

EAU - EANM - ESTRO - ESUR - ISUP - SIOG Guidelines on Prostate Cancer

P. Cornford (Chair), D. Tilki (Vice-chair), R.C.N. van den Bergh,
D. Eberli, G. De Meerleer, M. De Santis, S. Gillessen, A.M. Henry,
G.J.L.H. van Leenders, J. Oldenburg, D.E. Oprea-Lager,
M. Roberts, O. Rouvière, I.G. Schoots, J. Stranne, T. Wiegel
Patient Advocate: E. Briers
Guidelines Associates: P. Chiu, A. Farolfi, G. Gandaglia,
N. Grivas, E. Linares Espinós, A. Sachdeva
Guidelines Office: E.J. Smith, C. Bezuidenhout



TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

1.	INTRODUCTION	11
	1.1 Aims and scope	11
	1.2 Panel composition	11
	1.3 Available publications	11
	1.4 Publication history and summary of changes	11
	1.4.1 Publication history	11
	1.4.2 Summary of changes	11
2.	METHODS	12
	2.1 Data identification	12
	2.2 Review	12
	2.3 Future goals	12
3.	EPIDEMIOLOGY AND AETIOLOGY	13
	3.1 Epidemiology	13
	3.2 Aetiology and risk factors for prostate cancer	13
	3.2.1 Hereditary risk factors for PCa	13
	3.2.1.1 Ethnicity and Family history	13
	3.2.1.2 Germline mutations	14
	3.2.1.3 Genetic single nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs)	15
	3.2.2 Non-hereditary risk factors for PCa	15
	3.2.2.1 Metabolic syndrome	15
	3.2.2.1.1 Obesity	15
	3.2.2.1.2 Diabetes/metformin	15
	3.2.2.1.3 Cholesterol/statins	16
	3.2.2.2 Dietary factors	16
	3.2.2.3 Hormonally active medication	16
	3.2.2.3.1 5-alpha-reductase inhibitors (5-ARIs)	16
	3.2.2.3.2 Testosterone	17
	3.2.2.4 Other potential risk factors	17
	3.2.3 Summary of evidence for epidemiology and aetiology	17
4.	CLASSIFICATION AND STAGING SYSTEMS	18
	4.1 Classification	18
	4.2 Gleason score and International Society of Urological Pathology 2019 grade	19
	4.3 Clinically significant prostate cancer	19
	4.4 Prognostic relevance of stratification	20
	4.5 Recommendations for classification and staging systems	21
5.	DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION	21
	5.1 Screening and individual early detection	21
	5.1.1 Prostate-specific antigen (PSA)	21
	5.1.2 Clinical Symptoms	21
	5.1.3 Individual early detection	21
	5.1.4 Population-based screening	24
	5.1.5 Screening in patients with BRCA mutations	25
	5.1.6 Recommendations for individual early detection	25
	5.1.7 Genetic testing for inherited prostate cancer	26
	5.1.8 Recommendations for germline testing*	26
	5.2 Diagnostic tools	26
	5.2.1 Digital rectal examination	26
	5.2.2 Prostate-specific antigen	26
	5.2.3 Prostate-specific antigen density	28

5.2.4	Imaging	28
5.2.4.1	Magnetic resonance imaging	28
5.2.4.2	Transrectal ultrasound and ultrasound-based techniques	28
5.2.4.3	Prostate-specific membrane antigen-Positron emission tomography/ Computed tomography (or Magnetic resonance imaging)	29
5.2.5	Blood and urine biomarkers	29
5.2.5.1	Blood based biomarkers: PHI/4K score/IsoPSA/Stockholm3/ProclariX	29
5.2.5.2	Urine biomarkers: PCA3/SelectMDX/MyProstateScore (MPS/MPS2)/ ExoDX	29
5.2.6	Recommendations for screening and individual early detection	30
5.3	Pathology of prostate needle biopsies	30
5.3.1	Processing	30
5.3.2	Microscopy and reporting	30
5.3.2.1	Recommended terminology for reporting prostate biopsies	31
5.3.2.2	Recommended item list for reporting prostate cancer biopsies	32
5.3.3	Tissue-based prognostic biomarker testing	32
5.3.4	Tissue samples for homologous recombination repair (HRR)-testing	32
5.3.5	Histopathology of radical prostatectomy specimens	32
5.3.5.1	Processing of radical prostatectomy specimens	32
5.3.5.2	Radical prostatectomy specimen report	33
5.3.5.3	ISUP GG in prostatectomy specimens	33
5.3.5.4	Definition of extra-prostatic extension	34
5.3.5.5	PCa volume	34
5.3.5.6	Surgical margin status	34
5.3.5.7	Intra-operative assessment of surgical margin status	34
5.4	Biopsy indication	34
5.4.1	Risk assessment before MRI and biopsy	34
5.4.1.1	Risk calculators assessing the risk of csPCa	35
5.4.1.2	Using risk-stratification to avoid Magnetic resonance imaging scans and biopsy procedures	35
5.4.2	MRI based indication for biopsy	35
5.4.2.1	MRI as a triage test for biopsy ('MRI pathway')	35
5.4.2.2	Combining MRI and PSA Density	36
5.4.2.3	Risk calculators incorporating MRI findings	37
5.4.2.4	MRI in population-based screening protocols	37
5.5	Biopsy strategy	37
5.5.1	Systematic biopsy strategy	38
5.5.2	Targeted biopsy strategy	38
5.5.3	Targeted biopsy versus systematic biopsy	38
5.5.3.1	Increased detection of cancers labelled as clinically significant	38
5.5.3.2	Reduced detection of cancers labelled as ISUP GG 1	38
5.5.3.3	Added value of systematic biopsy and targeted biopsy	38
5.5.4	Perilesional biopsy	39
5.5.5	Prostate MRI and MRI-targeted biopsy reproducibility	40
5.5.6	Cancer grade shift	40
5.5.7	Recommendations for MRI imaging in biopsy indication and strategy	41
5.6	Biopsy approach	41
5.6.1	MRI-directed transrectal vs transperineal US-guided biopsy	42
5.6.2	Local anaesthesia prior to biopsy	42
5.6.3	Infection rate after transperineal and transrectal prostate biopsy	42
5.6.4	Summary of evidence and recommendations for performing prostate biopsy (in line with the EAU Urological Infections Guidelines Panel)	43
5.6.5	Complications	45
5.7	What diagnostic pathway in clinical practice?	45
5.7.1	Repeat biopsy after negative biopsy	46
5.7.2	Saturation biopsy	46
5.7.3	Seminal vesicle biopsy	46
5.7.4	Transition zone biopsy	46

5.8	Diagnosis - Clinical Staging	46
5.8.1	T-staging	46
5.8.1.1	Ultrasound-based techniques and Computed Tomography	46
5.8.1.2	Magnetic Resonance Imaging	46
5.8.2	N-staging	47
5.8.2.1	Computed tomography and MRI	47
5.8.2.2	Risk calculators incorporating MRI findings and clinical data	47
5.8.2.3	Choline PET/CT	47
5.8.2.4	Prostate-specific membrane antigen-based PET/CT	47
5.8.2.5	Risk calculators incorporating MRI and PSMA findings	48
5.8.2.6	Surgical techniques	48
5.8.2.6.1	Pelvic lymph node dissection	48
5.8.2.6.2	Lymph-node-positive patients during radical prostatectomy	48
5.8.2.6.3	Sentinel node biopsy analysis	48
5.8.2.6.4	Complications of extended pelvic lymph node dissection	49
5.8.3	M-staging	49
5.8.3.1	Bone scan	49
5.8.3.2	Fluoride PET/CT, choline PET/CT and MRI	49
5.8.3.3	PSMA PET/CT	50
5.8.4	Summary of evidence and practical considerations on initial N/M staging	50
5.8.5	Recommendations for staging of prostate cancer	50
6.	TREATMENT	51
6.1	Estimating life expectancy and health status	51
6.1.1	Introduction	51
6.1.2	Life expectancy	51
6.1.3	Health status screening	52
6.1.3.1	Co-morbidity	52
6.1.3.2	Nutritional status	52
6.1.3.3	Cognitive function	52
6.1.3.4	Physical function	52
6.1.3.5	Shared decision-making	52
6.1.4	Conclusion	52
6.1.5	Guidelines for evaluating health status and life expectancy	56
6.2	Treatment modalities	56
6.2.1	Expectant management strategies	56
6.2.1.1	Watchful Waiting	57
6.2.1.2	Active surveillance	58
6.2.1.2.1	Active surveillance - inclusion criteria	59
6.2.1.2.2	Active surveillance – inclusion of intermediate risk disease	59
6.2.1.2.3	Tissue-based prognostic biomarker testing for selection for active surveillance	61
6.2.1.2.4	Magnetic resonance imaging for selection for active surveillance	61
6.2.1.2.5	Active surveillance follow-up	61
6.2.1.2.6	Magnetic resonance imaging for follow-up during active surveillance	62
6.2.1.2.7	Individualised repeat biopsy during active surveillance	62
6.2.1.2.8	Active Surveillance - change in treatment	62
6.2.1.2.9	Psychological factors during active surveillance	63
6.2.1.2.10	Interventions during active surveillance	63
6.2.1.3	Summary of evidence and recommendations for active surveillance strategy	64
6.2.2	Radical prostatectomy	64
6.2.2.1	Introduction	64
6.2.2.2	Pre-operative preparation	65
6.2.2.2.1	Pre-operative patient education	65

6.2.2.3	Surgical techniques	65
6.2.2.3.1	Prostatic anterior fat pad dissection and histologic analysis	65
6.2.2.3.2	Management of the dorsal venous complex	65
6.2.2.3.3	Nerve-sparing surgery	66
6.2.2.3.4	Removal of seminal vesicles	66
6.2.2.3.5	Bladder neck management	66
6.2.2.3.6	Urethral length preservation	67
6.2.2.3.7	Techniques of vesico-urethral anastomosis	67
6.2.2.3.8	Urinary catheter	68
6.2.2.3.9	Cystography prior to catheter removal	68
6.2.2.3.10	Use of a pelvic drain	68
6.2.2.3.11	Considerations during minimally-invasive radical prostatectomy	68
6.2.2.3.11.1	Pneumoperitoneum pressure	68
6.2.2.4	Acute and chronic complications of radical prostatectomy	68
6.2.2.4.1	Effect of anterior and posterior reconstruction on continence	70
6.2.2.4.2	Deep venous thrombosis prophylaxis	70
6.2.3	Radiotherapy	70
6.2.3.1	External beam radiation therapy	70
6.2.3.1.1	Technical aspects	70
6.2.3.1.2	Dose escalation	71
6.2.3.1.3	Hypofractionation	71
6.2.3.2	Proton beam therapy	73
6.2.3.3	Spacer during external beam radiation therapy	77
6.2.3.4	Brachytherapy	77
6.2.3.4.1	Low-dose rate brachytherapy	77
6.2.3.4.2	High-dose rate brachytherapy	78
6.2.3.5	Acute side effects of external beam radiotherapy and brachytherapy	79
6.2.4	Investigational therapies	79
6.2.4.1	Background	79
6.2.4.2	Whole-gland therapies	80
6.2.4.3	Focal therapy	80
6.3	Treatment by disease stages	81
6.3.1	Management of low-risk disease	81
6.3.1.1	Watchful waiting	81
6.3.1.2	Active surveillance	81
6.3.1.2.1	Androgen deprivation monotherapy	82
6.3.1.3	Other therapeutic options	82
6.3.1.4	Recommendations for the management of low-risk disease	82
6.3.2	Management of Intermediate-risk disease	82
6.3.2.1	Watchful waiting	82
6.3.2.2	Active Surveillance	82
6.3.2.3	Radical prostatectomy	82
6.3.2.4	Radiation therapy	82
6.3.2.4.1	Recommended IMRT/VMAT	82
6.3.2.4.2	Brachytherapy	83
6.3.2.5	Other therapeutic options	83
6.3.2.5.1	Focal therapy	83
6.3.2.5.2	Androgen deprivation therapy monotherapy	83
6.3.2.6	Recommendations for the management of intermediate-risk disease*	83
6.3.3	Management of high-risk localised disease	84
6.3.3.1	Radical prostatectomy	84
6.3.3.2	External beam radiation therapy	84
6.3.3.2.1	Lymph node irradiation in cN0	84
6.3.3.2.2	Brachytherapy boost	85
6.3.3.3	Recommendations for the management of high-risk localised disease*	85

6.3.4	Treatment of locally-advanced PCa	85
6.3.4.1	Radical prostatectomy	85
6.3.4.2	Treatment of cN1 M0 PCa	86
6.3.4.2.1	Consideration of molecular imaging	86
6.3.4.2.2	Local treatment of cN1 M0 PCa	86
6.3.4.2.3	Systemic treatment of cN1 M0 PCa	86
6.3.4.3	Options other than surgery or radiotherapy for primary treatment	88
6.3.4.3.1	Investigational therapies	88
6.3.4.3.2	Androgen deprivation therapy monotherapy	88
6.3.4.4	Recommendation for management of locally-advanced disease*	88
6.3.5	Adjuvant treatment after radical prostatectomy	89
6.3.5.1	Introduction	89
6.3.5.2	Risk factors for relapse	89
6.3.5.2.1	Biomarker-based risk stratification after radical prostatectomy	89
6.3.5.3	Immediate (adjuvant) post-operative external irradiation after RP (cN0 or pN0)	89
6.3.5.4	Comparison of adjuvant and salvage radiotherapy	89
6.3.5.5	Adjuvant systemic therapy in N0 disease	92
6.3.5.6	Adjuvant treatment in pN1 disease	92
6.3.5.6.1	Adjuvant androgen ablation alone	92
6.3.5.6.2	Adjuvant radiotherapy combined with ADT in pN1 disease	92
6.3.5.6.3	Observation of pN1 patients after radical prostatectomy and extended lymph node dissection	92
6.3.5.7	Recommendations for adjuvant treatment for pN0 and pN1 disease after radical prostatectomy*	93
6.3.6	Persistent PSA after radical prostatectomy	93
6.3.6.1	Natural history of persistently elevated PSA after RP	93
6.3.6.2	Imaging in patients with persistently elevated PSA after RP	93
6.3.6.3	Management options for patients with persistent PSA	94
6.3.6.3.1	Comparison with biochemical recurrence (BCR)	94
6.3.6.3.2	Post-operative RT	94
6.3.6.3.3	Multimodal therapy (ADT with post-operative RT)	95
6.3.6.4	Conclusion	95
6.3.6.5	Recommendations for the management of persistent PSA after radical prostatectomy	95
6.4	Management of PSA-only recurrence after treatment with curative intent	95
6.4.1	Background	95
6.4.1.1	PSA velocity and doubling time	95
6.4.2	Controversies in the definitions of clinically relevant PSA relapse	96
6.4.3	Natural history of biochemical recurrence	96
6.4.4	The role of imaging in PSA-only recurrence	97
6.4.4.1	Assessment of metastases (including nodal)	97
6.4.4.1.1	Bone scan and abdominopelvic CT	97
6.4.4.1.2	Choline PET/CT	97
6.4.4.1.3	Fluoride PET/CT	97
6.4.4.1.4	Fluciclovine PET/CT	97
6.4.4.1.5	Prostate-specific membrane antigen based PET/CT	98
6.4.4.1.6	Whole-body and axial MRI	99
6.4.4.2	Assessment of local recurrences	99
6.4.4.2.1	Local recurrence after radical prostatectomy	99
6.4.4.2.2	Local recurrence after radiation therapy	99
6.4.4.3	Summary of evidence of imaging in case of biochemical recurrence	99
6.4.4.4	Recommendations for imaging in patients with biochemical recurrence	100
6.4.5	Treatment of PSA-only recurrences	100
6.4.5.1	Treatment of PSA-only recurrences after radical prostatectomy	100
6.4.5.1.1	Salvage radiotherapy for PSA-only recurrence after radical prostatectomy (cTxcN0M0, without PET/CT)	100

	6.4.5.1.2	Salvage radiotherapy combined with androgen deprivation therapy (cTx/cN0, without PET/CT)	101
	6.4.5.1.2.1	Target volume, dose, toxicity	102
	6.4.5.1.2.2	Salvage radiotherapy with or without ADT (cTx cN0/1) with PET/CT	106
	6.4.5.1.2.3	Nodal-directed therapy for rcN1 (with PET/CT)	107
	6.4.5.1.3	Salvage lymph node dissection	107
6.4.5.2		Management of PSA failures after radiation therapy	108
	6.4.5.2.1	Salvage radical prostatectomy	108
	6.4.5.2.1.1	Oncological outcomes	108
	6.4.5.2.1.2	Morbidity	108
	6.4.5.2.1.3	Summary of salvage radical prostatectomy	108
	6.4.5.2.2	Salvage cryoablation of the prostate	109
	6.4.5.2.2.1	Oncological outcomes	109
	6.4.5.2.3	Salvage re-irradiation	109
	6.4.5.2.3.1	Salvage brachytherapy for radiotherapy failure	109
	6.4.5.2.3.2	Salvage stereotactic ablative body radiotherapy for radiotherapy failure	110
	6.4.5.2.3.2.1	Oncological outcomes and morbidity	110
	6.4.5.2.3.2.2	Morbidity	110
	6.4.5.2.3.2.3	Summary of salvage stereotactic ablative body radiotherapy	111
	6.4.5.2.4	Salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound	111
	6.4.5.2.4.1	Oncological outcomes	111
	6.4.5.2.4.2	Morbidity	111
	6.4.5.2.4.3	Summary of salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound	112
6.4.6		Hormonal therapy for relapsing patients	112
6.4.7		Observation	113
6.4.8		Recommendations for second-line therapy after treatment with curative intent	113
6.5		Systemic treatments for prostate cancer	114
	6.5.1	Hormonal therapy	114
	6.5.1.1	Castration level	114
	6.5.1.2	Bilateral orchiectomy	114
	6.5.1.3	Luteinising-hormone-releasing hormone agonists	114
	6.5.1.4	Luteinising-hormone-releasing hormone antagonists	114
	6.5.1.5	Anti-androgens	115
	6.5.1.5.1	Steroidal anti-androgens	115
	6.5.1.5.2	Non-steroidal anti-androgens	115
	6.5.1.5.3	New androgen receptor pathway inhibitors (ARPIs)	115
	6.5.1.5.3.1	Abiraterone acetate	115
	6.5.1.5.3.2	Apalutamide, darolutamide, enzalutamide and rezvilutamide (alphabetical order)	116
	6.5.2	Cytotoxic drug treatment	116
	6.5.2.1	Taxanes	116
	6.5.3	Non-hormonal non-cytotoxic drug treatments	116
	6.5.3.1	Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors (PARPi)	116
	6.5.3.2	Immune checkpoint inhibitors	116
	6.5.3.3	Radiopharmaceutical therapy	116
6.6		Management of Metastatic prostate cancer	116
	6.6.1	Introduction	116
	6.6.2	Prognostic and predictive factors	117
	6.6.3	First-line hormonal treatment	117
	6.6.3.1	Non-steroidal anti-androgen monotherapy	117
	6.6.3.2	Intermittent versus continuous androgen deprivation therapy	118
	6.6.3.3	Early versus deferred androgen deprivation therapy	118

6.6.4	Combination therapies	118
6.6.4.1	'Combined' androgen blockade with older generation NSAA (bicalutamide, flutamide, nilutamide)	118
6.6.4.2	Androgen deprivation combined with other agents	118
6.6.4.2.1	Combination with an ARPI alone (abiraterone, apalutamide, enzalutamide, rezvilutamide, darolutamide)	118
6.6.4.2.2	Androgen deprivation therapy combined with chemotherapy	121
6.6.5	Treatment selection and patient selection	122
6.6.6	Treatment of the primary tumour in newly diagnosed metastatic disease	122
6.6.7	Metastasis-directed therapy in M1-patients	123
6.6.8	Recommendations for the first-line treatment of hormone-sensitive metastatic disease*	124
6.7	Treatment: Castration-resistant PCa (CRPC)	125
6.7.1	Definition of CRPC	125
6.7.2	Management of mCRPC - general aspects	125
6.7.2.1	Molecular diagnostics	125
6.7.3	Treatment decisions and sequence of available options	125
6.7.4	Non-metastatic CRPC	126
6.7.5	Metastatic CRPC	126
6.7.5.1	Conventional androgen deprivation in CRPC	126
6.7.6	First-line treatment of metastatic CRPC	126
6.7.6.1	Abiraterone	126
6.7.6.2	Enzalutamide	126
6.7.6.3	Docetaxel	127
6.7.6.4	Sipuleucel-T	127
6.7.6.5	Combinations with PARP inhibitors	127
6.7.7	Second-line treatment for mCRPC	128
6.7.7.1	Cabazitaxel	128
6.7.7.2	Abiraterone acetate after docetaxel for mCRPC	129
6.7.7.3	Enzalutamide after docetaxel for mCRPC	129
6.7.7.4	Radium-223 after ARPI or both ARPI and docetaxel for mCRPC	129
6.7.7.5	Rucaparib after ARPI	130
6.7.7.6	Olaparib after ARPI	130
6.7.7.7	¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 after ARPI	130
6.7.8	Treatment after docetaxel and one line of hormonal treatment for mCRPC	130
6.7.8.1	General considerations	130
6.7.8.2	Radiopharmaceuticals	130
6.7.8.2.1	Introduction	130
6.7.8.2.2	PSMA-based therapy	131
6.7.8.3	PARP inhibitors for mCRPC	132
6.7.8.4	Sequencing treatment	133
6.7.8.4.1	ARPI -> ARPI (chemotherapy-naïve mCRPC patients)	133
6.7.8.4.2	ARPI -> PARP inhibitor	133
6.7.8.4.3	Docetaxel for mHSPC -> docetaxel rechallenge	133
6.7.8.4.4	ARPI -> docetaxel or docetaxel -> ARPI followed by PARP inhibitor	133
6.7.8.4.5	ARPI before or after docetaxel	133
6.7.8.4.6	ARPI -> docetaxel -> cabazitaxel or docetaxel -> ARPI -> cabazitaxel	133
6.7.8.5	Platinum chemotherapy	133
6.7.9	Monitoring of treatment	138
6.7.10	When to change treatment	138
6.7.11	Symptomatic management in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer	138
6.7.11.1	Common complications due to bone metastases	139
6.7.11.2	Preventing skeletal-related events	139
6.7.11.2.1	Bisphosphonates	139
6.7.11.2.2	RANK ligand inhibitors	139

	6.7.12	Summary of evidence and recommendations for life-prolonging treatments of castrate-resistant disease	139
	6.7.13	Recommendations for systemic treatments of castrate-resistant disease	140
	6.7.14	Guideline for non-metastatic castrate-resistant disease	141
7.	FOLLOW-UP		143
	7.1	Watchful waiting	143
	7.2	Active surveillance strategy	143
	7.3	Follow-up: After local treatment with curative intent	143
	7.3.1	Definition	143
	7.3.2	Why follow-up?	143
	7.3.3	How to follow-up?	143
	7.3.3.1	Prostate-specific antigen monitoring	143
	7.3.3.1.1	Prostate-specific antigen monitoring after radical prostatectomy	143
	7.3.3.1.2	Prostate-specific antigen monitoring after radiotherapy	144
	7.3.3.2	Digital rectal examination	144
	7.3.3.3	Transrectal ultrasound, bone scintigraphy, CT, MRI and PET/CT	144
	7.3.3.4	Functional follow-up	144
	7.3.4	How long to follow-up?	144
	7.3.5	Summary of evidence and recommendations for follow-up after treatment with curative intent	145
	7.4	Follow-up: During first line hormonal treatment (androgen sensitive period)	145
	7.4.1	Introduction	145
	7.4.2	Purpose of follow-up	145
	7.4.3	General follow-up of men on ADT	145
	7.4.3.1	Testosterone monitoring	145
	7.4.3.2	Liver function monitoring	146
	7.4.3.3	Serum creatinine and haematological parameters	146
	7.4.3.4	Monitoring of metabolic complications	146
	7.4.3.5	Monitoring bone problems	146
	7.4.3.6	Monitoring lifestyle, cognition, fatigue and sexual function	146
	7.4.4	Methods of follow-up in men on ADT without metastases	147
	7.4.4.1	Prostate-specific antigen monitoring	147
	7.4.4.2	Imaging	147
	7.4.5	Methods for follow-up in men under ADT for hormone-sensitive metastatic PCa	147
	7.4.5.1	PSA monitoring	147
	7.4.5.2	Imaging as a marker of response in metastatic PCa	147
	7.4.6	Recommendations for follow-up during hormonal treatment	148
8.	QUALITY OF LIFE OUTCOMES IN PROSTATE CANCER		148
	8.1	Introduction	148
	8.2	Adverse effects of PCa therapies	149
	8.2.1	Active surveillance	149
	8.2.2	Surgery	149
	8.2.3	Radiotherapy	149
	8.2.3.1	Side effects of external beam radiotherapy	149
	8.2.3.2	Side effects from brachytherapy	150
	8.2.4	Local primary whole-gland treatments other than surgery or radiotherapy	150
	8.2.4.1	Whole-gland treatments	150
	8.2.4.2	Focal treatments	150
	8.2.5	Androgen deprivation therapy	150
	8.2.5.1	Sexual function	151
	8.2.5.2	Hot flushes	151
	8.2.5.3	Non-metastatic bone fractures	152
	8.2.5.4	Metabolic effects	152
	8.2.5.5	Cardiovascular morbidity	153

	8.2.5.6	Fatigue	153
	8.2.5.7	Neurological side effects	153
	8.2.6	Osteonecrosis during bisphosphonates or denosumab	154
8.3		Overall quality of life in men with PCa	154
	8.3.1	Long-term (> twelve months) quality of life outcomes in men with localised disease	155
	8.3.1.1	Men undergoing local treatments	155
	8.3.1.2	Recommendations for quality of life in men undergoing local treatments	156
	8.3.2	Improving quality of life in men who have been diagnosed with PCa	156
	8.3.2.1	Men undergoing local treatments	156
	8.3.2.2	Men undergoing systemic treatments	157
	8.3.2.3	Decision regret	158
	8.3.2.4	Decision aids in prostate cancer	159
	8.3.2.5	Recommendations for quality of life in men undergoing systemic treatments	159
9.		REFERENCES	160
10.		CONFLICT OF INTEREST	251
11.		CITATION INFORMATION	251
12.		COPYRIGHT AND TERMS OF USE	251

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aims and scope

The Prostate Cancer (PCa) Guidelines Panel have prepared this guidelines document to assist medical professionals in the evidence-based management of PCa.

It must be emphasised that clinical guidelines present the best evidence available to the experts but following guideline recommendations will not necessarily result in the best outcome. Guidelines can never replace clinical expertise when making treatment decisions for individual patients, but rather help to focus decisions - also taking personal values and preferences/individual circumstances of patients into account. Guidelines are not mandates and do not purport to be a legal standard of care.

1.2 Panel composition

The PCa Guidelines Panel consists of an international multidisciplinary group of urologists, radiation oncologists, medical oncologists, radiologists, pathologists and a patient representative.

All imaging sections in the text have been developed jointly with the European Society of Urogenital Radiology (ESUR) and the European Association of Nuclear Medicine (EANM). Representatives of the ESUR are Prof.Dr. O. Rouvière and Dr. I.G. Schoots and the EANM are Dr. A. Farolfi and Dr. D. Oprea-Lager. All radiotherapy (RT) sections have been developed jointly with the European Society for Radiotherapy & Oncology (ESTRO). Representatives of ESTRO are Prof.Dr. G. De Meerleer, Prof.Dr. A.M. Henry, and Prof.Dr. T. Wiegel. The International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) is represented by Prof.Dr. A. van Leenders. Dr. E. Briers represents the patient voice from the European Prostate Cancer Coalition and Europa UOMO.

All experts involved in the production of this document have submitted potential conflict of interest statements which can be viewed on the EAU website Uroweb: <https://uroweb.org/guideline/prostate-cancer/>.

1.3 Available publications

A quick reference document, the Pocket guidelines, is available in print. This is an abridged version which may require consultation together with the full text version. Several scientific publications are available, the latest dating to 2024 [1, 2]. All documents can be accessed on the EAU website: <http://uroweb.org/guideline/prostate-cancer/>. An EAU Guidelines App for iOS and Android devices is also available containing the Pocket Guidelines, interactive algorithms and calculators, clinical decision support tools, guidelines cheat sheets and links to the extended guidelines.

1.4 Publication history and summary of changes

1.4.1 Publication history

The EAU PCa Guidelines were first published in 2001. Standard procedure for EAU Guidelines includes an annual assessment of newly published literature in the field to guide future updates. This 2025 PCa Guidelines present a limited update of the 2024 publication.

1.4.2 Summary of changes

For the 2025 PCa Guidelines new and relevant evidence was identified, collated and appraised through a structured assessment of the literature for all sections of the Guidelines. Key changes include:

- Addition of Table 3.1: Definition of familial and hereditary PCa.
- Update of the EAU risk groups for biochemical recurrence of localised and locally-advanced PCa based on systematic biopsy. EAU intermediate-risk group has now been split into favourable and unfavourable.
- Addition of Table 5.3: Sources of error in PSA value assessment
- Significant update to section 5.4.2.4 – MRI in population-based screening protocols.
- Adaption of the recommendation for transperineal biopsy in section 5.6.4.
- Restructure and update of section 5.5.2.6 Surgical techniques for N-staging.
- Updated recommendation for use of prostate-specific antigen-positron emission tomography/computed tomography for staging of intermediate-risk PCa (see section 5.8.5).
- General recommendations for management of PCa have been removed. All recommendations are now given per disease stage.
- Section 6.6.4 – Combination therapies for management of metastatic PCa has been restructured.
- New recommendation on use of darolutamide in section 6.6.8 - Recommendations for the first-line treatment of hormone-sensitive metastatic disease.
- New recommendation on discussing all patients with hormone-sensitive metastatic disease in a multidisciplinary team in section 6.6.9 - Recommendations for the first-line treatment of hormone-sensitive metastatic disease.

- New recommendation on offering bone protective agents to men on long-term androgen deprivation therapy plus/minus ARPI in the supportive care recommendations in section 6.6.9 related to hormone-sensitive metastatic disease.
- New recommendation in section 7.4.6 for follow-up during hormonal treatment.
- Expansion and update of section 8.2.5 – Androgen deprivation therapy with section 8 – Quality of life outcomes in PCa.

2. METHODS

2.1 Data identification

For the 2025 PCa Guidelines, new and relevant evidence has been identified, collated and appraised through a structured assessment of the literature. A number of comprehensive searches were performed, covering all sections of the PCa Guidelines. The searches were limited to English language publications. Databases searched included Medline, EMBASE and the Cochrane Libraries, covering a time frame between May 1st 2023 and May 1st 2024. A total of 3,060 unique records were identified, retrieved and screened for relevance. Detailed search strategies are available online: <https://uroweb.org/guideline/prostate-cancer/?type=appendices-publications>.

Changes in recommendations were generally only considered on the basis of high-level evidence (i.e. systematic reviews (SR) with meta-analysis, randomised controlled trials (RCTs), and prospective comparative studies).

Recommendations within the Guidelines are developed by the panels to prioritise clinically important care decisions. The strength of each recommendation is determined by the balance between desirable and undesirable consequences of alternative management strategies, the quality of the evidence (including certainty of estimates), and the nature and variability of patient values and preferences. This decision process, which can be reviewed in the strength rating forms which accompany each guideline statement, addresses a number of key elements:

1. the overall quality of the evidence which exists for the recommendation [3];
2. the magnitude of the effect (individual or combined effects);
3. the certainty of the results (precision, consistency, heterogeneity and other statistical or study related factors);
4. the balance between desirable and undesirable outcomes;
5. the impact and certainty of patient values and preferences on the intervention.

Strong recommendations typically indicate a high degree of evidence quality and/or a favourable balance of benefit to harm and patient preference. Weak recommendations typically indicate availability of lower quality evidence, and/or equivocal balance between benefit and harm, and uncertainty or variability of patient preference [4].

Additional methodology information and a list of associations endorsing the EAU Guidelines can be found online: <https://uroweb.org/eau-guidelines/methodology-policies>.

2.2 Review

Publications ensuing from SRs have all been peer-reviewed.

2.3 Future goals

Results of ongoing projects will be included in the 2026 update of the PCa Guidelines:

- A SR assessing the performance of risk stratification tools incorporating imaging, biomarkers, biopsy involvement and/or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)-targeted biopsies, compared to the classical risk classifications (d'Amico, EAU, the Cancer of the Prostate Risk Assessment (CAPRA) and the National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN)) recommended in current guidelines for predicting biochemical recurrence, metastasis or death after local treatment for prostate cancer. Are the new stratification tools preferred above the classical risk classifications?
- Care pathways for the various stages of PCa management have been developed. These pathways will, in due time, inform treatment flowcharts and a new EAU clinical decision support tool for PCa.

3. EPIDEMIOLOGY AND AETIOLOGY

3.1 Epidemiology

Prostate cancer (PCa) is the second most commonly diagnosed cancer in men, with an estimated 1.4 million diagnoses and 375,000 deaths worldwide in 2020 [5, 6]. In more than half of the countries of the world it is the most frequently diagnosed cancer in men and PCa is the leading cause of death among men in a quarter of all countries [7]. In Europe, it is the most frequently diagnosed cancer in men and the third cancer-related cause of death in men [8].

A SR of autopsy studies reported a prevalence of PCa at age < 30 years of 5% (95% confidence interval [CI]: 3–8%), increasing with age, to a prevalence of 59% (48–71%) by age > 79 years [9]. There is variation in the frequency of autopsy-detected PCa between men with different ethnical backgrounds and geographical areas (e.g., 83% in white US males vs. 41% in Japan at age 71–80) [10].

Regarding incidence of PCa diagnosis, the variation is even more pronounced between different geographical areas, partly driven by rate of prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing and influenced by (inter) national organisations recommendations on screening (see section 5.1) [11]. It is highest in Australia/New Zealand and Northern America (age-standardised rates [ASR] per 100,000 of 111.6 and 97.2, respectively), and in Western and Northern Europe (ASRs of 94.9 and 85, respectively) [12]. The incidence is low in Eastern and South-Central Asia (ASRs of 10.5 and 4.5, respectively), but rising [13]. Rates in Eastern and Southern Europe were low but have also shown a steady increase [6, 10]. Other reasons for variation in PCa incidence include the age of the population, ethnicity and dietary factors [7].

There is relatively less variation in mortality rates worldwide, although rates are generally high in populations of African descent (e.g., Caribbean: ASR of 29 and Sub-Saharan Africa: ASRs ranging between 14 and 19), intermediate in the USA and very low in Asia (South-Central Asia: ASR of 2.9) [6, 7]. Mortality due to PCa has decreased in most Western nations but the magnitude of the reduction varies between countries [5].

3.2 Aetiology and risk factors for prostate cancer

A wide variety of endogenous and exogenous/environmental factors have been discussed as being associated with the risk of developing PCa, or as being aetiologically important for the progression from latent to clinical PCa [14]. As previously discussed, there is likely a racial factor involved, but Asians who immigrated to the USA have approximately half the risk of PCa when compared to their US born Asian-descendant counterparts, implying a role for environmental and/or dietary factors [15]. These guidelines divide the risk factors into hereditary, such as ethnicity, family history and known genetic mutations, in which direct inheritance of the risk factor is more obvious and direct, and non-hereditary, such as dietary and medical factors as well as metabolic syndrome and obesity, in which there may well be hereditary components, but they are more indirect.

3.2.1 Hereditary risk factors for PCa

There are basically three inherited risk factors that are consistently associated with PCa: ethnicity/family history, rare germline mutations in several candidate genes, and common genetic single nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs).

3.2.1.1 Ethnicity and Family history

Ethnic background and family history are both associated with varying PCa incidence, suggesting a genetic predisposition [7]. Men of African ancestry in the Western world demonstrate more unfavourable outcomes that may be due to biological, environmental, social, and/or health care factors [16]. They have been reported to be at increased risk of being diagnosed with more advanced disease [17] and more likely to be upgraded after prostatectomy than White men [18], but the question is more intricate than that. In a population, race is categorised based on a combination of e.g. ancestry, skin colour and geographical origin, and within any race there are hundreds of areas of geographical origins [7]. Indeed, a multi-ancestry polygenic risk score of 278 risk variants showed a strong association with PCa risk in men with African ancestry, especially sub-Saharan, and might be used to identify susceptibility in this high-risk population [19]. There is also data suggesting no difference in overall survival (OS) or prostate cancer specific mortality (PCSM) between White, Black or Hispanic men with metastatic PCa [20]. Racial disparities in development of, prevention of, and therapies for PCa may exist. It should be kept in mind that very few PCa treatment trials report on race, education and socioeconomics [21]. Moreover, participation in a clinical trial is precluded by a selection process, whereby in itself, decrease PCSM drastically and most PCa studies include either small percentages of non-White men, or focus on highly specific other groups [22, 23]. A recent SR also found that Black men without PCa seem to have higher baseline levels of PSA which could lead to over-detection, and further affect described differences [24].

A small subpopulation of all men with PCa, regardless of ethnicity, have true hereditary PCa (HPCA), defined as ≥ 3 cases in the same family, PCa in three successive generations, or ≥ 2 cases in the same family diagnosed < 55 yrs. In a Swedish population-based study, the probability of high-risk PCa at age 65 was 11.4% (vs. a population risk of 1.4%), and for any PCa 43.9% (vs. 4.8%) if the father as well as two brothers were affected [25]. HPCA was also, in a large USA population database, reported by 2.18% of participants, and showed a relative risk (RR) of 2.30 for diagnosis of any PCa, 3.93 for early-onset PCa, 2.21 for lethal PCa, and 2.32 for clinically significant PCa (csPCa) [26]. On the other hand, recent data from the UK even suggest an inverse association between PCSM and a stronger family history, likely attributed to higher awareness of the risks and adherence to screening [27]. For familial PCa, defined as ≥ 2 first- or second-degree relatives with PCa on the same side of the pedigree, or familial syndromes such as hereditary breast and ovarian cancer and Lynch syndrome, the risk is lower [25].

Table 3.1: Definition of familial and hereditary PCa

Type	Definition
Familial	2 first-degree relatives diagnosed with PCa at any age or 1 first-degree relative and ≥ 2 second-degree relatives diagnosed at any age.
Hereditary	≥ 3 cases in the same family, PCa in three successive generations, or ≥ 2 cases in the same family diagnosed < 55 yrs.

3.2.1.2 Germline mutations

Pathogenic germline mutations in the BRCA2 and HOXB13 genes, but also in the genes CHEK2, BRCA1, ATM, NBS1, and genes involved in Lynch syndrome, have been suggested to increase the risk of PCa [7]. Data from UK, on over 21,000 men without a PCa diagnosis, suggest that 1.6 % carry a pathogenic mutation in at least one of the genes BRCA2, HOXB13 or CHEK2. Even though germline mutations leading to PCa are relatively rare (1/300), the impact on PCa risk is quite strong, and the prevalence in patients with advanced PCa is high [28]. In a study on 3,607 unselected patients with PCa diagnosis as many as 17.2% contained a pathogenic mutation [29]. In men with PCa undergoing multigene testing across the USA, it was found that 15.6% of men with PCa have pathogenic variants identified in genes tested ([Breast Cancer genes] BRCA1, BRCA2, HOXB13, MLH1, MSH2, PMS2, MSH6, EPCAM, ATM, CHEK2, NBN, and TP53), and 10.9% of men have germline pathogenic variants in DNA repair genes (Table 3.2) [30]. Pathogenic variants were most commonly identified in BRCA2 (4.5%), CHEK2 (2.2%), ATM (1.8%), and BRCA1 (1.1%) [30].

Among men with metastatic PCa, an incidence of 11.8% was found for germline mutations in genes mediating DNA-repair processes [31], and for patients diagnosed with metastatic castrate-resistant PCa (mCRPC) the incidence was 16.2% [32]. Targeted genomic analysis of genes associated with an increased risk of PCa could offer options to identify families at high risk [33, 34].

A prospective cohort study of male BRCA1 and BRCA2 carriers confirmed BRCA2 association with aggressive PCa [35]. An analysis of the outcomes of 2,019 patients with PCa (18 BRCA1 carriers, 61 BRCA2 carriers, and 1,940 non-carriers) showed that PCa with germline BRCA1/2 mutations were more frequently associated with ISUP grade group (GG) ≥ 4 , stage T3/T4, nodal involvement, and metastases at diagnosis, than PCa in non-carriers [36]. BRCA-susceptibility gene mutation carriers were also reported to have worse outcome when compared to non-carriers after local therapy [37]. In a retrospective study of 313 patients who died of PCa and 486 patients with low-risk localised PCa, the combined BRCA1/2 and ATM mutation carrier rate was significantly higher in lethal PCa patients (6.1%) than in localised PCa patients (1.4%) [38]. The rate of PCa among BRCA1 carriers was more than twice as high (8.6% vs. 3.8%) compared to the general population, in contrast to findings of the prospective IMPACT study (Identification of Men with a Genetic Predisposition to Prostate Cancer) [39].

Table 3.2: Germline mutations in DNA repair genes associated with increased risk of PCa

Gene	Location	PCa risk	Findings
BRCA2	13q12.3	RR 2.5 to 4.6 [40, 41] - PCa at 55 years or under: RR: 8–23 [42, 43]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Up to 12 % of men with metastatic PCa harbour germline mutations in 16 genes (including BRCA2 [5.3%]) [31] • 2% of men with early-onset PCa harbour germline mutations in the BRCA2 gene [42] • BRCA2 germline alteration is an independent predictor of metastases and worse PCa-specific survival [36, 44]

<i>HOXB13</i>	17q21.2	OR 3.4–7.9 [33, 45]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Significantly higher PSA at diagnosis, higher Gleason score and higher incidence of positive surgical margins in the RP specimen than non-carriers [46]
<i>CHEK2</i>	22q12.1	OR 3.3 [40, 41]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Up to 12% of men with metastatic PCa harbour germline mutations in 16 genes (including <i>CHEK2</i> [1.9%]) [31]
<i>BRCA1</i>	17q21	RR: 1.8–3.8 at 65 years or under [47, 48]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher rates of lethal PCa among mutation carriers [38] • Up to 12% of men with metastatic PCa harbour germline mutations in 16 genes (including <i>BRCA1</i> [0.9%]) [31]
<i>ATM</i>	11q22.3	RR: 6.3 for metastatic PCa [31]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher rates of lethal PCa among mutation carriers [38] • Up to 12% of men with metastatic PCa harbour germline mutations in 16 genes (including <i>ATM</i> [1.6%]) [31]
<i>MMR genes</i> <i>MLH1</i> <i>MSH2</i> <i>MSH6</i> <i>PMS2</i>	3p21.3 2p21 2p16 7p22.2	RR: 3.7 [49]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutations in <i>MMR</i> genes are responsible for Lynch syndrome [50] • <i>MSH2</i> mutation carriers are more likely to develop PCa than other <i>MMR</i> gene mutation carriers [51]

BRCA2 = breast cancer gene 2; *HOXB13* = homeobox B13; *CHEK2* = checkpoint kinase 2; *BRCA1* = breast cancer gene 1; *ATM* = ataxia telangiectasia mutated; *GS* = Gleason score; *MMR* = mismatch repair; *MLH1* = mutL homolog 1; *MSH2* = mutS homolog 2; *MSH6* = mutS homolog 6; *OR* = odds ratio; *PMS2* = post-meiotic segregation increased 2; *PCa* = prostate cancer; *RP* = radical prostatectomy; *RR* = relative risk; *PSA* = prostate-specific antigen.

3.2.1.3 Genetic single nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs)

If germline genetic mutations are relatively rare, but with quite high impact on PCa risk, SNPs are very common, but each SNP has low impact on the risk of developing PCa [7]. Two hundred and sixty nine individual SNPs have been identified to be associated with PCa risk [52]. Although each individual SNP has a low impact on PCa risk, the additive effects of multiple alleles can cause substantial increased risk of developing PCa and are likely causative of a large proportion of hereditary PCa [53]. The additive effect of the different SNPs can be summed into polygenic risk scores (PRSs), which are directly associated with the absolute risk of developing PCa [19, 54]. However, so far there seems to be no additive prognostic value in the PRSs when added to PSA and PRSs can therefore not be used for risk stratification [53].

3.2.2 Non-hereditary risk factors for PCa

There are a number of risk factors for PCa, that are less determined by ethnicity and/or heredity, of which age is the most obvious [9]. Despite this, currently there are no known effective preventative dietary or pharmacological interventions.

3.2.2.1 Metabolic syndrome

The association between metabolic syndrome and PCa is not clear, with mixed results in various studies. There seems to be a weak association overall, but a slightly stronger in the sub-group of men with more aggressive disease [7]. The single components of metabolic syndrome (MetS) that have been strongest associated with a significantly greater risk of PCa are hypertension ($p = 0.035$) and waist circumference ≥ 102 cm ($p = 0.007$) [55].

3.2.2.1.1 Obesity

Within the Reduction by Dutasteride of Prostate Cancer Events (REDUCE) study, obesity was associated with lower risk of low-grade PCa (OR: 0.79, $p = 0.01$), and a higher risk of high-grade PCa (OR: 1.28, $p = 0.042$), in multivariable analyses [56]. This effect seems mainly explained by environmental determinants of height/body mass index (BMI) rather than genetically elevated height or BMI [57]. A SR showed an association between obesity and increased PC-specific mortality [58].

3.2.2.1.2 Diabetes/metformin

A SR from 2021 could not identify any association between diabetes type 2 and PCa [59]. The association between metformin use and PCa is controversial. At population level, metformin users (but not other oral hypoglycaemic agents) were found to be at a decreased risk of PCa diagnosis compared with never users (adjusted OR: 0.84; 95% CI: 0.74–0.96) [60]. In 540 diabetic participants of the REDUCE study, metformin use was not significantly associated with PCa and therefore not advised as a preventive measure (OR: 1.19, $p = 0.50$).

3.2.2.1.3 Cholesterol/statins

A meta-analysis of fourteen large prospective studies did not show any association between blood total cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels and the risk of developing either overall PCa or high-grade PCa [51]. Two meta-analysis suggested a lower risk of PCa overall (OR: 0.94) as well as advanced PCa in statin users [61, 62]. Pooled estimates indicated that the effect seemed to be exclusive to lipophilic statins [61].

3.2.2.2 Dietary factors

The association between a wide variety of dietary factors and PCa have been studied, but there is a paucity of quality evidence (Table 3.3). To date, the current body of evidence will not support a causal relationship between specific (dietary and otherwise) factors and the development of PCa. Consequently, no effective preventative strategies can be suggested.

Table 3.3: Main dietary factors that have been associated with PCa

Alcohol	High alcohol intake, but also total abstinence from alcohol has been associated with a higher risk of PCa and PCa-specific mortality [63]. A meta-analysis suggests a weak relationship with PCa [64].
Coffee/Tea	Coffee consumption may be associated with a reduced risk of PCa; with a pooled RR of 0.91 for the highest category of coffee consumption [65]. No clear association was found between tea consumption and PCa risk [7].
Dairy/Calcium	A SR suggests a correlation between high intake of protein from dairy products and the risk of PCa was found, but many of the included studies were affected by PSA screening bias [66].
Fat	No association between intake of long-chain omega-3 poly-unsaturated fatty acids and PCa was found [67]. A relation between intake of fried foods and risk of PCa may exist [68].
Tomatoes (lycopenes/ carotenes)	A trend towards a favourable effect of tomato intake (mainly cooked) and lycopenes on PCa incidence has been identified in meta-analyses [69, 70]. Randomised controlled trials comparing lycopene with placebo did not identify a significant decrease in the incidence of PCa [71].
Plant-based diets	A SR on the association between plant-based diets and PCa suggest a small beneficial impact on PCa risk [72]. Another SR/meta-analysis, including a total of 16 studies and > 1.2 million men, suggested a linear association between higher intake of cruciferous vegetables and a lower risk of PCa [73].
Meat	Meta-analyses show a potential association between red meat, total meat, and processed meat consumption and PCa [74, 75].
Fish	A SR/meta-analysis comparing men with high vs. low intake of fish over time could not find an association between fish intake and risk of PCa. However, there was a strong association with high intake of fish and PCSM (RR: 0.55), as well as PCa progression (RR: 0.84) [76].
Soy (phytoestrogens [isoflavones/ coumestans])	Phytoestrogen intake was significantly associated with a reduced risk of PCa in a meta-analysis [66]. Total soy food intake has been associated with a reduced risk of PCa [77].
Vitamin D	A U-shaped association has been observed, with both low- and high vitamin-D concentrations being associated with an increased risk of PCa, and more strongly for high-grade disease [69, 70].
Vitamin E/Selenium	An inverse association of blood, but mainly nail selenium levels (reflecting long-term exposure) with aggressive PCa have been found [78, 79]. Selenium and Vitamin E supplementation were, however, found not to affect PCa incidence [80].

3.2.2.3 Hormonally active medication

3.2.2.3.1 5-alpha-reductase inhibitors (5-ARIs)

Although it seems that 5-ARIs have the potential of preventing or delaying the development of PCa (decreasing the risk by 25% but only for ISUP GG 1 cancer), this must be weighed against treatment-related side effects as well as the potential small increased risk of high-grade PCas (although this does not seem to impact PCa

mortality) [81-83]. None of the available 5-ARIs have been approved by the European Medicines Agency (EMA) for chemoprevention.

3.2.2.3.2 Testosterone

Hypogonadal men receiving testosterone supplements do not have an increased risk of developing PCa [84]. A pooled analysis showed that men with very low concentrations of free testosterone (lowest 10%) have a below average risk (OR: 0.77) of PCa [85]. Furthermore, although the evidence is limited, men who are managed expectantly for PCa, or who received radical curative therapy, do not have worse outcomes when receiving testosterone supplementation, despite a theoretical higher risk of progression after correction of the hypogonadal situation [86].

3.2.2.4 Other potential risk factors

Taller height, potentially due to higher levels of insulin-like growth factor during puberty, and vertex pattern baldness, has been reported to be associated with an increased risk of PCa [7, 87].

A significantly higher rate of ISUP GG \geq 2 PCa (hazard ratio [HR]: 4.04) was found in men with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) when compared with the general population [88]. However, in a SR the results on IBD overall were mixed, except for the sub-group of ulcerative colitis, where a clear association could be seen [7].

Occupational exposure may also play a role. Increased occupational physical activity appears to reduce PCa risk while occupational exposure to chemicals and pesticides increases the risk [7]. Plasma concentration of the estrogenic insecticide chlordecone is associated with an increase in the risk of PCa (OR: 1.77 for highest tertile of values above the limit of detection) [89]. Meta-analyses indicate that night-shift work is associated with an increased risk of PCa in a dose-dependent manner [7, 90]. There has been reports of an increased risk among firefighters and policemen, but the studies showed great heterogeneity and the results may be hampered by a high rate of PSA testing among the included men. A meta-analysis on Cadmium (Cd) found a positive association (magnitude of risk unknown due to heterogeneity) between high Cd exposure and risk of PCa for occupational exposure, but not for non-occupational exposure, potentially due to higher Cd levels during occupational exposure [91].

Current cigarette smoking was associated with an increased risk of PCa death (RR: 1.24, 95% CI: 1.18–1.31) and with aggressive tumour features and worse prognosis, even after quitting smoking [92, 93].

Men positive for human papillomavirus-16 may be at increased risk [94], and gonorrhoea has been significantly associated with an increased incidence of PCa (OR: 1.31; 95% CI: 1.14–1.52) [95].

The use of aspirin or nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs seems to have a protective effect on the risk of PCa [7]. Ultraviolet radiation exposure also decreased the risk of PCa (HR: 0.91, 95% CI: 0.88–0.95) [96], and a review found a small but protective association of circumcision status with PCa [97]. Higher ejaculation frequency (\geq 21 times a month vs. 4 to 7 times) has been associated with a 20% lower risk of PCa [98]. A number of other factors previously linked to an increased risk of PCa have been disproved including vasectomy [99], and self-reported acne [100].

3.2.3 Summary of evidence for epidemiology and aetiology

Summary of evidence	LE
Prostate cancer is a major health concern in men, with incidence mainly dependent on age and extent of PSA testing.	3
Genetic factors are associated with risk of (aggressive) PCa.	3
A variety of dietary/exogenous/environmental factors have been associated with PCa incidence and prognosis.	3
In hypogonadal men, testosterone supplements do not increase the risk of PCa.	2a
No conclusive data exist which could support specific preventive or dietary measures aimed at reducing the risk of developing PCa.	1a

4. CLASSIFICATION AND STAGING SYSTEMS

4.1 Classification

The objective of a tumour classification system is to combine patients with a similar clinical outcome. This allows for discussion about prognosis with patients, the design of clinical trials on relatively homogeneous populations, the comparison of clinical and pathological data obtained from different hospitals across the world, and the development of recommendations for the treatment of these patient populations. Throughout these Guidelines the Union for International Cancer Control (UICC) 8th edition (2017), the Tumour, Node, Metastasis (TNM) classification for staging of PCa (Table 4.1) [101] and the EAU risk group classification are used [102]. The latter classification is based on the grouping of patients with a similar risk of biochemical recurrence (BCR) after radical prostatectomy (RP) or external beam radiotherapy (EBRT). Changes in the diagnostic pathway, such as imaging (e.g., MRI, Prostate-Specific Membrane Antigen [PSMA] Positron Emission Tomography Computed Tomography [PET/CT] scan) and biopsy (e.g., increasing number of systematic biopsy cores, targeted biopsy) may cause stage and grade shift altering the risk profile of any specific classification systems [103].

Although the 2017 American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) staging 8th edition specifically states that clinical staging should be based on digital rectal examination (DRE) only, such an explicit comment is not made by the UICC. Since clinical stage as assessed by DRE only, is included in the EAU (D'Amico) risk group classification, cT-stage should be based on DRE findings and not on imaging. Additional staging information based on imaging should be reported separately. A non-palpable PCa with bilateral positive biopsies and extra-prostatic extension (EPE) on MRI would therefore be categorised as cT1c with a separate report of MRI findings.

Table 4.1: Clinical Tumour Node Metastasis (TNM) classification of PCa [101]

T - Primary Tumour (stage based on digital rectal examination only)	
TX	Primary tumour cannot be assessed
T0	No evidence of primary tumour
T1	Clinically inapparent tumour that is not palpable
T1a	Tumour incidental histological finding in 5% or less of tissue resected
T1b	Tumour incidental histological finding in more than 5% of tissue resected
T1c	Tumour identified by needle biopsy (e.g. because of elevated prostate-specific antigen [PSA])
T2	Tumour that is palpable and confined within the prostate
T2a	Tumour involves one half of one lobe or less
T2b	Tumour involves more than half of one lobe, but not both lobes
T2c	Tumour involves both lobes
T3	Tumour extends palpably through the prostatic capsule
T3a	Extracapsular extension (unilateral or bilateral)
T3b	Tumour invades seminal vesicle(s)
T4	Tumour is fixed or invades adjacent structures other than seminal vesicles: external sphincter, rectum, levator muscles, and/or pelvic wall
N - Regional (pelvic) Lymph Nodes¹	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
M - Distant Metastasis²	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
M1a	Non-regional lymph node(s)
M1b	Bone(s)
M1c	Other site(s)

¹ Nodal metastasis no larger than 0.2 cm can be designated pNmi.

² When more than one site of metastasis is present, the most advanced category is used. (p)M1c is the most advanced category.

Pathological staging (pTNM) is based on histopathological tissue assessment and largely parallels the clinical TNM, except for clinical T1 and T2 substages. Pathological stages pT1a/b/c do not exist and histopathologically confirmed organ-confined PCas after RP are pathological stage pT2. The current UICC no longer recognises pT2 substages [101].

Of note, the EANM proposed a molecular imaging TNM ('miTNM') classification, taking into account PSMA PET/CT findings [104]. The prognosis of the miT, miN and miM substages is likely to be better than their T, N and M counterparts due to the 'Will Rogers phenomenon'; the extent of this prognosis shift remains to be assessed as well as its practical interest and impact [105]. This reclassification is not endorsed by the UICC or the AJCC.

4.2 Gleason score and International Society of Urological Pathology 2019 grade

In the original Gleason grading system, 5 Gleason grades (ranging from 1–5) based on histological tumour architecture were distinguished, but in the 2005 and subsequent 2014 ISUP consensus meetings Gleason grades 1 and 2 were eliminated [106, 107]. The 2005 ISUP modified Gleason score (GS) of biopsy-detected PCa comprises the Gleason grade of the most extensive (primary) pattern, plus the second most common (secondary) pattern, if two are present. If only one pattern is present, it needs to be doubled to yield the GS. For three grades, the biopsy GS comprises the most common grade plus the highest grade, irrespective of its extent. In case intraductal carcinoma (IDC) is present intermixed with invasive PCa, it should be incorporated in the GS based on its underlying architectural pattern [108]. In addition to reporting of the carcinoma features for each biopsy site, it is optional to provide an overall (or global) GS based on all carcinoma-positive biopsies. The global GS takes into account the cumulative extent of each grade from all prostate biopsies. The 2014 and 2019 ISUP endorsed a grading system limiting the number of PCa grades, ranging them from 1 to 5 (Table 4.2) [107, 109].

Table 4.2: International Society of Urological Pathology 2014 grade group system

Gleason score	ISUP grade group
2-6	1
7 (3+4)	2
7 (4+3)	3
8 (4+4 or 3+5 or 5+3)	4
9-10 (4+5 or 5+4 or 5+5)	5

4.3 Clinically significant prostate cancer

The descriptor 'clinically significant' is widely used to differentiate PCa that may cause morbidity or death in a specific patient from types of PCa that rarely do. This distinction is particularly important as insignificant PCa is common [9]. Unless this distinction is made, such cancers are at high risk of being over-treated, with the treatment itself risking harmful side effects to patients. The over-treatment of insignificant PCas has also been criticised as a major drawback of population-based screening and individual early detection [110]. Although pathological factors are often used to delineate insignificant PCa, the definition of significant vs. insignificant is a balance between tumour and patient factors. High-risk PCa is significant in almost all men, except when life expectancy is limited. Low-risk PCa is insignificant in almost all men.

From a pathological point of view, in large studies of RP specimens with only ISUP GG 1 disease, EPE (0.3%) [111] and biochemical recurrence (3.5%) were rare, and seminal vesicle (SV) invasion or lymph node (LN) metastasis did not occur at all [112, 113]. International Society of Urological Pathology GG 1 disease at RP itself can therefore be considered clinically insignificant. Whilst ISUP GG 1 bears the hallmarks of cancer histologically, ISUP GG 1 at RP itself does not behave in a clinically malignant fashion [114]. It is important to note that the studies showing absence of metastasis in ISUP GG 1 were all done on RP specimens. Men with biopsy ISUP GG 1 who are operated for their disease have a low risk of post-operative BCR, metastasis and disease-specific death, particularly in case of high tumour biopsy volume and PSA levels, due to under-sampling of a higher-grade component [115]. In a contemporary retrospective study of men with cT1-T2 cN0 ISUP GG 1 PCa at mpMRI-targeted biopsy, 72% had ISUP GG \geq 2, 9% ISUP GG \geq 3, 25% had pT3a and 4% pT3b at subsequent RP [116]. In a Danish population-based registry study including men with localised biopsy ISUP GG 1 PCa diagnosed after 2006, 15-year prostate cancer specific mortality (PCSM) was 1-4% for those initially treated by RP or RT, 5.5% for those on AS, and 14% for those commenced on WW [117]. Finally, modifications in PCa grading has led to a grade shift during the past ten to fifteen years; for instance the introduction of the ISUP 2005 led to 20% of pre-ISUP 2005 GS 6 tumours being upgraded to GS 7 or higher, which has to be taken into account when interpreting older studies [118].

The current standard practice of MRI-targeted and systematic template biopsies has improved diagnostic accuracy [119], however sampling error may still occur such that higher grade cancer could be missed. This should especially be considered in case of high PSA density, high pathological biopsy tumour volume and a visible lesion at MRI, but only ISUP GG 1 at biopsy [120, 121]. Another complexity in defining insignificant cancer is that ISUP GG 1 may progress to higher grades over time, becoming clinically significant at a later biopsy [122], at a rate of approximately 1% per year.

Therefore, although ISUP GG 1 itself can be described as clinically insignificant, it is important to take into account other factors, including age, imaging prior to biopsy and adequate sampling core number [115]. When combined with low-risk clinical factors (Table 4.3), ISUP GG 1 represents low-risk PCa and recommended management options are active surveillance (AS) or watchful waiting (WW) (see sections 6.2.1.1 & 6.2.1.2).

Epidemiological and autopsy data suggest that a proportion of ISUP GG 2 PCa would remain undetectable during a man's life [123] and therefore may be over-treated. In current guidelines deferred treatment may be offered to select patients with intermediate-risk PCa [124], but clear evidence is lacking for appropriate selection criteria [125].

Recent papers have defined clinically significant cancer differently, commonly using ISUP GG 2 and above and even ISUP GG 3 and above, demonstrating the lack of consensus and evolution of its definition [126, 127]. Some papers provide more than one definition within a single study [128, 129]. Since there is insufficient data to relate modern histological grading to hard clinical endpoints, it is imperative that authors define and state in their own studies what they believe csPCa is, including exactly how the disease was diagnosed.

Table 4.3: EAU risk groups for biochemical recurrence of localised and locally-advanced prostate cancer (based on systematic biopsy)

Definition				
Low-risk	Intermediate-risk		High-risk	
	Favourable	Unfavourable		
ISUP grade 1 and PSA < 10 ng/mL and cT1-2a*	ISUP grade 2 and PSA < 10 ng/ml and cT1-2b* Or ISUP grade 1 and PSA 10 – 20 ng/ml and cT1-2b* Or ISUP grade 1 and PSA < 10 ng/ml and cT2b*	ISUP grade 2 and PSA 10 – 20 ng/ml and cT1-2b* Or ISUP grade 3 and cT1-2b*	ISUP grade 4/5 Or PSA > 20 ng/ml Or cT2c*	cT3-4* and/or cN+** any ISUP grade* any PSA
Localised				Locally advanced

GS = Gleason score; ISUP = International Society for Urological Pathology; PSA = prostate-specific antigen.

* Based on digital rectal examination.

** Based on CT/bone scan.

4.4 Prognostic relevance of stratification

Tumour, Node, Metastasis (TNM) staging is a schematic representation of anatomic tumour extent and pathological grade is reflective of intrinsic features of tumour aggressiveness. EAU risk group classification, which is essentially based on D'Amico's classification system for PCa, combines clinical information on tumour extent, PSA and pathology from systematic biopsy (Table 4.3). A more precise stratification of the clinically heterogeneous subset of intermediate-risk group patients could provide a better framework for their management [130, 131]. Specifically, the NCCN Guidelines subdivide intermediate-risk disease into favourable and unfavourable intermediate-risk, with unfavourable features including ISUP GG 3, and/or ≥ 50% positive systematic biopsy cores and/or at least two intermediate-risk factors [124]. In 2016, Cambridge Prognostic Groups representing a 5-tier model based on ISUP GG, PSA and cT-stage were shown to have significantly better discriminative performance than current 3-tier EAU risk groups for prostate cancer specific mortality [132]. This model separates both EAU intermediate- and high-risk groups in clinically relevant subgroups and has been validated in several cohorts [132-134].

Increasing granularity, such as in NCCN and CPG, improves model performance in prediction PCSM compared to the EAU risk classification [135, 136]. Although the optimal risk stratification system remains to be defined, separation of the EAU intermediate-risk group into favourable and unfavourable intermediate-risk based on PSA and ISUP GG is recommended. It should be noted that studies comparing model performance are retrospective and prognostic, while initial risk stratification, inclusion criteria and therapeutic decisions were mainly based on EAU risk groups.

4.5 Recommendations for classification and staging systems

Recommendations	Strength rating
Use the Tumour, Node, Metastasis (TNM) classification for staging of PCa.	Strong
Clinical stage should be based on digital rectal examination only; additional staging information based on imaging should be reported separately.	Strong
Use the International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) 2019 system for grading of PCa.	Strong

5. DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION

5.1 Screening and individual early detection

The diagnostic pathway for PCa aims for timely detection of significant PCa, while leaving insignificant PCa undetected, balancing diagnostic accuracy with the burden on an individual and healthcare provider. Patient-specific factors such as lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS), family history, age, and comorbidity should always be considered.

Men may enter the diagnostic pathway through different indications, including clinical symptoms, opportunistic early detection (individual), or screening (population-based). The prevalence of PCa and significant PCa is different dependent on the indication, resulting in different yields of the subsequent diagnostic pathway.

5.1.1 Prostate-specific antigen (PSA)

Regardless of which pathway a patient goes through to his PCa diagnosis, a PSA test will be part of it. For more info on PSA, its production, function and sources of error in PSA assessment see section 5.2.2.

5.1.2 Clinical Symptoms

Symptoms usually occur late in the natural history of PCa and localised PCa is therefore usually asymptomatic. Local progression may cause symptoms such as LUTS, erectile dysfunction (ED), retention, pain, haemospermia, or haematuria. Bone metastases may cause pain or spinal cord compression. Digital rectal examination (DRE) and PSA are usually part of the initial diagnostic work-up in these cases, after which a further diagnostic algorithm may be initiated. Definitive diagnosis normally depends on histopathological verification in prostate biopsy cores. However, men with high suspicion of malignancy (e.g., malignant feeling prostate, PSA >100 ng/mL and a positive bone scan might avoid a biopsy especially if pre-existing co-morbidities would exclude second-line treatments.

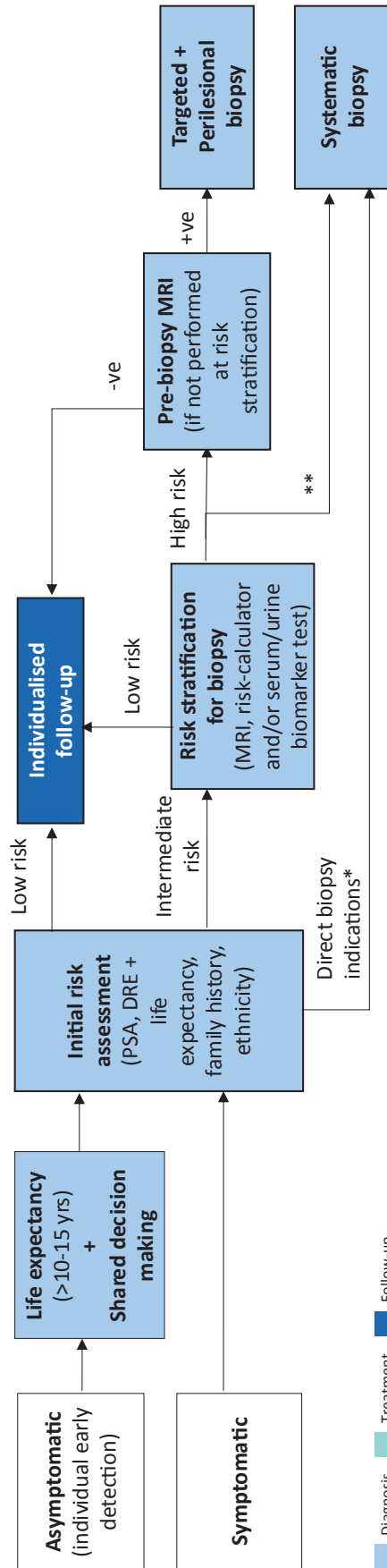
5.1.3 Individual early detection

Early detection may be initiated on an individual level, with or without concurring LUTS. As increasing age is a major risk factor for PCa there is very little point in starting diagnostic evaluation too early. In men with no other risk factors, the risk of having a clinically significant PCa (csPCa) under the age of 50 years, is extremely low; therefore, early testing with PSA can be recommended from 50 years. For men with a family history of PCa and for men of African descent the corresponding age for testing is 45 years (see section 3.2.1.1), and for men carrying BRCA2 mutations 40 years [137, 138]. The risk of detecting clinically insignificant cancers, leading to possible overtreatment, should be discussed along with the possibility of improved disease-specific mortality. It is difficult to accurately estimate the individual benefit or harm due to early detection for the individual man, but the effect may be larger as diluting effects from intention-to-treat analyses in screening trials are not applicable (i.e., non-participation: no participation after screening invitation; contamination: screening occurring in control arm) [139]. Nevertheless, a comparison of systematic and opportunistic screening suggested over-diagnosis and mortality reduction in the systematic screening group compared to a higher over-diagnosis with only a marginal survival benefit, at best, in the opportunistic screening regimen [140].

Even though the risk of having csPCa is low, a baseline PSA may be used to predict PCa mortality after 12-20 years and can therefore be used to guide the frequency of follow-up. The risk of dying from PCa by age 85 is $\leq 0.2\%$ for 60-year-old men with PSA concentration below the median of ≤ 1.0 ng/mL [141]. Follow-up intervals of 8-10 years may be offered to a majority of men up to the age of 60, and 50% of the men may be reassured and exempted from further screening after the age of 60 years. Follow-up intervals of two years may be offered to those initially at risk (PSA > 1 ng/mL at 40 years; PSA $> 1(-2)$ ng/mL at 60 years) [142-144].

The age at which attempts of an early diagnosis should be stopped remains controversial, but an individual's life expectancy must be taken into account. Asymptomatic men who have less than a fifteen-year life expectancy are unlikely to benefit from an early diagnosis of prostate cancer, based on data from the Prostate Cancer Intervention Versus Observation Trial (PIVOT) and the European Randomized Screening for Prostate Cancer (ERSPC) trials [145]. However, a large proportion of them have prostate cancer that will not cause serious symptoms during their lifetime, meaning the risk of overdiagnosis is high. An even larger proportion have elevated PSA levels due to benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH), leading to investigations and follow-ups. Therefore, men with a life span of less than 10-15 years should not be PSA tested in the absence of symptoms or clinical signs of prostate cancer. Nevertheless, there is no simple tool to evaluate individual life expectancy and co-morbidity is at least as important as age. A detailed review can be found in section 6.1 'Estimating life expectancy and health status' and in the SIOG Guidelines [146]. Informed men with one of the risk factors above (including age), a life expectancy of > 15 years and requesting investigation should be given a PSA test and undergo a DRE, after which a further diagnostic algorithm may be initiated [147].

Figure 5.1 Presents a flow diagram for deciding on prostate biopsy



* PSA >50, cT3-4

** If MRI not available/possible

5.1.4 Population-based screening

Population or mass screening is defined as the 'systematic examination of asymptomatic men to identify individuals at risk for a specific disease' and is usually initiated by health authorities. The co-primary objectives are:

- reduction in mortality due to PCa;
- a maintained quality of life (QoL) as expressed by QoL-adjusted gain in life years (QALYs).

Screening for PCa remains one of the most controversial topics in the urological literature [148]. A Cochrane review of randomised PCa screening trials with PCa mortality as endpoint was published in 2013 [149] and updated in 2018 [150, 151]. The main findings of the updated publication from the results of five RCTs, randomising more than 721,718 men, are:

- Screening is associated with an increased diagnosis of PCa (Incidence ratio [IR]: 1.23, 95% CI: 1.03 - 1.48).
- Screening is associated with detection of more localised disease (RR: 1.39, [1.09–1.79]) and less advanced PCa (T3–4, N1, M1; RR: 0.85 [0.72–0.99]).
- No PCa-specific survival benefit was observed (IR: 0.96 [0.85–1.08]). This was the main endpoint in all trials.
- No overall survival (OS) benefit was observed (IR: 0.99, 95% CI: 0.98–1.01). None of the trials were designed/ powered for this endpoint.

The included studies are different regarding multiple aspects including trial size, time periods, age groups, participation/compliance rates, previous screening rates (opportunistic testing in control arm, 'contamination'), one-time screening (i.e., prevalence screening, where patients are invited for PSA test at one time only) vs. repeat screening (where patients are repeatedly invited for PSA-testing over time), and the applied diagnostic pathway. These differences account for discrepancies in results between single studies and the Cochrane review aggregated findings.

Two studies showed a favourable impact of screening: ERSPC and CAP. The latter, after 15 years follow-up, showed a small, but significant, reduction in PCSM, despite being only a one-time PSA screening [152].

The ERSPC study started in the early 90s, which included > 182,000 European men, found a significant reduction in PCa mortality due to screening. ERSPC applied a mainly PSA-based screening protocol (cut-off 3.0–4.0 ng/mL followed by systematic sextant prostate biopsy, every two to four years in men aged 50–74) [145]. The contamination rate was relatively low when compared to other large studies such as the Prostate Lung Colorectal and Ovarian (PLCO) screening trial [145]. A limitation is the heterogeneity in patient groups and the applied screening protocols. Since 2013, data have been updated with sixteen years of follow-up [145]. With extended follow-up, the mortality reduction (21% and 29% after non-compliance adjustment) remains unchanged. However, the number needed to screen (NNS) and to treat is decreasing and is now below the NNS observed in breast cancer trials [145, 153] (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Follow-up data from the ERSPC study [145]

Years of follow-up	Number needed to screen	Number needed to treat
9	1,410	48
11	979	35
13	781	27
16	570	18

In the Rotterdam section of the ERSPC, with 21 years follow-up, the risk ratio of death due to PCa was 0.73 in the screening group, with number needed to invite of 246 and number needed to diagnose (NND) of fourteen to prevent one death due to PCa [154]. To prevent one metastasized case NNS was 121 and NND seven.

In the Goteborg screening trial, with eighteen years of follow-up, the ratio of death from PCa for the screening group compared with the control group was 0.65 (95% CI: 0.49–0.87) and for men commencing screening at age 55–59 it was 0.47 (95% CI: 0.29–0.78) [155]. The number needed to invite was 231; the NND ten. After 22 years of follow-up the corresponding NNS was 221 and NND was nine, and the highest risk of PCSM was for men who started screening at the age of 60 years, and for non-attenders [156].

The benefit of screening in reducing PCa-specific mortality (PCSM) and the even more favourable impact on metastases rates, is counter-balanced by the side effects of screening such as increased diagnosis rates, which has led to over-treatment of low-risk PCa, and subsequent treatment-related side-effects [157]. Regarding QoL, the beneficial effects of screening and the side effects seem to balance out, resulting in limited overall impact on the invited population [157, 158].

Recognition of the harms of over-diagnosis and over-treatment had led to a redesign in the pathway for early detection of PCa including identification of specific risk groups, individualised re-testing interval, improved indication for biopsy using risk calculators and/or MRI, targeted biopsies, and the application of AS for low-risk disease.

After a negative screening, PSA measurement and DRE need to be repeated [159], but the optimal intervals for PSA testing and DRE follow-up are unknown as they varied between several prospective screening trials. A risk-adapted strategy might be a consideration, based on the initial PSA level. Men with a baseline PSA < 1 ng/mL at 40 years or < 2 ng/mL at 60 years are at decreased risk of PCa metastasis or death from PCa several decades later [50, 143]. The retesting interval can therefore be every two years for those initially at increased risk or postponed up to eight years for those at low-risk [143, 160].

An analysis of ERSPC data supports a recommendation for an eight-year screening interval in men with an initial PSA concentration < 1 ng/mL; fewer than 1% of men with an initial PSA concentration < 1 ng/mL were found to have a concentration above the biopsy threshold of 3 ng/mL at four-year follow-up; the cancer detection rate by eight years was close to 1% [161]. The long-term survival and QoL benefits of extended PSA re-testing (every eight years) remain to be proven at a population level.

5.1.5 Screening in patients with BRCA mutations

The IMPACT study evaluates targeted PCa screening using PSA in men aged 40–69 years with germline *BRCA1/2* mutations (annually, biopsy recommended if PSA > 3.0 ng/mL). After three years of screening, *BRCA2* mutation carriers were associated with a higher incidence of PCa, a younger age of diagnosis, and more clinically significant tumours compared with non-carriers [138, 162]. The influence of *BRCA1* mutations on PCa remained unclear. No differences in age or tumour characteristics were detected between *BRCA1* carriers and *BRCA1* non-carriers. The mismatch repair cohort of IMPACT in men with *MSH2* and *MSH6* pathogenic variants found a higher incidence of significant PCa vs. non-carriers [163].

5.1.6 Recommendations for individual early detection

Recommendations	Strength rating
Do not subject men to prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing without counselling them on the potential risks and benefits.	Strong
Offer an individualised risk-adapted strategy for early detection to a well-informed man with a life-expectancy of at least fifteen years.	Weak
Offer early PSA testing to well-informed men at elevated risk of having PCa: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> men from 50 years of age; men from 45 years of age and a family history of PCa; men of African descent from 45 years of age; men carrying <i>breast cancer gene 2 (BRCA2)</i> mutations from 40 years of age. 	Strong
Offer a risk-adapted strategy (based on initial PSA level), with follow-up intervals of two years for those initially at risk: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> men with a PSA level of > 1 ng/mL at 40 years of age; men with a PSA level of > 2 ng/mL at 60 years of age; Postpone follow-up up to eight years in those not at risk.	Weak
Stop early diagnosis of PCa based on life expectancy and performance status; men who have a life-expectancy of less than fifteen years are unlikely to benefit.	Strong

5.1.7 Genetic testing for inherited prostate cancer

Increasing evidence supports the implementation of genetic counselling and germline testing in early detection and PCa management [164]. Several commercial screening panels are now available to assess the main PCa risk genes [165]. However, it remains unclear when germline testing should be considered and how this may impact localised and metastatic disease management. Germline *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* mutations occur in approximately 0.2% to 0.3% of the general population [28, 166]. It is important to understand the difference between somatic testing, which is performed on the tumour, and germline testing, which is performed on blood or saliva and identifies inherited mutations. Genetic counselling is required prior to and after undergoing germline testing.

Germline mutations can drive the development of aggressive PCa. Therefore, the consensus is the following men, with a personal or family history of PCa or other cancer types arising from DNA repair gene mutations should be considered for germline testing:

- Men with metastatic PCa who are candidates for targeted treatment;
- Men with *BRCA* mutations on somatic testing;
- Men with multiple family members diagnosed with csPCa at age < 60 years or a family member who died from PCa;
- Men with a family history of high-risk germline mutations or a family history of multiple cancers on the same side of the family.

Further research in this field (including not so well-known germline mutations) is needed to develop screening, early detection and treatment paradigms for mutation carriers and family members.

5.1.8 Recommendations for germline testing*

Recommendations	Strength rating
Consider germline testing in men with multiple family members diagnosed with PCa at age < 60 years or a family member who died from PCa.	Weak
Offer germline testing in men with a family history of high-risk germline mutations or a family history of multiple cancers on the same side of the family.	Strong
Offer germline testing to patients with <i>BRCA</i> mutations on somatic testing.	Strong

*Genetic counselling is required prior to germline testing.

5.2 Diagnostic tools

Different diagnostic tools are available for the diagnosis of prostate cancer (PCa). These can be used separately, or in multiple-tier combinations and/or sequences. Usually, diagnosis is confirmed histopathologically using prostate biopsy.

5.2.1 Digital rectal examination

In ~18% of cases, PCa is detected by suspect DRE alone, irrespective of PSA level [167]. A suspect DRE in patients with a PSA level ≤ 4 ng/mL has a positive predictive value (PPV) of 5–30% [167]. In the ERSPC trial, an abnormal DRE in conjunction with an elevated PSA more than doubled the risk of a positive biopsy (48.6% vs. 22.4%) [168]. Abnormal DRE is an indication for MRI, or direct biopsy in case of suspicion of extracapsular disease (cT3-4) [168, 169]. An abnormal DRE is associated with an increased risk of a higher ISUP GG (GG), predicts clinically significant PCa in men under active surveillance (AS) [170] and remains a strong predictor of advanced PCa (OR: 11.12 for cT3 and OR: 5.28 for cT4) [171]. Clinical T staging, as well as current EAU risk group stratification depends on DRE.

5.2.2 Prostate-specific antigen

Prostate-specific antigen is a glycoprotein enzyme secreted by prostate epithelial cells with a small portion present in the blood stream. It is the primary test in the suspicion of PCa. Its use as a serum marker has revolutionised PCa diagnosis [172]. Prostate-specific antigen is organ- but not cancer specific; therefore, it may also be elevated in BPH, prostatitis and other non-malignant conditions. There are no agreed standards for defining abnormal PSA thresholds [173]. It is a continuous parameter, with higher levels indicating greater likelihood of PCa. Some men may harbour PCa despite having low serum PSA [174]. Table 5.2 demonstrates the occurrence of any PCa and ISUP GG ≥ 2 PCa in systematic biopsies at low PSA levels.

Table 5.2: Risk of PCa identified by systemic PCa biopsy in relation to low prostate-specific antigen values [174]

PSA level (ng/mL)	Risk of PCa (%)	Risk of ISUP grade ≥ 2 PCa (%)
0.0–0.5	6.6	0.8
0.6–1.0	10.1	1.0
1.1–2.0	17.0	2.0
2.1–3.0	23.9	4.6
3.1–4.0	26.9	6.7

In a screening situation, the most frequently applied threshold for PSA is ≥ 3.0 ng/ml, resulting in 16.5% of invited men returning a positive test [175]. The risk of finding PCa at a specific PSA threshold in a clinical cohort may be different than in a screening situation, due to differences in cancer prevalence, protocol for referral, and diagnostic algorithm. Prostate-specific antigen retains its diagnostic value for cancer detection in symptomatic/referred patients. A review and meta-analysis on the diagnostic accuracy of PSA (≥ 4.0 ng/ml) for the detection of PCa in clinically referred men found an estimated combined sensitivity of 0.93 and specificity of 0.20 [176].

Prostate-specific antigen production is androgen dependent and 5 α -reductase inhibitors (e.g., finasteride, dutasteride), used for benign prostatic enlargement of the prostate, reduce PSA levels by 50% [177]. In such cases, PSA level should be corrected to decide about further investigation, although PSA-density is less impacted as prostate volume decreases concomitantly.

In case of a moderately elevated PSA, a repeat test after a few weeks should be considered to confirm the indication for further diagnostic analysis, as one-third of men with a PSA < 10 ng/ml had a difference of greater than ± 1.0 ng/ml at the second measurement [178]. Within 1-2 months PSA drops to below 3 ng/mL in about one-fifth of men,

A repeat PSA test before prostate biopsies in men with an initial PSA 3–10 ng/mL reduced the indication for biopsies in 16.8% of men while missing 5.4% ISUP GG > 1 in the Stockholm3 trial [179]. Similarly, in the Prostate Testing for Cancer and Treatment (ProtecT) trial men with a more than 20% lower repeat-PSA analysis within seven weeks had a lower risk of PCa (OR: 0.43, 95% CI: 0.35–0.52) as well as a lower risk of ISUP GG ≥ 2 (OR: 0.29, 95% CI: 0.19–0.44) [180]. Based on the above, a PSA of 3-10 ng/mL, in men without suspicious palpation findings, should prompt a second PSA test after 4 weeks. If the PSA has normalised, a new PSA test can be performed after one year.

Repeat PSA should be performed in the same laboratory using the same assay under standardised conditions (i.e., no ejaculation, manipulations, and urinary tract infections [UTIs]) [181, 182]. The type of PSA assay used may impact PSA values and rates of PSA above certain fixed thresholds [183]. Table 5.3 presents sources of error in PSA value assessment.

Table 5.3: Sources of error in PSA value assessment

Sources of error in PSA value assessment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intra-individual variation: PSA values can vary by $\pm 15\%$ [184]. • Measurement method: Variations exist between laboratories (up to approximately 5%). • Sample handling: Proper handling is crucial, with specific stability timelines for centrifuged samples. • (Febrile) urinary tract infection: Infections can cause very high PSA values (> 100 ng/mL), taking up to a year to normalise [185, 186]. • Acute urinary retention: This condition moderately increases PSA values [187]. • Biopsy: PSA tests should be delayed for at least a month after biopsies [188]. • Hypogonadism: PSA production depends on testosterone levels, affecting PSA values in men with low testosterone [189, 190]. • Prostate-specific antigen production is androgen dependent and 5α-reductase inhibitors (e.g., finasteride, dutasteride), used for benign prostatic enlargement of the prostate, reduce PSA levels by 50% [177]. • DRE does not affect PSA value [191].

5.2.3 **Prostate-specific antigen density**

Prostate-specific antigen density (PSA-D) is the level of serum PSA divided by the prostate volume. The higher the PSA-D, the more likely clinically significant PCa is present; in particular in smaller prostates when a PSA-D cut-off of 0.15 ng/mL/cc was applied [195]. Several studies found a PSA-D over 0.1-0.15 ng/mL/cc predictive of PCa [192, 193]. Patients with a PSA-D below 0.09 ng/mL/cc were found unlikely (4%) to be diagnosed with csPCa [194]. PSA-D is also one of the strongest predictors incorporated in risk calculators for biopsy decisions [195].

PSA-D based on volume estimation assessed by DRE is imperfect due to an underestimation of prostate volume [196]. Using imaging, a lack of standardisation of prostate volume estimation exists as TRUS or MRI use various techniques such as ellipsoid formula or planimetry. Nonetheless, one study involving seven radiologists who assessed prostate volume on 40 MRI scans using two different ellipsoid methods and a manual planimetry method suggested that intra and inter-reader reproducibility of the three methods were excellent with intraclass correlation coefficient > 0.90 [197]. In a series of 640 men, TRUS found prostate volumes on average 8% smaller than MRI; in the 109 men who underwent RP, MRI-derived prostate volume was better correlated to the volume of the surgical specimen than TRUS-derived volume [198].

Transabdominal ultrasound evaluation of prostate volume is discouraged due to an overestimation of the prostate volume by 9.9 ml [199].

PSA-D remains predictive for csPCa when combined with MRI PIRADS scores [200, 201].

5.2.4 **Imaging**

5.2.4.1 *Magnetic resonance imaging*

Prostate MRI combines different imaging sequences to identify PCa accurately. MRI is initiated after suspicion of PCa, based on PSA and/or DRE. Besides suggesting the presence of PCa, imaging also allows guidance in targeted prostate biopsy and provides staging information.

Prostate cancer appears as areas with low signal intensity on T2-weighted imaging, restriction of diffusion on diffusion-weighted imaging, and early and intense enhancement on dynamic contrast enhanced imaging. However, there is substantial overlap between the appearances of PCa and some prostate benign conditions. The Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System (PI-RADS) standardises interpretation and stratifies men with suspected PCa on a 1- to 5- risk scale of having csPCa [202, 203].

Correlation with RP specimens shows good sensitivity for MRI in the detection and localising of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers, especially when their diameter is larger than 10 mm [182]. MRI is less sensitive in identifying ISUP grade 1 PCa [204-207]. The good sensitivity of MRI for ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer was further confirmed in patients who underwent template biopsies. In a Cochrane meta-analysis which compared MRI to template biopsies (≥ 20 cores) in biopsy-naïve and repeat-biopsy settings, MRI had a pooled sensitivity of 0.91 (95% CI: 0.83–0.95) and a pooled specificity of 0.37 (95% CI: 0.29–0.46) for ISUP grade ≥ 2 cancers. For ISUP grade ≥ 3 cancers, MRI pooled sensitivity and specificity were 0.95 (95% CI: 0.87–0.99) and 0.35 (95% CI: 0.26–0.46), respectively [208].

5.2.4.2 *Transrectal ultrasound and ultrasound-based techniques*

Standard TRUS is not reliable at detecting PCa [209] and the diagnostic yield of additional biopsies performed on hypoechoic lesions is negligible [210]. New sonographic modalities such as micro-Doppler, sonoelastography or contrast-enhanced US provided promising preliminary findings, either alone, or combined into the so-called 'multi-parametric US' [211, 212]. In the multi-parametric US vs. multi-parametric MRI to diagnose PCa (CADMUS) trial, 306 patients underwent both multi-parametric MRI and multi-parametric US composed of B-mode, Colour Doppler, real-time elastography, and contrast-enhanced US. Patients with at least one positive test underwent targeted biopsy. Multi-parametric US detected 4.3% fewer csPCa while submitting 11.1% more patients to biopsy than MRI [213].

High-resolution micro-US shows improved spatial resolution but struggles to assess the anterior part of large prostates. Two prospective trials assessed MRI and micro-US interpreted in a blinded manner before combined targeted and systematic biopsy. In one, MRI and micro-US detected respectively 60 (76%) and 58 (73%) of the 79 csPCas, while systematic sampling detected 45/79 cases (57%). MRI-targeted biopsy detected seven csPCas missed by micro-US; of these three were anterior lesions. Micro-US-guided biopsy detected five csPCas missed by MRI; of these, three were at the apex [214]. In the other study, MRI- and micro-US-targeted biopsy depicted csPCa in 37 (39%) and 33 (35%) of the 94 men, respectively while the MRI- plus micro-US-targeted pathway detected 38 csPCa [215]. These findings suggest that MRI and micro-US could complement each other. Micro-US could also be an interesting alternative to MRI/fusion since biopsy operators who are aware of MRI findings can localise most MRI lesions on micro-US and, thus, target them with direct US image guidance [216]. Of note, evaluation of micro-US inter-operator variability is currently lacking.

5.2.4.3 Prostate-specific membrane antigen-Positron emission tomography/Computed tomography (or Magnetic resonance imaging)

Though mainly used for staging purposes, PSMA-PET/CT (or -PET/MRI) prostate expression may be used to indicate and target biopsies. For csPCa detection, a pooled sensitivity of 0.89 and a pooled specificity of 0.56 have been reported [217]. In a prospective trial of 291 patients, combined PSMA + MRI improved negative predictive value (NPV) compared with MRI alone (91% vs. 72%, test ratio = 1.27 [1.11–1.39], $p < 0.001$). Sensitivity also improved (97% vs. 83%, $p < 0.001$), but specificity was reduced (40% vs. 53%, $p = 0.011$) [127].

5.2.5 Blood and urine biomarkers

Urine and serum biomarkers as well as tissue-based biomarkers have been proposed for improving detection and risk stratification of PCa patients, potentially avoiding unnecessary biopsies. However, further studies are necessary to validate their efficacy [218]. It may be noted that most of the tests are validated against only a few of the available clinical parameters and risk factors used in the risk assessment of a patient, such as family history, previous biopsy results and PSA-tests, results of DRE, ratio of free PSA to total PSA (f/t PSA) and other biomarkers, and PSA density. Furthermore, it has been shown that f/t PSA does not add any value in discriminating for csPCa if you know the PSA density [219].

5.2.5.1 Blood based biomarkers: PHI/4K score/IsoPSA/Stockholm3/Proclarix

The use of biomarkers (included in a nomogram) may help in predicting indolent PCa [220, 221]. Several assays measuring a panel of kallikreins in serum or plasma are now commercially available, including the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved Prostate Health Index (PHI) test (combining free and total PSA and the [-2]pro-PSA isoform [p2PSA]), and the four kallikrein (4K) score test (measuring free, intact and total PSA and kallikrein-like peptidase 2 [hK2] in addition to other parameters age, DRE and prior biopsy status). Both tests are intended to reduce the number of unnecessary prostate biopsies in PSA-tested men. A few prospective multi-centre studies demonstrated that both the PHI and 4K score test out-performed f/t PSA for PCa detection, with an improved prediction of csPCa in men with a PSA between 2–10 ng/mL [222, 223]. In a head-to-head comparison both tests performed equally [224].

In contrast to the 4K score and PHI, which focus on the concentration of PSA isoforms, IsoPSA utilises a technology which focuses on the structure of PSA. In a multi-centre prospective validation in 271 men the assay area under curve (AUC) was 0.784 for high-grade vs. low-grade cancer/benign histology, which was superior to the AUCs of total PSA and percent free PSA [208]. In men with a negative mpMRI, PSA-D, 4K score and family history predicted the risk of csPCa on biopsy and using a nomogram reduced the number of negative biopsies and indolent cancers by 47% and 15%, respectively, while missing 10% of csPCa [225].

The Stockholm3 test is a prediction model that is based on several clinical variables (age, first-degree family history of PCa, and previous biopsy), blood biomarkers (total PSA, f/t PSA, human kallikrein 2, macrophage inhibitory cytokine-1, and *microseminoprotein-β* [MSMB]), and a polygenic risk score for predicting the risk of PCa with ISUP GG ≥ 2 , and was shown to reduce the percent of clinically insignificant cancers when used in combination with MRI in a PSA screening population [226]. It also has the potential to decrease the number of mpMRI scans required in prostate cancer screening [227].

The Proclarix[®] test is a blood-based test that estimates the likelihood of csPCa according to measurement results for thrombospondin-1, cathepsin D, total PSA, percentage free PSA and patient age. This test has been correlated with the detection of csPCa, notably in case of equivocal MRI (PI-RADS 3 lesions) [228].

5.2.5.2 Urine biomarkers: PCA3/SelectMDX/MyProstateScore (MPS/MPS2)/ExoDX

Prostate cancer gene 3 (PCA3) is an overexpressed long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) biomarker that is detectable in urine sediments obtained after three strokes of prostatic massage during DRE. However, the clinical utility of the commercially available Progenesa urine test for PCA3 for biopsy decision-making remains uncertain. Still, combining MRI findings with the PCA3 score may improve risk stratification [229].

The SelectMDX test is similarly based on mRNA biomarker isolation from urine. The presence of *HOXC6* and *DLX1* mRNA levels is assessed to provide an estimate of the risk of both presence of PCa on biopsy as well as presence of high-risk cancer [230]. A multi-centre trial evaluated SelectMDX in men with an MRI PI-RADS score < 4 or PI-RADS score < 3 , and the percentage of missed csPCas was 6.5% and 3.2%, respectively, whereas 45.8% and 40% of biopsies were avoided [231]. Hendriks *et al.*, found more biopsies were avoided and more high-grade PCas detected in an MRI-based biopsy strategy compared to a SelectMDX strategy. When both tests were combined, more Gleason grade > 1 lesions were found, but the number of negative or low-grade cancer biopsies more than doubled [221]. Combining SelectMDX and MRI in men with a PSA between 3–10 ng/mL had a NPV of 93% [232]. The clinically added value of SelectMDX in the era of upfront MRI and targeted biopsies remains unclear [233].

TMPRSS2-ERG fusion, a fusion of the trans-membrane protease serine 2 (*TMPRSS2*) and the *ERG* gene can be detected in 50% of PCas [234]. When detection of *TMPRSS2-ERG* in urine was added to *PCA3* expression and serum PSA (MyProstate Score [MPS]), cancer prediction improved [235]. An update of the test, MyProstateScore 2.0 (MPS2), where an 18-gene score was used, outscored the original MPS model significantly [236]. Exosomes secreted by cancer cells may contain mRNA diagnostic for high-grade PCa [237, 238]. Use of the ExoDx Prostate IntelliScore urine exosome assay resulted in avoiding 27% of unnecessary biopsies when compared to standard of care (SOC). However, currently, both the MiPS-score and ExoDx assay are considered investigational.

In the screening population of the ERSPC study the use of both *PCA3* and 4K panel when added to the risk calculator led to an improvement in AUC of less than 0.03 [239]. Based on the available evidence, some biomarkers could help in discriminating between aggressive and non-aggressive tumours with an additional value compared to the prognostic parameters currently used by clinicians [240]. However, upfront MRI is also likely to affect the utility of the above-mentioned biomarkers.

5.2.6 Recommendations for screening and individual early detection

Recommendations	Strength rating
In asymptomatic men with a prostate-specific antigen (PSA) level between 3 and 10 ng/mL and a normal digital rectal examination (DRE), repeat the PSA test prior to further investigations.	Weak
In asymptomatic men with a PSA level between 3 and 20 ng/mL and a normal DRE, use one of the following tools for biopsy indication:	Strong
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • magnetic resonance imaging of the prostate; • risk-calculator, provided it is correctly calibrated to the population prevalence; • an additional serum, urine biomarker test. 	Weak

5.3 Pathology of prostate needle biopsies

5.3.1 Processing

Prostate core biopsies from different sites are processed separately, as delivered by the biopsy operator. Before processing, the number and length of the cores are recorded. The length of biopsy tissue significantly correlates with the PCa detection rate [241]. In case individual cores can clearly be identified in submitted jars, a maximum of three cores should be embedded per tissue cassette, and sponges or paper should be used to keep the cores stretched and flat to achieve optimal flattening and alignment [242, 243]. To optimise detection of small lesions and improve accuracy of grading, paraffin blocks should be cut at three levels and intervening unstained sections may be kept for immunohistochemistry (IHC) [244].

5.3.2 Microscopy and reporting

Diagnosis of PCa is based on histology. The diagnostic criteria include features pathognomonic of cancer, major and minor features favouring cancer and features against cancer. Ancillary staining and additional (deeper) sections should be considered if a suspect lesion is identified [244]. Diagnostic uncertainty is resolved by intradepartmental or external consultation [244]. Sections 5.3.2.1 and 5.3.2.2 list the recommended terminology and item list for reporting prostate biopsies [243]. Type and subtype of PCa should be reported such as, for instance, acinar adenocarcinoma, ductal adenocarcinoma and small or large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma, even if representing a small proportion of the PCa. The distinct aggressive nature of small/large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma should be commented upon in the pathology report [243]. Apart from grading acinar and ductal adenocarcinoma, the percentage of Gleason grade 4 components should be reported in Gleason score 7 (3+4 and 4+3) PCa biopsies. Percentage Gleason grade 4 has additional prognostic value and is considered in some AS protocols [245, 246]. Considerable evidence has been accumulated in recent years supporting the idea that among the Gleason grade 4 patterns, cribriform pattern carries an increased risk of biochemical recurrence, metastatic disease and death from disease [247-250]. Reporting of this sub-pattern based on established criteria is recommended [108, 251]. Intraductal carcinoma, defined as an extension of cancer cells into pre-existing prostatic ducts and acini, distending them, with preservation of basal cells [108], should be distinguished from high-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PIN) [252] as it conveys unfavourable prognosis in terms of biochemical recurrence and cancer-specific survival (CSS) [253, 254]. Its presence should be reported whether occurring in isolation or associated with adenocarcinoma [108]. Some intra-epithelial lesions have architectural complexity and/or cytological atypia exceeding those of high-grade PIN but fall short for a definitive diagnosis of IDC. These lesions have been referred to as Atypical Intraductal Proliferation (AIP) and, amongst others, encompass lesions that were previously classified as cribriform high-grade PIN. Small retrospective series suggest that AIP at biopsy is associated with unsampled IDC [255, 256].

Therefore, the presence of AIP should be reported and commented on in non-malignant biopsies and biopsies with ISUP GG 1 and 2 cancers in the absence of overt invasive cribriform and IDC.

5.3.2.1 Recommended terminology for reporting prostate biopsies [257]

Heading
Benign/negative for malignancy; if appropriate, include a description
Active inflammation
Granulomatous inflammation
High-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PIN)
High-grade PIN with atypical glands, suspicious for adenocarcinoma
Focus of atypical glands/lesion suspicious for adenocarcinoma/atypical small acinar proliferation, suspicious for cancer
Adenocarcinoma, provide type and subtype, and presence or absence of cribriform pattern
Atypical intraductal proliferation (AIP)
Intraductal carcinoma

Each biopsy site should be reported individually, including its location (in accordance with the sampling site) and histopathological findings, which include the histological type and the ISUP 2019 GG [108, 258, 259]. For MRI targeted biopsies consisting of multiple cores per target the aggregated (or composite) ISUP GG should be reported per targeted lesion [108]. If the targeted biopsies are negative, presence of specific benign pathology should be mentioned, such as dense inflammation, fibromuscular hyperplasia or granulomatous inflammation [108, 260]. It is optional to report a global ISUP GG comprising all systematic (non-targeted) and targeted biopsies in conjunction to the GG per biopsy site. A global ISUP GG comprising all systematic (non-targeted) and targeted biopsies is also reported (see section 4.2). The global ISUP GG takes into account all biopsies positive for carcinoma, by estimating the total extent of each Gleason grade present. For instance, if three biopsy sites are entirely composed of Gleason grade 3 and one biopsy site of Gleason grade 4 only, the global ISUP GG would be 2 (i.e., GS 7[3+4]) or 3 (i.e., GS 7[4+3]), dependent on whether the extent of Gleason grade 3 exceeds that of Gleason grade 4, whereas the worst grade would be ISUP GG 4 (i.e., GS 8[4+4]). In case biopsy sites have different GS, it is recommended to take clinical, pathological and radiological characteristics into account for patient risk stratification and management. Neither global nor worst ISUP GG is clearly superior over the other [261]. The majority of clinical studies have not specified whether global or worst biopsy grade was taken into account. In addition to GS/ISUP GG, the presence/absence of intraductal/invasive cribriform pattern should be reported [108, 258, 259]. Furthermore, in biopsy GS 7 (ISUP GG 2 and 3) percentage Gleason grade 4 should be monitored at the case and/or biopsy level [108, 259]. Lymphovascular invasion (LVI), EPE and ejaculatory duct/seminal vesicle involvement must each be reported, if identified, since they carry unfavourable prognostic information [262-264]. Studies on biopsy perineural invasion (PNI) have shown variable outcome. Two systematic reviews and meta-analyses of biopsy PNI showed independent association with PSM and BCR in men who went RP [265, 266].

Recently, a series of studies have demonstrated that computer-assisted PCa grading artificial intelligence algorithms can perform grading at the level of experienced genito-urinary pathologists. These algorithms have potential in supporting grading of less experienced pathologists, by reducing inter-observer variability, and in quantitative analyses. However, more extensive and prospective validation of these algorithms is needed for implementation in daily clinical practise [108, 258, 259, 267]. The proportion of systematic (non-targeted) carcinoma-positive cores as well as the extent of tumour involvement per biopsy core correlate with the ISUP GG, tumour volume, surgical margins and pathological stage in RP specimens and predict BCR, post-prostatectomy progression and RT failure. These parameters are included in nomograms created to predict pathological stage and SV invasion after RP and RT failure [268, 269]. A pathology report should therefore provide both the number of carcinoma positive cores and the extent of cancer involvement for each core. The length in mm and percentage of carcinoma in the biopsy have equal prognostic impact [270].

5.3.2.2 Recommended item list for reporting prostate cancer biopsies [108, 258, 259]

Type of carcinoma
Primary and secondary Gleason grade, per biopsy site and global International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) GG
Percentage of global Gleason grade 4 in Gleason Score (GS) 7 biopsies
Presence/absence of intraductal/invasive cribriform carcinoma
Presence of Atypical Intraductal Proliferation (AIP) in intraductal/invasive cribriform-negative cases
Number of cancer-positive biopsy cores
Extent of cancer (in mm or percentage)
For Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)-targeted biopsies with multiple cores aggregate (or composite) ISUP GG per lesion For carcinoma-negative MRI-targeted biopsy, specific benign pathology, e.g., fibromuscular hyperplasia or granulomatous inflammation
If present, lymphovascular invasion (LVI), extraprostatic extension and ejaculatory duct/seminal vesicle involvement

5.3.3 Tissue-based prognostic biomarker testing

After a comprehensive literature review and several panel discussions an American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO)-EAU-American Urological Association (AUA) multi-disciplinary expert panel made recommendations regarding the use of tissue-based PCa biomarkers. The recommendations were limited to five commercially available tests (Oncotype Dx, Prolaris, Decipher, Decipher PORTOS and ProMark) with extensive validation in large retrospective studies and evidence that their test results might actually impact clinical decision-taking. The selected commercially available tests significantly improved the prognostic accuracy of clinical multi-variable models for identifying men who would benefit from AS and those with csPCa requiring curative treatment, as well as for guidance of patient management after RP. Few studies showed that tissue biomarker tests and MRI findings independently improved the detection of csPCa in an AS setting, but it remains unclear which men would benefit from both tests. Decipher[®] test outcome has been associated with presence of intraductal/invasive cribriform carcinoma but retains independent value in multi-variable analysis. Since the long-term impact of the use of these commercially available tests on oncological outcome remains unproven and prospective trials are largely lacking, the Panel concluded that these tests should not be offered routinely but only in subsets of patients where the test result provides clinically actionable information, such as, for instance, in men with favourable intermediate-risk PCa who might opt for AS or men with unfavourable intermediate-risk PCa scheduled for RT to decide on treatment intensification with hormone therapy (HT) [271]. Since then, data from a RCT including 215 patients with intermediate risk PCa randomised to two different radiotherapy doses, and with a median follow-up of 12.8 years, showed that a Decipher[®] test indicating high risk showed to be prognostic for disease progression (HR: 1.12), biochemical failure (HR: 1.22), distant metastasis (HR: 1.28) and PCSM (HR: 1.45) [272]. However, as the endpoint was secondary, and the study was designed for a completely different purpose, the recommendations remain unchanged until the findings have been confirmed.

5.3.4 Tissue samples for homologous recombination repair (HRR)-testing

Homologous recombination repair-testing in the PROfound trial was conducted on archival or recent biopsy tissue from primary or metastatic disease with successful sequencing in 69% [273]. Alterations in HRR genes are relatively unchanged comparing matched treatment-naïve diagnostic and mCRPC biopsies [274, 275]. Whereas there is no preference for use of archival or new metastatic biopsies for HRR-testing, bone biopsies might be associated with lower success rates related to decalcification of tissue [276]. Testing of circulating tumour DNA might be a good alternative if tumour tissue is not available [275, 277]. With tissue as reference, ctDNA showed 81% positive and 92% negative percentage agreement [278].

5.3.5 Histopathology of radical prostatectomy specimens

5.3.5.1 Processing of radical prostatectomy specimens

Histopathological examination of RP specimens describes the pathological stage, histopathological type, grade and surgical margins of PCa. It is recommended that RP specimens are totally embedded to enable assessment of cancer location, multi-focality and heterogeneity. For cost-effectiveness, partial embedding may also be considered, particularly for prostates > 60 g. The most widely accepted method includes complete embedding of the posterior prostate and a single mid-anterior left and right section. Compared with total embedding, partial embedding with this method missed 5% of positive margins and 7% of EPE [279].

The entire RP specimen should be inked upon receipt in the laboratory to demonstrate the surgical margins. Specimens are fixed by immersion in buffered formalin for at least 24 hours, preferably before slicing. After fixation, the apex and the base (bladder neck) are removed and cut into (para)sagittal or radial sections; the shave method is not recommended [106]. The remainder of the specimen is cut in transverse, 3-4 mm sections, perpendicular to the long axis of the urethra. The resultant tissue slices can be embedded and processed as whole-mounts or after quadrant sectioning. Whole-mounts provide better topographic visualisation, faster histopathological examination and better correlation with pre-operative imaging, although they are more time-consuming and require specialist handling. For routine sectioning, the advantages of whole mounts do not outweigh their disadvantages.

5.3.5.2 Radical prostatectomy specimen report

The pathology report provides essential information on the prognostic characteristics relevant for clinical decision-making (Table 5.4). As a result of the complex information to be provided for each RP specimen, the use of synoptic(-like) or checklist reporting is recommended. Synoptic reporting results in more transparent and complete pathology reporting [280].

Table 5.4: Mandatory elements provided by the pathology report

Histopathological (sub)type
Type of carcinoma, e.g., conventional acinar adenocarcinoma, (small cell) neuroendocrine cell carcinoma or ductal carcinoma
Subtype and unusual variants, e.g., pleomorphic giant cell or mucinous
Histological grade
Primary (predominant) Gleason grade Secondary Gleason grade Tertiary Gleason grade (if applicable) Global ISUP GG Approximate percentage of Gleason grade 4 or 5
Tumour quantitation (optional)
Percentage of prostate involved Size/volume of dominant tumour nodule
Pathological staging (pTNM)
<i>If extraprostatic extension is present:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • indicate whether it is focal or extensive; • specify sites; • indicate whether there is seminal vesicle invasion. <i>If applicable, regional lymph nodes:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • location; • number of nodes retrieved; • number of nodes involved.
Surgical margins
<i>If carcinoma is present at the margin:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • specify sites; • extent: focal or extensive; • (highest) grade at margin.
Other
Presence of lymphovascular invasion Location of dominant tumour Presence of intraductal carcinoma/cribriform architecture

5.3.5.3 ISUP GG in prostatectomy specimens

Grading of conventional prostatic adenocarcinoma using the Gleason system is the strongest prognostic factor for clinical behaviour and treatment response [107]. The GS is incorporated in nomograms that predict disease-specific survival (DSS) after prostatectomy [281, 282]. The ISUP GG in prostatectomy specimens is determined mostly in a similar way as in biopsies, with a minor exception, i.e., the exclusion of minor (< 5%) high-grade components from the ISUP GG. For instance, in a carcinoma almost entirely composed of Gleason grade 3

the presence of a minor (< 5%) Gleason grade 4 or 5 component is not included in the GS (ISUP GG 1), but its presence is commented upon [108]. In case of multi-focality the ISUP GG of the index lesion i.e., the tumour having the highest grade, stage or volume, is given.

5.3.5.4 *Definition of extra-prostatic extension*

Extra-prostatic extension is defined as carcinoma mixed with peri-prostatic adipose tissue, or tissue that extends beyond the prostate gland boundaries (e.g., neurovascular bundle, anterior prostate). Microscopic bladder neck invasion is considered EPE. It is useful to report the location and extent of EPE for surgical and radiological quality assurance. While extent of EPE has been associated with recurrence risk in some studies [283], a systematic review and meta-analysis did not find a statistically significant difference between focal and extensive EPE for BCR-free survival [284]. There are no internationally accepted definitions of focal or microscopic, vs. non-focal or extensive EPE. Some describe focal as a few glands [285] or < 1 high-power field in one or at most two sections whereas others measure the depth of extent in millimetres [285]. At the apex of the prostate, tumour mixed with skeletal muscle does not constitute EPE. In the bladder neck, microscopic invasion of smooth muscle fibres is not equated to bladder wall invasion, i.e., not as pT4, because it does not carry independent prognostic significance for PCa recurrence and should be recorded as EPE (pT3a) [286, 287]. Stage pT4 is assigned when the tumour invades the bladder muscle wall as determined macroscopically [101].

5.3.5.5 *PCa volume*

Although PCa volume at RP correlates with tumour grade, stage and surgical margin status, the independent prognostic value of PCa volume has not been established [285, 288, 289]. Improvement in prostatic radio-imaging allows more accurate pre-operative measurement of cancer volume. Since the independent value of pathological tumour volume at RP has not been established, reporting of the diameter/volume of the dominant tumour nodule, or a rough estimate of the percentage of cancer tissue, is optional [290].

5.3.5.6 *Surgical margin status*

Surgical margin status is an independent risk factor for BCR. Margin status is positive if tumour cells are in contact with the ink on the specimen surface. Margin status is negative if tumour cells are close to the inked surface [291] or at the surface of the tissue lacking ink. In tissues that have severe crush artefacts, it may not be possible to determine margin status [292]. Surgical margin is separate from pathological stage, and a positive margin is not evidence of EPE [293]. There is evidence for a relationship between margin extent and recurrence risk [294, 295]. A systematic review including sixteen retrospective studies showed that positive surgical margin length measured either as continuous or dichotomized (< 3 mm vs. > 3 mm, < 1 mm vs. > 1 mm) variable was an independent prognostic parameter for BCR-free survival [296]. Some indication must be given of the multi-focality and extent of margin positivity, such as the linear extent in mm of involvement: focal, ≤ 1 mm vs. extensive, > 1 mm [297], or number of blocks with positive margin involvement. Gleason score at the positive margin was found to correlate independently with outcome and should be reported [280, 294, 298].

5.3.5.7 *Intra-operative assessment of surgical margin status*

Intra-operative surgical margin assessment can be performed during RP to reduce positive margins and increase neurovascular bundle preservation. A SR reported a 1-15% decrease of positive surgical margins in eight out of ten studies [299]. Intra-operative evaluation of the posterolateral prostatic margin according to the neurovascular structure-adjacent frozen section examination (NeuroSAFE) technique is a systematic way of intra-operative surgical margin evaluation [300]. Non-randomised studies showed that men subjected to NeuroSAFE had lower positive surgical margin rates and more frequently underwent uni- or bilateral nerve-sparing surgery [300-303]. Pending the results on long-term oncological and functional outcome as well as the outcome of the randomised NeuroSAFE PROOF trial, intra-operative frozen section analysis should not be considered standard of care [304].

5.4 **Biopsy indication**

5.4.1 *Risk assessment before MRI and biopsy*

An elevated risk of significant PCa is established based on one or more of the primary diagnostic tools applied, such as PSA level, DRE, or primary imaging. While in the classic diagnostic algorithm the indication for biopsy was generally solely based on a PSA-threshold or abnormal DRE, different two- or three-tier sequential/conditional pathways are now available to indicate prostate biopsy, such as imaging and/or biomarkers. These can be combined and/or sequenced into two or multiple-tier conditional diagnostic pathways (e.g., PSA -> MRI, PSA -> risk calculator, PSA -> risk calculator -> MRI, etc). Age, co-morbidity, life expectancy, and therapeutic consequences should also be considered and discussed beforehand [305].

The chosen diagnostic algorithm may be elected based on availability, expertise, and resources. The different approaches impact cancer detection rates, number of (un)necessary biopsies, number of patient visits, and option of targeted biopsies. The elected strategy may also be decided based on prevalence of disease in men entering the pathway (e.g., screening versus clinical symptoms).

Different sequences and combinations of these tools, lead to different rates of biopsy indications, detection rates of insignificant PCa, and significant PCa, but also on the burden and costs of the diagnostic algorithm [306].

For re-evaluation of the initial PSA value and the use of PSA-D in risk assessment before MRI, see chapter 5.2.2 and 5.2.3.

5.4.1.1 *Risk calculators assessing the risk of csPCa*

At different steps during the diagnostic process, available parameters may be combined into risk calculators to optimise risk-assessment of csPCa. Validation and adaption to the target population are important issues before use. Risk calculators, combining clinical data (age, DRE findings, PSA level, prostate volume, etc.) may be useful in helping to determine (on an individual basis) what the potential risk of cancer may be, thereby improving the balance of the cancer detection rates and number of biopsies [307].

Several tools developed from cohort studies are available including (among others) the calculator derived from the ERSPC cohort (<http://www.prostatecancer-riskcalculator.com/seven-prostate-cancer-risk-calculators>) that has been updated by incorporating the 2014 ISUP Pathology Gleason Grading and Cribriform growth [161], and the one derived from the Prostate Cancer Prevention Trial (PCPT) cohort (PCPTRC 2.0 <http://myprostatecancerrisk.com>). However, calculators are limited by their dependency on disease prevalence. All calculators show miscalibration when tested in populations with a different prevalence than that of the training population of the model. Recalibrations taking into account the local prevalence are possible, but this approach is difficult in routine as the local prevalence is difficult to estimate and may change over time.

5.4.1.2 *Using risk-stratification to avoid Magnetic resonance imaging scans and biopsy procedures*

Use repeated PSA, if the initial PSA is between 3 and 10 ng/mL, and PSA-D in risk-stratification (see sections 5.2.2 and 5.2.3).

A retrospective analysis including 200 men from a prospective database of patients who underwent MRI and combined systematic and targeted biopsy showed that upfront use of the Rotterdam Prostate Cancer Risk Calculator would have avoided MRI and biopsy in 73 men (37%). Of these 73 men, ten had ISUP GG 1 cancer and four had ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer [308]. A prospective multi-centre study evaluated several diagnostic pathways in 545 biopsy-naive men who underwent MRI and systematic and targeted biopsy. Using a PHI threshold of > 30 to perform MRI and biopsy would have avoided MRI and biopsy in 25% of men at the cost of missing 8% of the ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers [309]. Another prospective multi-centre trial including 532 men (with or without history of prostate biopsy) showed that using a threshold of $\geq 10\%$ for the Stockholm3 test to perform MRI and biopsy would have avoided MRI and biopsy in 38% of men at the cost of missing 8% of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers [226]. Finally, a risk calculator developed on 1,486 men who underwent MRI and biopsy was externally validated on a cohort of 946 men from two institutions; using a risk threshold that provided 95% sensitivity in the development cohort could have avoided 22% of the MRI scans in the validation cohort while missing 5% of csPCa [310].

In conclusion, as long as patients with a low risk-score on the risk calculator are offered repeat testing and follow-up until they have a life expectancy of < 15 years it seems unlikely that any preliminary missed case would cause increased morbidity or lead to PCSM.

5.4.2 **MRI based indication for biopsy**

5.4.2.1 *MRI as a triage test for biopsy ('MRI pathway')*

Owing to its high sensitivity, MRI showed an excellent NPV for ruling out the presence of csPCa not only at subsequent biopsy [311], but also after four years of follow-up [312].

The diagnostic yield and number of biopsy procedures potentially avoided by the 'MR pathway' (in which only patients with positive MRI undergo biopsy) depends on the Likert/PI-RADS threshold used to define a positive MRI. In a meta-analysis on PI-RADS v2.1 data [313], PI-RADS ≥ 3 thresholding showed MRI sensitivity/specificity for significant disease of 96%/43% on a patient level for ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer (fifteen reports, 4,484 men); PI-RADS ≥ 4 thresholding showed sensitivity/specificity of 88%/64% (21 reports, 5,745 men). ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer detection rates on a patient level were PI-RADS 1: 6% [95% CI: 3-12%], PI-RADS 2: 6% [3-11%], PI-RADS 3: 20% [15-26%], PI-RADS 4: 55% [45-65%], and PI-RADS 5: 83% [78-88%]. On a patient level, the distribution of PI-RADS categories was PI-RADS 1: 9%, PI-RADS 2: 29%, PI-RADS 3: 19%, PI-RADS 4: 22%, and PI-RADS 5: 19%.

In pooled studies on biopsy-naive patients and patients with prior negative biopsies, a Likert/PI-RADS threshold of ≥ 3 would have avoided 30% (95% CI: 23–38) of all biopsy procedures while missing 11% (95% CI: 6–18) of all detected ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers (relative percentage) [208]. Increasing the threshold to ≥ 4 would have avoided 59% (95% CI: 43–78) of all biopsy procedures while missing 28% (95% CI: 14–48) of all detected ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers [208]. Of note, the percentages of negative MRI (Likert/PI-RADS score ≤ 2) may show substantial variability among series. In the PRECISION, MRI-FIRST and 4M trials percentages of negative MRI were 21.1%, 28.9% and 49%, with related ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer prevalence of 27.7% (23.7–32.6), 37.5% (31.4–43.8), and 30% (ND) respectively [126, 210, 314].

