

Triiodothyroacetic acid in health and disease

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Abstract

Thyroid hormone (TH) is crucial for development and metabolism of many tissues. The physiological relevance and therapeutic potential of TH analogs have gained attention in the field for many years. In particular, the relevance and use of 3,3',5-triiodothyroacetic acid (Triac, TA₃) has been explored over the last decades. Although TA₃ closely resembles the bioactive hormone T₃, differences in transmembrane transport and receptor isoform-specific transcriptional activation potency exist. For these reasons, the application of TA₃ as a treatment for resistance to TH (RTH) syndromes, especially MCT8 deficiency, is topic of ongoing research. This review is a summary of all currently available literature about the formation, metabolism, action and therapeutic applications of TA₃.

Key Words

- ▶ thyroid hormone
- ▶ resistance to thyroid hormone (RTH)
- ▶ thyroid hormone analog
- ▶ thyroacetic acid derivatives
- ▶ Triac
- ▶ TA₃

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Introduction

Thyroid hormone (TH) is crucial for the development and metabolism of many tissues. Thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) controls the production and secretion of TH by the thyroid gland, which predominantly produces the pro-hormone thyroxine (T₄) and to a lesser extent the bioactive hormone 3,3',5-triiodothyronine (T₃). T₃ mainly exerts its effects through binding to its nuclear receptors (TRs) at T₃ response elements (TREs), resulting in the transcriptional regulation of TH target genes (genomic effects). The TRα1, TRβ1 and TRβ2 isoforms are T₃-binding TRs isoforms (Lazar 1993, Ortiga-Carvalho *et al.* 2004). In addition, several non-genomic effects have been ascribed to TH (Davis *et al.* 2011, Lin *et al.* 2012). To exert its biological function, TH has to cross the cell membrane, which requires membrane transporter proteins (Hennemann *et al.* 2001 and reviewed in Visser 2007 and Bernal *et al.* 2015). Monocarboxylate transporter 8 (MCT8) is the most specific TH transporter and the only TH transporter associated with human disease (Dumitrescu *et al.* 2004, Friesema *et al.* 2004).

The deiodinases (D1–3) importantly regulate the bio-availability of T₃ in target cells, while TH is also metabolized by glucuronidation and sulfation, which enhance biliary excretion (Engler & Burger 1984, Burger 1986, Visser 1996). Other modifications of iodothyronines include decarboxylation of the alanine side chain, resulting in iodothyronamines (Scanlan *et al.* 2004, Hoefig *et al.* 2015), and subsequent oxidative deamination resulting in the formation of iodothyroacetic acid derivatives (Wood *et al.* 2009). Recently, potential biological actions have been ascribed to 3-iodothyronamine (3-T₁AM) and thyronamine (T₀AM) (reviewed in Hoefig *et al.* 2016). The biological actions of 3,3',5-triiodothyroacetic acid (Triac; TA₃) and 3,3',5,5'-tetraiodothyroacetic acid (Tetrac, TA₄) have been more extensively described. The biological actions of TA₃ closely resemble those of T₃, although important differences in the cellular transport mechanism and TR-isoform-specific potency exist. For these reasons, TA₃ holds therapeutic potential in the treatment of

patients with specific defects in TH signaling, such as patients harboring mutations in TR β (resistance to thyroid hormone (RTH)- β). Likewise, the therapeutic use of TA $_3$ in patients lacking the MCT8 transporter (MCT8 deficiency or the Allan-Herndon-Dudley syndrome, AHDS) is subject of ongoing research.

In this review we summarize the literature from the 1950s until now regarding the biosynthesis, metabolism, action and putative therapeutic applications of TA $_3$.

Kinetic properties of TA $_3$ in humans

TA $_3$ is a naturally occurring TH metabolite, with reported serum levels between 2.6 and 15.2 ng/dL (42–244 pmol/L) in healthy human subjects (Nakamura *et al.* 1978, Burger *et al.* 1979, Gavin *et al.* 1980), whereas others reported TA $_3$ levels below the assay detection limit of ~4 ng/dL (64 pmol/L) (Menegay *et al.* 1989). The free fraction of TA $_3$ in plasma is relatively low compared to T $_3$, due its high affinity for plasma binding proteins, exceeding that of T $_3$ by 16-fold in rats (Ingbar 1960, Gosling *et al.* 1976). In humans, TA $_3$ particularly binds to transthyretin (TTR), whereas its binding to thyroxine binding globulin is negligible (Robbins & Rall 1955, Christensen 1960, Ingbar 1960). Nevertheless, the plasma clearance rate of TA $_3$ considerably exceeds the clearance rate of T $_3$ in humans (compiled data shown in Table 1). The clearance rate of TA $_3$ in rats is more similar to that of T $_3$ (Table 1; Gosling *et al.* 1976, Liang *et al.* 1997). In humans, the estimated plasma half-life of TA $_3$ is ~6 h

and, thus, is markedly shorter than the half-life of T $_3$ (~24 h) (Table 1). Peak levels occur within 40 min after oral administration and higher peak levels are achieved upon intravenous administration (Menegay *et al.* 1989). The intestinal absorption efficiency amounts to 50–67% and the daily TA $_3$ production rate (PR) to 3.2–7.8 μ g/day (Burger *et al.* 1979, Gavin *et al.* 1980, Siegrist-Kaiser *et al.* 1994). Gavin and coworkers (Gavin *et al.* 1980) found a slightly higher PR in athyroid subjects on 80 μ g/day LT $_3$ substitution (10.1 ± 0.4 μ g/day). A caveat in assessing circulating TA $_3$ concentrations is the interference of T $_3$ in the TA $_3$ radioimmunoassay (RIA) due to high antibody cross-reactivity (up to 50%). When preceded by proper serum extraction and column chromatography methods, this can be reduced to 1–6% (Burger *et al.* 1979, Gavin *et al.* 1980, Menegay *et al.* 1989). Since serum T $_3$ levels exceed those of TA $_3$ by about 50-fold, this leads to considerable overestimation of endogenous TA $_3$ levels.

Together, TA $_3$ is a naturally occurring TH metabolite, present in humans at ~50-fold lower concentrations than T $_3$ and is rapidly cleared from the circulation despite its high affinity for plasma binding proteins.

Biosynthesis of TA $_3$

The first evidence for *in vivo* TA $_3$ formation was provided by studies in thyroidectomized rats demonstrating the presence of 131 I-TA $_3$ in kidney homogenates after injection of 131 I-T $_3$ (Jouan *et al.* 1956). These findings were confirmed by incubation of rat kidney mitochondrial

Table 1 Kinetic properties of T $_3$ and TA $_3$ in humans and rats.

Species/ substrate	Serum level (pmol/L)	Peak levels (min)	$t_{1/2}$ (h)	MCR (L/day)	Major binding protein	PR (μ g/day)	References
Human							
T $_3$	1736 \pm 168	120–180	23	22.4–36.5	TBG	40.6 \pm 2.1	Robbins & Rall (1955), Christensen (1960), Green & Ingbar (1961), Oppenheimer (1974), Burger & Vallotton (1975), Chopra (1976), Gavin <i>et al.</i> (1977, 1980), Nakamura <i>et al.</i> (1978), Burger <i>et al.</i> (1979), Pittman <i>et al.</i> (1980), Engler <i>et al.</i> (1984), Menegay <i>et al.</i> (1989), Lopresti & Dlott (1992)
TA $_3$	42–244	40	6.5 \pm 0.5	222–298	TTR	5.2 \pm 1.5	
Rat							
T $_3$	768	–	~2	4.2–7.3		2.3–2.5	Wilkinson <i>et al.</i> (1959), Gosling <i>et al.</i> (1976), Cavalieri <i>et al.</i> (1984), Nguyen <i>et al.</i> (1993), Liang <i>et al.</i> (1997)
TA $_3$	402	–	~1	3.5–9.4			

Overview of kinetic properties of T $_3$ and TA $_3$ in humans and rats. Data are compiled from indicated references. Peak levels have been determined after oral administration.

MCR, metabolic clearance rate; PR, production rate; $t_{1/2}$, plasma half life time; TBG, thyroxine binding globulin, TTR, transthyretin.

extracts (Albright *et al.* 1956), and rat kidney (Tomita *et al.* 1957) or brain (Tata *et al.* 1957) homogenates with ^{131}I - T_4 and ^{131}I - T_3 . More recent studies confirmed the *in vivo* formation of TA_3 upon T_3 injection in rats (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008). *In vivo* formation of TA_3 and TA_4 was demonstrated in humans after administration of ^{125}I - LT_4 (Braverman *et al.* 1970), whereas others detected TA_3 after the administration of ^{125}I - TA_4 (Burger *et al.* 1979, Burger 1986). Based on these findings it was assumed that T_3 and/or TA_4 are intermediates in the conversion of T_4 to TA_3 .

The mechanism by which iodothyronines are converted to iodothyroacetic acid metabolites has not been fully elucidated. A common hypothesis involves the decarboxylation and successive oxidative deamination of the alanine side chain of iodothyronines. Recently, purified human intestinal ornithine decarboxylase (ODC) was indeed demonstrated to facilitate the decarboxylation of 3,5- T_2 to 3,5-diiodothyronamine (T_2AM) and T_4 to 3,3',5,5'-tetraiodothyronamine (T_4AM) (Hoefig *et al.* 2015). The involvement of aromatic L-amino acid decarboxylase (AADC, or L-DOPA decarboxylase), long regarded as the most likely candidate, has been disproven (Hoefig *et al.* 2012). It remains to be studied if other decarboxylases also possess this capacity. Although, recent studies have demonstrated the presence of decarboxylated (iodo)thyronine metabolites 3- T_1AM and T_6AM *in vivo* (Scanlan *et al.* 2004), other iodothyronamines have not been detected in human serum thus far.

