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The Prostate MRI Quality Subcommittees of the European Society of Urogenital Radiology and the European Association of Urology Section of Urologic Imaging have formulated consensus-based criteria for acquisition, reporting, and training for prostate multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). This consensus will help in ensuring that high-quality prostate MRI scans are available between centres and radiologists at a time when this technique is increasingly used in the diagnostic pathway.

DNA Repair and Prostate Cancer: A Field Ripe for Harvest 486

A.H. Bryce, O. Sartor, J. de Bono

Recent data have revealed antitumor activity for four PARP inhibitors, two of which (olaparib and rucaparib) are approved by the US Food and Drug Administration for metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer with selected DNA repair defects. Additional clinical trials are in progress for talazoparib, veliparib, and niraparib. More progress can be anticipated in the near future.

Re-establishing the Role of Robot-assisted Radical Cystectomy After the 2020 EAU Muscle-invasive and Metastatic Bladder Cancer Guideline Panel Recommendations 489

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The EAU guidelines panel on muscle-invasive and metastatic bladder cancer (MIBC) recently recommended open radical cystectomy (ORC) as the best surgical approach for MIBC patients. We critically re-examine the indications for considering ORC as the first choice over robot-assisted radical cystectomy. To the best of our knowledge, this is not supported by trials or meta-analyses.

Reply to Francesco Montorsi, Marco Bandini, Alberto Briganti, et al. Re-establishing the Role of Robot-assisted Radical Cystectomy After the 2020 EAU Muscle-invasive and Metastatic Bladder Cancer Guideline Panel Recommendations. Eur Urol 2020;78:489–91. Can Open and Robotic Radical Cystectomy be Considered Equally Effective in 2020? 492

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BRCA2 pathogenic variants located in a recently proposed prostate cancer cluster region confers higher risks of prostate cancer than other BRCA2 variants. This report corroborates the existence of this prostate cancer cluster region in a large prospective cohort study.

Stool Microbiome Profiling of Patients with Metastatic Renal Cell Carcinoma Receiving Anti-PD-1 Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors 498

N.J. Salgia, P.G. Bergerot, M.C. Maia, N. Dizman, J. Hsu, J.D. Gillece, M. Folkerts, L. Reining, J. Trent, S.K. Highlander, S.K. Pal

We report associations between gut microbiome composition and clinical benefit from immune checkpoint inhibitors in renal cell carcinoma. The study includes the first efforts to characterize temporal microbiota changes across the treatment timeline. Our results further implicate microbiome composition in immunotherapy response.

Platinum Priorities

Original Articles and Brief Correspondence, together with the Full Length Editorials



Prostate Cancer

Additional Value of Dynamic Contrast-enhanced Sequences in Multiparametric Prostate Magnetic Resonance Imaging: Data from the PROMIS Study 503

Ahmed El-Shater Bosaily, Elena Frangou, Hashim U. Ahmed, Mark Emberton, Shonit Punwani, Richard Kaplan, Louise C. Brown, Alex Freeman, Charles Jameson, Richard Hindley, Delia Peppercorn, Andrew Thrower, Mathias Winkler, Tara Barwick, Victoria Stewart, Nick Burns-Cox, Paul Burn, Maneesh Ghei, Jeevan Kumaradevan, Raj Prasad, Janice Ash-Miles, Iqbal Shergill, Sanjay Agarwal, Derek Rosariom, Ferekh Salimm, Simon Bott, Hywel Evans, Alastair Henderson, Sukanya Ghosh, Tim Dudderidge, J. Smart, Ken Tung, Alexander Kirkhamf, on behalf of the PROMIS Group

The addition of dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging did not offer a statistically significant improvement in diagnostic accuracy compared with T2 + diffusion sequences alone, although there was a marginal reduction of equivocal (3/5) magnetic resonance imaging results.

Can Biparametric Prostate Magnetic Resonance Imaging Fulfill its PROMIS? 512

Maarten de Rooij, Bas Israe'el, Joyce G.R. Bomers, Ivo G. Schoots, Jelle O. Barentsz

Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Alone is Insufficient to Detect Grade Reclassification in Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer 515

C.E. Chu, P.E. Lonergan, S.L. Washington, J.E. Cowan, K. Shinohara, A.C. Westphalen, P.R. Carroll, M.R. Cooperberg

Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) alone misses a considerable percentage of clinically significant prostate cancers (Gleason grade group ≥ 2) among men on active surveillance for low-risk prostate cancer. We conclude that MRI alone cannot safely replace surveillance prostate biopsies, particularly at confirmatory biopsy or in the presence of other risk factors.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging Improves Selection for Active Surveillance and Can Extend the Interval Between Biopsies 518

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Bladder Cancer



Enhanced Quality and Effectiveness of Transurethral Resection of Bladder Tumour in Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Cancer: A Multicentre Real-world Experience from Scotland's Quality Performance Indicators Programme 520

P. Mariappan, A. Johnston, L. Padovani, E. Clark, M. Trail, S. Hamid, G. Hollins, H. Simpson, B.G. Thomas, R. Hasan, J. Bhatt, I. Ahmad, G.M. Nandwani, I.D.C. Mitchell, D. Hendry, for members of the Scottish Bladder Cancer QPI Research Collaborative

We evaluated the value of implementing a pragmatic national Quality Performance Indicator (QPI) programme for bladder cancer. Our results from the first 3yr since implementation revealed high levels of compliance with the QPIs for non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer, which was associated with a low risk of early recurrence and accurate pathological staging following the initial transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

National Quality Improvement Program in Transurethral Resection of Bladder Tumor: A Model for the Rest of Us, Even if We Cannot Share All Results 531

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Urothelial Cancer



Identification of Differential Tumor Subtypes of T1 Bladder Cancer 533

A.G. Robertson, C.S. Groeneveld, B. Jordan, X. Lin, K.A. McLaughlin, A. Das, L.A. Fall, D. Fantini, T.J. Taxter, L.S. Mogil, S.V. Lindsckrog, L. Dyrskjot, D.J. McConkey, R.S. Svatek, A. de Reyniès, M.A.A. Castro, J.J. Meeks

We identified and characterized expression subtypes of high-grade T1 bladder cancer that are biologically heterogeneous and have variable responses to bacillus Calmette-Guérin treatment. We validated the subtypes and describe a single-patient classifier.

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Urology



Surgery in Motion



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Several techniques for prostatectomy are currently available. In this study, we have summarized the approaches available for the surgical treatment of prostate cancer. Specifically, we described the different techniques that can be adopted for the surgical removal of the prostate using robotic technology.	
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Robot-assisted cavectomy (RAC) for inferior vena cava thrombus (IVCT) is safe and feasible in patients with extensive IVC wall invasion if the collateral blood vessels are well established. Selection of RAC or robotassisted thrombectomy for IVCT can be based on preoperative IVCT imaging characteristics, including the presence of IVC wall invasion, the affected kidney, and establishment of the collateral circulation. IVC invasion and tumor grade were independent risk factors for progression-free survival, while body mass index, tumor type and grade, perirenal fat invasion, and lymph node metastasis were independent risk factors for overall survival.	

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Letters to the
Editor published
online



- Re: Lan Zhu, Nianqiao Gong, Bin Liu, et al. Coronavirus Disease 2019 Pneumonia in Immunosuppressed Renal Transplant Recipients: A Summary of 10 Confirmed Cases in Wuhan, China. Eur Urol 2020;77:748–54** e158
A. Bansal, A. Kumar
- Reply to Amit Bansal and Anant Kumar's Letter to the Editor re: Lan Zhu, Nianqiao Gong, Bin Liu, et al. Coronavirus Disease 2019 Pneumonia in Immunosuppressed Renal Transplant Recipients: A Summary of 10 Confirmed Cases in Wuhan, China. Eur Urol 2020;77:748–54** e159
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- Re: Marc-Oliver Grimm, Antione G. van der Heijden, Marc Colombel, et al. Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Carcinoma by Standard Number and Dose of BCG Instillations Versus Reduced Number and Standard Dose of BCG Instillations: Results of the European Association of Urology Research Foundation Randomised Phase III Clinical Trial "NIMBUS". Eur Urol. In press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.04.066>** e161
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- Reply to Emre Karabay and İlker Tinay's Letter to the Editor re: Treatment of High-grade Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Carcinoma by Standard Number and Dose of BCG Instillations Versus Reduced Number and Standard Dose of BCG Instillations: Results of the European Association of Urology Research Foundation Randomised Phase III Clinical Trial "NIMBUS". Eur Urol. In press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.04.066>** e163
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- Re: Vasilis Stavrinos, Francesco Giganti, Bruce Trock, et al. Five-year Outcomes of Magnetic Resonance Imaging-based Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer: A Large Cohort Study. Eur Urol 2020;78:443–451** e165
F. Montorsi, G. Gandaglia, N. Fossati, A. Salonia, A. Briganti
- Reply to Francesco Montorsi, Giorgio Gandaglia, Nicola Fossati, Andrea Salonia, and Alberto Briganti's Letter to the Editor re: Vasilis Stavrinos, Francesco Giganti, Bruce Trock, et al. Five-year Outcomes of Magnetic Resonance Imaging-based Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer: A Large Cohort Study. Eur Urol 2020;78:443–451** e166
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- Reply to Guglielmo Mantica, Nazareno Suardi, and Carlo Terrone's Letter to the Editor re: Ming-Chun Chan, Sharon E.K. Yeo, Yew-Lam Chong, Yee-Mun Lee. Stepping Forward: Urologists' Efforts During the COVID-19 Outbreak in Singapore. Eur Urol 2020;78:e38–9** e167
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- Reply to Vincenzo Ficarra, Giuseppe Mucciardi, and Gianluca Giannarini's Letter to the Editor re: Riccardo Campi, Daniele Amparore, Umberto Capitanio, et al. Assessing the Burden of Nondeferrable Major Uro-oncologic Surgery to Guide Prioritisation Strategies During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Insights from Three Italian High-volume Referral Centres. Eur Urol 2020;78:11–15** e169
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The illustration on the cover of this issue is taken from the article by Nicholas J. Salgia, Paulo G. Bergerot, Manuel Caitano Maia, Nazli Dizman, JoAnn Hsu, John D. Gillece, Megan Folkerts, Lauren Reining, Jeffrey Trent, Sarah K. Highlander and Sumanta K. Pal, Stool Microbiome Profiling of Patients with Metastatic Renal Cell Carcinoma Receiving Anti-PD-1 Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors, which is published on pp. 498–502 of this issue.



CONGRESS CALENDAR

1.10–2.10.2020 Moscow Russia	15th Annual Congress of the Russian Association of Oncological Urology	Contact: Russian Association of Oncological Urology Tel.: +7 495 6452199 E-mail: roou@roou.ru Website: www.roou.ru
1.10–4.10.2020 Thessaloniki Greece	25th Pan-Hellenic Urological Congress	Contact: Hellenic Urological Association Tel.: + 30 210 7223126 E-mail: hua@huanet.gr Website: www.huacongress.gr
2.10.2020 Virtual online course	ESU course on Upper Tract Laparoscopic Surgery to be held during the National Congress of the Albanian Association of Urologic Surgeons	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education
3.10.2020 Virtual online course	ESU course on Upper Tract Laparoscopic Surgery to be held during the National Congress of the Hellenic Urological Association	Contact: Newcastle Surgical Training Centre, Freeman Hospital Tel.: +44 191 2138628 E-mail: lucy.thomas@nuth.nhs.uk Website: www.nstcsurg.org
5.10–6.10.2020 Newcastle upon Tyne UK	PCNL Masterclass Course	Contact: Société Internationale d'Urologie (SIU) E-mail: congress@siu-urology.org Website: www.siu-urology.org
7.10–11.10.2020 Montreal Canada	40th Congress of Société Internationale d'Urologie	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education/
15.10.2020 Virtual online course	ESU course on Treatment of Oligometastatic Cancer	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org
15.10–17.10.2020 Lublin Poland	II International Congress of Minimally Invasive Surgery	Contact: Wydawnictwo Czelej Sp. z o.o. Tel.: +48 664 424105 E-mail: lukasz.nowak@czelej.com.pl Website: http://www.kongreschmi.eu
21.10.2020 Virtual online course	7th Confederación Americana de Urología Residents Education Programme (CAUREP)	Contact: European School of Urology (ESU) Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org
22.10.2020 Virtual online course	ESU course on Dealing with the Challenge of Infections in Urology to be held during the National Congress of the Tunisian Urological Society	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education
26.10–28.10.2020 Dundee UK	Rectal Prolapse Surgical Management Cadaveric Course	Contact: The Dundee Institute for Healthcare Simulation Tel.: +44 (1382) 383400 E-mail: smccomiskie@dundee.ac.uk Website: https://dihs.dundee.ac.uk/
28.10–29.10.2020 Nijmegen The Netherlands	ESU-ESFFU Masterclass on Functional Urology	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org

29.10.2020 Poznan Poland	ESU course on Urinary Incontinence in Children and Adults to be held during the National Congress of the Polish Urological Association	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education/
29.10–30.10.2020 Barcelona Spain	ESU-ESFFU Masterclass on Functional Urology	Contact: European School of Urology (ESU) Tel.: +31 26 36890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: https://esu-masterclasses.uroweb.org/
30.10–31.10.2020 Virtual online meeting	ELUTS20: The European Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms meeting	Contact: Congress Consultants BV Tel.: +31 26 3891751 Website: eluts20.org
5.11–7.11.2020 Virtual online meeting	17th Meeting of the EAU Robotic Urology Section in conjunction with 12th German Society Robotic Urology	Contact: Congress Consultants BV Tel.: 026 389 1751 E-mail: erus@congressconsultants.com Website: www.erus20.org
9.11–11.11.2020 Birmingham UK	Oncology Convention (new date)	Contact: Roar B2B Website: www.oncologyconvention.com
9.11–11.11.2020 Birmingham UK	Annual Meeting of the British Association of Urological Surgeons	Contact: British Association of Urological Surgeons Email: admin@baus.org.uk Website: www.baus.org.uk
12.11.2020 Athens Greece	ESU course on Oligometastases in Genitourinary Cancers to be held during the 12th European Multidisciplinary Meeting on Urological Cancers (EMUC)	Contact: Congress Consultants BV Tel.: +31 26 3891751 E-mail: erus@congressconsultants.com Website: http://www.erus20.org
12.11.2020 Athens Greece	9th Meeting of the EAU Section of Urological Imaging	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 Email: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education
12.11–15.11.2020 Virtual online meeting	12th European Multidisciplinary Congress on Urological Cancers (EMUC20)	Contact: Congress Consultants BV Tel.: +31 26 3891751 E-mail: emuc@congressconsultants.com Website: www.emuc20.org
14.11.2020 Limassol Cyprus	ESU course on Diagnostic and Therapeutic Management of Male Infertility to be held during the National Congress of the Cyprus Urological Association	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education
18.11–21.11.2020 Las Vegas USA	50th Annual Meeting of the International Continence Society	Contact: International Continence Society (ICS) Website: www.ics.org/2020
19.11–20.11.2020 Barcelona Spain	ESU-ESUT Masterclass on Lasers in Urology	Contact: European School of Urology (ESU) Tel.: +31 26 36890680 E-mail: w.dennissen@uroweb.org Website: https://esu-masterclasses.uroweb.org/
20.11.2020 Virtual online course	ESU course on Update in Bladder and Prostate Cancer to be held during the National Congress of the Turkish Association of Urology	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education
25.11.2020 Virtual online course	ESU course on Tips and Tricks in Challenging Surgeries to be held during the National Congress of the Spanish Urological Association	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 Email: esu@uroweb.org Website: www.uroweb.org/education

26.11–27.11.2020 Marseille France	ESU-ESUI Masterclass on Prostate Biopsy	Contact: European School of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 Website: https://esu-masterclasses.uroweb.org/
2.12–4.12.2020 Berlin Germany	Art in Flexible - Step 1 (postponed)	Contact: European School of Urology (ESU) Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: r.vanloenen@uroweb.org Website: www.artinflexible.uroweb.org
9.12–12.12.2020 Munster Germany	International Congress of Andrology	Contact: Conventus Congressmanagement & Marketing GmbH E-mail: registrierung@conventus.de Website: www.andrology2020.de/
1.2–3.2.2021 Hurghada Egypt	18th Annual Meeting of the Pan Arab Continence Society	Contact: Pan Arab Continence Society E-mail: mismourad@icloud.com Website: www.pacs.org.eg/
4.2–5.2.2021 Prague Czech Republic	ESU-ESOU Masterclass on Non-Muscle-Invasive Bladder Cancer	Contact: European School of Urology (ESU) Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org Website: https://esu-masterclasses.uroweb.org
12.2–13.2.2020 Gothenburg Sweden	27th Meeting of the EAU Section of Urological Research (ESUR21) in collaboration with the EAU Section of Uropathology (ESUP)	Contact: Congress Consultants BV Website: www.esur21.org
12.2–14.2.2020 Gothenburg Sweden	18th Meeting of the European Section of Oncological Urology	Contact: Congress Consultants BV Website: https://esou.uroweb.org/
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8.4–9.4.2020 Amsterdam The Netherlands	ESU-ESOU Masterclass on Muscle-Invasive Bladder Cancer	Contact: European School of Urology (ESU) Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: esu@uroweb.org
15.4–17.4.2021 Berlin Germany	URO Berlin Skills Teaching and Training	Contact: EAU Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: m.vandewiel@uroweb.org Website: https://urobestt.uroweb.org/
28.5–29.5.2021 Minsk Belarus	7th Baltic Meeting in conjunction with the EAU	Contact: European Association of Urology Tel.: +31 26 3890680 E-mail: baltic@uroweb.org Website: https://baltic.uroweb.org
7.10–9.10.2021 Lugano Switzerland	Advanced Prostate Cancer Consensus Conference (APCCC)	Contact: Congrex Switzerland Ltd. Tel.: +41 61 6867777 E-mail: Secretariat.APCCC@congrex.com Website: https://www.apccc.org/apccc2019.html

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European Urology, Vol 76, Issue 5, p562–571

Best Scientific Paper on Fundamental Research

2007

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European Urology, Vol. 74, Issue 3, p336–345

2020

Antifibrotic Synergy Between Phosphodiesterase Type 5 Inhibitors and Selective Oestrogen Receptor Modulators in Peyronie's Disease Models

Marcus M. Ilg, Marta Mateus, William J. Stebbeds, Uros Milenkovic,

Nim Christopher, Asif Muneer, Maarten Albersen, David J. Ralph, Selim Cellek

European Urology, Vol. 75, Issue 2, Pages p329–340

Best Scientific Paper on Clinical Research

2007

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European Urology 2013;63:1101–1106

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European Urology 2016;69:16–40

* These authors share first authorship.

2018

CheckMate 025 Randomized Phase 3 Study: Outcomes by Key Baseline Factors and Prior Therapy for Nivolumab Versus Everolimus in Advanced Renal Cell Carcinoma

B. Escudier, P. Sharma, D.F. McDermott, S. George, H.J. Hammers, S. Srinivas, S.S. Tykodi, J.A. Sosman, G. Procopio, E.R. Plimack, D. Castellano, H. Gurney, F. Donskov, K. Peltola, J. Wagstaff, T.C. Gauler, T. Ueda, H. Zhao, I.M. Waxman, R.J. Motzer, on behalf of the CheckMate 025 investigators

European Urology 2017;72:962–71

2019

Metabolic Biosynthesis Pathways Identified from Fecal Microbiome Associated with Prostate Cancer

M.A. Liss, J.R. White, M. Goros, J. Gelfond, R. Leach, T. Johnson-Pais, Z. Lai, E. Rourke, J. Basler, D. Ankerst, D.P. Shah

European Urology, Vol. 74, Issue 5, p575–582

2020

Extended Versus Limited Lymph Node Dissection in Bladder Cancer Patients Undergoing Radical Cystectomy: Survival Results from a Prospective, Randomized Trial

Jürgen E. Gschwend, Matthias M. Heck, Jan Lehmann, Herbert Rübber, Peter Albers, Johannes M. Wolff, Detlef Frohneberg, Patrick de Geeter, Axel Heidenreich, Tilman Kälble, Michael Stöckle, Thomas Schnöller, Arnulf Stenzl, Markus Müller, Michael Truss, Stephan Roth, Uwe-Bernd Liehr, Joachim Leißner, Thomas Breggenzer, Margitta Retz

European Urology, Vol 75, Issue 4, p604–611

Residents' Corner

2008

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F.K.-H. Chun, M. Graefen, A. Briganti, A. Gallina, J. Hopp, M.W. Kattan, H. Huland, P.I. Karakiewicz
European Urology 2007;51:1236–1243

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European Urology 2007;52:1358–1364

2009

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G. Salomon, J. Köllerman, I. Thederan, F.K.H. Chun, L. Budäus, T. Schlomm, H. Isbarn, H. Heinzer, H. Huland, M. Graefen
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Radical Prostatectomy for Incidental (Stage T1a–T1b) Prostate Cancer: Analysis of Predictors for Residual Disease and Biochemical Recurrence

U. Capitanio, V. Scattoni, M. Freschi, A. Briganti, A. Salonia, A. Gallina, R. Colombo, P.I. Karakiewicz, P. Rigatti, F. Montorsi
European Urology 2008;54:118–125

2010

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L. De Bock, S. De Wachter, J.J. Wyndaele
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Sponsored By Eli Lilly

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M. Ploussard, E. Xylinas, L. Salomon, Y. Allory, D. Vordos, A. Hoznek, C.-C. Abbou, A. de la Taille

European Urology 2009;56:891–898

Sponsored By Eli Lilly

2011

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J.N. Cornu, P. Sèbe, L. Peyrat, C. Ciofu, O. Cussenot, F. Haab
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M.W. Kramer, R. Golshani, A.S. Merseburger, J. Knapp, A. Garcia, J. Hennenlotter, R.C. Duncan, M.S. Soloway, M. Jorda, M.A. Kuczyk,

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D. Duijvesz, T. Luiders, C. Bangma, G. Jenster

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F. Abdollah, M. Sun, J. Schmitges, Z. Tian, C. Jeldres, A. Briganti, L. Shariat, P. Perrotte, F. Montorsi, P. Karakiewicz

European Urology 2011;60:920–930

2013

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T. Hambrock, C. Hoeks, C. Hulsbergen-van de Kaa, T. Scheenen, J. Fütterer, S. Bouwense, I. van Oort, F. Schröder, H. Huisman, J. Barentsz
European Urology 2012;61:177–184

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European Urology 2012;61:185–192

2014

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European Urology 2013;63:419–425

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J.J. Leow, S.W. Reese, W. Jiang, S.R. Lipsitz, J. Bellmunt, Q.-D. Trinh, B.I. Chung, A.S. Kibel, Steven L. Chang

European Urology 2014;66:569–576

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N. Kroeger, T.K. Choueiri, J.-L. Lee, G.A. Bjarnason, J.J. Knox, M.J. MacKenzie, L. Wood, S. Srinivas, U.N. Vaishamayan, S.-Y. Rha, S.K. Pal, T. Yuasa, F. Donskov, N. Agarwal, M.-H. Tan, A. Bamias, C.K. Kollmannsberger, S.A. North, B.I. Rini, D.Y.C. Heng
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2016

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A.A. Azad, B.J. Eigl, R.N. Murray, C. Kollmannsberger, K.N. Chi
European Urology 2015;67:23–29

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N. Fossati, N.M. Buffi, A. Haese, C. Stephan, A. Larcher, T. McNicholas, A. de la Taille, M. Freschi, G. Lughezzani, A. Abrate, V. Bini, J. Palou Redorta, M. Graefen, G. Guazzoni, M. Lazzeri

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European Urology 2016;70:623–632

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T.J.H. Arends, O. Nativ, M. Maffezzini, O. de Cobelli, G. Canepa, F. Verweij, B. Moskovitz, A.G. van der Heijden, J.A. Witjes
European Urology 2016;69:1046–1052

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N.A. Sopko, H. Matsui, D.M. Lough, D. Miller, K. Harris, M. Kates, X. Liu, K. Billups, R. Redett, A.L. Burnett, G. Brandacher, T.J. Bivalacqua

European Urology 2017;71:584–93

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Racial Variation in Patient-Reported Outcomes Following Treatment for Localized Prostate Cancer: Results from the CEASAR Study

M.D. Tyson, J. Alvarez, T. Koyama, K.E. Hoffman, M.J. Resnick,

X.-C. Wu, M.R. Cooperberg, M. Goodman, S. Greenfield, A.S. Hamilton, M. Hashibe, L.E. Paddock, A. Stroup, V.W. Chen, D.F. Penson, D.A. Barocas
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K.H. Pang, R. Groves, S. Venugopal, A.P. Noon, J.W.F. Catto
European Urology, Vol. 73, Issue 3, p363–371

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Substitution Urethroplasty with Closure Versus Nonclosure of the Buccal Mucosa Graft Harvest Site: A Randomized Controlled Trial with a Detailed Analysis of Oral Pain and Morbidity

A. Soave, R. Dahlem, H.O. Pinnschmidt, M. Rink, J. Langetepe, O. Engel, L.A. Kluth, B. Loechelt, P. Reiss, S.A. Ahyai, M. Fisch
European Urology, Vol. 73, Issue 6, p910–922

2020

Prediction of High-grade Prostate Cancer Following Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging: Improving the Rotterdam European Randomized Study of Screening for Prostate Cancer Risk Calculators

Arnout R. Alberts, Monique J. Roobol, Jan F.M. Verbeek, Ivo G. Schoots, Peter K. Chiu, Daniël F. Osses, Jasper D. Tijsterman, Harrie P. Beerlage, Christophe K. Mannaerts, Lars Schimmöller, Peter Albers, Christian Arsov

European Urology, Vol 75, Issue 2, p310–318

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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

Elise De Bleser, Barbara Alicia Jereczek-Fossab, David Pasquierd, Thomas Zillif, Nicholas Van Ash, Shankar Siva, Andrei Fodor, Piet Dirixl, Alfonso Gomez-Iturriaga, Fabio Trippa, Beatrice Dettip Gianluca Ingrosso, Luca Triggiani, Alessio Bruni, Filippo Along, Dries Reynnders, Gert De Meerleer, Alessia Surgo, Kaoutar Loukili, Raymond Miralbellf, Pedro Silvah, Sarat Chander, Nadia Gisella Di Muzio, Ernesto Maranzano, Giulio Francolini, Andrea Lancia, Alison Treeh,i, Chiara Lucrezia Deantoni, Elisabetta Ponti, Giulia Marvaso, Els Goetghebeur, Piet Ost

European Urology, Vol 76, Issue 6, p732–739

Best Paper in Robotic Surgery

2016

Pilot Validation Study of the European Association of Urology Robotic Training Curriculum

A. Volpe, K. Ahmed, P. Dasgupta, V. Ficarra, G. Novara, H. van der Poel, A. Mottrie

European Urology 2015;68:292–299

2017

Measuring to Improve: Peer and Crowd-sourced

Assessments of Technical Skill with Robot-assisted Radical Prostatectomy

K.R. Ghani, D.C. Miller, S. Linsell, A. Brachulis, B. Lane, R. Sarle, D. Dalela, M. Menon, B. Comstock, T.S. Lendvay, J. Montie, J.O. Peabody, for the Michigan Urological Surgery Improvement Collaborative
European Urology 2016;69:547–550

2018

Multispectral Fluorescence Imaging During Robot-assisted Laparoscopic Sentinel Node Biopsy: A First Step Towards a Fluorescence-based Anatomic Roadmap
N.S. van den Berg, T. Buckle, G.H. KleinJan, H.G. van der Poel, F.W.B. van Leeuwen
European Urology 2017;72:110–17

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Randomized Trial Comparing Open Radical Cystectomy and Robot-assisted Laparoscopic Radical Cystectomy: Oncologic Outcomes
B.H. Bochner, G. Dalbagni, K.H. Marzouk, D.D. Sjoberg, J. Lee, S.M. Donat, J.A. Coleman, A. Vickers, H.W. Herr, V.P. Laudone
European Urology, Vol. 74, Issue 4, p465–471

2020

Robot-assisted AMS-800 Artificial Urinary Sphincter Bladder Neck Implantation in Female Patients with Stress Urinary Incontinence
Benoit Peyronnet, Gregoire Capon, Olivier Belas, Andrea Manunta, Clement Allenet, Juliette Hascoet, Jehanne Calves, Michel Belas, Pierre Callerot, Gregoire Robert, Aurelien Descazeaud, Georges Fournier
European Urology, Vol 75, Issue 1, p169–175

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1. Fritz Schröder
2. Urs Studer

Platinum Award Winners 2010

1. Christopher Chapple
2. Oliver Hakenberg
3. Rodolfo Montironi

Platinum Award Winners 2011

1. Guido Dalbagni
2. Monique J. Roobol

Platinum Award Winners 2012

1. Anders Bjartell
2. Markus Graefen
3. Mani Menon
4. Christian Stief
5. Tullio Sulser
6. Alexandre Zlotta

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2. Walter Artibani
3. Jacqueline Roelofswaard
4. Maurice Schlieff
5. Claude Schulman
6. Pierre Teillac
7. Manfred Wirth
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3. Henk van der Poel

Platinum Award Winners 2015

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3. Francesco Montorsi
4. Keith Parsons

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1. Matthew Gettman
2. George Thalmann

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1. Peter Albertsen
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3. James N'Dow
4. Daniel Sjoberg

Platinum Award Winners 2018

1. Peter Black
2. Christopher Evans
3. Joan Palou-Redorta
4. Monique Roobol
5. Shahrokh Shariat

Platinum Award Winners 2019

1. Stephen Boorjian
2. Fiona Burkhard
3. Pierre Karakiewicz
4. Luis Martinez-Piñero
5. Peter Mulders
6. Maria Ribal

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2. Karim Fizazi
3. Silke Gillissen
4. Caroline Moore
5. Declan Murphy
6. Karin Plass

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January: Massimo Maffezzini (Italy)

February: Hiten R. H. Patel (UK)

March: Pierre Karakiewicz (Canada)

April: Christian Gratzke (Germany)

May: Fred Witjes (The Netherlands)
June: Ziya Kirkali (Turkey)
July: Bertrand Guillonneau (USA)
August: Chris Chapple (UK)
September: Axel Heidenreich (Germany)
October: Jean-Jacques Patard (France)
November: Oliver Reich (Germany)

Reviewer of the Year 2007

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2008 Reviewers of the Month

January: Shahrokh Shariat (USA)
February: Alberto Briganti (Italy)
March: Alexander Bachmann (Switzerland)
April: Scott Eggener (USA)
May: Roger Dmochowski (USA)
June: Felix K.-H. Chun (Germany)
July: Giacomo Novara (Italy)
August: Michael Blute (USA)
September: Patrick Bastian (Germany)
October: Rafael Badalyan (Armenia)
November: Henk van der Poel (The Netherlands)

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2009 Reviewers of the Month

January: Matthew Gettman (USA)
February: Oliver Hakenberg (Germany)
March: Riccardo Autorino (Italy)
April: Urs Studer (Switzerland)
May: Fritz Schröder (The Netherlands)
June: Petrisor Geavlete (Romania)
July: Clare Fowler (UK)
August: Francisco Cruz (Portugal)
September: John Denstedt (Canada)
October: Jacques Irani (France)
November: Apostolos Apostolidis (Greece)

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Henk van der Poel (The Netherlands)

2010 Reviewers of the Month

January: Ricarda Bauer (Germany)
February: Declan Murphy (Australia)
March: Harry Herr (USA)
April: Marko Babjuk (Czech Republic)
May: Umberto Capitanio (Italy)
June: Stephen Freedland (USA)
July: Richard Sylvester (Belgium)
August: Rufus Cartwright (UK)
September: Jens Rassweiler (Germany)
October: Mike Kattan (USA)
November: George Thalmann (Switzerland)

Reviewers of the Year 2010

Michael Kattan (USA)

Matthew Gettman (USA)

Giacomo Novara (Italy)

2011 Reviewers of the Month

January: Ofer Yossepowitch (Israel)
February: Theo de Reijke (The Netherlands)
March: Evangelos Liatsikos (Greece)
April: Christopher Eden (UK)
May: Ofer Gofrit (Israel)
June: James Catto (UK)
July: R. Houston Thompson (USA)
August: Karim Bensalah (France)
September: Gianluca Giannarini (Italy)
October: Mesut Remzi (Austria)
November: Peter Albertsen (USA)

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Alexander Bachmann (Switzerland)

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January: Francesco Greco (Germany)
February: Stephen Boorjian (USA)
March: Jean-Nicolas Cornu (France)
April: Mark Emberton (UK)
May: Firas Abdollah (Italy)
June: Stephan Madersbacher (Austria)
July: Michael Rink (Germany)
August: Rik Bryan (UK)
September: Sabine Brookman-May (Germany)
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November: Hendrik Isbarn (Germany)

Reviewers of the Year 2012

Peter Albertsen (USA)
Jean-Nicolas Cornu (France)
Gianluca Giannarini (Switzerland)

2013 Reviewers of the Month

January: Massimo Lazzeri (Italy)
February: Guillaume Ploussard (France)
March: Derya Tilki (Germany)
April: Giuseppe Simone (Italy)
May: Evangelos Xylinas (USA)
June: Joseph Chin (Canada)
July: Rodolfo Montironi (Italy)
August: Matthew Galsky (USA)
September: Hashim Ahmed (UK)
October: Peter Black (Canada)
November: Tobias Klatte (Germany)

Reviewers of the Year 2013

Francesco Greco (Germany)
Stephen Boorjian (USA)
Matthew Galsky (USA)

2014 Reviewers of the Month

January: Morgan Rouprêt (France)
February: Malte Rieken (Switzerland)
March: Jochen Walz (France)
April: Noburo Hara (Japan)
May: Aidan Noon (UK)
June: Stacy Loeb (USA)

July: Dan Sjoberg (USA)
August: Cosimo De Nunzio (Italy)
September: Michael Abern (USA)
October: Fumitaka Koga (Japan)
November: Christopher Barbieri (USA)

Reviewers of the Year 2014

Noboru Hara (Japan)
Aidan Noon (UK)
Christopher Barbieri (USA)

2015 Reviewers of the Month

January: Bertram Yuh (USA)
February: Francesco Porpiglia (Italy)
March: Henry Woo (Australia)
April: Umberto Anceschi (Italy)
May: Kazutaka Saito (Japan)
June: Alessandra Mosca (Italy)
July: Giorgio Gandaglia (Italy)
August: Sarah Psutka (USA)
September: Daniel Moreira (USA)
October: Boris Gershman (USA)
November: Roderick van den Bergh (The Netherlands)

Reviewers of the Year 2015

Giorgio Gandaglia (Italy)
Joseph Chin (Canada)
Boris Gershman (USA)

2016 Reviewers of the Month

January: Paolo Verze (Italy)
February: Liam Bourke (UK)
March: Brant Inman (USA)
April: Maurizio Serati (Italy)
May: William Parker (USA)
June: Homayoun Zargar (Australia)
July: Ola Bratt (UK)
August: Riccardo Bartoletti (Italy)
September: Zachary Klaassen (Canada)
October: Francesco Sanguedolce (Italy)
November: Antonio Galfano (Italy)

Reviewers of the Year 2016

Ola Bratt (Sweden)
Riccardo Bartoletti (Italy)
Zachary Klassen (Canada)

2017 Reviewers of the Month

January: Steeve Doizi (France)
February: Kazuto Ito (Japan)
March: Harras Zaid (USA)
April: Alberto Bossi (France)
May: Joshua Meeks (USA)
June: Zoran Culig (Austria)
July: Nicola Fossati (Italy)
August: Alexander Kutikov (USA)
September: Melissa Assel (USA)

October: Maximilien Gilles-André Baron (France)
November: Bimal Bhindi (Canada)

Reviewers of the Year 2017

Alexander Kutikov (USA)
Melissa Assel (USA)
Nicola Fossati (Italy)
Kazuto Ito (Japan)

2018 Reviewers of the Month

January: Andrea Necchi (USA)
February: Christopher Wallis (Canada)
March: Ross Mason (Canada)
April: Joseph Clark (USA)
May: Giorgio Russo (Italy)
June: Benoit Peyronnet (France)
July: Timothy Lyon (USA)
August: Ardalan Ahmad (Canada)
September: Alastair Lamb (UK)
October: Paul Boutros (Canada)
November: Paras Shah (USA)

Reviewers of the Year 2018

Andrea Necchi (USA)
Christopher Wallis (Canada)
Alastair Lamb (UK)

2019 Reviewers of the Month

January: Keith Lawson (Canada)
February: Alessandro Antonelli (Italy)
March: Christopher Filson (USA)
April: Scott Eggener (USA)
May: Sumanta Pal (USA)
June: Panagiotis Kallidonis (Greece)
July: Adam Weiner (USA)
August: Stephen Williams (USA)
September: Daniel Spratt (USA)
October: Jacob Patterson (UK)
November: Ryan Hutchinson (USA)

Reviewers of the Year 2019

Daniel Spratt (USA)
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Stephen Williams (USA)

2020 Reviewers of the Month

January: Mikkel Fode (DK)
February: Marco Borghesi (Italy)
March: Fumitaka Koga (JP)
April: Camilio Porta (Italy)
May: Jeffery Tosoian (USA)
June: Douglas Cheung (CAN)
July: Xavier Deffieux (France)
August: Yair Lotan (USA)
September: Daniel Geynisman (USA)
October: Andrea Cocci (Italy)



Platinum Opinion

Focus on the Quality of Prostate Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging: Synopsis of the ESUR/ESUI Recommendations on Quality Assessment and Interpretation of Images and Radiologists' Training

Maarten de Rooij^a, Bas Israël^a, Tristan Barrett^b, Francesco Giganti^{c,d}, Anwar R. Padhani^e, Valeria Panebianco^f, Jonathan Richenberg^g, Georg Salomon^h, Ivo G. Schoots^{i,j}, Geert Villeirs^k, Jochen Walz^l, Jelle O. Barentsz^{a,*}

^a Department of Radiology, Nuclear Medicine, and Anatomy, Radboudumc, Nijmegen, The Netherlands; ^b Department of Radiology, CamPARI Prostate Cancer Group, Addenbrooke's Hospital and University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK; ^c Department of Radiology, University College London Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK; ^d Division of Surgery & Interventional Science, University College London, London, UK; ^e Paul Strickland Scanner Centre, Mount Vernon Cancer Centre, Northwood, UK; ^f Department of Radiological Sciences, Oncology and Pathology, Sapienza University of Rome, Rome, Italy; ^g Department of Imaging, Brighton and Sussex University Hospital NHS Trust, Brighton, UK; ^h Martini Clinic, University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany; ⁱ Department of Radiology & Nuclear Medicine, Erasmus MC University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands; ^j Department of Radiology, Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; ^k Department of Radiology, Ghent University Hospital, Ghent, Belgium; ^l Department of Urology, Institute Paoli-Calmettes Cancer Center, Marseille, France

Introduction

Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) has an established upfront role in the diagnostic pathway for men with a clinical suspicion of prostate cancer [1,2]. The patient benefits from prebiopsy use of prostate MRI to decide on subsequent MRI-guided biopsy (MRI pathway) compared to a systematic transrectal ultrasound-guided biopsy approach (SB) in three ways. The MRI pathway can reduce the number of unnecessary biopsies, minimise overdiagnosis of low-grade (grade group [GG] ≥ 1) cancers with noninferiority for detecting clinically significant (GG ≥ 2) cancers [3], and improve risk stratification of patients by facilitating targeted biopsies [4].

Incorporation of prostate MRI in the diagnostic pathway will lead to an increase in demand for high-quality mpMRI. In Europe and the USA, this is predicted to equate annually to approximately two million additional prostate MRI scans. In clinical practice, there is considerable variation in acquisition parameters and image quality for prostate MRI [5]. It is of paramount importance that all examinations and subsequent reports are of the highest quality for a test that is central to

triage. Poor quality will result in both unnecessary biopsies and missed diagnosis of clinically significant cancer. Paradoxically, there is a lack of agreed—let alone stringent—standards for acquisition that are applicable to all radiologists who independently read prostate MRI scans. To ensure the availability of high-quality prostate MRI scans between centres and radiologists at this time of expansion, the Prostate MRI Quality Subcommittees of the European Society of Urogenital Radiology (ESUR) and the European Association of Urology Section of Urologic Imaging (ESUI) formulated consensus-based criteria for prostate MRI acquisition, reporting, and training [6].

Synopsis of quality consensus statements

The ESUR and ESUI consensus paper comprises a structured and systematic summary of the opinions of recognised experts in diagnostic prostate MRI on quality measures that are not adequately addressed by existing literature. For this purpose, a modified Delphi-method was used with a panel of 44 expert prostate radiologists and urologists specialised in prostate imaging. The panellists completed two rounds of

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E-mail address: jelle.barentsz@radboudumc.nl (J.O. Barentsz).



Table 1 – Consensus-based recommendations on image quality assessment, evaluation of interpretation performance, and reader experience with prostate mpMRI [6]

Image quality	Interpretation performance	Reader experience
Checking and reporting on image quality should be performed	To evaluate interpretation performance, radiologists should use self-performance tests	Before interpreting prostate mpMRI scans, radiologists should receive training Radiologists should undertake a combination of core theoretical prostate mpMRI courses and hands-on practice at workstations with supervised reporting Training should be certified
Visual image assessment by radiologists is adequate for determining diagnostic acceptability	Assessment of radiologists' performance should be performed using histopathology feedback and by comparison to expert reading	For good prostate mpMRI quality, assessment of technical quality measures should be in place A peer review of image quality should be organised Minimal technical requirements of PI-RADS v2 should be met
Image quality control should be performed at ≥ 6 -mo intervals or in 5% of studies	To evaluate the radiologists' interpretation performance, external performance assessments should be done	PI-RADS should be used as the basis for assessments Prostate radiologists should be aware of alternative diagnostic methods Radiologists should participate in MDT meetings or attend MDT-type workshops The MDT must include MRI review with histology results The MDT must include urology, radiology, pathology, and medical and radiation oncology specialists Prostate radiologists should have knowledge on the added value of MRI and the consequences of false results Prostate radiologists should have roles in shared decision-making with respect to biopsy strategies
The radiology community should work on a standardised phantom for ADC measurements		

ADC = apparent diffusion coefficient; MDT = multidisciplinary team; mpMRI = multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging; PI-RADS = Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System.

a questionnaire comprising 55 items addressing three main topics: (1) assessments of image quality for prostate MRI; (2) requirements for radiologists interpreting and reporting prostate MRI; and (3) learning and experience prerequisites for independent reporting. Thirty-one of the 55 questions (56%) were rated for agreement on a 9-point scale, while the other 24 (44%) were multiple choice or open questions. The consensus-based recommendations formulated are summarised in [Table 1](#).

Image quality assessment

The panellists agreed that commenting on image quality based on visual assessment by the reporting radiologist is mandatory in order to indicate the diagnostic power of the MRI study. For MRI radiographers this will provide feedback for quality improvement. For urologists, it will indicate the value of the particular MRI scan in their clinical management, that is, how reliably a $GG \geq 2$ cancer can be ruled out or ruled in, or whether the scan should be repeated. A set of objective criteria for assessing image quality is not provided in the current consensus paper. The ESUR/ESUI Prostate MRI Quality Subcommittees hope to develop a consensus-based scoring system that will require prospective validation to fill this gap.

Prerequisites for interpretation and reporting for MRI readers

The panellists agreed that radiologists should monitor their individual diagnostic performance through (1) audit against histopathology feedback; (2) (self-)performance tests; and

(3) comparison of their results against expert readers. In addition, benchmarking to peers' performances should be undertaken.

Radiologists' learning and reporting expertise

The members of the expert panel suggest mandatory use of the Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System (PI-RADS) standardised reporting system and the introduction of distinct quality criteria levels for radiologists who want to become independent prostate MRI readers or expert readers. The criteria are based on the number of cases read, cases per year, (self-)performance tests, and percentage agreement with expert training centres ([Table 2](#)). Before reading prostate MRI scans, radiologists must attend a combination of theoretical and hands-on courses, followed

Table 2 – Consensus-based criteria for basic versus expert radiologists [6]

Criterion	Basic	Expert
Minimum number of supervised cases before independent reporting	100	N/A
Minimum number of cases read	400	1000
Minimum number of cases per year	150	200 ^a
Examination interval (yr)	1	4
Agreement in double reads with expert centre (%)	80	≥ 90

N/A = not applicable.

^a No panel majority; the most frequent answer was 200 cases/yr (18/44 of panellists, 41%); the second most frequent answer was ≥ 500 cases/yr (14/44 of panellists, 32%).

by supervised education. Participation in multidisciplinary team (MDT) meetings is compulsory. In MDTs, urologists, pathologists, and radiologists are advised to critically review PI-RADS scores versus the histopathology of biopsy cores or whole-mount radical prostatectomy specimens in order to reduce overdiagnosis and underdiagnosis of GG \geq 2 cancers. Furthermore, radiologists should play an active role in the decision-making process on the need for MRI-targeted biopsies and the method by which they are carried out.

Conclusions

This consensus expert opinion report from ESUR and ESUI members builds on the standards set out in the PI-RADS documents. It provides guidance on prostate MRI acquisition and sets out metrics to gauge and to improve on the reporting expertise of clinicians involved in prostate cancer diagnosis. These criteria, which were derived using the Delphi method, are likely to serve as a starting point for certification of individual radiologists for performing unsupervised reading of prostate MRI scans and for accreditation of centres for their prostate MRI diagnostic pathway. The goal is a centre providing high-quality image acquisition, confident and reliable MRI reports, precise targeted biopsies, and accurate pathology assessment. More immediately, these criteria may help to focus the entire

MDT on MRI quality and thus continuous development of radiological expertise and clinical-radiological dialogue.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Platinum Opinion

DNA Repair and Prostate Cancer: A Field Ripe for Harvest

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There was welcome news for prostate cancer patients with the recent data showing antitumor activity for four PARP inhibitors; two of these; (olaparib and rucaparib) are now approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for men with metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with selected DNA repair defects (DRDs) [1,2]. Additional clinical trials are in progress for talazoparib, veliparib, and niraparib [3,4]; more progress can be anticipated in the near future.

Rucaparib was given accelerated approval for the treatment of mCRPC with deleterious *BRCA* alterations (germline and/or somatic) previously treated with both abiraterone/enzalutamide and docetaxel. Olaparib was approved for mCRPC progressing after enzalutamide and/or abiraterone with deleterious germline alterations in *BRCA1/BRCA2* or various somatic homologous recombination repair (HRR) defects. Olaparib was approved for those with somatic deleterious alterations in the *BRCA* genes and *ATM*, *BARD*, *BRIP1*, *CDK12*, *CHEK1*, *CHEK2*, *FANCL*, *PALB2*, *RAD51B*, *RAD51C*, *RAD51D*, and *RAD54L*. These PARP inhibitors represent the second precision medicine approach approved relevant to prostate cancer; the first was pembrolizumab for cancers with defective mismatch-repair or microsatellite instability (MSI high) [5]. The FDA approval of these PARP inhibitors and pembrolizumab now mandate genomic analysis of advanced prostate cancer.

While the *BRCA* genes are central to HRR, some of the other alterations prospectively studied in mCRPC PARP inhibitor trials are involved in DNA repair but not directly involved in HRR. Available evidence for antitumor activity against DRDs in mCRPC without *BRCA* alterations is potentially positive (Table 1) but quite limited for the relatively rare patients with alterations in *PALB2*, *BRIP1*, *RAD51B*, *RAD54L*, and *FANCA*, and quite modest for DRD alterations in *ATM*. Data supporting the antitumor activity

of PARP inhibitors are unclear for patients with deleterious alterations in *BARD*, *CHEK1*, *CHEK2*, *FANCL*, *RAD51C*, and *RAD51D*.

ATM senses DNA damage and activates DNA repair, and is thus only indirectly involved in HRR. Responses to PARP inhibitors in mCRPC with deleterious *ATM* alterations have been observed but the PFS data in PROfound were not distinct from the control group [2]. However, there were significant differences between the pre- and post-taxane cohorts, with the latter appearing to experience more benefit. Radiographic response rates across multiple phase 2 trials have ranged from 10.5% in TRITON2 to 8.3% in TOPARP-B and 7.1% in TALAPRO-1 [1,3,6].

CDK12 regulates the expression of multiple DNA repair genes and is key to genomic stability, but is not directly involved in HRR. Data to support PARP inhibitor antitumor activity for those with altered *CDK12* are arguably limited, but preliminary data suggest that pembrolizumab may have antitumor activity for this subset [7].

Critically important challenges to these analyses include data generation and analyses for putative predictive biomarkers; these represent a clear deficiency in the current state of the art, with difficulties in the following:

- Acquiring genomic sequencing from small paraffin-embedded, formalin-fixed biopsies;
- Understanding that these alterations may emerge with treatment, and may only be present in mCRPC biopsies; and
- Interpreting genomic data to identify sensitizing alterations.

Importantly, approximately 30% of tumor tissue blocks submitted for testing in the olaparib PROfound trial failed quality control testing, with no genomic testing data

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Table 1 – Genes involved in HRR, trial results, and recommendations for clinical use of PARP inhibitors.

Gene	Role in HRR	Clinical benefit [2–4,7,8]	Evidence-based assessment
<i>BRCA2</i> (<i>FANCD1</i>)	Binds directly to <i>RAD51</i> to facilitate its recruitment to sites of DNA double strand breaks (DSB). Leads to the recruitment of <i>BRCA1</i> and CtIP proteins to sites of DNA DSB.	PROfound: HR 0.21 (95% CI 0.13–0.32) TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 98; 25/57 (44%), 51/98 (52%) ^a TOPARP-B: <i>n</i> = 30; RR 11/21 (52%), PSA ₅₀ 23/30 (77%), CTC = 17/22 (77%) ^a TALAPRO-1: <i>n</i> = 40; RR 22/32 (68.8%), PSA ₅₀ 29/40 (73%) GALAHAD: <i>n</i> = 23; 5/13 (39%), PSA ₅₀ 13/23 (57%), CTC 11/23 (48%) ^a	Clear benefit from PARP inhibitors
<i>BRCA1</i>	Required for initiation of precise end-joining repair via interaction with <i>Ku80</i> at DSB sites and promotes HRR via dephosphorylation of <i>53BP1</i>	PROfound: HR 0.41 (05% CI 0.13–1.39) TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 98; 25/57 (43.9%), 51/98 (52%) ^a TOPARP-B: <i>n</i> = 30; RR 11/21 (52%), PSA ₅₀ 23/30 (77%), CTC 17/22 (77%) ^a TALAPRO-1: <i>n</i> = 5; RR 2/4 (50%), PSA ₅₀ 2/5 (40%) GALAHAD: <i>n</i> = 23; 5/13 (39%), PSA ₅₀ 13/23 (57%), CTC 11/23 (48%) ^a	Clear benefit from PARP inhibitors
<i>ATM</i>	Controls cell-cycle checkpoint signaling pathways that are needed to initiate HRD in the presence of DNA damage; however, <i>ATM</i> null cells remain HRR proficient, suggesting that <i>ATM</i> loss is not a HRD aberration	PROfound: HR 1.04 (95% CI 0.61–1.87) TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 49; RR 2/19 (11%), PSA ₅₀ 2/49 (4%) TOPARP-B: <i>n</i> = 19; RR 1/12 (8%), PSA ₅₀ 1/19 (5%), CTC 5/10 (50%) TALAPRO-1: <i>n</i> = 16; RR 2/14 (14%), PSA ₅₀ 4/16 (25%)	Modest antitumor activity; further study needed; trial participation preferred; ATR inhibitors, and ATR combinations perhaps with PARP inhibitors, merit clinical evaluation
<i>BARD1</i>	Controls cell cycle in the presence of DNA damage via interaction with <i>BRCA1</i>	No data available	No evidence for PARP inhibitor use; trial participation preferred
<i>BRIP1</i> (<i>FANCF</i>)	Associates with the <i>BRCA1</i> complex at DSB sites	TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 2; RR 1/2 (50%); PSA ₅₀ 1/2 (50%)	Limited data demonstrating potential activity; further study needed; trial participation preferred
<i>CDK12</i>	Phosphorylates RNA polymerase II and selectively affects the expression of genes involved in DNA damage response, thus indirectly impacting HRD	PROfound: HR 0.74 (95% CI 0.44–1.31) TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 15; RR 0/10 (0%), PSA ₅₀ 1/15 (7%) TOPARP-B: <i>n</i> = 20; RR 0/18 (0%), PSA ₅₀ 0/20 (0%), CTC 5/12 (42%)	At best, modest antitumor activity; further data needed; trial participation preferred; immune checkpoint drugs targeting PD-1/PD-L1 should be considered
<i>CHEK2</i>	Cell-cycle checkpoint inhibitor that activates DNA repair and apoptosis in the presence of DSBs via phosphorylation of <i>BRCA1</i> and <i>BRCA2</i> (repair) and of <i>TP53</i> (apoptosis)	PROfound: HR 0.87 (95% CI 0.23–4.13) TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 12; 1/9 (11%), PSA ₅₀ 2/12 (17%)	Little evidence for antitumor activity; trial participation preferred; role of ATR inhibitors and their combinations merits exploration in this subset
<i>FANCA</i>	Part of the Fanconi anemia core complex that initiates DNA repair by attracting HRD proteins to the area of DNA damage; interacts directly with <i>BRCA1</i>	TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 4; RR 1/4 (25%), PSA ₅₀ 1/4 (25%)	Limited data demonstrating potential activity; further study needed; trial participation preferred
<i>NBN</i> (<i>NIBRIN</i>)	P95 protein is part of the <i>RAD50/MRE11A/NBS1</i> complex involved in DNA repair	TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 4; RR 0/4 (0%), PSA ₅₀ 0/4 (0%)	No antitumor activity seen in limited data; further study needed; trial participation preferred
<i>PALB2</i>	Recruits <i>RAD51</i> and <i>BRCA2</i> to sites of DNA breaks and serves as the molecular scaffold for the <i>BRCA2-RAD51</i> complex in HRR	PROfound: <i>n</i> = 7; RR 2/6 (33%), 4/6 (67%) TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 2; RR 1/2 (50%), PSA ₅₀ 2/2 (100%) TOPARP-B: <i>n</i> = 7; RR 2/6 (33%), PSA ₅₀ 4/6 (67%), CTC 0/2 (0%) TALAPRO-1: <i>n</i> = 3; RR 1/2 (50%), PSA ₅₀ 2/3 (66.7%)	Consistent antitumor activity in limited data sets; clinical use of PARP inhibitors is justifiable, but further study or meta-analysis preferred; trial participation preferred
<i>RAD51</i>	Binds to sites of DNA breaks and encases the DNA in a protein sheath to initiate HRR; activity directly regulated by <i>BRCA2</i>	TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 1; RR 0/1 (0%), PSA ₅₀ 0/1 (0%)	No antitumor activity seen in limited data; further study needed; trial participation preferred
<i>RAD51B</i>	Forms a dimer with <i>RAD51C</i> to bind to DSB sites	TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 1; RR 1/1 (100%), PSA ₅₀ 1/1 (100%)	Limited data demonstrating potential antitumor activity; further study needed; trial participation preferred
<i>RAD51D</i>	Forms a protein complex with <i>RAD 51L1</i> , <i>RAD 51L2</i> , and <i>XRCC2</i> to catalyze homologous pairing between ssDNA and dsDNA	No data available	No evidence for PARP inhibitor use; trial participation preferred
<i>RAD54L</i>	Involved in the recombinatorial DNA repair pathway (<i>RAD52</i>); may dissociate <i>RAD51</i> from dsDNA	PROfound: HR 0.33 (95% CI 0.05–2.54) TRITON 2: <i>n</i> = 1; RR 0/1 (0%), PSA ₅₀ 0/1 (0%)	Limited data with potential antitumor activity; further study needed; trial participation preferred
<i>PPP2R2A</i>	Limited data; purported role as a tumor suppressor	PROfound: HR 6.61 (95% CI 1.41–46.41)	No antitumor activity seen in limited data; further study needed; trial participation preferred

CI = confidence interval; CTC = conversion of circulating tumor cell count; DSBs = double-strand breaks; dsDNA = double-stranded DNA; HR = hazard ratio for progression-free survival; HRR = homologous recombination repair; PSA₅₀ = 50% reduction in prostate-specific antigen from baseline; RR = RECIST response rate; ssDNA = single-stranded DNA.

^a Combined *BRCA1/2* results.

generated; this is clearly an area in need of improvement. Moreover, most of these tissues were archival biopsy or surgical specimens from the original prostate and not mCRPC tissue samples. While HRR alterations are often early events, evolution of HRR alterations in lethal subclones also occurs and studies of archival tissues may therefore provide inaccurate predictive biomarker data. Contemporaneous mCRPC assessment, however, remains challenging because of tissue accessibility, although the Triton study showed that liquid biopsies (eg, circulating tumor DNA) have high concordance with tissue biopsies.

Furthermore, biomarker studies conducted to date have not always distinguished between monoallelic and biallelic loss, and have failed to focus on the loss of protein function that creates the synthetic lethal interaction. Moreover, genomic alterations represent only one means of protein loss of function; promoter hypermethylation and micro-RNAs can also, for example, change protein expression without altering gene structure, and it is likely that in some tumors multiple alterations together lead to sensitization to PARP inhibition.

Overall, we envision that better assessment of tumor genomics will include contemporaneous sample analyses for biallelic deleterious alterations, with orthogonal functional assays detecting impaired DNA repair. Furthermore, analyses of disease evolution and subclone analyses are needed both to assess responsiveness to PARP inhibition and to monitor resistance. Positron emission tomography imaging of PARP activity as a biomarker is also an area of potential interest given the ability to carry out whole-body serial assessments. Much progress needs to occur at the intersection of biomarkers and clinical studies of PARP inhibition. There are also preclinical data suggesting that non-HRR gene loss may also be synthetically lethal with PARP inhibition, including loss of *RNASEH2B* at the *RB1* chromosome 13 locus [2]; additional studies are needed to evaluate this.

Finally, while PARP inhibition is clearly active as monotherapy, other agents that damage DNA may have antitumor activity against DRD mCRPC. Chemotherapy agents such as various platinum compounds, cyclophosphamide, and radiopharmaceuticals such as ^{223}Ra and ^{177}Lu PSMA-617 have been associated with clinical antitumor activity. Limited data comparing PARP inhibitors to other DNA-damaging agents are available, but more data are forthcoming. Multiple studies in prostate cancer combining PARP inhibitors with additional agents are under way, including a variety of DNA-damaging agents ($^{223}\text{radium}$, ^{177}Lu PSMA-617), immunomodulators (eg, pembrolizumab), and androgen axis blockers (abiraterone, enzalutamide). The rationale for these combinations in preclinical studies is clear but the current clinical data are immature. In addition, studies of novel agents targeting other DNA repair enzymes are of interest, including *ATR* inhibition which is of special interest for *ATM* altered mCRPC as well as tumors

with *RNASH2B/RB1* loss. Taken together, research studies of DNA repair defects in prostate cancer and their targeting are likely to yield a rich harvest and improve patient care over the next decade.

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Platinum Opinion

Re-establishing the Role of Robot-assisted Radical Cystectomy After the 2020 EAU Muscle-invasive and Metastatic Bladder Cancer Guideline Panel Recommendations

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Every year, the European Association of Urology (EAU) guideline panels make huge efforts to provide updated guidelines for the urology community that are essential to the improvement of routine clinical practice [1].

We have read with great interest the 2020 updated version of the guidelines on muscle-invasive and metastatic bladder cancer (MIBC) [2] and we would like to commend the panel for their monumental work. This being said, we were surprised to note that the panel defined open radical cystectomy (ORC) as the best surgical approach for MIBC patients [2]. Robot-assisted radical cystectomy (RARC) was introduced into clinical practice more than 17 yr ago, when Menon and colleagues' pioneered the field and described the technique [3], 4 yr after the da Vinci Surgical System was approved by the US Food and Drug Administration [4].

Since then, there have been continuous efforts to examine the surgical safety, the oncological and functional

efficacy, and the cost-effectiveness of RARC compared to the previous standard of care of ORC. Following the initial small, single-center case series [3,5], a large consortium was formed to prospectively enroll and monitor patients undergoing RARC in tertiary care centers [6–8]. Subsequently, updated data were published by this multi-institutional collaboration showing that RARC was safe and possibly advantageous in terms of in-hospital length of stay and perioperative transfusions. Along with these retrospective and nonrandomized data, five prospective randomized clinical trials (RCTs) [9–13] involving a total of 541 participants compared RARC and ORC in attempts to identify the technique of choice for radical cystectomy. Individual and pooled results [14,15] from these RCTs confirmed that RARC and ORC are similar in terms of oncological control (ie, time to recurrence), rates of positive margins, nodal yields, major complications (ie, Clavien-Dindo grades 3–5), and quality of

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life after surgery. An initial concern about aberrant local recurrence patterns and peritoneal carcinomatosis after RARC [16] has been rebutted [17] and conclusively refuted by these RCT data [14]; equally, this has just not been an issue in the worldwide RARC experience. Besides these similar findings, RARC probably results in lower blood loss and may lead to a shorter hospital stay and a lower rate of minor complications (Clavien grades 1 and 2) compared to ORC. Furthermore, preliminary data also suggest that the RARC approach is not negatively affected by neoadjuvant treatments, including both chemotherapy and immunotherapy [18–22]. Here, RARC showed similar rates of perioperative complications and noninferior surgical safety when compared to the open approach [23]. In addition, the feasibility of RARC was demonstrated in octogenarians and surgically complex patients [24,25]. Finally, from a surgical standpoint, RARC may reduce the learning curve, allowing faster training of experienced surgeons, who are claimed to be the main trigger for improving surgical safety and surgical outcomes [26–29]. Furthermore, RARC also seems to be favored from an ergonomic perspective for the urologist and the team members. Taking these points together and given the lack of clear superiority of one approach over the other, it should be concluded that RARC cannot be qualified as the standard of care for the surgical treatment of bladder cancer, but neither can the opposite be the case.

The robotic approach has gained in popularity, with patients increasingly requesting to be treated with RARC given its advantages such as the minimally invasive nature and shorter hospital stay and postoperative recovery. A recent study comparing trends in the use of RARC and ORC across tertiary-care teaching institutions in Europe and North America found that RARC has become the procedure more commonly performed among contemporary patients, with an increase from 29% in 2006–2008 to 54% in 2015–2018, while ORC decreased from 71% in 2006–2008 to 46% in 2015–2018 ($p < 0.001$) [30].

The pros and cons of a robotic versus an open approach have also been assessed for other urological malignancies. Robot-assisted radical prostatectomy and robot-assisted partial nephrectomy have proved to be noninferior in terms of surgical safety with similar postoperative rates of complications compared their open counterparts. Only one RCT comparing open versus robotic radical prostatectomy was published [31], and a few nonrandomized studies compared robotic and open partial nephrectomy [32]. Nevertheless, neither the prostate cancer [33] nor the kidney cancer [34] EAU Guideline Panels tipped the balance towards one or other technique, leaving informed patients with the choice of their preferred approach, as long as the choice is made between surgeons with similar experience in the two techniques.

We respectfully suggest that the MIBC Guidelines Panel statements that ORC is the “current best practice” and that RARC is “feasible but still investigational” do not reflect the real-life scenario or the contemporary literature. Available level 1A evidence proves that RARC and ORC can both be offered to patients as there are no significant perioperative,

postoperative, or long-term functional or oncological outcome differences, similar to the situation for prostate and kidney surgery. The evidence supporting RARC (five RCTs) is indeed much more robust than the evidence available for robotic radical prostatectomy (one RCT) or robotic partial nephrectomy (only retrospective evidence), yet nobody would argue about the contemporary role of robotic surgery in the latter two scenarios. We agree that RARC is still not performed in every center and is mainly centralized in tertiary care teaching institutions. This is mainly because RARC is an expensive procedure, primarily owing to the cost of the robot, which therefore is not available everywhere. In addition, radical cystectomy is a complex surgical procedure with high complication rates [22,23] regardless of the approach chosen (RARC vs ORC). As a consequence, radical cystectomy, whether ORC or RARC, should be performed only in high-volume centers where, as noted, a robotic platform is commonly available and used on a daily basis.

In conclusion, we believe that on the basis of the contemporary evidence and the worldwide trend towards increasing adoption of RARC, the MIBC Guidelines Panel should reconsider the recommendation suggesting ORC as the first choice for surgical management of bladder cancer. We believe that the surgeon’s understanding of the disease process, technical skills, and overall experience should be the main deciding factors when choosing between RARC and ORC.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Platinum Opinion – Reply

Reply to Francesco Montorsi, Marco Bandini, Alberto Briganti, et al. Re-establishing the Role of Robot-assisted Radical Cystectomy After the 2020 EAU Muscle-invasive and Metastatic Bladder Cancer Guideline Panel Recommendations. Eur Urol 2020;78:489–91

Can Open and Robotic Radical Cystectomy be Considered Equally Effective in 2020?

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We thank this large and prominent group of robotic experts for their comments [1] on the scientific summary of the updated version of the European Association of Urology guidelines on muscle-invasive and metastatic bladder cancer [2], published in this issue of *European Urology*. First, as this document presents a summary of a very large underlying document, not all details can be addressed. Table 12 in [2] (presented as Table 1 here) clearly describes the evidence level of the currently available evidence for robot-assisted radical cystectomy (RARC), which, alongside the recommendations, is referred to by Montorsi et al [1].

We do acknowledge, however, that evidence statement 7 in Table 13 [2] (“laparoscopic cystectomy and robotic-assisted laparoscopic cystectomy are feasible but still investigational. Current best practice is open RC.”), although with a level of evidence of only 3, should have been adapted since it is not aligned with Table 12 [2], so in that respect Montorsi et al are correct.

In addition, the second part of the sentence “current best practice is open radical cystectomy” (ORC) might read “current best practice is radical cystectomy”, although then, rightfully, the advocates of multimodal treatment might comment on this (see Table 16 in [2]).

In conclusion, the options for treatment of nonmetastatic muscle-invasive bladder cancer include ORC and RARC, as

well as multimodal treatment, and therefore we would like to rephrase the last sentence of Montorsi et al [1] as follows: “the specialist’s understanding of the disease process, technical skills, and overall experience should be the main deciding factors when discussing treatment options for nonmetastatic invasive bladder cancer with patients”.

This being said, we would like to make three comments about the equivalence of ORC and RARC. Addressing oncological outcomes, one would not expect significant differences in oncological outcomes between the two procedures, since the bladder and lymph nodes are taken out in both and the follow-up for RARC series is still shorter than for ORC series. One of the older studies with longer-term follow up, a large phase 3 trial comparing radiotherapy or cystectomy with and without neoadjuvant chemotherapy, showed decreasing metastasis-free survival, locoregional disease-free survival, and disease-free survival far beyond 5 yr of follow-up in all four arms [3]. In their review, Satkunasivam et al [4] based their conclusion about disease recurrence equivalence on 458 participants from only three out of the five studies included. The median follow-up in these studies was 4.9 yr in a trial not powered for this endpoint [5], 12 mo [6], and 2-yr progression-free survival [7]. Rightfully, the authors considered “the quality of evidence for this outcome to be moderate”. This reminds us of the hype around “total” androgen blockade for metastatic prostate cancer in the 1980s, which in the end failed to show a survival advantage.

A second point of attention is the fact that not all countries and centres have access to a robot, and those that do have a robot will first have to pass their learning curve. In that sense RARC cannot universally be considered as the standard of care.

A third point of concern is the costs for RARC. Although these will differ by country and situation, the price of the robot is certainly not the only factor that plays a role. Unfortunately, quality studies addressing cost-effectiveness are still lacking, but a recent paper that also investigated this aspect should shed some light on this issue [8].

In conclusion, the current literature does not show significant differences in outcomes after ORC and RARC, leaving, as Montorsi et al elegantly state, informed patients with the choice of their preferred approach, as long as this

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Table 1 – Summary of evidence and recommendations for laparoscopic/robotic-assisted laparoscopic cystectomy.

Summary of evidence	LE
RARC has longer operative time (1–1.5 h) and major costs, but shorter length of hospital stay (1–1.5 d) and less blood loss compared to ORC.	1
Retrospective RARC series suffer from a significant stage selection bias as compared to ORC.	1
Grade 3, 90-d complication rate is lower with RARC.	2
Most endpoints, if reported, including intermediate-term oncological endpoint and quality of life, are not different between RARC and ORC.	2
Surgeons experience and institutional volume are considered the key factor for outcome of both RARC and ORC, and not the technique.	2
Recommendations on how to define challenging patients and an experienced RARC surgeon are still under discussion.	3
The use of neobladder after RARC still seems underutilised, and functional results of intracorporeally constructed neobladders should be studied.	4
Recommendations	Strength rating
Inform the patient of the advantages and disadvantages of ORC and RARC to allow selection of the proper procedure.	Strong
Select experienced centres, not specific techniques, both for RARC and ORC.	Strong
LE = level of evidence; ORC = open radical cystectomy; RARC = robotic-assisted radical cystectomy.	

choice is made between surgeons with similar experience in the two techniques. As a consequence, radical cystectomy, whether ORC or RARC, should be performed only in high-volume centres where, as noted, a robotic platform is commonly available and used on a daily basis.

Conflicts of interest: J. Alfred Witjes is a company consultant for Spectrum, Tocagen, BioClin, Sanofi Aventis, Biocancell, and Nucleix; has received honoraria or consultation fees from Taris Biomedical, BMS, MSD Global Medical Affairs, and Roche Nederland BV; and has participated in

trials run by Taris, Cepheid, Arquer, and MEL Amsterdam. Maria J. Ribal has received company speaker honoraria from Janssen Laboratories, Olympus Iberia SAU, Astellas Pharma SA, and Ipsen Pharma; and has an interest in a patent held by Fina Biotech SLU for a method for noninvasive diagnosis of bladder cancer (European Patent Office number 13382030.8-1403). Antoine G. van der Heijden has nothing to disclose.

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Brief Correspondence

Prostate Cancer Risk by *BRCA2* Genomic Regions

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Abstract

A *BRCA2* prostate cancer cluster region (PCCR) was recently proposed (c.7914 to 3') wherein pathogenic variants (PVs) are associated with higher prostate cancer (PCa) risk than PVs elsewhere in the *BRCA2* gene. Using a prospective cohort study of 447 male *BRCA2* PV carriers recruited in the UK and Ireland from 1998 to 2016, we estimated standardised incidence ratios (SIRs) compared with population incidences and assessed variation in risk by PV location. Carriers of PVs in the PCCR had a PCa SIR of 8.33 (95% confidence interval [CI] 4.46–15.6) and were at a higher risk of PCa than carriers of other *BRCA2* PVs (SIR = 3.31, 95% CI 1.97–5.57; hazard ratio = 2.34, 95% CI 1.09–5.03). PCCR PV

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carriers had an estimated cumulative PCa risk of 44% (95% CI 23–72%) by the age of 75 yr and 78% (95% CI 54–94%) by the age of 85 yr. Our results corroborate the existence of a PCCR in *BRCA2* in a prospective cohort.

Patient summary: In this report, we investigated whether the risk of prostate cancer for men with a harmful mutation in the *BRCA2* gene differs based on where in the gene the mutation is located. We found that men with mutations in one region of *BRCA2* had a higher risk of prostate cancer than men with mutations elsewhere in the gene.

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We recently reported prostate cancer (PCa) risk estimates for pathogenic variants (PVs) in *BRCA2*, based on a prospective cohort of male carriers [1]. Variability in cancer risks due to genotype-phenotype correlations may allow for more individualised counselling and screening. We noted that PVs within the so-called ovarian cancer cluster region (OCCR) in exon 11 of the gene [2–4] were associated with a lower PCa risk than other *BRCA2* PVs [1,3,4]. PVs in the OCCR have consistently been shown to be associated with an increased ovarian cancer risk but a decreased breast cancer risk [2,3,5,6], although the precise boundaries of the OCCR [3,5] and the mechanisms behind this risk variation remain uncertain. It has been proposed that the likelihood that a PV triggers nonsense-mediated mRNA decay varies by genomic region [7,8] so that OCCR PVs might produce a truncated or alternatively spliced protein the capability of which to suppress tumours varies by cancer type [2,3,5,7,8], but there is currently no experimental support for this hypothesis [7]. Shortly after the publication of our manuscript, Patel and coworkers [8] proposed the existence of a prostate cancer cluster region (PCCR) at the 3' end of *BRCA2*, based on retrospective cohort data. This retrospective study reported that men with *BRCA2* PVs in the proposed PCCR have a higher risk of PCa (hazard ratio [HR] = 1.78, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.25–2.52), particularly Gleason score ≥ 8 PCa (HR = 3.11, 95% CI 1.63–5.95), than men with PVs in the reference region c.1001 to c.7913, but did not present estimates of the absolute PCa risk for PCCR PV carriers [8]. In order to substantiate or refute this association, and to provide direct estimates of the absolute risk of PCa for carriers of *BRCA2* PCCR PVs, we have reanalysed our prospective data.

The prospective cohort comprised 447 male *BRCA2* PV carriers who were recruited to the EMBRACE study (<http://ccge.medschl.cam.ac.uk/embrace/>) through clinical genetics centres in the UK and Ireland between 1998 and 2016 at a median age of 51.4 yr (interquartile range 41.5–63.6 yr). The participants were counselled with regard to their PV. Detailed information on the cohort and on inclusion criteria, data collection, follow-up, and statistical analysis approach is available in our recent publication [1]. The participants' PVs (listed in Supplementary Table S1) were grouped on the basis of position within the *BRCA2* gene, based on the proposed PCCR (c.7914 to 3' [8]; HGVS nomenclature [<http://varnomen.hgvs.org/>]; using cDNA reference sequence NM_000059.3 and reference genome hg18) and the wide definition of the OCCR (c.2831 to c.6401) [1–4]. We

additionally considered the region bounded by c.756 and c.1000 in which Patel and coworkers [8] found evidence of an increased PCa risk, but due to a small sample size ($n = 1$) we could not estimate the PCa risk associated with this region. Here, we also present floating absolute risks (FARs) [9] to enable risk comparisons between any of the considered genomic regions.

The Anglia and Oxford Medical Research and Ethics Committee approved the study. All participants provided written informed consent.

Twenty-six participants developed PCa during a median follow-up of 5.3 yr (interquartile range 2.6–8.9 yr) [1]. Carriers of PVs in the PCCR ($n = 93$) had a PCa standardised incidence ratio (SIR) of 8.33 (95% CI 4.46–15.6), whereas carriers of PVs elsewhere in *BRCA2* ($n = 354$) had an SIR of 3.31 (95% CI 1.97–5.57) compared with population incidences. This corresponds to a significantly higher PCa risk associated with PVs in the PCCR than PVs not in the PCCR (HR = 2.34, 95% CI 1.09–5.03; Table 1). Compared with PVs in the region c.1001 to c.7913 [8], PCCR PVs were associated with an HR of 2.09 (95% CI 0.98–4.45). As previously reported, the SIR for carriers of PVs in the wide definition of the OCCR ($n = 178$) was 2.46 (95% CI 1.07–5.64) [1], and the risk for carriers of PCCR PVs was also significantly higher than that for OCCR PV carriers (HR = 3.41, 95% CI 1.27–9.16). The SIR for PVs located in the region bounded by the OCCR and the PCCR (c.6402 to c.7913; $n = 66$) was estimated to be 6.14 (95% CI 2.18–17.3), and the SIR for *BRCA2* PVs upstream of the OCCR (5' to c.2830; $n = 108$) was 3.50 (95% CI 1.48–8.26). The FARs for the comparison of risks across the four regions suggested that the observed increased risk associated with PVs in the PCCR may partly be driven by the lower risk associated with PVs in the OCCR (Table 1). The proportional hazard assumption was violated for the model with all genomic regions fitted (Schoenfeld residual test, $p = 0.003$); in line with this the corresponding Kaplan-Meier plot indicated that the risks might be similar between OCCR and PCCR PV carriers at younger ages but deviate at older ages. PCCR PV carriers had an estimated cumulative PCa risk of 44% (95% CI 23–72%) by the age of 75 yr and 78% (95% CI 54–94%) by 85 yr. After omitting the first 6 mo of follow-up to assess the possible effect of screening-associated diagnoses of indolent PCa, the corresponding estimates were 41% (95% CI 20–73%) and 69% (95% CI 42–91%), respectively (Fig. 1).

The difference in PCa risk for PVs in the PCCR versus that in the OCCR remained statistically significant after adjusting

Table 1 – Prostate cancer risk by location of *BRCA2* pathogenic variant.

PV location	N	Person years	Observed events	Incidence rate per 1000 person years (95% CI)	Expected events	SIR (95% CI)	HR (95% CI)	FAR (95% CI)
<i>Compared with non-PCCR PVs</i>								
Non-PCCR (5' to c.7913)	354	2029.8	15	7.39 (4.45–12.3)	4.53	3.31 (1.97–5.57)	Reference	
PCCR (c.7914 to 3')	93	524.6	11	21.0 (11.4–38.7)	1.32	8.33 (4.46–15.6)	2.34 (1.09–5.03)	
<i>Compared with OCCR PVs</i>								
5' to c.2830	108	625.8	5	7.99 (3.37–19.0)	1.43	3.50 (1.48–8.26)	1.72 (0.50–5.94)	1.72 (0.70–4.24)
OCCR (c.2831 to c.6401) ^a	178	1054.4	6	5.69 (2.54–12.8)	2.44	2.46 (1.07–5.64)	Reference	1.00 (0.43–2.33)
c.6402 to c.7913	66	338.8	4	11.8 (4.29–32.5)	0.65	6.14 (2.18–17.3)	3.23 (0.79–13.2)	3.23 (1.15–9.11)
PCCR (c.7914 to 3')	93	524.6	11	21.0 (11.4–38.7)	1.32	8.33 (4.46–15.6)	3.41 (1.27–9.16)	3.41 (1.96–5.95)
Indeterminable	2							

CI = confidence interval; FAR = floating absolute risk; HR = hazard ratio; OCCR = ovarian cancer cluster region; PCCR = prostate cancer cluster region; PV = pathogenic variant; SIR = standardised incidence ratio.

