

Thyroid Disorders

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Hypothyroidism

Non toxic goiter

Sick euthyroid syndrome

Thyrotoxicosis (Hyperthyroidism)

Amiodarone induced thyroid disease

TSHoma

Thyroid hormone resistance

Thyroid nodules

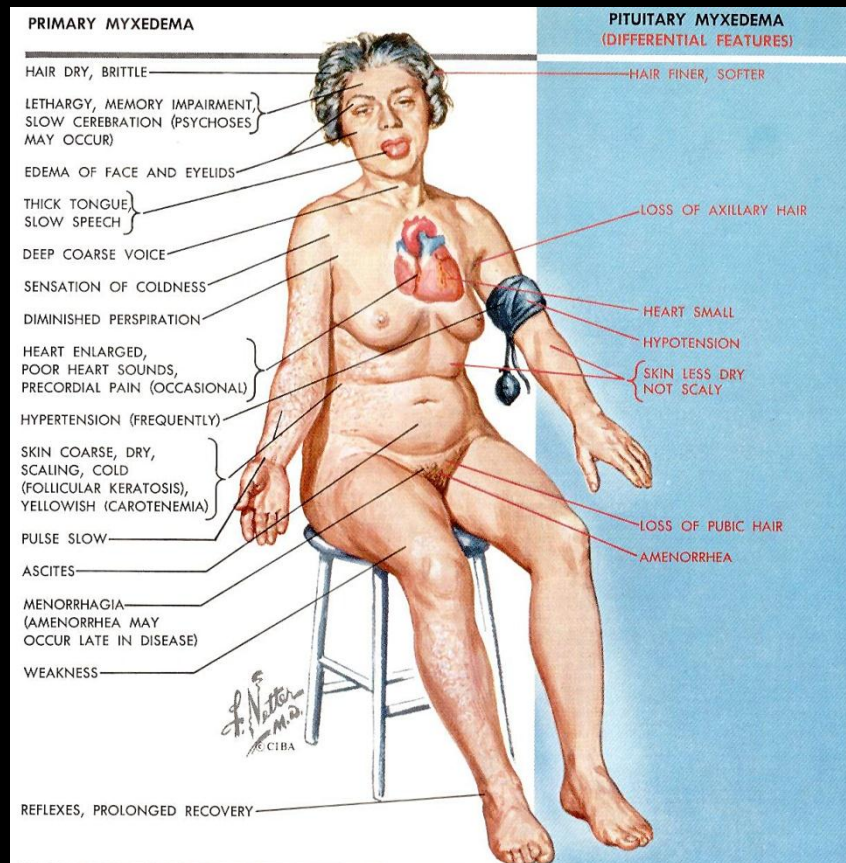
Thyroid cancer

Hypothyroidism

Hypothyroidism

Incidence: 2% (women), 0.2% (men)

Signs and symptoms of hypothyroidism



Basic metabolic rate

low

Appetite

reduced

Body weight

Increased

Heart rate

reduced

Cardiac output

reduced

Bowel movements

constipation

Activity

lethargic

Sensitivity to cold

increased

Speech

slow

Mental function

impaired

Skin (*myxoedema*)

thickened

Hair

dry, brittle

Nails

brittle

Aetiology of hypothyroidism

Primary Hypothyroidism (fT4 <9pmol/l and TSH>10mU/l)

Hashimoto's thyroiditis (Autoimmune thyroid destruction TPO ab +ve)

Subacute thyroiditis (Transient secondary to viral infection "deQuervain's")

Transient Neonatal hypothyroidism (Maternal TSHR blocking ab)

Excess iodine intake (Transient "Wolff-Chaikoff effect")

Iatrogenic

Radioactive iodine (Graves')

Thyroid surgery (Goitre, thyroid cancer)

Lithium, Amiodarone

Secondary Hypothyroidism (fT4<9pmol/l and TSH<0.3mU/l)

Hypopituitarism (Pituitary tumour, ablative pituitary therapy)

Neonatal hypothyroidism

Cretinism (severe iodine deficiency in childhood, maternal goiter)

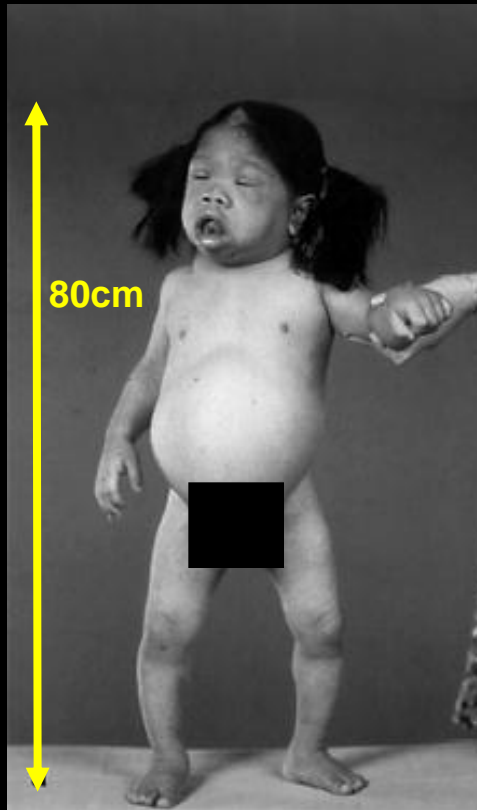
Growth arrest, immature body proportions, deaf mutism, mental retardation,

Neonatal hypothyroidism (failure of thyroid development, inborn errors of thyroid hormone synthesis)

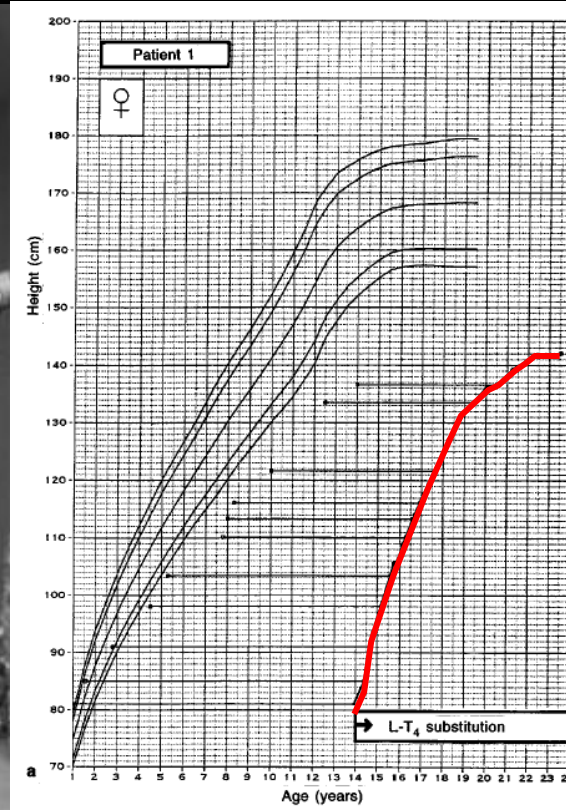
Less severe neurological phenotype (normal maternal thyroid hormone)

Newborn infants are screened for elevated TSH (Guthrie test)

Hypothyroidism and linear growth



14 years old



6/12 treatment

Management of hypothyroidism

Investigation

Thyroid function tests and thyroid auto antibodies

Diagnosis

Low serum free T4 and TSH >10U/I

Normal serum free T4 and TSH >10U/I (subclinical hypothyroidism)

Treatment

Aim of treatment to normalise TSH levels 0.3-4.2mU/I

Oral levothyroxine (thyroxine T4) 100-150mcg/d (T3 T_{1/2} too short)

Pharmacokinetics

T4 plasma half life of 7 days; peak effect 9 days;

T3 plasma half life 1 day; peak effect 1-2 days;

Almost 100% of T3 and T4 bound in the circulation to plasma proteins

plasma binding proteins increase in pregnancy, and phenothiazines
phenytoin and salicylates compete for binding sites.

