



SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC WISE RISK ASSESSMENT OF THYROID FUNCTION ABNORMALITIES IN GUNTUR REGION: A LABORATORY BASED DESCRIPTIVE STUDY

Sai Krishan K¹., Hidayathulla² and Sarma M.B.R¹

¹Department of General Medicine, KIMS Medical College & RF, Amalapuram, Andhra Pradesh, India

²Department of Biotechnology, Acharya Nagarjuna University, Guntur -522 510

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received 16th January, 2016
Received in revised form 24th
February, 2016
Accepted 23rd March, 2016
Published online 28th
April, 2016

Key words:

Hypothyroidism, Hyperthyroidism,
Triiodothyronine (T3), Thyroxine
(T4), Thyroid Stimulating Hormone
(Thyrotropin-TSH) and Thyroid
Dysfunction.

ABSTRACT

Thyroid gland is an essential organ, which plays wide and vital biological roles in the body. The thyroid hormones distress all body organs and are accountable for maintenance of homeostasis and the body integrity. **Methods:** A total of 5400 individuals (77 males and 447 non pregnant women) were involved in the study was conceded out using data retrieved from the laboratory. The variables collected were age, gender, and thyroid function profile including T3, free T4 and TSH. **Results:** The proportion of thyroid ailment is 9.7% in Guntur region. The entire hyperthyroidism in this region is 19.6% followed by subclinical hyperthyroidism 12.7% and clinical hyperthyroidism 6.87%. Thyroid dysfunction is high in females, (8.2%) stalked by males 1.42%. In females subclinical hypothyroidism is more (49.2%) tailed by overt hypothyroidism, subclinical hyperthyroidism, clinical hypothyroidism, and clinical hyperthyroidism 11.6%, 10.3%, 7.8% and 6.3% correspondingly.

Copyright © 2016 Sai Krishan K., Hidayathulla and Sarma M.B.R. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

INTRODUCTION

The thyroid gland is a butterfly shaped vital organ with two lobes connected by an isthmus of the inferior part of the neck. It weighs around 10-30 grams in individuals with satisfactory iodine consumption [2]. It plays extensive and physiological roles in the body. The thyroid hormones affect all body organs and are accountable for upkeep of homeostasis [1]. Thyroid produces and stores two hormones 80% thyroxine (T4) and 20% triiodothyronine (T3) [3,2]. The thyroid complaints may be due to hereditary issues, a genetic predisposition, derisory levels of nutritional iodine intake, gravidity, radiotherapy, viral toxicities, surgery, underlying diseases such as infiltrative disorders, or even autoimmunity. Thyroid ailments are the commonest endocrine complaints worldwide [4]. Numerous studies on thyroid illness revealed that in India by 2011 about 42 million individuals in India suffering with thyroid illness and thyroid sickness may increase to 60 million by the year 2026 [5]. The foremost thyroid illnesses are hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism, which have been stated in over 110 nations of the world with 1.6 billion people at peril [6].

Iodine is vital micronutrients obligatory for ideal functioning of thyroid gland and central nervous system. Iodine is

necessary for the production of the thyroid hormones, thyroxine (T4) and triiodothyronine (T3) [7]. Thyroid disorders arise primarily due to iodine dearth [3]. The only natural source of iodine is the nutrition. However, in numerous parts of the world iodine supply from natural sources is inadequate, resulting in iodine deficiency disorders [8]. Almost one-third of the world's population live in zones of iodine deficiency [6]. It is evaluated that about 200 million people are at the threat of iodine deficiency in our country [9]. It has been projected that 0.2% of the deceases in India result from endocrine sicknesses, among which iodine scarcity has been a major cause [4]. Severe iodine shortage results in hypothyroidism, endemic goiter and cretinism, endemic mental retardation, decreased fertility, augmented prenatal death, and infant mortality [10]. High iodine consumption is linked with lesser occurrence of goiter and higher incidence of hypothyroidism. Low ingestion is connected with a higher frequency of hyperthyroidism [11]. Hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism together account for considerable indisposition [7]. There is immense burden of thyroid disease in the entire population. The process of aging affects both the incidence clinical presentation of hypo- and hyperthyroidism [12].

