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Neuropsychological Development in Children of Mothers with Hypothyroidism Is Normal When Euthyroidism Is Achieved after Conception

Downing S, Halpern L, Carswell J, Brown RS. Severe early maternal hypothyroidism corrected prior to the third trimester associated with normal cognitive outcome in the offspring. Thyroid 2012;22:625-30. Epub May 10, 2012.

Background

Concern about potential harmful effects of early maternal hypothyroidism (MH) on fetal brain development has led to calls for universal screening early in, or even before, pregnancy. However, evidence in humans that adverse effects are irreversible if thyroid-hormone replacement is initiated after the first trimester is limited. The authors sought to determine the outcome if treatment is given in early pregnancy.

Methods

The authors identified three women who had TSH receptor blocking antibody-induced MH during pregnancy and were treated with levothyroxine (L-T₄), starting at 27 weeks, 5 weeks, and the first month of gestation. The corresponding pretreatment serum TSH levels in the 2 women in whom data were available were 68 mU/L at 25 weeks of gestation and 65 mU/L at 24 weeks of gestation, falling, in each case to 6 mU/L. The third woman with MH required 0.5 mg of L-T₄ to normalize her thyroid hormone levels by 4 months of gestation. Their infants were also treated with L-T₄ after neonatal screening identified congenital hypothyroidism (CH). A battery of neuropsychological tests was administered to assess intelligence, language, memory, and visualmotor performance. All testing of these three infants at 5.4 years of age (range, 5.1 to 6.1) and of three sibling controls at 6.8 years (range, 9.1 to 3.0) was performed by two experienced pediatric clinical psychologists who had no knowledge of the maternal thyroid function during pregnancy.

Results

Children born to women with MH had average or above average results on all parameters. Comparative scores of the neuropsychological tests in sibling *continued on next page*

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pairs for full-scale IQ and performance IQ were variable; some scores were higher and some lower in children with CH.

Conclusions

Although the findings do not exclude a subtle impact of MH on intellectual function during early gestation, the normal cognitive outcome despite overt MH should provide data with which to counsel mothers who have overt hypothyroidism early in pregnancy. Aggressive thyroid-hormone replacement as soon as possible is important, but early termination of the pregnancy because of fear that the baby will have significant cognitive delay is not warranted.

ANALYSIS AND COMMENTARY • • • • •

Low intelligence quotient (IQ) scores in children of pregnant women with poorly treated hypothyroidism have been of great concern to health care professionals and to the lay population. Very early reports of cretinism in infants of women with hypothyroidism were related to severe iodine deficiency and/or maternal hypothyroidism (1). In 1999, Haddow et al., in a retrospective study, found that a group of children born to women with untreated hypothyroidism had a 7-point deficit in their IQ at 7 to 9 years of age as compared with matched children from mothers whose serum TSH levels were within reference range (2). However, the deficit was only 4 points (not statistically significant) when children of mothers with treated and untreated hypothyroidism were compared with controls. Hypothyroidism is not uncommon in pregnancy; the prevalence of newly diagnosed hypothyroidism in pregnancy is 2% to 4%. In addition, the incidence of hypothyroidism diagnosed in pregnancy in women undergoing L-T₄ therapy antedating pregnancy has been reported to be between 20% and 40% at the first obstetrical visit (3). Therefore, it has been recommended to advise women on L-T₄ therapy to add two extra tablets per week of the usual L-T₄ dose when pregnancy is confirmed (4), or as an alternative, to have a serum TSH <1.2 mIU/L before planning pregnancy (5). Since the placental transfer of maternal thyroid hormones to the embryo in early pregnancy is very well accepted (6), the question of diagnosing hypothyroidism via universal screening in early pregnancy became a heated argument in the medical community, although recent guidelines by the ATA (7) and the Endocrine Society (8) recommend

selective screening in women considered to be at risk, supporting early statements by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (9). As mentioned by Downing et al., every health care professional caring for pregnant women affected by hypothyroidism had the experience of a patient requesting an early termination of pregnancy. Several publications in the past few months brought some good news for children from mothers with hypothyroidism. Lazarus et al., in a large study of mothers with subclinical hypothyroidism, in which half of them received L-T₄ replacement therapy and the other half served as controls, concluded that antenatal screening (at a median gestational age of 12 weeks 3 days) with treatment of the women for hypothyroidism did not result in improved cognitive function in children at 3 years of age (10). In other studies from Japan, the children of mothers with hypothyroidism whose L-T₄ treatment was started after the second half of pregnancy had neurodevelopment cognitive scores similar to their siblings who were born when their mothers were euthyroid throughout pregnancy (11, 12). As stated by Downing et al., "Although further data are required to exclude a more subtle impact on cognitive function, the present findings, together with other studies in the medical literature, do not support widespread concern that affected infants whose mothers are treated after the first trimester of pregnancy will have significant intellectual delay as long as maternal thyroid function is normalized before the third trimester. Larger randomized control trials of patients with early MH are necessary to exclude a more subtle impact on neurocognitive function."

