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1 **Focal therapy in primary prostate cancer: The EAU Position in 2017**

2

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Radical treatment is recognized to be unnecessary or overtreatment for many  
 22 men with localized prostate cancer. Regional, targeted and focal destruction of  
 23 the cancer offers the potential for lower morbidity and improved quality of life  
 24 whilst maintaining similar cancer outcomes. Consequently, there is currently a  
 25 rapid uptake in the use of focal and regional ablative therapies for this disease.  
 26 However, there are a number of biological and practical concerns about this  
 27 approach and it has yet to be proven as a robust treatment option. In particular,  
 28 the multi-focal nature of prostate cancer argues against unifocal treatment and  
 29 limitations in imaging can preclude the accurate identification of the number,  
 30 location and extent of prostate cancer foci. To date, at least seven ablative  
 31 options have reported results. Most series are relatively immature (needing  
 32 longer follow-up), there is a lack of consistent follow up, and the morbidity of  
 33 retreatment is often not considered. Hence the EAU considers focal therapy to be  
 34 an experimental modality that should only be performed within the scope of a  
 35 clinical trial. The panel encourages the development of these trials and  
 36 recruitment of suitable patients.

37

38 **I. Introduction**

39 Whole gland treatment is the current gold-standard for localized prostate cancer.  
 40 (PCa). Since treatment of the entire prostate gland results in toxicity due to  
 41 damage to surrounding tissue such as urinary sphincter, neurovascular bundle,  
 42 bowel and bladder a focused treatment of an accurately located lesion would be

43 of interest. Focal therapy (FT) of the prostate can be defined as treatment of  
44 parts of the prostate in order to minimize treatment-related morbidity.  
45 Improved imaging of prostate cancer facilitates the concept of FT. The options  
46 for FT are numerous and in suitable men focal ablation may reduce  
47 complications associated with whole gland treatment (1, 2) while maintaining  
48 the same oncological efficacy. Recent data from the ProtecT trial showed no  
49 difference in 10-year cancer specific survival between active monitoring,  
50 prostatectomy or external beam radiotherapy for men with mainly low and  
51 intermediate risk prostate cancer but considerable differences in functional  
52 outcome (3, 4). Therefore, a comparable oncological outcome with lower side-  
53 effect profile would be an important asset of FT in comparison with whole gland  
54 treatment, in the situation where an active treatment is needed. When  
55 considered in low risk prostate cancer, as done in many cohorts with small  
56 solitary lesions, efficacy of FT should be compared to active surveillance (AS)  
57 and long term follow up studies are required.

58 To date, most focal therapies have been achieved with ablative  
59 technologies: cryotherapy, high-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU),  
60 photodynamic therapy, electroporation, and focal radiotherapy by  
61 brachytherapy or stereotactic external beam radiotherapy. All reported  
62 modalities of focal therapy are at IDEAL stage 2b, i.e. that they are at an  
63 exploratory phase with assessment and longer follow-up not yet available (5).

64  
65 The concept of FT can only provide long term benefit to patients if it satisfies the  
66 following requirements:

- 67 a) proven survival efficacy equivalent to whole gland treatment
- 68 b) fewer complications and less impact on functional outcomes than radical  
69 treatment
- 70 c) reliable follow-up of remaining prostatic tissue and
- 71 d) the benefits of primary treatment outweigh the possible harms of secondary  
72 or salvage treatment.

73

74 Although focal therapy can be also used for salvage treatments of prostate  
75 cancer local recurrences after whole gland treatment (6), this paper will focus on  
76 primary treatment only.

77

## 78 **II. Patient selection**

79 To select patients for focal in comparison to whole gland treatment, detailed  
80 local staging is essential. Multiparameter magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI)  
81 improves detection of multiple tumor locations in the prostate and could  
82 therefore aid in selecting patients in the context of clinical trials (7, 8) (9, 10). An  
83 international consensus project proposed mpMRI as the standard imaging tool  
84 for FT but still recognized systematic biopsies are required to investigate  
85 mpMRI-negative areas in the prostate (11). These imaging and sampling  
86 modalities must be associated with a high negative predictive value of significant  
87 PCa in regions considered as being “normal”. Sextant random biopsies are  
88 insufficient to accurately map tumor locations within the prostate. Therefore,  
89 standardized, preferably perineal template-guided saturation biopsies are  
90 suggested for patients selection (8, 12, 13)(14).