Hypothyroidism is defined as a deficiency of both T3 and T4 causing in reduced thyroid activity [13]. Hypothyroidism, precisely, is the most common of thyroid disorders in India, affecting one in ten adults [14]. In adults 8-10 times more common in women than men and its incidence upsurges with age [11]. The pervasiveness of hypothyroidism in the industrialized world is about 4-5% [91] and in India is 11% [14]. Compared with shoreline cities, towns located inland have a higher prevalence (11.7 vs 9.5%) [14] of hypothyroidism [14]. The frequency of subclinical hypothyroidism, which is characterized by normal free thyroxine (FT4) and elevated thyrotropin (TSH) levels, rises with aging and ranges from 3 to 16% in individuals aged 60 years and older [12].

Diabetic patients have higher prevalence of thyroid disorder when compared with the non-diabetic population with hypothyroidism being the most common disorder [3]. Diabetic women are more often affected than men and hypothyroidism is more common than thyrotoxicosis. It has been showed that subclinical hypothyroidism affects nearly one in 20 women with type 2 diabetes [17].

Thyroid disorders are more recurrent in women than in men [18]. Thyroid hormones play a crucial role in the menstrual and reproductive function of women. Thyroid dysfunction is related with menstrual irregularities in females of all age groups. These menstrual aberrations can be polymenorrhoea, menorrhagia, meno-metrorrhagia, inter-menstrual bleeding, oligo/amenorrhoeas [18].

Pregnancy is a strain test for the thyroid, subsequent in hypothyroidism in women with limited thyroidal reserve or iodine scarcity [19]. Obvious hypothyroidism can arise in up to 2% pregnancies and subclinical hypothyroidism in up to 3% of pregnant women, hyperthyroidism can occur in up to 0.4% pregnancies [3]. During the first trimester, about 1 in 10 pregnant women develop antibodies to thyroid peroxidase (TPO) or to thyroglobulin, and hypothyroidism develops in roughly 16% of these women [19]. There are inadequate reports of prevalence of hypothyroidism during pregnancy from India with prevalence rates ranging from 4.8% to 11% [19].

Hyperthyroidism patients with severe forms of the disease usually present with a constellation of indications that may include lethargy, weight alterations, hair loss, dry skin, pomposity of the face, amnesia, change in bowel habits and depressions [11]. Graves' disease is the most common cause of hyperthyroidism in iodine-sufficient areas [20]. Toxic goiter, thyroiditis is also caused by hyperthyroidism [3]. Hyperthyroidism can exist with goitre, ophthalmopathy and signs of sympathetic nervous system hyper-activity [7]. Higher levels of free circulating thyroid hormones produce hyperglycemia by causing polyphagia, enhancing glucose absorption from the gastrointestinal tract, accelerating insulin degradation and stimulating glycogenolysis [17]. In turn, subclinical hyperthyroidism, characterized by serum TSH levels below lower limit of the reference range and normal serum FT4 levels, is observed in about 8% of individuals aged 65 years and older [12]. Further-more, subclinical hyperthyroidism is allied with increased risk of total, as well as coronary heart disease (CHD) mortality and atrial fibrillation incidents [12]. The highest risks of CHD mortality and atrial

fibrillation are observed in the case of TSH levels lower than 0.1 mIU/l [12].

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample Collection

A total of 5400 cases (77 men and 447 non pregnant women) from the Zed Labs of Guntur, who attended the diagnostic centre in order to have their thyroid function tests done at Zed Labs were included in the study. This laboratory based descriptive study was carried out using data retrieved from the register maintained in wing of Biochemistry of Zed Labs.

Selection of Sample

The variables collected were age, sex, and thyroid function profile including free T3, free T4 and thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH). The estimation of serum free T3, free T4 and TSH were made by the Chemiluminescence immunoassay method, using fully automated Beckmann Coulter ACCESS Chemiluminescence's immune system.

