

Diagnosis and Pathology Characterization of Thyroid Gland Using Different Radiological Techniques

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Abstract

The normal endocrine function is primarily for the quality of life of people, irrespective of age, sex, and race. Detrimental thyroid function leads to multiple disorders, including cardiovascular, renal, neurologic, foetal development, and sexual drive. Moreover, if left untreated may aggravate the formation of thyroid nodules and subsequently to cancer. Therefore, periodic assessment of thyroid gland function may eliminate these complications and improve the patients' quality of life. In this review, we have discussed the different thyroid disorders, their complications, radiological techniques, and invasive procedures for assessing the thyroid gland.

Keywords: **Keywords: Thyroid Stimulating Hormone; Radiological assessment; invasive assessment; Thyroid disorders.**

1. Introduction

The thyroid gland's feature is the most significant in the human body because it controls many complex physical actions. Thyroid hormones (T3 and T4) have numerous functions, respiration, advancement, protein synthesis, and the control of numerous other hormones in the body. Such a disorder can influence the creation of thyroid hormones (T3 and T4) that could be connected to various pathologies all across the body.

Thyroid disorders are one of the most common illnesses. Their occurrences vary significantly from place to place and are mainly influenced by the allocation of iodine in the food. When assessing the alleged prevalence of thyroid hormone levels in various communities, it is essential to keep the restrictions of the epidemiology of thyroid issues in the brain. Notwithstanding central international attempts to increase iodine supplementation, mainly via voluntary or mandatory iodization of salt, nearly one-third of the population lives in areas of thyroid dysfunction and risks the repercussions. The WHO recommends a dietary allowance of 150 grams of iodine each day, which increases to 250 g during childbirth and 290 g during lactation. According to the WHO, 2 billion people, including 285 million schoolkids, have iodine deficiency, which is described as the efflux of iodine in urine excretion of less than 100 g/l. This has a significant impact on development and is the greatest cause of chronic

mental disability worldwide. Cross-sectional research in Europe, the United States, and Japan has ascertained the preponderance of hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism and the recurrence and dispersion of thyroid autoantibodies in various, primarily white, societies. Recent European research has indicated the impact of dietary serum concentrations on the epidemiological data of thyroid disease. Only a few studies on the prevalence of autoimmune thyroid issues have been performed in advanced nations [1].

Thyroid issues represent nearly one in every thirteen people or 20 million people (7.35 percent) in the United States. Thyroid abnormalities are divided into hypothyroid, hyperthyroid, and sub-clinical. According to the world's most populous study, NHANES III, 4.6 percent of U.S. has thyroid problems (0.2 % clinical and 4.2 percent subclinical), and 1.3 percent has thyroid problems (0.5% clinical and 0.7 percent subclinical). In the U. S., both hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism cause high mortality rates.

2. Complication of untreated hypo and hyperthyroid

2.1 Cardiovascular Dysfunction

The hypothalamic-pituitary-thyroid axis regulates metabolic health through a quintessential endocannabinoid feedback effect framework. Thyrotropin-releasing hormone (T.R.H.) is stored at the hypothalamic level. It encourages the production and secretion to generate thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), which causes the thyroid hypothalamus to release thyrotropin (T.H.). T.H. stages regulate T.R.H. and TSH manufacturing and discharge. Because TSH has a log-linear connection with thyroxine (T4) levels, even minor modifications in T.H. levels result in massive adjustments in TSH. As a result, serum TSH is a reliable indicator of institutional T.H. condition. T4 and triiodothyronine are the two most common iodinated T.H.s (T3). Both have physiological effects; however, T3 is the more active and powerful hormone. Illness, including conditions such as acute myocardial infarction (A.M.I.) or heart failure (H.F.), destabilizes negative feedback regulation of thyroid function, resulting in a decrease in serum T.H. without a concurrent rise in circulating TSH levels (termed nonthyroidal ailment and mentioned further below). With the acknowledgment that TSH is hyper delicate to slight differences in flowing T.H. levels and the introduction of high sensitivity TSH assays, clinicians can detect tiny differences in thyroid hormone, giving impetus to the development of subclinical thyroid issues [2]. When congenital hypothyroidism is corrected, cholesterol levels rise, reversed once euthyroidism is accomplished. Hypothyroidism is affiliated with a marginally significant increment in lipid levels, specifically an increase in low-density lipoproteins (LDLs). Hypothyroidism is linked to higher LDL oxidation, which encourages atherogenesis and can also be reversed with diagnosis. Lipoprotein(a), a more powerful marker of atherogenesis, rises in overt hypothyroidism and falls with thyroid hormone treatment [3]. Subclinical hypothyroidism (S.C.H.) has a less substantial impact on hyperlipidemia. Hyperlipidemia in hypothyroidism is caused by a decrease in Lysosomal, which leads to decreased cholesterol discharge from the hepatocytes and reduced expression of the cholesterol 7 α -hydroxylase, which is stimulated by T.H. and is responsible for cholesterol breakdown. A systematic review of six randomized controlled trials (R.C.T.s) indicated that levothyroxine diagnosis of S.C.H. seemed to have no overall impact on total lipid but recommended a pattern forward into