91 Several consensus meetings have defined criteria for patient selection  
92 (**Table 1**) (1) (11, 15, 16). FT is considered for both low and intermediate risk  
93 (GS<4+3) tumors in men with a life-expectancy of at least 10 years and workup  
94 with mpMRI and template biopsies. Interestingly, in most recent reports, limited  
95 Gleason 6 disease is accepted in the untreated prostate areas clearly indicating  
96 that follow up strategies after FT should be similar to that for active surveillance.

97

98

## 99 **III. Techniques of focal therapy**

100 Several ablative and radiotherapy approaches to focal therapy have been  
101 reported. Comparative studies are scarce and most studies included low to  
102 intermediate-risk prostate cancer treated with curative intent. Options for FT are  
103 either hemigland treatment or ablation of isolated tumor foci. Regardless of  
104 technique total tumor ablation within the treated area is crucial. Several  
105 treatment templates have been chosen including hemigland, quadrant and lesion  
106 targeting. When selecting foci for treatment (16) treatment planning should

107 include a 5 mm margin to account for microscopic spread and treatment  
108 uncertainties. Foci of indolent cancer, which can also be present in the prostate,  
109 could be left untreated when treating the dominant index lesion. Other authors  
110 favor a larger safety margin of 9 mm (17). **Table 2** shows the techniques used for  
111 FT of primary prostate cancer.

112

### 113 **1. Focal cryosurgery ablation of the prostate (fCSAP)**

114 Cryotherapy uses freezing of tissue under ultrasound guidance in one or multiple  
115 cycles to ablate tissue through dehydration resulting in protein denaturation;  
116 direct rupture of cellular membranes by ice crystal formation, and vascular stasis  
117 and development of microthrombi, resulting in stagnation of the  
118 microcirculation with consecutive ischaemic apoptosis. BCR at 60 months for  
119 fCSAP was comparable to whole gland treatment with better erectile function  
120 preservation for fCSAP but similar incidence of voiding problems and fistulas  
121 (18). The short follow-up and comparison of different definitions of biochemical  
122 recurrence render conclusions on oncological efficacy problematic. The  
123 incontinence rates at 1 year for fCSAP were very low (< 1%), whilst erectile  
124 dysfunction rates (ranging from 0-40%) were close to those for men after  
125 prostatectomy. Procedural complication rates were generally low, with the most  
126 common being acute urinary retention (range 1.2-8.0%). When compared to  
127 whole gland cryotherapy, fCSAP resulted in a higher rate of erectile function  
128 preservation while continence and oncological outcome was similar for both  
129 options (19). Using mpMRI-guidance, fCSAP resulted in no deterioration in  
130 erectile function from baseline, and LUTS remained unchanged from baseline  
131 (20).

132

### 133 **2. Focal high intensity focused ultrasound (fHIFU)**

134 The principle of HIFU ablation is to focus a high-intensity ultrasound beam on a  
135 given target point. The concentration of the beam energy at that point produces a  
136 dramatic temperature rise (up to 80 °C in a few seconds). Tissue destruction is  
137 caused by coagulation necrosis and cavitation effects. Systematic reviews of the  
138 literature comparing outcomes of fHIFU with radical prostatectomy or external  
139 beam radiotherapy, found no comparative studies reporting on oncological,

140 continence or potency at 1 year or more (21). In a low-to-intermediate risk  
141 population treated by hemi-ablation the local radical retreatment rate was 11%  
142 at 2 years and there was a 13% grade-3 adverse event rate (22). In 5 patients  
143 who underwent MR-guided focal ablation before radical prostatectomy, no  
144 residual cancer was found in the treated area, but Gleason 7 bilateral cancer,  
145 overlooked by mpMRI, was present outside the treated area in 2 of 5 patients  
146 (23). Three of fourteen men in a small series with mpMRI guided fHIFU were  
147 diagnosed with Gleason 7 or higher cancer at 24 months after treatment (24).  
148 Barrett et al. (25) reported a reduction in IIEF score after fHIFU and a moderate  
149 increase in IPSS suggesting that fHIFU does carry some morbidity.

