REVIEW ARTICLE _

Classification, histopathology and molecular pathology of thymic epithelial tumors: a review

Christos Valavanis¹, Gabriela-Monica Stanc², Nikolaos Baltayiannis³

¹Department of Pathology and Molecular Pathology Unit, Metaxa Cancer Hospital, Piraeus, Greece. ²Department of Pathology and Molecular Pathology Unit, Metaxa Cancer Hospital, Piraeus, Greece. ³Department of Thoracic Surgery, Metaxa Cancer Hospital, Piraeus, Greece.

Summary

Thymic epithelial tumors represent 0.2-1.5% among all malignant neoplasms. They are slow-growing tumors with an overall recurrence rate around 10% and 90% of them are located in the anterior mediastinum. In this review we focused on the classification, histopathology, molecular pathology

and prognosis of thymic epithelial tumors, mainly thymoma and thymic carcinoma.

Key words: thymomas, thymic carcinoma, classification, histopathology, immunohistochemistry, molecular pathology

Introduction

Thymus is a lymphoepithelial organ located in the upper anterior mediastinum extending into the neck close to the lower segments of the thyroid gland. Thymus derives from both ectoderm and endoderm of the 3rd and 4th pharyngeal pouches which interact with the associated mesenchyme contributing to its development [1,2]. However, there is evidence suggesting that the diverse thymic epithelial lineages all develop from a common thymic stem cell of endodermal origin [3]. Thymus is completely differentiated by the 17th week, grows until puberty and then involutes [2].

Thymus histologic architecture includes two distinct compartments: an outer called cortex and an inner called medulla. Both cortex and medulla are composed by a network of reticular fibers, epithelial and lymphoid cells. The thymic epitheliocytes are distinguished in type 1 (subcapsular and perivascular), types 2-4 (cortex) and types 5-6 (medulla). The lymphoid cells, known as thymocytes, are mostly of T-lymphocyte lineage and located in the cortex. The medulla contains few lymphoid

Thymus is a lymphoepithelial organ located cells and the Hassall's corpuscles formed by types ne upper anterior mediastinum extending into 4 and 6 epitheliocytes [4].

Thymus has complex functions mainly of selecting precursors T-lymphocytes arriving from the bone marrow and differentiate them into mature T-lymphocytes, thus preventing autoimmunity. Additionally, the thymus functions as an endocrine organ by producing thymosins, thymopoietin, thymopentin, thymulin and thymic humoral factor- γ 2 (THF- γ 2) [5,6].

A wide variety of tumors can be derived from the epithelium and the lymphoid component of thymus including thymomas, thymic carcinomas, neuroendocrine carcinomas, lymphoproliferative disorders and tumors arising in the mediastinum such as extragonadal germ cell tumors and sarcomas. In this review we focused on the classification, histopathology and molecular pathology of thymic epithelial tumors, mainly thymoma and thymic carcinoma.

Thymomas affect all age groups most commonly middle-aged adults (40-50 years) with an in-



Corresponding author: Nikolaos Baltayiannis, MD, PhD. Department of Thoracic Surgery, Metaxa Cancer Hospital, Botassi 51, 18537, Piraeus, Greece.

Tel: +30 974599288; Email: baltayiannisn@yahoo.gr Received: 08/04/2021, Accepted: 02/05/2021

cidence 0.2 -1.5% among all malignant neoplasms [7]. They are slow-growing tumors with an overall recurrence rate around 10% (2% for the encapsulated and 20 to 40% for the invasive thymomas) with a mean time to recurrence being 6 years (range 1-16) [8,9]. 10-year survival after recurrence is up to 65% with a more favorable one in completely excised tumors, independent of stage or type. Metastases are rare (1-2% of cases) and are associated with a poor prognosis. In contrast, thymic carcinomas are highly aggressive tumors with poor therapeutic responsiveness and survival depending on the carcinoma type [10].

Thymoma is frequently associated with autoimmune and paraneoplastic disorders such as neuromuscular disorders (myasthenia gravis, limbic encephalopathy, polymyositis), immunodeficiency disorders (hypogammaglobulinemia), hematological diseases (pure cell aplasia, haemolytic anaemia), collagen diseases (systemic lupus erythematosus, rheumatoid arthritis, Sjögren syndrome), dermatological disorders (pemphigus, lichen planus) [11,12].

Classification and staging

The histopathologic classification of thymic epithelial neoplasms is a controversial issue in thoracic pathology due to the wide variety of histopathological features displayed by these neoplasms. Histopathological classification schemes for these tumors based on the morphology, the lymphocyte content or the histogenetic background have been proposed but failed to correlate successfully the morphologic findings with the prediction of clinical behavior and thus the right therapeutic approach.

Among the 24 histopathologic classifications that have been proposed within the last century the most important are: the Traditional (Bernatz) classification (1961), the Kirchner and Muller-Hermelink classification (1989), the Suster and Moran classification (1999) and the WHO classification (1999, 2004, 2015).

In 1961 Bernatz et al from the Mayo Clinic proposed a classification based on 4 basic morphological types; lymphocyte-predominant, epithelial-predominant, mixed (lymphoepithelial), and spindle cell thymoma, known as the traditional classification of thymoma [13].

In 1985 Marino and Muller-Hermelink proposed another classification (histogenetic or functional) that divided thymic epithelial tumors into three categories: cortical, medullary, and mixed types, based on the anatomical and functional thymic compartment that the neoplastic cells are derived [14]. The latter classification was modified in 1989 introducing 2 more categories, the predominantly cortical thymoma (organoid) and the well-differentiated thymic carcinoma [15].

