

Thyroid Function and Premature Delivery in TPO Antibody–Negative Women: The Added Value of hCG

Tim I. M. Korevaar,^{1,2,3} Eric A. P. Steegers,⁴ Loyal Chaker,^{2,3} Marco Medici,^{1,2,3} Vincent W. V. Jaddoe,^{1,5,6} Theo J. Visser,^{2,3} Yolanda B. de Rijke,^{3,7} and Robin P. Peeters^{2,3}

¹The Generation R Study Group, Erasmus Medical Center and/or Sophia Children's Hospital, 3015 GE Rotterdam, The Netherlands; ²Department of Internal Medicine, Erasmus Medical Center, 3015 GE Rotterdam, The Netherlands; ³Academic Center for Thyroid Diseases, Erasmus Medical Center, 3015 GE Rotterdam, The Netherlands; ⁴Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Erasmus Medical Center and/or Sophia Children's Hospital, 3015 GE Rotterdam, The Netherlands; ⁵Department of Pediatrics, Erasmus Medical Center and/or Sophia Children's Hospital, 3015 GE Rotterdam, The Netherlands; ⁶Department of Epidemiology, Erasmus Medical Center, 3015 GE Rotterdam, The Netherlands; and ⁷Department of Clinical Chemistry, Erasmus Medical Center, 3015 GE Rotterdam, The Netherlands

Context: Human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) stimulates thyroid function during pregnancy. We recently showed that thyroid autoimmunity severely attenuated the thyroïdal response to hCG stimulation and that this may underlie the higher risk of premature delivery in thyroperoxidase antibody (TPOAb)-positive women. We hypothesized that a lower thyroïdal response to hCG stimulation in TPOAb-negative women is also associated with a higher risk of premature delivery and preterm premature rupture of membranes (pPROM).

Design, Setting, and Participants: Thyrotropin (TSH), free thyroxine (FT4), and hCG concentrations were available in 5644 TPOAb-negative women from a prospective cohort. We tested for interaction between TSH or FT4 and hCG in linear regression models for duration of pregnancy and logistic regression models for premature delivery/pPROM. Accordingly, analyses were stratified per TSH percentile (TSH \geq 85th percentile) and hCG per 10,000 IU/L.

Results: Women with high TSH and low hCG concentrations did not have a higher risk of premature delivery or pPROM, with protective effect estimates. In contrast, women with a high TSH concentration despite a high hCG concentration had twofold to 10-fold higher risk of premature delivery ($P_{\text{difference}} = 0.022$) and an up to fourfold higher risk of pPROM ($P_{\text{difference}} = 0.079$). hCG concentrations were not associated with premature delivery or pPROM.

Conclusion: In TPOAb-negative women with high-normal TSH concentrations, only women with high hCG concentrations had a higher risk of premature delivery or pPROM. These results suggest a lower thyroïdal response to hCG stimulation is also associated with premature delivery in TPOAb-negative women and that an additional measurement of hCG may improve thyroid-related risk assessments during pregnancy. (*J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 102: 3360–3367, 2017)

Thyroid hormone (TH) regulates numerous metabolic processes that are important for an uncomplicated pregnancy course. During early pregnancy, human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) stimulates the thyrotropin (TSH) receptor, which leads to an increase in free thyroxine

(FT4) concentrations and a subsequent decrease in TSH concentrations (1, 2). We recently demonstrated that thyroperoxidase antibody (TPOAb)-positive women had an impaired response to thyroïdal stimulation by hCG (3). In that study, we also showed that TPOAb-positive women

ISSN Print 0021-972X ISSN Online 1945-7197

Printed in USA

Copyright © 2017 Endocrine Society

Received 10 April 2017. Accepted 15 June 2017.

First Published Online 21 June 2017

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; FT4, free thyroxine; hCG, human chorionic gonadotropin; pPROM, preterm premature rupture of membranes; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; TH, thyroid hormone; TPOAb, thyroperoxidase antibody; TSH, thyrotropin.

with a lower thyroïdal response to hCG stimulation had a higher risk of premature delivery. However, even in TPOAb-negative women, subgroups of women may have an impaired response to hCG. This may include women with isolated thyroglobulin antibody positivity, as occurs in up to 25% of women with thyroid autoimmunity (4). Furthermore, the presence of TSH receptor-blocking antibodies, a history of thyroid infection, or exposure to thyrotoxic treatments (*i.e.*, specific drugs or previous irradiation of the neck) may affect thyroid functional capacity in TPOAb-negative women.

hCG is a major determinant of gestational thyroid function but has a notoriously versatile pattern throughout early pregnancy. hCG is undetectable before conception, but after conception, hCG rapidly rises to high concentrations until approximately the ninth to the 12th week, after which it steadily declines during the remainder of pregnancy (5). Gestational hCG concentrations have a large within-individual variability and also exhibit clear between-individual differences when measured at the same time point (5). This leads to high inter- and intraindividual variabilities in the extent of thyroïdal stimulation by hCG. Although a recent study from our group indicated that an impaired thyroïdal response to hCG in TPOAb-positive women is a risk factor for premature delivery, it remains unknown whether a suboptimal thyroïdal response to hCG stimulation in TPOAb-negative women is of clinical relevance and/or is a risk factor for premature delivery.

