

RESEARCH

Open Access



# Risk-adapted intensification therapy in high-risk prostate cancer: how relevant is the role of radiation dose

A. Zapatero<sup>1\*</sup>, M. Roch<sup>2</sup>, C. Martín de Vidales<sup>1</sup>, P. Castro<sup>2</sup>, N. Montes<sup>3,4</sup>, A. Cruz Conde<sup>1</sup>, Laura Fernández-Banda<sup>1</sup>, Laura Zaragoza<sup>1</sup>, Sara Carroceda<sup>1</sup> and F. García Vicente<sup>2,5</sup>

## Abstract

**Background/Purpose** Dose escalation has demonstrated a significant improvement in biochemical recurrence in high-risk prostate cancer (HRPCa). We evaluated the impact on overall survival (OS) of dose intensification with external beam radiation therapy (EBRT) in a cohort of HRPCa patients treated in a single institution.

**Methods and Materials** Between January 1997 and January 2024, a total of 1451 consecutive localized PCa patients were treated with primary EBRT alone as part of a prospective institutional program for risk-adapted dose-intensification radiotherapy. For the present analysis, we specifically selected a cohort of 424 consecutive HRPCa patients with a minimum follow-up (FU) of 5 years. The median RT dose was 79.2 Gy (interquartile range [IQR] 74.9–80.3). Short and long-term hormones were administered in 56 (13%) and 350 (83%) of patients respectively. Kaplan–Meier curves were used to calculate overall survival (OS). Cumulative incidence of distant metastasis (DM), and cause specific survival (CSS) were estimated using competing risk regression.

**Results** Median patient age was 69 years (IQR 65–72) and median FU was 118 months (IQR 88.0–135.0). At the time of analysis, 54 of 424 patients (13%) had died. The leading cause of death was cardiovascular disease in 16/54 patients (4%), followed by PCa in 15 patients (3%). At 10 and 15 years, the KM estimated OS rates were 91% (95% CI 87–93) and 71% (95% CI 61–79), respectively. The corresponding rates for MFS were 87% (95% CI 83–90) and 60% (95% CI 49–68), and for CSS were 97% (95% CI 95–99) and 90% (95% CI 49–81), respectively. In multivariate analysis, when adjusted for patient age, T stage, Gleason/ISUP group, PSA and length of hormone-therapy, higher radiation dose remained significantly associated with an improved OS (HR 0.89; 95% CI 0.84–0.94), MFS (HR 0.94; 95% CI 0.90–0.98) and CSS (HR 0.89; 95% CI 0.84–0.94).

**Conclusions** The present study confirms that radiation dose intensification is paramount in the treatment of HRPCa with independence of duration of ADT.

**Keywords** High-risk prostate cancer, Radiation dose escalation, Radiotherapy, Overall survival, Metastasis-free survival, Androgen deprivation

\*Correspondence:

A. Zapatero

almudena.zapatero@salud.madrid.org

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2025. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

## Introduction

High-risk localized prostate cancer (HRPCa) is characterized by substantial heterogeneity and a lack of predictive models to facilitate an individualized, risk-adapted therapeutic approach. Multimodal therapy, incorporating high-dose RT (RT) combined with long-term androgen deprivation therapy (LADT), is currently recognized as a widely accepted standard-of-care treatment. Additionally, for patients with very high-risk or locally advanced disease, the inclusion of abiraterone is considered to further enhance treatment efficacy [1].

The importance of RT dose intensification in PCa has been demonstrated in several randomized controlled trials [2–5]. These studies have proved that dose escalation improves biochemical recurrence outcomes. However, they have failed to establish a significant benefit in overall survival (OS). Only one trial conducted in the 1990s, which included patients across all risk groups, reported a sustained improvement in PCa-specific mortality after a median follow-up of 14 years [6]. Recently, the GETUG-AFU18 trial, presented at the ASCO 2024 meeting, revealed that escalating the dose to 80 Gy in patients with HRPCa was associated with improved OS and cancer-specific survival (CSS) (HR 0.61) compared to 70 Gy, without a concomitant increase in long-term toxicity [7].

In this study, we aimed to determine how relevant is the impact of EBRT dose escalation on key endpoints, such as OS, metastasis-free survival (MFS), CSS and late toxicity, in a prospective cohort of HRPCa patients treated in a real-world setting and with a minimum FU of 5 years.

## Patients and methods

### Patients and treatment characteristics

Between January 1997 and January 2024, a total of 1451 consecutive male patients with localized PCa were treated with primary EBRT alone as part of a prospective institutional program for risk-adapted dose-intensified RT. For the present analysis, we specifically selected a cohort of 424 consecutive HRPCa patients, defined according to the National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN) criteria and the following eligibility requirements: histological diagnosis of acinar adenocarcinoma, no evidence of regional nodal or distant disease on conventional imaging, a radiation dose exceeding 66.0 Gy, no prior, concomitant or adjuvant treatment with chemotherapy or novel androgen receptor pathway inhibitors (ARPIs), no combined treatment with brachytherapy, and a minimum follow-up (FU) period of five years. Exclusion criteria included the presence of other histologies, T4 or N1 tumours.

Pre-treatment diagnostic evaluations included blood chemistry analysis, digital rectal examination, transrectal

ultrasound, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of prostate since 2007, and conventional imaging for clinical staging (computed tomography of the thorax, abdomen and pelvis, and bone scan).

### Treatment

All patients were treated with EBRT alone within a framework of a continuous and progressive dose-intensification institutional program. The median RT dose was 79.2 Gy (interquartile range [IQR]: 74.9–80.3 Gy). Treatment was delivered in daily fractions of 1.8–2.0 Gy in 407 cases, while alternative moderated fractionation schemes were employed in 17 cases. The first 274 patients (65%) received treatment with three-dimensional conformal RT (3D-CRT). From 2007 onward, the subsequent 150 patients (35%) were treated with intensity-modulated/image-guided RT (IMRT/IGRT), using intra-prostatic gold fiducial markers to enhance the RT dose prescription to 80.0 Gy. The techniques for simulation, treatment planning, and delivery for both 3D-CRT and IMRT have been described in detail elsewhere [8]. The clinical target volume primarily included the prostate gland and the proximal two-thirds of the seminal vesicles. Given the controversy regarding the role of prophylactic pelvic radiotherapy at the time, elective pelvic node radiotherapy (ENRT) was at the discretion of the physician and administered to 117 patients at doses of 45.0–50.0 Gy. Androgen deprivation was given as part of two consecutive multi-institutional trials [10, 11]. Short term ADT (6 months, STADT) and LADT (24–36 months) were administered in 56 (13%) and 350 (83%) of patients respectively. Table 1 summarizes the patient and treatment characteristics.

