# The Need for Iodine

# An update on the UK situation



Dr Sarah Bath, Lecturer in Public Health Nutrition, University of Surrey, Department of Nutritional Sciences, Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences, University of Surrey, Guildford, UK

# What happens when intake of iodine is inadequate?

Although a lot of research focuses on pregnancy, iodine deficiency disorders can affect all life-stages. The only known role of iodine is to produce thyroid hormones, T4 and T3.4 Goitre (the increase in thyroid size) can develop when iodine intake is very low (i.e. severe deficiency) over an extended period. Even in the absence of visible goitre, moderate iodine deficiency can lead to increased thyroid size and hyperstimulation of the thyroid to maintain adequate thyroid hormone production. Prolonged and severe deficiency of iodine can lead to impaired thyroid hormone production and eventually hypothyroidism. However, it is very important to point out that overt hypothyroidism has many different causes (e.g. autoimmune) and is not necessarily related to low iodine intake.

#### Women of childbearing age

It is increasingly evident that pre-pregnancy iodine status is important because iodine can be stored in the thyroid gland and used during pregnancy to maintain thyroid-hormone production. Recent evidence from the UK has shown a positive association between pre-pregnancy iodine status and offspring IQ.5 Observational evidence from Italy suggests that a prolonged exposure to adequate iodine results in a better thyroid hormone profile during pregnancy than when supplements are started once pregnancy is confirmed.<sup>6</sup> Therefore, the public-health message should focus on the importance of iodine for all women of childbearing age, particularly those who are planning a pregnancy.

#### Pregnancy and lactation

Various aspects of brain development are controlled by thyroid hormones, which makes iodine important when the brain is developing most rapidly - i.e. pregnancy and infancy, or the first 1000 days of life.7 Severe deficiency during pregnancy can lead to cretinism,4 which includes symptoms of impaired brain development and problems with hearing and motor function.4 However, thanks to global efforts to eradicate iodine deficiency, there is now more concern of the effects of mild-to-moderate deficiency in pregnancy on child cognition. Here the evidence is not as strong as in severe deficiency (as it is mostly observational evidence) but in the last decade numerous studies have pointed to a negative effect of mild-to-moderate iodine deficiency in pregnancy on child neurodevelopment.8 In the UK, low iodine status in the first trimester has been linked to lower IQ and reading accuracy and comprehension in children aged 8-9 years.9 Other studies link mild-to-moderate deficiency to poorer motor development,10,11 cognition,11 language scores,<sup>10</sup> working memory,<sup>12</sup> spelling,<sup>13, 14</sup> writing,<sup>15</sup> and ADHD-symptom scores.<sup>16</sup> More research is required on the effects of moderate iodine deficiency in pregnancy, especially a randomised controlled trial with neurodevelopmental outcomes.

# What happens when intake of iodine is excessive?

Excessive intake can lead to hypothyroidism and/or hyperthyroidism.4 The Tolerable Upper Limit (TUL) is 600 µg/day for adults and pregnant women (lower limits for children).4 However, these limits are a guide only as those with long-standing iodine deficiency may respond adversely to intakes below the TUL (abrupt increases in iodine intake should be avoided). Kelp supplements have a very variable iodine concentration and can lead to excess intake and therefore should be avoided, particularly in pregnancy.17

### lodine status in the UK

In 2009, a study of 14-15-year-old girls from nine areas of the UK found mild iodine deficiency (median 80 µg/L)18 and prompted concern that deficiency may be more common than previously thought. In 2013, spot-urine samples began to be collected as part of the NDNS for the purposes of monitoring iodine status, therefore providing nationally representative data. The results are available for two years from the Rolling Programme (Year 6 and Year 7/8) and show iodine sufficiency in all age groups, as the median urinary iodine concentration value is above the cut-off of 100 µg/L.19 Figure 1 shows selected results from the NDNS data, focusing on children (boys and girls) and women (as an indicator of pre-pregnancy status). Although technically iodine sufficient, women of childbearing age in NDNS (defined as 16-49 years) have a median urinary iodine concentration of 102 µg/L, at the bottom of the adequate range (100-299  $\mu$ g/L) but below the level of adequacy for pregnancy (150-249 µg/L; see Figure 2). This suggests that young women in the UK have borderline iodine sufficiency, and a proportion are likely to be deficient. Indeed, when examining the dietary data from the NDNS, 27% of girls 11-18 years have an iodine intake below the Lower Reference Nutrient Intake (LRNI).

