

## A review of neuroblastoma: prevalence, diagnosis, related genetic factors, and treatment

Mohammad Javad Forouzani-Moghaddam BSc<sup>1</sup>, Parastoo Nabian BSc<sup>1</sup>, Arefeh Gholami BSc<sup>1</sup>, Neda Dehghanbaghi BSc<sup>1</sup>, Mahdieh Azizipanah BSc<sup>1</sup>, Kimia Jokar BSc<sup>1</sup>, Mahdieh Eslami BSc<sup>1</sup>, Zahra Kargarian BSc<sup>1</sup>, Motahharez Tamehri BSc<sup>1</sup>, Nazanin Zare BSc<sup>1</sup>, Safiehsadat Heydari MSc<sup>2</sup>, Marzieh Esmaeili-Karbasi Najafabadi MSc<sup>3</sup>, Maryam Boyerhasani MSc<sup>3</sup>, Farzd Ferdowsian<sup>4</sup>, Hadi Zare-Zardini PhD<sup>4,\*</sup>

1. Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Science and Art University, Yazd, Iran

2. Health Information Management Research Center, Kashan University of Medical Sciences, Kashan, Iran

3. Department of Biology, Falavarjan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

4. Hematology and Oncology Research Center, Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences, Yazd, Iran

\*Corresponding author: Dr Hadi Zare-Zardini, PhD of Nanobiotechnology, Hematology and Oncology Research Center, Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences, Yazd, Iran. Email: hadizarezardini@gmail.com.

Received: 05 April 2018

Accepted: 12 August 2018

### Abstract

Neuroblastoma is considered as the most common solid tumor in children and it is a special types of nervous cells cancer. Neuroblastoma has high potency for metastasis to other organs such as neck, chest, abdomen, or spine. In this narrative review, we assessed prevalence, diagnosis, related factors, and treatment of neuroblastoma based on published articles from 2007 to 2017. All published articles in mentioned interval were evaluated and all required data were collected. The collected data were categorized based on determined outlines. According to our findings, neuroblastoma allocated about 10 percent of pediatric cancer to itself. Mortality rate of this cancer is 15 to 20% (annually 15 per million children aged < 9 years). The incidence of this tumor is higher at the first year of life than other years. The highest incidence is observed in children with age range of 0-5 years. This tumor has low prevalence between people aged > 18 years. Important symptoms of neuroblastoma are: fatigue, loss of appetite, fever, bone pain, blemishes of the skin, a lump in the abdomen, neck, or chest, or a painless bluish lump under the skin, weakness, and slackness. The genes involved in this disease include *ALK*, *BARD1*, *ERBB2*, *KIF1B*, *LMO1*, *MYCN*, *PHOX2B*, *17q gain*, loss of *9p*, and *3p*, loss of *1p 11q*. Surgery, chemotherapy (cyclophosphamide, cisplatin, vincristine, doxorubicin, uteroside, and topotecan), radiotherapy, bone marrow transplantation, and transplantation of peripheral blood stem cells are different type of treatment methods for neuroblastoma. The findings of this review also showed that the use of drug delivery system such as lipidic nanostructures, magnetic nanostructures, and other related devices can improve the treatment of neuroblastoma and reduce the side effects induced by different treatments.

**Key Words:** Neuroblastoma, Genetic Factors, Treatment, Chemotherapy

### Introduction

Neuroblastoma is a childhood tumour which involves in neuroblasts and is the most common external tumour in children which occur in sympathetic nervous system (1). This cancer is known as peripheral neuroblastic tumour (2). It is the most common cancer among the infants aged < 12 months with incident two time more than blood cancer. This type of cancer is derived from the neural crest (a temporary group of neuronal cells) (3, 4). Neuroblastoma is a heterogeneous disease

with clear clinical symptoms; therefore, it is likely to be treated. The disease progresses itself, or progresses continuously despite serious treatments (5, 6). In fact, the disease occurs when the genes responsible for the proliferation and differentiation of the nerve cells undergo uncontrolled monitoring, reproduction, and growth (7, 8). The cause of this lack of control can be mutation or increased production of amplification (9). It is commonly found in the adrenal tissue located on the kidney and metastasizes to

other tissues, such as bone, liver, and skin. Clinical behavior of this cancer is various in different children, so that this cancer is curable in some children and resistant to treatment in other children (10). Neuroblastoma is affected by factors such as age of diagnosis, histopathology classification, NYCM amplification, degree of tumor differentiation, and heterozygote chromosome 11q fragmentation. Based on the above factors, neuroblastoma is divided into four groups, including low risk, moderate risk, and high risk. 95% of the patients in the second group are treated only with surgery. However, there is the possibility of spontaneous progression of the disease in the fourth group. In this narrative review, the prevalence, diagnosis, related factors, and treatment of neuroblastoma were explained and reviewed based on published articles between 2007 and 2017.