lowering LDL cholesterol (LDL-C) levels >155 mg/dl in a subgroup analysis. Two consecutive trials proposed that the LDL-C decrease was around 0.3 mmol/l (11.6 mg/dl) [4]. Many variables, such as hyperlipidemia and a proinflammatory state, are essential in contributing to arterial stiffness and endothelial dysfunction in S.C.H. and hypothyroidism. Thereby, in the Rotterdam analysis, patients with S.C.H. who were positive for thyroid autoantibodies had more aortic calcification and a more significant percentage of myocardial injury than those who have S.C.H. alone [5]. Both hyperlipidemia and thyroid antibodies inhibit endothelial nitric oxide synthase interpretation, thereby hampering vasodilation. Furthermore, the lack of T3's average vasodilatory impacts, arterial wall rigidity, and a reduced renin state contribute to high blood pressure and vascular chemical imbalances [6].

2.2 Renal Dysfunction

RBF, G.F.R., tubular feature, electrolyte homeostasis, and kidney composition are all affected by thyroid problems. RBF and G.F.R. are enhanced in hyperthyroidism. Thyroid hormones influence RBF and G.F.R. at numerous levels. Hormonal changes, one of the pre-renal variables, significantly raise cardiac function via favorable chronotropic and inotropic impacts and decrease systemic blood pressure. This installation packages an increment in RBF. Endothelial generation of nitric oxide (NO) in the renal cortex and medulla is expanded by the formation of nitric oxide synthase (N.O.S.), which is induced straightforwardly by thyroid function and obliquely by elevated arterial pressure-related endothelial stresses. This is characterized by a reduction in the vasoconstrictor endothelin in the kidneys.

As a result, there is enhanced intrarenal vasodilatation and decreased vasodilation, which contributes to a total gain in RBF. G.F.R. rises by about 18–25 percent in hypothyroidism patient populations. This uptick in G.F.R. is not entirely responsible for the increase in RBF. The renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (R.A.A.S.) is also activated, which relates to an increment in G.F.R. Thyroid acting directly on the R.A.A.S. in a multifaceted way. Hyperthyroidism causes a rise in b-adrenergic action, characterized by an increase in the density of b-adrenergic neurotransmitters in the renal cortex, resulting in increased R.A.A.S. stimulus. T3 stimulates the interpretation of the renin genotype. Thyroid-stimulating hormone raises plasma renin, angiotensin II, and plasma angiotensin transforming enzyme.

Furthermore, angiotensinogen formulation by the liver increases, as does the concentration of angiotensin receptor proteins. As a result, there is a considerable improvement in R.A.A.S. action. It causes arteriolar vascular permeability and innervation, arteriolar vasoconstriction, and a rise in separation force. It thus contributes to the magnitude of the increment in G.F.R. well beyond what is attributed by an increment in RBF. A reduction in total interstitial fluid and exchangeable cations, but not sodium, is connected with thyroid problems. Nevertheless, serum sodium and potassium concentrations are generally normal. Hyperthyroidism is occasionally associated with hypokalemia (thyrotoxic hypokalemic periodic paralysis of channelopathies) due to a gene variant in either the L-type calcium channel one subunit of the potassium inner rectifier [7].

