

1 **Variation in normal range thyroid function affects serum cholesterol levels, blood pressure**
2 **and type 2 diabetes risk: A Mendelian randomization study.**

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41 **Running title:** Normal range thyroid function and CVD risk factors

42

43 **Key words:** Mendelian Randomization study, normal range thyroid function, cardiovascular risk
44 factors, serum cholesterol levels, blood pressure, type 2 diabetes

Abstract

45

46

47 **Background:** Observational studies have demonstrated that variation in normal range thyroid
48 function is associated with major cardiovascular risk factors, including dyslipidaemia,
49 hypertension, type 2 diabetes (T2D), and obesity. As observational studies are prone to residual
50 confounding, reverse causality and selection bias, we used a Mendelian randomization (MR)
51 approach to investigate whether these associations are causal or not.

52

53 **Methods:** Two-sample MR analysis using data from the largest available genome-wide
54 association studies on normal range TSH and FT4 levels, serum lipid levels, blood pressure
55 measurements, T2D and obesity traits (body mass index (BMI) and waist-hip ratio (WHR)).

56

57 **Results:** A one standard deviation (SD) increase in genetically predicted TSH levels was
58 associated with a 0.037 SD increase in total cholesterol levels ($P=3.0 \times 10^{-4}$). After excluding
59 pleiotropic instruments, we also observed significant associations between TSH levels and low-
60 density lipoprotein levels ($\beta=0.026$ SD, $P=1.9 \times 10^{-3}$), pulse pressure ($\beta=-0.477$ mmHg, $P=7.5 \times 10^{-10}$) and T2D risk (OR=0.95, $P=2.5 \times 10^{-3}$). While we found no evidence of causal associations
62 between TSH or FT4 levels and obesity traits, we found that a one SD increase in genetically
63 predicted BMI was associated with a 0.075 SD decrease in FT4 levels ($P=3.6 \times 10^{-4}$).

64

65 **Conclusions:** Variation in normal range thyroid function affects serum cholesterol levels, blood
66 pressure and T2D risk.

Introduction

67

68

69 Cardiovascular disorders (CVD) are a leading cause of mortality worldwide (1). Whereas
70 traditional cardiovascular risk factors, such as dyslipidaemia, hypertension, type 2 diabetes
71 (T2D) and obesity, are well-recognized, observational studies have shown that also overt and
72 subclinical thyroid dysfunction are associated with a higher risk of CVD (2-6). More recently,
73 even variation in normal range thyroid function has been associated with an increased risk of
74 CVD, including atherosclerotic disease and stroke (7-10), as well as with serum lipid levels (11),
75 blood pressure (12), T2D risk (13) and obesity (14). These findings could have important clinical
76 implications for prevention efforts targeting cardiovascular risk (15). However, observational
77 studies are prone to various sort of bias, including residual confounding, reverse causality and
78 selection bias, which can affect their results and disrupt their interpretation (16). Therefore
79 before translating these findings into clinical practice, it is essential to first clarify whether
80 causal associations underlie these epidemiological observations (17).

81 An established and widely used approach to investigate whether causal relationships underlie
82 the observed associations is to perform a Mendelian randomization (MR) study. This method
83 involves finding genetic variants which are associated with an exposure (*e.g.* thyroid function),
84 and then testing the association between these variants and the outcome of interest (*e.g.* CVD).
85 The fundamental principle of MR is that if genetic variants alter the exposure that is causal for
86 the outcome, then these genetic variants should also be associated with this outcome to the
87 extent corresponding to their effects on the exposure (18, 19). In that way, MR uses genetic
88 variants as proxies to evaluate the causal effect of an exposure on the outcome of interest (20).

89 It draws from the fact that genetic variants segregate randomly from parents to offspring,
90 which can be compared to randomization used in clinical trials and allows to overcome
91 potential confounding (19). As genetic variants can affect the trait of interest but not the other
92 way around, an association between the genetically predicted exposure and the tested
93 outcome can provide evidence for causality (20). However, this approach requires several
94 assumptions. Most importantly, the genetic variants have to be truly associated with the
95 exposure, and their effects on the outcome of interest has to be mediated solely by the
96 exposure under study (20). Although a single genetic variant can be used as an instrument in
97 MR analyses, combining the effects of multiple genetic variants that can explain a larger
98 proportion of variance in the exposure can significantly increase the analysis power (21). As
99 some of the variants used as instruments might potentially violate MR assumptions, several
100 statistical methods has been proposed to adjust for these violations (22, 23).

