

## **ASTUDY ON SYNERGISM OF THYROID DISORDERS AND TYPE2 DIABETES MELLITUS.**

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### **ABSTRACT**

#### **BACKGROUND & OBJECTIVES:**

Thyroid hormones are important regulators of glucose homeostasis. However, the association between thyroid hormones within the reference range and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) remains unclear. Thyroid dysfunction and diabetes mellitus are closely linked. Several studies have documented the increased prevalence of thyroid disorders in patients with diabetes mellitus and *vice versa*. Thyroid dysfunction (TD) and diabetes mellitus (DM) are two of the most frequent chronic endocrine disorders with variable prevalence among different populations. The aim of this study was to clarify the incidence of T2DM according to the baseline levels and changes of thyrotropin (TSH) and thyroid hormones (free thyroxine and triiodothyronine) in euthyroid subjects.

#### **MATERIALS**

**METHODS:** A case control study was conducted in the Department of Biochemistry, Mahatma Gandhi Memorial Hospital, Warangal during December 2016 to May 2018. A total of 60 subjects were included in the study and divided into 2 groups with 30 healthy controls and 30 diabetics. Fasting plasma glucose, Fasting lipid profile, thyroid profile were estimated with blood samples drawn under aseptic conditions and their BMI was calculated. An independent t-test was used to compare mean values of each parameter among the groups. To observe possible relationships between parameters, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was used.

**RESULTS:** T<sub>3</sub> & T<sub>4</sub> mean  $\pm$  SD values (116.2  $\pm$  20.49; 5.60  $\pm$  2.32) were low in diabetic patients compared to non-diabetic counterparts (124.23  $\pm$  29.97; 5.60  $\pm$  2.32) whereas TSH levels were elevated (5.58  $\pm$  1.52) in

abetic patients compared to normal ( $1.87 \pm 0.79$ ) controls. There were significant positive correlations between FBG and TSH and negative correlations between FBG and  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  in diabetics. There were significant positive correlations between TSH and TC, LDL-C and TG, and negative correlations between TSH and HDL-C in diabetics and there were significant positive correlations between TSH and BMI and negative correlations between  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  with BMI of T2DM study subjects.

**CONCLUSION:** The present study suggests that the abnormal thyroid hormone levels seen in type 2 diabetics are due to alteration in hypothalamo-pituitary-thyroid axis, which in turn produces significant metabolic disturbances. Thyroid dysfunction was associated with worsening dyslipidemia in type 2 diabetic individuals. Hence, routine screening for thyroid dysfunction should be carried out in diabetics, which helps in its early diagnosis and treatment thereby improve their quality of life and reduce the morbidity rate.

**Keywords:** Diabetes Mellitus, Hypothyroidism, Dyslipidemia and BMI.

## INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus and thyroid dysfunction are intimately related. The two most prevalent chronic endocrine illnesses are thyroid dysfunction (TD) and type 2 diabetes mellitus, with multiple frequencies within various populations.<sup>1</sup> Numerous studies have shown that thyroid issues are more common in those with diabetes mellitus and vice versa. The present level of knowledge on the central and peripheral influence of thyroid hormone on food intake and glucose and lipid metabolism in target tissues (such as liver, white and brown adipose tissue, pancreatic cells, and skeletal muscle) to explain the mechanism connecting overt and subclinical hypothyroidism to type 2 diabetes and metabolic syndrome.

**Definition of metabolic syndrome:** For the purposes of this investigation, the diagnosis of metabolic syndrome was done based on the modified Asian NCEP-ATP III panel criteria. Modified Asian ATP III standards are identical to the original ATP III criteria, with the exception of a waist circumference (WC) more than 90 cm for men and 80 cm for women. A diagnosis can only be made if three out of the following five risk factors are present: abnormal WC, TG levels over 150.0 mg/dL or pharmaceutical therapy (Rx), male and female HDL-C levels below 40.0 mg/dL or Pharmaceutical Treatment, blood pressure above 130 mm Hg systolic and above 85 mm Hg diastolic or Pharmaceutical Treatment, and FBG concentration above 100.0 mg/dL.<sup>2</sup> **Definition of thyroid dysfunction and euthyroid:** Subjects were categorised into one of the five groups described below based on guidelines for the use of thyroid function testing.

(1) A normal thyroid function test was used to define euthyroid.

- (2) A TSH level of less than 0.40 IU/mL combined with an increased fT4 and fT3 level was considered hyperthyroid.
- (3) TSH less than 0.40 IU/mL with normal fT4 and fT3 concentrations was deemed to be subclinical hyperthyroidism.
- (4) A TSH level more than 4.20 IU/mL and a fT4 and fT3 concentration below normal were considered hypothyroidism.
- (5) SCH was classified as having a TSH level more than 4.20 IU/mL and normal fT4 and fT3 levels.<sup>3</sup>

The most effective blood test combination for diagnosis and follow-up of both ambulatory and hospitalised patients, according to the American Thyroid Association, is TSH and fT4. The first studies establishing the link between thyroid malfunction and diabetes were published in 1979. Since then, several studies have been done in numerous nations in an effort to determine the incidence of thyroid dysfunction among diabetes patients. Between 2.2 and 17 percent of diabetics are said to have thyroid problems. Another study found that individuals with Type 2 Diabetes mellitus (T2D) had a significant prevalence of abnormal TSH levels (31 percent).