^a Detailed results for carriers of PVs in the OCCR are available in a previous publication [1].

for family history of PCa (number of first- and second-degree relatives diagnosed with PCa; adjusted HR = 3.00, 95% CI 1.06–8.54) or geographical location (adjusted HR = 3.79, 95% CI 1.41–10.2). This difference remained similar after omitting the first 6 mo of follow-up (HR = 3.96, 95% CI 1.18–13.3), related individuals (HR = 4.29, 95% CI 1.30–14.2), and carriers of PVs in the region c.756 to c.1000 (HR = 3.42, 95% CI 1.27–9.18) or missense variants (HR = 3.76, 95% CI 1.36–10.4). When carriers of the Ashkenazi founder PV c.5946delT ($n=42$), which is located in the OCCR, was omitted, the difference in PCa risk between PCCR and OCCR PV carriers was not statistically significant, but the HR estimate was of similar magnitude (HR = 2.89, 95% CI 0.98–8.53; Supplementary Table S2).

We did not observe a higher risk of Gleason score ≥ 8 PCa for PVs in the PCCR than for PVs not in the PCCR (HR = 0.87, 95% CI 0.12–6.34) or in the region c.1001 to c.7913

(HR = 0.79, 95% CI 0.11–5.69). However, the HRs did not differ significantly from those for Gleason score ≤ 7 PCa (PCCR vs non-PCCR: HR = 3.32, 95% CI 1.25–8.84; test for heterogeneity, $p = 0.052$; PCCR vs c.1001 to c.7913: HR = 2.94, 95% CI 1.11–7.80; test for heterogeneity, $p = 0.088$).

Our results corroborate the observation that carriers of PVs in the PCCR of the *BRCA2* gene [8] are at a higher risk of PCa than other *BRCA2* PV carriers. Patel and coworkers [8] reported an HR of 1.78 (95% CI 1.25–2.52) compared with PVs in the region c.1001 to c.7913, consistent with our HR estimate of 2.09 (95% CI 0.98–4.45). Our findings do not support a stronger association with a more aggressive phenotype, but these estimates were based on a small number of cases and the associated CIs are wide. PV carriers may receive enhanced screening, which may lead to biases in comparisons against the population incidence [1]. However, current screening practices do not differ by *BRCA2* PV

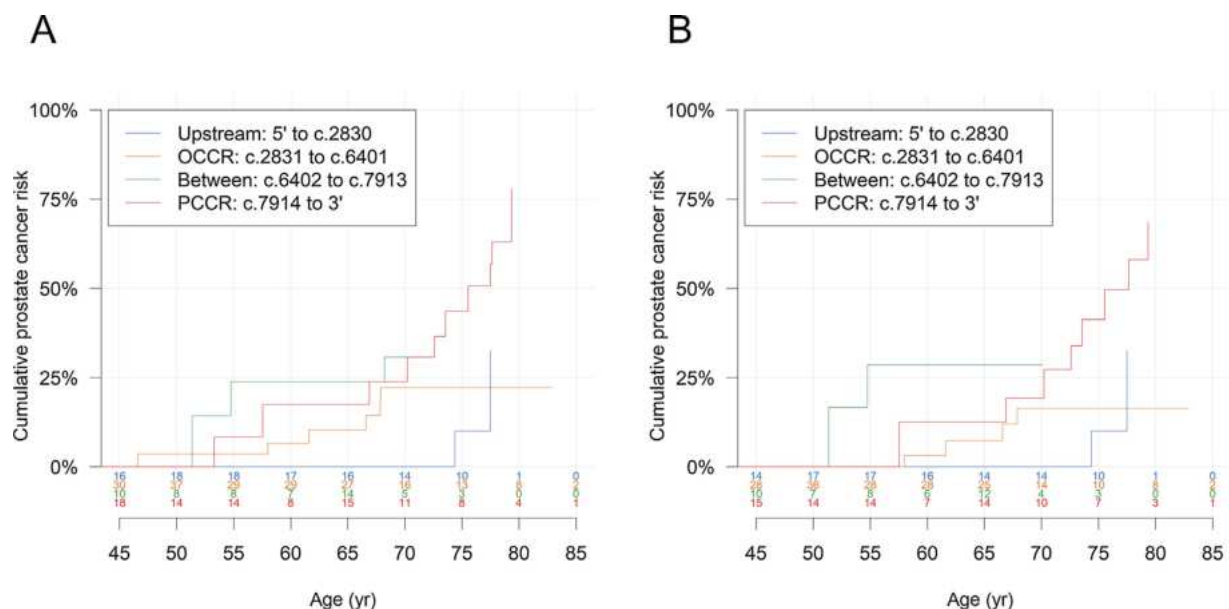


Fig. 1 – Absolute prostate cancer risk (A) by location of *BRCA2* pathogenic variant and (B) by location of *BRCA2* pathogenic variant and with follow-up initiated 6 mo after study entry. The number at risk at each age is shown above the x-axis. The curves are truncated at ages when fewer than five participants are at risk. OCCR = ovarian cancer cluster region; PCCR = prostate cancer cluster region.

location, and so this is unlikely to have confounded the comparisons between the *BRCA2* genomic regions. A much larger cohort of unaffected carriers with longer follow-up is required to provide more precise PV-specific risk estimates and to further clarify whether the observed variation in risk reflects lower risks associated with PVs outside the OCCR and PCCR than the risk associated with PCCR PVs, or solely a lower risk associated with PVs in the OCCR.

Author contributions: Tommy Nyberg had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.05.005>.

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Brief Correspondence – Editor's Choice

Stool Microbiome Profiling of Patients with Metastatic Renal Cell Carcinoma Receiving Anti-PD-1 Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors

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Abstract

Preclinical models and early clinical data suggest an interplay between the gut microbiome and response to immunotherapy in solid tumors including metastatic renal cell carcinoma (mRCC). We sought to characterize the stool microbiome of mRCC patients receiving a checkpoint inhibitor (CPI) and to assess treatment-related changes in microbiome composition over the course of CPI therapy. Stool was collected from 31 patients before initiation of nivolumab (77%) or nivolumab plus ipilimumab (23%) therapy, of whom 58% experienced clinical benefit. Greater microbial diversity was associated with clinical benefit from CPI therapy ($p = 0.001$), and multiple species were associated with clinical benefit or lack thereof. Temporal profiling of the microbiome indicated that the relative abundance of *Akkermansia muciniphila* increased in patients deriving clinical benefit from CPIs. This study substantiates results from previous CPI-related microbiome profiling studies in mRCC. Temporal changes in microbiome composition suggest potential utility in modulating the microbiome for more successful CPI outcomes.

Patient summary: We compared the composition and diversity of the gut microbiome in patients receiving immunotherapy for renal cell carcinoma. We found that higher microbial diversity is associated with better treatment outcomes. Treatment response is characterized by changes in microbial species over the course of treatment.

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For patients with metastatic renal cell carcinoma (mRCC) it remains unclear who will experience clinical benefit with checkpoint inhibitors (CPIs) and why, so there is a need for clinically validated biomarkers. Studies using somatic

genomic sequencing have revealed alterations in individual genes (eg, *PBRM1*) and genomic signatures (eg, myeloid inflammatory gene expression) as predictive of response to CPIs in mRCC [1]. Recent data further indicate that the gut



microbiome plays a role in dictating immunotherapy response. Vetizou et al [2] reported that anti-CTLA-4 activity in melanoma murine models depends on the presence of *Bacteroides* spp., while Sivan and colleagues [3] showed that the activity of anti-PD-L1 agents is correlated with *Bifidobacterium* spp. Clinical work in melanoma implicates Ruminococcaceae, *Bifidobacterium longum*, *Collinsella aerofaciens*, *Enterococcus faecium*, and *Faecalibacterium* spp. in therapeutic response to CPIs [4–6]. In the context of RCC and non-small-cell lung cancer, Routy et al [7] demonstrated that resistance to CPIs can be modulated by an abnormal gut microbiome composition; the abundance of *Akkermansia* spp. in patients' stool at the time of diagnosis is associated with clinical response to CPIs.

We conducted a prospective observational study to determine the association between baseline gut microbial diversity and clinical benefit in patients with mRCC receiving CPIs (nivolumab monotherapy or nivolumab with ipilimumab). Patients with pathologically confirmed mRCC according to standard criteria (American Joint Committee on Cancer CC 7th edition) set to receive a standard-of-care nivolumab-based regimen were eligible for this study. Key exclusion criteria included gastrointestinal comorbidities such as irritable bowel syndrome or the use of antibiotics within 14 d of enrollment. The protocol and informed consent form were approved by an institutional review board.

Patients were followed for the first 3 mo of CPI therapy for specimen and data collection. Patients were asked to provide three stool collections (baseline, 1 mo, and 3 mo) and three blood samples (to be assessed in future studies). All patients agreed to refrain from intake of yogurt or other bacteria-fortified foods (including supplemental probiotics) for 3 mo after enrollment. Response to CPIs was classified as complete response (CR), partial response (PR), stable disease (SD), or progressive disease (PD) according to RECIST v1.1 criteria. On the basis of radiographic response, patients were classified as experiencing clinical benefit (CR,

PR, or SD > 4 mo) or no clinical benefit (PD). Gut microbiota composition was assessed using whole-genome shotgun metagenomic sequencing [8]. An overview of the laboratory and computational methods is provided in the Supplementary material.

Between February 2017 and May 2019, 31 patients were enrolled; Supplementary Table 1 lists the patient characteristics. Within the cohort, 11 patients (35%) achieved CR or PR and seven patients (23%) achieved SD of at least 4 mo. All 31 patients provided a baseline stool sample within the 7 d before CPI initiation, for which whole-metagenome sequencing was performed. A total of 26 patients (84%) submitted at least one follow-up stool sample at a median of 28 d following CPI initiation (interquartile range 25–37 d). Twelve patients (39%) also provided a third stool sample a median of 79 d into therapy (interquartile range 57–84 d). Bray-Curtis hierarchical cluster analysis revealed differences in microbiome profile between the clinical benefit and no clinical benefit groups (Supplementary Fig. 1). LEfSe identified 13 bacterial species with a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) score of ≥ 3 that distinguished between patients who experienced clinical benefit and those who did not (Fig. 1) using stool collected across all time points. Species with the greatest significance among patients with clinical benefit were *Bifidobacterium adolescentis* ($p = 0.002$), *Barnesiella intestinihominis* ($p = 0.002$), *Odoribacter splanchnicus* ($p = 0.006$), and *Bacteroides eggerthii* ($p = 0.009$). Patients experiencing clinical benefit had greater alpha diversity according to the Shannon index ($p = 0.001$) using stool collected across all time points (Fig. 2A,B).

Phylogenetic diversity was quantified for each patient across collection time points. Taxa bar plots in Fig. 2C depict patient-specific changes in microbiome composition between time points on CPI regimens. Among patients experiencing clinical benefit, the relative abundance of *Akkermansia* spp. generally increased across the CPI therapy timeline. Patients 4, 16, 30, 31, and 39 are among those representative of this phenomenon. In addition, patients 20,

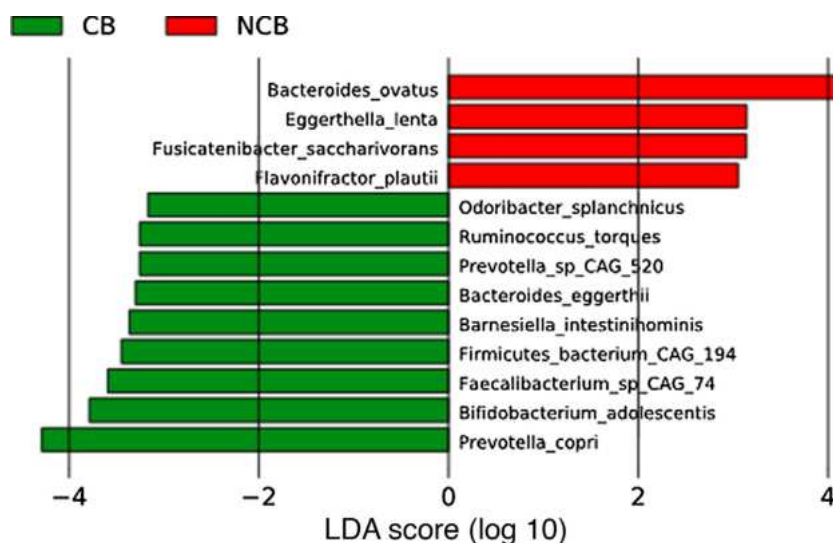


Fig. 1 – Top organisms of significance by response with a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) score of >3 as determined using LEfSe. CB=clinical benefit; NCB=no clinical benefit.

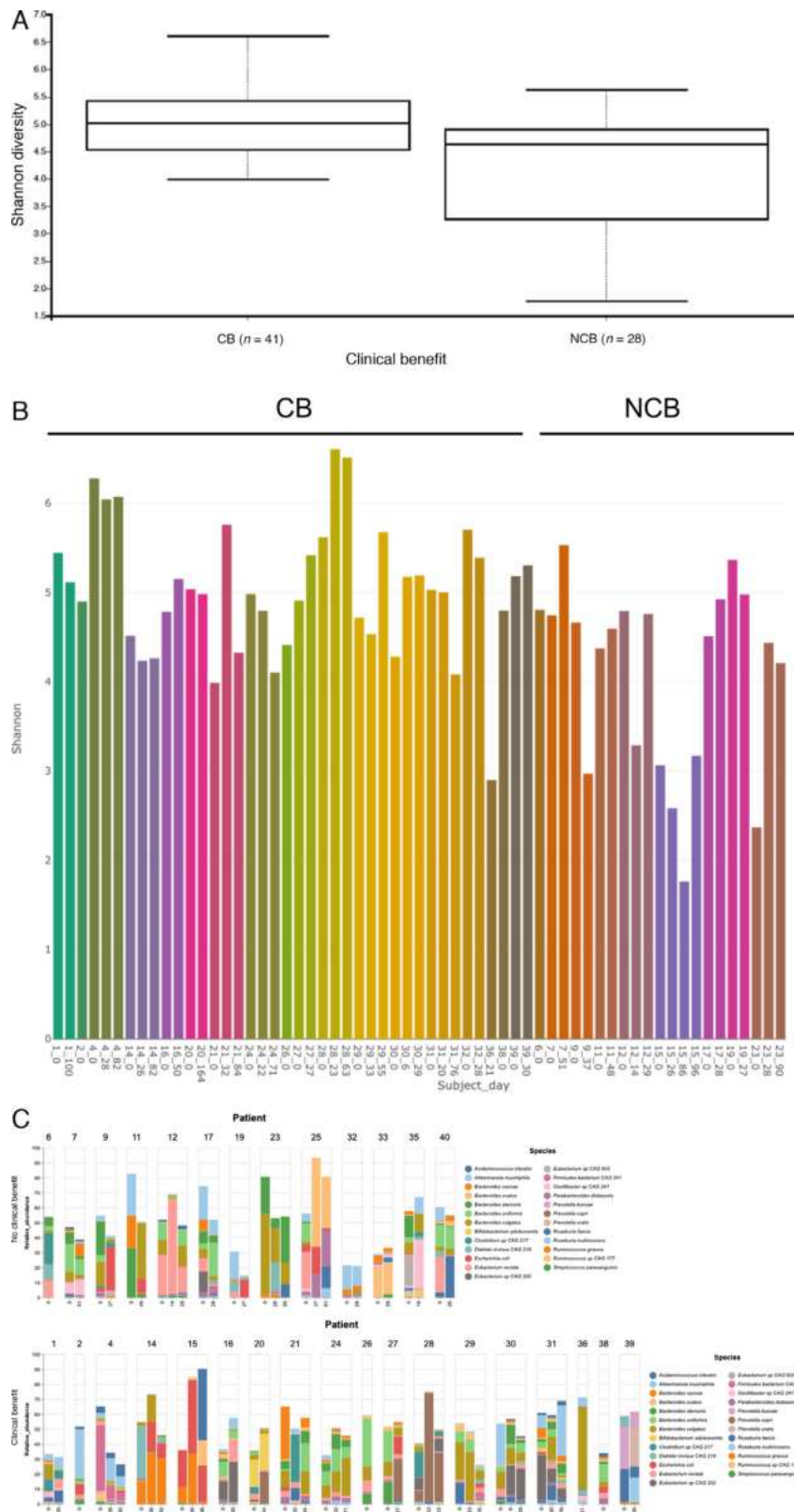


Fig. 2 – (A) Boxplot of alpha diversity (Shannon diversity index) for patients with clinical benefit (CB) or no clinical benefit (NCB); $p = 0.001$, Kruskal-Wallis test. (B) Shannon diversity index for all patient samples across all time points. (C) Bar plots of top taxa depicting temporal differences in bacteriomic profiles among patients with CB or NCB with checkpoint inhibitor use.

27, and 28 (who all derived clinical benefit) demonstrated increases in the abundance of *Prevotella copri* while on CPI therapy.

Our results represent the first US-based study seeking an association between microbiome composition and immunotherapy response in mRCC patients. The novelty of the study design lies in sequential profiling of the microbiome. These results suggest that certain species (eg, *P. copri*) appear to expand in relative abundance in patients deriving clinical benefit. Interestingly, *Akkermansia muciniphila* increased in relative abundance in many patients deriving clinical benefit, but decreased in relative abundance in many patients not deriving clinical benefit. Although we did not find an association between baseline *A. muciniphila* and clinical benefit, this has been implicated in a previous study [7].

Limitations of the study include the method of stool collection. Stool was collected in a small, non-vacuum-sealed container, so propagation of aerobic bacteria was possible. Collection of stool specimens at distal time points was also challenging. At 4 wk, for instance, only 19 patients (63%) submitted stool specimens as mandated by the study protocol. This could reflect a subset of patients who progressed, but most patients were simply noncompliant with the submission schedule. Our study also encompassed a broad line-of-therapy range. The approval of nivolumab with ipilimumab in April 2018 shifted accrual towards a more substantial proportion of patients receiving this combination in the frontline setting. It is important to note that only 50% of patients on nivolumab monotherapy experienced clinical benefit, whereas 86% of those receiving combination therapy achieved a benefit. Another limitation to consider is our approach of combining specimens across time points. We feel that this approach is justified as the inpatient heterogeneity within our cohort (as demonstrated in Fig. 2A–C) was limited as compared to the interpatient heterogeneity.

These limitations notwithstanding, our results have led to the development of a phase 1 randomized clinical trial at our institution investigating the role of gut microbial modulation in CPI response. In this study, we are using the standard first-line regimen of nivolumab with ipilimumab, with or without CBM-588 (NCT03829111). CBM-588 is a strain of *Clostridium butyricum* with immunomodulatory and anti-inflammatory effects in the intestinal epithelium; the agent may foster the development of a more favorable microbiome, including species cited herein that are associated with CPI response [9,10].

Author contributions: Sumanta K. Pal had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Pal, Caitano Maia, Hsu, Highlander.

Acquisition of data: Bergerot, Dizman, Hsu, Salgia, Gillece, Folkerts, Reining, Pal, Highlander.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Bergerot, Dizman, Hsu, Salgia, Gillece, Folkerts, Reining, Pal, Highlander.

Drafting of the manuscript: Salgia, Pal.

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Statistical analysis: Dizman, Gillece, Folkerts, Reining, Highlander.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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Platinum Priority – Prostate Cancer

Editorial by Maarten de Rooij, Bas Israël, Joyce G.R. Bomers, Ivo G. Schoots and Jelle O. Barentsz on pp. 512–514 of this issue

Additional Value of Dynamic Contrast-enhanced Sequences in Multiparametric Prostate Magnetic Resonance Imaging: Data from the PROMIS Study

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Abstract

Background: Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (MP-MRI) is established in the diagnosis of prostate cancer, but the need for enhanced sequences has recently been questioned.

Objective: To assess whether dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging (DCE) improves accuracy over T2 and diffusion sequences.

Design, setting, and participants: PROMIS was a multicentre, multireader trial, with, in this part, 497 biopsy-naïve men undergoing standardised 1.5T MP-MRI using T2, diffusion, and DCE, followed by a detailed transperineal prostate mapping (TPM) biopsy at 5 mm intervals. Likert scores of 1–5 for the presence of a significant tumour were assigned in strict sequence, for (1) T2 + diffusion and then (2) T2 + diffusion + dynamic contrast-enhanced images.

Outcome measurements and statistical analysis: For the primary analysis, the primary PROMIS outcome measure (Gleason score $\geq 4+3$ or ≥ 6 mm maximum cancer length) on TPM was used, and an MRI score of ≥ 3 was considered positive.

Results and limitations: sensitivity without and with DCE was 94% and 95%, specificity 37% and 38%, positive predictive value 51% and 51%, and negative predictive value 90% and 91%, respectively ($p > 0.05$ in each case). The number of patients avoiding biopsy (scoring 1–2) was similar (123/497 vs 121/497, $p = 0.8$). The number of equivocal scores (3/5) was slightly higher without DCE (32% vs 28% $p = 0.031$). The proportion of MRI equivocal (3/5) and positive (4–5) cases showing significant tumours were similar (23% and 71% vs 20% and 69%). No cases of dominant Gleason 4 or higher were missed with DCE, compared with a single case with T2 + diffusion-weighted imaging. No attempt was made to correlate lesion location on MRI and

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histology, which may be considered a limitation. Radiologists were aware of the patient's prostate-specific antigen.

Conclusions: Contrast adds little when MP-MRI is used to exclude significant prostate cancer. **Patient summary:** An intravenous injection of contrast may not be necessary when magnetic resonance imaging is used as a test to rule out significant tumours in the prostate.

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1. Introduction

Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (MP-MRI) is now a well-established tool in the diagnostic pathway of suspected prostate cancer before biopsy [1]. Standards for the conduct of the study have been part of both versions of the Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System (PIRADS) scoring systems [2,3], and in each case, have included dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging (DCE) sequences as standard in addition to T2 and diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI).

Version 2.1 of PIRADS acknowledges recent data, suggesting that the additional utility of DCE for the detection of tumour may be limited and provides a structure for reporting “biparametric” (T2 and diffusion) studies, although it does not go as far as recommending the routine exclusion of DCE [4]. One of the main reasons for retaining DCE sequences was the lack of robust data on its diagnostic accuracy from multi-institutional trials with multiple readers [4].

The PROMIS study was a large, multicentre, prospective study with the primary aim of assessing the diagnostic accuracy of prebiopsy MP-MRI using standard 1.5 T machines without an endorectal coil [5]. We report on an embedded prospective assessment of the additional value of DCE over a set of T2 and diffusion-weighted images.

2. Patients and methods

The PROMIS trial was a prospective, multicentre, paired validating cohort study reported to the Standards for Reporting Diagnostic Accuracy (STARD) [5–7]. A total of 576 biopsy-naïve men with a clinical suspicion of prostate cancer and prostate-specific antigen (PSA) <15 ng/ml underwent 1.5 T MP-MRI followed by a detailed combined biopsy, with transperineal mapping of the whole prostate at 5 mm intervals as well as the standard 12-core transrectal ultrasound (TRUS) biopsy. The methods and results are described in detail in a number of papers [5,7,8] but are summarised here.

2.1. MRI conduct and reporting

All patients received MP-MRI compliant with European Society of Uro-Radiology guidelines [2], with 1.5 T magnetic field strength and a pelvic phased-array coil. This included T2-weighted, diffusion-weighted (including a dedicated $b = 1400$ s/mm² sequence), and dynamic gadolinium contrast-enhanced (with an approximately 15 s time resolution) sequences (Table 1).

The radiologists from the 11 UK centres in the trial (1) had experience of reporting MP-MRI (although there was no minimum criterion for the length of experience) and (2) attended a single day-long training session. Reporting was on a standardised MRI report format (Fig. 1), with the prostate divided into 12 distinct regions of interest. In one sitting, the radiologist assigned a Likert score of 1–5 [9] for each grid point, firstly viewing the T2 images alone, then T2 + diffusion-weighted images, and finally T2+ diffusion-weighted + dynamic contrast-enhanced images, in strict sequence and with no retrospective revisions allowed. The overall score of the likelihood of tumour in each patient was defined as the maximum score within the 12 boxes of the grid for each of T2, T2 + DWI, and T2 + DWI + DCE sequences. Reporters were blind to any histological data but were aware of the patient's PSA.


2.2. Standard of reference: biopsy

The protocol allowed men with T4 disease on imaging or prostate size >100 cc to exit the trial without biopsy; otherwise, the series is consecutive. The MP-MRI report remained blinded to all other physicians and trial staff, and the combined prostate biopsy procedure was performed with no knowledge of the MP-MRI. The transperineal prostate mapping (TPM) biopsy results were used as the reference standard in the main study findings and also in this paper. Biopsy reporting was completed by one of two expert uropathologists blinded to all MR images and TRUS-biopsy findings. As in the main study, two definitions of clinically significant cancer were used (based on previous work using biopsy simulations [10]): definition 1 (primary outcome) was Gleason score $\geq 4+3$ or cancer core length ≥ 6 mm of any grade, and definition 2 was Gleason score $\geq 3+4$ or cancer core length ≥ 4 mm of any grade.

Table 1 – MRI parameters.

	TR	TE	Flip angle (degree)	Plane	Slice thickness, mm (gap)	Matrix size	Field of view (mm)	Time from scan
T2 TSE	5170	92	180	Axial, coronal, sagittal	3 (10% gap)	256 × 256	180 × 180	3 min 54 s (axial)
VIBE fat sat	5.61	2.52	15	Axial	3	192 × 192	260 × 260	Continue for at least 5 min 30 s after contrast
Diffusion (b values: 0, 150, 500, 1000)	2200	Min (<98)		Axial	5	172 × 172	260 × 260	5 min 44 s (16 average)
Diffusion (b = 1400)	2200	Min (<98)		Axial	5	172 × 172	320 × 320	3 min 39 s (32 average)

MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; TE = echo time; TR = repetition time.



MP-MRI - Form 2
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Patient's Initials: [redacted] Date of Birth: [redacted] Trial No.: [redacted] Reporter: Local Central Additional

Hospital Number: [redacted] Scan Date: [redacted]

PSA ng/ml: Tesla scanner: 1.5 OR 3.0 Are you blind to all results for this patient? Yes No

1. SIZE OF PROSTATE

Transverse: cm Anterior-Posterior: cm Cranio-Caudal: cm Volume: cm³

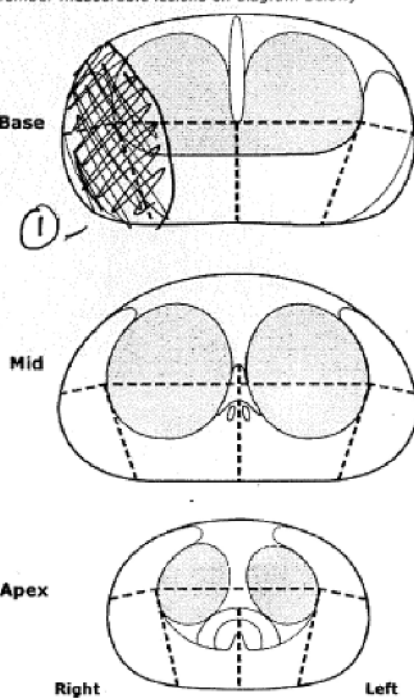
If gland volume is $\geq 100\text{cm}^3$ submit this form immediately to the MRC CTU and complete a withdrawal form.

2. SECTOR (for UCL Definition Two disease) (Report strictly in order, and put a value 1-5[†] in each ROI). P = Posterior <1.7cm (measured from posterior capsule)

	T2	T2 + DW	T2 + DW + DCE
Base	A: <input type="text" value="4"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>
	P: <input type="text" value="4"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="5"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>
Mid	A: <input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>
	P: <input type="text" value="3"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="3"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>
Apex	A: <input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>
	P: <input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>	<input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="2"/>

Risk category	Disease Threshold	MRI Score [†] (1-5)		
		R	L	Overall
Any cancer	Any Disease	5	2	5
Definition Two (Primary outcome)	$\geq 0.2\text{cc}$ and/or $\geq 3+4$	5	2	5
Definition One	$\geq 0.5\text{cc}$ and/or $\geq 4+3$	5	2	5
Dominant Gleason 4	$\geq 4+3$	5	2	5

3a. INDIVIDUAL LESIONS (Please draw and number measurable lesions on diagram below)



3b. INDIVIDUAL LESIONS (Using the lesions drawn in 3a please score each lesion on the table below)

Lesion No.	T2	D	C	All	Curve 1=Slow rise 2=Flat 3=Early peak	ADC Value	Zone PZ/TZ/CZ/ Combination	Max diameter mm	Volume (cm ³) or 'Diffuse'	Distance from posterior capsule mm	Estimated Gleason Grade e.g. 3+4	Estimated Cancer Significance
1	4	5	5	5	2	0.4	PZ	23	1.2	0	4+3	Def 1
2											+	
3											+	
4											+	
5											+	
6											+	

4. STAGING

	Vesicles involved?	Extra-capsular?	Sphincter (T4)?	Rectum (T4)?	Nodes?
MRI Score [†] (1-5)					
If score > 2, Left, Right or Bilateral?					
	1	4	1	1	4
		R			R

Submit this form immediately and complete a withdrawal form if giving a score of 4 or 5

If score for nodes > 2, max short axis nodal diameter? (mm)

MRI Score
 1=Highly likely benign
 2=Likely benign
 3=Equivocal
 4=Likely malignant
 5=Highly likely malignant

Signature: [redacted] Author Name: [redacted] Report Date: [redacted]

Please email a scanned copy to MRCCTU.PROMIS@ucl.ac.uk

Fig. 1 – A sample PROMIS study MRI reporting form. DCE = dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging; DW = diffusion weighted; MP-MRI = multiparametric MRI; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; UCL = University College London.

2.3. Changes from the pilot phase

For the purpose of this analysis, we included patients from the main phase of the PROMIS trial only (n=497). Seventy-nine patients in the pilot phase were excluded because the sequenced reporting was for a threshold of “any tumour”. This was amended so that radiologists were asked to determine whether they suspected the presence of “clinically significant cancer” (≥0.2 cc and/or Gleason score ≥3+4) in the main phase of the trial (see Fig. 1 for the report form).

2.4. Statistical analysis

The diagnostic accuracy of each of the three sequence combinations was assessed against multiple histological thresholds of significant disease using contingency tables. For the primary analysis, a score of ≥3 on MRI was compared with histological definition 1 of a significant tumour, which was used in the previously published primary outcome paper for PROMIS [5]. PROMIS was not powered to detect differences between sequences, and our analysis must therefore be viewed as exploratory.

Given the paired nature of the data, we used McNemar’s test to analyse the differences between T2 + DWI and T2 + DWI + DCE. As it was not the main aim of the paper, and to limit the number of statistical comparisons, we did not compare the results of reporting with T2 sequences alone. To compare the positive predictive value (PPV) and negative predictive value (NPV) for the different MRI sequences against TPM biopsy, we used a general estimating equation logistic regression model [11,12], as these are dependent on the prevalence of disease. The TPM results serve as the outcome variable, while the explanatory variable is the MRI result for each individual and each sequence. For NPV, the coding logic was reversed (ie, a negative biopsy was coded as 1 and a positive biopsy was coded as 0) as the test result of interest is correct detection of the absence of clinically significant cancer on the TPM biopsy.

All analyses were done using Stata version 15.1 software (Stata Corporation, College Station, TX, USA).

3. Results

In the 497 men assessed, cancer was detected in 71% (354/497) of patients who had undergone TPM biopsies. Of all the men, 59% (293/497) had definition 2 (Gleason score ≥3+4 or cancer core length ≥4mm) and 41% (203/497) had definition 1 (Gleason score ≥4+3 or cancer core length ≥6mm) disease (Table 2).

Using definition 1 (Table 3), the addition of DCE to T2 + DWI did not result in statistically significant differences in sensitivity (95% with DCE vs 94% without, p= 0.7), specificity (38% vs 37%, p= 0.7), PPV (51% vs 51%, p= 0.6) and NPV (91% vs 90%, p= 0.6).

Table 2 -- Participant characteristics.

Variable	Median (interquartile range)
Age	64 (58–69)
PSA (ng/ml)	6.5 (5.0–8.8)
Cancer prevalence on biopsy	
Any cancer	71% (354/497)
Definition 1 *	41% (203/497)
Definition 2 *	59% (293/497)
Dominant Gleason pattern 4 or higher grade	11% (53/497)
Any Gleason pattern 4 disease	56% (276/497)

PSA = prostate-specific antigen.

Table 3 – Diagnostic accuracy of T2 + DWI and T2 + DWI + DCE in the detection of definition 1 clinically significant prostate cancer (≥4 + 3 or core length ≥ 6 mm).

MRI sequences	Diagnostic accuracy, MRI score ≥3 considered positive (with 95% confidence intervals)			Patients scoring 1 or 2 (potentially avoiding biopsy)	Proportion scoring 3/5	Proportions with MRI score 3 that were positive on biopsy	Proportions with MRI score 4–5 that were positive on biopsy
	Sens	Spec	NPV				
T2	96% (92–98)	30% (24–35)	49% (44–54)	92% (84–96)	242/497 (49%)	77/242 (32%)	118/160 (74%)
T2 + DWI	94% (90–97)	37% (32–43)	51% (46–56)	90% (83–95)	158/497 (32%)	37/158 (23%)	154/218 (71%)
T2 + DWI + DCE	95% (91–97)	38% (33–44)	51% (46–57)	91% (85–95)	136/497 (28%)	27/136 (20%)	165/238 (69%)
Additional benefit of adding DCE sequence (with 95% confidence intervals)	1% (-1.8 to 3.8)	1% (-5 to 7)	0% (-6.2 to 6.2)	1% (-2.6 to 4.6)			

DCE = dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging; DWI = diffusion-weighted imaging; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; NPV = negative predictive value; PPV = positive predictive value; Sens = sensitivity; Spec = specificity.

Table 4 – Diagnostic accuracy of T2, T2 + DWI, and T2 + DWI + DCE in the detection of alternate definitions of clinically significant prostate cancer.

MRI Sequence	Diagnostic accuracy			
	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV
Definition 2: Gleason score $\geq 3+4$ or cancer core length ≥ 4 mm				
T2	91% (88–94)	34% (28–41)	67% (62–71)	74% (64–82)
T2 + DWI	89% (85–92)	44% (37–51)	69% (64–74)	74% (65–81)
T2 + DWI + DCE	88% (84–92)	44% (37–51)	69% (64–74)	72% (64–80)
Dominant pattern 4: Gleason score $\geq 4+3$ irrespective of cancer core length				
T2	98% (90–100)	21% (17–25)	13% (10–17)	99% (94–100)
T2 + DWI	98% (90–100)	27% (23–31)	14% (11–18)	99% (95–100)
T2 + DWI + DCE	100% (93–100)	28% (24–32)	14% (11–18)	100% (97–100)
Any pattern 4: Gleason score $\geq 3+4$ irrespective of cancer core length				
T2	93% (89–96)	34% (28–41)	64% (59–68)	79% (69–87)
T2 + DWI	89% (85–93)	42% (35–48)	66% (61–70)	76% (67–83)
T2 + DWI + DCE	89% (85–93)	43% (36–49)	66% (61–71)	76% (68–84)

DCE = dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging; DWI = diffusion-weighted imaging; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; NPV = negative predictive value; PPV = positive predictive value.

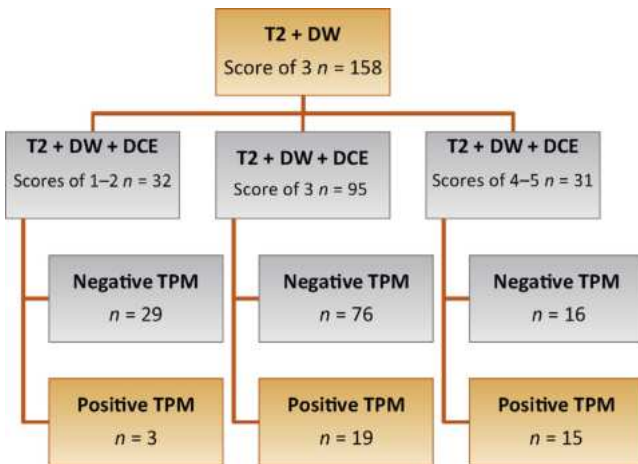


Fig. 2 – Flowchart describing changes to the scores of 3/5 on T2 + DWI that were made with the addition of contrast, and the results of TPM biopsy for UCH definition 1 disease. DCE = dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging; DWI = diffusion-weighted imaging; TPM = transperineal prostate mapping; UCH = University College Hospital.

When using an alternative threshold of histological significance (definition 2, any tumour of grade $\geq 3+4$ and any tumour of grade $\geq 4+3$), there were no statistically significant differences in diagnostic accuracy metrics between T2 + DWI and T2 + DWI + DCE (Table 4, $p > 0.05$ in all cases).

Addition of DCE was helpful in correctly identifying all 53 dominant pattern 4 lesions (Table 4) compared with both T2 and T2 + DWI, which assigned one case as nonsuspicious (a score of 2 compared with a score of 3 with DCE). Using DCE in combination with T2 + DWI, 25% (123/497) of patients were scored negative for a significant tumour on MRI, compared with 24% (121/497) with T2 + DWI alone ($p = 0.8$, McNemar’s test). The addition of DCE reduced the number of equivocal scores (3/5) slightly, with 28% of patients classified as equivocal compared with 32% using T2 + DWI alone ($p = 0.031$, McNemar’s test; Table 3). Fig. 2 outlines the changes to scores of 3/5 on T2 + DWI that were made with the addition of contrast, together with the corresponding histological results.

Figs. 3 and 4 show the proportion of significant tumours for each MRI score, using T2 + DWI and T2 + DWI + DCE, for four definitions of clinically significant cancer.

4. Discussion

4.1. Main findings

The addition of DCE to T2 and DWI did not improve diagnostic accuracy in a multicentre study that compared MRI with transperineal mapping biopsy as a reference standard for the detection of clinically significant prostate cancer. The proportion of patients with an equivocal score of 3 was slightly lower for DCE versus non-DCE reporting.

4.2. Previous publications

Three groups in particular have examined a strategy of limited “biparametric” MRI (T2 and DWI sequences) as a subset of full PIRADS 2-compliant MP-MRI [13–15]. The methods vary widely, with a DCE time resolution between 3 s [14] and 8 s [13], and template saturation biopsy [13], targeted biopsy [14], or TRUS biopsy and prostatectomy [15] for histological confirmation, as well as differences in reader experience and reporting criteria. None, however, found a significant improvement in diagnostic accuracy with contrast. The heterogeneity in methods suggests that a meta-analysis will be challenging, although it has been attempted: Woo et al [16] found 20 studies suitable for inclusion in a meta-analysis of “head-to-head” comparisons, with a total of 2142 patients. They found no convincing difference between biparametric MRI and MP-MRI with contrast, although they acknowledged (and attempted to analyse) differences in MRI field strength, use of endorectal coil, reader experience, reporting system (Likert/PIRADS 1/PIRADS 2), use of DCE parametric analysis, and DCE time resolution.

We found that sensitivity of T2 sequences alone for significant tumours was high. It has been known for some time that most significant prostate cancers are visible on T2 sequences, in both the peripheral [17] and the transition

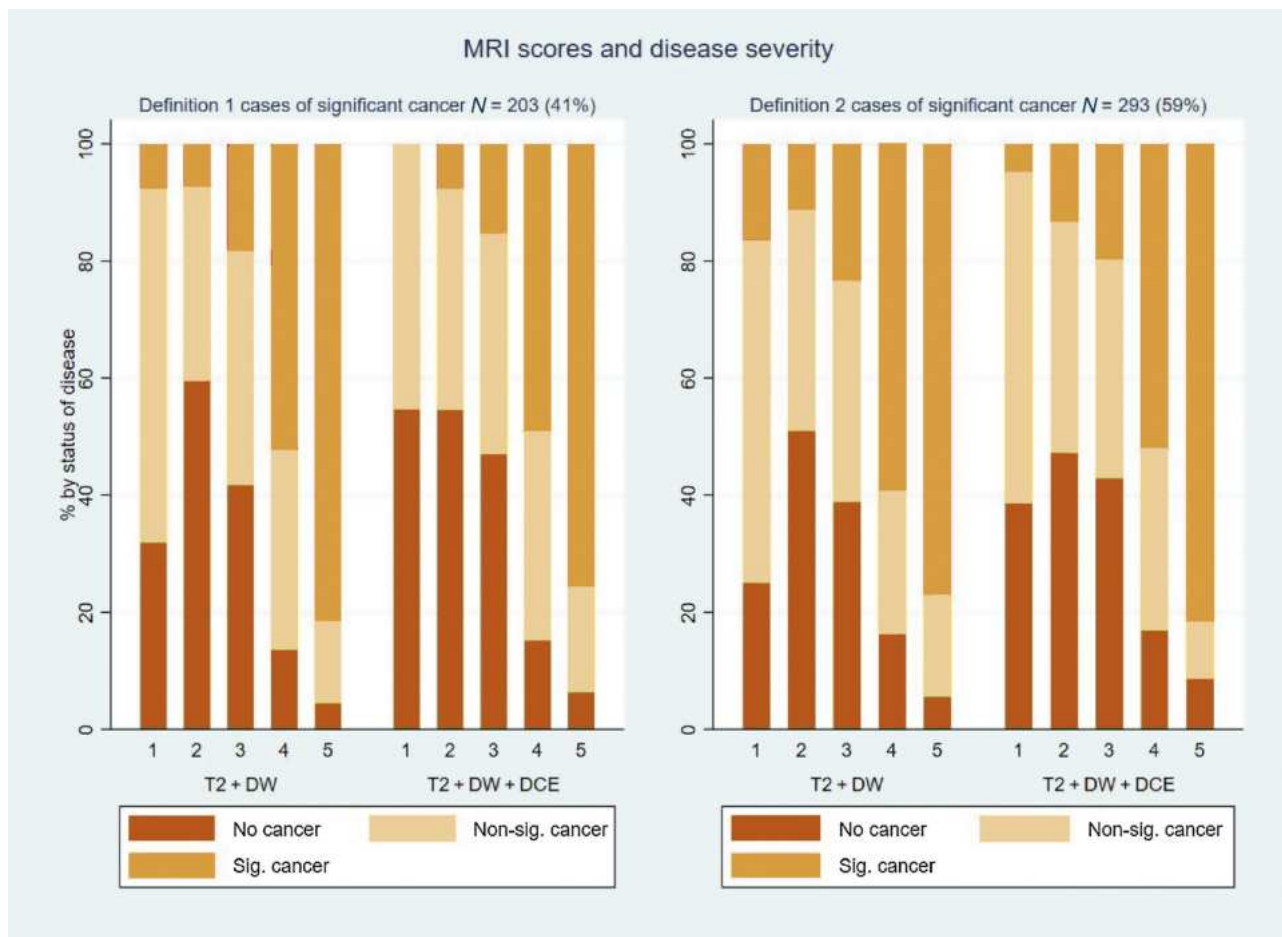


Fig. 3 – Distribution of MRI scores and their correlated histological results: definitions 1 and 2. DCE = dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging; DW = diffusion weighted; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; Sig. = significant.

zone [18], but in both previous studies and the current one, it was at the expense of low specificity and a high proportion of equivocal (3/5) scores. As few centres perform T2 imaging alone, we did not include these results in statistical comparisons.

4.3. Methodological limitations

A number of aspects of the PROMIS study make it particularly relevant to a group of men undergoing MRI as a triage test before biopsy [19]. First, all men with a suspicion of tumour and PSA < 15 were included, with only a small number of exclusions due to difficulty performing the biopsy or T4 status.

In addition, the reference standard of transperineal mapping biopsy was applied to all patients without knowledge of the MRI result. This prevents the biases inherent in using MRI-targeted biopsy for confirmation, particularly for a study assessing validity. The study was multicentre and used local radiologists of varying experience for the primary analysis. The protocol was applicable widely, using 1.5T magnets, no endorectal coil, and a feasible DCE time resolution of 15 s.

However, there are also potential limitations. First, the analysis was at the level of the prostate: no attempt was

made to correlate the position of the tumour on the MRI and TPM biopsy. This has important implications when making inferences about biopsy strategy, but is not relevant when assessing our performance in identifying men at a low risk of significant tumours (in other words, in identifying prostates negative for significant cancer). Second, we used a Likert reporting system, which could limit the direct applicability of the study to PIRADS 2–based reporting. However, it may also have helped detect any potential advantages of DCE, because it allowed the enhanced images (including any morphological criteria that the radiologist deemed useful) to influence the overall suspicion of tumour, rather than just distinguishing between PIRADS 3 and 4 lesions as in the current PIRADS 2 reporting framework [3]. A Likert reporting system has also been recommended for use in the UK by consensus panels [20] and recent National Institute for Health and Care Excellence guidance in the UK [1]. Third, the DCE sequences were biased towards anatomical resolution rather than time resolution, improving image quality but potentially excluding calculation of parameters such as K-trans. However, recent PIRADS 2.1 guidelines acknowledge the lack of data to support a high temporal resolution [4], and PIRADS 2 does not include a recommendation for routine parametric analysis because of a continuing lack of data showing its benefits over

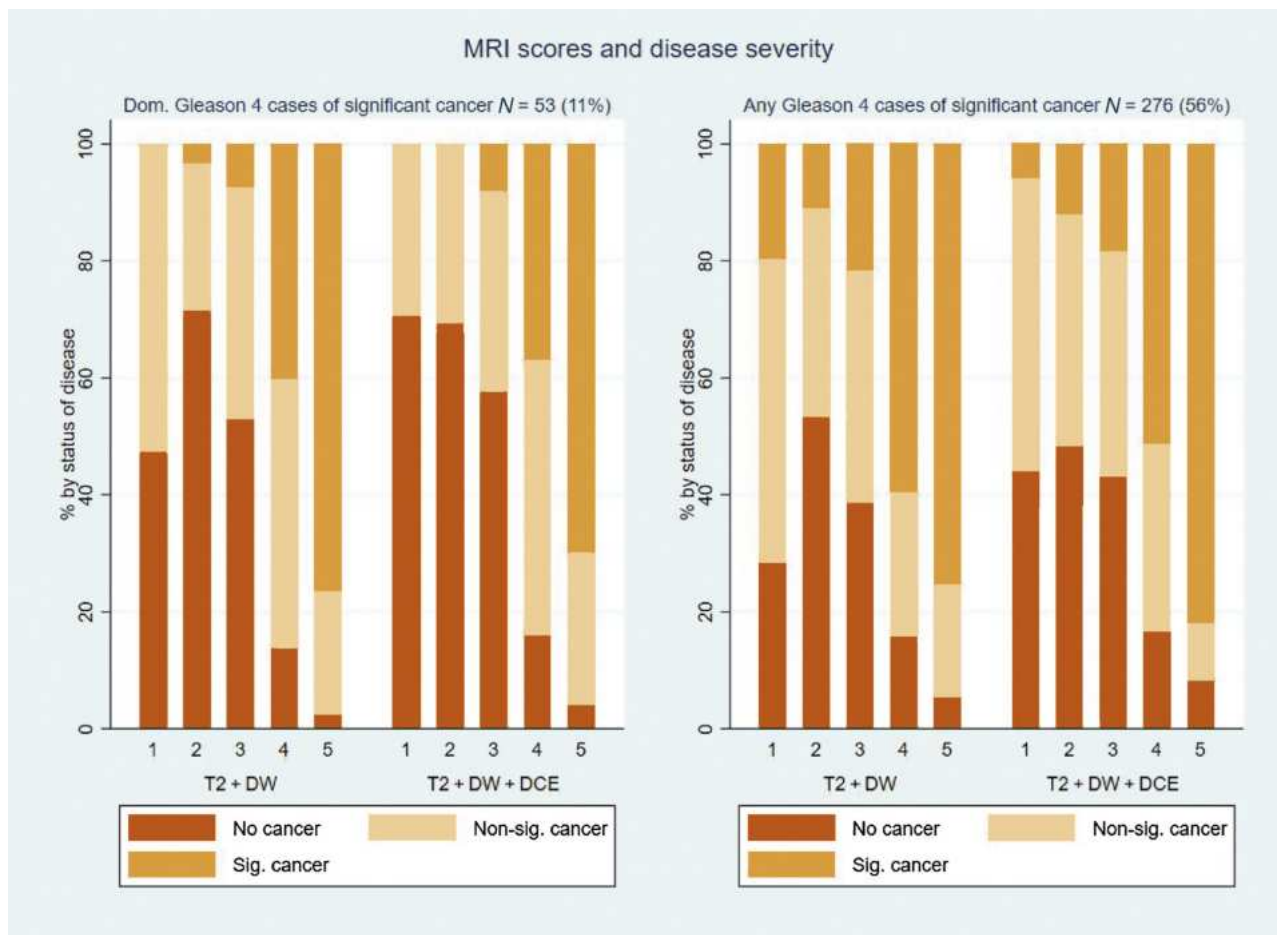


Fig. 4 – Distribution of MRI scores and their correlated histological results: Gleason dominant 4 or higher, and any Gleason 4 or higher. DCE = dynamic contrast-enhanced imaging; Dom. = dominant; DW = diffusion weighted; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; Sig. = significant.

interpreting the early enhanced images [3]. Fourth, the PROMIS study was conducted using 1.5 T machines, and it is possible that the benefits of dynamic sequences are accentuated with a higher magnetic field strength or the use of an endorectal coil, although two recent studies performed at 3 T suggest otherwise [13,14]. Fifth, the radiologist was allowed to know the PSA during reporting. Especially with the potentially subjective analysis of Likert scoring, this information (rather than MRI criteria alone) may have influenced the overall score, in particular inclining the reporter away from a potential “miss” in the case of a high PSA density. Thus, while knowing the PSA reflects real-world practice, it may result in an overestimate of the performance of MRI, whatever the protocol. Finally, the reporting was not supervised, so we cannot absolutely rule out some reporters not looking at and reporting the sequences in the correct order. The importance of doing so was, however, emphasised in written and oral training material. The method of reporting in one sitting enabled a truly prospective study, but we cannot eliminate a possible bias from the reporters knowing, when they reported the T2 and diffusion sequence, that there was a “final” score using contrast that would be used for the main outcome of the study.

4.4. Application to clinical practice

While the PROMIS study demonstrates the diagnostic accuracy of biparametric MRI as a triage test for safely avoiding biopsy, it does not address some important potential benefits of using contrast. There is some evidence that dynamic contrast-enhanced images improve the measurement of tumour volume [21], although this result is not replicated by all [22]. If true, this may well be because the margins of some tumours are well delineated with contrast and it is possible that it may improve the conduct of targeted biopsies, although no study has attempted to quantify the effect. In addition, there is some evidence that DCE sequences may improve planning for focal therapy [22] or staging tumour at the capsule [23–25]. Finally, there is a consensus that DCE is useful after radiotherapy or ablation [26,27], although the size of the effect when high-quality DWI is used has been questioned [28,29]. These potential benefits of contrast must be weighed against its expense and potential risk [30].

Most of the studies on the value of contrast have used experienced readers, but there is some evidence that it helps those with less experience: in a study of 68 selected patients, DCE increased significantly the performance of

radiologists with either 100 or 300 cases of reporting experience, but not in those with 1000 cases [31]. This patient group was biased, but even if the result holds in subsequent studies, it is a matter of debate whether a sensible approach is the routine use of contrast, or improved mentorship, specialisation, and second reads in difficult cases. Similarly, the PIRADS 2.1 document discusses the utility of contrast as a “safety net” in difficult cases, where the other sequences are of suboptimal quality; it is a matter of debate whether this is routinely included in a scan protocol or used (perhaps in a structure that allows recalls for suboptimal scans) where it is needed.

Finally, the finding that a lower proportion of patients were given equivocal scores of 3 when contrast was used was statistically significant. However, any clinical impact depends on the way equivocal cases are managed—in particular, whether they undergo biopsy or close surveillance [18].

5. Conclusions

The addition of dynamic contrast enhancement did not significantly improve the diagnostic accuracy of T2 + diffusion MRI in a multicentre, multireader study using 1.5T scans. The findings are consistent with recent data from other groups and allow us to question the necessity of the routine use of contrast in a prebiopsy triage setting, if high-quality MRI is reported by experienced readers.

Author contributions: Ahmed El-Shater Bosaily had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: El-Shater Bosaily, Ahmed, Emberton, Kaplan, Brown, Freeman, Jameson, Kirkham.

Acquisition of data: All authors.

Analysis and interpretation of data: El-Shater Bosaily, Ahmed, Emberton, Kaplan, Brown, Freeman, Jameson, Kirkham, Frangou.

Drafting of the manuscript: El-Shater Bosaily, Ahmed, Emberton, Kaplan, Brown, Kirkham, Frangou.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: El-Shater Bosaily, Ahmed, Emberton, Kaplan, Brown, Kirkham, Frangou.

Statistical analysis: El-Shater Bosaily, Ahmed, Emberton, Kaplan, Brown, Kirkham, Frangou.

Obtaining funding: Ahmed, Emberton.

Administrative, technical, or material support: Brown, Frangou.

Supervision: None.

Other: This work reports on a multicentre national trial. All authors have contributed to the conduct of the trial in their prospective centres.

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Platinum Priority – Editorial

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Can Biparametric Prostate Magnetic Resonance Imaging Fulfill its PROMIS?

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Recently updated international guidelines recommend a more prominent role for multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) in the work-up for prostate cancer (PCa) diagnosis [1,2]. However, the benefit of dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE) MRI for PCa detection and localization is still a matter of debate. Omitting DCE may improve MRI accessibility in response to the increasing demand for this imaging modality. A so-called biparametric MRI (bpMRI) protocol only uses T2-weighted and diffusion-weighted imaging. There are several advantages of using a bpMRI strategy for all biopsy-naïve patients, the most enticing one being time and costs savings [3–5]. Furthermore, the potential side effects of contrast can be avoided [6].

Recent systematic reviews and meta-analyses found similar diagnostic performance for bpMRI and mpMRI, suggesting a transition to bpMRI for biopsy-naïve men could be feasible [7,8]. However, the studies included showed high methodologic heterogeneity in prior biopsy status, MRI equipment, MRI protocol and scoring system, the definition of clinically significant cancer, and (biopsy) reference standard. This undermines the strength of the underlying evidence. Furthermore, the studies included were often from highly experienced prostate centers with 3-T equipment, which somewhat limits the generalizability of these data to general clinical practice [5].

We commend El-Shater Bosaily et al [9] on their study published in this issue of *European Urology*, as it contributes to filling this void in the literature. For the original PROMIS study the intent was to reflect “daily clinical practice” with

1.5-T MRI scanners and multiple readers with varying prostate MRI reading experience [10]. As an additional aim, the value of mpMRI over bpMRI was assessed within the setting of this prospective, multicenter, multireader and paired validation study with template mapping (TMP) biopsies as the reference standard. The diagnostic performance of both techniques in detecting clinically significant disease in 497 biopsy-naïve men was compared using a 5-point Likert scoring system. The authors conclude that the diagnostic accuracy values for mpMRI and bpMRI are similar, suggesting that DCE could be omitted from the MRI diagnostic work-up.

Some issues in the present study by El-Shater Bosaily and colleagues should be critically appraised. First, it is important to realize that the conclusions from this PROMIS study are based on the assumption that targeted biopsies (which were not performed in this study) would achieve similar diagnostic accuracy as TMP biopsy. What is currently lacking, however, is an assessment of the correlation between lesion location on MRI and TMP biopsy to be able to justify the assumption made.

Second, the PROMIS data show a clear difference in the total number of “equivocal” or “uncertain” cases (ie, Likert score of 3 out of 5) for bpMRI and mpMRI (32% vs 27%) compared to studies by Van der Leest et al (the 4M study; 7.8% vs 6.4%) [5] and Zawaideh et al (17% vs 8.3%) [11]. The low percentage of equivocal results in the latter two studies can be explained by the high-quality 3-T images assessed by experienced readers, whereas images from routine 1.5-T scanners were read by radiologists with varying experience

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levels in the PROMIS study. Despite the high number of equivocal cases in the PROMIS study, the reduction in “uncertainty” by using DCE (mpMRI) was only 4.4% (31.8% to 27.4%), while Zawaideh et al reported substantially greater of 8.7% (17% to 8.3%) [11]. Moreover, the suboptimal “blinding” protocol used in the PROMIS study for the bpMRI and mpMRI readings may have resulted in a significant bias.

It is apparent that omitting DCE from prostate MRI would allow a higher throughput and lower costs, would make prostate MRI noninvasive, and would avoid potential contrast-related side-effects. However, suboptimal results because of lower image quality from the use of suboptimal MRI scanners and less experienced radiologists could be mitigated by the use of DCE in mpMRI protocols to decrease uncertainty (ie, decrease scores of 3). Equivocal MRI scores are troublesome for urologists, as they do not give guidance in biopsy decision-making. High numbers of equivocal cases could result in a loss of confidence in the MRI pathway and prompt urologists to lean back towards the systematic biopsy pathway. Previous studies reported that DCE could aid in assessment and decrease uncertainty in reading, especially in settings with suboptimal image quality and non-expert readers [12,13]. Therefore, focusing on high-quality examinations and adequate training for radiologists is crucial.

Thus, before using bpMRI routinely, radiologists should be competent in both bpMRI and mpMRI. In daily practice, we see many radiologists performing bpMRI who are “unaware-incompetent” in this respect. Ideally, prostate MRI radiologists should compare their bpMRI and mpMRI diagnosis with histopathologic outcomes and attend multidisciplinary team meetings to this end. In addition, reading performance should be benchmarked against results from expert centers and the literature. Only if these conditions are fulfilled, we agree with El-Shater Bosaily et al that there is a role for bpMRI as a triage test for the detection of clinically significant PCa, but only in men in whom biopsy avoidance is a clinical priority, such as in early detection of cancer in biopsy-naïve men with a lower risk of clinically significant PCa. For men with high clinical suspicion for significant disease, for whom the clinical priority is cancer detection and not biopsy avoidance, mpMRI is preferred over bpMRI.

We conclude with some points on the use of bpMRI in daily practice that should be considered:

- Only perform bpMRI when image quality and radiological readings are of a high standard.
- Use high-quality bpMRI only for men for whom biopsy avoidance is a clinical priority, such as for early cancer detection in biopsy-naïve men with a lower risk of clinically significant PCa.
- Perform mpMRI as the default for men with a high clinical suspicion for significant disease, where the priority is cancer detection and not biopsy avoidance. Perform mpMRI for men with persisting clinical suspicion after a previous negative biopsy (Fig. 1) or previous negative



Fig. 1 – High-grade prostate cancer missed on bpMRI. The patient was 74yr old with prostate-specific antigen of 9.6 ng/mL. Digital rectal examination revealed T0 and the patient had one negative systematic transrectal ultrasound-guided biopsy. bpMRI, consisting of (A) axial T2W, (B) axial DWI b1400, and (C) axial ADC images revealed prospectively no suspicious lesions, only small geographic abnormalities. A PI-RADS score of 2 (T2W/DWI/DCE: 2/2/X) was assigned to the prostate. However, on the (D) “early” DCE image, focal enhancement was identified in the peripheral zone at the 5-o’clock position in the mid-prostate (circle). This focal enhancement was then correlated to focal (A) low T2W and (B) minimal high b1400 signal intensity (circles). The final assessment was PI-RADS 4 (T2W/DWI/DCE: 4/3/+ and upgraded to final score of 4). Transperineal MRI-guided biopsy showed an ISUP grade 4 cancer (Gleason score 4+4=8). The patient had a successful radical prostatectomy (pT2N0R0, ISUP grade 4). bpMRI = biparametric magnetic resonance imaging; T2W = T2-weighted imaging; DWI = diffusion-weighted imaging; ADC = apparent diffusion coefficient; PI-RADS = Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System; DCE = dynamic contrast enhancement; ISUP = International Society of Urological Pathology.

bpMRI, for men with previous prostate treatment, and for men suspected to have cancer recurrence.

This critically appraised PROMIS study represents a great effort. However, additional prospective, randomized or head-to-head multicenter studies using multiple readers and addressing the noninferiority of biopsy yields of MRI-directed biopsies prompted by bpMRI and mpMRI approaches are needed, to confidently recommend bpMRI as the default in PCa diagnosis.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Platinum Priority Brief Correspondence

Editorial by James Thompson, Amer Amin and Phillip Stricker on pp. 518–519 of this issue

Multiparametric Magnetic Resonance Imaging Alone is Insufficient to Detect Grade Reclassification in Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer

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Abstract

Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) has improved the detection of clinically significant prostate cancer. It remains unclear, however, whether mpMRI can safely replace confirmatory or surveillance biopsies in men with low-risk disease managed with active surveillance (AS). Overall, 166 men were upgraded at a median of 29 mo (interquartile range 13–54). The overall negative predictive value (NPV) of mpMRI was 79.5% and ranged from 74.4% to 84.6% for all AS biopsies up to the fourth surveillance biopsy. In men with prostate-specific antigen density ≥ 0.15 ng/ml/cm³, the overall NPV of mpMRI was 65.5% and ranged from 57.1% to 73.3% across serial mpMRI scans. These findings support the hypothesis that mpMRI is helpful but insufficient to rule out pathological reclassification, especially at confirmatory biopsy or in the presence of other risk factors.

Patient summary: Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) alone misses a considerable percentage of clinically significant prostate cancers (Gleason grade group ≥ 2) in men on active surveillance for low-risk prostate cancer. We conclude that mpMRI alone cannot safely replace surveillance prostate biopsies, particularly at confirmatory biopsy or in the presence of other risk factors.

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For men with low-risk prostate cancer, active surveillance (AS) is recommended to avoid the side effects of immediate treatment and identify those who would eventually benefit from definitive intervention [1,2]. Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) of the prostate is increasingly used to diagnose, stage, and risk-stratify prostate cancer, although its long-term benefits remain investigational [2]. National guidelines support the optional use of mpMRI

in determining suitability for AS [2]. It is unknown, however, whether a negative mpMRI scan can obviate the need for a confirmatory biopsy or any biopsies thereafter. Reducing the frequency of surveillance biopsy could mitigate risks of hemorrhage- and sepsis-related complications in selected men at low risk of disease reclassification.

Pooled negative predictive values (NPVs) for mpMRI range from 88% to 93% [3] for clinically significant cancer on



diagnostic systematic biopsies, to as low as 72% on whole-mount prostatectomy specimens [4]. Collectively, these studies raise concerns about replacing systematic biopsies with mpMRI when no lesion is seen [5]. In a recent study of 207 men on AS, the NPV of mpMRI was 85% at 3-year systematic surveillance biopsy [6]. However, the NPV of mpMRI more generally in AS is unknown. In this study, we determined the NPV of prostate mpMRI in the detection of Gleason grade group (GG) ≥ 2 disease on confirmatory and multiple surveillance biopsies among men on AS initially diagnosed with GG 1 prostate cancer.

This was a single-center study of men prospectively enrolled on AS from 2001 to 2017 who provided informed consent under local institutional review board supervision. Men were diagnosed with GG 1 prostate via systematic biopsy, followed by mpMRI before subsequent biopsies for up to four biopsies in total. Men who underwent MRI-fusion biopsy at diagnosis were excluded. Diagnostic biopsies performed elsewhere were re-reviewed by a genitourinary pathologist. The AS protocol included prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing and digital rectal examination every 6 months, mpMRI every 12–18 months, and a surveillance biopsy every 1–2 years.

The mpMRI sequences included T2-weighted, dynamic contrast-enhanced, and diffusion weighted imaging (Supplementary Material). mpMRI scans were reviewed by a dedicated genitourinary radiologist (ACW) who also re-scored mpMRI scans performed before 2014 using Prostate Imaging-Data and Reporting System (PI-RADS) version 2. Negative mpMRI was defined as a PI-RADS score of 1–2. The PI-RADS version 2 score was determined for the most suspicious lesion if multiple lesions were present [7].

All biopsies were transrectal. Visible lesions were targeted using the UroNav system or cognitive fusion. Systematic 14-core biopsies of the medial and lateral aspects of each sextant and anterior prostate were also taken. If no visible lesion was seen on MRI, systematic biopsy alone was performed. The primary outcome was biopsy upgrading to GG ≥ 2 . Each MRI scan was matched to its subsequent biopsy, and test characteristics were calculated on a per examination basis.

Overall, 344 men had at least one mpMRI scan and biopsy after diagnosis (Table 1). In total, 408 mpMRI scans were performed with a median of 16.5 mo (interquartile range [IQR] 13.0–24.0) between biopsies. The median time spent on AS was 71.0 months (IQR 51.5–92.5). 42 men (12.0%) had at least one negative biopsy before diagnosis. A median of 15 cores (IQR 12–18) were taken at diagnostic biopsy, with two cores (IQR 1–3) positive. Overall, 166 men were upgraded at a median of 29 months (IQR 13–54) on AS: 125 men (75.3%) were upgraded to GG 2, 30 (18.1%) to GG 3, 5 (3.0%) to GG 4, and 6 (3.6%) to GG 5. The cumulative incidence of upgrading was 22.0% at 2 years, 32.0% at 3 years, and 52.0% at 5 years.

At confirmatory (second) biopsy, the NPV of mpMRI was 74.4% and the sensitivity was 85.1%. For subsequent surveillance biopsies up to the fourth biopsy, the NPV was 84.6% and sensitivity was 92.9%. The overall NPV was 79.5% and sensitivity was 89.5%. For men with PSA density (PSAD) ≥ 0.15 ng/ml/cm³, the NPV was 57.1% on confirmatory biopsy

Table 1 – Patient characteristics at diagnosis for 344 men enrolled on active surveillance for prostate cancer at University of California, San Francisco.

Variable	Patients, n (%)
Age at diagnosis (yr)	
<60	120 (35)
60–69	187 (54)
≥ 70	37 (11)
Race/ethnicity	
Asian/Pacific Islander	18 (5)
Black/African American	10 (3)
White	264 (77)
Mixed/other/unknown	52 (15)
PSA at diagnosis (ng/ml)	
≤ 4	72 (21)
4.1–10	237 (69)
>10	34 (10)
CAPRA clinical risk	
Low (0–2)	292 (89)
Intermediate (3–5)	35 (11)
PI-RADS v2 score at confirmatory biopsy	
1	24 (14)
2	15 (9)
3	29 (16)
4	71 (40)
5	37 (21)
Location where magnetic resonance imaging was performed	
University of California, San Francisco	136 (96)
External institution	6 (4)
PI-RADS v2, Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System version 2; CAPRA, Cancer of the Prostate Risk Assessment; PSA, prostate specific antigen	

and 73.3% for subsequent surveillance biopsies up to the fourth biopsy; the overall NPV was 65.5% (Table 2). Conversely, for men with PSAD < 0.15 ng/ml/cm³ the NPV was higher: 83.3% on confirmatory biopsy and 91.7% for subsequent surveillance biopsies up to the fourth biopsy; the overall NPV was 87.5% (Table 2). Among men with a history of negative biopsy before diagnosis, the overall NPV for biopsy upgrading was 93.3%. The upgrading distribution by PI-RADS score is shown in Supplementary Table 1. Clinical consequences of biopsies performed and avoided, and GG ≥ 2 prostate cancers diagnosed and missed, based on MRI alone with or without a PSAD cutoff of 0.15 ng/ml/cm³, are summarized in Supplementary Table 2.

In this study, 21.5% of men with GG 1 prostate cancer on AS and negative mpMRI were subsequently found to have GG ≥ 2 cancer, with an incidence of 14.3–25.6% per biopsy. These findings suggest that there is a persistent subset of men on AS with grade reclassification undetected by mpMRI. The NPV of mpMRI for biopsy upgrading was as low as 57.1% for men with PSAD ≥ 0.15 ng/ml/cm³ (Table 2). By contrast, among patients with PSAD < 0.15 ng/ml/cm³ and a prior confirmatory biopsy, negative mpMRI appears to be more reliably reassuring.

This is the first study reporting the NPV of mpMRI at multiple time points during AS. It supports previous findings that a percentage of clinically significant prostate cancers remain undetectable by mpMRI [6,8,9]. There are limitations to acknowledge. Two-thirds of diagnostic biopsies were performed at an external facility, and there was a high rate of biopsy upgrading in our cohort overall (52% at 5 years).

Table 2 – Characteristics of multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging for 344 men enrolled on active surveillance for prostate cancer at University of California, San Francisco.

	Magnetic resonance imaging after diagnostic biopsy								
	All patients (n = 408)			PSAD \geq 0.15 (n = 158)			PSAD < 0.15 (n = 245)		
	CBx	SVBx	Overall	CBx	SVBx	Overall	CBx	SVBx	Overall
NPV (%)	74.4	84.6	79.5	57.1	73.3	65.5	83.3	91.7	87.5
PPV (%)	41.6	40.9	41.2	52.5	47.1	49.6	32.0	36.9	35.0
Sensitivity (%)	85.1	92.9	89.5	84.2	88.9	86.5	85.7	95.7	92.0
Specificity (%)	26.6	22.5	24.2	21.6	23.4	22.6	28.2	22.2	24.7

CBx = confirmatory biopsy; NPV = negative predictive value; PPV = positive predictive value; PSAD = prostate-specific antigen density (ng/ml/cm³); SVBx = surveillance biopsy.

However, the cumulative incidence of upgrading—11% at 1 year, 22% at 2 years, and 32% at 3 years—is consistent with published rates of biopsy upgrading of 20–28% at 2–3 years [10,11]. In addition, our findings reflect the experience at an academic tertiary care center, which may limit the generalizability to other clinical practice settings.

In conclusion, mpMRI alone is insufficient to detect grade reclassification on AS, especially among men with PSAD \geq 0.15 ng/ml/cm³, and in particular should not replace confirmatory biopsy. As the precise role of mp-MRI in AS evolves, incorporating genomic biomarkers and other clinical parameters may improve diagnostic accuracy.

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Study concept and design: Chu, Cooperberg

Acquisition of data: Cowan, Westphalen.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Chu, Lonergan, Washington, Cowan, Westphalen, Cooperberg, Carroll.

Drafting of the manuscript: Chu, Lonergan, Washington, Cowan, Cooperberg, Carroll.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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Platinum Priority – Editorial

Referring to the article published on pp. 515–517 of this issue.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging Improves Selection for Active Surveillance and Can Extend the Interval Between Biopsies

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Active surveillance (AS) evolved more than two decades ago as an active management strategy for low-risk prostate cancer to reduce overtreatment in response to evidence that many prostate cancers would cause no harm if left undetected. The PIVOT and ProtecT trials provided level 1 evidence that the risk of death at 10–15 yr is low even for watchful waiting without surveillance biopsy of International Society of Urological Pathology grade group 1–2 cancer [1,2].

Over the past decade, multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) has emerged as the novel diagnostic test with highest incremental value to prostate-specific antigen (PSA) in selecting men for biopsy, superior to biomarkers in terms of ability to both predict significant cancer and precisely localise cancer within the gland, thus enabling targeted biopsy.

Prospective studies conducted by our group and the UK PROMIS/PRECISION study group [3–5] have provided the evidence base to justify routine mpMRI in men with raised PSA or abnormal digital rectal examination as a valid second-line screening tool, allowing biopsy to be deferred when normal, as endorsed by the 2020 European Association of Urology guidelines.

The widespread adoption of MRI in the diagnostic setting naturally led to the hypothesis that it may be useful in AS to reduce the frequency of surveillance biopsies and improve the sensitivity to detect significant cancer (when present) at surveillance biopsy.

We recently published our planned analysis of 3-yr biopsy outcomes for the first 100 men enrolled in the MRIAS trial [6]: this single-arm prospective study enrolled men

suitable for AS following baseline transperineal saturation + MRI-ultrasound (US) fusion-targeted diagnostic biopsy, then followed them for 3 yr with annual surveillance MRI, PSA every 6 mo, and study endpoint biopsy at 3 yr. Confirmatory biopsy at 12 mo was removed from the surveillance protocol and instead only performed during the first 3 yr for predefined triggers, such as a new Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System (PI-RADS) 3–5 lesion, persistent PI-RADS 4–5 lesion, or rising PSA density/doubling time. The majority of men avoided biopsy before 3 yr, the progression rate was relatively low at 21%, the incidence of high-risk cancer missed by MRI was 1%, no patient experienced biochemical recurrence, and surveillance mpMRI had a negative predictive value (NPV) for significant cancer of 89%.

Our results are similar to a recent study by Dieffenbacher et al [7], whose nonrandomised comparative study revealed that baseline MRI/transrectal US (TRUS) fusion-targeted biopsy led to a much lower rate of progression on AS than 12-core transrectal biopsy without baseline MRI (19% vs 59%; $p < 0.001$). Together, these results suggest that baseline assessment with MRI-targeted + template sampling may be a safe alternative to the historical gold standard of 12–16-core TRUS biopsy at baseline and again within 12 mo.

In this issue of *European Urology*, Chu et al [8] report their retrospective analysis of 360 men who were initially diagnosed via median 14-core transrectal biopsy, with the major limitation of no MRI performed before diagnostic biopsy or at baseline selection for AS. Some 61% had a PI-RADS 4–5 lesion on initial MRI before confirmatory biopsy,

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and almost 50% (166/344) progressed to Gleason grade group 2, with a short median time to progression of only 29 mo, suggesting that for the majority the disease was misclassified due to sampling error at baseline rather than being due to true de novo grade progression.

They similarly found that if the MRI and confirmatory biopsy at 12 mo demonstrated no significant cancer and PSA density was <0.15 , MRI had a high NPV of $\sim 92\%$ because of the low prevalence of subsequent progression. This is similar to the NPV of 89% for baseline MRI + transperineal biopsy reported in our MRIAS study, suggesting that their “double” biopsy (baseline + 12 mo) + MRI performed similarly to our MRIAS protocol.

Unfortunately, Chu et al do not provide detailed data on the cancers missed by MRI, but we can infer from the data reported that only 11/344 (3%) had Gleason grade group 4–5 tumours. The authors do not report the proportion of high-grade (Gleason grade group 4–5) tumours missed by MRI, but even if one-third of such tumours were missed (which is unlikely), this would equate to only 1% of the study population.

When interpreting studies of MRI in AS, the reader should consider three important observations:

- 1 The volume of high-grade tumour in cases missed by MRI is usually small; a 1–2-yr delay in detection and treatment of small-volume Gleason 7 tumours in $<2\text{--}3\%$ of an AS cohort by reducing the frequency of biopsy will rarely impact the likelihood of cure [1,2].
- 2 The role of interval changes over sequential MRI scans is important; in our study we observed that a PI-RADS 4 lesion that appeared de novo during AS or remained persistent over two interval MRI scans conferred a likelihood of $>40\%$ and $>80\%$, respectively, of significant cancer. Conversely, if a baseline PI-RADS 4 lesion reverted to PI-RADS 2–3 after 12 mo on interval mpMRI, the likelihood of significant cancer was extremely low.
- 3 If MRI is incorporated into AS protocols to extend the interval between biopsies, men will still have interval template biopsies, but extending the interval may improve patient acceptability of and quality of life on AS and reduce the costs and risks of biopsy.

It is clear that MRI does miss the occasional high-grade cancer; however, novel imaging and biomarker tests may detect those MRI-invisible tumours. For example, we recently published the protocol for our multicentre prospective study of ^{68}Ga prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) positron emission tomography (PET)/computed tomography + mpMRI before diagnostic biopsy [9]; preliminary analyses suggest that combining MRI and PSMA PET may incrementally improve both the NPV and

positive predictive value for significant cancer. Perhaps MRI and PSMA PET will in future be alternated in AS protocols. Likewise, novel exosomal biomarkers in urine or blood show promise [10] and in combination with MRI could achieve a high enough NPV to justify deferring routine biopsy entirely. While we are discovering the ideal combination of tests and building an evidence base, there will continue to be a role for routine surveillance biopsy (perhaps at longer intervals) for at least the next decade.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Platinum Priority – Bladder Cancer – Editor's Choice

Editorial by Ankeet Shah, Wei Phin Tan and Brant A. Inman on pp. 531–532 of this issue.

Enhanced Quality and Effectiveness of Transurethral Resection of Bladder Tumour in Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Cancer: A Multicentre Real-world Experience from Scotland's Quality Performance Indicators Programme

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Abstract

Background: Clinical outcomes from non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC) are partly determined by the quality of initial interventions. To improve and standardise treatment for cancer, Scotland implemented a national Quality Performance Indicator (QPI) programme for bladder cancer (BC).

Objective: To evaluate compliance with specific quality indicators (QIs) related to transurethral resection of bladder tumour (TURBT) and to understand clinical outcomes from NMIBC following the introduction of the QPI programme.

Design, setting, and participants: Within a robust governance framework, 12 mandatory evidence-based QPIs were implemented nationally in April 2014. We report prospectively collected data for all new BC patients (between April 2014 and March 2017). We include follow-up data for 2689 patients.

Intervention: The TURBT-related QPIs were (1) using a bladder diagram, (2) single post-TURBT instillation of mitomycin C (SPI-MMC), (3) detrusor muscle (DM) in the specimen, and (4) early re-TURBT in high-risk NMIBC.

Outcome measurements and statistical analysis: We measured compliance with these QPIs and (1) recurrence rate at first follow-up cystoscopy (RRFFC), (2) rates of residual cancer, and (3) pT2 cancer at re-TURBT. Associations between QPI compliance, tumour features, and outcomes were assessed with multivariable logistic regression models.

Results and limitations: Among 4246 new BC patients, SPI-MMC was used in 67% (2029/3023) NMIBC patients. In 1860 NMIBC patients undergoing TURBT, RRFFC, rate of residual cancer, and rate of pT2 at re-TURBT were 13% (116/888), 33% (212/653), and 2.9% (19/653), respectively. SPI-MMC was associated with lower RRFFC, independent of all variables including hospital volume and surgeon. Presence of DM in the specimen

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halved the likelihood of residual disease in pT1 cancers. The main limitation is the lack of a pre-QPI introduction cohort for comparison.

Conclusions: The implementation of a QI programme in Scotland appears to facilitate high-quality TURBT, which in a real-world setting is associated with low early recurrence/residual cancer and accurate pathological staging.