101 In this study, we performed a two-sample MR to investigate the effects of variation in normal
102 range thyroid function on established cardiovascular risk factors, including cholesterol and
103 triglyceride levels, blood pressure, T2D risk and obesity traits (body mass index (BMI) and waist-
104 hip ratio (WHR)). For this, summary level data from the most recent and largest genome-wide
105 association studies (GWAS) on thyroid function and cardiovascular risk factors were used (24-
106 28). Bidirectional MR analyses were performed to gain insight into the complex associations
107 and potentially causal effects in both directions between thyroid function and obesity (29).

108

109

Materials and Methods

110

111 **Two-sample Mendelian randomization**

112 We performed two-sample MR analyses using the data from the most recent genome-wide
113 association study (GWAS) on thyroid function (24), and summary-level statistics from the
114 largest available GWAS meta-analyses on cardiovascular risk factors (detailed in the sections
115 below; (25-28)). No ethical approval was required as all data were extracted from publically
116 available summary statistics.

117

118 **Exposures and instruments**

119 The exposures of interest were normal range TSH and FT4 levels. Based on the results of the
120 currently largest GWAS on thyroid function (24), we identified 61 and 31 independent ($r^2 \leq 0.01$
121 within windows of ± 1 Mb for variants in the same locus) single nucleotide polymorphisms
122 (SNPs) associated at a genome-wide significant level ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) with TSH and FT4 levels within
123 the reference range, respectively. Only individuals with TSH levels within their cohort-specific
124 reference ranges were included in the GWAS on TSH and FT4 levels and subjects using thyroid
125 medications or after thyroid surgery were excluded from these GWAS, while no information on
126 thyroid-specific antibodies was available in that study (24). We used the identified genetic
127 variants as potential instruments to investigate the causal relationship between normal range
128 thyroid function and the outcomes of interest. Two variants associated with TSH levels were *a*
129 *priori* excluded from all the analyses as they were highly pleiotropic (ABO-rs8176645) or had
130 the same effect allele associated ($P < 0.05$) with both higher TSH levels and higher FT4 levels

131 within the normal range (*BCAS3*-rs1157994). Detailed data on variants used as instruments are
132 presented in **Supplementary Tables 1 & 2**.

133

134 **Outcomes of interest and datasets used**

135 Outcomes of interest included serum lipid levels (total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein
136 cholesterol (LDL-c), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-c) and triglyceride (TG) levels),
137 blood pressure measurements (systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP),
138 and pulse pressure (defined as a difference between SBP and DBP)), T2D risk, and obesity
139 parameters (BMI and WHR).

140 Summary data for serum lipid levels were derived from a GWAS meta-analysis in nearly 300,000
141 participants from the Million Veteran Program (25), available at dbGaP under the accession
142 number phs001672. Summary data for blood pressure measurements were derived from a
143 GWAS meta-analysis in over 750,000 participants of European ancestry, provided by the UK
144 Biobank and ICBP Consortium (26), made available by the study authors upon request.

145 Summary data for T2D were derived from a GWAS meta-analysis performed by the DIAGRAM
146 Consortium, which investigated the association of 27 million genetic variants in up to 74,124
147 cases and 824,006 controls of European ancestry (27), available at the consortium website
148 (<https://diagram-consortium.org/downloads.html>). Summary data for BMI and WHR were
149 derived from a GWAS meta-analysis in over 800,000 participants, combining data from the UK
150 Biobank and GIANT Consortium (28), available at the online repository
151 (<https://github.com/lindgengroup/fatdistnGWAS>).

152 Data on the effect/other allele, beta coefficients and standard errors (SE) for the variants
153 associated with TSH and FT4 levels were extracted from each study for MR analyses and
154 presented in **Supplementary Tables 1 & 2**.