The consequences of hypothyroidism on the kidney have generally been fundamentally opposed to those of hyperthyroidism. In hypothyroidism, the RBF is lowered, leading to

declining pulse rate, enhanced resistance to blood flow, renal tubular bronchoconstriction, reduced kidney reaction to vasodilators, and lessened articulation of renal vasodilators including such vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1). Furthermore, pathologic changes in the glomerular structure associated with hypothyroidism, including submucosal overgrowth and mesangial matrix augmentation, could result in lowered RBF. Hypothyroidism causes a treatable increase in serum creatinine, leading to a decrease in G.F.R., along with myopathy and rhabdomyolysis. Serum cystatin C rates were lower in hypothyroidism due to decreased production of decreased cell metabolism. Both of these changes are reversible with hypothyroidism therapies. Hypothyroidism also increases the absorption of glomerular capillaries to enzymes. In hypothyroidism, proteinuria frequently accompanies a decrease in G.F.R. [1].

2.3 Neurologic Dysfunction

Adults with procured hypothyroidism had already long been revealed to have cognitive deficits. All affected are recollection, intellectual capacity, awareness, ability to focus, receptive and expressive language, and visuospatial and executive functions. Contrary to those seen with thyroid dysfunction, therapeutic interventions of hypothyroidism and report to euthyroid state often do not reestablish this memory impairment. Admittedly, there is very little information in the younger patients on cognitive deficits caused by procured hypothyroidism. According to one investigation on behavior and studying in kids with hypothyroidism, an estimated 25% have attention problems and gentle behavioral disturbances [8].

Hypothyroidism is linked to peripheral nerve demyelination and reduced cranial nerve speed. Neuromuscular irregularities and neuropathic pain happen regularly and have generally been known in grownups with patients diagnosed with thyroid disease, with up to 50 percent having experienced indications of somatosensory neuropathy; of all these, carpal tunnel disease is expected to be especially prevalent. In treated patients with carpal tunnel syndrome, mucinous intrusion of the perineurium and offer the lowest occurs. According to neurophysiological research, polyneuropathy is prevalent in older people with thyroid disorders, with lowered cranial nerve speed and fibrillation possibilities. The most general pattern in grownups is a sensorimotor deficit, which is generally bilateral and proximal and may have been in the quintessential glove-and-stocking allocation. Deep tendon nerve impulses exhibit a postponed soothing phase, which would be a quintessential literal depiction of obtained primary hypothyroidism in adolescents. Thyroid hormones play significant and socially progressive positions in neurohormonal, neurobiological, and neuromuscular features all through the skin.

Average brain growth in formative years is highly dependent on thyroid hormone. The institution of pervasive neonatal screening programs to identify and cure rare genetic hypothyroidism has already been immensely influential in making it a point or stopping initial and irrevocable neurobiological damage done by hormonal insufficiency. Thyroid function abnormalities, including Hashimoto thyroiditis and Graves' illness, are affiliated

with and might induce a range of center and tangential neurological and neuromuscular impairment. A high indicator of presumption for the prospect of hypothyroidism in a wide range of early life neurodegenerative diseases is critical for timely identification and appropriate therapy. Nevertheless, significant differences in the clinical spectrum are characterized [9]. More research in children is needed to understand the processes of thyroid-related neurological disease.

2.4 Pregnancy Dysfunction

Pregnancy can mimic some of the symptoms of hypothyroidism, such as exhaustion, anxiousness, digestive problems, muscle spasms, and excess weight; as a consequence, diagnosing thyroid hormone during childbirth can be challenging. Furthermore, most indications of hypothyroidism can be concealed by a female's condition due to the rise in metabolism during pregnancy. Moreover, the hormone estrogen account in full-term pregnancy can indeed be misinterpreted as hypothyroidism, necessitating trimester-specific benchmark periods for a particular population in the explanation of thyroid function exams. The use of trimester-specific thyroid hormone regarding variations precludes hypothyroidism during childbirth from being misclassified. In comparison to hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism is persistent; 2-3% of expectant mothers have hypothyroidism. The most prevalent hypothyroidism throughout childbirth is S.C.H. Its incidence varies from 1.5 to 5% depending on description, ethnic origin, iodine usage, nourishment, style of life, and a research procedure. Whereas the detrimental impacts of S.C.H. on fetal growth are very well recognized when combined with favorable T.P.O. monoclonal antibody or overt thyroid problems, there seems to be debate about the negative impact of S.C.H. without autoimmune disorders. Expectant mothers who have T.P.O. immunoglobulin at the start of their pregnancy are at risk of developing subclinical hypothyroidism or thyroid dysfunction after childbearing [10].