Overt as well as mild forms of maternal thyroid dysfunction have been associated with a higher risk of premature delivery (6–10). Risk estimates for premature delivery in women with subclinical hypothyroidism and hypothyroxinemia differ widely between studies and vary from a 30% lower risk to a 3.3-fold higher risk (11–16). It has been hypothesized that these between-study differences are a consequence of variations in population characteristics, such as TPOAb positivity, iron status, ethnicity, body mass index (BMI), parity, and smoking status (17–23). Interestingly, all of these population characteristics are important determinants of hCG concentrations during early pregnancy (5). Moreover, we recently showed that women with subclinical hypothyroidism had a lower thyroïdal response to hCG stimulation regardless of their TPOAb status or BMI (24). Therefore, we hypothesized that even in TPOAb-negative women, lower thyroïdal stimulation by hCG is associated with a higher risk for premature delivery and preterm premature rupture of membranes (pPROM), a major risk factor for premature delivery.

Materials and Methods

To investigate this hypothesis, we determined hCG concentrations in the Generation R Study, a population-based

prospective cohort from early fetal life onward in Rotterdam, The Netherlands (25). We previously reported on the association between TSH or FT4 concentrations and the risk of premature delivery in this population (26). In the same population, we investigated whether the addition of hCG during early pregnancy improved the interpretation of maternal TSH and FT4 concentrations for the risk assessment of premature delivery (26). Populations for analyses, covariates, and definitions of outcomes have been described previously (26). In short, 6264 pregnant women had data available during early pregnancy on TSH, FT4, or TPOAb concentration and pregnancy duration or pPROM. We excluded women with twin pregnancies (N = 128), preexisting thyroid disease or thyroid-interfering medication usage (N = 89), women who underwent fertility treatment (N = 76), TPOAb-positive women (N = 312), and women with hCG measurements that were not performed within the same week as thyroid function measurements (N = 15). Premature delivery was defined as a pregnancy duration <37 weeks, and spontaneous premature delivery was defined as not having had a delivery after induction of labor or by an elective caesarean section. pPROM was defined as ruptured membranes before 37 weeks' gestation. All analyses on premature delivery were adjusted for maternal age, BMI, smoking, parity, education level, ethnicity, height, and fetal sex.

We performed various sensitivity analyses: (1) Because the cutoff for the effects of thyroid autoimmunity on thyroïdal stimulation by hCG may be lower than currently used TPOAb-positivity cutoffs (*e.g.*, 60 IU/L for our assay), we additionally excluded women with TPOAbs >10 IU/L. (2) Preeclampsia is a risk factor for premature delivery and may be associated with specific combinations of hCG and FT4 (27); therefore, we also excluded women with preeclampsia. (3) Spontaneous premature delivery may be a better reflection of the underlying biology; therefore, we also excluded women with nonspontaneous premature delivery.

During the peer review process, additional analyses were performed in the full data set (including TPOAb-positive women) to investigate whether TSH is a less sensitive marker in TPOAb-positive women than in TPOAb-negative women. To do so, we compared the association of FT4 with TSH concentrations in TPOAb-positive vs TPOAb-negative women. These analyses were subsequently added to the supplemental material.

Statistical analysis

To fulfill model assumptions, TSH values were logarithmically transformed. We used linear or logistic regression models with restricted cubic splines with three knots to assess nonlinearity of the associations between TSH, FT4, hCG, and gestational age or (spontaneous) premature delivery and pPROM. Subsequently, linear or logistic regression models were built accordingly. To test the hypothesis that a high hCG level helps to distinguish women with a high TSH or low FT4 concentration and a high risk of premature delivery, we stratified the association between high TSH and/or low FT4 concentration and premature delivery according to hCG level. To investigate whether the association between continuous TSH and/or FT4 concentration and premature delivery or pPROM differs according to hCG concentrations, we tested for interaction by adding a product term of TSH or FT4 and hCG to the model. The identification of clinically relevant effect modification requires more statistical power; therefore, we

considered interaction terms with a *P* value <0.15 for assessment of clinical relevance by subsequently stratifying analyses. We performed a similar interaction analysis in which hCG was replaced with gestational age at blood sampling because gestational age is considered a marker of hCG concentrations and has therefore been used in other clinical studies on gestational thyroid function. Removal of outliers for TSH, FT4, or hCG did not change the results.

For variables with missing data, multiple imputations according to the Markov chain Monte Carlo method were used (28). Five imputed data sets were created and pooled for analyses. For the prematurity database, TSH, FT4, hCG, smoking, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, parity, BMI, fetal sex, and gestational age at blood sampling were added to the model (missing because of nonresponse/nonrecording in 6.3%, 5.7%, 3.5%, 12.8%, 7.2%, 5.7%, 1.9%, and all other variables <2.0%, respectively). Furthermore, we added maternal age, total T4, and TPOAb concentrations as prediction variables during the multiple imputation procedure only. No significant differences in descriptive characteristics were found between the original and imputed data sets. All statistical analyses were performed using R statistical software v3.03 (package *rms*, *visreg*) or Statistical Package of Social Sciences v20.0 for Windows (SPSS v22.0; IBM Corp, Armonk, NY).

Results

The final study population comprised 5644 women (Fig. 1), descriptive characteristics of whom are shown in Table 1. The association of TSH concentrations with mean duration of pregnancy, premature delivery, and pPROM differed between women with low hCG concentration and those with high hCG concentration at the time of TSH measurement (*P*_{interaction} = 0.039, 0.022, and 0.079, respectively; Supplemental Table 1). Heatmaps graphically illustrate the differences in mean gestational age [Fig. 2(a)], the risk of premature delivery [Fig. 2(b)], and the risk of pPROM [Fig. 2(c)] according to the combination of hCG and TSH in the whole study population (blue indicates a lower mean gestational age, lower risk of premature delivery, or lower risk of pPROM, and red indicates a higher mean gestational age, higher risk of premature delivery, or higher risk of pPROM).

