

Thyroid Disease

PES Board Review Course in Pediatric Endocrinology – 2025

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Topics to be covered from ABP outline

- **Diffuse thyroid enlargement**
- **Thyroiditis**
- **Acquired hypothyroidism**
- **Thyroid hormone resistance**
- **Thyroid hormone excess**
- **Thyroxine-binding globulin (TBG) deficiency and excess**

Diffuse thyroid enlargement (goiter)



Normal thyroid growth

- **Thyroid gland increased by about 1 gram per year until the age of about 15 y.o.**
- **Adult thyroid gland is approximately 15 to 20 grams**
- **Rapid increase in thyroid volume occurs normally during puberty with maximum growth rate at 12.5 y.o.**

Diffuse thyroid enlargement

- Chronic lymphocytic thyroiditis (Hashimoto)
- Colloid goiter
- Thyroid hormone resistance
- Subacute or acute thyroiditis
- Graves disease
- Congenital hypothyroidism (dyshormonogenesis)
- Iodine deficiency (endemic goiter)
- Excessive iodine ingestion (Wolff-Chaikoff effect)
- Infiltrative disorders
 - Histiocytosis
 - Cystinosis
 - Neoplasms: lymphoma or teratoma
 - Adults: sarcoidosis and amyloidosis (rare in children)

Evaluation of diffuse thyroid enlargement

- **Lab tests: TSH (a.k.a thyrotropin), T4, thyroid antibodies**
- **Imaging**
 - Ultrasound
 - Thyroid scintigraphy/uptake
- **Concerning signs/symptoms would lead to additional imaging and evaluation**
 - Tracheal compression: dyspnea, stridor, cough, choking sensation
 - Vocal cord paralysis: dyspnea, hoarseness

Treatment of euthyroid diffuse thyroid enlargement

- **Conservative management – observation**
- **Surgery**
 - Pros: rapid resolution, able to examine pathology
 - Cons: hypothyroid, hypoparathyroidism, scar, nerve/blood vessel injury (and it's surgery!)
- **Radioactive iodine**
 - Pros: decrease in size, no scar
 - Cons: not a rapid decrease, radiation-induced dysfunction
- **Levothyroxine**
 - Best result if TSH is elevated and positive antibodies, but usually only a small (and often variable) reduction in size
 - Controversial: long-term efficacy unknown, cardiac/bone risk

Thyroiditis

Thyroiditis (= inflammation)

- **Acute suppurative – very, very, very rare**
- **Subacute (de Quervain) – very, very rare**
- **Subacute (lymphocytic) – relatively uncommon**
 - a.k.a. silent or sporadic
 - ??? Hashitoxicosis
- **Chronic – common**
 - a.k.a. Hashimoto thyroiditis

Acute (suppurative) thyroiditis

- **Infectious: bacterial (68%) or fungal (15%) etiology (not viral)**
- **Most common route of infection is from a left pyriform sinus fistula**
- **Signs/symptoms: pain (radiating to ear), tenderness, warmth, fever, dysphagia, and dysphonia; antecedent URI; ↑ CRP and ESR; ↑↑ WBC**
- **2/3 with normal TSH – can also see ↑ TSH and ↓ TSH**
- **Ultrasound → abscess, swelling**
- **Treatment: antibiotics and possible surgery (I&D)**

Subacute (de Quervain) thyroiditis

- Viral (e.g. mumps, adeno, EBV, coxsackie, influenza)
- Most common cause of a painful thyroid gland
- Signs/symptoms: viral prodrome (fever, malaise, myalgia), constant tenderness over entire thyroid; ↑ CRP and ESR; normal to mild ↑ WBC
- Biochemical hyperthyroidism (↓ TSH) in about 50%
- Spontaneous and variable remitting inflammation that lasts for weeks to months → hyperthyroid → euthyroid → hypothyroid → euthyroid or hypothyroid (5-30%)
- Treatment: NSAIDs or glucocorticoids

Subacute (lymphocytic) thyroiditis

- Also known as “silent” or “sporadic” thyroiditis in the adult literature and textbooks
- Hashitoxicosis???
- Transient hyperthyroidism due to lymphocytic invasion and destruction of thyroid tissue
- Variable symptoms but generally mild and intermittent
- 50-60% will have some thyroid enlargement
- Hyperthyroidism → euthyroid and/or hypothyroidism
- Propensity for transient thyroid abnormalities to recur in affected individuals

