

International Journal of Hematology-Oncology and Stem Cell Research

# Liquid Biopsy in Thyroid Cancer: New Insight

# Fatemeh Khatami<sup>1</sup>, Seyed Mohammad Tavangar<sup>1, 2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Chronic Diseases Research Center, Endocrinology and Metabolism Population Sciences Institute, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran <sup>2</sup>Department of Pathology, Shariati Hospital, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Corresponding Author: Seyed Mohammad Tavangar, Department of Pathology, Shariati Hospital, Tehran University of Medical Sciences,

Tehran, Iran

Tel: +98 21 84902187 Fax: +98 21 88633078 Email: Tavangar@ams.ac.ir

Received: 13, Mar, 2018 Accepted: 07, May, 2018

### **ABSTRACT**

Thyroid cancer, one of the most widespread malignancies of the endocrine-related system that over the past three decades, has a vivid increasing rate. The diagnosis and management of it is dependent on the tumor type and stage. Thyroid cancer is divided into four main types, including PTC (papillary thyroid carcinoma), FTC (follicular thyroid carcinoma), MTC (medullarly thyroid carcinoma), and ATC (anaplastic thyroid carcinoma). The development of the noninvasive diagnostic tool for plasma genotyping, also known as "liquid biopsy", brings a new insight for cancer diagnosis and prognosis. It is mainly containing circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), circulating tumor cell (CTC), exosomes and extrachromosomal circular DNA (ecDNA). Liquid biopsy as a new plasma genotyping source brings a new prospective of tumor monitoring and therapy. It beneficially reduces the need of tissue biopsy and made early recognition of relapse as well. This article summarizes its components characteristics and their benefit in diagnosis and treatment of thyroid cancer.

Keywords: Biopsy, Carcinoma, Thyroid Cancer, Endocrine System Diseases, cfDNA, CTCs

# **INTRODUCTION**

## Main components of liquid biopsy

It is needless to say that tissue biopsies have some weak points like being invasive and useless in understanding metastatic risk, disease progression, and treatment effectiveness more than being hard for repeating <sup>1</sup>. Over the past few decades, the new real-time diagnostic tool which is referred as "liquid biopsy" has been considered in different type of cancer enormously <sup>2-4</sup>. In contrary to analysis of solid tumors requirement as an invasive procedures, blood tests are easy and safe to carry out and several samples can be taken over time. Actually, the concept of liquid biopsy is composed of circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), circulating tumor cells (CTCs) and exosomes (Figure1) which will be considered in this review in details.

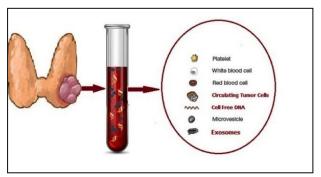


Figure1: Main components of liquid biopsy for genetic and epigenetic analysis of thyroid tumors.

# Circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA)

It was in 1940 that for the first time the presence of extracellular or cell-free nucleic acids was recognized by Mandel and Metais <sup>5</sup>, after that the rheumatologic literature talked about the existence ctDNA in the 1980<sup>6</sup>. Finally, patients with cancer were identified to have high levels of cell-free DNA (cfDNA) in their plasma like patients with benign

diseases including inflammatory bowel disease<sup>7</sup>. In fact, ctDNA are calculated to be presented in blood with the length of 160 to 200 base pairs (bp), predominantly 166 bp long that are released by tumor cells into the bloodstream 8-10. They are a genetic representative of tumor which contains the exact genetic defects identical to their original tumor cells. Interestingly, all molecular variations, point mutations, rearrangements, including amplifications and gene copy variations are easily detectable in plasma's ctDNAs. Cell free DNAs are not completely limited to cancer cells for the reasons that live cells naturally shedding DNA fragments as a part of a homeostatic process 11-14 On the other hand, cancer patients usually have far elevated amount of ctDNA than healthy individuals from 0.01% to more than 90% 15-17. The logic of this variable amount of ctDNA levels in cancer patients can be connected to the tumor burden of tumor, tumor stage, and efficacy of treatments <sup>17, 18</sup>. Although the exact mechanism of coming off ctDNAs into plasma is not clear completely, some suggesting biological processes could be involved, including apoptosis and necrosis from dying cells, or active release from viable tumor cells 12, 19-22. The cfDNA molecular alterations in plasma can reveal the status of the human body in a timely manner, therefore a study designed to check the background somatic mutations in white blood cells (WBC) and cfDNA for healthy controls <sup>23</sup>. In order to realize the pattern and source cfDNA mutations, a panel of 50 cancer-associated genes was analyzed in both WBC and cfDNA groups<sup>23</sup>. It was shown that most of mutations in cfDNA originated from WBC and NPM1 gene was the most frequently mutant gene in both WBC and cfDNA<sup>22,23</sup>.

In normal physiologic conditions, apoptotic and necrotic cells are removed through phagocytes, so ctDNA levels in serum or plasma are quite low, but this mechanism is not applicable in tumor cells. It is possible that in solid tumors ctDNA release through necrosis, autophagy, and other physiologic <sup>16, 24</sup>. It should be kept in mind that unlike apoptosis, necrosis DNA fragments are larger because of incomplete and random DNA digestion <sup>25</sup>. By far, the most interesting spectacle which is brought to the science of oncology by ctDNA is called horizontal tumor gene transfer phenomenon

mediated by circulating DNA 2, 26, 27. It explains that the impact of some other molecules than DNA in tumor formation cannot be ruled out; this is a pure fact that ctDNAs are biologically active DNA to raise tumor progression<sup>26</sup>. In fact, ctDNA represents all genetic alterations which exist in the tumoral genomic DNA, so ctDNA carries genomic and epigenomic alterations such as point mutations, loss of heterozygosity (LOH), rearranged genomic sequences, microsatellite instability (MSI), copy number variation (CNV) and DNA methylation<sup>28-30</sup>. The results of whole-genome sequencing analysis of ctDNA made it clear that copy number variation (CNV) and Single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were noticed in all malignant tumors, but not in healthy individuals<sup>31</sup>. Chan et al. applied shotgun massively parallel sequencing approach in the plasma of cancer patients and successfully completed the whole genome-wide sequencing of CNVs and point mutations<sup>32</sup>. In 1996, recognition of microsatellite instability and loss of heterozygosity in ctDNA were first described by Nawroz et al <sup>33</sup>. DNA methylation as epigenetic change plays crucial roles in gene expression regulation and genetic alteration<sup>34,35</sup>. In fact, alteration of DNA methylation in the non-coding and promoter region of genes can be connected with tumor formation, tumor development, and metastatic spread <sup>36, 37</sup>. In 1999, unusual DNA methylations were noticed in the plasma and serum of lung 38, 39, breast 40 and liver cancers<sup>41</sup>. Afterwards, several researches have pointed out that ctDNA methylation can be considered as an excellent candidate for diagnostic and prognostic of cancer <sup>29,42-44</sup>. Methylation profiling of ctDNA in esophageal cancer patients mentioned the highly significant differences in the methylation status between ctDNA and equivalent tumor tissues<sup>45</sup>. It should be kept in mind that contrary to ctDNA free, RNA molecules are not able to survive in the bloodstream. There is an exception about cell-free microRNAs that can be noticed in plasma or serum of cancer patients<sup>46</sup>. Indeed, detecting RNA molecules could be possible through extracellular vesicles such as exosomes (both coding and non-coding) in platelets<sup>47,48</sup>. More than cfDNA and cfRNA there are some extrachromosomal circular DNA (ecDNA) which are newly suggested to

be presented in blood as a liquid biopsy component

## **Circulating Tumor Cells (CTCs)**

The key reason of cancer-associated death is tumor metastasis, unfortunately, the knowledge of this procedure has not completed yet. In fact, dissemination regularly occurs through the blood, so circulating tumor cells (CTCs) as a candidate circulating element are interesting<sup>50</sup>. Circulating tumor cells (CTCs) are circulating cells in the vasculature or lymphatic's which are released from primary tumors 51, 52. CTCs have the leading role in metastasis which is a key step in the progression of tumors in other distant organs and responsible for the majority of cancer-related deaths<sup>53</sup>. Although for the first time in 1869 CTCs were observed by Thomas Ashworth in the blood of a man with metastatic cancer 54, the value of CTCs in modern cancer research instigated in the mid of 1990s by [J. Uhr, UT-Dallas, L. Terstappen and P. Liberti, Immunicon, Philadelphia]. Afterwards, some cancer researches have confirmed that CTCs are derived from primary tumor<sup>55</sup>. Moreover, noteworthy efforts in understanding the biological properties of CTCs have confirmed their critical role in the metastatic spread of carcinoma<sup>56</sup>. Up to now, several technologies with the essential sensitivity and reproducibility to identify CTCs in patients with metastatic disease have recently been developed 57-<sup>63</sup>. Several studies have shown that the detection of CTCs in the peripheral blood of patients with lung cancer may have prognostic and predicting efficacy in treatment with chemotherapy<sup>39, 64-66</sup>.

