

Genomic Classifiers and Prognosis of Localized Prostate Cancer: A Systematic Review

Matthew Boyer (✉ matthew.boyer@duke.edu)

Duke University School of Medicine <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8970-2046>

David Carpenter

Duke University School of Medicine <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9261-7168>

Jeffrey Gingrich

Duke Cancer Institute, Center for Prostate & Urologic Cancers <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4516-2893>

Sudha Raman

Duke University School of Medicine

Deepika Sirohi

University of Utah School of Medicine

Amir Alishahi Tabriz

Moffitt Cancer Center

Alexis Rompre-Brodeur

McGill University <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8177-0514>

Joseph Lunyera

Duke University School of Medicine

Fahmin Basher

Duke University School of Medicine

Rhonda Bitting

Durham VA Health Care System

Andrezj Kosinski

Duke University School of Medicine

Sarah Cantrell

Duke University School of Medicine

Adelaide Gordon

Durham VA Health Care System

Belinda Ear

Durham VA Health Care System

Jennifer Gierisch

Durham VA Health Care System

Morgan Jacobs

Durham VA Health Care System

Karen Goldstein

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Abstract

Background

Refinement of the risk classification for localized prostate cancer is warranted to aid in clinical decision making. A systematic analysis was undertaken to evaluate the prognostic ability of three genomic classifiers, Decipher, GPS, and Prolaris, for biochemical recurrence, development of metastases and prostate cancer specific mortality in patients with localized prostate cancer.

Methods

Data Sources: MEDLINE, Embase, and Web of Science were queried for reports published January 2010 to April 2022.

Study Selection: Prospective or retrospective studies reporting prognosis for patients with localized prostate cancer.

Data Extraction: Relevant data were extracted into a customized database by 1 researcher with a second over reading. Risk of bias was assessed using a validated tool for prognostic studies, Quality in Prognosis Studies (QUIPS). Disagreements were resolved by consensus or by input from a third reviewer. We assessed certainty of evidence by GRADE incorporating adaptation for prognostic studies.

Results

Data Synthesis: A total of 39 studies (37 retrospective) involving over 10 000 patients were identified. Twenty-two assessed Decipher, 5 GPS, and 14 Prolaris. Thirty-four studies included patients who underwent prostatectomy. Based on very low to low certainty of evidence, each of three genomic classifiers modestly improved upon the prognostic ability for biochemical recurrence, development of metastases, and prostate cancer specific mortality compared to standard clinical risk classification schemes

Limitations: Downgrading of confidence in the evidence stemmed largely from bias due to the retrospective nature of the studies, heterogeneity in treatment received, and era in which patients were treated (i.e., prior to 2000s).

Conclusions:

Genomic classifiers provide a small but consistent improvement upon the prognostic ability of clinical classification schemes which may be helpful when treatment decisions are uncertain. However, definitive evidence from current management-era data is needed.

INTRODUCTION

Prostate cancer is the most common malignancy in men with an estimated 268,490 new cases in the United States in 2022, approximately 70% of whom will present with localized disease (1). To date, risk stratification to define prognosis and guide treatment has been based on clinical features such as prostate specific antigen (PSA) level and tumor staging (2). However, there is variability in patient outcomes not otherwise explained by currently recognized risk factors.

Tissue-based genomic classifier tests have been developed to refine the clinically based classification schemas and inform personalized recommendations for treatment. Three of the currently commercially available genomic classifier tests are Decipher, Genomic Prostate Score (formerly Oncotype DX GPS, hereafter referred to as GPS), and Prolaris. Each test provides a score based on the expression of a derived panel of genes in a patient's biopsy or prostatectomy specimen that can be used to estimate prognosis (3–5) (see test characteristics in Appendix Table 1). While large prospective studies are underway to assess the predictive ability of at least 1 of these tests (6, 7), results are not likely to be available for a decade or more. Meanwhile, a review of the prognostic ability of genomic classifier tests beyond clinical risk classification schemas for localized prostate cancer is needed to inform interim guidance for clinical care.