Chronic thyroiditis

- **Chronic lymphocytic thyroiditis = Hashimoto thyroiditis**
- **The most common cause of diffuse thyroid gland enlargement outside of the newborn period**
- **Variable clinical course**
- **Postpartum thyroiditis**
 - **Destructive thyrotoxicosis (presents by 14 weeks postpartum)**
 - **Usually a transient hypothyroidism → development of persistent hypothyroidism in up to 30% of cases**

Acquired hypothyroidism

Etiologies of hypothyroidism

Primary

- Hashimoto
- Iodine deficiency/excess
- Neck irradiation
 - e.g. Wilms, craniospinal
- Drugs
- Syndromes
- Infiltrative processes
- Cystinosis
- Congenital

Secondary (central)

- Hypopituitarism
- Cranial radiation
- CNS process
 - Tumor, infection, injury
- Isolated TSH β gene mutation

Other

- Hepatic hemangioma
 - \uparrow type 3 deiodinase

Agents and drugs that may interfere with thyroid function

- **Increased clearance:**
 - Phenobarbital
 - Phenytoin
 - Carbamazepine
 - Oxcarbazepine
 - Rifampin
- **Impaired or disrupted peripheral metabolism:**
 - Glucocorticoids
 - Amiodarone
 - PTU
 - Propranolol
- **Effects on thyroid hormone production and secretion:**
 - Iodine-containing products (anti-septics, betadine, IV contrast, etc)
 - Lithium
 - Amiodarone

Agents and drugs that may interfere with thyroid function

- **Effects on the hypothalamic-pituitary-thyroid (HPT) axis:**

- **Decrease TSH**

- Dopamine
 - Dopamine agonists (bromocriptine, cabergoline)
 - Glucocorticoids
 - Opiates
 - Octreotide

- **Increase TSH**

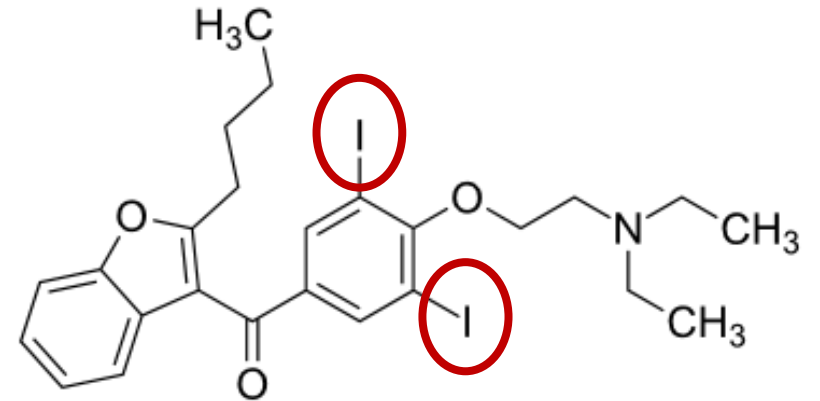
- Hypocortisolism (Addison)
 - Dopamine receptor blockers (metoclopramide)

Iodine effects on thyroid function

- Iodine is the rate-limiting step in thyroid hormone synthesis
- #1 cause of hypothyroidism in the world is due to iodine deficiency
 - Salt has been iodized in the USA since 1924
- Wolff-Chaikoff effect
 - Protective mechanism when the body is exposed to excess amounts of iodine
 - Inhibits organification of iodine: ↓ T4 and T3 synthesis
 - Dose dependent effect that may last weeks or longer → escape

Amiodarone

- Incidence of thyroid dysfunction: up to 24%
- Hypothyroidism
 - Inhibits the conversion of T4 to T3
 - Inhibits thyroid hormone synthesis and secretion (Wolff-Chaikoff effect)
- Occurs most often during the first year of treatment
- Lipophilic → long half-life (about 100 days)
 - Total body iodine stores do not return to normal for 6 to 9 months after stopping the medication



