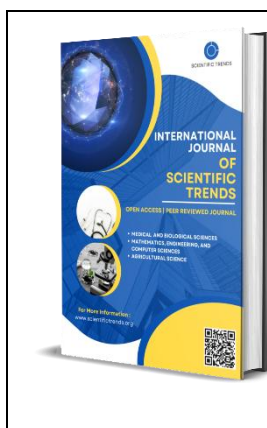


The Prevalence of Endemic Goiter, The Effect of Iodine Deficiency on The Human Body and The Prevention of Iodine Deficiency Conditions

Adilova Zilolakhon Ulmasovna
Tashkent Medical Academy, School of Public Health

Xudayqulova Vasila Avaz qizi
Master's Student of Health Management and Public Health
Tashkent Medical Academy



Abstract

The identification and care of endemic goiter, as well as the prevention of iodine deficiency-related diseases, have been widely studied on an international scale. Foreign researchers have developed several new methodologies and preventive strategies to enhance the effectiveness of healthcare systems in addressing this issue.

Keywords: Endemic goiter, Prevalence, Early detection, Care, Epidemiological monitoring, Prevention, Healthcare system.

Introduction

The following is an analysis of important international research in this area: The World Health Organization (WHO) has developed a global strategy to eliminate iodine deficiency-related diseases; the WHO report "Iodine Deficiency: 2007" emphasizes the importance of iodized salt intake and notes that the introduction of iodized salt has resulted in a significant global decrease in goiter worldwide. The report notes that the introduction of iodized salt has led to a significant decrease in goiter worldwide. The report cites urinary iodine measurement as the main criterion for assessing iodine levels in the population, which can assist patronage nurses in collecting epidemiological data [1].

Hetzel's research (1970–1980) demonstrated the negative impact of iodine deficiency on cognitive development. In his work "The Story of Iodine Deficiency", Hetzel extensively discussed the link between endemic goiter and cretinism. These studies revealed the adverse societal effects of iodine deficiency and prompted the strengthening of preventive measures [1].

Michael Zimmermann's research established the importance of iodized salt consumption in controlling endemic goiter. His article, "Iodine Deficiency" (2011), detailed the global significance and epidemiological indicators of iodine deficiency. Zimmermann also extensively studied the effects of iodine intake on pregnant women, proving that iodine deficiency during pregnancy adversely affects fetal intellectual development [1].

J. Watson, in "Community Health Nursing and Nutrition" (2015), highlighted the role of patronage nurses in promoting healthy nutrition and improving public health. This study presented methods for early detection of endemic goiter and teaching healthy lifestyles through patronage services [2].

Frans van Delange's research focused on improving global monitoring systems for iodine deficiency. In his book "Iodine Deficiency in Europe: A Continuing Concern" (2004), he analyzed the effectiveness of programs addressing iodine deficiency, emphasizing the role of not only iodized salt but also other iodine-fortified food products in reducing endemic goiter [3].

Kapes and colleagues, in their study "Iodine Nutrition in Children: Current Perspectives" (2018), addressed the identification of iodine deficiency in children and its consequences. The study highlighted intellectual decline and growth retardation due to iodine deficiency, emphasizing the critical role of patronage nurses [6].

Hetzel and Pandav's book, "S.O.S. for a Billion: The Iodine Deficiency Disorders", offered a comprehensive analysis of iodine deficiency and its global health impacts. Key conclusions include: iodine deficiency affects over a billion people worldwide, leading not only to thyroid disorders (e.g., endemic goiter) but also to intellectual and physical developmental issues, particularly in children and pregnant women. Iodized salt programs have proven the most effective, affordable, and widely used strategy to combat iodine deficiency, significantly improving global health since the 1990s. [5].

Zimmermann's article, "Iodine Deficiency" (2009), provided an extensive analysis of the global impact of iodine deficiency, concluding:

Approximately 2 billion people, including 241 million children, are at risk of iodine deficiency globally. Iodine deficiency often occurs in areas with iodine-poor soil, water, and food. Iodine deficiency during pregnancy increases the risk of intellectual impairment, mortality, and congenital defects in fetuses. It reduces a child's intellectual development by 10–15 IQ points, significantly affecting economic and social development. Iodine deficiency disrupts thyroid hormone synthesis, impacting cellular metabolism and development [5].

