

Comparison of Thyroid Function Tests in Pregnant Women with and without Gestational Diabetes

Hatice ÖZİŞİK¹  , Şevki ÇETİNKALP¹ , Aslı SUNER² , İsmet HORTU³ ,
Ahmet Mete ERGENOĞLU³ , Mehmet ERDOĞAN¹ 

¹Ege University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, İzmir, Turkey

²Ege University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, İzmir, Turkey

³Ege University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, İzmir, Turkey

Cite this article as: Özışık H et al. Comparison of thyroid function tests in pregnant women with and without gestational diabetes. Turk J Diab Obes 2021;3: 285-290.

ABSTRACT

Aim: The aim of this study was to determine whether there were abnormalities in thyroid hormone levels and anti-thyroid peroxidase antibodies in pregnant women with and without gestational diabetes mellitus.

Material and Methods: We analyzed the medical records of 107 pregnant women. Clinical data related to maternal age, gestational week, body mass index, thyroid function tests, and anti-thyroid peroxidase antibodies, fasting blood glucose tests and HbA1c levels were obtained. The Pearson chi-square test, the Mann-Whitney U test, independent samples t-test, the Spearman correlation coefficient and Logistic regression model were performed.

Results: Gestational diabetes mellitus group was significantly older ($p=0.001$). Body mass index was statistically different between the two groups ($p=0.002$). There were statistically significant differences in fasting blood glucose and HbA1c between the two groups ($p<0.001$ and $p=0.004$, respectively). The frequency of anti-thyroid peroxidase antibodies was higher in pregnant women with gestational diabetes mellitus, but the result was not statistically significant ($p=0.716$). Euthyroidism (57.9%) was more prevalent in all patients. While cases of subclinical hypothyroidism were statistically significantly different between gestational diabetes mellitus and non-gestational diabetes mellitus groups ($p<0.001$), euthyroidism and isolated hypothyroxinemia had no significant differences ($p=0.093$ and $p=0.220$, respectively). Our results suggest that pregnant women with subclinical hypothyroidism are 5.5 times more likely to be gestational diabetes mellitus.

Conclusion: Subclinical hypothyroidism during pregnancy was detected more frequently in women with gestational diabetes mellitus than in women without gestational diabetes mellitus. Taken together, women with GDM should be performed thyroid tests and anti TPO routinely.

Keywords: Gestational diabetes mellitus, Hypothyroidism, Anti-thyroid peroxidase antibodies

Gestasyonel Diyabetli ve Gestasyonel Diyabet Olmayan Gebelerde Tiroid Fonksiyon Testlerinin Karşılaştırılması

ÖZ

Amaç: Bu çalışmanın amacı, gestasyonel diyabeti olan ve olmayan gebelerde tiroid hormon düzeylerinde ve anti-tiroid peroksidaz antikorlarında farklılık olup olmadığını belirlemektir.

Gereç ve Yöntemler: 107 gebe kadının tıbbi kayıtlarını incelendi. Anne yaşı, gebelik haftası, vücut kütle indeksi, tiroid fonksiyon testleri ve antitiroid peroksidaz antikorları, açlık kan şekeri testleri ve HbA1c düzeyleri ile ilgili klinik veriler elde edildi. Pearson ki-kare testi, Mann-Whitney U testi ve bağımsız örnekler t testi, Spearman korelasyon katsayısı ve lojistik regresyon modeli uygulandı.

ORCID: Hatice Özışık / 0000-0003-4336-814X, Şevki Çetinkalp / 0000-0001-6072-2062, Aslı Suner / 0000-0002-6872-9901, İsmet Hortu / 0000-0003-3833-0999 , Ahmet Mete Ergenoğlu / 0000-0003-2775-7911, Mehmet Erdoğan / 0000-0002-0300-3923

Correspondence Address / Yazışma Adresi:

Hatice ÖZİŞİK

Ege University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, İzmir, Turkey,
Phone: +90 (232) 390 4612 • E-mail: drhaticege@hotmail.com

