STUDY OF THE METHODOLOGICAL VARIABLES OF TRIIODOTHYRONINE RADIOIMMUNOASSAY AND EVALUATION OF THEIR EFFECTS ON THE T  $_3$  VALUE

by

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#### INTRODUCTION

#### Section I

The Hormone

Tri-iodothyronine, usually abbreviated  $T_3$ , was identified in human plasma by Gross and Pitt-Rivers (1) in 1952. Since then, this naturally occurring iodinated amino acid has been the subject of investigation and speculation by thyroid physiologists. The interest in this hormone has been heightened by the observation by Gross, Pitt-Rivers (2) and Lerman (3) that the potency of  $T_3$  is 3-4 times as great as that of thyroxine  $(T_4)$  in the treatment of myxedema patients. Despite this interest, little data accumulated on this subject in the fifteen years following its discovery. This was primarily due to the low concentration of the hormone in human serum and the tedious methods required for its quantitation. In the last six years several chromatographic methods have been developed for the determination of this hormone and a new interest in the role of  $T_3$  in the thyroid pathophysiology was raised. It has become apparent, based on data collected using these methods and more recently using radioimmunoassay techniques, that  $T_3$ , despite the small quantities in plasma, plays an important role in the maintenance of the euthyroid state. Initial estimates were that perhaps one-half of the body's thyroid hormone needs were supplied by  $T_3$  (4). This is due to the shorter half-life of  $T_3$  (about one day) as compared to the half-life of  $T_4$  (about 7 days). More recently, extrathyroidal conversion of  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  has been demonstrated in vivo and the original speculation of Gross and Pitt-Rivers that  $T_4$  is converted

to  $T_3$  before it can exert its metabolic action is revived (2). On the clinical level, the finding of some hyperthyroid patients with normal or low  $T_4$  but elevated  $T_3$ , has increased the demand for its determination as an essential part of the evaluation of the thyroid status in increasing numbers of thyroid patients.

# A. Biosynthesis of the Iodothyronines (T3 and T4)

## 1. The Thyroid follicle

The structural and functional unit of the thyroid gland is called the follicle and is composed of spheroid space (lumen) surrounded by a single layer of epithelial cells. Both the space and the surrounding cells vary in size, shape, and content with the stage of activity of the thyroid. It is in these units that the thyroid hormones are manufactured, stored and from there they are passed to the surrounding capillaries and venules to reach other tissues.

#### 2. Iodine trapping

The biosynthesis of  $T_3$ , as well as of  $T_4$ , begins with the inorganic iodide (I) ingested with food and absorbed into the circulation. I enters the epithelial cells of the follicle by an active transport mechanism at the basal membrane. This mechanism is generally referred to as the iodide trapping. Trapped iodide is passed in to the follicular lumen, probably by the same active mechanism, to iodinate the thyroglobulin which has migrated to the same site.

## 3. Synthesis of Thyroglobulin (Tg)

Thyroglobulin is a glycoprotein formed from noniodinated amino acids on the polyribosomes of the epithelial cells of the thyroid gland. The newly synthesized protein leaves the polyribosomes and migrates to the Golgi zone, where the protein acquires its carbohydrate moiety, and then passes to the colloid region, where it becomes iodinated. It is now known that iodinated amino acids are not used for the synthesis of the primary peptide chain of the thyroglobulin, and iodination reaction takes place on the thyroblobulin molecule rather than with free amino acids.

#### 4. Iodination

Iodination is believed to occur at the interface of the apical cell membrane and the follicular lumen, catalyzed by a thyroid peroxidase (autoradiography studies show that no iodination of the thyroglobulin occurs during its passage through the cell). The result is the formation of Monoiodotyrosine (MIT) and Diiodotyrosine (DIT) by the iodination of tyrosyl residues on the thyroglobulin. Iodothyronine ( $T_3$  and  $T_4$ ) are formed by a coupling reaction of the Iodotyrosines (MIT and DIT) with extrusion of alanine side chain (5, 6).

From a teleological point of view it is thought that the relative formation of  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  would depend on the relative quantities of MIT and DIT and this in turn is dependent on the degree of iodination of the thyroglobulin.

5. Storage and Secretion of the Iodothyronines

In the normally functioning thyroid only a portion of the synthesized thyroid hormone is released in the blood. The rest is stored in the colloid. The degree of stimulation by TSH (thyroid stimulating hormone), a thyrotropic hormone which originates in the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland, and the quantity of available iodine are the principle factors controlling the ratio of thyroid hormones to be stored

as colloid to that which is to be secreted. Both  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  are stored in the colloid as part of the thyroglobulin, and under stimulation by TSH, some proteolytic enzymes hydrolyze the thyroglobulin releasing  $T_3$ ,  $T_4$ , DIT and MIT. The last two are generally deiodinated in the gland by a specific enzyme known as deiodinase, which has no effect on  $T_3$  or  $T_4$ . Thus iodide produced by deiodination is recycled (6).

## B. Iodothyronine Transport Proteins

Based on in vivo and in vitro observations,  $T_3$  is transported in human blood by three serum proteins: TBG (thyroxin binding globulin), TBPA (thyroxin binding prealbumin), and human serum albumin.

1. Physiological Significance of Transport Proteins
The physiological significance of the binding between proteins and small molecules, as T<sub>3</sub>, is not completely understood. In contrast to the peptide hormones, T<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>4</sub>, and many other small-molecule hormones are relatively hydrophobic and exist in aqueous solution in blood by virtue of their firm binding to one or more serum protein carriers. The degree of binding to serum proteins seem to have great effect on the disappearance, or utilization rate of the hormones in the organisms. In that line of thought, it is observed that the biological half-life of a hormone varies with the magnitude of the free or non protein-bound moiety. Thus cortisol, which is 95% bound and 5% free, has approximately 1 hour half-life, T<sub>4</sub> is 99.95% bound and less than 0.05% free, has a biological half-life of one week. The much shorter half-life of T<sub>3</sub>, compared to T<sub>4</sub>, can be attributed to its less firm binding to serum proteins 99.5% (7). Clinically good correlation between the level of free hormone (T<sub>4</sub> or T<sub>3</sub>)

and the metabolic status of human is usually found. Since the hormonal activity is suppressed in the hormone-protein complex, the complex formation provides a mechanism to store relatively large quantities of the hormone in the circulation in an inactive form.

## The Nature of Hormone-Protein Binding

Hormone-protein interaction is made up of low energy bonds between the two. They are noncovalent bonds and affected by several physical factors: temperature, pH and certain chemicals. Their reactions are highly stereospecific much as those between antigen and antibody. term "binding" includes a large number of molecular interactions in which association and disassociation occurs spontaneously and rapidly. The relation of  $T_{\rm q}$  bound to individual protein sites and the free  $T_{\rm q}$ can be described in terms of multiple-equilibrium system obeying massaction principles (10, 11). Thus free hormone concentration will be influenced by the concentration of the proteins, the association constant and the total concentration of T2.

of free or unbound 
$$T_3$$
.

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} T_3 & TBG \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T_3 = \begin{bmatrix} T_3 & TBG \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T_3 - TBG$$

 $T_3$  + TBG  $\longrightarrow$   $T_3$  - TBG  $T_3$  represent the concentration of free or unbound  $T_3$ .

 $T_3$  - TBG the concentration of the bound  $T_3$ .

K is the equilibrium constant of the reaction.

# 3. Serum Proteins Which Bind $T_3$

In early in vitro studies (12) it was shown that  $T_3$ , like  $T_4$ , was significantly bound to serum protein in humans, with 99.5% of  $T_3$  being in the "bound" state and 0.5% in the "free" state. Further in vitro studies using electrophoretic methods showed that  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathfrak{J}}$  binds primarily to TBG and secondarily to serum albumin (13, 14) and does not, in contrast to  $T_{L}$ , bind to thyroxin binding prealbumin (TBPA) (15). However, using an ultrafiltration technique, Larsen (4) was able to demonstrate that  $T_3$  binds to TBPA. Also, Davis et al (16) showed  $T_3$  binding to TBPA using polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Evidence(s) for in vivo binding of  $T_3$  to TBG is based on the correlation between serum  $T_3$ and TBG concentrations. Hoteling et al (17) provided further evidence for in vivo binding to TBG by showing a statistically significant rise in  $T_3$  as pregnancy advances, paralleling the rise in  $T_4$  and TBG. Several investigators have reported elevated serum  $T_3$  in pregnancy and idiopathic elevation of TBG (18). Conversely low serum  $T_3$  was reported in genetic TBG deficiency (19). This is consistent with TBG being important in vivo transport protein for  $T_3$ .  $T_3$  is less firmly bound to serum proteins than  $T_{i}$  (12, 13). The reported estimate of the relative binding affinities of the two hormones  $T_4$  and  $T_3$ , vary widely. One estimate is  $T_3/T_4=1/3$  using whole serum (20, 21) and another is 1/30 using highly purified TBG (22). The presence of other serum proteins affect the distribution of  ${\rm T_3}$  and  ${\rm T_4}$  on TBG (10). While the affinity of  $T_3$  to Alb. and TBPA is the same (4), the fact the concentration of Alb is some 200 fold greater than the concentration. of TBPA in human serum would suggest that more  $\mathbf{T}_3$  is bound to Alb.than to TBPA in vivo.

- 4. Characteristics of T, Transport Proteins
  - a. Thyroxine Binding Globulin (TBG)

TBG is a glycoprotein with 32% of its weight as carbohydrate. It is present in a lower concentration than the other  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  binding proteins but has the highest affinity and specificity. It has a MW of 60,000 and is found between the two globulins ( $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ ) on the electrophoretic pattern of serum proteins. It has been purified and a RIA (radioimmunoassay) for its determination in human serum has been developed (23). Based on this methodology, its concentration was found to be 2.0 - 4.8 mg/100 ml in normal subjects, up to 7.6 mg/dl in pregnancy and decreased in cirrhosis of the liver. Another approach for assessing the TBG level in serum is the determination of its maximum binding capacity for  $T_4$  (MBC) using  $T_4 - I^{125}$  and unlabeled  $T_4$ . This measurement has been shown to correlate very well with TBG concentration as determined by RIA (23). In normal subjects  $T_{\Delta}MBC$  of TBG is 13-26  $\mu g T_4/dl$ . TBG is transmitted as a dominant x-chromosome linked trait (24, 25). Therefore familial prevalence of TBG elevation and deficiency have been described.

b. Thyroxine Binding Prealbumin (TBPA)

TBPA is present in human serum in higher concentration than TBG, (23-35 mg/100 ml serum) and has a MW of 73,000. An immunologically pure TBPA has been prepared by Oppenheimer (10). It is found toward the anodal site from albumin (thus the name prealbumin). Its MBC is

216-342  $\mu g$  T<sub>4</sub>/100 ml serum. However, since it has a lower affinity for thyroid hormones than TBG, only 20% of the total T<sub>4</sub> in serum is bound to TBPA. This ratio probably applies for T<sub>3</sub> also. No abnormality in TBPA has been attributed to genetic etiology (10).

### c. Specificity of Binding

HO 
$$\frac{1}{3}$$
 — 0 —  $\frac{1}{4}$   $\frac{3}{5}$   $\frac{1}{6}$  — CH<sub>2</sub> — CH  $\frac{\text{COO}}{\text{NH}_3}$  +

# 3,3',5- Triiodothyronine $(T_3)$

At pH 8.6 and using highly purified TBG, it was shown that the binding of TBG to  $T_4$  and  $T_3$  is structurally very specific. Using analogues, it was found that the diphenyl ether, the four iodines, and the free phenolic group are essential for optimal binding. The alanine side chain is also involved in the binding. Both TBG and TBPA show preference for tetraiodinated over tri-iodinated analogues (20, 22). Albumin appears to have no specificity requirement for binding.

5. Variation in  $T_3$  Binding to Serum Protein (in vivo)

As pointed out previously, the amount of  $T_3$  bound to TBG, albumin,
or TBPA will be influenced by the concentration of each protein, the
association constant of each class of binding sites and total concentration of  $T_3$ . Thus changes in the concentration of one of those proteins or its association constant will lead to a variable level of free hormone and will change the overall distribition of the hormone among

different proteins.

- a. Causes of Variation in the Proteins Concentration
- (1) Since TBG is transmitted as a dominant x-linked trait, familial prevalence of TBG elevation and TBG deficiency is observed. A number of asymptomatic euthyroid subjects with elevated PBI (protein bound iodine) and TBG binding capacity, and others with low PBI and TBG binding capacity have been described (13). With the availability of  $T_3$  determination, correlation of the same type have been observed and patients with low serum  $T_3$  and genetically determined low TBG have been described (25).

### (2) In Pregnancy and Estrogen Useage

The effect of estrogens in increasing serum PBI by augmenting the binding capacity of TBG is now well established (26). Several authors have shown similar elevation in serum  $T_3$  (17, 18, 27) due to pregnancy or the administration of estrogens. Elevation of the serum thyronine in these cases is due to increased concentration of TBG in the serum rather than to alteration in the binding capacity of the TBG molecule, as confirmed by Velayo et al (23).

#### (3) Androgen Useage

Testosterone decreases the PBI and  ${\rm T_4}$  binding capacity of TBG and it has the same effect on the  ${\rm T_3}$  level (26).

b. Causes of Variation in the Interaction of  $T_3$  with the Binding Proteins

Several drugs are known to decrease serum  $\mathbf{T}_3$  by either displacement of  $\mathbf{T}_3$  from these proteins or by enhancing its cellular metabolism.

Patients receiving "Dilantin" (Diphenylhydantoin DPH) have lower levels of serum PBI,  $T_4$ , and  $T_3$  (28). The in vitro ability of this drug to displace  $T_4$  and  $T_3$  from plasma proteins has been used to explain the lower levels of these hormones upon its administration. The basis of the displacement of  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  by DPH is thought to be the structural analogy between the diphenyl-ether linkage of the thyronines and the diphenyl grouping about carbon 5 in the diphenylhydantoin molecule (29).

Salicylate and dinitrophenol were found to displace  $T_4$  from TBPA (30) and more recently, it was shown that salicylate displaces  $T_3$  from TBG at a much lower concentration than needed to displace  $T_4$  from the same protein (31, 32).

Tetetrachlorothyronine (TCT) given in vivo lowers serum PBI in intact and in thyroidectomized, thyroxine treated guinea pigs, which means that (TCT) does not lower the PBI through the pituitary TSH mechanism (30) but by affecting serum protein binding to the thyronines. In studies done on purified TBG, TCT was found to inhibit  $T_4$  binding to this protein (22). This was not, however, observed in whole serum studies because TCT was found to inhibit  $T_4$  binding to TBPA and thus  $T_4$  binding to TBG appeared unaffected (22). Barbital ion is known to inhibit  $T_4$  and probably  $T_3$  binding to TBPA (20). Veronal markedly decreases the binding capacity of TBPA for acetic acid analogues of  $T_4$  and  $T_3$ . Several other substances are known to interfere with this binding and are used for in vitro studies. These will be discussed in the pertaining areas of the study.

6. Factors Known to Affect the  $T_4$  and  $T_3$  - Serum Protein Binding In Vitro

#### a. pH

The binding capacity of TBG for  $T_4$  is pH dependent. At pH 9.0, the MBC of TBG is less than at pH 7.4. Meanwhile, TBPA has higher MBC at pH 7.4 than at pH 9.0. Binding by human serum albumin is unaffected by pH (33).

### b. Temperature

Increase in temperature above  $4^{\circ}C$  decreases the binding capacity of both TBG and TBPA. TBG completely loses its binding capacity for  $T_4$  by heating at  $60^{\circ}C$  for 20 minutes (34).

## C. Physiological Role and Clinical Significance of Triiodothyronine

# 1. Physiological Role of Triiodothyronine $(T_3)$

The hormones elaborated by the thyroid gland appear to stimulate the rate of cellular oxidation and maintain the normal level of metabolic activity in virtually all tissues (35). It has been long recognized that thyroxine ( $T_4$ ) constitutes about 90% of the organic iodine in the blood (10). Twelve years after the initial demonstration of  $T_4$  in plasma, Gross and Pitt-Rivers (1) identified triiodothyronine  $T_3$  as the second circulating iodoamino acid. It was rapidly shown that  $T_3$ , like  $T_4$ , is secreted by the thyroid (36).  $T_3$  has been found in the thyroid venous effluent in concentration substantially higher than those in concurrently sampled arterial blood (36).

The ease with which  $T_3$  and  $T_\Delta$  are labeled with radioiodine has allowed for many studies of the detailed knetics of the metabolism of these compounds, in man as well as experimental animals (11, 37). However, there is a wide variation in the results of these studies. This has been attributed to variation in serum  $T_3$  levels which in turn is due mainly to the methodological variation (4, 38). Considering the average serum  $T_3$  level as determined by radioimmunoassay, it is estimated that  $T_{\mbox{\scriptsize Q}}$  secreted by the thyroid gland is about 10  $\mu\mbox{\scriptsize g}/\mbox{\scriptsize day}$ compared with 80  $\mu g$   $T_{\Delta}/day$ . The rest of circulating  $T_3$ , about 10-20  $\mu g$ per day, come from the peripheral conversion of  $T_4$  to  $T_3$ . It is estimated that one-half to two-thirds of the circulating  $T_3$  is produced through this process (4). This estimate has been supported by studies on athyrotic patients who were given purified  $\mathbf{T}_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}$  orally or intravenously, and a level of 2.4-6.8 ng/ml  $T_3$  was found in their serum (39). No specific site has been identified for this conversion. The biological half-life of  $\mathbf{T}_3$  is so short that approximately half the extrathyroidal pool is turned over in a day (4, 8). In contrast, the daily fractional turnover of  $T_4$  is about 10%. The fast rate of disappearance of  $T_3$  has been ascribed to the weaker binding to serum proteins. Since the average normal serum  $T_3$  level as reported by most RIA methods is 1.2 ng/ml, the kinetic analysis suggests that the turnover rate of  $T_3$  is about  $30-35 \mu g/day$  (40, 41). Since it also has been demonstrated that the metabolic activity of  $T_3$  is about 3-4 times that of  $T_4$  by weight (2), it is apparent that  $\mathrm{T}_3$  and  $\mathrm{T}_4$  make approximately equal contributions to the total biological activity.

The evidence of  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  conversion has again raised the possibility that  $T_4$  must be converted to  $T_3$  in order to exert its metabolic effect. This was suggested originally by Gross, Pitt-Rivers (2) and an accurate answer for it awaits some more knowledge of the precise mechanism of action of the thyroid hormones.

# 2. Effect of Iodine Intake on Serum $T_3$ Level

There is a well documented observation regarding the qualitative changes in thyroid gland thyronines during iodine deficiency. Elevation in  $T_3/T_4$  ratio due to an increase in  $T_3$  secretion and/or decrease in  $T_4$  secretion was demonstrated by Greer (43) in rats which were put on iodine deficient diet, and in humans who were put on less than 50 µg iodine/day (44, 27). These changes revert when iodine deficiency is corrected by iodine administration.

In areas of Endemic Goiter due to iodine deficiency, the  $\mathrm{T_3/T_4}$  ratio is found to be elevated either due to increase in  $\mathrm{T_3}$  level and decrease in  $\mathrm{T_4}$  (45) or solely to decrease in  $\mathrm{T_4}$  level (46). Furthermore, Charib et al (38) have shown a variation in human serum  $\mathrm{T_3}$  level due to a regional difference in iodine intake. A group of Minnesota people were found to have higher serum  $\mathrm{T_3}$  values and lower iodine intake than a group of Californians when identical  $\mathrm{T_3}$  (RIA) were used in two laboratories in these areas.

These observations strongly suggest that the normal thyroid can alter its secretion of  $T_3$  relative to  $T_4$ . This may be an adaptive mechanism to the availability of iodine and may be regulated intrathyroidally (43).

# 3. Clinical Significance of $T_3$ Determination

There are an increasing number of clinical situations in which available evidence is compatible with a major physiological role of  $\mathrm{T}_3$ . The clinical application of its determination is increasing with the availability of the RIA technique. The following five clinical areas are known to be validly correlated with serum  $\mathrm{T}_3$  level.

