



# **NUT CARCINOMA IN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS - STANDARD CLINICAL PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS**

---

**DISCLAIMER**

These European Standard Clinical Practice (ESCP) guidance documents were produced by the relevant tumor group or specialist committee as recommendations on current best practice. The ESCP guidance documents are not clinical trial protocols. This ESCP document is NOT based a randomised or prospective study.

The interpretation and responsibility of the use of ESCP guidance documents lies fully with the user who retains full responsibility for the use of these guidance documents and user's actions and (treatment) decisions based thereon, such as, but without limitation thereto: checking and prescribing certain doses, checking prescriptions, etc. A user should never base his/her decision solely on the content of these guidance documents and should always check any other relevant medical information that is available and make appropriate use of all relevant medical information.

These guidance documents have been made publicly available by the European Society of Paediatric Oncology (SIOP) Europe and the European Reference Network for Paediatric Oncology (ERN PaedCan). It is the responsibility of the user who downloads these documents to make sure that:

- their use within the Paediatric Clinical Unit / Hospital is approved according to the local clinical governance procedures;
- appropriate document control measures are in place to ensure that the most up to date locally approved versions are considered;
- any anomalies or discrepancies within the documents are immediately brought to the attention of the relevant special interest group chair and the European Clinical Study Group (ESCG) who has developed the ESCP guidance document.

Every care has been taken whilst preparing these documents to ensure that they are free of errors. Nonetheless, SIOP Europe and ERN PaedCan cannot be held liable for possible errors or mistakes in these guidance documents, nor can SIOP Europe and ERN PaedCan be held liable for any kind of damage resulting out of the use of these guidance documents.

**TITLE: NUT CARCINOMA IN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS**

Document version: 5 (March 2022)

**This document has been developed by EXPeRT members and collaborators:**

**Working Group of this recommendation** (alphabetic order):

Tal Ben-Ami

Ines Brecht

Andrea Ferrari

Giulia Fichera

Tim Flaadt

Brice Fresneau

Ulrich M. Lauer

Lauriane Lemelle

Antoine Moya-Plana

Daniel Orbach

Jelena Roganovic

Dominik T Schneider

Aurore Surun

Beate Timmermann

Christian Vokuhl

**External advisors:**

S Bolle – Radiation Oncologist – Gustave Roussy - France

Steven G. DuBois, Pediatrician – Dana-Farber/Boston Children's Cancer and Blood Disorders Center

Elizabeth Fox – paediatrician - St. Jude Children's Research Hospital, Memphis, USA

Carlos Rodriguez-Galindo – Pediatrician – St. Jude Children's Research Hospital, Memphis, USA

**EXPeRT members (02/2022):**

President: Ines Brecht

Vice-president: Daniel Orbach

Secretary: Serena Mancini

**Board Members:**

Tal Ben-Ami  
Ewa Bien  
Gianni Bisogno  
Andrea Ferrari  
Jan Godzinski  
Yves Reguerre  
Nuno Jorge dos Reis Farinha  
Jelena Roganovic  
Dominik T. Schneider  
Calogero Virgone

**Ordinary members**

Stefano Chiaravalli  
Teresa Stachowicz-Stencel  
Giovanni Cecchetto  
Bernadette Brennan  
Rodica Voichita Cosnarovici  
Monica Désirée Dragomir  
Ricardo Lopez Almaraz  
Apostolos Pourtsidis  
Gustaf Osterlundh  
Maja Cesen  
Marko Kavčič  
Alexandra Kolenova  
Jelena Rascon  
Kata Martinova  
Dragana Janic  
Malgorzata Krawczyk  
Anna Synakiewicz  
Michael Abele  
Sabine Sarnacki  
Brice Fresneau  
Martin Ebinger  
Udo Kontny  
Felicita Hippert  
Peter Vorwerk

---

Nuno Jorge dos Reis Farinha  
Samuele Naviglio  
Terwisscha van Scheltinga  
Bajciova Viera  
Miranda Dierselhuis  
Monika Sparber-Sauer  
Sam Behjati  
Luca Bergamaschi  
Konrad Haug  
Michaela Kuhlen  
Hans Christiansen  
Antje Redlich  
Maria Kourti  
Daniela Di Carlo  
Charlotte Rigaud  
Paraskevi Panagopoulou  
Gabriela Guillén Burrieza  
Denis Kachanov  
Coralie Mallebranche  
Charikleia Kelaidi  
Evgenia Papakonstantinou  
Lucas Matthyssens

---

**Table of contents**

<b>1. Background and rationale .....</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1.1 Summary .....	2
1.1.2 Background.....	3
<b>2. Methodology .....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>3. Patient group.....</b>	<b>7</b>
3.3.1 Diagnostic Criteria.....	7
3.3.2 Imaging.....	7
<i>Full clinical evaluation is necessary in addition to imaging studies [Level V; Grade A]. An endoscopic evaluation (like pan-endoscopy for H&amp;N sites) depending on site of primary tumour and suspect for invasion of neighboring structures may be appropriate [Level IV; Grade C].</i> .....	7
3.3.3 Histopathology .....	9
3.3.4 Molecular pathology .....	10
3.3.5 Additional assessments .....	10
<b>4. Treatment details.....</b>	<b>10</b>
4.1.1 General considerations .....	10
4.1.2 Chemotherapy.....	11
4.1.3 Local treatment (surgery, radiotherapy) .....	11
4.1.4 Targeted therapy .....	12
<b>5. Assessments.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>6. Summary of known adverse events associated with treatment recommendation .....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>6. Supportive treatment .....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>7. Genetic considerations .....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>8. Follow-up.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>9. Reference list .....</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>Appendix 1 – Molecular mechanisms of NUTM1 and BRD4 .....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>Appendix 2 – Diagnosis and treatment flowchart – EXPeRT group proposal .....</b>	<b>22</b>

---

## 1. Background and rationale

### 1.1.1 Summary

Pediatric very rare tumors (VRT) constitute an extremely heterogeneous group of neoplasms. Some of them are typical of pediatric age, while other more commonly arise during adulthood and only rarely develop in children. Using the definition “*any solid malignancy or borderline tumor characterized by an annual incidence < 2/million children < 18 years old*” the European Cooperative Study Group for Pediatric Rare Tumors (EXPeRT) has initially identified a number of pediatric VRT<sup>1</sup>. Due to the low number of patients, it is very difficult - or even impossible - to conduct clinical trials on them, and this makes it hard to reach evidence-based treatment guidelines. Consequently, the treatment of patients with VRT is often individualized.

#### **Background:**

*NUT* carcinoma (NC) is a rare and highly aggressive tumor occurring mainly in adolescents and young adults (AYA), defined by the presence of the *NUTM1* rearrangement. The incidence remains unknown, likely due to frequently undiagnosed or misdiagnosed cases. The first confirmed case was diagnosed in Japan in 1991, where the translocation t(15;19) was found in a thymic carcinoma<sup>2</sup>. However, only recently in 2004 the disease was defined by screening undifferentiated and poorly differentiated childhood and adolescent carcinomas for the *NUTM1* translocation<sup>3</sup>. NC mainly arises in midline structures (head, neck, and thorax), but other various organs may be affected, such as the lungs, bladder, pancreas, kidney, salivary glands, central nervous system, or bone. Patients usually present at an advanced stage of disease, with a rapidly growing mass that displays aggressive radiological feature such as destructive and infiltrative growth. Given the rarity of these tumors, no standardized recommendations for diagnosis and therapeutic management are available. The management strategy usually combines prolonged conventional combination chemotherapy, local surgery, and radiotherapy (RT). Despite intensive multimodal approaches, the overall prognosis is extremely poor (in particular for tumors with location within the thorax), with a median survival ranging from 6.5 to 9.5 months, due to the frequent resistance to chemotherapy and the early and rapid tumor progression following conventional therapy. In this context, new targeted therapies have been developed, including bromodomain (BRD) or HDAC (histone deacetylases) inhibitors, with some promising preliminary data, but preferably should be delivered in the context of prospective trials (if available).

#### **Objective:**

To establish internationally harmonized consensus recommendations for the diagnosis and treatment of children and adolescents with NC (“Standard of care recommendations for children with VRT”).