Table 1

Certainty of Evidence for Genomic Tests and Biochemical Recurrence, Metastasis, and Prostate Cancer-Specific Mortality

Outcome	Number of Studies	Findings	Certainty of Evidence (Rational)
<i>Decipher</i>			
Biochemical recurrence	4 observational studies (525 patients)	HR range (0.32 to 1.36) AUC range clinical features (0.56, 0.64) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.69 to 0.85)	Low certainty (downgraded for serious risk of bias and serious imprecision)
Metastases	15 observational studies (3,165 patients)	HR range (1.17 to 61.6) OR range (1.36, to 1.48) AUC range clinical features (0.46 to 0.88) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.67 to 0.89)	Low certainty (downgraded for serious risk of bias and serious indirectness)
Prostate cancer-specific mortality	5 observational studies (1,807 patients)	HR range (1.39 to 56.0) OR range (1.20) AUC range clinical features (0.55 to 0.81) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.71 to 0.78)	Low certainty (downgraded for serious indirectness and serious imprecision)
<i>Oncotype</i>			

Abbreviations: AUC = area under the curve; OR = odds ratio; HR = hazard ratio

Outcome	Number of Studies	Findings	Certainty of Evidence (Rational)
Biochemical recurrence	3 observational studies (876 patients)	HR range (1.10 to 2.73) AUC range clinical features (0.59) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.68)	Very low certainty (downgraded for serious inconsistency, serious indirectness, and serious imprecision)
Metastases	3 observational studies (793 patients)	HR range (2.24 to 2.63) AUC range clinical features (0.55 to 0.77) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.65 to 0.824)	Very low certainty (downgraded for serious risk of bias, serious indirectness, and serious imprecision)
Prostate cancer-specific mortality	3 observational studies (847 patients)	HR range (2.69, 2.30) AUC range clinical features (0.55 to 0.762) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.69 to 0.822)	Very low certainty (downgraded for serious risk of bias, serious indirectness, serious imprecision)
<i>Prolaris</i>			
Biochemical Recurrence	9 observational studies (2,758 patients)	HR range (1.24 to 10.9) AUC range clinical features (0.542 to 0.78) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.65 to 0.86)	Very low certainty (downgraded for very serious risk of bias, serious indirectness, serious imprecision, and suspected publication bias)

Abbreviations: AUC = area under the curve; OR = odds ratio; HR = hazard ratio

Outcome	Number of Studies	Findings	Certainty of Evidence (Rational)
Metastases	4 observational studies (2,571 patients)	HR range (2.05 to 4.19) AUC range clinical features (0.55 to 0.894) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.90) Test only (0.73)	Very low certainty (downgraded for serious risk of bias, serious inconsistency, serious indirectness, and serious imprecision)
Prostate cancer-specific mortality	3 observational studies (1,989 patients)	HR range (1.65 to 2.57) AUC range clinical features (0.74, 0.55) AUC range clinical features and genomic test (0.78) AUC test only (0.66)	Very low certainty (downgraded for serious risk of bias, serious inconsistency, very serious indirectness, and serious imprecision)
Abbreviations: AUC = area under the curve; OR = odds ratio; HR = hazard ratio			

METHODS

Study Design

This work is part of a Veterans Health Administration (VHA)-funded Evidence Synthesis Program report (www.hsrd.research.va.gov/publications/esp). The Evidence Synthesis Program is a partnered program in the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) which conducts systematic reviews on topics of prioritized relevance to VA operational partners. We work with operations partners to refine the review question, obtain clinical context; however the partners are not involved in conducting the review. We also convened a technical expert panel for additional clinical input. We developed and followed a standard protocol for this review which was registered publicly (PROSPERO:CRD42022347950) and followed PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) guidance (8).

Data Sources and Searches

MEDLINE (via Ovid), Embase (via Elsevier), and Web of Science (via Clarivate) databases were searched for references published from January 2010 to April 2022 using a combination of database-specific controlled vocabulary terms and keywords developed by a medical librarian and study authors. The search strategies were peer reviewed by another librarian using a modified PRESS checklist (9). The

searches were conducted on April 24, 2022 (Search strategies are presented in Appendix Table 2). In addition, we hand-searched previous systematic reviews conducted on this or a related topic for relevant studies and solicited additional citations from the topic nominators and our technical expert panel.

Study Selection

Eligibility criteria included manuscripts published in a peer-reviewed journal that assessed the prognostic ability of the Decipher, GPS, or Prolaris genomic classifiers for clinical outcomes of patients with localized prostate cancer who have undergone definitive surgery and/or radiation as compared to clinical risk stratification models. Key exclusion criteria included patients with metastatic disease, use of other genomic tests, and adverse pathology as the sole reported outcome. Full eligibility criteria are described in Appendix Table 3. Studies identified through our search were independently reviewed based on title and abstract by 2 investigators. All citations marked for inclusion by at least 1 investigator were reviewed at full-text level. Citations designated for exclusion by 1 investigator at the title and abstract level underwent screening by a second investigator. If both investigators agreed on exclusion, the study was excluded. All articles meeting eligibility criteria at full-text review were included for data extraction. Citations were tracked in an electronic database (for referencing, EndNote, Clarivate Analytics, Philadelphia, PA; for data abstraction, DistillerSR, Evidence Partners Inc., Manotick, ON, Canada).

