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Outcomes of Adolescent Males with Extracranial Metastatic Germ Cell Tumors. A Report from the Malignant Germ Cell Tumor International Consortium.

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1 2						
- 3 4	1	Title: Outcomes of Adolescent Males with Extracranial Metastatic Germ Cell Tumors: A Report				
5 6 7 8 9	2	from the Malignant Germ Cell Tumor International Consortium.				
	3	Authors:				
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1 2 3	47	
4 5	47	Conflict of Interest Statement:
5 6 7	48	Furqan Shaikh, Daniel Stark, Adriana Fonseca, Ha Dang, Caihong Xia, Mark Krailo, Farzana
8 9	49	Pashankar, Thomas Olson, James C. Nichols, Mathew J. Murray, James F. Amatruda, Deborah
10 11 12	50	Billmire & Sara Stoneham: No Conflict to declare
13 14 15	51	Carlos Rodriguez-Galindo: Advisory board Novimmune; A. Lindsay Frazier: Clinical Advisory
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20 21 22	54	Author Contribution Statement:
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25 26 27 28 29	56	writing- review and editing.
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45 46 47	64	Carlos Rodriguez-Galindo: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, writing - review
48 49	65	and editing.
50 51 52	66	Thomas Olson: Conceptualization, methodology, data acquisition writing - review and editing.
52 53 54	67	James C. Nichols: Conceptualization, methodology, data acquisition writing - review and editing.
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James F. Amatruda: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, writing - review andediting.

Deborah Billmire: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, writing - review and
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73 Sara Stoneham: Conceptualization, methodology, data acquisition writing - review and editing.

A. Lindsay Frazier: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, writing - review andediting.

All authors have made meaningful contributions, approved the final version of the manuscript and
 are accountable for all aspects of the work.

79 Lay Summary:

Adolescent males with metastatic germ cell tumors are frequently treated with regimens developed for children. In this study, we built a large dataset of male patients with metastatic germ cell tumors across different age groups to understand the outcomes of adolescent patients when compared with children and young adults. Our results suggest that adolescent males with metastatic germ cell tumors have worse results than children and are more similar to young adults with germ cell tumors. Therefore, the treatment of adolescents with germ cell tumors, should resemble young adult therapeutic approaches.

Précis for Table of Contents:

EFS for adolescent patients with metastatic germ cell tumors was similar to young adults but
significantly worse than for children. This finding highlights the importance of coordinating
initiatives across clinical trial organizations to improve outcomes for adolescents and young adults.

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92 Abstract:
93 PURPOSE: Adolescents with extracranial metastatic germ cell tumors (GCTs) are often treated on

94 regimens developed for children, but more closely resemble the clinical characteristics of young
95 adult patients. We sought to determine event-free survival (EFS) for adolescents with GCTs and
96 compared children and young adults.

97 PATIENTS AND METHODS: We assembled an individual patient database of eleven GCT trials:
98 eight conducted by pediatric cooperative groups and three by an adult group. We included male
99 patients aged 0-30 years with metastatic, non-seminomatous malignant GCTs of the testis,
100 retroperitoneum, or mediastinum, treated with platinum-based chemotherapy. We categorized age101 group as children (0 to <11 years), adolescents (11 to <18 years), or young adults (18 to <30 years
102 old). We compared EFS and adjusted for risk-group using Cox proportional hazards analysis.

103 RESULTS: From a total of 2,024 individual records, 593 patients met inclusion criteria, of whom 104 90 were children, 109 were adolescents, and 394 were young adults. The 5-year EFS for 105 adolescents [72 %; 95% confidence-interval (CI)=62-79%] was lower than for children (90%; 106 CI=81-95%, p=0.003) or young adults (88%; CI=84-91%, p=0.0002). International Germ Cell 107 Cancer Collaborative Group (IGCCCG) risk-group was associated with EFS in the adolescent age-108 group (p=0.0257). After adjusting for risk-group, the difference in EFS between adolescents and 109 children remained significant (HR=0.30, p=0.001).

⁺ 110

111 CONCLUSION: EFS for adolescent patients with metastatic GCTs was similar to young adults
112 but significantly worse than for children. This finding highlights the importance of coordinating
113 initiatives across clinical trial organizations to improve outcomes for adolescents and young adults.
114 Keywords: Germ cell tumors, adolescent males, outcomes, AYA, Testicular GCT.

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126 Background

127 Adolescents and young adults (AYAs) with cancer are a unique group of patients with special characteristics.¹⁻⁴ AYAs develop a specific spectrum of cancers.⁵ require age-appropriate 128 129 psychosocial support, and often inhabit a medical 'no man's land'⁶ where they are neither the 130 specific focus of pediatric or adult worlds of oncology.⁷ This results in their care being under-131 researched, trials under-accrued, and optimal management disputed.⁸ AYAs may sometimes be 132 subject to professional competition for patient 'ownership' or an individual clinical conviction that the management used for one age-group is right for another.^{9, 10} But specific attention to the needs 133 134 of AYA cancer patients has yielded progress. In acute lymphoblastic leukemia, management has 135 evolved based upon pooling of data from different treatment approaches, with greatly improved 136 AYA outcomes in recent trials.¹¹ Similarly, Ewing sarcoma outcomes for AYAs were inferior to those seen in children, until collaborative protocols overcame this difference.^{12, 13} In osteosarcoma, 137 138 outcomes for AYAs are also inferior to those observed in children, and pooling of clinical trial 139 data has hypothesised tractable reasons for these differences related to pharmacologic or clinical 140 factors.¹⁴ We believe similar advances can be made for AYA patients with GCTs through 141 collaborative, investigative efforts.

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Extracranial germ cell tumors (GCTs) account for approximately 3-4% of cancers in children, 14% of cancers in adolescents aged 15-19 years, and 18% of cancers in young adults aged 20-30 years.^{15, 16} Thus, GCTs are among the few malignancies that are encountered relatively commonly by both pediatric and medical oncologists. However, treatment regimens have evolved separately within pediatric and adult oncology collaborative groups. The two groups use different

staging and risk stratification systems, different numbers of cycles, and different cumulative doses
of chemotherapy.^{17, 18}

> Historically, patients under the age of 15-18 years in North America or under 16 years in the United Kingdom (UK) have been treated on pediatric regimens, and most adolescents within these ages have been treated with the approaches developed for young children. On the other hand, it can be argued that adolescents with GCTs seem to more closely resemble the characteristics of young adult patients with respect to clinical, biological and epidemiological characteristics.¹⁹ Thus, there is a knowledge gap about the optimal approach to treating adolescents with GCTs. To date, it is not known whether adolescents with GCTs are more effectively treated with pediatric or adult approaches. Compounding this matter is the observation that adolescents with GCTs are under-represented in clinical trials, frequently too old to meet the age inclusion criteria of pediatric trials and too young to meet age eligibility for adult studies.²⁰

We sought to determine whether adolescents with GCTs experience outcomes that are more alike to children or to young adults, and where the dividing line between pediatric and adult standards of care or clinical trial inclusion criteria should be drawn. There is only limited evidence to help guide such discussions. This limitation stems from the heterogeneous manifestations of GCTs across age-groups which precludes direct comparisons, as well as the relatively small sample size of individual trials which prevents adequately powered subgroup analyses. Previously, Cost et al.²¹ reported on the outcomes among 20 children, 39 adolescents, and 354 adult patients with testicular GCTs treated at their institution. The EFS for adolescents was worse when compared with children and young adults, even after adjusting for stage, International Germ Cell

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171	Cancer Collaborative Group (IGCCCG) risk-group, ¹⁷ and histology. However, this was a single
172	centre analysis with a small sample size.

The Malignant Germ Cell Tumour International Consortium (MaGIC) assembled a large pooled dataset of extracranial GCT patients treated across multiple clinical trials and collaborative groups^{20, 22}, allowing for secondary analysis of prospective trial data. For this current study, we derived a relatively homogenous subgroup of male patients with GCT across three age-groups (children, adolescents, and young adults) in order to compare event-free survival (EFS). A secondary objective was to determine whether the IGCCCG risk stratification system used in adult studies¹⁷ was predictive of outcome in pediatric or adolescent patients with GCTs.

Patients and Methods

At the time of this analysis, the MaGIC database included all patients enrolled in five trials conducted by the Children's Oncology Group (COG; INT-1016,²³ INT-0097,¹⁸ AGCT0132,²⁴ AGCT01P1²⁵ and P9749²⁶), three trials from the Children's Cancer and Leukemia Group (CCLG; GCI,²⁷ GCII²⁸ and GCIII²⁹), and three trials from the Medical Research Council (MRC; TE09,³⁰ TE13³¹ and TE20³²). Each trial had received research ethics board approval from the relevant agencies. The project was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at the Dana-Farber Cancer Institute.