The 'seed and soil' theory which is related to tumor invasion and dissemination was launched in 1889 67. According to this theory, the basic properties of the tumor cells as a seed and host microenvironment as a soil are main determinants of tumor formation sites<sup>56,68,69</sup>. Without a doubt, the hypothesis that some CTCs direct 'tumor-initiating' process has been supposed because CTCs are proficient to seed detached metastatic disease<sup>70, 71</sup>. Some reviews of the metastatic process supposed epithelial-to-mesenchymal that reversible transition (EMT) as a crucial step of metastasis is completely dependent on CTC 72-74. For diagnosis and treatment of breast cancer, CTCs are among the most extensively studied ones<sup>75,76</sup>. There is a

definite correlation between CTCs and breast cancer prognosis and survival<sup>76</sup>. CTCs have been reported to harbor many types of mutations and transformations, but, according to the result of a systematic review, the clinical implication of CTCs molecular characteristics, including Her2, EGFR, CEA, CA15-3, CK19, Ki67, PIK3CA, TGF-β and CXCL1 is more truthful than enumeration of CTCs before and during treatment, especially for making the decision<sup>76-79</sup>. personalized treatment best Moreover, the change in the number of CTCs in the field of treatment strategies and drug development could be valuable because patients with a remarkable reduction in CTC count after treatment usually show better outcomes<sup>80-83</sup>.

### **Exosomes**

It was established that exosomes are cell-derived nucleic-acid- and protein-rich nanoparticles which are floating in almost all bodily fluids 84, 85. Actually, exosomes are small particles with a diameter of 30 -100 nm, which is larger than low-density lipoproteins (LDL) and much smaller than red blood cells. The presence of membranous vesicles outside cells in eukaryotic fluids, including blood and urine, was acknowledged 50 years ago although at that time they were assumed as useless products releasing from plasma membrane<sup>86, 87</sup>. Exosomes can exist in various biological fluids, such as plasma and urine 88. At first, exosomes were taken in to account for having role in the removal of needless molecules, after a while some valuable studies clarified exosomes' complex function in tumor progression and metastasis88. They are released from eukaryotic cells when multi-vesicular bodies are fused with the plasma membrane or when they can straightly release from the plasma membrane<sup>89</sup>. The potential of exosomes as a cancer diagnostic tool has been tested for lung cancer<sup>90</sup> and prostate cancer<sup>91</sup>. Interestingly, the advantage of exosomes is that they are predominant in the bloodstream than CTCs92.

# Liquid biopsy detection and characterizations methods

The most important step for liquid biopsy analysis is detection and characterization of them in cancer patients. Thanks to recent developments in sequencing technologies like the digital polymerase reaction (dPCR) and next-generation sequencing (NGS), now it is easily possible to be detected in blood<sup>93-95</sup>. Nowadays, numerous dPCR systems which are droplet-based platforms such as QX200 Droplet Digital PCR System (Bio-Rad Laboratories), RainDrop Digital PCR System (RainDance Technologies) with very high sensitivity are industrialized<sup>96,97</sup>. Moreover, NGS techniques can analyze multiple, broad regions of target ctDNA<sup>94,98,99</sup>.Other foremost techniques detection of mutations in specific genomic regions of ctDNA are "Ion AmpliSeq Technology (Thermo Fisher Scientific)" and "Ion Personal Genome Machine (Ion PGM)"100,101. Also, there are some target capture-based platforms like Sure Select Target Enrichment System (Agilent Technologies) which is generally active for targeted sequencing in combination with the Illumina paired-end sequencing 102,103. Interestingly, it was described that Personalized Profiling deep Sequencing of Rearranged Ends can help to the finding of personalized cancer biomarkers 104, 105.

Techniques for detecting Circulating tumor cells are mostly related to the enrichment of CTCs according to different properties of CTCs that discriminate them from other normal hematopoietic cells. Some physical properties are dimensions, density, electric charges, and some biological characteristics are cell surface molecular markers. Epithelial-marker based approaches are the most common practical strategies for CTC detection based on epithelial markers like Cell Search system which is the only FDA-approved platform for CTC detection in clinical practice on patients with breast, prostate, and colorectal cancers<sup>106</sup>. Moreover, presentation of a mixture of different epithelial markers could be helpful to recover additional epithelium-originating tumor cells<sup>107</sup>. Low blood volume as limiting step can also be solved by Cell Collector which used EpCAM antibody-coated wire to capture CTCs in vivo<sup>108</sup>. There is also the chip-based platform CTCiChip that is an excellent combination of size-based selection and label-dependent enrichment<sup>109</sup>. Additional sized-based approaches are ISET<sup>110</sup>,

Screen Cell and Can Patrol<sup>111</sup>, Parsotix<sup>112</sup> and JETTA <sup>93</sup> systems.

Over the past few decades, many techniques have been developed in order to characterization of exosomes from biological fluids. Usually, biophysical methods are zoomed on the exosomal size range like optical particle tracking which is a method that quantify the size of exosomes from 10 nm to 2 µm and the velocity of the particles 113-119. Additionally, some microfluidic-based methodologies could be used for exosomal characterization as well<sup>120-122</sup>. More than exosomal size, the exosome specific molecular markers like proteins and nucleic acids are suitable markers for tumor tracking. As a matter of fact, exosomes are released through both normal and cancerous cells and include several membrane and cytoplasmic proteins. Consequently, its proteins like Enolase 1, Heat shock protein 8 (HSPA8), α (cytosolic), and class A member 1 (HSP90AA1) can be important in clinical diagnostics 123, 124. Generally, it could be said that exosomal proteins are allocated to the different functional categories such as tetraspanins (CD9, CD63 and CD81), heat shock proteins (HSC70 and HSC90), membrane transporters (GTPases) and lipid-bound proteins<sup>125</sup>. Not only exosomes are involved in the pathogenesis of cancers but also they are involved in pathologies, neurodegenerative including Alzheimer's, Parkinson's and Creutzfeldt-Jakob diseases<sup>126</sup>. Exosomal microRNAs can be useful for diagnostic of several cancer types, for example, some miRNAs were distinguished to be particular biomarkers of ovarian cancer<sup>127,128</sup>. In patients with adenocarcinoma, prostate cancer esophageal squamous cell cancer (ESCC), the levels of exosomal miRNAs have increased 129-131. Also, exosomal microRNAs may be possible indicative biomarkers for renal fibrosis <sup>132</sup> and heart failure<sup>133</sup>. Several companies have improved different technologies for ctDNA, CTCs and detection and characterization of exosomes (Table1).

