



A systematic review of contemporary management of oligometastatic prostate cancer: fighting a challenge or tilting at windmills?

Amine Slaoui^{1,2,3} · S. Albisinni⁴ · F. Aoun^{2,5} · G. Assenmacher² · W. Al Hajj Obeid⁴ · R. Diamand⁴ · S. Regragui¹ · A. Touzani¹ · A. Bakar⁴ · A. Mesfioui³ · T. Karmouni¹ · A. Ameur⁶ · K. Elkhader¹ · A. Koutani¹ · A. Ibnattya¹ · T. Roumeguere⁴ · A. Peltier²

Received: 21 December 2018 / Accepted: 22 January 2019 / Published online: 31 January 2019
© Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2019

Abstract

Purpose Amongst the unanswered questions regarding prostate cancer (PCa), the optimal management of oligometastatic disease remains one of the major concerns of the scientific community. The very existence of this category is still subject to controversy. Aim of this systematic review is to summarize current available data on the most appropriate management of oligometastatic PCa.

Evidence acquisition All relevant studies published in English up to November the 1st were identified through systematic searches in PubMed, EMBASE, Cochrane Library, CINAHL, Google Scholar and Ovid database. A search was performed including the combination of following words: (prostate cancer) and (metastatic) and [(oligo) or (PSMA) or (cytoreductive) or (stereotaxic radiotherapy) or (prostatectomy)]. 3335 articles were reviewed. After title screening and abstract reading, 118 papers were considered for full reading, leaving a total of 36 articles for the systematic review.

Evidence synthesis There is still no consensus on the definition of oligometastatic disease, nor on the imaging modalities used for its detection. While retrospective studies suggest an added benefit with the treatment the primitive tumor by cytoreductive prostatectomy (55% survival rate vs 21%, $p < 0.001$), prospective studies do not validate the same outcome. Nonetheless, most studies have reported a reduction in local complications after cytoreductive prostatectomy (< 10%) compared to the best systemic treatment (25–30%). Concerning radiotherapy, an overall survival benefit for patients with a low metastatic burden was found in STAMPEDE (HR 0.68, 95% CI 0.52–0.90; $p = 0.007$) and suggested in subgroup analysis of the HORRAD trial. Regarding the impact of metastases-directed therapy (MDT), the STOMP and ORIOLE trials suggested that metastatic disease control might improve androgen deprivation therapy-free survival (in STOMP: 21 vs 13 months for MDT vs standard of care). Nonetheless, the impact of MDT on long-term oncologic results remains unclear. Finally, oligometastatic disease appears to be a biologically different entity compared to high-burden metastatic disease. New findings on exosomes appear to make them intriguing biomarkers in the early phases of oligometastatic PCa.

Conclusion Oligometastatic PCa is today a poorly understood disease. The implementation of new imaging techniques as whole-body MRI and PSMA PET/CT has increased exponentially the number of oligometastatic patients detected. Data of available trials suggest a benefit from cytoreductive prostatectomy to reduce local complication, though its impact on survival remains unknown. Radiotherapy may be beneficial for patients with low-burden metastatic PCa, while MDT may delay the need for androgen deprivation therapy. Results from ongoing trials data are eagerly awaited to draw reliable recommendations.

Keywords Prostate · Cancer · Oligometastatic · Cytoreductive surgery · Radiotherapy · Metastasis-directed therapies

Abbreviations

| | | | |
|------|---------------------------------|--------|--|
| ADT | Androgen deprivation therapy | HR | Hazard ratio |
| CT | Computed tomography | ICECaP | Intermediate clinical criteria in prostate cancer |
| EBRT | External beam radiation therapy | MDT | Metastasis-directed therapy |
| | | MRI | Magnetic resonance imaging |
| | | M0 | Nonmetastatic |
| | | PCa | Prostate cancer |
| | | PICOS | Population, intervention, comparator, outcome and study design |

✉ Amine Slaoui
amineslaoui05@gmail.com

Extended author information available on the last page of the article

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| PRISMA | Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta analyses |
| RP | Radical prostatectomy |
| SBRT | Stereotactic body radiotherapy |
| ^{99m} Tc-MDP | ^{99m} Technetium-methylene diphosphonate |

Introduction

Amongst the unanswered questions regarding prostate cancer (PCa), the optimal management of oligometastatic disease remains one of the major concerns of the scientific community today. Indeed, following the recommendations of the United States preventive services Task Force in 2012 not to screen for PCa [1], there has been an increase in the incidence of metastatic PCa; moreover, in 2017 in the United Kingdom, PCa mortality was higher than for breast cancer [2].

The increasing clinical utility and utilization of nuclear imaging based on tracers such as ⁶⁸Ga-labeled prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) ligands, as well as whole-body magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), is improving the detection of low-volume metastatic disease, with the development of a new clinical entity-defined oligometastatic PCa [3]. We are faced more often with oligometastatic patients who have been previously classified as having either localized disease or m0 disease [4]. Debates over the lack of disease-specific information have animated the scientific community.

Until recently, Docetaxel and Abiraterone were reserved for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. CHARTEED, STAMPEDE and LATITUDE trials revealed that they were associated with a survival benefit even for hormone-sensitive prostate cancer. Subgroup analyzes have shown that, unlike docetaxel, which is only effective for high volumes, Abiraterone acetate is effective for high and low volumes [5]. The same research strategy could be adopted for the implications of surgery and radiotherapy for patients with oligometastatic prostate cancer and is currently under investigation with some trials reporting intriguing findings.

Is aggressive treatment of the primary tumor and metastatic lesions the new paradigm? Does this clinical strategy improve oncologic outcomes? Aim of this systematic review is to summarize the current available data on the most appropriate management of oligometastatic PCa.

Evidence acquisition

This systematic review was conducted in line with the recommendations from the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines [6]. All relevant studies published in English up to November the 1st 2018 were identified through systematic searches

in PubMed, EMBASE, Cochrane Library, CINAHL, Google Scholar and Ovid database. A search was performed including the combination of following words: (prostate cancer) and (metastatic) and [(oligo) or (PSMA) or (cytoreductive) or (stereotaxic radiotherapy) OR (prostatectomy)]. Although recent articles were prioritized, manuscripts with relevant historical findings were referenced if necessary. Only publications in English language were considered. According to the PRISMA guidelines, we used the Population, Intervention, Comparator, Outcome, and Study design (PICOS) approach to define study eligibility.

