

Hyperthyroidism, current treatment methods; Review

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Abstract:

In this review, we discuss physiology and diagnosis methods, highlight current approaches to the management of primary hypothyroidism and explore potential future developments. A comprehensive search was conducted using several databases and the most important ones are; (PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, Embase, Medline, and Cochrane databases). All studies concerning the Hyperthyroidism, current treatment methods published up to November, 2017 was included. Treatment of hyperthyroidism has not changed greatly in the past several decades. Choices are between long-term treatment, with risk of relapse, or destruction of the thyroid gland with subsequent hypothyroidism. ATDs are a conservative alternative, however, thyroidectomy and radioactive iodine therapy are definitive therapies, but with subsequent hypothyroidism requiring lifetime treatment with thyroid hormone replacement. The final decision often is, and should be, based on the preference and

experience of both patient and physician. It for that reason is important to inform the patient as objectively as possible about advantages and disadvantages of the therapeutic options to reach a mutual agreement regarding the option of therapy.

Introduction:

Primary hypothyroidism or thyroid hormone deficit because of irregularity in the thyroid gland is the most typical endocrine illness. The prevalence of hypothyroidism in the general population ranges from 3.8%- 4.6% [1].The Whickham study revealed a yearly occurrence of hypothyroidism of 4.1 per 1000 in ladies and 0.6 each 1000 in men [2].Hyperthyroidism is qualified by raised thyroid hormone synthesis and secretion from the thyroid gland, whereas thyrotoxicosis refers to the professional syndrome of excess circulating thyroid hormones, regardless of the source. The most usual cause of hyperthyroidism is Graves' illness, followed by toxic nodular goitre. Other crucial reasons for thyrotoxicosis consist of thyroiditis, iodine-induced and drug-induced thyroid dysfunction, and factitious ingestion of excess thyroid hormones.

Medical diagnosis and therapy of hypothyroidism is typically considered simple and is mostly executed in a primary care setup. However, research studies continuously show issues in the management of this problem. Numerous patients on thyroid hormone substitute are either under-replaced or over-replaced [3] and a substantial variety of patients on thyroid hormone substitute record not feeling well in spite of having thyroid function examinations within the healthy

recommendation range [4] Treatment alternatives for Graves' illness consist of antithyroid drugs, radioactive iodine therapy, and surgical procedure, whereas antithyroid drugs are not usually used long term in harmful nodular goitre, because of the high relapse rate of thyrotoxicosis after discontinuation. β blockers are utilized in symptomatic thyrotoxicosis, and may be the only therapy required for thyrotoxicosis not brought on by extreme production and release of the thyroid hormones. Thyroid storm and hyperthyroidism in pregnancy and throughout the post-partum period are special conditions that require mindful evaluation and therapy.

In this review, we discuss physiology and diagnosis methods, highlight current approaches to the management of primary hypothyroidism and explore potential future developments.

Methodology:

A comprehensive search was conducted using several databases and the most important ones are; (PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, Embase, Medline, and Cochrane databases).

All studies concerning the Hyperthyroidism, current treatment methods published up to November, 2017 was included.

The search Mesh terms used to retrieve relevant articles were as follows: “Hyperthyroidism, complications, treatment”. Search was restricted to English language articles and human subjected studies. every type of study was included and mostly case reports studies discussing the treatment of Hyperthyroidism.

Discussion:

- **Physiology**

The thyroid gland is one of the largest endocrine glands in the body, weighing approximately 15 to 20 grams in the regular grownup. It secretes 2 significant hormones, which are needed for the typical procedure of a variety of physiologic procedures influencing virtually every organ system in the body [5]. Regulation of thyroid hormone secretion takes place through the hypothalamic pituitary-thyroid (HPT) system. A deficiency of thyroid hormones, triggered by a variety of conditions, leads to many pathophysiologic processes, a few of which have possibly major results if left untreated. This article talks about the anatomy and physiology of the thyroid gland, the regulation of the thyroid hormones by the HPT system, and laboratory examinations utilized in the evaluation of thyroid function. The effect of prematurity on this system is additionally evaluated, and numerous thyroid conditions are discussed. The article concludes with effects for nursing care of the baby with thyroid problems. The thyroid gland is located instantly below the larynx and anterior to the upper part of the trachea. It contains two lateral lobes connected by a slim band of thyroid tissue called the isthmus [6]. The isthmus typically overlies the region from the 2nd to 4th tracheal cartilages [7]. The lobes of the thyroid include several hollow, spherical frameworks called follicles, which are the functional systems of the thyroid gland. Each follicle is filled with a thick, sticky compound called colloid. The major constituent of colloid is a big glycoprotein called thyroglobulin. Unlike various other endocrine glands, which secrete their hormones once they are generated, the thyroid gland stores substantial amounts of the thyroid

hormones in the colloid until they are required by the body [6] The thyroid gland secretes 2 thyroid hormones, thyroxine (T4) and triiodothyronine (T3). It likewise produces the hormone calcitonin. Of the two thyroid hormones, T4 is more bountiful, but T3 is the more potent and is regarded to be the principal thyroid hormone.