### **Prevalence**

Neuroblastoma is the most common type of solid tumor in children. Seven percent of all neoplasms in children under the age of 15 years is neuroblastoma. Neuroblastoma is rare in people over the age of 10 years. This is the second most common type of pediatric solid tumors and third cancer after leukemia and brain tumors in children. There are 650 children with neuroblastoma in the United States each year. Due to genetic differences, the prevalence of neuroblastoma is different in various societies. So, there is a higher risk in the United States and Africa. In patients with neuroblastoma, metastasis in BM is more common than anywhere. It is estimated that the prevalence of neuroblastoma is 0.4 million in the world. In the United States, 7 per cases/million/year and 9.6 per cases/million/year are detected in black and white children, respectively. So, Black children may have a weaker genetic predisposition to neuroblastoma. This tumor has a lower relative frequency in all parts of Asia (11, 12).

### **Diagnosis**

The median age of diagnosis is 0-18 months and approximately 40% are less than one year old. Less than 5% of people is over the age of 10. There is no gender difference. The usual presentation is abdominal mass. Urinary catecholamine metabolites (VMA, HVA) increase in most children with neuroblastoma. metaiodobenzylguanidine (MIBG) scan is used for detection of this cancer (13). This scan involves the injection of iodine-123 meta-iodobenzylguanidine for short periods of time and it is used to confirm the presence of neurotrocavial tumors, including neuroblastoma. This scan is used in 90% to 95% of all neuroblastomas. MIBG is taken by sympathetic neurons and it is an effective analogue of neuropathy (14, 15). The use of radio-iodine isotopes (131-I or 121-I) is very good for detecting and monitoring response to treatment and evaluating tumor function after changes in post-treatment conditions (16). Sonography is also commonly used in children with solid neuroblastoma in the abdomen that appears inhomogeneous, because it is necessary for surgical planning and next essential aggressive imaging. CT and MRI are anatomical diagnostic methods that are used in the assessment of neuroblastoma and play an important role in the planning and initial imaging of the primary tumor. MRI also can show bone marrow metastasis, and the imaging method is for all primary NBL tumors, whether in the neck, on the shelf breast, abdomen, or pelvis. MRI can easily measure the severity of the disease. MRI is also better than CT in evaluating metastatic bone marrow disease, but in CTs, the vessels is shown better than MRI because of better contrast (17, 18). Methylene diphosphonate bone scan is also used to measure cortical bone metastases in neuroblastoma. However, compared with MIBG, a study suggests that MIBG is superior to bone scan due to bone marrow

metastasis (19). The  $^{18}\text{F}$ -fluorodeoxyglucose-positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) also plays a role in the diagnosis of neuroblastoma, but recent studies have shown that MIBG sensitivity is higher than FDG-PET in high risk patients (20). Diagnosis is confirmed by biopsy of the tumor and histopathology, or a combination of NB tumor cells that are present in the bone marrow with increased uric or serum catecholamine or catholactamine metabolites (dopamine, vanillylaldehyde, and homoanolic acid) (21, 22). The assessment involves screening with a computer tomography or MRI to determine size, regional extent (including internal invasion), distant distances to the neck, chest, abdomen, and pelvis. Neuroblastoma MYCN amplification is now an essential component of the routine diagnostic evaluation of patients with new neuroblastoma. This amplification is the best characterized genetic marker of risk in neuroblastoma. Development of fast and reliable diagnostic techniques is important

in this field (23, 24). The most commonly used techniques are fluorescence-based hybridization (FISH) and Southern Blotting. The second method is not ideal for conventional diagnostic use, since it is time consuming and expensive, a relatively large amount of tumor material is needed, and the penetration of tumor cell stromal cells may be amplifying. The use of FISH allows the result to be obtained much faster (2-3 days). This technique costs a lot; however, its quality is very high. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) provides an attractive alternative to Southern Blotting and FISH to detect MYCN amplification. It is very fast, requires minimal amount of material, and is simple to accomplish. However, it is necessary to develop a reliable method to reduce the amount of PCR product (25, 26).

