



# Molecular characterization of tumors meeting diagnostic criteria for the non-invasive follicular thyroid neoplasm with papillary-like nuclear features (NIFTP)

Christopher Pool<sup>1</sup> · Vonn Walter<sup>2,3,4</sup> · Darrin Bann<sup>1</sup> · David Goldenberg<sup>1</sup> · James Broach<sup>3,4</sup> · Max Hennessy<sup>1</sup> · Elizabeth Cottrill<sup>1</sup> · Erik Washburn<sup>5</sup> · Nicole Williams<sup>5</sup> · Henry Crist<sup>5</sup> · Yuka Imamura<sup>4</sup> · Joshua I. Warrick<sup>5</sup>

Received: 11 June 2018 / Revised: 13 December 2018 / Accepted: 17 December 2018 / Published online: 15 January 2019  
© Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2019

## Abstract

“Follicular variant” papillary thyroid carcinomas (FV-PTC) that do not histologically invade have a miniscule risk of metastasis, and thus been reclassified as a tumor of low malignant potential, the non-invasive follicular thyroid neoplasm with papillary-like nuclear features (NIFTP). There are few molecular studies of this tumor type. We performed gene expression analysis, by RNA sequencing, on a series of FV-PTCs, NIFTPs, and follicular adenomas. A training set comprised tumors from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) repository ( $n = 46$ ), digital slides from which were reviewed and classified as invasive or non-invasive FV-PTC. A validation set comprised in-house NIFTPs, invasive FV-PTCs, and follicular adenomas ( $n = 26$ ). In the training set, unsupervised clustering separated tumors into three distinct expression subtypes, which associated with invasion and characteristic molecular alterations. Specifically, the “BRAF-like” subtype was enriched in invasive FV-PTCs and tumors with *BRAF* V600E mutations. The “THADA-like” subtype was enriched in non-invasive tumors and those with rearrangements involving *THADA*. The “RAS-family-like” subtype included many invasive and non-invasive FV-PTCs and was enriched in tumors with mutations in RAS family genes. In the validation set, nearest centroid analysis classified all invasive FV-PTCs as “BRAF-like” and all follicular adenomas as either “RAS-like” or “THADA-like.” NIFTPs were the most molecularly diverse histologic type, with cases classified as “BRAF-like,” “THADA-like,” and “RAS-family-like.” In conclusion, tumors fitting criteria for NIFTP are molecularly diverse, making it difficult to diagnose them with molecular studies, likely including material from cytopathology samples.

**Keywords** Thyroid cancer · Follicular variant papillary thyroid carcinoma · Non-invasive follicular thyroid neoplasm with papillary-like nuclear features · BRAF-like · RAS-like

---

Christopher Pool and Vonn Walter are co-first authors

**Electronic supplementary material** The online version of this article (<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00428-018-02512-6>) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

✉ Joshua I. Warrick  
jwarrick@pennstatehealth.psu.edu

<sup>1</sup> Department of Surgery, Division of Otolaryngology – Head and Neck Surgery, Penn State Milton S. Hershey Medical Center, Hershey, USA

<sup>2</sup> Department of Public Health Sciences, Penn State College of Medicine, Hershey, USA

<sup>3</sup> Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Hershey, USA

<sup>4</sup> Institute for Personalized Medicine, Penn State College of Medicine and Milton S. Hershey Medical Center, Hershey, USA

<sup>5</sup> Department of Pathology, Penn State College of Medicine and Milton S. Hershey Medical Center, 500 University Drive, Hershey, PA 17033, USA

## Introduction

A subset of papillary thyroid carcinomas (PTCs) lacks the histologic papillae of classic PTC and is instead composed entirely of structures recapitulating the thyroid follicle. Such tumors are referred to as follicular variant PTCs (FV-PTCs) [1]. Despite designation as carcinoma, independent studies have shown FV-PTCs that lack invasive histologic architecture have a very low risk of metastasis and recurrence [2–8]. The World Health Organization has thus reclassified these as a tumor of low malignant potential, the non-invasive follicular thyroid neoplasm with papillary-like nuclear features (NIFTP) [9]. This change reclassifies 10–20% of PTCs into the NIFTP category [9].

Multiple studies have shown that histologic subtypes of thyroid neoplasia associate with specific molecular alterations. Classic PTC is heavily enriched in *BRAF* V600E mutations and *RET/PTC* rearrangements [10, 11]. In contrast, follicular neoplasms, such as follicular adenoma and follicular carcinoma, are enriched in *THADA* and *PAX8* rearrangements [12, 13]. Mutations in RAS family genes are unique in thyroid neoplasia, as these are seen in both classic PTC and follicular neoplasms, though mutations are more heavily enriched in follicular neoplasia [14]. Histologic subtypes also associate with gene expression signatures, and expression signatures associate with specific underlying mutations. Specifically, classic PTCs usually express genes associated with high-level ERK signaling, indicating MAP kinase activation, and underexpress genes of thyroid differentiation. This expression signature has been termed “RAF-like,” owing to its strong association with classic PTCs harboring *BRAF* V600E mutation [15]. In contrast, follicular adenomas and follicular carcinomas express genes of thyroid differentiation, and underexpress genes associated with ERK signaling [16]. This expression signature has been termed “RAS-like,” owing to its strong association with tumors harboring RAS family gene mutations [15–17].

The landmark study by The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) Consortium showed most tumors designated “FV-PTC” have a RAS-like expression signature, though a significant minority have *BRAF* V600E mutation and/or a RAF-like expression signature [15]. FV-PTCs in this study also frequently had mutations in RAS family genes, and a subset harbored rearrangements involving *THADA*. FV-PTC thus appeared unique from a molecular standpoint, because it could have molecular features of either follicular or papillary neoplasia. However, this study did not distinguish NIFTP from invasive FV-PTC, including both of these as “FV-PTC” without further qualification. Additional study has since shown that invasive FV-PTC differs biologically from NIFTP, in that invasive FV-PTC frequently has *BRAF* V600E mutation, similar to classic PTC [5]. We set out to continue this line of research, specifically by comparing gene expression and mutational profiles of NIFTP to invasive FV-PTC and follicular adenoma.

## Materials and methods

This study was performed with approval from the Penn State College of Medicine Human Subjects Protection Office (Institutional Review Board). Data analysis was performed using the R programming language, version 3.2.2 [18]. Expression subtypes were identified in a training set derived from the TCGA cohort, and validated on a data set derived from in-house samples.

### TCGA cohort (training set)

FV-PTC cases were identified from the TCGA data set (<https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov>). Cases were excluded if lymph node data were not available (i.e., data blank or assigned pNX). Digital slides on selected cases were identified in the digital slide archive (<http://cancer.digitalslidearchive.net/>) and reviewed by a pathologist who regularly sees thyroid cases on a subspecialized head and neck pathology service (JIW), blinded to all clinical and molecular data. A single slide with tumor was available for these cases. The lack of evaluable slides made it impossible to confidently diagnose NIFTP, because the WHO has stringent criteria for the diagnosis of NIFTP, which include complete examination of the tumor capsule [9]. To deal with this limitation, cases were classified as invasive or non-invasive FV-PTC, based on evidence of histologic invasion on the available slide. Further, cases were classified as non-invasive FV-PTC in the training set only if they fit the remaining NIFTP criteria, including encapsulation or clear demarcation, follicular growth pattern (no papillae, no psammoma bodies, and < 30% solid, trabecular, or insular growth pattern), nuclear features of papillary carcinoma, no lympho-vascular or capsular invasion, no tumor necrosis, and low mitotic activity (< 3 mitoses per 10 high-powered fields). Cases without adjacent non-neoplastic thyroid tissue were excluded. We considered the non-invasive designation to be a useful, but imperfect, estimate for the diagnosis of NIFTP.

