1 A Delphic Consensus assessment: Imaging and Biomarkers in Gastroenteropancreatic

2 Neuroendocrine Tumour Disease Management

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- 54 NETest; Neuroendocrine Tumour; PET; RECIST; somatostatin

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57 ABSTRACT

The complexity of the clinical management of neuroendocrine neoplasia (NEN), is exacerbated 58 by limitations in imaging modalities and a paucity of clinically useful biomarkers. Limitations in 59 60 currently available imaging reflect difficulties in measuring an intrinsically indolent disease, 61 resolution inadequacies, inter-/intra-facility device variability, and that RECIST (Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours) criteria are not optimal for NEN. Limitations of currently 62 utilized biomarkers are that they are secretory biomarkers (chromogranin A, serotonin, neuron-63 64 specific enolase, pancreastatin), monoanalyte measurements, and lack sensitivity, specificity 65 and predictive capacity. None meet NIH metrics for clinical usage. A multinational, multidisciplinary Delphi consensus meeting of NEN experts (n=33) assessed current imaging 66 strategies as well as biomarkers in NEN management. Consensus (>75%) was achieved for 67 68 78% of 142 questions. The panel concluded that morphological imaging has diagnostic value. 69 However, both imaging and current single-analyte biomarkers exhibit substantial limitations in 70 measuring disease status and predicting therapeutic efficacy. RECIST remains sub-optimal as a 71 metric. A critical unmet need is the development of a clinico-biological tool to provide enhanced 72 information regarding precise disease status and treatment response. The group concluded that 73 circulating mRNA was a more effective tool than current monoanalyte NEN biomarkers and clinical data were auspicious. It resolved that circulating multianalyte mRNA (NETest) had 74 clinical utility in both diagnosis and monitoring disease status and therapeutic efficacy. Overall, it 75 was concluded that a combination of tumour spatial and functional imaging with circulating 76 transcripts (mRNA) would represent the future strategy for real-time monitoring of disease 77 progress and therapeutic efficacy. 78

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81 INTRODUCTION

The management of neuroendocrine neoplasms (NENs, also called "NETs") remains clinically 82 challenging despite advances in classification systems [1], inauguration of novel therapies, 83 84 innovations in imaging and the introduction of multidisciplinary management strategies [2]. In 85 particular, the management of NEN reflects diverse approaches often based upon empiric pronouncements, local practical experience or the availability of certain therapies. Despite the 86 promulgation of effective and applicable guidelines (e.g., WHO/ENETs classification of 2010) [3, 87 4] and their regular reassessment, a critical limitation is the dearth of large, randomized 88 89 prospective trials. The precise delineation of definable strategies is further constrained by the tumour heterogeneity (diverse cell types, disparate molecular regulatory mechanisms and ill-90 91 understood oncogenic drivers) [5, 6]. As a consequence, five-year survival rates diverge widely 92 (15-95%), depending on the primary site, variable tumour biology, disease extent at diagnosis, 93 available therapeutic options and designated centers of care [7-9]. Therapeutic options remain diverse and run the full gamut from mechanistic excision to pharmacological intervention and 94 the infusion of radioactive somatostatin analogs [10]. Strategies include somatostatin receptor 95 agonists, "targeted" agents (mTOR inhibitors, VEGF antagonists), immunotherapy (interferon), 96 97 cytotoxic chemotherapy, peptide receptor radionuclide therapy (PRRT), external radiation, and 98 interventional radiological or probe-directed ablation [11]. In those with "indolent tumour behavior", a watch-and-wait-strategy is considered appropriate in certain selected cases [12]. 99 Apart from "early identified" (usually serendipitous) appendiceal, rectal or gastric NETs, cure is 100 101 uncommon and overwhelmingly, the majority of treatment includes diverse combinations of 102 strategies to delay local or metastatic disease progression [13]. Given their relatively slow 103 growth, continual assessment by imaging, biomarker levels and overall survival represents the 104 fundamental basis for all management strategies. The need to monitor tumour responsiveness, 105 both in clinical trials and in routine practice, is mandatory given the range of expensive, empirical and often times toxic treatment choices utilized [14]. 106

