



Review

Current treatment strategies for first relapse of high-risk neuroblastoma

Sveva Castelli^{a,1}, Franziska Schulze^{a,1}, Theresa M. Thole-Kliesch^{a,1}, Kathy Astrahantseff^a, Giuseppe Barone^b, Maja Beck-Popovic^c, Pablo Berlanga^d, Selim Corbacioglu^e, Matthias Fischer^{f,g}, Marion Gambart^h, Sally L. George^{i,j}, Louis Chesler^{i,j}, Juliet C. Gray^k, Barbara Hero^l, Annette Künkele^{a,m,n}, Tim Flaad^o, Peter Lang^o, Holger N. Lode^p, Jan J. Molenaar^{q,r}, Gudrun Schleiermacher^s, Carolina Rosswog^{f,g,l}, Lucas Moreno^t, Cormac Owens^u, Alba Rubio-San-Simón^v, Johannes H. Schulte^{n,o}, Thorsten Simon^l, Deborah A. Tweddle^w, Hedwig E. Deubzer^{a,m,n,x,2,*}, Angelika Eggert^{a,m,n,y,2}, on behalf of the SIOPEX New Drug Development, Immunotherapy and Relapse Groups

^a Department of Pediatric Oncology and Hematology, Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany

^b Department of Pediatric Oncology, Great Ormond Street Hospital for Children, London, United Kingdom

^c Pediatric Hematology Oncology Unit, Women-Mother-Child Department, University Hospital CHUV, Lausanne, Switzerland

^d Department of Pediatric and Adolescent Oncology, Gustave Roussy, Paris-Saclay University, Paris, France

^e Department of Pediatric Oncology, Hematology and Stem Cell Transplantation, University of Regensburg, Regensburg, Germany

^f Department of Experimental Pediatric Oncology, University Children's Hospital of Cologne, Cologne, Germany

^g Center for Molecular Medicine Cologne (CMMC), Medical Faculty, University of Cologne, Cologne, Germany

^h Hemato-Oncology Unit, Children's Hospital, Toulouse, France

ⁱ Pediatric Drug Development, Children & Young People's Unit, The Royal Marsden NHS Foundation Trust, London, United Kingdom

^j Division of Clinical Studies and Cancer Therapeutics, The Institute of Cancer Research, London, United Kingdom

^k Center for Cancer Immunology, University of Southampton, Southampton, United Kingdom

^l Department of Pediatric Oncology and Hematology, University of Cologne, Germany

^m Berlin Institute of Health (BIH) at Charité, Berlin, Germany

ⁿ German Cancer Consortium (DKTK), Partner Sites Berlin and Tübingen, and German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Germany

^o Department of Pediatric Oncology and Hematology, University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany

^p Department of Pediatric Oncology and Hematology, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Germany

^q Princess Máxima Center for Pediatric Oncology, Utrecht, the Netherlands

^r Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Utrecht University, Utrecht, the Netherlands

^s SIREDO Integrated Pediatric Oncology Center, RTOP U1330 CONCERT, PSL University, Institut Curie, Paris, France

^t Vall d'Hebron University Hospital, Barcelona, Spain

^u Department of Pediatric Hematology/Oncology, Our Lady's Children's Hospital, Dublin, Ireland

^v Department of Pediatric Hematology/Oncology, Hospital Infantil Universitario Niño Jesús, Madrid, Spain

^w Translational and Clinical Research Institute, Newcastle University and Great North Children's Hospital, Newcastle, United Kingdom

^x Experimental and Clinical Research Center (ECRC) of Charité and Max-Delbrück-Center of Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz Association, Berlin, Germany

^y University Hospital Essen, Essen, Germany

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Pediatric cancer
Embryonal tumor
Precision medicine
Molecular tumor board
Camptothecins
Chemoimmunotherapy

ABSTRACT

More than 50 % of patients with high-risk neuroblastoma (HRNB) will relapse despite intensive multimodal therapy. Most relapses occur within 2 years of diagnosis. Overall survival at relapse is 20 % at 4 years, but long-term survival can be achieved in a patient subset. A biopsy at relapse with in-depth molecular characterization should now become accepted as standard of care to confirm active neuroblastoma and identify potential targets for biomarker-based targeted therapy or immunotherapy. No clear consensus currently exists about optimal therapy because the field lacks umbrella trials covering all phases of relapse treatment (re-induction,

* Correspondence to: Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Department of Pediatric Oncology and Hematology, Campus Virchow Klinikum, Augustenburger Platz 1, Berlin 13353, Germany.

E-mail address: hedwig.deubzer@charite.de (H.E. Deubzer).

¹ Shared first authors

² Shared last authors

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejca.2026.116254>

Received 16 December 2025; Received in revised form 18 January 2026; Accepted 21 January 2026

Available online 29 January 2026

0959-8049/Crown Copyright © 2026 Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Disialoganglioside GD2
Anaplastic lymphoma kinase
Haplo-SCT
CAR T cells

consolidation, maintenance) in a homogenous strategy. Recruitment into clinical trials (e.g. BEACON2) should be prioritized. Current evidence supports starting re-induction therapy with a camptothecin-based chemotherapy regimen combined with monoclonal antibody therapy targeting GD2 or VEGF (or ALK inhibitors if *ALK*-aberrant) as the first choice. The RIST regimen is a promising first choice for *MYCN*-amplified disease. After an objective response to re-induction therapy, GD2-directed immunotherapy or cellular therapies harnessing the immune system (haploidentical stem cell transplantation, CAR T cells) are of high interest as a consolidation strategy. Long-term maintenance therapy must be feasible as outpatient treatment, have a low toxicity profile and be well-tolerable to suit patients with relapsed HRNB. For optimal care, new options must be tested as maintenance therapy in randomized trials. The most promising salvage options for patients responding insufficiently to treatment are the chemotherapy combinations, topotecan/vincristine/doxorubicin (TVD), topotecan/cyclophosphamide/etoposide (TCE), ifosfamide/carboplatin/etoposide (ICE) or topotecan/cyclophosphamide (TopoCy), or [¹³¹I]-mIBG therapy. Early-phase clinical trials are also a possible option in this setting.

1. Introduction

More than 50 % of patients with high-risk neuroblastoma (HRNB) will relapse despite intensive multimodal therapy. Most relapses occur within 2 years of diagnosis [1], yielding a 20 % overall survival (OS) at 4 years [2] and a median progression-free survival (PFS) of 6.4 months [3]. Long-term survival of a first HRNB relapse is, however, achievable for a subgroup of patients. Thus, a first relapse diagnosis should generally not be considered a palliative situation at that time.

Disease heterogeneity, therapy resistance, organ toxicity including poor hematological reserve and quality of life aspects make managing relapsed HRNB challenging. No clear consensus about optimal therapy exists due to the lack of well-designed randomized clinical trials [4] and umbrella trials using a homogenous strategy to cover all relapse treatment phases (re-induction, consolidation, maintenance). Heterogeneity in their inclusion criteria and primary endpoints for efficacy as well as unconsidered bias factors [4] make evaluating and comparing efficacy of different published relapse treatment strategies exceedingly difficult. Historically, clinical response criteria guided inclusion criteria for relapse trials, creating a heterogeneous patient population with (1) progressive disease during first-line induction therapy, (2) refractory disease (up to 20 % of cases) with insufficient metastatic response to first-line induction therapy, (3) first HRNB relapse, (4) first metastatic relapse of initially localized disease and (5) second or subsequent HRNB relapses. The community now agrees that all these subgroups likely represent different biological entities, with which different response rates and survival times are associated.

Bias created by broad inclusion criteria is numerous and comes from varied sources. Relapsed disease responds differently to refractory disease [5,6]. Patients with refractory disease are less likely to show an objective response to chemotherapy, but have a longer time to progression and a better OS [3,4]. The pattern and extent of recurrent disease provides a second source of bias. A higher proportion of unfavorable clinical and biological features (and shorter survival) separates patients whose metastases are distant or both distant and local, from patients with isolated local relapses [7]. Response rates can be objectively higher if bone marrow analysis or [¹²³I]-meta-iodobenzylguanidine (mIBG) scintigraphy can detect disease, as compared to detection with magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) or computed tomography [8–10]. Oligometastatic and widely disseminated disease also have different response rates. Time to relapse forms a third source of bias. The median time to first HRNB relapse is 18–19 months from diagnosis [11,12]. Time to subsequent disease relapse episodes become progressively shorter (8.7 to second, 3.8 months to third), presumably reflecting an ongoing acquisition of chemoresistance within residual neuroblastoma cells. The relationship between time to first relapse and subsequent survival is complex [10], but relapses occurring nearer to diagnosis are generally associated with shorter survival [13]. Early relapse in patients with International Neuroblastoma Staging System (INSS) stage 4 *MYCN*-amplified disease was clearly associated with worse outcome [10]. Patient age and molecular tumor characteristics present a fourth source of bias. Older patients have

a worse outcome [14]. Tumors harboring *MYCN* amplifications [15], activating *ALK* alterations [16] or *ATRX* mutations [17] are associated with worse and varied survival times at relapse. Prior and subsequent therapy adds a fifth source of bias, and is difficult to control for in non-randomized phase II efficacy trials and in the absence of a homogenous umbrella treatment protocol for relapsed HRNB. Not all pediatric oncology centers use high-dose chemotherapy and autologous stem cell rescue or immunotherapy in HRNB first-line treatment. HRNB therapy variations may influence responses to relapse therapy. Some published relapse trials continued until disease progressed and others were designed to test for response within a predefined therapy cycle number, after which different consolidation therapies were administered. The subsequent therapy is not standardized, and often not even documented. Survival is the clearest way to directly compare efficacy in different trials, but is thwarted in these cases. The varying treatment strategies administered after the investigative treatment prevent using time to progression as an endpoint. Response is currently the only suitable outcome measure, but may not equate to survival. Altogether, consideration must be given to the lack of comparability of existing clinical trial results and lack of generalizability to the individual patient [4,10]. Despite the effort that has been undertaken to clearly define clinical and biological features predictive of survival in relapsed high-risk neuroblastoma [2,13,18,19], no validated prognostic stratification exists to date. While no definitive long-term survivor subgroup can currently be defined, the proposed strategy remains the default strategy at first relapse. Whether this approach is curative in the long term, can only be ascertained with longer follow-up for each individual patient. Some clinical circumstances of note in which this approach may be reconsidered are very rapidly progressing disease, patients with a severely compromised general condition (e.g., low Lansky performance score) and/or poor response to initial salvage therapy. This paper represents an expert consensus developed through review of the available literature and collaborative discussion among SIOPEN specialists.

2. Diagnosing relapse and defining response

The high diagnostic sensitivity and specificity achievable with [¹²³I]-mIBG scintigraphy [20,21] and previously limited prospects for biopsy-informed curative therapy has historically made it uncommon to collect biopsies from the relapsed tumor and/or metastases. The awareness that tumors evolve between diagnosis and relapse [22–24], the increased spectrum of actionable mutations in relapsed tumors [22, 24], the spatiotemporal heterogeneity in mutations observed in individual patients [25–27] and the recently described plasticity in transcriptional circuitries [28,29] all provide strong arguments that molecular profiling at relapse will better inform treatment decisions. A biopsy at relapse with in-depth molecular characterization is strongly recommended to confirm viable active neuroblastoma and identify potential targets for biomarker-based targeted treatment or immunotherapy. Bone marrow infiltration should be routinely assessed at relapse from different sites (cytology and GD2 immunocytology in aspirates, immunohistochemistry in trephine biopsies). A new level of

molecular precision in characterization is offered by recent developments in single-cell technologies. Rapidly developing liquid biopsy approaches offer minimally invasive procedures allowing circulating cell-free tumor DNA and RNA profiling [30–35] for more precise and longitudinal monitoring of tumor evolution, resistance mechanisms and therapeutic response biomarkers in the future.

To appropriately assess response, imaging diagnostics should be ideally set at predefined time points (e.g. the first after 2 re-induction cycles) and include [^{123}I]-mIBG scintigraphy or FDG-PET-CT/MRI scans (for non-MIBG-avid lesions) and MRI (primary tumor site \pm whole body and brain) or at least CT of all tumor regions. Response to therapy after relapse is evaluated using uniform response metrics for patients with relapsed neuroblastoma [36] that were adapted from the International Neuroblastoma Response Criteria for primary disease [37]. These uniform response metrics will facilitate comparable data collection across international trials and promote more rapid identification of effective treatments for relapsed HRNB [38].