In 1999, Suster and Moran proposed a 3-tiered classification based on morphologic features of differentiation that classified thymic epithelial tumors according to their degree of cell atypia, presence of organotypic features of thymic differentiation and resemblance to benign thymus. According to this classification the well-differentiated tumors were designated as thymoma, the intermediate differentiated as atypical thymoma and the poorly differentiated tumors as thymic carcinoma [16].

In 1999, and later on 2004 and 2015, WHO divided thymic epithelial neoplasms, preserving the distinct categories of the histogenetic classification, into the following categories : A, Atypical type A variant, AB, B1, B2, B3, and C (thymic carcinoma) based on morphological, functional, genetic and clinical evidence [17-19]. Most of the epidemiologic and prognostic data for the WHO classification were derived from the International Thymic Malignancy Interest Group (ITMIG) database in which data from 6000 cases worldwide have been stored [20]. The different classification schemes are displayed in comparison on Table 1.

Thymic epithelial tumors can be staged based on the presence and extent of invasion to the gland capsule and/or adjacent tissues, serosal dissemination, lymph node involvement, and/or distant

Traditional (Bernatz)	Muller-Hermelink	Suster & Moran	WHO
Spindle cell	Medullary	Thymoma	Туре А
_	Mixed	Thymoma	Type AB
Lymphocyte-rich	Predominantly cortical	Thymoma	Type B1
Mixed	Cortical	Thymoma	Type B2
Epithelial-rich	Well-differentiated Carcinoma	Atypical thymoma	Туре ВЗ
-	Carcinoma	Thymic carcinoma	Thymic carcinoma (previously Type C)

Table 1. Classification schemes of thymic epithelial tumors

Stage I.	Grossly and microscopically completely encapsulated tumor. A noninvasive thymoma, tumor has not spread beyond the thymus - T1 N0 M0 according to TNM		
Stage II	The thymoma invades beyond the capsule of the thymus) and into the adjacent adipose tissue or to the mediastinal pleura or pericardium but not breaking trough. It is divided into:		
Stage IIa	Microscopic transcapsular invasion - T2 N0 M0.		
Stage IIb	Macroscopic capsular invasion or into the surrounding adipose tissue or adherent to the mediastinal pleura or pericardium but not breaking through - T2 N0 M0.		
Stage III	Macroscopic invasion into neighboring organs. The thymoma extends into the neighboring tissues or organs of the lower neck or upper chest area, including the pericardium, the lungs, or the great blood vessels leading into or exiting from the heart - T3 N0 M0.		
Stage IVA	Pleural or pericardial dissemination. The thymoma has spread widely throughout the pleura and/or pericardium - T4 N0 M0.		
Stage IVB	Hematogenous or lymphogenous metastases. The thymoma has spread to distant organs - Any T >N0 or >M0.		

Table 2. Masaoka-Koga staging system

Table 3. TNM classification and staging system

T – Primary tumour					
TX	Primary tumour cannot be assessed				
TO	No evidence of primary tumour				
T1	Tumour completely encapsulated				
T2	Tumour invades pericapsular connective tissue				
T3	Tumour invades into neighbouring structures,such as pericardium, mediastinal pleura, thoracic wall,great vessels and lung				
T4	Tumour with pleural or pericardial dissemination				
N – Regional lymph nodes					
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed				
NO	No regional lymph node metastasis				
N1	Metastasis in anterior mediastinal lymph nodes				
N2	Metastasis in other intrathoracic lymph nodes excluding anterior mediastinal lymph nodes				
N3	Metastasis in scalene and/or supraclavicular lymph nodes				
M – Distant Metastasis					
MX	Distant metastasis cannot be assessed				
M0	No distant metastasis				
M1	Distant metastasis				
WHO stage grouping					
Stage I	T1	NO	MO		
Stage II	T2	NO	MO		
Stage III	T1	N1	МО		
	T2	N1	МО		
	Τ3	N0, N1	M0		
Stage IV	T4	Any N	M0		
	Any T	N2, N3	M0		
	Any T	Any N	M1		

metastases.Till now 14 staging systems have been proposed among which the Masaoka-Koga and the TNM systems are the most commonly used [22-24]. These systems are displayed on Table 2 and Table 3 respectively.

Pathologic features and incidence

Thymoma type A (spindle cell, medullary) is a well circumscribed, encapsulated tumor with a lobulated cut surface with thick fibrous septa and focal cystic change occasionally. It consists of spindle or oval and rarely polygonal cells without cytologic atypia and inconspicuous nucleoli. Mitotic activity is low (<4 mitoses /mm²). The growth pattern is storiform with or without rosette-like. pseudoglandular or glomeruloid structures. Hassall's corpuscles are absent. Immature terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase positive (TdT +) T lymphocytes are rare or absent [25-27]. Nevertheless, a small percentage (5-10%) of type A thymomas can display foci of micronodular thymoma with stroma containing lymphocytes [28]. Lymphocyte dense areas or lymphocyte infiltrate more than 10% of the tumor area classify the neoplasm as a type AB thymoma [29].

Thymoma type A is rare in relation to all thymomas (relative mean incidence 11.5%) and most of them are stage I (60%) according to the Masaoka-Koga staging system. A percentage of 30% of them are stage II, while stage III is rare (8%) [30,31].

Atypical type A variant is a rare form of type A thymoma that preserves some organo-typical characteristics of thymic differentiation, but associated with hypercellularity, cytologic atypia, increased number of mitoses and focal areas of necrosis. The predominant component consists of epithelial cells with a tendency to squamous metaplasia. Atypical thymoma can invade adjacent structures more frequently than the conventional thymoma and can co-exist with other types of thymoma or/and thymic carcinoma. The clinical significance of this type is under investigation [29,32].