To quantify the differences in risks, we stratified the association of high TSH concentration (per percentile)

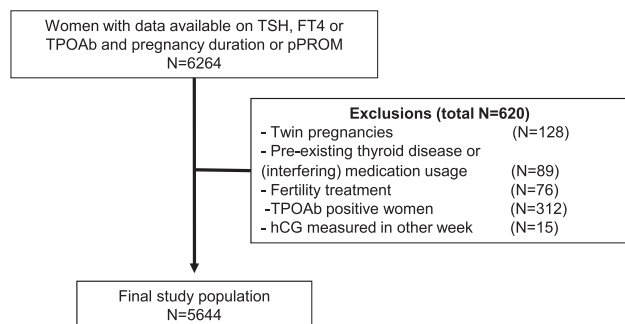


Figure 1. Flowchart exhibiting the selection of the study population.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Population

	Median	(95% Range)
Median TSH, mU/L	1.33	(0.05–4.13)
Median FT4, pmol/L	14.8	(10.3–22.3)
Median hCG, IU/L	44.625	(11.999–106.339)
Median UIC, μg/g ^a	273	(96–777)
Gestational age ^b	13.4	(9.6–17.6)
Maternal age, y	30.3	(19.5–38.8)
Maternal height, cm	168	(153–182)
Maternal BMI, kg/m ²	23.5	(18.5–38.8)
	N	(%)
Premature delivery, <37 wk ^b	276	(4.9)
Parity ^b		
0	3226	(57.2)
1	1681	(29.8)
≥2	738	(13.1)
Smoking ^b		
Nonsmokers	4140	(73.4)
Stopped smokers	506	(9.0)
Smokers	997	(17.7)
Education level ^b		
Low	606	(10.7)
Middle	2599	(46.0)
High	2439	(43.4)
Ethnicity ^b		
Dutch	2803	(51.6)
Moroccan	341	(6.3)
Turkish	455	(8.4)
Surinamese	479	(8.8)
Other Western	491	(9.0)
Other non-Western	866	(15.9)
Child sex (boys %) ^b	2853	(50.5)

Abbreviation: UIC, urinary iodine to creatinine ratio.

^aBased on data from a subset of N = 1031 women.

^bAt time of blood sampling; data shown in weeks.

with premature delivery for hCG concentration (per 10,000 IU/L; Table 2). Women with high TSH and low hCG concentrations did not have a higher risk of premature delivery, and most effect estimates pointed toward a protective effect [Fig. 2(b); Table 2]. In contrast, women with a high TSH concentration despite a high hCG concentration had a twofold to 10-fold higher risk of premature delivery depending on the cutoffs used (Fig. 2; Table 2).

A similar analysis for pPROM showed that women with high TSH and low hCG concentrations did not have a higher risk of pPROM, and most effect estimates pointed toward a protective effect [Fig. 2(c); Table 3]. In contrast, women with a high TSH concentration despite a high hCG concentration had a risk of pPROM that ranged between a protective effect and a fourfold higher risk depending on the cutoffs used (Fig. 2(c); Table 3).

In the whole population, the association of FT4 concentration with premature delivery did not differ between low or high hCG concentrations (*P*_{interaction} = 0.52,