- Population: patients with oligometastatic prostate cancer.
- Intervention: local and metastasis-directed therapies in patients with oligometastatic prostate cancer.
- Comparator: standard of care (i.e., androgen deprivation therapy with taxane chemotherapy or abiraterone).
- Outcomes: improvement of oncologic outcomes (metastatic-free survival, cancer specific survival, overall survival). Progression of local symptoms, need for surgery due to local symptoms.
- Studies: translational science studies, cohort studies, case–control studies, prospective studies. Case reports, editorials, and letters were excluded during the systematic review process. We searched also the abstracts of ASCO and EAU conferences in urology in 2017–2018. Finally, if two or more studies reported results of overlapping surgical series, we selected the one with the largest sample size.

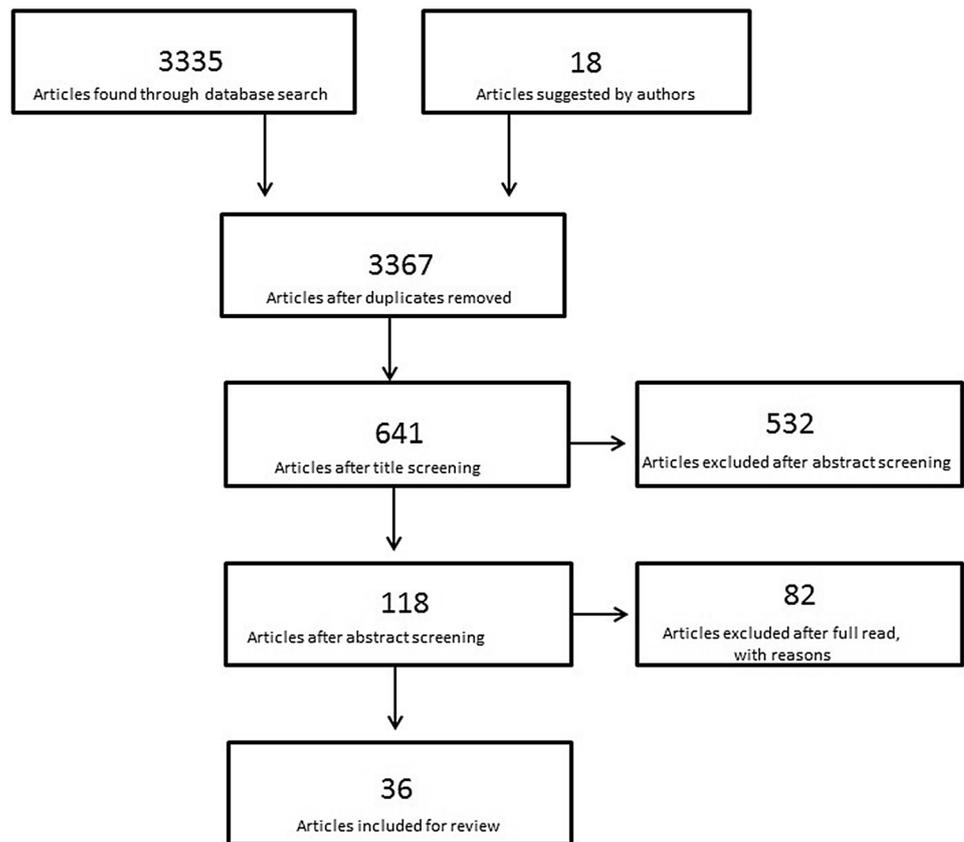
The initial list of selected papers was enriched by individual suggestions of the authors of the present review. After duplicates were removed, two authors (AS and SA) completed an independent review of 3335 articles. After title screening and abstract reading, 118 papers were considered for full reading, leaving a total of 36 articles for the systematic review. Any discrepancies in study inclusion were resolved by a senior author (FA), who was in charge of supervising the systematic review process. The PRISMA flow chart depicting the process for the systematic literature search and selection of the studies is shown in Fig. 1.

Evidence synthesis

Definition of oligometastatic disease

The term oligometastatic disease was described for the first time in 1995 by Hellman and Weichselbaum. It was defined as a limited number of clinically detectable metastases, and its prognostic and therapeutic value was considered to be in-between localized and metastatic disease [7]. However, a number of researchers still question the very

Fig. 1 The PRISMA flow chart



existence of this entity, believing that the oligometastatic state is rather a micrometastatic situation, in which, given the limitation of imaging techniques, only a limited number of solid lesions are detected. However, the kinetics in of development of metastasis would be different. For micrometastatic lesions, metastases would develop over a short interval; for a true oligometastatic, the lesions would have a slow kinetics and would be responsible for the persistence of the oligometastatic phenotype for months or years. Nonetheless, currently, no test is available to differentiate such two distinct clinical scenarios.

There is no consensus on the definition of oligometastatic disease [4]. Some definitions incorporate the site and number of metastases to define the oligometastatic state [8]. In fact, literature suggests reporting five variables in the description of oligometastatic disease: the distinction between synchronous and metachronous metastases, the number and site of lesions, castrate-resistant status, and lastly the imaging modality used to define oligometastatic disease. With the progress of molecular imaging techniques, more and more metastases are being detected. Therefore, many patients considered to be nonmetastatic (M0) on conventional imaging might have oligometastatic disease, particularly nowadays as imaging is performed at lower PSA thresholds compared to the past [9].

To date, three categories of oligometastatic PCa have been defined: de novo oligometastases (synchronous oligometastases), recurrent (metachronous oligometastases), and progressive (induced oligometastases).

Imaging modality

Currently metastatic workup for PCa patients includes imaging with 99mTechnetium-methylene diphosphonate (99mTc-MDP) bone scan, as well as computed tomography (CT). The European Association of Urology recommends the use of these conventional imaging modalities [10]. However, it is clear that an oligometastatic state may be merely a reflection of imaging capability [11]. Sterzing et al. [12] investigated the value of PSMA PET/CT in the initial staging of 15 men harboring high-risk clinically localized PCa: interestingly, 9 of the 15 patients in the study did present synchronous metastatic lesions.

