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"Understanding Thyroid Cancer: Causes, Symptoms and Treatment Option"

Pranay R. Katekhaye, Vishal L. Chinchulkar, Khushi M. Kongre, Dr.Nilesh O. Chachda

Shri Chhatrapati Shahu Maharaj Shikshan Sanstha's Institute of Pharmacy, Maregaon
Shri Chhatrapati Shahu Maharaj Shikshan Sanstha's Institute of Pharmacy, Maregaon
Department of pharmacology, Shri Chhatrapati Shahu Maharaj Shikshan Sanstha's Institute of Pharmacy, Maregaon
Department of pharmaceutics, Shri Chhatrapati Shahu Maharaj Shikshan Sanstha's Institute of Pharmacy, Maregaon

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ABSTRACT
Thyroid cancer is the most common endocrine malignancy, accounting for a majority of endocrine-related cancers worldwide. It arises from the follicular or parafollicular cells of the thyroid gland and presents in different histological forms, including **papillary**, **follicular**, **medullary**, and **anaplastic** thyroid carcinoma. While thyroid cancer is generally associated with a good prognosis, certain types, particularly anaplastic thyroid cancer, carry a much worse prognosis due to their aggressive nature. Pharmacological management, along with surgery and radiotherapy, plays a critical role in the treatment and management of thyroid cancer. Surgery and radiation can result in long-term issues that affect quality of life and impose financial burdens. For patients with differentiated thyroid cancer, the survival rate approaches 100%, regardless of the extent of treatment.
Keywords: Thyroid cancer, dignosis, treatment

I. INTRODUCTION

The most prevalent endocrine system cancer is thyroid carcinoma (TC). Follicle epithelial cells or parafollicular C cells are the source of thyroid cancer.Papillary thyroid cancer, follicular thyroid cancer, poorly-differentiated thyroid cancer, and anaplastic thyroid cancer are the four histological forms of thyroid malignancies originating from follicular cells.

The majority of thyroid cancer instances are well-differentiated thyroid cancers (WDTC), which include PTC and FTC(1).In 2015, there were an estimated 62,000 new instances of thyroid cancer in both men and women, making it the fifth most frequent cancer in women in the United States.

In order to avoid overtreating patients with benign thyroid nodules or lower-risk diseases, doctors treating thyroid malignancies must strike a balance in their treatment strategy. At the same time, they must identify patients who require a more aggressive treatment approach due to their advanced or high-risk condition(2).

In mammals, the thyroid, also known as glandula thyroidea, is an endocrine gland situated in the neck in front of the trachea, beneath the larynx. It resembles a butterfly in people. It is made up of two lobes that are joined by the isthmus, a small bridge. A malignant growth of the thyroid gland is known as thyroid carcinoma or thyroid cancer (TC). Although it is extremely uncommon—making up only 1% of all malignant tumors—it is the most prevalent cancer of the endocrine (hormonal) system, and its incidence has been rising recently (3).

According to the medical literature, cancer is the leading cause of death for people over 60. Even though cardiovascular disease is still the world's top cause of mortality, industrialized nations are starting to worry about the constantly rising number of aged cancer patients(3).

Thyroid nodules are lumps or bumps in the thyroid gland. A tiny fraction of thyroid nodules are cancerous, although the majority are benign. Thyroid nodules can appear at any age, although older persons are more likely to get them.

Hyperthyroidism may result from some nodules that cause the body to produce excessive amounts of thyroid hormone. Most of the time, these nodules are harmless.

Thyroid nodules that a physician may feel are present in a tiny percentage of persons. However, nodules too tiny to feel are present in

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many more persons. These might only be visible during an examination like an ultrasound(4).The majority of thyroid nodules are cysts that contain fluid or colloid, a type of thyroid hormone that has been preserved. Other nodules have very little fluid or colloid and are solid(5). Cancer is more likely to be present in solid nodules. However, the majority of solid nodules are not malignant.

Adenomas and hyperplastic nodules are two examples of solid nodules that contain an excessive number of cells, yet these cells are not cancerous(6).

In certain cases, benign thyroid nodules can be closely monitored as long as they are not developing or producing symptoms. Others may require medical attention(7).

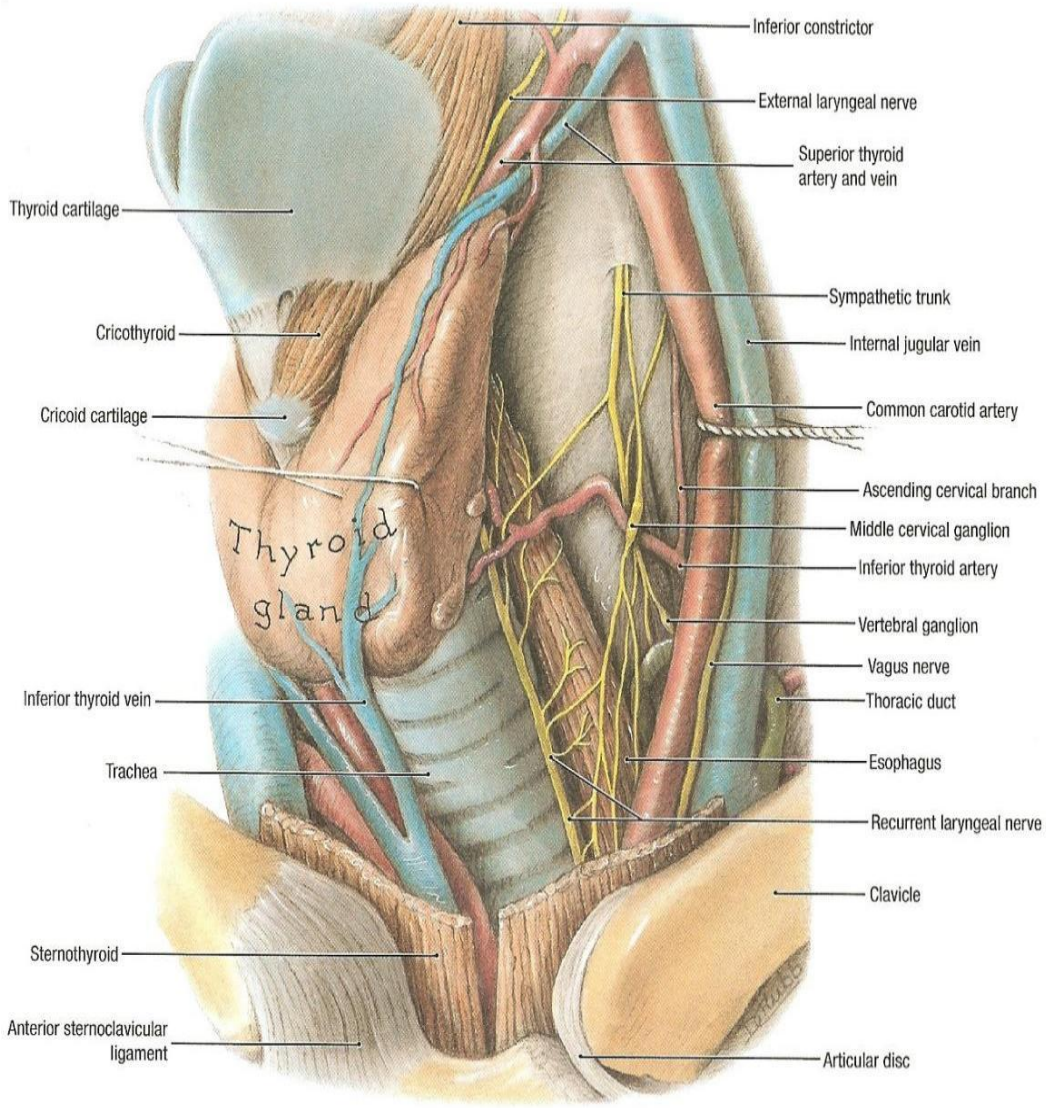

Fig1. Normal thyroids cancer (77)

1. Etiology:

The familial incidence of thyroid cancer is approximately 5% for papillary thyroid carcinoma (PTC) and follicular thyroid carcinoma (FTC), while it ranges from 15% to 30% for medullary thyroid carcinoma (MTC). In recent decades, the global incidence of papillary thyroid cancer has risen, primarily attributed to improved detection methods and advanced imaging technologies, which may lead to the risk of overdetection. Genetic alterations, including mutations and translocations within the genes associated with the

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mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling pathway, have been recognized as significant contributors to the genetic underpinnings of most thyroid cancers(8).