The oxidative deamination of T_1AM and T_3AM to their thyoacetic acid counterparts has been demonstrated in HepG2 cells and human thyroid tissue and was reduced by iproniazide, an inhibitor of monoamine oxidase (MAO) and semicarbazide-sensitive amine oxidase (SSAO) (Wood *et al.* 2009). It was suggested that at least one of these enzymes converts 3- T_1AM and T_3AM to their aldehyde intermediates, which may be substrates for the abundantly expressed aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH), resulting in the formation of 3-iodothyroacetic acid (3- TA_1) and TA_3 , respectively (Wood *et al.* 2009). Of interest, TA_3 modulates the activity of ALDH (McCarthy *et al.* 1968, Mårdh *et al.* 1987, Zhou & Weiner 1997). Conversion of T_4AM to TA_4 has not been demonstrated thus far. Although iodothyronamines are efficiently deiodinated, neither D1 nor D2 catalyzes the conversion of T_4AM to T_3AM (Piehl *et al.* 2008). This indicates that conversion of T_4AM to T_3AM is not an intermediate step in the conversion of T_4 to TA_3 (Fig. 1). Together, these studies support the hypothesis that at least some iodothyronines can be converted to their acetic acid metabolites via a

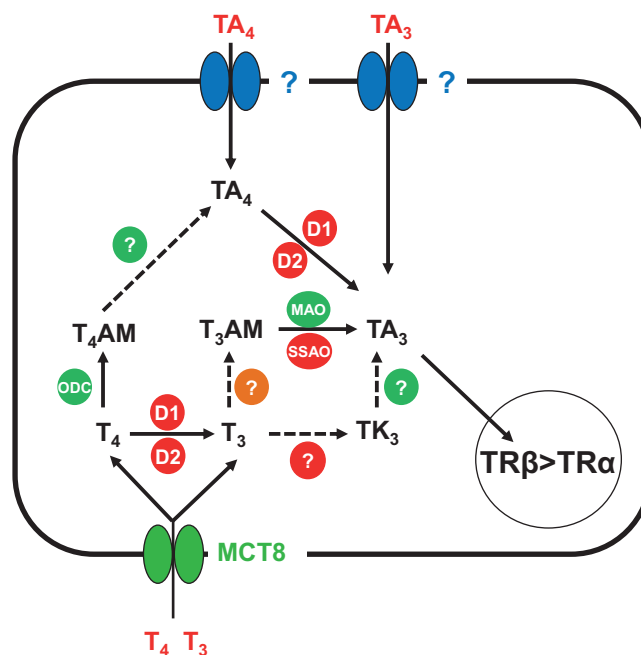


Figure 1

Schematic overview of cellular formation, metabolism and action of TA_3 . Dashed lines represent processes for which the involved enzymes/transporters have not been identified but their existence may be assumed based on theoretical grounds or experimental data. D, deiodinase; MAO, monoamine oxidase; SSAO, semicarbazide-sensitive amine oxidase; ODC, ornithine decarboxylase; TK_3 , 3,3',5-triiodothyropropyruvic acid.

thyronamine intermediate. An alternative route for the metabolism of the alanine side chain of iodothyronines involves its conversion by aminotransferase(s) to pyruvic acid, followed by decarboxylation to acetaldehyde and oxidation to acetic acid (e.g. Wilkinson 1957). However, the enzymes catalyzing these reactions remain to be identified.

Metabolism of TA_3

TA_3 has been shown to be metabolized via similar pathways as T_3 , i.e. stepwise deiodination, and conjugation with glucuronic acid and sulfate.

Deiodination

Early studies found that TA_3 inhibits inner ring deiodination (IRD) of T_3 in rat brain microsomes (Kaplan *et al.* 1983) and monkey hepatocellular carcinoma cells (Sorimachi & Yasumura 1981). Later studies demonstrated that TA_3 is efficiently deiodinated to 3,3'-diiodothyroacetic acid (3,3'- TA_2) by D1 and D3 (Rutgers *et al.* 1989a,

Horn *et al.* 2013). TA_3 is even a better substrate for D1 than T_3 , illustrated by a 16-fold higher V_{max}/K_m ratio (Rutgers *et al.* 1989a). Similar to T_3 , TA_3 induced the expression and activity of D1 in rat liver and kidney (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008). Moreover, outer ring deiodination by Dio1 and Dio2 mediates the conversion of TA_4 to TA_3 (Burger *et al.* 1975, Köhrle *et al.* 1986, Horn *et al.* 2013).

In humans, up to 60% of the administered ^{131}I - TA_3 dose appears in urine as inorganic ^{131}I within 24 h (Green & Ingbar 1961), suggesting that deiodination of (conjugated) TA_3 comprises an important metabolic pathway *in vivo*. In contrast, Flock and coworkers (Flock *et al.* 1962) found that only 20% of ^{131}I - TA_3 administered to dogs appeared as inorganic ^{131}I in urine within 24 h, while 3,3'- TA_2 sulfate was also detected in serum. A similar fraction of ^{131}I - TA_3 was excreted in urine as inorganic ^{131}I in rats (Wilkinson *et al.* 1959, Juge-Aubry *et al.* 1995).

Deiodination of TA_3 ultimately results in the formation of thyroacetic acid (TA_0), which is excreted in urine in humans (Chopra *et al.* 1988). Given that the estimated PRs of TA_4 and TA_3 together amount to $\sim 10 \mu\text{g}/\text{day}$ (Pittman *et al.* 1980, Siegrist-Kaiser & Burger 1994), the urinary TA_0 levels (up to $\sim 15 \mu\text{g}/\text{L}$) cannot be derived from deiodination of endogenous TA_4 and TA_3 alone. Based on the studies of Hoefig and coworkers (Hoefig *et al.* 2015) and Wood and coworkers (Wood *et al.* 2009), the metabolism of (iodo)thyronines such as 3,5- T_2 , 3- T_1 and T_0 via thyronamine intermediates to their thyroacetic acid derivatives also contributes to urinary TA_0 excretion.

Conjugation

In addition to deiodination, conjugation of TA_3 to its glucuronide (TA_3G) and sulfate (TA_3S) constitutes an important part of TA_3 metabolism. Incubation of rat hepatocytes with ^{131}I - TA_3 results in almost complete metabolism of TA_3 within 3 h, mainly to TA_3G (50%), ^{131}I - (40%) and TA_3S (<10%) (Rutgers *et al.* 1989b). The formation of TA_3G and TA_3S increases to 60% and 16%, respectively, by blocking Dio1 with propylthiouracil (PTU), and TA_3G levels even further increase to 80% by simultaneous inhibition of sulfation, without affecting total TA_3 metabolism (Rutgers *et al.* 1989b).

Similar to sulfated iodothyronines, TA_3S is rapidly degraded through IRD (Rutgers *et al.* 1989a). The aryl sulfotransferase Sult1a1 (or phenol sulfotransferase 1 (PST1)) mediates the sulfation of TA_3 at the 4'-hydroxyl group in rats (Sekura *et al.* 1981) and the ubiquitously expressed (human) SULT1A1 is the most likely candidate

in humans (Visser 1994). In rats, stable ether glucuronides are formed at the phenolic hydroxyl group of TA_3 , whereas mainly labile ester glucuronides at the carboxyl group are formed in humans (Burger 1986, Moreno *et al.* 1994).

Although deiodination of TA_3S appears to be the principal metabolic route of TA_3 in humans, TA_3G is the major TA_3 metabolite excreted in bile (Roche *et al.* 1956, Green & Ingbar 1961). Up to 50% of ^{131}I - TA_3 administered to rats is excreted within 4 h as TA_3G in bile (Rutgers *et al.* 1989b), suggesting that glucuronidation is also the main route of TA_3 metabolism in rats. Interestingly, serum TA_3S and biliary TA_3G and TA_3S excretion are increased by blocking deiodination with PTU, without affecting the TA_3 clearance rate. Flock and coworkers (Flock *et al.* 1965) obtained similar results using another D1 inhibitor, butyl 4-hydroxy-3,5-diiodobenzoate (BHDB). Bilirubin glucuronosyltransferase-deficient Gunn rats show a reduction in biliary excretion of TA_3G , accompanied by a compensatory increase of non-specified metabolites in urine (Flock *et al.* 1965). Moreover, newborn sheep reveal a rapid decrease of TA_3S plasma levels which coincides with the maturation of glucuronosyltransferase (and deiodinase) expression (Wang *et al.* 1986, Wu *et al.* 2008). Lastly, hepatectomized dogs show complete abolishment of TA_3G formation and a concomitant increase in sulfate conjugates in plasma and urine, most predominantly 3'- TA_1S and 3,3'- TA_2S (Flock *et al.* 1962).

Together, these studies suggest that deiodination and conjugation are responsible for a stable TA_3 clearance, even in case one of these pathways is not properly functioning. Importantly, since the relative contribution of these pathways differs across species, metabolic and kinetic studies in animal models should be extrapolated to different models with caution.

