

BRAIN TUMORS IN CHILDREN

**National population-based studies on classification,
diagnostics and long-term follow-up**

Elizabeth Habib Schepke

Department of Medical Biochemistry and Cell Biology
Institute of Biomedicine
Sahlgrenska Academy, University of Gothenburg



UNIVERSITY OF GOTHENBURG

Gothenburg, 2023

Cover illustration by Bengt Schepke

Layout: Adam Werner / GO Grafik

Brain tumors in children; National population-based studies
on classification, diagnostics and long-term follow-up

© 2023 Elizabeth Habib Schepke
elizabeth.schepke@gu.se

ISBN 978-91-8069-161-1 (PRINT)
ISBN 978-91-8069-162-8 (PDF)

Printed in Borås, Sweden 2023
Printed by Stema Specialtryck AB

To my family
for your endless support and encouragement.

Brain tumors in children

National population-based studies on classification,
diagnostics and long-term follow-up

Elizabeth Habib Schepke

Department of Medical Biochemistry and Cell Biology
Institute of Biomedicine
Sahlgrenska Academy, University of Gothenburg,
Sweden

ABSTRACT

Although the prognosis for pediatric tumors of the central nervous system (CNS) has improved over time it is urgent to reduce mortality and improve long-term quality of life for survivors. With this aim, the first step is to identify the correct diagnosis in order to choose the right therapy and avoid unnecessary treatment. Establishing a correct diagnosis can be challenging and genome-wide DNA methylation profiling has evolved as a valuable tool in the diagnostics of childhood CNS tumors. The aim of this thesis was 1) to provide comprehensive data on children diagnosed with a CNS tumor in Sweden between 1984-2021, and 2) to evaluate the added value of performing DNA methylation profiling in the standard diagnostics of pediatric CNS tumors in Sweden.

In Paper I we found a stable incidence of childhood CNS tumors during the study period of almost 40 years. The distribution of tumor diagnoses was relatively comparable to that reported from other countries. Overall survival for children diagnosed with a CNS tumor has improved over time but for several tumor types the long-term survival rates continued to decrease.

In paper II we determined that integrating DNA methylation profiling into real time diagnostics of pediatric CNS tumors improves diagnostics and provides molecular information that has shown to be essential for choosing the optimal treatment. We demonstrated that methylation profiling has a role in the classification of all types of CNS tumors, also those with a lower tumor cell content.

In paper III we re-classified tumors formerly diagnosed as CNS primitive neuroectodermal tumor (PNET). We confirmed the heterogeneity of these tumors and concluded that DNA methylation has a pivotal role in the diagnostics of rare childhood embryonal tumors. The survival rates for the re-classified tumor types were in line with other studies. All patients with CNS NB-*FOXR2* had received craniospinal irradiation and the prognosis was excellent.

Keywords: Pediatric CNS tumors, population-based, DNA methylation, profiling, CNS-PNET, re-evaluation, epidemiology, incidence rate, long-term outcome, classification

ISBN 978-91-8069-161-1 (PRINT)

ISBN 978-91-8069-162-8 (PDF)

<http://hdl.handle.net/2077/75200>

SAMMANFATTNING PÅ SVENSKA

Av de barn i Sverige som drabbas av cancer får ca 25% en tumör i centrala nervsystemet (CNS), det vill säga i hjärna och ryggmärg. Även om överlevnaden har förbättrats så fortsätter den att minska även långt efter att patienterna fått sin diagnos. Ibland är det utmanande att ställa rätt diagnos då varje enskild CNS tumör i sig är ovanlig och ofta heterogen i sitt utseende. Tumörcellernas DNA ser olika ut. De skiljer sig bland annat åt i sitt metyleringsmönster, d.v.s var metylgrupperna sitter på DNA-strängen. Genom att analysera DNA-metyleringsprofilen i tumörcellerna kan man klassificera hjärntumörer på ett mer specifikt sätt. Målsättningen med denna avhandling var att se om diagnostiken kunde förbättras genom att studera DNA metyleringsmönstret i cancercellerna samt att se hur insjuknandet och överlevnaden av CNS tumörer hos barn har förändrats mellan åren 1984-2021.

I delarbete I kunde vi se att antalet barn som varje år diagnosticerades med en CNS tumör var oförändrat sedan nästan fyrtio år tillbaka. Vi kunde också se att överlevnaden för barn som insjuknat med en hjärntumör har förbättrats men att den tyvärr sjunker även lång tid efter diagnosen, vilket visar hur viktigt det är med livslång uppföljning för denna patientgrupp.

I delarbete II utvärderade vi om diagnostiken av CNS tumörer i Sverige kunde förbättras genom att analysera DNA metylerings profiler på alla nydiagnosticerade CNS tumörer under fyra års tid. Vi konstaterade att metyleringsbaserad tumörklassifikation är viktig att utföra i rutindiagnostiken av CNS tumörer hos barn. Vi såg att i flertalet fall blev diagnosen mer precis då metyleringanalysen bidrog med ytterligare information om vilken undergrupp tumören tillhörde vilket kan ha betydelse för val av behandling och prognos. I 5% av fallen skulle den metyleringsbaserade klassificeringen haft en direkt påverkan på den kliniska handläggningen.

I delarbete III studerade vi de hjärntumörer som tidigare fått diagnosen primitiv neuroektodermal tumör (PNET) i Sverige. Under de senaste åren har man upptäckt att denna tumör utgörs av flera olika tumörtyper. Med hjälp av DNA-metyleringsteknik så reklassificerade vi tumörerna i efterhand. Vi såg att denna tumörgrupp bestod av flera olika tumörtyper. Genom att samla in klinisk information om vilken behandling patienterna fått såg vi att de olika tumörtyperna svarat olika bra på behandling vilket bidrar till att vi idag vet mer om hur vi skall behandla dessa patienter.

LIST OF PAPERS

This thesis is based on the following studies, referred to in the text by their roman numerals.

- I. **Schepke E**, Lannering B, Lähteenmäki P, Georgantzi K, Sandström P-E, Nyman P, Eliasson-Hofvander M, Öberg A, Carén H, Sabel M. Incidence and long-term survival in children diagnosed with CNS tumors in Sweden 1984-2021. *Manuscript*.
- II. **Schepke E**, Löfgren M, Pietsch T, Olsson Bontell T, Kling T, Wenger A, Ferreyra Vega S, Danielsson A, Dosa S, Holm S, Öberg A, Nyman P, Eliasson-Hofvander M, Sandström P-E, Pfister S M, Lannering B, Sabel M, Carén H. DNA methylation profiling improves routine diagnosis of paediatric central nervous system tumours: A prospective population-based study. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol*, 2022, 48(6), e12838. doi.org/10.1111/nan.12838
- III. **Schepke E**, Löfgren M, Pietsch T, Kling T, Nordborg C, Olsson Bontell T, Holm S, Öberg A, Nyman P, Eliasson-Hofvander M, Sabel M, Lannering B, Carén H. Supratentorial CNS-PNETs in children; a Swedish population-based study with molecular re-evaluation and long-term follow-up. *Clinical Epigenetics*, 2023, 15(1):40. doi.org/10.1186/s13148-023-01456-2

Additional publications not included in this thesis.

- I** Schepke E, Tisell M, Kennedy C, Puget S, Ferroli P, Chevignard M, Doz F, Pizer B, Rutkowski S, Massimino M, Navajas A, Schwalbe E, Hicks D, Clifford SC, Pietsch T, Lannering B. Effects of the growth pattern of medulloblastoma on short-term neurological impairments after surgery: results from the prospective multicenter HIT-SI-OP PNET 4 study. *J Neurosurg Pediatr*, 2020 Jan 17:1-9. doi.org/10.3171/2019.11. Peds 19349
- II** Von Hoff K, Habererler C, Schmitt-Hoffner, F, **Schepke E**, de Rojas T, Jacobs S, Zapotocky M, Sumerauer D, Persek-Polnik M, Dufour C, van Vuurden D, Salavc I, Gojo J, et al. Therapeutic implications of improved molecular diagnostics for rare CNS-embryonal tumor entities: results of an international, retrospective study. *Neuro Oncol.* 2021, 23(9):1597-1611. doi.org/10.1093/neuonc/noab136
- III** Wenger A, Ferreyra Vega S, **Schepke E**, Löfgren M, Olsson Bontell T, Tisell M, Nilsson D, Kling T, Carén H. DNA methylation alterations across time and space in paediatric brain tumours. *Acta Neuropathol Commun*, 2022 Jul 16;10(1):105. Doi.org/10.1186/s40478-022-01406-8
- IV** Wenger A, Larsson S, Danielsson A, Elbæk KJ, Kettunen P, Tisell M, Sabel M, Lannering B, Nordborg C, **Schepke E**, Carén H. Stem cell cultures derived from pediatric brain tumors accurately model the originating tumors. *Oncotarget*, 2017 8(12), 18626-18639. doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.14826

CONTENT

SAMMANFATTNING PÅ SVENSKA	9
LIST OF PAPERS	13
CONTENT	16
ABBREVIATIONS	19
1. INTRODUCTION	21
1.1 Epidemiology of CNS tumors in children	22
1.2 Diagnostic classification of tumors of the CNS	24
1.3 Epigenetics	26
1.3.1 DNA methylation	27
1.3.2 Epigenetics in cancer	28
1.3.3 DNA methylation for CNS tumor diagnostics and prognostics	29
1.4 Primitive neuroectodermal tumors of the CNS	32
1.4.1 Embryonal tumor with multilayered rosettes	34
1.4.2 CNS neuroblastoma, <i>FOXR2</i> -activated	36
1.4.3 CNS tumor with <i>BCOR</i> internal tandem duplication (ITD)	38
1.5 Epidemiological classification of CNS tumors	39
1.5.1 Childhood CNS tumor registration in Sweden	41
1.6 Treatment and long-term follow-up	43

2. AIM	45
3. MATERIALS AND METHODS	47
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	53
4.1 Paper I: Incidence and long-term survival in children diagnosed with CNS tumors in children 1984-2021	53
4.2 Paper II: DNA methylation profiling improves routine diagnosis of paediatric central nervous system tumours: A prospective population-based study	58
4.3 Paper III: Supratentorial CNS-PNETs in children; a Swed- ish population-based study with molecular re-evaluation and long-term follow-up	63
5. CONCLUSION	67
6. FUTURE PERSPECTIVES	71
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	75
REFERENCES	81
PAPERS	106

ABBREVIATIONS

AT/RT	Atypical Teratoid/Rhabdoid Tumors
CNS	Central nervous system
CDKN2A/B	Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2A/B
CNA	Copy number alterations
CpG	Cytosine Guanine
CSI	Craniospinal irradiation
DIA	Desmoplastic infantile ganglioglioma/ astrocytoma
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DNET	Dysembryoplastic neuroepithelial tumor
DNMT	DNA methyltransferase
FISH	Fluorescence In situ Hybridization
FFPE	Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded
H&E	Hematoxylin and Eosin
HDSCR	High-dose chemotherapy with stem cell rescue
ICCC	International Classification of Childhood Cancer
ICD-O	International Classification of Diseases for Oncology
IHC	Immunohistochemistry
MNP	Molecular neuropathology
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
OS	Overall survival
PA	Pilocytic astrocytoma
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
PFS	Progression-free survival
PNET	Primitive neuroectodermal tumor
TET	Ten-eleven translocation
WHO	World Health Organization

01

INTRODUCTION

Every year in Sweden around 330 children are diagnosed with a pediatric neoplasm and about 27% of them have a tumor in the central nervous system (CNS)¹. The prognosis for CNS tumors has improved over time² and the 10-year overall survival (OS) in Sweden is more than 70%, although this is dependent on the histopathological diagnosis, tumor site and treatment. The survival for malignant CNS tumors is still poor. Cancer is the major cause of death in children aged 1-14 years in Sweden, and CNS tumors constitute the largest proportion of neoplasms leading to death in this age group³. Childhood cancer survivors suffer from serious side effects and bear an increased risk of developing short-term and long-term sequelae including neurological deficits, endocrinopathy, and cognitive impairments⁴⁻⁷.

In the last decades it has become evident that cancer is not only a genetic disease, but also an epigenetic disease^{8,9}. Childhood neoplasms differ considerably in their molecular alterations compared to adult cancer. The number of mutations is lower but also the molecular driving events are different. The mutations that occur in childhood cancer often involve epigenetic regulation¹⁰. For the development of childhood tumors, it also seems crucially important in which developmental window the affected cell is in, when the first genetic and epigenetic changes occur^{11,12}. In recent years, the rapidly advancing epigenetic research has increased our understanding of how important the epigenetic dysregulation is for the onset of childhood neoplasm. It has also given us new perspectives on how these epigenetic modifications can be used in the diagnostics and prognostics of CNS tumors.

1.1 Epidemiology of CNS tumors in children

Central nervous system tumors are the second most common pediatric neoplasm after leukemia, and the most frequent solid tumors in children. It is a very diverse group of tumors that differ considerably as far as the clinical and biological characteristics are concerned. The etiology of most CNS tumors in children is still unknown. Ionizing radiation and certain genetic syndromes have been described as risk factors for predisposition to the development of a brain tumor^{13,14}.

The annual incidence rates for childhood brain tumors vary internationally, with a global age-standardized average incidence rate of 2.8/100 000 children in the age range of newborn to 14 years¹⁵. However, in Sweden, as well as in the other Nordic countries, the UK, France and the US, the incidence rates for CNS tumors are considerably higher (3.8-5.9/100 000 children)^{2,16-19}. In the mid-1980s, an increase in the incidence of pediatric brain tumors was noted in several countries^{18,20,21} probably due to the diagnostic improvements after the introduction of computer tomography and later magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), as well as the introduction of a more accurate registration²¹. This increase does not seem to have continued and recent studies from several countries have reported on a stable incidence of pediatric CNS tumors during the last decades^{2,16,18,19,22,23}. However, a trend towards a slightly higher incidence over the last 30 years was noted in a recent publication from Finland (Abuhamed et al., 2022). Furthermore, according to the latest report from the Central Brain Tumor Registry of the United States (CBTRUS), CNS tumors are the most common neoplasm in children aged 0-14 years¹⁷.

The age-distribution of CNS tumors in children is relatively even in the ages 1 - <15 years of age at diagnosis²³. Overall, brain tumors are more common in males than females even though this varies depending on tumor type. Almost half of all pediatric CNS tumors

are located in the posterior fossa, with the majority sited in the cerebellum (28-31%) or in the brain stem (11-13%). The remaining are situated in the cerebral hemispheres (21-24%), the midbrain (13-27%), or in the spinal cord (3-4%)^{24, 25}.

Clinical symptoms mainly depend on the localization of the tumor and the age of the patients. The most common initial symptoms are headache and nausea followed by motorical weakness, visual impairment, and seizures^{25, 26}. The presenting symptoms are often varying and nonspecific which is a challenge to the clinician to achieve a correct diagnosis^{27, 28}.

The diagnoses of CNS tumors in children and juveniles differ from adults¹⁷. Roughly, childhood tumors of the CNS can be divided into tumors of glial (astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, and ependymal cells) and non-glial origin. Glial tumors are most common and include astrocytomas, oligodendrogliomas, ependymomas and glioneuronal tumors (e.g., gangliogliomas). Embryonal tumors, germ cell tumors and craniopharyngiomas for instance, are non-glial tumors (Figure 1)^{2, 23}.

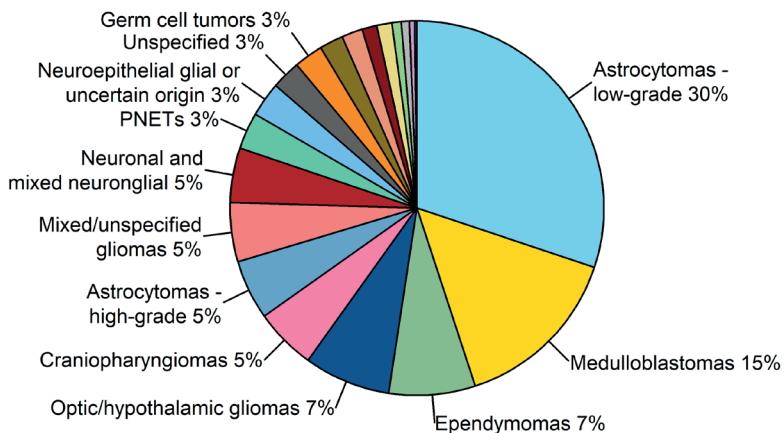


FIGURE 1. Distribution of pediatric CNS tumors in Sweden 1984-2013. Based on data extracted from Gustafsson et al., 2013²³.