### 1.1.2 Background

The *Nuclear protein of the testis* (NUT) carcinoma (NC) has been recently defined as a rare and aggressive tumor, associated with *NUTM1* rearrangement. Firstly described in 1991<sup>2,4</sup>, NC was originally named as “midline carcinoma” because of propensity for origin in the midline structures including head, neck, and mediastinum. However, it can be found in various other organs, such as the lungs, bladder, pancreas, kidney, central nervous system, bone, or salivary glands, and the primary tumor is actually strictly lateralized in 2/3 of cases<sup>5-9</sup>. NC is an exceptionally rare cancer with unknown incidence, although probably underdiagnosed due to the absence of any specific clinical and histological features<sup>10</sup>. The histologic appearance of NC is nonspecific showing overlap with the histology of other poorly differentiated or undifferentiated tumors or small blue round cell tumors, such as Ewing sarcoma, olfactory neuroblastoma, and undifferentiated squamous cell carcinoma. Although first described in adolescents and young adults, NC has subsequently been reported in adults, and can actually occur at any age, even though it is extremely rare in young children<sup>7,11,12</sup>. Due to the rarity of the disease, no epidemiological studies of etiologic factors have been conducted. Nevertheless, no predisposition factors, either genetic, environmental or viral, have been reported to date<sup>12,13</sup>. NC classically shows an aggressive behavior with advanced locoregional invasion and distant metastases at diagnosis<sup>5</sup>. Despite initial and temporary response to chemotherapy, rapid tumor progression is often observed after a short period of time. Therefore, NC portends an extremely poor prognosis, despite an aggressive multimodality management, with an overall survival (OS) not exceeding 10 months in published series<sup>5,7,10,14-17</sup>. In a recent review of 141 patients from the international NC registry ([www.NMCRRegistry.org](http://www.NMCRRegistry.org)) published by Chau *et al.*, the 2-year OS and event-free survival (EFS) rates for all patients combined were only 22% [95%CI: 15-30%] and 15% [95%CI: 9-22%], respectively. The study reported 16 long-term survivors (i.e., 11%), defined as living at least 3 years. Adverse prognostic factors after univariate analysis were: age at diagnosis  $\geq 18$  years, thoracic primary tumor site, *BRD4-NUTM1* fusion transcript, lymph node involvement or metastases at diagnosis, incomplete surgery and absence of tumor response to chemotherapy<sup>18</sup>. Thus, Chau *et al.* described 3 different prognostic groups: A/ non-thoracic primary with *BRD3-* or *NSD3-NUTM1* rearrangement (OS: 36.5 months [95%CI: 12.5 months-upper bound not reported]), whose localized nature and small size (< 6 cm) more often allow complete surgical resection; B/ non-thoracic primary with *BRD4-NUTM1* rearrangement (OS: 10 months [95%CI: 7-14.6 months]); and C/ thoracic primary regardless of the fusion transcript (OS: 4 months [95%CI: 3.5-5.6 months]), with no reported survivors<sup>18</sup>.

Histologically, the tumor presents as poorly differentiated to un-differentiated carcinoma, with possible focal squamous differentiation<sup>19-22</sup>. Because there are no specific features that distinguish of NC from other neoplasms, misdiagnoses are frequent, and a definitive diagnosis requires the demonstration of NUT translocation by either immunohistochemical staining or molecular analyses<sup>20,22</sup>.

Like other pediatric VRT, NC in children and adolescents presents diagnostic and therapeutic challenges for pathologists, ad surgeons, as well as radiation, pediatric and medical oncologists. Since specific standardized guidelines are lacking, management decisions are currently made at a case-by-case level, basically combining prolonged conventional chemotherapy, local surgery and RT. Beyond that,



---

understanding of the underlying molecular disorders in NC has suggested several potential therapeutic targets, such as histone deacetylase (HDAC) or bromodomain (BRD) inhibitors, also known as bromodomain and extra-terminal domain (BET) inhibitors<sup>23–25</sup>, but exclusively based on preliminary data at present. These therapies preferably should be delivered in the context of prospective trials (if available).

Here, we present the internationally harmonized consensus recommendations for the diagnosis and treatment of children and adolescents with NC established by the European Cooperative Study Group for Pediatric Rare Tumors (EXPeRT).

## 2. Methodology

According to the Consensus Conference Standard Operating Procedure methodology, the levels of evidence can be classified from levels of evidence I to V and grades of recommendation A to E (*Table 1*)<sup>26</sup>.

Levels of evidence	
I	Evidence from at least one large randomized, controlled trial of good methodological quality (low potential for bias) or meta-analyses of well-conducted randomized trials without heterogeneity
II	Small, randomized trials or large randomized trials with a suspicion of bias (lower methodological quality) or meta-analyses of such trials or of trials with demonstrated heterogeneity
III	Prospective cohort studies
IV	Retrospective cohort studies or case-control studies
V	Studies without control group, case reports, expert opinions
Grades of recommendation	
A	Strong evidence for efficacy with a substantial clinical benefit, strongly recommended
B	Strong or moderate evidence for efficacy but with a limited clinical benefit, generally recommended
C	Insufficient evidence for efficacy or benefit does not outweigh the risk or the disadvantages (adverse events, costs, ...), optional
D	Moderate evidence against efficacy or for adverse outcome, generally not recommended
E	Strong evidence against efficacy or for adverse outcome, never recommended

**Table 1.** Levels of evidence and grades of recommendation (adapted from the Infectious Disease Society of America-United States Public Health Service Grading System)

EXPeRT members recognized that due to the rarity of this tumor, no evidence of Level I to II exists. Therefore, recommendations for VRTs are developed based on the evidence collected from some published prospective studies (Level III), but more frequently retrospective series (Level IV), case reports (Level V) and personal expertise (Level V). In addition, the “strength” of recommendations will be categorized by additional grading (Grade A to E).

To identify tumors that need shared recommendations, EXPeRT members designed the following procedure:

- Identification of the tumor of interest on the base of its relevance, and previous EXPeRT experience (i.e., data analysis and publication). Tumors should be classified as VRT (i.e. < 2/100000/inhabitants/

---

year), not already analyzed in previous Expo-r-Net project (pleuropneumoblastoma, pancreatoblastoma, thymic tumors, rare sarcomas), not included in specific international protocols and frequent enough to be of interest<sup>1</sup>.

- Designation of two main coordinators for each VRT based on their experience (data analysis, publications, personal experience).

Coordinators must:

- Analyze the medical literature and select the relevant papers.
- Propose a series of recommendations in a form of a first draft of recommendations.
- Identify the main diagnostic and therapeutic problems for the designated VRT. The first drafts will be shared and discussed, along with the relevant publications, into the selected EXPeRT group of PARTNER members and annotated.
- A mature version of recommendations will be produced, taking into account proposals from the group of selected EXPeRT members.
- The annotated draft will be then proposed to external experts identified by the coordinators based on a recognized experience on the tumor (pathologist, pediatric oncologist, medical oncologist, radiation oncologist, surgeon, ...).
- The final version will be validated by the whole PARTNER group. In case of remaining disagreements, a vote will be done, during a physical consensus meeting, to agree on a final consensus.
- Validated version will be submitted for publication in an open-source peer review journal.

The final document including recommendations will be available on EXPeRT website.

**NB:** These guidelines may change over time according to new data available. Local clinicians remain responsible for the care of their patients. The EXPeRT members are not responsible for results or complications related to their use. If necessary, medical discussions are possible with EXPeRT members of these groups via the expert website: <https://vrt.cineca.it>

---

### 3. Patient group

#### 3.3.1 Diagnostic Criteria

As mentioned above, NC may occur at any age, but mainly in adolescents and young adults, and it remains only exceptionally reported during infancy<sup>6,11,12</sup>. Thus, the median age at diagnosis may vary considerably depending on published series, ranging from 16 to 38 years (range 0 - 80 years)<sup>5,7,10,14–17,20,27–29</sup>. Recent retrospective largest series (including respectively 119 and 124 cases of NC) reported a median age of onset around 23 years<sup>14,15</sup>. Male and female are equally affected. Clinical manifestations are not specific and depend on the location and extent of the tumor, with mass-related symptoms. General and non-specific symptoms are also noticed, such as fever, weight loss, or asthenia<sup>22</sup>. NC classically shows aggressive clinical and radiological features, with early advanced locoregional invasion, and lymph node involvement or distant metastases at diagnosis<sup>5,10,11,14,22,30</sup>. When reported, the main sites of metastases include lymph nodes, bone, bone marrow, and pleura<sup>5,31–33</sup>. Despite the historical name of “midline carcinoma”<sup>30</sup>, NC can arise in various location and organs, although it is mainly reported in the lung, mediastinum or head and neck. Thus, the recent World Health Organization (WHO) classification recently renamed it as “NUT carcinoma”<sup>34</sup>.

Appropriate clinical and imaging studies at diagnosis are useful to assess disease stage and extent of locoregional and metastatic spread, and to discriminate from other differential diagnoses. Histology is mandatory for the diagnosis of NC, including immunolabelling by using anti-NUT antibodies and molecular testing for *NUTM1* rearrangement since histology by itself is insufficient for definitive histopathological diagnosis because of the great overlap with other poorly differentiated or undifferentiated carcinoma<sup>22,35,36</sup> [Level V; Grade A].

**Discussion by a Multidisciplinary Team (MDT)** is highly recommended early in the assessment process, and before any invasive procedure (including biopsy) [Level V; Grade A].

#### 3.3.2 Imaging

**Full clinical evaluation** is necessary in addition to imaging studies [Level V; Grade A]. An endoscopic evaluation (like pan-endoscopy for H&N sites) depending on site of primary tumour and level of concern for invasion of neighboring structures may be appropriate [Level IV; Grade C].

##### 3.3.2.1 Primary tumor and its loco-regional tumor extension:

- **Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)** and/or **computed tomography (CT)**, depending on the tumor location, is essential to define the precise tumor site and extent with respect to adjacent structures and its operability [Level V; Grade A].