There is no agreement on the adverse effects of subclinical hypothyroidism on fetal growth. However, some research indicates an increased risk of congenital malformations, premature births, spontaneous abortions, hypertensive disorders, foetal distress, serious preeclampsia, perinatal anguish, and kidney disease; other studies did not. Observable hypothyroidism has a very well brief influence on the brain component; these kids have smaller Brain and more neurodevelopment impotence; nevertheless, there is no agreement on the lengthy psychological benefits of untreated hypothyroidism; though some disclosed loss of motor control and intellectual ability in babies and toddlers, others noted standard memory and sensory purpose [11].

2.5 Sexual Dysfunction

Thyroid abnormalities have been accompanied by significant perturbations in male and female sexual impairment (F.S.D.), and this section will address these concerns. Erectile problems, in both women and men, are a widespread and multifaceted problem with numerous causal factors. From a man's point of view, erectile difficulties can be divided into three categories: E.D., ejaculatory disturbances such as urinary incontinence and postponed

ejaculation, and loss of libido. Post phone Ejaculation is now the most common male sex illness, affecting twenty to thirty percent of men at some point in their lives. Some other prevalent male sexual dysfunction is E.D., a strongly age-dependent problem, with a proportion of cases of 18 percent in the age range of 50-59 years, rising to 37 percent in the age group of 70-75 years.

An approximated 5 to 15 percent of men have decreased libido, with many reporting concurrent worsening in other areas of sexual performance. People approach erectile problems through the domain names of sexual attraction, sexual excitement, premature ejaculation, gratification, and anguish with sexual behavior. Including an independent study of adults aged 40 to 80, 39% revealed loss of function in at least one of these areas. F.S.D. also has an age-dependent component, as genital tract pathophysiology of menstruation is observed to induce uneasiness, lack of lubricating oil, or anguish in the 40percent of postmenopausal women [12].The inter - connected connection of women's reproductive impairment due to the multiple syndromes pertinent to alterations in the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal azimuth is inherent. The most serious effect of these thyroid problems is hypogonadism. As a result, woman's menstrual cycles are disrupted, and both men and women experience infertility. Many problems, including such reoccurring spontaneous abortion, are grave repercussions of thyroid dysfunction. Modifications in sexual function can be different contingent on the etiology of hormonal insufficiency or abundance.

3. Assessment of thyroid gland

3.1 Ultrasonography

Thyroid/neck ultrasound imaging can aid in diagnosing P.T.L. and may aid in the early detection of this serious condition. Ultrasonographic structures of P.T.L. can be classified into three types based on observations (internal echoes, boundary, posterolateral echoes, and so on). P.T.L. is most frequently seen as a well-defined hypoechoic mass. Ultrasonography can help differentiate P.T.L. from those other thyroid disorders, particularly ones characterized by rapid thyroid expansion, such as anaplastic carcinoma, hemorrhage into an adenoma or cyst, and sub-acute thyroiditis. Ultrasonography plays several roles in treating thyroid cancer patients(**Figure 1**). It aids in discerning ordinary from abnormal thyroid nodules, provides outlines for fine-needle aspiration (F.N.A.) biopsy of nodules, and can identify cervical lymph node metastatic abnormalities in patients diagnosed with thyroid. Goiters are incredibly common; investigations show that approximately half of the U.S. inhabitants are multinodular [13].

Nevertheless, only 4% to 8% of these growths are perceptible and medically detectable. Many others are found by chance during a computed tomographic search, magnetic resonance imaging, or sonography of the throat for a reason unconnected to thyroid problems. In assessing the thyroid hormone, ultrasonography (U.S.) is the company's most expensive imaging method. A few healthcare communities, along with the American Thyroid Association (A.T.A.), the Society of Radiologists in Ultrasound (S.R.U.), and the American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists (AACE), have lately produced a series of regulations to motivate a rational approach to managing of thyroid nodules discovered on the U.S. The SRU7 and AACE Consensus Assertion on Thyroid Nodules summarizes the U.S.

characteristics of autoimmune reactions that should be analyzed. They consist of nodule composition and size (solid, complex, or cystic). The process measures must be assessed in solid benign cysts: nodule echotexture, frame, boundaries (smooth or thickened), the existence and reliability of benign intraocular tumors, and the existence of a required minimum halo [14].