Cellular transport of TA_3

As for TH, the cellular entry of TA_3 is supposed to be transporter-mediated. Studies using rat anterior pituitary cells and cardiomyocytes have shown a similar time course of ^{125}I - TA_3 and ^{125}I - T_3 uptake (Everts *et al.* 1994, Verhoeven *et al.* 2002). Based on free hormone levels, the transport rate of TA_3 even exceeds that of T_3 (Everts *et al.* 1994, Verhoeven *et al.* 2002). Moreover, TA_3 competes with TH uptake in rat anterior pituitary cells and isolated hepatocytes, but not in rat cardiomyocytes (Blondeau *et al.* 1988, Everts *et al.* 1994, Neves *et al.* 2002, Verhoeven *et al.* 2002). These findings suggest that tissue-specific transporters facilitate the cellular entry

of TA₃, some of which may work in an ATP and sodium independent manner (Everts *et al.* 1994).

TA₃ transporters have not been identified yet. MCT8, MCT10 and Organic Anion Transporting Polypeptide (OATP)1C1 do not appear relevant for transport of TA₃ (Horn *et al.* 2013, Groeneweg *et al.* 2014, Kersseboom *et al.* 2014). Studies in rodents suggest that the TA₃ transporter(s) are widely expressed, given the increase in TA₃ levels in many tissues after injection of TA₃ (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008, Kersseboom *et al.* 2014). However, the transporter(s) involved remain to be identified.

Molecular basis of TA₃ action

TA₃ binds efficiently to nuclear TRs (Oppenheimer *et al.* 1973, Smith *et al.* 1980, Evans *et al.* 1983, Bres *et al.* 1986, Luo *et al.* 1986), i.e. with a similar affinity as T₃ to TRα1 and a 3- to 6-fold higher affinity than T₃ to TRβ1 and TRβ2 (Schueler *et al.* 1990, Takeda *et al.* 1995, Messier & Langlois 2000, Martínez *et al.* 2009), which may indicate relative TRβ-selective binding and action of TA₃. This is supported by a 2- to 3-fold lower EC₅₀ value for TRβ1 compared to TRα1 mediated transcriptional activation by TA₃ (Martínez *et al.* 2009). The preferential binding of TA₃ to TRβ is supported by X-ray crystallography (Martínez *et al.* 2009). Although TA₃ shows a better fit in the TRα1 ligand binding cavity, its binding to TRβ is more energetically favorable. This is mainly caused by a single amino acid difference between TRα1 (Ser277) and TRβ1 (Asn331) at the ligand binding domain (LBD), leading to a relative displacement of the β-hairpin of the TRβ LBD which potentiates direct substrate contacts (Wagner *et al.* 2001, Martínez *et al.* 2009). Of clinical importance is the relatively high affinity of TA₃ for several TRβ mutants identified in patients with RTH-β which display reduced T₃ binding (Takeda *et al.* 1995, Messier *et al.* 2001).

Importantly, despite its higher affinity for TRβ than T₃, controversy exists to what extent this leads to higher transcriptional activation levels. Messier and Langlois (2000) did not observe differences in TRβ-mediated transcriptional activation potency between T₃ and TA₃ in case of the direct repeat (DR4), the most prevalent TRE configuration in humans (Yen 2001), whereas TA₃ was 1.5- to 2-fold more potent than T₃ in case of palindrome and inverted palindrome TREs. In contrast, Martínez and coworkers (Martínez *et al.* 2009) found that TA₃ was also 6-fold more potent than T₃ in activating TRβ-mediated transcription in case of DR4.

Although not studied in detail, differences in the potency of TA₃ and T₃ to dissociate or recruit co-factors may exist. It was found that TA₃ has a lower efficacy than T₃ in recruiting the steroid receptor co-activator (SRC-1) to TRα1 (Koury *et al.* 2009). Of note, most of these studies have been carried out in the absence of retinoid X receptor (RXR), which has been shown to exert a central role in modulating the sensitivity of TH-responsive genes to different TR ligands (Bogazzi *et al.* 1997).

The non-genomic effects of TA₃ have been scarcely studied (Lin *et al.* 1998, D'Arezzo *et al.* 2004). TA₃ was found to exert a stimulatory effect on the plasma membrane integrin αvβ3 receptor, although less potently compared to T₃ (D'Arezzo *et al.* 2004). Taken together, TA₃ has somewhat higher affinity and transcriptional activation potency for TRβ than TRα and, thus, may exert stronger thyromimetic effects in TRβ-expressing tissues. However, it should be realized that intracellular TA₃ levels are governed by tissue-specific transporters, deiodinases and conjugating enzymes which also impact the tissue-specific biological actions of TA₃.

Regulation and role of TA₃

TA₃ is an important bioactive hormone in marine invertebrates. Interestingly, the TR of *Branchiostoma floridae* (amphioxus) is selectively activated by TA₃ and not by T₃ (Paris *et al.* 2008, Wang *et al.* 2009). Nevertheless, administration of T₃ to the developing amphioxus stimulates its metamorphosis (Paris *et al.* 2010), suggesting that T₃ is a precursor of the bioactive hormone TA₃. Indeed, TA₃ is present in amphioxus and its administration promotes metamorphosis to a similar extent as administration of T₃ (Paris *et al.* 2008, 2010). In addition, the non-selenodeiodinase bfDy from *B. floridae* specifically catalyzes the IRD of TA₄ and TA₃ but not of T₄ and T₃ (Klootwijk *et al.* 2011). Also in other species, TR activation by TA₃ may differ from the human situation (Oka *et al.* 2013).

Although TA₃ is a naturally occurring bioactive TH metabolite in humans, its exact biological role is unknown. In addition, little is known about factors that affect its serum and tissue concentrations. Several studies found up to 3-fold increased serum TA₄ and TA₃ levels during fasting and non-thyroidal illness (Burger *et al.* 1976, Pittman *et al.* 1980, Dlott *et al.* 1992, LoPresti & Dlott 1992). It was suggested that the reduction in D1 and increase in D3 activity during these 'low T₃ states', favor the formation of rT₃ and other TH metabolites such as

TA₃ (Carlin & Carlin 1993, Farwell 2013). Indeed, urinary excretion of TA₃(S) is increased during fasting and iopanoic acid (IOP) treatment (LoPresti *et al.* 1993, Kaiser-Siegrist & Burger 1994). The molecular basis for these changes is largely unclear, although the role of ODC appears to be limited, since its activity is reduced during starvation (D'Agostino *et al.* 1987). It has been postulated that the increased TA₃ levels are responsible for the suppression of TSH observed under these conditions despite low serum TH levels. In addition, TA₃ potently suppresses leptin secretion by rat brown and white adipocytes, and since leptin stimulates TSH secretion this may induce a further decline in TSH levels (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2004).

Effects of TA₃ on the hypothalamus–pituitary–thyroid (HPT) axis

The first recognized effect of TA₃ was the reduction of goiter in hypothyroid rats (Pitt-Rivers 1953). In line, TA₃ effectively restores most clinical and biochemical abnormalities in myxedematous patients (Pitt-Rivers 1955, 1956, Trotter 1955, 1956). Later studies showed that TA₃ potently reduces TSH secretion and TRH-receptor expression in mouse thyrotropic pituitary tumor cells (Gershengorn *et al.* 1979) and TRH-induced TSH release from rat pituitary fragments or cells (Szabolcs *et al.* 1991, Everts *et al.* 1994).

In euthyroid and hypothyroid rats, a dose-dependent reduction of serum TSH levels is observed within 6 h after TA₃ administration, beginning at a dose as low as 10 µg/kg (Table 2). From these and other studies it was estimated that 62 µg (100 nmol)/kg/day TA₃ has an equal TSH-suppressive effect as 16 µg (20 nmol)/kg/day LT₄. Interestingly, Mirell and coworkers (Mirell *et al.* 1989) found that TSH mRNA expression levels are unchanged 6 h after TA₃ administration, suggesting that the initial decline in serum TSH is not caused by alterations at transcriptional level, but rather points to direct inhibition of TSH secretion by TA₃. In contrast, prolonged (>12 days) TA₃ administration to rats persistently suppressed pituitary TSH mRNA levels (Juge-Aubry *et al.* 1995, Liang *et al.* 1997), resulting in a dose-dependent decrease in serum T₃ and T₄ levels (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008). Similar effects on TSH levels were found in mice treated with TA₄, whereas no effects were observed on hypothalamic TRH mRNA expression (Horn *et al.* 2013).

A dose-dependent reduction of TSH levels was observed within 6–9 h after oral administration of TA₃ to

euthyroid human subjects, with a lowest dose of 350 µg (~5 µg/kg) (Burger *et al.* 1979, Medeiros-Neto *et al.* 1980, Menegay *et al.* 1989). Similar effects were observed in hypothyroid subjects and subjects with apparent TH insensitivity (Beck-Peccoz *et al.* 1983, Salemla *et al.* 1988, and Table 3). Consequently, serum T₄, rT₃ and T₃ levels decrease (Burger *et al.* 1979, Medeiros-Neto *et al.* 1980, Beck-Peccoz *et al.* 1983, 1988, Bracco *et al.* 1993). Sustained TSH suppression was best achieved upon division of the daily TA₃ dose compared with a single morning administration, although both regimes resulted in a similar reduction of serum T₄ levels (Medeiros-Neto *et al.* 1980, Bracco *et al.* 1993).

Taken together, TA₃ inhibits TSH production and secretion by acting at the level of the pituitary, thereby regulating thyroid activity.