## a. In Conventional Hyperthyroidism

Whether hyperthyroidism is caused by toxic diffuse goiter, Graves' disease, toxic nodular goiter, or autonomously functioning adenoma,  $\mathbf{T}_3$  concentration in serum is invariably elevated (18, 27). The mean  $\mathbf{T}_3$  level in hyperthyroid patients is roughly four times the euthyroid level. The relative increase in  $\mathbf{T}_3$  over normal is greater than increase in  $\mathbf{T}_4$  in such patients. Therefore, there is a decrease in the ratio of  $\mathbf{T}_4/\mathbf{T}_3$  in hyperthyroidism. This may be due to an increase in the rate of  $\mathbf{T}_4$  to  $\mathbf{T}_3$  conversion. There is no evidence for such increase yet. Consequently it is thought that  $\mathbf{T}_3$  determination is more sensitive than  $\mathbf{T}_4$  determination as a clinical laboratory test for the diagnosis of hyperthyroidism.

b. In  $T_3$  Hyperthyroidism ( $T_3$  Thyrotoxicosis)

 ${
m T}_3$  hyperthyroidism is thyrotoxicosis due to elevation in  ${
m T}_3$  secretion with normal secretion of  ${
m T}_4$ . This variant of hyperthyroidism is becoming more recognized now and the clinical picture for its presence has been established. The first case of this type was reported by Maclagan and associates in 1957 (47).

The first well-studied cases of  $T_3$  thyrotoxicosis were reported

by Hollander (48) using a gas chromatographic method to measure circulating  $T_3$  and  $T_4$ . This was followed by a group of patients reported by Sterling (49) using a paper chromatographic method. The incidence of  $T_3$  hyperthyroidism was evaluated by Bellabara (50) who found seven cases in 62 consecutive cases of clinical hyperthyroidism. Stevenson in Chile (51) found that the incidence of  $T_3$  hyperthyroidism is much higher in areas of iodine deficiency. Patients with this type of hyperthyroidism are heterogenous including those with toxic diffuse goiter, toxic nodular goiter, and some recurrent hyperthyroidism following treatment with surgery or radioiodine.

The clinical picture in patients with  $T_3$  hyperthyroidism is not distinguishable from those with conventional thyrotoxicosis. Thus the diagnosis must be based on laboratory tests which should provide:

- Evidence of thyroid abnormality with the presence of hypermetabolism or hyperthyroidism.
- 2. Normal level of  $T_{\Delta}$ .
- 3. Abnormal  $\mathbf{T}_3$  suppression test to establish the autonomous function of the gland.
- 4. Elevation of serum  $T_3$  level.
- 5. Absence of protein binding abnormality because conventional thyrotoxicosis with deficiency in TBG lead to the same laboratory results as in  $T_3$  hyperthyroidism, i.e., normal  $T_4$  and elevated  $T_3$  and abnormal suppression test (52).
- c. In the Early Detection of Thyrotoxicosis

The finding by Hollander (27) that hyperthyroid patients may pass through a stage of  $T_3$  toxicosis before developing the usual form

of thyrotoxicosis has potential clinical importance in the early detection of hyperthyroidism. The existence of such groups would support the concept that relative increases in  $T_3$  versus  $T_4$  secretion is inherent in thyrotoxicosis itself rather than due to an acquired factor such as iodine deficiency (4).

### d. In Iodine Deficiency

As has been pointed out, iodine deficiency leads to elevated  $T_3$  level with normal  $T_4$  (46). Thus  $T_3$  determination is an indispensable measurement for evaluation of the sufficiency of iodine diet in certain areas.

e. In Patients with Hyperthyroidism During Treatment with
Anti-Thyroid Agents

Changes in  $T_3$  level provide a sensitive index of abrupt changes in the thyroidal secretion. If a patient is given propylthiouracil and intravenous Na Iodide, within 24 hours, there is a threefold decrease in  $T_3$  level, with only slight fall in  $T_4$  (18). Also, in patients treated with radioiodine and appearing clinically euthyroid,  $T_3$  is normal but  $T_4$  is low. Thus  $T_3$  level is more correlated with the clinical appearance of these patients.

#### Section II

# Methodology of T3 Level Determination in Human Serum

### A. The Chromatographic Methods

Most of the earlier exploratory approaches for  $T_3$  determination have sought to demonstrate radioactive  $T_3$  in the circulation of human subjects following the administration of  $I^{131}$ . Patient's serum, collected after  $I^{131}$  administration, is subjected to chromatographic separation, and radioactivity in the  $T_4$  and  $T_3$  areas is compared. While important information was gained from such studies, the figures thus obtained do not reflect the relative concentration of the two hormones in the circulation owing to differences in their specific activities which may be attributed to the difference in metabolic turnover of the two hormones.

Efforts were made to use direct physical and chemical methods without the need for injecting radioiodine. Because of their low solubility in water, the iodothyronines are strongly adsorbed to such support media as cellulose, dextran, gel or ion exchange resin and often behave in a nonideal manner. Therefore, several chromatographic methods have been developed for the determination of  $T_3$ . Most of these methods involve three major steps:

- 1. Extraction of the iodothyronine ( $T_3$  and  $T_4$ ) from plasma with a solvent or with an ion exchange resin.
- Separation of T<sub>3</sub> from T<sub>4</sub> using paper, TLC (thin layer chromatography), column, or gas chromatography.

3. Quantitation of  $T_3$ : following separation,  $T_3$  is quantitated by iodometry or competitive protein binding methodology (CPB).

The methods developed varied in their complexity. Out of these,

Sterling's method (49) is the least complex and that is what made it

more widely used until the development of the radioimmunoassay. This

method depends on:

- Removal of thyroid hormones from serum with small columns of cation exchange resin.
- 2. Complete separation of  $T_3$  from  $T_4$  by descending paper chromatography with a solvent consisting of a mixture of tertiary amyl alcohol, hexane and ammonia.
- 3. Elution of  $T_3$  from the paper with methanol-ammonia and quantitation using competitive protein binding in which TBG is binding protein.

This method which had several methodological advantages over the other methods, clearly demonstrated that alteration in  $\mathrm{T}_3$  level in various clinical states paralleled the recognized change in  $\mathrm{T}_4$  level. The  $\mathrm{T}_3$  concentration in normal human serum was about 200 ng/100 ml, roughly about 1/40 of  $\mathrm{T}_4$  concentration by weight.

However, further examination of this method (53) suggested that there were artifactual elevations when  $\mathrm{T}_3$  was measured by this technique. This elevation was found due to incomplete separation of  $\mathrm{T}_3$  from  $\mathrm{T}_4$  on the paper chromatograph, deiodination of  $\mathrm{T}_4$  to  $\mathrm{T}_3$  during extraction and separation, and technical problems associated

with the use of paper extracts (54). With correction for deiodination (estimated as 0.4% of  $T_4$  converted to  $T_3$ ),  $T_3$  normal value became about 150 ng/100 ml.

Hollander et al (27) have demonstrated that there is contamination of the  $T_3$  area on the paper chromatogram with .25 to .5% of the endogenous  $T_4$  in serum, as well as conversion (deiodination) of 0.2 - 0.75% of the endogenous  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  during the extraction and separation. They, therefore, developed another method for  $T_3$  determination using gas-liquid chromatography. As with the previous method,  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  conversion was evident and high  $T_3$  values were obtained. After correction for deiodination there was a good correlation between the gas-liquid chromatographic method and the radioimmunoassay.

# The Major Disadvantages of the Chromatographic Methods:

1. It was evident in all chromatographic methods used, that iodo-aminoacids, especially T<sub>4</sub>, are subject to rapid deiodination during drying on filter paper or similar support (54), while in solution, or during gas-liquid chromatography. The mechanism of this process is not well understood. Several factors were found to have an effect on the rate of deiodination. It can be decreased by the presence of propylene glycol, and thus most commercial preparations use this substance in the iodothyronine solutions. Deiodination decreased also in the presence of serum proteins. It is less on cellulose-starch thin layer than on silica gel medium. Prewashing of the silica gel to remove iron decreases the deiodination process (55).

Even the deiodination inherent in using the chromatographic

methodology does not significantly affect the  $T_4$  concentration. However, the  $T_3$  level is significantly affected because it is present in human serum at a much lower level than  $T_4$ . Thus, if 0.4% of  $T_4$  is converted to  $T_3$ , serum  $T_3$  level is increased by 75%.

2. All the described chromatographic methods are tedious and do not fit routine clinical use. They require special technical skills, large samples of blood (5 ml or more in Sterling method), and the number of samples that can be done in one run is limited.

### B. The Radioimmunoassay

It was apparent that for physicological studies, and clinical usefulness, a more accurate, practical, and sensitive methodology was needed for  $\mathbf{T}_3$  determination. Basic to the desired method is the ability to discriminate  $\mathbf{T}_3$  from much larger amounts of the very similar hormone  $\mathbf{T}_4$ . This ability was sought in antibodies to  $\mathbf{T}_3$ . Brown et al (56) were the first to produce these antibodies by injecting rabbits with a carbodimide (CDI) condensation product of  $\mathbf{T}_3$  and succinylated polylysine. Surprisingly high specificity antibodies were obtained through this approach. Good antibodies were also produced using  $\mathbf{T}_3$  - BSA ( $\mathbf{T}_3$ -Bovine Serum Albumin),  $\mathbf{T}_3$  - RSA ( $\mathbf{T}_3$ -Rabbit Serum Albumin), and  $\mathbf{T}_3$  polyglutamic acid as immunogens. With the production of specific antibodies to  $\mathbf{T}_3$ , several radioimmunoassays have been developed. For proper evaluation of these methods, the general principles and methodology of RIA will be discussed.

### 1. General principle of RIA

One of the most exciting advances in the field of hormones methodology and drug analysis has been the development of the radio-

immunoassay technique. Originally described in 1960 by Yalow and Berson (57), this technique in its basic principle exploits the ability of unlabeled antigen in plasma or other solutions to compete with labeled antigen for a limited number of antibody binding sites made against that antigen and thereby to inhibit quantitatively the binding of labeled antigen to the antibody.

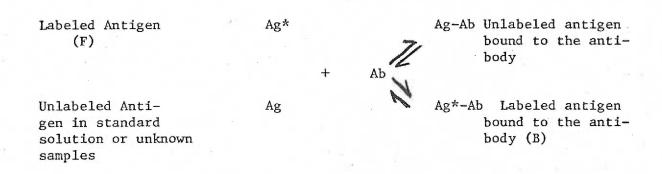


Diagram 1. The dynamic competition between the labeled and unlabeled antigen for antibody binding sites. F = Free fraction of the labeled antigen. B = Bound fraction of the labeled antigen.

As the result of this competitive inhibition between the labeled and unlabeled antigen, the amount of labeled antigen bound to the antibody is decreased as the concentration of the unlabeled antigen is increased. Thus the quantitative indicator of the unlabeled antigen concentration is the distribution of the radioactive antigen between the two factions, bound and free. It is evident here that to measure the final distribution of the labeled antigen, a means of separating these two fractions is needed. Several methods are commonly used to achieve this step; they rely on either precipitating the bound fraction or adsorbing the free fraction. Of the first type is the use of saturated

ammonium sulfate, polyethylene glycol, or second antibody. Of the second type is the use of dextran coated charcoal, ion exchange resins or Florsil. It should be noted here that the separated fractions, bound and free, each contain both labeled and unlabeled antigen, yet we only measure the radioactive antigen in each of the fractions or in one of them to know the distribution of the labeled antigen between the two.

### 2. Methodology

The performance of a radioimmunoassay involves, generally, four major steps:

- a. Simultaneous preparation of a series of standards and unknowns, all of which are set up in buffered solution and contain identical concentrations of labeled hormone and antiserum. Increasing known amounts of the unlabeled antigen are added to the standards, and plasma (or other biological fluid) is added to the unknown tubes.
- b. Incubation: The length and temperature of incubation is established for optimal sensitivity and reproducibility.
- c. Separation of the two fractions: free antigen fraction from antibody-bound antigen fraction. This step is achieved by one of several known methods and usually requires centrifugation of the assay tubes and decanting or aspirating one of the fractions.
- d. Counting and calculation. Radioactivity in one of the fractions or in both of them is determined and the results obtained in the standards are plotted as: Added antigen concentration vs. %B, B/F, B/B $^{\rm O}$ , or B $^{\rm O}$ /B. Or logit B/B $^{\rm O}$  is plotted against log dose. Where %B = the percent of the total counts added to the assay mixture that are in the

bound fraction.  $%B^{O}$  = the % bound in the standard which contains no unlabeled antigen.

There are many other plots to represent the dose-response curve, the choice of which depended on the linearity of competitive inhibition and the ease with which these variables are calculated for a particular assay and laboratory. The antigen concentration in an unknown sample is obtained by comparing the inhibition observed in the unknown, i.e., %B, B/F,  $B/B^O$ , etc. to the graph plotted from the standards.

- 3. Parameters of Radioimmunoassay (RIA)
- a. Validity
  - (1) Objective

The validity studies of the RIA aim at providing evidence(s) that the assay system is qualitatively and quantitatively measuring the antigen it is set up to measure, and not misinterpreting nonspecific factors in the biological sample.

(2) Requirement

The validity of a RIA requires that:

- (a) Changes in antigen concentration as measured by this assay are consistent with what is known about the physiology of that antigen.
- (b) Demonstration of correlation between the level of the measured antigen in serum and the physiological and pathological status of the gland producing this antigen.
- (c) Demonstration that the concentration of the antigen in the unknown fall linearly with dilution, so that the

concentration in undiluted plasma is independent of the dilution at which the plasma is assayed.

- (d) Demonstration of specificity of the assay, i.e., freedom from interference by substances other than the one intended to be measured.
- (e) Obtaining good recovery for an added amount of the standard antigen to samples containing various amounts of the endogenous antigen.
- (3) Effect of Nonspecific Factors on the Validity

Several nonspecific factors in the environment of the assay can affect the accuracy of the RIA. Of these, pH, ionic strength, temperature and serum proteins. These factors affect the assay by modifying the rate of the primary Ag-Ab reaction and/or by exerting some effect on the antigen making it not free to bind to the antibody (serum protein binding). Since RIA is dependent entirely on a comparison between the standards and unknowns, identity between the two must be achieved by methodological modification of the assay. For that reason, and since serum protein are found to affect Ag-Ab interaction (58) and bind some of the antigen in the serum, it is necessary when assaying samples directly (without extraction) that the standard antigen be prepared in antigen-free plasma, or Ag-free plasma added to the standards assay tubes. Binding of the Ag to serum protein in the standard and unknown can be estimated by running simultaneously a nonspecific binding control which determines the % labeled antigen bound to plasma proteins in absence of the Ab. Optimal condition for pH and incubation temperature

should also be selected as to avoid or minimize the effect of these factors on the antigen-antibody interaction.

#### b. Sensitivity

The sensitivity of the RIA is defined as the smallest amount of unlabeled antigen that can be distinguished from no antigen (59). Also, it can be defined in terms of the slope of the dose-response curve. Maximum sensitivity of an assay is ultimately dependent on the affinity constant, K, which characterize the energy of the Ag-Ab reaction (60).

For a given antisera, sensitivity of the assay is greatest at higher dilution of that antisera. For a given antibody and labeled antigen, sensitivity is greatest when labeled antigen with highest specific activity is used. This is because less labeled antigen can be used, thus relatively greater change in the labeled Ag distribution is brought about by minute amounts of unlabeled antigen. One of the greatest advantages of the RIA over other clinical procedures is the high sensitivity resulting from the nature of Ag-Ab interaction and the high specific activity of the labeled antigen produced.

### c. Precision and/or Reproducibility

Precision is defined as "the extent to which a given set of measurements of the same sample agrees with the mean of that set" (59). It, thus, refers to the magnitude of the random error and it demonstrates what is called the reproducibility of the measurement. For a validated assay, precision and reproducibility are the same. The main factor influencing reproducibility, the duplication of the

values within or between assays, is the difference in individual technique in carrying out the same operation. To determine the reproducibility, one should perform replicate determination for the same sample(s) in the same assay or in separate assays.

In RIA precision is not uniform at different concentrations of the measured antigen, and it depends on the extent of change in the labeled antigen distribution between the bound and free fractions brought about by a given amount of antigen. However, unlike sensitivity, it is not dependent on the K value of the antibody (61).

#### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The chromatographic methods for the determination of serum  $\mathbf{T}_3$  level in humans have been found to be too tedious for large scale clinical laboratory usefulness. Also, these methods were found to give artificially elevated values due to the deiodination of  $\mathbf{T}_4$  to  $\mathbf{T}_3$  during the separation of the two hormones. With the rising interest in serum  $\mathbf{T}_3$  level, antibodies against  $\mathbf{T}_3$  were produced in rabbits and several radioimmunoassay procedures were reported. Wide variation of methodological approaches were used in these reports, especially to eliminate TBG effect on the assay. It was also evident in these reports that the normal  $\mathbf{T}_3$  level varies within wide range. It is the goal of this study to study the methodological variables of  $\mathbf{T}_3$  RIA and to evaluate their effect on the  $\mathbf{T}_3$  value, after developing an accurate and practical procedure which utilizes the commercially available antibodies.

In that quest the following variables were studied, compared, and optimal conditions leading to an accurate determination were selected.

- 1.  $T_3$  antibodies (from commercial sources)
- 2. Methods of eliminating TBG effect on the assay
- Methods for separating the bound and free fractions
- 4. Effect of pH, incubation time and temperature The final procedure thus selected was evaluated for its accuracy, sensitivity and reproducibility. In the second phase of this study the effects of the methodological variables on the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value were evaluated.

#### Section III

## Review and Evaluation of T3 Radioimmunoassays

Several radioimmunoassays for the determination of serum  $T_3$  have been developed in the past four years. However, wide variations in the reported serum  $T_3$  value have been observed in these reports and there seems to be no general agreement on the  $T_3$  level in human serum. This variation has been attributed mainly to methodological variation and partially to regional variation in iodine intake (38). In order to evaluate the result of the reported methods, it is necessary to recognize the technical problems associated with this assay and the complication raised by the different approaches used to resolve these problems.

- I. Major Problems Encountered in the Direct Radioimmunoassay of  $T_{\rm 3}$  Are:
- A. The presence of  $T_4$ , which is very similar in structure and exists in human serum at much higher concentrations than  $T_3$ . This fact requires antibodies used in this assay to be highly specific for  $T_3$ .
- B. The in vitro binding of  $T_3$  to some serum proteins with rather high affinity; TBG and to a lesser extent to TBPA and human serum albumin. This phenomenon is of critical importance for the  $T_3$  assay, and it might affect the  $T_3$  value in several ways depending on the assay conditions:

- 1. When serum proteins bind the labeled antigen,  $T_3 {}^{125}I$ , it becomes not free to compete with the unlabeled antigen for binding sites on the Ab. This would result in either an overestimation or underestimation of the  $T_3$  value depending on the method used to separate the bound and the free fraction as it will be discussed later in Paragraph 4.
- 2. By binding of the unlabeled antigen,  $T_3$  to serum proteins it becomes unavailable to compete with the free tracer  $T_3$   $^{125}I$ , thus leading to underestimation of  $T_3$  value.
- 3. The extent of binding of both labeled and unlabeled antigen will vary depending on the affinity of the antibodies used in the assay, and other assay conditions. If the antibodies used have very high affinity to  $T_3$ , the binding to serum protein becomes less significant than when low affinity antibodies are used.
- 4. The end result effect of binding to serum protein on serum  $T_3$  value will depend on the method used to separate the free fraction from the bound fraction upon completion of the assay reaction. If the second antibody technique is used to precipitate the bound fraction, this precipitate will not include the serum protein-bound tracer, thus leading to less  $T_3$   $^{125}I$  in the bound fraction of the unknown than in the standard containing the same amount of  $T_3$  but contains no serum proteins, this is interpreted as overestimation of the displacement produced by endogenous  $T_3$  in the unknown. Whereas, if DCC (dextran coated charcoal) is used to adsorb the free fraction, the bound fraction will contain the serum protein-bound  $T_3$   $^{125}I$  leading to falsely

higher %B in the unknown over the standard which contains similar level of  $T_3$  but no serum proteins which in turn is interpreted as lower than the actual  $T_3$  value. This effect will be significant only if no serum proteins are used in the standard curve which should be set up to bring about the same protein environment as in the unknowns.

- C. Approaches Used to Eliminate or Minimize the Effect of Serum Proteins
- 1. Use of Inhibitors which block  $T_3$  binding to TBG and sometimes TBPA. Inspection of the reported direct RIAs for  $T_3$  show that this methodology has varied not only in the substance used to block  $T_3$  binding to serum proteins, but also in the concentration of this substance.

Substances used to block  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathfrak{F}}$  - binding to serum TBG:

- a. Merthiolate (ethylmercurithiosalicylic acid)
- b. ANS:8 anilino-l-napthalene sulphonic acid
- c. TCT (Tetrachlorothyronine)
- d. T, (Thyroxine)
- e. Sodium salicylate (Na-Sal)
- f. DPH (Diphenylhydantoin) or Dilantin

These substances are added in vitro to inhibit binding of  $T_3$  -  $^{125}I$  to TBG and to displace  $T_3$  already bound to that protein, thus making both labeled and unlabeled  $T_3$  free to compete for antibody binding sites. Table (1) gives authors who have used each one and the concentration used.