DOI: 10.25048/tudod.974721

Received / Geliş tarihi : 27.07.2021

Revision / Revizyon tarihi : 10.09.2021

Accepted / Kabul tarihi : 17.09.2021

Bulgular: Gestasyonel diyabet grubu anlamlı olarak daha yaşlıydı ($p=0,001$). Vücut kütle indeksi iki grup arasında istatistiksel olarak farklıydı ($p=0,002$). İki grup arasında açlık kan şekeri ve HbA1c açısından istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar vardı (sırasıyla $p<0,001$ ve $p=0,004$). Gestasyonel diyabetli gebelerde anti-tiroid peroksidaz antikorları sıklığı daha yüksekti, ancak istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılık yoktu ($p=0,716$). Ötiroidizm (%57,9) tüm hastalarda daha yaygındı. Subklinik hipotiroidi olguları GDM'li olan ve olmayan gruplar arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılık gösterirken ($p<0,001$), ötiroidizm ve izole hipotiroidoksinemi arasında anlamlı fark bulunmadı (sırasıyla $p=0,093$ ve $p=0,220$). Sonuçlarımız subklinik hipotiroidizmi olan gebelerin gestasyonel diyabet olma olasılığının 5,5 kat daha fazla olduğunu göstermektedir.

Sonuç: Gestasyonel diyabetli kadınlarda gebelikteki subklinik hipotiroidizm gestasyonel diyabetli olmayan kadınlardan daha sık saptanmıştır. Gestasyonel diyabetli kadınlara rutin olarak tiroid testleri yapılmalı ve anti-tiroid peroksidaz antikorlarına bakılmalıdır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: *Gestasyonel diabetes mellitus, Hipotiroidizm, Anti tiroid peroksidaz antikorları*

INTRODUCTION

Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) is a kind of glucose intolerance which is (first) diagnosed during pregnancy and usually reveals itself in the second or third trimester.

It may lead to common fetal and maternal complications, and it has a prevalence rate of 12.4-18.9 % (1, 2). GDM may cause morbidities such as fetal macrosomia, gestational hypertension-preeclampsia, postpartum metabolic disease, cardiovascular disease, fetal macrosomia, postpartum type 2 diabetes and abnormal glucose metabolism (3). These outcomes can be reversible through physical activity, dietary intervention, and if necessary taking insulin treatment (4). In addition, increased insulin requirement during pregnancy may result in further the development of GDM (5).

Similarly, thyroid diseases and GDM are common endocrine diseases detected during pregnancy and they have a prevalence rate of 16.6 % (6, 7). In addition, thyroid diseases have similar adverse outcomes in pregnancy. Thyroid hormones have a critical role in glucose homeostasis (8). Maternal thyroid hormones may affect blood sugar levels due to glucose level in the blood and this is also associated with the placental lactogen, placental insulin enzyme, estrogen, thyroid binding globulin (9).

Recent studies have stated that thyroid dysfunction and GDM have a significant relationship (2, 10, 11). A large number of changes take place in thyroid function in the period of gestation and insufficient adaptation to these changes may cause thyroid dysfunction (12). During pregnancy anti-thyroid peroxidase antibodies (anti TPO) and thyroid dysfunction may be detected together, and they may have a crucial impact on glucose metabolism (13). Furthermore, studies revealing the relationship between thyroid disease and GDM are challenging (14-16). Pregnant women with GDM may have elevated thyroid antibodies. In pregnant women, the prevalence of thyroid antibodies in pregnant women is nearly 10%-15% (17).

Our aim in this study is to define whether there were differences in the thyroid hormone levels and anti TPO in pregnant women with GDM and non-GDM.

MATERIALS and METHODS

Study Population

This study was a retrospective study in Ege University Faculty of Medicine Endocrinology and Obstetrics Departments. We obtained the medical records of 107 pregnant women in two groups; GDM ($n=54$) and non-GDM ($n=53$). All were admitted to our outpatient clinics in the period of December 2020-February 2021. All women had a natural conception, singleton pregnancies, and they were at ≥ 24 weeks of gestation. In GDM group, the inclusion criteria including patients with ages 18 to 40 years, history of normal thyroid function during GDM; the control group was without GDM and history of normal thyroid function. Exclusion criteria were pre-existing thyroid dysfunction, age less than 18 years or below, and 40 or above, and having diabetes before gestation (types 1 and 2).