3. Strategies for re-induction therapy

Re-induction therapy aims to achieve a second complete or partial remission. Approaches for relapsed/refractory HRNB have historically added either cytotoxic chemotherapy or the systemic radiopharmaceutical, [^{131}I]-mIBG. A questionnaire in SIOPEN member countries revealed considerable heterogeneity in chemotherapy and other regimens currently offered at first HRNB relapse. Patients were often enrolled in the randomized phase II BEACON (NCT02308527) or RIST-rNB-2011 (NCT01467986) trials. Widely used were also [^{131}I]-mIBG (combination) therapy and/or 8 different cytostatic drug combinations, partly based on limited, rather historical clinical trial evidence for patients with relapsed HRNB. Patients were sometimes enrolled on different early clinical trials (biomarker- and nonbiomarker-based), or given 3 chemo-immunotherapies or single-agent therapy with an ALK inhibitor (biomarker-based) or temozolomide (nonbiomarker-based). Several previous reviews of HRNB relapse therapy summarize the rationale and data for various chemotherapeutic approaches [4,10,38]. However, as we state in Section 1, heterogeneous inclusion criteria and prior/subsequent treatment prevents a definitive determination of the most effective re-induction strategy [4].

3.1. Established chemotherapy combinations

Camptothecins, topotecan and irinotecan, typically form the cytotoxic chemotherapy backbone [10]. Camptothecins ultimately lead to apoptosis by targeting the topoisomerase I enzyme to stabilize the DNA-bound enzyme form, and cause double-strand DNA breaks during replication [39]. This mechanism of action is distinct from those of chemotherapy agents typically used in first-line therapy, making them particularly attractive for relapse treatment. Both topotecan and irinotecan demonstrated single-agent activity in phase I trials in patients with neuroblastoma [40–42], but results from subsequent phase II trials were rather disappointing. Topotecan as a single agent only achieved 0–10 % overall response rates (ORR; complete, very good partial and partial responses) against neuroblastoma [43–46]. The equivalent ORR for irinotecan as a single agent was 0–14 % [47–49]. A phase I trial administering topotecan and irinotecan showed unacceptable toxicity [50], preventing further development of this combination.

3.1.1. Topotecan combinations

One of the best-characterized combinations is topotecan with the alkylating agent, cyclophosphamide (**TopoCy**) [51]. This pair achieved synergistic cytotoxicity in preclinical studies [52,53], in part through topoisomerase I upregulation by cyclophosphamide. Reported retrospective single-center experiences [51] as well as phase I and II trials confirmed that heavily pretreated patients tolerated the combination with reversible myelosuppression as the only significant toxicity

[52–54]. The initial phase II trial used 250 mg/m²/d cyclophosphamide and 0.75 mg/m²/d topotecan for 5d every 21d and achieved an ORR of 46 % (6/13 patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB) [53]. This schedule was subsequently tested for refractory/relapsed HRNB in the large, randomized COG 9462 trial [55], and compared against single-agent topotecan (2 mg/m²/d for 5d every 21d). While TopoCy achieved a 32 % ORR, compared with 19 % for topotecan alone, OS and toxicity did not differ between the treatment arms [55].

Combining high doses of cyclophosphamide (4200 mg/m²/course) and topotecan (2 mg/m²/d for 4d) with vincristine (2 mg/m²; termed **HD-CTV**) achieved a 19 % ORR in patients with refractory HRNB and a 52 % ORR in patients with first HRNB relapse [6]. Response rates were lower for patients with progressive disease (at trial entry) or refractory disease in adults [6]. Combining TopoCy with the topoisomerase II inhibitor, etoposide (termed **TCE**), achieved a 61 % ORR in 31 patients with relapsed HRNB [56], while combining only topotecan and etoposide achieved a 47 % ORR in 36 patients with relapsed HRNB [57].

A phase II European ITCC trial using topotecan in combination with temozolomide (**TOTEM**) against relapsed/refractory neuroblastoma and other pediatric solid malignancies achieved an ORR of 21 % in 38 patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB [58]. **TVD** is the other well-established topotecan-containing regimen. It combines topotecan (1.5 mg/m²/d for 5 d) with a 48 h infusion of doxorubicin (45 mg/m²) and vincristine (2 mg/m²) that are repeated every 21–28d. The initial phase II trial in 25 patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB achieved a 64 % ORR and 4 complete responses [5]. The European HR-NBL1/SIOPEN trial adopted **TVD** as salvage therapy in patients failing to achieve at least partial metastatic responses after induction with rapid COJEC [59].

3.1.2. Irinotecan combinations

Irinotecan is typically administered over an extended schedule to maximize exposure of tumor cells in the cell cycle S-phase [60,61]. The major toxicity of irinotecan is diarrhea, which can be treated by administration of loperamide and a cephalosporin [62]. The best characterized irinotecan combination is with the methylating agent, temozolomide, and termed **IT** or **TEMIRI**. Preclinical studies in neuroblastoma xenograft models confirmed drug synergy based on a model in which temozolomide-induced DNA methylation leads to irinotecan recruitment [61].

A single-institution trial administered 50 mg/m²/d intravenous irinotecan and 150 mg/m²/d oral temozolomide over 5d to achieve 2 complete responses among 19 patients with refractory disease and 1 partial response among 17 patients with progressive disease at trial entry [63]. Although the ORR was only 8.3 %, all patients with refractory disease showed some evidence of clinical benefit (7 mixed responses; stable disease in 10) [63]. Toxicities included the expected diarrhea and myelosuppression [63]. The subsequent COG multicenter ANBL0421 trial (NCT00311584) applied lower doses (10 mg/m²/d irinotecan for 5d/week for 2 weeks; 100 mg/m²/d temozolomide for 5d/week for 1 week; every 3 weeks) and achieved a 15 % ORR in the 55 enrolled patients [8]. Stable disease was achieved in 53 % of patients [8]. Importantly, **TEMIRI** therapy achieved stable disease or a partial or complete remission in 14/21 patients who had previously received topotecan, suggesting **TEMIRI** remains a useful salvage regimen even for patients previously treated with topotecan [8]. **TEMIRI** has the advantage of being less myelotoxic than **TopoCy** [10]. Although similar frequencies of neutropenia (35–45 %) were reported in relevant phase II trials, Grade 3 or 4 thrombocytopenia was less frequent with **TEMIRI** (13 %) than **TopoCy** (60 %) [8,55]. The New Approaches to Neuroblastoma Therapy (NANT) consortium has established 60 mg/m²/d irinotecan 5d/week for 2 weeks and 75 mg/m²/d temozolomide 5d/week for 1 week (both oral) every 3 weeks as the recommended phase II doses [60]. The largest randomized trial conducted to date for relapsed/refractory neuroblastoma (n = 160) is the European SIOPE-N/ITCC BEACON phase II trial (NCT02308527), which evaluated three

backbone chemotherapy regimens and bevacizumab addition to reduce angiogenesis [64]. The trial included a randomization designed to test whether adding bevacizumab to IT increases the response rate compared with IT alone. BEACON trial results demonstrated that combining bevacizumab and IT improved response rate (23% ORR) and progression-free survival (1-year PFS 67%) in patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB [64]. IT (TEMIRI) is currently regarded internationally as an excellent backbone for future studies of new agents.

The randomized phase II RIST-rNB-2011 trial (NCT01467986) evaluated intravenous irinotecan (50 mg/m²/dose) and oral temozolomide (150 mg/m²/dose) given 5 days, followed by 2 rest days (IT control arm) compared to a combination of IT with oral dasatinib and rapamycin (RIST experimental arm; 4d followed by 3 rest days prior to IT). RIST-rNB-2011 enrolled 129 patients with relapsed (80%) or refractory (19%) HRNB [65]. After a median 72-month follow-up, the median PFS was 11 months in the RIST experimental arm and only 5 months in the IT control arm. At one year, RIST achieved 38% (13% with IT) EFS in patients with *MYCN*-amplified disease and 65% EFS (44% with IT) against cases lacking *MYCN* amplifications. The best ORR with RIST was 67% (56% with IT) in cases lacking *MYCN* amplifications and 62% with RIST (42% with IT) in the *MYCN*-amplified subgroup. Median OS in the RIST arm was 20 months (IT control arm: 16 months). RIST achieved an OS of 11 months in *MYCN*-amplified cases compared to only 6.5 months in the IT control arm. Rapamycin or dasatinib added no additional toxicity to the IT backbone [65]. RIST-rNB-2011 provided the first evidence that *MYCN*-amplified HRNB can be effectively treated, and demonstrated RIST is an interesting re-induction strategy for this molecularly defined patient subgroup.

The open-label, randomized, phase II selection design in the Children's Oncology Group (COG) ANBL1221 trial (NCT01767194) tested adding temsirolimus to irinotecan–temozolomide treatment in patients with relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma [66]. Patients received oral temozolomide (100 mg/m² per dose) and intravenous irinotecan (50 mg/m² per dose) on days 1–5 of 21-day cycles. Patients in the temsirolimus group also received intravenous temsirolimus (35 mg/m² per dose) on cycle days 1 and 8. Patients received a maximum 17 treatment cycles. The irinotecan–temozolomide–temsirolimus combination did not meet the minimum activity requirement set by the activity design in ANBL1221 [66]. Notably, temsirolimus dosage and application in addition to the overall trial design strongly differed in the ANBL1221 and RIST trials. Thus, data from the two trials cannot be directly compared. The irinotecan–temozolomide–temsirolimus therapy arm only included 5 patients with *MYCN*-amplified disease (29%) [66]. Independent of the trial design differences, sample size may also have been too small to detect particular benefit for *MYCN*-amplified disease, which the RIST trial reported [65].

3.1.3. ICE

The Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center reported their single-center experience treating 74 patients with relapsed/refractory HRNB with ICE, reviewed together with published reports of relapsed disease treated with ICE [67]. ICE combines high-dose ifosfamide (2g/m²; d1–5), carboplatin (500 mg/m²; d1–2) and etoposide (100 mg/m²; d1–5) [10]. Patients predicted to have poor hematological reserves received a preemptive peripheral blood stem cell rescue 72 h after ICE [67]. Overall responses were observed in 9/17 patients with first relapse (ORR 53%) and 4/26 patients with refractory disease (ORR 15.4%). ORR was lower (1/34) in patients with progressive disease, although 22/34 achieved stable disease. ICE was associated with predicted grade 4 myelotoxicity, and bacteremia was detected in 26% of patients [67]. ICE is another potential rescue therapy particularly for patients with stored peripheral blood stem cells.

3.2. Chemo-immunotherapy

3.2.1. Irinotecan and temozolomide combined with dinutuximab plus GM-CSF

The COG phase II ANBL1221 trial (NCT01767194) randomly assigned patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB to receive TEMIRI with temsirolimus (IT/TEM arm) or dinutuximab plus granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF, IT/DIN arm). Patients in both arms received oral temozolomide (100 mg/m²/dose) and intravenous irinotecan (50 mg/m²/dose) on d1–5 of 21-day cycles. Temsirolimus (35 mg/m²/dose) was intravenously administered on days 1 and 8. DIN (17.5 or 25 mg/m²/day) was intravenously administered on days 2–5 [66]. Myelosuppression, elevated alanine aminotransferase and hypokalemia were the most common toxicities (\geq grade 3) in patients treated in the IT/TEM arm, with IT/DIN arm patients most commonly experiencing pain, hypokalemia, myelotoxicity, fever/infection and hypoxia [66]. At interim analysis in 36 patients, the IT/DIN arm had a 53% ORR, compared with 6% in the IT/TEM arm [66]. This was lower than previously reported for IT alone, suggesting temsirolimus might be antagonistic in this combination. The protocol enrolled an additional 36 patients to the IT/DIN arm, after which the ORR for all patients was 41.5% [68]. Patients who received prior anti-GD2 therapy also responded to IT/DIN therapy. IT/DIN therapy achieved 67.9% PFS and 84.9% OS in patients at one year [68]. Specific immunogenotypes influencing natural killer cell activity were evaluated in ANBL1221 trial participants, and median CD161, CD56 and KIR values did not associate with therapy response in logistic regression models [69]. A retrospective study reported similar results for 146 patients, who had received ≥ 1 IT/DIN/GM-CSF cycle for relapsed or progressive HRNB [70]. The promising results from ANBL1221 changed the paradigm of treatment for patients with a first HRNB relapse.