Effects of TA₃ on other tissues

In addition to its potent effect on the HPT axis, TA₃ also exerts thyromimetic effects on peripheral tissues (Tables 2 and 3). In evaluating these effects, it should be taken into account that TA₃ reduces endogenous TH production when administered to euthyroid subjects, which also contributes to the changes in tissue TH status. Therefore, the direct effects of TA₃ can best be studied in athyroid subjects. An overview of clinical studies with TA₃ in humans is provided in Table 4. Table 5 provides an overview of the thyromimetic potency of TA₃ in different tissues relative to T₄. TA₃ and LT₄ dose are expressed in µg/kg (if available) or else as total daily dose. Bone formation markers include alkaline phosphatase and osteocalcin (in case of discrepant responses of these parameters within the same study, the response of osteocalcin prevails since this is a more specific marker for bone formation). Bone resorption markers include hydroxyproline or d-pyridinoline (in case of discrepant responses the parameter with the strongest response prevails). In case TA₃ and LT₄ monotherapy are compared, tissue sensitivity is expressed as TA₃ dose/LT₄ dose ratio required to obtain a similar effect size on the given parameters. In case of comparison between LT₄+TA₃ vs LT₄ mono-therapy, tissue sensitivity is expressed relative to the TA₃ dose/Δ LT₄ dose ratio (e.g. <(ratio) means a stronger response of the parameter to low dose LT₄+TA₃ compared to the high dose LT₄ mono-therapy at an equal TSH-suppressive dose). Only studies in which details of >2 organ systems have been provided are included in Table 5.

Table 2 Tissue effects of TA₃ determined in animal studies.

Parameter	Effect/outcome	Species, thyroid state	Dose; duration; mode of administration	References
HPT-axis*				
TSH (serum) basal or stim.	↓	Rat, eu/hypo	10 µg/kg/day; 12 day; i.v.	Mirell <i>et al.</i> (1989), Juge-Aubry <i>et al.</i> (1995), Liang <i>et al.</i> (1997), Alvarez <i>et al.</i> (2004), Medina-Gomez <i>et al.</i> (2008)
T ₄ (serum)	↓	Rat, eu	8 µg/kg/day; 12 day; i.v.	Medina-Gomez <i>et al.</i> (2008)
T ₃ (serum)	↓	Rat, eu	40 µg/kg/day; 12 day; i.v.	Medina-Gomez <i>et al.</i> (2008)
Thyroid weight	↓	Rats, hypo	~5 µg/kg/day; 9 day; s.c.	Pitt-Rivers (1953)
Heart				
Heart weight/body weight	↑	Rat (adult), hypo	300 µg/kg/day; 15 day	Olsen <i>et al.</i> (1977), Liang <i>et al.</i> (1997)
	↑	Rat (newborn)	300 µg/kg/day; 1 year	Symons <i>et al.</i> (1975)
	↑	Rat (in utero)	300 µg/kg/day; 15 day to pregnant dams	Olsen <i>et al.</i> (1977), Hawkey <i>et al.</i> (1981)
Cardiomyopathy	+	Rat (in utero)	>300 µg/kg/day; 15 day to pregnant dams	Olsen <i>et al.</i> (1977), Hawkey <i>et al.</i> (1981)
		Rat (newborn)	300 µg/kg/day; 1 year	Symons <i>et al.</i> (1975)
Cardiac size	↑	Rat (adults)	180 µg/kg/day; 1 year	Symons <i>et al.</i> (1975), Olsen <i>et al.</i> (1977)
Bone				
Bone formation markers (serum)	=	Rat, eu/hypo	250 µg/kg/day; 40 day; i.p.	Alvarez <i>et al.</i> (2004)
Bone resorption markers (serum)	=	Rat, eu	250 µg/kg/day; 40 day; i.p.	Alvarez <i>et al.</i> (2004)
	↑	Rat, hypo	250 µg/kg/day; 40 day; i.p.	Alvarez <i>et al.</i> (2004)
BMD	=	Rat, eu/hypo	250 µg/kg/day; 40 day; i.p.	Alvarez <i>et al.</i> (2004)
Brain				
Myelination	↑	Mice, hypo	200 µg/kg/day; 12 day; oral	Kersseboom <i>et al.</i> (2014), Zada <i>et al.</i> (2016)
		Zebrafish, hypo		
Purkinje cell development	↑	Mice, hypo	200 µg/kg/day; 12 day; oral	Kersseboom <i>et al.</i> (2014), Delbaere <i>et al.</i> (2017)
		Chicken, hypo		
Liver				
Cholesterol	=	Rats, eu	200 µg/kg/day; 4 week; oral	Autissier <i>et al.</i> (1980)
Biliary cholesterol	=	Rat, eu	1000 µg/kg/day; 9 day; i.v.	Van Zyl (1957)
Biliary cholic acid	↓	Rat, eu	1000 µg/kg/day; 9 day; i.v.	Van Zyl (1957)
Metabolism				
Oxygen consumption	Acute ↑	Rats, hypo	1000 µg/kg; single; s.c.	Pitt-Rivers (1953), Wilkinson (1959)
	Gradual ↑		600 µg/kg; 4 day; s.c.	Hill <i>et al.</i> (1960)
Body weight	↓	Rats, hypo	60 µg/kg/day; 9 day; s.c.	Pitt-Rivers (1953)

Explanation of symbols: =, no effect; ↑, stimulatory effect; ↓, inhibitory effect; +, present. In case of =, the highest dose reported to have no effects is listed in the 4th column. In case of ↑ or ↓ the lowest dose at which the effect has been reported is listed in the 4th column.

*Only the studies that corrected for cross-reactivity of TA₃ in the T₃ assay are listed.

i.p., intraperitoneal; i.v., intravenous; s.c., subcutaneous; stim., TRH-stimulated.

Basal metabolic rate

Pioneering studies demonstrated that TA₃ rapidly increased oxygen consumption in rat kidney slices (Thibault & Pitt-Rivers 1955) and myeloid leukemic leucocytes (Alexander & Bisset 1958) and stimulates aerobic glycolysis in primary tumor cell cultures more potently than T₃, T₄ or TA₄ (Heimberg *et al.* 1955).

At high doses of 1000–5000 µg/kg/day, TA₃ rapidly raised the oxygen consumption in hypothyroid rats (Pitt-Rivers 1953, Wilkinson 1959), whereas a lower

TA₃ dose of 600 µg/kg/day resulted in a more gradual stimulation (Hill *et al.* 1960) (Table 2). In hypothyroid patients, TA₃ stimulates basal metabolic rate (BMR) only at doses above ~4000 µg/day (50–75 µg/kg/day) (Lerman & Pitt-Rivers 1955, 1956, Trotter 1955, 1956, De Greaff *et al.* 1957). Trotter (1956) showed that the effects of 4000 µg TA₃/day (50–65 µg/kg/day) on BMR persisted beyond 5 days after treatment cessation. In contrast, administration of 45 µg TA₃/kg/day for up to 3 weeks to euthyroid subjects significantly reduced BMR

Table 3 Tissue effects of TA₃ determined in humans.

Parameter	Effect/ outcome	Thyroid state	Dose, duration	References
HPT axis				
TSH (serum), basal or stim.	↓	Eu/hypo/ hyper	~5 µg/kg/day; 1 day	Burger <i>et al.</i> (1979), Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Menegay <i>et al.</i> (1989), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
T4 (serum)	↓	Eu/hypo/ hyper	~20 µg/kg/day; 6 week	Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Beck-Peccoz <i>et al.</i> (1988), Lind <i>et al.</i> (1989), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
rT3 (serum)	↓	Eu/hypo	22 µg/kg/day; 3 week	Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993)
T3 (serum)	↓	Eu/hyper	35–40 µg/kg/day; 1 day	Burger <i>et al.</i> (1979), Beck-Peccoz <i>et al.</i> (1988)
Goiter volume	↓	Eu	20 µg/kg/day; 11 months	Pujol <i>et al.</i> (1998), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
Heart				
(Basal or sleeping) heart rate	=	Eu/hypo	50–75 µg/kg/day; 6–28 week	Trotter (1956), Burger <i>et al.</i> (1979), Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Beck-Peccoz <i>et al.</i> (1988), Lind <i>et al.</i> (1989), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997), Pujol <i>et al.</i> (2000), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
Blood pressure	=	Eu/hypo	50–75 µg/kg/day; 6–28 week	Rall <i>et al.</i> (1956), Trotter (1956), Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
Episodes of angina	↑	Eu (with CHD)	7.5–75 µg/kg/day; 3–10 month	Oliver & Boyd (1957), Ibbertson <i>et al.</i> (1959), Boyd & Oliver (1960)
Cardiac function	=	Eu/hypo	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997), Pujol <i>et al.</i> (2000)
Bone				
Bone formation markers (serum)	=	Eu	45 µg/kg/day; 3 week	Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	↑	Hypo	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
Bone resorption markers (serum)	↑	Eu	20 µg/kg/day; 11 month	Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
		Hypo	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
BMD lumbar	=	Eu	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
BMD Femoral	↓			
Liver				
SHBG	↑	Eu	20 µg/kg/day; 11 month	Beck-Peccoz <i>et al.</i> (1988), Lind <i>et al.</i> (1989), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	↑	Hypo	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
Ferritine	↑	Hypo	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
Cholesterol (total, LDL)	↓	Eu	20 µg/kg/day; 11 month	Trotter (1956), Oliver & Boyd (1957), Boyd & Oliver (1960), Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Beck-Peccoz <i>et al.</i> (1988), Lind <i>et al.</i> (1989), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	↓	Hypo	~10 µg/kg/day; 2–3 month	Lerman & Pitt-Rivers (1955, 1956), Trotter (1955, 1956), Rall <i>et al.</i> (1956), Zondek <i>et al.</i> (1956), De Graeff <i>et al.</i> (1957), Ibbertson <i>et al.</i> (1959), Boyd & Oliver (1960), Hill <i>et al.</i> (1960), Lerman (1961), Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
Triglycerides	=	Eu	45 µg/kg/day; 3 week	Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Beck-Peccoz <i>et al.</i> (1988), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993)
	↓	Hypo	~20 µg/kg/day; 6 week	Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
Apoprotein A1	=	Hypo	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
	=	Eu	45 µg/kg/day; 3 week	Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
Apoprotein B	↓	Hypo	~50 µg/kg/day; 85–100 day	Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
	↓	Eu	20 µg/kg/day; 11 m	Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
Metabolism				
BMR, RMR, SEE	= (↓)	Eu	75 µg/kg/day; 12–14 week	Trotter (1956), Oliver & Boyd (1957), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993)
	↑	Hypo	~50–75 µg/kg/day; 6–28 week	Trotter (1955, 1956), Lerman & Pitt-Rivers (1956), Rall <i>et al.</i> (1956), Zondek <i>et al.</i> (1956), De Graeff <i>et al.</i> (1957), Ibbertson <i>et al.</i> (1959), Hill <i>et al.</i> (1960), Boyd & Oliver (1960), Lerman (1961), Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)
Protein oxidation	=	Eu	45 µg/kg/day; 3 week	Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993)

(Continued)

Table 3 Continued.