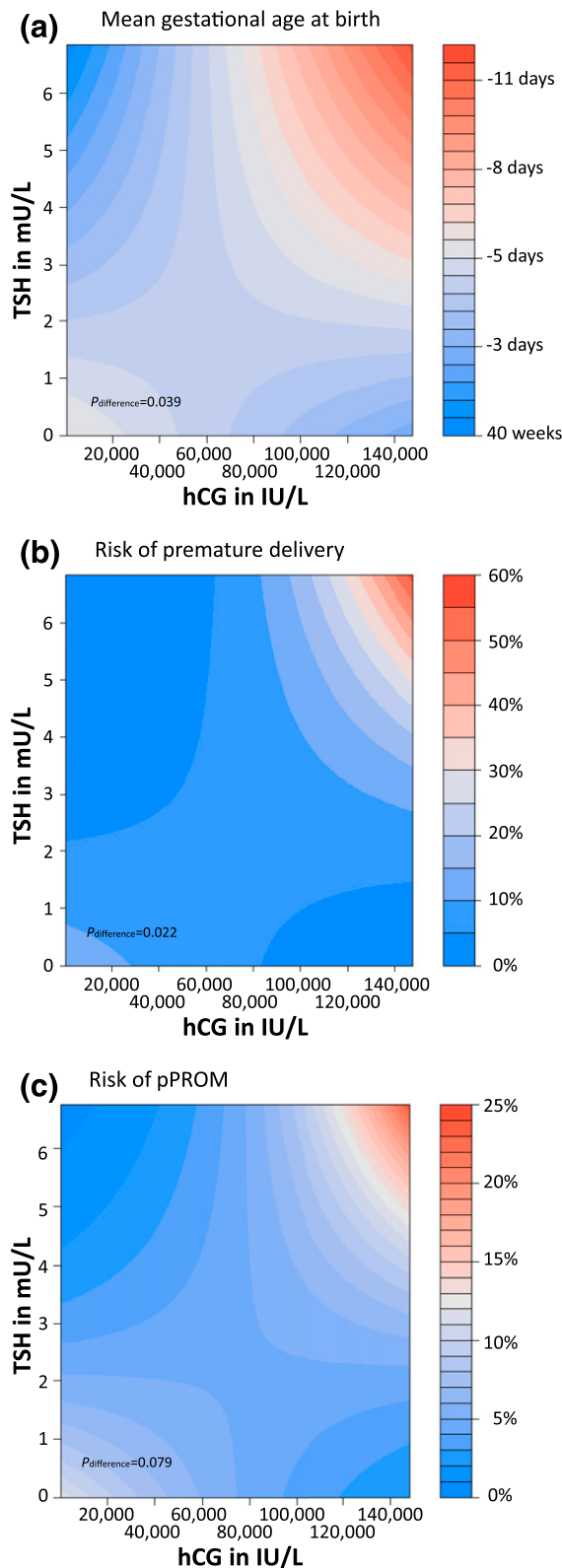


Figure 2. (a) Mean gestational age at birth, (b) risk of premature delivery, and (c) risk of premature rupture of membranes according to TSH and hCG concentrations. Heatmaps show hCG on the x-axis, TSH on the y-axis, and the mean gestational age of risk of premature delivery on the z-axis, which ranges from low values or risks (blue) to high levels or risks (red).

0.69, and 0.68 for mean duration of pregnancy, premature delivery, and pPROM, respectively; Supplemental Table 1). Similar results were obtained when women with TPOAb concentrations above a lower cutoff (e.g., 10 IU/L) were excluded, after women with preeclampsia were excluded, or when analyses were restricted to women with a spontaneous delivery (data not shown). hCG concentrations were not associated with the duration of pregnancy, premature delivery, or pPROM. The association of TSH or FT4 concentration with premature delivery did not differ by gestational age at blood sampling, used as a potential proxy for hCG (data not shown), or by fetal sex (data not shown).

In the total population (including TPOAb-positive women), the association of FT4 with TSH differed between TPOAb-negative and TPOAb-positive women ($P < 0.001$; Supplemental Fig. 1). At similar FT4 concentrations in the lower range, TPOAb-positive women had higher TSH concentrations with a considerably higher spread than TPOAb-negative women (Supplemental Fig. 1).

Discussion

In the current study, we demonstrated that the association of maternal thyroid function during pregnancy with the risk of premature delivery in TPOAb-negative women was modified by hCG concentration. Our main finding is that women with a high TSH concentration despite a high hCG concentration had a twofold to 10-fold higher risk of premature delivery and a 1.6- to 4.2-fold higher risk of pPROM. In contrast, women with high TSH and low hCG concentrations had a lower or normal risk of premature delivery.

Suboptimal placental function is an important risk factor for premature delivery (29–31). TH transporters and receptors are abundantly expressed in the placenta (32–34), and TH regulates the secretion of several growth factors and cytokines implicated in placental development (33, 35–37). Crucial stages of placental development coincide with the peak in hCG concentrations during the late first and early second trimesters (5, 38). Therefore, we speculated that a suboptimal thyroidal response to hCG stimulation was associated with a higher risk of premature delivery because it causes a relative TH shortage during early pregnancy. We previously showed that the thyroidal response to hCG stimulation was considerably impaired in TPOAb-positive women and that TPOAb-positive women with a low thyroidal response to hCG in particular had a higher risk of premature delivery (3). The results of the current study in TPOAb-negative women further strengthen the concept that a lower thyroidal response to hCG stimulation

Table 2. Outline of the Interaction Between hCG and TSH in the Risk of Premature Delivery

TSH Percentile (Value in mU/L)	hCG Concentration, IU/L								
	Overall	<20,000	20,000–30,000	30,000–40,000	40,000–50,000	50,000–60,000	60,000–70,000	70,000–80,000	>80,000
≥96 (4.02)	1.88 (1.14–3.12)	^a	^a	^a	0.74	1.54	3.42	5.91	9.96
≥95 (3.72)	1.62 (0.98–2.67)	0.64	^a	0.52	0.57	1.15	2.34	4.46	6.84
≥94 (3.49)	1.50 (0.95–2.35)	0.46	^a	0.53	0.83	1.06	1.93	2.77	6.29
≥93 (3.32)	1.40 (0.92–2.12)	0.40	0.41	0.42	0.73	0.88	1.82	2.48	5.64
≥92 (3.15)	1.28 (0.85–1.92)	0.33	0.38	0.61	0.60	0.67	1.67	2.16	5.05
≥91 (3.01)	1.18 (0.79–1.74)	0.53	0.42	0.54	1.00	1.00	1.60	2.20	4.02
≥90 (2.91)	1.24 (0.85–1.80)	0.48	0.39	0.49	0.93	0.95	1.48	3.36	3.33
≥89 (2.81)	1.16 (0.80–1.69)	0.51	0.37	0.44	0.87	0.89	1.42	2.41	3.05
≥88 (2.73)	1.23 (0.87–1.75)	0.61	0.34	0.39	0.79	0.82	2.60	3.79	2.68
≥87 (2.66)	1.22 (0.85–1.74)	0.80	0.38	0.39	0.88	1.08	2.39	2.59	2.56
≥86 (2.59)	1.16 (0.82–1.64)	0.72	0.50	0.36	0.86	0.91	2.07	2.59	2.29
≥85 (2.53)	1.10 (0.77–1.56)	0.89	0.48	0.35	0.96	0.83	1.89	2.22	1.85

Adjusted odds ratios are shown for premature delivery (<37 weeks) according to different percentile cutoffs for TSH concentrations, stratified by concomitant hCG levels. All analyses were adjusted for maternal age, smoking, education level, ethnicity, parity, BMI, height, and fetal sex. hCG cutoff groups were not associated with the risk of premature delivery.