Thymomas can display different histological patterns in the same tumor showing tissue heterogeneity and because of this, extensive sampling should be performed from the resection specimens [33]. All these histological types should be mentioned in the diagnostic report commencing with the predominant component and following with the percentage of minor ones. This rule does not apply for the distinct entity of type AB thymoma. Tumors that have a thymic carcinoma component along with any thymoma type should be labelled thymic carcinoma mentioning the histological type

and the percentage of both thymic carcinoma and accompanying thymoma(s) [19,41].

Thymoma type AB (mixed) is usually encapsulated with a nodular cut surface displaying fibrous thick septa. It has a lobulated growth pattern and is characterized by lymphocyte-poor type A areas and T immature TdT + lymphocyte-rich type B-like areas. The two different components of the tumor may be delineated by fibrous septa or the transition between them can be gradual. Hassall's corpuscles are absent and medullary islands can be seen rarely [32-34].

Thymoma type AB shows a relative mean incidence of 27.5% in relation to all thymomas and most of them are stage I (67%) according to the Masaoka-Koga staging system. A percentage of 26% of them are stage II, while stage III is rare (6%) [30,31].

Thymoma type B1 (lymphocyte-rich, lymphocytic, cortical) is well circuscribed with capsule and nodular cut surface separated by fibrous bands. The mean diameter is between 5.1 to 7.5 cm. It has normal functional non-involuted thymus architectural pattern and consists mainly of cortical areas (that predominate) and few medullary islands. The lobules are larger than in normal thymus and are separated by collagenous, hypocellular bands. Medullary islands are usually round and may contain clusters of epithelial cells, Hassall's corpuscles or myoid cells together with an increased number of B lymphocytes and mature T lymphocytes. Perivascular spaces are rarely present and less prominent than in other thymoma types [19,33,34].

Thymoma type B1 has a relative mean incidence of 17.5% in relation to all thymomas and most of them are stage I (50%) according to the Masaoka-Koga staging system. A percentage of 37% of them are stage II, while stage III is less common (9%) and stage IV is rarely seen (3% for IVa and 1% for IVb) [30,31].

Thymoma type B2 (cortical) is an encapsulated tumor or can invade the mediastinal adipose tissue or adjacent organs. Its mean diameter ranges from 4 to 6.2 cm. The cut surface is lobulated with fibrous septa. Necrotic areas, haemorrhage or cystic changes can be found. It consists of poorly formed lymphoepithelial irregular lobules separated by delicate fibrous septa. It is characterized by the abundance of immature T lymphoid cells interspersed among them isolated or small aggregates of polygonal epithelial cells with round or oval nuclei and small prominent nucleoli [19,35]. The number of epithelial cells is higher than in the normal cortex and B1 thymoma. The immature lymphocytes have large nuclei, relatively abundant cytoplasm and high proliferation rate (Ki67 index

>80%) [35]. Perivascular spaces are present around a central venule and contain proteinaceous fluid or lymphocytes. Medullary islands with or without Hassall's corpuscles are few or absent. A percentage of 42% of this tumor may co-exist with thymoma B3 and rarely with thymoma B1 (4% of type B2 thymomas) [30].

Thymoma type B2 accounts for an average incidence of 26% in relation to all thymomas and its distribution, according to the Masaoka-Koga staging system, is 32% in stage I, 29% in stage II and 28% in stage III. Stage IV is rarely seen (8% for IVa and 3% for IVb) [30,31].

Thymoma type B3 (epithelial, atypical, well differentiated thymic carcinoma) is usually poorly circumscribed and extends into the mediastinal adipose tissue or adjacent organs. Its average diameter is between 5.1 to 6.8 cm. The cut surface is grey to yellowish, nodular and separated by fibrous septa. Haemorrhagic and necrotic areas can be seen. It has a lobulated architectural pattern with fibrous septa, pushing tumor invasive front, abundant perivascular spaces with epithelial palisading and rare Hassall's corpuscles. It consists of abundant epithelial cells that are polygonal with round or elongated, occasionally grooved nuclei and inconspicuous or prominent nucleoli. The epithelial component form solid cell sheets and the tumor is characterized by paucity of immature T lymphocytes [9,19]. This tumor may co-exist with thymoma B2 (2-16% of all thymomas) and rarely with thymic carcinoma [34].

Thymoma type B3 accounts for an average incidence of 16% in relation to all thymomas and its distribution, according to the Masaoka-Koga staging system, is 19% in stage I, 36% in stage II, 27% in stage III, 15% in stage IVa and 3% in stage IVb [30,31].

Rare types of thymoma have been described such as micronodular thymoma with lymphoid stroma, metaplastic thymoma, microscopic thymoma and sclerosing thymoma [19].

Micronodular thymoma with lymphoid stroma consists of multiple epithelial islands of spindle or oval cells surrounded by a epithelial cell-free lymphoid stroma which occasionally contain lymphoid follicles [37].

Metaplastic thymoma has a biphasic architectural pattern and is characterized by solid sheets of epithelial cells merging sharply or gradually with bland looking spindle cells [38].

Microscopic thymoma is defined as a conventional thymoma with a diameter <1cm and composed of aggregates of bland looking thymic epithelial cells less than 1mm in diameter arranged multifocally [39].

Sclerosing thymoma exhibits histological features of conventional thymoma with collagen rich stroma [40].

Thymic carcinomas are rare thymic epithelial tumor that display histologic features observed in malignant epithelial neoplasms of other organs. They exhibit prominent cytologic atypia and lack immature lymphocytes. Mature lymphocytes of T and rarely B lineages admixed with plasma cells may be present. In contrast to conventional thymomas, thymic carcinoma is rarely associated with autoimmune diseases such as myasthenia gravis. Thymic epithelial tumors may exhibit both thymoma and thymic carcinoma morphologic features and tumors that have both components should be labelled as thymic carcinoma reporting the histological type and the percentage of both thymic carcinoma and accompanying thymoma(s) [19,41,43].