3.2.2. Irinotecan and temozolomide combined with dinutuximab beta

Dinutuximab beta (DB), a GD2 antibody developed in Europe and approved by the EMA in 2017 to treat HRNB, shares the DIN (formerly: ch14.18) protein sequence. However, glycosylation patterns differ greatly between DB and DIN. DB is manufactured in Chinese hamster ovary cells, while DIN is manufactured in murine SP2/0 cells. The altered glycosylation translates into significantly higher antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity from DB, as compared to DIN. Furthermore, DB lacks the alpha-gal epitope that is typical for glycoprotein expression in murine SP2/0 cells [71]. The alpha-gal epitope is known to trigger allergic reactions [72]. Thus, while the protein sequences remain the same, DB and DIN are structurally and actionably different monoclonal antibodies.

Treating relapsed/refractory HRNB with IT-DB was evaluated retrospectively in 2 patient cohorts [73,74]. IT-DB achieved a 63% ORR in a 19-patient cohort [74] and a 64% ORR in a 25-patient cohort, in whom 14 patients had received DB as part of their previous treatment (mostly frontline treatment, post-consolidation phase) [73]. Interestingly, 4 of the 14 patients previously treated with DB achieved a complete remission, while 6 of these patients achieved partial responses (ORR 71%) [73]. A 32% complete remission rate was achieved in both cohorts [73,74]. The dosage of dinutuximab beta administered differs in the two studies (50 mg DB/m²/cycle in 5 days [73] versus 100 mg DB/m²/cycle in 10 days [74]). IT-DB re-induction therapy was well-tolerated even in patients who were heavily pretreated or had previously received DB. DB dosing into 21-day cycles needs adaptation based on its 8-day half-life to avoid antibody accumulation. The cumulative dose of 50 mg DB/m²/cycle as a 5-day continuous infusion [73] contrast to the 100 mg DB/m²/cycle as a 10-day continuous infusion in a 35-day interval used in frontline maintenance [75]. Altogether, significant anti-tumor activity is achieved by combining the IT backbone with DIN plus GM-CSF treatment or DB, with more than half of patients showing objective responses. While the mechanism of action remains to be elucidated and predictors of response to chemo-immunotherapy have

yet to be defined, both regimens have been transferred to first-line therapy and are being evaluated in current COG and SIOPEN clinical trials. This transfer is supported by recent real-world data from the SACHA-France study (NCT04477681), which reported objective responses in 38 % of patients with progressive disease before high-dose chemotherapy [76]. Both regimens are also now widely used to treat patients at first relapse or when refractory HRNB is declared. IT-DB can be considered as one of the best current options for re-induction therapy.

3.2.3. Topotecan and temozolomide combined with dinutuximab beta

The **SIOPEN/ITCC BEACON trial** (NCT02308527) was amended to evaluate whether adding DB to chemotherapy improves efficacy, thus being one of few randomized trials of chemo-immunotherapy to date. Patients aged 1–21 years with refractory or relapsed HRNB were randomized for chemotherapy alone or with DB (1:2 ratio). **BEACON-Immuno** administered 70 mg dinutuximab beta/m²/cycle over 7d. The factorial design in BEACON allowed some patients to initially be randomized between chemotherapy regimens (temozolomide versus temozolomide-topotecan). This randomization closed soon after DB randomization opened, and all patients subsequently received topotecan-temozolomide. Crossover to DB with topotecan and cyclophosphamide was allowed for patients randomized to chemotherapy alone who experienced disease progression (n = 12). In total, 65 patients were randomized to chemotherapy alone (temozolomide, n = 3; topotecan-temozolomide, n = 19) or with DB (temozolomide-DB, n = 6; topotecan-temozolomide-DB, n = 37). Chemo-immunotherapy achieved 35 % ORR and 57 % 1-year PFS (chemotherapy only: 18 % ORR, 27 % 1-year PFS) in BEACON patients [77]. OS did not differ between the arms [77]. Grade ≥ 3 toxicities occurred in 9 patients (chemotherapy alone, 41 %) compared to 13 patients receiving chemo-immunotherapy (30 %), demonstrating that chemo-immunotherapy was well-tolerated [77]. The main randomization in the subsequent BEACON-2 trial (EuCT: 2024-516115-24-00) will focus in tier 1 on comparing the efficacy and safety of IT-DB (arm A) versus bevacizumab-IT (arm B) followed by dose expansion and confirmation in tier 2, which will explore the potential additive effects of combining bevacizumab and DB to the IT chemotherapy backbone.

3.2.4. N5 and N6 GPOH chemotherapy combined with dinutuximab beta

The GPOH induction chemotherapy cycles, **N5** (cisplatin, etoposide, vindesine) and **N6** (vincristine, dacarbazine, ifosfamide, doxorubicin), were combined with long-term DB infusion through compassionate use to treat 25 patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB, who had previously failed one or more second-line therapies (**N5/DB**; **N6/DB**) [78]. Retrospective data analysis revealed no unexpected severe toxicities. Grade 3/4 pain was reported by 4/25 patients in cycle 1, but decreased to 0/9 patients in cycles 3 and 4. Combination with long-term DB infusion achieved a 48 % ORR (12/25 patients, 3 patients with minor responses) with an estimated 27 % EFS and 44 % OS at one year [78]. Based on the encouraging ORR in heavily pretreated patients and acceptable safety profile, this approach is currently being evaluated as salvage therapy (NCT06485947).

3.2.5. Irinotecan, temozolomide and naxitamab plus GM-CSF

Naxitamab (formerly: humanized 3f8) is a humanized GD2-binding monoclonal antibody [79] approved by the FDA for use in combination with GM-CSF to treat patients, who have achieved a partial or minor response to prior therapy or have stable refractory/relapsed HRNB limited to the bone or bone marrow. Accelerated FDA approval was based on interim data from the global clinical phase II **Trial 201** (NCT03363373) and the phase I/II **Trial 12-230** (NCT01757626) [80–82]. NCT03363373 was designed to evaluate the efficacy and safety of naxitamab plus GM-CSF as salvage therapy for patients with primary refractory HRNB or incomplete response in the bone and/or bone marrow to salvage treatment. In total, 74 patients received naxitamab (3 mg/kg/d, d1,3,5) and GM-CSF (d –4–5) every 4 weeks until a complete

or partial response was achieved followed by 5 additional cycles every 4 weeks [82]. ORR, as specified by the 2017 International Neuroblastoma Response Criteria [36], was the primary endpoint for the prespecified interim analysis. Patients achieved complete (38 %) and partial (12 %) remissions, with a 50 % ORR, and 93 % OS and 35 % PFS at one year (secondary endpoints). Naxitamab-related grade 3 adverse events included hypotension (58 %) and pain (54 %). NCT03363373 inclusion and exclusion criteria as well as patient population characteristics differed in several aspects from previous clinical trials evaluating DIN or DB. Patients with progressive disease at trial entry were excluded, and disease was limited to the bone/bone marrow. The percentage of *MYCN*-amplified cases (prognostically worse) was lower. Only 27 % of patients had received prior high-dose chemotherapy with stem cell rescue and only 25 % had received prior immunotherapy [82]. These differences are positive selection biases that might lead to overestimating the efficacy of naxitamab plus GM-CSF, if extrapolated to a non-selected population of patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB. A phase II clinical trial of **IT-naxitamab plus GM-CSF** is currently enrolling in Asia and Russia (NCT04560166).

Recently, PFS and ORR were compared in a systematic literature review including patients treated with naxitamab (NCT03363373; n = 52; NCT01757626, n = 38) or DB (NCT02300547; NCT02743429, n = 77) [83]. The DB population was adjusted for sex, *MYCN* amplification and disease site (bone/bone marrow) to balance the aggregated characteristics of the naxitamab population. Compared to naxitamab, DB significantly extended PFS (hazard ratio 0.47; p = 0.015), with an ORR of 60.1 % (ORR, 43.3 % in the naxitamab population) in this indirect comparison [83].

3.2.6. Other chemo-immunotherapy combinations

The COG ANBL1821 trial for refractory/relapsed HRNB (NCT03794349) has evaluated the ornithine decarboxylase 1 (ODC1) inhibitor, eflornithine (also known as α-difluoromethylornithine, DFMO), in combination with the IT/DIN/GM-CSF treatment protocol from the COG ANBL1221 trial. Eflornithine is proposed to act by irreversibly inhibiting ODC1, the rate-limiting enzyme in polyamine biosynthesis (see also Table 2). Preclinical data have shown that inhibiting ODC1 enhances tumor cell stress, chemotherapy efficacy and immune modulatory effects [84–86]. Patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB were randomized in ANBL1821 to DIN, irinotecan, temozolomide and GM-CSF without (arm A; n = 44 patients) or with eflornithine (6750 mg/m² divided into 3 times/d; arm B; n = 47 patients). Response rates did not differ between the trial arms (arm A: 61.4 %, 27/44; arm B: 57.4 %, 27/47; p = 0.566). Adding eflornithine to chemo-immunotherapy also did not improve 1-year-OS (arm A: 87.0 ± 5.7 %, arm B: 81.4 ± 6.3 %), and was associated with an increased incidence of hearing loss [87].

3.3. Chemotherapy backbone combined with molecular targeted therapy

Lorlatinib was combined with topotecan-cyclophosphamide (NCT03107988) in children (<18 years) with ALK-driven relapsed/refractory HR-NB neuroblastoma [88]. The recommended phase II dose was 115 mg/m² [88] and hypertriglyceridemia, hypercholesterolemia and weight gain were common adverse events [88]. Adding lorlatinib achieved complete/partial/minor responses in 63 % of patients [88], supporting usage in the relapsed/refractory setting and suggesting lorlatinib should be exploited in phase III clinical trials for newly diagnosed ALK-driven HRNB. Several other interesting combinations are not yet considered for re-induction treatment of first relapse, but have been administered for second or subsequent HRNB relapses (Table 1).

3.4. Conclusions: Strategy for re-induction therapy

The consensus is always to prioritize participation into clinical trials, such as BEACON2. When recruiting trials are unavailable, chemo-

Table 1
Chemotherapy backbone combined with molecular targeted therapy for 2nd or subsequent HRNB relapses.

Combination therapy	Selected examples with ClinicalTrials.gov ID and sponsor	Key considerations
Irinotecan and adavosertib (AZD1775)	NCT02095132COG phase II ADVL1312 clinical trial	Irinotecan with adavosertib (WEE1 G2 checkpoint kinase inhibitor) was well tolerated with no dose-limiting toxicities at the recommended phase II dose administered orally for 5d every 21d [89]. Objective responses were documented for 3 of the 20 patients.
Irinotecan, temozolomide and alisertib (MLN8237)	NCT01601535NANT consortium	Alisertib is a selective and potent oral aurora kinase A inhibitor (indirectly targets MYCN) that induces cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in preclinical NB models [90,91]. The COG ADVL0921 phase I trial treated patients with HRNB or other solid tumors with single-agent alisertib, documenting ORR < 5 % [92]. The 2-stage NCT01601535 phase II trial achieved a 21 % partial response rate (19 evaluable patients) using alisertib in combination with irinotecan and temozolomide in 20 patients with r/r HRNB [93]. The estimated PFS at 1 year was 34 %. MYCN amplification was associated with inferior PFS. Hematological toxicities were the most common adverse events.
Topotecan, cyclophosphamide and nifurtimox	NCT00601003Giselle Sholler	The nitrofurantoin, Nifurtimox, has been employed > 50 years to treat Chagas disease, a parasitic infection caused by <i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i> [94]. Nifurtimox demonstrated antitumor activity in preclinical models for pediatric cancers, including HRNB [95,96]. The phase II NCT00601003 trial achieved a 53.9 % ORR against first HRNB relapse (stratum 1) and a 16.3 % ORR against multiple r/r HRNB (stratum 2) using nifurtimox combined with topotecan and cyclophosphamide [97]. BM suppression and reversible neurological complications were the most common side effects.

Abbreviations: BM, bone marrow; NANT, new approaches to neuroblastoma therapy; HRNB, high-risk neuroblastoma; ORR, overall response rate; NB, neuroblastoma; PFS, progression-free survival; r/r, refractory or relapsed.

immunotherapy (IT chemotherapy + GD2-targeting immunotherapy, DB currently the most available in Europe and SIOPEN countries) is the first choice to start re-induction therapy for first HRNB relapse based on current evidence. Further options are **RIST** for relapsed *MYCN*-amplified HRNB or chemotherapy combined with ALK inhibitor for ALK-driven HRNB (Figure 1). Consolidation treatment followed by maintenance treatment (both preferably in clinical trials) should be subsequently planned for patients who achieved ORR to re-induction therapy to ensure improved survival (Figure 1). The TVD, TCE, ICE, **TopoCy** or **[¹³¹I]-mIBG therapy plus vorinostat** (for patients with MIBG-avid disease) combinations are currently potential salvage options for patients with only minor responses to re-induction therapy and/or stable or progressive disease during or at the end of re-induction. Early clinical trials, preferably biomarker-based and with targeted treatment combinations, are also a suitable option in this setting.