The mechanism of action of these substances is not well under-

stood. It is thought that they act through some similarity in structure occupying the binding sites on TBG and sometimes TBPA. Thyroxine  $(T_4)$ and teterachlorothyronine (TCT) have almost identical structures, only one halogen more than  $T_3$ . ANS is a substituted napthalene and was found to inhibit  $T_4$  binding to serum proteins (62). Merthiolate, which is commonly used as a bacteriostatic agent, belongs to the salicylate group. Salicylates are known to increase free  $T_4$  by blocking its binding to TBG and TBPA (20, 30, 31). DPH has diphenyl structure which is one of the chemical structures that bind TBG. The ideal performance of these inhibitors is effective inhibition of  $T_3$  binding to TBG, noninterference with  $\mathrm{T}_3$  - Ab interaction, and having good solubility and stability at the assay conditions. Criterion for effective inhibition have not, unfortunately, been established by many authors who used these substances. A good criterion set up by Chopra et al in their second report (63) requires that the binding of  $T_3$  -  $^{125}I$ to the Ab in buffer environment be equal to or close to, its binding to the Ab when serum proteins and the inhibitor are added to the system. This would indicate that the presence of serum proteins ( $T_3$  - free serum) has no significant effect on the reaction and that the inhibitor does not affect the antibody (no cross reactivity). Therefore, the type and concentration of the inhibitor should be selected on this basis to achieve effective inhibition and valid  $T_3$  value.

Chopra and coworkers (64) have attempted to saturate the assay system with  $T_4$ . Theoretically,  $T_4$  will displace  $T_3$  from TBG binding sites because of its much greater affinity for TBG. But the known

contamination of  $T_4$  preparations with varying amounts of  $T_3$ , carry the risk of introducing an unknown quantity of exogenous  $T_3$ , because the amount of  $T_4$  added to each sample depends on the endogenous  $T_4$  of the sample which has to be determined beforehand. Furthermore, the added  $T_4$  might augment difficulties due to cross reaction with  $T_3$  antibody. In their second report, Chopra et al (63) found ANS to be an effective inhibitor which showed no cross reactivity at the level used for the assay (Table 1). In a comparison study done by Hufner (65), ANS was found to be a very potent inhibitor; however, those authors found it to affect the antigen antibody reaction. This effect decreased if  $T_3$  - free serum is present.

Merthiolate was reported not to interfere with  $T_3$  - Ab binding (65). However, Sterling (66) has shown there is cross-activity when the compound is used in high concentrations. Gharib et al (67) obtained higher values for serum  $T_3$  than any other reports on  $T_3$  RIA (Table 3). In their complete report they used merthiolate, however, they show no evidence for effective inhibition of  $T_3$  binding to serum proteins. Furthermore,  $T_3$  - free serum was not used in the setting of their standard curves. This may have led to the overestimation of  $T_3$  value due to the nonidentical protein environment in the standards and the unknowns. Merthiolate was found to be a weaker inhibitor by Hufner (65) who used it however, with higher pH (9.0-9.2), because at higher pH the binding affinity of  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  is decreased (33, 68).

Diphenylhydantoin, used by Utiger and Lieblich (18), does not

seem to interfere with the antigen antibody reaction. In their method, however, Utiger et al used 4% BSA solution in the standard curve to substitute for  $T_3$  - free serum. This is close to human serum albumin concentration but does not represent all serum proteins. disadvantage of DPH is its limited solubility at the pH usually used for RIA. Teterachlorthyronine was used by Mitsuma et al (27) and found to be an effective inhibitor, but in later evaluation by Hufner, it was found to be an unstable compound and that it interfered in the Ag-Ab reaction by cross reacting with  ${
m T}_3$  antibody, probably due to its content of trichlorothyronine. Addition of these compounds to the reaction mixture introduces an important methodological variable, and unless their effectiveness and concentration has been established for the particular assay system, they might lead to artifacts. Sodium salicylate was found by Larsen (31) to be an effective inhibitor of  $T_3$  binding to TBG. Comparing it to ANS, Hufner found salicylate to be a potent blocker to TBG binding and it has less effect on  $T_3$  antibody than ANS. Another practical advantage of salicylate is its stability in solution, thus not requiring the preparation of fresh solution for each run. This is an advantage over ANS which should be made up for each run because of its photosensitivity.

#### 2. Heat Inactivation of TBG

Another approach was sought to eliminate or minimize TBG effect on this assay is the use of heat inactivation of serum proteins at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Sterling and his coworkers (34) found that TBG loses its ability to bind  $T_4$  if serum is heated for 20 minutes at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Recently

those authors have applied this observation to  $T_3$  radioimmunoassay (66). They used heat inactivation for 3 hours at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; however, they found that the addition of merthiclate was essential to block, binding of  $T_3$  to TBPA and without the use of merthiclate higher serum  $T_3$  values were obtained. Despite the use of the heat and merthiclate at 1  $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$  of serum, the values obtained by those authors were higher than most reported values and close to the values of Mayberry et al who used only merthiclate at 1  $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$  but did not include  $T_3$  - free serum in the standards assay. Therefore, this approach does not seem to offer any advantage over the use of a good inhibitor. They also did not study the effect of heating at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  on the antigen-antibody reaction.

## II. Sensitivity of $T_3$ Radioimmunoassays

Sensitivity is an essential requirement of  $T_3$  RIA because of the very low level of  $T_3$  in human serum. From Tables 1 and 3 it is apparent that most of the methods were able to detect the low hypothyroid level, except in the first report of Chopra et al (64). The lack of sensitivity in that assay can be attributed in part to the low affinity of the antibody which was produced using human thyroglobulin as an immunogen (Table 1), to the use of  $T_4$  as the blocking agent of  $T_3$  - TBG binding, and partly to the presence of some  $T_3$  in the hypothyroid sheep serum used in setting up the standard curve.

There is no specific correlation between the type of immunogen used and the affinity of the Ab produced by that immunogen. It should be noted that, besides the affinity of the antibody, other factors such

as antibody dilution, effective inhibition of  $T_3$  binding to serum proteins, delayed addition of the tracer, and method of separation, have significant effect on the sensitivity. Therefore, sensitivity obtained in the various methods cannot be attributed only to the affinity of the Ab. The lower detectable limit of  $T_3$  RIA is between 10-60 pg/assay tube (Table 2). 10 pg/tube corresponds to 40 ng/100 ml, if 25  $\mu$ l of serum is used and to 10 ng/100 ml if 100  $\mu$ l of serum is used as a sample. In most reported assays hypothyroid patients were within the detectable limits.

# III. Sepcificity of the Reported $T_3$ - Antibodies

The production of antibodies specific for  $T_3$  was the key for the valid application of direct RIA to the determination of this hormone. It is very essential that the antibody used has no or insignificant cross reactivity with  $T_4$  which is similar in structure and present in relatively high concentration. The percent cross reactivity of  $T_4$  with the reported  $T_3$  - antibodies varied between .02% to 2.5% (Table 2). These values can't be taken to represent true  $T_4$  cross reactivity with  $T_3$  - antibodies, because commercial  $T_4$  preparation used in most of these studies contains variable amounts of  $T_3$  (67, 38). Mitsuma et al (70) used purified  $T_4$  in their study; therefore, they obtained a value of .02% which can be considered the true cross reactivity of their antibodies. Chopra et al (64) and Stanley et al (69) obtained the highest values (Table 2). This has been attributed to the use of human thyroglobulin (which has  $T_3$  and  $T_4$ ) as an immunogen

by Chopra who later used  $T_3$  - thyroglobulin conjugate (produced by coupling more  $T_3$  to thyroglobulin) to obtain better specificity. Stanley observed an improvement in specificity if the same antibodies are used in solid phase methodology (69). All the antibodies listed in Table 2 appear to possess satisfactory specificity to be used for serum  $T_3$  measurement. There is no correlation between the relatively higher  $T_3$  values obtained by Gharib et al (67) and Sterling (66) and the cross reactivity of their antibodies with  $T_4$ . This is probably due to the other methodological variable in each assay.

TABLE 1

Inhibitors, Extraction Methods, and Separation Methods Used in Different Reports on  $\mathrm{T}_3\mathrm{RIA}$ 

Author	Method of Eliminating	Concentration	Method
&	Serum Proteins Effect	of Inhibitor	Used for
Ref.	7	Used Per ⊬1 Serum	Separation
Brown et al (56)	Extraction		
Mitsuma et al (70)	TCT	2 μ <sub>g</sub> /μ1	MCCC
Gharib et al (67)	Merthiolate	1 μg/μ1	DA
Chopra et al (64)	T <sub>4</sub>	6 µg/µ1	DA
Chopra et al (63)	ANS	1 μg/μ1	DA
Sekadde et al (75)	ANS	1.1 µg/µ1	PEG
Utiger et al (18)	DPH	0.5 μ <sub>g</sub> /μ <sub>1</sub>	DA
Surks et al (78)	Extraction		DCC
Patel & Burger (77)	Extraction		DA
Evered & Hesch (74)	Na-Salicylate	50 μg/μ1	DCC
Larsen, P. L. (73)	Na-Salicylate	30 μg/μ1	DCC
Hufner & Hesch (68)	Merthiolate	1 µg/µ1	DCC
Sakurada et al (72)	DPH or DNP or Extra		DCC
Shimizu et al (71)	Extraction		Sephadex
Stanley et al (69)	Solid Phase	h <u></u>	
Sterling, K. (66)	Heat at 60 <sup>0</sup> C and Merthiolate	1 μg/μ1	PEG
Rubenstein et al (79)	Extraction		DA

# Abbreviations :

## Merthiolate

T <sub>4</sub>	Thyroxine
ANS	$\hbox{8-Anilino-l-napthalene-sulfonic acid}\\$
DPH	Diphenyl hydantoin
DNP	Dinitrophenol
DA	Double Antibody
DCC	Dextran Coated Charcoal
MCCC	Methyl Cellulose Coated Charcoal
PEG	Polyethylene Glycol
TCT	Teterachlorothyronine

Author & Ref.	Immunogen used for Ab Production	T <sub>4</sub> Cross Reactivity %	Sensitivity <sup>,</sup> Pg/assay tube
Brown et al (56)	T <sub>3</sub> ME-SPLL	2.0	20
Mitsuma et al (70)	T <sub>3</sub> ME-PLL	0.02 (P)	12.5
Gharib et al (67)	T <sub>3</sub> -HSA	0.1-0.3	50
Chopra et al (64)	Tg (human)	1.3	400
Chopra et al (63)	T <sub>3</sub> - Tg	0.05	
Sekadde et al (75)	T <sub>3</sub> - HSA	0.2	
Utiger et al (18)	T <sub>3</sub> - HSA	0.14	60
Surks et al (78)	T <sub>3</sub> - BSA	0.1-0.2	30
Patel and Burger (77)	$T_3 - BSA$	0.2-1.2	
Evered and Hesch (74)	T <sub>3</sub> ME - BSA	0.1	
Larsen, P. L. (73)	$T_3 - BSA$	0.11	25
Hufner and Hesch (68)	T <sub>3</sub> ME - BSA	0.3-0.5	10
Sakurada et al (72)	T <sub>3</sub> ME - BSA	0.21	
Shimizu et al (71)	$T_3 - BSA$	0.071	
Stanley et al (69)	$T_3 - BSA$	2.5	50
Sterling, K. (66)	T <sub>3</sub> - BSA	0.5-1.4	10
Rubestein et al (79)	T <sub>3</sub> - BSA	0.3	25

## Abbreviations

 $T_3^{ME} = T_3^{ME}$  Methyl ester

SPLL = Succinylated Poly-L-Lysine

PLL = Poly-L-Lysine

HSA = Human Serum Albumin

BSA = Bovine Serum Albumin

(P) = Purified  $T_4$  used for cross reactivity study

Tg = Thyroblobulin

\* Minimum detectable amount

TABLE 3 Concentration of T $_3$  (ng/100 ml) in Human Serum in Normal and Abnormal Thyroid States as Obtained by Different RIAs

Source & Ref.	Euthyroid Mean ± SD or Range	Hypothyroid Mean ± SD or Range	Hyperthyroid Mean ± SD or Range
Brown et al (56)	75 - 160	<75	290 - 860
Mitsuma et al (70)	138 ± 23	62 ± 9	494 ± 265
Gharib et al (67)	$215 \pm 43$	103 ± 43	760 ± 289
Chopra et al (64)	100 - 170	undetectable	160 - 1300
Chopra et al (63)	112.8 ± 3.3	40.1 ± 7.6	490.7 ± 42.3
Sekadde et al (75)	146 ± 25	50	367 ± 99
Utiger et al (18)	145 ± 25	99 ± 24	429 ± 146
Surks et al (78)	146 ± 24	44 ± 26	665 ± 289
Hesch & Burger (77)	130 (mean)	38 - 127	450 (Mean)
Evered & Hesch (74)	$126 \pm 23$	107	177 -1188
Larsen, P. R. (73)	110 ± 25	39 ± 21	188 - 2380
Hufner & Hesch (68)	120 ± 30		
Sakurada et al (72)		-	
Shimizu et al (71)	148 ± 24	52 ± 20	425 ± 110
Stanley et al (69)		<del>-</del>	
Sterling et al (66)	189 ± 30	47 ± 39	838 ± 398
Rubenstein et al (79)	119 ± 6.3(*)	20 - 92	76 – 556

<sup>(\*)</sup> Difference due to age was observed by this group (5-9) years old have 140.8ng/100 ml (80-93) years old have 92.2 ng/100 ml

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### I. Materials and Equipment

#### A. Materials

- 1. Tri-iodothyronine antibodies
  - a. From Wien Laboratories, Inc., Succasunna, N. J.
  - b. From Endocrine Sciences, Tarzana, California
  - c. From Pantex, Malibu, California
- The following materials were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Mo.
  - a. Tri-iodothyronine (T<sub>3</sub>)
    - 3, 3', 5-Triiodo-L-thyronine, free acid
  - b. Thyroxine  $(T_4)$ 
    - 3, 3', 5, 5'-teteraiodo-L-thyronine, free acid.
  - c. Glutamic acid
    - L aminoglutaric acid, free acid.
- Triiodothyronine (T<sub>3</sub>): 3,3', 5-Triiodo-L-thyronine sodium from Schwartz/Mann, Orangeburg, New York
- 4.  $T_3 {}^{125}I$ 
  - a. L-Triiodothyronine, <sup>125</sup>I (liothyronine, T<sub>3</sub>) supplied as the Na-salt in 50% proplylene glycol, Specific activity (80-100 mci/mg) and concentration of 0.1 mci/ml. From Industrial Nuclear Company, St. Louis, Mo.
  - b. 125 I Triiodothyronine solution with specific activity
    (300-400 mci/mg) from Abbott Laboratories. Supplied
    in small quantities through Wien Lab., Inc., Succasunna, N. J.

- 5. ANS, 8-Anilino-1-Napthalene-sulfonic acid. Sodium salt from K and K Laboratories, Inc., Plainview, N. Y.
- 6. Merthiolate (Thimerosal Powder) from Eli LIlly & Co.
  Indianapolis, Ind.
- 7. Barbital Buffer, B-2 Buffer, pH 8.6, ionic strength 0.075 contains 2.76 gm Diethyl Barbituric Acid, 15.40 gm Sodium Diethyl Barbiturate. From Spinco Division of Beckman Instruments, Palo Alto, California.
- 8. The following materials were obtained from Mallinckrodt Checmical Works, St. Louis, Mo.:

  Boric Acid, Na-salicylate, ammonium sulfate, Amberlite IRA-400 (AR), concentrated HCl, concentrated ammonium hydroxide, and sodium hydroxide.
- 9. The following materials were obtained from Matheson Colman and Bell, Los Angeles, California: Sodium Azide, Activated Charcoal Norit A, Tetra-Aml Alcohol (2 methyl-2-butanol).
- 10. Ion exchange resins (all were Analytical Grade)

  AG 50 W X 2 100-200 mesh (H) form

  AG 50 W X 8 20-50 mesh (H) form

  AG 50 W X 4 50-100 mesh (H) form

  Ion exchange columns "Tri-count" and Ion exchange columns

  "Tetra count"

  All were purchased from BioRad Laboratories, Richmond,

  California.

- 11. Bovine Serum Albumin powder, Metrix, Chicaog, Illinois (Reagent Grade).
- 12. Polyethylene Glycol 6000 and Hexane, from J. T. Baker Checmical Co., Phillipsburg, N. J.
- Propylene glycol from Fisher-Scientific Company,
   Fairlawn, N. J.
- 14. Dextran T70 from Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Inc., Piscataway, N. J.
- 15. Versatol Pediatric Control serum from Warner-Lambert Company, Morris Plains, N. J.
- 16. Anti IgG (second antibody) solution from Pantex, Malibu, California
- 17. Gamma Globulin, Fraction II from Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Mo.

All reagents were Analytical or Reagent Grade

#### B. Equipment

1. Test Tubes

12 x 75 mm and 17 x 150 mm from Falcon Plastics, Oxnard, California.

- 2. Micropipets
  - a. Lang-Levy type: Ultrapette pipets size from 10  $\mu l$  200  $\mu l$  from Scientific Products, Evanston, Illinois or from Interex Corp., Waltham, Mass.
  - b. Eppendorff microliter pipet 100, 200, 500  $\mu l$  from Brinkman Instrument, Inc., Cartiague Road, Westbury, N. Y.

- Packard Automatic Counter with Tri-Carb Scintillation Spectrometer Model 2002. Packard Instrument Company, Inc., Downers Grove, Ill.
- 4. Automatic Gamma Well Counting Systems. Nuclear-Chicago Corporation, Des Plains, Ill.
- Automatic Refrigerated Centrifuge
   Sorval General Purpose RC-3 from Ivan Sorval, Inc.,
   Newton, Connecticut.
- 6. Water Bath A

  Temp. Range room temperature to 70°C from Chicago

  Surgical and Electrical Company, Chicago, Illinois.
- 7. Water Bath B

  Temp Range room temperature to 70°C from Chicago Surgical and Electrical Company, Chicago, Illinois.
- 8. pH Meter

  Cenco, Centeral Scientific Company
- Millipore Filter Swinnex-25, Millipore Corporation,
   Bedford, Mass.
- 10. Calculator
  Litton Monroe 1320, Monroe, Orange, N. J.

## 11. Computer

Oregon State University Computer Center through Terminal at the University of Oregon Medical School, Department of Clinical Pathology.

#### II METHODS

## A. Reagents Preparation

1.  $T_3$  - Free Serum Preparation ( $T_3$  1 FS)

To establish a similar protein environment in the standards and in the unknowns, human serum from which  $T_3$  was removed was added to the standards.  $T_3$  - free serum was prepared as follows:  $T_3$  -  $^{125}\mathrm{I}$ , to give approximately 10,000 counts/ml, was added to 100 ml of pooled human serum and incubated at  $^{40}\mathrm{C}$  for two hours. Then about 7 g of Norit A declorizing charcoal were added per 100 ml of serum and mixed at room temperature for a period of three hours with a magnetic bar. The mixture was then centrifuged initially for 15 minutes and then for four successive 45 minute periods at 3800 g in a refrigerated centrifuge. The clear supernate was removed after each centrifugation. Following that, it was found essential to remove the very fine remaining charcoal particles by filtration through a 0.45  $\mu$  millipore filter. Efficiency of the treatment in removing  $T_3$  was calculated as follows:

In earlier studies to estimate the required time of incubation with charcoal, longer time fo incubation was used but found to be not necessary (Table 7). Ion exchange resin IRA 400 was also used but found to require

longer incubation time and is more expensive; however, it is "cleaner" to work with.

Quality control testing on  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathfrak{F}}$  - free serum preparation

- a. To evaluate the  $T_3$  binding capacity of this preparation, the  $T_3$  resin uptake (Abbott Trisorb) was performed (Table 9).
- b. To determine the amount of  $T_4$  remaining, thyroxine level by competitive protein binding was done before and after treatment of serum (Table 9).
- c. To further investigate  $T_3$  content of this preparation,  $T_3$  determination by RIA was done on 50  $\mu l$  of a sample with and without 50  $\mu l$  of  $T_3$  FS (Table 8).
- 2. Dilutent is a buffer (Barbital or Borate) containing 0.5

  Gamma Globulin Fraction II or 0.5% BSA (Bovine Serum Albumin). This
  solution was kept refrigerated when not in use.
  - 3. Preparation of standard solutions of  $T_3$

25 mg of T<sub>3</sub> (Free acid, Sigma) was dissolved in a 250 ml volumetric flask with 9N NaOH which was added until a clear solution was obtained. The volume then was completed to 250 ml with buffer (Barbital or Borate) containing 0.5% Gamma Globulin Fraction II. That gave a 100 µg/ml solution. Working standards containing 10, 5, 1, and 0.5 ng/ml were made by further dilution of the stock standard with buffer containing 0.5% BSA and sodium azide 0.2%. These working standards were aliquoted in 1 ml amounts into plastic tubes and kept frozen at -20°C. For useage, one tube or more of each working standard was

thawed and 100  $\mu l$  was used per assay tube to give 50, 100, 500, 1000 pg/tube. When 250 pg/tube was included, 50  $\mu l$  of 5 ng/ml working solution was used and diluted to 100  $\mu l$  with 50  $\mu l$  diluent.