155

156 **Statistical analyses**

157

158 **Primary analyses**

159 The primary analyses included two-sample MR analyses performed using the inverse-variance
160 weighted (IVW) method (22). This approach requires several assumptions of which the most
161 important are that: (i) the genetic variants used as instruments have to be truly associated with
162 the exposure (*i.e.* TSH or FT4 levels), and (ii) the effect of the instruments on the outcome of
163 interest (*i.e.* one of the studied cardiovascular risk factors) has to be mediated solely by the
164 exposure under study (20). This means that weak and pleiotropic instruments should be
165 avoided as they can strongly bias the causal estimates (30, 31). To this end, we assessed the
166 strength of all instruments based on the F statistics (calculated as $F = \beta^2_{\text{exposure}} / SE^2_{\text{exposure}}$), which
167 indicated no weak instruments (F statistics ranged 29.81-535.70 and 30.25-455.33 for the TSH
168 and FT4 instruments, respectively), and we addressed the problem of potential pleiotropy in
169 the sensitivity analyses. To control for false positive findings due to multiple testing, a
170 conservative Bonferroni correction adjusted for the number of primary exposures and
171 outcomes analyzed in the study was applied, and *P*-values less than $0.05/20=0.0025$ were
172 considered statistically significant. A *P*-value less than 0.05 was considered as evidence for
173 nominal significance. All analyses evaluate the causal effects of a one standard deviation (SD)

174 increase in genetically predicted TSH or FT4 levels, approximately corresponding to a 1.0 mU/L
175 and 2.2 pmol/L increase in TSH and FT4, respectively (32).

176

177 **Secondary analyses**

178

179 **Sensitivity analyses**

180 Sensitivity analyses were performed in order to account for potential pleiotropy in the
181 associations between thyroid function and the outcomes of interest. First, we compared the
182 results obtained using the IVW method with the results from MR Egger (33) and weighted
183 median (WM) (34) methods, as the slope of the MR Egger regression may provide valid MR
184 estimates in the presence of horizontal pleiotropy when the pleiotropic effects of the genetic
185 variants are independent from the genetic associations with the exposure (33), while WM can
186 provide valid MR estimates under the presence of horizontal pleiotropy when up to half of the
187 included instruments are invalid (34). Egger intercept was also used as one of the indicators of
188 directional pleiotropy (33). Furthermore, we used I^2 statistics and Cochran's Q test to quantify
189 heterogeneity across the instruments, with $P_{het} < 0.05$ indicating the presence of significant
190 heterogeneity suggesting pleiotropy (35). We identified potentially pleiotropic variants based
191 on their individual Q statistics and repeated the IVW MR analyses after excluding outliers
192 extending the 99.9th (L1), 99th (L2) and 95th (L3) percentiles of a chi-squared distribution with
193 1 degree of freedom (23, 36). Finally, as the genetic variants associated with FT4 levels form a
194 highly heterogeneous group with potentially diverse effects on T4 and T3 bioavailability, we
195 also compared the results of MR analyses using as instruments two separate subsets of FT4

196 associated variants, specifically including: (i) variants within the deiodinases loci (i.e. *DIO1* and
197 *DIO2*), and (ii) other (non-deiodinase) genetic variants associated with FT4 levels in the GWAS
198 by Teumer *et al.* (24).

199

200 **Bidirectional MR on normal range thyroid function and obesity traits**

201 Bidirectional MR studies on thyroid function and obesity traits (BMI and WHR) were performed
202 to gain insight into the complex and potentially bidirectional associations between thyroid
203 function and obesity (29). A list of variants associated with BMI and WHR at a genome-wide
204 significant level ($P < 5.0 \times 10^{-8}$) and corresponding summary statistics were derived from the study
205 by Yengo *et al.* (37) and Pulit *et al.* (28), respectively. To eliminate pleiotropic effects of variants
206 primarily associated with thyroid function, we repeated MR analyses after excluding all variants
207 associated ($P < 0.05$) with normal range TSH and FT4 levels, respectively.

208

209 **Power calculations**

210 To estimate the power of our study, we used a non-centrality parameter-based approach (21),
211 implemented in a publicly available mRnd web tool (<http://cnsgenomics.com/shiny/mRnd/>).
212 For binary outcomes (T2D), we calculated minimal odds ratio (OR) of the outcome variable per
213 standard deviation (SD) of the exposure variable (TSH and FT4 levels) that was detectable
214 (power=0.8, $\alpha=0.05$) in our study. For continuous outcomes (blood pressure measurements,
215 serum lipid levels and obesity traits), we calculated the smallest detectable regression
216 coefficient (β) for the true underlying causal association between the exposure and outcome
217 variables. Proportions of total variance in TSH and FT4 levels explained by the genetic variants

218 used as instruments (9.4% and 4.8%, respectively) were established based on the data from
219 Teumer *et al.* (24). The results of power calculations are provided in **Supplementary Table 3**.