150

### 151 **3. Irreversible electroporation (IRE) and radiofrequency ablation (RFA)**

152 IRE applies electric current to ablate tissue with a small transition zone between  
153 treated and non-treated tissue (26). However, the IRE ablation zone cannot be  
154 sufficiently visualized by TRUS guidance and although contrast-enhanced  
155 ultrasound and mpMRI show promising results, difficulties in targeting tissue  
156 remain unresolved (27) (28, 29). This is confirmed by recent data that showed a  
157 narrow safety margin as a strong predictor of local treatment failure (30) with  
158 an infield recurrence rate of 16%. In 19 men treated with nanoknife IRE residual  
159 disease was found in 39% (31). Toxicity after IRE is low for ED (<10%) and  
160 urinary retention (3%) (table 2).

161

### 162 **4. Focal laser ablation**

163 MRI guided laser treatment allows for thermal ablation of specific areas of the  
164 prostate (32-35). In 5 reported series, follow-up was less than 1 year and  
165 residual disease was present in up to 22% of cases (32). In-bore MRI-guidance  
166 may improve outcome (36). Toxicity for focal laser ablation is reported in under  
167 5% of patients.

168

### 169 **5. Photodynamic focal therapy (PFT)**

170 Photosensitizers can be used to ablate tissue by applying light. The formation of  
171 oxygen radicals is believed to underlie the thromboembolic effects of  
172 photodynamic therapy. PFT is the only FT for prostate cancer that was evaluated

173 in a randomized phase III clinical trial comparing hemigland ablation (n=207)  
174 and active surveillance (n=206) in men with low risk disease. This level 1b  
175 evidence showed a reduced rate of positive prostate biopsies at 2 years in the  
176 PFT arm as primary end point (37, 38). September 2017, EMEA granted  
177 marketing authorization of PFT by padeliporfin for low risk unilateral prostate  
178 cancer. Although valid at the time of initiation the study was criticized for  
179 including men with low-risk disease which according to current standard  
180 practice would all be offered active surveillance, therefore the clinical relevance  
181 of this finding is at least questionable. Longer follow up studies are needed and  
182 ongoing to evaluate overall survival data. The most common toxicity for PFT was  
183 urinary retention in 7% of cases early after treatment.

184

## 185 **6. Focal brachytherapy**

186 In a systematic review, Peach et al. (39) described data from 6 clinical studies  
187 and 9 dosimetry studies on focal high- and low-dose rate brachytherapy. Follow-  
188 up in all studies was less than 60 months and the recurrence rate was found to  
189 be up to 29% in one series , but this was found to be dependent on the location of  
190 the treated lesion (40). Targeting the peripheral zone only by iodine-125  
191 sources, was found to be associated with high recurrence rates in intermediate-  
192 risk patients (41). In comparison to whole gland, focal brachytherapy resulted in  
193 a markedly lower PSA reduction in a small group of men (42). Toxicity was  
194 reported as less or similar to whole gland treatment, but detailed data are  
195 lacking.

196

## 197 **IV. Statements**

### 198 **1. Can focal therapy treat the tumor cell clones most likely to** 199 **metastasize?**

200 The concept of focal therapy is valid when the potentially metastasizing tumor  
201 clones can be defined and therefore targeted. The frequent multi-focality of  
202 prostate cancer argues for accurate imaging and histology i.e. obtained by  
203 mpMRI and mapping template biopsies. The presence of potentially  
204 metastasizing clones appears to be early in the course of the disease (43, 44).  
205 The index lesion, i.e. the largest lesion with the highest Gleason grade in the

206 prostate is currently the usual target of FT. In 20% of cases, however, high grade  
207 tumor cells can be found in non-targeted smaller lesions (45) questioning the  
208 validity of this concept. Although mpMRI was promising for identifying larger  
209 lesions additional template biopsies are recommended for more accurate staging  
210 and better patient selection as mpMRI lacks sufficient sensitivity for the  
211 detection of smaller lesions (46). In-field recurrences after most focal ablative  
212 treatments do occur and the toxicity of secondary treatments for recurrent  
213 disease is less well known; further data are essential.