Primary thoracic NC usually presents as a solid mass associated with enlarged hilar and mediastinal lymphadenopathy and pleural involvement (i.e., effusion thickening or pleural nodules)<sup>37,38</sup>. Tumors arising in the sinonasal tract (which represents the main site for head and

neck NC) present as a space-occupying mass with locoregional destruction and invasion, including cervical lymph node involvement<sup>38</sup>.

Radiological findings (on both CT scan or MRI) are classically nonspecific and may mimic various pathological entities, such as lymphomas or other malignant solid tumors<sup>39–42</sup>. However, the common imaging characteristics frequently reported in the literature include a low-density mass with heterogeneous enhancement and central necrosis on CT scan, and T1 hypo-intensity and low-level T2 hyper-intensity with heterogeneous enhancement on MRI<sup>30,39,41–43</sup>. In addition, it classically shows aggressive and invasive features. Contrast-enhanced CT scan was considered the reference for the initial staging assessment. However, MRI provides useful additional information, particularly regarding vascular invasion, or - for head and neck tumors - bone marrow extension, perineural involvement, and skull base invasion<sup>39</sup>. For head and neck tumors, MRI represents the gold standard for diagnosis and correct staging<sup>13</sup>. For sinonasal/midface tumor assessment, combination of MRI (for soft tissue, orbital, dura and brain parenchyma) with CT scan (for maxillary bone, skull base and lymph nodes) is recommended [Level V; Grade B]. Ultrasound to guide lymph nodes cytoaspiration in case of doubt could help to confirm lymph nodes invasion [Level IV; Grade B].

### 3.3.2.2 Distant metastasis

The initial staging assessment must be systematically extensive, as metastatic disease is commonly present at diagnosis and may be widespread. It should include:

- **Chest CT**
- **<sup>18</sup>F-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/CT (FDG-PET/CT)** has been proposed in various case reports as the imaging modality of choice for distant metastatic assessment<sup>39–41,44–49</sup>. Potential pitfalls include low FDG-avidity due to tumoral necrosis. However, FDG-avidity on PET/CT directly correlated with tumor burden on CT as well as the clinical disease status on published case reports<sup>41,44</sup>. Based on this literature, and despite the lack of cohort studies specifically assessing the additional value of FDG-PET/CT to standard imaging, we recommend performing it whenever possible, both for the initial staging as well as for monitoring treatment response [Level V; Grade B]. The value of whole-body PET/MRI is not defined yet [Level V; Grade C].
- **Other examinations** may be considered, guided by the clinical presentation and initial symptoms, particularly brain MRI in the presence of neurological signs [Level V; Grade A]. Bone X-rays or CT to understand bone stability to define “palliative radiotherapy” may be indicated if bone metastases are present [Level IV; Grade C]. Bone marrow trephine biopsies and cytoaspirations could be discussed in case of clinical concern or equivocal findings by PET [Level IV; Grade C].

### 3.3.3 Histopathology

When NC is suspected - based on clinical and radiological findings - **histology** must be *obtained* [Level V; Grade A]. Due to the lack of typical morphological characteristics, with a great overlap with other neoplasms, NC may be misdiagnosed on standard immunohistochemistry analyses. The most common description on hematoxylin and eosin staining is a poorly differentiated or undifferentiated carcinoma with focal squamous differentiation<sup>12,19–22</sup>. High grade features are classically present, including abundant mitoses, apoptotic bodies, and tumor necrosis. Similarly, the immunophenotypic profile of NC is non-specific and may include, in variable frequency and intensity, the expression of epithelial markers, such as cytokeratins AE1/AE3, or epithelial membrane antigen (EMA, MUC1); strong and diffuse p63 immunoreactivity is frequently reported, however neither always present nor specific to NC. In contrast, expression of neuroendocrine markers (synaptophysin, chromogranin, TTF1), desmin and myogenin, and lymphoid markers, is usually negative.

Due to the difficulties of the histopathological diagnosis, the definitive diagnosis is confirmed either on the demonstration of *NUTM1* rearrangement by either immunohistochemical staining or molecular analyses<sup>20</sup> [Level IV; Grade A]. Immunolabelling using anti-NUT antibodies provides a highly accurate easy to use and rapid test to guide the diagnosis. According to Haack's study, the presence of diffuse and strong nuclear reactivity, with a cut-off value of 50% or more (according to the WHO), can confirm the diagnosis with a sensitivity of 87% and a specificity of 100%<sup>34,50,51</sup>. Weak cytoplasmic staining may be present in benign and malignant epithelial cells, representing probable non-specific background staining, but does not interfere with diagnostic work-up in the absence of nuclear expression. Moreover, caution should be made on interpretation - particularly in the case of a mediastinal tumor - considering that NUT immunostaining may be focally seen in some germ cell tumors (mainly dysgerminomas), probably due to expression of normal NUTM1. Nevertheless, in germ cell tumors, the nuclear reactivity is consistently weak and focal, in contrast with NC. Furthermore, other tumors with a translocation involving the *NUTM1* gene and a positive nuclear staining for NUT-like a subset of sarcomas have to be considered as differential diagnosis. In addition, morphological characteristics that may help to differentiate these two entities as NC may include (but not always) focal squamous differentiation. Finally, if any doubt remains, additional immunostaining including germ cell markers (OCT3/4, SALL4) - which are consistently negative in NC - should be performed<sup>20</sup>. In the presence of poorly differentiated or undifferentiated carcinoma, anti-NUT staining should be extensively used, regardless of the patient's age or history, as histological and immunophenotypic profile (apart from anti-NUT antibody) are not pathognomonic<sup>22,35,36</sup>.

Due to the non-specificity of NC histology, many differential diagnoses may be suggested, depending on the location, such as Ewing sarcoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, undifferentiated carcinomas (including undifferentiated carcinoma nasopharyngeal type (UCNT) or salivary gland), desmoplastic small round cell tumors and all other tumors with a small cell morphology. Molecular biology, searching for specific transcripts, constitutes a valuable tool to exclude some of these diagnoses<sup>52</sup>. Expert pathology for second opinion or central pathology review are essential in this rare tumor.

### 3.3.4 Molecular pathology

Contrary to most other carcinomas, NC is characterized by a simple karyotype, often with a single cytogenetic aberration, i.e. translocation involving *NUTM1* (the main t(15;19)(q14;p13.1) resulting in a *BRD4/NUT* fusion transcript)<sup>7</sup>. The presence of a fusion transcript and the *NUTM1* partner is confirmed by molecular analyses (fluorescence in situ hybridization [FISH], reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain reaction [RT-PCR], or next-generation sequencing [NGS]). In about 2/3 of cases, *NUTM1* (chromosome 15) is fused to *BRD4* (chromosome 19). Description of the molecular mechanism leading to oncogenesis of *NUTM1* and *BRD4* is represented in *Appendix 1*. Fusion transcript involving *BRD3*, which is a homologue of *BRD4*, has also been reported. More rarely, other variants have been observed, such as *NSD3*, *ZNF532*, *ZNF592*<sup>40,53–56</sup>. At present, translocations involving *BRD3/4* and *NUTM1* are considered specific for NC<sup>11</sup>. However, other tumors involving the *NUTM1* gene have also been reported<sup>56,57</sup>.

In addition, due to the difficulty of diagnosing NC and the great overlap with other tumor types, negative results for transcripts of other cancers (such as *EWSR1* transcripts for Ewing sarcoma, or *SYT-SSX* transcripts for synovial sarcoma) are often a valuable tool to exclude various differential diagnoses<sup>52</sup>.

### 3.3.5 Additional assessments

- Before chemotherapy, a classic **laboratory work-up** (full blood count, liver and renal function tests), tumor markers alpha1-fetoprotein and  $\beta$  human chorionic gonadotropin to exclude secreting germ cell tumors and **specific evaluations** depending on chemotherapeutic agents (e.g., audiometry, echocardiography) are required, in order to limit side effects [Level V; Grade A].
- Before RT in the head and neck area, **detailed dental assessment** including clinical evaluation, dental panoramic radiography  $\pm$  dental scan is necessary<sup>58,59</sup>. Depending on the tumor site, **endocrine testing, vision, hearing** analyses could be necessary [Level V; Grade C].
- For thoracic tumors, **pulmonary function tests or cardiac specific evaluations** may be required depending on the organs included in the irradiation fields such as echocardiography [Level V; Grade A].
- **Fertility preservation options** are not necessary before surgery and/or locoregional RT [Level V; Grade A] but could be considered before chemotherapy taking into account the poor prognosis of NC.

## 4. Treatment details

### 4.1.1 General considerations

- **MDT** consultation is mandatory at diagnosis and during therapy [Level IV; Grade A].

- Patients/families should be invited to participate in a **prospective clinical trial** when available, with **data collection** in national, NMC registry or international databases to improve the knowledge of this disease [Level IV; Grade B].
- Treatment of NC usually combines, through a **multimodal and aggressive approach**, prolonged conventional combination chemotherapy, local surgery, and RT, considering that NC is usually refractory to conventional chemotherapy and thus with the risk of early tumor progression on-treatment or following prolonged interruption of systemic therapy.

The treatment flowchart proposed by the EXPeRT group is detailed in *Appendix 2*.