Clinical data related to the gestational week when admitted to our outpatient clinics, body mass index (BMI), maternal age, height, and weight were obtained as well as thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), thyroid function tests (free thyroxine (FT4)), glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c), anti TPO, and fasting plasma glucose (FPG) tests.

The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Ege University Faculty of Medicine (21-3.1T/66). Informed consents were obtained from all subjects.

Diagnosis of GDM

GDM was diagnosed through a 2-hour (h), 75-g oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) according to American Diabetes Association (ADA) and the International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics (FIGO) criteria (18, 19). GDM was diagnosed based on one or more of the 75-g OGTT results: 1-h plasma glucose level ≥ 180 mg/dL, 2-h plasma

glucose level ≥ 153 mg/dL, and FPG level ≥ 92 mg/dL on the 24-28th gestational week (20).

Thyroid Function

The laboratory references were selected as TSH (0.27-4.2 mIU/L) and FT4 (0.89-1.76 ng/dL). Anti-TPO was elevated if the level was equal or more than 34 IU/mL (21). During thyroid status evaluation, the guidelines of Endocrine Society, American Thyroid Association [ATA], European Thyroid Association [ETA] were considered (22). Trimester-specific reference range of ATA for TSH, patients with GDM and without GDM were classified into four groups: euthyroid (TSH < 2.5 mIU/L); subclinical hypothyroidism (SCH) (TSH 2.5-4 mIU/L); hypothyroidism (TSH > 4 mIU/L) and isolated maternal hypothyroxinemia (IMH). IMH was defined low FT4 concentrations despite normal TSH concentrations in pregnancy and was detected in the third trimester (23). SCH could be detected in any trimester. All pregnant women having subclinical hypothyroidism initiated levothyroxine therapy.

Statistical Analysis

Since frequency tables and the Pearson chi-square test used for the analysis of categorical variables in GDM groups; descriptive statistics were calculated for the continuous variables. The Shapiro-Wilk normality test was used to check normality assumption of the continuous variables. The Mann-Whitney U test (Wilcoxon rank-sum test) and independent samples t-test were performed to determine whether the differences between the GDM groups were statistically significant. Firstly, logistic regression models were performed to evaluate the significant variables associated with GDM in single variables, and then a final model was executed with the backward stepwise method. The correlation between TSH and FT4 was examined with the Spearman correlation coefficient in all patients' data and GDM groups. A value of $P < 0.05$ was considered significant in all hypothesis tests. The IBM SPSS version 25.0 was used in all statistical analyses (Chicago, IL, USA).

RESULTS

The demographics and clinical characteristics of all patients were demonstrated in Table 1. Among them 54 patients (50.5%) had GDM and 53 (49.5%) were non-diabetic pregnant women. The median age was 31.00 years in patients with GDM and 26.00 years in the control group. Compared with the non-GDM group, pregnant women in the GDM group were statistically significantly older ($p=0.001$). The mean BMI was 30.78 ± 4.84 in the GDM group whereas for the control group it was 28.01 ± 4.11 , which presents a statistical difference in terms of BMI in two groups ($p=0.002$). Also,

there were statistically significant differences in HbA1c and FPG between GDM groups ($p < 0.001$ and $p=0.004$, respectively). On the other hand, TSH levels and FT4 concentrations were not significantly different in both GDM groups ($p=0.263$ and $p=0.265$, respectively). Statistically, there was a significant negative correlation between the TSH and FT4 in the GDM group ($r=-0.278$; $p=0.041$). However, the correlation of TSH and FT4 in the non-GDM group was not significant ($p=0.203$). In the total patients' data set, the correlation between the TSH and FT4 was statistically significant ($r=-0.248$; $p=0.010$). The frequency of anti TPO was higher in pregnant women with GDM than that of the control group but the result was not statistically significant ($p=0.716$). Positive anti TPO was observed in 7.5% (4 of 54 patients) of women with GDM and 5.6% (3 of 53 patients) of healthy pregnant women. In addition, TSH levels and FT4 concentrations were not significantly different in patients having positivity of anti TPO (3 of 7 patients with GDM, 4 without GDM) (TSH 0.80 (0.41-3.83); $p=1.000$, FT4 0.93 (0.75-1.09); $p=0.480$, respectively).