- **Hyperthyroidism**

Hyperthyroidism in childhood is uncommon and happens when the thyroid gland secretes excessive quantities of thyroid hormone. Like hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism can be congenital or obtained [8]. Congenital hyperthyroidism, usually called neonatal thyrotoxicosis, is virtually exclusively seen in infants of mothers with Grave's illness or Hashimoto's disease. The condition could be transient, lasting up to numerous weeks, or extended, lasting over six months. The etiology is related to transplacental passage of thyroidstimulating immunoglobulin (TSI), which is an autoantibody of the class G immunoglobulin. The TSI can displacing radiolabeled TSH from TSH receptors of the thyroid membrane [9]. Diagnosis of neonatal thyrotoxicosis is made based upon clinical findings and raised levels of free T4 and free T3. TSH concentrations are additionally below the typical array. Initiation of therapy should be timely to minimize the signs and decrease the amount of thyroid hormone being produced. Treatment consists of a combination of Lugol's service (5 percent iodine and 10 percent potassium iodide), propylthiouracil (PTU), and propranolol. Lugol's option is given up doses of one decline three times a day. The advised PTU dose is 10 mg/kg/day orally in three divided dosages (every eight hours) [9]. Negative responses to PTU treatment typically occur early. These responses, which appear often at higher dosages, consist of breakout, hives, joint pain, and arthritis. The most typical medication response is transient leukopenia, which is benign. More serious adverse reactions include thrombocytopenia, collagen-vascular-like syndrome, harmful hepatitis, diffuse

interstitial pneumonitis, and agranulocytosis. Agranulocytosis is characterized by fever, bacterial infection, and a granulocyte count below $250/\text{mm}^3$. PTU must be discontinued when fever and oral infection or upper respiratory infection happen [7]. For babies that display severe thyrotoxicosis, propranolol hydrochloride is often utilized in mix with iodine to quickly decrease the untoward scientific symptoms of thyrotoxicity. Propranolol hydrochloride obstructs the conversion of T4 to T3 and is provided orally at 1- 2 mg/kg/day in 2 or even more divided dosages. Digitalization may be essential for babies with cardiac failure [8]. Dexamethasone could be useful in some babies with severe thyrotoxicosis. Glucocorticoids suppress the HPT system and, when administered at anti-inflammatory dosages, reduced serum TSH and T4 levels. T3 levels are also impacted and are decreased secondary to inhibition of the conversion of T4 to T3 [10]. Close monitoring of thyroid hormone levels is essential to make sure adequate therapy and to prevent hypothyroidism. Despite prompt and ample therapy, long-lasting complications from neonatal thyrotoxicosis could take place. These consist of premature craniosynostosis and neurodevelopmental defects, such as intellectual impairment [8].

- **Diagnosis**

Serum TSH need to be measured initially, due to the fact that it has the greatest sensitivity and specificity in the diagnosis of thyroid disorders [11]. If reduced, serum free T4 or free T4 index, and free or complete T3 concentrations need to be gauged to distinguish between subclinical hyperthyroidism (with normal circulating hormones) and overt hyperthyroidism (with raised thyroid hormones). It additionally determines disorders with enhanced thyroid hormonal agent concentrations and normal or only slightly increased TSH concentrations, as in patients with TSH-secreting pituitary adenomas or peripheral resistance to thyroid hormone [12]. The techniques favored for evaluating the root cause of thyrotoxicosis vary extensively. Various

populace attributes, cultural histories, and socioeconomic factors partially clarify these distinctions. American Thyroid Association (ATA) and American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists (AACE) guidelines for hyperthyroidism and thyrotoxicosis advise a thyroid radioactive iodine uptake examination, unless the diagnosis of Graves' disease is established clinically [13]. Using thyroid ultrasound and assessment of TSH-receptor antibodies (TRAb; ie, thyroid-stimulating immunoglobulins, or thyroid-stimulating antibodies) are preferred in Europe, Japan, and Korea. The US guidelines think about measurement of TRAb as a different way to identify Graves' disease, specifically when the radioactive iodine uptake test is unavailable or contraindicated. This suggestion is shared by the Brazilian Thyroid Consensus that consider TRAb screening helpful only in selected situations and prefer radioactive iodine uptake for primary assessment of thyrotoxicosis [14]. In our medical method, we comply with the approach of our European and Asian colleagues, using ultrasound and TRAb measurements.