214

215 **Focal therapy can ablate cancer cells but currently, imaging methods**  
216 **cannot reliably identify all high-risk cancer clones within the prostate**

217

218

219 ***2. What is the evidence regarding the clinical effectiveness of focal***  
220 ***therapy for localized prostate cancer?***

221 Two recent systematic reviews summarized the data regarding clinical  
222 effectiveness of focal therapy. Ramsay et al. (47) undertook a systematic review  
223 and network meta-analysis of ablative therapy in men with localised prostate  
224 cancer, which included a sub-group analysis of FT vs. RP and EBRT. Nine case  
225 series reporting on FT were identified (5 studies reporting on focal CSAP, 3  
226 studies on focal HIFU, and 1 study reporting on both). For FT vs. RP or EBRT, no  
227 statistically significant differences were found for BCR at 3 years. For focal HIFU  
228 vs. RP or EBRT, there were no data to compare data on oncological outcomes at 1  
229 year or more, making it impossible to assess oncological effectiveness of focal  
230 therapy.

231 Similarly, Valerio et al. (21) found in a systematic review including data from  
232 3,230 patients across 37 studies, covering 7 different energy sources for FT that  
233 the toxicity of FT is low but due to lack of a comparator group in most studies  
234 evaluation against standard of care is needed.

235 It should be recognized that most studies on FT include men with low-risk  
236 disease for whom active surveillance is the preferred option. The short term  
237 results from the only randomized trial comparing FT and AS are promising at a  
238 reduced clinical progression rate of FT but longer follow up is needed (38).



239 Among studies remarkable variations in follow up intervals and positive biopsy  
240 rates are apparent (table 1) possibly reflecting the experimental setup of most  
241 studies.

242

243 **The literature suggests that the oncological effectiveness of focal**  
244 **therapy remains unproven due to the lack of reliable comparative data**  
245 **against standard interventions such as radical prostatectomy and EBRT as**  
246 **well as against active surveillance. We recommend awaiting prospective**  
247 **comparative trial data before implementing FT in routine clinical practice.**

248

249 ***3. How does focal therapy compare with whole gland treatment in terms***  
250 ***of complications?***

251 Toxicity of whole gland treatment of localized prostate cancer is caused by  
252 damage to surrounding anatomical structures and depends on the type of  
253 treatment (3). Although less frequent, reports on non-whole gland ablative  
254 treatment showed similar types of toxicity compared to whole gland treatment  
255 (1, 25) but with earlier recovery (48). Phase III data suggests that toxicity of PDT  
256 hemiablation exceeds side effects of active surveillance in the initial 2 years after  
257 treatment (37).

258

259 **Focal therapy studies targeting smaller regions of the prostate have**  
260 **reported reduced toxicity compared to whole-gland treatment options but**  
261 **robust comparative studies with toxicity end-points are still lacking.**

262

263 ***4. Is reliable follow-up of remaining prostatic tissue after focal therapy***  
264 ***for cancer progression possible ?***

265 Close follow-up is essential after focal therapy since residual disease in  
266 the prostate may lead to disease recurrence and or progression. Neither PSA nor  
267 imaging has been standardized to define recurrence / progression after FT (21).  
268 A recent consensus panel (16) recommended histologic outcomes are assessed  
269 by targeted biopsy at 1 year after treatment (49). Residual disease in the treated  
270 area of <3mm in size and of Gleason 3 + 3 score were considered not to be in  
271 need of further treatment and focal retreatment rates of less than 20% were

272 considered clinically acceptable. The need for subsequent whole-gland treatment  
273 should, however, be categorized as failure of focal therapy (16). Muller et al. (50)  
274 presented results from a consensus meeting on the methods of follow up after  
275 FT. At least 5 years of follow up using mpMRI, biopsies and functional outcome  
276 assessment were elements consensus was obtained on.