Amiodarone

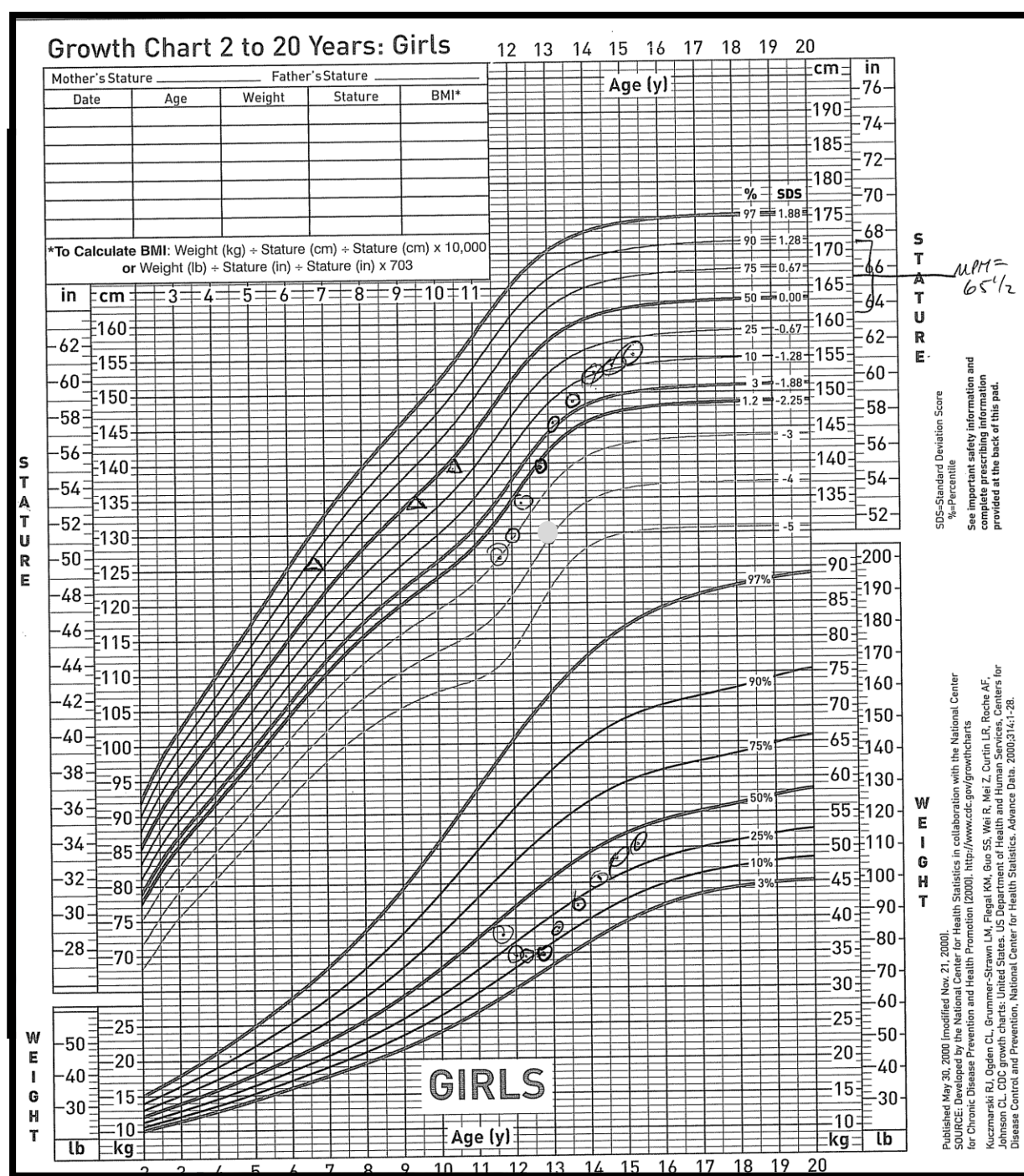
- Hyperthyroidism can also occur but it is less common than hypothyroidism
- Occurs on average after about 3 years of treatment
- **Type 1**
 - ↑ iodine leads to ↑ T4 production
 - Underlying autoimmune thyroid disease (+Abs); enlarged nodular thyroid
- **Type 2**
 - Inflammatory process causing thyroid damage (↑ IL-6)
 - Normal thyroid size; normal ultrasound

Lithium

- **Hypothyroidism** and goiter are the most common thyroid problems in individuals treated with lithium
 - Inhibits thyroid hormone synthesis and secretion
 - Increased autoimmune thyroid disease
- Very infrequent occurrence of **hyperthyroidism**
 - Most commonly a transient and painless thyroiditis
 - Also reports of induced thyroid autoimmunity

Cystinosis

- Rare autosomal recessive lysosomal storage disease
- Most common hereditary cause of renal Fanconi syndrome in children
- Cystine and crystal formation builds up in various tissues
 - Thyroid follicular cells → fibrosis and atrophy
- Common to see subclinical hypothyroidism in children
- Hypothyroidism occurs in >50% of patients by the 2nd decade of life



Clinical and lab findings in acquired hypothyroidism*

- Reduced heart rate and decreased cardiac contractility
- Delayed relaxation phase of DTRs
- Dry skin (↓ sweat and sebaceous gland activity)
- Periorbital puffiness, non-pitting edema (hyaluronic acid)
- Hypercholesterolemia (↑ LDL)
- Hyponatremia (increased total body water)
- Anemia (↓ erythropoietin, ↓ oxygen requirement)
- Elevated creatine kinase and LDH (from skeletal muscle)
- Reduced GFR
- Elevated liver transaminases