4. Consolidation strategy

Consolidation therapy aims to eliminate (minimal) residual disease. Appropriate re-induction therapy can achieve complete responses against refractory/relapsed HRNB, but responses often do not persist. Novel therapy strategies applied as consolidation treatment (or as a maintenance strategy) may provide more durable responses. Since re-induction treatment also influences EFS and OS, assessing the efficacy of consolidation and maintenance therapies is difficult. A traditional option for consolidation (after a partial or complete response to re-induction therapy) has been [¹³¹I]-mIBG therapy. In recent years, immunotherapy approaches have shown potential to precisely target disease with improved toxicity profiles. Cellular therapies that harness the immune system are of high interest as a consolidation strategy for relapsed HRNB.

4.1. Haploidentical stem cell transplantation with dinutuximab beta and low-dose interleukin 2

Haploidentical hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (**haploSCT**) is designed to harness a potential graft-versus-tumor effect, provide the patient with a new healthy immune system and provide direct antitumor effects through intense conditioning chemotherapy. Strong evidence supports T/B cell-depleted haploSCT in combination with DB and subcutaneous interleukin 2 as an efficient consolidation strategy. The safety, feasibility and outcomes of this approach was assessed in a phase I/II trial (NCT02258815) for patients with relapsed HRNB [98]. Treatment success (primary end point) was met by 54.4 % of patients (37/68; median observation=7.8 years; 5-year EFS=43 %, 5-year OS=53 % from trial treatment start), and described patients who received 6 DB cycles, were alive without progressive disease 180d after trial treatment ended and experienced no unacceptable toxicity or higher grade acute or chronic graft-versus-host-disease. Five-year EFS was better among patients achieving complete (52 %) or partial (44 %) responses by re-induction therapy prior to haploSCT compared to patients with no or mixed responses or progressive disease (13 %). For the 43 patients with evidence of disease after haploSCT, 35 % achieved complete remission (15/43 patients) and the ORR was 51 % (22/43 patients) [98]. This concept was deemed feasible for patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB, having only a low risk of graft-versus-host disease or severe viral infections. These promising results with long-term remissions are likely attributable to increased anti-HRNB activity by donor-derived effector cells. In Germany and other European countries, only centers with strong haploSCT expertise use it as part of routine care, otherwise it is not widely used. The haploSCT regimen warrants further investigation in a randomized consolidation trial for patients with relapsed HRNB, who achieved at least partial responses to re-induction therapy.

Functional immune monitoring was employed to gain a better understanding of synergy between haploSCT and DB [99]. Monitoring detected highly functional NK cells capable of antibody-dependent

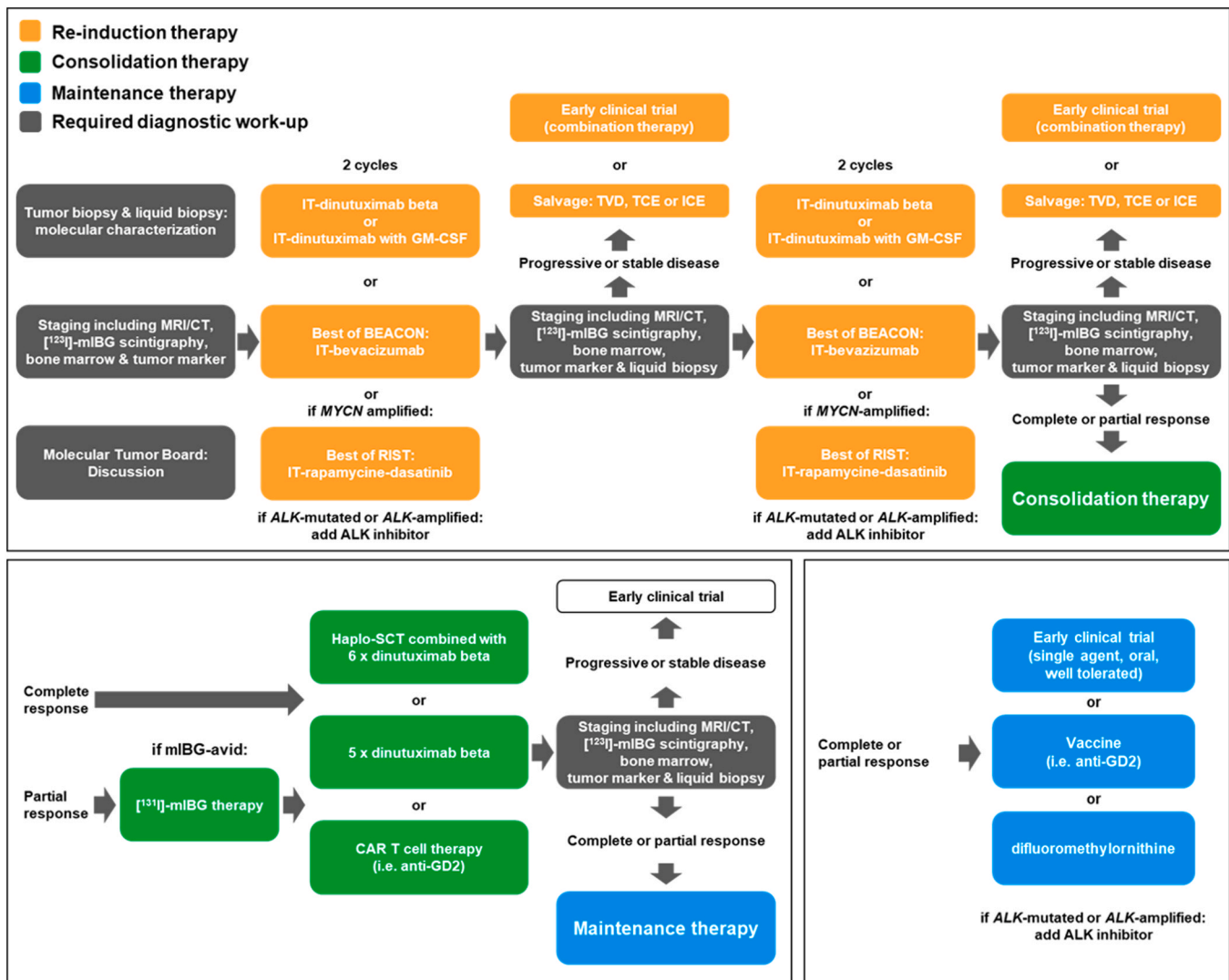


Fig. 1. Current diagnostics and treatment scheme for patients with high-risk neuroblastoma suspected of a first relapse. No clear consensus exists about the optimal therapy due to the lack of umbrella trials covering all phases of relapse treatment (re-induction, consolidation, maintenance) in a homogenous strategy. The required work-up at relapse includes a tumor biopsy with in-depth molecular characterization, bone marrow diagnostics, liquid biopsy and multimodal imaging, and discussion in a molecular tumor board where molecular profiling has been performed and identifies potentially actionable alterations. Patient enrollment into trials in all phases of relapse treatment (re-induction, consolidation, maintenance) should be given preference as first choices when open to recruitment. An ALK inhibitor may be added to a treatment backbone if an ALK mutation or amplification is verified in the relapse sample. No data currently exist that define the optimal backbone or timing to incorporate an ALK inhibitor during relapse treatment. In clinical trials, ALK inhibitors have only been evaluated alone or in combination with standard chemotherapy. Vaccines in the maintenance phase have demonstrated immune responses, but not evidence of efficacy as yet. **ALK**, anaplastic lymphoma kinase; **CAR**, chimeric antigen receptor; **CT**, computed tomography; **GD2**, disialoganglioside 2; **GM-CSF**, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor; **ICE**, ifosfamide, carboplatin, etoposide; **IT**, irinotecan/temozolomide chemotherapy backbone; **mIBG**, meta-iodobenzylguanidine; **MRI**, magnetic resonance imaging; **TCE**, topotecan, cyclophosphamide, etoposide; **TVD**, topotecan, vincristine, doxorubicin; **SCT**, stem cell transplantation. **BEACON** refers to the NCT02308527 trial; **RIST**, refers to the NCT01467986 RIST-rNB-2011 trial.

cytotoxicity, a relevant DB mechanism of action. Degranulation in NK cell subsets indicated a significant NK cell response induced by DB. Complement-dependent cytotoxicity was shown to be a potent effector cell-independent mechanism to lyse tumor cells. During DB therapy, elevated proinflammatory cytokines and markers indicated a strong anti-GD2 immune response [99]. In-patient functional immune monitoring contributes to our understanding of anti-cancer combinatorial immunotherapy, and should be incorporated into future immunotherapy/cellular therapy trials.

4.2. Dinutuximab beta long-term infusion

Previous immunotherapy trials for neuroblastoma associated short-term DB infusions combined with isotretinoin and cytokines with

inflammatory side effects and pain. Three trials evaluated long-term continuous DB infusion in patients with relapsed/refractory HRNB. In an open-label, single-arm phase II clinical trial (NCT02743429), patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB, who had not previously received DB therapy and had responded to second-line chemotherapies, received 100 mg/m² DB as continuous infusion over 10 days (long-term infusion, **LTI DB**) in 35-day intervals for up to five cycles [100]. Responses were evaluable in 38/40 patients, and the best response rate (secondary endpoint) was 53 % if minor responses were included (37 % ORR counting only partial/complete responses). Responses had a median duration 238d and **LTI DB** achieved 31 % PFS and 66 % OS at 3 years (secondary endpoints) [100]. A second multicenter trial (NCT01701479) achieved 56 % ORR in patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB using long-term DB infusion combined with IL2 and

isotretinoin (2-year EFS=56 %/OS=73 %) [101]. Patients previously treated with a GD2-targeting antibody were also ineligible for this trial. Two-year survival was greater in patients with high-affinity Fc-gamma receptor polymorphisms and high natural killer cell levels. Low-affinity Fc-gamma receptor polymorphisms and > 5 years of age were identified as independent risk factors [101]. In a randomized phase of this trial, 160 patients received up to 5 DB-LTI cycles (100mg/m²) and oral isotretinoin (160mg/m²) either with (81 patients) or without (79 patients) interleukin 2 [102]. Comparisons of EFS and OS indicated that IL2 does not add clinical benefit in this setting [102]. A third single-center trial (compassionate use program reviewed by the University of Greifswald medical ethics committee) achieved 47.7 % OS and 33.1 % PFS at 4 years and a best response of 40.5 % (15/37; 5 complete, 10 partial responses) in GD2-targeting immunotherapy naïve patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB using LTI DB (10x10mg/m², 24 h) combined with subcutaneous IL2 [103]. Survival of the entire cohort (53/53) and the relapsed patients (29/53) was significantly improved compared to historical controls [103]. The substantially improved treatment tolerance allowed outpatient treatment. Altogether, this dataset formed the core of the submission that led to EMA approval of DB for neuroblastoma.

4.3. Autologous CAR T cells

Genetically engineered autologous T cells present another promising approach for consolidation therapy. Stably transfecting these cells with a chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) redirects the patient's own cytotoxic T cells against tumor-associated antigens (e.g. GD2). CAR T cells combine the specificity of an antibody with T cell cytolytic capacity independent of the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) [104]. CAR T cells have the potential for increased potency and durability, and can cross the blood-brain barrier [105]. Antibodies generally only penetrate the central nervous system (CNS) if the blood brain barrier is disturbed. While still needing confirmation in clinical trials, CAR T cells may be able to combat relapsed HRNB involving the CNS (see also Section 7).