277

278 **Given the considerable uncertainties regarding the optimal follow-up of**  
279 **men treated with focal therapy, patients should only be treated within the**  
280 **context of a clinical trial using predefined criteria (51).**

281

282 ***5. Is there an increased toxicity for salvage treatment compared to the***  
283 ***initial whole gland treatment ?***

284 Local recurrence after focal therapy has been reported in 3.6-40% of cases (1, 9,  
285 25). Several studies reported data on the toxicity of secondary treatment after  
286 focal therapy (52-54). Local salvage therapy after primary whole gland  
287 treatment is usually associated with increased morbidity compared to primary  
288 whole gland treatment (55-58). Complications seem similar for salvage  
289 prostatectomy after whole gland and FT but seem to be related to the type of  
290 primary FT (52, 59) Data on retreatment with FT in men with recurrence are  
291 scarce.

292

293 **Better understanding of the toxicity of secondary and retreatments**  
294 **after focal therapy is needed and assessment of it should be part of**  
295 **prospective analyses.**

296

297 **Conclusions**

298 Focal therapy is still an experimental intervention that should only be performed  
299 within the scope of a clinical trial. Clear predefined clinically relevant objectives  
300 are needed, such as a negative biopsy, overall survival, disease specific survival  
301 and toxicity, as well as robust comparative studies with optimal schedules and  
302 duration of follow-up. Based on the available data, it should be recognized that  
303 active surveillance is the preferred option for many men with low-risk prostate

304 cancer. It is unlikely that focal therapy will provide any oncological benefits in  
305 this population within 10 years of diagnosis, considering the low cancer-specific  
306 mortality. In intermediate-risk disease the accurate detection of higher risk  
307 clones remains problematic. Patients should be counseled and cautioned that no  
308 long-term comparative data on functional and oncological outcomes are  
309 available for focal therapy. The presence of grade I-III toxicity occurs in up to  
310 13%, the need for retreatment exists with its associated toxicities. Finally no  
311 clear follow up strategy has been clarified whatever the risk group considered.

312 If long-term benefit is proven (functional or oncological), focal therapy would  
313 represent a real progress in prostate cancer care. But so far it must be  
314 considered as experimental only.

315

### 316 **Patient summary**

317 Focal therapy of prostate cancer is the targeted destruction of a focus of cancer  
318 within the prostate gland whilst sparing the rest of the prostate and nearby  
319 organs. This procedure could potentially reduce side effects as compared to  
320 established standard treatments, such as surgery or radiotherapy, which treat  
321 the entire gland. Studies show that for most men with low risk cancer, active  
322 surveillance is the preferred option. The available data of all forms of focal  
323 therapy is still poor and inconclusive. For intermediate risk cancer the  
324 difficulties in identifying all areas of cancer and the lack of clear results lead us to  
325 consider focal therapy only within clinical trials.

326

### 327 **Glossary**

328

329	EAU	European association of urology
330	FT	focal therapy
331	IDEAL	Idea, Development, Exploration, Assessment, Long-term Follow-
332		up, Improving the Quality of Research in Surgery
333	fCSAP	focal cryosurgery of the prostate
334	fHIFU	focal high intensity focused ultrasound
335	IPSS	international prostate symptom score
336	IRE	irreversible electroporation
337	mpMRI	multiparameter magnetic resonance imaging

338	PDT	photodynamic therapy
339	PSA	prostate specific antigen
340	RFA	radiofrequency ablation
341	TRUS	transrectal ultrasound
342		