1.2 Diagnostic classification of tumors of the CNS

The diagnosis of pediatric CNS tumors is based on the histopathological and molecular criteria from the World Health Organization (WHO)²⁹. In 1979, the WHO published the first edition of the histological typing of tumors of the central nervous system³⁰ and since then the so called “Blue book” has been updated several times^{29,31-33}. Previously, all tumors of the CNS were classified solely based on their histopathological features and the histological grading was based on morphological characteristics such as mitotic activity, cytological atypia, etc. The WHO grading system was used to predict the biological behavior of the tumor and thus also a way to predict the clinical course of the patients and ranged from I-II (non-malignant) to III to IV (malignant)³².

The establishment of a diagnosis based solely on morphology, did not always correlate to the clinical course of the patients³⁴⁻³⁶. Previous studies have also reported on certain inter-observer inconsistency in the diagnostics for some tumor entities^{37,38}. A major adjustment in the classification criteria of brain tumors was performed in 2016 in the WHO Classification of CNS tumors³³. The classification was, for the first time, extended to incorporate molecular markers for some tumor types. By combining molecular information and histological features into an integrated diagnosis, the tumor classification gained enhanced precision, and reduced the heterogeneity for various tumor types²⁹. This applied not only to the tumor specific group patterns, but also to the specific response to treatment and clinical outcomes. However, due to the rapidly increased understanding of the molecular mechanisms in CNS tumors in recent years, it has become evident that additional classification updates in-between the standard WHO updates are needed. Therefore, a group of experienced neuropathologists and neuro-oncologists formed the Consortium to Inform Molecular and Practical Approaches to CNS Tumor Taxonomy - Not Official WHO (cIMPACT-NOW) in 2016³⁹ to provide continuous updates in the molecular classification and to recommend changes to future

CNS tumor classifications. The most recent update of the WHO classification; the 5th edition of the WHO Classification of the Tumors of the Central Nervous system (CNS5) was published in 2021²⁹ and is based on the recommendations from the cIMPACT-NOW⁴⁰⁻⁴⁶. The 5th WHO classification has listed more than 100 different types of tumors in the CNS, with varying biological behavior and different clinical courses. Molecular markers have become increasingly important, both in terms of determining the specific diagnosis and for determining the grading of the tumors (WHO grade 1-4), as well as providing a prognostication for the patient²⁹. Several newly recognized tumor types and subtypes have been introduced, and the tumors are grouped into more biologically and molecularly defined entities. This is exemplified in the classification of diffuse gliomas, where the tumors are separated into *adult*-type and *pediatric*-type based on their molecular genetic differences. Moreover, DNA methylation profiling has been recognized in the 2021 WHO CNS5 as an essential diagnostic tool for selected tumor types and a desirable analysis for most of the CNS tumors. Importantly, for some tumor types, the molecular subgrouping has been shown to be superior to the histopathologic grading when it comes to prognosis, e.g., posterior fossa group A ependymoma has a poorer prognosis compared to posterior fossa group B ependymoma. Both of these tumors can be diagnosed through DNA methylation profiling or distinguished by the loss or presence of nuclear H3K27me3 by immunohistochemistry (IHC).

Furthermore, as far as the development of new drugs and research is concerned, molecular classification is essential; as nowadays many patients can be eligible for inclusion in clinical trials of potential targeted therapy which are based on the molecular alteration of the tumor. However, the recent advancement in tumor biology has not yet fully reached the clinical work in regards of therapy adjustment. Still, the main choice for treatment is chemotherapy and sometimes radiotherapy.

1.3 Epigenetics

The term epigenetics, literally “outside or above genetics”, refers to the changes in the gene function that do not involve alterations in the underlying DNA sequence^{47,48}. All cells in the body contain the same genetic information but are expressed differently in order to form the various existing cell types. This is due to the epigenetic regulation, which alters the expression of genes in different cell types and thus controls gene transcription and cell development^{49,50}. These epigenetic changes are transferable during cell division and their regulation of gene expression is crucial for the development of normal human cells⁵¹. There are three major epigenetic mechanisms; DNA methylation, histone modifications and non-coding RNAs (Figure 2)^{52,53}. Histones are proteins that organize the DNA into chromatin and the genome is then further condensed into chromosomes inside the cell nucleus. The histone modifications occur at the histone tails and include for example methylation, phosphorylation and acetylation, which can alter the chromatin structure and affect gene expression^{54,55}. Non-coding RNA is RNA that is not translated into a protein. There are long or short non-coding RNAs and they are involved in the regulation of gene expression through posttranscriptional modifications^{56,57}. All these epigenetic markers interact with each other and together they regulate the gene expression through the chromatin architecture.

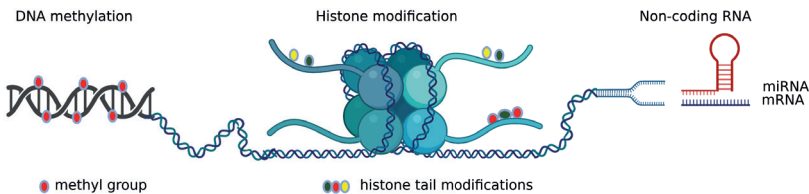


FIGURE 2: The epigenetic machinery. DNA methylation, histone modification and non-coding RNA. Created with Biorender.com

1.3.1 DNA methylation

DNA methylation is a crucial epigenetic mechanism involved in the regulation of gene expression and cell differentiation^{58,59}. It is the process where a methyl group (CH_3) is added to the 5th carbon position of the cytosine ring in the DNA sequence. This is catalyzed by DNA methyltransferase enzymes (DNMTs) which transfer a methyl group from S-adenosyl methionine to an unmethylated cytosine^{60,61}. The methylation typically occurs at a so called CpG site, where a cytosine is followed by a guanine nucleotide (Figure 3). The DNA methylation process is reversible, either by a passive demethylation or by the active process where the ten-eleven translocation (TET) enzymes remove the methyl group^{62,63}.

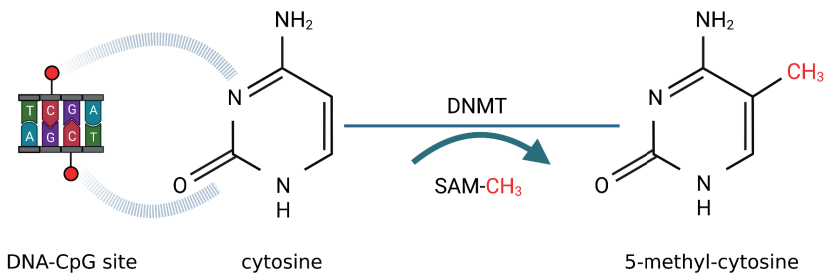


FIGURE 3. The DNA methylation process. A methyl group is transferred from S-adenosyl methionine to a cytosine nucleotide by DNA methyltransferase (DNMT). Created with Biorender.com

There are approximately 28 million CpG sites across the human genome of which the majority are methylated⁶⁴. These CpG sites are not equally distributed, and clusters of CpG sites appear on the DNA strands, so called CpG islands. These islands are usually located in the gene promoter regions and are mainly unmethylated in normal somatic cells⁶⁵⁻⁶⁷. The methylation pattern in the promoter region regulates the gene expression; an unmethylated promoter region permits for gene expression, while a hypermethylated promoter silences gene transcription (Figure 4)^{68,69}.

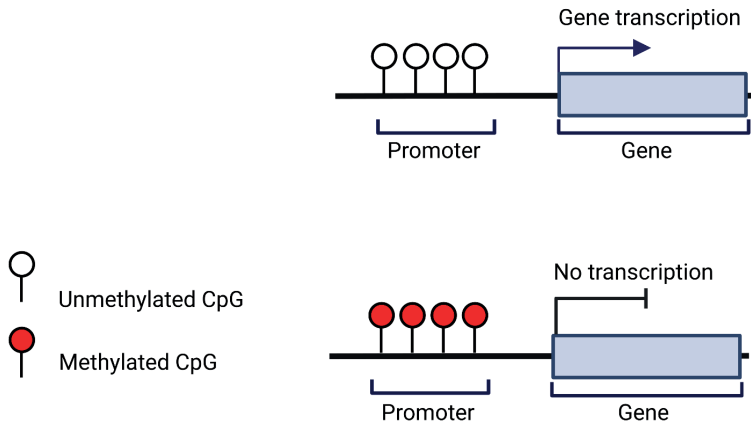


FIGURE 4. DNA methylation and gene expression. Created with Biorender.com

1.3.2 Epigenetics in cancer

The methylation pattern in tumor cells differs from that of normal cells⁷⁰. It has been demonstrated that different cell types, including cancer cells, display a distinct DNA methylation pattern that results in a specific fingerprint which reflects the cell-of-origin⁷¹. This fact is the background for the diagnostic capacity of DNA methylation.

In cancer tissue, a lower level of DNA methylation is observed genome-wide which leads to an increased frequency of mutations and an instability of chromosomes^{51,72}. In tumor suppressor genes, however, there is a hypermethylation of CpG sites in promoter regions which results in inactivation of gene transcription. In oncogenes the hypomethylation of promoter regions leads to an activation of transcription (Figure 5)^{71,73}.

Pediatric CNS tumors generally have much fewer genetic mutations compared to adult tumors, and the mutations that do occur in pediatric CNS tumors often encode epigenetic regulation^{10,74}. This suggests that epigenetic dysregulation is an important mechanism in tumor development in children, but all aspects are

not yet fully understood¹¹. For example, specific histone mutations have been identified as the driving mutations, in pediatric high-grade gliomas. The majority of pediatric high-grade gliomas contains driver mutations in the histone *H3.3*, which cause amino acid substitutions in the histone tail; *K27M* (for diffuse midline gliomas) or *G34R/V* (for diffuse hemispheric gliomas) leading to epigenetic dysregulations.

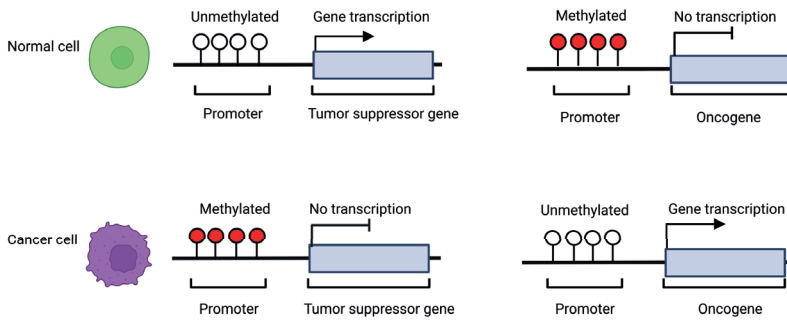


FIGURE 5. Alterations of DNA methylation in cancer.
Created with Biorender.com

1.3.3 DNA methylation for CNS tumor diagnostics and prognostics

As mentioned earlier, CNS tumors in children are rare and heterogenous, which makes diagnostics challenging. A correct diagnosis is highly essential to choose the appropriate therapy. Histopathological evaluation has shown interobserver variability and new diagnostic modalities have been desirable³⁸. In DNA methylation, the methyl group is tightly bound to the DNA strand resulting in a stable molecule that is suitable for diagnostic testing. A great advantage of DNA methylation profiling is that it can be performed on paraffin-embedded formalin-fixed (FFPE) material as well as on fresh frozen tissue^{75,76}. CNS tumor classification using DNA methylation profiling has been proven to be a trustworthy and robust tool to classify CNS tumors⁷⁷⁻⁸². Based on the different methylation signatures from various CNS

tumors, DNA methylation-based classifiers for acknowledged tumor types have been created using a machine learning algorithm. In recent years, several different methylation-based classifiers have been developed and shown to trustworthily classify CNS tumors; MethPed⁷⁸, a meningioma classifier⁸³ and a glioma classifier⁸⁴. This methylation-based tumor classification is not limited to CNS tumors and has also shown to have a potential in the clinical diagnostics for soft tissue and bone sarcomas⁸⁵. The most widely used classifier for CNS tumors is the Molecular neuropathology (MNP classifier) which was published in 2018 by Capper et al. The CNS tumor types and subtypes included in the classifier were based on methylation profiles from 2800 reference cases and the algorithm could classify the tumors into several different classes and subclasses^{77,86}. Furthermore, for some tumor types, the methylation-based classification can predict the patients' prognosis more accurately than the histopathological classification. This also applies to medulloblastoma, the most common malignant brain tumor in childhood, where methylation profiling among other molecular techniques has identified four molecular subgroups (wingless (WNT)-activated, Sonic Hedgehog (SHH)-activated, Group 3 and Group 4), which clearly differ in prognosis^{35,87,88}. Today, this categorization is the base for the choice of treatment to the patients. The molecular classification of CNS tumors is a dynamic field rapidly evolving, and nowadays the four medulloblastoma subgroups, can be further divided into several subtypes⁸⁹. The clinical implications of this extended taxonomy remain to be elucidated.

Likewise, the ependymomas, which is the third most common tumor type in children, are divided into several subclasses by methylation profiling leading to the revelation of diagnostic and prognostic information beyond histology^{90,91}.

Another important benefit from methylation-based tumor classification is the maintenance of the methylation signatures between the primary tumor and its relapse which is of great importance in clinical practice⁹²⁻⁹⁴.

Besides the methylation data, the methylation arrays can provide chromosomal copy number data which can identify chromosomal changes, so called copy number alterations (CNA). Some chromosomal gains and losses as well as focal gene deletions or amplifications are more common for certain tumor types and the copy number alterations can assist in diagnostics as well as to identify gene fusions⁹⁵.

1.4 Primitive neuroectodermal tumors of the CNS

About 15-20% of all primary brain tumors in children are embryonal tumors, which is a heterogeneous group of malignant CNS tumors (WHO grade 4) that primarily affects young children. Embryonal tumors show a similar morphology characterized by small, round cells with scant cytoplasm and varying degree of differentiation, but the histopathological diagnosis is challenging due to the lack of specific molecular markers. Over the years it has been a discussion how to classify these tumors. For long they were separated into different tumor entities based on the tumor site; a medulloblastoma if located in the posterior fossa, a pineoblastoma if sited in the pineal gland and a supratentorial or primitive neuroectodermal tumor of the CNS (CNS-PNET) if located above the tentorium⁹⁶. Although the tumors had similar morphology, clinical studies showed that survival rates for children with a CNS-PNET were worse compared to children with medulloblastoma treated in the same way^{97,98}. In 2002, microarray-based analyses could demonstrate that medulloblastoma, atypical teratoid rhabdoid tumors (AT/RT) and CNS-PNET were molecularly distinct tumor entities³⁴.

During the last decades, additional molecular markers and DNA methylation profiling have segregated the CNS-PNETs into different tumor entities or new molecular categories^{78, 99-101}. In a study by Sturm et al., 323 institutionally diagnosed CNS-PNETs were analyzed using DNA methylation profiling and the majority of tumors clustered to other known tumor entities, including misdiagnosed high-grade gliomas (HGGs), ependymomas (EPNs), AT/RTs, embryonal tumors with multi-layered rosettes (ETMRs) and new previously unknown tumor entities were discovered including CNS neuroblastoma with *FOXR2* activation (CNS-NB-*FOXR2*), CNS high-grade neuroepithelial tumor with *BCOR* alteration (CNS HGNET-*BCOR*), high-grade neuroepithelial tumor with *MNI* alteration (HGNET-*MNI*) and Ewing sarcoma family tumor with *CIC* alteration (EFT-*CIC*)¹⁰². Therefore, in the WHO classification from 2016 the term CNS-PNET was removed and substituted by the term CNS embryonal tumor

NOS. As a consequence of this reclassification, fewer tumors received the diagnosis of CNS embryonal tumor NOS.

In the WHO CNS5, these newly identified tumor types were incorporated as CNS neuroblastoma, *FOXR2*-activated (CNS NB-*FOXR2*) and CNS tumor with *BCOR* internal tandem duplication (CNS *BCOR* ITD). The tumor type *CIC*-rearranged sarcoma is currently listed under mesenchymal tumors in the CNS²⁹.

Among the embryonal tumors, medulloblastoma is the most common and constitutes approximately 15% of all CNS tumors in children, whereas CNS-PNET accounted for 3-5% of all pediatric CNS neoplasm^{2,24}. The median age at diagnosis for children diagnosed with a CNS-PNET was 3.5 years¹⁰³ and approximately 40% of the patients had metastatic disease at diagnosis according to Chang stage¹⁰⁴.

Patients diagnosed with a CNS-PNET were historically treated with the same protocols as high-risk medulloblastoma, including surgical resection of the tumors followed by craniospinal radiation (CSI) for children over the age of 3-5 years (4 years in Sweden) and chemotherapy¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁷. For younger children (< 3-5 years) radiation-sparing treatment was given, most often according to the German treatment protocols^{108,109}.

The overall survival for CNS-PNET was poor with 5-year overall survival rates of 43-49%¹¹⁰⁻¹¹³. However, after having realized that CNS-PNET consists of different tumor entities, retrospective clinical studies have shown that survival differed between the included tumor types; best OS was seen for CNS NB-*FOXR2* and worst for ETMR^{102, 114-117}.