Thymic carcinomas account for 22% of all thymic epithelial tumors and a variety of histologic types have been described including the following:

Squamous cell thymic carcinoma accounts for 70% of all thymic carcinoma cases. It consists of infiltrative keratinizing or non keratinizing forms with large cells of squamous differentiation and obvious cytologic atypia [50,51].

Basaloid thymic carcinoma accounts for <5% of all thymic carcinomas. It is exhibits a cystic-papillary and nesting growth pattern. It is composed of tumor cells with peripheral palisading, basophilic staining pattern and absence of keratinisation [47].

Mucoepidermoid thymic carcinoma has morphologic features similar to salivary glands mucoepidermoid carcinoma. It consists of squamous cells admixed with mucinous cells forming nests or lining cystic spaces [52].

Lymphoepithelioma-like thymic carcinoma consists of anastomosing islands and cords of poorly differentiated carcinoma cells admixed with abundant lymphocytes and plasma cells [53].

Sarcomatoid or spindle cell thymic carcinoma consists of an admixture of conventional type A thymoma spindle cells and areas of cytologically malignant spindle cells resembling sarcoma [48,49].

Clear cell thymic carcinoma shows a lobulated infiltrative growth pattern and is composed predominantly of polygonal cells with clear cytoplasm [45,46].

Thymic adenocarcinoma. This type of thymic carcinoma displays a variety of growth patterns and is divided in four categories: papillary, adenoid cystic-like, mucinous and NOS (not otherwise specified) in a papillary fashion [44].

Undifferentiated thymic carcinoma is a very rare type of thymic carcinoma that grows in

a solid infiltrative islands and sheets with large polygonal cells exhibiting pleomorphic features. Coagulative necrosis areas may be found [43].

NUT carcinoma is a poorly differentiated carcinoma with t(15;19) NUT gene translocation. It is composed of small to intermediate sized cells arranged in sheets and nests which are positive for nuclear protein in testis (NUT) immunohistochemically [42].

Pathologic features of thymoma after preoperative treatment with corticosteroids

Corticosteroids are used preoperatively in advanced stage thymomas in order to reduce their size and facilitate the surgical operation. The administration of corticosteroids may induce degenerative changes in the epithelial cells and lymphocytes of thymic epithelial tumors and change the typical histologic patterns of these neoplasms raising diagnostic problems for the pathologist. Very few studies have addressed this issue and have shown that there are significant histologic changes between thymic specimens before and after corticosteroid treatment. Corticosteroid administration, depending on the dose and duration, can cause morphologic changes to the neoplastic thymic epithelial cells like condensation of nuclei, spindle-shaped or bizarre features and formation of glandular-like or haemangiopericytoma-like structures. It has been observed a dramatic depletion of the lymphoid component of immature T cells with the presence of few lymphocytes showing fragmented nuclei. Cystic degeneration, presence of multinucleated giant and bizarre cells, necrotic areas, foamy histiocytes and prominent fibrosis have been reported. Pathologist should be informed for any preoperative medication in order to avoid possible diagnostic confusion [54].

Immunohistochemical and molecular genetic pathology findings

Immunohistochemical analysis may be used to solve differential diagnostic problems such as the distinction of thymoma type A from other spindle cell neoplasm or the differential diagnosis between type B1 thymoma from lymphoblastic lymphoma. The most commonly used antibodies are against antigens of thymic epithelial cells and lymphoid cells, as well as antibodies against compartment-specific targets (cortical or medullary differentiated cells) like claudin 4, Cathepsin V, CD40, PRSS16, Involucin, Beta 5t and Autoimmune Regulator AIRE [19,57].

Thymoma type A. In type A thymoma epithelial cells show strong reactivity against AE1 acidic keratins and p63, and negative reactivity against AE3 basic keratins. They display negative expression of CK10 and CK20 and are positive for epithelial markers PAX8, FOXN1 and CD205, while CD117(c-Kit) and CD5 are negative. CD20 focal positive expression has been shown in 50% of the epithelial cells, while CD20 positive B lymphocytes and immature TdT+ positive T lymphocytes are absent [55,56,58,68].

Type A thymomas harbour consistent loss of heterozygocity in 6q25.2-25.3, also a common genetic finding in AB and B3 thymomas, as well as in thymic squamous carcinoma. Rare genetic aberrations are losses at chromosomal loci 2, 4, 6q, 13 and 6p21 and t(15;22)(p11;q11) translocation [63]. *EGFR*, *KIT*, *APC*, *RB1* and *TP53* mutations are absent and activating *HRAS* mutations are rare (67). Recently *GTF2I* transcription factor missense mutation has detected in 82% in type A thymomas [60].

Thymoma type AB. Same pattern of expression for cytokeratins and p63 as in type A thymoma has been observed with the exception of type B areas in which epithelial cells are CK14 positive. CD20 is positive in epithelial cells of both type A and type B areas, while CD20 positive B lymphocytes are absent. Few CD3 positive T lymphocytes can be seen and belong to the immature TdT+ T cells. Epithelial cells do not express CD5 and usually no expression of CK10 and involucin is seen. Markers of both cortical and medullary differentiation such as CD40, claudin 4, autoimmune regulator AIRE are expressed in the admixture of thymic epithelial cells [57,61,62].

Losses of genetic material on chromosomes 2. 4, 5q21-22, 6p21, 6q25.2-25.3, 7p15.3, 8p, 13q14.3, 16q and 18 are shared with other types of thymomas. Loss of heterozygocity at 5q21-22 is associated with *APC* gene and also found in type B thymomas [63]. *EGFR* and *KIT* mutations have not been described [66]. *GTF2I* transcription factor missense mutation has detected in 74% in type AB thymomas [59,60,63].