Statistical analysis

In sample size calculation, for 95% confidence interval and, significance level $\alpha=5\%$, $p=35\%$, allowable error =10%, required sample size was 524. P=percentage of thyroid disorder. The Chi-square test was used to observe the relationship between different variables and strength of the relationship with logistic regression. $P<0.005$ is considered as statistically significant.

RESULTS

Hypothyroidism is a common metabolic disorder in the general population particularly in women of higher age group, 9.5% of the participants of the Colorado prevalence study had elevated levels of thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) [22]. Table 1 shows the distribution of thyroid dysfunction in the studied population. In our study the fraction of general thyroid disorder was 9.7%. The people were highly affected by subclinical hypothyroidism (5.5%) tracked by overt hypothyroidism (1.5%). The ratio of subclinical hyperthyroidism, clinical hypothyroidism, and clinical hyperthyroidism are 1.24%, 0.8% and 0.66% separately.

The frequency of hypothyroidism has been informed to be between 2% and 4% of the adult population in a report by Hollowell *et al* and in an Indian study a prevalence of 3.9% of hypothyroidism was reported by Usha Menon *et al*. [21]. In our study the prevalence of hypothyroidism is 7.8% and hyperthyroidism is 1.9%.

Table 1 Distribution of thyroid dysfunction

Thyroid status	Frequency	Percentage	95% CI	
			Lower	upper
Euthyroidism	4876	90.3	89.4	91.2
Overt hypothyroidism	82	1.5	1.48	1.51
Subclinical hypothyroidism	295	5.5	5.42	5.58
Clinical hypothyroidism	44	0.8	0.76	0.83
Subclinically hyperthyroidism	67	1.24	1.20	1.27
Clinical hyperthyroidism	36	0.66	0.631	0.68
Total	5400	100		

Females are more vulnerable to hypothyroidism and subclinical hypothyroidism [23]. Table 2 displays the frequency, percentage distribution of thyroid dysfunction in females. Females were highly affected by subclinical hypothyroidism (6.2%), stalked by overt hypothyroidism,

subclinical hyperthyroidism (1.5%), clinical hypothyroidism and clinical hyperthyroidism are 1.5%, 1.3%, 0.98% and 0.79% respectively.

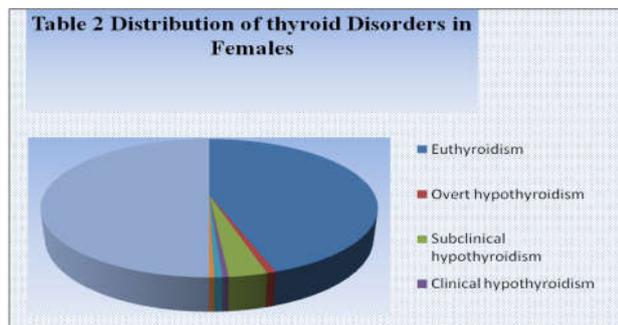


Table 2 Distribution of thyroid disorders in females

Hypothyroidism is ten times more common in women than men and its prevalence increases with age [23]. Table 3 shows the spreading of thyroid dysfunction in the considered population. Males were extremely affected by subclinical hypothyroidism (5.2%), trailed by overt hypothyroidism. Subclinical hyperthyroidism, clinical hypothyroidism and clinical hyperthyroidism are 1.81%, 0.41% and 0.41% respectively. Table two and three are showing that the subclinical hypothyroidism is predominant in both the genders and it is high in females compared to males. There was a relationship between gender and thyroid complaints (P=0.0970).