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> From the total dataset of 2,024 patients, we selected males age 0-30 years with newly diagnosed, metastatic, non-seminomatous malignant GCT of the testis, retroperitoneum or mediastinum. The resulting subgroup of 593 patients provided a population with relatively uniform

disease characteristics that was large enough to provide adequate numbers of patients within each of the three age-groups.

In order to maintain uniform treatment intensity, we only included patients treated with standard regimens with outcomes known to be similar to each other. The regimens included the adult standard-of-care BEP (weekly bleomycin, represented henceforth by the upper case letter 'B', and once per cycle etoposide and cisplatin), the pediatric standard-of-care PEb (cisplatin, etoposide and reduced bleomycin used once per cycle, represented henceforth by the lowercase letter 'b'), HD-PEb (high-dose cisplatin and Eb), C-PEb (cyclophosphamide and PEb), and pediatric JEb (carboplatin and Eb). We included pediatric JEb as it has similar outcomes to pediatric PEb^{29,33}. However, adult patients treated with carboplatin regimens were excluded as these regimens, which notably used lower doses of carboplatin than those used in paediatric regimens, have been shown to be inferior to BEP in randomized trials.^{30, 34}

We categorized 'age-group' as children (age 0 to <11 years), adolescents (11 to <18 years), or young adults (18 to <30 years old). The selection of age 11 years as the cut-off between children and adolescents was based on our earlier analysis which showed this age to be the most significant and discriminant prognostic cut-off among pediatric GCTs.²² We selected 18 years as the defining age between adolescents and young adults as it is the most frequent age of transition from pediatric to adult care in many centres and clinical trials. We defined 'metastatic' as lymph node metastasis or distant sites, classified in the MRC trials as stage II or III, in CCLG as stage II-IV, or in COG as stage III or IV.

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Next, we retrospectively applied the IGCCCG risk stratification, assigning each patient to either the good-risk, intermediate-risk, or poor-risk group.¹⁷ The IGCCCG criteria utilize histologic subtype, primary site, sites of metastases, and pre-chemotherapy serum levels of alpha fetoprotein (AFP), ß subunit of human chorionic gonadotropin (BHCG), and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) to determine risk-group, thus providing a composite variable of the most significant (adult) prognostic factors. Of note, tumor marker levels in pediatric trials measured at "diagnosis" may have been pre-surgical levels, rather than post-surgical levels as used by the IGCCCG. Furthermore, since some of the trial protocols of our pooled dataset were conducted prior to the IGCCCG classification, and because IGCCCG risk stratification has not traditionally been applied to pediatric GCT patients, we expected and encountered a high rate of missing values on the relevant data elements, especially LDH levels. If the particular value of a variable was not available to assign the IGCCCG risk group, we assumed (for the primary analysis) that the value would not have increased the assigned risk group (i.e., patients were assigned to the good-risk group by default and positive evidence was required to elevate a patient to the intermediate-risk or poor-risk groups) as this is analogous to what would be done in a clinical setting. A sensitivity analysis including only patients with complete stratifying data available was also performed.

The primary outcome was EFS, defined as the time interval from date of diagnosis to relapse or progression, second malignancy, death, or date last seen (whichever occurred first). The two potential predictor variables of main interest were age-group and IGCCCG risk-group. We constructed survival curves using the Kaplan-Meier method and used the log-rank test to compare EFS. We examined whether the IGCCCG risk-group within each age-group was significantly associated with EFS. We then conducted a multivariable Cox proportional hazards

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240 regression analysis to determine whether age-group (with adolescent age as the reference level) 241 remained independently significant when adjusting for IGCCCG risk group. Lastly, we 242 conducted sensitivity analyses to determine whether the results remained the same if we 243 excluded all patients a) who received carboplatin (given historic results of carboplatin studies in 244 adult patients), and b) with mediastinal primary sites of disease (given that mediastinal primary 245 non-seminomatous tumors are assigned to the IGCCCG poor-risk group regardless of any other 246 risk factors). A P-value of ≤ 0.050 was considered as evidence of a significant difference. All 247 analyses were conducted by the authors using Stata version 13.1 (College Station, TX). 248 249 Results The Consort diagram (Fig.1) shows the flow of patients in this study. From a total of 2024 250 251 non-duplicated records in the pooled database, 593 patients met inclusion criteria, of which 191 252 were from pediatric studies and 402 from adult studies. Table 1 shows the characteristics of the source studies, including their patient populations, regimens used, and the number of patients from 253 254 each trial who met eligibility criteria for this study. 255 256 The characteristics of all included patients are shown in Table 2. The mean (\pm standard 257 deviation) age was 19.4 (\pm 8.9) years. Five-hundred and thirty patients presented with testicular 258 tumors (89.4%), 44 (7.4%) with mediastinal tumors, and 19 (3.3%) with retroperitoneal primary 259 tumors. There were 90 children, 109 adolescents, and 394 young adults. Among the 90 children, 260 84 (93%) were less than 3 years old. Among the 109 adolescents, only four patients were between 261 11 and 13 years old. Tumour marker elevation was significantly different between age-groups: 262 adolescents had the highest mean serum BHCG level (24,288 IU/L) and mean LDH level (934

U/L), while the pediatric group demonstrated the highest mean AFP elevation (29,717 ng/mL).

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While there was a significant difference in the proportion of patients with poor-risk tumors in the pediatric and adolescent population (46% and 47% respectively) compared with the adult population (6%), this likely reflected the differences in the inclusion criteria of included studies rather than differences in natural distribution. In the adolescent group, 95/109 (87%) patients were treated with pediatric protocols, of whom 85 received cisplatin-based regimes (PEb) and 10 received carboplatin-based regimens (JEb). Fourteen of 109 (13%) adolescents were treated with adult-type regimens (BEP).

Among all 593 patients, there were 91 events and 35 deaths. The overall 5-year EFS was 85% [95% confidence intervals (CI) 82-88 %] and the overall 5-year overall survival (OS) was 94% (95%; CI 92-96%; Fig 2A). The median follow-up time for patients who survived without an event was 5.9 years (range 0.1 to 14.0 years). Age-group was strongly associated with EFS (p=0.0001) (Fig 2B). The 5-year EFS for adolescents (72%; CI = 62-79 %) was lower than for children (90%; CI=81-95 %, p=0.003) and for young adults (88%; CI=84-91%, p=0.0002). Risk-group was also strongly associated with EFS (p<0.0001) (Fig 2C). The 5-year EFS for the good-risk group (89%) was higher than for the intermediate-risk group (76%) (p=0.0003) and poor-risk group (76%) (p<0.0001).

 Figure 3 shows the EFS curves for each age-group stratified by risk-group. Risk-group was not significantly associated with EFS among children (p=0.7162) or young adults in this cohort (p=0.2703) but was associated with EFS among adolescents (p=0.0020). Among the 51 adolescents with poor-risk disease, 5-year EFS was only 57% (95% CI=42-70%), the lowest value observed across all subgroup analyses. In an exploratory analysis, the poor outcome in these 51

patients was not driven by patients being treated on adult regimens (two patients, no events) or JEb regimens (four patients, no events). Adolescent patients treated with the pediatric regimen PEb had a 5- EFS of 64% (95% CI= 53-74%) compared to a 5-yr EFS of 92.9% (95%CI= 59-98%) in adolescent patients treated with the BEP regimen used in adult patients (log-rank p=0.0517). The Cox regression model including both age-group and risk-group (Table 3) demonstrated that, after adjusting for risk-group, the effect of age-group remained statistically significant (likelihood-ratio test for significance of age-group adjusted for risk-group p=0.0025). The difference in EFS between adolescents and children remained significant (HR=0.30., p=0.001), but the difference between adolescents and young adults was no longer significant (HR 0.66, p=0.114). The results did not change if children treated on the carboplatin based JEb regimen were excluded (Table 3), or if patients with mediastinal primary tumors were excluded (Table 3). In a sensitivity analysis, including only the 465 patients who had complete data for IGCCC risk stratification (78% of total sample size), the direction of results remained the same. In the proportional hazard analysis of these patients (Supplemental Table 1), the difference in EFS between adolescents and children remained significant (HR=0.21, p=0.001), and the difference between adolescents and adults was not significant (HR=0.59, p=0.081). Discussion

307 Our study describes the outcomes of adolescent males with extracranial GCTs when 308 compared against children and young adults within a large pooled dataset of collaborative phase 309 III clinical trials. We showed that adolescent males had the lowest 5-year EFS (72%) compared 310 with both children (90%) and young adults (88%) in unadjusted analysis. After adjusting for riskPage 15 of 57