#### 4.1.2 Chemotherapy

NC is usually poorly sensitive to chemotherapy. Thus, while response at the onset of systemic therapy is common, NC becomes rapidly refractory and tumor progression occurs early on-treatment in most cases<sup>60</sup>. According to the literature, chemotherapy response rates do not exceed 40% and are only transient, regardless of the chemotherapeutic regimen used<sup>5,10,13</sup>. No consensus has been reached about the optimal chemotherapy regimens. Anthracyclines, cisplatin, alkylating agents, vincristine, gemcitabine, vinorelbine, and taxanes-based combinations have been reported, but with only transient response in almost all cases<sup>13,31,60–63</sup>. Storck *et al.* suggested that applying “Ewing sarcoma- like protocols” with multimodal chemotherapy combining alkylating agents, anthracycline ± cisplatin in association with surgery and RT could be a valuable option for patients with NC<sup>63</sup>. Other case reports describe favorable outcome for patients treated with sarcoma-like approach, with either dose-intensified VDC/IE (vincristine-doxorubicin-cyclophosphamide/ifosfamide-etoposide) or VAI/PAI (vincristine-adriamycin-ifosfamide/cisplatin-adriamycin-ifosfamide)<sup>8,63,64</sup>. In all cases, caution should be made and pre-chemotherapeutic evaluation is required, as well as total cumulative dose monitoring, in order to reduce acute and long-term side effects. Chemotherapy may be considered as first-line treatment (neo-adjuvant chemotherapy) for unresectable or metastatic tumor, or in the case of resectable but locally advanced tumor to avoid mutilating surgery, and rapidly followed by local treatment (i.e. 3 courses) [Level IV; Grade B]. Though the precise duration is poorly defined, adjuvant post-irradiation chemotherapy is recommended, for a total of 9 to 12 courses [Level IV; Grade B], but limiting the cumulative dosages of doxorubicin to a maximum of 400-500 mg/m<sup>2</sup> if myocardial irradiation is necessary [Level IV; Grade C]. For first-line resected tumors, concomitant chemotherapy to RT may be discussed, if possible [Level IV; Grade B]. Finally, maintenance chemotherapy could be considered for metastatic disease [Level V; Grade C]. As far as possible, these treatments should therefore be delivered in the context of prospective clinical trials (if available) [Level V; Grade B].

#### 4.1.3 Local treatment (surgery, radiotherapy)

Local treatment appears to play an important role in disease control according to several studies, as the extent of surgical resection and initial RT have been reported as independently predictive of OS and EFS<sup>10,14,16</sup>. Nevertheless, the study based on retrospective data of 119 patients among 64 publications, showed that chemotherapy and RT were associated with improved survival, but not surgery<sup>15</sup>. Considering the poor chemosensitivity of NC with a high-risk of early progression on-treatment or after



systemic therapy interruption, local therapy remains a cornerstone of the treatment strategy. Indeed, in localized NC, a complete microscopic surgical resection should be attempted whenever and as soon as possible, followed by irradiation of the primary tumor and involved lymph nodes area<sup>16</sup> [Level IV; Grade B]. For head and neck tumors, a systematic neck dissection might be considered, even if N0 [Level V; Grade C].

Given the rarity of the disease, and the complexity of the surgery due to the frequent high locoregional invasion, and the possible need of several surgical teams (head and neck surgeon, neurosurgeon, visceral surgeon, ...), referral to a specialized surgical oncology center is highly recommended [Level V; Grade A]. However, given the poor prognosis and the high metastatic risk of this aggressive malignancy, surgical resection with oncologic margins of the head and neck NC (usually a locally advanced sinonasal primary) may be associated with a significant postoperative morbidity and a severe alteration of quality of life (such as orbital clearance, total maxillectomy or skull base resection). The benefit-risk balance of this local treatment has to be well evaluated in correlation to external radiotherapy [Level V; Grade A].

Considering RT, as a general principle, careful treatment planning is necessary. The use of three-dimensional highly conformal intensity modulated techniques is highly recommended. Considering the age of the patients, the high dose required, and the location of the tumors, proton therapy may have advantages [Level V; Grade A]. There is no consensus regarding radiation doses due to the rarity of the disease. Radiotherapy dose needs to be adapted based upon extent of local disease (margins, extracapsular extension, perineural & intravascular extension) as in adult patients with epithelial carcinomas. Consequently, high doses between 50 to 70 Gy are generally reported<sup>15,65</sup> [Level IV; Grade B]. Irradiation is recommended on the extended primary tumor site and any involved lymph node area [Level V; Grade B]. In case of exclusive radiotherapy, 65-70 Gy on primary tumor and adenopathy is recommended, with 50 – 54 Gy for elective node irradiation [Level V; Grade B]<sup>15</sup>. Protontherapy could be used provided that this technique will not delay the beginning of the RT.

A systematic lymph node irradiation should be considered in the absence of a pathologically confirmed N0 situation following complete cervical lymph node exploration for head and neck tumors [Level V; Grade C]. Depending on the location of the tumor, the elective lymph nodes should include bilateral retropharyngeal and the level II-V lymph nodes.

#### 4.1.4 Targeted therapy

In the context of poor response to conventional treatment, several targeted therapies have been suggested, based on a better understanding of the underlying molecular disorders in NC and preclinical data reporting objective responses to BRD or HDAC inhibitors, by inducing epithelial differentiation and arrest of proliferation of NC cells<sup>23–25,66–69</sup>. Mechanisms of action of BRD and HDAC inhibitors are schematized in *Appendix 1*<sup>70,71</sup>.

Several phase I/II trials have been conducted with BRD inhibitors<sup>72</sup>. As for example:

- RO6870810 (NCT01987362): partial response in 2/8 patients with NC, stable disease in 5/8. Median Progression Free Survival was 94 days (range, 15-783)<sup>73</sup>
- Molibresib GSK525762 (NCT01587703): partial response in 2/19 patients with NC<sup>28,74</sup>.
- Birabresib OTX105/MK-8628 (NCT02259114): partial response in 3/10 patients with NC, stable disease in 3/10 with duration of 1.4 to 8.4 months<sup>75,76</sup>
- ODM-207(NCT03035591): Four patients with NC with no tumor response. One out of four patients with NMC had SD as their best response (during 16 weeks), the other patients had clinical progression prior to their first disease assessment.<sup>77</sup>
- BI 894999 (NCT02516553): study reached its completion date on Nov23, 2021; publication of results is expected in 2022.

Fimepinostat (CUDC-907), a dual HDAC and PI3K inhibitor, has been evaluated in a recent phase I trial (NCT02307240), but the results are not yet available. However, several case reports have shown transient responses<sup>23,78</sup>. Several trials have argued for a potential benefit to a combination strategy using HDAC inhibitors and other anti-tumor agents in various tumor types<sup>79</sup>. Thus, despite the unconvincing results with only transient responses reported in single-agent treatment for patients with NC, a combination of BET inhibitors and conventional chemotherapy or other targeted therapy could be of interest with potential clinical benefit, and further studies investigating such strategies are needed<sup>80</sup>. Considering very poor prognosis observed with conventional treatment alone, such a combination could be considered as the first-line treatment [Level V; Grade C].

At present, data supporting the role of BET inhibitors in NC are too preliminary, and these targeted therapies preferably should be mainly reserved for patients with relapsed/refractory disease unless evaluated as part of a trial together with conventional chemotherapy [Level V; Grade B].

## 5. Assessments

Patients should undergo clinical and radiological evaluation before, during and after the end of the treatment. Depending on the primary tumor location, CT scan with contrast enhancement or MRI is usually adopted. Assessment should be performed to evaluate response to chemotherapy every 2 to 3 cycles, before surgery to plan the operation procedure and after surgery to evaluate the possible residuals, before RT to plan dose and volume of irradiation and after irradiation to assay the tumor status before adjuvant chemotherapy [Level V; Grade B].

In the case of initial metastatic disease, imaging evaluation should include all known metastatic sites. Other imaging studies should be considered depending on clinical evaluation [Level V; Grade B].

## 6. Summary of known adverse events associated with treatment recommendation

Type of treatment	Main side effects
Surgery	<p><i>Depending on the tumor location and extent of the surgical procedure</i></p> <p>General post-surgical risks including post-operative pain, hemorrhage, infection...</p> <p>Specific post-surgical complications depending on the tumor site</p>
Chemotherapy (depending on chemotherapeutic agents used)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- General side effects: fatigue, risk of infection, nausea and vomiting, hair loss, loss of appetite, hematological toxicity...</li> <li>- Vincristine: peripheral neuropathy, constipation...</li> <li>- Actinomycin-D: hepatic toxicity...</li> <li>- Ifosfamide: renal and bladder toxicities (tubulopathy, hemorrhagic cystitis), central neurotoxicity, gonadotoxicity, cardiotoxicity...</li> <li>- Doxorubicin: cardiotoxicity...</li> <li>- Cyclophosphamide: bladder toxicity, second malignancy, gonadotoxicity...</li> <li>- Cisplatin: renal, hearing, gonadotoxicity</li> <li>- Etoposide: allergic reaction, second malignancy...</li> </ul>
Radiotherapy (depending on the tumor location, dose and volume of irradiation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Acute side effects that may persist for a longer time: pain, mucositis, fatigue, hematological side effect, skin reactions.</li> <li>- Late side effects, which may arise after a long delay from treatment completion:</li> </ul> <p><i>For thoracic location:</i> musculoskeletal growth retardation (in growing children), osteoradionecrosis and fractures, pulmonary sequelae (lung fibrosis), cardiotoxicity (especially in the case of irradiation after anthracycline exposure), endocrine dysfunction ...</p>

	<i>For head and neck location:</i> facial and dental developmental defect, osteoradionecrosis and fractures, trismus, functional damages including hearing loss and vision impairment, cognitive deficit, endocrinopathy...
--	---

## 6. Supportive treatment

After surgery, general supportive post-operative treatment (i.e., scar nursing, analgesic therapy...) are recommended [Level V; Grade A].