Data Extraction and Quality Assessment

Included reports were extracted into a customized DistillerSR database by 1 reviewer and over-read by a second. Disagreements were resolved by consensus or by obtaining a third reviewer's opinion. Our extraction process was guided by CHARMS-PF (the checklist for critical appraisal and data extraction for systematic reviews of prognostic factor studies) (10). In accordance with our *a priori* plan, we prioritized randomized trials, prospective cohort studies, cohorts with longer follow-up duration (> 5 years), nested case-control studies, and validation or confirmatory studies over training cohorts or data used to establish a test, given the volume of identified literature.

For survival and other time-to-event outcomes, we extracted hazard ratios and corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs). We prioritized extraction of the most adjusted prognostic effect estimates. We considered a minimum set of established prognostic factors (*ie*, PSA, Gleason score, and clinical tumor [T] stage) for adequate adjustment. When studies reported multiple models using different approaches to adjusting for clinical risk factors (*eg*, NCCN vs CAPRA risk stratification models, individual clinical risk factors), we prioritized the use of models as follows: 1) for cohorts with an intact prostate and who had *not* received definitive therapy, we prioritized models using NCCN risk categorization, followed by CAPRA, and then individual clinical features; 2) for post radical prostatectomy patients, we prioritized CAPRA-S, followed by models with individual clinical risk factors.

We used the validated "Quality in Prognosis Studies" tool (QUIPS) to assess risk of bias (ROB) in prognostic factor studies (11). QUIPS criteria include domains such as adequacy of randomization and allocation concealment, comparability of groups at baseline, completeness of follow-up and differential loss to follow-up. Based on a previously published approach, any study that was rated high in 1 or more

domains or moderate for 3 or more was considered high ROB overall and any study that was rated low ROB in all 6 domains or up to 1 moderate ROB was considered low ROB overall (12). Studies that did not meet either of those conditions were considered moderate ROB overall. ROB assessment was initially completed in duplicate for 25% of included studies. Because we found sufficient agreement, the remaining included studies were assessed for ROB by 1 investigator and over-read by a second given the volume of included studies. Lastly, we audited ROB assessments for consistency across all included studies.

Data Synthesis and Analysis

We summarized key study characteristics of the primary literature for each test type separately. We did not combine outcomes across the 3 genomic classifier tests, as each evaluates a distinct and non-equivalent gene panel.

When feasible based on the volume of literature, types of effect measures reported, and completeness of results, we conducted a quantitative synthesis (*ie*, meta-analysis) to estimate summary prognostic effects. Effect estimates were grouped by outcome, statistical effect measure, time point of outcome measurement, and conceptual consistency. Conceptual consistency was primarily based on clinical context (*eg*, those who had received or not received definitive initial treatment for prostate cancer). We grouped outcomes by time point of measurement (*eg*, 3–5 years after test measurement vs 6–10 years) due to the current understanding of the natural history of prostate cancer. For time-to-metastasis or metastasis-free survival, we combined studies by distant and/or regional metastases. This decision was driven by the recognition that while the location of metastases can drive treatment decisions, attention to the location of metastases has evolved over the time span of many included studies. Because the genomic classifier tests of interest are reported as both a continuous variable and a categorical variable, we report both. We aggregated outcomes only when there were at least 3 studies with the same outcome.

Random-effects models were used for meta-analyses; we also used the Knapp-Hartung approach to better account for uncertainty in estimates of the amount of heterogeneity among studies as all included fewer than 20 studies. For meta-analysis which were based on different numbers of score unit increases, the HRs and 95% CIs were adjusted to correspond to a 20-unit increase. We evaluated heterogeneity using visual inspection of forest plots and 95% prediction intervals. When a quantitative synthesis was not feasible, we summarized the data narratively. We gave more weight to the evidence from higher quality studies with more precise estimates of effect.

Certainty of Evidence

We assessed certainty of evidence using GRADE with consideration of guidance around adaptation for prognostic studies including not downgrading for observational study designs (13). In brief, this approach requires assessment of 4 domains: ROB, consistency, directness, and precision. We assigned a summary rating of high, moderate, low, or very low certainty of evidence based on consensus among 3 investigators (KG, MB, AG). Studies that included patient data from the 1980s or early 1990s were

downgraded for indirectness because patients in these studies have limited comparability with patients receiving modern cancer screening and treatment.

Role of the Funding Source

The US Department of Veterans Affairs was not involved in the design, conduct, or analysis interpretation.