All patients were continuously monitored from the time of treatment completion, and the duration of FU was calculated from the date of diagnosis. FU visits, including digital rectal examinations, PSA measurements, and assessments of specific genitourinary (GU) and rectal morbidity, were conducted every 3–6 months for four years, and annually thereafter. CT, bone scans, and chest X-rays were scheduled for re-staging following PSA failure.

### Outcomes and definitions

OS was defined as the time from diagnosis to death from any cause or censoring at the date of the last contact. MFS was defined as the time from diagnosis to metastasis or death from any cause, whichever occurred first, or as censored at the date of the last follow-up. CSS included all deaths from PCa or treatment-related complications, as well as deaths from unknown causes in patients with active cancer, excluding those with only biochemical

**Table 1** Summary of patients' and treatment characteristics

	N	N = 424
<b>Follow-up (months)</b>	424	
Median [Q1, Q3]		118 [88, 135]
<b>Patient age (years)</b>	424	
Median [Q1, Q3]		69 [65, 72]
> 65		303 (71%)
≤ 65		121 (29%)
<b>Clinical T stage</b>	424	
T1		29 (7%)
T2		124 (29%)
T3		271 (64%)
<b>PSA at diagnosis (ng/mL)</b>	422	
Median [Q1, Q3]		18.70 [9.38, 33.50]
< 10		111 (26%)
10–20		109 (26%)
> 20		202 (48%)
Missing		2
<b>Gleason score/ISUP grade groups</b>	419	
1		138 (33%)
2		93 (22%)
3		67 (16%)
4		81 (19%)
5		40 (10%)
Missing		5
<b>Number of risk factors</b>	418	
One factor		274 (66%)
Two factors		118 (28%)
Three factors		26 (6%)
Missing		6
<b>Radiation dose (Gy) (1.8–2/Fraction)</b>	407	
Median [Q1, Q3]		[74.9–80.3]
≤ 74 Gy		120 (29%)
> 74 Gy		287 (71%)
Not evaluated (2.7 Gy/Fraction)		17
<b>IMRT/IGRT</b>		150/424 (35%)
<b>Elective pelvic node radiotherapy</b>		117/424 (28%)
<b>Androgen deprivation therapy</b>	424	
No		18 (4%)
STADT		56 (13%)
LTADT		350 (83%)

\*ISUP International society of urological pathology; #IMRT/IGRT Intensity modulated radiotherapy/image guided radiotherapy; \$STAD Short-term androgren deprivation therapy; & Long-term androgen deprivation therapy

failure. The cause of death was recorded by the treating physician and reviewed in clinical records if necessary.

Late toxicity assessments (occurring > 90 days after RT and graded according to the RTOG/EORTC late radiation morbidity scheme, were performed at each follow-up visit. The Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse

Events (CTCAE) scoring system was used for specific conditions, such as urethral stenosis, incontinence, rectal bleeding, and haematuria. The highest recorded acute and chronic urinary toxicity for each patient was used in the analysis.

### Statistics

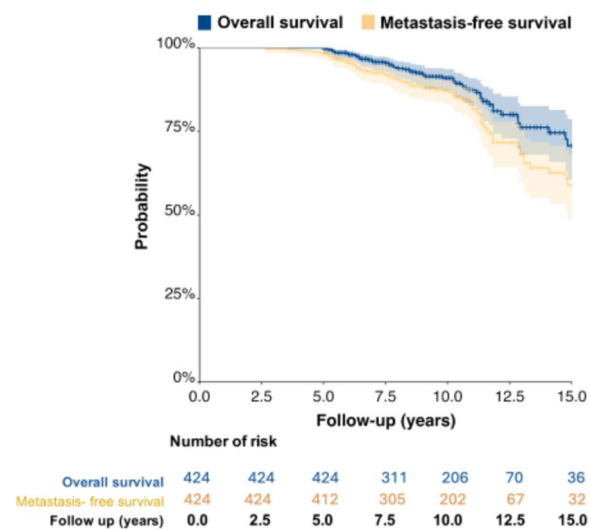
Quantitative variables were expressed as mean and standard deviation (SD) or median and interquartile range (IQR) for the variables with non-normal distribution. For qualitative variables, frequency and proportions were used.

The OS analysis was done using Kaplan–Meier curves, and the treatment groups were compared using the log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test and the Cox proportional-hazards model to compute hazard ratios (HRs). The cumulative incidence curves of MFS and CSS were assessed using competing risk regression. For cancer-specific death and MFS, comparisons between groups were conducted using the Fine and Gray model to account for the competing risk of non-PCa mortality and estimate sub-distribution hazard ratios (HRs). Death from any cause was considered a competing risk [9].

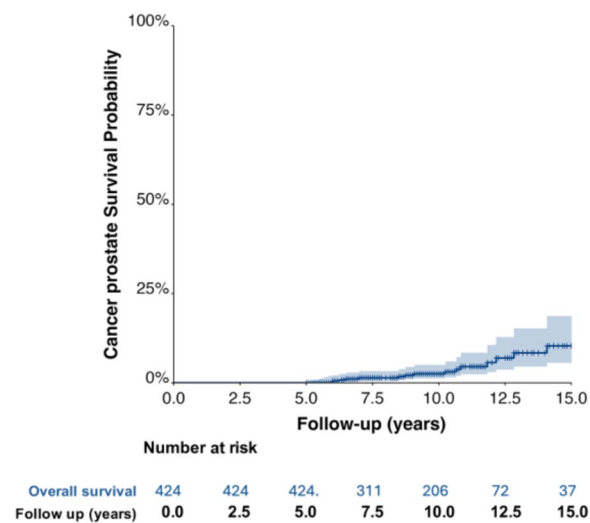
Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analysis (MVA) was performed to assess the association between clinical outcomes and treatment, adjusting for predefined relevant clinical and demographic factors. The variables included in the analysis were patient age (both continuous and categorical), T stage, pre-treatment PSA (continuous and categorical), Gleason score -empirically adapted to International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) groups-, duration of ADT, and radiation dose (continuous and categorical). Patients treated with ENRT (117) were not excluded from the analysis. Variables with a  $p$ -value < 0.1 in univariate analysis, as well as those with  $p \geq 0.1$  but deemed clinically relevant, were included in the MVA. Two-sided  $p$ -values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Statistical analyses were conducted using R v.4.3.2

### Outcomes

The median patient age was 69 years (IQR 65–72), and the median FU was 118 months (IQR 88–135). At the time of analysis, 54 out of 424 patients (13%) had died. The leading cause of death was cardiovascular disease in 16 of 54 patients (4%), followed by PCa in 15 patients (3%) and other malignancies in 9 patients (2%). Biochemical failure (BF) (nadir +2 criteria) occurred in 101 patients (24%), with a median time to event of 112 months (IQR 80–130). Of the 101 patients with BF, 97 received salvage therapy, primarily with hormone therapy (51 patients, 53%). Distant metastasis developed in 41 patients (10%), with a median time to event of 113 months (IQR 87–139).