A thyroid radioactive iodine uptake test in patients with Graves' disease would reveal diffusely increased uptake. Nevertheless, radioactive iodine uptake would be normal or high with an unbalanced and irregular pattern in harmful multinodular goitre, and a localized and focal pattern in harmful adenoma, with reduced uptake in the remaining thyroid tissue. Radioactive iodine uptake in patients with thyrotoxicosis from extrathyroidal sources of thyroid hormone or from launch of preformed thyroid hormones, as in silent or unpleasant thyroiditis, will certainly be extremely low.

- **Complications seen in hyperthyroidism**

Clinical manifestation differs depending on numerous factors, such as the patient's age and sex, comorbidities, period of the disease, and cause. Older patients present with fewer and less

pronounced symptoms than do younger patients [15], however are more probable to establish cardiovascular complications. When compared to individuals older compared to 60 years with a healthy thyroid, those who are hyperthyroid have three times the risk of atrial fibrillation [16]. Embolic stroke pertaining to atrial fibrillation additional to hyperthyroidism is considerably more prevalent than embolic stroke related to atrial fibrillation from non-thyroidal reasons. Nevertheless, anticoagulant treatment in patients with atrial fibrillation secondary to hyperthyroidism is still debated. Atrial fibrillation is also believed to be an independent predictor of the development of congestive heart failure in patients with hyperthyroidism. An enhanced danger of all-cause mortality was reported in patients with hyperthyroidism, with heart failure being the primary reason for cardiovascular occasions [17].

An additional serious complication related to hyperthyroidism is thyrotoxic periodical paralysis. It is more common in Asian patients: incidence varieties from 0 - 2% in North America to 2% in Japan [18]. It is characterised by the triad of muscle paralysis, acute hypokalaemia, and thyrotoxicosis, and triggered by a change of potassium into the muscle cells. Mutations in potassium channels, which are transcriptionally regulated by thyroid hormones, might be responsible for the illness. If thought, treatment with low doses of potassium and non-selective β blockers ought to be started as soon as possible to prevent arrhythmias and restore muscle function.

Other difficulties of long-lasting thyrotoxicosis include osteoporosis and irregularities in the reproductive system, such as gynaecomastia in males and decreased fertility and menstruation irregularities in women [19].

Table 1. Pathophysiologic Effects of Thyroid Hormones [9].

System	Hypersecretion
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Basal metabolic rate (BMR)/ temperature regulation	BMR above normal Increased body temperature Heat intolerance Increased appetite Weight loss Increased sensitivity to catecholamines, which may lead to elevated blood pressure
Cardiac	Increased heart rate Increased stroke volume Increased cardiac output Wide pulse pressure Possible palpitations Elevated blood pressure Heart failure if prolonged
Central nervous	Irritability Restlessness Insomnia
Gastrointestinal	Excessive GI motility Diarrhea Increased secretion of digestive juices
Respiratory	Increased utilization of oxygen Increased rate of carbon dioxide production Increased rate and depth of respirations
Skeletal	Excessive skeletal growth initially followed by early epiphyseal closure and short stature
Muscular	Muscle atrophy and weakness secondary to excess protein catabolism

• Treatment

The three options for managing patients with hyperthyroidism are antithyroid medicines (ATDs), radioactive iodine ablation, and surgical treatment. All three restorative alternatives would certainly be effective in the treatment of patients with Graves' illness, whereas patients with harmful adenoma or toxic multinodular goitre need to have either radioactive iodine therapy or surgery, because these patients rarely go into remission [20]. In patients with toxic nodular goitre, ATDs are generally utilized to restore euthyroidism prior to definitive therapy with surgery or

radioactive iodine, and infrequently used as long-lasting therapy when the other two treatments are contraindicated or the patient has a short life span.