In the MR PROPER trial, a prospective, multi-centre, non-randomised opportunistic early detection setting (PSA > 3 ng/mL), comparable rates of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer detection (24% vs. 25%) were obtained by the MRI pathway and by a strategy indicating systematic biopsy based on a risk calculator. However, the MRI pathway avoided biopsy in more men as compared to the diagnostic pathway using a risk calculator (559/1015, 55% vs. 403/950, 42%; difference -13%, 95% CI: -17% to -8.3%; $p < 0.01$); it also detected less ISUP GG 1 cancers (84/1015, 8.3% vs. 121/950, 13%; difference 4.5%, 95% CI: 1.8–7.2%; $p < 0.01$) [315].

5.4.2.2 Combining MRI and PSA Density

Prostate-specific antigen density (PSA-D) may help refine the risk of csPCa in patients undergoing MRI as PSA-D and the PI-RADS score are significant independent predictors of csPCa at biopsy [316, 317]. Combinations of PSA-D and MRI have been explored [318, 319], showing guidance in biopsy-decisions whilst safely avoiding redundant biopsy testing and detection of insignificant PCa. In a meta-analysis of eight studies, pooled MRI NPV for ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer was 84% (95% CI: 81–87) in the whole cohort, 83% (95% CI: 80–84) in biopsy-naive men and 88% (95% CI: 85–91) in men with prior negative biopsies. In the subgroup of patients with PSA-D < 0.15 ng/mL/cc, NPV increased to respectively 90% (95% CI: 87–93), 89% (95% CI: 83–93) and 94% (95% CI: 91–97) [320]. In contrast, the risk of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer is as high as 27–40% in patients with negative MRI and PSA-D > 0.15–0.20 ng/mL/cc [314, 317, 321–323].

Based on a meta-analysis of > 3,000 biopsy-naive men, a risk-adapted data table of csPCa was developed, linking PI-RADS score (1-2, 3, and 4-5) to PSA-D categories (< 0.10, 0.10–0.15, 0.15–0.20 and > 0.20 ng/mL) (Table 5.5) [318]. This risk-adapted matrix table may guide the decision to perform a biopsy.

In a multi-centre retrospective cohort of 1,476 men with PIRADS 3 lesions and a prevalence of 18.5% of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer, age, prior negative biopsy and PSA-D were significant independent predictors of the presence of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer at subsequent systematic and targeted biopsy. Applying a PSA-D cut-off of 0.15 ng/mL/cc, 817 biopsy procedures (58.4%) would have been avoided at the cost of missing ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer in 91 men (6.5%); ISUP GG 1 cancer would not have been detected in 115 men (8.2%) [324]. Two studies provided follow-up data for patients with PI-RADS scores of 1-3 and PSA-D < 0.15 ng/mL/cc for whom biopsy was omitted. The cumulative incidence of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancer detection was 1.3% at two years [325] and 3.2% at 36 months [326].

Table 5.5: Risk data table of clinically significant prostate cancer, related to PI-RADS score and PSA-D categories in biopsy-naive men, clinically suspected of having significant disease [318]*

Detection of clinically significant prostate cancer (ISUP GG 2 and higher)					
		PSA-density risk groups			
PI-RADS risk categories	Prevalence ISUP ≥ 2 PCa	Low < 0.10	Intermediate-low 0.10–0.15	Intermediate-high 0.15–0.20	High ≥ 0.20
		31% (678/2199)	28% (612/2199)	16% (360/2199)	25% (553/2199)
Compiled totals of csPCa risk					
PI-RADS 1–2	6% (48/839)	3% (11/411)	7% (17/256)	8% (8/104)	18% (12/68)
PI-RADS 3	16% (41/254)	4% (3/74)	13% (11/88)	29% (12/41)	29% (15/51)
PI-RADS 4–5	62% (687/1106)	31% (59/189)	54% (144/286)	69% (148/215)	77% (336/434)
All PI-RADS	35% (776/2199)	11% (73/674)	28% (172/612)	47% (168/360)	66% (363/553)

Risk-adapted matrix table for biopsy decision management				
PI-RADS 1–2	No biopsy	No biopsy	No biopsy	Consider biopsy
PI-RADS 3	No biopsy	Consider biopsy	Highly consider biopsy	Perform biopsy
PI-RADS 4–5	Perform biopsy	Perform biopsy	Perform biopsy	Perform biopsy

Very low	0–5% csPCa (below population risk) #
Low	5–10% csPCa (acceptable risk)
Intermediate-low	10–20% csPCa
Intermediate-high	20–30% csPCa
High	30–40% csPCa
Very high	> 40% csPCa

Thompson IM et al. N Engl J Med. 2004 May 27;350(22):2239-46. Prevalence of prostate cancer among men with a prostate-specific antigen level < or = 4.0 ng/mL [174].

*Table adapted from: Schoots, IG and Padhani AR. BJU Int 2021 127(2):175. Risk-adapted biopsy decision based on prostate magnetic resonance imaging and prostate-specific antigen density for enhanced biopsy avoidance in first prostate cancer diagnostic evaluation, with permission from Wiley.

5.4.2.3 Risk calculators incorporating MRI findings

Several groups have developed comprehensive risk calculators which combine MRI findings with simple clinical data as a tool to predict subsequent biopsy results [327]. Some calculators underwent external validation with good results both in terms of discrimination and clinical utility and tended to outperform risk calculators not incorporating MRI findings [328-331]. However, their use is hindered by their miscalibration due to prevalence dependency (see section 5.4.1.1).

5.4.2.4 MRI in population-based screening protocols

MRI as a sequential screening tool following PSA

A meta-analysis comparing the use of PSA followed by MRI (sequential) with PSA-only screening methods in terms of clinically significant CDR did not show any significant difference when thresholding at PI-RADS \geq 3 (OR: 1.02 [0.75-1.37]; $p = 0.86$) [332]. However, the MRI pathway was associated with lower odds of insignificant PCa detection (OR: 0.34 [0.23-0.49]; $p = 0.002$). Furthermore, MRI-(sequential) screening methods had a higher PPV for detecting significant PCa (OR: 4.15 [2.93-5.88]; $p = 0.001$) and a lower biopsy rate (OR: 0.28 [0.22- 0.36]; $p < 0.001$) than PSA-only-based methods. Thresholding at PI-RADS \geq 4 showed even lower odds of insignificant PCa detection (OR: 0.23; 95% CI: 0.05-0.97; $p = 0.048$) and biopsy (OR: 0.19; 95% CI: 0.09-0.38; $p = 0.01$), with a higher PPV (OR: 7.01; 95% CI: 1.76- 27.98; $p = 0.03$) and similar clinically significant CDR (OR: 0.85; 95% CI: 0.49-1.45; $p = 0.23$), compared with standard PSA-only screening [332].

Therefore, in a population-based screening setting, the 'MRI pathway' may reduce the risk of over-diagnosis by two-thirds, without substantially compromising clinically significant tumours. However, these results were obtained at single academic centres with double reading of the MRI, which may limit their generalisability in less experienced centres (see section 5.5.5).

MRI as a first-line screening Tool

Thresholding at a PI-RADS \geq 4 in MRI as the primary screening tool, clinically significant and insignificant CDRs were 6% [0.6-39%] and 1.2% [0.2-7%], respectively [333-335]. The PPV of up-front MRI to detect significant PCa was 42% [16-73%]. The IP1-PROSTAGRAM study (PSA > 3 ng/mL; thresholding at PIRADS \geq 3), proposed a pathway that combines PSA \geq 1 ng/ml and MRI-score \geq 4, maintaining the detection of ISUP GG \geq 2 cancers while recommending fewer men for biopsies, as the preferred strategy to evaluate in future studies at the first screening round [333].

5.5 Biopsy strategy

Prostate biopsy can be performed using different strategies (systematic, targeted etc.) and approaches (i.e., transperineal vs. transrectal).

5.5.1 **Systematic biopsy strategy**

For systematic biopsies, where no prior imaging is used for targeting, the sample sites should be bilateral from apex to base, as far posterior and lateral as possible in the peripheral gland regardless of the approach used. A 2006 SR showed that twelve is the minimum number of cores for systematic biopsies, with > 12 cores not increasing cancer detection rate significantly [336].

5.5.2 **Targeted biopsy strategy**

Where MRI has shown a suspicious lesion, MR-targeted biopsy can be obtained through cognitive guidance, US/MR fusion software or direct in-bore guidance. Current literature, including SRs and meta-analyses, does not show a clear superiority of one image-guided technique over another [337-339]. The Target Biopsy Techniques Based on Magnetic Resonance Imaging in the Diagnosis of Prostate Cancer in Patients with Prior Negative Biopsies (FUTURE) randomised trial compared three techniques (cognitive fusion, software fusion, in-bore MRI) of MRI-targeted biopsy in the repeat-biopsy setting and found no differences in cancer detection [338].

5.5.3 **Targeted biopsy versus systematic biopsy**

5.5.3.1 *Increased detection of cancers labelled as clinically significant*

The PRECISION (Prostate Evaluation for Clinically Important Disease: Sampling Using Image Guidance or Not?) [126] and PRECISE (Prostate Evaluation for Clinically Important Disease: MRI vs. Standard Evaluation Procedures) [340] prospective trials randomised biopsy naive patients to either ten to twelve core systematic biopsy or to MRI with subsequent MRI-targeted biopsy (up to four cores) in case of positive MRI. They found that MRI-targeted biopsy significantly out-performed [126] or was not inferior to [340] systematic biopsy for the detection of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers. In pooled data of 25 reports on agreement analysis (head-to-head comparisons) between systematic biopsy (median number of cores: 8–15) and MRI-targeted biopsies (median number of cores: 2–7), the detection ratio (i.e., the ratio of the detection rates obtained by MRI-targeted biopsy alone and by systematic biopsy alone) was 1.12 (95% CI: 1.02–1.23) for ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers and 1.20 (95% CI: 1.06–1.36) for ISUP GG ≥ 3 cancers, and therefore in favour of MRI-targeted biopsy [168]. Another meta-analysis of studies limited to biopsy-naive patients with a positive MRI also found that MRI-targeted biopsy detected significantly more ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers than systematic biopsy (risk difference, -0.11 [95% CI: -0.2 to 0.0]; $p = 0.05$) [341]. This data was further confirmed in another prospective multi-centre trial [342].

In a subgroup of 152 patients from the FUTURE trial who underwent both MRI-targeted biopsy and systematic biopsy in a repeat biopsy setting, MRI-targeted biopsy detected significantly more ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers than systematic biopsy (34% vs. 16%; $p < 0.001$, detection ratio of 2.1) [343]. These findings support that MRI-targeted biopsy significantly out-performs systematic biopsy for the detection of ISUP GG ≥ 2 also in the repeat-biopsy setting.

5.5.3.2 *Reduced detection of cancers labelled as ISUP GG 1*

In pooled data of 25 head-to-head comparisons between systematic biopsy and MRI-targeted biopsy, the detection ratio for ISUP GG 1 cancers was 0.62 (95% CI: 0.44–0.88) in patients with prior negative biopsy and 0.63 (95% CI: 0.54–0.74) in biopsy-naive patients [208]. In the PRECISION and 4M trials, the detection rate of ISUP GG 1 patients was significantly lower in the MRI-targeted biopsy group as compared to systematic biopsy (9% vs. 22%, $p < 0.001$, detection ratio of 0.41 for PRECISION; 14% vs. 25%, $p < 0.001$, detection ratio of 0.56 for 4M) [126, 314]. In the MRI-FIRST trial, MRI-targeted biopsy detected significantly fewer patients with clinically insignificant PCa (defined as ISUP GG 1 and maximum cancer core length < 6 mm) than systematic biopsy (5.6% vs. 19.5%, $p < 0.0001$, detection ratio of 0.29) [210]. Consequently, MRI-targeted biopsy without systematic biopsy significantly reduces over-diagnosis of low-risk disease, as compared to systematic biopsy. This seems true even when systematic biopsies are indicated after risk stratification with the Rotterdam Prostate Cancer Risk Calculator) [315].

5.5.3.3 *Added value of systematic biopsy and targeted biopsy*

From head-to-head comparisons between the two biopsy techniques, it is possible to compute their added value, i.e., the percentage of additional patients with csPCa they help to diagnose. Table 5.6 shows the added value of systematic and MRI-targeted biopsy for ISUP GG ≥ 2 and ≥ 3 cancer detection. The absolute added values in the table refer to the percentage of patients in the entire cohort; if the cancer prevalence is considered, the 'relative' percentage of additional detected csPCa can be computed. Adding MRI-targeted biopsy to systematic biopsy in biopsy-naive patients increases the number of detected ISUP grade ≥ 2 and grade ≥ 3 PCa by approximately 20% and 30%, respectively. In the repeat-biopsy setting, adding MRI-targeted biopsy increases detection of ISUP GG ≥ 2 and GG ≥ 3 PCa by approximately 40% and 50%, respectively. Omitting systematic biopsy in biopsy-naive patients would miss approximately 16% of all detected ISUP GG ≥ 2 PCa and 18% of all ISUP grade ≥ 3 PCa. In the repeat-biopsy setting, it would miss approximately 10% of ISUP GG ≥ 2 PCa and 9% of ISUP GG ≥ 3 Pca. The low added value of systematic biopsy in the repeat biopsy setting has been further confirmed by other studies

that reported absolute added values of 1.2-3.9% for the detection of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers and of 1.2-1.6% for ISUP GG ≥ 3 cancers [343-345].

Table 5.6: Absolute added values of targeted and systematic biopsies for ISUP grade ≥ 2 and ≥ 3 Cancer Detection

ISUP grade		ISUP GG ≥ 2			ISUP GG ≥ 3		
		Cochrane meta-analysis* [208]	MRI-FIRST trial* [210]	4M trial [314]	Cochrane meta-analysis* [208]	MRI-FIRST trial* [210]	4M trial [314]
Biopsy-naïve	Added value of MRI-TBx	6.3% (4.8–8.2)	7.6% (4.6–11.6)	7.0% (ND)	4.7% (3.5–6.3)	6.0% (3.4–9.7)	3.2% (ND)
	Added value of systematic biopsy	4.3% (2.6–6.9)	5.2% (2.8–8.7)	5.0% (ND)	2.8% (1.7–4.8)	1.2% (0.2–3.5)	4.1% (ND)
	Overall prevalence	27.7% (23.7–32.6)	37.5% (31.4–43.8)	30% (ND)	15.5% (12.6–19.5)	21.1% (16.2–26.7)	15% (ND)
Prior negative biopsy	Added value of MRI-TBx	9.6% (7.7–11.8)	-	-	6.3% (5.2–7.7)	-	-
	Added value of systematic biopsy	2.3% (1.2–4.5)	-	-	1.1% (0.5–2.6)	-	-
	Overall prevalence	22.8% (20.0–26.2)	-	-	12.6% (10.5–15.6)	-	-

*Intervals in parenthesis are 95% CI. The absolute added value of a given biopsy technique is defined by the percentage of patients of the entire cohort diagnosed only by this biopsy technique.

ISUP = International Society of Urological Pathology (grade); MRI-TBx = magnetic resonance imaging-targeted biopsies; ND = not defined.

Table 5.7: Detection rates of ISUP GG 1 cancers by targeted and systematic biopsies

Study	Targeted biopsy	Systematic biopsy	p-value
PRECISION [126]	9%	22%	<0.001
PRECISE [340]	10.1	21.7	<0.001
MRI-FIRST [210]*	5.6%	19.5%	<0.0001
4M [314]	14%	24.7%	<0.0001
Cochrane meta-analysis [208]	13.5%	22.4%	<0.01

* In the MRI-FIRST trial, the percentages refer to the detection rates of ISUP 1 cancers with a maximum cancer core length < 6 mm.

5.5.4 Perilesional biopsy

A minimum of three to five cores is required for proper sampling of an MRI detected lesion [345-347]. Several concordant studies showed that, in case of a unilateral MRI lesion, contralateral systematic biopsy (i.e., from the MRI-negative lobe) has little added value for diagnosing csPCa (0.3-4%). Paradoxically, the added value of ipsilateral systematic biopsy is higher (4.9-18.4%) and comes mostly from the systematic cores obtained in the sextant containing the MR lesion, or the sextant immediately adjacent [348-352]. Consequently, including additional peri-lesional/regional systematic biopsies, rather than standard sextant-based systematic biopsies may decrease the total number of cores taken (by avoiding systematic biopsies in MRI-negative lobes) and improve the detection of csPCa (by compensating for guiding imprecision). In addition, the MRI-targeted and regional biopsy approach could avoid detecting 12-17% of the insignificant cancers detected by the classical combined approach [353-355].

A meta-analysis of eight studies showed a non-significant difference in detection of ISUP GG \geq 2 cancer in the MRI-directed targeted and regional biopsy approach, compared to the recommended practice of MRI-directed targeted- and systematic biopsy approach (RR: 0.95; 95% CI: 0.90–1.01; $p = 0.09$). However, the MRI-directed targeted- and regional biopsy approach detected significantly more ISUP GG \geq 2 cancers than MRI-targeted biopsy alone (RR: 1.18; 95% CI: 1.10–1.25; $p < 0.001$) [356]. Other prospective [357] and retrospective [355, 358] studies not included in the meta-analysis provided similar evidence (Table 5.8).

Two studies retrospectively used the location of biopsy cores registered by MRI/US fusion systems to assess the added value of systematic cores based on their distance from the nearest MRI lesion. The diagnostic yield of these systematic cores decreased with increasing distance. Combining the targeted and systematic cores located within a 10 mm and a 15 mm radius from the MR lesions detected 90–92% and 94–97% of the csPCa respectively [353, 354]. The width of the distance from the MRI lesion which enclosed 90% of csPCa may also depend on the PI-RADS score of the lesion; in one series it was found to be 5.5 mm, 12 mm and 16 mm for lesions with PI-RADS scores of 5, 4 and 3 respectively [353]. As a consequence, in men with a PI-RADS 5 index lesion, the absolute added value of additional biopsy has been repeatedly found to be less than 4% for ISUP GG \geq 2 cancers and less than 2% for ISUP GG \geq 3 cancers [345, 359–361].

5.5.5 **Prostate MRI and MRI-targeted biopsy reproducibility**

Despite the use of the PI-RADS scoring systems, MRI inter-reader reproducibility remains moderate at best. MRI performance is better with experienced radiologists and at high-volume centres. This currently limits its broad use by non-dedicated radiologists [346, 362].

The accuracy of MRI-targeted biopsy is also substantially impacted by the experience of the biopsy operator [346]. The PRECISE trial, that reproduced the design of the PRECISION trial obtained quite different results. In both trials, the detection rate for ISUP GG \geq 2 PCa was higher for the MRI pathway than for the classical systematic biopsy pathway. Yet, the difference was much lower in the PRECISE trial (+5.2% vs. +12.1% for ISUP GG \geq 2 cancers; +2.1% vs. +5.5% for ISUP GG \geq 3 cancers). In addition, there was major intersite variability in the PRECISE trial: the centre with the highest csPCa detection rate on MRI-targeted biopsy had the lowest on systematic biopsy and vice versa [340].

These factors of variability give rise to concerns about the reproducibility of the good results of the MRI-directed diagnostic pathways. Efforts towards standardisation of the whole diagnostic pathway (MRI acquisition and interpretation, biopsy planning and acquisition) through quality assurance and quality control are currently undertaken [346, 363]. However, significant improvement in the accuracy of MRI and MRI-targeted biopsy can be observed over time through simple measures such as training and participation to MDT meeting with pathological correlation and feedback [346, 364]. Artificial intelligence (AI)-based algorithms have recently provided excellent results in detecting ISUP GG \geq 2 PCa on MRI and can even outperform experienced human readers [365]. However, whether these good results will be reproducible on routine multi-scanner, multi-vendor MRI cohorts remains uncertain. Studies comparing unassisted and AI-assisted human reading have reported conflicting results so far [366].

5.5.6 **Cancer grade shift**

MRI findings are significant predictors of adverse pathology features on prostatectomy specimens, and of survival-free BCR after RP or RT [103, 367, 368]. In addition, tumours visible on MRI are enriched in molecular hallmarks of aggressivity, as compared to invisible lesions [369]. Thus, MRI does identify aggressive tumours.

Nonetheless, as MRI-targeted biopsy is more sensitive than systematic biopsy in detecting areas of high-grade cancer, ISUP GG \geq 2 cancers detected by MRI-targeted biopsy are, on average, of better prognosis than those detected by the classical diagnostic especially if the biopsy core with the highest grade is taken into consideration [105]. This is illustrated in a retrospective series of 1,345 patients treated by RP which showed that, in all risk groups, patients diagnosed by MRI-targeted biopsy had better BCR-free survival than those diagnosed by systematic biopsy only [103]. Preliminary findings suggest that, when the grade is different between systematic biopsy and MRI-targeted biopsy [370] or between systematic biopsy and prostatectomy specimens [371], the prognosis is intermediate between grades. This is in line with the 2019 ISUP consensus conference recommended using an aggregated ISUP GG summarising the results of all biopsy cores from the same MR lesion, rather than using the result from the core with the highest ISUP GG [108] (see section 4.2). When long term follow-up of patients who underwent MRI-targeted biopsy is available, a revision of the risk-groups definition will become necessary. In the meantime, results of MRI-targeted biopsy must be interpreted in the context of this potential grade shift [372].

Table 5.8: Detection rates for ISUP GG ≥ 2 prostate cancer achieved by targeted biopsy, combined systematic and targeted biopsy and targeted biopsy with perilesional sampling

Study	Type of study	N	Targeted biopsy with perilesional sampling vs. Combined systematic and targeted biopsy		Targeted biopsy with perilesional sampling vs. Targeted biopsy	
			Ratio of detection rates	Median number of cores	Ratio of detection rates	Median number of cores
Hagens MJ [356]	Meta-analysis	2603	0.95 (0.90 - 1.01), p=0.09	9.5 [7.5-12.3] vs. 16.5 [15.3 - 12.3]	1.18 (1.1 - 1.25), p < 0.001	9.5 [7.5 - 12.3] vs. 3.5 [3 - 4]
Hagens MJ [355]	Retrospective, single centre	235	0.968 (0.91 - 0.993)	7 [6 - 9] vs. 12 [10 - 15]	-	-
Hsieh PF [357]	Prospective, single centre	100	1	15 [12.8 - 18] vs. 26 [23 - 28]	1.20, p = 0.008	15 [12.8 - 18] vs. 6 [4 - 7]

5.5.7 Recommendations for MRI imaging in biopsy indication and strategy

Recommendations	Strength rating
Do not use magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) as an initial screening tool.	Strong
Adhere to PI-RADS guidelines for MRI acquisition and interpretation and evaluate MRI results in multidisciplinary meetings with pathological feedback.	Strong
Where MRI has shown a suspicious lesion, MR-targeted biopsy can be obtained through cognitive guidance, US/MR fusion software or direct in-bore guidance.	Weak
Perform MRI before prostate biopsy in men with suspected organ confined disease.	Strong
In men with suspicion of locally advanced disease on digital rectal examination (DRE) and/or prostate-specific antigen (PSA) > 50 ng/mL, or those not for curative treatments, consider limited biopsy without MRI.	Weak
When MRI is positive (i.e., PI-RADS ≥ 4), combine targeted biopsy with perilesional sampling.	Weak
When MRI is negative (i.e., PI-RADS ≤ 2), and clinical suspicion of PCa is low (PSA density < 0.20 ng/mL/cc, negative DRE findings, no family history), omit biopsy and offer PSA monitoring; otherwise consider systematic biopsy.	Weak
When MRI is indeterminate (PI-RADS = 3), and clinical suspicion of PCa is very low (PSA density < 0.10 ng/mL/cc, negative DRE findings, no family history), omit biopsy and offer PSA monitoring; otherwise consider targeted biopsy with perilesional sampling.	Weak
If MRI is not available, use a risk calculator and systematic biopsies if indicated.	Strong
When performing systematic biopsy only, at least twelve cores are recommended.	Strong

5.6 Biopsy approach

MRI-directed US-guided prostate biopsy is now the standard of care although MRI in-bore biopsy is offered in a few centres. MRI-directed US-guided prostate biopsy can be performed by either the transperineal or the transrectal approach. Both can be performed under local anaesthesia [373]. A meta-analysis of nine RCTs including 2,230 patients found that extended biopsy templates (20 vs. 8) showed comparable infectious complications to standard templates (RR: 95% CI: 0.80 [0.53–1.22]) [374]. Additional meta-analyses found no difference in infectious complications regarding needle guide type (disposable vs. reusable), needle type (coaxial vs. non-coaxial), needle size (large vs. small), and number of injections for peri-prostatic nerve block (standard vs. extended) [374].

5.6.1 **MRI-directed transrectal vs transperineal US-guided biopsy**

A systematic review and meta-analysis comparing MRI-targeted transrectal (TR) biopsy to MRI-targeted transperineal (TP) biopsy, including eight studies, showed a higher sensitivity for detection of csPCa when the transperineal approach was used (86% vs. 73%) [375]. However, in two subsequent RCTs, csPCa detection was not superior for the TP route compared to TR biopsy [376, 377]. The PREVENT trial showed similar csPCa detection for TP (53%) and TR (50%) routes, while the PERFECT trial showed non-inferior csPCa rates for TP (47%) and TR (54%) [376]. Clinically significant PCa detection was different for anterior and posterior tumours [375, 378]. The PERFECT trial showed higher significant cancer detection rates for anterior tumours with the TP approach (41% in TP and 27% in TR), while the TR approach favoured posterior tumours (44% in TP and 59% in TR) [378].

5.6.2 **Local anaesthesia prior to biopsy**

Ultrasound-guided peri-prostatic block is recommended [379]. Intra-rectal instillation of local anaesthetic cream is inferior to peri-prostatic infiltration by injection [380]. Local anaesthesia can also be used effectively for MRI-targeted and systematic transperineal biopsy [381]. Patients are placed in the lithotomy position. Around twenty mL of lignocaine or bupivacaine with or without adrenaline (1 in 200,000) is injected into the perineal skin and subcutaneous tissues anterior to the anus, followed by a peri-prostatic block also via transperineal route. A SR evaluating pain in three studies comparing transperineal vs. transrectal biopsies found that the transperineal approach significantly increased patient pain (RR: 1.83 [1.27–2.65]) [382]. In a randomised comparison a combination of peri-prostatic and pudendal block anaesthesia reduced pain during transperineal biopsies compared to peri-prostatic anaesthesia only [383]. A novel perineal nerve-block was shown in an RCT to be superior for the relief of pain during transperineal biopsy procedure vs. conventional peri-prostatic block (2.80 vs. 3.98; on 1-10 scale) [384]. Targeted biopsies can then be taken via a brachytherapy grid or a freehand needle-guiding device under local infiltration anaesthesia [381, 385]. An updated meta-analysis of 28 RCTs with 4,027 patients found no evidence that use of peri-prostatic injection of local anaesthesia resulted in more infectious complications than no injection (RR: 95% CI: 1.08 [0.79–1.48]) [374, 386, 387].

5.6.3 **Infection rate after transperineal and transrectal prostate biopsy**

A total of eight randomised studies including 1,596 patients compared the impact of biopsy route on infectious complications. Infectious complications were significantly higher following transrectal biopsy (48 events among 789 men) compared to transperineal biopsy (22 events among 807 men) (RR: 95% CI: 2.48 [1.47–4.2]) [374, 386]. In addition, a SR including 165 studies with 162,577 patients described sepsis rates of 0.1% and 0.9% for transperineal and transrectal biopsies, respectively [388]. Finally, a population-based study from the UK (n = 73,630) showed lower re-admission rates for sepsis in patients who had transperineal vs. transrectal biopsies (1.0% vs. 1.4%, respectively) [389]. However, two subsequent RCTs comparing infectious complications after TP and TR biopsies did not show significant differences in infection rates. The PREVENT trial compared TP without antibiotic prophylaxis with TR biopsy using rectal culture and targeted antibiotic prophylaxis, and showed that infection rates were 0% in TP and 1.4% in TR (p = 0.059) [376]. In the ProBE-PC trial, TP without routine antibiotic was compared with TR with antibiotic prophylaxis, and composite infection rates were 2.7% and 2.6%, respectively [377].

A systematic review and meta-analysis of eight non-RCTs reported no significant differences between patients receiving or not receiving antibiotic prophylaxis before transperineal biopsy in terms of post-biopsy infection (0.11% vs. 0.31%) and sepsis (0.13% vs. 0.09%), [390]. This is in line with another systematic review and meta-analysis of 112 individual patient cohorts which also showed no significant difference in the number of patients experiencing post-transperineal-biopsy infection (1.35% of 29,880 patients receiving antibiotic prophylaxis and 1.22% of 4,772 men not receiving antibiotic prophylaxis [p = 0.8]) [391]. In addition, two published RCTs have reported comparably low post-biopsy infection rates for transperineal biopsy regardless of whether antibiotic prophylaxis was administered or not [392, 393]. A SR and meta-analysis comparing transperineal with and without antibiotic prophylaxis showed very low percentages of septic complications (0.05% vs. 0.08%; p = 0.2) and overall infections (1.35% vs. 1.22%; p = 0.8) Thus, there is a growing body of evidence to suggest that antibiotic prophylaxis may not be routinely required for transperineal biopsy.

An updated meta-analysis of eleven RCTs including 2,237 men showed that use of a rectal povidone-iodine preparation before transrectal biopsy, in addition to antimicrobial prophylaxis, resulted in a significantly lower rate of infectious complications (RR: 0.47; 95% CI [0.36–0.61]) [374, 387, 394]. Single RCTs showed reported an advantage for rectal povidone-iodine preparation before transrectal biopsy compared to after biopsy [395].

A meta-analysis of four RCTs including 671 men evaluated the use of rectal preparation by enema before transrectal biopsy. No significant advantage was found regarding infectious complications (RR: 95% CI: 0.96 [0.64–1.54]) [374].

A meta-analysis of eleven studies with 1,753 patients showed significantly reduced infections after transrectal prostate biopsy when using antimicrobial prophylaxis as compared to placebo/control (RR: 95% CI: 0.56 [0.40–0.77]) [396].

For transrectal biopsies Fluoroquinolones have been traditionally used for antibiotic prophylaxis; however, in recent years there has been an increase in fluoroquinolone resistance. In addition, the European Commission has implemented stringent regulatory conditions regarding the use of fluoroquinolones resulting in the suspension of the indication for peri-operative antibiotic prophylaxis including prostate biopsy [397].

A SR and meta-analysis on antibiotic prophylaxis for the prevention of infectious complications following prostate biopsy concluded that in countries where fluoroquinolones are allowed as antibiotic prophylaxis, a minimum of a full one-day administration, as well as targeted therapy in case of fluoroquinolone resistance, or augmented prophylaxis (combination of two or more different classes of antibiotics) is recommended [396]. In countries where use of fluoroquinolones are suspended, cephalosporins or aminoglycosides can be used as individual agents with comparable infectious complications based on meta-analysis of two RCTs [396]. A meta-analysis of three RCTs reported that fosfomycin trometamol was superior to fluoroquinolones (RR: 95% CI: 0.49 [0.27–0.87]) [396], but routine general use should be critically assessed due to the relevant infectious complications reported in non-randomised studies [398]. Of note the indication of fosfomycin trometamol for prostate biopsy has been withdrawn in Germany as the manufacturers did not submit the necessary pharmacokinetic data in support of this indication. Urologists are advised to check their local guidance in relation to the use of fosfomycin trometamol for prostate biopsy. Another possibility is the use of augmented prophylaxis without fluoroquinolones, although no standard combination has been established to date. Finally, targeted prophylaxis based on rectal swab/stool culture is plausible, but no RCTs are available on non-fluoroquinolones. See figure 5.1 for prostate biopsy workflow to reduce infections complications.

Taking into account the feasibility of TP and TR biopsies under local anaesthesia, comparable csPCa detection rates, and growing importance of antibiotic stewardship, transperineal biopsy route is preferred over transrectal route despite potential logistical challenges.

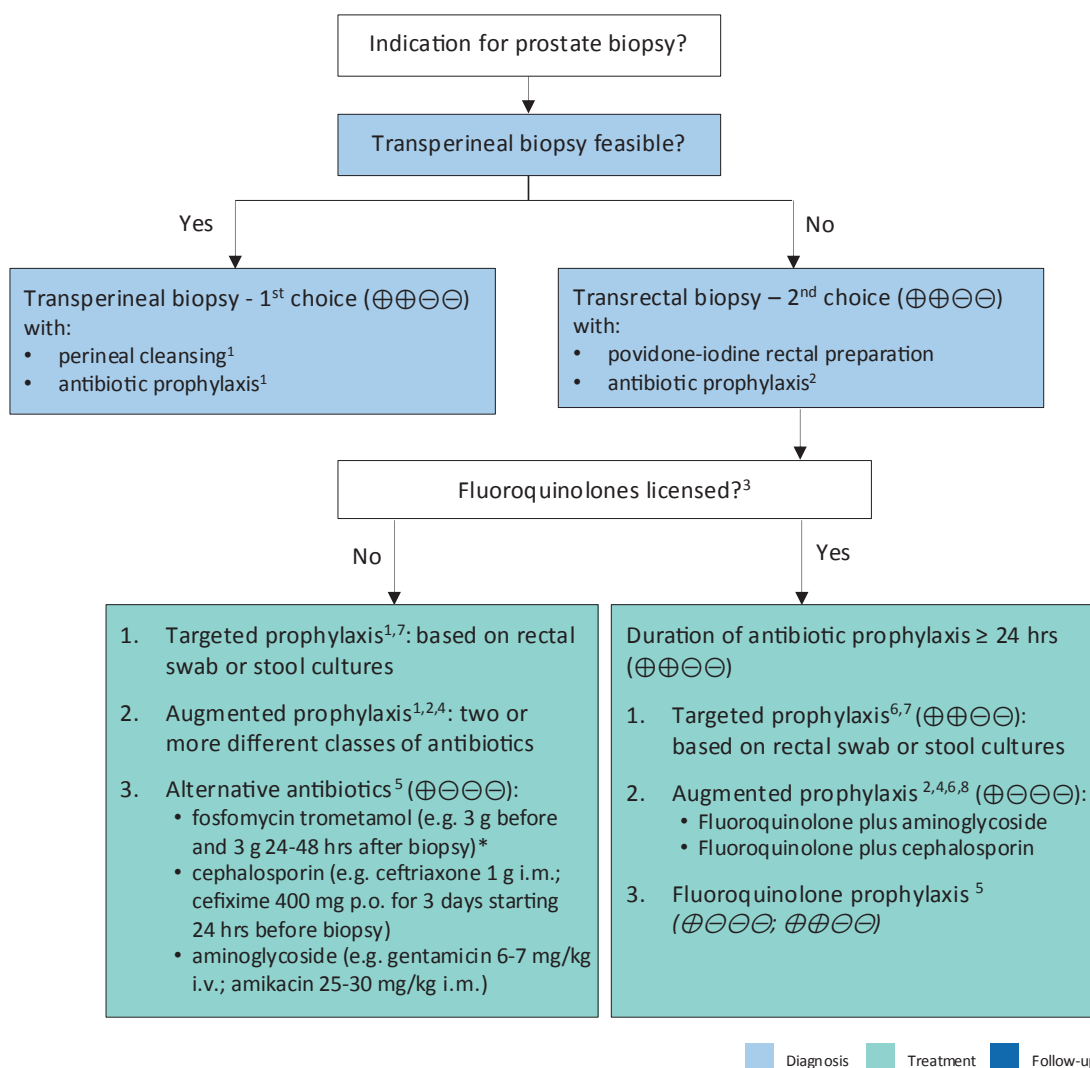
5.6.4 **Summary of evidence and recommendations for performing prostate biopsy (in line with the EAU Urological Infections Guidelines Panel)**

Summary of evidence	LE
A meta-analysis of eleven studies including 3,306 patients showed significantly reduced infectious complications in patients undergoing transperineal biopsy as compared to transrectal biopsy.	1a
One randomised controlled trial showed comparable low rates of infectious complication for transperitoneal biopsy without antibiotics and transrectal biopsy with targeted antibiotic prophylaxis.	1a
A meta-analysis of eight non-RCTS reported comparable rates of post-biopsy infections in patients undergoing transperineal biopsy irrespective of whether antibiotic prophylaxis was given or not.	1a
A meta-analysis of eleven RCTs including 2,237 men showed that use of a rectal povidone-iodine preparation before transrectal biopsy, in addition to antimicrobial prophylaxis, resulted in a significantly lower rate of infectious complications.	1a
A meta-analysis on eleven studies with 1,753 patients showed significantly reduced infections after transrectal biopsy when using antimicrobial prophylaxis as compared to placebo/control.	1a

Recommendations	Strength rating*
Perform prostate biopsy using the transperineal approach due to the low risk of infectious complications and better antibiotic stewardship.	Strong
Use routine surgical disinfection of the perineal skin for transperineal biopsy.	Strong
Use rectal cleansing with povidone-iodine prior to transrectal prostate biopsy.	Strong
Use either target prophylaxis based on rectal swab or stool culture; or augmented prophylaxis (two or more different classes of antibiotics); for transrectal biopsy.	Weak
Ensure that prostate core biopsies from different sites are submitted separately for processing and pathology reporting.	Strong

* Note on strength ratings: The above strength ratings are explained here due to the major clinical implications of these recommendations. Although data showing the lower risk of infection via the transperineal approach is low in certainty, its statistical and clinical significance warrants its strong rating. Strong ratings are also given for routine surgical disinfection of skin in transperineal biopsy and povidone-iodine rectal cleansing in transrectal biopsy as, although quality of data is low, the clinical benefit is high and practical application simple. A 'Strong' rating is given for avoiding fluoroquinolones in prostate biopsy due to its legal implications in Europe.

Figure 5.2: Prostate biopsy workflow to reduce infectious complications*



Suggested workflow on how to reduce post biopsy infections.

1. Two systematic reviews including non-RCTs and two RCTs describe comparable rates of post-biopsy infection in patients with and without antibiotic prophylaxis.
2. Be informed about local antimicrobial resistance.
3. Banned by European Commission due to side effects.
4. Contradicts principles of Antimicrobial Stewardship.
5. Fosfomycin trometamol (4 RCTs), cephalosporins (2 RCTs), aminoglycosides (2 RCTs).
6. Only one RCT comparing targeted and augmented prophylaxis.
7. Originally introduced to use alternative antibiotics in case of fluoroquinolone resistance.
8. Various schemes: fluoroquinolone plus aminoglycoside (4 RCTs); and fluoroquinolone plus cephalosporin (1 RCT).

High certainty: (⊕⊕⊕⊕) very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect. Moderate certainty: (⊕⊕⊕⊖) moderately confident in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different. Low certainty: (⊕⊕⊖⊖) confidence in the effect estimate is limited: the true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect. Very low certainty: (⊕⊖⊖⊖) very little confidence in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect. Figure adapted from Pilatz et al., [396] with permission from Elsevier.

* The indication of fosfomycin trometamol for prostate biopsy has been withdrawn in Germany as the manufacturers did not submit the necessary pharmacokinetic data in support of this indication. Urologists are advised to check their local guidance in relation to the use of fosfomycin trometamol for prostate biopsy.

5.6.5 Complications

Complications of TRUS biopsy are listed in Table 5.9 [399]. Mortality after prostate biopsy is extremely rare and most are consequences of sepsis [400]. Low-dose aspirin is not an absolute contra-indication [401]. A SR found favourable infection rates for transperineal compared to TRUS biopsies with similar rates of haematuria, haematospermia and urinary retention [402]. A meta-analysis of 4,280 men randomised between transperineal vs. TRUS biopsies in thirteen studies found no significant differences in complication rates; however, data on sepsis compared only 497 men undergoing TRUS biopsy to 474 having transperineal biopsy. The transperineal approach required more (local) anaesthesia [403].

Table 5.9: Adverse events of three groups of targeted biopsy [399] *

	Overall (n = 234)	Transrectal MRI-TB (n = 77)	Transperineal FUS-TB (n = 79)	Transrectal COG-TB (n = 78)	p value
Clavien-Dindo grade	-	-	-	-	< 0.001
No adverse events	30.3 (71)	47.4 (36)	29.1 (23)	15.4 (12)	-
Grade 1	63.2 (148)	50.0 (38)	65.8 (52)	74.4 (58)	-
Grade 2	6.0 (14)	2.6 (2)	5.1 (4)	10.3 (8)	-
Grades 3, 4, 5	-	-	-	-	-
Haematuria	53.4 (125)	35.5 (27)	50.6 (40)	74.4 (58)	< 0.001
Haematospermia	37.2 (87)	26.3 (20)	35.4 (28)	50.0 (39)	< 0.01
Rectal bleeding	3.4 (8)	2.6 (2)	2.5 (2)	5.1 (4)	0.59
UTI	3.4 (8)	2.6 (2)	1.3 (1)	6.4 (5)	0.21
Fever	3 (7)	1.3 (1)	2.5 (2)	5.1 (4)	0.46
Urinary retention	3 (7)	-	3.8 (3)	-	0.15
Haematoma	1.3 (3)	-	3.8 (3)	-	0.29
Other	-	-	-	-	0.56
Lower back pain	0.9 (2)	1.3 (1)	1.3 (1)	-	-
Atrial fibrillation	0.4 (1)	-	1.3 (1)	-	-

COG-TB = cognitive registration TRUS targeted biopsy; FUS-TB = MRI-TRUS fusion targeted biopsy; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; MRI-TB = in-bore MRI targeted biopsy; TB = targeted biopsy; TRUS = transrectal ultrasound; UTI = urinary tract infection. Data are presented as % (n).

*With permission by Elsevier.

5.7 What diagnostic pathway in clinical practice?

The 'combined pathway', in which patients with a positive MRI undergo combined systematic and targeted biopsy, and patients with a negative MRI undergo systematic biopsy, maximises the detection of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers. However, it has the disadvantage of leading to a greater detection of ISUP GG 1 cancers and of referring all patients with a clinical suspicion of cancer to biopsy. Given the growing concerns about over-detection of insignificant PCa, the development of AS protocols in patients with ISUP GG 2 cancers (see section 6.2.1.2) and the grade shift induced by MRI-targeted biopsy (see section 5.5.6) the clinical relevance of a diagnostic strategy aimed only at maximising the detection of ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers, disregarding its negative effects, is questionable [404, 405].

The 'MRI pathway', in which patients with a positive MRI undergo only MRI-targeted biopsy and patients with a negative MRI are not biopsied at all, could avoid biopsy in 21-49% of the patients if a PI-RADS threshold of ≥ 3 is used to trigger biopsy [126, 208, 210, 314], at the cost of missing some significant cancers, especially in biopsy-naïve patients or in highly selected populations with high prevalence of csPCa (in which the MRI NPV decreases) [311, 406].

Adding perilesional sampling to targeted biopsy could mitigate the drawbacks of the 'MRI pathway' by maintaining good detection of csPCa while decreasing the over-diagnosis of insignificant cancer (see section 5.5.4). Due to the low NPV of MRI in high risk populations, systematic biopsies are still necessary in patients with negative MRI and high clinical suspicion of PCa e.g., high PSA density.

MRI-directed pathways were compared to the classical combined pathway in a retrospective cohort of 499 men. The highest clinical utility above a risk threshold of 6.25% was obtained by a risk-based pathway in which patients with a PI-RADS score of 1-3 and a low-risk profile (PSA-D < 0.15 ng/ml/cc, negative DRE, no family history, no ASAP or ISUP1 cancer at prior biopsy) could forgo biopsy while the others underwent

combined systematic and MRI-targeted biopsy. In this pathway, biopsy could have been avoided in 99 men (19%) while missing ISUP GG ≥ 2 cancers in only six men (1.2%) [407].

5.7.1 **Repeat biopsy after negative biopsy**

During follow-up after a negative systematic biopsy, the incidence of PCa is higher, but the risk of PCa death is lower than the population average [408]. Men with prior negative systematic biopsy and persistent suspicion of PCa should have an MRI if not already performed.

Significant PCa may still be present in men with abnormal MRI and negative targeted biopsy [409]. Therefore, follow-up or direct repeat biopsy should be considered depending on risk factors (e.g., PSA density, PI-RADS score).

In a contemporary series of biopsies the likelihood of finding a csPCa after follow-up biopsy after a diagnosis of atypical small acinar proliferation and high-grade PIN was only 6-8%, not significantly different from follow-up biopsies after a negative biopsy [410, 411]. Therefore, routine re-biopsies in this setting are not needed.

The added value of other biomarkers remains unclear (see sections 5.2.5.1 and 5.2.5.2).

5.7.2 **Saturation biopsy**

The incidence of PCa detected by saturation repeat biopsy (> 20 cores) is 30–43% and depends on the number of cores sampled during earlier biopsies [412]. Saturation biopsy may be performed with the transperineal technique, which detects an additional 38% of PCa. The rate of urinary retention varies substantially from 1.2% to 10% [257, 413].

However, given the very low risk of subsequent csPCa after a negative biopsy and/or in case of negative MRI, the clinical utility of saturation biopsy in the repeat biopsy setting remains uncertain in the current MRI-driven diagnostic pathway and such schemes should not be routinely used [414].

5.7.3 **Seminal vesicle biopsy**

Indications for SV (staging) biopsies are poorly defined. At a PSA of > 15 ng/mL, the odds of tumour involvement are 20–25% [415]. A SV staging biopsy is only useful if it has a decisive impact on treatment, such as ruling out radical tumour resection or for potential subsequent RT. Its added value compared with MRI is questionable.

5.7.4 **Transition zone biopsy**

Transition zone sampling during baseline biopsies has a low detection rate and should be limited to MRI detected lesions or repeat template biopsies [416].

5.8 **Diagnosis - Clinical Staging**

5.8.1 **T-staging**

The cT category listed in Table 4.1 (TNM Classification) only relies on DRE findings. Imaging parameters and biopsy results for local staging are, so far, not part of the T staging (within TNM) and the EAU risk category stratification [417].

5.8.1.1 *Ultrasound-based techniques and Computed Tomography*

Transrectal US has limited accuracy for PCa local staging [418]. More advanced US-based techniques have not yet been tested in large-scale studies. In case of locally-advanced cancers, abdominopelvic US or CT may show rectal or bladder invasion and dilatation of the upper collecting systems [418].

5.8.1.2 *Magnetic Resonance Imaging*

T2-weighted imaging remains the most useful method for local staging on MRI. Pooled data from a meta-analysis showed a sensitivity and specificity of 0.57 (95% CI: 0.49–0.64) and 0.91 (95% CI: 0.88–0.93), 0.58 (95% CI: 0.47–0.68) and 0.96 (95% CI: 0.95–0.97), and 0.61 (95% CI: 0.54–0.67) and 0.88 (95% CI: 0.85–0.91), for EPE, SVI, and overall stage T3 assessment, respectively [419]. Similar results, with low sensitivity and good specificity have also been found in more recent large series [420, 421].

In 552 men treated by RP at seven different Dutch centres, MRI showed significantly higher sensitivity (51% vs. 12%; $p < 0.001$), and lower specificity (82% vs. 97%; $p < 0.001$) than DRE for non-organ confined disease. All risk groups redefined using MRI findings rather than DRE findings showed better BCR-free survival due to improved discrimination and the Will Roger's phenomenon [422].

Traditionally, EPE/SVI is assessed visually using qualitative signs (e.g., capsular disruption, visible tumour within peri-prostatic fat). Inter-reader agreement with such subjective reading is moderate, with kappa (κ) values ranging from 0.41 to 0.68 [423]. The length of tumour capsule contact (LCC) is also a significant predictor of EPE; it has the advantage of being quantitative, although the ideal cut-off value remains debated [424, 425].

Several grading systems combining subjective qualitative signs and/or LCC into a score have shown good sensitivity (0.64 - 0.82) and specificity (0.64 - 0.93) for EPE, with substantial inter-reader agreement ($\kappa = 0.56 - 0.74$). None of these scores has shown definitive superiority over the others [426, 427].

Magnetic resonance imaging findings can improve the prediction of the pathological stage when combined with clinical and biopsy data. As a result, several groups developed multi-variate risk calculators for predicting EPE/SVI or positive surgical margins [428]. In external validation cohorts, these risk calculators showed significantly better discrimination than nomograms without MRI-based features [429-431]. In one study of 604 patients who underwent RP at a single centre, the Cancer of the Prostate Risk Assessment Postsurgical (CAPRA-S) model obtained similar results in predicting BCR after RP when the pathological EPE or SVI data were replaced by MRI-based EPE or SVI assessment. Additionally, among the patients with pathological T3 disease, RFS was better for those without T3 disease on MRI than for those with T3 disease [421].

Given its low sensitivity for focal (microscopic) EPE, MRI is not recommended for local staging in low-risk patients. However, MRI can still be useful for treatment planning.

5.8.2 **N-staging**

5.8.2.1 *Computed tomography and MRI*

Abdominal CT and T1-T2-weighted MRI indirectly assess nodal invasion by using LN diameter and morphology. However, the size of non-metastatic LNs varies widely and may overlap the size of LN metastases. Usually, LNs with a short axis > 8 mm in the pelvis and > 10 mm outside the pelvis are considered malignant. Decreasing these thresholds improves sensitivity but decreases specificity. As a result, the ideal size threshold remains unclear [432, 433]. Computed tomography and MRI sensitivity is less than 40% [434, 435]. Detection of microscopic LN invasion by CT is < 1% in patients with ISUP grade group < 4 cancer, PSA < 20 ng/mL, or localised disease [432, 436].

Diffusion-weighted MRI (DW-MRI) may detect metastases in normal-sized nodes, but a negative DW-MRI cannot rule out the presence of LN metastases, and DW-MRI provides only modest improvement for LN staging over conventional imaging [437].

5.8.2.2 *Risk calculators incorporating MRI findings and clinical data*

Computed tomography and MRI lack sensitivity for direct detection of positive LNs, and as a consequence, nomograms combining clinical data, systematic or MRI-targeted biopsy results and, for some of them, MRI findings have been used to estimate the risk of patients harbouring positive LNs. Several underwent external validation [438-442]. However, they tend to show limited specificity, and a substantial proportion of patients may still be submitted to unnecessary LND, especially when the LNI prevalence is low.

5.8.2.3 *Choline PET/CT*

In a meta-analysis of 609 patients, pooled sensitivity and specificity of choline PET/CT for pelvic LN metastases were 62% (95% CI: 51–66%) and 92% (95% CI: 89–94%), respectively [443]. In a prospective trial of 75 patients at intermediate risk of nodal involvement (10–35%), the sensitivity was only 8.2% at region-based analysis and 18.9% at patient-based analysis, which is too low to be of clinical value [444]. The sensitivity of choline PET/CT increases to 50% in patients at high risk and to 71% in patients at very high risk [445]. The ability of choline PET/CT to identify LN (and distant) metastases at initial staging was recently assessed, in a prospective controlled, open, 1:1 randomised multicentre phase III trial, including 236 patients [446]. In the experimental arm (i.e., conventional imaging and choline PET/CT), the sensitivity for LN metastases, confirmed by pathology and serial PSA evaluations, was higher than in the control (conventional imaging only) arm, 77.78% vs. 28.57% and 65.62% vs. 17.65%, respectively.

5.8.2.4 *Prostate-specific membrane antigen-based PET/CT*

Prostate-specific membrane antigen PET/CT, radiolabelled with ^{68}Ga or ^{18}F ligands, is an attractive target because of its specificity for prostate tissue, even if the expression in other non-prostatic malignancies or benign conditions may cause incidental false-positive findings [447, 448].

A multi-centre prospective phase III imaging trial, investigating men with intermediate- and high-risk PCa who underwent RP and PLND, showed a sensitivity and specificity of ^{68}Ga -PSMA-11 PET of 0.40 (95% CI: 0.34-0.46), and 0.95 (95% CI: 0.92-0.97), respectively [449]. This is in line with previous results from prospective, multi-centre studies addressing the accuracy of ^{68}Ga -PSMA and ^{18}F -DCFPyL PET/CT for LN staging in patients with newly diagnosed PCa [450-452]. Prostate-specific antigen may be a predictor of a positive PSMA PET/CT. In the primary staging cohort from a meta-analysis, however, no robust estimates of positivity were found [453].

Comparison between PSMA PET/CT and MRI was performed in a SR and meta-analysis including thirteen studies (n = 1,597) [454]. ^{68}Ga -PSMA was found to have a higher sensitivity and a comparable specificity for staging pre-operative LN metastases in intermediate- and high-risk PCa [455].

Prostate specific membrane antigen PET/CT has a good sensitivity and specificity for LN involvement, possibly impacting clinical decision-making. In a review and meta-analysis including 37 articles, a subgroup analysis was performed in patients undergoing PSMA PET/CT for primary staging. On a per-patient-based analysis, the sensitivity and specificity of ^{68}Ga -PSMA PET were 77% and 97%, respectively, after eLND at the time of RP. On a per-lesion based analysis, sensitivity and specificity were 75% and 99%, respectively [453].

In summary, PSMA PET/CT is more sensitive in N-staging as compared to MRI, abdominal contrast-enhanced CT or choline PET/CT. However, small LN metastases, under the spatial resolution of PET, may still be missed.

5.8.2.5 Risk calculators incorporating MRI and PSMA findings

An international, multi-centre study incorporated PSMA PET into existing nomograms in order to predict pelvic LN metastatic disease in PCa patients. Performance of three nomograms was assessed in 757 patients undergoing RARP and ePLND. Addition of PSMA PET to the nomograms substantially improved the discriminative ability of the models yielding cross-validated AUCs of 0.76 (95% CI: 0.70–0.82), 0.77 (95% CI: 0.72–0.83), and 0.82 (95% CI: 0.76–0.87), respectively [456]. The same group developed a nomogram incorporating staging MRI and PSMA PET findings to predict LN metastases in a contemporary cohort of 700 patients from the Netherlands, who underwent RP and ePLND. The nomogram was then tested in 305 patients who underwent RP and ePLND at two centres in Australia. On this external cohort, the nomogram performed significantly better than the Briganti 2017 and the MSKCC nomograms. Its performance was similar to that of the Briganti 2019 nomogram [457]. However, given the excellent specificity of PSMA PET, it remains unclear whether a nomogram is required in PSMA PET positive patients.

5.8.2.6 Surgical techniques

5.8.2.6.1 Pelvic lymph node dissection

Extended PLND includes removal of the nodes overlying the external iliac artery and vein, the nodes within the obturator fossa located cranially and caudally to the obturator nerve, and the nodes medial and lateral to the internal iliac artery. As such, ePLND provides accurate information for staging and prognosis [458]. However, a SR has demonstrated that performing PLND during RP failed to improve oncological outcomes, including survival [536]. Moreover, two RCTs have failed to show a benefit of an extended approach vs. a limited PLND on early oncologic outcomes [459-461].

5.8.2.6.2 Lymph-node-positive patients during radical prostatectomy

Although no RCTs are available, data from prospective cohort studies comparing survival of pN+ patients (as defined following pathological examination after RP) support that RP may have a survival benefit over abandonment of RP in node-positive cases [462]. As a consequence, there is no role for performing frozen section of suspicious LNs.

5.8.2.6.3 Sentinel node biopsy analysis

The rationale for a sentinel node biopsy (SNB) is based on the concept that a sentinel node is the first to be involved by migrating tumour cells. Therefore, when this node is negative it is possible to avoid an ePLND [463]. Intraprostatic injections of indocyanine green (ICG) have been used to visualise prostate-related LNs for SNB. A randomised comparison found more cancer-containing LNs in men who underwent a PLND guided by ICG but no difference in BCR at 22.9-month follow-up [464]. A SR of 21 studies showed a sensitivity of 95.2% and NPV of 98.0% for SNB, in detecting men with metastases at ePLND [465]. However, this review was hampered by widespread heterogeneity of both definitions and how SNB is performed. This prompted the development of an expert consensus report to guide further research [463]. A randomised trial reported on ICG-only PLND (ICG-stained lymph nodes only, following pre-operative injection of ICG into bilateral transition zones) compared to ePLND in 108 patients undergoing RP following staging with conventional imaging [466]. Operative time, lymph node counts (median 24 vs. 7) and post-operative lymphoedema (RR: 4.75, $p < 0.05$) were higher in the ePLND group but pN1 (ePLND 22% vs. ICG-PLND 28%, $p = 0.7$) and 24-month BCR-free survival (ePLND 83% vs. ICG-PLND 75%, $p = 0.58$) rates were similar between the groups.

The prospective SENTINELLE study investigated the diagnostic accuracy of sentinel lymph node biopsy-guided lymph node dissection (following intraprostatic injection of (99m)Tc-nanocolloid) compared to extended pelvic LN dissection in patients with intermediate- or high-risk prostate cancer. Sensitivity, specificity, NPV, and PPV of SNB method in detecting patients with at least one LN metastasis were 95.4% (95% CI: 75.1-99.7), 100% (95% CI: 96.6-100), 99.2% (95% CI: 95.5-99.9), and 100% (95% CI: 80.7-100), respectively [545].

An emerging alternative to sentinel node removal following intraprostatic injections is PSMA-guided lymph node dissection following intravenous radioisotope injection and intraoperative radio guidance or optical guidance [467]. Initial studies report high specificity approaching 100% although limited sensitivity and associated poor negative predictive value restrict the functional value at this point.

5.8.2.6.4 Complications of extended pelvic lymph node dissection

Extended PLND increases morbidity in the treatment of PCa [458]. Overall complication rates of 19.8% vs. 8.2% were noted for ePLND vs. limited PLND, respectively, with lymphoceles (10.3% vs. 4.6%) being the most common adverse event (AE). Other authors have reported lower complication rates [468]. Another study [469] also showed more complications after extended compared to limited PLND. Twenty percent of men suffer a complication of some sort after ePLND. Thromboembolic events occur in less than 1% of cases overall, but the RR of DVT and PE associated with PLND has been found to be 7.8 and 6.3, respectively [470].

Lymphocele complicating ePLND may be reduced by incorporation of peritoneal interposition flap, with a SR of RCTs reporting reduced symptomatic lymphocele (OR: 0.46), overall lymphocele (OR: 0.51) and Clavien-Dindo ≥ 3 complications (OR: 0.41) without major function impairment [471]. The PELYCAN trial (n = 551) further confirmed the benefits of bilateral peritoneal interposition flaps compared to no flap in reducing symptomatic lymphocele (3.7% vs. 9.1%, p = 0.005) and asymptomatic lymphocele (10.3% vs. 27.2%, p < 0.001) without compromise in postoperative complications at the expense of longer operating time (11 minutes, p < 0.001) [472].

5.8.3 **M-staging**

5.8.3.1 *Bone scan*

^{99m}Tc-Bone scan is a highly sensitive conventional imaging technique, evaluating the distribution of active bone formation in the skeleton related to malignant and benign disease. A meta-analysis showed combined sensitivity and specificity of 79% (95% CI: 73–83%) and 82% (95% CI: 78–85%) at patient level [473]. Bone scan diagnostic yield is significantly influenced by the PSA level, the clinical stage and the tumour ISUP grade group [432, 474]. A retrospective study investigated the association between age, PSA and GS in 703 newly diagnosed PCa patients who were referred for bone scintigraphy. The incidence of bone metastases increased substantially with rising PSA and upgrading GS [475]. In two studies, a dominant Gleason pattern of 4 was found to be a significant predictor of positive bone scan [476, 477]. Bone scanning should be performed in symptomatic patients, independent of PSA level, ISUP GG or clinical stage [432]. Nevertheless, bone scintigraphy reveals lower specificity (64.5%) and positive predictive value (55.4%), with a relatively low interobserver agreement [478]. Additional single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) using ^{99m}Tc-diphosphonates may overcome these limitations, by improved discrimination of benign and equivocal findings. In a multicentre phase 3 trial in patients with high-risk prostate or breast cancer, SPECT exhibited a sensitivity, specificity, and PPV of 63.3%, 87.5%, and 78.4%, respectively [479].

5.8.3.2 *Fluoride PET/CT, choline PET/CT and MRI*

¹⁸F-sodium fluoride (¹⁸F-NaF) PET or PET/CT, similarly to bone scintigraphy, only assesses the presence of bone metastases. The tracer was reported to have similar specificity and superior sensitivity to bone scintigraphy for detecting bone metastases in patients with newly diagnosed high-risk PCa [480, 481]. Interobserver agreement for the detection of bone metastases was excellent, demonstrating that ¹⁸F-NaF PET/CT is a robust tool for the detection of osteoblastic lesions in patients with PCa [482]. Results of a prospective randomised multicentre study showed that Choline PET/CT has a superior per-patient diagnostic accuracy, compared to conventional imaging alone, in men with intermediate- and high-risk PCa [446]. This is in line with previous data [483-485]. Choline PET/CT has also the advantage of detecting visceral and nodal metastases.

Diffusion-weighted whole-body and axial skeleton MRI are more sensitive than bone scan and targeted conventional radiography in detecting bone metastases in high-risk PCa. Whole-body MRI can also detect visceral and nodal metastases; it was shown to be more sensitive and specific than combined bone scan, targeted radiography and abdominopelvic CT [486]. A meta-analysis found that whole-body MRI is more sensitive than choline PET/CT and bone scan for detecting bone metastases on a per-patient basis, although choline PET/CT had the highest specificity [473].

5.8.3.3 PSMA PET/CT

A SR including twelve studies (n = 322) reported high variation in ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET/CT sensitivity for initial staging (range 33–99%; median sensitivity on per-lesion analysis 33–92%, and on per-patient analysis 66–91%), with good specificity (per-lesion 82–100%, and per-patient 67–99%), with most studies demonstrating increased detection rates with respect to conventional imaging modalities (bone scan and CT) [487].

In a prospective multi-centre study in patients with high-risk PCa before curative surgery or RT (proPSMA), 302 patients were randomly assigned to conventional imaging or ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT [488]. The primary outcome focused on the accuracy of first-line imaging for the identification of pelvic LN or distant metastases. Accuracy of ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET/CT was 27% (95% CI: 23–31) higher than that of CT and bone scintigraphy (92% [95% CI: 88–95] vs. 65% [95% CI: 60–69]; p < 0.0001). Conventional imaging had a lower sensitivity (38% [95% CI: 24–52] vs. 85% [95% CI: 74–96]) and specificity (91% [95% CI: 85–97] vs. 98% [95% CI: 95–100]) than PSMA PET/CT. Furthermore, ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET/CT scan prompted management change more frequently as compared to conventional imaging (41 [28%] men [95% CI: 21–36] vs. 23 [15%] men [95% CI: 10–22], p = 0.08), with less equivocal findings (7% [95% CI: 4–13] vs. 23% [95% CI: 17–31]) and lower radiation exposure (8.4 mSv vs. 19.2 mSv; p < 0.001) [488]. The comparison of whole body MRI and PSMA PET/CT in detecting bone metastases has led to inconclusive opposite results in two small cohorts [455, 489].

The added prognostic value of presurgical PSMA-PET for BCR-Free Survival (FS), compared with the presurgical Cancer of the Prostate Risk Assessment (CAPRA) and postsurgical CAPRA-Surgery (CAPRA-S) scores, in patients with intermediate- to high risk PCa treated with RP and PLND has been investigated [490]. During a 32 mo (interquartile range 23.3–42.9) follow-up, 91/240 (38%) BCR events were observed. The addition of PSMA-PET N1/M1 status to the presurgical CAPRA score improved the risk assessment for BCR significantly, in comparison with the presurgical CAPRA score alone (c-statistic 0.70 [0.64–0.75] vs 0.63 [0.57–0.69]; p < 0.001).

5.8.4 Summary of evidence and practical considerations on initial N/M staging

The field of non-invasive N- and M-staging of PCa patients is evolving very rapidly. Evidence shows that choline PET/CT, PSMA PET/CT and whole-body MRI provide a more sensitive detection of LN- and bone metastases than the classical work-up with bone scan and abdominopelvic CT. First results of a follow-up study of the surgical cohort in the multicentre prospective phase 3 imaging trial demonstrate that presurgical PSMA-PET is a strong prognostic biomarker, improving BCR-FS risk assessment [490]. However, the ideal management of patients diagnosed as metastatic by these more sensitive tests is yet unknown [492].

5.8.5 Recommendations for staging of prostate cancer

Recommendations	Strength rating
Any risk group staging	
Use pre-biopsy magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) for local staging information.	Weak
Low-risk localised disease	
Do not use additional imaging for staging purposes.	Strong
Intermediate-risk disease	
For patients with International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) grade group 3 disease perform prostate-specific antigen-positron emission tomography/computed tomography (PSMA-PET/CT) if available to increase accuracy or at least cross-sectional abdominopelvic imaging and a bone-scan.	Weak
High-risk localised disease/locally advanced disease	
Perform metastatic screening using PSMA-PET/CT if available or at least cross-sectional abdominopelvic imaging and a bone-scan.	Strong

6. TREATMENT

This chapter reviews the available treatment modalities, followed by separate sections addressing treatment for the various disease stages.

6.1 Estimating life expectancy and health status

6.1.1 Introduction

Evaluation of life expectancy and health status is important in clinical decision-making for early detection, diagnosis, and treatment of PCa. Prostate cancer is common in older men (median age 68 years) and diagnoses in men > 65 years will result in a 70% increase in annual diagnosis by 2030 in Europe and the USA [493, 494].

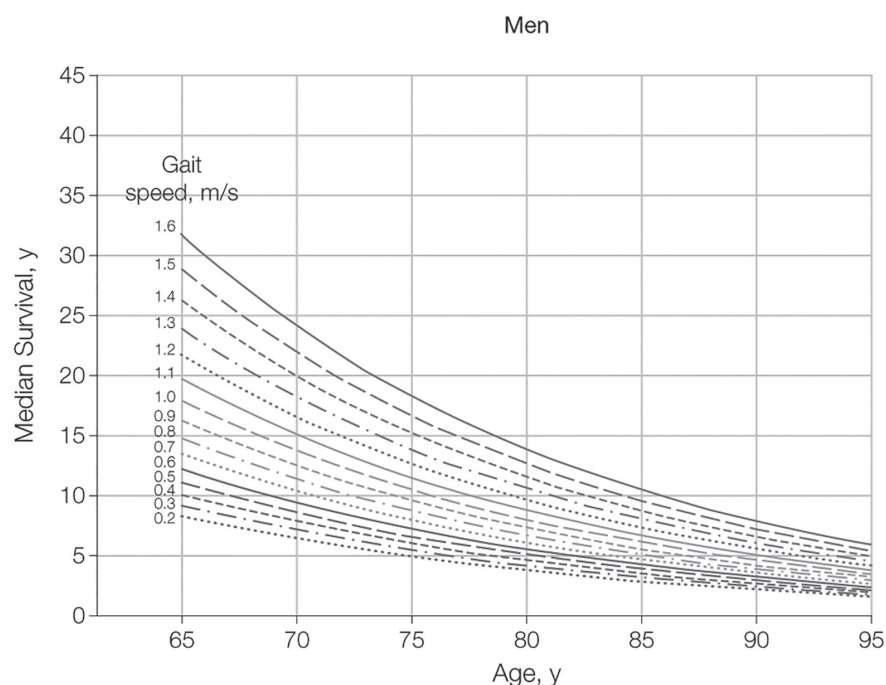
Active treatment mostly benefits patients with intermediate- or high-risk PCa and longest expected survival. In localised disease, over ten years life expectancy is considered mandatory for any benefit from local treatment and an improvement in CSS may take longer to become apparent. Older age and worse baseline health status have been associated with a smaller benefit in PCSM and life expectancy of surgery vs. AS [495]. Although in a RCT the benefit of surgery with respect to death from PCa was largest in men < 65 years of age (RR: 0.45), RP was associated with a reduced risk of metastases and use of androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) also among older men (RR: 0.68 and 0.60, respectively) [496]. External beam RT shows similar cancer control regardless of age, assuming a dose of > 72 Gy when using intensity-modulated or image-guided RT [497].

Older men have a higher incidence of PCa and may be under-treated despite the high overall mortality rates [498, 499]. Of all PCa-related deaths 71% occur in men aged > 75 years [500], probably due to the higher incidence of advanced disease and death from PCa despite higher death rates from competing causes [501-503]. In the USA, only 41% of patients aged > 75 years with intermediate- and high-risk disease received curative treatment compared to 88% aged 65–74 [504].

6.1.2 Life expectancy

Life expectancy tables for European men are available online: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/>. Survival may be variable and therefore estimates of survival must be individualised. Gait speed is a good single predictive method of life expectancy (from a standing start, at usual pace, generally over 6 meters). For men at age 75, ten-year survival ranged from 19% < 0.4 m/s to 87%, for ≥ 1.4 m/s [505].

Figure 6.1: Predicted Median Life Expectancy by Age and Gait Speed for males* [505]



*Figure reproduced with permission of the publisher, from Studenski S, et al. JAMA 2011 305(1)50.

6.1.3 **Health status screening**

Heterogeneity in performance increases with advancing age, so it is important to use measures other than just age or performance status (PS) when considering treatment options. The International SIOG PCa Working Group recommends that treatment for adults over 70 years of age should be based on a systematic evaluation of health status using the G8 (Geriatric 8) screening tool (Table 6.1.1) [146]. This tool helps to discriminate between those who are fit and those with frailty, a syndrome of reduced ability to respond to stressors. Patients with frailty have a higher risk of mortality and negative side effects of cancer treatment [506]. Healthy patients with a G8 score > 14 or vulnerable patients with reversible impairment after resolution of their geriatric problems should receive the same treatment as younger patients. Frail patients with irreversible impairment should receive adapted treatment. Patients who are too ill should receive only palliative treatment (see Figure 5.3) [146]. Patients with a G8 score ≤ 14 should undergo a comprehensive geriatric assessment (CGA) as this score is associated with three-year mortality. A CGA is a multi-domain assessment that includes co-morbidity, nutritional status, cognitive and physical function, and social supports to determine if impairments are reversible [507]. A SR of the effect of geriatric evaluation for older cancer patients showed improved treatment tolerance and completion [508].

The Clinical Frailty Scale (CFS) is another screening tool for frailty (see Figure 5.4) [509]. Although not frequently used in the cancer setting, it is considered to be a common language for expressing degree of frailty. The scale runs from one to nine, with higher scores indicating increasing frailty. Patients with a higher CFS score have a higher 30-day mortality after surgery and are less likely to be discharged home [510].

It is important to use a validated tool to identify frailty, such as the G8 or CFS, as clinical judgement has been shown to be poorly predictive of frailty in older patients with cancer [511].

6.1.3.1 *Co-morbidity*

Co-morbidity is a major predictor of non-cancer-specific death in localised PCa treated with RP and is more important than age [512, 513]. Ten years after watchful waiting for PCa, most men with a high co-morbidity score had died from competing causes, irrespective of age or tumour aggressiveness [512]. Measures for co-morbidity include: Cumulative Illness Score Rating-Geriatrics (CISR-G) [514, 515] (Table 6.1.2) and Charlson Co-morbidity Index (CCI) [516].

6.1.3.2 *Nutritional status*

Malnutrition can be estimated from body weight during the previous three months (good nutritional status < 5% weight loss; risk of malnutrition: 5–10% weight loss; severe malnutrition: > 10% weight loss) [517].

6.1.3.3 *Cognitive function*

Cognitive impairment can be screened for using the mini-COG (<https://mini-cog.com/>) which consists of three-word recall and a clock-drawing test and can be completed within five minutes. A score of ≤ 3/5 indicates the need to refer the patient for full cognitive assessment. Patients with any form of cognitive impairment (e.g., Alzheimer's or vascular dementia) may need a capacity assessment of their ability to make an informed decision, which is an increasingly important factor in health status assessment [518-520]. Cognitive impairment also predicts risk of delirium, which is important for patients undergoing surgery [521].

6.1.3.4 *Physical function*

Measures for overall physical functioning include: Karnofsky score and ECOG scores [522]. Measures for dependence in daily activities include Activities of Daily Living (ADL; basic activities) and Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL; activities requiring higher cognition and judgement) [523-525].

6.1.3.5 *Shared decision-making*

The patient's own values and preferences should be considered as well as the above factors. A shared decision-making process also involves anticipated changes to QoL, functional ability, and a patient's hopes, worries and expectations about the future [526]. Particularly in older and frail patients, these aspects should be given equal importance to disease characteristics during the decision-making process [527]. Older patients may also wish to involve family members, and this is particularly important where cognitive impairment exists.

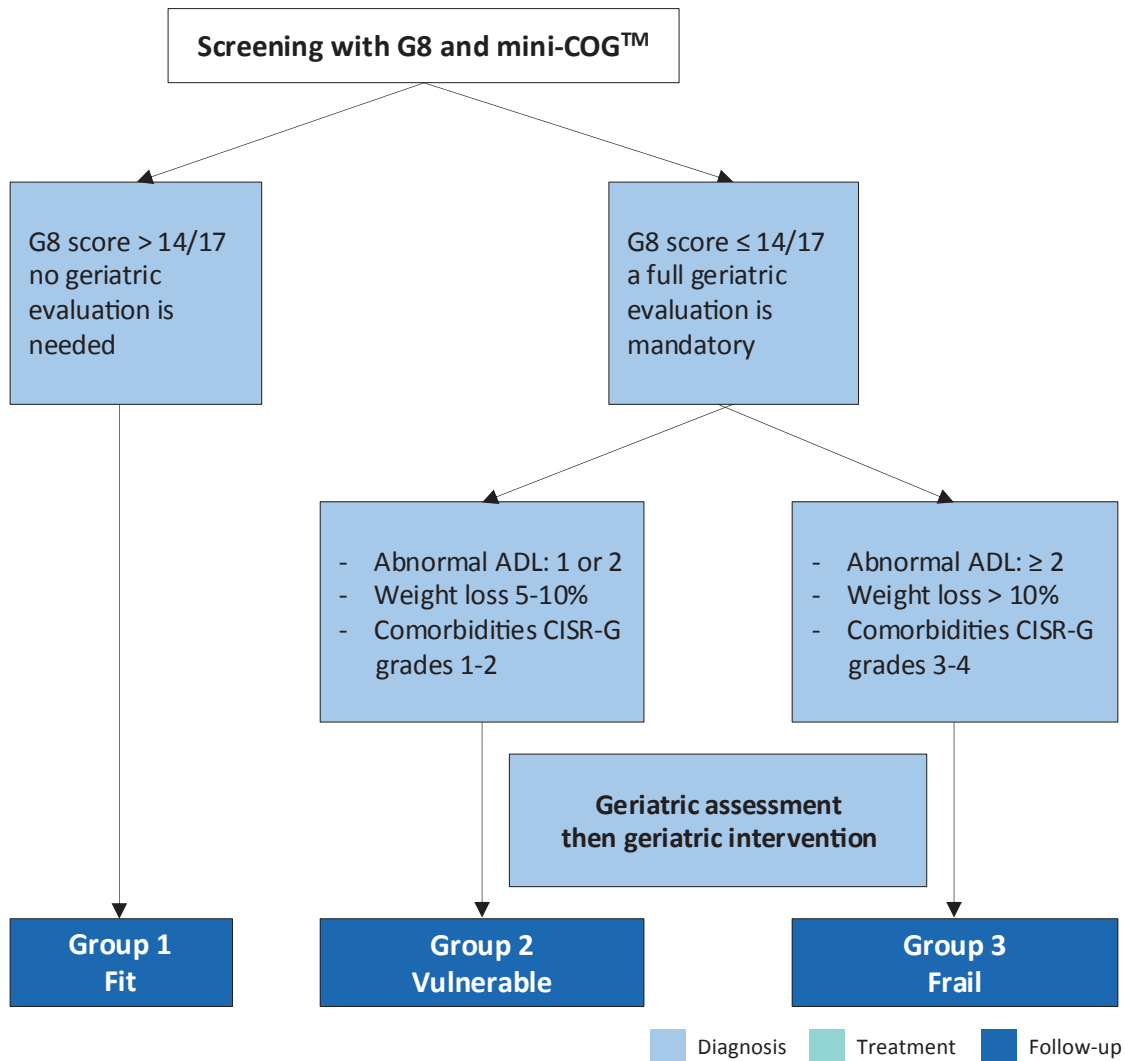
6.1.4 **Conclusion**

Individual life expectancy, health status, frailty, and co-morbidity, not only age, should be central in clinical decisions on screening, diagnostics, and treatment for PCa. A life expectancy of ten years is most commonly used as a threshold for benefit of local treatment. Older men may be undertreated. Patients aged 70 years of age or older who have frailty should receive a comprehensive geriatric assessment. Resolution of impairments in vulnerable men allows a similar urological approach as in fit patients.

Table 6.1.1: G8 screening tool (adapted from [528])

	Items	Possible responses (score)
A	Has food intake declined over the past three months due to loss of appetite, digestive problems, chewing, or swallowing difficulties?	0 = severe decrease in food intake
		1 = moderate decrease in food intake
		2 = no decrease in food intake
B	Weight loss during the last three months?	0 = weight loss > 3 kg
		1 = does not know
		2 = weight loss between 1 and 3 kg
		3 = no weight loss
C	Mobility?	0 = bed or chair bound
		1 = able to get out of bed/chair but does not go out
		2 = goes out
D	Neuropsychological problems?	0 = severe dementia or depression
		1 = mild dementia
		2 = no psychological problems
E	BMI? (weight in kg)/(height in m ²)	0 = BMI < 19
		1 = BMI 19 to < 21
		2 = BMI 21 to < 23
		3 = BMI ≥ 23
F	Takes more than three prescription drugs per day?	0 = yes
		1 = no
G	In comparison with other people of the same age, how does the patient consider his/her health status?	0.0 = not as good
		0.5 = does not know
		1.0 = as good
		2.0 = better
H	Age	0 = ≥ 85
		1 = 80-85
		2 = < 80
	Total score	0-17

Figure 6.2: Decision tree for health status screening (men > 70 years)** [146]












Mini-COG™ = Mini-COG™ cognitive test; ADLs = activities of daily living; CIRS-G = Cumulative Illness Rating Score - Geriatrics; CGA = comprehensive geriatric assessment.


* For Mini-COG™, a cut-off points of $\leq 3/5$ indicates a need to refer the patient for full evaluation of potential dementia.

**Reproduced with permission of Elsevier, from Boyle H.J., et al. *Eur J Cancer* 2019;116: 116 [146].

Figure 6.3: The Clinical Frailty Scale version 2.0 [509]*

CLINICAL FRAILTY SCALE		
	1	VERY FIT People who are robust, active, energetic and motivated. They tend to exercise regularly and are among the fittest for their age.
	2	FIT People who have no active disease symptoms but are less fit than category 1. Often, they exercise or are very active occasionally , e.g., seasonally.
	3	MANAGING WELL People whose medical problems are well controlled , even if occasionally symptomatic, but often are not regularly active beyond routine walking.
	4	LIVING WITH VERY MILD FRAILITY Previously "vulnerable," this category marks early transition from complete independence. While not dependent on others for daily help, often symptoms limit activities . A common complaint is being "slowed up" and/or being tired during the day.
	5	LIVING WITH MILD FRAILITY People who often have more evident slowing , and need help with high order instrumental activities of daily living (finances, transportation, heavy housework). Typically, mild frailty progressively impairs shopping and walking outside alone, meal preparation, medications and begins to restrict light housework.
	6	LIVING WITH MODERATE FRAILITY People who need help with all outside activities and with keeping house . Inside, they often have problems with stairs and need help with bathing and might need minimal assistance (cuing, standby) with dressing.
	7	LIVING WITH SEVERE FRAILITY Completely dependent for personal care , from whatever cause (physical or cognitive). Even so, they seem stable and not at high risk of dying (within ~6 months).
	8	LIVING WITH VERY SEVERE FRAILITY Completely dependent for personal care and approaching end of life. Typically, they could not recover even from a minor illness.
	9	TERMINALLY ILL Approaching the end of life. This category applies to people with a life expectancy <6 months , who are not otherwise living with severe frailty . (Many terminally ill people can still exercise until very close to death.)

SCORING FRAILITY IN PEOPLE WITH DEMENTIA	
<p>The degree of frailty generally corresponds to the degree of dementia. Common symptoms in mild dementia include forgetting the details of a recent event, though still remembering the event itself, repeating the same question/story and social withdrawal.</p>	<p>In moderate dementia, recent memory is very impaired, even though they seemingly can remember their past life events well. They can do personal care with prompting.</p> <p>In severe dementia, they cannot do personal care without help.</p> <p>In very severe dementia they are often bedfast. Many are virtually mute.</p>


DALHOUSIE UNIVERSITY
www.geriatricmedicineresearch.ca

Clinical Frailty Scale ©2005–2020 Rockwood, Version 2.0 (EN). All rights reserved. For permission: www.geriatricmedicineresearch.ca
 Rockwood K et al. A global clinical measure of fitness and frailty in elderly people. CMAJ 2005;173:489–495.

*Permission to reproduce the CFS was granted by the copyright holder.

Table 6.2: Cumulative Illness Score Rating-Geriatrics (CISR-G)

1	Cardiac (heart only)
2	Hypertension (rating is based on severity; affected systems are rated separately)
3	Vascular (blood, blood vessels and cells, marrow, spleen, lymphatics)
4	Respiratory (lungs, bronchi, trachea below the larynx)
5	ENT (eye, ear, nose, throat, larynx)
6	Upper GI (oesophagus, stomach, duodenum. Biliar and pancreatic trees; do not include diabetes)
7	Lower GI (intestines, hernias)
8	Hepatic (liver only)
9	Renal (kidneys only)
10	Other GU (ureters, bladder, urethra, prostate, genitals)
11	Musculo-Skeletal-Integumentary (muscles, bone, skin)
12	Neurological (brain, spinal cord, nerves; do not include dementia)
13	Endocrine-Metabolic (includes diabetes, diffuse infections, infections, toxicity)
14	Psychiatric/Behavioural (includes dementia, depression, anxiety, agitation, psychosis)
	All body systems are scores on a 0 - 4 scale. - 0: No problem affecting that system. - 1: Current mild problem or past significant problem. - 2: Moderate disability or morbidity and/or requires first line therapy. - 3: Severe problem and/or constant and significant disability and/or hard to control chronic problems. - 4: Extremely severe problem and/or immediate treatment required and/or organ failure and/or severe functional impairment.
Total score 0-56	

6.1.5 Guidelines for evaluating health status and life expectancy

Recommendations	Strength rating
Use individual life expectancy, health status, and co-morbidity in PCa management.	Strong
Use the Geriatric-8, mini-COG and Clinical Frailty Scale tools for health status screening.	Strong
Perform a full specialist geriatric evaluation in patients with a G8 score \leq 14.	Strong
Consider standard treatment in vulnerable patients with reversible impairments (after resolution of geriatric problems) similar to fit patients, if life expectancy is $>$ 10 years.	Weak
Offer adapted treatment or watchful waiting to patients with irreversible impairment.	Weak
Offer palliative symptom-directed therapy alone to frail patients.	Strong

6.2 Treatment modalities

6.2.1 Expectant management strategies

Two different strategies of expectant management exist. For PCa in which curative therapy (using surgery or radiation) is not possible or indicated and palliative hormonal therapy not yet indicated, may be followed until local or metastatic symptomatic progression, to delay the side effects of androgen deprivation therapy (ADT). This strategy is referred to as watchful waiting (WW).

In patients with low- to intermediate-risk PCa, curative therapy may be postponed, or avoided altogether, using AS. As the prevalence of cancer cells in the prostate is so much higher than the risk of dying from PCa, together with the increased rate of early detection of small tumours after the introduction of PSA, there is a distinct risk of over-diagnosis and subsequent over-treatment of the disease (Chapter 3.1 Epidemiology) [9, 529, 530]. At the same time all available radical PCa treatment options may cause significant side effects. The differences between WW and AS are presented in Table 6.2.1.

Table 6.2.1: Differences between active surveillance and watchful waiting [478]

	Active surveillance	Watchful waiting
Treatment intent	Curative	Palliative
Follow-up	Pre-defined schedule	Patient-specific
Assessment/markers* used	DRE, PSA, re-biopsy, imaging (MRI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None (wait for symptoms); or • Annual/biannual PSA (consider DRE if significant PSA-rise or imaging if metastases suspected)
Life expectancy	$>$ 10 years	$<$ 10 years
Aim	Minimise curative treatment-related toxicity without compromising survival, as the PCa is so indolent that it is unlikely to cause symptoms even with long life expectancy	Minimise palliative treatment-related (ADT) toxicity without compromising survival, PCa is unlikely to affect lifespan.
Eligible patients	Low- and selected intermediate-risk patients	Can apply to patients in all risk groups

DRE = digital rectal examination; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging.

*Molecular markers and/or PSMA-PET/CT (-MRI) may be used.

Data from studies conducted on patients who did not undergo local treatment with up to 25 years of follow-up, with endpoints of OS and CSS, are available. Several series have shown a consistent CSS rate of 82–87% at ten years [531, 532], and 80–95% for T1/T2 and ISUP GG \leq 2 PCa [533]. In three studies with data beyond 15 years, the reported CSS rates were 80%, 79% and 58% [531, 532, 534]. Two studies reported 20-year CSS rates of 57% and 32% [531, 534]. The observed heterogeneity in outcomes is due to different inclusion criteria, with some older studies from the pre-PSA era showing worse outcomes [534]. In addition, many patients classified as ISUP GG 1 would now be classified as ISUP GG 2–3 based on the 2005 Gleason classification, suggesting that the above-mentioned results should be considered as minimal and current outcomes would be more favourable. Patients with well-, moderately- and poorly-differentiated tumours had ten-year CSS rates of 91%, 90% and 74%, respectively, correlating with data from a pooled analysis [533]. In screen-detected localised PCa there is also a

lead-time bias, resulting in a higher rate of early detected PCa, but also an even higher risk of detecting clinically insignificant PCa that never would have caused any symptoms [530]. Cancer specific survival from untreated screen-detected PCa in patients with ISUP grade groups 1–2 is therefore likely to be even more favourable than for PCa detected of other reasons. Consequently, a high proportion of men with PSA-detected PCa are suitable for conservative management.

The high CSS rate of localised PCa requires that a life expectancy of at least ten years should be considered mandatory for any benefit from curative treatment. Co-morbidity is as important as age in predicting life expectancy. Increasing co-morbidity greatly increases the risk of dying from non-PCa-related causes. In an analysis of 19,639 patients aged > 65 years who were not given curative treatment, most men with a CCI score ≥ 2 had died from competing causes at ten years follow-up regardless of their age at time of diagnosis. Tumour aggressiveness had little impact on OS suggesting that patients could have been spared biopsy and diagnosis of cancer. Men with a CCI score ≤ 1 had a low risk of death at ten years, especially for well- or moderately differentiated lesions [512]. Additionally, in the ProtecT trial (see section 6.2.1.2), prostate cancer-related death was 3% at 15 years compared to death from any cause in 21.7% of patients, numbers that have been further validated in two large population-based studies from Canada and Sweden [535-537].

When managed with non-curative intent, intermediate-risk PCa is associated with ten-year and fifteen-year PCSM rates of 13.0% and 19.6%, respectively [538]. These estimates are based on systematic biopsies and may be overestimated in the era of MRI-targeted biopsies.

The overall evidence indicates that for men with asymptomatic, clinically localised PCa, and with a life expectancy of < 10 years based on co-morbidities and/or age, the oncological advantages of active treatment are unlikely to be relevant to them. Consequently, WW should be adopted for such patients. Estimation of competing benefits of active vs. conservative treatment and death from any cause at ten and fifteen years can be estimated using the PREDICT Prostate tool (<https://prostate.predict.nhs.uk/>), which is endorsed by the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence in the UK [539]. This highlights the importance of assessing co-morbidity even before considering a biopsy, but also before advising a patient with a PCa diagnosis on the optimal treatment for him.

6.2.1.1 *Watchful Waiting*

Watchful waiting refers to conservative management for patients deemed unsuitable for curative treatment from the outset and in whom palliative therapy is not yet indicated. The aim of WW is to balance the potential harms and benefits of early hormonal treatment, and patients are clinically 'watched' for the development of local or systemic progression with (imminent) disease-related symptoms, at which stage they are then treated palliatively according to their symptoms in order to maintain QoL. Traditionally WW has meant waiting for symptoms of the tumour to develop and has, in some practices, not included regular follow-up in any active way. However, today we have evidence that early hormonal treatment could prolong short term survival (within a few years) for locally advanced disease, for patients with a PSA doubling time (PSA-DT) < 12 months, and for PSA-values over 30-50 ng/mL [540, 541]. A more active follow-up of men on WW could therefore be beneficial for the higher risk groups, so that a local or start of metastatic spread progression (often associated with a higher ISUP GG) can be detected before they present with significant symptoms. Hormonal treatment could then be considered before symptoms emerge. The WW strategy should therefore be individualised and planned together with the patient. Biannual PSA, or annual after a period of stable disease, followed by DRE or bone scan if PSA rises significantly, could then be of value.

In a Swedish registry study of men with non-metastatic PCa on WW, after five years 66.2% of patients with low-risk and 36.1% with high-risk disease, and after ten years 25.5% and 10.4% were still alive and not receiving ADT [542]. At ten years, 4.1% and 10.8% had transitioned to castration-resistant disease, respectively. Importantly, 92.3% of low-risk and 84.1% of high-risk patients died due to other causes than PCa after ten years [542].

Watchful waiting vs. radical prostatectomy

There are two RCTs and one Cochrane review comparing the outcomes of WW to radical prostatectomy (RP). The SPCG-4 study was a RCT from the pre-PSA era, randomising patients to either WW or RP in 695 men (24% with nonpalpable disease) [543]. The study found RP to provide superior CSS, OS and progression-free survival (PFS) compared to WW at a median follow-up of 23.6 years (range 3 weeks–28 years). However, the benefit in favour of RP over WW was only apparent after ten years.

The PIVOT trial, a RCT conducted in the early PSA era, made a similar comparison between RP vs. WW in 731 men (50% with nonpalpable disease, 42% low-risk) but in contrast to the SPCG-4, it found little, to no, benefit of RP (cumulative incidence of all-cause death, RP vs. observation: 68% vs. 73%; RR: 0.92, 95% CI: 0.84–1.01) within a median follow-up period of 18.6 years (interquartile range, 16.6 to 20 years) [544]. Exploratory

subgroup analysis showed that the borderline benefit from RP was most marked for intermediate-risk disease (RR: 0.84, 95% CI: 0.73–0.98) but there was no benefit in patients with low- or high-risk disease. Overall, no adverse effects on health related QoL (HRQoL) and psychological well-being was apparent in the first five years [545]. However, one of the criticisms of the PIVOT trial is the relatively high overall mortality rate in the WW group compared with more contemporary series, suggesting a selection bias.

A Cochrane review performed a pooled analysis of RCTs comparing RP vs. WW [546]. Three studies were included; the previously mentioned SPCG-4 [543] and PIVOT [544] and the Veteran's Administration Cooperative Urological Research Group (VACURG) study which was conducted in the pre-PSA era [547]. The authors found that RP compared with WW reduced time to death by any cause (HR: 0.79, 95% CI: 0.70–0.90), time to death by PCa (HR: 0.57, 95% CI: 0.44–0.73) and time to metastatic progression (HR: 0.56, 95% CI: 0.46–0.70) at 29 years' follow-up. However, RP was associated with higher rates of urinary incontinence (RR: 3.97, 95% CI: 2.34–6.74) and ED (RR: 2.67, 95% CI: 1.63–4.38).

6.2.1.2 Active surveillance

Active surveillance aims to delay or completely avoid unnecessary local curative treatment (surgery/radiation), and consequently unnecessary side effects, in men with low-risk and selected intermediate-risk PCa, and a life expectancy of ten years or more, who do not require immediate treatment. The strategy aims to achieve the correct timing for curative treatment in those who show reclassification during follow-up [548]. Patients remain under close surveillance through structured surveillance programmes with regular follow-up consisting of PSA testing, clinical examination, repeat prostate biopsies, and an increasing role of imaging (usually MRI). Curative treatment is prompted by pre-defined thresholds indicative of development to potentially significant disease, which is still curable, while considering individual life expectancy.

No formal RCT is available comparing AS to curative treatment. Several cohorts have investigated AS in organ-confined disease, the findings of which were summarised in a SR [549, 550]. Table 6.2.2 summarises the results of selected AS cohorts. The long-term OS and CSS of patients on AS are very good. However, more than one-third of patients are reclassified during follow-up, most of whom undergo curative treatment due to disease upgrading, increase in disease extent, disease stage, progression, or patient preference. There is variation and heterogeneity between studies regarding exact patient selection, eligibility criteria, and follow-up policies (including frequency of clinical follow-up, use of PSA kinetics, PSA-density, frequency of standard repeat prostate biopsies, frequency and type of imaging such as MRI, and type of biopsy strategy (systematic, MRI-lesion targeted biopsies, combinations, or template biopsies), when active treatment should be instigated (i.e., reclassification criteria), and which outcome measures should be prioritised [548]. For specific guidelines on inclusion criteria and follow-up strategies for AS, see section 6.2.1.2.1.

ProtecT study

ProtecT, randomised 1,643 patients into one of three arms: active treatment with either RP or EBRT or active monitoring (AM) with outcomes reported at ten years and 15 years [535, 551]. ProtecT trial did not apply a formal AS strategy. Active monitoring (AM), was a significantly less stringent surveillance strategy, using PSA only, with relaxed criteria to define progression. No repeat biopsies were performed as in AS.

At enrolment sixty-six percent of the patients had low-risk disease, with 90% having a PSA < 10 ng/mL, 77% ISUP GG 1 (20% ISUP GG 2–3), and 76% had T1c disease. The remaining patients had mainly intermediate-risk disease (approximately 40%).

The key finding was that AM was as effective as active treatment at fifteen years (CSS = 96.9% in the AM-group vs. 97.8% in the RP-group and 97.1% in the EBRT-group, $p = 0.53$), but an increased metastatic progression risk (9.4% vs. 4.7% and 5.0% respectively), as well as clinical progression at fifteen years (25.9% for AM vs. 10.7% for RP/RT). Death from any cause occurred in 21.7% of the cohort, with similar numbers across treatment groups. Metastases, although rare, were more frequent than seen with comparable AS protocols [549]. A comprehensive characterisation of the ProtecT study cohort was performed after ten years, stratifying patients at baseline according to risk of progression using clinical stage, grade at diagnosis and PSA level [552]. Additionally, detailed clinico-pathological information on participants who received RP were analysed.

The fifteen-year paper reported updated contemporary risk-stratification according to D'Amico (24.1% Intermediate risk, 9.6% high risk), CAPRA (26.4% Score 3-5, 2.5% Score 6-10) and Cambridge Prognostic Group (20.5% Group 2, 8.8% Groups 3-5). Among patients who underwent RP, 50.5% were ISUP GG ≥ 2 , while 28.5% had an increase in pathological stage and 32% had an increase in tumour grade. Additionally, 51% of patients who developed metastases displayed ISUP GG 1 and 47.6% were low CAPRA risk. Over time, 61.1% of patients in the AM group received radical treatment (from 54.8% at ten years). From the ten year report the authors aimed to identify prognostic markers. The results showed that treatment received, age (65–69 vs. 50–64 years), PSA, ISUP GG at diagnosis, cT stage, risk group, number of PCa-involved biopsy cores, maximum length of tumour (median 5.0 vs. 3.0 mm), aggregate length of tumour (median 8.0 vs. 4.0 mm), and presence

of perineural invasion were each associated with increased risk of disease progression ($p < 0.001$ for each). However, these factors could not reliably predict progression in individuals. Notably, 53% ($n = 105$) of patients who progressed had biopsy ISUP GG 1 disease, although, conversely, none of the participants who received RP and subsequently progressed had pathological ISUP GG 1 tumours. This discrepancy in progression and metastases rate between the AM arm of the ProtecT study and comparable AS protocols can, most likely, be explained by differences in intensity of surveillance, inadequate sampling by PSA testing and 10-core TRUS-guided biopsies.

Nevertheless, the ProtecT study has reinforced the role of deferred active treatment (i.e., either AS or some form of initial AM) as a feasible alternative to active curative interventions in all patients with low-grade and low-stage disease, as well as for many patients with favourable intermediate risk disease. Beyond fifteen years, no RCT-data are available, as yet, although AS is likely to give more reassurance especially in younger men, based on more accurate risk stratification at recruitment and more stringent criteria regarding follow-up, imaging, repeat biopsy and reclassification. Individual life expectancy must continuously be evaluated before considering any active treatment in low-risk patients and in those with up to ten to fifteen years' individual life expectancy [552].

6.2.1.2.1 Active surveillance - inclusion criteria

Active surveillance inclusion criteria aim to select cases in which delay caused by the initial expectant management strategy does not lead to additional unfavourable outcomes.

Guidance regarding selection and follow-up criteria for AS is limited by the lack of data from prospective RCTs. As a consequence, the international collaborative DETECTIVE study involving healthcare practitioners and patients developed consensus statements for deferred treatment with curative intent for localised PCa, covering all domains of AS [372], as well as a formal SR on the various AS protocols [553]. The most frequently applied criteria include: ISUP GG 1 (on systematic biopsy), clinical stage cT1c or cT2a, PSA < 10 ng/mL and PSA-D < 0.15 ng/mL/cc [549, 554]. The latter threshold remains controversial [554, 555]. These criteria were supported by the DETECTIVE study consensus. There was no agreement on the maximum number of systematic cores that can be involved with cancer or the maximum percentage core involvement (CI), although there was recognition that extensive disease on MRI should exclude men from AS, even though there is no firm definition on this, especially when targeted biopsies confirm ISUP GG 1 [372]. Magnetic resonance imaging index lesions diameter may provide additional guidance, as thresholds of > 10 mm and > 20 mm have been used to predict BCR after RP, but not yet used in AS criteria [556]. The Movember consensus group, consisting of 27 healthcare professional and 12 lived experience participants from across the world, agreed that ISUP GG and MRI were the most important criteria for determining eligibility to AS [557].

A SR and meta-analysis found three clinico-pathological variables which were significantly associated with reclassification, high PSA-D, > 2 positive cores (on systematic biopsies), and African-American descent [558]. A review on the risk of progression for African-American men on AS also indicated a potential increased risk of progression, but the association was not strong enough to discourage African-American men from undergoing AS, but thorough confirmatory testing is important [559].

In addition, a previous pathology consensus group suggested excluding men from AS when any of the following features were present: cribriform histology, predominant ductal carcinoma (including pure IDC), sarcomatoid carcinoma, small cell carcinoma, EPE or LVI in needle biopsy [560], or PNI [561].

In men eligible for AS based upon systematic biopsy findings alone who did not have a pre-biopsy MRI, a re-biopsy within six to twelve months (usually referred to as 'confirmatory biopsy') is mandatory to exclude sampling error.

6.2.1.2.2 Active surveillance – inclusion of intermediate risk disease

In the ProtecT trial, where 34% of the randomised patients had a D'Amico intermediate- or high-risk disease, there was no statistically significant difference in CSS at 15 years [535].

The outcomes of AS in intermediate-risk PCa has also been analysed in three SRs and meta-analyses, summarising available data on its oncological outcomes and comparing patients with intermediate-risk PCa to patients with low-risk disease [562-564]. The definition of AS was not strictly defined in either of the reviews: instead, the search strategies included 'active surveillance' as a search term, and no *a priori* study protocol was available. The primary outcome was the proportion of patients who remained on AS, whilst secondary outcomes included CSS, OS, and MFS in all three studies.

In the first review seventeen studies were included, incorporating 6,591 patients with intermediate risk disease. Sixteen studies included patients with low- and intermediate-risk disease, hence enabling comparative outcome assessment via pooled analysis. Only one study performed MRI at recruitment and during AS. There was significant clinical heterogeneity in terms of inclusion criteria for intermediate-risk disease. The results

showed the proportion of patients who remained on AS was comparable between the low- and intermediate-risk groups after ten- and fifteen-years' follow-up (OR: 0.97; 95% CI: 0.83–1.14; and OR: 0.86; 95% CI: 0.65–1.13, respectively). Cancer-specific survival was worse in the intermediate-risk group after ten years (OR: 0.47; 95% CI: 0.31–0.69) and fifteen years (OR: 0.34; 95% CI: 0.2–0.58), although it remains unclear whether this is due to less favourable baseline characteristics or due to the delay caused by the initial period of AS. Overall survival was not statistically significantly different at five years' follow-up (OR: 0.84; 95% CI: 0.45–1.57) but was significantly worse in the intermediate-risk group after ten years (OR: 0.43; 95% CI: 0.35–0.53). Metastases-free survival did not significantly differ after five years (OR: 0.55; 95% CI: 0.2–1.53) but was worse in the intermediate-risk group after ten years (OR: 0.46; 95% CI: 0.28–0.77) [564].

The second review, including 25 studies and a total of 29,673 low- or intermediate-risk patients, showed similar results in terms of treatment-free survival at ten years (RR: 1.16, 95% CI: 0.99-1.36), risk of developing metastases (RR: 5.79, 95% CI: 4.61-7.29), risk of dying from PCa (RR: 3.93, 95% CI: 2.93-5.27), and risk of dying from any cause (RR: 1.44, 95% CI: 1.11-1.86) [562]. In a subgroup analysis of four studies comparing outcomes of patients with intermediate- and low-risk PCa of ISUP GG ≤ 2 (n = 1,900) no statistically significant difference could be found in terms of treatment free survival or risk of developing metastases (RR: 1.03, 95% CI: 0.62-1.71 and RR: 2.09, 95% CI: 0.75-5.82, respectively).

The third, most recent, review included 25 studies of which thirteen studies provided data on treatment free survival, six on CSS and seven on OS. Treatment free survival was not statistically significantly different in the intermediate risk group after five (RR: 0.92, 95% CI: 0.82-1.02), ten (RR: 0.83, 95% CI: 0.55-1.23) or fifteen years (RR: 0.54, 95% CI: 0.21-1.39). Cancer-specific survival was significantly lower after 15 years (RR: 0.92, 95% CI: 0.89-0.96) and OS was significantly lower after ten years (RR: 0.87, 95% CI: 0.82-0.93) in the intermediate risk group. It should be noted that many of the studies included patients with ISUP GG 3 disease. When these studies were excluded no difference in treatment free, cancer specific or OS could be observed [563].

The reviews indicate that AS in unselected intermediate-risk patients implies a higher risk of progression over time. It remains unclear whether this difference only reflects the baseline difference in outcome, that can also be seen when comparing immediate treatment of low- and intermediate-risk PCa, or if the delay in treatment caused any worsening of the outcomes in the intermediate-risk group in any way. All three reviews conclude that AS could be offered to patients with intermediate-risk disease, but they should be informed of a higher risk of progression and the latter two reviews suggests limiting the inclusion of intermediate-risk patients to those with low-volume ISUP GG 2 disease.

The safety of delayed definitive therapy in men with grade reclassification during AS was confirmed in a study comparing 979 patients who underwent immediate RP after diagnosis of ISUP GG 2, 190 who underwent RP within 12 months of upgrading to ISUP GG 2 on AS, and 90 men who underwent RP >12 months after upgrading to ISUP GG 2. Significant predictors of recurrence in multivariable analysis included percentage positive biopsy cores and PSA, but not timing of RP [565].

A Canadian consensus group proposes that low volume ISUP GG 2 (< 10% Gleason pattern 4 on systematic biopsies) may also be considered for AS. These recommendations have been endorsed by the ASCO [245] and the DETECTIVE study consensus [372] for those patients with a PSA < 10 ng/mL and low core positivity. The DETECTIVE study concluded that men with favourable ISUP GG 2 PCa (PSA < 10 ng/mL, low PSA density, clinical stage \leq cT2a and a low number of positive systematic cores) should also be considered for deferred treatment [372]. In this setting, re-biopsy within six to twelve months to exclude sampling error is even more relevant than in low-risk disease [554, 566]. The DETECTIVE study-related qualitative SR aimed to determine appropriate criteria for inclusion of intermediate-risk disease into AS protocols [553]. Out of 371 AS protocols included in the review, more than 50% included patients with intermediate-risk disease on the basis of PSA up to 20 ng/mL (25.3%), ISUP GG 2 or 3 (27.7%), clinical stage cT2b/c (41.6%) and/or direct use of D'Amico risk grouping of intermediate risk or above (51.1%). The DETECTIVE study reached consensus that patients with ISUP GG 3, or patients with intraductal or cribriform histology, should not be considered for AS. The presence of any grade 4 pattern is associated with a 3-fold increased risk of metastases compared to ISUP GG 1, while a PSA up to 20 ng/mL might be an acceptable threshold [566-568], especially in the context of low PSA-D.

The indicator of the tumour volume may be either the number of positive cores, and the length of cancer in each core, based on systematic biopsies, or the volume of the dominant lesion seen on mpMRI [372]. If targeted biopsies based upon mpMRI images are performed, the number of positive cores of the targeted biopsies are not an indicator of the extent of disease or tumour volume when considering a patient for AS due to the altered biopsy protocol.

MRI-targeted biopsies have been associated with up-grading of tumours but improved outcomes [103].

The large prospective PRIAS study on AS expanded inclusion criteria when MRI and targeted systematic biopsies are used at inclusion (<https://prias-project.org/modules/articles/article.php?id=1>):

- cT \leq 2
- ISUP: GG 1 or GG 2 without invasive cribriform growth and intraductal carcinoma
- PSA: \leq 20 ng/mL
- PSA-density: $<$ 0.25 ng/mL/cc
- Number of positive cores:
 - For ISUP GG 1: No limit.
 - For ISUP GG 2 (without invasive cribriform growth and intraductal carcinoma): \leq 50% systematic cores (where multiple positive cores from the same lesion on MRI count for one positive core).

During follow-up, upgrading is the only criterium for discontinuation, defined as ISUP GG \geq 3 or ISUP GG \geq 2 with cribriform growth or intraductal carcinoma, or ISUP GG \geq 2 with $>$ 50% positive cores.

A multi-disciplinary consensus conference on germline testing has suggested a genetic implementation framework for the management of PCa [165]. Based on consensus, BRCA2-gene testing was recommended for AS discussions and could be performed in men with family history of prostate, breast or ovarian cancers. However, the nature of such discussions and how a positive result influences management were beyond the scope of the project. Currently, BRCA2 mutation does not exclude a patient from AS if tumour factors are otherwise favourable. Furthermore, if included in AS programmes, patients with a known BRCA2 mutation should be cautiously monitored until such time that more robust data are available.

6.2.1.2.3 Tissue-based prognostic biomarker testing for selection for active surveillance

Biomarkers, including Oncotype Dx[®], Prolaris[®], Decipher[®], PORTOS and ProMark[®] are promising; however, further data and comparisons with other parameters (including MRI) will be needed before such markers can be used in standard clinical practice [240].

6.2.1.2.4 Magnetic resonance imaging for selection for active surveillance

Two RCTs and a SR, showed that adding MRI-targeted biopsy to systematic sampling at confirmatory biopsy increased the number of cancers labelled ISUP GG \geq 2 and thus may aid patient selection for AS, although the impact of MRI and targeted biopsies with corresponding stage shift on long-term oncological outcomes of AS is lacking [126, 569-574]. Adding MRI-targeted biopsy to systematic sampling at confirmatory biopsy improved upgrade detection by increments of 0-7.9 per 100 men depending on the series [569]. In a meta-analysis of 6 studies, the rate of upgrading to ISUP GG \geq 2 cancer increased from 20% (95% CI: 16–25%) to 27% (95% CI: 22–34%) when MRI-targeted biopsy was added to systematic biopsy [574]. The Active Surveillance MRI Study (ASIST) randomised men on AS scheduled for confirmatory biopsy to either 12-core systematic biopsy or to MRI with targeted biopsy (when indicated), combined with systematic biopsy (up to 12 cores in total). After two years of follow-up, use of MRI before confirmatory biopsy resulted in fewer failures of surveillance (19% vs. 35%, $p = 0.017$) and in fewer patients progressing to ISUP GG \geq 2 cancer (9.9% vs. 23%, $p = 0.048$) [572]. However, systematic biopsy retains its additional value, which argues for a combined biopsy approach [569, 574]. The DETECTIVE study agreed that men eligible for AS after combined systematic- and MRI-targeted biopsy do not require a confirmatory biopsy, a recommendation further supported by the results of the MRIAS trial [372, 575].

If the PCa diagnosis is made on MRI-targeted biopsy alone in order to lower the risk of over detection of insignificant (see section 5.4.1 and 5.4.2), and the number of positive systematic cores used as an indication for tumour volume during AS is not available, MRI lesion diameter may be used as a surrogate, although specific definitions have not yet been tested in an AS setting (e.g. for ISUP GG 2 tumours no PIRADS 5 or $<$ 20 mm lesion size) [556].

A few studies indicate that PSMA-PET-CT or PSMA-PET-MRI may have additional value to above mentioned clinico-pathological variables for risk stratification before AS [127, 576]. However, so far, the studies are too small, the follow-up too short, and association with long-term oncological outcomes is lacking, to draw any hard conclusions and for this modality to be recommended outside clinical trials.

6.2.1.2.5 Active surveillance follow-up

Based on the DETECTIVE consensus study, the surveillance strategy should be based on serial DRE (at least once yearly), PSA (at least once, every six months), and repeated biopsy (no consensus on frequency, but 1-4-7 years is an often-applied schedule).

A panel SR incorporating 263 surveillance protocols showed that 78.7% of protocols mandated per-protocol repeat biopsies within the first two years and that 57.7% of the protocols performed repeat biopsy at least every three years for ten years after the start of AS [553].

There was clear agreement in the DETECTIVE consensus meeting as well as in the Movember consensus group that a PSA change alone, including PSA-doubling time (PSA-DT, < 3 years) should not change management based on its weak link with grade progression [577, 578] but rather trigger further investigation such as biopsy or repeat-MRI. It was also agreed that changes on repeat MRI during AS needed a repeat biopsy before considering continuing to active treatment [372, 557].

The Movember consensus group made a number of recommendations that in some ways differ from the DETECTIVE consensus study, e.g. routine DRE was not supported if MRI or other imaging was carried out routinely during AS, if MRI combined with other parameters (PSA kinetics and density) are stable routine biopsy may be omitted, and change in clinical parameters should prompt MRI with possible biopsy rather than immediate biopsy [557].

6.2.1.2.6 Magnetic resonance imaging for follow-up during active surveillance

The Prostate Cancer Radiological Estimation of Change in Sequential Evaluation (PRECISE) criteria were established to standardise the assessment of tumour progression on serial MRI [579]. PRECISE is a strong predictor of histological upgrading [580, 581]. Two independent meta-analyses assessed the value of MRI progression criteria for predicting histological progression (mostly defined as progression to ISUP GG \geq 2). The pooled histological progression rate was 27% in both reviews. If biopsies were triggered only by MRI progression findings, approximately two thirds of the biopsies would be avoided, at the cost of missing 40% of men with histological progression. In addition, at least half of biopsied men would have had negative findings for histological progression and thus would have undergone unnecessary biopsies. If histological progression was restricted to progression to ISUP GG > 3, approximately 30% of histological progression would be missed and approximately 80% of the biopsies performed would be unnecessary. The use of the PRECISE criteria did not seem to change these results [582, 583]. This supports maintaining protocol-mandated repeat biopsies during the course of AS.

Another study analysed a prospectively-maintained AS cohort of 369 patients (272 with ISUP GG 1 cancer and 97 with ISUP GG 2 cancer) who had been selected for AS after combined systematic and MRI-targeted sampling during confirmatory biopsy [584]. At two years, systematic biopsy, MRI-targeted biopsy and combined biopsy detected grade progression in 44 (15.9%), 73 (26.4%) and 90 patients (32.5%), respectively. This suggests that both biopsy approaches retain added value, not only for confirmatory biopsy, but also during AS [584]. Systemic biopsy cores may thus be considered to be added to follow-up biopsy to rule out more widespread disease [208, 210, 314]. The disadvantage of overdiagnosis due to systematic cores is not present in the AS follow-up setting. On the other hand, extra biopsy cores may cause discomfort and, as in the primary diagnostic setting, the risk of leaving significant PCa undetected is small, and of limited relevance in a surveillance setting. As in the primary setting, the strategy of targeted/perilesional cores is therefore also recommended during AS repeat biopsy.

6.2.1.2.7 Individualised repeat biopsy during active surveillance

The basis for AS protocols includes standard repeat biopsy. However, several factors have been found to be associated with low re-classification rates and long PFS and can be used to individualise the need and frequency of AS biopsy schedules: low PSA-D [575, 585-587], low PSA velocity (PSAV) [588, 589], negative biopsy (i.e., no cancer at all) at confirmatory or repeat biopsy during AS [521], and negative baseline or repeat MRI during AS [575, 585-587, 590-593]. Negative repeat biopsy during AS was associated with a 50% decrease in the risk of future reclassification and upgrading [594]. In a single-centre AS cohort of 514 patients who underwent at least three protocol-mandated biopsies after diagnosis (the confirmatory biopsy and at least two additional surveillance biopsies), men with one negative biopsy (i.e., no cancer at all) at confirmatory or second biopsy, or men with two consecutive negative biopsies had a lower likelihood of a positive third biopsy and significantly better 10-year treatment free survival [595]. Patients with stable (PRECISE 3) on repeat MRI during AS combined with a low PSA-D (<0.15) have a very low rate of progression and may be a group in whom standard repeat biopsy may be omitted [596].

6.2.1.2.8 Active Surveillance - change in treatment

Men may remain on AS whilst they have a life expectancy of > 10 years and the disease remains insignificant. A transition from AS to WW due to rising age or new comorbidity should be incorporated within conservative management strategies for PCa and in discussion with patients [597].

Histopathology criteria are the strongest reason to trigger a change in management, including reclassification to ISUP GG 3 or detection of cribriform or intraductal growth patterns, based on systematic biopsy. The exact criteria in the targeted biopsy era remain debated. MRI-targeted biopsy induces a grade shift and ISUP GG 2–3 cancers detected by MRI-targeted biopsy have, on average, a better prognosis than those detected by systematic sampling. Also, men upgraded during AS, have more favourable outcomes as men with the same ISUP GG detected at first biopsy [598]. As an increasing number of men with favourable intermediate-risk disease are managed with AS (see section 6.2.1.2), progression to ISUP GG 2 should not be used a hard reason to stop AS, especially when found on targeted biopsy. In addition, as acknowledged in the DETECTIVE consensus meeting, the number of positive cores is not an indicator of tumour volume anymore if targeted biopsies are performed [372, 599]. Based on the findings of a SR incorporating 271 reclassification protocols, patients with low-volume ISUP GG 2 disease at recruitment, and with increased systematic core positivity (> 3 cores involvement [$> 50\%$ per core]) on repeat systematic biopsies not using MRI, should be reclassified [553]. As for inclusion, MRI tumour volume may be used during follow-up as a surrogate for tumour volume estimation based on systematic biopsies, though specific definitions are lacking. Furthermore, in a study from the MUSIC registry over half of men with favourable intermediate-risk PCa on AS remained free of treatment five years after diagnosis [600]. Their results are in concordance with the DETECTIVE and the Movember consensus statements and indicate that most men on AS will not lose their window of cure and have similar short-term oncologic outcomes as men undergoing up-front treatment and that AS is an oncologically safe option for appropriately selected men with favourable intermediate-risk PCa.

6.2.1.2.9 Psychological factors during active surveillance

Anxiety about continued surveillance occurs in around 10% of patients on AS [601] and was recognised as a valid reason for active treatment [369]. An alternative for patients suitable for continuing AS would be to offer psychological support to reduce the level of anxiety, as also stated by the Movember consensus group [557]. A review on patient reported factor influencing the decision making, including thirteen qualitative papers and 426 men, identified several factors influencing the decision making when considering AS. Among the identified factors were personal risk assessment, influence of family and friends, beliefs about treatment as well as doctor and system factors, underscoring the importance of individualised, relevant, and clear information to support decision making [602]. A population-based cohort study from Sweden on regional differences in AS uptake and subsequent transition to radical treatment concluded that a regional tradition of a high uptake of AS was associated with a lower probability of transition to radical treatment, but not with AS failure [603]. These studies further emphasise the importance of thorough information and discussion with the patients on pros/cons of AS versus active treatment already at the time of diagnosis for the patients to feel secure in their treatment choice and to avoid over-treatment.

6.2.1.2.10 Interventions during active surveillance

A review on potential interventions during AS found that use of 5-ARIs was associated with improved progression-free survival (PFS; hazard ratio: 0.59; 95% confidence interval 0.48-0.72), with limited increased toxicity [604].

A phase II RCT randomised patients to AS plus enzalutamide or AS alone. This study indicated that PSA progression could be delayed, and the odds of a negative biopsy increased during the median follow-up time of 1.3 years, but patients had more side effects of the treatment without showing any long-term benefits of the treatment [605].

Table 6.2.2 Active surveillance oncological outcomes in large cohorts with longer-term follow-up

Studies	N	Median FU (mo)	10-year OS (%)	10-year CSS (%)
Adamy, <i>et al.</i> 2011 [551]	533-1,000	48	90	99
Godtman, <i>et al.</i> 2013 [554]	439	72	81	99.5
Klotz, <i>et al.</i> 2015 [555]	993	77	85	98.1
Tosoian, <i>et al.</i> 2020 [557]	1,818	60	93	99.9
Carlsson, <i>et al.</i> 2020 [558]	2,664	52	94	100
Newcomb, <i>et al.</i> 2024 [606]	2,155	86	95	99.9

CSS = cancer-specific survival; FU = follow-up; mo = months; N = number of patients; OS = overall survival; RP = radical prostatectomy.