- Jorge H. Mestman, MD

Neuropsychological Development in Children of Mothers with Hypothyroidism Is Normal When Euthyroidism Is Achieved after Conception

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Exposure to Methimazole during the First Trimester of Pregnancy Increases the Risk of Congenital Anomalies

Yoshihara A, Noh, J, Yamaguchi T, Ohye H, Sato S, Sekiya K, Kosuga Y, Suzuki M, Matsumoto M, Kunii Y, Watanabe N, Mukasa K, Ito K, Ito K. Treatment of Graves' disease with antithyroid drugs in the first trimester of pregnancy and the prevalence of congenital malformation. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. April 30, 2012 [Epub ahead of print]. doi: 10.1210/jc.2011-2860.

Background

Several reports have suggested that propylthiouracil (PTU) may be safer than methimazole (MMI) for treating thyrotoxicosis during pregnancy because congenital malformations have been associated with the use of MMI during pregnancy. The authors investigated whether infants exposed in utero to antithyroid drugs had a higher rate of major malformations than infants born to a control group of pregnant women.

Methods

The authors reviewed the records of 6941 women with Graves' disease who became pregnant between January 1, 1999, and December 31, 2010; the pregnancy outcome of 6744 (97%) women was known. The diagnosis of Graves' disease was based on the clinical examination and laboratory data. There were 5967 live births, 30 perinatal losses, 657 miscarriages, and 90 abortions. All of the deliveries were attended by obstetricians. During each mother's first visit after delivery, a physician interviewed her about the congenital malformations diagnosed by the obstetricians. If a malformation was reported, the doctor corresponded with the gynecologist to determine whether there were any life-threatening anomalies in the fetus. The authors classified mothers and infants into three groups according to whether the mothers received treatment with MMI only, PTU only, or no medication (control group) in the first trimester of pregnancy (0 to 12 weeks' gestation). FT_4 was evaluated during the first trimester of pregnancy.

Results

During the first trimester of pregnancy, 1426 women were treated with MMI alone and 1578 with PTU

alone; 2065 women received no medication and served as the control group. The remaining 1675 women had been treated with potassium iodide (394 women), levothyroxine (838), or more than one drug during the first trimester (443). Of the 2065 women in the control group, 1695 were in remission after treatment with antithyroid drugs for Graves' disease before their pregnancy, and the rest had received radioiodine ablation therapy. The mean $(\pm SD)$ dose of MMI was 5.0±8.1 mg/day and PTU 100±113 mg/ day. The overall rate of congenital malformation was 2.5% (152 of 5997 infants). The rate of malformed infants born to the women in the MMI group was 4.1% (50 of 1231 infants) as compared with 1.9% (26 of 1399) in the PTU group and 2.1% (40 of 1906 infants) in the control group. The overall rate of major malformations in the MMI group was significantly higher than in the control group (P = 0.002, Fisher's exact test), but there was no increase in the overall rate of major anomalies in the PTU group as compared with the control group (P = 0.709). The dosage of the antithyroid drug did not differ significantly according to whether or not the mothers delivered a child with a congenital malformation. With multivariate logistic-regression analysis, the mothers treated with MMI during pregnancy had higher odds of giving birth to an infant with a congenital malformation (odds ratio [OR], 2.28; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.54 to 3.33; P = 0.0002) than mothers who did not receive any medication for the treatment of Graves' disease. On the other hand, no increased risk of giving birth to an infant with a congenital malformation was found among the mothers treated with PTU (OR, 0.66; 95% CI, 0.41 to 1.03; P = 0.079). Aplasia cutis congenita, omphalocele, or omphalomesenteric duct anomaly were reported in continued on next page

20/1231 babies from mothers being treated with MMI and in none from mothers treated with PTU or in those from the control group. Two mothers whose infants were born with an omphalocele took MMI up to 7 weeks' gestation, one mother switched to PTU and the other to potassium iodide. One mother who switched to PTU at 9 weeks' gestation delivered a baby with aplasia cutis congenita and omphalomesenteric anomaly. Multivariate analysis, which included maternal treatment during the first trimester of pregnancy, maternal thyroid status, and maternal age, showed that maternal thyroid status had no effect on the rate of giving birth to an infant

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with a congenital malformation (OR, 0.86; 95% CI, 0.63 to 1.1; P = 0.28).

Conclusions

Exposure to MMI during the first trimesterof pregnancy increased the risk of congenital anomalies, including the risk of the rare anomalies aplasia cutis congenita, omphalocele, and a symptomatic omphalomesenteric duct anomaly. It seems preferable to treat Graves' disease with PTU because it appears to be safer to use during the childbearing years; however, the reported risk of hepatotoxicity in both the mother and the child is a concern.