220

221

Results

222

223 The results of MR analyses investigating the association between genetically predicted normal
224 range TSH and FT4 levels and each of the tested cardiovascular risk factors respectively are
225 presented in **Supplementary Tables 4-8** and summarized in **Figure 1** and below.

226

227 Lipid levels

228 A one SD increase in genetically predicted TSH levels was associated with a 0.037 SD increase in
229 total cholesterol levels ($P=3.0 \times 10^{-4}$; **Supplementary Table 4**). Sensitivity analyses using the WM
230 and MR Egger methods provided effect estimates of the same direction and magnitude
231 ($\beta=0.039$ SD, $P=1.3 \times 10^{-3}$ and $\beta=0.031$ SD, $P=0.20$, respectively; **Supplementary Table 5**), while
232 exclusion of potentially pleiotropic instruments also led to similar results ($\beta=0.043$ SD,
233 $P=1.3 \times 10^{-6}$; **Supplementary Table 4**).

234 Analyses of specific lipid fractions showed that the association between TSH and total
235 cholesterol levels could be driven by the effect on LDL-c levels ($\beta=0.022$ SD, $P=0.029$;
236 **Supplementary Table 4**), which was confirmed in sensitivity analyses excluding potentially
237 pleiotropic instruments ($\beta=0.026$ SD, $P=1.9 \times 10^{-3}$; **Supplementary Table 4**), and using the WM
238 method ($\beta=0.037$ SD, $P=1.1 \times 10^{-3}$; **Supplementary Table 5**).

239 Although we found no associations between TSH levels and HDL-c or TG levels in the primary
240 analyses ($\beta=0.018$ SD, $P=0.11$ and $\beta=0.015$ SD, $P=0.23$, respectively; **Supplementary Table 4**),
241 sensitivity analyses excluding potentially pleiotropic instruments showed nominally significant
242 associations between TSH and HDL-c levels ($\beta=0.016$ SD, $P=0.042$; **Supplementary Table 4**),
243 which was also in line with the results of sensitivity analyses using the WM method ($\beta=0.028$
244 SD, $P=0.014$; **Supplementary Table 5**).

245 No associations were found between FT4 and total cholesterol levels or any of the specific lipid
246 fractions (**Supplementary Table 4**).

247

248 **Blood pressure**

249 TSH levels were not associated with SBP ($\beta=-0.178$ mmHg, $P=0.24$) or DBP ($\beta=0.160$ mmHg,
250 $P=0.080$) in our primary analyses (**Supplementary Table 4**). However, after exclusion of
251 potentially pleiotropic instruments we observed a nominally significant association between
252 TSH levels and SBP ($\beta=-0.255$ mmHg, $P=8.6 \times 10^{-3}$; **Supplementary Table 4**), which was also in
253 line with the results of sensitivity analyses using the WM method ($\beta=-0.315$ mmHg, $P=0.013$;
254 **Supplementary Table 5**). Moreover, we observed a nominally significant association between
255 TSH levels and pulse pressure ($\beta=-0.322$ mmHg, $P=5.1 \times 10^{-3}$; **Supplementary Table 4**), which was
256 further confirmed after exclusion of potentially pleiotropic instruments ($\beta=-0.477$ mmHg,
257 $P=7.5 \times 10^{-10}$; **Supplementary Table 4**). Sensitivity analyses using the WM and MR Egger methods
258 also indicated associations between TSH levels and pulse pressure ($\beta=-0.454$ mmHg, $P=3.5 \times 10^{-6}$
259 and $\beta=-0.518$ mmHg, $P=0.078$, respectively; **Supplementary Table 5**).

260 No associations were found between FT4 levels and any of the blood pressure traits
261 **(Supplementary Table 4).**

262

263 **Type 2 diabetes**

264 TSH and FT4 levels were not associated with T2D risk in our primary analyses **(Supplementary**
265 **Table 4)**. However, after exclusion of potentially pleiotropic instruments we observed a
266 significant association between TSH levels and a lower T2D risk (OR=0.95, 95%CI=0.91-0.98,
267 $P=2.5 \times 10^{-3}$, **Supplementary Table 4**), which was also supported by sensitivity analyses using the
268 WM method (OR=0.95, 95%CI=0.91-1.00, $P=0.045$; **Supplementary Table 5**). Sensitivity analyses
269 using the MR Egger method provided effect estimates of the same direction (OR=0.87,
270 95%CI=0.70-1.09, $P=0.22$; **Supplementary Table 5**).