^aNone of the women in this subgroup had a premature delivery.

increases the risk of premature delivery. Alternatively, an attenuated thyroidal response to hCG stimulation could be associated with premature delivery because it lowers the total TH availability during pregnancy (e.g., a lower area under the curve). Further studies, preferably using repeated measurements of hCG and thyroid function, are required to further elucidate these mechanisms.

As for the cause of a lower thyroidal response to hCG stimulation, the subset of TPOAb-negative women in the current study may still be subject to a form of thyroidal autoimmunity (e.g., reflected by isolated thyroglobulin antibody positivity or because of the presence of blocking TSH receptor antibodies). Unfortunately, these measurements

were not available in our pregnancy cohort. Although the current results were not altered after the exclusion of women with very low TPOAb concentrations (e.g., >10 IU/L), further studies are required to identify risk factors for lower thyroid functional capacity in TPOAb-negative women, such as previous thyroiditis, exposure to thyrotoxic treatments, or natural variation in thyroid functional capacity through genetic variability. Regarding the latter, various partial loss-of-function mutations in the TSH receptor have been described (39), and such mutations could potentially also interfere with TSH receptor stimulation by hCG. Furthermore, more commonly occurring single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the TSH receptor may

Table 3. Outline of the Interaction Between hCG and TSH in the Risk of Premature Rupture of Membranes

TSH Percentile (Value in mU/L)	hCG Concentration, IU/L							
	Overall	<20,000	20,000–30,000	30,000–40,000	40,000–50,000	50,000–60,000	60,000–70,000	>70,000
≥96 (4.02)	1.24 (0.60–2.55)	^a	^a	1.48	0.70	1.31	1.63	4.20
≥95 (3.72)	1.10 (0.54–2.25)	^a	^a	1.11	0.62	1.14	1.13	4.31
≥94 (3.49)	0.94 (0.47–1.89)	^a	^a	0.90	0.55	0.85	0.96	3.33
≥93 (3.32)	0.97 (0.51–1.84)	^a	^a	0.80	1.13	0.75	0.78	3.24
≥92 (3.15)	0.90 (0.51–1.62)	^a	^a	0.71	0.96	0.62	0.76	3.83
≥91 (3.01)	0.81 (0.47–1.43)	^a	0.08	0.70	0.87	0.52	0.68	3.44
≥90 (2.91)	0.84 (0.50–1.44)	^a	0.09	0.60	0.95	0.54	0.65	3.74
≥89 (2.81)	0.82 (0.48–1.40)	^a	0.01	0.75	0.82	0.50	0.62	3.54
≥88 (2.73)	0.90 (0.55–1.46)	0.42	0.01	0.68	0.91	0.46	1.55	3.36
≥87 (2.66)	0.97 (0.59–1.59)	0.61	0.39	0.64	0.87	0.69	1.40	3.38
≥86 (2.59)	0.94 (0.57–1.53)	0.58	0.39	0.81	0.81	0.61	1.32	3.25
≥85 (2.53)	0.91 (0.55–1.49)	0.79	0.36	0.77	0.84	0.55	1.22	2.92

Adjusted odds ratios are shown for premature rupture of membranes (<37 weeks) according to different percentile cutoffs for TSH, stratified by concomitant hCG levels. All analyses were adjusted for maternal age, smoking, education level, ethnicity, parity, BMI, height, and fetal sex. hCG cutoff groups were not associated with the risk of premature rupture of membranes.

^aNone of the women in this subgroup had a premature delivery; too little pPROM occurred to do reliable analyses for a cutoff for hCG >80,000 IU/L.

account for some of the variability in TSH receptor stimulation by hCG (40). Although a large genome-wide association study demonstrated that TSH SNPs identified in a population of nonpregnant individuals were also associated with TSH during pregnancy, no SNPs in the TSH receptor were identified (41).

Our results suggest that a measurement of hCG concentrations during pregnancy may improve the interpretation of (high) TSH concentrations, although it is less likely to improve the interpretation of FT4 concentrations. The discrepancy between our results on TSH and FT4 may be explained by the fact that the relative changes in TSH concentrations during pregnancy are larger than the changes in FT4 concentrations, given the log-linear relationship between FT4 and TSH. As such, higher TSH concentrations may better reflect a relative TH shortage.

Intriguingly, in a previous paper, our group demonstrated that FT4 response to hCG may be relevant in determining the risk of premature delivery in TPOAb-positive women (3). In that study, we demonstrated that the risk of premature delivery in TPOAb-positive women was best distinguished by the combination of hCG and FT4, rather than hCG and TSH. Additional analyses in the current paper indicate that TSH was a less-sensitive marker for FT4 in TPOAb-positive women than in TPOAb-negative women. Although both of these studies require replication, the results from the current study on the combination of high TSH and high hCG concentrations also indicated that a suboptimal thyroid response to hCG stimulation (*e.g.*, a deviation from the naturally occurring physiology) is a risk factor for premature delivery.

The risk of premature delivery in women with subclinical thyroid dysfunction has been investigated in many different populations. Taken together, these studies report a wide range in the risk of premature delivery, from a 30% decrease to a 3.3-fold increased risk (11–16). The results from our study suggest that such large between-study differences in the risk of premature delivery for women with subclinical thyroid dysfunction may be due to between-study differences in hCG concentrations at the time of thyroid function measurement. Unfortunately, none of the studies that investigated the association of maternal thyroid function with premature delivery had hCG measurements available.