ANALYSIS AND COMMENTARY • • • • • •

For many years and without good scientific evidence, PTU was considered to be the drug of choice in the management of hyperthyroidism in pregnancy. Risk of a rare skin lesion, aplasia cutis congenita (1), and less maternal transplacental passage to the fetus favored PTU over MMI. However, studies comparing the two drugs showed an equal therapeutic response (2, 3). The overall incidence of congenital malformations due to MMI is very low, and some authors even suggested that poorly treated maternal hyperthyroidism could be the culprit for these abnormalities (4). Nevertheless, a specific methimazole embryopathy has been described, and reports with a few cases are published regularly. Recently, severe liver toxicity due to PTU administration, including hepatic coma, death, and the need for liver transplantation, has been revisited (5). The ATA (6) has strongly recommended limiting the use of PTU to special circumstances, such as thyroid storm, allergy to MMI, and the first trimester of pregnancy. Some physicians are reluctant to switch from MMI to PTU during early pregnancy and then back to MMI because of the potential difficulty of maintaining maternal euthyroidism, in view of the uncertainty of the equivalence in potency between PTU and MMI. Yoshihara et al. reported from Japan the largest series of pregnant women with hyperthyroidism who were exposed to either PTU or MMI in the first trimester of pregnancy and compared the rate of congenital malformations with a control group of euthyroid women with Graves' disease who were receiving no antithyroid drug therapy. This is an important study because in a 10-year period almost 6000 pregnant women from one institution were studied, and the investigators were able to obtain information on drug exposure and congenital anomalies in the offspring. Their results confirmed the reported specific anomalies in infants exposed to MMI in the first trimester of pregnancy; the reported high incidence of aplasia cutis congenita is of interest because some studies showed an incidence similar to that in the general population (7). The low incidence of choanal atresia and esophageal atresia (one infant) in their population is explained by the authors as the result of a low frequency of these anomalies in Japan. Another interesting observation is the lack of correlation between thyroid status in the first trimester of pregnancy and congenital abnormalities; this obsercontinued on next page

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vation is pertinent because of a recent publication of neonatal dysplasia of the hip in infants born from mothers with hyperthyroidism, irrespective of the cause (8). In summary, Yoshihara et al. present strong evidence for using PTU as the antithyroid drug of choice in the first trimester of pregnancy.

— Jorge H. Mestman, MD

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Several Forms of Renal Disease May Be Associated with Thyroid Autoimmune Disease

Kocak G, Huddam B, Azak A, Ortabozkoyun L, Duranay M. Coexistent findings of renal glomerular disease with Hashimoto's thyroiditis. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 2012;76:759-62.

SUMMARY • • • • • • •

BACKGROUND

The coexistence of Hashimoto's thyroiditis and Graves' disease (1) with other autoimmune diseases (AID) is well established and possibly more frequent in adolescent and young adults than in later life (2). Furthermore, most textbooks mention the association with adrenal insufficiency, disseminated lupus, psoriasis, type 1 diabetes and other AID. Occasionally, the coexistence of thyroid AID with renal disease has been reported. Yet all these associations are rare events, perhaps with the exception of the association of type 1 diabetes with thyroid autoimmune disease. The present article reports on an unusually large series of cases of renal involvement in Hashimoto's thyroiditis.

METHODS AND RESULTS

From 2007 to 2011, 28 patients with Hashimoto's disease were referred to the department of nephrology in an Ankara hospital because of unexplained hematuria, proteinuria, or renal impairment. Patients with a history of kidney stones, systemic vasculitis, connective-tissue disease, or diabetes mellitus were excluded from the present study. Renal biopsies were performed in 20 patients. In 8 patients, the renal abnormalities were transient and did not need to be biopsied. The mean (±SD) age of patients was 46±17 years; 18 women and 10 men were affected. The glomerular filtration rate (GFR) was below 60 ml/min/1.73 m2 of body-surface area in 43% of the patients. Hematuria was found in 39% and proteinuria in 86%. Hypertension was present in 57% of patients. There was a significant difference in GFR between recent-onset Hashimoto's thyroiditis (<12 months) and long-standing disease. In early Hashimoto's thyroiditis, the mean GFR was 83 ml/min/1.73 m2, in long-standing disease 55 ml/min/1.73 m2. In 15 to 20% of the patients, renal biopsies showed either focal or membranous glomerulonephritis, immunoglobulin A nephritis, or minimal change disease. There was one case of amyloidosis. Most importantly, there was no correlation between renal function and thyroid antibodies (antithyroglobulin and or anti-TPO antibodies). Sixteen patients (57%) received either angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers. Four patients did not receive antihypertensive treatment because of hypotension or absence of proteinuria. Nevertheless, in 7 of 20 patients, immunosuppressive therapy had to be introduced. The success of treatment was variable but within the frame of treatment responses observed in similar cases of renal diseases without Hashimoto's thyroiditis.

CONCLUSIONS

The study reported on 28 patients with concomitant Hashimoto's thyroiditis and renal glomerular disease. There was no association between thyroid antibody titer and renal function. This is a novel and important finding because so far only sporadic isolated cases have been described. The response of the glomerular disease to therapeutic interventions did not differ from that in patients without Hashimoto's thyroiditis. No data concerning a possible link between thyroid antibody immune complexes and glomerular disease are available. The authors do not comment on possible intrarenal immune complexes with antithyroglobulin or anti-TPO antigenicity. It is not clear whether they tested this possibility. Apparently, the treatments for the renal disease did not differ from those in patients without Hashimoto's thyroiditis.