International International Neuroblastoma Staging System (INSS) divided neuroblastoma to 4 categories based on the presence of anatomical tumor (*Table I*) (27).

*Table I: Categorization of types of neuroblastoma based on International Neuroblastoma Staging System (INSS)*

Stage	Properties
1	- Localized tumor with complete gross excision (+/-microscopic residual) - Ipsilateral lymph nodes negative for tumor - Nodes attached to tumor may be positive
2	A - Localized tumor with incomplete gross excision - Ipsilateral non-adherent lymph nodes negative for tumor
	B - Localized tumor +/- complete gross excision - Ipsilateral non-adherent lymph nodes positive for tumor
3	Unresectable unilateral tumor infiltrating across the midline, with or without regional lymph node involvement; or localized unilateral tumor with contralateral regional lymph node involvement; or midline tumor with bilateral extension by infiltration (unresectable) or by lymph node involvement
4	Any primary tumor with dissemination to distant lymph nodes, bone, bone marrow, liver, skin, and/or other organs

### Genetic Factors

The genes involved in neuroblastoma are *ALK*, *BARD1*, *ERBB2*, *KIF1B*, *LMO1*, *MYCN*, *PHOX2B*, *17q gain*, loss of *9p* and *3p*, loss of *1p 11q* (28).

**ALK:** This gene makes tyrosine kinase receptor proteins which is located at the cell surface and activated by phosphorylation, and triggers a chain reaction within the cell that activates other

proteins. The task of this reaction is not yet clear but it regulates the process of development and proliferation of neurons. Sixteen detected mutations are responsible for NB associated with ALK. Mutations cause the transfer of an amino acid (A with G) in the *R1275Q* protein. Also, in some people with NB, over-reproduction of the Alk is seen that is called 'ALK amplification'. As a result, the mutation of this gene does not require activation, and the tumor is produced by over-reproduction of neuronal cells (29, 30).

**Phox2B:** Mutations in the gene are found in both types of NB. This gene makes and differentiates neurons that its mutation mediates in this process and causes increased production of immature cells and creation of tumor. Its location is in the human 4p12 chromosome. This gene is a transcription factor regulating the coding growth of neuronal crystal. Many patients with mutations in this gene have symptoms such as congenital syndrome of hypopnea centrum, congenital megacolon, neurofibromatosis, and pheochromocytoma. Several identified gene mutations relate to NB sporadic and familial in the Phox2B gene (31-33).

**MYCN:** This gene produces a protein that plays an important role in the construction of tissues and organs before birth. The produced protein is attached to certain sites in DNA and regulates the activity of other genes in the first step of transcription. This protein is also a transcription factor. This gene belongs to a class of genes that are called oncogenes. Oncogenes have the potential to convert cells to cancer cells. They also play an important role in cell apoptosis. Mutations occur when DNA is replicated. This mistake in replication can occur in one or a large number of genes. MYCN is caused the more than 25% of NB by amplification. Copies of the gene are very diverse and wide, but the number in this tumor is between 50 and 100 copies. The gene amplification causes such a severe Nb; but the relationship between

amplification and invasive power of neuroblastoma is not clear yet (34, 35).

**LMO1:** Increased expression of this gene is related to high risk and invasive NB. There is some evidence that the gene cooperates with MYCN and increases tumor buildup. During the two-sided genetic engineering, zebra fishes which had metastasis of NB, it seen seen that in their first generation after birth in which both genes were expressed in the offspring, 80% of them were infected with NB. And in some of them in which just MYCN is expressed, 20-30% was infected with this disease that can be due to dysfunction of a series of reactions that ultimately leads to out of the cell.

**ATRX:** Lower gene mutations are involved in NB than other cancers (36).

**KfL1B:** This is a tumor of the suppressor gene located in the deleted region of chromosome 1. Its mutation can be seen in patients with familial NB. In addition, other genes are located in the deleted region of chromosome 1. These genes are responsible for controlling cell division and proliferation. Elimination of these genes makes the cell begin to produce gene replication uncontrollably and eventually produce a tumor. In the deleted region of chromosome 11, the tumor of the suppressor gene has not been observed (37, 38).

Other gene changes may not be the cause of the disease, but they determine the disease's strength.

#### **Additional points**

Just 6.4% of hereditary NB is due to Phox2B gene mutation (germline cells), and the mutation is rarely seen in sporadic, suggesting that this gene is not the main pathogen case. The ALK mutation is more common in familial NB than phox2B.