Adverse effects of T4

TFTs should be monitored 6-12 weeks after a change of dose

Excessive replacement (increased T4 and suppressed TSH)

Palpitations and AF, osteoporosis and fracture

Non toxic multinodular goiter

Aetiology of goiter

Auto immune, sporadic, Iodine deficiency, Pregnancy, lithium, amiodarone, thyroiditis

Presentation of MNG (5% prevalence)

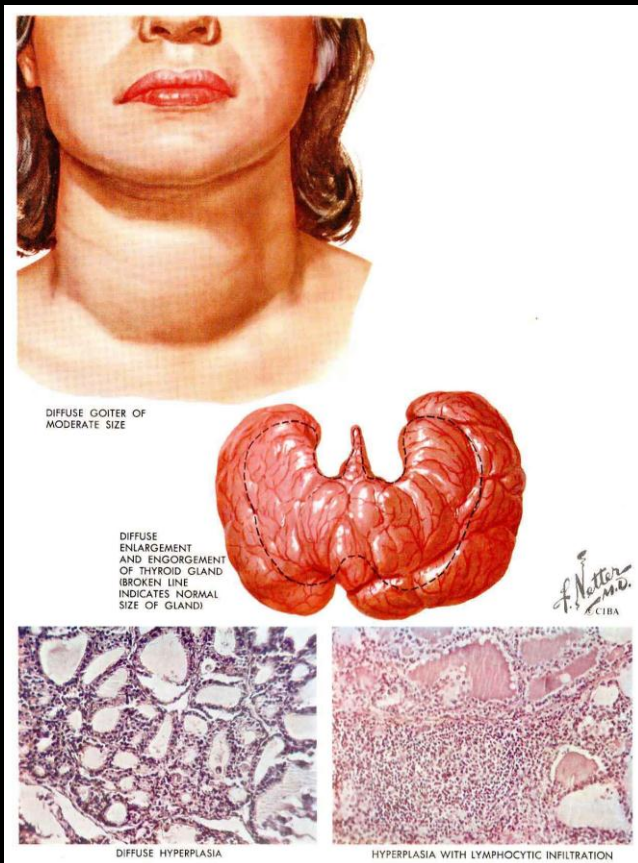
Enlarging thyroid and cosmetic concerns
Thyroid discomfort, stridor, dysphagia

Investigation

Thyroid function test, auto antibodies
Lung function and CT if retrosternal?
FNA if dominant nodule palpable

Treatment

Monitor by clinical examination
Total or near total thyroidectomy
Compressive symptoms, cosmetic
Dominant nodule with suspicious FNA
Radioiodine (in elderly)
May result in 50% shrinkage at 1 year
Not if retrosternal



Non-thyroidal illness (sick euthyroid syndrome)

- Stage 1 Low fT3 (high rT3)
- Stage 2 Low fT3 low TSH (high rT3)
- Stage 3 Low fT3 and fT4 low TSH (high rT3)

Mechanism

Central reduction in TSH secretion

- Reduced PVN TRH mRNA (dopamine, glucocorticoids, cytokines)
- Reduced pulsatile TSH release

Deiodinase activity

- Reduced D1 and D2 (Impaired T4 to T3 conversion)
(Impaired clearance of rT3 by D1)
- Increased D3 (reduced T3 and increase rT3)

Reduction in serum TH binding proteins

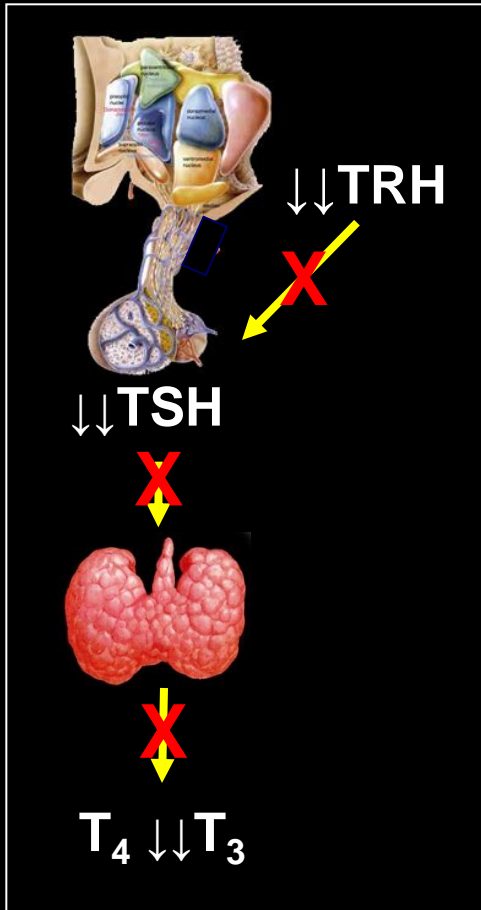
- Reduced TBG, TTR, albumin (TH displaced from binding proteins)

Management

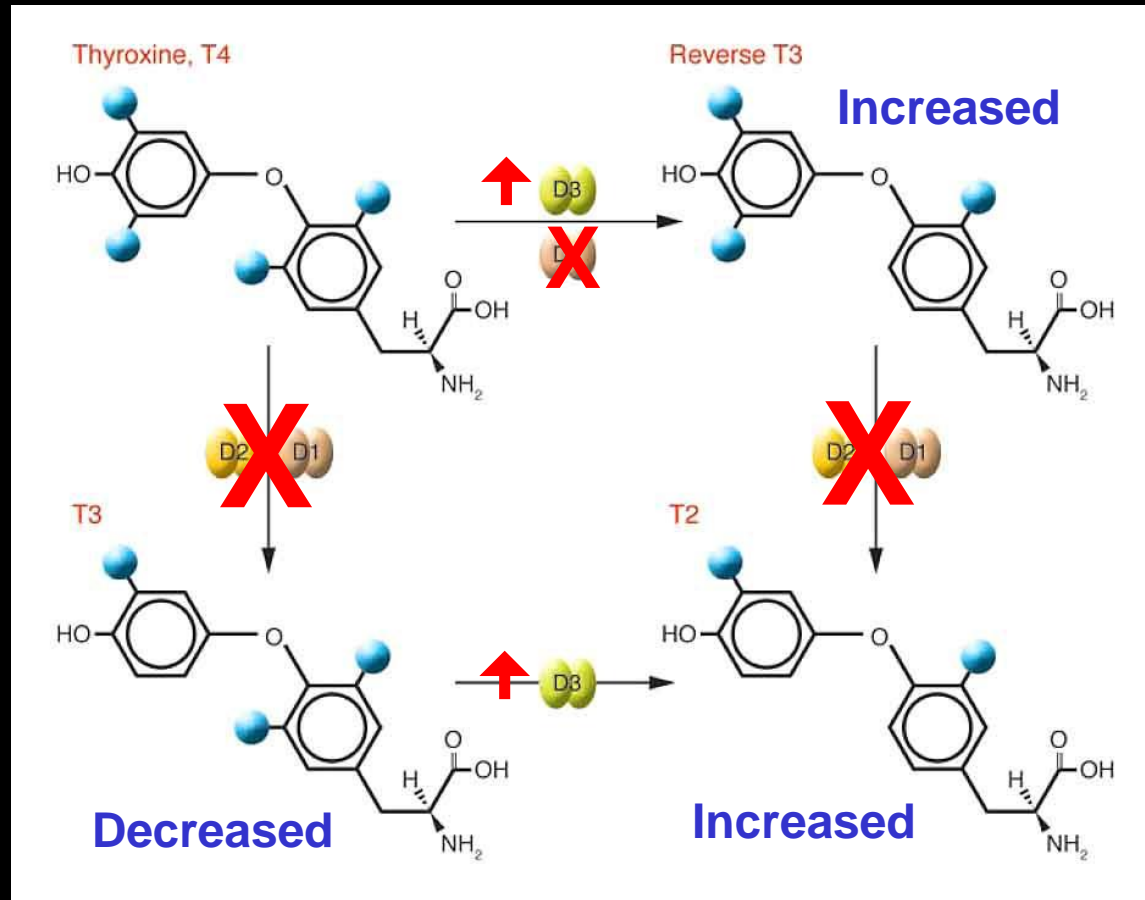
- It remain unclear if T4 or T3 supplementation in even most severe cases is clinically beneficial

Non-thyroidal illness (sick euthyroid syndrome)