**Fig. 1** Kaplan Meier curves for overall survival and metastasis-free survival



**Fig. 2** Cumulative incidence of cause specific mortality from the Fine and Gray models

Local metastasis-directed therapy (MDT) combined with hormone therapy was administered in 8 patients, while salvage doublet therapy with docetaxel or androgen receptor pathway inhibitors (ARPIs) was administered as part of a clinical trial to 10 patients.

At 10 and 15 years, the Kaplan–Meier estimated OS rates were 91% (95% CI 87–93) and 71% (95% CI 61–79), respectively. The corresponding rates for MFS were 87% (95% CI 83–90) and 60% (95% CI 49–68), while those for CSS were 97% (95% CI 95–99) and 90% (95% CI 49–81), respectively (Figs. 1 and 2). The 10-year estimated incidence of grade  $\geq 2$  late urinary complications was 13%, while that of grade  $\geq 2$  late rectal toxicity was 10%. There

were only nine cases (2%) of grade 3 genitourinary (GU) toxicity and two cases of grade 4 GU complications. Regarding gastrointestinal (GI) toxicity, there were four cases (0.9%) of grade 3 toxicity, with no cases of grade 4 toxicity reported.

The results of the univariate and MVA are summarized in Tables 2 and 3 and Appendices 1 and 2. For clarity, we decided to exclude from the radiation-dose analysis the 17 patients treated with a fractionation different from 1.8–2 Gy per fraction. The univariate analysis for OS showed that higher radiation dose (as continuous variable, HR 0.89, 95% CI 0.85–0.93,  $p < 0.001$ ), low patient age (HR 1.07, 95% CI 1.02–1.12,  $p = 0.010$ ), and LTADT (HR 0.26, 95% CI 0.12–0.58,  $p < 0.001$ ) were significantly associated with an improvement in OS, whereas T stage, PSA levels, and Gleason/ISUP grade groups were not. Unexpectedly, patients treated with ENRT experienced significantly more events than those who did not receive ENRT ( $p < 0.001$ ). This finding was deemed a bias-related artifact (patients with poorer prognosis and lower radiation dose) and was therefore excluded from the MVA.

In the MVA, when adjusted for patient age and length of hormone-therapy, higher radiation dose remained significantly associated with an improved OS (HR 0.89, 95% CI 0.84–0.94). The 10-year OS was 95% for patients receiving RT at doses  $> 74$  Gy, compared to 81% for those receiving lower RT doses (supplementary information in Appendix 1 and 2). With regard to MFS, higher radiation dose was also associated with a significant improvement in MFS, in both univariate and MVA (HR 0.94, 95% CI 0.90–0.98), together to Gleason/ISUP grade groups 4–5 (HR 1.66, 95% CI 1.01–2.73) (Figs. 3 and 4, Appendices 1 and 2).

Finally, although the number of events was low, we also observed a significant improved CSS with higher radiation doses (HR: 0.84; 95% CI 0.84–0.94) (Fig. 5, Appendix 1).

## Discussion

The results of the present study provide new evidence highlighting the critical role of dose intensification with EBRT in treating HRPc in a real-world setting, beyond the controlled selection criteria of clinical trials. In this long-term analysis (median FU of 118 months) of a prospective cohort of HRPc patients, we proved a significant benefit of dose-escalation with EBRT on MFS, OS and CSS. This survival benefit was irrespective of ADT length, patient age and other tumour related factors, without compromising urinary or rectal function. The late GU and GI toxicity rates remained low, probably due to the incorporation of IMRT/IGRT techniques to intensify the RT dose from 76.0 to 80.0 Gy.

**Table 2** Univariate and multivariate Cox analysis for overall survival

Variables	N	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
		p value	HR (95% CI)	p value	HR (95% CI)
<b>Patient age</b> continuous	424	0.010	1.07 (1–02–1.12)	0.059	1.05 (0.99–1.10)
<b>Radiation dose (Gy)</b> continuous	407	< 0.001	0.89 (0.85–0.93)	< 0.001	0.89 (0.84–0.94)
<b>ADT</b>	424				
No	18	–	–	–	–
STAD	56	0.22	0.58 (0.24–1.38)	0.37	0.67 (0.28–1.60)
LTAD	350	< 0.001	0.26 (0.12–0.58)	0.12	0.52 (0.23–1.19)
<b>PSA ng/ml</b> continuous	424	0.65	0.99 (0.99–1.00)		
<b>Gleason/ISUP grade group</b>	419				
1–2	231	–	–	–	–
3	67	0.87	0.93 (0.38–2.26)		
4–5	121	0.22	1.47 (0.80–2.68)		
<b>T stage</b>	424				
T1	29	–	–	–	–
T2	124	0.41	1.86 (0.43–8.07)		
T3	271	0.60	1.47 (0.35–6.14)		

\*HR Hazard ratio; #CI Confidence interval; \*\*ADT Androgen deprivation therapy; cSTADT Short-term androgen deprivation therapy; eLTADT Long-term androgen deprivation therapy; \*\*ISUP International society of urological pathology