For PTC, the most prevalent mutation is a point mutation in the BRAF gene, resulting in the BRAF V600E mutant kinase, which accounts for 29% to 69% of cases, including those associated with anaplastic thyroid cancer (0% to 12%)(9,10). Additionally, RET-papillary thyroid cancer (RET/PTC) translocations are observed in approximately 7% of PTC cases. RAS proto-oncogene mutations are found in 10% to 20% of follicular variant PTC (FVPTC)(11).

In FTC, RAS proto-oncogene mutations are the most frequently observed, occurring in 40% to 50% of cases. Furthermore, PAX8–peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPARγ) translocations have been identified in about 30% to 35% of FTC cases(12).

For anaplastic thyroid cancer, inactivating mutations of the p53 tumor suppressor gene are present in 50% to 80% of cases, alongside early inactivating mutations. Additionally, 66% of anaplastic thyroid cancers exhibit mutations in the CTNNB1 gene, while RAS mutations are associated with 20% to 40% of these cancers(12,13).

In MTC, germline mutations of the RET proto-oncogene are found in approximately 25% of inherited cases, with RAS mutations also present in 25% of MTC cases(14).

Other less common gene mutations, such as TERT mutations, have been linked to the development of thyroid cancer, particularly in aggressive forms of PTC. Differentiated thyroid cancer (DTC) may be inherited through autosomal dominant patterns or manifest as part of tumor-susceptibility syndromes(15).

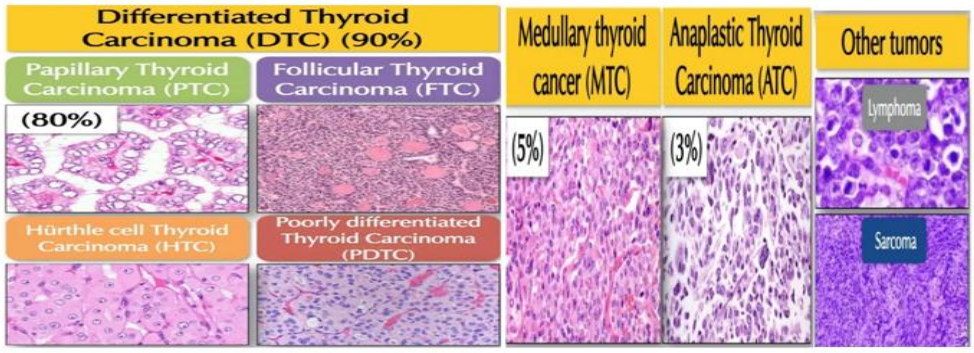

Fig2 .Microscopical differentiation of thyroid cancer(78)

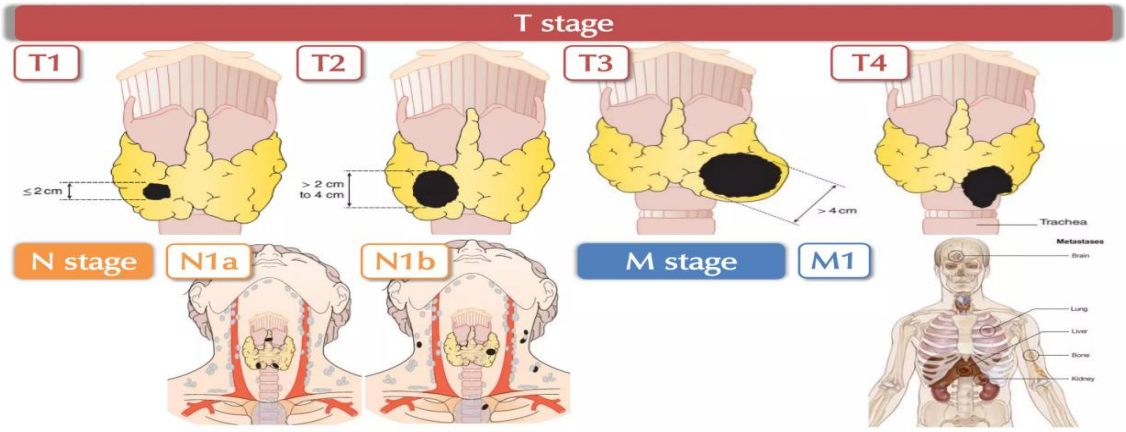

Fig3.stages of thyroid cancer (78)

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2. Stages of thyroid cancer:

The TNM staging system for thyroid cancer assesses three key components:

- **T (Tumor)**: Size and extent of the primary tumor.
- **N (Nodes)**: Involvement of regional lymph nodes.
- **M (Metastasis)**: Presence of distant metastasis.
- Here's a breakdown of the TNM (19).

Classifications for thyroid cancer:

a. T(TUMOR)

- **T1**: Tumor ≤ 2 cm in greatest dimension.
- **T2**: Tumor > 2 cm but ≤ 4 cm.
- **T3**: Tumor > 4 cm or any tumor that invades local structures.
- **T4**: Tumor that invades nearby tissues (e.g., trachea, esophagus) or is of a more aggressive subtype.
- **T4a**: Tumor that invades nearby structures.
- **T4b**: Tumor that invades prevertebral fascia or mediastinal organs(19).

b. NODES

- **N0**: No regional lymph node involvement.
- **N1**: Involvement of regional lymph nodes.
- **N1a**: Metastasis to lymph nodes in the central compartment (level VI).
- **N1b**: Metastasis to lateral neck lymph nodes (level I–V)(19).

c. M(METASTATIS)

- **M0**: No distant metastasis.
- **M1**: Distant metastasis present(19).

d. Staging summary

- **Stage I**: T1, N0, M0
- **Stage II**: T2, N0, M0
- **Stage III**: T3 or T4a, N0 or N1a, M0
- **Stage IV**: T4b or N1b or M1 (distant metastasis)(19).

3. Pathophysiology of thyroid

3.1 Papillary Thyroid Cancer (PTC):The defining microscopic feature of papillary thyroid carcinoma (PTC) is the formation of papillae. Each papilla is composed of layers of tumor cells that encase a fibrovascular core. In classic PTC, follicles are generally absent. The typical cellular histomorphology is characterized by cells exhibiting large, clear nuclei with finely granular chromatin, often referred to as ground-glass or "Orphan Annie-eyed" nuclei, which may display nuclear grooving and intranuclear inclusion bodies. Additionally, psammoma bodies, which are calcified aggregates of cells likely resulting from necrotic papillae, are frequently observed. Certain variants of PTC, known as follicular variants, do not exhibit papillae but retain the nuclear characteristics of PTC. More aggressive variants, including tall cell variant, columnar variant, insular carcinoma, and diffuse sclerosing variant, are classified as thyroid cancers with intermediate differentiation(19).

3.2 Follicular Thyroid Cancer (FTC): The characteristics of follicular thyroid carcinoma (FTC) can vary significantly, ranging from a well-differentiated follicular pattern to a poorly differentiated pattern marked by significant nuclear atypia, absence of follicles, and extensive capsular or vascular invasion, along with solid growth. These latter features are associated with a poorer prognosis. It is important to note that the characteristics typical of PTC should not be present. The distinction between follicular carcinoma and benign follicular adenoma can only be established through the presence of extracapsular and/or vascular invasion. FTC is further categorized into minimally invasive, encapsulated, angioinvasive, and widely invasive types, based on the degree of invasion(20).

3.3 Hurthle cell carcinoma (HCC):This type is distinguished by the presence of eosinophilic oxyphilic cells, known as oncocytes, which are characterized by abundant cytoplasm and prominent nucleoli(21).

3.4 Medullary Thyroid Cancer (MTC):Medullary thyroid carcinoma (MTC) originates from parafollicular C cells and is characterized by spindle-shaped cells that do not form follicles. The presence of amyloid deposits and calcitonin immunoreactivity is typically noted(20,21).

3.5 Anaplastic Thyroid Cancer (ATC): The common pathological variants of this carcinoma include spindle-cell and pleomorphic types(22).

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Subtype	Histologic Variants	Incidence
Papillary (89.4%)	Conventional/Classic	65% - 85%
	Follicular Variant	15% - 20%
	Tall Cell	5% - 10%
	Solid	1% - 3%
	Diffuse sclerosing	1% - 2%
	Papillary Micro-Carcinoma	---
	Oncocytic	---
	Columnar Cell	---
	Clear Cell	---
	Morular Cribriforme	---
	Marco-follicular	---
	Papillar With Hobnail Charateristics	---
	Papillary with stroma similar to fascitis	---
	Combined Papillary and Medullary Carcinoma Papillary with dedifferentiation to Anaplastic Carcinoma	---
Follicular (4.6%)	Hurthle (2.0%)	---
Poorly Differentiated	Insular	---
Medullary (1.7%)	---	---
Anaplastic (0.8%)	---	---

Table1.Pathophysiology of thyroid (79)

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4. Epidemiology & survival rates

Since 1990, the number of AYAs with thyroid cancer has been rising rapidly. Among the cancers with the fastest increases in incidence between 2000 and 2023, thyroid cancer has been the most or second most rapidly increasing form of cancer diagnosed among those aged 12 to 16 years(8), when analyzed by 5-year-age intervals and taking into account only statistically significant average percentage changes, $p < 0.005$ *(9). By 2006, it was the most prevalent cancer among American adolescents and young adults (AYAs) aged 18 to 33. By 2012, its incidence was more than 40% greater than that of gonadal germ cell tumors, the second most common malignancy(10).