271

272 **Obesity parameters**

273 TSH and FT4 levels were not associated with BMI or WHR, except for a nominally significant
274 association between FT4 levels and WHR in sensitivity analyses excluding potentially pleiotropic
275 instruments ($\beta=-0.022$ SD, $P=0.026$, **Supplementary Table 4**).

276

277 **MR analyses with specific subsets of FT4 instruments**

278 Although we found no significant associations in MR analyses using specific subsets of FT4
279 instruments (i.e. variants within the deiodinases loci and other (non-deiodinase) genetic
280 variants associated with FT4 levels), we observed opposite effect directions in the analyses
281 using both subsets of instruments for 9 out of 10 analyzed outcomes **(Supplementary Table 7)**.

282

283 **Causal effects of obesity traits on TSH and FT4 levels**

284 To further investigate the relationship between TSH and FT4 levels and obesity traits, we
285 performed bidirectional MR analyses assessing the effects of genetically predicted BMI and
286 WHR on TSH and FT4 levels (**Supplementary Table 8**). While we observed no causal effects of
287 BMI and WHR on TSH levels ($\beta=0.022$ SD, $P=0.24$, and $\beta=0.015$ SD, $P=0.68$, respectively), we
288 found that a one SD increase in genetically predicted BMI was associated with a 0.075 SD
289 decrease in FT4 levels ($P=3.6\times 10^{-4}$). Sensitivity analyses excluding all BMI variants associated
290 ($P<0.05$) with FT4 levels yielded similar results ($\beta=-0.042$ SD, $P=0.020$). There was also a nominal
291 association between genetically predicted WHR and FT4 levels in the same direction ($\beta=-0.072$
292 SD, $P=0.032$), which disappeared in sensitivity analyses excluding instruments associated
293 ($P<0.05$) with FT4 levels (**Supplementary Table 8**).

294

295

Discussion

296

297 This study presented the currently largest, to the best of our knowledge, MR analysis assessing
298 causal relationships between variation in normal range thyroid function and cardiovascular risk
299 factors. We found statistically significant associations ($P<2.5\times 10^{-3}$) between TSH levels and
300 serum cholesterol levels, blood pressure and T2D risk. In contrast, FT4 was not associated with
301 any of the tested outcomes. While variation in normal range thyroid function did not affect BMI
302 or WHR, secondary analyses suggested that BMI affects FT4 levels.

303

304 ***Variation in normal range thyroid function is causally associated with total cholesterol and***
305 ***LDL-c levels***

306 Both overt and subclinical hypothyroidism have been associated with dyslipidaemia (38, 39).
307 Moreover, normal range TSH levels have been positively associated with total cholesterol, LDL-c
308 and TG levels, as well as negatively associated with HDL-c levels in various observational studies
309 (11, 40, 41). Our results confirm that the associations between variation in normal range
310 thyroid function and total cholesterol are causal, and that this can be predominantly attributed
311 to a change in LDL-c serum levels. Although the estimated effects are relatively small (0.037 SD
312 and 0.022 SD increase in total cholesterol and LDL-c levels, respectively, for a one SD increase in
313 TSH levels), they might be clinically relevant as they reflect a lifelong exposure. Our results are
314 in line with the results of *in vitro* studies showing that thyroid hormones regulate LDL-c
315 catabolism by their effects on lipid metabolizing enzymes and LDL-c receptor expression in the
316 liver (42, 43). Several intervention studies also demonstrated that L-thyroxine treatment
317 reduces total cholesterol and LDL-c levels in patients with subclinical hypothyroidism (44-46), as
318 well as in euthyroid subjects (47), while no significant effects on HDL-c or TG levels were
319 observed in these studies (44-47). In our MR study we neither observed an effect on TG levels,
320 while we only detected a nominally significant association between TSH and HDL-c levels.
321 Future larger MR studies with more genetic instruments will clarify whether this is due to small
322 effect sizes which we could not detect in our study, or whether there is no effect of variation in
323 normal range thyroid function on HDL-c and TG levels at all.