CAR T cells directed against different targets have already shown promise in early-phase trials (NCT00085930, NCT02761915, NCT02765243 [106–110]), achieving several objective responses in patients with relapsed/refractory HRNB. The immunosuppressive neuroblastoma microenvironment [111] creates challenges for CAR T cell penetration, persistence and potency [106–108]. These challenges and the paucity of neuroblastoma-specific targets [112] have caused CAR T cell efficacy to be less robust against refractory/relapsed HRNB so far, as compared to their success against hematological malignancies. Next-generation 14G2a-based CAR T cells demonstrated encouraging clinical efficacy against relapsed (n = 14) and refractory (n = 12) HRNB in a recent phase I/II clinical trial (NCT03373097) [113]. No dose-limiting toxicity was recorded in this trial evaluating 3 dosages of autologous, third-generation GD2-CAR T cells expressing the inducible caspase 9 suicide gene (GD2-CART01) in patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB [113]. The optimal recommended dosage was 10 × 10⁶ CAR T cells/kg body weight. The GD2-targeting CAR T cells expanded *in vivo* and were detectable in peripheral blood in 26/27 patients up to 30 months after infusion (median persistence, 3 months; range, 1–30). Cytokine release syndrome occurred in 20/27 patients (74 %, mild in 19 patients). The suicide gene was activated, rapidly eliminating GD2-CART01 cells, in one patient. Among patients receiving the recommended dose, 17 children responded to treatment (ORR=63 %; 9 complete, 8 partial responses) with 60 % EFS and 36 % OS at 3 years. Patients with a low disease burden (SIOPEN score ≤ 7) showed a particular benefit in subgroup analysis [113]. NCT03373097 demonstrates the feasible and safe use of GD2-CART01 cells to treat refractory/relapsed HRNB, and showed promising efficacy, at least for patients with low disease burden. Next-generation cytokine-engineered CAR T cells to enhance effector function [114] are currently under investigation (EUCT 2022–501725–21–00), and bi-specific CAR T cells that simultaneously target GD2 and B7H3 are in preclinical

development [115].

4.4. Novel approaches for consolidation therapy

4.4.1. Allogeneic CAR T cells

Allogeneic CAR T cells targeting GD2 (ALLO_GD2-CART01) could be a therapeutic option for relapsed/refractory HRNB that did not respond to autologous GD2-CART01 or in patients with profound lymphopenia [116]. ALLO_GD2-CART01 was administered to 5 children with HRNB refractory to > 3 different lines of therapy in a hospital exemption setting [116]. Four children had previously received allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. All patients experienced grade 2 or 3 cytokine release syndrome, with one case of grade 2 neurotoxicity and moderate acute graft-versus-host disease in 4 patients. Treatment achieved 2 complete responses (1 maintained) [116]. Safety and efficacy of ALLO_GD2-CART01 against relapsed/refractory HRNB deserves further investigation.

4.4.2. GD2-targeting CAR-NKT cells

Vα24-invariant natural killer T cells (NKTs) also have anti-tumor properties that can be enhanced by CARs. Interim results from a first-in-human phase I trial (NCT03294954) of autologous NKTs co-expressing a GD2-targeting CAR with interleukin 15 (GD2-CAR.15) in 12 children with relapsed HRNB recently demonstrated feasibility (ORR: 25 %; 1 complete, 2 partial responses) with no dose-limiting toxicities and a grade 2 cytokine release syndrome in one patient resolved by tocilizumab [117]. The frequency of CD62L⁺ NKTs in products correlated with CAR-NKT expansion in patients, and was higher in responders (n = 5; ORR or stable disease with reduction in tumor burden) than non-responders (n = 7) [117]. NCT03294954 shows NKTs are safe and can mediate objective responses in patients with relapsed HRNB.

4.4.3. Other Immunotherapy strategies

Given the limitations of passive antibody immunotherapy, particularly for bulky disease, many other immunological approaches are being developed and have yet to enter clinical trials. These include active immunization with anti-idiotypic antibody; infusions of dendritic or NK cells, the immunostimulatory antibody, ipilimumab (anti-CTLA4) and checkpoint-inhibitor therapy with pembrolizumab or nivolumab. Whether these strategies form more efficient consolidation or maintenance relapse treatments remains to be elucidated.

4.5. Conclusions: Consolidation phase

DB currently holds a high level of evidence as an efficient consolidation strategy with good tolerability in patients without previous DB exposure. The use of haploSCT combined with DB is conceptually interesting to exploit a fresh immune system with KIR/KIR-L mismatch to drive the DB immune effect against neuroblastoma. CAR T cell therapy targeting GD2 is also a promising consolidation approach in patients with relapsed HRNB who achieved objective responses with previous re-induction therapies. Randomized multicenter trials for both options are needed (Figure 1).

5. Maintenance therapy

Maintenance therapy aims for long-term cure. For maintenance therapy to be well-suited to patients with refractory/relapsed HRNB, they must be feasible as outpatient treatments, have low toxicity and be well-tolerated. Preference should be given to well-tolerated oral treatments, including ALK inhibitors (for patients with ALK altered disease), temozolomide and eflornithine, although early clinical trials with single agents (preferably biomarker-based) or vaccine strategies appear promising (Figure 1; Table 2). Randomized trials of new options in the maintenance setting are needed if we are to achieve optimal care.

Table 2

Single-agent targeted therapies for potential usage in maintenance therapy.

Class of agent/target	Selected examples with ClinicalTrials.gov ID and sponsor	Key considerations
ALK inhibitors	<i>Ceritinib</i> NCT01742286; Novartis Pharmaceuticals <i>Alectinib</i> NCT05770037; Cancer Research UK <i>Lorlatinib</i> NCT03107988; NANT consortium	Activating mutations of the ALK tyrosine kinase occur in up to 21.5 % of primary sporadic NBs, with <i>ALK</i> amplifications in a further ~4 % of HRNBs [16,24,118]. <i>ALK</i> mutation frequency increases in relapsed NBs [24]. NBs harbor <i>ALK</i> aberrations resistant to crizotinib [119] yet sensitive to 2nd and 3rd generation ALK inhibitors (ceritinib, alectinib, lorlatinib), which have improved inhibition and CNS penetrance compared to crizotinib, and have been evaluated as single agents with/without chemotherapy in biomarker-based phase I/II trials [88,120].
Aurora kinase inhibitors	<i>Alisertib</i> NCT01154816; COG	Clinical single-agent results in pediatric patients with r/r solid tumors or ALL were disappointing despite promising preclinical data [92].
ODC1 inhibitors	<i>Eflornithine (DFMO)</i> NCT02395666; Giselle Sholler	Results obtained as maintenance therapy for patients with HRNB in first-line therapy and compared to a historical control cohort [121] support additional investigations for eflornithine potential as relapse maintenance therapy.
Vaccines	<i>GD2/GD3 vaccine</i> NCT00911560; MSKCC <i>Anti-idiotype antibody ganglidiomab vaccine</i> Compassionate-use treatment; University Hospital Greifswald	Vaccines have demonstrated immune responses, but not evidence of efficacy as yet. Findings provide an important basis for prospective clinical trial design. Whether the GD2/GD3 vaccine [122], ganglidiomab [123] or vaccines against other targets are suitable approaches for maintenance therapy of patients with first HRNB relapses remains to be elucidated.

Abbreviations: ALK, anaplastic lymphoma kinase; ALL, acute lymphoblastic leukemia; COG, Children's Oncology Group; HRNB, high-risk neuroblastoma; MSKCC, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center; NANT, new approaches to neuroblastoma therapy; NB, neuroblastoma; r/r, refractory or relapsed.

6. Other treatment modalities

6.1. Surgery and radiotherapy

Surgery and radiotherapy (Table 3) should be incorporated to control local disease at first relapse, if feasible, similar to their use in first-line treatment. The role of radiotherapy in oligometastatic disease remains to be elucidated. In first-line therapy, complete resection of the primary tumor has been associated with improved overall survival (OS) [128,129]. In the relapse setting, however, the evidence is largely retrospective and based on small patient cohorts, with no large randomized studies specifically addressing the role of surgical resection after relapse. To date, no significant OS benefit has been demonstrated for isolated surgical intervention when comparing complete versus incomplete resection of abdominal relapses [130]. Nonetheless, retrospective data suggest that a strategy involving gross total resection or multiple surgical interventions as part of a multimodal treatment approach may be associated with improved OS, even in patients with osteomedullary metastases [130,131]. In patients with relapsed neuroblastoma surgical resection may be considered within a multimodal treatment approach [132]. Given the lack of prospective data, we recommend the systematic collection of prospective, standardized data on all surgical interventions after relapse, including extent of tumor

Table 3

Local radiotherapy concepts for first relapse of high-risk neuroblastoma.

Radiation source	Key considerations
External beam radiotherapy	External beam radiotherapy is equally important for local control of primary HRNBs at relapse or in first-line therapy. Symptomatic control in patients with r/r metastatic HRNB is an important additional consideration. External beam radiotherapy can help control soft-tissue lesions [10,124], especially near the spinal cord, and provide relief from painful bone metastases [125]. Feasibility has been demonstrated in the first-line setting [126]. Whether radiotherapy is beneficial to control oligometastatic lesions in patients with relapsed HRNB remains to be determined.
Proton beam radiotherapy	Salvage proton beam irradiation to local or metastatic relapses is documented within the KiProReg and ProReg prospective registry trials. A retrospective analysis (20 patients) demonstrated safety and efficacy [127]. Prospective studies would be desirable to better define the role of proton beam therapy for these patients.

Abbreviations: HRNB, high-risk neuroblastoma; NB, neuroblastoma; r/r, refractory or relapsed.

resection, timing relative to systemic therapies, postoperative morbidity, local control, and survival outcomes (OS, EFS).

6.2. Theranostics

Current evidence shows promise for combining ¹³¹I-MIBG with vorinostat in patients with mIBG-avid disease (Table 4). The potential of ¹⁷⁷Lutetium-DOTATATE remains to be elucidated (Table 4).

7. Special challenge: CNS relapse

Although CNS neuroblastoma metastases are rare at initial HRNB diagnosis, leptomeningeal and/or parenchymal CNS metastases are present in 6–8 % of cases at relapse [143,144]. Rates of CNS relapse have been suggested to be rising, with the CNS representing a sanctuary

Table 4

Theranostic candidates for first relapse of high-risk neuroblastoma.

Theranostics	Key considerations
¹³¹ I]-mIBG therapy	The earliest form of molecularly targeted therapy for HRNB was short-range β radiation via ¹³¹ I]-mIBG therapy [133–135]. Subsequent studies included autologous stem cell rescue to facilitate higher doses (up to 19 mCi/kg body weight) [136,137]. In palliative care, ¹³¹ I]-mIBG therapy can be useful to provide pain relief [138]. Combining ¹³¹ I]-mIBG with oral vorinostat (180 mg/m ² /dose) once daily on days 1–12 achieves the greatest overall response (randomized phase II NANT2011–01 trial, NCT02035137, compared to mIBG alone; and mIBG with chemotherapy) [139]). Preliminary efficacy data in the phase I trial NANT2017–01, NCT03332667, showed encouraging antitumor activity and good tolerability of ¹³¹ I]-mIBG therapy combined with DB in a heavily pretreated population with r/r HRNB [140]. Limited access, logistics and the need of hematopoietic stem cell support are major challenges for ¹³¹ I]-mIBG therapy. The MINIVAN phase I NCT02914405 study investigated ¹³¹ I]-mIBG therapy followed by nivolumab and dinutuximab beta antibodies in children with relapsed/refractory neuroblastoma; initial data suggests an overall response rate (PR/CR) of 42.9 % (12/28 patients) [141].
¹⁷⁷ Lutetium-Dotatate	The LuDO-N multicenter phase II clinical trial (NCT04903899) investigates ¹⁷⁷ Lu-DOTATATE treatment of r/r HRNB in an intensified dosing schedule. It builds on experience from the pilot LuDO trial, whose poor results were probably due to administering a subtherapeutic dose [142].

Abbreviations: DB, dinutuximab beta; HRNB, high-risk neuroblastoma; mIBG, meta-iodobenzylguanidine; NIV, nivolumab; r/r, refractory or relapsed.

site protected from systemic chemotherapy or immunotherapy [143, 145]. HR-NBL-1/SIOPEN clinical trial data revealed that the risk of CNS recurrence is linked to patient and disease characteristics, with no impact from high-dose chemotherapy or immunotherapy [146].

CNS relapse remains a major therapeutic challenge, and post-relapse survival is significantly shorter than for patients with CNS-negative disease [146,147]. Patients with CNS metastases are often excluded from traditional phase I and II trials. A recent analysis of relapses after first-line therapy in the European HR-NBL1/SIOPEN trial (NCT01704716) described a median OS after CNS recurrence of only four months [146]. Less than 10 % of the patients survived longer than 3 years [146]. Neurosurgical debulking, craniospinal irradiation and additional treatment options must be considered for patients with CNS disease. These options include intrathecal antibody-based radio-immunotherapy using ¹³¹I-8H9 targeting B7H3 (omburtamab, NCT03275402, NCT00089245, [148]), intraventricular chemotherapy (etoposide, topotecan) and/or temozolomide-based systemic chemotherapy regimens. There is a need for randomized trials for patients with HRNB relapse involving the CNS. There are no randomized data comparing craniospinal irradiation (CSI) with focal approaches such as surgery and local radiotherapy in CNS-relapsed neuroblastoma. However, published treatment strategies associated with durable CNS disease control incorporate CSI as part of a multimodal approach [131, 147]. Retrospective series demonstrate that focal irradiation alone is insufficient, with high rates of subsequent CNS failure, whereas CSI-based strategies achieve superior disease control combined to other treatments [149]. CSI has been used consistently both in combination with radioimmunotherapy and in multimodal regimens without radio-immunotherapy, including reports of long-term relapse-free survivors [131,150]. To date CSI is to be considered as a central component of curative-intent therapy for CNS-relapsed neuroblastoma.