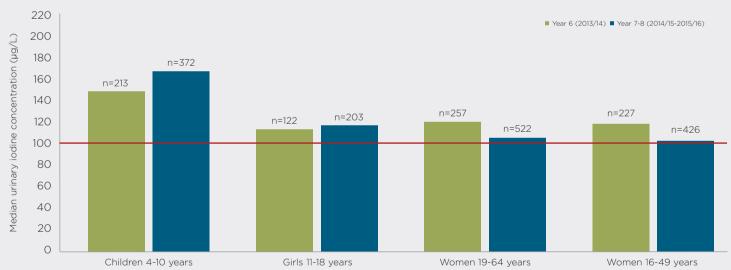
For children aged 4-10 years, in the NDNS, the median (in Year 7/8) is more comfortably in the adequate range at 166 µg/L:19 this may be explained by the higher intake of milk (the main dietary source) in children than in adults. We have also found iodine sufficiency (median urinary iodine concentration of 144 µg/L) in a pilot study of 8-10-year-old children from three regions of the UK.20

As the NDNS does not include pregnant women, assessment of iodine status in this vulnerable group is based on localised studies only. Data from nine areas of the UK all show that pregnant women have a urinary iodine concentration below the WHO cut-off for adequacy in pregnancy and are mildly-to-moderately iodine deficient (Figure 2).22-24

There are limited data on iodine status in lactation, but a small study in Scotland has found deficiency in this group.<sup>29</sup> Importantly, there are no UK data on iodine status in infants.

Figure 1: Median Urinary Iodine Concentration from Children and Women in NDNS

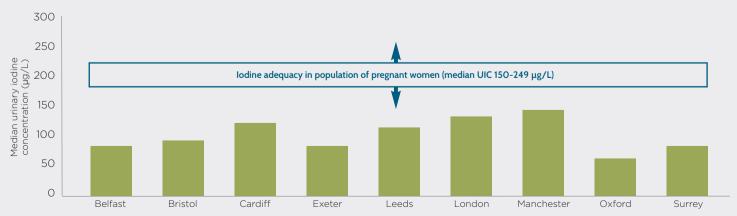
(from Year 6 and Year 7/8 of the Rolling Programme (2013/4 and 2014/15-2015/16)



The red line shows the threshold for iodine sufficiency according to World Health Organisation et al.21

Figure 2: Urinary Iodine Concentration from UK Studies of Pregnant Women

(from Belfast,<sup>24</sup> Bristol,<sup>9</sup> Cardiff,<sup>25</sup> Exeter,<sup>26</sup> Leeds, London and Manchester,<sup>23</sup> Oxford,<sup>27</sup> and Surrey<sup>28</sup>)



The UK picture is therefore complex - there is not widespread iodine deficiency in all population groups but there is deficiency in pregnancy. The current methodology for monitoring populations (i.e. comparing the median to cut-offs) does not allow for calculation of the proportion of individuals who are deficient. In the UK, iodine intake and status is dependent on individual food choice as there is no national policy for iodine fortification, as is common in many countries.30 Therefore, although the national picture may point to sufficiency in adults and children, this will not be the case for a proportion of individuals who do not consume iodine-rich foods; there are several groups who are at risk of iodine deficiency (see Figure 3).