In the GDM group, patients' need for thyroxin replacement treatment was higher than the control group, however the difference was not statistically significant (48.1% vs. 34.0%; $p=0.136$). Thyroid hormone status is displayed in Table 2 for both groups. Euthyroidism (57.9%) was more prevalent in all patients. None of our patients had hypothyroidism. While cases of subclinical hypothyroidism were statistically significantly different between GDM and non-GDM groups ($p < 0.001$), euthyroidism and isolated hypothyroxinemia had no significant differences ($p=0.093$ and $p=0.220$, respectively).

We selected five statistically significant variables from Table 1. Binary logistic regression models for single variables and the final model to predict GDM were shown in Table 3. In the univariate logistic regression models of the GDM [non-GDM (0) and GDM (1)], all variables were statistically significant to predict GDM ($p < 0.05$). Subclinical hypothyroidism in pregnancy is a significant factor that increases the risk of GDM. Significant associations were detected between GDM and three variables including age, FPG and SCH in the final model ($p < 0.05$). Although BMI and HbA1c were statistically significant in the univariate model, they were not found significant in the final model. The odds ratio for SCH has the highest value of 5.558 (95% CI [1.450-21.297]; $p=0.012$). Thus, our results suggest that pregnant women with the subclinical hypothyroidism are 5.5 times more likely to be GDM. In addition to these results, odds ratios for age and FPG were 1.149 (95% CI [1.052-1.255]; $p=0.002$) and 1.107 (95% CI [1.044-1.173]; $p=0.001$), respectively.

Table 1: Demographics and clinical characteristics of enrolled patients.

| Variables | Total (n=107) | GDM (n=54, 50.5%) | Non-GDM (n=53, 49.5%) | P |
|---|---------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| Age (years) ^b | 29.00 (9.00) | 31.00 (8.00) | 26.00 (10.50) | 0.001^e |
| BMI (kg/m ²) ^a | 29.41 ± 4.69 | 30.78 ± 4.84 | 28.01 ± 4.11 | 0.002^d |
| Weeks of gestation ^b | 30.00 (7.00) | 29.00 (8.25) | 30.00 (6.50) | 0.357 ^e |
| Fasting plasma glucose (mg/dL) ^a | 85.45 ± 9.84 | 89.69 ± 10.86 | 81.13 ± 6.30 | <0.001^d |
| HbA1c (%) ^a | 5.24 ± 0.41 | 5.35 ± 0.44 | 5.12 ± 0.34 | 0.004^d |
| Thyroid Function | | | | |
| TSH (mIU/L) ^b | 1.79 (1.29) | 1.96 (1.65) | 1.77 (0.97) | 0.263 ^e |
| FT4 (ng/dL) ^a | 0.94 ± 0.13 | 0.92 ± 0.13 | 0.96 ± 0.14 | 0.265 ^d |
| TPOAb (IU/mL)^c | | | | |
| ≥34 (positive) | 7 (6.5) | 3 (42.9) | 4 (57.1) | 0.716 ^f |
| <34 (negative) | 100 (93.5) | 51 (51.0) | 49 (49.0) | |

^a mean ± standard deviation, ^b median (IQR), ^c n (%), ^d independent samples t-test, ^e Mann-Whitney U test, ^f chi-square test
GDM: Gestational diabetes mellitus; **BMI:** Body mass index, **TSH:** Thyroid Stimulating Hormone, **FT4:** Free Thyroxine,
TPOAb: Thyroid Peroxidase Antibody

Table 2: Thyroid hormone status and GDM groups.

| Thyroid hormone status n (%) | GDM group (n=54, 50.5%) | Non-GDM group (n=53, 49.5%) | P |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|--------|
| Euthyroidism | - | 27 (60.0) | 0.093 |
| | + | 27 (43.5) | |
| Subclinical hypothyroidism | - | 36 (42.4) | 0.001* |
| | + | 18 (81.8) | |
| Isolated hypothyroxinaemia | - | 45 (53.6) | 0.220 |
| | + | 9 (39.1) | |