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311 group, the difference between adolescents and children remained significant, but the difference 312 between adolescents and young adults did not. Furthermore, we examined whether the IGCCCG 313 risk-classification system could successfully discriminate outcome among children or adolescents. 314 The risk-groups were associated with outcome among adolescents, but not among children. This 315 showed that the IGCCCG can be usefully applied for adolescents. Children had excellent outcomes 316 regardless of risk-group, further validating the results of the MaGIC risk stratification²² where all 317 patients <11y belong to the same risk group.</p>

Our findings also pointed to the under-representation of adolescents in clinical trials. There were only 109 adolescent males with metastatic GCT in this entire dataset, pooled from every pediatric clinical trial across North America and the United Kingdom for the last thirty years. Considering that extracranial metastatic GCT is the most common cancer among adolescent males, and that 430 new testicular GCTs are diagnosed in boys aged 15-19 years in the United States each year,¹⁵ this remarkably small number of patient provides a stark example of the adolescent and young adult (AYA) 'gap' in cancer care, research, and outcomes.³⁵

A strength of our study was its pooling of multiple good quality clinical trials to assemble the largest sample size currently possible to conduct this comparison, which any individual trial would not have allowed. This analysis focused on the outcomes of non-germinomatous/non-seminomatous GCTs in males, therefore, the results cannot be extrapolated to female patients or patients with pure germinomas/seminomas. One of our major limitations was the inability to analyse the effect of different therapeutic modalities and their individual impact on outcomes. Surgery is a cornerstone in the management of GCTs and the role of retroperitoneal lymph node dissection (RPLND) for post-chemotherapy residual lesions has been well described in the adult

literature ³⁶⁻³⁹; this analysis was unable to account for its contribution to outcome. A potential weakness of the study was its moderate rate of missing data on the variables needed to assign IGCCCG risk-group. However, the results remained unchanged in a sensitivity analysis in which patients with missing data were excluded, suggesting this factor did not affect conclusions. Lastly, since tumor marker levels in pediatric trials measured at diagnosis may have been pre-surgical levels rather than post-surgical levels, it is possible that some pediatric patients may have been miscategorized on their IGCCCG risk group, which would have biased our risk group analyses. However, the direction of this bias would not be expected to weaken the results. Adolescents with metastatic GCT are biologically and clinically more similar to young adults than children¹⁹, and this study demonstrates that they are also more alike in outcomes. While this study could not assess the superiority of any particular treatment approach or chemotherapy regimen, we believe it provides enough reason to consider treating adolescent males with GCTs differently than young children. We suggest that adolescent males with metastatic GCTs should be treated with approaches that have been developed with the wider evidence-base of adult testicular cancer, allowing them to receive the dose intensity of weekly bleomycin⁴⁰⁻⁴⁴, the predictive stratification of the IGCCCG^{17, 32, 45}, and the surgical guidelines for procedures such as RPLND of post-chemotherapy residual tumors³⁶⁻³⁹. All of these are standards-of-care among medical oncologists and urologists treating adults with metastatic GCTs. The results of this analysis, together with our earlier work on developing a revised GCT risk stratification⁴⁶, has already allowed us to incorporate these lessons into the current generation of GCT clinical trials in the United States and the United Kingdom. The current multi-group trial

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AGCT1531 (NCT03067181) includes all standard-risk patients between age 11-25 years as a single study group and prescribes these standards to all Furthermore, the COG has petitioned and joined two clinical trials led by adult testicular cancer cooperative groups: the ANZUP P3BEP or COG-AGCT1532 trial of accelerated BEP for high-risk patients, and the Alliance-A031102 TIGER trial for patients with relapsed testicular GCTs. Both these studies were originally planned for adult patients alone, but on the evidence presented here, their eligibility criteria were modified to include adolescent patients. Taken together, these three trials cover the entire spectrum of adolescent GCTs. The availability of the data is due to the work of the Malignant Germ Cell international Consortium (MaGIC) which has galvanized a remarkable collaboration of multiple cooperative groups across the silos of age-groups and international borders⁴⁷. Through MAGIC and other similar efforts, we hope to provide a path that will narrow the gap and improve outcomes for AYA patients with germ cell tumours.

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514	Table 1.	Characteristics	of Included	Clinical Trials

Study	Patients in Source Studies	Regimens	Number in present study
ТЕ09	598 adults with good-prognosis	4BEP	139
1207	testicular NGGCTs (273 under 30Y)	4JEB (Carboplatin AUC 5)	0
TE13	380 adults with poor-prognosis	BEP/EP	58
	NGGCTs (121 under 30Y)	BOP/VIP-B	0
TE20	812 adults with good-prognosis GCTs (230 NGGCTs under 30Y)	4BEP or 3BEP	205
GC2	137 children with MGCT	JEb (Carboplatin 600 mg/m ²)	39
GC3	138 children with MGCT	JEb (Carboplatin 600 mg/m ²)	9
POG 9048 (INT 1016)	74 children with intermediate-risk NGGCTs	4PEb	0
POG 9049	299 children with high-risk	4PEb	43
(INT 0097)	MGCTs	4HD-PEb	43
P9749	25 children with high-risk MGCT	4HD-PEb	4
AGCT01P1	19 children with high-risk NGGCT	4C-PEb	5
AGCT0132	218 children with intermediate- risk NGGCTs	3PEb	47

Abbreviations: AUC, area under the curve; b, bleomycin once per cycle; B, bleomycin once per week; C, cyclophosphamide; E, etoposide; HD-P, high dose cisplatin; I, ifosfamide; J, carboplatin; MGCT, malignant germ cell tumors; NGGCT, non-germinomatous germ cell tumors; O, vincristine; P, cisplatin; POG, Pediatric Oncology Group; V, etoposide. * includes 38 patients from GCT2 and 1 patient from GCT1

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Table 2. Patient Characteristics

Variable	All Pts 0 to 30y N (%)	0 to <11y N (%)	11 to <18y N (%)	18 to 30y N (%)
	N=593	N=90	N=109	N=394
Age mean (SD)	19.4 (8.9)	1.9 (1.9)	14.7 (1.5)	24.8 (3.6)
Testicular	530 (89%)	67 (74%)	82(75%)	381 (96.7%)
Mediastinal tumor	44 (7%)	16 (18%)	22 (20%)	6 (1.5%)
Retroperitoneal	19 (3%)	7(8%)	5(5%)	7 (1.7%)
AFP (ng/mL)				
Mean	6294	29717	6924	857
(range)	(0 -700000)	(8-700000)	(0-96000)	(0-63630)
<1000	449 (76%)	34 (38%)	57 (52%)	358 (91%)
1,000-10,000	68 (11%)	23 (26%)	25 (23%)	20 (5%)
>10,000	62 (10%)	30 (33%)	23 (21%)	9 (2%)
Missing	14 (2%)	3 (3%)	4 (4%)	7 (2%)
βHCG (IU/L)				
Mean	12358	5	24289	11592
(range)	(0-1057700)	(0-62)	(1-990000)	(0-1057700)
<5,000	435 (73%)	33 (37%)	44 (40%)	358 (91%)
5,000 - 50,000	30 (5%)	0 (0%)	12 (11%)	18 (5%)
>50,000	14 (2%)	0 (0%)	3 (3%)	11 (3%)
Missing	114 (19%)	57 (63%)	50 (46%)	7 (2%)
LDH (U/L)				
Mean	587	701	934	500
(range)	(77-5540)	(149-3631)	(77-5540)	(93-5186)
<930	318 (54%)	22 (24%)	40 (37%)	256 (65%)
930-6200	47 (8%)	7 (8%)	19 (17%)	21 (5%)
>6200	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Missing	228 (38%)	61 (68%)	50 (46%)	117 (30%)
Non-pulmonary visceral metastases	34 (6%)	9 (10%)	16 (15 %)	9 (2%)
RiskGroup				
Good	267 (45 %)	4 (4%)	14 (13%)	249 (63%)
Intermediate	82 (14%)	21 (23%)	23 (21%)	38 (10%)
Poor	116 (20%)	41 (46%)	51 (47%)	24 (6%)
Missing	128 (21%)	24 (27%)	21 (19%)	83 (21%)

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Table 3. Univariate Kaplan-Meier and Multivariable Cox Regression Analysis of Age-Group 521 and Risk-Group. 522