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107 For many non-neuroendocrine neoplasms, therapeutic responsiveness is assessed 108 through imaging, but for NENs, this has well-described limitations [15-17]. Anatomic imaging using the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours (RECIST) criteria exhibits well-109 110 documented limitations [18-20]. These include issues with lesion dimensionality and 111 measurements thereof, effects of therapy on lesion appearance itself, difficulties with reproducibility and accurate delineation of metastatic disease, particularly extra-liver disease. 112 113 The development of new lesions is probably the most powerful indicator of disease progression. Functional imaging with somatostatin receptor-based strategies e.g., ⁶⁸Ga-SSA-PET/CT, has 114 proved of considerable value [21], but limited spatial resolution (6-8 mms for PET-scanners) and 115 116 partial volume effects, constrain the ability to delineate small lesions. As a consequence, timely, clinically reproducible assessments of progression remains unattainable [22, 23]. Changes in 117 118 the ⁶⁸Ga-SSA tumour standardized uptake value (SUV) during treatment have not been a reliable measure for therapy monitoring [24, 25]. ¹⁸FDG-PET, though useful prognostically, is 119 120 not established as an early harbinger of tumour progression [26]. Despite significant advances, 121 current imaging strategies in NENs remain sub-optimal [27, 28] and exhibit significant 122 limitations. In particular, the identification and delineation of residual (and occult) disease is 123 difficult.

Credible general biomarkers with broad clinical utility for gastroenteropancreatic (GEP)-124 NENs remain unavailable although chromogranin A (CgA) and urinary 5 hydroxy-indoleacetic 125 acid (5-HIAA; in serotonin-secreting tumours) have been used in this capacity [29]. Secretory 126 (monoanalyte) biomarkers for specific tumour types (insulinoma: insulin, gastrinoma: gastrin, 127 glucagonoma: glucagon, VIPoma: VIP), are effective serum indicators of tumour activity, but 128 129 since this group of lesions represent a minority of NENs (<3-5%), their broad utility is limited. 130 CgA is a constitutive product of the neuroendocrine cell secretory granule and is measurable in serum or plasma. It has been variously reported to correlate with tumour biology and mass and 131 prognosticate survival [30, 31]. Despite initial enthusiasm, the limitations of CgA have become 132

133 increasingly evident. There is considerable discrepancy as to whether alterations in CgA have 134 clinical utility in the identification of progressive disease. Although there has been some 135 improvement regarding comparable unit use, there is no reference CgA standard and wide 136 variations exist in the assay measurements in different laboratories [30]. Furthermore, the 137 sensitivity of CgA ranges from 60–90% with a specificity <50% (depending on the population studied) [32]. This reflects the CqA elevations associated with numerous non NEN-related 138 139 conditions including renal failure, cardiac disease, other neoplasia as well as PPI administration 140 [30].

141 The complexity and diversity of the biological behavior of a cancer or its response to therapy have been effectively addressed in scientific publications [33, 34]. The limitations of 142 secretory products to define the permutations of oncogenic genomic regulators are apparent, 143 144 and have led to the development of molecular technologies to better delineate cancer biology 145 [35, 36]. This biological research has identified extensive interfacing mechanisms that delineate GEP-NEN neoplastic development [37]. A key unmet need is the identification of what 146 constitutes the driver of neoplastic development (i.e., driver mutations) and whether this is 147 148 clinically actionable i.e., targetable, and can be used as a predictive biomarker.

149 The majority of tumors (~95%) do not exhibit germline mutations [6, 38]. While genomic studies have revealed a number of sporadic genomic alterations, particularly in pancreatic 150 NENs, the relationship between specific genes and tumour pathobiology remains unclear [5]. 151 Unlike the majority of cancers, activating mutations are infrequent if not largely unknown in 152 GEP-NEN [5] with most tumours exhibiting mutations (when identified) in tumour suppressor 153 genes. While genomic studies seeking underlying driver mutations have proven disappointing 154 155 [39, 40], transcriptome assessments have been useful in identifying and differentiating the 156 different subtypes of NENs (based on origin e.g., pancreatic versus small intestinal, and aggressiveness e.g., non-progressive versus malignant/metastatic) [41, 42] and have 157 demonstrable predictive utility at a tissue level [43]. More recently, blood-based assays (CTCs, 158

159 miRNA and circulating mRNA) have been developed. The most extensively investigated 160 biomarker tool is blood-based multianalyte transcript analysis [44-54]. Blood gene expression of 161 tumour biomarkers closely correlates with tumour tissue expression levels, and analysis of 162 relevant clusters captures NEN biology facilitating accurate definition of clinical status [37]. The 163 clinical application of such blood-based information to the management of NEN disease has therefore become a subject for investigation. Likewise, the concept of fusing such data with 164 functional imaging to provide a synergistic monitoring platform is worthy of consideration, 165 166 especially given the current limitations in accurate monitoring.