Each of these rare embryonal tumors is unusual and specific clinical and treatment data are sparse. Some of the tumor types will be briefly presented beneath. Upon diagnosis, all patients undergo an initial staging procedure, including pre- and postoperative MRI of the brain and spine as well as a postoperative lumbar craniospinal fluid (CSF) cytology evaluation.

1.4.1 Embryonal tumor with multilayered rosettes

Embryonal tumor with multilayered rosettes is a highly malignant tumor primarily occurring in children younger than three years of age^{117,118}. The true incidence of ETMR is currently not known, but it seems like ETMRs constitute a relevant proportion of the former CNS-PNETs¹⁰². The predominant tumor location is supratentorial (64-70%), followed by the cerebellum and brain stem¹¹⁹⁻¹²¹. Disseminated disease at diagnosis has been reported in 24-27%¹¹⁷⁻¹¹⁹.

Diagnostic classification of ETMR

The histological patterns in ETMRs are variable, with three main patterns being described, all of which are characterized by the findings of multilayered rosettes^{29,122}. Besides the histological findings, the diagnostic criteria for ETMRs are based on molecular alterations such as amplification of the microRNA cluster on chromosome 19q (*C19MC*), which is present in approximately 90% of all ETMRs^{101,123} independent of the histological pattern. The expression of the microRNA cluster is often associated with the fusion of the promotor-gene of Tweety family member 1 (*TTYH1*) upstream of the *C19MC* which is thought to be the main driver of the tumor^{120,124}. Some of the ETMRs that do not have the microRNA cluster amplification have a biallelic mutation in the *DICER1* gene, which results in an improper processing of the microRNAs¹²⁵. Typically, the biallelic mutations are combinations of a germline mutation and a second somatic mutation and is often part of the cancer predisposition syndrome *DICER1*¹²⁵.

Besides the alterations affecting the microRNA pathway, the ETMRs are characterized by a high expression of the RNA-binding protein LIN28A, which can be verified by staining¹²⁶. Although this LIN28A expression is not entirely specific to ETMR (occasionally also seen in AT/RTs, germinomas, high-grade gliomas) it is considered as a characteristic marker for this tumor¹²⁷. In addition, ETMR tumors have been shown to exhibit a distinctive DNA methylation pattern^{124,125} and the *C19MC* amplification can, for example, be detected by fluorescence *in*

situ hybridization, single nucleotide polymorphism array or DNA methylation array. A histological image of ETMR and a CNA plot are shown in Figure 6.

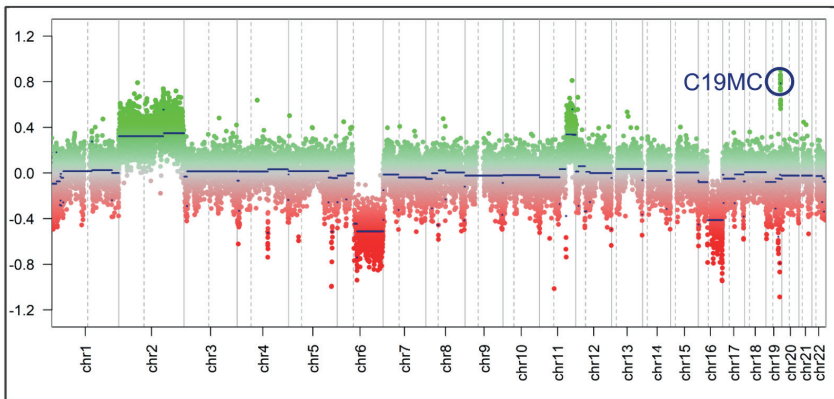
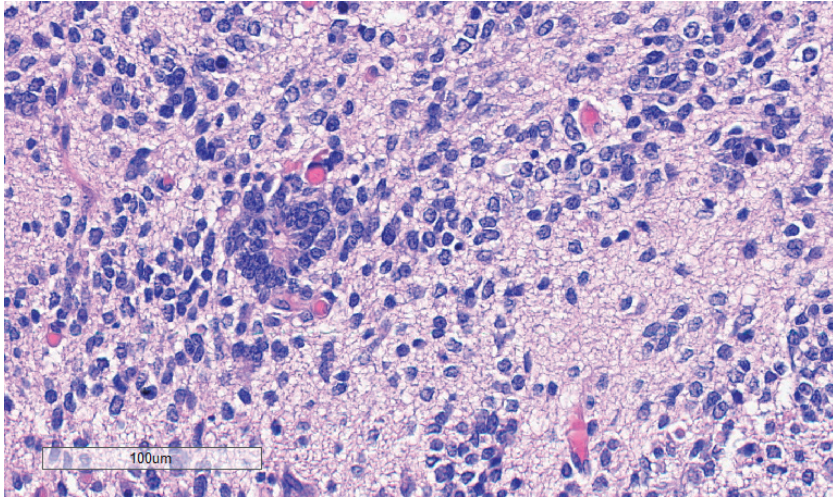


FIGURE 6. Multilayered rosettes typical for embryonal tumors of multilayered rosettes and a CNA plot demonstrating the amplification of the *C19MC* on chromosome 19.

Therapeutic management and clinical outcome

Most of the current knowledge about the clinical features and outcomes of ETMRs relies on retrospective studies on children previously diagnosed with a CNS-PNET. The overall prognosis for children diagnosed with an ETMR tumor is very poor with a reported median survival of 12.3 months and 5-year survival rates of 18-28%^{115,117,126} despite intensive treatment. Prognostically important factors associated with a longer survival are localized disease and non-brainstem location¹¹⁹. Two recently published studies reported a significant better outcome (2 and 5-year survival rates of 66% and 58%, respectively) for children with non-brainstem, localized ETMR when treatment was combined with complete surgical resection, high-dose chemotherapy with stem cell rescue (HDSCR) and radiation (focal or CSI)^{117,119}.

1.4.2 CNS neuroblastoma, *FOXR2*-activated

Diagnostic classification of CNS NB-*FOXR2*

In the WHO classification of CNS tumors from 2016, the diagnosis of CNS neuroblastoma was incorporated as a separate tumor entity solely defined by its histological features³³. CNS neuroblastomas are tumors with neuroectodermal origin, although the exact cell of origin is unknown. Later it became evident that these tumors are characterized by specific chromosomal rearrangements which result in an increased activation of the transcription factor forkhead box R2 (*FOXR2*)¹⁰². The dysregulation of the *FOXR2* gene is important in the tumorigenesis for different tumors and for inducing CNS embryonal tumors^{128,129}. In the WHO CNS5 this tumor is defined as a separate tumor type named CNS neuroblastoma, *FOXR2*-activated^{29,45}. In addition to the histopathological findings, the tumors are characterized by a typical methylation profile and can be reliably classified using DNA methylation analysis^{116,130}. Nearly all these tumors exhibit typical chromosomal alterations such as gain of 1q, loss of 3p and 16q as well as gain of 17q^{114,116,131}.

Therapeutic management and clinical outcome

So far, CNS NB-*FOXR2* has only been reported in the supratentorial region and 17-20% of the patients had metastatic lesions at diagnosis^{114,132}. The median age at diagnosis was five-eight years^{114, 116}. On imaging, the tumors were described as large with mixed solid and cystic lesions and limited perifocal edema. The contrast enhancement was variable^{131,132}. An example of a CNS NB-*FOXR2* visualized by MRI is shown in Figure 7.

Most patients have been treated according to various CNS-PNET protocols and retrospective analyses report on favorable survival for patients treated with up-front CSI in combination with maintenance chemotherapy with 5-year survival rates of 82-85%¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁶. This is also the treatment of choice today. For young children, CSI-sparing regimens including combinations of chemotherapy and HDSCR is recommended.

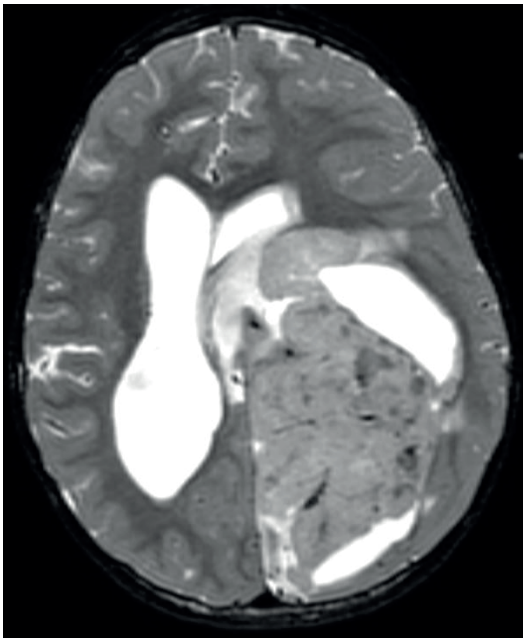


FIGURE 7. Magnetic resonance imaging of a CNS neuroblastoma, *FOXR2*-activated.

1.4.3 CNS tumor with *BCOR* internal tandem duplication (ITD)

Another of these novel rare embryonal tumors is the CNS tumor with *BCOR* ITD which was identified by methylome analysis in 2016 and characterized by an internal tandem duplication in exon 15 of the *BCOR* gene¹⁰². The gene is located on the X chromosome and is an epigenetic regulator. The *BCOR* ITD is the same genetic alteration described in renal clear cell sarcomas and some soft tissue sarcomas^{133,134} and the tumor's relationship to mesenchymal tumors is not yet clear.

The *BCOR* ITD tumors have variable histological features and molecular confirmation of the ITD in exon 15 of the *BCOR* gene by gene expression or by DNA methylation is a required diagnostic criteria according to the WHO CNS5²⁹.

Clinical data is sparse and based on small series of patients but shows that the tumors predominantly occur in younger children and can appear anywhere along the neuroaxis^{135,136}. The prognosis is poor with a 5-year OS of 50-54%^{115,136}. However, several long-term survivors have been reported^{102,135}.

1.5 Epidemiological classification of CNS tumors

As mentioned before, the diagnoses of pediatric CNS neoplasms are based on the diagnostic criteria from the WHO Classification of CNS tumors. The morphological coding system in the WHO Classification relates to the International Classification of Diseases for Oncology (ICD-O) codes¹³⁷. This international standard is based on morphology, localization, and biological behavior of the tumors and is used globally in cancer registries today. As part of the coding system, the tumors are coded depending on their behavior; /0 for benign tumors, /1 for unspecified, borderline, or uncertain behavior, (/2 for in situ lesions) and /3 for malignant tumors. It should be noted that this type of grading is *not* the same as the WHO grading system (1-4)²⁹.

It is well established that classification of neoplasm in children is based on morphology and not, as in adults, on the primary site of the cancer. The third edition of International Classification of Childhood Cancer (ICCC-3) was published in 2005 and is based on the ICD-O-3 (third edition) codes¹³⁸. This provides a standardized classification of cancer, which is essential for comparing incidence and survival worldwide and over time. ICCC-3 classifies all childhood cancers into 12 main groups, in which CNS constitute group III. Tumors of the CNS are divided into six subgroups; a - ependymomas and choroid plexus tumors, b - astrocytomas, c - embryonal tumors, d - other gliomas, e - other specified tumors and f - unspecified tumor diagnoses and these subgroups are then further subdivided (Table 1).

TABLE 1 Diagnostic groups by International Classification of Childhood Cancer, Third Edition

Diagnostic groups by International Classification of Childhood Cancer, Third Edition

Main group	III. CNS and miscellaneous intracranial and intraspinal neoplasms
Subgroup	IIIa. Ependymomas and choroid plexus tumor
	IIIa1. Ependymomas
	IIIa2. Choroid Plexus tumor
Subgroup	IIIb. Astrocytomas
Subgroup	IIIc. Embryonal tumors
	IIIc1. Medulloblastomas
	IIIc2. PNET
	IIIc3. Medulloepithelioma
	IIIc4. Atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor
Subgroup	IIId. Other gliomas
	IIId1. Oligodendrogliomas
	IIId2. Mixed and unspecified gliomas
	IIId3. Neuroepithelial glial tumors of uncertain origin
Subgroup	IIIe. Other specified intracranial and intraspinal neoplasms
	IIIe1. Pituitary adenomas and carcinomas
	IIIe2. Tumors of the sellar region (craniopharyngiomas)
	IIIe3. Pineal parenchymal tumors
	IIIe4. Neuronal and mixed neuronal-gliial tumors
	IIIe5. Meningiomas
Subgroup	IIIf. Unspecified intracranial and intraspinal neoplasms
Main group	X. Germ cell tumors
Subgroup	Xa. Intracranial and intraspinal germinomas

All CNS tumors can unfortunately, independent of tumor type, cause severe damage to the affected patient due to the anatomic conditions and a morphological diagnosis is not always possible. Therefore, *all* CNS tumors are, irrespective whether classified as malignant (behavior code 3) or non-malignant, included within the ICC-3 classification system, which is different from other non-malignant neoplasms.

Globally, different cancer registries have varying registry policies, e.g., some registries include only tumor types with a malignant behavior code which challenges tumor registration and statistical comparisons across international registries^{139,140}. For example, in the US, registration of non-malignant tumors was previously not mandatory and therefore limited. After 2004, it was mandated by law to include non-malignant tumors. In addition, the ICD-O behavior code for the most common tumor in children, Pilocytic astrocytoma (PA), changed from /3 (malignant) in the ICD-O 2nd edition to /1 (non-malignant) in the 3rd, which also affects the accuracy of cancer registries for CNS tumors. Examples of other tumors with a non-malignant behavior code are craniopharyngiomas, dysembryoplastic neuroepithelial tumor (DNET) and desmoplastic infantile astrocytoma (DIA) which all are tumors that typically appear in childhood.

With the rapidly evolving molecular classification new tumor types are identified. It is not always obvious into which group these new tumors should be sorted in the current ICCC-3 classification.

1.5.1 Childhood CNS tumor registration in Sweden

Since 1958, all Swedish inhabitants diagnosed with cancer in Sweden have been registered in the Swedish Cancer Registry. This registration is mandatory, and the aim is to monitor the incidence and time trend of different cancers. To create a more complete registry for children with more detailed information, the Swedish *Childhood* Cancer Registry (SCCR) was started. Since 1984, all children living in Sweden diagnosed with a neoplasm before the age of 18 have been registered by clinicians in this nationwide clinical database. The SCCR contains individual-based data on diagnosis, treatment and long-term follow-up. The registration also facilitates the evaluation of treatment outcomes. All six pediatric oncology centers in Sweden administer the registration of the patients belonging to their population area. The unique Swedish personal identity number ensures that no double registration can occur.

All CNS tumors have been registered in the SCCR regardless of their grade of malignancy. The variables included in the SCCR are gender, date of birth, date of diagnosis, histopathological diagnosis or clinical diagnosis in the absence of morphological diagnosis. The WHO tumor grade, tumor location as well as treatment details and follow up are registered. This systematic registration now allows for a very long-term follow-up.

1.6 Treatment and long-term follow up

Currently, the treatment for CNS tumors includes surgery and sometimes chemotherapy and/or radiotherapy. In the last decade, targeted therapy has emerged as a choice of treatment as molecular alterations in pediatric CNS tumors have been deciphered.

The overall survival for children with a brain tumor has improved over the last years and the 5-year OS is now over 70% (73-75%)^{16, 19}. The prognosis for malignant tumors still remains poor^{2,19} and brain tumors are the leading cause of death from cancer in children in higher income countries¹⁷. For survivors, cure often has a high price, with an increased risk of developing short-term and long-term sequelae including neurological deficits, endocrinopathy and cognitive impairments.^{4,5,141-143} as well as the risk of premature death later than five years after diagnosis^{144,145}. The excess late mortality risk seems to persist even 25 years after diagnosis¹⁴⁶ and depends on non-neoplastic causes as well as on recurrence of the primary tumor or secondary neoplasms^{147,148}.

In the last years it has become clear that long-term follow-up is very important for these patients and that national guidelines are essential to achieve a structured and standardized follow-up^{149,150}.

02

AIM

The overall aim of this PhD thesis was to study the role of DNA methylation profiling in the diagnostics of children diagnosed with a CNS tumor in Sweden. Furthermore, a secondary aim was to study epidemiological data for CNS tumors with respect to tumor classification, incidence, and long-term outcome.

Paper I:

- To study descriptive epidemiological data on the incidence, the distribution of tumor diagnoses, and long-term follow-up for children diagnosed with a tumor in the CNS in Sweden 1984-2021.

Paper II:

- To evaluate whether the systematical implementation of DNA methylation profiling in real time diagnostics strengthens the routine diagnostics for all children diagnosed with a CNS tumor during a four-year period (2017-2020).

Paper III:

- To study the re-classification of historical CNS-PNETs and long-term outcome for the different rare embryonal tumor types in a national population-based setting.