4. Preparation of  $T_3 - {}^{125}I$  Solution

Radioactive  $T_3$  -  $^{125}I$  was supplied from two sources: the Wien Laboratories Inc., material which was supplied in small amounts was diluted with buffer to give 80-100 pg/100  $\mu l$  of solution. The tracer supplied by Industrial Nuclear was also diluted with buffer (60 - 100 pg/100  $\mu l$ ). All solutions were kept at  $^{6}C$  when not in use and brought up to room temperature before use.

5. Preparation of  $T_3$  Antibody Solution

The antibody was supplied in lypholyzed form and reconstituted with diluent as follows:

- a. Antibody from Wien: each vial was reconstituted with 5 ml diluent to give a 1:500 dilution of the original antiserum. Further dilution was made according to the desired final dilution to be used in the experiment 1:5000 to 1:10,000.
- b.  $T_3$  Antibody from Endocrine Sciences: Each small vial containing freeze-dried antibody was reconstituted with deionized water according to the instructions on the vial to give a 1/20 dilution. This was further diluted to 1:70 in diluent solution to give 1:1400 dilution. One hundred  $\mu l$  of the this solution was used per assay tube which had a total volume of 0.5 ml. Thus the final dilution of the antibody is 1:7000.

All antibodies were kept refrigerated when not in use.

#### 6. Buffers

a. Borate Buffer 0.2 M pH 8.5 or 9.0, 0.05% sodium azide. In a one liter volumetric flask 12.35g reagent grade boric acid crystals, 6 ml of 9N NaOH, and 0.5g of sodium azide were mixed and the volume was completed gradually to the 1000 ml mark with deionized water. The solution was mixed until all the crystals were dissolved. The pH was checked with a pH meter and adjusted to 8.5 or 9.0 with 1N NaOH or 1N HCl.

b. Barbital Buffer pH = 8.6 ionic strength 0.075 supplied in bags. Contains 2.75 g diethyl barbituric acid, 15.40 gm sodium diethyl barbiturate. The contents of bag was dissolved in 1000 ml deionized water and the pH adjusted when needed to 8.6 with 1N NaOH or 1N HCl.

#### c. Glutamate Buffer, pH = 3.3

Glutamic acid, 1.2g was dissolved in 200 ml of water. One ml of KCN solution (4g/liter) was added. The pH was checked and adjusted to 3.3 with molar HCl or NaOH if necessary. Stable for six months at room temperature.

#### 7. Ammonium Sulfate

To 1000 ml of deionized water increasing amounts of  $(\mathrm{NH_4})_2\mathrm{SO_4}$  was added and mixed till excess crystals were seen despite mixing for 2 hours using automatic shaker. Various solutions, 80%, 60% and 40% were prepared by diluting the saturated solution with deionized water or buffer.

8. Polyethylene glycol solution

To prepare a solution of PEG the weighed amounts were put in volumetric flasks and deionized water added and mixed slowly. Then the mixture was left at room temperature for 20 minutes (to hydrate PEG), and the volume completed with deionized water. Forty, 30, 20 and 17% W/V solutions were prepared in that manner.

- 9. Dextran Coated Charcoal Suspension:
- a. Solution of dextran: One-half gram of Dextran 70 was mixed till dissolved in 100 ml barbital buffer pH = 8.6.
- b. Charcoal suspension: 5 g of charcoal, Norit A was suspended in 100 ml of buffer using a magnetic bar. Equal volumes of (a) and (b) were mixed for 1 minute and then refrigerated for at least 2 hours before use. It was always used cold. This suspension was found to be stable for at least three months.

#### B. Equipments Check

- 1. Automatic Gamma Counter (Packard)
- a. Spectrometer setting for <sup>125</sup>I counting The optimal gain level was found at 900 (coarse) and 10 (fine gain) and kept constant after calibration. Base of 26 and window of 200 KEV was found best for optimal efficiency and elimination of instrument noise. Background counts at these settings was 40-60 CPM and the use of wide window (200) did not increase the background radiation and led to better stability than the use of narrow window of 100 or less.
  - b. Estimation of counting error at different levels.

Counting error was estimated by counting the same tube 15-24 times each for 1 minute. The standard deviation (SD) and coefficient of variation (CV) was calculated to represent % counting error. This procedure was followed at different levels of counts ranging from background level (50 CPM) to 50,000 CPM. Table (4) gives the results of this study.

TABLE 4

Estimation of Counting Error of Gamma Counter (Packard)

Exp. No.	CPM Range	Mean	SD	No. of Deter- mination	CV or % Error
1	43-62	54	6.5	17	11.8
2	1465-1603	1451	43.83	21	2.84
3	9599-9978	9795	110.41	24	1.12
4	20310-21060	20617	177.72	20	0.80
5	54900-55400	55100	250.00	15	0.41

It is clear that the counting error decreases significantly as the accumulated counts increased.

c. Effect of change in volume of solution counted on the efficiency of the gamma counter (Packard). The effect of increasing the volume of the solution counted was assessed by increasing the volume of the same amount of  $T_3$  with deionized water and counting

the tube 10 times after each increase. Table (5) gives the observed change.

Volume	Counts (Mean)	# of Determination
0.3 m1	20617	(10)
0.6 ml	20390	(10)
1.4 m1	19454	(10)

Only increase in volume above 1 ml has decreased the observed counts significantly. This experiment was done under the same conditions (geometry and type of tubes) used for routine counting throughout the study.

- 2. Precision of microliter pipets
  - a. Lang-Levy pipet (100 41)
  - b. Eppendorf pipet (100 µ1)

Those pipets were usually used to add  $T_3^{125}I$  to the assay. To determine the CV of the amount of tracer delivered by these pipets,  $T_3^{125}I$  solution was pipetted into a series of 15 plastic tubes and a one minute count was taken for each tube.

Pipetting error was estimated by subtracting the counting error from the observed error in this experiment (Table 6).

TABLE 6
Comparison of the Microliters Pipets

	Lang-Levy (10041)	Eppendorf (100 H1)
Counts Range	54121-55300	19432-20540
Mean	54608 .	19874
SD	422	329.8
cv	0.77%	1.60
No. of Determination	15	15
Counting error	0.50%	0.86
Pipetting error	0.27%	0.74

Lang-Levy gave better precision; however, using this pipet for many tubes is tedious and for the purpose of adding the tracer Eppendorf pipet was used routinely.

# C. Experimental T<sub>3</sub> Radioimmunoassay Procedure

This basic procedure was followed while studying the effect of different variables on the assay. Any departure from this procedure is specified in the appropriate experiment.

## 1. Dose Response Curve (standard curve)

A standard curve was set up for each run of  $\ensuremath{\mathrm{T}}_3$  RIA following this basic protocol.

In 15 x 75 plastic tubes, add:

100  $\mu$ 1  $T_3$  - free serum

100  $\mu$ l T<sub>3</sub> standard solution containing 0, 50, 100, 250, 500, or 800 pg T<sub>3</sub>/100  $\mu$ l

1-400  $\mu 1$  Diluent. The amount added depends on the antibody dilution and the method used to separate free and bound fractions

Inhibitor solution (when no inhibitor was used,  $100~\mu l$  of diluent replaced it.)

100 µl  $T_3^{125}$ I solution (contains 60-100 pg  $T_3^{125}$ I)

100  $\mu$ l  $T_3$  - antibody solution (dilution of which is determined for the particular experiment.)

Each standard was run in duplicate or tiplicate. Standard with no  $T_3$  antibody was called Blank or  $B^0$ . Nonspecific binding controls contain all constituents listed above except  $T_3$  antibody and  $T_3$  standard solution. To replace these, 200  $\mu l$  of diluent is added.

#### 2. Samples

Samples were set up the same way as standard except for the use of 100  $\mu 1$  of the serum sample to replace  $T_3$  - free serum and 100  $\mu 1$  of diluent to replace the standard solution. When less than 100  $\mu 1$  of serum was used to determine the  $T_3$  level of a sample, the volume was completed to 100  $\mu 1$  with  $T_3$  - free serum.

## 3. Incubation Time and Temperature

Initially two incubation periods were used, first at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30--45 minutes, and second at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 90--120 minutes.

4. Separation of Bound from Free Fraction

Separation of the bound from free fraction was achieved by one of the following:

- a. Dextran coated charcoal (DCC)
- b. 45% saturated ammonium sulfate (SAS)
- c. Polyethylene glycol (PEG)
- d. Ion exchange resins

The procedure followed when these methods were used will be described under Separation Method Study.

- 5. Calculation and Standard Curve Plot (graphic representation)
  Two types of plots were used:
- a.  $T_3$  standards concentration in picogram/tube (horizontal axis) against  $B/B^O$  on the vertical axis. To obtain  $B/B^O$  values the following formula was used.

$$% B/B^{O} = \frac{B - NSB}{B^{O} - NSB} \times 100$$

Where B = CPM in the bound fraction of the standard or unknown. NSB = Average counts found in the nonspecific binding control (Triplicate).  $B^O = Average$  counts found in the zero standard (Blank  $B^O$ ) (Triplicate). Linear graph paper was used.

b.  $T_3$  standards concentration in picogram/tube against  $B^O/B$ . To obtain  $B^O/B$  values the following formula was used:

$$\frac{B^{O}}{B} = \frac{B^{O} - NSB}{B - NSB}$$

Average of the ratios of each standard level was plotted.

Linearization: To obtain the equation for the line of best fit, these ratios ( $B^{\circ}/B$ ) were fed into the department terminal of a computer with the corresponding  $T_3$  concentration as ng per tube. Pearson r (correlation coefficient) and the equation of the line was obtained. Linearization of the standard curve was considered valid only if the correlation coefficient (r) was 0.99 and above for the five points usually used (.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, and lng/tube).

#### D. Titration of Antisera

Antibody titer was assessed by adding increased amounts of the antisera to a series of assay tubes containing constant amounts of  $T_3$  -  $^{125}I$  (100 pg) in diluent. Volume was completed to 0.9 ml in all tubes with diluent. After incubation at  $37^{\circ}C$  for 30 minutes and at  $^{\circ}C$  for 2 hours, free and bound fraction were separated by DCC. The %B radioactivity was determined (NSB was not subtracted) and plotted against the amounts of antisera added. Figure (1) shows Wien Ab titration curve and Figure (2) shows Endocrine Sciences Ab titer curve. The amount of these antisera which bind 60-65% of the  $T_3$  -  $^{125}I$  added was used for radioimmunoassay of  $T_3$ . However, at certain occasions higher dilution of these antibodies were used (30-40%B).

Comparison of two lots of antisera from Endocrine Sciences was done. Table (10) shows the results of simultaneous titer of both lots.

# E. Evaluation and Selection of a Mean to Eliminate the Effect of $\frac{T_3-Binding\ Proteins\ on\ T_3}{Binding\ Proteins\ on\ T_3}$ Radioimmunoassay

1. Evaluation of substances used to inhibit  $T_3$ -binding to TBG

The objective of this study was to compare the effectiveness of the three most commonly used inhibitors, ANS, sodium salicylate, and merthicalte, and to determine the optimal concentration for effective inhibition under actual assay conditions.

Preliminary experiments by several authors (63, 64, 70), showed that  $T_3$ -binding proteins in serum, such as TBG, interfere in  $T_3$  RIA by competing with  $T_3$ -antibody for the tracer  $T_3$ - $^{125}I$  and  $T_3$ . Thus the amount of  $T_3$ - $^{125}I$  bound to the antibody is decreased when  $T_3$ -free serum is added to the assay. The criterion of effectiveness of an inhibitor is its ability to make the binding of  $T_3$ - $^{125}I$  to the Ab in the presence of  $T_3$ -free serum and the inhibitor equal to its binding to the Ab in absence of  $T_3$ -free serum.

To compare these substances, a series of blanks (contain  $100~\mu 1~T_3$ -free serum,  $100~1~T_3^{125} I$  and 100~1~diluent) was set up and put into three groups, A, B, and C. To group A, 0~-~0.15~g/dl of ANS was added. To group B increased amounts of 0~-~1.5g/dl sodium salicylate was added. To group C, 0~-~0.15~g/dl merthiclate was added. In the same run a quadruplet of tubes containing the same amounts of Ab and  $T_3^{-125} I$  but no  $T_3$ -free serum was run. Volume of final assay mixture was kept at 0.5~ml in all tubes by adding buffer when needed.

The experiment above was also set up using normal serum sample instead of  $T_3$ -Free serum); but only with sodium salicylate. This was done

to compare the inhibition pattern in the presence of unlabeled  $\mathbf{T}_3$ , (Figure 4).

All tubes were incubated for 30 minutes at  $37^{\circ}C$  and then at  $4^{\circ}C$  for 2 hours. Separation was achieved by 45% saturated ammonium sulfate (SAS) and radioactivity in the bound fraction was determined for each tube. %B (B/T x 100) was determined and averaged for each duplicate and plotted against the inhibitor concentration on linear graph paper, (Figure 3 and Figure 4).

- 2. Evaluation of heat inactivation of TBG.
  - a. Heat inactivation of TBG at 60°C.

To study this method, the following experimental run was set up.

- (1) Standards and four serum samples were set up with the use of ANS (0.06 g/dl) as inhibitor following the basic  $T_3$  RIA procedure.
- (2) Standards and the four samples were set up with the use of heat inactivation at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 45 minutes.  $\text{T}_3$ -free serum in the standard tubes, and serum samples were put in plastic tubes and heated at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  in a water bath for 45 minutes then cooled on ice for 10 minutes. Following that, the  $\text{T}_3$  RIA procedure described was followed.
- (3) A third group of standards and the four samples were set up without any inhibitor or heat inactivation.

General  $T_3$  RIA procedure was followed and separation by DCC. Ab from Wien was used at dilution of 1:5,000. Figure (6) compares the standard curves obtained under these conditions and Table (12) compares the samples  $T_3$  values obtained from the corresponding standard curve.

## b. Heat inactivation of TBG at $100^{\circ}$ C

In order to decrease the time of heat inactivation, we sought the use of higher temperature. In preliminary trials, we found that heating the sera above  $60^{\circ}$ C led to precipitation of the denatured proteins, and the use of higher temperatures requires low pH to avoid that precipitation.

Our preliminary work to determine the assay condition using heat inactivation at  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  led to the following findings.

- Low pH is very essential in the range of 3.3 (glutamic buffer) (80) because when acetate buffer at pH 4.6 was used, serum protein precipitated upon heating.
- 2. The amount of glutamic buffer with which the serum is heated is dependent on the amount of serum used, for  $100~\mu l$  of serum, we found that 0.6~ml of buffer is essential to insure solubility of the denatured proteins.
- 3. Restoring the pH usually used for the assay (8.6-9.0) is possible by adding high pH solution of 12.2 (Barbital buffer and 1 N NaOH), and does not cause reprecipitation of serum proteins.
- 4. Plastic tubes generally used cannot tolerate heat at  $100^{\circ}$ C for 15 minutes. Therefore, precoated glass tubes were used (coating was achieved by filling 15 x 75 glass tubes with barbital buffer containing 0.5% BSA and transferring its contents to the next tube, etc.)
- 5.  $T_3$  standard solutions have to be prepared in glutamic buffer to keep the pH low when heated with  $T_{\rm q}$ -free serum.

Based on these findings, the following protocol for  $\rm T_3$  RIA with the use of heat inactivation at  $100^{\rm O}{\rm C}$  was adopted.

#### Standards

In precoated glass tubes (15 x 75) add

glutamic buffer pH 3.3	600 μ1
T <sub>3</sub> -free serum	100 μ1
T <sub>2</sub> standard solution	100 μ1

Heat in boiling water bath for 15 minutes, then cool on ice to room temperature and add

high pH solution (pH 12.2)	200 µ1
T <sub>3</sub> -125 <sub>I</sub>	100 μ1
T <sub>3</sub> -antibody	100 μ1

Samples were set up in analogous way except for the use of 100  $\mu l$  of serum sample to replace  $T_3FS$  in the standard and 100  $\mu l$  buffer to replace  $T_3$  standard solution.

Following that incubation, separation, and calculation was completed as in regular  $T_3$ RIA procedure. To compare this method with the use of an inhibitor, two standard curves and some samples were run, one following the  $T_3$ RIA with ANS and one using heat inactivation as described above. Figure (6) gives the standard curve obtained and Table (12) compares the  $T_3$  values of the samples. The heat inactivation method gave consistently higher serum  $T_3$  values. Since no significant difference is seen between the dose-response curve obtained with the use of heat inactivation and the one obtained with ANS, conversion of  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  or to a similar substance which cross react with  $T_3$  antibody was hypothesized and this hypothesis was tested in the next experiments.

3. Effect of heat inactivation of human serum at  $100^{\rm o}{\rm C}$  on the stability of  ${\rm T_4}$ 

heat inactivation of human serum at  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 15 minutes,  $\text{T}_3$  radio-immunoassay using heat inactivation procedure was carried out on two groups of assay tubes (1) and (2). Group (1) assay tubes containing 300 pg  $\text{T}_3$ /tube and to which 10 or 20 µg  $\text{T}_4$ /tube was added before the heat inactivation step (A) or after heat inactivation (B). Group (2) assay tubes contain only  $\text{T}_4$ , to which 20 µg  $\text{T}_4$ /tube was added before heat inactivation (A), or after heat inactivation (B). The heat inactivation procedure was followed as described earlier. Separation was achieved by dextran coated charcoal.  $\text{T}_4$  working solution was prepared in glutamic buffer and the  $\text{T}_3$  antibody employed in this experiment was from Wien laboratory.

The  $T_3$  values obtained were compared in Table (13). Difference between A and B values can be attributed only to the effect of heat on  $T_4$  preparation. Net increase of  $T_3$  value between A and B was calculated for each level of  $T_4$  and the rate of increase in the  $T_3$  value was estimated by dividing the net increase in  $T_3$  value in these two groups over the amounts of  $T_4$  added, Table (14).

## F. Selection of the optimal pH for T<sub>3</sub> RIA

The binding of  $T_3^{-125}I$  to  $T_3^{-Ab}$  in series of blanks at pH range from 7.1 to 9.5 was determined. Using barbital buffer to establish pH from 7.1 to 8.4 and borate buffer to establish pH from 8.5 to 9.5 (pH adjusted with 1N HCl or 1N HaOH). Radioimmunoassay procedure was

carried out on these blanks. Separation of the bound fraction was achieved by 45% saturated ammonium sulfate. Percent  $T_3^{-125}I$  bound was determined and plotted against the pH used. Figure (7). The nonspecific binding was checked at pH 7.1, NSB = 10.4% and pH 9.0, NSB = 5.3%.

Upon the finding that optimal binding is at pH = 9.0, the effect of this maximal binding to  $T_3$ -Ab on the sensitivity of the assay and on serum  $T_3$  value was studied. Two standard curves and eight samples were run with each one at pH 8.4 and 9.0. Figure (8) and Table (15) compare the results obtained. Borate buffer was used in both cases and regular RIA and calculation was done. Linearization was valid because correlation coefficient is 0.999 in both conditions.

## G. Study of Methods of Separation

In the search for a specific, reproducible and practical method for separating the free antigen from antibody-bound antigen, the following methods were evaluated:

- 1. Polyethylene glycol (PEG)
- 2. Saturated amonium sulfate (SAS)
- 3. Ion exchange resins (IER)
- 4. Dextran coated charcoal (DCC)
- 1. Polyethylene glycol (PEG)

Polyethylene glycol has been used originally to precipitate the antibody-bound antigen in the radioimmunoassay of growth hormone and of  $T_3$  (75, 81). The concentration of the PEG used to achieve optimal separation (specific precipitation of the antibody-bound antigen), depends mainly on the serum protein concentration and the pH of the

assay. For a particular assay, the concentration of PEG has to be selected to give optimal separation and minimal nonspecific precipitation.

a. Determination of PEG optimal concentration for  $\mathbf{T}_3$  radioimmunoassay.

To determine the optimal concentration, two experiments were set up and carried out at pH 9.0 (Barbital buffer).