Patient summary: Following the first 3 yr of implementing a novel Quality Performance Indicator (QPI) programme in Scotland, we assessed compliance and outcomes in non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer. Evaluating over 4000 new bladder cancer patients, we found that the QPI programme was associated with low recurrence and accurate staging following the initial transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

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1. Introduction

Bladder cancer (BC) is a biologically heterogeneous malignancy, and the apparently modest improvement in survival over the past three decades or so, despite advances in treatment, is often attributed to this heterogeneity [1]. However, variation in clinical practice could also contribute to suboptimal outcomes [2]; despite strong evidence in favour of, for instance, neoadjuvant chemotherapy [3] and chemoradiotherapy [4], implementation is not ubiquitous. Likewise, in non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC), there is often in-effective initial transurethral resection of bladder tumour (TURBT) necessitating completion surgery [5] and poor compliance to guidelines [6]. Unified approaches are required to address this knowledge-practice divide, for example, the European Association of Urology (EAU) Guidelines Office introduced the IMAGINE project to improve guideline compliance [7]; conversely, quality indicators (QIs) both evaluate healthcare quality and (putatively) drive standards for better outcomes [8].

In 2008, The Scottish Government, recognising the need to improve cancer survival and address healthcare inequalities/variance published “[Better cancer care, an action plan](#)”, mapping out key priorities and action plans to tackle cancer in Scotland; this included creation of QIs. Scotland’s Quality Performance Indicator (QPI) programme aimed to foster a culture of continuous quality improvement by regular review of real-time data and consequently implement changes to improve patient-centred care, while reducing variance.

Following development (in collaboration with Scotland’s Regional Cancer Networks, Information Services Division [ISD], and Healthcare Improvement Scotland), QPIs for BC were implemented within a framework of robust governance in 2014 [9]. Whilst ISD collected data on compliance, endpoints such as recurrence and progression (which better reflect outcomes in NMIBC) were not part of ISD’s national dataset. Therefore, as part of a large clinical research project, we formed a clinician collaborative to carry out a series of studies on clinical outcomes and prognosis in BC; this current study is the first of the series and aimed at evaluating the quality of the initial TURBT, while describing its association with QPI compliance, tumour features, hospital volume, and surgeon category, consequent to the first 3 yr of BC QPI implementation.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. QPI data

Development of QPIs for BC began in 2012, with a multidisciplinary panel of specialists and patient representatives evaluating literature and guidelines to produce (initially) 11 QPIs, with data definitions, targets, and measurability criteria. These were enforced in April 2014. Supplementary Table 1 lists all 12 current pragmatic QPIs (the 12th generic QPI was added later).

The specific QPIs related to the quality of initial TURBT, which are of interest to this study, are as follows:

- 1 QPI 2(i)—use of a bladder diagram (Supplementary material) at the initial TURBT.
- 2 QPI 2(ii)—presence of detrusor muscle (DM) in the initial TURBT specimen.
- 3 QPI 3—use of a single post-TURBT instillation of mitomycin C (SPI-MMC) within 24 h following the initial TURBT.

An early re-TURBT in patients with high-risk NMIBC (HR-NMIBC) within 6 wk from the initial TURBT is mandated as QPI 4; however, in this current study, apart from its influence on policy and reporting presence/absence of residual cancer, we have not evaluated compliance/details around QPI 4 as it forms part of another study in the series.

National Health Service (NHS) Health Boards collected data prospectively on all new BC patients to include patient and tumour demographics, QPI variables, and pathology reports (using the Royal College of Pathologists’ checklist [10]). Health Boards are accountable for reporting against QPIs and implementing service changes. Mandatory regional review of data was carried out annually for accuracy and compliance, and then published online by each network as snapshots, for example, 2014/2015, 2015/2016, and 2016/2017. A crucial agreement was that hospitals and surgeons were anonymised in published data.

2.2. Follow-up data

Clinical outcomes were prospectively recorded electronically in each hospital. Colleagues, representing the three networks, joined our clinical collaborative—QPI and follow-up data were pooled for a combined analysis of this “study

cohort". Only patients diagnosed with new BC between April 2014 and March 2017 were included. Strict agreement among collaborating clinicians, in the interest of inclusiveness and to encourage wide participation across Scotland in future, emphasised anonymity of individual hospitals/surgeons.

2.3. Definitions and assumptions

Please see the Supplementary material.

2.4. Endpoints

Endpoints representing quality of the initial TURBT in NMIBC [2,11] were as follows:

- 1 Recurrence rate at first follow-up cystoscopy (RRFFC).
- 2 Residual cancer rate at early re-TURBT in HR-NMIBC (residual cancer at re-TURBT).
- 3 Rate of finding T2 cancer at early re-TURBT in HR-NMIBC (T2 at re-TURBT).

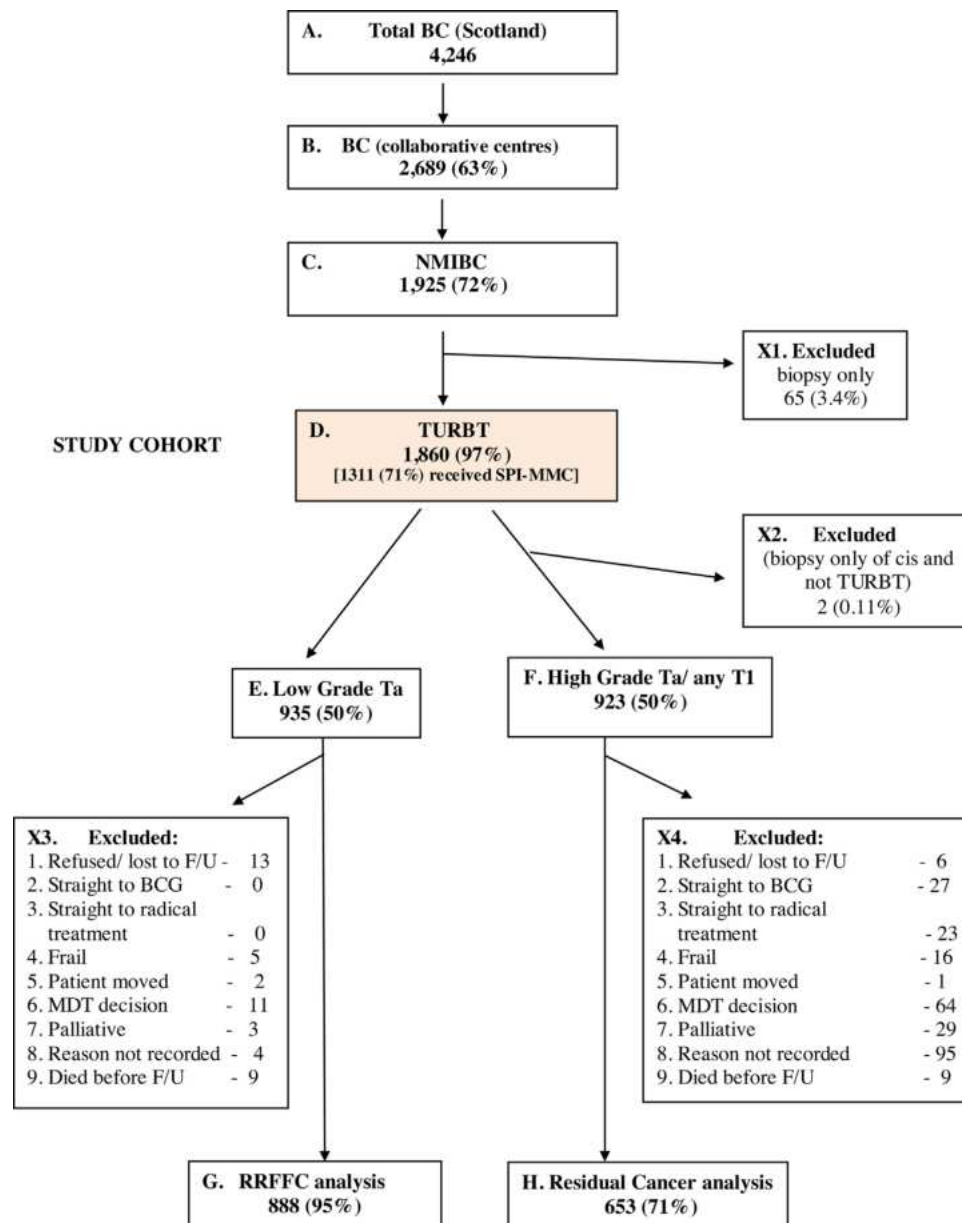


Fig. 1 – Flow chart of patient and cohort selection.

BC = bladder cancer; BCG = bacillus Calmette-Guerin; CIS = carcinoma in situ; F/U = follow-up; MDT = multidisciplinary team (this is when there has been a multidisciplinary team decision, including in some situations a comprehensive geriatric assessment, with recommendation that further regular surveillance is not in the patient's best interest, taking into account patient's general health and wishes); NMIBC = non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer; RRFFC = recurrence rate at first follow-up cystoscopy; SPI-MMC = single post-TURBT instillation of mitomycin C; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

Analysis was based on an “intention to treat” within the QPI framework and related agreements.

The exclusion criteria for analysis of endpoints are as follows:

- 1 Muscle-invasive bladder cancer at first TURBT.
- 2 Patients scheduled for palliative care only.
- 3 Biopsy and diathermy (fulguration) only (including for carcinoma in situ).
- 4 No follow-up yet/applicable.
- 5 Multidisciplinary team and/or comprehensive geriatric assessment recommendation that regular surveillance was not in the patient’s best interest.

2.5. Statistical methodology

To illustrate compliance trends over the 3 yr, QPIs were clustered and stratified into snapshot audit years and hospital groups.

To determine which factors are associated with RRFFC, residual cancer, and T2 cancer at re-TURBT, we used a univariate logistic regression considering the following variables: (1) tumour size, number, grade, and stage (from the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer [EORTC] risk calculator); (2) bladder diagram, DM, and SPI-MMC (from QPI variables); and (3) hospital groups and surgeon category (additional a priori variables).

Variables statistically significant at 5% level were included in a multivariable logistic regression, and using forward selection, a final model was determined.

Association (post hoc) of categorical data across groups has been assessed using the Mantel-Haenszel test (for odds ratio) and chi-square test (for trends).

Additionally, post hoc logistic regression analyses were carried out to determine clinically relevant association between DM and SPI-MMC (as dependant variables) and tumour features, hospital group, and surgeon category to determine whether: (1) there was higher odds of obtaining DM in higher-volume hospitals, by consultants, in larger and/or multiple tumours, and (2) there was higher odds of using SPI-MMC in higher-volume hospitals, by consultants, and when it was more likely to be effective (ie, small, low-grade, and noninvasive tumours).

Analysis was completed using SPSS version 25 software.

3. Results

A total of 4246 consecutive patients had a new BC diagnosis in Scotland (between April 2014 and March 2017) [12].

Of these patients, 2689 (63%) were diagnosed in the centres taking part in this collaborative follow-up study—1925 (72%) had NMIBC (Fig. 1, Box C).

After excluding 65 (3.4%) patients who had only biopsy and fulguration of NMIBC (Fig. 1, Box X1), we had 1860 new NMIBC patients who had undergone TURBT (Fig. 1, Box D), that is, the “study cohort”; Table 1 describes patient/tumour demographics.

Table 1 – Demographics of patients with NMIBC in the “study cohort” (N = 1860) with tumour features, QPI compliance, surgeon categories, and hospital groups.

Variable	n (%)
Total patients included into TURBT for NMIBC analysis (N)	1860
Patient mean age, yr (range)	72.4 (21.1–97.7)
Gender	Male 1324 (71) Female 536 (29)
Tumour size	Small (<3 cm) 1199 (65) Large (≥3 cm) 619 (33) Not clearly specified 42 (2.2)
Tumour multiplicity	Single 1232 (66) Multiple 597 (32) Not clearly specified 31 (1.7)
Primary grade (WHO 2004)	Low grade 982 (53) High grade 876 (47) CIS 2 (0.1)
Primary stage	Ta 1304 (70) T1 554 (30) Tis 2 (0.1)
Use of a bladder diagram	Yes 1476 (79) No 383 (21) Not clearly specified 1 (0.11)
Use of SPI-MMC	Yes 1311 (71) No 481 (26) Not clearly specified 68 (3.7)
Detrusor muscle in initial TURBT specimen	Present 1424 (77) Absent 436 (23)
Surgeon category	Consultant 1197 (64) Specialist trainee 638 (34) Not clearly specified 25 (1.3)
Hospital group (by average number of TURBTs for NMIBC per year)	A (<60) 230 (12) B (60–90) 663 (36) C (>90) 967 (52)

CIS = carcinoma in situ; NMIBC = non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer; QPI = Quality Performance Indicator; SPI-MMC = single post-TURBT instillation of mitomycin C; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour; WHO = World Health Organization.

Table 2 reveals that most TURBTs were carried out by consultants, with the proportion of TURBTs performed by specialist trainees (STs) being the highest in high-volume centres (odds ratio [OR] = 2.25, 95% confidence interval [CI] = 1.84–2.75, $p < 0.001$). The odds of a consultant and ST operating on a patient with a large (≥3 cm) tumour were similar—35% (404/1158) and 32% (204/635), respectively (OR = 1.13, 95% CI = 0.92–1.39, $p = 0.2$). The odds of a consultant and ST operating on multiple tumours were also similar—34% (385/1140) and 31% (197/627), respectively (OR = 1.11, 95% CI = 0.90–1.37, $p = 0.3$; Table 2).

3.1. QPI compliance

Fig. 2A represents annual compliance with the selected QPIs in the whole of Scotland (obtained from the ISD publication [12]). The use of a bladder diagram increased significantly over the 3 yr. Close to 80% of TURBTs had DM in the specimen (this field was not reported separately in 2014/2015), while approximately two-thirds of the patients received SPI-MMC. Compliance trends in the “study cohort” appear to mirror the whole of Scotland (Fig. 2B).

Table 2 – Association between hospital groups, surgeon categories, tumour size, and multiplicity in the “study cohort” of patients undergoing TURBT for NMIBC (excluding those with unspecified data).

Hospital group, n (%)	Surgeon category, n (%)	Tumour size, n (%)	Tumour multiplicity, n (%)
A (<60 NMIBC TURBTs per year) 230 (12)	Consultant 149 (65)	<3 cm 109 (73)	Single 86 (79)
		≥3 cm 39 (26)	Multiple 23 (21)
	Specialist trainee 81 (35)	<3 cm 53 (65)	Single 25 (64)
		≥3 cm 28 (35)	Multiple 11 (28)
		<3 cm 53 (65)	Single 38 (72)
		≥3 cm 28 (35)	Multiple 15 (28)
B (60–90 NMIBC TURBTs per year) 663 (36)	Consultant 500 (75)	<3 cm 338 (68)	Single 237 (70)
		≥3 cm 128 (26)	Multiple 96 (28)
	Specialist trainee 139 (21)	<3 cm 92 (66)	Single 68 (74)
		≥3 cm 45 (32)	Multiple 21 (23)
		<3 cm 92 (66)	Single 68 (74)
		≥3 cm 45 (32)	Multiple 13 (29)
C (>90 NMIBC TURBTs per year) 967 (52)	Consultant 548 (57)	<3 cm 307 (56)	Single 202 (66)
		≥3 cm 237 (43)	Multiple 104 (34)
	Specialist trainee 418 (43)	<3 cm 286 (68)	Single 115 (49)
		≥3 cm 131 (31)	Multiple 115 (49)
		<3 cm 286 (68)	Single 190 (66)
		≥3 cm 131 (31)	Multiple 95 (33)
			Single 82 (63)
			Multiple 46 (35)

NMIBC = non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

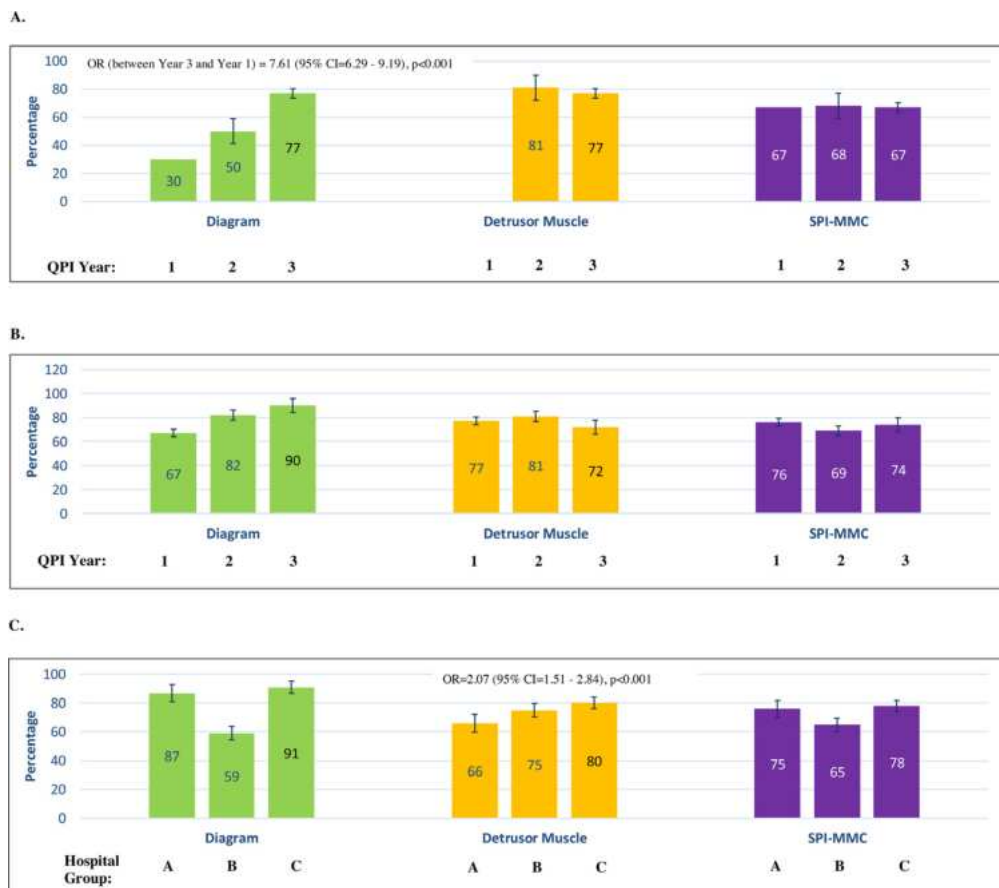


Fig. 2 – Compliance with NMIBC QPIs in the (A) whole of Scotland [12] stratified by QPI year, (B) “study cohort” stratified by QPI year, and (C) “study cohort” stratified by hospital group (hospitals are grouped by the average number of annual TURBTs for NMIBC—A, <60; B, 60–90; and C > 90 TURBTs). QPI year 1 = Apr 2014–Mar 2015; QPI year 2 = Apr 2015–Mar 2016; and QPI year 3 = Apr 2016–Mar 2017. CI = confidence interval; NMIBC = non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer; OR = odds ratio; QPI = Quality Performance Indicator; SPI-MMC = single post-TURBT instillation of mitomycin C; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

Table 3 – Uni- and multivariable logistic regression analyses demonstrating association between tumour characteristics, surgeon category, and hospital groups with detrusor muscle (DM) status (excluding those with unspecified data).

Variable (n)	DM present (%)	DM absent (%)	Univariable OR (95% CI), p value	Multivariable OR (95% CI), p value	
Size	<3 cm (1199)	913 (76)	286 (24)	1.13 (0.89–1.43), p = 0.3	–
	≥3 cm (619)	485 (78)	134 (22)		
Tumour number	Single (1232)	915 (74)	317 (26)	1.61 (1.26–2.05), p < 0.001	1.52 (1.19–1.95), p = 0.001
	Multiple (597)	491 (82)	106 (18)		
Tumour grade	LG (982)	748 (76)	234 (24)	1.04 (0.84–1.29), p = 0.7	–
	HG (876)	674 (77)	202 (23)		
Tumour stage	Ta (1304)	996 (76)	308 (24)	1.02 (0.81–1.30), p = 0.8	–
	T1 (554)	426 (77)	128 (23)		
Surgeon category	Consultant (1197)	932 (78)	265 (22)	1.21 (0.97–1.51), p = 0.1	–
	Specialist trainee (638)	475 (75)	163 (26)		
Hospital group	A (230)	152 (66)	78 (34)	2.07 (1.51–2.84), p < 0.001	1.97 (1.44–2.72), p < 0.001
	B (663)	497 (75)	166 (25)		
	C (967)	775 (80)	192 (20)		

CI = confidence interval; HG = high grade; LG = low grade; OR = odds ratio. Values in bold font highlight statistically significant values.

When stratified by hospital groups (Fig. 2C), the proportion of TURBTs with DM present appeared to be larger in the higher-volume than in the low-volume centres. This association was independent of other variables on multivariable logistic regression analysis, while DM had increased odds of being present in TURBT of multiple tumours (Table 3). SPI-MMC had increased odds of being used in small, low-grade, and noninvasive tumours, and there was no statistical difference between consultants and trainees with regard to SPI-MMC utilisation (Table 4).

3.2. Follow-up

Almost 95% (888) of low-grade Ta (LGTa) patients had a first check cystoscopy (Fig. 1, Box G). Of the HR-NMIBC patients, following appropriate exclusions (Fig. 1, Box X4), 653 (70.8%) were suitable for analysis of residual cancer at re-TURBT (Fig. 1, Box H).

The overall rates of recurrence at 3 mo in LGTa and residual cancer in HR-NMIBC patients were 13% (116/888) and 33% (212/653), respectively. Trends in snapshot audit years 2014/2015, 2015/2016, and 2016/2017 revealed RFFFC

values of 24% (39/287), 14% (43/305), and 12% (34/296; trend $\chi^2 = 0.58$, $p = 0.4$), while residual cancer in HR-NMIBC was seen in 35% (85/244), 31% (67/216), and 31% (60/193; trend $\chi^2 = 0.75$, $p = 0.4$), respectively. The overall risk of understaging HR-NMIBC at the initial TURBT was 2.9% (19/653).

Fig. 3 illustrates the association between hospital volume and surgeon category with RFFFC (Fig. 3A), and residual cancer at re-TURBT (Fig. 3B). Whilst there was no significant difference in overall RFFFC between high- and low-volume centres (OR = 1.6, 95% CI = 0.9–2.7, $p = 0.08$), the RFFFC following TURBT by consultants in the low-volume group appeared to be two-fold higher than that for a consultant in the high-volume group (OR = 2.1, 95% CI = 1.1–4.1, $p = 0.03$). This pattern was not seen in residual cancer at re-TURBT (Fig. 3B).

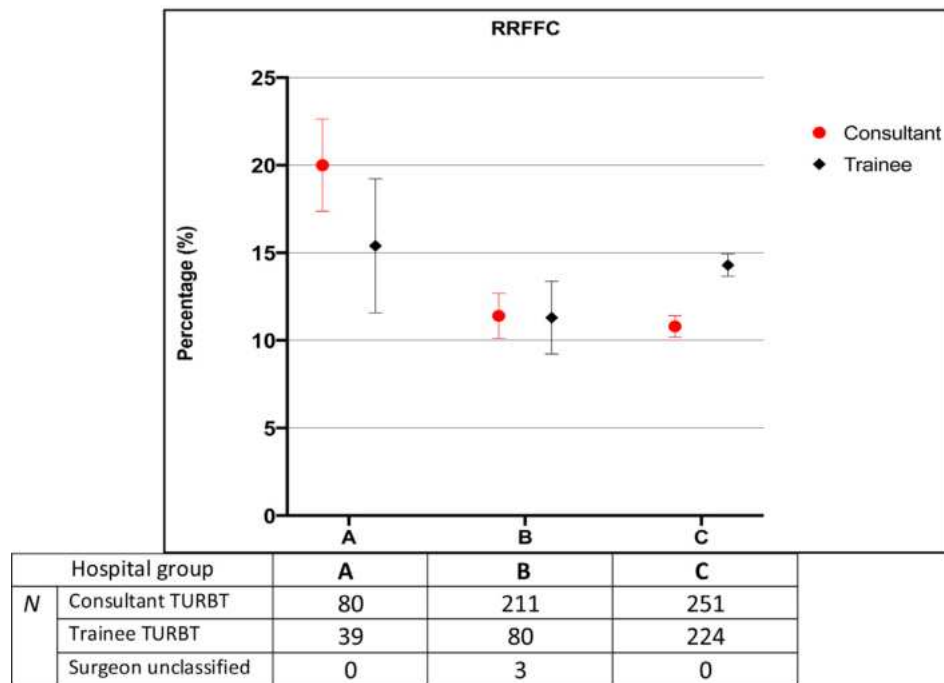
However, multivariable logistic regression analysis in LGTa tumours revealed SPI-MMC utilisation, and small tumours were independently associated with a three-fold lower RFFFC (Table 5). The apparent higher RFFFC in low-volume centres and multiple tumours did not reach statistical significance on multivariable analysis.

Table 4 – Uni- and multivariable logistic regression analysis demonstrating association between tumour characteristics, surgeon category, and hospital groups with SPI-MMC (excluding those with unspecified data).

Variable (n)	SPI-MMC Yes (%)	SPI-MMC No (%)	Univariable OR (95% CI), p value	Multivariable OR (95% CI), p value	
Size	<3 cm (1199)	921 (76.8)	243 (20.3)	2.22 (1.79–2.77), p < 0.001	2.05 (1.62–2.59), p = 0.001
	≥3 cm (619)	370 (59.8)	217 (35.1)		
Tumour number	Single (1232)	881 (71.5)	307 (24.9)	1.05 (0.84–1.31), p = 0.7	–
	Multiple (597)	422 (70.7)	154 (36.5)		
Tumour grade	LG (982)	765 (77.9)	192 (19.6)	2.09 (1.69–2.59), p = 0.001	1.27 (0.97–1.67), p = 0.08
	HG (876)	546 (62.3)	287 (32.8)		
Tumour stage	Ta (1304)	1005 (77.1)	267 (20.5)	2.61 (2.09–3.25), p < 0.001	1.87 (1.42–2.49), p = 0.001
	T1 (554)	306 (55.5)	212 (38.3)		
Surgeon category	Consultant (1197)	824 (68.8)	327 (27.3)	1.30 (1.04–1.64), p = 0.02	1.03 (0.81–1.32), p = 0.8
	Specialist trainee (638)	477 (74.8)	145 (22.7)		
Hospital group	A (230)	170 (73.9)	55 (23.9)	1.67 (1.36–2.08), p = 0.001	1.59 (0.62–4.12), p = 0.3
	B (663)	416 (62.8)	222 (33.5)		
	C (967)	725 (74.9)	204 (21.1)		

CI = confidence interval; HG = high grade; LG = low grade; OR = odds ratio; SPI-MMC = single post-TURBT instillation of mitomycin C; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour. Values in bold font highlight statistically significant values.

A.



B.

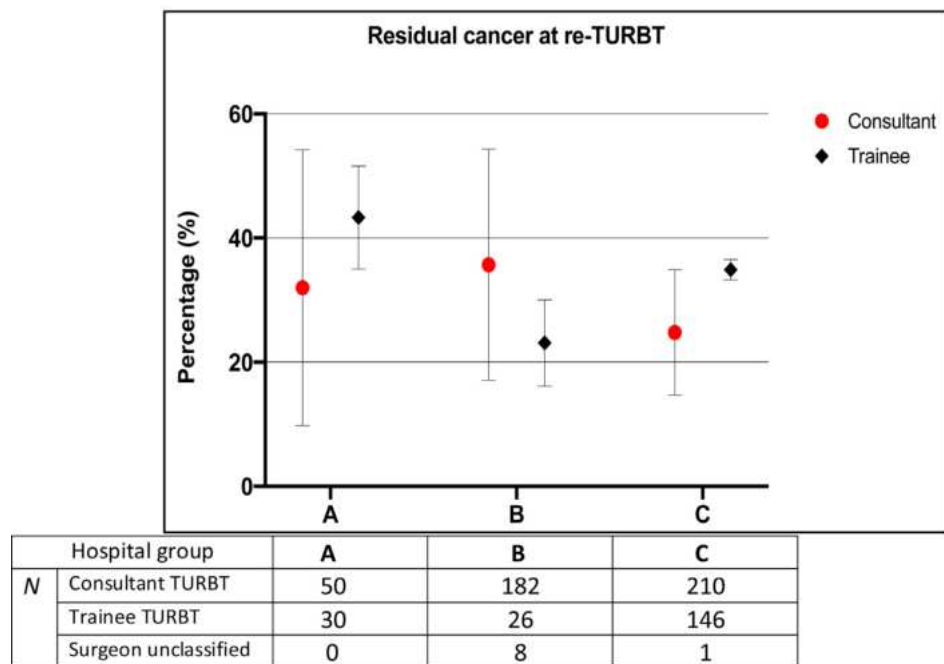


Fig. 3 – (A) Recurrence rate at first follow-up cystoscopy (RRFCC) in hospital groups stratified by surgeon category (percentages with 95% confidence intervals). (B) Residual cancer at early re-TURBT in hospital groups stratified by surgeon category (percentages with 95% confidence intervals). TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

In patients with HR-NMIBC, residual cancer at re-TURBT was independently associated with large and pT1 tumours (Table 5). Patients with residual cancer were apparently at lower odds of receiving SPI-MMC (Table 5). Absence of DM

at initial TURBT in pT1 cancers carried a two-fold (OR = 2.0, 95% CI = 1.2–3.3, $p < 0.005$) added risk of residual cancer (41/78 = 53%) compared with those with DM present (121/343 = 35%).

Table 5 – Uni- and multivariable logistic regression analysis demonstrating the association between RRFFC (n=888) and residual cancer and T2 at re-TURBT in HR-NMIBC (n=653) with selected variables (excluding unspecified data for each variable).

Variable	Hospital group			Surgeon		Tumour multiplicity		Tumour size (cm)		Grade(WHO 2004)		Stage(TNM)		Bladder diagram		Detrusor muscle		SPI-MMC		
	A (%)	B (%)	C (%)	Consultant (%)	Specialist trainee (%)	1 (%)	>1 (%)	<3 (%)	≥3 (%)	LG (%)	HG (%)	pTa (%)	pT1 (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)	
<i>LGTa (n)</i>	119	294	475	542	343	646	232	688	187	888	NA	888	NA	719	168	677	211	716	153	
RRFFC	Yes	22 (19)	35 (12)	59 (12)	67 (12)	47 (14)	75 (12)	38 (16)	64 (9.3)	48 (26)	116 (13)	NA	116 (13)	NA	88 (12)	27 (16)	88 (13)	28 (13)	72 (10)	40 (26)
	No	97	259	416	475	296	571	194	624	139	772	NA	772	NA	631	141	589	183	644	113
Univariate OR (95% CI), p value	1.59 (0.94–2.74), p = 0.09			1.12 (0.75–1.68), p = 0.6		1.49 (0.98–2.28), p=0.06		3.37 (2.22–5.11), p < 0.001		NA		NA		1.37 (0.86–2.19), p=0.1		1.02 (0.65–1.62), p = 0.5		3.17 (2.05–4.89), p < 0.001		
Multivariate OR (95% CI), p value	-			-		-		3.29 (2.14–5.03), p=0.001		-		-		-		-		3.05 (1.95–4.79), p=0.001		
<i>HR-NMIBC (n)</i>	80	216	357	442	202	381	261	334	295	42	611	232	421	521	132	523	130	422	206	
Residual cancer at re-TURBT	Yes	29 (36)	79 (37)	104 (29)	133 (30)	70 (35)	117 (31)	90 (35)	84 (25)	117 (40)	9 (21)	203 (33)	50 (22)	162 (39)	165 (32)	47 (36)	162 (31)	50 (39)	100 (24)	103 (50)
	No	51	137	253	309	132	264	171	250	178	33	408	182	259	356	85	361	80	322	103
Univariate OR (95% CI), p value	1.38 (0.83–2.30), p=0.2			1.23 (0.87–1.76), p=0.2		1.18 (0.85–1.66), p=0.3		1.96 (1.39–2.75), p < .001		1.82 (0.86–3.88), p=0.1		2.28 (1.57–3.29), p < 0.001		1.19 (0.80–1.78), p=0.4		1.39 (0.94–2.08), p=0.1		3.22 (2.26–4.59), p < 0.001		
Multivariate OR (95% CI), p value	-			-		-		1.66 (1.16–2.36), p=0.005		-		2.03(1.38–2.98), p=0.001		-		-		2.90 (2.02–4.17), p=0.001		
T2 at re-TURBT	Yes	4 (5.0)	3 (1.4)	12 (3.4)	9 (2.0)	10 (4.9)	8 (2.1)	10 (3.8)	6 (1.8)	13 (4.4)	0 (0.0)	19 (3.1)	1 (0.4)	18 (4.3)	17 (3.3)	2 (1.5)	15 (2.9)	4 (3.1)	7 (1.6)	11 (5.3)
	No	76	213	345	433	192	373	251	328	282	42	592	231	403	504	130	508	126	415	195
Univariate OR (95% CI), p value	3.74 (0.82–17.1), p = 0.07			2.51 (1.00–6.27), p = 0.04		1.86 (0.72–4.77), p=0.2		2.52 (0.95–6.72), p=0.06		NA		10.3 (1.37–77.8), p = 0.01		2.19 (0.50–9.61), p=0.3		1.08 (0.35–3.29), p=0.9		3.34 (1.28–8.76), p = 0.009		
Multivariate OR (95% CI), p value	-			2.76 (1.01–7.04), p=0.03		-		-		-		9.26 (1.22–71.43), p=0.03		-		-		2.99 (1.13–7.9), p=0.03		

CI = confidence interval; HG = high grade; HR-NMIBC = high-risk non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer; LG = low grade; NA = not applicable; OR = odds ratio; RRFFC = recurrence rate at first follow-up cystoscopy; SPI-MMC = single post-TURBT instillation of mitomycin C; TNM = tumour, node, metastasis; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour; WHO = World Health Organization. Values in bold font highlight statistically significant values.

With a very small risk of initial TURBT understaging HR-NMIBC (9/653), the CIs for analyses of association were wide: TURBTs by trainees, and T1 tumours appeared to be associated with a higher risk of understaging (Table 5).

4. Discussion

Scotland's QPI programme for BC, to our knowledge, is the first national initiative to not only develop (September 2013) and implement (April 2014) QIs, but also evaluate compliance within a framework of governance and prospective audit (April 2014 onwards), and gauge clinical outcomes. Our unique position with maturity of this process has allowed many lessons to be learnt [12]. From this large real-world cohort representing approximately two-thirds of patients treated in Scotland, we are proud to note the high compliance with QPIs and quality of TURBT.

Lawrence and Olesen [13] defined QI as “a measurable element of practice performance for which there is evidence or consensus that it can be used to assess the quality, and hence change in the quality, of care provided”, and Donabedian [8] proposed principles that underpin their development. However, developing achievable QIs is understandably complex [14] as is its implementation, having to take into account multiple facets (including behavioural) in addressing knowledge-practice gaps [15] with multilayered interventions required to improve compliance [16]. The Donabedian [8] principles—*structure*, *process*, and *outcome*—appear to be embedded in our 12 QPIs [12]. Despite the absence of clinical outcomes from any other BC QI programme (to our knowledge), recommendations for QIs abound [17–21].

We consider the effectiveness of initial TURBT vital to the patient journey and determinants of its quality, as surrogates of “attention to detail”; QPI 2, in particular, was developed from Scottish projects [22,23], building on the work by Brausi and colleagues [2,24]. The diagram with documentation of tumour features is recommended by the EAU [25] and checklists [18,26]. Whilst documentation of tumour location(s) has several technical benefits (eg, guiding re-TURBT, especially when the initial TURBT was performed by a different surgeon), it has accepted prognostic implications, particularly in HR-NMIBC [27]. Conversely, the absence of DM has been associated with a higher risk of residual cancer and understaging in HR-NMIBC [22,28]—our cohort suggests this association, while emphasising selective re-TURBT in pT1 cancers.

The Scottish National Dataset [12] reveals exceptionally high compliance to SPI-MMC when compared with other European and North American data [6]. Whilst MMC has been the UK standard, other agents could be alternatives [25]. Our use of MMC consistently across Scotland means that the observed outcomes are more likely a consequence of SPI-MMC rather than potentially differing efficacy of intravesical chemotherapy agents. SPI-MMC is not recommended as the sole intravesical adjunct in HR-NMIBC; however, with the inability to reliably predict grade in new BC [29] and its relative safety, wider (responsible) usage is

more likely to benefit the most appropriate patients. Our QPI target of 60% (Supplementary Table 1) was designed to allow for clinician discretion in using SPI-MMC and contraindications [12] (the effectiveness of this selective utilisation is evident from Table 4), and along with other confounders (eg, suspicion of perforation), are reasonable explanations to the observed (albeit, intriguing) inverse relationship between SPI-MMC and residual cancer.

The International Bladder Cancer Group recommends using recurrence rates as endpoints for LGTa [30]. We selected our endpoints (1) because recurrence at 3 mo and residual cancer in HR-NMIBC are strong predictors of future recurrence [31] and progression [28], respectively, and (2) to ensure consistency with previously described TURBT quality measures [2,11]. Reassuringly, RRFFC for LGTa in our real-world cohort is low, when compared with clinical trials [31,32].

Tumour multiplicity at presentation, in our study, does not appear to be as strong a predictor of early recurrence as seen in the EORTC trials [31]. Perhaps, the variability of resection quality in this historical series [2] was responsible. Nevertheless, this paradigm shift towards improved recurrence and staging accuracy with TURBT will benefit from contemporaneous prognostic prediction to facilitate stratification of NMIBC patients—upcoming long-term results might be timely.

ISD's publications [12] have maintained hospital anonymity, and a fundamental agreement in our collaborative was to preserve this anonymity. However, having observed an unlikely association between SPI-MMC and HR-NMIBC, post hoc hospital group analyses were necessary to obtain granularity. This led to our, possibly novel yet intriguing, observations around hospital volume–TURBT relationship. Nonetheless, recurrence is also influenced by surveillance precision: it is possible, for example, that larger hospitals might rely on less experienced staff (perhaps trainees) who might miss small subtle recurrences, while an experienced small centre consultant could be more accurate, causing apparently “higher” early recurrence rates.

Surgeon experience can determine TURBT quality [2,22,23]. Not unexpectedly, consultant:trainee TURBT ratios appeared to shift in favour of trainees in higher-volume centres. Contrary to belief, trainees did not appear to be excluded from operating on large and/or multiple tumours and were as likely as consultants to use SPI-MMC. Reassuringly, outcomes between consultants and trainees were not (statistically) dissimilar, and this is testament to our policy on supervision created at QPI inception.

It is our a priori position that implementation of the QPI programme, with associated audit and governance processes, has resulted in positive outcomes for Scotland's NMIBC patients. Implementation science suggests that processes that incorporate “audit and feedback” (as in the QPI programme) have potential to improve outcomes within healthcare systems [16] and perhaps the natural “scrutiny” within a large public healthcare system, such as the NHS, favours better outcomes when performance targets are applied [33].

4.1. Limitations

We lacked a planned (pre-QPI) cohort for comparison; however, the rates of absent DM and recurrence/residual cancer appear to be lower than in two pre-QPI Scottish cohorts [22,23]. Additionally, as we were prospectively audited, the Hawthorne effect would likely improve outcomes over any historical cohort. Our agreement, at the outset, to maintain hospital and surgeon anonymity precluded carrying out hierarchical modelling, which would have given additional granularity to the analyses. Re-TURBT included selective cystoscopy/biopsy—we accept this as representing pragmatic real-world practice, as is the small possibility that some patients received adjuvant intravesical chemotherapy before their first check cystoscopy. A central pathologist was not involved; however, regional uropathologists reporting all biopsies, use of the Royal College of Pathologists' checklist [10] (QPI 5), and multidisciplinary review (QPI 1) ensured uniform standards. As all TURBTs performed by trainees were intended to be supervised, the surgeon category, when ascribed to a trainee, might still reflect consultant contribution. Voluntary participation in the collaborative could cause a small selection bias, despite representing two-thirds of Scotland's TURBTs.

5. Conclusions

By focusing on a package of evidence-based QIs, Scotland's QPI programme appears to facilitate high-quality TURBT. In a real-world setting, it is associated with low early recurrence/residual cancer with accurate pathological staging, while compliance with use of a single post-TURBT instillation of chemotherapy reduced the risk of early recurrence in LGTa cancer significantly. These results have allowed for modifications to relevant QPIs since 2017, while setting pragmatic benchmarks for TURBT.

Author contributions: Paramanathan Mariappan had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Mariappan.

Acquisition of data: Mariappan, Johnston, Padovani, Clark, Thomas, Simpson, Hollins, Hasan, Trail, Hamid, Bhatt, Hendry, Ahmad.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Mariappan.

Drafting of the manuscript: Mariappan.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Mariappan, Hendry, Bhatt, Hollins, Ahmad, Thomas.

Statistical analysis: Mariappan.

Obtaining funding: None.

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Supervision: Mariappan, Ahmad, Bhatt, Nandwani, Mitchell, Hollins, Hendry, Thomas.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.06.051>.

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Platinum Priority – Editorial

Referring to the article published on pp. 520–530 of this issue

National Quality Improvement Program in Transurethral Resection of Bladder Tumor: A Model for the Rest of Us, Even if We Cannot Share All Results

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It is increasingly clear that variability in practice patterns and quality improvement efforts affect survival outcomes in bladder cancer. In this issue of *European Urology*, Mariappan et al [1] present the first part of their comprehensive quality improvement program for bladder cancer, impressively implemented at a national level in Scotland. This first publication deals with quality in transurethral resection of bladder tumor (TURBT) procedures.

The authors evaluated 1860 new patients with non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC) for 3 yr after implementation of a quality improvement program in terms of compliance with quality metrics (eg, use of a bladder diagram for documenting lesions, inclusion of detrusor muscle in the TURBT specimen, and use of post-TURBT mitomycin C) and oncologic outcomes. The study is limited by the absence of a control group before implementation of the quality program, lack of central pathology review, and lack of demonstrable standardized access to enhanced technology for TURBT (eg, blue light endoscopy). In addition, Scotland is a relatively small country, which could make implementation easier than in larger and more heterogeneous places. However, this real-world study reflects a tremendous effort and national commitment to quality and represents the kinds of steps to standardize and improve care that all urologists should emulate. The tangible benefits of lower recurrence rates, less residual disease at repeat TURBT, and more accurate staging are important to patients.

Underlying this study is a fundamental question: what constitutes high-quality TURBT? Oncologic outcomes speak

most definitively to the quality of TURBT (less recurrence/progression is better), but these events occur years after the procedure and are therefore not measurable at the time of an operation. Endpoints such as those proposed by the International Bladder Cancer Group can take too long to occur in order to be useful for quality improvement in real time [2,3]. Proxy outcomes such as those used in this study (recurrence at first cystoscopy and residual disease at repeat TURBT) allow providers and systems to optimize care with more agility. In an effort to shift assessment of quality to an even earlier point, it may be appropriate to define quality in part as compliance with guideline-based practice, especially given the body of knowledge we have regarding specific clinical factors that improve outcomes. For example, we have clear data on reduction of recurrence rates with immediate postoperative intravesical chemotherapy, enhanced accuracy of staging with detrusor muscle in the pathology specimen, and upstaging rates with repeat TURBT for high-risk NMIBC. In addition, multiple studies have demonstrated the benefits of appropriate documentation of lesion location with diagrams and checklists at the time of TURBT [4]. However, the factors of experience and technique that affect outcomes remain, and it is less clear how to evaluate these. It would have been nice if variations in outcomes between patients were modeled at the patient level (tumor size, stage, grade, multifocality), physician level (age, annual volume, TUR technique), and hospital level (annual volume, resource availability) to determine where variability in outcomes occurs. Clearly, the doctor cannot be blamed for everything.

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Once quality is defined and benchmarks are established, the critical step in improving quality of care is determining how to facilitate standardization across sites and improve. Regular reports shared with participants can help providers and institutions understand their performance relative to their peers and take corrective actions. However, those who have developed quality programs are acutely aware that findings cannot always be shared publicly owing to agreements about surgeon- and hospital-level confidentiality, which are fundamental to building the quality program in the first place [1,5]. Quality programs may reveal findings regarding specific providers or centers who performed poorly on certain metrics relative to their peers because they treat higher-risk patients.

Does the public have a right to know that a particular medical center has worse or better outcomes? Or should individual providers' and institutions' data be anonymous, as is the case with the American College of Surgeons National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP)? The assumption here is that analysis of quality metrics should be accurate, which can never be said with 100% certainty. Moreover, institutional composition is fluid. When a high-volume provider moves, does he leave behind an institution that can continue to deliver the same quality of care?

Should compensation take into account individual providers' or institutions' quality metrics? This is a controversial topic, especially in non-nationalized health systems, due in part to the ethical considerations raised by the possibility that patients' access to quality care will be partly driven by socioeconomic factors. Supporters of value-based care note successful application of such approaches in primary care and non-fee-for-service health systems without definitively adverse effects on access to care [6,7]. At the end of the day, money clearly talks.

If quality metrics highlight significant variation in care, should resources be devoted to mitigating the effects of such variation at each site, or should care be centralized in centers of excellence? The answer probably depends on what the drivers of the outcome variation are. For example, the case mix at an inner city medical center serving a patient population with low socioeconomic status will always have different outcomes to a boutique "fly in" center for the rich. If the issue is access to better technology to facilitate optimal resection, then health system resource allocation needs adjustment. However, if the driver has more to do with expertise or surgeon comfort, centralization of care offers the opportunity to

minimize variation of care and positively impact oncologic outcomes, provided that patients can still get care [8]. Some patients will not accept a 6-h journey for cystoscopy and TURBT. Much work is required to better understand what the consequences are for patient-reported outcomes and access to care [9].

Mariappan et al [1] have demonstrated the utility of a highly structured quality program in optimizing outcomes of TURBT and provide an example of how we urologists need to organize in order to improve. We look forward to seeing the rest of the bladder cancer quality improvement data from this program to learn how participating surgeons adjust their own behavior based on these preliminary findings.

Conflicts of interest: Brant A. Inman is a consultant/advisor for Fergene, Genentech, and Combat Medical, and an investigator for Genentech, QED Therapeutics, Dendreon, Combat Medical, FKD Therapies, Taris Biomedical, and Nucleix. Ankeet Shah and Wei Phin Tan have nothing to disclose.

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Platinum Priority Brief Correspondence

Editorial by Douglas G. Ward, Roland Arnold and Richard T. Bryan on pp. 538–539 of this issue.

Identification of Differential Tumor Subtypes of T1 Bladder Cancer

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Abstract

Stage T1 bladder cancers have the highest progression and recurrence rates of all non-muscle-invasive bladder cancers (NMIBCs). Most T1 cancers are treated with bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG), but many will progress or recur, and some T1 patients will die from bladder cancer. Particularly aggressive tumors could be treated with early cystectomy. To better understand the molecular heterogeneity of T1 cancers, we performed transcriptome profiling and unsupervised clustering, and identified five consensus subtypes of T1 tumors treated with repeat transurethral resection (reTUR) and induction and maintenance BCG. The T1-LumGU subtype was associated with carcinoma in situ (CIS; six/13, 46% of all CIS), had high E2F1 and EZH2 expression, and was enriched in E2F target and G2M checkpoint hallmarks. The T1-Inflam subtype was inflamed and infiltrated with immune cells. While most T1 tumors were classified as luminal papillary, the T1-Tlum subtype had the highest median luminal papillary score and FGFR3 expression, no recurrence events, and the fewest copy number gains. T1-Myc and T1-Early subtypes had the most recurrences (14/30 within 24 mo), the highest median MYC expression, and, when combined, had significantly worse recurrence-free survival than the other three subtypes. T1-Early had five (38%) recurrences within the first 6 mo of BCG, and repressed IFN- α and IFN- γ hallmarks and inflammation. We developed a single-patient T1 classifier and validated our subtype biology in a second cohort of T1 tumors. Future research will be necessary to validate the proposed T1 subtypes and to determine if therapies can be individualized for each subtype.

Patient summary: We identified and characterized expression subtypes of high-grade stage T1 bladder cancer that are biologically heterogeneous and have variable responses to bacillus Calmette-Guérin treatment. We validated the subtypes and describe a single-patient classifier.

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T1 tumors are potentially the most aggressive subtype of non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC), with 40% recurrence and 15% progression at 5 yr [1]. While most T1 cancers are treated with bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG), recurrence or progression is treated with radical cystectomy, and delayed intervention is associated with lower survival [1]. Biomarkers that could predict response to BCG in T1 cancers could help both patients and clinicians in making treatment-related decisions; however, few to no tumor-specific prognostic features have been identified. We previously reported that T1 and MIBC cancers had similar mutations, but that mutations were unable to predict response to BCG [2]. The primary objective of our study was to investigate the molecular heterogeneity of T1 cancers via RNA sequencing of 73 primary T1 tumors (Supplementary Table 1A) with a primary endpoint of recurrence after BCG. To minimize sources of bias, all tumors were treated at the same institution, 84% had repeat transurethral resection, and all received induction and maintenance BCG (64%) if they did not recur. The recurrence rate was 32% (23/73) at 24 mo and 25% (18/73) at 1 yr, with progression in 8% (six/73) at 24 mo (Supplementary Table 1A, Supplementary Fig. 1). We focused our analysis on tumor expression subtypes identified via unsupervised consensus clustering. After assessing three-, four-, and five-cluster solutions (Supplementary Fig. 2), we characterized a five-cluster solution whose subtypes had distinct clinical outcomes and biological characteristics (Fig. 1). We combined gene expression, gene-set enrichment, and regulon analyses to describe the distinct biology for each subtype (Supplementary methods) [3].

The T1-luminal genomically unstable (T1-LumGU) subtype had the highest frequency of pathologic carcinoma in situ (CIS; six/16 [38%] of T1-LumGU vs 13/73 [18%] of all samples; Supplementary Table 2) with moderate enrichment in CIS up and down gene sets and a recurrence rate of 25% (four/16) at 24 mo (Fig. 1D, Supplementary Fig. 3A,B, Supplementary methods). Analysis of T1-LumGU using other classifiers identified 14/16 samples (88%) as Lund GU and nine/16 (56%) as consensusMIBC LumU [4]. T1-LumGU tumors had the largest median number of somatic copy number (CN) gains (Fig. 1G; $p = 0.016$, Kruskal test). While inflammation genes were weakly repressed in T1-LumGU tumors, Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) C3 E2F1 motifs were enriched (Supplementary Fig. 4), as were hallmark gene sets for E2F targets and G2M checkpoint (area under the curve [AUC] 0.77 and 0.69, Supplementary Fig. 5).

A set of 170 inflammation-related genes was highly expressed in T1-Inflamed (T1-Inflam) tumors (Fig. 1A,D and Supplementary Fig. 3C; AUC 0.91, CERNO test [5]). T1-Inflam tumors had the highest levels of many immune cell types, including cytotoxic lymphocytes and T cells, as well as the highest immune and stromal scores and the lowest tumor purity (Fig. 1F, Supplementary Fig. 6B). Multiple inflammatory hallmarks were enriched, and Myc and E2F target hallmarks were repressed (Fig. 1C, Supplementary Fig. 5). While T1-Inflam tumors were mostly LumP (11/14, 79%), CIS rates were low (three/14, 21%) and there were four/14 (29%)

recurrences by 24 mo. Hallmarks and immune signatures were consistent with increased expression of immune regulators NFATC2 and STAT4 (Supplementary Fig. 4B), and we hypothesize that T1-Inflam tumors represent an immune-active and inflamed T1 subtype.

Collectively, subtypes T1-Myc and T1-Early (S5) had the most recurrences, with over half of tumors recurring after BCG treatment (14/24, 58% of patients at 24 mo over both subtypes; Fig. 1B). T1-Myc had the most recurrences by 24 mo (12/17, 71%). T1-Myc tumors were mostly (14/17, 82%) LumP, and all were UROMOL class 2a. They had high MYC expression levels and enriched Myc target hallmarks (AUC 0.71; Fig. 1C,H and Supplementary Fig. 5). Inflammatory gene signatures were minimally repressed (AUC 0.66, Supplementary Fig. 3C). Pathological CIS was present in two/17 (12%), but CIS gene sets were not enriched (Supplementary Fig. 3A).

Subtype T1-True Luminals (T1-TLum) was the most luminal and urothelial-differentiated subtype. Overall, T1-TLum tumors had the fewest 24-mo recurrences (two/13, 15%). The T1-TLum group had the highest median consensusMIBC LumP classifier score (Fig. 1E) and contained four/13 (31%) UROMOL class 1 tumors. T1-TLum tumors had the fewest somatic CN gains [6] (Fig. 1G) and had strongly repressed CIS (ie, enriched in CIS down with repressed CIS up genes; Supplementary Fig. 3A). Inflammatory and proliferative hallmarks were repressed (Fig. 1C and Supplementary Fig. 5), immune cell markers were low according to multiple deconvolution methods (Supplementary Fig. 6), and luminal differentiation genes FGFR3 and RXRA were highly expressed (Fig. 1H).

Subtype T1-Early had five/13 (38%) recurrences within 6 mo of induction BCG, with no further recurrences by 24 mo. This subtype had the highest median MYC expression and enriched Myc target hallmarks (AUC 0.80; Fig. 1C,H and Supplementary Fig. 5). These tumors had no reported CIS, and had repressed CIS gene signatures (Supplementary Fig. 3). While both T1-Myc and T1-Early had elevated MYC expression, T1-Early differed from T1-Myc in having repressed immune response hallmarks for IFN- α (AUC 0.81) and IFN- γ (AUC 0.75) (Supplementary Fig. 5). Thus, T1-Early appeared to be a MYC-driven subtype with an immune-suppressive microenvironment that was depleted in immune cells, suggesting its tumor microenvironment may represent an immune desert. Grouping the two Myc-driven subtypes together, T1-Early and T1-Myc had significantly worse recurrence-free survival than the other three subtypes grouped ($p = 0.025$, Fig. 1I).

We used regulon analysis to further characterize the molecular differences and similarities among the subtypes. This identified two major patterns of regulon activity that suggested that the five expression subtypes could be grouped into two regulon classes: T1-LumGU+T1-Myc and T1-TLum+T1-Early (Supplementary Fig. 7A). Subtypes T1-LumGU+T1-Myc had activated regulons for transcription factors E2F1 and FOXM1, and enriched hallmarks for E2F targets, G2M checkpoint, and interferon response pathways. By contrast, subtypes T1-TLum+T1-Early (and to some degree T1-Inflam) were characterized by activated

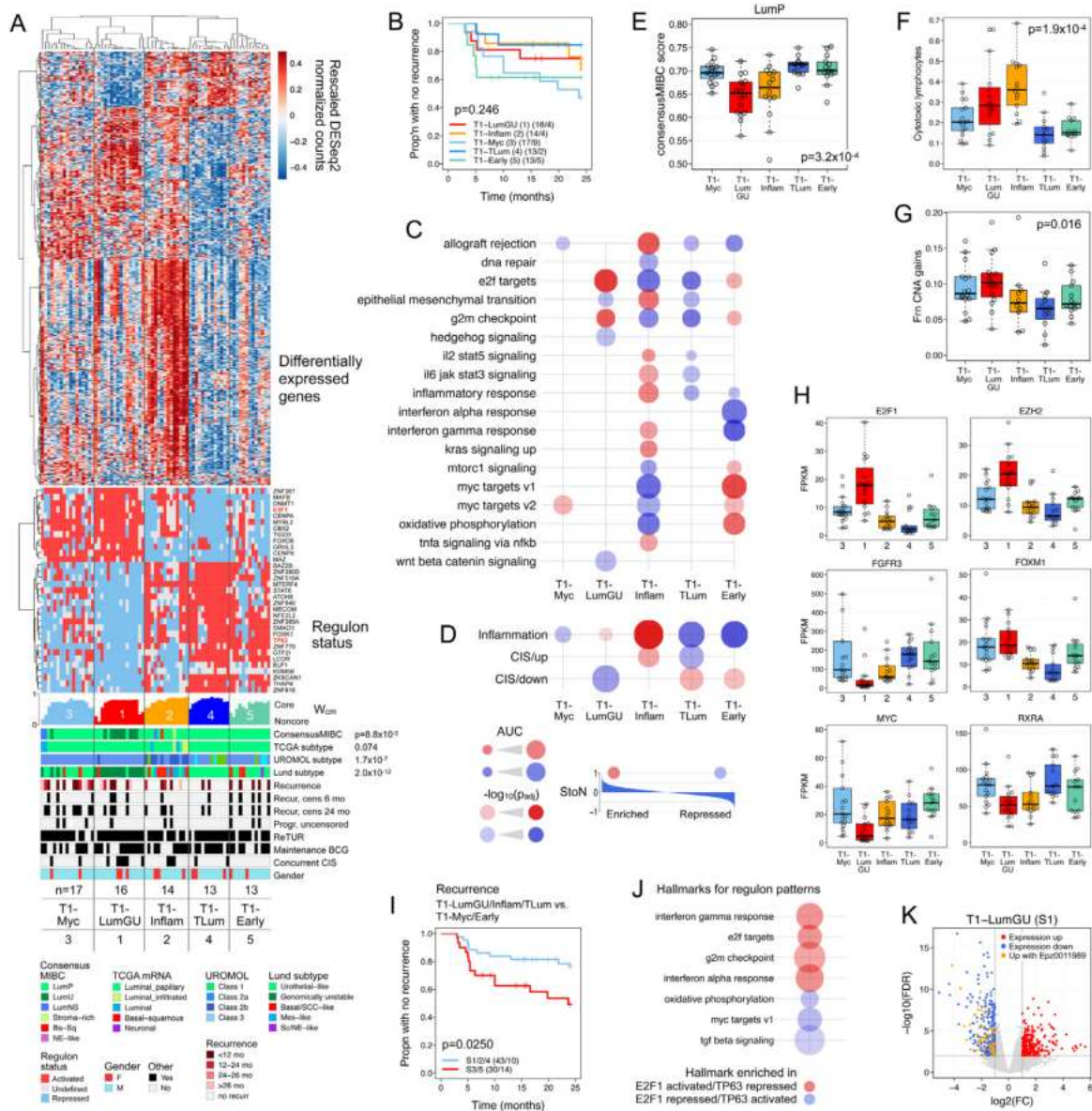
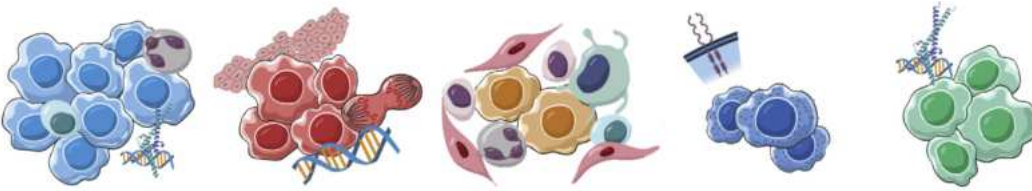


Fig. 1 – Characterization of five gene expression subtypes for T1 tumors based on transcriptome profiles and clinical variables. (A) Top: heatmap of subtype-specific differentially expressed genes (DEGs) for five unsupervised consensus expression clusters identified using the most-variant 2945 (ie, 15%) protein-coding genes (Supplementary methods). Below the DEG heatmap is a heatmap showing activity status profiles for 33 regulons, with red, blue, and grey indicating activated, repressed, and undefined regulon activity status, respectively. Below these are covariate tracks for expression-based classifier subtyping of each T1 tumor, with consensusMIBC, TCGA, UROMOL, and Lund subtypes shown. Below these are clinical and pathologic covariates. **(B)** Kaplan-Meier plot of recurrence, censored at 24 mo, with a log-rank *p* value, demonstrating increased recurrence of subtypes T1-Myc (S3, 24 mo) and T1-Early (S5, 6 mo). **(C)** Selected Molecular Signatures Database hallmark gene sets enriched in genes overexpressed (red disks) or underexpressed (blue) in a subtype. Gene set enrichment analysis results are from CERNO tests [5]; disk diameter is proportional to area under the curve (ie, effect size) and color opacity is proportional to $-\log_{10}(p_{adj})$. **(D)** CERNO tests of 170 inflammation-related genes and CIS up/down genes, with dot size and color as described in (C). **(E)** Distribution of LumP consensusMIBC classifier scores across T1 subtypes; T1-Tlum had the highest median LumP score. **(F)** Cytotoxic lymphocytes predicted by MCPcounter (Supplementary Fig. 6); T1-Inflam had the most immune cells. **(G)** Somatic copy number (CN) gains, expressed as a fraction of the total genome length with CN calls; T1-LumGU had the most CNs and T1-Tlum the fewest. **(H)** Per-subtype expression distributions of select genes. A comparison of FPKM and TPM expression distributions is shown in Supplementary Figure 4B. **(I)** A Kaplan-Meier curve identified significantly worse recurrence at 24 mo for the two subtypes with the highest recurrence (T1-Myc and T1-Early) compared to the three other subtypes (T1-LumGU, T1-Inflam, T1-Tlum). **(J)** The regulon-based group consisting of subtypes T1-LumGU + T1-Myc was enriched in hallmarks for E2F targets, G2M checkpoint, and interferon response pathways; by contrast, the group consisting of subtypes T1-Tlum + T1-Early (and to some degree T1-Inflam) was characterized by activated SMAD3 and TP63 regulons, and enriched in hallmarks for TGF- β signaling, MYC targets, and oxidative phosphorylation (Supplementary Fig. 9). **(K)** Differentially expressed genes were identified for T1-LumGU; overexpressed genes are shown by red dots and underexpressed by blue dots (Supplementary Fig. 10). This subtype had gene signatures suggestive of regulation by E2F and EZH2. Treatment of bladder cancer cell line HT-1376 with EP20011989 (Epizyme, Cambridge, MA, USA) resulted in increased expression of many of the repressed genes, depicted by orange dots, suggesting that subtype-specific genes may be regulated by EZH2. FC = fold change. The *p* values in A are from Fisher exact tests on contingency tables; those in E, F, and G are from Kruskal-Wallis tests on per-subtype FPKM distributions; all are uncorrected for multiple testing.

Table 1 – Characteristics of the five expression subtypes in the discovery cohort.


	T1-Myc (3)	T1-LumGU (1)	T1-Inflam (2)	T1-TLum (4)	T1-Early (5)
Subtype name (number)	T1-Myc (3)	T1-LumGU (1)	T1-Inflam (2)	T1-TLum (4)	T1-Early (5)
Samples (n)	17	16	14	13	13
Subtype classifiers					
Lund	URO	GU	URO, some Basal/ SCC-like, Mes-like	URO	URO
TCGA mRNA	Lum-papillary	Lum-papillary	Lum-papillary	Lum-papillary	Lum-papillary
consensusMIBC	LumP	LumU	LumP/Stroma-rich	LumP	LumP
UROMOL class	2a	2a	2a/2b	1/2a	2a/3
Hallmark gene sets					
Enriched		E2F targets, G2M checkpoint	Inflammatory response, IL2/STAT5 signaling, IFNG response		MYC targets v1
Repressed			MYC targets v1, E2F targets, G2M checkpoint	E2F targets, G2M checkpoint	IFNG response, IFNA response
Carcinoma in situ					
Pathologic (%)	12	38	21	15	0
GSEA		Moderate	Moderate	Strongly repressed	Weakly repressed
GSEA inflammation			Strongly enriched	Strongly repressed	Strongly repressed
Immune: MCPcounter					
CTLs			Highest	Lowest	Low
T cells			Highest median	Lowest	Lowest median
B lineage				Lowest median	Low
Immune: ESTIMATE					
Immune score	Low, wide range	Moderate, wide range	Highest	Low	Lowest median
Stromal score	Low	Low	Highest	Lowest median	Low
Tumor purity	High	High	Lowest	High	High
Gene expression	High FOXM1, RXRA Wide range for MYC	High E2F1, EZH2 Lowest FGFR3, MYC	High STAT4, NFATC2	Low E2F1, FOXM1, NFATC2, STAT4	High MYC, Low STAT4
CN somatic gains					
Activated regulons	Moderate E2F1	E2F1 set	TP63/ZNF385A	ZNF385A (TP63)	Moderate ZNF385A
BCG response					
Recurrence, 6 mo	3/17 (18%)	3/16 (19%)	1/14 (7%)	1/13 (8%)	5/13 (38%)
Recurrence, 24 mo	12/17 (53%)	4/16 (25%)	4/14 (29%)	2/13 (15%)	5/13 (38%)
Management	Early cystectomy, MYC-i	BCG, EZH2i	BCG	TURBT, BCG	Nadofaragene firadenovec, MYC-i
BCG = bacillus Calmette-Guerin; CN = copy number; CTLs = cytotoxic T lymphocytes; GSEA = gene set enrichment analysis; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumor					

SMAD3 and TP63 regulons, and enriched hallmarks for TGF- β signaling, MYC targets, and oxidative phosphorylation (Fig. 1J and Supplementary Fig. 7B). We found that these two major patterns of regulon activity were also present in a cohort of 94 UROMOL T1 non-cystectomy tumors; these patterns were consistent with classifier subtyping and with relative expression levels of E2F1 and other genes [7] (Supplementary Fig. 8). That the five expression subtypes corresponded to two major regulon activity classes suggests that regulon activity profiles may provide coarser-grained groupings for T1 tumors.

So that we could evaluate our subtypes in other patient cohorts, we developed an expression-based single-sample classifier for T1 tumors (<https://github.com/csgroen/classifyT1BC>). Since our discovery cohort was restricted to tumors treated with BCG, we evaluated tumors from a second cohort of 26 T1 patients from our institution whose

tumors had all been T1 on TUR but who elected to undergo early cystectomy rather than BCG treatment (Supplementary Table 1B, Supplementary Fig. 9). The classifier identified the five T1 subtypes in the 26 tumors. As validation of the classifier, we identified conserved regulon activity patterns, relative levels of gene expression, tumor subtypes, and pathologic CIS in the predicted subtypes (Supplementary Fig. 9E). This result was consistent with the UROMOL results (Supplementary Fig. 8) and showed that gene expression and regulons active within our five T1 subtypes were conserved in another cohort of T1 tumors, despite differences in outcomes, sample preparation, and treatment.

One potential application of T1 subtypes is to direct precision therapy targeting the unique features of a patient's subtype. T1-LumGU tumors had the highest expression of E2F and its target EZH2. In a test of EZH2

as a potential target in bladder cancer, we found that in vitro treatment of the luminal bladder cancer cell line HT-1376 with an EZH2 inhibitor (EPZ-011989, a generous gift from Epizyme) strongly enhanced expression of DEGs that were repressed or underexpressed in T1-LumGU (Supplementary Fig. 10 and Fig. 1K). While preliminary, these data suggest that consideration of the unique expression signature of each subtype and/or its regulon network may identify novel therapeutic targets for T1 tumors.

In summary, using a cohort of patients with T1 NMIBC treated with BCG, we identified five distinct molecular subtypes that appeared to be associated with two major classes of regulon activity, and we describe the characteristics of each subtype. In the future, evaluation of T1 subtypes may help to risk-stratify T1 tumors and identify precision therapeutic targets.

Author contributions: Joshua J. Meeks had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Robertson, Meeks, Jordan, Lin, McLaughlin, Das, Fall, Taxter, Dyrskjøt, McConkey, Svatek, Castro, Fantini, Groeneveld, de Reyniès.

Acquisition of data: Robertson, Meeks, Jordan, Lin, McLaughlin, Das, Fall, Taxter, Dyrskjøt, McConkey, Svatek, Castro, Mogil, Viborg Lindskrog, Fantini.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Robertson, Meeks, Jordan, Lin, McLaughlin, Das, Fall, Taxter, Dyrskjøt, McConkey, Svatek, Castro, Mogil, Viborg Lindskrog, Fantini, Mogil, Groeneveld, de Reyniès.

Drafting of the manuscript: Robertson, Meeks, Jordan, Lin, McLaughlin, Das, Fall, Taxter, Dyrskjøt, McConkey, Svatek, Castro, Mogil, Viborg Lindskrog, Fantini, Mogil, Groeneveld, de Reyniès.

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Data availability: RNA-seq and clinical data are available at the Gene Expression Omnibus as GSE154261.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.06.048>.

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Platinum Priority – Editorial

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Molecular Subtypes of T1 Bladder Cancer: Biomolecular Characteristics Versus Clinical Utility

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From low-grade Ta to high-grade T1, Non-Muscle-Invasive Bladder Cancers (NMIBCs) are highly heterogeneous both clinically and biologically. As with Muscle-Invasive Bladder Cancer (MIBC), high-grade NMIBCs have a high mutation burden, multiple copy-number changes, and loss of tumour suppressors (eg, TP53, RB1), whereas low-grade NMIBCs exhibit oncogene activation (eg, FGFR3, RAS) in a relatively normal genome [1]. Subtyping based on gene expression has recently offered further insights into NMIBC biology [1–3], yet risk stratification (and hence treatment selection) remains entirely based on clinicopathological observations, without the inclusion of biomolecular information [4].

The majority of urologists treat patients with high-grade T1 disease with induction and maintenance intravesical Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG), with radical cystectomy considered for suitable patients [4]. BCG efficacy varies: more than 60% of patients experience durable responses [5,6], up to 20% experience progression to MIBC within 5 yr [5,6], and as many as 15% have lymph node metastases at diagnosis [7]. There would be great benefit to patients if biomolecular insights could be used to predict those more likely to respond to BCG, those who should be treated with other (novel) therapeutics, those who would be optimally managed with early radical cystectomy, and, potentially, those who do not require prolonged adjuvant therapies.

In this issue of European Urology, Robertson et al [8] describe the identification of five subtypes of high-grade T1 bladder cancer. The authors used a discovery cohort of 73 patients with high-grade T1 disease; 84% of these patients had undergone repeat Transurethral Resection (TUR), 100% had received induction BCG, and 64% had received maintenance BCG. At 24 mo, 32% had recurred and 8% had progressed to MIBC; overall, nine patients pro-

gressed during follow-up. TUR specimens were subjected to RNA sequencing using standard methodology. State-of-the-art analyses were used to interpret the data at the level of defined pathways and regulons, and to provide insights into the (immune) microenvironment.

In brief, unsupervised consensus clustering based on gene expression was used to define five subtypes considered to optimally describe tumour biology and characteristics, with an open-access “single sample classifier” generated to facilitate subtyping. Regulon analysis identified a dichotomy, with similar transcription factor activity in the T1-Myc and T1-LumGU subtypes and in the T1-TLum and T1-Early subtypes. Although recurrence-free survival curves for the five subtypes did not differ significantly, there was a significant difference in recurrence-free survival between combined T1-Myc/Early and combined T1-LumGU/Inflam/TLum. As a limited validation, the gene expression patterns were corroborated in a cohort of 26 patients with high-grade tumours who underwent radical cystectomy (69% \leq T1, 31% \geq T2), suggesting that the five subtypes are intrinsic properties of high-grade bladder cancer rather than a result of “overfitting”. Subsequent *in vitro* data highlighted the potential of this classification for the selection of targeted therapies.

Unlike previous studies predominantly focussed on MIBCs and/or NMIBCs of all grades and stages [2,3,9], the current study has the advantage that it analysed only high-grade T1 tumours from patients treated with at least induction BCG; hence, the influence of intrinsic biology on the outcomes of high-grade T1 disease can largely be separated from the confounding effects of grade, stage, and varying treatments (see later). Comparison with existing subtyping methods showed that T1-LumGU shows similar-

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ity to LumU (MIBC consensus [9]) and GU (Lund [2]) subtypes, and T1-Inflam shows similarity to cluster 2b (UROMOL [10]) and Basal and Mesenchymal (Lund) subtypes, whilst the remaining proposed T1 subtypes are predominantly similar to LumP (MIBC consensus), cluster 2a (UROMOL) and urothelial-like (Lund). Thus, the subtypes described here provide more detailed characterisation of T1 tumours than existing schema.

The Brief Correspondence format does not do justice to these data, nor permit detailed explanations of methodology and iterative steps. Hence, the analyses are not without the need for clarification and, as the authors state, the results require robust independent validation. Although high MYC expression is a reason to combine T1-Myc and T1-Early (with a significant recurrence-free survival difference vs T1-LumGU/Inflam/TLum), these are derived from opposite regulon clusters, and other shared biology is not evidenced. In addition, data relating to the immune microenvironment should be interpreted carefully: for example, MCP-counter does not report absolute measurements of cell-type fractions but individual cell-type scores, which are potentially influenced by normalisation procedures. Furthermore, it remains unclear if the validation readout (expression of two regulons, expression of seven genes, CIS gene-set expression, and MIBC subtype) is not intrinsically modelled in the classifier (which is based on the expression of 300 genes). In addition, the differential outcomes for the subtypes are based on a small number of events in a modest number of patients with no independent validation. Finally, is recurrence-free survival the most clinically relevant outcome for patients with high-grade T1 tumours following induction BCG? Figure 1A [8] illustrates the treatments for the nine patients who progressed to MIBC: only one patient had undergone both repeat TUR and received maintenance BCG. Progression in patients with high-grade T1 disease after optimal bladder-preserving management (repeat TUR, induction and maintenance BCG [4]) is life-threatening, and is the outcome of most interest to clinicians (and their patients). Arguably, this one patient is the only patient who matters in this study: what are the unique biomolecular characteristics of her tumour?

As with interventional clinical trials in which sample size calculations are undertaken to adequately “power” the study, it is likely that many hundreds of T1 tumours (accompanied by high-quality clinical data and follow-up) need to be analysed to answer the question(s) of most importance for this clinical setting. With RNA sequencing still costly and transcriptome data analysis complex, this

remains a challenge. In addition, subtype is only one of the biomolecular factors influencing outcomes for high-grade T1 disease, with important contributions to pathogenesis from other genomic and epigenomic phenomena, as well as cell and immune biology. There is still a long journey ahead to fully understand high-grade T1 disease so that we can optimally stratify patients and develop new therapies; however, alongside previous analyses [1–3,10], this study represents a promising waypoint.

Conflicts of interest: Richard T. Bryan has contributed to advisory boards for Olympus Medical Systems and Janssen, and undertakes research funded by UroGen Pharma. Douglas G. Ward and Roland Arnold have nothing to disclose.

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Platinum Priority – Brief Correspondence

Editorial by Vancheswaran Gopalakrishnan, Bret R. Sellman, Taylor S. Cohen and Phillip A. Dennis on pp. 544–545 of this issue

Concomitant Antibiotic Use and Survival in Urothelial Carcinoma Treated with Atezolizumab

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Abstract

Antibiotic effects on the gut microbiota may negatively impact survival with immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs). However, there is minimal evidence regarding whether antibiotic impacts are specific to ICIs or impacts in urothelial carcinoma (UC). In a post hoc analysis of IMvigor210 (single-arm atezolizumab) and IMvigor211 (phase III randomised trial of atezolizumab vs chemotherapy), the association between antibiotic use and overall survival (OS) and progression-free survival (PFS) was assessed via Cox proportional hazard analysis. Antibiotic use was defined as any antibiotic administration between 30 d prior to and 30 d after treatment initiation. Antibiotic use was associated with worse OS ($n = 847$, hazard ratio or HR [95% confidence interval {CI}] = 1.44 [1.19–1.73]) and PFS (1.24 [1.05–1.46]) with atezolizumab, but not chemotherapy ($n = 415$, 1.15 [0.91–1.46] and 1.09 [0.88–1.36], respectively). In the randomised cohort of IMvigor211, the OS treatment effect (HR [95% CI]) of atezolizumab versus chemotherapy was 0.95 (95% CI 0.71–1.25) for antibiotic users, compared with 0.73 (0.60–0.88) for nonusers (p [interaction] = 0.1). Similar associations were noted in the PD-L1 IC2/3 population. In conclusion, antibiotic use was associated with worse survival outcomes in UC patients treated with atezolizumab. The study does not justify a change in antibiotic selection for infections; however antibiotic overuse occurs in cancer care and this needs to be evaluated for ICIs.

Patient summary: In this report from clinical trials IMvigor210 and IMvigor211, it was demonstrated that antibiotic use is consistently associated with worse survival in patients with urothelial carcinoma treated with atezolizumab. No antibiotic association was observed in patients treated with chemotherapy, suggesting that antibiotics may specifically reduce the effectiveness of cancer immunotherapies. Future research will continue to explore the effect of antibiotics on other immune checkpoint inhibitors and confirm whether immune checkpoint inhibitors remain the treatment of choice in cancer patients requiring antibiotics.

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The gut microbiota plays an important role in regulating homeostasis and immune function, and there is evidence that an altered gut microbiota can impact systemic immune response and immune checkpoint inhibitor (ICI) efficacy negatively [1–3]. Antibiotics cause significant changes to the gut microbiota, including decreased diversity and abundance of bacteria in the gut, and these changes can be long lasting [4,5]. Hypotheses are that antibiotic use may also impact survival outcomes from ICIs negatively [6–8]. The effects of antibiotics on ICIs used in urothelial carcinoma (UC) treatment have not been assessed. Additionally, there is minimal evidence to indicate whether the effect of antibiotics is specific to ICIs or if they impact other treatments more broadly.

This manuscript presents a post hoc analysis of the locally advanced/metastatic UC trials, IMvigor210 (NCT02108652; July 4, 2016 cut-off) [9,10] and IMvigor211 (NCT02302807; March 13, 2017 cut-off) [11]—pivotal trials in the assessment of atezolizumab for UC treatment. The primary aim of this manuscript was to assess the association between antibiotic use (within a period between 30 d prior to and 30 d after treatment initiation) and overall survival (OS) and progression-free survival (PFS). This time frame was analysed based upon prior analyses [6,7] and the evidence that antibiotic therapy can result in a prolonged impact on the gut microbiota, including from short courses [4,5].

In brief, IMvigor211 was a randomised trial of atezolizumab (1200 mg intravenous [IV] every 3 wk) versus docetaxel (75 mg/m² IV every 3 wk), paclitaxel (175 mg/m² IV every 3 wk), or vinflunine (320 mg/m² IV every 3 wk) for patients with locally advanced/metastatic UC who have progressed during or following a prior platinum-based chemotherapy regimen [11]. IMvigor210 was a single-arm study of atezolizumab 1200 mg IV every 3 wk in locally advanced or metastatic UC, including participants who were both treatment naïve and ineligible for cisplatin-containing chemotherapy, or participants who have progressed during or following a prior platinum-based chemotherapy regimen [9,10]. Primary study definitions of OS and PFS were utilised in this manuscript [9–11]. PFS was assessed by an investigator as per the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours (RECIST; version 1.1) in IMvigor211 and by an independent review facility as per RECIST (version 1.1) in IMvigor210.