RESULTS

1 573 unique articles were initially identified. After applying eligibility criteria to titles and abstracts, 145 articles remained for full-text review. Of these, 39 were included and retained for data abstraction for the full report. These studies included more than 10,000 patients and addressed the prognostic utility of incorporating genomic classifiers into clinical risk-classification schemes (3, 5, 14–51) (see Appendix Fig. 1).

Twenty-two studies assessed Decipher, 5 GPS, and 14 Prolaris, with 1 study investigating all 3 genomic classifiers (16). Seven studies compared the prognostic ability of the genomic classifier to NCCN risk classification, 22 to CAPRA or CAPRA-S, 1 to AUA, and 24 to a combination of clinical features unique to the study. A plurality of studies reported multiple comparisons across clinical risk-classification schemes. Sixteen retrospective studies investigated biochemical recurrence, 20 the rate of metastases, and 10 prostate-cancer-specific mortality. Five studies included composite endpoints, of which 2 were prospective and the remaining 3 retrospective. Twenty-four studies ran the genomic classifier on prostatectomy tissue (3, 15–22, 27, 28, 31, 34, 37–40, 42, 43, 45, 47, 50, 51), 20 on biopsy tissue (5, 14, 18, 19, 22–26, 29, 30, 32, 35, 36, 38, 41, 44, 46, 48, 50), and 5 on a combination of the two (18, 19, 22, 38, 50). Twenty-six studies included patients diagnosed prior to 2000 (3, 5, 15–17, 19, 20, 22, 28–34, 37, 38, 40–44, 46–48, 50), and 9 included patients diagnosed prior to 1990 (3, 5, 15, 20, 31, 32, 38, 43, 48). One study did not report the timeframe from which the patients were drawn, while another reported patients diagnosed prior to 2017 (18, 26). The majority of studies, 34, included patients who initially underwent prostatectomy. Nine studies included patients who were treated with definitive radiation with only 3 studies including patients that solely received definitive radiation (14, 19, 22, 24, 25, 29, 32, 35, 46). Two studies did not report the treatments received (41, 48). Across studies, there was substantial variability in the clinical risk-classification models, outcome of interest, and statistical measure used to assess the impact of the genomic classifier. For complete study characteristics, see Appendix Table 4.

Common risks of bias among included studies were exclusion of potentially eligible participants due to insufficient tissue sample or tissue quality, exclusion of patients lost to follow-up who might have had adverse outcomes, inadequate adjusting for confounders, limited follow-up duration, and lack of details about missing data. Less common was having the genomic classifier test run by a lab other than the commercial lab. Eighteen studies were found to have low ROB (3, 5, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20, 22, 24, 26, 30, 39, 41–45, 47), 11 moderate ROB (23, 28, 31, 34, 35, 37, 38, 40, 46, 48, 51), and 10 high ROB (16, 18, 21, 25, 27, 29, 33, 36, 50) (see Appendix Fig. 2). Of note, 17 studies appear to have been sponsored or co-authored by the commercial companies with rights to the genomic classifier tests under study.

Biochemical Recurrence

Sixteen retrospective studies reported the key outcome of biochemical recurrence, either an absolute rise to 0.2 ng/ml following prostatectomy or a relative rise to 2 ng/ml above the nadir following radiation. Genomic classifiers showed a modest but consistent improvement in prediction of BCR in either setting. Four studies evaluated the additional benefit of the Decipher score (18, 25, 35, 39), three GPS (23, 30, 44), and nine Prolaris (3, 21, 26, 27, 33, 36, 46, 47, 50). Three studies were undertaken in patients who underwent definitive radiation while the remaining were post prostatectomy. The summary estimate HR for BCR across 3 studies evaluating the Decipher score as a continuous variable was 1.20 (95% CI [1.00, 1.43]; 95% prediction interval [PI] [1.00, 1.43]), indicating a 20% increase in the risk of BCR with per unit increase in Decipher score than when clinical classification schemes were considered alone. The summary estimate HR for GPS across 3 studies was 2.03 (95% CI [0.93, 4.45]; 95% PI [0.54, 7.66]). The summary estimate HR across the Prolaris studies was 1.44 (95% CI [1.28, 1.62]; 95% PI [1.28, 1.62]). Effect estimates for biochemical recurrence are summarized in Fig. 1.