- (1) A series of blanks and a series of nonspecific binding controls were run (duplicates of each for each concentration of PEG to be studied). ANS was used as an inhibitor. Regular  $T_3$ RIA protocol was followed. At the end of incubation PEG solutions concentration of which are 10, 15, 20, 25, 30 and 40 g/dl were added in equal volume to the assay total volume (0.5 ml). Thus the final PEG concentration was 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5, 15 and 20 g/dl. To enhance the precipitation, 100  $\mu l$  of  $T_3$ -free serum was added to each tube immediately after the PEG. All tubes were mixed well (on a Vortex mixer) and kept in an ice bath for 10 minutes after which they were centrifuged at 3200 g for 12 minutes. The supernate was decanted and discarded. Absorbent paper used to remove the few drops at the top of each tube. Radioactivity in the precipitate in each tube was determined. A plot of percent  $T_3^{-125}$ I in the precipitate (in both the blanks and the nonspecific binding controls) against PEG final concentration is given in Figure (10).
  - (2) To compare the precipitation pattern obtained in the

actual assay conditions (as done in the previous experiment) with the precipitation pattern of the antigen-antibody complex in diluent only (no serum proteins), a series of tubes containing  $T_3^{-125}\mathrm{I}$  100  $\mu\mathrm{I}$ , 200  $\mu\mathrm{I}$   $T_3^{-}$  antibody and 700  $\mu\mathrm{I}$  barbital diluent were set up and treated as described in the previous experiment. The percent  $T_3^{-125}\mathrm{I}$  precipitated was determined and plotted against PEG final concentration (Figure 11). Specific precipitate is percent  $T_3^{-125}\mathrm{I}$  precipitated in the blanks which contain both the antibody and  $T_3\mathrm{FS}$  minus the NSP (%B - %NSP).

- b. The effect of some methodological factors on the separation by PEG.
  - (1) The addition of  $T_3$ -FS to enhance precipitation.
- (2) The preparation of PEG in DW (deionized water) instead of buffer.
- (3) The use of BSA vs. the use of Gamma Globulin II as a protein in the diluent.

To study the effect of these three factors, five blanks were set up under each condition and compared with 5 blanks set up under the opposite condition; 5 blanks with  $T_3$ -FS as carrier protein vs. 5 blanks without  $T_3$ -free serum, etc. Tables (17) and (18) give the results of this comparison.

(4) Upon finding the optimal concentration of PEG between 10-14%, another approach was used to minimize the nonspecific precipitate. This depends on the use of larger volume of a less concentrated PEG to reach the same final concentration; therefore, 1.5 ml of 17% PEG was added to 0.5 ml assay final

volume to reach final concentration of PEG 12.75.

- 2. Use of saturated ammonium sulfate (SAS) for separation.

  Two concentrations of ammonium sulfate were studied for their ability to precipitate the antibody-bound fraction, 50% and 45%.
- a. Use of 50% saturated ammonium sulfate.

Saturated solution of ammonium sulfate was added in equal volume to the assay mixture (0.5 ml), mixed well (Vortex mixer) and incubated at 4°C for 10 minutes, then centrifuged at 3200 g for 30 minutes. The supernatant was decanted and discarded and the precipiate was counted. Despite the long centrifugation time, the precipitate was not firm. Therfore, decanting the supernate has to be fast.

b. Method used for 45% SAS

1.5 ml of 60% SAS was added to each tube (contining 0.5 ml assay mixture); thus the final concentration of ammonium sulfate is 45%. Tubes were then mixed (Vortex mixer), incubated at 4°C for 10 minutes and centrifuged at 3200 g for 12 minutes. Supernatant was discarded and radioactivity in the precipitate was determined if assay was run without washing step.

To wash the precipitate 2 ml of 45% SAS in borate diluent was added to each tube and the precipitate was resuspended (on Vortex mixer) and centrifuged again as described. The final precipitate was counted. This has been found to reduce the nonspecific binding precipitate to 2-5%.

3. The use of ion exchange resins for separation
In the search for an ion exchange resin which has the ability to

separate the free  $T_3$  from the bound  $T_3$ , the following resins were tested.

AG 50W - X2 Mesh (100-200) H form

AG 50W - X4 Mesh (50-100) H form

AG 50W - X8 Mesh (20-50) H form

Amberlite IRA 400

Also, a prefilled resin column used for  $T_3$  resin uptake (Biorad  $T_3$  resin uptake kit) was evaluated for the same purpose.

Preparation: The resins were washed several times with deionized water and then let to dry. Biorad columns were shaken before washing with purified water present in the columns. The bottom tip of each column was broken and the top lid opened to let the resin settle and the water drain out. This was done immediately before the run.

To evaluate these resins a blank, 500 pg/tube standard and a nonspecific binding control, each in triplicate was set up for each resin. Regular procedure for  $T_3$  RIA was used to set up these assay tubes in barbital buffer pH = 8.6,  $T_3$  antibody from Wien at 1:5000 (final dilution), and ANS (0.06 g/dl) as an inhibitor. Total assay mixture volume was 1 ml.

Addition: Resins were added in batch type procedure 1 ml of resin to each tube (using special small scoop), mixed well and left on ice for 10 minutes, then centrifuged at 1500 g for 10 minutes. One-half ml of the supernate (bound fraction) was transferred to a clean counting tube and counted for 2 minutes. Counts obtained were multiplied by 2 to determine the radioactivity in the entire fluid phase, then the percent  $T_3^{-125}I$  was calculated in regular manner.

For the use of resin columns, each tube's contents was transferred to the corresponding column and followed by 1.5 ml of buffer used to wash each assay tube. The eluate was collected in clean tube and counted. The percent  $T_3^{-125}I$  in the eluate was calculated as percent of the activity of the "total" tube which contains the same amount of  $T_3^{-125}I$  in 2ml buffer. Table (20) gives the results of these studies.

#### 4. Dextran coated charcoal

In optimizing the conditions for the use of dextran coated charcoal, timing between the first tube to which DCC was added and the last tube was found to have no effect if kept below 3 minutes. This was established by running three blanks as the first three tubes and as the last three tubes and no significant difference in the percent  $T_3^{125}I$  bound was observed. This was true if the tubes were incubated at  $4^{\circ}C$  for 10 minutes after adding the DCC to the last tube. Cold temperature was used because it gave better reproducibility from run to run. To achieve good separation centrifugation for 15 minutes at 2700 g was found sufficient. After centrifugation, the bound fraction (the supernate) was transferred to new clean tubes and radioactivity in this fraction was counted.

## H. Cross reactivity of $T_3$ antisera with $T_4$

Cross reactivity with  $T_4$  was estimated by adding  $T_4$  (Sigma) to blanks, and serum samples and determining the effect this addition has on the  $T_3$  value.  $T_4$  was added at two levels, 10 and 20 ng of  $T_4$ /tube which corresponds to 10 and 20 µg  $T_4$ /dl. The percent cross reactivity was calculated as percent of the added  $T_4$  which reacted as  $T_3$ .  $T_4$  solution used was made in barbital buffer and the  $T_4$  used was not purified.

This study was done on antibodies from both Wien and Endocrine sciences.

Table (26) lists the values obtained and compares these values with

the ones reported by the supplier.

## J. Incubation time and temperature

Two phase incubation time was evaluated for sensitivity (slope) and linearity of the standard curve (correlation coeficient). The two phase incubation time at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  followed by  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  was reported to decrease the total required time of  $T_3$  RIA (72).

The following incubation times were studied:

	at 37°C		at 4°C
(1)	30 min.	and	30 min.
(2)	30 min.	and	1 hour
(3)	30 min.	and	2 hours
(4)	2 hours	and	1 hour

Four dose-response curves were set up and incubated one at each condition. Table (16) gives the slope, correlation coefficient, and y intercept of the  $B^{O}/B$  plot. Fig. 9 compares the standard curves. In this experiment Wien Ab at 1:5000 dilution, barbital buffer pH 8.6 was used, and separation was achieved by Dextran coated charcoal (DCC).

## K. Methods of Evaluating the Final Assay Procedure

Upon selecting the optimal methodological conditions the final RIA procedure was evaluated for accuracy, sensitivity, and reproducibility.

1. Accuracy (validity) of the assay  $\hbox{Accuracy of the $T_3$ RIA procedure developed has been evaluated }$ 

by the following studies

- a. Recovery studies
- b. Extraction studies
- c. Linearity of results obtained using increased volumes of samples and the effect of serum proteins on the assay,
- d. Correlation of serum  $T_3$  value with serum  $T_4$  value (clinical correlation) and correlation between this method and another locally used  $T_3$  RIA.

#### a. Recovery studies

Standard  $T_3$  solution was added to different samples. To each sample two levels of  $T_3$  were added (50 and 200 pg/tube).  $T_3$  RIA was performed simultaneously on these samples with and without the added  $T_3$ . The percent  $T_3$  recovered was determined from the formula

$$\frac{\text{Observed T}_3 \text{ value - Endogenous T}_3}{\text{Added T}_3} \quad \text{X 100}$$

Table (21) gives the results of this study. Each determination was run in triplicate.

#### b. Extraction studies

To insure that the serum  $T_3$  value is free of protein effect, 6 samples were run with extraction and without extraction. Solvent extraction was performed as follows: 1 ml of serum mixed with 100  $\mu$ l of  $T_3$ - $^{125}$ I of high purity (100 Pg  $T_3$ - $^{125}$ I) and total CPM was taken, then 1.9 ml of cold absolute ethanol were added. Tubes were centrifuged at 3100G for 10 minutes in

a refrigerated centrifuge. One ml of the supernate was transferred from each extract into clean plastic tubes and dried in a water bath at  $45^{\circ}$ C. To the dried extract of each sample 500  $\mu$ l of  $T_3$ -FS was added and mixed on a Vortex mixer and radioactivity in each tube was determined to calculate extraction efficiency. Tubes were incubated at  $4^{\circ}$ C for two hours to insure solubility of the extract in serum proteins. Direct  $T_3$  RIA was run on these extracts and corrected for extraction efficiency. Comparison of  $T_3$  value with and without extraction is given in Table (22).

## c. Linearity and serum protein effect on the assay

To assess the linearity of the assay, a high serum  $T_3$  control (Versatol Pediatric) was assayed without and with dilution with  $T_3$ -free serum. The increase in  $T_3$  value as the assayed amounts of the sample increase is compared to the standard curve run simultaneously (Figure 13). In another experiment different portions of the same sample were assayed (each time the assayed serum was completed to 100  $\mu$ l with  $T_3$ -free serum to bring to the same volume used in the standard curve (100  $\mu$ l). Thus if 50  $\mu$ l of a sample was used, 50  $\mu$ l of  $T_3$ -free serum was added. Table (23) gives the  $T_3$  value on full size sample (100  $\mu$ l) and on portion of the sample (50 and 25  $\mu$ l).

Also,  $T_3$  value when 50  $\mu l$  of a sample + 50  $\mu l$  of  $T_3$ -FS was assayed compared to  $T_3$  value obtained if only 50  $\mu l$  of the sample was assayed with no  $T_3$ -free serum added. Table (24) gives the

result of this comparison.

- d. Correlation of serum  $\mathbf{T}_3$  value with  $\mathbf{T}_4$  and with another locally used  $\mathbf{T}_3$  RIA.
- (1) The  $\mathrm{T}_4$  values of 35 samples from hyper, euo, and hypothyroid patients were compared with  $\mathrm{T}_3$  values and correlation coefficient was calculated.
- (2) To compare the serum T<sub>3</sub> value obtained by this method with other RIA locally used, 40 samples were run by both laboratories. Figure (15) compares the results obtained.

## 2. Sensitivity

To determine the minimum detectable limits of  $T_3$ , decreasing amounts of standard  $T_3$  solution were assayed. The least amount of  $T_3$  giving a %B that is significantly different (lower) from %B observed in the blanks run simultaneously was considered the minimum detectable level of  $T_3$ . The student t-test was used to determine if the difference was significant, N=7 for each level of  $T_3$ , and P<.005.

- Reproducibility
- a. Within run reproducibility

The reproducibility within a run was estimated by studying the variation in  $T_3$  value of the duplicates of 25 samples. The following formula was used.

Coefficient of Variation (CV) = 
$$\frac{\sum d^2}{2n}$$

Where:  $d = \frac{\text{highest value of the duplicate}}{1 \text{owest value of the duplicate}} - 1 \quad \text{X 100}$  n = Number of samples (duplicates) being studied

## b. Between runs reproducibility

Twenty samples with wide range of T<sub>3</sub> were assayed in five runs. The average, the standard deviation, and coefficient of variation of each sample was calculated. The average of the coefficient of variation of all samples was considered the between runs coefficient of variation, Table (29).

# L. Evaluation of the Effect of Some Methodological Variables on the $T_3$ Value

## 1. Effect of the antibodies cross reactivity with ${\bf T}_{\underline{\bf 4}}$

Seven samples were assayed under identical conditions except for the source of the antisera. Dilution of the antisera was selected to obtain similar binding at zero dose (Net  $\%B^O=33-35\%$ ). Table (27) compares the values obtained and shows its relation to the  $T_4$  concentration of these samples.

## 2. Effect of the separation method on the $T_3$ value

Four dose-response curves were set up and treated identically following the final procedure except for the method of separation.

Eight samples were run with each of the four curves. Table (28) summarizes the results of this study.

3. Effect of the type and concentration of TBG binding inhibitors on the  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{q}}$  value

In one run, four standard curves with six samples were treated identically except for the inhibitor used. Two of them were treated with sodium salicylate at different concentrations (0.4% and 0.8%). The third with ANS and the fourth with merthicalte. All inhibitors were used at the concentration which was found optimal from previous studies. Table (30) compares the  $T_3$  values and the dose-response curve parameter.

# 4. Effect of pH on the $T_3$ value

Two dose-response curves with eight samples were run at two different pHs (8.4 and 9.0). Table (15) compares the values of the eight samples.

## 5. Effect of the antibody dilution on the ${\bf T}_{\bf 3}$ value

Using the same antisera (Wien Lab.) at two different dilutions (1/5000 and 1/10000) two standard curves and seven samples were analyzed, following otherwise identical conditions (Table 31).

## Serum T<sub>2</sub> normal level

The normal level of serum  $T_3$  by this method was determined on 45 samples from individuals with no complaint of thyroid problems and who have  $T_4$  level within the normal range (medical technology students and laboratory personnel).

#### RESULTS

## 1. $T_3$ -Free Serum Preparation

Table (7) shows that removal of  $T_3$  from pool serum by treatment with charcoal does not require long incubation time, neither is it temperature dependent. 96.7 to 98.0% of the  $T_3$ - $^{125}I$  added to pool serum before treatment is removed by charcoal. Two-hour incubation was used for routine preparation of  $T_3$ -free serum. Since the tracer used to follow up the removal of  $T_3$  is not completely pure it is likely that 2-3% of the radioactivity remaining is due to  $^{125}I$  iodine. The fact that no detectable  $T_3$  remained in this preparation is shown in Table (8). Adding 50  $\mu I$  of  $T_3$ -free serum to 50  $\mu I$  of pool serum did not change the  $T_3$  value as determined by the RIA procedure.

This preparation still has the binding capability to  $T_3$  as determined by  $T_3$ -resin uptake. The observed decrease in the  $T_3$ -resin uptake is due to the removal of  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  from that preparation (Table 9). The use of charcoal to prepare  $T_3$ -FS is an efficient way, but requires a long time for centrifugation and a final filtration through millipore filter (.45  $\mu$ ). This was found to be essential to remove the very fine particles remaining that could not be removed by centrifugation. Comparable results were obtained if anion exchange resin IRA 400 was used. The resin requires longer incubation with the serum (6-12 hours) and is more expensive. However, it does not require long centrifugation, and is cleaner to work with.

TABLE 7

Effect of Length of Incubation of Pool Serum With Charcoal on the Efficiency of Removing  ${\rm T_3}^{-125}{\rm I}$  Added to the Serum

Time and Temperatur	re % Radioactivity Removed	_
24 hours at 4°C	97.2	
12 hours at 4°C	96.2	
12 hours at room te	emp. (R.T.) 98.0	
2 hours at R. T.	96.7	
	*	

 Sample Assayed	T <sub>3</sub> Value ng/100 ml	N
50 $\mu$ l pool + 50 $\mu$ l diluent	62 ± 2.35	4
50 μ1 poo1 + 50 μ1 T <sub>3</sub> -FS	$62 \pm 1.70$	4
100 µl pool only	$125 \pm 3.6$	4

TABLE 9 Effect of Charcoal Treatment on  $\rm T_3\text{-Resin}$  Uptake and  $\rm T_4$  Value of Pool Serum

Test	(N) Before Treatment With Charcoal	After Treatment With Charcoal
T <sub>3</sub> Resin Up	take (4) 28.5%	22.6
T <sub>4</sub> (CPB)	(4) 10 μg/100 ml	$0.2 \mu g/100 ml$

#### 2. Antisera Titration

Figures (1) and (2) demonstrate the titration curves for two commercial  $T_3$  antisera: Wien Laboratories and Endocrine Sciences. The dilution needed to obtain certain %B is usually indicated by the supplier, but since the amount of tracer used, assay conditions and method of separation vary, it is necessary to confirm the antibody titer. Dextran coated charcoal is used in this study and the %B in both figures (1) and (2) includes the nonspecifically bound (NSB)  $T_3^{-125}I$ . This has been taken into consideration in selecting the antisera dilution to obtain 30-50% specific binding. Comparison of two lots number in Table (10) show consistency of the titer.

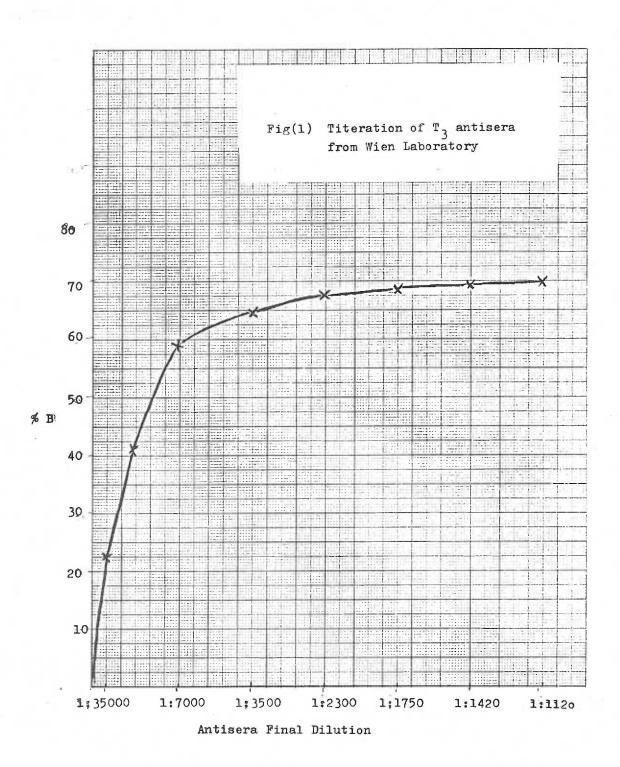
TABLE 10

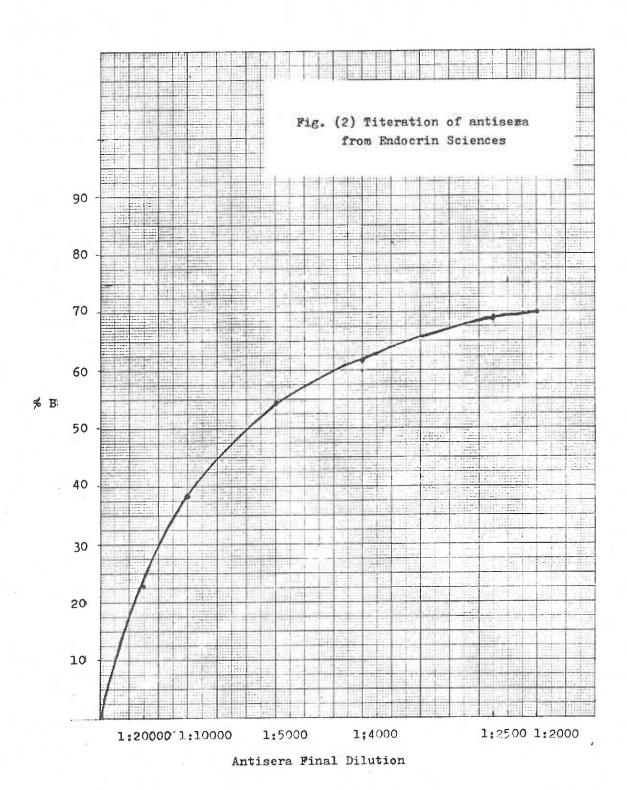
Comparison of the Titer of Two Different
Lots of Commercial Antisera (Endocrine Sciences)

Antisera Dilution N=	3 %B Lot #1	%B Lot #2
1:35000	22.42 ± 2.0	23.00 ± 1.9
1:14000	41.40 ± 2.4	44.81 ± 1.3
1:7000	59.73 ± 1.6	60.95 ± 2.8
1:3500	64.99 ± 3.0	65.03 ± 1.5
1:1750	68.52 ± 1.9	$67.17 \pm 2.0$

3. Effectiveness of the Inhibitors Used to Block Binding of  $\mathbf{T}_3$  to Serum Proteins

Table (11) shows that when  $T_3$ -free serum was added to the assay mixture of the Ab and  $T_3$ - $^{125}$ I (Group 1) the precent  $T_3$ - $^{125}$ I was decreased





from 62% to 45%. Adding the inhibitor to the mixture led to elimination or minimization of this decrease to 60.5% (Group 3).