		Univ	ariate		N	Aultivariate	
	1		All Patien	ts (N=593)	1		
Variable	5y EFS (%)	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value
Age Group							
0 - <11	90	0.31	0.14-0.65	0.002	0.30	0.14 - 0.63	0.001
11 - <18	72	Reference			Reference		
18 - <30	88	0.43	0.27-0.68	0.000	0.66	0.40 - 1.11	0.114
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.42	0.26-0.67	0.000	0.42	0.24 - 0.72	0.002
Intermediate	76	0.87	0.48-1.56	0.634	0.88	0.48 - 1.60	0.663
Poor	76	Reference			Reference		
	1	Jł	Eb patients ex	cluded* (N=5	545)		
Age Group							
0 - <11	92	0.21	0.07-0.60	0.004	0.21	0.07 - 0.59	0.003
11 - <18	69	Reference	0.07 0.00		Reference	0.07 0.09	0.000
18 - <30	88	0.38	0.24-0.60	0.000	0.62	0.36 - 1.03	0.066
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.36	0.22-0.58	0.000	0.39	0.22 - 0.68	0.001
Intermediate	75	0.77	0.42-1.42	0.401	0.81	0.44 - 1.50	0.489
Poor	73	Reference			Reference		
	-	Mediastina	l primary tur	nors exclude	d** (N=549)		
Age Group							
0 - <11	89	0.41	0.18-0.94	0.035	0.40	0.108-0.91	0.029
11 - <18	77	Reference			Reference		
18 - <30	87	0.55	0.33-0.93	0.024	0.83	0.347-1.47	0.506
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.43	0.25-0.75	0.003	0.40	0.22 - 0.74	0.003
Intermediate	76	0.89	0.46-1.72	0.737	0.88	0.45 – 1.71	0.693
Poor	77	Reference			Reference		

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; EFS, event-free survival; JEb, carboplatin/etoposide/reduced bleomycin; N, number; y, years. *48 Patients received JEb. **44 Patients with mediastinal tumours.

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3 4	528	FIGURE LEGENDS
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7	530	Figure 1. CONSORT diagram describing flow of patients through the study
8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15	531 532 533 534 535 536	Figure 2. A) Event-free survival (EFS) and overall survival (OS) for all patients (N=593) B) EFS by risk-group; C) EFS by age-group
16 17 18 19 20 21 22 32 42 52 62 7 82 93 03 132 33 435 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 50 51 52 53 45 56	537 538	Figure 3. A) EFS for children (age 0 to <11 years) by risk-group; B) EFS for adolescents (age 11 to <18 years) by risk-group; C) EFS for young adults (age 18 to <30 years) by risk-group.
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1 Title: Outcomes of Adolescent Males with Extracranial Metastatic Germ Cell Tumors:- A Report

- 2 from the Malignant Germ Cell Tumor <u>International</u> Consortium.
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James F. Amatruda: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, writing - review and

editing. Deborah Billmire: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, writing - review and editing. Sara Stoneham: Conceptualization, methodology, data acquisition writing - review and editing. A. Lindsay Frazier: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, writing - review and editing. All authors have made meaningful contributions, approved the final version of the manuscript and are accountable for all aspects of the work. Lay Summary: Adolescent males with metastatic germ cell tumors are frequently treated with regimens developed for children. In this study, we built a large dataset of male patients with metastatic germ cell tumors across different age groups to understand the outcomes of adolescent patients when compared with children and young adults. Our results suggest that adolescent males with metastatic germ cell tumors have worse results than children and are more similar to young adults with germ cell tumors. Therefore, the treatment of adolescents with germ cell tumors, should resemble young adult therapeutic approaches. **Précis for Table of Contents:** EFS for adolescent patients with metastatic germ cell tumors was similar to young adults but significantly worse than for children. This finding highlights the importance of coordinating

91 initiatives across clinical trial organizations to improve outcomes for adolescents and young adults.

92 Abstract:

93 PURPOSE: Adolescents with extracranial metastatic germ cell tumors (GCTs) are often treated on
94 regimens developed for children, but more closely resemble the clinical characteristics of young
95 adult patients. We sought to determine event-free survival (EFS) for adolescents with GCTs and
96 compared children and young adults.

97 PATIENTS AND METHODS: We assembled an individual patient database of eleven GCT trials: 98 eight conducted by pediatric cooperative groups and three by an adult group. We included male 99 patients aged 0-30 years with metastatic, non-seminomatous malignant GCTs of the testis, 100 retroperitoneum, or mediastinum, treated with platinum-based chemotherapy. We categorized age-101 group as children (0 to <11 years), adolescents (11 to <18 years), or young adults (18 to <30 years 102 old). We compared EFS and adjusted for risk-group using Cox proportional hazards analysis.

103 RESULTS: From a total of 2,024 individual records, 593 patients met inclusion criteria, of whom 104 90 were children, 109 were adolescents, and 394 were young adults. The 5-year EFS for 105 adolescents [72 %; 95% confidence-interval (CI)=62-79%] was lower than for children (90%; 106 CI=81-95%, p=0.003) or young adults (88%; CI=84-91%, p=0.0002). International Germ Cell 107 Cancer Collaborative Group (IGCCCG) risk-group was associated with EFS in the adolescent age-108 group (p=0.0257). After adjusting for risk-group, the difference in EFS between adolescents and 109 children remained significant (HR=0.30, p=0.001).

111 CONCLUSION: EFS for adolescent patients with metastatic GCTs was similar to young adults 112 but significantly worse than for children. This finding highlights the importance of coordinating 113 initiatives across clinical trial organizations to improve outcomes for adolescents and young adults. **Keywords:** Germ cell tumors, adolescent males, outcomes, AYA, Testicular GCT.

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5 6	116	Total numbers:
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126 Background

> Adolescents and young adults (AYAs) with cancer are a unique group of patients with special characteristics.¹⁻⁴ AYAs develop a specific spectrum of cancers.⁵ require age-appropriate psychosocial support, and often inhabit a medical 'no man's land'⁶ where they are neither the specific focus of pediatric or adult worlds of oncology.⁷ This results in their care being underresearched, trials under-accrued, and optimal management disputed.⁸ AYAs may sometimes be subject to professional competition for patient 'ownership' or an individual clinical conviction that the management used for one age-group is right for another.^{9, 10} But specific attention to the needs of AYA cancer patients has yielded progress. In acute lymphoblastic leukemia, management has evolved based upon pooling of data from different treatment approaches, with greatly improved AYA outcomes in recent trials.¹¹ Similarly, Ewing sarcoma outcomes for AYAs were inferior to those seen in children, until collaborative protocols overcame this difference.^{12, 13} In osteosarcoma, outcomes for AYAs are also inferior to those observed in children, and pooling of clinical trial data has hypothesised tractable reasons for these differences related to pharmacologic or clinical factors.¹⁴ We believe similar advances can be made for AYA patients with GCTs through collaborative, investigative efforts.

Extracranial germ cell tumors (GCTs) account for approximately 3-4% of cancers in children, 14% of cancers in adolescents aged 15-19 years, and 18% of cancers in young adults aged 20-30 years.^{15, 16} Thus, GCTs are among the few malignancies that are encountered relatively commonly by both pediatric and medical oncologists. However, treatment regimens have evolved separately within pediatric and adult oncology collaborative groups. The two groups use different

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staging and risk stratification systems, different numbers of cycles, and different cumulative doses
of chemotherapy.^{17, 18}

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151 Historically, patients under the age of 15-18 years in North America or under 16 years in 152 the United Kingdom (UK) have been treated on pediatric regimens, and most adolescents within 153 these ages have been treated with the approaches developed for young children. On the other hand, 154 it can be argued that adolescents with GCTs seem to more closely resemble the characteristics of 155 young adult patients with respect to clinical, biological and epidemiological characteristics.¹⁹ 156 Thus, there is a knowledge gap about the optimal approach to treating adolescents with GCTs. To 157 date, it is not known whether adolescents with GCTs are more effectively treated with pediatric or 158 adult approaches. Compounding this matter is the observation that adolescents with GCTs are 159 under-represented in clinical trials, frequently too old to meet the age inclusion criteria of pediatric 160 trials and too young to meet age eligibility for adult studies.²⁰

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162 We sought to determine whether adolescents with GCTs experience outcomes that are 163 more alike to children or to young adults, and where the dividing line between pediatric and adult 164 standards of care or clinical trial inclusion criteria should be drawn. There is only limited evidence 165 to help guide such discussions. This limitation stems from the heterogeneous manifestations of 166 GCTs across age-groups which precludes direct comparisons, as well as the relatively small 167 sample size of individual trials which prevents adequately powered subgroup analyses. Previously, Cost et al.²¹ reported on the outcomes among 20 children, 39 adolescents, and 354 adult patients 168 169 with testicular GCTs treated at their institution. The EFS for adolescents was worse when 170 compared with children and young adults, even after adjusting for stage, International Germ Cell

171 Cancer Collaborative Group (IGCCCG) risk-group, ¹⁷ and histology. However, this was a single
172 centre analysis with a small sample size.