ALK mutations in familial type occur in coding area of F1174, F1245, and R1275. 6-12% of NB sporadics of MYCN amplification is more seen due to a mutation in F1174L area. Both of them are associated with tumor buildup. Familial NB

is rarely associated with congenital syndrome of central oxygen deficiency caused by Phox2B gene germline mutation.

### **Incidence of each gene in populations**

6-10% of scattered NBs are consist of activation mutations of somatic ALK and 3-4% of the others have amplification ALK (39).

### **Biological subgroup**

Based on biological factors, NB tumors are categorized to 3 types:

**Type 1:** this type is classified according to obtaining and losing of general chromosomes. This type expresses neurotrophic receptor of Trka. This is hyperdiploid and tends to spontaneous regression.

**Type 2A:** this is identified according to number of copy changes in chromosome ratios. This type expresses 2A receptor of neurotrophic Trka and its ligand received additional copy from 17q chromosome that lost 11q or 14q heterozygote and also is unstable regarding genomic features.

**Type 2B:** it has generally exacerbated MYCN gene and benefits from 17q chromosome, losing 1p chromosome, expressing receptor of neurotrophic TrkB and its ligand (40, 41).

### **Treatment**

Physicians classify neuroblastoma into three main groups: low risk, moderate risk, and high risk. In general, people with low-risk disease showed EFS and excellent survival following least therapeutic procedure (42, 43). The outcome of patients who are in moderate-risk group is promising after surgery and chemotherapy. The treatments of high-risk patients include chemotherapy (cisplatin, doxorubicin, erythropoietin, and carboplatin), surgery, radiotherapy, biologics, and immunotherapy. Treatment with cisplatin reduces glutathione and increases lipid peroxidation. L-carnitine acetate (ALC) has a tissue protective effect on cisplatin toxicity (44, 45). ALC prevents mucosal dysfunction of

mitochondrion in NB cells. ALC plays an important role in the metabolism of long chain fatty acids by increasing its betaoxidation (46). The protective effect of ALC may appear to be responsible for the long-term release of free fatty acids. ALC is a safe and highly tolerated compound that is used in a variety of clinical settings (47). ALC may be a promising factor in improving cisplatin-based chemotherapy of NB (48). Compared with adult tumors, childhood cancers are detectable. In this age group, children with intermediate-risk receive Carboplatin (Paraplatin), Cyclophosphamide (Neosar), Doxorubicin (Adriamycin), and Etoposide. High-risk children undergo treatment with the following chemotherapeutic drugs: Busulfan (Busulfex, Myleran), Carboplatin (Paraplatin), Cisplatin (Platinol), Cyclophosphamide (Neosar), Cytokines (GM-CSF and IL2), Dinutuximab (Unituxin), Doxorubicin (Adriamycin, Doxil), Etoposide (VePesid, Toposar), Ifosfamide (Ifex), Isotretinoin, Melphalan (Alkeran), Thiotepa, Topotecan (Hycamtin), and Vincristine (Vincasar) (49-51). The other methods for treatment of pediatric neuroblastoma are radiation therapy, stem cell transplantation, retinoid therapy, and immunotherapy (52-54). Immunotherapy is one of the promising approaches in the treatment of neuroblastoma. However, only one drug is used for targeted immunotherapy of the specific monoclonal antibodies of GD2. There are significant limitations for this immunotherapeutic drug. In this regard, the development of effective and safe GD2 immunotherapy and the analysis of other potential molecular targets for the treatment of neuroblastoma is an important and vital task (55-57).

### **Novel therapies**

Investigation and development of new methods for treatment of neuroblastoma, especially high-risk neuroblastoma, have attracted many attentions in pediatric oncology. Resistance to chemotherapeutic