*** Clinical features of central hypothyroidism are milder than primary hypothyroidism**

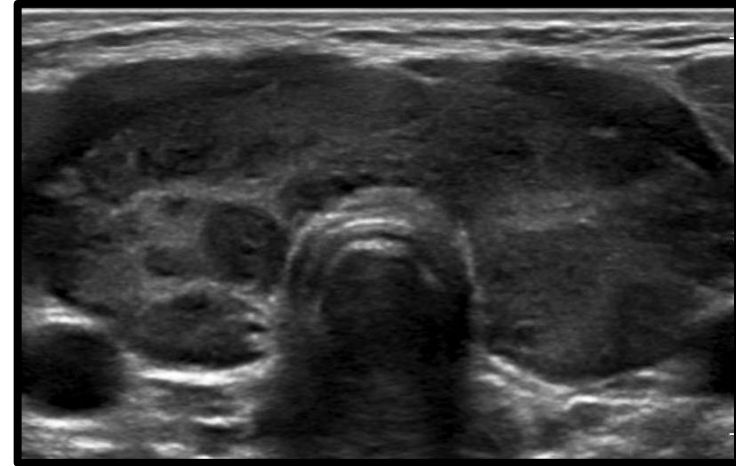
Endocrine abnormalities in acquired primary hypothyroidism

- **Elevated prolactin**
 - Due to TRH stimulation from the hypothalamus
- **Delayed puberty / irregular periods**
 - Altered and blunted LH pulsatility
 - Elevated prolactin
- **Pseudoprecocious puberty (van Wyk-Grumbach syndrome)**
- **Decreased and impaired spontaneous GH secretion**

Exam and imaging in Hashimoto thyroiditis

- **Physical exam**

- Diffuse enlargement
- Irregular cobblestone texture
- Asymmetry (may mimic a nodule)



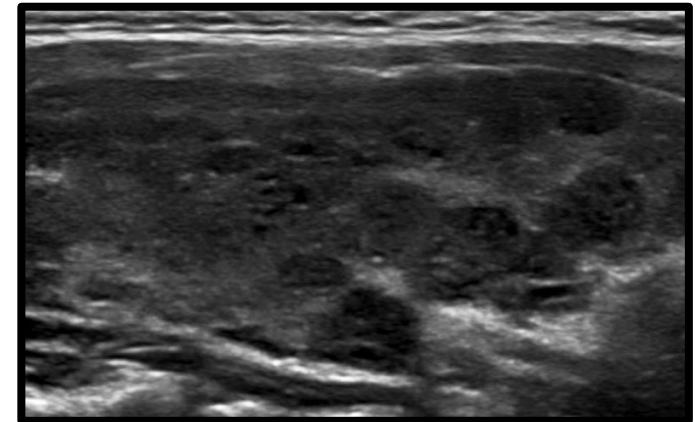
- **Imaging characteristics**

- **Ultrasound:**

- Diffusely enlarged with heterogeneous echotexture
- Hypoechoic micronodules (1-6 mm)

- **Nuclear imaging:**

- Early disease can have increased uptake
- Most common to see decreased, patchy uptake



Patient populations at increased risk for autoimmune thyroid disease

- Down syndrome (about 40% with + antibodies)
 - Prevalence of antibodies increase with age, especially after 6 y.o.
- Turner syndrome (about 30% with + antibodies)
- Type 1 diabetes mellitus (about 25% with + antibodies)

Association of Hashimoto with other autoimmune diseases

- Autoimmune polyglandular (polyendocrine) syndrome, **type 1** – *AIRE*
 - Mucocutaneous candidiasis (1st sign – typically before 5 y.o.; >80%)
 - Hypoparathyroidism (usually before puberty or by 10 y.o.; 75-85%)
 - Addison disease (usually in adolescence or by 15 y.o.; 60-70%)
 - Other features: oophoritis, alopecia, vitiligo, hepatitis, **thyroiditis**, keratitis
- Autoimmune polyglandular (polyendocrine) syndrome, **type 2** – polygenic
 - Addison disease
 - **Autoimmune thyroid disease**
 - Type 1 diabetes
- Other: type 1 diabetes, celiac disease, IPEX