Gene expression analysis was performed on RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) data taken from the Genomic Data Commons [19]. Expression analysis entailed unsupervised consensus clustering, which classified tumors into subtypes. These subtypes were then used to create subtype-specific centroids for classifying in-house (validation) cases. See [Supplemental Methods \[20–25\]](#) for the complete protocol.

### In-house cohort (validation set)

Thyroid tumors from our archives were identified, including 11 cases originally diagnosed as FV-PTC and 15 follicular adenomas. All histology slides were reviewed by a pathologist who regularly sees thyroid cases on a subspecialized head and neck pathology service (JIW) to confirm the diagnosis and

assess for evidence of invasion (Fig. 1). In equivocal cases, a second pathologist on the head and neck pathology service (HC) reviewed the case for consensus opinion. These pathologists have similar thresholds to consider nuclei as papillary. The complete tumor capsule was evaluated on all cases. Cases were classified as NIFTP if, and only if, they fit full NIFTP criteria per the WHO manual [9], including lack of invasive architecture, encapsulation or clear demarcation, follicular growth pattern (no papillae, no psammoma bodies, and < 30% solid, trabecular, or insular growth pattern), nuclear features of papillary carcinoma, no lympho-vascular or capsular invasion, no tumor necrosis, and low mitotic activity (< 3 mitoses per 10 high-powered fields). Clinical data were collected by chart review. To obtain DNA and RNA from thyroid tumors, areas of interest were extracted by punch biopsy from formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissue blocks. To insure against contamination with non-neoplastic tissue or other tumor, blocks were selected if, and only if, tissue from flanking blocks contained high-volume tumor. This approach assured selected blocks contained full-thickness tumor, and sampled cores thus contained high percentage of tumor. RNA and DNA were extracted using Qiagen DNA FFPE Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Germantown, MD). RNA sequencing was performed. RNA-sequencing libraries were generated using TruSeq RNA Access Library Prep Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA), followed by single-end 50-bp sequencing to obtain 25 million sequencing reads per sample on an Illumina HiSeq 2500. Selected mutations common in thyroid

neoplasia, including those involving *HRAS*, *KRAS*, *NRAS*, and *BRAF* (Table S1), were interrogated by targeted polymerase chain reaction (see Supplemental Methods for details on RNA and DNA sequencing [26]).

In-house cases were assigned to the expression subtypes identified in the training set using nearest centroid analysis, using Person correlation distance.

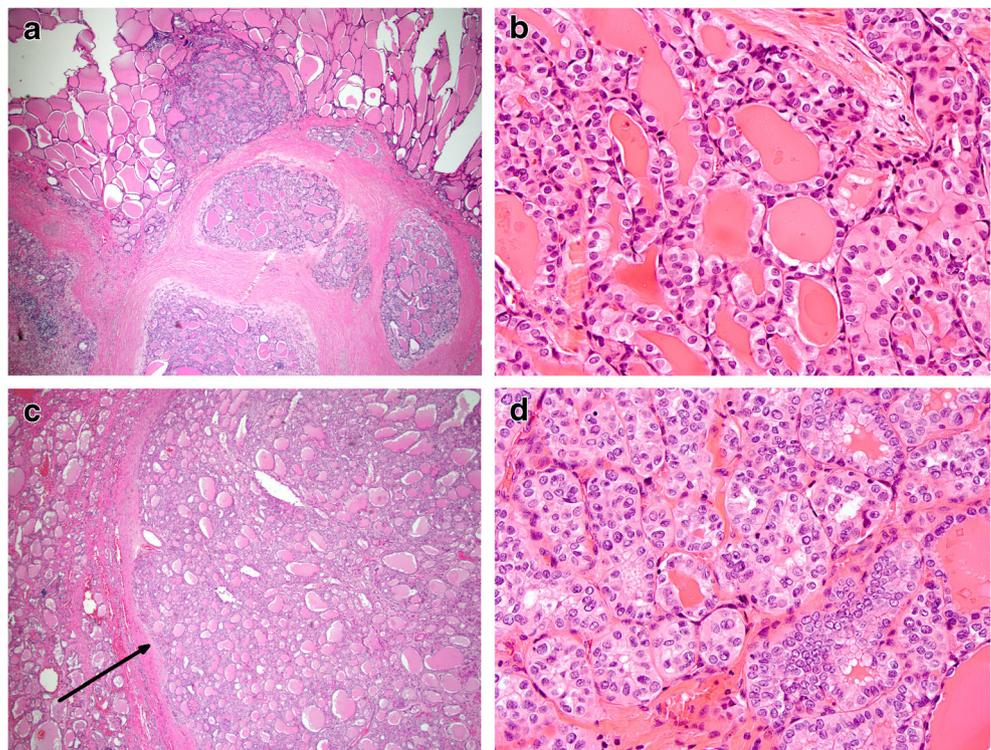
### Differential expression and pathway analysis

Differential expression analyses were performed in the training cohort using groups defined by the expression subtypes. In brief, the voom transformation was applied to the gene-level read count data [27], and the limma R package was used to identify genes differentially expressed in each subtype versus the others (combined) based on a false discovery rate (FDR) threshold of  $q < 0.05$  [28]. The DAVID annotation database was applied to highlight gene ontology (GO) terms and KEGG pathways enriched for sets of differentially expressed genes [29, 30]. These gene sets were manually reviewed, and pathways of interest presented.

### Expression subtypes and genes evaluated in commercially available molecular tests

Afirma and Thyroseq are two commercially available molecular tests designed to help distinguish carcinoma from benign tumors sampled by thyroid fine-needle aspiration [31, 32]. We

**Fig. 1** Histology images. Invasive FV-PTC has follicular architecture and invades thyroid tissue (**a**—H&E,  $\times 100$ ); it has nuclear features of papillary thyroid carcinoma, including nuclear grooves and intranuclear pseudoinclusions (**b**—H&E,  $\times 400$ ). NIFTP has follicular architecture but is circumscribed and encapsulated (arrow) and does not invade (**c**—H&E,  $\times 100$ ); it has nuclear features of papillary thyroid carcinoma, including nuclear grooves and, in this case, intranuclear pseudoinclusions (**d**—H&E,  $\times 400$ )



investigated the ability of genes used in these tests to distinguish invasive from non-invasive FV-PTC. We did not directly perform either Afirma or Thyroseq on the cases in this study. The Afirma test is a gene expression-based classifier, and uses a complex model incorporating 167 genes to classify cytologically indeterminate fine-needle aspiration samples as “suspicious for malignancy” or “benign,” with some additional subtlety [31, 33]. It is difficult to reproduce the Afirma test, because the final model is not available to our knowledge. We thus investigated the Afirma gene list in non-invasive and invasive FV-PTC, by performing hierarchical clustering of the 46 cases taken from the TCGA data set, using the Afirma gene list (see [Supplemental Methods \[34\]](#)). The Thyroseq test (V2) sequences DNA from fine-needle aspiration material to identify somatic mutations and rearrangements common in thyroid neoplasia [32, 35, 36]. Tumors with an identified molecular alteration are considered “positive,” and tumors lacking a molecular alteration are considered “negative,” with additional subclasses in both positive and negative groups. We specifically looked at common mutational events interrogated by the Thyroseq test (V2) in the 46 cases taken from the TCGA data set, which had comprehensive molecular data available.