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ANALYSIS AND COMMENTARY • • • • •

The association between Hashimoto's thyroiditis and renal glomerular disease was first recognized a few years ago. It is, however, most difficult to obtain quantitative information about the frequency of this association. Even the present article leaves this question open, since the patients were probably referred from many centers.

The value of this article lies in the large number of cases and in the facts that these were not adolescents or young adults and that there was no correlation between antibody titer and renal involvement. The latter point has to be interpreted cautiously, since antibody titers can fluctuate greatly over time. The finding that long-standing hypothyroidism was associated with more severe renal involvement may hint at a possible causal relationship. Despite the relatively large number of cases, little can be said about the therapeutic response, particularly since the data relating to the response is difficult to understand.

The clinician must realize that a causal relationship between renal disease and Hashimoto's thyroiditis is, at present, no more than an unproven hypothesis, since statistical proof is lacking. Nevertheless, it makes sense to follow the decrease of serum creatinine after starting thyroxine treatment in Hashimoto's thyroiditis, and particularly in cases of coexisting hypertension, to look for any form of renal disease.

- Albert G. Burger, MD

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THYROIDOLOGY

Clinical



A 1.1 GBq (30 mCi) dose of ¹³¹I Is Sufficient for Ablation in the Management of Low-Risk Thyroid Cancer

Schlumberger M, Catargi B, Borget I, Deandreis D, Zerdoud S, Bridji B, Bardet S, Leenhardt L, Bastie D, Schvartz C, Vera P, Morel O, Benisvy D, Bournaud C, Bonichon F, Dejax C, Toubert ME, Leboulleux S, Ricard M, Benhamou E; Tumeurs de la Thyroïde Refractaires Network for the Essai Stimulation Ablation Equivalence Trial. Strategies of radioiodine ablation in patients with low-risk thyroid cancer. N Engl J Med 2012;366:1663-73.

Background

The optimal strategy for ablation of thyroid remnants after thyroidectomy for differentiated thyroid carcinoma is still debatable. The current paper is a French multicenter, randomized, controlled trial comparing four methods for ablation of thyroid remnants in patients with low-risk thyroid carcinoma who have tumors 1 to 4 cm or positive lymph nodes. Essentially, this is a comparison of 30 mCi (1.1 GBq) versus 100 mCi (3.7 GBq) for ablation in either the hypothyroid state or the euthyroid state facilitated by using rhTSH.

Methods

Each patient had total thyroidectomy. Lymph-node dissection was performed in those with evidence of lymph-node involvement and in some patients with no evidence of lymph-node involvement, depending on local practice Patients with aggressive histologic subtypes and those with posttherapy scans that showed disease outside the neck were excluded. The investigators enrolled 752 patients who were randomly assigned to one of the four treatment strategies: 1.1 GBq given with rhTSH, 3.7 GBq given with rhTSH, 1.1 GBq given during hypothyroidism, and 3.7 GBq given during hypothyroidism. Hypothyroidism was induced by withdrawal of levothyroxine for 28 days or triiodothyronine for 14 days.

The number of dropouts in each group was similar, and the number of patients who could be evaluated

in each group varied from 166 to 177. The primary outcome was thyroid ablation assessed at 8 months after radioiodine ablation through the use of neck ultrasonography and determination of the level of rhTSH–stimulated serum thyroglobulin or a diagnostic ¹³¹I total-body scan in patients with detectable antithyroglobulin antibody. The criteria for completeness were negative ultrasound, stimulated Tg <1 ng/ml, and negative radioiodine scan in those with positive antibody levels. Secondary outcomes were assessment of hypothyroidism and quality of life using quantitative scales. TNM staging was similar in the four groups. About 18% had positive nodes and another 12% had tumors larger than 2 cm.

Results

Thyroid ablation was considered complete in 92% of the 684 patients. There was no difference in the rates of complete ablation among the four groups.

In regard to secondary outcomes, thyroid hormone withdrawal at the time of ablation was associated with symptoms of hypothyroidism and a poorer quality of life, but there was no difference in these assessments between the groups when analyzed 3 months after ablation when all patients were taking levothyroxine.

Conclusions

The use of a low dose, 1.1 GBq (30 mCi) ¹³¹I, is probably sufficient for ablation in the management of low-risk thyroid cancer.

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Schlumberger M, et al.

A 1.1 GBq (30 mCi) dose of ¹³¹I Is Sufficient for Ablation in the Management of Low-Risk Thyroid Cancer

ANALYSIS AND COMMENTARY • • • • •

This excellent study shows that 30 mCi ¹³¹I is as successful as 100 mCi for ablation of residual thyroid tissue. A major factor that contributes to the success of the low dose is the surgical procedure of complete thyroidectomy. This could account for the higher ablation rate of 92% in this study as compared with lower rate of approximately 80% in older studies (1).

Not surprisingly, hypothyroid symptoms and reduced quality of life occurred in the hypothyroid state, as previously reported (2), but these were reversible with levothyroxine therapy. After preparation with rhTSH, 58.5% had serum Tg \leq 1 ng/ml; after thyroid hormone withdrawal, only 38% had Tg \leq 1 ng/ml.