Table 1: The liquid biopsy detection and characterization techniques in experimental applications

Technique	Descriptions
CTC-Chip	Capture CTCs by using EpCAM- coated microposts under strict manipulation of velocity and shear force
CTC-iChip	The CTC-iChip is composed of two separate microfluidic devices that house three different microfluidic components engineered for inline operation: DLD to remove nucleated cells from whole blood by size-based deflection by using a specially designed array of posts performed in CTC-iChip1, inertial focusing to line up cells to prepare for precise magnetic separation and magnetophoresis for sensitive separation of bead-labeled WBCs and unlabeled CTCs, which are performed in CTC-iChip2. PLTs, platelets
Adna Test	Adna Test has a combination of antibodies that bind with high specificity and affinity to epitopes or antigens on the relevant cancer cells. After magnetic separation, the enriched cells are lysed and purified several time to make the relevant tumor cell information available in the form of mRNA.
EPISPOT( Epithelial Immuno SPOT)	CTCs are enriched by negative depletion and subsequently cultured on a membrane coated with antibodies that capture the secreted proteins. Afterward, the proteins are readily identifiable by immune fluorescence microscopy using fluorochrome-labeled secondary antibodies targeting the protein of interest.
Photoacoustic flowmetry	Making use of the broadband absorption spectrum of melanin, it has been tested to detect melanoma cells and has been combined with nanoparticles targeting cell surface antigens to broaden its applicability in CTC detection.
Affinity based assays Cell Search	The only FDA-approved technology for CTC detection is based on immune magnetic enrichment. It employs an immunomagnetic enrichment step to isolate cells that express the epithelial cells' adhesion molecule (EpCAM). Additionally, to be identified as a CTC, the cellmust contain a nucleus, express cytoplasmic cytokeratin, and have a diameter larger than 5µm. This technology has demonstrated the prognostic utility of enumerating and monitoringCTC counts in patients with metastatic breast, prostate, and colorectal cancers. Semi-automated analyzer enriches CTCs with ferrofluid nanoparticles coated with anti-EpCAM antibodies, then CD45-, CK8+, CK18+ and CK19+ cells are counted by a four-color semi-automated fluorescence microscope
DEPArray (SiliconBiosystems)	DEPArray™ technology is based on the ability of a non-uniform electric field to exert forces on neutral, polarizable particles, such as cells, that are suspended in a liquid. This electrokinetic principle, called dielectrophoresis (DEP), can be used to trap cells in <b>DEP "cages"</b> by creating an electric field above a subset of electrodes in an array that is in counter phase with the electric field of adjacent electrodes. When a DEP cage is moved by a change in the electric field pattern, the trapped cell moves with it.
MagSweeper	A magnetic stir bar coated with an antibody to EpCAM. The device can process 9 mL of blood per hour and purified cells of interest can be individually selected for subsequent molecular analysis, since the MagSweeper technology preserves cell function and does not perturb gene expression.
Telomescan	A novel cancer detection platform that measures telomerase activity from viable CTCs captured on a parylene-C slot microfilter. Using a constant low pressure delivery system, the new microfilter platform is capable of cell capture from 1 mL of whole blood in less than 5 min, achieving 90% capture efficiency. Addition of an adenovirus-containing GFP to peripheral blood assay, incubation with cancer cells allows precise enumeration and visualization of CTCs.

## **Thyroid Cancer**

Thyroid cancer is the most common malignancy of the endocrine system with the remarkable increasing incidence rate over the last three decades<sup>134,135</sup>. According to the National Cancer Institute, the incidence of thyroid cancer has gotten higher with annually death rate of 0.8% from 2002 to 2011<sup>136-138</sup>. More often than not, thyroid cancer is diagnosed through Fine Needle Aspiration (FNA) biopsy, and tissue biopsy is classified into four main types, including 70% to 80% of thyroid cancers, papillary thyroid carcinoma (PTC) which is

the least aggressive type of cancer<sup>139-143</sup>, follicular thyroid carcinoma (FTC), which is more aggressive than PTC, medullary thyroid carcinoma (MTC) that develops from C cells in the thyroid gland, and is more aggressive and less differentiated than papillary or follicular cancers and sometimes is associated with multiple endocrine neoplasia 2 (MEN2) and anaplastic thyroid carcinoma (ATC) that is the most dangerous form of thyroid cancer with the high capacity of metastasis to the adjacent lymph nodes and distant sites<sup>140,144</sup>. Treatment options for thyroid cancer, depending on its type

and stage, are surgery, radioactive iodine (1311) therapy, and molecular-targeted therapies with a number of tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) 145. Several genetic and epigenetic alterations could have leading role for thyroid cancer like mutations leading to the activation of the MAPK and PI3K-AKT signaling pathways<sup>146</sup>, MMP2, caspase3<sup>147-149</sup>, survivin<sup>150</sup> and nm23<sup>151</sup>. Point mutations of BRAF and RAS genes as well as RET/PTC and PAX8/PPARy chromosomal rearrangements were found in thyroid cancer 146, 152-154. In addition to genetic rearrangements, there mutations and epigenetic modifications which are suggested as important factors for thyroid cancer initiation and progression<sup>149, 155</sup>.

# Liquid biopsy applications in thyroid cancer management

In order to real time monitoring of thyroid cancer from diagnosis to post treatment steps, some molecular markers of a noninvasive repeatable biopsy is needed, which means liquid biopsy can be the best candidate. Choosing plasma or serum as a source of cfDNA is challenging because serum apparently contains a greater quantity of free circulating DNA than plasma<sup>156</sup>. The underlying reason for this is unclear, but important because it may have clinical implications in interpreting results and using the appropriate resource<sup>156</sup>. Actually, high levels of circulating cell-free DNA (cf-DNA) have been established to associate with cancer diagnosis and progression. In 2013, it was shown by Mariangela Zane that hypermethylation of SLC5A8 and SLC26A4 genes that are both involved in the iodine metabolism and BRAFV600E mutation in ctDNA have valuable diagnostic value in thyroid cancer patients 149, 157.

Serum DNA methylation assessment as a novel diagnostic tool for thyroid cancer was introduced in  $2006^{158}$ . In that research, the evaluation of methylation status of five genes (CALCA, CDH1, TIMP3, DAPK, and RAR $\beta$ 2) been done by real-time quantitative methylation-specific PCR. Finally, they have confirmed the potential efficacy of serum DNA methylation markers as an innovative diagnostic marker for both patients with thyroid nodules and thyroid cancer recurrence in earlier treated patients<sup>158</sup>. Afterwards, the detectable free

circulating BRAF in patients with PTC was mentioned as a possible determinant of tumor clinical implication<sup>159</sup>. Moreover, it was explained that decreasing levels of BRAFV600cfDNA were associated with longer tumor treating field 160. A higher amount of circulating mutant BRAF<sup>V600</sup> in plasma was reported as a definite related factor with shorter overall survival in patients who were under BRAF/MEK inhibitors treatment<sup>160</sup>. ATC is so aggressive that needs rapid diagnosis and multimodality management. The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, between August 2015 and April 2016, run a research in which nextgeneration sequencing was used in twenty-three patients with ATC<sup>161</sup>. Based on those data, tumor-based and cfDNA analysis usage in the setting of clinical-trial development and application was suggested<sup>161</sup>. Another aggressive thyroid tumor is medullary thyroid carcinoma which is triggered by activating mutations of the RET proto-oncogene receptor (RET<sup>M918T</sup> mutation) <sup>162, 163</sup>. A cohort study was done by Caitlin Evers on 145 plasma samples from 98 patients (45 RET<sup>M918T</sup> tumor positive, 25 RET<sup>M918T</sup> tumor negative and 28 unidentified tumor mutation condition) by using Amplification Refractory Mutation System PCR (ARMS) and the Bio-Rad QX200™ Droplet Digital™ PCR system (ddPCR) (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). Both ARMS and ddPCR are recommended for plasma DNA analysis in the way of mutation detection during disease progression<sup>162</sup>. For thyroid cancer, personalized medicine approach, interestingly the result of a research had revealed that Vemurafenib have its anti-tumor activity in patients with progressive, circulating BRAF<sup>V600E</sup> mutation positive refractory to radioactive iodine that had not been treated with a multi-kinase inhibitor drugs <sup>164</sup>.

Not only circulating DNAs can be valuable source for real-time thyroid tumor tracking but also circulating RNAs have this potential. So, there are some studies which are focused on circulating RNAs in plasma of cancer patients. For example, BRAF<sup>V600E</sup> as an ordinary mutation of PTC is associated with insistent features of disease<sup>165</sup>. For evaluation of the viability and accuracy of a novel RNA-based blood assay to discriminate individuals with a highrisk tumor mutation in patients with PTC, circulating BRAF<sup>V600E</sup>levels were compared with surgical

pathologic DNA-based tissue BRAF mutation assays <sup>165</sup>. The correlation of the RNA-based blood assay and tissue BRAF status was reported, so this RNAbased blood assay was described as an excellent biomarker for prognosis, surveillance, clinical decision making compared to BRAF-targeted therapies<sup>165</sup>. Additionally, exploring the plasma Long Non-Coding RNA (IncRNAs) for the finding of non-<sup>131</sup>I-avid lung metastases of PTC has been done lt was shown that two (ENST00000462717 and ENST00000415582) were up regulated and two (TCONS 00024700 and NR 028494) were down regulated in the non-131 lavid lung metastases of PTC<sup>166</sup>.