Associations between antibiotic use and OS/PFS were modelled using Cox proportional hazard regression. Analyses were adjusted for baseline age, sex, body mass index, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group performance status (ECOG PS), smoking status, histology, count of prior treatments, PD-L1 expression (expression on <1% [IC0] or 1–<5% [IC1] or ≥5% of tumour-infiltrating immune cells [IC2/3]) [9–11], serum haemoglobin levels, count of organ sites with metastases, and presence of liver metastases. Pooled analyses were stratified by study. Prognostic association heterogeneity between studies was assessed using a study-by-treatment interaction term in the Cox proportional regression model. Heterogeneity of antibiotic effect size for atezolizumab versus chemotherapy in the

randomised arms of IMvigor211 was assessed using an antibiotic-by-treatment interaction term. Associations were reported as hazard ratios (HRs) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) and *p* values (likelihood ratio test). Kaplan–Meier analysis was used for estimating and plotting survival probabilities. Statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.4.3.

Within IMvigor210, 112 (26%) of 429 participants initiated on atezolizumab received an antibiotic within the 60-d window. Of the 467 participants, 123 (26%) randomised to atezolizumab and 149 (32%) randomised to chemotherapy received an antibiotic in IMvigor211. Median (interquartile range) follow-up for patients without the event was 11 (8–12) and 16 (14–19) mo in IMvigor210 and IMvigor211, respectively. At data cut-off, 239 of the 429 participants in IMvigor210 had died (342 PFS events), and 674 of the 931 participants in IMvigor211 had died (817 PFS events). Supplementary Table 1 presents patient characteristics by antibiotic use status; of note, antibiotic users had higher ECOG PS (*p* = 0.008) and lower haemoglobin (*p* = 0.01).

In patients treated with atezolizumab in the pooled cohort of IMvigor210 and IMvigor211, antibiotic use was associated with significantly worse OS (HR [95% CI] = 1.44 [1.19–1.73]) and PFS (1.24 [1.05–1.46]; Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig. 1). No significant heterogeneity was observed in the antibiotic association between studies (OS *p* [interaction] = 0.9; PFS *p* [interaction] = 0.5). In patients treated with chemotherapy in IMvigor211, no significant association between antibiotic use and OS (HR [95% CI] = 1.15 [0.91–1.46]) or PFS (1.09 [0.88–1.36]) was observed (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig. 1).

In the total randomised cohort of IMvigor211, the OS treatment effect (HR [95% CI]) of atezolizumab vs chemotherapy was 0.95 (0.71–1.25) for antibiotic users, compared with 0.73 (0.60–0.88) for antibiotic nonusers (*p* [interaction] = 0.1; Supplementary Fig. 2). On sensitivity analysis of the PD-L1 IC2/3 population, the OS treatment effect of atezolizumab versus chemotherapy was 0.91 (0.52–1.57) for antibiotic users, compared with 0.56 (0.39–0.81) for antibiotic nonusers (*p* [interaction] = 0.2; Supplementary Fig. 2).

A significant strength of this study is the availability of data from the randomly allocated chemotherapy arms of IMvigor211, allowing valid inferences of treatment effect. Our findings are similar to those of Chalabi et al [7] who identified a significant negative prognostic association of antibiotic use on OS in advanced non-small-cell lung cancer treated with atezolizumab, with no significant association for docetaxel. While both this study and the prior study by Chalabi et al [7] were underpowered to detect a statistically significant treatment-by-covariate interaction, the consistency in findings exemplifies an urgent need for a comprehensive pooled analysis of all ICI randomised clinical trials to determine conclusively whether antibiotics influence ICI efficacy or they are simply a prognostic marker for many treatments. This cannot be determined from single-arm studies or unmatched observational studies, for which inferences are strongly confounded by the indication of antibiotic therapy [6,12].

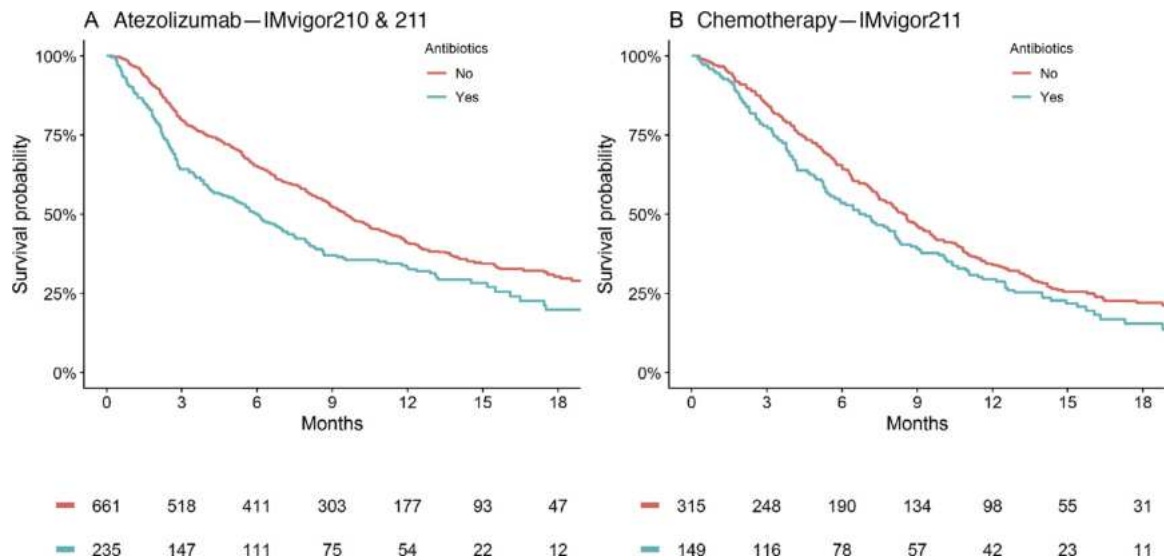


Fig. 1 – Kaplan–Meier estimates of OS by antibiotic use status for participants randomised to (A) atezolizumab or (B) chemotherapy within IMvigor211 and IMvigor210. OS = overall survival.

This study pooled large, high-quality data from two contemporary trials, increasing power and generalisability. The study was limited in its ability to provide evidence on the effect of antibiotic duration, type, or indication (see the Supplementary material), which needs to continue to be explored. For example, emerging evidence links UC to higher incidences of urinary tract infections (UTIs) and recurrent UTIs to increased risks of UC [13]. This study is the first to provide evidence that antibiotics, which impact the gut microbiota, have substantial associations with outcomes for ICIs used in UC [6,14]. Antibiotic effects on the urinary microbiota may also be important [15]. A limitation of this study is the restricted range of ICIs and settings evaluated. Future research should expand the range of ICIs and cancer types evaluated.

In conclusion, antibiotic use was demonstrated as independently associated with worse survival outcomes in locally advanced/metastatic UC treated with atezolizumab. The adverse prognostic effect of antibiotics was not observed to be statistically significant in patients randomised to chemotherapy, suggesting that antibiotics may influence the magnitude of ICI efficacy. This post hoc analysis does not justify a change in antibiotic selection for bacterial infections, as these infections need to continue to be treated properly. However, research indicates that overuse of antibiotics in cancer care occurs [16], and in addition to increasing potential risks of resistant bacterial infections, this study's findings suggest a need for extra caution when an ICI is being used. In addition, this study provides strong justification for prospective studies to tease out whether antibiotics are primarily a surrogate of an unfit or immunodeficient patient or whether antibiotic effects on the gut microbiota are having casual impacts on ICI efficacy. If the latter is true, in patients at a high risk of recurrent infections, it may need to be considered whether ICI therapy is most appropriate.

A secondary analysis of anonymised clinical trial data was confirmed negligible risk research by the Southern Adelaide Local Health Network, Office for Research and Ethics, and was exempt from review.

Data were accessed according to Roche's policy and process for clinical study data sharing at <https://clinicalstudydatarequest.com/>.

Author contributions: Ashley M. Hopkins had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Hopkins, Kichenadasse, Karapetis, Rowland, Sorich.

Acquisition of data: Hopkins, Rowland, Sorich.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Hopkins, Kichenadasse, Karapetis, Rowland, Sorich.

Drafting of the manuscript: Hopkins, Kichenadasse, Karapetis, Rowland, Sorich.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Hopkins, Kichenadasse, Karapetis, Rowland, Sorich.

Statistical analysis: Hopkins, Kichenadasse, Karapetis, Rowland, Sorich.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.06.061>.

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Platinum Priority – Editorial

Referring to the article published on pp. 540–543 of this issue

Antibiotics and Immunotherapy: Too Much of Anything is Bad!

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The gastrointestinal (gut) microbiome has emerged as a key mediator of cancer treatment outcomes, and is seen as having the potential to account for some of the heterogeneity associated with responses to immunotherapy treatment, particularly immune checkpoint blockade therapy (ICB) [1]. Specifically, high diversity and differential abundance of beneficial bacterial taxa in the gut, such as Ruminococcaceae, *Akkermansia* and *Bifidobacterium*, have been reported to be closely linked to positive responses to ICB. Their benefit is conferred through an active and dynamic cross-talk with the immune system leading to enhanced maturation of dendritic cells, increased priming and greater accumulation of effector T-cells in the tumor microenvironment [2–4]. These findings have resulted in a paradigm shift in which the gut microbiome is now being strongly considered as both a predictive biomarker for treatment response, as well as a therapeutic target to maximize the efficacy of immunotherapies. Consequently, there has been a renewed emphasis on antibiotics (abx), which are frequently prescribed during the course of treatment in cancer patients and have a major effect on the composition of the gut microbiome [5].

The link between the gut microbiome and therapeutic efficacy is context-specific and a universal response-associated signature is yet to be identified. Despite this uncertainty, several investigators have reported that indiscriminate abx use impairs the efficacy of immunotherapies in multiple cancers, after accounting for known prognostic markers. A recent meta-analysis lent further credence to these findings by analyzing data from several published studies to confirm that reduced overall (OS) and progression-free survival (PFS) rates were indeed associated with abx usage [6]. There is lack of consensus around timing

of abx, with both prior and concurrent use shown to affect efficacy, though administration of broad-spectrum abx prior to start of therapy was recently reported to have a significantly worse impact when compared to concurrent use [7]. Nevertheless, the negative impact of abx is likely mediated by a non-selective disruption of the baseline eubiotic state resulting in skewing of bacterial abundances and reduced overall diversity. These may further lead to metabolic alterations, and a dampening of overall anti-cancer immunity, by shifting towards an immunosuppressive state that may decrease responsiveness to immunoncology agents. These changes can be robust and rebounding to the baseline state is unlikely to be achieved in the short-term [8].

In this month's issue of European Urology, Hopkins et al. have added to this body of evidence by analyzing data from two large randomized clinical trials (IMvigor 210 and IMvigor 211) [9]. They report that concomitant abx use; defined as the 60-day interval spanning 30 days prior to and following treatment initiation; was associated with reduced OS in locally advanced/metastatic, cisplatin-refractory urothelial carcinoma patients treated with the anti-PDL-1 monoclonal antibody, Atezolizumab (but not in those treated with chemotherapy). Furthermore, the treatment benefit conferred by Atezolizumab over chemotherapy in terms of OS (but not PFS) was attenuated in the abx-treated group. While this study is timely, and has explored an important clinical issue, several caveats should be considered [9]. The authors themselves are cautious in their interpretation of results. For example, ECOG performance status is generally low in this cohort which may not be representative of a general cancer patient population. Nevertheless, it tended to be higher in patients who were prescribed abx, suggesting poor overall health in this group.

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Lack of information on the impact of abx classes seems to be a missed opportunity, especially given the relatively large sample size, and the fact that abx that target predominantly gram-positive or gram-negative bacteria may have differential predictive value for response to ICB. Along these lines, it is also quite surprising that extended abx use (beyond 9 days) and use of more than one class of abx, which could be presumed to lead to more sustained dysbiosis, did not impact OS [9].

It is also important to note that some studies have found no association between abx use and response to ICB [10], and findings from observational cohorts may be confounded by overall health status of patients that necessitates abx use. As such, these data have continued to polarize opinions regarding the impact of abx in cancer patients, especially since causality has yet to be established and understanding of mechanistic underpinnings is incomplete. Therefore, recommending their complete withdrawal, as the authors have also cautioned against, would certainly not be prudent as this patient population is largely immunocompromised and rather susceptible to infections. The cautious approach is one that is time tested- namely that abx should be used as a last resort and not as prophylaxis, especially when use of ICB agents is planned. If abx are required, then perhaps, treatment with a microbiome modulator following abx dosing to restore the eubiotic balance is warranted, though the jury is still out on whether such a reversal would indeed be possible [11]. Nevertheless, the case for judicious patient selection for treatment with abx, particularly broad-spectrum abx with anaerobic activity is certainly well made, and their potentially harmful impact on ICB response should not be completely overlooked.

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Platinum Priority – Urothelial Cancer

Editorial by Dominic C. Grimberg, Ankeet Shah and Brant A. Inman on pp. 570–571 of this issue

An International Collaborative Consensus Statement on En Bloc Resection of Bladder Tumour Incorporating Two Systematic Reviews, a Two-round Delphi Survey, and a Consensus Meeting

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Abstract

Background: There has been increasing interest in en bloc resection of bladder tumour (ERBT) as an oncologically noninferior alternative to transurethral resection of bladder tumour (TURBT) with fewer complications and better histology specimens. However, there is a lack of robust randomised controlled trial (RCT) data for making recommendations.

Objective: We aimed to develop a consensus statement to standardise various aspects of ERBT for clinical practice and to guide future research.

Design, setting, and participants: We developed the consensus statement on ERBT using a modified Delphi method. First, two systematic reviews were performed to investigate the clinical effectiveness of ERBT versus TURBT (effectiveness review) and to identify areas of uncertainty in ERBT (uncertainties review). Next, 200 health care professionals (urologists, oncologists, and pathologists) with experience in ERBT were invited to complete a two-round Delphi survey. Finally, a 16-member consensus panel meeting was held to review, discuss, and re-vote on the statements as appropriate.

Outcome measurements and statistical analysis: Meta-analyses were performed for RCT data in the effectiveness review. Consensus statements were developed from the

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uncertainties review. Consensus was defined as follows: (1) $\geq 70\%$ scoring a statement 7–9 and $\leq 15\%$ scoring the statement 1–3 (consensus agree), or (2) $\geq 70\%$ scoring a statement 1–3 and $\leq 15\%$ scoring the statement 7–9 (consensus disagree).

Results and limitations: A total of 10 RCTs were identified upon systematic review. ERBT had a shorter irrigation time (mean difference -7.24 h, 95% confidence interval [CI] -9.29 to -5.20 , $I^2 = 85\%$, $p < 0.001$) and a lower rate of bladder perforation (risk ratio 0.30, 95% CI 0.11–0.83, $I^2 = 1\%$, $p = 0.02$) than TURBT, both with moderate certainty of evidence. There were no significant differences in recurrences at 0–12, 13–24, or 25–36 mo (all very low certainty of evidence). A total of 103 statements were developed, of which 99 reached a consensus. A summary of statements is as follows: ERBT should always be considered for treating non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer; ERBT should be considered feasible even for bladder tumours larger than 3 cm; number and location of bladder tumours are not major limitations in performing ERBT; the planned circumferential margin should be at least 5 mm from any visible bladder tumour; after ERBT, additional biopsy of the tumour edge or tumour base should not be performed routinely; for the ERBT specimen, T1 substage, and circumferential and deep resection margins must be assessed; it is safe to give a single dose of immediate intravesical chemotherapy, perform second-look transurethral resection, and give intravesical bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) therapy after ERBT; and in studies of ERBT, both per-patient and -tumour analysis should be performed for different outcomes as appropriate. Important outcomes for future ERBT studies were also identified. A limitation is that as consensus statements are brief, concise and binary in nature, areas of uncertainty that are complex in nature may not be addressed adequately.

Conclusions: We have provided the most comprehensive review of the evidence base to date using a meta-analysis where appropriate and applying the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) methodology, and mobilised the international urology community to develop a consensus statement on ERBT using transparent and robust methods. The consensus statement will provide interim guidance for health care professionals who practice ERBT and inform researchers regarding ERBT-related studies in the future.

Patient summary: En bloc resection of bladder tumour (ERBT) is a surgical technique aiming to resect a bladder tumour in one piece. We included an international panel of experts to agree on the best practice of ERBT, and this will provide guidance to clinicians and researchers in the future.

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1. Introduction

En bloc resection of bladder tumour (ERBT) was first described by Kitamura et al [1] in 1980. ERBT has three potential benefits in treating non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC) when compared with conventional transurethral resection of bladder tumour (TURBT). First, bladder tumour is resected in one piece and the tumour specimen remains intact for a proper histological assessment. Whether a complete resection has been achieved can be ascertained by histological means rather than the surgeon's judgement alone. Second, the resection process is more precise and controlled; thus, the complication profile, in particular the risk of bladder perforation, may be reduced. Third, ERBT can avoid tumour fragmentation as in the case of conventional piecemeal resection. It can potentially minimise the amount of floating tumour cells and reduce the risk of tumour reimplantation.

ERBT upholds the basic principles in cancer surgery, and it has gained increasing interests globally in the past decade. However, high-quality data are limited to make robust recommendations. There is a lack of standardisation leading to heterogeneity in the clinical and technical aspects of ERBT. It is important to develop a consensus statement on ERBT that can serve as a standard reference for health care

professionals in the future. It will have important implications in our clinical practice as well as future studies of ERBT.

2. Patients and methods

We developed the consensus statement on ERBT using a modified Delphi method. The development process included two systematic reviews, a two-round Delphi survey, and a face-to-face consensus meeting (Fig. 1).

2.1. Systematic reviews

Two systematic reviews were performed according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) guidelines [2], and the study protocol was registered on PROSPERO [3]. The “effectiveness” review assessed the benefits and harms of ERBT compared with conventional TURBT and provided certainty of evidence ratings using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) methodology [4,5]. The “uncertainties” review identified clinical and technical uncertainties in the area of ERBT. The findings of the systematic reviews provided the basis for the statements developed for voting in the Delphi survey and consensus meeting.

2.1.1. Search strategy

A comprehensive literature search to encompass the reviews of effectiveness and uncertainties was performed using a combination of

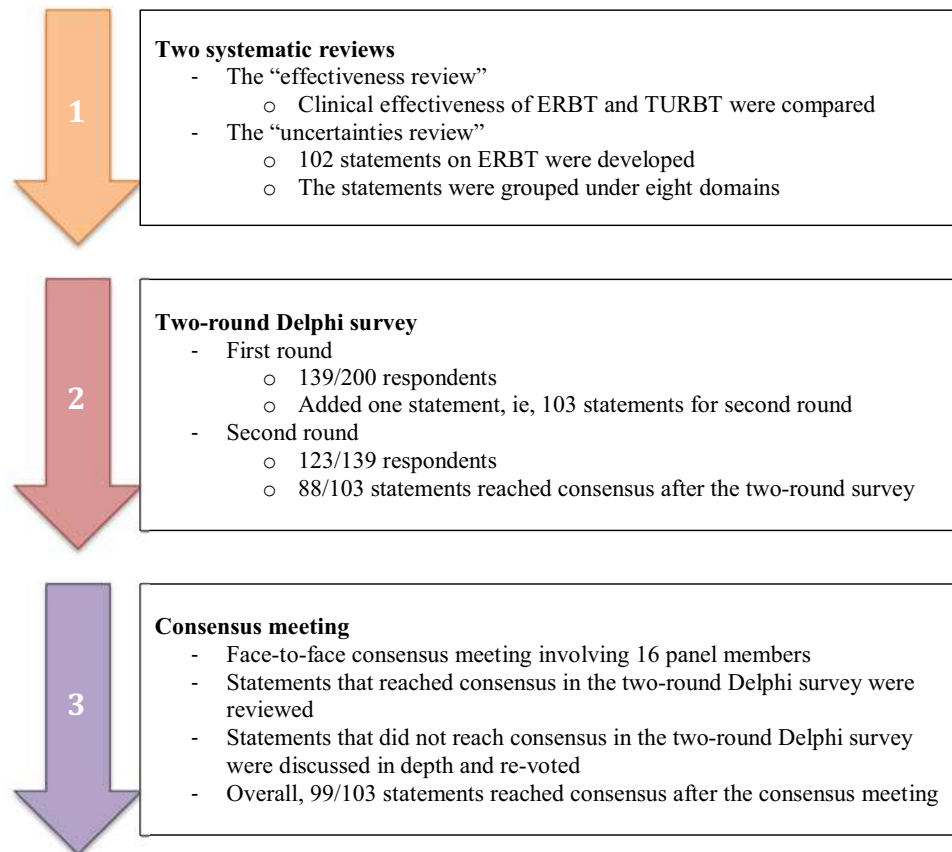


Fig. 1 – Overview of the development of the consensus statement.
ERBT = en bloc resection of bladder tumour; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

keywords (MeSH terms and free text words) related to “bladder tumour”, and “en bloc resection”/“ERBT”. MEDLINE, EMBASE, and Cochrane library (CENTRAL and CDSR) were searched. The search strategy is presented in the Supplementary material. Additional references were sought from the reference lists of the included studies.

2.1.2. Types of studies included

All randomised and nonrandomised comparative studies, reported in journals or conference proceedings, were included in the effectiveness review. Single-arm case series or case reports were excluded from the effectiveness review but were retained for the uncertainties review. There was no cut-off date for the literature search. Only English-language articles were included. Conference proceedings, letters to editors, commentaries, and international guidelines were included in the uncertainties review.

2.1.3. Assessment of risk of bias

For the effectiveness review, the risk of bias in randomised controlled trials (RCTs) was assessed by using the recommended tool in the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Intervention [6]. The risk of bias in nonrandomised comparative studies was assessed with the same tool, with an extra item to assess the risk of findings being explained by confounding. This is a pragmatic approach informed by methodological literature pertaining to assessing the risk of bias in nonrandomised studies, and it is the approach adopted in systematic reviews commissioned by the European Association of Urology (EAU) guidelines office to inform their guidelines [7].

2.1.4. Data synthesis and statistical analysis

For the effectiveness review, a meta-analysis was performed if there were two or more RCTs reporting on the same outcome. Data from RCT conference proceedings were included to reduce the risk of publication bias [6]. Reports of the same studies were linked together, where the reports containing the most complete data and longest follow-up were used. Relative risk (RR) and its 95% confidence interval (CI) were used to summarise statistic dichotomous data. Mean differences were used to summarise continuous data. Some clinical and methodological heterogeneity across the studies was suspected, and therefore a random effect model was used. Narrative synthesis, using the methods outlined in the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination handbook, were used to synthesise the results from nonrandomised studies [8]. Results from nonrandomised studies were not included in the quantitative analysis, as there may be significant selection bias, especially in the context of ERBT. Application of GRADE certainty of evidence was done in accordance with the GRADE handbook [9].

For the uncertainties review, areas of uncertainties in ERBT were extracted verbatim from any of the studies or sources meeting the inclusion criteria. The extracted data were categorised with reference to the usual management pathway and grouped under domains such as case selection, surgical procedure, postoperative management, and follow-up schedule. To reduce the data further, statements relating to the same concept were subsumed within one statement, resulting in a conceptual map of uncertainties identified in the ERBT literature. These statements were then used to create positively worded statements that can be agreed or disagreed with, for inclusion in the Delphi survey. The

statements were discussed within the steering group (J.Y.C.T., S.M., H.M., T.H., and M.B.) and finalised before proceeding to the Delphi survey.

2.2. Two-round Delphi survey

Delphi survey methods were used to promote anonymity and to control for the influence of dominant voices or perceived authoritative voices, yet still provided controlled feedback to participants [10].

2.2.1. Conduct of the two-round Delphi survey

The two-round Delphi survey was conducted using DelphiManager [11]. A total of 200 urologists, oncologists, and pathologists involved in the field of ERBT were purposively sampled for expertise and geographical location, to ensure that we covered an adequate breadth of international experience. The steering group provided the names of known experts in the field. This was supplemented by inviting the authors of studies included in the systematic reviews. Finally, in order to gather opinion from a more general perspective, a Twitter advert was promoted using the hashtags #ERBT and #UroSoMe [12]. Interested individuals were verified to have personal experience in ERBT before they were invited to participate in the online Delphi survey via an e-mail providing a link to the study. The link took them to a webpage providing information about the aims and objectives of the study, with a further link to a registration page. Informed consent was implied if the participant registered to take part.

As ERBT is heavily surgery oriented, a single heterogeneous panel model was used, as we did not think it is necessary to look for differences across stakeholder groups (ie, urologists, pathologists, and oncologists) [10,13]. Participants were asked to state their strength of agreement on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 9 (strongly agree). There was also an “unable to score” option. Participants were instructed to choose “unable to score”, rather than “5” (neither agree nor disagree) if they felt they did not have enough knowledge or expertise on a particular statement, because these two concepts are qualitatively different. We made this explicit because this phenomenon has been noted as a limitation in other consensus projects [14,15]. During the first round, participants could suggest additional items to be incorporated into the second round of survey (subjected to review by the steering group). Only those who had completed the first-round survey could participate in the second-round survey. In the second round, they were reminded of their own round 1 score and were shown a distribution of the group scores across the 1–9 scale for each statement. They were allowed to use this information to consider retaining their previous scores or changing their scores relative to the field. All voting results were anonymous to minimise bias and influence regarding agreeing with dominant or authoritative voices.

2.2.2. Definition of consensus and analysis plan

Consensus is defined as follows: (1) $\geq 70\%$ scoring a statement 7–9 and $\leq 15\%$ scoring the statement 1–3 (consensus agree), or (2) $\geq 70\%$ scoring a statement 1–3 and $\leq 15\%$ scoring the statement 7–9 (consensus disagree). This definition has been used in other urology consensus meetings [14–16] and achieves a balance between being overinclusive and -exclusive whilst still allowing a consideration of variance (ie, spread or divergent opinions) [17].

2.3. Consensus meeting

A consensus meeting was held to review the statements that reached consensus in the Delphi survey, and to discuss in-depth and re-vote on those statements upon which there was no consensus. The consensus panel consisted of 16 members, including 12 urologists, one oncologist, one pathologist, one methodologist (nonvoting member), and one patient representative. The meeting was chaired by the methodologist with

experience in chairing consensus meetings and no conflicts of interest regarding ERBT. First, the results of the effectiveness review were presented and discussed. Next, the two-round Delphi survey results were discussed. Panel members were provided with a hard-copy overview of the Delphi voting results for both rounds, along with a reminder of their own votes in both rounds. Statements where there was a clear consensus were reviewed to ensure that the results were sensible. Then statements in which more than five participants had chosen “unable to score” were reviewed to explore reasons for this. Finally, statements not reaching a consensus in the Delphi survey were discussed in depth before anonymous voting using their own smart devices and the Poll Everywhere software [18]. The same consensus definitions were used.

3. Results

3.1. Systematic review and meta-analysis

The PRISMA flow diagram is shown in Figure 2. The initial search yielded 669 records. After removing duplicates, 430 articles were screened based on title and abstract. For the effectiveness review, 44 articles were reviewed in full text. At the end of the process, 32 studies (with 39 reports) were included in qualitative synthesis. Among them, 10 were RCTs (with 13 reports) [19–31], and these were included in a quantitative analysis. For the uncertainties review, 151 articles were reviewed in full text and included for generation of consensus statements. The studies included in the uncertainties review are listed in the Supplementary material.

Table 1 summarises the study characteristics of the RCTs. Only data from RCTs were extracted for subsequent meta-analysis. Risk of bias assessment of the RCTs is presented in Figure 3. Study characteristics and risk of bias assessment of the nonrandomised studies and the GRADE summary of finding profiles are included in the Supplementary material.

3.1.1. Effectiveness review—outcome measures from RCTs

ERBT had a longer operative time than TURBT (mean difference 9.07 min, 95% CI 3.36–14.79, $I^2 = 86\%$, $p = 0.002$; very low certainty evidence). ERBT had a shorter irrigation time than TURBT (mean difference -7.24 h, 95% CI -9.29 to -5.20 , $I^2 = 85\%$, $p < 0.001$; moderate certainty evidence), but there were no significant differences in the catheterisation time (mean difference -0.90 d, 95% CI -2.21 to 0.41 , $I^2 = 97\%$, $p = 0.18$; low certainty evidence) and hospital stay (mean difference -1.32 d, 95% CI -2.71 to 0.06 , $I^2 = 97\%$, $p = 0.06$; low certainty evidence). Although there was no significant difference in the occurrence of obturator nerve reflex (RR 0.19, 95% CI 0.03–1.22, $I^2 = 79\%$, $p = 0.08$; very low certainty evidence), ERBT had a lower rate of bladder perforation than TURBT (RR 0.30, 95% CI 0.11–0.83, $I^2 = 1\%$, $p = 0.02$; moderate certainty evidence). Presence of detrusor muscle in specimen was similar between ERBT and TURBT (RR 1.11, 95% CI 0.40–3.11, $I^2 = 77\%$, $p = 0.84$; very low certainty evidence). There were no significant differences in 0–12 mo (RR 0.82, 95% CI 0.56–1.19, $I^2 = 12\%$, $p = 0.29$), 13–24 mo (RR 0.79, 95% CI 0.44–1.42, $I^2 = 0\%$, $p = 0.43$), and 25–36 mo (RR 0.89, 95% CI 0.65–1.22, $I^2 = 47\%$, $p = 0.47$) recurrence rates (all very low certainty evidence). Data were too limited for the subgroup

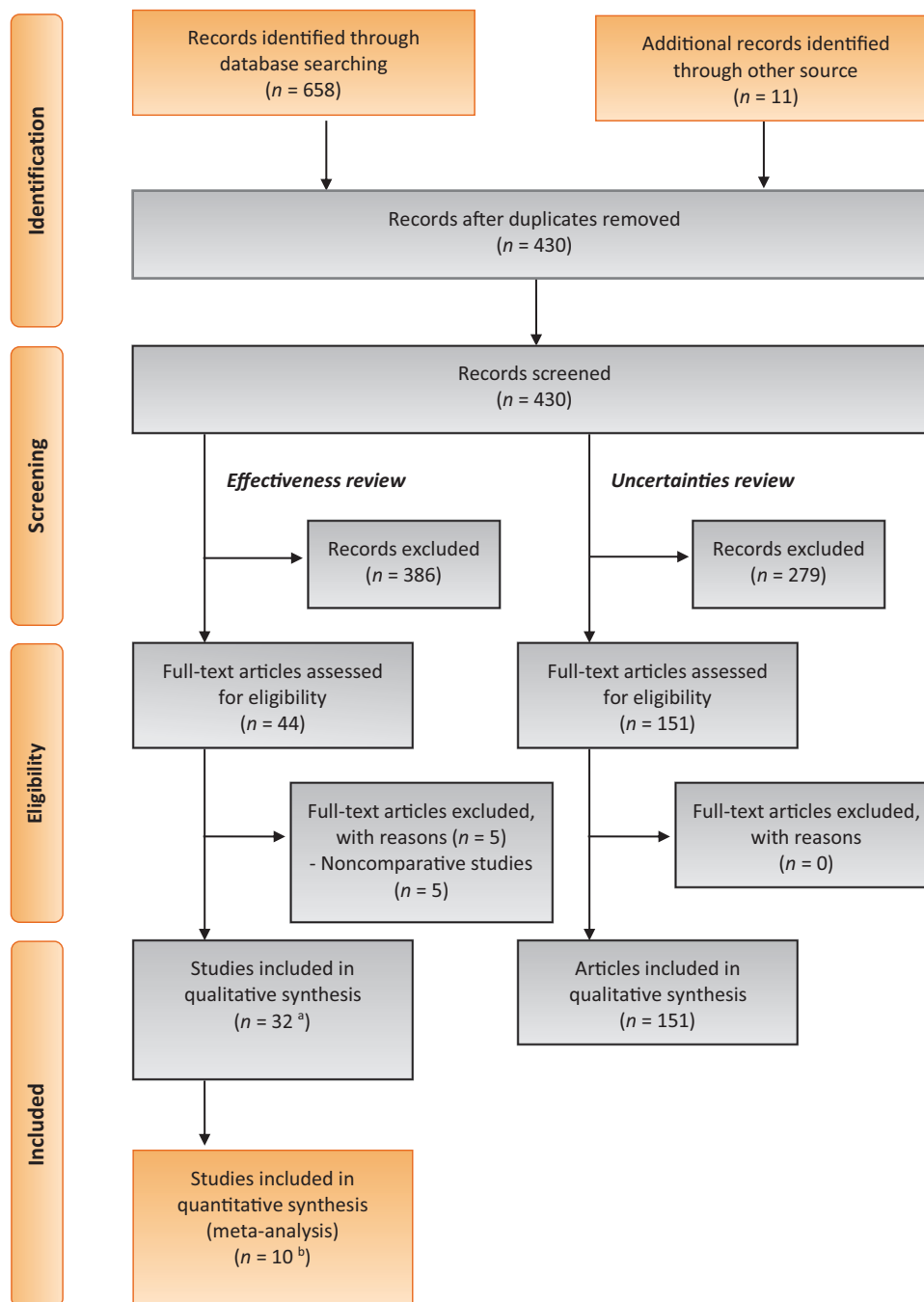


Fig. 2 – PRISMA flow diagram.
PRISMA = Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses.

^aThirty-two studies with 39 reports.

^bTen studies with 13 reports.

comparisons between different modalities of ERBT and TURBT. The key findings of the meta-analysis are summarised in [Figure 4](#), and other results are summarised in the Supplementary material.

3.1.2. Effectiveness review—outcome measures from nonrandomised studies

Most studies showed that ERBT had a shorter irrigation time and a lower rate of bladder perforation than TURBT, and this

is in line with the RCT data. However, the results on the operative time were controversial. Most studies showed that ERBT had a shorter catheterisation time, shorter hospital stay, lower rate of obturator nerve reflex, and higher rate of detrusor muscle than TURBT. Most studies also showed lower 0–12, 13–24, and 25–36 mo recurrence rates in favour of ERBT. All outcomes were judged to be at low or very low certainty of evidence. The results are summarised in the Supplementary material.

3.2. *Uncertainties review—generation of consensus statements*

Based on the results of the systematic review, 102 statements were generated for the first-round survey. After the first-round survey, one additional statement was added, resulting in 103 statements in total for the second-round survey.

The statements were grouped under eight domains as follows.

- 1 Definitions and objectives of ERBT.
- 2 Case selection.
- 3 Surgical procedure.
- 4 Different modalities of ERBT.
- 5 Reporting of intraoperative findings.

6 Specimen preparation and reporting of histological findings.

7 Postoperative management and follow-up schedule.

8 Data reporting and outcome measures.

3.3. *Two-round Delphi survey*

In the first-round survey, there were 139 respondents out of 200 invitations (69.5%). Among the first-round survey respondents, 123 completed the second-round survey (88.5%). There was a wide coverage of respondents globally, with the majority practising in Europe and Asia. The majority had >10yr of clinical practice; 90.2% were urologists, 6.5% were pathologists, and 3.3% were oncologists. This is reflective of the situation that NMIBC is

Table 1 – Study characteristics of included randomised controlled trials.

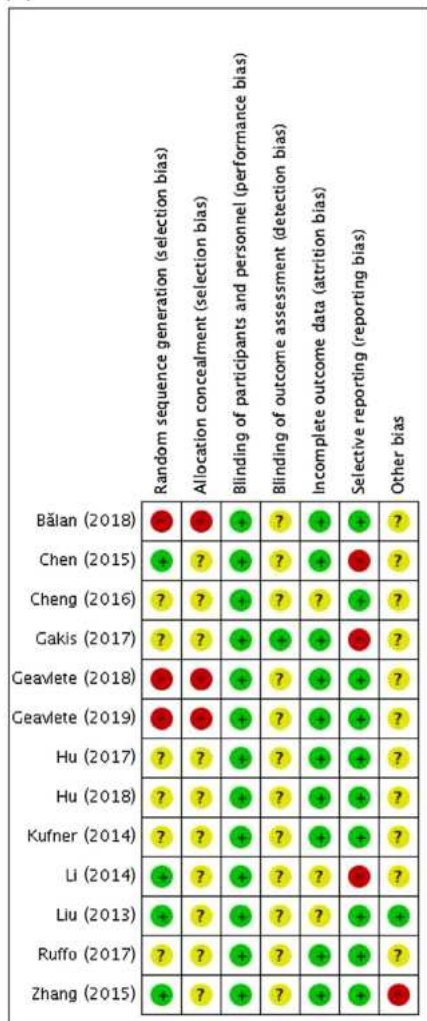
Study	Country	Eligibility criteria	Comparison	Total (n)	ERBT arm (n)	Control arm (n)
Balan et al (2018) [19], Geavlete et al (2018) [20], and Geavlete et al (2019) [21] ^a	Romania	NMIBC 1–3 cm in diameter No solid sessile tumours Not located at bladder neck or involving the ureteral orifice	Bipolar ERBT vs monopolar TURBT	90	45	45
Chen et al (2015) [22]	China	Primary NMIBC No suspicion of MIBC No serious heart, lung, or brain conditions	Thulium laser ERBT vs TURBT ^b	142	71	71
Cheng et al (2016) [23]	China	NMIBC	HybridKnife ERBT vs TURBT ^b	75	38	37
Gakis et al (2017) [24]	Germany	NMIBC Tumour size >5 mm	HybridKnife ERBT vs TURBT ^b	115	56	59
Hu et al (2017) [25] and Hu et al (2018) [26] ^a	China	Primary NMIBC Not CIS Not >3 cm and not <1 cm in diameter Not more than 5 tumours	HybridKnife ERBT vs TURBT ^b	93	46	47
Kufner et al (2014) [27]	Germany	Superficial papillary bladder tumour	HybridKnife ERBT vs TURBT ^b	16	7	9
Li et al (2014) [28]	China	NMIBC	ERBT ^b vs TURBT ^b	158	80	78
Liu et al (2013) [29]	China	Newly diagnosed NMIBC Not urothelial papillomas Not MIBC or CIS No upper urinary tract tumours No extravesical extension, lymphatic metastasis, or invasion of adjacent organs	Thulium laser ERBT vs monopolar TURBT	120	64	56
Ruffo et al (2017) [30]	Italy	Newly diagnosed NMIBC	Thulium laser ERBT vs monopolar TURBT	54	30	24
Zhang et al (2015) [31]	China	Primary NMIBC Not inverted papilloma No extravesical extension, lymph node metastasis, or adjacent organ invasion No upper urinary tract tumours Excluded patients who could not tolerate general anaesthesia No severe cardiovascular or pulmonary disease, or disturbance of blood coagulation contradicting operation	Thulium laser ERBT vs bipolar TURBT	292	149	143

CIS = carcinoma in situ; ERBT = en bloc resection of bladder tumour; MIBC = muscle-invasive bladder cancer; NMIBC = non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

^a Same study with numerous reports; report with the most complete data and longest follow-up was presented.

^b Unknown energy source.

(A)



(B)

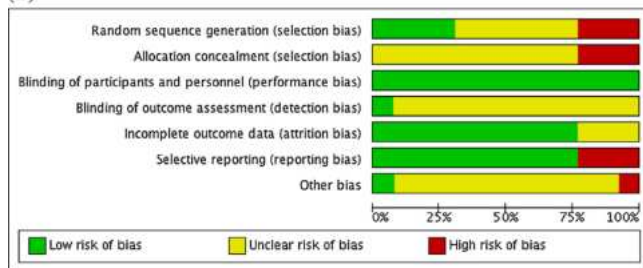


Fig. 3 – Risk of bias assessment of the randomised controlled trials.

managed mostly by urological surgeons. Table 2 summarises the characteristics of the Delphi participants completing both rounds of survey. After the two-round Delphi survey, a consensus was reached in 88 out of 103 statements (85.4%).

3.4. Consensus panel meeting

Table 3 lists the characteristics of the panel members. After the discussion and re-voting processes, the consensus panel

Table 2 – Characteristics of the Delphi participants who completed both rounds of survey.

	Round 1 N (%)	Round 2 N (%)
Region		
Africa	4 (2.9)	2 (1.6)
Asia	70 (50.4)	62 (50.4)
Australia/New Zealand	2 (1.4)	2 (1.6)
Europe	53 (38.1)	48 (39.0)
North America	3 (2.2)	2 (1.6)
South America	7 (5.0)	7 (5.7)
Years of practice		
1–5	15 (10.8)	14 (11.4)
6–10	37 (26.6)	33 (26.8)
11–15	41 (29.5)	36 (29.3)
16–20	26 (18.7)	23 (18.7)
21–25	12 (8.6)	9 (7.3)
26–30	5 (3.6)	5 (4.1)
>30	3 (2.2)	3 (2.4)
Speciality		
Oncologist	6 (4.3)	4 (3.3)
Pathologist	8 (5.8)	8 (6.5)
Urologist	125 (89.9)	111 (90.2)
Total	139 (100)	123 (100)

was able to reach a consensus in 11 out of 15 statements. Overall, 99 out of 103 statements (96.1%) reached a consensus after the whole development process.

3.5. Principal findings of the consensus statement

Table 4 summarises the results of all statements and consensus status after two rounds of survey. Table 5 summarises the statements that were discussed and re-voted, and their consensus status after the voting session. The final results of the consensus statements on ERBT are summarised in Table 6.

3.5.1. Definitions and objectives of ERBT

Removal of bladder tumour in one piece [32] is the most appropriate definition for ERBT. The main goals of ERBT are to ensure complete local resection of bladder tumour, ensure proper local staging of the disease, and reduce the risk of tumour reimplantation. Upon ERBT, we must aim to include the detrusor muscle layer in the specimen. ERBT should always be considered for treating NMIBC [19,22–26,28–30]. However, in cases of muscle-invasive bladder cancer (MIBC) and carcinoma in situ (CIS) of the bladder, ERBT should not be considered [22,25,26,29].

3.5.2. Case selection

3.5.2.1. Size of bladder tumour. Size of bladder tumour is a major limitation in performing ERBT. Most studies used bladder tumour size of 3 cm as a cut-off in performing ERBT [19,25,26,33,34]. In the Delphi survey, it was agreed that ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour size of ≤3 cm. For bladder tumour size of >3 cm, no consensus was reached in the Delphi survey. The panel members agreed that, in such situation, it might be difficult to extract the specimen in one piece. However, the resection procedure itself is still

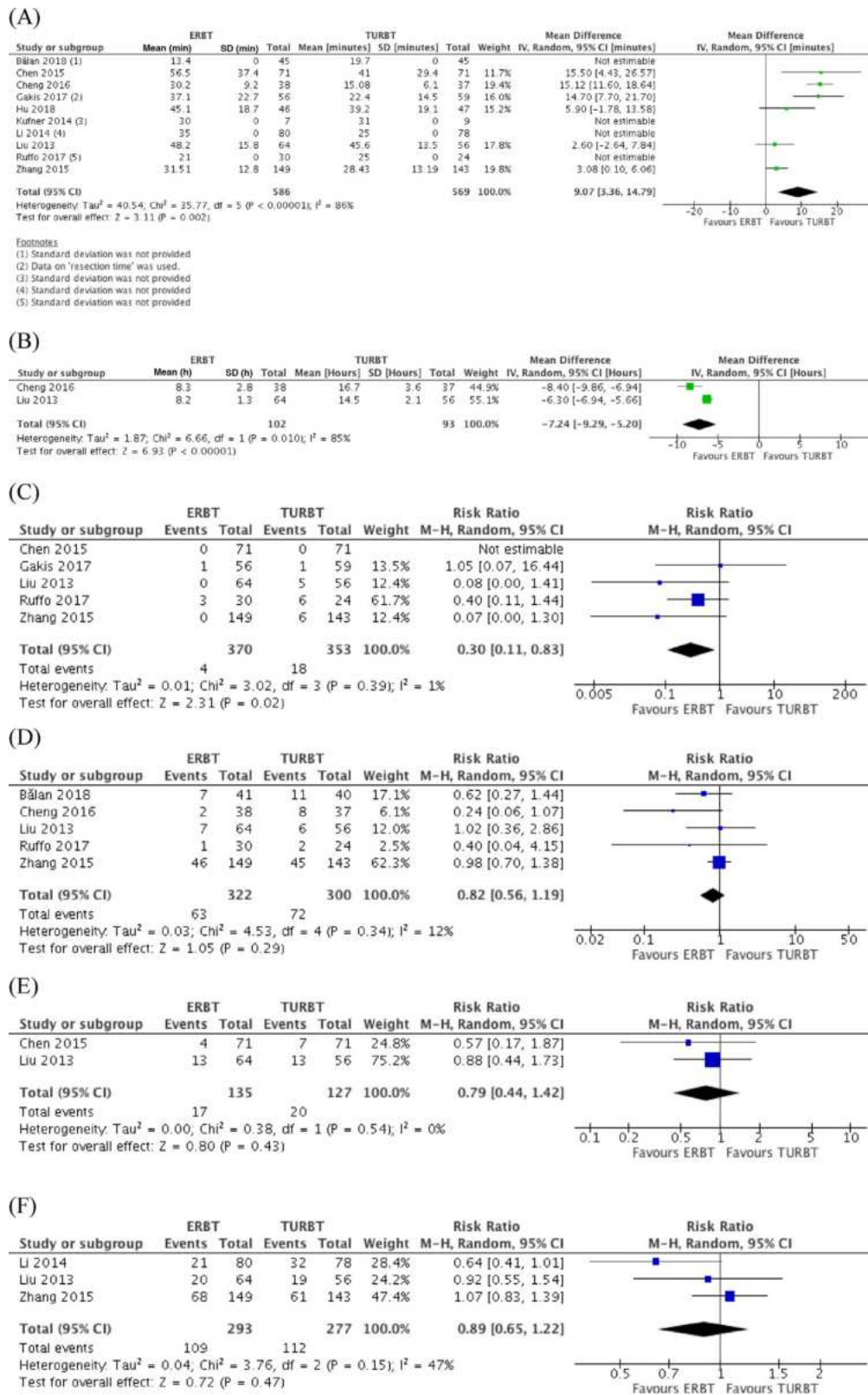


Fig. 4 – Key findings of the meta-analysis results from randomised controlled trials: (A) operative time (minutes), (B) irrigation time (hours), (C) bladder perforation, (D) recurrence at 0–12 mo, (E) recurrence at 13–24 mo, and (F) recurrence at 25–36 mo. CI = confidence interval; ERBT = en bloc resection of bladder tumour; IV = inverse variance; M-H = Mantel-Haenszel; SD = standard deviation; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

Table 3 – Panel members of the consensus meeting.

Name	Role	Representing body/institution
Steven MacLennan	Chair (methodologist)	University of Aberdeen, UK
Darren Poon	Oncologist	The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China
Fernand Lai	Pathologist	The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China
Chow Wing-Kie	Patient	New Territories East Cluster Bladder Cancer Support Group, Hong Kong, China
Alberto Breda	Urologist	Fundacion Puigvert, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Spain
Bernard Malavaud	Urologist	Institut Universitaire du Cancer, France
Edmund Chiong	Urologist	National University Hospital, National University Health System, Singapore
Hugh Mostafid	Urologist	Royal Surrey County Hospital, UK
Jeremy Teoh	Urologist	The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China
Jun Miki	Urologist	Jikei University School of Medicine, Japan
Lee Hsiang-Ying	Urologist	Kaohsiung Municipal Ta-Tung Hospital, Taiwan
Lee Lui-Shiong	Urologist	Sengkang General Hospital, Singapore General Hospital, Singapore
Marek Babjuk	Urologist	Hospital Motol, Charles University, Czech Republic; Medical University of Vienna, Austria
Mario Kramer	Urologist	University Clinic of Schleswig-Holstein, Campus Luebeck, Germany
Thomas Herrmann	Urologist	Spital Thurgau AG, Switzerland; Hanover Medical School (MHH), Germany
Wei Yong	Urologist	First Affiliated Hospital of Fujian Medical University, China

technically possible [22,29,35–38], and the potential benefits of ensuring proper staging and complete resection of NMIBC can still be preserved. Therefore, the panel members concluded that ERBT should be regarded as a feasible surgical approach even for bladder tumours larger than 3 cm.

3.5.2.2. Number of bladder tumours. The number of bladder tumours is not a major limitation in performing ERBT. Most studies used four bladder tumours as a cut-off in performing ERBT [39–43]. In the Delphi survey, it was agreed that ERBT is feasible for patients with fewer than four bladder tumours. For patients with more than four bladder tumours, no consensus was reached in the Delphi survey. The panel members agreed that, in such situation, it might take more time and effort to perform ERBT. However, ERBT is still feasible in most of the patients within a reasonable operative time [29,33]. Therefore, the panel members concluded that ERBT should be regarded as a feasible surgical approach even for patients with more than four bladder tumours.

3.5.2.3. Tumour location. Tumour location is not a major limitation in performing ERBT. In the Delphi survey, it was agreed that ERBT is feasible for bladder tumours located at the posterior wall, anterior wall, right lateral wall, left lateral wall, trigone, bladder neck, and near the ureteric orifice areas. Although no consensus was reached for bladder tumours located at the bladder dome in the Delphi survey, there was a 100% consensus in the panel meeting that ERBT is feasible in such tumour location. The panel members concluded that, although bladder dome tumours might be more technically difficult to resect, by allowing more time for resection and with relevant experience [38,44], ERBT is still a feasible approach in such situations.

3.5.3. Surgical procedure

As bladder cancer changes can be subtle, a thorough cystoscopic examination must be performed before any ERBT [22,34,36,45]. However, the evidence on the use of

enhanced imaging (narrow-band imaging, Image 1S, or photodynamic diagnosis) is limited, especially in the context of ERBT, and no consensus was reached in this aspect. The bladder should be distended enough, but not overdistended [29,37], to facilitate ERBT while avoiding bladder perforation during the procedure. The planned circumferential margin should be marked first to facilitate subsequent ERBT [35,37,44,45], and it should be at least 5 mm from any visible bladder tumour [34,36,37]. The depth of incision should be made at the detrusor muscle layer [19,22,34,36,37,44,45]. As ERBT specimens can provide comprehensive information regarding the depth of tumour invasion and resection margins [33,35,46–48], additional biopsy of the tumour base and tumour edge should not be performed routinely after ERBT. If bladder tumours are adjacent to each other, en bloc resection of the cluster of bladder tumours as a whole can be considered. If the bladder tumour is too large, after ERBT, dividing the specimen into two to three pieces for retrieval [45,49] can be considered. If any technical difficulty is encountered upon ERBT, conversion to conventional TURBT should be considered. Special extraction methods can be considered in retrieving large ERBT specimens [35,49,50].

3.5.4. Different modalities of ERBT

It is technically feasible to use monopolar energy [37,48,49], bipolar energy [19–21,46–48,51], holmium laser [33,48,52], thulium laser [22,29,30,48], and HybridKnife (hydrodissection) [24–27,35] to perform ERBT. Monopolar and bipolar ERBT techniques allow conversion to piecemeal resection readily when technical difficulty arises. Holmium and thulium laser ERBT techniques eliminate the risk of obturator nerve reflex during the procedure [22,29,33,44]. There is however a risk of residual disease and understaging when we use HybridKnife (hydrodissection) for ERBT due to its nature of submucosal elevation [35,53].

3.5.5. Reporting of intraoperative findings

The EAU guidelines stated that the operative record of conventional TURBT must describe tumour location, ap-

Table 4 – Summary of statements and consensus status after two rounds of Delphi survey.

Domains and statements		Round 1 ^a						Round 2 ^a					
		% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status
<i>Definitions and objectives of ERBT</i>													
1	Removal of bladder tumour in one piece is the most appropriate definition for ERBT	3.6	9.4	87.0	139	1	Agree	0.8	6.5	92.7	123	0	Agree
2	The depth of ERBT must include the detrusor muscle layer in the specimen	5.8	9.4	84.8	139	1	Agree	4.1	7.3	88.6	123	0	Agree
3	One of the main goals of ERBT is to ensure complete local resection of bladder tumour	0.7	3.6	95.7	139	1	Agree	0.8	0.8	98.4	123	0	Agree
4	One of the main goals of ERBT is to ensure proper local staging of the disease	0.7	0	99.3	139	2	Agree	1.6	0	98.4	123	1	Agree
5	One of the main goals of ERBT is to reduce the risk of tumour reimplantation	8.8	14.6	76.6	139	2	Agree	4.1	15.7	80.2	123	2	Agree
6	ERBT should always be considered for treatment of non–muscle-invasive bladder cancer	8.8	24.8	66.4	139	2	Not reached	4.9	17.2	77.9	123	1	Agree
7	ERBT should be considered for treatment of muscle-invasive bladder cancer	53.7	26.5	19.9	139	3	Not reached	63.9	19.7	16.4	123	1	Not reached
8	ERBT should be considered to treat carcinoma in situ of the bladder to optimise subsequent treatment	48.1	31.1	20.7	139	4	Not reached	56.3	26.1	17.6	123	4	Not reached
<i>Case selection</i>													
9	Size of bladder tumour is a major limitation in performing ERBT	8.8	6.6	84.6	139	3	Agree	9.2	3.3	87.5	122	2	Agree
10	ERBT is feasible for patients with bladder tumour size of <3 cm	2.2	4.4	93.3	139	4	Agree	1.7	1.7	96.6	122	3	Agree
11	ERBT is feasible for patients with bladder tumour size of more than 3cm	21.1	41.4	37.6	139	6	Not reached	15.3	37.3	47.5	122	4	Not reached
12	Number of bladder tumours is a major limitation in performing ERBT	36.5	29.9	33.6	139	2	Not reached	38.3	17.5	44.2	122	2	Not reached
13	If tumour size is not an issue, ERBT is feasible for patients with <4 bladder tumours	7.4	13.3	79.3	139	4	Agree	5.0	5.0	89.9	122	3	Agree
14	If tumour size is not an issue, ERBT is feasible for patients with >4 bladder tumours	18.8	34.6	46.6	139	6	Not reached	15.1	21.8	63.0	122	3	Not reached
15	Tumour location is a major limitation in performing ERBT	20.9	23.1	56.0	139	5	Not reached	16.1 ^b	12.7	71.2	122	4	Not reached
16	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the posterior wall	3.0	5.9	91.1	139	4	Agree	1.7	0.8	97.5	122	4	Agree
17	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the anterior wall	14.9	26.9	58.2	139	5	Not reached	12.8	14.5	72.6	122	5	Agree
18	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the right lateral wall	0.7	5.9	93.3	139	4	Agree	0	3.4	96.6	122	4	Agree

Table 4 (Continued)

Domains and statements		Round 1 ^a						Round 2 ^a					
		% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status
19	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the left lateral wall	1.5	5.9	92.6	139	4	Agree	0	3.4	96.6	122	4	Agree
20	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the trigone	2.2	8.1	89.6	139	4	Agree	0.8	2.5	96.6	122	4	Agree
21	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the bladder dome	17.8	30.4	51.9	139	4	Not reached	16.9	22.0	61.0	122	4	Not reached
22	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the bladder neck	13.4	15.7	70.9	139	5	Agree	10.3	7.7	82.1	122	5	Agree
23	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located near the ureteric orifice	11.2	17.2	71.6	139	5	Agree	7.6	9.3	83.1	122	4	Agree
<i>Surgical procedure</i>													
24	A thorough cystoscopic examination must be performed before any ERBT	3.0	3.8	93.2	137	4	Agree	0.8	0	99.2	122	3	Agree
25	Narrow-band imaging, Image 1S, or photodynamic diagnosis must be considered to enhance bladder cancer detection before ERBT	19.5	30.9	49.6	137	14	Not reached	14.4	26.1	59.5	122	11	Not reached
26	The bladder should be distended enough to facilitate ERBT	12.7	22.4	64.9	137	3	Not reached	9.2	11.8	79.0	122	3	Agree
27	The bladder should not be overdistended to avoid bladder perforation upon ERBT	4.6	10.7	84.7	137	6	Agree	4.3	5.1	90.6	122	5	Agree
28	The planned circumferential margin should be marked first to facilitate subsequent ERBT	4.5	14.4	81.1	137	5	Agree	1.7	6.8	91.5	122	4	Agree
29	Upon ERBT, the planned circumferential margin should be at least 5 mm from any visible bladder tumour	7.6	18.2	74.2	137	5	Agree	3.4	11.0	85.6	122	4	Agree
30	Upon ERBT, the incision should be made deep into the detrusor muscle layer	12.9	12.1	75.0	137	5	Agree	11.1	6.8	82.1	122	5	Agree
31	After ERBT, additional biopsy of the tumour base should be performed routinely	39.8	24.1	36.1	137	4	Not reached	45.8	17.8	36.4	122	4	Not reached
32	After ERBT, additional biopsy of the tumour edge should be performed routinely	47.3	27.5%	25.2%	137	6	Not reached	62.4%	21.4%	16.2	122	5	Not reached
33	If bladder tumours are adjacent to each other, en bloc resection of the cluster of bladder tumours as a whole can be considered	3.0	8.3	88.6	137	5	Agree	1.7	3.4	94.9	122	4	Agree
34	If the size of bladder tumour is too big, after ERBT, dividing the specimen into 2–3 pieces for retrieval can be considered	12.2	22.1	65.6	137	6	Not reached	8.5	12.8	78.6	122	5	Agree

Table 4 (Continued)

Domains and statements		Round 1 ^a						Round 2 ^a					
		% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status
35	If any technical difficulty is encountered upon ERBT, conversion to conventional TURBT should be considered	1.5	3.0	95.5	137	3	Agree	0.8	0.8	98.3	122	3	Agree
36	Special extraction methods (Endobag, laparoscopic instrument through nephroscope, etc.) can be considered in retrieving large ERBT specimens	12.2	11.4	76.4	137	14	Agree	8.1	7.2	84.7	122	11	Agree
<i>Different modalities of ERBT</i>													
37	It is technically feasible to use monopolar energy for ERBT	7.5	20.8	71.7	135	15	Agree	5.5	11.0	83.5	122	13	Agree
38	It is technically feasible to use bipolar energy for ERBT	0.8	3.2	96.0	135	10	Agree	0	0.9	99.1	122	9	Agree
39	It is technically feasible to use holmium laser for ERBT	1.8	19.6	78.6	135	23	Agree	2.0	12.9	85.1	122	21	Agree
40	It is technically feasible to use thulium laser for ERBT	2.1	20.0	77.9	135	40	Agree	1.1	11.1	87.8	122	32	Agree
41	It is technically feasible to use HybridKnife (hydrodissection) for ERBT	3.4	26.1	70.5	135	47	Agree	0	18.1	81.9	122	39	Agree
42	ERBT using monopolar energy allows conversion to piecemeal resection readily when technical difficulty arises	6.7	12.6	80.7	135	16	Agree	4.5	6.4	89.1	122	12	Agree
43	ERBT using bipolar energy allows conversion to piecemeal resection readily when technical difficulty arises	0.8	9.0	90.2	135	13	Agree	0	5.3	94.7	122	9	Agree
44	Holmium laser eliminates the risk of obturator nerve reflex during ERBT	1.0	20.4	78.6	135	32	Agree	0	8.1	91.9	122	23	Agree
45	Thulium laser eliminates the risk of obturator nerve reflex during ERBT	1.1	24.7	74.2	135	42	Agree	0	8.9	91.1	122	32	Agree
46	HybridKnife (hydrodissection) is the safest modality for performing ERBT	18.1	50.6%	31.3%	135	52	Not reached	18.2	57.1	24.7	122	45	Not reached
47	There is a risk of residual disease and understaging when we use HybridKnife (hydrodissection) for ERBT due to its nature of submucosal elevation	11.3	47.5	41.3	135	55	Not reached	7.7	52.6	39.7	122	44	Not reached
<i>Reporting of intraoperative findings for patients undergoing ERBT</i>													
48	The modality used for ERBT must be documented	0	3.0	97.0	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	122	1	Agree
49	Whether ERBT has been successfully performed or any need of conversion to conventional TURBT must be documented	0	1.5	98.5	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	122	1	Agree
50	Whether additional biopsy of the tumour base has been performed must be documented	0	3.7	96.3	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	122	1	Agree

Table 4 (Continued)

Domains and statements		Round 1 ^a						Round 2 ^a					
		% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status
51	Whether additional biopsy of the tumour edge has been performed must be documented	2.2	4.5	93.3	135	1	Agree	0.8	0.8	98.3	122	1	Agree
52	The EAU guidelines stated that the operative record of TURBT must describe tumour location, appearance, size and multifocality, all steps of the procedure, as well as extent and completeness of resection	0	0	100.0	135	1	Agree	0	0	100.0	122	1	Agree
53	Any occurrence of obturator nerve reflex and the laterality of obturator nerve reflex being encountered during ERBT must be documented	2.3	18.8	78.9	135	2	Agree	0	9.9	90.1	122	1	Agree
54	Any occurrence of extra- or intraperitoneal bladder perforation during ERBT must be documented	0.7	1.5	97.8	135	1	Agree	0.8	0	99.2	122	1	Agree
55	The method of tumour extraction must be documented	1.5	4.5	94.0	135	1	Agree	0	0	100.0	122	1	Agree
56	Any difficulty in tumour extraction must be documented	1.5	6.7	91.8	135	1	Agree	0	4.1	95.9	122	1	Agree
57	Whether the ERBT specimen has been divided for extraction must be documented	0.7	5.2	94.0	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	122	1	Agree
<i>Specimen preparation and reporting of histological findings</i>													
58	Every ERBT specimen must be prepared and sent for histological assessment separately	1.5	6.0	92.5	135	2	Agree	0.8	3.3	95.8	121	1	Agree
59	For the ERBT specimen, the circumferential mucosal edge must be pinned for better orientation and better histological assessment of the bladder tumour	7.9	31.0	61.1	135	9	Not reached	5.2	30.4	64.3	121	6	Not reached
60	For the ERBT specimen, the circumferential and deep resection margins must be inked to facilitate subsequent histological assessment	14.3	32.5	53.2	135	9	Not reached	8.0	31.0	61.1	121	8	Not reached
61	For the ERBT specimen, it should be serially sectioned at 2 mm intervals	3.1	38.1	58.8	135	38	Not reached	0	29.2	70.8	121	32	Agree
62	The EAU guidelines stated that the pathological report of TURBT specimen should specify tumour location, tumour grade and stage, lymphovascular invasion, unusual (variant) histology, and presence of carcinoma in situ and detrusor muscle	0	3.0	97.0	135	1	Agree	0	2.5	97.5	121	1	Agree

Table 4 (Continued)

Domains and statements		Round 1 ^a						Round 2 ^a					
		% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status
63	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, the maximal dimension of bladder tumour must be documented	5.8	22.3	71.9	135	14	Agree	2.7	12.7	84.5	121	11	Agree
64	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, T1 substage must be assessed	1.5	10.4	88.1	135	1	Agree	0.8	8.3	90.8	121	1	Agree
65	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, circumferential resection margin must be assessed	3.0	6.7	90.3	135	1	Agree	4.2	2.5	93.3	121	1	Agree
66	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, deep resection margin must be assessed	0.7	3.0	96.3	135	1	Agree	0	1.7	98.3	121	1	Agree
<i>Postoperative management and follow-up schedule</i>													
67	It is safe to give a single dose of intravesical chemotherapy immediately after ERBT	4.7	14.2	81.1	135	8	Agree	1.7	6.1	92.2	121	6	Agree
68	The indications of a single dose of intravesical chemotherapy immediately after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	2.3	9.9	87.8	135	4	Agree	1.7	4.3	94.0	121	4	Agree
69	It is safe to perform second-look TURBT after the first ERBT	3.9	11.6	84.5	135	6	Agree	2.5	6.8	90.7	121	3	Agree
70	Indications of second-look TURBT after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	10.0	14.6	75.4	135	5	Agree	7.0	10.4	82.6	121	6	Agree
71	It is safe to give intravesical BCG therapy after ERBT	3.9	7.0	89.1	135	6	Agree	1.7	5.1	93.2	121	4	Agree
72	Indications of intravesical BCG therapy after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	1.5	3.8	94.7	135	4	Agree	0	3.4	96.6	121	3	Agree
73	The flexible cystoscopy surveillance protocol after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	0	4.5	95.5	135	2	Agree	0	3.4	96.6	121	2	Agree
74 ^c	Upon flexible cystoscopy, the location of tumour recurrence must be documented to help differentiate between in-field and out-of-field recurrence	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.9	2.6	96.5	121	7	Agree
<i>Data reporting and outcome measures</i>													
75	In studies of ERBT, both per-patient and per-tumour analyses should be performed for different outcomes	3.8	10.6	85.6	135	3	Agree	1.7	5.0	93.3	121	1	Agree

Table 4 (Continued)

Domains and statements	Round 1 ^a						Round 2 ^a					
	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status
76 In studies of ERBT, the operative time is an important outcome to measure	10.7	26.0	63.4	135	4	Not reached	8.5	19.5	72.0	121	3	Agree
77 In studies of ERBT, the presence of obturator nerve reflex is an important outcome to measure	4.7	25.0	70.3	135	7	Agree	1.8	16.7	81.6	121	7	Agree
78 In studies of ERBT, the need for bladder irrigation is an important outcome to measure	12.2	25.2	62.6	135	4	Not reached	6.0	17.9	76.1	121	4	Agree
79 In studies of ERBT, the duration of urethral catheterisation is an important outcome to measure	11.5	20.8	67.7	135	5	Not reached	8.5	12.0	79.5	121	4	Agree
80 In studies of ERBT, hospital stay is an important outcome to measure	10.5	21.1	68.4	135	2	Not reached	7.6	10.9	81.5	121	2	Agree
81 In studies of ERBT, the complication rate is an important outcome to measure	0	1.5	98.5	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	121	1	Agree
82 In studies of ERBT, the Clavien-Dindo grading system is the preferred system to measure the severity of complication	2.3	9.4	88.3	135	7	Agree	1.7	5.2	93.0	121	6	Agree
83 In studies of ERBT, the need for blood transfusion is an important outcome to measure	9.8	16.7	73.5	135	3	Agree	5.9	12.6	81.5	121	2	Agree
84 In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of urethral stricture is an important outcome to measure	11.2	22.4	66.4	135	1	Not reached	6.7	15.8	77.5	121	1	Agree
85 In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of bladder perforation is an important outcome to measure	0	2.3	97.7	135	2	Agree	0	1.7	98.3	121	1	Agree
86 In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of urinary tract infection is an important outcome to measure	12.7	27.6	59.7	135	1	Not reached	6.7	20.8	72.5	121	1	Agree
87 In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of transurethral resection syndrome is an important outcome to measure	14.9	23.1	61.9	135	1	Not reached	12.5	15.0	72.5	121	1	Agree
88 In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of urinary retention is an important outcome to measure	18.7	29.1	52.2	135	1	Not reached	10.0	28.3	61.7	121	1	Not reached
89 In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of ureteric stricture is an important outcome to measure	11.2	21.6	67.2	135	1	Not reached	5.8	13.3	80.8	121	1	Agree
90 In studies of ERBT, the successful en bloc resection rate (ie, removal of bladder tumour in one piece) is an important outcome to measure	0.7	3.0	96.3	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	121	1	Agree
91 In studies of ERBT, presence of detrusor muscle in the ERBT specimen is an important outcome to measure	0.7	2.2	97.0	135	1	Agree	0	2.5	97.5	121	1	Agree

Table 4 (Continued)

Domains and statements	Round 1 ^a						Round 2 ^a					
	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status	% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	Consensus status
92 In studies of ERBT, presence of clear circumferential resection margin in the ERBT specimen is an important outcome to measure	2.3	5.3	92.5	135	2	Agree	3.3	2.5	94.2	121	1	Agree
93 In studies of ERBT, presence of clear deep resection margin in the ERBT specimen is an important outcome to measure	0	3.7	96.3	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	121	1	Agree
94 In studies of ERBT, whether postoperative intravesical instillation of chemotherapy is given is an important outcome to report	0.8	15.9	83.3	135	3	Agree	0.8	10.9	88.2	121	2	Agree
95 In studies of ERBT, whether second-look transurethral resection is performed is an important outcome to report	3.0	9.0	88.0	135	2	Agree	1.7	6.7	91.6	121	2	Agree
96 In studies of ERBT, whether any residual disease is detected upon second-look transurethral resection is an important outcome to report	1.5	3.8	94.7	135	2	Agree	0	2.5	97.5	121	2	Agree
97 In studies of ERBT, whether any upstaging of disease is detected upon second-look transurethral resection is an important outcome to report	1.5	4.5	94.0	135	2	Agree	0	3.4	96.6	121	2	Agree
98 In studies of ERBT, whether intravesical BCG therapy is given is an important outcome to report	3.8	18.0	78.2	135	2	Agree	1.7	9.2	89.1	121	2	Agree
99 In studies of ERBT, 3-mo recurrence rate is an important outcome to measure	0.7	4.5	94.8	135	1	Agree	0	1.7	98.3	121	1	Agree
100 In studies of ERBT, 1-yr recurrence rate is an important outcome to measure	0	2.3	97.7	135	2	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	121	1	Agree
101 In studies of ERBT, 1-yr progression rate is an important outcome to measure	0	1.5	98.5	135	1	Agree	0	0.8	99.2	121	1	Agree
102 In studies of ERBT, 5-yr recurrence rate is an important outcome to measure	1.5	6.7	91.8	135	1	Agree	0	2.5	97.5	121	1	Agree
103 In studies of ERBT, 5-year progression rate is an important outcome to measure	1.5	6.0	92.5	135	1	Agree	0	2.5	97.5	121	1	Agree

BCG = bacillus Calmette-Guérin; EAU = European Association of Urology; ERBT = En bloc resection of bladder tumour; TURBT = Transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

^a In columns showing percentages agree/equivocal/disagree, red shaded cells indicate $\geq 70\%$.

^b Green shaded cell indicate $\geq 15\%$ of disagree despite $\geq 70\%$ of agree in the same statement.

^c This statement was added after first round of Delphi survey.

Table 5 – Summary of the statements that were discussed and re-voted, and their consensus status after the voting session.

Domains and statements		Voting session ^a					Consensus status
		% Disagree (1–3)	% Equivocal (4–6)	% Agree (7–9)	Total N	Unable to score N	
<i>Definitions and objectives of ERBT</i>							
7	ERBT should be considered for treatment of muscle-invasive bladder cancer	80.0	6.7	13.3	15	0	Disagree
8	ERBT should be considered to treat carcinoma in situ of the bladder to optimise subsequent treatment	73.3	13.3	13.3	15	0	Disagree
<i>Case selection</i>							
11	ERBT is feasible for patients with bladder tumour size of >3 cm	0.0	6.7	93.3	15	0	Agree
12	Number of bladder tumours is a major limitation in performing ERBT	86.7	6.7	6.7	15	0	Disagree
14	If tumour size is not an issue, ERBT is feasible for patients with >4 bladder tumours	0.0	0.0	100.0	15	0	Agree
15	Tumour location is a major limitation in performing ERBT	73.3	20.0	6.7	15	0	Disagree
21	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the bladder dome	0.0	0.0	100.0	15	0	Agree
<i>Surgical procedure</i>							
25	Narrow-band imaging, Image 1S, or photodynamic diagnosis must be considered to enhance bladder cancer detection before ERBT	20.0	33.3	46.7	15	0	Not reached
31	After ERBT, additional biopsy of the tumour base should be performed routinely	86.7	6.7	6.7	15	0	Disagree
32	After ERBT, additional biopsy of the tumour edge should be performed routinely	100.0	0.0	0.0	15	0	Disagree
<i>Different modalities of ERBT</i>							
46	HybridKnife (hydrodissection) is the safest modality for performing ERBT	86.7	6.7	6.7	15	0	Disagree
47	There is a risk of residual disease and understaging when we use HybridKnife (hydrodissection) for ERBT due to its nature of submucosal elevation	0.0	21.4	78.6	14	1	Agree
<i>Specimen preparation and reporting of histological findings</i>							
59	For the ERBT specimen, the circumferential mucosal edge must be pinned for better orientation and better histological assessment of the bladder tumour	40.0	33.3	26.7	15	0	Not reached
60	For the ERBT specimen, the circumferential and deep resection margins must be inked to facilitate subsequent histological assessment	20.0	26.7	53.3	15	0	Not reached
<i>Data reporting and outcome measures</i>							
88	In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of urinary retention is an important outcome to measure	13.3	46.7	40.0	15	0	Not reached

ERBT = en bloc resection of bladder tumour.

^a In columns showing percentages agree/equivocal/disagree, red shaded cells indicate $\geq 70\%$.

pearance, size and multifocality, all steps of the procedure, as well as the extent and completeness of resection [54], and these also apply to ERBT. In addition, the modality used for ERBT, success of ERBT, the need of conversion to conventional TURBT, method of tumour extraction, and any additional biopsy of the tumour base and tumour edge must be documented. Any problems encountered during the ERBT procedure, including the occurrence of obturator reflex, bladder perforation, and any difficulty in tumour extraction, must be documented.

3.5.6. Specimen preparation and reporting of histological findings

Every ERBT specimen must be prepared and sent for histological assessment separately. The EAU guidelines stated that the pathological report of TURBT specimen

should specify tumour location, tumour grade and stage, lymphovascular invasion, unusual (variant) histology, and presence of CIS and detrusor muscle [54], and these also apply to ERBT specimens. In addition, the maximal dimension of the bladder tumour [36], T1 substage [55–57], and circumferential and deep resection margins [33,35,46–48] must be assessed.

3.5.7. Postoperative management and follow-up schedule

It is safe to give a single dose of immediate intravesical chemotherapy [19,22,29,33,36,37,44,45], to perform second-look TURBT [39,44], and to give intravesical bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) therapy after ERBT [19,33,49]. The indications should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT [54]. The

Table 6 – Final consensus statements on en bloc resection of bladder tumour.