Additionally, women with diabetes are afflicted more often than males, and hypothyroidism is more prevalent than thyrotoxicosis. It has been demonstrated that almost one in twenty women with Type 2 Diabetes mellitus experience subclinical hypothyroidism. Adults in Europe and the United States have a prevalence of thyroid disease of 6.6%; it rises with ageing and affects more women than men.<sup>4,5</sup> In response to appropriate tissue levels of TH, T3, the active thyroid hormone (TH), produces a drop in TRH and TSH production at the level of both thyrotrophs in the pituitary and tanycytes in the hypothalamus. Tanycytes are located in the ventral walls of the 3<sup>rd</sup> ventricle in the mediobasal hypothalamus (MBH), function as gatekeepers. Tanycytes are able to transport, sense, and modify the release of hormones of the hypothalamus pituitary thyroid axis and are involved in feedback regulation. Therefore, subclinical hyperthyroidism (SHyper) and subclinical hypothyroidism (SHypo) are both characterised by low or elevated serum TSH, with TH levels at the upper and lower ranges of their reference range, respectively. Since 1980, the prevalence of this illness in the adult population throughout the world has increased from 4.7 percent to 8.5 percent. According to the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) III, 14% of adult US citizens have either diabetes mellitus (DM) or impaired fasting blood sugar levels. According to data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's National Diabetes Fact Sheet, Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus may go undetected often; in the United States, prediabetes may affect up to 35% of persons over 20 and 50% of those over 65. Type 2 Diabetes mellitus and thyroid disease are two closely

associated disorders. The NHANES III study reported a higher prevalence of TD in subjects in the United States with diabetes compared with those without diabetes, especially in patients with positive anti-thyroid peroxidase (TPO) antibodies .<sup>6,7,8</sup>

According to estimates, 382 million people worldwide had diabetes in 2013, with 90 to 95 percent of those having Type 2 Diabetes mellitus. In nations like China, Oceania, South and Central Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East, there is an epidemic risk of Type 2 Diabetes mellitus, and the prevalence of DM is predicted to rise to 592 million by 2035, developing in 7.8 percent to 8.8 percent of people.<sup>6,7</sup>In the early stages of the condition, cells increase insulin production to counteract insulin resistance and guarantee proper glucose absorption and metabolism in peripheral organs. The advent of overt Type 2 Diabetes mellitus in adults, however, might result in postprandial hyperglycemia because cells cannot maintain prolonged hyperinsulinemia. Insulin resistance can be a component of the metabolic syndrome (MetS), a collection of cardiovascular and metabolic disorders.<sup>9</sup>

**Hyperthyroidism and Type 2 Diabetes mellitus:**4.4 percent of adult patients with Type 2 Diabetes mellitus had hyperthyroidism, compared to 2 to 4 percent of T2 patients with diabetes who had the condition. This is greater than the prevalence of the condition in the general population. Females were more likely than males to receive a new diagnosis of subclinical hyperthyroidism in Type 2 Diabetes mellitus patients (4.3 percent vs. 3.5 percent), and the relative risk was substantially greater in women exclusively. It appears that toxic multinodular goitre is a more prevalent cause of hyperthyroidism than gestational diabetes since advanced age and the presence of goitre are strongly and independently connected with the prevalence of subclinical hyperthyroidism in the population with diabetes. Type 2 Diabetes does not predict the likelihood of becoming hyperthyroidism in the elderly population with diabetes.<sup>10,11</sup>

**Hypothyroidism and Type 2 Diabetes mellitus :**Because hypothyroidism is more common in people with diabetes than in the general population, TH deficit in Type 2 Diabetes mellitus patients is unlikely to be a coincidence. The most prevalent types of thyroid disease in Type 2 Diabetes mellitus and MetS are overt and subclinical hypothyroidism. According to epidemiological research conducted on people from various racial and cultural backgrounds, the incidence of hypothyroidism in Type 2 Diabetes mellitus ranges from 6 to 20 percent. This vast range can be due to variations in the iodine consumption, sex, and age of the people examined. An increased incidence of hypothyroidism in Type 2 Diabetes mellitus T2D is connected with female sex, older age, obesity, TPO Ab positive, and hospitalisation. In individuals with Type 2 diabetes, the risk of hypothyroidism was significantly raised.<sup>10,11</sup>

**Table 1 :Prevalence of Thyroid Diseases in Type 2Diabetes mellitus.**<sup>10,11</sup>

Prevalence	Associated Risk Factors
Adults with T2D are at risk for hypothyroidism.	6%–20%
early signs of hypothyroidism	Female sex, TPO Ab <sup>+</sup> , advanced age, hospitalization
Hypothyroidism risk in T2D older than 65 years old	OR, 4.82 males vs 2.60 females
	OR, 2.56 obese vs 3.11 nonobese
	OR, 4.26 TPO <sup>+</sup> vs 2.93 TPO <sup>-</sup>
Subclinical hypothyroidism Risk in T2D	10.2%
Adults with T2D and subclinical hypothyroidism prevalence compared to healthy controls*	1.93-Fold increased risk (95% CI, 1.66–2.24)

Subclinical hypothyroidism is a frequent finding in Type 2 Diabetes mellitus, according to a significant longitudinal research conducted in women with T2D in Australia. It was the most common kind of thyroid hormone deficit among diabetic female patients and those with positive TPO Abs. According to these findings, a meta-analysis of 36 articles found that individuals with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus had a higher pooled prevalence of Subclinical Hypothyroidism than healthy controls (1.93-fold increased risk; 95 percent confidence interval, 1.66 to 2.24) It was linked to a higher risk of microvascular problems in those with diabetes.<sup>10,11</sup>

**Changes in TSH and/or TH in longitudinal studies and incidence of diabetes:** Thyroid hormone has a vital role in controlling the hepatic metabolism of hepatic fat, cholesterol, and glucose (TH). Thyroid hormone causes lipogenesis and hepatic lipogenesis. Thanks to advancements in disciplines like cell imaging, autophagy, and metabolomics, the molecular regulation of hepatic lipid metabolism by thyroid hormones is now well understood. Thyroid hormone speeds up the transfer of reverse cholesterol. Thyroid hormone regulates hepatic gluconeogenesis via SirT1 and FoxO1. Recent studies imply that clinical illnesses connected to dysregulation include type 2 diabetes mellitus and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. Hepatic metabolism may change if TH intracellular activity changes. Additionally, TH is necessary for lipophagy in lipid metabolism, mitochondrial quality control, and the control of the metabolic genes FoxO1 and SirT1. The activities of thyroid hormone in hepatic metabolism, the connection between TH and metabolic diseases, and the possible therapeutic use of thyromimetics to treat metabolic dysfunction in the liver are all topics covered in this study.<sup>12,13</sup>