An interesting case report had illustrated that circulating epithelial cells (CECs) enumeration simplifies the identification and follow-up of a patient with early stage PTCs<sup>167</sup>. A panel of CEC quantification with serum thyroglobulin testing could be a valuable diagnostic marker for monitoring of thyroid cancer patients<sup>167</sup>. Some data make it evident that collective analysis of serum thyroglobulin with CECs, which are EpCAM positive, is completely applicable for patients at disease-free status and the patients with distant metastasis distinguishing <sup>168</sup>. Therefore, CEC testing thereby can supplement the current standard methods for monitoring disease status of PTC<sup>167</sup>. High-resolution imaging for the detection and characterization of CTCs was used in patients with esophageal, hepatocellular, thyroid and ovarian cancers by Barry M. Dent in January 2016, which resulted in more numbers of CTC detection in the blood of the cancer patient with known metastatic disease<sup>169</sup>. In detail, CTCs were detected in 3 of 6 thyroid cancer patients and most of these tumor cells expressed cytokeratin, thyroglobulin and Sodium: Iodide Symporter (NIS) <sup>169</sup>. The presence of more than or equal to five CTCs per 7.5 ml of blood in patients metastatic modularlyTC (metMTC) associated with inferior overall survival Additional research had shown that in metastatic PTC patients CTCs were characterized aneuploidy, with higher levels of CTCs in metastatic PTC in comparison with controls<sup>171</sup>. Interestingly, the designed probes of lung cancer were suitable for detecting genetic aberrations in metastatic PTC patients' CTCs that logically could explain the similar lineage-specific chromosomal changes in thyroid and lung malignant progenitor cells<sup>170</sup>.

Exosomes, 30-120 nm endocytic membranederived vesicles, are important for inter-and intra cellular communication as well as protein and RNA delivery. Because of their role, they have a variety of proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids 172, 173. It has been proved frequently that molecular components of exosomes, including exosomal proteins and microRNAs (miRNAs) could be suitable non-invasive biomarkers for clinical diagnosis of tumors <sup>174-179</sup>. Very recently, a study revealed that PTC is connected with specific changes in exosomal miRNA profiles<sup>180</sup>. Actually, miRNA-31 was found to be over-represented in the plasma exosomes of PTC compared to benign tumors, while miRNA-21 was helpful for FTC benign tumors discrimination<sup>180</sup>. MiRNA-21 and miRNA-181a-5p were expressed equally in the exosomes of patients with PTC and FTC; therefore, their assessment will be beneficial to decide between PTC and FTC with 100 % sensitivity and 77 % specificity<sup>180</sup>. Moreover, tumor levels of miR-222 and miR-146b were coupled to the PTC recurrence, whereas miR-222 and miR-146b levels in the circulation were linked to the presence of PTC<sup>181</sup>. Some studies were evidence for exosomes and their cancer-derived miRNAs, which regulated the proliferation of recipient cells. For example, PTC-derived exosomes contain miR-146b and miR-222, which alter proliferation of other cells in a malignant behavior

# Conclusion

Taking everything into consideration now is the exact time to be focused on liquid biopsy for thyroid cancer management. It is really important that liquid biopsy will improve the thyroid cancer diagnostic and prognostic strategies in the minimally non-invasive way.

## **Acknowledgments**

This work was supported by the Endocrinology and Metabolism Population Sciences Institute. This article was a part of a superior project which was granted by the National Institute for Medical Research Development (NIMAD, Grant number: 957222).

#### **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality of the research reported.

#### **REFERENCES**

- 1. Marrinucci D, Bethel K, Luttgen M, et al. Circulating tumor cells from well-differentiated lung adenocarcinoma retain cytomorphologic features of primary tumor type. Arch Pathol Lab Med. 2009; 1 33(9):1468-71.
- 2. Alix-Panabières C, Pantel K. Clinical Applications of Circulating Tumor Cells and Circulating Tumor DNA as Liquid Biopsy. Cancer Discov. 2016; 6(5):479-91.
- 3. Bardelli A, Pantel K. Liquid Biopsies, What We Do Not Know (Yet). Cancer Cell. 2017; 31(2):172-179.
- 4. Jr LAD, Bardelli A. Liquid Biopsies: Genotyping Circulating Tumor DNA J Clin Oncol. 2014; 32(6):579-86.
- 5. Mandel P, Metais P. [Not Available]. Comptes rendus des seances de la Societe de biologie et de ses filiales. 1948; 142(3-4):241-3.
- 6. Leon SA, Ehrlich GE, Shapiro B, et al. Free DNA in the serum of rheumatoid arthritis patients. J Rheumatol. 1977; 4(2):139-43.
- 7. Shapiro B, Chakrabarty M, Cohn EM, et al. Determination of circulating DNA levels in patients with benign or malignant gastrointestinal disease. Cancer. 1983; 51(11):2116-20.
- 8. Jahr S, Hentze H, Englisch S, et al. DNA fragments in the blood plasma of cancer patients: quantitations and evidence for their origin from apoptotic and necrotic cells. Cancer Res. 2001; 61(4):1659-65.
- 9. Chan KCA, Zhang J, Hui ABY, et al. Size Distributions of Maternal and Fetal DNA in Maternal Plasma. Clin Chem. 2004; 50(1):88-92.
- 10. Mouliere F, Robert B, Arnau Peyrotte E, et al. High Fragmentation Characterizes Tumour-Derived Circulating DNA. PLoS One. 2011; 6(9):e23418.
- 11. Stroun M, Lyautey J, Lederrey C, et al. About the possible origin and mechanism of circulating DNA: Apoptosis and active DNA release. Clin Chim Acta. 2001; 313(1–2):139-42.
- 12. Anker P, Stroun M, Maurice PA. Spontaneous release of DNA by human blood lymphocytes as shown in an in vitro system. Cancer Res. 1975; 35(9):2375-82.
- 13. Stroun M, Maurice P, Vasioukhin V, et al. The Origin and Mechanism of Circulating DNA. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 2000; 906:161-8.
- 14. Stroun M, Lyautey J, Lederrey C, et al. Alu Repeat Sequences Are Present in Increased Proportions Compared to a Unique Gene in Plasma/Serum DNA. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 2001; 945(1):258-64.

- 15. Stroun M, Anker P, Maurice P, et al. Neoplastic Characteristics of the DNA Found in the Plasma of Cancer Patients. Oncology. 1989; 46(5):318-22.
- 16. Delgado PO, Alves BC, Gehrke Fde S, et al. Characterization of cell-free circulating DNA in plasma in patients with prostate cancer. Tumour Biol. 2013; 34(2):983-6.
- 17. Diehl F, Schmidt K, Choti MA, et al. Circulating mutant DNA to assess tumor dynamics. Nat Med. 2008;14(9):985-90.
- 18. Kohler C, Barekati Z, Radpour R, et al. Cell-free DNA in the circulation as a potential cancer biomarker. Anticancer Res. 2011; 31(8):2623-8.
- 19. Schwarzenbach H, Hoon DSB, Pantel K. Cell-free nucleic acids as biomarkers in cancer patients. Nat Rev Cancer. 2011; 11(6):426-37.
- 20. Stroun M, Anker P. Nucleic acids spontaneously released by living frog auricles. Biochem J. 1972; 128(3):100p-101p.
- 21. Stroun M, Lyautey J, Lederrey C, et al. About the possible origin and mechanism of circulating DNA apoptosis and active DNA release. Clin Chim Acta. 2001; 313(1-2):139-42.
- 22. Kajbafzadeh A-M, Payabvash S, Salmasi AH, et al. Smooth muscle cell apoptosis and defective neural development in congenital ureteropelvic junction obstruction. J Urol. 2006; 176(2):718-23.
- 23. Xia L, Li Z, Zhou B, et al. Baseline mutation profiling of 1134 samples of circulating cell-free DNA and blood cells from healthy individuals. BioRxiv. 2016:089813.
- 24. Roninson IB, Broude EV, Chang BD. If not apoptosis, then what? Treatment-induced senescence and mitotic catastrophe in tumor cells. Drug Resist Updat. 2001; 4(5):303-13.
- 25. Wang BG, Huang HY, Chen YC, et al. Increased plasma DNA integrity in cancer patients. Cancer Res. 2003; 63(14):3966-8.
- 26. Trejo-Becerril C, Perez-Cardenas E, Taja-Chayeb L, et al. Cancer progression mediated by horizontal gene transfer in an in vivo model. PLoS One. 2012; 7(12):e52754.
- 27. Ansari J, Yun JW, Kompelli AR, et al. The liquid biopsy in lung cancer. Genes Cancer. 2016; 7(11-12):355.
- 28. Qin Z, Ljubimov VA, Zhou C, et al. Cell-free circulating tumor DNA in cancer. Chin J Cancer. 2016; 35:36.
- 29. Marzese DM, Hirose H, Hoon DS. Diagnostic and prognostic value of circulating tumor-related DNA in cancer patients. Expert Rev Mol Diagn. 2013; 13(8):827-44.
- 30. Saffar H, Sanii S, Heshmat R, et al. Expression of galectin-3, nm-23, and cyclooxygenase-2 could potentially discriminate between benign and malignant