Domains and statements		Consensus stage (Delphi/meeting)	Direction of consensus (agree/disagree)
<i>Definitions and objectives of ERBT</i>			
1	Removal of bladder tumour in one piece is the most appropriate definition for ERBT	Delphi	Agree
2	The depth of ERBT must include the detrusor muscle layer in the specimen	Delphi	Agree
3	One of the main goals of ERBT is to ensure complete local resection of bladder tumour	Delphi	Agree
4	One of the main goals of ERBT is to ensure proper local staging of the disease	Delphi	Agree
5	One of the main goals of ERBT is to reduce the risk of tumour reimplantation	Delphi	Agree
6	ERBT should always be considered for the treatment of non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer	Delphi	Agree
7	ERBT should be considered for the treatment of muscle-invasive bladder cancer	Meeting	Disagree
8	ERBT should be considered for the treatment of carcinoma in situ of the bladder to optimise subsequent treatment	Meeting	Disagree
<i>Case selection</i>			
9	Size of bladder tumour is a major limitation in performing ERBT	Delphi	Agree
10	ERBT is feasible for patients with bladder tumour size of ≤ 3 cm	Delphi	Agree
11	ERBT is feasible for patients with bladder tumour size of > 3 cm	Meeting	Agree
12	The number of bladder tumours is a major limitation in performing ERBT	Meeting	Disagree
13	If tumour size is not an issue, ERBT is feasible for patients with ≤ 4 bladder tumours	Delphi	Agree
14	If tumour size is not an issue, ERBT is feasible for patients with > 4 bladder tumours	Meeting	Agree
15	Tumour location is a major limitation in performing ERBT	Meeting	Disagree
16	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the posterior wall	Delphi	Agree
17	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the anterior wall	Delphi	Agree
18	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the right lateral wall	Delphi	Agree
19	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the left lateral wall	Delphi	Agree
20	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the trigone	Delphi	Agree
21	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the bladder dome	Meeting	Agree
22	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located at the bladder neck	Delphi	Agree
23	ERBT is feasible for bladder tumour located near the ureteric orifice	Delphi	Agree
<i>Surgical procedure</i>			
24	A thorough cystoscopic examination must be performed before any ERBT	Delphi	Agree
25	Narrow-band imaging, Image 1S, or photodynamic diagnosis must be considered to enhance bladder cancer detection before ERBT	Meeting	Not reached
26	The bladder should be distended enough to facilitate ERBT	Delphi	Agree
27	The bladder should not be overdistended to avoid bladder perforation upon ERBT	Delphi	Agree
28	The planned circumferential margin should be marked first to facilitate subsequent ERBT	Delphi	Agree
29	Upon ERBT, the planned circumferential margin should be at least 5 mm from any visible bladder tumour	Delphi	Agree
30	Upon ERBT, the depth of incision should be made at the detrusor muscle layer	Delphi	Agree
31	After ERBT, additional biopsy of the tumour base should be performed routinely	Meeting	Disagree
32	After ERBT, additional biopsy of the tumour edge should be performed routinely	Meeting	Disagree
33	If bladder tumours are adjacent to each other, en bloc resection of the cluster of bladder tumours as a whole can be considered	Delphi	Agree
34	If the size of bladder tumour is too big, after ERBT, dividing the specimen into 2–3 pieces for retrieval can be considered	Delphi	Agree
35	If any technical difficulty is encountered upon ERBT, conversion to conventional TURBT should be considered	Delphi	Agree
36	Special extraction methods (Endobag, laparoscopic instrument through nephroscope, etc.) can be considered in retrieving large ERBT specimens	Delphi	Agree
<i>Different modalities of ERBT</i>			
37	It is technically feasible to use monopolar energy for ERBT	Delphi	Agree
38	It is technically feasible to use bipolar energy for ERBT	Delphi	Agree
39	It is technically feasible to use holmium laser for ERBT	Delphi	Agree
40	It is technically feasible to use thulium laser for ERBT	Delphi	Agree
41	It is technically feasible to use HybridKnife (hydrodissection) for ERBT	Delphi	Agree
42	ERBT using monopolar energy allows conversion to piecemeal resection readily when technical difficulty arises	Delphi	Agree
43	ERBT using bipolar energy allows conversion to piecemeal resection readily when technical difficulty arises	Delphi	Agree
44	Holmium laser eliminates the risk of obturator nerve reflex during ERBT	Delphi	Agree
45	Thulium laser eliminates the risk of obturator nerve reflex during ERBT	Delphi	Agree
46	HybridKnife (hydrodissection) is the safest modality for performing ERBT	Meeting	Disagree

Table 6 (Continued)

Domains and statements		Consensus stage (Delphi/meeting)	Direction of consensus (agree/disagree)
47	There is a risk of residual disease and understaging when we use HybridKnife (hydrodissection) for ERBT due to its nature of submucosal elevation	Meeting	Agree
<i>Reporting of intraoperative findings for patients undergoing ERBT</i>			
48	The modality used for ERBT must be documented	Delphi	Agree
49	Whether ERBT has been successfully performed, or any need of conversion to conventional TURBT, must be documented	Delphi	Agree
50	Whether additional biopsy of the tumour base has been performed must be documented	Delphi	Agree
51	Whether additional biopsy of the tumour edge has been performed must be documented	Delphi	Agree
52	The EAU guidelines stated that the operative record of TURBT must describe tumour location, appearance, size and multifocality, all steps of the procedure, as well as extent and completeness of resection. This recommendation should also be applied to ERBT	Delphi	Agree
53	Any occurrence of obturator nerve reflex and the laterality of obturator nerve reflex being encountered during ERBT must be documented	Delphi	Agree
54	Any occurrence of extraperitoneal or intraperitoneal bladder perforation during ERBT must be documented	Delphi	Agree
55	The method of tumour extraction must be documented	Delphi	Agree
56	Any difficulty in tumour extraction must be documented	Delphi	Agree
57	Whether the ERBT specimen has been divided for extraction must be documented	Delphi	Agree
<i>Specimen preparation and reporting of histological findings</i>			
58	Every ERBT specimen must be prepared and sent for histological assessment separately	Delphi	Agree
59	For the ERBT specimen, the circumferential mucosal edge must be pinned for better orientation and better histological assessment of the bladder tumour	Meeting	Not reached
60	For the ERBT specimen, the circumferential and deep resection margins must be inked to facilitate subsequent histological assessment	Meeting	Not reached
61	For the ERBT specimen, it should be serially sectioned at 2 mm intervals	Delphi	Agree
62	The EAU guidelines stated that the pathological report of TURBT specimen should specify tumour location, tumour grade and stage, lymphovascular invasion, unusual (variant) histology, and presence of carcinoma in situ and detrusor muscle. This recommendation should also apply to ERBT specimen	Delphi	Agree
63	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, the maximal dimension of bladder tumour must be documented	Delphi	Agree
64	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, T1 substage must be assessed	Delphi	Agree
65	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, circumferential resection margin must be assessed	Delphi	Agree
66	Upon histological assessment of the ERBT specimen, deep resection margin must be assessed	Delphi	Agree
<i>Postoperative management and follow-up schedule</i>			
67	It is safe to give a single dose of intravesical chemotherapy immediately after ERBT	Delphi	Agree
68	Indications of a single dose of intravesical chemotherapy immediately after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	Delphi	Agree
69	It is safe to perform second-look TURBT after the first ERBT	Delphi	Agree
70	The indications of second-look TURBT after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	Delphi	Agree
71	It is safe to give intravesical BCG therapy after ERBT	Delphi	Agree
72	Indications of intravesical BCG therapy after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	Delphi	Agree
73	The flexible cystoscopy surveillance protocol after ERBT should follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT	Delphi	Agree
74 ^a	Upon flexible cystoscopy, the location of tumour recurrence must be documented to help differentiate between in-field and out-of-field recurrence	Delphi	Agree
<i>Data reporting and outcome measures</i>			
75	In studies of ERBT, both per-patient and per-tumour analyses should be performed for different outcomes	Delphi	Agree
76	In studies of ERBT, the operative time is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
77	In studies of ERBT, the presence of obturator nerve reflex is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
78	In studies of ERBT, the need for bladder irrigation is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
79	In studies of ERBT, the duration of urethral catheterisation is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
80	In studies of ERBT, hospital stay is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
81	In studies of ERBT, the complication rate is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree

Table 6 (Continued)

Domains and statements	Consensus stage (Delphi/meeting)	Direction of consensus (agree/disagree)	
82	In studies of ERBT, the Clavien-Dindo grading system is the preferred system to measure the severity of complication	Delphi	Agree
83	In studies of ERBT, the need for blood transfusion is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
84	In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of urethral stricture is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
85	In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of bladder perforation is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
86	In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of urinary tract infection is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
87	In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of transurethral resection syndrome is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
88	In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of urinary retention is an important outcome to measure	Meeting	Not reached
89	In studies of ERBT, the occurrence of ureteric stricture is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
90	In studies of ERBT, the successful en bloc resection rate (ie, removal of bladder tumour in one piece) is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
91	In studies of ERBT, presence of detrusor muscle in the ERBT specimen is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
92	In studies of ERBT, presence of clear circumferential resection margin in the ERBT specimen is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
93	In studies of ERBT, presence of clear deep resection margin in the ERBT specimen is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
94	In studies of ERBT, whether postoperative intravesical instillation of chemotherapy is given is an important outcome to report	Delphi	Agree
95	In studies of ERBT, whether second-look transurethral resection is performed is an important outcome to report	Delphi	Agree
96	In studies of ERBT, whether any residual disease is detected upon second-look transurethral resection is an important outcome to report	Delphi	Agree
97	In studies of ERBT, whether any upstaging of disease is detected upon second-look transurethral resection is an important outcome to report	Delphi	Agree
98	In studies of ERBT, whether intravesical BCG therapy is given is an important outcome to report	Delphi	Agree
99	In studies of ERBT, 3-mo recurrence rate is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
100	In studies of ERBT, 1-yr recurrence rate is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
101	In studies of ERBT, 1-yr progression rate is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
102	In studies of ERBT, 5-yr recurrence rate is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree
103	In studies of ERBT, 5-yr progression rate is an important outcome to measure	Delphi	Agree

BCG = bacillus Calmette-Guérin; EAU = European Association of Urology; ERBT = en bloc resection of bladder tumour; TURBT = transurethral resection of bladder tumour.

^a This statement was added after first round of Delphi survey.

flexible cystoscopy surveillance protocol after ERBT should also follow the EAU guidelines recommendation as in the case of conventional TURBT [54]. In addition, upon flexible cystoscopy, the location of tumour recurrence must be documented to help differentiate between in- and out-of-field recurrence [19,34,37].

3.5.8. Data reporting and outcome measures

In studies of ERBT, both per-patient and -tumour analyses should be performed for different outcomes as appropriate [46,47]. Perioperative outcomes, including operative time, obturator nerve reflex, successful en bloc resection rate, need of bladder irrigation, duration of urethral catheterisation, and hospital stay, should be documented. Severity of complications should be measured using the Clavien-Dindo grading system [58]. Complications including bladder perforation, need of blood transfusion, ureteric stricture, urethral stricture, urinary tract infection, and transurethral resection syndrome should be documented. For the

histological assessment, presence of detrusor muscle, and circumferential and deep resection margins are important outcomes to measure. Whether adjunct treatments, including postoperative intravesical instillation of chemotherapy, second-look TURBT, and intravesical BCG therapy, have been given or performed should be reported. For those with second-look TURBT performed, any residual disease or upstaging of disease should be reported. For the oncological outcomes, 3-mo recurrence rate, 1-yr recurrence and progression rates, and 5-yr recurrence and progression rates are important outcomes to measure.

4. Discussion

In our effectiveness review, which is the most comprehensive and methodologically robust systematic review of the ERBT evidence base to date, we identified 10 RCTs comparing ERBT and TURBT; however, only four of them [19,22,29,31] were published as full-text articles. High-

quality data are limited for making robust recommendations in ERBT, and this explains why it is important to develop a consensus statement to provide the highest level of evidence that we can achieve so far, which can serve as a standard reference for health care professionals in the future. This consensus statement is the first attempt in trying to standardise the management of bladder cancer patients with special focus on ERBT. We mobilised the international community and used transparent and robust methods to review the evidence, identify current uncertainties, and survey expert opinion in an unbiased way, in order to provide recommendations for interim practice guidance and a basis to inform the research agenda. Health care professionals from different specialities (ie, urologists, oncologists, and pathologists) were involved to ensure that we had a comprehensive collection of opinions across different fields.

4.1. Relevance and impact of study findings on clinical practice and research

There are several important messages that may impact our clinical practice. Although tumour size has long been recognised as a major limitation, we must emphasise that ERBT is a treatment intended for patients with NMIBC. In patients with bladder tumours larger than 3 cm, there is a reasonable chance of MIBC, and ERBT should not be considered a definitive treatment when there is a suspicion of MIBC. Moreover, it is recognised that the major benefit of ERBT is the ability to ensure a complete local resection, and this holds true even when the specimen cannot be retrieved in one piece. Therefore, we should still consider ERBT in patients with large bladder tumours where NMIBC is considered a possibility. We also offered practical solutions on how we can extend the indication of ERBT to patients with large bladder tumours. Modified ERBT, for example, en bloc resection followed by division of specimen into two to three pieces for retrieval, is considered acceptable [45,49]. The use of special tumour extraction methods may also facilitate tumour extraction [50], but we need to be aware that the devices being used implied additional costs and were not formally approved for such indication, and whether they would lead to increased risk of complications such as urethral stricture is unknown. There is an urgent need for innovative methods of tumour extraction so as to achieve a true ERBT even for large bladder tumours.

ERBT is a surgical approach that aims to uphold the basic oncological principles in bladder cancer resection. Although there are different modalities of ERBT, they are all technically feasible and there are no data showing superiority of one over the other. In ERBT, surgical technique is primary and tools are secondary. Of note, bipolar ERBT appears to be the most acceptable modality based on the percentage of agreement. This might be explained by its widespread availability, ease and precision of resection, as well as the allowance of instant conversion to conventional TURBT. Although there is a risk of residual disease and understaging when using HybridKnife (hydrodissection) for ERBT, this is only theoretical based on its nature of

submucosal elevation and whether this is genuinely true is unknown.

As ERBT specimens allow assessment of the depth of invasion as well as the resection margins, routine additional biopsy of tumour base and tumour edge after ERBT is considered unnecessary. If there is any doubt regarding the completeness of resection, additional resection of tumour base and edge can be considered, and they should be sent for histological assessment separately. Although pinning of circumferential mucosal margin and inking of resection margins in ERBT specimens are commonly performed (and possibly a good practice), it is not considered mandatory for a proper histological assessment. ERBT specimens also allow more precise assessment of the T1 substage. World Health Organization's classification of T1a–c disease is considered acceptable [57], but more research work will be needed to see whether they carry any important prognostic implications in NMIBC after ERBT.

We noticed a significant variation in the reporting of outcome measures across nonrandomised studies and RCTs. Data on important outcomes such as the presence of detrusor muscle were not readily reported in RCTs. There is also a wide variation in the study quality, as reflected by our risk of bias assessment. Standardisation on data reporting and outcome measures is important to move ERBT forward. Future studies on ERBT should consider incorporating the important outcome measures as identified by our consensus statement.

4.2. Strengths and limitations

This consensus statement was developed using a robust and reproducible method [10,14–16]. Our systematic reviews were conducted according to the PRISMA guidelines [2]. When compared with previous meta-analyses in the literature [59–62], our search strategy was most comprehensive, and we included only RCTs with a proper risk of bias assessment in our meta-analysis. The GRADE method was used for assessing certainty of evidence [9], and this is useful for decision making at many levels, including for the development of clinical practice guidelines. Our uncertainties review also provided a solid basis for the survey items being developed. Invitations were sent to a large panel of health care professionals purposively sampled from across the world. The consensus building process was based on a two-round Delphi survey, followed by a consensus panel meeting, where anonymous voting techniques were used. All these improved the internal and external validity of the study results. The definition of a consensus was also based on previously described methodology.

There are several limitations in this study. First, we recognise the lack of high-quality studies in ERBT. We were also not able to stratify the results according to patient and disease factors. Therefore, some results of the effectiveness review (eg, recurrence rates) have to be interpreted with caution. Second, statements generated were brief, concise, and binary in nature. Areas of uncertainty that are complex in nature may not be addressed adequately. Some terminologies (eg, degree of bladder distension) were also

difficult to define. Third, most of the participants involved were urologists, and they might lack knowledge regarding certain aspects of ERBT such as reporting of histological findings. The statements generated had an extensive coverage of every surgical aspect of ERBT. Even urologists may not have sufficient personal experience to vote in every statement (eg, different modalities of ERBT). Fourth, we recognised that there was strong representation from Europe and Asia in the Delphi survey. This may represent a selection bias from purposive sampling, and the results may not be applicable to regions outside Europe and Asia. On the contrary, it may reflect a genuine situation that ERBT is much more commonly practised in Europe and Asia.

4.3. Future directions of ERBT

To determine whether ERBT should replace conventional TURBT as the standard of care will require more results from high-quality RCTs. In our systematic review, we noticed that a number of RCTs have been presented but not fully published. Proper reporting according to the CONSORT statement is strongly encouraged [63]. There are also a number of on-going RCTs with clinically important primary outcomes. The EB-StaR study is a multicentre study comparing the 1-yr recurrence rates between bipolar ERBT and bipolar conventional TURBT for patients with bladder tumour size of ≤ 3 cm [64]. There are two RCTs comparing between laser ERBT and conventional TURBT with the primary outcome of residual tumour upon second TURBT [65,66]. There is another RCT investigating the presence of detrusor muscle in the specimen, which may serve as a surrogate marker for the quality of resection [67].

One of the major criticisms of ERBT is the inability to retrieve large bladder tumours in one piece. Acknowledging the benefit of ensuring a complete resection, we should accept modified approaches of ERBT (eg, ERBT followed by retrieval of bladder tumour in several pieces [45,49], piecemeal resection of the exophytic part of bladder tumour followed by en bloc resection of the tumour base [68], etc.). Moreover, ERBT is focused on patients with NMIBC (presumably smaller in size in most cases), so a true ERBT is still feasible for the majority of the patients. An exploratory study investigating the role of modified ERBT for patients with bladder tumour size of ≥ 3 cm is currently under way [69].

Although ERBT is a promising surgical technique for NMIBC, the learning curve of ERBT and whether it can easily be generalised is an important issue to address. More effort will be needed for proper education and training globally. With the foundation of the consensus statement, a prospective international registry study on ERBT is planned. This will provide us with more insights into the generalisability and practicality of implementing ERBT in our clinical practice. Long-term real-world data will also be useful in determining the true value of ERBT. We believe that oncological principles exist for good reasons, and our group will continue to work together and contribute to the development of ERBT in a collaborative manner.

5. Conclusions

A consensus statement for ERBT has been developed, and it has a comprehensive coverage regarding every aspect of ERBT. The findings will guide and inform health care professionals about the routine clinical practice of ERBT, and has important implications regarding future studies of ERBT. The consensus statement will serve as a standard of reference until higher level of evidence from prospective RCTs is available.

Author contributions: Marek Babjuk had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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Platinum Priority – Editorial

Referring to the article published on pp. 546–569 of this issue

En Bloc Resection of Bladder Tumors: Style or Substance?

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Transurethral en bloc resection of non-muscle-invasive bladder tumor (ERBT) has increased in popularity over recent years, especially in Europe and Asia. While it is not a new concept, the reinvigorated interest in the technique stems from potential areas for improvement over conventional transurethral resection of bladder tumor (TURBT) and supporters quote three main advantages. First, ERBT is thought to improve the quality of histopathological specimens allowing pathologists to better assess margin status for completeness of resection and depth of invasion [1,2]. Second, the more controlled resection may decrease the risk of adverse events such as bladder perforation [3]. Third, the reduction in tumor fracturing leads to fewer floating tumor cells, theoretically reducing the risk of intravesical tumor seeding and improving recurrence rates [1,4]. Unfortunately, high-quality data on ERBT are lacking and available studies are hampered by a lack of standardization for patient selection, technique, and outcomes measured. With little guidance in this space, Teoh et al [5] attempt to shine light on the role of ERBT using a combination of systematic review and expert opinion in this issue of *European Urology*.

Although multiple systematic reviews comparing ERBT and TURBT already exist, the current work is comprehensive and uses robust methodology in accordance with the Cochrane Handbook [1,3,6]. It includes only randomized controlled trial (RCT) data and excludes observational studies in an attempt to reduce selection bias for ERBT. While RCTs generally represent good evidence, they are limited by their restrictive inclusion criteria, which often limit generalizability to the population at large. In the present study, ten RCTs involving a total of 1155 patients (586 ERBT vs 569 TURBT) were identified but, owing to differences in outcome reporting, only a subset of these

studies contribute to the pooled outcomes. The authors report fewer bladder perforations and shorter irrigation time with ERBT, but these outcomes were only reported in five ($n=723$) and two ($n=195$) trials, respectively. In addition, it is uncertain if the lower perforation rates for ERBT are related to surgeon comfort with the novel technique as early adapters and whether widespread use would show similar results. Similarly, the authors note equivalent recurrence rates at 0–12, 13–24, and 25–36 mo, but only five ($n=622$), two ($n=262$), and three ($n=570$) studies respectively, included these outcomes and the data are unfortunately too limited for subgroup analyses between ERBT modalities or patient and disease factors. The authors include GRADE summaries of data for each outcome, which illustrate the overall poor study quality, as most have low and very low certainty evidence, even when randomized [7].

The main novel contribution of the paper is a qualitative process whereby the authors compiled 99 statements and presented them to a panel of experts for consensus development. The fact that a consensus process is required to interpret the existing ERBT data highlights how poor these data really are. That being said, the inclusion of statements addressing how trials should be designed and reported could lead to improvements in future studies. An additional concern is the constitution of the expert panel: members were chosen either as authors of ERBT systematic reviews or as respondents to an online advertisement with verified personal ERBT experience. Consequently, the panel is heavily skewed towards urologists practicing in Europe and Asia who are early adopters and “believers” in ERBT. The inclusion of statements covering multiple areas from surgical technique to histological preparation also led to grading of statements outside participants’ expertise

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(eg, urologists opining on histology, pathologists opining on surgery). The authors attempt to address with an “unable to score” option, but this was underutilized and no assessment of differences between stakeholder groups was performed.

The main ERBT benefit is avoidance of the piecemeal resection of TURBT that is thought to lead to seeding of normal urothelium by tumor cells shed during resection [1–3]. The existing evidence does not support the notion that ERBT reduces recurrences. In addition, ERBT may not be appropriate for many bladder tumors, including tumors >3 cm, highly multifocal tumors, flat tumors, and tumors at the dome. Specimen retrieval can also be a limitation, as a nicely resected en bloc tumor might be impossible to extract intact through the resectoscope sheath without additional equipment (which is not routinely available).

Overall, this work does provide interim guidance within a growing field and hopefully will standardize care and allow for stronger future studies. However, the consensus statements must be interpreted with caution given the low quality of data on which they are based and the biased constitution of the opinion panel. Unanswered questions remain and Teoh et al reference an additional five ongoing trials that seek to address these issues, although their outcomes are not standardized. We look forward to seeing these results and hope that the unappreciated surgical technique that is TURBT will improve for our patients.

Conflicts of interest: BAI is a consultant/advisor for Ferring Pharmaceuticals, Combat Medical, and Taris Biomedical, and has participated in scientific studies/trials with FKD Therapies, Anchiano Therapeutics,

Genentech Inc., Nucleix, Bristol-Myers-Squibb, and Abbott Laboratories. The remaining authors have nothing to disclose.

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Platinum Priority – Reconstructive Urology

Editorial by Nadir I. Osman and Christopher R. Chapple on pp. 581–582 of this issue

Surgical Treatment for Recurrent Bulbar Urethral Stricture: A Randomised Open-label Superiority Trial of Open Urethroplasty Versus Endoscopic Urethrotomy (the OPEN Trial)

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Abstract

Background: Urethral stricture affects 0.9% of men. Initial treatment is urethrotomy. Approximately, half of the strictures recur within 4 yr. Options for further treatment are repeat urethrotomy or open urethroplasty.

Objective: To compare the effectiveness and cost effectiveness of urethrotomy with open urethroplasty in adult men with recurrent bulbar urethral stricture.

Design, setting, and participants: This was an open label, two-arm, patient-randomised controlled trial. UK National Health Service hospitals were recruited and 222 men were randomised to receive urethroplasty or urethrotomy.

Intervention: Urethrotomy is a minimally invasive technique whereby the narrowed area is progressively widened by cutting the scar tissue with a steel blade mounted on a urethroscope. Urethroplasty is a more invasive surgery to reconstruct the narrowed area.

Outcome measurements and statistical analysis: The primary outcome was the profile over 24 mo of a patient-reported outcome measure, the voiding symptom score. The main clinical outcome was time until reintervention.

Results and limitations: The primary analysis included 69 (63%) and 90 (81%) of those allocated to urethroplasty and urethrotomy, respectively. The mean difference between the urethroplasty and urethrotomy groups was -0.36 (95% confidence interval [CI] -1.74 to 1.02). Fifteen men allocated to urethroplasty needed a reintervention compared with 29 allocated to urethrotomy (hazard ratio [95% CI] 0.52 [0.31 – 0.89]).

Conclusions: In men with recurrent bulbar urethral stricture, both urethroplasty and urethrotomy improved voiding symptoms. The benefit lasted longer for urethroplasty.

† Professor Robert Pickard died on July 24, 2018.

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Patient summary: There was uncertainty about the best treatment for men with recurrent bulbar urethral stricture. We randomised men to receive one of the following two treatment options: urethrotomy and urethroplasty. At the end of the study, both treatments resulted in similar and better symptom scores. However, the urethroplasty group had fewer reinterventions.

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1. Introduction

Registry studies from the USA estimate the prevalence of urethral stricture to be up to 0.9% of adult men [1]. The annular urethral scar, which commonly occurs in the bulbar segment of the urethra, results in difficulty voiding, threatening urinary retention [2]. The first occurrence of urethral stricture is usually treated by a minimally invasive technique, whereby the narrowed area is progressively widened either by cutting the scar tissue with a steel blade mounted on a urethroscope, the so-called endoscopic urethrotomy, or by the use of graduated urethral dilators. An estimated half of the men will suffer a recurrence within 4 yr requiring further intervention [3]. This can be done by an endoscopic technique or by more invasive surgery to reconstruct the narrowed area: open urethroplasty [4]. Hospital activity data suggest that repeated endoscopic urethrotomy is the most frequently used alternative [5] to treat bulbar stricture recurrence, but specialist clinical guidelines, based on cohort studies identified by a systematic review, recommend that open urethroplasty should be performed [4,6]. In this randomised trial, we aimed to clarify which procedure was best, primarily in providing symptom control but also considering duration of benefit prior to disease recurrence.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Study design

This was an open-label patient-randomised parallel-group superiority trial recruiting across 53 National Health Service (NHS) secondary care providers in the UK (38 recruited at least one participant). The trial protocol was published, and it contains details about the methods [7].

2.2. Participants

Adult men presenting with bulbar urethral stricture disease having previously undergone at least one surgical intervention for this condition were identified. Exclusion criteria were current perineal sepsis and/or urethra-cutaneous fistula. Patients were approached and introduced to the study by clinical staff at site. Those deciding to participate completed written consent forms for the 24-mo trial period.

2.3. Randomisation and masking

Randomisation was performed using a centralised, automated application hosted by the Centre for Healthcare and Randomised Trials, University of Aberdeen, UK, and accessed by telephone or through the Internet. Participants were allocated to urethroplasty or urethrotomy in a 1:1 ratio, with recruitment site and time since last procedure (<12 or ≥12 mo) as minimisation covariates. Clinical trial unit staff were masked to allocation, but participants and surgeons could not be blinded.

2.4. Procedures

Participants were sent the trial questionnaire—which included the patient-reported outcome measure (PROM)—at baseline; preintervention; 3, 6, 9, 12, and 24 mo after the intervention; at 18 and 24 mo after randomisation; and before and after a reintervention. At the end of the study (December 2016), we sent the questionnaire to every participant in the trial. At 3, 12, and 24 mo after the intervention, research staff at site contacted participants to complete case report forms (CRFs) face to face or by telephone, with supplementation by health care record review. Clinical outcomes, including adverse events, were collected in the CRFs. Uroflowmetry was obtained at baseline, at 3 mo, and between 12 and 24 mo after surgery.

2.5. Outcomes

The primary outcome was the profile of the urinary voiding symptom score component of the surgery PROM over 24 mo following randomisation. The questionnaire has been validated in this patient group [8]. We used the area under the curve to summarise each participants' profile. The PROM has six questions about delay before starting to urinate, poor strength of urinary stream, having to strain before urinating, intermittent urinary stream, feeling of incomplete bladder emptying, and postmicturition dribbling. Each item was scored from 0 (no symptoms) to 4 (symptoms all the time), giving a total score range of 0–24. The PROM was chosen as OPEN's primary outcome to ensure a patient-centred trial that can inform patient-centred health care delivery; symptoms are likely to be the central concern for patients with bulbar urethral strictures and the reason why they look for treatment.

Patient-reported secondary outcomes were the following: a pictorial description of urine stream strength (scored from 1 [strong stream] to 4 [weak stream]), impact of urinary symptoms on daily activity (scored from 0 [not at all] to 3 [a lot]), overall satisfaction with sexual function (scored from 1 [very dissatisfied] to 5 [very satisfied]), and health-related quality of life using the EQ-5D-5 L questionnaire reported elsewhere [9].

Secondary clinical outcomes included difference in reintervention, rate of improvement of urinary flow rate, and any recurrence. We defined a reintervention for bulbar urethral stricture as any intervention subsequent to the allocated trial procedure (excluding self-dilatation). Maximum urinary flow rate (Q_{max}) was measured by asking each participant to void at least 150 ml of urine into a commercial, calibrated uroflowmeter available at their treating centre. An increase in Q_{max} of ≥ 10 ml/s compared with baseline was considered as an improvement [10]. Recurrence of bulbar stricture occurred if at least one of the following conditions were met during the 24 mo after randomisation: a reintervention had occurred or was scheduled, and the maximum flow rate had deteriorated to the preintervention value or the voiding score had deteriorated to baseline value.

2.6. Sample size

Sample size details were provided in the trial's published protocol [7]. Three parameters informed a revised sample size calculation (after poor recruitment was observed): the minimum clinically important difference defined as a >10% difference in effect estimate in the PROM

profile, power to detect any difference set at 90%, and the standard deviation (SD) of the primary outcome measure. This was calculated from the 220 measurements of postintervention PROM voiding score, scaled from 0 to 1, submitted by the first 69 participants. The observed SD was 0.15, which was increased to 0.21 to allow for subsequent changes over trial duration. This gave a revised sample size of 170 men; we aimed to recruit 210 in total to allow for 19% attrition. The trial was also powered to determine whether the use of urethroplasty would result in a 30% reduction in reintervention at 24 mo relative to urethrotomy. To detect this difference with 90% power, 104 men were required. Statistical significance was defined at the two-sided 5% level with corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CI) derived.

2.7. Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis plans are available at <https://www.abdn.ac.uk/hsru/what-we-do/trials-unit/statistical-analysis-plans-611.php>. The PROM profile, calculated by summing its six questions and using all available measurements (starting at baseline that was measured immediately prior to randomisation) to construct the area under the curve using the trapezoid rule, was analysed using linear regression adjusted for minimisation covariates.

The primary analysis included all participants who had any surgery and completed at least three voiding scores: one baseline measure, one early measure (up to 12 mo after intervention), and one later measure (18 or 24 mo after randomisation). The participants were analysed as randomised, that is, they were analysed according to their allocated group regardless of the intervention received. Given the pragmatic nature of the trial, we planned sensitivity analysis to account for missing data and noncompliance. We performed a full intention-to-treat analysis using multiple imputation to include all randomised participants in the model according to their allocated intervention. We carried out a modified intention-to-treat analysis using multiple imputation to include only those participants who had surgery in the model. Both used the same imputation strategy. We explored differences between responders and nonresponders to inform our missing data model. The auxiliary variables included in the multiple imputation model were either known predictors of the outcome (ie, minimisation variables) or predictors found by calculating their correlation with the outcome in the

OPEN dataset (ie, with a correlation coefficient of >0.3). We calculated an area under the curve for each imputation and combined these using Rubin's rules under a missing at random assumption [11,12]. We also explored, using pattern mixture models [11], imputation of a range of values estimated from observed data using different missing not at random scenarios. For these scenarios, we assumed that participants with missing data in the urethroplasty arm had a score from 0 to 10 units lower than the observed values; we then tested the same for those in the urethrotomy arm. We used Stata's command *rctmiss* to implement this. We performed a per-protocol analysis including participants who got the intervention they were allocated to (ie, received the treatment as randomised).

Secondary outcomes were analysed using generalised linear models appropriate for the distribution of the outcome with adjustment for minimisation and baseline variables as appropriate. We analysed time to reintervention using Cox regression (adjusting for minimisation variables and centre). For this outcome, we used the complete observation time available until database closure (at least 24 mo and up to 48 mo for some participants). We also analysed multiple reinterventions using the Andersen-Gill model. Time to recurrence was analysed using Cox regression adjusting for minimisation variables and centre.

Subgroup analyses explored the possible modification of treatment effect by including a treatment-by-factor interaction in models. Factors were time since last procedure (<12 or ≥ 12 mo) as a global measure of stricture severity, age (≤ 50 or >50 yr), stricture length (≤ 2 or >2 cm), and number of previous interventions (one or more than one). Adverse events and serious adverse events (SAEs) are presented by intervention received.

Analyses were carried out using Stata 14 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX, USA). This study was overseen by independent trial steering and data monitoring committees.

3. Results

A total of 222 out of 1262 men identified by study sites were randomised between February 27, 2013 and December 23, 2015 (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 1). There were two postrandomisation exclusions because further assessment

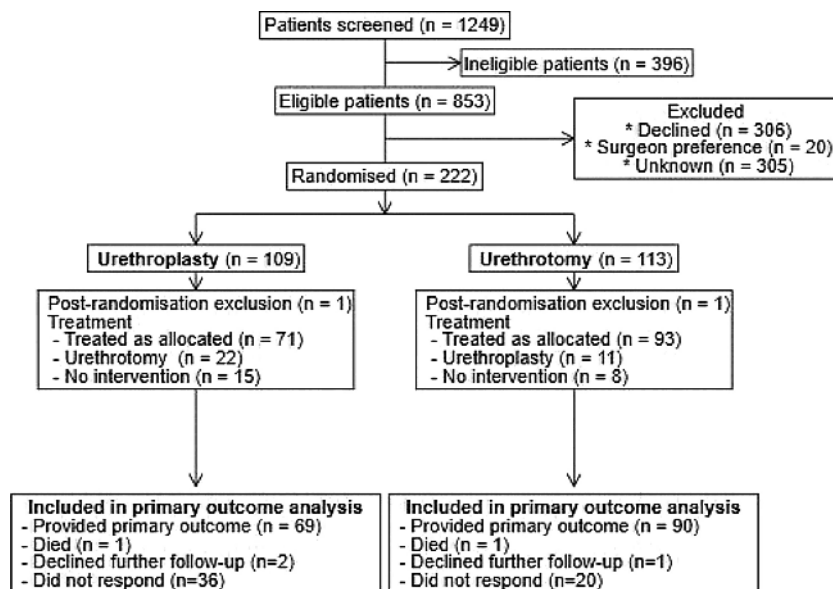


Fig. 1 – CONSORT diagram showing progress of participants through the study.

prior to intervention showed these to have been ineligible. Recorded patient characteristics were balanced at baseline, including important clinical characteristics such as length of stricture and number of previous interventions such as previous urethrotomies (Table 1). Table 2 presents the results for the primary and secondary clinical outcomes. In the primary as-randomised analysis, we included 69/108 allocated to the urethroplasty group (63% of those randomised) and 90/112 allocated to the urethrotomy group (81% of those randomised). Of the 39 participants excluded from the urethroplasty group and the 22 excluded from the urethrotomy group, 15 and eight, respectively, had no surgery at all (Supplementary Table 2). Supplementary Table 3 presents baseline characteristics by randomised arm and inclusion or exclusion from the primary analysis status. Participants were similar in most characteristics, although the proportion of participants never using intermittent self-dilatation at baseline was higher for those who provided the primary outcome than for those who did not but balanced across groups. Participants allocated to the urethrotomy arm and excluded from the analysis had a higher PROM score at baseline than those included in the analysis.

3.1. Primary outcome

The PROM profile mean (SD) over 24 mo after randomisation on a scale from 0 (no symptoms) to 24 (worst symptoms) was 7.4 (3.8) in the urethroplasty group and 7.8 (4.2) in the urethrotomy group, with a mean (95% CI) difference of -0.36 (-1.74 to 1.02 ; $p = 0.6$). Sensitivity analysis using multiple imputation (intention-to-treat analysis) resulted in a mean difference of -0.33 (95% CI -1.74 to 1.09 ; $p = 0.6$); the modified intention-to-treat analysis generated a mean difference of -0.52 (95% CI -2.0 to 0.96 ; $p = 0.5$). The estimate of the primary outcome was robust to sensitivity analyses using pattern mixture models for missing data for all but unrealistic, extreme scenarios (Supplemental Fig. 1). There was no evidence of treatment effect heterogeneity by subgroup (Fig. 2).

3.2. Secondary patient-reported outcomes

The impact of urinary symptom profile mean (SD) over 24 mo for the impact of urinary symptoms was 1.1 (0.8) in the urethroplasty group versus 1.0 (0.7) in the urethrotomy

Table 1 – Participant clinical characteristics and reported symptoms at baseline.

Variable	Urethroplasty (N = 108)	Urethrotomy (N = 112)
Age (yr)	49.4 (14.3); 108	48.5 (15.4); 112
Length of stricture (cm)	2.0 (1.4); 67	1.7 (1.1); 63
Duration of disease (yr)	7.3 (9.7); 78	9.9 (11.7); 80
Previous interventions (any type)	1.9 (2.0); 108	1.8 (1.7); 112
Previous dilatation	0.4 (0.8); 80	0.5 (1.8); 83
Previous urethroplasty	0.1 (0.4); 76	0.1 (0.3); 82
Previous urethrotomy	1.6 (1.8); 106	1.4 (1.0); 109
Time since last intervention (mo)		
<12	36 (33.3)	36 (32.1)
≥12	72 (66.7)	76 (67.9)
Predominant site of stricture in bulbar urethra		
Proximal	30 (27.8)	24 (21.4)
Mid	34 (31.5)	41 (36.6)
Distal	17 (15.7)	17 (15.2)
Unknown	6 (5.6)	14 (12.5)
Missing	21 (19.4)	16 (14.3)
Cause of stricture		
Unknown	76 (70.4)	81 (72.3)
Trauma	11 (10.2)	11 (9.8)
Infection	5 (4.6)	6 (5.4)
Other	12 (11.1)	7 (6.3)
Missing	4 (3.7)	7 (6.3)
Use of intermittent self-dilatation		
Never	60 (55.6)	66 (58.9)
Previously	25 (23.1)	31 (27.7)
Currently	23 (21.3)	14 (12.5)
Missing	0 (0)	1 (0.9)
Maximum urinary flow rate (ml/s)	10.0 (6.0); 83	9.7 (5.2); 90
Urethrogram performed	70 (64.8)	62 (55.4)
Urethroscopy performed	34 (31.5)	42 (37.5)
PROM		
Total voiding score mean (SD), 0 (no symptoms) to 24 (symptoms all the time)	13.5 (4.5); 104	13.2 (4.7); 109
Impact of urinary symptoms on daily activities, 0 (none) to 3 (a lot)	2.0 (1.0–3.0); 107	2.0 (1.0–3.0); 110
Satisfaction with sexual function, 1 (very satisfied) to 5 (very dissatisfied)	3.0 (2.0–4.0); 97	3.0 (2.0–4.0); 100

PROM = patient-reported outcome measure; SD = standard deviation.

Data are presented as mean (SD), count or median (p25–p75), and count for continuous variables. Binary and categorical data are presented as frequency (% of randomised).

Table 2 – Clinical and patient-reported outcomes (mean [SD], count or % [n/N] or n as appropriate)^a.

Analysis	Urethroplasty (n = 108)	Urethrotomy (112)	Effect size (95% CI)	p-value
<i>Patient-reported outcomes</i>				
			Mean difference	
Profile void score	7.4 (3.8), 69	7.8 (4.2), 90	-0.36 (-1.74 to 1.02)	0.6
Profile impact of urinary symptoms	1.1 (0.8), 69	1.0 (0.7), 90	0.06 (-0.19 to 0.30)	0.6
Profile satisfaction with sexual function	2.9 (1.2), 63	2.5 (1.2), 87	0.35 (-0.06 to 0.75)	0.090
<i>Clinical outcomes</i>				
Q_{max} improved at 12 or 24 mo from baseline ^b	19% (18/93)	13% (13/104)	2.64 (1.14–6.15)	0.024
			Hazard ratio	
Any recurrence	19	39	0.46 (0.29–0.72)	0.001
Re-intervention	15	29	0.52 (0.31–0.89)	0.017

Q_{max} = maximum urinary flow rate; SD = standard deviation.

^a The effect sizes presented differ by outcome and are all adjusted to minimisation variables; all effect sizes are urethroplasty versus urethrotomy.

^b Improvement defined as an increase in the flow rate of 10 ml/s or more.

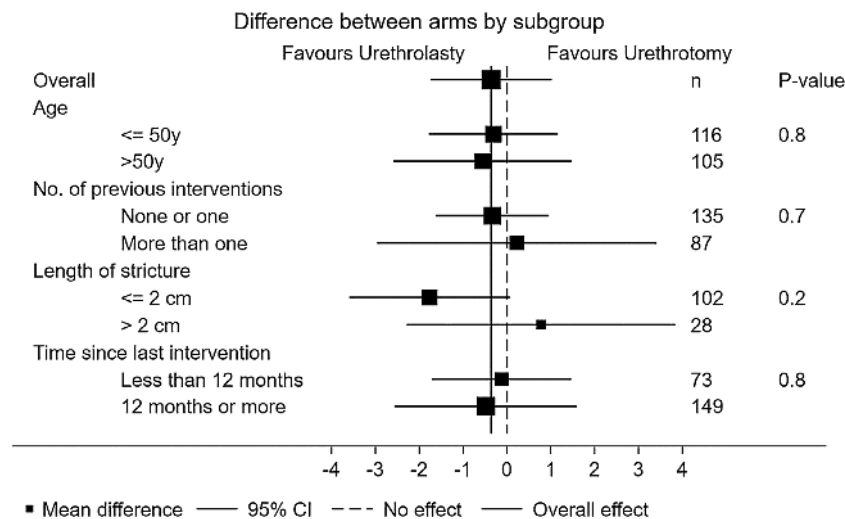


Fig. 2 – Subgroup analyses for the PROM voiding score area under the curve (calculated by including a treatment-by-factor interaction in models). CI = confidence interval; PROM = patient-reported outcome measure.

group. The adjusted mean (95% CI) difference between treatments was 0.06 (-0.19 to 0.30; $p = 0.6$). The satisfaction with sexual function profile mean (SD) over 24 mo was 2.9 (1.2) in the urethroplasty group versus 2.5 (1.2) in the urethrotomy group. The adjusted mean (95% CI) difference between treatments was 0.35 (-0.06 to 0.75; $p = 0.090$).

3.3. Reinterventions and other secondary clinical outcomes

In total, 44 participants had at least one reintervention, and there were 52 reinterventions overall. Between randomisation and end of follow-up (participants were followed up to 4yr), 15 men in the urethroplasty group required a reintervention a median of 474 (interquartile range 399–577) d after initial surgery compared with 29 men allocated to the urethrotomy group requiring a reintervention 308 (211–448) d after surgery. The hazard ratio for time until first reintervention (95% CI) was 0.52 (0.31–0.89; $p = 0.017$), representing a 48% lower risk of reintervention with urethroplasty. Calculation including multiple reinterventions per participant gave a similar hazard ratio (95% CI) of

0.49 (0.30–0.82; $p = 0.006$). A secondary analysis involving only men who underwent the allocated intervention (per protocol) showed a hazard ratio (95% CI) for time to reintervention of 0.28 (0.15–0.55; $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3).

Participants in the urethroplasty group had twice the odds of experiencing an improvement of ≥ 10 ml/s in their maximum flow rate at 3 mo compared with participants in the urethrotomy group (odds ratio, ie, OR [95% CI] 2.1 [1.05, 4.12]; $p = 0.035$). At 12 or 24 mo, the 44 participants in the urethroplasty group had 2.6 times greater odds of experiencing an improvement of ≥ 10 ml/s in their maximum flow rate than the 63 participants in the urethrotomy group (OR [95% CI] 2.6 [1.1–6.1]; $p = 0.024$).

At the end of follow-up, there were 19 recurrences in the urethroplasty group and 39 in the urethrotomy group (hazard ratio [95% CI] 0.46 [0.29–0.72]; $p = 0.001$).

3.4. Adverse events

A total of 88 adverse events were reported during the trial, with 80 participants suffering at least one adverse event.

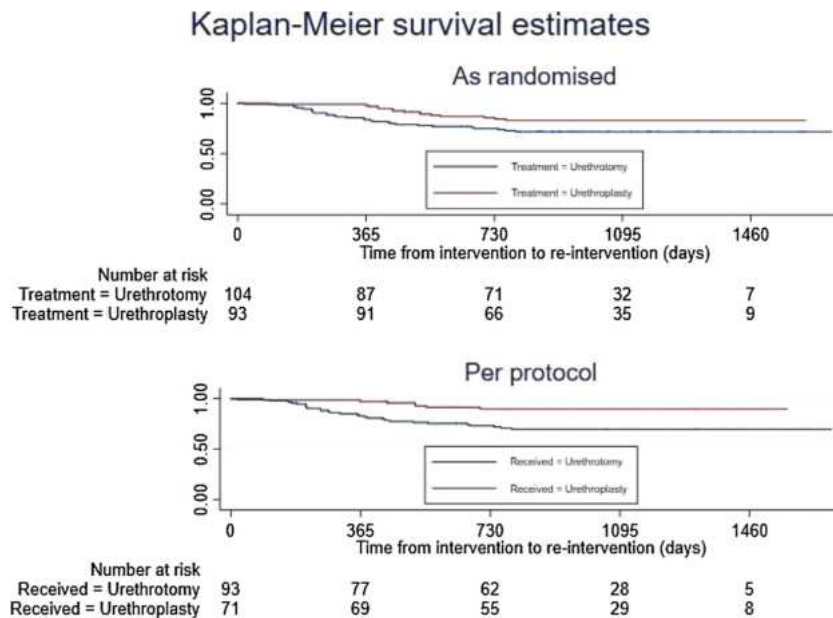


Fig. 3 – Hazard curves for re-intervention by the randomised or the treatment-received group up to 4yr after initial intervention. Analysis of participants who had surgery according to their randomised allocation (as randomised) or men who underwent the procedure allocated at randomisation (per protocol).

Out of them, 43 versus 30 suffered one event, six versus zero suffered two events, and one versus zero suffered three events in the group receiving urethroplasty versus the group receiving urethrotomy (treatment received) during the trial. See [Table 3](#) for more information. A total of 22 SAEs were reported during the trial, with two related to the trial intervention. During the trial, 17 participants were reported to have experienced at least one SAE (seven vs 10 in the group that received urethroplasty vs the group that received urethrotomy): 14 participants suffered one SAE (six vs eight), one participant had two adverse events (zero vs one), and two participants had three adverse events (one vs one; [Table 4](#)).

4. Discussion

The OPEN trial is the first multicentre randomised controlled trial comparing the effectiveness and cost effectiveness (not reported in this paper) of the two choices available for men suffering from the recurrence of bulbar urethral stricture: endoscopic urethrotomy versus urethroplasty. We found that at 24 mo, participants in both groups had similarly improved symptom scores compared with baseline. Clinical outcomes, including time to re-intervention, and urinary flow rate (the most frequently used clinical outcome [10]) favoured urethroplasty on average. These results were homogeneous across different subgroups.

The OPEN trial design followed best practice for surgical trials in a pragmatic setting: participants and clinicians could not be blinded, but central trial staff entering and analysing results were masked where possible. The use of a remote computerised randomisation system ensured allocation concealment. We set the trial in the UK NHS,

recruiting from both specialist and general units. The trial's primary outcome focused on patients' symptoms since men with recurrent stricture are most concerned about their poor and prolonged voiding that threatens urinary retention, a problem that they find distressing and that negatively impacts their lives [13]. A further strength of the study is that both randomised groups were evenly balanced with respect to stricture length, aetiology, number of prior recurrences, and their prior experience of self-dilatation. The outcomes from both arms ought to be representative of a "typical" patient with a recurrent bulbar stricture with similar values to cohorts of men undergoing urethroplasty or urethrotomy in recently published studies.

We faced difficulties in recruiting and retaining participants. This could be due to several reasons. The two treatments are very different in complexity and short-term patient experience; participants will have had treatment failure to enter the trial. Furthermore, we embedded qualitative work and made changes to the design as a result of that [14]. To help improve retention, we provided different communication options, including the option to complete outcome questionnaires online (used by 30% of participants). We used automated alerts to monitor and chase overdue outcome data from participants and sites. Despite these efforts, we could include only 159/220 (72%) participants in the primary analysis: 69 (63%) allocated to urethroplasty and 90 (81%) to urethrotomy. This is a common experience in studies of urethroplasty, with the number of patients attending clinics declining with time. The reasons for the differential drop-out between randomised arms are unknown; however, these could be related to more participants receiving their allocated treatment in the urethrotomy arm or the shorter waiting time for that

Table 3 – Frequency of adverse events by treatment received.

	Urethroplasty (n = 82)	Urethrotomy (n = 115)
No. of adverse events		
0	32 (39.0)	85 (73.9)
1	43 (52.4)	30 (26.1)
2	6 (7.3)	0 (0)
3	1 (1.2)	0 (0)
Adverse events during the perioperative period		
Mouth pain	12 (14.6) ^a	2 (1.7)
Wound infection	4 (4.9)	0 (0)
Bladder “spasm” requiring treatment	2 (2.4)	1 (0.9)
Urinary infection	3 (3.7)	0 (0)
Initial failed trial without catheter	0 (0)	1 (0.9)
Adverse events during the reintervention perioperative period		
Mouth pain	0 (0)	2 (1.7)
Wound infection	0 (0)	1 (0.9)
Urinary infection	0 (0)	2 (1.7)
Urinary retention	0 (0)	1 (0.9)
Constipation	0 (0)	1 (0.9)
Adverse events during follow-up		
Erectile dysfunction	4 (4.9)	3 (2.6)
Mouth pain	4 (4.9)	0 (0)
UTI	5 (6.1)	6 (5.2)
Urinary symptom outcome	7 (8.5) ^b	6 (5.2)
Wound infection	1 (1.2)	1 (0.9)
Wound pain	5 (6.1)	1 (0.9)
Numb testicles	2 (2.4)	0 (0)
Issues related to climax	1 (1.2) ^c	0 (0)
Other ^d	1 (1.2)	3 (2.6)
Erectile dysfunction and wound infection	1 (1.2)	0 (0)
Erectile dysfunction and wound pain	1 (1.2)	0 (0)
Wound infection, UTI, and fistula	1 (1.2)	0 (0)

UTI = urinary tract infection.
^a Two people had two events of mouth pain.
^b One person had two new urinary symptoms.
^c One person had two reports of issues related to climax.
^d Upper respiratory tract infection, swollen ankles, haematuria and dysuria, and falls.

Table 4 – Frequency of serious adverse events by treatment received.

	Urethroplasty (n = 82)	Urethrotomy (n = 115)
No. of serious adverse events		
0	75 (91.5)	105 (91.3)
1	6 (7.3)	8 (7.0)
2	0 (0)	1 (0.9)
3	1 (1.2)	1 (0.9)
Serious adverse events		
Readmission to hospital	0 (0)	2 (1.7) ^a
Diverticular perforation	0 (0)	1 (0.9)
UTI	3 (3.7)	1 (0.9)
Haematuria	1 (1.2)	1 (0.9)
New urinary symptom	1 (1.2)	1 (0.9)
Wound infection	1 (1.2)	1 (0.9)
Wound pain	1 (1.2)	0 (0)
Wound infection and fistula	1 (1.2)	0 (0)
Death	0 (0)	1 (0.9) ^b
Other ^c	1 (1.2)	3 (2.6)

UTI = urinary tract infection.
^a One person had three readmissions to the hospital.
^b Event unrelated to the trial intervention. Death by deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism.
^c Urethral bleeding following a urethrogram, posterior circulation cerebral infarct, left hemianopia, chest pain, and cholecystitis. Two events related to the trial intervention and expected.

intervention. Owing to this observed difference, an additional statistical analysis plan was prepared by the trial team’s statistical experts not involved in the data analysis of the trial. We conducted several sensitivity analyses as a result, including multiple imputation assuming a missing at random mechanism and pattern mixture models assuming missing not at random. The OPEN trial results were robust to all but unrealistic scenarios.

The percentage of SAEs was similar in both the urethroplasty and the urethrotomy groups (10.9% vs 11.3%). Given the increased complexity of urethroplasty, a greater proportion of SAEs in that group would have been expected. However, the SAE rate for urethroplasty is similar to the 30-d complication rate recently reported in the UK national database [15]. One possible explanation is that there were a total of four readmissions following urethrotomy, typically performed as a day case, for bleeding and/or retention.

A systematic literature review including data from trial registries, which was updated just prior to trial completion, did not identify further relevant trials published or in progress to compare with our design and results. However,

clinical guidance suggests that urethroplasty is a better option, but this advice has been based on low-level published evidence and expert opinion so far. Outcomes for participants of our randomised trial were similar to the data from nonrandomised cohorts of patients undergoing urethroplasty or urethrotomy in Europe and the USA. The proportion of recurrences following urethrotomy and the improvement in measured flow rate found in the urethrotomy group was also similar to those found in cohorts of recently published studies [2,16] as well as in a previous randomised controlled trial of internal urethrotomy versus dilation for male urethral stricture disease [17].

5. Conclusions

Our study will help clinicians worldwide provide more accurate information on the comparative benefit of urethroplasty and urethrotomy for their male patients with recurrent bulbar urethral stricture. Our study shows that either procedure is likely to improve symptoms from baseline without risking significant harms, and therefore both should be available. The duration of this benefit is longer with urethroplasty. Patients, informed by their clinician, will need to balance these factors in the light of their individual circumstances, values, and preferences to decide which procedure to undergo. It appears that urologists are discouraged from referring men to urethroplasty if it will mean a travelling time of longer than 45 min for the patient [18]. In order to implement urethroplasty successfully in health care systems, there is a need for robust clinical pathways that ensure specialist services with sufficient resources in terms of theatre time and ongoing specialist surgeon availability. It is likely that this

will have implications for training needs within the urology speciality.

Author contributions: Luke Vale had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Pickard, Vale, MacLennan, Norrie, Cook, McColl, Watkin.

Acquisition of data: Carnell, Forbes, Curren, Wilkinson, Pickard, Watkin, MacLennan, Vale, Norrie, McColl, Whybrow, Rapley.

Analysis and interpretation of data: All authors.

Drafting of the manuscript: Goulao, Pickard.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: All authors.

Statistical analysis: Goulao, MacLennan, Vale, Breckons, Shen.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.06.003>.

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Platinum Priority – Editorial

Referring to the article published on pp. 572–580 of this issue

Is Urethrotomy as Good as Urethroplasty in Men with Recurrent Bulbar Urethral Strictures?

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Direct-vision internal urethrotomy (DVIU) and urethral dilatation (UD) have traditionally been considered as first-line treatments for primary bulbar urethral strictures in men. A randomised clinical study demonstrated no significant difference in recurrence between the two as treatments for anterior urethral strictures, with one-third of men having had prior treatment. The recurrence rate at 12 mo was approximately 40% for strictures <2 cm, 50% for strictures of 2–4 cm, and 80% for strictures >4 cm. The recurrence rate for strictures of 2–4 cm increased to 75% at 48 mo. For each 1-cm increase in length of the stricture, the risk of recurrence increased by 1.22 [1].

In recurrent urethral strictures, repeat DVIU and UD are considered to have poor outcomes unless combined with intermittent self-dilatation (ISD). Supportive evidence for this (not considering stricture length or site) is that the recurrence rate after a second DVIU/UD for a stricture recurring by 3 mo was 50–70% at 24 mo and 60–100% at 48 mo [2]. After a third DVIU/UD, the recurrence rate at 24 mo was 100% [2]. Thus, conventional wisdom has been that after a second DVIU/UD, further minimally invasive interventions are palliative. This is reflected in the International Consultation on Urological Disease guidelines, which recommend that men with bulbar strictures that recur within 6 mo or have failed to respond to a second DVIU/UD should be offered urethroplasty [3].

In this issue of *European Urology*, Goulao et al [4] report results from the OPEN trial. This is the first multicentre randomised controlled trial comparing DVIU directly with urethroplasty in men with a recurrent bulbar stricture. The primary as-randomised analysis included 69 (63%) and 90 (81%) of those allocated to urethroplasty and DVIU, respectively. While at 24-mo follow-up, both groups had

a similar improvement in the primary outcome of voiding symptom score, men undergoing DVIU were twice as likely to undergo reintervention as men undergoing urethroplasty (29 vs 15; hazard ratio 0.52, 95% confidence interval 0.31–0.89). Other secondary outcomes of time to reintervention and change in maximal flow rate favoured urethroplasty on average, with similar results homogeneous across different subgroups [4]. This pragmatic study is an excellent attempt to establish the relative efficacy of DVIU and urethroplasty in real clinical practice.

Several aspects of the study design are worthy of discussion. Recruitment was problematic, with only 222 out of 853 eligible patients randomised. Of those not randomised, 306 declined, attributable to a preference for urethroplasty in 60% (Supplementary Table 1 [4]). This is understandable given that many patients who have had a failed prior intervention would be reluctant to be included in a study that has a 50% chance of randomisation to the same intervention. Indeed, the majority of patients had undergone more than one prior DVIU, with a median number (standard deviation) of 1.8 (1.7) and 1.9 (2.0) for the DVIU and urethroplasty groups, respectively. It is not clear whether those declining to take part had more difficult strictures. Retaining patients was also challenging, such that overall only 72% could be included in the primary analysis, with 81% and 63% in the urethrotomy and urethroplasty groups, respectively. The authors have attempted to address this issue in the statistical analysis.

DVIU is a routine and commonly performed procedure, in contrast to urethroplasty. Although a volume-outcome relationship is yet to be described for urethroplasty, surgeon experience and cases performed per centre are likely to be important factors. These data are not presented. The type of

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procedure performed is also relevant, as it is recognised that recurrence is higher for augmentation compared to anastomotic urethroplasty. In the urethroplasty arm, 16.6% and 48.5% of procedures were anastomotic and augmentation, respectively (Supplementary Table 2 [4]). A further factor that may influence outcome is stricture length, which was relatively short in both groups (DVIU 1.7 cm, urethroplasty 2.0 cm) but not significantly different. Bulbar stricture lengths reported in the literature are in general longer [5], so shorter stricture length may have biased DVIU in comparisons of efficacy.

Most postoperative complications of urethroplasty are infection-related. A low postoperative infection rate of 8.6% was reported for the urethroplasty group (wound infection 4.9%, urinary infection 3.7%). This is similar to contemporary real-world data from the British Association of Urological Surgeons audit of 957 bulbar urethroplasties (40 surgeons, 35 centres), for which the 30-d complication rate was 5.9% [6]. At face value this suggests that the case mix in the study is representative of real clinical practice and that surgeon experience and volume were not skewed towards highly specialised surgeons operating in high-volume centres.

How best to assess outcomes has been a point of much discussion in urethral surgery. Most clinical series have focused on the “need for further intervention” to define success or failure and have ignored symptoms. The authors should be commended for focusing on patients’ symptoms in the primary outcome and using a validated patient-reported outcome measure [7]. Nevertheless, it is inevitable that surgeons will be drawn to “harder” measures such as re-intervention rates or anatomic recurrence as the metrics most helpful to informing their clinical practice.

Although the study did not report anatomic recurrence, it did report reintervention. In the per-protocol analysis, 15/71 (21.1%) men had a reintervention after urethroplasty compared to 29/93 (31.2%) after DVIU. In the as-randomised analysis, 15/93 (16.1%) men post urethroplasty had a reintervention compared to 29/104 (27.9%) after DVIU. At face value, this challenges some of the long-standing assumptions held about how much better urethroplasty is than DVIU/UD for recurrent bulbar stricture.

It is important to discuss what constitutes a reintervention as there is some inconsistency in the literature. Some consider it as a further urethroplasty, while others set the bar lower at a further DVIU/UD. Still others, including us, are stricter considering the need to perform ISD as reintervention. We hold this view, as for many of our patients avoiding the need to perform lifelong ISD is one of the main reasons they choose urethroplasty over repeat DVIU/UD. Thus, we consider it to be an outcome important to patients. The study definition of further intervention did not include ISD and it is not clear what proportion of patients needed to perform long-term ISD in each group. We can see that no patients randomised to and receiving urethroplasty

commenced a regimen of ISD; the data for those randomised to and receiving DVIU are not provided (Supplementary Table 2 [4]).

It is well recognised that the most accurate means of follow-up for patients after stricture surgery is direct visualisation using endoscopy or urethrography [8]. Both symptomatic improvement and flow rate can be misleading in terms of whether a stricture has recurred, as the flow rate with a normally functioning bladder does not diminish until the calibre of the urethra falls below 11Fr [9]. The absence of an anatomic outcome is a potential criticism of the study but is reflective of the pragmatism in the design and the emphasis on patient-reported measures.

The OPEN trial is the first study to provide high-quality evidence to support the recommendation that urethroplasty is the most effective treatment for recurrent bulbar strictures in contemporary practice. Despite the limitations, the authors should be congratulated on constructing and executing such an ambitious study. In particular, we would like to pay tribute to the late Professor Robert Pickard for his major contributions to this study and the advancement of evidence-based reconstructive urology.

Conflicts of interest: Neither of the authors has any relevant conflicts of interest to disclose apart from the fact that they agreed to participate in the OPEN study, but all patients declined participation as they had all had a prior intervention and were not prepared to undergo a further DVIU.

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Surgery in Motion

Contemporary Techniques of Prostate Dissection for Robot-assisted Prostatectomy

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www.europeanurology.com and
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accompanying video.

Abstract

Background: Over the years, several techniques for performing robot-assisted prostatectomy have been implemented in an effort to achieve optimal oncological and functional outcomes.

Objective: To provide an evidence-based description and video-based illustration of currently available dissection techniques for robotic prostatectomy.

Design, setting, and participants: A literature search was performed to retrieve articles describing different surgical approaches and techniques for robot-assisted radical prostatectomy (RARP) and to analyze data supporting their use. Video material was provided by experts in the field to illustrate these approaches and techniques.

Surgical procedure: Multiple surgical approaches are available: extraperitoneal, transvesical, transperitoneal posterior, transperitoneal anterior, Retzius sparing, and transperineal. Surgical techniques for prostatic dissection *sensu strictu* are the following: omission of the endopelvic fascia dissection, bladder neck preservation, incremental nerve sparing by means of an antegrade or retrograde approach, and preservation of the puboprostatic ligaments and dorsal venous complex. Recently, techniques for partial prostatectomy, as either anterior or Menon precision prostatectomy, have been described.

Measurements: Different surgical approaches and techniques for RARP have been analyzed.

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Results and limitations: Two randomized controlled trials evaluating the extraperitoneal versus the transperitoneal approach have demonstrated similar results. Level I evidence on the Retzius-sparing approach demonstrated earlier return to continence than the traditional anterior approach. The question whether Retzius-sparing RARP is associated with a higher rate of positive surgical margins is still open due to the intrinsic bias in terms of surgical expertise in the available comparative studies. This technique also offers an advantage in patients who have received kidney transplantation. Retrospective evidence seems to suggest that the more the anatomical dissection (eg., more periprostatic tissue is preserved), the better the functional outcome in terms of continence, but two randomized controlled trials evaluating the different techniques of dissection have so far been produced. Partial prostatectomies should not be offered outside clinical trials.

Conclusions: Several techniques and approaches are available for prostate dissection during RARP. While the Retzius-sparing approach seems to provide earlier return to continence than the traditional anterior transperitoneal approach, no technique has been proved to be superior to other(s) in terms of long-term outcomes.

Patient summary: We have summarized available approaches for the surgical treatment of prostate cancer. Specifically, we described the different techniques that can be adopted for the surgical removal of the prostate using robotic technology.

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1. Introduction

Anatomical studies performed during the 1970s and early 1980s have set the foundations to the current knowledge of the periprostatic anatomy [1,2]. Since then, several major and minor modifications have been proposed in an effort to respect the periprostatic anatomy as much as possible during the dissection phase of radical prostatectomy (RP) [3–19].

Almost 3 decades after the studies that changed the RP field, the introduction of robots led us to achieve a further level of precision during surgery. In fact, thanks to the magnification and the millimetric robotic instruments, more detailed understanding of the periprostatic anatomy has been achieved [20,21]. This ultimately translated into a more anatomical approach and a higher level of tissue preservation during prostatectomy.

Although multiple techniques for robot-assisted RP (RARP) have been described over the years, the extraperitoneal and the transperitoneal approach remained the two main approaches. During the dissection phase of prostatectomy, the main implementations have been omission of the endopelvic fascia dissection, incremental nerve sparing (by means of an antegrade or a retrograde approach), and preservation of the puboprostatic ligaments [3–17]. Additionally, thanks to the implementation of multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) in the diagnostic and staging prostate cancer pathways, techniques for partial prostatectomy have also been described [18–20].

Vis et al [22] have recently summarized the available evidence and techniques on posterior, anterior, and periurethral reconstruction after prostatectomy in an effort to provide with a better understanding of the pelvic floor anatomy, also allowing for better training of future generation of urologists. The aim of the present study is to focus on the dissection phase of prostatectomy, describing the surgical techniques and summarizing the current evidence supporting their implementation.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Selection of surgical approaches

By means of a review of the literature, relevant articles on currently used surgical techniques have been identified. Articles published in English peer-reviewed literature were selected (2000 through May 2020), based on the presence of a detailed anatomical description of the technique. Each author provided his/her opinion regarding the summary of the current evidence. Video clips included in this study were provided by experts in the field.

2.2. Surgical approaches for RARP

2.2.1. Extraperitoneal

In the extraperitoneal approach, the space between the rectus abdominis and the posterior sheet of the muscle is developed by means of a dilating balloon. The ports are placed in the extraperitoneal space, and the space of Retzius is developed further. The subsequent steps follow those of the transperitoneal anterior approach [3].

2.2.2. Transvesical

The transvesical approach can be performed in an extraperitoneal fashion if the ports are placed directly inside the urinary bladder, and the procedure is initiated under pneumovesicum, or in a transperitoneal fashion, where the bladder is incised and the procedure performed transvesically [19]. After bladder neck (BN) excision (Fig. 1), the procedure is carried out similarly to the transperitoneal anterior technique [4,23].

2.2.3. Transperitoneal posterior

In the transperitoneal prostatectomy, the ports are placed in the peritoneal cavity.

The original approach for laparoscopic prostatectomy entailed a posterior retrovesical approach to the vasa

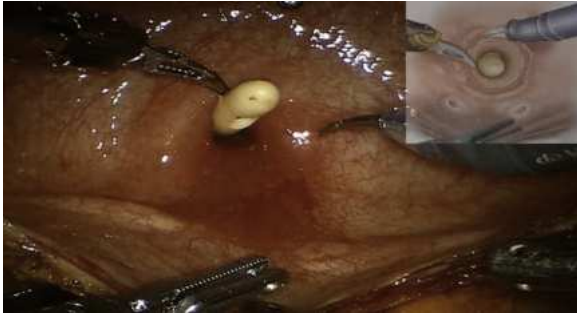


Fig. 1 – Circumferential bladder neck dissection during transvesical prostatectomy.

deferentia and seminal vesicles, continuing the dissection anteriorly [5]. This approach has been the cornerstone for robotic prostatectomy and still represents a widely used technique.

After the perineotomy at the lower peritoneal fold, the vasa deferentia are identified and transected, the seminal vesicles are carefully dissected free, and the prostatic base is identified. At this point, the Denonvilliers fascia is incised and the prostatic base is dissected posteriorly until the apex of the prostate is seen. After having completed these steps, the dissection moves anteriorly.

Following incision of the parietal peritoneum, the bladder is released. The space of Retzius is developed, and the fatty tissue surrounding the prostate is cleared. The BN can be either preserved or sacrificed (Fig. 2A and 2B, respectively). In the latter, the anterior wall of the bladder is incised and the BN sacrificed.

At this point, since the Denonvilliers fascia has already been incised, the prostate is dissected on its posterolateral aspects and the dissection then moves to the apex and, after having controlled the prostatic pedicles and the dorsal venous complex (DVC), the urethra is transected.

2.2.4. Transperitoneal anterior

This approach begins with the incision of the parietal peritoneum lateral to the lateral umbilical ligaments. The bladder is released and the space of Retzius developed. The BN is either preserved or sacrificed, and the dissection moves posteriorly. The retrotrigonal space is developed until the seminal vesicles and the vasa deferentia are identified. The vasa deferentia are transected and their distal part used for lifting the prostate (Fig. 3). This facilitates the isolation and dissection of the seminal vesicles. The Denonvilliers fascia is then incised. After this step, the procedure follows the same steps as those of the transperitoneal posterior prostatectomy [6,7].

2.2.5. Transperitoneal lateral

In the lateral approach, the peritoneum is incised solely lateral to the right umbilical ligament. The space is developed caudally until the pubic bone is reached. At this point, the right prostate vesical angle is identified. The dissection of the prostate begins at the right base, the right neurovascular bundle (NVB) is pushed laterally, and the

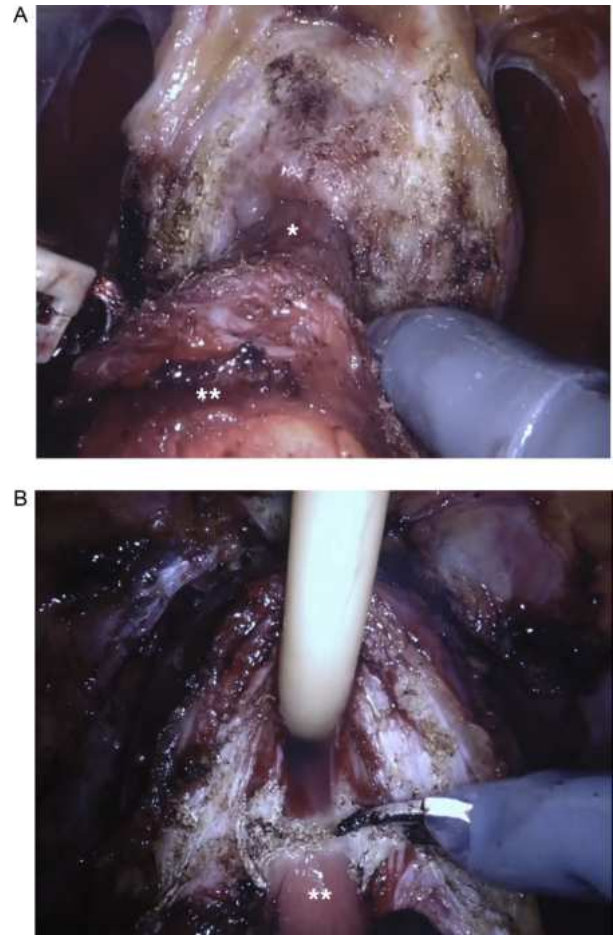


Fig. 2 – Bladder neck dissection: (A) preservation of the muscle fibers (*), (B) section of the bladder neck after a direct access into the bladder ().**

right hemigland is dissected free without resecting the DVC and the detrusor apron. The prostatic dissection continues on the base through left side after careful dissection of the seminal vesicles. The dissection of the left hemigland is performed without developing the space of Retzius on the left side, allowing for the preservation of the detrusor apron, DVC, and puboprostatic ligaments (please see section 2.3.4).

2.2.6. Transperitoneal Retzius-sparing RARP

The preservation of the space of Retzius (or Bocciardi approach) during RARP was first described in 2010. The anatomic rationale of this technique stems from the preservation of the anterior structures involved in continence and potency preservation, such as pubovesical ligaments, puboprostatic fascia, NVBs, accessory pudendal artery, and the DVC. This approach encompasses incising the parietal peritoneum at the anterior surface of the vesicorectal pouch, at the level of the seminal vesicles (Fig. 4). After having dissected the vasa deferentia and the seminal vesicles, and retracted them by means of two sutures placed transabdominally, dissection of the prostate is carried out in an antegrade fashion. The Denonvilliers fascia is separated by the posterolateral surface of the



Fig. 3 – Incision of the peritoneum for the Retzius-sparing approach.

prostate, and the prostatic apex is reached. Intrafascial anterograde nerve sparing is performed when oncologically safe. Conversely, in case of more advanced disease, an interfascial or extrafascial antegrade dissection is performed. Thereafter, the surgeon goes back to identify the vesicoprostatic plane and dissect the BN. To easily identify the BN orifices during the first steps of the anastomosis, two short stitches can be placed at 6 and 12 o'clock positions. The anterior surface of the prostate is then dissected in an antegrade fashion, without incising the Santorini plexus. The section of the urethra completes the prostatic dissection [8].

2.2.7. Transperineal

The transperineal approach was the first approach to be described for RP in 1905 by Young [9]. Over the past few years, this technique has gained attention again, especially thanks to the introduction of the Da Vinci SP robot. Access to



Fig. 4 – The transected vas is used to lift the prostate and seminal vesicles (SVs) during the transperitoneal anterior approach. The SVs are lifted and this movement medializes the SVs in order to facilitate their dissection. The right SV (**) is gently lateralized in order to access the medial avascular plane (*).

the prostatic fossa by means of the transperineal approach is slightly more difficult than by the transabdominal approach. After having performed a transversal incision in the perineum on a semicircumferential line connecting the ischial tuberosity, the rectourethralis muscle is divided, the external urethral sphincter is retracted, and the pubococcygeus branches of the levator ani are divided. The robot is then docked, and the prostate is identified. The Denonvilliers fascia is dissected, and the prostate is freed toward the vasa deferentia and seminal vesicles (Fig. 5A). The dissection then moves laterally and the NVBs are dissected. The apical dissection is then performed, and the anterior prostatic dissection in a caudocranial fashion finally completes the operation (Fig. 5B) [10,24].

2.3. Prostatic dissection sensu strictu

2.3.1. Endopelvic fascia

After having released the bladder, the endopelvic fascia is generally incised and the prostate is then released anterolaterally [6]. The resulting increased prostatic mobility might help in the dissection of the NVBs, given the possibility of applying more countertraction on the prostate. The endopelvic fascia can be preserved, but this might result in lower prostatic mobility and might render the prostatic dissection more difficult in case of larger prostates [7].

2.3.2. Bladder neck

After having identified the prostate-vesical junction and having developed this plane, the BN can be identified in the midline and its muscle fibers can be preserved, after a gentle dissection. In case a non-BN-sparing surgery is carried out, the bladder is incised by means of cautery and the BN is circumferentially excised.

2.3.3. Neurovascular bundles

Two techniques are available for the dissection and NVB preservation: antegrade or retrograde [11,12].

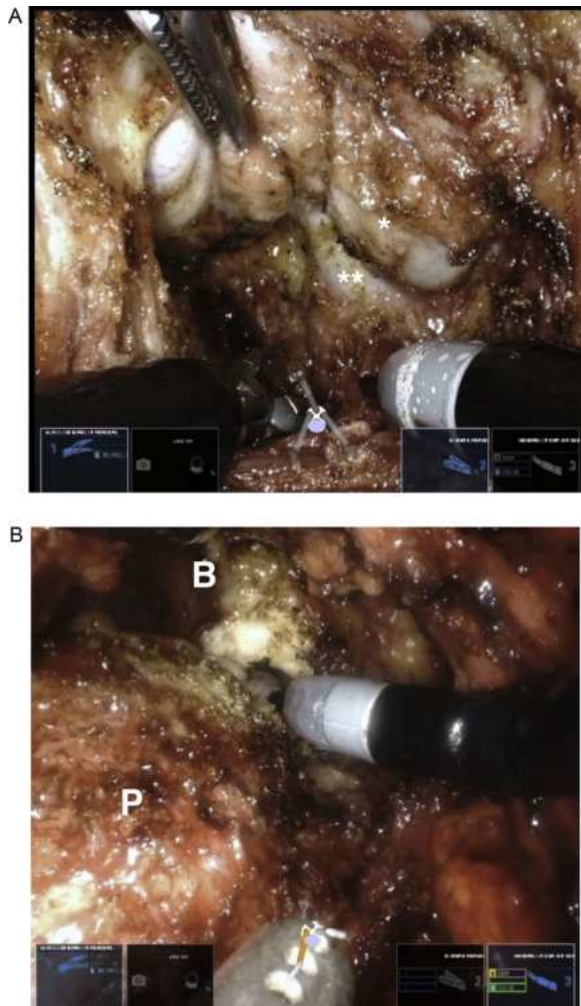


Fig. 5 – (A) Development of the posterior plate in a caudocranial fashion during the transperineal prostatectomy, and identification of the right seminal vesicle (*) and vas right deferens (**). **(B)** Bladder neck sectioning, in a caudocranial fashion, completes the operation. B=bladder; P=prostate.

After the seminal vesicle release and vasa deferentia transection, the prostate is lifted, and the Denonvilliers fascia is identified and incised using sharp dissection. The prostate is dissected posteriorly from the Denonvilliers fascia. The dissection then moves posterolaterally until the NVB becomes evident. After having completed this step, the subsequent one entails releasing the NVB from the posterolateral prostatic surface. During an antegrade dissection, the triangle between the pedicle and the prostatic pseudocapsule at the base is identified after gentle traction on the bundle and prostate counter traction. Once the desired plane for NS is identified, the dissection is carried out proceeding anteromedially toward the prostatic apex (Fig. 6A) [11].

The retrograde approach encompasses peeling of the lateral prostatic fascia (LPF) from the prostatic pseudocapsule. A gentle dissection of the LPF at the level of the mid-prostate is carried out in order to avoid a pseudocapsule breach. If present, one of the landmarks in this step can be

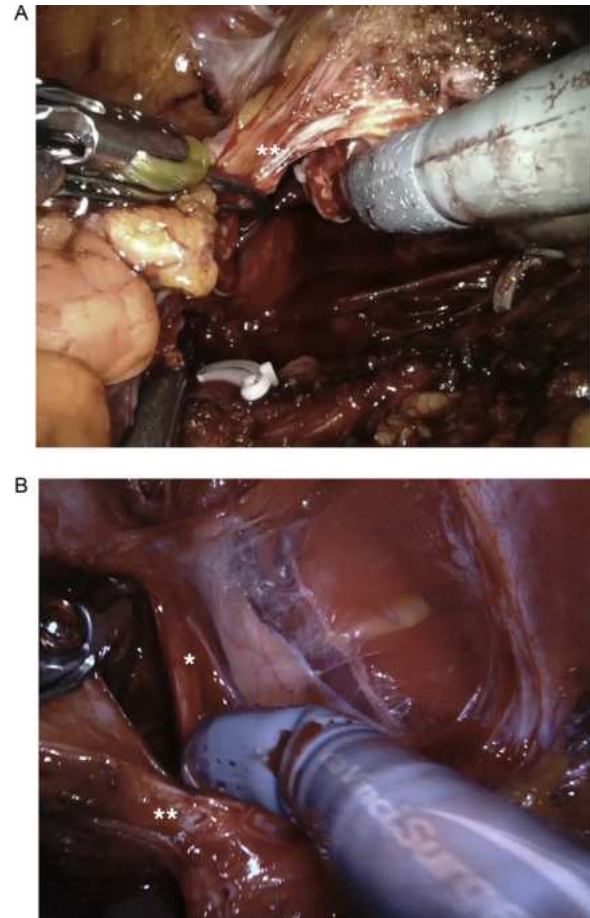


Fig. 6 – (A) Antegrade nerve sparing: the prostatic pedicle (**) is identified and dissected; the dissection continues in an antegrade fashion. **(B)** Retrograde nerve sparing: the neurovascular bundle (*) is identified and dissected toward the prostatic pedicle (**) in a retrograde fashion; at this point, the pedicle is sectioned.

the prostatic artery that can help in delineating the NVB course in a retrograde manner until the prostatic pedicle is encountered [14]. Once the desired plane is identified, the dissection proceeds caudally so that the space created during the posterior dissection is identified, and the bundle at this point is free. Dissection of the bundle proceeds toward the pedicle in a retrograde fashion (Fig. 6B). The pedicle is identified at its entry on the posterolateral angle of the base of the prostate, clipped, and dissected [13].

Regarding the degree of preservation of the NVB, this can be preserved in toto (intrafascial dissection) or partly (interfascial dissection), or dissected completely (extrafascial dissection) [25]. Tewari et al [26] have described a graded approach for NVB preservation, where grade 1 corresponds to a complete intrafascial dissection and grade 4 to an extrafascial dissection. Grades 2 correspond to an interfascial dissection that is carried out by sectioning the venous plane of the bundle in the former case and along the adipose tissue of the bundle in the latter case.

Schatloff et al [12] have also described a graded approach for NVB preservation, which consists of a five inverse-graded scale, with grade 1 corresponding to the extrafascial

dissection. They used the “landmark artery” that runs on the lateral border of the prostate as a reference point for dissection. Grade 5 corresponds to a complete intrafascial dissection, grades 4 and 3 to a dissection immediately medial and that immediately lateral to the landmark artery, respectively. Grade 2 represents a dissection lateral to the artery in the adipose tissue with embedded vessels.

2.3.4. DVC and puboprostatic ligaments

When dissecting the anterior side of the prostate, a plane can be developed between the anterior fibromuscular stroma and the detrusor apron [14]. This dissection technique allows for complete preservation of the structures lying anteriorly to the prostate, also known as the pubovesical complex [15].

2.3.5. Apical dissection

The dissection of the prostatic apex can be carried out with a sharp and direct division of the membranous urethra at the level of the urethroprostatic junction. Alternatively, it can be performed by progressively dissecting the three different muscular layers at the level of the urethral sphincter complex (rhabdosphincter, circular smooth muscle, longitudinal smooth muscle, and mucosa), as described in the “collar” technique. During this phase, rotation of the prostate helps with the dissection and delineation of the apex laterally and posteriorly [27].

2.4. Novel techniques for robot-assisted partial and total prostatectomy

2.4.1. Anterior prostatectomy

Villers et al [16,17] have described the anterior partial prostatectomy for patients with organ-confined disease, grade group ≤ 3 , and a tumor in the anterior prostate. The technique entails the dissection of the BN, transition zone and anterior fibromuscular stroma along with the preservation of the posterolateral aspect of the submontanal urethra, peripheral zone, and periprostatic tissues. At the end of the dissection, the anterior part of the bladder that had initially been sectioned is sutured to the anterior urethra.