324

325 ***Variation in normal range thyroid function is causally associated with blood pressure***

326 There is evidence that thyroid disease is an important cause of secondary hypertension (48, 49).
327 Overt hyperthyroidism is accompanied by increased cardiac output and reduced vascular
328 resistance resulting in increased SBP, decreased DBP and increased PP (50). However, the effect
329 of subclinical hyperthyroidism on blood pressure was not confirmed (51-53). The few studies
330 which have investigated the effects of overt hypothyroidism on blood pressure found an
331 association with increased DBP (54, 55), possibly due to increased vascular resistance and
332 arterial stiffness (56). In contrast, much more data are available on the effects of subclinical
333 hypothyroidism on blood pressure. A meta-analysis of observational studies comparing patients
334 with subclinical hypothyroidism to euthyroid controls (N=50,147) found a minor increase in
335 their SBP, but not DPB (57). Importantly, a large (N>30,000) population-based study even found
336 a positive association between normal range TSH levels and SBP as well as DBP (12), which was
337 further confirmed by a recent meta-analysis of 14 observational studies (N=96,175) (58).
338 In the current study, we found that within the normal range, higher TSH levels were associated
339 with a lower pulse pressure, which was mainly driven by an inverse association with SBP. Future
340 studies should clarify why the nominal association between normal range TSH levels and SBP
341 observed in our study was opposite to the reported in observational studies (58). Importantly,
342 such studies should also take potential non-linear relations into account, as the effects of hypo-
343 and hyperthyroidism on blood pressure come together within the normal range. This is
344 important, as observational studies have shown that increased pulse pressure is an
345 independent predictor of cardiovascular events in patients with hypertension (59, 60), as well
346 as a predictor for peripheral arterial disease (61).

347

348 ***MR analysis suggest a causal association between normal range thyroid function and T2D risk***

349 Several observational studies have shown that thyroid disease and T2D frequently coexist in
350 patients (62-64). A meta-analysis of observational studies in Chinese has also reported an
351 increased risk of diabetic complications in patients with coexisting T2D and subclinical
352 hypothyroidism (65). Both hypo- and hyperthyroidism have been associated with T2D risk and
353 insulin resistance (66, 67), and multiple mechanisms have been suggested to play a role in this
354 association, including intestinal glucose absorption, hepatic gluconeogenesis, and glucose
355 utilization in peripheral tissues (68). However, the associations between variation in normal
356 range thyroid function and T2D are less clear. Recently, a large population-based prospective
357 study in 8,452 participants reported an increased risk of incident T2D in individuals with low-
358 normal thyroid function (13). However, a following meta-analysis in nearly 30,000 participants
359 did not confirm these findings (69). In 2017, Bos *et al.* performed a MR study investigating the
360 effects of genetically predicted TSH and FT4 levels on T2D risk and glycaemic traits, and did not
361 find causal associations (70). Compared to Bos *et al.* (70), we significantly increased statistical
362 power by using genetic instruments which doubled the proportion of explained variance in TSH
363 and FT4 levels, as well as by using more precise effect estimates for T2D, as based on the most
364 recent GWAS meta-analysis including nearly 900,000 participants (74,124 cases and 824,006
365 controls) (27). Moreover, we performed sensitivity analyses excluding potentially pleiotropic
366 instruments which can be a source of bias in MR analysis. Interestingly, we identified various
367 genetic variants with pleiotropic effects on thyroid function and T2D in our sensitivity analyses
368 using the Cochran's Q statistics. Indeed, these included variants within the *INSR* gene (encoding

369 the insulin receptor), *IGF2BP2* (which regulates the translation of IGF2 mRNA and has been
370 associated with T2D susceptibility (71)), *GLIS3* (a susceptibility gene for T2D that modulates
371 pancreatic beta cell development and apoptosis (72, 73)), *VEGFA* (essential for a proper
372 formation of pancreatic islet structure (74)), and two variants within the *FGF7* gene (promotes
373 proliferation of embryonic pancreatic epithelial cells (75)). The fact that our statistical analyses
374 identified these variants as pleiotropic also makes sense from a biological perspective, as they
375 are located in loci encoding proteins with a known role in glucose regulation. We excluded
376 these pleiotropic variants, which were in majority associated with both higher TSH levels and
377 higher T2D risk, to unravel the real causal association between normal range thyroid function
378 and T2D. This showed that within the normal range higher TSH levels were associated with
379 lower T2D risk. The carriage of genes with pleiotropic effects could therefore be an important
380 explanation for the observed discrepancy between the results of observational studies and MR
381 analyses.