TSH may have an immediate impact on metabolic parameters and encourage the release of leptin from human adipose tissue. It has stimulatory effects on hepatic glucose production both in vivo and in vitro and plays a significant role in hepatic glucose metabolism. In a mouse liver, TSH stimulates the mRNA expression of glucose 6-phosphate and phosphoenolpyruvate

carboxykinase (PEPCK). Additionally, TSH raises serum blood glucose levels by decreasing insulin production and its synthesis from pancreatic cells. Leptin regulates the expression of the TRH gene in the paraventricular nucleus (PVN), acting directly on the hypothalamic-pituitary-thyroid (HPT) axis, and indirectly on TRH via actions in the arcuate nucleus (ARC). Patients with hypothyroidism have high leptin levels, which correspond with TSH levels. Additionally, leptin levels are increased in many diabetic individuals, and this may be because leptin affects the HPT axis via the Janus Activating Kinase (JAK)-2/Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription (STAT)3 factor, which in turn stimulates the synthesis of TSH.<sup>14,15</sup>

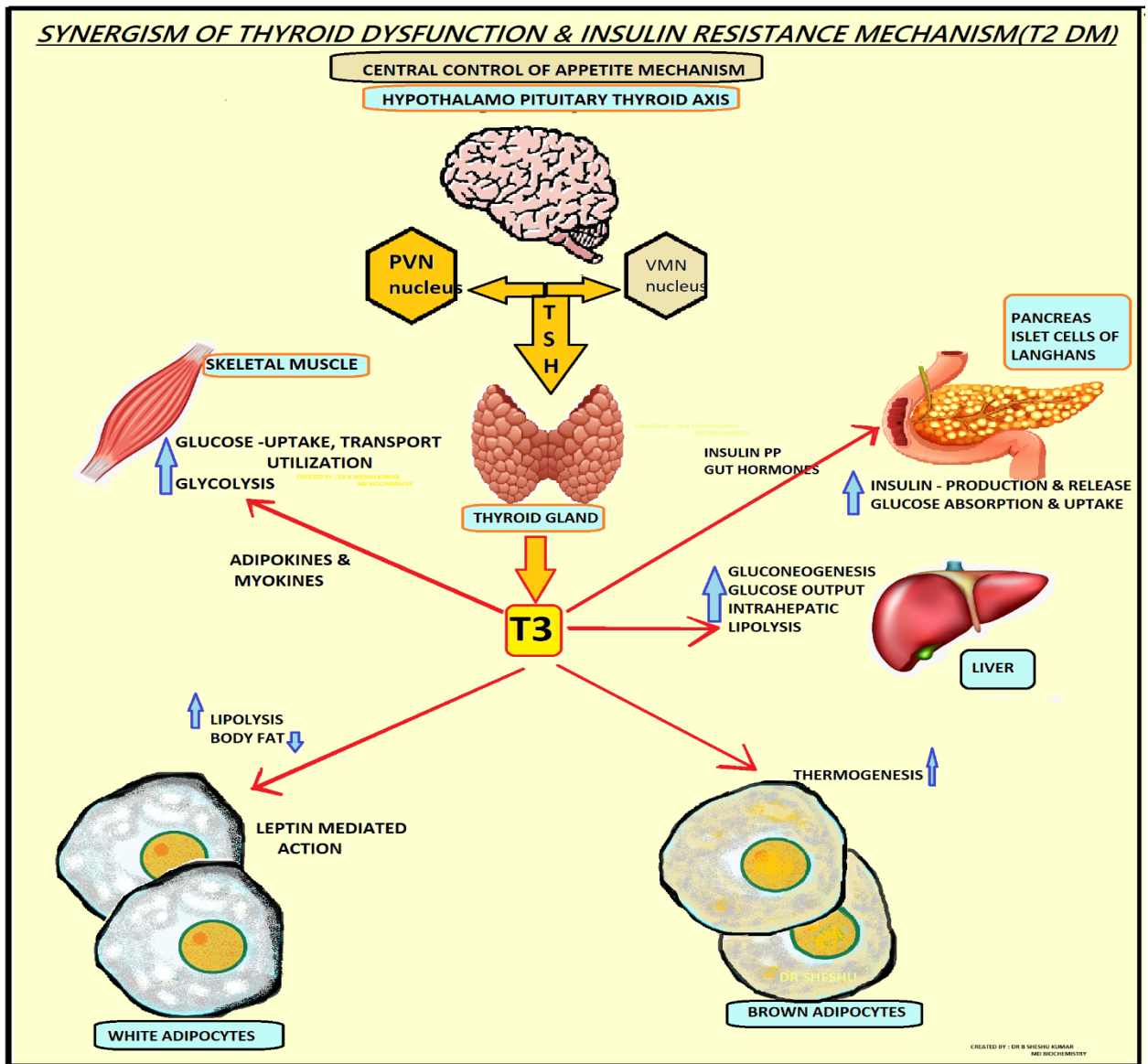


FIGURE 1 : The above figure describes the synergistic mechanism of association of Thyroid disorders and Insulin Resistance mechanism ( Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus).

**Regulation of hepatic glucose and lipid metabolism:** The formation of healthy pancreatic islets depends on thyroid hormone receptors (TRs) 1 and 1. Neonatal cells have TH receptors, and exposure to T3 determines the transcription factor MAFK's activation, which promotes insulin production and cell maturation. T3 also encourages the growth of pancreatic islet cells. It appears to work as a mitogenic pro-survival factor for pancreatic cells and enhances the production of proinsulin mRNA through a process that appears to entail MAPK/ERK activation.<sup>17</sup>T3 controls how cells behave physiologically. It affects the liver, skeletal muscles, and adipose tissue differentially, which are the primary sites of insulin action, controlling insulin secretion and glucose absorption. Thyroid hormone interacts with insulin synergistically in the peripheral tissues, but insulin-antagonistically in the liver. Thyroid hormone decreases liver sensitivity to insulin by increasing hepatic glucose output through increased hepatic expression of glucose transporter (GLUT)2 and stimulating endogenous glucose synthesis through enhanced gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis. The transport of alanine into hepatocytes and the conversion of alanine to glucose are both accelerated by thyroid hormone treatment. The increased expression of glucose 6-phosphate mRNA and the production of PEPCK are two significant effects of T3.<sup>18</sup>T3 can also function on the sympathetic route that links the paraventricular hypothalamus to the liver, regulating hepatic glucose production and insulin sensitivity. Independent of plasma T3, insulin, glucagon, and corticosterone, T3 injection in the hypothalamic PVN stimulates hepatic glucose synthesis. The fact that selective hepatic sympathectomy eliminates this effect supports the theory that T3-sensitive neurons in the PVN regulate the generation of liver glucose through sympathetic liver projections. Thyroid hormone induces the mRNA for the 2-adrenergic receptor and suppresses the inhibitory G protein RNA of the adenylate cyclase cascade, which helps epinephrine and glucagon produce the effects of gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis.