03

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patient cohorts (paper I-III)

In **paper I**, children younger than 18 years of age at diagnosis were included if they had received the diagnosis of a primary CNS tumor in Sweden between January 1st, 1984, and December 31st, 2021, and were registered in the Swedish Childhood Cancer Registry. Clinical information was collected from the registry or from the patients' medical records. All patients were followed until death or until December 31st, 2021. The study was approved by the ethics committee in Sweden (Dnr 2019-06586, 2021-06259-02).

In **paper II**, all children (<18 years at diagnosis) diagnosed with a CNS tumor in Sweden between January 1st, 2017, and December 31st, 2020, were qualified for inclusion in the study if sufficient FFPE material was available for DNA methylation array and informed consent could be obtained. All patients were diagnosed at one of the six pediatric neuro-oncology centers in Sweden. The study was approved by the regional ethics committee in Gothenburg, Sweden (Dnr 604-12, T1162-16).

In **paper III**, all children (<18 years of age at diagnosis) diagnosed with a CNS-PNET in Sweden between January 1st, 1984, and December 31st, 2015 that were registered in SCCR were eligible. Clinical data were collected from the registry or from the medical charts. The study was approved by the regional ethics committee in Gothenburg, Sweden (Dnr 604-12, T581-15, T821-17).

Epidemiological tumor classification (paper I)

The tumor diagnoses were coded based on the ICD-O codes. Missing or unclear diagnoses were checked with the patients' charts and in the absence of a morphological diagnosis a clinical diagnosis was obtained in most cases.

The tumors were classified according to the ICCC-3 classification system but with the incorporation of additional subgroups to the classification system to accomplish a more relevant clinical approach.

Immunohistochemistry (paper II-III)

All immunohistochemistry and additional molecular analyses were performed according to WHO 2016 (in paper II)³³ and WHO 2021 (in paper III)²⁹.

Estimation of tumor cell content (paper II)

The percentage of tumor cell content in each sample was estimated by two neuropathologists, using hematoxylin and eosin-stained slides, under the light microscope. The percentage ranged from 0% (no neoplastic cells) to 100% (only neoplastic cells). A high tumor cell content was defined as $\geq 70\%$. All tumor samples collected in the study were analyzed independently of the tumor cell content.

DNA methylation profiling (paper II-III)

DNA methylation analysis

To analyze the methylation pattern in samples, bisulfite modification was used which converts unmethylated cytosine (C) to uracil but leaves methylated cytosine unchanged¹⁵¹. The bisulfite-treated DNA was then amplified by polymerase chain reaction, where unmethylated C is amplified as thymine (T) and methylated C as C. All tumor samples in paper II and III were retrieved from FFPE tumor blocks from six different pathology departments in Sweden. DNA was extracted from the tumor samples and approximately 500ng from each sample was bisulfite-modified. The bisulfite-modified DNA from the FFPE samples was thereafter repaired/restored before the methylation profiling.

Analysis of genome-wide DNA methylation patterns was performed using Infinium Human Methylation Bead-Chip array (Illumina) and the methylation values of 450 000 or 850 000 CpG sites of the genome were measured with the 450K array or the EPIC array. The arrays measure the methylation pattern using probes that produce fluorescent signals for each CpG site, which represent methylated (red) and unmethylated (green) status. Depending on the methylation status of the analyzed DNA, different signals are produced (Figure 8).

The raw methylation data was further analyzed using established biostatistics software in R¹⁵² where the relationship between methylated and unmethylated sites was calculated and presented as a β value. The β value ranges between 0-1 where $\beta = 0$ refers to completely unmethylated CpG sites and $\beta = 1$ to completely methylated CpG sites.



FIGURE 8. The process of DNA methylation analysis. Created using Biorender.com

DNA methylation-based classification

The methylation-based tumor classification was performed using the MNP classifier, which is open and available on the website (www.molecularneuropathology.org). The brain tumor classifier version 11b4 comprises 82 CNS tumor methylation classes and nine control tissue classes⁷⁷. Since its publication, the MNP classifier has been updated several times. The latest brain tumor classifier version 12.5 (unpublished) includes 184 molecular tumor classes, subclasses and control tissue classes¹⁵³. The classifier version 12.5 classifies the tumor samples into four hierarchical levels; a superfamily, a family, a class and a subclass.

The methylation raw data from the tumor samples was uploaded and the results from the brain tumor classifier were represented as a calibrated score (CS). This score ranges from 0-1 and reflects the probability that the analyzed tumor belongs to a given tumor class or subclass included in the classifier. In version 11b4, the recommended threshold is set to ≥ 0.9 for a valid classification to a known tumor class and to ≥ 0.5 to a subclass⁷⁷. In version 12.5, the threshold is set to ≥ 0.9 on all four hierarchical levels¹⁵³. In paper II, we used the MNP classifier 11b4 but used the alternate calibrated score of ≥ 0.84 for a valid classification which is suggested for clinical samples by the classifier's developers¹³⁰. In paper III, we used version 12.5 with the cutoff of ≥ 0.9 for a valid classification.

Additionally, in paper II, all non-WNT/non-SHH medulloblastomas were additionally classified in the separate medulloblastoma classifier: medulloblastoma classifier group 3/4 version 1.0, which classified these medulloblastomas into the subtypes I-VIII.

Chromosomal copy number alterations (paper II-III)

DNA methylation data can be used to generate information on genome-wide copy number alterations, CNAs⁹⁵. Certain CNAs are more prevalent in certain tumors and this information is therefore important and helpful in the diagnostics¹³⁰. In paper II and III we analyzed the CNA profiles inferred from the methylation data to determine chromosomal rearrangements in the tumor samples.

Statistical methods (paper I-III)

The age-standardized incidence rate (ASR) per 100 000 person-years was adjusted using the weight of the world standard population. The population size was retrieved from Statistics Sweden which covers the complete childhood population living in Sweden. Exact estimations of person-years at risk were gained by annual age-stratified data from all of Sweden. The average child population (age 0 -15 years) was 1.5 million.

The probability of OS after diagnosis was estimated using the Kaplan-Meier method and the differences in outcome between diagnostic groups were tested using the log-rank method. P values <0.05 were considered significant. Death was defined as an event. Dates of death were retrieved from the SCCR through the Swedish population registry.

04

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Paper I: Incidence and long-term survival in children diagnosed with CNS tumors in children 1984-2021

The incidence and mortality rates of pediatric CNS tumors vary considerably between countries¹⁵. Different national cancer registries have different registration practices regarding CNS tumors, for example they differ whether all non-malignant CNS tumors are registered or not. Globally, CNS tumors are classified according to the ICCC-3 classification system to facilitate comparison of incidence, tumor distribution and survival across countries. Registration in the Swedish Childhood Cancer Registry began in 1984 and both benign and malignant CNS tumors have been registered since then. In paper I, we reviewed the SCCR and evaluated epidemiological data on incidence, short- and long-term outcome for children diagnosed with a tumor in the CNS in Sweden 1984-2021.

A total of 3361 individuals (under 18 years of age at diagnosis) diagnosed with a primary CNS tumor were identified in the SCCR. Children with non-classical CNS tumors were excluded. For a better comparison to other studies, we divided the study-population into two groups; children aged <15 years at diagnosis and older children, aged 15 - <18 years at diagnosis (Figure 9).

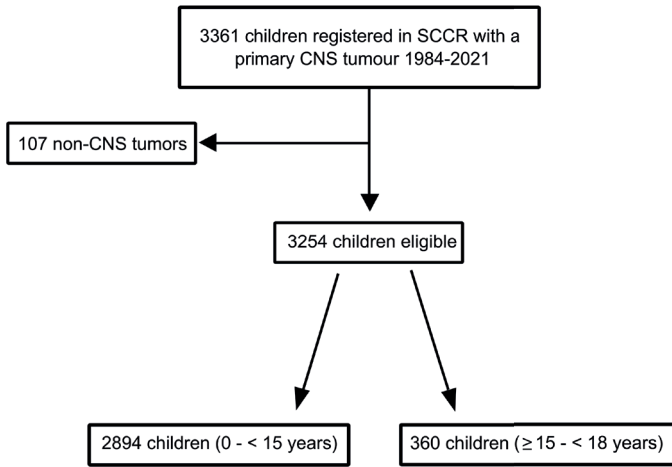


FIGURE 9. Cohort description, paper I as described in methods. SCCR, Swedish Childhood Cancer Registration.

The majority of the patients were males (54%), and the location of the tumors was supratentorial in 50%, infratentorial in 43% and spinal in 4% (Figure 10).

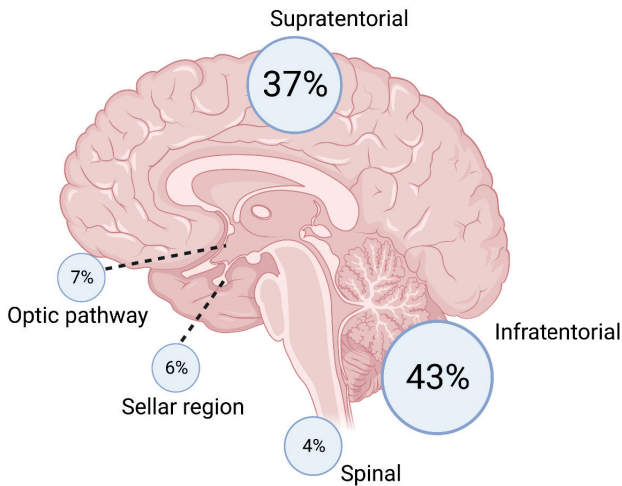


FIGURE 10. Localization of CNS tumors in children <18 years of age at diagnosis. Created with Biorender.com

A. Children aged <15 years of age at diagnosis

We found a relatively high annual ASR compared to what has been reported from many other countries^{16,18,19}. The incidence rate remained stable over the entire study period. Since 1984, Sweden has carefully and systematically registered CNS tumors independently of tumor type and the coverage rate for CNS tumors is believed to be high. The Swedish national identification number ensures that no double registration have occurred. Almost 83% of the tumors had a registered morphological diagnosis.

The astrocytomas were the largest diagnostic tumor group, comprising 49% of the CNS tumors in this age group. This number is higher compared to a previous Swedish epidemiological study² as well as the number that is reported in other studies^{16,18,19,154}. This can be partly explained by the carefully performed registry review that allocated the Diffuse intrinsic pontine gliomas (DIPGs) to the astrocytoma group. The distribution of other tumor groups was similar to findings in other studies^{16,18,19}.

The 5-year OS for the CNS tumors in children in this age group was 78% which declined to 72% at 20 years of follow-up, similar to survival rates reported in Denmark¹⁶ and France¹⁹. Long-term survivors of childhood brain tumors suffer not only from increased late-appearing morbidity¹⁵⁵⁻¹⁵⁷ but they also have a high risk of late mortality^{158,159}. We evaluated the long-term outcomes for the different tumor groups and tumor diagnoses and concluded that survival rates for some tumor types continued to decrease for a long time after diagnosis. This was not only seen in patients with malignant tumors, like medulloblastomas and ependymomas but also in craniopharyngiomas, optic pathway gliomas and other non-malignant tumors. The survival rates for some of the tumor groups are shown in Figure 11. These findings, indeed, emphasize the need for a life-long follow-up independently of tumor type or the treatment modalities received.

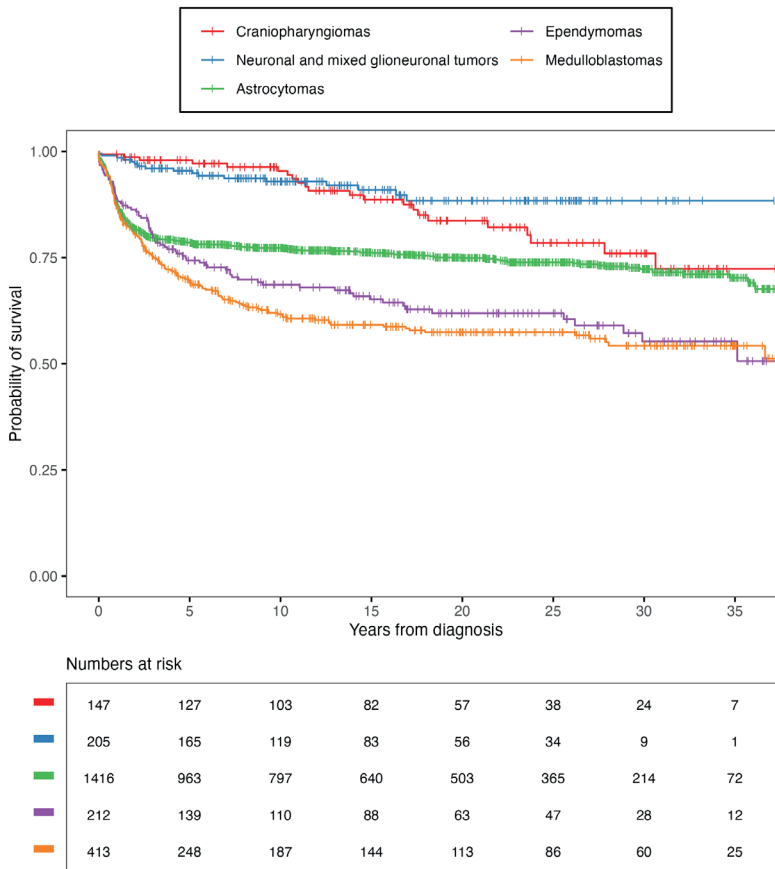


FIGURE 11. Kaplan-Meier plots of survival by some diagnostic groups of CNS tumors in Sweden in children 0-<15 years of age at diagnosis.

The classification system ICCC-3 was established in the 1990s as a tool to compare incidence and survival of childhood cancer on an international level. From a clinical perspective, there are several shortcomings in this general classification system. All astrocytomas are not part of the same condition and should not be combined as one diagnostic group as the different tumor types differ in survival and prevalence. This became evident in our study. We therefore further subdivided the ICCC-3 tumor groups into additional tumor subgroups or tumor diagnoses to make

the classification system more clinically relevant and to receive information on long-term outcome for specific tumor diagnoses and tumor types. Also, as new tumor diagnoses have emerged, the classification system has not yet been adapted to the reclassified tumors. In the future, the newly identified and reclassified tumor types will be relocated to different ICCC-3 subgroups, which will affect the distribution of the tumors and requires updates of the classification system on a regular basis.

B. Children aged 15-<18 years of age at diagnosis

The age group 15-<18 years is not treated by pediatric oncologists all over the world. Therefore this age group is excluded in many epidemiological studies. However, it is important to have profound knowledge about the epidemiological perspective and clinical course for CNS tumors in this age group as well. We therefore also analyzed the epidemiological findings in this age group. The spectrum of CNS tumor types and tumor sites differed compared to that in younger children. A higher proportion of the tumors were supratentorial and spinal. Pilocytic astrocytomas were most common, followed by neuronal and mixed glioneuronal tumors and germ cell tumors. The proportion of pituitary tumors and craniopharyngiomas were lower compared to findings in other countries^{17,160} which may be an underrepresentation in our material. The long-term overall survival rates for this patient cohort were superior to that of younger children but also varied between the tumor types.

4.2 Paper II: DNA methylation profiling improves routine diagnosis of paediatric central nervous system tumours: A prospective population-based study

Classification of pediatric CNS tumors is challenging as the tumors are heterogenic and rare. DNA methylation profiling has emerged as an important technique in the diagnostics of CNS tumors¹⁶¹⁻¹⁶⁴ and has been more frequently requested and used in the clinical diagnostics in recent years. In paper II¹⁶⁵, we investigated whether methylation analysis could improve routine diagnostics if used up-front by performing DNA methylation profiling on all childhood CNS tumors diagnosed in Sweden during a period of four years in a prospective setting. A total of 250 tumor samples from pediatric patients were collected from pathology departments in all of Sweden. We analyzed the tumor samples with Illumina 450K or EPIC array. The methylation-based tumor classification was compared to the histopathological reports and in case of incongruent results they were re-evaluated by an experienced neuropathologist who was masked for the original histopathological diagnoses as well as the methylation-based classifications (Figure 12). During the study-period the 2016 WHO classification was applied.

In total, 372 pediatric patients (<18 years of age) were diagnosed with a CNS tumor in Sweden during the study-period and 250 samples were included in the study. The histopathological diagnoses of the included tumor samples were representative of the general distribution of CNS tumors in Sweden (Figure 13)².