2.4.2. Menon precision prostatectomy

The Menon precision prostatectomy (MPP) technique consists in the dissection of the prostate leaving 1–2 mm of glandular tissue posterolaterally, along the course of the NVB for patients with unilateral organ-confined disease with grade group ≤ 3 and prostate-specific antigen (PSA) ≤ 15 ng/ml at the time of diagnosis [18]. All the other steps mirror those of anterior prostatectomy.

2.4.3. Robotic total prostatectomy

Robotic total prostatectomy (RTP) has recently been described for patients who meet the eligibility criteria for active surveillance and have severely enlarged glands resulting in lower urinary tract symptoms refractory to medical therapy. The RTP entails a dissection between the posterior surface of the prostate and the pseudocapsule.

This allows removal of all the three prostatic zones (central, transitional, and peripheral). By avoiding dissection below the pseudocapsule, the seminal vesicles, ampulla of vasa deferentia, and NVBs are preserved completely [28].

3. Results

3.1. Surgical approach

Few randomized controlled trials (RCTs) have been produced over the years, and the vast majority of the published studies regarding surgical techniques are represented by retrospective evidence.

Two RCTs have evaluated the extraperitoneal versus the transperitoneal approach [29,30]. Both trials, even if limited by their small sample size, demonstrated similar outcomes of the two approaches, with one showing reduced time to solid diet when the extraperitoneal approach was chosen [30]. The extraperitoneal approach has the advantage of not violating the peritoneal cavity. Disadvantages include slightly longer time for port placement than the transperitoneal approach and a narrower operative space that might represent a limitation for performing extended pelvic lymph node dissection.

The only level I evidence currently available concerning the superiority of a technique over another is an RCT by Dalela et al [31] demonstrating an earlier return to continence with the Retzius-sparing RARP (RS-RARP) technique than with the anterior approach. Overall, this difference in terms of continence recovery (zero to one security pad per day) was annihilated at the 12-mo follow-up. Yet, if the definition of continence was restricted to zero pads per day, a statistically significant difference in favor of RS-RARP was still observed at the 12-mo follow-up. Noteworthy, this pivotal study had the intrinsic bias that the operating surgeon had greater experience with the anterior approach and, despite that, the RS technique emerged as the technique associated with an earlier return to continence recovery [31,32]. Another advantage of the Retzius-sparing technique is observed when performing RP in patients after kidney transplant [33].

Concerning the other techniques, no level I evidence is available demonstrating the superiority of one over another, and each technique is generally used in accordance with the surgeon's preferences.

Few studies have reported experience with a transvesical approach. Recently, Zhou et al [19] reported encouraging data in a series of 35 patients. One potential advantage of this technique is that urologists are generally well acquainted with this approach, which mirrors partial prostatectomy [4]. In addition, this has the advantage of sparing the Retzius space, and it makes it easier to deal with larger prostate with respect to the Boccardi approach. A potential drawback of this technique could be theoretically represented by a higher chance of acute urinary retention for intravesical clot formation. Further data on this approach are needed to better evaluate its role in preservation.

The transperineal approach for RARP has recently gained attention again due to the advent of the SP Da Vinci robotic platform, and the first experience has recently been reported [10].

3.2. Techniques for prostatic dissection

No RCTs aimed at evaluating differences in the prostatic dissection itself during RARP have been produced. In a subgroup analysis of an RCT evaluating the preservation of the BN versus no preservation including patients treated with open and RARP, the preservation of the BN provided earlier return to continence [34].

Retrospective evidence seems to suggest that preservation of the endopelvic fascia, as well as the DVC and puboprostatic ligaments, might aid in earlier return to continence [15,35]. Concerning the degree of NVB preservation, there is presently no consensus on the system that should be used [20].

Concerning apical dissection, adoption of the “collar” technique seems to help in reducing apical positive surgical margins [27].

3.3. Partial prostatectomy

Both the MPP and the anterior partial prostatectomy seem to be promising procedures. Currently, none represents the standard of care, given the absence of RCTs evaluating the oncological outcomes of these procedures with respect to RP. The major drawback of the MPP is that PSA invariably persists after the procedure and a definition of “response” will have to be defined. However, an RCT is currently ongoing evaluating MPP versus RP.

3.4. Summary of evidence

Table 1 summarizes the current evidence regarding the techniques for robotic prostatectomy. Concerning RP, there is level I evidence showing earlier return to continence with the Retzius-sparing approach. This approach also offers an advantage for performing RARP in patients who have received kidney transplantation. Regarding the dissection phase of the prostatectomy, there is a lack of prospective studies evaluating the role of the techniques for dissection during prostatectomy.

Given the lack of prospective comparative evidence, partial prostatectomies should not be offered outside clinical trials.

4. Discussion

In this review, we summarized the current evidence concerning the approaches and techniques for robotic prostatectomy and briefly described the surgical techniques. Presently, there is still a lack of level I evidence in many subfields of robotic prostatectomy. In accordance with the available evidence and retrospective studies, a summary of evidence as well as authors’ recommendations is provided.

Several approaches and techniques are available for performing RARP. Evidence seems to suggest that RS-RARP allows for faster continence recovery without increasing the risk of complications [31,32]. Presently, the major concern of the RS approach is the rate of positive surgical margins relative to the standard approach, especially in case of tumors that are located or have invaded the anterior fibromuscular stroma [36,37]. This difference might be related to the learning curve of RS-RARP. Indeed, all included studies relied on surgeons with extensive expertise with standard RARP and only limited experience for RS-RARP [36]. However, the largest comparative retrospective study suggested that the rate of positive surgical margins of RS-RARP versus standard RARP is comparable [38]. Despite that, the question whether RS-RARP is associated with a higher rate of positive surgical margins is still open. Future RCTs relying on surgeons with the same baseline expertise for both approaches are needed to solve this dilemma. Concerning the various techniques for the dissection of the prostate, no RCT is available, and retrospective evidence seems to suggest that the more the preservation of anatomical structures, the better the outcomes. However, studies aimed at evaluating the role of each technique in the long term are currently lacking. Additionally, there is a lack of uniformity when interpreting studies, since not all consider patients with complete dryness as continent and some of them still include patients using one pad among continent individuals.

The transvesical approach might seem to be a reasonable option to “anteriorly” spare the Retzius space, and

Table 1 – Summary of the available evidence regarding surgical approaches and techniques

	Summary of evidence	Level of evidence
Surgical approach for RARP	The Retzius-sparing approach results in earlier return to continence with respect to the anterior approach	Level I
	The Retzius-sparing approach should be performed in patients after kidney transplantation	Authors’ opinion
Prostatic dissection	Retrospective evidence suggests that the more the preservation of periprostatic structures, the better the functional outcomes	Level IV
	In case of anterior tumor, the pubovesical complex should not be preserved	Authors’ opinion
Partial prostatectomy	Partial prostatectomies should not be offered outside clinical trials	Authors’ opinion
Total prostatectomy	Total prostatectomies should not be offered outside clinical trials	Authors’ opinion
RARP = robot-assisted radical prostatectomy.		

urologists are generally familiar with this technique since many steps are similar to those of the simple prostatectomy. Yet, further studies are needed to assess its effectiveness, learning curve, and outcomes in the long term.

Encouraging results have also been reported recently for the transperineal approach. This technique has the potential to further decrease hospital stay and the need for postoperative pain therapy [39]. However, transitioning from an abdominal approach to the transperineal would likely require some learning curve, and studies are needed to demonstrate the oncological safety of this approach in case of advanced disease, when a wider dissection is required.

Thanks to the advances in the mpMRI field, a partial resection of the prostate can be planned in selected candidates [16,18]. Regarding the partial prostatectomy techniques, functional outcomes are expected to be good in selected patients. Potentially, in addition to RCTs, a novel definition of PSA response after the procedure would likely be required in an effort to assess the oncological success of the procedure.

Indeed, we want to emphasize that the best technique is the one that is tailored to patient's anatomy and takes into consideration the tumor stage and grade. In a holistic approach, the best outcomes are achieved by integrating an optimal preoperative plan into an excellent dissection and reconstruction strategy or into a postoperative strategy. Interestingly, despite that different approaches and techniques might result in an earlier return to continence, differences in the functional outcomes seem to be annihilated over a long-term period. This is in keeping with Vis et al [22] who report similar continence rates at the 12-mo assessment despite different reconstruction techniques.

5. Conclusions

Herein, we provide a video-based description of contemporary approaches and dissection techniques for RARP. While evidence supporting the use of one over the others remains limited, the RS-RARP approach seems to be superior in terms of early return to continence. Partial prostatectomy should still be considered investigational. Ultimately, surgeon's preference and expertise remain the key for the adoption of one technique over the others.

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Study concept and design: Martini, Hemal.

Acquisition of data: None.

Analysis and interpretation of data: None.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.07.017>.

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Surgery in Motion

Robot-assisted Cavectomy Versus Thrombectomy for Level II Inferior Vena Cava Thrombus: Decision-making Scheme and Multi-institutional Analysis

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Abstract

Background: Robot-assisted thrombectomy (RAT) for inferior vena cava (IVC) thrombus (RAT-IVCT) is being increasingly reported. However, the techniques and indications for robot-assisted cavectomy (RAC) for IVC thrombus are not well described.

Objective: To develop a decision-making program and analyze multi-institutional outcomes of RAC-IVCT versus RAT-IVCT.

Design, setting, and participants: Ninety patients with renal cell carcinoma (RCC) with level II IVCT were included from eight Chinese urological centers, and underwent RAC-IVCT (30 patients) or RAT-IVCT (60 patients) from June 2013 to January 2019.

Surgical procedure: The surgical strategy was based on IVCT imaging characteristics. RAT-IVCT was performed with standardized cavotomy, thrombectomy, and IVC reconstruction. RAC-IVCT was mainly performed in patients with extensive IVC wall invasion when the collateral blood vessels were well-established. For right-sided RCC, the IVC from the infrarenal vein to the infrahepatic veins was stapled. For left-sided RCC, the IVC from the suprarenal vein to the infrahepatic veins was removed and caudal IVC reconstruction was performed to ensure the right renal vein returned through the IVC collaterals.

Measurements: Clinicopathological, operative, and survival outcomes were collected and analyzed.

Results and limitations: All procedures were successfully performed without open conversion. The median operation time (268 vs 190 min) and estimated blood loss (1500 vs 400 ml) were significantly greater for RAC-IVCT versus RAT-IVCT (both $p < 0.001$). IVC invasion was a risk factor for progression-free and overall survival at midterm follow-up. Large-volume and long-term follow-up studies are needed.

Conclusions: RAC-IVCT or RAT-IVCT represents an alternative minimally invasive approach for selected RCC patients with level II IVCT. Selection of RAC-IVCT or RAT-IVCT is mainly based on preoperative IVCT imaging characteristics, including the presence of IVC wall invasion, the affected kidney, and establishment of the collateral circulation.

Patient summary: In this study we found that robotic surgeries for level II inferior vena cava thrombus were feasible and safe. Preoperative imaging played an important role in establishing an appropriate surgical plan.

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1. Introduction

Locally advanced renal cell carcinoma (RCC) with inferior vena cava thrombus (IVCT) is one of the most challenging situations in urological surgery [1,2]. Although open surgery is the standard approach [2], the safety and feasibility of robot-assisted thrombectomy (RAT) for level I–IV IVCT have been reported [3–9]. RAT-IVCT was performed with satisfactory outcomes in most cases [1,10]. However, IVC resection is justified in some circumstances, including distal unresectable bland thrombosis and tumor infiltration into the IVC wall, to avoid thrombus shedding and achieve satisfactory tumor control [10–14]. Nevertheless, decisions on whether to perform partial or circumferential IVC resection (the latter is known as cavectomy) are generally made intraoperatively during thrombectomy [10]. In patients without well-established collateral blood vessels, cavectomy in acute situations may cause hypotension due to a decrease in venous return and postoperative renal insufficiency, lower extremity edema, or abdominal wall varicosity [10,13]. Therefore, in this study our aim was to develop a decision-making scheme and to analyze operative and survival outcomes for robot-assisted cavectomy (RAC)-IVCT and RAT-IVCT.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Patients

Ninety patients with RCC and level II IVCT who underwent RAC-IVCT or RAT-IVCT between June 2013 and January 2019 were included from eight Chinese urological centers (Supplementary Table 1). Surgeons from the Chinese PLA General Hospital designed the surgical strategy and provided support for the surgical technique; the other centers managed patients according to their surgical strategy. The study received institutional review board approval and inter-institutional data-sharing agreements were established as required. Tumor thrombus was categorized according to the Mayo Clinic classification [1]. Postoperative complications were graded according to the modified Clavien-Dindo scheme [15].

2.2. Preoperative assessment

Enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was performed within 1 wk before surgery to assess the features of the primary tumor and IVC thrombus, including local tumor invasion, tumor size, thrombus length, bland thrombus, and IVC wall infiltration. For all IVCTs involving more than two-thirds of the IVC lumen, cavography was performed to evaluate establishment of the collateral blood vessels. For cavography, the modified Seldinger technique was used. Specifically, the right femoral vein was punctured to allow insertion of a 4-F catheter sheath. Then a pigtail catheter (Terumo, Tokyo, Japan) was inserted through the sheath to perform IVC angiography (MIYABI; Siemens, Erlangen, Germany). Iodized oil (20 ml; Guerbet,

Villepinte, France) was administered as a contrast agent via quick-push injection (200 psi, 4 ml/s, 4 s; Supplementary Fig. 1).

2.3. Decision-making scheme

We developed a decision-making scheme to guide surgical treatment for RCC with level II IVCT according to three parameters: the location of the primary tumor, the presence of IVC wall invasion, and establishment of IVC collateral blood vessels (Fig. 1). For right-sided RCC, RAC-IVCT was performed in cases with suspected IVC wall invasion and/or well-established collaterals (21 cases). There were six cases of right-sided RCC associated with well-established collaterals but the absence of IVC wall invasion; for five of these cases, unresectable bland thrombus was found in the distal IVC. For left-sided RCC, owing to the lack of collaterals in the right renal veins, segmental transection of the IVC without reconstruction may cause renal dysfunction. RAC-IVCT was only performed for patients with IVCT with extensive IVC wall invasion and well-established IVC collaterals (9 cases). The other 60 cases underwent RAT-IVCT. The main collaterals were located and carefully preserved under intraoperative ultrasound guidance; IVC wall invasion was inspected under direct vision for adhesion and infiltration was later confirmed via pathological examination (Fig. 2). When the IVC is completely occluded by thrombus, venous return flows through the caudal IVC, lumbar vein, and lumbar ascending vein to the hemiazygos and azygos vein systems (Fig. 3).

2.4. Preoperative preparation

Preoperative targeted therapies were given selectively to patients with metastatic disease with the intention to downgrade thrombus levels. In detail, sunitinib 50 mg (SUTENT, Pfizer, New York, NY, USA) was given orally for a 6-wk cycle (4 wk followed by a break of 2 wk). After three cycles of therapy, the feasibility of surgery and the surgical strategy were reevaluated. Preoperative intravenous heparin was started on diagnosis to prevent thrombus extension and embolization. Renal artery embolization on the affected side was conducted 1–2 h preoperatively in patients with left-sided RCC or large right-sided renal tumors.

2.5. Surgical technique

For RAT-IVCT, standard cavotomy, thrombectomy, and IVC reconstruction were performed [3,4]. For RAC-IVCT, we performed cavectomy without the IVC replacement technique.

2.5.1. RAC-IVCT for right-sided RCC with IVCT

Fig. 4 shows the key RAC-IVCT steps for right-sided RCC with IVCT. The procedures are presented in Supplementary Video 1. The cephalic IVC below the hepatic veins was stapled using Endo GIA (Covidien, Minneapolis, MN, USA), leaving a minimal segment of cava caudal to the hepatic veins, thereby limiting turbulence and potential thrombosis.

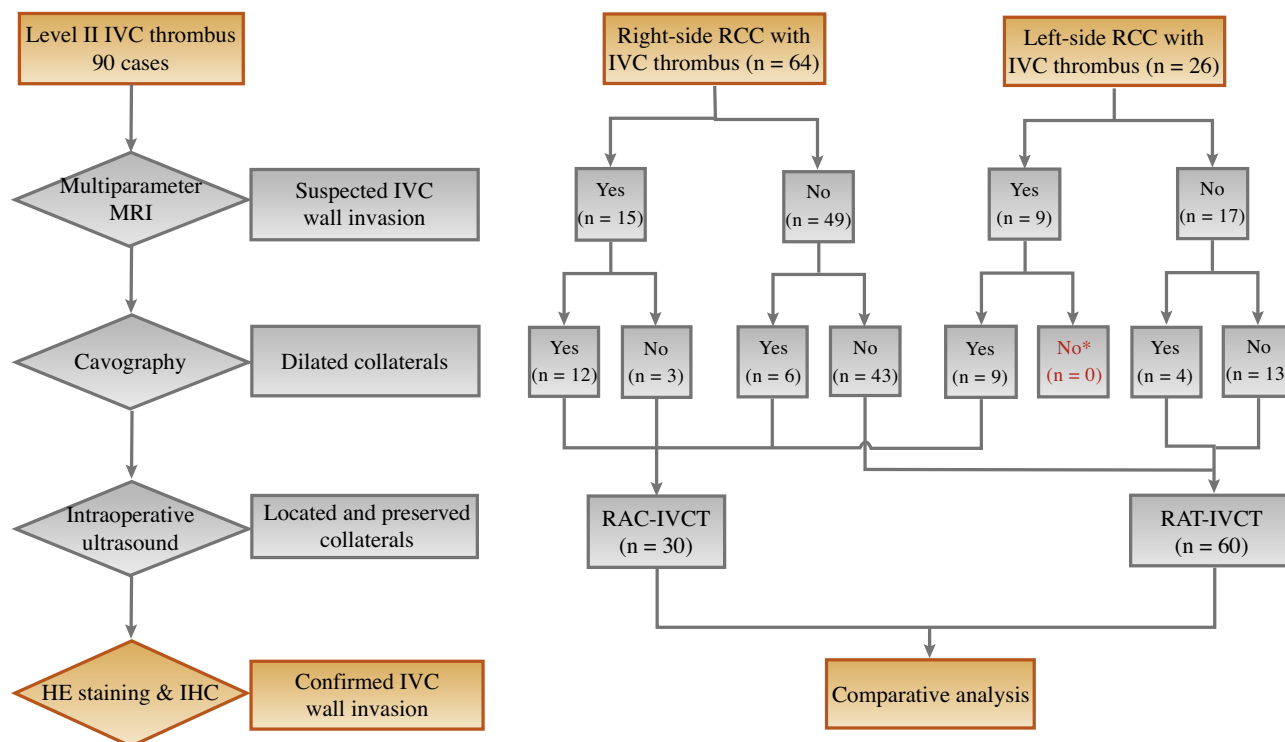


Fig. 1 – Decision-making scheme for surgical treatments for renal cell carcinoma (RCC) with level II inferior vena cava thrombus (IVCT). Enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was performed within 1 wk before surgery to assess features of the primary tumor and IVCT, specifically local tumor invasion and IVC wall infiltration. For all IVCT cases involving more than two-thirds of the IVC lumen, cavography was performed to evaluate establishment of the collateral blood vessels. The main collaterals were carefully preserved under intraoperative ultrasound guidance, and IVC wall invasion was confirmed by pathological examination. The surgical strategy (RAC-IVCT vs RAT-IVCT) was planned according to the tumor location, extent of IVC wall infiltration, and collateral establishment. Finally, the operative and survival outcomes for RAC-IVCT versus RAT-IVCT were analyzed. MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; HE = hematoxylin-eosin; IHC = immunohistochemistry.

Subsequently, the left renal vein was circumferentially dissected, looped, and stapled. The right renal artery was exposed and ligated in the inter-aortocaval space. The caudal tumor-bearing IVC was further dissected circumferentially by clipping some lumbar veins. The main collaterals were carefully preserved under intraoperative ultrasound guidance during caudal IVC stapling.

2.5.2. RAC-IVCT for left-sided RCC with IVCT

Fig. 5 shows the key RAC-IVCT steps for left-sided RCC with IVCT. The procedures are presented in Supplementary Video 2. The cephalic IVC and left renal vein were sequentially stapled. The IVC was dissected retrogradely and circumferentially. The vessel loops were wrapped twice around the IVC between the superior border of the right renal vein and the inferior border of the left renal vein. The IVC wall was cut 1–2 cm cephalic to the loop; with precautions taken to preserve the orifice of preexisting collaterals. Then the caudal IVC was reconstructed to ensure right renal venous return through the IVC collaterals.

2.6. Postoperative treatment and follow-up

Anticoagulants were routinely prescribed for 6 mo after caval resection. Adjuvant targeted therapies were given to patients with metastatic disease or residual lesion. Suni-

tinib 50 mg was given orally for a 6-wk cycle. After three cycles, sunitinib 25 mg daily was then prescribed as indicated. Computed tomography or MRI of the chest, abdomen, and pelvis, as well as venous ultrasonography of the lower extremities, was performed every 3–6 mo until the latest follow-up visit or death.

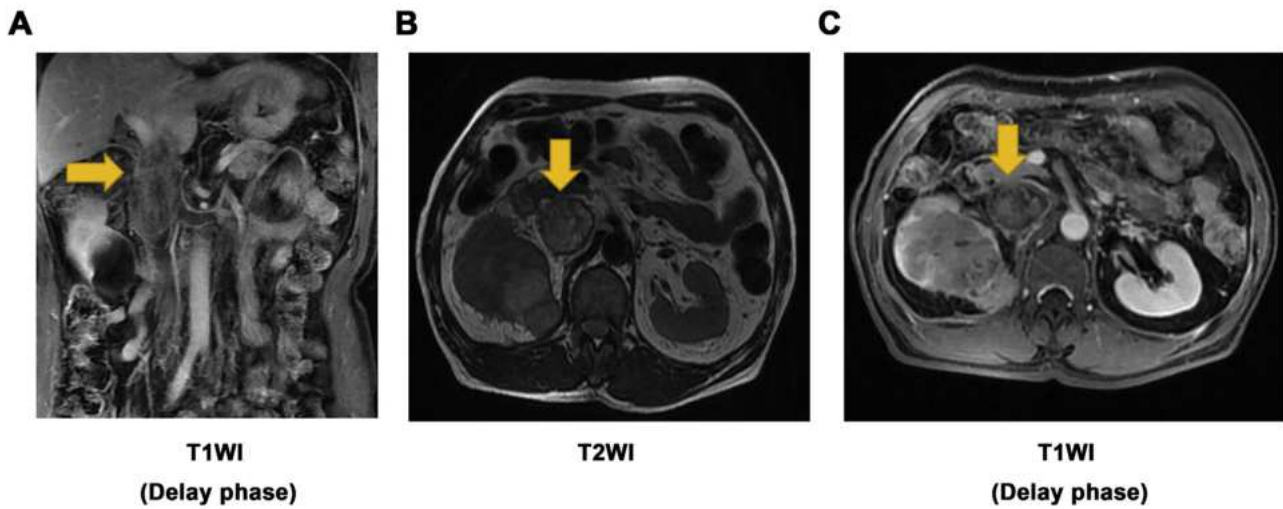
2.7. Statistical analysis

Results for continuous variables are presented as the median and range or interquartile range (IQR), with analysis by *t*-test or analysis of variance after estimating the variance between groups. Results for categorical variables are presented as the frequency count and percentage, with analysis by χ^2 test. The Kaplan-Meier method and log-rank test were used to estimate and compare the probability of progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS). All statistical analyses were performed with PASW Statistics software 18.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA), with *p* < 0.05 considered statistically significant.

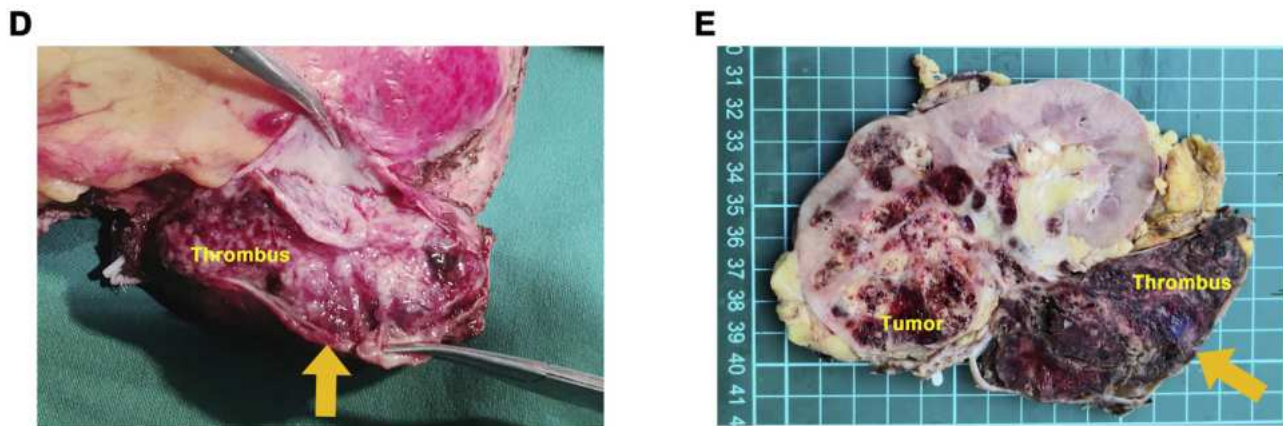
3. Results

Demographic data are outlined in Table 1. RAC-IVCT was performed in 30 patients (21 right-sided and 9 left-sided RCC) and RAT-IVCT in 60 patients (44 right-sided and

Preoperative multiparameter MRI



Macroscopic appearance



Microscopic appearance

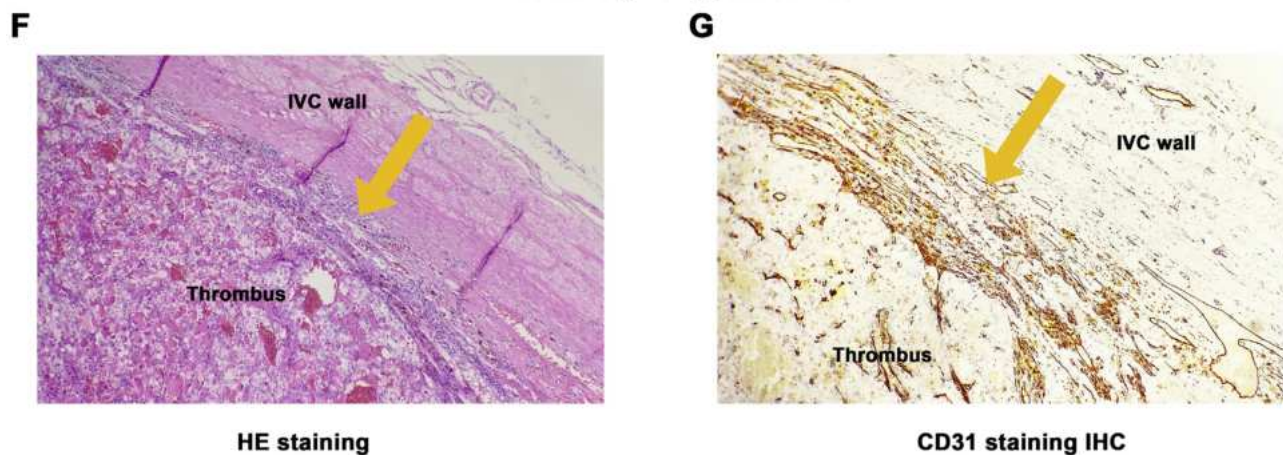


Fig. 2 – Inferior vena cava (IVC) wall infiltration was assessed using preoperative multiparameter magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), evaluation of the macroscopic appearance, and microscopic examination. (A–C) Preoperative multiparameter MRI scans showed signs of IVC wall infiltration, characterized by breaking of the IVC wall (yellow arrow) on (A) coronal delayed-phase T1-weighted imaging (T1WI), (B) axial T2WI, and (C) axial delayed-phase T1WI. Macroscopic appearance of (D) a fresh specimen and (E) a formalin-fixed specimen. Microscopic examination of the IVC thrombus after (F) hematoxylin-eosin (HE) staining and (G) immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining with the endothelium-specific marker CD31.

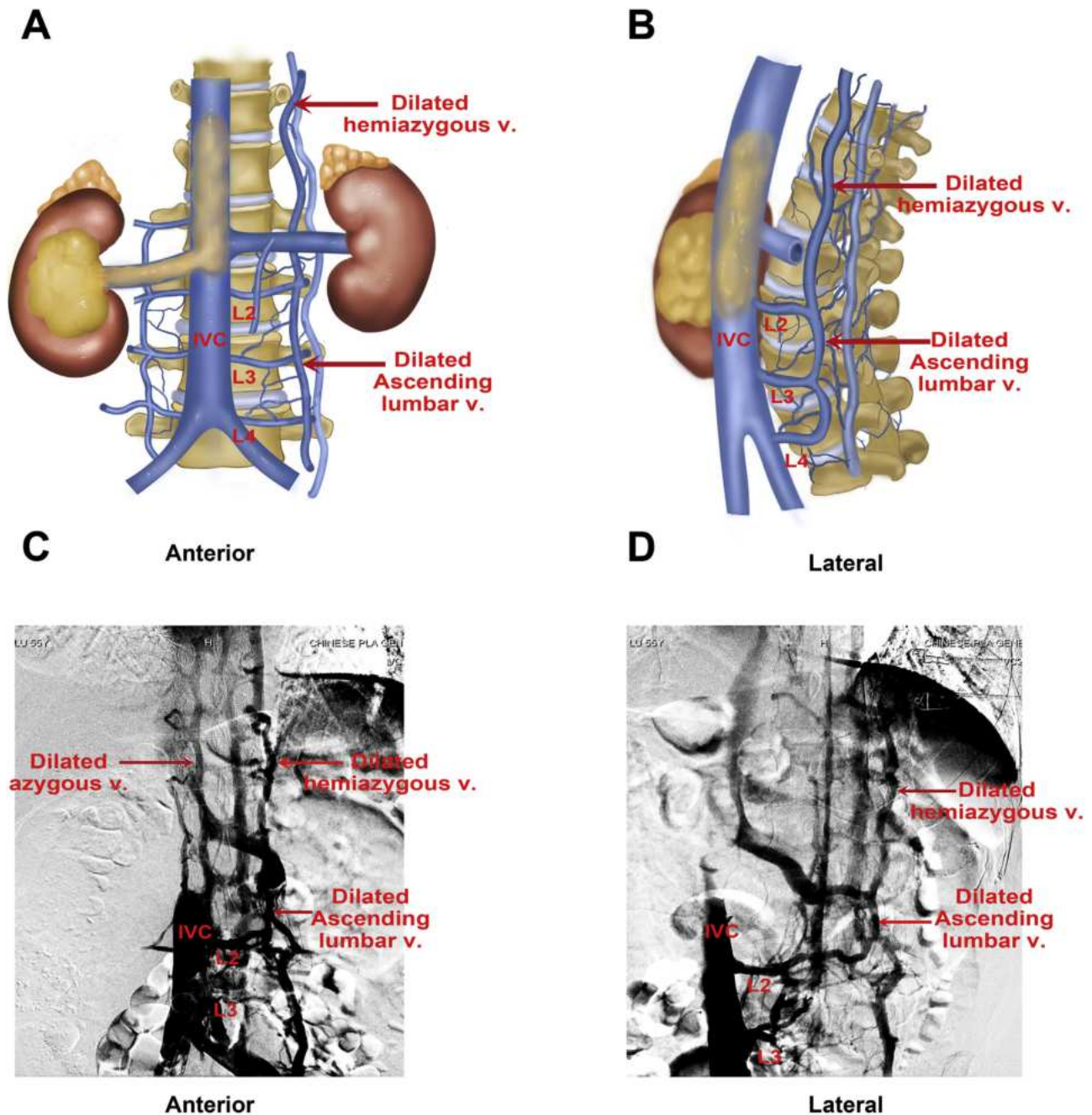


Fig. 3 – Schematic drawing and cavography images of the collateral circulation for a caudal inferior vena cava (IVC) incrementally occluded by a thrombus. (A,B) Diagram illustrating the collateral circulation through the caudal IVC to the dilated lumbar vein (v.), ascending lumbar vein, and hemiazygous and azygous veins. (C,D) Cavography images showing the collateral circulation through the caudal IVC to the dilated lumbar vein, ascending lumbar vein, and hemiazygous and azygous veins.

16 left-sided RCC). The RAC-IVCT group had higher tumor grade, longer IVC thrombi, and high rates of IVC wall invasion, distant metastasis and combination of bland thrombus. No significant differences were noted for demographic characteristics (age, gender, and body mass index) or tumor location, size, and type.

Table 2 presents results for perioperative outcomes and complications. The median operation time was significantly longer for RAC-IVCT than for RAT-IVCT (268 vs 190 min; $p < 0.001$). RAC-IVCT for left-sided RCC took longer than for

right-sided RCC in both groups. The median estimated blood loss was 1500 ml (IQR 970–2000) of RAC-IVCT, which was significantly greater than the 400 ml (IQR 200–1000) for RAT-IVCT. Twenty-three patients (76.7%) received an intraoperative blood transfusion in the RAC-IVCT group, while only 12 patients (20%) in the RAT-IVCT group needed a blood transfusion. Renal function was successfully preserved for the patients in both groups.

In the RAT-IVCT group, only mild complications (grades I and II) occurred. However, more complications were

Cavectomy for right-side RCC with IVC thrombus

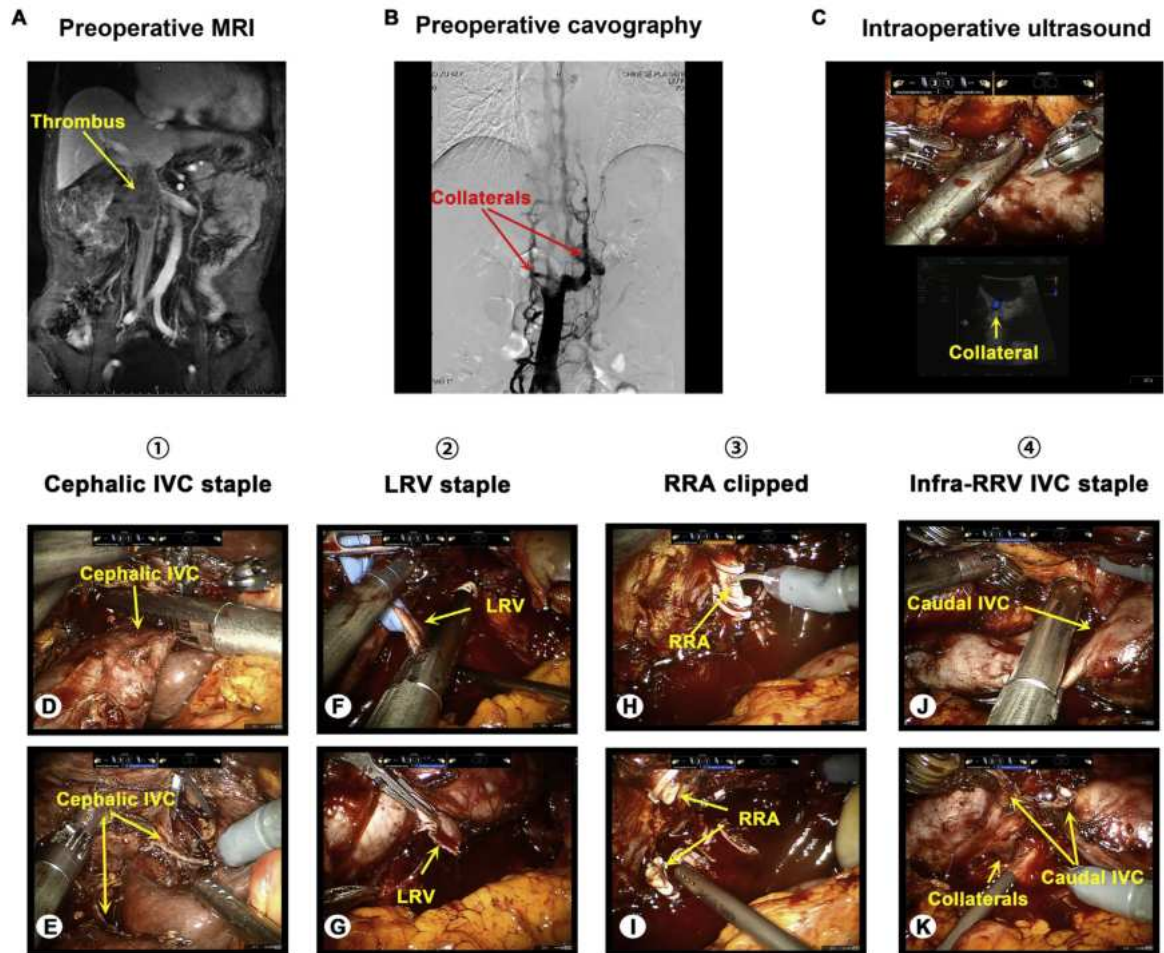
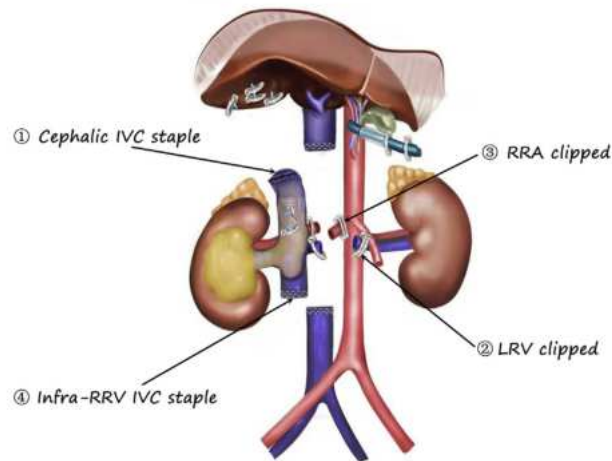


Fig. 4 – Key steps in robot-assisted cavectomy (RAC) for right-sided RCC with inferior vena cava thrombus (IVCT). Schematic showing the sequential ligation order: cephalic IVC above the thrombus end, left renal vein (LRV), right renal artery (RRA), and infra-right renal vein (RRV) IVC (upper panel). Surgical procedure for RAC-IVCT for a case of right-sided RCC with IVCT (lower panel). (A) Preoperative multiphase magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) showed a case of right-sided RCC with level II IVCT filling the entire caval lumen. (B) IVC cavography showed venous return through well-established venous collaterals. (C) Intraoperative ultrasound imaging identified the main collaterals that should be carefully preserved. (D–K) Robot-assisted resection for right-sided RCC with IVCT. (D,E) The cephalic IVC was stapled below the hepatic veins. (F,G) The LRV was stapled at the insertion of the IVC. (H,I) The RRA was clipped and incised. (J,K) The caudal IVC was stapled below the thrombus and the main collateral vessel was carefully preserved.

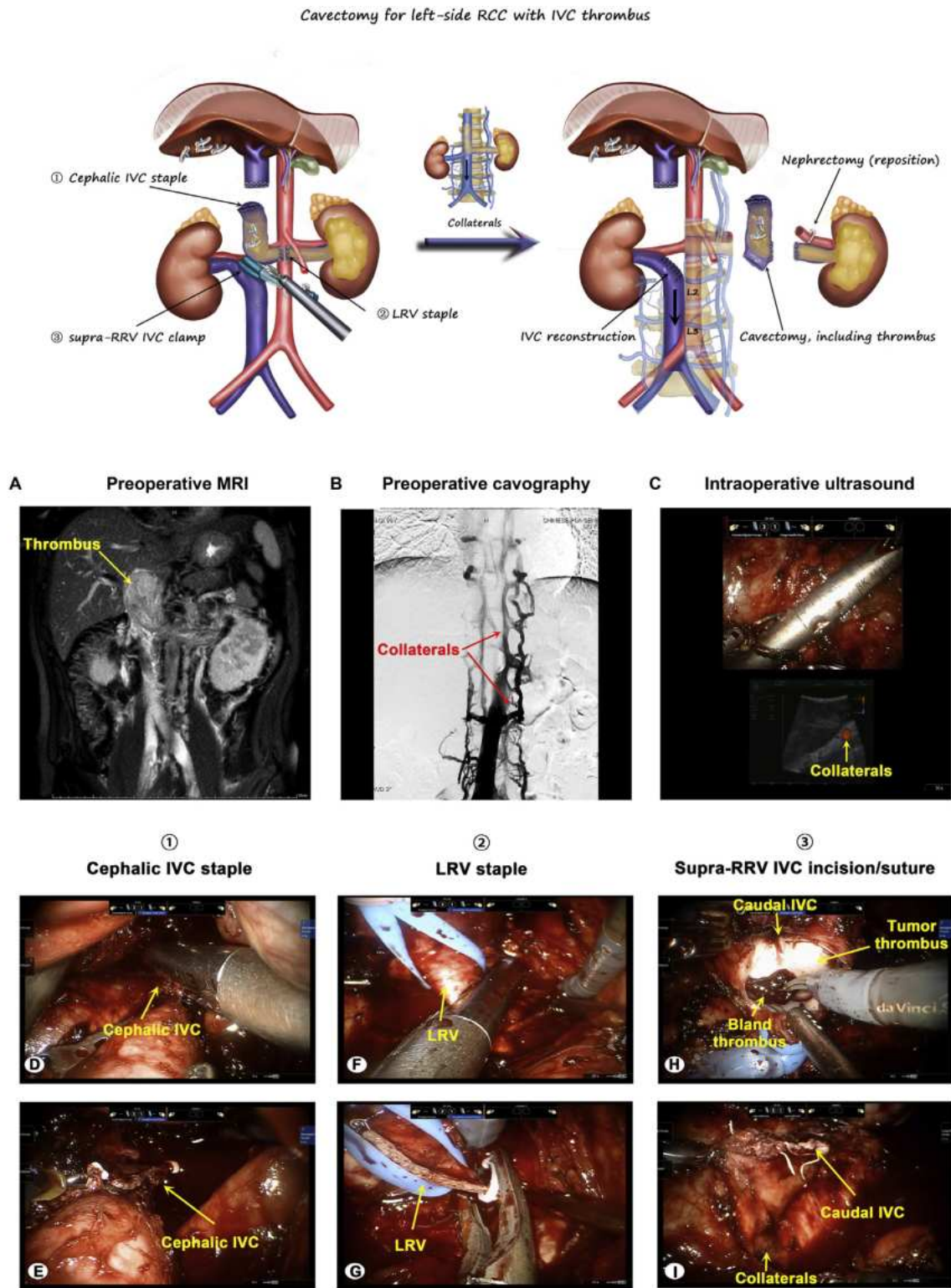


Fig. 5 – Key steps in robot-assisted cavectomy (RAC) for left-sided renal cell carcinoma (RCC) with inferior vena cava thrombus (IVCT). Schematic showing the sequential ligation order and collateral circulation (upper panel). The cephalic IVC above the thrombus end and the left renal vein (LRV) including the thrombus were stapled. The IVC was occluded and incised at the superior margin of the right renal vein (RRV) (left). The caudal IVC was reconstructed with a two-layer continuous suture. The patient was repositioned for left nephrectomy. As described in Fig. 3, venous return of the RRV was through the caudal IVC, lumbar vein, and lumbar ascending vein to the hemiazygous and azygous vein systems (right). Arrows indicate the direction of venous blood. Surgical procedure for RAC-IVCT for a case of left-sided RCC with IVCT (lower panel). (A) Preoperative multiphase magnetic resonance imaging showed left-sided RCC with level II IVCT. The IVC was occupied and distended by the thrombus. (B) IVC cavography showed that the collateral vessels were well established. (C) Intraoperative ultrasound imaging identified the main collaterals that should be carefully preserved. (D–I) Robot-assisted resection for a case of left-sided RCC with IVCT. (D,E) The cephalic IVC was stapled below the hepatic veins. (F,G) The LRV including the thrombus was stapled using Endo GIA. (H,I) The caudal IVC was looped and tightened above the RRV using the Rummel tourniquet technique. (H) The IVC wall was incised and the thrombosed IVC was removed. (I) The IVC was reconstructed with Gore-tex sutures and the main collateral vessel was carefully preserved.

Table 1 – Comparison of patient baseline characteristics.

Characteristic	RAC-IVCT (n = 30)	RAT-IVCT (n = 60)	p value
Median age, yr (range)	53.2 (36–76)	56.2 (23–86)	0.323
Gender, male/female, n	22/8	44/16	1.000
Mean body mass index, kg/m ² (range)	24.5 (18.9–29.7)	24.4 (13.2–31.8)	0.889
Affected kidney, left/right, n	9/21	17/43	1.000
Tumor type, ccRCC/pRCC, n	25/5	52/8	0.635
Tumor grade, I/II/III, n	6/14/10	31/22/7	0.000*
Mean renal tumor size, cm, (range)	8.6 (2.5–19.0)	7.7 (2.0–16.0)	0.211
Mean thrombus length, cm (range)	7.1 (3–12.8)	4.2 (2.1–11.0)	<0.001*
Perirenal fat invasion, n (%)	8 (26.7)	8 (13.3)	0.051
IVC wall invasion, n (%)	17 (56.7)	1 (1.7)	<0.001*
Presence of bland thrombus, n (%)	5 (16.7)	2 (3.3)	0.005*
Lymph node metastasis, n (%)	4 (13.3)	8 (13.3)	1.000
Distant metastasis, n (%)	6 (20)	5 (8.3)	0.046*
Preoperative targeted therapy, n (%)	5 (16.7)	10 (16.7)	1.000
Adjuvant targeted therapy, n (%)	14 (46.7)	22 (36.7)	0.364

ccRCC = clear cell renal cell carcinoma; pRCC = papillary renal cell carcinoma; IVC = inferior vena cava; RAC = robot-assisted cavectomy; IVCT = IVC thrombus; RAT = robot-assisted thrombectomy.
* Statistically significant difference.

Table 2 – Comparison of operative outcomes and complications.

Characteristic	RAC-IVCT	RAT-IVCT	p value
Median operative time, min (IQR)	268 (238–320)	190 (150–270)	<0.001*
Right side	260 (235–320)	160 (135–205)	
Left side	300 (238–339)	322 (269–366)	
Median estimated blood loss, ml (IQR)	1500 (975–2000)	400 (200–1000)	0.001*
Patients receiving transfusion, n (%)	23 (81.5)	12 (81.5)	
Transfer to intensive care unit, n (%)	24 (85.2)	14 (85.2)	
Mean time to surgical drain removal, d (range)	4 (4–7)	3 (4–7)	
Mean time to full ambulation, d (range)	3 (2–7)	3 (2–6)	
Mean time to oral feeding, d (range)	3 (3–5)	3 (2–6)	
Mean postoperative hospital stay, d (range)	7 (4–23)	7 (3–12)	
Perioperative complications, n (%) ^a			<0.001*
Grade I	4	3	
Grade II	7	4	
Grade III	2	0	
Grade IV	0	0	

IQR = interquartile range; RAC = robot-assisted cavectomy; IVCT = inferior vena cava thrombus; RAT = robot-assisted thrombectomy.
* Statistically significant difference.
^a According to the Clavien classification of surgical complications [11].

observed in the RAC-IVCT group. Two grade III complications (1 case of bleeding from spleen injury and 1 case of fistula from intestinal injury) occurred in the RAC-IVCT group and were managed via reoperation. Seven patients developed mild transient lower-extremity edema and recovered within 1 mo. One death due to cardiac arrest 2 wk after surgery occurred for a patient with preexisting coronary heart disease. In the RAC-IVCT group, postoperative cavography was performed in four cases during 3-mo follow-up and revealed good collateral circulation preservation in comparison with preoperative findings (Supplementary Fig. 2).

The median follow-up was 18 mo (range 1–75). In the RAC-IVCT group, new-onset metastasis occurred in 19 patients (63.3%) postoperatively, resulting in 13 deaths (43.3%). In the RAT-IVCT group, new-onset metastasis occurred in 17 patients (28.3%) postoperatively, resulting in six deaths (10%). Survival analysis revealed that among patients with IVC wall invasion, OS and PFS were poor

(Fig. 6A,B). The other factors associated with both OS and PFS included tumor size and grade, perirenal fat invasion, and lymph node and distant metastases (Fig. 6C–L). However, tumor type and preoperative and postoperative targeted therapies were not associated with either OS or PFS (Supplementary Fig. 3).

4. Discussion

We developed a preoperative decision-making scheme to tailor the surgical strategy for IVCT in RCC. We introduced a technique for RAC-IVCT and analyzed operative and oncological outcomes for a multi-institutional cohort. We demonstrated that RAC-IVCT is feasible and safe for RCC patients with extensive IVC wall invasion and well-established venous collaterals.

RAT-IVCT has been increasingly reported using a standardized technique involving cavotomy, thrombectomy, and IVC reconstruction [3–9]. However, for patients

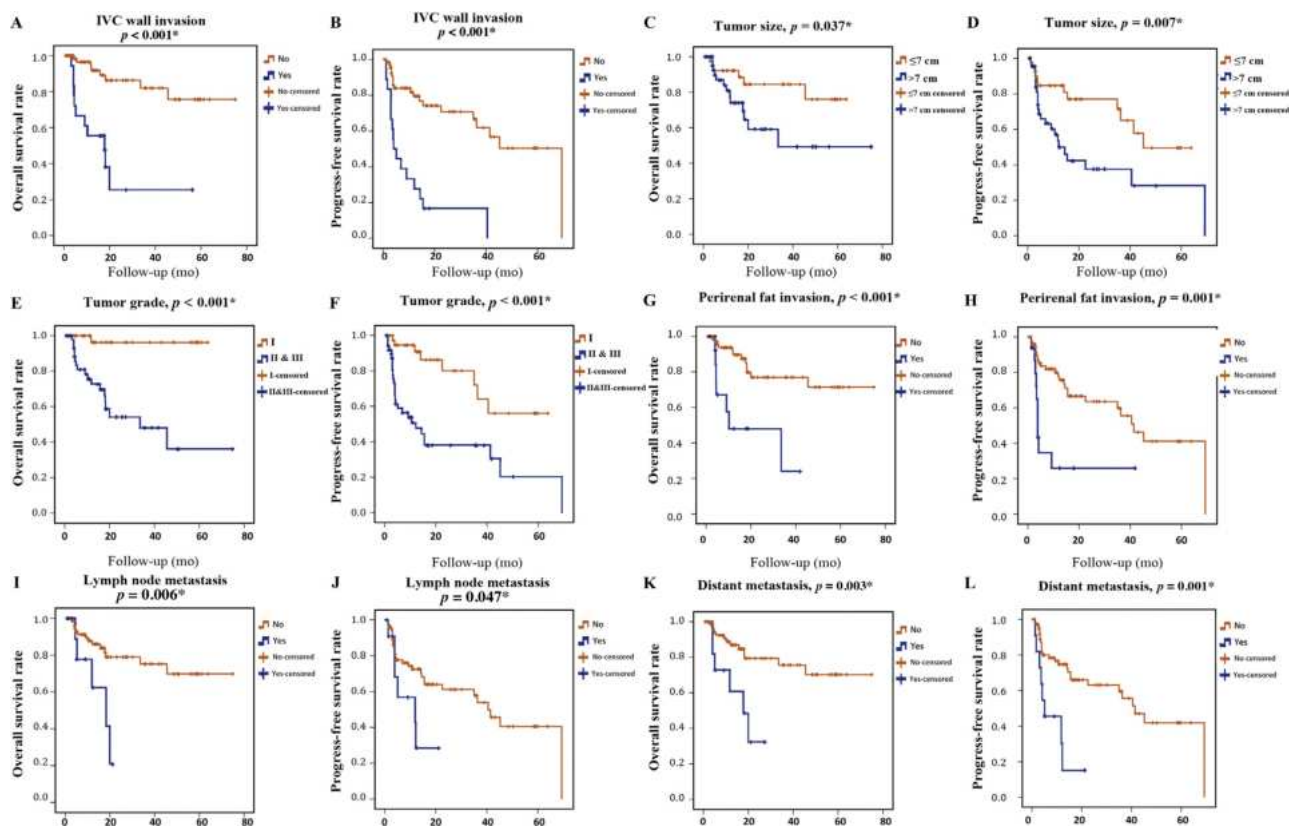


Fig. 6 – Factors associated with overall survival (OS) and progression-free survival (PFS) analyzed using Kaplan-Meier survival curves and compared between groups using the log-rank test. Tumor size and thrombus length were transformed into binary data at a threshold of 7 cm (≤ 7 cm vs > 7 cm). Tumor grade was grouped as grade I versus grades II and III. The results show that inferior vena cava (IVC) wall invasion, tumor size, tumor grade, perirenal fat invasion, lymph node metastasis and distant metastasis were associated with both OS and PFS.

with tumor infiltration into the IVC wall, partial or circumferential IVC resection with IVC reconstruction is indicated [10,13,16] as IVC wall invasion is a factor indicating poor prognosis [17–19]. Venous wall invasion was associated with a nearly six-fold increase in the risk of death from RCC in a multivariate analysis controlling for tumor size, stage, and thrombus level [20]. In this series, 20% (18/90) of cases of IVC wall invasion were confirmed on pathological examination. Our results also show that IVC wall invasion was associated with poor OS and PFS, which further indicates that RAC-IVCT was the optimal strategy. This minimally invasive approach fulfils the principle of oncology surgery, and is feasible and safe for patients without preexisting cardiac dysfunction and with well-established collateral blood vessels. In patients with IVC wall invasion without established collateral vessels, IVC reconstruction was required. The reconstruction techniques available vary from patch angioplasty to IVC graft replacement, typically with a polytetrafluoroethylene graft or autogenous vein grafts [21,22]. Chopra et al [6] reported their experience with robotic IVC patch angioplasty after partial IVC resection. We recommend the open approach if segmental IVC replacement is required, as this is a complex and time-consuming procedure that requires cooperation between urologists and vascular surgeons.

The critical issue in IVCT management is the development of a decision-making algorithm to tailor the operative

technique. According to the literature, approximately 8.1–22% of patients undergoing tumor thrombectomy required segmental resection of the IVC [10,11,23]. Decisions on whether to perform partial or circumferential IVC resection are generally taken intraoperatively [10]. Furthermore, hemodynamic changes may occur after IVC resection due to impaired venous return leading to decreased cardiac output and increased peripheral venous pressure. A study on acute IVC ligation for pulmonary emboli prevention showed a 9% mortality rate, postoperative lower-extremity swelling in more than one-third of patients, and long-term venous sequelae in up to 50% [24]. Cases of resection of chronically occluded IVC with well-established collaterals have minor disturbances of hemodynamic stability. In our series, only seven of 30 patients developed mild, transient edema in the lower extremities and recovered within 1 mo. One patient dies due to cardiac arrest resulting from his preexisting coronary heart disease. Therefore, strategies should be planned properly for individual patients. Preoperative MRI plays a key role in detection and prediction of vein wall invasion, with 92% accuracy in predicting vein wall invasion [25]. Lack of experience in selecting parameters for MRI in the early stages may account for the relatively low positive predictive accuracy of 75% (18/24). It was reported that complete occlusion of the IVC lumen or vessel breach and increases in IVC diameter were associated with a higher probability of IVC wall

invasion [26]. In our experience, the most reliable indicators of invasion are thrombus hyperintensity appearing on both sides of the vessel wall in contrast-enhanced images and continuity interruption of the vessel-wall hypointensity in T2-weighted images. The exclusion criterion was lack of IVC occlusion as determined from the presence of a blood stream signal between the tumor thrombus and the IVC wall. Cavography has high sensitivity in detecting vascular tumors and yields significant information for evaluation of the collateral circulation [16,27]. The presence of large venous collaterals provides vital clues regarding IVC patency. Other than partial nephrectomy, we have also accumulated experience in using intraoperative ultrasound to determine the thrombus ends and detecting the presence of IVC wall invasion and bland thrombus [4,5,28]. In this study, intraoperative ultrasound was used in locating and preserving the main collaterals to reduce the risk of severe lower-extremity edema and a decrease in cardiac output.

As previously described, one factor that must be considered is the affected kidney side for RAT-IVCT [3] and RAC-IVCT. For right-sided RCC, the thrombus was removed en bloc, which did not compromise the left renal venous return owing to the nature of existing collaterals, mainly through the hemiazygos or azygos system [21,29]. However, experience with resection for left-sided RCC is limited owing to concerns regarding renal dysfunction due to right renal vein occlusion. In this study, we showed that resection could be safely performed for IVCT in left-sided RCC. IVC resection in left-sided RCC should be preceded by the effort collateral circulation preservation through caudal IVC. Long-term postoperative anticoagulation was performed in all patients who have undergone RAC-IVCT.

In comparison to RAT-IVCT, we found that RAC-IVCT was often used for more complicated conditions characterized by higher tumor grade, longer IVC thrombi, a higher perirenal fat invasion ratio, IVC wall invasion, distant metastasis, and a combination of bland thrombus. Thus, operation time, blood loss, and complications were significantly greater in the RAC-IVCT group than for RAT-IVCT. At midterm follow-up, OS and PFS were worse among RAC-IVCT than among RAT-IVCT patients. Nevertheless, selection bias for the two groups may account for the difference in oncological outcomes. In accordance with a previous study [30], our result showed that characteristics such as tumor size and grade, IVC invasion, peripheral fat invasion, and lymph node or distant metastases were associated with PFS and OS.

5. Conclusions

In this retrospective study we described the operative and oncological outcomes for two robotic approaches for level II IVCT. Future large-volume studies comparing RAC-IVCT and IVC replacement with the open counterpart approach over long-term follow-up are required to further analyze the feasibility and advantages of RAC-IVCT.

RAC-IVCT and RAT-IVCT are two minimally invasive approaches for RCC patients with level II IVCT. Selection of

the surgical strategy is mainly based on preoperative IVCT imaging characteristics, including the presence of IVC wall invasion, the affected kidney, and establishment of the collateral circulation.

Author contributions: Xu Zhang had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Shi, Xu Zhang, Ma, B. Wang.

Acquisition of data: Shi, Huang, K. Liu, L. Yang, Gao, Gu, Niu, Xuepei Zhang, X. Yang, Fu, Delin Wang, Dongwen Wang, H. Guo, Hengping Li.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Shi, Huang, K. Liu, Du, Fan.

Drafting of the manuscript: Shi, Huang, Du, K. Liu, Fan.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Olivero, Fam, Xu Zhang, Ma, B. Wang.

Statistical analysis: Shi, Huang, Fan, Peng, Shen, Z. Wang, L. Yang.

Obtaining funding: Huang, Xu Zhang, B. Wang, Ma.

Administrative, technical, or material support: Ai, Hongzhao Li, F. Liu, Q. Li, Guodong Zhao, H. Wang, A. Guo.

Supervision: Xu Zhang, Ma, B. Wang.

Other: None.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Taoping Shi: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Qingbo Huang:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Visualization, Funding acquisition. **Kan Liu:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Validation, Visualization, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Songliang Du:** Writing - original draft, Formal analysis. **Yang Fan:** Writing - original draft, Data curation, Formal analysis. **Luojia Yang:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Cheng Peng:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Dan Shen:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Zhongxin Wang:** Formal analysis, Validation. **Yu Gao:** Data curation. **Liangyou Gu:** Data curation. **Shaoxi Niu:** Data curation. **Qing Ai:** Methodology. **Hongzhao Li:** Methodology, Validation. **Fengyong Liu:** Investigation. **Qiuyang Li:** Investigation. **Haiyi Wang:** Investigation. **Aitao Guo:** Investigation. **Bin Fu:** Resources, Data curation. **Xiaojian Yang:** Resources, Data curation. **Xuepei Zhang:** Resources, Data curation. **Delin Wang:** Resources, Data curation. **Dongwen Wang:** Resources, Data curation. **Hongqian Guo:** Resources, Data curation. **Hengping Li:** Resources,

Data curation. **Alberto Olivero**: Writing - review & editing. **Xeng Inn Fam**: Writing - review & editing. **Xin Ma**: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Baojun Wang**: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Xu Zhang**: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

The Surgery in Motion video accompanying this article can be found in the online version at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.03.020> and via www.europeurology.com.

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Prostate Cancer

Effect of Enzalutamide plus Androgen Deprivation Therapy on Health-related Quality of Life in Patients with Metastatic Hormone-sensitive Prostate Cancer: An Analysis of the ARCHES Randomised, Placebo-controlled, Phase 3 Study

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Abstract

Background: In the ARCHES study in metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer (mHSPC), enzalutamide plus androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) improved radiographic progression-free survival (rPFS) versus ADT alone.

Objective: To evaluate patient-reported outcomes (PROs) to week 73.

Design, setting, and participants: ARCHES (NCT02677896) was a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 3 study in mHSPC patients.

Intervention: Enzalutamide (160 mg/day) plus ADT or placebo plus ADT.

Outcome measurements and statistical analysis: PROs were assessed at baseline, week 13, and every 12 wk until disease progression using the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Prostate 25 (QLQ-PR25), Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Prostate (FACT-P), Brief Pain Inventory Short Form, and EuroQoL 5-Dimensions, 5-Levels (EQ-5D-5L) instruments. Endpoints included time to first (TTFD) and first confirmed (TTFCD) clinically meaningful deterioration (using predefined questionnaire thresholds) in health-related quality of life (HRQoL) and pain.

Results and limitations: A total of 1150 patients received ADT plus enzalutamide ($n = 574$) or placebo ($n = 576$). Baseline PRO scores indicated high HRQoL and low pain, which was generally maintained in both groups. There were no statistically significant (nominal $p > 0.05$) between-group differences that occurred in both TTFD and TTFCD together for QLQ-PR25 and FACT-P scores. Enzalutamide significantly delayed TTFD in worst pain (by ~ 3 mo; nominal $p = 0.032$), pain severity (nominal $p = 0.021$), and EQ-5D-5L visual analogue scale score (nominal $p = 0.0070$) versus placebo (not significant for confirmed deterioration for pain outcomes). Enzalutamide delays deterioration in several HRQoL subscales and pain severity in high-volume disease.

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Conclusions: Enzalutamide plus ADT enables men with mHSPC to maintain high-functioning HRQoL and low symptom burden.

Patient summary: This study examined the effect on health-related quality of life and pain of adding enzalutamide or placebo to androgen deprivation therapy for patients with metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer. Addition of enzalutamide allowed patients to maintain their health-related quality of life.

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1. Introduction

Enzalutamide is an oral androgen receptor inhibitor approved in Europe and the USA for the treatment of metastatic/nonmetastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (CRPC) [1,2]. Enzalutamide improves overall survival (OS) in metastatic CRPC and metastasis-free survival in nonmetastatic CRPC, and improves health-related quality of life (HRQoL) [3–5]. In phase 3 trials among men with metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer (mHSPC; also sometimes described as metastatic castration-sensitive prostate cancer) receiving androgen deprivation therapy (ADT), enzalutamide significantly prolonged OS in the ENZAMET trial [6] and radiographic progression-free survival (rPFS) in the ARCHES trial [7]. Since treatment may continue for years, it is critical to examine the impact of more intensive therapy on HRQoL, which may be impaired by disease burden and treatment [8]. Here we report patient-reported outcomes (PROs) from ARCHES.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Study design and participants

ARCHES (NCT02677896) was a multinational, phase 3, randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled study in 1150 patients with mHSPC [7]. Eligible men (≥ 18 yr) had histologically or cytologically confirmed adenocarcinoma of the prostate and metastatic disease.

Eligible patients were randomised centrally (1:1) to ADT (luteinising hormone-releasing hormone agonist/previous bilateral orchiectomy) plus enzalutamide 160 mg daily or matching placebo (each as four capsules orally) until disease progression, unacceptable toxicity, or other discontinuation criteria were met. Patients were allowed up to six cycles of prior docetaxel, ≤ 3 mo of ADT (≤ 6 mo if they had received prior docetaxel), or prior neoadjuvant/adjuvant ADT for < 39 mo (> 9 mo before randomisation). Prespecified stratification factors were disease volume (high vs low; Table 1) and prior docetaxel therapy for prostate cancer (0, 1–5, or 6 cycles).

All patients provided written informed consent compliant with the Declaration of Helsinki, International Conference on Harmonization Good Clinical Practice, and local regulations. Independent ethics committees or institutional review boards reviewed the ethical, scientific, and medical appropriateness before study commencement.

2.2. Procedures

PROs were assessed at baseline, week 13, and every 12 wk until disease progression. PRO analyses are reported up to week 73 to minimise the impact of missing data given that the median rPFS for placebo plus ADT was 20 mo. After treatment discontinuation, patients underwent long-term follow-up, including monitoring for survival, new antineoplastic therapies for prostate cancer, and symptomatic skeletal events. Patients were scanned every 12 wk and PROs were measured (for those continuing with radiological assessments, if seen in clinic) until confirmed radiographic progression (independent central review) or predefined radiographic progression events (≥ 262) were reached.

2.3. Outcomes

PRO instruments used (Supplementary Table 1) were the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Prostate 25 (QLQ-PR25) [9]; Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Prostate (FACT-P) [10]; Brief Pain Inventory Short Form (BPI-SF) [11]; and EuroQoL 5-Dimensions, 5-Levels (EQ-5D-5L) [12].

The primary endpoint in ARCHES was rPFS. Prespecified secondary PRO endpoints reported here are time to first, or first confirmed, clinically meaningful symptom worsening/HRQoL deterioration (Table 1). Generic terms “time to first clinically meaningful deterioration” (TTFD) and “time to first confirmed clinically meaningful deterioration” (TTFCD) were used for symptom worsening/HRQoL deterioration, with their specific meaning depending on the domain analysed; TTFD in modified urinary symptoms was a key secondary endpoint. Clinically meaningful within-patient change thresholds for FACT-P, BPI-SF, and EQ-5D-5L were based on previously established values [11,13–17]. In the absence of established thresholds, QLQ-PR25 values were derived using distribution-based and anchor-based analyses. Death was not included in the definition of clinically meaningful deterioration; those who died without deterioration were censored at the last completed assessment. Sensitivity analyses were conducted, including death (from any cause) in the definition. Although no fatigue-specific questionnaire was included, data for FACT-P items assessing lack of energy (GP1) and forced to spend time in bed (GP7) were collected and are presented as exploratory analyses.

Table 1 – Definitions of study endpoints, analyses, and variables.

Endpoint/analysis/variable	Definition
High-volume disease	High-volume disease consisted of visceral metastases or ≥ 4 bone lesions (≥ 1 outside the vertebral column and pelvic bone)
Time to first clinically meaningful deterioration (TTFD)	Time from randomisation to first deterioration in PRO score ≥ 1 threshold unit that connotes clinically meaningful change to patients vs baseline. Patients with no clinically meaningful deterioration before the end of follow-up, radiographic progression, or death (if not progressed before death) were censored at the last available PRO assessment (date of last non-missing value).
Time to first confirmed clinically meaningful deterioration (TTFCD)	Time from randomisation to first deterioration in PRO score ≥ 1 threshold unit that connotes clinically meaningful change to patients vs baseline that is confirmed at the next consecutive visit or followed by drop out, resulting in monotone missing data. Patients with no confirmed clinically meaningful deterioration before the end of follow-up, radiographic progression, or death (if not progressed before death) were censored at the last available PRO assessment (date of last non-missing value).
Kaplan-Meier product limit method to estimate distributions of TTFD and TTFCD	TTFD and TTFCD were assessed using Kaplan-Meier estimates. A stratified log-rank test was used to compare these time-to-event variables between treatment groups, adjusting for randomisation stratification factors: volume of disease (low vs high) and prior docetaxel therapy for prostate cancer (yes vs no).
Hazard ratios	Hazard ratios (enzalutamide + ADT/placebo + ADT) and 95% confidence intervals were determined using a stratified Cox proportional-hazards model with treatment as the only covariate and the same randomisation factors (volume of disease score and prior docetaxel therapy for prostate cancer) as strata.
Intent-to-treat population	All patients randomly assigned to study treatment
Observed data	Data collected at each time point without carrying forward previous values
Study size calculation	Study size calculation, based on estimates related to the primary endpoint, was not specifically powered for secondary PRO endpoints; 631 deterioration events would provide 80% power to detect a target hazard ratio of 0.80 based on a two-sided log-rank test and a significance level of 0.05.
Mixed model for repeated measures (MMRM) analyses	An MMRM analysis was used to estimate longitudinal changes in PRO scores from baseline at each scheduled visit. MMRM analyses use all available data and assume missing observations are missing at random. The dependent variable was change in PRO score from baseline, and the fixed effects were treatment, study visit, and randomisation factors (disease volume and prior docetaxel therapy for prostate cancer) as categorical parameters, baseline PRO score as a continuous parameter, and the interactions between visit and treatment and between baseline PRO score and visit. We used an unstructured variance-covariance matrix to model the covariance structure among each participant's repeated measures. We treated time as a categorical variable so that no restriction is imposed on the trajectory of the means over time. Thus, we estimated and tested the treatment difference in terms of mean change from baseline to a given time point using this MMRM model. The prespecified MMRM analysis was limited to the first 73 weeks after baseline because of the small sample size in both groups beyond this point (<10% of subjects with available data beyond week 73).
Baseline covariates	PRO score, disease volume (low vs high), and prior docetaxel therapy for prostate cancer (yes vs no)
Median follow-up	Median follow-up time in the study for all 1150 patients as determined for the overall survival endpoint. Time is from randomisation up to the date of death or, for those still alive, up to their last known alive date before the analysis cutoff date.

PRO = patient-reported outcome.

2.4. Statistical analysis

Study size calculations are shown in Table 1. PRO analyses were performed on the intent-to-treat population and based on observed data (definitions in Table 1). The instrument completion rate (adjusted for study attrition) at each visit was reported for subjects expected to have PRO assessments.

The mean questionnaire score is reported by visit. To estimate longitudinal changes in PRO scores from baseline at each visit, we used a mixed model for repeated measures (MMRM) analysis [18,19] (Table 1). Only patients with baseline and at least one post-baseline score were included in longitudinal change analyses.

The Kaplan-Meier product limit method was used to estimate TTFD and TTFCD distributions, and hazard ratios (HRs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were determined using a stratified Cox proportional-hazards model (Table 1).

For PROs, the proportions of patients with improvement, no change, or deterioration (using the thresholds in Supplementary Table 1) at each visit were compared between groups using a stratified Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel mean score test.

Exploratory subgroup analyses (MMRM, TTFD, and TTFCD) were conducted for prespecified stratification

factors and other subgroups. Analyses for disease volume are presented here; other ongoing subgroup analyses will be reported at a later date. Owing to the high volume of data in this paper, we plan to present results for the stratification analysis by prior docetaxel use in a future publication.

We estimated two-sided nominal *p* values for the PRO analyses (significance testing was set at 0.05) and made no adjustment for multiple testing. Data processing, summarisation, and analyses were performed using SAS v.9.3 (SAS Institute, NC, USA) or higher. The data cutoff date was October 14, 2018.

3. Results

Between March 21, 2016 and January 12, 2018, 1150 patients from 202 centres in 24 countries were randomised to ADT plus either enzalutamide (*n* = 574) or placebo (*n* = 576) and included in the intent-to-treat population. At data cutoff (October 14, 2018), the median follow-up (defined in Table 1) for the entire study population was 14.4 mo.

Baseline demographics and PRO scores were well balanced between the groups. The majority of patients had high-volume disease and no prior docetaxel therapy for

Table 2 – Change in least-squares mean for PRO scores at week 73 (mixed-model for repeated measures).

Instrument ^a	Least-squares mean (SE)		TD at week 73 (95% CI)
	ENZA + ADT	PBO + ADT	
EORTC QLQ-PR25 scores^b			
Modified urinary symptoms	-2.22 (1.84)	-1.18 (2.01)	-1.04 (-6.20, 4.11)
Urinary symptoms	-0.56 (1.30)	-0.02 (1.42)	-0.54 (-4.19, 3.11)
Bowel symptoms/function	0.92 (0.73)	0.59 (0.79)	0.33 (-1.72, 2.38)
Treatment-related symptoms	7.08 (1.00)	4.61 (1.09)	2.46 (-0.35, 5.27)
Incontinence aids ^c	-4.08 (3.22)	3.99 (3.04)	-8.07 (-16.44, 0.30)
Sexual functioning	-3.07 (4.91)	-16.67 (9.30)	13.59 (-7.86, 35.1)
Sexual activity	-2.45 (1.61)	-4.87 (1.74)	2.42 (-2.12, 6.95)
FACT scores^c			
FACT-P total	-3.17 (1.30)	-1.71 (1.42)	-1.47 (-5.12, 2.18)
Physical wellbeing	-1.42 (0.32)	-0.40 (0.34)	-1.02 (-1.90, -0.13)*
Functional wellbeing	-0.41 (0.40)	-0.15 (0.43)	-0.26 (-1.37, 0.85)
Emotional wellbeing	-0.30 (0.28)	0.06 (0.31)	-0.36 (-1.16, 0.44)
Social wellbeing	0.47 (0.35)	-0.37 (0.38)	0.84 (-0.12, 1.80)
Prostate cancer subscale	-1.01 (0.47)	-0.50 (0.52)	-0.51 (-1.84, 0.81)
Prostate cancer subscale-pain	-1.01 (0.29)	-0.56 (0.32)	-0.45 (-1.29, 0.38)
FACT Advanced Prostate Symptom Index	-0.77 (0.37)	-0.01 (0.40)	-0.76 (-1.79, 0.27)
Trial outcome index	-3.15 (0.98)	-1.28 (1.07)	-1.88 (-4.62, 0.87)
FACT-General	-1.94 (0.95)	-1.08 (1.04)	-0.86 (-3.54, 1.82)
BPI-SF scores^b			
Worst pain (item 3)	0.54 (0.19)	0.33 (0.20)	0.21 (-0.32, 0.73)
Severity	0.49 (0.15)	0.38 (0.16)	0.11 (-0.30, 0.52)
Interference	0.71 (0.15)	0.58 (0.17)	0.14 (-0.29, 0.57)
EQ-5D-5L scores^c			
Visual analogue scale	0.28 (1.16)	0.19 (1.27)	0.10 (-3.14, 3.33)

ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; BPI-SF = Brief Pain Inventory Short Form; CI = confidence interval; ENZA = enzalutamide; EORTC QLQ-PR25 = European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Prostate 25; EQ-5D-5L = EuroQoL 5-Dimensions, 5-Levels; FACT = Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy; FACT-P = FACT-Prostate; PBO = placebo; PRO = patient-reported outcome; SE = standard error; TD = treatment difference for ENZA versus PBO.

* $p = 0.024$ from the mixed-model repeated measures analyses.

^a For BPI-SF scores and EORTC QLQ-PR25 bowel symptoms and function, hormonal treatment-related symptoms, and urinary symptoms scores, a positive change from baseline value indicates worsening of symptoms. For FACT-P scores and EQ-VAS, a positive change from baseline value indicates improvement. Therefore, a negative number for the least-squares mean difference at week 73 favours ENZA + ADT over PBO + ADT for BPI-SF scores and bowel symptoms and function, hormonal treatment-related symptoms, and urinary symptoms and problems, whereas a positive number favours ENZA + ADT over PBO + ADT for FACT-P scores and EQ-VAS.

^b A positive change from baseline indicates worsening of symptoms.

^c A positive change from baseline indicates improvement of symptoms.

prostate cancer. Baseline PRO scores suggest that patients were generally asymptomatic with good HRQoL, low symptom burden, and minimal functional limitations (Supplementary Table 2).

Pain was low at baseline; approximately half (48%) of patients (similar in both groups) reported a worst pain score of 0 (“no pain”). For PRO outcomes, all questions were completed at baseline by 94–96% of patients on enzalutamide versus 95–96% of patients on placebo. At week 73, completion rates (all questions completed), based on patients remaining on study and available for assessment, ranged from 87% to 88% (Supplementary Fig. 1).

Mean scores by visit indicated that high levels of HRQoL and low levels of pain at baseline were generally maintained during the study in both groups (Supplementary Fig. 2). There were no statistically significant or clinically meaningful differences between the groups in mean change in PRO score from baseline to week 73, except for a statistically significant (nominal $p = 0.024$) difference in FACT-P physical wellbeing score favouring placebo over enzalutamide, although the difference was not clinically meaningful (Table 2). The proportion of patients with clinically meaningful deterioration in modified urinary symptoms,

FACT-P total, BPI-SF worst pain, and EQ-5D-5L visual analogue scale (VAS) scores over time was generally low and similar between the groups (Fig. 1); this also applied to other PRO domains (Supplementary Figs. 3–5). Although higher proportions of patients reported deterioration in sexual functioning over time (Supplementary Fig. 3D), which was higher with placebo versus enzalutamide, patient numbers were very small.