Synthesis



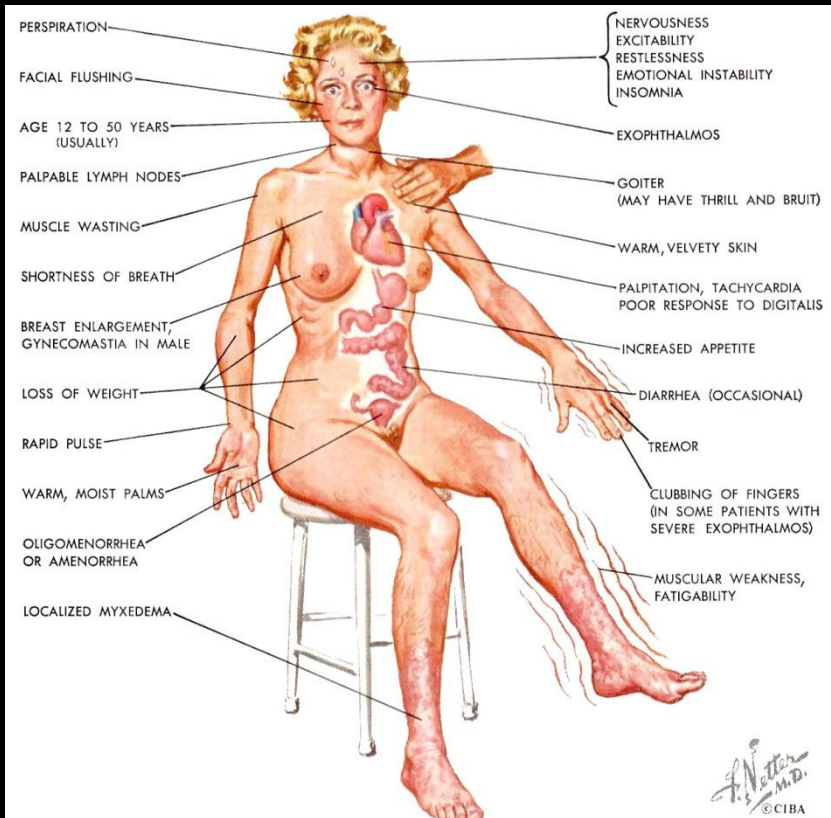
Metabolism



Hyperthyroidism

Thyrotoxicosis (Hyperthyroidism)

Incidence: 0.8% (women) 0.2% (men)



Signs and symptoms of hypothyroidism

Basic metabolic rate	increased
Appetite	increased
Body weight	reduced
Eyes	lid lag
Heart rate	marked tachycardia
Cardiac output	increased (murmur)
Bowel movements	increased
Activity	increased (tremor)
Temperature	Heat intolerant of heat
Mental function	Agitation (inappropriate behaviour)
Skin (myxoedema)	sweaty, clubbing

Aetiology of hyperthyroidism

Differential diagnosis of elevated thyroid hormone levels

Diffuse toxic goitre (Graves' Disease; TSH stimulating antibodies)

Toxic adenoma (Somatic mutation of TSHR and GNAS)

Toxic multinodular goiter (Plummer's disease)

Subacute thyroiditis (De Quervain's) acute viral infection

Gestational thyrotoxicosis (GTT)

Amiodarone induced thyrotoxicosis (Iodine excess or cytotoxic)

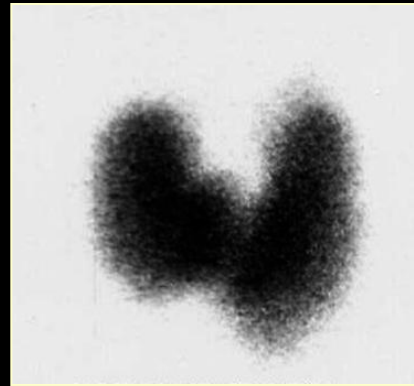
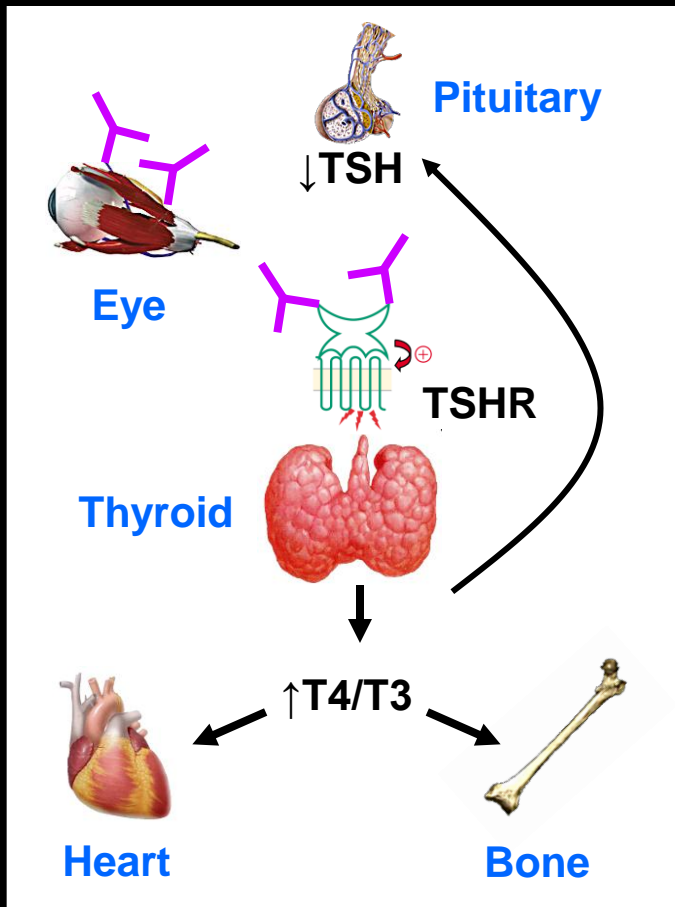
TSHoma (TSH secreting pituitary adenoma)

Resistance to thyroid hormone (dominant negative TR β mutation)

Graves' disease

Most common form of thyrotoxicosis (F:M 5:1 peak age 20-30)
T4/T3 elevated TSH suppressed (If T4 is normal T3-toxicosis)

Graves' Disease



TSHR antibodies cause Graves' disease

Autoimmune hyperthyroidism

Ophthalmopathy (smokers)

TSHR stimulating antibodies (ectodomain)

Stimulates growth and hormone secretion

Shedding of α -subunit may be antigenic

Genetic component DZ twins 35% concordant (HLA DR β 1, CTLA4, PTNP22, CD40 and Tg)

Transient congenital hyperthyroidism

De Quervain's thyroiditis

Acute viral inflammation (coxsackie virus, adenovirus)

Fever, malaise, neck tenderness

Initial symptoms of thyrotoxicosis followed by hypothyroidism

Investigations

Elevated T4, T3 and suppressed TSH in initial phase

Negative TPO and TSHR antibodies and elevated ESR

Thyroid uptake scans show no uptake

May be helpful to distinguish from Graves'

Treatment

NSAIDs for symptomatic relief in most cases

In more severe cases

β -blocker during hyperthyroid phase

T4 replacement in hypothyroid phase

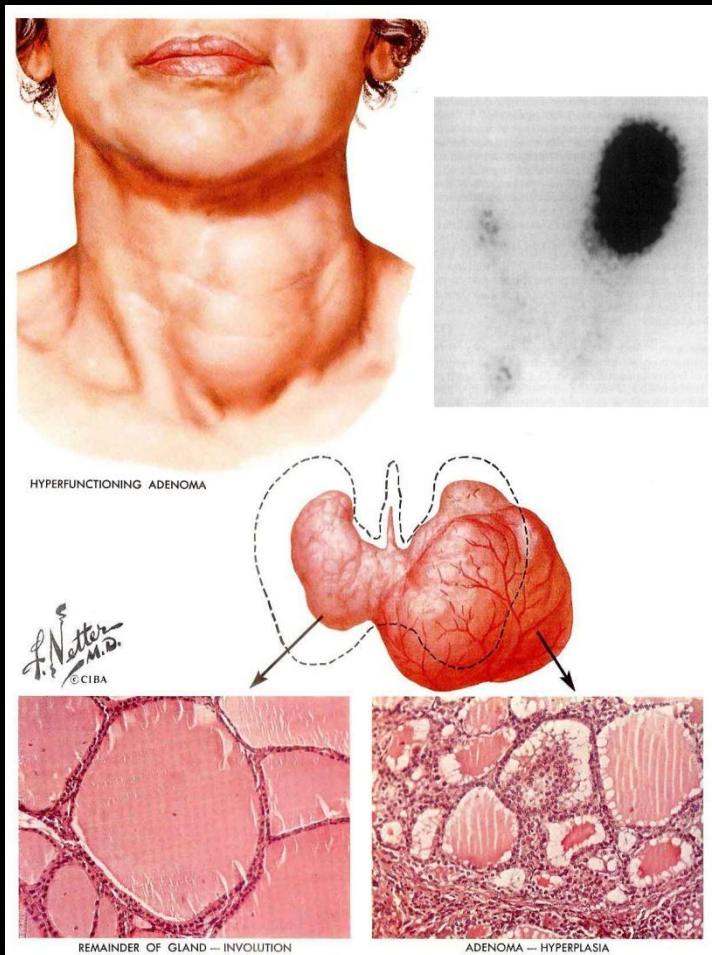
Prognosis

Hypothyroid phase frequently resolves over a few months

Stop T4 replacement after 6 months and repeat TFTs

90% remain euthyroid 10% have permanent hypothyroidism

Solitary toxic adenoma



Autonomously functioning thyroid nodule

Symptoms of thyrotoxicosis

Nodule may be palpable

Usually >40 years

Aetiology

60% somatic constitutive activating mutation TSHR

5% have activating mutation of G proteins (GNAS)