Thyroid cancer represents 1% to 4% of all malignancies and is the fifth most common cancer in women in the United States.(8) It has a female preponderance of around 3:1.[8] There has been a steady rise in the incidence of thyroid cancer globally; particularly, PTC detection has risen by 240% in the last three decades.[9] This increase in the incidence has been observed in both genders and among all races and is thought to be primarily due to an increasing trend in the rate of diagnostic imaging.[20][21]

PTC is the most common endocrine cancer, responsible for 96% of all new and 66.8% of deaths due to endocrine cancers.[22] As was mentioned earlier, most thyroid cancers derive from the follicular epithelium, with PTC and FTC being far more common than anaplastic thyroid cancer.[23][24]

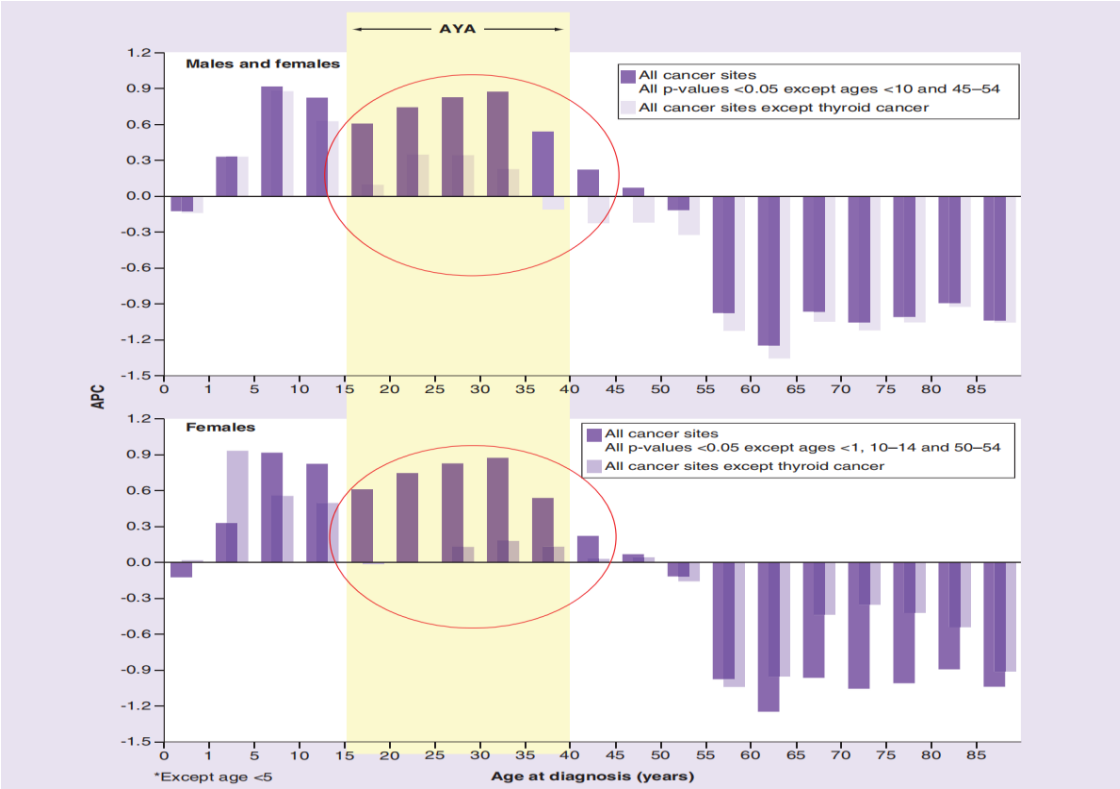

Figure1. Average percentage change during 2000–2023 in incidence of all cancer sites, SEER18, with and without thyroid cancer, by 5-year age intervals. The red circles encompass the age groups for which the overall increase in cancer incidence is primarily due to thyroid cancer(20)

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5. Types of Thyroid Cancer and Molecular Targets

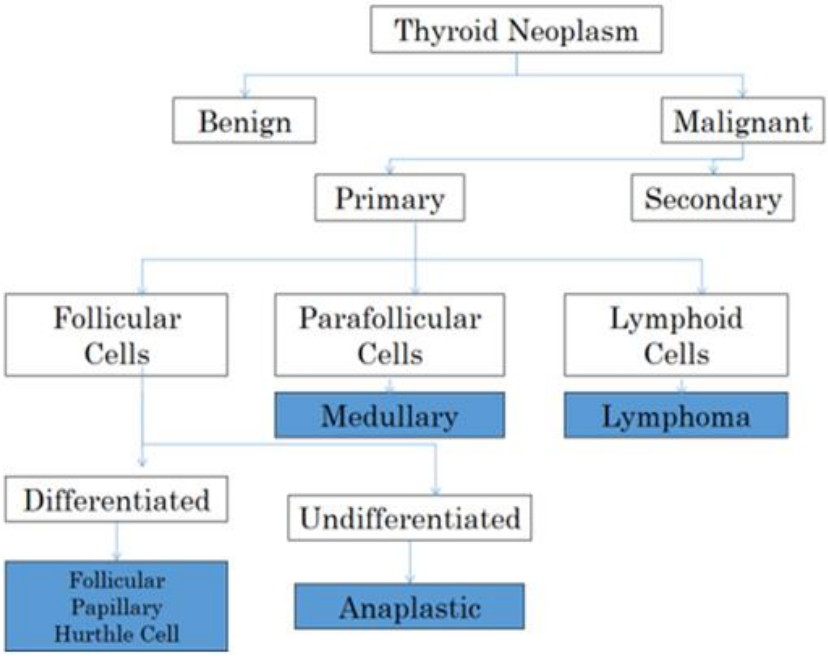

Fig1.Types of thyroid cancer (77)

5.1 Papillary Thyroid Cancer (PTC):

About 80% of cases of thyroid cancer are oPTC, making it the most prevalent type. It usually has a high survival rate and a great prognosis.RET/PTC rearrangements and the BRAF V600E mutationwere the genetic mutations involved(25).Medical treatment: Tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs), such as lenvatinib and sorafenib, are frequently utilized for individuals with progressed or radioactive iodine (RAI)-resistant PTC. These medications target kinases involved in tumor angiogenesis and growth, including VEGF receptors(25).

5.2 Follicular Thyroid Cancer (FTC):

About 10–15% of thyroid carcinoma cases are FTC. It has a good prognosis but is a little more aggressive than PTC.oRAS mutations and PAX8/PPARγ rearrangements were among the genetic mutations involved(26).

5.3 Medullary Thyroid Cancer (MTC):

About 3-4% of thyroid tumors are MTC, which starts in the thyroid's parafollicular C cells.Hereditary or sporadic RET proto-oncogene mutations, which are a component of multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) syndrome, were among the genetic alterations involved.Medical treatment: RET inhibitors such as vandetanib and cabozantinib are utilized since MTC does not respond to RAI treatment. The RET mutations that propel the disease's progression are the focus of these medications(27).

5.4 Anaplastic Thyroid Cancer (ATC):

Less than 2% of thyroid cancer cases are ATC, a rare and aggressive type of the disease that is responsible for many thyroid cancer-related deaths.TERT promoter mutations, TP53, and occasionally BRAF V600E were among the genetic alterations involved.Medical treatment: Because ATC is aggressive, it usually does not respond to most traditional treatments. In patients with the BRAF V600E mutation, recent developments have led to the introduction of BRAF/MEK inhibitors (e.g., dabrafenib and trametinib), which has demonstrated some promise in improving outcomes in this challenging-to-treat population(28).