8. Conclusions

Patients with relapsed HRNB have typically been heavily pretreated. Since disease has already been exposed to the most effective cytotoxic chemotherapy agents, there is a pressing need to develop less toxic therapies (particularly less myelosuppression) against novel targets. The hope is to overcome tumor resistance and allow personalized treatment for tumor-specific aberrations. Identifying molecular targets for neuroblastoma has been difficult, as unlike in many adult cancers, whole-genome sequencing has demonstrated that recurrent mutations of specific oncogenes are rare with the exception of *ALK*. The current level of evidence justifies offering treatment to patients with first HRNB relapse, which is definitely not yet a palliative situation.

How best to identify, prioritize and combine novel agents to improve treatment of first HRNB relapse remain the challenges to moving forward. The field benefits from a long history of international collaboration. Coordinated efforts have been enabled through the **ACCELERATE** pediatric strategy fora and through dedicated international workshops on new drug development for HRNB [151–153]. These coordinated efforts will allow us to develop the most promising combinations in a timely way to best benefit our patients.

Funding

This work was supported by the German Cancer Aid to H.N.L., T.S., B.H., H.E.D. and A.E. (within the HR-NBL2/SIOPEN clinical trial under grant no. 70113414) and the *Deutsche Kinderkrebsstiftung* (German Childhood Cancer Foundation) to T.S., B.H., H.N.L., A.E. and H.E.D. (within the BEACON-2 study under grant no. DKS 2024.20); by the Charité-BIH Advanced Clinician Scientist Program to H.E.D. and A.K.; by the *Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft* (DFG, German Research Foundation) through the Collaborative Research Center “Decoding and Targeting Neuroblastoma Evolution” CRC1588 (project number 493872418) to A.E., H.E.D., A.K. and M.F., and by the

Bundesministerium für Forschung, Technologie und Raumfahrt (BMFTR, grant no. 01KD2404A) to M.F.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Deubzer Hedwig E: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Maja Beck-Popovic:** Writing – review & editing. **Deborah A. Tweddle:** Writing – review & editing. **Giuseppe Barone:** Writing – review & editing. **Thorsten Simon:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **Kathy Astrahantseff:** Writing – review & editing. **Johannes H. Schulte:** Writing – review & editing. **Theresa M. Thole-Kliesch:** Writing – original draft, Investigation, Data curation. **Alba Rubio-San-Simón:** Writing – review & editing. **Franziska Schulze:** Writing – original draft, Investigation, Data curation. **Cormac Owens:** Writing – review & editing. **Lucas Moreno:** Writing – review & editing. **Sveva Castelli:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Investigation, Data curation. **Carolina Rosswog:** Writing – review & editing. **Gudrun Schleiermacher:** Writing – review & editing. **Jan J. Molenaar:** Writing – review & editing. **Holger N. Lode:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Peter Lang:** Writing – review & editing. **Tim Flaadt:** Writing – review & editing. **Annette Künkele:** Writing – review & editing. **Barbara Hero:** Writing – review & editing. **Juliet C. Gray:** Writing – review & editing. **Louis Chesler:** Writing – review & editing. **Sally L. George:** Writing – review & editing. **Marion Gambart:** Writing – review & editing. **Matthias Fischer:** Writing – review & editing. **Selim Corbacioglu:** Writing – review & editing. **Angelika Eggert:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Project administration, Conceptualization. **Pablo Berlanga:** Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the writing process

During the preparation of this work, the authors did not use AI tools.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

G.B. has received Travel Grants and has had educational roles in educational events organised by EUSA pharma and Recordati Rare Diseases. **P.B.** had a consulting role (institutional) for Recordati and Merck; participated in educational activities (institutional) organized by EUSA Pharma.

P.B. is member of the Executive Committee of SIOPEN, which receives royalties for the sales of dinutuximab beta.

M.F. has received funding in the form of institutional payments from Novartis, Lilly, Bayer, and AstraZeneca.

J.C.G. has had consulting roles for EUSA Pharma, YmAbs Therapeutics, BMS, Celgene and Norgine.

T.F. has worked as consultant of Recordati Rare Diseases and Alexion Pharma.

P.L. has received funding from Recordati Rare Diseases for the establishment of a registry.

H.N.L. has worked as consultant of Recordati Rare Diseases and is co-founder of AnYxis Immuno-Oncology.

G.S. is a recipient of research grants from BMS, MSDAvenir, Roche and Pfizer, and member of a board of experts for Recordati Rare Diseases.

L.M. is a past member of data monitoring committees for clinical trials sponsored by Novartis, Shionogi and Incyte; had a consulting role for Novartis, Norgine, Boehringer, Ymabs, Merck, Roche, Bayer and Shionogi; participated in educational activities organized by Bayer and EUSA Pharma and received travel expenses from EUSA Pharma. **L.M.** is president of SIOPEN (Neuroblastoma Research Network), an

organization, which receives royalties for the sales of dinutuximab beta.

A. R.-S.-S. has had an advisory role for Eusapharma and SANOFI and an IDMC role for Miltenyi Biotec.

T.S. has received funding in the form of institutional payments from the German Childhood Cancer Foundation and consulting fees from Recordati Rare Diseases, Norgine Ltd., Amgen, and Merck KGaA.

D.A.T. has received travel grants from Recordati Rare Diseases.

H.E.D. and A.E. have worked as consultants of Recordati Rare Diseases.

All remaining authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

References

- [1] Basta NO, et al. Factors associated with recurrence and survival length following relapse in patients with neuroblastoma. *Br J Cancer* 2016;115(9):1048–57.
- [2] London WB, et al. Historical time to disease progression and progression-free survival in patients with recurrent/refractory neuroblastoma treated in the modern era on Children's Oncology Group early-phase trials. *Cancer* 2017;123(24):4914–23.
- [3] Moreno L, et al. Outcome of children with relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma: A meta-analysis of ITCC/SIOPEX European phase II clinical trials. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2017;64(1):25–31.
- [4] Herd F, et al. A systematic review of re-induction chemotherapy for children with relapsed high-risk neuroblastoma. *Eur J Cancer* 2019;111:50–8.
- [5] Garaventa A, et al. A phase II study of topotecan with vincristine and doxorubicin in children with recurrent/refractory neuroblastoma. *Cancer* 2003;98(11):2488–94.
- [6] Kushner BH, et al. Differential impact of high-dose cyclophosphamide, topotecan, and vincristine in clinical subsets of patients with chemoresistant neuroblastoma. *Cancer* 2010;116(12):3054–60.
- [7] Vo KT, et al. Pattern and predictors of sites of relapse in neuroblastoma: A report from the International Neuroblastoma Risk Group (INRG) project. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2022;69(9):e29616.
- [8] Bagatell R, et al. Phase II study of irinotecan and temozolomide in children with relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma: a Children's Oncology Group study. *J Clin Oncol* 2011;29(2):208–13.
- [9] Shusterman S, et al. Antitumor activity of hu14.18-IL2 in patients with relapsed/refractory neuroblastoma: a Children's Oncology Group (COG) phase II study. *J Clin Oncol* 2010;28(33):4969–75.
- [10] Morgenstern DA, Baruchel S, Irwin MS. Current and future strategies for relapsed neuroblastoma: challenges on the road to precision therapy. *J Pedia Hematol Oncol* 2013;35(5):337–47.
- [11] Santana VM, et al. Disease control intervals in high-risk neuroblastoma. *Cancer* 2008;112(12):2796–801.
- [12] Simon T, et al. Treatment and outcomes of patients with relapsed, high-risk neuroblastoma: results of German trials. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2011;56(4):578–83.
- [13] London WB, et al. Clinical and biologic features predictive of survival after relapse of neuroblastoma: a report from the International Neuroblastoma Risk Group project. *J Clin Oncol* 2011;29(24):3286–92.
- [14] Mossé YP, et al. Neuroblastoma in older children, adolescents and young adults: a report from the International Neuroblastoma Risk Group project. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2014;61(4):627–35.
- [15] Look AT, et al. Clinical relevance of tumor cell ploidy and N-myc gene amplification in childhood neuroblastoma: a Pediatric Oncology Group study. *J Clin Oncol* 1991;9(4):581–91.
- [16] Bellini A, et al. Frequency and Prognostic Impact of ALK Amplifications and Mutations in the European Neuroblastoma Study Group (SIOPEX) High-Risk Neuroblastoma Trial (HR-NBL1). *J Clin Oncol* 2021;39(30):3377–90.
- [17] Peifer M, et al. Telomerase activation by genomic rearrangements in high-risk neuroblastoma. *Nature* 2015;526(7575):700–4.
- [18] Garaventa A, et al. Outcome of children with neuroblastoma after progression or relapse. A retrospective study of the Italian neuroblastoma registry. *Eur J Cancer* 2009;45(16):2835–42.
- [19] Lau L, et al. Factors influencing survival in children with recurrent neuroblastoma. *J Pedia Hematol Oncol* 2004;26(4):227–32.
- [20] Fletcher JL, et al. Too many targets, not enough patients: rethinking neuroblastoma clinical trials. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2018;18(6):389–400.
- [21] Boubaker A, Bischof Delaloye A. MIBG scintigraphy for the diagnosis and follow-up of children with neuroblastoma. *Q J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2008;52(4):388–402.
- [22] Schramm A, et al. Mutational dynamics between primary and relapse neuroblastomas. *Nat Genet* 2015;47(8):872–7.
- [23] Eleveld TF, et al. Relapsed neuroblastomas show frequent RAS-MAPK pathway mutations. *Nat Genet* 2015;47(8):864–71.
- [24] Rosswog C, et al. Genomic ALK alterations in primary and relapsed neuroblastoma. *Br J Cancer* 2023;128(8):1559–71.
- [25] Chmielecki J, et al. Genomic Profiling of a Large Set of Diverse Pediatric Cancers Identifies Known and Novel Mutations across Tumor Spectra. *Cancer Res* 2017;77(2):509–19.
- [26] Schleiermacher G, et al. Emergence of new ALK mutations at relapse of neuroblastoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2014;32(25):2727–34.
- [27] Schmelz K, et al. Spatial and temporal intratumour heterogeneity has potential consequences for single biopsy-based neuroblastoma treatment decisions. *Nat Commun* 2021;12(1):6804.
- [28] van Groningen T, et al. Neuroblastoma is composed of two super-enhancer-associated differentiation states. *Nat Genet* 2017;49(8):1261–6.
- [29] Boeva V, et al. Heterogeneity of neuroblastoma cell identity defined by transcriptional circuitries. *Nat Genet* 2017;49(9):1408–13.
- [30] Lodrini M, et al. Targeted Analysis of Cell-free Circulating Tumor DNA is Suitable for Early Relapse and Actionable Target Detection in Patients with Neuroblastoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 2022;28(9):1809–20.
- [31] Lodrini M, et al. Circulating Cell-Free DNA Assessment in Biofluids from Children with Neuroblastoma Demonstrates Feasibility and Potential for Minimally Invasive Molecular Diagnostics. *Cancers (Basel)* 2022;14(9).
- [32] Peitz C, et al. Multiplexed Quantification of Four Neuroblastoma DNA Targets in a Single Droplet Digital PCR Reaction. *J Mol Diagn* 2020;22(11):1309–23.
- [33] Chicard M, et al. Genomic Copy Number Profiling Using Circulating Free Tumor DNA Highlights Heterogeneity in Neuroblastoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 2016;22(22):5564–73.
- [34] Lodrini M, et al. Using droplet digital PCR to analyze MYCN and ALK copy number in plasma from patients with neuroblastoma. *Oncotarget* 2017;8(49):85234–51.
- [35] Hollander JF, et al. Serially Quantifying TERT Rearrangement Breakpoints in ctDNA Enables Minimal Residual Disease Monitoring in Patients with Neuroblastoma. *Cancer Res Commun* 2025;5(1):167–77.
- [36] Park JR, et al. Revisions to the International Neuroblastoma Response Criteria: A Consensus Statement From the National Cancer Institute Clinical Trials Planning Meeting. *J Clin Oncol* 2017;35(22):2580–7.
- [37] Park JR, et al. Early-phase clinical trial eligibility and response evaluation criteria for refractory, relapsed, or progressive neuroblastoma: A consensus statement from the National Cancer Institute Clinical Trials Planning Meeting. *Cancer* 2022;128(21):3775–83.
- [38] DuBois SG, Macy ME, Henderson TO. High-Risk and Relapsed Neuroblastoma: Toward More Cures and Better Outcomes. *Am Soc Clin Oncol Educ Book* 2022; (42):1–13.
- [39] Vassal G, et al. DNA-topoisomerase I, a new target for the treatment of neuroblastoma. *Eur J Cancer* 1997;33(12):2011–5.
- [40] Blaney S, et al. A phase I study of irinotecan in pediatric patients: a pediatric oncology group study. *Clin Cancer Res* 2001;7(1):32–7.
- [41] Furman WL, et al. Direct translation of a protracted irinotecan schedule from a xenograft model to a phase I trial in children. *J Clin Oncol* 1999;17(6):1815–24.
- [42] Blaney SM, et al. Pediatric phase I trial and pharmacokinetic study of topotecan administered as a 24-hour continuous infusion. *Cancer Res* 1993;53(5):1032–6.
- [43] Hawkins DS, et al. Topotecan by 21-day continuous infusion in children with relapsed or refractory solid tumors: a Children's Oncology Group study. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2006;47(6):790–4.
- [44] Längler A, et al. Topotecan in the treatment of refractory neuroblastoma and other malignant tumors in childhood - a phase-II-study. *Klin Padiatr* 2002;214(4):153–6.
- [45] Blaney SM, et al. Phase II trial of topotecan administered as 72-hour continuous infusion in children with refractory solid tumors: a collaborative Pediatric Branch, National Cancer Institute, and Children's Cancer Group Study. *Clin Cancer Res* 1998;4(2):357–60.
- [46] Nitschke R, et al. Topotecan in pediatric patients with recurrent and progressive solid tumors: a Pediatric Oncology Group phase II study. *J Pedia Hematol Oncol* 1998;20(4):315–8.
- [47] Bomgaars LR, et al. Phase II trial of irinotecan in children with refractory solid tumors: a Children's Oncology Group Study. *J Clin Oncol* 2007;25(29):4622–7.
- [48] Shitara T, et al. Irinotecan for children with relapsed solid tumors. *Pedia Hematol Oncol* 2006;23(2):103–10.
- [49] Vassal G, et al. A phase II study of irinotecan in children with relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma: a European cooperation of the Société Française d'Oncologie Pédiatrique (SFOP) and the United Kingdom Children Cancer Study Group (UKCCSG). *Eur J Cancer* 2008;44(16):2453–60.
- [50] Rodriguez-Galindo C, et al. Phase I study of the combination of topotecan and irinotecan in children with refractory solid tumors. *Cancer Chemother Pharm* 2006;57(1):15–24.
- [51] Ashraf K, et al. Treatment with topotecan plus cyclophosphamide in children with first relapse of neuroblastoma. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2013;60(10):1636–41.
- [52] Bowers DC, et al. Phase I study of oral cyclophosphamide and oral topotecan for children with recurrent or refractory solid tumors. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2004;42(1):93–8.
- [53] Saylor RL, et al. Cyclophosphamide plus topotecan in children with recurrent or refractory solid tumors: a Pediatric Oncology Group phase II study. *J Clin Oncol* 2001;19(15):3463–9.
- [54] Saylor RL, et al. Phase I study of topotecan in combination with cyclophosphamide in pediatric patients with malignant solid tumors: a Pediatric Oncology Group Study. *J Clin Oncol* 1998;16(3):945–52.
- [55] London WB, et al. Phase II randomized comparison of topotecan plus cyclophosphamide versus topotecan alone in children with recurrent or refractory neuroblastoma: a Children's Oncology Group study. *J Clin Oncol* 2010;28(24):3808–15.
- [56] Simon T, et al. Topotecan, cyclophosphamide, and etoposide (TCE) in the treatment of high-risk neuroblastoma. Results of a phase-II trial. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol* 2007;133(9):653–61.