Suppression of normal thyroid tissue

Investigation

T3 elevated, TSH suppressed, (T4 may be normal)

TSH receptor antibodies negative

Uptake scans (rarely necessary)

Hot nodule

No uptake in the rest of thyroid

if nodule is palpable do FNA (benign)

Plummers' Disease (Toxic MNG)

Aetiology

Usually in >50 year old patients F>M

Atrial fibrillation and heart failure may occur

Precipitated in a longstanding non toxic multinodular goiter

One or more discrete active nodules

May be precipitated by iodine load (Jod-Basedow effect)

Investigation

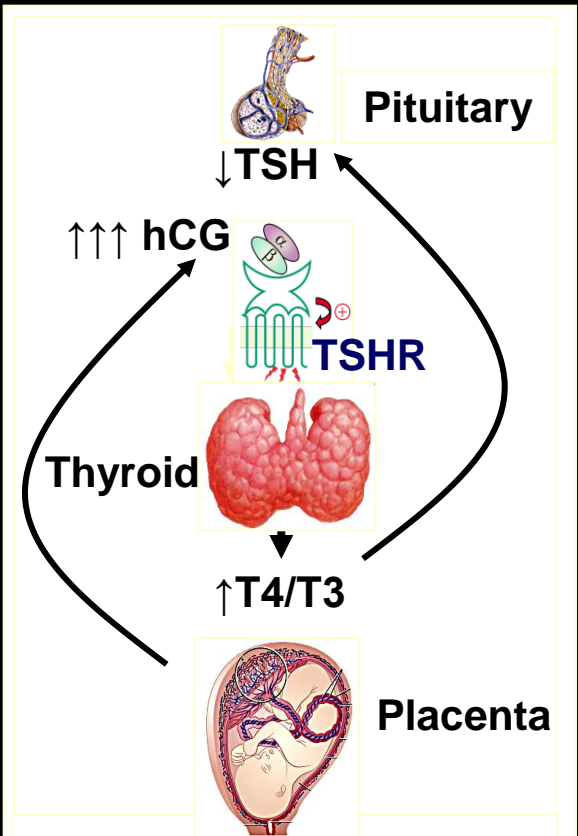
Marginal elevation of T3, T4 but fully suppressed TSH,

TSH receptor antibodies negative

Thyroid uptake scans often shows multiple hot nodule.

But rarely necessary

Gestational thyrotoxicosis (GTT)



Promiscuous activation of TSHR by hCG

(hCG in $\mu\text{mol/l}$ range activates TSHR)

1st trimester gestational hyperthyroidism

Inverse relationship between TSH and hCG

hCG is $\mu\text{mol/l}$ (TSH/FSH/LH are pmol/l)

Occurs in 4% of pregnancies (twins)

(hyperemesis gravidarum vomiting and wt loss)

Trophoblastic tumours

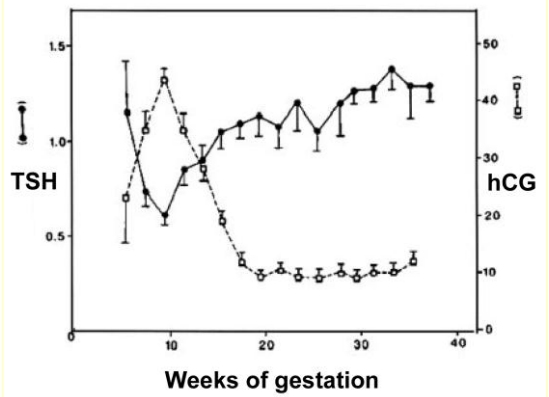
(Choriocarcinoma/Hydatidiform mole)

Investigation

Elevated T4, suppressed TSH, negative auto antibodies

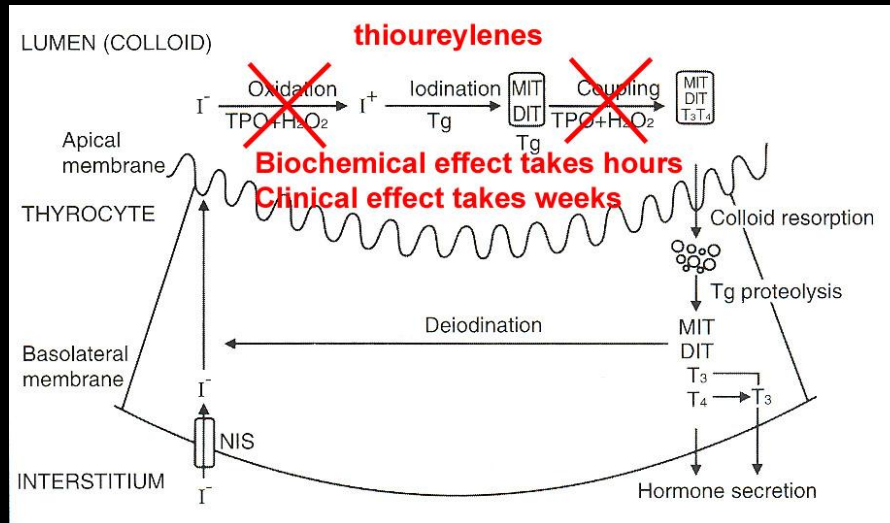
Does not require treatment

Resolves by 20 weeks of gestation



Treatment of hyperthyroidism

Inhibition of thyroid hormone synthesis



Thionamides/Thioureylene (Propylthiouracil & Carbimazole)

Inhibit the thyroperoxidase (TPO)

Blocks organification of iodine and MIT/DIT coupling reaction

Carbimazole may also suppress antibody production in Graves disease

Propylthiouracil inhibits D1 and reduces conversion of T₄ to T₃

Adverse effects

Agranulocytosis/granulocytopenia – More frequent with high doses

All patients must be given advice literature prior to starting drug

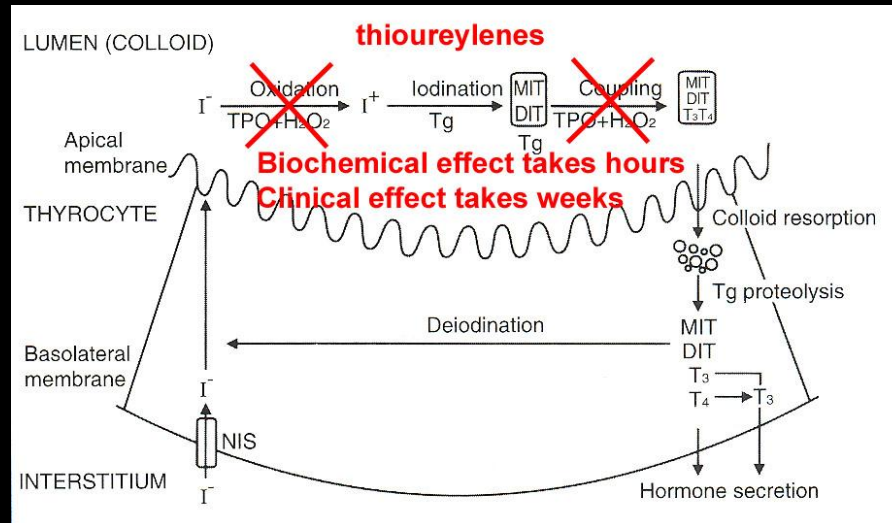
Rare and reversible on withdrawal (antibiotics and G-CSF)

Rashes (relatively common), headaches, nausea, jaundice, joint

PTU may cause liver disease in children and should not be used

Treatment of hyperthyroidism

Inhibition of thyroid hormone synthesis



Carbimazole 5-40mg/d oral (low risk of teratogenicity)

Prodrug ($T_{1/2}$ 6-15 hours, crosses placenta and is secreted in milk, metabolised in liver and secreted in urine)

Propylthiouracil 50-400mg/d oral

Use at lowest possible dose in pregnancy and breast feeding (less in milk)

1 to 2 years of treatment (can be continued long term at low dose)

Thyroid hormone levels normalise by 4 to 12 weeks

Dose reduced every 3 months depending on thyroid function

After cessation monitor for relapse initially every 3 months then annually

Treatment of hyperthyroidism

Initial symptomatic control

β -Adrenergic blockers (reduce symptoms before T4 and T3 normalise)