This finding suggests to me that the stimulatory effect of thyroid hormone withdrawal on residual thyroid cells is much more potent than that of rhTSH, suggesting that there is an advantage to the therapy after withdrawal of thyroid hormone. This must be balanced against the disadvantage of more radiation toxicity related to a higher total body dose for similar ¹³¹I doses in patients prepared with thyroid hormone withdrawal as compared with rhTSH (3,4).

Unfortunately the paper does not state whether patients were on a low-iodine diet, a practice that is followed routinely in the United States.

- Jerome M. Hershman, MD

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Core Needle Biopsy Is Useful for Diagnosis of Thyroid Nodules after Previous FNA Biopsy was Nondiagnostic

Samir AE, Vij A, Seale MK, Desai G, Halpern E, Faquin WC, Parangi S, Hahn PF, Daniels GH. Ultrasound-guided percutaneous thyroid nodule core biopsy: clinical utility in patients with prior nondiagnostic fine-needle aspirate. Thyroid 2012;22:461-7. Epub February 3, 2012.

Background

Ultrasound-guided FNA of thyroid nodules is nondiagnostic in 5 to 20% of cases, resulting in uncertainty about the presence of malignancy. Core needle biopsies have been used in other areas, but have not been recommended for thyroid nodules that are nondiagnostic on FNA. The current study explores the clinical utility of combined ultrasound-guided thyroid FNA and core needle biopsy (CB) in patients with prior nondiagnostic FNA.

Methods

Records were reviewed for all patients who had combined FNA and CB from 2006 through 2008 at Massachusetts General Hospital. During this 3-year period, 762 (14%) of FNAs were nondiagnostic. Ninety combined FNAs and CBs were performed in 82 patients with nondiagnostic FNAs. The procedures were performed by staff interventional radiologists. For FNA, 25-gauge needles were used. For CB, 20-gauge 6-cm needles with 10- or 20-mm needle throw were used. Preparation included the administration of 5 to 10 ml of subcutaneous and perithyroidal lidocaine. Four to 6 FNAs and 2 to 4 CBs were performed on each nodule. CB samples were placed in formalin and then embedded into paraffin blocks and cut into 5-mm sections.

Results

Nodules ranged in maximal dimension from 0.6 to 4.4

cm, with a mean of 2 cm, but only three nodules were less than 1 cm. There were no reported complications.

The combined procedure yielded a diagnostic result in 87% of the 90 nodules. Both FNA and CB were diagnostic in 37% of nodules; in 40% of nodules, CB was diagnostic when FNA was not; in 10% of nodules, FNA was diagnostic when CB was not. For the combined procedure, the diagnosis was benign in 40%, follicular lesion of undetermined significance in 10%, follicular neoplasm in 31%, suspicious for malignancy or malignant in 5.5% (all of these were determined to be malignant as judged by surgical pathology), and nondiagnostic in 13%.

Twenty-two of the 28 patients with the diagnosis of follicular neoplasm underwent surgery; 2 were malignant, 18 were benign follicular adenomas, and 2 were nodular Hashimoto's thyroiditis. Of the 13% of patients who had nondiagnostic pathology with the combined procedure, 5 had surgery and had benign pathology; the others had stable nodule size on follow-up.

Conclusions

Combined FNA and CB of thyroid nodules is safe and clinically useful in selected patients when a prior FNA reading is nondiagnostic; it should be considered as an alternative to surgery in patients with two prior nondiagnostic FNAs.

continued on next page

Core Needle Biopsy Is Useful for Diagnosis of Thyroid Nodules after Previous FNA Biopsy was Nondiagnostic

ANALYSIS AND COMMENTARY • • • • • •

Core needle biopsy of palpable thyroid nodules was performed in the 1950s and 1960s, usually by trained thyroid surgeons, because of the fear of bleeding complications if a large vessel was lacerated (1). The procedure was not adopted by endocrinologists and was fortunately supplanted by FNA in the 1970s. Refinement of the needles to smaller diameters and the use of ultrasound guidance has now made CB more feasible. Potential advantages of CB are that it can provide more tissue and preserve the cellular architecture. Interventional radiologists have the most experience with CB and performed the procedure in this study. Aside from its technical difficulty, CB has not been widely used because earlier comparative studies of FNA and CB showed no diagnostic advantage for CB (2,3).

In the same issue of Thyroid, a paper from a group in Korea compared the use of CB and FNA for evaluation of 149 nodules that were nondiagnostic or follicular lesion of undetermined significance (FLUS) (4). They used an 18-gauge spring-activated needle and lidocaine anesthesia. They reported that the diagnostic sensitivity of CB was higher than that of FNA in the FLUS category, but this was not statistically significant in the 45 patients who had prior nondiagnostic FNA. They noted no major complications of CB, but there were perithyroidal hematomas in 3.6% and mild transient parenchymal edema in 2.3%. They concluded that CB is more useful than repeat FNA in patients with inconclusive diagnostic results.