drugs is one of the main causes of failure in many cancers such as neuroblastoma. Another weakness of different treatments is their toxicity and negative side effects on normal tissue (58). There are some new approaches in this field, including immunotherapies such as targeted T-cells (59) and neuroblastoma vaccines, targeted therapy with genetic mutations (eg, ALK (60)) or induction of apoptosis (eg, fenretinide (61)), and modification of tumor microenvironment (antiangiogenic agents or bisphosphonates) (62). Currently, mAbs are in use in the diagnosis and treatment of neuroblastoma. After the antibody-variable region attaches to the antigen in the tumor cell, the Fc portion of the antibody can link the Fc receptor to monocytes, macrophages, neutrophils, and / or natural lethal cells (NK) and cause cell lysis (63, 64). Another way to treat neuroblastoma is using Cold Atmospheric Plasma (CAP). Cold-Pressed Plasma (CAP) is produced using a high-voltage electric field to a compressed gas. While any gas or a combination of gases can be used theoretically, researchers have studied mainly helium and argon. CAP reduces metabolic activity, stimulates apoptosis, and dramatically reduces the number of live cancer cells directly with the duration of treatment. ROS is the mechanism through which CAP causes apoptosis. ROS induces apoptosis, aging, or stopping the cell cycle. This effect has been used in the treatment of radiation therapy so far (65, 66). The best strategy for the improvement of chemotherapeutic drugs is drug delivery systems such as lipidic nanostructures, magnetic nanostructures, and other related devices (67, 68). Chernov et al., showed that liposomal topotecan has high potency for the treatment of neuroblastoma. Liposomes are prepared by extrusion and then loaded with copper compounds with topotecan. Topotecan is a camptothecin-soluble analogue that acts to reestablish covalence between the topoisomerase I and the DNA, resulting in the irreversible

bilateral failure and the death of the apoptotic cell (69, 70).

## **Conclusion**

The most important malignant solid tumors with the highest prevalence among pediatrics is neuroblastoma. This type of cancer derives from neural crest with high heterogeneous biological and clinical behaviors. There are some important symptoms for this cancer such as fatigue, loss of appetite, fever, bone pain, blemishes of the skin, a lump in the abdomen, neck, chest, or a painless bluish lump under the skin, weakness, and slackness. Surgery, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and bone marrow transplantation and transplantation of peripheral blood stem cells are different type of treatment methods for neuroblastoma. Genetic factors have potent effects on incidence of this cancer. With the delivery system, especially nanodevices, neuroblastoma treatment is better performed.

## **Conflicts of interest**

There are no conflicts of interest.

## **References**

1. Colon NC, Chung DH. Neuroblastoma. *Advances in pediatrics*. 2011;58(1):297-311.
2. Maris JM. Recent Advances in Neuroblastoma. *The New England Journal of Medicine*. 2010;362(23):2202-11.
3. Simon T, Berthold F, Borkhardt A, Kremens B, De Carolis B, Hero B. Treatment and outcomes of patients with relapsed, high-risk neuroblastoma: results of German trials. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2011;56(4):578-83.
4. Yalcin B, Kremer LC, van Dalen EC. High-dose chemotherapy and autologous haematopoietic stem cell rescue for children with high-risk neuroblastoma. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015;5(10).