## Results

### Training set

Of the FV-PTC cases in the TCGA data set, 67 had lymph node data. Review of digital pathology slides revealed that 46 of the 67 cases had adjacent non-neoplastic tissue to assess for invasion. These 46 samples comprised the training set. Of these, 18 were classified as invasive FV-PTC and 29 as non-invasive FV-PTC. Assignment as invasive FV-PTC was strongly associated with lymph node metastasis (odds ratio 22.0,  $p < 0.001$ ; Fisher test). One case classified as non-invasive FV-PTC metastasized to a lymph node. This was not unexpected, as only one slide was available for review on each case, and complete evaluation of tumor capsule was thus impossible. This case probably had invasive tumor on another slide, which was unavailable for review. However, we took the strong association between invasive histology and lymph node metastasis as evidence that review of a single slide is a reasonable approximation of true diagnosis.

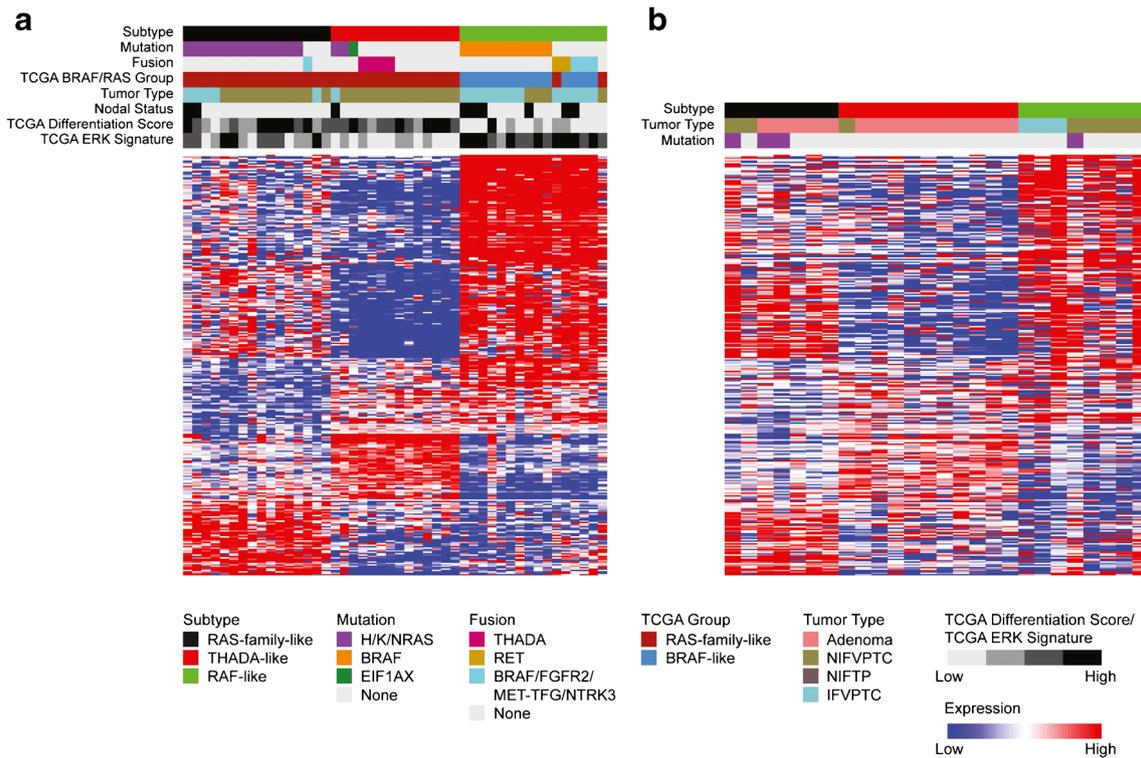
Unsupervised clustering showed invasive FV-PTC and non-invasive FV-PTC were best classified into 3 distinct groups (Fig. 2A). The first group was highly enriched in mutations in RAS family genes, with 81% (13 of 16 cases) harboring such a mutation. This group was thus named “RAS-family-like” to distinguish it from the “RAS-like” designation previously described. That is, in this study, we use the term “RAS-like” to describe subtype assignments reported in the

TCGA data, while we use the term “RAS-family-like” to describe subtype assignments generated by our analysis. The majority of tumors in the RAS-family-like group were non-invasive FV-PTC (75%, 12 of 16 cases), and only 13% (2 of 16 cases) had lymph node metastasis, both invasive FV-PTCs. The second group was composed almost entirely of non-invasive FV-PTC (93%, 14 of 15 cases), and contained all tumors with *THADA* rearrangement. Indeed, rearrangements involving *THADA* were the most common mutational even in this subtype, seen in 27% (Fig. 2A). The group was thus named “*THADA*-like.” The group also contained the only tumor with an *EIF1AX* mutation, and two tumors with mutation in a RAS gene. This latter observation highlights molecular overlap between *THADA*-like and RAS-family-like tumors. The third group contained all tumors with *BRAF* mutation or *RET/PTC* gene rearrangement, and was thus named “*BRAF*-like,” to distinguish these from the “*RAF*-like” designation previously described (see “[Discussion](#)”). The majority of cases in this group were invasive FV-PTC (75%, 12 of 16 cases), and 38% (6 of 16 cases) had lymph node metastasis, the highest rate of these findings among the three groups. The single non-invasive FV-PTC with lymph node metastasis was *BRAF*-like. Expression subtype associated with histologic diagnosis (Fig. 2A;  $p < 0.001$ , Fisher test).

The majority of tumors designated *BRAF*-like by our analysis had been assigned to the *RAF*-like group per the TCGA analysis (88%, 14 of 16), and all tumors designated RAS-family-like or *THADA*-like by our analysis had been assigned to the RAS-like group per TCGA analysis. In keeping with this, tumors in our *BRAF*-like group had higher ERK signaling than RAS-like and *THADA*-like tumors (Fig. 3a;  $p < 0.001$ , Kruskal-Wallis). Tumors in the *BRAF*-like group expressed lower levels of thyroid differentiation genes than RAS-family-like and *THADA*-like tumors (Fig. 3b;  $p < 0.001$ , Kruskal-Wallis).