- pheochromocytoma. Am J Clin Pathol. 2011; 135(3):454-60.
- 31. Leary RJ, Sausen M, Kinde I, et al. Detection of Chromosomal Alterations in the Circulation of Cancer Patients with Whole-Genome Sequencing. Sci Transl Med. 2012; 4(162):162ra154.
- 32. Chan KCA, Jiang P, Zheng YWL, et al. Cancer Genome Scanning in Plasma: Detection of Tumor-Associated Copy Number Aberrations, Single-Nucleotide Variants, and Tumoral Heterogeneity by Massively Parallel Sequencing. Clin Chem. 2013; 59(1):211-24.
- 33. Nawroz H, Koch W, Anker P, et al. Microsatellite alterations in serum DNA of head and neck cancer patients. Nat Med. 1996; 2(9):1035-7.
- 34. Khatami F, Noorinayer B, Ghiasi S, et al. Lack of effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms of the DNA methyltransferase 1 gene on gastric cancer in Iranian patients: a case control study. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev. 2009; 10(6):1177-82.
- 35. Khatami F, Larijani B, Heshmat R, et al. Metaanalysis of promoter methylation in eight tumorsuppressor genes and its association with the risk of thyroid cancer. PloS one. 2017; 12(9):e0184892.
- 36. Khatami F, Mohebi SR, Ghiasi S, et al. Effects of amino acid substitution polymorphisms of two DNA methyltransferases on susceptibility to sporadic colorectal cancer. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev. 2009; 10(6):1183-8.
- 37. Heyn H, Esteller M. DNA methylation profiling in the clinic: applications and challenges. Nat Rev Genet. 2012; 13(10):679-92.
- 38. Esteller M, Sanchez-Cespedes M, Rosell R, et al. Detection of aberrant promoter hypermethylation of tumor suppressor genes in serum DNA from non-small cell lung cancer patients. Cancer Res. 1999; 59(1):67-70.
- 39. NASSERI-MOGHADDAM S, Malekzadeh R, Sotoudeh M, et al. Lower esophagus in dyspeptic Iranian patients: a prospective study. J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2003;18(3):315-21.
- 40. Silva J, Dominguez G, Villanueva M, et al. Aberrant DNA methylation of the p16INK4a gene in plasma DNA of breast cancer patients. Br J Cancer.1999; 80(8):1262-4.
- 41. Wong IH, Lo YD, Zhang J, et al. Detection of aberrant p16 methylation in the plasma and serum of liver cancer patients. Cancer Res. 1999; 59(1):71-3.
- 42. Kawakami K, Brabender J, Lord RV, et al. Hypermethylated APC DNA in plasma and prognosis of patients with esophageal adenocarcinoma. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2000; 92(22):1805-11.
- 43. Lecomte T, Berger A, Zinzindohoué F, et al. Detection of free-circulating tumor-associated DNA in

- plasma of colorectal cancer patients and its association with prognosis. Int J Cancer. 2002; 100(5):542-8.
- 44. Warton K, Samimi G. Methylation of cell-free circulating DNA in the diagnosis of cancer. Front Mol Biosci.2015; 2:13.
- 45. Zhai R, Zhao Y, Su L, et al. Genome-wide DNA methylation profiling of cell-free serum DNA in esophageal adenocarcinoma and Barrett esophagus. Neoplasia. 2012; 14(1):29-33.
- 46. Schwarzenbach H, Nishida N, Calin GA, et al. Clinical relevance of circulating cell-free microRNAs in cancer. Nat Rev Clin Oncol. 2014; 11(3):145-56.
- 47. Best Myron G, Sol N, Kooi I, et al. RNA-Seq of Tumor-Educated Platelets Enables Blood-Based Pan-Cancer, Multiclass, and Molecular Pathway Cancer Diagnostics. Cancer Cell. 28(5):666-76.
- 48. Joosse Simon A, Pantel K. Tumor-Educated Platelets as Liquid Biopsy in Cancer Patients. Cancer Cell. 28(5):552-4.
- 49. Khatami F, Larijani B, Tavangar SM. The presence of tumor extrachomosomal circular DNA (ecDNA) as a component of liquid biopsy in blood. Medical Hypotheses. Med Hypotheses. 2018; 114: 5-7.
- 50. Chaffer CL, Weinberg RA. A perspective on cancer cell metastasis. Science. 2011; 331(6024):1559-64.
- 51. Riquet M, Rivera C, Gibault L, et al. [Lymphatic spread of lung cancer: anatomical lymph node chains unchained in zones]. Rev Pneumol Clin. 2014; 70(1-2):16-25.
- 52. Plaks V, Koopman CD, Werb Z. Cancer. Circulating Tumor Cells. Science. 2013; 341(6151):1186-8.
- 53. Gupta GP, Massague J. Cancer metastasis: building a framework. Cell. 2006; 127(4):679-95.
- 54. Ashworth T. A case of cancer in which cells similar to those in the tumours were seen in the blood after death. Aust Med J. 1869; 14(3):146-9.
- 55. Fehm T, Sagalowsky A, Clifford E, et al. Cytogenetic evidence that circulating epithelial cells in patients with carcinoma are malignant. Clin Cancer Res. 2002; 8(7):2073-84.
- 56. Fidler IJ. The pathogenesis of cancer metastasis: the 'seed and soil' hypothesis revisited. Nat Rev Cancer. 2003; 3(6):453-8.
- 57. Yu M, Ting DT, Stott SL, et al. RNA sequencing of pancreatic circulating tumour cells implicates WNT signalling in metastasis. Nature. 2012; 487(7408):510-3.
- 58. Sleijfer S, Gratama JW, Sieuwerts AM, et al. Circulating tumour cell detection on its way to routine diagnostic implementation? Eur J Cancer. 2007; 43(18):2645-50