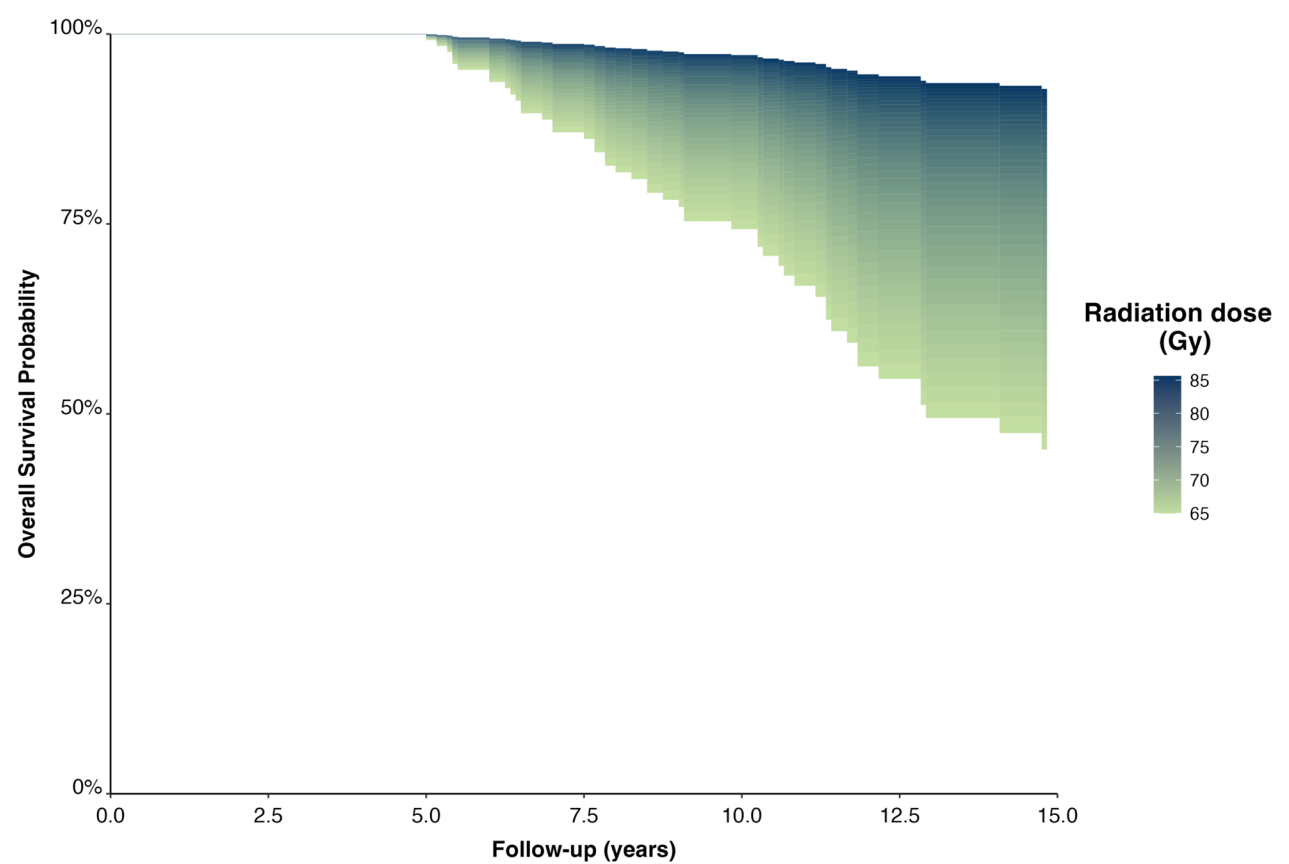
**Table 3** Univariate and multivariate Cox analysis for metastasis-free survival

Variables	N	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
		Pvalue	HR (95% CI)	P value	HR (95% CI)
<b>Patient age</b> Continuous	424	0.36	0.1.08 (0.98–1.05)	–	–
<b>Radiation dose (Gy)</b> Continuous	407	0.003	0.94 (0.91–0.98)	0.003	0.94 (0.90–0.98)
<b>ADT</b>	424				
No	18	–	–	–	–
STAD	56	0.49	0.74(0.32–1.71)		
LTAD	350	0.06	0.48 (0.23–1.02)		
<b>PSA ng/ml</b> Continuous	424	0.54	0.99 (0.99–1.0)	–	–
<b>Gleason/ISUP Grade</b>	419				
1–2	131	–	–	–	–
3	67	0.42	1.30 (0.68–2.50)	0.24	1.50 (0.77–2.88)
4–5	121	0.02	1.80 (1.10–2.93)	0.05	1.66 (1.01–2.73)
<b>T stage</b>	424				
T1-2	153	–	–	–	–
T3	271	0.76	1.07 (0.66–1.75)		

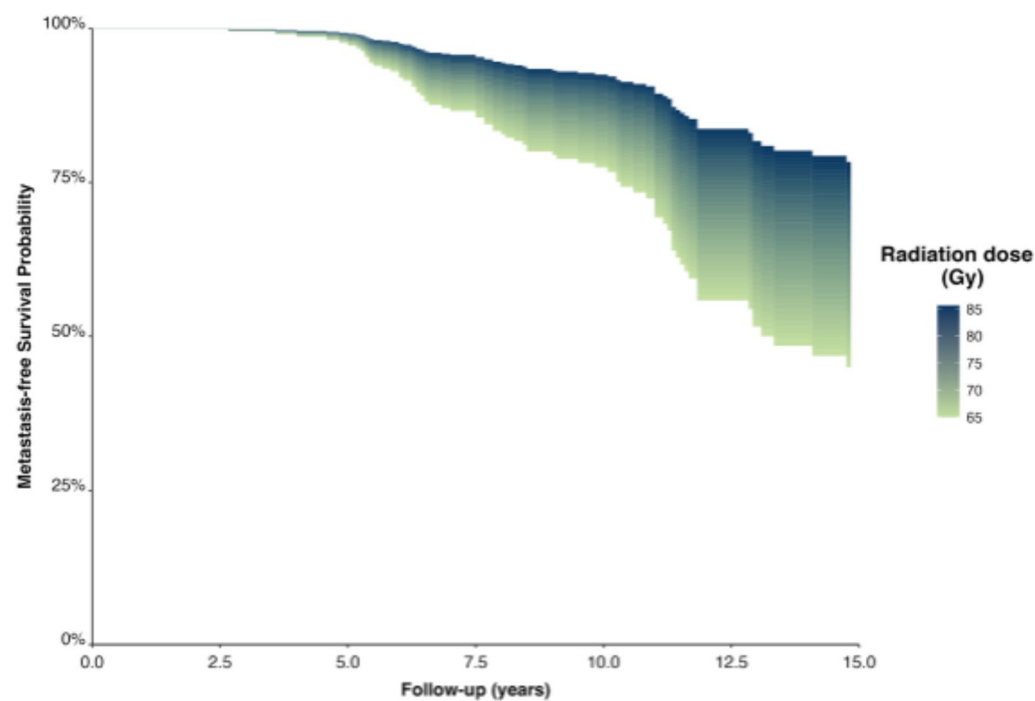
\*HR Hazard ratio; #CI Confidence interval; \*\*ADT Androgen deprivation therapy; cSTADT Short-term androgen deprivation therapy; eLTADT Long-term androgen deprivation therapy; \*\*ISUP International society of urological pathology

To our knowledge, the MDACC dose-escalation trial, with a recent update reporting a median follow-up of 14 years, and the GETUG 18 trial, presented at the 2024 ASCO meeting, are the only phase III studies that have demonstrated a significant improvement in OS and CSS

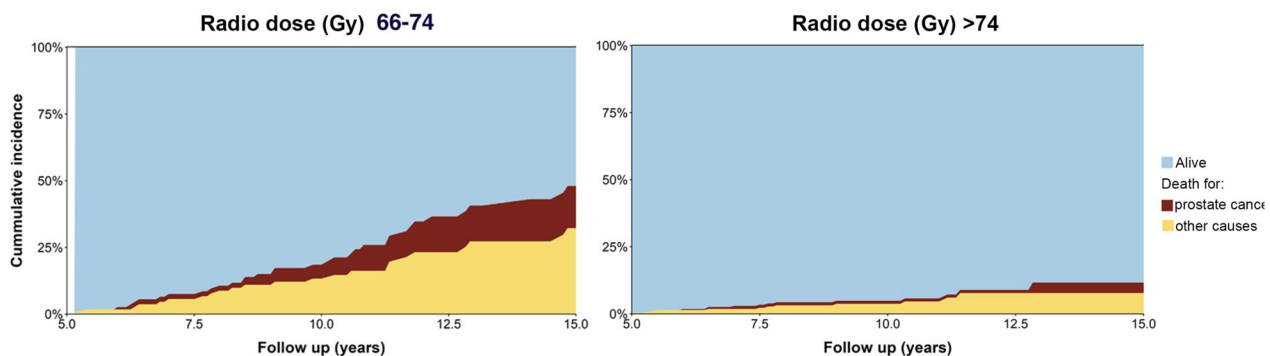
with dose escalation beyond 78 Gy. The aim of our retrospective study was to underscore the importance of high-dose EBRT, highlighting that each additional Gy (HR 0.89) contributes meaningfully to treatment outcomes in HRPc, irrespective of the use or duration of ADT.