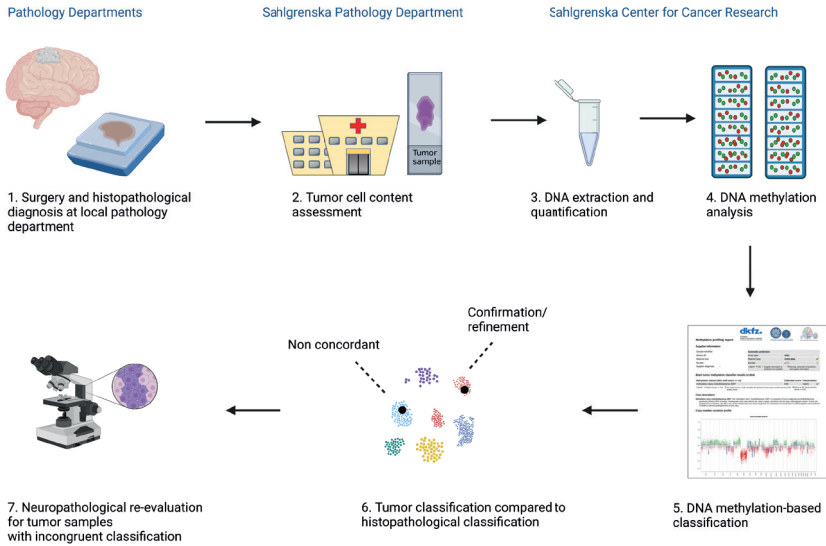


FIGURE 12. National methylation study set up. Created with Biorender.com

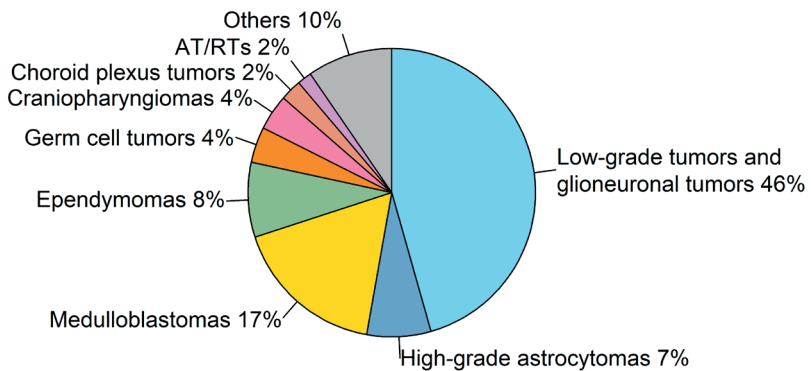


FIGURE 13: Cohort description and histopathological diagnoses of the included patients. Based on data extracted from Paper II, Schepke et al., 2023¹⁶⁵ (Neuropathology and applied neurobiology).

The ten patients with germ cell tumors were excluded as this diagnosis was not included in the classifier version 11b4 and the study cohort thus constituted of 240 tumor samples. Classification of the tumors by methylation profiling was accomplished in 78% (187/240 tumors) (Figure 14). The histopathological tumor diagnoses were confirmed in 69% and refined in 25%. In 6% (14/240) the predicted tumor diagnoses from the methylation-based classification were incongruent to the histopathological diagnoses. On re-evaluation by the reference neuropathologist, the diagnoses for these 14 tumor samples were *all* in favor of the methylation-based classification. The implications of the changed diagnoses would have had a direct impact on management of the patients in 11 of these 14 cases, corresponding to 5% of the total cohort. Similar numbers have been reported in other publications^{161,166}.

During the study-period, the MNP brain tumor methylation classifier version 12.5 became available for use¹⁵³. We re-analyzed all the 240 tumor samples and found that several more samples reached a high CS independently of tumor cell content and new tumor classes were identified (Figure 14).

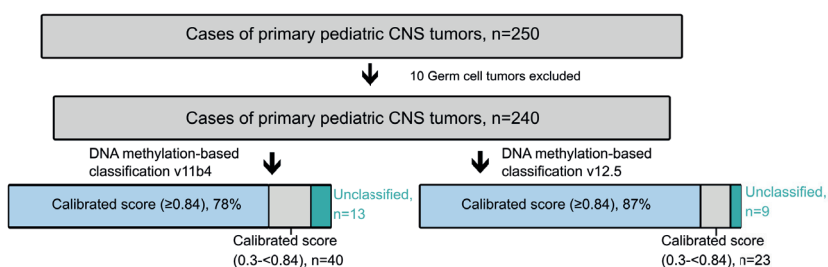


FIGURE 14. Result of DNA methylation classification of pediatric CNS tumors. Image adapted from Paper II, Schepke et al., 2022¹⁶⁵ (Neuropathology and applied neurobiology).

Our study demonstrated many benefits of DNA methylation profiling; the methylation-based classification provided an additional layer in the molecular diagnostics and had an added value in real-time diagnostics. Also, the CNAs generated from the methylation data provided information on molecular alterations that was important in the diagnostics. None of the FFPE tumor samples failed technically, which demonstrates the stability of the method.

However, there are also limitations in the algorithm-based classification^{167,168}. For example, when the classifier confidently classifies the tumor but in a potential misleading way or when the algorithm cannot find a class prediction with a high calibrated score ($CS \geq 0.9$), the interpretation may be problematical. When the calibrated score is low there is a higher rate of misleading diagnoses¹⁶¹. Several factors can lead to a lower CS; low tumor cell content, poor DNA quality, DNA heterogeneity or that the actual tumor diagnosis is not included in the classifier^{169,170}. The proportion of neoplastic cells in a tumor sample is important as the methylation array detects signals generated from the included CpG sites from all the analyzed cells. The majority of the tumor samples in our cohort that were classified as “normal brain control tissue” classes or received a $CS < 0.84$ had a low tumor cell content which probably explains the low scores. As with all diagnostic testing it is crucial to interpret the result from the methylation profiling in the clinical, radiological, and morphological context. A limitation of the study was that neither micro- nor macrodissection of the tumor samples were performed, due to logistical reasons in the set-up of the study.

The proportion of tumor cell content is important in the interpretation of the results. A tumor cell content of $>70\%$ in the samples was recommended for the MNP classifier¹³⁰ but even though more than 30% of the tumor samples in our cohort had a tumor cell content $<70\%$ the majority was confidently classified, and we concluded that one should not refrain from performing the profiling solely based on the tumor cell content in the sample (Figure 15).

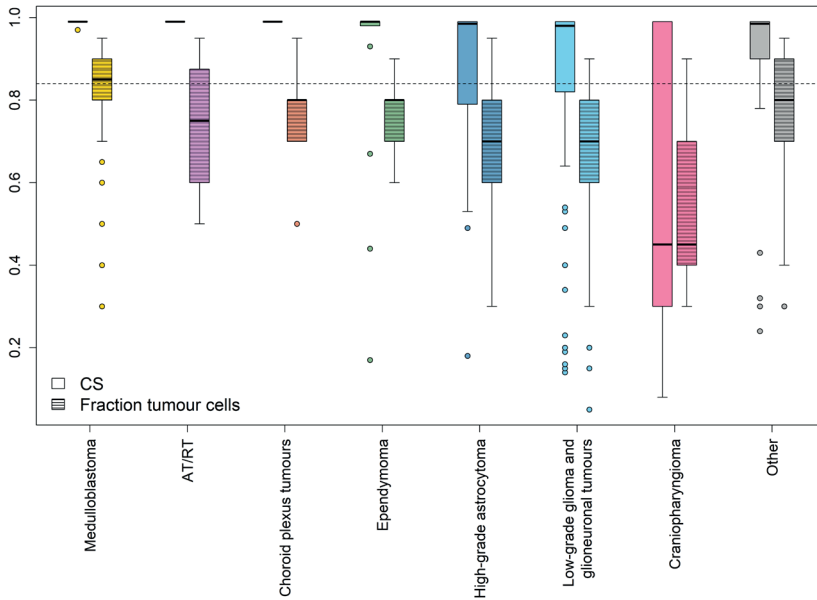


FIGURE 15. Tumor cell content and calibrated score in relation to different tumor types. Image taken from Paper II, Schepke et al., 2022¹⁶⁵ (Neuropathology and applied neurobiology).

This was a population-based study with the intention to evaluate the added value of performing DNA methylation profiling on all tumor diagnoses. One could argue that the exclusion of germ cell tumors was unjustified as these tumors potentially could be classified as a different tumor type. But as the germ cell tumors were not included in version 11b4 there was no precondition given to include them. The samples were re-analyzed in version 12.5 and 9/10 samples classified as different germ cell tumors.

4.3 Paper III: Supratentorial CNS-PNETs in children; a Swedish population-based study with molecular re-evaluation and long-term follow-up

CNS-PNET was no longer recognized as a single entity in the 2016 WHO classification of CNS tumors³³. By using molecular analyses, many tumors previously known as CNS-PNETs, are now reclassified into different tumors with specific genetic characteristics¹⁰². They differ in their clinical course and outcome^{114,115}. These rare CNS embryonal tumors are now incorporated into the latest WHO classification of CNS tumors (2021)²⁹. In paper III, we collected all the tumors from patients diagnosed with a CNS-PNET that we could identify in the SCCR, n=71 and reclassified them by histopathology and DNA methylation profiling and collected clinical data (Figure 16).

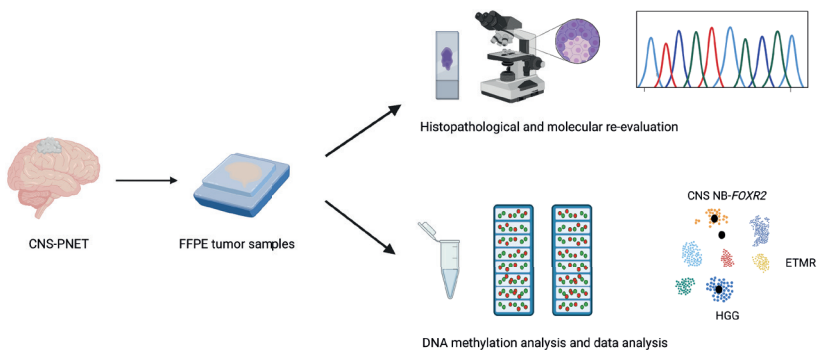


FIGURE 16. Study set up for re-evaluation of CNS-PNETs. Created with Biorender.com

Our study demonstrated the heterogeneity within this tumor cohort. We found that most of the re-evaluated CNS-PNETs were different types of HGGs, AT/RTs, CNS NB-*FOXR2*s and a minor part were ETMRs and other rare CNS embryonal tumors. The distribution of tumor types was in line with previous publications^{102, 114,171}. Our results showed that DNA methylation confirmed the new morphological diagnoses and could further subdivide the tumors into more specific subgroups (Figure 17). DNA methylation also identified a newly suggested CNS embryonal tumor with *PLAG*-family amplification which is not yet incorporated in the 2021 WHO classification of CNS tumors.

The reviewing neuropathologist in our study is one of the most experienced in this field, being a member of the WHO expert committee. The use of DNA methylation profiling for these rare tumors is therefore probably even more helpful in the everyday diagnostics. Some of the tumor samples were more than 30 years old and still the methylation analysis was technically successful which shows that it works well also on old tumor material.

The 13 tumors that could not be confidently classified (CS <0.9) by methylation profiling were further analyzed by visualizing the tumor classification in a t-SNE plot. The majority of the tumors clustered to the different HGGs in the reference cohort, which was in agreement with the diagnoses given by the reference neuropathologist.

Clinical data was collected for all the 71 CNS-PNET patients. The OS rates for the whole cohort were poor with a 5-year OS of 45%±12%. As expected, the survival rates varied extensively between the different re-evaluated tumor types and best survival rates were seen for CNS NB-*FOXR2* and lowest for HGG, AT/RTs and ETMRs. Other publications have shown similar results^{114,115}. All children in our cohort diagnosed with a CNS NB-*FOXR2* had received craniospinal irradiation and all are long-term survivors, and it seems that this is important for survival for this diagnosis¹¹⁴.

All these tumors mentioned are rare. A correct diagnosis is the foundation for deciding on further treatment and our study confirms the additional layer in diagnostics provided by DNA methylation analysis. At present the variety in treatment modalities is limited and lags behind the discovery of new tumor types. With the development of targeted therapies there is hope that this will change in the future. Retrospective studies help in investigating the prevalence of these tumors and describe the treatment given which hopefully also can help in evaluating the most appropriate treatment.

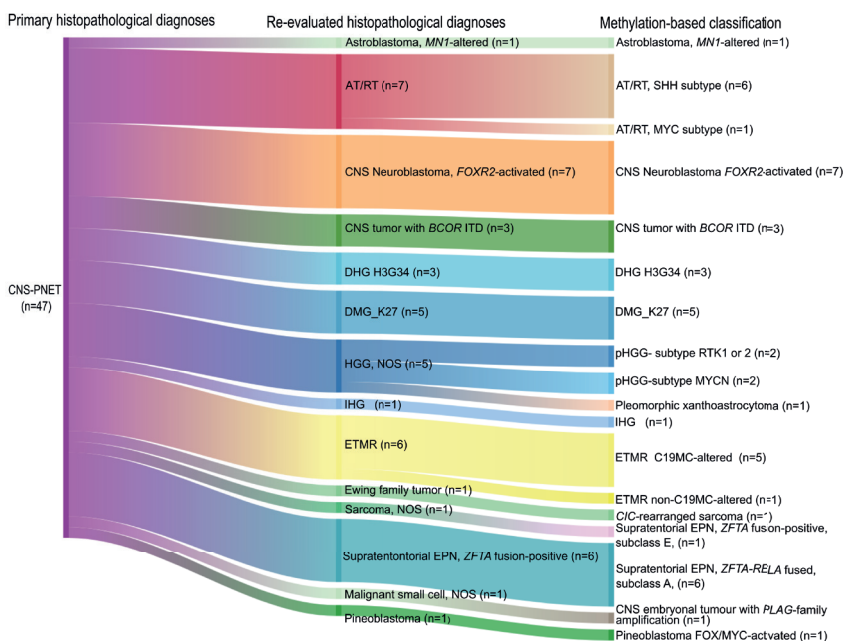


FIGURE 17. Sankey diagram over the 47 CNS-PNETs that were classified by DNA methylation. Adapted from Paper III, Schepke et al¹⁷² (BioMed Central, Clinical Epigenetics).

05

CONCLUSION

In our national-based studies, we (1) collected comprehensive data on all children diagnosed with a CNS tumor in Sweden during a time period of almost 40 years, (2) investigated whether DNA methylation profiling could improve routine diagnostics on pediatric CNS tumors if used up-front and (3) re-classified the former CNS tumors diagnosed as CNS-PNET through DNA methylation and histopathology.

Paper I:

- The incidence rate of pediatric CNS tumors was relatively high but remained stable over time.
- The spectrum of CNS tumors was similar to reports from other countries.
- The overall survival for patients diagnosed with a CNS tumor has improved over time but for several tumor types it continued to decline long time after the diagnosis which demonstrate the necessity of lifelong follow-up.

Paper II:

- DNA methylation profiling has an important role in real-time diagnostics for pediatric CNS tumors.
- Methylation-based tumor classification improved the diagnostics and facilitated identification of rare tumor types.
- The diagnostic guidance from the methylation-based tumor classification allowed for a change in the management of the patients.
- Methylation profiling has a role in the classification of CNS tumors with a lower tumor cell content.

Paper III:

- CNS-PNETs were re-classified into several different tumor types and the distribution of different tumors were similar to reports from other countries.
- DNA methylation is important in the diagnostics of rare childhood embryonal tumors.
- The survival rates for the re-classified tumor types were in line with other studies. All patients with CNS NB-*FOXR2* had received craniospinal irradiation and the prognosis was excellent.

06

FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

The advancement of molecular analyzes in the diagnostics of pediatric CNS tumors is tremendous. The rapidity in which these are developed and their importance in the clinical diagnostics have become evident during the time that this thesis has been in progress. In 2017, when we started the “national methylation study”, DNA methylation profiling was not performed at an early step in the diagnostic workflow of pediatric CNS tumors but was rather considered for difficult cases. Today it is no longer a discussion in pediatric neuro-oncology whether methylation profiling has an added value in the daily clinical work or not. We know it has. We must now rather discuss how to implement this analysis into standard diagnostics in a structured manner and with as short turnaround times as possible¹⁷³. Nowadays, in the national project Genomics Medicine Sweden, all pediatric CNS tumors diagnosed in Sweden are subjected to methylation profiling. It is of great importance to interpret the methylation-based classification with consideration of clinical information, radiological imaging, histopathology and molecular findings. The final diagnosis must be made in the context of all available diagnostic modalities and preferably discussed on national or international multidisciplinary tumor boards.

The methylation-based tumor classification will be further refined and for sure many more algorithm-based tumor subclasses will be discovered. Naturally, the clinical value for each individual patient concerning prognostication and clinical implications by identifying many more methylation subclasses needs to be discussed. But as new possible targeted drugs are becoming available there is hope for better treatment and for improvement of the prognosis for a child diagnosed with a CNS tumor. The prerequisite for this is, as always, a thorough and accurate diagnosis.