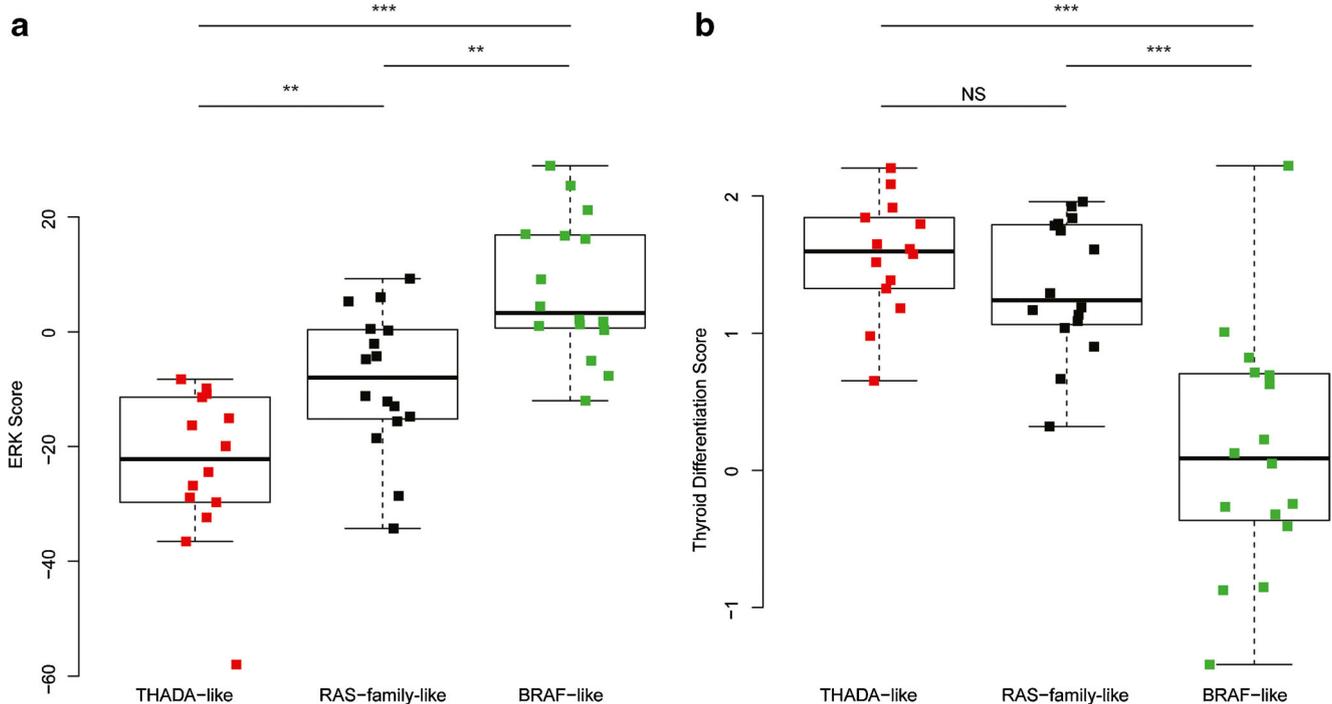
### Validation set

Invasive FV-PTCs, NIFTPs, and follicular adenomas from the validation set were assigned to the *BRAF*-like, RAS-family-like, or *THADA*-like group by nearest centroid analysis, as shown in Fig. 2B. The *BRAF*-like group comprised all invasive FV-PTCs and five NIFTPs. The remaining NIFTPs and all follicular adenomas were split between the RAS-family-like group (2 NIFTPs, 5 adenomas) and the *THADA*-like cluster (one NIFTP, 10 adenomas). Four cases harbored mutations in RAS family genes; three of these were assigned to the RAS-family-like cluster, and the other to the *BRAF*-like cluster. No tumor had a *BRAF* mutation. Expression subtype associated with histologic diagnosis ( $p < 0.01$ , Fisher). All NIFTPs and follicular adenomas had no evidence of metastasis or recurrence per chart review. Table 1 demonstrates



**Fig. 2** Gene expression analysis in the training set (A) showed invasive FV-PTCs were primarily BRAF-like, while a smaller portion were RAS-family-like, and a single case was THADA-like. In contrast, non-invasive FV-PTCs were primarily RAS-family-like and THADA-like. Gene

expression analysis in the validation set (B) showed follicular adenomas were all RAS-family-like or THADA-like, while NIFTPs fell into all three expression subtypes. IFVPTC, invasive FV-PTC; (IFVPTC, invasive FV-PTC; NIFVPTC, non-invasive FV-PTC)



**Fig. 3 a, b** ERK and differentiation scores in training set, grouped by gene expression subtype. ERK score was highest in BRAF-like tumors and lowest in THADA-like tumors, while differentiation score was

highest in THADA-like tumors and lowest in BRAF-like tumors.  $**p < 0.01$ ,  $***p < 0.001$ , n.s. =  $p > 0.05$  (Wilcoxon rank-sum test)

**Table 1** Genetic alterations by expression subtype. BRAF mutations were exclusive to BRAF-like tumors. RAS family mutations were highly enriched in RAS-family-like tumors. THADA-rearrangement was the single most common mutation in THADA-like tumors, though the majority of THADA-like tumors had no identified mutation

Genetic alteration	BRAF-like (n = 24)	RAS-family-like (n = 23)	THADA-like (n = 25)
<i>BRAF</i> point mutation or rearrangement	11	0	0
<i>HRAS</i> point mutation	1	6	0
<i>NRAS</i> point mutation	0	10	1
<i>KRAS</i> point mutation	0	0	1
<i>RET</i> rearrangement	2	0	0
<i>THADA</i> rearrangement	0	0	4
<i>NTRK3</i> rearrangement	1	0	0
<i>MET-TFG</i> rearrangement	1	0	0
<i>EIF1AX</i> point mutation	0	0	1
<i>FGFR2</i> rearrangement	0	1	0
No mutation identified	8	6	18

mutations and expression subtypes, combining training and validation sets.

### Expression subtypes and the genes evaluated by the Afirma and Thyroseq tests

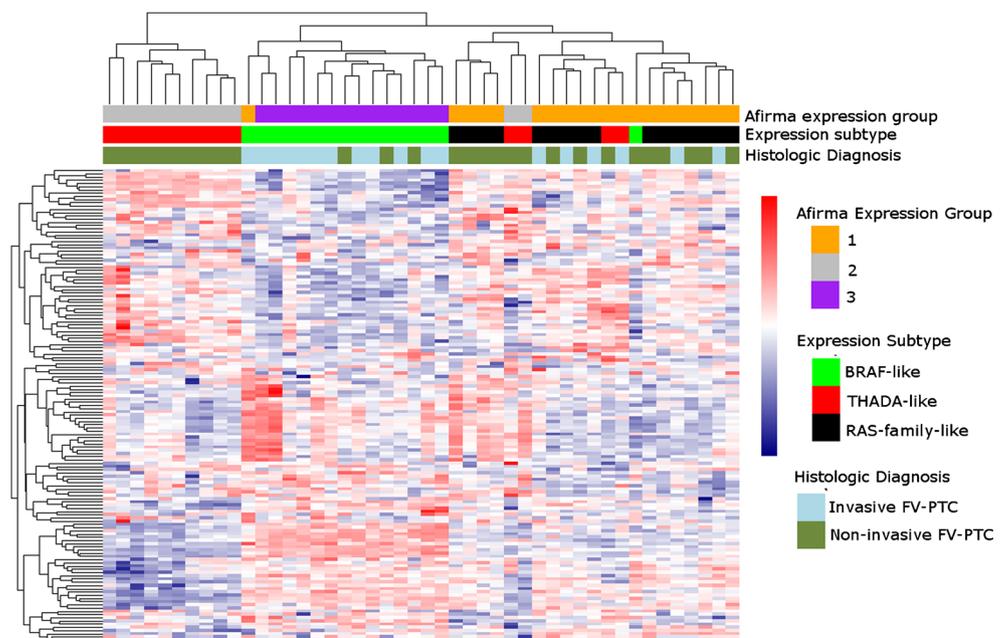
We clustered the 46 TCGA cases using the Main Classifier genes from the Afirma gene set (there are additional classifiers in this test designed to identify other cancer types, such as medullary thyroid carcinoma, but we restricted the analysis to the Main Classifier genes for the sake of focus) [31], which revealed three main clusters. These clusters were highly concordant with the BRAF-like, RAS-family-like, and THADA-like groups identified above (Fig. 4,  $p < 0.001$ , Fisher exact test). Regarding the Thyroseq test (V2), several genetic events

considered positive by this test were present in non-invasive FV-PTC, including RAS mutation (67%, 10/15 cases), EIF1AX mutation (100%, 1/1 case), and THADA rearrangement (100%, 4/4 cases).