The emergence and widespread use of whole-body MRI or PSMA PET/CT have led to an increased detection of metastatic PCa, particularly at low levels of PSA [13]. This is leading inevitably to a modification in the management of PCa: Albisinni et al. and Roach et al. using a prospective study showed that PSMA PET/CT changed disease management in, respectively, 76% and 62% of patients compared

to conventional staging [14, 15]. It is important to note that bone scans have a sensitivity of 65%, which indicates that a significant portion of metastatic disease is not being detected. Finally, it seems that there is a correlation between the increase of publications of PSMA PET/CT and the growing number of publications regarding oligometastatic PCa [16].

Rationale behind local and metastasis directed therapy

Debulking surgery is part of the therapeutic arsenal of many cancerous diseases. It seems that tumor reduction could improve survival, increase the response to systemic therapies and reduce loco-regional complications. Thus, according to some investigators, by eradicating the primary tumor site, we may observe a suppression of growth factors, immunosuppressive cytokines and consequently a secondary wave of metastases [17].

The prostate is considered by many authors as an elusive organ. Despite taxane chemotherapy and/or aggressive hormonal treatment, fatal clones persists and are thought to be involved in metastatic disease progression, resistance to castration and ultimately death [18, 19]. In a cohort of 58 patients with high-risk localized prostate cancer, Taplin et al. revealed that more than half of patients had aggressive residual disease on prostatectomy samples after hormonal therapy using a combination of LHRH agonist with abiraterone acetate [20]. Ross et al. obtained comparable results in patients treated with docetaxel/bevacizumab [21]. Moreover, in support of the beneficial role of cytoreductive surgery, we can highlight the study by Tzelepi et al. which demonstrated, at a molecular level, that “lethal prostate cancer” persists in the primary site despite systemic therapy [22, 23].

Described for the first time in 1953, the abscopal effect corresponds to the phenomenon of metastasis regression subsequent to therapeutic irradiation aimed at the primary tumor site [22]. Several theories tried to explain this phenomenon; the most plausible one being the induction of natural immunity following irradiation. In fact, the inflammation caused at the irradiated site, while destroying the tumor cells, could promote antigen presentation and the subsequent anticancerous immune reaction.

With the advent of immunotherapy, the abscopal effect remains a source of enthusiasm, giving hope for a possible improvement in the means of treating cancer [23, 24].

Nowadays, the consensus is that most metastatic PCa are not amenable to a definitive cure; especially while taking into consideration that the pathophysiology of metastases remains unclear. Nevertheless new concepts emerge and they could help developing novel treatment strategies. Thus, both the hypothesis of “seed and soil” and the theory of simple cell migration from primary organs to target organs became

outdated. According to Comen et al. [25], “self-seeding” would be the multidirectional ability of cancer cells not only to seed to distant organs, but also to self-seed another primary tumor. For Pienta et al., it is rather a concept of diaspora metastases [26]. Finally, within his review about “intra-temporal heterogeneity of the patient”, Haffner et al. explains that the lethal clone is always born out of a relatively undeveloped cancer in the primary tumor, and not arising from a higher primitive cancer or a lymph node metastasis resected during a prostatectomy [27].

An increase in circulating tumor cells has been shown to be associated with tumor progression and a diminished survival. Hence, according to Resel-Folkersma et al., a reduction in the number of circulating PCa tumor cells leads to an improved survival [28]. Those paradigms taken together would, therefore, push the scientific community in directing treatment at both the primitive and the metastatic disease sites.

However, some controversy still exists, as some authors argue that the suppression of the primary tumor could promote angiogenesis and increase its metastatic potential. After targeting the primary tumor, growth factors influence both the metastatic behavior and the outcome of the host for the tumor known as Fisher effect [29]. Consequently, the recurrence of metastatic cancer years or even decades after treatment would be explained by the concept of tumor dormancy [30]. Interventional procedures would be responsible for the acceleration of the metastatic process by the increase of circulating tumor cells and their vascular supply known as Folkman effect [30]. As the abscopal effect in addition to both Fisher and Folkman effects are all well documented, the scientific debate remains open and no definite conclusions can be drawn yet.

Role of cytoreductive prostatectomy

Cytoreductive prostatectomy is feasible. It has been the subject of multiple retrospective studies that reveal a maximum benefit of cytoreductive treatment in patients with metastatic PCa. Indeed, Gratzke et al. analyzed data from the Munich Cancer Registry between 1998 and 2010 [31]. Of the 1538 newly diagnosed patients with metastatic PCa in the Munich region (4.6 million inhabitants), 74 patients (5%) had radical prostatectomy (RP+). When evaluating survival in RP+ vs RP– groups, patients in the RP+ group showed a 55% survival rate at 5 years versus 21% in the RP– group ($p < 0.01$). Similar results have been reported by several authors [32–37]. Nonetheless, a close analysis of these retrospective studies reveals a major selection bias. In fact, only the best-performing patients and those who had responded well to hormone therapy had cytoreductive surgery.

Steuber et al. proceeded with a prospective study to diminish selection bias [38]. A group of 43 patients

undergoing cytoreductive prostatectomy were matched to a control group consisting of 40 patients receiving best systemic therapy. The inclusion criteria used were newly diagnosed prostate cancer with 1–3 bone metastases. Of note, PET/CT was not used. The patients had to be asymptomatic without visceral metastasis with a locally resectable tumor \leq cT3 and a PSA less than or equal to 150 mg/mL at the time of diagnosis. In addition, the selected patients should not have benefited from previous treatment for metastases such as radiotherapy. Men undergoing surgery were younger, had lower initial PSA ($p=0.02$) and lower cT stage ($p<0.01$). While many retrospective studies acknowledged the importance of cytoreductive surgery on overall survival, this prospective study revealed the lack of positive impact of cytoreductive prostatectomy on castration resistance-free survival and overall survival in a limited sample of patients. One of the main limitations of this study is that OS might have been influenced by the shorter follow-up period in the CRP group and that the two groups were not randomized but matched.

Regarding the safety and feasibility aspects, Preisser et al. compared the perioperative results between radical cytoreductive prostatectomy and radical prostatectomy for non-metastatic PCa [39]. They reported that the former has more complications, longer hospital stays, and thus a higher hospital cost [39]. However, it appears throughout most studies that cytoreductive prostatectomy reduces long-term local symptoms, as bleeding, bladder outlet obstruction and ureteral obstruction [38, 40]. The late local complication rate after radical cytoreductive prostatectomy was reported at 20% compared to 46.7% for patients who received radiotherapy and 54.3% for best systemic therapy [40]. In a recent systematic review, Albisinni et al. concluded that some men could truly benefit from CRP but the optimal patient selection method is still unknown. As such, to date, this experimental approach should be performed only within clinical trials [41].