**Fig. 3** Kaplan Meier curve for overall survival by radiation dose



**Fig. 4** Kaplan Meier curve for metastasis-free survival by radiation dose



**Fig. 5** Cause-specific mortality curves from the Fine and Gray models by radiation dose

Although we recognize that our data are not directly comparable, the clinical outcomes observed at 10 and 15 years in this study using EBRT alone for dose escalation, are consistent with other trials of dose intensification with EBRT, or combined therapy with a brachytherapy boost [5, 10–14]. The 10-year OS and CSS were 91% and 97%, respectively, despite only one-third of the patients received ENRT. While intuitive and rational, the impact of ENRT on the OS of HRPc patients remains controversial. Until recently, there has been no high-level and unequivocal evidence indicating a clinically significant benefit in relevant oncologic outcomes from ENRT [15, 16]. Recently, the POP-RT trial reported a significant improvement in biochemical disease-free survival and MFS at 5-years with the addition of whole pelvic RT in 224 PET PSMA-staged patients with very unfavourable factors, although without an impact on OS [17]. Hopefully, the NRG/RTOG 0924 randomized trial will shed definitive light on the selection of patients who will benefit from ENRT.

Further refinements to intensify RT dose without a relevant increase in toxicity include hypofractionation schemes, stereotactic techniques and biologically guided focal intensification. The oncological benefits of focal boosting of index lesions (ILs) was demonstrated in the phase 3 FLAME trial [18], and other studies have also reported excellent morphological and functional local control with highly selected focal radiation dose intensification [19].

Most of the evidence on ultra-hypofractionation (UHRT) is derived from studies in low- and intermediate-risk PCa, with limited data available for high-risk disease. Currently, the most extensive randomized evidence for UHRT in high-risk disease comes from the HYPO-RT-PC trial. This phase III non-inferiority clinical study that randomized 1,200 patients to receive either UHRT or conventional fractionated EBRT, including 126 high-risk patients, showed that UHRT was equally effective to conventionally fractionated radiotherapy

for intermediate-to-high risk prostate cancer [20]. An individual patient meta-analysis of 344 HRPc patients treated with stereotactic ablative body radiotherapy (SABR) has provided prospective evidence supporting favourable toxicity profile and promising efficacy of UHRT in HRPc [21]. Prospective studies on SABR in HRPc, with or without focal boost, have also reported encouraging preliminary results [22, 23]. Several controlled prospective studies are currently underway to validate these findings and to determine the optimal dose and biologically guided target volume in high-risk disease, particularly in combination with ENRT, ADT, and/or novel therapies [24, 25].

The incorporation of PSMA-PET imaging in staging, monitoring and biological targeting is reshaping the landscape of PCa [26, 27]. This shift is particularly significant in the high-risk and very HRPc setting, as advanced imaging is likely to result in a more selective—and potentially more favourable—high-risk cohort. Additionally, it will lead to increased detection of low-volume oligometastatic disease requiring adjustments in management that may involve reassessing the duration of ADT, evaluating the role of ENRT versus nodal SBRT, and determining the optimal timing for integrating novel androgen receptor pathway inhibitors (ARPIs) and MDT.

Furthermore, the long-established criteria for BF following prostate RT may need to be reconsidered. The earlier—and potentially more frequent—detection of oligorecurrent and low-volume metastatic disease at low PSA levels presents new treatment challenges, particularly in defining PSA failure [28]. However, the full clinical impact of this “prognostic shift” on OS, as well as the optimal integration of PSMA-PET imaging into treatment protocols and definitions, remains under investigation and requires further phase III clinical trials [29]. Given that a substantial proportion of high-risk patients treated with LTADT (with or without ARPIs) and high-dose RT achieve long-term survival, there remains a need for earlier surrogate endpoints for OS. Emerging

biological imaging techniques are expected to play a significant role in this context.

Treatment strategies should be individualized (intensification vs de-escalation) based on emerging predictive tools. Multimodal artificial intelligence (AI) models, including those based on histopathology or imaging, as well as genomic platforms, are expected to play a pivotal role in the future of personalized PCa management. Several ongoing trials evaluating the addition of second-generation antiandrogens and/or poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors in combination with radiotherapy (RT) and androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) for localized HRPc have incorporated these novel predictive tools into their study designs.

This study has several strengths, including a long-term follow-up, a low rate of missing data and a non-selective patient population treated outside of clinical trials. We analysed radiation dose as both a continuous and categorical variable, thereby enhancing the reliability of our 10-year outcome estimates. Furthermore, the use of CSS as an endpoint offers certain advantages over OS and contributes to the consistency of the results.

We acknowledge several key limitations, primarily related to the retrospective design of the study. First, the extended treatment period during which technological

advancements were progressively implemented. Second, substantial variability existed in the timing, indications, and reporting methods for re-staging with conventional imaging following biochemical failure, as well as in the frequent use of early salvage hormone therapy in this context.

In summary, the findings of the present study confirm that radiation dose intensification is paramount in the treatment of HRPc, irrespective of the duration of ADT. Dose escalation with EBRT, using IMRT/IGRT technologies, achieves excellent 10-year OS rates with low toxicity, consistent with outcomes observed in combined approaches incorporating EBRT and brachytherapy boost. The integration of novel advancements in SBRT delivery guided by predictive models is currently being evaluated in clinical trials with promising results. These innovations are expected to substantially improve treatment outcomes and, ultimately, enhance the quality of life for patients with HRPc.

## Appendix 1

See Tables 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10.