Parameter	Effect/ outcome	Thyroid state	Dose, duration	References
Body weight	=	Eu	75 µg/kg/day; 12–14 week	Oliver & Boyd (1957), Medeiros-Neto <i>et al.</i> (1980), Beck-Peccoz <i>et al.</i> (1988) [§] , Lind <i>et al.</i> (1989), Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993), Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	↓	Hypo	7 µg/kg/day; >12 week ~20 µg/kg/day; 15 day (i.v.)	Trotter (1955, 1956), Ibbertson <i>et al.</i> (1959), Boyd & Oliver (1960), Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997) Lerman & Pitt-Rivers (1955, 1956), De Graeff <i>et al.</i> (1957)
Kidney				
Urinary creatinine excretion	↑	Hypo	140–260 µg/kg/day; 1 day ~6.5 µg/kg/day; 15 day (i.v.)	Rall <i>et al.</i> (1956), Ibbertson <i>et al.</i> (1959) Lerman & Pitt-Rivers (1956), De Graeff <i>et al.</i> (1957)

Overview of the effects of TA₃ in humans. Details on the dosing, follow-up time and group size of these individual studies can be found in Table 4.

Explanation of symbols: =, no effect; ↑, stimulatory effect of TA₃; ↓, inhibitory effect of TA₃. In case of =, the highest dose reported to have no effects is listed in the 4th column. In case of ↑ or ↓ the lowest dose at which the effect has been reported is listed in the 4th column.

*Only the studies that corrected for cross-reactivity of TA₃ in the T₃ assay are listed.

BMR, basal metabolic rate; CHD, coronary heart disease; i.v., intravenous; RMR, resting metabolic rate; SEE, sleeping energy expenditure.

and sleeping energy expenditure, presumably due to a reduction of endogenous TH production, whereas protein oxidation was unaffected (Bracco *et al.* 1993). These parameters significantly increased in subjects treated with 2.4–4.8 µg LT₄/kg/day (Bracco *et al.* 1993). In general, TA₃ exerts similar effects on BMR at 4- to 30-fold lower doses of LT₄ and 15- to 100-fold lower doses of LT₃ (Table 5). Importantly, the TA₃ dose required to increase BMR greatly exceeds that required for adequate TSH suppression.

Liver

Intrahepatic TA₃ levels increase upon TA₃ infusion in rats, which is in line with the important role of the liver in TA₃ clearance (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008). TA₃ also effectively induces the expression of T₃-responsive genes in the liver, including Dio1, to a similar extent as T₃ (Juge-Aubry *et al.* 1995, Liang *et al.* 1997, Alvarez *et al.* 2004, Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008). No changes in serum cholesterol and lipid levels or biliary excretion were observed after treatment of euthyroid rats for 4 weeks with 200 µg TA₃/kg/day (Van Zyl 1957, Autissier *et al.* 1980).

When given at equivalent TSH-suppressive doses to euthyroid or hypothyroid patients, TA₃ induced similar increases in serum sex hormone binding globulin (SHBG) and ferritin levels as LT₄ (Bracco *et al.* 1993, Sherman *et al.* 1997). In contrast, Beck-Peccoz and coworkers (Beck-Peccoz *et al.* 1988) and Lind and coworkers (Lind *et al.* 1989) did not observe any changes in serum SHBG levels upon TA₃ administration in a similar dose to mildly obese euthyroid subjects on caloric restriction. In hypothyroid subjects, TA₃ also reduced serum total and LDL cholesterol as well as apoprotein B levels, generally within 2 weeks

(Table 3). The effect of TA₃ on HDL levels was usually less pronounced. These effects of TA₃ were generally less pronounced in euthyroid subjects as the effects of TA₃ in peripheral tissues were counter-balanced by the reduction in serum T₃ induced by TA₃, although findings vary depending on the precise TA₃ regimen used (Oliver & Boyd 1957, Boyd & Oliver 1960, Medeiros-Neto *et al.* 1980, Bracco *et al.* 1993, Brenta *et al.* 2003). Other liver parameters such as ALAT, ASAT and bilirubin were typically not affected by TA₃ (Burger *et al.* 1979). Taken together, TA₃ has potent thyromimetic effects in the liver.

Heart

TA₃ is efficiently taken up by rat cardiomyocytes (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008), but is a less potent regulator of TH target genes in the heart than T₃ (Liang *et al.* 1997). Nevertheless, high doses of TA₄ induce cardiac hypertrophy in rats, although less potently than T₄ (Lameloise *et al.* 2001). At least part of these effects is likely mediated through TA₃. Several rat studies have shown that high doses of TA₃ (300 µg/kg/day) administered to pregnant dams induce cardiac hypertrophy and myofibril disorganization in the offspring (Olsen *et al.* 1977, Hawkey *et al.* 1981). These abnormalities are less pronounced using a lower TA₃ dose (Olsen *et al.* 1977), or when TA₃ is administered to the newborns (Symons *et al.* 1975), and they are prevented by different β-adrenergic blocking agents with membrane stabilizing properties (Hawkey *et al.* 1981, Pearce *et al.* 1983, 1985, 1988). Of note, treatment for 13–19 days with TSH-suppressive doses of TA₃ (15–50 µg/kg/day) had no effect on the heart to BW ratio or myocardial structure in adult rats (Olsen *et al.* 1977, Liang *et al.* 1997).

Table 4 Overview of clinical studies in humans.

Reference	Thyroid state	Daily dose of TA ₃ (µg/day)	Duration	Effects of TA ₃							Conclusion(s)	
				TSH	Chol	Bone TO	BW	BMR	HR	Myx		Side effects
Myxedema or hypothyroidism												
Lerman & Pitt-Rivers (1955)	Hypo	1000–4000, i.v.	16–17 day	↓	↓	↓	↓	=	↓	↓	↓	Normalization of myxedematous features
Lerman & Pitt-Rivers (1956)	Hypo	100–4000, i.v.	12–16 day	↓	↓	↓	↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	Normalization of myxedematous features; higher doses were required to restore BMR
Trotter (1955)	Hypo	2000–6000, oral	10 day	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	Normalization of myxedematous features
Trotter (1956)	Hypo, eu	1000–6000, oral	2–28 week	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	Normalization of myxedematous features
Rall (1956)	Hypo	5000–15,000, single dose i.v.	36 day follow-up	↓	↓	↓	↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	Normalization of myxedematous features
De Graeff <i>et al.</i> (1957)	Hypo	1000, i.v.	12 day	↓	↓	↓	↓	=	=	↓	↓	Normalization of myxedematous features
Ibbertson <i>et al.</i> (1959)	Hypo	10,000–18,000, single dose oral	3–10 months	↓	↓	↓	↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	Normalization of myxedematous features; higher doses were required to restore BMR
Lerman (1961)	Hypo	500–6000, oral	2–3 months	↓	↓	↓	↓	=	=	=	=	Normalization of myxedematous features; higher doses were required to restore BMR
Hill <i>et al.</i> (1960)	Hypo	1000–6000, oral	14–52 day	↓	↓	↓	↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	Normalization of myxedematous features
Zondek <i>et al.</i> (1956)	Hypo	8000–10,000, 2 day oral	15 day follow-up	(↓)	(↓)	(↓)	(↓)	↑	↑	↑	↑	Temporary normalization of myxedematous features
Lipid-reduction in coronary heart disease												
Oliver & Boyd (1957)	Eu	500–5000, oral	12–14 week	(↓)	(↓)	(↓)	(↓)	=	=	=	=	Not useful for lipid lowering in patients with pre-existent heart disease
Boyd & Oliver (1960)	Hypo, eu	500–5000, oral	>12 week	(↓)	(↓)	(↓)	(↓)	=	=	=	=	Not useful for lipid lowering in patients with pre-existent heart disease
Treatment of euthyroid goiter												
Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Eu	1400, oral	11 months	↓	↓	↑	↑	↓	↓	=	=	Effective reduction of goiter size, with fewer side-effects (e.g. palpitations)
Pujol <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Eu	1400, oral	12–21 month	↓	↓	↑	↑	↓	↓	=	=	No thymimetic (side) effects on the heart in long-term treated patients
Thyroid carcinoma (substitution after thyroid ablation)												
Mueller-Gaertner & Schneider (1988)	Hypo	500 (+LT ₄), oral	3 week	↓	↓	↑	↑	↓	↓	=	=	Addition of a low dose TA ₃ to LT ₄ monotherapy further reduced basal and stimulated TSH levels
Sherman & Ladenson (1992)	Hypo	1400 (+LT ₄), oral	6–8 week	↓	↓	↑	↑	↓	↓	=	=	Compared to LT ₄ alone, a 40–50% lower LT ₄ dose was required if combined with TA ₃ to obtain equivalent or even better TSH suppression, without affecting TH action in peripheral tissues
Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)	Hypo	3500, oral	3 months	↓	↓	↑	↑	↓	↓	=	=	At a dose required for equivalent TSH suppression, TA ₃ has a stronger thyromimetic effect on liver and bones than LT ₄