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Fig1.A women with anaplastic cancer (80)

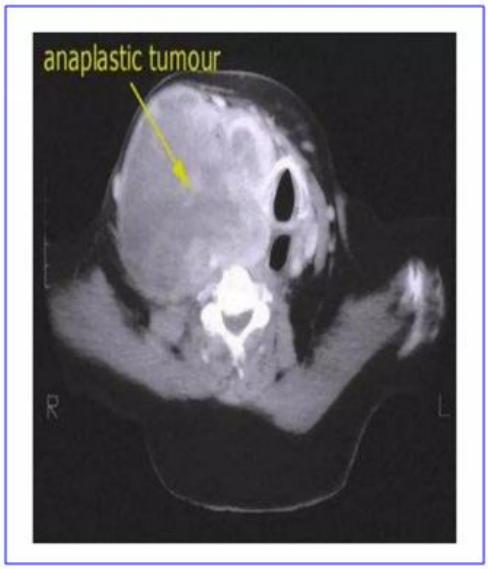

Fig2. A CT scan showing anaplastic cancer of thyroid (80)

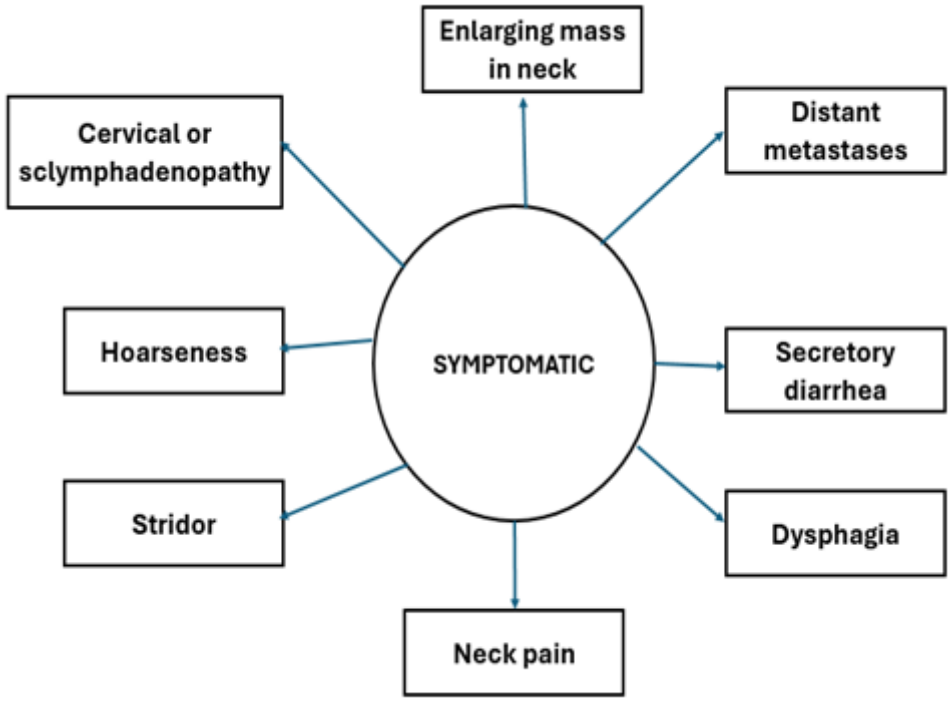

Fig1.Asymptomatic of thyroid cancer(79)

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6. Thyroid Cancer Prevalence

Over the past few decades, thyroid cancer has become more prevalent worldwide, making it one of the most prevalent endocrine cancers. The causes of this increase are unclear, though, and could include lifestyle and environmental variables in addition to better detection techniques like ultrasonography and fine-needle aspiration (FNA) biopsies(36).

6.1 Worldwide Prevalence

Thyroid cancer has been gradually increasing in prevalence worldwide, especially in high-income nations. Thyroid cancer was the ninth most frequent cancer worldwide in 2020, with an estimated 586,000 new cases reported(37).With around 85% of all thyroid cancer cases, papillary thyroid cancer (PTC) is the most prevalent kind. Follicle (10%), medullary (2–3%), and anaplastic thyroid cancer (<1%) are the next most common types.With a female-to-male ratio of roughly 3:1, women are more frequently impacted than men. Although the exact causes of this gender gap are unknown, hormones may play a role.(37).

6.2 The United States prevalence

With an annual incidence rate increase of roughly 3% over the previous few decades, thyroid carcinoma is the cancer that is growing the fastest in the United States. In 2021, there were a projected 44,280 new cases of thyroid cancer, according to the American Cancer Society.For women, the lifetime risk of thyroid cancer is approximately 1.3%, whereas for men, it is approximately 0.4%(39).The most prevalent type of thyroid cancer is papillary, and since most cases are found early, survival rates are high.(38,39).

6.3 In Europe, prevalence

Additionally, the incidence of thyroid cancer has been increasing throughout Europe, with higher-than-average rates found in nations like France, Italy, and Austria. Nonetheless, 5-year survival rates for the majority of differentiated thyroid tumors above 90%, indicating that overall survival is still good.(40).

6.4 Prevalence in Asia

One of the highest incidence rates of thyroid cancer worldwide is found in South Korea. Widespread screening programs that use ultrasonography for early detection—often discovering small, indolent tumors that could not be harmful if left untreated—have been connected to the sharp rise.Thyroid cancer is becoming more common in China and Japan, though not as quickly as it is in South Korea. This trend has been connected to environmental factors like radiation exposure and iodine consumption(40).

6.5 Age and Gender Prevalence

Age: Although thyroid cancer can strike at any age, it is most frequently detected in people between the ages of 30 and 50. The most severe types, like anaplastic thyroid cancer, usually strike people who are older (over 60).

Gender: The frequency is highest among women of reproductive age, and women are at a far higher risk than men. The higher incidence in women may be influenced by hormonal variables like estrogen(41).

6.6 Risk factors and trends

The increasing identification of tiny, subclinical tumors that would not have previously been detected could contribute to the rise in thyroid cancer incidence. This tendency has been facilitated by advancements in diagnostic technologies, such as high-resolution ultrasonography.Radiation exposure is still a significant risk factor, especially in children. The impact of radiation on thyroid cancer rates is demonstrated by the increase in instances that follow nuclear catastrophes like the Chernobyl disaster(42).

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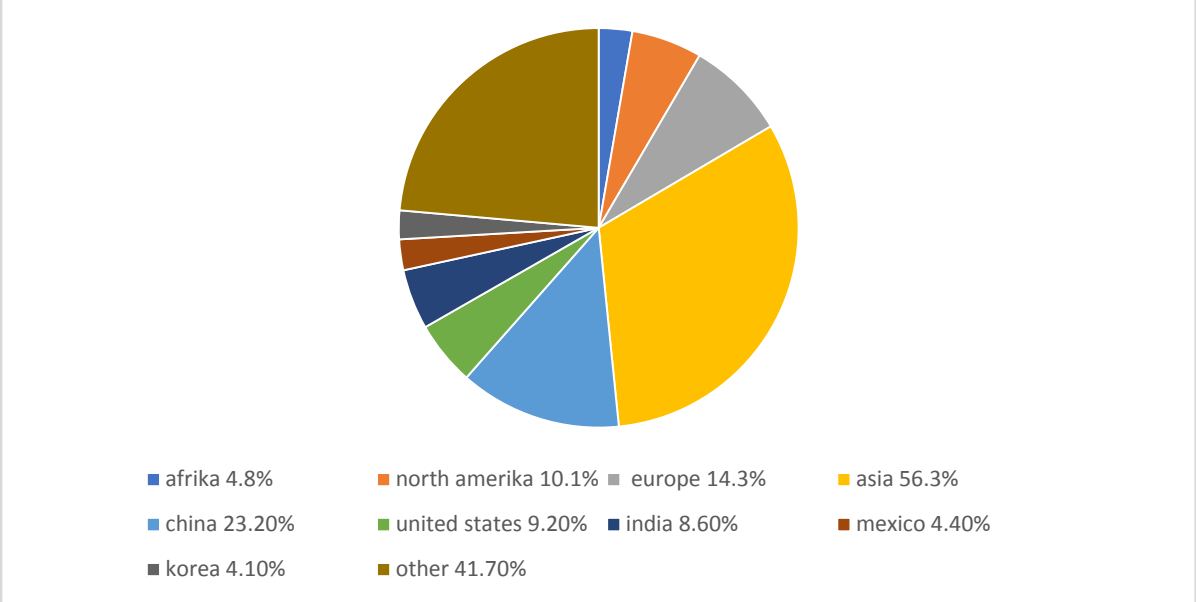

Fig1.Pie chart of Region wise percentage of thyroid cancer (81)

7. Causes of Thyroid Cancer

Thyroid cancer develops when normal cells in the thyroid gland undergo genetic mutations, leading to uncontrolled growth and the formation of a tumor. While the exact cause of these mutations is not always clear, several factors can increase the risk of developing thyroid cancer. Below are some of the primary causes and risk factors associated with thyroid cancer.

7.1 Genetic Mutations

Genetic mutations are central to the development of thyroid cancer. These mutations may be acquired (sporadic) or inherited (familial) and affect key signaling pathways that regulate cell growth, division, and survival.