Role of radiation for the control of the primary disease

Prostatic definitive radiotherapy could find a place in the setting of metastatic PCa. In fact, both of Löppenberget al. and Rusthoven et al. retrospectively found an improvement in overall survival for patients who underwent radiation therapy targeting the prostate in comparison to those who received only hormonal treatment [37, 42, 43]. The major limitations of these studies are their retrospective nature and therefore, a selection bias might be affecting the actual results. The HORRAD study attempts to overhaul this limitation [43]. Indeed, it is a multi-centric prospective study, randomized controlled trial recruiting 432 patients with PSA > 20 ng/mL and primary bone metastatic PCa on bone

scan between 2004 and 2014. The objective was to compare irradiation of primary prostatic tumor with external beam radiation therapy (EBRT) with androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) versus ADT only. The trial revealed no significant difference in overall survival. However, subgroup analysis suggests that radiotherapy to the prostate actually improves overall survival in patients with a low metastatic burden (< 5 bone lesions). The criticism that could be made concerning this study is that the irradiation dose used for the prostate was only 70 Gy adding to the fact that the prostate fossa was the only irradiated area. STAMPEDE is a phase 3 randomized controlled trial using a multiarm, multistage platform design. In a recent analysis, its investigators compared 1032 men receiving ADT with Docetaxel and radiotherapy, while another 1029 treated by ADT and Docetaxel. The definition of metastatic burden was similar to the one used in the CHARTED trial: high metastatic burden was defined as four or more bone metastases with one or more outside the vertebral bodies, or pelvis or visceral metastases or both; all others were considered to have a low metastatic burden. The primary objective of the study was overall survival. Radiation therapy was well tolerated, as there were only 5% adverse effects during radiotherapy and 4% at a later stage. The authors found similar proportion of patients reporting at least one serious adverse event between the two study groups. The trial suggests that the addition of radiation therapy to standard therapy improves survival without failure [hazard ratio (HR) 0.76, 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.68–0.84; < 0.0001], but does not improve overall survival (HR 0.92, 95% CI 0.80–1.06, $p=0.2266$). Similarly to the HORRAD trial, subgroup analysis showed that for patients with a low metastatic burden, overall survival was improved (HR 0.68, 95% CI 0.52–0.90; $p=0.007$; 3-year survival 73% in control vs 81% with radiotherapy). Radiotherapy gave a three-year survival of 81% in these men, compared to 73% in the standard treatment group. According to the authors, radiotherapy to the prostate should become a standard treatment option for men with newly diagnosed disease with a low metastatic burden [44].

Role of metastasis-directed therapy

Metastasis-directed therapy (MDT) is a direct consequence of the emergence of new imaging modalities. It either consists of surgical resection or stereotactic radiation therapy to low-volume oligometastatic lesions in selected PCa patients [45]. MDT supposed benefits are: cancer control, slowing down of further metastases and avoiding or delaying ADT-related toxicity. Stereotactic body radiotherapy (SBRT) allows treating metastases with minimal side effects. The ultimate question remains the same, what are we actually gaining in terms of overall survival of patients. Data from retrospective studies, treating over 1000 patients in total,

suggest that cancer specific and overall survival is improved with MDT compared to the standard of care. MDT treatment regimens vary with different radiotherapy techniques, doses, and volumes [46]. Prospective studies digging further into MDT effects are in progress. Among those studies, STOMP and ORIOLE trials are worth mentioning [47, 48]. The primary end point of both trials was ADT-free survival. Surveillance or Metastasis-Directed Therapy for Oligometastatic Prostate Cancer Recurrence (STOMP) is a prospective, randomized, multicentric Phase II trial. Between August 2012 and August 2015, 62 patients were randomly assigned (1:1) to either surveillance or MDT of all detected lesions (surgery or SBRT). At a median follow-up time of 3 years, the median ADT-free survival was 21 months for the MDT group and 13 months for the surveillance group [hazard ratio 0.60 (80% CI 0.40–0.90); log-rank $p=0.11$] [47]. Regarding the ORIOLE trial (observation versus stereotactic ablative radiation for oligometastatic prostate cancer), this is a phase II randomized, non-blinded interventional study (NCT02680587). Preliminary results reported during ASCO GU in February 2018 suggested that 67% of patients in the surveillance group progressed at 6 months, while only 29% in the SABR group [48]. Despite encouraging data, some authors remain skeptical that MDT will delay the use of ADT. Moreover, this argument is a weak endpoint compared to progression-free survival or overall survival especially given that timing for using hormone therapy remains controversial. For Murphy et al., the approach to metastatic PCa “catching ‘em all”, or “pokemet”, must be considered experimental [17]. Moreover, according to Montorsi et al., only two thirds of the patients with positive images on PET choline and PSMA had an actual relapsing disease at lymph node level on pathological examination [49]. It is important to remember that new imaging modalities can inform us about the status of the disease at a specific moment in time. Thus, we have no further evidence on the kinetics behind disease progression. It seems logical that patients with slow cancer growth must be treated differently compared to those with rapidly progressive disease. New biomarkers are mandatory to help determining the natural history of the disease and to select the patients who could actually benefit from MDT. Finally, successful disease management is relative. Should we rely on symptomatology, biology, radiologic progression, overall survival, or recurrence-free survival? Some authors advocate the use of more relevant parameters, such as those described in the project intermediate clinical criteria in prostate cancer (ICECaP) [50].

Ongoing trials and emerging molecular techniques for detection of oligometastases

In the light of the results obtained through this review of the literature, it seems that we lack quality evidence justifying

the use of local therapy or MDT in oligometastatic PCa patients. Fortunately, the scientific community has become aware of the problem and a number of randomized controlled trials are underway. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the currently published and ongoing trials. These prospective trials are analyzing the role of cytoreductive prostatectomy, as in the TroMbone trial, as well as definitive prostate radiotherapy in metastatic PCa and MDT. Furthermore, the biology of oligometastatic disease is currently being explored. Is oligometastatic disease a biologically different entity compared to high-burden metastatic disease? Or are we just temporally anticipating? The discovery of micro-RNA (miRNA) seems to give a start of answers to many questions that arise. These short noncoding RNA molecules (19–22 nucleotides) are involved in the downregulation of the target mRNA and in the metastatic cascade [51]. According to Formosa et al., a series of miRNAs called oligomers would be typical of oligometastatic diseases, and thus have a role in the development of the oligometastatic state and the transition from an oligometastatic state to a polymetastatic disease [52]. An *in vitro* model revealed the existence of significant downregulation of ten different miRNAs encoded at the 14q32,31 locus with apoptosis, PCa cell-cycle progression, also cell migration and/or invasion, and tumor suppression. More recently, Lussier et al. analyzed the function of miR-654: a significant decline in its expression would be correlated with a higher incidence of metastatic events, a lymph node invasion and higher PSA levels [53].