**Table 4** Univariate and multivariate Cox analysis for overall survival

Variables	N	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
		p value	HR (95% CI)	p value	HR (95% CI)
<b>Patient age</b>	424	0.010	1.07 (1–02–1.12)	0.059	1.05 (0.99–1.10)
continuous					
<b>Radiation dose (Gy)</b>	407	< 0.001	0.89 (0.85–0.93)	< 0.001	0.89 (0.84–0.94)
continuous					
≤ 74 Gy <sup>(1)</sup>	120				
> 74 Gy <sup>(2)</sup>	287	< 0.001	0.24 (0.13–0.43)	< 0.001	0.29 (0.15–0.55)
<b>ADT</b>	424				
No	18	–	–	–	–
STAD	56	0.22	0.58 (0.24–1.38)	0.37	0.67 (0.28–1.60)
LTAD	350	< 0.001	0.26 (0.12–0.58)	0.12	0.52 (0.23–1.19)
<b>Gleason/ISUP grade group</b>	419				
1–2	231	–	–	–	–
3	67	0.87	0.93 (0.38–2.26)		
4–5	121	0.22	1.47 (0.80–2.68)		
<b>T stage</b>	424				
T1	29	–	–		
T2	124	0.41	1.86 (0.43–8.07)		
T3	271	0.60	1.47 (0.35–6.14)		

\*HR Hazard ratio; #CI Confidence interval; cSTADT Short-term androgen deprivation therapy; eLTADT Long-term androgen deprivation therapy; \*\*ISUP International society of urological pathology. <sup>(1)(2)</sup> Median FU of 123 months (95% CI 95–154) and 115 months (95% CI 87–139) respectively

**Table 5** Univariate and multivariate Cox analysis for metastasis-free survival

Variables		Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
		P value	HR (95% CI)	P value	HR (95% CI)
<b>Patient age</b>	424	0.36	0.1.08 (0.98–1.05)	–	
Continuous					
<b>Radiation dose (Gy)</b>	407	0.003	0.94 (0.91–0.98)	0.003	0.94 (0.90–0.98)
Continuous					
≤ 74 Gy <sup>(1)</sup>	120				
> 74 Gy <sup>(2)</sup>	287	0.002	0.48 (0.30–0.75)	0.002	0.47 (0.30–0.76)
<b>ADT</b>	424				
No	18	–	–	–	
STAD	56	0.49	0.74 (0.32–1.71)		
LTAD	350	0.06	0.48 (0.23–1.02)		
<b>PSA ng/ml</b>	424	0.54	0.99 (0.99–1.0)	–	
Continuous					
<b>Gleason/ISUP Grade</b>	419				
1–2	131	–	–	–	–
3	67	0.42	1.30 (0.68–2.50)	0.24	1.50 (0.77–2.88)
4–5	121	0.02–	1.80 (1.10–2.93)	0.05	1.66 (1.01–2.73=)
<b>T stage</b>	424				
T1–2	153	–	–	–	
T3	271	0.76	1.07 (0.66–1.75)		

\*HR Hazard ratio; #CI Confidence interval; €STADT Short-term androgen deprivation therapy; €LTADT Long-term androgen deprivation therapy; \*\*ISUP International society of urological pathology. <sup>(1)</sup> <sup>(2)</sup> Median FU of 123 months (95% CI 95–154) and 115 months (95% CI 87–139) respectively

**Table 6** Univariate and multivariate Cox analysis for cause-specific survival

Variables	N	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
		p value	HR (95% CI)	p value	HR (95% CI)
<b>Patient age</b>	424	0.460	0.97 (0.89–1.06)	–	–
continuous					
<b>Radiation dose (Gy)</b>	415	0.002	0.88 (0.81–0.95)	< 0.001	0.89 (0.84–0.94)
continuous					
≤ 74 Gy <sup>(1)</sup>	120				
> 74 Gy <sup>(2)</sup>	287	0.01	0.26 (0.09–0.74)	< 0.024	0.25 (0.08–0.83)
<b>ADT (suppress hormone therapy)</b>					
No	18	–	–	–	–
STAD	56	0.59	1.78 (0.21–14.8)	–	–
LTAD	350	0.84	0.81 (0.11–6.2)	–	
<b>PSA ng/ml</b>	424	0.57	0.99 (0.34–7.22)		
continuous					
<b>Gleason/ISUP grade group</b>	419				
1–2	231	–	–		
3	67	0.66	1.43 (0.29–6.98)		
4–5	121	0.07	2.70 (0.91–7.95)		
<b>T stage</b>	424				
T1	29	–	–		
T2	124	< 0.001	11.11 (2.53–48.7)	< 0.001	10.34 (1.79–59.92)
T3	271	< 0.001	31.54 (15.3–66.1)	< 0.001	49.38 (11.5–212.2)

\*HR Hazard ratio; #CI Confidence interval; €STADT Short-term androgen deprivation therapy; €LTADT Long-term androgen deprivation therapy; \*\*ISUP International society of urological pathology. <sup>(1)</sup> <sup>(2)</sup> Median FU of 123 months (95% CI 95–154) and 115 months (95% CI 87–139) respectively

**Table 7** Univariate and multivariate Cox analysis for biochemical disease-free survival

Variables	N	Events 101	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
			p value	HR (95% CI)	p value	HR (95% CI)
<b>Patient age</b> continuous	424	101	0.60	0.99 (0.96–1.02)	–	–
<b>Radiation dose (Gy)</b> continuous	407	101	0.04	0.96 (0.93–0.99)	0.04	0.96 (0.93–0.99)
≤ 74 Gy <sup>(1)</sup>	120	47				
> 74 Gy <sup>(2)</sup>	287	52	0.04	0.65 (0.43–0.98)	0.05	0.66 (1.0–0.43)
Missing		2				
<b>ADT</b>	424					
No	18	8	–	–	–	–
STAD	56	16	0.22	0.58 (0.24–1.38)	0.37	0.67 (0.28–1.60)
LTAD	350	30	< 0.001	0.26 (0.12–0.58)	0.12	0.52 (0.23–1.19)
<b>PSA ng/ml</b> continuous	424	101	0.81	0.99 (0.99–1.00)	–	–
<b>Gleason/ISUP grade group</b>	419					
1–2	231	48	–	–	–	–
3	67	17	0.096	0.93 (0.91–2.81)	0.04	1.8 (1.03–3.21)
4–5	121	34	0.006	1.86 (1.19–2.91)	0.025	2.16 (1.36–3.44)
<b>T stage</b>	424					
T1	29	5	–	–	–	–
T2	124	24	0.82	1.12 (0.45–2.94)		
T3	271	72	0.59	1.29 (0.52–3.10)		

\*HR Hazard ratio; #CI Confidence interval; €STADT Short-term androgen deprivation therapy; €LTADT Long-term androgen deprivation therapy; \*\*ISUP International society of urological pathology. <sup>(1)</sup> <sup>(2)</sup> Median FU of 123 months (95% CI 95–154) and 115 months (95% CI 87–139) respectively

**Table 8** Impact of biochemical failure on overall survival

Characteristic	N	Death event	HR	95% CI	p-value
Biochemical Failure (nadir + 2 ng/ml)					
No	323	23	—	—	
Yes	101	29	2.42	1.37–4.29	0.002

HR Hazard Ratio, CI Confidence Interval

**Table 9** Impact of biochemical failure on metastasis-free survival

Characteristic	N	MTS event	HR	95% CI	p-value
Biochemical Failure (nadir + 2 ng/ml)					
No	323	24	—	—	
Yes	101	30	0.33	0.01–0.11	< 0.001