- 59. Hayes DF, Smerage J. Is there a role for circulating tumor cells in the management of breast cancer? Clin Cancer Res. 2008; 14(12):3646-50.
- 60. Pantel K, Riethdorf S. Pathology: are circulating tumor cells predictive of overall survival? Nat Rev Clin Oncol. 2009;6(4):190-1.
- 61. Panteleakou Z, Lembessis P, Sourla A, et al. Detection of circulating tumor cells in prostate cancer patients: methodological pitfalls and clinical relevance. Mol Med. 2009; 15(3-4): 101–114.
- 62. Esmaeilsabzali H, Beischlag TV, Cox ME, et al. Detection and isolation of circulating tumor cells: principles and methods. Biotechnol Adv. 2013; 31(7):1063-84.
- 63. Nieva J, Wendel M, Luttgen MS, et al. High-definition imaging of circulating tumor cells and associated cellular events in non-small cell lung cancer patients: a longitudinal analysis. Phys Biol. 2012; 9(1):016004
- 64. Hou JM, Krebs M, Ward T, et al. Circulating tumor cells as a window on metastasis biology in lung cancer. Am J Pathol. 2011; 178(3):989-96.
- 65. O'Flaherty JD, Gray S, Richard D, et al. Circulating tumour cells, their role in metastasis and their clinical utility in lung cancer. Lung Cancer. 2012; 76(1):19-25.
- 66. Gallo M, De Luca A, Maiello MR, et al. Clinical utility of circulating tumor cells in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer. Transl Lung Cancer Res. 2017; 6(4):486-498.
- 67. Fidler IJ, Poste G. The "seed and soil" hypothesis revisited. Lancet Oncol. 2008; 9(8):808.
- 68. Krebs MG, Hou J-M, Ward TH, et al. Circulating tumour cells: their utility in cancer management and predicting outcomes. Ther Adv Med Oncol. 2010; 2(6): 351–365.
- 69. Coman DR, de LR, Mcc UM. Studies on the mechanisms of metastasis; the distribution of tumors in various organs in relation to the distribution of arterial emboli. Cancer Res. 1951; 11(8):648-51.
- 70. Theodoropoulos PA, Polioudaki H, Agelaki S, et al. Circulating tumor cells with a putative stem cell phenotype in peripheral blood of patients with breast cancer. Cancer Lett. 2010; 288(1):99-106.
- 71. Aktas B, Tewes M, Fehm T, et al. Stem cell and epithelial-mesenchymal transition markers are frequently overexpressed in circulating tumor cells of metastatic breast cancer patients. Breast Cancer Res. 2009; 11(4):R46.
- 72. Thiery JP, Sleeman JP. Complex networks orchestrate epithelial-mesenchymal transitions. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2006; 7(2):131-42.
- 73. Thiery JP. Epithelial-mesenchymal transitions in development and pathologies. Curr Opin Cell Biol. 2003; 15(6):740-6.

- 74. Yang J, Mani SA, Weinberg RA. Exploring a new twist on tumor metastasis. Cancer Res. 2006; 66(9):4549-52.
- 75. Aceto N, Bardia A, Miyamoto DT, et al. Circulating tumor cell clusters are oligoclonal precursors of breast cancer metastasis. Cell. 2014; 158(5):1110-1122.
- 76. Khatami F, Aghayan HR, Sanaei M, et al. The Potential of Circulating Tumor Cells in Personalized Management of Breast Cancer: A Systematic Review. Acta Med Iran. 2017; 55(3):175-93.
- 77. Rack B, Schindlbeck C, Jückstock J, et al. Circulating tumor cells predict survival in early average-to-high risk breast cancer patients. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2014; 106(5): dju066.
- 78. Tavangar SM, Shojaee A, Tabriz HM, et al. Immunohistochemical expression of Ki67, c-erbB-2, and c-kit antigens in benign and malignant pheochromocytoma. Pathol Res Pract. 2010; 206(5):305-9
- 79. Omidfar K, Moinfar Z, Sohi AN, et al. Expression of EGFRvIII in thyroid carcinoma: immunohistochemical study by camel antibodies. Immunol Invest. 2009; 38(2):165-80.
- 80. de Bono JS, Scher HI, Montgomery RB, et al. Circulating tumor cells predict survival benefit from treatment in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. Clin Cancer Res. 2008; 14(19):6302-9.
- 81. de Bono JS, Logothetis CJ, Molina A, et al. Abiraterone and increased survival in metastatic prostate cancer. N Engl J Med. 2011; 364(21):1995-2005.
- 82. Yap TA, Olmos D, Brunetto AT, et al. Phase I trial of a selective c-MET inhibitor ARQ 197 incorporating proof of mechanism pharmacodynamic studies. J Clin Oncol. 2011; 29(10):1271-9.
- 83. Bianchini D, Omlin A, Pezaro C, et al. First-in-human Phase I study of EZN-4176, a locked nucleic acid antisense oligonucleotide to exon 4 of the androgen receptor mRNA in patients with castration-resistant prostate cancer. Br J Cancer. 2013; 109(10):2579-86.
- 84. van der Pol E, Boing AN, Harrison P, et al. Classification, functions, and clinical relevance of extracellular vesicles. Pharmacol Rev. 2012; 64(3):676-705.
- 85. Keller S, Sanderson MP, Stoeck A, et al. Exosomes: from biogenesis and secretion to biological function. Immunol Lett. 2006; 107(2):102-8.
- 86. Edgar JR. Q&A: What are exosomes, exactly? BMC Biol. 2016; 14: 46.
- 87. Harding C, Heuser J, Stahl P. Receptor-mediated endocytosis of transferrin and recycling of the transferrin receptor in rat reticulocytes. J Cell Biol. 1983; 97(2):329-39.

- 88. Zhang W, Xia W, Lv Z, et al. Liquid Biopsy for Cancer: Circulating Tumor Cells, Circulating Free DNA or Exosomes? Cell Physiol Biochem. 2017; 41(2):755-768.
- 89. Raposo G, Nijman HW, Stoorvogel W, et al. B lymphocytes secrete antigen-presenting vesicles. J Exp Med. 1996; 183(3):1161-72.
- 90. Sheridan C. Exosome cancer diagnostic reaches market. Nat Biotechnol. 2016; 34(4):359-60
- 91. Mouritzen P, Fredsøe JC, Blondal T, et al. Abstract B40: A two-microRNA signature in urinary exosomes for diagnosis of prostate cancer. AACR; 2016.
- 92. Webb S. The cancer bloodhounds. Nat Biotechnol. 2016; 34(11):1090-1094.
- 93. Riahi R, Gogoi P, Sepehri S, et al. A novel microchannel-based device to capture and analyze circulating tumor cells (CTCs) of breast cancer. Int J Oncol. 2014; 44(6):1870-8.
- 94. Murtaza M, Dawson SJ, Tsui DW, et al. Non-invasive analysis of acquired resistance to cancer therapy by sequencing of plasma DNA. Nature. 2013; 497(7447):108-12.
- 95. Ignatiadis M, Lee M, Jeffrey SS. Circulating Tumor Cells and Circulating Tumor DNA: Challenges and Opportunities on the Path to Clinical Utility. Clin Cancer Res. 2015; 21(21):4786-800.
- 96. Li M, Diehl F, Dressman D, et al. BEAMing up for detection and quantification of rare sequence variants. Nat Methods. 2006; 3(2):95-7.
- 97. Baker M. Digital PCR hits its stride. Nat Methods. 2012; 9(6):541.
- 98. Leary RJ, Sausen M, Kinde I, et al. Detection of chromosomal alterations in the circulation of cancer patients with whole-genome sequencing. Sci Transl Med. 2012; 4(162):162ra54.
- 99. Chan KC, Jiang P, Zheng YW, et al. Cancer genome scanning in plasma: detection of tumor-associated copy number aberrations, single-nucleotide variants, and tumoral heterogeneity by massively parallel sequencing. Clin Chem. 2013; 59(1):211-24.
- 100. Yeo ZX, Chan M, Yap YS, et al. Improving indel detection specificity of the Ion Torrent PGM benchtop sequencer. PLoS One. 2012; 7(9):e45798.
- 101. Sabetkish S, Kajbafzadeh AM, Sabetkish N, et al. Whole-organ tissue engineering: Decellularization and recellularization of three-dimensional matrix liver scaffolds. Annu Rev Biomed Eng. 2011; 13:27-53.
- 102. Loman NJ, Misra RV, Dallman TJ, et al. Performance comparison of benchtop high-throughput sequencing platforms. Nat Biotechnol. 2012; 30(5):434-9.
- 103. Takai E, Totoki Y, Nakamura H, et al. Clinical utility of circulating tumor DNA for molecular assessment in pancreatic cancer. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2016; 924:13-17.