By inducing lipogenic enzymes, T3 worsens the dysregulation of hepatic glucose and lipid metabolism that is indicative of insulin resistance. T3 stimulates both lipogenesis and lipolysis. Through the control of fatty acid transporter proteins and an increase in hepatic lipogenesis, thyroid hormone may boost fatty acid absorption in the liver. The intrahepatic lipolysis brought on by T3 has been linked to the activation of hepatic lipases and lipophagy.

The hyperinsulinemic state is maintained through nonsuppressed gluconeogenesis and the conversion of glucose to fatty acids. Significant islet function impairment is brought on by hyperthyroidism and high-fat diets. Contrarily, physiological T3 administration keeps islet structure, size, and consistency stable and halts streptozocin-induced islet degeneration.<sup>18,19</sup>

## **AIMS & OBJECTIVES**

### **MATERIALS**

**METHODS:** A case control study was conducted in the Department of Biochemistry, Mahatma Gandhi Memorial Hospital, Warangal during December 2016 to May 2018. 60 subjects were included in the study from Departmen

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of Endocrinology and Department of Internal medicine, Mahatma Gandhi Memorial Hospital, Warangal. In the present study the individuals included were categorized into 2 groups, with 30 in each group. All the subjects were in the 25-75 years of age group and of either sex.

**Inclusion criteria:** Both outpatients and inpatients with diagnosis of type 2 diabetes mellitus with no history of thyroid dysfunction were selected by simple random sampling method. Controls: Healthy controls in the age group 25-75 years. Cases: Diagnosed type 2 diabetes mellitus patients in the age group 25-75 years with no previous thyroid dysfunction.

**Exclusion criteria:** Patients of type 1 diabetes mellitus, known history of thyroid dysfunction, on drugs affecting thyroid function, acutely ill critical patients and those with pregnancy were excluded from this study. The study also excluded subjects who had undergone thyroidectomy, amputation and those who had goiter. Diabetics and control subjects with renal or liver diseases or any other serious illnesses were excluded from the study.

**Specimen collection:** Fasting venous blood samples were collected from all groups. 3 ml of blood was collected in to serum vacutainer (red cap) [for lipid profile], 2 ml into sodium fluoride vacutainer (grey cap) & another 4 ml of blood was collected into serum vacutainer (red cap) [for thyroid profile]. Fasting plasma glucose was estimated in plasma, daily from the grey vacutainer while all other parameters were estimated in serum. Lipid & thyroid profile was estimated in fresh sera on a daily basis.

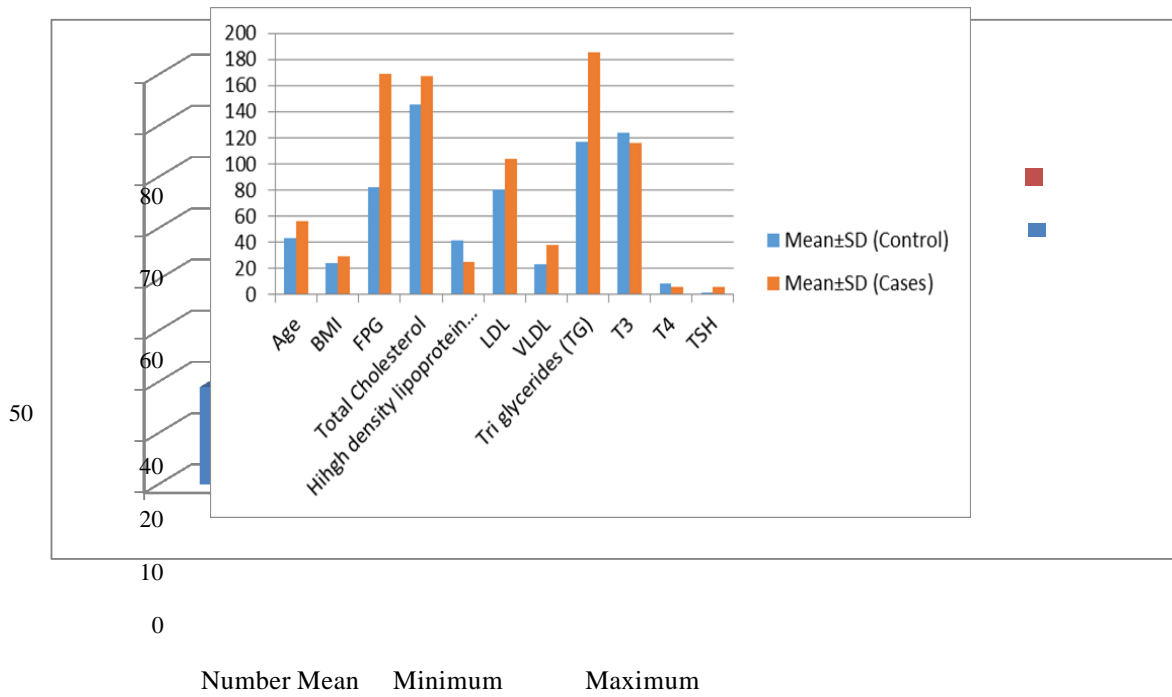
## RESULTS

The present study was undertaken in the Department of Biochemistry, Kakatiya Medical College MGM hospital, Warangal. A total of 60 patients were recruited for the study which included 30 T2DM patients without Thyroid dysfunction and 30 healthy non diabetic individuals as controls. The case and the control groups were age matched and sex-matched.