Exosomes are nanoscale extracellular vesicles that allow tumor cells to exchange genetic material. Through the creation of a pro-tumor microenvironment and the modification of the local stroma, exosomes are at the origin of premetastatic niches promoting the growth of tumor cells, their invasion and their immune suppression [54]. By analyzing the exosome proteins derived from PCa cells, the researchers found a high level of molecules stimulating tumor cell migration and metastasis: the β_4 and $\alpha_6\beta_6$ integrins, vinculin and the Trop-2 transmembrane glycoprotein [55, 56]. These new findings on exosomes appear to make them ideal biomarkers in the early phases of oligometastatic tumors, prompting the discussion on future biomarkers to segregate which patients should undergo cytoreductive surgery + MDT compared to ADT + chemotherapy/second-line hormones.

Conclusion

Recent breakthroughs on exosomes and the increasing clinical utility of nuclear imaging based on tracers such as PSMA ligands are improving the understanding of oligometastatic PCa. To date, survival benefit from cytoreductive prostatectomy is not supported by current evidence and remains experimental, though probably improving

Table 1 Role of local therapy: randomized trials and their characteristics

| Study name | Country primary investigator | Inclusion | Phase | Design | Estimated participant | Primary endpoint | Start | Close to recruitment in | NCT/NRT number | Results |
|------------|--|--------------|------------------------|---|-----------------------|------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|--|
| STAMPEDE | UK; N James; University Hospital; Birmingham | M1 | Phase II and Phase III | SOC (ADT) and prostate RT, (two possible RT schedules) | 1032 | OS | January 2013 (Arm H) | September 2016 (Arm H) | NCT 00268476 | Radiotherapy improved Failure-free survival (HR 0.76, 95% CI 0.68–0.84; $p < 0.0001$) but not OS (HR 0.92, 95% CI 0.80–1.06; $p = 0.266$) |
| HORRAD | Netherlands; G van Andel; Onze lieve; Amsterdam | M1b | Phase II | ADT with EBRT vs ADT alone | 432 | OS | June 2004 | August 2014 | NCT 271 | Median OS 45 months (95% CI 40.4–49.6) in the ADT + EBRT group vs 43 months (95% CI 32.6–53.4) in the ADT group ($p = 0.4$) |
| PEACE 1 | Europe; K Fizazi; Gustave Roussy; Paris | M1 | Phase III | SOC (ADT ± Docetaxel) ± abiraterone acetate with or without Prostate RT | 1168 | OS, PFS | October 2013 | May 2017 | NCT01957436 | |
| SWOG 1802 | USA; B F Chapin; M.D. Anderson, Houston | M1 | Phase II I | RP or EBRT + SoC vs SoC | 1165 | OS | December 2015 | March 2018 | NCT01751438 | |
| g-RAMPP | Germany; Markus Graefen; Martini-Klinik; Hamburg | M1b (≤5 met) | Phase III | SOC with RP-eLND vs SOC alone | 452 | CSS | May 2015 | April 2025 | NCT02454543 | |
| TRoMbone | UK; Freddie Hamdy; Oxford University; London | M1b (≤3 met) | Feasibility | RP-eLND + SoC vs SoC | 50 | Feasibility | February 2017 | November 2018 | ISRCTN 15704862 | |

ADT androgen deprivation therapy, CI confidence interval, CSS cancer-specific survival, EBRT external beam radiation therapy, OS overall survival, PFS progression-free survival, RP radical prostatectomy, RT radiotherapy, SOC standard of care, STAMPEDE systemic therapy in advancing or metastatic prostate cancer: evaluation of drug efficacy, TroMbone testing radical prostatectomy in men with prostate cancer and oligometastases to the bone

Table 2 Role of MDT: randomized trials and their characteristics

| Trial | Estimated enrollment | Inclusion criteria | Arms | Primary outcome | Results |
|------------------------|--|---|--|-----------------------|--|
| STOMP | 62 patients | $N1 + M1 \leq 3$ lesions by choline PET | Arm A: active surveillance Arm B: SBRT or surgery for metastases. ADT at progression | ADT-free survival | Median ADT-free survival Arm A: 13 mo (80% CI 12–17 months) versus Arm B: 21 months (80% CI 14–29 months) (HR 0.60; $p=0.11$) |
| ORIOLE | 54 participants | ≤ 3 bone mets | Observation vs SBRT \pm DCFPyL-PET/MR, no ADT | PFS | Interim results Progression at 6 months 71% (5/7) on observation arm versus 33% (4/12) for the SBRT arm. |
| Sunnybrooke | 60 participants | M1a-b ≤ 5 | Prostate 35 Gy/5fx, Nodes 25-35 Gy/5fx, Mets 30-40 Gy/5fx, ADT at least 1 year | Toxicity | |
| OLIGOPEL-VIS-GETUG-P07 | 70 participants | ≤ 5 pelvic LNs by choline PET | Pelvic LN 45 Gy, LN + boost 66 Gy, and ADT 6 mo | BF | |
| Univ Florida | 48 participants | M1 excluding CNS | SBRT or stereotactic hypofractionated RT ADT for all | PFS | |
| NRG | 12 breast cancer; 11 non-small cell lung cancer 13 prostate cancer | ≤ 4 mets, NSCLC, breast, or prostate | SBRT, ADT allowed | Recommended SBRT dose | |
| CORE | 206 participants | ≤ 3 mets NSCLC, breast, or prostate | SBRT vs SOC | PFS | |
| GICOR | 68 participants | $N1 + m1 \leq 5$ by choline PET | SBRT, ADT allowed | PFS | |

ADT androgen deprivation therapy, BF biochemical failure, CI confidence interval, Fx fractions, Gy grays, LN lymph node, MDT metastasis-directed therapy, Mets metastasis, NSCLC non-small cell lung cancer, PET positron emission tomography, PFS progression-free survival, RT radiotherapy, SBRT stereotactic body radiotherapy, SOC standard of care

local symptoms of PCa. Prospective studies suggest that radiotherapy may be beneficial in patients with low-burden metastatic disease, and data from recent trials support MDT, with an improvement of at least androgen deprivation-free survival. Ongoing trials are eagerly awaited to draw reliable recommendations.