The Malignant Germ Cell Tumour International Consortium (MaGIC) assembled a large pooled dataset of extracranial GCT patients treated across multiple clinical trials and collaborative groups^{20, 22}, allowing for secondary analysis of prospective trial data. For this current study, we derived a relatively homogenous subgroup of male patients with GCT across three age-groups (children, adolescents, and young adults) in order to compare event-free survival (EFS). A secondary objective was to determine whether the IGCCCG risk stratification system used in adult studies¹⁷ was predictive of outcome in pediatric or adolescent patients with GCTs.

Patients and Methods

At the time of this analysis, the MaGIC database included all patients enrolled in five trials conducted by the Children's Oncology Group (COG; INT-1016,²³ INT-0097,¹⁸ AGCT0132,²⁴ AGCT01P1²⁵ and P9749²⁶), three trials from the Children's Cancer and Leukemia Group (CCLG; GCI,²⁷ GCII²⁸ and GCIII²⁹), and three trials from the Medical Research Council (MRC; TE09,³⁰ TE13³¹ and TE20³²). Each trial had received research ethics board approval from the relevant agencies. The project was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at the Dana-Farber Cancer Institute.

From the total dataset of 2,024 patients, we selected males age 0-30 years with newly diagnosed, metastatic, non-seminomatous malignant GCT of the testis, retroperitoneum or mediastinum. The resulting subgroup of 593 patients provided a population with relatively uniform

disease characteristics that was large enough to provide adequate numbers of patients within each of the three age-groups.

In order to maintain uniform treatment intensity, we only included patients treated with standard regimens with outcomes known to be similar to each other. The regimens included the adult standard-of-care BEP (weekly bleomycin, represented henceforth by the upper case letter 'B', and once per cycle etoposide and cisplatin), the pediatric standard-of-care PEb (cisplatin, etoposide and reduced bleomycin used once per cycle, represented henceforth by the lowercase letter 'b'), HD-PEb (high-dose cisplatin and Eb), C-PEb (cyclophosphamide and PEb), and pediatric JEb (carboplatin and Eb). We included pediatric JEb as it has similar outcomes to pediatric PEb ^{29, 33}. However, adult patients treated with carboplatin regimens were excluded as these regimens, which notably used lower doses of carboplatin than those used in paediatric regimens, have been shown to be inferior to BEP in randomized trials.^{30, 34}

We categorized 'age-group' as children (age 0 to <11 years), adolescents (11 to <18 years), or young adults (18 to <30 years old). The selection of age 11 years as the cut-off between children and adolescents was based on our earlier analysis which showed this age to be the most significant and discriminant prognostic cut-off among pediatric GCTs.²² We selected 18 years as the defining age between adolescents and young adults as it is the most frequent age of transition from pediatric to adult care in many centres and clinical trials. We defined 'metastatic' as lymph node metastasis or distant sites, classified in the MRC trials as stage II or III, in CCLG as stage II-IV, or in COG as stage III or IV.

Next, we retrospectively applied the IGCCCG risk stratification, assigning each patient to either the good-risk, intermediate-risk, or poor-risk group.¹⁷ The IGCCCG criteria utilize histologic subtype, primary site, sites of metastases, and pre-chemotherapy serum levels of alpha fetoprotein (AFP), β subunit of human chorionic gonadotropin (β HCG), and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) to determine risk-group, thus providing a composite variable of the most significant (adult) prognostic factors.- Of note, tumor marker levels in pediatric trials measured at "diagnosis" may have been pre-surgical levels, rather than post-surgical levels as used by the IGCCCG. Furthermore, sSince some of the trial protocols of our pooled dataset were conducted prior to the IGCCCG classification, and because IGCCCG risk stratification has not traditionally been applied to pediatric GCT patients, we expected and encountered a high rate of missing values on the relevant data elements, especially LDH levels. -If the particular value of a variable was not available to assign the IGCCCG risk group, we assumed (for the primary analysis) that the value would not have increased the assigned risk group (i.e., patients were assigned to the good-risk group by default and positive evidence was required to elevate a patient to the intermediate-risk or poor-risk groups) as this is analogous to what would be done in a clinical setting. A sensitivity analysis including only patients with complete stratifying data available was also performed. The primary outcome was EFS, defined as the time interval from date of diagnosis to relapse or

potential predictor variables of main interest were age-group and IGCCCG risk-group. We
constructed survival curves using the Kaplan-Meier method and used the log-rank test to
compare EFS. We examined whether the IGCCCG risk-group within each age-group was

progression, second malignancy, death, or date last seen (whichever occurred first). The two

239 significantly associated with EFS. We then conducted a multivariable Cox proportional hazards

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40	regression analysis to determine whether age-group (with adolescent age as the reference level)
41	remained independently significant when adjusting for IGCCCG risk group. Lastly, we
12	conducted sensitivity analyses to determine whether the results remained the same if we
43	excluded all patients a) who received carboplatin (given historic results of carboplatin studies in
14	adult patients), and b) with mediastinal primary sites of disease (given that mediastinal primary
45	non-seminomatous tumors are assigned to the IGCCCG poor-risk group regardless of any other
46	risk factors). A P-value of ≤ 0.050 was considered as evidence of a significant difference. All
17	analyses were conducted by the authors using Stata version 13.1 (College Station, TX).
18	
19	Results
50	The Consort diagram (Fig.1) shows the flow of patients in this study. From a total of 2024
51	non-duplicated records in the pooled database, 593 patients met inclusion criteria, of which 191
52	were from pediatric studies and 402 from adult studies. Table 1 shows the characteristics of the
53	source studies, including their patient populations, regimens used, and the number of patients from
54	each trial who met eligibility criteria for this study.
55	
56	The characteristics of all included patients are shown in Table 2. The mean (±standard
57	deviation) age was 19.4 (\pm 8.9) years. Eive-hundred and thirty patients presented with testicular
58	tumors (89 <u>.4</u> %), 44 (7 <u>.4</u> %) with mediastinal tumors, and 19 (3 <u>.3</u> %) with retroperitoneal primary
59	There were 90 children, 109 adolescents, and 394 young adults. Among the 90 children,
50	84 (93%) were less than 3 years old. Among the 109 adolescents, only four patients were between
51	11 and 13 years oldTumour marker elevation was significantly different between age-groups:
52	adolescents had the highest mean serum β HCG level (24,288 IU/L) and mean LDH level (934
53	U/L), while the pediatric group demonstrated the highest mean AFP elevation (29,717 ng/mL).
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While there was a significant difference in the proportion of patients with poor-risk tumors in the pediatric and adolescent population (46% and 47% respectively) compared with the adult population (6%), this likely reflected the differences in the inclusion criteria of included studies rather than differences in natural distribution. In the adolescent group, 95 109 [87%] patients were reated with pediatric protocols of wlomich, 85 received cisplatin-based regimes (PEb) and 10

received carboplatin-based regimens -(JEb). Fourteen of 109 (13%) adolescents were treated with

Among all 593 patients, there were 91 events and 35 deaths. The overall 5-year EFS was 85% [95% confidence intervals (CI) 82-88 %] and the overall 5-year overall survival (OS) was 94% (95%; CI 92-96%; Fig 2A). The median follow-up time for patients who survived without an event was 5.9 years (range 0.1 to 14.0 years). Age-group was strongly associated with EFS (p=0.0001) (Fig 2B). The 5-year EFS for adolescents (72%; CI = 62-79 %) was lower than for children (90%; CI=81-95 %, p=0.003) and for young adults (88%; CI=84-91%, p=0.0002). Risk-group was also strongly associated with EFS (p<0.0001) (Fig 2C). The 5-year EFS for the good-risk group (89%) was higher than for the intermediate-risk group (76%) (p=0.0003) and poor-risk group (76%) (p<0.0001).