**Table 2:** Demographic distribution of patients (age and sex) in control

Sex	Number	Age Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Male	19	44.83	16.59	27	73
Female	11	38.5	8.77	25	50





**Figure2:**Demographicdistributionofpatients(Sexandage)incontrol

**Figure3: Distribution of the various variables in the study.**

**Table3:**Demographicdistributionpatients(Sexandage)incases

Sex	Number	AgeMean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Male	17	57.06	8.07	44	74
Female	13	53.61	6.64	42	65

**Table 4 : Mean and SD distribution of variables in cases and controls.**

Parameter	Mean±SD(Control)	Mean±SD(Cases)
Age	43.23±14.81	56.00±7.86
BMI	24.44±2.61	27.33±3.57
FPG	82.46±11.01	168.5±61.84
TotalCholesterol	145.23±23.15	167±35.55

Hihghdensitylipoprotein(HDL-C)	41.43±6.89	25.13±5.31
LDL-C	80.46±22.13	104.16±31.03
VLDL-C	23.33±6.21	37.7±7.48
Triglycerides(TG)	116.86±30.94	185.26±33.71
T <sub>3</sub>	124.23±29.97	116.2±20.49
T <sub>4</sub>	8.23±1.86	5.60±2.32
TSH	1.87±0.79	5.58±1.52

**Table 5 :**CorrelationbetweenFastingbloodglucose VsThyroidhormonelevel(Cases)

Thyroidhormone	rvalue
T <sub>3</sub>	-0.639
T <sub>4</sub>	-0.426
TSH	0.653

\*\*Alltheparametersconsideredtablevalueforrelationcoefficient.

**Table 6:**CorrelationbetweenBMIVsThyroidhormonelevels(Cases)

Thyroidhormone	rvalue
T <sub>3</sub>	-0.451
T <sub>4</sub>	-0.429
TSH	0.059

\*\*Alltheparametersconsideredtablevalueforrelationcoefficient.

**Table 7:**Correlationbetweenlipidparameterswiththyroidhormonelevels(Cases)

Lipid profile parameter	T <sub>3</sub> (rvalue)	T <sub>4</sub> (rvalue)	TSH(rvalue)
Totalcholesterol	0.304	0.270	0.356
HDL	0.018	0.000	0.078
LDL	0.296	0.291	0.332
VLDL	0.818	0.767	0.261
Triglycerides	0.818	0.767	0.176

\*\*Alltheparametersconsideredtablevalueforrelationcoefficient.

TheMean±SDofalltheparametersstudiedinthetotalcasesweresignificantlydifferentfromtho seofcontrols. Thediabetesgrouppresentedwithsignificantlyhigherleveloffastingbloodglucose(16 8.5±61.84)comparedtotheirnon-diabeticcounterparts(82.46±11.01)whichwasstatisticallysignificant=pvalue<0.001\*\*Thediabetes

group presented with significantly higher levels of BMI ( $27.33 \pm 3.57$ ) compared to their non-diabetic counterparts ( $24.44 \pm 2.61$ ) which was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ).<sup>\*\*</sup> The diabetic group presented with higher mean values of dyslipidemia parameters (Total cholesterol  $167.00 \pm 35.55$ ; LDL  $104.16 \pm 31.03$ ; VLDL  $37.7 \pm 7.48$ ; Triglycerides  $185.26 \pm 33.71$ ) compared to their non-diabetic patients (Total cholesterol  $145.23 \pm 23.15$ ; VLDL  $23.33 \pm 6.21$ ; LDL  $80.46 \pm 22.13$ ; Triglycerides  $116.86 \pm 03.94$ ) which was statistically significant).

In the present study all the dyslipidemia parameters were elevated in diabetic patients except HDL. HDL showed high values in normal control patients than the diabetic cases. In the present study both  $T_3$  mean  $\pm$  SD values ( $116.2 \pm 20.49$ ) were low in diabetic patients compared to non-diabetic counterparts ( $124.23 \pm 29.97$ ) which was statistically significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ).<sup>\*\*\*</sup>

In the present study  $T_4$  mean  $\pm$  SD values ( $5.60 \pm 2.32$ ) were low in diabetic patients compared to non-diabetic counterparts ( $8.23 \pm 1.86$ ) which was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).<sup>\*</sup> TSH levels were elevated ( $5.58 \pm 1.52$ ) in diabetic patients compared to normal ( $1.87 \pm 0.79$ ) control which was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ).<sup>\*\*</sup> In the present study, Pearson correlation test showed that there were significant positive correlations between FBG and TSH and negative correlations between FBG and  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  of T2DM study subjects.

In the present study, Pearson correlation test showed that there were significant positive correlations between TSH and TC, LDL-C and TG, and negative correlations between TSH and HDL-C of T2DM study subjects. In the present study, Pearson correlation test shows that there were significant positive correlations between TSH and BMI and negative correlations between  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  with BMI of T2DM study subjects.

## DISCUSSION

Although the greater frequency of thyroid dysfunction in T2DM is noteworthy for the thyroid condition itself, there may also be important implications for the management of diabetes. Patients with T2DM should only be examined for thyroid illness at the time of diagnosis, according to the British Thyroid Association. Whether or whether they have diabetes, everyone over the age of 35 should get a thyroid problem screening every five years, according to the American Thyroid Association. This research may not be generalizable because it is based on a cost-utility study utilising a computer-based decision model for the US healthcare system.<sup>20,21</sup>

In an older population-based sample with type 2 diabetes, thyroid dysfunction was evaluated. According to a research by Gopinath et al., 7.1 percent of people with type 2 diabetes incidentally had thyroid dysfunction, compared to 3.8 percent of people without diabetes (odds ratio 1.97, 95 percent confidence range 0.88-4.38).<sup>22</sup> There was no difference in the frequency of subclinical hypothyroidism between patients with T2DM and controls, according to Ishay et al.<sup>23</sup>

Adjusted pooled prevalence of SCH was 10.2% in T2DM patients, and T2DM was linked to a 1.93-fold increased risk of SCH (95 percent CI: 1.66, 2.24). Furthermore, Hancock et al. meta-analysis. Their study found that SCH may have an impact on the development of diabetic complications, with overall ORs for diabetic nephropathy, diabetic retinopathy, peripheral arterial disease, and diabetic peripheral neuropathy of 1.74 (95% CI: 1.34, 2.28), 1.42 (95% CI: 1.21, 1.67), 1.85 (95% CI: 1.35, 2.54), 1.87 (95% CI: 1.06). The authors also came to the conclusion that those with T2DM and subclinical hypothyroidism were more likely to experience diabetic complications and advised that people with T2DM be screened for thyroid problems.<sup>24</sup>