# Dietary sources

Salt in the UK is not iodised, unless specifically labelled as iodised salt (including sea/rock salt). Fish is a good source of jodine but the iodine content is variable - for example, salmon has a relatively low iodine concentration  $(-14 \mu g/100 g)$ , while cod  $(-190 \mu g/100 g)$ and haddock have a high concentration  $(~325 \mu g/100 g)$ . Milk and dairy products are the main source of iodine in the UK diet, for all age groups, providing 33% of adult intake and 51% of 4-10-year-old intake of iodine.19 A glass (200 ml) of cows' milk contains 50-100  $\mu g$  (36-71% of the adult RNI); the wide range is because of seasonal variation - summer milk contains less iodine than winter milk as a result of farming practice.31 Eggs are also a good source (two provide 1/3 of the adult recommendation).

There is currently no official advice for women in the UK to take an iodine supplement during pregnancy. If a supplement is considered (not kelp), this should ideally be started around three months before pregnancy to avoid an abrupt increase in iodine intake.

# Groups at-risk of iodine deficiency (see Figure 3)

Most dietary sources of iodine are animalbased and therefore vegans and vegetarians are at risk (although vegetarians will be less at risk if consuming milk and eggs). 32, 33 With the rise in veganism, and movements such as Veganuary (following a vegan diet in January), more people may risk iodine deficiency unless awareness is raised. Iodine is often overlooked (unlike vitamin B12 and calcium) when diets are restricted,34 and UK research has found poor knowledge of iodine sources and the importance of iodine. 35, 36

For individuals who are not able to consume iodine-rich foods (or only in small quantities), a suitable iodine supplement may be required. It is not easy to buy iodine as a single-nutrient supplement but it is frequently sold as a kelp supplement, which is not recommended.<sup>17</sup> Instead, iodine should be in the form of potassium iodide/ potassium iodate with a dose that is not more than 150 ug/day

#### Assessing iodine status

There is no method for assessing iodine status in an individual. Although urinary iodine concentration is used at a population level, this is not suitable for individuals. This is because: 1) urinary iodine concentration is affected by urine dilution; 2) urinary iodine concentration reflects recent intake rather than usual diet; and 3) the WHO cutoffs have not been validated for use in individuals. The only way to determine likely risk of deficiency is to conduct a dietary assessment (i.e. referral to a dietitian).

#### Milk-alternatives and plant-based diets

As milk is an important dietary source of iodine in the UK, it is vital that iodine is considered when individuals use milkalternatives. This is an increasing issue, as milk-alternative drinks are a popular choice, for various reasons. Furthermore, suggestions for moderate dairy product intake for environmental sustainability (e.g. EAT Lancet Commission on Food, Planet, Health<sup>37</sup> and the British Dietetic Association [BDA] One Blue Dot Toolkit<sup>38</sup>) may lead to more people choosing milk-alternative drinks, which could have a negative effect on iodine intake, unless the milk-alternative drinks are fortified with iodine.

The iodine content of milk-alternative drinks is very low - we found that unless milk-alternative drinks were fortified with iodine, they had an iodine concentration that was around 2% of that of cows' milk.39 At the time of our study, just one company provided drinks with added iodine, but today a few more drinks are available on the UK market that are fortified with iodine. These fortified drinks contain between 13 and 30 µg iodine/100 ml, so a glass would provide 19-43% of the adult RNI. Most of the available milk-alternative drinks are still not iodine-fortified, but as this is a rapidlychanging situation, consumers need to check product labels (for the concentration and the form of iodine used for fortification - which should not be via seaweed)

## Conclusion

Although adults and children in the UK are classified as iodine sufficient, a considerable proportion are at risk of deficiency. The issue is particularly problematic in pregnancy and greater awareness of the role of iodine and dietary sources is needed both amongst the public and healthcare

professionals. With increased use of milkalternative drinks (unless fortified with iodine), and increased popularity of vegan/ plant-based diets, there is potential for iodine status to worsen unless alternative sources are used. The BDA lodine Food Fact. sheet can be used for practical advice.31

#### Figure 3: Groups Likely to be At-risk of Iodine Deficiency

- Vegans
- Vegetarians
- Those with allergy/intolerance to dairy, fish or eggs
- Individuals who consume dairy, fish or eggs in small quantities.