5. Ngan ES-W. Heterogeneity of neuroblastoma. *Oncoscience*. 2015;2(10):837-8.
6. Maris JM. The biologic basis for neuroblastoma heterogeneity and risk stratification. *Curr Opin Pediatr*. 2005;17(1):7-13.
7. Capasso M, Diskin SJ. Genetics and genomics of neuroblastoma. *Cancer Treat Res*. 2010;155:65-84.
8. Wang K, Diskin SJ, Zhang H, Attiyeh EF, Winter C, Hou C, et al. Integrative genomics identifies LMO1 as a neuroblastoma oncogene. *Nature*. 2011;469(7329):216-20.
9. Pugh TJ, Morozova O, Attiyeh EF, Asgharzadeh S, Wei JS, Auclair D, et al. The genetic landscape of high-risk neuroblastoma. *Nature genetics*. 2013;45(3):279-84.
10. Whittle SB, Smith V, Doherty E, Zhao S, McCarty S, Zage PE. Overview and recent advances in the treatment of neuroblastoma. *Expert Rev Anticancer Ther*. 2017;17(4):369-86.
11. Navalkele P, O'Dorisio MS, O'Dorisio TM, Zamba GK, Lynch CF. Incidence, survival, and prevalence of neuroendocrine tumors versus neuroblastoma in children and young adults: nine standard SEER registries, 1975-2006. *Pediatr Blood Cancer*. 2011;56(1):50-7.
12. Izbicki T, Mazur J, Izbicka E. Epidemiology and etiology of neuroblastoma: an overview. *Anticancer Res*. 2003;23(1B):755-60.
13. Sharp SE, Gelfand MJ, Shulkin BL. Pediatrics: diagnosis of neuroblastoma. *Semin Nucl Med*. 2011;41(5):345-53.
14. Tolbert VP, Matthay KK. Neuroblastoma: clinical and biological approach to risk stratification and treatment. *Cell Tissue Res*. 2018;372(2):195-209.
15. Zheng DJ, Krull KR, Chen Y, Diller L, Yasui Y, Leisenring W, et al. Long-term psychological and educational outcomes for survivors of neuroblastoma: A report from the Childhood Cancer Survivor Study. *Cancer*. 2018;11(10):31379.
16. Kayano D, Kinuya S. Iodine-131 Metaiodobenzylguanidine Therapy for Neuroblastoma: Reports So Far and Future Perspective. *The Scientific World Journal*. 2015;2015:189135.
17. White SJ, Stuck KJ, Blane CE, Silver TM. Sonography of neuroblastoma. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1983;141(3):465-8.
18. Werner H, Daltro P, Davaus T, Araujo Júnior E. Fetal neuroblastoma: ultrasonography and magnetic resonance imaging findings in the prenatal and postnatal IV-S stage. *Obstetrics & Gynecology Science*. 2016;59(5):407-10.
19. Arora S, Dhull VS, Mukherjee A, Tulsyan S, Behera A, Tripathi M. Metastatic superscan on (99m)Tc-methylene diphosphonate bone scintigraphy in pediatric neuroblastoma. *Indian Journal of Nuclear Medicine : IJNM : The Official Journal of the Society of Nuclear Medicine, India*. 2015 Jul-Sep;30(3):286-7.
20. Gil TY, Lee DK, Lee JM, Yoo ES, Ryu K-H. Clinical experience with (18)F-fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography and (123)I-metaiodobenzylguanidine scintigraphy in pediatric neuroblastoma: complementary roles in follow-up of patients. *Korean Journal of Pediatrics*. 2014;57(6):278-86.
21. Hassan SF, Mathur S, Magliaro TJ, Larimer EL, Ferrell LB, Vasudevan SA, et al. Needle core vs open biopsy for diagnosis of intermediate- and high-risk neuroblastoma in children. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2012;47(6):1261-6.
22. Mullassery D, Sharma V, Salim A, Jawaid WB, Pizer BL, Abernethy LJ, et al. Open versus needle biopsy in diagnosing neuroblastoma. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2014;49(10):1505-7.
23. Zhang P, Wu X, Basu M, Dong C, Zheng P, Liu Y, et al. MYCN Amplification Is Associated with Repressed Cellular Immunity in