Nadolol 80-160mg od po (long acting compared to propranolol)

Propranolol 20-80mg tds po

Treat for 4 to 8 weeks to reduce anxiety, palpitations, tremor

Thyroidectomy rarely required but indicated if

Pregnant inadequately controlled by PTU or adverse effects

Perform surgery in 2nd trimester

Large multinodular goitre with compressive symptoms

Allergy to carbimazole or PTU and decline radioiodine

Poor compliance with treatment

Iodide

Can be used in preparation for surgery

Potassium iodide 60mg tds po for 10 days (max effect)

Wolf-Chaikoff effect Inhibition of secretion of thyroid hormones in thyrotoxic patients and reduces vascularity and size of thyroid gland

Treatment of hyperthyroidism

Radioiodine (^{131}I treatment)

Given as single oral capsule after stopping carbimazole for 2 days

Indications

relapsed Graves', toxic adenoma and toxic multinodular goiter

(In USA commonly used as 1st line treatment of Graves' disease)

Contraindications

Young children (potential risk of thyroid cancer)

Pregnancy and breast feeding

Active Graves ophthalmopathy (unless steroid cover for 7 weeks)

Mechanism of action

^{131}I concentrated in thyroid and incorporated into thyroglobulin.

Short range β -particles (1mm) are cytotoxic to thyroid follicular cells

(^{131}I $T_{1/2}$ is 8 days and radioactivity is background by 2 months)

Adverse effects

No close personal contact (<1m) for 1-2 weeks (difficult if young children)

Avoid pregnancy for 6 months after treatment

Hypothyroidism is inevitable and life long T4 replacement will be required

Repeat dose required in approximately 10%

Thyroid crisis “thyroid storm” (very rare)

This is a medical emergency and requires aggressive management

Usually occurs in Graves' Disease patients

Presentation

Abrupt onset precipitated by

Infection, trauma, surgery, DKA, delivery

Abdominal pain, sweating, tachycardia, arrhythmias, pulmonary oedema and congestive cardiac failure, tremulous, delirium and psychosis, stupor and coma

Management (in ITU)

β -Adrenergic blockers (Control of arrhythmias)

Propranolol 2mg iv every 10 minute until 10mg total

80mg po every 6 hours thereafter

Propylthiouracil 250mg iv every 6 hours

Inhibits synthesis and blocks T4 to T3 conversion

Iodine (Lugols iodine 10 drops bd)

Wolf Chaikoff effect (retards release of TH)

Hydrocortisone (50mg iv every 6 hours)

Inhibits release of TH from thyroid

Induced D3 activity and T4 and T3 inactivation

Careful IV fluid and electrolyte balance and cooling

Oxygen, digoxin and diuretics for heart failure

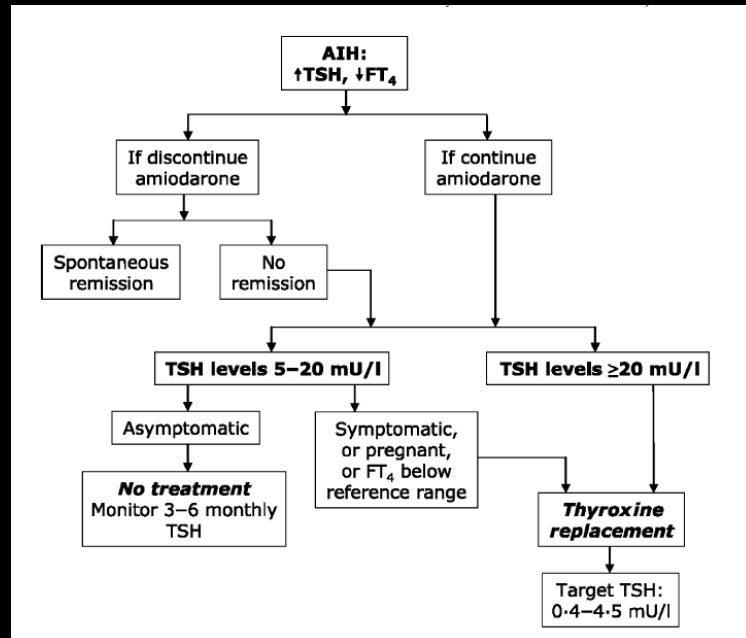
Amiodarone induced thyroid disease

Amiodarone induced thyroid disease

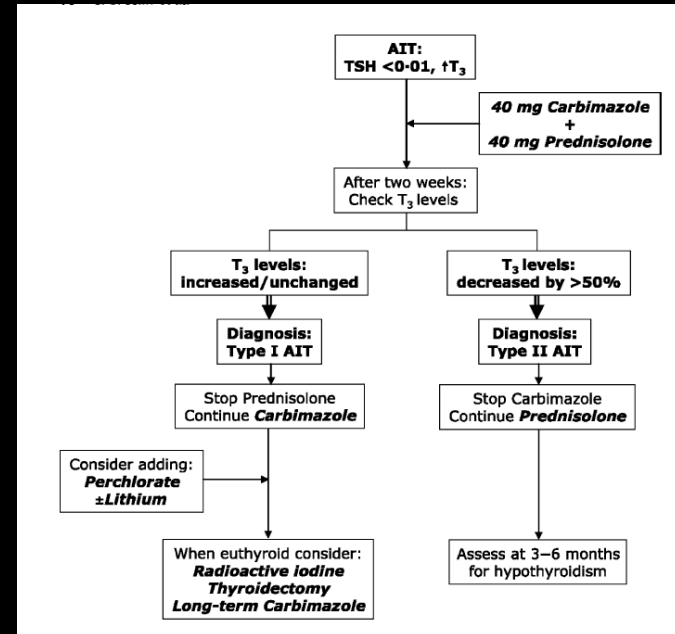
Amiodarone is 37% iodine by weight ($T_{1/2}$ 60 days)

Due to direct destructive effect on thyroid and increased iodine supply

Amiodarone induced hypothyroidism



Amiodarone induced thyrotoxicosis



Immune mediated thyroid dysfunction
7% of patients of treated patient
Failure to escape Wolf-Chaikoff effect
Decreased free T4 and increased TSH
TPO antibody positive

Type I Iod-Basedow (increase iodine supply to a hyper-functioning nodule)
Type II Destructive thyroiditis (may lead to hypothyroidism)
6-12% of patients male to female ratio 3:1

Rare causes of elevated T4 and T3

TSH secreting pituitary tumour (very rare)

Less than 1% of all pituitary tumours

TSHoma are usually large (90% macro) and invasive (60%)

Symptoms

Hormone excess: Mild thyrotoxicosis and goitre
Hormone deficiency: Gonadotrophins may be reduced
Size: Bitemporal hemianopia, headache

Investigation

T4 and T3 elevated TSH inappropriately normal
Thyroid antibodies negative
Serum α -subunit markedly elevated
(α -subunit ($\mu\text{g/l}$)/TSH (IU/l) ratio >5.7 normal range (<1))
MRI demonstrates pituitary adenoma

Management

Somatostatin analogues +/- PTU to control thyrotoxicosis
Pituitary surgery
If incomplete resection
Somatostatin analogues and pituitary radiotherapy
(Radioactive iodine and T4 replacement have been used)

Resistance to thyroid hormone (very rare)

Mutant TR β acts as a dominant negative receptor

Resistance to thyroid hormone (autosomal dominant, TR β mutation)

Mutant TR β heterodimerises with RXR

Mutant TR β heterodimerises with normal TR β and TR α

Presentation (variable and depend on mutation)

Combination of hyper and hypothyroid symptoms and signs

Hypothalamic and pituitary resistance to T₄, goiter, palpitations, growth retardation, ADHD, hearing defects

