

**A Four-Group Uplink Risk Classifier for Predicting Outcome in Prostate Cancer Patients**

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## Abstract

### Objectives:

To develop a risk classifier using urine-derived extracellular vesicle RNA (UEV-RNA) capable of providing diagnostic information of disease status prior to biopsy, and prognostic information for men on active surveillance (AS).

### Patients and Methods:

Post-digital rectal examination UEV-RNA expression profiles from urine ( $n = 518$ , multiple samples) were interrogated with a nested NaiveBayes model. A LASSO-based Classification-Rate model was built to generate four Prostate-Urino-Risk (PUR) signatures for predicting the probability of normal tissue (PUR-1), Urine Low-risk (PUR-2), Intermediate-risk (PUR-3), and High-risk (PUR-4) PCa. This model was applied to a test cohort ( $n = 177$ ) for diagnostic evaluation, and to an AS sub-cohort ( $n = 87$ ) for prognostic evaluation.

### Results:

Each PUR signature was significantly associated with its corresponding clinical category ( $p < 0.001$ ). PUR-4 status predicted the presence of clinically significant Intermediate or High-risk disease; AUC = 0.77 (95% CI: 0.70-0.84). Application of PUR provided a net benefit over current clinical practice. In an AS sub-cohort ( $n = 87$ ), groups defined by PUR status and progression of PUR-4 had a significant association with time to progression ( $p < 0.001$ ); HR: HR = 2.36, 95% CI: 1.85-4.47. PUR-4, when utilized continuously, discriminated patient groups with differential progression rates of 10% and 40% five years post-urine collection ( $p < 0.001$ , HR = 8.23, 95% CI: 3.26-20.81).

### Conclusion:

UEV-RNA can provide diagnostic information of aggressive PCa prior to biopsy, and prognostic information for men on AS. PUR represents a new & versatile biomarker that could result in substantial alterations to current treatment of PCa patients.

### Keywords:

## Introduction

The progression of prostate cancer is highly heterogeneous(1), and risk assessment at the time of diagnosis is a critical step in the management of the disease. Based on the information obtained prior to treatment, key decisions are made about the likelihood of disease progression and the best course of treatment for localized disease. D'Amico stratification(2), which classifies patients as Low-, Intermediate-, or High-risk of PSA failure post radical therapy, is based on Gleason score (GS),

PSA and clinical stage, and has been used as a framework for guidelines issued in the UK, Europe and USA(3-5). Low- and some intermediate-risk patients are generally offered active surveillance(6,7)(8) while intermediate-, and high-risk patients are considered for radical therapy(7). Other classification systems, such as CAPRA score(9), use additional clinical information, assigning simple numeric values based on age, pre-treatment PSA, Gleason score, percentage of biopsy cores positive for cancer and clinical stage for an overall 0-10 CAPRA score. The CAPRA score has shown favourable prediction of PSA-free survival, development of metastasis and prostate cancer-specific survival(9).

Prostate cancer is often multifocal(10), with disease state often underestimated by TRUS biopsy alone(11) and overestimated by multiparametric-MRI (mp-MRI), most often in the case of Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System (PI-RADS) 3 lesions(12). Sampling biases associated with needle biopsy of the prostate have prompted the development of non-invasive urine tests for aggressive disease, which examine prostate-derived material, harvested within urine(13-15). Recent successes in this field are illustrated by three studies carried out on whole urine for predicting the presence of GS  $\geq 7$  on initial biopsy: Tomlins *et al.* (2006), and McKinnon *et al.* (2016) used PCA3 and TMPRSS2:ERG messenger expression levels, while Van Nieuw *et al.* (2011) used HBM19 and PLE1 in combination with traditional clinical markers(14,16,17). The objectives of the current study were to develop a urine classifier that can predict D'Amico & CAPRA risk group, and additionally test its utility as a predictor of disease progression, mitigating the requirement for diagnostic

intervention, within an AS cohort with five years of clinical follow-up. As a starting point we used 167 gene probes, many previously associated with prostate cancer progression, leading to the development of a 36 gene classifier. *Journal of Prostate Disease* (2016)