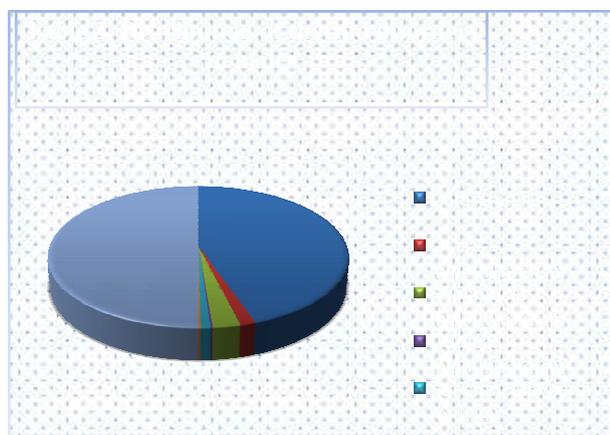


Table 3 Distribution of thyroid disorders in males

In a study, the occurrence of subclinical hypothyroidism in men over the age of 74 (16%) was nearly high as in women of the similar age (21%). Up to 75% of patients have only mildly elevated serum thyrotropin values, and 50% to 80% of patients have positive tests for anti thyroperoxidase antibody (TPOAb), depending on age, gender, and serum thyrotropin levels [24]. Table 4 displays the age distribution of thyroid dysfunction in the considered population. The majority of the study population belonged to the active age group 21-40 years tracked by 41- 60 years tailed by 41-60 years of age groups. The grade of thyroid dysfunction in 0-20 years of age group is overt hypothyroidism, subclinical hypothyroidism, clinical hypothyroidism, subclinical hyperthyroidism, clinical hyperthyroidism are 1.99%, 5.8%, 1.14% 0.4% and 0.28%. In this age group subclinical hypothyroidism is high (5.8%) and clinical hypothyroidism is low (0.28%).

The status of thyroid dysfunction in 21-40 years of age group is overt hypothyroidism, subclinical hypothyroidism, clinical hypothyroidism, subclinical hyperthyroidism, clinical hyperthyroidism are 1.75%, 5.5%, 0.98%,0.95% and 0.5%. In this age group also subclinical hypothyroidism is high (5.5%) and clinical hyperthyroidism is low (0.5%).

The status of thyroid dysfunction in 41- 60years of age group is overt hypothyroidism subclinical hypothyroidism, clinical hypothyroidism, subclinical hyperthyroidism, clinical hyperthyroidism are 0.89%, 5.3%, 0.5%, 2.1% and 0.89%. In this age group also subclinical hypothyroidism is high (5.3%) and clinical hyperthyroidism is low (0.89%).

The status of thyroid dysfunction in >60 years of age group is overt hypothyroidism, subclinical hypothyroidism and clinical hyperthyroidism are 1.39%, 5.2%, 1.4% and 1.7%. In this group also subclinical hypothyroidism is high (5.2%) and overt hypothyroidism is low (1.39%).

DISCUSSION

Thyroid disorders are due to abnormality in thyroid function and enlargement of the thyroid gland. Hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism are common conditions that have lifelong effects on health [32, 33]. The present study showed thyroid disorders (9.7%) is high in the Guntur region.

Table 4 Distribution of thyroid disorders according to age

Age(years)	Euthyroidism	Overt ^a	S.C ^a	Clinical ^a	S.C ^b	Clinical ^b
0-20						
Frequency	634	14	41	8	3	2 (702)
Percentage	90.3	1.99	5.8	1.14	0.4	0.28
95% CI	(89.3, 91.2)	(1.2, 2.7)	(5.6, 5.9)	(1.0, 1.2)	(0.32,0.47)	(0.22,0.34)
21-40						
Frequency	2570	50	156	28	27	15 (2846)
Percentage	90.3	1.75	5.5	0.98	0.95	0.5
95% CI	(89.4, 91.2)	(1.66,1.83)	(5.4,5.59)	(0.93,1.02)	(0.9, 0.99)	(0.46,0.54)
41-60						
Frequency	1414	14	83	8	33	14 (1566)
Percentage	90.2	0.89	5.3	0.5	2.1	0.89
95% CI	(89.2,91.1)	(0.83,0.94)	(5.2,5.39)	(0.44,0.55)	(2.03,2.16)	(13.9,0.94)
>60						
Frequency	258	04	15	-	4	5 (286)
Percentage	90.2	1.39	5.2	-	1.4	1.7
95% CI	(89.27, 91.1)	1.27, 1.5	5.0, 5.36	-	1.28, 1.52	1.57, 1.8

Overt ^a: Overt hypothyroidism. S.C ^a: Subclinical hypothyroidism. Clinical ^a: Clinical hypothyroidism. S.C^b: subclinical hyperthyroidism. Clinical^b: subclinical hyperthyroidism.