6.2.1.3 Summary of evidence and recommendations for active surveillance strategy

Summary of evidence	LE
The AS strategy should be based on PSA (at least once every six months), serial DRE (at least once yearly) and repeated biopsy. Serial DRE may be omitted if MRI is stable.	3
Magnetic resonance imaging detects more cancers labelled with higher ISUP GG and may be used before starting AS (if not performed earlier), although impact on long-term oncological endpoints is lacking.	
Serial DRE may be omitted if MRI is stable.	
A progression on MRI mandates a repeat biopsy, to confirm histological progression, before a change in treatment strategy.	
A stable MRI (PRECISE 1-3) does not make repeat biopsy superfluous, but in patients with low-risk tumour and a stable low PSA-D < 0.15 may be excluded.	
No modality has shown superiority over any other active management options or deferred active treatment in terms of overall- and PCa-specific survival for clinically localised low/intermediate-risk disease.	2

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer active surveillance (AS) as standard of care for low-risk disease.	Strong
Exclude patients with cribriform or intraductal histology on biopsy from AS.	Strong
Perform magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) before a confirmatory biopsy if no MRI has been performed before the initial biopsy.	Strong
Take targeted and perilesional biopsy cores (of any PI-RADS \geq 3 lesion) if a confirmatory or repeat biopsy is performed.	Strong
Perform per-protocol confirmatory prostate biopsies if MRI is not available.	Weak
Do not perform confirmatory biopsies if a patient has had upfront MRI and targeted biopsies.	Weak
Base the strategy of AS on a strict follow-up protocol including PSA (at least once every six months), digital rectal examination (DRE) (at least once yearly), and repeated biopsy (every 2-3 years for 10 years).	Strong
Exclude patients with a low-risk PCa, a stable MRI (PRECISE 3) and a stable low PSA density (< 0.15) from repeat biopsy when MRI is repeated before repeat biopsy. In addition, serial DRE may be omitted if MRI is stable.	Weak
Perform MRI and repeat biopsy if PSA is rising (PSA-doubling time < 3 years).	Strong
Base change in treatment on biopsy progression, not on progression on MRI, PSA, and/or DRE.	Weak

6.2.2 Radical prostatectomy

6.2.2.1 Introduction

The goal of RP by any approach is the eradication of cancer while, whenever possible, preserving pelvic organ function [607]. The procedure involves removing the entire prostate with its capsule intact and SVs, followed by vesico-urethral anastomosis. Surgical approaches have expanded from perineal and retropubic open approaches to laparoscopic and robotic-assisted techniques; anastomoses have evolved from Vest approximation sutures to continuous suture watertight anastomoses under direct vision and mapping of the anatomy of the dorsal venous complex (DVC) and cavernous nerves has led to excellent visualisation and potential for preservation of erectile function [608]. The main results from multi-centre RCTs involving RP are summarised in Table 6.2.3.

Table 6.2.3: Oncological results of radical prostatectomy in organ-confined disease in RCTs

Study	Acronym	Population	Treatment period	Median FU (mo)	Risk category	CSS (%)
Bill-Axelsson, <i>et al.</i> 2018 [543]	SPCG-4	Pre-PSA era	1989-1999	283	Low risk & intermediate risk	80.4 (at 23 yr.)
Wilt, <i>et al.</i> 2017 [544]	PIVOT	Early years of PSA testing	1994-2002	152	Low risk & intermediate risk	95.9 91.5 (at 19.5 yr.)
Hamdy, <i>et al.</i> 2023 [535]	ProtecT	Screened population	1999-2009	180	Mainly low- & intermediate risk	97 (at 15 yr.)

CSS = cancer-specific survival; FU = follow-up; mo = months; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; yr. = year.

6.2.2.2 Pre-operative preparation

6.2.2.2.1 Pre-operative patient education

As before any surgery appropriate education and patient consent is mandatory prior to RP. Peri-operative education has been shown to improve long-term patient satisfaction following RP [609]. Augmentation of standard verbal and written educational materials such as use of interactive multimedia tools [610, 611] and pre-operative patient-specific 3D printed prostate models has been shown to improve patient understanding and satisfaction and should be considered to optimise patient-centred care [612].

Additional consideration should be given to patients who have undergone prior transurethral resection of the prostate (TURP). According to SR and meta-analysis of non-randomised studies, prior TURP can prolong operative and catheter time, have higher complications, require more bladder neck reconstruction and less nerve sparing resulting in higher positive margin rate (RR 1.24, $p = 0.03$), higher incontinence (RR 1.24, $p = 0.03$) and erectile function (RR 0.8, $p < 0.001$) at 12 months after RARP [613]. While patients with prior TURP are typically older, which is also a predictor for these outcomes in RARP patients, prior TURP is worthy of consideration in pre-operative counselling.

6.2.2.3 Surgical techniques

6.2.2.3.1 Prostatic anterior fat pad dissection and histologic analysis

Several multi-centre and large single-centre series have shown the presence of lymphoid tissue within the fat pad anterior to the endopelvic fascia; the prostatic anterior fat pad (PAFP) [614-620]. This lymphoid tissue is present in 5.5–10.6% of cases and contains metastatic PCa in up to 1.3% of intermediate- and high-risk patients.

When positive, the PAFP is often the only site of LN metastasis. The PAFP is therefore a rare but recognised route of spread of disease. The PAFP is always removed at RP for exposure of the endopelvic fascia and should be sent for histologic analysis as per all removed tissue.

6.2.2.3.2 Management of the dorsal venous complex

Since the description of the anatomical open RP by Walsh and Donker in the 1980s, various methods of controlling bleeding from the DVC have been proposed to optimise visualisation [621].

In the open setting, blood loss and transfusion rates have been found to be significantly reduced when ligating the DVC prior to transection [622]. However, concerns have been raised regarding the effect of prior DVC ligation on apical margin positivity and continence recovery due to the proximity of the DVC to both the prostatic apex and the urethral sphincter muscle fibres.

In the robotic-assisted laparoscopic technique, due to the increased pressure of pneumoperitoneum, whether prior DVC ligation was used or not, blood loss was not found to be significantly different in one study [623]. In another study, mean blood loss was significantly less with prior DVC ligation (184 vs. 176 mL, $p = 0.033$), however it is debatable whether this was clinically significant [624]. The positive apical margin rate was not different, however, the latter study showed earlier return to full continence at five months post-operatively in the no prior DVC ligation group (61% vs. 40%, $p < 0.01$). Ligation of the DVC can be performed with standard suture or using a vascular stapler. One study found significantly reduced blood loss (494 mL vs. 288 mL) and improved apical margin status (13% vs. 2%) when using the stapler [625].

Given the relatively small differences in outcomes, the surgeon's choice to ligate prior to transection or not, or whether to use sutures or a stapler, will depend on their familiarity with the technique and the equipment available.

6.2.2.3.3 Nerve-sparing surgery

During prostatectomy, preservation of the neurovascular bundles (NVB) with parasympathetic nerve branches of the pelvic plexus can spare erectile function [626, 627].

Although age and pre-operative function may remain the most important predictors for post-operative erectile function, NS has also been associated with improved continence outcomes and may therefore still be relevant for men with poor erectile function [628, 629]. A large SR and meta-analysis reported that bilateral NS resulted in improved urinary continence recovery (RR 1.08 at 12 months, $p < 0.0001$) across all time points with heterogeneous pooled estimates [630]. The association with continence may be mainly due to the dissection technique used during NS surgery, and not due to the preservation of the NVB themselves [628].

Extra-, inter-, and intra-fascial dissection planes can be planned, with those closer to the prostate and performed bilaterally associated with superior (early) functional outcomes [631-634]. Furthermore, many different techniques are propagated such as retrograde approach after anterior release (vs. antegrade), and athermal and traction-free handling of bundles [635-637]. Nerve-sparing (NS) surgery may be performed using clips or low bipolar energy without clear benefit favouring one technique over another regarding functional outcomes [638].

Patient selection for nerve sparing remains challenging for clinicians. A 2021 SR of nineteen studies analysing the parameters used for selection of NS found that individual clinical and radiological factors were poor at predicting EPE, and consequently, the appropriateness of NS. However, nomograms that incorporated mpMRI performed better [639]. High-risk patients can be considered, as a large retrospective study prone to selection bias for NS reported that NS did not affect BCR, risk of metastasis or of death regardless of stage or ISUP GG [640].

A reasonable concern is the oncological compromise and positive surgical margin rate. A 2022 SR of 18 comparative studies (no RCTs) of NS vs. non-nerve-sparing RP showed a RR of side-specific positive margins of 1.5, but none of them included patients with high-risk PCa [641]. There was no effect seen of NS on BCR. However, follow-up was short, and studies were subject to selection bias with mainly low-risk patients. For those patients with high-risk PCa, side-specific NS was avoided if disease was palpable or EPE was present on MRI. Indeed, a 2019 SR showed that MRI affected the decision to perform NS or not in 35% of cases without any negative impact on surgical margin rate [642].

In summary, the quality of data is not adequate to permit a strong recommendation in favour of NS or non-nerve-sparing, but pre-operative risk factors for side-specific EPE such as PSA, PSA density, clinical stage, ISUP grade group, and PIRADS score, EPE and capsule contact length on MRI, should be taken into account.

6.2.2.3.4 Removal of seminal vesicles

The more aggressive forms of PCa may spread directly into the SVs. For oncological clearance, the SVs have traditionally been removed intact with the prostate specimen [643]. However, in some patients the tips of the SVs can be challenging to dissect free. Furthermore, the cavernous nerves run past the SV tips such that indiscriminate dissection of the SV tips could potentially lead to ED [644]. However, a RCT comparing nerve-sparing RP with and without a SV-sparing approach found no difference in margin status, PSA recurrence, continence or erectile function outcomes. Whilst complete SV removal should be the default, preservation of the SV tips may be considered in cases of low risk of involvement.

6.2.2.3.5 Bladder neck management

Bladder neck mucosal eversion

Some surgeons perform mucosal eversion of the bladder neck as its own step in open RP with the aim of securing a mucosa-to-mucosa vesico-urethral anastomosis and avoiding anastomotic stricture. Whilst bringing bladder and urethral mucosa together by the everted bladder mucosa covering the bladder muscle layer, this step may actually delay healing of the muscle layers. An alternative is to simply ensure bladder mucosa is included in the full thickness anastomotic sutures. A non-randomised study of 211 patients with and without bladder neck mucosal eversion showed no significant difference in anastomotic stricture rate [645]. The strongest predictor of anastomotic stricture in RP is current cigarette smoking [646], but it is also 2.2 higher in open RP than RARP [647].

Bladder neck preservation

Whilst the majority of urinary continence is maintained by the external urethral sphincter at the membranous urethra (see below), a minor component is contributed by the internal lissosphincter at the bladder neck [648]. Preservation of the bladder neck has therefore been proposed to improve continence recovery post-RP. A RCT assessing continence recovery at twelve months and four years showed improved objective and subjective urinary continence in both the short- and long term without any adverse effect on oncological outcome [649]. These findings were confirmed by a SR [650]. However, concern remains regarding margin status for cancers located at the prostate base.

A SR addressing site-specific margin status found a mean base-specific positive margin rate of 4.9% with bladder neck preservation vs. only 1.9% without [648]. This study was inconclusive, but it would be sensible to exercise caution when considering bladder neck preservation if significant cancer is known to be at the prostate base. Bladder neck preservation should be performed routinely when the cancer is distant from the base. However, bladder neck preservation cannot be performed in the presence of a large median lobe or a previous transurethral resection of the prostate (TURP) [651].

6.2.2.3.6 Urethral length preservation

The membranous urethra sits immediately distal to the prostatic apex and is chiefly responsible, along with its surrounding pelvic floor support structures, for urinary continence. It consists of the external rhabdosphincter which surrounds an inner layer of smooth muscle. Using pre-operative MRI, the length of membranous urethra has been shown to vary widely.

Systematic reviews and meta-analyses found that every extra millimetre of membranous urethral length seen on MRI pre-operatively improves early return to continence post-RP [652-654]. A greater membranous urethral length as measured on preoperative MRI was an independent prognostic factor for return to urinary continence within one month after RP and remained prognostic at twelve months [654]. Therefore, it is likely that preservation of as much urethral length as possible during RP will maximise the chance of early return to continence. It may also be useful to measure urethral length pre-operatively on MRI to facilitate counselling of patients on their relative likelihood of early post-operative continence [655].

6.2.2.3.7 Techniques of vesico-urethral anastomosis

Following prostate removal, the bladder neck is anastomosed to the membranous urethra. The objective is to create a precisely aligned, watertight, tension-free, and stricture-free anastomosis that preserves the integrity of the intrinsic sphincter mechanism. Several methods have been described, based on the direct or indirect approach, the type of suture (i.e. barbed vs. non-barbed/monofilament), and variation in suturing technique (e.g., continuous vs. interrupted, or single-needle vs. double-needle running suture). The direct vesico-urethral anastomosis, which involves the construction of a primary end-to-end inter-mucosal anastomosis of the bladder neck to the membranous urethra by using 6 interrupted sutures placed circumferentially, has become the standard method of reconstruction for open RP [656].

The development of laparoscopic- and robotic-assisted techniques to perform RP have facilitated the introduction of new suturing techniques for the anastomosis. A SR and meta-analysis compared unidirectional barbed suture vs. conventional non-barbed suture for vesico-urethral anastomosis during robotic-assisted radical prostatectomy (RARP) [657]. The review included three RCTs and found significantly reduced anastomosis time, operative time and posterior reconstruction time in favour of the unidirectional barbed suture technique, but there were no differences in post-operative leak rate, length of catheterisation and continence rate. However, no definitive conclusions could be drawn due to the relatively low quality of the data. In regard to suturing technique, a SR and meta-analysis compared continuous vs. interrupted suturing for vesico-urethral anastomosis during RP [658]. The study included only one RCT with 60 patients [659]. Although the review found slight advantages for continuous suturing over interrupted suturing in terms of catheterisation time, anastomosis time and rate of extravasation, the overall quality of evidence was low and no clear recommendations were possible. A RCT [660] compared the technique of suturing using a single absorbable running suture vs. a double-needle single-knot running suture (i.e. Van Velthoven technique) in laparoscopic RP [661]. The study found slightly reduced anastomosis time with the single running suture technique, but anastomotic leak, stricture, and continence rates were similar.

Overall, although there are a variety of approaches, methods, and techniques for performing the vesico-urethral anastomosis, no clear recommendations are possible due to the lack of high-certainty evidence. In practice, the chosen method should be based on surgeon experience and individual preference [656-661].

6.2.2.3.8 Urinary catheter

A urinary catheter is routinely placed during RP to enable bladder rest and drainage of urine while the vesicourethral anastomosis heals. Compared to a traditional catheter duration of around 1 week, some centres remove the transurethral catheter early (post-operative day 2–3), usually after thorough anastomosis with posterior reconstruction or in patients selected peri-operatively on the basis of anastomosis quality [662–665]. No higher complication rates were found. Although shorter catheterisation has been associated with more favourable short-term functional outcomes, no differences in long-term function were found [666]. One RCT has shown no difference in rate of UTI following indwelling catheter (IDC) removal whether prophylactic ciprofloxacin was given prior to IDC removal or not, suggesting antibiotics should not be given at catheter removal [667].

As an alternative to transurethral catheterisation, suprapubic catheter insertion during RP has been suggested. Some reports suggest less bother regarding post-operative hygiene and pain [668–672], while others did not find any differences [673, 674]. No impact on long-term functional outcomes were seen.

6.2.2.3.9 Cystography prior to catheter removal

Cystography may be used prior to catheter removal to check for a substantial anastomotic leak. If such a leak is found, catheter removal may then be deferred to allow further healing and sealing of the anastomosis. However, small comparative studies suggest that a cystogram to assess anastomotic leakage is not indicated as SOC before catheter removal eight to ten days after surgery [675]. If a cystogram is used, men with LUTS, large prostates, previous TURP or bladder neck reconstruction, may benefit as these factors have been associated with leakage [676, 677]. Contrast-enhanced transrectal US is an alternative [678].

6.2.2.3.10 Use of a pelvic drain

A pelvic drain has traditionally been used in RP for potential drainage of urine leaking from the vesico-urethral anastomosis, blood, or lymphatic fluid when a PLND has been performed. Two RCTs in the robotic-assisted laparoscopic setting have been performed [679, 680]. Patients with urine leak at intra-operative anastomosis watertight testing were excluded. Both trials showed non-inferiority in complication rates when no drain was used. When the anastomosis is found to be watertight intra-operatively, it is reasonable to avoid inserting a pelvic drain. There is no evidence to guide usage of a pelvic drain in PLND.

6.2.2.3.11 Considerations during minimally-invasive radical prostatectomy

Minimally-invasive radical prostatectomy, including LRP and RARP, is being used more commonly due to many factors.

6.2.2.3.11.1 Pneumoperitoneum pressure

Reduced blood loss has been reported with minimally-invasive surgery [681], where use of pneumoperitoneum is likely to be a significant contributing factor. Various pneumoperitoneum pressures are used, with higher pressures associated with less bleeding and more surgical working space at the expense of increased abdominal pressure and associated physiological changes. A randomised triple-blinded study comparing RARP (with standard DVC ligation) low-pressure (7 mmHg) versus standard-pressure (12 mmHg) pneumoperitoneum showed that in 98 patients, low pressure was associated with better post-operative quality of recovery and improved pain ($p = 0.001$), physical comfort ($p = 0.007$) and emotional state ($p = 0.006$) on postoperative day 1 at the expense of statistically higher blood loss of questionable clinical relevance (mean 227 ml vs. 159.9ml; $p = 0.001$) [682].

6.2.2.4 Acute and chronic complications of radical prostatectomy

Post-operative incontinence and ED are common problems following surgery for PCa. A key consideration is whether these problems are reduced by using newer techniques such as RARP. Systematic reviews have documented complication rates after RARP [681, 683–686], and can be compared with contemporaneous reports after radical retropubic prostatectomy (RRP) [687]. A prospective controlled non-RCT of patients undergoing RP in fourteen centres using RARP or RRP showed that twelve months after RARP, 21.3% of patients were incontinent, as were 20.2% after RRP (adjusted OR: 1.08; 95% CI: 0.87–1.34) [688]. Erectile dysfunction was observed in 70.4% after RARP and 74.7% after RRP. The adjusted OR was 0.81 (95% CI: 0.66–0.98) [688].

A SR and meta-analysis of unplanned hospital visits and re-admissions post-RP analysed 60 studies with over 400,000 patients over a 20-year period up to 2020. It found an emergency room visit rate of 12% and a hospital re-admission rate of 4% at 30 days post-operatively [689].

A RCT comparing RARP and RRP reported outcomes at twelve weeks in 326 patients and functional outcomes at two years [690]. Urinary function scores did not differ significantly between RRP vs. RARP at six and twelve weeks post-surgery (74–50 vs. 71–10, $p = 0.09$; 83–80 vs. 82–50, $p = 0.48$), with comparable outcomes for sexual function scores (30–70 vs. 32–70, $p = 0.45$; 35–00 vs. 38–90, $p = 0.18$). In the RRP group

fourteen (9%) patients had post-operative complications vs. six (4%) in the RARP group. The intra- and peri-operative complications of RRP and RARP are listed in Table 6.1.4. Table 6.1.5 lists the Clavien-Dindo definition of surgical complications. The early use of phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitors (PDE5Is) in penile rehabilitation remains controversial resulting in a lack of clear recommendations.

A subsequent meta-analysis of five RCTs (1,205 patients) that compared RARP with LRP showed no difference in continence at twelve months (OR 1.95, 95% CI 0.67 – 5.62) or oncological outcomes (positive margin rate, biochemical recurrence); however, RARP resulted in better 3- (OR 1.81) and 6-month (OR 1.88) continence outcomes as well as erectile recovery in pre-operatively potent patients (OR 4.05, p = 0.003) [691].

Table 6.2.4: Intra-and peri-operative complications of retropubic RP, laparoscopic RP and RARP
(adapted from [681])

Predicted probability of event	RARP (%)	Laparoscopic RP (%)	RRP (%)
Bladder neck contracture	1.0	2.1	4.9
Anastomotic leak	1.0	4.4	3.3
Infection	0.8	1.1	4.8
Organ injury	0.4	2.9	0.8
Ileus	1.1	2.4	0.3
Deep-vein thrombosis	0.6	0.2	1.4
Predicted rates of event	RARP (%)	Laparoscopic RP (%)	RRP (%)
Clavien-Dindo I	2.1	4.1	4.2
Clavien-Dindo II	3.9	7.2	17.5
Clavien-Dindo IIIa	0.5	2.3	1.8
Clavien-Dindo IIIb	0.9	3.6	2.5
Clavien-Dindo IVa	0.6	0.8	2.1
Clavien-Dindo V	< 0.1	0.2	0.2

RALP = robot-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy; RP = radical prostatectomy; RRP = radical retropubic prostatectomy.

Table 6.2.5: Clavien-Dindo grading of surgical complications [692]

Grade	Definition
I	Any deviation from the normal post-operative course not requiring surgical, endoscopic or radiological intervention. This includes the need for certain drugs (e.g. antiemetics, antipyretics, analgesics, diuretics and electrolytes), treatment with physiotherapy and wound infections that are opened at the bedside
II	Complications requiring drug treatments other than those allowed for Grade I complications; this includes blood transfusion and total parenteral nutrition (TPN)
IIIa	Complications requiring surgical, endoscopic or radiological intervention - intervention not under general anaesthetic
IIIb	Complications requiring surgical, endoscopic or radiological intervention - intervention under general anaesthetic
IVa	Life-threatening complications; this includes central nervous system (CNS) complications (e.g. brain haemorrhage, ischaemic stroke, subarachnoid haemorrhage) which require intensive care, but excludes transient ischaemic attacks (TIAs) - single-organ dysfunction (including dialysis)
IVb	Life-threatening complications; this includes CNS complications (e.g. brain haemorrhage, ischaemic stroke, subarachnoid haemorrhage) which require intensive care, but excludes transient ischaemic attacks (TIAs) - multi-organ dysfunction
V	Death of the patient

6.2.2.4.1 Effect of anterior and posterior reconstruction on continence

Preservation of integrity of the external urethral sphincter is critical for continence post-RP. Less clear is the effect of reconstruction of surrounding support structures to return to continence. Several small RCTs have been conducted, however, pooling analyses is hampered by variation in the definitions of incontinence and surgical approach, such as open vs. robotic and intra-peritoneal vs. extra-peritoneal. In addition, techniques used to perform both anterior suspension or reconstruction and posterior reconstruction are varied. For example, anterior suspension is performed either through periosteum of the pubis or the combination of ligated DVC and puboprostatic ligaments (PPL). Posterior reconstruction from rhabdosphincter is described to either Denonvilliers fascia posterior to bladder or to posterior bladder wall itself.

Two trials assessing posterior reconstruction in RARP found no significant improvement in return to continence [693, 694]. A third trial using posterior bladder wall for reconstruction showed only an earlier return to 1 pad per day (median 18 vs. 30 days, $p = 0.024$) [695]. When combining both anterior and posterior reconstruction, where for anterior reconstruction the PPL were sutured to the anterior bladder neck, another RCT found no improvement compared to a standard anastomosis with no reconstruction [696].

Four RCTs including anterior suspension have also shown conflicting results. Anterior suspension alone through the pubic periosteum, in the setting of extra-peritoneal RARP, showed no advantage [697]. However, when combined with posterior reconstruction in RRP, one RCT showed significant improvement in return to continence at one month (7.1% vs. 26.5%, $p = 0.047$) and three months (15.4% vs. 45.2%, $p = 0.016$), but not at six months (57.9% vs. 65.4%, $p = 0.609$) [698]. Another anterior plus posterior reconstruction RCT using the Advanced Reconstruction of VesicoUrethral Support (ARVUS) technique and the strict definition of continence of 'no pads', showed statistically significant improvement in continence at 2 weeks (43.8% vs. 11.8%), 4 weeks (62.5% vs. 14.7%), 8 weeks (68.8% vs. 20.6%), six months (75% vs. 44.1%) and twelve months (86.7% vs. 61.3%), when compared to standard posterior Rocco reconstruction [699]. Anterior suspension alone through the DVC and PPL combined without posterior construction in the setting of RARP has shown improvement in continence at one month (20% vs. 53%, $p = 0.029$), three months (47% vs. 73%, $p = 0.034$) and six months (83% vs. 100%, $p = 0.02$), but not at twelve months (97% vs. 100%, $p = 0.313$) [700]. Together, these results suggest a possible earlier return to continence, but no long-term difference.

A novel method of urethral reconstruction with peritoneal support flaps was shown in a randomised trial compared to standard RARP ($n = 96$) to improve urinary continence recovery (0-1 pad) at 1-month (73% vs. 49%, $p = 0.017$) and 3-months (93% vs 77%, $p = 0.025$); however, patient reported outcomes, complications and oncological outcomes were similar [701].

As there is conflicting evidence on the effect of anterior and/or posterior reconstruction on return to continence post-RP, no recommendations can be made. However, no studies showed an increase in adverse oncologic outcome or complications with reconstruction.

6.2.2.4.2 Deep venous thrombosis prophylaxis

As with all pelvic cancer surgery lasting over one hour there is a measurable increased risk of deep vein thrombosis and so consideration should be given to chemical thrombosis prophylaxis, commonly used for 3 to 4 weeks after surgery. This should be adapted based on national recommendations, when available.

6.2.3 **Radiotherapy**

Intensity-modulated RT (IMRT) or volumetric modulated arc therapy (VMAT) with image-guided RT (IGRT) is currently widely recognised as the standard treatment approach for EBRT.

6.2.3.1 *External beam radiation therapy*

6.2.3.1.1 Technical aspects

Intensity-modulated RT and VMAT employ dynamic multi-leaf collimators, which automatically and continuously adapt to the contours of the target volume seen by each beam. Viani *et al.*, show significantly reduced acute and late grade ≥ 2 genito-urinary (GU) and gastro-intestinal (GI) toxicity in favour of IMRT, while BCR-free rates did not differ significantly when comparing IMRT with three-dimensional conformal RT (3D-CRT) in a RCT comprising 215 patients [702]. A meta-analysis by Yu *et al.*, (23 studies, 9,556 patients) concluded that IMRT significantly decreases the occurrence of grade 2–4 acute GI toxicity, late GI toxicity and late rectal bleeding, and achieves better PSA relapse-free survival in comparison with 3D-CRT. Intensity-modulated EBRT and 3D-CRT show comparable acute rectal toxicity, late GU toxicity and OS, while IMRT slightly increases the morbidity of acute GU toxicity [703]. Thus, IMRT plus IGRT remain the SOC for the treatment of PCa.

The advantage of VMAT over IMRT is shorter treatment times, generally two to three minutes in total. Both techniques allow for a more complex distribution of the dose to be delivered and provide concave isodose curves, which are particularly useful as a means of sparing the rectum. Radiotherapy treatment planning for IMRT and VMAT differs from that used in conventional EBRT, requiring a computer system capable of 'inverse planning' and the appropriate physics expertise. Treatment plans must conform to pre-specified dose constraints to critical organs at risk of normal tissue damage and a formal quality assurance process should be routine.

With dose escalation using IMRT/VMAT, organ movement becomes a critical issue in terms of both tumour control and treatment toxicity. Techniques will therefore combine IMRT/VMAT with some form of IGRT (usually gold marker or cone-beam CT), in which organ movement can be visualised and corrected for in real time, although the optimum means (number of applications per week) of achieving this is still unclear [704, 705]. Tomotherapy is another technique for the delivery of IMRT, using a linear accelerator mounted on a ring gantry that rotates as the patient is delivered through the centre of the ring, analogous to spiral CT scanning.

The use of MR-guided adapted RT is still investigational [706]. Planning studies confirm that MR-based adaptive RT significantly reduces doses to organs at risk (OAR) and this may translate into clinical benefit [707]. Although the rates of acute GI- and GU toxicity appear low, mostly on the basis of patients treated with stereotactic RT [708], follow-up is too short for definitive conclusions [706]. The daily fraction time of up to 45 minutes [706, 708], the heavy MR-workflow and the limited field size (rendering most pelvic fields too large) make its implementation not yet a routine [706]. A prospective single center RCT, the MIRAGE trial (CT-guided Stereotactic Body Radiation Therapy and MRI-guided Stereotactic Body Radiation Therapy for Prostate Cancer) demonstrates reduced acute GU and GI toxicity with MRI-guided SBRT and margin reduction from 4 mm to 2 mm [709]. The impact on long term toxicity, biochemical control and cost effectiveness remains undefined.

6.2.3.1.2 Dose escalation

Local control is a critical issue for the outcome of RT of PCa. It has been shown that local failure due to insufficient total dose is prognostic for death from PCa as a second wave of metastases is seen five to ten years later on [710]. Several RCTs have shown that dose escalation (range 74–80 Gy) has a significant impact on ten-year biochemical relapse as well as metastases and disease-specific mortality [711-718]. These trials have generally included patients from several risk groups, and the use of neoadjuvant/adjuvant ADT has varied (see Table 6.2.6). The best evidence of an OS benefit in patients with intermediate- or high-risk PCa, derives from a non-randomised but well conducted propensity-matched retrospective analysis of the U.S. National Cancer Database by Kalbasi *et al.*, including a total of 42,481 patients [719]. If IMRT/VMAT and IGRT are used for dose escalation, rates of severe late side effects (> grade 3) for the rectum are 2–4% and for the GU tract 2–6% [713, 720].

The concept of a focal boost to the dominant intraprostatic lesion (DIL) visible on MRI rather than global prostate dose escalation has been successfully validated in a RCT of 571 intermediate- and high-risk patients [720]. Patients were randomised between 77 Gy in 35 fractions of 2.2 Gy and the same dose plus a focal boost up to 18 Gy. Additional ADT was given to 65% of patients in both arms. However, the duration of the ADT was not reported. With a median follow-up of 72 months there was a moderate improvement of biochemical PFS (BPFS) (primary endpoint). In addition, focal boosting decreased local failure (HR: 0.33) and increased the rate of regional + distant MFS (HR: 0.58) [721]. No significant difference for late GU- or GI toxicity grade ≥ 2 (23% and 12% vs. 28% and 13%) was documented. For grade ≥ 3 GU-toxicity these numbers were 3.5% and 5.6% ($p > 0.05$). However, longer follow-up is needed to assess late GU-toxicity [721]. Of note, there was a clear decrease in biochemical failure with increasing boost dose, individually given up to 18 Gy. Systematic review of MRI-defined DIL focal boost studies using standard fractionation shows good tolerability and improved BPFS [722]. Its role when using hypofractionation and ultra-hypofractionation is under investigation.

6.2.3.1.3 Hypofractionation

Fractionated RT utilises differences in the DNA repair capacity of normal and tumour tissue and slowly proliferating cells are very sensitive to an increased dose per fraction [723]. A meta-analysis of 25 studies including > 14,000 patients concluded that since PCa has a slow proliferation rate, hypofractionated RT could be more effective than conventional fractions of 1.8–2 Gy [724]. Hypofractionation (HFX) has the added advantage of being more convenient for the patient at lower cost.

Moderate HFX is defined as RT with 2.5–3.4 Gy/fx. Several studies report on moderate HFX applied in various techniques also including ADT in part [725-732]. A Cochrane review on moderate HFX for clinically localised PCa [733] included eleven studies ($n = 8,278$) with a median follow-up of 72 months showing little or no difference in PCa-specific survival (HR: 1.00). Based on four studies ($n = 3,848$), moderate HFX to the

prostate alone probably makes little or no difference to late radiation GU toxicity (RR: 1.05) or GI toxicity (RR: 1.1). Toxicity outcomes in two RCTs recruiting high risk patients and adding elective pelvic nodal radiation have reported. The PCS-5 multicentre RCT recruited high risk patients (25.9% T3-4) and an initial two-year toxicity analysis demonstrated comparable G2+ GI toxicity across treatment arms with lower rates of late G2+ GU toxicity with HFX [734]. No differences were seen in survival outcomes at median follow-up of five years, although as secondary endpoints extrapolation of survival results is limited by small sample size [735]. In the single centre randomized pHART2-RCT an increase in five-year G3+ GI toxicity was noted when HFX was combined with elective pelvic nodal RT [736]. In the post-operative setting, moderate HFX is non-inferior in terms of two-year patient reported toxicity to conventional fractionation with similar rates of patient reported GI and GU toxicity [737].

Ultra-HFX has been defined as RT with > 3.4 Gy per fraction [732]. It requires IGRT and (ideally) stereotactic body RT (SBRT). Table 6.2.8 provides an overview of selected studies investigating its role in treating predominantly intermediate risk localised disease. Short-term biochemical control (5-years) is comparable to conventional fractionation. However, there are concerns about higher-grade GU toxicity and SBRT should be avoided in patients with severe pre-existing LUTS and/or outflow obstruction with or without median lobe [738, 739]. In the HYPO-RT-PC randomised trial by Widmark *et al.*, (n = 1,200), no difference in failure-free survival was seen for conventional or ultra-HFX but acute grade ≥ 2 GU toxicity was 23% vs. 28% (p = 0.057), favouring conventional fractionation. There were no significant differences in long-term toxicity [738]. A SR by Jackson *et al.*, included 38 studies with 6,116 patients who received RT with < 10 fractions and ≥ 5 Gy per fraction. Five and seven-year biochemical recurrence-free survival (BRFS) rates were 95.3% and 93.7%, respectively, and estimated late grade ≥ 3 GU and GI toxicity rates were 2.0% and 1.1%, respectively [740]. The authors conclude that there is sufficient evidence to support SBRT as a standard treatment option for localised PCa, even though the median follow-up in this review was only 39 months and it included at least one trial (HYPO-RT-PC) which used 3D-CRT in 80% and IMRT/VMAT in the remainder for ultra-HFX. In their review on SBRT, Cushman *et al.*, evaluated fourteen trials, including 2,038 patients and concluded that despite a lack of long-term follow-up and the heterogeneity of the available evidence, prostate SBRT affords appropriate biochemical control with few high-grade toxicities [741]. In the Intensity-modulated fractionated RT vs. stereotactic body RT for PCa (PACE-B) trial, acute grade ≥ 2 GU or GI toxicities did not differ significantly between conventional fractionation and ultra-HFX [742]. At two years, treatment was well tolerated in both arms with no differences in RTOG \geq Grade 2 GU or GI toxicities, but clinician scoring of urinary toxicity using CTCAE and patient reported Expanded Prostate Cancer Index Composite (EPIC)-26 urinary bother scores were both higher in the SBRT arm [743]. After 74 months median follow-up, 5-year biochemical/clinical failure free-rates were 94.6% (95% CI 91.9%, 96.4%) in the control arm and 95.8% (95% CI 93.3%, 97.4%) in the SBRT arm confirming SBRT is non-inferior (HR 0.73 90% CI 0.48-1.12, p for non-inferiority =0.004). The cumulative 5-year rate of late RTOG grade 2+ GI toxicity was similar in both arms (10%) but higher rates of cumulative 5-year RTOG grade2+ GU toxicity occurred with SBRT, at 26.9% (95%CI 22.8,31.5%) compared to the control arm at 18.3% (95%CI 14.8,22.5%). The GU toxicity is temporary with no statistical difference in clinician reported toxicity between groups at 5 years and no clinically relevant difference in patient reported outcomes in the five years of follow-up. Adopting planning dose constraints to the penile bulb might minimise ED, especially in younger patients [744].

First results of a small (n = 30) randomised phase-II trial in intermediate-risk PCa of 'ultra-high single dose RT' (SDRT) with 24 Gy compared with an ultra HFX stereotactic body RT regime with 5x9 Gy, have been published [745].

6.2.3.1.4 Neoadjuvant or adjuvant hormone therapy plus radiotherapy

The combination of RT with luteinising hormone releasing hormone (LHRH) ADT has superiority compared with RT alone followed by deferred ADT on relapse, as shown by phase III RCTs [745-756] (Table 6.2.9). The main message is that for intermediate-risk disease a short duration of four to six months is optimal while a longer one, two to three years, is needed for high-risk patients. The largest RCT in intermediate risk disease comparing dose escalated RT with or without six months of ADT failed to demonstrate an OS advantage with a median follow-up time of 6.3 years. Six months of ADT use was associated with reduced PSA failure, fewer distant metastases and improved prostate cancer specific mortality [756].

The question of the added value of EBRT combined with ADT has been clarified by three RCTs. All showed a clear benefit of adding EBRT to long-term ADT (Table 6.2.10).

The combination of ADT with various forms of RT has been extensively studied, with extremely strong evidence for the use of such combined modality therapy in several settings. The MARCAP (Individual Patient Data Meta-Analysis of Randomised Trials in Cancer of the Prostate) consortium conducted a meta-analysis of trials using individual patient data (IPD), and a primary endpoint of MFS, a validated surrogate for OS. Trials were eligible if

they studied the use or prolongation of ADT in patients receiving definitive RT, and included twelve trials with 10,853 patients. Median follow-up was over eleven years. The use of ADT was clearly associated with significant improvements in BCR, metastatic recurrence, MFS, and OS. The benefits of ADT were independent of RT dose, age, and risk groups comparing NCCN unfavourable intermediate-risk, high-risk and locally-advanced disease. There were no demonstrable benefits from the extension of duration of neoadjuvant ADT [757].

A meta-analysis from two RCTs (RTOG 9413 and Ottawa 0101) has compared neoadjuvant/concomitant vs. adjuvant ADT (without substratifying between favourable- and unfavourable intermediaterisk disease) in conjunction with prostate RT and reported superior PFS with adjuvant ADT, but the data heterogeneity means that this observation is hypothesis-generating only [758].

In addition, a Canadian two-arm dose-escalated (76 Gy) RCT compared neoadjuvant and concomitant with adjuvant short-term ADT in 432 patients with intermediate-risk PCa. After ten years no significant difference in OS or RT-related grade ≥ 3 GI or GU toxicity was seen [759]. Therefore, both regimen in combination with dose escalation are reasonable standards.

6.2.3.2 Proton beam therapy

In theory, proton beams are an attractive alternative to photon-beam RT for PCa, as they deposit almost all their radiation dose at the end of the particle's path in tissue (the Bragg peak), in contrast to photons which deposit radiation along their path. There is also a very sharp fall-off for proton beams beyond their deposition depth, meaning that critical normal tissues beyond this depth could be effectively spared. In contrast, photon beams continue to deposit energy until they leave the body, including an exit dose. The PARTIQoL Phase III RCT compared proton beam therapy (PBT) with IMRT in 450 participants with localised prostate cancer. With a median follow-up of 60.3 months, no difference in any QoL domain or PFS was found [760]. Proton beam therapy has no advantages over less resource intensive IMRT/VMAT; however, the publication of the full study is awaited to confirm the results.

Table 6.2.6: Randomised trials of dose escalation in localised PCa

Trial	n	PCa condition	Radiotherapy Dose	Follow-up (median)	Outcome	Results
MD Anderson study 2011 [718]	301	T1-T3, N0, M0, PSA ≤ 10 ng/mL PSA 10-20 ng/mL PSA > 20 ng/mL	70 vs.78 Gy	15 yr.	DM, DSM, FFF	All patients: 18.9% FFF at 70 Gy; 12% FFF at 78 Gy; ($p = 0.042$) 3.4% DM at 70 Gy; 1.1% DM at 78 Gy; ($p = 0.018$) 6.2% DSM at 70 Gy; 3.2% DSM at 78 Gy; ($p = 0.043$) No difference in OS ($p > 0.05$)
PROG 95-09 2010 [712]	393	T1b-T2b, PSA ≤ 15 ng/mL 75% low-risk pts. Low-risk: T1-2a, PSA < 10 mg/mL, GS ≤ 6 . Interm-risk: PSA 10-15 ng/mL or GS 7 or T2b. High-risk: GS 8-10.	70.2 vs.79.2 Gy including proton boost 19.8 vs. 28.8 Gy	8.9 yr.	10-yr. ASTRO BCF	All patients: 32% BF at 70.2 Gy; 17% BF at 79.2 Gy; ($p < 0.0001$) Low-risk patients: 28% BF at 70.2 Gy; 7% BF at 79.2 Gy; ($p < 0.0001$)
MRC RT01 2014 [717]	843	T1b-T3a, N0, M0 PSA < 50 ng/mL neoadjuvant ADT	64 vs. 74 Gy	10 yr.	BFS, OS	43% BFS at 64 Gy; 55% BFS at 74 Gy; ($p = 0.0003$) 71% OS both groups ($p = 0.96$)

Dutch RCT 2014 [716]	664	T1b-T4 143 pts. with (neo) adjuvant ADT	68 vs. 78 Gy	110 mo.	Freedom biochemical (Phoenix) and/or clinical failure at 10 yr.	43% FFF at 68 Gy; 49% FFF at 78 Gy; (p = 0.045)
GETUG 06 2011 [715]	306	T1b-T3a, N0, M0 PSA < 50 ng/mL	70 vs. 80 Gy	61 mo.	BCF (ASTRO)	39% BF at 70 Gy; 28% BF at 80 Gy
RTOG 0126 2018 [711]	1,532	T1b-T2b ISUP GG 1 + PSA 10-20 ng/mL or ISUP GG 2/3 + PSA < 15 ng/mL	70.2 vs. 79.2 Gy	100 mo.	OS, DM, BCF (ASTRO)	75% OS at 70.2 Gy; 76% OS at 79.2 Gy 6% DM at 70.2 Gy; 4% DM at 79.2 Gy; (p = 0.05) 47% BCF at 70.2 Gy; 31% BCF at 79.2 Gy; (p < 0.001; Phoenix, p < 0.001)
FLAME Trial [720, 721]	571	EAU risk classification: Intermediate risk (15%) High risk (84%)	77 Gy (35 Fx. 2.2 Gy) vs. 77 Gy 35 Fx.) + focal boost (up to 18 Gy) ADT (65% both arms - duration unknown)	72 mo.	BFS (5 yr.) DSM (5 yr.)	BFS: 92% at 77 Gy + boost; 85% at 77 Gy; (p < 0.001, HR: 0.45) DSM: p = 0.49 Focal boost in favour of: Local control (HR: 0.33); Distant MFS (HR: 0.58)

ADT = androgen-deprivation therapy; BF = biochemical failure; BFS = biochemical progression-free survival; DM = distant metastases; DSM = disease specific mortality; FFF = freedom from biochemical or clinical failure; Fx = fractions; GS = Gleason score; ISUP = International Society of Urological Pathology; MFS = metastasis-free survival; mo. = months; n = number of patients; OS = overall survival; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; yr. = year.

Table 6.2.7: Major phase III randomised trials of moderate hypofractionation for primary treatment

Study/ Author	n	Risk, ISUP GG, or NCCN	ADT	RT Regimen	BED, Gy	Follow-up (median)	Outcome
Lee, et al. 2024 [761]	550 542	low risk	None	70 Gy/28 fx 73.8 Gy/41 fx	80 69.6	150 mo.	12 yr. DFS 56.1% (95% CI, 51.5 to 60.5) control arm and 61.8% (95% CI, 57.2 to 66.0) for HFX. HR 0.85 (95% CI, 0.71 to 1.03)
Dearnaley, et al. CHHiP 2016 [728]	1,077/19 fx 1,074/20 fx 1,065/37 fx	15% low 73% intermediate 12% high	3-6 mo. before and during EBRT	57 Gy/19 fx 60 Gy/20 fx 74 Gy/37 fx	73.3 77.1 74	62 mo.	5 yr. BCDF 85.9% (19 fx) 90.6% (20 fx) 88.3% (37 fx)
De Vries, et al. 2020	403 392	30% ISUP GG 1 45% ISUP GG 2-3, 25% ISUP GG 4-5	None	64.6 Gy/19 fx 78 Gy/39 fx	90.4 78	89 mo.	8-yr. OS 80.8% vs. 77.6% (p = 0.17) 8 yr. TF 24.4% vs. 26.3%

Catton, et al. 2017 [730]	608	Intermediate risk 53% T1c 46% T2a-c	None	60 Gy/20 fx	77.1	72 mo.	5 yr. BCDF both arms 85% HR: 0.96 (n.s)
	598	9% ISUP GG 1 63% ISUP GG 2 28% ISUP GG 3		77.1 78 Gy/39 fx	78		
Glicksman et al. 2024 PHART-2 [736]	186	All high risk N0M0 T1-2 82.8% T3-4 12.2%	22 mo. median	68Gy to prostate (SIB) + 48Gy to pelvis in 25 fx	82	67 mo.	No difference in acute toxicity and PROs Higher 5-yr cumulative G3+ GI in HFX 13.5% (95% CI, 7.1%-21.9%) vs 2.4% (95% CI, 0.5%-7.6%) (P = .01)
				78Gy to prostate + 46Gy to pelvis in 39 fx	78		
Niazi, et al. 2023 PCS-5 [734]	329	All high risk N0M0 T1-2 73.8% T3-4 25.9%	28 mo. - 3 mo. before during and after EBRT	68Gy to prostate (SIB) + 45Gy to pelvis in 25 fx 76Gy to prostate + 46Gy to pelvis in 38 fx	82 76	24 mo.	Similar 2yr G2+ GI toxicity (8-10%) Reduced 2yr G2+ GU toxicity with HFX (4.3% vs 15.9%; p=0.035)

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; BCDF = biochemical or clinical disease failure; BED = biologically equivalent dose, calculated to be equivalent in 2 Gy fractions using an α/β of 1.5 Gy; DFS = disease-free survival; EBRT = external beam radiotherapy; HFX = hypofractionation; FU = follow-up; fx = fractions; HR = hazard ratio; ISUP = International Society of Urological Pathology; mo. = month; n = number of patients; NCCN = National Comprehensive Cancer Network; n.s. = not significant; TF = treatment failure; yr. = year.

Table 6.2.8: Selected trials on ultra-hypofractionation for intact localised PCa

Study	n	med FU (mo)	Risk-Group	Regimen (TD/fx)	Outcome
Widmark et al. 2019 HYPO-RT-PC [738]	1,200	60	89% intermediate 11% high	78 Gy / 39 fx, 8 wks 42.7 Gy / 7 fx, 2.5 wks No SBRT	FFS at 5 yrs 84% in both arms
Brand et al. 2019 Tree et al. 2022 Van As et al. 2024 [743] PACE-B [742] [739]	874	74	9.3% NCCN low 90.7% NCCN intermediate ISUP GG 3 excluded	78 Gy / 39 fx, 7.5 wks or 62 Gy/ 20 fx 4wks 36.25 Gy / 5 fx, 1-2 wks SBRT	Biochemical/clinical FFS at 5 yrs 94.6% (CRT) vs. 95.6% (SBRT) Cumulative 5-yr G 2+ GI toxicity similar (10%) Cumulative 5-yr G2+ GU SBRT 26.9% (95%CI 22.8,31.5%) CRT 18.3% (95%CI 14.8,22.5%).

FFS = failure-free survival; FU = follow-up; fx = number fractions; mo. = months; n = number of patients; TD = total dose; SBRT = stereotactic body radiotherapy; CRT = control arm RT; wk. = weeks; yr. = years; ns=not significant.

Table 6.2.9: Selected studies of use and duration of ADT in combination with RT for PCa

Study	TNM stage	n	Trial	ADT	RT	Effect on OS
RTOG 85-31 2005 [747]	T3 or N1 M0	977	EBRT ± ADT	Orchiectomy or LHRH agonist 15% RP	65–70 Gy	Significant benefit for combined treatment (p = 0.002) seems to be mostly caused by patients with ISUP grade group 2-5
RTOG 94-13 2007 [751]	T1c–4 N0–1 M0	1,292	ADT timing comparison	2 mo. neoadjuvant plus concomitant vs. 4 mo. Adjuvant suppression	Whole pelvic RT vs. prostate only; 70.2 Gy	No significant difference between neoadjuvant plus concomitant vs. adjuvant androgen suppression therapy groups (interaction suspected)
RTOG 86-10 2008 [748]	T2–4 N0–1	456	EBRT ± ADT	Goserelin plus flutamide 2 mo. before, plus Concomitant therapy	65–70 Gy RT	No significant difference at 10 yr.
D'Amico AV, et al. 2008 [749]	T2 N0 M0 (localised unfavourable risk)	206	EBRT ± ADT	LHRH agonist plus flutamide for 6 mo.	70 Gy 3D-CRT	Significant benefit that may pertain only to men with no or minimal co-morbidity (HR: 0.55, 95% CI: 0.34-0.90, p = 0.01)
RTOG 92-02 2008 [752]	T2c–4 N0–1 M0	1,554	Short vs. prolonged ADT	LHRH agonist given for 2 yr. as adjuvant after 4 mo. as neoadjuvant	65–70 Gy	p = 0.73, p = 0.36 overall; significant benefit (p = 0.044) (p = 0.0061) in subset with ISUP grade group 4-5
EORTC 22961 2009 [753]	T1c-2ab N1 M0, T2c-4 N0-1 M0	970	Short vs. prolonged ADT	LHRH agonist for 6 mo. vs. 3 yr.	70 Gy 3D-CRT	Better result with 3 yr. treatment than with 6 mo. (3.8% improvement in survival at 5 yr.)
EORTC 22863 2010 [746]	T1-2 poorly differentiated and M0, or T3-4 N0-1 M0	415	EBRT ± ADT	LHRH agonist for 3 yr. (adjuvant)	70 Gy RT	Significant benefit at 10 yr. for combined treatment (HR: 0.60, 95% CI: 0.45-0.80, p = 0.0004).
TROG 96-01 2011 [750]	T2b–4 N0 M0	802	Neoadjuvant ADT Duration	Goserelin plus flutamide 3 or 6 mo. before, plus concomitant suppression	66 Gy 3D-CRT	No significant difference in OS reported; benefit in PCa-specific survival (HR: 0.56, 95% CI: 0.32-0.98, p = 0.04) (10 yr.: HR: 0.84, 0.65-1.08, p = 0.18)
RTOG 99-10 2015 [754]	intermediate risk 94% T1-T2; 6% T3-4	1,579	Short vs. prolonged ADT	LHRH + bicalutamide 6 mo. 4 mo.prior to RT	70.2 Gy 2D/3D	67 vs. 68%, p = 0.62, confirms 8 + 8 wk. LHRH as a standard
PCSIII 2020 [755]	Intermediate risk	600	76 Gy alone vs. 76 Gy + ADT vs. 70 Gy + ADT	LHRH + bicalutamide 6 mo. 4 mo. prior to RT	70 vs. 76 Gy	Significantly improved biochemical failure-free and PCa-specific survival for ADT arms, with no difference in OS.

RTOG 0815 2023 [756]	Intermediate risk	1,492	Dose escalated RT ± ADT	LHRH agonist/ antagonist + bicalutamide or flutamide 6 mo. 2 mo. prior to RT	79.2Gy (89%) 45Gy + BT boost (11%)	No difference in OS. Significantly improved biochemical failure-free, metastatic-free survival and PCa-specific survival for ADT arm.
----------------------	-------------------	-------	-------------------------	--	------------------------------------	---

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; CI = confidence interval; EBRT = external beam radiotherapy in standard fractionation; HR = hazard ratio; ISUP = International Society of Urological Pathology; LHRH = luteinising hormone-releasing hormone; mo. = months; n = number of patients; OS = overall survival; RP = radical prostatectomy; RT = radiotherapy; BT = brachytherapy; wk = week; yr. = year; 3D-CRT = three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy.

Table 6.2.10: Selected studies of ADT in combination with, or without, RT for PCa

Study	TNM stage	n	Trial design	ADT	RT	Effect on OS
SPCG-7/ SFUO-3 2016 [763]	T1b-2 WHO Grade 1-3, T3 N0 M0	875	ADT ± EBRT	LHRH agonist for 3 mo. Plus continuous flutamide	70 Gy 3D-CRT vs. no RT	34% (95% CI: 29-39%) vs. 17% (95% CI: 13-22% CSM at 12 (15) yr. favouring combined treatment (p < 0.0001 for 15-yr. results) NCIC CTG PR.3/MRC
PRO7/NCIC 2015 [764]	T3-4 (88%), PSA > 20 ng/mL (64%), ISUP GG 4-5 (36%) N0 M0	1,205	ADT ± EBRT	Continuous LHRH agonist	65–70 Gy 3D-CRT vs. no RT	10-yr. OS = 49% vs. 55% favouring combined treatment HR: 0.7, p < 0.001)
Sargos, et al., 2020 [765]	T3-4 N0 M0	273	ADT ± EBRT	LHRH agonist for 3 yr.	70 Gy 3D-CRT vs. no RT	Significant reduction of clinical progression; 5-yr. OS 71.4% vs. 71.5%

ADT = androgen-deprivation therapy; CSM = cancer-specific mortality; EBRT = external beam radiotherapy; HR = hazard ratio; LHRH = luteinising hormone-releasing hormone; mo. = months; n = number of patients; OS = overall survival; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; RT = radiotherapy; 3D-CRT = three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy; yr = years.

6.2.3.3 Spacer during external beam radiation therapy

Biodegradable spacer insertion involves using a liquid gel or balloon to increase the distance between the prostate and rectum and consequently reduce the amount of radiation reaching the rectum. Various materials have been used with most evidence available for CE-marked hydrogel spacers [766]. A meta-analysis including one RCT and six cohort studies using the hydrogel spacer demonstrated a 5–8% reduction in the rectal volume receiving high-dose radiation, although heterogeneity between studies is found [767]. In the final analysis of the RCT with a median follow-up of 37 months and with approximately two-thirds of patients evaluable, those treated with spacer *in situ* had no deterioration from baseline bowel function whilst those treated without spacer had a lower mean bowel summary score of 5.8 points which met the threshold for a minimally important difference of 4–6 points [768].

This meta-analysis highlights inconsistent reporting of procedural complications. In addition, with more widespread clinical use safety reports describe uncommon, but severe and life changing, complications including prostatic abscess, fistulae and sepsis [769]. Implantation is associated with a learning curve and should only be undertaken by teams with experience of TRUS and transperineal procedures with robust audit reporting in place [769]. Its role in the context of moderate or extreme HFX is as yet unclear.

6.2.3.4 Brachytherapy

6.2.3.4.1 Low-dose rate brachytherapy

Low-dose rate (LDR) BT uses radioactive seeds permanently implanted into the prostate. Low-dose rate monotherapy [770] can be offered to patients with NCCN favourable intermediate-risk and good urinary function defined as an International Prostatic Symptom Score (IPSS) < 12 and maximum flow rate > 15 mL/min on urinary flow tests [771]. The RTOG phase III RCT compared LDR BT +/- EBRT in participants with Gleason grade 6 and PSA < 20 or Gleason grade 7 and PSA < 10 and found that the addition of EBRT resulted in increased toxicity but no improvement in freedom from progression [772].

Patients having had a previous TURP can undergo BT without an increase in risk of urinary toxicity with due attention to dose distribution. A minimal channel TURP is recommended, leaving at least 1 cm rim of prostate tissue around the post-TURP urethral defect at the postero-lateral sides of the prostate and there should be at least a three-month interval between TURP and BT to allow for adequate healing [773-776].

The only available RCT comparing RP and LDR BT as monotherapy was closed due to poor accrual [777]. Outcome data are available from a number of large population cohorts with mature follow-up [778-782]. A significant correlation has been shown between the implanted dose and biochemical control [783]. A D90 (dose covering 90% of the prostate volume) of > 140 Gy leads to a significantly higher biochemical control rate (PSA < 1.0 ng/mL) after four years (92 vs. 68%). There is no OS benefit in adding neoadjuvant or adjuvant ADT to LDR monotherapy [784].

Low-dose rate BT can be combined with EBRT in NCCN unfavourable intermediate-risk PCa and high-risk patients. External beam RT (total dose of 78 Gy) has been compared with EBRT (total dose 46 Gy) followed by LDR BT boost (prescribed dose 115 Gy) in intermediate-risk and high-risk patients in the ASCENDE-RT randomised trial with twelve months of ADT in both arms [785, 786]. The LDR boost resulted in 5-, 7-year and 10-year PSA PFS increase (89%, 86% and 85% respectively, compared to 84%, 75%, 70%) but with no impact on distant metastasis or OS. This improvement in biochemical control was achieved at a cost of increased late grade 3+ GU toxicity (18% compared to 8%) and two treatment related deaths [786, 787]. Urinary toxicity was mainly in the development of urethral strictures and incontinence and great care should be taken during treatment planning.

6.2.3.4.2 High-dose rate brachytherapy

High-dose rate (HDR) BT uses a radioactive source temporarily introduced into the prostate to deliver radiation. The technical differences are outlined in Table 6.2.11. The use of the GEC (Groupe Europeen de Curietherapie)/ESTRO Guidelines is strongly recommended [788]. High-dose rate BT can be delivered in single or multiple fractions and is often combined with EBRT of at least 45 Gy, conventionally fractionated [789]. A retrospective analysis on 1641 intermediate and high-risk patients demonstrated a better distant-metastasis free survival when a HDR BT boost was added to 50 – 54 Gy EBRT. The difference mounted to 12% at ten years [790]. A SR of non-RCTs and data from population studies suggest outcomes with EBRT plus HDR BT are superior to EBRT alone [791, 792].

A single-centre RCT of EBRT (55 Gy in 20 fractions) vs. EBRT (35.75 Gy in 13 fractions), followed by HDR BT (17 Gy in two fractions over 24 hours) has been reported [793]. In 218 patients with T1–3 N0M0 PCa the combination of EBRT and HDR BT showed a significant improvement in the biochemical disease-free rate ($p = 0.04$) at five and ten years (75% and 46% compared to 61% and 39%). However, an unexpectedly high rate of early recurrences was observed in the EBRT arm alone, even after two years, possibly due to a dose lower than the current standard used [793].

Supporting, but not definitive, evidence of the benefit of HDR boost is available from the TROG 03.04 RADAR trial. This multi-centre study had upfront radiation dose escalation (non-randomised) with dosing options of 66, 70, or 74 Gy EBRT, or 46 Gy EBRT plus HDR BT boost and randomised men with locally-advanced PCa to 6 or 18 months ADT. After a minimum follow-up of ten years HDR boost significantly reduced distant progression, the study primary endpoint (HR: 0.68, 95% CI: 0.57–0.80; $p < 0.0001$), when compared to EBRT alone and, independent of duration of ADT, HDR boost was associated with increased IPSS of 3 points at eighteen months post-treatment resolving by three years but decreased rectal symptoms when compared to EBRT [794]. Although radiation dose escalation using BT boost provides much higher biological doses, the TROG 03.04 RADAR RCT and SRs show ADT use independently predicts better outcomes regardless of radiation dose intensification [784, 794, 795]. Omitting ADT may result in inferior OS and based on current evidence ADT use and duration should be in line with that used when delivering EBRT alone.

Fractionated HDR BT as monotherapy can be offered to patients with intermediate-risk PCa, who should be informed that results are only available from limited series in very experienced centres. Five-year PSA control rates of 93.5% for intermediate-risk PCa are reported, with late grade 3+ GU toxicity rates < 5% and no, or very minimal, grade 3+ GI toxicity rates [796]. Single fraction HDR monotherapy should not be used as it has inferior biochemical control rates compared to fractionated HDR monotherapy [797].

Table 6.2.11: Difference between LDR and HDR brachytherapy

Differences in prostate brachytherapy techniques	
Low dose rate (LDR)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Permanent seeds implanted • Uses Iodine-125 (I-125) (most common) • Palladium-103 (103Pd-) or Cesium-131 isotopes • Radiation dose delivered over weeks and months • Acute side effects resolve over months • Radiation protection issues for patient and carers
High dose rate (HDR)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Temporary implantation • Iridium-192 (IR-192) isotope introduced through implanted needles or catheters • Radiation dose delivered in minutes • Acute side effects resolve over weeks • No radiation protection issues for patient or carers

6.2.3.5 Acute side effects of external beam radiotherapy and brachytherapy

Gastro-intestinal and urinary side effects are common during and after EBRT. In the EORTC 22991 trial, approximately 50% of patients reported acute GU toxicity of grade 1, 20% of grade 2, and 2% grade 3. In the same trial, approximately 30% of patients reported acute grade 1 GI toxicity, 10% grade 2, and less than 1% grade 3. Common toxicities included dysuria, urinary frequency, urinary retention, haematuria, diarrhoea, rectal bleeding and proctitis [798]. In addition, general side effects such as fatigue are common. It should be noted that the incidence of acute side effects is greater than that of late effects, implying that most acute effects resolve.

In a RCT comparing patient reported QoL after LDR or HDR boost combined with external beam radiotherapy to the pelvis, more intense and prolonged acute urinary side-effects are noted with LDR boost [799]. In a RCT of conventional dose EBRT vs. EBRT and LDR BT the incidence of acute proctitis was reduced in the BT arm, but other acute toxicities were equivalent [785]. In a pooled analysis of 864 patients treated using extreme HFX and stereotactic RT, declines in urinary and bowel domains were noted at three months which returned to baseline, or better, by six months [800].

6.2.4 Investigational therapies

6.2.4.1 Background

Besides RP, EBRT and BT, other modalities have emerged as potential therapeutic options in patients with clinically localised PCa [801-803]. These new modalities have been developed as minimally invasive procedures with the aim of providing equivalent oncological safety, reduced toxicity, and improved functional outcomes. In this section, both whole gland- and focal treatment [804, 805] will be considered, looking particularly at high-intensity focused US (HIFU), cryotherapeutic ablation of the prostate (cryotherapy) and focal photodynamic therapy (PDT), as sufficient data are available to form the basis of some initial judgements. Other options such as radiofrequency ablation (RFA) and electroporation, among others, are considered to be in the early phases of evaluation [804].

High-intensity focused US consists of focused US waves emitted from a transducer that cause tissue damage by mechanical and thermal effects as well as by cavitation [806]. The goal of HIFU is to heat malignant tissue above 65°C, so that it is destroyed by coagulative necrosis. High-intensity focused US is performed under general or spinal anaesthesia, with the patient lying in the lateral or supine position. Since the ultrasound energy is most often delivered from the rectal cavity, HIFU faces challenges in delivering energy to the anterior part in large prostates.

Cryotherapy uses freezing techniques to induce cell death by dehydration resulting in protein denaturation, direct rupture of cellular membranes by ice crystals and vascular stasis and microthrombi, resulting in stagnation of the microcirculation with consecutive ischaemic apoptosis [801-803]. Freezing of the prostate is ensured by the placement of 17-gauge cryo-needles under TRUS guidance, placement of thermosensors at the level of the external sphincter and rectal wall, and insertion of a urethral warmer. Two freeze-thaw cycles are used under TRUS guidance resulting in a temperature of -40°C in the mid-gland and at the neurovascular bundle. Currently, third and fourth generation cryotherapy devices are mainly used.

6.2.4.2 Whole-gland therapies

Whole gland treatments using cryosurgery and HIFU were investigated as a replacement for surgery or radiotherapy, with limited success. The main adverse effects of whole-gland cryosurgery are ED (18%), urinary incontinence (2–20%), urethral sloughing (0–38%), rectal pain and bleeding (3%) and recto-urethral fistula formation (0–6%) [807]. There is a lack of prospective comparative data regarding oncological outcomes of whole-gland cryosurgery as a curative treatment option for men with localised PCa, with most studies being non-comparative single-arm case series with short follow-up [807].

High-intensity focused US has previously been widely used for whole-gland therapy with the following adverse effects: acute urinary retention (10%), ED (23%), urethral stricture (8%), rectal pain or bleeding (11%), recto-urethral fistula (0–5%) and urinary incontinence (10%) [807]. Combining the whole-gland HIFU treatment with TURP reduces the rate of urethral strictures, maintains the level of incontinence, but increases the rate of ED [808].

Overall, the lack of any long-term prospective comparative studies, and data to suggest poor long-term oncological outcomes for men with high-risk localised disease [809] prevents whole-gland HIFU from being considered as a reasonable alternative to the established curative treatment options [807]. In addition, the expected improvements in functional outcome failed to materialise with 12% of patient developing incontinence and 61% developing ED [810].

6.2.4.3 Focal therapy

During the past two decades, there has been a trend towards earlier diagnosis of PCa as a result of greater public and professional awareness leading to the adoption of both formal and informal screening strategies. The effect of this has been that men are identified at an earlier stage with smaller tumours, with a greater propensity for unifocal disease [811–813]. There is also greater awareness of the risks of the consequences of treatment leading to attempts to ablate only a region of the prostate containing the tumour thereby limiting toxicity by sparing the neurovascular bundles, sphincter, and urethra [814–816]. The question remains which if any of these small unifocal tumours need treatment.

A SR included data from 5,827 patients across 72 studies and covered different energy sources including HIFU, cryotherapy, Photodynamic Therapy (PDT), laser interstitial thermotherapy, focal BT, irreversible electroporation (IRE) and radiofrequency ablation (RFA) [817]. The review favours HIFU and PDT for their higher quality data, over 95% of pad-free incontinence and 85–90% of patients without clinically significant cancer in short-term analysis. This has to be critically analysed, because 45% of all patients with a focal approach included in this SR had an ISUP Grade GG 1 cancer. The overall quality of the evidence was low, due to the majority of studies being single-centre, non-comparative and retrospective in design, heterogeneity of definitions and approaches, follow-up strategies, outcomes, and duration of follow-up. Although the review finds high quality evidence that focal therapy has favourable functional outcomes and minimises AEs, definitive evidence of oncological benefit remains unavailable.

A more stringent SR including only prospective studies and per protocol post-treatment biopsies found that after 1 year 8.8% of patients had an infield failure with \geq ISUP GG 2 cancers and 13.0% had \geq ISUP GG 2 cancers anywhere in the prostate [818]. This work did not include any definition of clinical relevant cancer and included 35% of patients with ISUP GG 1 at initial diagnosis. Focal ablation showed only 9% reduction in sexual function scores, compared to 43% for whole gland ablation, at one year.

At this time, the largest analysis on oncologic outcomes following focal HIFU includes 1,379 men with a median follow-up of 32 months (65% of patients were D'Amico intermediate risk and 28% high risk) [819]. In this study, one repeated focal HIFU session was allowed and performed in 18% of all patients. Parametric MRI was performed if consecutive PSA rises were identified and biopsies were offered if the mpMRI was suspicious. Eighty percent of patients had at least one follow-up mpMRI and 44% had a follow-up biopsy. The primary outcome was failure-free survival (FFS) which was defined as evidence of cancer requiring whole-gland salvage treatment. At 7 years the FFS for intermediate- and high-risk cancers was 68% and 65%, respectively [819].

At present, there is no well-defined pathway for focal therapy or follow-up and the field is still developing. The optimal energy source for tumours at different locations, the need for double treatments during initial therapy, the use of MRI or PSA for follow-up are still a matter of research. The guideline panel acknowledges the challenges for interventional RCTs [820–822]. The interim analysis and meeting reports demonstrate slow recruitment, patients declining consent and rejecting their treatment allocation into the RP group (approx. 25%). In an attempt to overcome this propensity-matched analysis using prospective multi-centre databases have been performed for comparison of focal therapy vs. radical therapy [823, 824]. Such analyses are always susceptible to unmeasured selection biases in who was selected for each treatment.

Oncological follow-up data up to eight years can be used to counsel patients in treatment decisions [823, 824]. Patients managed by focal therapy had a HIFU or cryotherapy, with one retreatment, if needed. Of these 17.1% of patients in the focal arm received a retreatment. The primary outcome was FFS defined as “need for local or systemic salvage treatment or metastasis”. Both groups included 246 patients with an average PSA of 7.9 ng/mL and 60% ISUP GG 2/3 cancers. The cancer core length was 5–6 mm with 45% having bilateral cancer. The authors report similar cancer control 8 years after therapy, with FFS and BCR of 83% and 23.9% for focal therapy vs. 79% and 24.8% for RP, respectively. Similar results were demonstrated in a cohort-based analysis with a follow-up six years [824]. The use of different definitions for oncological failure in the two arms is another limitation of these studies. While any recurrence after RP was seen as failure, a second HIFU was permitted in the focal group. The current data from the HIFU Evaluation and Assessment of Treatment (HEAT) registry indicates that a repeat-HIFU does not significantly decrease urinary or erectile function [825]. However, this change of failure definition will have to be re-evaluated. It is important to note, that these results were achieved in centres with a dedicated focal program where all patients had a mpMRI with targeted and systematic biopsies or full template mapping biopsies. Therefore, it seems necessary to perform systematic biopsies in patients, who are candidates for focal therapy.

The impact of salvage therapies after focal therapy was investigated in small series in specialized centres [826, 827]. If a salvage RP is necessary after focal therapy, the reported functional and oncological outcomes are comparable to treatment-naïve patients [828, 829]. In a recent SR including 482 patients from twelve studies, the authors conclude that, when compared to primary surgery, the salvage radical prostatectomy after focal therapy has a higher PSM rate of 27% and a slightly worse incontinence rate. Although the early complication rate was also higher, most of them could be managed conservatively [830].

One comparative RCT was conducted in a very-low risk population, for which there is currently a strong movement away from any form of active treatment. This study was comparing padeliporfin-based vascular targeted PDT vs. AS and found at a median follow-up of 24 months that less patients progressed in the PDT arm compared with the AS arm (adjusted HR: 0.34, 95% CI: 0.24–0.46), and needed less radical therapy (6% vs. 29%, $p < 0.0001$). Updated results were published in 2018 showing that these benefits were maintained after four years [831]. Nevertheless, limitations of the study include an unusually high observed rate of disease progression in the AS arm (58% in two years) and more patients in the AS arm chose to undergo radical therapy without a clinical indication which may have introduced confounding bias. Finally, the AS arm did not undergo any confirmatory biopsy or any MRI scanning, which is not representative of contemporary practice. A matched-pair analysis comparing focal cryotherapy to AS with 76% ISUP GG 1 cancers failed to demonstrate any significant advantages for MFS and OS [832].

The available evidence indicates that focal therapy is associated with less AEs than whole gland or radical treatments. Many of the patients included in these trials would currently be considered to have been over treated. Robust prospective trials reporting standardised fifteen-year oncological outcomes [833] are needed in patients with clinically significant cancers before unrestricted recommendations in support of focal therapy for routine clinical practice can be made [804, 833, 834]. Currently, focal therapy using HIFU or cryotherapy should be performed within the context of a prospective registry.

All other ablative modalities and treatment strategies should only be offered in well-designed prospective trial setting. In order to allow quality analysis of the collected data, the prospective registry should adhere to the EMA recommendations (Guideline on registry-based studies EMA/426390/2021), which emphasises the need for clear follow-up timelines and timely recording, completeness of core data of consecutive patients enrolled, an analysis plan in defined intervals and a data quality management.

6.3 Treatment by disease stages

6.3.1 Management of low-risk disease

6.3.1.1 Watchful waiting

For patients with a life expectancy of < 10 years (based on co-morbidities and age), where curative treatment would not be an option in the case of progression after AS, WW is standard of care.

6.3.1.2 Active surveillance

Active surveillance should be considered standard of care for all patients with a life expectancy > 10 years (based on co-morbidities and age) and where curative treatment would be considered in the case of disease progression.

6.3.1.2.1 Androgen deprivation monotherapy

The Early Prostate Cancer (EPC) Trial Programme found that in patients with localised disease, ADT monotherapy did not improve PFS or OS in any of the subgroups, compared with placebo [835]. Instead, there was a statistically insignificant numerical trend towards worse OS with ADT in the WW sub-group (HR: 1.16, 95% CI: 0.99–1.37; $p = 0.07$). Although the trial did not directly address men with low-risk disease, it offered some evidence suggesting that otherwise asymptomatic men with localised disease should not receive ADT monotherapy.

6.3.1.3 Other therapeutic options

Other treatments such as whole-gland therapy (e.g. RP or RT) or focal ablative therapy remain highly likely to be overtreatment in the setting of low-risk disease and should not be used outside a trial setting.

6.3.1.4 Recommendations for the management of low-risk disease

Recommendations	Strength rating
Manage patients with a life expectancy < 10 years by watchful waiting.	Strong
Manage patients with a life expectancy > 10 years and low-risk disease by active surveillance.	Strong

6.3.2 Management of Intermediate-risk disease

6.3.2.1 Watchful waiting

For patients with a life expectancy of < 10 years (based on co-morbidities and age, where curative treatment is not a direct option or would not be an option in the case of progression after AS, WW is standard of care.

6.3.2.2 Active Surveillance

Although men with less favourable disease characteristics have worse outcomes after any treatment, the question is whether a delay in curative treatment due to initial AS, leads to additionally unfavourable outcomes. Intuitively, the higher risk disease, the higher risk of adverse outcomes due to an initial delay. Inclusion is based on favourable disease characteristics as discussed in section 6.2.1.2.2.

6.3.2.3 Radical prostatectomy

Patients with intermediate-risk PCa should be informed about the results of two RCTs (SPCG-4 and PIVOT) comparing RRP vs. WW in localised PCa. In the SPCG-4 study, death from any cause (RR: 0.71, 95% CI: 0.53–0.95), death from PCa (RR: 0.38, 95% CI: 0.23–0.62) and distant metastases (RR: 0.49, 95% CI: 0.32–0.74) were significantly reduced in intermediate-risk PCa at 18 years. After 30 years follow-up overall (not risk-stratified), RP reduced death from any cause (RR: 0.74, 95% CI: 0.64–0.87), death from PCa (RR: 0.52, 95% CI: 0.40–0.67) for a mean of 2.2 life-years (95% CI: 1.4–2.9) gained. In the PIVOT trial, according to a pre-planned subgroup analysis among men with intermediate-risk tumours, RP significantly reduced all-cause mortality (HR: 0.69, 95% CI: 0.49–0.98), but not death from PCa (0.50, 95% CI: 0.21–1.21) at ten years [836]. In the ProtecT trial, 24% of the population were intermediate risk (at baseline) and no significant difference in prostate cancer deaths was seen for RP versus active monitoring (with delayed active treatment, HR 0.68 (0.11–4.05). A meta-analysis based on the findings of SPCG-4, PIVOT and ProtecT demonstrated a benefit from RP over observation with a significantly decreased risk of death of 9% and of disease progression of 43% [837]. However, no stratification by disease stages was performed. A large study found 2.9% of LN invasion in a contemporary cohort of 6,883 patients undergoing RP and LND for intermediate risk PCa [838].

6.3.2.4 Radiation therapy

6.3.2.4.1 Recommended IMRT/VMAT

Ultra-hypofractionated IMRT/IGRT or SBRT, using either 36.25 Gy (40 Gy to prostate) in 5 fx or 42.7 Gy in 7 fx can be offered to patients with NCCN favourable intermediate and good urinary function. Additional ADT is not required in GG2 disease [739]. Patients undergoing conventional or moderate hypofractionation and suitable for ADT can be treated with short-term ADT (four to six months) [839–841]. The RTOG 0815 RCT demonstrated improved BFSR, metastasis free and prostate CSS with the addition of six months ADT to dose escalated RT [756]. For adjuvant RT of the pelvic lymphatics (45–50 Gy) for NCCN unfavourable intermediate risk (cNO) see section 6.2.3.2.1. For patients unsuitable (e.g., due to co-morbidities) or unwilling to accept ADT (e.g., to preserve their sexual health) the recommended treatment is IMRT/VMAT (76–78 Gy or equivalent moderate HFX) or a combination of IMRT/VMAT and BT as described below. A secondary analysis of the PCS III trial has suggested that patients with NCCN favourable intermediate-risk disease (see Section 4.4) can safely omit ADT if their RT dose is 76 Gy, but this is based on an unplanned subgroup analysis and only 138 patients had

favourable intermediate-risk disease. An individual discussion between the physician and the patient of the possible benefits and harms of omitting ADT in this group is essential [778].

6.3.2.4.2 Brachytherapy

Systematic review recommends LDR BT monotherapy can be offered to patients with NCCN favourable intermediate-risk disease and good urinary function (see section 4.4) [842]. Fractionated HDR BT as monotherapy can be offered to selected patients with intermediate-risk PCa although they should be informed that results are only available from small series in very experienced centres. Five-year PSA control rates over 90% are reported, with late grade 3+ GU toxicity rates < 5% and no, or very minimal, grade 3+ GI toxicity rates [796]. There are no direct data to inform on the use of ADT in this setting. Trimodality therapy with IMRT plus BT boost and short-term ADT can be considered for NCCN unfavourable intermediate-risk PCa (see section 4.4) but patients should be made aware that the potential improvements in biochemical control are accompanied with an increased risk of long-term urinary problems [785, 787, 792].

6.3.2.5 Other therapeutic options

6.3.2.5.1 Focal therapy

A prospective study on focal therapy using HIFU in patients with localised intermediate-risk disease was published but the data was derived from an uncontrolled single-arm case series [834]. There is a paucity of high-certainty data for any form of focal ablative therapy in the setting of intermediate-risk disease. Consequently, focal treatment cannot be considered as standard therapy for intermediate-risk patients and, if offered, it should only be in the setting of clinical trials or prospective registries [804].

6.3.2.5.2 Androgen deprivation therapy monotherapy

Data regarding the use of ADT monotherapy for intermediate-risk disease have been inferred indirectly from the EORTC 30891 trial, which was a RCT comparing deferred ADT vs. immediate ADT in 985 patients with T0–4 N0–2 M0 disease [843]. The trial showed a small, but statistically significant, difference in OS in favour of immediate ADT monotherapy but there was no significant difference in CSS, predominantly because the risk of cancer-specific mortality was low in patients with PSA < 8 ng/mL. Consequently, the use of ADT monotherapy for this group of patients is not considered as standard, even if they are not eligible for radical treatment.

6.3.2.6 Recommendations for the management of intermediate-risk disease*

Recommendations	Strength rating
Expectant management	
Offer watchful waiting in asymptomatic patients with life expectancy < 10 years (based on comorbidities and age).	Strong
Offer active surveillance (AS) to selected patients with ISUP grade group 2 disease e.g., < 10% pattern 4, PSA < 10 ng/mL, ≤ cT2a, low disease extent on imaging and low extent of tumour in biopsies (≤ 3 positive cores with Gleason score 3+4 and ≤ 50% cancer involvement/core), or another single element of intermediate-risk disease with low disease extent on imaging and low biopsy extent, accepting the potential increased risk of metastatic progression.	Weak
Patients with ISUP grade group 3 disease should be excluded from AS protocols.	Strong
Re-classify patients with low-volume ISUP grade group 2 disease included in AS protocols, if repeat non-MRI-based systematic biopsies performed during monitoring reveal > 3 positive cores or maximum CI > 50%/core of ISUP grade group 2 disease.	Weak
Radical prostatectomy (RP)	
Offer RP to patients with a life expectancy of > 10 years.	Strong
Radical prostatectomy can be safely delayed for at least three months.	Weak
Offer nerve-sparing surgery to patients with a low risk of extra-capsular disease on that side.	Strong
Radiotherapeutic treatment	
Offer low-dose rate (LDR) brachytherapy to patients with good urinary function and NCCN favourable intermediate-risk disease.	Strong
Offer intensity-modulated radiotherapy (IMRT)/volumetric modulated arc therapy (VMAT) plus image-guided radiotherapy (IGRT), with a total dose of 76–78 Gy or moderate hypofractionation (60 Gy/20 fx in 4 weeks or 70 Gy/28 fx in 6 weeks), in combination with short-term androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) (four to six months).	Strong

Offer focal boosting to MRI-defined dominant intra-prostatic tumour when using conventionally fractionated IMRT/IGRT (1.8-2.0 Gy per fraction) ensuring that Organ at Risk constraints are not exceeded	Weak
Offer ultra-hypofractionated IMRT/IGRT or SBRT, using either 36.25 Gy (40 Gy to prostate) in 5 fx or 42.7 Gy in 7 fx delivered alternate days.	Weak
Offer LDR brachytherapy boost combined with IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT to patients with good urinary function and NCCN unfavourable intermediate-risk disease, in combination with short-term ADT (four to six months).	Weak
Offer high-dose rate (HDR) brachytherapy boost combined with IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT to patients with good urinary function and NCCN unfavourable intermediate-risk disease, in combination with short-term ADT (four to six months).	Weak
Other therapeutic options	
Only offer whole-gland ablative therapy (such as cryotherapy, high-intensity focused ultrasound, etc.) or focal ablative therapy within clinical trials or registries.	Strong
Do not offer ADT monotherapy to asymptomatic men not able to receive any local treatment.	Weak

**All recommendations are based on conventional imaging with isotope bone scan and CT/MR abdomen/pelvis.*

6.3.3 Management of high-risk localised disease

Patients with high-risk PCa are at an increased risk of PSA failure, need for secondary therapy, metastatic progression and death from PCa. Nevertheless, not all high-risk PCa patients have a uniformly poor prognosis after RP [844]. When managed with non-curative intent, high-risk PCa is associated with 10-year and 15-year PCSM rates of 28.8 and 35.5%, respectively [845]. There is no consensus regarding the optimal treatment of men with high-risk PCa.

Some evidence suggests that radical treatment for high-risk PCa can be delayed up to three months after the diagnosis without any oncological consequences [846, 847]. Systematic reviews suggest that there is a higher risk of biochemical recurrence and worse pathological outcomes when definitive treatment is given beyond a 6 to 9 months delay. However, there is no conclusive data regarding stronger endpoints (CSS or OS).

6.3.3.1 Radical prostatectomy

Provided that the tumour is not fixed to the pelvic wall or there is no invasion of the urethral sphincter, RP is a standard option in selected patients with a low tumour volume. Patients should be aware pre-operatively that surgery may be part of multi-modal treatment, with adjuvant or SRT or ADT. Neoadjuvant therapy using ADT is not indicated [848].

6.3.3.2 External beam radiation therapy

For high-risk localised PCa, a combined modality approach should be used consisting of IMRT/VMAT plus long-term ADT. The duration of ADT has to take into account PS, co-morbidities and the number of poor prognostic factors. It is important to recognise that in several studies EBRT plus short-term ADT did not improve OS in high-risk localised PCa and long-term ADT (at least two to three years) is currently recommended for these patients [748, 749, 757]. Moderate HFX is an option in high-risk patients with localised disease. The CHHIP study included 12% high-risk patients (n = 386) but limited entry to those with a PSA < 30 ng/mL and a Roach formula risk of SV involvement < 30% [728]. Patients were ineligible if they had both T3a tumours and ISUP grade group 4 or higher. The PCS-5 RCT used moderate HFX and elective nodal irradiation and efficacy was equivalent in both groups [734, 735].

6.3.3.2.1 Lymph node irradiation in cN0

There is no clear evidence for prophylactic irradiation of the pelvic LNs in intermediate- and high-risk disease. The long-term results of the NRG/RTOG 9413-trial which randomised intermediate-risk and high-risk localised PCa patients (1,322 cN0 patients were enrolled), showed that neoadjuvant HT plus whole pelvic RT improved PFS only compared with neoadjuvant ADT plus prostate RT and whole pelvic RT plus adjuvant ADT [849]. However, at the increased risk of \geq grade 3 GI-toxicity.

A well-conducted single-centre RCT randomised 224 patients comparing prostate-only RT (PORT) vs. whole pelvic RT (WPRT) in localised high-risk- and locally-advanced tumours (cN0) with a risk of > 20% of positive nodes (Roach formula). With a median follow-up of 68 months there was a significant improvement of distant MFS (95.9% vs. 89.2%, HR: 0.35, p = 0.01) and DFS (89.5% vs. 77.2%, p = 0.02). However, there was a significant higher rate of late GU \geq 2 effects (17.7% vs. 7.5%, p = 0.02), the trial was relatively small in size with additional limitations and these findings are therefore insufficient to define a change in practice [850, 851]. The benefits of pelvic nodal irradiation using IMRT/VMAT merit further investigation in large scale RCTs.

6.3.3.2.2 Brachytherapy boost

In men with NCCN unfavourable intermediate- or high-risk PCa, BT boost with supplemental EBRT and HT may be considered. See sections 6.2.3.4.1 and 6.2.3.4.2 for details on RCTs comparing EBRT alone and EBRT with LDR or HDR boost, respectively.

6.3.3.3 Recommendations for the management of high-risk localised disease*

Recommendations	Strength rating
Expectant management	
Offer watchful waiting to asymptomatic patients with life expectancy < 10 years.	Strong
Radical prostatectomy (RP)	
Offer RP to selected patients as part of potential multi-modal therapy.	Strong
Extended pelvic lymph node dissection (PLND)	
In patients undergoing a lymph node dissection you should perform an extended PLND.	Strong
Do not perform a frozen section of nodes during RP to decide whether to proceed with, or abandon, the procedure.	Strong
Radiotherapeutic treatment	
Offer intensity-modulated radiotherapy (IMRT)/volumetric modulated arc therapy (VMAT) plus image-guided radiotherapy (IGRT), with a total dose of 76–78 Gy or moderate hypofractionation (60 Gy/20 fx in 4 weeks or 70 Gy/28 fx in 6 weeks), in combination with long-term androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) (two to three years).	Strong
Offer focal boosting to MRI-defined dominant intra-prostatic tumour when using normo-fractionated IMRT/IGRT (1.8-2.0 Gy per fraction) ensuring that Organ at Risk constraints are not exceeded.	Weak
Offer patients with good urinary function IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT with brachytherapy boost (either high-dose rate or low-dose rate), in combination with long-term ADT (two to three years).	Weak
Therapeutic options outside surgery or radiotherapy	
Do not offer either whole gland or focal therapy.	Strong
Only offer ADT monotherapy to those patients unwilling or unable to receive any form of local treatment if they have a prostate-specific antigen (PSA)-doubling time < 12 months, and either a PSA > 50 ng/mL or a poorly-differentiated tumour.	Strong

*All recommendations are based on conventional imaging with isotope bone scan and CT/MR abdomen/pelvis.

6.3.4 Treatment of locally-advanced PCa

In the absence of high-level evidence, a SR could not define the most optimal treatment option [852]. Randomised controlled trials are only available for EBRT. A local treatment combined with a systemic treatment provides the best outcome, provided the patient is fit enough to receive both. The initial results of the SCPG-15 trials suggested that randomisation between surgery and EBRT is feasible, but oncologic outcomes are awaited [853].

6.3.4.1 Radical prostatectomy

Surgery for locally-advanced disease as part of a multi-modal therapy has been reported [845, 854, 855]. However, the comparative oncological effectiveness of RP as part of a multi-modal treatment strategy vs. upfront EBRT with ADT for locally-advanced PCa remains unknown. A prospective phase III RCT (SPCG-15) comparing RP (with or without adjuvant or salvage EBRT) against primary EBRT and ADT among patients with locally-advanced (T3) disease is currently recruiting [856]. Data from retrospective case series demonstrated over 60% CSS at 15 years and over 75% OS at ten years [828, 845, 854, 855, 857-859]. For cT3b–T4 disease, PCA cohort studies showed 10-year CSS of over 87% and OS of 65% [829, 860]. The indication for RP in all previously described stages assumes the absence of clinically detectable nodal involvement (cN0), based on conventional imaging. In case of suspected positive LNs during RP (initially considered cN0) the procedure should not be abandoned since RP may have a survival benefit in these patients. Intra-operative frozen section analysis is not justified in this case [462].

6.3.4.2 Treatment of cN1 M0 PCa

Lymph-node metastasized PCa is an entity where options for local therapy and systemic therapies overlap. Approximately 5% to 10% of newly diagnosed PCa patients have synchronous suspected pelvic nodal metastases on conventional imaging (CT/bone scan) without bone or visceral metastases (cN1 M0 stage).

6.3.4.2.1 Consideration of molecular imaging

Meta-analyses have shown that molecular imaging, such as PSMA-PET/CT, prior to primary treatment in advanced PCa detected disease outside the prostate in 32% of cases despite prior negative conventional imaging using bone scan and pelvic CT/MRI [453]. A RCT assessing PSMA-PET/CT as staging tool in high-risk PCa confirmed these findings and showed a 32% increase in accuracy compared with conventional imaging for the detection of pelvic nodal metastases [488]. Notably, more sensitive imaging also caused a stage shift with more cases classified as N1 on “molecular imaging” (miN1), but with, on average, lower nodal disease burden compared to cases classified as cN1.

The definition of miN1 is a subject of ongoing discussion given multiple guidelines exist as detection can be influenced by size of the lymph nodes and PSMA expression [104, 861, 862]. For patients with high or equivocal PSMA expression but normal size (< 10 mm), there is a lack of knowledge of the best treatment option and prospective data are encouraged [863].

6.3.4.2.2 Local treatment of cN1 M0 PCa

The management of cN1M0 PCa is historically based on long-term ADT combined with a local treatment with radiotherapy more commonly used than RP/pelvic nodal dissection. There is no randomised evidence available and the potential benefit of adding local treatment to ADT has been assessed in a non-randomised post-hoc analysis of STAMPEDE and retrospective studies summarised by Yaow *et al.* [864]. Pooled meta-analysis was performed for local treatment versus no local treatment (four studies, n = 4,597, local treatment n = 2,646) and showed improved estimated OS at all time points to ten years (OR: 1.49-1.81). The majority of patients underwent RT as local therapy. Assessment of RT vs. no local therapy (four studies, n=3,768) showed similar estimates for improvements in OS. Not included in this pooled analysis was STAMPEDE control arm data, that showed improvements in failure-free survival (adjusted HR: 0.48, 95% CI: 0.29-0.79) without severe toxicity [865] at median follow-up of seventeen months. Comparisons between local treatment modalities were limited by inclusion of retrospective studies, which fail to describe clearly how cN1 was defined.

Local treatment of cN1M0 disease in the era of taxane chemotherapy and ARPIs is under studied. Extended follow-up of STAMPEDE, reported as exploratory sub-analyses of patients who received docetaxel or control according to receipt of RT after median follow-up of 81.2 months, maintained failure-free survival benefit (HR: 0.68) in N+ patients but no prostate cancer specific survival (HR: 0.81) or OS (HR: 0.77) benefit was demonstrated [866]. Greatest benefits from RT were seen in the control (without docetaxel) group, as no significant benefits of RT receipt were seen in any category for the docetaxel group. Two RCTs from the STAMPEDE platform protocol reported a pre-planned meta-analysis of men with *de novo* high-risk/locally-advanced M0 disease, or relapse after primary curative therapy with high-risk features. Thirty-nine percent of patients (n=774) were N1 on conventional imaging [867]. Radiotherapy in addition to long-term ADT was administered in at least 71% of N1 patients. Data on survival according to whether RT was planned in N1 patients was not presented.

6.3.4.2.3 Systemic treatment of cN1 M0 PCa

The intensification of systemic treatment from initial ADT to other agents has been assessed within data from the STAMPEDE multi-arm RCT with a pre-planned meta-analysis in M0 patients. In cN1 M0 patients (39% of the cohort), improved metastasis free (HR: 0.49, 95% CI: 0.38-0.64) and overall (HR: 0.53, 95% CI: 0.39-0.70) survival was observed with intensification (abiraterone and/or enzalutamide) above standard of care (ADT +/- prostate radiotherapy in 85% of the whole cohort) in cN1M0 patients [867].

Considering intensification with docetaxel, exploratory sub-analyses of STAMPEDE non-metastatic (cN0/N1M0) patients who received docetaxel or control showed failure-free survival benefit (HR: 0.70, 95% CI: 0.56-0.88) but no metastatic progression-free (HR: 0.89) or OS (HR: 0.88) benefit [866]. Similar trends were observed in the N0 and N+ sub-groups. Radiotherapy was delivered to 77% of the cohort (see section 6.3.4.2). The AFU-GETUG 12 trial compared the impact of docetaxel plus estramustine in addition to ADT and 29% of included high-risk non-metastatic PCa patients had a nodal involvement (pN1) at randomisation [868]. Relapse-free survival rates were higher for cN1 patients receiving docetaxel plus estramustine but did not achieve statistical significance (HR: 0.66; 95% CI: 0.43–1.01). A meta-analysis of docetaxel trials in N0/N1-M0 patients concluded to an 8% four-year failure-free survival advantage for docetaxel compared with ADT alone without OS benefit (HR: 0.87, 95% CI: 0.69-1.09) [869].

Given the MFS and OS benefits observed in the overall population (see section 6.3.4.2), additional abiraterone (for 2 years) above standard of care (combined ADT for 3 years with prostate +/- WPRT) should be a SOC in cN1 patients.

Table 6.3.1: Selected studies assessing local treatment in (any cT) cN1 M0 prostate cancer patients

Study	n	Design	Study period/ follow-up	Treatment arms	Effect on survival
ADT only					
Bryant, <i>et al.</i> 2018 [870]	648	Retrospective (National Veterans Affairs)	2000-2015 61 mo.	ADT ± EBRT	Significant benefit for combined treatment only if PSA levels less than the median (26 ng/mL) All-cause mortality HR: 0.50 CSS, HR: 0.38
Sarkar, <i>et al.</i> 2019 [871]	741	Retrospective (National Veterans Affairs)	2000-2015 51 mo.	ADT ± local treatment (surgery or RT)	Significant benefit for RP All-cause mortality HR 0.36 CSS, HR: 0.32 No statistical difference for RP vs. RT (p ≥ 0.1) All-cause mortality HR: 0.47 CSS, HR: 0.88
Lin, <i>et al.</i> 2015 [872]	983 before propensity score matching	Retrospective (NCDB)	2004-2006 48 mo.	ADT ± EBRT	Significant benefit for combined treatment 5-yr. OS: 73% vs. 52% HR: 0.5
Tward, <i>et al.</i> 2013 [873]	1,100	Retrospective (SEER)	1988-2006 64 mo.	EBRT (n = 397) vs. no EBRT (n=703) No information on ADT)	Significant benefit for EBRT 5-yr. CSS: 78% vs. 71% HR: 0.66 5-yr. OS: 68% vs. 56%, HR: 0.70
Rusthoven, <i>et al.</i> 2014 [874]	796	Retrospective (SEER)	1995-2005 61 mo.	EBRT vs. no EBRT (no information on ADT)	Significant benefit for EBRT 10-yr. OS: 45% vs. 29% HR: 0.58
Seisen, <i>et al.</i> 2018 [875]	1,987	Retrospective (NCDB)	2003-2011 50 mo.	ADT ± local treatment (surgery or RT)	Significant benefit for combined treatment 5-yr. OS: 78.8% vs. 49.2% HR: 0.31 No difference between RP and RT
Chierigo, <i>et al.</i> 2022 [876]	4,685	Retrospective (SEER)	2004–2016	RP or RT (unknown ADT status)	Propensity score matching 5-yr OS: 84.6% (RP) vs. 75% (RT), HR 0.62, p < 0.001 5-yr CSS: 90.7% (RP) vs. 83% (RT), HR 0.62, p < 0.001 5-yr other cause mortality, 6.1% RP vs. 8.0% RT, HR 0.71, p = 0.04
James, <i>et al.</i> 2016 [865]	177	Unplanned subgroup analysis RCT	2005-2014 17 mo.	ADT ± EBRT (EBRT encouraged)	Significant benefit for combined treatment 5-yr. OS: 93% vs. 71% 2-yr. FFS: 81% vs. 53% FFS, HR: 0.48

Elumalai, <i>et al.</i> 2023 [877]	337	Retrospective 4 centres UK	2022-2019	ADT +/- EBRT	Significant benefit for combined treatment 5-yr.OS: 87% vs. 56% HR: 0.27 5-yr. BPFS: 74.1% vs. 34.2% HR: 0.33
Other systemic therapies					
James, <i>et al.</i> 2022 [866]	258 (N1 patients)	Planned subgroup analysis RCT	2005-2018 81.2 mo	Standard of care (ADT +/- EBRT) +/- docetaxel (EBRT planned for 55% SOC, 40% of docetaxel)	5-year estimated Metastatic PFS (SOC + docetaxel vs SOC, HR: 0.79) OS (RT 78% vs no RT 71%, HR: 0.77)* CSS (RT 84% vs no RT 79%, HR: 0.81)* FFS (RT 51% vs no RT 36%, HR: 0.68)* *No stratification for docetaxel use
Attard, <i>et al.</i> 2022 [867]	774 (N1)	Planned subgroup analysis RCT	2011-2016 72 mo	Standard of care (ADT +/- EBRT) +/- Abiraterone with or without enzalutamide (EBRT planned for 71% of N1 patients)	MFS (SOC + Abiraterone with or without enzalutamide vs SOC alone, HR: 0.49, 95% CI: 0.38-0.64) OS (SOC + Abiraterone with or without enzalutamide vs SOC alone, HR: 0.53, 95% CI: 0.39-0.70)

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; CSS = cancer-specific survival; EBRT = external beam radiotherapy; FFS = failure-free survival; HR = hazard ratio; mo = months; n = number of patients; OS = overall survival; RP = radical prostatectomy; RT = radiotherapy; yr = year.

6.3.4.3 Options other than surgery or radiotherapy for primary treatment

6.3.4.3.1 Investigational therapies

Currently cryotherapy, HIFU or focal therapies have no place in the management of locally-advanced PCa.

6.3.4.3.2 Androgen deprivation therapy monotherapy

The deferred use of ADT as single treatment modality has been answered by the EORTC 30891 trial [843]. Nine hundred and eighty-five patients with T0–4 N0–2 M0 PCa received ADT alone, either immediately or after symptomatic progression or occurrence of serious complications. After a median follow-up of 12.8 years, the OS favoured immediate treatment (HR: 1.21, 95% CI: 1.05–1.39). Surprisingly, no different disease-free or symptom-free survival was observed, raising the question of survival benefit. In locally-advanced T3–T4 M0 HSPC unsuitable for surgery or RT, immediate ADT may only benefit patients with a PSA > 50 ng/mL and a PSA-DT < twelve months or those that are symptomatic [843, 878]. The median time to start deferred treatment was seven years. In the deferred treatment arm 25.6% of patients died without needing treatment.

6.3.4.4 Recommendation for management of locally-advanced disease*

Recommendations	Strength rating
Radical prostatectomy (RP)	
Offer RP to patients with cN0 disease as part of multi-modal therapy.	Weak
Extended pelvic lymph node dissection (PLND)	
In patients undergoing a lymph node dissection you should perform an extended PLND.	Strong
Radiotherapeutic treatments	
Offer patients with cN0 disease intensity-modulated radiation therapy (IMRT)/volumetric modulated arc therapy (VMAT) plus image-guide radiation therapy in combination with long-term androgen deprivation therapy (ADT).	Strong

Offer patients with cN0 disease and good urinary function, IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT with brachytherapy boost (either high-dose or low-dose rate), in combination with long-term ADT.	Weak
Offer long-term ADT for at least two years.	Strong
Offer IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT to the prostate in combination with long-term ADT and two years of abiraterone to cN0M0 patients with ≥ two high-risk factors (cT3-4, Gleason ≥ 8 or PSA ≥ 40 ng/mL).	Strong
Offer IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT to the prostate plus pelvis in combination with long-term ADT and two years of abiraterone to cN1M0 patients.	Strong
Other therapeutic options	
Do not offer whole gland treatment or focal treatment.	Strong

*All recommendations are based on conventional imaging with isotope bone scan and CT/MR abdomen/pelvis.

6.3.5 Adjuvant treatment after radical prostatectomy

6.3.5.1 Introduction

Adjuvant treatment is by definition additional to the primary or initial therapy with the aim of decreasing the risk of relapse, despite the apparent full control following surgery. A post-operative detectable PSA is an indication of persistent prostate cells (see section 6.3.6). All information listed below refers to patients with a postoperative undetectable PSA.

6.3.5.2 Risk factors for relapse

Patients with ISUP grade group > 2 in combination with EPE (pT3a) and particularly those with SV invasion (pT3b) and/or positive surgical margins are at high risk of progression, which can be as high as 50% after five years [879]. Irrespective of the pT stage, the number of removed nodes [880-887], tumour volume within the LNs and capsular perforation of the nodal metastases are predictors of early recurrence after RP for pN1 disease [888]. A LN density (defined as 'the percentage of positive LNs in relation to the total number of analysed/removed LNs') of over 20% was found to be associated with poor prognosis [889]. The number of involved nodes seems to be a major factor for predicting relapse [882, 883, 890]; the threshold considered is less than 3 positive nodes from an ePLND [458, 882, 890]. However, prospective data are needed before defining a definitive threshold value.

6.3.5.2.1 Biomarker-based risk stratification after radical prostatectomy

Biomarker-based risk stratification after radical prostatectomy

The Decipher[®] gene signature consists of a 22-gene panel representing multiple biological pathways and was developed to predict systemic progression after definitive treatment. A meta-analysis of five studies analysed the performance of the Decipher[®] Genomic Classifier (GC) test on men post-RP. The authors showed in multivariable analysis that Decipher[®] GC remained a statistically significant predictor of metastasis (HR: 1.30, 95% CI: 1.14–1.47, p < 0.001) per 0.1 unit increase in score and concluded that it can independently improve prognostication of patients post-RP within nearly all clinicopathologic, demographic, and treatment subgroups [891]. A SR of the evidence for the Decipher[®] GC has confirmed the clinical utility of this test in post-RP decision-making [892]. Further studies are needed to establish how to best incorporate Decipher[®] GC in clinical decision-making.

6.3.5.3 Immediate (adjuvant) post-operative external irradiation after RP (cN0 or pN0)

Four prospective RCTs have assessed the role of immediate post-operative RT (adjuvant RT [ART]) (undetectable PSA mostly defined as PSA < 0.1 ng/mL), demonstrating an advantage (endpoint, development of BCR) in high-risk patients (e.g., pT2 with positive surgical margins and ISUP grade group 3–5 or pT3/4 with- or without positive surgical margins and ISUP grade group 3–5) post-RP (Table 6.3.2). In the ARO 96-02 trial, 80% of the pT3/R1/GS 8–10 patients randomised to observation developed BCR within ten years [893]. It must be emphasised that PSA was undetectable at inclusion only in the ARO 96-02 trial which presents a major limitation interpreting these findings as patients with a detectable PSA would now be considered for salvage therapy rather than ART [893].

6.3.5.4 Comparison of adjuvant and salvage radiotherapy

Two retrospective matched studies (510 and 149 patients receiving ART) failed to show an advantage for MFS [894, 895]. However, both studies were underpowered for high-risk patients (pT3b/R1/ISUP grade group 4–5 PCa). In contrast to these studies, a propensity score-matched retrospective analysis of two cohorts of 366 pT3 and/or R1 patients found that compared to SRT at a PSA between 0.1 and 0.5 ng/mL, ART given at an undetectable PSA (< 0.1 ng/mL) improved all three endpoints; BCR, MFS, and OS [896].

Both approaches (ART and early SRT) together with the efficacy of adjuvant ADT are compared in three prospective RCTs: the Medical Research Council (MRC) Radiotherapy and Androgen Deprivation In Combination After Local Surgery (RADICALS) trial [897], the Trans-Tasman Oncology Group (TROG) Radiotherapy Adjuvant Versus Early Salvage (RAVES) trial [898], and the Groupe d'Etude des Tumeurs Uro- Genitales (GETUG-AFU 17) trial [899]. In addition, a pre-planned meta-analysis of all three trials has been published (Table 6.3.3) [900].

Two trials closed early after randomising 333/470 patients (RAVES) and 424/718 (GETUG-AFU-17) patients. RADICALS-RT included 1,396 patients, ninety-three percent (648/697) in the ART – Group. At the time of the ten year analysis 39% (270/699) of the Savage-RT-Policy Group started SRT with a median pre-SRT PSA-level of 0.2 ng/ml. With the option of subsequent inclusion in RADICALS-HT; 154/649 (24%) of patients starting in the adjuvant RT group also received neoadjuvant or adjuvant HT; 90 patients for six months/45 for 2 years/19 patients outside RADICALS-HT. From the SRT group, 61/228 (27%) received neoadjuvant or adjuvant HT for six months (n = 33) and two years (n = 13). Fifteen of these patients were treated outside the trial [897]. All men in the GETUG-AFU-17 trial (n = 424) received six months of HT. All together, 684 out of 2,153 patients received additional ADT for at least six months across both trials [900]. Radiotherapy to the pelvic lymphatics was allowed in the GETUG-AFU and in the RADICALS-RT trials.

The primary endpoint for RAVES and GETUG-AFU 17 was biochemical PFS, and for RADICALS-RT MFS. So far only RADICALS-RT have reported the ten year primary endpoint data [901]. With a median follow up of 7.8 years the 10 year FFDM was 93% (ART) versus 90% (SRT) (HR 0.68, p=0.095) although based upon just 80 events in 1,396 patients. BPFs and OS also showed no significant difference (Table 6.3.3). With a median follow-up between 4.9 years and 6.25 years in the ARTISTIC-Metaanalysis there was no statistically significant difference for biochemical PFS for both treatments in all three trials (see Table 6.2.3). Additionally, there was a significant lower rate of grade ≥ 2 GU late side effects and grade 3–4 urethral strictures in favour of early SRT; which may also be caused by the low number of patients with PSA-progression and subsequent need for early SRT at the time of analysis (40% of patients) [900]. It should be noted, the side-effect profile may have been impacted with a larger proportion of ART patients receiving treatment with older 3D-treatment planning techniques as compared to SRT patients (GETUG-AFU 17: ART, 69% 3D vs. 46% SRT) and patients treated more recently were more likely to undergo IMRT techniques with a proven lower rate of late side effects [702]. However, on the basis of these three trials patients with 'low-risk factors' of biochemical progression after RP should be closely followed up with ultra-sensitive assays and SRT should be discussed if needed as soon as PSA starts to rise, which has to be confirmed by a second PSA measurement.

The proportion of patients with adverse pathology at RP (ISUP GG 4–5 and pT3 with or without positive margins) in all three trials was low (between 10–20%) and therefore even the meta-analysis may be underpowered to show an outcome in favour of SRT [900]. The subset analysis of this primary endpoint based on the prerandomization strata (i.e. the high risk features Gleason 8-10 vs. < 7 and pT3b-4 vs. <=pT3a) is still awaited to inform if these high risk groups benefit from ART compared with SRT. However, a retrospective multi-centre study comparing ART and SRT in 26,118 patients of whom 2,424 had high-risk features (pN1 or ISUP GG 4–5 and pT3/4-tumours) after RP [902] does support ART. With a median follow-up of 8.2 years and after excluding men with persistent PSA after RP, ART when compared with early SRT showed a significantly lower acute mortality risk (p = 0.02, HR: 0.33). Therefore, ART remains a recommended treatment option in highly selected patients with adverse pathology ('high-risk patients') i.e. ISUP grade group 4–5 and pT3 with or without positive margins [903, 904].

In conclusion, the vast majority of patients with an undetectable PSA (<0.1 ng/ml) after RP do not need ART. However, in patients with high risk factors (pT3/4 and ISUP 4-5) ART to the prostatic bed should be given as they were underrepresented in RADICALS and in the metaanalysis too [897-900] on the one hand and the proven effect in RCT's on the other hand [893, 905, 906].

Table 6.3.2: Overview of all four randomised trials for adjuvant surgical bed radiation therapy after RP* (without ADT)

Study	n	Inclusion criteria	Randomisation	Definition of BCR PSA (ng/mL)	Median FU (mo)	Biochemical Progression-free survival	Overall survival
SWOG 8794 2009 [905]	431	pT3 cN0 ± involved SM	60-64 Gy vs. observation	> 0.4	152	10 yr.: 53% vs. 30% (p < 0.05)	10 yr.: 74% vs. 66% Median time: 15.2 vs. 13.3 yr., p = 0.023
EORTC 22911 2012 [906]	1,005	pT3 ± involved SM pN0 pT2 involved SM pN0	60 Gy vs. observation	> 0.2	127	10 yr.: 60.6% vs. 41% (p < 0.001)	81% vs. 77% n.s.
ARO 96-02 2014 [893]	388	pT3 (± involved SM) pN0 PSA post-RP undetectable	60 Gy vs. observation	> 0.05 + confirmation	112	10 yr.: 56% vs. 35% (p = 0.0001)	10 yr.: 82% vs. 86% n.s.
FinnProstate Group 2019 [907]	250	pT2,R1/ pT3a	66.6 Gy vs. observation (+ SRT)	> 0.4 (in 2 successive measurements)	112 vs. 103 (patients alive)	10 yr.: 82% vs. 61% p < 0.001	10 yr.: 92% vs. 87% n.s.

*See Section 6.3.5.1 for delayed (salvage) post-radical prostatectomy external irradiation.

BCR = biochemical recurrence; FU = follow-up; mo = months; n = number of patients; n.s. = not significant; OS = overall survival; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; RP = radical prostatectomy; SM = surgical margin; SRT = salvage radiotherapy.

Table 6.3.3: Overview of all three randomised trials and one meta-analysis for patients treated with adjuvant vs. early salvage RT after RP

Study	n	Inclusion criteria	Randomisation	Definition of BCR PSA (ng/mL)	Median FU (yr)	BPFS	OS or MFS	Side effects
RAVES TROG 08.03/ ANZUP 2020 [898]	333 target was 470 early closed	pT3a/pT3b any T - SM+ PSA post-RP: < 0.1 ng/mL	64 Gy ART PSA: < 0.1 ng/mL vs. 64 Gy early SRT at PSA > 0.2 ng/mL med. pre-SRT: n.r.	> 0.4 post RT	6.1	5 yr.: 86% vs. 87% (p > 0.05)	n.r.	LT grade ≥ GU: 70% vs. 54% (p = 0.002)
RADICALS-RT [897]	1,396	pT3a/ pT3b/pT4 PSA > 10 ng/mL pre-RP any T, SM+ Gleason 7-10 PSA post-RP: < 0.2 ng/mL	52.5 Gy (20 Fx) or 66 Gy (33 Fx) ART early SRT identical at PSA > 0.1 med.pre-SRT: 0.2 ng/mL	> 0.4 or 2 at any time	4.9	5 yr.: 85% vs. 88% (p = 0.56)	n.r.	Self-reported urinary incontinence 1 yr: 4.8 vs. 4 (p = 0.023) urethral stricture grade 3/4 2 yr: 6% vs. 4% (p = 0.02)

GETUG-AFU 17 2020 [899]	424 target was 718 early closed	pT3a/pT3b/ pT4a and SM + PSA post-RP: < 0.1 ng/mL	66 Gy (ART) vs. 66 Gy early SRT at PSA 0.1 both groups: 6 mo. LHRH-A med. pre-SRT 0.24	> 0.4	6.25	5 yr: 92% vs. 90% (p = 0.42)	n.r.	LT grade ≥ 2 GU 27% vs. 7% (p < 0.001) ED: 28% vs. 8% (p < 0.001)
ARTISTIC 2020 [900]	2,153	see above	see above	see above	4.5	5 yr.: 89% vs. 88% p = 0.7	n.r.	n.r.

ART = adjuvant radiotherapy; BCR = biochemical recurrence; BDFS = biochemical progression-free survival; ED = erectile dysfunction; FU = follow-up; Fx = fraction; GU = genito-urinary; LHRH = luteinising hormone-releasing hormone; LT = late toxicity; mo = months; med = median; MFS = metastasis-free survival; n.r. = not reported; OS = overall survival; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; RP = radical prostatectomy; RT = radiotherapy; SRT = salvage radiotherapy; + = positive; yr = year.

6.3.5.5 Adjuvant systemic therapy in N0 disease

The TAX3501 trial comparing the role of leuprolide (18 months) with and without docetaxel (6 cycles) ended prematurely due to poor accrual. A phase III RCT comparing adjuvant docetaxel against surveillance after RP for locally-advanced PCa showed that adjuvant docetaxel did not confer any oncological benefit [908]. Consequently, adjuvant chemotherapy after RP should only be considered in a clinical trial [909].

6.3.5.6 Adjuvant treatment in pN1 disease

6.3.5.6.1 Adjuvant androgen ablation alone

The combination of RP and early adjuvant HT in pN+ PCa has been shown to achieve a ten-year CSS rate of 80% and has been shown to significantly improve CSS and OS in prospective RCTs [910, 911]. However, these trials included mostly patients with high-volume nodal disease and multiple adverse tumour characteristics and these findings may not apply to men with less extensive nodal metastases.

6.3.5.6.2 Adjuvant radiotherapy combined with ADT in pN1 disease

In a retrospective multi-centre cohort study, maximal local control with RT to the prostatic fossa appeared to be beneficial in PCa patients with pN1 after RP, treated 'adjuvantly' with continuous ADT (within six months after surgery irrespective of PSA). The beneficial impact of adjuvant RT on survival in patients with pN1 PCa was highly influenced by tumour characteristics. Men with low-volume nodal disease (< 3 LNs), ISUP grade group 2–5 and pT3–4 or R1, as well as men with 3 to 4 positive nodes were more likely to benefit from RT after surgery, while the other subgroups did not [912]. In contrast, a retrospective multi-centre study including 1,614 patients and a median follow-up of 7.02 years assessed ART + ADT. Adjuvant RT compared to SRT was associated with a decreased all-cause mortality and this reduction increased with each additional positive pelvic LN, from the first one on and the highest effect was for more than 3 positive nodes [913]. These data are in agreement with a US National Cancer Database analysis based on 5,498 patients [914]. Another US National Cancer Database study including 8,074 pN1 patients reports improved OS after ADT plus EBRT (including pelvic LNs) vs. observation and vs. ADT alone in all men with single or multiple adverse pathological features. Men without any adverse pathological features did not benefit from immediate adjuvant therapy [915].

In a SR of the literature, RT with or without ADT was associated with improved survival in men with locally-advanced disease and a higher number of positive nodes [916]. Radiotherapy to the pelvic lymphatics and the prostate fossa plus long-term ADT can be offered to patients with pN1 disease [912, 917]. However, the optimal duration of ADT is still unknown.

6.3.5.6.3 Observation of pN1 patients after radical prostatectomy and extended lymph node dissection

Several retrospective studies and a SR addressed the management of patients with pN1 PCa at RP [890, 912, 916-918]. A subset of patients with limited nodal disease (1–2 positive LNs) showed favourable oncological outcomes and did not require additional treatment.

An analysis of 209 pN1 patients with one or two positive LNs at RP showed that 37% remained metastasis-free without need of salvage treatment at a median follow-up of 60.2 months [918]. Touijer *et al.*, reported their results of 369 pN1-positive patients (40 with and 329 without adjuvant treatment) and showed that higher pathologic grade group and > 3 positive LNs were significantly associated with an increased risk of BCR on multivariable analysis [890]. Biochemical-free survival rates in pN1 patients without adjuvant treatment ranged from 43% at four years to 28% at ten years [916]. Reported CSS rates were 78% at five years and 72% at ten

years. The majority of these patients were managed with initial observation after surgery, had favourable disease characteristics, and 63% had only one positive node [916]. Initial observation followed by early salvage treatment at the time of recurrence may represent a safe option in selected patients with a low disease burden [916].

6.3.5.7 Recommendations for adjuvant treatment for pN0 and pN1 disease after radical prostatectomy*

Recommendations	Strength rating
Do not prescribe adjuvant androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) to pN0 patients.	Strong
In pN0 patients with ISUP grade group 4–5 and pT3 ± positive margins, offer adjuvant intensity-modulated radiation therapy (IMRT)/volumetric modulated arc therapy (VMAT) plus image-guided radiation therapy (IGRT).	Strong
In pN1 patients, after an extended lymph node dissection, discuss three management options, based on nodal involvement characteristics: 1. Offer adjuvant ADT. 2. Offer adjuvant ADT with additional IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT. 3. Offer observation (expectant management) to a patient after ePLND and ≤ 2 nodes and an undetectable PSA.	Weak

*All recommendations are based on conventional imaging with isotope bone scan and CT/MR abdomen/pelvis.

6.3.6 Persistent PSA after radical prostatectomy

Between five and 20% of men continue to have detectable or persistent PSA after RP (when defined in the majority of studies as detectable post-RP PSA of ≥ 0.1 ng/mL within 4 to 8 weeks of surgery) [919, 920]. Improvements in the sensitivity of PSA assays now allow for the detection of PSA at much lower levels. It may result from persistent local disease, pre-existing metastases or residual benign prostate tissue.

6.3.6.1 Natural history of persistently elevated PSA after RP

Two SRs addressing persistent PSA confirmed a strong correlation of PSA persistence with poor oncologic outcomes [919, 920]. A meta-analysis of consecutive patient cohorts reported that persistent PSA was more likely when risk factors, such as high D'Amico risk, Gleason score ≥ 8, pT stage ≥ 8 and presence of extraprostatic extension, seminal vesicle invasion, lymph node involvement, positive margin, were present [921]. Salvage radiotherapy was also more likely to be given to patients with persistent PSA. Cribiform pattern or intraductal carcinoma have also been associated with persistent PSA [922].

Considering oncological outcomes, patients with persistent PSA (≥ 0.1 ng/mL) had worse biochemical recurrence-free (HR: 3.86, 95% CI: 2.4 – 6.22), metastasis-free (HR 3.6, 95% CI 2.94-4.42) and prostate cancer-specific (HR: 3.54, 95% CI: 2.4-5.22) survival on meta-analysis of retrospective cohorts [921]. The largest study by Preisser *et al.* (n = 11,605) showed that persistent PSA is prognostic of an increased risk of metastasis and death [923] [864]. At fifteen years after RP, MFS rates, OS and CSS rates were 53.0 vs. 93.2% (p < 0.001), 64.7 vs. 81.2% (p < 0.001) and 75.5 vs. 96.2% (p < 0.001) for persistent vs. undetectable PSA, respectively. The median follow-up was 61.8 months for patients with undetectable PSA vs. 46.4 months for patients with persistent PSA. In multivariable Cox regression models, persistent PSA represented an independent predictor for metastasis (HR: 3.59, p < 0.001), death (HR: 1.86, p < 0.001) and cancer-specific death (HR: 3.15, p < 0.001), similarly for pathologic stage pT3b and ISUP Grade Group 3-5.

However, not all patients with persistent PSA after RP experience disease recurrence. Xiang *et al.*, showed a 50% five-year BCR-free survival in men who had a persistent PSA level > 0.1 but ≤ 0.2 ng/mL at six to eight weeks after RP [924]. Rogers *et al.*, assessed the clinical outcome of 160 men with a persistently detectable PSA level after RP [925]. No patient received adjuvant therapy before documented metastasis. In their study, 38% of patients had no evidence of metastases for ≥ 7 years while 32% of the patients were reported to develop metastases within three years. Most patients had Gleason score 7 (44%) or ≥ 8 (49%). In multi-variable analysis, the PSA slope ≥ 0.05 after RP (as calculated using PSA levels three to twelve months after surgery; HR: 2.7) and pathological ISUP GG (≥ 3 vs. ≤ 2; HR: 1.8) were significantly associated with the development of distant metastases among patients with persistent PSA. Prostate-specific antigen slope is more commonly reported as PSA doubling time (calculated by log [PSA slope]) [926].

6.3.6.2 Imaging in patients with persistently elevated PSA after RP

PSMA PET/CT is known to have superior detection efficiency, however dedicated studies for patients with persistently elevated PSA after RP are limited compared to studies inclusive of patients with BCR with/without persistent PSA.