TABLE 11 The Effect of  $T_3$ -free Serum and an Inhibitor on the Binding of  $T_3$ - $^{125}$ I to  $T_3$ -antibody

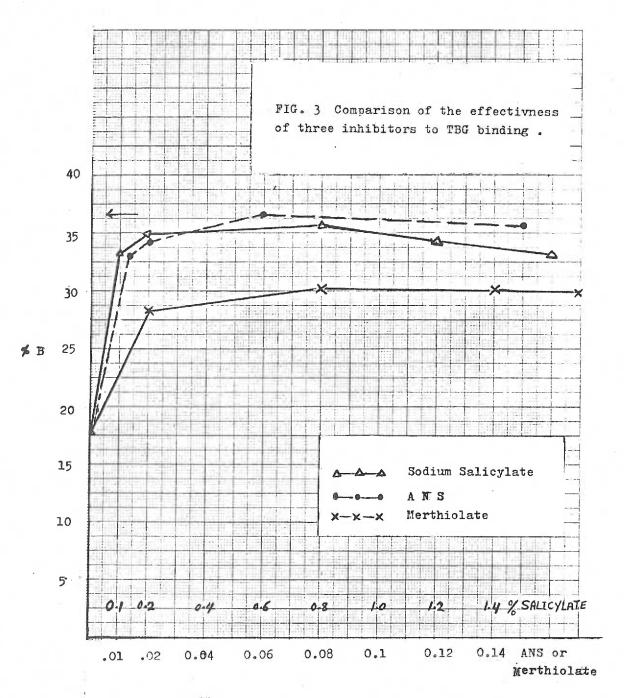
 Tubes Group Number (N=5)	) 1	2	3
Tube Content			
T <sub>3</sub> -antibody	100 μ1	100 μ1	100 μ1
$T_3^{-125}I$	100 μ1	100 μ1	100 μ1
T <sub>3</sub> -free serum		100 μ1	100 μ1
Inhibitor			100 μ1
Buffer	800 μ <b>1</b>	700 μ1	600 μ1
%B	62.0±2.0	45.7±1.53	60.5 ±1.90

Based on that observation, the effectiveness of the substances used to block the binding of  $T_3$  to serum proteins is assessed by its ability to restore the binding of  $T_3^{-125}I$  to the antibody in the presence of serum proteins to the level observed when there is no serum proteins present (i.e.,  $T_3^{-125}I$  and  $T_3^{-1100}$  and  $T_3^{-1100}$ 

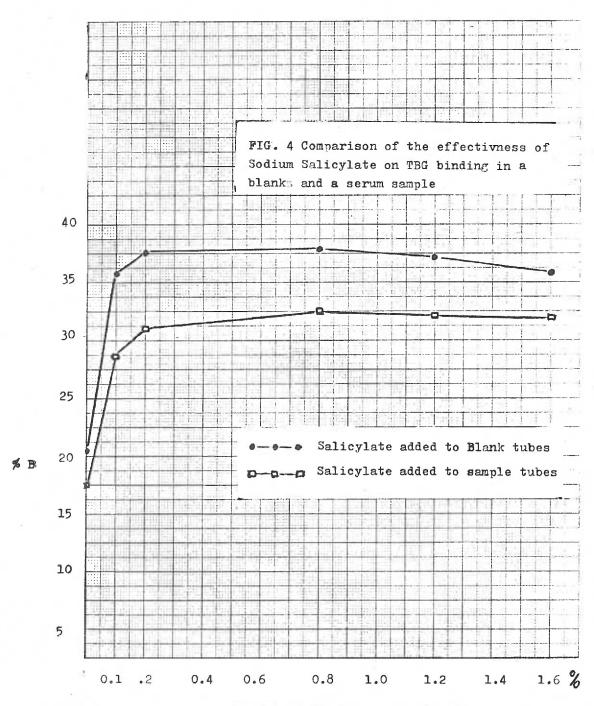
Figure (3) represents comparison of the effectiveness of the three most effective inhibitors at wide ranges of concentration. The  $\rm T_3$ - $\rm ^{125}I$  binding to the antibody with no  $\rm T_3$ -free serum is 36%. When  $\rm T_3$ -FS was added, it decreased to 17.5%, then the %B is sharply increased as the

concentration of the inhibitors is increased. It is observed here that both ANS and Sodium Salicylate restored the percent  $T_3$ - $^{125}$ I bound close to the original value of 36.5%, meanwhile merthiolate brings it up to 28.5%. The use of higher concentration of any of these inhibitors is known to affect the  $T_3^{-125}I$  binding to the Ab leading to a decrease in the %B (65, 66). It is evident from Figure (3) that merthiolate is inferior and an inadequate inhibitor. ANS is an effective inhibitor, but its solution is photosensitive, and therefore has to be prepared daily. Sodium Salicylate is stable in solution, and at the optimal concentration 0.8% has only a minor effect on the antibody binding to  $T_3$ - $^{125}$ I as seen in Figure (5), which represents two dose-response curves, both set up with no  $T_3$ -free serum but one with Sodium Salicylate and the other without Sodium Salicylate. The fact that this salicylate is used by rheumatoid arthritis patients should not affect the assay because the therapeutic level in the blood does not exceed 0.03g/d1 (66, 73). Figure (4) indicates that the same pattern of inhibition is obtained in the presence of  $T_3$ .

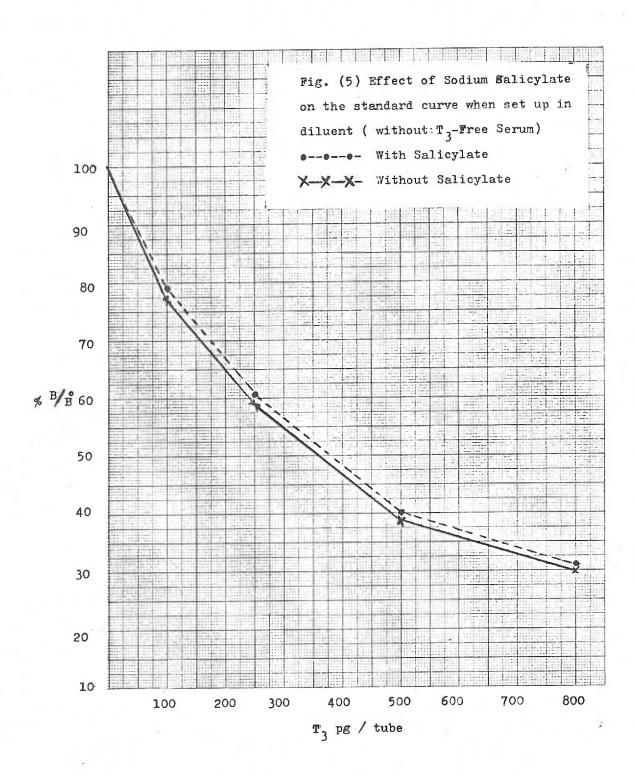
- 4. Use of Heat Inactivation to Eliminate TBG Effect on the  $\rm T_3$  RIA  $\,$  a. Heat inactivation at  $\rm 60^{\circ}C$
- In Figure (6) the dose-response curve set up with neither an inhibitor nor heat inactivation show very shallow displacement (low slope) indicating the effect of the serum proteins on the assay. The similarity of the two standard curves obtained by using ANS at 0.06% and using heat inactivation at  $60^{\circ}$ C indicate that the two approaches are equivalent. However, heat inactivation at  $60^{\circ}$ C is time consuming (45 min.).

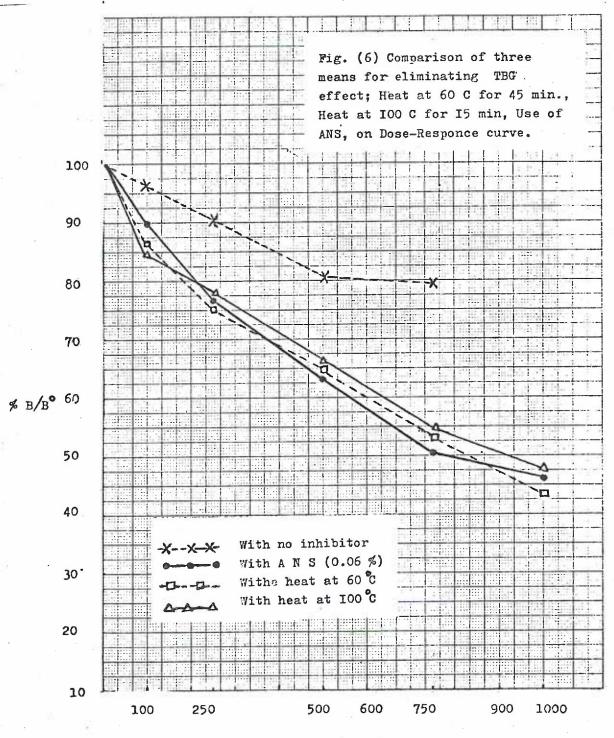


INHIBITOR CONCENTRATION



Sodium Salicylate concentration





T'3 PICOGRAM/ TUBE

TABLE 12  $\hbox{Comparison of the $T_3$ Value of Serum Samples } \\ \hbox{Using Different Approaches to Eliminate TBG Effect}$ 

Approach Used to Eliminate TBG Effect		T <sub>3</sub> Value	(ng/dl) of Five Samples			
	1	2	3	4	5	N
None	250	325	340	290	210	3
ANS (0.06%)	100	186	210	160	103	3
Heat inactivation at $60^{\circ}$ C	136	228	240	204	152	3
Heat Inactivation at 100°C	195	298	326	305	176	3

It is evident from Table (12) that without heat or inhibitor the  $T_3$  values are very high and this is due to the effect of TBG on the binding of  $T_3^{-125}I$  and  $T_3$  to the Ab. Values obtained using heat inactivation at  $60^{\circ}C$  are consistently higher than those obtained using ANS despite the similarity of the standard curves obtained under either condition, Figure (6).

Even higher values are obtained when a higher temperature was used  $(100^{\circ}\text{C})$ .

It is observed here that the standard curves obtained using heat inactivation method are comparable to those obtained using an inhibitor, but much higher values for the samples obtained when heat inactivation is used. We attributed this to the effect of heat on the stability of  ${\rm T}_4$  which is present in the samples but not in the standards.

## C. Effect of Heat Inactivation on the Stability of $T_4$

In Table (13) is shown results of experiments in which 10 or 20 ng  $\rm T_4$  was added to standard assay tubes which contained 300 pg  $\rm T_3/tube$  before or after the heat inactivation step. The same additions were also made to tubes containing no  $\rm T_3$  at all. It is clear that added  $\rm T_4$  causes elevation in the  $\rm T_3$  value to much higher extent when added before heat inactivation step than when added after that step (compare A to B values). The difference between B and A (B-A) can be attributed only to the effect of heat on the added  $\rm T_4$ . The increase in  $\rm T_3$  value over the originally present  $\rm T_3$  (300 pg) when  $\rm T_4$  was added after the heat inactivation step is due to the  $\rm T_3$  content of  $\rm T_4$  preparation (T\_4 was not purified) and to cross reactivity effect.

However, for the purpose of this experiment there is no need to use pure  $T_4$  because we are interested in the difference between A and B.  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  conversion (monodeiodination) is known to take place in vitro on chromatographic media (paper, thin layer, or gas) and during extraction of  $T_4$  from serum. The increase in  $T_3$  value due to heating  $T_4$  can be attributed to the conversion of  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  or to another heat degradation product which is highly cross reacting with  $T_3$ -antibody.

TABLE 13 The Effect of Heat Inactivation for 15 Minutes at  $100^{\rm O}{\rm C}$  on T  $_3$  Values in the Presence of T  $_4$ 

T <sub>3</sub> Present	T <sub>4</sub> A Ph	dded and T <sub>3</sub>	Value by RIA in pg	Increase in $T_3$ Value Due to Heating $T_4$
	Ad	dition	Mean SD (N)	4
300 pg/tube	(A)	10 ng after heat	453 ± 4.15 (6)	149 pg
	(B)	10 ng before heat	602 ± 13.2 (6)	
300 pg/tube	(A)	20 ng after heat	511 ± 52.8 (6)	269 pg
·	(B)	20 ng before heat	781 ± 15.7 (6)	
0 pg/tube	(A)	20 ng after heat	200 ± 28.43(5)	265 pg
	(B)	20 ng before heat	543 ± 24.66(5)	

T <sub>4</sub> Added	Increase in T <sub>4</sub> Value Due to Heat (pg)	Rate of Conversion*
10 ng	149	1.49%
$20 \text{ ng}$ with $T_3$	269	1.34%
20 ng without T <sub>3</sub>	265	1.32%

<sup>\*</sup>Rate was calculated by dividing the increase in  $\rm T_3$  value (pg) over the added  $\rm T_4$  (in pg) and multiplying the result by 100.

TBG heat inactivation at  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  has been used for T $_4$  RIA (80). The effect of heat on T $_4$  was not considered in that report. However,

as seen in Table (14), the rate of conversion is very low and would not affect the  $T_4$  value significantly (1.32-1.49%). Since serum  $T_3$  level is much lower than  $T_4$ , such a rate of conversion increased  $T_3$  level significantly. Therefore, this approach was considered inapplicable to  $T_3$  RIA.

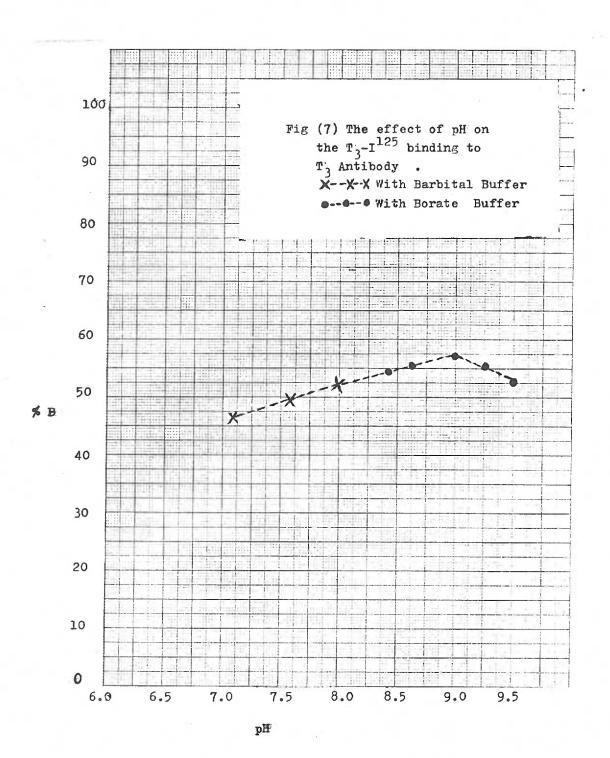
## 5. Selecting Optimal pH for the assay

Figure (7) represents the pattern of  $T_3^{-125}I$  binding to  $T_3$  antibody as function of pH. Increase in binding observed between pH 7 and 9. This can be attributed to decrease in binding of  $T_3^{-125}I$  to serum proteins at higher pH. It is known that at alkaline pH, the thyronines dissociate from serum protein probably due to increase in ionization of these substances. Figure (8) demonstrates that pH 9.0 produces a slight but consistent shift to the left of pH 8.4, with increase in the y intercept, indicating slight improvement in the sensitivity (least detectable dose).

Table (15) lists the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  values of eight samples run with two standard curves. No significant difference in the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value is observed. pH 9.0 using borate buffer which has better buffering capacity in that range was selected. Sodium Salicylate was found to increase the pH; therefore Borate buffer was adjusted only to 8.8. The pH increases to 9.0 when the salicylate is added at the effective concentration.

#### 6. Incubation Time and Temperature

Figure (9) represents four standard curves. Each was set up the same way except for incubation time. Table (16) gives the parameters;



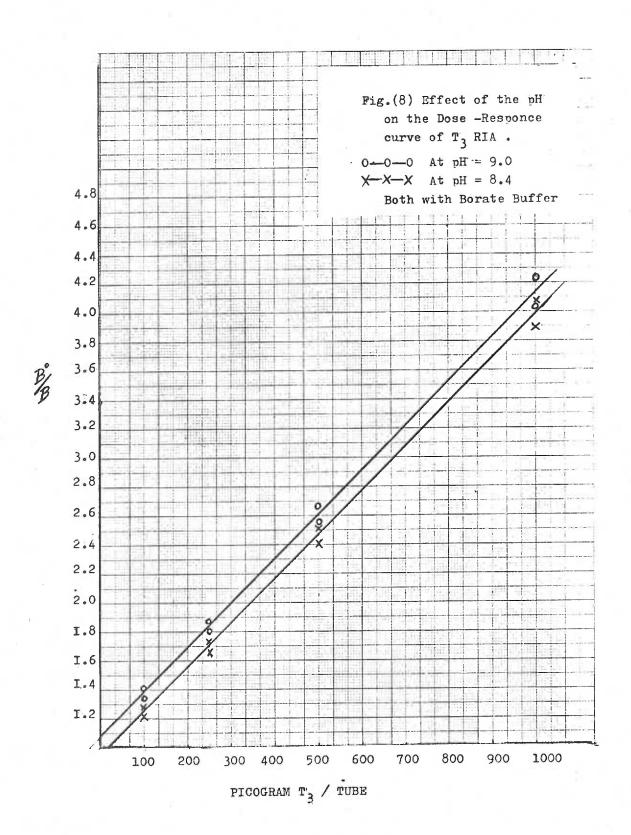


TABLE 15 Serum T Concentration (ng/100 ml) of Eight Samples at Two Different pHs

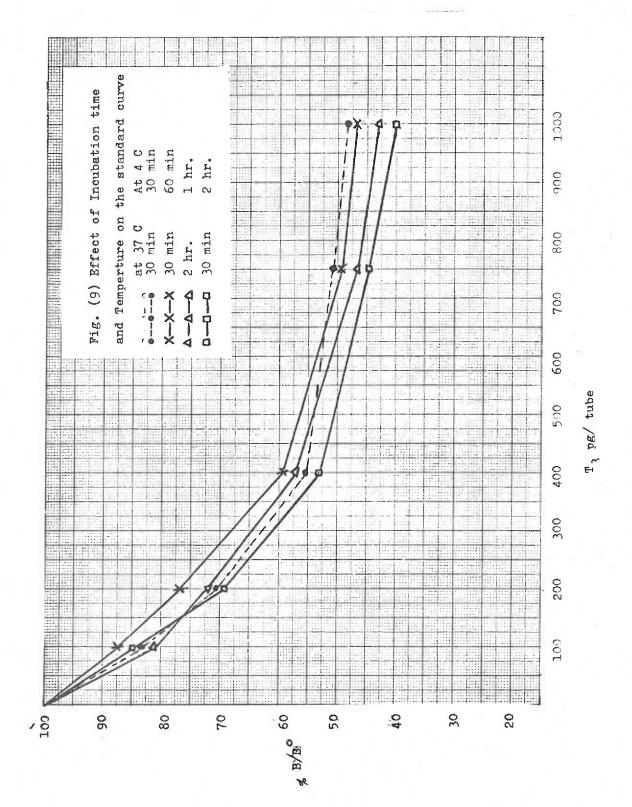
Sample Number	1	T <sub>3</sub> Value at pH 8.4	T <sub>3</sub> Value at pH 9
(1)		420 ng/100 ml	405 ng/100 ml
(2)		270	243
(3)		65	82
(4)		127	135
(5)		151	165
(6)	V	132	137
(7)		128	140
(8)		135	148

of slope, y intercept and linearity correlation coefficient of the  $B^{O}/B$  vs.  $T_{3}$  concentration plot (linearization plot). It is observed in Figure (9) and Table (16) that as the incubation time at  $4^{O}$ C increased, both the slope (therefore the sensitivity) and the linearity of the assay (indicated by r) is increased.