Although gestational age at blood sampling may be a proxy for hCG, we could not identify a difference in the association of TSH or FT4 concentration with premature delivery according to a different gestational age at blood sampling in our study; this is most likely because of the large interindividual variations in hCG concentrations. Furthermore, we were unable to replicate the results of

other studies by selecting only subjects with the same gestational (*i.e.*, 10 to 13 weeks, 10 3/7 to 13 6/7 weeks, and a mean of 14.1 weeks in three other studies) (11, 16, 42). Therefore, gestational age at presentation is unlikely to be a good proxy for hCG given the large interindividual differences in hCG concentrations. Future studies are needed to verify if the observed differences in risk estimates between populations are due to differences in population hCG concentrations or differences in other factors affecting thyroidal stimulation.

In this study, we were able to investigate differences in the association of thyroid function with the risk of premature delivery in a large population with detailed data and pregnancy outcomes that rendered adequate statistical power to detect an overall difference while adjusting for potential confounders. One potential limitation of the current study is that we used an assay that measured total hCG concentrations, including the various isoforms such as nicked, asialo-, and hyperglycosylated hCG. It has been shown that hCG subtypes have different thyrotropic activities (43–45). Although different ratios of hCG isoforms have been reported in pathologic conditions such as preeclampsia (46, 47), we were unable to further distinguish between possible effects of the different isoforms. Such distinctions may prove valuable in future efforts to describe women at high risk for premature delivery and/or pPROM. Also, we were limited because the size of our study population did not allow us to stratify analysis using mutually exclusive groups of women with high TSH concentrations. However, continuous interaction analysis showed that the overall difference between the groups was statistically significant, and we were able to prove heatmaps of these risk estimates.

In conclusion, we showed that the risk of premature delivery according to TSH concentrations was modified by hCG concentrations. Among all TPOAb-negative women with high-normal TSH concentrations, only those with high hCG concentrations at the time of TSH measurement had a higher risk of premature delivery. These data suggest that the assessment of maternal thyroid function together with hCG concentrations can improve the risk assessment of premature delivery and give insights into the pathophysiology of the association between maternal thyroid function and premature delivery. When further replicated, this concept may improve clinical practice by facilitating identification of women at risk for pregnancy complications.

Acknowledgments

The contributions of the endocrine laboratory technicians are highly appreciated. The Generation R Study is conducted by the

Erasmus Medical Center (Rotterdam) in close collaboration with the School of Law and Faculty of Social Sciences of the Erasmus University Rotterdam, the Municipal Health Service Rotterdam area, the Rotterdam Homecare Foundation, and the Stichting Trombosedienst and Artsenlaboratorium Rijnmond, Rotterdam. We gratefully acknowledge the contribution of children and parents, general practitioners, hospitals, midwives, and pharmacies in Rotterdam. The general design of the Generation R Study was made possible by financial support from the Erasmus Medical Center, Rotterdam, the Erasmus University Rotterdam, The Netherlands Organization for Health Research and Development, The Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research, the Ministry of Health, Welfare, and Sport, and the Ministry of Youth and Families.

Address all correspondence and requests for reprints to: Robin P. Peeters, MD, Room D 430, Department of Internal Medicine, Erasmus Medical Centre, Dr Molewaterplein 50, 3015 GE, Rotterdam, The Netherlands. E-mail: r.peeters@erasmusmc.nl.

This work was supported by a clinical fellowship from ZonMw, project number 90700412 (to R.P.P.).

Disclosure Summary: The authors have nothing to disclose.