The pendulum seems to be swinging back to reconsideration of core biopsy for patients with inconclusive diagnostic results. However, the decision to use CB must be based on multiple factors: the suspicion of malignancy on ultrasound and other clinical features, the availability of expertise in performing CB of thyroid nodules, the need to discontinue anticoagulation, and the potential benefit to the patient.

— Jerome M. Hershman, MD

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More Foci of Thyroid Cancer Metastases Are Identified by Thyroid Hormone Withdrawal than by Use of Recombinant Human TSH

Van Nostrand D, Khorjekar GR, O'Neil J, Moreau S, Atkins FB, Kharazi P, Mete M, Chennupati SP, Burman KD, Wartofsky L. Recombinant human thyroid-stimulating hormone versus thyroid hormone withdrawal in the identification of metastasis in differentiated thyroid cancer with ¹³¹I planar whole-body imaging and ¹²⁴I PET. J Nucl Med. 2012;53:359-62. Epub February 7, 2012.

Background

Recombinant human TSH is approved for diagnostic studies of recurrent thyroid cancer and for preparation for radioiodine ablation of thyroid remnants after thyroidectomy. In some patients with metastatic disease, it has been used as preparation for therapy with ¹³¹I, but there have been no studies of its efficacy compared with that of thyroid hormone withdrawal in a substantial number of patients. The purpose of this study was to compare these two methods of preparation for detection of metastatic foci in patients with a high suspicion of metastatic differentiated thyroid cancer (DTC).

Methods

During the period 2006–2010, patients at the Washington Hospital Center who had high suspicion of recurrent or metastatic DTC, based on an enlarging mass or elevated serum Tg, who were candidates for ¹³¹I therapy were prepared with either thyroid hormone withdrawal (THW) or two injections of 0.9 mg rhTSH. Patients were eating low-iodine diets for 2 weeks, including the time of testing. All patients underwent ¹³¹I whole-body scans 48 hours after receiving 2 mCi ¹³¹I and ¹²⁴I PET/CT scans 48 hours after receiving 1.7 mCi ¹²⁴I. All foci of uptake were categorized by two physicians as physiologic uptake, artifact, or positive for functioning metastases.

Results

Forty patients were evaluated; 24 were prepared with rhTSH and 16 with THW. The mean age, serum Tg, type of cancer, and previous ¹³¹I doses (usually 2) and total gigabecquerels of ¹³¹I did not differ between the two groups. One of 24 patients (4%) had positive foci detected on rhTSH ¹³¹I scans, and 10 of 16 (63%) had positive foci detected on THW ¹³¹I scans (P<0.02). The number of positive foci detected on the rhTSH ¹³¹I and THW ¹³¹I scans were 2 and 58, respectively (P<0.05). Seven of 24 patients (29%) had positive foci detected on rhTSH ¹²⁴I scans, and 10 of 16 (63%) had positive foci detected on THW ¹²⁴I scans (P<0.03). The number of positive foci detected on THW ¹²⁴I scans (P<0.03). The number of positive foci detected on the rhTSH ¹²⁴I and THW ¹²⁴I scans were 17 and 117, respectively (P<0.03).

Conclusions

Significantly more foci of DTC metastases can be identified in patients prepared with THW than in patients prepared with rhTSH.

ANALYSIS AND COMMENTARY • • • • •

This study corroborates the concept that more sustained elevation of serum TSH is necessary to activate the uptake of radioiodine in DTC tissue as compared with the amount of TSH needed for activating normal thyroid tissue. Although the levels of elevated TSH after injection of recombinant TSH are substantial and persist for several days, the pharmacodynamic area under the TSH curve is likely to be much less than that achieved after withdrawal of thyroid hormone for 2 weeks in the case of T_3 or 4 to 6 six weeks in the case of T_4 withdrawal. Aside *continued on next page* More Foci of Thyroid Cancer Metastases Are Identified by Thyroid Hormone Withdrawal than by Use of Recombinant Human TSH

from economic considerations, it would be preferable to use rhTSH in order to avoid symptomatic hypothyroidism. However, this is worthwhile only if the stimulation of rhTSH is effective for activation of thyroid uptake in metastatic tissue. By two methods, this study showed that rhTSH is much less effective than thyroid hormone withdrawal. In a study of lesion dosimetry using ¹²³I in 4 patients with metastatic DTC, Pötzi et al reported that all patients had lesser uptake of ¹²³I under rhTSH stimulation than after hormone withdrawal (1), in agreement with the results of this study.

One criticism of the study is that it was not randomized, although demographic and clinical data in the two groups were very similar. Another criticism is that a tracer dose larger than 2 mCi might have been more effective in showing positive foci with the rhTSH preparation. One could also criticize it because there were no outcome data with regard to the efficacy of radioiodine therapy for elimination of metastases. However, uptake of tracer radioiodine is essential to determine the need for subsequent ¹³¹I therapeutic doses.

The study reinforces my practice of using thyroid hormone withdrawal, rather than rhTSH, for preparation for radioiodine scans when there is a strong suspicion of recurrent disease; the withdrawal also prepares the patient for the therapeutic dose.