Recently, a large microRNA cluster on chr19q13.42 has been found to be overexpressed in all A and AB tumors and whose expression was not observed in B thymomas, thymic carcinomas and normal thymus. Furthermore, this cluster overexpression activates the PIK3AC/Akt pathway, suggesting the possible treatment of patients with these thymoma types by using PIK3AC inhibitors [64,65].

Thymoma type B1. The epithelial cells of type B1 thymoma are focally positive for CK8/18, CK14, CK7, diffusely positive for CK19 and negative for CK20 [62]. They also express p63 [61] and PAX8 [68]. The lymphocytic population consists mostly

of immature T cells with positive expression for TdT, CD1a, CD3, CD4, CD8 and negative for CD34. The medullary islands contain mature T lymphocytes with CD3, CD4 or CD8 positive expression and TdT and CD1a negative one [19]. In the same area B cell population can be found which is positive for CD20 and CD79a admixed with epithelial cells expressing CK19 diffusely [57].

Chromosomal aberrations, like losses at loci 1p, 2q, 3q, 4, 5, 6q, 8, 13 and 18, and a gain of chromosome 9q have been observed [63]. Missense mutation of *GTF2I* transcription factor gene is found in 32% of the cases [60].

Thymoma type B2. Similar pattern of keratin expression in thymic epithelial cells as type B1 thymoma but more dense. Abundance of highly proliferative (Ki-67 > 90%) immature TdT+ T lymphocytes admixed with epithelial cells expressing strongly cortical differentiation markers (PRSS16, Beta5t, Cathepsin V) [35,57].

Losses on chromosome loci 6q25.2-25.3 and 3p, and gain on 1q have deen detected. No mutations of *EGFR* or *KIT* have been reported [69]. Missense mutation of *GTF2I* transcription factor gene has been found in 22% of the cases [60].

Thymoma type B3. Tumor epithelial cells are positive for CK5/6, CK7, CK8, CK10 and CK19, and negative for CK20. They also express p63, PAX8, CD57 an focally EMA [19,61,68]. There is no expression of medullary differentiation markers and only occasional expression of cortical differentiation markers [57]. Markers for thymic carcinoma (CD5 and CD117) are negative and rarely focal expression of GLUT1 and MUC1 has been observed [70]. CD20 and TTF1 are not expressed. Few immature TdT+ T cells can been seen among the tumor cells.

Gene copy number aberrations are more common in B3 thymomas than in other types. Chromosomal gains have been described on loci 1q, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9q,17q, and X. Copy number gain of *BCL2* (18q21.33) and loss of *CDKN2A/B* (9q21.3) are associated with poor prognosis [71]. Chromosomal losses have been found on 3p, 6, 6q25.2-25.3, 9p, 11q42.qter, 13q, 16q, 17p. Translocation t(11;X) can also be found in some cases. *GTF2I* missense mutation is found in 21% of type B3 thymomas. In addition, genomic profiling analysed by hierarchical clustering algorithm revealed specific cluster for type B3 thymomas and thymic carcinomas that can distinguish them from type A and B2 thymomas [72,73].

Thymic carcinoma

Thymic squamous carcinomas display positive expression for p63/p40, PAX8, CD5, CD117, GLUT1 and MUC1. The latter four markers (CD5,CD117,

GLUT1, MUC1) are expressed in almost all types of thymic carcinomas and very rarely in thymomas [50,70]. Epithelial markers for thymic organogenesis such as FOXN1 and CD205 are positive in thymic carcinomas but not in carcinomas of non-thymic origin and thus are useful for differential diagnosis between them [55]. Beta5t, a proteasome subunit, is negative in thymic carcinoma but shows a universal expression in type B thymomas [74]. Focal expression of neuroendocrine markers can be seen in thymic carcinoma. The lymphocytic infiltrate of thymic carcinoma consists of mature B and TdT- T cells and very rarely of immature T lymphocytes.

Chromosomal gains have been described on loci 1q, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9q, 12, 15,17q, 18 and 20. Copy number gain of *BCL2* and loss of *CDKN2A/B* (*p16*) are associated with poor prognosis [71]. Chromosomal losses have been found on 3p, 6, 6q25.2-25.3, 9p, 13q, 14, 16q, 17p. Activating *KIT* mutations can be seen in 2-11% of thymic squamous carcinoma and *GTF2I* missense mutation in 8% of the cases. Activating *KRAS*, *EGFR*, *BRAF*, *PIK3CA*, *APC*, *RET* or *PTEN* mutations are rare [67]. Amplification of *HER2* gene and TP53 mutations have been found in <4% and 50% of cases respectively [75].

Further molecular analysis is needed in order to define specific molecular targets for future therapeutic interventions.

Prognosis

Prognosis of epithelial thymic tumors is based mainly on the presence or absence of capsule invasion without penetration or with penetration and extension of tumor cells to the adjacent adipose tissue. Careful microscopic examination should be performed on serial tissue sections in order to check any tumor cell emboli in capsular venules in an otherwise intact capsule. Thymomas type A and AB show long-term survival rates and are considered of benign behaviour, while thymic carcinoma is of malignant behaviour. The prognosis of thymic carcinoma largely depends on the pathologic type. Among its different variants, better prognosis has been shown in well-differentiated squamous cell carcinoma, low-grade mucoepidermoid carcinoma and basaloid carcinoma, in contrast to poor prognosis that can be seen in lymphoepithelioma-like carcinoma, high-grade mucoepidermoid carcinoma, clear cell carcinoma, sarcomatoid carcinoma and undifferentiated carcinoma. Type B thymomas show a range of clinical behaviour between benign to malignant and thus more detailed studies should be performed in order to establish more consistent data [76,77].