167 Although biomarkers have been used in conjunction with imaging as adjuncts to inform clinical decision making, "biochemical" responses using monoanalytes are often non-concordant 168 with image-based assessments [10, 55]. The detailed analysis of other neoplastic diseases has 169 170 led to the recognition that evaluation of monoanalyte secretory products (exocytotic or secreted 171 proteins) alone fails to adequately describe the diversity of neoplastic pathobiology [56]. Thus, complex analytic strategies measuring diverse regulators of neoplastic cell biology interfaced 172 with mathematical algorithms to facilitate interpretation have been developed for breast, lung 173 174 and hematological malignancies [57-60]. A key unmet need therefore remains the development 175 of a clinically applicable, multianalyte biomarker that captures NEN behavior and can be used to guide clinical management strategies. The use of such blood-based molecular information in 176 combination with functional imaging would provide non-invasive real time multidimensional 177 information in regard to tumour behavior. 178

Based upon the need for a better understanding of the relationship between imaging and therapeutic assessment in NEN disease and the emergence of molecular-based biomarkers that have utility in assessing disease status e.g., blood-based multianalyte transcript analysis NETest [37], a meeting of multidisciplinary experts in the field was convened in Casteldefells, Spain in March 2015. The goals of this forum were twofold. Firstly, to establish a consensus on the state of the art of imaging and biomarkers in NEN and secondly, to identify how these two

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information disciplines could be interfaced to provide added value in clinical decision-making
and therapeutic response assessment. This meeting represents a follow-up of a previous, more
biomarker focused Delphi consensus meeting that specifically examined the current status of
circulating analytes in the management of GEP-NETs in respect of their individual metrics and
clinical utility [61].

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191 MATERIALS AND METHODS

192 Thirty-three multinational experts in the field of NEN disease diagnosis and management were identified including nuclear medicine physicians (n=12; A. Kjaer, E. Krenning, D. Kwekkeboom, 193 194 L. Bodei, V. Ambrosini, R. Baum, J. Cwikla, G. Paganelli, S. Severi, H. Maecke, V. Prasad, I. Virgolini), radiologists (n=2: A. Sundin, K. Koopmans), endocrinologists (n=2; M. Pavel, A. 195 196 Grossman), gastroenterologists (n=1, R. Jensen), oncologists (n=9, K. Oberg, M. Tesselaar, M. 197 Kulke, N. Fazio, R. Salazar, J. Strosberg, A. Walenkamp, M. Cives, T. Meyer [see Authors] 198 contributions]), pathologists (n=1, A. Scarpa), basic scientists (n=3, M. Kidd, I. Drozdov, T. Korse) and surgeons (n=3: M. Falconi, A. Frilling, I. Modlin). The Delphi method [62] was 199 200 utilized to achieve consensus on 142 questions, using a 75% agreement level as the basis for 201 achieving consensus [61]. Questions were categorized into four major groups (Therapeutic Management, Imaging, Molecular Status of NETs, and Biomarkers). The first iteration of the 202 203 statements to be discussed was developed by a core group (KO, EK, LB, IMM) and distributed to all participants eight weeks prior to the conference. This first round electronic assessment 204 was undertaken to eliminate or redefine inconsistencies or ambiguous statements [61]. After 205 integration of the primary assessment comments from all participants, this second list (revised) 206 207 of statements/questions (yes or no responses) was electronically distributed one month ahead 208 of the consensus meeting. All participants provided answers to this interrogatory. The collated 209 results of the entire group responses were made available to all participants at the initiation of the meeting. The meeting format comprised two co-moderators for each discussion session. 210

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Any question with less than 75% prior agreement (either Consensus: Yes or Consensus: No) was then reviewed and discussed by the entire panel and re-voted on. Voting was anonymous (electronic touch pad) with re-wording of ambiguous, controversial or non-consensus statements as proposed by participants with the objective of attaining a 75% agreement threshold [61]. Up to five re-iterations of a proposal were undertaken before considering an issue resolved. Resolution was achieved in 78%. Not all questions (22%) resulted in a consensus.

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219 **RESULTS**

A total of 142 questions and sub-questions were posed. First round electronic consensus was

achieved prior to the March 2015 meeting in 69 (48.5%). At the meeting, after

statement/question reformulation and repeat voting, final consensus was achieved on 111

223 (78%). The full lists of statements and voting results are documented in the *Appendix*. Three

224 participants (ID, HM, DK) were unable to attend the meeting and participate in the final round of

voting. The final consensus therefore includes input from these members at rounds 1 and 2 butnot round 3.

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228 A. Therapeutic Management

Consensus was achieved on 30 questions (47%) prior to the meeting. A further 16 (total of 72%) 229 met consensus after discussion and re-voting. The panelists agreed that optimal management 230 strategies required assessment of information based upon: histology, grade and stage, specific 231 and non-specific symptoms, as well as knowledge regarding the patient's overall condition. 232 However, they also decided that clinical knowledge alone was inadequate for predicting whether 233 234 a NEN would be progressive or exhibit stable disease. Although a wait-and-see strategy was 235 considered an acceptable management strategy, there was full concurrence that current diagnostic parameters were neither of adequate sensitivity nor specificity for defining progress. 236

Moreover, currently available Randomized Controlled Trial (RCT) data were considered
insufficient to accurately delineate the optimal therapeutic sequence strategy in NEN disease.
Overall, the group concluded that there was a paucity of rigorous data available to facilitate
objective, clinical decision-making.