TABLE 16

Effect of Incubation Time and Temperature
on Standard Curve Parameter (Sensitivity, Linearity)

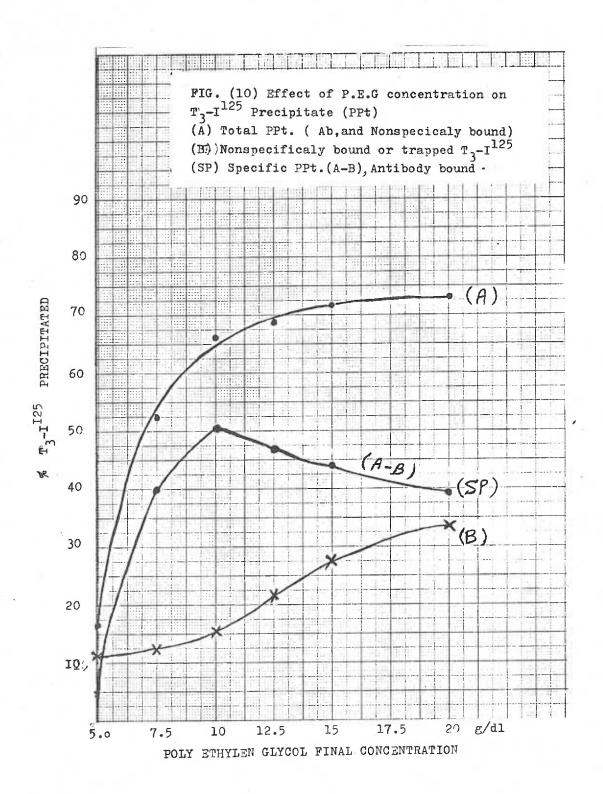
Incubation Time		Correlation Coefficient	Slope	y Intercept
at 37°C	at 4 <sup>0</sup> C	(r)		
A 30 mi	n 30 min	0.964	0.88	1.20
B 30 mi	n 60 min	0.992	1.14	1.03
C 30 mi	n 120 min	0.998	1.244	1.07
D 120 mi	n 60 min	0.999	1.169	1.11

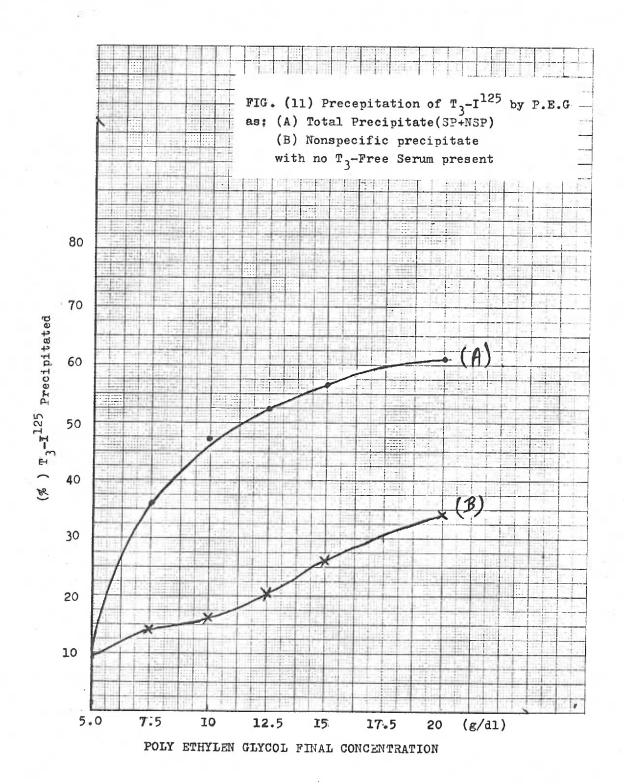


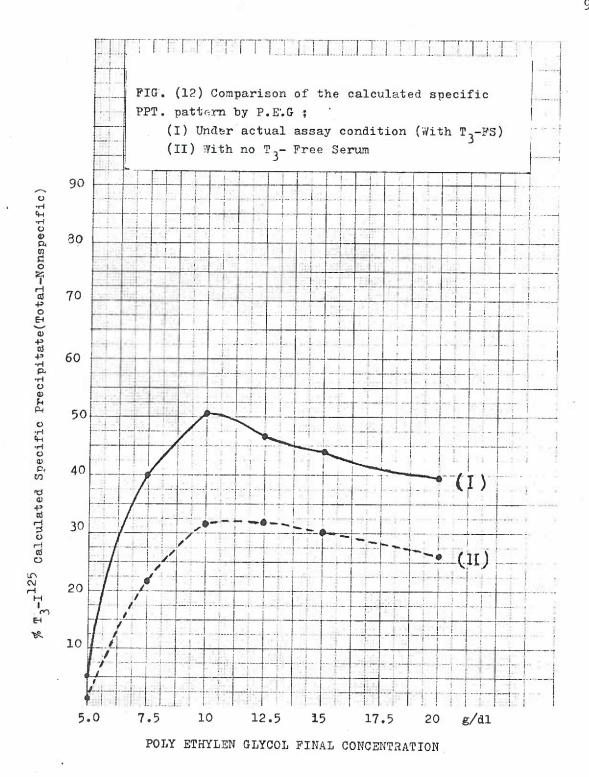
There is no advantage of increasing incubation time at  $37^{\circ}$  for 2 hours. Thus, 30 minutes at  $37^{\circ}$ C and 2 hours at  $4^{\circ}$ C was found practical and gave satisfactory sensitivity and linearity.

- 7. Selecting a Method for Separating the Bound and Free Fractions
  - A. Separation by Polyethylene Glycol
    - (1) Selection of optimal concentration of PEG Abbreviations:
    - NSP = Nonspecific precipitate, represents  $T_3^{-125}I$  precipitated in assay tubes containing no  $T_3^{-125}I$
    - TP = Total precipitate, is  $T_3^{-125}I$  precipitated under actual assay conditions, i.e.,  $T_3^{-125}I$  bound to the antibody and the NSP.
    - SP = Specific precipitate, is calculated by substracting
      the NSP from TP.

Figure (10) demonstrates that the precipitation of  $T_3^{-125}I$  (as TP or NSP) is a function of PEG final concentration. The same pattern of precipitation is obtained in Figure (11) where there is no serum proteins included. This shows that the precipitation under assay conditions (Figure 11) is due mainly to the precipitation of the antibody bound  $T_3^{-125}I$ . The total TP reaches a plateau in both Figures (10) and (11), however the NSP continue to rise as PEG concentration increases. This explains why the calculated SP (TP - NSP) declines above 10% PEG. The optimal PEG final concentration is when all the antibody bound antigen is precipitated but with least NSP. Figure (12) shows that opti-







mal concentration for this assay is 10%, with, or without serum proteins. To ensure precipitation of all the bound fraction, 12.75% PEG was selected. To reach this concentration, 0.5 ml of 25.5% PEG solution was added to each assay tube containing a total of 0.5 ml assay mixture. Using this procedure the NSP was 12-15%. To further reduce the NSP which is partially due to some of the free  $T_3^{-125}I$  being trapped in the precipitate or by the viscous PEG solution, a 1.5 ml of 17% PEG solution was added to each tube containing 0.5 ml total assay mixture, thus the final PEG concentration is 12.75 and the total volume is 2 ml. Using this modification led to decrease in the NSP to about 8%. Therefore this method was preferred.

- (2) Effect of some factors on the precipitation by PEG
- (a) Effect of adding serum proteins as carrier proteins to enhance the precipitation

Routinely, when PEG solution was added to each tube, it was followed by 100  $\mu$ l of  $T_3$ -free serum to enhance the precipitation. Since serum proteins are present as part of the assay mixture in a relatively high concentration (20%), it was questionable whether the addition of  $T_3$ -free serum is essential. Table (17) demonstrates that adding  $T_3$ -free serum as carrier protein has no observable effect on the precipitation of the bound fraction or on the NSP.

(b) Effect of proteins added to the buffer

In Table (18) it is evident that the presence of 1% BSA in

the assay mixture has caused a significant decrease in the percent  $T_3^{-125}I$  precipitated by PEG. This is because PEG does not precipitate albumin (81). This supports strongly that  $T_3$  binds to BSA. However, the effect of BSA or any other binding protein will depend on the affinity of the antibody used. Gamma Globulin II (Bovine) 0.5% was selected as an alternative protein to inhibit adsorption of the reaction constituents to the glassware and plastic.

(c) Effect of the use of buffer in PEG solution

Usually PEG solution was prepared in the buffer used in the assay. It is shown in Table (17) that the use of deionized water to prepare this solution is equivalent to buffer.

TABLE 17

The Effect of Some Factors on precipitation by PEG

Factor Being Studied	%B (TP)	%NSP	(N)
PEG solution made in buffer	M±SD 47.14±1.0	M±SD 16.5±1.2	(5)
PEG solution made in dist. water	48.62±1.5	16.2±1.1	(5)
With T3-FS as carrier protein	47.14±1.5	16.1±1.0	(5)
Without T <sub>3</sub> -FS as carrier protein	47.34±1.6	15.8± .9	(5)

TABLE 18

The Effect of BSA and Gamma Globulin on the Total and Nonspecific Precipitation by PEG

Protein Added to the Buffer	%B (TP)	%NSP	N
None	48.66 ± 1.4	15.87 ± .9	5
BSA 1%	38.34 ± 1.1	12.6 ± 1.1	5
Gamma Globulin II (Bovine) 1%	47.14 ± 1.0	16.15 ± 1.0	5

### B. Separation by Ammonium Sulfate

The use of 50% saturated ammonium sulfate (SAS), achieved by adding equal volume of SAS to 0.5 ml assay mixture, gave a large and soft precipitate, which requires 30 to 40 minutes of centrifugation. Furthermore, the nonsepcific precipitate (NSP) was high (25-40%) (Table 19). Meanwhile 45% SAS which was reached by adding 1.5 ml of 60% SAS to the assay mixture of .5 ml, gave a smaller, compact precipitate which required about ten minutes centrifugation, and reduced the NSP (Table 19). We also found that by washing the precipitate with 45% SAS the NSP was reduced to 2.5-5%. It is known that gamma globulin precipitate between 42-45% SAS therefore the bound fraction is completely separated by this method with minimal NSP.

TABLE 19

The Effect of Ammonium Sulfate Concentration on The Nonspecific Precipitation and Centrifugation Time

	At 3200 G	NSP Range	N	Ammonium Sulfate Concentration
es	35-40 minutes	25-40%	5	50%
es	10-12 minutes	8-16%	5	45%
es	10-12 minutes	2.5-5%	5	45% with washing
	10-12 minut	2.5-5%	5	45% with washing

## C. Separation by Ion Exchange Resins

The ability of several ion exchange resins to separate the free  $T_3$  fraction from the bound is shown in Table (20), which gives the %B obtained when each of these resins was used. Since the amount of antibody used binds 50-55% of the tracer, it is expected that the resin which only exchanges with the free  $T_3$  should give about 50-55% B. AG 50 x 2 and commercial  $T_3$  resin columns achieve this. The column gave the lowest NSB value. Other resins do not seem to achieve this step as effectively. Despite the good separation achieved by the commercial  $T_3$  columns, they were not favored for use on our method because they require more technical work, especially when used on large scale. Furthermore, they are too expensive.

## Evaluation of the final procedure

Upon studying the different methodological aspects of  $T_3$  RIA, a new procedure was established based on the optimal conditions found. The final procedure depends on the use of ES antisera, sodium salicy-late at 0.8 g/dl as blocking agent, pH = 9 with borate buffer, and the incubation of assay mixture at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 35 minutes then at  $4^{\circ}$ C for 2 hours. The free and bound fraction are separated by 12.75 PEG (final concentration) which we selected because it did not require washing of the precipitate. The final procedure was evaluated for its accuracy, reproducibility and sensitivity.

TABLE 20 Separation of the  ${\rm T_3}^{-125}{\rm I}$  Bound Fraction By Different Ion Exchange Resins

Ion Exchange Resin	% В (Т <sub>3</sub> -I	125 in the Bound Frac	etion) Range	
	Blank	500 pg/tube std.	NSB Control	N
AG50 x 2	48.052.5	30.132.1	12.8213.4	3
AG50 x 4	41.444.23	26.3330.00	14.6115.46	3
AG50 x 8	37.039.0	23.9424.74	13.814.8	3
Amberlite IRA 400	71.779.4	53.853.79	21.125.8	3
Commercial* Resin Columns for $T_3$ Separation	54.456.8	34.334.6	2.18.8	3

<sup>\*</sup>From Biorad Laboratories

### a. Recovery Study

Table (21) demonstrates that practically all  $T_3$  added to various samples was recovered. This indicates that under this procedure all added  $T_3$  is made available and free to compete with  $T_3^{-125}I$ .

Otherwise, lower recovery values would have been obtained.

TABLE (21)  $\mbox{Recovery of $T_3$ Added to 3 Samples} \\ \mbox{Determined Using $T_3-$RIA Final Procedure}$ 

Sample No.	T <sub>3</sub> Value pg/tube	T <sub>3</sub> Added pg/tube	Expected Value	Observed Value	T <sub>3</sub> Recov- ered*
1	55	50	105	100	90%
_		200	255	265	105%
2	115	50	165	162	94%
		200	315	306	95.5%
3	280	50	330	334	108%
		200	480	462	91%

<sup>\*</sup>Calculated as described in Methods section

## b. Extraction Study

Table (22) demonstrates the comparison of the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value obtained by direct measurement with values obtained after extracting the six samples using absolute alcohol. This indicates that the level of TBG of the sample has no observable effect on the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value as determined by this procedure. Furthermore, it indicates that the immunoreactive material present in serum could be removed by procedures known to extract much or all of the endogenous  $\mathrm{T}_3$ .

 $$^{\rm TABLE}$$  22  $$^{\rm T}_3$$  Value of Six Samples Determined Using the Final Procedure (Direct) and After Extraction With Alcohol

Sample No.	N	T <sub>3</sub> ng/100 ml (Direct)	T <sub>3</sub> ng/100 ml (Extracted);
		3	3
1	4	80 ± 4.3	91 ± 5.0
2	4	200 ± 6.9	186 ± 4.9
3	4	260 ± 7.1	$270 \pm 7.9$
4	4	363 ± 8.1	351 ± 10.3
5	4	149 ± 5.6	158 ± 4.7
6	4	445 ± 9.4	470 ± 10.9

<sup>\*</sup>Values are after correction for extraction efficiency (75-86%)

c. Linearity and Effect of Serum Proteins on  ${\bf T}_3$  Concentration in the Final Procedure

This has been evaluated in several experiments. In Table (23) it is evident that  $\mathbf{T}_3$  concentration is not affected by the size of the sample used.

Also Figure (13) shows excellent linearity when increased amounts of the same sample was assayed and compared to the standard curve set up with increased amounts of standard  $T_3$ . The linearity and the parallelism seen are indicative of accuracy of the  $T_3$  value.

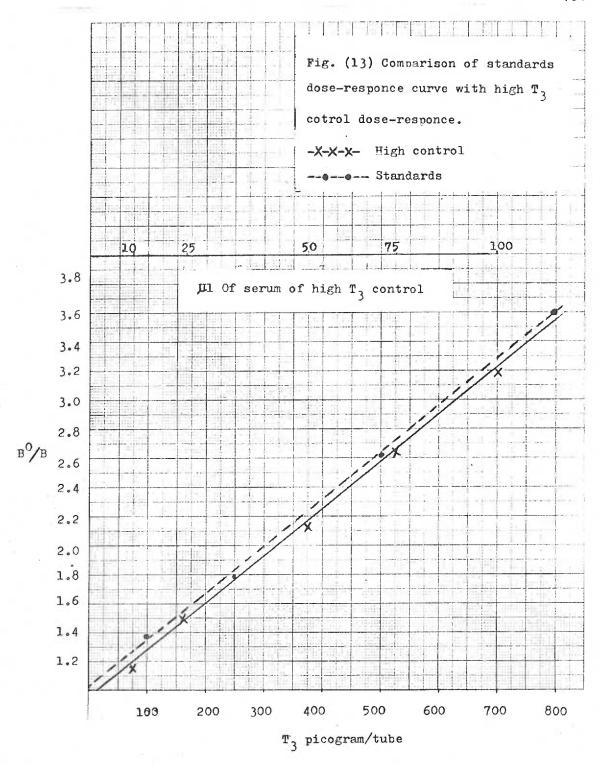


TABLE (23) The Effect of Dilution of Three Samples With  $T_3$ -FS on  $T_3$  Value

Sample No.	Amount Assayed (µ1s)	$T_3$ Concentration N = (M ± SD) ng/100 m1
1	50	117 ± 3.1
1	100	130 ± 2.9
2	25	213 ± 4.5
2	100	$230 \pm 4.9$
3	25	400 ± 6.1
3	50	385 ± 5.6

Further support to the absence of serum protein effect is indicated in Table (24) where the volume of the sample was completed to 100  $\mu l$  with diluent to replace  $T_3$ -free serum.

Sample assayed	$T_3$ Value $\mu g/100$ ml $M \pm SD$
50 μl Pool + 50 μl diluent	154 ± 4.0 (N=5)
50 μ1 Pool + 50 μ1 T <sub>3</sub> -FS	155 ± 3.6 (N=5)
100 µ1 Pool	154 ± 2.3 (N=5)

Table (25) shows that the assay is well buffered against TBG level variation because the addition of up to 50  $\mu l$  ot  $T_3$ -FS has no significant effect on the  $T_3$  value. This indicates that variation in TBG level encountered in pregnancy should have no significant effect on the  $T_3$  value. However, adding 100  $\mu l$  of  $T_3$  FS caused significant increase above the original value.

TABLE 25 Effect of Variation in Serum Protein Level on the T Value. T Tree Serum was Added in Increasing Amounts to 100  $\mu l$  of a Sample

7
38

# d. Antisera Cross Reactivity With $T_4$

In Table (26) the cross reactivity of two commercial antisera is compared. It is clear that Endocrine Sciences (ES) antibody have much lower cross reactivity with  $T_4$  than Wien Laboratories (WL). Also, with WL antisera the value we obtained is higher than what is given by the supplier of the antisera.

TABLE 26  ${\it Estimation of the Cross Reactivity of Two Commercial } \\ {\it T_3 Antibody }$ 

Antibody Source	T,	3 Value g/tube	T <sub>4</sub> Added ng/tube	T <sub>3</sub> Value (After T <sub>4</sub> was Added) pg/tube	Cross Reactivity Value*	Supplier Value of Cross Reactivity
WL	0	(blank)	10	100	1.0%	0.75%
WL	0	(blank)	20	220	1.1%	
WL	150	(sample)	10	255	1.05%	
ES	0	(blank)	1.0	25	0.25%	0.25%
ES	250	(standard)	20	295	0.225%	
ES	200	(sample)	20	255	0.27%	

<sup>\*</sup>Cross reactivity is determined by this formula

$$\frac{\text{Increase in the T}_3 \text{ value (pg/tube)}}{\text{Added T}_4 \text{ in pg/tube}} \hspace{0.2cm} \text{X 100}$$

It has been shown that cross reactivity estimates vary depending on the purity of the  $T_4$  preparation (67). This also indicates that these values are not due to true cross reaction of the Anti- $T_3$  with  $T_4$  but also to its content of  $T_3$ .

The difference in cross reactivity values between the two antisera in Table (26) can be attributed to difference in stereospecificity of the two antibodies because the same  $\mathrm{T}_\Delta$  preparation is used.

TABLE 27

Effect of  $T_3$  Antibody Cross Reactivity With  $T_4$  on  $T_3$  Value

Ab Source	Z p		<b>⊢</b> بر	T <sub>3</sub> ng/100 ml	Mean and Range	Range (N=3)	<b>S</b>	
Dilution	%B	<u> </u>	2	w	4	G	6	7
Wien 1/5000	35%	127 (120-134)	160 (150-170)	132.5 (123-141)	433 (420-446)	315 (299-331)	94.5 (90-99)	127 160 132.5 433 315 94.5 263 (120-134) (150-170) (123-141) (420-446) (299-331) (90-99) (255.5-270.5)
Endocrine Sciences								
1/6000	33.5%	85 (82–88)	148 (140-156)	118 (108–128)	350 (345-355)	246 (240-252)	75 (69.8–80	148     118     350     246     75     217       (140-156)     (108-128)     (345-355)     (240-252)     (69.8-80.2)     (214-222)
Τ <sub>4</sub> μg/100 ml		4.8	5.2	6,1	17.2	15.2	3.2	7.1

TABLE 28

The Effect of the Separation Method on the  ${\bf T}_3$  Value

Separation	Dose-Response-Curve	Response-C	Jurve			T, T	T <sub>3</sub> ng/100 ml Mean and Range	Mean and	1 Range	(N=3)	
Method	Net %Bo Slope	Slope	NSB	1	2	n E	7	7.	9	7	∞
PEG	36%	3.9 6.8	6.8	75	69-09	190 185-194	95	210 203-217	340 326-354	474 465-483	606 580–632
DA	37.2%	3.6 4.5	4.5	75 65–79	50 46–56	186 175–196	100 92-108	183 171–195	331 324-340	493 483–50 <sup>2</sup>	626 4 615-636
SAS	29.6%	6.4 8.0	8.0	150 143-157	100 86-114	260 241-281	140 129-150	290 268-301	345 335–336	610 581-639	760 698-819
DCC	39%	5.4 16.0	16.0	112 110-118	75 66–85	251 238-269	110 103-117	245 231–257	245 400 231–257 390–410	592 571–621	700 676–725

## e. Reproducibility

Table (29) shows the coefficient of variation observed in duplicates of 25 samples within a run. Samples studied were of wide range 45-365 ng/100 ml. A higher coefficient of variation is obtained when 20 samples are assayed in five different runs. Generally coefficient of variation was lower at the normal range of  $T_3$  (60-195 ng/ml).