References: 1. Department of Health (1991). Report on Health and Social Reference Values for Food, Energy and Nutrients for the United Kingdom, 2, WHO Secretariat, et al. (2007), Prevention and control of iodine deficiency in pregnant and lactating women and in children less than 2-years-old: conclusions and recommendations of the Technical Consultation. Public Health Nutr; 10 (12A):1606-1611. 3. European Food Safety Authority (2014). Scientific Opinion on Dietary Reference Values for iodine. EFSA Journal; 12(5): 3660. 4. Zimmermann MB (2009). Iodine deficiency. Endocr Rev; 30(4): 376-408. 5. Robinson SM, et al. (2018). Preconception Maternal Iodine Status is Positively Associated with IQ but Not with Measures of Executive Function in Childhood. J Nutr; 148(6): 959-966. Moleti M, et al. (2011). Maternal thyroid function in different conditions of iodine nutrition in pregnant women exposed to mild-moderate iodine deficiency: an observational study. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf); 74(6): 762-768. 7. Velasco I, Bath SC, Rayman MP (2018). Iodine as Essential Nutrient during the First 1000 Days of Life. Nutrients; 10(3): pii: E990. 8. Bath SC, (2019). of jodine deficiency in pregnant and lactating women and in children less the First 1000 Days of Life. Nutrients; 10(3): pii: E290. 8. Bath SC (2019) The effect of iodine deficiency during pregnancy on child development. Proc Nutr Soc.; 78(2): 150-160 **9.** Bath SC, et al. (2013). Effect of inadequate iodine status in UK pregnant women on cognitive outcomes in their iodine status in UK pregnant women on cognitive outcomes in their children: results from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC). Lancet; 382(9889): 331-337. 10. Abel MH, et al. (2017). Suboptimal Maternal Iodine Intake Is Associated with Impaired Child Neurodevelopment at 3 Years of Age in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. J Nutr.; 147(7): 1314-1324. 11. Murcia M, et al. (2017). Iodine intake from supplements and diet during pregnancy and child cognitive and motor development: the INMA Mother and Child Cohort Study. J Epidemiol Community Health; 72(3): 216-222. 12. van Mil NH, et al. (2012). Low urinary oidine excretion during early pregnancy is associated with alterations in executive functioning in children. J Nutr; 142(12): 2167-2174. 13. Hynes KL, et al. (2013). Mildi oidine deficiency during pregnancy is associated with reduced educational outcomes in the offspring: 9-year follow-up of the reduced educational outcomes in the offspring: 9-year follow-up of the gestational iodine cohort. J Clin Endocrinol Metab; 98(5): 1954-1962.