Author contributions AS: project development, data collection, data analysis, manuscript writing. SA: project development, data collection, data analysis, manuscript writing. FA: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing. GA: project development, data analysis. WAHO: data collection. RD: data analysis, manuscript writing. SR: data collection. AT: data collection. AB: data collection. AM: project development. TK: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing. AA: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing. KE: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing. AK: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing. AI: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing. TR: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing. AP: project development, data analysis, manuscript writing.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Kelly SP, Anderson WF, Rosenberg PS, Cook MB (2018) Past, current, and future incidence rates and burden of metastatic prostate cancer in the United States. *Eur Urol Focus* 4(1):121–127
- Angela Culhane A (2017) Cancer research UK prostate cancer mortality statistics. Cancer Research UK, London
- Corfield J, Perera M, Bolton D et al (2018) 68 Ga-prostate specific membrane antigen (PSMA) positron emission tomography (PET) for primary staging of high-risk prostate cancer: a systematic review. *World J Urol* 36:519
- Tosoian JJ, Gorin MA, Ross AE, Pienta KJ, Tran PT, Schaeffer EM (2017) Oligometastatic prostate cancer: definitions, clinical outcomes, and treatment considerations. *Nat Rev Urol* 14:15–25
- Hoyle AP, Ali SA, James ND et al (2018) Effects of abiraterone acetate plus prednisone/prednisolone in high and low risk

- metastatic hormone sensitive prostate cancer. *Ann Oncol* 29(Suppl 8):mdy424.033
6. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, Mulrow C, Gøtzsche PC, Ioannidis JPA et al (2009) The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies that evaluate healthcare interventions: explanation and elaboration. *BMJ* 339:b2700. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.b2700>
 7. Hellman S, Weichselbaum RR (1995) Oligometastases. *J Clin Oncol* 13:8–10
 8. Reyes DK, Pienta KJ (2015) The biology and treatment of oligometastatic cancer. *Oncotarget* 6(11):8491–8524
 9. Gillissen S, Attard G, Beer TM et al (2018) Management of patients with advanced prostate cancer: the report of the advanced prostate cancer consensus conference APCCC 2017. *Eur Urol* 73:178–211
 10. Mottet N, Bellmunt J, Bolla M, Briers E, Cumberbatch MG, De Santis M, Fossati N, Gross T, Henry AM, Joniau S, Lam TB, Mason MD, Matveev VB, Moldovan PC, van den Bergh RC, Van den Broeck T, van der Poel HG, van der Kwast TH, Rouvière O, Schoots IG, Wiegel T, Cornford P (2017) EAU-ESTRO-SIOG guidelines on prostate cancer. Part 1: screening, diagnosis, and local treatment with curative intent. *Eur Urol* 71(4):618–629
 11. Rowe SP, Mana-Ay M, Javadi MS, Szabo Z, Leal JP, Pomper MG, Pienta KJ, Ross AE, Gorin MA (2016) PSMA-based detection of prostate cancer bone lesions with F-DCFPyL PET/CT: a sensitive alternative to Tc-MDP bone scan and NaF PET/CT? *Clin Genitourin Cancer* 14:115–118
 12. Sterzing F, Kratochwil C, Fiedler H, Katayama S, Habl G, Kopka K, Afshar-Oromieh A, Debus J, Haberkorn U, Giesel FL (2016) (68)Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT: a new technique with high potential for the radiotherapeutic management of prostate cancer patients. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 43(1):34–41
 13. Perera M, Papa N, Christidis D, Wetherell D, Hofman MS, Murphy DG, Bolton D, Lawrentschuk N (2016) Sensitivity, specificity, and predictors of positive 68 Ga-prostate-specific membrane antigen positron emission tomography in advanced prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Urol* 70:926–937
 14. Albisinni S, Artigas C, Aoun F, Biaoou I, Grosman J, Gil T, Hawaux E, Limani K, Otte FX, Peltier A, Sideris S, Sirtaine N, Flamen P, Van Velthoven R (2017) Clinical impact of 68 Ga-prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) positron emission tomography/computed tomography (PET/CT) in patients with prostate cancer with rising prostate-specific antigen after treatment with curative intent: preliminary analysis of a multidisciplinary approach. *BJU Int.* 120(2):197–203
 15. Roach PJ, Francis R, Emmett L, Hsiao E, Kneebone A, Hruby G, Eade T, Nguyen QA, Thompson BD, Cusick T, McCarthy M, Tang C, Ho B, Stricker PD, Scott AM (2018) The Impact of 68 Ga-PSMA PET/CT on management intent in prostate cancer: results of an Australian prospective multicenter study. *J Nucl Med* 59(1):82–88