- 104. Newman AM, Bratman SV, To J, et al. An ultrasensitive method for quantitating circulating tumor DNA with broad patient coverage. Nat Med. 2014; 20(5):548-54.
- 105. Leary RJ, Kinde I, Diehl F, et al. Development of personalized tumor biomarkers using massively parallel sequencing. Sci Transl Med. 2010; 2(20):20ra14.
- 106. Riethdorf S, Fritsche H, Muller V, et al. Detection of circulating tumor cells in peripheral blood of patients with metastatic breast cancer: a validation study of the CellSearch system. Clin Cancer Res. 2007; 13(3):920-8.
- 107. Thege FI, Lannin TB, Saha TN, et al. Microfluidic immunocapture of circulating pancreatic cells using parallel EpCAM and MUC1 capture: characterization, optimization and downstream analysis. Lab Chip. 2014; 14(10):1775-84.
- 108. Saucedo-Zeni N, Mewes S, Niestroj R, et al. A novel method for the in vivo isolation of circulating tumor cells from peripheral blood of cancer patients using a functionalized and structured medical wire. Int J Oncol. 2012; 41(4):1241-50.
- 109. Ozkumur E, Shah AM, Ciciliano JC, et al. Inertial focusing for tumor antigen-dependent and -independent sorting of rare circulating tumor cells. Sci Transl Med. 2013; 5(179):179ra47.
- 110. Vona G, Sabile A, Louha M, et al. Isolation by size of epithelial tumor cells: a new method for the immunomorphological and molecular characterization of circulating tumor cells. Am J Pathol. 2000; 156(1):57-63.
- 111. Wu S, Liu Z, Liu S, et al. Enrichment and enumeration of circulating tumor cells by efficient depletion of leukocyte fractions. Clin Chem Lab Med. 2014; 52(2):243-51.
- 112. Joosse SA, Gorges TM, Pantel K. Biology, detection, and clinical implications of circulating tumor cells. EMBO Mol Med. 2015; 7(1): 1–11.
- 113. Dragovic RA, Gardiner C, Brooks AS, et al. Sizing and phenotyping of cellular vesicles using Nanoparticle Tracking Analysis. Nanomedicine. 2011; 7(6):780-8.
- 114. Lim J, Yeap SP, Che HX, et al. Characterization of magnetic nanoparticle by dynamic light scattering. Nanoscale Res Lett. 2013; 8(1): 381.
- 115. Graham MD. The Coulter principle: Imaginary origins. Cytometry A. 2013; 83(12): 1057–1061.
- 116. Sharma S, Gillespie BM, Palanisamy V, et al. Quantitative nanostructural and single-molecule force spectroscopy biomolecular analysis of human-salivaderived exosomes. Langmuir. 2011; 27(23):14394-400.
- 117. Aras O, Shet A, Bach RR, et al. Induction of microparticle- and cell-associated intravascular tissue factor in human endotoxemia. Blood. 2004; 103(12):4545-53.

- 118. Petersen KE, Manangon E, Hood JL, et al. A review of exosome separation techniques and characterization of B16-F10 mouse melanoma exosomes with AF4-UV-MALS-DLS-TEM. Anal Bioanal Chem. 2014; 406(30):7855-66.
- 119. Schachermeyer S, Ashby J, Zhong W. Advances in field-flow fractionation for the analysis of biomolecules: instrument design and hyphenation. Anal Bioanal Chem. 2012; 404(4):1151-8.
- 120. Pospichalova V, Svoboda J, Dave Z, et al. Simplified protocol for flow cytometry analysis of fluorescently labeled exosomes and microvesicles using dedicated flow cytometer. J Extracell Vesicles. 2015; 4:25530.
- 121. Smith ZJ, Lee C, Rojalin T, et al. Single exosome study reveals subpopulations distributed among cell lines with variability related to membrane content. J Extracell Vesicles. 2015; 4: 28533.
- 122. He M, Crow J, Roth M, et al. Integrated immunoisolation and protein analysis of circulating exosomes using microfluidic technology. Lab Chip. 2014; 14(19):3773-80.
- 123. Mathivanan S, Simpson RJ. ExoCarta: A compendium of exosomal proteins and RNA. Proteoics. 2009; 9(21):4997-5000.
- 124. Alimoghaddam K, Shariftabrizi A, Tavangar M, et al. Anti-leukemic and anti-angiogenesis efficacy of arsenic trioxide in new cases of acute promyelocytic leukemia. Leuk Lymphoma. 2006; 47(1):81-8.
- 125. Carrasco-Ramírez P, Greening DW, Andrés G, et al. Podoplanin is a component of extracellular vesicles that reprograms cell-derived exosomal proteins and modulates lymphatic vessel formation. Oncotarget. 2016; 7(13):16070-89.
- 126. Howitt J, Hill AF. Exosomes in the Pathology of Neurodegenerative Diseases. J Biol Chem. 2016; 291(52):26589-26597.
- 127. Valadi H, Ekstrom K, Bossios A, et al. Exosome-mediated transfer of mRNAs and microRNAs is a novel mechanism of genetic exchange between cells. Nat Cell Biol. 2007; 9(6):654-9.
- 128. Taylor DD, Gercel-Taylor C. MicroRNA signatures of tumor-derived exosomes as diagnostic biomarkers of ovarian cancer. Gynecol Oncol. 2008; 110(1):13-21.
- 129. Rabinowits G, Gercel-Taylor C, Day JM, et al. Exosomal microRNA: a diagnostic marker for lung cancer. Clin Lung Cancer. 2009; 10(1):42-6.
- 130. Brase JC, Johannes M, Schlomm T, et al. Circulating miRNAs are correlated with tumor progression in prostate cancer. Int J Cancer. 2011; 128(3):608-16.
- 131. Tanaka Y, Kamohara H, Kinoshita K, et al. Clinical impact of serum exosomal microRNA-21 as a clinical biomarker in human esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Cancer. 2013; 119(6):1159-67.

- 132. Lv LL, Cao YH, Ni HF, et al. MicroRNA-29c in urinary exosome/microvesicle as a biomarker of renal fibrosis. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol. 2013; 305(8):F1220-7.
- 133. Kuwabara Y, Ono K, Horie T, et al. Increased microRNA-1 and microRNA-133a levels in serum of patients with cardiovascular disease indicate myocardial damage. Circ Cardiovasc Genet. 2011; 4(4):446-54.
- 134. Dhir M, McCoy KL, Ohori NP, et al. Correct extent of thyroidectomy is poorly predicted preoperatively by the guidelines of the American Thyroid Association for low and intermediate risk thyroid cancers. Surgery. 2018; 163 (1):81-87.
- 135. Haghpanah V, Soliemanpour B, Heshmat R, et al. Endocrine cancer in Iran: based on cancer registry system. Indian J Cancer. 2006; 43(2):80-5.
- 136. National Cancer Institute. "SEER stat fact sheets: thyroid cancer." Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Program website (2016).
- 137. Larijani B, Shirzad M, Mohagheghi M, et al. Epidemiologic feature of thyroid cancer based on cancer registry data system. Iranian Journal of Public Health. 2005; 34(4):1-7.
- 138. Larijani B, Shirzad M, Mohagheghi M, et al. Epidemiologic analysis of the Tehran cancer institute data system registry (TCIDSR). Asian Pac J Cancer Prev. 2004; 5(1):36-9.
- 139. Cooper DS, Doherty GM, Haugen BR, et al. Revised American Thyroid Association management guidelines for patients with thyroid nodules and differentiated thyroid cancer. Thyroid. 2009; 19(11):1167-214.
- 140. Nikiforov YE, Yip L, Nikiforova MN. New strategies in diagnosing cancer in thyroid nodules: impact of molecular markers. Clin Cancer Res. 2013; 19(9):2283-8.
- 141. Tavangar S, Monajemzadeh M, Larijani B, et al. Immunohistochemical study of oestrogen receptors in 351 human thyroid glands. Singapore Med J. 2007; 48(8):744-7.
- 142. Haddadi-Nezhad S, Larijani B, Tavangar SM, et al. Comparison of fine-needle-nonaspiration with fine-needle-aspiration technique in the cytologic studies of thyroid nodules. Endocr Pathol. 2003; 14(4):369-73.
- 143. Shirzad M, Larijani B, Hedayat A, et al. Diagnostic value of frozen section examination in thyroid nodule-surgery at the shariati hospital (1997–2000). Endocr Pathol. 2003; 14(3):263-8.
- 144. Katoh H, Yamashita K, Enomoto T, et al. Classification and general considerations of thyroid cancer. Ann Clin Pathol. 2015; 3(1):1045.
- 145. Gild ML, Bullock M, Robinson BG, et al. Multikinase inhibitors: a new option for the treatment of thyroid cancer. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2011 23; 7(10):617-24.
- 146. Nikiforov YE, Nikiforova MN. Molecular genetics and diagnosis of thyroid cancer. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2011; 7(10):569-80.