Considering the persistent PSA group, a multi-centre retrospective study included 191 patients with persistently elevated PSA after RP and ^{68}Ga -PSMA-PET/CT was positive in 68%, of which 35% had disease confined to the pelvis (obturator, presacral/mesorectal most common) and 33% had distant metastases [927]. A subgroup analysis of 33 patients with pre- and post-RP imaging showed PET-persistence in 45%, new lesions in 24% and negative post-RP PET in 30%. Another retrospective study included 150 patients with persistent PSA after RARP who were re-staged with both ^{68}Ga -PSMA and ^{18}F -DCFPyL PSMA. The authors found that in the presence of persistent PSA the majority of patients already had involved pelvic LNs (33%) or distant metastases (26%) which would support a role of PSMA PET/CT imaging in guiding (salvage) treatment strategies [928]. Schmidt-Hegemann *et al.*, studied 129 patients who had either persistent PSA (52%) or BCR (48%) after RP, showing that men with a persistent PSA had significantly more pelvic nodal involvement on PSMA PET/CT than those with an initially undetectable PSA [929].

Therefore, PSMA PET serves to identify sites of remnant disease in patients with persistent PSA after RP. At present there is uncertainty regarding the best treatment if PSMA PET/CT shows metastatic disease outside the pelvis.

6.3.6.3 Management options for patients with persistent PSA

6.3.6.3.1 Comparison with biochemical recurrence (BCR)

It is clear that persistent PSA after RP is a poor prognostic indicator, likely representative of low volume synchronous metastatic disease rather than metachronous disease like in biochemical recurrence. A retrospective analysis of the RTOG 9601 trial of SRT +/- ADT (bicalutamide) for biochemical failure after RP considered patients with persistent PSA (n=90) or BCR (n=670) as the cause for biochemical failure and, following statistical adjustment, showed higher 10-year metastatic progression rate (28.6% vs. 10.1%, $p < 0.0001$), numerically higher 10-year overall mortality rate (24.9% vs. 11.9%, $p = 0.03$) and higher local progression rate (3.2% vs. 1.4%, $p = 0.0001$) [930]. In the ARO 96-02, a prospective RCT, 74 patients with PSA persistence (20%) received immediate SRT only (66 Gy per protocol [arm C]). The 10-year clinical relapse-free survival was 63% and showed worse 10-year metastasis-free survival (67% vs 83%) and OS (68% vs 84%) than BCR patients [931]. Therefore, it is likely that outcomes are worse than for men with persistent PSA than those experiencing BCR [932]. Indeed, studies investigating PSA persistence were excluded from the EAU Guidelines Biochemical Recurrence risk groups [933].

6.3.6.3.2 Post-operative RT

The benefit of post-operative RT (adjuvant or salvage) in patients with persistent PSA remains unclear due to a lack of RCTs. Ploussard *et al.*, reported following SR that SRT was associated with improved survival outcomes, although the available evidence is of low quality [920].

Preisser *et al.*, compared oncological outcomes of patients with persistent PSA who received SRT vs. those who did not [923]. In the subgroup of patients with persistent PSA, after 1:1 propensity score matching between patients with SRT vs. no RT, OS rates at ten years after RP were 86.6 vs. 72.6% in the entire cohort ($p < 0.01$), 86.3 vs. 60.0% in patients with positive surgical margin ($p = 0.02$), 77.8 vs. 49.0% in pT3b disease ($p < 0.001$), 79.3 vs. 55.8% in ISUP grade group 3-5 disease ($p < 0.01$) and 87.4 vs. 50.5% in pN1 disease ($p < 0.01$), respectively. Moreover, CSS rates for patients who underwent SRT vs. no RT at ten years after RP were 93.7 vs. 81.6% in the entire cohort ($p < 0.01$), 90.8 vs. 69.7% in patients with positive surgical margin ($p = 0.04$), 82.7 vs. 55.3% in pT3b disease ($p < 0.01$), 85.4 vs. 69.7% in ISUP grade group 3-5 disease ($p < 0.01$) and 96.2 vs. 55.8% in pN1 disease ($p < 0.01$), respectively. In multi-variable models, after 1:1 propensity score matching, SRT was associated with lower risk of death (HR: 0.42, $p = 0.02$) and lower cancer-specific death (HR: 0.29, $p = 0.03$). SRT dose was 46Gy for the 54% of patients with available data, but SRT field and ADT use was unavailable. The benefit of SRT in improving MFS (HR 0.39, $p = 0.001$), CSS (HR 0.34, $p = 0.03$) and OS (HR 0.24, $p = 0.001$) were also observed in a retrospective analysis of 3,409 patients who underwent RP (9.2% persistent PSA, median follow-up 4.5 years) by Özman *et al.* [934].

It is clear from a number of studies that poor outcomes are driven by the level of pre-RT PSA, the presence of ISUP grade group ≥ 4 in the RP histology and pT3b disease [931, 935-939] [878-883]. Fossati *et al.*, suggested that only men with a persistent PSA after RP and ISUP grade group ≤ 3 benefit significantly [940], similarly supported by Özman *et al.* where positive margins, higher T-stage, pN1 and lower ISUP Grade group were most likely to benefit from SRT, although this was not supported by Preisser *et al.* [923, 934].

The current data do not allow clear treatment recommendations. However, these benefits in the SRT + ADT group (compared to ADT alone) were associated with higher incidence of bowel symptoms (34 vs. 19%, $p = 0.01$) and bothersome incontinence if given within 6 months of surgery ($p < 0.001$) [934].

6.3.6.3.3 Multimodal therapy (ADT with post-operative RT)

Addition of ADT may improve PFS [935]. Choo *et al.*, prospectively studied the addition of two-year ADT to immediate RT to the prostate bed in patients with pT3 and/or positive surgical margins after RP [935]. Twenty-nine of the 78 included patients had persistently detectable post-operative PSA. The relapse-free rate was 85% at five years and 68% at seven years, which was superior to the five-year progression-free estimates of 74% and 61% in the post-operative RT arms of the EORTC and the SWOG studies, respectively, which included patients with undetectable PSA after RP [905, 906]. Patients with persistently detectable post-operative PSA comprised approximately 50% and 12%, respectively, of the study cohorts in the EORTC and the SWOG studies.

A multi-centre, retrospective study from Japan considered 383 patients with pN1 and persistent PSA after RP and reported that the addition of SRT (median 66Gy; prostate bed with pelvis 67%, prostate bed alone 24%) to ADT showed better castration resistance-free (5-year $p < 0.001$, 10-year $p = 0.02$) and metastasis-free (5-year $p < 0.001$, 10-year $p = 0.15$) but not OS than ADT alone in patients with pre-treatment PSA ≥ 0.52 ug/L [941]. Similar benefits have been reported for SRT with ADT compared to ADT alone in single centre retrospective studies [942, 943].

The phase 2 GETUG-22 trial comparing RT (46Gy pelvis with 66Gy prostate bed boost) with RT plus short-term ADT for post-RP PSA persistence (0.2–2.0 ng/mL) in 125 patients reported good tolerability of the combined treatment. The oncological endpoints are yet to be published [944].

6.3.6.4 Conclusion

The available data suggest that patients with PSA persistence after RP have worse prostate-cancer outcomes and serve to benefit most from early aggressive multimodality treatment, however, the lack of prospective RCTs makes firm recommendations difficult.

6.3.6.5 Recommendations for the management of persistent PSA after radical prostatectomy

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer a prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) positron emission tomography/computed tomography (PET/CT) scan to men with a persistent prostate-specific antigen (PSA) and rising if the results will influence subsequent treatment decisions.	Weak
Treat men with persistent PSA and no evidence of distant metastatic disease with salvage radiotherapy and additional hormonal therapy.	Weak

6.4 Management of PSA-only recurrence after treatment with curative intent

Follow-up will be addressed in Chapter 7 and is not discussed in this section.

6.4.1 Background

Between 27% and 53% of all patients undergoing RP or RT develop a rising PSA (PSA recurrence). Whilst metastatic progression is universally preceded by rising PSA levels, physicians must inform the patient that the natural history of PSA-only recurrence may be prolonged and that a measurable PSA may not necessarily lead to clinically apparent metastatic disease. Physicians treating patients with PSA-only recurrence face a difficult set of decisions in attempting to delay the onset of metastatic disease and death while avoiding overtreating patients whose disease may never affect their OS or QoL. It should be emphasised that the treatment recommendations for these patients should be given after discussion in a multidisciplinary team.

6.4.1.1 PSA velocity and doubling time

Various PSA kinetics definitions have been proposed with different methods of calculation (log transformed or not) and eligible PSAs:

- PSA velocity (PSAV): absolute annual increase in serum PSA (ng/mL/year);
- PSA doubling time (PSA-DT): which measures the exponential increase in serum PSA over time.

Prostate-specific antigen velocity is more simple to calculate by subtracting the initial value from the final value, dividing by time. However, by ignoring middle values, not all PSA values are accurately taken into account.

Prostate-specific antigen-DT is calculated assuming an exponential rise in serum PSA. The formula takes into account the natural logarithm of 2 divided by the slope obtained from fitting a linear regression of the natural log of PSA over time [945]. However, many different PSA-DT calculations have been assessed according to the mathematical formula used and to the included PSA values (number, time period, intervals) [946].

For example, the 'MSKCC' method calculates a regression slope integrating all PSA values. Other methods transform PSA before calculating the slope and do not include all PSA values (different time frames and minimal intervals) [947]. O'Brien and colleagues identified more than 20 different definitions of PSAV and PSA-DT and demonstrated that obtained values could vary widely between definitions [947].

However, some rules can be considered for PSA-DT calculation [945]:

- At least three PSA measurements are required;
- A minimum time period between measurements (4 weeks) is preferable due to potential statistical 'noise' when PSA values are obtained too close together (this statement can be reconsidered in case of very active disease);
- All included PSA values should be obtained within the past twelve months at most, to reflect the current disease activity;
- PSA-DT is often mentioned in months, or in weeks in very active disease.

These measurements do not provide additional information compared with PSA alone [540, 947-949]. In the post-local therapy relapse setting, PSA-DT has been correlated with distant progression and with poorer outcomes after salvage treatments [950, 951]. Prostate-specific antigen-DT has been linked with metastasis-free- and OS in non-metastatic CRPC (nmCRPC) and identifies patients with high-risk nmCRPC who benefit from intensified therapy (PSA-DT threshold < ten months) [952].

6.4.2 **Controversies in the definitions of clinically relevant PSA relapse**

The PSA level that defines treatment failure depends on the primary treatment. Patients with rising PSA after RP or primary RT have different risks of subsequent symptomatic metastatic disease based on various parameters, including the PSA level. Therefore, physicians should carefully interpret BCR endpoints when comparing treatments. Clinicians should interpret a PSA rise in light of the EAU BCR risk groups [933].

After RP, the threshold that best predicts further metastases is a PSA > 0.4 ng/mL and rising [953]. However, with access to ultra-sensitive PSA testing, a rising PSA much below this level will be a cause for concern for patients. After primary RT, with or without short-term hormonal manipulation, the RTOG-ASTRO Phoenix Consensus Conference definition of PSA failure (with an accuracy of > 80% for clinical failure) is 'any PSA increase > 2 ng/mL higher than the PSA nadir value, regardless of the serum concentration of the nadir' [954]. After HIFU or cryotherapy no endpoints have been validated against clinical progression or survival; therefore, it is not possible to give a firm recommendation of an acceptable PSA threshold after these alternative local treatments [933].

6.4.3 **Natural history of biochemical recurrence**

Once a PSA recurrence has been diagnosed, it is important to determine whether the recurrence has developed at local or distant sites. A SR and meta-analysis investigated the impact of BCR on clinical endpoints and concluded that patients experiencing BCR are at an increased risk of developing distant metastases, PCa-specific and overall mortality [933]. However, the effect size of BCR as a risk factor for mortality is highly variable. After primary RP its impact ranges from HR 1.03 (95% CI: 1.004–1.06) to HR 2.32 (95% CI: 1.45–3.71) [955, 956]. After primary RT, OS rates are approximately 20% lower at eight to ten years follow-up even in men with minimal co-morbidity [957, 958]. Still, the variability in reported effect sizes of BCR remains high and suggests that only certain patient subgroups with BCR might be at an increased risk of mortality.

The risk of subsequent metastases, PCa-specific- and overall mortality may be predicted by the initial clinical and pathologic factors (e.g., T-category, PSA, ISUP grade group) and PSA kinetics (PSA-DT and interval to PSA failure), which was further investigated by the SR [933].

For patients with BCR after RP, the following outcomes were found to be associated with significant prognostic factors:

- distant metastatic recurrence: positive surgical margins, high RP specimen pathological ISUP GG, high pT category, short PSA-DT, high pre-SRT PSA;
- prostate-cancer-specific mortality: high RP specimen pathological ISUP grade group, short interval to biochemical failure as defined by investigators, short PSA-DT;
- overall mortality: high RP specimen pathological ISUP grade group, short interval to biochemical failure, high PSA-DT.

For patients with BCR after RT, the corresponding outcomes are:

- distant metastatic recurrence: high biopsy ISUP grade group, high cT category, short interval to biochemical failure;
- prostate-cancer-specific mortality: short interval to biochemical failure;
- overall mortality: high age, high biopsy ISUP grade group, short interval to biochemical failure, high initial (pretreatment) PSA.

Based on this meta-analysis, proposal is to stratify patients into two risk categories since not all patients with BCR will have similar outcomes (see Table 6.4.1). The stratification into 'EAU Low-Risk' or 'EAU High-Risk' BCR after RP has been validated in a European cohort [959].

Table 6.4.1: EAU risk categories for patients developing biochemical recurrence

	EAU Low Risk BCR	EAU High Risk BCR
After RP	PSA-DT > 1 yr AND pathological ISUP grade group < 4	PSA-DT ≤ 1 yr OR pathological ISUP grade group 4–5
After RT	interval to biochemical failure > 18 mo AND biopsy ISUP grade group < 4	interval to biochemical failure ≤ 18 mo OR biopsy ISUP grade group 4–5

6.4.4 The role of imaging in PSA-only recurrence

Imaging is only of value if it leads to a treatment change which results in an improved outcome. In practice, however, there are very limited data available regarding the outcome's consequent on imaging at recurrence.

6.4.4.1 Assessment of metastases (including nodal)

6.4.4.1.1 Bone scan and abdominopelvic CT

Because BCR after RP or RT precedes clinical metastases by seven to eight years on average [884, 960], the diagnostic yield of conventional imaging techniques (bone scan and abdominopelvic CT) is low in asymptomatic patients [961]. In men with PSA-only recurrence after RP the probability of a positive bone scan is < 5%, when the PSA level is < 7 ng/mL [962, 963]. Only 11–14% of patients with BCR after RP have a positive CT [962]. In a series of 132 men with BCR after RP the mean PSA level and PSA velocity associated with a positive CT were 27.4 ng/mL and 1.8 ng/mL/month, respectively [964].

6.4.4.1.2 Choline PET/CT

In two different meta-analyses the combined sensitivities and specificities of choline PET/CT for all sites of recurrence in patients with BCR were 86–89% and 89–93%, respectively [965, 966]. Choline PET/CT may detect multiple bone metastases in patients showing a single metastasis on bone scan [967] and may be positive for bone metastases in up to 15% of patients with BCR after RP and negative bone scan [968]. The specificity of choline PET/CT is also higher than bone scan, with fewer false positive and indeterminate findings [473]. Detection of LN metastases using choline PET/CT remains limited by the relatively poor sensitivity of the technique. Choline PET/CT sensitivity is strongly dependent on the PSA level and kinetics [483, 969, 970]. In patients with BCR after RP, PET/CT detection rates are only 5–24% when the PSA level is < 1 ng/mL but rise to 67–100% when the PSA level is > 5 ng/mL. Despite its limitations, choline PET/CT may change medical management in 18–48% of patients with BCR after primary treatment [971-973].

Choline PET/CT should only be recommended in patients fit enough for curative loco-regional salvage treatment.

6.4.4.1.3 Fluoride PET/CT

¹⁸F-NaF PET/CT has a higher sensitivity than bone scan in detecting bone metastases [974]. However, ¹⁸F-NaF PET/CT is limited by a relative lack of specificity and by the fact that it does not assess soft-tissue metastases [975].

6.4.4.1.4 Fluciclovine PET/CT

¹⁸F-Fluciclovine PET/CT has been approved in the U.S. and Europe and it is therefore one of the PCa-specific radiotracers widely commercially available [975-978].

¹⁸F-Fluciclovine PET/CT has a slightly higher sensitivity than choline PET/CT in detecting the site of relapse in BCR [979]. In a multi-centre trial evaluating 596 patients with BCR in a mixed population, fluciclovine PET/CT showed an overall detection rate of 67.7%; lesions could be visualised either at local level (38.7%) or in pelvic

LN (32.6%) [980]. As for choline PET/CT, fluciclovine PET/CT sensitivity is dependent on the PSA level, with a sensitivity likely inferior to 50% at PSA level < 1 ng/mL.

In a prospective RCT evaluating the impact of ¹⁸F-fluciclovine PET/CT on SRT management decisions in patients with recurrence post-prostatectomy, in 28 of 79 (35.4%) patients overall radiotherapeutic management changed following ¹⁸F-fluciclovine PET/CT [981]. ¹⁸F-Fluciclovine PET/CT had a significantly higher positivity rate than conventional imaging (abdominopelvic CT or MRI plus bone scan) for whole body (79.7% vs. 13.9%, *p* < 0.001), prostate bed (69.6% vs. 5.1%, *p* < 0.001), and pelvic LNs (38.0% vs. 10.1%, *p* < 0.001) [981]. However, as yet, no data demonstrating that these changes translate into a survival benefit are available.

6.4.4.1.5 Prostate-specific membrane antigen based PET/CT

PSMA PET/CT has shown good potential in patients with BCR. The diagnostic performance of ¹⁸F-PSMA PET/CT in patients with BCR has been recently investigated by means of a systematic review and meta-analysis. The pooled sensitivity, specificity, and AUC values for ¹⁸F-PSMA PET/CT in the diagnosis of prostate recurrence and/or metastasis were 0.93 (0.89–0.95), 0.94 (0.85–0.98), and 0.96 (0.94–0.98), respectively the per-patient pooled sensitivity and specificity values were 0.92 (0.86–0.96) and 0.83 (0.41–0.97), respectively. The per-lesion pooled sensitivity and specificity values were identical, 0.91 (0.86–0.94) [982].

Reported predictors of ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET in the recurrence setting were updated based on a high-volume series (Table 6.4.2) [867]. High sensitivity (75%) and specificity (99%) were observed on per-lesion analysis.

PSMA PET/CT seems substantially more sensitive than choline PET/CT, especially for PSA levels < 1 ng/mL [983, 984]. In a study of 314 patients with BCR after treatment and a median PSA level of 0.83 ng/mL, ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET/CT was positive in 197 patients (67%) [985]. In a phase III, prospective, multicentre, randomised study, comparing ¹⁸F-PSMA-1007 and ¹⁸FCholine PET/CT in PCa patients with biochemical recurrence, the overall correct detection rate (DR) was 84% (95% CI: 0.7967–0.8830) for PSMA and 69% (95% CI: 0.6191–0.7489) for choline. This yielded a significant proportion difference of 16% (*P* < 0.0001). Also, the DR for cutoff point PSA ≤ 1ng/ml was higher for PSMA compared to Choline (61.8% vs. 39.5%) [986].

A prospective multi-centre, multi-reader, open-label, phase II/III trial (OSPREGY) evaluated the diagnostic performance of ¹⁸F-DCFPyL in patients with presumptive radiologic evidence of recurrent or metastatic PCa on conventional imaging [907]. Median sensitivity and median PPV were 95.8% (95% CI: 87.8%–99.0%) and 81.9% (95% CI: 73.7%–90.2%), respectively.

Another prospective study evaluated the diagnostic performance of ¹⁸F-DCFPyL in 208 men with BCR after RP or RT. The primary endpoint, the correct localisation rate was achieved, demonstrating positive findings on ¹⁸F-DCFPyL PET/CT in the setting of negative standard conventional imaging [987]. At present there are no conclusive data about comparison of such tracers [988].

A prospective, open label, cross-over study, the PYTHON trial, has compared the per-patient detection rates (DR) of ¹⁸F-DCFPyL versus ¹⁸F-fluoromethylcholine PET/CT, in biochemical recurrence (BCR) setting. A total of 201 high-risk PCa patients with first BCR after radical prostatectomy or radiation therapy have completed the study. The per-patient DR was significantly higher for ¹⁸F-DCFPyL compared to ¹⁸F-fluoromethylcholine PET/CT (58% (117/201 patients) vs. 40% (81/201 patients), *p* < 0.0001). DR increased with higher PSA values for both tracers (PSA ≤ 0.5 ng/ml: 26/74 (35%) vs. 22/74 (30%); PSA 0.5 to ≤ 1.0 ng/ml: 17/31 (55%) vs. 10/31 (32%); PSA 1.01 to < 2.0 ng/ml: 13/19 (68%) vs. 6/19 (32%); PSA > 2.0: 50/57 (88%) vs. 39/57 (68%) for ¹⁸FDCFPyL- and ¹⁸F-fluoromethylcholine -PET/CT, respectively) [989]. Comparable results were found in a phase III trial of ¹⁸F-PSMA-1007 versus ¹⁸F-Fluorocholine PET/CT for the localisation of prostate cancer biochemical recurrence. In this prospective, randomised, crossover multi-centre study, the overall correct detection rates were significantly higher for ¹⁸F-PSMA-1007 than for ¹⁸F-fluorocholine when undetermined findings were considered positive for malignancy (0.82 vs. 0.65; *p* < 0.0001) [990].

Table 6.4.2: PSMA-positivity separated by PSA level category [991]

PSA (ng/mL)	⁶⁸ Ga-PSMA PET positivity
< 0.2	33% (CI: 16–51)
0.2–0.49	45% (CI: 39–52)
0.5–0.99	59% (CI: 50–68)
1.0–1.99	75% (CI: 66–84)
2.0+	95% (CI: 92–97)

PSA = prostate-specific antigen; ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET = Gallium-68 prostate-specific membrane antigen positron emission tomography.

6.4.4.1.6 Whole-body and axial MRI

Whole body MRI has not been widely evaluated in BCR because of its limited value in the detection of early metastatic involvement in normal-sized LNs [455, 486, 992]. In a prospective series of 68 patients with BCR, the diagnostic performance of DW-MRI was significantly lower than that of ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET/CT and ¹⁸NaF PET/CT for diagnosing bone metastases [993].

6.4.4.2 Assessment of local recurrences

6.4.4.2.1 Local recurrence after radical prostatectomy

Because the sensitivity of anastomotic biopsies is low, especially for PSA levels < 1 ng/mL [961], SRT is usually decided on the basis of BCR without histological proof of local recurrence.

Magnetic resonance imaging can detect local recurrences in the prostatic bed. The PSA threshold for MRI positivity seems between 0.3 and 0.5 ng/mL; PSA kinetics also influence the MRI positivity, even at low PSA values [994]. Two single-centre studies found that a negative MRI was an independent predictor of failure of SRT [995, 996]. Conversely, a small (≤ 0.4 cc) relapse located at the vesico-urethral anastomosis is associated with excellent prognosis at salvage RT [997]. The Prostate Imaging for Recurrence Reporting (PI-RR) system has been recently launched to standardise MRI interpretation in the context of BCR after RP or RT [998]. Initial assessment suggests good reproducibility of the score [999].

Choline PET/CT is less sensitive for local relapse than MRI but detects more regional and distant metastases [1000].

The detection rates of ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET/CT in patients with BCR after RP increase with the PSA level [1001]. PSMA PET/CT studies showed that a substantial part of recurrences after RP were located outside the prostatic fossa, even at low PSA levels [1002, 1003]. Combining ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET and MRI may improve the detection of local recurrences, as compared to ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA PET/CT alone [1004-1006].

The EMPIRE-1, a single-centre, open-label, phase II/III RCT included 365 patients with detectable PSA after RP, but negative results on conventional imaging. They were randomised to RT directed by conventional imaging alone or to conventional imaging plus ¹⁸F-fluciclovine-PET/CT; patients with M1 disease in the PET/CT group (n = 4) were excluded. Patients with cN1 were irradiated to the pelvic nodes, but without a boost to the metastases. After a median follow-up of 3.5 years, the PET/CT group was significantly associated with longer event-free survival (HR: 2.04, 95% CI: 1.06–3.93, p = 0.0327) [1007].

6.4.4.2.2 Local recurrence after radiation therapy

In patients with BCR after RT, biopsy status is a major predictor of outcome, provided the biopsies are obtained 18–24 months after initial treatment. Given the morbidity of local salvage options it is necessary to obtain histological proof of the local recurrence before treating the patient [961].

MRI has yielded excellent results in identifying local recurrence and can be used for biopsy targeting and guiding local salvage treatment [961, 1008, 1009], even if it slightly underestimates the volume of the local recurrence [1010]. Prostate-specific membrane antigen PET/CT can also detect local recurrences after RT [991] and concordance between PSMA PET/CT and MRI is highly suggestive of cancer recurrence [1011].

6.4.4.3 Summary of evidence of imaging in case of biochemical recurrence

In patients with BCR imaging can detect both local recurrences and distant metastases, however, the sensitivity of detection depends on the PSA level. After RP, PSMA PET/CT is the imaging modality with the highest sensitivity at low PSA levels (< 0.5 ng/mL) and may help distinguishing patients with recurrences confined to the prostatic fossa from those with distant metastases which may impact the design and use of post-RP SRT. After RT, MRI has shown excellent results at detecting local recurrences and guiding prostate biopsy. Given the substantial morbidity of post-RT local salvage treatments, distant metastases must be ruled out in patients with local recurrences and who are fit for these salvage therapies. Choline-, fluciclovine- or PSMA-PET/CT can be used to detect metastases in these patients but for this indication PSMA PET/CT seems the most sensitive technique.

6.4.4.4 Recommendations for imaging in patients with biochemical recurrence

Recommendations	Strength rating
Prostate-specific antigen (PSA) recurrence after radical prostatectomy	
Perform prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) positron emission tomography/computed tomography (PET/CT) if the PSA level is > 0.2 ng/mL and if the results will influence subsequent treatment decisions (EAU BCR risk groups).	Weak
In PSMA PET/CT is not available, and the PSA level is ≥ 1 ng/mL, perform fluciclovine PET/CT or choline PET/CT imaging if the results will influence subsequent treatment decisions.	Weak
PSA recurrence after radiotherapy	
Perform prostate magnetic resonance imaging to localise abnormal areas and guide biopsies in patients fit for local salvage therapy.	Weak
Perform PSMA PET/CT (if available) or fluciclovine PET/CT or choline PET/CT in patients fit for curative salvage treatment.	Strong

6.4.5 Treatment of PSA-only recurrences

The timing and treatment modality for PSA-only recurrences after RP or RT remain a matter of controversy based on the limited evidence.

6.4.5.1 Treatment of PSA-only recurrences after radical prostatectomy

6.4.5.1.1 Salvage radiotherapy for PSA-only recurrence after radical prostatectomy (cTxcN0M0, without PET/CT)

Early SRT provides the possibility of cure for patients with an increasing PSA after RP. Boorjian *et al.*, reported a 75% reduced risk of systemic progression with SRT when comparing 856 SRT patients with 1,801 non-SRT patients [1012]. The RAVES and RADICAL trials assessing SRT in post-RP patients with PSA levels exceeding 0.1–0.2 ng/mL showed 5-year freedom from BCR and BCR-free survival rates of 88% [999, 1013]. Tilki *et al.* demonstrated the results of a matched pair analysis of 1832 patients with BCR, 32.9% (n = 603) received SRT without ADT, 1229 (67.1%) had an observational strategy. The median follow-up was 95.9 months. Median total SRT dose was 70.2 Gy. After 1:1 propensity score matching, at fifteen years after RP, MFS and OS rates were 84.3 versus 76.9% (p < 0.001) and 85.3 versus 74.4% (p = 0.04) for SRT and noRT, respectively [1014].

The PSA level at BCR was shown to be prognostic [1012]. More than 60% of patients who are treated before the PSA level rises to > 0.5 ng/mL will achieve an undetectable PSA level [1015-1017], corresponding to a ~80% chance of being progression-free five years later [1018]. A retrospective analysis of 635 patients who were followed after RP and experienced BCR and/or local recurrence and either received no salvage treatment (n = 397) or SRT alone (n = 160) within two years of BCR showed that SRT was associated with a 3-fold increase in PCa-specific survival relative to those who received no salvage treatment (p < 0.001). Salvage RT has been shown to be effective mainly in patients with a short PSA-DT [1019].

In a retrospective multi-centre study including 25,551 patients with at most one high-risk factor after RP (ISUP grade group 4-5 or pT3/4), initiating sRT above a PSA level of 0.25 ng/mL was associated with increased ACM-risk. After a median follow-up of six years, patients who received sRT at a PSA level >0.25 ng/mL had a significantly higher ACM-risk (AHR, 1.49; 95% CI, 1.11 to 2.00; P = .008) compared with men who received sRT when the PSA was ≤0.25 mg/mL [1020]. For an overview of SRT see Table 6.4.3.

Although biochemical progression is now widely accepted as a surrogate marker of PCa recurrence; metastatic disease, disease-specific and OS are more meaningful endpoints to support clinical decision-making. A SR and meta-analysis on the impact of BCR after RP reports SRT to be favourable for OS and PCSM. In particular SRT should be initiated in patients with rapid PSA kinetics after RP and with a PSA cut-off of 0.4 ng/mL [933]. An international multi-institutional analysis of pooled data from RCTs has suggested that MFS is the most valid surrogate endpoint with respect to impact on OS [1021, 1022]. Table 6.4.4 summarises results of recent studies on clinical endpoints after SRT.

The EAU BCR definitions have been externally validated and may be helpful for individualised treatment decisions [933, 959]. Despite the indication for salvage RT, a 'wait and see' strategy remains an option for the EAU BCR 'Low-Risk' group [933, 959].

6.4.5.1.2 Salvage radiotherapy combined with androgen deprivation therapy (cTxcN0, without PET/CT)

Data from RTOG 9601 suggest both CSS and OS benefit when adding two years of bicalutamide (150 mg o.d.) to SRT [1023]. According to GETUG-AFU 16 also 6-months treatment with a LHRH-analogue can significantly improve 10-year BCR, biochemical PFS and, modestly, MFS. However, SRT combined with either goserelin or placebo showed similar DSS and OS rates [1024].

In addition, Pollack *et al.*, reported on the results of a randomised 3-arm phase III trial (NRG Oncology/RTOG 0534 SPPORT) adding six months treatment with a LHRH-analogue to SRT of the prostate bed (PBRT) (group 2) compared with PBRT alone (group 1) or the former combination with PBRT-RT and pelvic LN RT (PLNRT) (group 3) [1025]. The primary endpoint was freedom from progression (FFP) after five years. However, using the phoenix-definition of biochemical progression (nadir + 2 ng/mL used for definitive RT), and not the criterion of nadir + 0.2, as is used commonly (but without clear evidence) will have resulted in a later diagnosis of progression in the SPPORT trial.

With a median follow-up of 8.2 years of the surviving patients FFP increased significantly for group 3 (87.4%) compared with group 2 (81.3%) ($p = 0.0027$) and group 1 (70.9%) ($p < 0.0001$) [1025]. The difference between group 2 and group 1 was also significant ($p < 0.0001$). Distant metastasis incidence rates (secondary endpoint) were lowest in group 3 (including RT of the pelvic lymphatics) and were significantly lower only compared with group 1 (PBRT only, HR: 0.52) similar to the rate of PCa deaths (HR: 0.51). No significant difference was seen for OS. There was a significantly higher risk of both acute- and late side effects in group 3. Therefore, the role of additional PLNRT remains unclear and should be further proven in RCTs including PSMA PET-CT [1026].

RADICALS HD investigated the role of RT without ADT ($n = 737$) versus RT plus 6 months ADT ($n = 747$) and RT plus 6 months ADT ($n = 761$) versus RT plus 24 months long term ADT ($n = 762$) in both the salvage and adjuvant settings [1027-1029]. The design of RADICALS HD was complex and included components of the RADICALS RT trial together with the RADICALS HD component. RADICALS RT was a phase III comparison of ART versus observation and early SRT and has been published previously [901] (see table 6.3.5.2).

RADICALS HD included men after prostatectomy (indications for ART or early SRT), median pre SRT-PSA was 0.2 ng/ml with conventional staging imaging (M0) without PET-CT. Due to the complex design some patients were enrolled in a three-way randomisation (including patients from RADICALS RT, $n = 492$) and in a two-way randomisation (SRT + 6 months- or 24 months ADT, $n = 1,197$). The randomisation was influenced by physician preference. For this reason, more patients had high risk factors in the short term ADT- versus long term ADT-study (ISUP >3: 29% versus 11% and for > pT3B-tumours: 31% vs. 17%) compared with the no ADT- and the short term ADT-study [1030].

With a median FU of nine years the ten-year MFS (primary endpoint, inclusion of deaths from PCa only) for no ADT vs. short term ADT showed no significant difference for both arms (88.1% vs. 89.9%, $p > 0.05$) but for "Clinical progression free survival" (68.3% versus 79.4%, $p < 0.0001$ with some evidence of non proportional hazards) and "10-year freedom from non protocol ADT" (73.3% vs. 82.3%, $p < 0.0001$ but with clear evidence of non-proportional hazards). Max. GU-Tox grade 3 was 16% (no ADT) versus 13% (short term ADT) ($p > 0.05$). With a median FU of 8.9 years the 10-year MFS (primary endpoint) in the second randomisation showed a moderate significant difference (78.1% vs. 71.9%) in favour of the long term ADT arm compared with the short term ADT arm ($p = 0.029$, HR 0.773). Comparable significant differences were seen for "Clinical progression free survival" and for "10-year freedom from non-protocol ADT". Max. GU-Tox grade 3 was 14% (short term ADT) vs. 20% (long term ADT).

The authors concluded, that the findings for short term ADT versus no ADT do not support the use of ADT in this patient population. For the comparison of long term ADT versus short term ADT the conclusion was that "individuals who can accept the additional duration of adverse effects, long-course ADT should be offered" with SRT.

Table 6.4.5 provides an overview of these five RCTs. One of these RCTs reports improved OS (RTOG 96-01), another (GETUG-AFU 16) improved moderately MFS (7%) at 10 years. The SPPORT trial improved FFP for all three arms and the distant metastasis rate only in the comparison of PBRT+ RT of the pelvic lymphatics + 6 month ADT what makes the interpretation difficult. The two arm comparison (SRT versus SRT + 6 months ADT) of RADICALS HD did not improve MFS after 10 years, this is in contrast to the results of the GETUG-AFU 16 trial. Only the comparison of SRT + 6 months ADT versus SRT+ 24 months ADT of RADICALS HD improved moderately 10 year MFS (6.2%). This improvement came on the cost of increased side effects of the additional 18 months ADT including a double rate of patients with testosterone-suppression after 10 years compared with 6 months of ADT [1031].

Due to methodological discrepancies and also related to follow-up and risk, it is, as yet, not evident which patients should receive ADT, which type of ADT, and for how long. Men at high risk of further progression (e.g., with a PSA ≥ 0.7 ng/mL and GS ≥ 8) may benefit from SRT combined with two years of ADT; for those at lower risk (e.g., PSA < 0.7 ng/mL and GS = 8) SRT combined with six months of ADT may be sufficient [1023]. Men with a low-risk profile (PSA < 0.5 ng/mL and GS < 8) and a PSA level < 0.5 ng/ml may receive SRT alone. In an unplanned subgroup-analysis [1032] (RTOG 96-01) of men with a PSA of 0.61 to 1.5 (n = 253) there was an OS benefit associated with antiandrogen assignment (HR: 0.61, 95% CI: 0.39–0.94) [1032]. In those receiving early SRT (PSA < 0.6 ng/mL, n = 389), there was no improvement in OS (HR: 1.16, 95% CI: 0.79–1.70), with increased other-cause mortality (sub-distribution HR: 1.94, 95% CI: 1.17–3.20, p = 0.01) and increased odds of late grades 3–5 cardiac and neurologic toxic side effects (OR: 3.57; 95% CI: 1.09–15.97, p = 0.05). These results suggest that pre-SRT PSA level may be a prognostic biomarker for outcomes of anti-androgen treatment with SRT. A SR addressing the benefit from combining HT with SRT suggested risk stratification of patients based on the pre-SRT PSA (< 0.5 , $0.6-1$, > 1 ng/mL), margin status and ISUP grade as a framework to individualise treatment [1033]. In addition, potential risk factors that should be considered are (short) PSA-doubling time and pT3b-4-tumours [1027, 1028, 1030].

In conclusion regarding the “weak” recommendation “offer hormonal therapy in addition to SRT to men with BCR we have different results of three RCT’s for additional short term ADT (6 months) to SRT. One showed an increase of MFS [1024], the second and third one did not [1025, 1028]. Of two RCT’s with long term ADT in addition to SRT one RCT showed a significant better OS [1023], the second one did not [1028] but this one showed a moderate increase in MFS with the cost of a higher rate of severe side effects. Additionally in RADICALS HD no subgroup analysis of risk factors was performed. To establish more precise recommendations 10-year results of the other RCT’s and the meta-analysis have to be awaited.

6.4.5.1.2.1 Target volume, dose, toxicity

There have been various attempts to define common outlines for ‘clinical target volumes’ for pN0 PCa [1034, 1035] and for organs at risk of normal tissue complications [1034]. However, given the variations of techniques and dose-constraints, a satisfactory consensus has not yet been achieved. A benefit in biochemical PFS but not MFS has been reported in patients receiving whole pelvis SRT (\pm ADT) but the advantages must be weighed against possible side effects [1026]. This is supported by data from the SPPORT trial (NRG Oncology/RTOG 0534 SPPORT) but it remains controversial [1025].

The optimal SRT dose has not been well defined. It should be at least 64 Gy to the prostatic fossa (\pm the base of the SVs, depending on the pathological stage after RP) [904, 1036]. In a SR, the pre-SRT PSA level and SRT dose both correlated with BCR, showing that relapse-free survival decreased by 2.4% per 0.1 ng/mL PSA and improved by 2.6% per Gy, suggesting that the treatment dose above 70 Gy should be administered at the lowest possible PSA level [1037]. The combination of pT stage, margin status and ISUP grade group and the PSA at SRT seems to define the risk of biochemical progression, metastasis and overall mortality [894, 1038]. In a study on 894 node-negative PCa patients, doses ranging from 64 to > 74 Gy were assigned to twelve risk groups defined by their pre-SRT PSA classes < 0.1 , $0.1-0.2$, $0.2-0.4$, and > 0.4 ng/mL and ISUP grade group < 1 vs. $2/3$ vs. > 4 [1039]. The updated Stephenson nomograms incorporate the SRT and ADT doses as predictive factors for biochemical failure and distant metastasis [1040].

Two RCT’s were published (Table 6.4.6). Intensity-modulated radiation therapy plus IGRT was used in 57% of the patients in the SAKK-trial [1041] and in all patients of a Chinese trial [1042]. No patient had a PSMA PET/CT before randomisation. The primary endpoint in both trials was ‘freedom from biochemical progression’, which was not significantly improved with higher doses. However, in the Chinese trial a subgroup analysis showed a significant improvement of this endpoint for patients with Gleason 8-10 tumours (66.5% vs. 30.2%, p = 0.012) and for multiple positive surgical margins (82.5% vs. 57.5%, p=0.037) [1042]. In this trial, patients were treated with ART or SRT and the number of patients was relatively small (n = 144). At this time it seems difficult to draw final conclusions about the optimal total RT-dose and longer follow-up should be awaited but subgroups of high-risk patients might profit from higher total doses.

Salvage RT is associated with toxicity. In one report on 464 SRT patients receiving median 66.6 (max. 72) Gy, acute grade 2 toxicity was recorded in 4.7% for both the GI and GU tract. Two men had late grade 3 reactions of the GI tract, but overall, severe GU tract toxicity was not observed. Late grade 2 complications occurred in 4.7% (GI tract) and 4.1% (GU tract), respectively, and 4.5% of the patients developed moderate urethral stricture [1043].

In a RCT on dose escalation for SRT (n = 350), acute grade 2 and 3 GU toxicity was observed in 13.0% and 0.6%, respectively, with 64 Gy and in 16.6% and 1.7%, respectively, with 70 Gy. Gastro-intestinal tract grades 2 and 3 toxicity occurred in 16.0% and 0.6%, respectively, with 64 Gy, and in 15.4% and 2.3%, respectively, with 70 Gy [1044, 1045]. Late grade 2 and 3 GI toxicity was significantly increased with higher doses but without significant differences in QoL. In this study, however, the rectal wall dose constraints were rather permissive and in 44% of the patients outdated 3-D-techniques were used [1041].

With dose escalation over 72 Gy and/or up to a median of 76 Gy, the rate of severe side effects, especially GU symptoms, clearly increases, even with newer planning and treatment techniques [1046, 1047]. In particular, when compared with 3D-CRT, IMRT was associated with a reduction in grade 2 GI toxicity from 10.2 to 1.9% (p = 0.02) but no effect on the relatively high level of GU toxicity was shown (5-year, 3D-CRT 15.8% vs. IMRT 16.8%) [1046]. However, in a RCT comparing 66 Gy and 72 Gy with all patients having IMRT plus IGRT (n = 144), no significant differences for GI and GU-toxicity was demonstrated [1048]. After a median salvage IMRT dose of 76 Gy however, the 5-year risk of grade 2–3 toxicity rose to 22% for GU and 8% for GI symptoms, respectively [1047]. Doses of at least 64 Gy and up to 72 Gy in patients without PET/CT can be recommended [1043, 1044].

Table 6.4.3: Selected studies of post-prostatectomy salvage radiotherapy, stratified by pre-salvage radiotherapy PSA level* (cTxcN0M0, without PET/CT)

Study	n	Median FU (mo)	pre-SRT PSA (ng/mL) median	RT dose ADT	bNED/PFS (year)	5-yr. results
Bartkowiak, et al. 2018 [1043]	464	71	0.31	66.6 Gy	54% (5.9)	73% vs. 56%; PSA < 0.2 vs. ≥ 0.2 ng/mL p < 0.0001
Stish, et al. 2016 [1015]	1,106	107	0.6	68 Gy 16% ADT	50% (5) 36% (10)	44% vs. 58%; PSA ≤ 0.5 vs. > 0.5 ng/mL p < 0.001
Tendulkar, et al. 2016 [1040]	2,460	60	0.5	66 Gy 16% ADT	56% (5)	Pre-SRT PSA 71% 0.01–0.2 ng/mL 63% 0.21–0.5 ng/mL 54% 0.51–1.0 ng/mL 43% 1.01–2.0 ng/mL 37% > 2.0 ng/mL p < 0.001
Tilki et al. 2023 [1020]	25,551 SRT at: PSA < 0.25 n=1,556 PSA > 0.25 n=1,677 No RT: n=21,645	72	Not given	Med. 68.4 Gy SRT+ADT:1489 ART:N= 673 ADT: 208	Not given	ACM (six years): HR 1.49 of higher risk when SRT at start was > 0.25 (p=0.008)

*Androgen deprivation therapy can influence the outcome 'biochemically no evidence of disease (bNED)' or 'progression-free survival'. To facilitate comparisons, 5-year bNED/PFS read-outs from Kaplan-Meier plots are included.

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; bNED = biochemically no evidence of disease; FU = follow up; mo = months; n = number of patients; PFS = progression-free survival; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; SRT = salvage radiotherapy; yr = year.

Table 6.4.4: Selected studies reporting clinical endpoints after SRT (cTxcN0M0, without PET/CT)
(the majority of included patients did not receive ADT)

Study	n	Median FU (mo)	Regimen	Outcome
Bartkowiak, <i>et al.</i> 2018 [1043]	464	71	66.6 (59.4-72) Gy no ADT	5.9 yr. OS post-SRT PSA < 0.1 ng/mL 98% post-SRT PSA ≥ 0.1 ng/mL 92% p = 0.005
Jackson, <i>et al.</i> 2014 [1049]	448	64	68.4 Gy no ADT	5 yr. DM post-SRT PSA < 0.1 ng/mL 5% post-SRT PSA ≥ 0.1 ng/mL 29% p < 0.0001 5 yr. DSM post-SRT PSA < 0.1 ng/mL 2% post-SRT PSA ≥ 0.1 ng/mL 7% p < 0.0001 OS post-SRT PSA < 0.1 ng/mL 97% post-SRT PSA ≥ 0.1 ng/mL 90% p < 0.0001
Stish, <i>et al.</i> 2016 [1015]	1,106	107	68 (64.8-70.2) Gy 39% 2D treatment planning incl. 16% ADT	5 and 8.9 yr. DM SRT: PSA ≤ 0.5 ng/mL 7% and 12% SRT: PSA > 0.5 ng/mL 14% and 23% p < 0.001 5 and 8.9 yr. DSM SRT: PSA ≤ 0.5 ng/mL < 1% and 6% SRT: PSA > 0.5 ng/mL 5% and 10% p = 0.02 5 and 8.9 yr. OS SRT: PSA ≤ 0.5 ng/mL 94% and 86% SRT: PSA > 0.5 ng/mL 91% and 78% p = 0.14
Tendulkar, <i>et al.</i> 2016 [1040]	2,460	60	66 (64.8-68.4) Gy incl. 16% ADT	10-yr. DM (19% all patients) Pre-SRT PSA 9% 0.01–0.2 ng/mL 15% 0.21–0.5 ng/mL 19% 0.51–1.0 ng/mL 20% 1.01–2.0 ng/mL 37% > 2.0 ng/mL p < 0.001

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; DM = distant metastasis; DSM = disease specific mortality;
FU = follow up; mo. = month; n = number of patients; OS = overall survival; PSA = prostate specific antigen;
SRT = salvage radiotherapy.

Table 6.4.5: Randomised controlled trials comparing salvage radiotherapy combined with androgen deprivation therapy vs. salvage radiotherapy alone

Study	n	Risk groups	Median FU (mo)	Regimen	Outcome
GETUG-AFU 16 2019 [1024]	369 SRT + ADT 374 RT	ISUP GG ≤ 2/3 89% SUP GG ≥ 4 11% cN0	112	66 Gy PBRT+ 6 mo. LHRH analogue 66 Gy PBRT	10-yr. PFS: RT + ADT, 64% PFS: RT, 49% p < 0.0001 MFS: RT + ADT, 75% MFS: RT, 69% p = 0.034
RTOG 9601 2017 [1023]	384 SRT + ADT 376 SRT	pT2 R1, pT3 cN0	156	64.8 Gy PBRT + bicalutamide 24 mo. 64.8 Gy PBRT + placebo	12-yr. cumulative DM RT + ADT: 14% RT + placebo: 23% p = 0.005 OS RT + ADT: 76% RT + placebo: 71% p = 0.04 DSM RT + ADT: 5.8% RT + placebo: 13.4% p < 0.001
NRG Oncology/ RTOG 0534 SPPORT [1025]	564 SRT 578 SRT + ADT 574 SRT + PBRT + ADT	pT2 or pT3 ISUP GG <5 Pre SRT PSA: 0.1-2.0	survivors: 8.2 years	64.8–0.2 Gy PBRT 64.8–70.2 Gy PBRT 6 mo. LHRH analogue 64.8–70.2 Gy PBRT + 45 Gy PLNRT 6 mo. LHRH analogue	5-yr. FFP (primary endpoint) 70.9% Group 1 81.3% Group 2 87.4% Group 3 Comparisons : G 3 vs. G 1: p < 0.0001 G 2 vs. G 1: p < 0.0001 G 3 vs. G 2: p < 0.0027
RADICALS HD 0 vs. 6 mo. ADT [1027]	737 SRT 747 SRT+ADT	ISUP >7 (11%) ≥ pT3b (17%) R1 (62%) PSA: < 0.3 (61%) ≥ 0.5 (19%) R1 (62%) N1 (3%)	108	52.5 Gy, 20 Fx PBRT (29%) 66 Gy, 33 Fx PBRT (69%) LHRH analogue (83%)	10-yr. MFS: SRT: 79.2% SRT+ADT: 80.4% p= 0.71; HR: 0.89 CPFS: SRT: 68.3% SRT+ADT: 79.4% p = 0.071, HR:0.54 Max.GU-Tox G 3: SRT: 16% SRT+ADT: 13% p>0.05
RADICALS HD 6 versus 24 months ADT [1028]	761 6 mo. ADT 762 24 mo. ADT	ISUP > 7 (29%) ≥ pT3b (31%) Med. Pre SRT PSA: 0.23 R1 (63%) N1 (8%)	107	52.5 Gy 20 Fx PBRT (19%) 66 Gy, 33 Fx PBRT (79%) LHRH analogue (84%)	10 year. MFS: SRT+6 mo.: 71.9% SRT+24 mo.: 78.1% p = 0.029, HR: 0.77 Max.GU-Tox G3: SRT+6 mo.: 14% SRT+24 mo.:20% p = 0.025

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; CPFS= clinical progression free survival; DM = distant metastasis; DSM = disease specific mortality; PFS = progression free survival; FFP = Freedom From Progression; FU = follow-up; LHRH = luteinising hormone-releasing hormone; MFS = metastasis-free survival; OS = overall survival; PFS = progression-free survival; mo = months; n = number of patients; RT = radiotherapy; yr = year, PBRT = prostate bed radiotherapy; PLNRT = pelvic lymph node radiotherapy.

Table 6.4.6: Randomised trials investigating dose escalation for SRT without ADT and without PET-CT

Trial	n	PCa condition	Radiotherapy Dose	Follow-up (median)	Outcome	Results
SAKK 09/10 trial, 2021 [904]	350	pT2a-3b R0 – R1 pN0 or cN0 PSA post op undetectable (< 0.1 ng/mL) or persistent (> 0.1 ng/mL < 0.4 ng/mL)	64 Gy vs. 70 Gy No ADT allowed VMAT+ IGRT: 57% 3-D planning: 43%	6.2 yr.	Primary endpoint: FFBP	6 yr. FFBP: 62% vs. 61% OS: no difference Late side effects: GI grade 2: 7.3% vs. 20% GI grade 3: 4.2% vs. 2.3% p for ≥ grade 2/3: 0.009
Phase-III-Trial Qi X, et al., 2024 [1042]	144 ART: 33% SRT: 67%	pT2-4 R0-R1 pN0 or cN0 Med. PSA pre-RT: 0.2 ng/mL	66 Gy vs. 72 Gy All patients VMAT+ IGRT No ADT allowed High risk (pT3-4, GS: 8-10, PSA >20 ng/mL): whole pelvis RT: 126 (87.5%)	89.5 mo.	Primary endpoint: FFBP	7 yr. FFBP: 70.3% vs. 61.2% (p > 0.05) High risk (GS: 8–10): 66.5% vs. 30.2% p < 0.012 HR: 0.73 Multiple SR+: 82.5% vs. 57.5% p=0.037 HR: 0.36 Late side effects: GI + GU grade 2 p > 0.05 No grade 3

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; ART = adjuvant radiotherapy; FFBP = freedom from biochemical failure; GI = gastro-intestinal; GU = genito-urinary; Gy = Gray; IGRT = image guided radiotherapy; mo = month; n = number of patients; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; RT = radiotherapy; SRT = year; vs. = versus; VMAT = volumetric arc radiation therapy.

6.4.5.1.2.2 Salvage radiotherapy with or without ADT (cTx cN0/1) with PET/CT

In a prospective multi-centre study of 323 patients with BCR, PSMA PET/CT changed the management intent in 62% of patients as compared to conventional staging. This was due to a significant reduction in the number of men in whom the site of disease recurrence was unknown (77% vs. 19%, $p < 0.001$) and a significant increase in the number of men with metastatic disease (11% vs. 57%) [1050]. A prospective study in a subgroup of 119 BCR patients with low PSA (< 0.5 ng/mL) reported a change in the intended treatment in 30.2% of patients [1003]; however, no data exist on the impact on final outcome.

Another prospective study in 272 patients with early biochemical recurrent PCa after RP showed that ^{68}Ga -PSMA PET/CT may tailor further therapy decisions (e.g., local vs. systemic treatment) at low PSA values (0.2–1 ng/mL) [1051].

A multi-centre retrospective study evaluated patients who underwent SRT for BCR after RP, without any signs of distant metastatic disease on PET/CT. After case-control matching, two cohorts ($n = 108$ patients each), with and without PSMA PET/CT prior to SRT were analysed. In the cohort without PSMA PET/CT, 23 patients (21%) had BCR at one year after SRT vs. nine patients (8%) who underwent restaging with PSMA PET/CT prior to SRT ($p = 0.007$). PSMA-PET/CT was found to be associated with an improved oncological outcome in patients with BCR after RP, receiving SRT to the prostatic fossa [1052]. It is worth mentioning that in this study the median biologically effective radiation dose administered in the PSMA-cohort was significantly higher than in the historical cohort (70 Gy vs. 66 Gy, respectively, $p < 0.001$).

A single-centre open-label, phase II/III RCT (EMPIRE-1) evaluated the role of ^{18}F -fluciclovine-PET/CT compared with conventional imaging for SRT. Three hundred and sixty five patients with detectable PSA after RP but negative results on conventional imaging, were randomised to RT directed by conventional imaging alone or to conventional imaging plus PET/CT; patients with M1 disease in the PET/CT group ($n = 4$) were excluded. Patients with cN1 were irradiated to the pelvic lymphatics but without a boost to the metastasis. Median follow up was 3.5 years. In adjusted analyses, the study group was significantly associated with an improvement of the event-free survival (HR: 2.04, 95% CI: 1.06–3.93, $p = 0.0327$) [1007].

6.4.5.1.2.3 Nodal-directed therapy for rcN1 (with PET/CT)

Radiolabelled PSMA PET/CT is increasingly used as a diagnostic tool to assess metastatic disease burden in patients with BCR following prior definitive therapy. A review including 30 studies and 4,476 patients showed overall estimates of positivity in a restaging setting of 38% in pelvic LNs and 13% in extra-pelvic LN metastases [991]. The percentage positivity of PSMA PET/CT was proven to increase with higher PSA values [991]. Results of this review demonstrated a high sensitivity and specificity of ^{68}Ga -PSMA in advanced PCa, with a per-lesion-analysed sensitivity and specificity of 75% and 99%, respectively.

A large retrospective international study included patients with LN-recurrent PCa (cN1 and M1a) and PSA progression following multi-modality treatment (surgery and post-operative RT) [1053]. The aim of the study was to compare SOC with nodal metastasis-directed therapy (MDT). The nodal MDT-group showed significantly better CSS than the SOC control group (5-year survival 98.6% vs. 95.7%, $p < 0.01$, respectively) [1053].

Another retrospective study compared stereotactic body radiation therapy (SABR) with elective nodal irradiation (ENRT) in nodal oligo-recurrent PCa ($n = 506$ patients, 365 of which with N1 pelvic recurrence). With a median follow-up of 36 months, ENRT ($n = 197$) was associated with a significant reduction of nodal recurrences ($p < 0.001$), compared with SABR ($n=309$) of 2% vs. 18%, respectively. In a multi-variable analysis, patients with one LN at recurrence had longer adjusted MFS after ENRT (HR: 0.50, 95% CI: 0.30–0.85, $p = 0.009$). The tendency to relapse was higher for pelvic- than extra-pelvic nodes ($p < 0.001$) [1054]. For patients presenting with two or more (extra)pelvic LNs, adjusted MFS was not significantly different (HR: 0.92, 95% CI: 0.54– 1.59, $p = 0.8$). In these situations, SABR should be used in highly selected patients in prospective cohorts or clinical trials only, before any recommendations can be made.

Long term outcomes have been reported from a prospective single arm study with extended-nodal radiotherapy (ENRT) and (11C)-choline PET-CT guided simultaneous integrated boost to positive lymph nodes in 60 patients [1055] 34 (56.7%) had a pelvic recurrence only. Median PSA relapse was 2.3 ng/ml and med. number of positive LN was 2. ADT was prescribed for 48/60 pts., median duration was 30.7 months, with 15/60 pts. had a castration-resistant PCa at diagnosis metastasis. The distant metastasis free-survival at ten years of the entire group was 45.2% [1055].

There is only one prospective Phase-II-trial (GETUG P07-OLIGOPELVIS) investigating the clinical outcome of IMRT+ADT in 67 patients with oligorecurrent (≤ 5) pelvic node relapses in fluorocholine positron-emission tomography CT-imaging [1056]. However, 61% of the patients had one positive node only. Median FU was 6.1 years. The 5-years PFS, bNED and ADT-free survival was 39%, 31% and 64% after elective RT of the pelvic lymphatics and 6 months ADT (LHRH agonist and antagonist). G 2+ 5-years GI and GU tox were 4% and 4%. The major site of relapse was para-aortic lymph nodes [1056].

In these situations, ENRT or SABR should be used in highly selected patients in prospective cohorts or clinical trials only, before any recommendations can be made. The optimal duration of ADT is uncertain and durations > 6 months are likely to be more effective. For MDT in M1 patients see section 6.6.7.

6.4.5.1.3 Salvage lymph node dissection

The surgical management of recurrent nodal metastases in the pelvis has been the topic of several retrospective analyses [1057-1059] and a SR [1060]. The reported 5-year BCR-free survival rates ranged from 6% to 31%. Five-year OS was approximately 84% [1060]. Biochemical recurrence rates were found to be dependent on PSA at salvage surgery and location and number of positive nodes [1061]. Addition of RT to the lymphatic template after salvage LN dissection may improve the BCR rate [1062]. In a multi-centre retrospective study long-term outcomes of 189 patients who underwent salvage LN dissection were reported to be worse than previously described in studies with shorter follow-up [1063]. Biochemical recurrence (BCR)-free survival at ten years was 11%. Patients with a PSA response after salvage LN dissection and patients receiving ADT within six months from salvage LN dissection had a lower risk of death from PCa [1063]. The majority of the patients (81%) had received a choline PET and median PSA at salvage LN dissection was 2.5 ng/mL. In a cohort study including patients treated with salvage LN dissection via PSMA--radioguided surgery (PSMA-RGS), 2-year BCR-free survival rate was 32% [1064]. In multi-variable analyses, higher pre-operative PSA, higher number of PSMA-avid lesions, multiple (pelvic plus retroperitoneal), and retroperitoneal localisation of lesions at pre-operative imaging were independent predictors of BCR after PSMA-RGS. High-level evidence for the oncological value of salvage LN dissection (including adjuvant RT of the LNs) is still lacking [1060].

6.4.5.2 Management of PSA failures after radiation therapy

Therapeutic options in these patients are ADT or salvage local procedures, as well as a 'wait and see' approach, based on EAU BCR risk categories at relapse. A SR and meta-analysis included studies comparing the efficacy and toxicity of salvage RP, salvage HIFU, salvage cryotherapy, SBRT, salvage LDR BT, and salvage HDR BT in the management of locally recurrent PCa after primary radical EBRT [1065]. The outcomes were BCR-free survival at two and five years. No significant differences with regards to recurrence-free survival (RFS) between these modalities was found. Five-year RFS ranged from 50% after cryotherapy to 60% after HDR BT and SBRT. The authors reported that severe GU toxicity exceeded 21% for whole-gland HIFU and RP, whereas it ranged from 4.2% to 8.1% with re-irradiation. Differences in severe GI toxicity also appeared to favour re-irradiation, particularly HDR BT [1065]. Due to the methodological limitations of this review (the majority of the included studies were uncontrolled single-arm case series and there was considerable heterogeneity in the definitions of core outcomes) the available evidence for these treatment options is of low quality and strong recommendations regarding the choice of any of these techniques cannot be made. The following is an overview of the most important findings for each of these techniques. Salvage cryo-therapy and focal HIFU are discussed in section 6.4.5.2.2

6.4.5.2.1 Salvage radical prostatectomy

Salvage RP after RT is associated with a higher likelihood of AEs compared to primary surgery because of the risk of fibrosis and poor wound healing due to radiation [1066].

6.4.5.2.1.1 Oncological outcomes

In a SR of the literature, Saouli *et al.*, showed using data from 3836 patients in 55 studies across median follow-up ranging 4.6 – 94 months that SRP provided five-year BCR occurrence 48-59%, cancer-specific survival 13.4-98% and OS 62-100% [1067]. These figures are similar to those reported by Chade *et al.*, in 2011, with 5-year and 10-year BCR-free survival estimates ranging from 47–82% and from 28–53%, respectively. The 10-year CSS and OS rates ranged from 70–83% and from 54–89%, respectively. The pre-SRP PSA value and initial prostate biopsy ISUP grade group were the strongest predictors of the presence of organ-confined disease, progression, and CSS [1068]. In a multi-centre analysis including 414 patients, 5-year BCR-free survival, CSS and OS were 56.7%, 97.7% and 92.1%, respectively [1069]. Pathological T stage \geq T3b (OR: 2.348) and GS (up to OR: 7.183 for GS > 8) were independent predictors for BCR. Appropriate risk-stratification according to EAU Guidelines Biochemical Recurrence criteria may better select for SRP, with higher metastasis-free (90% vs 76%, $p < 0.01$) and OS (89% vs 84%, $p = 0.01$) for low versus high EAU risk [1070, 1071].

Lymphadenectomy was performed in most cases (79%), with 20.5% of patients staged N+ at final pathology [1067]. Detailed analysis of a multi-institutional series of 853 SRP patients reported that 87% underwent lymphadenectomy, 21% were pN1 and these patients suffered worse overall and cancer-specific survival [1072]. Like in primary surgery, patients with persistent PSA after SRP (42%) had worse BCR-free (6.6 vs 59%), metastasis-free (71 vs. 88%) and OS (77 vs. 94%) after median follow-up of 84 months according to a retrospective, multi-institutional series of 580 patients [1073]. Persistent PSA after SRP was shown to be an independent predictor for BCR and death.

6.4.5.2.1.2 Morbidity

Most reported cases have been open (60%) and robotic-assisted (38%) resulting in an overall complication rate of 34%, with major (Clavien grade \geq 3) complications occurring across a range 0 to 64% [1067]. Compared to primary open RP, SRP is associated with a higher risk of later anastomotic stricture (47 vs. 5.8%), urinary retention (25.3% vs. 3.5%), urinary fistula (4.1% vs. 0.06%), abscess (3.2% vs. 0.7%) and rectal injury (9.2 vs. 0.6%) [1074]. These complications appear to be less common with robotic compared to open surgery [1066, 1068, 1075].

Functional outcomes are also worse compared to primary surgery considering urinary incontinence (47.9%, range 21% to 90%) and ED in nearly all patients [1067, 1068, 1075].

Complications may be lower and functional outcomes may be better with the robotic-assisted approach but certainty of evidence is low [1071].

6.4.5.2.1.3 Summary of salvage radical prostatectomy

In general, SRP should be considered only in patients with low co-morbidity, a life expectancy of at least ten years, a pre-SRP PSA < 10 ng/mL and initial biopsy ISUP grade group \leq 2/3, localised disease (N0M0) according to re-staging, and those whose initial clinical staging was T1 or T2 [1068].

6.4.5.2.2 Salvage cryoablation of the prostate

6.4.5.2.2.1 Oncological outcomes

Salvage cryoablation of the prostate (SCAP) has been proposed as an alternative to salvage RP, as it has a potentially lower risk of morbidity and equal efficacy.

In a SR a total of 32 studies assessed SCAP, recruiting a total of 5,513 patients. The overwhelming majority of patients (93%) received whole-gland SCAP. The adjusted pooled analysis for 2-year BCR-free survival for SCAP was 67.49% (95% CI: 61.68–72.81%), and for 5-year BCR-free survival was 50.25% (95% CI: 44.10–56.40%). However, the certainty of the evidence was low. Table 6.4.7 summarises the results of a selection of the largest series on SCAP to date in relation to oncological outcomes (BCR only) [1065].

Table 6.4.7: Oncological results of selected salvage cryoablation of the prostate case series, including at least 250 patients

Study	n	Median FU (mo)	Time point of outcome measurement (yr)	BCR-free probability	Definition of failure
Ginsburg <i>et al.</i> 2017 [1076]	898	19.0	5 yr	71.3%	Phoenix criteria
Spiess <i>et al.</i> 2010 [1077]	450	40.8	3.4 yr	39.6%	PSA > 0.5 ng/mL
Li <i>et al.</i> 2015 [1078]	486	18.2	5 yr	63.8%	Phoenix criteria
Kovac <i>et al.</i> 2016 [1079]	486	18.2	5 yr	75.5% (nadir PSA < 0.4 ng/mL); 22.1% (nadir PSA ≥ 0.4 ng/mL)	Phoenix criteria
Ahmad <i>et al.</i> 2013 [1080]	283	23.9	3 yr	67.0% (nadir PSA ≤ 1 ng/mL); 14.0% (nadir PSA > 1 ng/mL)	Phoenix criteria
Pisters <i>et al.</i> 2008 [1081]	279	21.6	5 yr	58.9% (ASTRO) 54.5% (Phoenix)	ASTRO and Phoenix criteria

ASTRO = American Society for Therapeutic Radiology and Oncology; BCR = biochemical recurrence; FU = follow-up; mo. = months; n = number of patients; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; yr. = year.

6.4.5.2.3 Salvage re-irradiation

6.4.5.2.3.1 Salvage brachytherapy for radiotherapy failure

Carefully selected patients with a good PS, primary localised PCa, good urinary function and histologically proven local recurrence are candidates for salvage BT using either HDR or LDR.

In a SR a total of 16 studies (4 prospective) and 32 studies (2 prospective) assessed salvage HDR and LDR BT, respectively, with the majority (> 85%) receiving whole-gland BT rather than focal treatment [1065]. The adjusted pooled analysis for 2-year BCR-free survival for HDR was 77% (95% CI: 70–83%) and for LDR was 81% (95% CI: 74–86%). The 5-year BCR-free survival for HDR was 60% (95% CI: 52–67%) and for LDR was 56% (95% CI: 48–63%). As noted above, BT techniques are associated with lower rates of severe GU toxicity when compared to RP or HIFU, at 8% for HDR (95% CI: 5.1–11%) and 8.1% for LDR (95% CI: 4.3–13%). Rates of severe GI toxicity are reported to be very low at 0% for HDR (95% CI: 0–0.2%) and 1.5% for LDR (95% CI: 0.2–3.4%). High-dose-rate or LDR BT are effective treatment options with an acceptable toxicity profile. However, the published series are small and likely under-report toxicity. Consequently, this treatment should be offered in experienced centres ideally within randomised clinical trials or prospective registry studies (see Table 6.4.8).

Table 6.4.8: Treatment-related toxicity and BCR-free probability in selected salvage brachytherapy studies including at least 100 patients.

Study	Study design	n and BT type	Median FU (mo)	Treatment toxicity	BCR-free probability
Lopez <i>et al.</i> 2019 [1082]	multi-centre retrospective	75 HDR 44 LDR	52	23.5% late G3+ GU	5 yr 71% (95% CI: 65.9-75.9%)
Crook <i>et al.</i> 2019 [1083]	multi-centre prospective	100 LDR	54	14% late G3 combined GI/GU	n.r.
Smith <i>et al.</i> 2020 [1084]	single-centre retrospective	108 LDR	76	15.7%/2.8% late G3 GU/GI	5 yr. 63.1% 10 yr. 52%
Lyczek <i>et al.</i> 2009 [1085]	single-centre retrospective	115 HDR	n.r.	12.2%/0.9% late G3+ GU/GI	60% at 40 mo.

BT = brachytherapy; CI = confidence interval; G = grade; GI = gastro-intestinal; GU = genito-urinary; HDR = high-dose rate; LDR = low-dose rate; mo = months; n = number of patients; n.r. = not reported; yr = year.

6.4.5.2.3.2 Salvage stereotactic ablative body radiotherapy for radiotherapy failure

6.4.5.2.3.2.1 Oncological outcomes and morbidity

Stereotactic ablative body radiotherapy (CyberKnife® or linac-based treatment) is a potentially viable new option to treat local recurrence after RT. Carefully selected patients with good IPSS-score, without obstruction, good PS and histologically proven localised local recurrence are potential candidates for SABR. In a metaanalysis and SR five mostly retrospective studies including 206 patients were treated with CyberKnife® or linac-based treatment showing 2-year RFS estimates (61.6%, 95% CI: 52.6–69.9%) [1065]. In a retrospective multi-centre study (n = 100) the median pre-salvage PSA was 4.3 ng/mL with 34% of patients having received ADT for twelve months (median). All recurrences were biopsy proven. Patients were treated with the CyberKnife® with a single dose of 6 Gy in six daily fractions (total dose 36 Gy). With a median followup of 30 months the estimated 3-year second BCR-free survival was 55% [1086].

In a smaller retrospective series including 50 men with histologically proven local recurrence with a median pre-salvage PSA of 3.9 ng/mL only 15% had received additional ADT. The estimated 5-year second BCR-free survival was 60% (median follow-up of 44 months) which is an outcome comparable to series treating patients with RP, HIFU or BT [1087]. Table 6.4.9 summarises the results of the two larger SABR series addressing oncological outcomes and morbidity.

Table 6.4.9: Treatment-related toxicity and BCR-free survival in selected SABR studies

Study	Study design	n and RT-type	Median FU (mo)	Fractionation (SD/TD)	ADT	Treatment toxicity	BCR-free survival
Bergamin <i>et al.</i> 2020 [1088]	single-centre prospective	25 LINAC based	25	SD 6-6.2 TD 36-38 Gy	0/25	2 yr. late G1 GI 8% G2 GU 4%	2 yr. 80%
Fuller <i>et al.</i> 2020 [1087]	single-centre retrospective	50 Cyber Knife	44	SD 6.8 Gy TD 34 Gy	7/50	5 yr: 8% late G3+ GU	5 yr. 60%
Pasquier <i>et al.</i> 2020 [1086]	multi-centre retrospective	100 Cyber Knife	30	SD 6 Gy TD 36 Gy	34/100 median 12 mo.	3 yr. grade 2+ GU 20.8% GI 1%	3 yr. 55%

BCR = biochemical recurrence; FU = follow-up; mo = months; n = number of patients; RT-type = type of radiotherapy; SD = single dose; TD = total dose; yr = year.

6.4.5.2.3.2.2 Morbidity

In a retrospective single-centre study with 50 consecutive patients chronic significant toxicity was only seen for the GU domain with 5-year grade 2+ and grade 3+ GU rates of 17% and 8%, respectively. No GI toxicity > grade 1 was seen. Of note, of the fifteen patients who were sexually potent pre-salvage SBRT, twelve subsequently lost potency [1087]. In a retrospective French (GETUG) multi-centre series (n = 100) the 3-year late grade 2+ GU and GI toxicity was 20.8% (95% CI: 13–29%) and 1% (95% CI: 0.1–5.1%), respectively [1086]. A SR and meta-analysis demonstrated salvage SABR resulted in comparable rates of G3+ GU toxicity when compared to salvage cryotherapy and brachytherapy, but substantially lower rates than salvage HIFU [1089].

6.4.5.2.3.3 Summary of salvage stereotactic ablative body radiotherapy

Despite the encouraging results so far the number of patients treated with SABR is relatively limited. In view of the rates of higher grade 2+ GU side effects, SABR should only be offered to selected patients, in experienced centres as part of a clinical trial or well-designed prospective study.

6.4.5.2.4 Salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound

6.4.5.2.4.1 Oncological outcomes

Salvage HIFU has emerged as an alternative thermal ablation option for radiation-recurrent PCa. Being relatively newer than SCAP the data for salvage HIFU are even more limited. A SR and meta-analysis included 20 studies (n = 1,783) assessing salvage HIFU [1065], which was also confirmed by another SR and meta-analysis [1089]. The overwhelming majority of patients (86%) received whole-gland salvage HIFU. The adjusted pooled analysis for 2-year BCR-free survival for salvage HIFU was 54.14% (95% CI: 47.77–60.38%) and for 5-year BCR-free survival 52.72% (95% CI: 42.66– 62.56%). However, the certainty of the evidence was low. Table 6.4.10 summarises the results of a selection of the largest series on salvage HIFU to date in relation to oncological outcomes (BCR only).

Table 6.4.10: Oncological results of selected salvage cryoablation of the prostate case series, including at least 250 patients

Study	n	Median FU (mo)	Time point of outcome measurement (yr)	BCR-free probability	Definition of failure
Crouzet <i>et al.</i> 2017 [1090]	418	39.6	5	49.0%	Phoenix criteria
Murat <i>et al.</i> 2009 [1091]	167	Mean 18.1	3	25.0% (high-risk) 53.0% (low-risk)*	Phoenix criteria or positive biopsy or initiation of post-HIFU salvage therapy
Kanthabalan <i>et al.</i> 2017 [1092]	150	35.0	3	48.0%	Phoenix criteria
Jones <i>et al.</i> 2018 [1093]	100	12.0	1	50.0%	Nadir PSA > 0.5 ng/mL or positive biopsy

*Results stratified by pre-EBRT D'Amico risk groups.

BCR = biochemical recurrence; FU = follow-up; mo = months; n = number of patients; yr = year.

6.4.5.2.4.2 Morbidity

The main adverse effects and complications relating to salvage HIFU include urinary incontinence, urinary retention due to bladder outflow obstruction, rectourethral fistula and ED. The SR and meta-analysis showed an adjusted pooled analysis for severe GU toxicity for salvage HIFU of 22.66% (95% CI: 16.98–28.85%) [1065]. The certainty of the evidence was low. Table 6.4.11 summarises the results of a selection of the largest series on salvage HIFU to date in relation to GU outcomes.

Table 6.4.11: Peri-operative morbidity, erectile function and urinary incontinence in selected salvage HIFU case series, including at least 100 patients

Study	n	Time point of outcome measurement (yr)	Incontinence* (%)	Obstruction/retention (%)	Rectourethral fistula (%)	ED (%)
Crouzet <i>et al.</i> 2017 [1090]	418	Median 39.6	42.3	18.0	2.3	n.r.
Murat <i>et al.</i> 2009 [1091]	167	Median 18.1	49.5	7.8	3.0	n.r.
Kanthabalan <i>et al.</i> 2017 [1092]	150	24	12.5	8.0	2.0	41.7
Jones <i>et al.</i> 2018 [1093]	100	12	42.0	49.0	5.0	74.0

*Incontinence was heterogeneously defined; figures represent at least 1 pad usage.

ED = erectile dysfunction; n.r. = not reported; n = number of patients.

6.4.5.2.4.3 Summary of salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound

There is a lack of high-certainty data which prohibits any recommendations regarding the indications for salvage HIFU in routine clinical practice. There is also a risk of significant morbidity associated with its use in the salvage setting. Consequently, salvage HIFU should only be performed in selected patients in experienced centres as part of a clinical trial or well-designed prospective cohort study.

6.4.6 Hormonal therapy for relapsing patients

The objective of HT should be to improve OS, postpone distant metastases, and improve QoL. Biochemical response alone to HT holds no clinical benefit for a patient. The Panel conducted a SR including studies published from 2000 onwards [1094]. Conflicting results were found on the clinical effectiveness of HT after previous curative therapy. Some studies reported a favourable effect of HT, including the only RCT addressing the research question of this review (86% vs. 79% advantage in OS in the early HT group) [1095]. Other studies did not find any differences between early vs. delayed, or no, HT. One study found an unfavourable effect of HT [1096]. Variability appears to be driven by heterogeneous tumour biology with only a minority progressing to metastases or PCA-related death. For older patients and those with comorbidities the side effects of HT may even decrease life expectancy; in particular cardiovascular risk factors need to be considered [1097, 1098]. The benefit of early HT seems most evident in high-risk patients, mainly defined by a high ISUP GG and a short PSA-DT (most often less than six months) and a long-life expectancy [1099].

This is supported in a three-arm randomised phase III trial (EMBARK) which evaluated response in patients with prostate cancer who had high-risk biochemical recurrence defined as a PSA-DT of ≤ 9 months and a PSA level of ≥ 2 ng/mL above the nadir after radiation therapy or ≥ 1 ng/mL after radical prostatectomy with or without postoperative radiation therapy [1100]. Patients were randomly assigned 1:1:1 to receive enzalutamide daily plus leuprolide every 12 weeks (combination group), placebo plus leuprolide (leuprolide-alone group), or enzalutamide monotherapy (monotherapy group). The primary end point was MFS, in the combination group as compared with the leuprolide-alone group. The MFS in the monotherapy group as compared with the leuprolide-alone group was a key secondary endpoint. A total of 1068 patients were randomised. After a median follow-up of 60.7 months, the five year - MFS was 87.3% (95% CI, 83.0 - 90.6) in the combination group, 71.4% (95% CI, 65.7 - 76.3) in the leuprolide-alone group, and 80.0% (95% CI, 75.0 - 84.1) in the monotherapy group. The combination of enzalutamide plus leuprolide was superior to leuprolide alone with regards to the MFS (HR 0.42; 95% CI, 0.30 - 0.61; $P < 0.001$). Enzalutamide monotherapy also showed a superior MFS compared to leuprolide alone (HR 0.63; 95% CI, 0.46 - 0.87; $p = 0.005$). These results led to the FDA approval for enzalutamide alone or in combination with ADT for patients with high-risk biochemical recurrence in November 2023 [1101]. At the time of the MFS analysis, OS data were immature with 12% deaths in the overall population.

Also, an intermittent treatment approach can be considered. Enzalutamide treatment can be suspended if PSA is undetectable (< 0.2 ng/mL) after 36 weeks of therapy. Treatment may be reinitiated when PSA has increased to ≥ 2.0 ng/mL for patients who had prior radical prostatectomy or ≥ 5.0 ng/mL for patients who had prior primary radiation therapy. There were no new safety signals. Of note, at a median follow-up of five years, the overall percentage of patients who had fractures was 14% [1102].

Another three-arm-randomised phase-III trial (PRESTO) evaluated patients with biochemical recurrence defined as a PSA-DT < 9 months with a median PSA of 1.8 ng/mL [1103]. Patients were randomly assigned 1:1:1 to receive (52-week treatment) ADT-control, ADT + apalutamide, or ADT + apalutamide + Abiraterone acetate plus prednisolone (AAP). A total of 503 patients were randomised. At the first interim analysis after a median follow up of 21.5 months both experimental arms showed a moderate, significant prolonged PSA-PFS compared with the control arm (24.9 months for ADT + apalutamide versus 20.3 months for ADT (HR 0.52, p = 0.00047 and 26 months for ADT + apalutamide + AAP versus 20.0 months for ADT (HR 0.48, p = 0.00008). The most common grade > 3 AE was hypertension (7.5%, 7.4% and 18% in ADT, ADT + apalutamide and ADT + apalutamide + AAP). These are results of the first planned interim analysis and longer follow up for definitive conclusions should be awaited.

A Scandinavian Phase-III-trial (SPCG-14) [1104] evaluated the effect of docetaxel added to bicalutamide in hormone-naïve non-metastatic PCa with a rising PSA after radical treatment (prostatectomy or radiotherapy, n = 315) or not suitable for curative treatment (n = 3). Between 2009 and 2018 348 patients were randomized, median follow up was 4.9 years. Adding docetaxel improved PFS (HR 0.68, p = 0.015) at the cost of 27% of one event of neutropenic infection/fever. There were no data on metastasis-free-survival. It is therefore too early to consider recommending at this time no recommendation for adding docetaxel in this setting of PSA-recurrence only can be given.

6.4.7 **Observation**

In unselected relapsing patients the median actuarial time to the development of metastasis will be eight years and the median time from metastasis to death will be a further five years [884]. For patients with EAU Low-Risk BCR features, unfit patients with a life expectancy of less than ten years or patients unwilling to undergo salvage treatment, active follow-up may represent a viable option.

6.4.8 **Recommendations for second-line therapy after treatment with curative intent**

Local salvage treatment	Strength rating
Recommendations for biochemical recurrence (BCR) after radical prostatectomy	
Offer early salvage intensity-modulated radiotherapy/volumetric arc radiation therapy plus image-guided radiotherapy to men with two consecutive prostate-specific antigen (PSA) rises.	Strong
A negative positron emission tomography/computed tomography (PET/CT) scan should not delay salvage radiotherapy (SRT), if otherwise indicated.	Strong
Offer monitoring, including PSA, to EAU low-Risk BCR patients.	Weak
Do not wait for a PSA threshold before starting treatment. Once the decision for SRT has been made, SRT (at least 64 Gy) should be given as soon as possible.	Strong
Offer hormonal therapy in addition to SRT to men with BCR.	Weak
Recommendations for BCR after radiotherapy	
Offer monitoring, including PSA to EAU low-risk BCR patients.	Weak
Only offer salvage radical prostatectomy (RP), brachytherapy, stereotactic body radiotherapy, high-intensity focused ultrasound, or cryosurgical ablation to highly selected patients with biopsy-proven local recurrence within a clinical trial setting or well-designed prospective cohort study undertaken in experienced centres.	Strong
Recommendations for systemic salvage treatment	
Do not offer androgen deprivation therapy to M0 patients with a PSA-doubling time > 12 months.	Strong
Offer enzalutamide with or without ADT to M0 patients with a high-risk BCR, defined as a PSA doubling time of ≤ 9 months and a PSA level of ≥ 2ng/mL above nadir after radiation therapy or ≥ 1 ng/mL after radical prostatectomy with or without postoperative radiation therapy.	Strong
Recommendations for follow-up after radical prostatectomy or radiotherapy	
Routinely follow-up asymptomatic patients by obtaining at least a disease-specific history and serum PSA measurement.	Strong
At recurrence, only perform imaging if the result will affect treatment planning.	Strong

6.5 Systemic treatments for prostate cancer

6.5.1 Hormonal therapy

Androgen deprivation can be achieved by suppressing the secretion of testicular androgens in different ways.

6.5.1.1 Castration level

The castration level of testosterone is < 50 ng/dL (1.7 nmol/L), defined more than 40 years ago when testosterone testing was less sensitive. Current methods have shown that the mean value after surgical castration is 15 ng/dL [1035]. Therefore, a more appropriate level should be defined as < 20 ng/dL (< 0.7 nmol/L). This definition is important as better results are repeatedly observed in ADT monotherapy cohorts with lower testosterone levels compared to 50 ng/dL [1036-1038]. However, the castrate level considered by the regulatory authorities and in clinical trials addressing castration in PCa is still the historical < 50 ng/dL (1.7 nmol/L).

6.5.1.2 Bilateral orchiectomy

Bilateral orchiectomy or subcapsular pulpectomy is still considered the primary treatment modality for ADT. It is a simple, cheap and low-complication procedure. It is easily performed under local anaesthesia, and it is the quickest way to achieve a castration level which is usually reached within less than twelve hours. It is irreversible and therefore does not allow for intermittent treatment [1039].

6.5.1.3 Luteinising-hormone-releasing hormone agonists

Long-acting LHRH agonists are currently the main forms of ADT. These synthetic analogues of LHRH are delivered as depot injections on a 1-, 3-, 6-monthly, or yearly basis. The first injection induces a transient rise in luteinising hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) leading to the 'testosterone surge' or 'flare-up' phenomenon which starts two to three days after administration and lasts for about one week. This may lead to detrimental clinical effects (the clinical flare) such as increased bone pain, acute bladder outlet obstruction, obstructive renal failure, spinal cord compression, and cardiovascular death due to hypercoagulation status [1105]. Patients at risk are usually those with high-volume symptomatic bony disease. Concomitant therapy with an anti-androgen decreases the incidence of clinical flare but does not completely remove the risk. Anti-androgen therapy is usually continued for 4 weeks but neither the timing nor the duration of anti-androgen therapy are based on strong evidence. In addition, the long-term impact of preventing 'flare up' is unknown [1106].

Chronic exposure to LHRH agonists results in the down-regulation of LHRH-receptors, suppressing LH and FSH secretion and therefore testosterone production. A castration level is usually obtained within 2 to 4 weeks [1107]. Although there is no formal direct comparison between the various compounds, they are considered to be equally effective [1108]. So far, no survival difference between LHRH agonists and orchiectomy has been reported due to the lack of high-quality trials [1109]. The different products have practical differences that need to be considered in everyday practice, including the storage temperature, whether a drug is ready for immediate use or requires reconstitution, and whether a drug is given by subcutaneous or intramuscular injection.

6.5.1.4 Luteinising-hormone-releasing hormone antagonists

Luteinising-hormone-releasing hormone antagonists immediately bind to LHRH receptors, leading to a rapid decrease in LH, FSH and testosterone levels without any flare. The practical shortcoming of these compounds is the lack of a long-acting depot formulation with, so far, only monthly formulations being available. Degarelix is a LHRH antagonist. The standard dosage is 240 mg in the first month followed by monthly injections of 80 mg. Most patients achieve a castrate level at day three [1107]. A phase III RCT compared degarelix to monthly leuprorelin following up patients for twelve months, suggesting a better PSA PFS for degarelix 240/80 mg compared to monthly leuprorelin [1110]. A SR did not show a major difference between agonists and degarelix and highlighted the paucity of on-treatment data beyond twelve months as well as the lack of survival data [1111]. Its definitive superiority over the LHRH analogues remains to be proven. Short-term follow-up data from a meta-analysis indicate that the use of LHRH antagonist is associated with significantly lower overall mortality and cardiovascular events as compared with agonists. On the other hand, other adverse effects such as decreased libido, hot flushes, ED, weight gain, and injection site reactions are seen less often with the agonists [1112, 1113].

Relugolix is an oral LHRH antagonist. It was compared to the LHRH agonist leuprolide in a randomised phase III trial [1114]. The primary endpoint was sustained testosterone suppression to castrate levels through 48 weeks. There was a significant difference of 7.9 percentage points (95% CI: 4.1–11.8) showing non-inferiority and superiority of relugolix. The incidence of major adverse cardiovascular events was significantly lower with relugolix (prespecified safety analysis). Relugolix has been approved by the FDA [1115] and EMA [1116] for hormone sensitive PCa.

6.5.1.5 Anti-androgens

These oral compounds are classified according to their chemical structure as:

- steroidal, e.g., cyproterone acetate (CPA), megestrol acetate and medroxyprogesterone acetate;
- non-steroidal or pure, e.g., nilutamide, flutamide and bicalutamide.

Both classes compete with androgens at the receptor level. This leads to an unchanged or slightly elevated testosterone level. Conversely, steroidal anti-androgens have progestational properties leading to central inhibition by crossing the blood-brain barrier.

6.5.1.5.1 Steroidal anti-androgens

These compounds are synthetic derivatives of hydroxyprogesterone. Their main pharmacological side effects are secondary to castration (gynaecomastia is quite rare) whilst the non-pharmacological side effects are cardiovascular toxicity (4–40% for CPA) and hepatotoxicity.

Cyproterone acetate was the first licensed anti-androgen but the least studied. Its most effective dose as monotherapy is still unknown. It appears to be associated with a poorer OS when compared with LHRH analogues and there is no benefit when compared with flutamide [1117, 1118].

6.5.1.5.2 Non-steroidal anti-androgens

Non-steroidal anti-androgen monotherapy with e.g. nilutamide, flutamide or bicalutamide does not suppress testosterone secretion and it is claimed that libido, overall physical performance and bone mineral density (BMD) are frequently preserved [1119]. Non-androgen-related pharmacological side effects differ between agents. Bicalutamide shows a more favourable safety and tolerability profile than flutamide and nilutamide [1120]. The dosage licensed for use in combination with LHRH blockade is 50 mg/day, and 150 mg/day for monotherapy. The androgen pharmacological side effects are mainly gynaecomastia (70%) and breast pain (68%). However, non-steroidal anti-androgen monotherapy offers clear bone protection compared with LHRH analogues and probably LHRH antagonists [1119, 1121]. All three agents share the potential for liver toxicity (occasionally fatal), requiring regular monitoring of patients' liver enzymes.

6.5.1.5.3 New androgen receptor pathway inhibitors (ARPIs)

Once on ADT the development of castration-resistance (CRPC) is only a matter of time. It is considered to be mediated through two main overlapping mechanisms: androgen-receptor (AR)-independent and AR-dependent mechanisms. In CRPC, the intracellular androgen level is increased compared to androgen sensitive cells and an over-expression of the AR has been observed, suggesting an adaptive mechanism [1122]. This has led to the development of several compounds targeting the androgen axis. The status of the different ARPIs is summarised in table 6.5.1 [1123-1128]. For the updated approval status see EMA and FDA websites [1101, 1129-1132].

Table 6.5.1: Status of the different ARPIs

	High-risk localised & locally advanced**	High-risk BCR	mHSPC	nmCRPC	nmCRPC
Abiraterone	X*		X		X
Enzalutamide		X	X	X	X
Apalutamide			X	X	
Darolutamide			X	X	

* Unlicensed indication

** STAMPEDE definition

6.5.1.5.3.1 Abiraterone acetate

Abiraterone acetate is a CYP17 inhibitor (a combination of 17 α -hydroxylase and 17,20-lyase inhibition). By blocking CYP17, abiraterone acetate significantly decreases the intracellular testosterone level by suppressing its synthesis at the adrenal level and inside the cancer cells (intracrine mechanism). This compound must be used together with prednisone/prednisolone to prevent drug-induced hyperaldosteronism [1129, 1131].

6.5.1.5.3.2 Apalutamide, darolutamide, enzalutamide and rezvilutamide (alphabetical order)

These agents are novel non-steroidal anti-androgens with a higher affinity for the AR receptor than traditional non-steroidal anti-androgens. In addition, while previous non-steroidal anti-androgens still allow transfer of ARs to the nucleus and would act as partial agonists, all four agents also block AR transfer and therefore suppress any possible agonist-like activity [1123, 1124, 1132, 1133]. Darolutamide has structurally unique properties; in particular, in preclinical studies, it was shown not to cross the blood-brain barrier [1134, 1135].

6.5.2 **Cytotoxic drug treatment**

6.5.2.1 *Taxanes*

Paclitaxel derivatives promote the assembly of microtubules and inhibit the subsequent depolymerization, impairing the tubulin dynamics that foster the mitotic spindle assembly during interphase in mitosis [1136]. Docetaxel binds β -tubulin dimers in a 1:1 stoichiometric ratio, exhibiting a stronger dynamic instability using its inhibitory effect in tubulin depolymerization [1137]. It also activates NF- κ B causing apoptosis via a mitochondria-dependent pathway [1138]. Docetaxel shows significant activity against prostate tumours. Cabazitaxel also works by binding to the microtubules. This prevents cellular mitosis and stabilises the tumour cells. As a result, the cells do not divide. In addition, it inhibits androgen receptors by binding to the microtubules and microtubule-associated motor protein dynein. As a consequence, androgen receptor nuclear translocation is prevented [1136]. Common side-effects include peripheral neuropathy, myalgias, neutropenia and arthralgia.

6.5.3 **Non-hormonal non-cytotoxic drug treatments**

6.5.3.1 *Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors (PARPi)*

Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors (PARPi) block the enzyme poly ADP-ribose polymerase (PARP) and were developed aiming to selectively target cancer cells harbouring BRCA mutations and other mutations inducing homologous recombination deficiency and high level of replication pressure with a sensitivity to PARPi treatment. Due to the oncogenic loss of some DNA repair effectors and incomplete DNA repair repertoire, some cancer cells are addicted to certain DNA repair pathways such as Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP)-related single-strand break repair pathway. The interaction between BRCA and PARP is a form of synthetic lethal effect which means the simultaneously functional loss of two genes leads to cell death, while a defect in any single gene only has a limited effect on cell viability [1139]. BRCA mutations both predispose patients to develop PCa and develop in some tumours making some patients particularly responsive to these drugs.

6.5.3.2 *Immune checkpoint inhibitors*

Checkpoint inhibitors target the molecules CTLA4, programmed cell death protein 1 (PD-1), and programmed death-ligand 1 (PD-L1). For advanced PCa patients that are microsatellite instability-high/deficient mismatch repair (MSI-H/dMMR), the PD-1 inhibitor pembrolizumab has been approved by the FDA but not by the EMA. The label is tumour agnostic [1140, 1141].

6.5.3.3 *Radiopharmaceutical therapy*

Radiopharmaceutical therapy (RPT) is based on the delivery of radioactive isotopes to tumour-associated targets. The mechanism of action for RPT is radiation-induced killing of cells. Radionuclides with different emission properties are used to deliver radiation. The most commonly used radionuclides are represented by β -particles (e.g., ^{177}Lu) or α -particles (e.g., ^{223}Ra , ^{225}Ac). ^{223}Ra based on its biochemical similarity to Calcium, is integrated in bones with increased osteoblastic activity, thus targeting skeletal PCa metastases. ^{177}Lu is increasingly used because of its optimal imaging range (100–200 keV), favourable half time (6.6 days) and appropriate β -particle energy for therapy. The short path of the β -particles (0.05–0.08 mm) results in minimal toxic effects in adjacent healthy tissue. These properties enable such radionuclides to be used as theranostics (i.e., the same radionuclide may be used for both diagnostic and therapeutic purposes). However, an essential requirement prior to any RPT is to assess the targeting of the agent, mainly using PET techniques which show the tumour expression and the extent of cancer [1142]. ^{177}Lu has been approved by the FDA for the treatment of adult patients with PSMA-positive mCRPC who have been treated with ARPI and taxane-based chemotherapy [1143, 1144].

6.6 **Management of Metastatic prostate cancer**

6.6.1 **Introduction**

Most prospective data available rely on the definition of M1 disease based on CT scan or MRI and bone scintigraphy. The influence on treatment and outcome of newer, more accurate, imaging has not yet been assessed in prospective randomised trials.

6.6.2 Prognostic and predictive factors

Median survival of patients with newly diagnosed metastases (synchronous mHSPC) is approximately 50 months with ADT alone, however, it is highly variable since the M1 population is heterogeneous [1145]. Several prognostic factors for survival have been suggested including the number and location of bone metastases, presence of visceral metastases, ISUP GG, performance status and initial PSA and alkaline phosphatase level, but only few have been validated [1146-1149].

'Volume' of disease as a potential predictor was introduced by CHAARTED (Chemo-hormonal Therapy versus Androgen Ablation Randomised Trial for Extensive Disease in Prostate Cancer) [1149-1151] (Table 6.6.1) and subsequently, in STAMPEDE, was shown to be predictive in an adequately powered subgroup analysis for benefit of addition of prostate RT to ADT in the subgroup of patients with low volume/burden disease [1152] (Table 6.6.1).

'Metachronous' metastatic disease (after radical local treatment of the primary tumour) vs. synchronous (or *de novo*) metastatic disease has also been shown to have generally a better prognosis [1153].

Based on a large SWOG 9346 cohort, the PSA level after seven months of ADT was used to create three prognostic groups (Table 6.6.2) [1154]. A PSA ≤ 0.2 ng/mL at seven months has been confirmed as a prognostic marker for men receiving ADT for metastatic disease in the CHAARTED study independent of the addition of docetaxel [1155]. Similarly, reaching PSA levels of ≤ 0.1 ng/ml after six months were shown to be correlated with long-term outcomes in the LATITUDE study [1156]. Also for patients treated with ADT and apalutamide a deep PSA decline defined by $\geq 90\%$ from baseline or to PSA ≤ 0.2 ng/mL at a landmark of three months was associated with longer OS [1157] for patients.

Table 6.6.1: Definition of high- and low-volume in CHAARTED [1149-1151] and high- and low-risk in LATITUDE [1127]

	High	Low
CHAARTED (volume)	≥ 4 Bone metastases including ≥ 1 outside vertebral column or pelvis AND/OR Visceral metastasis*	Not high
LATITUDE (risk)	≥ 2 high-risk features of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ≥ 3 Bone metastasis • Visceral metastasis • \geq ISUP grade 4 	Not high

*Lymph nodes are not considered as visceral metastases.

Table 6.6.2: Prognostic factors based on the SWOG 9346 study [1154]

PSA after 7 months after start of ADT	Median survival on ADT monotherapy
< 0.2 ng/mL	75 months
$0.2 \leq 4$ ng/mL	44 months
> 4 ng/mL	13 months

6.6.3 First-line hormonal treatment

Primary ADT has been the SOC for over 50 years [1158]. There is no high-level evidence in favour of a specific type of ADT for oncological outcomes, neither for orchiectomy nor for a LHRH agonist or antagonist. The level of testosterone is reduced much faster with orchiectomy and LHRH antagonist, therefore patients with impending spinal cord compression or other potential impending complications from the cancer should be treated with either a bilateral orchidectomy or LHRH antagonists as the preferred options.

There is a suggestion in some studies and a SR and meta-analysis that cardiovascular side effects are less frequent in patients treated with LHRH antagonists than patients treated with LHRH agonists [1114, 1159-1161]; therefore, patients with pre-existing cardiovascular disease or other cardio-vascular risk factors might be considered to be treated with antagonists if a chemical castration is chosen.

6.6.3.1 Non-steroidal anti-androgen monotherapy

Based on a Cochrane review comparing older generation non-steroidal anti-androgen (NSAA) monotherapy to ADT (either medical or surgical), NSAA was considered to be less effective in terms of OS, clinical progression, treatment failure and treatment discontinuation due to AEs [1162] and is generally not recommended also because ADT-based combination treatments have become SOC.

6.6.3.2 *Intermittent versus continuous androgen deprivation therapy*

Three independent reviews [1163-1165] and two meta-analyses [1166, 1167] looked at the clinical efficacy of intermittent androgen deprivation (IAD) therapy. All of these reviews included 8 RCTs of which only three were conducted in patients with exclusively M1 disease.

So far, the SWOG 9346 is the largest trial addressing IAD in M1b patients [1168]. Of 3,040 screened patients, only 1,535 patients met the inclusion criteria. This highlights that only about 50% of M1b patients can be expected to be candidates for IAD, i.e. the best PSA responders. This was a non-inferiority trial leading to inconclusive results: the actual upper limit was above the pre-specified 90% upper limit of 1.2 (HR: 1.1, CI: 0.99–1.23), the pre-specified non-inferiority limit was not achieved, and the results did not show a significant inferiority for any treatment arm. However, based on this study inferior survival with IAD cannot be completely ruled out even in this highly selected subgroup. The use of intermittent ADT has been superseded as continuous ADT based combination therapy has become SOC.

6.6.3.3 *Early versus deferred androgen deprivation therapy*

Early treatment before the onset of symptoms is recommended in the majority of patients with metastatic hormone-sensitive disease. A Cochrane analysis from 2019 about the topic concluded that early ADT probably extends time to death of any cause and time to death from PCa [1169], but the analysis included only a very limited number of metastatic patients. There is a lack of randomised phase III data in this specific setting and specifically not with the combination therapies that are standard nowadays, however data is accumulating for the use of long-term ADT earlier in the disease pathway.

The addition of RT/ SABR to ADT monotherapy or combination with ARPI as well as the use of SABR to delay ADT is discussed in section 6.6.7.

6.6.4 **Combination therapies**

All of the following combination therapies have been studied with continuous ADT, not intermittent ADT.

6.6.4.1 *'Combined' androgen blockade with older generation NSAA (bicalutamide, flutamide, nilutamide)*

Systematic reviews have shown that combined androgen blockade using a NSAA appears to provide a small survival advantage (< 5%) vs. monotherapy (surgical castration or LHRH agonists) [1170, 1171]. This minimal survival advantage must be balanced against the increased side effects especially as the newer combination therapies are more effective as shown specifically for enzalutamide which was tested against NSAA in a phase III trial [1172]. More recently another trial has demonstrated a significant OS benefit for the addition of rezvilutamide vs. addition of bicalutamide to ADT in patients with high-volume mHSPC [1173]. Therefore, combination with NSAAs should only be considered if other combination therapies are not available.

6.6.4.2 *Androgen deprivation combined with other agents*

6.6.4.2.1 *Combination with an ARPI alone (abiraterone, apalutamide, enzalutamide, rezvilutamide, darolutamide)*

In two large RCTs (STAMPEDE, LATITUDE) the addition of abiraterone acetate (1000 mg daily) plus prednisone (5 mg daily) to ADT in men with mHSPC was studied [1127, 1174, 1175] (Table 6.6.3). The primary objective of both trials was an improvement in OS. Both trials showed a significant OS benefit. In LATITUDE with only *de novo* high-risk metastatic patients included, the HR reached 0.62 (0.51–0.76) [1127]. The HR in STAMPEDE was very similar with 0.63 (0.52–0.76) in the total patient population (metastatic and non-metastatic) and a HR of 0.61 in the subgroup of metastatic patients [1174]. While only high-risk patients were included in the LATITUDE trial a post-hoc analysis from STAMPEDE showed the same benefit whatever the risk or the volume category was [1176].

All secondary objectives such as PFS, time to radiographic progression, time to pain, or time to chemotherapy were in favour of the combination. No difference in treatment-related deaths was observed with the combination of ADT plus AAP compared to ADT monotherapy (HR: 1.37 [0.82–2.29]). However, twice as many patients discontinued treatment due to toxicity in the combination arms in STAMPEDE (20%) compared to LATITUDE (12%) [1175]. Based on these data upfront AAP combined with ADT should be considered as a standard in men presenting with metastases at first presentation, provided they are fit enough to receive the drug.

In five large RCTs the addition of AR antagonists to ADT in men with mHSPC was tested [1125, 1126, 1172]. In ARCHES the primary endpoint was radiographic PFS (rPFS). In the primary analysis rPFS was significantly improved for the combination of enzalutamide and ADT with a HR of 0.39 (0.3–0.5). Approximately 36% of the patients had low-volume disease; around 25% had prior local therapy and 18% of the patients had received prior docetaxel. In the final prespecified analysis the key secondary endpoint OS was significantly improved with a HR of 0.66 (0.53–0.81) and a significant benefit for rPFS was maintained with a HR of 0.63 (0.52–0.76) [1177].

In ENZAMET the primary endpoint was OS. The addition of enzalutamide to ADT in the first analysis improved OS with a HR of 0.67 (0.52–0.86) compared to ADT plus a non-steroidal antiandrogen. Approximately half of the patients had concomitant docetaxel; about 40% had prior local therapy and about half of the patients had low-volume disease [1126]. In a planned later analysis with a median follow-up of 68 months the OS benefit of adding enzalutamide was maintained with a HR of 0.7 (0.58-0.84) (Table 6.6.4) [1178].

In the TITAN trial, ADT plus apalutamide was used and rPFS and OS were co-primary endpoints. In the primary analysis rPFS was significantly improved by the addition of apalutamide with a HR of 0.48 (0.39–0.6); OS at 24 months was improved for the combination with a HR of 0.67 (0.51–0.89). In the final analysis the HR for OS was 0.65 (0.53–0.79) without adjustment for cross-over. In this trial 16% of patients had prior local therapy, 37% had low-volume disease and 11% received prior docetaxel [1125, 1179] (Table 6.6.4). A secondary analysis of the Titan study found that nearly half of the patients developing subsequent radiographic progression had no concomitant PSA progression, suggesting that heavy reliance on PSA monitoring may be inadequate for assessing disease activity in this context [1180].

In the CHART trial, ADT plus rezvilutamide was tested vs. ADT plus bicalutamide in patients with high-volume *de novo* metastatic disease. Ninety percent of the patients were recruited in China. Overall survival and rPFS were co-primary endpoints. At the pre-planned interim analysis rezvilutamide significantly improved rPFS compared with bicalutamide with a HR of 0.44 (0.33–0.58) and OS with a HR of 0.58 (0.44–0.77) (Table 6.6.5) [1173].

In ARANOTE, darolutamide plus ADT was randomised 2:1 vs. placebo plus ADT. It showed to significantly improved rPFS which was the primary endpoint (HR 0.54 [95% CI, 0.41 to 0.71]; $p < 0.0001$), with consistent benefits across subgroups, including high- and low-volume disease [1128]. Adverse events were similar in the two groups. Overall survival was not statistically different, but data are immature (HR, 0.81 [95% CI, 0.59 to 1.12]) (Table 6.6.6).

In summary, the addition of the new AR antagonists significantly improves clinical outcomes with no convincing evidence of differences between subgroups. The majority of patients had *de novo* metastatic disease but a proportion of patients had metachronous disease; in the subgroup analyses the effect seemed to be consistent and therefore, a combination should also be offered for men progressing after radical local therapy [1178, 1181, 1182].

Table 6.6.3: Results from the STAMPEDE arm G and LATITUDE studies

	STAMPEDE [1174]		LATITUDE [1127]	
	ADT	ADT + AA + P	ADT + placebo	ADT + AA + P
N	957	960	597	602
Newly diagnosed N+	20%	19%	0	0
Newly diagnosed M+	50%	48%	100%	100%
Key inclusion criteria	Patients scheduled for long-term ADT - newly diagnosed M1 or N+ situations - locally advanced (at least two of cT3 cT4, ISUP grade ≥ 4 , PSA ≥ 40 ng/mL) - relapsing locally treated disease with a PSA > 4 ng/mL and a PSA-DT < 6 mo. or PSA > 20 ng/mL or nodal or metastatic relapse		Newly diagnosed M1 disease and 2 out of the 3 risk factors: ISUP GG ≥ 4 , ≥ 3 bone lesions, measurable visceral metastasis	
Primary objective	OS		OS; rPFS	
Median follow up	40 mo		30.4 mo	
3-yr. OS	83% (ADT + AA + P) 76% (ADT)		66% (ADT + AA + P) 49% (ADT + placebo)	
HR (95% CI)	0.63 (0.52-0.76)		0.62 (0.51-0.76)	
M1 only				
N	1,002		1,199	
3-yr. OS	NA		66% (ADT + AA + P) 49% (ADT + placebo)	

HR (95% CI)	0.61 (0.49-0.75)	0.62 (0.51-0.76)
HR	FFS (biological, radiological, clinical or death): 0.29 (0.25-0.34)	rPFS: 0.49 (0.39-0.53)

AA = abiraterone acetate; ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; CI = confidence interval; FFS = failure-free survival; HR = hazard ratio; ISUP = International Society of Urological Pathology; mo = month; n = number of patients; NA = not available; OS = overall survival; P = prednisone; rPFS = radiographic progression-free survival; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; yr. = year.

Table 6.6.4: Results from the ENZAMET and TITAN studies with OS as primary endpoint

	ENZAMET [1172, 1178]		TITAN [1125, 1179]	
	ADT+ older antagonist ± docetaxel (SOC)	ADT + enzalutamide ± docetaxel	ADT + placebo	ADT + apalutamide
N	562	563	527	525
Newly diagnosed M+	72.1%	72.5%	83.7%	78.3%
Low volume	47%	48%	36%	38%
Primary objective	OS		OS; rPFS	
Median follow up (mo)	68 mo		30.4 mo	
OS	5-year survival: 67% (ADT + enzalutamide) 57% (SOC)		2-yr survival: 84% (ADT + apalutamide) 74% (ADT + placebo)	
HR (95% CI) for OS	0.70 (0.58–0.84)		0.67 (0.51-0.89)	

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; CI = confidence interval; HR = hazard ratio; mo = month; n = number of patients; OS = overall survival; SOC = standard of care; rPFS = radiographic progression-free survival; yr = year.

Table 6.6.5: Results from the ARCHES and CHART studies

	ARCHES [1126, 1177]		CHART [1173]	
	ADT ± docetaxel	ADT + enzalutamide ± docetaxel	ADT + bicalutamide	ADT + rezvilutamide
N	576	574	328	326
Newly diagnosed M+	63%	70%	100%	100%
Low volume	35%	38%	0%	0%
Use of early docetaxel	18% (previous)	18% (previous)	0%	0%
Primary endpoint(s)	rPFS		OS; rPFS	
Median follow up	44.6 mo		29.3 mo	
Median rPFS (mo.)	38.9 mo	49.8 mo	23.5 mo	Not reached
HR (95% CI) for rPFS	HR: 0.63 (0.52–0.76)		HR: 0.46 (0.36–0.60)	
Median OS	Not reached	Not reached	Not reached	Not reached
HR (95% CI) for OS	0.66 (0.53–0.81): Main secondary endpoint		0.58 (0.44–0.77)	

HR = hazard ratio; mo = month; n = number of patients; OS = overall survival; rPFS = radiographic progression-free survival; yr = year.

Table 6.6.6: Results from ARANOTE study with rPFS as the first endpoint

	ARANOTE [1128]	
	ADT+darolutamide	ADT + placebo
N	448	223
Newly diagnosed M+	71.1%	75.3%
Low volume	29.4%	29.6%
Use of early docetaxel	0	0
Primary endpoint(s)	rPFS	
Median follow-up	25.3 mo	25.0 mo
Median rPFS	Not reached	25.0 mo
HR (95% CI) for rPFS	0.54 (0.41 - 0.71); P < .0001	
Median OS	Not reached	Not reached
HR (95% CI) for OS	0.81 (0.59 - 1.12): immature	

HR = hazard ratio; mo = month; OS = overall survival; rPFS = radiographic progression-free survival.

6.6.4.2.2 Androgen deprivation therapy combined with chemotherapy

Three large RCTs were conducted [775, 1088, 1114]. All trials compared ADT alone as the SOC with ADT combined with immediate docetaxel (75 mg/sqm, every three weeks within three months of ADT initiation). The primary objective in all three studies was to assess OS.

In the GETUG 15 trial, all patients had M1 PCa, either *de novo* or after a primary treatment [1183]. They were stratified based on previous treatment and Glass risk factors [1146]. In the CHARTED trial the same inclusion criteria applied, and patients were stratified according to disease volume [1149].

STAMPEDE is a multi-arm multi-stage trial in which the reference arm (ADT monotherapy) included 1,184 patients. One of the experimental arms was docetaxel combined with ADT (n = 593), another was docetaxel combined with zoledronic acid (n = 593). Patients were included with either M1 or N1 or having two of the following 3 criteria: T3/4, PSA ≥ 40 ng/mL or ISUP grade group 4–5. Also relapsed patients after local treatment were included if they met one of the following criteria: PSA ≥ 4 ng/mL with a PSA-DT < six months or a PSA ≥ 20 ng/mL, N1 or M1. No stratification was used regarding metastatic disease volume (high/low volume) [839]. In all 3 trials toxicity was mainly haematological with around 12–15% grade 3–4 neutropenia, and 6–12% grade 3–4 febrile neutropenia. The use of granulocyte colony-stimulating factor receptor (GCSF) was shown to be beneficial in reducing febrile neutropenia. Primary or secondary prophylaxis with GCSF should be based on available guidelines [1184, 1185].

Docetaxel in all three trials was used at the standard dose of 75 mg/sqm every three weeks, 6 cycles in CHARTED and STAMPEDE and up to 9 cycles in GETUG-AFU-15. In subgroup analyses from GETUG-AFU 15 and CHARTED the beneficial effect of the addition of docetaxel to ADT was most evident in men with *de novo* metastatic high-volume disease [1150, 1151], while it was in the same range whatever the volume in the post-hoc analysis from STAMPEDE [1186]. The effect of adding docetaxel was less apparent in men who had prior local radical treatment although the numbers were small and the event rates low. A SR and meta-analysis which included these 3 trials showed that the addition of docetaxel to SOC improved survival [1185]. The HR of 0.77 (95% CI: 0.68–0.87, p < 0.0001) translates into an absolute improvement in four-year survival of 9% (95% CI: 5–14). In a SR and meta-analysis of individual participant data from the three trials it has been shown that there is no meaningful beneficial effect of addition of docetaxel to ADT for patients with metachronous low volume disease. Interestingly the largest absolute improvement at five years was observed for the patients with high volume and clinical stage 4 disease [1187]. Therefore adding docetaxel alone to ADT should only be considered if no ARPI is available or all available ARPIs are contraindicated.

The addition of abiraterone to ADT and docetaxel has been reported to have a benefit in rPFS and in OS in the PEACE-1 trial [1188, 1189]. The trial has a 2x2 factorial design and participants with *de novo* (synchronous) metastatic PCa were randomised to SOC; at the beginning of the trial ADT, later ADT plus docetaxel for 6 cycles if chemotherapy-fit) vs. SOC plus radiotherapy vs. SOC plus abiraterone vs. SOC plus radiotherapy plus abiraterone. Co-primary endpoints were rPFS and OS, both were statistically significantly improved in the total population. Also in the group of patients who received ADT plus docetaxel as SOC (n = 710) both rPFS and OS were increased with a HR: 0.5 (0.34–0.71) and 0.75 (0.59–0.95), respectively. Of note; in this population about 35% had low-volume disease. Toxicity was modestly increased, mostly hypertension.

In the ARASENS Phase III trial all patients received ADT and docetaxel for 6 cycles as SOC plus darolutamide or placebo [1190]. 1,306 metastatic patients were included, 14 % of them with relapsed disease after radical local treatment (metachronous). Primary endpoint was OS and this was statistically significantly increased by the addition of darolutamide with a HR of 0.68 (0.57–0.8).

Interestingly, in this trial the occurrence of AEs was similar in both arms. In both trials docetaxel and the ARPI have been given concomitantly. Of the included patients 77% had high volume and 70% high-risk disease. In an unplanned subgroup analysis the beneficial effect of adding darolutamide vs. placebo for OS was seen in the patients with high-volume (HR 0.69; 0.57-0.82), with high-risk (HR 0.71; 0.58-0.86) and in low-risk disease (HR 0.62; 0.42-0.9), for the small subgroup of patients with low-volume disease the results were suggestive of an OS benefit (HR 0.68; 0.41-1.13) [1191].

Also in ENZAMET, TITAN and ARCHES there were patients who received docetaxel as a part of SOC, thus not all concomitantly, but the percentage of patients receiving docetaxel in these trials was much lower [1125, 1126, 1172, 1177-1179].

There are also SRs and network meta-analysis for systemic triplet therapies and they confirm that the triplets are more effective than ADT and docetaxel alone [1192], in one analysis looking into subgroups statistically significant for patients with high volume disease and *de novo* disease [1193].

A SR and network MA for the different systemic treatments of mHSPC confirms triplets to be more effective than a doublet of ADT and docetaxel but not necessarily better than ADT plus ARPI. For patients with metachronous low-volume PCa, ARPI doublet therapies were ranked as the potentially most efficacious treatment options and the expected outcomes were not significantly different from those achieved by triplet regimens [1194]. In addition, in a MA of individual patient trial data of patients with metachronous low volume prostate cancer did not benefit from receiving docetaxel [1187].

6.6.5 **Treatment selection and patient selection**

There have been several network meta-analyses of the published data concluding that combination therapy is more efficient than ADT alone, but none of the doublet combination therapies has been convincingly proven to be superior over another [1194-1199]. In a SR and meta-analysis looking at association between age and efficacy of combination therapy patients seemed to profit from combination therapy irrespective of age [1199]. As a consequence, patients should be offered combination treatment unless there are clear contra-indications or they present with asymptomatic disease and a very short life expectancy (based on frailty assessment or non-cancer co-morbidities).

Since the data of the above mentioned phase III triplet therapy trials have been reported, docetaxel as sole addition to ADT is no longer a valid option in the majority of patients if an androgen receptor pathway inhibitor (ARPI) is available and there are no contra-indications to use one. From subgroup analysis of all the above-mentioned RCTs we know that probably all subgroups (high vs. low volume/risk and synchronous vs. metachronous) can profit from the addition of an ARPI to ADT. Therefore, in view of the current data the recommendation is using ADT plus ARPI as the sole additional therapy or the triplet with an ARPI plus docetaxel. Formally the question what the added value of adding docetaxel to ADT plus an ARPI has not been evaluated. The data should be discussed with patients who are fit for chemotherapy and an ARPI, realising that most of the toxicity is caused by adding the chemotherapy. There is more evidence for using the triplet in synchronous disease and the OS benefit in PEACE-1 seemed to be driven mostly by the high volume patients at the time point of the analysis for the publication, in ARASENS only few patients had low volume disease. A living SR and MA, providing continuously automated updates is recommended for review [1194].

The choice of treatment will most likely be driven by fitness for docetaxel, the nature of the disease (low/high volume; synchronous/metachronous), patient preference, the specific side effects, availability, logistics and cost. The lack of high-level evidence for the benefit of triplet (ADT+ARPI+docetaxel) vs. doublet (ADT+ARPI) makes it difficult to make a strong recommendation for one option over the other including for patients with synchronous high-volume mHSPC.

6.6.6 **Treatment of the primary tumour in newly diagnosed metastatic disease**

The first reported trial evaluating prostate RT in men with metastatic castration-sensitive disease was the HORRAD trial. Four hundred and thirty-two patients were randomised to ADT alone or ADT plus IMRT with IGRT to the prostate. Overall survival was not significantly different (HR: 0.9 [0.7–1.14]), median time to PSA progression was significantly improved in the RT arm (HR: 0.78 [0.63–0.97]) [1200]. The STAMPEDE trial evaluated 2,061 men with metastatic castration-sensitive PCa (mCSPC) who were randomised to ADT alone vs. ADT plus RT to the prostate. This trial confirmed that RT to the primary tumour did not improve OS in unselected patients [1152]. However, following the results from CHARTED and prior to analysing the data, the original screening investigations were retrieved, and patients categorised as low- or high volume. In the low-volume

subgroup (n = 819) there was a significant OS benefit by the addition of prostate RT. This was confirmed by the latest analysis of long-term follow-up (median follow-up of 61 months [HR: 0.64 for OS benefit in the low-volume group]) [1201].

A secondary, not pre-planned analysis of the STAMPEDE trial confirmed the benefit of prostate RT in patients with ≤ 3 bone metastases, but also showed a benefit in patients with M1a disease [1202]. No evidence of difference in time to symptomatic local events was found with median follow-up of over five years [1201]. The dose used in these indications should be equivalent of up to 72 Gy in 2 Gy fractions. Therefore, RT of the prostate only in patients with low-volume metastatic disease should be considered.

A network meta-analysis demonstrates that adding prostate RT to ADT alone results in 27% reduction in the hazard for death (pooled HR: 0.73; 95% credible interval [CrI]: 0.62–0.87), while ADT plus ARPI was associated with a 32% reduction (pooled HR: 0.68; 95% CrI: 0.60–0.78) and ADT plus ARPI plus RT was associated with a 47% reduction (pooled HR: 0.53; 95% CrI: 0.34–0.81) in the hazard for death (in risk of death) [1203]. It is not clear if these data can be extrapolated to RP as local treatment as results of ongoing trials are awaited.

In a SR and meta-analysis including the above two RCTs, the authors found that, overall, there was no evidence that the addition of prostate RT to ADT improved survival in unselected patients (HR: 0.92, 95% CI: 0.81–1.04, $p = 0.195$) [1204]. However, there was a clear difference in the effect of metastatic burden on survival with an absolute improvement of 7% in three-year survival in men who had four or fewer bone metastases.