In the case where chemotherapy is needed, central venous catheter insertion should be considered and is strongly recommended before chemotherapy administration [Level V; Grade B]. Anti-emetic treatment is administered in addition to chemotherapeutic agents. Early nutritional status evaluation +/- nutritional intervention if needed are recommended. Hyper-hydration and Uromitexan-Mesna® to prevent bladder toxicity is required with ifosfamide/cyclophosphamide administration [Level V; Grade A]. Dexrazoxane with anthracycline administration could be used in particular if thoracic radiotherapy is expected [Level IV; Grade C].

In the cases where RT is considered, other supportive treatment may be necessary depending on the potential acute side effects (analgesic therapy, skin care, nutritional support ...) [Level V; Grade A].

Pneumocystis prophylaxis should be proposed according to local procedures [Level V; Grade A].

## 7. Genetic considerations

As mentioned, no genetic predisposition has been reported to date<sup>12,13</sup>. In this context, there is no specific need of genetic counselling for pediatric NC, but this option may be discussed and should thus be proposed on an individual basis depending on the family history and preferences [Level IV; Grade B].

## 8. Follow-up

NC harbors very poor prognosis, and reported long-term survivorship are extremely rare in the literature, generally presented with head and neck primary tumor without metastases and managed by multimodal treatment<sup>14,62,63</sup>. Therefore, it should be considered that in case of tumors that are refractory to treatment or progress during therapy or thereafter, palliative care should be offered to the patient and the family, so that quality-of-life directed therapeutic decisions can be undertaken in such cases.

Due to the possibility of long-term toxicities after intensive multimodal strategy including RT or invasive surgery, a strict follow-up more than 5 years is highly recommended for these patients. Surveillance

should focus on both the risk of recurrence (locoregional and/or metastatic) and potential long-term side effects, including surgical complications, radiation-related effects depending on the dose and volume of irradiation and post-chemotherapeutic side effects depending on the chemotherapeutic agents used [Level IV; Grade A].

There is no standardized follow-up planning available, and it should be evaluated case-by-case depending on tumor characteristics and treatment received. As a general principle, close clinical and imaging evaluation (i.e., every 3 months) is recommended in the first two years after treatment, then every 4 to 6 months for the next 3 years. Imaging studies should assay every tumor site (primary tumor ± metastatic sites), and additional evaluation should be proposed according to clinical symptoms [Level V; Grade C].

## 9. Reference list

1. Ferrari A, Brecht IB, Gatta G, et al. Defining and listing very rare cancers of paediatric age: consensus of the Joint Action on Rare Cancers in cooperation with the European Cooperative Study Group for Pediatric Rare Tumors. *Eur J Cancer Oxf Engl* 1990. 2019;110:120-126. doi:10.1016/j.ejca.2018.12.031
2. Kubonishi I, Takehara N, Iwata J, et al. Novel t(15;19)(q15;p13) chromosome abnormality in a thymic carcinoma. *Cancer Res*. 1991;51(12):3327-3328.
3. French CA, Miyoshi I, Kubonishi I, Grier HE, Perez-Atayde AR, Fletcher JA. BRD4-NUT fusion oncogene: a novel mechanism in aggressive carcinoma. *Cancer Res*. 2003;63(2):304-307.
4. Kees UR, Mulcahy MT, Willoughby ML. Intrathoracic carcinoma in an 11-year-old girl showing a translocation t(15;19). *Am J Pediatr Hematol Oncol*. 1991;13(4):459-464. doi:10.1097/00043426-199124000-00011
5. Lemelle L, Pierron G, Fréneaux P, et al. NUT carcinoma in children and adults: A multicenter retrospective study. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2017;64(12). doi:10.1002/pbc.26693
6. Shehata BM, Steelman CK, Abramowsky CR, et al. NUT midline carcinoma in a newborn with multiorgan disseminated tumor and a 2-year-old with a pancreatic/hepatic primary. *Pediatr Dev Pathol Off J Soc Pediatr Pathol Paediatr Pathol Soc*. 2010;13(6):481-485. doi:10.2350/09-10-0727-CR.1
7. French CA, Kutok JL, Faquin WC, et al. Midline carcinoma of children and young adults with NUT rearrangement. *J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol*. 2004;22(20):4135-4139. doi:10.1200/JCO.2004.02.107
8. Mertens F, Wiebe T, Adlercreutz C, Mandahl N, French CA. Successful treatment of a child with t(15;19)-positive tumor. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2007;49(7):1015-1017. doi:10.1002/pbc.20755
9. Dickson BC, Sung YS, Rosenblum MK, et al. NUTM1 Gene Fusions Characterize a Subset of Undifferentiated Soft Tissue and Visceral Tumors. *Am J Surg Pathol*. 2018;42(5):636-645. doi:10.1097/PAS.0000000000001021
10. Bauer DE, Mitchell CM, Strait KM, et al. Clinicopathologic features and long-term outcomes of NUT midline carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res Off J Am Assoc Cancer Res*. 2012;18(20):5773-5779. doi:10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-12-1153
11. French CA. Pathogenesis of NUT midline carcinoma. *Annu Rev Pathol*. 2012;7:247-265. doi:10.1146/annurev-pathol-011811-132438
12. Huang QW, He LJ, Zheng S, Liu T, Peng BN. An Overview of Molecular Mechanism, Clinicopathological Factors, and Treatment in NUT Carcinoma. *BioMed Res Int*. 2019;2019:1018439. doi:10.1155/2019/1018439
13. Napolitano M, Venturelli M, Molinaro E, Toss A. NUT midline carcinoma of the head and neck: current perspectives. *OncoTargets Ther*. 2019;12:3235-3244. doi:10.2147/OTT.S173056
14. Chau NG, Ma C, Danga K, et al. An Anatomical Site and Genetic-Based Prognostic Model for Patients With Nuclear Protein in Testis (NUT) Midline Carcinoma: Analysis of 124 Patients. *JNCI Cancer Spectr*. 2020;4(2):pkz094. doi:10.1093/jncics/pkz094