 Figure 3 shows the EFS curves for each age-group stratified by risk-group. Risk-group was not significantly associated with EFS among children (p=0.7162) or young adults in this cohort (p=0.2703) but was associated with EFS among adolescents (p=0.0020). Among the 51 adolescents with poor-risk disease, 5-year EFS was only 57% (95% CI=42-70%), the lowest value observed across all subgroup analyses. In an exploratory analysis, the poor outcome in these 51

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287	patients was not driven by patients being treated on adult regimens (two patients, no events) or
288	JEb regimens (four patients, no events). Adolescent patients treated with the pediatric regimen
289	PEb had a 5- EFS of 64% (95% CI= 53-74%) compared to a 5-yr EFS of 92.9% (95%CI= 59-98%)
290	in adolescent patients treated with the BEP regimen used in adult <u>patients</u> (log-rank p=0.0517).
291 292	The Cox regression model including both age-group and risk-group (Table 3) demonstrated
293	that, after adjusting for risk-group, the effect of age-group remained statistically significant
294	(likelihood-ratio test for significance of age-group adjusted for risk-group p=0.0025). The
295	difference in EFS between adolescents and children remained significant (HR=0.30., p=0.001),
296	but the difference between adolescents and young adults was no longer significant (HR 0.66,
297	p=0.114). The results did not change if children treated on the carboplatin based JEb regimen were
298	excluded (Table 3), or if patients with mediastinal primary tumors were excluded (Table 3).
299	
300	In a sensitivity analysis, including only the 465 patients who had complete data for IGCCC
301	risk stratification (78% of total sample size), the direction of results remained the same. In the
302	proportional hazard analysis of these patients (Supplemental Table 1), the difference in EFS
303	between adolescents and children remained significant (HR=0.21, p=0.001), and the difference
304	between adolescents and adults was not significant (HR=0.59, p=0.081).
305	
306	Discussion
307	Our study describes the outcomes of adolescent males with extracranial GCTs when

307 Our study describes the outcomes of adolescent males with extracranial GCTs when 308 compared against children and young adults within a large pooled dataset of collaborative phase 309 III clinical trials. We showed that adolescent males had the lowest 5-year EFS (72%) compared 310 with both children (90%) and young adults (88%) in unadjusted analysis. After adjusting for risk-

311 group, the difference between adolescents and children remained significant, but the difference 312 between adolescents and young adults did not. Furthermore, we examined whether the IGCCCG 313 risk-classification system could successfully discriminate outcome among children or adolescents. 314 The risk-groups were associated with outcome among adolescents, but not among children. This 315 showed that the IGCCCG can be usefully applied for adolescents. Children had excellent outcomes 316 regardless of risk-group, further validating the results of the MaGIC risk stratification²² where all 317 patients <11y belong to the same risk group.</p>

Our findings also pointed to the under-representation of adolescents in clinical trials. There were only 109 adolescent males with metastatic GCT in this entire dataset, pooled from every pediatric clinical trial across North America and the United Kingdom for the last thirty years. Considering that extracranial metastatic GCT is the most common cancer among adolescent males, and that 430 new testicular GCTs are diagnosed in boys aged 15-19 years in the United States each year,¹⁵ this remarkably small number of patient provides a stark example of the adolescent and young adult (AYA) 'gap' in cancer care, research, and outcomes.³⁵

A strength of our study was its pooling of multiple good quality clinical trials to assemble the largest sample size currently possible to conduct this comparison, which any individual trial would not have allowed. This analysis focused on the outcomes of non-germinomatous/non-seminomatous GCTs in males, therefore, the results cannot be extrapolated to female patients or patients with pure germinomas/seminomas. One of our major limitations was the inability to analyse the effect of different therapeutic modalities and their individual impact on outcomes. Surgery is a cornerstone in the management of GCTs and the role of retroperitoneal lymph node dissection (RPLND) for post-chemotherapy residual lesions has been well described in the adult Page 41 of 57

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334	literature ³⁶⁻³⁹ ; this analysis was unable to account for its contribution to outcome. A potential
335	weakness of the study was its moderate rate of missing data on the variables needed to assign
336	IGCCCG risk-group. However, the results remained unchanged in a sensitivity analysis in which
337	patients with missing data were excluded, suggesting this factor did not affect conclusions. Lastly,
338	since tumor marker levels in pediatric trials measured at diagnosis may have been pre-surgical
339	levels rather than post-surgical levels, it is possible that some pediatric patients may have been
340	miscategorized on their IGCCCG risk group, which would have biased our risk group analyses.
341	However, the direction of this bias would not be expected to weaken the results.
342	
343	Adolescents with metastatic GCT are biologically and clinically more similar to young
344	adults than children ¹⁹ , and this study demonstrates that they are also more alike in outcomes. While
345	this study could not assess the superiority of any particular treatment approach or chemotherapy
346	regimen, we believe it provides enough reason to consider treating adolescent males with GCTs
347	differently than young children. We suggest that adolescent males with metastatic GCTs should
348	be treated with approaches that have been developed with the wider evidence-base of adult
349	testicular cancer, allowing them to receive the dose intensity of weekly bleomycin ⁴⁰⁻⁴⁴ , the
350	predictive stratification of the IGCCCG ^{17, 32, 45} , and the surgical guidelines for procedures such as
351	RPLND of post-chemotherapy residual tumors ³⁶⁻³⁹ . All of these are standards-of-care among
352	medical oncologists and urologists treating adults with metastatic GCTs.
353	
354	The results of this analysis, together with our earlier work on developing a revised GCT

of GCT clinical trials in the United States and the United Kingdom. The current multi-group trial

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risk stratification⁴⁶, has already allowed us to incorporate these lessons into the current generation

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357	AGCT1531 (NCT03067181) includes all standard-risk patients between age 11-25 years as a
358	single study group and prescribes these standards to all Furthermore, the COG has petitioned and
359	joined two clinical trials led by adult testicular cancer cooperative groups: the ANZUP P3BEP or
360	COG-AGCT1532 trial of accelerated BEP for high-risk patients, and the Alliance-A031102
361	TIGER trial for patients with relapsed testicular GCTs. Both these studies were originally planned
362	for adult patients alone, but on the evidence presented here, their eligibility criteria were modified
363	to include adolescent patients. Taken together, these three trials cover the entire spectrum of
364	adolescent GCTs. The availability of the data is due to the work of the Malignant Germ Cell
365	international Consortium (MaGIC) which has galvanized a remarkable collaboration of multiple
366	cooperative groups across the silos of age-groups and international borders ⁴⁷ . Through MAGIC
367	and other similar efforts, we hope to provide a path that will narrow the gap and improve outcomes
368	for AYA patients with germ cell tumours.
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 416 adolescents with high-risk malignant germ cell tumors: A Pediatric Intergroup Study--Pediatric
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Cancer

Study	Patients in Source Studies	Regimens	Number in present study
ТЕ09	598 adults with good-prognosis	4BEP	139
	testicular NGGCTs (273 under 30Y)	4JEB (Carboplatin AUC 5)	0
TE13	380 adults with poor-prognosis	BEP/EP	58
	NGGCTs (121 under 30Y)	BOP/VIP-B	0
TE20	812 adults with good-prognosis	4BEP or 3BEP	205
	GCTs (230 NGGCTs under 30Y)		
GC2	137 children with MGCT	JEb (Carboplatin 600 mg/m ²)	39
GC3	138 children with MGCT	JEb (Carboplatin 600 mg/m ²)	9
POG 9048 (INT 1016)	74 children with intermediate-risk NGGCTs	4PEb	0
POG 9049	299 children with high-risk	4PEb	43
(INT 0097)	MGCTs	4HD-PEb	43
P9749	25 children with high-risk MGCT	4HD-PEb	4
AGCT01P1	19 children with high-risk NGGCT	4C-PEb	5
AGCT0132	218 children with intermediate- risk NGGCTs	3PEb	47

cisplatin; I, ifosfamide; J, carboplatin; MGCT, malignant germ cell tumors; NGGCT, non-germinomatous germ cell tumors; O, vincristine; P, cisplatin; POG, Pediatric Oncology Group; V, etoposide. * includes 38 patients from GCT2 and 1 patient from GCT1