In individuals with TSH >5 mIU/L, the risk of prediabetes rises by 15% (hazard ratio, 1.15; 95 percent CI, 1.04 to 1.26) and the incidence of T2DM increases 1.09-fold with each doubling of TSH mIU/L (95 percent CI, 1.06 to 1.12). According to a research by Brenta et al in a Latin American study, MetS is more common in SCH compared to euthyroid persons (OR, 1.31; 95 percent CI, 1.08 to 1.60).<sup>25</sup> According to a research by Meher et al.,<sup>26</sup> the MetS group

had a high frequency of SCH (22%) and overt hypothyroidism (4%). According to a research by Shantha et al. in India, patients with MetS have a significant prevalence of SCH (21.90 percent) and overt hypothyroidism (7.30%).

According to a recent research in Taiwan by Wang et al.<sup>12</sup>, 7.21% of Taiwan MetS patients had TD. According to this study, 2.64 percent of participants had subclinical hyperthyroidism and 4.55 percent had SCH. The prevalence of TD was found to be 7.60 percent overall, with 2.10 percent of patients having subclinical hypothyroidism and 5.50 percent having subclinical hyperthyroidism, according to another study conducted in Taiwan by Lai et al.<sup>28</sup> Another research conducted in Turkey by Uzunlulu et al.<sup>29</sup> revealed that 16.40 percent of people there had SCH. However, this study did not address patients with overt hypothyroidism and all observations were with SCH patients only. Similar findings were made by Jayakumar et al.<sup>30</sup>, who discovered that of 120 individuals diagnosed with MetS, 48 had thyroid functions that were normal, 18 had hypothyroidism, 52 had SCH, and two had subclinical hyperthyroidism. SCH and hypothyroidism were found in 60% of individuals with MetS. Another research by Ogbera et al.<sup>31</sup> in Nigeria found that 40.0 percent, 42.0 percent, and 24.0 percent, respectively, of people with hypothyroidism, euthyroidism, and hyperthyroidism also had MetS.

Only FT3 was not substantially affected, indicating that TD was associated with all of the components of MetS. There were significant differences in the mean values for each anthropometric and biochemical parameter between patients with MetS and healthy control participants. These results were consistent with those of Kota et al.<sup>32</sup> who noted that HDL-C was significantly lower in the study group while total cholesterol, low density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), TG, and TSH were significantly higher in the MetS group when compared to the control group. They also noted that fasting blood glucose (FBG), mean systolic blood pressure (SBP), mean diastolic blood pressure (DBP), mean systolic blood pressure. Another study

conducted by Meher et al.<sup>26</sup> revealed that the mean SBP, DBP, FBG, total cholesterol, LDL-C, TG, WC, and BMI were considerably higher in the MetS group than in the control group, whereas HDL-C levels were significantly lower. Similar results were found in studies on the Hispanic population conducted by Garduno-Garcia Jde et al.<sup>33</sup> and on the urban population of Chennai conducted by Shantha et al.<sup>27</sup>

Oh et al.<sup>34</sup> discovered a substantial correlation between higher TSH levels within the normal range and the MetS in conjunction with those investigations. TSH levels were substantially correlated with WC, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, and TG, but not with fasting hyperglycemia or low HDL-C levels. Similar to this, Lai et al.<sup>28</sup> recent study in Taiwan examined the connection between serum TSH levels and aspects of MetS and came to the conclusion that even small increases in TSH, like those seen in SCH, may be a risk factor for MetS. In that study, TSH levels were significantly higher in the MetS group than in the non-MetS group. To evaluate the odds ratio (OR) of MetS and its components between subclinically hypothyroid and euthyroid groups, Eftekhazadeh A et al.<sup>35</sup> conducted a meta-analysis. The meta-analysis only included trials that used the Adult Treatment Panel III (ATP III) criteria for MetS. Female gender was more abundant in the SCH group [OR = 1.65, 95 percent confidence interval (CI) 1.29-2.13]. Meta-analysis revealed no discernible difference between SCH and euthyroid people in terms of MetS prevalence (OR = 1.13, 95 percent CI 0.95-1.34). According to Giandalia et al.<sup>36</sup> and Triolo's et al.<sup>37</sup>, TSH was strongly correlated with an increased chance of developing type 2 diabetes and visceral obesity due to elevated triglycerides. T2DM's sensitivity to atherosclerosis.

In the present study 30 T2DM subjects and 30 healthy nondiabetic subjects were investigated for total T3, total T4, TSH, FPG, serum cholesterol, serum triglycerides, serum HDL-C, serum LDL-C, Serum VLDL-C, and BMI. In the present study, the mean  $\pm$  SD of FPG in group 2 was  $168.5 \pm 61.84$ , and in the group 1 was  $82.46 \pm 11.01$ , therefore fasting blood glucose level was significantly higher ( $p$  value  $< 0.001^{**}$ ) in diabetic subjects as compared to healthy controls, establishing a clear hyperglycemia condition.