Diagnosis of primary hypothyroidism

- **↑ TSH – treatment indicated when TSH > 10**
- **Positive antibodies in Hashimoto thyroiditis**
 - **Thyroid peroxidase (TPO)**
 - **Anti-thyroglobulin**
 - **TPO (90%) is more commonly positive than anti-thyroglobulin antibody (50%)**
 - **About 5-10% may have negative thyroid antibodies**
 - **Antibodies are not functional – just a marker of inflammation**
- **Ultrasound**
 - **Not routinely done in the United States unless there is a palpable nodule, asymmetry, or other clinical concerns**

Frequency of positive thyroid antibodies

- Incidence of thyroid antibodies in the pediatric population is not well characterized
- 10-12% of the adult population (and >30% of elderly adults) have positive thyroid antibodies
- If TSH, T4, and thyroid exam are normal, levothyroxine treatment is not indicated for antibody titer alone
- Waxing and waning course
- About 25% of those children with a positive thyroid antibody will develop hypothyroidism (TSH > 10) requiring levothyroxine

Dosage in primary hypothyroidism

- **Levothyroxine (LT4) tablet monotherapy**
 - Evidence does not support using T3 alone or combination therapy with T4 and T3
- **Neonates: 10-15 mcg/kg/day**
- **3-6 m.o.: 8-10 mcg/kg/day**
- **6-12 m.o.: 6-8 mcg/kg/day**
- **1-3 y.o.: 4-6 mcg/kg/day**
- **3-10 y.o.: 3-4 mcg/kg/day**
- **10-15 y.o.: 2-4 mcg/kg/day**
- **> 15 y.o.: 2-3 mcg/kg/day**



Evidence to support the above statements is lacking – the more important aspect is consistency and regularity in taking the LT4

Levothyroxine treatment

- Half-life of LT4 is about 7 days
- Wait at least 4 to 6 weeks after a dose adjustment to get to a steady state before rechecking TSH
- Goal in primary hypothyroidism is to get the TSH into the normal reference range
- Goal in central hypothyroidism is to get the free T4 into the upper half of the reference range (**about 1.6 mcg/kg/day**)
- Absorption can be affected by: soy, fiber, iron, and calcium

Levothyroxine treatment – prognosis

- Be aware of ultimate outcome of acquired hypothyroidism, including impact of the disorder on the patient's growth and mental development
- Recognize the occurrence of pseudotumor cerebri in some hypothyroid children treated with thyroxine
- Be aware that delay in the treatment of acquired hypothyroidism and overzealous replacement therapy may have an adverse effect on ultimate height
 - Low dose LT4 and slow normalization of TFTs
 - Other interventions have had variable and mixed results

Thyroid hormone deficiency may develop during treatment of GHD

- TSH deficiency (central hypothyroidism) may occur after initiation of GH therapy
- More likely to occur if brain MRI is abnormal and/or baseline T4 or free T4 are on the lower side
- Thought to be due to increased somatostatin secretion in response to pulsed doses of GH
- Check TFTs within 3-4 months after starting GH injections and then annually, or sooner if poor growth velocity and patient is compliant with the GH injections

Thyroid hormone resistance

Thyroid hormone resistance (a.k.a. RTH)

- Mutations in the thyroid hormone receptor β gene
- Precise incidence is unknown
- Estimated prevalence of 1 in 40,000
- Autosomal dominant inheritance
- Rare report of an autosomal recessive inheritance
- De novo mutation occurs about 22% of the time
- 15% of individuals with RTH do not have a detectable mutation in the TR β gene

Thyroid hormone resistance (a.k.a. RTH)

- TR α 1 – CNS, heart, skeletal muscle
- TR α 2 – widely distributed in tissues
- TR β 1 – liver, kidney
- TR β 2 – pituitary, hypothalamus
- Pituitary resistance to thyroid hormone (PRTH) vs. Generalized resistance to thyroid hormone (GRTH)
- Old terms – same condition with same mutations
 - Due to the subjective nature of thyroid symptoms and the poor specificity of thyroid signs
 - Hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism can coexist depending on tissue TR

Clinical findings – RTH

- **Goiter (66-95%)**
- **Tachycardia (33-75%)**
- **ADHD (40-60%)**
- **Hyperkinetic behavior (33-68%)**
- **Emotional disturbances (60%)**
- **Less common: learning disability, developmental delay, short stature, low BMI**
- **Positive family history**
- **Labs: ↑ free T4, ↑ T3, and non-suppressed TSH**

Diagnostic approach – RTH

- **Confirm elevated free T4 by equilibrium dialysis with a non-suppressed TSH**
 - Eliminate lab assay interference: heterophile antibodies, protein binding abnormality
- **Check TFTs in first-degree family members**
- **Sequence TR β gene**
- **If negative gene testing and normal TFTs in first-degree family members, then**
 - Check pituitary glycoprotein α -subunit (r/o TSH adenoma)
 - T3 suppression 3-day test \rightarrow blunted and incomplete TSH suppression with supraphysiologic doses of T3 with negative genetic testing points to nonTR-RTH