241 In respect of imaging, current standard diagnostic parameters are neither sensitive nor specific enough to define progress. Additional predictors of the individual course of disease are 242 243 therefore required to identify individuals in whom early treatment may be of benefit. This would 244 include additional imaging parameters. Limitations in the assessment of therapeutic responses 245 with current imaging has a negative impact on patient management. Limitations in the discriminant index of both anatomic and functional imaging diminished the accuracy of 246 assessment of therapeutic response. Somatostatin receptor (SSR) density was considered a 247 248 relevant parameter but knowing the liver tumour load and pretreatment growth rate were 249 considered important predictors of disease course. It was agreed that additional predictors of the individual course of a specific tumour are required to define those in whom early treatment 250 may be of benefit. Biomarkers including but not limited to tissue gene signatures, circulating 251 252 genetic information and mutational events were considered critical requirements for such a 253 strategy.

The thresholds and cut-offs for defining histopathology, Ki67 were considered 254 problematic for defining when chemotherapy should be considered. No consensus could be 255 256 reached upon the precise applicable cut-off. Ki67 was not considered a relevant parameter for predicting SSA response. Surgery was considered the only curative treatment and a blood 257 signature that could predict disease relapse following R0/R1 (primary or liver) resection was 258 259 agreed upon as an important requirement. It was identified that selective internal radiation 260 therapy (SIRT), radio frequency ablation (RFA) and trans-arterial (chemo-) embolization 261 (TACE/TAE) were all effective in metastatic liver disease, though individual modalities differed in efficacy based upon patient selection and disease status [63]. Individual interventions were 262

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263 noted to have adverse events though lack of comparable data prevented rigorous comparison [63]. No consensus was reached regarding associations with adverse events. Regarding, 264 somatostatin analogs (SSAs), use should not only be limited to midgut and pancreatic NENs 265 266 with K-i67<10%, but no consensus could be reached as to whether SSAs were effective early in 267 the disease course to prevent disease progression. Likewise, it was not accepted that there was evidence that above-label doses should be used in non-functioning progressive disease. There 268 269 also was not sufficient data to support the use of SSAs as anti-proliferative agents in patients with significant metastatic burden e.g., >50% neuroendocrine tumour liver metastases (NELM) 270 and/or extra-hepatic metastases. The panel was unsure whether Everolimus had a role in non-271 pancreatic NEN disease (it should be noted that this meeting occurred prior to the publication of 272 the Radiant-4 study [64]). Controversy was also apparent regarding initial therapeutic use of 273 274 chemotherapy. The group was of the opinion that PRRT might warrant consideration at an 275 earlier time-point in the therapeutic strategy for management of NETs (it should be noted that this meeting occurred prior to the availability of the NETTER-1 study results [65]). It was, 276 however, deemed appropriate to consider the use of PRRT before other targeted therapies. 277 278 Overall, a substantial lack of consensus (~28%) was evident for GEP-NEN therapeutic 279 management. This likely reflects the individualized, empiric-based approaches and the divergent views of European and US experts. 280

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282 **B. Imaging**

283 Consensus was achieved in 72% of questions (**Figure 1**). There was agreement that CT or MRI 284 should be used in conjunction with functional imaging. ⁶⁸Ga-SSA-PET/CT was preferred to ¹¹¹In-285 pentetreotide scintigraphy for functional imaging. ⁶⁸Ga-SSA-PET/CT was considered the 286 preferred approach compared to ¹⁸F-DOPA imaging for pancreatic and small intestinal NEN 287 diagnosis. ¹⁸F-FDG-PET/CT was considered useful for differentiating high from low grade 288 tumours which might have future implications for staging. The technique, however, has prognostic implications although this requires validation in larger series. No consensus,

however, was reached regarding combining ¹⁸F-FDG- and ⁶⁸Ga-SSA-PET/CT or the timing of
 imaging for use of each of these modalities in a diagnostic setting.

292 Imaging was considered the best current modality for measuring treatment efficacy but 293 no consensus was achieved regarding the optimal strategy, PET/CT or CT or MRI. It was agreed that RECIST criteria were not appropriate for defining therapeutic responses in NETs at 294 295 least for biological therapy, and furthermore inclusion of morphologic parameters e.g., attenuation measurements, were not considered useful. No consensus was reached regarding 296 whether "cold" analogs e.g., Sandostatin or Lanreotide (non-radioactive without bound 297 isotopes), should be discontinued before somatostatin receptor imaging (SRI). Overall, the 298 299 heterogeneity in SSR expression was considered a potential sensitivity limitation to this 300 approach since current ligands are SSR2/5 avid. Similarly, the SUV_{max} was also not considered 301 an entirely reliable parameter for assessing patient management based on current ligandreceptor affinities [66]. Based upon currently available studies, different ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA 302 peptides (DOTA-TOC, DOTA-NOC and DOTA-TATE) were individually as effective in their 303 304 diagnostic accuracy. All were considered to have clinical utility in determining clinical 305 management.