- Jerome M. Hershman, MD

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Stimulating the Uptake of ¹³¹I in Multinodular Goiter by Pretreatment with Recombinant Human TSH Improves Patient Outcomes at 5 Years

Fast S, Nielsen VE, Grupe P, Boel-Jørgensen H, Bastholt J, Andersen PB, Bonnema SJ, Hegedüs L. Prestimulation with recombinant human thyrotropin (rhTSH) improves the long-term outcome of radioiodine therapy for multinodular nontoxic goiter. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. May 10, 2012 [Epub ahead of print]. doi:10.1210/jc.2011-3335.

SUMMARY • • • • •

BACKGROUND

If obstructive signs or symptoms develop in a patient with multinodular goiter (MNG)-and the surgical risk is deemed acceptable-surgery at a major referral hospital is the treatment of choice (hyperthyroidism, if present, is usually treated first). If surgery is not feasible, ¹³¹I can be given to reduce goiter size somewhat, although it initially may cause thyroid swelling and increase the release of thyroid hormone, potentially significant side effects. If the goiter is very large or its uptake is low, large doses of ¹³¹I may be required, increasing whole-body radiation and possibly involving the expense of hospitalization. To trv to enhance the effectiveness of ¹³¹I, a number of centers have tried recombinant human TSH (rhTSH) on an experimental basis. It is given a day before ¹³¹I treatment, which increases the uptake of ¹³¹I in areas of the gland where uptake is low, makes the radiation more uniform, and increases the retention of ¹³¹I in the thyroid. It also increases long-term hypothyroidism. The current paper reports 5-year outcome data from two previously published randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled studies on selected patients with MNG from an area of Denmark where iodine intake is moderately deficient (1,2).

METHODS

One of the two earlier papers addressed the effects of rhTSH on patients with goiters <100 ml (measured by ultrasound), while the other paper focused on patients with goiters >100 ml (by MRI). Half the patients in both studies received an injection of 0.3

mg of rhTSH 24 hours before ¹³¹I was given, while the other half received a placebo injection. The inclusion and exclusion criteria between the two studies differed substantially, as did the ¹³¹I doses given. In the first study (1), out of 712 consecutive patents seen from 2002 to 2004 who had "nontoxic" MNG, 57 patients met a variety of inclusion criteria, including having an ¹³¹I uptake of 20% or greater, whereas 99 patients with uptakes less than 20% were excluded. Almost half the patients in this study were subclinically hyperthyroid (TSH <0.1 mU/ml). The ¹³¹I dose was calculated based on the estimated thyroid volume and the effective ¹³¹I half-life: the median dose was 14 mCi in the placebo group and 15.7 mCi in the rhTSH group (the highest dose permitted was 16.2 mCi). After 1 year, the goiters in the placebo group had shrunk by 46%, while those in the rhTSH group had shrunk by 62% (P<0.002). The incidence of hypothyroidism was 5 times greater in the latter patients, who also had 3 times as many adverse events, especially transient hyperthyroidism and cervical discomfort or pain. In the second study, 29 patients with very large nodular goiters who could not or would not undergo surgery were studied (2). Five of the patients had frank hyperthyroidism and were given methimazole until 8 days before the ¹³¹I treatment. The patients' mean baseline 24-hour ¹³¹I uptake was about 35%, and the mean TSH was about 0.2 mU/L. The median ¹³¹I treatment dose was 41 mCi in the placebo group and was 37 mCi in the rhTSH group. (Two patients in the latter group had their ¹³¹I doses restricted to 100 mCi.) After 1 year, the goiters in the placebo group had shrunk from continued on next page

Stimulating the Uptake of ¹³¹I in Multinodular Goiter by Pretreatment with Recombinant Human TSH Improves Patient Outcomes at 5 Years

170 ml to 121 ml, while those in the rhTSH group had shrunk from 151 ml to 72 ml. Two patients given rhTSH required 25 mg of prednisolone for thyroid swelling and tenderness, and one was admitted to the hospital for stridor. Only 2 of 14 in the rhTSH group had no adverse events, whereas 7 of 15 in the placebo group had no adverse events. Hypothyroidism had developed in 1 of 15 patients given placebo and in 3 of 14 patients given rhTSH.

RESULTS

Follow-up data were available on 80 of the 86 patients from the two studies. When the data were combined, the placebo groups' goiters had shrunk another 13% and the rhTSH groups' goiters had shrunk another 10% after 5 years. "Treatment failures" (cases in which patients required subsequent thyroid surgery or additional ¹³¹I treatment) were twice as common in the patients with the large goiters as in those with goiters <100 ml. In the combined placebo groups, 20% (9 of 44) needed additional treatment (surgery in 6, and additional ¹³¹I in 3), whereas in the rhTSH groups, only 5% (2 of 42) needed surgery (P<0.02). Since more of the patients receiving placebo needed additional therapy, their mean follow-up period was slightly shorter (65 months) than that for the rhTSH groups (73 months). On a yes/no question concerning overall satisfaction with the initial therapy: 90% of those who had been given rhTSH and 69% of those given placebo answered "yes"(P = 0.025).