- **Oncogene Activation**:
  - **BRAF mutation**: The **BRAF V600E mutation** is the most common genetic alteration in **papillary thyroid cancer (PTC)**. It leads to activation of the **MAPK pathway**, promoting cell proliferation and tumor formation.
  - **RET/PTC rearrangements**: Rearrangements in the **RET proto-oncogene** are found in a significant number of papillary thyroid cancers. This genetic change leads to constitutive activation of pathways that drive cancer growth.
  - **RAS mutations**: **RAS gene mutations** are involved in **follicular thyroid cancer (FTC)** and less commonly in papillary thyroid cancer. These mutations activate both the **MAPK** and **PI3K/AKT pathways**, promoting cell survival and proliferation.

- **Tumor Suppressor Gene Inactivation:**
  - **TP53 mutation**: In more aggressive thyroid cancers, such as **anaplastic thyroid cancer (ATC)**, mutations in the **TP53** gene, which encodes the tumor suppressor protein p53, lead to loss of cell cycle control and the ability of the cell to undergo apoptosis.
  - **PTEN mutation**: The **PTEN** gene negatively regulates the **PI3K/AKT pathway**, and its inactivation can contribute to cancer progression.

7.2 Radiation Exposure

One of the most well-established risk factors for thyroid cancer, particularly **papillary thyroid cancer**, is exposure to ionizing radiation. Radiation can damage the DNA in thyroid cells, leading to mutations that promote cancer development.

- **Childhood radiation exposure**: People who received radiation treatments to the head, neck, or chest during childhood, often for conditions such as **tonsillitis**, **acne**, or **Hodgkin's lymphoma**, have an increased risk of developing thyroid cancer later in life.
- **Nuclear accidents**: Survivors of nuclear accidents, such as the **Chernobyl disaster** or the **Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster**, have shown an elevated incidence of thyroid

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cancer, particularly among children exposed to radiation.

7.3 Familial or Hereditary Factors

Although most thyroid cancers are sporadic, some are inherited. Familial syndromes are responsible for a smaller proportion of thyroid cancer cases, but individuals with these genetic predispositions have a significantly higher risk.

- **Familial Medullary Thyroid Cancer (FMTC)**: Medullary thyroid cancer (MTC) can occur as part of inherited syndromes such as **Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia type 2 (MEN2)**, caused by mutations in the **RET proto-oncogene**. This hereditary form of thyroid cancer often appears alongside other endocrine tumors.
- **MEN 2A and MEN 2B**: These syndromes involve mutations in the RET gene, leading to medullary thyroid cancer as well as other endocrine tumors, such as **pheochromocytomas** and **parathyroid adenomas**.
- **Familial Adenomatous Polyposis (FAP)**: Individuals with FAP, caused by mutations in the **APC gene**, are at higher risk for developing **papillary thyroid cancer**, along with colon polyps and other cancers.
- **Cowden Syndrome**: Caused by mutations in the **PTEN gene**, individuals with Cowden syndrome are at increased risk for **follicular thyroid cancer** as well as other tumors, including breast, endometrial, and kidney cancers.

7.4 Iodine Intake

Iodine plays a critical role in thyroid function, as it is essential for the production of thyroid hormones. Both insufficient and excessive iodine intake have been linked to an increased risk of certain types of thyroid cancer.

- **Iodine Deficiency**: In areas of the world where iodine deficiency is common, there is an increased incidence of **follicular thyroid cancer**. This deficiency leads to goiter (thyroid enlargement), which may predispose individuals to malignant transformation of thyroid cells.
- **Excess Iodine**: High levels of iodine intake have been associated with an increased risk of **papillary thyroid cancer**, although the exact mechanism is not fully understood.

7.5 Gender and Hormonal Factors

- **Gender**: Thyroid cancer is more common in women than in men, with a ratio of about **3:1**. This suggests that hormonal factors, particularly **estrogen**, may play a role in thyroid cancer development.
- **Reproductive hormones**: Some studies suggest that exposure to estrogen and other reproductive hormones may influence the growth of thyroid cells, contributing to the higher incidence of thyroid cancer in women. Pregnancy and menopause may also affect thyroid cancer risk.

7.6 Age

The risk of developing thyroid cancer increases with age, though the type of cancer may vary based on age:

Papillary and follicular thyroid cancers are more commonly diagnosed in people aged **30-50** years.**Medullary thyroid cancer** tends to be diagnosed in older adults, often around the age of **50-60** years.**Anaplastic thyroid cancer**, the most aggressive type, typically affects individuals over the age of **60**(49,50).

7.7 Family History

A family history of thyroid cancer, particularly among first-degree relatives, increases the risk of developing the disease. This may be due to shared genetic predispositions or environmental exposures.

7.8 Obesity

Obesity has been linked to an increased risk of thyroid cancer. Obesity can cause alterations in **insulin resistance** and **chronic inflammation**, both of which may promote cancer development.

7.9 Environmental Factors

Exposure to environmental carcinogens, such as nitrates in drinking water or certain chemicals in the workplace, may increase the risk of thyroid cancer. However, these associations are not as well-established as radiation exposure.**Smoking and alcohol consumption** have not been definitively linked to thyroid cancer, but some studies suggest a possible association between smoking and reduced risk, likely due to the anti-estrogenic effects of smoking, though this is not recommended due to the general health risks of smoking(51,52).

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8. Pharmacological Approaches in Thyroid Cancer

8.1 Radioactive Iodine Therapy (RAI):

- RAI is a cornerstone in the treatment of differentiated thyroid cancers (PTC and FTC) that take up iodine. **Iodine-131** is used to destroy residual thyroid tissue post-thyroidectomy or to target metastatic disease.
- However, certain patients with **RAI-refractory** thyroid cancer require additional treatments, particularly in advanced or metastatic cases where pharmacological interventions become critical.

8.2 Targeted Therapy:

- **Tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs)**: Drugs like **sorafenib**, **lenvatinib**, **vandetanib**, and **cabozantinib** inhibit multiple kinases involved in tumor growth, angiogenesis, and metastasis. These agents have transformed the treatment landscape for patients with advanced thyroid cancers, particularly those who do not respond to RAI.
- **BRAF/MEK inhibitors**: For patients with the BRAF V600E mutation, **dabrafenib** and **trametinib** have shown effectiveness, especially in **BRAF-mutant anaplastic thyroid cancer**.
- **RET inhibitors**: In medullary thyroid cancer, **RET-targeted inhibitors** such as **selpercatinib** and **pralsetinib** have recently gained attention for their ability to target RET mutations with fewer side effects than older-generation TKIs.

8.3 Immunotherapy:

- Immunotherapy is emerging as a potential treatment option in thyroid cancers, particularly for **anaplastic thyroid cancer**, which has few effective treatments. Early studies with **immune checkpoint inhibitors** like **pembrolizumab** (anti-PD-1) show promise, especially when combined with targeted therapies or radiation.

8.4 Chemotherapy:

- Historically, **cytotoxic chemotherapy** has had a limited role in thyroid cancer due to its low efficacy and high toxicity. However, for anaplastic thyroid cancer or metastatic disease unresponsive to other treatments, chemotherapy agents like **doxorubicin** may be used, often in combination with radiation(43,45,46).

9. Challenges in Pharmacological Treatment

While significant advancements have been made in the pharmacological management of thyroid cancer, several challenges remain:

9.1 Resistance to treatment: RAI-refractory thyroid cancers and the development of resistance to TKIs or other targeted therapies pose significant clinical challenges. New strategies are needed to overcome these resistances.

9.2 Side effects: Targeted therapies and TKIs, while effective, are associated with significant side effects such as hypertension, fatigue, diarrhea, and hand-foot syndrome. This limits their long-term use and impacts patients' quality of life(47,48).

10. CT scan of thyroid cancer

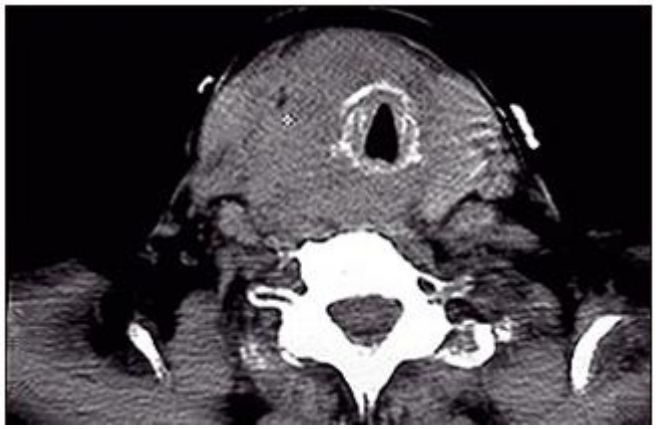

Fig.1 ct scan

Fig 1.(This CT scan shows a thyroid cancer tumor in the throat, encircling, narrowing, and displacing the windpipe (trachea)).