Mechelany et al. (1991)	Hypo	8–17 µg/kg/day TA ₃ (=500–1000 µg/day) + 1.8 µg/kg/day LT ₄ (oral)	6 months	↓	↓	↑	=	↑	Compared to LT ₄ mono-therapy, a 40–50% lower LT ₄ dose was required once combined with TA ₃ to obtain equivalent or even better TSH suppression, without affecting TH action in peripheral tissues
Reduction of lipid levels and body weight in mild obesity									
Beck-Peccoz et al. (1988)	Eu	2800, oral	>2 months	↓					No additional effect on body weight and serum cholesterol levels over dietary restrictions alone
Lind et al. (1989)*	Eu	3000, oral	8 day	↓	=	=	=	=	No additional effect on body weight and serum cholesterol levels over dietary restrictions alone
TSH suppressive therapy in addition to anti-thyroid drugs in Graves' disease									
Pujol et al. (1998)	Eu	~1350, oral	~18 months						Effective reduction of goiter size
TA₃ kinetics and general effects									
Bracco et al. (1993)	Eu	1700–3400, oral	6 week	↓	↓	↑	=	=	Reduction of serum TSH levels with dose-dependent effects on liver and bone, but not BMR
Burger et al. (1979)	Eu	4 dd 350, oral	3 week	↓					More sustained TSH suppression by dividing daily dose
Burger et al. (1979)	Eu	150–2400, oral	1 day	↓					Reduction of serum (TRH stimulated) TSH and T ₃ , but not T ₄ levels, persisting until 5 days after administration
Menegay et al. (1989)	Hyper Eu	600, oral 350–2800, oral, 1 dose	1 day 1 day	↓/= ↓					Reduction of serum T ₃ levels in 2/7 subjects
Medeiros-Neto et al. (1980)	Eu, hypo	1400, oral	6 week	↓	↓	↓	=	=	Reduction of serum TSH levels after a single dose ≥350 µg
Pregnancy									Reduction of serum TSH levels, without affecting markers of tissue TH status except cholesterol
Cortelazzi et al. (1999)	Eu on PTU	2100–2800, oral	13 week						Effective reduction of fetal goiter size, normal neurodevelopment of neonate at 20 months
Nicolini et al. (1996)	Eu on PTU	2100–2800, oral	10 week						Effective reduction of fetal goiter size, normal neurodevelopment the neonate at 20 months
Asteria et al. (1999)	RTHβ	2100–3500, oral	13 week						Effective reduction of fetal goiter size. Normal neurodevelopment of neonate (with RTHβ) at 24 months

An overview of all studies, of which at least the abstract was available to the authors, in which TA₃ has been applied as a treatment for a variety of clinical conditions.

*Studies of which only the abstract was available; ^aWorsening of pre-existent ischemic heart disease (1 case); ^bWorsening of pre-existent ischemic heart disease (2/12 cases); ^cWorsening of pre-existent ischemic heart disease (3/18 cases); ^dNo side effects on cardiac structure in adults; ^eOnly minor clinical side effects (4/25 participants); ^fSevere complications due to cordocentesis BMR, basal metabolic rate; BW, body weight; chol, cholesterol; eu, euthyroid; HR, heart rate; hyper, hyperthyroid; hypo, hypothyroid; myx, myxedema; TO, turn-over.

Table 5 An overview of the thyromimetic potency of TA₃ in different tissues relative to LT₄.

Reference	Thyroid state	TA ₃ dose	Dose regime		HPT	
			A. LT ₄ Dose	B. Δdose LT ₄		A. Ratio TA ₃ /LT ₄ dose or B. TA ₃ /ΔLT ₄ ratio
A. Comparison to LT₄						
Sherman <i>et al.</i> (1997)	hypo	48 µg/kg/day		2.2 µg/kg/day	17	17
Bracco <i>et al.</i> (1993)	eu	23–46 µg/kg/day		2.4–4.8 µg/kg/day	9–19	9
Brenta <i>et al.</i> (2003)	eu	19.6 µg/kg/day		1.7 µg/kg/day	12	12
Ibbertson <i>et al.</i> (1959)	hypo	5–60 µg/kg/day		1–3 µg/kg/d	1.5–20	
B. LT₄ + TA₃ vs LT₄ mono-therapy						
Mechelany <i>et al.</i> (1991)	hypo	8.5–17 µg/kg/day		0.7 µg/kg/day	13–25	13–25
Sherman & Ladenson (1992)	hypo	1500 µg		87 µg	17	17

In adult human subjects, no detrimental effects of TA₃ have been observed on cardiac structure or function (Sherman *et al.* 1997, Pujol *et al.* 2000). In general, no overt chronotropic effects have been noted (Tables 2 and 3), although incidentally episodes of palpitations and tachycardia have been reported (Trotter 1956). This may be attributed to its lower potency to activate TRα1 compared with T₃ (Koury *et al.* 2009) or its lack of non-genomic effects on Na⁺ flux and Ca²⁺-ATPase activity in cardiomyocytes as observed with T₃ (Rudinger *et al.* 1984, Huang *et al.* 1999). The effects of TA₃ on the heart have not been systematically studied in humans, although several case-reports of children with RTHβ have not reported any cardiac side effects (Anzai *et al.* 2012).

Adipose tissue

TH importantly regulates basal and facultative thermogenesis, mainly through induction of uncoupling protein Ucp1 in BAT (Nicholis *et al.* 1986). In rat adipocytes, TA₃ appeared more potent in upregulating *Ucp1* and *Dio2* expression than T₃ (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2003). Also *in vivo*, low doses of TA₃ resulted in upregulation of Ucp1 in BAT and induced ectopic *Ucp1* expression in WAT, without affecting tissue TH levels (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008). In addition, TA₃ inhibited leptin expression and secretion in rat brown and white adipocytes (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2004).

Bone

TH stimulates bone turnover, particularly bone resorption. Prolonged hyperthyroidism results in a reduction of

bone mass and bone mineral density (BMD). Similarly, *in vitro* studies suggest that the stimulatory effects of TA₃ on bone resorption exceed those on bone formation in fetal rat long bones, whereas the overall effects of TA₃ on fetal mouse calvarial bones were less pronounced (Kawaguchi *et al.* 1994a,b).

However, daily injection of 250 µg/kg TA₃ in euthyroid rats for 40 days did not increase serum bone alkaline phosphatase (bALP) or carboxy-terminal telopeptide region of type I collagen (β-CTX), which are markers for bone formation and resorption, respectively (Alvarez *et al.* 2004). In addition, the BMD of the femur did not differ significantly between TA₃-treated and control animals (Alvarez *et al.* 2004). In hypothyroid animals on the same TA₃ dose, an increase in β-CTX serum levels was observed without concomitant increase in serum bALP. However, BMD did not differ significantly between TA₃-treated and control animals (Alvarez *et al.* 2004).

In athyroid human subjects, Sherman and coworkers (Sherman *et al.* 1997) showed that TA₃ stimulated bone turnover more potently than LT₄, at a similar degree of TSH suppression, as is evidenced by higher ALP and osteocalcin levels (bone formation markers) and urinary pyridinoline and deoxypyridinoline excretion (bone resorption markers). Some studies suggested that TA₃ preferentially stimulates bone formation (Mechelany *et al.* 1991, Sherman & Ladenson 1992), whereas others demonstrate a more selective stimulation of bone resorption and a decrease in BMD of the femoral neck but not of the lumbar spine (Brenta *et al.* 2003).

Taken together, TA₃ stimulates bone resorption and bone formation, although the currently available data are inconclusive regarding the balance between both processes.

Liver					Heart	Muscle	Bone			General		
TC ↓	LDL ↓	HDL ↓	TG ↓	SHBG ↑	Ferritin ↓	HR ↑	CK ↓	Formation ↑	Resorption ↑	BMD ↓	BW ↓	BMR ↑
<17	<17	17	17	<17	<17	17		<17			<17	
9	9	9	>19	10		19		9				>19
12	12	–	12	–		–		–	<12	12		
6–10						20					15	>15
				13–25		13–25	13–25	<13			>25	
<17	17	17	<17	<17	<17	(+)		<17	17		17	17

–, no effect. Only studies in which details of >2 organ systems have been provided are included in this table.
 BW, body weight; HR, heart rate; TC, total cholesterol; TG, thyroglobulin.

Brain and neurogenesis

TA₃ regulates the expression of well-known TH target genes, including *Dio2* and *Dio3*, in SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells and rat brain homogenates, and stimulates the dendritic arborization of cerebellar Purkinje cells (PCs) as efficiently as T₃ (Liang *et al.* 1997, Horn *et al.* 2013, Kersseboom *et al.* 2014).