Delange's study, "The Role of Iodine in Brain Development" (2000), scientifically substantiated the critical role of iodine in brain development and emphasized the significance of global preventive strategies. Conclusions included:

Iodine is essential for synthesizing thyroid hormones (thyroxine and triiodothyronine). These hormones are crucial for brain development during fetal growth and early life. Iodine deficiency during pregnancy adversely affects fetal brain development. Severe iodine deficiency results in congenital hypothyroidism and cretinism (serious intellectual and physical developmental defects).

Iodine deficiency in early childhood reduces intellectual development and learning ability. Iodine deficiency impairs neuronal proliferation and neural connections in the nervous system. Adequate iodine intake, particularly for pregnant women, ensures healthy intellectual development in children [11].

Laurberg and colleagues, in their study "Iodine Intake as a Determinant of Thyroid Disorders in Populations" (2002), analyzed the relationship between iodine intake levels and thyroid disorders, concluding:

Iodine intake significantly affects thyroid function. Low iodine intake leads to endemic goiter and other thyroid disorders, such as hypothyroidism. Excessive iodine intake may increase the risk of autoimmune thyroid diseases (e.g., Graves' disease or Hashimoto's thyroiditis). Optimal iodine intake is necessary to prevent thyroid disorders. Both low and high iodine intake disrupt thyroid function [10].

The research highlights the critical role of maintaining balanced iodine intake levels in reducing thyroid disorders.

The UNICEF report "Sustainable Elimination of Iodine Deficiency" (2019) outlines strategies for the sustainable elimination of iodine deficiency and its significance in global health systems. The key findings include:

Iodine deficiency remains a significant problem in many countries, particularly in developing nations. It is linked to reduced mental development in children and complications during pregnancy[9].

As a result of UNICEF initiatives, 86% of the global population now uses iodized salt. Salt iodization is noted as the most effective and economically viable method for reducing iodine deficiency.

The production and iodization of salt must be rigorously monitored. Strong collaboration between governments, health organizations, and the private sector is essential[11].

Public awareness campaigns are crucial to educate populations about the health benefits of iodine. In underserved regions, efforts to ensure the availability of iodized salt must be intensified. Special attention should be given to providing iodine supplements for pregnant women and children [10]. Regular data collection and evaluation of iodine programs are essential to ensure sustainability.

Addressing iodine deficiency improves population intellectual capacity, which positively impacts economic development. Enhancing IQ levels and children's learning abilities contributes to achieving sustainable development goals.

The UNICEF report provides clear guidance on steps to sustain efforts to eliminate iodine deficiency, making it an essential document in global public health [11].

The World Iodine Association (WIA) report "Global Iodine Nutrition: Current Status and Future Perspectives" (2021) examines global iodine intake, iodine deficiency, and strategies to address future challenges. Key findings include:

Thanks to salt iodization programs, iodine deficiency has significantly decreased in many countries. However, it remains a public health issue in regions like Africa, Southeast Asia, and the Middle East[12].

In developing nations, iodine programs face challenges due to resource limitations and infrastructure issues.

In developed countries, reduced consumption of iodized salt and the rise of alternative products (e.g., sea salt) have created new challenges[14].

Universal Salt Iodization (USI) is highlighted as the most effective and cost-efficient strategy to combat iodine deficiency.

Programs and strategies should be tailored to local needs, focusing on vulnerable populations such as pregnant women and children.

Digital technologies and monitoring systems can track the success of iodine programs.

Strengthening global collaboration and providing financial and technical support for national iodine programs are necessary.

Expanding fortified food products with other micronutrients is recommended.

The WIA report offers valuable insights into the current status of iodine nutrition and proposes strategic goals for sustainable elimination of iodine deficiency [14].

In their study “How Can We Achieve and Maintain High-Quality Performance of Health Workers in Low-Resource Settings?” (2005), Rowe et al. The study explores strategies to ensure and maintain high quality performance of health care workers in resource-limited settings. Key findings include: resource-limited settings often face infrastructure and capacity constraints. Effective strategies to improve health care worker performance include providing motivation, training, and access to resources. Adequate material and technical support, along with financial and emotional encouragement, enhances performance. Regular training and professional development opportunities are essential for improving the competence of health care workers. Recognizing the importance of healthcare workers and creating sustainable working conditions helps create an effective work environment.

This study emphasizes strategies to enhance healthcare workers' efficiency in low-resource settings and offers recommendations for global health policy development [14].