15. Giridhar P, Mallick S, Kashyap L, Rath GK. Patterns of care and impact of prognostic factors in the outcome of NUT midline carcinoma: a systematic review and individual patient data analysis of 119 cases. *Eur Arch Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Off J Eur Fed Oto-Rhino-Laryngol Soc EUFOS Affil Ger Soc Oto-Rhino-Laryngol - Head Neck Surg*. 2018;275(3):815-821. doi:10.1007/s00405-018-4882-y
16. Chau NG, Hurwitz S, Mitchell CM, et al. Intensive treatment and survival outcomes in NUT midline carcinoma of the head and neck. *Cancer*. 2016;122(23):3632-3640. doi:10.1002/cncr.30242
17. Harms A, Herpel E, Pfarr N, et al. NUT carcinoma of the thorax: Case report and review of the literature. *Lung Cancer Amst Neth*. 2015;90(3):484-491. doi:10.1016/j.lungcan.2015.10.001
18. Chau NG, Ma C, Danga K, et al. An Anatomical Site and Genetic-Based Prognostic Model for Patients With Nuclear Protein in Testis (NUT) Midline Carcinoma: Analysis of 124 Patients. *JNCI Cancer Spectr*. Published online 2020. doi:10.1093/jncics/pkz094
19. Evans AG, French CA, Cameron MJ, et al. Pathologic characteristics of NUT midline carcinoma arising in the mediastinum. *Am J Surg Pathol*. 2012;36(8):1222-1227. doi:10.1097/PAS.0b013e318258f03b
20. Bishop JA, French CA, Ali SZ. Cytopathologic features of NUT midline carcinoma: A series of 26 specimens from 13 patients. *Cancer Cytopathol*. 2016;124(12):901-908. doi:10.1002/cncy.21761
21. Bishop JA, Westra WH. NUT midline carcinomas of the sinonasal tract. *Am J Surg Pathol*. 2012;36(8):1216-1221. doi:10.1097/PAS.0b013e318254ce54
22. Stelow EB. A review of NUT midline carcinoma. *Head Neck Pathol*. 2011;5(1):31-35. doi:10.1007/s12105-010-0235-x
23. Schwartz BE, Hofer MD, Lemieux ME, et al. Differentiation of NUT midline carcinoma by epigenomic reprogramming. *Cancer Res*. 2011;71(7):2686-2696. doi:10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-10-3513
24. Garnier JM, Sharp PP, Burns CJ. BET bromodomain inhibitors: a patent review. *Expert Opin Ther Pat*. 2014;24(2):185-199. doi:10.1517/13543776.2014.859244
25. French CA. Small-Molecule Targeting of BET Proteins in Cancer. *Adv Cancer Res*. 2016;131:21-58. doi:10.1016/bs.acr.2016.04.001
26. Dykewicz CA, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (U.S.), Infectious Diseases Society of America, American Society of Blood and Marrow Transplantation. Summary of the Guidelines for Preventing Opportunistic Infections among Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplant Recipients. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2001;33(2):139-144. doi:10.1086/321805
27. Cho YA, Choi YL, Hwang I, Lee K, Cho JH, Han J. Clinicopathological characteristics of primary lung nuclear protein in testis carcinoma: A single-institute experience of 10 cases. *Thorac Cancer*. 2020;11(11):3205-3212. doi:10.1111/1759-7714.13648
28. Piha-Paul SA, Hann CL, French CA, et al. Phase 1 Study of Molibresib (GSK525762), a Bromodomain and Extra-Terminal Domain Protein Inhibitor, in NUT Carcinoma and Other Solid Tumors. *JNCI Cancer Spectr*. 2020;4(2):pkz093. doi:10.1093/jncics/pkz093
29. French CA. Demystified molecular pathology of NUT midline carcinomas. *J Clin Pathol*. 2010;63(6):492-496. doi:10.1136/jcp.2007.052902
30. Polsani A, Braithwaite KA, Alazraki AL, Abramowsky C, Shehata BM. NUT midline carcinoma: an imaging case series and review of literature. *Pediatr Radiol*. 2012;42(2):205-210. doi:10.1007/s00247-011-2272-3
31. Engleson J, Soller M, Panagopoulos I, Dahlén A, Dictor M, Jerkeman M. Midline carcinoma with t(15;19) and BRD4-NUT fusion oncogene in a 30-year-old female with response to docetaxel and radiotherapy. *BMC Cancer*. 2006;6:69. doi:10.1186/1471-2407-6-69
32. Toretsky JA, Jenson J, Sun CC, et al. Translocation (11;15;19): a highly specific chromosome rearrangement associated with poorly differentiated thymic carcinoma in young patients. *Am J Clin Oncol*. 2003;26(3):300-306. doi:10.1097/01.COC.0000020960.98562.84
33. Vargas SO, French CA, Faul PN, et al. Upper respiratory tract carcinoma with chromosomal translocation 15;19: evidence for a distinct disease entity of young patients with a rapidly fatal course. *Cancer*. 2001;92(5):1195-1203. doi:10.1002/1097-0142(20010901)92:5<1195::aid-cncr1438>3.0.co;2-3
34. Travis WD, Brambilla E, Nicholson AG, et al. The 2015 World Health Organization Classification of Lung Tumors: Impact of Genetic, Clinical and Radiologic Advances Since the 2004 Classification. *J Thorac Oncol Off Publ Int Assoc Study Lung Cancer*. 2015;10(9):1243-1260. doi:10.1097/JTO.0000000000000630
35. French CA. The importance of diagnosing NUT midline carcinoma. *Head Neck Pathol*. 2013;7(1):11-16. doi:10.1007/s12105-013-0428-1



36. Policarpio-Nicolas MLC, de Leon EMB, Jagirdar J. Cytologic findings of NUT midline carcinoma in the hilum of the lung. *Diagn Cytopathol*. 2015;43(9):739-742. doi:10.1002/dc.23291
37. Chang AI, Kim TS, Han J, Kim TJ, Choi JY. NUT Midline Carcinoma of the Lung: Computed Tomography Findings in 10 Patients. *J Comput Assist Tomogr*. 2021;45(2):330-336. doi:10.1097/RCT.0000000000001133
38. Virarkar M, Saleh M, Ramani NS, Morani AC, Bhosale P. Imaging spectrum of NUT carcinomas. *Clin Imaging*. 2020;67:198-206. doi:10.1016/j.clinimag.2020.07.025
39. Shaikh F, Pagedar N, Awan O, McNeely P. Sinonasal NUT-Midline Carcinoma - A Multimodality Approach to Diagnosis, Staging and Post-Surgical Restaging. *Cureus*. 2015;7(7):e288. doi:10.7759/cureus.288
40. Mills AF, Lanfranchi M, Wein RO, et al. NUT midline carcinoma: a case report with a novel translocation and review of the literature. *Head Neck Pathol*. 2014;8(2):182-186. doi:10.1007/s12105-013-0479-3
41. Rosenbaum DG, Teruya-Feldstein J, Price AP, Meyers P, Abramson S. Radiologic features of NUT midline carcinoma in an adolescent. *Pediatr Radiol*. 2012;42(2):249-252. doi:10.1007/s00247-011-2288-8
42. Orman G, Masand P, Hicks J, Huisman TAGM, Guillerman RP. Pediatric thoracic masses lesions: Beyond the common. *Eur J Radiol Open*. 2020;7:100240. doi:10.1016/j.ejro.2020.100240
43. Bair RJ, Chick JF, Chauhan NR, French C, Madan R. Demystifying NUT midline carcinoma: radiologic and pathologic correlations of an aggressive malignancy. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2014;203(4):W391-399. doi:10.2214/AJR.13.12401
44. Niederkohr RD, Cameron MJ, French CA. FDG PET/CT imaging of NUT midline carcinoma. *Clin Nucl Med*. 2011;36(9):e124-126. doi:10.1097/RLU.0b013e31821c9a23
45. Kawase T, Naka G, Kubota K, Sakashita B, Takeda Y. NUT Midline Carcinoma in Elderly Patients: Usefulness of 18F-FDG PET/CT for Treatment Assessment. *Clin Nucl Med*. 2015;40(9):764-765. doi:10.1097/RLU.0000000000000795
46. Ciftci E, Demiroy U, Anik Y, Gorur G, Corapcioglu F, Demir H. Staging and evaluation of neoadjuvant chemotherapy response with <sup>18</sup>F-FDG PET/CT in NUT-midline carcinoma in a child: a case report and review of the literature. *Rev Espanola Med Nucl E Imagen Mol*. 2015;34(1):53-55. doi:10.1016/j.rem.2014.08.007
47. Rutt AL, Poulik J, Siddiqui AH, et al. NUT midline carcinoma mimicking tonsillitis in an eight-year-old girl. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol*. 2011;120(8):546-549. doi:10.1177/00034894112000810
48. Teo M, Crotty P, O'Sullivan M, French CA, Walshe JM. NUT Midline Carcinoma in a Young Woman. *J Clin Oncol*. 2011;29(12):e336-e339. doi:10.1200/JCO.2010.32.7486
49. Perkins C, Pucar D, McDonough CH, Williams HT. Nuclear Protein in Testis Midline Carcinoma Presenting in an Infant as a Pericardial Mass with Staging by 18F-Fluorodeoxyglucose-positron Emission Tomography/Computed Tomography. *World J Nucl Med*. 2017;16(3):247-250. doi:10.4103/1450-1147.207284
50. Haack H, Johnson LA, Fry CJ, et al. Diagnosis of NUT midline carcinoma using a NUT-specific monoclonal antibody. *Am J Surg Pathol*. 2009;33(7):984-991. doi:10.1097/PAS.0b013e318198d666
51. French CA. NUT Carcinoma: Clinicopathologic features, pathogenesis, and treatment. *Pathol Int*. 2018;68(11):583-595. doi:10.1111/pin.12727
52. Italiano A, Di Mauro I, Rapp J, et al. Clinical effect of molecular methods in sarcoma diagnosis (GENSARC): a prospective, multicentre, observational study. *Lancet Oncol*. 2016;17(4):532-538. doi:10.1016/S1470-2045(15)00583-5
53. French CA, Rahman S, Walsh EM, et al. NSD3-NUT fusion oncoprotein in NUT midline carcinoma: implications for a novel oncogenic mechanism. *Cancer Discov*. 2014;4(8):928-941. doi:10.1158/2159-8290.CD-14-0014
54. Thompson-Wicking K, Francis RW, Stirnweiss A, et al. Novel BRD4-NUT fusion isoforms increase the pathogenic complexity in NUT midline carcinoma. *Oncogene*. 2013;32(39):4664-4674. doi:10.1038/onc.2012.487
55. Ball A, Bromley A, Glaze S, French CA, Ghatage P, Köbel M. A rare case of NUT midline carcinoma. *Gynecol Oncol Case Rep*. 2012;3:1-3. doi:10.1016/j.gynor.2012.09.004
56. McEvoy CR, Fox SB, Prall OWJ. Emerging entities in NUTM1-rearranged neoplasms. *Genes Chromosomes Cancer*. 2020;59(6):375-385. doi:10.1002/gcc.22838
57. Stevens TM, Morlote D, Xiu J, et al. NUTM1-rearranged neoplasia: a multi-institution experience yields novel fusion partners and expands the histologic spectrum. *Mod Pathol Off J U S Can Acad Pathol Inc*.