Overall, imaging was considered more sensitive than existing biomarkers for detecting disease. The group concurred that more effective circulating biomarkers would be a useful adjunct for assessing treatment. It was agreed that current biomarkers such as CgA do not correlate with imaging, particularly ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA and ¹⁸F-FDG imaging. No consensus could be reached for the relationship between CT or MRI and CgA. Overall, the panel agreed that integration of a clinically relevant, biologically effective biomarker strategy into response criteria was required to improve NEN therapy monitoring.

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314 C: Molecular Status of NETs

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315 Consensus was achieved in the majority of questions (95%). Metabolic pathways were agreed 316 to be poorly characterized. The Pl₃K/mTOR pathway was not considered to be the principal 317 growth regulatory pathway in NENs. It is as yet unclear what constitutes the precise mechanistic 318 basis of the critical growth regulatory pathways of neuroendocrine tumour cells. Despite the 319 proposal of numerous putative targetable pathways, current agents are not generally accepted as being of robust clinical utility [67]. Alternative pathways remain to be defined. Mutations in the 320 321 mTOR pathway were noted to occur in <15% of pancreatic NENs, and the objective response rate for Everolimus (mTOR pathway inhibitor) is ~10% with disease stabilization in ~75% [68]. 322 The discrepancy between mutation rate and therapeutic efficacy is currently difficult to reconcile. 323 Selective Pl₃K inhibitors were considered useful for overcoming Everolimus resistance although 324 the mechanisms of resistance remain to be defined. Mutations in the ATRX/DAXX pathways 325 326 were not considered major indicators of clinical outcome and it was agreed they should not be 327 routinely assessed in pancreatic NENs. In patients with multiple endocrine neoplasia type I (MEN1) syndrome (germline MEN-1 mutation), the type of menin mutation was not considered 328 329 to be of prognostic significance. Alterations in methylation patterns were likewise not considered 330 clinically useful, while O6-methylguanine DNA transferase deficiency was regarded as not 331 significant in influencing the choice of therapy. Irrespective of the individual molecular abnormality described, cell line models were considered unreliable for identifying and confirming 332 the utility of any targeted agent. 333

No consensus could be reached regarding the role of VEGF expression and tumour aggressiveness. It was agreed that immunohistochemistry for SSR was not needed to define a treatment strategy but immunohistochemistry (IHC) e.g., CDX2 and PAX6 was recommended when a primary site was unknown (CUP). Gene profiling, in this setting (CUP) was, however, not clinically recommended. Overall, it remained unclear how molecular alterations, particularly at a DNA level, could potentially improve clinical management strategies. It was concluded that molecular alterations as currently defined did not have a current role in NEN treatment, but the panel did support continued investigation in these areas to further define the molecular basis ofNEN disease.

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344 **D. Biomarkers**

A consensus was reached in 89% of questions (**Figure 2**). It was agreed that despite the paucity of DNA-related clinically actionable biomarkers, genomics technology had significant potential for identifying novel tissue biomarkers. The conclusion, however, was that at present insufficient specific mutations and treatment-targetable mutations had been identified. As such, circulating DNA was therefore not considered a viable option for the development of a biomarker.

In general, circulating tumour cells (CTCs) were agreed not to be reliable, sensitive or 351 352 specific for the detection (88% No) and diagnosis (92% No) of NENs. Furthermore, once 353 tumours were diagnosed. CTCs were considered not to correlate with grade (77% No) or to have clinical utility as either a prognostic (85% No) or predictive biomarker (77% No). No 354 consensus was achieved relating the utility of CTCs as an indicator of tumour burden. While 355 356 miRNA was considered interesting and potentially useful as a circulating biomarker, the group 357 agreed that current technology was not adequately robust to support clinical usage. Metabolomics was also considered of positive interest (83% Yes) as was the identification of 358 novel blood GEP-NEN biomarkers. The consideration of metabolomic assessment in urine was 359 360 not supported (83% No). Tumour transcriptomes and mRNA studies were agreed to be useful for identifying tissue biomarkers and more sensitive than standard biomarkers. Circulating 361 mRNA assays were agreed to be worthy of further investigation given their potential clinical 362 utility. 363