The prevalence of total hypothyroidism is 80.3%, including overt hypothyroidism (15.6%), subclinical hypothyroidism (56.2%) and clinical hypothyroidism (8.3%).

In our study the whole hypothyroidism is 80.3%, including overt hypothyroidism (15.6%), subclinical hypothyroidism (56.29%) and clinical hypothyroidism (8.39%). Total hypothyroidism is 19.6, including subclinical hyperthyroidism 12.8% and clinical hyperthyroidism 6.9%. Subclinical hypothyroidism is high (49.2%) in females tracked by 7.0% in males. The subclinical hypothyroidism is high in males. This may be due to iodine deficiency and use of more alcohol by males in this region. Alcohol causes the thyroid gland not producing enough hormones [38].

This present study identified the status of thyroid disorder in population of Guntur region and can be used as a baseline data for further studies in future. The study reported that the prevalence of thyroid disorder typically subclinical hypothyroidism and overt hypothyroidism was higher. Further studies are required to characterize the reasons for this high prevalence. This study was laboratory based and because the study population constituted of subjects who came to the lab seeking thyroid function tests. The results may not be applicable to the general population.

References

1. Ashwini Kolur¹, Anitha B¹, Letha P¹, Trupti Joshi¹, Jayasree¹, Samith Ahmed¹, Harish Naik², [2014], Pattern Of Thyroid Disorder In Thyroidectomy Specimen, international journal of medical science and public health, vol.3(12).
2. Elaine Ron and Alina Brenner, [2010], Non-Malignant Thyroid Diseases Following a Wide Range of Radiation Exposures, NIH Public Access, 174(6): 877–888. doi:10.1667/RR1953.1.
3. Ismail Bhai¹ and Jayshree Jatwa², [2014], Studies on Human “Thyroid disorders”: Based upon assay of TSH and Thyroid Hormones with different Parameters in ‘Rural and Urban population’ in Ujjain district, MP, India, International Research Journal of Medical Sciences, vol.2 (5), 14-19.
4. Dr. Narayana Murthy C and Dr. T.K. Srinivas settee, [2013], Prevalence of Thyroid Disorder in Males at Chitradurga District, International Journal of Scientific Research, vol. 2(9).
5. Ambika Gopalakrishnan Unnikrishnan, Usha V. Menon, [2011], Thyroid Disorders in India: an epidemiological perspective, Indian Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism, vol.15(2),S78-S81.
6. Naval Kishor Yadav^{1*}, C. Thanpari², Mukesh Kumar Shrewastwa³, Brijesh Sathian⁴, Rabindra Kumar Mittal⁵, [2013], Socio demographic wise risk assessment of thyroid function abnormalities in far western region of Nepal: A hospital based descriptive study, Asian Pac J Trop Dis 2013; 3(2): 150-154.
7. Ravi Shekhar^{*1}, V Siva Prabodh¹, NVS Chowdary¹, Desai Vidya¹, MC Das², [2012], Prevalence Of Thyroid Disorders In Coastal Andhra Pradesh, International Journal of Pharma and Biosciences; vol. 3(3): (B) 596- 603.
8. Magdalena Milczarek¹, Jan Stępnia¹, Andrzej Lewiński^{2,3} and Małgorzata Karbownik-Lewińska^{1,3*}, [2013], Potassium iodide, but not potassium iodate, as a potential protective agent against oxidative damage to membrane lipids in porcine thyroid; BMC-Thyroid research journal, vol.6:10,1-8.
9. Dr. Pradeep Sharma¹, Dr. Dibyaratna Patgiri², Dr.Sapna Goyal³, Dr.Geeta Sharma⁴, *Dr.M.S.Pathak⁵, [2013], Hypothyroidism causing dyslipidemia in both subclinical & overt hypothyroidism, Indian journal of basic & applied Medical research, vol. 2(7), 779-788.