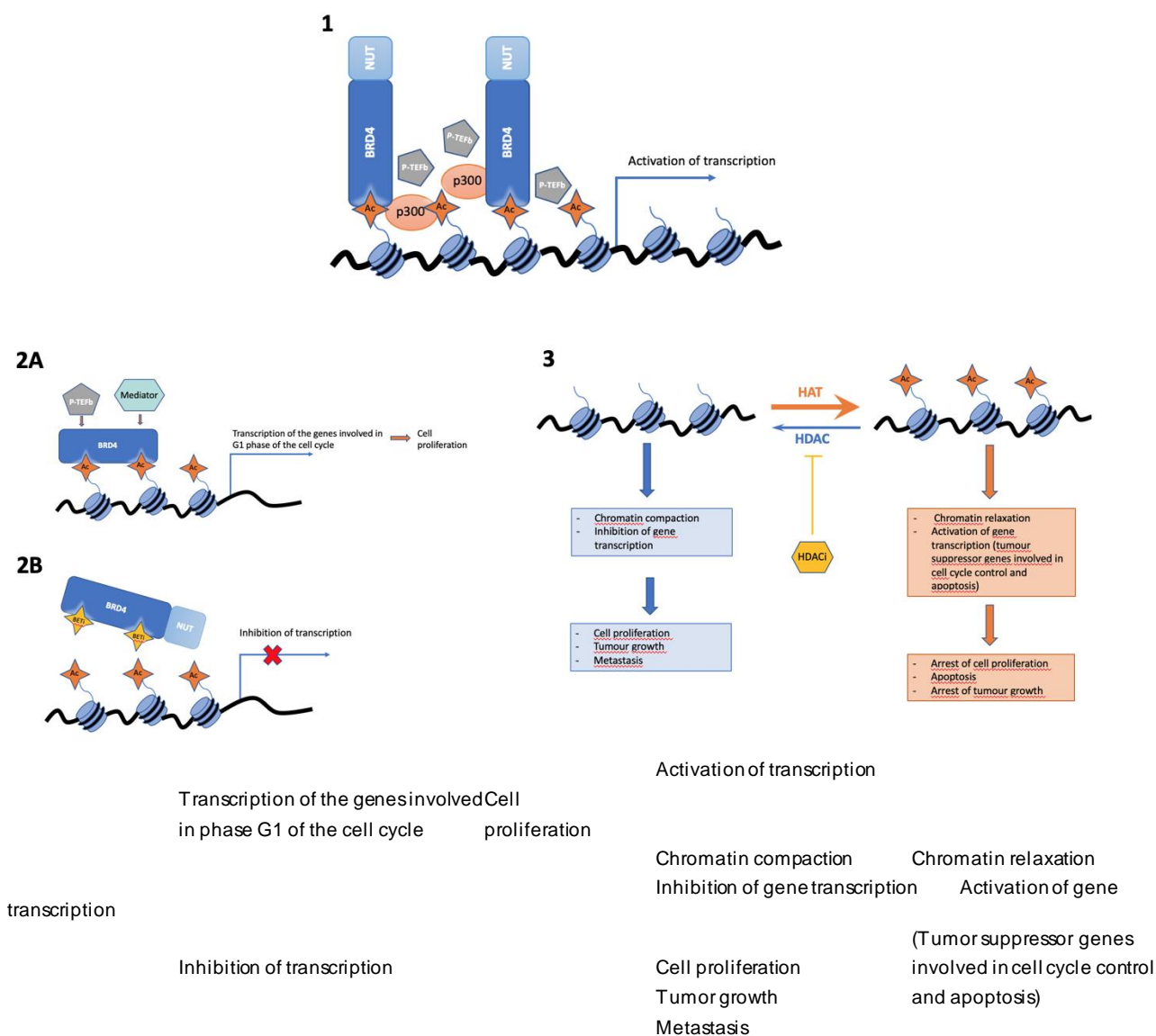
2019;32(6):764-773. doi:10.1038/s41379-019-0206-z

58. Brennan MT, Treister NS, Sollecito TP, et al. Dental disease before radiotherapy in patients with head and neck cancer: Clinical Registry of Dental Outcomes in Head and Neck Cancer Patients. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1939. 2017;148(12):868-877. doi:10.1016/j.adaj.2017.09.011
59. Sennhenn-Kirchner S, Freund F, Grundmann S, et al. Dental therapy before and after radiotherapy--an evaluation on patients with head and neck malignancies. *Clin Oral Investig*. 2009;13(2):157-164. doi:10.1007/s00784-008-0229-1
60. Maur M, Toss A, Dominici M, et al. Impressive Response to Dose-Dense Chemotherapy in a Patient with NUT Midline Carcinoma. *Am J Case Rep*. 2015;16:424-429. doi:10.12659/AJCR.893879
61. Vulsteke C, Lurquin E, Debiec-Rychter M, et al. First evidence of treatment efficacy in metastatic carcinoma of the parotid gland with BRD4/NUT translocation. *J Chemother Florence Italy*. 2016;28(3):242-246. doi:10.1179/1973947815Y.0000000046
62. Sopfe J, Greffe B, Treece AL. Metastatic NUT Midline Carcinoma Treated With Aggressive Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy, Radiation, and Resection: A Case Report and Review of the Literature. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol*. 2021;43(1):e73-e75. doi:10.1097/MPH.0000000000001860
63. Storck S, Kennedy AL, Marcus KJ, et al. Pediatric NUT-midline carcinoma: Therapeutic success employing a sarcoma based multimodal approach. *Pediatr Hematol Oncol*. 2017;34(4):231-237. doi:10.1080/08880018.2017.1363839
64. Vorstenbosch LJM, Mavinkurve-Groothuis AMC, van den Broek G, Flucke U, Janssens GO. Long-term survival after relapsed NUT carcinoma of the larynx. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2018;65(5):e26946. doi:10.1002/pbc.26946
65. Prasad M, Baheti A, Ramadwar M, Chinnaswamy G, Vora T, Qureshi S. Pediatric NUT Carcinoma Is a Rare and Challenging Tumor: Single Center Experience of Five Children. *The Oncologist*. 2019;24(11):e1232-e1235. doi:10.1634/theoncologist.2019-0358
66. Jiménez I, Baruchel A, Doz F, Schulte J. Bromodomain and extraterminal protein inhibitors in pediatrics: A review of the literature. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2017;64(5). doi:10.1002/pbc.26334
67. Filippakopoulos P, Qi J, Picaud S, et al. Selective inhibition of BET bromodomains. *Nature*. 2010;468(7327):1067-1073. doi:10.1038/nature09504
68. Beesley AH, Stirnweiss A, Ferrari E, et al. Comparative drug screening in NUT midline carcinoma. *Br J Cancer*. 2014;110(5):1189-1198. doi:10.1038/bjc.2014.54
69. Jung M, Kim S, Lee JK, et al. Clinicopathological and Preclinical Findings of NUT Carcinoma: A Multicenter Study. *The Oncologist*. 2019;24(8):e740-e748. doi:10.1634/theoncologist.2018-0477
70. Dey A, Nishiyama A, Karpova T, McNally J, Ozato K. Brd4 marks select genes on mitotic chromatin and directs postmitotic transcription. *Mol Biol Cell*. 2009;20(23):4899-4909. doi:10.1091/mbc.e09-05-0380
71. Mottamal M, Zheng S, Huang TL, Wang G. Histone deacetylase inhibitors in clinical studies as templates for new anticancer agents. *Mol Basel Switz*. 2015;20(3):3898-3941. doi:10.3390/molecules20033898
72. Pearson AD, DuBois SG, Buenger V, et al. Bromodomain and extra-terminal inhibitors-A consensus prioritisation after the Paediatric Strategy Forum for medicinal product development of epigenetic modifiers in children-ACCELERATE. *Eur J Cancer Oxf Engl 1990*. 2021;146:115-124. doi:10.1016/j.ejca.2021.01.018
73. Shapiro GI, LoRusso P, Dowlati A, et al. A Phase 1 study of RO6870810, a novel bromodomain and extra-terminal protein inhibitor, in patients with NUT carcinoma, other solid tumours, or diffuse large B-cell lymphoma. *Br J Cancer*. 2021;124(4):744-753. doi:10.1038/s41416-020-01180-1
74. Cousin S, Blay JY, Braña Garcia I, et al. BET inhibitor molibresib for the treatment of advanced solid tumors: Final results from an open-label phase I/II study. *J Clin Oncol*. 2020;38(15\_suppl):3618-3618. doi:10.1200/JCO.2020.38.15\_suppl.3618
75. Lewin J, Soria JC, Stathis A, et al. Phase Ib Trial With Birabresib, a Small-Molecule Inhibitor of Bromodomain and Extraterminal Proteins, in Patients With Selected Advanced Solid Tumors. *J Clin Oncol Off J Am Soc Clin Oncol*. 2018;36(30):3007-3014. doi:10.1200/JCO.2018.78.2292
76. Massard C, Soria JC, Stathis A, et al. A phase Ib trial with MK-8628/OTX015, a small molecule inhibitor of bromodomain (BRD) and extra-terminal (BET) proteins, in patients with selected advanced solid tumors. *Eur J Cancer*. 2016;69:S2-S3.
77. Ameratunga M, Braña I, Bono P, et al. First-in-human Phase I open label study of the BET inhibitor ODM-207 in patients with selected solid tumours. *Br J Cancer*. 2020;123(12):1730-1736. doi:10.1038/s41416-020-01077-z