Investigations

Elevated T₄, T₃, elevated or inappropriately normal TSH,

Normal α -subunit/TSH ration and normal pituitary MRI

Diagnosis test

TSH responses to TRH determined during the graded T₃-suppression

Sequencing *THRB*

Management

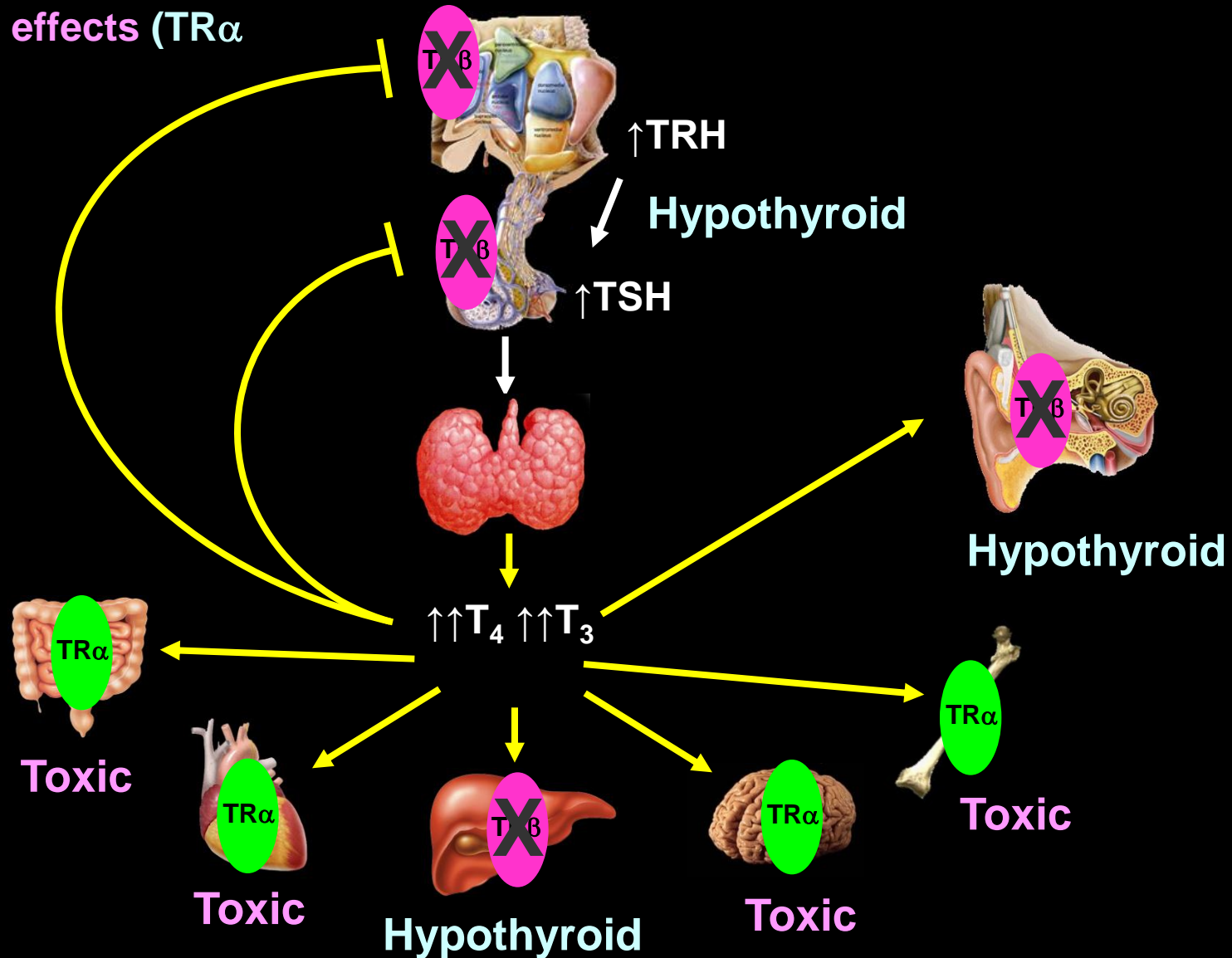
Controversial but frequently none required

Some may benefit from supra-physiological doses of T₄
others may require beta blockade to alleviate tachycardia

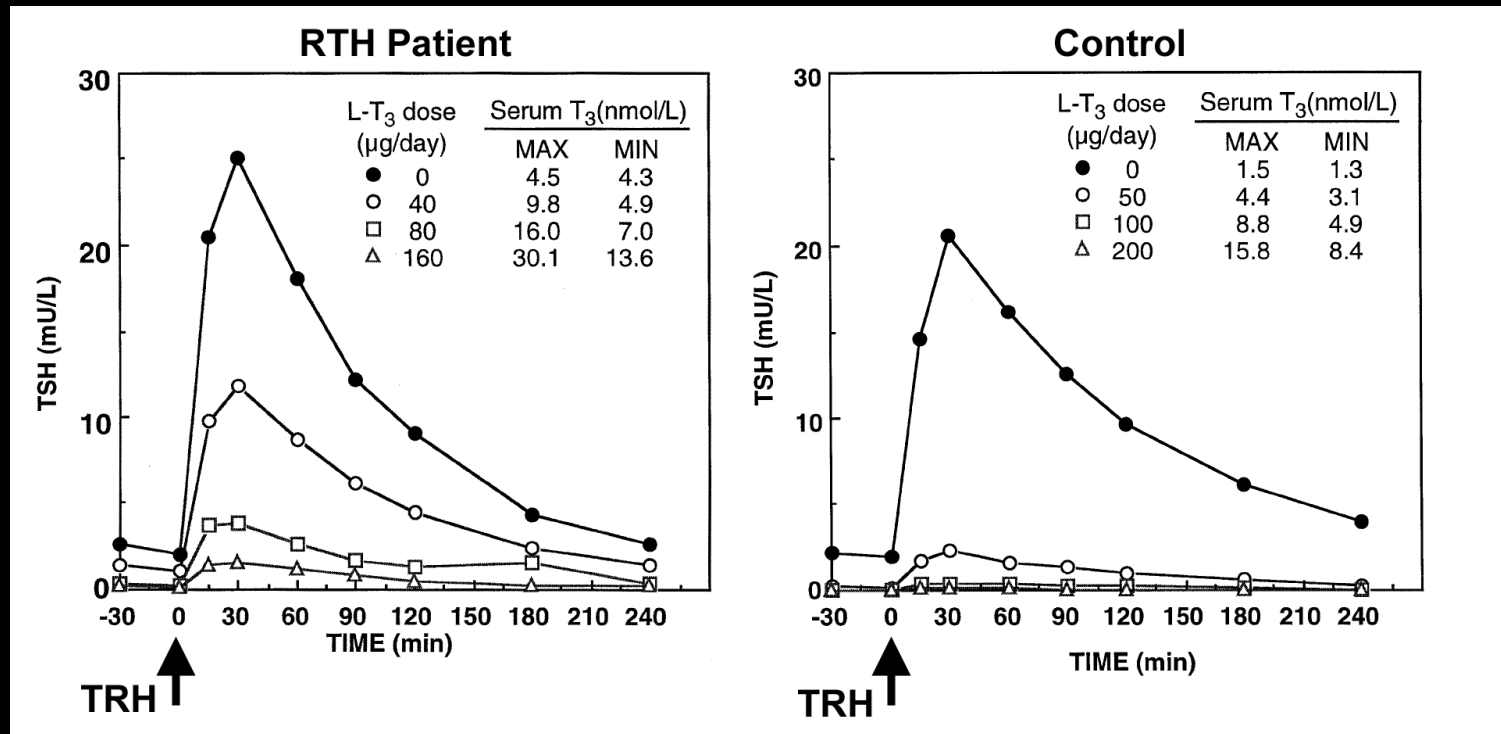
RTH is caused by a dominant negative mutation of TR β

Mixed Hypo/Toxic effects (TR α and TR β)

- BMR
- Thermogenesis
- Adipogenesis
- Vasculature
- Skin
- Hair
- Muscle
- Bone marrow
- Kidney
- Lung



Effect of increasing doses of T3 on TSH responsiveness to TRH stimulation



TSH response to TRH not suppressed by 160µg/d T3

TSH response to TRH suppressed by 50µg/d T3

Thyroid nodules and thyroid cancer

Thyroid nodules

Palpable thyroid nodules are very common (4% of adults, F:M 4:1)

95% of thyroid nodules are benign

95% of thyroid cancer presents as asymptomatic nodule

Differential diagnosis

Common

Colloid nodule

Cyst

Lymphocytic thyroiditis

Benign neoplasm

Follicular adenoma

Hurthle cell

Malignant neoplasm

Papillary thyroid cancer

Follicular thyroid cancer

Rare

Granulomatous thyroiditis

Infection

Malignancy

Medullary thyroid cancer

Anaplastic thyroid cancer

Metastatic disease

Lymphoma

Thyroid nodules

Risk factors for malignancy

Childhood exposure to ionizing radiation

Early papillary thyroid carcinoma

Low risk

Female, soft nodule, MNG, positive TPO antibodies

High risk

Younger age or elderly, male, solitary firm nodule, hoarse voice, LN

Investigation of thyroid nodule if >1cm

Thyroid function tests, thyroid auto antibodies,

Fine needle aspiration cytology (2% false +ve, 5% false -ve)