- 147. Saffar H, Sanii S, Emami B, et al. Evaluation of MMP2 and Caspase-3 expression in 107 cases of papillary thyroid carcinoma and its association with prognostic factors. Pathol Res Pract. 2013; 209(3):195-9.
- 148. Sanii S, Saffar H, Tabriz HM, et al. Expression of matrix metalloproteinase-2, but not caspase-3, facilitates distinction between benign and malignant thyroid follicular neoplasms. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev. 2012; 13(5):2175-8.
- 149. Mohammadi-asl J, Larijani B, Khorgami Z, et al. Qualitative and quantitative promoter hypermethylation patterns of the P16, TSHR, RASSF1A and RAR $\beta$ 2 genes in papillary thyroid carcinoma. Med Oncol. 2011; 28(4):1123-8.
- 150. Haghpanah V, Shooshtarizadeh P, Heshmat R, et al. Immunohistochemical analysis of survivin expression in thyroid follicular adenoma and carcinoma. Appl Immunohistochem Mol Morphol. 2006; 14(4):422-5.
- 151. Tabriz HM, Adabi K, Lashkari A, et al. Immunohistochemical analysis of nm23 protein expression in thyroid papillary carcinoma and follicular neoplasm. Pathol Res Pract. 2009; 205(2):83-7.
- 152. Mohammadi-Asl J, Larijani B, Khorgami Z, et al. Prevalence of BRAFV600E mutation in Iranian patients with papillary thyroid carcinoma: a single-center study. J Appl Sci. 2009; 9(19):3593-7.
- 153. Khatami F, Larijani B, Tavangar SM. Circulating Tumor BRAF Mutation and Personalized Thyroid Cancer Treatment. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev. 2017; 18(2):293-294. 154. Amoli MM, Yazdani N, Amiri P, et al. HLA-DR association in papillary thyroid carcinoma. Dis Markers. 2010; 28(1):49-53.
- 155. Sarmadi S, Izadi-Mood N, Sotoudeh K, et al. Altered PTEN expression; a diagnostic marker for differentiating normal, hyperplastic and neoplastic endometrium. Diagn Pathol. 2009; 4:41.
- 156. Umetani N, Hiramatsu S, Hoon DS. Higher amount of free circulating DNA in serum than in plasma is not mainly caused by contaminated extraneous DNA during separation. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 2006; 1075:299-307.
- 157. Zane M, Agostini M, Enzo MV, et al. Circulating cell-free DNA, SLC5A8 and SLC26A4 hypermethylation, BRAFV600E: A non-invasive tool panel for early detection of thyroid cancer. Biomed Pharmacother. 2013; 67(8):723-30.
- 158. Hu S, Ewertz M, Tufano RP, et al. Detection of serum deoxyribonucleic acid methylation markers: a novel diagnostic tool for thyroid cancer. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2006; 91(1):98-104.
- 159. Chuang TC, Chuang AY, Poeta L, et al. Detectable BRAF mutation in serum DNA samples from patients with

- papillary thyroid carcinomas. Head Neck. 2010; 32(2):229-34.
- 160. Janku F, Huang HJ, Claes B, et al. BRAF mutation testing in cell-free DNA from the plasma of patients with advanced cancers using a rapid, automated molecular diagnostics system. Mol Cancer Ther. 2016; 15(6):1397-404.
- 161. Sandulache VC, Williams MD, Lai SY, et al. Real-time genomic characterization utilizing circulating cell-free DNA in patients with anaplastic thyroid carcinoma. Thyroid. 2017; 27(1):81-87.
- 162. Evers C, Duose DY, Mehrotra M, et al. Liquid Biopsy: Comparison of Mutation Detection Methods for Measurement of RET M918T Circulating Cell-Free DNA in Medullary Thyroid Cancer Patients. Cancer Genetics. 2016; 209(6):287.
- 163. Khatami F, Tavangar SM. Genetic and Epigenetic of Medullary Thyroid Cancer. Iran Biomed J. 2017.
- 164. Brose MS, Cabanillas ME, Cohen EE, et al. Vemurafenib in patients with BRAF(V600E)-positive metastatic or unresectable papillary thyroid cancer refractory to radioactive iodine: a non-randomised, multicentre, open-label, phase 2 trial. Lancet Oncol. 2016; 17(9):1272-82.
- 165. Lubitz CC, Parangi S, Holm TM, et al. Detection of Circulating BRAF V600E in Patients with Papillary Thyroid Carcinoma. J Mol Diagn. 2016; 18(1):100-8.
- 166. Qiu Z-L, Shen C-T, Sun Z, et al. Circulating Long Non-Coding RNAs Act as Biomarkers for Predicting 131I Uptake and Mortality in Papillary Thyroid Cancer Patients with Lung Metastases. Cell Physiol Biochem. 2016; 40(6):1377-1390.
- 167. Hsieh C-H, Lin H-C, Huang S-B, et al. Circulating epithelial cell enumeration facilitates the identification and follow-up of a patient with early stage papillary thyroid microcarcinoma: A case report. Clin Chim Acta. 2016; 454:107-11.
- 168. Tseng C-P, Lin J-D, Lin H-C, et al. Combined analysis of circulating epithelial cell count and serum thyroglobulin for differentiating disease status of the patients with papillary thyroid carcinoma. Oncotarget. 2016 29; 7(13): 17242–17253.
- 169. Dent BM, Ogle LF, O'Donnell RL, et al. High-resolution imaging for the detection and characterisation of circulating tumour cells from patients with oesophageal, hepatocellular, thyroid and ovarian cancers. Int J Cancer. 2016; 138(1):206-16.
- 170. Xu JY, Handy B, Michaelis CL, et al. Detection and prognostic significance of circulating tumor cells in patients with metastatic thyroid cancer. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2016; 101(11):4461-4467.

- 171. Xu JY, Zaidi T, Cote GJ, et al. Circulating Tumor Cells (CTCs) in Metastatic Papillary Thyroid Cancer: Report of a Case-Control Pilot Study. Thyroid Neoplasia: Endocrine Society; 2016. p. PP22-3-PP-3.
- 172. Lakkaraju A, Rodriguez-Boulan E. Itinerant exosomes: emerging roles in cell and tissue polarity. Trends Cell Biol. 2008; 18(5):199-209.
- 173. Van Niel G, Porto-Carreiro I, Simoes S, et al. Exosomes: a common pathway for a specialized function. J Biochem. 2006; 140(1):13-21.
- 174. Lin J, Li J, Huang B, et al. Exosomes: Novel Biomarkers for Clinical Diagnosis. The Scientific World Journal. 2015; 2015:1-8.
- 175. Mitchell PS, Parkin RK, Kroh EM, et al. Circulating microRNAs as stable blood-based markers for cancer detection. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2008 29; 105(30):10513-8.
- 176. Hunter MP, Ismail N, Zhang X, et al. Detection of microRNA expression in human peripheral blood microvesicles. PLoS One. 2008; 3(11): e3694.
- 177. Rabinowits G, Gerçel-Taylor C, Day JM, et al. Exosomal microRNA: a diagnostic marker for lung cancer. Clin Lung Cancer. 2009; 10(1):42-6
- 178. Tanaka Y, Kamohara H, Kinoshita K, et al. Clinical impact of serum exosomal microRNA-21 as a clinical biomarker in human esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Cancer. 2013; 119(6):1159-67.
- 179. Takeshita N, Hoshino I, Mori M, et al. Serum microRNA expression profile: miR-1246 as a novel diagnostic and prognostic biomarker for oesophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Br J Cancer. 2013; 108(3):644-52.
- 180. Samsonov R, Burdakov V, Shtam T, et al. Plasma exosomal miR-21 and miR-181a differentiates follicular from papillary thyroid cancer. Tumour Biol. 2016; 37(9):12011-12021.
- 181. Lee JC, Zhao JT, Clifton-Bligh RJ, et al. MicroRNA-222 and MicroRNA-146b are tissue and circulating biomarkers of recurrent papillary thyroid cancer. Cancer. 2013; 119(24):4358-65.
- 182. Lee JC, Zhao JT, Gundara J, et al. Papillary thyroid cancer-derived exosomes contain miRNA-146b and miRNA-222. J Surg Res. 2015; 196(1):39-48.