Hyperglycemia in diabetic patients is associated with vascular damage, impairment in functions of various organs like; eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart and also with endocrine organs. The present study is in accordance with the studies of Samatha Petal,<sup>38</sup> and Reeta Tetal.<sup>39</sup> In the present study, the Mean  $\pm$  SD BMI in Group 2 was  $27.33 \pm 3.57$  and Group 1 was  $24.44 \pm 2.61$ , which was significantly higher in diabetic subjects.  $p$  value  $< 0.001^{**}$ . The present study is in accordance with Hu FB and Manson JE et al.<sup>40</sup> who showed that individuals with higher BMI faced increased risks of developing type 2DM. The nonesterified fatty acids (NEFAs) secreted from adipose tissue in obese people lead to the hypothesis that insulin resistance and  $\beta$ -

cell dysfunction are most likely linked.<sup>41</sup> In the present study, the mean  $\pm$  SD of Total Cholesterol in group 2 ( $167 \pm 35.55$ ) was significantly higher than group 1 ( $145.23 \pm 23.15$ )  $p$  value  $< 0.01$ .\*

It is in accordance with SSRoy and Shah Petal<sup>42</sup> who in their study concluded that diabetes is a metabolic derangement affecting not only sugar but also lipid metabolism involving various systems of body. Murwan Khalid Sabahelkhier et al,<sup>43</sup> observed that there was a significant increase in levels of total cholesterol ( $p = 0.001$ ) in diabetic patients compared to non-diabetic subjects, this increase may be due to an increase in the plasma concentration of VLDL and LDL, which may be caused by increasing hepatic production of VLDL or decreased removal of VLDL and LDL from the circulation. Kumarnarendra et al<sup>44</sup>, reported that there was a statistically significant rise in serum total cholesterol ( $218.11 \pm 9.556$ ) in diabetics as compared to control subjects ( $194.74 \pm 8.105$ ). In the present study, the mean  $\pm$  SD of HDL Cholesterol in group 1 was significantly higher ( $41.43 \pm 6.89$ ) than in group 2 ( $25.13 \pm 5.31$ )  $p$  value  $< 0.0001$ \*\*\*. The antiatherogenic properties associated with HDL are due, at least in part, to the activity of HDL-associated enzymes, which interact with LDL and prevent, and/or reverse its oxidation.<sup>45</sup>

A number of functions of HDL particles may contribute to direct cardioprotective effects, including promotion of cellular cholesterol efflux and direct antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties. Moreover, low HDL cholesterol levels are often accompanied by elevated triglyceride levels and the combination has been strongly associated with an increased risk of CHD. In concordance with this study Rachaiiah NM, Malleshappa VR et al<sup>46</sup> in their study observed that the mean values of HDL-C among male and female diabetic hypertensives were significantly lower than that of controls and concluded that the low HDL level in diabetics increases the risk of coronary artery disease. Recent evidence suggests that low HDL cholesterol is an independent factor not only for cardiovascular disease but also for the development of diabetes itself. In the present study, the mean  $\pm$  SD of LDL in group 2 ( $104.16 \pm 31.03$ ) was significantly higher than in group 1 ( $80.46 \pm 22.13$ )  $p$  value  $< 0.0001$ \*\*\*. MK Sabahelkhier<sup>47</sup> in their study reported a significantly increased level of LDL ( $p = 0.001$ ) in diabetic patients.

Increase in the number of LDL receptors causes an increase in LDL-cholesterol value in diabetes mellitus. Choudhury et al, in their study observed a higher LDL cholesterol in T2DM patients in comparison to non-diabetic control subjects. In the present study, the mean  $\pm$  SD of VLDL in group 2 ( $37.7 \pm 7.48$ ) was significantly higher than in group 1 ( $23.33 \pm 6.21$ )  $p$  value  $< 0.0001$ \*\*\*. An increase in VLDL occurred in diabetes mellitus due to an increase in availability of glucose for VLDL synthesis and a decrease in lipoprotein lipase activity leading to a decrease of VLDL from peripheral circulation. The normal inhibitory effect of insulin on hepatic apoB production and triglyceride secretion in VLDL is lost, and the VLDL secreted is larger and more triglyceride-

rich. In the present study, the mean  $\pm$  SD of TAG in group 2 ( $185.26 \pm 33.71$ ) was significantly higher than in group 1 ( $116.9 \pm 30.94$ ) ( $p$  value  $< 0.001^{**}$ ). The most common alteration of lipoproteins in T2DM is hypertriglyceridemia caused by an elevation in VLDL concentration. In T2DM with severe hyperglycemia, the clearance rate for LDL apo B is reduced. Sarangi *et al.*<sup>48</sup> reported that TC, TG, and LDL were significantly higher ( $P < 0.001$ ) among diabetic subjects than controls, whereas HDL-C was lower among diabetics than the controls ( $P = 0.06$ ).

In the present study, there is a highly significant decrease in the levels of serum T3 in T2DM in comparison to the control group ( $p$  value  $< 0.0001^{***}$ ) where the mean  $\pm$  SD of T3 level in group 2 T2DM was  $116.2 \pm 20.49$  and in group 1 control was  $124.23 \pm 29.97$ . In the present study, there is a highly significant decrease in the levels of serum T4 in T2DM in comparison to the control group ( $p$  value  $< 0.05^*$ ) where the mean  $\pm$  SD of T4 level in group 2 T2DM was  $5.60 \pm 2.32$  and in group 1 control was  $8.23 \pm 1.86$ . In the present study, there is a highly significant increase in the levels of serum TSH in T2DM in comparison to the control group ( $p$  value  $< 0.001^{**}$ ) where the mean  $\pm$  SD of TSH in group 2 T2DM was  $5.58 \pm 1.52$  and in group 1 control was  $1.87 \pm 0.79$ . Regarding thyroid hormones, the present study revealed that the serum level of T3, T4 was significantly lower in T2DM patients while serum level of TSH was significantly higher in T2DM patients when compared to that of non-diabetic subjects. This is in accordance with the studies of Vikram B *et al.*<sup>49</sup>, Gurjeet *et al.*<sup>50</sup> and Shekhar C *et al.*<sup>51</sup>

In concordance to the present study, Saeed W, Abd El Rahman *et al.*<sup>52</sup> demonstrated low T3, T4 and increased TSH among diabetic subjects. Srinidhi *et al.*<sup>53</sup> also demonstrated decreased T3, T4 and increased TSH in type 2 diabetics without any complications and type 2 diabetics with nephropathy when compared to controls. Out of 30 diabetic subjects investigated in the present study, a total of 33.3% diabetic patients showed thyroid dysfunction with 26.7% showing (8) hypothyroidism and 6.7% (2) hyperthyroidism. Also, 6.7% i.e. 2 out of 30 controls had hypothyroidism. These observations show a high incidence of abnormal thyroid hormone levels in diabetics which is in accordance with studies of Vibha U *et al.*<sup>54</sup> Pasupathi *et al.*<sup>55</sup> demonstrated that out of 100 diabetic patients studied, 28% had low plasma thyroid hormone levels, 17% had high thyroid hormone, and 55% had euthyroid levels. This study has shown a high incidence of abnormal thyroid hormone levels among the diabetics. Kashi Z *et al.*<sup>56</sup> in a comparative cross-sectional study demonstrated the prevalence of Hypothyroidism in diabetics as 17.5%. Proportion of hypothyroidism was 7.59% and hyperthyroidism was 2.31%, while the proportion of total thyroid dysfunction was 9.9% among diabetics according to Imam Subekti *et al.*<sup>57</sup> Uppal V *et al.*<sup>58</sup> in a case control study demonstrated prevalence of hypothyroidism in diabetes mellitus patients as 17%.