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365 **DISCUSSION**

The Delphi method, originally developed by the RAND Corporation [62], has been used 366 367 extensively to develop consensus in healthcare. We have previously assessed its utility in 368 similar clinical decision-making settings [61, 69]. In this meeting, a substantial overall consensus 369 (~80%) was achieved with 31 questions (~20%) ultimately unresolved (no consensus achieved). A consensus level of 75% was used as clear evidence of a majority opinion. Voting was 370 371 anonymized (electronic) and followed by discussion when there was no consensus. The actual numbers of participants who completed all three rounds (n=30, 91% inclusion) is similar to other 372 Delphi-based studies for NENs and met the acceptability criteria for validity [69, 70]. 373 374 Therapeutic management and imaging achieved the lowest consensus (72%) compared to molecular biology and biomarkers (88-95%). This likely reflects two issues. Firstly, individual 375 376 approaches to management (despite a focus on multidisciplinary methods) and secondly, differential access to imaging (⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA PET/CT is currently not generally available in 377 378 the US). There was a full consensus that surgery was potentially curative. Similarly, there was broad consensus of the utility of ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA PET/CT both in establishing a diagnosis and 379 380 having a role in staging, predicting response to PRRT and determining prognosis. There are a number of different national and societal neuroendocrine guidelines that variously evaluate the 381 usage of biomarkers and imaging (North American – NANETs, National Comprehensive Cancer 382 383 Network – NCCN, Canadian NETs and the European Neuroendocrine Tumor Society – ENETs, [14, 71-75]. Each broadly supports the points defined in this Delphi Consensus but none 384 specifically addresses the interface between imaging and biomarkers nor the best strategy to 385 integrate anatomical and functional imaging with circulating molecular information. In particular, 386 387 the current consensus meeting evaluated not only the utility of the different strategies (imaging 388 and biomarkers) but how such modalities could be interfaced to provide a real-time assessment of the biological evolution of a neuroendocrine neoplasm. It was widely agreed that current 389 approaches (RECIST) for assessing therapeutic responses were inadequate. In particular, 390

clinical knowledge was considered insufficient for early and accurate predictions of progressive
or stable disease. Moreover, it was agreed that a clinically actionable, biologically-relevant
biomarker should be included in treatment response assessments. This is consistent with the
agreement reached in the previous Delphi consensus meeting (2014) that was designed to
specifically address biomarker metrics and clinical utility [61].

Although biomarkers such as CgA are currently used in conjunction with imaging as 396 397 adjuncts for clinical decision making (Figure 3), significant refinements are required [61]. In particular, implementations of more informative molecular tools such as multianalyte biomarkers 398 are needed. Dynamic characterization of tumour behavior based upon blood-derived genomic 399 400 information is likely to be of considerable clinical utility, especially if used as an adjunct to both spatial and functional imaging. This is underscored by the lack of utility and clinical effectiveness 401 402 of solely secretory biomarkers. For example, CgA does not correlate with imaging, particularly ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA and ¹⁸F-FDG imaging, while CgA biochemical "responses" to therapy are also 403 typically non-concordant with imaging [61]. Indeed, a number of national and societal guidelines 404 adjudge CgA to be "controversial" in clinical decision-making [14, 71]. 405

406 Imaging alone, however, also has its limitations. The panel agreed that current 407 strategies, although useful in diagnosis, were unlikely to be improved in NENs in the near future. 408 For example, measurements of changes in Hounsfield Units, proposed in the Choi criteria for 409 measuring GIST treatment responses [15], may not be useful in GEP-NENs. Although suitable for a rough estimate, SUV_{max} determined by ⁶⁸Ga-SSA-PET/CT, was also not considered to be 410 ideal, since SSR heterogeneity in individual tumours is a problematic factor for sensitive 411 assessment of treatment response. Moreover, the differences in intrinsic variabilities in SUV_{max} 412 in separate PET/CT scanners at different institutions was a limitation for image-based 413 414 assessment and patient follow-up [54]. Changes in tumour SUV_{max} during PRRT also do not always correlate to the outcome [25, 76] and in tumours with SUV_{max}>20-25, SUV does not 415 linearly correlate with SSR expression [77]. Other imaging biomarkers, such as activated 416