 16. Murphy DG, Sweeney CJ, Tombal B (2017) “Gotta catch ‘em all”, or do we? Pokemet approach to metastatic prostate cancer. *Eur Urol* 72(1):1–3
 17. Mole RH (1953) Whole body irradiation; radiobiology or medicine? *Br J Radiol* 26(305):234–241
 18. Powell IJ, Tangen CM, Miller GJ, Lowe BA, Haas G, Carroll PR et al (2002) Neoadjuvant therapy before radical prostatectomy for clinical T3/T4 carcinoma of the prostate: 5-year followup, phase II Southwest Oncology Group Study 9109. *J Urol* 168(5):2016–2019
 19. Chi KN, Chin JL, Winquist E, Klotz L, Saad F, Gleave ME (2008) Multicenter phase II study of combined neoadjuvant docetaxel and hormone therapy before radical prostatectomy for patients with high risk localized prostate cancer. *J Urol* 180(2):565–570 (discussion 570)
 20. Taplin M-E, Montgomery B, Logothetis CJ, Bubley GJ, Richie JP, Dalkin BL et al (2014) Intense androgen-deprivation therapy with abiraterone acetate plus leuprolide acetate in patients with localized high-risk prostate cancer: results of a randomized phase II neoadjuvant study. *J Clin Oncol* 32(33):3705–3715
 21. Ross RW, Galsky MD, Febbo P, Barry M, Richie JP, Xie W et al (2012) Phase 2 study of neoadjuvant docetaxel plus bevacizumab in patients with high-risk localized prostate cancer: a Prostate Cancer Clinical Trials Consortium trial. *Cancer* 118(19):4777–4784
 22. Nesslerer JP, Peiffert D, Vogin G, Nickers P (2017) Cancer, radiotherapy and immune system. *Cancer Radiother* 21(4):307–315
 23. Tzelepi V, Efstathiou E, Wen S, Troncso P, Karlou M, Pettaway CA, Pisters LL, Hoang A, Logothetis CJ, Pagliaro LC (2011) Persistent, biologically meaningful prostate cancer after 1 year of androgen ablation and docetaxel treatment. *J Clin Oncol* 29(18):2574–2581
 24. Zelefsky MJ, Reuter VE, Fuks Z, Scardino P (2008) Shippy A Influence of local tumor control on distant metastases and cancer related mortality after external beam radiotherapy for prostate cancer. *J Urol* 179(4):1368–1373
 25. Comen E, Norton L, Massagué J (2011) Clinical implications of cancer self-seeding. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol* 8(6):369–377
 26. Pienta KJ, Robertson BA, Coffey DS, Taichman RS (2013) The cancer diaspora: metastasis beyond the seed and soil hypothesis. *Clin Cancer Res* 19:5849–5855
 27. Haffner MC, Mosbrugger T, Esopi DM et al (2013) Tracking the clonal origin of lethal prostate cancer. *J Clin Investig* 123(11):4918–4922
 28. Folkersma LR, Manso LSJ, Romo IG, Sierra JM, Gómez CO (2012) Prognostic significance of circulating tumor cell count in patients with metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer. *Urology* 80(6):1328–1332
 29. Fisher B, Gunduz N, Coyle J, Rudock C, Saffer E (1989) Presence of a growth-stimulating factor in serum following primary tumor removal in mice. *Can Res* 49(8):1996–2001
 30. Naumov GN, Folkman J, Straume O, Akslen LA (2008) Tumor-vascular interactions and tumor dormancy. *APMIS*. 116(7–8):569–585
 31. Gratzke C, Engel J, Stief CG (2014) Role of radical prostatectomy in metastatic prostate cancer: data from the Munich Cancer Registry. *Eur Urol* 66:602–603
 32. Antwi S, Everson TM (2014) Prognostic impact of definitive local therapy of the primary tumor in men with metastatic prostate cancer at diagnosis: a population-based, propensity score analysis. *Cancer Epidemiol* 38:435–441
 33. Culp SH, Schellhammer PF, Williams MB (2014) Might men diagnosed with metastatic prostate cancer benefit from definitive treatment of the primary tumor? A SEER-based study. *Eur Urol*. 65:1058–1066
 34. Engel J, Bastian PJ, Baur H et al (2010) Survival benefit of radical prostatectomy in lymph node-positive patients with prostate cancer. *Eur Urol* 57:754–761
 35. Heidenreich A, Pfister D, Porres D (2015) Cytoreductive radical prostatectomy in patients with prostate cancer and low volume skeletal metastases: results of a feasibility and case-control study. *J Urol* 193:832–838
 36. Sooriakumaran P, Karnes J, Stief C et al (2016) A multi-institutional analysis of perioperative outcomes in 106 men who underwent radical prostatectomy for distant metastatic prostate cancer at presentation. *Eur Urol* 69:788–794
 37. Rusthoven CG, Jones BL, Flaig TW et al (2016) Improved survival with prostate radiation in addition to androgen deprivation therapy for men with newly diagnosed metastatic prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 34:2835–2842