The research on the molecular impacts of iodine deficiency on thyroid function concludes the following:

Iodine deficiency impairs normal thyroid function, leading to enlargement of the gland (goiter) [16].

It destabilizes the production and metabolism of thyroid hormones, especially T3 (triiodothyronine) and T4 (thyroxine).

Molecular studies on iodine deficiency can pave the way for developing new therapeutic strategies[15].

A combination of genetic factors and iodine deficiency may play a significant role in the development of thyroid disorders.

This research underscores the importance of molecular understanding of iodine deficiency and its role in thyroid health, offering prospects for improved prevention and treatment strategies [16].

Pearce's study (2013) examines iodine nutrition and deficiency trends worldwide. Key findings include: iodine deficiency remains a serious public health problem worldwide. However, salt iodization programs have led to significant improvements in affected countries. Iodine deficiency continues to affect many developing countries, particularly in Asia, Africa, and the Middle East. For pregnant women and children, iodine deficiency poses serious risks to brain development. Global efforts supported by organizations such as UNICEF and WHO have led to significant reductions in iodine deficiency in regions such as Latin America and the Middle East. [16].

In conclusion, it should be noted that the main effects of iodine deficiency in the human body have now been clearly demonstrated. Iodine deficiency disrupts the synthesis of thyroid hormones and affects cellular metabolism. Iodine deficiency during pregnancy increases the risk of intellectual disabilities, mortality, and birth defects in the fetus. The role of iodine deficiency in the development of various pathologies is indicated by the fact that their occurrence can be prevented by daily intake of physiological doses of iodine. The Global Salt Iodization Program, which is

currently being widely implemented worldwide by UNICEF and WHO with the support of ICCIDD (International Council for the Control of Iodine Deficiency).

References

1. WHO/UNICEF/ICCIDD. Assessment of iodine deficiency disorders and monitoring their elimination: a guide for programme managers [updated 1st September 2008]. 3rd edn. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization, 2007 Hetzel, B. S., The Story of Iodine Deficiency (1970–1980s).
2. Zimmermann MB. The role of iodine in human growth and development. *Semin Cell Dev Biol.* 2011 Aug; 22(6):645-52. doi: 10.1016/j.semcdb.2011.07.009. Epub 2011 Jul 23. PMID: 21802524.
3. Delange F. Iodine deficiency in Europe anno 2002. *Thyroid International*, 2002, 5:3–18
4. Kapes et al., *Iodine Nutrition in Children: Current Perspectives* (2018).
5. Hetzel BS. An overview of the elimination of brain damage due to iodine deficiency. In: Hetzel BS, ed. *Towards the global elimination of brain damage due to iodine deficiency*. New Delhi, Oxford University Press, 2004: 24–37
6. Zimmermann, M. B., "Iodine deficiency," *Endocrine Reviews*, 30(4), 376–408 (2009).
7. World Health Organization (WHO), *Nursing and midwifery: Key facts* (2022).
8. Institute of Medicine, *The Future of Nursing: Leading Change, Advancing Health*. The National Academies Press (2011).
9. Delange, F., "The role of iodine in brain development," *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, 59(1), 75–79 (2000).
10. Laurberg, P., et al., "Iodine intake as a determinant of thyroid disorders in populations," *Trends in Endocrinology & Metabolism*, 13(10), 451–457 (2002).
11. UNICEF, *Sustainable elimination of iodine deficiency* (2019).
12. World Iodine Association (WIA), *Global iodine nutrition: Current status and future perspectives* (2021).
13. Kelley, J., & Hurst, K., "Empowering nurses and midwives in community health programs," *Community Health Journal*, 11(3), 210–217 (2015).
14. Rowe, A. K., et al., "How can we achieve and maintain high-quality performance of health workers in low-resource settings?" *The Lancet*, 366(9490), 1026–1035 (2005).
15. Bonfigliolo, D., et al., "Advances in molecular research on iodine deficiency and thyroid function," *Journal of Endocrinological Investigation*, 41(5), 473–484 (2018).
16. Pearce EN, Andersson M, Zimmermann MB. Global iodine nutrition: Where do we stand in 2013? *Thyroid*. 2013 May;23(5):523-8. doi: 10.1089/thy.2013.0128. Epub 2013 Apr 18. PMID: 23472655.