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417	glucose metabolisms (¹⁸ F-FDG-PET) are now being re-evaluated and optimism exists regarding
418	their future prognostic role in NEN management although prospective validation is required [17].
419	While guidelines have, in general, supported serial comparisons between images to evaluate
420	changes in tumours [14, 71], a RECIST approach has not been recommended in
421	neuroendocrine tumor disease. This is consistent with the opinions of the experts at this Delphi
422	consensus who opined that the current configuration of RECIST criteria was sub-optimal for
423	application to NET disease assessment. Additional parameters that potentially could be
424	included to improve imaging, however, remained unresolved. The overall consensus was that
425	adjunct biomarker tools should be developed to provide synergistic information with imaging as
426	a means to facilitate assessment of therapy. It was agreed that a better understanding of tumour
427	biology would unquestionably expedite the development of an appropriate therapeutic
428	biomarker(s). The determination of therapeutic strategy by identification of a biomarker is limited
429	to the assessment of SSR expression prior to the use of PRRT. The use of current
430	pharmacological therapy is critically limited by the absence of pre-treatment biomarker
431	identification and the lack of tools to accurately define efficacy.
432	Molecular strategies have thus far typically focused on DNA alterations but are clinically
433	non-informative. Mutations in MEN-1, the predominant sporadic NEN mutation (pancreatic
434	NENs), are not associated with differences in SSR expression and detection by SRI [78, 79].
435	Moreover, the clinical usefulness of alterations in ATRX, DAXX, mTOR signaling [40] and YY1
436	[80] (all principally identified as sporadic mutations in pancreatic NENs) remain to be proven.
437	Furthermore, the prognostic and predictive utility of the recently identified IMPK mutation in a
438	single small bowel carcinoid family [81] remains to be defined. In addition, the clinical
439	usefulness of chemical-based DNA modifications e.g., methylation, require elucidation.
440	Alternatives to DNA-based molecular strategies included assessment of CTCs, miRNA,
441	metabolomics and transcriptome-based approaches. The panel considered miRNA to have
442	potential utility. Data indicated that tissue-derived microRNAs are detectable in patient serum

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443 samples and may be altered by somatostatin analogs) [82]. Similarly, metabolomics 444 investigations were considered of interest since functional and non-functional tumors are readily separated (R²=0.98) [83]. Further clinical data was necessary to further assess clinical utility. In 445 446 respect of CTCs, the consensus was that this parameter remained problematic at the present 447 time. While there is some literature to support CTCs [84, 85], all represent a single center study and hence enthusiasm was diminished. Concerns were also raised in regard to technological 448 449 aspects of the measurement. Analysis of results demonstrate the clinical sensitivity (number of patients with detectable CTCs) is low, 33% in the first study and 49% in the second. Such low 450 numbers may reflect variable EpCAM expression used for tumor cell capture. Irrespective of 451 technical issues, it remains difficult to reconcile the utility of a test that is based on the absence 452 or presence of 1 circulating tumor cell. This opinion directly recapitulated that expressed at the 453 454 biomarker-focused Delphic consensus meeting (2014) where a separate group of international 455 experts expressed a similar lack of enthusiasm for the clinical utility of circulating tumor cell 456 technology [61]. None of these parameters (CTC, miRNA, metabolomics) are currently clinically 457 recommended in guidelines. Overall, blood-based multianalyte transcript analysis [44, 45], with 458 a clinical sensitivity >95%, was considered by the group to be more sensitive than standard 459 biomarkers and of potential clinical utility. This is concordant with the consensus from the 460 previous Delphi panel (2014) which evaluated the efficacy, metrics and clinical utility of current NET biomarkers [61]. Its precise application to guiding therapy was considered to require further 461 evaluation. Current preliminary data [6, 46] were, however, noted to have specifically addressed 462 clinical utility in sporadic, well-differentiated GEP-NETs. A role in familial NETs (including 463 germline MEN-1 and VHL mutations) is currently under evaluation. The efficacy of a molecular 464 tool capable of detecting germline disease evolution over time is of particular clinical relevance 465 466 given the low accuracy of current biomarkers and the limitations of imagery (sensitivity and 467 radiation exposure) as a life-long monitoring tool [86]. The areas of efficacy were identified as assessment of the effectiveness of curative surgery, assessment of the efficacy of SSA therapy, 468

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469 prediction of disease stability/progression and identification of response to PRRT. The signature 470 was decreased by surgery and values corresponded to the completeness of tumour removal 471 [49]. In addition, elevated levels following R0 resection predicted subsequent disease 472 recurrence. In a different study, elevated transcript levels were prognostic of SSA 473 failure/disease progression [51]. Of note was the observation that alterations in transcript levels occurred significantly earlier than RECIST- or SRI-based measures of disease progression [51]. 474 Finally, levels were prognostic for PRRT efficacy and could be used to evaluate therapy, 475 correlating with image-based assessments [53]. The observation that NEN gene blood levels 476 correlated with ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA PET/CT imaging and could define disease status was 477 considered worthy of further clinical study [52]. In the latter study, a quotient including specific 478 genes as well as the SUV_{max} accurately predicted clinical status. Thus, stable disease could be 479 480 differentiated from progression using a time point amalgam of a single image/blood sample. The 481 group considered that the combination of imaging and circulating blood biomarker offered a potential for fusing these two functional modalities of treatment assessment into a clinical index 482 of disease status. This novel consideration had not been previously evaluated at the initial 483 484 Delphi analysis (2014) which developed a biomarker-centric analysis of disease management. 485 The larger and more diverse international cohort of experts that comprised the current Delphi group was designed to assess the effectiveness and facility of the integration of validated 486 imaging strategies as a combinatorial clinical assessment tool with biomarkers. 487