14. Hynes KL, et al. (2017). Reduced Educational Outcomes Persist into scence Following Mild Iodine Deficiency in Utero, Despite Adequac Adolescence Following Mild Iodine Deficiency in Utero, Despite Adequacy in Childhood: 15-Year Follow-Up of the Gestational Iodine Cohort Investigating Auditory Processing Speed and Working Memory, Nutrients: 9(12): pii: E1354. 15. Abel MH, et al. (2018). Language delay and poorer school performance in children of mothers with inadequate Iodine intake in pregnancy: results from follow-up at 8 years in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. Eur J Nutr; doi: 101007/s00394-018-1850-7 (Epub). 16. Abel MH, et al. (2017). Maternal Iodine Intake and Offspring Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder: Results from a Large Prospective Cohort Study. Nutrients; 9(11): pii: E1239. 17. Zimmermann M, Delange F (2004). Iodine sunglementation of prepnant women in Europe a review and lodine supplementation of pregnant women in Europe: a review and recommendations. Eur J Clin Nutr.; 58(7): 979-984. 18, Vanderpump MP, et al. (2011). Iodine status of UK schoolgirls: a cross-sectional survey. Lancet.; 377(9782): 2007-2012. **19.** Public Health England (2018). National Diet and 3.77(9782): 2007-2012. 19. Public Health England (2018). National Diet and Nutrition Survey Results from Years 7 and 8 (combined) of the Rolling Programme (2014/2015 to 2015/2016). A survey carried out on behalf of Public Health England and the Food Standards Agency. Accessed online: https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment. data/file/69924I/NDNS, results\_years\_7\_and\_8\_ndf\_Ual\_2018. 20. Bath SC, et al. (2016). A multi-centre pilot study of iodine status in UK schoolchildren, aged 8-10 years. Eur J Nutr; 55(6): 2001-2009 21. WHO, UNICEF & ICCIDD (2007). Assessment of iodine deficiency disorders and monitoring their elimination. Geneva: WHO 22. Bath SC, Rayman MP (2015). A review of the iodine status of UK pregnant women and its implications for the offspring. Environ Geochem Health: 37(4): 619-629 23. Snat C.IP, et al. (2019). Maternal lodine Status and Associations with Birth Outcomes in Three Major Cities in the United Kingdom. Nutrients: II(2): pii: E441. 24. McMullan P, et al. (2019). lodine deficiency among pregnant women living in Northern Ireland. Clin Endocrinol (Ox), 91(5): 639-645. 25. Pearce living in Northern Ireland. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf); 91(5): 639-645, 25, Pearce EN, et al. (2010), Perchlorate and thiocyanate exposure and thyroid function in first-trimester pregnant women. J Clin Endocrinol Metab; 95(7): 3207-3215. 26. Knight BA, et al. (2016), locline deficiency amongst pregnant women in South-West England. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf); 86(3): 451-455. 27. Bath SC, et al. (2015). Gestational changes in iodine status in a cohort study of pregnant women from the United Kingdom: season as an effect modifier. Am J Clin Nutr.; 101(6): 1180-1187. 28. Bath SC, et al. (2014). Iodine deficiency in pregnant women living in the South East of the Ulk the influence of diet and nutritional supplements on iodine status. Br J Nutr.; 111(9): 1622-1631. 29. Bouga M, et al. (2015). Iodine intake and excretion are low in British breastfeeding mothers. Proc Nutr Soc; 74(CCE): E25. are low in British breastfeeding mothers. Proc Nutr Soc.; 74(OCE1): E25. 30. Bath SC, Button S, Rayman MP (2014). Availability of iodised table salt in the UK - is it likely to influence population iodine intake? Public Health Nutr.; 17(2): 450-454. **31.** Bath SC, Rayman MP (2016). BDA Food Fact Sheet - Iodine. Accessed online: www.bda.uk.com/foodfacts/lodine (Jun 2017). lodine. Accessed online: www.bdauk.com/foodfacts/fodine (Jun 2017).

32. Park C, et al. (2005). Iodine deficiency gotire in the United Kingdom - the result of a vegan diet. Endocrine Abstracts; 9. P176. 33. Brandt A, et al. (2018). Impact of iodine deficiency on thyroid function in vegan siblings. Endocrine Abstracts; 58: P042. 34, Veganuary (2019). Vegan starter kit: nutrition in a nutshell. Accessed online: https://veganuary.com/starter-kit/nutrition-in-a-nutshell/ (Oct 2019). 35. Combet E, et al. (2015). Iodine and pregnancy - a UK cross-sectional survey of dietary intake, knowledge and awareness. Br J Nutr; 114(1): 108-117. 36. O'Kane SM, et al. (2016). Iodine knowledge is positively associated with dietary iodine intake among women of childbearing age in the UK and Ireland. Br J Nutr; 116(10): 1728-1735. 37. Willett W, et al. (2019). Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT-Lancet Commission on healthy diets from sustainable food systems. Lancet; 393 (10170): 447-492. 38. British Dietetic Association (2019). One Blue Dot: Environmentally Sustainable Diet Toolkit. Accessed online: www.bdauk.com. es/environmentally sustainable diet toolkit dot (Oct 2019). **39**. Bath SC, et al. (2017). Iodine concentration of milk-liternative drinks available in the UK in comparison with cows' milk. Br J

Nutr.; 118(7): 525-532.