343  
344

**Table 1.** Summary table of consensus reports on FT.

Publication	Year	Consensus topic	Consensus setup	Patient selection	Follow up	Conclusion
1 bostwick Urology 70 (2007) 42-44	2007	pathobiology, definition, patient selection, biopsy	not provided	LE>5y, T1-3, PSA<15ng/ml, no LUTS, bladder stones/infections excluded, 3D-mapping biopsies 5mm interval		FT reasonable consideration in selected patients
3 de la Rosette J Endourol	2010	patient selection, imaging	workshop discussion group, informal	template biopsies, LE>10y, cave in patients with LUTS, low-intermediate risk, <T2c, anterior/apical lesions may be difficult, long term effects not know	biopsy 6m, 12m, future: mpMRI or CEUS, 3m PSA first year and 6m thereafter, PROMs	
2 smeenge BJU 110 (2012) 942-948	2012	role of TRUS	workshop discussion group, informal	TRUS value limited, CEUS promising, systematic biopsy schemes needed		
4 ahmed BJU 109 (2012) 1636-1647	2012	FT and AS	workshop discussion group, informal	transperineal mapping biopsy		suggested study sequence: proof of tumor ablation, compare FT to existing whole gland and/or active surveillance.
5 langley BJU 109 (2012), 7-16	2012	focal LDR	consensus meeting	LE>10y, PSA<15ng/ml, mpMRI, template biopsies, unilateral <0.5cc, contralateral <3mm insignificant disease (G53+3, <3mm), index lesion <=G53+4, <T2c, prostate size <60cc	PSA 3m intervals first year then 6 monthly, Phoenix criteria, mpMRI, PROMs	distinction of ultra-FT (part of lobe), focal therapy (hemigland), focused therapy (combining whole gland and FT)
6 muller BJU 114 (2014) 698-707	2014	role of mpMRI	Delphi method, panel meeting		biopsy 6m, 12m	mpMRI preferred imaging, FU 6m, yearly mpMRI no consensus on whether mpMRI could replace biopsies
7 vd bos EUROPEAN UROLOGY 65 (2014) 1078-1083	2014	trial design	Delphi method, panel meeting	PSA<15ng/ml, T1c-2a, G53+3 or 3+4, LE>10y	biopsy 6m, 12m	
8 muller World J Urol. 2015 Oct;33(10):1503-9	2015	follow up	Delphi method, panel meeting		minimal 5y, (fusion) template TRUS biopsies after 1y, mpMRI (T2WI, DWI, DCE, T1WI) at 6m and 12m, yearly thereafter till 5y.	
9 donaldson European urology. 2015;67(4):771-7	2015	patients, interventions, and outcomes	Delphi method, panel meeting	intermediate risk, MRI-targeted or template biopsy, 5mm treatment margin, G56, <3mm can be left untreated, <20% retreatment		
10 scheltema World journal of urology. 2017;35(5):695-701	2017	mpMRI	Delphi method, panel meeting	mpMRI to plan treatment	biopsy	use 1.5T mpMRI only with endorectal coil, fusion MRI-TRUS when suspect lesion besides systematic biopsies.
11 tay Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis. 2017 Sep;20(3):294-299.	2017	patient selection	Delphi method, panel meeting	mpMRI standard imaging tool, low/int risk PCA, G54+3, G53+4, foci<1.5cc on mpMRI, <20% of the prostate, 3cc or 25% of the prostate for hemigland treatment. Gleason 6 in one core in the non-treated region is acceptable.		

345  
346

347 **Table 2.** Focal therapy options for primary prostate cancer management.

Technique	Ablation	Image guidance	Number of studies (patients)	FU range	Oncological outcome	Incontinence	Urinary retention	ED
1 Cryotherapy	freeze-thaw cycles	TRUS, mpMRI	12 (n=2118)	6-58m	4-25% biopsy positive	<1%	5% (6m)	0-31%
2 HIFU	heat	TRUS, mpMRI	5 (n=171)	6-24m	0-21% biopsy positive	<1%	<5%	0-25%
3 IRE	electroporation	mpMRI	5 (n=157)	6-12m	3-33% biopsy positive	<1%	<3%	5-10%
4 Laser	heat	mpMRI	6 (n=85)	3w-12m	4-64% biopsy positive	<1%	<1%	<5%
5 Photodynamic therapy	vascular targeting	TRUS	3 (n=313)	6-24m	26-51% biopsy positive	<5%	7%	<2%
6 Brachytherapy	radiation	TRUS, MRI dosimetry	7 (n=541)	24-60m	0-17% biopsy positive	<5%	nr	nr

348

349

350 ED = erectile dysfunction, as defined and reported by the studies

351 FU = follow up

352 HIFU = high intensity focused ultrasound

353 IRE = irreversible electroporation

354 mpMRI = multiparameter magnetic resonance imaging

355 TRUS = transrectal ultrasound

356

357

358

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360

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