The methylation-based classification will undoubtedly in the nearby future include other tumor diagnoses as well. For example, there is a methylation-based classifier for sarcomas accessible and this classifier seems to have the potential to become a useful diagnostic tool for sarcomas⁸⁵. A methylation-based classifier for carcinomas of unknown primary is being developed which hopefully will optimize the clinical management for these patients¹⁷⁴.

The more we will evaluate the benefits and limitations of the methylation technique, the more the method will develop. For example, an ultrafast methylation-based nanopore technique appears to enable intraoperative tumor classification of CNS tumors which can facilitate surgical decisions and speed up the postoperative diagnostic workflow^{175,176}. The usefulness of this method remains to be elucidated.

One of the most important cornerstones of pediatric oncology is the international collaboration which has enabled the improved survival for children diagnosed with neoplasms worldwide. International collaboration is of high importance as rare new tumor types have been and will be discovered. In order to optimize efficient workflows for diagnostics and treatment, improve cancer registrations and develop joint guidelines for follow-up of long-term survivors of childhood cancer, collaboration across borders is required.

We also need to remember that the vast majority of the children in the world live in countries where the resources are limited¹⁷⁷. Most of the pediatric oncology patients in these countries are currently not yet being helped by these techniques. Through continued and persistent global collaborations by inventing and exploring universal accessible techniques to lower costs, sharing of clinical expertise, increasing the availability of effective treatment more children can benefit from improved diagnostics¹⁷⁸⁻¹⁸⁰. By joining all available efforts, we hopefully can reach the global survival target recently agreed upon by the World Health Organization: 60% survival for all children with cancer by 2030¹⁸¹.

07

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis is the result of the collaboration of a lot of people to whom I am deeply grateful. The support and encouragement that I have received during these years is enormous. Mentioned here or not, I am very grateful for each and every one of you.

I would especially like to thank:

Helena Carén, Associate Professor and my main supervisor, thank you for introducing me to research and sharing your knowledge and experience. Your tireless dedication to epigenetics not only made this thesis possible but proved essential to it. Thank you for letting me be part of your lab.

Birgitta Lannering, Professor, co-supervisor and greatest teacher in pediatric neuro-oncology. Your encouragement and energy during this journey have been never-ending. Thank you for your guidance and for being a true source of inspiration both as a clinician and researcher as well as a human being.

Magnus Sabel, my closest colleague and boss, always a mainstay of pediatric neuro-oncology at the department. I am so grateful for your support, optimism, patience and indispensable advice in each study.

I am truly grateful to my present colleagues at the **Helena Carén Research group**. Without you this thesis would not have been possible. Thanks for friendship and for always being encouraging. Special thanks to **Maja Löfgren**, for your meticulous and hard work in the laboratory. I am grateful for the scientific conversations and collaboration throughout the studies and thesis writing. I am deeply grateful to **Teresia Kling**, thanks for making the data understandable, taking your time for discussions and conversations about research and life. **Sandra Ferreyra Vega**, thanks for your inspiration, patience and for always helping out

with research as well as adjusting Sankey diagrams. **Ida Karlsson** thanks for your constant encouragement and optimism and for taking the epigenetics course together, **Katja Werlenius** thanks for your support during these years and valuable clinical input. **Medha Suman, Shiva Rezaei** and **Stina Lagerström**, thank you for cheering me up during the thesis writing.

I am very grateful to my former colleagues at the Carén lab **Anna Wenger, Susanna Larsson, Ágota Tüzesi** for your help and thanks for sharing your knowledge and competence. **Anna Danielsson**, thanks for your advice in the set-up of the national methylation study and for always helping.

Also, thanks to **Sahlgrenska Center for Cancer Research** for a stimulating environment and to the staff at the **Klinisk molekylär patologi** for helping out with the administration in the national methylation study.

I wish to extend my special gratitude to Professor **Torsten Pietsch**, thank you for sharing your vast knowledge, your dedication to histopathology is outstanding. I also wish to show my appreciation for **Clas Nordborg** and **Thomas Olsson Bontell**, for pleasurable cooperation and instructive hours by the microscope.

My dear pediatric oncology colleagues: **Jonas Abrahamsson, Martin Dalin, Isabella Donner, Torben Ek, Magnus Göransson, Jerker Isacson, Lene Karlsson, Lars Kawan, Jonatan Källström, Cecilia Langenskiöld, Diana Ljung Sass, Karin Mellgren, Lisa Mellström, Aron Onerup, Monika Renkielska, Fanny Zetterlund, Gustaf Österlundh** for being the best colleagues one can ever imagine. Thanks for your excellent clinical collaboration, support and friendship in daily life. My former clinical tutors **Marianne Jarfelt**, and **Klas Blomgren**, thanks for not only good clinical guidance but also putting research on my mind.

All the staff at the Children's Cancer Centre and the Pediatric Clinical Research Center at Queen Silivas Children's hospital.

What you are doing for our patients is amazing and even when the amount of work is piling up - you still manage to keep the good spirits. A special thanks to the pediatric CNS team- **Linnéa Larsson, Jessica Hultman** and **Malin Byberg**. Great to work together as a team with you and you make my clinical daily work more pleasurable. **Inga-Lill Haij** thanks for all assistance during these years.

Magnus Tisell, Daniel Nilsson, Malin Blomstrand, Charlotta Fröjd and **Liz Ivarsson**, working together with you is a great privilege.

Thanks to all **coauthors** for sharing generous discussions and fruitful collaborations. Thanks to **VCTB-Vårdplaneringsgruppen** for CNS tumörer hos barn-for assistance in launching these studies. **Päivi Lähteenmäki** thanks for helping out with registry questions. **Mikael Holtenman**, thanks for your statistical expertise.

Thank you **Nina Björkander, Kristina Elfving** and **Vanja Lundberg Wiraeus**, my dear pediatric colleagues, for your friendship and support. **Eva Michael** great to have you by my side during Forskarskolan.

Thanks to my dear friend **Lisa Labbé Sandelin** for invaluable encouragement during finalizing this thesis.

Jennie Aust for your friendship and for being a true inspiration in numerous ways.

My brother-in-law **Ulf Schepke** for sharing your enthusiasm for research. I highly appreciated your feed-back on the thesis manuscript.

I am deeply grateful to my **friends** and **family** - particularly my **parents** Gudrun and Zacharias and **siblings** for encouragement and constant support. My father-in-law **Jörn†**, we miss you. To my dear husband **Bengt** for your tremendous support in me, your well controlled patience, your thorough and constructive reading

of my manuscript and for sharing this journey with me. Du bist der Anker in meinem Leben. Mina älskade barn - **Hannah, Joel** and **David** - tack för att ni finns.

This work was supported by grants from the Swedish Childhood Cancer Fund, the Swedish Cancer Society, the Swedish Research Council, the Lion's Cancer Research Fund of Western Sweden, the Assar Gabrielson's Foundation and the Swedish state under the agreement between the Swedish government and the county councils, the ALF-agreement.

08

REFERENCES

1. Svenska Barncancerregistret. Årsrapport. 2021 [updated 2021; cited March 1st 2023]; Available from: https://cceg.ki.se/documents/arsrapport%20SBCR_aret_2021.pdf.
2. Lannering B, Sandstrom PE, Holm S, Lundgren J, Pfeifer S, Samuelsson U, et al. Classification, incidence and survival analyses of children with CNS tumours diagnosed in Sweden 1984-2005. *Acta Paediatr*. 2009 Oct;98(10):1620-7.
3. Socialstyrelsen. Statistics on Causes of Death 2021. [cited March 14th 2023]; Available from: www.socialstyrelsen.se.
4. Armstrong GT, Liu Q, Yasui Y, Huang S, Ness KK, Leisenring W, et al. Long-term outcomes among adult survivors of childhood central nervous system malignancies in the Childhood Cancer Survivor Study. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2009 Jul 1;101(13):946-58.
5. Oeffinger KC, Mertens AC, Sklar CA, Kawashima T, Hudson MM, Meadows AT, et al. Chronic health conditions in adult survivors of childhood cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2006 Oct 12;355(15):1572-82.
6. Boman KK, Lindblad F, Hjern A. Long-term outcomes of childhood cancer survivors in Sweden: a population-based study of education, employment, and income. *Cancer*. 2010 Mar 1;116(5):1385-91.
7. Ehrstedt C, Kristiansen I, Ahlsten G, Casar-Borota O, Dahl M, Libard S, et al. Clinical characteristics and late effects in CNS tumours of childhood: Do not forget long term follow-up of the low grade tumours. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol*. 2016 Jul;20(4):580-7.

8. Esteller M, Herman JG. Cancer as an epigenetic disease: DNA methylation and chromatin alterations in human tumours. *J Pathol.* 2002 Jan;196(1):1-7.
9. Hanahan D. Hallmarks of Cancer: New Dimensions. *Cancer Discov.* 2022 Jan;12(1):31-46.
10. Gröbner SN, Worst BC, Weischenfeldt J, Buchhalter I, Kleinheinz K, Rudneva VA, et al. The landscape of genomic alterations across childhood cancers. *Nature.* 2018 Mar 15;555(7696):321-7.
11. Filbin M, Monje M. Developmental origins and emerging therapeutic opportunities for childhood cancer. *Nat Med.* 2019 Mar;25(3):367-76.
12. Panditharatna E, Filbin MG. The growing role of epigenetics in childhood cancers. *Curr Opin Pediatr.* 2020 Feb;32(1):67-75.
13. Braganza MZ, Kitahara CM, Berrington de González A, Inskip PD, Johnson KJ, Rajaraman P. Ionizing radiation and the risk of brain and central nervous system tumors: a systematic review. *Neuro-oncology.* 2012 Nov;14(11):1316-24.
14. Johnson KJ, Cullen J, Barnholtz-Sloan JS, Ostrom QT, Langer CE, Turner MC, et al. Childhood brain tumor epidemiology: a brain tumor epidemiology consortium review. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2014 Dec;23(12):2716-36.
15. Steliarova-Foucher E, Colombet M, Ries LAG, Moreno F, Dolya A, Bray F, et al. International incidence of childhood cancer, 2001-10: a population-based registry study. *Lancet Oncol.* 2017 Jun;18(6):719-31.

16. Helligsoe ASL, Kenborg L, Henriksen LT, Udupi A, Hasle H, Winther JF. Incidence and survival of childhood central nervous system tumors in Denmark, 1997-2019. *Cancer Med.* 2022 Jan;11(1):245-56.
17. Ostrom QT, Cioffi G, Waite K, Kruchko C, Barnholtz-Sloan JS. CBTRUS Statistical Report: Primary Brain and Other Central Nervous System Tumors Diagnosed in the United States in 2014-2018. *Neuro-oncology.* 2021 Oct 5;23(12 Suppl 2):iii1-iii105.
18. Stiller CA, Bayne AM, Chakrabarty A, Kenny T, Chumas P. Incidence of childhood CNS tumours in Britain and variation in rates by definition of malignant behaviour: population-based study. *BMC Cancer.* 2019 Feb 11;19(1):139.
19. Desandes E, Guissou S, Chastagner P, Lacour B. Incidence and survival of children with central nervous system primitive tumors in the French National Registry of Childhood Solid Tumors. *Neuro-oncology.* 2014 Jul;16(7):975-83.
20. Hjalmar U, Kulldorff M, Wahlqvist Y, Lannering B. Increased incidence rates but no space-time clustering of childhood astrocytoma in Sweden, 1973-1992: a population-based study of pediatric brain tumors. *Cancer.* 1999 May 1;85(9):2077-90.
21. Smith MA, Freidlin B, Ries LA, Simon R. Trends in reported incidence of primary malignant brain tumors in children in the United States. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 1998 Sep 2;90(17):1269-77.
22. Schmidt LS, Schmiegelow K, Lahteenmaki P, Träger C, Stokland T, Grell K, et al. Incidence of childhood central nervous system tumors in the Nordic countries. *Pediatr Blood Cancer.* 2011 Jan;56(1):65-9.

23. Gustafsson G, Kogner P, Heyman M. Childhood Cancer Incidence and Survival in Sweden 1984-2010, Report 2013,. From the Swedish Childhood Cancer Registry. ; 2013 Contract No.: Document Number|.
24. Kaatsch P, Rickert CH, Kühl J, Schüz J, Michaelis J. Population-based epidemiologic data on brain tumors in German children. *Cancer*. 2001 Dec 15;92(12):3155-64.
25. Rask O, Nilsson F, Lähteenmäki P, Ehrstedt C, Holm S, Sandström PE, et al. Prospective registration of symptoms and times to diagnosis in children and adolescents with central nervous system tumors: A study of the Swedish Childhood Cancer Registry. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2022 Nov;69(11):e29850.
26. Klitbo DM, Nielsen R, Illum NO, Wehner PS, Carlsen N. Symptoms and time to diagnosis in children with brain tumours. *Dan Med Bull*. 2011 Jul;58(7):A4285.
27. Wilne S, Collier J, Kennedy C, Koller K, Grundy R, Walker D. Presentation of childhood CNS tumours: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Oncol*. 2007 Aug;8(8):685-95.
28. Coven SL, Stanek JR, Hollingsworth E, Finlay JL. Delays in diagnosis for children with newly diagnosed central nervous system tumors. *Neurooncol Pract*. 2018 Nov;5(4):227-33.
29. Louis DN, al e. *WHO classification of tumours editorial board. Central nervous system tumours*. . 5th ed.: International Agency for Research on Cancer (Lyon); 2021.
30. Zülch K. Histological typing of tumours of the central nervous system. . World Health Organization: Geneva; 1979.

31. Kleihues P, Cavenee W. World Health Organisation classification of tumours: Pathology and genetics of tumours of the nervous system. IARC; 2000.
32. Louis DN, Wiestler O, Cavenee WK. WHO Classification of Tumours of the Central Nervous System. Lyon: IARC, 2007; 2007.
33. Louis DN, Ohgaki H, Wiestler OD, Cavenee WK. WHO Classification of Tumours of the Central Nervous System. 4th ed.: International Agency for Research on Cancer (Lyon); 2016.
34. Pomeroy SL, Tamayo P, Gaasenbeek M, Sturla LM, Angelo M, McLaughlin ME, et al. Prediction of central nervous system embryonal tumour outcome based on gene expression. *Nature*. 2002 Jan 24;415(6870):436-42.
35. Northcott PA, Korshunov A, Witt H, Hielscher T, Eberhart CG, Mack S, et al. Medulloblastoma comprises four distinct molecular variants. *J Clin Oncol*. 2011 Apr 10;29(11):1408-14.
36. Tihan T, Zhou T, Holmes E, Burger PC, Ozuysal S, Rushing EJ. The prognostic value of histological grading of posterior fossa ependymomas in children: a Children's Oncology Group study and a review of prognostic factors. *Mod Pathol*. 2008 Feb;21(2):165-77.
37. van den Bent MJ. Interobserver variation of the histopathological diagnosis in clinical trials on glioma: a clinician's perspective. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2010 Sep;120(3):297-304.

38. Ellison DW, Kocak M, Figarella-Branger D, Felice G, Catherine G, Pietsch T, et al. Histopathological grading of pediatric ependymoma: reproducibility and clinical relevance in European trial cohorts. *J Negat Results Biomed*. 2011 May 31;10:7.
39. Louis DN, Aldape K, Brat DJ, Capper D, Ellison DW, Hawkins C, et al. Announcing cIMPACT-NOW: the Consortium to Inform Molecular and Practical Approaches to CNS Tumor Taxonomy. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2017 Jan;133(1):1-3.
40. Louis DN, Wesseling P, Paulus W, Giannini C, Batchelor TT, Cairncross JG, et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 1: Not Otherwise Specified (NOS) and Not Elsewhere Classified (NEC). *Acta Neuropathol*. 2018 Mar;135(3):481-4.
41. Louis DN, Giannini C, Capper D, Paulus W, Figarella-Branger D, Lopes MB, et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 2: diagnostic clarifications for diffuse midline glioma, H3 K27M-mutant and diffuse astrocytoma/anaplastic astrocytoma, IDH-mutant. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2018 Apr;135(4):639-42.
42. Brat DJ, Aldape K, Colman H, Holland EC, Louis DN, Jenkins RB, et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 3: recommended diagnostic criteria for “Diffuse astrocytic glioma, IDH-wild-type, with molecular features of glioblastoma, WHO grade IV”. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2018 Nov;136(5):805-10.
43. Ellison DW, Hawkins C, Jones DTW, Onar-Thomas A, Pfister SM, Reifenberger G, et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 4: diffuse gliomas characterized by MYB, MYBL1, or FGFR1 alterations or BRAF(V600E) mutation. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2019 Apr;137(4):683-7.
44. Brat DJ, Aldape K, Colman H, Figarella-Branger D, Fuller GN, Giannini C, et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 5: recommended grading criteria and terminologies for IDH-mutant astrocytomas. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2020 Mar;139(3):603-8.