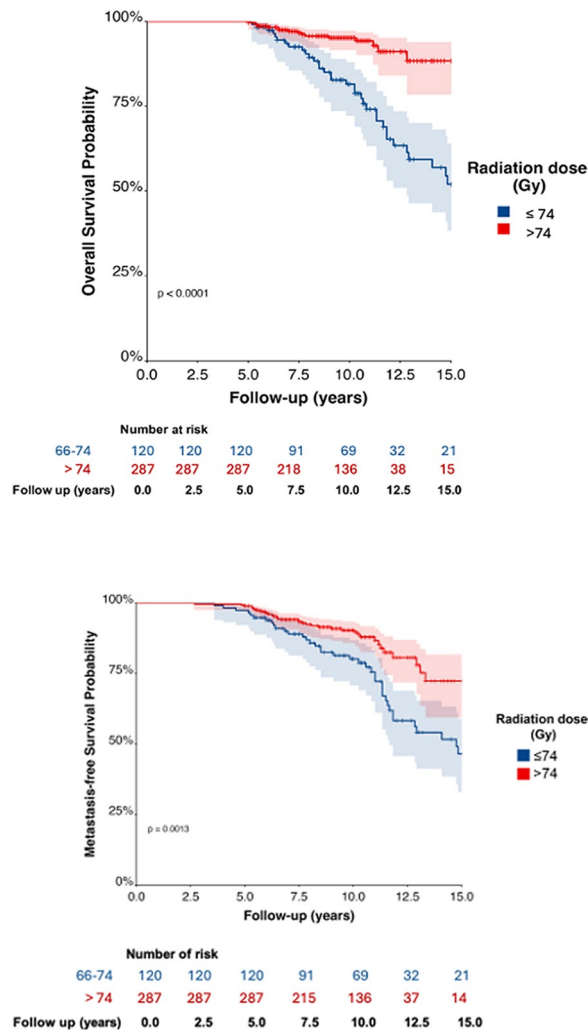
HR Hazard Ratio, CI Confidence Interval

**Table 10** Subgroups according to number of risk factors

Number and type of risk factors	
ISUP4-5	51 (12%)
ISUP4-5 & PSA > 20	14 (3.3%)
PSA > 20	85 (20%)
T3	138 (33%)
T3 & ISUP4-5	12 (2.9%)
T3 & ISUP4-5 & PSA > 20	26 (6.2%)
T3 & PSA > 20	92 (22%)

# Appendix 2

Figures.



## Author contributions

A. Z: Conceptualization, methodology, validation, investigation, data curation, Write the main manuscript text—Review & Editing of manuscript, supervision M. R: Methodology, investigation, data curation, Review & Editing of manuscript C. M.V: Investigation, methodology Review & Editing of manuscript P. C.: Methodology, investigation, data curation, Review & Editing of manuscript N. M.: Methodology, formal statistical analysis, preparation of figures, data curation, validation, review & Editing of manuscript A MD. Cruz Conde MD: Investigation, methodology, Review & Editing of manuscript Laura Fernández-Banda MD: Investigation, methodology, Review & Editing of manuscript Laura Zaragoza MD: Investigation, methodology, Review & Editing of manuscript Sara Carroceda MD: Investigation, methodology, Review & Editing F. García Vicente PhD: Methodology, validation, investigation, data curation, Writing—Review & Editing, supervision.

## Funding

None.

## Availability of data and materials

Research data are stored in an institutional repository and will be shared upon request to the corresponding author.

## Declarations

### Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable. This is retrospective analysis of a prospective cohort, not a clinical trial. But, all patients signed an ICF prior to radiation therapy as clinical practice in all cases.

### Consent for publication

Not applicable. The clinical research of the present manuscripts comply with international and national standards for such work (such as the Declaration of Helsinki)

### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

### Author details

<sup>1</sup>Radiation Oncology Department, Hospital Universitario de La Princesa, Health Research Institute IIS-IP, Diego de León 62, 28006 Madrid, Spain. <sup>2</sup>Medical Physics, University Hospital La Princesa, Health Research Institute, Madrid, Spain. <sup>3</sup>Methodology and Research Unit, University Hospital La Princesa, Health Research Institute, Madrid, Spain. <sup>4</sup>Radiation Oncology, Physiology, Pharmaceutical and Health Sciences Department, Faculty of Pharmacy, Universidad San Pablo-CEU, CEU-Universities, Madrid, Spain. <sup>5</sup>Medical Physics, University Hospital Ramon y Cajal, Madrid, Spain.

Received: 16 April 2025 Accepted: 13 May 2025

Published online: 15 June 2025

## References

1. Cornford P, van den Bergh RCN, Briers E, Van den Broeck T, Brundhorst O, Darragh J, et al. EAU-EANM-ESTRO-ESUR-ISUP-SIOG Guidelines on Prostate Cancer-2024 Update. Part I: screening, diagnosis, and local treatment with curative intent. *Eur Urol*. 2024;86(2):148–63. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2024.03.027>.
2. Heemsbergen WD, Al-Mamgani A, Slot A, Dierlwaert MF, Lebesque JV. Long-term results of the Dutch randomized prostate cancer trial: impact of dose-escalation on local, biochemical, clinical failure, and survival. *Radiother Oncol*. 2014;110:104–9.
3. Beckendorf V, Guerif S, Le Prisé E, et al. 70 Gy versus 80 Gy in localized prostate cancer: 5-year results of GETUG 06 randomized trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2011;80(4):1056–63.
4. Dearnaley DP, Jovic G, Syndikus I, et al. Escalated-dose versus control-dose conformal radiotherapy for prostate cancer: long-term results from the MRC RT01 randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Oncol*. 2014;15(4):464–73.
5. Morris WJ, Tyldesley S, Rodda S, et al. Androgen suppression combined with elective nodal and dose escalated radiotherapy (the ASCENDE-RT trial): an analysis of survival endpoints for a randomized trial comparing a low-dose-rate brachytherapy boost to a dose-escalated external beam boost for high- and intermediate-risk prostate cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2017;98:275–85.
6. Pasalic D, Kuban DA, Allen PK, et al. Dose escalation for prostate adenocarcinoma: a long-term update on the outcomes of a phase 3, single institution randomized clinical trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2019;104:790–7.
7. Hennequin C, Sargos P, Roca L, et al. Long-term results of dose escalation (80 vs 70 Gy) combined with long-term androgen deprivation in high-risk prostate cancers: GETUG-AFU 18 randomized trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2024;42(4):LBA259–LBA259. [https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2024.42.4\\_suppl.LBA259](https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2024.42.4_suppl.LBA259).
8. Zapatero A, Roch M, Büchser D, et al. Reduced late urinary toxicity with high-dose intensity-modulated radiotherapy using intra-prostate fiducial markers for localized prostate cancer. *Clin Transl Oncol*.