Thyroid ultrasound is indicated for assessing a palpable thyroid nodule or presumed thyroid augmentation, as well as workup of thyroid nodules explored coincidentally. It can not be used as a medical test for skin lesion segmentation. Aside from nodule characterization, the U.S. offers adequate guidelines for fine-needle aspiration biopsy (F.N.A.B.), which, amidst some constraints, continues to remain the gold standard for thyroid nodule categorization. The revelation of these ancillary benign cysts has resulted in an explosion of research over the years. Even though benign tumors are shared, only 5% to 10% of growths are cancerous. The bulk of benign cysts is not true neoplasms and nodular hyperplasia. In evaluating these ultrasonography implementations, I had already drawn on my comprehensive direct knowledge with workplace ultrasound imaging, which includes over 1,500 evaluations for assessing autoimmune reactions or monitoring individuals with chronic disease. There are fully comprehensive studies of pituitary ultrasonography obtainable. The elevated epigenetic changes of glandular tissue, the surface level location of the thyroid hormone that enables any user of high transmitters to obtain better definition, and its simplicity and relatively inexpensive in comparison to other methods including such computed tomography (C.T.), magnetic resonance imaging (M.R.I.), and radioisotopic image processing all contribute to ultrasonography's excellent value for hormone microscopy [15]. Its primary constraint is its incapability to an organization created obscured by sonic effects caused by cartilage and bone (for example, mediastinal goiters and retrotracheal lymph nodes).



Figure 1. Ultrasonographic longitudinal and transverse images of the thyroid gland [16].

3.2 CT/MRI/PET

In the diagnosis of Primary Thyroid Lymphoma, CT (computed tomography) or M.R.I. (magnetic resonance imaging) is rarely used. Such diagnostic methodologies are used for specific patients, primarily for accurate preoperative disease staging and care planning. Ultrasonography, which is very well recognized, has constraints in understanding the level of cancerous thyroid hormone levels, particularly complicity of surrounding structures and periapical lymph nodes. P.T.L. has seemed on C.T. scanning as a homogeneous mass that affects all these thyroid lobes and is iso-intense to biceps. On CT, P.T.L. is more

heterogeneous than malignant disease, and benign growths or cystic cellular senescence are uncommon, differentiating it from goiter (**Figure 2**). Despite its significance, P.T.L. is related to lower obtrusive propensity; upper airway incursion is very infrequent in P.T.L. M.R.I. is far more delicate than C.T. in discovering potential extrathyroidal (surrounding) skin participation; nevertheless, higher costs should be considered. F-18 fluorodeoxyglucose (F.D.G.)-P.E.T. has been a valuable diagnostic method in lymphomas, including P.T.L., for staging, restaging, and assessing response to therapy. P.T.L. is distinguished by markedly elevated F.D.G. take-up in the thyroid gland; once efferent lymphatic nodes are implicated, enhanced F.D.G. uptake in the throat's horizontal area(s) is observed [17].

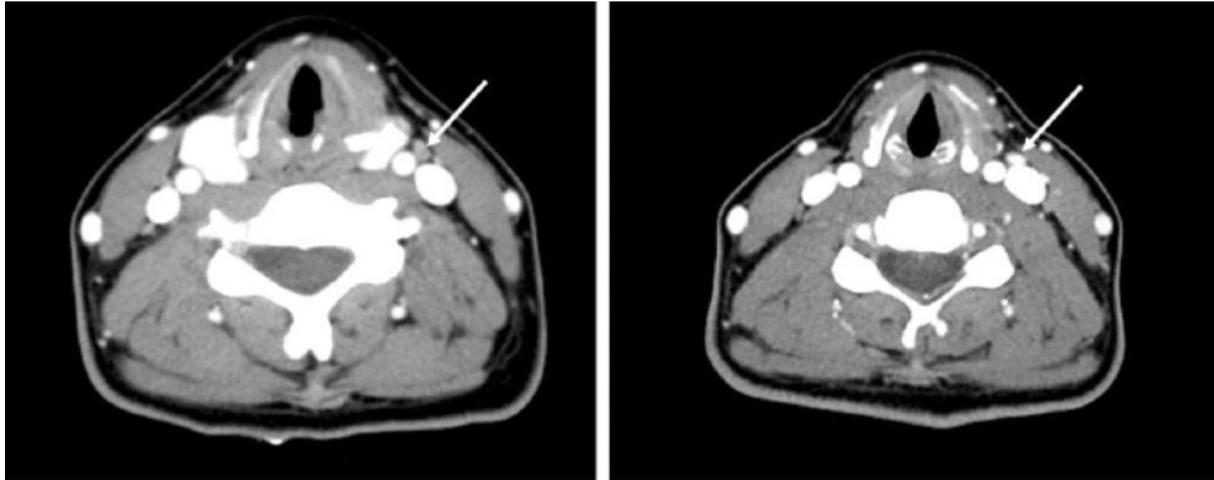


Figure 2. C.T. images of the thyroid gland at different scanning delays [18].