- [57] Simon T, et al. Topotecan and etoposide in the treatment of relapsed high-risk neuroblastoma: results of a phase 2 trial. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol* 2007;29(2):101–6.
- [58] Di Giannatale A, et al. Phase II study of temozolomide in combination with topotecan (TOTEM) in relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma: a European Innovative Therapies for Children with Cancer-SIOP-European Neuroblastoma study. *Eur J Cancer* 2014;50(1):170–7.
- [59] Amoroso L, et al. Topotecan-Vincristine-Doxorubicin in Stage 4 High-Risk Neuroblastoma Patients Failing to Achieve a Complete Metastatic Response to Rapid COJEC: A SIOPEN Study. *Cancer Res Treat* 2018;50(1):148–55.
- [60] Wagner LM, et al. Phase I trial of oral irinotecan and temozolomide for children with relapsed high-risk neuroblastoma: a new approach to neuroblastoma therapy consortium study. *J Clin Oncol* 2009;27(8):1290–6.
- [61] Houghton PJ, et al. Antitumor activity of temozolomide combined with irinotecan is partly independent of O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase and mismatch repair phenotypes in xenograft models. *Clin Cancer Res* 2000;6(10):4110–8.
- [62] Wagner LM, et al. Reducing irinotecan-associated diarrhea in children. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 2008;50(2):201–7.
- [63] Kushner BH, et al. Irinotecan plus temozolomide for relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;24(33):5271–6.
- [64] Moreno L, et al. Bevacizumab, Irinotecan, or Topotecan Added to Temozolomide for Children With Relapsed and Refractory Neuroblastoma: Results of the ITCC-SIOPEN BEACON-Neuroblastoma Trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2024;42(10):1135–45.
- [65] Corbacioglu S, et al. Irinotecan and temozolomide in combination with dasatinib and rapamycin versus irinotecan and temozolomide for patients with relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma (RIST-rNB-2011): a multicentre, open-label, randomised, controlled, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol* 2024;25(7):922–32.
- [66] Mody R, et al. Irinotecan-temozolomide with temsirolimus or dinutuximab in children with refractory or relapsed neuroblastoma (COG ANBL1221): an open-label, randomised, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol* 2017;18(7):946–57.
- [67] Kushner BH, et al. Ifosfamide, carboplatin, and etoposide for neuroblastoma: a high-dose salvage regimen and review of the literature. *Cancer* 2013;119(3):665–71.
- [68] Mody R, et al. Irinotecan, Temozolomide, and Dinutuximab With GM-CSF in Children With Refractory or Relapsed Neuroblastoma: A Report From the Children's Oncology Group. *J Clin Oncol* 2020;38(19):2160–9.
- [69] Erbe AK, et al. KIR/KIR-ligand genotypes and clinical outcomes following chemoimmunotherapy in patients with relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma: a report from the Children's Oncology Group. *J Immunother Cancer* 2023;11(2).
- [70] Lerman BJ, et al. Progression-Free Survival and Patterns of Response in Patients With Relapsed High-Risk Neuroblastoma Treated With Irinotecan/Temozolomide/Dinutuximab/Granulocyte-Macrophage Colony-Stimulating Factor. *J Clin Oncol* 2023;41(3):508–16.
- [71] Loibner, H., et al., *Lack of alpha-gal glycosylation determinants expressed on antibody ch14.18 produced in Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells (APN311) Comparison to a ch14.18 variant produced in murine SP2/O cells*. 2014.
- [72] Chinuki Y, Morita E. Alpha-Gal-containing biologics and anaphylaxis. *Allergol Int* 2019;68(3):296–300.
- [73] Wiecek A, et al. Dinutuximab beta combined with chemotherapy in patients with relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma. *Front Oncol* 2023;13:1082771.
- [74] Olgun N, et al. Dinutuximab beta plus conventional chemotherapy for relapsed/refractory high-risk neuroblastoma: A single-center experience. *Front Oncol* 2022;12:1041443.
- [75] Simon T, et al. GPOH Guidelines for Diagnosis and First-line Treatment of Patients with Neuroblastic Tumors, update 2025. *Klin Padiatr* 2025;237(3):117–40.
- [76] Pasqualini C, et al. Chemo-Immunotherapy Rescue for High-Risk Neuroblastoma Patients With Progressive Disease Before High-Dose Chemotherapy: Real-World Data From the SACHA-France Study. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 2025;72(12):e32080.
- [77] Gray J, et al. BEACON-Immuno: Results of the dinutuximab beta (dB) randomization of the BEACON-Neuroblastoma phase 2 trial—A European Innovative Therapies for Children with Cancer (ITCC–International Society of Paediatric Oncology Europe Neuroblastoma Group (SIOPEN) trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2022;40(16). 10002–10002.
- [78] Lode HN, et al. Effect and Tolerance of N5 and N6 Chemotherapy Cycles in Combination with Dinutuximab Beta in Relapsed High-Risk Neuroblastoma Patients Who Failed at Least One Second-Line Therapy. *Cancers (Basel)* 2023;15(13).
- [79] Cheung NK, et al. Humanizing murine IgG3 anti-GD2 antibody m3F8 substantially improves antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity while retaining targeting in vivo. *Oncoimmunology* 2012;1(4):477–86.
- [80] Cheung IY, et al. Phase I trial of anti-GD2 monoclonal antibody hu3F8 plus GM-CSF: Impact of body weight, immunogenicity and anti-GD2 response on pharmacokinetics and survival. *Oncoimmunology* 2017;6(11):e1358331.
- [81] Kushner BH, et al. Humanized 3F8 Anti-GD2 Monoclonal Antibody Dosing With Granulocyte-Macrophage Colony-Stimulating Factor in Patients With Resistant Neuroblastoma: A Phase 1 Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol* 2018;4(12):1729–35.
- [82] Mora J, et al. The anti-GD2 monoclonal antibody naxitamab plus GM-CSF for relapsed or refractory high-risk neuroblastoma: a phase 2 clinical trial. *Nat Commun* 2025;16(1):1636.
- [83] Lode HN, et al. Dinutuximab Beta Versus Naxitamab in the Treatment of Relapsed/Refractory Neuroblastoma in Patients with Stable Disease, Minor Response or Partial Response and Disease in Bone or Bone Marrow: Systematic Review and Matching-Adjusted Indirect Comparison. *Cancers (Basel)* 2025;17(17).
- [84] Gamble LD, et al. Inhibition of polyamine synthesis and uptake reduces tumor progression and prolongs survival in mouse models of neuroblastoma. *Sci Transl Med* 2019;11(477).
- [85] Evangelou NF, et al. Polyamine Antagonist Therapies Inhibit Neuroblastoma Initiation and Progression. *Clin Cancer Res* 2016;22(17):4391–404.
- [86] Hogarty MD, et al. ODC1 is a critical determinant of MYCN oncogenesis and a therapeutic target in neuroblastoma. *Cancer Res* 2008;68(23):9735–45.
- [87] Macy ME, et al. A phase 2 randomized study of chemoimmunotherapy with or without eflornithine (DFMO) in relapsed/refractory neuroblastoma: A Children's Oncology Group (COG) report. *J Clin Oncol* 2025;43(16). 10001–10001.
- [88] Goldsmith KC, et al. Lorlatinib with or without chemotherapy in ALK-driven refractory/relapsed neuroblastoma: phase 1 trial results. *Nat Med* 2023;29(5):1092–102.
- [89] Cole KA, et al. Pediatric phase 2 trial of a WEE1 inhibitor, adavosertib (AZD1775), and irinotecan for relapsed neuroblastoma, medulloblastoma, and rhabdomyosarcoma. *Cancer* 2023;129(14):2245–55.
- [90] Gustafson WC, et al. Drugging MYCN through an allosteric transition in Aurora kinase A. *Cancer Cell* 2014;26(3):414–27.
- [91] Maris JM, et al. Initial testing of the aurora kinase A inhibitor MLN8237 by the Pediatric Preclinical Testing Program (PPTP). *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 2010;55(1):26–34.
- [92] Mossé YP, et al. A Phase II Study of Alisertib in Children with Recurrent/Refractory Solid Tumors or Leukemia: Children's Oncology Group Phase I and Pilot Consortium (ADV0921). *Clin Cancer Res* 2019;25(11):3229–38.
- [93] DuBois SG, et al. Phase II Trial of Alisertib in Combination with Irinotecan and Temozolomide for Patients with Relapsed or Refractory Neuroblastoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 2018;24(24):6142–9.
- [94] Bern C. Antitrypanosomal therapy for chronic Chagas' disease. *N Engl J Med* 2011;364(26):2527–34.
- [95] Saulnier Sholler GL, et al. Nifurtimox induces apoptosis of neuroblastoma cells in vitro and in vivo. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol* 2009;31(3):187–93.
- [96] Cabanillas Stanchi KM, et al. Nifurtimox reduces N-Myc expression and aerobic glycolysis in neuroblastoma. *Cancer Biol Ther* 2015;16(9):1353–63.
- [97] Eslin D, et al. A phase II trial of nifurtimox combined with topotecan and cyclophosphamide for refractory or relapsed neuroblastoma and medulloblastoma. *Int J Cancer* 2023;153(5):1026–34.
- [98] Flaadt T, et al. Anti-GD2 Antibody Dinutuximab Beta and Low-Dose Interleukin 2 After Haploidentical Stem-Cell Transplantation in Patients With Relapsed Neuroblastoma: A Multicenter, Phase I/II Trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2023;41(17):3135–48.
- [99] Seitz CM, et al. Immunomonitoring of Stage IV Relapsed Neuroblastoma Patients Undergoing Haploidentical Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplantation and Subsequent GD2 (ch14.18/CHO) Antibody Treatment. *Front Immunol* 2021;12:690467.
- [100] Lode HN, et al. Long-term, continuous infusion of single-agent dinutuximab beta for relapsed/refractory neuroblastoma: an open-label, single-arm, Phase 2 study. *Br J Cancer* 2023;129(11):1780–6.
- [101] Lode HN, et al. Fcγ Receptor Polymorphism in Patients with Relapsed/Refractory High-Risk Neuroblastoma Correlates with Outcomes in the SIOPEN Dinutuximab Beta Long-Term Infusion Trial. *Clin Cancer Res* 2025;31(17):3692–701.
- [102] Lode HN, et al. Randomized use of anti-GD2 antibody dinutuximab beta (DB) long-term infusion with and without subcutaneous interleukin-2 (scIL-2) in high-risk neuroblastoma patients with relapsed and refractory disease: Results from the SIOPEN LTI-trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2019;37(15). 10014–10014.
- [103] Mueller I, et al. Tolerability, response and outcome of high-risk neuroblastoma patients treated with long-term infusion of anti-GD. *MAbs* 2018;10(1):55–61.
- [104] Sadelain M, Brentjens R, Riviere I. The basic principles of chimeric antigen receptor design. *Cancer Discov* 2013;3(4):388–98.
- [105] Abramson JS, et al. Anti-CD19 CAR T Cells in CNS Diffuse Large-B-Cell Lymphoma. *N Engl J Med* 2017;377(8):783–4.
- [106] Pule MA, et al. Virus-specific T cells engineered to coexpress tumor-specific receptors: persistence and antitumor activity in individuals with neuroblastoma. *Nat Med* 2008;14(11):1264–70.
- [107] Louis CU, et al. Antitumor activity and long-term fate of chimeric antigen receptor-positive T cells in patients with neuroblastoma. *Blood* 2011;118(23):6050–6.
- [108] Park JR, et al. Adoptive transfer of chimeric antigen receptor re-directed cytolytic T lymphocyte clones in patients with neuroblastoma. *Mol Ther* 2007;15(4):825–33.
- [109] Straathof K, et al. Antitumor activity without on-target off-tumor toxicity of GD2-chimeric antigen receptor T cells in patients with neuroblastoma. *Sci Transl Med* 2020;12(571).
- [110] Wang J, et al. Chimeric Antigen Receptor 4SCAR-GD2-Modified T Cells Targeting High-Risk and Recurrent Neuroblastoma: A Phase II Multi-Center Trial in China. *Blood* 2017;130:3335.
- [111] Asgharzadeh S, et al. Clinical significance of tumor-associated inflammatory cells in metastatic neuroblastoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2012;30(28):3525–32.
- [112] Orentas RJ, et al. Identification of cell surface proteins as potential immunotherapy targets in 12 pediatric cancers. *Front Oncol* 2012;2:194.
- [113] Del Bufalo F, et al. GD2-CART01 for Relapsed or Refractory High-Risk Neuroblastoma. *N Engl J Med* 2023;388(14):1284–95.
- [114] Fischer-Riepe L, et al. Preclinical Development of CAR T Cells with Antigen-Inducible IL18 Enforcement to Treat GD2-Positive Solid Cancers. *Clin Cancer Res* 2024;30(16):3564–77.