382

383 ***Bidirectional MR analysis suggests a causal effect of BMI on FT4 levels***

384 In our study, we found no evidence for a causal effect of variation in normal range thyroid
385 function on obesity traits, represented by BMI and WHR. While we cannot exclude causal
386 effects smaller than detectable in our study, this can also suggest that minor variation in thyroid
387 function tests is rather a consequence than a cause of weight change. Indeed, our bidirectional
388 MR analysis indicated that genetically predicted BMI was inversely associated with FT4 levels.
389 Multiple observational studies showed that there is a positive association between BMI and
390 TSH levels, even within the normal range (76). Several observational studies reported also a

391 positive association between BMI and FT3 levels (77-80), as well as a negative association
392 between BMI and FT4 levels in euthyroid subjects (77, 78). A MR study performed by Taylor *et*
393 *al.* found that higher BMI leads to higher FT3 levels in children, while no effect of genetically
394 predicted BMI on FT4 levels was observed in that study (81). It was suggested that the increase
395 in serum levels of FT3 may be a compensatory mechanism for the increase in central fat
396 accumulation (80). Although the expression of type 1 deiodinase (DIO1) and type 2 deiodinase
397 (DIO2) in the white adipose tissue (WAT), in comparison to DIO1 expression in the liver or DIO2
398 expression in the brown adipose tissue (BAT), is minimal (82, 83), it has been shown that DIO1
399 activity in WAT is increased in obese subjects (84). Therefore higher FT3 and lower FT4 levels in
400 overweight and obese subjects might at least partially result from an increased peripheral
401 conversion of FT4 to FT3 in WAT. Moreover, studies on animal models suggest that, besides its
402 effects on central regulation of the hypothalamus-pituitary-thyroid axis (85), leptin produced in
403 WAT may be also involved in tissue-specific regulation of deiodinase activity in other tissues
404 (86-89). Interestingly, Araujo *et al.* showed that leptin administration restores starvation-
405 induced decrease in DIO1 activity in the liver and the kidney (89), the main sources of
406 circulating FT3. Although these results require further confirmation, this hypothesis would be in
407 line with the observation that weight reduction is associated with a decrease in FT3 and an
408 increase in FT4 serum levels in humans (90).

409

410 ***Strengths and limitations of the study***

411 Strengths of the current study include the use of data from the largest available GWAS on
412 thyroid function and the tested cardiovascular risk factors (24-28). Moreover, sensitivity

413 analyses were performed to reduce bias due to potentially pleiotropic instruments, as well as to
414 provide better insights into the analyzed associations.

415 While we observed several significant associations between genetically predicted TSH levels
416 and the tested outcomes, we found no such associations for genetically predicted FT4 levels. A
417 possible explanation for this discrepancy could be that TSH is a much more sensitive biomarker
418 for detecting small alterations in thyroid function compared to FT4 (91), as relatively modest
419 changes in FT4 concentrations result in marked excursions in TSH levels due to an inverse log-
420 linear association between both parameters (92, 93). A limitation of our study was that we had
421 less power to detect associations with FT4, as the available instruments reported in literature
422 have a lower explained variance compared to TSH levels (4.8% vs. 9.4%, respectively).
423 Therefore, our results should not be interpreted as reflecting direct (*i.e.* not mediated by
424 thyroid hormones) effects of TSH on the tested outcomes. Importantly, the available FT4
425 variants form a highly heterogeneous group, including polymorphisms within genes encoding
426 transcription factors implicated in the pituitary and thyroid development (*FOXE1, LHX3*), TH
427 transporters (*SLCO1B1, SLC17A4*), TH metabolizing enzymes (*DIO1, DIO2, AADAT*) and multiple
428 loci without a known function in the hypothalamus-pituitary-thyroid axis (94). Therefore, while
429 they all increase serum FT4 levels, they could well have differential effects on tissue T4 and T3
430 bioavailability. For example, variants in the *DIO1* gene, encoding the type 1 deiodinase (DIO1),
431 which is responsible for peripheral conversion of T4 to T3, result in higher T4 levels and lower
432 T3 levels. This leads to a net euthyroid state of the pituitary, as reflected by the absence of an
433 association with TSH levels. Consequently, while these variants can be used as instruments
434 reflecting variation in normal range FT4 levels, they should not be interpreted as being