CONCLUSIONS

Five years after treating two highly selected groups of patients with ¹³¹I, patients with MNG who were also given rhTSH had fewer goiter-related symptoms, fewer of them needed additional therapy, and their satisfaction with the initial therapy was higher. The goiter shrinkage remained superior, but the incidence of hypothyroidism was much greater in those who received rhTSH.

ANALYSIS AND COMMENTARY • • • • • •

The title of the article indicates that only patients with "nontoxic" MNGs were studied, but many patients had subclinical or frank hyperthyroidism. All the patients had a basal ¹³¹I uptake of 20% or greater, so their autonomous nodules probably were more active than those in patients with a lower ¹³¹I uptake. However, there are many patients with MNG with a ¹³¹I uptake less than 20%, so it would be interesting to know whether such patients would also respond to rhTSH in this Danish population. Although the data do not address that question directly, several recent smaller studies from Brazil-where iodine intake from 1998 to 2003 was excessive-obtained similar results. These studies used substantially lower doses of rhTSH (≤ 0.1 mg), and the patients' ¹³¹I uptakes were below 20%, even after being on low-iodine diets. A study of 28 patients with MNG (average volume >100 ml by helical CT) who had subclinical hyperthyroidism were treated with methimazole for 3 months (3). The methimazole was discontinued 2 weeks before measuring the basal RAI uptake (which generally remained under 20%), and methimazole was discontinued again for 2 weeks preceding the dose of 30 mCi ¹³¹I. The decrease in thyroid volume was about 40% at 2 years, as compared with a 15% decrease (statistically insignificant) in patients receiving placebo. A different study on 22 patients with MNG who were euthyroid (none with basal TSH levels below 0.21 mU/ml), who ate a low-iodine diet for 2 weeks before getting 30 mCi ¹³¹I, obtained similar results (4). After 1 year, the goiters had shrunk almost 40%, either with a dose of 0.01 mg or 0.1 mg of rhTSH.

Overall, giving rhTSH to patients with MNG seems to double the 24-hour uptake of 131 I, regardless of whether the rhTSH dose is 0.01 mg or 0.9 mg. In *continued on next page*

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contrast, both thyroid swelling and thyroid-hormone levels increase as the rhTSH dose increases from 0.1 mg to 0.9 mg in normal subjects (5). Indeed, a more recent study from the same Danish group did use a lower dose of rhTSH (0.1 mg) and showed that it enhances the efficacy of ¹³¹I in shrinking goiters more than threefold (6). Given that there is continuing restriction in the availability of rhTSH, and recognizing that it is about 10,000 times more valuable than gold, it would seem appropriate on both clinical and financial grounds to use a smaller dose than the 0.3 mg used in the pair of studies analyzed by the current study. A recent study showed that if rhTSH

is reconstituted in PBS containing BSA, its in vitro biologic activity is stable for at least 6 months (7).

It is also worth noting that several other ways to increase the ¹³¹I uptake/retention in MNG have been reported. These include: (1) pretreating patients with methimazole to raise TSH levels, then discontinuing the methimazole before the ¹³¹I treatment, as mentioned above; (2) giving lithium before and after ¹³¹I (8,9); and (3) giving nonradioactive ¹²⁷I after ¹³¹I treatment (10).

— Stephen W. Spaulding, MD

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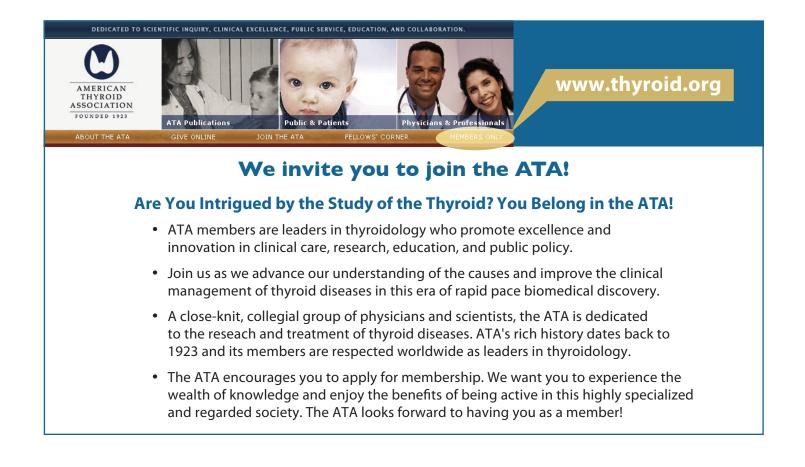
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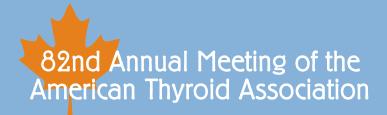
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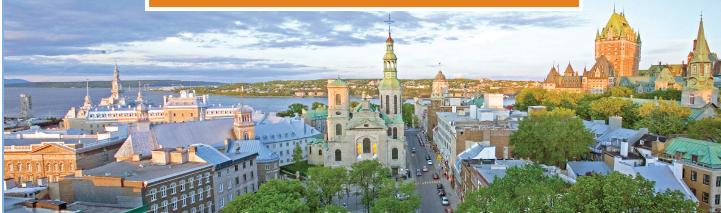
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