- [115] Hirabayashi K, et al. Dual Targeting CAR-T Cells with Optimal Costimulation and Metabolic Fitness enhance Antitumor Activity and Prevent Escape in Solid Tumors. *Nat Cancer* 2021;2(9):904–18.
- [116] Quintarelli C, et al. Donor-derived GD2-specific CAR T cells in relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma. *Nat Med* 2025;31(3):849–60.
- [117] Heczey A, et al. Anti-GD2 CAR-NKT cells in relapsed or refractory neuroblastoma: updated phase 1 trial interim results. *Nat Med* 2023;29(6):1379–88.
- [118] Berko ER, et al. Frequency and Clinical Significance of Clonal and Subclonal Driver Mutations in High-Risk Neuroblastoma at Diagnosis: A Children's Oncology Group Study. *J Clin Oncol* 2025;43(14):1673–84.
- [119] Foster JH, et al. Activity of Crizotinib in Patients with ALK-Aberrant Relapsed/Refractory Neuroblastoma: A Children's Oncology Group Study (ADVL0912). *Clin Cancer Res* 2021;27(13):3543–8.
- [120] Fischer M, et al. Ceritinib in paediatric patients with anaplastic lymphoma kinase-positive malignancies: an open-label, multicentre, phase 1, dose-escalation and dose-expansion study. *Lancet Oncol* 2021;22(12):1764–76.
- [121] Sholler GLS, et al. Maintenance DFMO Increases Survival in High Risk Neuroblastoma. *Sci Rep* 2018;8(1):14445.
- [122] Cheung IY, et al. Survival Impact of Anti-GD2 Antibody Response in a Phase II Ganglioside Vaccine Trial Among Patients With High-Risk Neuroblastoma With Prior Disease Progression. *J Clin Oncol* 2021;39(3):215–26.
- [123] Klingel L, et al. Immune Response and Outcome of High-Risk Neuroblastoma Patients Immunized with Anti-Idiotypic Antibody Ganglidiomab: Results from Compassionate-Use Treatments. *Cancers (Basel)* 2022;14(23).
- [124] Caussa L, et al. Role of palliative radiotherapy in the management of metastatic pediatric neuroblastoma: a retrospective single-institution study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2011;79(1):214–9.
- [125] Paulino AC. Palliative radiotherapy in children with neuroblastoma. *Pedia Hematol Oncol* 2003;20(2):111–7.
- [126] Jazmati D, et al. Long-term follow-up of children with neuroblastoma receiving radiotherapy to metastatic lesions within the German Neuroblastoma Trials NB97 and NB 2004. *Strahl Onkol* 2021;197(8):683–9.
- [127] Jazmati D, et al. Proton Beam Therapy for Children With Neuroblastoma: Experiences From the Prospective KiProReg Registry. *Front Oncol* 2020;10:617506.
- [128] von Allmen D, et al. Impact of Extent of Resection on Local Control and Survival in Patients From the COG A3973 Study With High-Risk Neuroblastoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2017;35(2):208–16.
- [129] Holmes K, et al. Influence of Surgical Excision on the Survival of Patients With Stage 4 High-Risk Neuroblastoma: A Report From the HR-NBL1/SIOPEN Study. *J Clin Oncol* 2020;38(25):2902–15.
- [130] Dubbers M, et al. Retrospective analysis of relapsed abdominal high-risk neuroblastoma. *J Pedia Surg* 2018;53(3):558–66.
- [131] Desai AV, et al. Multimodality treatment for recurrent neuroblastoma in the central nervous system. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2023;70(4):e30227.
- [132] Conte B, et al. Intraoperative Radiation Therapy for Relapsed or Refractory High-Risk Neuroblastoma: A 27-Year Experience. *Pr Radiat Oncol* 2024;14(3):e226–32.
- [133] Hutchinson RJ, et al. 131-I-metaiodobenzylguanidine treatment in patients with refractory advanced neuroblastoma. *Am J Clin Oncol* 1992;15(3):226–32.
- [134] Klingebiel T, et al. Metaiodobenzylguanidine (mIBG) in treatment of 47 patients with neuroblastoma: results of the German Neuroblastoma Trial. *Med Pedia Oncol* 1991;19(2):84–8.
- [135] Lashford LS, et al. Phase I/II study of iodine 131 metaiodobenzylguanidine in chemoresistant neuroblastoma: a United Kingdom Children's Cancer Study Group investigation. *J Clin Oncol* 1992;10(12):1889–96.
- [136] Matthay KK, et al. Phase I dose escalation of 131I-metaiodobenzylguanidine with autologous bone marrow support in refractory neuroblastoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1998;16(1):229–36.
- [137] Matthay KK, et al. Phase II study on the effect of disease sites, age, and prior therapy on response to iodine-131-metaiodobenzylguanidine therapy in refractory neuroblastoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2007;25(9):1054–60.
- [138] Kang TI, et al. Targeted radiotherapy with submyeloablative doses of 131I-MIBG is effective for disease palliation in highly refractory neuroblastoma. *J Pedia Hematol Oncol* 2003;25(10):769–73.
- [139] DuBois SG, et al. Randomized Phase II Trial of MIBG Versus MIBG, Vincristine, and Irinotecan Versus MIBG and Vorinostat for Patients With Relapsed or Refractory Neuroblastoma: A Report From NANT Consortium. *J Clin Oncol* 2021;39(31):3506–14.
- [140] Cash T, et al. Phase I Study of (131)I-Metaiodobenzylguanidine With Dinutuximab +/- Vorinostat for Patients With Relapsed or Refractory Neuroblastoma: A New Approaches to Neuroblastoma Therapy Trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2025;43(22):2490–501.
- [141] Gray, J.C., et al., *Data from the MiNivAn trial*, in *ANR 2025 Conference Paper*. 2025: Washington DC.
- [142] Gains JE, et al. A phase IIa trial of molecular radiotherapy with 177-lutetium DOTATATE in children with primary refractory or relapsed high-risk neuroblastoma. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2020;47(10):2348–57.
- [143] Kramer K, et al. Neuroblastoma metastatic to the central nervous system. The Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center Experience and A Literature Review. *Cancer* 2001;91(8):1510–9.
- [144] Matthay KK, et al. Central nervous system metastases in neuroblastoma: radiologic, clinical, and biologic features in 23 patients. *Cancer* 2003;98(1):155–65.
- [145] Mastronuzzi A, et al. Central Nervous System Metastasis in Neuroblastoma: From Three Decades Clinical Experience to New Considerations in the Immunotherapy Era. *Cancers (Basel)* 2022;14(24).
- [146] Berlanga P, et al. Central nervous system relapse in high-risk stage 4 neuroblastoma: The HR-NBL1/SIOPEN trial experience. *Eur J Cancer* 2021;144:1–8.
- [147] Kramer K, et al. Compartmental intrathecal radioimmunotherapy: results for treatment for metastatic CNS neuroblastoma. *J Neurooncol* 2010;97(3):409–18.
- [148] Yerrabelli RS, et al. IntraOmmaya compartmental radioimmunotherapy using (131)I-omburtamab-pharmacokinetic modeling to optimize therapeutic index. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2021;48(4):1166–77.
- [149] Croog VJ, et al. Whole neuraxis irradiation to address central nervous system relapse in high-risk neuroblastoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2010;78(3):849–54.
- [150] Luo LY, et al. Reduced-dose craniospinal irradiation for central nervous system relapsed neuroblastoma. *Pedia Blood Cancer* 2020;67(9):e28364.
- [151] Pearson ADJ, et al. Second Paediatric Strategy Forum for anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK) inhibition in paediatric malignancies: ACCELERATE in collaboration with the European Medicines Agency with the participation of the Food and Drug Administration. *Eur J Cancer* 2021;157:198–213.
- [152] Moreno L, et al. Accelerating drug development for neuroblastoma - New Drug Development Strategy: an Innovative Therapies for Children with Cancer, European Network for Cancer Research in Children and Adolescents and International Society of Paediatric Oncology Europe Neuroblastoma project. *Expert Opin Drug Discov* 2017;12(8):801–11.
- [153] Moreno L, et al. Accelerating drug development for neuroblastoma: Summary of the Second Neuroblastoma Drug Development Strategy forum from Innovative Therapies for Children with Cancer and International Society of Paediatric Oncology Europe Neuroblastoma. *Eur J Cancer* 2020;136:52–68.