There were no statistically significant (nominal $p > 0.05$) differences in median time to clinically meaningful deterioration (that occurred in both TTFD and TTFCD together) between treatments for QLQ-PR25 (Fig. 2A) or FACT-P (Fig. 2B) domain scores. Enzalutamide plus ADT significantly delayed TTFD in worst pain (14.09 vs 11.10 mo; HR 0.82; nominal $p = 0.032$) and pain severity (19.38 vs 16.76 mo; HR 0.79; nominal $p = 0.021$) versus placebo plus ADT (Fig. 2C). There was no significant between-treatment difference in time to deterioration for pain interference or with TTFCD for worst pain and pain severity. The median time to deterioration on EQ-5D-5L VAS was significantly delayed with enzalutamide plus ADT versus placebo plus ADT (TTFD 11.14 vs 8.38 mo; HR 0.80, 95% CI 0.67–0.94; nominal $p = 0.0070$). TTFCD for EQ-5D-5L VAS still showed a

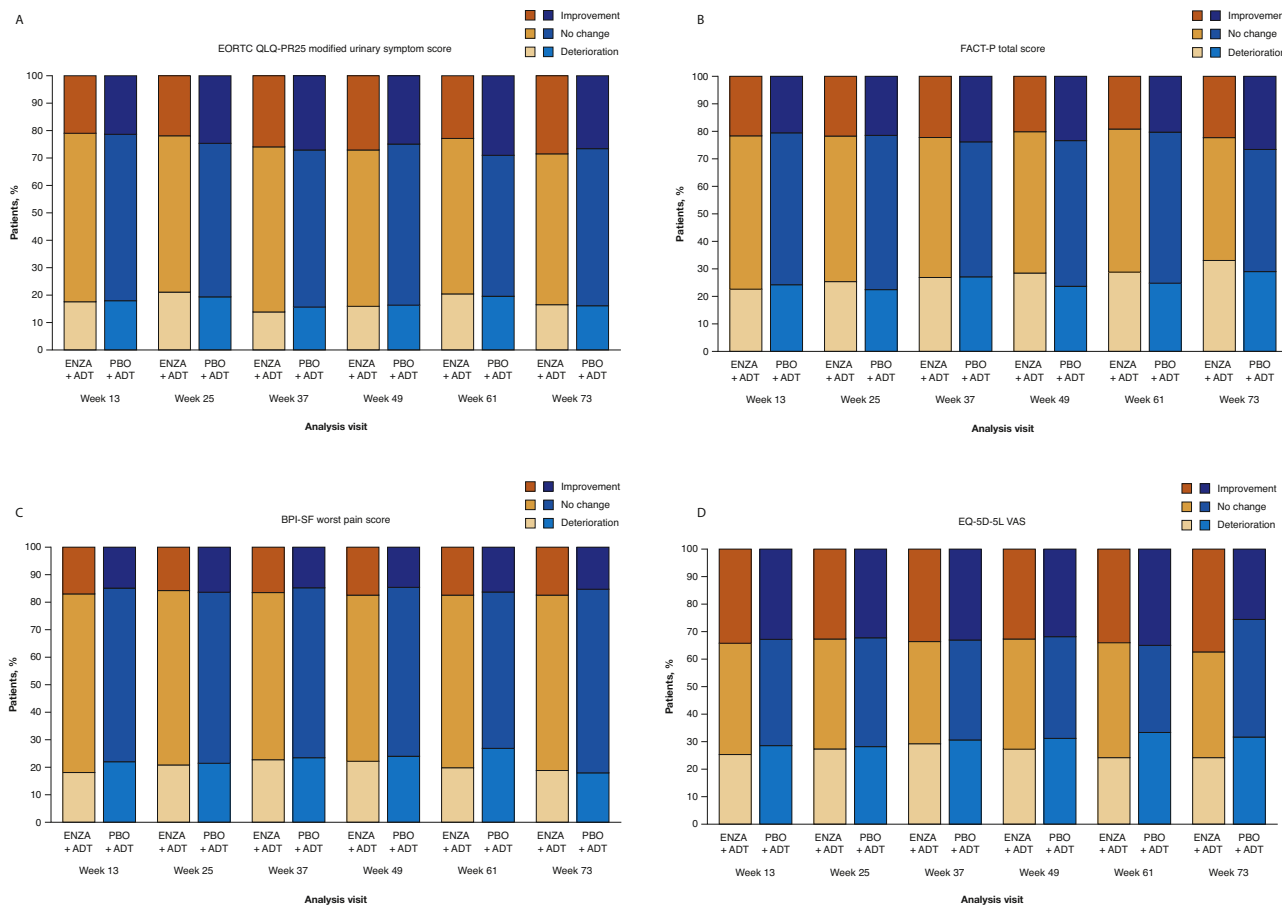


Fig. 1 – Proportion of patients with clinically meaningful improvement, no change, or deterioration from baseline for (A) European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Prostate 25 (EORTC QLQ-PR25) modified urinary symptom score, (B) Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Prostate (FACT-P) total score, (C) Brief Pain Inventory Short Form (BPI-SF) worst pain score, and (D) EuroQoL 5-Dimensions, 5-Levels (EQ-5D-5L) visual analogue scale (VAS) over time to week 73. Nominal $p > 0.05$ for enzalutamide versus placebo at each time point. ADT= androgen deprivation therapy; ENZA= enzalutamide; PBO= placebo.

significant between-group difference in favour of enzalutamide. Sensitivity analyses including death in the definition showed similar results (Supplementary Table 3).

PROs were analysed by disease volume at baseline according to criteria from the CHARTED trial. The median time to deterioration (that occurred in both TTFD and TTFCD together) was significantly delayed with enzalutamide versus placebo for FACT-P total (TTFD HR 0.78; nominal $p = 0.020$; TTFCD HR 0.74; nominal $p = 0.012$), FACT-P social wellbeing (TTFD HR 0.79; nominal $p = 0.035$; TTFCD HR 0.74; nominal $p = 0.025$), and TTFCD only was also delayed for worst pain (TTFCD not yet reached vs 17.22 mo; HR 0.75; nominal $p = 0.030$) in high-volume disease (Fig. 3). Deterioration on EQ-5D-5L VAS was also significantly delayed with enzalutamide versus placebo (TTFD 11.27 vs 8.34 mo; HR 0.77, 95% CI 0.62–0.94; nominal $p = 0.012$; TTFCD 16.76 vs 13.73 mo; HR 0.72, 95% CI 0.57–0.91; nominal $p = 0.0064$) in high-volume disease. Further subgroup analyses showed no statistically significant or clinically meaningful between-group differences in change in mean PRO scores from baseline to week 73 for low- or high-volume disease, except for a statistically significant (nominal $p = 0.037$) difference in FACT-P physical wellbeing

score favouring placebo over enzalutamide in low-volume disease (difference not clinically meaningful at predefined threshold; Supplementary Table 4).

Among men with low-volume mHSPC, there was a delay in time to first deterioration with placebo versus enzalutamide for some measures, but not in confirmed deterioration for FACT-P total (TTFD HR 1.41; nominal $p = 0.020$; TTFCD HR 1.31; nominal $p = 0.11$), prostate cancer subscale (TTFD HR 1.38; nominal $p = 0.013$; TTFCD HR 1.21; nominal $p = 0.2$), and trial outcome index (TTFD HR 1.46; nominal $p = 0.011$; TTFCD HR 1.36; nominal $p = 0.077$; Fig. 3). Only a minority of patients were sexually active; time to deterioration in sexual activity was longer in the placebo group than in the enzalutamide group (TTFD HR 1.50; nominal $p = 0.051$; TTFCD HR 1.58; nominal $p = 0.045$).

The proportions of patients with worsening (≥ 1 point) lack of energy from baseline to week 73 for enzalutamide and placebo were 39–48% and 26–41% in low-volume disease, and 27–36% and 24–29% in high-volume disease, respectively (Supplementary Table 5). Patients reporting spending a longer time in bed for enzalutamide and placebo were 9.4–15% and 4.3–15% in low-volume disease, and 12–16% and 13–18% in high-volume disease, respectively

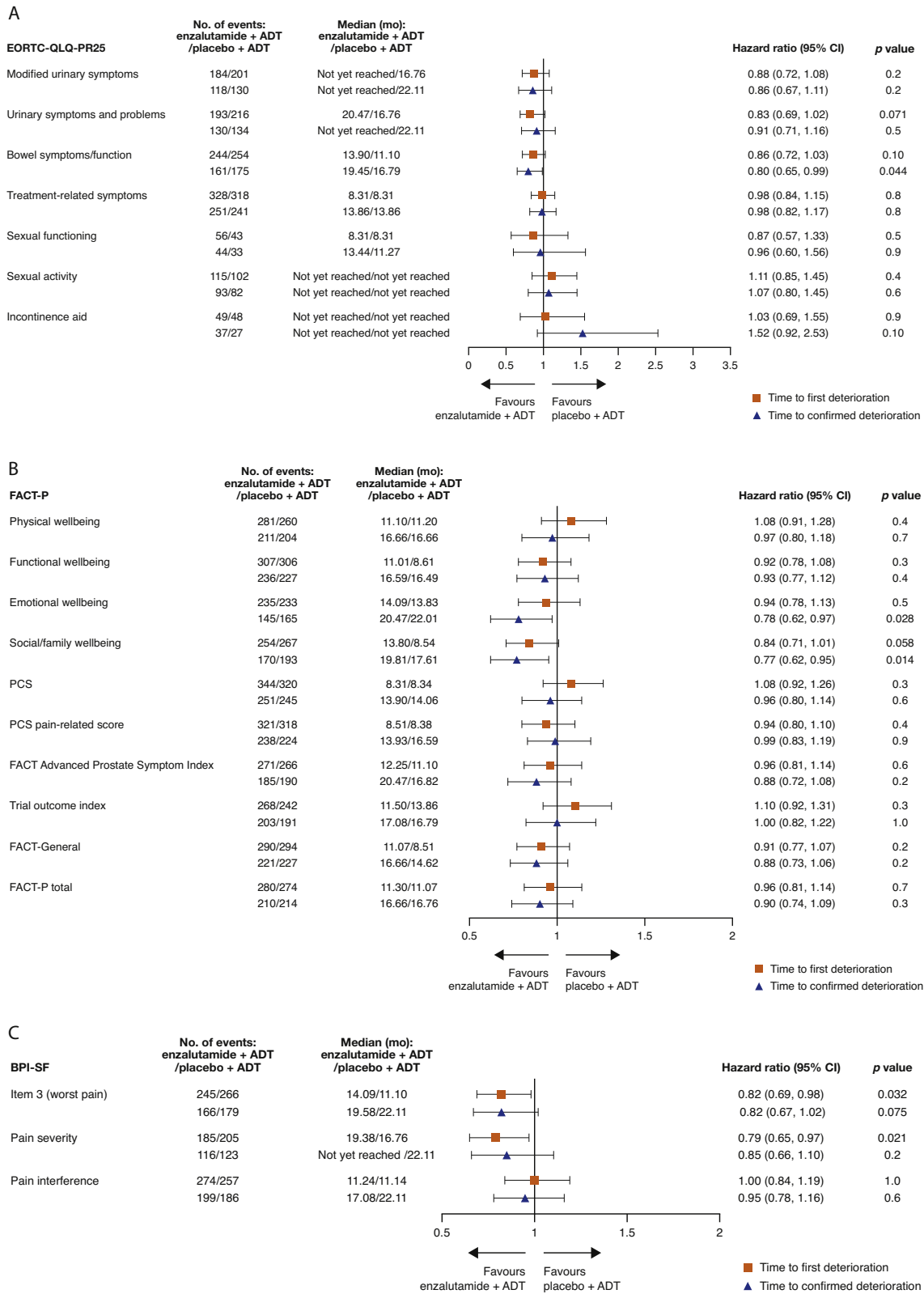


Fig. 2 – Time to first clinically meaningful deterioration and time to first confirmed clinically meaningful deterioration in (A) European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Prostate 25 (EORTC-QLQ-PR25), (B) Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Prostate (FACT-P), and (C) Brief Pain Inventory Short Form (BPI-SF) scores. Thresholds for minimum clinically meaningful deterioration in scores from baseline were 3 points for physical wellbeing, functional wellbeing, emotional wellbeing, family/social wellbeing, PCS, and FACT Advanced Prostate Symptom Index; 2 points for PCS pain-related score; 9 points for trial outcome index; 7 points for FACT-General; and 10 points for FACT-P. Pain progression was defined as a ≥ 2 -point increase in BPI-SF pain score from baseline (except for pain interference, ≥ 1). ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; CI = confidence interval; PCS = prostate cancer subscale.

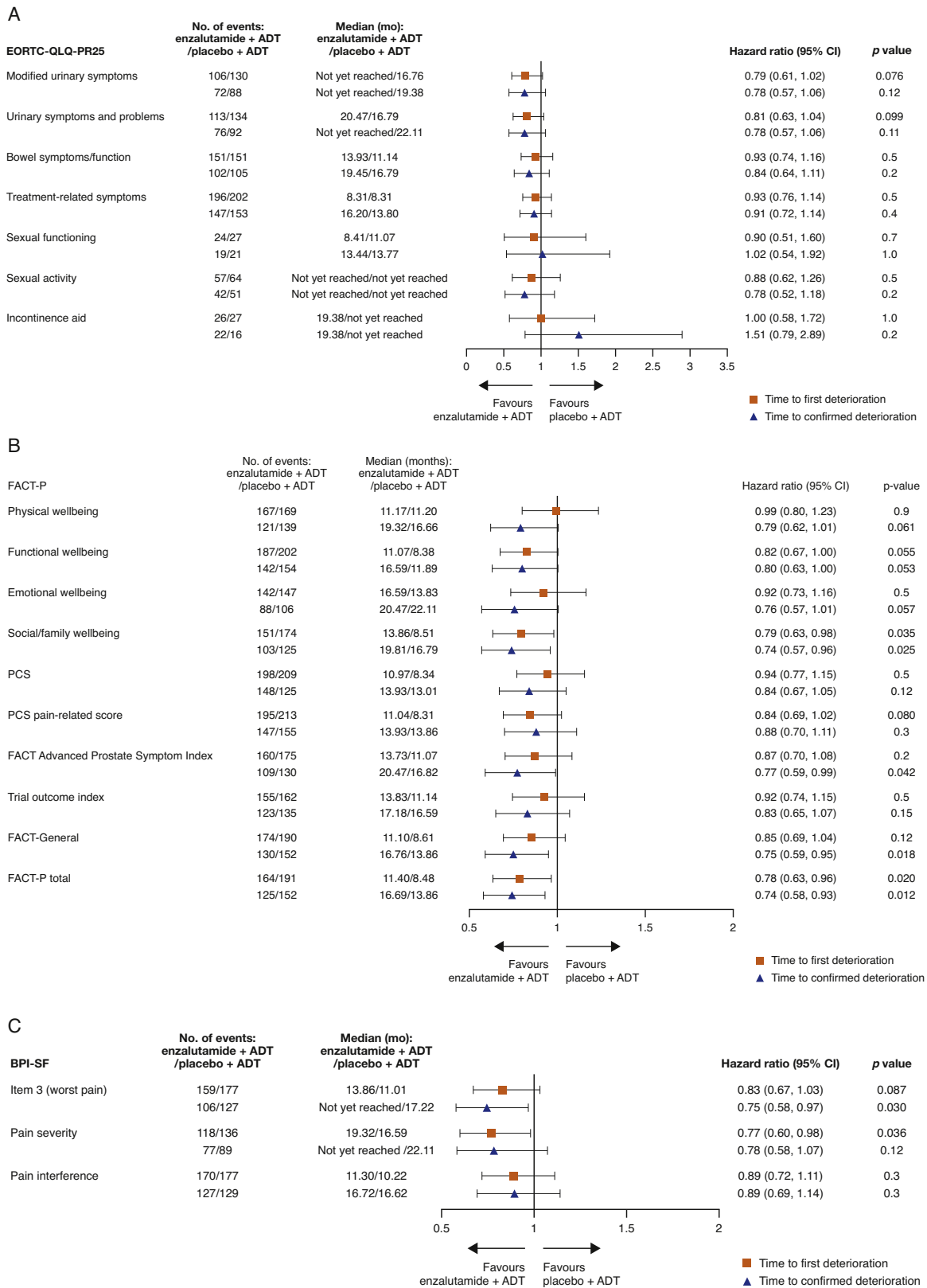
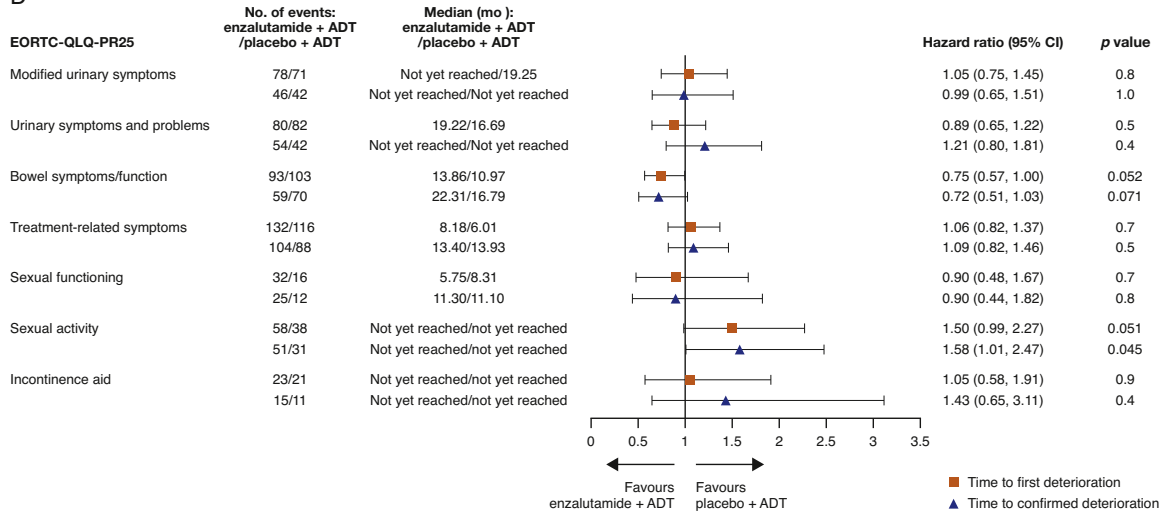
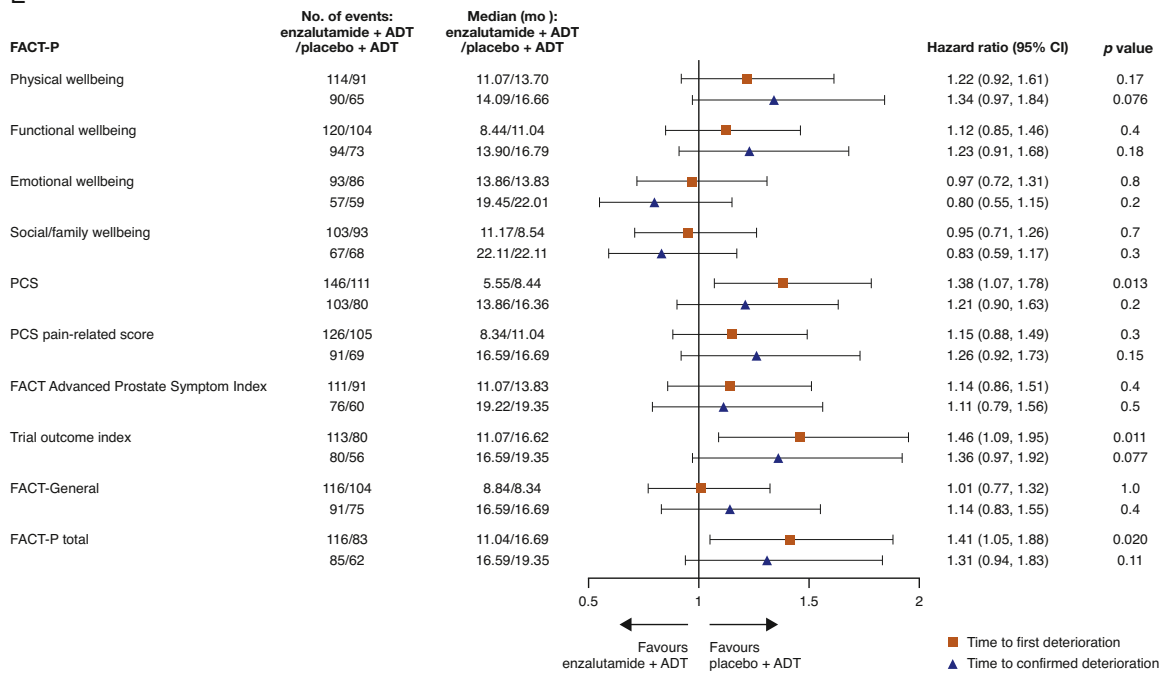


Fig. 3 – Time to first clinically meaningful deterioration and time to first confirmed clinically meaningful deterioration in (A) European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Prostate 25 (EORTC-QLQ-PR25), (B) Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Prostate (FACT-P), and (C) Brief Pain Inventory Short Form (BPI-SF) scores among patients with high-volume disease, and in (D) EORTC-QLQ-PR25, (E) FACT-P, and (F) BPI-SF scores among patients with low-volume disease. The threshold for minimum clinically meaningful deterioration in score from baseline was 3 points for physical wellbeing, functional wellbeing, emotional wellbeing, family/social wellbeing, PCS, and FACT Advanced Prostate Symptom Index; 2 points for PCS pain-related score; 9 points for trial outcome index; 7 points for FACT-General; and 10 points for FACT-P. Pain progression was defined as a ≥ 2 -point increase in BPI-SF pain score from baseline (except for pain interference, ≥ 1). ADT=androgen deprivation therapy; CI=confidence interval; PCS=prostate cancer subscale.

D



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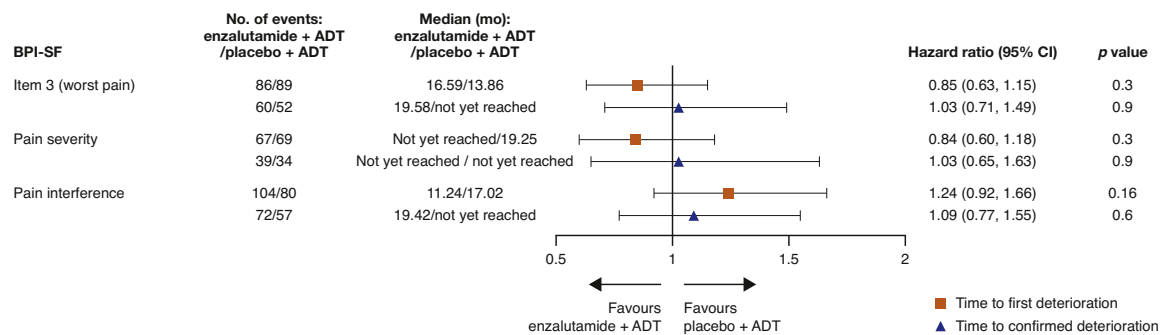
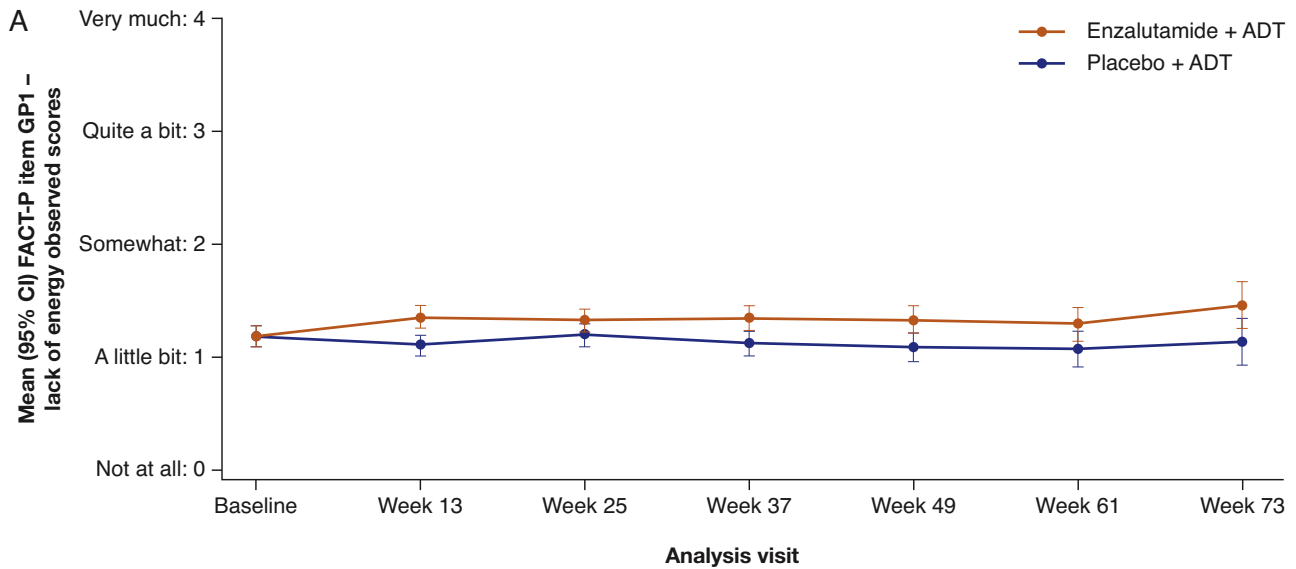
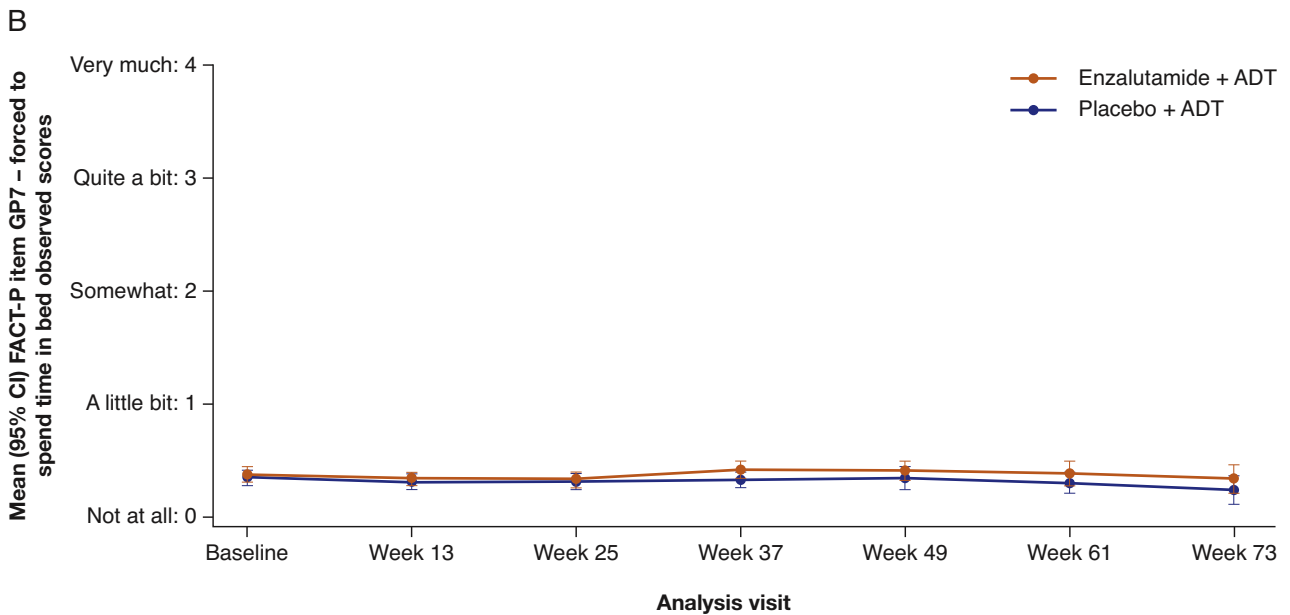


Fig. 3. (Continued).



Number of patients		Baseline	Week 13	Week 25	Week 37	Week 49	Week 61	Week 73
Enzalutamide + ADT		550	533	499	474	349	236	128
Placebo + ADT		553	529	487	429	298	191	101



Number of patients		Baseline	Week 13	Week 25	Week 37	Week 49	Week 61	Week 73
Enzalutamide + ADT		550	533	499	474	349	236	128
Placebo + ADT		553	529	487	429	298	191	101

Fig. 4 – Mean scores over time to week 73 for the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Prostate (FACT-P) items (A) GP1 – lack of energy and (B) GP7 – forced to spend time in bed. ADT=androgen deprivation therapy; CI=confidence interval; PBO=placebo.

(Supplementary Table 6). Mean scores for lack of energy and forced to spend time in bed items (Fig. 4) showed no change over time and were similar between the treatment groups.

4. Discussion

Decisions on the merits of more intensive hormonal therapy in mHSPC should reflect overall net benefits over risks versus ADT alone, including HRQoL. ARCHES demonstrates

that high-functioning HRQoL and low symptom burden at baseline are generally maintained post-baseline when enzalutamide is added to ADT. Enzalutamide significantly prolongs time to progression for worst pain and pain severity versus placebo, and significantly delays time to deterioration on EQ-5D-5L VAS versus placebo for TTFD. There was no difference between treatments in TTFD for other PROs. However, the prespecified confirmed deterioration analysis showed no significant differences between

treatments for worst pain or pain severity. Thus, the data suggest that adding enzalutamide to ADT does not worsen HRQoL and has a beneficial effect on EQ-5D-5L VAS, but no statistically significant benefit for deterioration of pain versus placebo. Longer follow-up is needed to understand the impact of enzalutamide plus ADT on HRQoL in subsequent years or beyond disease progression. For FACT-P items measuring patient-reported fatigue (lack of energy/forced to spend time in bed), mean values to week 73 were stable and generally similar between the groups.

Subgroup analyses showed a significant delay in deterioration with enzalutamide versus placebo for several HRQoL subscales and pain severity among men with high-volume mHSPC; conversely, in low-volume disease, there was a modest delay in TTFD with placebo plus ADT versus enzalutamide plus ADT for some FACT-P scales. Since enzalutamide was effective regarding rPFS in both high- and low-volume disease, this may simply reflect that patients with low-volume disease are asymptomatic at baseline and are more impacted by hormone-related symptoms; however, the prespecified confirmed deterioration analysis showed no significant differences between the treatment groups for the low-volume population, except for sexual activity favouring placebo. However, the population in this category was small and the results should be interpreted with caution. The confirmed deterioration analysis may be a more accurate measure, as it ensures that scores are consistently reduced and not fluctuating from a deterioration to a non-deterioration score. This indicates that the clinical benefit in both populations does not come at a significant HRQoL cost, although patients with low-volume disease may experience some numerical decrement.

In ARCHES, enzalutamide plus ADT significantly improved rPFS versus ADT alone, irrespective of disease volume and prior docetaxel [7]. In ENZAMET, enzalutamide plus ADT improved OS versus nonsteroidal antiandrogen therapy plus ADT, irrespective of disease volume, and despite the more common use of concurrent docetaxel for men with mHSPC [6]. In ENZAMET, docetaxel could be given concomitantly with enzalutamide, unlike ARCHES, where docetaxel use was before enzalutamide. Critical to an understanding of the net benefits of more intensive therapy is the impact on HRQoL of enzalutamide plus ADT in patients over time. Importantly, in ARCHES, men commenced ADT before study entry, and thus had low prostate-specific antigen (PSA) and good HRQoL on enrolment [7]. This probably explains why men entering ARCHES were generally asymptomatic with low urinary symptom burden, good HRQoL, and low pain. Indeed, baseline PRO scores in ARCHES are generally similar to those in the PROSPER study [5] (Supplementary Table 7) in nonmetastatic prostate cancer and comparable to those in the general population [20].

HRQoL and pain status before ADT were not captured until study entry. Patients could receive ADT for ≤ 3 mo (6 mo if treated with docetaxel) before study initiation. Thus, it is likely that the effects of ADT on HRQoL were already evident in most patients at enrolment. Pre-randomisation ADT, while associated with adverse effects, can improve lower urinary tract symptoms in all prostate

cancer stages [21] and help reduce bone pain in advanced disease [22].

Maintenance of HRQoL in ARCHES adds to the efficacy benefits of enzalutamide plus ADT in mHSPC, including significantly improved rPFS, time to PSA progression, time to initiation of new antineoplastic therapy, and time to first symptomatic skeletal event versus placebo plus ADT [7]. Improvements in PROs, in addition to survival, also occur with enzalutamide in CRPC [3–5].

Our results are in agreement with those from studies comparing abiraterone acetate and prednisone plus ADT [23], docetaxel plus ADT, and apalutamide plus ADT [24] versus ADT alone [25] in mHSPC. Patients in both the LATITUDE and CHAARTED studies appeared to show good HRQoL at baseline [23,25]. In LATITUDE, comprising patients with newly diagnosed (≤ 3 mo pre-randomisation) mHSPC, addition of abiraterone acetate and prednisone to ADT significantly prolonged time to worst pain intensity progression and improved health status (measured with EQ-5D-5L) versus ADT alone [23]. However, differences between populations and study designs make direct comparisons difficult. Unlike ARCHES, LATITUDE comprised a high-risk population, with higher proportions of patients with Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group score ≥ 1 , Gleason score ≥ 8 , and distant metastases. Baseline BPI-SF pain scores also appeared to be generally higher (indicating greater pain) in LATITUDE [23]. Furthermore, in the ARCHES and CHAARTED studies, assessments were conducted every 12 wk versus every 4 wk in LATITUDE for the first 13 mo, followed by every 8 wk. In CHAARTED, FACT-P total scores were significantly lower after 3 mo of docetaxel plus ADT versus ADT alone, and were not improved until 12 mo, perhaps reflecting reversible short-term physical and functional deficits at 3 mo, presumably associated with chemotherapy. Unlike ARCHES, patients were not blinded and knowledge of having received chemotherapy may have influenced HRQoL reporting [25].

We used clinically meaningful HRQoL change thresholds from the literature to interpret FACT-P, BPI-SF, and EQ-5D-5L scores. Cutoff values of $\geq 30\%$ or a ≥ 2 -point change in BPI-SF scores have been proposed for detection of clinically important improvements in studies of cancer-related breakthrough pain and chronic pain states [15,16] and in metastatic CRPC [3,26]. However, use of these values in defining pain progression in patients with mHSPC is not yet validated. In view of the very low baseline pain scores in our study, we applied fixed thresholds of ≥ 1 point (interference) or ≥ 2 points (worst pain/pain severity), as these are likely to be more meaningful changes from baseline than 30–50% changes, which would have been very small [26]. No threshold values have been established for QLQ-PR25. We therefore derived thresholds using distribution-based and anchor-based analyses; derivation of correlation coefficients between anchors and QLQ-PR25 scores showed that the anchors are adequate.

Study limitations include patient selection using specific criteria, so the results might not be generalisable to other disease-stage prostate cancer populations. There was an absence of HRQoL data before ADT initiation and limited data after treatment discontinuation. This limited our

ability to document improved HRQoL with initial ADT before enzalutamide, and missing HRQoL data over time is a well-established drawback of studies incorporating PROs as secondary or exploratory endpoints [3]. This pattern of attrition makes data interpretation difficult and can lead to overestimation of HRQoL at later time points. To address this imbalance, MMRM analysis of longitudinal data is limited to 73 weeks. Finally, the follow-up duration in ARCHES is short. Given the positive efficacy results with enzalutamide plus ADT in ARCHES and survival benefits in ENZAMET [6], patients are now being offered access to enzalutamide plus ADT in this setting, which will limit our ability to observe HRQoL differences over time between treatments. Study strengths include the randomised and prospective design, high rates of instrument compliance, and high regional/ethnic diversity of the population.

In conclusion, men with mHSPC are generally asymptomatic, with high levels of HRQoL and low levels of pain at baseline. Notably, the effects of ongoing ADT on HRQoL were already experienced by most patients by study enrolment. Prolongation of rPFS with enzalutamide plus ADT is accompanied by maintenance of HRQoL. Thus, enzalutamide represents a treatment strategy for mHSPC that provides clinical benefits while maintaining HRQoL.

Author contributions: Arnulf Stenzl had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Ramaswamy, Armstrong.

Acquisition of data: Stenzl, Dunshee, De Giorgi, Alekseev, Iguchi, Flaig, Armstrong.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Stenzl, Alekseev, Iguchi, Szmulewitz, Flaig, Morlock, Ivanescu, Ramaswamy, Saad, Armstrong.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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Kidney Cancer

Deferred Cyto-reductive Nephrectomy in Patients with Newly Diagnosed Metastatic Renal Cell Carcinoma

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Abstract

Background: The use of cyto-reductive nephrectomy (CN) selectively for patients who show a favorable response to upfront systemic therapy may be an approach to select optimal candidates with metastatic renal cell carcinoma (mRCC) who are most likely to benefit.

Objective: We sought to characterize outcomes of deferred CN (dCN) after upfront sunitinib, outcomes relative to sunitinib alone, and outcomes of CN followed by sunitinib.

Design, setting, and participants: We used the prospectively maintained International mRCC Database Consortium (IMDC) database to identify patients with newly diagnosed mRCC (2006–2018).

Intervention: Sunitinib alone, upfront CN followed by sunitinib, sunitinib followed by dCN.

Outcome measurements and statistical analysis: Outcomes were overall survival (OS) and time to sunitinib treatment failure (TTF). Kaplan-Meier and multivariable Cox regression analyses were performed; dCN was analyzed as a time-varying covariate to account for immortal time bias.

Results and limitations: We evaluated 1541 patients, of whom 651 (42%) received sunitinib alone, 805 (52%) underwent CN followed by sunitinib, and 85 (5.5%) received sunitinib followed by dCN, at a median of 7.8 mo from diagnosis. Median OS periods for patients treated with sunitinib alone, CN followed by sunitinib, and sunitinib followed by dCN were 10, 19, and 46 mo, respectively, while the median TTF values were 4, 8, and

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13 mo, respectively. In multivariable regression analyses, sunitinib followed by dCN was significantly associated with improved OS (hazard ratio [HR]=0.45, 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.33–0.60, $p < 0.001$) and TTF (HR=0.62, 95% CI 0.46–0.85, $p = 0.003$) versus sunitinib alone. Among CN-treated patients, sunitinib followed by dCN was associated with improved OS (HR = 0.52, 95% CI 0.39–0.70, $p < 0.001$) and TTF (HR=0.71, 95% CI 0.56–0.90, $p = 0.005$) compared with upfront CN followed by sunitinib. In various sensitivity analyses, dCN remained significantly associated with improved OS and TTF. **Conclusions:** Patients who received dCN were carefully selected and achieved long OS. With these benchmark outcomes, optimal selection criteria need to be identified and confirmation of the role of dCN in a clinical trial is warranted.

Patient summary: We characterized benchmark survival outcomes for patients with metastatic kidney cancer treated with sunitinib alone, nephrectomy (kidney removal) followed by sunitinib, and sunitinib followed by nephrectomy. Patients who had their nephrectomy after an initial course of sunitinib had prolonged survival.

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1. Introduction

During an era where cytokine therapies were the only systemic options for metastatic renal cell carcinoma (mRCC) and few patients survived beyond 2 yr [1], two randomized trials established a role for cytoreductive nephrectomy (CN) [2–4]. With the introduction of more effective systemic therapies [5], the role of CN has been revisited.

Retrospective data have supported an ongoing survival benefit associated with CN in mRCC in patients treated with targeted therapies [6–9]. However, the CARMENA trial found that sunitinib alone was noninferior to upfront CN followed by sunitinib in intermediate- and poor-risk mRCC patients [10].

It has been debated whether the trial's study population is representative of patients with mRCC selected for CN in real-world practice [11]. Furthermore, 17% of patients in the sunitinib-alone arm underwent a subsequent CN, which would bias results to finding no difference, given exceptionally long survival times in these patients [12].

Careful patient selection for upfront CN is essential, yet one of the greatest hindrances of upfront CN is that 15–30% of appropriately selected patients never receive systemic therapy, most often due to rapid disease progression or postoperative complications [6]. With increasingly effective systemic therapies, the harms of failing to receive systemic therapy may overshadow the benefits of CN.

Response to upfront systemic therapy has been proposed as a potential litmus test to better identify patients who may benefit from CN [13,14]. In this regard, CN can be used more selectively in the subset of patients with a favorable response to upfront systemic therapy. The SURTIME trial compared upfront versus deferred CN (dCN) strategies in patients with mRCC treated with sunitinib. Although the trial did not complete accrual and found no difference in its primary outcome of progression-free rate, there was a signal for an overall survival (OS) benefit in the deferred CN arm [15]. Others have also examined presurgical systemic therapy prior to planned CN in single-arm studies [13,14,16]. However, real-world outcome data are also needed to complement the data from patients specially selected for participation in these clinical trials.

As such, we sought to characterize outcomes of dCN after upfront sunitinib. Specifically, we sought to determine whether dCN is associated with improved survival in patients who have been treated with upfront sunitinib. We also sought to include patients who underwent CN followed by sunitinib as a comparison group. Our hypothesis was that patients undergoing sunitinib followed by dCN would have longer survival than patients receiving sunitinib alone and those receiving upfront CN followed by sunitinib.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Study design, setting, and data collection

We conducted a retrospective analysis of an international, multicenter, prospectively maintained database of mRCC and have reported findings according to the STROBE guidelines [17]. Local ethics board approval was obtained at each center. Patients newly diagnosed with mRCC between 2006 and 2018 were identified from 33 participating centers in Canada, the USA, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Italy, South Korea, Singapore, Japan, New Zealand, and Australia. Data collection using uniform database software and templates has been described previously [8]. Patient follow-up was according to local protocols.

2.2. Cohort inclusion and exclusion criteria

Only patients whose first systemic therapy was sunitinib were included. Exclusion criteria were first treatment (sunitinib or upfront CN) > 12 mo after diagnosis, a period of surveillance of > 6 mo after upfront CN (ie, sunitinib given > 6 mo after upfront CN), unknown timing of dCN, and missing data on confounder variables (Supplementary Fig. 1).

2.3. Study exposure, outcomes, and covariates

Patients received upfront CN followed by sunitinib, sunitinib alone, or sunitinib followed by dCN, defined as any CN done after the receipt of upfront sunitinib. The primary outcome was OS, measured from the time of initiation of first treatment. The secondary outcome was time to treatment failure (TTF), defined as the time from the initiation of first treatment (upfront CN or upfront sunitinib) to the initiation of second-line systemic therapy or mortality.

Patients were grouped according to International mRCC Database Consortium (IMDC) risk classifications [18,19]. The best response to

sunitinib was categorized according to RECIST principles by the local investigator as complete response (CR), partial response (PR), stable disease (SD), or progressive disease (PD).

2.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). Baseline cohort characteristics were compared between groups using the Kruskal-Wallis and the chi-square tests for continuous and categorical variables, respectively. Survival curves were plotted using the Kaplan-Meier method in order to describe benchmark OS and TTF outcomes, and were compared using the log-rank test. Patients were censored if lost to follow-up or at the end of study follow-up if they did not experience the events of interest. The median follow-up time was estimated using the reverse Kaplan-Meier method [20].

Multivariable Cox proportional hazards models were then created, including a term for upfront CN (vs upfront sunitinib) and a term for dCN (as a time-varying covariate; vs sunitinib alone), and also including the following a priori selected potential confounders: upfront CN and dCN, age at diagnosis (continuous), sex, year of diagnosis (continuous), Karnofsky performance status (≥ 80 vs < 80), IMDC risk group (intermediate vs poor risk; by definition, favorable-risk patients were not included), clear cell versus non-clear cell histology, sarcomatoid dedifferentiation, number of metastatic sites (continuous), and location of metastases (lung, brain, liver, bone, and lymph node). In order to account for immortal time bias, dCN was operationalized as a time-varying covariate [21]. In order to compare upfront CN followed by sunitinib versus upfront sunitinib followed by dCN strategies, separate models were made comparing these approaches in the subset of patients who underwent CN.

A subset analysis was performed on patients who received upfront sunitinib and had data available for the best response to sunitinib. First, we created additional multivariable models assessing the association between dCN and survival outcomes, and further adjusting for the type of response to sunitinib (PD, SD, or PR/CR) along with the previously mentioned covariates. Next, given that patients with PD may not be optimal candidates for dCN [13,14,16], we performed an additional subset analysis of patients with CR, PR, or SD to again evaluate the association between dCN and survival outcomes in this restricted subset using multivariable modeling.

Given evidence that the classical rule of 10 events per variable is not always required [22], the a priori plan was to include all clinically relevant potential confounders in the multivariable models provided that models did not appear overspecified. For further reassurance, we performed sensitivity analyses using backward selection (with threshold for model inclusion set at $p < 0.05$) and the change-of-estimate approach (whereby only covariates that changed the main effect estimate by $> 10\%$ were included) [23–25] as variable reduction strategies, with the intent to reduce the number of variables in the model and to ensure that effect estimates remain stable.

Given that our priority was optimal control of confounders, the main analysis was performed on the complete case cohort. As a sensitivity analysis to ensure that bias was not being introduced by excluding patients with missing data on covariates, survival models with only dCN and upfront CN were run in the source cohort, including patients with missing covariates.

Finally, given that observation designs cannot entirely address unmeasured confounding, a sensitivity analysis without assumptions was performed. This sensitivity analysis evaluates the joint magnitude of the association between dCN and unmeasured confounders, and the association between unmeasured confounders and OS that would be necessary to explain away or invert the observed association between the initial treatment approach and OS [26–29].

Table 1 – Cohort characteristics.

Variable	Whole cohort (n = 1541)
Continuous variables, median (IQR)	
Age (yr)	61 (54–68)
Year of diagnosis	2011 (2008–2013)
No. of metastatic sites	2 (1–3)
Categorical variables, n (%)	
Female sex	403 (26)
Karnofsky performance < 80	427 (28)
Poor IMDC risk (vs. intermediate)	618 (40)
Clear cell histology	1311 (85)
Sarcomatoid dedifferentiation	232 (15)
Brain metastasis	130 (8)
Lung metastasis	1141 (74)
Liver metastasis	333 (22)
Bone metastasis	593 (38)
Nodal metastasis	785 (51)
Other metastatic site	461 (30)
Number of metastatic sites	
1	435 (28)
2	546 (35)
3	371 (24)
4	147 (10)
5+	42 (3)
IMDC = International Metastatic Renal Cell Carcinoma Database Consortium; IQR = interquartile range.	

All hypothesis tests were two sided, and $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

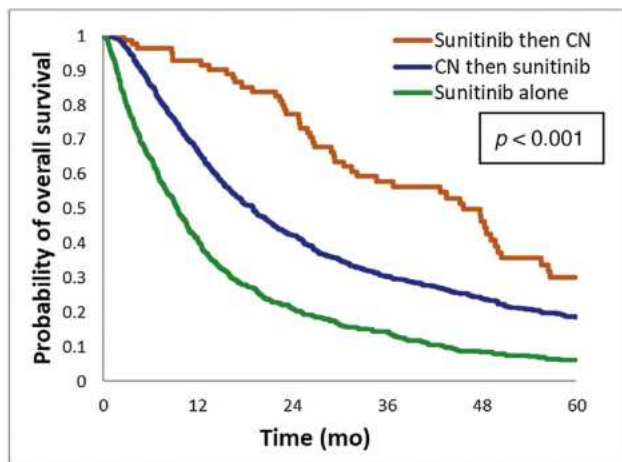
3. Results

The final cohort included 1541 patients with newly diagnosed mRCC, of whom 805 received upfront CN followed by sunitinib, 651 received sunitinib alone, and 85 received sunitinib followed by dCN at a median of 7.8 mo (interquartile range [IQR] 4.8–12.6) from the date of initiation of sunitinib (Supplementary Fig. 1). Cohort characteristics are described in Table 1. Patients who received sunitinib alone were slightly older at diagnosis and were more likely to have diminished Karnofsky performance status, IMDC poor-risk disease, and a greater number of metastatic sites.

There were 1202 deaths, and 1415 patients experienced sunitinib treatment failure. Median follow-up among survivors from first treatment initiation was 25 mo (IQR 10–49).

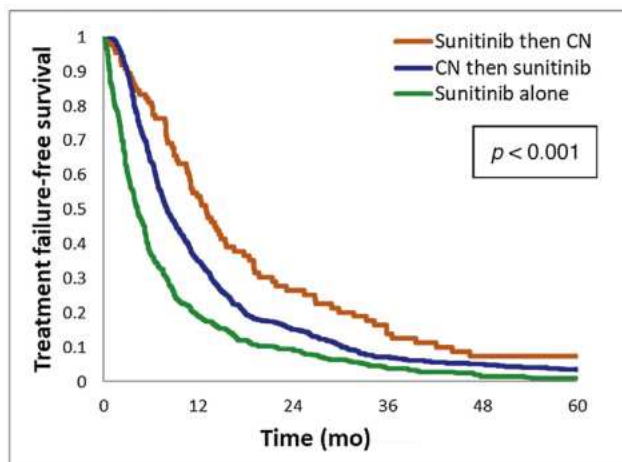
3.1. Overall survival

The OS for each group is shown in Fig. 1A. The median OS times for patients treated with sunitinib alone, CN followed by sunitinib, and sunitinib followed by CN were 10 (IQR 4–20), 19 (IQR 9–46), and 46 (IQR 25–67) mo, respectively. Upon multivariable adjustment and accounting for immortal time bias, upfront CN followed by sunitinib versus sunitinib alone remained significantly associated with improved OS (hazard ratio [HR] = 0.60, 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.53–0.68, $p < 0.001$), as did sunitinib followed by dCN versus sunitinib alone (HR = 0.45, 95% CI 0.33–0.60,



Time (mo)	0	12	24	36	48	60
Sunitinib then CN	85	76	58	38	26	14
CN then sunitinib	805	497	272	157	110	69
Sunitinib alone	651	246	121	70	35	21

A



Time (mo)	0	12	24	36	48	60
Sunitinib then CN	85	45	21	11	6	5
CN then sunitinib	805	263	99	41	28	16
Sunitinib alone	651	112	52	18	7	3

B

Fig. 1 – Overall survival and time to treatment failure in the main cohort: (A) overall survival and (B) time to treatment failure. CN=cytoreductive nephrectomy.

$p < 0.001$; Table 2). Among CN-treated patients, sunitinib followed by dCN was associated with improved OS compared with upfront CN followed by sunitinib (HR = 0.52; 95% CI 0.39–0.70, $p < 0.001$; Table 2).

3.2. Time to treatment failure

The TTF for each group is shown in Fig. 1B. The median TTF values for patients treated with sunitinib alone, CN followed by sunitinib, and sunitinib followed by CN were 4 (IQR 2–9), 8 (IQR 5–16), and 13 (IQR 8–27) mo, respectively. Upon multivariable adjustment and accounting for immortal time bias, upfront CN followed by sunitinib versus sunitinib alone remained significantly associated with improved TTF (HR = 0.68, 95% CI 0.61–0.76, $p < 0.001$), as did sunitinib followed by dCN versus sunitinib alone (HR = 0.62, 95% CI 0.46–0.85, $p = 0.003$; Table 2). Among CN-treated patients, sunitinib followed by dCN was associated with improved TTF compared with upfront CN followed by sunitinib (HR = 0.71, 95% CI 0.56–0.90, $p = 0.005$; Table 2).

3.3. Subset analysis of patients treated with sunitinib alone and available response data

A total of 619 patients receiving upfront sunitinib had data available on the best response to sunitinib. Patients who received subsequent dCN were more likely to have had a PR or a CR (Supplementary Table 1). To account for this, a multivariable analysis further adjusting for the type of response was performed on this subset, and it was found that dCN remained significantly associated with improved OS (HR = 0.39, 95% CI 0.28–0.54, $p < 0.001$) and TTF (HR = 0.48, 95% CI 0.34–0.68, $p < 0.001$; Table 3).

Given that patients with PD may not be ideal candidates for dCN, and that those who underwent and who did not undergo dCN with PD may be unmeasurably different, a sensitivity analysis excluding patients with PD was performed. Of note, the interaction term between dCN and response type was significant for OS and TTF (both $p < 0.001$). Among patients receiving upfront sunitinib, median OS periods without and with dCN were 16 (IQR 9–32) and 46 (IQR 25–67) mo, respectively ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 2A), while median TTF values without and with dCN were 8 (IQR 5–16) and 14 (IQR 9–27) mo, respectively ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 2B). Upon multivariable analysis, which additionally adjusted for these types of responses, dCN remained significantly associated with OS (HR = 0.58, 95% CI 0.40–0.84, $p = 0.004$) and TTF (HR = 0.67, 95% CI 0.48–0.92, $p = 0.01$; Table 3).

There was no evidence that multivariable models were overspecified. Sensitivity analyses using backward selection and the change-of-estimate approaches produced more parsimonious models and yielded stable effect estimates compared with the main analysis (Supplementary material). Sensitivity analyses that did not exclude patients with missing variables yielded similar results to our main analysis (Supplementary material). Another sensitivity analysis was performed requiring tighter timelines from initial diagnosis to first treatment (CN or sunitinib; 3 mo

Table 2 – Multivariable models for whole cohort analysis.

	HR (95% CI)	p value
Overall survival		
Model 1		
Upfront CN then sunitinib (vs upfront sunitinib) ^a	0.60 (0.53–0.68)	<0.001
Sunitinib then dCN (vs sunitinib alone) ^a	0.45 (0.33–0.60)	<0.001
Model 2		
Sunitinib then dCN (vs upfront CN then sunitinib) ^b	0.52 (0.39–0.70)	<0.001
Treatment failure-free survival		
Model 3		
Upfront CN then sunitinib (vs upfront sunitinib) ^a	0.68 (0.61–0.76)	<0.001
Sunitinib then CN (vs sunitinib alone) ^a	0.62 (0.46–0.85)	0.003
Model 4		
Sunitinib then dCN (vs upfront CN then sunitinib) ^b	0.71 (0.56–0.90)	0.005
CI = confidence interval; CN = cytoreductive nephrectomy; dCN = deferred cytoreductive nephrectomy; HR = hazard ratio; mRCC = metastatic renal cell carcinoma.		
Models adjusted for upfront CN and dCN, age at diagnosis (continuous), sex, year of diagnosis (continuous), Karnofsky performance status (≥ 80 vs < 80), International mRCC Database Consortium (IMDC) risk group (intermediate vs poor risk; by definition, favorable-risk patients were not included), clear cell versus non-clear cell histology, sarcomatoid dedifferentiation, number of metastatic sites (continuous), and location of metastases (lung, brain, liver, bone, and/or lymph node).		
^a The first set of models included all patients in the model. This model included a term for “upfront CN then sunitinib” (vs upfront sunitinib) and a term for “sunitinib then dCN” (vs sunitinib alone) in the same model, the latter of which was a time-varying covariate.		
^b The second set of models evaluated the subset of patients who had CN, directly comparing “sunitinib followed by dCN” versus “upfront CN followed by sunitinib” strategies ($n = 890$).		

instead of 12 mo) and for sunitinib to be after upfront CN (3 mo instead of 6 mo). This sensitivity analysis yielded similar results to our main analysis (data not shown). Another sensitivity analysis was performed including the receipt of sunitinib as a time-varying covariate, which also yielded similar results (data not shown). Finally, our sensitivity analysis without assumptions found that in order to explain away the association between dCN and OS that was no longer significant, a strong association between the receipt of dCN and unmeasured confounders, and jointly a strong association between unmeasured confounders and OS, would be required (Supplementary Table 2).

4. Discussion

The present analysis provides real-world benchmark OS and TTF outcomes for patients with newly diagnosed mRCC treated with sunitinib alone, CN followed by sunitinib, and sunitinib followed by dCN. Notably, patients with mRCC treated with sunitinib followed by dCN achieved prolonged

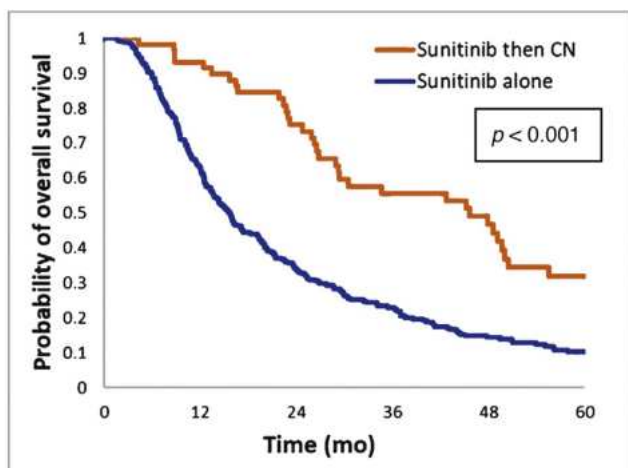
OS and TTF when appropriately selected. Furthermore, upon adjusting for confounders and type of response to sunitinib, dCN remained significantly associated with improved OS and TTF. This analysis of patients treated during the targeted therapy era supports the use of dCN among patients receiving upfront tyrosine kinase inhibitors in select cases.

Our data closely mirror the findings of a secondary analysis of the CARMENA trial presented at the American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO) 2019 annual meeting, where it was found that, in the sunitinib-alone arm, secondary nephrectomy was associated with improved OS compared with no nephrectomy (median OS: 48.5 vs 15.7 mo; HR = 0.34, 95% CI 0.22–0.54) [12]. Meanwhile, OS of patients who underwent dCN in studies of the National Cancer Database were at least similar to, if not longer than, the OS of those who underwent upfront CN, presumably due to being selected as having more favorable biology based on passing a systemic therapy litmus test [27,30].

One of the major reservations regarding the upfront treatment of mRCC with CN is the risk of not receiving

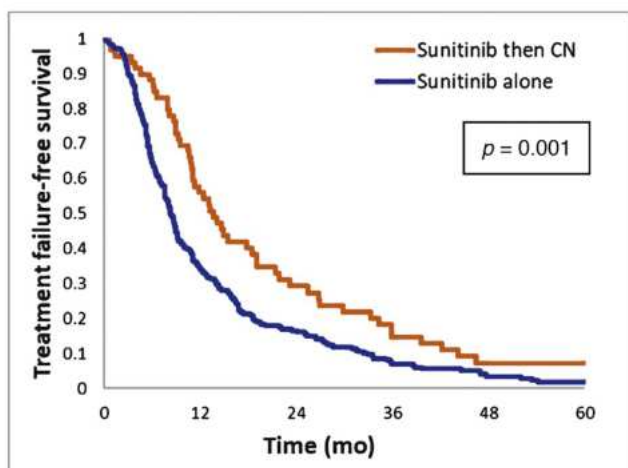
Table 3 – Subgroup analyses of patients receiving upfront sunitinib, further adjusting for the type of response to sunitinib.

	HR (95% CI)	p value
Effect of deferred CN on overall survival		
All patients receiving upfront sunitinib	0.39 (0.28–0.54)	<0.001
Subset with CR/PR/SD	0.58 (0.40–0.84)	0.004
Effect of deferred CN on treatment failure-free survival		
All patients receiving upfront sunitinib	0.48 (0.34–0.68)	<0.001
Subset with CR/PR/SD	0.67 (0.48–0.92)	0.01
CI = confidence interval; CN = cytoreductive nephrectomy; CR = complete response; dCN = deferred cytoreductive nephrectomy; HR = hazard ratio; mRCC = metastatic renal cell carcinoma; PD = progressive disease; PR = partial response; SD = stable disease.		
Models adjusted for upfront CN and dCN, age at diagnosis (continuous), sex, year of diagnosis (continuous), Karnofsky performance status (≥ 80 vs < 80), International mRCC Database Consortium (IMDC) risk group (intermediate vs poor risk; by definition, favorable-risk patients were not included), clear cell versus non-clear cell histology, sarcomatoid dedifferentiation, number of metastatic sites (continuous), location of metastases (lung, brain, liver, bone, and/or lymph node), and type of response to upfront sunitinib (CR/PR, SD, PD).		



Time (mo)	0	12	24	36	48	60
Sunitinib then CN	59	55	40	27	19	11
Sunitinib alone	325	194	100	59	31	20

A



Time (mo)	0	12	24	36	48	60
Sunitinib then CN	59	33	16	8	4	4
Sunitinib alone	325	104	47	17	7	3

B

Fig. 2 – Subset analysis of patients treated with upfront sunitinib with stable disease, partial response, or complete response: (A) overall survival and (B) time to treatment failure. CN=cytoreductive nephrectomy.

subsequent systemic therapy in 15–30% of patients, most often due to rapid disease progression or postoperative complications [6]. In the CARMENA trial, 18% of patients randomized to upfront CN did not receive postoperative sunitinib [10]. Not receiving sunitinib may have over-

shadowed any potential survival benefit provided by CN. In contrast, not receiving cytokine therapies in the trials from the cytokine era [2–4] may not be as impactful. This may, in part, explain why CN resulted in improved survival in trials from the cytokine era [2–4] but not in CARMENA [10].

An initial course of systemic therapy may be a way to identify patients with aggressive biology destined to do poorly. Indeed, phase II trials have supported the use of upfront systemic therapy as a litmus test to aid in the selection of patients for CN [13,14]. For example, Powles et al [13] reported a phase II trial of 66 patients who received presurgical sunitinib prior to planned CN, of whom 27% had disease progression prior to or at the time of planned surgery. Patients with Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center intermediate- and poor-risk disease who had disease progression on presurgical sunitinib had median OS times of 3 and 1 mo, respectively; progression prior to planned surgery was strongly associated with worse OS (HR=5.34, 95% CI 2.74–11.62). These data were then validated by Powles et al [14] in a phase II trial of 104 patients receiving presurgical pazopanib prior to planned CN. In this study, 16% had PD and did not proceed to surgery, while 84% of patients achieved “clinical benefit” with pazopanib, defined as no clinical or radiographic progression while on presurgical pazopanib. Similarly to sunitinib, patients who had PD on pazopanib had shorter OS compared with those who achieve clinical benefit (median OS 3.9 vs 24.0 mo, HR=3.92, 95% CI 1.78–8.63). As such, upfront systemic therapy identified patients with PD who would be unlikely to benefit from CN and allowed the use of dCN in a clearer subset of patients who are more likely to benefit.

Despite existing literature, optimal patient selection remains to be defined. The phase II trials by Powles and colleagues [13,14] had 61–71% of patients undergoing dCN. The reason for not undergoing dCN was primarily PD on sunitinib or patient choice. Meanwhile, 17% of patients in the sunitinib-alone arm of CARMENA underwent dCN, primarily those with strong PRs or CRs [10]. While the proportion of responders is expected to increase in the immuno-oncology (IO) era, the optimal proportion of patients to submit to CN remains to be defined.

Strengths of our study include the use of a large, international, multicenter, prospectively maintained registry of patient with mRCC with long follow-up, and its consistency with existing literature. Furthermore, data on IMDC risk factors, performance status, metastatic burden, and response to systemic therapy allowed for more granular risk adjustment between groups. There are also limitations worth mentioning. First, as with all observational studies, it is not possible to account for unmeasured differences between groups that may have influenced treatment selection. For example, individual comorbidity data were not available, although performance status was captured. Our sensitivity analysis without assumptions suggests that this effect would have to be quite strong to explain away the observed associations. Second, given that this database depends on patients receiving systemic therapy, it is unknown how many patients underwent upfront CN and did not receive subsequent sunitinib, which may have

impacted survival times in the upfront CN group. Third, we focused on patients treated with sunitinib to allow for a more homogenous cohort. Given that phase II data on presurgical sunitinib and pazopanib are similar [13,14], it is likely that our data also apply to patients treated with pazopanib. It remains to be determined how dCN will play a role in patients treated with IO-based combination therapy; analyses evaluating upfront CN and dCN in IO-treated patients in the IMDC are underway. Additionally, two prospective randomized studies will further clarify the impact of dCN in IO-treated patients: NORDIC-SUN (ClinicalTrials.gov: NCT03977571) and SWOG-1931. Notably, the efficacy of IO-based therapies have been established in trial populations where >80% of patients have had prior nephrectomy [31–33]. Further understanding of the role of CN in these patients will improve as data on these patients mature. Fourth, we did not have data on metastasis-directed therapy, but it may have played a role in the prolonged OS observed in the dCN group. Metastasis-directed therapy should be considered an important component of cytoreductive strategies, particularly in light of data suggesting prolonged survival when complete metastasectomy can be achieved [34]. Finally, we did not have data on the indication for dCN. It is likely that a minority were done for controlling hemorrhage or palliation. Furthermore, given the poor prognosis in such patients, it is likely, if anything, that their inclusion in the dCN group would bias results toward the null.

5. Conclusions

Our data support the use of dCN among selected patients with mRCC after upfront systemic therapy. Further validation of the role of dCN is urgently warranted, ideally in the setting of a clinical trial using IO-based combination therapy. However, in the meantime, dCN should remain a therapeutic consideration for selected patients, given that, even in the most conservative scenario, dCN was an important component of therapy provided in the “sunitinib-only” control arm of the CARMENA trial.

Author contributions: Bimal Bhindi had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Bhindi, Heng.

Acquisition of data: Heng, Graham, Wells, Donskov, Fraccon, Pasini, Lee, Basappa, Hansen, Kollmannsberger, Kanesvaran, Yuasa, Ernst, Srinivas, Rini, Bowman, Pal, Choueiri.

Analysis and interpretation of data: Bhindi, Graham, Wells, Bakouny, Donskov, Fraccon, Pasini, Lee, Basappa, Hansen, Kollmannsberger, Kanesvaran, Yuasa, Ernst, Srinivas, Rini, Bowman, Pal, Choueiri, Heng.

Drafting of the manuscript: Bhindi.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Bhindi, Graham, Wells, Bakouny, Donskov, Fraccon, Pasini, Lee, Basappa, Hansen, Kollmannsberger, Kanesvaran, Yuasa, Ernst, Srinivas, Rini, Bowman, Pal, Choueiri, Heng.

Statistical analysis: Bhindi, Wells.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.04.038>.

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Case Series of the Month

Urinary Frequency as a Possibly Overlooked Symptom in COVID-19 Patients: Does SARS-CoV-2 Cause Viral Cystitis?

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Abstract

The current coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic is a challenge for physicians in triaging patients in emergency rooms. We found a potentially dangerous overlap of classical urinary symptoms and the as yet not fully described symptoms of COVID-19. After a patient was primarily triaged as a urosepsis case and then subsequently diagnosed with COVID-19, we focused on an increase in urinary frequency as a symptom of COVID-19 and identified this in seven males out of 57 patients currently being treated in our COVID-19 wards. In the absence of any other causes, urinary frequency may be secondary to viral cystitis due to underlying COVID-19 disease. We propose consideration of urinary frequency as an anamnestic tool in patients with infective symptoms to increase awareness among urologists during the current COVID-19 pandemic to prevent fatal implications of misinterpreting urological symptoms.

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1. Case series

1.1. Background

After its initial discovery in Wuhan, China the novel severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has spread throughout the world and the consecutive coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) was declared a pandemic by the World Health Organization shortly afterwards [1]. As

the pandemic is still in an early phase and many symptoms have not yet been fully described [2], careful clinical observation is of paramount importance. Rocco et al [3] pointed out the importance of early recognition of symptoms by urologists for proper triage of patients and to prevent missing possible SARS-CoV-2 infection because of an overlap of COVID-19 and classical urological symptoms. We believe that in addition to fever, an increase in urinary frequency should be considered as an important



overlapping symptom with urosepsis in the differential diagnosis of COVID-19 both in ambulatory care and in emergency rooms.

1.2. Cases

A case with suspected urinary sepsis was admitted to the emergency department of a university hospital. The patient reported fever, shivering, flank pain, urgency, and increased urinary frequency as initial symptoms. Initial urine analysis via urine sediment and urine culture demonstrated no signs of infection. The patient was discharged home with oral antibiotics. As part of the routine work-up in German hospitals, a nasopharyngeal swab that had been taken on the same day revealed a positive result for SARS-CoV-2 by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) the following day. Subsequently, the patient was admitted to one of our specialized COVID-19 wards with aggravating symptoms including fever, fatigue, and breath-dependent chest pain.

Urinary frequency is a common symptom in urinary infection. In order to investigate if this was present in other patients with COVID-19, we retrospectively and prospectively looked at patient histories for the presence of urinary frequency on admission to our specialized COVID-19 wards. In the time period from March 16 to April 13, 2020, seven males out of 57 patients reported an increase in urinary frequency along with dry cough ($n=5$), fever ($n=3$), and shortness of breath ($n=3$) as leading symptoms (Tables 1 and 2). All patients tested positive for SARS-CoV-2 in nasopharyngeal swabs and developed pulmonary symptoms detectable on imaging (Fig. 1). Micturition protocol revealed an average of 13.7 micturitions per day on the day of admission and 11.6 on day 5. In all patients, urinary infection, acute renal injury, and prostatitis were excluded by urine analysis and normal serum creatinine and prostate-specific antigen (PSA), respectively. Prostate volumes were evaluated via ultrasound, which revealed mildly enlarged prostates in all patients; there were no signs of residual urine or significant bladder wall thickening. SARS-CoV-2 RNA was not detected by PCR in any urinary specimens taken from all the patients during the first week after admission. Two patients had detectable SARS-CoV-2 RNA in serum during this period (Ct value 40; Tables 3 and 4). None of the patients required admission to the intensive care unit. The average length of stay was 15 d.

2. Discussion

The reason for higher urinary frequency is unclear so far, as the patients had no signs of acute kidney injury, bacterial infection, or prostatitis. We suspect that viral cystitis due to SARS-CoV-2 causes the urinary frequency symptom. It is unclear whether replication of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in urothelial cells or secondary effects due to local or systemic inflammation, such as endotheliitis [4], are a hallmark in COVID-19 patients leading to symptoms such as irritative symptoms of the lower urinary tract and high urinary frequency. Interestingly, three patients presented with microhematuria, which possibly further supports the

Table 1 – Patient characteristics.

Parameter	Result
Median age, yr (range)	62 (59–78)
Median MuLBSTA score (range) ^a	9 (6–15)
Male, n (%)	7 (100)
Chronic underlying condition, n (%)	
Hypertension	5 (71.4)
Cardiac disease	2 (28.6)
Obesity	2 (28.6)
Diabetes	2 (28.6)
Cancer	2 (28.6)
Renal disease	1 (14.3)
Benign prostatic hyperplasia	1 (14.3)

^a The MuLBSTA score is used to predict 90-d mortality in viral pneumonia [10].

Table 2 – Symptoms on admission.

Symptom	Patients, n (%)
Increased urinary frequency	7 (100)
Dry cough	5 (71.4)
Fever	3 (42.9)
Shortness of breath	3 (42.9)
Diarrhea	1 (14.3)
Shivering	1 (14.3)

hypothesis of SARS-CoV-2–induced viral cystitis on infection of urothelial cells. Conversely, we did not detect viral RNA in the urine of these patients, so it seems that urine is unlikely to be a potential source of infection, at least in our cohort.

2.1. Potential mode of action

Recent studies revealed the cell-surface protein angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) as the main receptor for the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein [5]. Investigations of the distribution across many different tissues revealed that ACE2 expression was highest in lung, intestines, and kidney, but it was also high in 2.4% of urothelial cells, potentially increasing their susceptibility to infection with SARS-CoV-2 and possible subsequent viral cystitis [6]. As viral RNA has been detected in urine of COVID-19 patients [7], it can be hypothesized that infection of tissues of the urinary tract might cause an increase in urinary frequency. Detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in serum of two hospitalized patients, similar to detection of elevated IL-6 [8], is suggestive of the assumption that urinary frequency occurs as a complication in these patients in the course of a more severe stage of infection. Despite the presence of ACE2 in the urogenital tract, negative urinary PCR results do not support the assumption of strong or even relevant continuous replication in (luminal) tissues of the efferent urinary tract. Since it is unclear whether the receptor is expressed in luminal or basal urothelial cells, the route by which SARS-CoV-2 might cause viral cystitis could be via either viremia from the basal side or urine from the luminal side of urothelial tissue. The

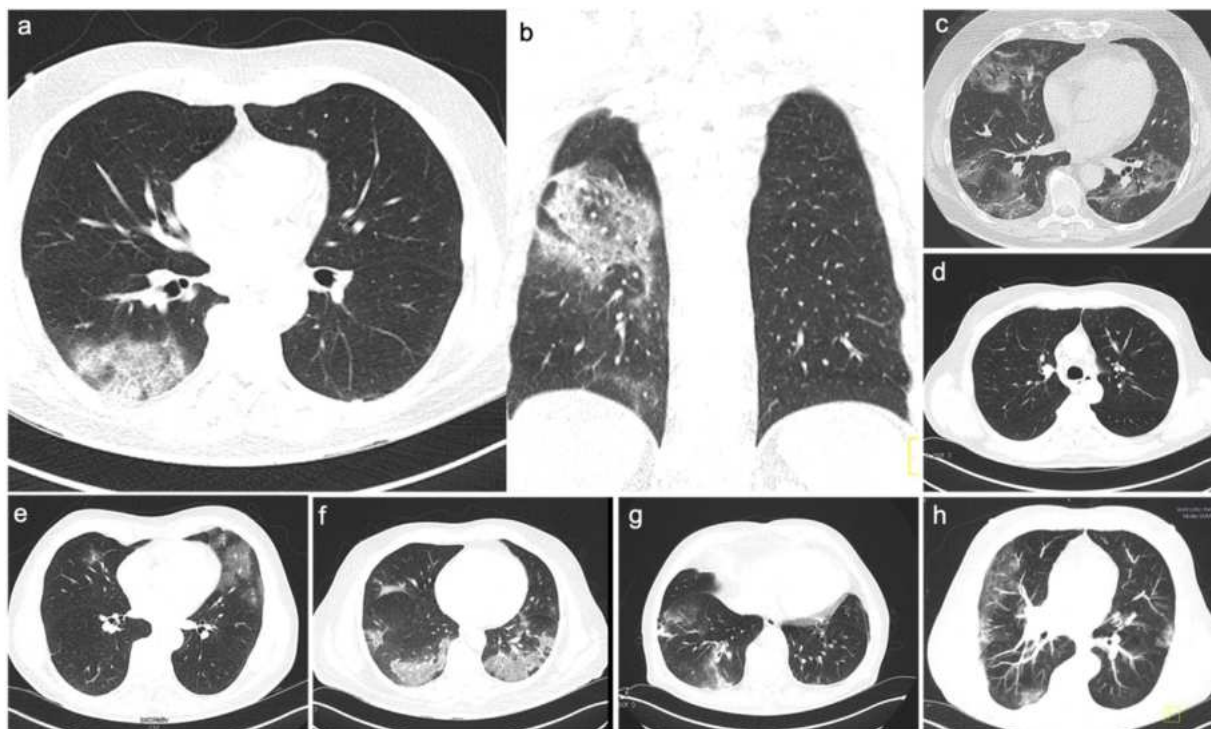


Fig. 1 – Lung imaging for all the patients. Computed tomography lung imaging was performed for all patients on admission (± 5 d). All patients showed signs of viral pneumonia, as evidenced from the images. (A,B) Images for patient 1 in the coronal and axial planes. (C–H) Images for patients 2–7, respectively, in the coronal plane. Predominantly bilateral ground glass opacification and typical COVID19-associated crazy paving areas are evident (C,F,H).
COVID19 = coronavirus disease 2019.

absence of viral RNA in urine and the detection of SARS-CoV-2 in serum of two patients might indicate a role of infection in basal urothelial cells via blood that then causes cystitis. In addition, it has been postulated that endotheliitis

might play a role in COVID-19 patients [4] and might contribute to local inflammation in the bladder (Fig. 2). Further evidence is urgently needed for a fuller understanding of the possible molecular mechanisms.

Table 3 – Pulmonary imaging and virological and laboratory results.

Test	Result
Atypical pneumonia on computed tomography, n (%)	7/7 (100)
SARS-CoV-2 RNA nasopharyngeal swab, n (%) ^a	7/7 (100)
SARS-CoV-2 RNA in serum, n (%) ^a	0/3 (0)
SARS-CoV-2 RNA in serum, n (%) ^b	2/4 (50)
SARS-CoV-2 RNA in urine, n (%)	0/6 (0)
Mean prostate volume, ml (range)	53 (35–66)
Mean residual urine, ml (range)	14.3 (0–40)
Mean urine osmolality, mosm/kg (range) ^a	547.6 (383–702)
Mean prostate-specific antigen, ng/mL (range) ^a	1.47 (0.3–3.6)
Mean creatinine, mg/dl (range) ^a	0.92 (0.7–1.4)
Mean creatinine, mg/dl (range) ^b	0.87 (0.6–1.6)
Mean maximum IL-6, pg/mL (range)	215 (26.3–1086)
Mean procalcitonin, ng/mL (range) ^a	0.1 (>0.1–0.4)
Mean lactate dehydrogenase, U/l (range) ^a	334 (223–565)
Mean leukocytes, g/l (range) ^a	5.9 (2.8–9.7)
Mean neutrophils, % (range) ^a	64 (41–92)
Mean lymphocytes, % (range) ^a	18 (6–30)
Mean eosinophils, % (range) ^a	0.7 (<1–2)

^a Day 0–5.
^b Day 5–10.

2.2. Clinical implications

Classical symptoms of urinary tract infection or urosepsis such as fever and frequent urination might be misleading during the current COVID-19 pandemic. In general, diagnosis of COVID-19 is challenging as patients often present with unclear or even subclinical signs of disease [9]. Contaminated

Table 4 – Standard urinary analysis.

	Patients, n (%)
Urinary infection	0/7 (0)
Urine dipstick	
Negative for leukocytes	7/7 (100)
Urine sediment	
Negative for leukocytes	2/4 (50)
1–3 leukocytes per high-power field	2/4 (50)
Microhematuria	3/4 (75)
Urine cultures negative ^a	6/6 (100)

^a Urine culture was not performed for one patient for whom the urine dipstick and urine sediment were negative for leukocytes.

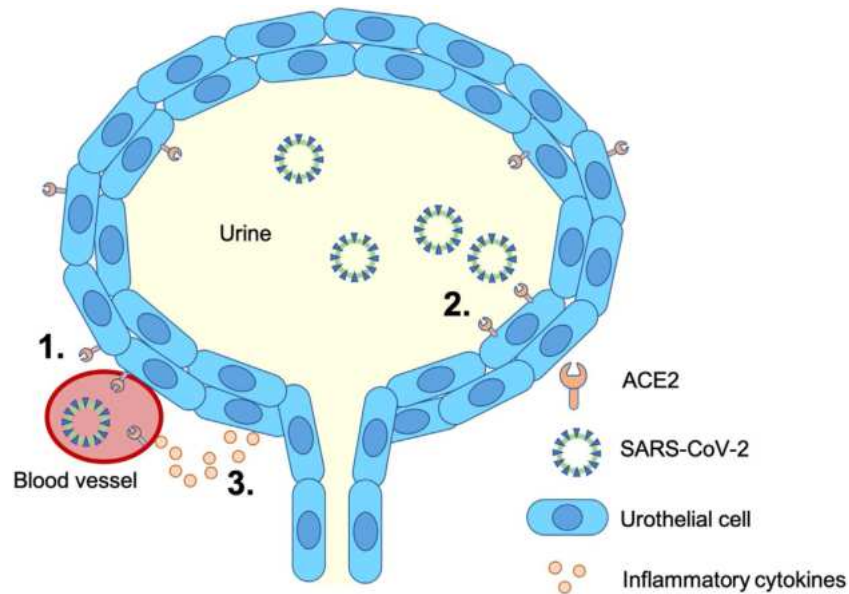


Fig. 2 – Potential mode of action. ACE2 has been described as the receptor for SARS-CoV-2, so urothelial cells might be affected in COVID-19 patients [6]. As localization of expression is unclear so far, basal or luminal expression is possible, so two possible infection routes could be hypothesized: (1) infection via capillaries is possible, especially in the light of viraemia an infection route of interest; (2) infection via urine might be possible, as SARS-CoV-2 has been detected in urine elsewhere [7]. (3) Alternatively, cystitis might be secondary due to local inflammation (eg, endotheliitis) [4]. ACE2 = angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; COVID19 = coronavirus disease 2019; SARS-CoV-2; severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2.

urine samples may hamper accurate interpretation of urine diagnostics. Furthermore, urological patients often have ureteral stents or other prosthetic materials that can lead to infected sediments in urine analysis. As these patients are often elderly or immunocompromised with comorbidities such as cancer or diabetes, they represent a high-risk cohort for both urosepsis and severe COVID-19 disease. We therefore believe that in the current COVID-19 pandemic, laboratory work-up should include blood tests such as full blood count, interleukin-6, ferritin, procalcitonin, PSA (in males), and C-reactive protein, as well as urinary examination (microscopy and culture) and nasopharyngeal swab testing for SARS-CoV-2 RNA. These diagnostic tools may be critical for differentiation between COVID-19 and urological diagnoses in patients presenting with urinary frequency.

