0.8-7.0)</td>
<td>(<em>p&lt;0.001)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FT4 (p mol/L)(m(\pm)SD)</td>
<td>12.3(\pm)2.9(7.0-24.8)</td>
<td>9.6(\pm)1.8(5.5-14.4)</td>
<td>(<em>p&lt;0.001)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FT3 (p mol/L)(m(\pm)SD)</td>
<td>3.4(\pm)1.0(1.4-6.0)</td>
<td>2.7(\pm)0.8(1.2-4.8)</td>
<td>(<em>p&lt;0.001)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* \(p\)- value reached by unpaired t-test

**Table-III**

*Correlation of maternal Urinary iodine (at 3\textsuperscript{rd} trimester) with serum TSH (at 3\textsuperscript{rd} trimester)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent</th>
<th>“r” value</th>
<th>“p” value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TSH vs Urinary iodine</td>
<td>-.242</td>
<td>&lt;0.01*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant

Discussion

Gestational hyperthyroidism although uncommon, may lead to prematurity, intrauterine growth retardation (IUGR), fetal or neonatal thyrotoxicosis etc.\textsuperscript{4,5} Gestational hypothyroidism is relatively common leading to fetal & maternal morbidities; like maternal obstetrical complications, impaired neuropsychological developments of neonates with frustrating IQ.\textsuperscript{4-6}

Adequate supply of iodine is essential to maintain the normal thyroid function. It is especially important particularly during pregnancy where the iodine requirement is increased due to enhanced renal clearance of iodine, transfer of iodine from mother to fetus as well as greater need of iodine to make more
thyroid economy. Conversely in moderately or marginally low iodine intake areas pregnancy leads to relative iodine deficiency state as indicated by relative hypothyroxinemia, increased serum TSH concentration and increased maternal thyroid volume. However in severely iodine deficient areas, the changes are more pronounced accompanied by intense maternal & neonatal thyroid stimulation.

Glinoer & his coworkers also found marginal hypothyroidism during pregnancy even in iodine sufficient area that is amplified when there is iodine restriction or overt iodine deficiency and the maternal iodine deficient status leads to goiter formation in progeny with neuropsycho-intellectual impairment that is preventable by iodine supplementation during pregnancy. Even a sub clinical iodine deficiency in pregnancy associated with poor cognitive outcome in children and adversely affects the thyroid function of mother and newborn with increased risk of mental retardation in offsprings.

Peoples living in areas affected by severe IDD may have an IQ of up to 13.5 point below the IQ of those from areas without iodine deficiency. This mental deficiency has an immediate effect on child learning capacity, women’s health, quality of the life of communities and economic productivity.

In this study pregnant women found to be iodine deficient progressively with advancing gestational age probably because of the failure of adequate dietary iodine intake particularly in advanced pregnancy. This could be due the nonappetizing and anorexic problems incident to the pathophysiological changes during pregnancy. These results are consistent with many other reports done abroad. However our result contrasted with some other reports showing urinary iodine concentration either increased or unchanged during pregnancy as compared with non pregnant values. These differences could be explained by the existence of urinary iodine threshold called iodostat; the level of which is set by the customary dietary iodine practice of community concern. In pregnancy, the iodostat may not change to conserve iodine despite the enhanced urinary iodine excretion. The latter may result in depletion of thyroidal iodine stores culminating to deleterious effects for both mother and neonates particularly if iodine intake during gestation is inadequate.

In the present study we observed the thyroid hormones (serum FT3, FT4) to be decreased and serum TSH to be increased significantly in 3rd trimester of pregnancy compared to 1st trimester. Our study clearly documented the changes in urinary iodine excretion and in thyroid hormones during the course of pregnancy. These changes involving FT3, FT4 TSH & urinary iodine are well harmonious with the speculated iodine deficiency and the consequent low thyroidal activity during normal pregnancy. Some studies on the changes of FT4 & FT3 level during pregnancy have shown conflicting picture with some showing an increase and in others no change at all. These discordant results can be partly related to the methodologies employed and the studied population. Few sporadic studies on the changes of serum TSH concentration during the course of pregnancy found conflicting with respect of ours. These reported unchanged or slightly increased TSH level. These contradictory results are also partly explained by the methodologies employed and probably by the baseline iodine status of the population studied.

This study suggests the measurement of serum thyroid hormone and urinary iodine in all pregnant women as a part of routine antenatal check-up & thereby their monitoring & management needs to be done in antenatal period.

References
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