Metastases

Twenty studies addressed the predictive ability of genomic classifiers for development of metastases. One of these studies investigated all three genomic classifiers reporting AUCs of 0.74, 0.65, and 0.73 for the Decipher, GPS, and Prolaris scores, respectively, in models with PSA, T stage, and Grade Group compared to 0.55 with those clinical characteristics alone (16). Fifteen studies analyzed the ability of the Decipher score to predict metastases following definitive treatment of prostate cancer, including 14 retrospective studies and 1 secondary analysis of a prospective, randomized trial (5, 17, 19, 20, 25, 28, 29, 32, 35, 37, 38, 40, 42, 43). The number of metastatic events in these studies were low, ranging from 5 to 104. Across 9 studies, the summary effect estimate showed an increase in risk of metastases with continuous increase in Decipher score with an HR of 1.32 (95% CI [1.22, 1.44]; 95% PI [1.15, 1.52]). The ancillary analysis of a subset of patients in a phase III prospective randomized trial evaluating the addition of 2 years of ADT to post-prostatectomy radiation (RTOG 9601) reported an improvement in prognostic ability with a HR of 1.17 (95% CI [1.05 to 1.32]), however, was underpowered to detect a statistically significant interaction between the Decipher score and the effect of ADT(17). Decipher score as a continuous measure is summarized in Fig. 2a and as a categorical measure in Fig. 2b.

Two retrospective studies reported HRs of 2.24 and 2.34 supporting the additive value of GPS to predict development of metastases when combined with standard clinical features. Across 3 retrospective studies of Prolaris, the summary effect estimate showed a HR of 2.34 (95% CI [1.12, 4.90]; 95% PI [0.83, 6.58]). The predictive ability of GPS and Prolaris for development of metastases are summarized in Fig. 2a.

Prostate Cancer–specific Mortality

Ten studies assessed test prognostic ability for prostate cancer specific mortality. The same study which examined all three tests showed AUCs of 0.72, 0.69, and 0.66 for Decipher, GPS, and Prolaris, respectively,

and clinical features compared to 0.55 for clinical features alone (16). Four studies (17, 20, 31, 45) investigated the impact of the Decipher score on the prediction of prostate-cancer-specific mortality in addition to standard clinical or pathologic features. One study reported a HR of 56 (95% CI 6.82–7297) likely due to the small number of events ($n = 20$) and a model that included the Decipher score as a categorical variable (20). The other studies reported HRs of 1.39 and 1.81 with one reporting an OR of 1.34. The ancillary analysis of RTOG 9601 showed the prognostic ability of the Decipher score for overall survival, with an HR of 1.17 (95% CI [1.06, 1.29]) in a model similar to those for prostate-cancer-specific mortality (17).

Two studies reported the HRs for prostate-cancer-specific mortality with GPS testing, 2.69 (95% CI [1.50, 4.82]) in a model with NCCN (30) and 2.30 (95% CI [1.45, 4.36]) in a model with clinical features (15). Three Prolaris studies reported a summary HR of 1.72 (95% CI [1.58, 1.87]; 95% PI [1.58, 1.87]). Studies addressing prostate cancer specific mortality are summarized in Fig. 3.

Other Outcomes

Three additional studies assessed alternative or composite endpoints with Decipher testing (14, 34, 39, 51). A study of 241 patients treated with definitive radiation or prostatectomy were evaluated for time-to-treatment failure defined as biochemical recurrence or initiation of salvage therapy after definitive treatment (14). The HR for time to treatment failure was 2.98 (95% CI [1.22, 7.29]) in a model containing NCCN risk classification and other clinical features. A study using Decipher reported clinical recurrence (noted to be distinct from biochemical recurrence but not clearly defined) was found to have an HR of 1.48 (95% CI [1.09, 2.01]) in a model with CAPRA-S.(39). A second study assessed the composite endpoint of time to clinical recurrence after prostatectomy and found that Decipher as a categorical variable had HRs of 1.40 (95% [CI 0.7, 2.74]) and 2.93 (95% CI [1.58, 5.55]) for intermediate and high risk scores, respectively, in a model with clinical features (34). Lastly, time to secondary therapy was reported after radical prostatectomy for Decipher with a HR of 1.46 (1.34 to 1.66) in a model with clinical features (51). No studies with GPS were identified that evaluated other endpoints. One retrospective Prolaris study reported a composite endpoint of metastasis or prostate-cancer-specific mortality after prostatectomy in a model including CAPRA-S and Prolaris scores with an HR of 2.15 (95% CI [1.36, 3.39])(26). These results are summarized in Appendix Fig. 3.

Certainty of Evidence

Overall, we note that while the effect estimates were consistent in showing a clinically relevant additive benefit of the genomic tests, our certainty of evidence (COE) assessments were frequently downgraded for issues related to indirectness reflecting the era from which the data were drawn. For Decipher, we have low COE that this test provides additional prognostic information for risk of BCR, metastases, and prostate cancer–specific mortality. For GPS, we have very low COE across all 3 outcomes. For Prolaris, we have very low COE across all 3 outcomes. See Table 1 for additional details and reasons for downgrading of each outcome by test type.