According to SEER, ITMIG and the American Cancer Society, the overall survival rate of patients with thymoma, irrelevant of type, after 5-years follow-up based on the Masaoka-Koga staging system, is approximately as follows: for stage I is 74%, stage II 73%, stage III 64% and stage IV 45%. On the other hand, the overall survival rate of thymic carcinoma, independent of type, after 5-years follow-up is approximately as follows: for stage I and II 74%, stage III 33% and stage IV 24% [77,80,81].

Further studies should be performed on long series of patients by combining the Masaoka-Koga staging system with the histological types and taking into account a more precise reporting of possible tumor extension to adjacent tissues and organs [78,79].

Conflict of interests

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

References

- Hamilton W, Boyd JD, Mossman HW. Human embryology. William and Wilkins, Baltimore; 1972, pp 316-8.
- TW Sadler. Langman's Medical Embryology (13th ed), Wolters Kluwer Health, Baltimore; 2015, pp 284-6.
- Blackburn CC, Manley NR, Palmer DB, Boyd RL, Anderson G, Ritter MA. One for all and all for one: thymic epithelial stem cells and regeneration. Trends Immunol 2002;23:391-5.
- Suster S, Rosai J. Thymus. In: Sternberg SS (Ed). Histology for pathologists. Lippincott-Raven Publishers, New York, 1997, pp 687-705.
- 5. Savino W, Dardenne M. Neuroendocrine control of thymus physiology. Endocr Rev 2000;21:412-43.
- 6. Csaba G. The Immunoendocrine Thymus as a Pacemaker of Lifespan. Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung 2016;63:139-58.
- Koppitz H, Rockstroh JK, Schuller H et al. State-ofthe-art classification and multimodality treatment of malignant thymoma. Cancer Treat Rev 2012;38:540-8.
- Suster S, Moran CA. The mediastinum. In Weidner N, Cote RJ, Suster S et al. Modern Surgical Pathology, (2nd ed), Saunders Elsevier, Philadelphia, 2009, pp 454-516.
- 9. Raica M, Ribatti D. Head and neck: Thymus: Thymoma: an overview. Atlas Genet Cytogenet Oncol Haematol 2013;17:221-8.
- Suster S, Moran C. In: Diagnostic Pathology: Thoracic, Overview of malignant thymic Neoplasms III 2, pp 2-3, Amirsys, 2012.
- 11. Boonen A, Rennenberg R, van der Linden S. Thymoma associated systemic lupus erythematosus, exacerbating after thymectomy. A case report and review of the literature.Rheumatology (Oxford). 2000;39:1044-6.
- Klein R, Marx A, Ströbel P, Schalke B, Nix W, Willcox N. Autoimmune associations and autoantibody screening show focused recognition in patient subgroups with generalized myasthenia gravis. Hum Immunol 2013;74:1184-93.
- Bernatz PE, Harrison EG, Claggett OT. Thymoma: a clinicopathologic study. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 1961;42:424-44.
- 14. Marino M, Müller-Hermelink HK. Thymoma and thymic carcinoma: relation of thymoma epithelial cells to

the cortical and medullary differentiation of the thymus. Virchows Arch 1985;407:119-49.

- 15. Kirchner T, Muller-Hermelink HK. New approaches to the diagnosis of thymic epithelial tumors. Prog Surg Pathol 1989;10:167-89.
- Suster S, Moran CA. Thymoma, atypical thymoma, and thymic carcinoma: a novel conceptual approach to the classification of thymic epithelial neoplasms. Am J Clin Pathol 1999;111:826-33.
- 17. Rosai J, Sobin LH. Histological Typing of Tumours of the Thymus (2nd ed). World Health Organization. International Histological Classification of Tumours. Berlin, Germany: Springer-Verlag; 1999.
- Travis WD, Brambilla E, Müller-Hermelink HK, Harris CC. WHO Classification of Tumours of the Lung, Pleura, Thymus and Heart. International Agency for Research on Cancer; Lyon, France: 2004.
- 19. Travis WD, Brambilla E, Burke AP, Marx A, Nicholson AG. WHO Classification of Tumours of the Lung, Pleura, Thymus and Heart (4th ed). International Agency for Research on Cancer; Lyon, France. 2015.
- 20. Roden AC. Evolution of Classification of Thymic Epithelial Tumors in the Era of Dr Thomas V. Colby. Arch Pathol Lab Med 2017;141:232-46.
- 21. Roden AC, Yi ES, Jenkins SM et al. Modified Masaoka Stage and Size Are Independent Prognostic Predictors in Thymoma and Modified Masaoka Stage Is Superior to Histopathologic Classifications. J Thorac Oncol 2015;10:691-700.
- 22. Masaoka A. Staging System of Thymoma. J Thorac Oncol 2010;5:S304-12.
- 23. Kondo K. Tumor-node metastasis staging system for thymic epithelial tumors. J Thorac Oncol 2010;5(10 Suppl 4):S352-6.
- 24. Detterbeck FC, Stratton K, Giroux D et al. Staging and Prognostic Factors Committee; Members of the Advisory Boards; Participating Institutions of the Thymic Domain. The IASLC/ITMIG Thymic Epithelial Tumors Staging Project: proposal for an evidence-based stage classification system for the forthcoming (8th) edition of the TNM classification of malignant tumors. J Thorac Oncol 2014;9(9 Suppl 2):S65-72.
- 25. Pan CC, Chen WY, Chiang H. Spindle cell and mixed spindle/lymphocytic thymomas: an integrated clin-

icopathologic and immunohistochemical study of 81 cases. Am J Surg Pathol 2001;25:111-20.