- 
78. Maher OM, Christensen AM, Yedururi S, Bell D, Tarek N. Histone deacetylase inhibitor for NUT midline carcinoma. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2015;62(4):715-717. doi:10.1002/pbc.25350
79. Qiu WZ, Peng XS, Xia HQ, Huang PY, Guo X, Cao KJ. A retrospective study comparing the outcomes and toxicities of intensity-modulated radiotherapy versus two-dimensional conventional radiotherapy for the treatment of children and adolescent nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol*. 2017;143(8):1563-1572. doi:10.1007/s00432-017-2401-y
80. Morrison-Smith CD, Knox TM, Filic I, et al. Combined Targeting of the BRD4-NUT-p300 Axis in NUT Midline Carcinoma by Dual Selective Bromodomain Inhibitor, NEO2734. *Mol Cancer Ther*. 2020;19(7):1406-1414. doi:10.1158/1535-7163.MCT-20-0087
81. Alekseyenko AA, Walsh EM, Wang X, et al. The oncogenic BRD4-NUT chromatin regulator drives aberrant transcription within large topological domains. *Genes Dev*. 2015;29(14):1507-1523. doi:10.1101/gad.267583.115
82. Manal M, Chandrasekar MJN, Gomathi Priya J, Nanjan MJ. Inhibitors of histone deacetylase as antitumor agents: A critical review. *Bioorganic Chem*. 2016;67:18-42. doi:10.1016/j.bioorg.2016.05.005

## APPENDIX 1 – Molecular mechanisms of NUTM1 and BRD4

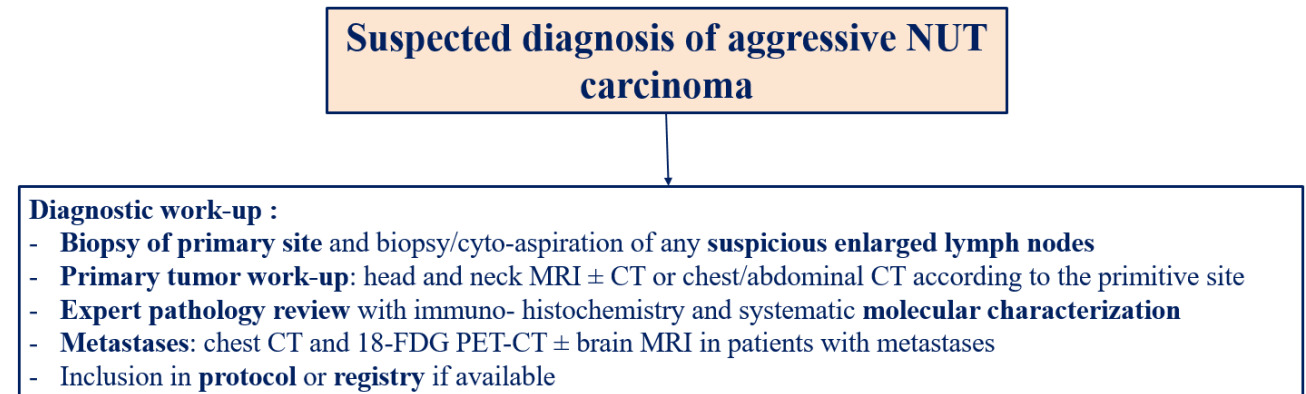


1) Mechanisms of oncogenesis associated with NUT carcinoma. The BRD4-NUTM1 oncoprotein binds to chromatin on acetylated histone tails via its bromodomain and recruits P300, a histone acetyltransferase, which acetylates the adjacent histones, in turn recruiting BRD4-NUTM1. P-TEFb, a transcription factor, is also recruited. This hyperacetylated domain leads to activation of transcription. *Legend: Ac: acetylated*, (diagram adapted from Alekseyenko *et al.*, *Genes Dev.*, 2015)<sup>81</sup>.

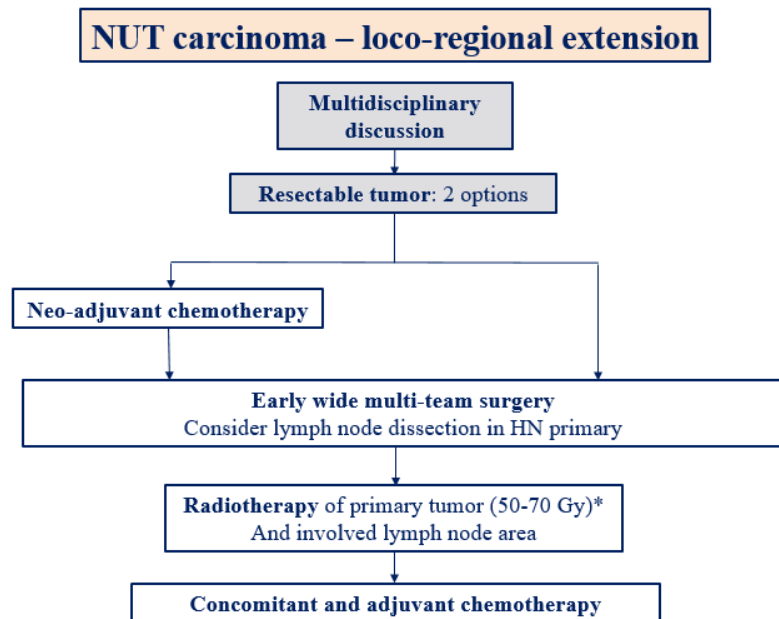
2) Mechanism involving BRD4 protein: A) under physiological conditions, the BRD4 protein binds to chromatin by attaching to the tails of acetylated histones via its bromodomain, and recruits the transcription factor P-TEFb and the mediator complex, a co-activator, allowing gene transcription. B) In the presence of a BRD inhibitor, this inhibitor binds to the bromodomain, preventing binding to chromatin and inhibits transcription. *Legend: Ac: acetylated, BRDi: bromodomain inhibitor* (diagram adapted from Jimenez *et al.*, *Pediatr Blood Cancer*, 2016)<sup>1</sup>.

3) Mechanism of acetylation and deacetylation of histones and role of HDAC inhibitors (HDACi). *Legend: HAT: histone acetyltransferase, HDAC: histone deacetylase, Ac: acetylated* (diagram adapted from Manal *et al.*, *Bioorganic Chemistry*, 2016)<sup>82</sup>.

## APPENDIX 2 – Diagnosis and treatment flowchart – EXPeRT group proposal

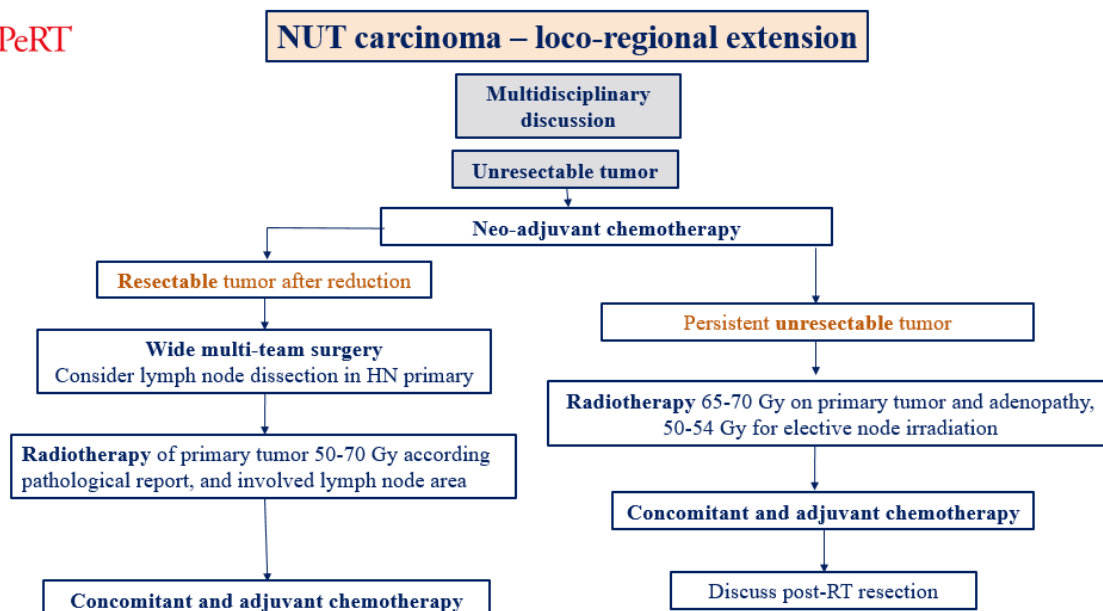


EXPeRT



\*Cf. text, for dosage

*Chemotherapy regimen: VDCy/IE or VAI-PAI (option: VDCy/cisplatin-etoposide)*



Chemotherapy regimen: VDCy/IE or VAI-PAI (option: VDCy/cisplatin-etoposide)