Table 2. Patient Characteristics

Variable	All Pts 0 to 30y N (%)	0 to <11y N (%)	11 to <18y N (%)	18 to 30y N (%)
	N=593	N=90	N=109	N=394
Age mean (SD)	19.4 (8.9)	1.9 (1.9)	14.7 (1.5)	24.8 (3.6)
Testicular	530 (89%)	67 (74%)	82(75%)	381 (96.7%)
Mediastinal tumor	44 (7%)	16 (18%)	22 (20%)	6 (1.5%)
Retroperitoneal	19 (3%)	7(8%)	5(5%)	7 (1.7%)
AFP (ng/mL)				
Mean	6294	29717	6924	857
(range)	(0 -700000)	(8-700000)	(0-96000)	(0-63630)
<1000	449 (76%)	34 (38%)	57 (52%)	358 (91%)
1,000-10,000	68 (11%)	23 (26%)	25 (23%)	20 (5%)
>10,000	62 (10%)	30 (33%)	23 (21%)	9 (2%)
Missing	14 (2%)	3 (3%)	4 (4%)	7 (2%)
βHCG (IU/L)				
Mean	12358	5	24289	11592
(range)	(0-1057700)	(0-62)	(1-990000)	(0-1057700)
<5,000	435 (73%)	33 (37%)	44 (40%)	358 (91%)
5,000 - 50,000	30 (5%)	0 (0%)	12 (11%)	18 (5%)
>50,000	14 (2%)	0 (0%)	3 (3%)	11 (3%)
Missing	114 (19%)	57 (63%)	50 (46%)	7 (2%)
LDH (U/L)				
Mean	587	701	934	500
(range)	(77-5540)	(149-3631)	(77-5540)	(93-5186)
<930	318 (54%)	22 (24%)	40 (37%)	256 (65%)
930-6200	47 (8%)	7 (8%)	19 (17%)	21 (5%)
>6200	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Missing	228 (38%)	61 (68%)	50 (46%)	117 (30%)
Non-pulmonary visceral metastases	34 (6%)	9 (10%)	16 (15 %)	9 (2%)
RiskGroup				
Good	267 (45 %)	4 (4%)	14 (13%)	249 (63%)
Intermediate	82 (14%)	21 (23%)	23 (21%)	38 (10%)
Poor	116 (20%)	41 (46%)	51 (47%)	24 (6%)
Missing	128 (21%)	24 (27%)	21 (19%)	83 (21%)

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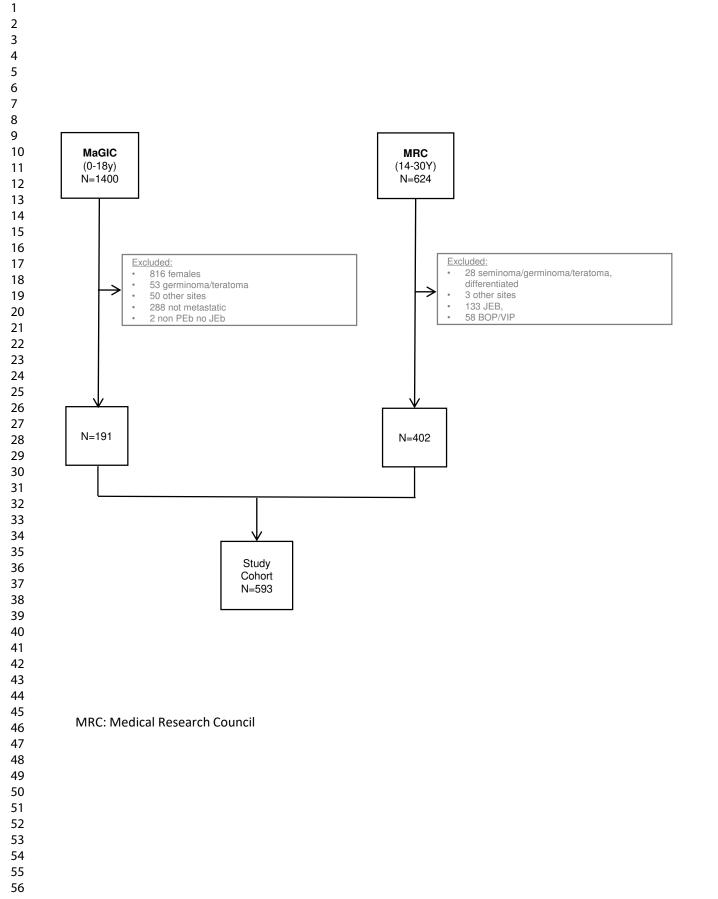
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Table 3. Univariate Kaplan-Meier and Multivariable Cox Regression Analysis of Age-Group and Risk-Group.

	Univariate			Multivariate			
	l		All Patien	ts (N=593)			
Variable	5y EFS (%)	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value
Age Group							
0 - <11	90	0.31	0.14-0.65	0.002	0.30	0.14 - 0.63	0.001
11 - <18	72	Reference			Reference		
18 - <30	88	0.43	0.27-0.68	0.000	0.66	0.40 - 1.11	0.114
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.42	0.26-0.67	0.000	0.42	0.24 - 0.72	0.002
Intermediate	76	0.87	0.48-1.56	0.634	0.88	0.48 - 1.60	0.663
Poor	76	Reference			Reference		
	1	JI	Eb patients ex	cluded* (N=	545)		
Age Group 0 - <11	92	0.21	0.07-0.60	0.004	0.21	0.07 - 0.59	0.003
11 - <18	69	Reference	0.07-0.00	0.004	Reference	0.07 - 0.39	0.005
18 - <30	88	0.38	0.24-0.60	0.000	0.62	0.36 - 1.03	0.066
Risk Group	00	0.50	0.21 0.00	0.000	0.02	0.50 1.05	0.000
Good	89	0.36	0.22-0.58	0.000	0.39	0.22 - 0.68	0.001
Intermediate	75	0.77	0.42-1.42	0.401	0.81	0.44 - 1.50	0.489
Poor	73	Reference			Reference		
		Mediastina	l primary tur	nors exclude	d** (N=549)		
Age Group							
0 - <11	89	0.41	0.18-0.94	0.035	0.40	0.108-0.91	0.029
11 - <18	77	Reference			Reference		
18 - <30	87	0.55	0.33-0.93	0.024	0.83	0.347-1.47	0.506
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.43	0.25-0.75	0.003	0.40	0.22 - 0.74	0.003
Intermediate	76	0.89	0.46-1.72	0.737	0.88	0.45 - 1.71	0.693
Poor	77	Reference			Reference		

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; EFS, event-free survival; JEb, carboplatin/etoposide/reduced bleomycin; N, number; y, years. *48 Patients- received JEb. **44 Patients with mediastinal tumours.

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7	530	Figure 1. CONSORT diagram describing flow of patients through the study
8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15	531 532 533 534 535 536	Figure 2. A) Event-free survival (EFS) and overall survival (OS) for all patients (N=593) B) EFS by risk-group; C) EFS by age-group
$\begin{array}{c} 16\\ 17\\ 18\\ 19\\ 20\\ 21\\ 22\\ 23\\ 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 29\\ 30\\ 1\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 940\\ 41\\ 43\\ 445\\ 46\\ 47\\ 48\\ 950\\ 51\\ 52\\ 54\\ 55\\ 56\end{array}$	537 538	Figure 3. A) EFS for children (age 0 to <11 years) by risk-group; B) EFS for adolescents (age 11 to <18 years) by risk-group; C) EFS for young adults (age 18 to <30 years) by risk-group.
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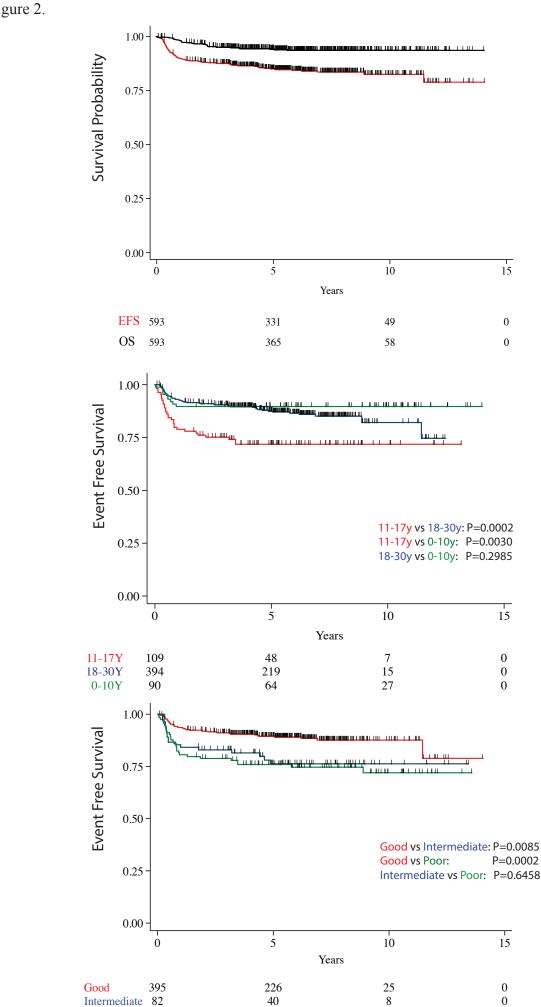