- Kalhor N, Suster S, Moran CA. Spindle cell thymomas (WHO Type A) with prominent papillary and pseudopapillary features: a clinicopathologic and immunohistochemical study of 10 cases.Am J Surg Pathol 2011;35:372-7.
- 27. Weissferdt A, Moran CA. The histomorphologic spectrum of spindle cell thymoma. Hum Pathol 2014;45:437-45.
- 28. Ströbel P, Marino M, Feuchtenberger M et al. Micronodular thymoma: an epithelial tumour with abnormal chemokine expression setting the stage for lymphoma development. J Pathol 2005;207:72-82.
- 29. Marx A, Ströbel P, Badve SS et al. ITMIG consensus statement on the use of the WHO histological classification of thymoma and thymic carcinoma: refined definitions, histological criteria and reporting. J Thorac Oncol 2014;9:596-611.
- Ströbel P, Bauer A, Puppe B et al. Tumor recurrence and survival in patients treated for thymomas and thymic squamous cell carcinomas: a retrospective analysis. J Clin Oncol 2004;15;22:1501-9.
- Marchevsky AM, McKenna RJ Jr, Gupta R. Thymic epithelial neoplasms: a review of current concepts using an evidence-based pathology approach. Hematol Oncol Clin North Am 2008;22:543-62.
- 32. Green AC, Marx A, Ströbel P et al. Type A and AB thymomas: histological features associated with increased stage. Histopathology 2015;66:884-91.
- Moran CA, Weissferdt A, Kalhor N et al. Thymomas I: a clinicopathologic correlation of 250 cases with emphasis on the World Health Organization schema. Am J Clin Pathol 2012;137:444-50.
- Marx A, Chan JK, Coindre JM et al. The 2015 World Health Organization Classification of Tumors of the Thymus: Continuity and Changes. J Thorac Oncol 2015;10:1383-95.
- Marchevsky AM, Wick MR. Pathology of the mediastinum, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2014, pp 65-102.
- de Jong WK, Blaauwgeers JL, Schaapveld M, Timens W, Klinkenberg TJ, Groen HJ. Thymic epithelial tumours: a population-based study of the incidence, diagnostic procedures and therapy. Eur J Cancer 2008;44:123-30.
- Mneimneh WS, Gökmen-Polar Y, Kesler KA, Loehrer PJ Sr, Badve S. Micronodular thymic neoplasms: case series and literature review with emphasis on the spectrum of differentiation. Mod Pathol 2015;28:1415-27.
- Liu B, Rao Q, Zhu Y, Yu B, Zhu HY, Zhou XJ. Metaplastic thymoma of the mediastinum. A clinicopathologic, immunohistochemical and genetic analysis. Am J Clin Pathol 2012;137:261-9.
- 39. Cheuk W, Tsang WY, Chan JK. Microthymoma: definition of the entity and distinction from nodular hyperplasia of the thymic epithelium (so-called microscopic thymoma). Am J Surg Pathol 2005;29:415-9.
- 40. Moran CA, Suster S."Ancient" (sclerosing) thymomas: a clinicopathologic study of 10 cases. Am J Clin Pathol 2004;121:867-71.

- 41. Nicholson AG, Detterbeck F, Marx A et al. Dataset for reporting of thymic epithelial tumours: recommendations from the International Collaboration on Cancer Reporting (ICCR). Histopathology 2017;70:522-38.
- 42. Gökmen-Polar Y, Cano OD, Kesler KA, Loehrer PJ, Badve S. NUT midline carcinomas in the thymic region. Mod Pathol 2014;27:1649-56.
- 43. Thomas de Montpréville V, Ghigna MR, Lacroix L et al. Thymic carcinomas: clinicopathologic study of 37 cases from a single institution. Virchows Arch 2013;462:307-13.
- 44. Kwon AY, Han J, Chu J et al. Histologic characteristics of thymic adenocarcinomas: Clinicopathologic study of a nine-case series and a review of the literature. Pathol Res Pract 2017;213:106-12.
- 45. Bertocchi P, Meriggi F, Zambelli C, Zorzi F, Zaniboni A. Clear cell thymic carcinoma: a case report. Tumori 2015;101:e73-4.
- 46. Nakano T, Endo S, Tsubochi H, Nokubi M, Watanabe Y, Koyama S. Thymic clear cell carcinoma. Gen Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 2010;58:98-100.
- 47. Brown JG, Familiari U, Papotti M, Rosai J. Thymic basaloid carcinoma: a clinicopathologic study of 12 cases, with a general discussion of basaloid carcinoma and its relationship with adenoid cystic carcinoma. Am J Surg Pathol 2009;33:1113-24.
- Suster S, Moran CA. Spindle cell thymic carcinoma: clinicopathologic and immunohistochemical study of a distinctive variant of primary thymic epithelial neoplasm. Am J Surg Pathol 1999;23:691-700.
- 49. Moritani S, Ichihara S, Mukai K et al. Sarcomatoid carcinoma of the thymus arising in metaplastic thymoma. Histopathology 2008;52:409-11.
- 50. Weissferdt A, Moran CA. Thymic carcinoma, part 1: a clinicopathologic and immunohistochemical study of 65 cases. Am J Clin Pathol 2012;138:103-14.
- 51. Weissferdt A, Moran CA. Thymic carcinoma, part 2: a clinicopathologic correlation of 33 cases with a proposed staging system. Am J Clin Pathol 2012;138:115-21.
- 52. Nonaka D, Klimstra D, Rosai J. Thymic mucoepidermoid carcinomas: a clinicopathologic study of 10 cases and review of the literature. Am J Surg Pathol 2004;28:1526-31.
- 53. Sekihara K, Okuma Y, Kawamoto H, Hosomi Y. Clinical outcome of thymic lymphoepithelioma-like carcinoma: Case report of a 14-year-old male. Oncol Lett 2014;8:2183-6.
- 54. Tateyama H, Takahashi E, Saito Y et al. Histopathologic changes of thymoma preoperatively treated with corticosteroids. Virchows Archiv 2001;438:238-47.
- 55. Nonaka D, Henley JD, Chiriboga L, Yee H. Diagnostic utility of thymic epithelial markers CD205 (DEC205) and Foxn1 in thymic epithelial neoplasms. Am J Surg Pathol 2007;31:1038-44.
- 56. Hishima T, Fukayama M, Fujisawa M et al. CD5 expression in thymic carcinoma. Am J Pathol 1994;145:268-75.
- 57. Ströbel P, Hartmann E, Rosenwald A et al. Corticomedullary differentiation and maturational arrest in thymomas. Histopathology 2014;64:557-66.