Treatment – RTH

- Compensated “euthyroid” state – may not need any treatment
- Recognize the correct diagnosis and avoid unnecessary treatment (e.g. anti-thyroid drugs)
- Atenolol (not propranolol) – for tachycardia, palpitations
- Single large dose of T3 every other day – may be used to reduce thyroid size (surgery is not effective)
- LT4 treatment of infants is controversial and done when
 - Marked elevation of TSH
 - History of adverse events in other affected family members
 - Failure to thrive and/or growth retardation
 - Developmental delays

Thyroid hormone excess

TSH receptor antibodies

- 2 types of antibodies:
 - 1) **Stimulating** → bind to TSH receptor on thyroid follicular cells and lead to autonomous thyroid hormone production
 - 2) **Inhibitory** → bind to TSH receptor and block intracellular signaling
- Radioreceptor assays
 - TSH receptor antibody (TRAb) or TSH-binding inhibitory immunoglobulin (TBII)
 - Measures both stimulating and blocking antibodies
- Bioassays
 - Stimulation of adenyl cyclase in a cell line transfected with the TSH receptor → thyroid stimulating immunoglobulin (TSI)
 - Measures only stimulating antibodies

Neonatal Graves disease

- **Prevalence of neonatal hyperthyroidism in infants of mothers with Graves disease occurs between 1.5-2.5% (one study reported up to 20%)**
- **TRAb are IgG antibodies that readily cross the placenta**
- **The higher the maternal TRAb, the more likely neonatal Graves disease will occur**
 - **Greater than 3.3x the upper limit: 100% sensitive, 43% specific**
- **TRAb should be checked between 20-24 weeks gestation to determine if the fetus is at risk**

Neonatal Graves disease – fetus

- Fetal hyperthyroidism is most commonly detected in the 3rd trimester but can be apparent at the 20 week ultrasound:
 - Goiter (could be from hypothyroidism or hyperthyroidism)
 - Increase thyroid vascularity
 - Tachycardia
 - Heart failure with non-immune hydrops
 - Preterm birth
 - Advanced skeletal maturation
 - Craniosynostosis

Neonatal Graves disease – presentation

- Goiter +/- tracheal compression
- Low birth weight / IUGR, poor weight gain, feeding difficulties, diarrhea
- Stare, periorbital edema, small fontanelle
- Hyperthermia, warm/moist skin, irritability
- Tachycardia, heart failure, hypertension, tachypnea
- Hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, cholestasis
- Thrombocytopenia, hyperviscosity
 - can be confused with sepsis or congenital viral infection
- Mortality rate: up to 20%

Neonatal Graves disease – screening and course

- Overt hyperthyroidism may be present at birth
- Delayed presentation occurs due to TSH-receptor blocking antibodies or maternal anti-thyroid drugs
- >95% of affected infants present between 1 and 29 days of life, and most present within the first 2 weeks
- Check TFTs at 3 to 5 days of life or sooner if clinical concerns
- If normal, repeat TFTs at 10 to 14 days of life
- Clinical assessment at 1 month, 2 months, and 3 months to identify the small population of delayed presentation