10. Ingibjörg Gunnarsdóttir^{1*} and Lisbeth Dahl², [2012], Iodine intake in human nutrition: a systematic literature review, Food and nutrition research,1-38.
11. Ahmad Naved¹, Taliyan Shorya², Bandyopadhyay Debapriya³, Baruah Haren⁴, Gupta Akash⁵, [2012], Prevalence Of Thyroid Hormone Abnormalities Among Patients In Subharti University- A Hospital Based Study, Journal of advance researches in Biological sciences, [2013], vol.5 (4) 357-361.
12. Adam Gesing^{1*}, Andrzej Lewiński^{2,3} and Małgorzata Karbownik-Lewińska^{1,2}, [2012], The thyroid gland and the process of aging; what is new?, thyroid research journal, 5:16,1-5.
13. Ravi Shekhar¹, NVS Chowdary¹, MC Das², Desai Vidya¹, Siva Prabodh¹, [2011], Prevalence of subclinical hypothyroidism in coastal Andhra Pradesh, Biomedical Research 2011; 22 (4): 471-474.
14. Sanjeet Bagchi, [2014], Hypothyroidism in India: more to be done, the lancet diabetes & endocrinology, vol.2 October 2014.
15. Ambika Gopalakrishnan Unnikrishnan, Sanjay Kalra¹, Rakesh Kumar Sahay², Ganapathi Bantwal³, Mathew John⁴, Neeraj Tewari⁵, [2013], Prevalence of hypothyroidism in adults: An epidemiological study in eight cities of India, Indian Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism / Jul-Aug 2013 / Vol 17 | Issue 4, 647-652.
16. Amit D. Raval and Usha Sambamoorthi, [2012], Incremental Healthcare Expenditures Associated with Thyroid Disorders among Individuals with Diabetes, Journal of thyroid research, Volume 2012, Article ID 418345, 10 pages doi:10.1155/2012/418345.
17. Priti Singh^{1*}, Salman Khan², Rabindra Kumar Mittal¹, [2014], Evolution of thyroid dysfunction among type-2 diabetic mid and far western Nepalese population, Journal of Coastal Line Medicine. Journal of Coastal Life Medicine 2014; 2(11): 903-906.
18. K. Padmaleela¹, Vimala Thomas², Lavanya K.M.³, D. Kiranmai⁴, [2013], Thyroid Disorders In Dysfunctional Uterine Bleeding (Dub) Among Reproductive Age Group Women - A Cross- Sectional Study In A Tertiary Care Hospital In Andhra Pradesh, India, int. J Med Pharm Sci, Vol. 04 issue 01.41-45.
19. Dinesh K. Dhanwal, Sudha Prasad, [...], and A. K. Banerjee [2014], High prevalence of subclinical hypothyroidism during first trimester of pregnancy in North India, Indian J Endocrinol Metab. 2013 Mar-Apr; 17(2): 281–284.
20. Navina Priya Jhummon, Bhavna Tohooloo and Shen Qu^{*}, [2013], Iodine-131 induced hepatotoxicity in previously healthy patients with Grave’s disease, BMC, Thyroid Research Journal, 6:4,1-5.
21. Suresh Pichandi¹, Sathya V.1, Janakiraman P.2, Ramadevi K.1, [2014], Hypothyroid Goitre Associated

- With Excess Iodine Among South Indians, *int. J Med Pharm Sci*, Vol. 04 (05) 23-31.
22. Ajay Kumar Das¹, Naved Ahmad², Akash Gupta³, [2014], Dyslipidemia and Hypothyroidism in Population of East Medinipur, West Bengal, *journal of medical science and clinical research*, Vol.2(5),1049-1053.
23. Naved Ahmad¹, Meenakshi Panthari¹, Akash Gupta², Prasanna Chandra², Sana Nafees³, [2013], Prevalence Of Hypothyroidism Among Patients Of Meerut, Uttar Pradesh: A Hospital Based Study, *International journal of medical science and public health*, vol.2(3), 539-542.
24. Narayana Murthy C¹, Srinivas Shetty T.K², [2013], Prevalence of Thyroid dysfunction at Chitradurga District, Karnataka, *J Pub Health Med Res*, 1(2):86-88.