- Nakagawa K, Matsuno Y, Kunitoh H, Maeshima A, Asamura H, Tsuchiya R. Immunohistochemical KIT (CD117) expression in thymic epithelial tumors. Chest 2005;128:140-4.
- 59. Dal Cin P, De Wolf-Peeters C, Deneffe G, Fryns JP, Van den Berghe H. Thymoma with a t(15;22)(p11;q11). Cancer Genet Cytogenet 1996;89:181-3.
- 60. Petrini I, Meltzer PS, Kim IK et al. A specific missense mutation in GTF2I occurs at high frequency in thymic epithelial tumors. Nat Genet 2014;46:844-9.
- 61. Dotto J, Pelosi G, Rosai J. Expression of p63 in thymomas and normal thymus. Am J Clin Pathol 2007;127:415-20.
- 62. Kuo TT. Cytokeratin profiles of the thymus and thymomas: histogenetic correlations and proposal for a histological classification of thymomas. Histopathology 2000;36:403-14.
- 63. Inoue M, Starostik P, Zettl A et al. Correlating genetic aberrations with World Health Organization-defined histology and stage across the spectrum of thymomas. Cancer Res 2003;63:3708-15.
- 64. Radovich M, Solzak JP, Hancock BA, Conces ML, Atale R, Porter RF et al. A large microRNA cluster on chromosome 19 is a transcriptional hallmark of WHO type A and AB thymomas. Br J Cancer 2016;114:477-84.
- 65. Kelly RJ. Systemic treatment of advanced thymic malignancies. Am Soc Clin Oncol Educ Book 2014:e367-73.
- 66. Yoh K, Nishiwaki Y, Ishii G et al. Mutational status of EGFR and KIT in thymoma and thymic carcinoma. Lung Cancer 2008;62:316-20.
- 67. Enkner F, Pichlhöfer B, Zaharie AT et al. Molecular Profiling of Thymoma and Thymic Carcinoma: Genetic Differences and Potential Novel Therapeutic Targets. Pathol Oncol Res. 2016 Nov 14. [Epub ahead of print] DOI: 10.1007/s12253-016-0144-8.
- 68. Weissferdt A, Moran CA. Pax8 expression in thymic epithelial neoplasms: an immunohistochemical analysis. Am J Surg Pathol 2011;35:1305-10.
- 69. Ströbel P, Hohenberger P, Marx A. Thymoma and thymic carcinoma: molecular pathology and targeted therapy. J Thorac Oncol 2010;5 (Suppl 4):S286-90.

- 70. Kojika M, Ishii G, Yoshida J et al. Immunohistochemical differential diagnosis between thymic carcinoma and type B3 thymoma: diagnostic utility of hypoxic marker, GLUT-1, in thymic epithelial neoplasms. Mod Pathol 2009;22:1341-50.
- 71. Petrini I, Wang Y, Zucali PA et al. Copy number aberrations of genes regulating normal thymus development in thymic epithelial tumors. Clin Cancer Res 2013;19:1960-71.
- 72. Petrini I, Rajan A, Pham T et al. Whole Genome and Transcriptome Sequencing of a B3 Thymoma. PLoS One 2013;8:e60572.
- 73. Girard N, Shen R, Guo T et al. Comprehensive genomic analysis reveals clinically relevant molecular distinctions between thymic carcinomas and thymomas. Clin Cancer Res 2009;15:6790-9.
- 74. Yamada Y, Tomaru U, Ishizu A et al. Expression of proteasome subunit β 5t in thymic epithelial tumors. Am J Surg Pathol 2011;35:1296-304.
- 75. Weissferdt A, Wistuba II, Moran CA. Molecular aspects of thymic carcinoma. Lung Cancer 2012;78:127-32.
- 76. Kondo K, Yoshizawa K, Tsuyuguchi M et al. WHO histologic classification is a prognostic indicator in thymoma. Ann Thorac Surg 2004;77:1183-8.
- 77. Weis C-A, Yao X, Deng Y et al. ITMIG Retrospective Database. The Impact of Thymoma Histotype on Prognosis in a Worldwide Database. J Thorac Oncol 2015;10:367-72.
- Asamura H, Nakagawa K, Matsuno Y, Suzuki K, Watanabe S, Tsuchiya R. Thymoma needs a new staging system. Interact Cardiovasc Thor Surg 2004;3:163-7.
- 79. Roden AC, Yi ES, Jenkins SM et al. Reproducibility of 3 histologic classifications and 3 staging systems for thymic epithelial neoplasms and its effect on prognosis. Am J Surg Pathol 2015;39:427-41.
- Engels EA. Epidemiology of thymoma and associated malignancies.J Thorac Oncol 2010;5(10 Suppl 4):S260-5.
- 81. American Cancer Society. Survival Rates for Thymus Cancer. https://www.cancer.org/cancer/thymus-cancer/ detection-diagnosis-staging/survival-rates.html