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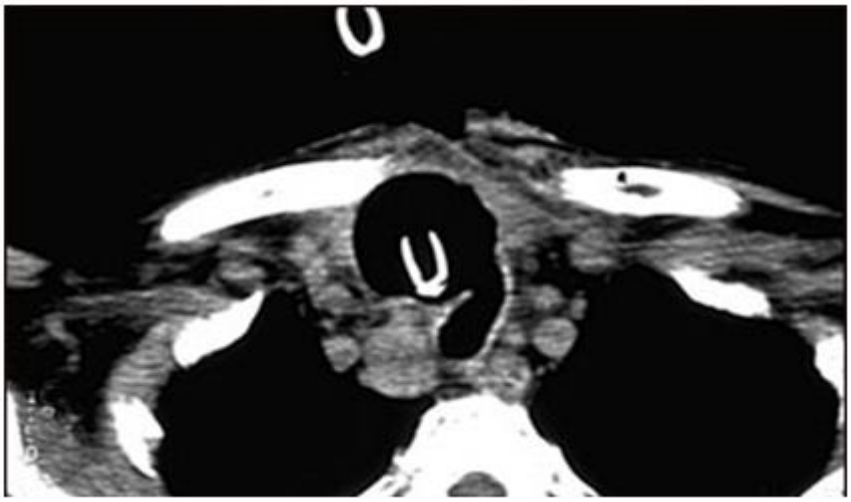

Fig.2 ct scan

Fig 2.(This CT scan of the upper chest (thorax) shows a malignant thyroid tumor (cancer). The dark area around the trachea (marked by the white U-shaped tip of the respiratory tube) is an area where normal tissue has been eroded and died (necrosis) as a result of tumor growth(53)).

14. Treatment of thyroid cancer

11.1 Papillary and Follicular Thyroid Cancers

a. Surgical Treatment

Surgical resection stays the principle remedy modality of each % and FTC, observed by way of radioiodine ablation (RAI ablation) whilst indicated and suppression remedy with thyroid hormone(62,sixty three). Systemic radiation and chemotherapy seldom play a extensive position in treatment, although they may be utilized in superior instances refractory to traditional techniques. To limit the chance of complications, particularly recurrent laryngeal nerve harm and hypoparathyroidism, surgical operation is suggested, executed by way of skilled, "high-volume" thyroid surgeons(64).Pre-operative neck ultrasound is pivotal in finding out the precise surgical operation. Surgical resection can be hemithyroidectomy or overall thyroidectomy, with or without lymph node dissection. the choice of surgical treatment relies upon on tumor size, presence of lymph node metastasis, extra-thyroidal extension, age of the patient, and the presence or absence of co-morbid conditions. In sufferers with regionally superior sickness, extra imaging of the neck is recommended.

A thyroid lobectomy is favored for unilateral DTC < 1 cm, without any extra-thyroidal or lymph node invasion, unless there are clear indications for total thyroidectomy, such as childhood head and neck irradiation or a strong family history of thyroid cancer. Lately, there is also a trend for just active surveillance without immediate surgery, but more studies are needed to show the difference, if any, in the outcomes and prognosis(65).

For tumor sizes between 1 and 4 cm with no extrathyroidal or lymphatic invasion, the procedure of choice can either be a total thyroidectomy or lobectomy, depending on patient preferences and risk factors, as described above. This decision should be made with the patient aware that a completion thyroidectomy may be necessary depending on pathology results.For tumors > 4 cm or tumors with extra-thyroidal or lymph node invasion, a total thyroidectomy is the desired surgical treatment as there may be a high danger of multifocal carcinoma in such cancers. it is also supposed to facilitate RAI ablation and destiny surveillance with thyroglobulin as a tumor marker.The decision for lymph node dissection ought to be made on a affected person-by means of-patient foundation, and there may be nonetheless numerous controversy about the confirmed survival gain of prophylactic node dissection. Regardless, all sufferers with demonstrated or suspected % need to undergo a thorough exam of both the central and lateral neck for possible nodal metastasis. The lateral neck booths are not mechanically entered in thyroidectomy and need to be assessed preoperatively with ultrasound and subsequent FNAB if there may be a difficulty for lymphatic spread. If pathologic nodes are showed, an ipsilateral neck dissection ought to be done, with

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a proper clearance of defined lymph node compartments in preference to remoted "berry-choosing" of diseased nodes. The vital neck lymph nodes are tough to assess preoperatively because of their area. A careful inspection and palpation of the important neck need to be executed on the time of surgical treatment, with next compartmental neck dissection if unusual nodes are found.

11.2 Postsurgical Risk Stratification

Postsurgical risk stratification have to be accomplished to decide the want for added remedy, especially with RAI ablation. The TNM (Tumor, Node, Metastasis) danger stratification by way of the yankee Joint commission on cancer(AJCC) predicts sickness-particular mortality, at the same time as the yank Thyroid association (ATA) danger stratification machine, that's extensively used, enables predict the persistence or recurrence of residual cancer(sixty six).

The ATA gadget classifies patients as low, intermediate, or high danger based on clinicopathologic findings, which include but now not restrained to tumor size, histologic kind, vascular or lymph node involvement, nearby invasion, remote metastasis, the quantity of tumor resection, publish-operative thyroglobulin stages, and post-operative radioiodine uptake outdoor of the thyroid gland(sixty two,67).

The TNM-AJCC gadget accounts for elements which includes the tumor size, the presence and extent of more-thyroidal invasion, the variety of nodal metastases, and whether there's the presence of distal metastasis. Age is a large factor in predicting mortality in thyroid cancer sufferers, and its position is also good sized in staging the disease. patients underneath fifty five years old at the time of diagnosis will get hold of a degree II analysis on the maximum(68)

11.3 Radioiodine (RAI) Ablation Therapy

RAI therapy after thyroidectomy is used for remnant ablation of regular residual thyroid tissue, as adjuvant remedy for subclinical micrometastases, or as remedy of obvious local or remote metastasis(sixty nine). excessive-chance and a few selected intermediate-threat patients, per the ATA danger stratification machine, will advantage from RAI ablation. patients who are applicants for RAI remedy should keep a low iodine weight-reduction plan for 1 to 2 weeks earlier than the remedy to make certain iodine depletion of the cells; they need to additionally be recommended in opposition to massive iodine administrations including via iodinated comparison or amiodarone to improve the avidity of the thyroid follicular cells to iodine. RAI ablation works exceptional while thyroid hormone has been withdrawn, with a purpose thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) of 30mIU/liter or better. This level of TSH can be completed both through the withdrawal of thyroid hormones or the management of exogenous recombinant human TSH.

11.4 Thyroid Hormone Suppression Therapy

Thyroid hormone suppression therapy to suppress TSH and thereby doubtlessly reduce its stimulation of thyroid cancer growth is endorsed in maximum sufferers after surgical procedure(70).For sufferers with ATA high-risk, the aim TSH ought to be no greater than 0.1m IU/liter, and for sufferers in the intermediate-danger class, the intention TSH need to be between zero.1 and 0.five mIU/liter. For the ATA low-danger category, a intention TSH among zero.5 and a couple of.zero mIU/liter is acceptable(70,71).

11.5 Persistent or Recurrent Disease

Or recurrent minimal iodine-avid sickness, RAI ablation is the favored therapy. For invasive neck ailment, surgical resection is recommended. Percutaneous ethanol injection has been tried for cervical lymph node metastasis. For small distant metastasis to bones or lungs, radiofrequency ablation has been used. other remedy alternatives are external beam radiation and systemic chemotherapy(72).

11.6 Systemic Chemotherapy

Systemic chemotherapy is generally handiest taken into consideration in a group of carefully decided on sufferers with a high metastatic sickness burden or rapidly modern metastatic sickness in spite of the above treatment (Iodide-refractory). due to the massive destructive consequences related to such remedy, it ought to be taken into consideration most effective whilst the associated blessings exceed the dangers(sixty two).

Systemic chemotherapy for DTC is preferably administered through a medical trial. The commonplace sellers of choice are the kinase inhibitor class of medicine such as anti-angiogenic multi-focused kinase inhibitors (aaMKI- lenvatinib, sorafenib), BRAF kinase inhibitors (vemurafenib, dabrafenib), MEK inhibitors (trametinib, cobimetinib), NTR kinase inhibitors (larotrectinib),

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and RET inhibitor (selpercatinib).[56] the choice of agent relies upon at the occurrence of particular gene mutations or signaling irregularities including the ones described above. For sufferers and not using a identifiable mutations, aaMKIs are the encouraged first-line therapy(50).