*P<0.01

Table 3: Binary logistic regression: models for single variables and a final model to predict GDM.

| Variables | Single Variables | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------|-------|--------------|
| | P | OR | 95% C.I. |
| Age | 0.001* | 1.135 | 1.052-1.224 |
| BMI | 0.003* | 1.152 | 1.049-1.265 |
| Fasting plasma glucose (mg/dL) | <0.001* | 1.122 | 1.061-1.187 |
| HbA1c (%) | 0.007* | 4.439 | 1.515-13.011 |
| Subclinical hypothyroidism | 0.002* | 6.125 | 1.909-19.650 |
| Variables | Final Model ^a | | |
| | P | OR | 95% C.I. |
| Age | 0.002* | 1.149 | 1.052-1.255 |
| BMI | - | - | - |
| Fasting plasma glucose (mg/dL) | 0.001* | 1.107 | 1.044-1.173 |
| HbA1c (%) | - | - | - |
| Subclinical hypothyroidism | 0.012* | 5.558 | 1.450-21.297 |

*P<0.05, statistically significant; **CI:** Confidence Interval, **OR:** Odds ratio.

^aMultiple logistic regression final model was executed on all these variables, included together in the model.

DISCUSSION

Many studies have reported that increased insulin resistance rather than decreased insulin secretion is the main reason for GDM (17, 24). Insulin resistance plays a pivotal role for the thyroid antibodies and the presence of thyroid antibodies may increase proinflammatory cytokines, inducing insulin resistance and GDM (25). Pregnant women with subclinical hypothyroidism may have an increase in insulin resistance and increased risk for gestational diabetes (11).

In our study, we found no significant difference in the positivity of anti TPO antibodies between two groups. In contrast, according to the thyroid status SCH was statistically different between GDM and non-GDM group. Recently, Safian et al. have supported our results and have demonstrated that the prevalence of SCH was higher in patients with GDM than in patients without GDM (26). Significant associations were also detected between GDM and age, FPG, SCH. Thus, our study reveals that SCH may be an important risk factor for GDM. Yang et al. reported hypothyroxinemia plays a pivotal role in developing GDM (14). There are controversial reports about the relationship between, thyroid antibodies, thyroid function abnormalities, and GDM. For instance, a previous meta-analysis demonstrated that SCH was detected higher in GDM patients (27). By contrast, in our study, thyroid status of SCH was found higher in the non-GDM group (28). In some studies, the relationship between thyroid antibodies and the risk of GDM was reported (17) but there was no significant difference in the prevalence of anti TPO antibodies between the two groups. Hornnes et al. revealed that during pregnancy, patients with thyroid autoimmunity could be susceptible to developing glucose intolerance, whereas other reports have contrasting conclusions (25, 29). Such incompatible results may occur due to small sample sizes and different study designs.

Thyroid dysfunction in pregnancy may result in many gestational and obstetrical complications and adverse pregnancy outcomes (30). Several mechanisms were reported about the relationship between the thyroid hormone levels and glucose metabolism. Thyroid hormones may decrease the half-life of insulin and may increase the expression of glucose transporter 2 in liver cell membranes so that they support hepatic glucose output (14). Furthermore, they accelerate glycogenolysis by activating β adrenergic receptors via cAMP (31). When taken together, glucose metabolism and thyroid function have common pathways so that both thyroid dysfunction and diabetes may develop in pregnant women. Moreover, in line with the results of our study, it seems reasonable to suggest that patients with GDM tend to have older maternal age than patients without GDM.

About the limitations, this was a retrospective study and did not include FT3 and anti Thyroglobulin (anti TG) levels. These parameters could not be included in the analysis because patients records were retrospectively collected. Moreover, the number of our study population was limited which can affect the reliability of making generalizations.

In conclusion, the frequency of anti TPO was higher in pregnant women with GDM, but the result was not statistically significant. Subclinical hypothyroidism during pregnancy was detected more frequently in women with GDM than in women without GDM. Although, further studies are needed for a large number of patients, women with GDM should be performed thyroid tests and anti TPO routinely.

Acknowledgement

We are grateful to Ahmet Topacoglu for his grammar support.