The randomised phase-III trial with a 2×2 factorial design PEACE-1 (SOC, SOC+Abiraterone, SOC+RT and SOC+Abiraterone+RT) including 1,172 patients demonstrated that adding prostate radiotherapy (total dose 74 Gy in 37 fractions) significantly prolonged the co-primary endpoint of PFS from 4.4 years to 7.5 years in the low-volume metastatic burden group treated with SOC+ARPI. Additionally, a significant delay in the time to castration resistance was observed, although there was no improvement in OS in this group [1205].

PEACE-1 also reported a significant reduction in the incidence of serious genitourinary events such as obstruction, bleeding, insertion of double-J stent and TURP for patients treated with local RT to the prostate. This was an important secondary endpoint in the PEACE-1 study where the preventive effect of radiotherapy was observed both in the cohort of patients with low-volume metastatic disease (26% vs. 11%; delay in the time to first serious genitourinary event $p = 0.0002$;) and the overall cohort (22.3% vs 12.2%; $p = 0.0001$) [1205].

6.6.7 **Metastasis-directed therapy in M1-patients**

In patients relapsing after a local treatment, a metastases-targeting therapy has been proposed, with the aim to delay systemic treatment. In a retrospective analysis on 211 patients treated with MDT, Milenkovic *et al.* aimed at defining prognostic factors for MFS, palliative ADT-free (pADT) survival and cause-specific survival (CSS). With a median follow-up of 42 months after MDT, patients with cN1 only had significantly superior five-years MFS, pADT and CSS when compared to patients with M1 disease ($p < 0.02$). Of interest, 23% of patients were free of biochemical recurrence at five years [1206]. There are two randomised phase II trials testing metastasis-directed therapy (MDT) using surgery \pm SABR vs. surveillance [1207] or SABR vs. surveillance in men with oligo-recurrent PCa [1208]. Oligo-recurrence was defined as < 3 lesions on choline-PET/CT only [1207] or conventional imaging with MRI/CT and/or bone scan [1208]. The sample size was small with 62 and 54 patients, respectively, and a substantial proportion of them had nodal disease only [1207]. Androgen deprivation therapy-free survival was the primary endpoint in one study which was longer with MDT than with surveillance [1207]. The primary endpoint in the ORIOLE trial was progression after six months which was significantly lower with SBRT than with surveillance (19% vs. 61%, $p = 0.005$) [1208].

Recently the combined results of STOMP and ORIOLE confirmed the significant improvement in PFS in favour of MDT (HR: 0.44, $p < 0.001$) [1209].

A phase II trial assessed the biochemical response after 18F-DCFPyL PET/MRI and subsequent MDT. Overall biochemical response rate, defined as $\geq 50\%$ PSA decline, was 60%, including 22% of patients with complete biochemical response [1210].

The phase II randomised EXTEND trial investigated whether MDT when added to standard-of-care systemic treatment improved PFS when compared to standard-of-care systemic treatment alone in oligometastatic prostate cancer patients, with oligometastatic being defined as maximally 5 lesions. In total, 87 patients were randomized and the vast majority presented with 1 or 2 metastatic lesions. In total, 51 patients received ADT alone, while 36 patients also received ARPI. The addition of MDT significantly improved both PFS (15.8 months vs. not reached; HR: 0.25; $p < 0.001$) and eugonadal PFS (6.1 months vs. not reached; HR: 0.32; $p = 0.03$). This significant benefit was observed both in the patient group receiving ADT alone or ADT + ARPI [1211]. In analogy, the SATURN trial, which included 28 oligo-recurrent metastatic prostate cancer patients, looked at the PFS

of adding dual ARPI and MDT to existing ADT. The median PFS in SATURN was 19.3 months and 50% of the patients still had an undetectable PSA six months after testosterone recovery. While MDT-induced toxicity was very low, adding dual ARPI induced grade 3 toxicity in 20% of the patients [1212].

Currently there are no data to suggest an improvement in OS. Two comprehensive reviews highlighted MDT (SABR) as a promising therapeutic approach that must still be considered as investigational until the results of the ongoing RCT are available [1213, 1214]. The toxicity of MDT is low, with nearly no grade ≥ 3 toxicity [1215-1217].

6.6.8 Recommendations for the first-line treatment of hormone-sensitive metastatic disease*

Recommendations	Strength rating
First-line treatment	
Discuss all patients with hormone-sensitive metastatic disease in a multidisciplinary team.	Strong
Offer immediate systemic treatment with androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) to palliate symptoms and reduce the risk for potentially serious sequelae of advanced disease (spinal cord compression, pathological fractures, ureteral obstruction) to M1 symptomatic patients.	Strong
Offer short-term administration of an older generation androgen receptor (AR) antagonist to M1 patients starting luteinising hormone-releasing hormone (LHRH) agonist to reduce the risk of the 'flare-up' phenomenon.	Weak
At the start of ADT offer LHRH antagonists or orchiectomy to patients with impending clinical complications such as spinal cord compression or bladder outlet obstruction.	Strong
Do not offer AR antagonist monotherapy to patients with M1 disease.	Strong
Do not offer ADT monotherapy to patients whose first presentation is M1 disease if they have no contra-indications for combination therapy and have a sufficient life expectancy to benefit from combination therapy (≥ 1 year) and are willing to accept the increased risk of side effects.	Strong
Offer ADT combined with abiraterone acetate plus prednisone or apalutamide or enzalutamide to patients with M1 disease who are fit for the regimen.	Strong
Offer darolutamide to patients with M1 disease who are fit for the regimen.	Weak
Offer docetaxel only in combination with ADT plus abiraterone or darolutamide to patients with M1 disease who are fit for docetaxel.	Strong
Offer ADT combined with prostate radiotherapy (using doses up to the equivalent of 72 Gy in 2 Gy fractions) to patients whose first presentation is M1 disease and who have low volume of disease by CHAARTED criteria.	Strong
Do not offer ADT combined with surgery to M1 patients outside of clinical trials.	Strong
Only offer metastasis-directed therapy to M1 patients within a clinical trial setting or a well-designed prospective cohort study.	Strong
Supportive care	
Assess osteoporosis risk factors and perform a dexamethasone scan when commencing long-term ADT, to mitigate osseous complications.	Strong
Offer bone protection to avoid fractures in patients receiving combination treatment.	Strong
Offer calcium and vitamin D supplementation when prescribing either denosumab or bisphosphonates and monitor serum calcium.	Strong
Treat painful bone metastases early on with palliative measures such as intensity-modulated radiation therapy/volumetric arc radiation therapy plus image-guided radiation therapy and adequate use of analgesics.	Strong
In patients with spinal cord compression start immediate high-dose corticosteroids and assess for spinal surgery potentially followed by radiation. Offer radiation therapy alone if surgery is not appropriate.	Strong

*All the following statements are based on metastatic disease defined by bone scintigraphy and CT scan/MRI.

6.7 Treatment: Castration-resistant PCa (CRPC)

6.7.1 Definition of CRPC

Castrate serum testosterone < 50 ng/dL or 1.7 nmol/L plus either:

- a. Biochemical progression: Three consecutive rises in PSA at least one week apart resulting in two 50% increases over the nadir, and a PSA > 2 ng/mL; or
- b. Radiological progression: The appearance of new lesions: either two or more new bone lesions on bone scan, ideally confirmed [1218], or a soft tissue lesion using RECIST (Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours) [1219]. Symptomatic progression alone must be questioned and subject to further investigation. It is not sufficient to diagnose CRPC.
- c. Unequivocal clinical progression.

6.7.2 Management of mCRPC - general aspects

Selection of treatment for mCRPC is multifactorial and in general dependent on:

- previous treatment for mHSPC and for non-mHSPC;
- previous treatment for nmCRPC and mCRPC;
- quality of response and pace of progression on previous treatment;
- known cross resistance between androgen receptor pathway inhibitor (ARPI);
- co-medication and known drug interactions (see approved summary of product characteristics);
- known genetic alterations and microsatellite instability–high (MSI-H)/mismatch repair-deficient (*dMMR*) status;
- known histological variants and DNA repair deficiency (to consider platinum or targeted therapy like PARPi);
- local approval status of drugs and reimbursement situation;
- available clinical trials;
- the patient and his co-morbidities.

6.7.2.1 Molecular diagnostics

All metastatic patients should be offered somatic genomic testing for homologous repair and MMR defects early on, preferably before first-line mCRPC treatment is established. Testing should preferably be performed on metastatic carcinoma tissue but testing on primary tumour may also be performed. Alternatively, but still less common, genetic testing on circulating tumour DNA (ctDNA) is an option and has been used in some trials. One test, the FoundationOne® Liquid CDx, has been FDA approved [1220]. Defective MMR assessment can be performed by IHC for MMR proteins (MSH2, MSH6, MLH1 and PMS2) and/or by next generation sequencing (NGS) assays [1221]. Germline testing for BRCA1/2, ATM and MMR is recommended for high-risk- and particularly for metastatic PCa if clinically indicated.

Molecular diagnostics should be performed by a certified (accredited) institution using a standard NGS multiplication procedure (minimum depth of coverage of 200 X). The genes and respective exons should be listed; not only DNA for mutations but RNA needs to be examined for fusions and protein expression to obtain all clinically relevant information. A critical asset is the decision support helping to rate the mutations according to their clinical relevance [1222, 1223]. Ideally, a molecular tumour board is involved to support interpretation of the report and clinical decision taking.

Level 1 evidence for the use of PARP-inhibitors has been reported [273, 1224-1235]. Microsatellite instability (MSI)-high (or MMR deficiency) is rare in PCa, but for those patients, pembrolizumab has been approved by the FDA and could be a valuable additional treatment option [1141, 1236]. Germline molecular testing is discussed in section 5.1.7 and recommendations for germline testing are provided in section 5.1.8.

6.7.3 Treatment decisions and sequence of available options

Approved agents for the treatment of mCRPC in Europe are docetaxel, abiraterone/prednisolone (AAP), enzalutamide, cabazitaxel, olaparib, niraparib/AAP, talazoparib/enzalutamide, radium-223 and lutetium (177Lu) vipivotide tetraxetan. Regarding CRPC, darolutamide and apalutamide have been approved only for nmCRPC. In general, sequencing of ARPIs like abiraterone and enzalutamide is not recommended particularly if the time of response to ADT and to the first ARPI was short (\leq six to twelve months) and high-risk features of rapid progression are present (see detailed discussion in section 6.7.7) [1237-1239].

The use of chemotherapy with docetaxel and subsequent cabazitaxel in the treatment sequence is recommended and should be applied early enough when the patient is still fit for chemotherapy. This is supported by high-level evidence [1237].

In case of a known BRCA alteration, the use of a PARP inhibitor should always be prioritised as its use improves rPFS and OS [1240-1243].

6.7.4 **Non-metastatic CRPC**

Frequent PSA testing in men treated with ADT has resulted in earlier detection of biochemical progression. Of these men approximately one-third will develop bone metastases within two years, detected by conventional imaging [952].

In men with CRPC and no detectable clinical metastases using bone scan and CT-scan, baseline PSA level, PSA velocity and PSA-DT have been associated with time to first bone metastasis, bone MFS and OS [952, 1244]. These factors may be used when deciding which patients should be evaluated for metastatic disease. A consensus statement by the PCa Radiographic Assessments for Detection of Advanced Recurrence (RADAR) group suggested a bone scan and a CT scan when the PSA reached 2 ng/mL and if this was negative, it should be repeated when the PSA reached 5 ng/mL, and again after every doubling of the PSA based on PSA testing every three months in asymptomatic men [1245]. Symptomatic patients should undergo relevant investigations regardless of PSA level. With more sensitive imaging techniques like PSMA PET/CT or whole-body MRI, more patients are diagnosed with early mCRPC [1246]. It remains unclear if the use of PSMA PET/CT in this setting improves outcome.

Three large phase III RCTs, PROSPER [1247], SPARTAN [1248] and ARAMIS [1249], evaluated MFS as the primary endpoint in patients with nmCRPC (M0 CRPC) treated with enzalutamide (PROSPER) vs. placebo or apalutamide (SPARTAN) vs. placebo or darolutamide (ARAMIS) vs. placebo, respectively (Table 6.7.1). The M0 status was established by CT and bone scans. Only patients at high risk for the development of metastasis with a short PSA-DT of \leq ten months were included. Patient characteristics in the trials revealed that about two-thirds of participants had a PSA-DT of < 6 months. All trials showed a significant MFS benefit. All three trials showed a survival benefit after a follow-up of more than 30 months. In view of the long-term treatment with these AR targeting agents in asymptomatic patients, potential AEs need to be taken into consideration and the patient informed accordingly.

6.7.5 **Metastatic CRPC**

The remainder of this section focuses on the management of men with proven mCRPC on conventional imaging.

6.7.5.1 *Conventional androgen deprivation in CRPC*

Eventually men with PCa will show evidence of disease progression despite castration. Two trials have shown only a marginal survival benefit for patients remaining on LHRH analogues during second- and thirdline therapies [1250, 1251]. However, in the absence of prospective data, the modest potential benefits of continuing castration outweigh the minimal risk of treatment. In addition, all subsequent treatments have been studied in men with ongoing androgen suppression, therefore, it should be continued in these patients.

6.7.6 **First-line treatment of metastatic CRPC**

6.7.6.1 *Abiraterone*

Abiraterone was evaluated in 1,088 chemo-naive, asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic mCRPC patients in the phase III COU-AA-302 trial. Patients were randomised to abiraterone acetate or placebo, both combined with prednisone [1252]. Patients with visceral metastases were excluded. The main stratification factors were ECOG PS 0 or 1 and asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic disease. Overall survival and rPFS were the co-primary endpoints. After a median follow-up of 22.2 months there was significant improvement of rPFS (median 16.5 vs. 8.2 months, HR: 0.52, $p < 0.001$) and the trial was unblinded. At the final analysis with a median follow-up of 49.2 months, the OS endpoint was significantly positive (34.7 vs. 30.3 months, HR: 0.81, 95% CI: 0.70–0.93, $p = 0.0033$) [1253]. Adverse events related to mineralocorticoid excess and liver function abnormalities were more frequent with abiraterone, but mostly grade 1–2. Subset analysis of this trial showed the drug to be equally effective in an elderly population (> 75 years) [1254].

6.7.6.2 *Enzalutamide*

A randomised phase III trial (PREVAIL) included a similar patient population and compared enzalutamide and placebo [1255]. Men with visceral metastases were eligible but the numbers included were small. Corticosteroids were allowed but not mandatory. PREVAIL was conducted in a chemo-naive mCRPC population of 1,717 men and showed a significant improvement in both co-primary endpoints, rPFS (HR: 0.186, CI: 0.15–0.23, $p < 0.0001$), and OS (HR: 0.706, CI: 0.6–0.84, $p < 0.001$). A $\geq 50\%$ decrease in PSA was seen in 78% of patients. The most common clinically relevant AEs were fatigue and hypertension. Enzalutamide was equally effective and well tolerated in men > 75 years [1256] as well as in those with or without visceral metastases [1257]. However, for men with liver metastases, there seemed to be no discernible benefit [1257, 1258].

Enzalutamide has also been compared with bicalutamide 50 mg/day in a randomised double-blind phase II study (TERRAIN) showing a significant improvement in PFS (15.7 months vs. 5.8 months, HR: 0.44, $p < 0.0001$) in favour of enzalutamide [1258]. With extended follow-up and final analysis the benefit in OS and rPFS were confirmed [1259].

6.7.6.3 Docetaxel

A statistically significant improvement in median survival of 2.0–2.9 months has been shown with docetaxel compared to mitoxantrone plus prednisone [1260, 1261]. The standard first-line chemotherapy is docetaxel 75 mg/m², 3-weekly doses combined with prednisone 5 mg twice a day (BID), up to ten cycles. Prednisone can be omitted if there are contra-indications or no major symptoms. The following independent prognostic factors: visceral metastases, pain, anaemia (Hb < 13 g/dL), bone scan progression, and prior estramustine may help stratify the response to docetaxel. Patients can be categorised into three risk groups: low risk (0 or 1 factor), intermediate (2 factors) and high risk (3 or 4 factors), and show three significantly different median OS estimates of 25.7, 18.7 and 12.8 months, respectively [1262].

Age by itself is not a contra-indication to docetaxel [1263] but attention must be paid to careful monitoring and co-morbidities as discussed in section 6.1 - Estimating life expectancy and health status [1264]. In men with mCRPC who are thought to be unable to tolerate the standard dose and schedule, docetaxel 50 mg/m² every two weeks seems to be well tolerated with less grade 3–4 AEs and a prolonged time to treatment failure [1265].

6.7.6.4 Sipuleucel-T

In 2010 a phase III trial of sipuleucel-T showed a survival benefit in 512 asymptomatic or minimally symptomatic mCRPC patients [1266]. After a median follow-up of 34 months, the median survival was 25.8 months in the sipuleucel-T group compared to 21.7 months in the placebo group, with a HR of 0.78 ($p = 0.03$). No PSA decline was observed and PFS was similar in both arms. The overall tolerance was very good, with more cytokine-related AEs grade 1–2 in the sipuleucel-T group, but the same grade 3–4 AEs in both arms. Sipuleucel-T is not available in Europe.

6.7.6.5 Combinations with PARP inhibitors

Based on the suggestion that there is a synergistic antitumour effect when combining an ARPI with a PARP inhibitor, several such combination trials were conducted in first-line mCRPC patients with different trial designs, different patient selection and conflicting results.

Abiraterone/prednisone plus olaparib

A randomised double-blind, phase III trial (PROpel) of AAP plus olaparib (300 mg twice daily) or placebo in patients with mCRPC in the first-line setting was conducted [1226, 1227]. Patients ($n = 796$) were randomly assigned 1:1 to study treatment regardless of homologous recombination repair gene mutation (HRRm) status which was retrospectively evaluated and determined by tumour tissue and circulating tumour DNA tests. The primary end point was imaging-based PFS (ibPFS) by investigator assessment. The result was significantly positive in favour of the combination with ibPFS of 24.8 vs. 16.6 mo (HR 0.66; 95% CI: 0.54 to 0.81; $p = 0.001$). In the prespecified final analyses the key secondary endpoint OS had only 47.9% maturity and did not meet the prespecified 2-sided boundary for significance (HR 0.95% CI: 0.81, 0.67–1.0, $p = 0.054$). The subgroup of patients with positive HRRm status showed a rPFS HR of 0.50 (CI: 0.34 to 0.73). The BRCA mutated patients (11% of the ITT population) had an even larger benefit for rPFS (HR 0.24; 95% CI: 0.12, 0.45) and the OS HR in these patients was 0.30 (95% CI: 0.15, 0.59), suggesting that the improvement in rPFS observed in the ITT population was primarily driven by patients with a BRCA mutation [1228].

The most common AEs in patients receiving olaparib plus AAP were anaemia (48%; \geq G3 15%), fatigue (38%), nausea (30%), diarrhoea (19%), decreased appetite (16%), lymphopenia (14%), dizziness (14%), and abdominal pain (13%); 18% of patients required at least one blood transfusion and 12% required multiple transfusions [1228]. The combination of olaparib plus AAP was approved by the EMA for the treatment of adult patients with mCRPC in whom chemotherapy is not clinically indicated [1240]. In the US, the FDA has approved olaparib with AAP for mCRPC patients with deleterious or suspected deleterious BRCA-mutations as determined by an FDA-approved companion diagnostic test [1229]. For patients without BRCA, the FDA determined that the modest rPFS improvement, combined with clinically significant toxicities, did not demonstrate a favorable risk/benefit assessment [1241].

The combination of PARP inhibitor plus ARPI in patients with BRCA1/2 (or ATM) mutations in the first-line as opposed to the use of PARP inhibitor monotherapy or the sequential use of these agents is supported by a randomised phase II trial albeit with low patient numbers and thus a low level of evidence [1267].

Abiraterone/prednisone plus niraparib

In a randomised, double-blind, phase III trial (MAGNITUDE) AAP plus niraparib 200 mg once/daily or placebo, was evaluated [1230]. The study prospectively included 2 cohorts, an HRR-negative and an HRR-positive cohort. The HRR-negative cohort was closed early for futility after enrolling 200 patients. In the overall HRR-positive cohort, the addition of Niraparib to AAP resulted in a significant improvement in the first endpoint rPFS compared to AAP plus placebo (HR = 0.73; 95% CI 0.56-0.96; p = 0.0217) and the median rPFS was 16.5 vs. 13.7 months in favour of the combination. In particular, the 113 patients with BRCA 1/ 2 mutations [1231] who received AAP plus niraparib [1231] derived a major rPFS benefit (19.5 vs. 10.9 months; HR = 0.55 [95% CI 0.39-0.78]; nominal p = 0.0007). The OS data is still immature. The most common side effects with Niraparib plus AAP in the ITT population were anemia (46.2%), fatigue (26.4%), hypertension (31.6%) and constipation (30.7%). The combination of niraparib plus AAP in a dual-action tablet has been approved by the EMA and the FDA for patients with mCRPC and BRCA 1/2 mutations in whom chemotherapy is not clinically indicated [1232].

Enzalutamide plus Talazoparib

A randomised double-blind, phase III trial (TALAPRO-2) of the PARP inhibitor talazoparib (0.5mg daily) plus enzalutamide versus enzalutamide/placebo showed a significantly better median rPFS (first endpoint) in favour of the combination regardless of the HRR pathway status [1233].

The median rPFS was not yet reached for the combination as compared to 21.9 mo in the control arm (95% CI 16.6-25.1). The HR for rPFS was 0.63 (0.51-0.78) with p<0.0001. For the subgroups of patients with HRR mutations the benefit of the combination was much more pronounced. The HRR gene-mutated population showed a median rPFS of 27.9 (16.6-not reached) for the talazoparib combination versus 16.4 (10.9-24.6) for the placebo group (0.46; 95% CI: 0.30-0.70; p = 0.0003) and 0.70 (0.54-0.89; p = 0.0039) in patients with a status of non-deficient or unknown. In an exploratory analysis, the HR for rPFS in patients with BRCA-mutated mCRPC was 0.23 (0.10-0.53; p = 0.0002) and, in patients with non-BRCa HRR gene-mutated mCRPC, it was 0.66 (0.39-1.12; p = 0.12) in favour of the talazoparib combination [1233]. The OS data were still immature. The expected clinical benefit in the subgroups needs to be weighed against the potential burden of side effects [1240].

The most common treatment-emergent AEs with the addition of talazoparib were anaemia, neutropenia, and fatigue; the most common grade 3-4 event was anaemia (46%), which improved after dose reduction, however, 39% required a blood transfusion, including 22% who required multiple transfusions, 8% discontinued treatment due to anaemia and two patients on the combination were diagnosed with myelodysplastic syndrome/acute myeloid leukaemia [1233]. In TALAPRO-2 an HRR-deficient-only cohort (cohort 2; n = 230) was recruited. The primary analysis for the combined HRR-deficient population (n = 399) met the rPFS endpoint with a HR 0.45 (95% CI, 0.33 to 0.61; p < 0.0001; median not reached at the time of the analysis for the talazoparib group versus 13.8 months for the placebo group). Also for this cohort data for OS were immature but favour talazoparib (HR 0.69; 95% confidence interval, 0.46 to 1.03; p = 0.07) [1234].

The FDA approved talazoparib with enzalutamide only for HRR gene-mutated mCRPC [1235, 1240, 1268]. The EMA has approved the combination of talazoparib and enzalutamide for the treatment of patients with mCRPC in whom chemotherapy is not clinically indicated [1269].

Regarding additional side effects of special interest, there seems to be a doubling of the risk of thromboembolic events with the use of PARPis. In a meta-analysis of 2,210 and 1,662 patients with PC and PARPi treatment vs. control, PARPi had a statistically significant increased risk of thrombosis in PCa patients (OR = 1.98, 95% CI: 1.06-3.70, p = 0.030) with 96 (4.3%) and 37 (2.2%) in the PARPi and control groups, respectively [1270].

Based on eighteen placebo-controlled RCTs (n = 7,307 patients, tumour agnostic), PARPis significantly increased the risk of myelodysplastic syndrome and acute myeloid leukaemia compared with placebo treatment (Peto OR 2.63 [95% CI 1.13-6.14], p = 0.026) with no between-study heterogeneity (I²=0%, x² p = 0.91). Median treatment duration was 9.8 months (IQR 3.6-17.4; n = 96) and median latency period since first exposure to a PARPi was 17.8 months (8.4-29.2; n = 58). Of 104 cases that reported outcomes, 47 (45%) resulted in death [1271].

6.7.7 Second-line treatment for mCRPC

All patients who receive treatment for mCRPC will eventually progress. All treatment options in this setting are presented in Table 6.7.3. There is a paucity of high-level data with regards to the sequence of treatments in case of pretreatment with ARPI and/or docetaxel for mHSPC.

6.7.7.1 Cabazitaxel

Cabazitaxel is a taxane with activity in docetaxel-resistant cancers. It was studied in a large prospective, randomised, phase III trial (TROPIC) comparing cabazitaxel plus prednisone vs. mitoxantrone plus prednisone in 755 patients with mCRPC, who had progressed after or during docetaxel-based chemotherapy [1272]. Patients

received a maximum of ten cycles of cabazitaxel (25 mg/m²) or mitoxantrone (12 mg/m²) plus prednisone (10 mg/day). Overall survival was the primary endpoint which was significantly longer with cabazitaxel (median: 15.1 vs. 12.7 months, $p < 0.0001$). There was also a significant improvement in PFS (median: 2.8 vs. 1.4 months, $p < 0.0001$), objective RECIST response (14.4% vs. 4.4%, $p < 0.005$), and PSA response rate (39.2% vs. 17.8%, $p < 0.0002$). Treatment-associated WHO grade 3–4 AEs developed significantly more often in the cabazitaxel arm, particularly haematological (68.2% vs. 47.3%, $p < 0.0002$) but also non-haematological (57.4 vs. 39.8%, $p < 0.0002$) toxicity. In two post-marketing randomised phase III trials, cabazitaxel was shown not to be superior to docetaxel in the first-line setting; in the second-line setting in terms of OS, 20 mg/m² cabazitaxel was not inferior to 25 mg/m², but less toxic. Therefore, the lower dose should be preferred [1273, 1274]. Cabazitaxel should preferably be given with prophylactic granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) and should be administered by physicians with expertise in handling neutropenia and sepsis [1275].

6.7.7.2 *Abiraterone acetate after docetaxel for mCRPC*

Positive results of the large phase III trial (COU-AA-301) were reported after a median follow-up of 12.8 months [1276] and confirmed by the final analysis [1277]. A total of 1,195 patients with mCRPC were randomised 2:1 to AAP or placebo plus prednisone. All patients had progressive disease based on the Prostate Cancer Clinical Trials Working Group 2 (PCWG2) criteria after docetaxel therapy (with a maximum of two previous chemotherapeutic regimens). The primary endpoint was OS, with a planned HR of 0.8 in favour of AAP. After a median follow-up of 20.2 months, the median survival in the AAP group was 15.8 months compared to 11.2 months in the placebo arm (HR: 0.74, $p < 0.0001$). The benefit was observed in all subgroups and all the secondary objectives were in favour of AAP (PSA, radiologic tissue response, time to PSA or objective progression). The incidence of the most common grade 3–4 AEs did not differ significantly between arms, but mineralocorticoid-related side effects were more frequent in the AAP group, mainly grade 1–2 (fluid retention, oedema and hypokalaemia).

6.7.7.3 *Enzalutamide after docetaxel for mCRPC*

The planned interim analysis of the AFFIRM study was published in 2012 [1278]. This trial randomised 1,199 patients with mCRPC in a 2:1 fashion to enzalutamide or placebo. The patients had progressed after docetaxel treatment, according to the PCWG2 criteria. Corticosteroids were not mandatory, but could be prescribed, and were received by about 30% of the patients. The primary endpoint was OS, with an expected HR benefit of 0.76 in favour of enzalutamide. After a median follow-up of 14.4 months, the median survival in the enzalutamide group was 18.4 months compared to 13.6 months in the placebo arm (HR: 0.63, $p < 0.001$). This led to the recommendation to halt and unblind the study. The benefit was observed irrespective of age, baseline pain intensity, and type of progression. In the final analysis with longer follow-up the OS results were confirmed despite crossover and extensive post-progression therapies [1223]. Enzalutamide was active also in patients with visceral metastases.

All the secondary objectives were in favour of enzalutamide (PSA, soft tissue response, QoL, time to PSA, or objective progression). No difference in terms of side effects was observed in the two groups, with a lower incidence of grade 3–4 AEs in the enzalutamide arm. There was a 0.6% incidence of seizures in the enzalutamide group compared to none in the placebo arm.

6.7.7.4 *Radium-223 after ARPI or both ARPI and docetaxel for mCRPC*

The only bone-specific drug that is associated with a survival benefit is the α -emitter radium-223. In a large phase III trial (ALSYMPCA) 921 patients with symptomatic mCRPC, who failed or were unfit for docetaxel, were randomised to six injections of 50 kBq/kg radium-223 or placebo plus SOC. The primary endpoint was OS. Radium-223 significantly improved median OS by 3.6 months (HR: 0.70, $p < 0.001$) and was also associated with prolonged time to first skeletal event, improvement in pain scores and improvement in QoL [1279]. The associated toxicity was mild and, apart from slightly more haematologic toxicity and diarrhoea with radium-223, did not differ significantly from that in the placebo arm [1279]. Radium-223 was effective and safe whether or not patients were docetaxel pre-treated [1280]. Due to safety concerns, use of radium-223 was restricted to after docetaxel and at least one AR targeted agent [1281]. In particular, the use of radium-223 in combination with AAP showed significant safety risks related to fractures and more deaths. This was most striking in patients without the concurrent use of bone health agents [1282] so that radium-223 should always be used together with bone health agents (see section 6.7.11.2)

6.7.7.5 Rucaparib after ARPI [1243]

In a 2:1 randomised, controlled, phase III trial (TRITON-3) 405 mCRPC patients were included. Patients were selected for a BRCA1, BRCA2, or ATM alteration and disease progression after treatment with an ARPI for mCRPC. Treatment was as follows: rucaparib 600 mg twice daily or a physician's choice control, either second line docetaxel or the ARPI which had not been given previously. The first endpoint rPFS in the intention-to-treat group was significantly better with rucaparib (median, 10.2 months and 6.4 months, respectively; HR 0.61; 95% CI, 0.47 to 0.80; $p < 0.001$). The small ATM subgroup did not derive a benefit. An interim analysis revealed OS to be immature. The study design allowed for cross-over and 60% of patients received a PARP inhibitor at progression (47% rucaparib). With regards to the control arms, the median rPFS was longer with rucaparib than with docetaxel (11.2 months vs. 8.3 months; hazard ratio, 0.53; 95% CI, 0.37 to 0.77) and it was also longer than with an ARPI (11.2 months vs. 4.5 months; hazard ratio, 0.38; 95% CI, 0.25 to 0.58). The most frequent AEs with rucaparib were fatigue, nausea and anaemia, including 24% Grade ≥ 3 anaemia and 29% of patients on rucaparib required at least one blood transfusion [1283]. Rucaparib has been approved by the FDA.

6.7.7.6 Olaparib after ARPI

See section 6.7.8.3 PARP inhibitors for mCRPC.

6.7.7.7 ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 after ARPI

Primary and updated analyses of rPFS for the phase III, multicenter RCT, PSMAfore, investigating taxane-naive patients with PSMA-positive mCRPC who had progressed on ARPI, have been published. Patients were 1:1 randomised between open-label, intravenous ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 (7.4 GBq intravenously, every 6 weeks, for up to 6 cycles) and a change of ARPI. A total of 468 patients met all eligibility criteria and were randomly assigned to receive ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 (234 [50%] patients) or ARPI change (234 [50%]). Of the 234 patients assigned to ARPI change, 134 (57%) crossed over to receive ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617. In the updated analysis at time of the third data cut-off (median time from randomisation to third data cut-off 24.11 months [IQR 20.24–27.40]), median rPFS was 11.60 months (95% CI: 9.30–14.19) in the ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 group vs. 5.59 months (4.21–5.95) in the ARPI change group (HR 0.49 [95% CI: 0.39–0.61]). The incidence of grade 3–5 AEs was lower in the ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 group compared to the ARPI change group. The key secondary endpoint OS was similar in both groups [1284].

6.7.8 Treatment after docetaxel and one line of hormonal treatment for mCRPC

6.7.8.1 General considerations

For men progressing quickly on AR targeted therapy (< 12 months) it is now clear that cabazitaxel is the treatment supported by the best data. The CARD trial, an open label randomised phase III trial, evaluated cabazitaxel after docetaxel and one line of ARPI (either AAP or enzalutamide) [1237]. It included patients progressing in less than twelve months on previous abiraterone or enzalutamide for mCRPC. Cabazitaxel more than doubled rPFS vs. another ARPI and reduced the risk of death by 36% vs. ARPI. The rPFS with cabazitaxel remained superior regardless of the ARPI sequence and if docetaxel was given before, or after, the first ARPI.

The choice of further treatment after docetaxel and one line of HT for mCRPC is open for patients who have a > twelve months response to first-line abiraterone or enzalutamide for mCRPC [1259]. Either second-line chemotherapy (cabazitaxel), radium-223 (if bone-only metastases), ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 radioligand therapy [1285, 1286] and PARP inhibitors (if BRCA mutation) are valuable options.

Men previously treated with at least one ARPI or both an ARPI and docetaxel and whose tumours demonstrated homozygous deletions or deleterious mutations in DNA-repair genes showed an 88% response rate to olaparib [1287] and in another confirmatory trial a composite response of 54.3% (95% CI: 39.0–69.1) in the 400 mg cohort and in 18 of 46 (39.1%; 25.1–54.6) evaluable patients in the 300 mg cohort [1288]. See also section 'Second-line management'. In general, subsequent treatments in unselected patients are expected to have less benefit than with earlier use [1289, 1290] and there is evidence of cross-resistance between enzalutamide and abiraterone [1291, 1292].

6.7.8.2 Radiopharmaceuticals

6.7.8.2.1 Introduction

Historically, several radiopharmaceuticals including phosphorous-32, strontium-89, yttrium-90, samarium-153, and rhenium-186 were developed for the treatment of bone pain secondary to metastases from PCa [1293]. They proved effective in a palliation setting, by relieving pain and improving QoL, especially in the setting of diffuse bone metastases. However, they never gained widespread adoption. The first radioisotope to demonstrate a survival benefit was radium-223 (see Section 6.7.7.4).

6.7.8.2.2 PSMA-based therapy

The increasing use of PSMA PET as a diagnostic tracer and the realisation that this allowed identification of a greater number of metastatic deposits led to attempts to treat cancer by replacing the imaging isotope with a therapeutic isotope which accumulates where the tumour is demonstrated (theranostics) [1294]. Therefore, after identification of the target, usually with diagnostic ⁶⁸Gallium-labelled PSMA, therapeutic radiopharmaceuticals labelled with β(lutetium-177 or yttrium-90) or α(actinium-225)-emitting isotopes could be used to treat metastatic PCa.

The PSMA therapeutic radiopharmaceutical supported by the most robust data is ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617. The first patient was treated in 2014 and early clinical studies evaluating the safety and efficacy of ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA therapy have demonstrated promising results, despite the fact that a significant proportion of men had already progressed on multiple therapies [1295]. The early data were based on single-centre experience [1296]. Data from uncontrolled prospective phase II trials reported high response rates with low toxic effects [1297, 1298]. Positive signals are also coming from a randomised phase II trial (TheraP) [1299].

In TheraP patients for whom cabazitaxel was considered the next appropriate standard treatment after docetaxel and who were highly selected by ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA-11 and ¹⁸F-FDG PET-CT scans, were randomised to receive ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 (6.0–8.5 GBq intravenously, every 6 weeks, for up to 6 cycles) or cabazitaxel (20 mg/m² for up to ten cycles). The primary endpoint was a reduction of at least 50% in PSA. The first endpoint was met (66% vs. 37% for ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 vs. cabazitaxel, respectively, by intention to treat; difference 29% (95% CI: 16–42; *p* < 0.0001; and 66% vs. 44% by treatment received; difference 23% [9–37]; *p* = 0.0016) [1299]. Secondary outcomes of the TheraP trial, including survival after a median follow-up of 35.7 months (IQR 31.1 to 39.2) showed that 77 (78%) participants had died in the ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 group and 70 (69%) participants in the cabazitaxel group. Overall survival was similar between randomly assigned patients in the two groups (19.1 vs. 19.6 months; difference -0.5, 95% CI: -3.7 to 2.7; *p* = 0.77) [1300, 1301].

An open-label phase III trial (VISION) compared ¹⁷⁷Lutetium Vipivotid tetraaxetan (¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 radioligand therapy) with protocol-permitted SOC (i.e., excluded chemotherapy, immunotherapy, radium-223 and investigational drugs) in mCRPC patients, with PSMA expressing metastases on PET/CT, previously treated with at least one ARPI and one (around 53%) or two taxanes. Imaging-based PFS and OS were the alternate primary endpoints. More than 800 patients were randomised. ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 plus SOC significantly prolonged both imaging-based PFS and OS, as compared with SOC alone (see Table 6.6.3). Grade 3 or above AEs were higher with ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 than without (52.7% vs. 38.0%), but QoL was not adversely affected. ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 has shown to be an additional treatment option in this mCRPC population [1302].

A SR and updated meta-analysis, investigated the proportion of patients with any or more than 50% PSA decrease, and OS. The review, including 69 articles and a total of 4,157 patients, showed that patients treated with ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA 617 had a significantly higher response to therapy compared to controls, based on ≥ 50% PSA decrease (OR = 5.33, 95% CI: 1.24–22.90, *p* < 0.05). Meta-analysis revealed an OS of 0.26 according to pooled HRs for any PSA decline, which was significant after ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 therapy (95% CI: 0.18–0.37, *p* < 0.00001) and an OS of 0.52 for ≥ 50% PSA decrease, also significant after radioligand (RLT) (95% CI: 0.40–0.67, *p* < 0.00001) [1303].

The earlier use of ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 was studied in patients progressing on the first ARPI for mCRPC (PSMAfore), see section 6.7.7.7.

There is an increasing interest for PSMA-targeted alpha therapy (²²⁵Ac-PSMA) due to the ability to deliver potent higher local radiation more selectively to cancer cells than PSMA-targeted beta therapy, while minimising unwanted damage to the surrounding normal tissues. Additionally, the intensive radiation to cancer cells results in more effective DNA strand breakage and reduces the development of treatment resistance. A meta-analysis, including nine studies with 263 patients, investigated the therapeutic effects of ²²⁵Ac-PSMA RLT in patients with metastatic CRPC, pre-treated with chemotherapy, ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA and/or radium-223. The pooled proportions of patients with more than 50% PSA decline and any PSA decline were 60.99% (95% CI: 54.92%– 66.83%) and 83.57% (95% CI: 78.62%–87.77%), respectively. The estimated mean PFS and mean OS were 9.15 months (95% CI: 6.69–11.03 months) and 11.77 months (95% CI: 9.51–13.49 months), respectively. These findings suggest that ²²⁵Ac-PSMA RLT may be an effective treatment option for patients with mCRPC [1304]. Despite the encouraging therapeutic response and survival of patients who received ²²⁵Ac-PSMA RLT, major AEs like xerostomia and severe haematotoxicity have to be considered as possible reasons for dose reduction or discontinuation of the therapy.

A retrospective, multicentre international study, WARMTH Act, pooled data of 488 men with mCRPC, who received one or more cycles of 8 MBq ^{225}Ac -PSMA RLT, across 7 international centres [1305]. Patients were heavily pretreated (docetaxel 66%, cabazitaxel 21%, abiraterone 39%, enzalutamide 39%, ^{177}Lu -PSMA RLT 32%, and ^{223}Ra -dichloride 4%). The median follow-up was 9.0 months. The median OS was 15.5 months (95% CI: 13.4–18.3) and median PFS was 7.9 months (CI: 6.8–8.9). In 347 (71%) out of 488 patients, information regarding treatment-induced xerostomia was available, with 236 (68%) of the 347 patients reporting xerostomia after the first cycle of ^{225}Ac -PSMA RLT. Grade 3 or higher anaemia occurred in 64 (13%) of 488 patients, leukopenia in 19 (4%), thrombocytopenia in 32 (7%), and renal toxicity in 22 (5%). No serious AEs or treatment-related deaths were recorded. This study supports previous data showing that ^{225}Ac -PSMA RLT has a substantial antitumour effect, being a viable therapy option in heavily pretreated mCRPC patients, including patients after ^{177}Lu -PSMA RLT. Comparable results, with a median OS of 15 months (95% CI: 10–19) for a median follow-up was of 22 months, were reported in a series of patients with mCRPC treated with ^{225}Ac -PSMA (100–150 kBq/kg at least 2 cycles, at 8 weeks), after becoming resistant to all previous anti-cancer agents [1306]. The side effect profile remains to be elucidated. So far, ^{225}Ac -PSMA RLT for mCRPC has not been approved.

Combined therapies, including ^{177}Lu -PSMA-RLT, in mCRPC have moved into the focus of clinical research. In an open-label, multicentre, randomised, phase II trial, EnzaP, participants were randomly assigned (1:1) between getting oral enzalutamide 160 mg daily alone or with adaptive-dosed (two or four doses) 7.5 GBq ^{177}Lu -PSMA-617 intravenous, every 6–8 weeks, based on a 12-week interim PSMA PET/CT [1307]. The primary endpoint was PSA PFS. Overall, 83 men were assigned to the enzalutamide plus ^{177}Lu -PSMA-RLT group, and 79 were assigned to enzalutamide alone. Median PSA PFS was 13.0 months (95% CI: 11.0–17.0) in the enzalutamide plus RLT group and 7.8 months (95% CI: 4.3–11.0) in the enzalutamide group (HR 0.43, 95% CI: 0.29–0.63, $p < 0.0001$). The most common AEs were fatigue (75%), nausea (47%), and dry mouth (40%) in the enzalutamide plus RLT and fatigue (70%), nausea (27%), and constipation (23%) in the enzalutamide group. EnzaP suggests that the addition of ^{177}Lu -PSMA-617 to enzalutamide improved PFS by enhanced anticancer activity in patients with mCRPC [1307]. The actual benefit of the combined use in particular in patients pretreated by one or two ARPIs is still to be proven in larger prospective controlled trials and a firm recommendation would be premature.

6.7.8.3 PARP inhibitors for mCRPC

So far, two PARP inhibitors as monotherapy, olaparib and rucaparib, are licenced by the FDA (EMA only approved olaparib) and several other PARP inhibitors are under investigation or were approved only in combination with an ARPI (see section 6.7.6.5 e.g., talazoparib, niraparib).

A randomised phase III trial (PROfound) compared the PARP inhibitor olaparib to an alternative ARPI in mCRPC with alterations in ≥ 1 of any qualifying gene with a role in HRR and progression on an ARPI. Most patients were heavily pre-treated with 1–2 chemotherapies and up to 2 ARPIs [273, 1225]. Radiographic PFS by blinded independent central review in the BRCA1/2 or ATM mutated population (Cohort A) was the first endpoint and significantly favoured olaparib (HR: 0.49, 95% CI: 0.38–0.63). The final results for OS demonstrated a significant improvement among men with BRCA1/2 or ATM mutations (Cohort A) ($p = 0.0175$; HR: 0.69, 95% CI: 0.50–0.97). This was not significant in men with any (other) HRR alteration (Cohort B) (HR: 0.96, 95% CI: 0.63–1.49). Of note, patients in the physician's choice of enzalutamide/abiraterone-arm who progressed, 66% ($n = 86/131$) crossed over to olaparib.

The most common AEs were anaemia (46.1% vs. 15.4%), nausea (41.4% vs. 19.2%), decreased appetite (30.1% vs. 17.7%) and fatigue (26.2% vs. 20.8%) for olaparib vs. enzalutamide/abiraterone. Among patients receiving olaparib 16.4% discontinued treatment secondary to an AEs, compared to 8.5% of patients receiving enzalutamide/abiraterone. Interestingly, 4.3% of patients receiving olaparib had a pulmonary embolism, compared to 0.8% among those receiving enzalutamide/abiraterone, none of which were fatal. There were no reports of myelodysplastic syndrome or acute myeloid leukaemia. This was the first trial to show a benefit for genetic testing and precision medicine in mCRPC.

The olaparib approval by the FDA is for patients with deleterious or suspected deleterious germline- or somatic HRR gene-mutated mCRPC, who have progressed following prior treatment with enzalutamide or abiraterone. The EMA approved olaparib for patients with BRCA1 and BRCA2 alterations [1308]. The recommended olaparib dose is 600 mg daily (300 mg taken orally twice daily), with or without food.

Rucaparib has been approved by the FDA for patients with deleterious BRCA mutations (germline and/or somatic) who have been treated with ARPI and a taxane-based chemotherapy [1309]. Approval was based on the results of the single-arm TRITON2 trial (NCT02952534). The confirmed ORR per independent radiology review in 62 patients with deleterious BRCA mutations was 43.5% (95% CI: 31–57) [1310]. Rucaparib second line after ARPI was studied in the TRITON 3 trial and is discussed in section 6.7.7.5

The combination of ARPI plus a PARP inhibitor in first-line mCRPC was studied in several RCT including AAP plus Olaparib [1226], AAP plus Niraparib [1230] and Enzalutamide plus Talazoparib [1233]. See Table 6.7.2.

6.7.8.4 Sequencing treatment

6.7.8.4.1 ARPI → ARPI (chemotherapy-naïve mCRPC patients)

The use of sequential ARPIs in mCRPC showed limited benefit in retrospective series as well as in one prospective trial [1311-1318]. In particular in patients who had a short response to the first ARPI for mCRPC (< twelve months), this sequence should be avoided because of known cross resistance and the availability of chemotherapy and PARP inhibitors (if a relevant mutation is present). In the control arm of the contemporary PSMAfore trial, the ARPI-switch showed an rPFS of 5.59 mo (4.21–5.95) [1284].

In highly selected patients treated for more than 24 weeks with AAP, the sequence with enzalutamide showed some activity with a median rPFS of 8.1 months (95% CI: 6.1–8.3) and an unconfirmed PSA response rate of 27% [1239]. In case the patient is unfit for chemotherapy and a PARP inhibitor, best supportive care should be considered in case no other appropriate treatment option is available (clinical trial or immunotherapy if MSI-high). An ARPI-ARPI sequence should never be the preferred option but might be considered in such patients if the PS still allows for active treatment and the potential side effects seem manageable.

First prospective cross-over data on an ARPI-ARPI sequence [1311] and a SR and meta-analysis suggest that for the endpoints PFS and PSA PFS, but not for OS, abiraterone followed by enzalutamide is the preferred choice [1319].

6.7.8.4.2 ARPI → PARP inhibitor

This sequence in patients with deleterious or suspected deleterious germline or somatic HRR gene-mutated mCRPC is supported by data from the randomised phase III PROfound trial studying olaparib [1225] and TRITON 3 studying rucaparib [1243]. A subgroup of patients in PROfound was pre-treated with one or two ARPIs and no chemotherapy (35%).

The ARPI-PARP inhibitor sequence versus ARPI-ARPI or ARPI-docetaxel in patients with BRCA 1/2 (and ATM) altered tumours was studied in TRITON-3 and showed a significant rPFS benefit in favour of the PARP inhibitor following the first ARPI. These data underscore the importance of early genomic testing in mCRPC patients. (see also chapter 6.7.7.5)

6.7.8.4.3 Docetaxel for mHSPC → docetaxel rechallenge

There is limited evidence for second- or third-line use of docetaxel after treatment with docetaxel for mHSPC. Docetaxel seems to be less active than ARPI at progression to mCRPC following docetaxel for mHSPC [1320].

6.7.8.4.4 ARPI → docetaxel or docetaxel → ARPI followed by PARP inhibitor

Both olaparib and rucaparib are active in biomarker-selected mCRPC patients after ARPI and docetaxel in either sequence [1225, 1309].

6.7.8.4.5 ARPI before or after docetaxel

There is level 1 evidence for both sequences (see Table 6.7.3).

6.7.8.4.6 ARPI → docetaxel → cabazitaxel or docetaxel → ARPI → cabazitaxel

Both third-line treatment sequences are supported by level 1 evidence. Of note, there is high-level evidence favouring cabazitaxel vs. a second ARPI after docetaxel and one ARPI in particular in patients progressing ≤ 12 months on a prior ARPI. CARD is the first prospective randomised phase III trial addressing this question (Table 6.7.3) [1237].

6.7.8.5 Platinum chemotherapy

Cisplatin or carboplatin as monotherapy or combinations have shown limited activity in unselected patients in the pre-docetaxel era [1321]. The combination of cabazitaxel and carboplatin was evaluated in pre-treated mCRPC patients in a randomised phase I/II trial. The combination improved the median PFS from 4.5 months (95% CI: 3.5–5.7) to 7.3 months (95% CI: 5.5–8.2; HR: 0.69, 95% CI: 0.50–0.95, p = 0.018) and the combination was well tolerated [1322]. On a histopathological and molecular level, there is preliminary evidence that platinum adds efficacy in patients with aggressive variant PCa molecular signatures including TP53, RB1, and PTEN [1323].

Patients with mCRPC and alterations in DDR genes are more sensitive to platinum chemotherapy than unselected patients [1324], also after progression on PARP inhibitors. Interestingly, in contemporary retrospective series, unselected patients as well as patients without DDR gene alterations also showed a 50% PSA decline when treated with platinum in up to 36% of patients [1297].

In a MA of 23 studies with 901 BRCA-positive mCRPC patients the PSA 50 response rates for PARPi and platinum were 69% (CI: 53–82%), and 74% (CI: 49–90%), respectively. Analyses of OS data showed no difference between PARPi and platinum treatments (HR: 0.86; CI: 0.49–1.52; p = 0.6) [1325]. This analysis supports the use of platinum in patients with BRCA alterations in particular after progression on PARPi or if PARPi are unavailable or suspended due to AEs

In view of the excellent tolerability of e.g., carboplatin monotherapy, platinum could be offered to patients with far advanced mCRPC harbouring DDR gene aberrations after having progressed on standard treatment options. Prospective controlled trials are ongoing.

Table 6.7.1: Randomised phase III controlled trials – nmCRPC

Study	Intervention	Comparison	Selection criteria	Main outcomes
ARAMIS 2019, 2020 [1249, 1326]	ADT + darolutamide	ADT + placebo	nmCRPC; baseline PSA ≥ 2 ng/mL PSA-DT ≤ 10 mo	59% reduction of distant progression or death Median MFS: darolutamide 40.4 vs. placebo 18.4 mo; 31% reduction in risk of death HR = 0.69 (95% CI: 0.53–0.88) p = 0.003
PROSPER 2018, 2020 [1247, 1327]	ADT + enzalutamide	ADT + placebo	nmCRPC; baseline PSA ≥ 2 ng/mL PSA-DT ≤ 10 mo	71% reduction of distant progression or death Median MFS: enzalutamide 36.6 vs. placebo 14.7 months; 27% reduction in risk of death HR = 0.73 (95% CI: 0.61–0.89) p = 0.001
SPARTAN 2018, 2021 [1248, 1328]	ADT + apalutamide	ADT + placebo	nmCRPC; baseline PSA ≥ 2 ng/mL PSA-DT ≤ 10 mo	72% reduction of distant progression or death Median MFS: apalutamide 40.5 vs. placebo 16.2 months; 22% reduction in risk of death HR = 0.78 (95% CI: 0.64–0.96) p = 0.0161

ADT = androgen-deprivation therapy; CI = confidence interval; HR = hazard ratio; MFS = metastasis-free survival; nmCRPC = non-metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer; PSA-DT = prostate-specific antigen doubling time.

Table 6.7.2: Randomised phase III controlled trials - first-line treatment of mCRPC

Study	Intervention	Comparison	Selection criteria	Main outcomes
DOCETAXEL				
SWOG 99-16 2004 [1329]	docetaxel/EMP, every 3 weeks, 60 mg/m ² , EMP 3 x 280 mg/day	mitoxantrone, every 3 weeks, 12 mg/m ² prednisone 5 mg BID		OS: 17.52 vs. 15.6 mo. (p = 0.02, HR: 0.80; 95% CI: 0.67–0.97) PFS: 6.3 vs. 3.2 mo. (p < 0.001)

TAX 327 2004, 2008 [1260, 1261]	docetaxel, every 3 weeks, 75 mg/m ² prednisone 5 mg BID or docetaxel, weekly, 30 mg/m ² prednisone 5 mg BID	mitoxantrone, every 3 weeks, 12 mg/m ² , prednisone 5 mg BID		OS: 19.2 for 3-weekly vs. 17.8 mo. 4-weekly and 16.3 in the control group. (p = 0.004, HR: 0.79, 95% CI: 0.67–0.93)
ABIRATERONE				
COU-AA-302 2013, 2014, 2015 [1252, 1253, 1330]	abiraterone + prednisone	placebo + prednisone	- No previous docetaxel - ECOG 0–1 - PSA or radiographic progression - No or mild symptoms. - No visceral metastases	OS: 34.7 vs. 30.3 mo. (HR: 0.81, p = 0.0033) FU: 49.2 mo. rPFS: 16.5 vs. 8.3 mo. (p < 0.0001)
ENZALUTAMIDE				
PREVAIL 2014 [1255]	enzalutamide	placebo	- No previous docetaxel - ECOG 0–1 - PSA or radiographic progression - No or mild symptoms - 10% had visceral mets	OS: 32.4 vs. 30.2 mo. (p < 0.001). FU: 22 mo. (p < 0.001) HR: 0.71, 95% CI: 0.60–0.84 rPFS: 20.0 mo. vs. 5.4 mo. HR: 0.186 (95% CI: 0.15–0.23) p < 0.0001
SIPULEUCEL-T				
IMPACT 2010 [1266]	sipuleucel-T	placebo	- Some with previous docetaxel - ECOG 0–1 - Asymptomatic or minimally symptomatic	OS: 25.8 vs. 21.7 mo. (p = 0.03 HR: 0.78, 95% CI: 0.61–0.98). FU: 34.1 mo. PFS: 3.7 vs. 3.6 mo. (no difference)
2006 [1331]	sipuleucel-T		- ECOG 0–1 - No visceral met. - No corticosteroids	OS: 25.9 vs. 21.4 mo. (p = 0.1) FU: 36 mo. PFS: 11.7 vs. 10.0 wk.
COMBINATIONS				
PROpel [1226, 1227]	olaparib (300mg BID) + abiraterone (1000 mg/d) + prednisone (5 mg BID)	placebo + abiraterone + prednisone	- ECOG 0-1 - regardless of HRRm (retrospective testing) - prior taxane for mHSPC allowed	ibPFS in ITT population: 24.8 vs. 16.6 mo; HR: 0.66; 95% CI: 0.54–0.81; (p = 0.001) ibPFS in BRCA+: HR 0.24; 95% CI: 0.12- 0.45 OS in ITT population: 42.1 vs. 38.9 mo; HR 0.81; 0.95% CI: 0.81, 0.67-1.0; (p= 0,054)OS in BRCA+: HR 0.30; 95% CI: 0.15- 0.59

MAGNITUDE [1231, 1332]	niraparib 200 mg/d + abiraterone (1,000 mg/d plus prednisone 5 mg BID)	placebo + abiraterone (1,000 mg/d plus prednisone 5 mg BID)	- ECOG 0-1 - AAP ≤ 4mo allowed for mCRPC - HRR-biomarker positive cohort - prior docetaxel for mHSPC allowed - prior ARPI for mHSPC allowed - prior ARPI for mCRPC allowed	rPFS (central review) in HRR+: 16.5 vs. 13.7 mo HR = 0.73; 95% CI: 0.56-0.96; (p = 0.022) rPFS (central review) in BRCA 1/2+: rPFS 19.5 versus 10.9 months; HR= 0.55; 95% CI 0.39-0.78; (nominal p= 0.0007)
TALAPRO-2 [1233, 1240, 1268]	talazoparib (0.5mg/d) + enzalutamide 160mg/d	enzalutamide + placebo	- ECOG 0-1 - All-comers: HRR deficient and HRR non-deficient or unknown - prior AAP or docetaxel allowed for mHSPC	rPFS in ITT: NR (27.5-NR) vs. 21.9 mo; HR 0.63; 95% CI: 0.51-0.78 (p<0.0001); rPFS in BRCA+: HR 0.23; 95% CI: 0.10- 0.53 p=0.0002

BID = twice a day; CI = confidence interval; ECOG = Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group; EMP = estramustine; FU = follow-up; HR = hazard ratio; mets. = metastases; mo = month; ib (imaging based); (r)PFS = (radiographic) progression-free survival; OS = overall survival; IHC = immunohistochemistry; HRRm = homologous recombination repair genes mutation; BRCA+ = BRCA gene mutated; ITT = intention to treat; BICR = blinded independent central review.

Table 6.7.3: Randomised controlled phase II/III - second-line/third-line trials in mCRPC

Study	Intervention	Comparison	Selection criteria	Main outcomes
ABIRATERONE				
COU-AA-301 2012 [1277]	abiraterone + prednisone HR	placebo + prednisone	- Previous docetaxel - ECOG 0–2 - PSA or radiographic progression	OS: 15.8 vs. 11.2 mo. (p < 0.0001, HR: 0.74; 95% CI: 0.64–0.86; p < 0.0001). FU: 20.2 mo. rPFS: no change
COU-AA-301 2011 [1276]				OS: 14.8 vs. 10.9 mo. (p < 0.001 HR: 0.65; 95% CI: 0.54–0.77). FU: 12.8 mo. rPFS: 5.6 vs. 3.6 mo.
Radium-223				
ALSYMPCA 2013 [1279]	radium-223	placebo	- Previous or no previous docetaxel - ECOG 0–2 - Two or more symptomatic bone metastases - No visceral metastases	OS: 14.9 vs. 11.3 mo. (p = 0.002, HR: 0.61; 95% CI: 0.46–0.81). All secondary endpoints show a benefit over best SOC.
CABAZITAXEL				
TROPIC 2013 [1333]	cabazitaxel + prednisone	mitoxantrone + prednisone	- Previous docetaxel - ECOG 0–2	OS: 318/378 vs. 346/377 events (OR: 2.11; 95% CI: 1.33–3.33). FU: 25.5 months OS ≥ 2 yr. 27% vs. 16% PFS

TROPIC 2010 [1272]				OS: 15.1 vs. 12.7 mo. ($p < 0.0001$, HR: 0.70; 95% CI: 0.59–0.83). FU: 12.8 mo. PFS: 2.8 vs. 1.4 mo. ($p < 0.0001$, HR: 0.74, 95% CI: 0.64–0.86)
CARD 2019 [1237]	cabazitaxel (25 mg/m ² Q3W) + prednisone + G-CSF	ARPI: abiraterone + prednisone OR Enzalutamide	- Previous docetaxel - Progression \leq 12 mo. on prior alternative ARPI (either before or after docetaxel)	Med OS 13.6 vs. 11.0 mo. ($p = 0.008$, HR: 0.64, 95% CI: 0.46–0.89). rPFS 8.0 vs. 3.7 mo. ($p < 0.001$, HR: 0.54, 95% CI: 0.40–0.73). FU: 9.2 mo.
ENZALUTAMIDE				
AFFIRM 2012 [1278]	enzalutamide	Placebo	- Previous docetaxel. - ECOG 0–2.	OS: 18.4 vs. 13.6 mo. ($p < 0.001$, HR: 0.63; 95% CI: 0.53–0.75). FU: 14.4 mo. rPFS: 8.3 vs. 2.9 mo. (HR: 0.40; 95% CI: 0.35–0.47, $p < 0.0001$).
PARP inhibitor				
PROfound 2020 [273, 1225, 1288]	olaparib	abiraterone + prednisolone or enzalutamide; cross-over allowed at progression	- Previous ARPI, alterations in HRR genes	rPFS: 7.39 vs. 3.55 mo. ($p < 0.0001$, HR: 0.34; 95% CI: 0.25–0.47), conf. ORR 33.3% vs. 2.3% (OR 20.86, 95% CI: 4.18–379.18). OS: 19.1 mo vs. 14.7 mo (in patients with BRCA1/2, ATM alterations) ($p = 0.0175$; HR 0.69; 95% CI: 0.5–0.97).
TRITON-3 [1243]	rucaparib (600 mg BID)	docetaxel or abiraterone acetate or enzalutamide	- EOCG 0-1 - Previous one ARPI - BRCA 1/2 or ATM alteration	rPFS: ITT 10.2 mo vs. 6.4 mo, (HR 0.61; 95% CI, 0.47 to 0.80; $p <$ 0.001 for both comparisons)
Radioligand therapy				
VISION 2021 [1302]	¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 SOC	SOC alone	- Previous at least 1 ARPI and one or two taxane regimens; - Mandatory: PSMA- positive gallium-68 (⁶⁸ Ga)-labelled PSMA-PET scan	Imaging-based PFS: 8.7 vs. 3.4 mo. ($p < 0.001$; HR 0.40; 99.2% CI: 0.29–0.57) OS: 15.3 vs. 11.3 mo. ($p < 0.001$; HR 0.62; 95% CI: 0.5–0.74)
TheraP 2021 [1299, 1300]	¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 (8.5 GBq i.v.q 6-weekly, decreasing 0.5 GBq/cycle; up to 6 cycles)	¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 1:1 randomisation cabazitaxel (20 mg/m ² i.v.q 3-weekly, up to 10 cycles)	- Post docetaxel, - Suitable for cabazitaxel	First endpoint PSA reduction of > 50%: 66 vs. 37 PSA responses; 66% vs. 37% by ITT; difference 29% (95% CI: 16–42; $p < 0.0001$; and 66% vs. 44% by treatment received; difference 23% [9–37]; $p = 0.0016$). Secondary endpoint OS: 19.1 vs. 19.6 mo (¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA vs. cabazitaxel). HR: 0.97, 95% CI: 0.7–1.4 ($p = 0.99$)

PSMAfore 2023 [1284]	¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 at a dosage of 7.4 GBq (200 mCi) ± 10%; 6 cycles	¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 1:1 randomisation to ARPI- change (abiraterone or enzalutamide)	- One previous ARPI for mCRPC - No previous taxane in CRPC or HSPCb	First endpoint: rPFS 3rd data-cut- off : 11.60 mo (95% CI 9.30–14.19) vs 5.59 mo (4.21–5.95) (HR 0.49 [95% CI 0.39–0.61])
-------------------------	---	---	--	---

*Only studies reporting survival outcomes as primary endpoints have been included.

ARPI = androgen receptor pathway inhibitor; CI = confidence interval; ECOG = Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group; FU = follow-up; GBq = gigabecquerel; HR = hazard ratio; Lu = lutetium; mo = months OS = overall survival; OR = odds ratio; ORR = objective response rate; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; PSMA = prostatespecific membrane antigen; (r)PFS = (radiographic) progression-free survival; SOC = standard of care; yr = year; HRR= homologous recombination repair.

6.7.9 **Monitoring of treatment**

Baseline examinations should include a medical history, clinical examination as well as baseline blood tests (PSA, total testosterone level, full blood count, renal function, baseline liver function tests, alkaline phosphatase), bone scan and CT of chest, abdomen and pelvis [1334, 1335]. The use of choline or PSMA PET/CT scans for progressing CRPC is unclear and most likely not as beneficial as for patients with BCR or hormone-naive disease. Flares, PSMA upregulation and discordant results compared with PSA response or progression on ARPI have been described [1336]. Prostate-specific antigen alone is not reliable enough [1337] for monitoring disease activity in advanced CRPC since visceral metastases may develop in men without rising PSA [1338]. Instead, the PCWG2 recommends a combination of bone scintigraphy and CT scans, PSA measurements and clinical benefit in assessing men with CRPC [1218]. A majority of experts at the 2015 Advanced Prostate Cancer Consensus Conference (APCCC) suggested regular review and repeating blood profile every two to three months with bone scintigraphy and CT scans at least every six months, even in the absence of a clinical indication [1334]. This reflects that the agents with a proven OS benefit all have potential toxicity and considerable cost and patients with no objective benefit should have their treatment modified. The APCCC participants stressed that such treatments should not be stopped for PSA progression alone. Instead, at least two of the three criteria (PSA progression, radiographic progression and clinical deterioration) should be fulfilled to stop treatment. For trial purposes, the updated PCWG3 put more weight on the importance of documenting progression in existing lesions and introduced the concept of no longer 'clinically benefiting' to underscore the distinction between first evidence of progression and the clinical need to terminate or change treatment [1218]. These recommendations also seem valid for clinical practice outside trials.

6.7.10 **When to change treatment**

The timing of treatment change for men with metastatic prostate cancer remains a matter of debate in although it is clearly advisable to start or change treatment immediately in men with symptomatic progressing metastatic disease. Preferably, any treatment change should precede development of *de novo* symptoms or worsening of existing symptoms. Although, the number of effective treatments is increasing, head-to-head comparisons are still rare, as are prospective data assessing the sequencing of available agents. Therefore it is not clear how to select the most appropriate 'second-line' treatment, in particular in patients without HRR alterations or other biomarkers. A positive example, however, is the CARD trial which clearly established cabazitaxel as the better third-line treatment in docetaxel pre-treated patients after one ARPI compared to the use of a second ARPI [1237].

The ECOG PS has been used to stratify patients. Generally men with a PS of 0–1 are likely to tolerate treatments and those with a PS of > 2 are less likely to benefit. However, it is important that treatment decisions are individualised, in particular when symptoms related to disease progression are impacting on PS. In such cases, a trial of active life-prolonging agents to establish if a given treatment will improve the PS may be appropriate. Sequencing of treatment is discussed in the summary papers published following the 2019 and 2022 APCCC Conferences [1339, 1340].

6.7.11 **Symptomatic management in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer**

Castration-resistant PCa is usually a debilitating disease often affecting the elderly male. A multidisciplinary approach is required with input from urologists, medical oncologists, radiation oncologists, nurses, psychologists and social workers [1339, 1341]. Critical issues of palliation must be addressed when considering additional systemic treatment, including management of pain, constipation, anorexia, nausea, fatigue and depression.

6.7.11.1 Common complications due to bone metastases

Most patients with CRPC have painful bone metastases. External beam RT is highly effective, even as a single fraction [1342, 1343]. A single infusion of a third-generation bisphosphonate could be considered when RT is not available [1344]. Common complications due to bone metastases include vertebral collapse or deformity, pathological fractures and spinal cord compression. Cementation can be an effective treatment for painful spinal fracture whatever its origin, clearly improving both pain and QoL [1345]. It is important to offer standard palliative surgery, which can be effective for managing osteoblastic metastases [1346, 1347]. Impending spinal cord compression is an emergency. It must be recognised early and patients should be educated to recognise the warning signs. Once suspected, high-dose corticosteroids must be given and MRI performed as soon as possible. A systematic neurosurgery or orthopaedic surgeon consultation should be planned to discuss a possible decompression, followed by EBRT [1348]. Otherwise, EBRT with, or without, systemic therapy, is the treatment of choice.

6.7.11.2 Preventing skeletal-related events

6.7.11.2.1 Bisphosphonates

Zoledronic acid has been evaluated in mCRPC to reduce skeletal-related events (SRE). This study was conducted when no active anti-cancer treatments, but for docetaxel, were available. Six hundred and forty three patients who had CRPC with bone metastases were randomised to receive zoledronic acid, 4 or 8 mg every three weeks for fifteen consecutive months, or placebo [1349]. The 8 mg dose was poorly tolerated and reduced to 4 mg but did not show a significant benefit. However, at fifteen and 24 months of follow-up, patients treated with 4 mg zoledronic acid had fewer SREs compared to the placebo group (44 vs. 33%, $p = 0.021$) and in particular fewer pathological fractures (13.1 vs. 22.1%, $p = 0.015$). Furthermore, the time to first SRE was longer in the zoledronic acid group. No survival benefit has been seen in any prospective trial with bisphosphonates.

6.7.11.2.2 RANK ligand inhibitors

Denosumab is a fully human monoclonal antibody directed against RANKL (receptor activator of nuclear factor κ -B ligand), a key mediator of osteoclast formation, function, and survival. In M0 CRPC, denosumab has been associated with increased bone-MFS compared to placebo (median benefit: 4.2 months, HR: 0.85, $p = 0.028$) [1342]. This benefit did not translate into a survival difference (43.9 compared to 44.8 months, respectively) and neither the FDA or the EMA have approved denosumab for this indication [1350].

The efficacy and safety of denosumab ($n = 950$) compared with zoledronic acid ($n = 951$) in patients with mCRPC was assessed in a phase III trial. Denosumab was superior to zoledronic acid in delaying or preventing SREs as shown by time to first on-study SRE (pathological fracture, radiation or surgery to bone, or spinal cord compression) of 20.7 vs. 17.1 months, respectively (HR: 0.82, $p = 0.008$). Both urinary N-telopeptide and bone-specific alkaline phosphatase were significantly suppressed in the denosumab arm compared with the zoledronic acid arm ($p < 0.0001$ for both). However, these findings were not associated with any survival benefit and in a post-hoc re-evaluation of endpoints, denosumab showed identical results when comparing SREs and symptomatic skeletal events [1351].

The potential toxicity (e.g., osteonecrosis of the jaw, hypocalcaemia) of these drugs must always be kept in mind (5–8.2% in M0 CRPC and mCRPC, respectively) [1352, 1353]. Patients should have a dental examination before starting therapy as the risk of jaw necrosis is increased by several risk factors including a history of trauma, dental surgery or dental infection [1354]. Also, the risk for osteonecrosis of the jaw increased numerically with the duration of use in a pivotal trial [1355] (one year vs. two years with denosumab), but this was not statistically significant when compared to zoledronic acid [1350]. According to the EMA, hypocalcaemia is a concern in patients treated with denosumab and zoledronic acid. Hypocalcaemia must be avoided by adequate intake of calcium and vitamin D before initiating therapy [1356]. Hypocalcaemia should be identified and prevented during treatment with bone protective agents (risk of severe hypocalcaemia is 8% and 5% for denosumab and zoledronic acid, respectively) [1353]. Serum calcium should be measured in patients starting therapy and monitored during treatment, especially during the first weeks and in patients with risk factors for hypocalcaemia or on other medication affecting serum calcium. Daily calcium (> 500 mg) and vitamin D (> 400 IU equivalent) are recommended in all patients, unless in case of hypercalcaemia [1353, 1357, 1358].

6.7.12 Summary of evidence and recommendations for life-prolonging treatments of castrate-resistant disease

Summary of evidence	LE
Treatment for mCRPC will be influenced by which treatments patients have already been exposed to.	4

Recommendations	Strength rating
Ensure that testosterone levels are confirmed to be < 50 ng/dL before diagnosing castrate-resistant PCa (CRPC).	Strong
Counsel, manage and treat patients with metastatic CRPC (mCRPC) in a multidisciplinary team.	Strong
Treat patients with mCRPC with life-prolonging agents.	Strong
Offer mCRPC patients somatic and/or germline molecular testing as well as testing for mismatch repair deficiencies or microsatellite instability.	Strong

6.7.13 Recommendations for systemic treatments of castrate-resistant disease

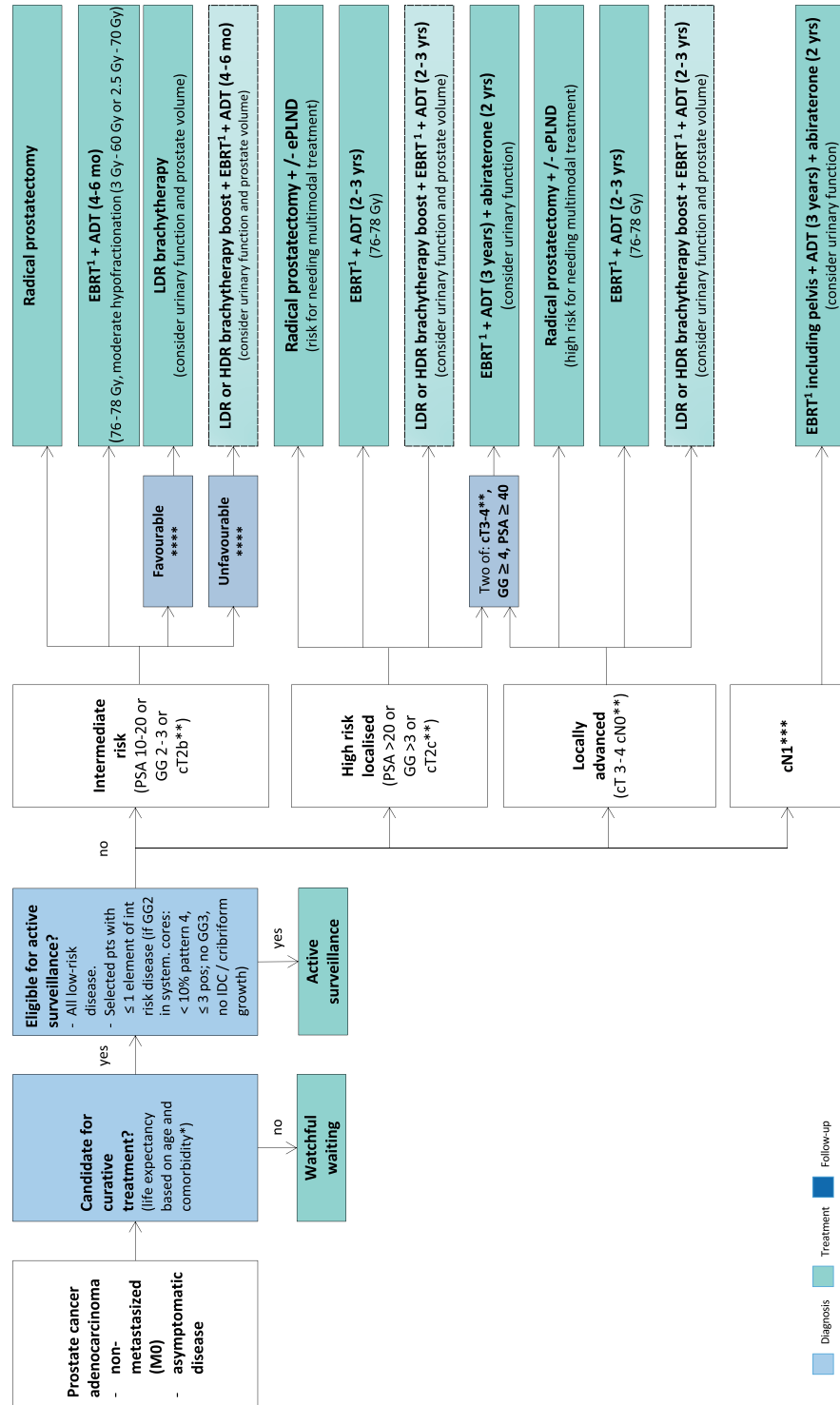
Summary statement for mCRPC first line combination therapy:

The combination of ARPI plus PARP inhibitors showed a significant rPFS benefit in RCTs for unselected patients. However, this benefit is mainly driven by HRR- and even more pronounced by *BRCA 1/2*-altered patients. So far, no clear OS benefit was seen, and the side effects of PARP inhibitors add substantial toxicity to ARPI monotherapy. Therefore, no recommendation is given for patients without HRR or *BRCA 1/2*-mutations and the data will be re-evaluated after longer follow-up.

Recommendations	Strength rating
Base the choice of treatment on the performance status (PS), symptoms, co-morbidities, location and extent of disease, genomic profile, patient preference, and on previous treatment for hormone-sensitive metastatic PCa (mHSPC) (alphabetical order: abiraterone, cabazitaxel, docetaxel, enzalutamide, ¹⁷⁷ lutetium-PSMA-617-radioligand therapy, radium-223, sipuleucel-T, and for patients with DNA homologous recombination repair (HRR) alterations olaparib, olaparib/abiraterone, niraparib/abiraterone, rucaparib, talazoparib/enzalutamide).	Strong
Avoid sequencing of androgen receptor targeted agents.	Strong
Offer chemotherapy to patients previously treated with abiraterone or enzalutamide.	Strong
Offer patients with metastatic castrate-resistant PCa (mCRPC) who are candidates for cytotoxic therapy and are chemotherapy naïve docetaxel with 75 mg/m ² every three weeks.	Strong
Offer patients previously untreated for mCRPC and harbouring an HRR or BRCA mutation abiraterone in combination with olaparib if the patient is fit for both agents and did not previously receive an ARPI.	Strong
Offer patients previously untreated for mCRPC and harbouring a BRCA mutation abiraterone in combination with niraparib if the patient is fit for both agents and did not previously receive an ARPI.	Strong
Offer patients previously untreated for mCRPC and harbouring an HRR-mutation enzalutamide in combination with talazoparib if the patient is fit for both agents and did not previously receive an ARPI.	Strong
Offer poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors to pre-treated mCRPC patients with relevant DNA repair gene mutations.	Strong
Offer patients with mCRPC and progression following docetaxel chemotherapy further life-prolonging treatment options, which include abiraterone, cabazitaxel, enzalutamide, radium-223 and olaparib in case of DNA HRR alterations.	Strong
Base further treatment decisions of mCRPC on PS, previous treatments, symptoms, co-morbidities, genomic profile, extent of disease and patient preference.	Strong
Offer abiraterone or enzalutamide to patients previously treated with one or two lines of chemotherapy.	Strong
Offer cabazitaxel to patients previously treated with docetaxel.	Strong
Offer cabazitaxel to patients previously treated with docetaxel who have progressed within twelve months of treatment with abiraterone or enzalutamide for mCRPC.	Strong
Offer ¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 to pre-treated mCRPC patients with one or more metastatic lesions, highly expressing PSMA (exceeding the uptake in the liver) on the diagnostic radiolabelled PSMA PET/CT scan.	Strong

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer apalutamide, darolutamide or enzalutamide to patients with M0 CRPC and a high risk of developing metastasis (PSA-DT < 10 months) to prolong time to metastases and overall survival.	Strong

Figure 6.4: Treatment non-metastasized (M0) – asymptomatic disease



* Rule of thumb: Life expectancy ten years.

** Recommendation based on clinical staging using digital rectal examination, not imaging.

*** Recommendation based on staging using combination of bone scan and CT.

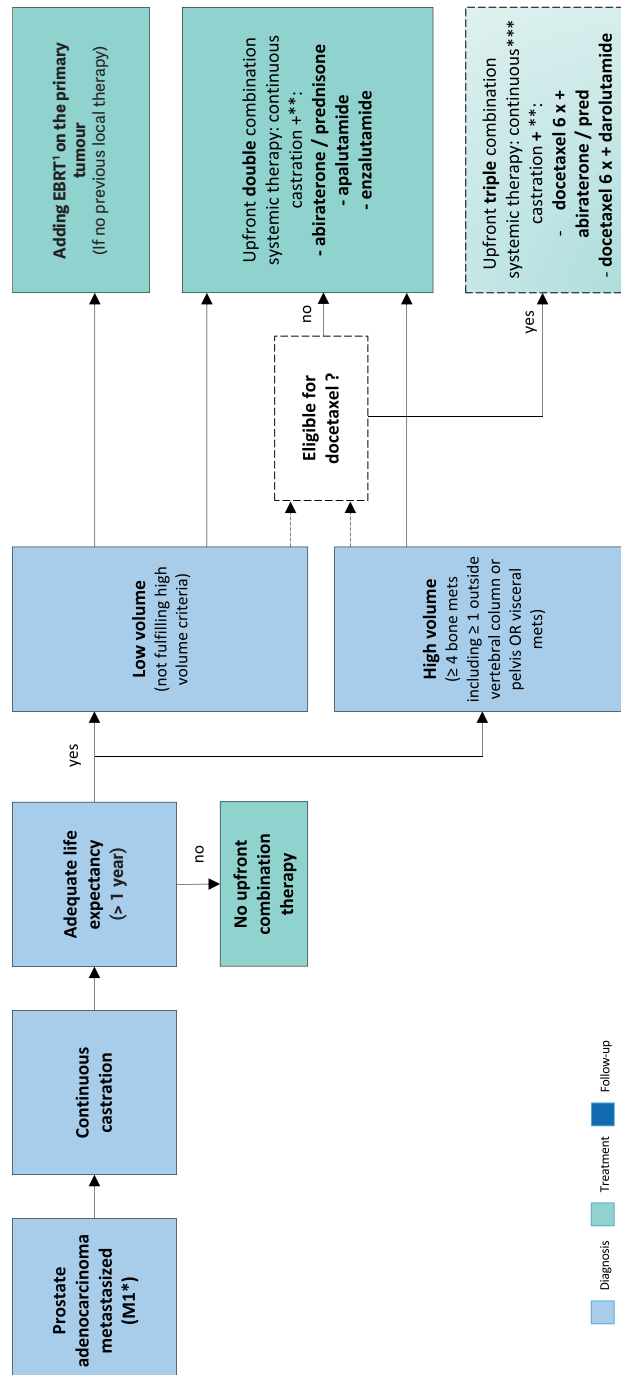
**** See text, dependent on GG and (biopsy) volume.

¹ EBRT: IMRT/VMAT + IGRT of the prostate.

▤ = weak recommendation.

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; EBRT = external beam radiotherapy; ECE = extracapsular extension; ePLND = extended pelvic lymph node dissection; GG = grade group; HDR = high-dose rate; IDC = intraducal carcinoma; IGRT = image-guided radiotherapy; IMRT = intensity-modulated radiotherapy; LDR = low-dose rate; VMAT = volumetric modulated arc therapy.

Figure 6.5: Treatment of metastasized (M1*) – disease, M+HSPC



* Based on staging using combination of bone scan and CT.

** Alphabetical order.

***not for low volume, metachronous disease.

¹ EBRT: IMRT/VMAT + IGRT of the prostate (equivalent of up to 72 Gy in 2 Gy fractions).

▤ = weak recommendation.

EBRT = external beam radiotherapy; IGRT = image-guided radiotherapy; IMRT = intensity-modulated radiotherapy.

#Note: Please be aware that the various options in the following flowcharts present a generalised approach only, and cannot take the management of individual patients into account, nor the availability of resources.

7. FOLLOW-UP

The rationale for following up patients is to assess immediate- and long-term oncological results, to ensure treatment compliance and allow initiation of further therapy, when appropriate. In addition, follow-up allows monitoring of side effects or complications of therapy, functional outcomes and an opportunity to provide psychological support to PCa survivors, all of which is covered in Chapter 8.

For patients the most critical aspect of PCa is the diagnosis, the ensuing treatment, and follow-up. These must be discussed between the patient and the clinician to make a shared-decision on the treatment and the planned follow-up, including modalities, periodicity and how this will be communicated to the patient. The patient must be prepared for different potential outcomes of the follow-up, e.g., PSA levels, and what to expect from these. Otherwise, even a very small increase in PSA levels can cause unnecessary fear, even panic.

7.1 Watchful waiting

Watchful waiting refers to conservative management for patients deemed unsuitable for curative treatment from the outset. Patients are clinically 'watched' for the development of local or systemic progression with (imminent) disease-related complaints, at which stage they are then treated palliatively according to their symptoms in order to maintain QoL (see section 6.2.1.)

7.2 Active surveillance strategy

Patients included in an AS programme should be monitored according to the recommendations presented in section 6.2.3.1.

7.3 Follow-up: After local treatment with curative intent

7.3.1 Definition

Local treatment is defined as RP or RT, either by IMRT plus IGRT or LDR- or HDR-BT, or any combination of these, including neoadjuvant and adjuvant hormonal therapy. Unestablished alternative treatments such as HIFU, cryosurgery and focal therapy options do follow the general principles as presented in this section. In general, a confirmed rising PSA is considered a sign of disease recurrence.

7.3.2 Why follow-up?

The first post-treatment clinic visit focuses on detecting treatment-related complications and assisting patients in coping with their new situation, as well as providing information on the pathological analysis. Men with PCa are at increased risk of depression and attention for mental health status is required [1359, 1360]. Tumour or patient characteristics may prompt changing the follow-up schedule. Follow-up also allows the introduction of additional/salvage treatments that should be considered necessary in light of the anticipated life-expectancy, patients symptoms and EAU risk categories for biochemical recurrence (see 6.1 and Table 4.3).

7.3.3 How to follow-up?

The procedures indicated at follow-up visits vary according to the clinical situation. A disease-specific history is mandatory at every follow-up visit and includes psychological aspects, signs of disease progression, and treatment-related complications. Evaluation of treatment-related complications in the post-treatment period is highlighted in section 8.2. The examinations used for cancer-related follow-up after curative surgery or RT are discussed below.

7.3.3.1 Prostate-specific antigen monitoring

Measurement of PSA is the cornerstone of follow-up after local treatment. While PSA thresholds depend on the local treatment used, PSA recurrence almost always precedes clinical recurrence [1361, 1362]. The key question is to establish when a PSA rise is clinically significant since not all PSA increases have the same clinical value (see section 6.4.2) [933]. No prospective studies are available on the optimal timing for PSA testing and the impact on oncological outcomes.

7.3.3.1.1 Prostate-specific antigen monitoring after radical prostatectomy

Following RP, the PSA level is expected to be undetectable. Biochemical recurrence is any rising PSA after prostatectomy as defined in section 6.3.6. Prostate-specific antigen level is expected to be undetectable two months after a RP [1363]. Prostate-specific antigen is generally determined every six months until three years and yearly thereafter but the evidence for a specific interval is low [551] and mainly based on the observation that early recurrences are more likely to be associated with more rapid progression [933, 1364, 1365]. A rising PSA may occur after longer intervals up to 20 years after treatment and depends on the initial risk group [879]. A yearly PSA after three years is considered adequate considering the fact that a longer interval to BCR is correlated with a lower EAU-BCR risk score but around 50% of recurrence should be expected beyond 3 years,

follow-up should be terminated if life expectancy drops < 10 years. As mentioned in Section 6.4.2 no definitive threshold can be given for relapse after RP. Persistently measurable PSA in patients treated with RP is discussed in section 6.3.6.

Ultrasensitive PSA assays remain controversial for routine follow-up after RP. Men with a PSA nadir < 0.01 ng/mL have a high (96%) likelihood of remaining relapse-free within two years [1366]. In addition, post-RP PSA levels > 0.01 ng/mL in combination with clinical characteristics such as ISUP GG and surgical margin status may predict PSA progression and can be useful to establish follow-up intervals [1365]. However, up to 86% of men were reported to have PSA values below 0.2 ng/mL at five years after an initial PSA nadir below 0.1 ng/mL within six months after surgery [1367].

7.3.3.1.2 Prostate-specific antigen monitoring after radiotherapy

Following RT, PSA drops more slowly as compared to post RP. A PSA nadir < 0.5 ng/mL is associated with a favourable outcome after RT although the optimal cut-off value remains controversial [1368]. The interval before reaching the PSA nadir can be up to three years, or more. At the 2006 RTOG-ASTRO Consensus Conference the Phoenix definition of radiation failure was proposed to establish a better correlation between definition and clinical outcome (mainly metastases), namely, an increase of 2 ng/mL above the post-treatment PSA nadir [954]. This definition also applies to patients who received ADT [954].

7.3.3.2 Digital rectal examination

Local recurrence after curative treatment is possible without a concomitant rise in PSA level although very rarely [1369]. This has only been proven in patients with unfavourable undifferentiated tumours. Prostate specific antigen and DRE comprise the most useful combination for first-line examination in follow-up after RT but the role of DRE was questioned since it failed to detect any local recurrence in the absence of a rising PSA in a series of 899 patients [1370]. In a series of 1,118 prostatectomy patients, no local histologically proven recurrence was found by DRE alone and PSA measurement may be the most efficient test needed after RP [1371, 1372].

7.3.3.3 Transrectal ultrasound, bone scintigraphy, CT, MRI and PET/CT

Imaging techniques have no place in routine follow-up of localised PCa as long as the PSA is not rising. Imaging is only justified in patients for whom the findings will affect treatment decisions, either in case of BCR or in patients with symptoms (see section 6.4.4.3 for a more detailed discussion).

7.3.3.4 Functional follow-up

All local treatments for PCa may cause short- and long-term side effect of various degree that will affect the patients' QoL. For quality control, and in order to help the patient in choosing the optimal treatment for him, it is essential that the functional outcomes of any treatment given is measured and registered by validated and reproducible methods. In order to address side effects and their impact of QoL specific tools or 'patient-reported outcome measures' (PROMs) have been developed and validated for men with PCa. These questionnaires assess common issues after PCa diagnosis and treatment and generate scores which reflect the impact on perceptions of HRQoL. For further discussion on this see section 8.3.

7.3.4 How long to follow-up?

Most patients who fail treatment for PCa do so within seven years after local therapy [1373]. Patients should be followed more closely during the initial post-treatment period when risk of failure is highest. PSA measurement, disease-specific history and DRE (if considered) are recommended every six months until three years and then annually. Whether follow-up should be stopped if PSA remains undetectable (after RP) or stable (after RT) remains an unanswered question, but it seems fair that follow-up is only done to the point that if a recurrence is found the patient is fit enough for salvage therapy.

Risk assessment to predict metastases-free and PCa-specific survival after recurrence after primary treatment may guide individual decisions on a need for longer follow-up [884, 933, 1374]. Even in men with a PSA-DT less than ten months after RP who choose to defer treatment, a median MFS of 192 months and OS of 204 months from RP was observed, indicating the relatively long disease-free intervals observed in men with a rising PSA after local treatment [1375].

Symptomatic recurrence without a PSA rise is extremely rare; however, the symptoms typical for recurrent disease may vary and are poorly defined by published data. In case of the following symptoms PSA testing should be performed to exclude a possible cancer recurrence in particular in men not followed up by regular testing of their PSA levels: pelvic/skeletal pain, haematuria, progressive LUTS, progressive lower body oedema, progressive bowel complaints or complaints of fatigue, sarcopenia or unexplained weight loss [1376].

7.3.5 Summary of evidence and recommendations for follow-up after treatment with curative intent

Summary of evidence	LE
A detectable PSA, indicating a relapse of the disease, must be differentiated from a clinically meaningful relapse. The PSA threshold that best predicts further metastases after RP is > 0.4 ng/mL and > NADIR + 2 ng/mL after IMRT/VMAT plus IGRT (\pm ADT).	3

Recommendations	Strength rating
Routinely follow-up asymptomatic patients by obtaining at least a disease-specific history and a prostate-specific antigen measurement.	Strong
At recurrence, only perform imaging if the result will affect treatment planning.	Strong

7.4 Follow-up: During first line hormonal treatment (androgen sensitive period)

7.4.1 Introduction

Androgen deprivation therapy is used in various situations: combined with RT for localised or locally-advanced disease, as monotherapy for a relapse after a local treatment, or in the presence of metastatic disease often in combination with other treatments. All these situations are based on the benefits of testosterone blockage or suppression either by drugs (LHRH agonists or antagonists) or orchidectomy. In the majority of patients with metastatic PCa, castrate resistance will develop, defined as PCa progression despite a testosterone level < 50 ng/dL during maintained ADT, which is usually maintained during the entire mHSPC and mCRPC phases.

This section addresses the general principles of follow-up of patients on ADT alone. Section 6.5.3 includes further information on other drug treatments. Furthermore, the specific follow-up needed for every single drug is outside the scope of this text, as is follow-up after chemotherapy.

To detect disease- and treatment-related complaints, regular clinical follow-up is mandatory and cannot be replaced by imaging or laboratory tests alone.

7.4.2 Purpose of follow-up

The main objectives of follow-up in patients receiving ADT are to ensure treatment compliance, to monitor treatment response, to detect side effects early, and to guide treatment at the time point of clinical progression. After the initiation of ADT, it is recommended that patients are evaluated every three to six months. This must be individualised and each patient should be advised to contact his physician in the event of troublesome symptoms. This is even more important for patients who receive a combination of ADT and other potent medication, e.g., ARPI where the frequency of follow-up is monthly for the first three months, for their disease.

7.4.3 General follow-up of men on ADT

Patients under ADT require regular follow-up, including monitoring of serum testosterone, creatinine, liver function and metabolic parameters at three to six month intervals. Men on ADT can experience toxicity independent of their disease stage. Androgen deprivation therapy induced bone density loss increases the risk of fractures [1377]. Therefore, assessment of bone density before and during treatment with ADT with or without a combination with other drugs is essential.

As the consequences of ADT are so varying, a structured follow-up including lab results, radiology and QoL, may be of value both for the patient and for the treating physician [1378].

7.4.3.1 Testosterone monitoring

Testosterone monitoring should be considered standard clinical practice in men on ADT. Many men receiving medical castration will achieve a castrate testosterone level (< 20 ng/dL), and most a testosterone level < 50 ng/dL. However, approximately 13–38% of patients fail to achieve these levels and up to 24% of men may experience temporary testosterone surges (testosterone > 50 ng/dL) during long-term treatment [1363] referred to as 'acute on-chronic effect' or 'breakthrough response' [1379]. Breakthrough rates for the < 20 ng/dL threshold were found to be more frequent (41.3%) and an association with worse clinical outcomes was suggested [1379].

The timing of measurements is not clearly defined. A three to six month testosterone level assessment has been suggested to ensure castration is achieved (especially during medical castration) and maintained. In case a castrate testosterone level is not reached, switching to another agonist or antagonist or to an orchiectomy should be considered. In patients with a confirmed rising PSA and/or clinical progression, serum testosterone must be evaluated in all cases to confirm a castration-resistant state. Ideally, suboptimal testosterone castrate levels should be confirmed with an appropriate assay [1380, 1381]. After ADT cessation (intermittent treatment or temporary ADT use as with EBRT) testosterone recovery is dependent on patients age and the duration of ADT [1382, 1383].

7.4.3.2 *Liver function monitoring*

Liver function tests will detect treatment toxicity (especially applicable for NSAA), but rarely indicate disease progression. Men on combined ADT should have their transaminase levels checked at least yearly but in particular in the first six months of treatment initiation since liver function disorders were observed relatively early in the majority of patients in larger trials [1384]. In view of potential liver toxicity a more frequent check is needed with some drugs (including abiraterone acetate) [1385].

7.4.3.3 *Serum creatinine and haematological parameters*

Estimated glomerular filtration rate monitoring is good clinical practice as an increase may be linked to ureteral obstruction or bladder retention. A decline in haemoglobin is a known side effect of ADT. A significant decline after three months of ADT is independently associated with shorter progression-free and OS rates and might explain significant fatigue although other causes should be considered [1386]. Anaemia is often multi-factorial and other possible aetiologies should be excluded. An early decrease in haemoglobin three months after ADT initiation predicted better survival whereas a decrease beyond six months was associated with poor outcome in the SPCG-5 population [1387]. Radiotherapy to extensive bone metastases locations may result in myelosuppression and haematological toxicity [1388, 1389].

7.4.3.4 *Monitoring of metabolic complications*

The most severe complications of androgen suppression are metabolic syndrome, cardiovascular morbidity, mental health problems, and bone resorption (see Section 8.2.5).

All patients should be screened for diabetes by checking fasting glucose and HbA1c (at baseline and routinely) in addition to checking blood lipid levels. Men with impaired glucose tolerance and/or diabetes should be referred for an endocrine consultation. Prior to starting ADT an ECG should be done. A cardiology consultation is recommended, as a minimum, in men with a history of cardiovascular disease and depending on the combination drug planned also an ECHO. Men on ADT are at increased risk of cardiovascular problems and hypertension and regular checks are required [1390]. More profound androgen ablation resulted in a higher cardiovascular toxicity [1391] and cardio-respiratory fitness decreased even after six months of ADT [1392].

7.4.3.5 *Monitoring bone problems*

Androgen deprivation therapy increases the risk of osteoporosis. A combination of ADT with apalutamide, darolutamide, enzalutamide, abiraterone plus prednisone or docetaxel increases the fracture risk even more [1179, 1393, 1394]. Administration of ADT for more than a year, as compared to less than one year, showed a higher risk of osteoporosis (HR: 1.77 and 1.38, respectively) [1395]. Several scores (e.g., Fracture Risk Assessment Tool [FRAX score], Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool [OST], Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument [ORAI], Osteoporosis Index of Risk [OSIRIS], Osteoporosis Risk Estimation [SCORE]) can help identify men at risk of osteoporotic complications but validation of these scores in the ADT setting is required (see section 8.3.2.2) [1285, 1396, 1397].

Vitamin D and calcium levels should be regularly monitored when patients receive ADT and patients should be supplemented if needed (see Section 8.3.2.2).

Routine bone monitoring for osteoporosis should be performed at the start of ADT using dual emission X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) scan [1286, 1398, 1399]. Presence of osteoporosis should prompt the use of bone protective agents. The criteria for initiation of bone protective agents are mentioned in Section 8.3.2.2. If no bone protective agents are given, a DEXA scan should be done regularly, at least every two years [1400].

A review summarising the incidence of bone fractures showed an almost doubling of the risk of fractures when using ADT depending on patients' age and duration and type of ADT with the highest incidence in older men and men on additional novel ARPI medication across the entire spectrum of disease [1401]. In case of an osteoporotic fracture a bone protective agent is mandatory.

7.4.3.6 *Monitoring lifestyle, cognition, fatigue and sexual function*

Lifestyle (e.g., diet, exercise, smoking status, etc.) affects QoL and potentially outcome [1402]. During follow-up men should be counselled on the beneficial effects of exercise to decrease ADT-related toxicity [1403]. Androgen deprivation therapy may affect mental and cognitive health and men on ADT are three times more likely to report depression [1404]. Attention to mental health should therefore be an integral part of the follow-up scheme. Men on ADT may experience complaints of fatigue possibly related to systemic inflammation [1405]. Reduced cognitive performance and fatigue may arise within six months after initiation of ADT but can improve over time [1406]. Another aspect of starting ADT is that it leads to sexual dysfunction, causing > 80% of couples to cease sexual activity completely. This aspect affects patients as well as their partners and couple counselling should be considered [1407].

7.4.4 **Methods of follow-up in men on ADT without metastases**

7.4.4.1 *Prostate-specific antigen monitoring*

Prostate-specific antigen is a key marker for following the course of androgen-sensitive non-metastasized PCa. Imaging should be considered when PSA is rising > 2 ng/mL or in case of symptoms suggestive of metastasis.

7.4.4.2 *Imaging*

The choice of imaging modality is between PSMA-PET/CT, with higher sensitivity, and conventional imaging with CT or MRI and bone-scan on which almost all clinical studies and guideline recommendations are based (see section 5.8). Next generation imaging with its higher sensitivity may detect progression earlier. Imaging should be scheduled regularly, also in asymptomatic patients with stable PSA, as the earlier recommendation that asymptomatic patients with a stable PSA level do not require further imaging may no longer hold true. This is especially true in patients with aggressive variants when PSA levels may not reflect tumour progression [1408]. New bone pain requires at least targeted imaging and potentially a bone scan. When PSA progression suggests CRPC status and treatment modification is considered, imaging, by means of a bone and CT scan, is currently recommended for restaging.

7.4.5 **Methods for follow-up in men under ADT for hormone-sensitive metastatic PCa**

In metastatic patients it is of the utmost importance to counsel about early signs of spinal cord compression, urinary tract complications (ureteral obstruction, bladder outlet obstruction) or bone lesions that are at an increased fracture risk. Since most men will receive another anti-cancer therapy combined with ADT such as ARPI, chemotherapy, local RT, or combinations, follow-up frequency should also be dependent on the treatment modality. A secondary analysis of the Titan study found that nearly half of the patients developing subsequent radiographic progression had no concomitant PSA progression, suggesting that heavy reliance on PSA monitoring may be inadequate for assessing disease activity in this context [1180]. The specific points related to follow-up during the castrate-resistant situation are detailed in section 6.7.9.

7.4.5.1 *PSA monitoring*

In men on ADT alone, a PSA decline to < 4 ng/mL suggests a likely prolonged response and follow-up visits may be scheduled every three to six months provided the patient is asymptomatic or clinically improving. This applied to men on ADT monotherapy as well as after ADT plus docetaxel [1155]. Depending on symptoms and risk assessment, more frequent visits may be indicated. Treatment response may be evaluated based on a change in serum PSA level [1154, 1155] and bone- and CT scan, although there is no consensus about how frequently these should be performed [1339]. A rise in PSA level usually precedes the onset of clinical symptoms by several months. A rising PSA should prompt assessment of testosterone level, which is mandatory to define CRPC status, as well as restaging using imaging. However, it is now recognised that a stable PSA during ADT is not enough to characterise a non-progressive situation [1409]. During the combination treatment with ADT and ARPI treatment, reliance on PSA without regular imaging might miss early detection of progressive PCa as a secondary analysis of the Titan study found that nearly half of patients developing subsequent radiographic progression had no concomitant PSA [1180].

7.4.5.2 *Imaging as a marker of response in metastatic PCa*

Treatment response in soft-tissue metastases can be assessed by morphological imaging methods using the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours (RECIST) criteria. However, these criteria cannot be used for bone metastases where response assessment is difficult [1410, 1411].

When bone scan is used to follow bone metastases, a quantitative estimation of tracer uptake at bone scan can be obtained through automated methods such as the Bone Scan Index [1412]. Nonetheless, bone scan is challenging due to the so-called 'flare' phenomenon which is defined by the treatment-induced demasking of earlier invisible metastases. This "flare" actually represents a favourable response when observed within eight to twelve weeks of treatment initiation. The differentiation between progression of bone metastases and this "flare" requires repeated bone scans. Computed tomography cannot be used to monitor sclerotic bone lesions because bone sclerosis can occur under effective treatment and reflects bone healing. Magnetic resonance imaging can directly assess the bone marrow and demonstrate progression based on morphologic criteria or changes in apparent diffusion coefficient. A standardisation for reporting is available [1413]. The ability of PET/CT to assess response has been evaluated in a few studies. Until further data are available, MRI and PET/CT should not be used outside trials for treatment monitoring in metastatic patients [1414].

Men with metastasized PCa on ADT should also, in the absence of a PSA rise, be followed up with regular imaging since twenty-five percent of men with, or without, docetaxel in the CHAARTED trial developed clinical progression without a PSA rise [1409]. One in eight men with a PSA < 2 ng/mL showed clinical progression [1409]. The addition of docetaxel to ADT in the CHAARTED trial population did not reduce the incidence of clinical progression at low PSA values and this rate was similar for both low- and high-volume

disease as per CHAARTED criteria [1409]. Also during the combination of ADT and ARPI treatment in mHSPC, reliance on PSA without regular imaging might miss early detection of progressive PCa as a secondary analysis of the Titan study found that nearly half of the patients developing subsequent radiographic progression had no concomitant PSA progression [1180]. In the Prevail study, nearly one-quarter of mCRPC patients on enzalutamide had radiographic progression without increasing PSA [1415]. However, the optimal timing and image modality to be used remain unclear, as is the real clinical value of any findings.

7.4.6 Recommendations for follow-up during hormonal treatment

Recommendations	Strength rating
The follow-up strategy must be individualised based on stage of disease, prior symptoms, prognostic factors and the treatment given.	Strong
In patients on long-term androgen deprivation therapy (ADT), measure initial bone mineral density to assess fracture risk.	Strong
In patients receiving combination treatment offer bone protection to avoid fractures.	Strong
In patients with stage M0 disease, schedule follow-up at least every six months. As a minimum requirement, include a disease-specific history, serum prostate-specific antigen (PSA) determination, as well as liver and renal function in the diagnostic work-up.	Strong
In M1 patients, schedule follow-up at least every three to six months including imaging at regular intervals.	Strong
During follow-up of patients receiving ADT, check PSA and testosterone levels and monitor patients for symptoms associated with metabolic syndrome as a side effect of ADT.	Strong
In patients on long-term ADT, as a minimum requirement, include a medical history including assessment of ADT-induced complications, haemoglobin, serum creatinine, alkaline phosphatase, lipid profiles and HbA1c level measurements.	Strong
Counsel patients (especially with M1b status) about the clinical signs suggestive of spinal cord compression.	Strong
When disease progression is suspected, restaging is needed and the subsequent follow-up adapted/individualised.	Strong
In patients with suspected progression, assess the testosterone level. By definition, castration-resistant PCa requires a testosterone level < 50 ng/dL (< 1.7 nmol/L).	Strong

8. QUALITY OF LIFE OUTCOMES IN PROSTATE CANCER

This chapter is presented in two parts. The first (Section 8.2) will summarise long-term consequences (\geq twelve months) of therapies for PCa. Based on two SRs, the second (Section 8.3) provides evidence-based recommendations for supporting patients when selecting primary treatment options for localised disease and also supportive interventions aimed at improving disease-specific QoL across all stages of disease.

8.1 Introduction

Quality of life and personalised care go hand in hand. Treating PCa can affect an individual both physically and mentally, as well as close relations and work or vocation. These multi-faceted issues all have a bearing on an individual's perception of QoL [1416, 1417]. Approaching care from a holistic point of view requires the intervention of a multi-disciplinary team including urologists, medical oncologists, radiation oncologists, oncology nurses, behavioural practitioners and many others including fellow patients. Attention to the psychosocial concerns of people with PCa is integral to quality clinical care, and this can include the needs of carers and partners [1418]. Prostate cancer care should not be reduced to focusing on the organ in isolation: side effects or late adverse effects of treatment can manifest systemically and have a major influence on the patient's QoL. Psychological distress can be caused by the cancer diagnosis itself, cancer symptoms and/or treatment side effects [1419]. Taking QoL into consideration relies on understanding the patient's values and preferences so that optimal treatment proposals can be formulated and discussed. Cross-sectional patient reported outcomes studies in general PCa populations show the impact of treatment on global and disease

specific QoL is greater than that described in clinical trial populations who often have less co-morbidity and belong to higher socio-economic groups. Individuals undergoing two or more treatments have more symptoms and greater impact on QoL [1420, 1421]. Subgroups of people including those with poor general health, being unmarried, older age and/or pre-existing depressive symptoms are more at risk of long-term mental health issues following treatment for PCa [1422].

8.2 Adverse effects of PCa therapies

8.2.1 Active surveillance

In a SR [1423] on the long-term (> five year) health-related QoL in patients on AS, it was observed that there were differences in specific functional outcomes between patients on AS and surgery or radiotherapy, \geq five year after treatment. In patients on AS, the overall HRQoL and psychological well-being outcomes were good. All studies comparing AS with active treatment found no substantial or consistent difference in general HRQoL PROMs between groups. In preservation of continence there is a clear advantage for AS over, active treatment, particularly to RP. Results suggest that even after extended periods, continence is still considerably superior in AS to that in RP. Obstructive voiding symptoms were more common in patients on AS than in post-operative patients. In the domain of sexual function, it is seen that AS group has better than or comparable sexual function to that in the active treatment group. Studies comparing AS with that of PCa-free patients had mixed results with papers observing no statistically significant difference and others reporting that sexual function was, at least numerically, worse in patients on AS than in PCa-free patients. All patients on AS report good QoL, similar to that in individuals without prostate cancer [1424]. Regarding anxiety it was seen in a registry on AS in the USA that men undergoing AS, had a moderate risk of cancer-specific anxiety that significantly decreases over time. Patients considering active surveillance can be informed that, although it is common experience some anxiety initially, most men rapidly adjust and report low levels of anxiety within two years [1424].

8.2.2 Surgery

A lack of clear consensus in reporting surgical complications following RP, specifically urinary incontinence and stricture rates, and the introduction of different techniques has resulted in a wide variation in the types of complications reported, as well as variation in the overall incidence of complications [1425-1428]. The most common post-operative complication is ED but other related issues to consider include dry ejaculation, which occurs with removal of the prostate, change in the quality of orgasm and occasional pain on orgasm. Men also complain of loss of penile length (3.73%, 19/510 men) [1429]. The second most commonly occurring complication is long-term incontinence [1425-1428] but voiding difficulties may also occur associated with bladder neck contracture (e.g., 1.1% after RALP) [1430].

A key consideration is whether long-term consequences of surgery are reduced by using newer techniques such as RALP. Systematic reviews have documented complication rates after RALP [681, 683-686], and can be compared with contemporaneous reports after RRP [687]. From these reports, the mean continence rates at twelve months were 89–100% for patients treated with RALP and 80–97% for patients treated with RRP. A prospective controlled non-randomised trial of patients undergoing RP in fourteen centres using RALP or RRP demonstrated that at twelve months after RALP, 21.3% were incontinent, as were 20.2% after RRP. The unadjusted OR was 1.08 (95% CI: 0.87–1.34). Erectile dysfunction was observed in 70.4% after RALP and 74.7% after RRP. The unadjusted OR was 0.81 (95% CI: 0.66–0.98) [688, 1431]. Further follow-up demonstrates similar functional outcomes with both techniques at 24 months [1431, 1432]. A single-centre randomised phase III study comparing RALP and RRP (n = 326) also demonstrates similar functional outcomes with both techniques at 24 months [1433]. Prostatectomy was found to increase the risk of complaints from an inguinal hernia, in particular after an open procedure when compared to minimally-invasive approaches [1434, 1435]. For those undergoing minimally-invasive procedures port site hernia has been reported in 0.66% after inserting 12 mm bladeless trocar and can occur more rarely with 8 mm and 5 mm trocars [1436]. Another complication after primary treatment is lower limb and genital lymphedema. A SR found a prevalence of (0-14%) lower limb and (0-1%) genital lymphedema after radical prostatectomy with PLND [1437] and between 0-9% and 0-8% in patients after irradiation on the LNs. In the subgroup that underwent pelvic irradiation after staging pelvic LNs dissections the prevalence of lower limb (18-29%) and genital (2-22%) is substantially elevated.

8.2.3 Radiotherapy

8.2.3.1 Side effects of external beam radiotherapy

Analysis of the toxicity outcomes of the ProtecT trial shows that patients treated with EBRT and six months of ADT report bowel toxicity including persistent diarrhoea, bowel urgency and/or incontinence and rectal bleeding (described in detail in Section 8.3.1.1 below) [1438]. Participants in the ProtecT study were treated with 3D-CRT and studies using IMRT demonstrate less bowel toxicity than noted previously with 3D-CRT [1439].

A SR and meta-analysis of observational studies comparing patients exposed or unexposed to RT in the course of treatment for PCa demonstrates an increased risk of developing second cancers for bladder (OR: 1.39), colorectal (OR: 1.68) and rectum (OR: 1.62) with similar risks over lag times of five and ten years. Absolute excess risks over ten years are small (1–4%) but should be discussed with younger patients in particular [1440].

Patient-reported outcomes suggest a temporary drop in the EPIC hormonal and sexual domains when six months of ADT was added to radiotherapy, with a disappearance of any clinical relevant difference at one year [1206, 1441].

8.2.3.2 *Side effects from brachytherapy*

Some patients experience significant urinary complications following implantation such as urinary retention (1.5–22%), with post-implantation TURP reported as being required in up to 8.7% of cases, and incontinence (0–19%) [1442]. Chronic urinary morbidity is more common with combined EBRT and BT and can occur in up to 20% of patients, depending on the severity of the symptoms before BT. Urethral strictures account for at least 50% of urinary complications and can be resolved with dilation in the majority [787, 794]. Prevention of morbidity depends on careful patient selection and IPSS score, backed up by urodynamic studies.

8.2.4 **Local primary whole-gland treatments other than surgery or radiotherapy**

8.2.4.1 *Whole-gland treatments*

In a SR and meta-analysis there was evidence that the rate of urinary incontinence at one year was lower for whole gland cryotherapy than for RP, but the size of the difference decreased with longer follow-up [807]. There was no significant difference between cryotherapy vs. EBRT in terms of urinary incontinence at one year (< 1%); cryotherapy had a similar ED rate (range 0–40%) to RP at one year. Whole gland HIFU on the other hand showed lower incontinence rates at one-year than RP (OR: 0.06; 95% CI: 0.01–0.48) [807].

8.2.4.2 *Focal treatments*

Over the last decade, prostate cancer is detected at earlier stage with smaller tumours and with more patients potentially suitable for focal therapy [811–813]. Focal therapy is seeking the optimal balance regarding cancer control and functional outcome. A recent SR included data from 5,827 patients across 72 studies covering different energy sources and found evidence that focal therapy has favourable functional outcomes and minimises AEs [817]. For focal HIFU and cryotherapy, this SR showed pad-free continence rates above 95% and a median decrease of erectile function of only 12%. A SR with only prospective data found that focal ablation showed only 9% reduction in sexual function scores, compared to 43% for whole gland ablation at one year [818].

8.2.5 **Androgen deprivation therapy**

Quality of life

Androgen deprivation therapy impacts sexual function, mood, depression, cognitive function, as well as the relationship with the patient's partner [1443, 1444].

A small RCT evaluated the QoL at one-year follow-up in patients with PSA only relapse after primary therapy without evidence of metastasis, between various ADT regimens, or no treatment. Patients treated by ADT reported a significant decline in spatial reasoning, spatial abilities and working memory as well as increased depression, tension, anxiety, fatigue, and irritability during treatment [1445]. Conversely, a prospective observational study with follow-up out to three years failed to demonstrate any association with cognitive decline in men on ADT when compared to men with PCa not treated with ADT and healthy controls [1446]. A prospective observational study of locally advanced PCA or BCR after local therapy found that immediate ADT was associated with a lower overall QoL compared to deferred treatment [1447].

Androgen deprivation therapy-induced are non-negligible and tend to increase over time, prompting attempts to treat metastatic PCa patients while keeping intact the gonadal function, i.e., physiologic testosterone level.

Metastasis directed therapy (MDT) for men with oligometastatic PCa is a strategy to avoid or at least postpone the initiation of ADT. The period of ADT free survival or eugonadal PFS has been applied as end-point for several studies and future reports on its correlation with QoL are awaited. Eugonadal PFS may be prolonged by MDT as compared to intermittent hormone treatment alone in men with at maximum oligometastatic PCa either at primary diagnosis or after recurrence [1211]. The EORTC-GUCG 1532 study used eugonadal PFS as end-point as well and showed that it can be achieved with an ARPI with similar PSA response as ADT [1448].

The three-armed Embark study in men with biochemical recurrence randomised to either ADT alone, Enzalutamid alone or ADT & Enzalutamide demonstrated that treatment with an ARPI without ADT is not without toxicities and less effective than the combination of ADT & ARPI. The choice between the different treatment options will depend on each patient's preferences after thorough information by the treating physician.

Different types of ADT

A SR and meta-analysis assessed potential benefits of intermittent vs. continuous ADT [1449]. Of note, only a minority of patients with less aggressive PCa is considered eligible for intermittent ADT. The meta-analysis did not reveal an advantage of continuous over intermittent ADT in PCSM and did neither show a significant reduction in non-PCa mortality of intermittent versus continuous ADT.

In men with metastatic PCa, ADT is to be applied continuously and surgical orchiectomy represents a definitive treatment with similar outcomes as compared to LHRH analogues, as demonstrated in a SR of 15 studies comprising almost 60,000 men on medical ADT as opposed to close to 5,000 men on surgical ADT [1450]. Surgical ADT is considered cost-effective and might prove beneficial for the patient's well-being as a retrospective study suggested less reported worry and physical discomfort, better overall health and a higher likelihood of considering oneself free of cancer than men receiving LHRH agonists continuously. The stage at diagnosis had no effect on health outcomes [1451].

ADT duration reduced the likelihood of testosterone recovery and prolongs the time to recovery significantly. In 1,230 men with localised PCa randomised to RT without ADT or with ADT for 6, 18 or 36 months normal testosterone was measured in 87% without ADT, 76% after 6 months, 55% after 18 months and 43% after 36 months of ADT, respectively. Further, time to testosterone recovery increased with ADT duration ranging from 0.3, 1.6, 3 to 5 years for the 0-, 6-, 18- or 36-month schedules, respectively [1031]. In general, testosterone recovered faster in otherwise healthy men with a normal baseline testosterone.

The oral LHRH antagonist relugolix achieved a similar castration resistance-free survival as the LHRH agonist leuprolide, with 48-week CRFS rates of 74.3% and 75.3%, respectively [1452]. After cessation of relugolix and leuprolidetestosterone recovery after 48 weeks was achieved by a greater percentage of men (54% vs. 3.2%), and also quicker, i.e. within 86 vs. 112, for relugolix and leuprolide, respectively.

Balancing risks and benefits

To appropriately balance the risks of PCa and non-PCa mortality the PCa aggressiveness and comorbidities of individual patients must be taken into account. The omega score, a quantitative measure of the relative risk for cancer-related vs. competing mortality events, might assist in assessing these risks when, for example, deciding whether the addition of ADT to RT provides a greater benefit regarding PCa mortality than a threat regarding non-PCa mortality [1453].

In men with metastatic PCa, balancing the intensity of continuous ADT combined with either an ARPI, docetaxel or both is no less challenging. A SR and meta-analysis on the impact of performance status (PS) on oncologic outcomes showed that combination systemic therapies significantly improved OS in patients with worse PS as well as in those with good PS, while the MFS benefit from ARPI in the nmCRPC setting was more pronounced in patients with good PS than in those with worse PS [1454]. However, as most RCTs are limited to men with PS of either 0 or 1, these findings might not apply to men with PS of ≥ 2 .

8.2.5.1 Sexual function

Cessation of sexual activity is very common in people undergoing ADT, affecting up to 93% [1455]. Androgen deprivation therapy reduces both libido and the ability to gain and maintain erections. The management of acquired ED is mostly non-specific [1456].

Using a specific non-validated questionnaire, bicalutamide monotherapy showed a significant advantage over castration in the domains of physical capacity and sexual interest (not sexual function) at twelve months [1457]. A *post-hoc* analysis, including only patients with sexual interest suggested that bicalutamide was associated with better sexual preservation, including maintained sexual interest, feeling sexually attractive [1458], preserved libido and erectile function [1459].

8.2.5.2 Hot flushes

Hot flushes are a common side effect of ADT (prevalence estimated between 44–80% of men on ADT) [1455]. They appear three months after starting ADT, usually persist long-term and have a significant impact on QoL.

Serotonin re-uptake inhibitors (e.g., venlafaxine or sertraline) appear to be effective in men but less than hormone therapies based on a prospective RCT comparing venlafaxine, 75 mg daily, with medroxyprogesterone, 20 mg daily, or cyproterone acetate, 100 mg daily [1460]. After six months of LHRH (n = 919), 311 men had significant hot flushes and were randomised to one of the treatments. Based on median daily hot-flush score, venlafaxine was inferior -47.2% (interquartile range -74.3 to -2.5) compared to -94.5% (-100.0 to -74.5) in the cyproterone group, and -83.7% (-98.9 to -64.3) in the medroxyprogesterone group. Another RCT (n = 78)

compared oestradiol (transdermal 0.9 mg or 0.1% gel) to placebo. After six months oestradiol reduced daily hot flushes frequency (mean adjusted difference (MAD) -1.6; $p=0.04$) but the effect on weekly hot flushes was not significant (MAD -19.6 $p=0.11$) [1461].