11.7 Dynamic Risk Stratification

After the preliminary postsurgical risk stratification and appropriate treatment as above, patients need to be re-stratified in the course of every comply with-up visit depending on their response to remedy into one of the following scientific effects: 1. splendid reaction, 2. Biochemical incomplete response, 3. Structural incomplete reaction, 4. Indeterminate reaction(seventy three,seventy four,75).

Monitoring inside the first postsurgical 12 months on the whole involves a thyroid ultrasound experiment every 6 to twelve months and TSH and thyroglobulin ranges every 3 to six months, depending on risk. For better-risk patients, additional imaging together with CT scan, MRI, FDG-pet, or whole-frame radioiodine scanning is required.After 12 months, the frequency of tracking relies upon on the dynamic threat stratification(74).

11.8 Medullary Thyroid Cancer

Surgical remedy that consists of overall thyroidectomy with resection of nearby and regional metastases is the mainstay of remedy for MTC. In most sufferers with confirmed MTC and no proof of pre-operative cervical lymph node metastasis on ultrasound, prophylactic critical lymph node dissection should be accomplished on the time of the total thyroidectomy. patients with confirmed lateral zone nodal metastases must receive lateral compartment dissection, central neck dissection, and overall thyroidectomy. Serum calcitonin, carcinoembryonic antigen, and biochemical testing for coexisting hyperparathyroidism and pheochromocytoma need to be finished. sufferers need to be monitored lengthy-term with serial calcitonin tiers, neck ultrasound, and physical examination. Of note, as MTC isn't of follicular starting place, there may be no position for radioiodine ablation or TSH suppression in its control.For refractory MTC, systemic chemotherapy with kinase inhibitors has been shown to be beneficial. RET-specific kinase inhibitors are preferred in patients with RET mutation, while in patients bad for RET mutation, aaMKIs are the desired capsules(76).

11.9 Anaplastic Thyroid Cancer

In sufferers identified with anaplastic thyroid most cancers, BRAF V600E mutation trying out and staging are performed. Resectable sickness is surgically eliminated, followed with the aid of particular BRAF kinase inhibitors in sufferers with BRAF V600E mutations. different patients obtained targeted radiation treatment and cytotoxic chemotherapy after surgical procedure. however, distant metastases are common in patients even at preliminary analysis due to their swiftly innovative path, and neighborhood invasion into the trachea or vasculature may additionally arise, making it unresectable. Mortality is near one hundred% for these cancers, and a conservative surgical method for palliation can be taken into consideration in such excessive-threat patients.

12. Current Therapy in Thyroid Cancer

Treatment for thyroid cancer depends on the type, stage, and genetic profile of the cancer, as well as the patient's overall health. The most common types of thyroid cancer are **papillary**, **follicular**, **medullary**, and **anaplastic thyroid cancer**, each of which may require different therapeutic approaches. The mainstays of treatment include **surgery**, **radioactive iodine therapy**, **thyroid hormone replacement**, **targeted therapies**, **chemotherapy**, **radiation therapy**, and **immunotherapy** for advanced cases(54).

12.1 Surgery

Surgery is the primary treatment for most types of thyroid cancer and is often the first-line approach for curative intent.

- **Total Thyroidectomy**: Complete removal of the thyroid gland is the most common surgical approach, particularly in **papillary** and **follicular thyroid cancers**. This ensures the removal of as much cancerous tissue as possible and allows for postoperative radioactive iodine therapy if needed.(40)
- **Lobectomy**: In some cases of small, localized tumors, only the affected lobe of the thyroid is removed. This may be used in early-stage, low-risk thyroid cancer patients to minimize the risk of complications while still achieving tumor control(24).
- **Lymph Node Dissection**: If there is evidence that the cancer has spread to the lymph nodes, especially in **papillary thyroid cancer**, nearby lymph nodes in the neck may also be removed (central neck dissection or lateral neck dissection)(44).

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12.2 Radioactive Iodine (RAI) Therapy

Radioactive iodine therapy (RAI) is used primarily in **papillary** and **follicular thyroid cancers** after thyroidectomy to destroy any remaining thyroid tissue or microscopic cancer cells that may not have been removed during surgery(21).

- **How It Works**: Thyroid cells naturally absorb iodine, so RAI is taken up by any remaining thyroid tissue or cancer cells, delivering targeted radiation that destroys the cells(21).
- **Indications**: RAI is most effective in differentiated thyroid cancers (papillary and follicular), particularly in cases where the cancer has spread to nearby lymph nodes or distant sites(21).
- **Imitations**: RAI is not effective in **medullary thyroid cancer (MTC)** or **anaplastic thyroid cancer (ATC)**, as these types of thyroid cancer do not take up iodine(22).

12.3 Thyroid Hormone Replacement Therapy

After surgery, patients are typically given **levothyroxine**, a synthetic form of **thyroid hormone (T4)**, to replace the hormones the thyroid would normally produce and to suppress **thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH)**. High levels of TSH can promote the growth of any remaining thyroid cancer cells(25).

- **TSH Suppression**: In high-risk patients, thyroid hormone therapy is used to keep TSH levels low, reducing the risk of cancer recurrence.
- **Thyroid Function Replacement**: Levothyroxine is also essential to maintain normal metabolism and body functions in patients who have had their thyroid gland removed.

12.4 Targeted Therapies

Targeted therapies are drugs designed to target specific genetic mutations or molecular pathways that are driving cancer growth. These therapies are particularly useful in advanced or metastatic thyroid cancers that are resistant to conventional treatments.

- **Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors (TKIs)**: TKIs target proteins that are involved in cancer cell growth, particularly in **medullary thyroid cancer** and **radioiodine-refractory thyroid cancers(26)**.**Sorafenib** and **lenvatinib** are TKIs approved for treating **radioiodine-refractory differentLiated thyroid cancers (DTCs)**. These drugs inhibit the **VEGFR** and **RET** pathways, which are involved in tumor angiogenesis and cell proliferation.**Vandetanib** and **cabozantinib** are approved for use in **medullary thyroid cancer**, targeting the **RET**, **VEGFR**, and **MET** pathways(50).
- **BRAF Inhibitors**: **Dabrafenib** and **vemurafenib** are BRAF inhibitors used for advanced **BRAF-mutated** papillary thyroid cancers that do not respond to standard treatment. These drugs specifically target the **BRAF V600E** mutation, which is common in aggressive papillary thyroid cancer(49).
- **RET Inhibitors**: Newer drugs like **selpercatinib** and **pralsetinib** specifically target **RET gene fusions** or mutations, which are common in medullary thyroid cancer and some forms of papillary thyroid cancer(34).

12.5 Radiation Therapy

External beam radiation therapy (EBRT) is used in cases where thyroid cancer is not completely resectable, has spread to other parts of the body, or is resistant to radioactive iodine treatment(33).

- **Indications**: EBRT is typically reserved for **anaplastic thyroid cancer**, advanced or recurrent disease that invades local structures (e.g., trachea, esophagus), or patients who cannot undergo surgery or RAI therapy(33).
- **Palliative Care**: EBRT can also be used to relieve symptoms, such as pain or difficulty swallowing, in cases of advanced thyroid cancer(33).

12.6 Chemotherapy

Chemotherapy is not commonly used in thyroid cancer, as it is generally ineffective for most thyroid cancers. However, it may be used in combination with other treatments in certain aggressive or advanced cases(39).

- **Anaplastic Thyroid Cancer**: Chemotherapy is sometimes used for **anaplastic thyroid cancer (ATC)**, a highly aggressive type of cancer that does not respond well to standard therapies. Drugs such as **doxorubicin** may be used, often in combination with radiation therapy(39).
- **Combination Therapies**: In some cases, chemotherapy is combined with targeted therapies for better outcomes in metastatic or inoperable cases(39).

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12.7 Immunotherapy

Immunotherapy is an emerging area of research in thyroid cancer treatment, particularly for advanced or refractory thyroid cancers. It harnesses the immune system to attack cancer cells(44).

- **PD-1 Inhibitors**: Drugs like **pembrolizumab**, which target the **PD-1/PD-L1** pathway, are being investigated in clinical trials for use in aggressive or metastatic thyroid cancers that do not respond to other treatments. These drugs block the "immune checkpoint," allowing the immune system to attack cancer cells(44).