Neonatal Graves disease – treatment

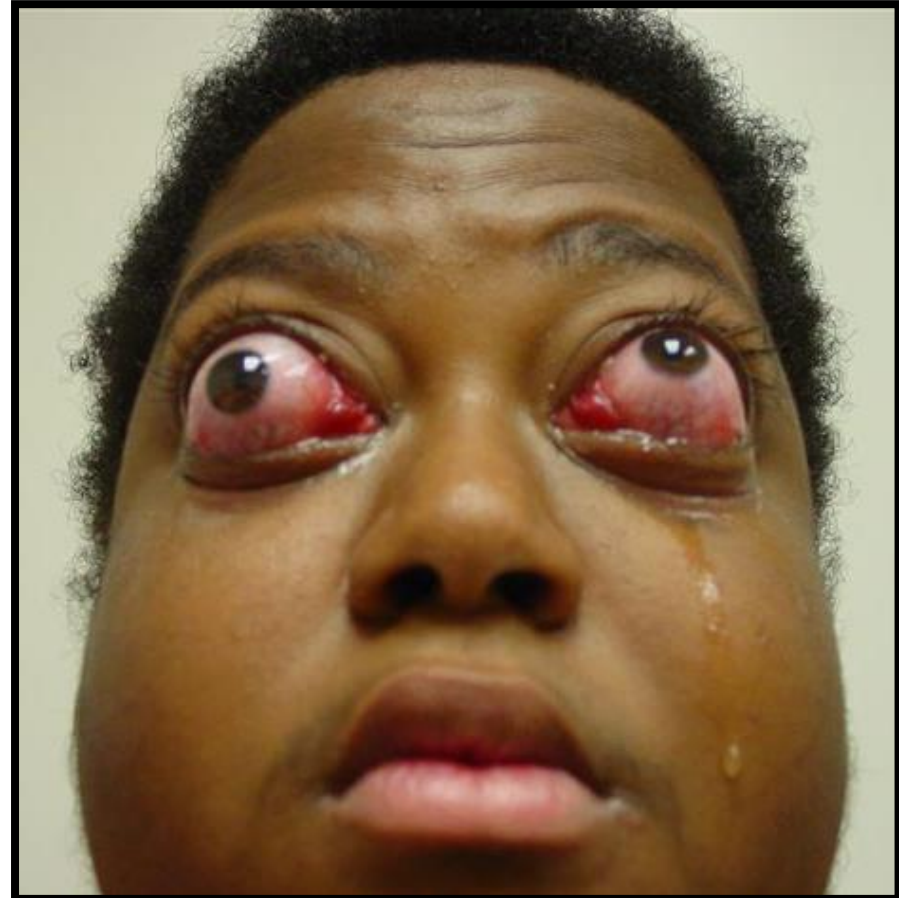
- Treatment of asymptomatic neonates is controversial
- Options for treatment if symptomatic are
 - Methimazole
 - Propranolol
 - Potassium iodide oral solution
 - Prednisolone
- Check labs weekly until stable then every 2 weeks
- Wean methimazole dose when free T4 is in normal range
- Treatment duration is typically 1 to 2 months (but may last longer depending on TRAb level)

Signs/symptoms of Graves disease in children

- **Goiter (>95%)**
- **Increased linear growth**
- **Weight loss, hyperphagia, loose stools**
- **Tachycardia, palpitations, hypertension, wide pulse pressure**
- **Diaphoresis**
- **Tremors, tongue fasciculations, milk maid's grip**
- **Jittery, anxious, "ants in their pants"**
- **Fatigue, exercise intolerance**
- **Irregular menses**

Signs/symptoms of Graves disease in children

- Eye disease is less common in children and adolescents compared to adults
 - Lid lag
 - Corneal dryness
 - Erythema
 - Tearing
 - Strabismus
 - Vision loss



Initial treatment

- **β blockers are used to treat the hyperthyroid symptoms**
- **Propranolol**
 - Blocks T4 \rightarrow T3 conversion
 - Non-selective – blocks β_1 and β_2
- **Atenolol**
 - Once-a-day
 - Cardio-selective (β_1)
- **Metoprolol XR**
 - CNS penetration – useful if having psychosis, anxiety
 - Cardio-selective (β_1)

Medical treatment

- PTU is contraindicated due to hepatotoxicity
- Methimazole (MMI)
 - Dose is 0.1-1.0 mg/kg/day (typical dose: 0.2-0.5 mg/kg/day)
 - Rash is most common adverse event (20%)
 - Bone marrow suppression and liver toxicity are most severe adverse events (<1%)
 - Check CBC and LFTs before starting treatment
- After MMI for 12-24 months, remission rate is 20-30%
- Low chance of remission if large thyroid, young age, more severe presentation (high free T4 and TRAb)

Definitive treatment

- Indicated if adverse effects from methimazole, unable to achieve remission, or patient preference
- Goal is to achieve permanent hypothyroidism
- Options:
 - Radioactive iodine (I-131)
 - Surgery

Radioactive iodine (I-131) ablation

- Not recommended in children < 5 y.o.
- Considered safe in children 5-10 y.o. if dose is < 10 mCi of I-131
- Safe in children > 10 y.o.: >150 μ Ci of I-131 per gram of thyroid tissue for ablation
- Theoretical risks of cancer; long-term data appears reassuring if complete ablation occurs
- Reasons to do RAI: family choice (no scar), minimal to no eye disease, no thyroid nodule, goiter < 80 grams
- Important to remember that TRAb can persist for years in a subset of women → risk of neonatal Graves