Authorship Contributions

Opinion: **Hatice Ozisik, Sevki Cetinkalp, Ismet Hortu, Ahmet Mete Ergenoglu, Mehmet Erdogan**, Research and writing: **Hatice Ozisik**, Statistical analysis: **Aslı Suner**, Critical approach: **Hatice Ozisik, Sevki Cetinkalp, Mehmet Erdogan**.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest for this study.

Financial Disclosure

No financial support was received for the article.

Ethical Approval

The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Ege University Faculty of Medicine (Decision dated 23.03.2021, Approval Number 21-3.1T/66).

REFERENCES

1. Wei Y, Yang H, Zhu W, Yang H, Li H, Yan J, Zhang C. International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Group criteria is suitable for gestational diabetes mellitus diagnosis: Further evidence from China. *Chin Med J (Engl)*. 2014;127(20):3553-3556.
2. Li X, Zuo J, Li YH, Tang YP, Bao YR, Ying H. Association between thyroid function and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus in assisted pregnancies: A retrospective cohort study. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2021;171:108590.
3. Ethridge JK Jr, Catalano PM, Waters TP. Perinatal outcomes associated with the diagnosis of gestational diabetes made by the international association of the diabetes and pregnancy study groups criteria. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2014;124(3):571-578.
4. Alwan N, Tuffnell DJ, West J. Treatments for gestational diabetes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2009;2009(3):CD003395.