- Neuroblastoma: An In Silico Immunological Analysis of TARGET Database. *Frontiers in Immunology*. 2017;8:1473.
24. Kushner BH, LaQuaglia MP, Modak S, Wolden SL, Basu EM, Roberts SS, et al. MYCN-amplified stage 2/3 neuroblastoma: excellent survival in the era of anti-G(D2) immunotherapy. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(56):95293-302.
25. Kearney L, Shipley J. Fluorescence in situ hybridization for cancer-related studies. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2012;878:149-74.
26. Yue Z-X, Huang C, Gao C, Xing T-Y, Liu S-G, Li X-J, et al. MYCN amplification predicts poor prognosis based on interphase fluorescence in situ hybridization analysis of bone marrow cells in bone marrow metastases of neuroblastoma. *Cancer Cell International*. 2017;17:43.
27. Davidoff AM. Neuroblastoma. *Seminars in Pediatric Surgery*. 2012;21(1):2-14.
28. Kamijo T, Nakagawara A. Molecular and genetic bases of neuroblastoma. *Int J Clin Oncol*. 2012;17(3):190-5.
29. Mossé YP, Laudenslager M, Longo L, Cole KA, Wood A, Attiyeh EF, et al. Identification of ALK as the Major Familial Neuroblastoma Predisposition Gene. *Nature*. 2008;455(7215):930-5.
30. Carpenter EL, Mossé YP. Targeting ALK in neuroblastoma—preclinical and clinical advancements. *Nature reviews Clinical oncology*. 2012;9(7):391-9.
31. Bourdeaut F, Trochet D, Janoueix-Lerosey I, Ribeiro A, Deville A, Coz C, et al. Germline mutations of the paired-like homeobox 2B (PHOX2B) gene in neuroblastoma. *Cancer Lett*. 2005;228(1-2):51-8.
32. Perri P, Bachetti T, Longo L, Matera I, Seri M, Tonini GP, et al. PHOX2B mutations and genetic predisposition to neuroblastoma. *Oncogene*. 2005;24(18):3050-3.
33. Mosse YP, Laudenslager M, Khazi D, Carlisle AJ, Winter CL, Rappaport E, et al. Germline PHOX2B Mutation in Hereditary Neuroblastoma. *American Journal of Human Genetics*. 2004;75(4):727-30.
34. Chan HS, Gallie BL, DeBoer G, Haddad G, Ikegaki N, Dimitroulakos J, et al. MYCN protein expression as a predictor of neuroblastoma prognosis. *Clin Cancer Res*. 1997;3(10):1699-706.
35. Mathew P, Valentine MB, Bowman LC, Rowe ST, Nash MB, Valentine VA, et al. Detection of MYCN Gene Amplification in Neuroblastoma by Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization: A Pediatric Oncology Group Study. *Neoplasia (New York, NY)*. 2001;3(2):105-9.
36. Cheung N-KV, Zhang J, Lu C, Parker M, Bahrami A, Tickoo SK, et al. Association of Age at Diagnosis and Genetic Mutations in Patients with Neuroblastoma. *JAMA : the journal of the American Medical Association*. 2012;307(10):1062-71.
37. Cao Y, Jin Y, Yu J, Wang J, Yan J, Zhao Q. Research progress of neuroblastoma related gene variations. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(11):18444-55.
38. Brodeur GM, Bagatell R. Mechanisms of neuroblastoma regression. *Nature reviews Clinical oncology*. 2014;11(12):704-13.
39. Domingo-Fernandez R, Watters K, Piskareva O, Stallings RL, Bray I. The role of genetic and epigenetic alterations in neuroblastoma disease pathogenesis. *Pediatric surgery international*. 2013;29(2):101-19.
40. Kuzyk A, Gartner J, Mai S. Identification of Neuroblastoma Subgroups Based on Three-Dimensional Telomere Organization(). *Translational Oncology*. 2016;9(4):348-56.
41. Kuzyk A, Gartner J, Mai S. Identification of Neuroblastoma Subgroups Based on Three-Dimensional Telomere Organization. *Transl Oncol*. 2016;9(4):348-56.

42. Bansal D, Totadri S, Chinnaswamy G, Agarwala S, Vora T, Arora B, et al. Management of Neuroblastoma: ICMR Consensus Document. *Indian J Pediatr*. 2017;84(6):446-55.
43. Weinstein JL, Katzenstein HM, Cohn SL. Advances in the diagnosis and treatment of neuroblastoma. *Oncologist*. 2003;8(3):278-92.
44. Sung KW. Treatment of high-risk neuroblastoma. *Korean Journal of Pediatrics*. 2012;55(4):115-20.
45. Pinto NR, Applebaum MA, Volchenbom SL, Matthay KK, London WB, Ambros PF, et al. Advances in Risk Classification and Treatment Strategies for Neuroblastoma. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2015;33(27):3008-17.
46. Marx W, Teleni L, Opie RS, Kelly J, Marshall S, Itsiopoulos C, et al. Efficacy and Effectiveness of Carnitine Supplementation for Cancer-Related Fatigue: A Systematic Literature Review and Meta-Analysis. *Nutrients*. 2017;9(11):1224.
47. Armenian SH, Gelehrter SK, Vase T, Venkatramani R, Landier W, Wilson KD, et al. Carnitine and cardiac dysfunction in childhood cancer survivors treated with anthracyclines. *Cancer epidemiology, biomarkers & prevention : a publication of the American Association for Cancer Research, cosponsored by the American Society of Preventive Oncology*. 2014;23(6):1109-14.
48. Matsui H, Einama T, Shichi S, Kanazawa R, Shibuya K, Suzuki T, et al. L-Carnitine supplementation reduces the general fatigue of cancer patients during chemotherapy. *Molecular and Clinical Oncology*. 2018;8(3):413-6.
49. Habib EE, El-Kashef AT, Fahmy ES. Management of neuroblastoma: a study of first- and second-line chemotherapy responses, a single institution experience. *Oncology Reviews*. 2012;6(1):e3.
50. Zhang Y, Huang D, Zhang W, Tang S, Han T, Zhu X, et al. Clinical characteristics of infant neuroblastoma and a summary of treatment outcome. *Oncology Letters*. 2016;12(6):5356-62.
51. Baker DL, Schmidt ML, Cohn SL, Maris JM, London WB, Buxton A, et al. Outcome after Reduced Chemotherapy for Intermediate-Risk Neuroblastoma. *The New England Journal of Medicine*. 2010;363(14):1313-23.
52. Robbins JR, Krasin MJ, Pai Panandiker AS, Watkins A, Wu J, Santana VM, et al. Radiation Therapy as Part of Local Control of Metastatic Neuroblastoma: the St. Jude Children's Research Hospital Experience. *Journal of pediatric surgery*. 2010;45(4):678-86.
53. Ferris MJ, Danish H, Switchenko JM, Deng C, George BA, Goldsmith KC, et al. Favorable Local Control From Consolidative Radiation Therapy in High-Risk Neuroblastoma Despite Gross Residual Disease, Positive Margins, or Nodal Involvement. *International journal of radiation oncology, biology, physics*. 2017;97(4):806-12.
54. Kandula S, Prabhu RS, Nanda R, Switchenko JM, Cash T, Qayed M, et al. Outcomes After Radiation Therapy to Metastatic Sites in Patients With Stage 4 Neuroblastoma. *Journal of pediatric hematology/oncology*. 2015;37(3):175-80.
55. Seeger RC. Immunology and immunotherapy of neuroblastoma. *Semin Cancer Biol*. 2011;21(4):229-37.
56. Modak S, Cheung NK. Disialoganglioside directed immunotherapy of neuroblastoma. *Cancer Invest*. 2007;25(1):67-77.
57. Booker LY, Ishola TA, Bowen KA, Chung DH. RESEARCH ADVANCES IN NEUROBLASTOMA IMMUNOTHERAPY. *Current pediatric reviews*. 2009;5(2):112-7.
58. Zage PE, Louis CU, Cohn SL. New Aspects of Neuroblastoma Treatment: ASPHO 2011 Symposium Review. *Pediatric blood & cancer*. 2012;58(7):1099-105.
59. Seeger RC. Immunology and Immunotherapy of Neuroblastoma.