- 2017;19(9):1161–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12094-017-1655-9>. (Epub 2017 Apr 3 PMID: 28374321).
9. Gray B (2024). `_cmprsk`: Subdistribution Analysis of Competing Risks. R package version 2.2–12, <<https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=cmprsk>>.
10. Zapatero A, Guerrero A, Maldonado X, et al. High-dose radiotherapy and risk-adapted androgen deprivation in localised prostate cancer (DART 01/05): 10-year results of a phase 3 randomised, controlled trial. *Lancet Oncol*. 2022;23(5):671–81. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045\(22\)00190-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045(22)00190-5). (Epub 2022 Apr 12 PMID: 35427469).
11. Zapatero A, Valcarcel F, Calvo FA, et al. Risk-adapted androgen deprivation and escalated three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy for prostate cancer: does radiation dose influence outcome of patients treated with adjuvant androgen deprivation? A GICOR study. *J Clin Oncol*. 2005;23:6561–8.
12. Joseph D, Denham JW, Steigler A, et al. Radiation dose escalation or longer androgen suppression to prevent distant progression in men with locally advanced prostate cancer: 10-Year data from the TROG 0304 RADAR trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2020;106(4):693–702. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijrobp.2019.11.415>. (PMID: 32092343).
13. Gomez-Iturriga A, Zaragoza L, Valverde I, et al. Prospective study of HDR brachytherapy (BT), external beam radiotherapy (EBRT) and androgen deprivation therapy (ADT): 10-years experience of an MRI-guided approach. *Radiother Oncol*. 2024;190: 110024. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radonc.2023.110024>. (Epub 2023 Nov 22 PMID: 37995851).
14. Wedde TB, Småstuen MC, Brabrand S, et al. Ten-year survival after high-dose-rate brachytherapy combined with external beam radiation therapy in high-risk prostate cancer: a comparison with the Norwegian SPCG-7 cohort. *Radiother Oncol*. 2019;132:211–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radonc.2018.10.013>. (Epub 2018 Oct 30 PMID: 30389241).
15. Roach M, Moughan J, Lawton CAF, et al. Sequence of hormonal therapy and radiotherapy field size in unfavourable, localized prostate cancer (NRG/RTOG 9413): long-term results of a randomised, phase 3 trial [published correction appears in *Lancet Oncol* 2018;19:e581]. *Lancet Oncol*. 2018;19:1504–15.
16. Pommier P, Chabaud S, Lagrange JL, et al. Is there a role for pelvic irradiation in localized prostate adenocarcinoma? Update of the long-term survival results of the GETUG-01 randomized study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2016;96:759–69.
17. Murthy V, Maitre P, Kannan S, et al. Prostate-only versus whole-pelvic radiation therapy in high-risk and very high-risk prostate cancer (POP-RT): outcomes from phase III randomized controlled trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2021;39:1234–42.
18. Kerkmeijer LGW, Groen VH, Pos FJ, et al. Focal boost to the intraprostatic tumor in external beam radiotherapy for patients with localized prostate cancer: results from the FLAME randomized phase III trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2021;39(7):787–96. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.20.02873>. (Epub 2021 Jan 20 PMID: 33471548).
19. Poon DMC, Yuan J, Yang B, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging-guided focal boost to intraprostatic lesions using external beam radiotherapy for localized prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Oncol*. 2023;6(2):116–27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.euo.2022.10.001>.
20. Widmark A, Gunnlaugsson A, Beckman L, et al. Ultra-hypofractionated versus conventionally fractionated radiotherapy for prostate cancer: 5-year outcomes of the HYPO-RT-PC randomised, non-inferiority, phase 3 trial. *Lancet*. 2019;394(10196):385–95. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(19\)31131-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(19)31131-6). (Epub 2019 Jun 18 PMID: 31227373).
21. van Dams R, Jiang NY, Fuller DB, et al. Stereotactic body radiotherapy for high-risk localized carcinoma of the prostate (SHARP) consortium: analysis of 344 prospectively treated patients. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2024;110(3):731–7.
22. Yasar B, Suh YE, Chapman E, et al. Simultaneous focal boost with stereotactic radiation therapy for localized intermediate- to high-risk prostate cancer: primary outcomes of the SPARC Phase 2 trial. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2024;120(1):49–58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijrobp.2024.03.009>. (Epub 2024 Mar 16 PMID: 38499253).
23. Draulans C, Haustermans K, Pos FJ, et al. Stereotactic body radiotherapy with a focal boost to the intraprostatic tumor for intermediate and high risk prostate cancer: 5-year efficacy and toxicity in the hypo-FLAME trial. *Radiother Oncol*. 2024;201: 110568. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radonc.2024.110568>. (Epub 2024 Oct 2 PMID: 39362607).
24. Murthy V, Mallick I, Maitre P, et al. Pelvic regional control with 25 Gy in 5 fractions in stereotactic radiation therapy for high-risk prostate cancer: pooled prospective outcomes from the SHARP consortium. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*. 2025;12:93–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijrobp.2024.12.018>. (Epub ahead of print. PMID: 39755216).
25. Liu W, Loblaw A, Laidley D, et al. Imaging biomarkers in prostate stereotactic body radiotherapy: a review and clinical trial protocol. *Front Oncol*. 2022;13(12): 863848. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2022.863848>. (PMID: 35494042; PMCID: PMC9043802).
26. Karpinski MJ, Hüsing J, Claassen K, et al. Combining PSMA-PET and PROMISE to re-define disease stage and risk in patients with prostate cancer: a multicentre retrospective study. *Lancet Oncol*. 2024;25(12):e626. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045\(24\)00635-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045(24)00635-1). (PMID: 39089299).
27. Stranne J, Henry A, Oprea-Lager DE. EAU-EANM-ESTRO-ESUR-ISUP-SIOG Prostate Cancer Guidelines Panel. Use of prostate-specific membrane antigen positron emission tomography/computed tomography for nodal staging in prostate cancer and tailoring of treatment: a continuing conundrum. *Eur Urol*. 2025;87(2):108–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2024.11.025>. (Epub 2024 Dec 18. PMID: 39701872).
28. van Altena EJE, Jansen BHE, Korbbe ML, et al. Prostate-specific membrane antigen positron emission tomography before reaching the phoenix criteria for biochemical recurrence of prostate cancer after radiotherapy: earlier detection of recurrences. *Eur Urol Oncol*. 2025;8(2):417–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.euo.2024.09.015>. (Epub ahead of print. PMID: 39414419).
29. Kendrick J, Francis RJ, Hassan GM, et al. Prognostic utility of RECIP 1.0 with manual and AI-based segmentations in biochemically recurrent prostate cancer from [68Ga]Ga-PSMA-11 PET images. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging*. 2023;50(13):4077–86.

## Publisher's Note

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