### Pathway analysis

Pathway analysis showed differences in the three molecular subtypes. RAS-family-like tumors overexpressed genes associated with hydrogen peroxide biosynthetic and catabolic processes. In particular, these tumors expressed high levels of the NADPH oxidases DUOX1/2, as well as their maturation factors DUOX1/2. Although increased expression of DUOX1/2 and DUOX1/2 is associated with tumor differentiation, it has been hypothesized that increased expression of these

**Fig. 4** Gene expression subtypes, determined using the Main Classifier genes from the Afirma gene list. Unsupervised clustering showed these genes separate tumors into three expression subtypes, with striking overlap with the BRAF-like, RAS-like, and THADA-like subtypes. Initial branches show THADA-like tumors separate from BRAF-like and RAS-family-like tumors, possibly because the Afirma gene list was selected to identify aggressive tumors



genes could lead to accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the nucleus, and this in turn could increase the likelihood of DNA damage [37]. Elevated expression of DUOX1 has been observed in patients exposed to radiation, which suggests that it may play a role in tumorigenesis [38].

The DAVID analysis showed THADA-like tumors expressed genes involved in PPAR and PI(3)K-AKT signaling. PPAR signaling is notable because PAX8-PPARG gene fusions are common in follicular thyroid neoplasia [39]. Although no THADA-like tumor in our study had a PAX8-PPARG rearrangement, the effect of PPAR signaling in our cases may be similar. Prior studies have shown PI(3)K-Akt signaling may contribute to thyroid cancer tumorigenesis and progression [40], highlighting the importance of this pathway in THADA-like tumors, which expressed several relevant genes, including AKT2, KIT, and RPTOR.

BRAF-like tumors expressed genes associated with chemokine signaling, including many chemokine ligands and receptors, as well as genes associated with extracellular matrix catabolism, including several matrix metalloproteases and collagens. BRAF-like tumors also exhibited increased levels of NFK $\beta$  signaling, which may contribute to the elevated immune and inflammatory response observed in this expression subtype, and genes associated with anti-apoptotic signaling, including *BIRC3* and *BCL2A1/L1*. We also observed increased expression of inflammatory receptors and cytokines, including *IL1R2* and *IL6* that may be associated with tumor-promoting inflammation [41]. Elevated expression of proliferative factors such as *TGFA* and *EGFR* were seen, as was increased expression of *STAT3*, which may contribute to immune escape [42].

## Discussion

FV-PTC was previously distinguished from follicular adenoma and follicular carcinoma based on the presence of “papillary” nuclear features, namely open chromatin, nuclear grooves, and nuclear pseudoinclusions [1, 43]. All thyroid tumors with papillary nuclear features were considered PTC, and treated similarly, typically total thyroidectomy with possible radioactive iodine administration. However, the diagnostic criteria for FV-PTC had two major problems. First, independent studies found that pathologists cannot reproducibly classify nuclei as papillary, indicating distinction of FV-PTC from follicular lesions is subjective, including distinction of FV-PTC from benign follicular adenoma [44–46]. Second, several studies showed that FV-PTC is capable of metastasis only if it invades the tumor capsule or vascular spaces [2–7]. These findings prompted reclassification of non-invasive FV-PTC as a distinct tumor of low malignant potential, the NIFTP.

In the present study, we have shown that the thyroid neoplasms under study fall into three distinct expression subtypes,

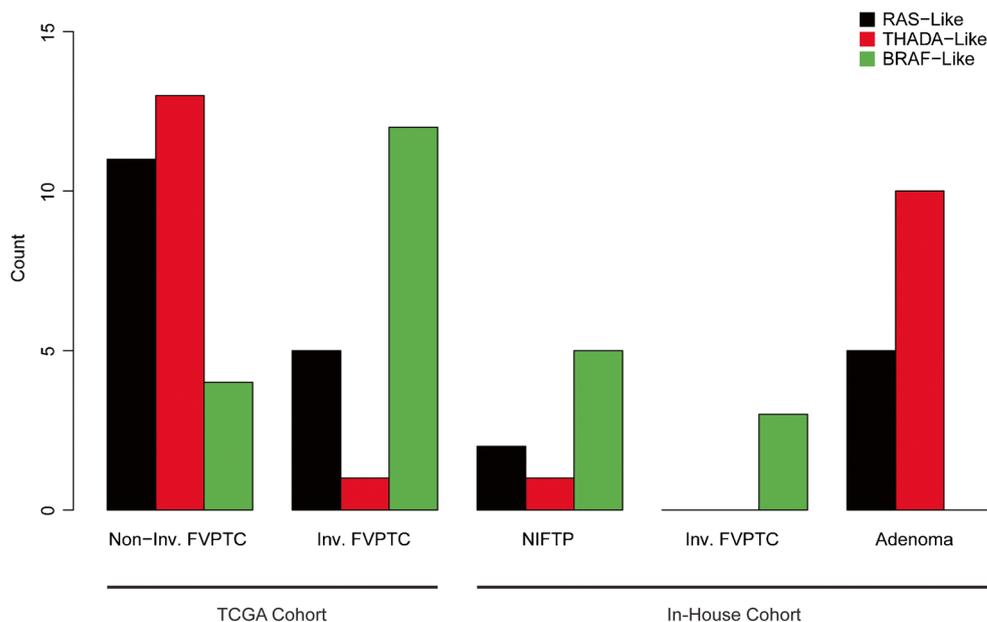
termed “BRAF-like,” “RAS-family-like,” and “THADA-like.” The BRAF-like assignment overlapped almost perfectly with the “RAF-like” assignment in the TCGA analysis, showing high ERK signaling and low expression of thyroid differentiation genes. The majority of invasive FV-PTCs were in this category. Several NIFTPs had a BRAF-like signature, while no follicular adenoma had this signature. The THADA-like group was, in many ways, opposite the BRAF-like group, because THADA-like tumors had low ERK signaling and high expression of thyroid differentiation genes. Invasion was uncommon in the THADA-like group, with only a single invasive case. Perhaps tellingly, the *THADA* gene rearrangement enriched in our THADA-like tumors was first reported in follicular adenomas [47], keeping with the more indolent nature of this expression group. The RAS-family-like group was intermediate between BRAF-like tumors and THADA-like tumors regarding ERK signaling and thyroid differentiation signatures. This group included several invasive FV-PTCs, NIFTPs, and follicular adenomas, and was thus the most histologically diverse expression subtype in this study. Notably, all cases from the TCGA set that we classified as THADA-like and RAS-family-like had been classified as RAS-like in the TCGA schema. We thus consider these two categories as more similar to one another than to the BRAF-like group.

Our analysis indicates that NIFTP comprises tumors with a diversity of expression signatures, as the BRAF-like, RAS-family-like, and THADA-like groups were well represented in this histologic tumor type (Fig. 5). It thus appears that a subset of NIFTP is biologically similar to follicular adenomas (i.e., the THADA-like tumors), while another subset is biologically similar to classic PTCs and invasive FV-PTCs (i.e., the BRAF-like tumors). This contrasts with follicular adenomas, which were all RAS-family-like or THADA-like groups, and invasive FV-PTCs, which were mostly BRAF-like or RAS-family-like.