Surgery – thyroidectomy

- Important to achieve a euthyroid state before surgery
 - MMI given for 1-2 months before operation
- Potassium iodide (KI) given in the preoperative period to reduce gland vascularity and diminish blood loss
 - 1-2 drops TID for 10 days before surgery
- Reasons to do surgery: family choice, age < 5-10 y.o., access to high volume and experienced surgeon, significant eye disease, goiter > 80 grams (>3-4x enlarged)
- Risks: transient or permanent hypoparathyroidism (hypocalcemia), recurrent laryngeal nerve injury, hematoma, permanent scar

Other (rarer) causes of hyperthyroidism

- Autonomously functioning (hot) nodule
- Hashitoxicosis
- Familial non-autoimmune hyperthyroidism
- McCune-Albright syndrome
- Thyroid hormone resistance (RTH)
- Acute (suppurative) thyroiditis
- Subacute (viral) thyroiditis
- TSH adenoma → ↑ pituitary glycoprotein α -subunit
- Ingestion of ground beef (inclusion of strap muscles)
- Factitious → ↓ thyroglobulin level



Familial non-autoimmune hyperthyroidism

- a.k.a. Hereditary toxic thyroid hyperplasia
- Due to an activating mutation of the TSH receptor
- Autosomal dominant
- Hyperthyroidism with variable age at onset (infancy to adulthood, even within same family)
- Hyperplastic goiter of variable size but with steady growth
- Negative thyroid autoantibodies

Differential diagnosis of hyperthyroidism

	Graves disease	Hashitoxicosis	(Sub)acute thyroiditis	LT4 ingestion
Thyroid exam	Non-tender goiter	Non-tender goiter	Tender goiter	No goiter, no tenderness
TSH	↓	↓	↓	↓
Free T4, T3	↑↑	Normal or ↑	Normal or ↑	↑
Thyroglobulin	↑	Variable	Variable	↓
Antibodies	+ TRAb + TPO +/- anti-TG	+ TRAb (10%) + TPO + anti-TG	Negative antibodies	Negative antibodies
Uptake scan	↑	↓ (usually)	↓	↓

Thyroxine-binding globulin

Thyroxine-binding globulin (TBG)

- **Very little thyroid hormone is free and unbound**
 - 99.97% of T4 is bound
 - 99.7% of T3 is bound
 - Therefore, <0.3% of thyroid hormone is “free”
- **Most thyroid hormone is bound to proteins**
 - 70-80% to TBG
 - 15-25% to transthyretin (thyroxine-binding prealbumin)
 - <10% to albumin
 - Potency of binding to T4: TBG >> transthyretin >>> albumin

Factors affecting TBG levels

Decreased TBG

- Inherited
- Androgens
- Glucocorticoids
- Severe illness
- Hepatic failure
- Nephrotic syndrome
- Nicotinic acid
- L-asparaginase

Increased TBG

- Inherited
- Pregnancy
- Estrogens
- Hepatitis
- Porphyria
- Opioids (e.g. heroin, methadone)
- Mitotane
- SERMs (e.g. tamoxifen)

Euthyroid sick syndrome

- Significant decrease in TBG
- ↓ in type 1 deiodinase (T4 → T3)
- ↑ in type 3 deiodinase (T4 → rT3)
- Labs in severe illness can look similar to central hypothyroidism:

	Mild illness	Moderate illness	Severe illness
Total T3	↓	↓↓	↓↓↓
Free T4	Normal	Normal to ↓	↓
rT3	↑	↑↑	↑↑↑
TSH	Normal	Normal to ↓	↓

- TSH will rise during the recovery phase

TBG deficiency – inherited

- X-linked condition
- Partial (1 in 4000) or complete (1 in 15,000)
- Heterozygous males are more frequently detected
- Depending on X inactivation, females may have normal, partial, or complete deficiency
- T4 and T3 levels low, TSH is normal, free T4 and free T3 are normal, high T3 uptake (T3U)
- Benign condition → no treatment needed

$$\text{T3U} = 1 / \text{TBG}$$

TBG excess – inherited

- X-linked condition
- Estimated to occur in 1 in 25,000
- T4 and T3 levels elevated, TSH is normal, free T4 and free T3 are normal, low T3 uptake (T3U)

$$T3U = 1 / TBG$$

- Like TBG deficiency, it is a benign condition → no treatment needed

Familial dysalbuminemic hyperthyroxinemia

- Genetic variant of albumin resulting in a marked increased affinity for T4 (but not T3)
- Mutation in *ALB* (albumin) gene
- Autosomal dominant
- Prevalence: 1 in 10,000
- Normal TSH, normal T3, elevated T4
- Normal T3U
- Normal free T4 by equilibrium dialysis – may have high direct free T4 due to lab artifact

ABP outline – handout

- **Additional ABP specifications and information are contained in the handout**