Considering placebo effects registered in up to 30% of patients [1462], prospective RCTs are required to document the efficacy of clonidine, veralipride, gabapentin [1463] and acupuncture [1464].

8.2.5.3 *Non-metastatic bone fractures*

Due to increased bone turnover and decreased BMD in a time-dependent manner, ADT use is linked to an increased risk of fracture (up to 45% RR with long-term ADT) [1465]. Severe fractures in men are associated with a significant risk of death [1466]. A precise evaluation of BMD should be performed by DEXA, ideally before starting long-term ADT. An initial low BMD (T-score < -2.5 or < -1 , with other risk factors) indicates a high risk of subsequent non-metastatic fracture and causes should be investigated. Other risk factors include increasing age, BMI of 19 or less, history of previous fracture or parent with fractured hip, current smoking, use of glucocorticoids, rheumatoid arthritis, alcohol consumption $> two$ units per day, history of falls and a number of other chronic medical conditions [1467]. Fracture risk algorithms which combine BMD and clinical risk factors such as FRAX score can be used to guide treatment decisions, but uncertainty exists regarding the optimal intervention threshold, therefore no specific risk algorithm can be recommended for men on ADT for PCa. Obesity (increase in body fat mass by up to 10% and/or BMI > 30) and sarcopenia (decrease in lean tissue mass by up to 3%) as well as weight loss are common and occur during the first year of ADT [1468, 1469]. These changes increase the fracture risk [1470].

It is suggested that adding an ARPI to ADT further increases this risk as shown in a SR and meta-analysis of 11 studies with a total population of 11,382 men, with 6,536 receiving enzalutamide, apalutamide, or darolutamide in combination with ADT or other enzalutamide combinations compared to the control group of 4,846 men receiving placebo, bicalutamide, or abiraterone [1471]. The control group contained men using the ARPI abiraterone. The incidence of fracture was 242 (4%) in the enzalutamide, apalutamide, darolutamide group and 107 (2%) in the control group. Use of enzalutamide, apalutamide, darolutamide was associated with an increased risk of fractures: all-grade fracture (RR: 1.59; 95% CI: 1.35-1.89; $p < 0.001$), and likely grade 3 or greater fracture (RR: 1.71; 95% CI: 1.12-2.63; $p = 0.01$).

Bicalutamide monotherapy may have less impact on BMD but its suboptimal efficacy for M1 disease renders it a poor option in these patients [1472, 1473]. The intermittent LHRH-agonist modality might be associated with less bone impact [1474].

8.2.5.4 *Metabolic effects*

Lipid alterations are common and may occur as early as the first three months of ADT [1468]. Androgen deprivation therapy also decreases insulin sensitivity and increases fasting plasma insulin levels, which is a marker of insulin resistance. In diabetic patients, metformin appears to be an attractive option for protection against metabolic effects based on retrospective analysis [1475], but there is insufficient data to recommend its use in non-diabetic patients.

Metabolic syndrome is an association of independent cardiovascular disease risk factors, often associated with insulin resistance. The definition requires at least three of the following criteria [1476]:

- waist circumference > 102 cm;
- serum triglyceride > 1.7 mmol/L;
- blood pressure $> 130/80$ mmHg or use of medication for hypertension;
- high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol < 1 mmol/L;
- glycaemia > 5.6 mmol/L or the use of medication for hyperglycaemia.

The prevalence of a metabolic-like syndrome is higher during ADT compared with men not receiving ADT [1477]. Androgen deprivation therapy impairs skeletal muscle health and muscular weakness is a common complaint already during the first months of treatment. Skeletal muscle mass heavily influences basal metabolic rate and is in turn heavily influenced by endocrine pathways [1478]. A prospective longitudinal study involving 252 men on ADT for a median of 20.4 months reported lean body mass decreases progressively over three years; 1.0% at one year, 2.1% at two years, and 2.4% at three years which appears more pronounced in men at ≥ 70 years of age [1479].

A SR on the impact of ADT on body composition revealed a quite stable body mass index (BMI) but increasing sarcopenia and subcutaneous adipose tissue [1469]. Sarcopenia at baseline, found in 27% of 110 men with mCRPC, significantly predicted severe toxicity and ER visits in men initiating ARPI treatment. Sarcopenia was also a predictor of radiographic progression and overall mortality regardless of treatment type [1480].

8.2.5.5 Cardiovascular morbidity

Cardiovascular mortality is a common cause of death in PCa patients [1098, 1481, 1482]. Several studies showed that ADT after only six months was associated with an increased risk of diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular disease, and myocardial infarction [1483]. The RTOG 92-02 [1484] and 94-08 [1485] trials confirmed an increased cardiovascular risk, unrelated to the duration of ADT and not accompanied by an overall increased cardiovascular mortality. This was confirmed in the 20-year update of the NRG/RTOG 9202 RCT investigating the long-term relationship between ADT and CVM which showed the increased myocardial infarction mortality was found after long-term vs. short-term ADT, especially in men with baseline CVD [1486]. No increase in cardiovascular mortality has been reported in both a secondary analysis of PLCO trial, even among subgroups with pre-existing cardiovascular disease [1487] and a meta-analysis of trials RTOG 8531, 8610, 9202, EORTC 30891 and EORTC 22863 [1488]. However, serious concerns about the conclusions of this meta-analysis have been raised due to poor consideration of bias in the included studies [1489, 1490]. A meta-analysis of observational data reports consistent links between ADT and the risk of cardiovascular disease patients treated for PCa, e.g., the associations between LHRH agonists and non-fatal or fatal myocardial infarction or stroke RR: 1.57 (95% CI: 1.26–1.94) and RR: 1.51 (95% CI: 1.24–1.84), respectively [1491]. In an updated meta-analysis on cardiometabolic effects of ADT, ADT was not significantly associated with metabolic syndrome RR: 1.60 (95% CI: 1.06–2.42), had a lower association with diabetes RR 1.43 (95% CI: 1.28–1.59) as previously reported, and an increased risk of hypertension by 30%, RR: 1.30 (95% CI: 1.08–1.55). After adjustment for publication bias ADT was associated with a 25% increased risk for diabetes but was not found to be associated with metabolic syndrome [1492].

An increase in cardiovascular mortality has been reported in patients suffering from previous congestive heart failure or myocardial infarction in a retrospective database analysis [1493] or presenting with a metabolic syndrome [1494]. It has been suggested that antagonists might be associated with less CMV compared to agonists, but, as yet there is no definite evidence [1495, 1496]. In a phase III RCT the use of relugolix, an oral LHRH antagonist, was associated with a reduced risk of major adverse cardiovascular events when compared to leuprolide, an injectable LHRH agonists, at 2.9% vs. 6.2%, respectively, over a follow-up time of 48 weeks (HR: 0.46, 95% CI: 0.24–0.88) [1114]. A SR, including the above RCT, assessing major cardiovascular events in 11 studies comprising approximately 4,200 patients showed a significantly lower risk (HR: 0.57 (95% CI: 0.37–0.86) for the antagonist as compared to different agonists, whereas there was no significant difference in all-cause mortality (HR: 0.58, 95% CI: 0.32–1.08) [1497].

Concerns about LHRH agonists resulted in an FDA warning and consensus paper from the American Heart, Cancer Society and Urological Associations [1097]. Preventive advice includes non-specific measures such as loss of weight, increased exercise, minimising alcohol intake, improved nutrition and smoking cessation [93, 1498].

The AEs of different ARPIs (abiraterone, apalutamide, darolutamide, enzalutamide) in the treatment of mCRPC, nmCRPC, and mHSPC were systematically reviewed in a multi-variate network meta-analysis. Here it is suggested that the ARTAs adverse effect profiles do not significantly differ from each other, except that enzalutamide was ranked the most toxic regarding hypertension in mCRPC and nmCRPC, and the most toxic regarding headache across all prostate cancer settings [1499].

8.2.5.6 Fatigue

Fatigue often develops as a side effect of ADT. Regular exercise appears to be the best protective measure. Reporting clinically significant fatigue is associated with severe psychological distress and should prompt screening for anxiety and/or depression [1500]. Anaemia may be a cause of fatigue [1455, 1501]. Anaemia requires an aetiological diagnosis (medullar invasion, renal insufficiency, iron deficiency, chronic bleeding) and individualised treatment. Regular blood transfusions may be required in patients with severe anaemia.

8.2.5.7 Neurological side effects

Castration seems also to be associated with an increased risk of stroke [1502], and is suspected to be associated with an increased risk for depression and cognitive decline such as Alzheimer disease [1503].

8.2.6 **Osteonecrosis during bisphosphonates or denosumab**

Bisphosphonates are synthetic pyrophosphate analogues and used in conditions such as malignancy and osteoporosis. Infrequent side effects associated with bisphosphonate use include pyrexia, renal function impairment, hypocalcemia, and avascular osteonecrosis of the jaw. Denosumab is a human monoclonal antibody that is used in the treatment of osteoporosis and bone metastasis [1504, 1505]. It acts by inhibiting osteoclast activity, reducing bone resorption, and increasing bone density [1504]. Its highly specific mechanism of action is the inhibition of receptor activator of nuclear factor-kappa B ligand (RANKL). It has been shown to be effective at increasing bone mineral density and decreasing the risk of fractures in men with prostate cancer on ADT [1506].

Both drugs are associated with osteonecrosis of the jaw (ONJ) According to the American Society of Bone and Mineral Research, ONJ is described as exposed bone in the maxillofacial region that does not heal within eight weeks of being identified by a healthcare provider in a patient that is currently or has been on bisphosphonates who does not have a history of radiation therapy in the craniofacial region [1507]. The incidence of ONJ is related to the dose and duration of treatment. The risk ranges from greater than 1% at twelve months to 11% after four years of treatment - taking zoledronic acid alone increases the risk of osteonecrosis to 21% after the third year. A SR on denosumab [1508] showed in a total of 8,963 patients with a variety of solid tumours in seven randomised controlled trials (RCTs) that the overall incidence of ONJ in patients with cancer receiving denosumab was 1.7% [95% CI: 0.9–3.1%]. The use of denosumab was associated with a significantly increased risk of ONJ in comparison with bisphosphonates (BPs)/placebo treatment (RR: 1.61, 95% CI: 1.05–2.48, $p = 0.029$). Subgroup analysis based on controlled therapies demonstrated an increased risk of ONJ in denosumab therapy, when compared with BPs (RR: 1.48, 95% CI: 0.96–2.29, $p = 0.078$) or placebo (RR: 16.28, 95% CI: 1.68–158.05, $p = 0.017$). Similar results were observed for prostate cancer (RR 3.358, 95% CI: 1.573–7.166, $p = 0.002$). Denosumab combined with risk factors such as dental extraction, poor oral hygiene, use of removable apparatus, and chemotherapy may favour the development of ONJ. Therefore, before starting these drugs the patients should undergo a dental examination and maintain good oral hygiene.

8.3 **Overall quality of life in men with PCa**

Living longer with PCa does not necessarily equate to living well [1416, 1418]. There is clear evidence of unmet needs and ongoing support requirements for some individuals and partners after diagnosis and treatment for PCa [1509, 1510]. Fear of cancer recurrence and PSA anxiety has a prevalence of 16% and 22%, respectively, across studies [1511]. Combined cognitive- and education-based psychological interventions improve depression, anxiety, and distress [1512]. Cancer impacts on the wider family and cognitive behavioural therapy can help reduce depression, anxiety, and stress in caregivers [1513]. Radical treatment for PCa can negatively impact long-term QoL (e.g., sexual, urinary and bowel dysfunction) as can ADT used in short- or long-term treatment, e.g., sexual problems, fatigue, psychological morbidity, adverse metabolic sequelae and increased cardiovascular and bone fracture risk [1444, 1514]. Direct symptoms from advanced or metastatic cancer, e.g., pain, hypercalcaemia, spinal cord compression and pathological fractures, also adversely affect health [1515, 1516]. Patients' QoL including domains such as sexual function, urinary function and bowel function is worse after treatment for PCa compared to non-cancer controls [1517, 1518]. A PCa diagnosis commonly results in financial strain both for the individual and their families. This financial toxicity is associated with younger age at diagnosis, black race, low socio-economic status, low educational attainment and living in a rural area. Clinicians should discuss financial strains and signpost to support services so that QoL and adherence to treatment can be maintained [1519].

As QoL is subjective and can mean different things to different people it can be difficult to measure and compare. Nevertheless, there are some generally common features across virtually all patients. Drawing from these common features, specific tools or PROMs have been developed and validated for men with PCa. These questionnaires assess common issues after PCa diagnosis and treatment and generate scores which reflect the impact on perceptions of HRQoL. During the process of undertaking two dedicated SRs around cancer-specific QoL outcomes in patients with PCa as the foundation for our guideline recommendations, the following validated PROMs were found in our searches (see Table 8.3.1). The tools with the best evidence for psychometric properties and feasibility for use in routine practice and research settings to assess PROMs in patients with localised PCa were EORTC QLQ-C30 and QLQ-PR25. Since EORTC QLQ-C30 is a general module that does not directly assess PCa-specific issues, it should be adopted in conjunction with the QLQ-PR25 module [1520].

Table 8.3.1: PROMs assessing cancer specific quality of life [1520]

Questionnaire	Domains/items
European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer QLQ-C30 (EORTC QLQ-C30) [1521]	Five functional scales (physical, role, cognitive, emotional, and social); three symptom scales (fatigue, pain, and nausea and vomiting); global health status/QoL scale; and a number of single items assessing additional symptoms commonly reported by cancer patients (dyspnoea, loss of appetite, insomnia, constipation and diarrhoea) and perceived financial impact of the disease.
European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer QLQ-PR 25 (EORTC QLQ-PR 25) [1522]	Urinary, bowel and treatment-related symptoms, as well as sexual activity and sexual function.
Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-General (FACT-G) [1523]	Physical well-being, social/family well-being, emotional well-being, and functional well-being.
Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Prostate (FACT-P) [1524]	Twelve cancer site specific items to assess for prostate-related symptoms. Can be combined with FACT-G or reported separately.
Expanded prostate cancer index compo-site (EPIC) [1525]	Urinary, bowel, sexual, and hormonal symptoms.
Expanded prostate cancer index compo-site short form 26 (EPIC 26) [1526]	Urinary, sexual, bowel, and hormonal domains.
UCLA Prostate Cancer Index (UCLA PCI) [1527]	Urinary, bowel, and sexual domains.
Prostate Cancer Quality of Life Instrument (PCQoL) [1528]	Urinary, sexual, and bowel domains, supplemented by a scale assessing anxiety.
Prostate Cancer Outcome Study Instrument [1518]	Urinary, bowel, and sexual domains.

8.3.1 Long-term (> twelve months) quality of life outcomes in men with localised disease

8.3.1.1 Men undergoing local treatments

In the updated results of the ProtecT trial [1529] treatment-received analyses revealed different impacts of treatments over six years. Men remaining on AM experienced gradual declines in sexual and urinary function with age with increases in ED from 35% at baseline to 53% at six years and nocturia from 20% to 38%. Radical treatment impacts were immediate and continued over six years. After RP, 95% reported ED persisting for 85% at six years, after EBRT this was 69% and 74%, respectively ($p < 0.001$ compared with AM). After RP, 36% reported urinary leakage requiring at least one pad/day, persisting for 20% at six years, compared with no change in men receiving EBRT or AM ($p < 0.001$). Worse bowel function and bother such as bloody stools 6% at six years and faecal incontinence 10%, was experienced by more men after EBRT than after RP or AM ($p < 0.001$) with lesser effects after BT. No treatment affected mental or physical QoL. In another paper on the twelve years outcome this trial [1438], it was seen that the generic QoL scores were similar in randomised groups over seven to twelve years, urinary leakage requiring pads occurred in 18-24% of patients in the prostatectomy group over seven to twelve years, compared with 9-11% in the AM group and 3-8% in the radiotherapy group. Erections sufficient for intercourse were reported in 18% at seven years in the prostatectomy group, compared with 30% in the AM and 27% in the radiotherapy groups; all converged to low levels of potency by year twelve. Nocturia (voiding at least twice per night) occurred in 34% in the prostatectomy group compared with 48% in the radiotherapy group and 47% in the AM group at twelve years. Faecal leakage affected 12% in the radiotherapy group compared with 6% in the other groups by year twelve. The AM group experienced gradual age-related declines in sexual and urinary function, avoiding radical treatment effects unless they changed management. The PACE-A Trial randomised 123 patients over ten years to prostatectomy or SBRT [1530]. At 24 months, only 32 patients in the surgery group and 46 of the RT group were available for analysis. Each group has one patient with more than one security pad per day. In summary, the authors show an equal urinary bother score, with more imitative symptoms and bowel symptoms for SBRT. The overall sexual function is better in the SBRT group. However, this study showed a differential dropout with only 50% patients of the surgery group in the final readout, an extremely show recruitment and an unmet target size.

Other observational studies [738, 1373, 1428, 1531-1534] also report findings regarding RP and RT. The Prostate Cancer Outcomes Study (PCOS) studied a cohort of 1,655 men, of whom 1,164 had undergone RP and 491 RT [1428]. The study reported that at five years of follow-up, men who underwent RP had a higher prevalence of urinary incontinence and ED, while men treated with RT had a higher prevalence of bowel dysfunction. However, despite these differences detected at five years, there were no significant differences in the adjusted odds of urinary incontinence, bowel dysfunction or ED between RP and RT at fifteen years. Investigators have reported that although EBRT was associated with a negative effect in bowel function, the difference in bowel domain score was below the threshold for clinical significance twelve months after treatment [1439]. As 81% of patients in the EBRT arm of the study received IMRT, these data suggest that the risk of side effects is reduced with IMRT compared to older 3D-CRT techniques. This is supported by five-year prospective, population-based cohort study where PROMs were compared in men with favourable- and unfavourable-risk localised disease [1533]. In the 1,386 men with favourable risk, comparison between AS and nerve-sparing prostatectomy, EBRT or LDR BT demonstrates that surgery is associated with worse urinary incontinence at five years and sexual dysfunction at three years when compared to AS. External beam RT is associated with changes not clinically different from AS, and LDR BT is associated with worse irritative urinary-, bowel- and sexual symptoms at one year. In 619 men with high-risk localised disease, comparison between non-nerve sparing RP and EBRT with ADT demonstrates that surgery is associated with worse urinary incontinence and sexual function through five years. A SR demonstrates that the risk of post-radiotherapy ED has reduced to a median of 25% at two years with utilisation of IMRT and is now similar to that noted after LDR BT [1535].

Some prospective studies have reported specific long-term urinary functional outcomes after RP and RT even if the studies are not comparative between the two treatment modalities. Considering incontinence and ED after RP the prospective randomised PIVOT trial, comparing RP to observation, reported that 40% of men wore pads, of which 20% wore more than > one pad/day, and an increased rate of ED in the RP group as compared to observation from 70% to approximately 87%, after a median follow-up of 12.7 years [1373]. The corresponding figures from the prospective non-randomised LAPPRO-trial, comparing open- to robot-assisted RP, were 27–29% of the patients reporting urinary incontinence of some degree after eight years and 66–70% reporting ED [1534]. Data on urinary, sexual and bowel function after RT has been reported from the HYPO-RT-PC-trial, a prospective randomised non-inferiority trial comparing ultra-HFX to conventional fractionation RT. In this trial 52–55% of the patients reported urinary problems (RTOG toxicity grade ≥ 1) at five years, of which 4.2–4.7% reported a RTOG grade ≥ 3 urinary morbidity and 7–8% reported moderate-to-severe incontinence at six years. Bowel toxicity of any level (RTOG toxicity grade ≥ 1) was reported in 53–54% of the patients at five years, of which 1.5–1.9% reported a RTOG grade ≥ 3 bowel morbidity, and 66–71% reported to have little or no erection without aids after six years follow-up [738, 1532].

8.3.1.2 Recommendations for quality of life in men undergoing local treatments

Recommendations	Strength rating
Advise eligible patients for active surveillance that global quality of life is equivalent for up to five years compared to radical prostatectomy or external beam radiotherapy (RT).	Strong
Discuss the negative impact of surgery and radiotherapy on urinary and sexual function, as well as the negative impact of RT on bowel function with patients.	Strong
Advise patients treated with brachytherapy of the negative impact on irritative urinary symptomatology at one year but not after five years.	Weak

8.3.2 Improving quality of life in men who have been diagnosed with PCA

8.3.2.1 Men undergoing local treatments

In men with localised disease, nurse-led multi-disciplinary rehabilitation (addressing sexual functioning, cancer worry, relationship issues, depression, managing bowel and urinary function problems) provided positive short-term effects (four months) on sexual function (effect size 0.45) and long-term (twelve months) positive effects on sexual limitation (effect size 0.5) and cancer worry (effect size 0.51) [1536].

Exercise programs during RT combined with ADT result in consistent benefits for cardiovascular fitness (standardised mean difference [SMD], 0.83; 95% CI: 0.31–1.36; $p < 0.01$) and muscle function (SMD, 1.30; 95% CI: 0.53–2.07; $p < 0.01$) with a reduction in urinary toxicity (SMD, -0.71; 95% CI: -1.25 to -0.18; $p < 0.01$) [1537]. In men undergoing AS, twelve weeks of high-intensity interval training may improve cardiovascular fitness and suppress PSA progression [1538].

In men with post-surgical urinary incontinence, conservative management options include pelvic floor muscle training with or without biofeedback, electrical stimulation, extra-corporeal magnetic innervation (ExMI), compression devices (penile clamps), lifestyle changes, or a combination of methods. Uncertainty around the effectiveness and value of these conservative interventions remains [1539]. Surgical interventions including sling and artificial urinary sphincter (AUS) significantly decrease the number of pads used per day and increase the QoL compared with before intervention. The overall cure rate is around 60% and results in improvement in incontinence by about 25% [1540]. Other alternatives, such as the Adjustable Transobturator Male System (ATOMS) and the Adjustable Continence Therapy (proACT) may be an option but seems less efficacious than AUS [1541]. For a more detailed overview of management of urinary incontinence in these men see Chapter 5.6 in the EAU Guidelines for Management of Non-neurogenic Male LUTS [1542].

The use of PDE5 inhibitors in penile rehabilitation has been subject to some debate. A single-centre, double-blind RCT of 100 men undergoing nerve-sparing surgery reported no benefit of nightly sildenafil (50 mg) compared to on-demand use [1543]. However, a multi-centre double-blind RCT (n = 423) in men aged < 68 years, with normal pre-treatment erectile function undergoing either open, conventional or robot-assisted laparoscopic nerve-sparing RP, tadalafil (5 mg) once per day improved participants EPIC sexual domain-scores (least squares mean difference +9.6, 95% CI: 3.1–16.0) when compared to 20 mg 'on demand' or placebo at nine months of follow-up, even though the difference vanished after the end of study [1544]. Therefore, based on discordant results, no clear recommendation is possible, even if a trend exists for early use of PDE5 inhibitors after RP for penile rehabilitation [1545]. A detailed discussion can be found in the EAU Guidelines for Sexual and Reproductive Health [1546].

In a SR of genitourinary cancers with mostly prostate cancers it is evident that sexual well-being concerns for men and their partners are evident from diagnosis and into survivorship. Both (patient and partners) benefited from interventions but many articulated difficulties with initiating the topic due to embarrassment and limited access to interventions in cancer services [1547].

Testosterone supplementation

Although the evidence is limited, men who are managed expectantly for PCa, or who received radical local therapy, do not have worse outcomes when receiving testosterone supplementation [86]. Currently the panel see no contraindication to give testosterone substitution to symptomatic hypogonadal men with prostate cancer where ADT is not the treatment of choice.

8.3.2.2 Men undergoing systemic treatments

Similar to men treated with a radical approach, in men with T1-T3 disease undergoing RT and ADT, a combined nurse-led psychological support and physiotherapist-led multi-disciplinary rehabilitation has reported improvements in QoL. Specifically, this intervention involved action planning around patients' needs related to lifestyle changes, weight control, toilet habits, sexuality, and psychological problems. This was complemented with pelvic floor muscle therapy. Improvements in urinary (adjusted mean 4.5, 95% CI: 0.6–8.4), irritative (adjusted mean 5.8, 95% CI: 1.4–10.3) and hormonal (adjusted mean 4.8, 95% CI: 0.8–8.8) EPIC domains were found up to 22 weeks of follow-up [1548]. In a three-year follow-up with 92% response rate from the initial study, fewer participants had moderate-severe bowel problems in the intervention (n = 2; 3%) vs. control group (n = 10; 14%) (p = 0.016) but the benefits in terms of urinary function were maintained only in those participants with moderate-severe urinary problems at baseline [1549].

Providing supervised aerobic and resistance exercise training of a moderate intensity improves EORTC QLQ-C30 role (adjusted mean 15.8, 95% CI: 6.6–24.9) and cognitive domain outcomes (adjusted mean 11.4, 95% CI: 3.3–19.6) as well as symptom scales for fatigue (adjusted mean 11.0, 95% CI: 20.2–1.7), nausea (adjusted mean 4.0, 95% CI: 7.4–0.25), and dyspnoea (adjusted mean 12.4, 95% CI: 22.5–2.3) up to three months in men treated with ADT [1550]. Such interventions have also reported clinically relevant improvements in FACT-P (mean difference 8.9, 95% CI: 3.7–14.2) in men on long-term ADT [1551, 1552]. These findings are supported by a SR which reported improvements up to twelve weeks in cancer-specific QoL in a meta-analysis of high-quality trials (SMD 0.33, 95% CI: 0.08–0.58) [1501]. Supervised exercise interventions delivered over twelve months are effective in reducing psychological distress; particularly in those men with highest levels of baseline anxiety and depression [1553]. In untrained older men, SR suggests lower volume exercise programs at moderate-to-high intensity are as effective as higher volume resistance training for enhancing body composition, functional capacity and muscle strength and may reduce barriers to exercise and enhance adherence [1554].

Another SR and meta-analysis of randomised trials shows that exercise interventions for patients on ADT result in higher lean body mass (mean difference: 0.88, 95% CI: 0.4 to 1.36, $p < 0.01$), a lower body fat mass (mean difference: -0.93, 95% CI: -1.10 to -0.10, $p < 0.05$), and a lower body fat rate (mean difference: -0.93, 95% CI: -1.39 to -0.47, $p < 0.01$). Greater efficacy was noted for exercise duration of \geq six months (vs. $<$ six months) and exercise immediately after starting ADT (vs. delayed exercise) [1555]. A SR and meta-analysis in patients with prostate cancer undergoing ADT, on supervised exercise therapy vs. no therapy shows that supervised exercise therapy is probably superior to no exercise therapy in improving 'disease-specific QoL' 0.43 (95%CI: 0.29, 0.58) and 'walking performance' -0.41 (95% CI: -0.60, -0.22) with a moderate certainty of evidence [1556]. A SR and meta-analysis on determining the factors that affect adherence to exercise programs, found that exercise had no effects ($p < 0.05$) on QoL and fatigue. For aerobic fitness, and upper- and lower-body strength significant effects (all $p < 0.05$) were observed. Adherence to exercise-based interventions was 80.38%, with improvements observed in aerobic fitness and strength. Subgroup analysis revealed exercise adherence impacted fatigue and strength, with greater improvements observed in programs $>$ 12 weeks [1557].

If dietary intake is not adequate, vitamin D and calcium supplementation should be offered, as there is evidence that vitamin D and calcium have modest effects on bone in men on ADT [1543]. Online tools are available to calculate daily calcium intake for individual patients. For vitamin D deficiency a dose of at least 800 IU/day colecalciferol can be recommended. Use of a 25(OH) assay may be helpful to measure vitamin D levels [1558, 1559].

Anti-resorptive therapy is recommended for men on ADT for $>$ six months with either a BMD T-score of $<$ -2.5 or with an additional risk factor for osteoporosis or annual bone loss confirmed to exceed 5%, or in cases of severe fracture. Referral to a bone specialist should be considered in complex cases with severe fracture and/or multiple risk factors. Alendronate, risedronate, zoledronate and denosumab have all been shown to prevent bone loss in men with hormone-sensitive locally-advanced and metastatic PCa on ADT [1560-1563]. Patients should be warned about the $<$ 5% risk of osteonecrosis of the jaw and/or atypical femoral fractures associated with these drugs. Bisphosphonates increase BMD in the hip and spine by up to 7% in one year [1562, 1564]. The optimal regimen for zoledronic acid for men on ADT with hormone-sensitive locally-advanced and metastatic PCa remains unclear: quarterly [1565] or yearly [1566] injections. The question is relevant as the risk of jaw necrosis is both dose- and time-related [1567]. A quarterly regimen should be considered for a BMD \leq 2.5 as a yearly injection is unlikely to provide sufficient protection [1568, 1569]. Care should be taken when discontinuing treatment as rebound increased bone resorption can occur.

In M0 patients, denosumab has been shown to increase the lumbar BMD by 5.6% compared to a 1% decrease in the placebo arm after two years, using 60 mg subcutaneous regimen every six months [1506]. This was associated with a significant decrease in vertebral fracture risk (1.5% vs. 3.9%, $p = 0.006$). The benefits were similar whatever the age ($<$ or $>$ 70 years), the duration or type of ADT, the initial BMD, the patient's weight, or the initial BMI. This benefit was not associated with any significant toxicity, e.g., jaw osteonecrosis or delayed healing in vertebral fractures. In M0 patients, with the use of a higher dosage (120 mg every four weeks), a delay in bone metastases of 4.2 months has been shown [1351] without any impact on OS, but with an increase in side effects. Therefore, this later regimen cannot be recommended.

In the SPARTAN phase III study (apalutamide in nmCRPC) [1570], patients receiving apalutamide experienced falls more frequently vs. those receiving placebo (15.6% vs. 9.0%). In the final multi-variable model, the baseline patient characteristics of older age, poor ECOG, history of neuropathy, and α -blocker use before study treatment, remained significantly associated with fall. After-baseline clinical characteristics significantly associated with time to fall were development of neuropathy, arthralgia, and weight loss before fall. Preventive interventions should be considered when the identified baseline conditions and post-treatment neuropathy, arthralgia, or weight decrease are present, to reduce risk of fall.

8.3.2.3 *Decision regret*

Several treatments with curative intent for localised PCa are available, all with comparable ten-year OS [551]. They vary in terms of the incidence of major side effects, including urinary symptoms, bowel symptoms and compromised sexual functioning [1438, 1439, 1571]. For this reason, patients' treatment preferences, in which they weigh expected benefits against likely side effects, are a central consideration in shared decision-making and in making informed treatment decisions [1572-1574].

It remains challenging, however, to evaluate whether the decision-making process can be viewed as successful; that is, whether the choice of treatment best reflects the patient's preferences and expectations [1575, 1576]. According to Decision Justification Theory (DJT) two main components of decision-related regret exist; one is associated with the (comparative) evaluation of the outcome and the second with the feeling of self-blame for having made a poor choice [1577]. About 25% of men with PCa undergoing either single or combined modality treatments report experiencing worse side effects than expected [1578]. Urinary incontinence most strongly correlates with regret after prostatectomy [1579].

Unmet expectations are comparable among the treatment groups, except for fatigue. Fatigue is less frequently reported as worse than expected by patients who received BT when compared to patients who received RP or EBRT. This could be explained by the less invasive treatment course of BT in comparison to EBRT with or without ADT and RP [1580]. Unmet expectations were more frequently reported by patients with positive surgical margins following surgery; having had a passive role in the decision-making process; and who had higher scores on the decisional conflict scale (i.e., more uncertainty about the treatment decision). Interestingly, positive surgical margins are not directly associated with an increased risk of Ca-related mortality [1019]. Active participation and support in the process of forming a preference increases the chance of choosing a treatment that is in line with patients' expectations [1574, 1581-1583].

While it may seem desirable to tailor the patients' role in decision-making to their initial preference, and particularly to a preference for deferring to the advice of the clinician, this does not result in less decisional conflict or regret. Increasing patients' knowledge regardless of initial preference may actually be preferable [1579].

8.3.2.4 Decision aids in prostate cancer

Shared decision-making can increase patients' comfort when confronted with management decisions but has been shown to improve health outcome [1584] and more training seems needed for health care professionals guiding patients [1585]. Patient education decreased PSA testing [1586] and increased adherence to AS protocols [1587, 1588]. Autonomous active decision-making by patients was associated with less regret after prostatectomy regardless of the method chosen and decision aids reduce decisional conflict [1589]. Still, guidance is needed to optimise patients' understanding of the options [1590]. Patients prioritised effectiveness and pain control over mode of administration and risk of fatigue when confronted with treatment choice in metastasized PCa [1591]. When implementing decision aids clinical validity and utility should be carefully evaluated and distinguished [1592]. A decision aid should educate as well as promote shared decision-making to optimise efficacy [1593] and pay attention to communicative aspects [1594].

8.3.2.5 Recommendations for quality of life in men undergoing systemic treatments

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer men on androgen deprivation therapy (ADT), twelve weeks of supervised (by trained exercise specialists) combined aerobic and resistance exercise.	Strong
Advise men on ADT to maintain a healthy weight and diet, to stop smoking, reduce alcohol to ≤ 2 units daily and have yearly screening for diabetes and hypercholesterolemia. Ensure that calcium and vitamin D meet recommended levels.	Strong
Offer men after any radical treatment specialist nurse-led, multi-disciplinary rehabilitation based on the patients' personal goals addressing incontinence, sexuality, depression and fear of recurrence, social support and positive lifestyle changes.	Strong
Offer men starting on long-term ADT dual emission X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) scanning to assess bone mineral density.	Strong
Offer anti-resorptive therapy to men on long term ADT with either a BMD T-score of < -2.5 or with an additional clinical risk factor for fracture or annual bone loss on ADT is confirmed to exceed 5%.	Strong

9. REFERENCES

1. Cornford, P., *et al.* EAU-EANM-ESTRO-ESUR-ISUP-SIOG Guidelines on Prostate Cancer-2024 Update. Part I: Screening, Diagnosis, and Local Treatment with Curative Intent. *Eur Urol*, 2024. 86: 148.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38614820>
2. Tilki, D., *et al.* EAU-EANM-ESTRO-ESUR-ISUP-SIOG Guidelines on Prostate Cancer. Part II-2024 Update: Treatment of Relapsing and Metastatic Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2024. 86: 164.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38688773>
3. Phillips, B., *et al.* Oxford Centre for Evidence-based Medicine Levels of Evidence. Updated by Jeremy Howick March Updated 2009. 1998.
<https://www.cebm.ox.ac.uk/resources/levels-of-evidence/oxford-centre-for-evidence-based-medicine-levels-of-evidence-march-2009>
4. Guyatt, G.H., *et al.* Going from evidence to recommendations. *BMJ*, 2008. 336: 1049.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18467413>
5. Culp, M.B., *et al.* Recent Global Patterns in Prostate Cancer Incidence and Mortality Rates. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 38.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31493960>
6. W.H.O. Data visualization tools for exploring the global cancer burden in 2020. 2020. 2021.
<https://gco.iarc.fr/today/home>
7. Bergengren, O., *et al.* 2022 Update on Prostate Cancer Epidemiology and Risk Factors-A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 84: 191.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37202314>
8. European Commission. Prostate cancer burden in EU-27. 2021.
<https://ecis.jrc.ec.europa.eu>
9. Bell, K.J., *et al.* Prevalence of incidental prostate cancer: A systematic review of autopsy studies. *Int J Cancer*, 2015. 137: 1749.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25821151>
10. Haas, G.P., *et al.* The worldwide epidemiology of prostate cancer: perspectives from autopsy studies. *Can J Urol*, 2008. 15: 3866.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18304396>
11. Fleshner, K., *et al.* The effect of the USPSTF PSA screening recommendation on prostate cancer incidence patterns in the USA. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2017. 14: 26.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27995937>
12. Kimura, T., *et al.* Global Trends of Latent Prostate Cancer in Autopsy Studies. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2021. 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33478075>
13. James, N.D., *et al.* The Lancet Commission on prostate cancer: planning for the surge in cases. *Lancet*, 2024. 403: 1683.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38583453>
14. Leitzmann, M.F., *et al.* Risk factors for the onset of prostatic cancer: age, location, and behavioral correlates. *Clin Epidemiol*, 2012. 4: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22291478>
15. Cook, L.S., *et al.* Incidence of adenocarcinoma of the prostate in Asian immigrants to the United States and their descendants. *J Urol*, 1999. 161: 152.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10037388>
16. Nyame, Y.A., *et al.* Deconstructing, Addressing, and Eliminating Racial and Ethnic Inequities in Prostate Cancer Care. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 82: 341.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35367082>
17. Karami, S., *et al.* Earlier age at diagnosis: another dimension in cancer disparity? *Cancer Detect Prev*, 2007. 31: 29.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17303347>
18. Sanchez-Ortiz, R.F., *et al.* African-American men with nonpalpable prostate cancer exhibit greater tumor volume than matched white men. *Cancer*, 2006. 107: 75.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16736511>
19. Chen, F., *et al.* Evidence of Novel Susceptibility Variants for Prostate Cancer and a Multiancestry Polygenic Risk Score Associated with Aggressive Disease in Men of African Ancestry. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 84: 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36872133>

20. Freedland, S.J., *et al.* The impact of race on survival in metastatic prostate cancer: a systematic literature review. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 461.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37592001>
21. Patki, S., *et al.* A Systematic Review of Patient Race, Ethnicity, Socioeconomic Status, and Educational Attainment in Prostate Cancer Treatment Randomised Trials-Is the Evidence Base Applicable to the General Patient Population? *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2023. 54: 56.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37545851>
22. Mahal, B.A., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Racial Disparities: A Systematic Review by the Prostate Cancer Foundation Panel. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 18.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34446369>
23. Ma, T.M., *et al.* Race-dependent association of clinical trial participation with improved outcomes for high-risk prostate cancer patients treated in the modern era. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 625.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36966268>
24. Barlow, M., *et al.* Ethnic differences in prostate-specific antigen levels in men without prostate cancer: a systematic review. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 249.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36456698>
25. Bratt, O., *et al.* Family History and Probability of Prostate Cancer, Differentiated by Risk Category: A Nationwide Population-Based Study. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2016. 108.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27400876>
26. Beebe-Dimmer, J.L., *et al.* Risk of Prostate Cancer Associated With Familial and Hereditary Cancer Syndromes. *J Clin Oncol*, 2020. 38: 1807.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32208047>
27. Brook, M.N., *et al.* Family History of Prostate Cancer and Survival Outcomes in the UK Genetic Prostate Cancer Study. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 83: 257.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36528478>
28. Breast Cancer Association Consortium. *et al.* Breast Cancer Risk Genes - Association Analysis in More than 113,000 Women. *N Engl J Med*, 2021. 384: 428.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33471991>
29. Nicolosi, P., *et al.* Prevalence of Germline Variants in Prostate Cancer and Implications for Current Genetic Testing Guidelines. *JAMA Oncol*, 2019. 5: 523.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30730552>
30. Giri, V.N., *et al.* Germline genetic testing for inherited prostate cancer in practice: Implications for genetic testing, precision therapy, and cascade testing. *Prostate*, 2019. 79: 333.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30450585>
31. Pritchard, C.C., *et al.* Inherited DNA-Repair Gene Mutations in Men with Metastatic Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2016. 375: 443.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27433846>
32. Castro, E., *et al.* PROREPAIR-B: A Prospective Cohort Study of the Impact of Germline DNA Repair Mutations on the Outcomes of Patients With Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2019. 37: 490.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30625039>
33. Ewing, C.M., *et al.* Germline mutations in HOXB13 and prostate-cancer risk. *N Engl J Med*, 2012. 366: 141.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22236224>
34. Lynch, H.T., *et al.* Screening for familial and hereditary prostate cancer. *Int J Cancer*, 2016. 138: 2579.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26638190>
35. Nyberg, T., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Risks for Male BRCA1 and BRCA2 Mutation Carriers: A Prospective Cohort Study. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 24.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31495749>
36. Castro, E., *et al.* Germline BRCA mutations are associated with higher risk of nodal involvement, distant metastasis, and poor survival outcomes in prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2013. 31: 1748.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23569316>
37. Castro, E., *et al.* Effect of BRCA Mutations on Metastatic Relapse and Cause-specific Survival After Radical Treatment for Localised Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 186.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25454609>
38. Na, R., *et al.* Germline Mutations in ATM and BRCA1/2 Distinguish Risk for Lethal and Indolent Prostate Cancer and are Associated with Early Age at Death. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 740.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27989354>

39. Mano, R., *et al.* Malignant Abnormalities in Male BRCA Mutation Carriers: Results From a Prospectively Screened Cohort. *JAMA Oncol*, 2018. 4: 872.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29710070>
40. Wang, Y., *et al.* CHEK2 mutation and risk of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Clin Exp Med*, 2015. 8: 15708.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26629066>
41. Zhen, J.T., *et al.* Genetic testing for hereditary prostate cancer: Current status and limitations. *Cancer*, 2018. 124: 3105.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29669169>
42. Edwards, S.M., *et al.* Two percent of men with early-onset prostate cancer harbor germline mutations in the BRCA2 gene. *Am J Hum Genet*, 2003. 72: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12474142>
43. Agalliu, I., *et al.* Rare germline mutations in the BRCA2 gene are associated with early-onset prostate cancer. *Br J Cancer*, 2007. 97: 826.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17700570>
44. Leongamornlert, D., *et al.* Frequent germline deleterious mutations in DNA repair genes in familial prostate cancer cases are associated with advanced disease. *Br J Cancer*, 2014. 110: 1663.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24556621>
45. Karlsson, R., *et al.* A population-based assessment of germline HOXB13 G84E mutation and prostate cancer risk. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 169.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22841674>
46. Storebjerg, T.M., *et al.* Prevalence of the HOXB13 G84E mutation in Danish men undergoing radical prostatectomy and its correlations with prostate cancer risk and aggressiveness. *BJU Int*, 2016. 118: 646.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26779768>
47. Leongamornlert, D., *et al.* Germline BRCA1 mutations increase prostate cancer risk. *Br J Cancer*, 2012. 106: 1697.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22516946>
48. Thompson, D., *et al.* Cancer Incidence in BRCA1 mutation carriers. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2002. 94: 1358.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12237281>
49. Ryan, S., *et al.* Risk of prostate cancer in Lynch syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*, 2014. 23: 437.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24425144>
50. Carlsson, S., *et al.* Influence of blood prostate specific antigen levels at age 60 on benefits and harms of prostate cancer screening: population based cohort study. *BMJ*, 2014. 348: g2296.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24682399>
51. Rosty, C., *et al.* High prevalence of mismatch repair deficiency in prostate cancers diagnosed in mismatch repair gene mutation carriers from the colon cancer family registry. *Fam Cancer*, 2014. 13: 573.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25117503>
52. Siltari, A., *et al.* How Well do Polygenic Risk Scores Identify Men at High Risk for Prostate Cancer? Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2023. 21: 316 e1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36243664>
53. Klein, R.J., *et al.* Prostate cancer polygenic risk score and prediction of lethal prostate cancer. *NPJ Precis Oncol*, 2022. 6: 25.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35396534>
54. Plym, A., *et al.* Evaluation of a Multiethnic Polygenic Risk Score Model for Prostate Cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2022. 114: 771.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33792693>
55. Blanc-Lapierre, A., *et al.* Metabolic syndrome and prostate cancer risk in a population-based case-control study in Montreal, Canada. *BMC Public Health*, 2015. 15: 913.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26385727>
56. Vidal, A.C., *et al.* Obesity increases the risk for high-grade prostate cancer: results from the REDUCE study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*, 2014. 23: 2936.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25261967>
57. Davies, N.M., *et al.* The effects of height and BMI on prostate cancer incidence and mortality: a Mendelian randomization study in 20,848 cases and 20,214 controls from the PRACTICAL consortium. *Cancer Causes Control*, 2015. 26: 1603.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26387087>

58. Rivera-Izquierdo, M., *et al.* Obesity as a Risk Factor for Prostate Cancer Mortality: A Systematic Review and Dose-Response Meta-Analysis of 280,199 Patients. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2021. 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34439328>
59. Ling, S., *et al.* Risk of cancer incidence and mortality associated with diabetes: A systematic review with trend analysis of 203 cohorts. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis*, 2021. 31: 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33223399>
60. Preston, M.A., *et al.* Metformin use and prostate cancer risk. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 1012.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24857538>
61. Cao, Z., *et al.* Association Between Statin Exposure and Incidence and Prognosis of Prostate Cancer: A Meta-analysis Based on Observational Studies. *Am J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 46: 323.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37143189>
62. Li, Y., *et al.* Effect of Statins on the Risk of Different Stages of Prostate Cancer: A Meta-Analysis. *Urol Int*, 2022. 106: 869.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34518476>
63. Dickerman, B.A., *et al.* Alcohol intake, drinking patterns, and prostate cancer risk and mortality: a 30-year prospective cohort study of Finnish twins. *Cancer Causes Control*, 2016. 27: 1049.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27351919>
64. D'Ecclesiis, O., *et al.* Association between Alcohol Intake and Prostate Cancer Mortality and Survival. *Nutrients*, 2023. 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36839283>
65. Chen, X., *et al.* Coffee consumption and risk of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ Open*, 2021. 11: e038902.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33431520>
66. Zhao, Z., *et al.* The association between dairy products consumption and prostate cancer risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Nutr*, 2023. 129: 1714.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35945656>
67. Alexander, D.D., *et al.* Meta-Analysis of Long-Chain Omega-3 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids (LComega-3PUFA) and Prostate Cancer. *Nutr Cancer*, 2015. 67: 543.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25826711>
68. Lippi, G., *et al.* Fried food and prostate cancer risk: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Food Sci Nutr*, 2015. 66: 587.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26114920>
69. Kristal, A.R., *et al.* Plasma vitamin D and prostate cancer risk: results from the Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*, 2014. 23: 1494.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24732629>
70. Nyame, Y.A., *et al.* Associations Between Serum Vitamin D and Adverse Pathology in Men Undergoing Radical Prostatectomy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2016. 34: 1345.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26903577>
71. Ilic, D., *et al.* Lycopene for the prevention and treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia and prostate cancer: a systematic review. *Maturitas*, 2012. 72: 269.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22633187>
72. Feiertag, N., *et al.* Should Men Eat More Plants? A Systematic Review of the Literature on the Effect of Plant-Forward Diets on Men's Health. *Urology*, 2023. 176: 7.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36963667>
73. Long, J., *et al.* Cruciferous Vegetable Intake and Risk of Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Urol Int*, 2023. 107: 723.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37343525>
74. Bylsma, L.C., *et al.* A review and meta-analysis of prospective studies of red and processed meat, meat cooking methods, heme iron, heterocyclic amines and prostate cancer. *Nutr J*, 2015. 14: 125.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26689289>
75. Nouri-Majd, S., *et al.* Association Between Red and Processed Meat Consumption and Risk of Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Front Nutr*, 2022. 9: 801722.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35198587>
76. Eshaghian, N., *et al.* Fish consumption and risk of prostate cancer or its mortality: an updated systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. *Front Nutr*, 2023. 10: 1221029.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37593679>
77. Applegate, C.C., *et al.* Soy Consumption and the Risk of Prostate Cancer: An Updated Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Nutrients*, 2018. 10.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29300347>

78. Cui, Z., *et al.* Serum selenium levels and prostate cancer risk: A MOOSE-compliant meta-analysis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 2017. 96: e5944.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28151881>
79. Allen, N.E., *et al.* Selenium and Prostate Cancer: Analysis of Individual Participant Data From Fifteen Prospective Studies. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2016. 108.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27385803>
80. Lippman, S.M., *et al.* Effect of selenium and vitamin E on risk of prostate cancer and other cancers: the Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial (SELECT). *JAMA*, 2009. 301: 39.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19066370>
81. Baboudjian, M., *et al.* Association Between 5alpha-Reductase Inhibitors and Prostate Cancer Mortality: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Oncol*, 2023. 9: 847.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37079318>
82. Knijnik, P.G., *et al.* The impact of 5-alpha-reductase inhibitors on mortality in a prostate cancer chemoprevention setting: a meta-analysis. *World J Urol*, 2021. 39: 365.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32314009>
83. Thompson, I.M., *et al.* The influence of finasteride on the development of prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2003. 349: 215.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12824459>
84. Haider, A., *et al.* Incidence of prostate cancer in hypogonadal men receiving testosterone therapy: observations from 5-year median followup of 3 registries. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 80.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24980615>
85. Watts, E.L., *et al.* Low Free Testosterone and Prostate Cancer Risk: A Collaborative Analysis of 20 Prospective Studies. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 585.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30077399>
86. Golla, V., *et al.* Testosterone Therapy on Active Surveillance and Following Definitive Treatment for Prostate Cancer. *Curr Urol Rep*, 2017. 18: 49.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28589395>
87. Lophatananon, A., *et al.* Height, selected genetic markers and prostate cancer risk: results from the PRACTICAL consortium. *Br J Cancer*, 2017. 117: 734.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28765617>
88. Burns, J.A., *et al.* Inflammatory Bowel Disease and the Risk of Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 846.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30528221>
89. Multigner, L., *et al.* Chlordecone exposure and risk of prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2010. 28: 3457.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20566993>
90. Moon, J., *et al.* Risk of prostate cancer with increasing years of night shift work: A two-stage dose-response meta-analysis with duration of night shift work as exposure dose. *Heliyon*, 2024. 10: e29080.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38628771>
91. Ju-Kun, S., *et al.* Association Between Cd Exposure and Risk of Prostate Cancer: A PRISMA-Compliant Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 2016. 95: e2708.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26871808>
92. Islami, F., *et al.* A systematic review and meta-analysis of tobacco use and prostate cancer mortality and incidence in prospective cohort studies. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 1054.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25242554>
93. Brookman-May, S.D., *et al.* Latest Evidence on the Impact of Smoking, Sports, and Sexual Activity as Modifiable Lifestyle Risk Factors for Prostate Cancer Incidence, Recurrence, and Progression: A Systematic Review of the Literature by the European Association of Urology Section of Oncological Urology (ESOU). *Eur Urol Focus*, 2019. 5: 756.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29576530>
94. Russo, G.I., *et al.* Human papillomavirus and risk of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Aging Male*, 2020. 23: 132.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29571270>
95. Lian, W.Q., *et al.* Gonorrhea and Prostate Cancer Incidence: An Updated Meta-Analysis of 21 Epidemiologic Studies. *Med Sci Monit*, 2015. 21: 1902.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26126881>
96. Lin, S.W., *et al.* Prospective study of ultraviolet radiation exposure and risk of cancer in the United States. *Int J Cancer*, 2012. 131: E1015.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22539073>

97. Pabalan, N., *et al.* Association of male circumcision with risk of prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2015. 18: 352.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26215783>
98. Rider, J.R., *et al.* Ejaculation Frequency and Risk of Prostate Cancer: Updated Results with an Additional Decade of Follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 974.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27033442>
99. Bhindi, B., *et al.* The Association Between Vasectomy and Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Intern Med*, 2017. 177: 1273.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28715534>
100. Cremers, R.G., *et al.* Self-reported acne is not associated with prostate cancer. *Urol Oncol*, 2014. 32: 941.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25011577>
101. Brierley, J.D., *et al.*, TNM classification of malignant tumors. UICC International Union Against Cancer. 8th edn. 2017.
<http://www.uicc.org/tnm/>
102. D'Amico, A.V., *et al.* Biochemical outcome after radical prostatectomy, external beam radiation therapy, or interstitial radiation therapy for clinically localized prostate cancer. *Jama*, 1998. 280: 969.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9749478>
103. Ploussard, G., *et al.* Decreased accuracy of the prostate cancer EAU risk group classification in the era of imaging-guided diagnostic pathway: proposal for a new classification based on MRI-targeted biopsies and early oncologic outcomes after surgery. *World J Urol*, 2020. 38: 2493.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31838560>
104. Ceci, F., *et al.* E-PSMA: the EANM standardized reporting guidelines v1.0 for PSMA-PET. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2021. 48: 1626.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33604691>
105. van den Bergh, R.C.N., *et al.* Re: Andrew Vickers, Sigrid V. Carlsson, Matthew Cooperberg. Routine Use of Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Early Detection of Prostate Cancer Is Not Justified by the Clinical Trial Evidence. *Eur Urol* 2020;78:304-6: Prebiopsy MRI: Through the Looking Glass. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 78: 310.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32660749>
106. Epstein, J.I., *et al.* The 2005 International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) Consensus Conference on Gleason Grading of Prostatic Carcinoma. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2005. 29: 1228.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16096414>
107. Epstein, J.I., *et al.* The 2014 International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) Consensus Conference on Gleason Grading of Prostatic Carcinoma: Definition of Grading Patterns and Proposal for a New Grading System. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2016. 40: 244.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26492179>
108. van Leenders, G., *et al.* The 2019 International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) Consensus Conference on Grading of Prostatic Carcinoma. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2020. 44: e87.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32459716>
109. Epstein, J.I., *et al.* A Contemporary Prostate Cancer Grading System: A Validated Alternative to the Gleason Score. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 428.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26166626>
110. Moyer, V.A., *et al.* Screening for prostate cancer: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med*, 2012. 157: 120.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22801674>
111. Sauter, G., *et al.* Integrating Tertiary Gleason 5 Patterns into Quantitative Gleason Grading in Prostate Biopsies and Prostatectomy Specimens. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 674.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28117112>
112. Anderson, B.B., *et al.* Extraprostatic Extension Is Extremely Rare for Contemporary Gleason Score 6 Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: 455.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27986368>
113. Ross, H.M., *et al.* Do adenocarcinomas of the prostate with Gleason score (GS) ≤ 6 have the potential to metastasize to lymph nodes? *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2012. 36: 1346.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22531173>
114. Alberts, A.R., *et al.* Biopsy undergrading in men with Gleason score 6 and fatal prostate cancer in the European Randomized study of Screening for Prostate Cancer Rotterdam. *Int J Urol*, 2017. 24: 281.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28173626>

115. Tilki, D., *et al.* Mortality Risk for Patients with Biopsy Gleason Grade Group 1 Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38960834>
116. Baboudjian, M., *et al.* Grade group 1 prostate cancer on biopsy: are we still missing aggressive disease in the era of image-directed therapy? *World J Urol*, 2022. 40: 2423.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35980449>
117. Stroomberg, H.V., *et al.* Outcomes of Biopsy Grade Group 1 Prostate Cancer Diagnosis in the Danish Population. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 770.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37884421>
118. Zareba, P., *et al.* The impact of the 2005 International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) consensus on Gleason grading in contemporary practice. *Histopathology*, 2009. 55: 384.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19817888>
119. Goel, S., *et al.* Concordance Between Biopsy and Radical Prostatectomy Pathology in the Era of Targeted Biopsy: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2020. 3: 10.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31492650>
120. Wang, Y., *et al.* Predictive Factors for Gleason Score Upgrading in Patients with Prostate Cancer after Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Urol Int*, 2023. 107: 460.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36990065>
121. Schoots, I.G., *et al.* Magnetic resonance imaging in active surveillance of prostate cancer: a systematic review. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 627.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25511988>
122. Inoue, L.Y., *et al.* Modeling grade progression in an active surveillance study. *Stat Med*, 2014. 33: 930.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24123208>
123. Van der Kwast, T.H., *et al.* Defining the threshold for significant versus insignificant prostate cancer. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2013. 10: 473.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23712205>
124. Preisser, F., *et al.* Intermediate-risk Prostate Cancer: Stratification and Management. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2020. 3: 270.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32303478>
125. Overland, M.R., *et al.* Active surveillance for intermediate-risk prostate cancer: yes, but for whom? *Curr Opin Urol*, 2019. 29: 605.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31436567>
126. Kasivisvanathan, V., *et al.* MRI-Targeted or Standard Biopsy for Prostate-Cancer Diagnosis. *N Engl J Med*, 2018. 378: 1767.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29552975>
127. Emmett, L., *et al.* The Additive Diagnostic Value of Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography Computed Tomography to Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Triage in the Diagnosis of Prostate Cancer (PRIMARY): A Prospective Multicentre Study. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 682.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34465492>
128. Ahmed, H.U., *et al.* Diagnostic accuracy of multi-parametric MRI and TRUS biopsy in prostate cancer (PROMIS): a paired validating confirmatory study. *Lancet*, 2017. 389: 815.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28110982>
129. Thompson, J.E., *et al.* Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging guided diagnostic biopsy detects significant prostate cancer and could reduce unnecessary biopsies and over detection: a prospective study. *J Urol*, 2014. 192: 67.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24518762>
130. Kane, C.J., *et al.* Variability in Outcomes for Patients with Intermediate-risk Prostate Cancer (Gleason Score 7, International Society of Urological Pathology Gleason Group 2-3) and Implications for Risk Stratification: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2017. 3: 487.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28753804>
131. Zumsteg, Z.S., *et al.* Unification of favourable intermediate-, unfavourable intermediate-, and very high-risk stratification criteria for prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2017. 120: E87.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28464446>
132. Gnanapragasam, V.J., *et al.* Improving Clinical Risk Stratification at Diagnosis in Primary Prostate Cancer: A Prognostic Modelling Study. *PLoS Med*, 2016. 13: e1002063.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27483464>

133. Gnanapragasam, V.J., *et al.* The Cambridge Prognostic Groups for improved prediction of disease mortality at diagnosis in primary non-metastatic prostate cancer: a validation study. *BMC Med*, 2018. 16: 31.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29490658>
134. Parry, M.G., *et al.* Risk stratification for prostate cancer management: value of the Cambridge Prognostic Group classification for assessing treatment allocation. *BMC Med*, 2020. 18: 114.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32460859>
135. Zelic, R., *et al.* Predicting Prostate Cancer Death with Different Pretreatment Risk Stratification Tools: A Head-to-head Comparison in a Nationwide Cohort Study. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 180.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31606332>
136. Lophatananon, A., *et al.* Assessing the impact of MRI based diagnostics on pre-treatment disease classification and prognostic model performance in men diagnosed with new prostate cancer from an unscreened population. *BMC Cancer*, 2022. 22: 878.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35953766>
137. Kensler, K.H., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Screening in African American Men: A Review of the Evidence. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2023.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37713266>
138. Page, E.C., *et al.* Interim Results from the IMPACT Study: Evidence for Prostate-specific Antigen Screening in BRCA2 Mutation Carriers. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 831.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31537406>
139. Bokhorst, L.P., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen-based prostate cancer screening: reduction of prostate cancer mortality after correction for nonattendance and contamination in the Rotterdam section of the European Randomized Study of Screening for Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 329.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23954085>
140. Arnsrud Godtman, R., *et al.* Opportunistic testing versus organized prostate-specific antigen screening: outcome after 18 years in the Goteborg randomized population-based prostate cancer screening trial. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 354.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25556937>
141. Vickers, A.J., *et al.* Prostate specific antigen concentration at age 60 and death or metastasis from prostate cancer: case-control study. *BMJ*, 2010. 341: c4521.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20843935>
142. Bjerner, J., *et al.* Baseline Serum Prostate-specific Antigen Value Predicts the Risk of Subsequent Prostate Cancer Death-Results from the Norwegian Prostate Cancer Consortium. *Eur Urol*, 2023.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37169639>
143. Vickers, A.J., *et al.* Strategy for detection of prostate cancer based on relation between prostate specific antigen at age 40-55 and long term risk of metastasis: case-control study. *BMJ*, 2013. 346: f2023.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23596126>
144. Remmers, S., *et al.* Relationship Between Baseline Prostate-specific Antigen on Cancer Detection and Prostate Cancer Death: Long-term Follow-up from the European Randomized Study of Screening for Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 84: 503.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37088597>
145. Hugosson, J., *et al.* A 16-yr Follow-up of the European Randomized study of Screening for Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 43.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30824296>
146. Boyle, H.J., *et al.* Updated recommendations of the International Society of Geriatric Oncology on prostate cancer management in older patients. *Eur J Cancer*, 2019. 116: 116.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31195356>
147. Loeb, S., *et al.* Pathological characteristics of prostate cancer detected through prostate specific antigen based screening. *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 902.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16469576>
148. Etzioni, R., *et al.* Limitations of basing screening policies on screening trials: The US Preventive Services Task Force and Prostate Cancer Screening. *Med Care*, 2013. 51: 295.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23269114>
149. Ilic, D., *et al.* Screening for prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2013. 2013: CD004720.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23440794>
150. Ilic, D., *et al.* Prostate cancer screening with prostate-specific antigen (PSA) test: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*, 2018. 362: k3519.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30185521>

151. Hayes, J.H., *et al.* Screening for prostate cancer with the prostate-specific antigen test: a review of current evidence. *JAMA*, 2014. 311: 1143.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24643604>
152. Martin, R.M., *et al.* Prostate-Specific Antigen Screening and 15-Year Prostate Cancer Mortality: A Secondary Analysis of the CAP Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA*, 2024. 331: 1460.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38581198>
153. Independent, U.K.P.o.B.C.S. The benefits and harms of breast cancer screening: an independent review. *Lancet*, 2012. 380: 1778.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23117178>
154. de, V., II, *et al.* A Detailed Evaluation of the Effect of Prostate-specific Antigen-based Screening on Morbidity and Mortality of Prostate Cancer: 21-year Follow-up Results of the Rotterdam Section of the European Randomised Study of Screening for Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 84: 426.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37029074>
155. Hugosson, J., *et al.* Eighteen-year follow-up of the Goteborg Randomized Population-based Prostate Cancer Screening Trial: effect of sociodemographic variables on participation, prostate cancer incidence and mortality. *Scand J Urol*, 2018. 52: 27.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29254399>
156. Franlund, M., *et al.* Results from 22 years of Followup in the Goteborg Randomized Population-Based Prostate Cancer Screening Trial. *J Urol*, 2022. 208: 292.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35422134>
157. Heijnsdijk, E.A., *et al.* Quality-of-life effects of prostate-specific antigen screening. *N Engl J Med*, 2012. 367: 595.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22894572>
158. Vasarainen, H., *et al.* Effects of prostate cancer screening on health-related quality of life: results of the Finnish arm of the European randomized screening trial (ERSPC). *Acta Oncol*, 2013. 52: 1615.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23786174>
159. Martin, R.M., *et al.* Effect of a Low-Intensity PSA-Based Screening Intervention on Prostate Cancer Mortality: The CAP Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA*, 2018. 319: 883.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29509864>
160. Gelfond, J., *et al.* Intermediate-Term Risk of Prostate Cancer is Directly Related to Baseline Prostate Specific Antigen: Implications for Reducing the Burden of Prostate Specific Antigen Screening. *J Urol*, 2015. 194: 46.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25686543>
161. Roobol, M.J., *et al.* Improving the Rotterdam European Randomized Study of Screening for Prostate Cancer Risk Calculator for Initial Prostate Biopsy by Incorporating the 2014 International Society of Urological Pathology Gleason Grading and Cribriform growth. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: 45.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28162815>
162. Bancroft, E.K., *et al.* Targeted prostate cancer screening in BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutation carriers: results from the initial screening round of the IMPACT study. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 489.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24484606>
163. Bancroft, E.K., *et al.* A prospective prostate cancer screening programme for men with pathogenic variants in mismatch repair genes (IMPACT): initial results from an international prospective study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2021. 22: 1618.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34678156>
164. Mark, J.R., *et al.* Genetic Testing Guidelines and Education of Health Care Providers Involved in Prostate Cancer Care. *Urol Clin North Am*, 2021. 48: 311.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34210487>
165. Giri, V.N., *et al.* Implementation of Germline Testing for Prostate Cancer: Philadelphia Prostate Cancer Consensus Conference 2019. *J Clin Oncol*, 2020. 38: 2798.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32516092>
166. John, E.M., *et al.* Prevalence of pathogenic BRCA1 mutation carriers in 5 US racial/ethnic groups. *JAMA*, 2007. 298: 2869.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18159056>
167. Carvalho, G.F., *et al.* Digital rectal examination for detecting prostate cancer at prostate specific antigen levels of 4 ng./ml. or less. *J Urol*, 1999. 161: 835.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10022696>
168. Gosselaar, C., *et al.* The role of the digital rectal examination in subsequent screening visits in the European randomized study of screening for prostate cancer (ERSPC), Rotterdam. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 581.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18423977>

169. Okotie, O.T., *et al.* Characteristics of prostate cancer detected by digital rectal examination only. *Urology*, 2007. 70: 1117.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18158030>
170. Herrera-Caceres, J.O., *et al.* Utility of digital rectal examination in a population with prostate cancer treated with active surveillance. *Can Urol Assoc J*, 2020. 14: E453.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32223879>
171. Prebay, Z.J., *et al.* The prognostic value of digital rectal exam for the existence of advanced pathologic features after prostatectomy. *Prostate*, 2021. 81: 1064.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34297858>
172. Stamey, T.A., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen as a serum marker for adenocarcinoma of the prostate. *N Engl J Med*, 1987. 317: 909.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2442609>
173. Semjonow, A., *et al.* Discordance of assay methods creates pitfalls for the interpretation of prostate-specific antigen values. *Prostate Suppl*, 1996. 7: 3.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8950358>
174. Thompson, I.M., *et al.* Prevalence of prostate cancer among men with a prostate-specific antigen level < or =4.0 ng per milliliter. *N Engl J Med*, 2004. 350: 2239.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15163773>
175. Schroder, F.H., *et al.* Prostate-cancer mortality at 11 years of follow-up. *N Engl J Med*, 2012. 366: 981.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22417251>
176. Merriel, S.W.D., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis of the diagnostic accuracy of prostate-specific antigen (PSA) for the detection of prostate cancer in symptomatic patients. *BMC Med*, 2022. 20: 54.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35125113>
177. Habib, F.K., *et al.* Differential effect of finasteride on the tissue androgen concentrations in benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)*, 1997. 46: 137.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9135694>
178. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Variability of repeated serum prostate-specific antigen (PSA) measurements within less than 90 days in a well-defined patient population. *Urology*, 1996. 47: 59.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8560664>
179. Nordstrom, T., *et al.* Repeat Prostate-Specific Antigen Tests Before Prostate Biopsy Decisions. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2016. 108.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27418620>
180. Rosario, D.J., *et al.* Contribution of a single repeat PSA test to prostate cancer risk assessment: experience from the ProtecT study. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 53: 777.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18079051>
181. Eastham, J.A., *et al.* Variations among individual surgeons in the rate of positive surgical margins in radical prostatectomy specimens. *J Urol*, 2003. 170: 2292.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14634399>
182. Stephan, C., *et al.* Interchangeability of measurements of total and free prostate-specific antigen in serum with 5 frequently used assay combinations: an update. *Clin Chem*, 2006. 52: 59.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16391327>
183. Gill, N., *et al.* Prostate-Specific Antigen: a Review of Assay Techniques, Variability and Their Clinical Implications. *BioNanoSci*, 2017. 8: 707.
<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12668-017-0465-4>
184. Yan, Y. Intraindividual variation of prostate specific antigen measurement and implications for early detection of prostate carcinoma. *Cancer*, 2001. 92: 776.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11550147>
185. el-Shirbiny, A.M. Prostatic specific antigen. *Adv Clin Chem*, 1994. 31: 99.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7533474>
186. Zackrisson, B., *et al.* Evolution of free, complexed, and total serum prostate-specific antigen and their ratios during 1 year of follow-up of men with febrile urinary tract infection. *Urology*, 2003. 62: 278.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12893335>
187. Aliasgari, M., *et al.* The effect of acute urinary retention on serum prostate-specific antigen level. *Urol J*, 2005. 2: 89.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17629877>
188. Oesterling, J.E., *et al.* Effect of cystoscopy, prostate biopsy, and transurethral resection of prostate on serum prostate-specific antigen concentration. *Urology*, 1993. 42: 276.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7691013>

189. Kim, D.K., *et al.* Association between prostate-specific antigen and serum testosterone: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Andrology*, 2020. 8: 1194.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32329181>
190. Massengill, J.C., *et al.* Pretreatment total testosterone level predicts pathological stage in patients with localized prostate cancer treated with radical prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2003. 169: 1670.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12686805>
191. Yuan, J.J., *et al.* Effects of rectal examination, prostatic massage, ultrasonography and needle biopsy on serum prostate specific antigen levels. *J Urol*, 1992. 147: 810.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1371553>
192. Maggi, M., *et al.* Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System 3 Category Cases at Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance for Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020. 6: 463.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31279677>
193. Nordstrom, T., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen (PSA) density in the diagnostic algorithm of prostate cancer. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2018. 21: 57.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29259293>
194. Yusim, I., *et al.* The use of prostate specific antigen density to predict clinically significant prostate cancer. *Sci Rep*, 2020. 10: 20015.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33203873>
195. Denijs, F.B., *et al.* Risk calculators for the detection of prostate cancer: a systematic review. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2024. 27: 544.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38830997>
196. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Correlation between prostate size estimated by digital rectal examination and measured by transrectal ultrasound. *Urology*, 1997. 49: 548.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9111624>
197. Hamzaoui, D., *et al.* Prostate volume prediction on MRI: tools, accuracy and variability. *Eur Radiol*, 2022. 32: 4931.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35169895>
198. Choe, S., *et al.* MRI vs Transrectal Ultrasound to Estimate Prostate Volume and PSAD: Impact on Prostate Cancer Detection. *Urology*, 2023. 171: 172.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36152871>
199. de, V., II, *et al.* Prostate cancer risk assessment by the primary care physician and urologist: transabdominal- versus transrectal ultrasound prostate volume-based use of the Rotterdam Prostate Cancer Risk Calculator. *Transl Androl Urol*, 2023. 12: 241.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36915892>
200. Wang, S., *et al.* Diagnostic Performance of Prostate-specific Antigen Density for Detecting Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer in the Era of Magnetic Resonance Imaging: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 189.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37640584>
201. Haj-Mirzaian, A., *et al.* Magnetic Resonance Imaging, Clinical, and Biopsy Findings in Suspected Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2024. 7: e244258.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38551559>
202. Turkbey, B., *et al.* Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System Version 2.1: 2019 Update of Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System Version 2. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 340.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30898406>
203. Weinreb, J.C., *et al.* PI-RADS Prostate Imaging - Reporting and Data System: 2015, Version 2. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 16.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26427566>
204. Bratan, F., *et al.* Influence of imaging and histological factors on prostate cancer detection and localisation on multiparametric MRI: a prospective study. *Eur Radiol*, 2013. 23: 2019.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23494494>
205. Borofsky, S., *et al.* What Are We Missing? False-Negative Cancers at Multiparametric MR Imaging of the Prostate. *Radiology*, 2018. 286: 186.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29053402>
206. Johnson, D.C., *et al.* Detection of Individual Prostate Cancer Foci via Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 712.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30509763>

207. Yaxley, W.J., *et al.* Histological findings of totally embedded robot assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy (RALP) specimens in 1197 men with a negative (low risk) preoperative multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) prostate lobe and clinical implications. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 398.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32999464>
208. Drost, F.H., *et al.* Prostate MRI, with or without MRI-targeted biopsy, and systematic biopsy for detecting prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2019. 4: CD012663.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31022301>
209. Smeenge, M., *et al.* Role of transrectal ultrasonography (TRUS) in focal therapy of prostate cancer: report from a Consensus Panel. *BJU Int*, 2012. 110: 942.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22462566>
210. Rouviere, O., *et al.* Use of prostate systematic and targeted biopsy on the basis of multiparametric MRI in biopsy-naive patients (MRI-FIRST): a prospective, multicentre, paired diagnostic study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2019. 20: 100.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30470502>
211. Correas, J.M., *et al.* Advanced ultrasound in the diagnosis of prostate cancer. *World J Urol*, 2021. 39: 661.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32306060>
212. Mannaerts, C.K., *et al.* Detection of clinically significant prostate cancer in biopsy-naive men: direct comparison of systematic biopsy, multiparametric MRI- and contrast-ultrasound-dispersion imaging-targeted biopsy. *BJU Int*, 2020. 126: 481.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32315112>
213. Grey, A.D.R., *et al.* Multiparametric ultrasound versus multiparametric MRI to diagnose prostate cancer (CADMUS): a prospective, multicentre, paired-cohort, confirmatory study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2022. 23: 428.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35240084>
214. Hofbauer, S.L., *et al.* A non-inferiority comparative analysis of micro-ultrasonography and MRI-targeted biopsy in men at risk of prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2022. 129: 648.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34773679>
215. Ghai, S., *et al.* Comparison of Micro-US and Multiparametric MRI for Prostate Cancer Detection in Biopsy-Naive Men. *Radiology*, 2022. 305: 390.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35852425>
216. Dias, A.B., *et al.* Multiparametric ultrasound and micro-ultrasound in prostate cancer: a comprehensive review. *Br J Radiol*, 2022. 95: 20210633.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34752132>
217. Kawada, T., *et al.* Diagnostic Performance of Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography-targeted biopsy for Detection of Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 390.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35715320>
218. Kretschmer, A., *et al.* Biomarkers in prostate cancer - Current clinical utility and future perspectives. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*, 2017. 120: 180.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29198331>
219. Strom, P., *et al.* The Stockholm-3 Model for Prostate Cancer Detection: Algorithm Update, Biomarker Contribution, and Reflex Test Potential. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 204.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29331214>
220. Wagaskar, V.G., *et al.* A 4K score/MRI-based nomogram for predicting prostate cancer, clinically significant prostate cancer, and unfavorable prostate cancer. *Cancer Rep (Hoboken)*, 2021. 4: e1357.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33661541>
221. Hendriks, R.J., *et al.* Clinical use of the SelectMDx urinary-biomarker test with or without mpMRI in prostate cancer diagnosis: a prospective, multicenter study in biopsy-naive men. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 1110.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33941866>
222. Bryant, R.J., *et al.* Predicting high-grade cancer at ten-core prostate biopsy using four kallikrein markers measured in blood in the ProtecT study. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2015. 107.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25863334>
223. Catalona, W.J., *et al.* A multicenter study of [-2]pro-prostate specific antigen combined with prostate specific antigen and free prostate specific antigen for prostate cancer detection in the 2.0 to 10.0 ng/ml prostate specific antigen range. *J Urol*, 2011. 185: 1650.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21419439>

224. Nordstrom, T., *et al.* Comparison Between the Four-kallikrein Panel and Prostate Health Index for Predicting Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 139.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25151013>
225. Wagaskar, V.G., *et al.* Clinical Utility of Negative Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging in the Diagnosis of Prostate Cancer and Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2021. 28: 9.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34337520>
226. Gronberg, H., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Diagnostics Using a Combination of the Stockholm3 Blood Test and Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 722.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30001824>
227. Nordstrom, T., *et al.* Prostate cancer screening using a combination of risk-prediction, MRI, and targeted prostate biopsies (STHLM3-MRI): a prospective, population-based, randomised, open-label, non-inferiority trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2021. 22: 1240.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34391509>
228. Morote, J., *et al.* Improving the Early Detection of Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer in Men in the Challenging Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System 3 Category. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2022. 37: 38.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35243388>
229. Ploussard, G., *et al.* The role of prostate cancer antigen 3 (PCA3) in prostate cancer detection. *Expert Rev Anticancer Ther*, 2018. 18: 1013.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30016891>
230. Van Neste, L., *et al.* Detection of High-grade Prostate Cancer Using a Urinary Molecular Biomarker-Based Risk Score. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 740.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27108162>
231. Maggi, M., *et al.* SelectMDx and Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging of the Prostate for Men Undergoing Primary Prostate Biopsy: A Prospective Assessment in a Multi-Institutional Study. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2021. 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33922626>
232. Lendinez-Cano, G., *et al.* Prospective study of diagnostic accuracy in the detection of high-grade prostate cancer in biopsy-naive patients with clinical suspicion of prostate cancer who underwent the Select MDx test. *Prostate*, 2021. 81: 857.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34184761>
233. Roumiguie, M., *et al.* Independent Evaluation of the Respective Predictive Values for High-Grade Prostate Cancer of Clinical Information and RNA Biomarkers after Upfront MRI and Image-Guided Biopsies. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2020. 12.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31991591>
234. Tomlins, S.A., *et al.* Recurrent fusion of TMPRSS2 and ETS transcription factor genes in prostate cancer. *Science*, 2005. 310: 644.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16254181>
235. Tomlins, S.A., *et al.* Urine TMPRSS2:ERG Plus PCA3 for Individualized Prostate Cancer Risk Assessment. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 45.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25985884>
236. Tosoian, J.J., *et al.* Development and Validation of an 18-Genes Urine Test for High-Grade Prostate Cancer. *JAMA Oncol*, 2024. 10: 726.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38635241>
237. Donovan, M.J., *et al.* A molecular signature of PCA3 and ERG exosomal RNA from non-DRE urine is predictive of initial prostate biopsy result. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2015. 18: 370.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26345389>
238. McKiernan, J., *et al.* A Novel Urine Exosome Gene Expression Assay to Predict High-grade Prostate Cancer at Initial Biopsy. *JAMA Oncol*, 2016. 2: 882.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27032035>
239. Vedder, M.M., *et al.* The added value of percentage of free to total prostate-specific antigen, PCA3, and a kallikrein panel to the ERSPC risk calculator for prostate cancer in prescreened men. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 1109.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25168616>
240. Lamy, P.J., *et al.* Prognostic Biomarkers Used for Localised Prostate Cancer Management: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2018. 4: 790.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28753865>

241. Iczkowski, K.A., *et al.* Needle core length in sextant biopsy influences prostate cancer detection rate. *Urology*, 2002. 59: 698.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11992843>
242. Egevad, L., *et al.* Dataset for the reporting of prostate carcinoma in core needle biopsy and transurethral resection and enucleation specimens: recommendations from the International Collaboration on Cancer Reporting (ICCR). *Pathology*, 2019. 51: 11.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30477882>
243. Van der Kwast, T., *et al.* Guidelines on processing and reporting of prostate biopsies: the 2013 update of the pathology committee of the European Randomized Study of Screening for Prostate Cancer (ERSPC). *Virchows Arch*, 2013. 463: 367.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23918245>
244. Epstein, J.I., *et al.* Best practices recommendations in the application of immunohistochemistry in the prostate: report from the International Society of Urologic Pathology consensus conference. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2014. 38: e6.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25029122>
245. Chen, R.C., *et al.* Active Surveillance for the Management of Localized Prostate Cancer (Cancer Care Ontario Guideline): American Society of Clinical Oncology Clinical Practice Guideline Endorsement. *J Clin Oncol*, 2016. 34: 2182.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26884580>
246. Deng, F.M., *et al.* Size-adjusted Quantitative Gleason Score as a Predictor of Biochemical Recurrence after Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 248.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26525839>
247. Kweldam, C.F., *et al.* Disease-specific survival of patients with invasive cribriform and intraductal prostate cancer at diagnostic biopsy. *Mod Pathol*, 2016. 29: 630.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26939875>
248. Kweldam, C.F., *et al.* On cribriform prostate cancer. *Transl Androl Urol*, 2018. 7: 145.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29594028>
249. Russo, G.I., *et al.* Oncological outcomes of cribriform histology pattern in prostate cancer patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 646.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36216967>
250. Marra, G., *et al.* Impact of Epithelial Histological Types, Subtypes, and Growth Patterns on Oncological Outcomes for Patients with Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer Treated with Curative Intent: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 84: 65.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37117107>
251. van der Kwast, T.H., *et al.* ISUP Consensus Definition of Cribriform Pattern Prostate Cancer. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2021. 45: 1118.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33999555>
252. Zhou, M. High-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia, PIN-like carcinoma, ductal carcinoma, and intraductal carcinoma of the prostate. *Mod Pathol*, 2018. 31: S71.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29297491>
253. Saeter, T., *et al.* Intraductal Carcinoma of the Prostate on Diagnostic Needle Biopsy Predicts Prostate Cancer Mortality: A Population-Based Study. *Prostate*, 2017. 77: 859.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28240424>
254. Miura, N., *et al.* The Prognostic Impact of Intraductal Carcinoma of the Prostate: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Urol*, 2020. 204: 909.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32698712>
255. Shah, R.B., *et al.* Atypical intraductal proliferation detected in prostate needle biopsy is a marker of unsampled intraductal carcinoma and other adverse pathological features: a prospective clinicopathological study of 62 cases with emphasis on pathological outcomes. *Histopathology*, 2019. 75: 346.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31012493>
256. Hickman, R.A., *et al.* Atypical Intraductal Cribriform Proliferations of the Prostate Exhibit Similar Molecular and Clinicopathologic Characteristics as Intraductal Carcinoma of the Prostate. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2017. 41: 550.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28009609>
257. Pepdjonovic, L., *et al.* Zero hospital admissions for infection after 577 transperineal prostate biopsies using single-dose cephazolin prophylaxis. *World J Urol*, 2017. 35: 1199.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27987032>

258. Epstein, J.I., *et al.* The 2019 Genitourinary Pathology Society (GUPS) White Paper on Contemporary Grading of Prostate Cancer. *Arch Pathol Lab Med*, 2021. 145: 461.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32589068>
259. Tumours, E.B.W.C.o., WHO Classification of Tumours. Urinary and male genital tumours. 8th ed, ed. I.A.f.R.o. Cancer. Vol. 5th Edn.; vol 8. 2022, Lyon (France).
<https://publications.iarc.fr/610>
260. Gordetsky, J.B., *et al.* Histologic findings associated with false-positive multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging performed for prostate cancer detection. *Hum Pathol*, 2019. 83: 159.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30179687>
261. Srigley, J.R., *et al.* Controversial issues in Gleason and International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) prostate cancer grading: proposed recommendations for international implementation. *Pathology*, 2019. 51: 463.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31279442>
262. Strom, P., *et al.* Prognostic value of perineural invasion in prostate needle biopsies: a population-based study of patients treated by radical prostatectomy. *J Clin Pathol*, 2020. 73: 630.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32034057>
263. Fleshner, K., *et al.* Clinical Findings and Treatment Outcomes in Patients with Extraprostatic Extension Identified on Prostate Biopsy. *J Urol*, 2016. 196: 703.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27049874>
264. Karwacki, J., *et al.* Association of Lymphovascular Invasion with Biochemical Recurrence and Adverse Pathological Characteristics of Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2024. 69: 112.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39430411>
265. Li, H., *et al.* Perineural invasion detected in prostate biopsy is a predictor of positive surgical margin of radical prostatectomy specimen: A meta-analysis. *Andrologia*, 2022. 54: e14395.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35233813>
266. Wu, S., *et al.* Impact of biopsy perineural invasion on the outcomes of patients who underwent radical prostatectomy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Scand J Urol*, 2019. 53: 287.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31401922>
267. Morozov, A., *et al.* A systematic review and meta-analysis of artificial intelligence diagnostic accuracy in prostate cancer histology identification and grading. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 681.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37185992>
268. Freedland, S.J., *et al.* Preoperative model for predicting prostate specific antigen recurrence after radical prostatectomy using percent of biopsy tissue with cancer, biopsy Gleason grade and serum prostate specific antigen. *J Urol*, 2004. 171: 2215.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15126788>
269. Grossklau, D.J., *et al.* Percent of cancer in the biopsy set predicts pathological findings after prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2002. 167: 2032.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11956432>
270. Brimo, F., *et al.* Prognostic value of various morphometric measurements of tumour extent in prostate needle core tissue. *Histopathology*, 2008. 53: 177.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18752501>
271. Nguyen, P.L., *et al.* Analysis of a Biopsy-Based Genomic Classifier in High-Risk Prostate Cancer: Meta-Analysis of the NRG Oncology/Radiation Therapy Oncology Group 9202, 9413, and 9902 Phase 3 Randomized Trials. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2023. 116: 521.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36596347>
272. Spratt, D.E., *et al.* Genomic Classifier Performance in Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer: Results From NRG Oncology/RTOG 0126 Randomized Phase 3 Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2023. 117: 370.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37137444>
273. de Bono, J., *et al.* Olaparib for Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2020. 382: 2091.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32343890>
274. Mateo, J., *et al.* Genomics of lethal prostate cancer at diagnosis and castration resistance. *J Clin Invest*, 2020. 130: 1743.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31874108>
275. Schweizer, M.T., *et al.* Concordance of DNA Repair Gene Mutations in Paired Primary Prostate Cancer Samples and Metastatic Tissue or Cell-Free DNA. *JAMA Oncol*, 2021. 7: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34086042>

276. Robinson, D., *et al.* Integrative clinical genomics of advanced prostate cancer. *Cell*, 2015. 161: 1215.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26000489>
277. Matsubara, N., *et al.* Olaparib Efficacy in Patients with Metastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer and BRCA1, BRCA2, or ATM Alterations Identified by Testing Circulating Tumor DNA. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2023. 29: 92.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36318705>
278. Chi, K.N., *et al.* Detection of BRCA1, BRCA2, and ATM Alterations in Matched Tumor Tissue and Circulating Tumor DNA in Patients with Prostate Cancer Screened in PROfound. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2023. 29: 81.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36043882>
279. Iremashvili, V., *et al.* Partial sampling of radical prostatectomy specimens: detection of positive margins and extraprostatic extension. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2013. 37: 219.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23095506>
280. Kench, J.G., *et al.* Dataset for the reporting of prostate carcinoma in radical prostatectomy specimens: updated recommendations from the International Collaboration on Cancer Reporting. *Virchows Arch*, 2019. 475: 263.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31098802>
281. Gandaglia, G., *et al.* A Novel Nomogram to Identify Candidates for Extended Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection Among Patients with Clinically Localized Prostate Cancer Diagnosed with Magnetic Resonance Imaging-targeted and Systematic Biopsies. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 506.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30342844>
282. Partin, A.W., *et al.* Contemporary update of prostate cancer staging nomograms (Partin Tables) for the new millennium. *Urology*, 2001. 58: 843.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11744442>
283. Magi-Galluzzi, C., *et al.* International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) Consensus Conference on Handling and Staging of Radical Prostatectomy Specimens. Working group 3: extraprostatic extension, lymphovascular invasion and locally advanced disease. *Mod Pathol*, 2011. 24: 26.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20802467>
284. Lazzereschi, L., *et al.* Does the extent of extraprostatic extension at radical prostatectomy predict outcome?-a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Histopathology*, 2024. 85: 727.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39108209>
285. van Veggel, B.A., *et al.* Quantification of extraprostatic extension in prostate cancer: different parameters correlated to biochemical recurrence after radical prostatectomy. *Histopathology*, 2011. 59: 692.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22014050>
286. Aydin, H., *et al.* Positive proximal (bladder neck) margin at radical prostatectomy confers greater risk of biochemical progression. *Urology*, 2004. 64: 551.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15351591>
287. Ploussard, G., *et al.* The prognostic significance of bladder neck invasion in prostate cancer: is microscopic involvement truly a T4 disease? *BJU Int*, 2010. 105: 776.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19863529>
288. Stamey, T.A., *et al.* Prostate cancer is highly predictable: a prognostic equation based on all morphological variables in radical prostatectomy specimens. *J Urol*, 2000. 163: 1155.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10737486>
289. van Oort, I.M., *et al.* Maximum tumor diameter is not an independent prognostic factor in high-risk localized prostate cancer. *World J Urol*, 2008. 26: 237.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18265988>
290. van der Kwast, T.H., *et al.* International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) Consensus Conference on Handling and Staging of Radical Prostatectomy Specimens. Working group 2: T2 substaging and prostate cancer volume. *Mod Pathol*, 2011. 24: 16.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20818340>
291. Epstein, J.I., *et al.* Prognostic factors and reporting of prostate carcinoma in radical prostatectomy and pelvic lymphadenectomy specimens. *Scand J Urol Nephrol Suppl*, 2005: 34.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16019758>
292. Evans, A.J., *et al.* Interobserver variability between expert urologic pathologists for extraprostatic extension and surgical margin status in radical prostatectomy specimens. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2008. 32: 1503.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18708939>

293. Chuang, A.Y., *et al.* Positive surgical margins in areas of capsular incision in otherwise organ-confined disease at radical prostatectomy: histologic features and pitfalls. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2008. 32: 1201.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18580493>
294. Hollemans, E., *et al.* Prostate Carcinoma Grade and Length But Not Cribriform Architecture at Positive Surgical Margins Are Predictive for Biochemical Recurrence After Radical Prostatectomy. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2020. 44: 191.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31592799>
295. Cao, D., *et al.* Ability of linear length of positive margin in radical prostatectomy specimens to predict biochemical recurrence. *Urology*, 2011. 77: 1409.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21256540>
296. John, A., *et al.* Length of positive surgical margins after radical prostatectomy: Does size matter? - A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 673.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36859711>
297. Sammon, J.D., *et al.* Risk factors for biochemical recurrence following radical perineal prostatectomy in a large contemporary series: a detailed assessment of margin extent and location. *Urol Oncol*, 2013. 31: 1470.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22534086>
298. Chapin, B.F., *et al.* Positive margin length and highest Gleason grade of tumor at the margin predict for biochemical recurrence after radical prostatectomy in patients with organ-confined prostate cancer. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2018. 21: 221.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29230008>
299. Dinneen, E.P., *et al.* Intraoperative Frozen Section for Margin Evaluation During Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020. 6: 664.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31787570>
300. Schlomm, T., *et al.* Neurovascular structure-adjacent frozen-section examination (NeuroSAFE) increases nerve-sparing frequency and reduces positive surgical margins in open and robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy: experience after 11,069 consecutive patients. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 62: 333.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22591631>
301. Mirmilstein, G., *et al.* The neurovascular structure-adjacent frozen-section examination (NeuroSAFE) approach to nerve sparing in robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy in a British setting - a prospective observational comparative study. *BJU Int*, 2018. 121: 854.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29124889>
302. van der Slot, M.A., *et al.* NeuroSAFE in radical prostatectomy increases the rate of nerve-sparing surgery without affecting oncological outcome. *BJU Int*, 2022. 130: 628.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35536200>
303. Koseoglu, E., *et al.* Intraoperative Frozen Section via Neurosafe During Robotic Radical Prostatectomy in the Era of Preoperative Risk Stratifications and Primary Staging With mpMRI and PSMA-PET CT: Is There a Perfect Candidate? *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2023. 21: 602.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37451883>
304. Dinneen, E., *et al.* NeuroSAFE PROOF: study protocol for a single-blinded, IDEAL stage 3, multi-centre, randomised controlled trial of NeuroSAFE robotic-assisted radical prostatectomy versus standard robotic-assisted radical prostatectomy in men with localized prostate cancer. *Trials*, 2022. 23: 584.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35869497>
305. Farrell, C., *et al.* Prostate Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Program Implementation and Impact: Initial Clinical Experience in a Community Based Health System. *Urol Pract*, 2018. 5: 165.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37300235>
306. Reesink, D.J., *et al.* Comparison of risk-calculator and MRI and consecutive pathways as upfront stratification for prostate biopsy. *World J Urol*, 2021. 39: 2453.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33090259>
307. Louie, K.S., *et al.* Do prostate cancer risk models improve the predictive accuracy of PSA screening? A meta-analysis. *Ann Oncol*, 2015. 26: 848.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25403590>
308. Mannaerts, C.K., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Risk Assessment in Biopsy-naïve Patients: The Rotterdam Prostate Cancer Risk Calculator in Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging-Transrectal Ultrasound (TRUS) Fusion Biopsy and Systematic TRUS Biopsy. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2018. 1: 109.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31100233>

309. Kim, L., *et al.* Clinical utility and cost modelling of the phi test to triage referrals into image-based diagnostic services for suspected prostate cancer: the PRIM (Phi to Refine Mri) study. *BMC Med*, 2020. 18: 95.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32299423>
310. Morote, J., *et al.* A Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer Predictive Model Using Digital Rectal Examination Prostate Volume Category to Stratify Initial Prostate Cancer Suspicion and Reduce Magnetic Resonance Imaging Demand. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2022. 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36291883>
311. Moldovan, P.C., *et al.* What Is the Negative Predictive Value of Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging in Excluding Prostate Cancer at Biopsy? A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis from the European Association of Urology Prostate Cancer Guidelines Panel. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: 250.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28336078>
312. Kamal, O., *et al.* Intermediate-term oncological outcomes after a negative endorectal coil multiparametric MRI of the prostate in patients without biopsy proven prostate cancer. *Clin Imaging*, 2022. 92: 112.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36306588>
313. Oerther, B., *et al.* Update on PI-RADS Version 2.1 Diagnostic Performance Benchmarks for Prostate MRI: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Radiology*, 2024. 312: e233337.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39136561>
314. van der Leest, M., *et al.* Head-to-head Comparison of Transrectal Ultrasound-guided Prostate Biopsy Versus Multiparametric Prostate Resonance Imaging with Subsequent Magnetic Resonance-guided Biopsy in Biopsy-naive Men with Elevated Prostate-specific Antigen: A Large Prospective Multicenter Clinical Study. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 570.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30477981>
315. Wagenveld, I.M., *et al.* A Prospective Multicenter Comparison Study of Risk-adapted Ultrasound-directed and Magnetic Resonance Imaging-directed Diagnostic Pathways for Suspected Prostate Cancer in Biopsy-naive Men. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 82: 318.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35341658>
316. Distler, F.A., *et al.* The Value of PSA Density in Combination with PI-RADS for the Accuracy of Prostate Cancer Prediction. *J Urol*, 2017. 198: 575.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28373135>
317. Washino, S., *et al.* Combination of prostate imaging reporting and data system (PI-RADS) score and prostate-specific antigen (PSA) density predicts biopsy outcome in prostate biopsy naive patients. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 225.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26935594>
318. Schoots, I.G., *et al.* Risk-adapted biopsy decision based on prostate magnetic resonance imaging and prostate-specific antigen density for enhanced biopsy avoidance in first prostate cancer diagnostic evaluation. *BJU Int*, 2021. 127: 175.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33089586>
319. Hansen, N.L., *et al.* Multicentre evaluation of targeted and systematic biopsies using magnetic resonance and ultrasound image-fusion guided transperineal prostate biopsy in patients with a previous negative biopsy. *BJU Int*, 2017. 120: 631.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27862869>
320. Pagniez, M.A., *et al.* Predictive Factors of Missed Clinically Significant Prostate Cancers in Men with Negative Magnetic Resonance Imaging: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Urol*, 2020. 204: 24.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31967522>
321. Boesen, L., *et al.* Prebiopsy Biparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Combined with Prostate-specific Antigen Density in Detecting and Ruling out Gleason 7-10 Prostate Cancer in Biopsy-naive Men. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2019. 2: 311.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31200846>
322. Hansen, N.L., *et al.* The influence of prostate-specific antigen density on positive and negative predictive values of multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging to detect Gleason score 7-10 prostate cancer in a repeat biopsy setting. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 724.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27488931>
323. Oishi, M., *et al.* Which Patients with Negative Magnetic Resonance Imaging Can Safely Avoid Biopsy for Prostate Cancer? *J Urol*, 2019. 201: 268.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30189186>

324. Sigle, A., *et al.* Prediction of Significant Prostate Cancer in Equivocal Magnetic Resonance Imaging Lesions: A High-volume International Multicenter Study. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2023. 9: 606.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36804191>
325. Kortenbach, K.C., *et al.* Early experience in avoiding biopsies for biopsy-naive men with clinical suspicion of prostate cancer but non-suspicious biparametric magnetic resonance imaging results and prostate-specific antigen density < 0.15 ng/mL(2): A 2-year follow-up study. *Acta Radiol Open*, 2022. 11: 20584601221094825.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35464293>
326. Konishi, T., *et al.* Combination of biparametric magnetic resonance imaging with prostate-specific antigen density to stratify the risk of significant prostate cancer: Initial biopsy and long-term follow-up results. *Int J Urol*, 2022. 29: 1031.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35697503>
327. Schoots, I.G., *et al.* Multivariate risk prediction tools including MRI for individualized biopsy decision in prostate cancer diagnosis: current status and future directions. *World J Urol*, 2020. 38: 517.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30868240>
328. Saba, K., *et al.* External Validation and Comparison of Prostate Cancer Risk Calculators Incorporating Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Prediction of Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer. *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 719.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31651228>
329. Radtke, J.P., *et al.* Prediction of significant prostate cancer in biopsy-naive men: Validation of a novel risk model combining MRI and clinical parameters and comparison to an ERSPC risk calculator and PI-RADS. *PLoS One*, 2019. 14: e0221350.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31450235>
330. Pallauf, M., *et al.* External validation of two mpMRI-risk calculators predicting risk of prostate cancer before biopsy. *World J Urol*, 2022. 40: 2451.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35941246>
331. Peters, M., *et al.* Predicting the Need for Biopsy to Detect Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer in Patients with a Magnetic Resonance Imaging-detected Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System/Likert \geq 3 Lesion: Development and Multinational External Validation of the Imperial Rapid Access to Prostate Imaging and Diagnosis Risk Score. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 82: 559.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35963650>
332. Fazekas, T., *et al.* Magnetic Resonance Imaging in Prostate Cancer Screening: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *JAMA Oncol*, 2024. 10: 745.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38576242>
333. Eldred-Evans, D., *et al.* An Evaluation of Screening Pathways Using a Combination of Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Prostate-specific Antigen: Results from the IP1-PROSTAGRAM Study. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 295.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37080821>
334. Nam, R.K., *et al.* A Pilot Study to Evaluate the Role of Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Prostate Cancer Screening in the General Population. *J Urol*, 2016. 196: 361.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26880413>
335. Nam, R., *et al.* Prostate MRI versus PSA screening for prostate cancer detection (the MVP Study): a randomised clinical trial. *BMJ Open*, 2022. 12: e059482.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36351725>
336. Eichler, K., *et al.* Diagnostic value of systematic biopsy methods in the investigation of prostate cancer: a systematic review. *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 1605.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16600713>
337. Watts, K.L., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis comparing cognitive vs. image-guided fusion prostate biopsy for the detection of prostate cancer. *Urol Oncol*, 2020. 38: 734 e19.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32321689>
338. Wegelin, O., *et al.* The FUTURE Trial: A Multicenter Randomised Controlled Trial on Target Biopsy Techniques Based on Magnetic Resonance Imaging in the Diagnosis of Prostate Cancer in Patients with Prior Negative Biopsies. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 582.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30522912>
339. Wegelin, O., *et al.* Comparing Three Different Techniques for Magnetic Resonance Imaging-targeted Prostate Biopsies: A Systematic Review of In-bore versus Magnetic Resonance Imaging-transrectal Ultrasound fusion versus Cognitive Registration. Is There a Preferred Technique? *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 517.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27568655>

340. Klotz, L., *et al.* Comparison of Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging-Targeted Biopsy With Systematic Transrectal Ultrasonography Biopsy for Biopsy-Naive Men at Risk for Prostate Cancer: A Phase 3 Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2021. 7: 534.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33538782>
341. Goldberg, H., *et al.* Comparison of Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Transrectal Ultrasound Informed Prostate Biopsy for Prostate Cancer Diagnosis in Biopsy Naive Men: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 1085.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31609177>
342. Wei, C., *et al.* Multicenter Randomized Trial Assessing MRI and Image-guided Biopsy for Suspected Prostate Cancer: The MULTIPROS Study. *Radiology*, 2023. 308: e221428.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37489992>
343. Exterkate, L., *et al.* Is There Still a Need for Repeated Systematic Biopsies in Patients with Previous Negative Biopsies in the Era of Magnetic Resonance Imaging-targeted Biopsies of the Prostate? *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2020. 3: 216.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31239236>
344. Leow, J.J., *et al.* Can we omit systematic biopsies in patients undergoing MRI fusion-targeted prostate biopsies? *Asian J Androl*, 2023. 25: 43.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35488666>
345. Deniffel, D., *et al.* Prostate biopsy in the era of MRI-targeting: towards a judicious use of additional systematic biopsy. *Eur Radiol*, 2022. 32: 7544.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35507051>
346. Barrett, T., *et al.* Quality checkpoints in the MRI-directed prostate cancer diagnostic pathway. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2023. 20: 9.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36168056>
347. Zattoni, F., *et al.* Enhancing Prostate Cancer Detection Accuracy in Magnetic Resonance Imaging-targeted Prostate Biopsy: Optimizing the Number of Cores Taken. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2024. 66: 16.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39027654>
348. Bryk, D.J., *et al.* The Role of Ipsilateral and Contralateral Transrectal Ultrasound-guided Systematic Prostate Biopsy in Men With Unilateral Magnetic Resonance Imaging Lesion Undergoing Magnetic Resonance Imaging-ultrasound Fusion-targeted Prostate Biopsy. *Urology*, 2017. 102: 178.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27871829>
349. Freifeld, Y., *et al.* Optimal sampling scheme in men with abnormal multiparametric MRI undergoing MRI-TRUS fusion prostate biopsy. *Urol Oncol*, 2019. 37: 57.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30446460>
350. Jager, A., *et al.* An optimized prostate biopsy strategy in patients with a unilateral lesion on prostate magnetic resonance imaging avoids unnecessary biopsies. *Ther Adv Urol*, 2022. 14: 1756287222111410.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35924207>
351. Ruan, M., *et al.* Novel sampling scheme with reduced cores in men with multiparametric MRI-visible lesions undergoing prostate biopsy. *Abdom Radiol (NY)*, 2023. 48: 2139.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37036488>
352. Zambon, A., *et al.* Which protocol for prostate biopsies in patients with a positive MRI? Interest of systematic biopsies by sectors. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2024. 27: 500.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38114598>
353. Brisbane, W.G., *et al.* Targeted Prostate Biopsy: Umbra, Penumbra, and Value of Perilesional Sampling. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 82: 303.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35115177>
354. Noujeim, J.P., *et al.* Optimizing multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging-targeted biopsy and detection of clinically significant prostate cancer: the role of perilesional sampling. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 575.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36509930>
355. Hagens, M.J., *et al.* An Magnetic Resonance Imaging-directed Targeted-plus-perilesional Biopsy Approach for Prostate Cancer Diagnosis: "Less Is More". *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2022. 43: 68.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36353069>
356. Hagens, M.J., *et al.* Diagnostic Performance of a Magnetic Resonance Imaging-directed Targeted plus Regional Biopsy Approach in Prostate Cancer Diagnosis: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2022. 40: 95.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35540708>

357. Hsieh, P-F., *et al.* Saturation target biopsy can overcome the learning curve of magnetic resonance imaging/ultrasound fusion biopsy of the prostate. *J Men's Health*, 2022. 18: 1.
<https://www.jomh.org/articles/10.31083/j.jomh1806127>
358. Diamand, R., *et al.* The role of perilesional and multiparametric resonance imaging-targeted biopsies to reduce the risk of upgrading at radical prostatectomy pathology: A retrospective monocentric study. *Urol Oncol*, 2022. 40: 192 e11.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35236622>
359. Ahdoot, M., *et al.* Using Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System (PI-RADS) Scores to Select an Optimal Prostate Biopsy Method: A Secondary Analysis of the Trio Study. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 176.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33846112>
360. Barletta, F., *et al.* Assessing the need for systematic biopsies in addition to targeted biopsies according to the characteristics of the index lesion at mpMRI. Results from a large, multi-institutional database. *World J Urol*, 2022. 40: 2683.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36149448>
361. Hou, Y., *et al.* A clinical available decision support scheme for optimizing prostate biopsy based on mpMRI. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2022. 25: 727.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35067674>
362. Di Franco, F., *et al.* Characterization of high-grade prostate cancer at multiparametric MRI: assessment of PI-RADS version 2.1 and version 2 descriptors across 21 readers with varying experience (MULTI study). *Insights Imaging*, 2023. 14: 49.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36939970>
363. de Rooij, M., *et al.* ESUR/ESUI consensus statements on multi-parametric MRI for the detection of clinically significant prostate cancer: quality requirements for image acquisition, interpretation and radiologists' training. *Eur Radiol*, 2020. 30: 5404.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32424596>
364. Meng, X., *et al.* The Institutional Learning Curve of Magnetic Resonance Imaging-Ultrasound Fusion Targeted Prostate Biopsy: Temporal Improvements in Cancer Detection in 4 Years. *J Urol*, 2018. 200: 1022.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29886090>
365. Saha, A., *et al.* Artificial intelligence and radiologists in prostate cancer detection on MRI (PI-CAI): an international, paired, non-inferiority, confirmatory study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2024. 25: 879.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38876123>
366. Rouviere, O., *et al.* Artificial intelligence algorithms aimed at characterizing or detecting prostate cancer on MRI: How accurate are they when tested on independent cohorts? - A systematic review. *Diagn Interv Imaging*, 2023. 104: 221.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36517398>
367. Dell'Oglio, P., *et al.* Impact of multiparametric MRI and MRI-targeted biopsy on pre-therapeutic risk assessment in prostate cancer patients candidate for radical prostatectomy. *World J Urol*, 2019. 37: 221.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29948044>
368. Faiena, I., *et al.* PI-RADS Version 2 Category on 3 Tesla Multiparametric Prostate Magnetic Resonance Imaging Predicts Oncologic Outcomes in Gleason 3 + 4 Prostate Cancer on Biopsy. *J Urol*, 2019. 201: 91.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30142318>
369. Houlahan, K.E., *et al.* Molecular Hallmarks of Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Visibility in Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 18.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30685078>
370. Gaffney, C.D., *et al.* The oncologic risk of magnetic resonance imaging-targeted and systematic cores in patients treated with radical prostatectomy. *Cancer*, 2023. 129: 3790.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37584213>
371. Scuderi, S., *et al.* The Highest Grade Group Does Not Drive the Risk of Recurrence when Systematic and Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)-targeted Biopsies are Discordant: Preliminary Findings Using Radical Prostatectomy Pathology as a Surrogate for MRI-targeted Biopsy Grade. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2024. 10: 486.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37739916>
372. Lam, T.B.L., *et al.* EAU-EANM-ESTRO-ESUR-SIOG Prostate Cancer Guideline Panel Consensus Statements for Deferred Treatment with Curative Intent for Localised Prostate Cancer from an International Collaborative Study (DETECTIVE Study). *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 790.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31587989>

373. Kanagarajah, A., *et al.* A systematic review on the outcomes of local anaesthetic transperineal prostate biopsy. *BJU Int*, 2023. 131: 408.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36177521>
374. Pradere, B., *et al.* Nonantibiotic Strategies for the Prevention of Infectious Complications following Prostate Biopsy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Urol*, 2021. 205: 653.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33026903>
375. Tu, X., *et al.* Transperineal Magnetic Resonance Imaging-Targeted Biopsy May Perform Better Than Transrectal Route in the Detection of Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer: Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2019. 17: e860.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31281065>
376. Hu, J.C., *et al.* Transperineal Versus Transrectal Magnetic Resonance Imaging-targeted and Systematic Prostate Biopsy to Prevent Infectious Complications: The PREVENT Randomized Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2024. 86: 61.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38212178>
377. Mian, B.M., *et al.* Complications Following Transrectal and Transperineal Prostate Biopsy: Results of the ProBE-PC Randomized Clinical Trial. *J Urol*, 2024. 211: 205.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37976319>
378. Ploussard, G., *et al.* Transperineal Versus Transrectal Magnetic Resonance Imaging-targeted Biopsies for Prostate Cancer Diagnosis: Final Results of the Randomized PERFECT trial (CCAFU-PR1). *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 1080.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38403523>
379. von Knobloch, R., *et al.* Bilateral fine-needle administered local anaesthetic nerve block for pain control during TRUS-guided multi-core prostate biopsy: a prospective randomised trial. *Eur Urol*, 2002. 41: 508.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12074792>
380. Adamakis, I., *et al.* Pain during transrectal ultrasonography guided prostate biopsy: a randomized prospective trial comparing periprostatic infiltration with lidocaine with the intrarectal instillation of lidocaine-prilocain cream. *World J Urol*, 2004. 22: 281.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14689224>
381. Bass, E.J., *et al.* Magnetic resonance imaging targeted transperineal prostate biopsy: a local anaesthetic approach. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2017. 20: 311.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28485391>
382. Xiang, J., *et al.* Transperineal versus transrectal prostate biopsy in the diagnosis of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *World J Surg Oncol*, 2019. 17: 31.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30760274>
383. Iremashvili, V.V., *et al.* Periprostatic local anesthesia with pudendal block for transperineal ultrasound-guided prostate biopsy: a randomized trial. *Urology*, 2010. 75: 1023.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20080288>
384. He, B.M., *et al.* Perineal nerve block versus periprostatic block for patients undergoing transperineal prostate biopsy (APROPOS): a prospective, multicentre, randomised controlled study. *EclinMed*, 2023. 58: 101919.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37007736>
385. Meyer, A.R., *et al.* Initial Experience Performing In-office Ultrasound-guided Transperineal Prostate Biopsy Under Local Anesthesia Using the PrecisionPoint Transperineal Access System. *Urology*, 2018. 115: 8.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29409845>
386. Lam, W., *et al.* Prostate cancer detection, tolerability and safety of transperineal prostate biopsy under local-anaesthesia vs standard transrectal biopsy in biopsy-naive men: a pragmatic, parallel group, randomized controlled study. *BJU Int*, 2022. 129: 9.
<https://bjui-journals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/F/epdf/10.1111/bju.15675>
387. Farooq, K., *et al.* Role of Povidone-Iodine-Soaked Gauze in Preventing Infectious Complications Following Trans Rectal Digital Guided Prostate Biopsy. *J Postgrad Med Inst*, 2021. 35: 225.
<https://jpmi.org.pk/index.php/jpmi/article/view/2849>
388. Bennett, H.Y., *et al.* The global burden of major infectious complications following prostate biopsy. *Epidemiol Infect*, 2016. 144: 1784.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26645476>
389. Berry, B., *et al.* Comparison of complications after transrectal and transperineal prostate biopsy: a national population-based study. *BJU Int*, 2020. 126: 97.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32124525>

390. Castellani, D., *et al.* Infection Rate after Transperineal Prostate Biopsy with and without Prophylactic Antibiotics: Results from a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Comparative Studies. *J Urol*, 2022. 207: 25.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34555932>
391. Basourakos, S.P., *et al.* Role of Prophylactic Antibiotics in Transperineal Prostate Biopsy: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2022. 37: 53.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35243391>
392. Chernysheva, D.Y., *et al.* The first experience of transperineal prostate biopsy without antibiotic prophylaxis. *Cancer Urol*, 2021. 17: 46.
<https://oncurology.abvpress.ru/oncur/article/view/1392>
393. Jacewicz, M., *et al.* Antibiotic prophylaxis versus no antibiotic prophylaxis in transperineal prostate biopsies (NORAPP): a randomised, open-label, non-inferiority trial. *Lancet Infect Dis*, 2022. 22: 1465.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35839791>
394. Shaker, H.S., *et al.* Does The Use Of Povidone Iodine Suppository Decrease The Infective Complications Of TRUS Guided Prostate Biopsies? A Randomized Prospective Study. *QJM: Int J Med*, 2020. 113.
https://academic.oup.com/qjmed/article/113/Supplement_1/hcaa070.024/5829649
395. Yu, L., *et al.* [Impact of insertion timing of iodophor cotton ball on the control of infection complications after transrectal ultrasound guided prostate biopsy]. *Zhonghua Yi Xue Za Zhi*, 2014. 94: 609.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24762693>
396. Pilatz, A., *et al.* Antibiotic Prophylaxis for the Prevention of Infectious Complications following Prostate Biopsy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Urol*, 2020. 204: 224.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32105195>
397. EMA. Disabling and potentially permanent side effects lead to suspension or restrictions of quinolone and fluoroquinolone antibiotics. 2019. EMA/175398/2019.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/news/disabling-potentially-permanent-side-effects-lead-suspension-or-restrictions-quinolone-fluoroquinolone-antibiotics>
398. Carignan, A., *et al.* Effectiveness of fosfomycin tromethamine prophylaxis in preventing infection following transrectal ultrasound-guided prostate needle biopsy: Results from a large Canadian cohort. *J Glob Antimicrob Resist*, 2019. 17: 112.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30553114>
399. Wegelin, O., *et al.* Complications and Adverse Events of Three Magnetic Resonance Imaging-based Target Biopsy Techniques in the Diagnosis of Prostate Cancer Among Men with Prior Negative Biopsies: Results from the FUTURE Trial, a Multicentre Randomised Controlled Trial. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2019. 2: 617.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31519516>
400. Borghesi, M., *et al.* Complications After Systematic, Random, and Image-guided Prostate Biopsy. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 353.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27543165>
401. Giannarini, G., *et al.* Continuing or discontinuing low-dose aspirin before transrectal prostate biopsy: results of a prospective randomized trial. *Urology*, 2007. 70: 501.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17688919>
402. Garcia, C., *et al.* Does transperineal prostate biopsy reduce complications compared with transrectal biopsy? a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. 2016. 195:4 SUPPL. 1 p. e328.
<http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=cctr&NEWS=N&AN=CN-01142664>
403. Xue, J., *et al.* Comparison between transrectal and transperineal prostate biopsy for detection of prostate cancer: a meta-analysis and trial sequential analysis. *Oncotarget*, 2017. 8: 23322.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28177897>
404. Padhani, A.R., *et al.* PI-RADS Steering Committee: The PI-RADS Multiparametric MRI and MRI-directed Biopsy Pathway. *Radiology*, 2019. 292: 464.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31184561>
405. Stranne, J., *et al.* Systematic Biopsies as a Complement to Magnetic Resonance Imaging-targeted Biopsies: "To Be or Not To Be"? *Eur Urol*, 2023. 83: 381.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36737297>
406. Schoots, I.G., *et al.* Analysis of Magnetic Resonance Imaging-directed Biopsy Strategies for Changing the Paradigm of Prostate Cancer Diagnosis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2020. 3: 32.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31706946>

407. Bittencourt, L.K., *et al.* Risk-based MRI-directed diagnostic pathway outperforms non-risk-based pathways in suspected prostate cancer biopsy-naive men: a large cohort validation study. *Eur Radiol*, 2022. 32: 2330.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35028750>
408. Stroomberg, H.V., *et al.* Standardized prostate cancer incidence and mortality rates following initial non-malignant biopsy result. *BJU Int*, 2023. 132: 181.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36847603>
409. Grivas, N., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Detection Percentages of Repeat Biopsy in Patients with Positive Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging (Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System/Likert 3-5) and Negative Initial Biopsy. A Mini Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 82: 452.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35985901>
410. Ericson, K.J., *et al.* Prostate cancer detection following diagnosis of atypical small acinar proliferation. *Can J Urol*, 2017. 24: 8714.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28436357>
411. Wiener, S., *et al.* Incidence of Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer After a Diagnosis of Atypical Small Acinar Proliferation, High-grade Prostatic Intraepithelial Neoplasia, or Benign Tissue. *Urology*, 2017. 110: 161.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28888752>
412. Walz, J., *et al.* High incidence of prostate cancer detected by saturation biopsy after previous negative biopsy series. *Eur Urol*, 2006. 50: 498.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16631303>
413. Moran, B.J., *et al.* Re-biopsy of the prostate using a stereotactic transperineal technique. *J Urol*, 2006. 176: 1376.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16952636>
414. Panebianco, V., *et al.* Negative Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Prostate Cancer: What's Next? *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 48.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29566957>
415. Linzer, D.G., *et al.* Seminal vesicle biopsy: accuracy and implications for staging of prostate cancer. *Urology*, 1996. 48: 757.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8911521>
416. Pelzer, A.E., *et al.* Are transition zone biopsies still necessary to improve prostate cancer detection? Results from the tyrol screening project. *Eur Urol*, 2005. 48: 916.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16126324>
417. Paner, G.P., *et al.* Updates in the Eighth Edition of the Tumor-Node-Metastasis Staging Classification for Urologic Cancers. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 560.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29325693>
418. Expert Panel on Urologic, I., *et al.* ACR Appropriateness Criteria((R)) Prostate Cancer-Pretreatment Detection, Surveillance, and Staging. *J Am Coll Radiol*, 2017. 14: S245.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28473080>
419. de Rooij, M., *et al.* Accuracy of Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Local Staging of Prostate Cancer: A Diagnostic Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 233.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26215604>
420. Chandrasekar, T., *et al.* Multiparametric MRI is not sufficient for prostate cancer staging: A single institutional experience validated by a multi-institutional regional collaborative. *Urol Oncol*, 2023. 41: 355 e1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37357123>
421. Merriman, K.M., *et al.* Comparison of MRI-Based Staging and Pathologic Staging for Predicting Biochemical Recurrence of Prostate Cancer After Radical Prostatectomy. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*, 2023. 221: 773.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37404084>
422. Soeterik, T.F.W., *et al.* Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Should Be Preferred Over Digital Rectal Examination for Prostate Cancer Local Staging and Disease Risk Classification. *Urology*, 2021. 147: 205.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33129868>
423. Futterer, J.J., *et al.* Staging prostate cancer with dynamic contrast-enhanced endorectal MR imaging prior to radical prostatectomy: experienced versus less experienced readers. *Radiology*, 2005. 237: 541.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16244263>