435 instruments for increased thyroid function (95). This is supported by our sensitivity analyses in
436 which the effects of deiodinase gene variants and other variants were analysed separately.
437 These analyses showed opposite effect directions in the majority of the tested outcomes, likely
438 reflecting the differential effects of these genetic instruments on T4 and T3 bioavailability.
439 When both subsets are analyzed together, their effects could level out, resulting in a net zero
440 effect. Indeed, none of the MR studies performed so far found any evidence for associations
441 between genetically predicted FT4 levels and tested outcomes, including the recent study on
442 thyroid function and atrial fibrillation risk, which reported significant effects for TSH levels,
443 FT3:FT4 ratio and hyperthyroidism (96). This underlines the importance of having a good
444 biological understanding of the genetic instruments used in MR studies. Finally, while we
445 provide evidence for associations between variation in normal range thyroid function and
446 cholesterol levels, blood pressure and T2D risk, MR studies performed so far found no evidence
447 for a causal association between normal range thyroid function and CVD (97, 98), except for the
448 recently reported association with stroke, that was mediated *via* the risk of atrial fibrillation
449 (99). One of possible explanations is that established cardiovascular risk factors, such as
450 dyslipidaemia and hypertension, are nowadays widely recognized and treated in the context of
451 primary prevention. This might limit the potential cause-and-effect relationship between
452 thyroid function and CVD in the general population that was used as a basis for the MR-
453 underlying GWAS, and consequently make it more difficult to detect the effects of variation in
454 normal range thyroid function on CVD in a MR study. Alternatively, unfavourable effects of low
455 normal thyroid function on the lipid profile observed in this study might be levelled out by the
456 beneficial effects of low normal thyroid function on pulse pressure and T2D risk, limiting in that

457 way the overall effect of variation in normal range thyroid function on cardiovascular risk.
458 Future studies should further investigate this complex relationship.

459

460 **Conclusions**

461 In conclusion, our study demonstrates that variation in normal range thyroid function is causally
462 associated with serum cholesterol levels, blood pressure and T2D risk. On the other hand, we found no
463 evidence of causal association between variation in normal range thyroid function and the tested
464 obesity traits. Instead, our study suggests that increased BMI might be causally associated with lower
465 FT4 levels in euthyroid individuals. These findings provide a better insight into the complex relationships
466 between thyroid function and CVD risk.

467

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477

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479 No competing financial interests exist.

480

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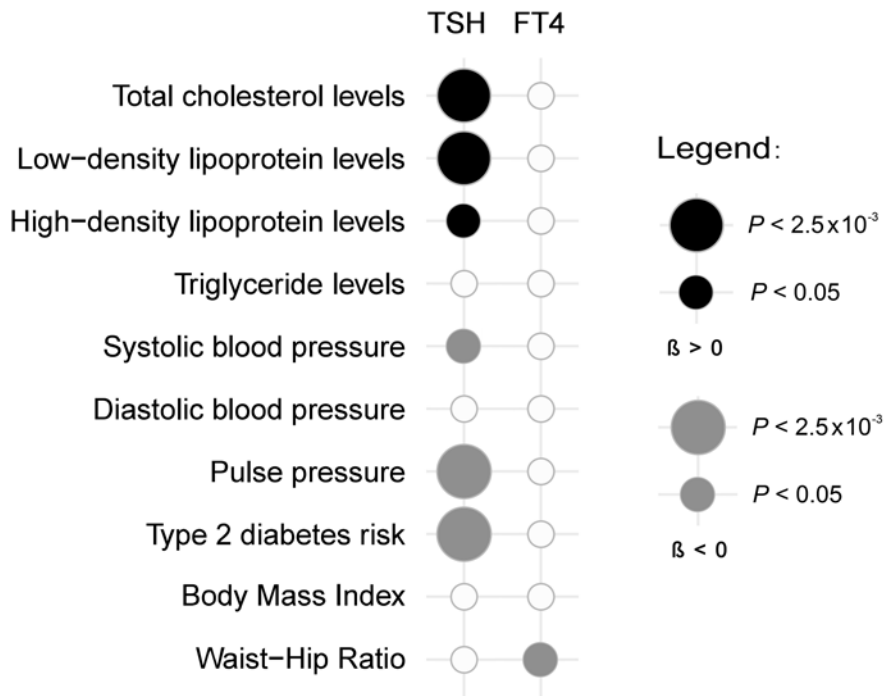
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897 **Figure 1. Heatmap of associations between normal range TSH and FT4 levels and major**
898 **cardiovascular risk factors.** For each pair of traits, the size of the circle corresponds to the P -
899 value for the regression coefficient (β) from the Mendelian Randomization analysis using the
900 inverse variance weighted method. Positive (direct) association is shown in black, whereas
901 negative (inverse) association is shown in gray.

902