3.3 Fine-needle aspiration

Fine-needle aspiration (F.N.A.) is now a vital element in treating thyroid illnesses. Nevertheless, F.N.A. has produced conflicting results in the diagnostic test of P.T.L. Positive diagnosis values ranged extensively in the literature, ranging from 25% to 90%. In a small number of patients (50 to 60%), F.N.A. findings are evocative but not lab tests. There are no reports of false-positive findings. Because when inhaled samples line passes of immune cells, P.T.L. must be seriously contemplated. Because once histologically anomalous huge leukocytes are found, the prognosis of large melanoma cells must be considered. If the fricative grouping is a mix of medium and prominent lymphocytes, Hashimoto's thyroiditis and P.T.L. must be distinguished; that is not always an easy task, mainly because when P.T.L. is of reduced histology, such as MALT lymphoma, due to a more diverse presence as a whole and complexity distinguishing this from other types of thyroiditis.

Besides that, many of the conditions of MALT malignancy occur in the thyroid gland in conjunction with Hashimoto's thyroiditis, elevating the number of inaccurate results related to sampling error. In reduced thyroid conditions, the enormous amount of lymphatic tissue and a high percentage of transitional centrocyte-like cells may be distinguishing characteristics compared to Hashimoto's thyroiditis. If the fricative grouping is a mix of medium and prominent lymphocytes, Hashimoto's thyroiditis and P.T.L. must be distinguished; it is not always a simple process, mainly because when P.T.L. is of reduced histology, such as MALT lymphoma, due to a more diverse presence as a whole and complexity distinguishing this from Hashimoto's thyroiditis [17].

Besides that, many instances of MALT malignancy occur within the thyroid gland in conjunction with Hashimoto's thyroiditis, expanding the number of inaccurate results related to sampling error. In reduced thyroid conditions, the enormous amount of lymphatic tissue and a high percentage of transitional centrocyte-like molecules could be distinguishing characteristics compared to Hashimoto's thyroiditis [19]. The allocation of a knowledgeable cytopathologist and cytotechnologist in conducting and assessing F.N.A. is noticeable, and identity; expertise on their portion is needed to acquire needed materials for assessment (F.N.A., flow cytometry, immunocytochemistry, and single-molecule studies), as well as identify the malignancy. The importance of adjunctive methods in assessing the local F.N.A. sample group cannot be overstated. This technique increases overall detection ability in P.T.L. and enables for P.T.L. subclassification.

3.4 Open surgical biopsy

Despite advances in F.N.A. technique (primarily due to the advent of ultrasonographic and advanced adjunctive techniques), conventional surgical tissue might be required to verify the diagnosis of P.T.L. when F.N.A. outcomes are ambiguous and when diagnosis by F.N.A. is complex; a typical example is that when the treatment options among P.T.L. and Hashimoto's thyroiditis is unclear [17]. Further evidence of open bone marrow aspiration is when F.N.A. has a low specificity for prognosis; an example is the infrequent endocrine system Hodgkin's lymphoma, which is significantly harder to diagnose by F.N.A., owing to the scarce of diagnosing Reed Sternberg cells in tissue samples and also the labeled affiliated fibrosis and sclerosis, going to result in hypochromic or implicit association specimen. In this case, the rare large atypical cells may be misdiagnosed as reactive instead of cancerous. It is worth noting that, even though F.N.A. has been used to diagnose P.T.L. in a large number of patients, some authors have suggested open biopsy in all situations in order to definitively make a diagnosis of P.T.L. or subtype and grade P.T.L. This is highly crucial when therapeutic approaches or diagnoses differ based on histological subtype (for example, MALT vs. dispersion or made by mixing large cell P.T.L.).

4. Conclusion

Thyroid, a chronic illness, detracts the patients' quality of life. Therefore, there is a dire need to monitor periodically to avoid complications and accelerate thyroid cancer. With the advancements of imaging techniques, the regular assessment may allow proper disease control. In this review, we have summarized various complications of thyroid, if left untreated, and methods of diagnosis through non-invasive and invasive procedures.

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