424. Kim, T.H., *et al.* The Diagnostic Performance of the Length of Tumor Capsular Contact on MRI for Detecting Prostate Cancer Extraprostatic Extension: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Korean J Radiol*, 2020. 21: 684.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32410407>
425. Valentin, B., *et al.* Magnetic resonance imaging improves the prediction of tumor staging in localized prostate cancer. *Abdom Radiol (NY)*, 2021. 46: 2751.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33452898>
426. Gatti, M., *et al.* mEPE-score: a comprehensive grading system for predicting pathologic extraprostatic extension of prostate cancer at multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging. *Eur Radiol*, 2022. 32: 4942.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35290508>
427. Park, K.J., *et al.* Extraprostatic Tumor Extension: Comparison of Preoperative Multiparametric MRI Criteria and Histopathologic Correlation after Radical Prostatectomy. *Radiology*, 2020. 296: 87.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32368959>
428. Morlacco, A., *et al.* Nomograms in Urologic Oncology: Lights and Shadows. *J Clin Med*, 2021. 10.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33801184>
429. Leyh-Bannurah, S.R., *et al.* Combined systematic versus stand-alone multiparametric MRI-guided targeted fusion biopsy: nomogram prediction of non-organ-confined prostate cancer. *World J Urol*, 2021. 39: 81.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32248363>
430. Diamand, R., *et al.* External Validation of a Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging-based Nomogram for the Prediction of Extracapsular Extension and Seminal Vesicle Invasion in Prostate Cancer Patients Undergoing Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 79: 180.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33023770>
431. Alves, J.R., *et al.* Independent external validation of nomogram to predict extracapsular extension in patients with prostate cancer. *Eur Radiol*, 2020. 30: 5004.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32307562>
432. Abuzalouf, S., *et al.* Baseline staging of newly diagnosed prostate cancer: a summary of the literature. *J Urol*, 2004. 171: 2122.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15126770>
433. Kiss, B., *et al.* Current Status of Lymph Node Imaging in Bladder and Prostate Cancer. *Urology*, 2016. 96: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26966038>
434. Harisinghani, M.G., *et al.* Noninvasive detection of clinically occult lymph-node metastases in prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2003. 348: 2491.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12815134>
435. Hovels, A.M., *et al.* The diagnostic accuracy of CT and MRI in the staging of pelvic lymph nodes in patients with prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. *Clin Radiol*, 2008. 63: 387.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18325358>
436. Valentin, B., *et al.* Comparison of 3 T mpMRI and pelvic CT examinations for detection of lymph node metastases in patients with prostate cancer. *Eur J Radiol*, 2022. 147: 110110.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34952329>
437. Lebastchi, A.H., *et al.* Comparison of cross-sectional imaging techniques for the detection of prostate cancer lymph node metastasis: a critical review. *Transl Androl Urol*, 2020. 9: 1415.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32676426>
438. Draulans, C., *et al.* Development and External Validation of a Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging and International Society of Urological Pathology Based Add-On Prediction Tool to Identify Prostate Cancer Candidates for Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection. *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 713.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31718396>
439. Gandaglia, G., *et al.* External Validation of the 2019 Briganti Nomogram for the Identification of Prostate Cancer Patients Who Should Be Considered for an Extended Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 78: 138.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32268944>
440. Di Pierro, G.B., *et al.* Comparison of Four Validated Nomograms (Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, Briganti 2012, 2017, and 2019) Predicting Lymph Node Invasion in Patients with High-Risk Prostate Cancer Candidates for Radical Prostatectomy and Extended Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection: Clinical Experience and Review of the Literature. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2023. 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36980571>

441. Lodeta, B., *et al.* Benefit and harm of lymphadenectomy in intermediate risk prostate cancer: comparison of five nomograms. *BMC Urol*, 2023. 23: 190.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37980520>
442. Gandaglia, G., *et al.* Identification of the Optimal Candidates for Nodal Staging with Extended Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection Among Prostate Cancer Patients Who Underwent Preoperative Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography. External Validation of the Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center and Briganti Nomograms and Development of a Novel Tool. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 543.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37270378>
443. von Eyben, F.E., *et al.* Meta-analysis of (11)C-choline and (18)F-choline PET/CT for management of patients with prostate cancer. *Nucl Med Commun*, 2014. 35: 221.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24240194>
444. Van den Bergh, L., *et al.* Final analysis of a prospective trial on functional imaging for nodal staging in patients with prostate cancer at high risk for lymph node involvement. *Urol Oncol*, 2015. 33: 109 e23.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25655681>
445. Schiavina, R., *et al.* Preoperative Staging With (11)C-Choline PET/CT Is Adequately Accurate in Patients With Very High-Risk Prostate Cancer. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2018. 16: 305.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29859737>
446. Evangelista, L., *et al.* A Prospective Randomized Multicenter Study on the Impact of [(18)F]F-Choline PET/CT Versus Conventional Imaging for Staging Intermediate- to High-Risk Prostate Cancer. *J Nucl Med*, 2024. 65: 1013.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38844361>
447. Maurer, T., *et al.* Current use of PSMA-PET in prostate cancer management. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2016. 13: 226.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26902337>
448. Werner, R.A., *et al.* (18)F-Labeled, PSMA-Targeted Radiotracers: Leveraging the Advantages of Radiofluorination for Prostate Cancer Molecular Imaging. *Theranostics*, 2020. 10: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31903102>
449. Hope, T.A., *et al.* Diagnostic Accuracy of 68Ga-PSMA-11 PET for Pelvic Nodal Metastasis Detection Prior to Radical Prostatectomy and Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection: A Multicenter Prospective Phase 3 Imaging Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2021. 7: 1635.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34529005>
450. van Kalmthout, L.W.M., *et al.* Prospective Validation of Gallium-68 Prostate Specific Membrane Antigen-Positron Emission Tomography/Computerized Tomography for Primary Staging of Prostate Cancer. *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 537.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31487220>
451. Jansen, B.H.E., *et al.* Pelvic lymph-node staging with (18)F-DCFPyL PET/CT prior to extended pelvic lymph-node dissection in primary prostate cancer - the SALT trial. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2021. 48: 509.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32789599>
452. Pienta, K.J., *et al.* A Phase 2/3 Prospective Multicenter Study of the Diagnostic Accuracy of Prostate Specific Membrane Antigen PET/CT with (18)F-DCFPyL in Prostate Cancer Patients (OSPREY). *J Urol*, 2021. 206: 52.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33634707>
453. Perera, M., *et al.* Gallium-68 Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography in Advanced Prostate Cancer-Updated Diagnostic Utility, Sensitivity, Specificity, and Distribution of Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen-avid Lesions: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 403.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30773328>
454. Wu, H., *et al.* Diagnostic Performance of (68)Gallium Labelled Prostate-Specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography/Computed Tomography and Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Staging the Prostate Cancer with Intermediate or High Risk Prior to Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *World J Mens Health*, 2020. 38: 208.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31081294>
455. Van Damme, J., *et al.* Comparison of (68)Ga-Prostate Specific Membrane Antigen (PSMA) Positron Emission Tomography Computed Tomography (PET-CT) and Whole-Body Magnetic Resonance Imaging (WB-MRI) with Diffusion Sequences (DWI) in the Staging of Advanced Prostate Cancer. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2021. 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34771449>

456. Meijer, D., *et al.* External Validation and Addition of Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography to the Most Frequently Used Nomograms for the Prediction of Pelvic Lymph-node Metastases: an International Multicenter Study. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 234.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34024652>
457. Vis, A.N., *et al.* Development and External Validation of a Novel Nomogram to Predict the Probability of Pelvic Lymph-node Metastases in Prostate Cancer Patients Using Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Molecular Imaging with Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 553.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37045707>
458. Fossati, N., *et al.* The Benefits and Harms of Different Extents of Lymph Node Dissection During Radical Prostatectomy for Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: 84.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28126351>
459. Lestingi, J.F.P., *et al.* Extended Versus Limited Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection During Radical Prostatectomy for Intermediate- and High-risk Prostate Cancer: Early Oncological Outcomes from a Randomized Phase 3 Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 79: 595.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33293077>
460. Touijer, K.A., *et al.* Limited versus Extended Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection for Prostate Cancer: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 532.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33865797>
461. Touijer, K.A., *et al.* Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection in Prostate Cancer: Update from a Randomized Clinical Trial of Limited Versus Extended Dissection. *Eur Urol*, 2024.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39472200>
462. Engel, J., *et al.* Survival benefit of radical prostatectomy in lymph node-positive patients with prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 57: 754.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20106588>
463. van der Poel, H.G., *et al.* Sentinel node biopsy for prostate cancer: report from a consensus panel meeting. *BJU Int*, 2017. 120: 204.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28188689>
464. Harke, N.N., *et al.* Fluorescence-supported lymphography and extended pelvic lymph node dissection in robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: a prospective, randomized trial. *World J Urol*, 2018. 36: 1817.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29767326>
465. Wit, E.M.K., *et al.* Sentinel Node Procedure in Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review to Assess Diagnostic Accuracy. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 596.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27639533>
466. de Pablos-Rodriguez, P., *et al.* Personalised indocyanine-guided lymphadenectomy for prostate cancer: a randomised clinical trial. *BJU Int*, 2023. 132: 591.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37410659>
467. Berrens, A.C., *et al.* State of the Art in Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen-targeted Surgery-A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2023. 54: 43.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37361200>
468. Burkhard, F.C., *et al.* The role of lymphadenectomy in prostate cancer. *Nat Clin Pract Urol*, 2005. 2: 336.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16474786>
469. Briganti, A., *et al.* Complications and other surgical outcomes associated with extended pelvic lymphadenectomy in men with localized prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2006. 50: 1006.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16959399>
470. Tyritzis, S.I., *et al.* Thromboembolic complications in 3,544 patients undergoing radical prostatectomy with or without lymph node dissection. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 117.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25158271>
471. May, M., *et al.* Impact of Peritoneal Interposition Flap on Patients Undergoing Robot-assisted Radical Prostatectomy and Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2024. 10: 80.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37541915>
472. Neuberger, M., *et al.* Peritoneal Flap for Lymphocele Prophylaxis Following Robotic-assisted Radical Prostatectomy with Lymph Node Dissection: The Randomised Controlled Phase 3 PELYCAN Trial. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 53.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37543465>
473. Shen, G., *et al.* Comparison of choline-PET/CT, MRI, SPECT, and bone scintigraphy in the diagnosis of bone metastases in patients with prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. *Skeletal Radiol*, 2014. 43: 1503.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24841276>

474. Briganti, A., *et al.* When to perform bone scan in patients with newly diagnosed prostate cancer: external validation of the currently available guidelines and proposal of a novel risk stratification tool. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 57: 551.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20034730>
475. Lin, Y., *et al.* When to perform bone scintigraphy in patients with newly diagnosed prostate cancer? a retrospective study. *BMC Urol*, 2017. 17: 41.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28606069>
476. O'Sullivan, J.M., *et al.* Broadening the criteria for avoiding staging bone scans in prostate cancer: a retrospective study of patients at the Royal Marsden Hospital. *BJU Int*, 2003. 92: 685.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14616446>
477. Ayyathurai, R., *et al.* A study on staging bone scans in newly diagnosed prostate cancer. *Urol Int*, 2006. 76: 209.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16601380>
478. Mohseninia, N., *et al.* Bone Metastasis in Prostate Cancer: Bone Scan Versus PET Imaging. *Semin Nucl Med*, 2024. 54: 97.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37596138>
479. Benard, F., *et al.* Intra-individual comparison of (18)F-sodium fluoride PET-CT and (99m)Tc bone scintigraphy with SPECT in patients with prostate cancer or breast cancer at high risk for skeletal metastases (MITNEC-A1): a multicentre, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2022. 23: 1499.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36343655>
480. Tateishi, U., *et al.* A meta-analysis of (18)F-Fluoride positron emission tomography for assessment of metastatic bone tumor. *Ann Nucl Med*, 2010. 24: 523.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20559896>
481. Evangelista, L., *et al.* Diagnostic imaging to detect and evaluate response to therapy in bone metastases from prostate cancer: current modalities and new horizons. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2016. 43: 1546.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26956538>
482. Zacho, H.D., *et al.* No Added Value of (18)F-Sodium Fluoride PET/CT for the Detection of Bone Metastases in Patients with Newly Diagnosed Prostate Cancer with Normal Bone Scintigraphy. *J Nucl Med*, 2019. 60: 1713.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31147402>
483. Brogsitter, C., *et al.* 18F-Choline, 11C-choline and 11C-acetate PET/CT: comparative analysis for imaging prostate cancer patients. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2013. 40 Suppl 1: S18.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23579863>
484. Picchio, M., *et al.* [11C]Choline PET/CT detection of bone metastases in patients with PSA progression after primary treatment for prostate cancer: comparison with bone scintigraphy. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2012. 39: 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21932120>
485. Uprimny, C., *et al.* (68)Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT in primary staging of prostate cancer: PSA and Gleason score predict the intensity of tracer accumulation in the primary tumour. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2017. 44: 941.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28138747>
486. Van Nieuwenhove, S., *et al.* Whole-body magnetic resonance imaging for prostate cancer assessment: Current status and future directions. *J Magn Reson Imaging*, 2022. 55: 653.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33382151>
487. Corfield, J., *et al.* (68)Ga-prostate specific membrane antigen (PSMA) positron emission tomography (PET) for primary staging of high-risk prostate cancer: a systematic review. *World J Urol*, 2018. 36: 519.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29344682>
488. Hofman, M.S., *et al.* Prostate-specific membrane antigen PET-CT in patients with high-risk prostate cancer before curative-intent surgery or radiotherapy (proPSMA): a prospective, randomised, multicentre study. *Lancet*, 2020. 395: 1208.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32209449>
489. Anttinen, M., *et al.* A Prospective Comparison of (18)F-prostate-specific Membrane Antigen-1007 Positron Emission Tomography Computed Tomography, Whole-body 1.5 T Magnetic Resonance Imaging with Diffusion-weighted Imaging, and Single-photon Emission Computed Tomography/Computed Tomography with Traditional Imaging in Primary Distant Metastasis Staging of Prostate Cancer (PROSTAGE). *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 635.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32675047>

490. Djaileb, L., *et al.* Presurgical (68)Ga-PSMA-11 Positron Emission Tomography for Biochemical Recurrence Risk Assessment: A Follow-up Analysis of a Multicenter Prospective Phase 3 Imaging Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 84: 588.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37482512>
491. Cornford, P., *et al.* Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography Scans Before Curative Treatment: Ready for Prime Time? *Eur Urol*, 2020. 78: e125.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32624287>
492. Hicks, R.J., *et al.* Seduction by Sensitivity: Reality, Illusion, or Delusion? The Challenge of Assessing Outcomes after PSMA Imaging Selection of Patients for Treatment. *J Nucl Med*, 2017. 58: 1969.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28935839>
493. Smith, B.D., *et al.* Future of cancer incidence in the United States: burdens upon an aging, changing nation. *J Clin Oncol*, 2009. 27: 2758.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19403886>
494. Arnold, M., *et al.* Recent trends in incidence of five common cancers in 26 European countries since 1988: Analysis of the European Cancer Observatory. *Eur J Cancer*, 2015. 51: 1164.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24120180>
495. Liu, D., *et al.* Active surveillance versus surgery for low risk prostate cancer: a clinical decision analysis. *J Urol*, 2012. 187: 1241.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22335873>
496. Bill-Axelson, A., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy or watchful waiting in early prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2014. 370: 932.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24597866>
497. Kupelian, P.A., *et al.* Comparison of the efficacy of local therapies for localized prostate cancer in the prostate-specific antigen era: a large single-institution experience with radical prostatectomy and external-beam radiotherapy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2002. 20: 3376.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12177097>
498. Bubolz, T., *et al.* Treatments for prostate cancer in older men: 1984-1997. *Urology*, 2001. 58: 977.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11744472>
499. Houterman, S., *et al.* Impact of comorbidity on treatment and prognosis of prostate cancer patients: a population-based study. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*, 2006. 58: 60.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16213153>
500. Ries L.A.G., *et al.* eds. SEER cancer Statistics Review, 1975-2005. 2008. 2022.
http://seer.cancer.gov/csr/1975_2011/
501. Scosyrev, E., *et al.* Prostate cancer in the elderly: frequency of advanced disease at presentation and disease-specific mortality. *Cancer*, 2012. 118: 3062.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22006014>
502. Richstone, L., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy in men aged ≥ 70 years: effect of age on upgrading, upstaging, and the accuracy of a preoperative nomogram. *BJU Int*, 2008. 101: 541.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18257855>
503. Sun, L., *et al.* Men older than 70 years have higher risk prostate cancer and poorer survival in the early and late prostate specific antigen eras. *J Urol*, 2009. 182: 2242.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19758616>
504. Hamilton, A.S., *et al.* Trends in the treatment of localized prostate cancer using supplemented cancer registry data. *BJU Int*, 2011. 107: 576.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20735387>
505. Studenski, S., *et al.* Gait speed and survival in older adults. *JAMA*, 2011. 305: 50.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21205966>
506. Ethun, C.G., *et al.* Frailty and cancer: Implications for oncology surgery, medical oncology, and radiation oncology. *CA Cancer J Clin*, 2017. 67: 362.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28731537>
507. Bellera, C.A., *et al.* Screening older cancer patients: first evaluation of the G-8 geriatric screening tool. *Ann Oncol*, 2012. 23: 2166.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22250183>
508. Hamaker, M.E., *et al.* The effect of a geriatric evaluation on treatment decisions and outcome for older cancer patients - A systematic review. *J Geriatr Oncol*, 2018. 9: 430.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29631898>
509. Rockwood, K., *et al.* Using the Clinical Frailty Scale in Allocating Scarce Health Care Resources. *Can Geriatr J*, 2020. 23: 210.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32904824>

510. McIsaac, D.I., *et al.* Frailty as a Predictor of Death or New Disability After Surgery: A Prospective Cohort Study. *Ann Surg*, 2020. 271: 283.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30048320>
511. van Walree, I.C., *et al.* Clinical judgment versus geriatric assessment for frailty in older patients with cancer. *J Geriatr Oncol*, 2020. 11: 1138.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32576520>
512. Albertsen, P.C., *et al.* Impact of comorbidity on survival among men with localized prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2011. 29: 1335.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21357791>
513. Tewari, A., *et al.* Long-term survival probability in men with clinically localized prostate cancer: a case-control, propensity modeling study stratified by race, age, treatment and comorbidities. *J Urol*, 2004. 171: 1513.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15017210>
514. Parmelee, P.A., *et al.* Validation of the Cumulative Illness Rating Scale in a geriatric residential population. *J Am Geriatr Soc*, 1995. 43: 130.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7836636>
515. Groome, P.A., *et al.* Assessing the impact of comorbid illnesses on death within 10 years in prostate cancer treatment candidates. *Cancer*, 2011. 117: 3943.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21858801>
516. Charlson, M.E., *et al.* A new method of classifying prognostic comorbidity in longitudinal studies: development and validation. *J Chronic Dis*, 1987. 40: 373.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3558716>
517. Blanc-Bisson, C., *et al.* Undernutrition in elderly patients with cancer: target for diagnosis and intervention. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*, 2008. 67: 243.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18554922>
518. Sachs, G.A., *et al.* Cognitive impairment: an independent predictor of excess mortality: a cohort study. *Ann Intern Med*, 2011. 155: 300.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21893623>
519. Robinson, T.N., *et al.* Preoperative cognitive dysfunction is related to adverse postoperative outcomes in the elderly. *J Am Coll Surg*, 2012. 215: 12.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22626912>
520. Borson, S., *et al.* The Mini-Cog as a screen for dementia: validation in a population-based sample. *J Am Geriatr Soc*, 2003. 51: 1451.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14511167>
521. Korc-Grodzicki, B., *et al.* Prevention of post-operative delirium in older patients with cancer undergoing surgery. *J Geriatr Oncol*, 2015. 6: 60.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25454768>
522. Oken, M.M., *et al.* Toxicity and response criteria of the Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group. *Am J Clin Oncol*, 1982. 5: 649.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7165009>
523. Katz, S., *et al.* Studies of Illness in the Aged. The Index of Adl: A Standardized Measure of Biological and Psychosocial Function. *JAMA*, 1963. 185: 914.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14044222>
524. Lawton, M.P., *et al.* Assessment of older people: self-maintaining and instrumental activities of daily living. *Gerontologist*, 1969. 9: 179.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/5349366>
525. Stineman, M.G., *et al.* All-cause 1-, 5-, and 10-year mortality in elderly people according to activities of daily living stage. *J Am Geriatr Soc*, 2012. 60: 485.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22352414>
526. Paladino, J., *et al.* Communication Strategies for Sharing Prognostic Information With Patients: Beyond Survival Statistics. *JAMA*, 2019. 322: 1345.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31415085>
527. Rostoft, S., *et al.* Shared decision-making in older patients with cancer - What does the patient want? *J Geriatr Oncol*, 2021. 12: 339.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32839118>
528. Soubeyran, P., *et al.* Screening for vulnerability in older cancer patients: the ONCODAGE Prospective Multicenter Cohort Study. *PLoS One*, 2014. 9: e115060.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25503576>

529. IARC France All Cancers (excluding non-melanoma skin cancer) Estimated Incidence, Mortality and Prevalence Worldwide in 2012. 2014.
http://globocan.iarc.fr/Pages/fact_sheets_cancer.aspx.
530. Klotz, L. Overdiagnosis in urologic cancer : For World Journal of Urology Symposium on active surveillance in prostate and renal cancer. *World J Urol*, 2022. 40: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33492425>
531. Johansson, J.E., *et al.* Natural history of localised prostatic cancer. A population-based study in 223 untreated patients. *Lancet*, 1989. 1: 799.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2564901>
532. Jonsson, E., *et al.* Adenocarcinoma of the prostate in Iceland: a population-based study of stage, Gleason grade, treatment and long-term survival in males diagnosed between 1983 and 1987. *Scand J Urol Nephrol*, 2006. 40: 265.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16916765>
533. Lu-Yao, G.L., *et al.* Outcomes of localized prostate cancer following conservative management. *JAMA*, 2009. 302: 1202.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19755699>
534. Adolfsson, J., *et al.* The 20-Yr outcome in patients with well- or moderately differentiated clinically localized prostate cancer diagnosed in the pre-PSA era: the prognostic value of tumour ploidy and comorbidity. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 52: 1028.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17467883>
535. Hamdy, F.C., *et al.* Fifteen-Year Outcomes after Monitoring, Surgery, or Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2023. 388: 1547.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36912538>
536. Timilshina, N., *et al.* Long-term Outcomes Following Active Surveillance of Low-grade Prostate Cancer: A Population-based Study Using a Landmark Approach. *J Urol*, 2023. 209: 540.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36475730>
537. Ventimiglia, E., *et al.* Long-term Outcomes Among Men Undergoing Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer in Sweden. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2022. 5: e2231015.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36103180>
538. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Timing of radiotherapy after radical prostatectomy (RADICALS-RT): a randomised, controlled phase 3 trial. *Lancet*, 2020. 396: 1413.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33002429>
539. Thurtle, D.R., *et al.* Individual prognosis at diagnosis in nonmetastatic prostate cancer: Development and external validation of the PREDICT Prostate multivariable model. *PLoS Med*, 2019. 16: e1002758.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30860997>
540. Heidenreich, A. Identification of high-risk prostate cancer: role of prostate-specific antigen, PSA doubling time, and PSA velocity. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 976.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18640768>
541. Thomsen, F.B., *et al.* Survival benefit of early androgen receptor inhibitor therapy in locally advanced prostate cancer: long-term follow-up of the SPCG-6 study. *Eur J Cancer*, 2015. 51: 1283.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25892647>
542. Ventimiglia, E., *et al.* Natural History of Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer Managed With Watchful Waiting. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2024. 7: e2414599.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38833251>
543. Bill-Axelson, A., *et al.* Radical Prostatectomy or Watchful Waiting in Prostate Cancer - 29-Year Follow-up. *N Engl J Med*, 2018. 379: 2319.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30575473>
544. Wilt, T.J., *et al.* Radical Prostatectomy or Observation for Clinically Localized Prostate Cancer: Extended Follow-up of the Prostate Cancer Intervention Versus Observation Trial (PIVOT). *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 713.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32089359>
545. Steineck, G., *et al.* Quality of life after radical prostatectomy or watchful waiting. *N Engl J Med*, 2002. 347: 790.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12226149>
546. Vernooij, R.W., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy versus deferred treatment for localised prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2020. 6: CD006590.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32495338>

547. Graversen, P.H., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy versus expectant primary treatment in stages I and II prostatic cancer. A fifteen-year follow-up. *Urology*, 1990. 36: 493.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2247914>
548. Bruinsma, S.M., *et al.* Expert consensus document: Semantics in active surveillance for men with localized prostate cancer - results of a modified Delphi consensus procedure. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2017. 14: 312.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28290462>
549. Thomsen, F.B., *et al.* Active surveillance for clinically localized prostate cancer—a systematic review. *J Surg Oncol*, 2014. 109: 830.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24610744>
550. Tosoian, J.J., *et al.* Intermediate and Longer-Term Outcomes From a Prospective Active-Surveillance Program for Favorable-Risk Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 3379.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26324359>
551. Hamdy, F.C., *et al.* 10-Year Outcomes after Monitoring, Surgery, or Radiotherapy for Localized Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2016. 375: 1415.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27626136>
552. Bryant, R.J., *et al.* The ProtecT trial: analysis of the patient cohort, baseline risk stratification and disease progression. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 506.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31900963>
553. Willemse, P.M., *et al.* Systematic Review of Active Surveillance for Clinically Localised Prostate Cancer to Develop Recommendations Regarding Inclusion of Intermediate-risk Disease, Biopsy Characteristics at Inclusion and Monitoring, and Surveillance Repeat Biopsy Strategy. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 81: 337.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34980492>
554. Loeb, S., *et al.* Active surveillance for prostate cancer: a systematic review of clinicopathologic variables and biomarkers for risk stratification. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 619.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25457014>
555. Ha, Y.S., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen density toward a better cutoff to identify better candidates for active surveillance. *Urology*, 2014. 84: 365.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24925834>
556. Mazzone, P.J., *et al.* Evaluating the Patient With a Pulmonary Nodule: A Review. *JAMA*, 2022. 327: 264.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35040882>
557. Moore, C.M., *et al.* Best Current Practice and Research Priorities in Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer-A Report of a Movember International Consensus Meeting. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 160.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36710133>
558. Petrelli, F., *et al.* Predictive Factors for Reclassification and Relapse in Prostate Cancer Eligible for Active Surveillance: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Urology*, 2016. 91: 136.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26896733>
559. Vigneswaran, H.T., *et al.* Progression on active surveillance for prostate cancer in Black men: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2022. 25: 165.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34239046>
560. Marks, R.A., *et al.* The relationship between the extent of surgical margin positivity and prostate specific antigen recurrence in radical prostatectomy specimens. *Hum Pathol*, 2007. 38: 1207.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17490720>
561. Moreira, D.M., *et al.* Baseline Perineural Invasion is Associated with Shorter Time to Progression in Men with Prostate Cancer Undergoing Active Surveillance: Results from the REDEEM Study. *J Urol*, 2015. 194: 1258.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25988518>
562. Baboudjian, M., *et al.* Active Surveillance for Intermediate-risk Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review, Meta-analysis, and Metaregression. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 617.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35934625>
563. Mukherjee, S., *et al.* Comparison of Outcomes of Active Surveillance in Intermediate-Risk Versus Low-Risk Localised Prostate Cancer Patients: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Clin Med*, 2023. 12.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37048815>
564. Enikeev, D., *et al.* Active Surveillance for Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer: Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Current Protocols and Outcomes. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2020. 18: e739.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32768356>

565. Shee, K., *et al.* The Impact of Delayed Radical Prostatectomy on Recurrence Outcomes After Initial Active Surveillance: Results from a Large Institutional Cohort. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 838.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38057193>
566. Morash, C., *et al.* Active surveillance for the management of localized prostate cancer: Guideline recommendations. *Can Urol Assoc J*, 2015. 9: 171.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26225165>
567. Musunuru, H.B., *et al.* Active Surveillance for Intermediate Risk Prostate Cancer: Survival Outcomes in the Sunnybrook Experience. *J Urol*, 2016. 196: 1651.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27569437>
568. Raldow, A.C., *et al.* Risk Group and Death From Prostate Cancer: Implications for Active Surveillance in Men With Favorable Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer. *JAMA Oncol*, 2015. 1: 334.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26181182>
569. Chiam, K., *et al.* Use of multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) in active surveillance for low-risk prostate cancer: a scoping review on the benefits and harm of mpMRI in different biopsy scenarios. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 662.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33654249>
570. Dieffenbacher, S., *et al.* Standardized Magnetic Resonance Imaging Reporting Using the Prostate Cancer Radiological Estimation of Change in Sequential Evaluation Criteria and Magnetic Resonance Imaging/Transrectal Ultrasound Fusion with Transperineal Saturation Biopsy to Select Men on Active Surveillance. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2021. 7: 102.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30878348>
571. Dominique, G., *et al.* The utility of prostate MRI within active surveillance: description of the evidence. *World J Urol*, 2022. 40: 71.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34860274>
572. Klotz, L., *et al.* Randomized Study of Systematic Biopsy Versus Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Targeted and Systematic Biopsy in Men on Active Surveillance (ASIST): 2-year Postbiopsy Follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 311.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31708295>
573. Schiavina, R., *et al.* The role of multiparametric MRI in active surveillance for low-risk prostate cancer: The ROMAS randomized controlled trial. *Urol Oncol*, 2021. 39: 433 e1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33191117>
574. Schoots, I.G., *et al.* Is magnetic resonance imaging-targeted biopsy a useful addition to systematic confirmatory biopsy in men on active surveillance for low-risk prostate cancer? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJU Int*, 2018. 122: 946.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29679430>
575. Amin, A., *et al.* The Magnetic Resonance Imaging in Active Surveillance (MRIAS) Trial: Use of Baseline Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Saturation Biopsy to Reduce the Frequency of Surveillance Prostate Biopsies. *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 910.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31825297>
576. Heetman, J.G., *et al.* Gallium-68 Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography/Computed Tomography in Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer Trial (PASPoRT). *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37296065>
577. Ross, A.E., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen kinetics during follow-up are an unreliable trigger for intervention in a prostate cancer surveillance program. *J Clin Oncol*, 2010. 28: 2810.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20439642>
578. Thomsen, F.B., *et al.* Association between PSA kinetics and cancer-specific mortality in patients with localised prostate cancer: analysis of the placebo arm of the SPCG-6 study. *Ann Oncol*, 2016. 27: 460.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26681677>
579. Moore, C.M., *et al.* Reporting Magnetic Resonance Imaging in Men on Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer: The PRECISE Recommendations-A Report of a European School of Oncology Task Force. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 648.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27349615>
580. Chu, C.E., *et al.* Diagnostic Accuracy and Prognostic Value of Serial Prostate Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging in Men on Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 537.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33483265>

581. Schoots, I.G., *et al.* Role of MRI in low-risk prostate cancer: finding the wolf in sheep's clothing or the sheep in wolf's clothing? *Curr Opin Urol*, 2017. 27: 238.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28306604>
582. Hettiarachchi, D., *et al.* Can the Use of Serial Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging During Active Surveillance of Prostate Cancer Avoid the Need for Prostate Biopsies?-A Systematic Diagnostic Test Accuracy Review. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 426.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32972894>
583. Rajwa, P., *et al.* Reliability of Serial Prostate Magnetic Resonance Imaging to Detect Prostate Cancer Progression During Active Surveillance: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 549.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34020828>
584. Yerram, N.K., *et al.* Magnetic Resonance Imaging-Targeted and Systematic Biopsy for Detection of Grade Progression in Patients on Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer. *J Urol*, 2021. 205: 1352.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33356479>
585. Chu, C.E., *et al.* Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Alone is Insufficient to Detect Grade Reclassification in Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 78: 515.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32631744>
586. Fujihara, A., *et al.* Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging facilitates reclassification during active surveillance for prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2021. 127: 712.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33043575>
587. Stavrinides, V., *et al.* Mapping PSA density to outcome of MRI-based active surveillance for prostate cancer through joint longitudinal-survival models. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 1028.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33958731>
588. Gallagher, K.M., *et al.* Four-year outcomes from a multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)-based active surveillance programme: PSA dynamics and serial MRI scans allow omission of protocol biopsies. *BJU Int*, 2019. 123: 429.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30113755>
589. Olivier, J., *et al.* Low-risk prostate cancer selected for active surveillance with negative MRI at entry: can repeat biopsies at 1 year be avoided? A pilot study. *World J Urol*, 2019. 37: 253.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30039385>
590. Caglic, I., *et al.* MRI-derived PRECISE scores for predicting pathologically-confirmed radiological progression in prostate cancer patients on active surveillance. *Eur Radiol*, 2021. 31: 2696.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33196886>
591. Deniffel, D., *et al.* Does the Visibility of Grade Group 1 Prostate Cancer on Baseline Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Impact Clinical Outcomes? *J Urol*, 2020. 204: 1187.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32496160>
592. Mamawala, M.K., *et al.* Utility of multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging in the risk stratification of men with Grade Group 1 prostate cancer on active surveillance. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 861.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32039537>
593. Olivier, J., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Patients Under Active Surveillance with a Suspicious Magnetic Resonance Imaging Finding Are at Increased Risk of Needing Treatment: Results of the Movember Foundation's Global Action Plan Prostate Cancer Active Surveillance (GAP3) Consortium. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2022. 35: 59.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35024633>
594. Rajwa, P., *et al.* Association of Negative Followup Biopsy and Reclassification during Active Surveillance of Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Urol*, 2021. 205: 1559.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33683937>
595. Chu, C.E., *et al.* The Clinical Significance of Multiple Negative Surveillance Prostate Biopsies for Men on Active Surveillance-Does Cancer Vanish or Simply Hide? *J Urol*, 2021. 205: 109.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33198555>
596. O'Connor, L.P., *et al.* Changes in Magnetic Resonance Imaging Using the Prostate Cancer Radiologic Estimation of Change in Sequential Evaluation Criteria to Detect Prostate Cancer Progression for Men on Active Surveillance. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 227.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33867045>
597. Van Hemelrijck, M., *et al.* Reasons for Discontinuing Active Surveillance: Assessment of 21 Centres in 12 Countries in the Movember GAP3 Consortium. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 523.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30385049>
598. Perera, M., *et al.* Outcomes of Grade Group 2 and 3 Prostate Cancer on Initial Versus Confirmatory Biopsy: Implications for Active Surveillance. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2023. 9: 662.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36566100>

599. Liu, J.L., *et al.* Advances in the selection of patients with prostate cancer for active surveillance. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2021. 18: 197.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33623103>
600. Paudel, R., *et al.* The Use and Short-term Outcomes of Active Surveillance in Men With National Comprehensive Cancer Network Favorable Intermediate-risk Prostate Cancer: The Initial Michigan Urological Surgery Improvement Collaborative Experience. *J Urol*, 2023. 209: 170.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36265120>
601. Klotz, L., *et al.* Clinical results of long-term follow-up of a large, active surveillance cohort with localized prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2010. 28: 126.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19917860>
602. Cunningham, M., *et al.* Patient reported factors influencing the decision-making process of men with localised prostate cancer when considering Active Surveillance-A systematic review and thematic synthesis. *Psychooncology*, 2022. 31: 388.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34605104>
603. Ahlberg, M.S., *et al.* Variations in the Uptake of Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer and Its Impact on Outcomes. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2023. 52: 166.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37284040>
604. Matsukawa, A., *et al.* Nonsurgical Interventions to Prevent Disease Progression in Prostate Cancer Patients on Active Surveillance: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 376.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38277189>
605. Shore, N.D., *et al.* Enzalutamide Monotherapy vs Active Surveillance in Patients With Low-risk or Intermediate-risk Localized Prostate Cancer: The ENACT Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2022. 8: 1128.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35708696>
606. Newcomb, L.F., *et al.* Long-Term Outcomes in Patients Using Protocol-Directed Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer. *JAMA*, 2024. 331: 2084.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38814624>
607. Adolfsson, J. Watchful waiting and active surveillance: the current position. *BJU Int*, 2008. 102: 10.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18422774>
608. Hatzinger, M., *et al.* [The history of prostate cancer from the beginning to DaVinci]. *Aktuelle Urol*, 2012. 43: 228.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23035261>
609. Kretschmer, A., *et al.* Perioperative patient education improves long-term satisfaction rates of low-risk prostate cancer patients after radical prostatectomy. *World J Urol*, 2017. 35: 1205.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28093628>
610. Gyomber, D., *et al.* Improving informed consent for patients undergoing radical prostatectomy using multimedia techniques: a prospective randomized crossover study. *BJU Int*, 2010. 106: 1152.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20346048>
611. Huber, J., *et al.* Multimedia support for improving preoperative patient education: a randomized controlled trial using the example of radical prostatectomy. *Ann Surg Oncol*, 2013. 20: 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22851045>
612. Wake, N., *et al.* Patient-specific 3D printed and augmented reality kidney and prostate cancer models: impact on patient education. *3D Print Med*, 2019. 5: 4.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30783869>
613. Leyh-Bannurah, S.R., *et al.* Perioperative and Postoperative Outcomes of Robot-Assisted Radical Prostatectomy in Prostate Cancer Patients with Prior Transurethral Subvesical Deobstruction: Results of a High-Volume Center. *J Urol*, 2021. 206: 308.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33904761>
614. Weng, W.C., *et al.* Impact of prostatic anterior fat pads with lymph node staging in prostate cancer. *J Cancer*, 2018. 9: 3361.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30271497>
615. Hosny, M., *et al.* Can Anterior Prostatic Fat Harbor Prostate Cancer Metastasis? A Prospective Cohort Study. *Curr Urol*, 2017. 10: 182.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29234260>
616. Ball, M.W., *et al.* Pathological analysis of the prostatic anterior fat pad at radical prostatectomy: insights from a prospective series. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 444.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27611825>
617. Kwon, Y.S., *et al.* Oncologic outcomes in men with metastasis to the prostatic anterior fat pad lymph nodes: a multi-institution international study. *BMC Urol*, 2015. 15: 79.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26231860>

618. Ozkan, B., *et al.* Role of anterior prostatic fat pad dissection for extended lymphadenectomy in prostate cancer: a non-randomized study of 100 patients. *Int Urol Nephrol*, 2015. 47: 959.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25899767>
619. Kim, I.Y., *et al.* Detailed analysis of patients with metastasis to the prostatic anterior fat pad lymph nodes: a multi-institutional study. *J Urol*, 2013. 190: 527.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23485503>
620. Hansen, J., *et al.* Assessment of rates of lymph nodes and lymph node metastases in periprostatic fat pads in a consecutive cohort treated with retropubic radical prostatectomy. *Urology*, 2012. 80: 877.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22950996>
621. Walsh, P.C., *et al.* Impotence following radical prostatectomy: insight into etiology and prevention. *J Urol*, 1982. 128: 492.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7120554>
622. Rainwater, L.M., *et al.* Technical consideration in radical retropubic prostatectomy: blood loss after ligation of dorsal venous complex. *J Urol*, 1990. 143: 1163.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2342176>
623. Woldu, S.L., *et al.* Outcomes with delayed dorsal vein complex ligation during robotic assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy. *Can J Urol*, 2013. 20: 7079.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24331354>
624. Lei, Y., *et al.* Athermal division and selective suture ligation of the dorsal vein complex during robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy: description of technique and outcomes. *Eur Urol*, 2011. 59: 235.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20863611>
625. Wu, S.D., *et al.* Suture versus staple ligation of the dorsal venous complex during robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy. *BJU Int*, 2010. 106: 385.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20067457>
626. Walsh, P.C., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy and cystoprostatectomy with preservation of potency. Results using a new nerve-sparing technique. *Br J Urol*, 1984. 56: 694.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/6534493>
627. Walz, J., *et al.* A Critical Analysis of the Current Knowledge of Surgical Anatomy of the Prostate Related to Optimisation of Cancer Control and Preservation of Continence and Erection in Candidates for Radical Prostatectomy: An Update. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 301.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26850969>
628. Michl, U., *et al.* Nerve-sparing Surgery Technique, Not the Preservation of the Neurovascular Bundles, Leads to Improved Long-term Continence Rates After Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 584.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26277303>
629. Avulova, S., *et al.* The Effect of Nerve Sparing Status on Sexual and Urinary Function: 3-Year Results from the CEASAR Study. *J Urol*, 2018. 199: 1202.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29253578>
630. Xiang, P., *et al.* Is there any difference in urinary continence between bilateral and unilateral nerve sparing during radical prostatectomy? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *World J Surg Oncol*, 2024. 22: 66.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38395861>
631. Stolzenburg, J.U., *et al.* A comparison of outcomes for interfascial and intrafascial nerve-sparing radical prostatectomy. *Urology*, 2010. 76: 743.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20573384>
632. Steineck, G., *et al.* Degree of preservation of the neurovascular bundles during radical prostatectomy and urinary continence 1 year after surgery. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 559.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25457018>
633. Shikanov, S., *et al.* Extrafascial versus interfascial nerve-sparing technique for robotic-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy: comparison of functional outcomes and positive surgical margins characteristics. *Urology*, 2009. 74: 611.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19616830>
634. Tewari, A.K., *et al.* Anatomical grades of nerve sparing: a risk-stratified approach to neural-hammock sparing during robot-assisted radical prostatectomy (RARP). *BJU Int*, 2011. 108: 984.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21917101>
635. Nielsen, M.E., *et al.* High anterior release of the levator fascia improves sexual function following open radical retropubic prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2008. 180: 2557.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18930504>

636. Ko, Y.H., *et al.* Retrograde versus antegrade nerve sparing during robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: which is better for achieving early functional recovery? *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 169.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23092543>
637. Tewari, A.K., *et al.* Functional outcomes following robotic prostatectomy using athermal, traction free risk-stratified grades of nerve sparing. *World J Urol*, 2013. 31: 471.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23354288>
638. Basourakos, S.P., *et al.* Clipless Robotic-assisted Radical Prostatectomy and Impact on Outcomes. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2022. 8: 1176.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34246618>
639. Vis, A.N., *et al.* Selection of patients for nerve sparing surgery in robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *BJUI Compass*, 2022. 3: 6.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35475150>
640. Preisser, F., *et al.* Association of neurovascular bundle preservation with oncological outcomes in patients with high-risk prostate cancer. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 193.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32814844>
641. Moris, L., *et al.* Evaluation of Oncological Outcomes and Data Quality in Studies Assessing Nerve-sparing Versus Non-Nerve-sparing Radical Prostatectomy in Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2022. 8: 690.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34147405>
642. Kozikowski, M., *et al.* Clinical utility of MRI in the decision-making process before radical prostatectomy: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS One*, 2019. 14: e0210194.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30615661>
643. Beulens, A.J.W., *et al.* Linking surgical skills to postoperative outcomes: a Delphi study on the robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *J Robot Surg*, 2019. 13: 675.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30610535>
644. Gilbert, S.M., *et al.* Functional Outcomes Following Nerve Sparing Prostatectomy Augmented with Seminal Vesicle Sparing Compared to Standard Nerve Sparing Prostatectomy: Results from a Randomized Controlled Trial. *J Urol*, 2017. 198: 600.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28392393>
645. Schoeppler, G.M., *et al.* The impact of bladder neck mucosal eversion during open radical prostatectomy on bladder neck stricture and urinary extravasation. *Int Urol Nephrol*, 2012. 44: 1403.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22585294>
646. Borboroglu, P.G., *et al.* Risk factors for vesicourethral anastomotic stricture after radical prostatectomy. *Urology*, 2000. 56: 96.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10869633>
647. Roemeling, S., *et al.* Active surveillance for prostate cancers detected in three subsequent rounds of a screening trial: characteristics, PSA doubling times, and outcome. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 51: 1244.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17161520>
648. Bellangino, M., *et al.* Systematic Review of Studies Reporting Positive Surgical Margins After Bladder Neck Sparing Radical Prostatectomy. *Curr Urol Rep*, 2017. 18: 99.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29116405>
649. Nyarangi-Dix, J.N., *et al.* Complete bladder neck preservation promotes long-term post-prostatectomy continence without compromising midterm oncological outcome: analysis of a randomised controlled cohort. *World J Urol*, 2018. 36: 349.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29214353>
650. Ma, X., *et al.* Bladder neck preservation improves time to continence after radical prostatectomy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Oncotarget*, 2016. 7: 67463.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27634899>
651. Veerman, H., *et al.* The detection rate of apical tumour involvement on preoperative MRI and its impact on clinical outcomes in patients with localized prostate cancer. *J Robot Surg*, 2022. 16: 1047.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34783953>
652. Lardas, M., *et al.* Patient- and Tumour-related Prognostic Factors for Urinary Incontinence After Radical Prostatectomy for Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2022. 8: 674.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33967010>
653. Mungovan, S.F., *et al.* Preoperative Membranous Urethral Length Measurement and Continence Recovery Following Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 368.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27394644>

654. van Dijk-de Haan, M.C., *et al.* Value of Different Magnetic Resonance Imaging-based Measurements of Anatomical Structures on Preoperative Prostate Imaging in Predicting Urinary Continence After Radical Prostatectomy in Men with Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2022. 8: 1211.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35181284>
655. Veerman, H., *et al.* A standardized method to measure the membranous urethral length (MUL) on MRI of the prostate with high inter- and intra-observer agreement. *Eur Radiol*, 2023. 33: 3295.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36512044>
656. Steiner, M.S., *et al.* Impact of anatomical radical prostatectomy on urinary continence. *J Urol*, 1991. 145: 512.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1997701>
657. Li, H., *et al.* The Use of Unidirectional Barbed Suture for Urethrovesical Anastomosis during Robot-Assisted Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Efficacy and Safety. *PLoS One*, 2015. 10: e0131167.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26135310>
658. Kowalewski, K.F., *et al.* Interrupted versus Continuous Suturing for Vesicourethral Anastomosis During Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2019. 5: 980.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29907547>
659. Matsuyama, H., *et al.* Running suture versus interrupted suture for vesicourethral anastomosis in retropubic radical prostatectomy: a randomized study. *Int J Urol*, 2015. 22: 271.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25400263>
660. Wiatr, T., *et al.* Single Running Suture versus Single-Knot Running Suture for Vesicourethral Anastomosis in Laparoscopic Radical Prostatectomy: A Prospective Randomised Comparative Study. *Urol Int*, 2015. 95: 445.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26655169>
661. Van Velthoven, R.F., *et al.* Technique for laparoscopic running urethrovesical anastomosis: the single knot method. *Urology*, 2003. 61: 699.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12670546>
662. Gratzke, C., *et al.* Early Catheter Removal after Robot-assisted Radical Prostatectomy: Surgical Technique and Outcomes for the Aalst Technique (ECaRemA Study). *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 917.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26578444>
663. James, P., *et al.* Safe removal of the urethral catheter 2 days following laparoscopic radical prostatectomy. *ISRN Oncol*, 2012. 2012: 912642.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22957273>
664. Lista, G., *et al.* Early Catheter Removal After Robot-assisted Radical Prostatectomy: Results from a Prospective Single-institutional Randomized Trial (Ripreca Study). *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020. 6: 259.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30413390>
665. Brassetti, A., *et al.* Removing the urinary catheter on post-operative day 2 after robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy: a feasibility study from a single high-volume referral centre. *J Robot Surg*, 2018. 12: 467.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29177945>
666. Tilki, D., *et al.* The impact of time to catheter removal on short-, intermediate- and long-term urinary continence after radical prostatectomy. *World J Urol*, 2018. 36: 1247.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29582100>
667. Berrondo, C., *et al.* Antibiotic prophylaxis at the time of catheter removal after radical prostatectomy: A prospective randomized clinical trial. *Urol Oncol*, 2019. 37: 181 e7.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30558984>
668. Martinschek, A., *et al.* Transurethral versus suprapubic catheter at robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: a prospective randomized trial with 1-year follow-up. *World J Urol*, 2016. 34: 407.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26337521>
669. Harke, N., *et al.* Postoperative patient comfort in suprapubic drainage versus transurethral catheterization following robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: a prospective randomized clinical trial. *World J Urol*, 2017. 35: 389.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27334135>
670. Krane, L.S., *et al.* Impact of percutaneous suprapubic tube drainage on patient discomfort after radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 56: 325.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19394131>
671. Morgan, M.S., *et al.* An Assessment of Patient Comfort and Morbidity After Robot-Assisted Radical Prostatectomy with Suprapubic Tube Versus Urethral Catheter Drainage. *J Endourol*, 2016. 30: 300.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26472083>

672. Galfano, A., *et al.* Pain and discomfort after Retzius-sparing robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: a comparative study between suprapubic cystostomy and urethral catheter as urinary drainage. *Minerva Urol Nefrol*, 2019. 71: 381.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31144484>
673. Prasad, S.M., *et al.* Early removal of urethral catheter with suprapubic tube drainage versus urethral catheter drainage alone after robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2014. 192: 89.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24440236>
674. Afzal, M.Z., *et al.* Modification of Technique for Suprapubic Catheter Placement After Robot-assisted Radical Prostatectomy Reduces Catheter-associated Complications. *Urology*, 2015. 86: 401.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26189333>
675. Guru, K.A., *et al.* Is a cystogram necessary after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy? *Urol Oncol*, 2007. 25: 465.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18047953>
676. Tillier, C., *et al.* Vesico-urethral anastomosis (VUA) evaluation of short- and long-term outcome after robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy (RARP): selective cystogram to improve outcome. *J Robot Surg*, 2017. 11: 441.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28078524>
677. Yadav, R., *et al.* Selective indication for check cystogram before catheter removal following robot assisted radical prostatectomy. *Indian J Urol*, 2016. 32: 120.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27127354>
678. Schoeppler, G.M., *et al.* Detection of urinary leakage after radical retropubic prostatectomy by contrast enhanced ultrasound - do we still need conventional retrograde cystography? *BJU Int*, 2010. 106: 1632.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20590540>
679. Porcaro, A.B., *et al.* Is a Drain Needed After Robotic Radical Prostatectomy With or Without Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection? Results of a Single-Center Randomized Clinical Trial. *J Endourol*, 2021. 35: 922.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30398382>
680. Chenam, A., *et al.* Prospective randomised non-inferiority trial of pelvic drain placement vs no pelvic drain placement after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *BJU Int*, 2018. 121: 357.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28872774>
681. Ramsay, C., *et al.* Systematic review and economic modelling of the relative clinical benefit and cost-effectiveness of laparoscopic surgery and robotic surgery for removal of the prostate in men with localised prostate cancer. *Health Technol Assess*, 2012. 16: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23127367>
682. Alhusseinawi, H., *et al.* Low- versus standard- pneumoperitoneum in patients undergoing robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: a randomised, triple-blinded study. *BJU Int*, 2023. 132: 560.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37358048>
683. Novara, G., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis of studies reporting oncologic outcome after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 62: 382.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22749851>
684. Novara, G., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis of perioperative outcomes and complications after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 62: 431.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22749853>
685. Ficarra, V., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis of studies reporting potency rates after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 62: 418.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22749850>
686. Ficarra, V., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis of studies reporting urinary continence recovery after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 62: 405.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22749852>
687. Maffezzini, M., *et al.* Evaluation of complications and results in a contemporary series of 300 consecutive radical retropubic prostatectomies with the anatomic approach at a single institution. *Urology*, 2003. 61: 982.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12736020>
688. Haglind, E., *et al.* Urinary Incontinence and Erectile Dysfunction After Robotic Versus Open Radical Prostatectomy: A Prospective, Controlled, Nonrandomised Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 216.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25770484>

689. Mukkala, A.N., *et al.* A systematic review and meta-analysis of unplanned hospital visits and re-admissions following radical prostatectomy for prostate cancer. *Can Urol Assoc J*, 2021. 15: E531. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33750517>
690. Yaxley, J.W., *et al.* Robot-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy versus open radical retropubic prostatectomy: early outcomes from a randomised controlled phase 3 study. *Lancet*, 2016. 388: 1057. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27474375>
691. Haney, C.M., *et al.* Robot-assisted Versus Conventional Laparoscopic Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Randomised Controlled Trials. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2023. 9: 930. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37353415>
692. Dindo, D., *et al.* Classification of surgical complications: a new proposal with evaluation in a cohort of 6336 patients and results of a survey. *Ann Surg*, 2004. 240: 205. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15273542>
693. Joshi, N., *et al.* Impact of posterior musculofascial reconstruction on early continence after robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy: results of a prospective parallel group trial. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 58: 84. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20362386>
694. Sutherland, D.E., *et al.* Posterior rhabdosphincter reconstruction during robotic assisted radical prostatectomy: results from a phase II randomized clinical trial. *J Urol*, 2011. 185: 1262. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21334025>
695. Jeong, C.W., *et al.* Effects of new 1-step posterior reconstruction method on recovery of continence after robot-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy: results of a prospective, single-blind, parallel group, randomized, controlled trial. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 935. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25315960>
696. Menon, M., *et al.* Assessment of early continence after reconstruction of the periprostatic tissues in patients undergoing computer assisted (robotic) prostatectomy: results of a 2 group parallel randomized controlled trial. *J Urol*, 2008. 180: 1018. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18639300>
697. Stolzenburg, J.U., *et al.* Influence of bladder neck suspension stitches on early continence after radical prostatectomy: a prospective randomized study of 180 patients. *Asian J Androl*, 2011. 13: 806. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21909121>
698. Hurtes, X., *et al.* Anterior suspension combined with posterior reconstruction during robot-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy improves early return of urinary continence: a prospective randomized multicentre trial. *BJU Int*, 2012. 110: 875. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22260307>
699. Student, V., Jr., *et al.* Advanced Reconstruction of Vesicourethral Support (ARVUS) during Robot-assisted Radical Prostatectomy: One-year Functional Outcomes in a Two-group Randomised Controlled Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 822. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27283216>
700. Noguchi, M., *et al.* A randomized clinical trial of suspension technique for improving early recovery of urinary continence after radical retropubic prostatectomy. *BJU Int*, 2008. 102: 958. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18485031>
701. Jia, Z., *et al.* Sustainable functional urethral reconstruction improves early urinary continence after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: a randomised controlled trial. *BJU Int*, 2023. 131: 720. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36545839>
702. Viani, G.A., *et al.* Intensity-modulated radiotherapy reduces toxicity with similar biochemical control compared with 3-dimensional conformal radiotherapy for prostate cancer: A randomized clinical trial. *Cancer*, 2016. 122: 2004. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27028170>
703. Yu, T., *et al.* The Effectiveness of Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy versus Three-Dimensional Radiation Therapy in Prostate Cancer: A Meta-Analysis of the Literatures. *PLoS One*, 2016. 11: e0154499. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27171271>
704. de Crevoisier, R., *et al.* Daily Versus Weekly Prostate Cancer Image Guided Radiation Therapy: Phase 3 Multicenter Randomized Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2018. 102: 1420. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30071296>

705. Murray, J., *et al.* A randomised assessment of image guided radiotherapy within a phase 3 trial of conventional or hypofractionated high dose intensity modulated radiotherapy for prostate cancer. *Radiother Oncol*, 2020. 142: 62.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31767473>
706. Tocco, B.R., *et al.* MR-Guided Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer. *Front Oncol*, 2020. 10: 616291.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33363041>
707. Christiansen, R.L., *et al.* Online adaptive radiotherapy potentially reduces toxicity for high-risk prostate cancer treatment. *Radiother Oncol*, 2022. 167: 165.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34923034>
708. Tetar, S.U., *et al.* Magnetic Resonance-guided Stereotactic Radiotherapy for Localized Prostate Cancer: Final Results on Patient-reported Outcomes of a Prospective Phase 2 Study. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 628.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32536573>
709. Kishan, A.U., *et al.* Magnetic Resonance Imaging-Guided vs Computed Tomography-Guided Stereotactic Body Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer: The MIRAGE Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2023. 9: 365.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36633877>
710. Kishan, A.U., *et al.* Local Failure and Survival After Definitive Radiotherapy for Aggressive Prostate Cancer: An Individual Patient-level Meta-analysis of Six Randomized Trials. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 201.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31718822>
711. Michalski, J.M., *et al.* Effect of Standard vs Dose-Escalated Radiation Therapy for Patients With Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer: The NRG Oncology RTOG 0126 Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2018. 4: e180039.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29543933>
712. Zietman, A.L., *et al.* Randomized trial comparing conventional-dose with high-dose conformal radiation therapy in early-stage adenocarcinoma of the prostate: long-term results from proton radiation oncology group/american college of radiology 95-09. *J Clin Oncol*, 2010. 28: 1106.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20124169>
713. Viani, G.A., *et al.* Higher-than-conventional radiation doses in localized prostate cancer treatment: a meta-analysis of randomized, controlled trials. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2009. 74: 1405.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19616743>
714. Peeters, S.T., *et al.* Dose-response in radiotherapy for localized prostate cancer: results of the Dutch multicenter randomized phase III trial comparing 68 Gy of radiotherapy with 78 Gy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2006. 24: 1990.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16648499>
715. Beckendorf, V., *et al.* 70 Gy versus 80 Gy in localized prostate cancer: 5-year results of GETUG 06 randomized trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2011. 80: 1056.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21147514>
716. Heemsbergen, W.D., *et al.* Long-term results of the Dutch randomized prostate cancer trial: impact of dose-escalation on local, biochemical, clinical failure, and survival. *Radiother Oncol*, 2014. 110: 104.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24246414>
717. Dearnaley, D.P., *et al.* Escalated-dose versus control-dose conformal radiotherapy for prostate cancer: long-term results from the MRC RT01 randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2014. 15: 464.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24581940>
718. Pasalic, D., *et al.* Dose Escalation for Prostate Adenocarcinoma: A Long-Term Update on the Outcomes of a Phase 3, Single Institution Randomized Clinical Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2019. 104: 790.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30836166>
719. Kalbasi, A., *et al.* Dose-Escalated Irradiation and Overall Survival in Men With Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer. *JAMA Oncol*, 2015. 1: 897.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26181727>
720. Kerkmeijer, L.G.W., *et al.* Focal Boost to the Intraprostatic Tumor in External Beam Radiotherapy for Patients With Localized Prostate Cancer: Results From the FLAME Randomized Phase III Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2021. 39: 787.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33471548>
721. Groen, V.H., *et al.* Patterns of Failure Following External Beam Radiotherapy With or Without an Additional Focal Boost in the Randomized Controlled FLAME Trial for Localized Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 82: 252.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34953603>

722. Poon, D.M.C., *et al.* Magnetic Resonance Imaging-guided Focal Boost to Intraprostatic Lesions Using External Beam Radiotherapy for Localized Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 116.
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2588931122001687>
723. Fowler, J.F. The radiobiology of prostate cancer including new aspects of fractionated radiotherapy. *Acta Oncol*, 2005. 44: 265.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16076699>
724. Dasu, A., *et al.* Prostate alpha/beta revisited – an analysis of clinical results from 14 168 patients. *Acta Oncol*, 2012. 51: 963.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22966812>
725. Kuban, D.A., *et al.* Preliminary Report of a Randomized Dose Escalation Trial for Prostate Cancer using Hypofractionation. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2010. 78: S58.
[https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016\(10\)01144-2/fulltext](https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016(10)01144-2/fulltext)
726. Pollack, A., *et al.* Randomized trial of hypofractionated external-beam radiotherapy for prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2013. 31: 3860.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24101042>
727. Lee, W.R., *et al.* Randomized Phase III Noninferiority Study Comparing Two Radiotherapy Fractionation Schedules in Patients With Low-Risk Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2016. 34: 2325.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27044935>
728. Dearnaley, D., *et al.* Conventional versus hypofractionated high-dose intensity-modulated radiotherapy for prostate cancer: 5-year outcomes of the randomised, non-inferiority, phase 3 CHHiP trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2016. 17: 1047.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27339115>
729. Incrocci, L., *et al.* Hypofractionated versus conventionally fractionated radiotherapy for patients with localised prostate cancer (HYPRO): final efficacy results from a randomised, multicentre, open-label, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2016. 17: 1061.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27339116>
730. Catton, C.N., *et al.* Randomized Trial of a Hypofractionated Radiation Regimen for the Treatment of Localized Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2017. 35: 1884.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28296582>
731. Koontz, B.F., *et al.* A systematic review of hypofractionation for primary management of prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 683.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25171903>
732. Hocht, S., *et al.* Hypofractionated radiotherapy for localized prostate cancer. *Strahlenther Onkol*, 2017. 193: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27628966>
733. Hickey, B.E., *et al.* Hypofractionation for clinically localized prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2019. 9: CD011462.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31476800>
734. Niazi, T., *et al.* Hypofractionated, Dose Escalation Radiation Therapy for High-Risk Prostate Cancer: The Safety Analysis of the Prostate Cancer Study-5, a Groupe de Radio-Oncologie Génito-Urinaire de Quebec Led Phase 3 Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2023. 118: 52.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37224928>
735. Niazi, T., *et al.* Hypofractionated Dose Escalation Radiotherapy for High-risk Prostate Cancer: The Survival Analysis of the Prostate Cancer Study 5, a Groupe de Radio-oncologie Genito-urinaire du Quebec-led Phase 3 Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2024.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39271420>
736. Glicksman, R.M., *et al.* Randomized Trial of Concomitant Hypofractionated Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy Boost Versus Conventionally Fractionated Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy Boost for Localized High-Risk Prostate Cancer (pHART2-RCT). *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2024. 119: 100.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37979707>
737. Buyyounouski, M.K., *et al.* Noninferiority of Hypofractionated vs Conventional Postprostatectomy Radiotherapy for Genitourinary and Gastrointestinal Symptoms: The NRG-GU003 Phase 3 Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2024. 10: 584.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38483412>
738. Widmark, A., *et al.* Ultra-hypofractionated versus conventionally fractionated radiotherapy for prostate cancer: 5-year outcomes of the HYPO-RT-PC randomised, non-inferiority, phase 3 trial. *Lancet*, 2019. 394: 385.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31227373>

739. van As, N., *et al.* Phase 3 Trial of Stereotactic Body Radiotherapy in Localized Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2024. 391: 1413.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39413377>
740. Jackson, W.C., *et al.* Stereotactic Body Radiation Therapy for Localized Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Over 6,000 Patients Treated On Prospective Studies. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2019. 104: 778.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30959121>
741. Cushman, T.R., *et al.* Stereotactic body radiation therapy for prostate cancer: systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective trials. *Oncotarget*, 2019. 10: 5660.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31608141>
742. Brand, D.H., *et al.* Intensity-modulated fractionated radiotherapy versus stereotactic body radiotherapy for prostate cancer (PACE-B): acute toxicity findings from an international, randomised, open-label, phase 3, non-inferiority trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2019. 20: 1531.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31540791>
743. Tree, A.C., *et al.* Intensity-modulated radiotherapy versus stereotactic body radiotherapy for prostate cancer (PACE-B): 2-year toxicity results from an open-label, randomised, phase 3, non-inferiority trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2022. 23: 1308.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36113498>
744. Rasmusson, E., *et al.* Erectile Dysfunction and Absorbed Dose to Penile Base Structures in a Randomized Trial Comparing Ultrahypofractionated and Conventionally Fractionated Radiation Therapy for Prostate Cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2020. 107: 143.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32004582>
745. Greco, C., *et al.* Safety and Efficacy of Virtual Prostatectomy With Single-Dose Radiotherapy in Patients With Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer: Results From the PROSINT Phase 2 Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2021. 7: 700.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33704378>
746. Bolla, M., *et al.* External irradiation with or without long-term androgen suppression for prostate cancer with high metastatic risk: 10-year results of an EORTC randomised study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2010. 11: 1066.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20933466>
747. Pilepich, M.V., *et al.* Androgen suppression adjuvant to definitive radiotherapy in prostate carcinoma—long-term results of phase III RTOG 85-31. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2005. 61: 1285.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15817329>
748. Roach, M., 3rd, *et al.* Short-term neoadjuvant androgen deprivation therapy and external-beam radiotherapy for locally advanced prostate cancer: long-term results of RTOG 8610. *J Clin Oncol*, 2008. 26: 585.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18172188>
749. D'Amico, A.V., *et al.* Androgen suppression and radiation vs radiation alone for prostate cancer: a randomized trial. *JAMA*, 2008. 299: 289.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18212313>
750. Denham, J.W., *et al.* Short-term neoadjuvant androgen deprivation and radiotherapy for locally advanced prostate cancer: 10-year data from the TROG 96.01 randomised trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2011. 12: 451.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21440505>
751. Lawton, C.A., *et al.* An update of the phase III trial comparing whole pelvic to prostate only radiotherapy and neoadjuvant to adjuvant total androgen suppression: updated analysis of RTOG 94-13, with emphasis on unexpected hormone/radiation interactions. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2007. 69: 646.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17531401>
752. Horwitz, E.M., *et al.* Ten-year follow-up of radiation therapy oncology group protocol 92-02: a phase III trial of the duration of elective androgen deprivation in locally advanced prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2008. 26: 2497.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18413638>
753. Bolla, M., *et al.* Duration of androgen suppression in the treatment of prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2009. 360: 2516.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19516032>
754. Pisansky, T.M., *et al.* Duration of androgen suppression before radiotherapy for localized prostate cancer: radiation therapy oncology group randomized clinical trial 9910. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 332.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25534388>

755. Nabid, A., *et al.* Androgen deprivation therapy and radiotherapy in intermediate-risk prostate cancer: A randomised phase III trial. *Eur J Cancer*, 2021. 143: 64.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33279855>
756. Krauss, D.J., *et al.* Dose-Escalated Radiotherapy Alone or in Combination With Short-Term Androgen Deprivation for Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer: Results of a Phase III Multi-Institutional Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 41: 3203.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37104748>
757. Kishan, A.U., *et al.* Androgen deprivation therapy use and duration with definitive radiotherapy for localised prostate cancer: an individual patient data meta-analysis. *Lancet Oncol*, 2022. 23: 304.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35051385>
758. Spratt, D.E., *et al.* Prostate Radiotherapy With Adjuvant Androgen Deprivation Therapy (ADT) Improves Metastasis-Free Survival Compared to Neoadjuvant ADT: An Individual Patient Meta-Analysis. *J Clin Oncol*, 2021. 39: 136.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33275486>
759. Malone, S., *et al.* Sequencing of Androgen-Deprivation Therapy With External-Beam Radiotherapy in Localized Prostate Cancer: A Phase III Randomized Controlled Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2020. 38: 593.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31829912>
760. Efstathiou, J.A., *et al.* Prostate Advanced Radiation Technologies Investigating Quality of Life (PARTIQoL): Phase III Randomized Clinical Trial of Proton Therapy vs. IMRT for Localized Prostate Cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2024. 120: S1.
[https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016\(24\)03237-1/fulltext](https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016(24)03237-1/fulltext)
761. Lee, W.R., *et al.* NRG Oncology RTOG 0415: A randomized phase III non-inferiority study comparing two fractionation schedules in patients with low-risk prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2024. 34: 1.
[https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016\(15\)26644-8/abstract](https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016(15)26644-8/abstract)
762. de Vries, K.C., *et al.* Hyperfractionated Versus Conventionally Fractionated Radiation Therapy for Patients with Intermediate- or High-Risk, Localized, Prostate Cancer: 7-Year Outcomes From the Randomized, Multicenter, Open-Label, Phase 3 HYPRO Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2020. 106: 108.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31593756>
763. Fossa, S.D., *et al.* Ten- and 15-yr Prostate Cancer-specific Mortality in Patients with Nonmetastatic Locally Advanced or Aggressive Intermediate Prostate Cancer, Randomized to Lifelong Endocrine Treatment Alone or Combined with Radiotherapy: Final Results of The Scandinavian Prostate Cancer Group-7. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 684.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27025586>
764. Mason, M.D., *et al.* Final Report of the Intergroup Randomized Study of Combined Androgen-Deprivation Therapy Plus Radiotherapy Versus Androgen-Deprivation Therapy Alone in Locally Advanced Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 2143.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25691677>
765. Sargos, P., *et al.* Long-term androgen deprivation, with or without radiotherapy, in locally advanced prostate cancer: updated results from a phase III randomised trial. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 810.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30946523>
766. Excellence, N.I.f.H.a.C. Biodegradable spacer insertion to reduce rectal toxicity during radiotherapy for prostate cancer. *Interventional procedures guidance [IPG590]*. 2017. 2022.
<https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ipg590>
767. Miller, L.E., *et al.* Association of the Placement of a Perirectal Hydrogel Spacer With the Clinical Outcomes of Men Receiving Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2020. 3: e208221.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32585020>
768. Hamstra, D.A., *et al.* Continued Benefit to Rectal Separation for Prostate Radiation Therapy: Final Results of a Phase III Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2017. 97: 976.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28209443>
769. Aminsharifi, A., *et al.* Major Complications and Adverse Events Related to the Injection of the SpaceOAR Hydrogel System Before Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer: Review of the Manufacturer and User Facility Device Experience Database. *J Endourol*, 2019. 33: 868.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31452385>
770. Henry, A., *et al.* GEC-ESTRO ACROP prostate brachytherapy guidelines. *Radiother Oncol*, 2022. 167: 244.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34999134>

771. Martens, C., *et al.* Relationship of the International Prostate Symptom score with urinary flow studies, and catheterization rates following 125I prostate brachytherapy. *Brachytherapy*, 2006. 5: 9.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16563992>
772. Michalski, J.M., *et al.* Effect of Brachytherapy With External Beam Radiation Therapy Versus Brachytherapy Alone for Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer: NRG Oncology RTOG 0232 Randomized Clinical Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 41: 4035.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37315297>
773. Le, H., *et al.* The influence of prostate volume on outcome after high-dose-rate brachytherapy alone for localized prostate cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2013. 87: 270.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23849693>
774. Salembier, C., *et al.* A history of transurethral resection of the prostate should not be a contraindication for low-dose-rate (125I) prostate brachytherapy: results of a prospective Uro-GEC phase-II trial. *J Contemp Brachyther*, 2020. 12: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32190063>
775. Salembier, C., *et al.* Prospective multi-center dosimetry study of low-dose Iodine-125 prostate brachytherapy performed after transurethral resection. *J Contemp Brachyther*, 2013. 5: 63.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23878549>
776. Stone, N.N., *et al.* Prostate brachytherapy in men with gland volume of 100cc or greater: Technique, cancer control, and morbidity. *Brachytherapy*, 2013. 12: 217.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23384439>
777. Crook, J.M., *et al.* Comparison of health-related quality of life 5 years after SPIRIT: Surgical Prostatectomy Versus Interstitial Radiation Intervention Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2011. 29: 362.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21149658>
778. Sylvester, J.E., *et al.* Fifteen-year biochemical relapse-free survival, cause-specific survival, and overall survival following I(125) prostate brachytherapy in clinically localized prostate cancer: Seattle experience. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2011. 81: 376.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20864269>
779. Potters, L., *et al.* 12-year outcomes following permanent prostate brachytherapy in patients with clinically localized prostate cancer. *J Urol*, 2005. 173: 1562.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15821486>
780. Stone, N.N., *et al.* Intermediate term biochemical-free progression and local control following 125iodine brachytherapy for prostate cancer. *J Urol*, 2005. 173: 803.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15711273>
781. Zelefsky, M.J., *et al.* Multi-institutional analysis of long-term outcome for stages T1-T2 prostate cancer treated with permanent seed implantation. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2007. 67: 327.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17084558>
782. Lawton, C.A., *et al.* Results of a phase II trial of transrectal ultrasound-guided permanent radioactive implantation of the prostate for definitive management of localized adenocarcinoma of the prostate (radiation therapy oncology group 98-05). *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2007. 67: 39.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17084551>
783. Stock, R.G., *et al.* Importance of post-implant dosimetry in permanent prostate brachytherapy. *Eur Urol*, 2002. 41: 434.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12074816>
784. Keyes, M., *et al.* American Brachytherapy Society Task Group Report: Use of androgen deprivation therapy with prostate brachytherapy-A systematic literature review. *Brachytherapy*, 2017. 16: 245.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28110898>
785. Morris, W.J., *et al.* Androgen Suppression Combined with Elective Nodal and Dose Escalated Radiation Therapy (the ASCENDE-RT Trial): An Analysis of Survival Endpoints for a Randomized Trial Comparing a Low-Dose-Rate Brachytherapy Boost to a Dose-Escalated External Beam Boost for High- and Intermediate-risk Prostate Cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2017. 98: 275.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28262473>
786. Oh, J., *et al.* An Updated Analysis of the Survival Endpoints of ASCENDE-RT. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2023. 115: 1061.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36528488>
787. Rodda, S., *et al.* ASCENDE-RT: An Analysis of Treatment-Related Morbidity for a Randomized Trial Comparing a Low-Dose-Rate Brachytherapy Boost with a Dose-Escalated External Beam Boost for High- and Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2017. 98: 286.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28433432>

788. Hoskin, P.J., *et al.* GEC/ESTRO recommendations on high dose rate afterloading brachytherapy for localised prostate cancer: an update. *Radiother Oncol*, 2013. 107: 325.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23773409>
789. Galalae, R.M., *et al.* Long-term outcome after elective irradiation of the pelvic lymphatics and local dose escalation using high-dose-rate brachytherapy for locally advanced prostate cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2002. 52: 81.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11777625>
790. Miszczyk, M., *et al.* Brachytherapy boost improves survival and decreases risk of developing distant metastases compared to external beam radiotherapy alone in intermediate and high risk group prostate cancer patients. *Radiother Oncol*, 2023. 183: 109632.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36963442>
791. Pieters, B.R., *et al.* Comparison of three radiotherapy modalities on biochemical control and overall survival for the treatment of prostate cancer: a systematic review. *Radiother Oncol*, 2009. 93: 168.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19748692>
792. Parry, M.G., *et al.* Impact of High-Dose-Rate and Low-Dose-Rate Brachytherapy Boost on Toxicity, Functional and Cancer Outcomes in Patients Receiving External Beam Radiation Therapy for Prostate Cancer: A National Population-Based Study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2021. 109: 1219.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33279595>
793. Hoskin, P.J., *et al.* Randomised trial of external-beam radiotherapy alone or with high-dose-rate brachytherapy for prostate cancer: Mature 12-year results. *Radiother Oncol*, 2021. 154: 214.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33011207>
794. Joseph, D., *et al.* Radiation Dose Escalation or Longer Androgen Suppression to Prevent Distant Progression in Men With Locally Advanced Prostate Cancer: 10-Year Data From the TROG 03.04 RADAR Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2020. 106: 693.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32092343>
795. Jackson, W.C., *et al.* Addition of Androgen-Deprivation Therapy or Brachytherapy Boost to External Beam Radiotherapy for Localized Prostate Cancer: A Network Meta-Analysis of Randomized Trials. *J Clin Oncol*, 2020. 38: 3024.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32396488>
796. Viani, G.A., *et al.* HDR brachytherapy as monotherapy for prostate cancer: A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Brachytherapy*, 2021. 20: 307.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33461894>
797. Morton, G., *et al.* Prostate high dose-rate brachytherapy as monotherapy for low and intermediate risk prostate cancer: Early toxicity and quality-of-life results from a randomized phase II clinical trial of one fraction of 19Gy or two fractions of 13.5Gy. *Radiother Oncol*, 2017. 122: 87.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27823821>
798. Matzinger, O., *et al.* Acute toxicity of curative radiotherapy for intermediate- and high-risk localised prostate cancer in the EORTC trial 22991. *Eur J Cancer*, 2009. 45: 2825.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19682889>
799. Crook, J., *et al.* A Randomized Trial Comparing Quality of Life After Low-Dose Rate or High-Dose Rate Prostate Brachytherapy Boost With Pelvic External Beam Radiation Therapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2024. 120: 59.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38493901>
800. King, C.R., *et al.* Health-related quality of life after stereotactic body radiation therapy for localized prostate cancer: results from a multi-institutional consortium of prospective trials. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2013. 87: 939.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24119836>
801. Fahmy, W.E., *et al.* Cryosurgery for prostate cancer. *Arch Androl*, 2003. 49: 397.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12893518>
802. Rees, J., *et al.* Cryosurgery for prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2004. 93: 710.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15049977>
803. Han, K.R., *et al.* Third-generation cryosurgery for primary and recurrent prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2004. 93: 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14678360>
804. van der Poel, H.G., *et al.* Focal Therapy in Primary Localised Prostate Cancer: The European Association of Urology Position in 2018. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 84.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29373215>
805. Valerio, M., *et al.* New and Established Technology in Focal Ablation of the Prostate: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 17.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27595377>

806. Madersbacher, S., *et al.* High-energy shockwaves and extracorporeal high-intensity focused ultrasound. *J Endourol*, 2003. 17: 667.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14622487>
807. Ramsay, C.R., *et al.* Ablative therapy for people with localised prostate cancer: a systematic review and economic evaluation. *Health Technol Assess*, 2015. 19: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26140518>
808. Pan, Y., *et al.* Whole-gland high-intensity focused ultrasound ablation and transurethral resection of the prostate in the patients with prostate cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Front Oncol*, 2022. 12: 988490.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36313706>
809. Brundl, J., *et al.* Oncological Long-term Outcome After Whole-gland High-intensity Focused Ultrasound for Prostate Cancer-21-yr Follow-up. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2022. 8: 134.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33483288>
810. Dickinson, L., *et al.* Medium-term Outcomes after Whole-gland High-intensity Focused Ultrasound for the Treatment of Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer from a Multicentre Registry Cohort. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 668.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26951947>
811. Mouraviev, V., *et al.* Pathologic basis of focal therapy for early-stage prostate cancer. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2009. 6: 205.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19352395>
812. Cooperberg, M.R., *et al.* Contemporary trends in low risk prostate cancer: risk assessment and treatment. *J Urol*, 2007. 178: S14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17644125>
813. Polascik, T.J., *et al.* Pathologic stage T2a and T2b prostate cancer in the recent prostate-specific antigen era: implications for unilateral ablative therapy. *Prostate*, 2008. 68: 1380.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18543281>
814. Ahmed, H.U., *et al.* Will focal therapy become a standard of care for men with localized prostate cancer? *Nat Clin Pract Oncol*, 2007. 4: 632.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17965641>
815. Eggener, S.E., *et al.* Focal therapy for localized prostate cancer: a critical appraisal of rationale and modalities. *J Urol*, 2007. 178: 2260.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17936815>
816. Crawford, E.D., *et al.* Targeted focal therapy: a minimally invasive ablation technique for early prostate cancer. *Oncology (Williston Park)*, 2007. 21: 27.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17313155>
817. Hopstaken, J.S., *et al.* An Updated Systematic Review on Focal Therapy in Localized Prostate Cancer: What Has Changed over the Past 5 Years? *Eur Urol*, 2022. 81: 5.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34489140>
818. Busby, D., *et al.* Biopsy and Erectile Functional Outcomes of Partial Prostate Ablation: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Prospective Studies. *Urology*, 2023. 182: 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37774854>
819. Reddy, D., *et al.* Cancer Control Outcomes Following Focal Therapy Using High-intensity Focused Ultrasound in 1379 Men with Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer: A Multi-institute 15-year Experience. *Eur Urol*, 2022. 81: 407.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35123819>
820. Hamdy, F.C., *et al.* Partial ablation versus radical prostatectomy in intermediate-risk prostate cancer: the PART feasibility RCT. *Health Technol Assess*, 2018. 22: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30264692>
821. Baco, E., Vlakovic, L., Rud, E., MP21-7901 Focal ablation versus radical prostatectomy for intermediate-risk prostate cancer: interim analysis of a randomized controlled Trial, in AUA-2021. 2021, AUA: Las Vegas, USA.
<https://static1.squarespace.com/static/567fcc1f40667a31535fc681/t/6238663f826ed01f1b359ac7/1647863360447/Poster+AUA+2021+FARP.pdf>
822. Reddy, D., *et al.* Comparative healthcare research outcomes of novel Surgery in prostate cancer (IP4-CHRONOS): Pilot RCT assessing feasibility of randomization for focal therapy in localized prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2022. 40: 5086.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/abs/10.1200/JCO.2022.40.16_suppl.5086
823. Shah, T.T., *et al.* Focal therapy compared to radical prostatectomy for non-metastatic prostate cancer: a propensity score-matched study. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 567.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33504940>

824. van Son, M.J., *et al.* Conventional radical versus focal treatment for localised prostate cancer: a propensity score weighted comparison of 6-year tumour control. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 1120.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33934114>
825. Lovegrove, C.E., *et al.* Evaluation of functional outcomes after a second focal high-intensity focused ultrasonography (HIFU) procedure in men with primary localized, non-metastatic prostate cancer: results from the HIFU Evaluation and Assessment of Treatment (HEAT) registry. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 853.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31971335>
826. Marconi, L., *et al.* Robot-assisted Radical Prostatectomy After Focal Therapy: Oncological, Functional Outcomes and Predictors of Recurrence. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 27.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30904357>
827. Spitznagel, T., *et al.* Salvage Robotic-assisted Laparoscopic Radical Prostatectomy Following Focal High-Intensity Focused Ultrasound for ISUP 2/3 Cancer. *Urology*, 2021. 156: 147.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34186136>
828. Zwergel, U., *et al.* Outcome of prostate cancer patients with initial PSA > or =20 ng/ml undergoing radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 52: 1058.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17418938>
829. Magheli, A., *et al.* Importance of tumor location in patients with high preoperative prostate specific antigen levels (greater than 20 ng/ml) treated with radical prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2007. 178: 1311.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17698095>
830. Blank, F., *et al.* Salvage Radical Prostatectomy after Primary Focal Ablative Therapy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2023. 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37345064>
831. Gill, I.S., *et al.* Randomized Trial of Partial Gland Ablation with Vascular Targeted Phototherapy versus Active Surveillance for Low Risk Prostate Cancer: Extended Followup and Analyses of Effectiveness. *J Urol*, 2018. 200: 786.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29864437>
832. Marra, G., *et al.* Long-term Outcomes of Focal Cryotherapy for Low- to Intermediate-risk Prostate Cancer: Results and Matched Pair Analysis with Active Surveillance. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2022. 8: 701.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33926838>
833. MacLennan, S., *et al.* A core outcome set for localised prostate cancer effectiveness trials. *BJU Int*, 2017. 120: E64.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28346770>
834. Guillaumier, S., *et al.* A Multicentre Study of 5-year Outcomes Following Focal Therapy in Treating Clinically Significant Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 422.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29960750>
835. McLeod, D.G., *et al.* Bicalutamide 150 mg plus standard care vs standard care alone for early prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2006. 97: 247.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16430622>
836. Holmberg, L., *et al.* Radical Prostatectomy or Watchful Waiting in Early Prostate Cancer. *New Engl J Med*, 2024. 391: 1362.
<https://www.nejm.org/doi/full/10.1056/NEJMc2406108>
837. Luo, X., *et al.* Prostatectomy Versus Observation for Localized Prostate Cancer: A Meta-Analysis. *Scand J Surg*, 2021. 110: 78.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31662032>
838. Kuperus, J.M., *et al.* Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection at Radical Prostatectomy for Intermediate Risk Prostate Cancer: Assessing Utility and Nodal Metastases Within a Statewide Quality Improvement Consortium. *Urology*, 2022. 165: 227.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35263639>
839. James, N.D., *et al.* Addition of docetaxel, zoledronic acid, or both to first-line long-term hormone therapy in prostate cancer (STAMPEDE): survival results from an adaptive, multiarm, multistage, platform randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*, 2016. 387: 1163.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26719232>
840. Krauss, D., *et al.* Lack of benefit for the addition of androgen deprivation therapy to dose-escalated radiotherapy in the treatment of intermediate- and high-risk prostate cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2011. 80: 1064.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20584576>

841. Kupelian, P.A., *et al.* Effect of increasing radiation doses on local and distant failures in patients with localized prostate cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2008. 71: 16.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17996382>
842. King, M.T., *et al.* Low dose rate brachytherapy for primary treatment of localized prostate cancer: A systemic review and executive summary of an evidence-based consensus statement. *Brachytherapy*, 2021. 20: 1114.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34509378>
843. Studer, U.E., *et al.* Using PSA to guide timing of androgen deprivation in patients with T0-4 N0-2 M0 prostate cancer not suitable for local curative treatment (EORTC 30891). *Eur Urol*, 2008. 53: 941.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18191322>
844. Joniau, S., *et al.* Stratification of high-risk prostate cancer into prognostic categories: a European multi-institutional study. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 157.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24486307>
845. Donohue, J.F., *et al.* Poorly differentiated prostate cancer treated with radical prostatectomy: long-term outcome and incidence of pathological downgrading. *J Urol*, 2006. 176: 991.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16890678>
846. Laukhtina, E., *et al.* Oncologic impact of delaying radical prostatectomy in men with intermediate- and high-risk prostate cancer: a systematic review. *World J Urol*, 2021. 39: 4085.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34047825>
847. Nguyen, D.D., *et al.* Systematic Review of Time to Definitive Treatment for Intermediate Risk and High Risk Prostate Cancer: Are Delays Associated with Worse Outcomes? *J Urol*, 2021. 205: 1263.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33443458>
848. Kumar, S., *et al.* Neo-adjuvant and adjuvant hormone therapy for localised and locally advanced prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2006. 2006: CD006019.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17054269>
849. Roach, M., *et al.* Sequence of hormonal therapy and radiotherapy field size in unfavourable, localised prostate cancer (NRG/RTOG 9413): long-term results of a randomised, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2018. 19: 1504.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30316827>
850. Murthy, V., *et al.* Prostate-Only Versus Whole-Pelvic Radiation Therapy in High-Risk and Very High-Risk Prostate Cancer (POP-RT): Outcomes From Phase III Randomized Controlled Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2021. 39: 1234.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33497252>
851. Murthy, V., *et al.* Late toxicity and quality of life with prostate only or whole pelvic radiation therapy in high risk prostate cancer (POP-RT): A randomised trial. *Radiother Oncol*, 2020. 145: 71.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31923712>
852. Moris, L., *et al.* Benefits and Risks of Primary Treatments for High-risk Localized and Locally Advanced Prostate Cancer: An International Multidisciplinary Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 614.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32146018>
853. Gongora, M., *et al.* Characteristics of Patients in SPCG-15-A Randomized Trial Comparing Radical Prostatectomy with Primary Radiotherapy plus Androgen Deprivation Therapy in Men with Locally Advanced Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2022. 41: 63.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35813256>
854. Bastian, P.J., *et al.* Clinical and pathologic outcome after radical prostatectomy for prostate cancer patients with a preoperative Gleason sum of 8 to 10. *Cancer*, 2006. 107: 1265.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16900523>
855. Yossepowitch, O., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy for clinically localized, high risk prostate cancer: critical analysis of risk assessment methods. *J Urol*, 2007. 178: 493.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17561152>
856. Trails.gov, C. Surgery Versus Radiotherapy for Locally Advanced Prostate Cancer (SPCG-15). 2014. 2022.
<https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02102477>
857. Chang, K., *et al.* Comparison of two adjuvant hormone therapy regimens in patients with high-risk localized prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy: primary results of study CU1005. *Asian J Androl*, 2016. 18: 452.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26323560>
858. Walz, J., *et al.* Pathological results and rates of treatment failure in high-risk prostate cancer patients after radical prostatectomy. *BJU Int*, 2011. 107: 765.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20875089>

859. Spahn, M., *et al.* Outcome predictors of radical prostatectomy in patients with prostate-specific antigen greater than 20 ng/ml: a European multi-institutional study of 712 patients. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 58: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20299147>
860. Ward, J.F., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy for clinically advanced (cT3) prostate cancer since the advent of prostate-specific antigen testing: 15-year outcome. *BJU Int*, 2005. 95: 751.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15794776>
861. Werner, R.A., *et al.* Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Reporting and Data System Version 2.0. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 84: 491.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37414701>
862. Seifert, R., *et al.* Second Version of the Prostate Cancer Molecular Imaging Standardized Evaluation Framework Including Response Evaluation for Clinical Trials (PROMISE V2). *Eur Urol*, 2023. 83: 405.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36935345>
863. Stranne, J., *et al.* Use of Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography/Computed Tomography for Nodal Staging in Prostate Cancer and Tailoring of Treatment: A Continuing Conundrum. *Eur Urol*, 2024.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39701872>
864. Yaow, C.Y.L., *et al.* Local Therapy on Clinically Lymph Node-positive Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 355.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37730526>
865. James, N.D., *et al.* Failure-Free Survival and Radiotherapy in Patients With Newly Diagnosed Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer: Data From Patients in the Control Arm of the STAMPEDE Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2016. 2: 348.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26606329>
866. James, N.D., *et al.* Docetaxel for Nonmetastatic Prostate Cancer: Long-Term Survival Outcomes in the STAMPEDE Randomized Controlled Trial. *JNCI Cancer Spectr*, 2022. 6: pkac043.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35877084>
867. Attard, G., *et al.* Abiraterone acetate and prednisolone with or without enzalutamide for high-risk non-metastatic prostate cancer: a meta-analysis of primary results from two randomised controlled phase 3 trials of the STAMPEDE platform protocol. *Lancet*, 2022. 399: 447.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34953525>
868. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Androgen deprivation therapy plus docetaxel and estramustine versus androgen deprivation therapy alone for high-risk localised prostate cancer (GETUG 12): a phase 3 randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2015. 16: 787.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26028518>
869. Vale, C.L., *et al.* Addition of docetaxel or bisphosphonates to standard of care in men with localised or metastatic, hormone-sensitive prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analyses of aggregate data. *Lancet Oncol*, 2016. 17: 243.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26718929>
870. Bryant, A.K., *et al.* Definitive Radiation Therapy and Survival in Clinically Node-Positive Prostate Cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2018. 101: 1188.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29891203>
871. Sarkar, R.R., *et al.* Association between Radical Prostatectomy and Survival in Men with Clinically Node-positive Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2019. 2: 584.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31411995>
872. Lin, C.C., *et al.* Androgen deprivation with or without radiation therapy for clinically node-positive prostate cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2015. 107.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25957435>
873. Tward, J.D., *et al.* Radiation therapy for clinically node-positive prostate adenocarcinoma is correlated with improved overall and prostate cancer-specific survival. *Pract Radiat Oncol*, 2013. 3: 234.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24674370>
874. Rusthoven, C.G., *et al.* The impact of definitive local therapy for lymph node-positive prostate cancer: a population-based study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2014. 88: 1064.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24661660>
875. Seisen, T., *et al.* Efficacy of Local Treatment in Prostate Cancer Patients with Clinically Pelvic Lymph Node-positive Disease at Initial Diagnosis. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 452.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28890245>
876. Chierigo, F., *et al.* Survival after radical prostatectomy versus radiation therapy in clinical node-positive prostate cancer. *Prostate*, 2022. 82: 740.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35226380>

877. Elumalai, T., *et al.* Impact of prostate radiotherapy on survival outcomes in clinically node-positive prostate cancer: A multicentre retrospective analysis. *Radiother Oncol*, 2023. 186: 109746.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37330057>
878. Studer, U.E., *et al.* Immediate or deferred androgen deprivation for patients with prostate cancer not suitable for local treatment with curative intent: European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) Trial 30891. *J Clin Oncol*, 2006. 24: 1868.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16622261>
879. Wurnschimmel, C., *et al.* Radical prostatectomy for localized prostate cancer: 20-year oncological outcomes from a German high-volume center. *Urol Oncol*, 2021. 39: 830 e17.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34092484>
880. Bader, P., *et al.* Is a limited lymph node dissection an adequate staging procedure for prostate cancer? *J Urol*, 2002. 168: 514.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12131300>
881. Briganti, A., *et al.* Two positive nodes represent a significant cut-off value for cancer specific survival in patients with node positive prostate cancer. A new proposal based on a two-institution experience on 703 consecutive N+ patients treated with radical prostatectomy, extended pelvic lymph node dissection and adjuvant therapy. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 55: 261.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18838212>
882. Schumacher, M.C., *et al.* Good outcome for patients with few lymph node metastases after radical retropubic prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 344.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18511183>
883. Abdollah, F., *et al.* More extensive pelvic lymph node dissection improves survival in patients with node-positive prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 212.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24882672>
884. Pound, C.R., *et al.* Natural history of progression after PSA elevation following radical prostatectomy. *JAMA*, 1999. 281: 1591.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10235151>
885. Aus, G., *et al.* Prognostic factors and survival in node-positive (N1) prostate cancer—a prospective study based on data from a Swedish population-based cohort. *Eur Urol*, 2003. 43: 627.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12767363>
886. Cheng, L., *et al.* Risk of prostate carcinoma death in patients with lymph node metastasis. *Cancer*, 2001. 91: 66.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11148561>
887. Seiler, R., *et al.* Removal of limited nodal disease in patients undergoing radical prostatectomy: long-term results confirm a chance for cure. *J Urol*, 2014. 191: 1280.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24262495>
888. Passoni, N.M., *et al.* Prognosis of patients with pelvic lymph node (LN) metastasis after radical prostatectomy: value of extranodal extension and size of the largest LN metastasis. *BJU Int*, 2014. 114: 503.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24053552>
889. Daneshmand, S., *et al.* Prognosis of patients with lymph node positive prostate cancer following radical prostatectomy: long-term results. *J Urol*, 2004. 172: 2252.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15538242>
890. Touijer, K.A., *et al.* Long-term outcomes of patients with lymph node metastasis treated with radical prostatectomy without adjuvant androgen-deprivation therapy. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 20.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23619390>
891. Spratt, D.E., *et al.* Individual Patient-Level Meta-Analysis of the Performance of the Decipher Genomic Classifier in High-Risk Men After Prostatectomy to Predict Development of Metastatic Disease. *J Clin Oncol*, 2017. 35: 1991.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28358655>
892. Jairath, N.K., *et al.* A Systematic Review of the Evidence for the Decipher Genomic Classifier in Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 79: 374.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33293078>
893. Wiegel, T., *et al.* Adjuvant radiotherapy versus wait-and-see after radical prostatectomy: 10-year follow-up of the ARO 96-02/AUO AP 09/95 trial. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 243.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24680359>
894. Fossati, N., *et al.* Long-term Impact of Adjuvant Versus Early Salvage Radiation Therapy in pT3N0 Prostate Cancer Patients Treated with Radical Prostatectomy: Results from a Multi-institutional Series. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 886.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27484843>

895. Buscariollo, D.L., *et al.* Long-term results of adjuvant versus early salvage postprostatectomy radiation: A large single-institutional experience. *Pract Radiat Oncol*, 2017. 7: e125.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28274403>
896. Hwang, W.L., *et al.* Comparison Between Adjuvant and Early-Salvage Postprostatectomy Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer With Adverse Pathological Features. *JAMA Oncol*, 2018. 4: e175230.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29372236>
897. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Timing of radiotherapy (RT) after radical prostatectomy (RP): long-term outcomes in the RADICALS-RT trial (NCT00541047). *Ann Oncol*, 2024. 35: 656.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38583574>
898. Kneebone, A., *et al.* Adjuvant radiotherapy versus early salvage radiotherapy following radical prostatectomy (TROG 08.03/ANZUP RAVES): a randomised, controlled, phase 3, non-inferiority trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2020. 21: 1331.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33002437>
899. Sargos, P., *et al.* Adjuvant radiotherapy versus early salvage radiotherapy plus short-term androgen deprivation therapy in men with localised prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy (GETUG-AFU 17): a randomised, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2020. 21: 1341.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33002438>
900. Vale, C.L., *et al.* Adjuvant or early salvage radiotherapy for the treatment of localised and locally advanced prostate cancer: a prospectively planned systematic review and meta-analysis of aggregate data. *Lancet*, 2020. 396: 1422.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33002431>
901. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Randomised Trial of No, Short-term, or Long-term Androgen Deprivation Therapy with Postoperative Radiotherapy After Radical Prostatectomy: Results from the Three-way Comparison of RADICALS-HD (NCT00541047). *Eur Urol*, 2024. 86: 422.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39217077>
902. Tilki, D., *et al.* Adjuvant Versus Early Salvage Radiation Therapy for Men at High Risk for Recurrence Following Radical Prostatectomy for Prostate Cancer and the Risk of Death. *J Clin Oncol*, 2021. 39: 2284.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34086480>
903. Tilki, D., *et al.* Timing of radiotherapy after radical prostatectomy. *Lancet*, 2020. 396: 1374.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33002430>
904. Ghadjar, P., *et al.* Postoperative radiotherapy in prostate cancer. *Lancet*, 2021. 397: 1623.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33933203>
905. Thompson, I.M., *et al.* Adjuvant radiotherapy for pathological T3N0M0 prostate cancer significantly reduces risk of metastases and improves survival: long-term followup of a randomized clinical trial. *J Urol*, 2009. 181: 956.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19167731>
906. Bolla, M., *et al.* Postoperative radiotherapy after radical prostatectomy for high-risk prostate cancer: long-term results of a randomised controlled trial (EORTC trial 22911). *Lancet*, 2012. 380: 2018.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23084481>
907. Hackman, G., *et al.* Randomised Trial of Adjuvant Radiotherapy Following Radical Prostatectomy Versus Radical Prostatectomy Alone in Prostate Cancer Patients with Positive Margins or Extracapsular Extension. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 586.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31375279>
908. Ahlgren, G.M., *et al.* Docetaxel Versus Surveillance After Radical Prostatectomy for High-risk Prostate Cancer: Results from the Prospective Randomised, Open-label Phase 3 Scandinavian Prostate Cancer Group 12 Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 870.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29395502>
909. Schweizer, M.T., *et al.* Adjuvant leuprolide with or without docetaxel in patients with high-risk prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy (TAX-3501): important lessons for future trials. *Cancer*, 2013. 119: 3610.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23943299>
910. Ghavamian, R., *et al.* Radical retropubic prostatectomy plus orchiectomy versus orchiectomy alone for pTxN+ prostate cancer: a matched comparison. *J Urol*, 1999. 161: 1223.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10081874>
911. Messing, E.M., *et al.* Immediate versus deferred androgen deprivation treatment in patients with node-positive prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy and pelvic lymphadenectomy. *Lancet Oncol*, 2006. 7: 472.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16750497>

912. Abdollah, F., *et al.* Impact of adjuvant radiotherapy on survival of patients with node-positive prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2014. 32: 3939.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25245445>
913. Tilki, D., *et al.* Adjuvant Versus Early Salvage Radiation Therapy After Radical Prostatectomy for pN1 Prostate Cancer and the Risk of Death. *J Clin Oncol*, 2022. 40: 2186.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35290082>
914. Abdollah, F., *et al.* Impact of Adjuvant Radiotherapy in Node-positive Prostate Cancer Patients: The Importance of Patient Selection. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 253.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29720348>
915. Gupta, M., *et al.* Adjuvant radiation with androgen-deprivation therapy for men with lymph node metastases after radical prostatectomy: identifying men who benefit. *BJU Int*, 2019. 123: 252.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29626845>
916. Marra, G., *et al.* Management of Patients with Node-positive Prostate Cancer at Radical Prostatectomy and Pelvic Lymph Node Dissection: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2020. 3: 565.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32933887>
917. Tilki, D., *et al.* Adjuvant radiation therapy is associated with better oncological outcome compared with salvage radiation therapy in patients with pN1 prostate cancer treated with radical prostatectomy. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 717.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27743493>
918. Mandel, P., *et al.* Long-term oncological outcomes in patients with limited nodal disease undergoing radical prostatectomy and pelvic lymph node dissection without adjuvant treatment. *World J Urol*, 2017. 35: 1833.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28828530>
919. Kimura, S., *et al.* Prognostic Significance of Prostate-Specific Antigen Persistence after Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2021. 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33668270>
920. Ploussard, G., *et al.* Management of Persistently Elevated Prostate-specific Antigen After Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 150.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33574012>
921. Wu, S., *et al.* Clinicopathological and oncological significance of persistent prostate-specific antigen after radical prostatectomy: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Asian J Urol*, 2023. 10: 317.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38583574>
922. Sasaki, T., *et al.* Cribriform pattern 4/intraductal carcinoma of the prostate and persistent prostate-specific antigen after radical prostatectomy. *BJUJ Compass*, 2024. 5: 709.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39022662>
923. Preisser, F., *et al.* Persistent Prostate-Specific Antigen After Radical Prostatectomy and Its Impact on Oncologic Outcomes. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 106.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30772034>
924. Xiang, C., *et al.* Prediction of Biochemical Recurrence Following Radiotherapy among Patients with Persistent PSA after Radical Prostatectomy: A Single-Center Experience. *Urol Int*, 2018. 101: 47.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29627830>
925. Rogers, C.G., *et al.* Natural history of disease progression in patients who fail to achieve an undetectable prostate-specific antigen level after undergoing radical prostatectomy. *Cancer*, 2004. 101: 2549.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15470681>
926. Patel, A., *et al.* Recurrence patterns after radical retropubic prostatectomy: clinical usefulness of prostate specific antigen doubling times and log slope prostate specific antigen. *J Urol*, 1997. 158: 1441.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9302139>
927. Farolfi, A., *et al.* (68)Ga-PSMA-11 Positron Emission Tomography Detects Residual Prostate Cancer after Prostatectomy in a Multicenter Retrospective Study. *J Urol*, 2019. 202: 1174.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31233369>
928. Meijer, D., *et al.* Biochemical Persistence of Prostate-Specific Antigen After Robot-Assisted Laparoscopic Radical Prostatectomy: Tumor Localizations Using PSMA PET/CT Imaging. *J Nucl Med*, 2021. 62: 961.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33158904>

929. Schmidt-Hegemann, N.S., *et al.* Outcome after PSMA PET/CT based radiotherapy in patients with biochemical persistence or recurrence after radical prostatectomy. *Radiat Oncol*, 2018. 13: 37.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29499730>
930. Sood, A., *et al.* Anti-Androgen Therapy Overcomes the Time Delay in Initiation of Salvage Radiation Therapy and Rescues the Oncological Outcomes in Men with Recurrent Prostate Cancer After Radical Prostatectomy: A Post Hoc Analysis of the RTOG-9601 Trial Data. *Ann of Surg Oncol*, 2022. 29: 7206.
<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1245/s10434-022-11892-8>
931. Wiegel, T., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen persistence after radical prostatectomy as a predictive factor of clinical relapse-free survival and overall survival: 10-year data of the ARO 96-02 trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2015. 91: 288.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25445556>
932. Bartkowiak, D., *et al.* The impact of prostate-specific antigen persistence after radical prostatectomy on the efficacy of salvage radiotherapy in patients with primary N0 prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2019. 124: 785.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31220400>
933. Van den Broeck, T., *et al.* Prognostic Value of Biochemical Recurrence Following Treatment with Curative Intent for Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 967.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30342843>
934. Özman, O., *et al.* The Effect of Salvage Radiation Therapy on Survival, Functional Outcomes, and Quality of Life in Men with Persistent Prostate-specific Antigen After Robot-Assisted Radical Prostatectomy: Which Patient Benefits More? *Pract Radiat Oncol*, 2022. 12: e538.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35843543>
935. Choo, R., *et al.* Prospective study evaluating postoperative radiotherapy plus 2-year androgen suppression for post-radical prostatectomy patients with pathologic T3 disease and/or positive surgical margins. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2009. 75: 407.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19211197>
936. Gandaglia, G., *et al.* Impact of Postoperative Radiotherapy in Men with Persistently Elevated Prostate-specific Antigen After Radical Prostatectomy for Prostate Cancer: A Long-term Survival Analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: 910.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28622831>
937. Garcia-Barreras, S., *et al.* Predictive factors and the important role of detectable prostate-specific antigen for detection of clinical recurrence and cancer-specific mortality following robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *Clin Transl Oncol*, 2018. 20: 1004.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29243074>
938. Lohm, G., *et al.* Salvage radiotherapy in patients with persistently detectable PSA or PSA rising from an undetectable range after radical prostatectomy gives comparable results. *World J Urol*, 2013. 31: 423.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22460203>
939. Ploussard, G., *et al.* Clinical outcomes after salvage radiotherapy without androgen deprivation therapy in patients with persistently detectable PSA after radical prostatectomy: results from a national multicentre study. *World J Urol*, 2014. 32: 1331.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24270970>
940. Fossati, N., *et al.* Impact of Early Salvage Radiation Therapy in Patients with Persistently Elevated or Rising Prostate-specific Antigen After Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 436.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28779974>
941. Tanegashima, T., *et al.* Prognosis based on postoperative PSA levels and treatment in prostate cancer with lymph node involvement. *Int J Clin Oncol*, 2024. 29: 1586.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38976182>
942. Komori, T., *et al.* Long-Term Prognosis and Treatment Strategy of Persistent PSA After Radical Prostatectomy. *Ann Surg Oncol*, 2023. 30: 6936.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37418130>
943. Milonas, D., *et al.* Benefits of early salvage therapy on oncological outcomes in high-risk prostate cancer with persistent PSA after radical prostatectomy. *Clin Transl Oncol*, 2022. 24: 371.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34453699>
944. Guerif, S.G., *et al.* The acute toxicity results of the GETUG-AFU 22 study: A multicenter randomized phase II trial comparing the efficacy of a short hormone therapy in combination with radiotherapy to radiotherapy alone as a salvage treatment for patients with detectable PSA after radical prostatectomy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2017. 35: 16.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/abs/10.1200/JCO.2017.35.6_suppl.16

945. Arlen, P.M., *et al.* Prostate Specific Antigen Working Group guidelines on prostate specific antigen doubling time. *J Urol*, 2008. 179: 2181.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18423743>
946. Vickers, A.J., *et al.* PSA Velocity and Doubling Time in Diagnosis and Prognosis of Prostate Cancer. *Br J Med Surg Urol*, 2012. 5: 162.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22712027>
947. O'Brien, M.F., *et al.* Pretreatment prostate-specific antigen (PSA) velocity and doubling time are associated with outcome but neither improves prediction of outcome beyond pretreatment PSA alone in patients treated with radical prostatectomy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2009. 27: 3591.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19506163>
948. Ramirez, M.L., *et al.* Current applications for prostate-specific antigen doubling time. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 291.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18439749>
949. Vickers, A.J., *et al.* Systematic review of pretreatment prostate-specific antigen velocity and doubling time as predictors for prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2009. 27: 398.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19064972>
950. Lee, A.K., *et al.* Utility of prostate-specific antigen kinetics in addition to clinical factors in the selection of patients for salvage local therapy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2005. 23: 8192.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16278472>
951. Campbell, S.R., *et al.* Integrating Prostate-specific Antigen Kinetics into Contemporary Predictive Nomograms of Salvage Radiotherapy After Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 304.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34016556>
952. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Natural history of rising serum prostate-specific antigen in men with castrate nonmetastatic prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2005. 23: 2918.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15860850>
953. Toussi, A., *et al.* Standardizing the Definition of Biochemical Recurrence after Radical Prostatectomy-What Prostate Specific Antigen Cut Point Best Predicts a Durable Increase and Subsequent Systemic Progression? *J Urol*, 2016. 195: 1754.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26721226>
954. Roach, M., 3rd, *et al.* Defining biochemical failure following radiotherapy with or without hormonal therapy in men with clinically localized prostate cancer: recommendations of the RTOG-ASTRO Phoenix Consensus Conference. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2006. 65: 965.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16798415>
955. Jackson, W.C., *et al.* Intermediate Endpoints After Postprostatectomy Radiotherapy: 5-Year Distant Metastasis to Predict Overall Survival. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 413.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29306514>
956. Choueiri, T.K., *et al.* Impact of postoperative prostate-specific antigen disease recurrence and the use of salvage therapy on the risk of death. *Cancer*, 2010. 116: 1887.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20162710>
957. Freiburger, C., *et al.* Long-term prognostic significance of rising PSA levels following radiotherapy for localized prostate cancer - focus on overall survival. *Radiat Oncol*, 2017. 12: 98.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28615058>
958. Royce, T.J., *et al.* Surrogate End Points for All-Cause Mortality in Men With Localized Unfavorable-Risk Prostate Cancer Treated With Radiation Therapy vs Radiation Therapy Plus Androgen Deprivation Therapy: A Secondary Analysis of a Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2017. 3: 652.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28097317>
959. Tilki, D., *et al.* External Validation of the European Association of Urology Biochemical Recurrence Risk Groups to Predict Metastasis and Mortality After Radical Prostatectomy in a European Cohort. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 896.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30955970>
960. Zagars, G.K., *et al.* Kinetics of serum prostate-specific antigen after external beam radiation for clinically localized prostate cancer. *Radiat Oncol*, 1997. 44: 213.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9380819>
961. Rouviere, O., *et al.* Imaging of prostate cancer local recurrences: why and how? *Eur Radiol*, 2010. 20: 1254.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19921202>
962. Beresford, M.J., *et al.* A systematic review of the role of imaging before salvage radiotherapy for post-prostatectomy biochemical recurrence. *Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol)*, 2010. 22: 46.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19948393>

963. Gomez, P., *et al.* Radionuclide bone scintigraphy in patients with biochemical recurrence after radical prostatectomy: when is it indicated? *BJU Int*, 2004. 94: 299.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15291855>
964. Kane, C.J., *et al.* Limited value of bone scintigraphy and computed tomography in assessing biochemical failure after radical prostatectomy. *Urology*, 2003. 61: 607.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12639656>
965. Evangelista, L., *et al.* Choline PET or PET/CT and biochemical relapse of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Nucl Med*, 2013. 38: 305.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23486334>
966. Fanti, S., *et al.* PET/CT with (11)C-choline for evaluation of prostate cancer patients with biochemical recurrence: meta-analysis and critical review of available data. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2016. 43: 55.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26450693>
967. Fuccio, C., *et al.* Role of 11C-choline PET/CT in the restaging of prostate cancer patients showing a single lesion on bone scintigraphy. *Ann Nucl Med*, 2010. 24: 485.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20544323>
968. Fuccio, C., *et al.* Role of 11C-choline PET/CT in the re-staging of prostate cancer patients with biochemical relapse and negative results at bone scintigraphy. *Eur J Radiol*, 2012. 81: e893.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22621862>
969. Castellucci, P., *et al.* Early biochemical relapse after radical prostatectomy: which prostate cancer patients may benefit from a restaging 11C-Choline PET/CT scan before salvage radiation therapy? *J Nucl Med*, 2014. 55: 1424.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24935990>
970. Treglia, G., *et al.* Relationship between prostate-specific antigen kinetics and detection rate of radiolabelled choline PET/CT in restaging prostate cancer patients: a meta-analysis. *Clin Chem Lab Med*, 2014. 52: 725.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24310773>
971. Mitchell, C.R., *et al.* Operational characteristics of (11)c-choline positron emission tomography/computerized tomography for prostate cancer with biochemical recurrence after initial treatment. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: 1308.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23123372>
972. Soyka, J.D., *et al.* Clinical impact of 18F-choline PET/CT in patients with recurrent prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2012. 39: 936.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22415598>
973. Ceci, F., *et al.* Impact of 11C-choline PET/CT on clinical decision making in recurrent prostate cancer: results from a retrospective two-centre trial. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2014. 41: 2222.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25182750>
974. Beer, A.J., *et al.* Radionuclide and hybrid imaging of recurrent prostate cancer. *Lancet Oncol*, 2011. 12: 181.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20599424>
975. Beheshti, M., *et al.* Detection of bone metastases in patients with prostate cancer by 18F fluorocholine and 18F fluoride PET-CT: a comparative study. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2008. 35: 1766.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18465129>
976. Songmen, S., *et al.* Axumin Positron Emission Tomography: Novel Agent for Prostate Cancer Biochemical Recurrence. *J Clin Imaging Sci*, 2019. 9: 49.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31819826>
977. FDA approves new diagnostic imaging agent to detect recurrent prostate cancer - axumin. 2016. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/news-events/press-announcements/fda-approves-new-diagnostic-imaging-agent-detect-recurrent-prostate-cancer>
978. EMA. Axumin 2017. 2021.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/axumin>
979. Nanni, C., *et al.* (18)F-FACBC (anti-1-amino-3-(18)F-fluorocyclobutane-1-carboxylic acid) versus (11)C-choline PET/CT in prostate cancer relapse: results of a prospective trial. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2016. 43: 1601.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26960562>

980. Bach-Gansmo, T., *et al.* Multisite Experience of the Safety, Detection Rate and Diagnostic Performance of Fluciclovine ((18)F) Positron Emission Tomography/Computerized Tomography Imaging in the Staging of Biochemically Recurrent Prostate Cancer. *J Urol*, 2017. 197: 676.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27746282>
981. Abiodun-Ojo, O.A., *et al.* Salvage Radiotherapy Management Decisions in Postprostatectomy Patients with Recurrent Prostate Cancer Based on (18)F-Fluciclovine PET/CT Guidance. *J Nucl Med*, 2021. 62: 1089.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33517323>
982. Yang, Y.Y., *et al.* Diagnostic performance of 18F-labeled PSMA PET/CT in patients with biochemical recurrence of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Acta Radiol*, 2023. 64: 2791.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37545168>
983. Morigi, J.J., *et al.* Prospective Comparison of 18F-Fluoromethylcholine Versus 68Ga-PSMA PET/CT in Prostate Cancer Patients Who Have Rising PSA After Curative Treatment and Are Being Considered for Targeted Therapy. *J Nucl Med*, 2015. 56: 1185.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26112024>
984. Afshar-Oromieh, A., *et al.* Comparison of PET imaging with a (68)Ga-labelled PSMA ligand and (18)F-choline-based PET/CT for the diagnosis of recurrent prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2014. 41: 11.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24072344>
985. Caroli, P., *et al.* (68)Ga-PSMA PET/CT in patients with recurrent prostate cancer after radical treatment: prospective results in 314 patients. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2018. 45: 2035.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29922948>
986. Panagiotidis, E., *et al.* Comparison of 18F-PSMA-1007 and 18F-Choline PET/CT in prostate cancer patients with biochemical recurrence: a phase 3, prospective, multicenter, randomized study. *Nucl Med Commun*, 2023. 44: 1126.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37779440>
987. Morris, M.J., *et al.* Diagnostic Performance of (18)F-DCFPyL-PET/CT in Men with Biochemically Recurrent Prostate Cancer: Results from the CONDOR Phase III, Multicenter Study. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2021. 27: 3674.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33622706>
988. Giesel, F.L., *et al.* Intraindividual Comparison of (18)F-PSMA-1007 and (18)F-DCFPyL PET/CT in the Prospective Evaluation of Patients with Newly Diagnosed Prostate Carcinoma: A Pilot Study. *J Nucl Med*, 2018. 59: 1076.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29269569>
989. Oprea-Lager, D.E., *et al.* [(18)F]DCFPyL PET/CT versus [(18)F]fluoromethylcholine PET/CT in Biochemical Recurrence of Prostate Cancer (PYTHON): a prospective, open label, cross-over, comparative study. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2023. 50: 3439.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37341747>
990. Olivier, P., *et al.* Phase III Study of (18)F-PSMA-1007 Versus (18)F-Fluorocholine PET/CT for Localization of Prostate Cancer Biochemical Recurrence: A Prospective, Randomized, Crossover Multicenter Study. *J Nucl Med*, 2023. 64: 579.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36418170>
991. Perera, M., *et al.* Sensitivity, Specificity, and Predictors of Positive (68)Ga-Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography in Advanced Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 926.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27363387>
992. Eiber, M., *et al.* Whole-body MRI including diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) for patients with recurring prostate cancer: technical feasibility and assessment of lesion conspicuity in DWI. *J Magn Reson Imaging*, 2011. 33: 1160.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21509875>
993. Zacho, H.D., *et al.* Prospective comparison of (68)Ga-PSMA PET/CT, (18)F-sodium fluoride PET/CT and diffusion weighted-MRI at for the detection of bone metastases in biochemically recurrent prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2018. 45: 1884.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29876619>
994. Renard-Penna, R., *et al.* Targeting Local Recurrence After Surgery With MRI Imaging for Prostate Cancer in the Setting of Salvage Radiation Therapy. *Front Oncol*, 2022. 12: 775387.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35242702>
995. Song, W., *et al.* Prognostic factors after salvage radiotherapy alone in patients with biochemical recurrence after radical prostatectomy. *Int J Urol*, 2016. 23: 56.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26502086>

996. Sharma, V., *et al.* Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Is an Independent Predictor of Salvage Radiotherapy Outcomes After Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 879.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29195777>
997. Farneti, A., *et al.* The Prognostic Value of DCE-MRI Findings before Salvage Radiotherapy after Radical Prostatectomy. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2023. 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36831588>
998. Panebianco, V., *et al.* Prostate Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Local Recurrence Reporting (PI-RR): International Consensus -based Guidelines on Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging for Prostate Cancer Recurrence after Radiation Therapy and Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 868.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33582104>
999. Abreu-Gomez, J., *et al.* PI-RR: The Prostate Imaging for Recurrence Reporting System for MRI Assessment of Local Prostate Cancer Recurrence After Radiation Therapy or Radical Prostatectomy-A Review. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*, 2023. 220: 852.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36722763>
1000. Achard, V., *et al.* Recurrent prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy: restaging performance of 18F-choline hybrid PET/MRI. *Med Oncol*, 2019. 36: 67.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31190232>
1001. Luiting, H.B., *et al.* Use of gallium-68 prostate-specific membrane antigen positron-emission tomography for detecting lymph node metastases in primary and recurrent prostate cancer and location of recurrence after radical prostatectomy: an overview of the current literature. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 206.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31680398>
1002. Boreta, L., *et al.* Location of Recurrence by Gallium-68 PSMA-11 PET Scan in Prostate Cancer Patients Eligible for Salvage Radiotherapy. *Urology*, 2019. 129: 165.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30928607>
1003. Farolfi, A., *et al.* (68)Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT in prostate cancer patients with biochemical recurrence after radical prostatectomy and PSA <0.5 ng/ml. Efficacy and impact on treatment strategy. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2019. 46: 11.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29905907>
1004. Guberina, N., *et al.* Whole-Body Integrated [(68)Ga]PSMA-11-PET/MR Imaging in Patients with Recurrent Prostate Cancer: Comparison with Whole-Body PET/CT as the Standard of Reference. *Mol Imaging Biol*, 2020. 22: 788.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31482413>
1005. Metser, U., *et al.* The Contribution of Multiparametric Pelvic and Whole-Body MRI to Interpretation of (18)F-Fluoromethylcholine or (68)Ga-HBED-CC PSMA-11 PET/CT in Patients with Biochemical Failure After Radical Prostatectomy. *J Nucl Med*, 2019. 60: 1253.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30902875>
1006. Freitag, M.T., *et al.* Local recurrence of prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy is at risk to be missed in (68)Ga-PSMA-11-PET of PET/CT and PET/MRI: comparison with mpMRI integrated in simultaneous PET/MRI. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2017. 44: 776.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27988802>
1007. Jani, A.B., *et al.* (18)F-fluciclovine-PET/CT imaging versus conventional imaging alone to guide postprostatectomy salvage radiotherapy for prostate cancer (EMPIRE-1): a single centre, open-label, phase 2/3 randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*, 2021. 397: 1895.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33971152>
1008. Dinis Fernandes, C., *et al.* Quantitative 3T multiparametric MRI of benign and malignant prostatic tissue in patients with and without local recurrent prostate cancer after external-beam radiation therapy. *J Magn Reson Imaging*, 2019. 50: 269.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30585368>
1009. Donati, O.F., *et al.* Multiparametric prostate MR imaging with T2-weighted, diffusion-weighted, and dynamic contrast-enhanced sequences: are all pulse sequences necessary to detect locally recurrent prostate cancer after radiation therapy? *Radiology*, 2013. 268: 440.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23481164>
1010. Dinis Fernandes, C., *et al.* Quantitative 3-T multi-parametric MRI and step-section pathology of recurrent prostate cancer patients after radiation therapy. *Eur Radiol*, 2019. 29: 4160.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30421016>
1011. Rasing, M., *et al.* Value of Targeted Biopsies and Combined PSMA PET/CT and mp-MRI Imaging in Locally Recurrent Prostate Cancer after Primary Radiotherapy. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2022. 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35159048>