Classification: THY1 inadequate

THY2 benign

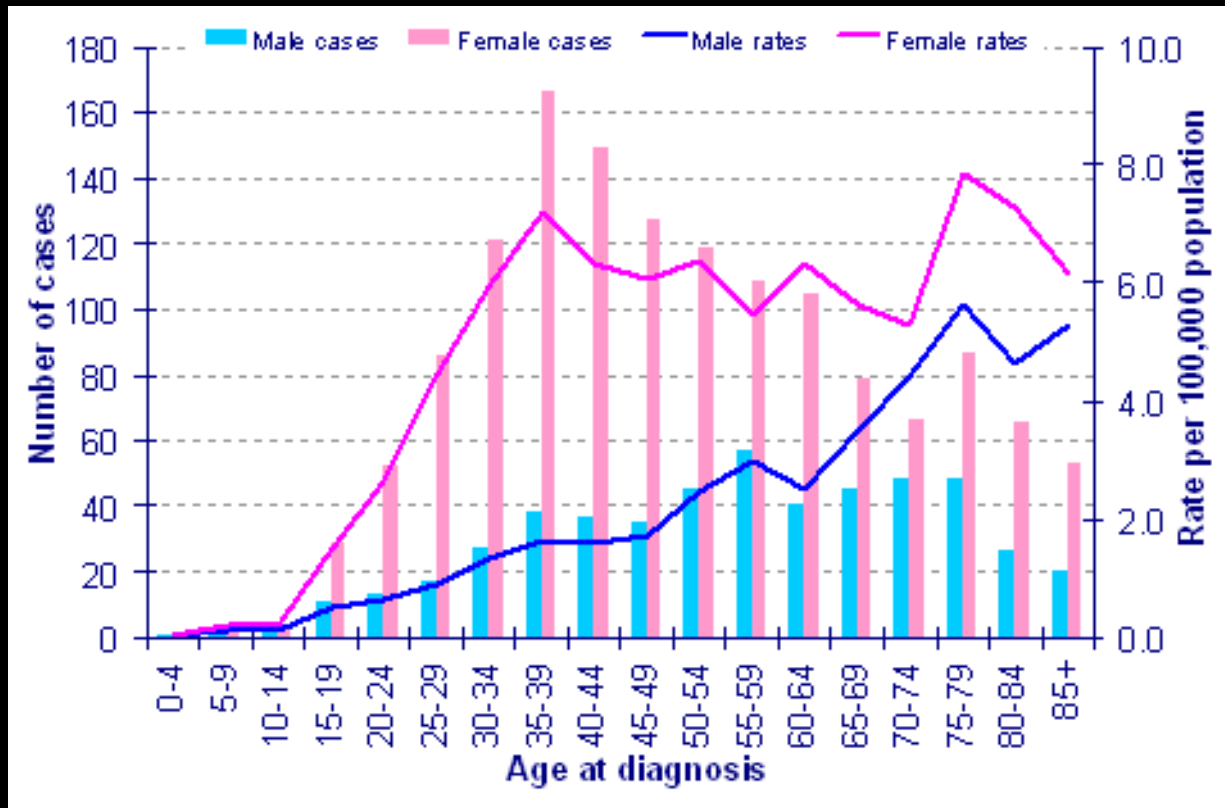
THY3 indeterminate

THY4 suspicious

THY5 malignant

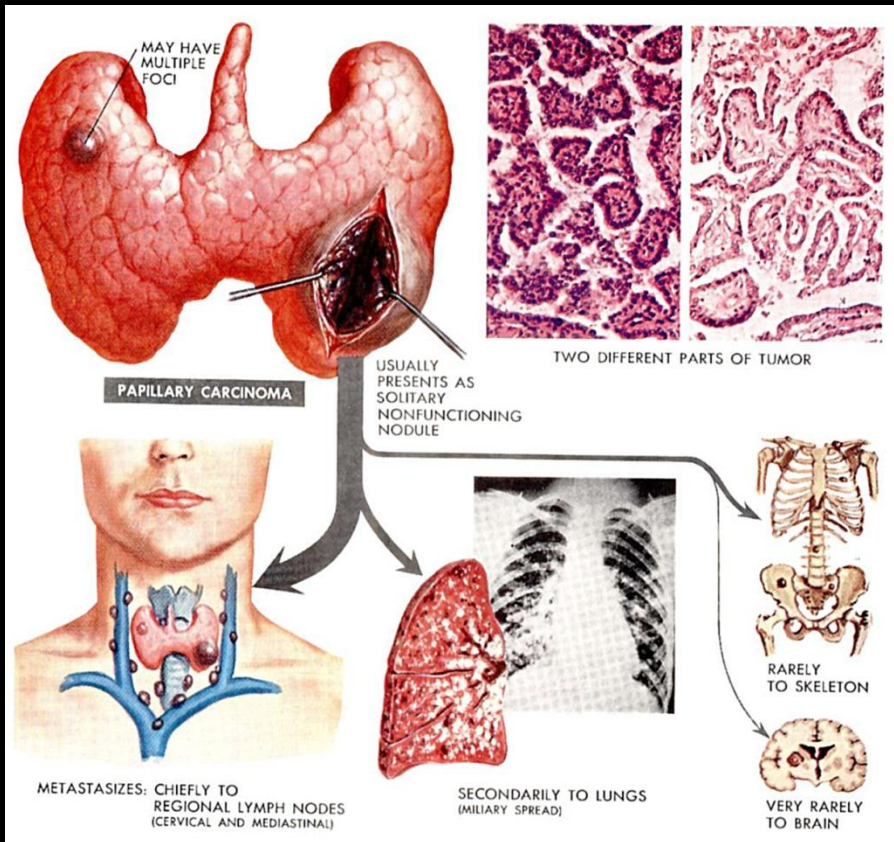
Thyroid cancer incidence

Approximately 2000 cases of thyroid cancer per year in UK



Must be managed in specialist centres

Differentiated thyroid cancer



Frequency of thyroid cancers

Papillary thyroid carcinoma	80%
Follicular thyroid carcinoma	10%
Medullary thyroid carcinoma	5%
Anaplastic carcinoma	1%

Differentiated thyroid cancer

Papillary carcinoma (PTC)

BRAF (V600E) mutations and RET/PTC translocations

Commonly multifocal and metastatic to local LN

May also invade locally

Indolent course and excellent survival (>95%)

Tumour cells concentrate iodine (¹³¹I treatment)

Follicular carcinoma

Associated with Pax8-PPAR_γ fusion genes and Ras mutation

More aggressive than PTC but good survival

local spread and metastasis to bone and lung

Tumour cells concentrate iodine (¹³¹I treatment)

Risk stratification

Low risk: <45 years, <2cm, no intra or extra-glandular spread

High risk: >45 years, >2cm, intra or extra-glandular spread

Anaplastic carcinoma

Associated with P53 mutation

Very aggressive and poor survival, surgery is palliative

Management of differentiated thyroid cancer

Low risk patients (<45 years, <2cm, no intra or extra-glandular spread)

Total thyroidectomy and life long T4 and follow up

Degree of TSH suppression is controversial

Some patient may also require ^{131}I ablation

High risk patients (>45 years, >2cm, intra or extra-glandular spread)

Total thyroidectomy and LN dissection as appropriate

T4 sufficient to suppress TSH <0.1mU/L

Remnant ablation with ^{131}I with rhTSH stimulation

(Post ablation scan performed at day 4)

At 6 months post ablation

rhTSH stimulated scan and thyroglobulin

Negative scan and undetectable thyroglobulin is best evidence of tumour eradication