Pathway analysis corroborated biological differences among expression subtypes. In addition to high ERK signaling, our analysis showed BRAF-like tumor genes associated with chemokine signaling, matrix reorganization, and NFK $\beta$  signaling. In contrast, THADA-like tumors expressed genes indicative of PPAR signaling. Still different were the RAS-family-like tumors which expressed genes indicative of hydrogen peroxide biosynthetic and catabolic processes, specifically DUOX1/2 and DUOX1/A2.

The results of the present study help explain recent studies showing that commercially available tests are less valuable in distinguishing benign from malignant thyroid neoplasia, now that NIFTP is recognized as a tumor of low malignant potential. Specifically, we found the Afirma gene list separates tumors into BRAF-like, RAS-family-like, and THADA-like subtypes by clustering methods. Given the Afirma test was designed to have a high negative predictive value [31], and

**Fig. 5** Histologic tumor type and molecular subtype, both training and validation sets. NIFTP was the most diverse tumor type, with all three molecular subtypes well represented. In contrast, no follicular adenoma had a BRAF-like expression signature, and the great majority of invasive FV-PTCs had a BRAF-like expression signature. (IFVPTC, invasive FV-PTC; NIFVPTC, non-invasive FV-PTC)



invasive FV-PTC was rare in our THADA-like group, we suspect the Afirma test considers THADA-like tumors as “benign,” and other tumors as “suspicious for malignancy” [33]. A previous report by Hang et al. [48] showed that recognition of NIFTP as a tumor of low malignant potential reduces the positive predictive value of Afirma testing. Our results may explain this finding, as we showed a large fraction of NIFTPs have BRAF-like or RAS-family-like expression signatures, which Afirma probably considers “suspicious for malignancy.” That is, original studies of Afirma likely considered these test-positive/carcinoma-positive, while these would now be considered test-positive/carcinoma-negative.

Regarding the Thyroseq test, the present study shows several mutational events are nonspecific for thyroid carcinoma, particularly in the context of NIFTP versus invasive FV-PTC. For example, the Thyroseq test (V2) considers tumors with *RAS* mutation or *THADA* rearrangement as “positive” [35]. However, we found *RAS* mutations were more common in NIFTP (and non-invasive FV-PTC in the training set) than invasive FV-PTC. We also found *THADA* rearrangements were enriched in non-invasive FV-PTC, without a single example of this event in invasive FV-PTC. These molecular events thus appear less specific for invasive PTC than previously considered [35], an observation keeping with findings from other studies [5, 49, 50]. Recognition of NIFTP as a tumor of low malignant potential thus appears to reduce the positive predictive value of the Thyroseq test (V2), similar to the Afirma test. Notably, a new version of Thyroseq (V3) has recently become available, and utilizes a complex formula including mutational, copy number, and gene expression analysis to classify tumors as high or low cancer risk [51]. We did not attempt to reproduce this version in the present study.

Our training and validation cohorts differed somewhat in molecular classification of NIFTP. Specifically, while the majority of NIFTPs in the validation cohort were BRAF-like, only a minority of non-invasive FV-PTCs in the training cohort were BRAF-like, and 80% of these had *BRAF* V600E mutations. This suggests these were actually invasive FV-PTCs in which the invasive carcinoma was on slides unavailable for review. This highlights a major limitation of our study. That is, only one slide was available for review in the cases in the training set, making it impossible to confidently diagnose NIFTP. In contrast, the complete tumor capsule was available for all cases in the validation set, and no NIFTP from the validation set harbored a *BRAF* V600E mutation or metastasized. We offer two possible explanations for this discrepancy between the TCGA cohort and the in-house cohort. First, our pathology group, including the main pathologist reviewing cases in this study, maintains a high threshold to consider a tumor NIFTP. In keeping with this, many NIFTPs from the in-house cohort had classic papillary nuclear features including nuclear pseudoinclusions, prominent nuclear crowding, and frequent nuclear grooves. In contrast, it appears a lower threshold was employed in classifying TCGA thyroid cancers. Many non-invasive FV-PTCs in the TCGA data set would probably have been diagnosed as follicular adenomas by our pathology group. Thus, if nuclear features and expression signature associate, it is possible we enriched our in-house NIFTPs in BRAF-like tumors by keeping a high threshold for diagnosis. A second possibility relates to the type of samples utilized. The TCGA study used fresh tissue, while our in-house cases were derived from FFPE. It is possible FFPE damage, or another unknown process, biased the results from the in-house cohort, placing a larger number of tumors in the BRAF-like group.

It should be recognized that we are not the first to identify an expression signature distinct from the “RAF-like” and “RAS-like” signatures in thyroid neoplasia. Yoo et al. [16] similarly identified a distinct signature, which they designated “non-RAF, non-RAS,” in a study comprising a diverse group of thyroid tumors. In contrast to this study, our analysis focused on molecular characterization of NIFTP, specifically as it differs from invasive FV-PTC and follicular adenoma.

In summary, our results indicate invasive FV-PTC is similar to classic PTC from a molecular standpoint, as the majority had a BRAF-like signature, and *BRAF* V600E mutations were common. This contrasts with the follicular adenomas, all of which were either THADA-like or RAS-family-like. Finally, our results indicate that while NIFTP is morphologically uniform, it is molecularly protean, as tumors with this morphology had THADA-like, BRAF-like, and RAS-family-like signatures. These findings corroborate histologic studies showing that NIFTP is best classified as a distinct tumor type.

**Acknowledgments** The authors would like to thank the Penn State Department of Pathology for the intradepartmental grant that funded this project.

**Authors' contributions** Christopher Pool, MD—data curation, methodology, writing of the original manuscript

Vonn Walter, PhD—data analysis, visualization, writing of the original manuscript

Darrin Bann, MD PhD—conceptualization, data curation, critical review of the final manuscript

David Goldenberg, MD—supervision, critical review of the final manuscript

James Broach, PhD—supervision, critical review of the final manuscript

Max Hennessy—data curation

Elizabeth Cottrill, MD—data curation, critical review of the final manuscript

Erik Washburn, MD—data curation

Nicole Williams, MD—critical review of the final manuscript

Henry Crist, MD—data curation, critical review of the final manuscript

Yuka Imamura, PhD—methodology, supervision, formal analysis, critical review of the final manuscript

Joshua I. Warrick, MD—conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, writing original manuscript, critical review of the final manuscript

**Funding** This study received financial support (intradepartmental research grant) from the Penn State Department of Pathology.

## Compliance with ethical standards

This study was performed with approval from the Penn State College of Medicine Human Subjects Protection Office (Institutional Review Board). The study complies with all ethical standards as stated in the Ethical Responsibilities of Authors on the Virchows Archiv webpage (<https://www.springer.com/medicine/pathology/journal/428>). This study was entirely funded by departmental funds from the Department of Pathology at Penn State University College of Medicine.