DISCUSSION

Based on 39 studies, three genomic classifiers for localized prostate cancer (Decipher, GPS, and Prolaris) modestly improve upon the prognostic ability of currently employed clinical classification schemes. For studies evaluating the genomic classifier scores as continuous variables, the hazard ratios across clinical outcomes including biochemical recurrence, development of metastases, and prostate cancer specific mortality, ranged from 1.16–2.05 for Decipher, 1.10–2.73 for GPS, and 1.24–4.19 for Prolaris. The magnitude and clinical meaning of this improvement is, however, called into question by the low (Decipher) or very low (Prolaris and GPS) certainty of evidence of these studies.

Overall, our findings are largely consistent with prior reviews on this topic. Specifically, six recent reviews examined 1 or more of our 3 outcomes of interest (52–57). Two systematic reviews examined only the Decipher test (55, 57). As with our findings, each review noted that genomic classifier tests modestly improve clinical outcome prediction compared to clinical features alone. A few earlier reviews summarized the results of this rapidly changing field but did not employ standard systematic review methodology such as including a formal risk of bias assessment (52, 58). Our review adds to prior reviews by adding a significant number of studies, more recent studies (an additional 12 articles since the last review's search period), formal risk of bias and certainty of evidence assessment for all included studies, and exploration of test effects by key subgroups. In addition, we defined a standard set of expected risk factors for adjustment across analytic models to account for key clinical factors (ie, PSA, Gleason score, and clinical tumor [T] stage).

A key contributing factor to the low or very low certainty of evidence for our findings stems from many patients contributing data to included articles receiving care during an older management era. Twenty-six of the 39 studies identified included patients diagnosed prior to 2000 and nine included those diagnosed prior to 1990. Since those earlier eras, the detection and management of prostate cancer has evolved significantly. More recent advancements include the incorporation of PSA in screening (59), evolving imaging modalities including MRI and PET (60), dose escalated, image guided radiation with or without androgen deprivation therapy (61), and robot assisted prostatectomy (62). It is unclear how the findings from this review would change if the evaluations were repeated with data solely from patients receiving contemporary care. Ongoing prospective studies in the setting of definitive radiation or surgery may provide further insight into the value of these tests in current practice.

In addition to the inclusion of older patient data, the existing evidence has other notable limitations. First, the clinical classification scheme employed as a comparator to the results of the genomic classifier was inconsistent. While we prioritized analyses including NCCN or CAPRA, we found that 16 of the 39 identified studies compared genomic classifiers to a combination of features, such as log(PSA), that would not typically be employed to determine prognosis in a clinical setting. In addition, the NCCN risk classification has changed over time and patients classified at a certain risk level retrospectively may not have been managed as they would be at present. Moreover, “low” risk by NCCN criteria does not correlate directly with “low” by Decipher despite identical terminology limiting comparison. Second, definitions and

measurement of key outcomes varied. Nine of the studies solely reported on the prognostic ability for biochemical recurrence which is a poor surrogate for overall survival and is not currently accepted as an endpoint for clinical trials (63). Notably, the bulk of the data for GPS and Prolaris tests used earlier endpoints such as biochemical recurrence, while Decipher was the predominantly studied with later or “harder” outcomes such as prostate cancer–specific mortality. It is possible that studies of GPS and Prolaris with longer-term outcomes have not been completed yet. We note that there are 4 Prolaris studies registered in clinicaltrials.gov that appear to have completed data collection but are without peer-reviewed publications or posted results (64–66) or were terminated due to poor enrollment (67). Finally, much of the identified literature was retrospective cohort studies from individual or grouped institutional data from previously treated patients; many of these were from the same institutions, as noted by multiple linked studies evaluating the same cohort data (3, 33, 38, 43, 48, 50). It is possible that data from these included studies may overlap substantially, although in some cases, the amount is unclear (29, 34, 37, 40, 42). It is possible other institutions may have conducted retrospective analyses which have gone unpublished.

Among the limitations of the present review is that our a priori criteria for conceptual heterogeneity may differ from those used by others when combining studies for calculating summary HRs. This review was also limited to reports published in full manuscript form thus may exclude more recent reports published in abstract version only. Additional studies have addressed the role of these genomic classifiers in other settings (eg, metastatic prostate cancer) or investigated other existing genomic classifiers (68–70), but which were not the focus of this review.

In conclusion, genomic classifiers for localized prostate cancer appear to augment the prognostic ability of clinical risk stratification schemes although the studies supporting this have a number of methodological limitations which must be considered when applying to the current management of prostate. Additional analyses are warranted incorporating modern clinical stratification, staging, and treatment to offer more direct and relevant evidence for application to the prostate cancer care we deliver today.