Follow up

Annual neck ultrasound, TFTs

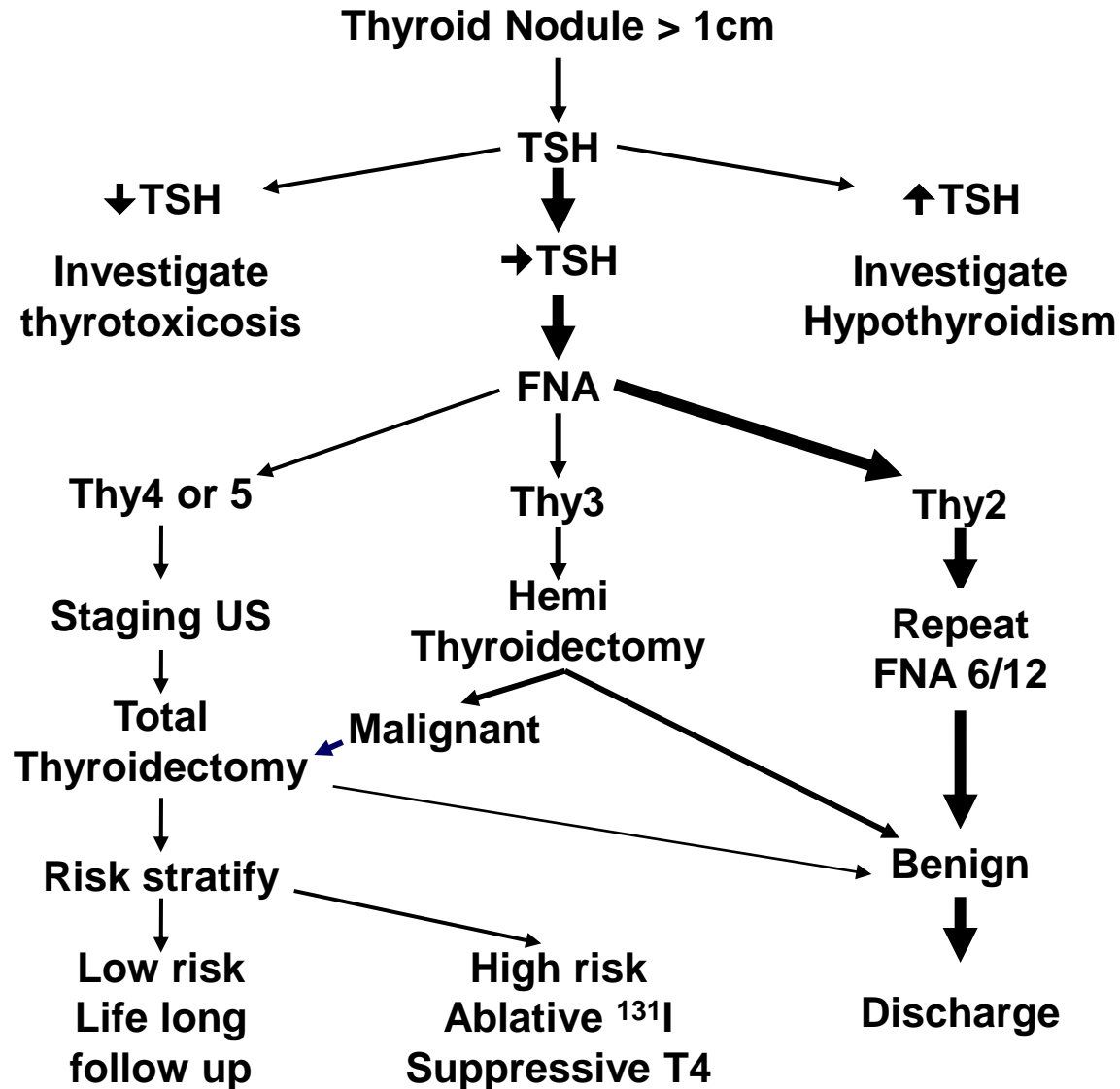
non stimulated thyroglobulin and anti-thyroglobulin antibodies

Prognosis: 95-99% 30 year survival if

Total thyroidectomy at initial surgery

Appropriate suppression of TSH

Algorithm for thyroid nodules



Medullary thyroid carcinoma (MEN2)

Rare malignancy of the thyroid parafollicular cells (C-cells)

1 in 250 thyroid nodule FNAs (3-5% of all thyroid cancers)

But accounts for 14% of thyroid cancer related deaths

Surgery is the only effective treatment

TSH suppression and ^{131}I cannot be used

Only chance of cure is complete resection at initial surgery

Optimal management requires diagnosis prior to surgery

Surgical requires extensive LN dissection

Phaeochromocytoma must be excluded prior to surgery

No specific FNA or US features but atypical

Serum or FNA calcitonin may aid diagnosis if MTC suspected

80% Sporadic

20% Familial (MEN2A, FMTC, MEN2B : Germline RET mutations)

Patients may survive many years with significant residual tumour

Medullary thyroid carcinoma

Diagnosis

May be diagnosed as a result

serum calcitonin, FNA cytology or at surgery

All MTC patients should have RET genetic testing

If RET mutation identified family screening is mandatory

RET mutation dictates the timing of prophylactic thyroidectomy

Follow up

Annual ultrasound and serum calcitonin

Management

Local recurrence : Neck exploration

Increasing calcitonin without evidence of local recurrence

Imaging (Thoracic CT, Liver MRI and Bone scintigraphy/MRI)

Surgical excision, radiotherapy (TK inhibitors)

Prognosis

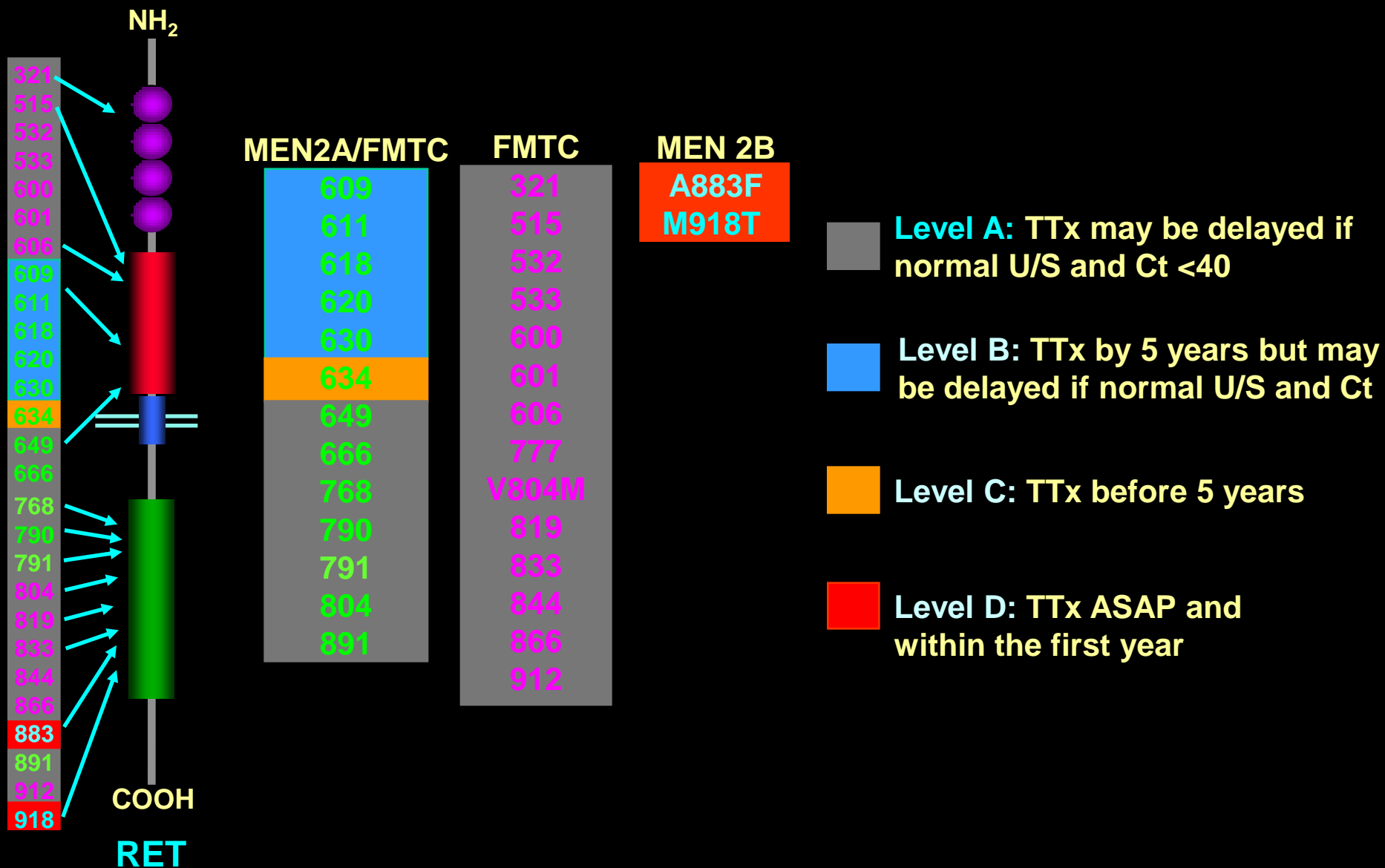
Prophylactic surgery cures MTC

Complete resection at initial surgery is best chance of cure

Clinical course is often indolent (MEN2B (RET M918T) more aggressive)

Long term survival is common even with metastatic disease

American Thyroid Association risk levels 2009



References

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