Seminars in cancer biology. 2011;21(4):229-37.

60. Bagatell R, Cohn SL. Genetic Discoveries and Treatment Advances in Neuroblastoma. *Current opinion in pediatrics*. 2016;28(1):19-25.

61. Li Y, Nakagawara A. Apoptotic Cell Death in Neuroblastoma. *Cells*. 2013;2(2):432-59.

62. Whittle SB, Patel K, Zhang L, Woodfield SE, Du M, Smith V, et al. The novel kinase inhibitor ponatinib is an effective anti-angiogenic agent against neuroblastoma. *Invest New Drugs*. 2016;34(6):685-92.

63. Navid F, Armstrong M, Barfield RC. Immune Therapies for Neuroblastoma. *Cancer biology & therapy*. 2009;8(10):874-82.

64. Cheung NK. Monoclonal antibody-based therapy for neuroblastoma. *Curr Oncol Rep*. 2000;2(6):547-53.

65. Yan D, Sherman JH, Keidar M. Cold atmospheric plasma, a novel promising anti-cancer treatment modality. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(9):15977-95.

66. Xu D, Xu Y, Cui Q, Liu D, Liu Z, Wang X, et al. Cold atmospheric plasma as a potential tool for multiple myeloma treatment. *Oncotarget*. 2018;9(26):18002-17.

67. Zare-Zardini H, Taheri-Kafrani A, Amiri A, Bordbar A-K. New generation of drug delivery systems based on ginsenoside Rh2-, Lysine- and Arginine-treated highly porous graphene for improving anticancer activity. *Scientific Reports*. 2018 2018/01/12;8(1):586.

68. Alemi A, Farrokhifar M, Zare-Zardini H, Haghi Karamallah M. A Comparison between the Anticancer Activities of Free Paclitaxel and Paclitaxel-Loaded Niosome Nanoparticles on Human Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia Cell Line Nalm-6. *Iranian journal of Pediatric Hematology and Oncology*. [Research]. 2018;8(3):153-60.

69. Chaturvedi NK, McGuire TR, Coulter DW, Shukla A, McIntyre EM, Sharp JG, et al. Improved therapy for neuroblastoma using a combination approach: superior efficacy with vismodegib and topotecan. *Oncotarget*. 2016;7(12):15215-29.

70. Langler A, Christaras A, Abshagen K, Krauth K, Hero B, Berthold F. Topotecan in the treatment of refractory neuroblastoma and other malignant tumors in childhood - a phase-II-study. *Klin Padiatr*. 2002;214(4):153-6.