2.3. Conclusions

We identified higher urinary frequency as an additional symptom of SARS-CoV-2 infection independent of acute renal injury or urinary tract infection in a small series of hospitalized patients. Since urinary frequency along with clinical signs such as fever and positive laboratory results for inflammatory markers may be misinterpreted as urosepsis, knowledge of this finding is important for urologists during the current COVID-19 pandemic. Further research is warranted to understand the molecular mechanisms leading to urinary frequency, potentially attributed to viral cystitis in SARS-CoV-2-infected patients, and to determine its prognostic value.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

Acknowledgments: We thank all the patients for participating in our study and all the physicians, nurses, and staff involved in the management of COVID-19 patients. We are also grateful for the efforts of Johannes Hellmuth and the team involved in establishing the prospective COVID-19 register at LMU München for providing this research platform for the benefit of patients.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.05.013>.

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ischemia times for the cohort (MAC 17 min, SAC 15 min) can perfectly explain the lack of benefit of SAC or OC over MAC.

In our opinion, more evidence is needed regarding patients with CKD, ideally from randomized prospective trials in which renal function is assessed via precise methods such as scintigraphy. Results from such trials could inform about the best possible technique to minimize ischemia times and potentially reduce complications and blood loss. So far, it is clear that PN can be performed safely with MAC for patients with CKD as long as ischemia times are kept short.

Conflicts of interest: The author has nothing to disclose.

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Re: Adjuvant Chemotherapy in Upper Tract Urothelial Carcinoma (the POUT Trial): A Phase 3, Open-label, Randomised Controlled Trial

Birtle A, Johnson M, Chester J, et al

Lancet. In press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30415-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30415-3)

Experts' summary:

The authors report results from a randomised phase 3 trial investigating four cycles of chemotherapy with cisplatin or carboplatin plus gemcitabine versus surveillance in patients with locally advanced upper urinary tract carcinoma (UTUC; pT2–4 pN0/pT_{any} N1–3 M0) after nephroureterectomy. The primary endpoint was disease-free survival (DFS). Secondary endpoints included overall survival (OS), adverse events (AEs), and quality of life (QoL) using the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) QoL questionnaire. To detect a hazard ratio (HR) of 0.65 in favour of chemotherapy in an intention-to-treat analysis, 345 patients with 172 events were required. The trial stopped when the early stopping criterion for efficacy was met at a preplanned interim analysis with 261 patients included. At median follow-up of 30.3 mo, adjuvant chemotherapy significantly improved DFS (HR 0.45, 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.30–0.68; $p=0.0001$) but results for OS are not yet available. The grade 3–4 AE rate was 44% in the treatment arm versus 4% in the surveillance arm. The authors conclude that adjuvant chemotherapy should be a new standard of care for this population.

Experts' comments:

Acknowledging differences between UTUC and transitional cell carcinoma of the bladder (TCC) [1], the conclusion from POUT requires caution in view of the EORTC 30994 immediate versus deferred chemotherapy trial

following cystectomy for locally advanced TCC of the bladder [2]. Admittedly, in POUT, which did not require extended lymph-node dissection, 9% of patients had either pathological or radiological N1–3 disease, versus 70% in EORTC 30994. In the EORTC trial, which failed to recruit the 660 patients required, OS was the primary endpoint and was underpowered in the final analysis with 284 patients. However, we should remember that at threefold longer median follow-up than in POUT, four cycles of immediate adjuvant chemotherapy for TCC of the bladder (including cisplatin plus gemcitabine) significantly improved only progression-free survival (HR 0.54, 95% CI 0.4–0.73; $p<0.0001$) and not OS (HR 0.78, 95% CI 0.56–1.08; $p=0.13$) [2]. In addition, adjuvant trials base their DFS endpoint on radiological and not symptomatic recurrence [3]. In the POUT QoL analysis, patients in both arms had similar QoL at 12 mo ($p=0.20$), suggesting no increase in symptomatic recurrences in the surveillance arm, while QoL dropped significantly in the first 6 mo in the chemotherapy arm ($p=0.0028$). Routine use of UTUC adjuvant chemotherapy should be balanced against the high rate of grade 3–4 AEs, a currently unreported OS benefit, and unproved decrease in recurrence-related symptoms.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Re: Improving Management of Upper Tract Urothelial Carcinoma

Tay LJ, Chatterton K, Colemeadow J, Nair R, Bultitude M, Thomas K

BJU Int. In press. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bju.15068>

Experts' summary:

The authors from Guy's Hospital report their patterns of care after streamlining their management of upper tract urothelial carcinomas (UTUC) by creating a multidisciplinary team (MDT) within the existing bladder MDT. For the first 32 patients in the new setting who were treated with definitive surgery, the median time from referral to surgery decreased from 54 to 33 d compared to the preceding 6-mo period. Furthermore, the proportion of patients treated with radical nephroureterectomy who had undergone a diagnostic ureteroscopy was only 46%, which contributed to more rapid booking of the patients who actually needed diagnostic ureteroscopy.

Experts' comments:

Several factors contribute to the suitability of an MDT in UTUC: the different additional diagnostic options (ureteroscopies, pyelographies, selective cytologies), the wide variety of treatment alternatives, and above all the rareness of the disease. In one survey [1], the urologic malignancy for which treatment changed most frequently (44%) after implementing an MDT approach was bladder cancer; considering the additional complexity of UTUC, at least the same proportion is likely for this disease entity. Furthermore, improving the interaction between urologists, nuclear medicine specialists, radiologists, oncologists, pathologists, specialist nurses, and clinical research representatives in the MDT setting will repeatedly give the opportunity to highlight and improve all components of the management of the disease. For example, considering the current diversity of computed tomography (CT) urogram techniques [2], reassessment of the CT urogram during the MDT evaluating the quality of the examination is likely to affect the use and type of additional diagnostic procedures. The higher risk of intravesical recurrence after diagnostic ureteroscopy before definitive surgery [3] must be balanced against diagnostic uncertainties when maximizing the diagnostic information from available urinary cytology specimens by applying the Paris System during reassessment of cytology specimens at the MDT [4]. At our center, where the MDT is similar to that described by Tay and coworkers, the rate of ureteroscopy before robot-assisted nephroureterectomy

was 11/26 (42%) in 2019. With phase 3 trial data supporting adjuvant chemotherapy in advanced UTUC, there is a greater need to include preoperative assessment of increases in split renal function, especially in the setting of limited node-positive disease when preoperative induction chemotherapy is a treatment option. Furthermore, if suspicion of locally advanced disease is raised at an MDT, a nuclear medicine specialist might suggest a fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/CT on the basis of the recently reported high sensitivity and specificity for detection of nodal metastases with this modality in UTUC [5].

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Words of Wisdom

Re: Do Patients with Stage 3–5 Chronic Kidney Disease Benefit from Ischaemia-sparing Techniques During Partial Nephrectomy?

Beksac AT, Okhawere KE, Rosen DC, et al

BJU Int 2020;125:442–8

Experts' summary:

In this multicenter, retrospective study, Beksac et al evaluated 462 patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD) who underwent robot-assisted partial nephrectomy (PN) between 2006 and 2018 to analyze whether modified clamping techniques could offer benefits for renal function in patients with stage 3–5 CKD [1]. Clamping techniques besides main arterial clamping (MAC) included selective arterial clamping (SAC) and off-clamp (OC), used in 48 (10.4%) and 39 patients (8.4%), respectively. Renal function was assessed as estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR), which was similar between the groups at baseline. Mean follow-up was 12 mo, and eGFR measurements at >24 mo were excluded to limit confounding variables on renal function. The groups differed in the following variables: MAC patients had higher body mass index (BMI) and were less likely to have hypertension, more likely to have a larger tumor, and more likely to have completely endophytic tumors. Conversely, tumors for which SAC was used were more likely to have a higher RENAL score, to be hilar, and in solitary kidneys.

In the multivariable analysis adjusted for BMI, hypertension, solitary kidney, tumor size, RENAL nephrometric score, endophytic tumors, laterality, and hilar, there were no differences between SAC and MAC or between OC and MAC in the decline in eGFR over time. The authors found that the complication rate, estimated blood loss, and operative time were similar for non-MAC and MAC patients, and that these techniques were not associated with any functional benefit in patients with stage 3–5 CKD.

Experts' comments:

The study by Beksac et al deals with a specific population never assessed before in terms of ischemia during PN, patients with stage 3–5 CKD. These results will further enrich the debate about the need for clamping techniques for the group of patients that we believe benefit the most from PN and modified clamping techniques. These results will further enrich the discussion over PN in this select group of patients with CKD.

The most relevant data probably come from the recent systematic review by Simone et al [2], who concluded that OC PN may be particularly applicable for patients presenting with low baseline renal function and maintains safety in terms of complications and negative surgical margins.

Doubts over the ideal strategy for preserving renal function arose after the only randomized clinical trial of PN versus radical nephrectomy, EORTC-30904. The study prompted a different view of PN, because the authors proved that although nephron-sparing surgery can substantially reduce the incidence of moderate renal dysfunction, this did not result in greater survival over median follow-up of 7.7 yr [3].

The fact that this retrospective series analyzed patients since 2006 helps us to interpret the results in a more contemporary fashion, mainly because other studies involve patients treated over a longer period of time, when anesthesia techniques and patient care were not as evolved. Although the study was retrospective, the groups were well balanced, mean baseline eGFR was similar, and most of the patients in all three groups had stage 3 CKD (93.6% for MAC, 100% for SAC, and 89.7% for OC).

Regarding the differences between the groups, as this was not a randomized trial and all surgeons had experience in the three techniques, we easily understand the use of specific techniques for some cases. MAC may be preferred in cases for which more bleeding is expected, such as larger and completely endophytic tumors. SAC would be preferred for solitary kidneys, for which surgeons will try to minimize ischemia to healthy parenchyma as much as possible. In the case of hilar tumors, as dissection is more precise within this area, it is theoretically easier to continue dissecting through arterial branches and perform selective clamping.

Minimization of renal function loss depends on the so-called three Qs: quality (renal function before surgery), quantity (renal parenchyma preserved during surgery), and quickness (ischemia time) [4]. Although larger tumors will involve greater loss of functional units within a kidney, in our opinion, minimizing ischemia time, regardless of clamping technique, is probably the most important of these three characteristics.

Porpiglia et al [5] assessed renal function postoperatively using renal scintigraphy and concluded that OC might not be necessary for most patients if the ischemia time is kept to <25 min. Thus, we agree with the authors that the low mean



ischemia times for the cohort (MAC 17 min, SAC 15 min) can perfectly explain the lack of benefit of SAC or OC over MAC.

In our opinion, more evidence is needed regarding patients with CKD, ideally from randomized prospective trials in which renal function is assessed via precise methods such as scintigraphy. Results from such trials could inform about the best possible technique to minimize ischemia times and potentially reduce complications and blood loss. So far, it is clear that PN can be performed safely with MAC for patients with CKD as long as ischemia times are kept short.

Conflicts of interest: The author has nothing to disclose.

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Re: Adjuvant Chemotherapy in Upper Tract Urothelial Carcinoma (the POUT Trial): A Phase 3, Open-label, Randomised Controlled Trial

Birtle A, Johnson M, Chester J, et al

Lancet. In press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30415-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30415-3)

Experts' summary:

The authors report results from a randomised phase 3 trial investigating four cycles of chemotherapy with cisplatin or carboplatin plus gemcitabine versus surveillance in patients with locally advanced upper urinary tract carcinoma (UTUC; pT2–4 pN0/pT_{any} N1–3 M0) after nephroureterectomy. The primary endpoint was disease-free survival (DFS). Secondary endpoints included overall survival (OS), adverse events (AEs), and quality of life (QoL) using the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) QoL questionnaire. To detect a hazard ratio (HR) of 0.65 in favour of chemotherapy in an intention-to-treat analysis, 345 patients with 172 events were required. The trial stopped when the early stopping criterion for efficacy was met at a preplanned interim analysis with 261 patients included. At median follow-up of 30.3 mo, adjuvant chemotherapy significantly improved DFS (HR 0.45, 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.30–0.68; $p=0.0001$) but results for OS are not yet available. The grade 3–4 AE rate was 44% in the treatment arm versus 4% in the surveillance arm. The authors conclude that adjuvant chemotherapy should be a new standard of care for this population.

Experts' comments:

Acknowledging differences between UTUC and transitional cell carcinoma of the bladder (TCC) [1], the conclusion from POUT requires caution in view of the EORTC 30994 immediate versus deferred chemotherapy trial

following cystectomy for locally advanced TCC of the bladder [2]. Admittedly, in POUT, which did not require extended lymph-node dissection, 9% of patients had either pathological or radiological N1–3 disease, versus 70% in EORTC 30994. In the EORTC trial, which failed to recruit the 660 patients required, OS was the primary endpoint and was underpowered in the final analysis with 284 patients. However, we should remember that at threefold longer median follow-up than in POUT, four cycles of immediate adjuvant chemotherapy for TCC of the bladder (including cisplatin plus gemcitabine) significantly improved only progression-free survival (HR 0.54, 95% CI 0.4–0.73; $p<0.0001$) and not OS (HR 0.78, 95% CI 0.56–1.08; $p=0.13$) [2]. In addition, adjuvant trials base their DFS endpoint on radiological and not symptomatic recurrence [3]. In the POUT QoL analysis, patients in both arms had similar QoL at 12 mo ($p=0.20$), suggesting no increase in symptomatic recurrences in the surveillance arm, while QoL dropped significantly in the first 6 mo in the chemotherapy arm ($p=0.0028$). Routine use of UTUC adjuvant chemotherapy should be balanced against the high rate of grade 3–4 AEs, a currently unreported OS benefit, and unproved decrease in recurrence-related symptoms.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Re: Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen PET-CT in Patients with High-risk Prostate Cancer Before Curative-intent Surgery or Radiotherapy (proPSMA): A Prospective, Randomised, Multi-centre Study

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Expert's summary:

In this randomised study, the authors compared the performance of prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) positron emission tomography (PET)-computed tomography (CT) versus conventional imaging in 302 men with high-risk prostate cancer (prostate-specific antigen >20 ng/ml, grade group 3–5, clinical stage \geq T3) [1]. The primary endpoint was the performance (patient-level analysis) of imaging for detecting either nodal or distant metastatic disease. PSMA PET-CT had a 27% absolute greater area under the receiver operating characteristic curve for accuracy than conventional imaging, and higher sensitivity (85% vs 38%) and specificity (98% vs 91%). The number of equivocal lesions was reduced by approximately three when PSMA PET-CT was used compared with conventional imaging. A clinical management change was considered in 15% of men undergoing conventional imaging after randomisation, compared with 28% in men undergoing PSMA PET-CT ($p = 0.008$).

Expert's comments:

Novel imaging tools such as PET-CT have been developed to more accurately detect disease with low metastatic burden and potentially modify cancer management and improve outcomes [2,3]. These assumptions are attributed to a higher tumour-to-background contrast and to the radiotracer specificity for prostate cancer cells. However, until this publication, firm prospective comparative data were missing in the context of preoperative assessment. This randomised trial confirms with a high level of evidence that PSMA PET-CT outperforms conventional imaging for detection of metastatic disease in the setting of presumably localised high-risk prostate cancer in men who are candidates for radical treatment of the primary tumour. It demonstrates that PSMA PET-CT can (or should) replace conventional imaging given its meaningful impact on treatment decision-making. The main limitation is that histological confirmation of metastatic tissue was not

systematically achieved for all participants, even though biopsy of suspected sites was strongly encouraged in the protocol. Nevertheless, the authors included 6-mo repeat imaging to confirm or not the metastatic nature of equivocal lesions. On the basis of these findings, PSMA PET-CT undoubtedly improves the snapshot of high-risk disease. However, we do not really know to date if this improvement in detection leads to better disease management or better outcomes. One can argue that this high-resolution imaging, if positive, could lead to undertreatment of the primary tumour. Nevertheless, given the available literature on oligometastatic disease, the advent of PET-CT as a staging tool could improve the management of these patients at high risk of recurrence via early targeting of small metastatic lesions using stereotactic body radiotherapy and/or a more aggressive multimodal strategy [4,5].

Conflicts of interest: The author has nothing to disclose.

References

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Re: Variability of the Positive Predictive Value of PI-RADS for Prostate MRI Across 26 Centers: Experience of the Society of Abdominal Radiology Prostate Cancer Disease-focused Panel

Westphalen AC, McCulloch CE, Anaokar JM, et al
Radiology 2020;296:76–84

Experts' summary:

The Society of Abdominal Radiology Prostate Cancer Disease panel recently reported a retrospective, cross-sectional study

evaluating the ability of prostate magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) to detect International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) grade group ≥ 2 ($GG \geq 2$) cancer at multiple centres [1]. The study goal was to document variability in $GG \geq 2$ cancer detection and provide a snapshot of MRI performance in mostly academic US centres. Data for a heterogeneous cohort of 3449 men with Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System (PI-RADS) from two to five lesions (biopsy-naïve 38%, prior biopsy with positive and negative histology 56%, unknown 6%) were analysed as a single pool. Concomitant systematic transrectal ultrasound-guided biopsy (SB) was

performed in 92%. The incidence of $GG \geq 2$ cancers was 49% (Fig. 1).

The positive predictive value (PPV) variance by PI-RADS category was chosen as the measure for test performance. We believe that the report mistakenly ascribed the PPV variability observed to the PI-RADS assessment without considering multiple sources of heterogeneity.

Experts' comments:

MRI scans were evaluated by practice-based radiologists using PI-RADS assessment as part of standard clinical care [2]. The final report and not the MRI scans were reviewed. The authors failed to account for variables such as MR field strength, scanner vendor, endorectal coil use, image quality, reader quality, MRI positivity threshold for biopsy, biopsy-targeting method, experience of biopsy operators, need for SB samples, pathological expertise, or adherence to the ISUP consensus on Gleason grading [3]. The experience and biopsy performance of the 140 interpreting radiologists ($n=89$) must inevitably vary across centres. The experience of the physicians performing biopsies and the radiological interactions for prostate and target delineations and ultrasound-MRI data fusion were not reported. Concomitant systematic biopsies were performed in most patients and analysed separately. Unfortunately, the expertise of the pathologists is also not described.

Three analyses were conducted: (1) model-based estimates of PPV at lesion level; (2) lesion-based intercentre PPV variability, evaluated as the median and interquartile range by PI-RADS category; and (3) patient-level benefits of the MRI pathway, compared in a subset undergoing both SB and targeted biopsies. The authors comment on two principal observations. First, men undergoing MRI-targeted biopsy demonstrate an overall low lesion-level PPV. Second,

there is wide intercentre PPV variance regardless of the PI-RADS category cutoff used.

Lesion-level MRI pathway performance

PI-RADS assessment behaved properly, showing increasing rates of $GG \geq 2$ cancers with increasing PI-RADS suspicion categories. The estimated PPV for PI-RADS assessment categories was 5% for PI-RADS 2, 15% for PI-RADS 3, 39% for PI-RADS 4, and 72% for PI-RADS 5. These data are in line with a recent meta-analysis by Barkovich et al [4].

Westphalen et al [1] emphasized the “low” lesion-level PPV (35%). There are two explanations for this seemingly “low” PPV. First, the case mix: the overall lesion PPV will be higher if more PI-RADS 4–5 findings are included and correspondingly will decrease with inclusion of more PI-RADS 2–3 lesions [5]. They included a high number of PI-RADS 2–3 lesions (40%), which automatically lowers the lesion-level PPV because of the lower prevalence of $GG \geq 2$ cancers [1,4].

Second, PPV depends on disease prevalence in the study cohort. Some centres included men with prior positive biopsies with $GG \geq 2$ cancers. It seems likely that urologists selected men for MRI-guided biopsy when they were uncertain about tumour grade. These lesions are likely to be smaller $GG \geq 2$ cancers, which would reduce the PI-RADS 5 category and thus lower the PPV. These factors should have been mentioned as limitations if lesion-level PPV is adopted as a benchmark.

Intercentre lesion PPV variability

The authors noted wide intercentre lesion PPV variability. Multiple factors can affect the ability of the MRI pathway to detect $GG \geq 2$. As mentioned, the leading issue is disease

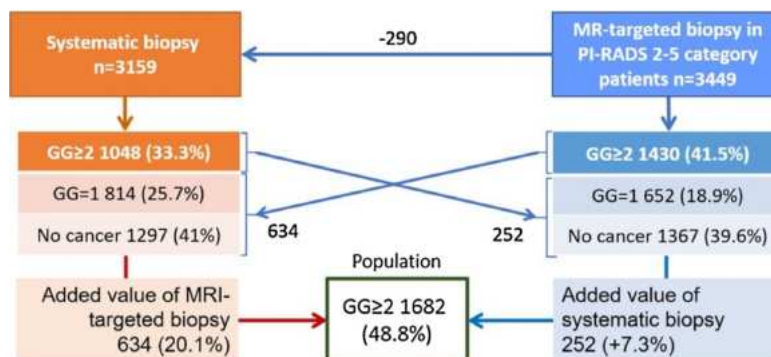


Fig. 1 – Patient flows and biopsy results for the study by Westphalen et al [1]. Only men undergoing targeted biopsies were analysed; 90% underwent systematic biopsies (selection criteria unknown), that is, 290 patients had only targeted biopsies.

GG=International Society of Urological Pathology grade group; MRI=magnetic resonance imaging; PI-RADS=Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System.

prevalence in the patient cohort. Statistical corrections in the study did not address the heterogeneous case mix at the centres (Fig. 2). As a result, the PPV for each centre differed. Furthermore, essential factors affecting the entire MRI pathway and thus the lesion PPV were not systematically considered [6–8]. There were no assessments of image quality, resulting in variable quality. The training and experience of the interpreting radiologists varied and are undocumented. Finally, there is likely to be wide inter-rater variability for GG scoring [9].

MRI pathway performance

The authors expressed concerns regarding the reliability of PI-RADS because of the high intercentre PPV variability. However, it is important to emphasise that the most important benefit of prostate MRI for biopsy-naïve men is its high patient-level negative predictive value (NPV) for GG >2 cancers, rather than its lesion-based PPV. A high patient-level NPV allows biopsy avoidance in a substantial percentage of men and reduces the rate of detection of GG 1 cancer [10]. In this study we cannot estimate the patient-level variability of NPV because negative cases were not submitted for the review process.

Table 1 – Steps to achieving end-to-end quality in the MRI prostate cancer diagnostic pathway.^a

Element	Comments
Patients	Risk-based selection
MRI data acquisition	Quality assurance and quality control of MRI machines, PI-RADS standard compliance, technologist expertise
MRI reading	Experienced readers
Selection for biopsy	Multidisciplinary team
Prebiopsy preparations	Prostate gland and target delineations and MRI-US data fusion
MRI-targeted biopsies	Skilled operators
Histopathology	Experienced pathologists

MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; PI-RADS = Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System; US = ultrasound.

^a Multiple elements must be coordinated for successful use of MRI for prostate cancer diagnosis. Diagnostic units require quality assurance programs, quality control of MRI and pathology evaluations, and trained individuals working within multidisciplinary teams.

Unlike the PPV, the NPV is less susceptible to operator biopsy performance and histopathological errors. Interestingly, the value of adding MRI biopsy to SB was high (20.1%; Fig. 1) compared to the Cochrane meta-analysis (10.9%) [11].

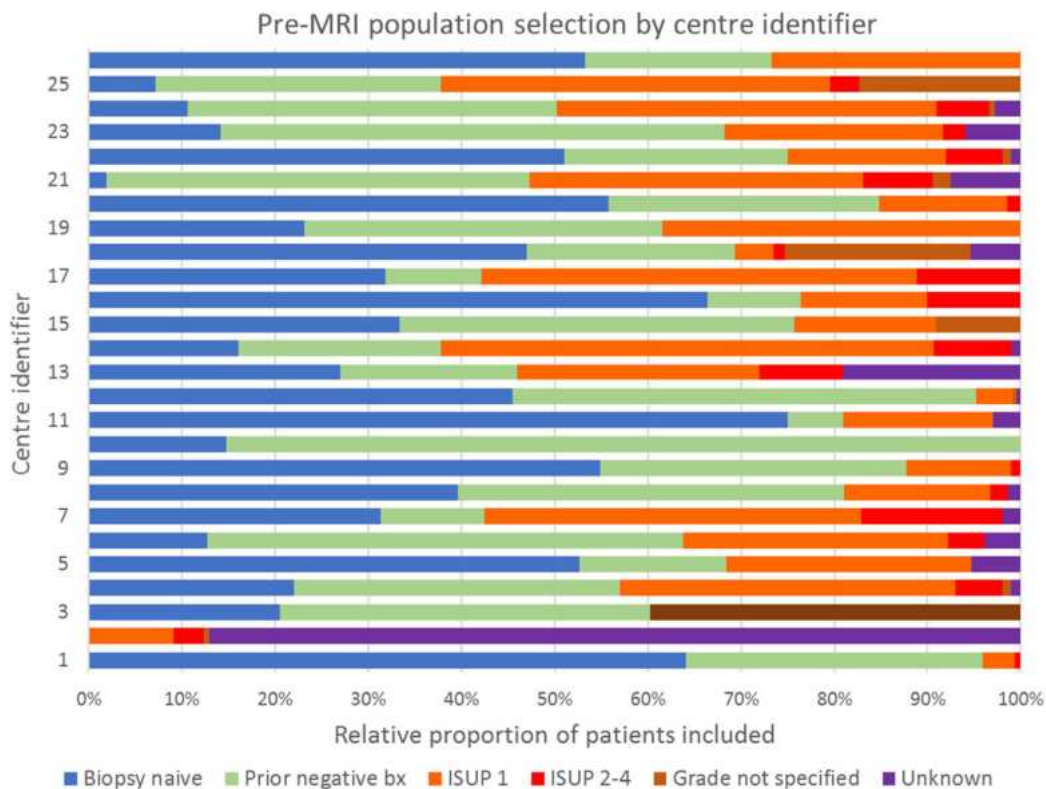


Fig. 2 – Heterogeneity in patient case mix at each centre. The case mix at participating centres was very heterogeneous, resulting in differing prevalence according to the proportion of each patient group included.

ISUP = International Society of Urological Pathology.

Conclusions

The title and take-home messages from the paper by Westphalen et al [1] may give a false impression that PI-RADS assessments appear to be underperforming. It is incorrect to suggest that the wide intercentre PPV indicates poor PI-RADS performance. Careful analysis of the data shows that the PI-RADS assessment performs well, as designed. The known patient benefits of MRI for detecting GG ≥ 2 cancers over SB are observable, even in this heterogeneous cohort. It must be emphasized again that the clinical benefits of the MRI pathway arise from its high patient-level NPV and not the PPV, which allows biopsy avoidance and reduces the detection rate of GG 1 cancer.

The PPV shows considerable intercentre variability caused by heterogeneities across the entire MRI pathway, from patient selection to MR image quality, to reading quality, to biopsy performance and pathological experience. It is essential to ensure that all individuals involved in the MRI pathway workflow are competent, and that quality controls and quality assurance procedures are in place at prostate MRI facilities (Table 1). The most important lesson from this paper is the high intercentre PPV variability, which clearly indicates the constant need to improve end-to-end quality in the MRI-directed diagnostic process.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Re: Improving Management of Upper Tract Urothelial Carcinoma

Tay LJ, Chatterton K, Colemeadow J, Nair R, Bultitude M, Thomas K

BJU Int. In press. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bju.15068>

Experts' summary:

The authors from Guy's Hospital report their patterns of care after streamlining their management of upper tract urothelial carcinomas (UTUC) by creating a multidisciplinary team (MDT) within the existing bladder MDT. For the first 32 patients in the new setting who were treated with definitive surgery, the median time from referral to surgery decreased from 54 to 33 d compared to the preceding 6-mo period. Furthermore, the proportion of patients treated with radical nephroureterectomy who had undergone a diagnostic ureteroscopy was only 46%, which contributed to more rapid booking of the patients who actually needed diagnostic ureteroscopy.

Experts' comments:

Several factors contribute to the suitability of an MDT in UTUC: the different additional diagnostic options (ureteroscopies, pyelographies, selective cytologies), the wide variety of treatment alternatives, and above all the rareness of the disease. In one survey [1], the urologic malignancy for which treatment changed most frequently (44%) after implementing an MDT approach was bladder cancer; considering the additional complexity of UTUC, at least the same proportion is likely for this disease entity. Furthermore, improving the interaction between urologists, nuclear medicine specialists, radiologists, oncologists, pathologists, specialist nurses, and clinical research representatives in the MDT setting will repeatedly give the opportunity to highlight and improve all components of the management of the disease. For example, considering the current diversity of computed tomography (CT) urogram techniques [2], reassessment of the CT urogram during the MDT evaluating the quality of the examination is likely to affect the use and type of additional diagnostic procedures. The higher risk of intravesical recurrence after diagnostic ureteroscopy before definitive surgery [3] must be balanced against diagnostic uncertainties when maximizing the diagnostic information from available urinary cytology specimens by applying the Paris System during reassessment of cytology specimens at the MDT [4]. At our center, where the MDT is similar to that described by Tay and coworkers, the rate of ureteroscopy before robot-assisted nephroureterectomy

was 11/26 (42%) in 2019. With phase 3 trial data supporting adjuvant chemotherapy in advanced UTUC, there is a greater need to include preoperative assessment of increases in split renal function, especially in the setting of limited node-positive disease when preoperative induction chemotherapy is a treatment option. Furthermore, if suspicion of locally advanced disease is raised at an MDT, a nuclear medicine specialist might suggest a fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/CT on the basis of the recently reported high sensitivity and specificity for detection of nodal metastases with this modality in UTUC [5].

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Re: 17-Gene Genomic Prostate Score Test Results in the Canary Prostate Active Surveillance Study (PASS) Cohort

Lin DW, Zheng Y, McKenney JK, et al

J Clin Oncol 2020;38:1549–57

Expert's summary:

Lin and colleagues evaluated the 17-gene Oncotype DX Genomic Prostate Score (GPS) test applied to diagnostic biopsy tissue from patients with low-risk prostate cancer. The test was evaluated as a predictor of adverse pathology (AP) in men who underwent radical prostatectomy after initial management with active surveillance (AS) [1]. In a multicenter setting, the authors also looked at the association between GPS and time to upgrading on surveillance biopsy. Among 432 men on AS with median follow-up of 4.6 yr, 167 (39%) showed upgrading at a subsequent biopsy. At a median of 2.1 yr after their diagnostic biopsy, 101 men (23%) underwent radical prostatectomy, of whom 51% showed AP. GPS was found to be associated with AP when the diagnostic Gleason grade group (GG) was taken into account, but not after adjustment for both prostate-specific antigen density (PSAD) and diagnostic GG. Interestingly, PSAD was significantly associated with AP. The authors concluded that GPS was significantly associated with AP in radical prostatectomy specimens when adjusted for diagnostic GG, but adding GPS to a model containing PSAD and diagnostic GG did not significantly improve stratification of risk for AP over the clinical variables alone. PSAD and percentage positive biopsy cores remained significantly associated with upgrading.

Expert's comments:

The value of adding a molecular test to clinical variables for risk stratification for patients with prostate cancer has been demonstrated in several studies. Four different tests are frequently used in the USA as they are covered by Medicare for qualified patients and mentioned in the latest National Comprehensive Cancer Network guidelines (v2.2019) [2]. An American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO)-European Association of Urology (EAU)-American Urological Association (AUA) multidisciplinary expert panel recently published guidelines on molecular biomarkers in localized prostate cancer and agreed that tissue-based molecular biomarkers may improve risk stratification when added to standard clinical parameters. However, the panel endorsed their use only in situations in which the assay results may have an impact on clinical decision-making [3]. In most studies, molecular markers have been evaluated for possible improvement in risk stratification and patient management. The use of molecular markers to predict disease progression in patients on AS has not been fully explored. The 17-gene Oncotype DX GPS test of diagnostic biopsy tissue has been shown to predict AP in patients with low- and intermediate-risk prostate cancer treated with immediate radical prostatectomy [4]. The test has also been externally validated [5].

There are many aspects on the use of tissue biomarkers for prostate cancer patients on AS. We are already using biomarkers to select patients suitable for AS. However, there are other biomarkers besides the costly molecular test. In the guidelines from the ASCO-EAU-AUA expert panel, the

price for the most common molecular tests were between US\$3900 and US\$5150.

In the recent paper by Lin et al [1], PSAD and GG seemed to perform better than GPS in predicting AP. The value of GPS in predicting AP in men on AS was also evaluated by Kornberg et al [6]. In a single-center study involving 215 men, the authors found—in contrast to Lin et al—that GPS was an independent predictor of AP, with a statistically significant hazard ratio. The studies were not identically designed and there is a need for additional studies on the true value of molecular tissue biomarkers for men on AS for prostate cancer.

Another important aspect of the GPS test and other molecular biomarkers is the quality of the tissue samples analyzed. Besides the heavily discussed issue of intra- and intertumoral heterogeneity, there may be a problem with retrieval of sufficient RNA. The use of optimized processing protocols has not yet overcome this problem. In the study by Lin et al, 27% of the biopsies had insufficient residual tumor tissue for GPS testing, which represents a potential limitation of some tissue-based genomic assays.

Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging may also play an important role in the optimization of surveillance schedules and triggers for intervention, and the same is true for germline DNA testing.

The multicenter study by Lin et al showed that GPS added to a model containing PSAD and diagnostic GG did not significantly improve stratification of risk for AP over the clinical variables alone. This is in line with the recent recommendations from the ASCO-EAU-AUA expert panel that tissue-based molecular tests should be used together with routine clinical factors and only in situations in which the results are likely to affect a clinical decision.

Conflicts of interest: The author has nothing to disclose.

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lifestyle modification, and different treatment regimens for this group.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Elucidating Durable Responses to Immune Checkpoint Inhibition

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Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) are under investigation for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) [1]. Mismatch DNA repair deficiency (MMRd) [2] and high tumour lymphocyte infiltration (TIL) [3] represent biomarkers of ICI response. Here we report on two mCRPC patients with exceptional responses to pembrolizumab, outlining their disease biology in attempts to explain this sensitivity (previous oncological history is reported in the Supplementary material).

In November 2016, patient 1 started pembrolizumab 200 mg every 3 wk, when his baseline prostate-specific antigen (PSA) was 59 µg/l and scans showed a right external iliac nodal mass (Fig. 1A). The main adverse events were grade 4 hyperamylasaemia and grade 2 sicca syndrome, requiring a treatment break and high-dose steroids. He experienced a complete radiological response, with undetectable PSA, which persists 40 mo after starting pembrolizumab (Fig. 1B,C). Immunohistochemistry (IHC) studies were positive for

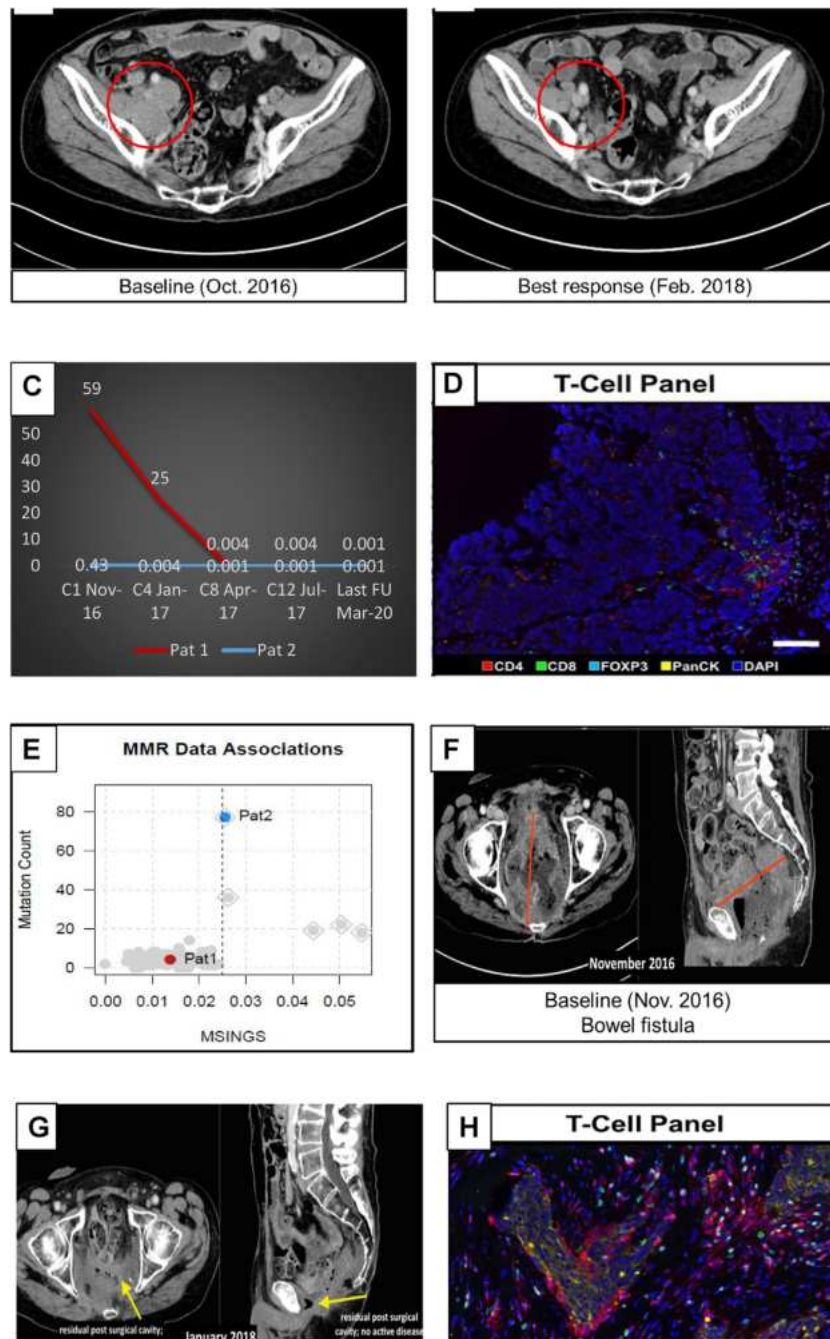


Fig. 1 – (A) Computed tomography (CT) scan at baseline before starting pembrolizumab in October 2016 depicting a right-sided internal iliac nodal mass measuring 33 mm. (B) CT scan in February 2018 after 20 courses of pembrolizumab depicting response. (C) Prostate-specific antigen during treatment and at last follow-up (FU) for patients 1 (red) and 2 (blue). (D) Multispectral, multicolour immunofluorescence depicting T-cell infiltration in a lymph node biopsy for patient 1. Red denotes CD4⁺ cells, green, CD8⁺ cells, and light blue, FOXP3⁺ cells; this panel depicts few immune cells in this sample. (E) Scatter plot depicting mutation load versus microsatellite instability by next-generation sequencing (MSINGS) for 100 fresh biopsies from a Royal Marsden cohort. The red dot represents patient 1 and the blue dot, patient 2. Diamond frames indicate mismatch DNA repair (MMR) loss cases on immunohistochemistry. (F) CT scan for patient 2 before the start of pembrolizumab in November 2016 depicting a large pelvic mass with associated fistula. (G) Whole-body diffusion magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan in Jan 2018 showing the post-surgery pelvic cavity with no residual malignancy. (H) Multispectral, multicolour immunofluorescence for T-cell infiltration in a pelvic mass sample from patient 2 showing abundant infiltration of CD4⁺ and FOXP3⁺ cells.

MSH6, MSH2, MLH1, and PMS2, and negative for PD-L1, with a C-terminal binding antibody. IHC for CD3⁺ and multicolour immunofluorescence analyses revealed few TILs (Fig. 1D). Next-generation sequencing (NGS) and copy number analyses showed ERCC2, ERCC3, FANCA, and TP53 deep deletions, with a

low microsatellite instability (MSI)-NGS score and low mutation load (MutLoad) (Fig. 1E). Surprisingly, array-based comparative genomic hybridisation analysis detected a rearrangement in chromosome 9p between PD-L1 and PD-L2 with deletion of the 3'-untranslated region of PD-L1.

Patient 2 commenced pembrolizumab 200 mg every 3 wk in November 2016; his PSA was 0.43 $\mu\text{g/l}$ and scans revealed bilateral pelvic nodes, a large pelvic mass (53 mm), and a complex fistula between the rectum and bladder. He received 11 pembrolizumab courses with no immunological toxicity and experienced a partial response. However, pembrolizumab was stopped because of fistula worsening requiring intravenous antibiotics and surgical intervention. He made a full recovery and remains disease-free 40 mo after starting pembrolizumab (Fig. 1F,G). Tumour NGS had indicated an MSH6 mutation (Y214*), high MutLoad, and high MSINGS score, with MSH6 loss but incomplete MSH2 loss on IHC, as well as PD-L1 positivity (1%). IHC showed high TILs; most of these cells were CD4⁺FOXP3 and Tregs (CD4⁺FOXP3⁺; Fig. 1H).

We previously showed that a small but important subset of mCRPC tumours have evidence of MMRd by IHC and this is associated with high MutLoad and MSI-NGS. However, only some MMRd cancers present with high T-cell infiltration, PD-L1 protein expression, and elevated T-cell-associated transcripts [2].

The rearrangement identified for patient 1 was associated with immune evasion and PD-L1 overexpression in mouse models using an N-terminal binding antibody [4]. This could explain his PD-L1 negativity (since the antibodies routinely used target the C-terminus) and extraordinary response to pembrolizumab in an otherwise immune “cold” tumour.

Patient 2, besides MMRd, presented with a highly inflamed cancer, mainly represented by Tregs and CD4⁺FOXP3 cells. Interestingly, in mCRPC models, ICIs reprogram CD4⁺ cells towards a Th1 rather than Th17 lineage in nodal disease, possibly explaining this responsiveness [5].

In conclusion, elucidation of the mCRPC subset benefiting from ICIs requires multiple orthogonal assays, including genomic analyses, IHC, and tumour microenvironment studies.

Conflicts of interest: Johann S. de Bono has served on advisory boards for MSD, Merck Serono, Pfizer, Genentech/Roche, AstraZeneca, Astellas,

Janssen, GSK, Genmab, Amgen, Daiichi Sankyo, and Bayer. The remaining authors have nothing to disclose.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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June 24, 2020

COVID-19–related Mortality During the First 60 Days After Kidney Transplantation

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The COVID-19 pandemic prompted the decision to suspend most organ transplantation programs in affected countries, especially in Europe [1]. A recent large population-based

report revealed that the cohort at highest risk of in-hospital death due to COVID-19 was the organ transplant population, with a hazard ratio of 4.27 [2]. Published experiences

Research Letter

Inferior Cancer Survival for Men with Localized High-grade Prostate Cancer but Low Prostate-specific Antigen

Christian D. Fankhauser^{a,b,c,*}, Kathryn L. Penney^{b,d}, Amparo G. Gonzalez-Feliciano^b, Noel W. Clarke^c, Thomas Hermanns^a, Konrad H. Stopsack^e, Michelangelo Fiorentino^f, Massimo Loda^g, Brandon Mahal^{h,i}, Travis A. Gerke^j, Mark A. Preston^k, Lorelei A. Mucci^b

Results from the Surveillance, Epidemiology and End Results (SEER) Program and National Cancer Data Base (NCDB) indicate that among men with localized, high-grade prostate cancer, those with low prostate-specific antigen (PSA) levels at diagnosis have worse prognosis compared to men with intermediate PSA levels [1]. This prior analysis was based on data with rather short median follow-up of only 2–4 yr, which is limited given the long natural history of prostate cancer, and only reported on a limited number of prostate cancer deaths. The aim of our analysis was to validate these findings among men with Gleason score 8–10 prostate cancer within the US Health Professionals Follow-up Study (HPFS). Gleason scores were re-reviewed by experienced genitourinary pathologists according to the most recent grading recommendations [2]. The primary endpoint was lethal prostate cancer, defined as death from prostate cancer or the development of metastases during follow-up.

The association between PSA and lethal prostate cancer was modeled using restricted cubic splines with four knots and Cox regression.

Of 4908 men with localized prostate cancer diagnosed between 1988 and 2015 and data on PSA available at diagnosis and follow-up, 716 had Gleason score 8–10 tumors. The median age at diagnosis was 70 yr (interquartile range 66–77). Primary treatment included radical prostatectomy (43%), radiotherapy (33%), brachytherapy (8%), hormonal therapy (9%), and watchful waiting or other therapies (9%; Supplementary Table 1). Over median follow-up of 13 yr (interquartile range 8–19), 156 men (22%)

experienced progression to lethal prostate cancer and 259 (36%) noncancer deaths occurred. The association between diagnostic PSA levels and lethal disease is presented in Fig. 1A. After adjustment for clinical stage, Gleason score, and treatment received, men with low PSA (<5 ng/mL) at diagnosis were at higher risk of lethal progression compared to men with intermediate PSA levels (5–8 ng/ml; hazard ratio [HR] 1.83, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.05–3.20). Men with high PSA (>8 ng/mL) also had an excess risk of lethal prostate cancer (HR 2.14, 95% CI 1.35–3.40) compared to those with intermediate PSA. Competing-risk analyses revealed that all-cause mortality exceeded lethal cancer events among the whole cohort and that lethal prostate cancer was more common for men with low or high PSA at diagnosis (Fig. 1B).

These results suggest a J-shaped rather than a linear association between PSA and lethal disease among men with localized high-grade prostate cancer. Data from this prospective cohort with long-term follow-up confirm prior findings of worse oncological outcomes for men with high-grade prostate cancer and low PSA at diagnosis. Previous research suggested that altered neuroendocrine/small-cell histology and androgen receptor signaling might be a reason for the inferior oncological outcomes [1]. This may explain why men with high-grade prostate cancer and low PSA often respond differently to primary or salvage therapies [3]. Our data support the need for an amended clinical definition of “highest-risk” localized prostate cancer expanded to include men in the low PSA group. Further research is needed to explore genomic and/or genetic tests,

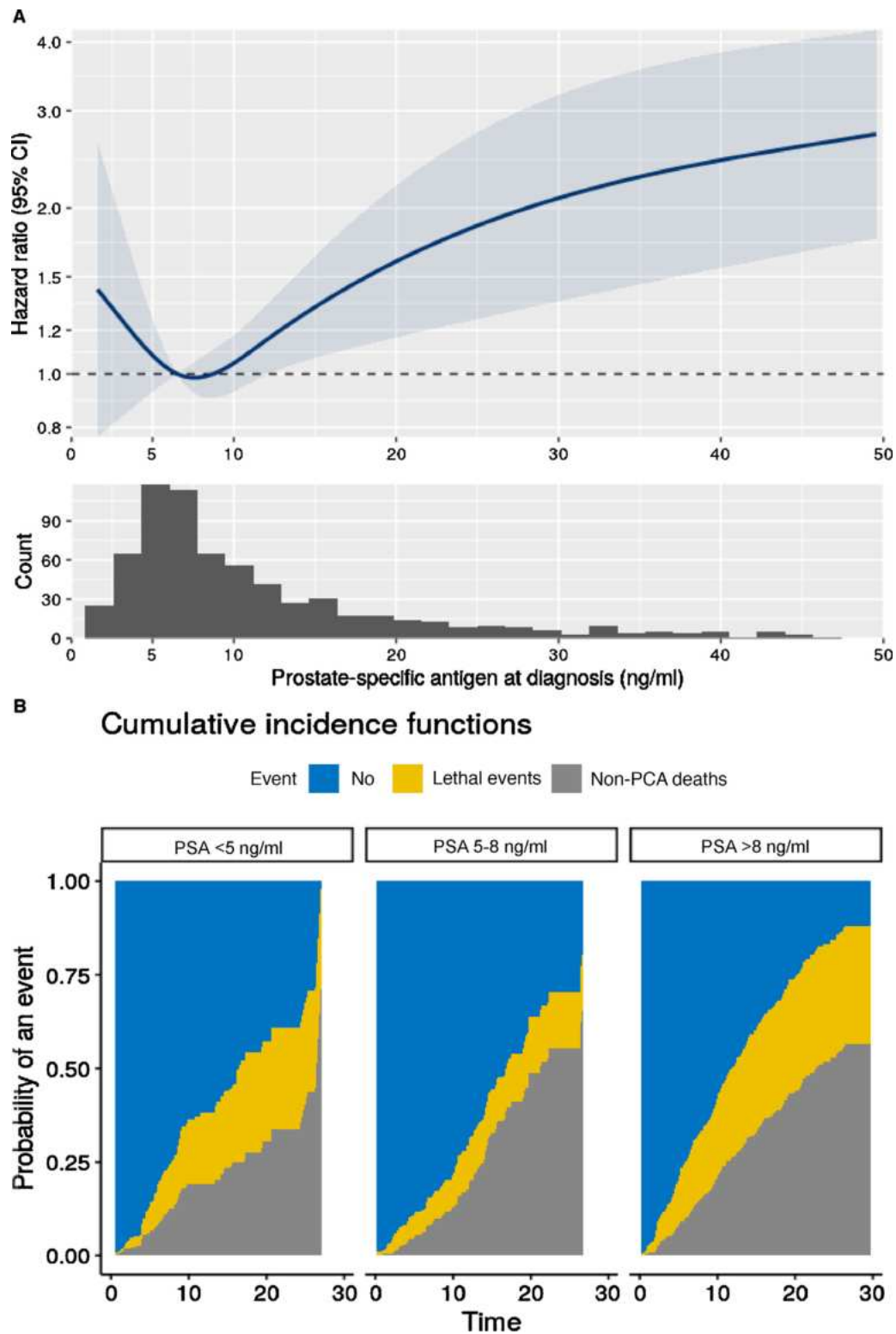


Fig. 1 – Lethal prostate cancer (PCA) according to prostate-specific antigen (PSA) levels at cancer diagnosis among men diagnosed with localized, Gleason score 8–10 PCA between 1986 and 2015 within the Health Professional Follow-up Study. (A) Multivariable hazard ratios from Cox proportional hazards regression, with PSA modeled as a restricted cubic spline, adjusted for clinical stage, Gleason score, and treatment received. The solid curve represents point estimates and the highlighted blue area the 95% confidence interval (CI). (B) Cumulative incidence of lethal PCA (yellow) and all-cause mortality (gray) among men with high or low PSA levels compared to men with intermediate PSA levels.

lifestyle modification, and different treatment regimens for this group.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

Acknowledgments: This study was supported by funding for C.D.F. from the University Hospital of Zurich and medAlumni Zurich, Stiftung für urologische Forschung, Marlis Geiser-Lemken Stiftung, Fonds zur Förderung des akademischen Nachwuchses, Ernst Göhner Stiftung, a SAKK/Dr. Paul Janssen Fellowship, and Arnold U. und Susanne Huggenberger-Bischoff Stiftung zur Krebsforschung; and for L.A.M. from the National Institutes of Health (U01 CA167552), the US Army Prostate Cancer Research Program (Idea Development Award PC060389, an Early-Investigator Research Award (W81XWH-18-1-0330), and Dana-Farber/Harvard Cancer Center Prostate SPORE Career Development Award (NIH/NCI P50 CA090381). L.A.M., K.L.P., K.H.S., and M.A.P. are Young Investigators of the Prostate Cancer Foundation. The funding bodies had no influence on the design or conduct of the study, analysis and interpretation of the data, or preparation of the article. We are grateful to the participants and staff of the Health Professionals Follow-up Study for their valuable contributions. We also thank the following state cancer registries for their help: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming.

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Elucidating Durable Responses to Immune Checkpoint Inhibition

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Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) are under investigation for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) [1]. Mismatch DNA repair deficiency (MMRd) [2] and high tumour lymphocyte infiltration (TIL) [3] represent biomarkers of ICI response. Here we report on two mCRPC patients with exceptional responses to pembrolizumab, outlining their disease biology in attempts to explain this sensitivity (previous oncological history is reported in the Supplementary material).

In November 2016, patient 1 started pembrolizumab 200 mg every 3 wk, when his baseline prostate-specific antigen (PSA) was 59 µg/l and scans showed a right external iliac nodal mass (Fig. 1A). The main adverse events were grade 4 hyperamylasaemia and grade 2 sicca syndrome, requiring a treatment break and high-dose steroids. He experienced a complete radiological response, with undetectable PSA, which persists 40 mo after starting pembrolizumab (Fig. 1B,C). Immunohistochemistry (IHC) studies were positive for

Patient 2 commenced pembrolizumab 200 mg every 3 wk in November 2016; his PSA was 0.43 $\mu\text{g/l}$ and scans revealed bilateral pelvic nodes, a large pelvic mass (53 mm), and a complex fistula between the rectum and bladder. He received 11 pembrolizumab courses with no immunological toxicity and experienced a partial response. However, pembrolizumab was stopped because of fistula worsening requiring intravenous antibiotics and surgical intervention. He made a full recovery and remains disease-free 40 mo after starting pembrolizumab (Fig. 1F,G). Tumour NGS had indicated an MSH6 mutation (Y214*), high MutLoad, and high MSINGS score, with MSH6 loss but incomplete MSH2 loss on IHC, as well as PD-L1 positivity (1%). IHC showed high TILs; most of these cells were CD4⁺FOXP3 and Tregs (CD4⁺FOXP3⁺; Fig. 1H).

We previously showed that a small but important subset of mCRPC tumours have evidence of MMRd by IHC and this is associated with high MutLoad and MSI-NGS. However, only some MMRd cancers present with high T-cell infiltration, PD-L1 protein expression, and elevated T-cell-associated transcripts [2].

The rearrangement identified for patient 1 was associated with immune evasion and PD-L1 overexpression in mouse models using an N-terminal binding antibody [4]. This could explain his PD-L1 negativity (since the antibodies routinely used target the C-terminus) and extraordinary response to pembrolizumab in an otherwise immune “cold” tumour.

Patient 2, besides MMRd, presented with a highly inflamed cancer, mainly represented by Tregs and CD4⁺FOXP3 cells. Interestingly, in mCRPC models, ICIs reprogram CD4⁺ cells towards a Th1 rather than Th17 lineage in nodal disease, possibly explaining this responsiveness [5].

In conclusion, elucidation of the mCRPC subset benefiting from ICIs requires multiple orthogonal assays, including genomic analyses, IHC, and tumour microenvironment studies.

Conflicts of interest: Johann S. de Bono has served on advisory boards for MSD, Merck Serono, Pfizer, Genentech/Roche, AstraZeneca, Astellas,

Janssen, GSK, Genmab, Amgen, Daiichi Sankyo, and Bayer. The remaining authors have nothing to disclose.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.06.056>.

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COVID-19–related Mortality During the First 60 Days After Kidney Transplantation

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The COVID-19 pandemic prompted the decision to suspend most organ transplantation programs in affected countries, especially in Europe [1]. A recent large population-based

report revealed that the cohort at highest risk of in-hospital death due to COVID-19 was the organ transplant population, with a hazard ratio of 4.27 [2]. Published experiences

Table 1 – Characteristics of 24 patients who suffered from COVID-19 during the first 60 d after kidney transplantation.

Variable	Alive (n = 13)	Dead (n = 11)	p value
Male, n (%)	6 (46.2)	5 (45.5)	0.97
Median age, yr (range)	61.1 (40–74)	69.6 (60–75)	0.006
Age ≥65 yr, n (%)	4 (30.8)	8 (72.7)	0.04
Hypertension, n (%)	12 (92.3)	10 (90.9)	1
Diabetes, n (%)	8 (66.7)	4 (36.4)	0.15
Deceased donor, n (%)	13 (100)	10 (91)	0.46
Delayed graft function n (%)	5 (38.5)	7 (63.6)	0.41
Acute rejection, n (%)	2 (15.4)	0 (0)	0.48
Median time from KT to COVID-19 Dx, d (range)	39 (15–59)	28.8 (8–56)	0.07
Baseline immunosuppressive treatment, n (%)			
Prednisone	13 (100)	11 (100)	1
Tacrolimus	13 (100)	11 (100)	1
Mycophenolate	12 (92.3)	9 (81.8)	0.58
mTOR inhibitors	0 (0)	2 (18.2)	0.2
Fever, n (%)	9 (69.2)	6 (54.5)	0.67
Cough, expectoration, and/or rhinorrhea, n (%)	6 (46.2)	8 (72.7)	0.24
Dyspnea, n (%)	6 (46.2)	8 (72.7)	0.24
Pneumonia, n (%)	12 (92.3)	10 (90.9)	1
Digestive symptoms, n (%)	1 (7.7)	2 (18.2)	0.58
Lymphopenia, n (%)	13 (100)	11 (100)	1
Hospitalization, n (%)	13 (100)	11 (100)	1
Renal failure, n (%)	6 (46.2)	7 (63.6)	0.26
Ventilator support, n (%)	2 (15.4)	7 (77.8)	0.007
Intensive care unit admission, n (%)	2 (15.4)	2 (18.2)	1
COVID-19 treatment, n (%)			
Hydroxychloroquine	12 (92.3)	10 (90.9)	1
Glucocorticoids	3 (25)	9 (81.8)	0.006
Lopinavir/ritonavir	4 (30.8)	4 (36.4)	1
Tocilizumab	5 (38.5)	3 (27.3)	0.68
Median time from admission to death or recovery, d (range)	23 (4–48)	13.7 (6–36)	0.08

KT = kidney transplantation; Dx = diagnosis.

have been restricted to long-term stable kidney transplant (KT) recipients. Despite initial low mortality reported from China [3], further case series have shown mortality rates of up to 75% [4]. The decision to suspend KT programs has been arbitrary, as no reports of COVID-19 in the most vulnerable population, that is, patients with a very recent KT and profound immunosuppression, are available.

A registry to collect information regarding dialysis or KT patients with COVID-19 in Spain started to gather information on March 18, 2020 (www.senefro.com). A confirmed COVID-19 diagnosis was defined as a patient with positive reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) assay of a specimen collected via nasopharyngeal swab or bronchoalveolar lavage. Comparisons between groups were made using a two-sided χ^2 test with a significance level of 0.05, using SPSS v22. The study was approved by the ethics committee of Hospital del Mar.

Among the 502 KT patients with COVID-19 included until May 9, 2020, 24 had received a KT less than 60 d before being diagnosed as having COVID-19. Cases were diagnosed in 12 Spanish transplant centers between March 17 and April 18, 2020 and had at least 1 mo of follow-up. During the period and 60 d before the first case, 275 KT surgeries were performed in those 12 centers. Therefore, the cumulative incidence of COVID-19 was 9%.

The median age of the 24 patients was 66.5 yr (range 40–75) and immunosuppression regimens were conventional

(Table 1). Fever, cough, and pneumonia were the usual COVID-19 signs and symptoms and all of the patients were hospitalized. Respiratory failure led to ventilatory support in eight patients and intensive care unit (ICU) admission in four. ICU admission was initially indicated but finally denied in nine patients. Specific COVID-19 management was attempted with immunosuppression reduction (mycophenolate withdrawal in 96% and tacrolimus withdrawal in 62.5%) and different combinations of hydroxychloroquine, antiviral agents, and steroids. Interestingly, eight patients were treated with the anti-IL6 antibody tocilizumab and five of them recovered. No relevant surgical or urological complications were recorded.

The fatality rate was 45.8%, which is markedly higher than the usual very low 2-mo mortality observed outside the COVID-19 pandemic. Compared with survivors, patients who died were older, were infected closer to transplantation, more frequently needed ventilator support, and were treated less often with high-dose steroids.

The maximum effect of immunosuppression is exerted in the first months after transplantation and recipients are at maximum risk of viral infection and severity in this period. A short time since transplantation was associated with more severe disease in the 2009 pandemic of influenza A (H1N1) [5]. In cities and areas with very high incidence of COVID-19, KT is not a safe option for renal patients, especially those aged >60 yr. When COVID-19 significantly decreases, and as part of

the measures to open up after lockdown, KT programs may be resumed under strict preventive measures.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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CRedit authorship contribution statement

Julio Pascual: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Methodology, Supervision, Visualization, Writing - original draft. **Edoardo Melilli:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Carlos Jiménez-Martín:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Esther González-Monte:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Sofía Zárraga:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Alex Gutiérrez-Dalmau:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Verónica López-Jiménez:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Javier Juega:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Miguel Muñoz-Cepeda:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Inmaculada Lorenzo:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Carme Facundo:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **María del Carmen Ruiz-Fuentes:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Auxiliadora Mazuecos:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Emilio Sánchez-Álvarez:** Investigation, Writing - review & editing. **Marta Crespo:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Methodology, Supervision, Visualization, Writing - original draft.

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European Association of Urology

Letter to the Editor

Re: Lan Zhu, Nianqiao Gong, Bin Liu, et al. Coronavirus Disease 2019 Pneumonia in Immunosuppressed Renal Transplant Recipients: A Summary of 10 Confirmed Cases in Wuhan, China. Eur Urol 2020;77:748–54

We read with great interest the case series by Zhu et al [1]. We applaud their commitment to their patients in these difficult times. However, we feel that some questions remain unanswered. Did the authors check for the presence of bacterial and/ or fungal co-infection in sputum, as has been commonly seen in patients with COVID-19 infection [2]? Such co-infections may have contributed to the respiratory symptoms, especially in case of the transplant patients. Tian et al [3] recently reported on the presence of superimposed bacterial bronchopneumonia in post-mortem lung biopsy specimens from COVID-19 patient.

The authors should also report the criteria for starting and stopping IVIG, since we noticed that patient number 7, who had mild disease, received IVIG, but patients 3 and 8, who had critical disease, did not receive IVIG. We noted that patients 2 and 9 had several comorbidities and experienced a severe clinical course. Yang et al [2] recently reported a severe clinical course and higher mortality among non-transplant patients with comorbidities such as cardiovascular disease and diabetes mellitus, so how can the authors be sure that the severe course of COVID-19 in their transplant patients was entirely due to immunosuppression, especially as we have no data regarding comorbidities in the control group for comparison? Diabetic nephropathy is the second leading cause of end-stage renal disease in China after primary glomerulonephritis [4], so it is surprising to see that none of the patients in the current series were diabetic. We would urge the authors to check the diabetic status of their patients, as diabetes was noted among 22% of the patients who died in one study, versus 10% among the survivors [2].

We feel that answers to the above-mentioned queries will help us to better understand the clinical course of

COVID-19 infection in renal transplant patients. This type of study on a larger scale with the above-mentioned questions answered might help us to better understand the contribution of comorbidities and immunosuppression individually towards the severity of this disease.

We would like to conclude by thanking the authors for sharing their knowledge and contributing towards the collective scientific effort and knowledge.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Letter to the Editor

Reply to Amit Bansal and Anant Kumar's Letter to the Editor re: Lan Zhu, Nianqiao Gong, Bin Liu, et al. Coronavirus Disease 2019 Pneumonia in Immunosuppressed Renal Transplant Recipients: A Summary of 10 Confirmed Cases in Wuhan, China. *Eur Urol* 2020;77:748–54

We thank Drs. Bansal and Kumar for their questions and interest in our paper [1]. Owing to the word limit, some information was not provided in detail in our paper. Here we answer their questions and provide supplementary explanations.

We agree that a combination of bacterial or fungal infections during COVID-19 could aggravate a patient's condition and lead to a poor prognosis. Because some of our patients had almost no sputum during the whole course of the disease, a sputum culture was not carried out for all ten of our patients. However, the clinical course and the sputum culture results obtained for some of the patients indicated that there was no evidence of bacterial or fungal co-infection.

The absence of co-infection was probably related to our prophylactic strategy: all patients were routinely given broad-spectrum antibiotics (eg, carbapenem or sulbactam/cefoperazone) after admission, and patients with a longer course of illness were given echinocandins to prevent fungal infections [2]. Although Yang et al [3] reported 13.5% incidence of hospital-acquired bacterial or fungal co-infection, all of the patients they observed were critically ill patients requiring treatment in the intensive care unit (ICU), and nearly half received invasive ventilation. By contrast, only one of the ten patients in our study required short-term treatment in the ICU, and none received invasive ventilation. This difference in incidence of critical illness may also be an important reason for the difference in the incidence of co-infection between the two studies. Regarding the use of intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG), we recommend that transplant recipients with COVID-19 should receive a small daily dose of IVIG during the early period of their hospitalization, until chest computed tomography shows a significant improvement in inflammation. However, since our ten patients were admitted to five different designated hospitals, three of the patients did

not receive IVIG because of the lack of that resource in the corresponding hospital at the time.

We agree that underlying diseases are associated with the severity, duration, and prognosis of COVID-19 pneumonia in some patients. We should have emphasized the impact of comorbidities more strongly in our paper. Three of our patients had severe and complex underlying diseases, which contributed to the death of one patient and to severe illness that required treatment in the ICU in another patient. However, the remaining patients without underlying disease (four cases) or with controllable hypertension alone (three cases) still had more severe COVID-19 pneumonia and a longer viral shedding time than the control group did, indicating that immunosuppressive status is the most important factor affecting the clinical progression of COVID-19 in most transplant patients. Although diabetic nephropathy is a common cause of end-stage renal failure, such patients receive simultaneous pancreas-kidney transplantation rather than simple kidney transplantation in China [4,5]. In our study, none of the ten renal transplant patients had primary diabetic nephropathy or new-onset diabetes mellitus after transplantation. Only one individual (patient 2) experienced transient hyperglycemia during treatment of pneumonia, but the patient's blood glucose returned to normal shortly after reduction of glucocorticoid treatment.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Letter to the Editor

Re: Marc-Oliver Grimm, Antione G. van der Heijden, Marc Colombel, et al. Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Carcinoma by Standard Number and Dose of BCG Instillations Versus Reduced Number and Standard Dose of BCG Instillations: Results of the European Association of Urology Research Foundation Randomised Phase III Clinical Trial “NIMBUS”. Eur Urol. In press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.04.066>

We read with great interest the article by Grimm et al [1] on the study of 170 patients randomized to a reduced frequency and 175 to the standard bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) schedule. The authors demonstrated that the reduced frequency schedule was inferior to the standard schedule for treatment of high-grade non-muscle-invasive bladder carcinoma (NMIBC) regarding the time to first recurrence. However, we would like to highlight some issues.

First, the authors reported that the randomization stratification of the study included Ta versus T1, concomitant carcinoma in situ (CIS) versus no CIS, BCG strain, and single versus multiple tumors. However, it has been demonstrated that age, gender, tumor size, and prior recurrence rate are also related to recurrence among patients treated with BCG [2,3]. Although the proportion of patients with recurrent tumors and gender distributions are similar in the study arms, information on tumor size and the age of participants are not reported. The multivariate Cox regression model of the CUETO study showed that age increases the risk of recurrence (hazard ratio [HR] 1.168, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.015–1.343 for age groups of <60 vs 60–70 vs >70 yr; $p = 0.03$) [3]. In addition, Sylvester et al [2] reported that tumor size and multiplicity increased the recurrence rate among patients treated with intravesical BCG instillations (HR 1.54, 95% CI 1.32–1.80 for tumor size of ≤ 3 vs ≥ 3 cm, $p < 0.0001$; HR 1.56, 95% CI 1.42–1.71 for tumor multiplicity of 1 vs 2–7 vs ≥ 8 , $p < 0.0001$). We believe that tumor size, patient age, and tumor multiplicity may affect the results of this study and are worthy of discussion.

It is of note that the recurrence rate in the standard BCG frequency arm of the study was 8% at 6 mo and 10% at 12 mo, which seems to be fairly low in comparison to results from previous studies [3,4]. Cambier et al [4] observed a recurrence rate of 17.5% in their study, in which they described early recurrence as 4.5 mo after randomization. For the 2-yr recurrence rate in the standard treatment arm, the results in the present study are similar to the lowest scored patient group in the CUETO study (14% vs 12.6%) [3]. These details suggest that results from the study arms in this trial may not be appropriate to guide daily practice.

In conclusion, we believe that intravesical BCG therapy for the treatment of intermediate- and high-risk NMIBC is still an issue for further discussion and research. We congratulate the authors of this multi-institutional study on this recent report, which clearly contributes in our fight against NMIBC.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Letter to the Editor

Reply to Emre Karabay and İlker Tinay's Letter to the Editor re: Treatment of High-grade Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Carcinoma by Standard Number and Dose of BCG Instillations Versus Reduced Number and Standard Dose of BCG Instillations: Results of the European Association of Urology Research Foundation Randomised Phase III Clinical Trial "NIMBUS". Eur Urol. In press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.04.066>

We thank the authors for their useful comments and reflections addressing our publication [1]. We agree that age, gender, prior recurrence rate, multiplicity, and tumor size might influence the outcome after bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) for high-grade non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC). Tumor size was, regrettably, not sufficiently recorded in NIMBUS. Multiplicity was a stratification factor and, like the other criteria mentioned, well balanced between the NIMBUS study arms. Median patient age, not mentioned in the NIMBUS publication, was 70 yr in both arms (range 39–86 vs 35–86 yr).

Two of the most important findings from NIMBUS apart from the intended outcome measures were the very low recurrence and progression rates (R&PRs) in the standard treatment arm as compared to the CUETO and EORTC risk tables [2,3]. However, age and gender only contribute to the CUETO and not the EORTC risk scores. It has already been reported that the EORTC risk calculator overestimates R&PRs [4]. In an additional analysis, we therefore scored each NIMBUS patient in the BCG standard arm according to CUETO criteria [2] and compared the estimated recurrence rates (RRs) with the corresponding CUETO probabilities (Table 1).

The 1-yr and 2-yr RRs appear slightly higher for low-risk patients (scores 0–4) compared to the CUETO data. However, in NIMBUS only a few events occurred and the confidence intervals are wide. For patients with intermediate and high risk (score 5–6 and 7–9), the 1-yr and 2-yr RRs are similar and clearly lower when compared with the CUETO tables. In the highest risk category (score ≥ 10) there were too few patients to calculate reliable values. Compared to CUETO, applying the EORTC risk estimates to the NIMBUS population indicated even higher RRs, although tumor size was not taken into account.

Very few individuals in the NIMBUS population experienced progression at their first recurrence, suggesting lower progression rates than expected from the CUETO tables, but hindering us from generating a reliable comparison. The final analysis of NIMBUS will provide more mature progression data.

In summary, low R&PRs in NIMBUS cannot be explained by different risk factors in the study population. In contrast to our patients, the EORTC population most frequently received intravesical chemotherapy and a minority received BCG induction only [3], whereas the CUETO population received six BCG induction cycles, followed by six additional biweekly instillations. Unlike in NIMBUS, repeat transurethral resection (TUR) was not mandatory in the CUETO and EORTC studies at that time [2]. Besides a possible impact of technical improvements, such as the use of improved video systems or photodynamic diagnostics, we attribute the low R&PRs in NIMBUS to the routine repeat TUR before BCG induction (92% of patients). Such re-intervention might be of diagnostic and therapeutic value. Patients are better classified, possibly leading to other

Table 1 – Recurrence rates by CUETO risk category after 1 and 2 yr among 175 patients.

CUETO Score	Patients, n (%)	1-yr result (95% CI)		2-yr result (95% CI)	
		Recurrence, %	CUETO PoR	Recurrence, %	CUETO PoR
Score 0–4	47 (26.9)	18 (6.0–31)	8.2 (5.9–11)	22 (8.3–37)	13 (9.8–15)
Score 5–6	65 (37.1)	9.8 (1.6–18)	12 (8.0–16)	17 (4.8–30)	22 (17–28)
Score 7–9	47 (26.9)	5.3 (1.8 to 12)	25 (20–31)	5.3 (1.8 to 12)	40 (33–46)

PoR = probability of recurrence; CI = confidence interval.

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treatments such as cystectomy in some. This may play a major role, specifically in the higher risk categories. Furthermore, complete tumor removal may improve RRs [5].

In conclusion, considering established risk factors, NIMBUS supports that standard BCG therapy after complete tumor resection results in low R&PRs in high-grade NMIBC and remains the state of the art. If long-term results confirm our findings, the risk estimates from current risk calculators should be reconsidered.

Conflicts of interest: Marc Oliver Grimm reports grants and personal fees from Novartis and BMS; and personal fees from Pfizer, Bayer HealthCare, Astellas, Intuitive Surgical, Sanofi Aventis, Hexal, Apogepha, Amgen, AstraZeneca, MSD, Janssen Cilag, Ono Pharma, Ipsen Pharma, Medac, and Merck, outside the submitted work. Christien Caris and Wim P.J. Witjes have nothing to disclose.

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European Association of Urology



Letter to the Editor

Re: Vasilis Stavrinides, Francesco Giganti, Bruce Trock, et al. Five-year Outcomes of Magnetic Resonance Imaging-based Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer: A Large Cohort Study. Eur Urol 2020;78:443–51

We read with interest the recent article by Stavrinides et al [1] reporting on 5-yr outcomes of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)-based active surveillance for prostate cancer (PCa). While we agree with the authors' conclusion regarding the value of multiparametric MRI in the long-term assessment of PCa patients treated with active surveillance, we respectfully suggest that the contemporary clinical scenario has changed quite significantly. According to the latest version of the European Association of Urology prostate cancer guidelines, all patients with a clinical suspicion of PCa should initially be assessed with multiparametric MRI, and only patients for whom lesions with a Prostate Imaging-Reporting and Data System score of 4 or 5 are detected should undergo both fusion and systematic biopsies [2–4]. This means that at present and in an ideal world we should inevitably only be considering active surveillance for patients with one or more visible lesions on multiparametric MRI. Whether this new clinical scenario will lead to different long-term active surveillance results remains to be established.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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European Association of Urology

Letter to the Editor

Reply to Francesco Montorsi, Giorgio Gandaglia, Nicola Fossati, Andrea Salonia, and Alberto Briganti's Letter to the Editor re: Vasilis Stavrinos, Francesco Giganti, Bruce Trock, et al. Five-year Outcomes of Magnetic Resonance Imaging–based Active Surveillance for Prostate Cancer: A Large Cohort Study. Eur Urol 2020;78:443–51

We thank the authors for their comments on our paper [1]. We agree that in the new world of magnetic resonance imaging before first biopsy for all men, we would hope that surveillance of non-visible prostate cancer will reduce, as these men would avoid the burden of diagnosis entirely. However, as many centres adopt a systematic biopsy approach in addition to targeted cores, we do see men with non-visible Gleason 3 + 3 and 3 + 4 disease, which we recognise could be of lower risk than visible disease. Given that some centres still offer these men radical prostatectomy and patients are often concerned by any diagnosis of prostate cancer, we think that active surveillance is an appropriate alternative response.

Using a risk-stratified active surveillance programme such as the one we outlined helps reduce the burden of surveillance for the individual man and healthcare systems in general.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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Letter to the Editor

Reply to Guglielmo Mantica, Nazareno Suardi, and Carlo Terrone's Letter to the Editor re: Ming-Chun Chan, Sharon E.K. Yeo, Yew-Lam Chong, Yee-Mun Lee. Stepping Forward: Urologists' Efforts During the COVID-19 Outbreak in Singapore. *Eur Urol* 2020;78:e38–9

The insightful letter from Mantica et al in response to our article [1] reports a trend for a decrease in emergency department (ED) urological consultations in Italy during the COVID-19 lockdown and highlights two major issues for urologists. First, postponement of urological consultations carries a risk of potential rebound attendances in worsened condition and larger numbers. Our hospital implemented measures in anticipation of this, reviewing and triaging [2,3] all scheduled appointments and adopting telemedicine strategies including phone consultations and prescriptions (with courier delivery), a huge endeavour given the sheer volume of ambulatory patients. Second, the pandemic-related decrease in ED consultations is a reminder of the delicate balance in managing urological conditions in the community and tertiary settings.

Singapore and its Ministry of Health implemented nation-wide “circuit breaker” restrictions [4] on April 7, 2 mo after raising the national Disease Outbreak Response System Condition (DORSCON) level from yellow to orange [5], and 1 mo after lockdown in Italy. We reviewed urology admissions via the ED, excluding non-admitted patients (as our ED has consistent admission criteria), divided into three groups according to important national timelines: group A (heightened surveillance period) from January 3 to February 6 (35 d), group B (1st month of DORSCON orange level) from February 7 to March 6 (29 d), and group C (2nd month of DORSCON orange level) from March 7 to April 6 (31 d). At the time of writing, data after the “circuit breaker” restrictions are unavailable.

Group A included 109 patients (3.11 patients/d), group B 83 (2.86 patients/d), and group C 66 (2.22 patients/day). Urolithiasis cases accounted for 24 patients in group A (22.02%), with a decrease to 12 in group B (14.46%) and 12 (18.18%) in group C. Genitourinary infections remained the most common diagnosis, increasing in percentage despite

increasing COVID-19 concerns: 39 in group A (35.78%), 46 in group B (55.42%), and 35 in group C (53.03%).

The second issue, brought to the surface by this pandemic, of possible chronic abuse of hospital resources by low-complexity cases is a sensitive one. A review of our data set revealed that the decrease in urolithiasis consultations reported by Mantica et al is similar to our reduction in urolithiasis admissions. We postulate that during the COVID-19 pandemic, Singapore patients were preferentially seeking conservative care in the community or deferring consultations. This is in contrast to the higher percentage of haematuria cases noted by Mantica et al, similar to the higher percentage of genitourinary infections we observed, as these conditions can seldom be deferred. Importantly, we must further analyse if this percentage rise in infections and haematuria is a consequence of delayed health-seeking behaviour or of failed treatment in the community. Our data set is unable to definitively determine if ED abuse was the case, but with rigorous admission criteria we can prevent unnecessary admissions and preserve inpatient resources.

COVID-19 will have a long-lasting impact on health care and urological practice will be no exception. These observations remind urologists of the importance of our nations' health care policies to establish an integrated system of primary, emergency, and tertiary care so that patients can access essential care in the community, even during crises. If urologists act quickly in anticipating post-COVID-19 issues and in using this pandemic to review reforms for our health care systems, we can emerge stronger than before.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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