TA₃ also exerts T₃-like effects on neurogenesis *in vivo*. Pax-8 KO mice lack endogenous TH production and consequently have a severely impaired brain development illustrated by a strongly reduced myelination and dendritogenesis of PCs. These abnormalities are largely prevented by administration of 200 µg TA₃/kg/day from postnatal day 1 (Kersseboom *et al.* 2014). The stimulatory effects on myelination are in line with previous studies (Van Wynsberghe *et al.* 1978). Similar effects have been found with TA₄ (Horn *et al.* 2013). In addition, the administration of low TA₃ doses (30 µg TA₃/kg/day) to WT mice resulted in a reduction of intracerebral T₃ and T₄ levels but did not alter the expression levels of some positively regulated TH-dependent genes in the striatum or cerebral cortex (Báñez-López *et al.* 2016). Several pre-clinical studies in rodents also indicated that TA₃ may have an antidepressive effect mediated through its β-adrenergic stimulatory effects (Massol *et al.* 1987, 1988a,b).

Effects of TA₃ and TA₄ on the developing human brain are largely unknown. However, several cases have been reported where TA₃ has been administered to a pregnant woman for the treatment of fetal hypothyroidism. Cortelazzi and coworkers (Cortelazzi *et al.* 1999) showed that TA₃ administration (2100–2800 µg/day) between 26 and 39 weeks of gestation to a hyperthyroid pregnant woman treated with PTU effectively reduced fetal goiter size within 15 days. A similar case was reported by

Nicolini and coworkers (Nicolini *et al.* 1996). In addition, Asteria and coworkers (Asteria *et al.* 1999) reported on the use of TA₃ in the treatment of a pregnant woman with RTHβ because of suspected hypothyroidism in the fetus carrying the same heterozygous mutation in TRβ. In all three cases, the infant showed a normal neuro(psycho)logical development at 20–24 months of age. Obviously, the risks and benefits of TA₃ administration during pregnancy should be carefully weighted. Nevertheless, these studies suggest that TA₃ has T₃-like effects on the developing human brain.

Skin

Topical application of TA₃ increases dermal thickness and prevents glucocorticoid-induced skin atrophy in mice and humans (Faergemann *et al.* 2002, Yazdanparast *et al.* 2006a,b), and stimulates procollagen synthesis and keratinocyte proliferation in human skin (Yazdanparast *et al.* 2004, Zhang *et al.* 2012), but has no beneficial effects on plaque psoriasis (Vahlquist *et al.* 2004).

Muscle and kidney

Little is known about the effects of TA₃ in muscle and kidney. In hypothyroid rats, TA₃ is efficiently taken up in striatal muscle and kidney, where the latter is also an important site for TA₃ metabolism (Medina-Gomez *et al.* 2008). Mechelany and coworkers (Mechelany *et al.* 1991) have shown that TA₃ reduced serum creatine kinase levels. TA₃ also increased urinary creatine levels in hypothyroid subjects, suggesting an increase in glomerular filtration rate (Lerman & Pitt-Rivers 1956, Rall *et al.* 1956, De Graeff *et al.* 1957, Ibbertson *et al.* 1959).

Therapeutic applications of TA₃ in humans

Because of its thyromimetic properties, the use of TA₃ in the treatment of different thyroid diseases has been explored, which is summarized in [Table 4](#).

Myxedema

The therapeutic application of TA₃ was first studied in cases of severe hypothyroidism (myxedema). In general, TA₃ doses of 10–30 µg/kg/day improved the myxedematous appearance and restored several parameters that reflect tissue TH status, including plasma cholesterol levels, urinary creatine excretion, electrocardiographic abnormalities and body weight, whereas no effect on BMR was observed ([Lerman & Pitt-Rivers 1955, 1956](#), [Trotter 1955, 1956](#), [De Graeff *et al.* 1957](#), [Ibbertson *et al.* 1959](#), [Boyd & Oliver 1960](#)). Normalization of BMR is generally observed in a dose range of 50–75 µg/kg/day ([Table 4](#)). In general, the effects of TA₃ occur more rapidly compared to T₃ ([Zondek *et al.* 1956](#), [Ibbertson *et al.* 1959](#)).

Thus, TA₃ effectively restores euthyroidism in hypothyroid patients, but is less potent than LT₄ and LT₃. Taken together, an obvious benefit for the use of TA₃ over LT₄ in the treatment of myxedematous patients is lacking.

Lipid reduction in coronary heart disease and obesity

The observed dissociated effect of low doses TA₃ on serum cholesterol levels and BMR prompted several small studies to the lipid lowering effect of TA₃ in euthyroid subjects with coronary heart disease. However, relatively high TA₃ doses, up to 5 mg daily (~70 µg/kg/day), were needed to reduce serum cholesterol levels in these studies, with usually only transient effects ([Oliver & Boyd 1957](#), [Boyd & Oliver 1960](#)). In non-controlled studies, at doses not affecting BMR, more episodes of transient thoracic pain and increased exercise intolerance have been reported in hypothyroid and euthyroid subjects independent of the TA₃ dose, which subsided after TA₃ withdrawal ([Oliver & Boyd 1957](#), [Ibbertson *et al.* 1959](#), [Boyd & Oliver 1960](#)). In contrast to these early studies, Brenta and coworkers ([Brenta *et al.* 2003](#)) already observed a reduction in cholesterol levels using a dose of 20 µg TA₃/kg/day in healthy subjects.

TA₃ has also been studied as a lipid lowering drug in mildly obese euthyroid females with caloric restriction ([Beck-Peccoz *et al.* 1988](#)). Despite a strong reduction in serum TSH, T₄ and T₃ levels, no significant changes were

found in serum cholesterol and triglyceride levels in the TA₃ treated group compared with females on caloric restriction alone.

There is no evidence that TA₃ is suitable for the long-term control of hypercholesterolemia in euthyroid subjects with or without coronary heart disease.

TSH suppression after thyroidectomy in differentiated thyroid carcinoma

TSH-suppression therapy is initiated after total thyroidectomy in patients with differentiated thyroid carcinoma. Driven by the preferential effects of TA₃ on the HPT axis, several studies evaluated TA₃ as a TSH-suppressive therapy in such patients.

Mueller-Gartner and Scheider (1988) observed a reduction in mean basal and TRH-stimulated TSH levels in patients on LT₄ monotherapy (2.6 ± 0.7 µg/kg/day) upon addition of 500 µg TA₃ daily, while only minor side effects were reported in 4 out of 25 patients. However, neither the impact on recurrence and survival rates, nor the effects on the TH state in peripheral organs were evaluated. Pujol and coworkers ([Pujol *et al.* 1997](#)) reported similar findings.

Mechelany and coworkers ([Mechelany *et al.* 1991](#)) compared LT₄ monotherapy alone or in combination with TA₃. The TA₃ dose was adjusted to achieve TSH levels <0.1 U/L, as during LT₄ monotherapy. [Sherman and Ladenson \(1992\)](#) performed similar studies, but adjusted the LT₄ dose in order to achieve a similar degree of TSH suppression. In both studies, patients required 40–50% less LT₄ during combination therapy to achieve equivalent or even better TSH suppression. However, markers that reflect tissue TH action showed only minor or no significant differences between both treatment regimes. These findings implicate that the thyromimetic effects of TA₃, at an equal TSH-suppressive dose, are at least as potent as those of LT₄ in most peripheral organs.

Sherman and coworkers ([Sherman *et al.* 1997](#)) compared TA₃ vs LT₄ monotherapy. Following a baseline period (phase I) on a TSH-suppressive dose LT₄ (2.7 µg/kg/day), patients received starting doses of 24 µg TA₃/kg twice daily or 1.9 µg LT₄/kg/day, which were then titrated until TSH levels were below 0.1 U/L (phase II). Subjects receiving TA₃ showed a stronger increase in serum levels of SHBG, ferritin, and bone turnover markers, and a stronger decrease in serum total and LDL cholesterol and apoprotein B over baseline levels after 2 months of treatment at the final dose (48 ± 3 µg/kg/day) compared

to the LT₄ treated group (final dose: 2.2±0.1 µg/kg/day). No significant differences were observed in cardiac parameters, energy expenditure or body weight between both groups. Remarkably, upon dose-escalation subjects in the LT₄ treated group received a 10–20% lower final LT₄ dose in phase II than during phase I of the study. Moreover, it appears that it was not required to further escalate the TA₃ starting dose of 24 µgTA₃/kg twice daily in order to obtain TSH suppression <0.1 U/L.

In conclusion, TA₃ monotherapy is an adequate TSH-suppressive therapy, while at the same time providing sufficient thyromimetic effects in the peripheral tissues. TA₃ may especially have augmented thyromimetic effects on the pituitary, liver and bone. Based on the available studies, there is no obvious benefit of using TA₃, alone or in combination with LT₄, as TSH-suppression therapy, unless LT₄ is not tolerated.

Goiter

Brenta and coworkers (Brenta *et al.* 2003) showed that TA₃ (19.6 µg/kg/day) and LT₄ (1.7 µg/kg/day) were equally effective in reducing goiter size in patients with euthyroid goiter, although the proportion of patients in whom goiter size was reduced by more than 50% was higher in the TA₃ (42%) vs LT₄ (17%) treated group (although not statistically significant), while less side effects were reported. TSH levels were adequately reduced in both groups and FT₄ levels decreased in the TA₃ treated group. Most parameters that reflect peripheral TH state, including heart rate, showed insignificant changes in both treatment arms. Nevertheless, a significant decrease in serum total and LDL cholesterol as well as femoral BMD and increased deoxypyridinoline levels were observed in the TA₃ treated patients, which suggest an increase in bone resorption.