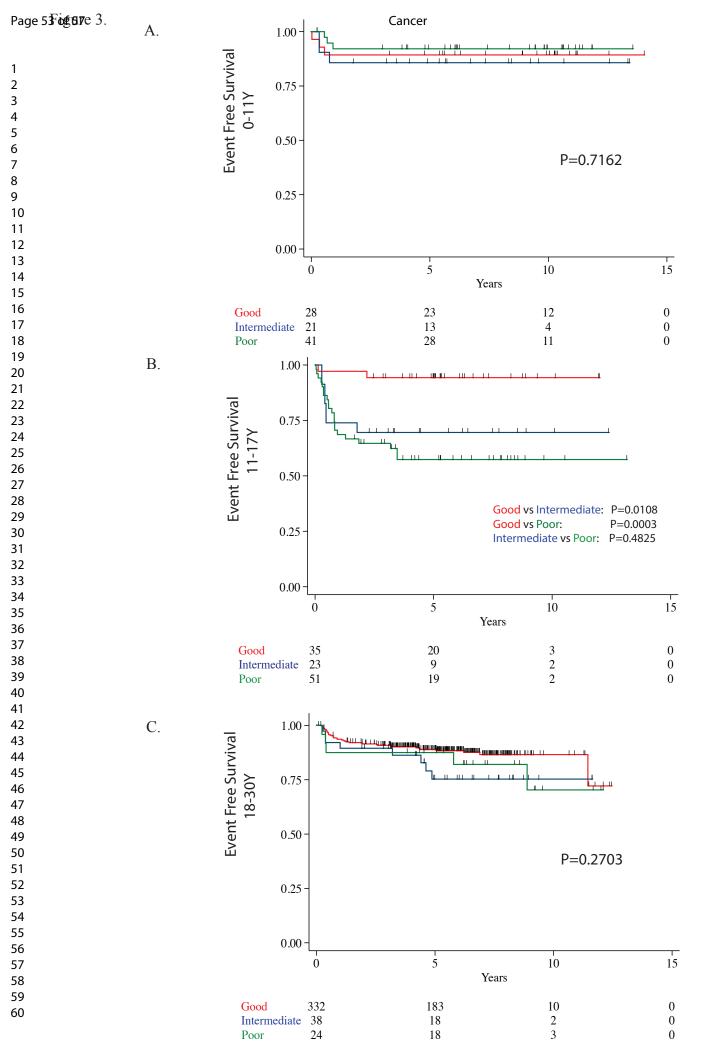
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Study	Patients in Source Studies	Regimens	Number included in present study	
TEAO	598 adults with good-prognosis testicular NGGCTs (273 under 30Y)	4BEP	139	
ТЕ09	598 adults will good-prognosis testicular NOOCTS (275 under 501)	4JEB (Carboplatin AUC 5)	0	
TF12	380 adults with poor-prognosis	BEP/EP	58	
TE13	NGGCTs (121 under 30Y)	BOP/VIP-B	0	
TF20	812 adults with good-prognosis		205	
TE20	GCTs (230 NGGCTs under 30Y)	4BEP or 3BEP		
GC2	137 children with MGCT	JEb (Carboplatin 600 mg/m ²)	39 (+1 from GC1)	
GC3	138 children with MGCT	JEb (Carboplatin 600 mg/m ²)	9	
POG 9048 (INT 1016)	74 children with intermediate-risk NGGCTs	4PEb	0	
		4PEb	43	
POG 9049 (INT 0097)	299 children with high-risk MGCTs	4HD-PEb	43	
P9749	25 children with high-risk MGCT	4HD-PEb	4	
AGCT01P1	19 children with high-risk NGGCT	4C-PEb	5	
AGCT0132	218 children with intermediate-risk NGGCTs	3PEb	47	

Abbreviations: AUC, area under the curve; b, bleomycin once per cycle; B, bleomycin once per week; C, cyclophosphamide; E, etoposide; HD-P, high dose cisplatin; l ifosfamide; J, carboplatin; MGCT, malignant germ cell tumors; NGGCT, non-germinomatous germ cell tumors; O, vincristine; P, cisplatin; POG, Pediatric Oncology Group; V, etoposide.

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Cancer

Variable	All Pts 0 to 30y N (%)	0 to <11y N (%)	11 to <18y N (%)	18 to 30y N (%)
	N=593	N=90	N=109	N=394
Age mean (SD)	19.4 (8.9)	1.9 (1.9)	14.7 (1.5)	24.8 (3.6)
Testicular	530 (89%)	67 (74%)	82(75%)	381 (96.7%)
Mediastinal tumor	44 (7%)	16 (18%)	22 (20%)	6 (1.5%)
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AFP (ng/mL)				
Mean	6294	29717	6924	857
(range)	(0 -700000)	(8-700000)	(0-96000)	(0-63630)
<1000	449 (76%)	34 (38%)	57 (52%)	358 (91%)
1,000-10,000	68 (11%)	23 (26%)	25 (23%)	20 (5%)
>10,000	62 (10%)	30 (33%)	23 (21%)	9 (2%)
Missing	14 (2%)	3 (3%)	4 (4%)	7 (2%)
βHCG (IU/L)				
Mean	12358	5	24289	11592
(range)	(0-1057700)	(0-62)	(1-990000)	(0-1057700)
<5,000	435 (73%)	33 (37%)	44 (40%)	358 (91%)
5,000 - 50,000	30 (5%)	0 (0%)	12 (11%)	18 (5%)
>50,000	14 (2%)	0 (0%)	3 (3%)	11 (3%)
Missing	114 (19%)	57 (63%)	50 (46%)	7 (2%)
LDH (U/L)				
Mean	587	701	934	500
(range)	(77-5540)	(149-3631)	(77-5540)	(93-5186)
<930	318 (54%)	22 (24%)	40 (37%)	256 (65%)
930-6200	47 (8%)	7 (8%)	19 (17%)	21 (5%)
>6200	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Missing	228 (38%)	61 (68%)	50 (46%)	117 (30%)
Non-pulmonary visceral metastases	34 (6%)	9 (10%)	16 (15 %)	9 (2%)
RiskGroup				
Good	267 (45 %)	4 (4%)	14 (13%)	249 (63%)
Intermediate	82 (14%)	21 (23%)	23 (21%)	38 (10%)
Poor	116 (20%)	41 (46%)	51 (47%)	24 (6%)
Missing	128 (21%)	24 (27%)	21 (19%)	83 (21%)

		Univa	ariate]	Multivariate	e
			All Patient (N=593)			
Variable	5y EFS (%)	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value
Age Group							
0 - <11	90	0.31	0.14-0.65	0.002	0.30	0.14 - 0.63	0.001
11 - <18	72	Reference			Reference		
18 - <30	88	0.43	0.27-0.68	0.000	0.66	0.40 - 1.11	0.114
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.42	0.26-0.67	0.000	0.42	0.24 - 0.72	0.002
Intermediate	76	0.87	0.48-1.56	0.634	0.88	0.48 - 1.60	0.663
Poor	76	Reference			Reference		
		JEb j	patients exclu	ded* (N=54	5)		
Age Group							
0 - <11	92	0.21	0.07-0.60	0.004	0.21	0.07 - 0.59	0.003
11 - <18	69	Reference			Reference		
18 - <30	88	0.38	0.24-0.60	0.000	0.62	0.36 - 1.03	0.066
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.36	0.22-0.58	0.000	0.39	0.22 - 0.68	0.001
Intermediate	75	0.77	0.42-1.42	0.401	0.81	0.44 - 1.50	0.489
Poor	73	Reference			Reference		
	Ν	lediastinal p	rimary tumo	rs excluded*	* (N=549)		
Age Group							
0 - <11	89	0.41	0.18-0.94	0.035	0.40	0.108-0.91	0.029
11 - <18	77	Reference			Reference		
18 - <30	87	0.55	0.33-0.93	0.024	0.83	0.347-1.47	0.506
Risk Group							
Good	89	0.43	0.25-0.75	0.003	0.40	0.22 - 0.74	0.003
Intermediate	76	0.89	0.46-1.72	0.737	0.88	0.45 - 1.71	0.693
Poor	77	Reference			Reference		

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; EFS, event-free survival; JEb, carboplatin/etoposide/reduced bleomycin; N, number; y, years. *48 Patients received JEb. **44 Patients with mediastinal tumours.

		Univariate		Multivariate					
All Patient with	All Patient with non-missing IGCCCG (N=465)								
Variable	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P value			
Age Group									
0 - <11	0.31	0.14-0.65	0.000	0.21	0.09 - 0.52	0.001			
11 - <18	Reference			Reference					
18 - <30	0.43	0.14-0.65	0.002	0.59	0.32 - 1.07	0.081			
Risk Group									
Good	0.29	0.17-0.51	0.000	0.29	0.15 - 0.58	<0.001			
Intermediate	0.87	0.48-1.57	0.646	0.89	0.49 - 1.63	0.706			
Poor	Reference			Reference					