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

**Publisher's Note** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

## References

1. The Surveillance E, and End Results Program (SEER). The Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Program (SEER). Thyroid Cancer Statistics, 1992–2012. Available at: <https://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/thyro.html>. Accessed 04/3/2017
2. Kakudo K, Bai Y, Liu Z, Ozaki T (2012) Encapsulated papillary thyroid carcinoma, follicular variant: a misnomer. *Pathol Int* 62(3): 155–160
3. Liu J, Singh B, Tallini G, Carlson DL, Katabi N, Shaha A, Tuttle RM, Ghossein RA (2006) Follicular variant of papillary thyroid carcinoma: a clinicopathologic study of a problematic entity. *Cancer* 107(6):1255–1264
4. Piana S, Frasoldati A, Di Felice E, Gardini G, Tallini G, Rosai J (2010) Encapsulated well-differentiated follicular-patterned thyroid carcinomas do not play a significant role in the fatality rates from thyroid carcinoma. *Am J Surg Pathol* 34(6):868–872
5. Rivera M, Ricarte-Filho J, Knauf J, Shaha A, Tuttle M, Fagin JA, Ghossein RA (2010) Molecular genotyping of papillary thyroid carcinoma follicular variant according to its histological subtypes (encapsulated vs infiltrative) reveals distinct BRAF and RAS mutation patterns. *Mod Pathol* 23(9):1191–1200
6. Vivero M, Kraft S, Barletta JA (2013) Risk stratification of follicular variant of papillary thyroid carcinoma. *Thyroid* 23(3):273–279
7. Widder S, Guggisberg K, Khalil M, Pasiaka JL (2008) A pathologic re-review of follicular thyroid neoplasms: the impact of changing the threshold for the diagnosis of the follicular variant of papillary thyroid carcinoma. *Surgery* 144(1):80–85
8. Nikiforov YE, Seethala RR, Tallini G, Baloch ZW, Basolo F, Thompson LDR, Barletta JA, Wenig BM, al Ghuzlan A, Kakudo K, Giordano TJ, Alves VA, Khanafshar E, Asa SL, el-Naggar AK, Gooding WE, Hodak SP, Lloyd RV, Maytal G, Mete O, Nikiforova MN, Nosé V, Papotti M, Poller DN, Sadow PM, Tischler AS, Tuttle RM, Wall KB, LiVolsi VA, Randolph GW, Ghossein RA (2016) Nomenclature revision for encapsulated follicular variant of papillary thyroid carcinoma: a paradigm shift to reduce overtreatment of indolent tumors. *JAMA Oncol* 2(8):1023–1029
9. Lloyd RV, Osamura R, Kloppel G, Rosai J (2017) WHO Classification of tumours of endocrine organs. International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon
10. Guerra A, Sapio MR, Marotta V et al (2011) Prevalence of RET/PTC rearrangement in benign and malignant thyroid nodules and its clinical application. *Endocr J* 58(1):31–38
11. Kebebew E, Weng J, Bauer J, Ranvier G, Clark OH, Duh QY, Shihru D, Bastian B, Griffin A (2007) The prevalence and prognostic value of BRAF mutation in thyroid cancer. *Ann Surg* 246(3): 466–471
12. Drieschner N, Kerschling S, Soller JT, Rippe V, Belge G, Bullerdiek J, Nimzyk R (2007) A domain of the thyroid adenoma associated gene (THADA) conserved in vertebrates becomes destroyed by chromosomal rearrangements observed in thyroid adenomas. *Gene* 403(1–2):110–117
13. Marques AR, Espadilha C, Catarino AL, Moniz S, Pereira T, Sobrinho LG, Leite V (2002) Expression of PAX8-PPAR gamma 1 rearrangements in both follicular thyroid carcinomas and adenomas. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 87(8):3947–3952