45. Louis DN, Wesseling P, Aldape K, Brat DJ, Capper D, Cree IA, et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 6: new entity and diagnostic principle recommendations of the cIMPACT-Utrecht meeting on future CNS tumor classification and grading. *Brain Pathol.* 2020 Jul;30(4):844-56.
46. Ellison DW, Aldape KD, Capper D, Fouladi M, Gilbert MR, Gilbertson RJ, et al. cIMPACT-NOW update 7: advancing the molecular classification of ependymal tumors. *Brain Pathol.* 2020 Sep;30(5):863-6.
47. Goldberg AD, Allis CD, Bernstein E. Epigenetics: a landscape takes shape. *Cell.* 2007 Feb 23;128(4):635-8.
48. Feinberg AP. The Key Role of Epigenetics in Human Disease Prevention and Mitigation. *N Engl J Med.* 2018 Apr 5;378(14):1323-34.
49. Skinner MK, Manikkam M, Guerrero-Bosagna C. Epigenetic transgenerational actions of environmental factors in disease etiology. *Trends Endocrinol Metab.* 2010 Apr;21(4):214-22.
50. Lokk K, Modhukur V, Rajashekar B, Märtens K, Mägi R, Kolde R, et al. DNA methylome profiling of human tissues identifies global and tissue-specific methylation patterns. *Genome Biol.* 2014 Apr 1;15(4):r54.
51. Sharp AJ, Stathaki E, Migliavacca E, Brahmachary M, Montgomery SB, Dupre Y, et al. DNA methylation profiles of human active and inactive X chromosomes. *Genome research.* 2011 Oct;21(10):1592-600.
52. Handy DE, Castro R, Loscalzo J. Epigenetic modifications: basic mechanisms and role in cardiovascular disease. *Circulation.* 2011 May 17;123(19):2145-56.

53. Allis CD, Jenuwein T. The molecular hallmarks of epigenetic control. *Nat Rev Genet.* 2016 Aug;17(8):487-500.
54. Jenuwein T, Allis CD. Translating the histone code. *Science.* 2001 Aug 10;293(5532):1074-80.
55. Zhao Z, Shilatifard A. Epigenetic modifications of histones in cancer. *Genome Biol.* 2019 Nov 20;20(1):245.
56. Peschansky VJ, Wahlestedt C. Non-coding RNAs as direct and indirect modulators of epigenetic regulation. *Epigenetics.* 2014 Jan;9(1):3-12.
57. Wei JW, Huang K, Yang C, Kang CS. Non-coding RNAs as regulators in epigenetics (Review). *Oncol Rep.* 2017 Jan;37(1):3-9.
58. Holliday R, Pugh JE. DNA modification mechanisms and gene activity during development. *Science.* 1975 Jan 24;187(4173):226-32.
59. Heyn H, Li N, Ferreira HJ, Moran S, Pisano DG, Gomez A, et al. Distinct DNA methylomes of newborns and centenarians. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2012 Jun 26;109(26):10522-7.
60. Moore LD, Le T, Fan G. DNA methylation and its basic function. *Neuropsychopharmacology.* 2013 Jan;38(1):23-38.
61. Bird A. Perceptions of epigenetics. *Nature.* 2007 May 24;447(7143):396-8.
62. Ito S, D'Alessio AC, Taranova OV, Hong K, Sowers LC, Zhang Y. Role of Tet proteins in 5mC to 5hmC conversion, ES-cell self-renewal and inner cell mass specification. *Nature.* 2010 Aug 26;466(7310):1129-33.

63. Wu H, Zhang Y. Reversing DNA methylation: mechanisms, genomics, and biological functions. *Cell*. 2014 Jan 16;156(1-2):45-68.
64. Li E, Zhang Y. DNA methylation in mammals. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol*. 2014 May 1;6(5):a019133.
65. Skvortsova K, Stirzaker C, Taberlay P. The DNA methylation landscape in cancer. *Essays Biochem*. 2019 Dec 20;63(6):797-811.
66. Ghosh S, Yates AJ, Frühwald MC, Miecznikowski JC, Plass C, Smiraglia D. Tissue specific DNA methylation of CpG islands in normal human adult somatic tissues distinguishes neural from non-neural tissues. *Epigenetics*. 2010 Aug 16;5(6):527-38.
67. Weber M, Hellmann I, Stadler MB, Ramos L, Pääbo S, Rebhan M, et al. Distribution, silencing potential and evolutionary impact of promoter DNA methylation in the human genome. *Nat Genet*. 2007 Apr;39(4):457-66.
68. Herman JG, Baylin SB. Gene silencing in cancer in association with promoter hypermethylation. *N Engl J Med*. 2003 Nov 20;349(21):2042-54.
69. Esteller M. CpG island hypermethylation and tumor suppressor genes: a booming present, a brighter future. *Oncogene*. 2002 Aug 12;21(35):5427-40.
70. Hovestadt V, Jones DT, Picelli S, Wang W, Kool M, Northcott PA, et al. Decoding the regulatory landscape of medulloblastoma using DNA methylation sequencing. *Nature*. 2014 Jun 26;510(7506):537-41.

71. Fernandez AF, Assenov Y, Martin-Subero JI, Balint B, Siebert R, Taniguchi H, et al. A DNA methylation fingerprint of 1628 human samples. *Genome research*. 2012 Feb;22(2):407-19.
72. Jones PA, Baylin SB. The epigenomics of cancer. *Cell*. 2007 Feb 23;128(4):683-92.
73. Esteller M. Epigenetics in cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2008 Mar 13;358(11):1148-59.
74. Ma X, Liu Y, Liu Y, Alexandrov LB, Edmonson MN, Gawad C, et al. Pan-cancer genome and transcriptome analyses of 1,699 paediatric leukaemias and solid tumours. *Nature*. 2018 Mar 15;555(7696):371-6.
75. Kling T, Wenger A, Beck S, Carén H. Validation of the MethylationEPIC BeadChip for fresh-frozen and formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tumours. *Clin Epigenetics*. 2017;9:33.
76. Moran S, Vizoso M, Martinez-Cardús A, Gomez A, Matías-Guiu X, Chiavenna SM, et al. Validation of DNA methylation profiling in formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded samples using the Infinium HumanMethylation450 Microarray. *Epigenetics*. 2014 Jun;9(6):829-33.
77. Capper D, Jones DTW, Sill M, Hovestadt V, Schrimpf D, Sturm D, et al. DNA methylation-based classification of central nervous system tumours. *Nature*. 2018 Mar 14.
78. Danielsson A, Nemes S, Tisell M, Lannering B, Nordborg C, Sabel M, et al. MethPed: a DNA methylation classifier tool for the identification of pediatric brain tumor subtypes. *Clin Epigenetics*. 2015;7:62.

79. Ferreyra Vega S, Olsson Bontell T, Corell A, Smits A, Jakola AS, Carén H. DNA methylation profiling for molecular classification of adult diffuse lower-grade gliomas. *Clin Epigenetics*. 2021 May 3;13(1):102.
80. Perez E, Capper D. Invited Review: DNA methylation-based classification of paediatric brain tumours. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol*. 2020 Feb;46(1):28-47.
81. Hovestadt V, Remke M, Kool M, Pietsch T, Northcott PA, Fischer R, et al. Robust molecular subgrouping and copy-number profiling of medulloblastoma from small amounts of archival tumour material using high-density DNA methylation arrays. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2013 Jun;125(6):913-6.
82. Galbraith K, Snuderl M. DNA methylation as a diagnostic tool. *Acta Neuropathol Commun*. 2022 May 8;10(1):71.
83. Sahm F, Schrimpf D, Stichel D, Jones DTW, Hielscher T, Schefzyk S, et al. DNA methylation-based classification and grading system for meningioma: a multicentre, retrospective analysis. *Lancet Oncol*. 2017 May;18(5):682-94.
84. Ceccarelli M, Barthel FP, Malta TM, Sabedot TS, Salama SR, Murray BA, et al. Molecular Profiling Reveals Biologically Discrete Subsets and Pathways of Progression in Diffuse Glioma. *Cell*. 2016 Jan 28;164(3):550-63.
85. Koelsche C, Schrimpf D, Stichel D, Sill M, Sahm F, Reuss DE, et al. Sarcoma classification by DNA methylation profiling. *Nat Commun*. 2021 Jan 21;12(1):498.
86. Maros ME, Capper D, Jones DTW, Hovestadt V, von Deimling A, Pfister SM, et al. Machine learning workflows to estimate class probabilities for precision cancer diagnostics on DNA methylation microarray data. *Nat Protoc*. 2020 Feb;15(2):479-512.

87. Taylor MD, Northcott PA, Korshunov A, Remke M, Cho YJ, Clifford SC, et al. Molecular subgroups of medulloblastoma: the current consensus. *Acta Neuropathol.* 2012 Apr;123(4):465-72.
88. Clifford SC, Lannering B, Schwalbe EC, Hicks D, O'Toole K, Nicholson SL, et al. Biomarker-driven stratification of disease-risk in non-metastatic medulloblastoma: Results from the multi-center HIT-SIOP-PNET4 clinical trial. *Oncotarget.* 2015 Nov 17;6(36):38827-39.
89. Sharma T, Schwalbe EC, Williamson D, Sill M, Hovestadt V, Mynarek M, et al. Second-generation molecular sub-grouping of medulloblastoma: an international meta-analysis of Group 3 and Group 4 subtypes. *Acta Neuropathol.* 2019 Aug;138(2):309-26.
90. Pajtler KW, Witt H, Sill M, Jones DT, Hovestadt V, Kratochwil F, et al. Molecular Classification of Ependymal Tumors across All CNS Compartments, Histopathological Grades, and Age Groups. *Cancer Cell.* 2015 May 11;27(5):728-43.
91. Pajtler KW, Mack SC, Ramaswamy V, Smith CA, Witt H, Smith A, et al. The current consensus on the clinical management of intracranial ependymoma and its distinct molecular variants. *Acta Neuropathol.* 2017 Jan;133(1):5-12.
92. Yang D, Holsten T, Börnigen D, Frank S, Mawrin C, Glatzel M, et al. Ependymoma relapse goes along with a relatively stable epigenome, but a severely altered tumor morphology. *Brain Pathol.* 2021 Jan;31(1):33-44.
93. Wenger A, Ferreyra Vega S, Schepke E, Löfgren M, Olsson Bontell T, Tisell M, et al. DNA methylation alterations across time and space in paediatric brain tumours. *Acta Neuropathol Commun.* 2022 Jul 16;10(1):105.

94. Ferreyra Vega S, Olsson Bontell T, Kling T, Jakola AS, Carén H. Longitudinal DNA methylation analysis of adult-type IDH-mutant gliomas. *Acta Neuropathol Commun.* 2023 Feb 4;11(1):23.
95. Feber A, Guilhamon P, Lechner M, Fenton T, Wilson GA, Thirlwell C, et al. Using high-density DNA methylation arrays to profile copy number alterations. *Genome Biol.* 2014 Feb 3;15(2):R30.
96. Rorke LB. The cerebellar medulloblastoma and its relationship to primitive neuroectodermal tumors. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol.* 1983 Jan;42(1):1-15.
97. Reddy AT, Janss AJ, Phillips PC, Weiss HL, Packer RJ. Outcome for children with supratentorial primitive neuroectodermal tumors treated with surgery, radiation, and chemotherapy. *Cancer.* 2000 May 1;88(9):2189-93.
98. Geyer JR, Sposto R, Jennings M, Boyett JM, Axtell RA, Breiger D, et al. Multiagent chemotherapy and deferred radiotherapy in infants with malignant brain tumors: a report from the Children's Cancer Group. *J Clin Oncol.* 2005 Oct 20;23(30):7621-31.
99. Picard D, Miller S, Hawkins CE, Bouffet E, Rogers HA, Chan TS, et al. Markers of survival and metastatic potential in childhood CNS primitive neuro-ectodermal brain tumours: an integrative genomic analysis. *Lancet Oncol.* 2012 Aug;13(8):838-48.
100. Schwalbe EC, Hayden JT, Rogers HA, Miller S, Lindsey JC, Hill RM, et al. Histologically defined central nervous system primitive neuro-ectodermal tumours (CNS-PNETs) display heterogeneous DNA methylation profiles and show relationships to other paediatric brain tumour types. *Acta Neuropathol.* 2013 Dec;126(6):943-6.

101. Li M, Lee KF, Lu Y, Clarke I, Shih D, Eberhart C, et al. Frequent amplification of a chr19q13.41 microRNA polycistron in aggressive primitive neuroectodermal brain tumors. *Cancer Cell*. 2009 Dec 8;16(6):533-46.
102. Sturm D, Orr BA, Toprak UH, Hovestadt V, Jones DTW, Capper D, et al. New Brain Tumor Entities Emerge from Molecular Classification of CNS-PNETs. *Cell*. 2016 Feb 25;164(5):1060-72.
103. Ostrom QT, de Blank PM, Kruchko C, Petersen CM, Liao P, Finlay JL, et al. Alex's Lemonade Stand Foundation Infant and Childhood Primary Brain and Central Nervous System Tumors Diagnosed in the United States in 2007-2011. *Neuro-oncology*. 2015 Jan;16 Suppl 10(Suppl 10):x1-x36.
104. Chang CH, Housepian EM, Herbert C, Jr. An operative staging system and a megavoltage radiotherapeutic technic for cerebellar medulloblastomas. *Radiology*. 1969 Dec;93(6):1351-9.
105. McBride SM, Daganzo SM, Banerjee A, Gupta N, Lamborn KR, Prados MD, et al. Radiation is an important component of multimodality therapy for pediatric non-pineal supratentorial primitive neuroectodermal tumors. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2008 Dec 1;72(5):1319-23.
106. Kortmann RD, Köhl J, Timmermann B, Mittler U, Urban C, Budach V, et al. Postoperative neoadjuvant chemotherapy before radiotherapy as compared to immediate radiotherapy followed by maintenance chemotherapy in the treatment of medulloblastoma in childhood: results of the German prospective randomized trial HIT '91. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2000 Jan 15;46(2):269-79.
107. Gerber NU, von Hoff K, Resch A, Ottensmeier H, Kwicien R, Faldum A, et al. Treatment of children with central nervous system primitive neuroectodermal tumors/pi-

- neuroblastomas in the prospective multicentric trial HIT 2000 using hyperfractionated radiation therapy followed by maintenance chemotherapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2014 Jul 15;89(4):863-71.
108. Timmermann B, Kortmann RD, Kühl J, Rutkowski S, Meisner C, Pietsch T, et al. Role of radiotherapy in supratentorial primitive neuroectodermal tumor in young children: results of the German HIT-SKK87 and HIT-SKK92 trials. *J Clin Oncol.* 2006 Apr 1;24(10):1554-60.
109. Friedrich C, von Bueren AO, von Hoff K, Gerber NU, Ottensmeier H, Deinlein F, et al. Treatment of young children with CNS-primitive neuroectodermal tumors/pineoblastomas in the prospective multicenter trial HIT 2000 using different chemotherapy regimens and radiotherapy. *Neuro-oncology.* 2013 Feb;15(2):224-34.
110. Timmermann B, Kortmann RD, Kühl J, Meisner C, Dieckmann K, Pietsch T, et al. Role of radiotherapy in the treatment of supratentorial primitive neuroectodermal tumors in childhood: results of the prospective German brain tumor trials HIT 88/89 and 91. *J Clin Oncol.* 2002 Feb 1;20(3):842-9.
111. Pizer BL, Weston CL, Robinson KJ, Ellison DW, Ironside J, Saran F, et al. Analysis of patients with supratentorial primitive neuro-ectodermal tumours entered into the SIOP/UKCCSG PNET 3 study. *Eur J Cancer.* 2006 May;42(8):1120-8.
112. Stensvold E, Myklebust T, Cappelen J, Due-Tønnessen BJ, Due-Tønnessen P, Kepka A, et al. Children treated for medulloblastoma and supratentorial primitive neuroectodermal tumor in Norway from 1974 through 2013: Unexplainable regional differences in survival. *Pediatr Blood Cancer.* 2019 Oct;66(10):e27910.