Antithyroid drugs

The antithyroid thionamide drugs are propylthiouracil, thiamazole, and carbimazole. All are proactively transported right into the thyroid where they inhibit iodide oxidation and organification by inhibiting thyroid peroxidase and the coupling of the iodotyrosines to synthesise T4 and T3 [21]. Carbimazole is available in some European and Asian nations and is converted to the active form, thiamazole, with similar properties to thiamazole. Propylthiouracil in big doses, however not thiamazole, decreases the conversion of T4 to T3 in peripheral tissues by inhibiting the external ring deiodinase of T4 [22]. These drugs may likewise have anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects.

ATA/AACE standards recommend thiamazole as the preferred medication in Graves' illness. The exceptions are treatment throughout the initial trimester of pregnancy and in patients with adverse responses to thiamazole. Thiamazole has several benefits over propylthiouracil, such as better efficacy; longer half-life and duration of activity, permitting once-daily dosing compared with 2 to 3 times everyday dosing of propylthiouracil; and less severe side-effects. Records of liver damages in patients that had obtained propylthiouracil prompted the ATA and the US Food and Drug Administration to reassess the function of propylthiouracil in the management of Graves' disease, advising versus propylthiouracil as the first-line therapy. Although combined early therapy with ATD and potassium iodide has been suggested, this technique is not generally recommended [23].

Radioactive iodine therapy

Radioactive iodine treatment is safe and affordable and can be the first-line therapy for Graves' disease, toxic adenoma, and toxic multinodular goitre. Absolute contraindications consist of pregnancy, breastfeeding, planning maternity, and lack of ability to comply with radiation security suggestions. In patients with thyroid nodules whose biopsy examples are suspicious for or diagnostic of thyroid cancer, radioactive iodine is contraindicated and surgery is recommended [25]. Radioactive iodine therapy has been revealed to be in charge of de-novo advancement or worsening of Graves' orbitopathy, although others disagree. A meta-analysis reported an increased risk of worsening Graves' orbitopathy in patients that obtained radioactive iodine therapy compared to those who obtained ATD (relative risk [RR] 4•23, 95% CI 2•04–8•77), and a slightly increased risk compared with surgery (RR 1•59; 0•89–2•81)[24]. Therefore, radioactive iodine therapy is contraindicated in patients with active moderate-to-severe or sight-threatening Graves' orbitopathy [25]. In patients with mild active Graves' orbitopathy, radioactive iodine therapy need to be complied with by prophylactic steroid treatment (0,3- 0,5 mg/kg of prednisone daily, starting 1-3 days after radioactive iodine and tapered over 3 months). Patients with inactive Graves' orbitopathy, but no danger aspects, can be given radioactive iodine treatment without corticosteroids [25]. Risk factors for advancement and worsening of Graves' orbitopathy after radioactive iodine treatment consist of smoking, high pretreatment T3 concentrations (≥ 5 nmol/L), high TRAb titres, and unattended hypothyroidism after radioactive iodine therapy. The requirement for glucocorticoid prophylaxis in patients with threat factors yet with inactive or without pre-existing Graves' orbitopathy is debated.

Thyroidectomy

Thyroidectomy is one of the most effective therapy for Graves' hyperthyroidism [26]. Total thyroidectomy is recommended, because the frequency of effective results are considerably greater than with subtotal thyroidectomy without any differences in the rate of difficulties [27]. Thyroidectomy is specifically suggested in patients with the complying with characteristics: big goitres or low uptake of radioactive iodine (or both); presumed or documented thyroid cancer; moderate-to-severe ophthalmopathy, for which contaminated iodine therapy is contraindicated; and finally, a preference for surgery [25]. Conversely, thyroidectomy needs to be avoided in patients who are bad surgical candidates. Pregnancy is just believed to be a relative contraindication.

Conclusion:

Treatment of hyperthyroidism has not changed greatly in the past several decades. Choices are between long-term treatment, with risk of relapse, or destruction of the thyroid gland with subsequent hypothyroidism. ATDs are a conservative alternative, however, thyroidectomy and radioactive iodine therapy are definitive therapies, but with subsequent hypothyroidism requiring lifetime treatment with thyroid hormone replacement. The final decision often is, and should be, based on the preference and experience of both patient and physician. It for that reason is important to inform the patient as objectively as possible about advantages and disadvantages of the therapeutic options to reach a mutual agreement regarding the option of therapy. It is recognized increasingly that the choice of therapy also should be based on an evaluation of cost and quality of life. A variety of researches suggest that most thyroid conditions, not just Graves' ophthalmopathy, considerably affect the everyday life of these patients. Future study should be guided towards a better understanding of the pathogenesis of hyperthyroidism to direct therapy at

the underlying cause of the hyperthyroidism and to get a cure that is safe, conservative, and definitive.

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