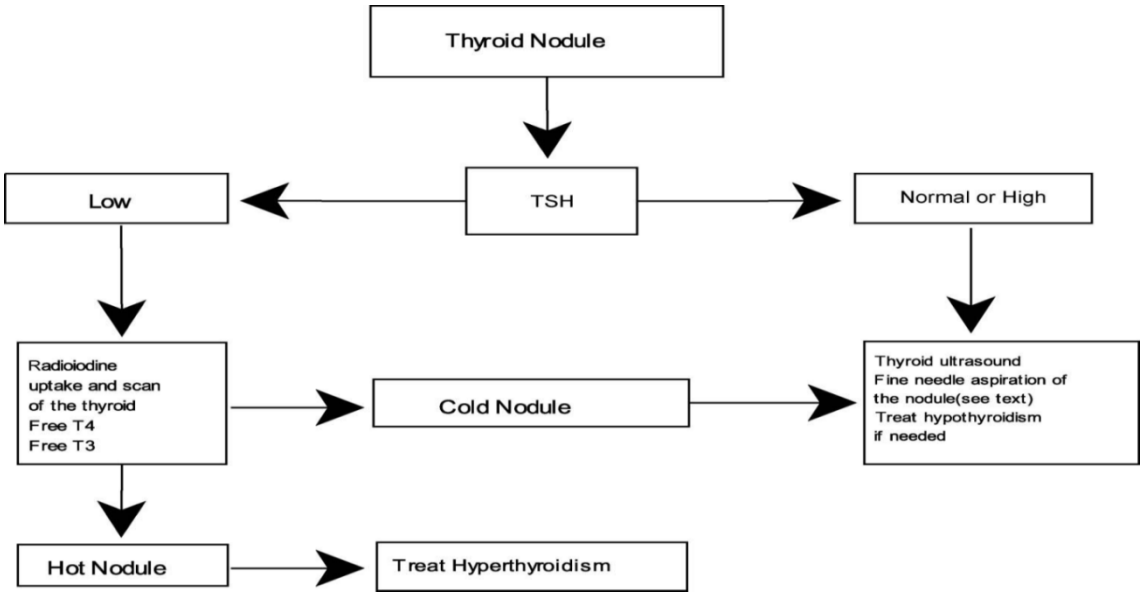

Fig1.Diagnosis of thyroid nodule (82)

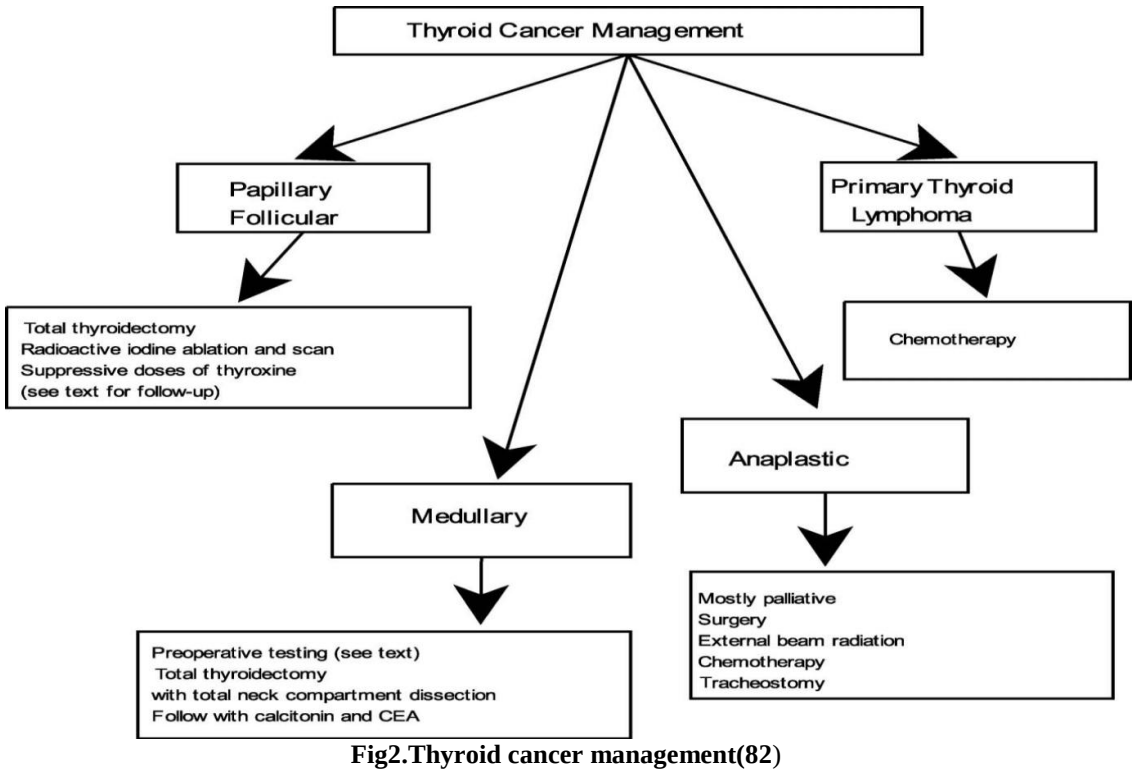

Fig2.Thyroid cancer management(82)

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13. Latest Developments in Thyroid Cancer Research and Treatment

Thyroid cancer research is continuously evolving, with advancements in diagnosis, treatment, and understanding of the disease. Here are some recent developments:

13.1 Genetic Testing and Personalized Medicine

Genomic Profiling: New tests can analyze the genetic makeup of tumors, identifying mutations that might be targeted with specific therapies. This allows for more personalized treatment plans.

Liquid Biopsy: This non-invasive test detects circulating tumor DNA in the bloodstream, which may help in early diagnosis and monitoring treatment response.

13.2 Novel Therapies

Targeted Therapies: Drugs like lenvatinib and sorafenib are now commonly used for advanced thyroid cancers. Ongoing research is exploring other potential targeted therapies based on specific mutations.

Immunotherapy: There is increasing interest in using immune checkpoint inhibitors to treat thyroid cancer, particularly for aggressive forms that do not respond well to traditional therapies.

13.3 Active Surveillance

For low-risk, small thyroid cancers, active surveillance (monitoring without immediate treatment) is gaining acceptance. This approach can reduce unnecessary surgeries and their associated risks.

13.4 Advancements in Surgical Techniques

Minimally Invasive Surgery: Techniques such as robotic-assisted surgery are being developed, which may lead to less recovery time and lower complication rates.

Central Neck Dissection: Improved surgical strategies to address lymph node involvement have been developed to reduce recurrence rates.

13.5 New Imaging Techniques

Enhanced imaging methods, including advanced ultrasound and molecular imaging, are improving the ability to detect and characterize thyroid nodules and assess the extent of disease.

13.6 Quality of Life Research

Studies are increasingly focusing on the long-term effects of treatment on quality of life, including thyroid hormone management post-surgery and the psychological impacts of a thyroid cancer diagnosis.

13.7Educational Initiatives

Increased awareness campaigns and guidelines are being developed to educate both healthcare providers and patients about the nuances of thyroid cancer management, especially regarding diagnosis and follow-up care.

II. CONCLUSION

The treatment landscape for thyroid cancer has undergone significant change with the introduction of targeted treatments and immunotherapies., Medications such as TKIs, BRAF inhibitors, and RET inhibitors have become increasingly utilized, offering hope for patients with advanced, metastatic, or refractory illness.,Surgery and radioactive iodine remain essential in the treatment of differentiated thyroid tumors, even as new medications play a more prominent role.,Ongoing research aims to provide more personalized and effective treatments for thyroid cancer patients by identifying new targets, improving current treatments, and minimizing drug-related toxicities.,Thyroid cancer can result from a combination of lifestyle, environmental, and hereditary factors, including radiation exposure, family history, hormonal influences, and genetic abnormalities., Understanding these risk factors is crucial for identifying individuals at higher risk and guiding prevention, early detection, and treatment strategies for thyroid cancer.,While the treatment of thyroid cancer has evolved significantly, the primary approach still involves a multimodal strategy incorporating hormone replacement, radioactive iodine therapy, and surgery.,Newer options such as tyrosine kinase inhibitors and immunotherapy are offering additional avenues for managing advanced or refractory thyroid cancer, particularly for patients facing challenging circumstances.,Globally, the detection of thyroid cancer, especially papillary thyroid cancer, is on the rise, with notable disparities across regions and genders.,The overall prognosis for differentiated forms of thyroid cancer remains positive, despite the increasing number of reported cases due to early detection efforts.,The growing global prevalence of thyroid cancer underscores the necessity for further research into its causes, optimal screening methods, and effective treatment strategies.,These advancements represent a broader shift towards more tailored and efficient

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management of thyroid cancer, emphasizing the importance of ongoing research in improving patient outcomes and quality of life.,Staying informed about these developments can be crucial for individuals affected by thyroid cancer and those around them when making decisions about treatment options.

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