113. Jakacki RI, Burger PC, Kocak M, Boyett JM, Goldwein J, Mehta M, et al. Outcome and prognostic factors for children with supratentorial primitive neuroectodermal tumors treated with carboplatin during radiotherapy: a report from the Children's Oncology Group. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2015 May;62(5):776-83.
114. von Hoff K, Haberler C, Schmitt-Hoffner F, Schepke E, de Rojas T, Jacobs S, et al. Therapeutic implications of improved molecular diagnostics for rare CNS embryonal tumor entities: results of an international, retrospective study. *Neuro-oncology*. 2021 Sep 1;23(9):1597-611.
115. Liu APY, Dhanda SK, Lin T, Sioson E, Vasilyeva A, Gudenas B, et al. Molecular classification and outcome of children with rare CNS embryonal tumors: results from St. Jude Children's Research Hospital including the multi-center SJYC07 and SJMB03 clinical trials. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2022 Aug 18.
116. Korshunov A, Okonechnikov K, Schmitt-Hoffner F, Ryzhova M, Sahm F, Stichel D, et al. Molecular analysis of pediatric CNS-PNET revealed nosologic heterogeneity and potent diagnostic markers for CNS neuroblastoma with FOXR2-activation. *Acta Neuropathol Commun*. 2021 Feb 3;9(1):20.
117. Juhnke BO, Gessi M, Gerber NU, Friedrich C, Mynarek M, von Bueren AO, et al. Treatment of embryonal tumors with multilayered rosettes with carboplatin/etoposide induction and high-dose chemotherapy within the prospective P-HIT trial. *Neuro-oncology*. 2022 Jan 5;24(1):127-37.
118. Spence T, Sin-Chan P, Picard D, Barszczyk M, Hoss K, Lu M, et al. CNS-PNETs with C19MC amplification and/or LIN28 expression comprise a distinct histogenetic diagnostic and therapeutic entity. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2014 Aug;128(2):291-303.

119. Khan S, Solano-Paez P, Suwal T, Lu M, Al-Karmi S, Ho B, et al. Clinical phenotypes and prognostic features of embryonal tumours with multi-layered rosettes: a Rare Brain Tumor Registry study. *Lancet Child Adolesc Health*. 2021 Nov;5(11):800-13.
120. Lambo S, von Hoff K, Korshunov A, Pfister SM, Kool M. ETMR: a tumor entity in its infancy. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2020 Sep;140(3):249-66.
121. Horwitz M, Dufour C, Leblond P, Bourdeaut F, Faure-Contier C, Bertozzi AI, et al. Embryonal tumors with multi-layered rosettes in children: the SFCE experience. *Childs Nerv Syst*. 2016 Feb;32(2):299-305.
122. Eberhart CG, Brat DJ, Cohen KJ, Burger PC. Pediatric neuroblastic brain tumors containing abundant neuropil and true rosettes. *Pediatr Dev Pathol*. 2000 Jul-Aug;3(4):346-52.
123. Korshunov A, Remke M, Gessi M, Ryzhova M, Hielscher T, Witt H, et al. Focal genomic amplification at 19q13.42 comprises a powerful diagnostic marker for embryonal tumors with ependymoblastic rosettes. *Acta Neuropathol*. 2010 Aug;120(2):253-60.
124. Kleinman CL, Gerges N, Papillon-Cavanagh S, Sin-Chan P, Pramatarova A, Quang DA, et al. Fusion of TTYH1 with the C19MC microRNA cluster drives expression of a brain-specific DNMT3B isoform in the embryonal brain tumor ETMR. *Nat Genet*. 2014 Jan;46(1):39-44.
125. Lambo S, Gröbner SN, Rausch T, Waszak SM, Schmidt C, Gorthi A, et al. The molecular landscape of ETMR at diagnosis and relapse. *Nature*. 2019 Dec;576(7786):274-80.

126. Korshunov A, Sturm D, Ryzhova M, Hovestadt V, Gessi M, Jones DT, et al. Embryonal tumor with abundant neuropil and true rosettes (ETANTR), ependymoblastoma, and medulloepithelioma share molecular similarity and comprise a single clinicopathological entity. *Acta Neuropathol.* 2014 Aug;128(2):279-89.
127. Korshunov A, Ryzhova M, Jones DT, Northcott PA, van Sluis P, Volckmann R, et al. LIN28A immunoreactivity is a potent diagnostic marker of embryonal tumor with multilayered rosettes (ETMR). *Acta Neuropathol.* 2012 Dec;124(6):875-81.
128. Poh B, Koso H, Momota H, Komori T, Suzuki Y, Yoshida N, et al. Foxr2 promotes formation of CNS-embryonal tumors in a Trp53-deficient background. *Neuro-oncology.* 2019 Aug 5;21(8):993-1004.
129. Lam EW, Brosens JJ, Gomes AR, Koo CY. Forkhead box proteins: tuning forks for transcriptional harmony. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2013 Jul;13(7):482-95.
130. Capper D, Stichel D, Sahm F, Jones DTW, Schrimpf D, Sill M, et al. Practical implementation of DNA methylation and copy-number-based CNS tumor diagnostics: the Heidelberg experience. *Acta Neuropathol.* 2018 Aug;136(2):181-210.
131. Holsten T, Lubieniecki F, Spohn M, Mynarek M, Bison B, Löbel U, et al. Detailed Clinical and Histopathological Description of 8 Cases of Molecularly Defined CNS Neuroblastomas. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol.* 2021 Jan 1;80(1):52-9.
132. Tietze A, Mankad K, Lequin MH, Ivarsson L, Mirsky D, Jaju A, et al. Imaging Characteristics of CNS Neuroblastoma-FOXR2: A Retrospective and Multi-Institutional Description of 25 Cases. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol.* 2022 Oct;43(10):1476-80.

133. Wong MK, Ng CCY, Kuick CH, Aw SJ, Rajasegaran V, Lim JQ, et al. Clear cell sarcomas of the kidney are characterised by BCOR gene abnormalities, including exon 15 internal tandem duplications and BCOR-CCNB3 gene fusion. *Histopathology*. 2018 Jan;72(2):320-9.
134. Yoshida Y, Nobusawa S, Nakata S, Nakada M, Arakawa Y, Mineharu Y, et al. CNS high-grade neuroepithelial tumor with BCOR internal tandem duplication: a comparison with its counterparts in the kidney and soft tissue. *Brain Pathol*. 2018 Sep;28(5):710-20.
135. Ferris SP, Velazquez Vega J, Aboian M, Lee JC, Van Ziffle J, Onodera C, et al. High-grade neuroepithelial tumor with BCOR exon 15 internal tandem duplication-a comprehensive clinical, radiographic, pathologic, and genomic analysis. *Brain Pathol*. 2020 Jan;30(1):46-62.
136. De Lima L, Sürme MB, Gessi M, Mastronuzzi A, Miele E, Tamburrini G, et al. Central nervous system high-grade neuroepithelial tumor with BCOR alteration (CNS HG-NET-BCOR)-case-based reviews. *Childs Nerv Syst*. 2020 Aug;36(8):1589-99.
137. Fritzt A, Percy C, Jack A, al e. International classification of diseases for oncology. 2000;Third edition.
138. Steliarova-Foucher E, Stiller C, Lacour B, Kaatsch P. International Classification of Childhood Cancer, third edition. *Cancer*. 2005 Apr 1;103(7):1457-67.
139. Gatta G, Peris-Bonet R, Visser O, Stiller C, Marcos-Gragera R, Sánchez MJ, et al. Geographical variability in survival of European children with central nervous system tumours. *Eur J Cancer*. 2017 Sep;82:137-48.

140. Gurney JG, Wall DA, Jukich PJ, Davis FG. The contribution of nonmalignant tumors to CNS tumor incidence rates among children in the United States. *Cancer Causes Control*. 1999 Apr;10(2):101-5.
141. Kenborg L, Winther JF, Linnet KM, Krøyer A, Albieri V, Holmqvist AS, et al. Neurologic disorders in 4858 survivors of central nervous system tumors in childhood-an Adult Life after Childhood Cancer in Scandinavia (ALiCCS) study. *Neuro-oncology*. 2019 Jan 1;21(1):125-36.
142. Geenen MM, Cardous-Ubbink MC, Kremer LC, van den Bos C, van der Pal HJ, Heinen RC, et al. Medical assessment of adverse health outcomes in long-term survivors of childhood cancer. *Jama*. 2007 Jun 27;297(24):2705-15.
143. Bhakta N, Liu Q, Ness KK, Baassiri M, Eissa H, Yeo F, et al. The cumulative burden of surviving childhood cancer: an initial report from the St Jude Lifetime Cohort Study (SJLIFE). *Lancet*. 2017 Dec 9;390(10112):2569-82.
144. Armstrong GT, Liu Q, Yasui Y, Neglia JP, Leisenring W, Robison LL, et al. Late mortality among 5-year survivors of childhood cancer: a summary from the Childhood Cancer Survivor Study. *J Clin Oncol*. 2009 May 10;27(14):2328-38.
145. Erdmann F, Frederiksen LE, Bonaventure A, Mader L, Hasle H, Robison LL, et al. Childhood cancer: Survival, treatment modalities, late effects and improvements over time. *Cancer Epidemiol*. 2021 Apr;71(Pt B):101733.
146. Schindler M, Spycher BD, Ammann RA, Ansari M, Michel G, Kuehni CE. Cause-specific long-term mortality in survivors of childhood cancer in Switzerland: A population-based study. *Int J Cancer*. 2016 Jul 15;139(2):322-33.

147. Reulen RC, Winter DL, Frobisher C, Lancashire ER, Stiller CA, Jenney ME, et al. Long-term cause-specific mortality among survivors of childhood cancer. *Jama*. 2010 Jul 14;304(2):172-9.
148. Fidler MM, Reulen RC, Winter DL, Kelly J, Jenkinson HC, Skinner R, et al. Long term cause specific mortality among 34489 five year survivors of childhood cancer in Great Britain: population based cohort study. *Bmj*. 2016 Sep 1;354:i4351.
149. Jarfelt M. Swedish National Guidelines for long-term follow-up of childhood cancer survivors. *Lakartidningen*. 2016 Oct 6;113.
150. Gebauer J, Baust K, Bardi E, Grabow D, Stein A, van der Pal HJ, et al. Guidelines for Long-Term Follow-Up after Childhood Cancer: Practical Implications for the Daily Work. *Oncol Res Treat*. 2020;43(3):61-9.
151. Clark SJ, Statham A, Stirzaker C, Molloy PL, Frommer M. DNA methylation: bisulphite modification and analysis. *Nat Protoc*. 2006;1(5):2353-64.
152. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. . Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2022 [updated 2022; cited]; Available from: <https://www.R-project.org/>.
153. Molecularneuropathology. Brain classifier 12.5. 2022.
154. Youlden DR, Henshaw C, Gottardo NG, Hassall T, Aitken JF. Incidence and survival for childhood central nervous system tumours in Australia, 1983-2016. *J Neurooncol*. 2021 Nov;155(2):203-13.

155. Anderson NE. Late complications in childhood central nervous system tumour survivors. *Curr Opin Neurol*. 2003 Dec;16(6):677-83.
156. Gunn ME, Lähdesmäki T, Malila N, Arola M, Grönroos M, Matomäki J, et al. Late morbidity in long-term survivors of childhood brain tumors: a nationwide registry-based study in Finland. *Neuro-oncology*. 2015 May;17(5):747-56.
157. Gurney JG, Kadan-Lottick NS, Packer RJ, Neglia JP, Sklar CA, Punyko JA, et al. Endocrine and cardiovascular late effects among adult survivors of childhood brain tumors: Childhood Cancer Survivor Study. *Cancer*. 2003 Feb 1;97(3):663-73.
158. Huang W, Sundquist J, Sundquist K, Ji J. Mortality patterns in long-term survivors of childhood or adolescent central nervous system tumour in Sweden. *J Neurooncol*. 2019 Dec;145(3):541-9.
159. Morris EB, Gajjar A, Okuma JO, Yasui Y, Wallace D, Kun LE, et al. Survival and late mortality in long-term survivors of pediatric CNS tumors. *J Clin Oncol*. 2007 Apr 20;25(12):1532-8.
160. Ng S, Zouaoui S, Bessaoud F, Rigau V, Roux A, Darlix A, et al. An epidemiology report for primary central nervous system tumors in adolescents and young adults: a nationwide population-based study in France, 2008-2013. *Neuro-oncology*. 2020 Jun 9;22(6):851-63.
161. Pickles JC, Fairchild AR, Stone TJ, Brownlee L, Merve A, Yasin SA, et al. DNA methylation-based profiling for paediatric CNS tumour diagnosis and treatment: a population-based study. *Lancet Child Adolesc Health*. 2019 Nov 27.

162. Jaunmuktane Z, Capper D, Jones DTW, Schrimpf D, Sill M, Dutt M, et al. Methylation array profiling of adult brain tumours: diagnostic outcomes in a large, single centre. *Acta Neuropathol Commun.* 2019 Feb 20;7(1):24.
163. Priesterbach-Ackley LP, Boldt HB, Petersen JK, Bervoets N, Scheie D, Ulhøi BP, et al. Brain tumour diagnostics using a DNA methylation-based classifier as a diagnostic support tool. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol.* 2020 Aug;46(5):478-92.
164. Pages M, Uro-Coste E, Colin C, Meyronet D, Gauchotte G, Maurage CA, et al. The Implementation of DNA Methylation Profiling into a Multistep Diagnostic Process in Pediatric Neuropathology: A 2-Year Real-World Experience by the French Neuropathology Network. *Cancers (Basel).* 2021 Mar 18;13(6).
165. Schepke E, Löfgren M, Pietsch T, Olsson Bontell T, Kling T, Wenger A, et al. DNA methylation profiling improves routine diagnosis of paediatric central nervous system tumours: A prospective population-based study. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol.* 2022 Oct;48(6):e12838.
166. Karimi S, Zuccato JA, Mamatjan Y, Mansouri S, Suppih S, Nassiri F, et al. The central nervous system tumor methylation classifier changes neuro-oncology practice for challenging brain tumor diagnoses and directly impacts patient care. *Clin Epigenetics.* 2019 Dec 5;11(1):185.
167. Wenger A, Carén H. Methylation Profiling in Diffuse Gliomas: Diagnostic Value and Considerations. *Cancers (Basel).* 2022 Nov 18;14(22).
168. Pickles JC, Stone TJ, Jacques TS. Methylation-based algorithms for diagnosis: experience from neuro-oncology. *J Pathol.* 2020 Apr;250(5):510-7.

169. Wu Z, Abdullaev Z, Pratt D, Chung HJ, Skarshaug S, Zgonc V, et al. Impact of the methylation classifier and ancillary methods on CNS tumor diagnostics. *Neuro-oncology*. 2021 Sep 23.
170. Kumar R, Liu APY, Orr BA, Northcott PA, Robinson GW. Advances in the classification of pediatric brain tumors through DNA methylation profiling: From research tool to frontline diagnostic. *Cancer*. 2018 Nov 1;124(21):4168-80.
171. Hwang EI, Kool M, Burger PC, Capper D, Chavez L, Braubetz S, et al. Extensive Molecular and Clinical Heterogeneity in Patients With Histologically Diagnosed CNS-PNET Treated as a Single Entity: A Report From the Children's Oncology Group Randomized ACNS0332 Trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2018 Oct 17;Jco2017764720.
172. Schepke E, Löfgren M, Pietsch T, Kling T, Nordborg C, Olsson Bontell T, et al. Supratentorial CNS-PNETs in children; a Swedish population-based study with molecular re-evaluation and long-term follow-up. *Clin Epigenetics*. 2023 Mar 9;15(1):40.
173. Pratt D, Sahm F, Aldape K. DNA methylation profiling as a model for discovery and precision diagnostics in neuro-oncology. *Neuro-oncology*. 2021 Nov 2;23(23 Suppl 5):S16-s29.
174. Moran S, Martínez-Cardús A, Sayols S, Musulén E, Balañá C, Estival-Gonzalez A, et al. Epigenetic profiling to classify cancer of unknown primary: a multicentre, retrospective analysis. *Lancet Oncol*. 2016 Oct;17(10):1386-95.
175. Kuschel LP, Hench J, Frank S, Hench IB, Girard E, Blanluet M, et al. Robust methylation-based classification of brain tumours using nanopore sequencing. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol*. 2023 Feb;49(1):e12856.

176. Djirackor L, Halldorsson S, Niehusmann P, Leske H, Capper D, Kuschel LP, et al. Intraoperative DNA methylation classification of brain tumors impacts neurosurgical strategy. *Neurooncol Adv*. 2021 Jan-Dec;3(1):vdab149.
177. World Bank. Countries and economics.; 2023 [updated 2023; cited 18th of March 2023]; Available from: www.worldbank.org.
178. Bailey S, Davidson A, Parkes J, Tabori U, Figaji A, Epari S, et al. How Can Genomic Innovations in Pediatric Brain Tumors Transform Outcomes in Low- and Middle-Income Countries? *JCO Glob Oncol*. 2022 Oct;8:e2200156.
179. Bhakta N, Force LM, Allemani C, Atun R, Bray F, Coleman MP, et al. Childhood cancer burden: a review of global estimates. *Lancet Oncol*. 2019 Jan;20(1):e42-e53.
180. Lam CG, Howard SC, Bouffet E, Pritchard-Jones K. Science and health for all children with cancer. *Science*. 2019 Mar 15;363(6432):1182-6.
181. World Health Organization. Global Initiative for Childhood Cancer. [cited March 18th 2023]; Available from: www.who.int/initiatives/the-global-initiative-for-childhood-cancer.