Declarations

Disclaimer: The views expressed are those of the authors and do not reflect the official views or policy of the U.S. Department of Defense or its components.

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Figures

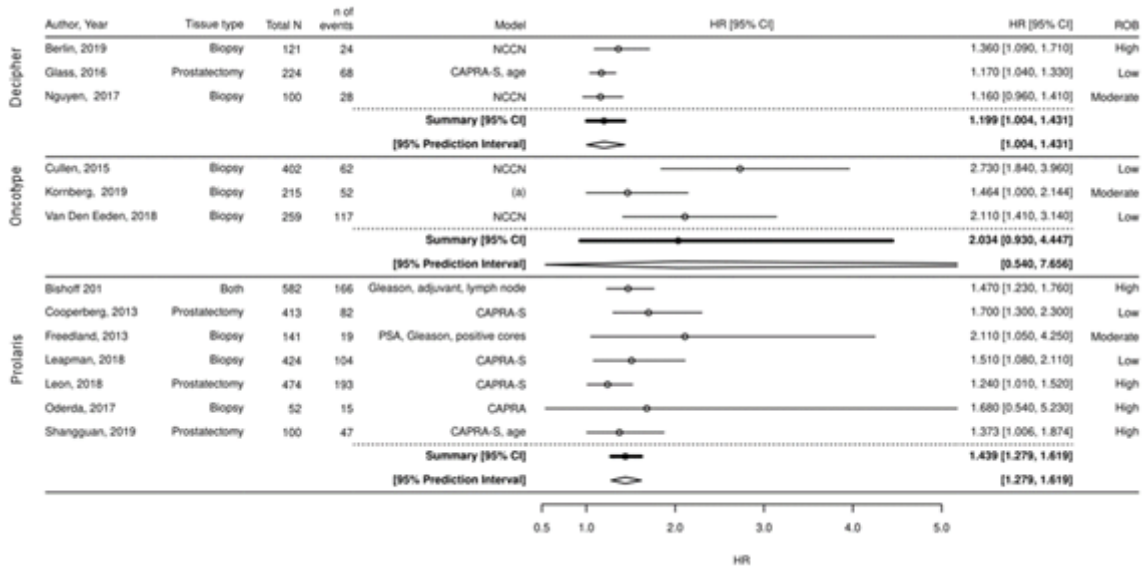


Figure 1

Hazard Ratio Forest Plot for Biochemical Recurrence by Test Type (Decipher, Oncotype, Prolaris)

^a Model includes CAPRA, PSA, age, tissue source (confirmatory vs diagnostic biopsy), clinical institution (UCSF vs other), genomic prostate score testing (clinical care vs research).