1012. Boorjian, S.A., *et al.* Radiation therapy after radical prostatectomy: impact on metastasis and survival. *J Urol*, 2009. 182: 2708.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19836762>
1013. Kneebone, A., *et al.* A Phase III Multi-Centre Randomised Trial comparing adjuvant versus early salvage Radiotherapy following a Radical Prostatectomy: Results of the TROG 08.03 and ANZUP "RAVES" Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2019. 105: S37.
[https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016\(19\)31291-X/fulltext](https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016(19)31291-X/fulltext)
1014. Tilki, D., *et al.* Salvage Radiotherapy versus Observation for Biochemical Recurrence following Radical Prostatectomy for Prostate Cancer: A Matched Pair Analysis. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2022. 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35159007>
1015. Stish, B.J., *et al.* Improved Metastasis-Free and Survival Outcomes With Early Salvage Radiotherapy in Men With Detectable Prostate-Specific Antigen After Prostatectomy for Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2016. 34: 3864.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27480153>
1016. Pfister, D., *et al.* Early salvage radiotherapy following radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 1034.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23972524>
1017. Ohri, N., *et al.* Can early implementation of salvage radiotherapy for prostate cancer improve the therapeutic ratio? A systematic review and regression meta-analysis with radiobiological modelling. *Eur J Cancer*, 2012. 48: 837.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21945099>
1018. Wiegel, T., *et al.* Achieving an undetectable PSA after radiotherapy for biochemical progression after radical prostatectomy is an independent predictor of biochemical outcome—results of a retrospective study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2009. 73: 1009.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18963539>
1019. Trock, B.J., *et al.* Prostate cancer-specific survival following salvage radiotherapy vs observation in men with biochemical recurrence after radical prostatectomy. *JAMA*, 2008. 299: 2760.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18560003>
1020. Tilki, D., *et al.* Prostate-Specific Antigen Level at the Time of Salvage Therapy After Radical Prostatectomy for Prostate Cancer and the Risk of Death. *J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 41: 2428.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36857638>
1021. Group, I.C.W., *et al.* The Development of Intermediate Clinical Endpoints in Cancer of the Prostate (ICECaP). *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2015. 107: djv261.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26409187>
1022. Xie, W., *et al.* Metastasis-Free Survival Is a Strong Surrogate of Overall Survival in Localized Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2017. 35: 3097.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28796587>
1023. Shipley, W., *et al.* Radiation with or without Antiandrogen Therapy in Recurrent Prostate Cancer. *N Eng J Med*, 2017. 376: 417.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28146658>
1024. Carrie, C., *et al.* Short-term androgen deprivation therapy combined with radiotherapy as salvage treatment after radical prostatectomy for prostate cancer (GETUG-AFU 16): a 112-month follow-up of a phase 3, randomised trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2019. 20: 1740.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31629656>
1025. Pollack, A., *et al.* The addition of androgen deprivation therapy and pelvic lymph node treatment to prostate bed salvage radiotherapy (NRG Oncology/RTOG 0534 SPPORT): an international, multicentre, randomised phase 3 trial. *Lancet*, 2022. 399: 1886.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35569466>
1026. Ramey, S.J., *et al.* Multi-institutional Evaluation of Elective Nodal Irradiation and/or Androgen Deprivation Therapy with Postprostatectomy Salvage Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 99.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29128208>
1027. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Adding 6 months of androgen deprivation therapy to postoperative radiotherapy for prostate cancer: a comparison of short-course versus no androgen deprivation therapy in the RADICALS-HD randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*, 2024. 403: 2405.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38763154>
1028. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Duration of androgen deprivation therapy with postoperative radiotherapy for prostate cancer: a comparison of long-course versus short-course androgen deprivation therapy in the RADICALS-HD randomised trial. *Lancet*, 2024. 403: 2416.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38763153>

1029. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Randomised Trial of No, Short-term, or Long-term Androgen Deprivation Therapy with Postoperative Radiotherapy After Radical Prostatectomy: Results from the Three-way Comparison of RADICALS-HD (NCT00541047). *Eur Urol*, 2024. 86: 422.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39217077>
1030. Pollack, A., *et al.* Androgen deprivation therapy combined with postoperative radiotherapy for prostate cancer management. *Lancet*, 2024. 403: 2353.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38763152>
1031. Nabid, A., *et al.* Testosterone recovery after androgen deprivation therapy in localised prostate cancer: Long-term data from two randomised trials. *Radiother Oncol*, 2024. 195: 110256.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38552845>
1032. Dess, R.T., *et al.* Association of Presalvage Radiotherapy PSA Levels After Prostatectomy With Outcomes of Long-term Antiandrogen Therapy in Men With Prostate Cancer. *JAMA Oncol*, 2020. 6: 735.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32215583>
1033. Spratt, D.E., *et al.* A Systematic Review and Framework for the Use of Hormone Therapy with Salvage Radiation Therapy for Recurrent Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 156.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28716370>
1034. Malone, S., *et al.* Postoperative radiotherapy for prostate cancer: a comparison of four consensus guidelines and dosimetric evaluation of 3D-CRT versus tomotherapy IMRT. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2012. 84: 725.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22444999>
1035. Dal Pra, A., *et al.* ESTRO ACROP guideline on prostate bed delineation for postoperative radiotherapy in prostate cancer. *Clin Transl Radiat Oncol*, 2023. 41: 100638.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37251620>
1036. Pisansky, T.M., *et al.* Salvage Radiation Therapy Dose Response for Biochemical Failure of Prostate Cancer After Prostatectomy-A Multi-Institutional Observational Study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2016. 96: 1046.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27745980>
1037. King, C.R. The dose-response of salvage radiotherapy following radical prostatectomy: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Radiother Oncol*, 2016. 121: 199.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27863963>
1038. Fossati, N., *et al.* Assessing the Optimal Timing for Early Salvage Radiation Therapy in Patients with Prostate-specific Antigen Rise After Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 728.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26497924>
1039. Fiorino, C., *et al.* Predicting the 5-Year Risk of Biochemical Relapse After Postprostatectomy Radiation Therapy in \geq PT2, pN0 Patients With a Comprehensive Tumor Control Probability Model. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2016. 96: 333.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27497691>
1040. Tendulkar, R.D., *et al.* Contemporary Update of a Multi-Institutional Predictive Nomogram for Salvage Radiotherapy After Radical Prostatectomy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2016. 34: 3648.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27528718>
1041. Ghadjar, P., *et al.* Dose-intensified Versus Conventional-dose Salvage Radiotherapy for Biochemically Recurrent Prostate Cancer After Prostatectomy: The SAKK 09/10 Randomized Phase 3 Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 306.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34140144>
1042. Li, H.Z., *et al.* Dose-Intensified Postoperative Radiation Therapy for Prostate Cancer: Long-Term Results From the PKUFH Randomized Phase 3 Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2024. 118: 697.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37717784>
1043. Bartkowiak, D., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen after salvage radiotherapy for postprostatectomy biochemical recurrence predicts long-term outcome including overall survival. *Acta Oncol*, 2018. 57: 362.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28816074>
1044. Ghadjar, P., *et al.* Acute Toxicity and Quality of Life After Dose-Intensified Salvage Radiation Therapy for Biochemically Recurrent Prostate Cancer After Prostatectomy: First Results of the Randomized Trial SAKK 09/10. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 4158.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26527774>
1045. Ghadjar, P., *et al.* Impact of dose intensified salvage radiation therapy on urinary continence recovery after radical prostatectomy: Results of the randomized trial SAKK 09/10. *Radiother Oncol*, 2018. 126: 257.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29103826>

1046. Goenka, A., *et al.* Improved toxicity profile following high-dose postprostatectomy salvage radiation therapy with intensity-modulated radiation therapy. *Eur Urol*, 2011. 60: 1142.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21855208>
1047. Ost, P., *et al.* High-dose salvage intensity-modulated radiotherapy with or without androgen deprivation after radical prostatectomy for rising or persisting prostate-specific antigen: 5-year results. *Eur Urol*, 2011. 60: 842.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21514039>
1048. Qi, X., *et al.* Toxicity and Biochemical Outcomes of Dose-Intensified Postoperative Radiation Therapy for Prostate Cancer: Results of a Randomized Phase III Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2020. 106: 282.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31669564>
1049. Jackson, W.C., *et al.* Combining prostate-specific antigen nadir and time to nadir allows for early identification of patients at highest risk for development of metastasis and death following salvage radiation therapy. *Pract Radiat Oncol*, 2014. 4: 99.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24890350>
1050. Roach, P.J., *et al.* The Impact of (68)Ga-PSMA PET/CT on Management Intent in Prostate Cancer: Results of an Australian Prospective Multicenter Study. *J Nucl Med*, 2018. 59: 82.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28646014>
1051. Rauscher, I., *et al.* Efficacy, Predictive Factors, and Prediction Nomograms for (68)Ga-labeled Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen-ligand Positron-emission Tomography/Computed Tomography in Early Biochemical Recurrent Prostate Cancer After Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 656.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29358059>
1052. Meijer, D., *et al.* Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography/Computed Tomography Is Associated with Improved Oncological Outcome in Men Treated with Salvage Radiation Therapy for Biochemically Recurrent Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 146.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35074282>
1053. Steuber, T., *et al.* Standard of Care Versus Metastases-directed Therapy for PET-detected Nodal Oligorecurrent Prostate Cancer Following Multimodality Treatment: A Multi-institutional Case-control Study. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2019. 5: 1007.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29530632>
1054. De Bleser, E., *et al.* Metastasis-directed Therapy in Treating Nodal Oligorecurrent Prostate Cancer: A Multi-institutional Analysis Comparing the Outcome and Toxicity of Stereotactic Body Radiotherapy and Elective Nodal Radiotherapy. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 732.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31331782>
1055. Fodor, A., *et al.* Extended nodal radiotherapy for prostate cancer relapse guided with [11C]-choline PET/CT: ten-year results in patients enrolled in a prospective trial. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2024. 51: 590.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37747578>
1056. Vaugier, L., *et al.* Long-term Outcomes and Patterns of Relapse Following High-dose Elective Salvage Radiotherapy and Hormone Therapy in Oligorecurrent Pelvic Nodes in Prostate Cancer: OLIGOPELVIS (GETUG-P07). *Eur Urol*, 2025. 87: 73.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38490854>
1057. Suardi, N., *et al.* Long-term outcomes of salvage lymph node dissection for clinically recurrent prostate cancer: results of a single-institution series with a minimum follow-up of 5 years. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 299.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24571959>
1058. Tilki, D., *et al.* Salvage lymph node dissection for nodal recurrence of prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 484.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25180792>
1059. Fossati, N., *et al.* Identifying the Optimal Candidate for Salvage Lymph Node Dissection for Nodal Recurrence of Prostate Cancer: Results from a Large, Multi-institutional Analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 176.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30301694>
1060. Ploussard, G., *et al.* Salvage Lymph Node Dissection for Nodal Recurrent Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 493.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30391078>
1061. Ost, P., *et al.* Metastasis-directed therapy of regional and distant recurrences after curative treatment of prostate cancer: a systematic review of the literature. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 852.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25240974>

1062. Rischke, H.C., *et al.* Adjuvant radiotherapy after salvage lymph node dissection because of nodal relapse of prostate cancer versus salvage lymph node dissection only. *Strahlenther Onkol*, 2015. 191: 310.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25326142>
1063. Bravi, C.A., *et al.* Long-term Outcomes of Salvage Lymph Node Dissection for Nodal Recurrence of Prostate Cancer After Radical Prostatectomy: Not as Good as Previously Thought. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 78: 661.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32624288>
1064. Knipper, S., *et al.* Cohort Study of Oligorecurrent Prostate Cancer Patients: Oncological Outcomes of Patients Treated with Salvage Lymph Node Dissection via Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen-radioguided Surgery. *Eur Urol*, 2023. 83: 62.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35718637>
1065. Valle, L.F., *et al.* A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Local Salvage Therapies After Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer (MASTER). *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 280.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33309278>
1066. Gontero, P., *et al.* Salvage Radical Prostatectomy for Recurrent Prostate Cancer: Morbidity and Functional Outcomes from a Large Multicenter Series of Open versus Robotic Approaches. *J Urol*, 2019. 202: 725.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31075058>
1067. Saouli, A., *et al.* Salvage Radical Prostatectomy for Recurrent Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review (French ccAFU). *Cancers (Basel)*, 2023. 15: 5485.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38001745>
1068. Chade, D.C., *et al.* Cancer control and functional outcomes of salvage radical prostatectomy for radiation-recurrent prostate cancer: a systematic review of the literature. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 61: 961.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22280856>
1069. Marra, G., *et al.* Oncological outcomes of salvage radical prostatectomy for recurrent prostate cancer in the contemporary era: A multicenter retrospective study. *Urol Oncol*, 2021. 39: 296 e21.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33436329>
1070. Callaris, G., *et al.* Salvage Radical Prostatectomy for Recurrent Prostate Cancer Following First-line Nonsurgical Treatment: Validation of the European Association of Urology Criteria in a Large, Multicenter, Contemporary Cohort. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2023. 9: 645.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36682962>
1071. Thakker, P.U., *et al.* A Comprehensive Review of the Current State of Robot-assisted Laparoscopic Salvage Prostatectomy. *Int Braz J Urol*, 2024. 50: 398.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38701186>
1072. Preisser, F., *et al.* Oncologic Outcomes of Lymph Node Dissection at Salvage Radical Prostatectomy. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2023. 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37370733>
1073. Preisser, F., *et al.* Impact of persistent PSA after salvage radical prostatectomy: a multicenter study. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2024. 27: 686.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37803241>
1074. Gotto, G.T., *et al.* Impact of prior prostate radiation on complications after radical prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2010. 184: 136.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20478594>
1075. Mandel, P., *et al.* Salvage radical prostatectomy for recurrent prostate cancer: verification of European Association of Urology guideline criteria. *BJU Int*, 2016. 117: 55.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25711672>
1076. Ginsburg, K.B., *et al.* Avoidance of androgen deprivation therapy in radiorecurrent prostate cancer as a clinically meaningful endpoint for salvage cryoablation. *Prostate*, 2017. 77: 1446.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28856702>
1077. Spiess, P.E., *et al.* A pretreatment nomogram predicting biochemical failure after salvage cryotherapy for locally recurrent prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2010. 106: 194.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19922545>
1078. Li, R., *et al.* The Effect of Androgen Deprivation Therapy Before Salvage Whole-gland Cryoablation After Primary Radiation Failure in Prostate Cancer Treatment. *Urology*, 2015. 85: 1137.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25799176>
1079. Kovac, E., *et al.* Five-Year Biochemical Progression-Free Survival Following Salvage Whole-Gland Prostate Cryoablation: Defining Success with Nadir Prostate-Specific Antigen. *J Endourol*, 2016. 30: 624.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26915721>

1080. Ahmad, I., *et al.* Prostate gland lengths and iceball dimensions predict micturition functional outcome following salvage prostate cryotherapy in men with radiation recurrent prostate cancer. *PLoS One*, 2013. 8: e69243.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23950886>
1081. Pisters, L.L., *et al.* Salvage prostate cryoablation: initial results from the cryo on-line data registry. *J Urol*, 2008. 180: 559.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18554664>
1082. Henriquez Lopez, I., *et al.* Salvage brachytherapy for locally-recurrent prostate cancer after radiation therapy: A comparison of efficacy and toxicity outcomes with high-dose rate and low-dose rate brachytherapy. *Radiother Oncol*, 2019. 141: 156.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31570236>
1083. Crook, J.M., *et al.* A Prospective Phase 2 Trial of Transperineal Ultrasound-Guided Brachytherapy for Locally Recurrent Prostate Cancer After External Beam Radiation Therapy (NRG Oncology/RTOG-0526). *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2019. 103: 335.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30312717>
1084. Smith, W.H., *et al.* Salvage low dose rate brachytherapy for prostate cancer recurrence following definitive external beam radiation therapy. *Radiother Oncol*, 2021. 155: 42.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33075391>
1085. Lyczek, J., *et al.* HDR brachytherapy as a solution in recurrences of locally advanced prostate cancer. *J Contemp Brachyther*, 2009. 1: 105.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27795720>
1086. Pasquier, D., *et al.* Salvage Stereotactic Body Radiation Therapy for Local Prostate Cancer Recurrence After Radiation Therapy: A Retrospective Multicenter Study of the GETUG. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2019. 105: 727.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31344433>
1087. Fuller, D., *et al.* Retreatment for Local Recurrence of Prostatic Carcinoma After Prior Therapeutic Irradiation: Efficacy and Toxicity of HDR-Like SBRT. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2020. 106: 291.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31629838>
1088. Bergamin, S., *et al.* Interim Results of a Prospective Prostate-Specific Membrane Antigen-Directed Focal Stereotactic Reirradiation Trial for Locally Recurrent Prostate Cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2020. 108: 1172.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32659332>
1089. Yang, J., *et al.* Nonsurgical salvage options for locally recurrent prostate cancer after primary definitive radiotherapy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Surg*, 2024. 110: 3008.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38348896>
1090. Crouzet, S., *et al.* Salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU) for locally recurrent prostate cancer after failed radiation therapy: Multi-institutional analysis of 418 patients. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 896.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28063191>
1091. Murat, F.J., *et al.* Mid-term results demonstrate salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU) as an effective and acceptably morbid salvage treatment option for locally radiorecurrent prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 55: 640.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18508188>
1092. Kanthabalan, A., *et al.* Focal salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound in radiorecurrent prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2017. 120: 246.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28258616>
1093. Jones, T.A., *et al.* High Intensity Focused Ultrasound for Radiorecurrent Prostate Cancer: A North American Clinical Trial. *J Urol*, 2018. 199: 133.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28652121>
1094. van den Bergh, R.C., *et al.* Role of Hormonal Treatment in Prostate Cancer Patients with Nonmetastatic Disease Recurrence After Local Curative Treatment: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 802.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26691493>
1095. Duchesne, G.M., *et al.* Timing of androgen-deprivation therapy in patients with prostate cancer with a rising PSA (TROG 03.06 and VCOG PR 01-03 [TOAD]): a randomised, multicentre, non-blinded, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2016. 17: 727.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27155740>

1096. Siddiqui, S.A., *et al.* Timing of androgen deprivation therapy and its impact on survival after radical prostatectomy: a matched cohort study. *J Urol*, 2008. 179: 1830.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18353378>
1097. Levine, G.N., *et al.* Androgen-deprivation therapy in prostate cancer and cardiovascular risk: a science advisory from the American Heart Association, American Cancer Society, and American Urological Association: endorsed by the American Society for Radiation Oncology. *Circulation*, 2010. 121: 833.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20124128>
1098. O'Farrell, S., *et al.* Risk and timing of cardiovascular disease after androgen-deprivation therapy in men with prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 1243.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25732167>
1099. Boorjian, S.A., *et al.* Long-term risk of clinical progression after biochemical recurrence following radical prostatectomy: the impact of time from surgery to recurrence. *Eur Urol*, 2011. 59: 893.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21388736>
1100. Freedland, S.J., *et al.* Improved Outcomes with Enzalutamide in Biochemically Recurrent Prostate Cancer. *New Engl J Med*, 2023. 389: 1453.
<https://www.nejm.org/doi/full/10.1056/NEJMoa2303974>
1101. FDA approves enzalutamide for metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer. 2019. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-approves-enzalutamide-metastatic-castration-sensitive-prostate-cancer>
1102. Aparicio, A. Biochemical Recurrence in Prostate Cancer – Tilting the Scale. *New Engl J Med*, 2023. 389: 1522.
<https://www.nejm.org/doi/full/10.1056/NEJMe2309502>
1103. Aggarwal, R., *et al.* PRESTO: A Phase III, Open-Label Study of Intensification of Androgen Blockade in Patients With High-Risk Biochemically Relapsed Castration-Sensitive Prostate Cancer (AFT-19). *J Clin Oncol*, 2024. 42: 1114.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38261983>
1104. Josefsson, A., *et al.* Effect of docetaxel added to bicalutamide in Hormone-Naïve non-metastatic prostate cancer with rising PSA, a randomized clinical trial (SPCG-14). *Acta Oncol*, 2023. 62: 372.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37073813>
1105. Bubley, G.J. Is the flare phenomenon clinically significant? *Urology*, 2001. 58: 5.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11502435>
1106. Krakowsky, Y., *et al.* Risk of Testosterone Flare in the Era of the Saturation Model: One More Historical Myth. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2019. 5: 81.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28753828>
1107. Klotz, L., *et al.* The efficacy and safety of degarelix: a 12-month, comparative, randomized, open-label, parallel-group phase III study in patients with prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2008. 102: 1531.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19035858>
1108. Seidenfeld, J., *et al.* Single-therapy androgen suppression in men with advanced prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Intern Med*, 2000. 132: 566.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10744594>
1109. Ostergren, P.B., *et al.* Luteinizing Hormone-Releasing Hormone Agonists are Superior to Subcapsular Orchiectomy in Lowering Testosterone Levels of Men with Prostate Cancer: Results from a Randomized Clinical Trial. *J Urol*, 2017. 197: 1441.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27939836>
1110. Shore, N.D. Experience with degarelix in the treatment of prostate cancer. *Ther Adv Urol*, 2013. 5: 11.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23372607>
1111. Sciarra, A., *et al.* A meta-analysis and systematic review of randomized controlled trials with degarelix versus gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists for advanced prostate cancer. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 2016. 95: e3845.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27399062>
1112. Cirne, F., *et al.* The cardiovascular effects of gonadotropin-releasing hormone antagonists in men with prostate cancer. *Eur Heart J Cardiovasc Pharmacother*, 2022. 8: 253.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33470403>
1113. Abufaraj, M., *et al.* Differential Impact of Gonadotropin-releasing Hormone Antagonist Versus Agonist on Clinical Safety and Oncologic Outcomes on Patients with Metastatic Prostate Cancer: A Meta-analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 79: 44.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32605859>
1114. Shore, N.D., *et al.* Oral Relugolix for Androgen-Deprivation Therapy in Advanced Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2020. 382: 2187.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32469183>

1115. FDA approves relugolix for advanced prostate cancer. 2020. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-approves-relugolix-advanced-prostate-cancer>
1116. EMA. Orgovyx approved for advanced prostate cancer. 2022. 2022.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/orgovyx>
1117. Moffat, L.E. Comparison of Zoladex, diethylstilbestrol and cyproterone acetate treatment in advanced prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 1990. 18 Suppl 3: 26.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2151272>
1118. Schroder, F.H., *et al.* Metastatic prostate cancer treated by flutamide versus cyproterone acetate. Final analysis of the "European Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer" (EORTC) Protocol 30892. *Eur Urol*, 2004. 45: 457.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15041109>
1119. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Bicalutamide monotherapy versus leuprolide monotherapy for prostate cancer: effects on bone mineral density and body composition. *J Clin Oncol*, 2004. 22: 2546.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15226323>
1120. Iversen, P. Antiandrogen monotherapy: indications and results. *Urology*, 2002. 60: 64.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12231053>
1121. Wadhwa, V.K., *et al.* Long-term changes in bone mineral density and predicted fracture risk in patients receiving androgen-deprivation therapy for prostate cancer, with stratification of treatment based on presenting values. *BJU Int*, 2009. 104: 800.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19338564>
1122. Montgomery, R.B., *et al.* Maintenance of intratumoral androgens in metastatic prostate cancer: a mechanism for castration-resistant tumor growth. *Cancer Res*, 2008. 68: 4447.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18519708>
1123. EMA. Nubeqa (darolutamide). 2020. 2022.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/nubeqa>
1124. EMA. Xtandi (enzalutamide). 2013. 2022.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/xtandi>
1125. Chi, K.N., *et al.* Apalutamide for Metastatic, Castration-Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2019. 381: 13.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31150574>
1126. Armstrong, A.J., *et al.* ARCHES: A Randomized, Phase III Study of Androgen Deprivation Therapy With Enzalutamide or Placebo in Men With Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2019. 37: 2974.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31329516>
1127. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Abiraterone plus Prednisone in Metastatic, Castration-Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2017. 377: 352.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28578607>
1128. Saad, F., *et al.* Darolutamide in Combination With Androgen-Deprivation Therapy in Patients With Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer From the Phase III ARANOTE Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2024: JCO2401798.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39279580>
1129. FDA approves abiraterone acetate in combination with prednisone for high-risk metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer. 2018. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-approves-abiraterone-acetate-combination-prednisone-high-risk-metastatic-castration-sensitive>
1130. FDA approves apalutamide for metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer. 2019. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-approves-apalutamide-metastatic-castration-sensitive-prostate-cancer>
1131. EMA. Zytiga. 2011. 2022.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/zytiga>
1132. EMA. Erleada (apalutamide). 2019. 2022.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/erleada>
1133. Keam, S.J. Rezvilutamide: First Approval. *Drugs*, 2023. 83: 189.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36630077>
1134. Moilanen, A.M., *et al.* Discovery of ODM-201, a new-generation androgen receptor inhibitor targeting resistance mechanisms to androgen signaling-directed prostate cancer therapies. *Sci Rep*, 2015. 5: 12007.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26137992>

1135. Zurth, C., *et al.* Blood-brain barrier penetration of [14C]darolutamide compared with [14C]enzalutamide in rats using whole body autoradiography. *J Clin Oncol*, 2018. 36: 345.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/abs/10.1200/JCO.2018.36.6_suppl.345
1136. Sousa-Pimenta, M., *et al.* Chemotherapeutic properties and side-effects associated with the clinical practice of terpene alkaloids: paclitaxel, docetaxel, and cabazitaxel. *Front Pharmacol*, 2023. 14: 1157306.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37229270>
1137. Xue, B., *et al.* Synthesis of Taxol and Docetaxel by Using 10-Deacetyl-7-xylosyltaxanes. *Chem Biodivers*, 2020. 17: e1900631.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31967396>
1138. Geng, C.X., *et al.* Docetaxel inhibits SMMC-7721 human hepatocellular carcinoma cells growth and induces apoptosis. *World J Gastroenterol*, 2003. 9: 696.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12679913>
1139. Lord, C.J., *et al.* PARP inhibitors: Synthetic lethality in the clinic. *Science*, 2017. 355: 1152.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28302823>
1140. Hargadon, K.M., *et al.* Immune checkpoint blockade therapy for cancer: An overview of FDA-approved immune checkpoint inhibitors. *Int Immunopharmacol*, 2018. 62: 29.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29990692>
1141. Le, D.T., *et al.* PD-1 Blockade in Tumors with Mismatch-Repair Deficiency. *N Engl J Med*, 2015. 372: 2509.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26028255>
1142. Sgouros, G., *et al.* Radiopharmaceutical therapy in cancer: clinical advances and challenges. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*, 2020. 19: 589.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32728208>
1143. FDA approval of Pluvicto (lutetium Lu 177 vipivotide tetraxetan) for the treatment of adult patients with prostate-specific membrane antigen-positive metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer who have been treated with androgen receptor pathway inhibition and taxane-based chemotherapy. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-disco-burst-edition-fda-approval-pluvicto-lutetium-lu-177-vipivotide-tetraxetan-treatment-adult>
1144. EMA. Summary of product characteristics - Pluvicto 2022.
https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/product-information/pluvicto-epar-product-information_en.pdf
1145. Napoli, G., *et al.* A Systematic Review and a Meta-analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials' Control Groups in Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer (mHSPC). *Curr Oncol Rep*, 2022. 24: 1633.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35953601>
1146. Glass, T.R., *et al.* Metastatic carcinoma of the prostate: identifying prognostic groups using recursive partitioning. *J Urol*, 2003. 169: 164.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12478127>
1147. Gravis, G., *et al.* Prognostic Factors for Survival in Noncastrate Metastatic Prostate Cancer: Validation of the Glass Model and Development of a Novel Simplified Prognostic Model. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 196.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25277272>
1148. Gravis, G., *et al.* Androgen Deprivation Therapy (ADT) Plus Docetaxel Versus ADT Alone in Metastatic Non castrate Prostate Cancer: Impact of Metastatic Burden and Long-term Survival Analysis of the Randomized Phase 3 GETUG-AFU15 Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 256.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26610858>
1149. Sweeney, C.J., *et al.* Chemohormonal Therapy in Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2015. 373: 737.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26244877>
1150. Kyriakopoulos, C.E., *et al.* Chemohormonal Therapy in Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer: Long-Term Survival Analysis of the Randomized Phase III E3805 CHARTED Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2018. 36: 1080.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29384722>
1151. Gravis, G., *et al.* Burden of Metastatic Castrate Naive Prostate Cancer Patients, to Identify Men More Likely to Benefit from Early Docetaxel: Further Analyses of CHARTED and GETUG-AFU15 Studies. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 847.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29475737>
1152. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Radiotherapy to the primary tumour for newly diagnosed, metastatic prostate cancer (STAMPEDE): a randomised controlled phase 3 trial. *Lancet*, 2018. 392: 2353.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30355464>

1153. Francini, E., *et al.* Time of metastatic disease presentation and volume of disease are prognostic for metastatic hormone sensitive prostate cancer (mHSPC). *Prostate*, 2018. 78: 889.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29707790>
1154. Hussain, M., *et al.* Absolute prostate-specific antigen value after androgen deprivation is a strong independent predictor of survival in new metastatic prostate cancer: data from Southwest Oncology Group Trial 9346 (INT-0162). *J Clin Oncol*, 2006. 24: 3984.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16921051>
1155. Harshman, L.C., *et al.* Seven-Month Prostate-Specific Antigen Is Prognostic in Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer Treated With Androgen Deprivation With or Without Docetaxel. *J Clin Oncol*, 2018. 36: 376.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29261442>
1156. Matsubara, N., *et al.* Correlation of Prostate-specific Antigen Kinetics with Overall Survival and Radiological Progression-free Survival in Metastatic Castration-sensitive Prostate Cancer Treated with Abiraterone Acetate plus Prednisone or Placebos Added to Androgen Deprivation Therapy: Post Hoc Analysis of Phase 3 LATITUDE Study. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 494.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31843335>
1157. Chowdhury, S., *et al.* Deep, rapid, and durable prostate-specific antigen decline with apalutamide plus androgen deprivation therapy is associated with longer survival and improved clinical outcomes in TITAN patients with metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer. *Ann Oncol*, 2023. 34: 477.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36858151>
1158. Pagliarulo, V., *et al.* Contemporary role of androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 61: 11.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21871711>
1159. Davey, P., *et al.* Cardiovascular risk profiles of GnRH agonists and antagonists: real-world analysis from UK general practice. *World J Urol*, 2021. 39: 307.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32979057>
1160. Boland, J., *et al.* Cardiovascular Toxicity of Androgen Deprivation Therapy. *Curr Cardiol Rep*, 2021. 23: 109.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34216282>
1161. Gu, L., *et al.* Adverse cardiovascular effect following gonadotropin-releasing hormone antagonist versus GnRH agonist for prostate cancer treatment: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)*, 2023. 14: 1157857.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37065739>
1162. Kunath, F., *et al.* Non-steroidal antiandrogen monotherapy compared with luteinising hormone-releasing hormone agonists or surgical castration monotherapy for advanced prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2014. 6: CD009266.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24979481>
1163. Niraula, S., *et al.* Treatment of prostate cancer with intermittent versus continuous androgen deprivation: a systematic review of randomized trials. *J Clin Oncol*, 2013. 31: 2029.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23630216>
1164. Botrel, T.E., *et al.* Intermittent versus continuous androgen deprivation for locally advanced, recurrent or metastatic prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Urol*, 2014. 14: 9.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24460605>
1165. Tsai, H.T., *et al.* Efficacy of intermittent androgen deprivation therapy vs conventional continuous androgen deprivation therapy for advanced prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. *Urology*, 2013. 82: 327.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23896094>
1166. Brungs, D., *et al.* Intermittent androgen deprivation is a rational standard-of-care treatment for all stages of progressive prostate cancer: results from a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2014. 17: 105.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24686773>
1167. Magnan, S., *et al.* Intermittent vs Continuous Androgen Deprivation Therapy for Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Oncol*, 2015. 1: 1261.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26378418>
1168. Hussain, M., *et al.* Intermittent versus continuous androgen deprivation in prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2013. 368: 1314.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23550669>
1169. Kunath, F., *et al.* Early versus deferred standard androgen suppression therapy for advanced hormone-sensitive prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2019. 6: CD003506.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31194882>

1170. Maximum androgen blockade in advanced prostate cancer: an overview of the randomised trials. Prostate Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group. *Lancet*, 2000. 355: 1491.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10801170>
1171. Schmitt, B., *et al.* Maximal androgen blockade for advanced prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2000: CD001526.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10796804>
1172. Davis, I.D., *et al.* Enzalutamide with Standard First-Line Therapy in Metastatic Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2019. 381: 121.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31157964>
1173. Gu, W., *et al.* Rezvilutamide versus bicalutamide in combination with androgen-deprivation therapy in patients with high-volume, metastatic, hormone-sensitive prostate cancer (CHART): a randomised, open-label, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2022. 23: 1249.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36075260>
1174. James, N.D., *et al.* Abiraterone for Prostate Cancer Not Previously Treated with Hormone Therapy. *N Engl J Med*, 2017. 377: 338.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28578639>
1175. Rydzewska, L.H.M., *et al.* Adding abiraterone to androgen deprivation therapy in men with metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Cancer*, 2017. 84: 88.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28800492>
1176. Hoyle, A.P., *et al.* Abiraterone in "High-" and "Low-risk" Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 719.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31447077>
1177. Armstrong, A.J., *et al.* Improved Survival With Enzalutamide in Patients With Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2022. 40: 1616.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35420921>
1178. Sweeney, C.J., *et al.* Testosterone suppression plus enzalutamide versus testosterone suppression plus standard antiandrogen therapy for metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer (ENZAMET): an international, open-label, randomised, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2023. 24: 323.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36990608>
1179. Chi, K.N., *et al.* Apalutamide in Patients With Metastatic Castration-Sensitive Prostate Cancer: Final Survival Analysis of the Randomized, Double-Blind, Phase III TITAN Study. *J Clin Oncol*, 2021. 39: 2294.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33914595>
1180. Fukuokaya, W., *et al.* Radiographic Progression Without Corresponding Prostate-specific Antigen Progression in Patients with Metastatic Castration-sensitive Prostate Cancer Receiving Apalutamide: Secondary Analysis of the TITAN Trial. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38688767>
1181. Sweeney, C.J., *et al.* Overall Survival of Men with Metachronous Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer Treated with Enzalutamide and Androgen Deprivation Therapy. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 275.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34030924>
1182. Merseburger, A.S., *et al.* Apalutamide plus androgen deprivation therapy in clinical subgroups of patients with metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer: A subgroup analysis of the randomised clinical TITAN study. *Eur J Cancer*, 2023. 193: 113290.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37708629>
1183. Gravis, G., *et al.* Androgen-deprivation therapy alone or with docetaxel in non-castrate metastatic prostate cancer (GETUG-AFU 15): a randomised, open-label, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2013. 14: 149.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23306100>
1184. Smith, T.J., *et al.* Recommendations for the Use of WBC Growth Factors: American Society of Clinical Oncology Clinical Practice Guideline Update. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 3199.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26169616>
1185. Sathianathan, N.J., *et al.* Taxane-based chemohormonal therapy for metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2018. 10: CD012816.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30320443>
1186. Clarke, N.W., *et al.* Addition of docetaxel to hormonal therapy in low- and high-burden metastatic hormone sensitive prostate cancer: long-term survival results from the STAMPEDE trial. *Ann Oncol*, 2019. 30: 1992.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31560068>

1187. Vale, C.L., *et al.* Which patients with metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer benefit from docetaxel: a systematic review and meta-analysis of individual participant data from randomised trials. *Lancet Oncol*, 2023. 24: 783.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37414011>
1188. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Abiraterone plus prednisone added to androgen deprivation therapy and docetaxel in *de novo* metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer (PEACE-1): a multicentre, open-label, randomised, phase 3 study with a 2 x 2 factorial design. *Lancet*, 2022. 399: 1695.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35405085>
1189. Fizazi, K., *et al.* A phase 3 trial with a 2x2 factorial design of abiraterone acetate plus prednisone and/or local radiotherapy in men with *de novo* metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer (mCSPC): First results of PEACE-1. *J Clin Oncol*, 2021. 39: 5000.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/abs/10.1200/JCO.2021.39.15_suppl.5000
1190. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Darolutamide and Survival in Metastatic, Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2022. 386: 1132.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35179323>
1191. Hussain, M., *et al.* Darolutamide Plus Androgen-Deprivation Therapy and Docetaxel in Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer by Disease Volume and Risk Subgroups in the Phase III ARASENS Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 41: 3595.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36795843>
1192. Jian, T., *et al.* Systemic triplet therapy for metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer: A systematic review and network meta-analysis. *Front Pharmacol*, 2022. 13: 955925.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36278154>
1193. Fiorica, F., *et al.* Addition of New Androgen Receptor Pathway Inhibitors to Docetaxel and Androgen Deprivation Therapy in Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Metanalysis. *Curr Oncol*, 2022. 29: 9511.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36547161>
1194. Riaz, I.B., *et al.* First-line Systemic Treatment Options for Metastatic Castration-Sensitive Prostate Cancer: A Living Systematic Review and Network Meta-analysis. *JAMA Oncol*, 2023. 9: 635.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36862387>
1195. Chen, X., *et al.* Comparative efficacy of second-generation androgen receptor inhibitors for treating prostate cancer: A systematic review and network meta-analysis. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)*, 2023. 14: 1134719.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36967752>
1196. Fallara, G., *et al.* Chemotherapy and advanced androgen blockage, alone or combined, for metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Cancer Treat Rev*, 2022. 110: 102441.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35939976>
1197. Hoeh, B., *et al.* Triplet or Doublet Therapy in Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer: Updated Network Meta-analysis Stratified by Disease Volume. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2023. 9: 838.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37055323>
1198. Ramos-Esquivel, A., *et al.* A systematic review and meta-analysis on overall survival, failure-free survival and safety outcomes in patients with metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer treated with new anti-androgens. *Anticancer Drugs*, 2023. 34: 405.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36730553>
1199. Rajwa, P., *et al.* Association between age and efficacy of combination systemic therapies in patients with metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2023. 26: 170.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36284192>
1200. Boeve, L.M.S., *et al.* Effect on Survival of Androgen Deprivation Therapy Alone Compared to Androgen Deprivation Therapy Combined with Concurrent Radiation Therapy to the Prostate in Patients with Primary Bone Metastatic Prostate Cancer in a Prospective Randomised Clinical Trial: Data from the HORRAD Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 410.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30266309>
1201. Parker, C.C., *et al.* Radiotherapy to the prostate for men with metastatic prostate cancer in the UK and Switzerland: Long-term results from the STAMPEDE randomised controlled trial. *PLoS Med*, 2022. 19: e1003998.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35671327>

1202. Ali, A., *et al.* Association of Bone Metastatic Burden With Survival Benefit From Prostate Radiotherapy in Patients With Newly Diagnosed Metastatic Prostate Cancer: A Secondary Analysis of a Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2021. 7: 555.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33599706>
1203. Roy, S., *et al.* Prostate Radiotherapy in Low-volume Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer: A Network Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2024. 86: 10.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38570246>
1204. Burdett, S., *et al.* Prostate Radiotherapy for Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer: A STOPCAP Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 76: 115.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30826218>
1205. Bossi, A., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of prostate radiotherapy in *de novo* metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer (PEACE-1): a multicentre, open-label, randomised, phase 3 study with a 2 x 2 factorial design. *Lancet*, 2024. 404: 2065.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39580202>
1206. Milenkovic, U., *et al.* Predictors of Recurrence After Metastasis-directed Therapy in Oligorecurrent Prostate Cancer Following Radical Prostatectomy. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 582.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36878753>
1207. Ost, P., *et al.* Surveillance or Metastasis-Directed Therapy for Oligometastatic Prostate Cancer Recurrence: A Prospective, Randomized, Multicenter Phase II Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2018. 36: 446.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29240541>
1208. Phillips, R., *et al.* Outcomes of Observation vs Stereotactic Ablative Radiation for Oligometastatic Prostate Cancer: The ORIOLE Phase 2 Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2020. 6: 650.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32215577>
1209. Deek, M.P., *et al.* Long-Term Outcomes and Genetic Predictors of Response to Metastasis-Directed Therapy Versus Observation in Oligometastatic Prostate Cancer: Analysis of STOMP and ORIOLE Trials. *J Clin Oncol*, 2022. 40: 3377.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36001857>
1210. Glicksman, R.M., *et al.* Curative-intent Metastasis-directed Therapies for Molecularly-defined Oligorecurrent Prostate Cancer: A Prospective Phase II Trial Testing the Oligometastasis Hypothesis. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 374.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33685838>
1211. Tang, C., *et al.* Addition of Metastasis-Directed Therapy to Intermittent Hormone Therapy for Oligometastatic Prostate Cancer: The EXTEND Phase 2 Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2023. 9: 825.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37022702>
1212. Nikitas, J., *et al.* Systemic and Tumor-directed Therapy for Oligorecurrent Metastatic Prostate Cancer (SATURN): Primary Endpoint Results from a Phase 2 Clinical Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2024. 85: 517.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38494380>
1213. Battaglia, A., *et al.* Novel Insights into the Management of Oligometastatic Prostate Cancer: A Comprehensive Review. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2019. 2: 174.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31017094>
1214. Connor, M.J., *et al.* Targeting Oligometastasis with Stereotactic Ablative Radiation Therapy or Surgery in Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review of Prospective Clinical Trials. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2020. 3: 582.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32891600>
1215. Marvaso, G., *et al.* Oligorecurrent Prostate Cancer and Stereotactic Body Radiotherapy: Where Are We Now? A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Prospective Studies. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2021. 27: 19.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34337513>
1216. Devos, G., *et al.* Oncological Outcomes of Metastasis-Directed Therapy in Oligorecurrent Prostate Cancer Patients Following Radical Prostatectomy. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2020. 12.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32823690>
1217. Miszczyk, M., *et al.* The Efficacy and Safety of Metastasis-directed Therapy in Patients with Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Prospective Studies. *Eur Urol*, 2024. 85: 125.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37945451>
1218. Scher, H.I., *et al.* Trial Design and Objectives for Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer: Updated Recommendations From the Prostate Cancer Clinical Trials Working Group 3. *J Clin Oncol*, 2016. 34: 1402.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26903579>

1219. Eisenhauer, E.A., *et al.* New response evaluation criteria in solid tumours: revised RECIST guideline (version 1.1). *Eur J Cancer*, 2009. 45: 228.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19097774>
1220. FDA approves liquid biopsy NGS companion diagnostic test for multiple cancers and biomarkers. 2020. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-approves-liquid-biopsy-ngs-companion-diagnostic-test-multiple-cancers-and-biomarkers>
1221. Lotan, T.L., *et al.* Report From the International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) Consultation Conference on Molecular Pathology of Urogenital Cancers. I. Molecular Biomarkers in Prostate Cancer. *Am J Surg Pathol*, 2020. 44: e15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32044806>
1222. Dienstmann, R., *et al.* Standardized decision support in next generation sequencing reports of somatic cancer variants. *Mol Oncol*, 2014. 8: 859.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24768039>
1223. Beer, T.M., *et al.* Enzalutamide in Men with Chemotherapy-naive Metastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer: Extended Analysis of the Phase 3 PREVAIL Study. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 151.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27477525>
1224. Hussain, M., *et al.* LBA8 - PROfound: Phase III study of olaparib versus enzalutamide or abiraterone for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with homologous recombination repair (HRR) gene alterations. *Ann Oncol*, 2019. 30: v881.
[https://www.annalsofoncology.org/article/S0923-7534\(19\)58212-6/fulltext](https://www.annalsofoncology.org/article/S0923-7534(19)58212-6/fulltext)
1225. Hussain, M., *et al.* Survival with Olaparib in Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2020. 383: 2345.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32955174>
1226. Clarke, N.W., *et al.* Abiraterone and Olaparib for Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *NEJM Evidence*, 2022. 1: EVIDoA2200043.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38319800>
1227. Saad, F., *et al.* Olaparib plus abiraterone versus placebo plus abiraterone in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (PROpel): final prespecified overall survival results of a randomised, double-blind, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2023. 24: 1094.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37714168>
1228. FDA approves olaparib with abiraterone and prednisone (or prednisolone) for BRCA-mutated metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. 2023.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drug-approvals-and-databases/fda-approves-olaparib-abiraterone-and-prednisone-or-prednisolone-brca-mutated-metastatic-castration>
1229. FDA D.I.S.C.O. Burst Edition: FDA approval of Lynparza (olaparib), with abiraterone and prednisone, for BRCA-mutated metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. 2023.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-disco-burst-edition-fda-approval-lynparza-olaparib-abiraterone-and-prednisone-brca-mutated>
1230. Chi, K.N., *et al.* Phase 3 MAGNITUDE study: First results of niraparib (NIRA) with abiraterone acetate and prednisone (AAP) as first-line therapy in patients (pts) with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with and without homologous recombination repair (HRR) gene alterations. *J Clin Oncol*, 2022. 40: 12.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/10.1200/JCO.2022.40.6_suppl.012
1231. Chi, K.N., *et al.* Niraparib plus abiraterone acetate with prednisone in patients with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer and homologous recombination repair gene alterations: second interim analysis of the randomized phase III MAGNITUDE trial. *Ann Oncol*, 2023. 34: 772.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37399894>
1232. EMA. Akeega. 2023.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/akeega>
1233. Agarwal, N., *et al.* Talazoparib plus enzalutamide in men with first-line metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (TALAPRO-2): a randomised, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial. *Lancet*, 2023. 402: 291.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37285865>
1234. Fizazi, K., *et al.* First-line talazoparib with enzalutamide in HRR-deficient metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: the phase 3 TALAPRO-2 trial. *Nature Med*, 2023.
<https://www.nature.com/articles/s41591-023-02704-x>

1235. FDA approves talazoparib with enzalutamide for HRR gene-mutated metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. 2023.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drug-approvals-and-databases/fda-approves-talazoparib-enzalutamide-hrr-gene-mutated-metastatic-castration-resistant-prostate>
1236. FDA. Pembrolizumab (KEYTRUDA). 2016. 2022.
<https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/pembrolizumab-keytruda>
1237. de Wit, R., *et al.* Cabazitaxel versus Abiraterone or Enzalutamide in Metastatic Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2019. 381: 2506.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31566937>
1238. Lorigo, Y., *et al.* Prior long response to androgen deprivation predicts response to next-generation androgen receptor axis targeted drugs in castration resistant prostate cancer. *Eur J Cancer*, 2015. 51: 1946.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26208462>
1239. de Bono, J.S., *et al.* Antitumour Activity and Safety of Enzalutamide in Patients with Metastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer Previously Treated with Abiraterone Acetate Plus Prednisone for \geq 24 weeks in Europe. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 74: 37.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28844372>
1240. Heiss, B.L., *et al.* US Food and Drug Administration Approval Summary: Talazoparib in Combination With Enzalutamide for Treatment of Patients With Homologous Recombination Repair Gene-Mutated Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2024. 42: 1851.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38452327>
1241. Fallah, J., *et al.* FDA Approval Summary: Olaparib in Combination With Abiraterone for Treatment of Patients With BRCA-Mutated Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2024. 42: 605.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38127780>
1242. Fallah, J., *et al.* Efficacy of Poly(ADP-ribose) Polymerase Inhibitors by Individual Genes in Homologous Recombination Repair Gene-Mutated Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer: A US Food and Drug Administration Pooled Analysis. *J Clin Oncol*, 2024. 42: 1687.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38484203>
1243. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Rucaparib or Physician's Choice in Metastatic Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2023. 388: 719.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36795891>
1244. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Disease and host characteristics as predictors of time to first bone metastasis and death in men with progressive castration-resistant nonmetastatic prostate cancer. *Cancer*, 2011. 117: 2077.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21523719>
1245. Crawford, E.D., *et al.* Challenges and recommendations for early identification of metastatic disease in prostate cancer. *Urology*, 2014. 83: 664.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24411213>
1246. Fendler, W.P., *et al.* Prostate-Specific Membrane Antigen Ligand Positron Emission Tomography in Men with Nonmetastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2019. 25: 7448.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31511295>
1247. Hussain, M., *et al.* Enzalutamide in Men with Nonmetastatic, Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2018. 378: 2465.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29949494>
1248. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Apalutamide Treatment and Metastasis-free Survival in Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2018. 378: 1408.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29420164>
1249. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Darolutamide in Nonmetastatic, Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2019. 380: 1235.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30763142>
1250. Hussain, M., *et al.* Effects of continued androgen-deprivation therapy and other prognostic factors on response and survival in phase II chemotherapy trials for hormone-refractory prostate cancer: a Southwest Oncology Group report. *J Clin Oncol*, 1994. 12: 1868.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8083710>
1251. Taylor, C.D., *et al.* Importance of continued testicular suppression in hormone-refractory prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 1993. 11: 2167.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8229130>
1252. Ryan, C.J., *et al.* Abiraterone in metastatic prostate cancer without previous chemotherapy. *N Engl J*

- Med, 2013. 368: 138.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23228172>
1253. Ryan, C.J., *et al.* Abiraterone acetate plus prednisone versus placebo plus prednisone in chemotherapy-naive men with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (COU-AA-302): final overall survival analysis of a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase 3 study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2015. 16: 152.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25601341>
1254. Roviello, G., *et al.* Targeting the androgenic pathway in elderly patients with castration-resistant prostate cancer: A meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 2016. 95: e4636.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27787354>
1255. Beer, T.M., *et al.* Enzalutamide in metastatic prostate cancer before chemotherapy. *N Engl J Med*, 2014. 371: 424.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24881730>
1256. Graff, J.N., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of enzalutamide in patients 75 years or older with chemotherapy-naive metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: results from PREVAIL. *Ann Oncol*, 2016. 27: 286.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26578735>
1257. Evans, C.P., *et al.* The PREVAIL Study: Primary Outcomes by Site and Extent of Baseline Disease for Enzalutamide-treated Men with Chemotherapy-naive Metastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 675.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27006332>
1258. Shore, N.D., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of enzalutamide versus bicalutamide for patients with metastatic prostate cancer (TERRAIN): a randomised, double-blind, phase 2 study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2016. 17: 153.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26774508>
1259. de Bono, J.S., *et al.* Subsequent Chemotherapy and Treatment Patterns After Abiraterone Acetate in Patients with Metastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer: Post Hoc Analysis of COU-AA-302. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 656.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27402060>
1260. Tannock, I.F., *et al.* Docetaxel plus prednisone or mitoxantrone plus prednisone for advanced prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2004. 351: 1502.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15470213>
1261. Berthold, D.R., *et al.* Docetaxel plus prednisone or mitoxantrone plus prednisone for advanced prostate cancer: updated survival in the TAX 327 study. *J Clin Oncol*, 2008. 26: 242.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18182665>
1262. Armstrong, A.J., *et al.* Prediction of survival following first-line chemotherapy in men with castration-resistant metastatic prostate cancer. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2010. 16: 203.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20008841>
1263. Italiano, A., *et al.* Docetaxel-based chemotherapy in elderly patients (age 75 and older) with castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 55: 1368.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18706755>
1264. Horgan, A.M., *et al.* Tolerability and efficacy of docetaxel in older men with metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) in the TAX 327 trial. *J Geriatr Oncol*, 2014. 5: 119.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24495703>
1265. Kellokumpu-Lehtinen, P.L., *et al.* 2-Weekly versus 3-weekly docetaxel to treat castration-resistant advanced prostate cancer: a randomised, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2013. 14: 117.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23294853>
1266. Kantoff, P.W., *et al.* Sipuleucel-T immunotherapy for castration-resistant prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2010. 363: 411.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20818862>
1267. Hussain, M., *et al.* Abiraterone, Olaparib, or Abiraterone + Olaparib in First-Line Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer with DNA Repair Defects (BRCAAway). *Clin Cancer Res*, 2024. 30: 4318.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39115414>
1268. Fizazi, K., *et al.* First-line talazoparib with enzalutamide in HRR-deficient metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: the phase 3 TALAPRO-2 trial. *Nat Med*, 2024. 30: 257.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38049622>
1269. EMA. Talzenna - opinion on variation to marketing authorisation. 2023.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/variation/talzenna>

1270. Yazgan, S.C., *et al.* Thromboembolic risk in prostate cancer patients treated with PARP inhibitors: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*, 2024. 198: 104376.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38685459>
1271. Morice, P.M., *et al.* Myelodysplastic syndrome and acute myeloid leukaemia in patients treated with PARP inhibitors: a safety meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials and a retrospective study of the WHO pharmacovigilance database. *Lancet Haematol*, 2021. 8: e122.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33347814>
1272. de Bono, J.S., *et al.* Prednisone plus cabazitaxel or mitoxantrone for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer progressing after docetaxel treatment: a randomised open-label trial. *Lancet*, 2010. 376: 1147.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20888992>
1273. Sartor, A., *et al.* Cabazitaxel vs docetaxel in chemotherapy-naive (CN) patients with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC): A three-arm phase III study (FIRSTANA). *J Clin Oncol* 2016. 34: Abstract 5006.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/10.1200/JCO.2016.34.15_suppl.5006
1274. Eisenberger, M., *et al.* Phase III Study Comparing a Reduced Dose of Cabazitaxel (20 mg/m²) and the Currently Approved Dose (25 mg/m²) in Postdocetaxel Patients With Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer-PROSELICA. *J Clin Oncol*, 2017. 35: 3198.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28809610>
1275. Di Lorenzo, G., *et al.* Peg-filgrastim and cabazitaxel in prostate cancer patients. *Anticancer Drugs*, 2013. 24: 84.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23044721>
1276. de Bono, J.S., *et al.* Abiraterone and increased survival in metastatic prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2011. 364: 1995.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21612468>
1277. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Abiraterone acetate for treatment of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: final overall survival analysis of the COU-AA-301 randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase 3 study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2012. 13: 983.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22995653>
1278. Scher, H.I., *et al.* Increased survival with enzalutamide in prostate cancer after chemotherapy. *N Engl J Med*, 2012. 367: 1187.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22894553>
1279. Parker, C., *et al.* Alpha emitter radium-223 and survival in metastatic prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2013. 369: 213.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23863050>
1280. Hoskin, P., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of radium-223 dichloride in patients with castration-resistant prostate cancer and symptomatic bone metastases, with or without previous docetaxel use: a prespecified subgroup analysis from the randomised, double-blind, phase 3 ALSYMPCA trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2014. 15: 1397.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25439694>
1281. EMA restricts use of prostate cancer medicine Xofigo. 2018. 2022.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/news/ema-restricts-use-prostate-cancer-medicine-xofigo>
1282. Smith, M., *et al.* Addition of radium-223 to abiraterone acetate and prednisone or prednisolone in patients with castration-resistant prostate cancer and bone metastases (ERA 223): a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2019. 20: 408.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30738780>
1283. Bryce, A.H., *et al.* Rucaparib for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC): TRITON3 interim overall survival and efficacy of rucaparib vs docetaxel or second-generation androgen pathway inhibitor therapy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 41: 18.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/pdf/10.1200/JCO.2023.41.6_suppl.18
1284. Morris, M.J., *et al.* (177)Lu-PSMA-617 versus a change of androgen receptor pathway inhibitor therapy for taxane-naive patients with progressive metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (PSMAfore): a phase 3, randomised, controlled trial. *Lancet*, 2024. 404: 1227.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39293462>
1285. Rubin, K.H., *et al.* Comparison of different screening tools (FRAX(R), OST, ORAI, OSIRIS, SCORE and age alone) to identify women with increased risk of fracture. A population-based prospective study. *Bone*, 2013. 56: 16.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23669650>
1286. Conde, F.A., *et al.* Risk factors for male osteoporosis. *Urol Oncol*, 2003. 21: 380.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14670549>

1287. Mateo, J., *et al.* DNA-Repair Defects and Olaparib in Metastatic Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2015. 373: 1697.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26510020>
1288. de Bono, J.S., *et al.* Final overall survival (OS) analysis of PROfound: Olaparib vs physician's choice of enzalutamide or abiraterone in patients (pts) with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) and homologous recombination repair (HRR) gene alterations. *Ann Oncol* 2020. 31: S507.
[https://www.annalsofoncology.org/article/S0923-7534\(20\)40866-X/fulltext](https://www.annalsofoncology.org/article/S0923-7534(20)40866-X/fulltext)
1289. Badrising, S., *et al.* Clinical activity and tolerability of enzalutamide (MDV3100) in patients with metastatic, castration-resistant prostate cancer who progress after docetaxel and abiraterone treatment. *Cancer*, 2014. 120: 968.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24382803>
1290. Zhang, T., *et al.* Enzalutamide versus abiraterone acetate for the treatment of men with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Expert Opin Pharmacother*, 2015. 16: 473.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25534660>
1291. Antonarakis, E.S., *et al.* AR-V7 and resistance to enzalutamide and abiraterone in prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2014. 371: 1028.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25184630>
1292. Attard, G., *et al.* Abiraterone Alone or in Combination With Enzalutamide in Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer With Rising Prostate-Specific Antigen During Enzalutamide Treatment. *J Clin Oncol*, 2018. 36: 2639.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30028657>
1293. Serafini, A.N. Current status of systemic intravenous radiopharmaceuticals for the treatment of painful metastatic bone disease. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 1994. 30: 1187.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7525518>
1294. Ballinger, J.R. Theranostic radiopharmaceuticals: established agents in current use. *Br J Radiol*, 2018. 91: 20170969.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29474096>
1295. Emmett, L., *et al.* Lutetium (177) PSMA radionuclide therapy for men with prostate cancer: a review of the current literature and discussion of practical aspects of therapy. *J Med Radiat Sci*, 2017. 64: 52.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28303694>
1296. Calopedos, R.J.S., *et al.* Lutetium-177-labelled anti-prostate-specific membrane antigen antibody and ligands for the treatment of metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2017. 20: 352.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28440324>
1297. Hofman, M.S., *et al.* [(177)Lu]-PSMA-617 radionuclide treatment in patients with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (LuPSMA trial): a single-centre, single-arm, phase 2 study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2018. 19: 825.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29752180>
1298. Emmett, L., *et al.* Results of a Prospective Phase 2 Pilot Trial of (177)Lu-PSMA-617 Therapy for Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer Including Imaging Predictors of Treatment Response and Patterns of Progression. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2019. 17: 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30425003>
1299. Hofman, M.S., *et al.* [(177)Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 versus cabazitaxel in patients with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (TheraP): a randomised, open-label, phase 2 trial. *Lancet*, 2021. 397: 797.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33581798>
1300. Hofman, M.S., *et al.* TheraP: 177Lu-PSMA-617 (LuPSMA) versus cabazitaxel in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) progressing after docetaxel—Overall survival after median follow-up of 3 years (ANZUP 1603). *J Clin Oncol*, 2022. 40: 5000.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/abs/10.1200/JCO.2022.40.16_suppl.5000
1301. Hofman, M.S., *et al.* Overall survival with [(177)Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 versus cabazitaxel in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (TheraP): secondary outcomes of a randomised, open-label, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2024. 25: 99.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38043558>
1302. Sartor, O., *et al.* Lutetium-177-PSMA-617 for Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2021. 385: 1091.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34161051>
1303. Sadaghiani, M.S., *et al.* (177) Lu-PSMA radioligand therapy effectiveness in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: An updated systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate*, 2022. 82: 826.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35286735>

1304. Lee, D.Y., *et al.* Effects of (225)Ac-Labeled Prostate-Specific Membrane Antigen Radioligand Therapy in Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer: A Meta-Analysis. *J Nucl Med*, 2022. 63: 840. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34503960>
1305. Sathekge, M.M., *et al.* Actinium-225-PSMA radioligand therapy of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (WARMTH Act): a multicentre, retrospective study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2024. 25: 175. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38218192>
1306. Ballal, S., *et al.* Long-term survival outcomes of salvage [(225)Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 targeted alpha therapy in patients with PSMA-expressing end-stage metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: a real-world study. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*, 2023. 50: 3777. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37462775>
1307. Emmett, L., *et al.* [(177)Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 plus enzalutamide in patients with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (ENZA-p): an open-label, multicentre, randomised, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2024. 25: 563. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38621400>
1308. EMA. Lynparza (olaparib). 2014. 2022. <https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/lynparza>
1309. Abida, W., *et al.* Rucaparib in Men With Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer Harboring a BRCA1 or BRCA2 Gene Alteration. *J Clin Oncol*, 2020. 38: 3763. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32795228>
1310. FDA grants accelerated approval to rucaparib for BRCA-mutated metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. 2020. 2022. <https://www.fda.gov/drugs/resources-information-approved-drugs/fda-grants-accelerated-approval-rucaparib-brca-mutated-metastatic-castration-resistant-prostate>
1311. Khalaf, D.J., *et al.* Optimal sequencing of enzalutamide and abiraterone acetate plus prednisone in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: a multicentre, randomised, open-label, phase 2, crossover trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2019. 20: 1730. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31727538>
1312. Miyake, H., *et al.* Comparative Assessment of Efficacies Between 2 Alternative Therapeutic Sequences With Novel Androgen Receptor-Axis-Targeted Agents in Patients With Chemotherapy-Naive Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2017. 15: e591. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28063845>
1313. Terada, N., *et al.* Exploring the optimal sequence of abiraterone and enzalutamide in patients with chemotherapy-naive castration-resistant prostate cancer: The Kyoto-Baltimore collaboration. *Int J Urol*, 2017. 24: 441. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28455853>
1314. Azad, A.A., *et al.* Efficacy of enzalutamide following abiraterone acetate in chemotherapy-naive metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer patients. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 23. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25018038>
1315. Kobayashi, T., *et al.* Sequential Use of Androgen Receptor Axis-targeted Agents in Chemotherapy-naive Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer: A Multicenter Retrospective Analysis With 3-Year Follow-up. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2020. 18: e46. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31759831>
1316. Komura, K., *et al.* Comparison of Radiographic Progression-Free Survival and PSA Response on Sequential Treatment Using Abiraterone and Enzalutamide for Newly Diagnosed Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer: A Propensity Score Matched Analysis from Multicenter Cohort. *J Clin Med*, 2019. 8. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31430900>
1317. Matsubara, N., *et al.* Abiraterone Followed by Enzalutamide Versus Enzalutamide Followed by Abiraterone in Chemotherapy-naive Patients With Metastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2018. 16: 142. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29042308>
1318. Maughan, B.L., *et al.* Comparing Sequencing of Abiraterone and Enzalutamide in Men With Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer: A Retrospective Study. *Prostate*, 2017. 77: 33. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27527643>
1319. Mori, K., *et al.* Sequential therapy of abiraterone and enzalutamide in castration-resistant prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2020. 23: 539. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32152435>
1320. Lavaud, P., *et al.* Anticancer Activity and Tolerance of Treatments Received Beyond Progression in Men Treated Upfront with Androgen Deprivation Therapy With or Without Docetaxel for Metastatic Castration-naive Prostate Cancer in the GETUG-AFU 15 Phase 3 Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 696. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29074061>

1321. Hager, S., *et al.* Anti-tumour activity of platinum compounds in advanced prostate cancer—a systematic literature review. *Ann Oncol*, 2016. 27: 975.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27052650>
1322. Corn, P.G., *et al.* Cabazitaxel plus carboplatin for the treatment of men with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancers: a randomised, open-label, phase 1-2 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2019. 20: 1432.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31515154>
1323. Aparicio, A.M., *et al.* Platinum-based chemotherapy for variant castrate-resistant prostate cancer. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2013. 19: 3621.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23649003>
1324. Mota, J.M., *et al.* Platinum-Based Chemotherapy in Metastatic Prostate Cancer With DNA Repair Gene Alterations. *JCO Precis Oncol*, 2020. 4: 355.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32856010>
1325. Fazekas, T., *et al.* Poly (ADP-ribose) Polymerase Inhibitors Have Comparable Efficacy with Platinum Chemotherapy in Patients with BRCA-positive Metastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer. A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 365.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37722977>
1326. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Nonmetastatic, Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer and Survival with Darolutamide. *N Engl J Med*, 2020. 383: 1040.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32905676>
1327. Sternberg, C.N., *et al.* Enzalutamide and Survival in Nonmetastatic, Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2020. 382: 2197.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32469184>
1328. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Apalutamide and Overall Survival in Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 79: 150.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32907777>
1329. Petrylak, D.P., *et al.* Docetaxel and estramustine compared with mitoxantrone and prednisone for advanced refractory prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2004. 351: 1513.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15470214>
1330. Rathkopf, D.E., *et al.* Updated interim efficacy analysis and long-term safety of abiraterone acetate in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer patients without prior chemotherapy (COU-AA-302). *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 815.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24647231>
1331. Small, E.J., *et al.* Placebo-controlled phase III trial of immunologic therapy with sipuleucel-T (APC8015) in patients with metastatic, asymptomatic hormone refractory prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2006. 24: 3089.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16809734>
1332. Chi, K.N., *et al.* Niraparib and Abiraterone Acetate for Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 41: 3339.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36952634>
1333. Bahl, A., *et al.* Impact of cabazitaxel on 2-year survival and palliation of tumour-related pain in men with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer treated in the TROPIC trial. *Ann Oncol*, 2013. 24: 2402.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23723295>
1334. Gillessen, S., *et al.* Management of patients with advanced prostate cancer: recommendations of the St Gallen Advanced Prostate Cancer Consensus Conference (APCCC) 2015. *Ann Oncol*, 2015. 26: 1589.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26041764>
1335. Saad, F., *et al.* Prostate-specific Antigen Progression in Enzalutamide-treated Men with Nonmetastatic Castration-resistant Prostate Cancer: Any Rise in Prostate-specific Antigen May Require Closer Monitoring. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 78: 847.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33010985>
1336. Aggarwal, R., *et al.* Heterogeneous Flare in Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen Positron Emission Tomography Tracer Uptake with Initiation of Androgen Pathway Blockade in Metastatic Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2018. 1: 78.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31100231>
1337. Payne, H., *et al.* Prostate-specific antigen: an evolving role in diagnosis, monitoring, and treatment evaluation in prostate cancer. *Urol Oncol*, 2011. 29: 593.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20060331>
1338. Pezaro, C., *et al.* Visceral disease in castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 270.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24295792>

1339. Gillessen, S., *et al.* Management of Patients with Advanced Prostate Cancer: Report of the Advanced Prostate Cancer Consensus Conference 2019. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 508.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32001144>
1340. Gillessen, S., *et al.* Management of patients with advanced prostate cancer-metastatic and/or castration-resistant prostate cancer: Report of the Advanced Prostate Cancer Consensus Conference (APCCC) 2022. *Eur J Cancer*, 2023. 185: 178.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37003085>
1341. Rao, K., *et al.* Uro-oncology multidisciplinary meetings at an Australian tertiary referral centre—impact on clinical decision-making and implications for patient inclusion. *BJU Int*, 2014. 114 Suppl 1: 50.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25070295>
1342. Cereceda, L.E., *et al.* Management of vertebral metastases in prostate cancer: a retrospective analysis in 119 patients. *Clin Prostate Cancer*, 2003. 2: 34.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15046682>
1343. Chaichana, K.L., *et al.* Outcome following decompressive surgery for different histological types of metastatic tumors causing epidural spinal cord compression. Clinical article. *J Neurosurg Spine*, 2009. 11: 56.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19569942>
1344. Hoskin, P., *et al.* A Multicenter Randomized Trial of Ibandronate Compared With Single-Dose Radiotherapy for Localized Metastatic Bone Pain in Prostate Cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2015. 107.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26242893>
1345. Frankel, B.M., *et al.* Percutaneous vertebral augmentation: an elevation in adjacent-level fracture risk in kyphoplasty as compared with vertebroplasty. *Spine J*, 2007. 7: 575.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17905320>
1346. Dutka, J., *et al.* Time of survival and quality of life of the patients operatively treated due to pathological fractures due to bone metastases. *Ortop Traumatol Rehabil*, 2003. 5: 276.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18034018>
1347. Frankel, B.M., *et al.* Segmental polymethylmethacrylate-augmented pedicle screw fixation in patients with bone softening caused by osteoporosis and metastatic tumor involvement: a clinical evaluation. *Neurosurgery*, 2007. 61: 531.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17881965>
1348. Lawton, A.J., *et al.* Assessment and Management of Patients With Metastatic Spinal Cord Compression: A Multidisciplinary Review. *J Clin Oncol*, 2019. 37: 61.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30395488>
1349. Saad, F., *et al.* A randomized, placebo-controlled trial of zoledronic acid in patients with hormone-refractory metastatic prostate carcinoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2002. 94: 1458.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12359855>
1350. Fizazi, K., *et al.* Denosumab versus zoledronic acid for treatment of bone metastases in men with castration-resistant prostate cancer: a randomised, double-blind study. *Lancet*, 2011. 377: 813.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21353695>
1351. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Denosumab and bone-metastasis-free survival in men with castration-resistant prostate cancer: results of a phase 3, randomised, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*, 2012. 379: 39.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22093187>
1352. Marco, R.A., *et al.* Functional and oncological outcome of acetabular reconstruction for the treatment of metastatic disease. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*, 2000. 82: 642.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10819275>
1353. Stopeck, A.T., *et al.* Safety of long-term denosumab therapy: results from the open label extension phase of two phase 3 studies in patients with metastatic breast and prostate cancer. *Support Care Cancer*, 2016. 24: 447.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26335402>
1354. Aapro, M., *et al.* Guidance on the use of bisphosphonates in solid tumours: recommendations of an international expert panel. *Ann Oncol*, 2008. 19: 420.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17906299>
1355. Medication-Related Osteonecrosis of the Jaws, ed. S. Otto. 2015, Berlin Heidelberg.
1356. EMA. Xgeva. 2019. 2022.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/xgeva>
1357. Stopeck, A.T., *et al.* Denosumab compared with zoledronic acid for the treatment of bone metastases in patients with advanced breast cancer: a randomized, double-blind study. *J Clin Oncol*, 2010. 28: 5132.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21060033>

1358. Body, J.J., *et al.* Hypocalcaemia in patients with metastatic bone disease treated with denosumab. *Eur J Cancer*, 2015. 51: 1812.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26093811>
1359. Rice, S.M., *et al.* Depression and Prostate Cancer: Examining Comorbidity and Male-Specific Symptoms. *Am J Mens Health*, 2018. 12: 1864.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29957106>
1360. van Stam, M.A., *et al.* Prevalence and correlates of mental health problems in prostate cancer survivors: A case-control study comparing survivors with general population peers. *Urol Oncol*, 2017. 35: 531 e1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28457651>
1361. Stephenson, A.J., *et al.* Defining biochemical recurrence of prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy: a proposal for a standardized definition. *J Clin Oncol*, 2006. 24: 3973.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16921049>
1362. Horwitz, E.M., *et al.* Definitions of biochemical failure that best predict clinical failure in patients with prostate cancer treated with external beam radiation alone: a multi-institutional pooled analysis. *J Urol*, 2005. 173: 797.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15711272>
1363. Stamey, T.A., *et al.* Prostate specific antigen in the diagnosis and treatment of adenocarcinoma of the prostate. II. Radical prostatectomy treated patients. *J Urol*, 1989. 141: 1076.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2468795>
1364. Jackson, W.C., *et al.* Impact of Biochemical Failure After Salvage Radiation Therapy on Prostate Cancer-specific Mortality: Competition Between Age and Time to Biochemical Failure. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2018. 1: 276.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31100248>
1365. Grivas, N., *et al.* Ultrasensitive prostate-specific antigen level as a predictor of biochemical progression after robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: Towards risk adapted follow-up. *J Clin Lab Anal*, 2019. 33: e22693.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30365194>
1366. Shen, S., *et al.* Ultrasensitive serum prostate specific antigen nadir accurately predicts the risk of early relapse after radical prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2005. 173: 777.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15711268>
1367. Zakaria, A.S., *et al.* Detectable Prostate-specific antigen value between 0.01 and 0.1 ng/ml following robotic-assisted radical prostatectomy (RARP): does it correlate with future biochemical recurrence? *World J Urol*, 2021. 39: 1853.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32696130>
1368. Ray, M.E., *et al.* PSA nadir predicts biochemical and distant failures after external beam radiotherapy for prostate cancer: a multi-institutional analysis. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2006. 64: 1140.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16198506>
1369. Oefelein, M.G., *et al.* The incidence of prostate cancer progression with undetectable serum prostate specific antigen in a series of 394 radical prostatectomies. *J Urol*, 1995. 154: 2128.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7500474>
1370. Doneux, A., *et al.* The utility of digital rectal examination after radical radiotherapy for prostate cancer. *Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol)*, 2005. 17: 172.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15901001>
1371. Chaplin, B.J., *et al.* Digital rectal examination is no longer necessary in the routine follow-up of men with undetectable prostate specific antigen after radical prostatectomy: the implications for follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2005. 48: 906.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16126322>
1372. Warren, K.S., *et al.* Is routine digital rectal examination required for the followup of prostate cancer? *J Urol*, 2007. 178: 115.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17499293>
1373. Wilt, T.J., *et al.* Follow-up of Prostatectomy versus Observation for Early Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2017. 377: 132.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28700844>
1374. Beesley, L.J., *et al.* Individual and Population Comparisons of Surgery and Radiotherapy Outcomes in Prostate Cancer Using Bayesian Multistate Models. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2019. 2: e187765.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30707231>
1375. Marshall, C.H., *et al.* Timing of Androgen Deprivation Treatment for Men with Biochemical Recurrent Prostate Cancer in the Context of Novel Therapies. *J Urol*, 2021. 206: 623.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34003011>

1376. Loblaw, A., *et al.* Follow-up Care for Survivors of Prostate Cancer - Clinical Management: a Program in Evidence-Based Care Systematic Review and Clinical Practice Guideline. *Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol)*, 2017. 29: 711.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28928084>
1377. Thorstenson, A., *et al.* Incidence of fractures causing hospitalisation in prostate cancer patients: results from the population-based PCBaSe Sweden. *Eur J Cancer*, 2012. 48: 1672.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22386317>
1378. Franck Lissbrant, I., *et al.* Set-up and preliminary results from the Patient-overview Prostate Cancer. Longitudinal registration of treatment of advanced prostate cancer in the National Prostate Cancer Register of Sweden. *Scand J Urol*, 2020. 54: 227.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32363988>
1379. Saad, F., *et al.* Testosterone Breakthrough Rates during Androgen Deprivation Therapy for Castration Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *J Urol*, 2020. 204: 416.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32096678>
1380. Rouleau, M., *et al.* Discordance between testosterone measurement methods in castrated prostate cancer patients. *Endocr Connect*, 2019. 8: 132.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30673630>
1381. Morote, J., *et al.* Serum Testosterone Levels in Prostate Cancer Patients Undergoing Luteinizing Hormone-Releasing Hormone Agonist Therapy. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2018. 16: e491.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29198640>
1382. Long, M.E., *et al.* Decreased testosterone recovery after androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *Can J Urol*, 2021. 28: 10738.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34378507>
1383. Nascimento, B., *et al.* Testosterone Recovery Profiles After Cessation of Androgen Deprivation Therapy for Prostate Cancer. *J Sex Med*, 2019. 16: 872.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31080102>
1384. Beer, T.M., *et al.* Hepatic effects assessed by review of safety data in enzalutamide castration-resistant prostate cancer (CRPC) trials. *J Clin Oncol*, 2018. 36: 199.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/abs/10.1200/JCO.2018.36.6_suppl.199
1385. Yanagisawa, T., *et al.* Abiraterone acetate versus nonsteroidal antiandrogen with androgen deprivation therapy for high-risk metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer. *Prostate*, 2022. 82: 3.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34559410>
1386. Beer, T.M., *et al.* The prognostic value of hemoglobin change after initiating androgen-deprivation therapy for newly diagnosed metastatic prostate cancer: A multivariate analysis of Southwest Oncology Group Study 8894. *Cancer*, 2006. 107: 489.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16804926>
1387. Ebbinge, M., *et al.* Clinical and prognostic significance of changes in haemoglobin concentration during 1 year of androgen-deprivation therapy for hormone-naïve bone-metastatic prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2018. 122: 583.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29611275>
1388. Sini, C., *et al.* Dose-volume effects for pelvic bone marrow in predicting hematological toxicity in prostate cancer radiotherapy with pelvic node irradiation. *Radiother Oncol*, 2016. 118: 79.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26702990>
1389. Turner, P.G., *et al.* Toxicity and Efficacy of Concurrent Androgen Deprivation Therapy, Pelvic Radiotherapy, and Radium-223 in Patients with *De Novo* Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2021. 27: 4549.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34187853>
1390. Iacovelli, R., *et al.* The Cardiovascular Toxicity of Abiraterone and Enzalutamide in Prostate Cancer. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2018. 16: e645.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29339044>
1391. Rizzo, A., *et al.* Risk of cardiovascular toxicities and hypertension in nonmetastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer patients treated with novel hormonal agents: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol*, 2021. 17: 1237.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34407702>
1392. Gong, J., *et al.* Reduced Cardiorespiratory Fitness and Increased Cardiovascular Mortality After Prolonged Androgen Deprivation Therapy for Prostate Cancer. *JACC CardioOncol*, 2020. 2: 553.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34396266>

1393. Attard, G., *et al.* Assessment of the Safety of Glucocorticoid Regimens in Combination With Abiraterone Acetate for Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer: A Randomized, Open-label Phase 2 Study. *JAMA Oncol*, 2019. 5: 1159.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31246234>
1394. James, N., *et al.* TRAPEZE: a randomised controlled trial of the clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of chemotherapy with zoledronic acid, strontium-89, or both, in men with bony metastatic castration-refractory prostate cancer. *Health Technol Assess*, 2016. 20: 1.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27434595>
1395. Ng, H.S., *et al.* Development of comorbidities in men with prostate cancer treated with androgen deprivation therapy: an Australian population-based cohort study. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2018. 21: 403.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29720722>
1396. Kanis, J.A., *et al.* Case finding for the management of osteoporosis with FRAX—assessment and intervention thresholds for the UK. *Osteoporos Int*, 2008. 19: 1395.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18751937>
1397. Cianferotti, L., *et al.* The prevention of fragility fractures in patients with non-metastatic prostate cancer: a position statement by the international osteoporosis foundation. *Oncotarget*, 2017. 8: 75646.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29088899>
1398. Hamdy, R.C., *et al.* Algorithm for the management of osteoporosis. *South Med J*, 2010. 103: 1009.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20818296>
1399. Higano, C.S. Bone loss and the evolving role of bisphosphonate therapy in prostate cancer. *Urol Oncol*, 2003. 21: 392.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14670551>
1400. Sharma, A., *et al.* A prospective longitudinal study to evaluate bone health, implication of FRAX tool and impact on quality of life (FACT-P) in advanced prostate cancer patients. *Am J Clin Exp Urol*, 2021. 9: 211.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34327260>
- 1401.r Edmunds, K., *et al.* Incidence of the adverse effects of androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer: a systematic literature review. *Support Care Cancer*, 2020. 28: 2079.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31912360>
1402. Daniell, H.W. Osteoporosis due to androgen deprivation therapy in men with prostate cancer. *Urology*, 2001. 58: 101.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11502461>
1403. Edmunds, K., *et al.* The role of exercise in the management of adverse effects of androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer: a rapid review. *Support Care Cancer*, 2020. 28: 5661.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32699997>
1404. Thomas, H.R., *et al.* Association Between Androgen Deprivation Therapy and Patient-reported Depression in Men With Recurrent Prostate Cancer. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2018. 16: 313.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29866496>
1405. Hoogland, A.I., *et al.* Systemic inflammation and symptomatology in patients with prostate cancer treated with androgen deprivation therapy: Preliminary findings. *Cancer*, 2021. 127: 1476.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33378113>
1406. Gonzalez, B.D., *et al.* Course and Predictors of Cognitive Function in Patients With Prostate Cancer Receiving Androgen-Deprivation Therapy: A Controlled Comparison. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 2021.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25964245>
1407. Duthie, C.J., *et al.* Maintenance of sexual activity following androgen deprivation in males. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*, 2020. 153: 103064.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32712517>
1408. Miller, P.D., *et al.* Prostate specific antigen and bone scan correlation in the staging and monitoring of patients with prostatic cancer. *Br J Urol*, 1992. 70: 295.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1384920>
1409. Bryce, A.H., *et al.* Patterns of Cancer Progression of Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer in the ECOG3805 CHARTED Trial. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2020. 3: 717.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32807727>
1410. Padhani, A.R., *et al.* Rationale for Modernising Imaging in Advanced Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2017. 3: 223.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28753774>

1411. Lecouvet, F.E., *et al.* Monitoring the response of bone metastases to treatment with Magnetic Resonance Imaging and nuclear medicine techniques: a review and position statement by the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer imaging group. *Eur J Cancer*, 2014. 50: 2519.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25139492>
1412. Ulmert, D., *et al.* A novel automated platform for quantifying the extent of skeletal tumour involvement in prostate cancer patients using the Bone Scan Index. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 62: 78.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22306323>
1413. Padhani, A.R., *et al.* METastasis Reporting and Data System for Prostate Cancer: Practical Guidelines for Acquisition, Interpretation, and Reporting of Whole-body Magnetic Resonance Imaging-based Evaluations of Multiorgan Involvement in Advanced Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 71: 81.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27317091>
1414. Trabulsi, E.J., *et al.* Optimum Imaging Strategies for Advanced Prostate Cancer: ASCO Guideline. *J Clin Oncol*, 2020. 38: 1963.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31940221>
1415. Bryce, A.H., *et al.* Radiographic progression with nonrising PSA in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: post hoc analysis of PREVAL. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2017. 20: 221.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28117385>
1416. Bourke, L., *et al.* Survivorship and improving quality of life in men with prostate cancer. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 374.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25941049>
1417. Prashar, J., *et al.* Supportive care needs of men with prostate cancer: A systematic review update. *Eur J Cancer Care (Engl)*, 2022. 31: e13541.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35038783>
1418. Resnick, M.J., *et al.* Prostate cancer survivorship care guideline: American Society of Clinical Oncology Clinical Practice Guideline endorsement. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015. 33: 1078.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25667275>
1419. Yiannopoulou, K.G., *et al.* Cognitive and Psychological Impacts of Different Treatment Options for Prostate Cancer: A Critical Analysis. *Curr Urol*, 2020. 14: 169.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33488334>
1420. Venderbos, L.D.F., *et al.* Europa Uomo Patient Reported Outcome Study (EUPROMS): Descriptive Statistics of a Prostate Cancer Survey from Patients for Patients. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2021. 7: 987.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33281109>
1421. Downing, A., *et al.* Quality of life in men living with advanced and localised prostate cancer in the UK: a population-based study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2019. 20: 436.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30713036>
1422. Luckenbaugh, A.N., *et al.* Association between Treatment for Localized Prostate Cancer and Mental Health Outcomes. *J Urol*, 2022. 207: 1029.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34978488>
1423. Thompson, D., *et al.* Long-term Health-related Quality of Life in Patients on Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 4.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36156268>
1424. Marzouk, K., *et al.* Long-Term Cancer Specific Anxiety in Men Undergoing Active Surveillance of Prostate Cancer: Findings from a Large Prospective Cohort. *J Urol*, 2018. 200: 1250.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29886089>
1425. Carlsson, S., *et al.* Surgery-related complications in 1253 robot-assisted and 485 open retropubic radical prostatectomies at the Karolinska University Hospital, Sweden. *Urology*, 2010. 75: 1092.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20022085>
1426. Ficarra, V., *et al.* Retropubic, laparoscopic, and robot-assisted radical prostatectomy: a systematic review and cumulative analysis of comparative studies. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 55: 1037.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19185977>
1427. Rabbani, F., *et al.* Comprehensive standardized report of complications of retropubic and laparoscopic radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 57: 371.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19945779>
1428. Resnick, M.J., *et al.* Long-term functional outcomes after treatment for localized prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2013. 368: 436.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23363497>
1429. Parekh, A., *et al.* Reduced penile size and treatment regret in men with recurrent prostate cancer after surgery, radiotherapy plus androgen deprivation, or radiotherapy alone. *Urology*, 2013. 81: 130.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23273077>

1430. Msezane, L.P., *et al.* Bladder neck contracture after robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy: evaluation of incidence and risk factors and impact on urinary function. *J Endourol*, 2008. 22: 377.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18095861>
1431. Haglind, E., *et al.* Corrigendum re: "Urinary Incontinence and Erectile Dysfunction After Robotic Versus Open Radical Prostatectomy: A Prospective, Controlled, Nonrandomised Trial" [*Eur Urol* 2015;68:216-25]. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: e81.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28552613>
1432. Park, M.Y., *et al.* Comparison of biopsy strategies for prostate biopsy according to lesion size and PSA density in MRI-directed biopsy pathway. *Abdom Radiol (NY)*, 2020. 45: 4166.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32737545>
1433. Coughlin, G.D., *et al.* Robot-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy versus open radical retropubic prostatectomy: 24-month outcomes from a randomised controlled study. *Lancet Oncol*, 2018. 19: 1051.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30017351>
1434. Alder, R., *et al.* Incidence of Inguinal Hernia after Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 265.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31039101>
1435. Fernando, H., *et al.* Incidence, Predictive Factors and Preventive Measures for Inguinal Hernia following Robotic and Laparoscopic Radical Prostatectomy: A Systematic Review. *J Urol*, 2019. 201: 1072.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30730406>
1436. Chiong, E., *et al.* Port-site hernias occurring after the use of bladeless radially expanding trocars. *Urology*, 2010. 75: 574.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19854489>
1437. Clinckaert, A., *et al.* The Prevalence of Lower Limb and Genital Lymphedema after Prostate Cancer Treatment: A Systematic Review. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2022. 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36428759>
1438. Donovan, J.L., *et al.* Patient-Reported Outcomes after Monitoring, Surgery, or Radiotherapy for Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2016. 375: 1425.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27626365>
1439. Barocas, D.A., *et al.* Association Between Radiation Therapy, Surgery, or Observation for Localized Prostate Cancer and Patient-Reported Outcomes After 3 Years. *JAMA*, 2017. 317: 1126.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28324093>
1440. Wallis, C.J., *et al.* Second malignancies after radiotherapy for prostate cancer: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*, 2016. 352: i851.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26936410>
1441. Movsas, B., *et al.* Dose-Escalated Radiation Alone or in Combination With Short-Term Total Androgen Suppression for Intermediate-Risk Prostate Cancer: Patient-Reported Outcomes From NRG/Radiation Therapy Oncology Group 0815 Randomized Trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2023. 41: 3217.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37104723>
1442. Budaus, L., *et al.* Functional outcomes and complications following radiation therapy for prostate cancer: a critical analysis of the literature. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 61: 112.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22001105>
1443. Donovan, K.A., *et al.* Psychological effects of androgen-deprivation therapy on men with prostate cancer and their partners. *Cancer*, 2015. 121: 4286.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26372364>
1444. Nguyen, P.L., *et al.* Adverse effects of androgen deprivation therapy and strategies to mitigate them. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 825.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25097095>
1445. Cherrier, M.M., *et al.* Cognitive and mood changes in men undergoing intermittent combined androgen blockade for non-metastatic prostate cancer. *Psychooncology*, 2009. 18: 237.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18636420>
1446. Alibhai, S.M., *et al.* Effects of long-term androgen deprivation therapy on cognitive function over 36 months in men with prostate cancer. *Cancer*, 2017. 123: 237.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27583806>
1447. Herr, H.W., *et al.* Quality of life of asymptomatic men with nonmetastatic prostate cancer on androgen deprivation therapy. *J Urol*, 2000. 163: 1743.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10799173>

1448. Tombal, B.F., *et al.* A Phase 2 Randomized Open-label Study of Oral Darolutamide Monotherapy Versus Androgen Deprivation Therapy in Men with Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer (EORTC-GUCG 1532). *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2024. 7: 1051.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38272747>
1449. Becker, B., *et al.* Comparison of Intermittent and Continuous Androgen Deprivation Therapy in Prostate Cancer Patients: An Up-to-Date Meta-analysis for Urologists and Medical Providers. *Urol Pract*, 2023. 10: 424.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37505912>
1450. O'Sullivan, N.J., *et al.* Surgical versus medical castration in the treatment of metastatic prostate cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Clin Urol*, 2023.
<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/20514158231212534>
1451. Potosky, A.L., *et al.* Quality-of-life outcomes after primary androgen deprivation therapy: results from the Prostate Cancer Outcomes Study. *J Clin Oncol*, 2001. 19: 3750.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11533098>
1452. Saad, F., *et al.* Relugolix vs. Leuprolide Effects on Castration Resistance-Free Survival from the Phase 3 HERO Study in Men with Advanced Prostate Cancer. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2023. 15.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37835548>
1453. Mell, L.K., *et al.* Effects of Androgen Deprivation Therapy on Prostate Cancer Outcomes According to Competing Event Risk: Secondary Analysis of a Phase 3 Randomised Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2024. 85: 373.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36710205>
1454. Yanagisawa, T., *et al.* Impact of performance status on efficacy of systemic therapy for prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. *BJU Int*, 2023. 132: 365.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37395151>
1455. Walker, L.M., *et al.* Luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone agonists: a quick reference for prevalence rates of potential adverse effects. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2013. 11: 375.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23891497>
1456. Elliott, S., *et al.* Androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer: recommendations to improve patient and partner quality of life. *J Sex Med*, 2010. 7: 2996.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20626600>
1457. Iversen, P., *et al.* Bicalutamide monotherapy compared with castration in patients with nonmetastatic locally advanced prostate cancer: 6.3 years of followup. *J Urol*, 2000. 164: 1579.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11025708>
1458. Iversen, P., *et al.* Nonsteroidal antiandrogens: a therapeutic option for patients with advanced prostate cancer who wish to retain sexual interest and function. *BJU Int*, 2001. 87: 47.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11121992>
1459. Boccardo, F., *et al.* Bicalutamide monotherapy versus flutamide plus goserelin in prostate cancer patients: results of an Italian Prostate Cancer Project study. *J Clin Oncol*, 1999. 17: 2027.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10561254>
1460. Irani, J., *et al.* Efficacy of venlafaxine, medroxyprogesterone acetate, and cyproterone acetate for the treatment of vasomotor hot flashes in men taking gonadotropin-releasing hormone analogues for prostate cancer: a double-blind, randomised trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2010. 11: 147.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19963436>
1461. Russell, N., *et al.* Effects of oestradiol treatment on hot flashes in men undergoing androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer: a randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Eur J Endocrinol*, 2022. 187: 617.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36806623>
1462. Sloan, J.A., *et al.* Methodologic lessons learned from hot flash studies. *J Clin Oncol*, 2001. 19: 4280.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11731510>
1463. Moraska, A.R., *et al.* Gabapentin for the management of hot flashes in prostate cancer survivors: a longitudinal continuation Study-NCCTG Trial N00CB. *J Support Oncol*, 2010. 8: 128.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20552926>
1464. Frisk, J., *et al.* Two modes of acupuncture as a treatment for hot flashes in men with prostate cancer-a prospective multicenter study with long-term follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 55: 156.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18294761>
1465. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Risk of clinical fractures after gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonist therapy for prostate cancer. *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 136.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16406890>
1466. Cree, M., *et al.* Mortality and institutionalization following hip fracture. *J Am Geriatr Soc*, 2000. 48: 283.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10733054>

1467. Compston, J.E., *et al.* Osteoporosis. *Lancet*, 2019. 393: 364.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30696576>
1468. Saylor, P.J., *et al.* Metabolic complications of androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *J Urol*, 2009. 181: 1998.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19286225>
1469. Stelmach-Mardas, M., *et al.* Influence of Androgen Deprivation Therapy on the Development of Sarcopenia in Patients with Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review. *Nutrients*, 2024. 16.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38474784>
1470. Gonnelli, S., *et al.* Obesity and fracture risk. *Clin Cases Miner Bone Metab*, 2014. 11: 9.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25002873>
1471. Myint, Z.W., *et al.* Evaluation of Fall and Fracture Risk Among Men With Prostate Cancer Treated With Androgen Receptor Inhibitors: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Netw Open*, 2020. 3: e2025826.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33201234>
1472. Sieber, P.R., *et al.* Bicalutamide 150 mg maintains bone mineral density during monotherapy for localized or locally advanced prostate cancer. *J Urol*, 2004. 171: 2272.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15126801>
1473. Wadhwa, V.K., *et al.* Bicalutamide monotherapy preserves bone mineral density, muscle strength and has significant health-related quality of life benefits for osteoporotic men with prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2011. 107: 1923.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20950306>
1474. Higano, C., *et al.* Bone mineral density in patients with prostate cancer without bone metastases treated with intermittent androgen suppression. *Urology*, 2004. 64: 1182.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15596194>
1475. Nobes, J.P., *et al.* A prospective, randomized pilot study evaluating the effects of metformin and lifestyle intervention on patients with prostate cancer receiving androgen deprivation therapy. *BJU Int*, 2012. 109: 1495.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21933330>
1476. Grundy, S.M., *et al.* Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome: an American Heart Association/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Scientific Statement. *Circulation*, 2005. 112: 2735.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16157765>
1477. Braga-Basaria, M., *et al.* Metabolic syndrome in men with prostate cancer undergoing long-term androgen-deprivation therapy. *J Clin Oncol*, 2006. 24: 3979.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16921050>
1478. Cheung, A.S., *et al.* Muscle and bone effects of androgen deprivation therapy: current and emerging therapies. *Endocr Relat Cancer*, 2014. 21: R371.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25056176>
1479. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Sarcopenia during androgen-deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2012. 30: 3271.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22649143>
1480. Papadopoulos, E., *et al.* The impact of sarcopenia on clinical outcomes in men with metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer. *PLoS One*, 2023. 18: e0286381.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37262068>
1481. Lu-Yao, G., *et al.* Changing patterns in competing causes of death in men with prostate cancer: a population based study. *J Urol*, 2004. 171: 2285.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15126804>
1482. Saigal, C.S., *et al.* Androgen deprivation therapy increases cardiovascular morbidity in men with prostate cancer. *Cancer*, 2007. 110: 1493.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17657815>
1483. Keating, N.L., *et al.* Diabetes and cardiovascular disease during androgen deprivation therapy: observational study of veterans with prostate cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2010. 102: 39.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19996060>
1484. Efsthathiou, J.A., *et al.* Cardiovascular mortality and duration of androgen deprivation for locally advanced prostate cancer: analysis of RTOG 92-02. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 816.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18243498>
1485. Jones, C.U., *et al.* Radiotherapy and short-term androgen deprivation for localized prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2011. 365: 107.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21751904>

1486. Mak, K.S., *et al.* Cardiovascular Mortality and Duration of Androgen Deprivation in Locally Advanced Prostate Cancer: Long-term Update of NRG/ROG 9202. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2024. 10: 271.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38307806>
1487. Butler, S.S., *et al.* Risk of cardiovascular mortality with androgen deprivation therapy in prostate cancer: A secondary analysis of the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal, and Ovarian (PLCO) Randomized Controlled Trial. *Cancer*, 2021. 127: 2213.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33905530>
1488. Nguyen, P.L., *et al.* Association of androgen deprivation therapy with cardiovascular death in patients with prostate cancer: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. *JAMA*, 2011. 306: 2359.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22147380>
1489. Bourke, L., *et al.* Endocrine therapy in prostate cancer: time for reappraisal of risks, benefits and cost-effectiveness? *Br J Cancer*, 2013. 108: 9.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23321508>
1490. Blankfield, R.P. Androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer and cardiovascular death. *JAMA*, 2012. 307: 1252; author reply 1252.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22453560>
1491. Bosco, C., *et al.* Quantifying observational evidence for risk of fatal and nonfatal cardiovascular disease following androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer: a meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 386.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25484142>
1492. Swaby, J., *et al.* Association of Androgen Deprivation Therapy with Metabolic Disease in Prostate Cancer Patients: An Updated Meta-Analysis. *Clin Genitourin Cancer*, 2023. 21: e182.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36621463>
1493. Nguyen, P.L., *et al.* Influence of androgen deprivation therapy on all-cause mortality in men with high-risk prostate cancer and a history of congestive heart failure or myocardial infarction. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2012. 82: 1411.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21708431>
1494. Tsai, H.K., *et al.* Androgen deprivation therapy for localized prostate cancer and the risk of cardiovascular mortality. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, 2007. 99: 1516.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17925537>
1495. Lopes, R.D., *et al.* Cardiovascular Safety of Degarelix Versus Leuprolide in Patients With Prostate Cancer: The Primary Results of the PRONOUNCE Randomized Trial. *Circulation*, 2021. 144: 1295.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34459214>
1496. Tisseverasinghe, S., *et al.* Should Prostate Cancer Patients With History of Cardiovascular Events Be Preferentially Treated With Luteinizing Hormone-Releasing Hormone Antagonists? *J Clin Oncol*, 2022. 40: 4173.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35862876>
1497. Nelson, A.J., *et al.* Cardiovascular Effects of GnRH Antagonists Compared With Agonists in Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review. *JACC CardioOncol*, 2023. 5: 613.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37969642>
1498. Gilbert, S.E., *et al.* Effects of a lifestyle intervention on endothelial function in men on long-term androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *Br J Cancer*, 2016. 114: 401.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26766737>
1499. Cao, B., *et al.* Adverse Events and Androgen Receptor Signaling Inhibitors in the Treatment of Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Multivariate Network Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2023. 6: 237.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36682938>
1500. Wilding, S., *et al.* Cancer-related symptoms, mental well-being, and psychological distress in men diagnosed with prostate cancer treated with androgen deprivation therapy. *Qual Life Res*, 2019. 28: 2741.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31115843>
1501. Bourke, L., *et al.* Exercise for Men with Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 693.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26632144>
1502. Meng, F., *et al.* Stroke related to androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer: a meta-analysis and systematic review. *BMC Cancer*, 2016. 16: 180.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26940836>
1503. Nead, K.T., *et al.* Androgen Deprivation Therapy and Future Alzheimer's Disease Risk. *J Clin Oncol*, 2016. 34: 566.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26644522>

1504. Delmas, P.D. Clinical potential of RANKL inhibition for the management of postmenopausal osteoporosis and other metabolic bone diseases. *J Clin Densitom*, 2008. 11: 325.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18375161>
1505. Cummings, S.R., *et al.* Denosumab for prevention of fractures in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *N Engl J Med*, 2009. 361: 756.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19671655>
1506. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Denosumab in men receiving androgen-deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2009. 361: 745.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19671656>
1507. Gupta, M., *et al.*, Bisphosphonate Related Jaw Osteonecrosis, in *StatPearls*. 2023, StatPearls Publishing Copyright © 2023, StatPearls Publishing LLC.: Treasure Island (FL) ineligible companies. Disclosure: Neha Gupta declares no relevant financial relationships with ineligible companies.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30521192>
1508. Boquete-Castro, A., *et al.* Denosumab and osteonecrosis of the jaw. A systematic analysis of events reported in clinical trials. *Clin Oral Implants Res*, 2016. 27: 367.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25639776>
1509. Bennett, D., *et al.* Factors influencing job loss and early retirement in working men with prostate cancer-findings from the population-based Life After Prostate Cancer Diagnosis (LAPCD) study. *J Cancer Surviv*, 2018. 12: 669.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30058009>
1510. Roberts, C., *et al.* The Experiences and Unmet Supportive Care Needs of Partners of Men Diagnosed With Prostate Cancer: A Meta-aggregation Systematic Review. *Clin Neuropharmacol*, 2022.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36480350>
1511. James, C., *et al.* Fear of cancer recurrence and PSA anxiety in patients with prostate cancer: a systematic review. *Support Care Cancer*, 2022. 30: 5577.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35106656>
1512. Mundle, R., *et al.* The effectiveness of psychological intervention for depression, anxiety, and distress in prostate cancer: a systematic review of literature. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 674.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33750905>
1513. Borji, M., *et al.* Positive Effects of Cognitive Behavioral Therapy on Depression, Anxiety and Stress of Family Caregivers of Patients with Prostate Cancer: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev*, 2017. 18: 3207.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29281868>
1514. Bourke, L., *et al.* A qualitative study evaluating experiences of a lifestyle intervention in men with prostate cancer undergoing androgen suppression therapy. *Trials*, 2012. 13: 208.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23151126>
1515. Berruti, A., *et al.* Incidence of skeletal complications in patients with bone metastatic prostate cancer and hormone refractory disease: predictive role of bone resorption and formation markers evaluated at baseline. *J Urol*, 2000. 164: 1248.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10992374>
1516. Carlin, B.I., *et al.* The natural history, skeletal complications, and management of bone metastases in patients with prostate carcinoma. *Cancer*, 2000. 88: 2989.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10898342>
1517. Smith, D.P., *et al.* Quality of life three years after diagnosis of localised prostate cancer: population based cohort study. *BMJ*, 2009. 339: b4817.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19945997>
1518. Taylor, K.L., *et al.* Long-term disease-specific functioning among prostate cancer survivors and noncancer controls in the prostate, lung, colorectal, and ovarian cancer screening trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2012. 30: 2768.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22734029>
1519. Bhanvadia, S.K., *et al.* Financial Toxicity Among Patients with Prostate, Bladder, and Kidney Cancer: A Systematic Review and Call to Action. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2021. 4: 396.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33820747>
1520. Ratti, M.M., *et al.* Standardising the Assessment of Patient-reported Outcome Measures in Localised Prostate Cancer. A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2022. 5: 153.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34785188>
1521. Groenvold, M., *et al.* Validation of the EORTC QLQ-C30 quality of life questionnaire through combined qualitative and quantitative assessment of patient-observer agreement. *J Clin Epidemiol*, 1997. 50: 441.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9179103>

1522. van Andel, G., *et al.* An international field study of the EORTC QLQ-PR25: a questionnaire for assessing the health-related quality of life of patients with prostate cancer. *Eur J Cancer*, 2008. 44: 2418.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18774706>
1523. Cella, D.F., *et al.* The Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy scale: development and validation of the general measure. *J Clin Oncol*, 1993. 11: 570.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8445433>
1524. Esper, P., *et al.* Measuring quality of life in men with prostate cancer using the functional assessment of cancer therapy-prostate instrument. *Urology*, 1997. 50: 920.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9426724>
1525. Wei, J.T., *et al.* Development and validation of the expanded prostate cancer index composite (EPIC) for comprehensive assessment of health-related quality of life in men with prostate cancer. *Urology*, 2000. 56: 899.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11113727>
1526. Szymanski, K.M., *et al.* Development and validation of an abbreviated version of the expanded prostate cancer index composite instrument for measuring health-related quality of life among prostate cancer survivors. *Urology*, 2010. 76: 1245.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20350762>
1527. Litwin, M.S., *et al.* The UCLA Prostate Cancer Index: development, reliability, and validity of a health-related quality of life measure. *Med Care*, 1998. 36: 1002.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9674618>
1528. Giesler, R.B., *et al.* Assessing quality of life in men with clinically localized prostate cancer: development of a new instrument for use in multiple settings. *Qual Life Res*, 2000. 9: 645.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11236855>
1529. Lane, J.A., *et al.* Functional and quality of life outcomes of localised prostate cancer treatments (Prostate Testing for Cancer and Treatment [ProtecT] study). *BJU Int*, 2022. 130: 370.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35373443>
1530. van As, N., *et al.* Radical Prostatectomy Versus Stereotactic Radiotherapy for Clinically Localised Prostate Cancer: Results of the PACE-A Randomised Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2024.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/39266383>
1531. Aksnessaether, B.Y., *et al.* Second Cancers in Patients With Locally Advanced Prostate Cancer Randomized to Lifelong Endocrine Treatment With or Without Radical Radiation Therapy: Long-Term Follow-up of the Scandinavian Prostate Cancer Group-7 Trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2020. 106: 706.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31786279>
1532. Fransson, P., *et al.* Ultra-hypofractionated versus conventionally fractionated radiotherapy for prostate cancer (HYPO-RT-PC): patient-reported quality-of-life outcomes of a randomised, controlled, non-inferiority, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol*, 2021. 22: 235.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33444529>
1533. Hoffman, K.E., *et al.* Patient-Reported Outcomes Through 5 Years for Active Surveillance, Surgery, Brachytherapy, or External Beam Radiation With or Without Androgen Deprivation Therapy for Localized Prostate Cancer. *JAMA*, 2020. 323: 149.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31935027>
1534. Lantz, A., *et al.* Functional and Oncological Outcomes After Open Versus Robot-assisted Laparoscopic Radical Prostatectomy for Localised Prostate Cancer: 8-Year Follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 650.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34538508>
1535. Hunt, A.A., *et al.* Risk of erectile dysfunction after modern radiotherapy for intact prostate cancer. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 128.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32647352>
1536. Giesler, R.B., *et al.* Improving the quality of life of patients with prostate carcinoma: a randomized trial testing the efficacy of a nurse-driven intervention. *Cancer*, 2005. 104: 752.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15986401>
1537. Schumacher, O., *et al.* Effects of Exercise During Radiation Therapy on Physical Function and Treatment-Related Side Effects in Men With Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2021. 111: 716.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34246737>

1538. Kang, D.W., *et al.* Effects of Exercise on Cardiorespiratory Fitness and Biochemical Progression in Men With Localized Prostate Cancer Under Active Surveillance: The ERASE Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*, 2021. 7: 1487.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34410322>
1539. Anderson, C.A., *et al.* Conservative management for postprostatectomy urinary incontinence. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2015. 1: CD001843.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25602133>
1540. Chen, Y.C., *et al.* Surgical treatment for urinary incontinence after prostatectomy: A meta-analysis and systematic review. *PLoS One*, 2017. 12: e0130867.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28467435>
1541. Crivellaro, S., *et al.* Systematic review of surgical treatment of post radical prostatectomy stress urinary incontinence. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2016. 35: 875.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26397171>
1542. Cornu, J.-N., *et al.* , EAU Guidelines on Non-neurogenic Male LUTS, E.G. Office, Editor. 2023, EAU Guidelines Office: EAU Guidelines published at the 38th EAU Annual Congress, Milan.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/archive/management-of-non-neurogenic-male-luts>
1543. Skolarus, T.A., *et al.* Androgen-deprivation-associated bone disease. *Curr Opin Urol*, 2014. 24: 601.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25144145>
1544. Patel, H.R., *et al.* Effects of tadalafil treatment after bilateral nerve-sparing radical prostatectomy: quality of life, psychosocial outcomes, and treatment satisfaction results from a randomized, placebo-controlled phase IV study. *BMC Urol*, 2015. 15: 31.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25879460>
1545. Philippou, Y.A., *et al.* Penile rehabilitation for postprostatectomy erectile dysfunction. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2018. 10: CD012414.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30352488>
1546. Salonia, A., *et al.*, EAU Guidelines on Sexual and Reproductive Health. Edn. presented at the 40th EAU Annual Congress, Madrid, Spain. 2025.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/archive/sexual-and-reproductive-health>
1547. Schubach, K., *et al.* Experiences of sexual well-being interventions in males affected by genitourinary cancers and their partners: an integrative systematic review. *Support Care Cancer*, 2023. 31: 265.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37058163>
1548. Dieperink, K.B., *et al.* The effects of multidisciplinary rehabilitation: RePCa-a randomised study among primary prostate cancer patients. *Br J Cancer*, 2013. 109: 3005.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24169342>
1549. Dieperink, K.B., *et al.* Long-term follow-up 3 years after a randomized rehabilitation study among radiated prostate cancer survivors. *J Cancer Surviv*, 2021. 15: 668.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33079329>
1550. Galvao, D.A., *et al.* Combined resistance and aerobic exercise program reverses muscle loss in men undergoing androgen suppression therapy for prostate cancer without bone metastases: a randomized controlled trial. *J Clin Oncol*, 2010. 28: 340.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19949016>
1551. Bourke, L., *et al.* Lifestyle changes for improving disease-specific quality of life in sedentary men on long-term androgen-deprivation therapy for advanced prostate cancer: a randomised controlled trial. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 865.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24119318>
1552. Cella, D., *et al.* Estimating clinically meaningful changes for the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy–Prostate: results from a clinical trial of patients with metastatic hormone-refractory prostate cancer. *Value Health*, 2009. 12: 124.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18647260>
1553. Galvao, D.A., *et al.* Psychological distress in men with prostate cancer undertaking androgen deprivation therapy: modifying effects of exercise from a year-long randomized controlled trial. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2021. 24: 758.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33558661>
1554. Lopez, P., *et al.* Resistance Exercise Dosage in Men with Prostate Cancer: Systematic Review, Meta-analysis, and Meta-regression. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*, 2021. 53: 459.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32890199>
1555. Shao, W., *et al.* The effects of exercise on body composition of prostate cancer patients receiving androgen deprivation therapy: An update systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS One*, 2022. 17: e0263918.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35167609>

1556. Ussing, A., *et al.* Supervised exercise therapy compared with no exercise therapy to reverse debilitating effects of androgen deprivation therapy in patients with prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2022. 25: 491.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34489536>
1557. Toohey, K., *et al.* Exercise Adherence in Men with Prostate Cancer Undergoing Androgen Deprivation Therapy: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Cancers (Basel)*, 2022. 14.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35626058>
1558. Nair-Shalliker, V., *et al.* Post-treatment levels of plasma 25- and 1,25-dihydroxy vitamin D and mortality in men with aggressive prostate cancer. *Sci Rep*, 2020. 10: 7736.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32385370>
1559. Grant, W.B. Review of Recent Advances in Understanding the Role of Vitamin D in Reducing Cancer Risk: Breast, Colorectal, Prostate, and Overall Cancer. *Anticancer Res*, 2020. 40: 491.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31892604>
1560. Coleman, R., *et al.* Bone health in cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines. *Ann Oncol*, 2020. 31: 1650.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32801018>
1561. Shapiro, C.L., *et al.* Management of Osteoporosis in Survivors of Adult Cancers With Nonmetastatic Disease: ASCO Clinical Practice Guideline. *J Clin Oncol*, 2019. 37: 2916.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31532726>
1562. Briot, K., *et al.* French recommendations for osteoporosis prevention and treatment in patients with prostate cancer treated by androgen deprivation. *Joint Bone Spine*, 2019. 86: 21.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30287350>
1563. Saylor, P.J., *et al.* Bone Health and Bone-Targeted Therapies for Prostate Cancer: ASCO Endorsement of a Cancer Care Ontario Guideline. *J Clin Oncol*, 2020. 38: 1736.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31990618>
1564. Brown, J.E., *et al.* Guidance for the assessment and management of prostate cancer treatment-induced bone loss. A consensus position statement from an expert group. *J Bone Oncol*, 2020. 25: 100311.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32995252>
1565. Smith, M.R., *et al.* Randomized controlled trial of zoledronic acid to prevent bone loss in men receiving androgen deprivation therapy for nonmetastatic prostate cancer. *J Urol*, 2003. 169: 2008.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12771706>
1566. Michaelson, M.D., *et al.* Randomized controlled trial of annual zoledronic acid to prevent gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonist-induced bone loss in men with prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*, 2007. 25: 1038.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17369566>
1567. Migliorati, C.A., *et al.* Bisphosphonate-associated osteonecrosis: a long-term complication of bisphosphonate treatment. *Lancet Oncol*, 2006. 7: 508.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16750501>
1568. Wadhwa, V.K., *et al.* Frequency of zoledronic acid to prevent further bone loss in osteoporotic patients undergoing androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2010. 105: 1082.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19912210>
1569. Clemons, M., *et al.* A randomised trial of 4- versus 12-weekly administration of bone-targeted agents in patients with bone metastases from breast or castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Eur J Cancer*, 2021. 142: 132.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33023785>
1570. Ohlmann C., *et al.* Second-line chemotherapy with docetaxel for prostate-specific antigen relapse in men with hormone refractory prostate cancer previously treated with docetaxel based chemotherapy. *Eur Urol Suppl* 2006. 5: abstract #289.
https://ascopubs.org/doi/10.1200/jco.2005.23.16_suppl.4682
1571. Chen, R.C., *et al.* Association Between Choice of Radical Prostatectomy, External Beam Radiotherapy, Brachytherapy, or Active Surveillance and Patient-Reported Quality of Life Among Men With Localized Prostate Cancer. *JAMA*, 2017. 317: 1141.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28324092>
1572. Sanda, M.G., *et al.* Clinically Localized Prostate Cancer: AUA/ASTRO/SUO Guideline. Part I: Risk Stratification, Shared Decision Making, and Care Options. *J Urol*, 2018. 199: 683.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29203269>
1573. Makarov, D.V., *et al.* AUA White Paper on Implementation of Shared Decision Making into Urological Practice. *Urol Pract*, 2016. 3: 355.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37592546>

1574. Stiggebout, A.M., *et al.* Shared decision making: Concepts, evidence, and practice. *Patient Educ Couns*, 2015. 98: 1172.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26215573>
1575. Violette, P.D., *et al.* Decision aids for localized prostate cancer treatment choice: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *CA Cancer J Clin*, 2015. 65: 239.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25772796>
1576. Ramsey, S.D., *et al.* Unanticipated and underappreciated outcomes during management of local stage prostate cancer: a prospective survey. *J Urol*, 2010. 184: 120.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20478590>
1577. Connolly, T., *et al.* Regret in Decision Making. *Curr Direct Psy Sci*, 2016. 11: 212.
<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1111/1467-8721.00203>
1578. Maguire, R., *et al.* Expecting the worst? The relationship between retrospective and prospective appraisals of illness on quality of life in prostate cancer survivors. *Psychooncology*, 2018. 27: 1237.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29430755>
1579. Schroeck, F.R., *et al.* Satisfaction and regret after open retropubic or robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 785.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18585849>
1580. Steentjes, L., *et al.* Factors associated with current and severe physical side-effects after prostate cancer treatment: What men report. *Eur J Cancer Care (Engl)*, 2018. 27.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27726215>
1581. Orom, H., *et al.* What Is a "Good" Treatment Decision? Decisional Control, Knowledge, Treatment Decision Making, and Quality of Life in Men with Clinically Localized Prostate Cancer. *Med Decis Making*, 2016. 36: 714.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26957566>
1582. Davison, B.J., *et al.* Quality of life, sexual function and decisional regret at 1 year after surgical treatment for localized prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2007. 100: 780.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17578466>
1583. Wilding, S., *et al.* Decision regret in men living with and beyond nonmetastatic prostate cancer in the United Kingdom: A population-based patient-reported outcome study. *Psychooncology*, 2020. 29: 886.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32065691>
1584. Martinez-Gonzalez, N.A., *et al.* Shared decision making for men facing prostate cancer treatment: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Patient Prefer Adherence*, 2019. 13: 1153.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31413545>
1585. Menichetti, J., *et al.* Quality of life in active surveillance and the associations with decision-making-a literature review. *Transl Androl Urol*, 2018. 7: 160.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29594030>
1586. Ivlev, I., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Screening Patient Decision Aids: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Am J Prev Med*, 2018. 55: 896.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30337235>
1587. Kinsella, N., *et al.* A Single Educational Seminar Increases Confidence and Decreases Dropout from Active Surveillance by 5 Years After Diagnosis of Prostate Cancer. *Eur Urol Oncol*, 2019. 2: 464.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31277784>
1588. Hoffman, R.M., *et al.* Selecting Active Surveillance: Decision Making Factors for Men with a Low-Risk Prostate Cancer. *Med Decis Making*, 2019. 39: 962.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31631745>
1589. Berry, D.L., *et al.* Decision Support with the Personal Patient Profile-Prostate: A Multicenter Randomized Trial. *J Urol*, 2018. 199: 89.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28754540>
1590. Campagna, J.P., *et al.* Prostate Cancer Survival Estimates by the General Public Using Unrestricted Internet Searches and Online Nomograms. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020. 6: 959.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30723050>
1591. de Freitas, H.M., *et al.* Patient Preferences for Metastatic Hormone-Sensitive Prostate Cancer Treatments: A Discrete Choice Experiment Among Men in Three European Countries. *Adv Ther*, 2019. 36: 318.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30617763>
1592. Lorent, M., *et al.* Meta-analysis of predictive models to assess the clinical validity and utility for patient-centered medical decision making: application to the CAncer of the Prostate Risk Assessment (CAPRA). *BMC Med Inform Decis Mak*, 2019. 19: 2.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30616621>

1593. Riikonen, J.M., *et al.* Decision Aids for Prostate Cancer Screening Choice: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Intern Med*, 2019. 179: 1072.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31233091>
1594. Vromans, R.D., *et al.* Communicative aspects of decision aids for localized prostate cancer treatment - A systematic review. *Urol Oncol*, 2019. 37: 409.
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31053529>

10. CONFLICT OF INTEREST

All members of the EAU - EANM - ESTRO - ESUR - ISUP – SIOG Prostate Cancer Guidelines Working Group have provided disclosure statements of all relationships that they have that might be perceived as a potential source of a conflict of interest. This information is publicly accessible through the European Association of Urology website: <https://uroweb.org/guidelines/prostate-cancer/panel>.

This guidelines document was developed with the financial support of the European Association of Urology. No external sources of funding and support have been involved. The EAU is a non-profit organization and funding is limited to administrative assistance and travel and meeting expenses. No honoraria or other reimbursements have been provided.

11. CITATION INFORMATION

The compilation of the complete Guidelines should be referenced as:

EAU Guidelines. Edn. presented at the EAU Annual Congress Madrid 2025. ISBN 978-94-92671-29-5.

If a publisher and/or location is required, include:

EAU Guidelines Office, Arnhem, The Netherlands. <http://uroweb.org/guidelines/compilations-of-all-guidelines/>

References to individual guidelines should be structured in the following way:

Contributors' names. Title of resource. Publication type. ISBN. Publisher and publisher location, year.

12. COPYRIGHT AND TERMS OF USE

The content of the EAU Guidelines and all products derived from them is made available for personal and educational use only. No commercial usage is authorised. No part of the EAU Guidelines or any related products may be translated or reproduced in any form without written permission from the EAU. Furthermore, the EAU prohibits the usage or upload of its Guidelines, and any material derived from these texts (whether in full or in part) on external websites, bots, pages, portals, servers, software, or external applications, including those employing artificial intelligence technologies and infrastructure, such as large language models and generative AI, deep learning and machine learning, unless written permission has been granted for such by the EAU.

The EAU accepts no responsibility for the content, quality, or performance of materials, applications and products derived from the EAU Guidelines and does not endorse or warrant their use. In the event of any discrepancies the original language version shall be considered authoritative.