Distiller L A *et al.*<sup>59</sup> in a cross-sectional study demonstrated prevalence of hypothyroidism in diabetes mellitus patients as 11.8%. Palma C *et al.*<sup>60</sup> demonstrated prevalence of Subclinical hypothyroidism 13% (type 1 diabetes) and 12% (type 2 diabetes). In present study, Pearson correlation test, shows that there were significant positive correlations between TSH and TC, LDL-C and TG, and negative correlations between TSH and HDL-

CofT2DMstudysubjects.Furthermore,thereweresignificantnegativecorrelationsbetweenT4&T3andTC,LDL-CandTG,andpositivecorrelationsbetweenT4&T3andHDL-CofT2DMstudysubjects.Thus,alowthyroidfunctionwaspositivelyassociatedwithlipidregulationinT2DMpatientsastherewasapositivesignificantrelationshipbetweenTSHandTG,LDL-CandTCinadditiontonegativesignificantcorrelationbetweenTSHandHDL-CamonghypothyroidT2DMstudysubjects.Hypothyroidismisassociatedwithmanybiochemicalabnormalities.Levelsoftotalcholesterolandlowdensitylipoproteincholesterol tend to increase as thyroid function declines. Thus hypothyroidism causes secondary dyslipidemia. In hypothyroid patients, there is often an increase in the serum total cholesterol concentration despite the reduced activity of HMG CoA reductase mainly due to raised levels of serum LDL cholesterol and intermediate density lipoprotein (IDL) cholesterol.

A positive association between overt hypothyroidism and hypercholesterolemia is well recognized, but evidence for such a relationship in subclinical thyroid disease is inconsistent. The relationship between serum TSH and cholesterol appears to be modified by insulin resistance in euthyroid nondiabetic adults, those with higher serum TSH and relative insulin resistance are at greatest risk of dyslipidemia. There are significant independent associations between TSH and serum TC, HDL-C, and TG as well as the derived parameters TC/HDL-C and non-HDL-C in relatively insulin-resistant type 2 patients. Jung found mean plasma total cholesterol and LDL cholesterol levels elevated in hypothyroid cases than in normal controls. Mean total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol and triglycerides were found significantly increased whereas HDL cholesterol was found significantly decreased in cases compared to controls according to Khan MAH, Majumder et al<sup>61</sup> which is in accordance to the present study.

Thyroid dysfunction was seen in the current study in diabetic individuals with greater BMI, and TSH strongly linked with BMI. Obesity is thought to increase the risk of heart attacks and thyroid gland problems. Adult anthropometric parameters, such as waist circumference and body mass index (BMI), were found to have an inverse linear relationship with blood thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) levels. TSH and free triiodothyronine (fT3) serum levels were greater in obese children than in non-obese children, and the TSH associated favourably with total cholesterol (TC), triglycerides (TG), and systolic blood pressure. Although previously explored, the relationship between the thyroid profile and body mass measurements such as BMI is not well understood. The majority of current research on this connection has produced contradictory findings.

Impact of hyperthyroidism on diabetes Numerous explanations have been offered to explain why hyperthyroidism causes hyperglycemia in clinical studies. In a thyrotoxic environment, insulin has a shorter half-life; this is assumed to be because the active hormone is degraded more quickly and inactive precursors are released. Additionally, it has been hypothesised that hyperthyroidism increases glucose synthesis by upregulating gluconeogenesis, which results from increased lipolysis and excessive lactate formation, as well as by increasing hepatic output by upregulating the GLUT2 glucose transporter's expression. These are made worse by



increased glucose absorption in the digestive system. These processes may explain why diabetes patients with hyperthyroidism may have worsening blood glucose levels when their hyperthyroidism is not controlled.

Impact of hypothyroidism on diabetes Control of diabetes can also be impacted by hypothyroidism. Because the liver's diminished ability to produce glucose can lead to hypoglycaemic episodes, hypothyroidism may conceal the clinical manifestations of diabetes. This also explains why hypothyroid diabetes patients may need less insulin than those without thyroid illness.<sup>3,22</sup>

## CONCLUSION

The current study was conducted at the Kakatiya Medical College MGM hospital in Warangal's Department of Biochemistry. The study involved 60 people: 30 T2DM patients without thyroid dysfunction served as cases, while 30 healthy non-diabetic people served as controls. FPG, serum TC, serum TAG, serum HDL-C, serum VLDL-C, serum LDL-C, serum T3, serum T4, and serum TSH, as well as BMI, were examined in both groups. In the current study, type 2 diabetics' blood T3 and T4 levels fell while their serum TSH levels rose when compared to controls. A substantial positive link between FBG and TSH and a negative correlation between FBG and the T3 and T4 of study participants with T2DM were found in the current investigation, according to the Pearson correlation test.

In type 2 diabetics, abnormal thyroid hormone levels are more common, with hypothyroidism being the most prevalent thyroid issue. Increased dyslipidemia in type-2 DM was linked to thyroid dysfunction (hypothyroidism). According to the current study's Pearson correlation test, there were substantial negative correlations between T3 and T4 and BMI of the study patients with T2DM and positive correlations between TSH and BMI.

According to anecdotal evidence, some T2DM patients are already routinely checked for thyroid illness. This may be reasonable in light of the information provided here and the relatively inexpensive nature of a blood TSH test. We are not aware of any official evaluations of this, though.

Future assessments of the scope of this practise, based on pertinent real-world facts and a cost-benefit analysis, may contribute to the justification for routine screening and, eventually, clear up this area of medical care.

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