In conclusion, there was consensus among a large (*n*=33) group of NEN disease experts from diverse medical and scientific disciplines and countries that current imaging and circulating biomarkers for NEN disease have substantial limitations for predicting disease activity and for measuring therapeutic efficacy. In addition, RECIST remains sub-optimal as a metric of disease status and better tools for assessment as well as improved techniques for imaging require development. These views broadly recapitulate published guidelines for GEP-NETs [14, 71-75] while providing a more in depth and detailed evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of the 495 different strategies and how best they might be integrated to provide synergistic information of 496 clinical utility. It was concluded that a critical requirement was the development of a multianalyte 497 molecular tool that can better identify disease status and define treatment response. In this 498 respect, the use of circulating RNA as a biomarker was confirmed to supersede the 499 effectiveness of standard monoanalyte biomarkers and have potential clinical applicability. This assessment corroborated the outcome of the previous biomarker-centric Delphi consensus 500 501 meeting [61]. Current data suggests added value for the transcript analysis in the monitoring of diverse therapeutic modalities, particularly in conjunction with other parameters to monitor 502 disease progression (Figure 4). The NEN experts concluded that combinations of imaging and 503 blood-based molecular information provided by transcriptome analysis could offer the most 504 promising future strategy for refining and improving the evaluation of therapy. 505

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507 DECLARATION OF INTEREST

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518 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors were involved in the development of the manuscript and the recommendations. All

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- 521 Delphi consensus iterations but ultimately declined to participate in the manuscript.
- 522

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808 FIGURE LEGENDS

- 809
- **Figure 1**. Clinical utility of imaging overview (Section B).
- Imaging for diagnosis (*left*) was considered effective (71% positive); ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA PET/CT
- was considered more useful than either ¹¹¹In-pentetreotide scintigraphy (100%) or ¹⁸F-DOPA-
- 813 PET/CT (89%) for diagnosis of well-differentiated NENs. ¹⁸F-DOPA-PET/CT was agreed to
- accurately differentiate (88%) low from high grade tumours. Imaging in therapeutic assessment
- 815 (*right*) was overall considered suboptimal (36%). No consensus (grey) could be reached
- regarding the utility of either CT/MRI (40%) or PET-CT (46%) in the assessment of therapy. A
- combination of CT/MRI and functional imaging were considered useful (84%) There was a
- negative assessment of current methodologies including RECIST criteria (82%) and Hounsfield
- 819 Units (Choi criteria) (76%).
- ⁶⁸Ga = ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA PET/CT; ¹¹¹In = ¹¹¹In-pentetreotide scintigraphy; ¹⁸F = ¹⁸F-DOPA-

821 PET/CT; HU = Hounsfield Units

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Figure 2. Biomarker assessment. (Section D).

Current monoanalyte blood biomarkers including CgA, serotonin, and pancreastatin were overall considered inadequate (80%). The utility for individual strategies was assessed as

negative for CTC's (70%) and positive, in ascending order, for miRNA (67%), metabolomics

827 (75%) and circulating mRNA (80%).

- 828
- **Figure 3**. Proposed Strategy for Assessing Therapeutic Efficacy.
- 830 An integration of functional imaging and biomarker measurement including circulating tumour
- mRNA will provide combinatorial information on a real time basis of disease status. The
- combination of individual imaging strategies will quantify tumour location/extent and in addition
- 833 delineate somatostatin receptor expression (SRI typically ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA PET/CT) and

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tumour metabolism (¹⁸F-FDG-PET/CT). Circulating mRNA will measure tumour biological
activity and identify treatment response.

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837 Figure 4. Conceptual proposal for the evaluation of therapeutic efficacy. This provides an integration of functional imaging and tumour molecular biology utilizing circulating multianalyte 838 839 assays with algorithm analyses (MAAA)s, mRNA or miRNA. Disease progress can be 840 delineated using a combination of functional imaging modalities quantifying somatostatin receptor expression (SSR) by ⁶⁸Ga-DOTA-SSA PET/CT and tumour metabolism using either 841 ¹⁸F-DOPA PET/CT (in well-differentiated tumours) or 18F-FDG (mainly in undifferentiated forms 842 or to assess tumour aggressiveness). The MAAA e.g., circulating mRNA, provides an accurate 843 reflection of tumour activity. Overall, the combination of functional imaging (⁶⁸Ga-SSA and ¹⁸F-844 845 FDG-PET/CT) and circulating mRNA could, in the future, help to delineate treatment efficacy. 846



Figure 1



Figure 2

PROPOSED STRATEGY FOR ASSESSING THERAPEUTIC EFFICACY



Figure 3



Figure 4