14. Clinkscales W, Ong A, Nguyen S, Harruff EE, Gillespie MB (2017) Diagnostic value of RAS mutations in indeterminate thyroid nodules. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 156(3):472–479
15. Agrawal N, Akbani R, Aksoy BA, Ally A, Arachchi H, Asa SL, Auman JT, Balasundaram M, Balu S, Baylin SB, Behera M, Bernard B, Beroukhi R, Bishop JA, Black AD, Bodenheimer T, Boice L, Bootwalla MS, Bowen J, Bowlby R, Bristow CA, Brookens R, Brooks D, Bryant R, Buda E, Butterfield YSN, Carling T, Carlsen R, Carter SL, Carty SE, Chan TA, Chen AY, Cherniack AD, Cheung D, Chin L, Cho J, Chu A, Chuah E, Cibulskis K, Ciriello G, Clarke A, Clayman GL, Cope L, Copland JA, Covington K, Danilova L, Davidsen T, Demchok JA, DiCara D, Dhalla N, Dhir R, Dookran SS, Dresdner G, Eldridge J, Eley G, el-Naggar AK, Eng S, Fagin JA, Fennell T, Ferris RL, Fisher S, Frazer S, Frick J, Gabriel SB, Ganly I, Gao J, Garraway LA, Gastier-Foster JM, Getz G, Gehlenborg N, Ghossein R, Gibbs RA, Giordano TJ, Gomez-Hernandez K, Grimsby J, Gross B, Guin R, Hadjipanayis A, Harper HA, Hayes DN, Heiman DI, Herman JG, Hoadley KA, Hofree M, Holt RA, Hoyle AP, Huang FW, Huang M, Hutter CM, Ideker T, Iype L, Jacobsen A, Jefferys SR, Jones CD, Jones SJM, Kasaian K, Kebebew E, Khuri FR, Kim J, Kramer R, Kreisberg R, Kucherlapati R, Kwiatkowski DJ, Ladanyi M, Lai PH, Laird PW, Lander E, Lawrence MS, Lee D, Lee E, Lee S, Lee W, Leraas KM, Lichtenberg TM, Lichtenstein L, Lin P, Ling S, Liu J, Liu W, Liu Y, LiVolsi VA, Lu Y, Ma Y, Mahadeshwar HS, Marra MA, Mayo M, McFadden DG, Meng S, Meyerson M, Mieczkowski PA, Miller M, Mills G, Moore RA, Mose LE, Mungall AJ, Murray BA, Nikiforov YE, Noble MS, Ojesina AI, Owonikoko TK, Ozenberger BA, Pantazi A, Parfenov M, Park PJ, Parker JS, Paull EO, Peadarallu CS, Perou CM, Prins JF, Protopopov A, Ramalingam SS, Ramirez NC, Ramirez R, Raphael BJ, Rathmell WK, Ren X, Reynolds SM, Rheinbay E, Ringel MD, Rivera M, Roach J, Robertson AG, Rosenberg MW, Rosenthal M, Sadeghi S, Saksena G, Sander C, Santoso N, Schein JE, Schultz N, Schumacher SE, Seethala RR, Seidman J, Senbabaoglu Y, Seth S, Sharpe S, Shaw KRM, Shen JP, Shen R, Sherman S, Sheth M, Shi Y, Shmulevich I, Sica GL, Simons JV, Sinha R, Sipahimalani P, Smallridge RC, Sofia HJ, Soloway MG, Song X, Sougnez C, Stewart C, Stojanov P, Stuart JM, Sumer SO, Sun Y, Tabak B, Tam A, Tan D, Tang J, Tarnuzzer R, Taylor BS, Thiessen N, Thorne L, Thorsson V, Tuttle RM, Umbricht CB, van den Berg DJ, Vandin F, Veluvolu U, Verhaak RGW, Vinco M, Voet D, Walter V, Wang Z, Waring S, Weinberger PM, Weinhold N, Weinstein JN, Weisenberger DJ, Wheeler D, Wilkerson MD, Wilson J, Williams M, Winer DA, Wise L, Wu J, Xi L, Xu AW, Yang L, Yang L, Zack TI, Zeiger MA, Zeng D, Zenklusen JC, Zhao N, Zhang H, Zhang J, Zhang J(J), Zhang W, Zmuda E, Zou L (2014) Integrated genomic characterization of papillary thyroid carcinoma. *Cell* 159(3):676–690
16. Yoo SK, Lee S, Kim SJ, Jee HG, Kim BA, Cho H, Song YS, Cho SW, Won JK, Shin JY, Park DJ, Kim JI, Lee KE, Park YJ, Seo JS (2016) Comprehensive analysis of the transcriptional and mutational landscape of follicular and papillary thyroid cancers. *PLoS Genet* 12(8):e1006239
17. Giordano TJ, Quick R, Thomas DG, Misek DE, Vinco M, Sanders D, Zhu Z, Ciampi R, Roh M, Shedden K, Gauger P, Doherty G, Thompson NW, Hanash S, Koenig RJ, Nikiforov YE (2005) Molecular classification of papillary thyroid carcinoma: distinct BRAF, RAS, and RET/PTC mutation-specific gene expression profiles discovered by DNA microarray analysis. *Oncogene* 24(44):6646–6656
18. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. [computer program]. Vienna, Austria.: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2014
19. Institute NC. Genomic Data Commons Data Portal. <https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov>. Accessed June 10 2017
20. *Genome wide annotation for Human. org.Hs.eg.db* [computer program]. 2017
21. Robinson MD, Smyth GK (2010) edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics* 26(1):139–140
22. McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK (2012) Differential expression analysis of multifactor RNA-Seq experiments with respect to biological variation. *Nucleic Acids Res* 40(10):4299–4297
23. *sva: Surrogate Variable Analysis* [computer program]. 2017
24. Wilkerson MD, Hayes DN (2013) ConsensusClusterPlus: a class discovery tool with confidence assessments and item tracking. *Bioinformatics* 26(12):1572–1573
25. Dabney AR (2005) Classification of microarrays to nearest centroids. *Bioinformatics* 21(22):4148–4154
26. Trapnell C, Pachter L, Salzberg SL (2009) TopHat: discovering splice junctions with RNA-Seq. *Bioinformatics* 25(9):1105–1111
27. Law CW, Chen Y, Shi W, Smyth GK (2014) Voom: precision weights unlock linear model analysis tools for RNA-seq read counts. *Genome Biol* 15(2):R29
28. Ritchie ME, Phipson B, Wu D, Hu Y, Law CW, Shi W, Smyth GK (2015) Limma powers differential expression analyses for RNA-seq and microarray studies. *Nucleic Acids Res* 43(7):e47
29. Huang d W, Sherman BT, Lempicki RA (2009) Systematic and integrative analysis of large gene lists using DAVID bioinformatics resources. *Nat Protoc* 4(1):44–57
30. Huang DW, Sherman BT, Lempicki RA (2009) Bioinformatics enrichment tools: paths toward the comprehensive functional analysis of large gene lists. *Nucleic Acids Res* 37(1):1–13
31. Alexander EK, Kennedy GC, Baloch ZW, Cibas ES, Chudova D, Diggins J, Friedman L, Kloos RT, LiVolsi VA, Mandel SJ, Raab SS, Rosai J, Steward DL, Walsh PS, Wilde JI, Zeiger MA, Lanman RB, Haugen BR (2012) Preoperative diagnosis of benign thyroid nodules with indeterminate cytology. *N Engl J Med* 367(8):705–715
32. Nikiforova MN, Wald AI, Roy S, Durso MB, Nikiforov YE (2013) Targeted next-generation sequencing panel (ThyroSeq) for detection of mutations in thyroid cancer. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 98(11):E1852–E1860
33. Afirma. <https://www.afirma.com/physicians>. Accessed Nov 5 2017
34. *heatmap: Pretty Heatmaps* [computer program]. Version 10.8. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=heatmap2015>. Accessed Jan 15 2017
35. Nikiforov YE, Carty SE, Chiosea SI, Coyne C, Duvvuri U, Ferris RL, Gooding WE, Hodak SP, LeBeau SO, Ohori NP, Seethala RR, Tublin ME, Yip L, Nikiforova MN (2014) Highly accurate diagnosis of cancer in thyroid nodules with follicular neoplasm/suspicious for a follicular neoplasm cytology by ThyroSeq v2 next-generation sequencing assay. *Cancer* 120(23):3627–3634
36. Thyroseq. <https://thyroseq.com/physicians>. Accessed 11/5/2017
37. Ameziane-El-Hassani R, Schlumberger M, Dupuy C (2016) NADPH oxidases: new actors in thyroid cancer? *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 12(8):485–494
38. Ameziane-El-Hassani R, Talbot M, de Souza Dos Santos MC et al (2015) NADPH oxidase DUOX1 promotes long-term persistence of oxidative stress after an exposure to irradiation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 112(16):5051–5056
39. Raman P, Koenig RJ (2014) Pax-8-PPAR-gamma fusion protein in thyroid carcinoma. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 10(10):616–623
40. Xing M (2013) Molecular pathogenesis and mechanisms of thyroid cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer* 13(3):184–199
41. Grivennikov S, Karin M (2008) Autocrine IL-6 signaling: a key event in tumorigenesis? *Cancer Cell* 13(1):7–9
42. Mantovani A, Allavena P, Sica A, Balkwill F (2008) Cancer-related inflammation. *Nature* 454(7203):436–444

43. Chem KT, Rosai J (1977) Follicular variant of thyroid papillary carcinoma: a clinicopathologic study of six cases. *Am J Surg Pathol* 1(2):123–130
44. Elsheikh TM, Asa SL, Chan JK et al (2008) Interobserver and intraobserver variation among experts in the diagnosis of thyroid follicular lesions with borderline nuclear features of papillary carcinoma. *Am J Clin Pathol* 130(5):736–744
45. Hirokawa M, Carney JA, Goellner JR, DeLellis RA, Heffess CS, Katoh R, Tsujimoto M, Kakudo K (2002) Observer variation of encapsulated follicular lesions of the thyroid gland. *Am J Surg Pathol* 26(11):1508–1514
46. Lloyd RV, Erickson LA, Casey MB, Lam KY, Lohse CM, Asa SL, Chan JKC, DeLellis RA, Harach HR, Kakudo K, LiVolsi VA, Rosai J, Sebo TJ, Sobrinho-Simoes M, Wenig BM, Lae ME (2004) Observer variation in the diagnosis of follicular variant of papillary thyroid carcinoma. *Am J Surg Pathol* 28(10):1336–1340
47. Rippe V, Drieschner N, Meiboom M, Escobar HM, Bonk U, Belge G, Bullerdiek J (2003) Identification of a gene rearranged by 2p21 aberrations in thyroid adenomas. *Oncogene* 22(38):6111–6114
48. Hang JF, Westra WH, Cooper DS, Ali SZ (2017) The impact of noninvasive follicular thyroid neoplasm with papillary-like nuclear features on the performance of the Afirma gene expression classifier. *Cancer* 125(9):683–691
49. Howitt BE, Jia Y, Sholl LM, Barletta JA (2013) Molecular alterations in partially-encapsulated or well-circumscribed follicular variant of papillary thyroid carcinoma. *Thyroid* 23(10):1256–1262
50. Paulson VA, Shivdasani P, Angell TE, Cibas ES, Krane JF, Lindeman NI, Alexander EK, Barletta JA (2017) Noninvasive follicular thyroid neoplasm with papillary-like nuclear features accounts for more than half of “carcinomas” harboring RAS mutations. *Thyroid* 27(4):506–511
51. Nikiforova MN, Mercurio S, Wald AI, Barbi de Moura M, Callenberg K, Santana-Santos L, Gooding WE, Yip L, Ferris RL, Nikiforov YE (2018) Analytical performance of the ThyroSeq v3 genomic classifier for cancer diagnosis in thyroid nodules. *Cancer* 124(8):1682–1690