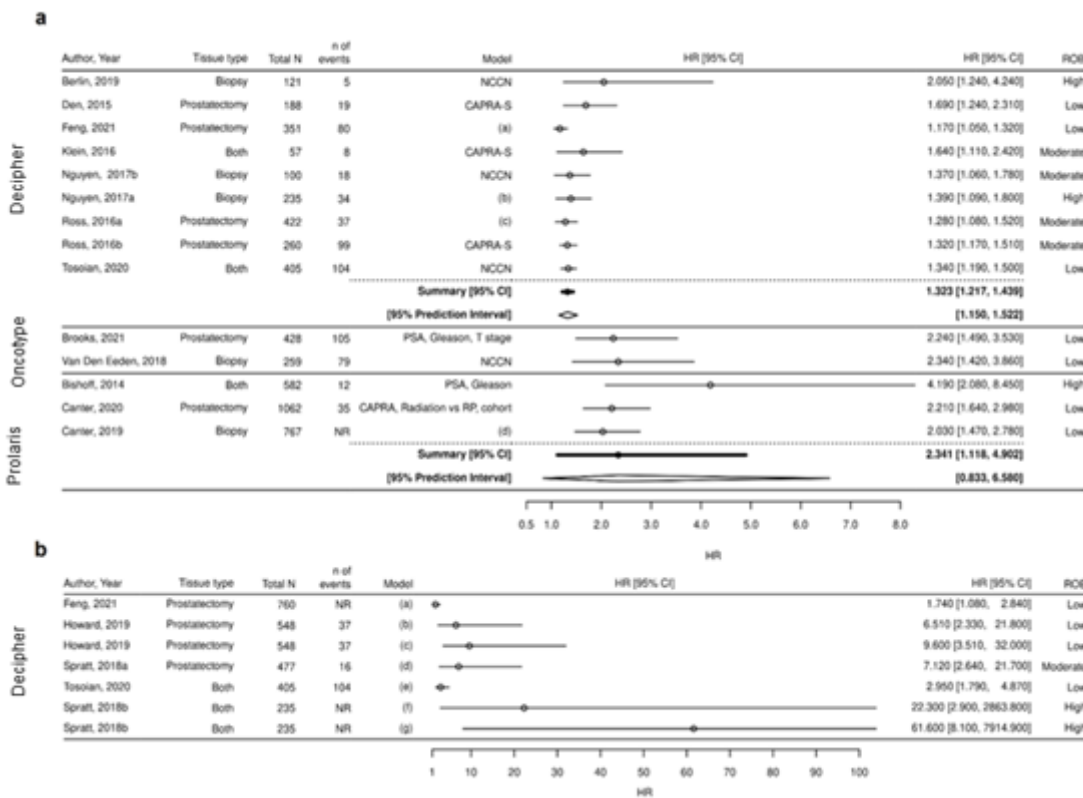


Figure 2

a. Hazard Ratio Forest Plot for Metastasis by Test Type (Decipher, Oncotype, Prolaris) b. Hazard Ratio for Categorical Studies Reporting Metastasis by Test Type (Decipher)

Plot a.

- ^a Model includes age (≥ 65 vs <65), race (AA vs Non-AA), Gleason score (8-10 vs ≤ 7), T stage (pT3 vs pT2), PSA, positive surgical margins, PSA nadir status (non-nadir vs nadir <0.5), ADT vs placebo.
- ^b Model includes age, log2 (PSA), grade group, clinical stage, first-line treatment RP, first-line treatment RT ADT.
- ^c Model includes CAPRA-S, treatment (adjuvant radiation vs minimal residual disease salvage radiation, salvage radiation, no radiation).
- ^d CAPRA, ancestry (AA vs non-AA), primary treatment.

Plot b.

- ^a Treatment, age, Black men vs non Black men, Gleason, T score, PSA, margin status, nadir, Decipher (high vs low).
- ^b CAPRA-S, age, Black men vs non Black men, Decipher (intermediate vs low).
- ^c CAPRA-S, age Black men vs non Black men, Decipher (high vs low risk).
- ^d CAPRA-S, PSA, Decipher (high vs low/intermediate).
- ^e Age, PSA, Grade Group, T-stage, Decipher (high vs low).
- ^f Clinical-genomic risk grouping NCCN + Decipher (intermediate vs low).
- ^g Clinical-genomic risk grouping NCCN + Decipher (high vs low).

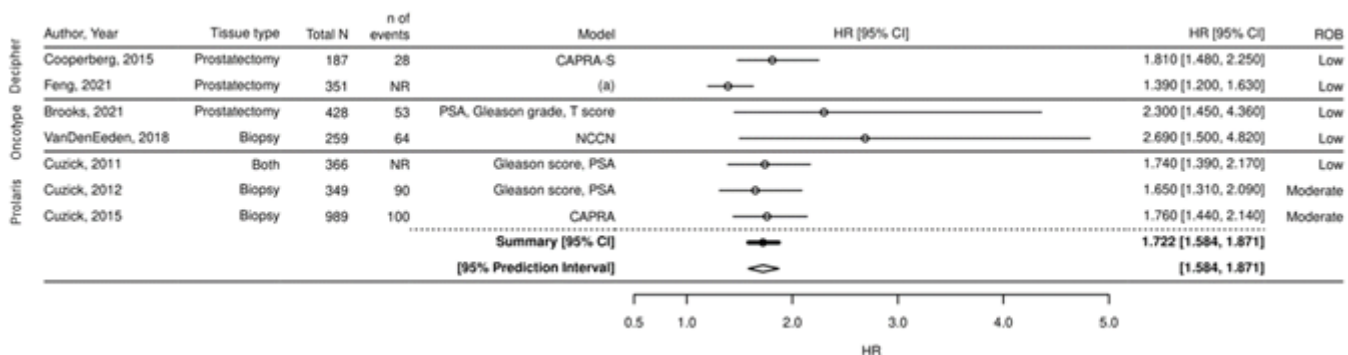


Figure 3

Hazard Ratio Forest Plot for Prostate Cancer–Specific Mortality by Test Type (Decipher, Oncotype, Prolaris)

^a Model includes age (≥ 65 vs <65), Black men vs non Black men, Gleason score (8-10 vs ≤ 7), T stage (pT3 vs pT2), PSA at trial entry, positive surgical margins, PSA nadir status (non-nadir vs nadir <0.5), ADT vs placebo.

Supplementary Files

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