References

- Glinooer D, de Nayer P, Bourdoux P, Lemone M, Robyn C, van Steirteghem A, Kinthaert J, Lejeune B. Regulation of maternal thyroid during pregnancy. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1990;71(2):276–287.
- Korevaar TI, Steegers EA, Pop VJ, Broeren MA, Chaker L, de Rijke YB, Jaddoe VW, Medici M, Visser TJ, Tiemeier H, Peeters RP. Thyroid autoimmunity impairs the thyroïdal response to human chorionic gonadotropin: two population-based prospective cohort studies. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2017;102(1):69–77.
- Teuwen CP, Korevaar TI, Coolen RL, van der Wel T, Houck CA, Evertz R, Yaksh A, Roos-Hesselink JW, Bogers AJ, de Groot NM. Frequent atrial extrasystolic beats predict atrial fibrillation in patients with congenital heart defects [published online ahead of print October 4, 2016]. *Europace*. doi: 10.1093/europace/euw300.
- Unuane D, Velkeniers B, Anckaert E, Schiettecatte J, Tournaye H, Haentjens P, Poppe K. Thyroglobulin autoantibodies: is there any added value in the detection of thyroid autoimmunity in women consulting for fertility treatment? *Thyroid*. 2013;23(8):1022–1028.
- Korevaar TI, Steegers EA, de Rijke YB, Schalekamp-Timmermans S, Visser WE, Hofman A, Jaddoe VW, Tiemeier H, Visser TJ, Medici M, Peeters RP. Reference ranges and determinants of total hCG levels during pregnancy: the Generation R Study. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2015;30(9):1057–1066.
- Chan S, Boelaert K. Optimal management of hypothyroidism, hypothyroxinaemia and euthyroid TPO antibody positivity preconception and in pregnancy. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)*. 2015;82(3):313–326.
- 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.
- Lazarus J, Brown RS, Daumerie C, Hubalewska-Dydejczyk A, Negro R, Vaidya B. 2014 European Thyroid Association guidelines for the management of subclinical hypothyroidism in pregnancy and in children. *Eur Thyroid J*. 2014;3(2):76–94.
- Negro R, Stagnaro-Green A. Diagnosis and management of subclinical hypothyroidism in pregnancy. *BMJ*. 2014;349:g4929.
- 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 postpartum. *Thyroid*. 2017;27(3):315–389.
- Cleary-Goldman J, Malone FD, Lambert-Messerlian G, Sullivan L, Canick J, Porter TF, Luthy D, Gross S, Bianchi DW, D'Alton ME. Maternal thyroid hypofunction and pregnancy outcome. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2008;112(1):85–92.
- Casey BM, Dashe JS, Spong CY, McIntire DD, Leveno KJ, Cunningham GF. Perinatal significance of isolated maternal hypothyroxinemia identified in the first half of pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2007;109(5):1129–1135.
- Negro R, Schwartz A, Gismondi R, Tinelli A, Mangieri T, Stagnaro-Green A. Increased pregnancy loss rate in thyroid antibody negative women with TSH levels between 2.5 and 5.0 in the first trimester of pregnancy. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2010;95(9):E44–E48.
- Sahu MT, Das V, Mittal S, Agarwal A, Sahu M. Overt and subclinical thyroid dysfunction among Indian pregnant women and its effect on maternal and fetal outcome. *Arch Gynecol Obstet*. 2010;281(2):215–220.
- Su PY, Huang K, Hao JH, Xu YQ, Yan SQ, Li T, Xu YH, Tao FB. Maternal thyroid function in the first twenty weeks of pregnancy and subsequent fetal and infant development: a prospective population-based cohort study in China. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2011;96(10):3234–3241.
- 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.
- Goldenberg RL, Culhane JF, Iams JD, Romero R. Epidemiology and causes of preterm birth. *Lancet*. 2008;371(9606):75–84.
- Cnatingius S, Villamor E, Johansson S, Edstedt Bonamy AK, Persson M, Wikström AK, Granath F. Maternal obesity and risk of preterm delivery. *JAMA*. 2013;309(22):2362–2370.
- Männistö T, Surcel HM, Ruokonen A, Vääräsmäki M, Pouta A, Bloigu A, Järvelin MR, Hartikainen AL, Suvanto E. Early pregnancy reference intervals of thyroid hormone concentrations in a thyroid antibody-negative pregnant population. *Thyroid*. 2011;21(3):291–298.
- Wiersinga WM. Smoking and thyroid. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)*. 2013;79(2):145–151.
- Korevaar TI, Medici M, de Rijke YB, Visser W, de Muinck Keizer-Schrama SM, Jaddoe VW, Hofman A, Ross HA, Visser WE, Hooijkaas H, Steegers EA, Tiemeier H, Bongers-Schokking JJ, Visser TJ, Peeters RP. Ethnic differences in maternal thyroid parameters during pregnancy: the Generation R Study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2013;98(9):3678–3686.
- Scholl TO, Hediger ML, Fischer RL, Shearer JW. Anemia vs iron deficiency: increased risk of preterm delivery in a prospective study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1992;55(5):985–988.
- Veltri F, Decaillet S, Kleynen P, Grabczan L, Belhomme J, Rozenberg S, Pepersack T, Poppe K. Prevalence of thyroid autoimmunity and dysfunction in women with iron deficiency during early pregnancy: is it altered? *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2016;175(3):191–199.
- Korevaar T, de Rijke YB, Chaker L, Medici M, Jaddoe VW, Steegers EA, Visser TJ, Peeters R. Stimulation of thyroid function by hCG during pregnancy: a risk factor for thyroid disease and a mechanism for known risk factors. *Thyroid*. 2017;27(3):440–450.
- Jaddoe VW, van Duijn CM, Franco OH, van der Heijden AJ, van Iizendoorn MH, de Jongste JC, van der Lugt A, Mackenbach JP, Moll HA, Raat H, Rivadeneira F, Steegers EA, Tiemeier H, Uitterlinden AG, Verhulst FC, Hofman A. The Generation R Study: design and cohort update 2012. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2012;27(9):739–756.