TABLE 29
Within Run and Between Run Coefficient of Variation

Reproducibility	No. of Samples	No. of Runs	Coefficient of Variation
Within run	25	4	6.4 ± 1.5
Between runs (day to day)	20	5	7.9 ± 2.6

# f. Methodological Variables Effect on the $\mathrm{T}_3$ Value

(1) Effect of the  $\mathbf{T}_3$  antibody cross reactivity with  $\mathbf{T}_4$  on  $\mathbf{T}_3$  value.

It is evident in Table (27) that the use of Wien Laboratory antisera, which is the only variable in this experiment, gave higher  ${\bf T}_3$  values than Endocrine Sciences antisera. This elevation seems to correlate with  ${\bf T}_4$  level and is attributed to the higher cross reactivity of the WL antisera with  ${\bf T}_4$ . These results indicate clearly that the

specificity of the antisera used in  $\mathbf{T}_3$  RIA has significant effect on the  $\mathbf{T}_3$  value.

(2) Effect of the separation method on the  $T_3$  value.

In Table (28) it is shown that the method used to separate the free from bound fraction of  $T_3^{-125}I$  has consistent effect on the  $T_3$  value. The overall effect of this variable correlates with the parameter of the dose-response curve, thus the higher the slope and NSB, the higher the  $T_3$  value is. A good correlation is found between the double antibody method and polyethylene glycol. However, a much higher value is obtained with SAS and DCC.

(3) The effect of the type and concentration of the inhibitor on the  $T_3$  value.

Table (30) compares the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value of six samples with wide range when different inhibitors are used at optimal concentration.  $\mathrm{T}_3$  values obtained are not significantly different when ANS or sodium salicylate is used, however slightly lower values are observed with merthiclate. This seems to correlate with lower slope obtained with this substance. Decreasing sodium salicylate concentration to 0.4% did not affect the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value. This is because 0.4% is within the effective range of this substance (Figure 3).

(4) Effect of antibody dilution on the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value

In Table (31) a slight but consistent increase in the  ${\rm T}_3$  value is observed when higher dilution of the same antisera is used. This can be attributed to increase in the sensitivity which is known to be increased with dilution.

TABLE 30

Effect of the Type of Inhibitor or its Concentration on the  ${\rm T}_3$  Value

Concentration	Slope	Parameter %B NS	Parameter Slope %B NSB		2	T <sub>3</sub> ng/100 ml		Mean and Range (N=3)	3) 6
Merthiolate .15%	2.58	30.4	0.9	42 (41-45)	80 (76–86)	152 (148–156)	410 (392-438)	126 (118-134)	180 (163–195)
ANS 0.06%	3.38	31.5	9.4	65	73	190	485	148	222
				(56-74)	(99-99)	(181–199)	(181-199) (463-507)	(140-156)	(210-233)
Sodium Salicylate 0.4%	3.4	32.8	7.0	36 (30-42)	95 (91–101)	193 532 (186-199) (509-551)	532 (509–551)	161 (151–171)	226 (218-235)
Sodium Salicylate 0.8% 3.	ate 3.1	36.7 4	4.5	40 (32–48)	92 (90–94)	200 (193-207)	561 (531–589)	169 (159 <b>-</b> 179)	220 (201–229)

TABLE 31 Comparison of Serum  $\mathrm{T}_3$  Values at Two Dilutions of the Same Antibody

Ab Source	$T_3$ ng/100 ml Mean and Range							
and Dilution	%В	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Wien 1:5000	48%	101	105	110	425	227	82	290
	9	8-104	100-110	104-114	410-441	217–227	71-94	280-301
Wien 1:10000	35%	127	160	132	483	263	96	336
	12	0-134	147 <b>-</b> 173	126-140	459-507	248–276	91 <b>-</b> 101	305–366

# Normal T<sub>3</sub> value by this RIA

The normal level (Euthyroid) of serum  $T_3$  by this method is 60-195 ng/100 ml or 128  $\pm$  35 ng/100 ml. Which is in close agreement with many of reported  $T_3$  RIA.

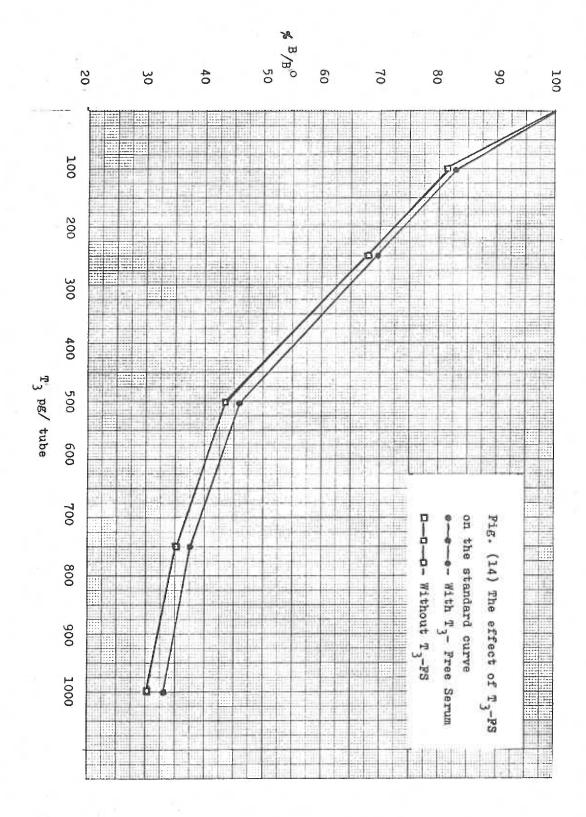
# Correlation of the $T_3$ value by RIA with $T_4$ value by CPB

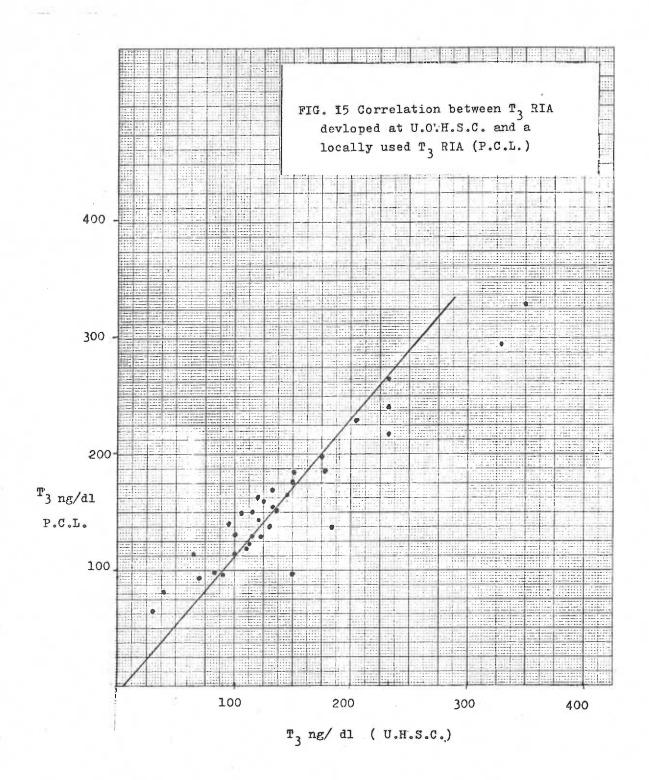
A good correlation was found in the samples analyzed. The correlation coefficient is 0.932. All samples which were in the hyperthyoid range by  $\mathrm{T}_4$  were in the same range by  $\mathrm{T}_3$ . This also was found to be true in the normal range. Three samples out of ten were in the hypothyroid range by  $\mathrm{T}_4$  but gave borderline results (Hypo-Euo) by  $\mathrm{T}_3$  RIA.

# Correlation of this T<sub>3</sub> RIA with another T<sub>3</sub> RIA

Figure (15) shows that generally lower values were obtained by this method. However, since the normal range of PCL method is higher 80-220 ng/100 ml, the diagnostic accuracy of the two methods is equivalent. It is observed in Figure (15) that most of the values are

on the PCL side of the 100% correlation line. The actual correlation value (r) between the two methods is 94.5%. PCL method uses double antibody techniques for separation which makes the procedure much longer (overnight incubation).





#### DISCUSSION

# A. Development of a $T_3$ Radioimmunoassay

The radioimmunoassay of  $T_3$  in human serum is a relatively new technique. Several reports have been published on this subject with wide variation in methodology and normal values (Table 3). The reported procedures vary mainly in the following aspects:

- The method used to inhibit or eliminate the TBG effect on the assay
- 2. The quality of the antisera (especially the cross reactivity with  $\mathbf{T}_{4})$
- 3. The method used to separate the free from bound fraction The invitro competition for  $T_3$  by TBG was emphasized as the most important factor in  $T_3$  RIA (63). As demonstrated in Table (11), adding  $T_3$ -Free serum led to substantial decrease in the percent  $T_3$ -125 bound to the  $T_3$  antibody. To eliminate the effect of TBG on the assay two methods were evaluated. The use of binding inhibitors and the use of heat inactivation of the TBG.

Several compounds have been used to block  $T_3$  binding to TBG, (Table 1). Some of these were found to have serious drawbacks such as instability (tetra chlorothyronine,  $T_4$ ) or insolubility at the assay pH 8-9 (diphenylhydantoin). The effectiveness of the best three inhibitors; ANS, sodium salicylate and merthicalte were compared, (Figure 3). In agreement with Hufner et al (68), we found ANS and sodium salicylate to be superior to merthicalte. It is useful that these substances show a plateau type response within which the inhibitor can be used

in excess to buffer the assay against TBG level variation. However, if they are used above a certain level they will inhibit binding of T3 to the antibody. Merthiolate does not show that in our study but it was shown by Sterling (66) to exhibit the cross reactivity effect if used at higher concentration. Sodium salicylate was selected for use in our assay because it showed no effect on the  $\mathrm{T}_3$ -anti  $\mathrm{T}_3$  interaction, (Figure 5), and because it is more practical to use than ANS which is photosensitive, thus a fresh solution should be prepared for each run (63). Furthermore, it is reported that sodium salicylate inhibits the binding to TBPA (73) which eliminates the need for using barbital buffer. Heat inactivation of TBG at 60°C for 45 minutes was compared with ANS. Despite similarity in the standard curves obtained under both conditions, Figure (6), higher T3 values for the same samples were obtained with heat inactivation method, Table (12). The same observation was found (with greater elevation in  $T_3$  values) when serum was heated at acid pH to  $100^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$  for 15 minutes. This increase can be attributed to the effect of heat on the  $T_A$ , as observed in Table (13). We assumed that the in vitro conversion of  $T_4$  to  $T_3$  due to heat is the reason for this elevation. Whatever the end product of the effect of heat on  $T_{h}$ , clearly it is leading to significant false elevation in the  $T_{3}$ value. Therefore, we considered this approach unapplicable for T3 RIA. Sterling et al (66) has used heat inactivation at 60°C for 3 hours. The normal values they reported are higher than the great majority of other reports (Table 3). They are only in close agreement with Gharib et al (67) who did not use  $T_3$  FS in the standard curves at all. Heat inactivation may be the reason for elevation of the  $T_3$  value in Sterling report. Our study documents for the first time the effect of heat on the  ${\bf T}_4$  stability.

The antisera cross reactivity with  $T_4$  is of major significance here. Observable difference in the sample  $T_3$  value was found when two commercial antisera were compared Table (27). This was because Endocrine Sciences antisera had much less cross reactivity with  $T_4$  than Wien Laboratories antisera Table (26). It is worth noting here that the cross reactivity values in Table 26 are determined using unpurified  $T_4$  which contains some  $T_3$ . Therefore, they are not true cross reactivity values. The fact we found higher values than the ones provided by Wien Laboratories may be due to the use of  $T_4$  with different purity. All  $T_4$  cross reactivity values reported in Table (2) are determined on unpurified  $T_4$  except for Mitsuma et al (70) which represents a true value for their antibody.

The reason we don't see correlation between the cross reactivity value of  $T_4$ , Table (2), and the normal  $T_3$  value, is that other methodological variables have different effects on the  $T_3$  value as will be discussed later. Endocrine Sciences antisera, due to its lower cross reactivity with  $T_4$  (0.25%) was selected for our assay.

In evaluating methods used to separate the free from the bound fraction, Polyethylene Glycol, used at optimal concentration, was found most effective and practical method. It gave us results which agreed with the double antibody method Table (28). PEG final concentration was found dependent on the serum protein concentration (81). Therefore, the optimal concentration should be determined for each assay. 12.75%

PEG was found optimal in this study to insure complete precipitation of the bound fraction with least nonspecific precipitation (Figures 11, 12, and 13). Sekadde et al (75) have added T<sub>3</sub>-FS immediately after adding PEG presumably as a carrier protein to enhance the precipitation. We found no need for this in this assay probably because serum protein concentration is sufficient to obtain a good precipitate. Unlike PEG, 50% saturated ammonium sulfate gave a large but soft precipitate with very high NSP or (NSB). The use of 45% SAS proved to be better if the precipitate was washed. This additional step and the lower reproducibility observed with this method made us prefer PEG.

In agreement with Hufner et al (68) and Twomey et al (82) the optimal pH for  $T_3$  RIA is 9. It is known that  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  have lower binding affinity to TBG at alkaline pH. Borate buffer was selected to achieve pH 9 because of its higher pK over Barbitol buffer.

The use of  $T_3$ -Free serum in the standard curve is essential for the accuracy of the assay. Any RIA must be viewed as depending entirely on a comparison between the standard and unknowns. Therefore, essential identity should be achieved between standards and specimen by methodological modification. Standard curves set up with or without  $T_3$ -FS (both having inhibitor) are not usually the same Figure (14). This observation has been found in most reports on  $T_3$ -RIAS (64, 73). Four percent BSA solution has been used to replace  $T_3$ -FS by Utiger et al (18). This only brings about similar albumin environment but does not as accurately duplicate the specimen matrix.

To account for the nonspecific binding (NSB) which represents

the  ${\rm T_3}^{-125}{\rm I}$  which is not bound to the antibody, however it is trapped or remains in the bound fraction, pool serum was preferred over  ${\rm T_3}^{-125}{\rm FS}$ , because the presence of unlabeled  ${\rm T_3}$  and  ${\rm T_4}$  makes the NSB thus determined closer to the actual NSB in the unknowns.

The final RIA method thus developed is accurate as indicated by the good recovery of  $T_{\rm q}$  added to serum specimen with different amounts of endogenous  $T_3$  Table (21), and by the similarity of the  $T_3$ values obtained by direct determination versus those obtained by extraction Table (22). Both the recovery and extraction studies show that all the endogenous  $T_3$  in serum is made available to the antibody in the course of the reaction and that serum proteins, especially TBG, had no significant effect on the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value by this method. The absence of serum protein effect on the assay was confirmed in several ways. The dose response curve set up by increased amounts of hyperthyroid control was found very similar to the dose response set up using standard  $T_3$  and the linearity is excellent Figure (14). Furthermore, adding  $T_3$  Free serum to a sample did not change the  $T_3$  value significantly Table (25), indicating that the assay is satisfactorily buffered against normal variation in the concentration of TBG and other thyroid binding proteins in the blood. The minimum detectable level in this method is 12 ng/dl, a concentration rarely found in the hypothyroid level. Most reports on RIA of  $T_3$  show the ability to detect hypothyroid patients except for Chopra's first (64). The lack of sensitivity by Chopra's method has been attributed to the use of hypothyroid sheep serum to construct the standard curve and  $T_4$  as an inhibitor. Since there is some  $T_3$  present

in the sheep serum and in  $T_4$  preparation both factors caused the elevation in the detectable limit Table (2). The clinical validity of this assay is indicated by the good correlation (r = .932) between the  $T_3$  values determined by this method and the  $T_4$  values of the same samples, as determined by competitive protein binding (Abbott).

## B. Study of the $T_3$ Value Variation

The normal level of serum  $T_3$  by this method is 60-195 ng/dl. Our normal value is in relatively close agreement with most reports on  $T_3$  RIA Table (3). Significantly higher values have been reported by Garib et al (67) 215  $\pm$  55/dl and by Sterling (66) 189  $\pm$  30.

In analyzing the reason for this variation in normal  $T_3$  level, two etiologies must be considered. First, geographic differences in iodine intake lead to variation in  $T_3$  level in normal individuals. This observation has been supported by a study by Garib et al (38) in which the same  $T_3$  RIA method was used in two different areas (Minnesota and California). It was found that slightly but significantly higher values were obtained in areas of lower iodine intake. The second reason for the variation is the methodological variables of  $T_3$  RIA. A recent inter-laboratory comparison of serum  $T_3$  by Amirav et al (83) found a mean variation of 36% between 16 laboratories who analyzed the same samples. This study, however, was not able to determine which factor(s) of the various procedures are responsible. The question remained, how do these variables affect the  $T_3$  value? Our study considered first the variation in  $T_3$ -Ab cross reactivity with  $T_4$ . This, as shown in Table (27), caused significant variation in the  $T_3$  value; thus the

higher the cross reactivity, the higher the  $T_3$  level. This observation might not have been possible if more than one methodological variable was involved at the same time. The other variables which are found to have an effect on  $T_3$  value are: the type of inhibitor Table (30), the method of separation Table (28), and the antisera dilution Table (31). It is observed that there is a consistent and positive relationship between the slope of the standard curve and the  $T_3$  value of the unknowns. This relation indicates a nonidentical response of the standards and the unknowns to methodological variations. This can be attributed to some intrinsic differences between the standards and the unknowns. These differences are not completely resolved by the methodological modification used so far. Using a special quality control study on  $T_3$  RIA, Moser et al (76) support the relationship found here between the slope, NSB, and the  $T_3$  value. The exact  $T_3$  value, thus remains unknown, and if the direct  $T_3$  RIA is to remain the procedure of choice, the use of international standards would be a good way to reduce the heterogeniety in  $T_3$  value among laboratories.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS REFRENCES

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The methodological variables of  $T_3$  radioimmunoassay were studied, a new procedure was developed and the effects of the methodological variables on the serum  $T_3$  value were evaluated.

Among the different methods used to eliminate the effect of TBG on the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value, sodium salicylate was found the most effective and practical inhibitor. Also it showed no significant effect on the  $\mathrm{T}_3$ -anti  $\mathrm{T}_3$  interaction. Heat inactivation of TBG causes false elevation in the  $\mathrm{T}_3$  value by affecting  $\mathrm{T}_4$  present in the unknowns. Therefore, this approach was considered unapplicable to  $\mathrm{T}_3$  RIA. The binding of  $\mathrm{T}_3$  to anti- $\mathrm{T}_3$  was found optimal at pH 9.0 and this was established with borate buffer. To separate the bound from the free fraction, PEG at final concentration 12.75 was preferred over 50% saturated ammonium sulfate, dextran coated charcoal, ion exchange resins and double antibody. Effective separation and lower nonspecific binding was obtained by PEG.

The final procedure depends on the use of commercial antisera at dilution which bind 40-50% of the added  $T_3^{125}I$  (60-100 pg). Reaction mixture, 0.1 ml serum or standard, 0.1 ml antibody, 0.1 ml sodium salicy-late, 0.1 ml  $T_3^{125}I$  and 0.1 ml diluent, was incubated at  $37^{\circ}C$  for 30 minutes followed by 2 hours at  $4^{\circ}C$ . Separation was then achieved by 1.5 ml of 17% PEG solution. This procedure was found to be accurate by recovery and extraction studies, and sensitive to detect 12 ng/dl. The within run variation is 6.4 ± 1.5% (CV ± SD) and between runs  $7.9 \pm 2.6\%$  (CV ± SD). Normal  $T_3$  value by this method is 60-195 ng/dl.

Several methodological variables affect the  $T_3$  value significantly. The cross reactivity of antisera with  $T_4$  has been shown here as a factor leading to variation in the  $T_3$  value. Other variables as the separation method, the antibody dilution, the type of inhibitor used, affect the  $T_3$  value by varying the parameters of the standard curve, i.e. slope, nonspecific binding. It is found that the higher the slope the higher the  $T_3$  value. This may be due to differences in the matrix of the standards and the unknowns. These differences have not been resolved by the methodological modification used so far. It is concluded here that the methodological variables are responsible for the heterogeniety in the  $T_3$  value.

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