38. Steuber T, Berg KD, Røder MA et al (2017) Does cytoreductive prostatectomy really have an impact on prognosis in prostate cancer patients with low-volume bone metastasis? results from a prospective case-control study. *Eur Urol Focus* 3:646–649
39. Preisser F, Mazzone E, Nazzani S, Bandini M, Tian Z, Marchioni M, Steuber T, Saad F, Montorsi F, Shariat SF, Huland H, Graefen M, Tilki D, Karakiewicz PI (2018) Comparison of perioperative outcomes between cytoreductive radical prostatectomy and radical prostatectomy for nonmetastatic prostate cancer. *Eur Urol* 74(6):693–696
40. Won AC, Gurney H, Marx G, De Souza P, Patel MI (2013) Primary treatment of the prostate improves local palliation in men who ultimately develop castrate-resistant prostate cancer. *BJU Int* 112:E250–E255. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bju.12169>
41. Albisinni S, Aoun F, Diamand R, Al-Hajj Obeid W, Porpiglia F, Roumeguere T, De Nunzio C (2018) Cytoreductive prostatectomy: what is the evidence? A systematic review. *Minerva Urol Nefrol*. <https://doi.org/10.23736/S0393-2249.18.03319-2>
42. Löppenberg B, Dalela D, Karabon P, Sood A, Sammon JD, Meyer CP, Sun M, Noldus J, Peabody JO, Trinh QD, Menon M, Abdollah F (2017) The impact of local treatment on overall survival in patients with metastatic prostate cancer on diagnosis: a national cancer data base analysis. *Eur Urol* 72(1):14–19
43. Boevé LMS, Hulshof MCCM, Vis AN, Zwinderman AH, Twisk JWR, Witjes WPI, Delaere KPI, Moorselaar RJAV, Verhagen PCMS, van Andel G (2018) Effect on survival of androgen deprivation therapy alone compared to androgen deprivation therapy combined with concurrent radiation therapy to the prostate in patients with primary bone metastatic prostate cancer in a prospective randomised clinical trial: data from the HORRAD trial. *Eur Urol*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2018.09.008>
44. Parker CC, James ND, Brawley CD, Clarke NW, Hoyle AP, Ali A, Ritchie AWS, Attard G, Chowdhury S, Cross W, Dearnaley DP, Gillissen S, Gilson C, Jones RJ, Langley RE, Malik ZI, Mason MD, Matheson D, Millman R, Russell JM, Thalmann GN, Amos CL, Alonzi R, Bahl A, Birtle A, Din O, Douis H, Eswar C, Gale J, Gannon MR, Jonnada S, Khaksar S, Lester JF, O'Sullivan JM, Parikh OA, Pedley ID, Pudney DM, Sheehan DJ, Srihari NN, Tran ATH, Parmar MKB, Sydes MR, Systemic Therapy for Advanced or Metastatic Prostate cancer: Evaluation of Drug Efficacy (STAMPEDE) investigators (2018) Radiotherapy to the primary tumour for newly diagnosed, metastatic prostate cancer (STAMPEDE): a randomised controlled phase 3 trial. *Lancet* 392(10162):2353–2366
45. Ost P, Bossi A, Decaestecker K, De Meerleer G, Giannarini G, Karnes RJ, Roach M 3rd, Briganti A (2015) Metastasis-directed therapy of regional and distant recurrences after curative treatment of prostate cancer: a systematic review of the literature. *Eur Urol* 67:852–863
46. De Bleser E, Tran PT, Ost P (2017) Radiotherapy as metastasis-directed therapy for oligometastatic prostate cancer. *Curr Opin Urol* 27(6):587–595
47. Ost P, Reynders D, Decaestecker K, Fonteyne V, Lumen N, De Bruycker A, Lambert B, Delrue L, Bultijnck R, Claeys T, Goetghebeur E, Villeirs G, De Man K, Ameye F, Billiet I, Joniau S, Vanhaverbeke F, De Meerleer G (2018) Surveillance or metastasis-directed therapy for oligometastatic prostate cancer recurrence: a prospective, randomized, multicenter phase II trial. *J Clin Oncol* 36(5):446–453
48. Radwan N, Pillips R, Ross A, Rowe SP, Gorin MA, Antonarakis ES, Deville C, Greco S, Denmeade S, Paller C, Song DY, Diehn M, Wang H, Carducci M, Pienta KJ, Pomper MG, DeWeese TL, Dicker A, Eisenberger M, Tran PT (2017) A phase II randomized trial of observation versus stereotactic ablative radiation for oligometastatic prostate CancEr (ORIOLE). *BMC Cancer* 17(1):453. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12885-017-3455-6>
49. Montorsi F, Gandaglia G, Fossati N, Suardi N, Pultrone C, De Groote R, Dovey Z, Umari P, Gallina A, Briganti A, Mottrie A (2017) Robot-assisted salvage lymph node dissection for clinically recurrent prostate cancer. *Eur Urol* 72(3):432–438
50. Sweeney C, Nakabayashi M, Regan M, Xie W, Hayes J, Keating N, Li S, Philipson T, Buysse M, Halabi S, Kantoff P, Sartor AO, Soule H, Mahal B (2015) The development of intermediate clinical endpoints in cancer of the prostate (ICECaP). *J Natl Cancer Inst* 107(12):djv261. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djv261>
51. Uppal A, Ferguson MK, Posner MC, Hellman S, Khodarev NN, Weichselbaum RR (2014) Towards a molecular basis of oligometastatic disease: potential role of micro-RNAs. *Clin Exp Metastasis* 31:735–748
52. Formosa A, Markert EK, Lena AM, Italiano D, Finazzi-Agro E, Levine AJ, Bernardini S, Garabadgiu AV, Melino G, Candi E (2014) MicroRNAs, miR-154, miR-299-5p, miR-376a, miR-376c, miR-377, miR-381, miR-487b, miR-485-3p, miR-495 and miR-654-3p, mapped to the 14q32.31 locus, regulate proliferation, apoptosis, migration and invasion in meta-static prostate cancer cells. *Oncogene* 33(44):5173–5182
53. Lussier YA, Xing HR, Salama JK, Khodarev NN, Huang Y, Zhang Q, Khan SA, Yang X, Hasselle MD, Darga TE, Malik R, Fan H, Perakis S, Filippo M, Corbin K, Lee Y, Posner MC, Chmura SJ, Hellman S, Weichselbaum RR (2011) MicroRNA expression characterizes oligometastasis(es). *PLoS One* 6(12):e28650. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0028650>
54. Conti A, D'Elia C, Cheng M, Santoni M, Piva F, Brunelli M, Lopez-Beltran A, Giulietti M, Scarpelli MM, Pycha A, Benedetto Galosi A, Artibani W, Cheng L, Montironi R, Battelli N, Lusuardi L (2017) Oligometastases in genitourinary tumors: recent insights and future molecular diagnostic approach. *Eur Urol Suppl* 16(12):309–315
55. Kawakami K, Fujita Y, Kato T, Mizutani K, Kameyama K, Tsutomoto H, Miura Y, Deguchi T, Ito M (2015) Integrin β 4 and vinculin contained in exosomes are potential markers for progression of prostate cancer associated with taxane-resistance. *Int J Oncol* 47(1):384–390
56. Trerotola M, Ganguly KK, Fazli L, Fedele C, Lu H, Dutta A, Liu Q, De Angelis T, Riddell LW, Riobo NA, Gleave ME, Zoubeidi A, Pestell RG, Altieri DC, Languino LR (2015) Trop-2 is up-regulated in invasive prostate cancer and displaces FAK from focal contacts. *Oncotarget* 6(16):14318–14328 (**Erratum in: Oncotarget. 2015;6(32):34038**)

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Affiliations

Amine Slaoui^{1,2,3}  · **S. Albisinni⁴** · **F. Aoun^{2,5}** · **G. Assenmacher²** · **W. Al Hajj Obeid⁴** · **R. Diamand⁴** · **S. Regragui¹** · **A. Touzani¹** · **A. Bakar⁴** · **A. Mesfioui³** · **T. Karmouni¹** · **A. Ameer⁶** · **K. Elkhader¹** · **A. Koutani¹** · **A. Ibnattya¹** · **T. Roumequere⁴** · **A. Peltier²**

¹ Urology B Department, Ibn Sina Hospital, Mohammed V University, Rabat, Morocco

² Urology Department, Jules Bordet Institute, ULB, Brussels, Belgium

³ Laboratory of Genetics, NeuroEndocrinology and Biotechnology, Faculty of Sciences, University Ibn Tofail, Kenitra, Morocco

⁴ Urology Department, University Clinics of Brussels, Erasme Hospital, ULB, Brussels, Belgium

⁵ Urology Department, Hôtel Dieu-de-France, Saint-Joseph University, Beyrouth, Lebanon

⁶ Urology Department, Mohammed V Military Hospital, Mohammed V University, Rabat, Morocco