5. Konar H, Sarkar M, Roy M. Association of thyroid dysfunction and autoimmunity in pregnant women with diabetes mellitus. *J Obstet Gynaecol India*. 2018;68(4):283-288.
6. Negro R, Mestman JH. Thyroid disease in pregnancy. *Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2011;25(6):927-943.
7. Diéguez M, Herrero A, Avello N, Suárez P, Delgado E, Menéndez E. Prevalence of thyroid dysfunction in women in early pregnancy: Does it increase with maternal age? *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)*. 2016;84(1):121-126.
8. Lambadiari V, Mitrou P, Maratou E, Raptis AE, Tountas N, Raptis SA, Dimitriadis G. Thyroid hormones are positively associated with insulin resistance early in the development of type 2 diabetes. *Endocrine*. 2011;39(1):28-32.
9. Jia M, Wu Y, Lin B, Shi Y, Zhang Q, Lin Y, Wang S, Zhang Y. Meta-analysis of the association between maternal subclinical hypothyroidism and gestational diabetes mellitus. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet*. 2019;144(3):239-247.
10. Maleki N, Tavosi Z. Evaluation of thyroid dysfunction and autoimmunity in gestational diabetes mellitus and its relationship with postpartum thyroiditis. *Diabet Med*. 2015;32(2):206-212.
11. Tudela CM, Casey BM, McIntire DD, Cunningham FG. Relationship of subclinical thyroid disease to the incidence of gestational diabetes. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2012;119(5):983-988.
12. Huang K, Xu Y, Yan S, Li T, Xu Y, Zhu P, Tao F. Isolated effect of maternal thyroid-stimulating hormone, free thyroxine and antithyroid peroxidase antibodies in early pregnancy on gestational diabetes mellitus: A birth cohort study in China. *Endocr J*. 2019;66(3):223-231.
13. Olivieri A, Valensise H, Magnani F, Medda E, De Angelis S, D'Archivio M, Sorcini M, Carta S, Baccarini S, Romanini C. High frequency of antithyroid autoantibodies in pregnant women at increased risk of gestational diabetes mellitus. *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2000;143(6):741-747.
14. Yang S, Shi FT, Leung PC, Huang HF, Fan J. Low Thyroid Hormone in Early Pregnancy Is Associated With an Increased Risk of Gestational Diabetes Mellitus. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2016;101(11):4237-4243.
15. Fatima SS, Rehman R, Butt Z, Asif Tauni M, Fatima Munim T, Chaudhry B, Khan TA. Screening of subclinical hypothyroidism during gestational diabetes in Pakistani population. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2016;29(13):2166-2170.
16. Karakosta P, Alegakis D, Georgiou V, Roumeliotaki T, Fthenou E, Vassilaki M, Boumpas D, Castanas E, Kogevinas M, Chatzi L. Thyroid dysfunction and autoantibodies in early pregnancy are associated with increased risk of gestational diabetes and adverse birth outcomes. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2012;97(12):4464-4472.
17. Yang Y, Li Q, Wang Q, Ma X. Thyroid antibodies and gestational diabetes mellitus: A meta-analysis. *Fertil Steril*. 2015;104(3):665-71.e3.
18. American Diabetes Association. 2. Classification and Diagnosis of Diabetes: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes-2020. *Diabetes Care*. 2020;43(Suppl 1):S14-S31.
19. Hod M, Kapur A, Sacks DA, Hadar E, Agarwal M, Di Renzo GC, Cabero Roura L, McIntyre HD, Morris JL, Divakar H. The International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics (FIGO) Initiative on gestational diabetes mellitus: A pragmatic guide for diagnosis, management, and care. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet*. 2015;131 Suppl 3:S173-211.
20. International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Groups Consensus Panel, Metzger BE, Gabbe SG, Persson B, Buchanan TA, Catalano PA, Damm P, Dyer AR, Leiva Ad, Hod M, Kitzmiller JL, Lowe LP, McIntyre HD, Oats JJ, Omori Y, Schmidt MI. International association of diabetes and pregnancy study groups recommendations on the diagnosis and classification of hyperglycemia in pregnancy. *Diabetes Care*. 2010;33(3):676-682.
21. Marwaha RK, Chopra S, Gopalakrishnan S, Sharma B, Kanwar RS, Sastry A, Singh S. Establishment of reference range for thyroid hormones in normal pregnant Indian women. *BJOG*. 2008;115(5):602-606.
22. De Groot L, Abalovich M, Alexander EK, Amino N, Barbour L, Cobin RH, Eastman CJ, Lazarus JH, Luton D, Mandel SJ, Mestman J, Rovet J, Sullivan S. Management of thyroid dysfunction during pregnancy and postpartum: An Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2012;97(8):2543-2565.
23. Alexander EK, Pearce EN, Brent GA, Brown RS, Chen H, Dosiou C, Grobman WA, Laurberg P, Lazarus JH, Mandel SJ, Peeters RP, Sullivan S. 2017 Guidelines of the American Thyroid Association for the Diagnosis and Management of Thyroid Disease During Pregnancy and the Postpartum. *Thyroid*. 2017;27(3):315-389.
24. Catalano PM. Trying to understand gestational diabetes. *Diabet Med*. 2014;31(3):273-281.
25. Montaner P, Juan L, Campos R, Gil L, Corcoy R. Is thyroid autoimmunity associated with gestational diabetes mellitus? *Metabolism*. 2008;57(4):522-525.
26. Safian S, Esna-Ashari F, Borzouei S. Thyroid Dysfunction in Pregnant Women with Gestational Diabetes Mellitus. *Curr Diabetes Rev*. 2020;16(8):895-899.
27. Toulis KA, Stagnaro-Green A, Negro R. Maternal subclinical hypothyroidism and gestational diabetes mellitus: A meta-analysis. *Endocr Pract*. 2014;20(7):703-714.
28. Shahid MM, Rahman KMT, Gomes RR, Ferdous M, Ferdousi S, Zahan T. Association of gestational diabetes mellitus and thyroid status during pregnancy: A cross-sectional study in a tertiary health care center of Bangladesh. *Gynecol Endocrinol*. 2021;37(4):312-314.
29. Hornnes PJ, Rasmussen N, Hegedüs L, Kühl C, Bottazzo GF. Glucose tolerance and incidence of pancreatic islet cell antibodies in pregnancy in women with thyroid autoantibodies. *Horm Metab Res*. 1991;23(3):122-125.
30. Vandana, Kumar A, Khatuja R, Mehta S. Thyroid dysfunction during pregnancy and in postpartum period: Treatment and latest recommendations. *Arch Gynecol Obstet*. 2014;289(5):1137-1144.
31. Das DK, Bandyopadhyay D, Bandyopadhyay S, Neogi A. Thyroid hormone regulation of beta-adrenergic receptors and catecholamine sensitive adenylate cyclase in foetal heart. *Acta Endocrinol (Copenh)*. 1984;106(4):569-576.