26. Korevaar TI, Schalekamp-Timmermans S, de Rijke YB, Visser WE, Visser W, de Muinck Keizer-Schrama SM, Hofman A, Ross HA, Hooijkaas H, Tiemeier H, Bongers-Schokking JJ, Jaddoe VW, Visser TJ, Steegers EA, Medici M, Peeters RP. Hypothyroxinemia and TPO-antibody positivity are risk factors for premature delivery: the Generation R Study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2013;98(11):4382–4390.
27. Korevaar TI, Steegers EA, Chaker L, Medici M, Jaddoe VW, Visser TJ, de Rijke YB, Peeters RP. The risk of preeclampsia according to high thyroid function in pregnancy differs by hCG concentration. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2016;101(12):5037–5043.
28. Sterne JA, White IR, Carlin JB, Spratt M, Royston P, Kenward MG, Wood AM, Carpenter JR. Multiple imputation for missing data in epidemiological and clinical research: potential and pitfalls. *BMJ.* 2009;338:b2393.
29. Odibo AO, Patel KR, Spitalnik A, Odibo L, Huettner P. Placental pathology, first-trimester biomarkers and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *J Perinatol.* 2014;34(3):186–191.
30. Vinnars MT, Papadogiannakis N, Nasiell J, Holmström G, Westgren M. Placental pathology in relation to stillbirth and neonatal outcome in an extremely preterm population: a prospective cohort study. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2015;94(6):584–590.
31. Kovo M, Schreiber L, Ben-Haroush A, Asalee L, Seadia S, Golan A, Bar J. The placental factor in spontaneous preterm labor with and without premature rupture of membranes. *J Perinat Med.* 2011;39(4):423–429.
32. Loubière LS, Vasilopoulou E, Bulmer JN, Taylor PM, Stieger B, Verrey F, McCabe CJ, Franklyn JA, Kilby MD, Chan SY. Expression of thyroid hormone transporters in the human placenta and changes associated with intrauterine growth restriction. *Placenta.* 2010;31(4):295–304.
33. Barber KJ, Franklyn JA, McCabe CJ, Khanim FL, Bulmer JN, Whitley GS, Kilby MD. The in vitro effects of triiodothyronine on epidermal growth factor-induced trophoblast function. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2005;90(3):1655–1661.
34. Chan SY, Franklyn JA, Pemberton HN, Bulmer JN, Visser TJ, McCabe CJ, Kilby MD. Monocarboxylate transporter 8 expression in the human placenta: the effects of severe intrauterine growth restriction. *J Endocrinol.* 2006;189(3):465–471.
35. Vasilopoulou E, Loubière LS, Lash GE, Ohizua O, McCabe CJ, Franklyn JA, Kilby MD, Chan SY. Triiodothyronine regulates angiogenic growth factor and cytokine secretion by isolated human decidual cells in a cell-type specific and gestational age-dependent manner. *Hum Reprod.* 2014;29(6):1161–1172.
36. Matsuo H, Maruo T, Murata K, Mochizuki M. Human early placental trophoblasts produce an epidermal growth factor-like substance in synergy with thyroid hormone. *Acta Endocrinol (Copenh).* 1993;128(3):225–229.
37. Oki N, Matsuo H, Nakago S, Murakoshi H, Laoag-Fernandez JB, Maruo T. Effects of 3,5,3'-triiodothyronine on the invasive potential and the expression of integrins and matrix metalloproteinases in cultured early placental extravillous trophoblasts. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2004;89(10):5213–5221.
38. Cartwright JE, Fraser R, Leslie K, Wallace AE, James JL. Remodelling at the maternal-fetal interface: relevance to human pregnancy disorders. *Reproduction.* 2010;140(6):803–813.
39. Corvilain B, Van Sande J, Dumont JE, Vassart G. Somatic and germline mutations of the TSH receptor and thyroid diseases. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf).* 2001;55(2):143–158.
40. Van Sande J, Parma J, Tonacchera M, Swillens S, Dumont J, Vassart G. Somatic and germline mutations of the TSH receptor gene in thyroid diseases. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1995;80(9):2577–2585.
41. Porcu E, Medici M, Pistis G, Volpato CB, Wilson SG, Cappola AR, Bos SD, Deelen J, den Heijer M, Freathy RM, Lahti J, Liu C, Lopez LM, Nolte IM, O'Connell JR, Tanaka T, Trompet S, Arnold A, Bandinelli S, Beekman M, Böhringer S, Brown SJ, Buckley BM, Camaschella C, de Craen AJ, Davies G, de Visser MC, Ford I, Forsen T, Frayling TM, Fugazzola L, Gögele M, Hattersley AT, Hermus AR, Hofman A, Houwing-Duistermaat JJ, Jensen RA, Kajantie E, Kloppenburg M, Lim EM, Masciullo C, Mariotti S, Minelli C, Mitchell BD, Nagaraja R, Netea-Maier RT, Palotie A, Persani L, Piras MG, Psaty BM, Räikkönen K, Richards JB, Rivadeneira F, Sala C, Sabra MM, Sattar N, Shields BM, Soranzo N, Starr JM, Stott DJ, Sweep FC, Usala G, van der Klauw MM, van Heemst D, van Mullem A, Vermeulen SH, Visser WE, Walsh JP, Westendorp RG, Widen E, Zhai G, Cucca F, Deary IJ, Eriksson JG, Ferrucci L, Fox CS, Jukema JW, Kiemeny LA, Pramstaller PP, Schlessinger D, Shuldiner AR, Slagboom EP, Uitterlinden AG, Vaidya B, Visser TJ, Wolfenbutter BH, Meulenberg I, Rotter JJ, Spector TD, Hicks AA, Toniolo D, Sanna S, Peeters RP, Naitza S. A meta-analysis of thyroid-related traits reveals novel loci and gender-specific differences in the regulation of thyroid function. *PLoS Genet.* 2013;9(2):e1003266.
42. Ashoor G, Maiz N, Rotas M, Jawdat F, Nicolaides KH. Maternal thyroid function at 11–13 weeks of gestation and spontaneous preterm delivery. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2011;117(2 Pt 1):293–298.
43. Hoermann R, Kubota K, Amir SM. Role of subunit sialic acid in hepatic binding, plasma survival rate, and in vivo thyrotropic activity of human chorionic gonadotropin. *Thyroid.* 1993;3(1):41–47.
44. Yoshimura M, Hershman JM, Pang XP, Berg L, Pekary AE. Activation of the thyrotropin (TSH) receptor by human chorionic gonadotropin and luteinizing hormone in Chinese hamster ovary cells expressing functional human TSH receptors. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1993;77(4):1009–1013.
45. Yoshimura M, Pekary AE, Pang XP, Berg L, Goodwin TM, Hershman JM. Thyrotropic activity of basic isoelectric forms of human chorionic gonadotropin extracted from hydatidiform mole tissues. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1994;78(4):862–866.
46. de Medeiros SF, Norman RJ. Human choriogonadotrophin protein core and sugar branches heterogeneity: basic and clinical insights. *Hum Reprod Update.* 2009;15(1):69–95.
47. Lee IS, Chung DY, Cole LA, Copel JA, Isozaki T, Hsu CD. Elevated serum nicked and urinary beta-core fragment hCG in preeclamptic pregnancies. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1997;90(6):889–892.