Pujol and coworkers (Pujol *et al.* 1998) studied the effect of TA₃ and T₃ as a TSH-suppressive therapy in addition to the anti-thyroid drug carbimazole in the treatment of Graves' disease, which both significantly reduced goiter volume, but did not significantly improve remission and relapse rates of Graves' disease.

Taken together, TA₃ treatment effectively reduces goiter volume in patients with (non-)toxic diffuse and nodular goiter. Since TSH-suppressive therapy is not recommended as useful goiter-reductive treatment, neither LT₄ nor TA₃ is advised for goiter reduction.

TA₃ abuse in dietary supplements

Multiple cases have been reported over the last decades on the abuse of dietary supplements, metabolic enhancers and mesotherapies containing TA₃. Subjects presented with clinical signs of thyrotoxicosis, while TH and TSH levels were found to be suppressed (Ferner *et al.* 1986, Chow & Lam 1998, Bauer *et al.* 2002, Scally & Hodge 2003, Chan *et al.* 2004, Ma *et al.* 2008, Danilovic *et al.* 2008, Cohen-Lehman *et al.* 2011). For this reason, the US Food and Drug Administration has repeatedly issued an official warning against the consumption of dietary supplements or metabolic enhancers containing TA₃.

Application of TA₃ in RTH syndromes

RTH syndromes results from alteration of local TH signaling due to defective cellular entry, intracellular metabolism or receptor function. The finding that TA₃ clearly exerts thyromimetic effects but differs from T₃ in its cellular transport mechanism and affinity for mutant TRβ variants, prompted studies to explore the application of TA₃ (and TA₄) in RTHβ and MCT8 deficiency.

RTHβ

RTHβ is caused by mutations in TRβ and biochemically characterized by elevated serum TH levels in the context of non-suppressed TSH levels. RTHβ results in decreased T3 action in tissues that express TRβ, whereas tissues that predominantly express TRα, such as the heart and brain, are relatively thyrotoxic in response to the high serum TH levels (Refetoff *et al.* 1993, Forrest *et al.* 1996). *In vitro* studies have shown that TA₃ is able to bind and activate a subset of these mutant receptors (Takeda *et al.* 1995). The effects of TA₃ treatment in RTHβ patients have been described on a case-by-case basis and are currently the most wide-spread off-label application of TA₃. In a subgroup of RTHβ patients, TA₃ is able to decrease TSH and consequently the high serum T₄ and T₃ levels. Since the thyromimetic effects of TA₃ itself do not fully compensate the reduction in endogenous TH levels, it alleviates the thyrotoxic symptoms including tachycardia, goiter, excessive sweating and behavioral problems (Beck-Peccoz *et al.* 1983, Lind & Eber 1986, Faglia *et al.* 1987, Salmela *et al.* 1988, Kunitake *et al.* 1989, Smallridge *et al.* 1989, Beck-Peccoz *et al.* 1990, Aguilar Diosdado *et al.* 1991,

Crino *et al.* 1992, Dulgeroff *et al.* 1992, Ueda *et al.* 1996, Darendeliler & Basx 1997, Radetti *et al.* 1997, Clifton-Bligh *et al.* 1998, Persani *et al.* 1998, Asteria *et al.* 1999, Kong *et al.* 2005, Torre *et al.* 2005, Wu *et al.* 2006, Gurgel *et al.* 2008, Santos *et al.* 2008, Guran *et al.* 2009, Anzai *et al.* 2012, Ferrara *et al.* 2012, Ramos-Prol *et al.* 2013, Stagi *et al.* 2014, Chatzitomaris *et al.* 2015, Xue *et al.* 2015). However, some patients do not respond to TA₃ treatment, which is assumed to depend on the type or location of the mutation (Hamon *et al.* 1988, Persani *et al.* 1998). These reports have been reviewed in more detail in Groeneweg and coworkers (Groeneweg *et al.* 2017). In order to prevent overtreatment, pre-clinical analysis of the impact of mutations on T₃ and TA₃ binding and transactivation potency may predict which patients benefit from TA₃ treatment.

MCT8 deficiency

Mutations in MCT8 result in the AHDS, which is characterized by severe intellectual and motor disability and increased serum T₃ levels (Dumitrescu *et al.* 2004, Friesema *et al.* 2004). Transport of TH across the BBB and into neuronal cells largely depends on MCT8. Hence mutations in MCT8 result in a hypothyroid state in the brain, compromising brain development (Matheus *et al.* 2015). In contrast, tissues that rely on other transporters are exposed to the high serum T₃ levels resulting in thyrotoxic tissues. Putative therapies should aim to restore TH signaling in the brain and at the same time alleviate the thyrotoxic state in the peripheral tissues. Although combination therapy of LT₄ and PTU alleviates the peripheral thyrotoxicosis, this approach does not restore TH signaling in the brain (Visser *et al.* 2013). The ideal therapy comprises a TH analog that enters the cell independently from MCT8, but exerts similar effects as TH. As outlined in this review, TA₃ fulfills these criteria (illustrated in Fig. 2). Indeed, several pre-clinical studies have supported the therapeutic potency of TA₃ and its less rapidly metabolized precursor TA₄ in AHDS.

Mct8 KO mice show the characteristic serum TFT pattern of AHDS (Trajkovic *et al.* 2007, Trajkovic-Arsic *et al.* 2010), which is effectively normalized by TA₄ treatment (Horn *et al.* 2013). However, *Mct8* KO mice lack a neurological phenotype, since *Oatp1c1* is likely to function as an alternative TH transporter at the BBB in mice. Indeed, in *Mct8/Oatp1c1* double KO (DKO) mouse brain development is severely disturbed and closely resembles the abnormalities observed in *Pax-8* KO mice

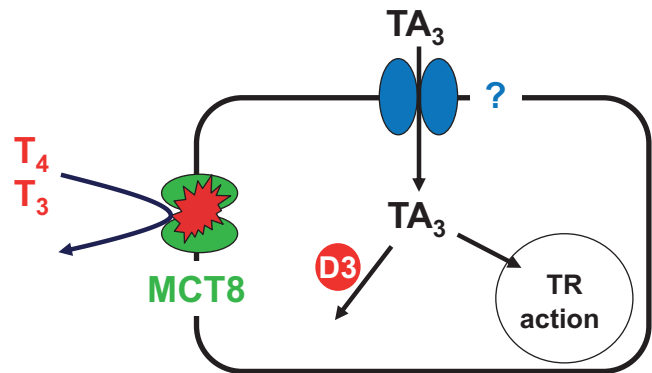


Figure 2

Schematic representation of a T₃ target cell that relies on MCT8 for its TH uptake. The proposed working mechanism of TA₃ (and other TH analogues) in case of defective MCT8 entails cellular uptake in an MCT8-independent way, binding to the TRs and preferably degradation through similar pathways as TH, which are all fulfilled by TA₃ as outlined in this review.

(Mayerl *et al.* 2014). The abnormal brain morphology in *Pax-8* KO mice is largely prevented by administration of T₃, TA₃ (200–400 µg/kg/day) or TA₄ (400 µg/kg/day) from postnatal day 1 (Horn *et al.* 2013, Kersseboom *et al.* 2014), suggesting that TA₃ and TA₄ can replace T₃ and T₄ during brain development in mice. Such effects of TA₄ were also observed in *Pax-8/Mct8* DKO mice, confirming that its transport across the BBB is MCT8-independent. Most importantly, TA₃ administration (400 µg/kg/day) from postnatal day 1–12 rescued several markers of disrupted brain development in *Mct8/Oatp1c1* DKO mice, including the abnormal cerebellar Purkinje cell development and myelination (Kersseboom *et al.* 2014). In addition, TA₃ and TA₄ ameliorate the neurodevelopmental abnormalities in zebrafish models for MCT8-deficiency (De Vrieze *et al.* 2014, Zada *et al.* 2016) and improve cerebellar Purkinje cell development in *Mct8* deficient chicken (Delbaere *et al.* 2017). So far, it has not been studied in these animal models to what extent TA₃ still has positive effects on brain development once treatment is initiated at a later developmental stage. This is particularly important to predict its therapeutic potency in human AHDS patients, when initiated at a relatively advanced age.

The putative role of TA₃ as a therapy for human AHDS patients is currently under investigation in a prospective interventional cohort study, the Triac Trial (NTC02060474), primarily assessing its potency to restore the peripheral thyrotoxicosis. If TA₃ would be an effective therapy, it can be anticipated that early intervention may have effects on the neurocognitive phenotype. Although TA₃ readily crosses the placenta (Asteria *et al.* 1999, Cortelazzi *et al.* 1999), there are many medical

and ethical considerations before justifying prenatal administration of TA₃ to mothers who are pregnant of an AHDS child.

Concluding remarks

TA₃ is a bioactive TH metabolite that has tissue-specific thymimetic activities (Table 5). Although TA₃ clearly has a potent TSH-suppressive effect, its metabolic effects on liver and bone are at least as potent. In general, higher doses of TA₃ are required to achieve equal thymimetic effects as LT₄ (and LT₃), mainly due to its rapid clearance. Based on the available studies, the therapeutic benefits of TA₃ over LT₄ treatment is generally limited to primary thyroid diseases. However, TA₃ holds potential in the treatment of subsets of RTH β patients and possibly in AHDS. Clinical studies are needed to assess if and how this 'old' molecule can have full therapeutic potential in specific RTH syndromes.

Declaration of interest

W E V is the principal investigator of the Triac Trial in MCT8 patients (NTC02060474).

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