**Methods:**

**Patient samples and clinical criteria:**

The Movember cohort comprised of first-catch post-digital rectal examination (DRE) urine samples collected at diagnosis between 2009 and 2015 from urology clinics at the Norfolk and Norwich University Hospital (NNUH, Norwich, UK), Royal Marsden Hospital (RMH) London, UK, St James's Hospital (Dublin, Republic of Ireland) and from primary care and urology clinics of Emory Healthcare (Atlanta, USA). Within the Movember cohort, 17 patients were enrolled on an AS programme at the RMH(7). AS eligibility criteria for this programme included histologically proven prostate cancer, age 50-80, clinical stage T1-T2, PSA < 15 ng/mL, Gleason score < 3+4 (Gleason score < 4), and < 50% percent positive biopsy cores. Progression was defined as the detection of disease by clinical criteria that typically trigger the requirement for therapeutic intervention. Clinical criteria for progression were either: PSA velocity >1 ng/mL per year or adverse histology on repeat biopsy, defined as primary Gleason score > 4 or > 50% biopsy cores positive for cancer. MP-MRI criteria for progression were either: detection of > 1 cm<sup>3</sup> prostate tumour, an increase in volume >100% for lesions between 0.5-1 cm<sup>3</sup>, or T3-4 disease(7). D'Amico classification used Gleason and PSA criteria as per D'Amico *et al.* (1998)(2). CAPRA classification used the criteria as described by Cooperberg *et al.* (2009)(8). Sample collection and processing was ethically approved in their country of origin. NNUH samples by the East of England REC, Dublin samples by St James's Hospital, 01 (RMH) by the local ethics committee, 01 Emory Healthcare samples by the Institutional Review Board of Emory University. Trans-rectal ultrasound (TRUS) guided biopsy was used to provide biopsy information. Where multiple biopsies were taken the results from the closest biopsy to initial urine sample collection were used. Men were defined to have no evidence of cancer (NEC) with a PSA normal for their age or lower(10) and as such, were not

subjected to lysis. Metastatic disease was defined by a PSA > 100 ng/mL and were excluded from analyses.

#### Sample processing

For the full transcriptome protocol see Supplementary Methods. Briefly, urine was centrifuged (2500 g, 10 min, 4°C) within 30 min of collection to pellet cellular material. Supernatant extracellular vesicles (EVs) were then harvested by ultracentrifugation as described in Mishra et al. (2012)(7). Total RNA extracted (Qiagen spin kit, #50404, Qiagen). RNA was amplified as cDNA with an Oranix PicoLW WTA system V2 (Nugen #1312-01). 5-20 ng of total RNA was amplified where possible, down to 1 ng input in 10 samples. cDNA yields were mean 3.83 µg (5-6 µg).

#### Expression analysis

NanoString expression analysis (157 probes, 164 genes, Supplementary Data) of 100 ng cDNA was performed at the Human Dendritic Cell Laboratory, Newcastle University, UK. 137 probes were selected based on previously proposed controls plus prostate cancer diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers within tissue and control probes (Supplementary Data). 30 additional probes were selected as overexpressed in prostate cancer samples when next generation sequencing data generated from 20 urine derived EV RNA (SEV-RNA) samples were analysed (unpublished). Target gene sequences were provided to NanoString, who designed the probes according to their protocols(8). Data were adjusted relative to internal positive control probes as stated in NanoString's protocols. The ComBat algorithm was used to adjust for inter-batch and inter-cohort bias(11). Data were adjusted by means of a correction factor (CF) for input amount by normalisation to two constant and highly expressed housekeeping gene probes, GAPDH and RPLP0. The CF for a given sample  $i$  was calculated as the total mean of GAPDH and RPLP0 expression, divided by the sample-specific mean of GAPDH and RPLP0.

$$CF_i = \frac{\sum_{j \in \{GAPDH, RPLP0\}} R_{i,j}}{\sum_{j \in \{GAPDH, RPLP0\}} R_{j,i}}$$

All data were expressed relative to  $KEK2$  as follows: samples with low  $KEK2$  (counts < 500) were removed, and data log<sub>2</sub> transformed. Data were further normalised by adjusting the median of each

probe across all samples to 1, with the interquartile range adjusted to that of KLK2. More formally, for each sample  $i$  and probe-probe  $j$ , the KLK2 normalized value,  $f_{ij}$ , was calculated as:

$$f_{ij} = \left( \frac{f_{ij} - \text{median}(f_{ij})}{\text{IQR}(f_{ij})} \right) \times \text{IQR}(KLK2) + \text{Median}(KLK2)$$

No correlation was seen with respect to patient's stage, cohort size, sites of origin or sample volume ( $p > 0.05$ ; Chi-square and Spearman's Rank tests, data not shown).

#### Model production and statistical analysis

All statistical analyses and model construction were undertaken in R, version 3.4.5(22), and unless otherwise stated method based R and default parameters.

The Poisson Linear Model (PLM) equations were constructed from the training dataset as follows: for each probe, a univariate count-data link model was fitted using the R package `glm` with risk group as the outcome and NanoString expression as input. Each probe that had a significant association with risk group ( $p < 0.05$ ) was used as input to the final multivariate model. A constrained continuation ratio model with an L<sub>1</sub> penalization was fitted to the training dataset using the `glmnet` library(23), an adaptation of the LASSO method(24). Default parameters were applied using the LASSO penalty and values from all probes selected by the univariate analysis used as input. The final multivariable model was selected according to the minimum Akaike information criterion and incorporated all probes not removed by the LASSO penalty. Ordinal logistic regression was undertaken using the `ordinal` library(25).

Bootstrap resampling of ROC analysis used the `rROC` library(26) for calculation, statistical tests and production of figures, with 2,000 resamples used. Random predictors were generated by randomly sampling from a uniform distribution between 0 and 1.

Survival analysis was undertaken where follow-up of AS patients allowed and total progression as an endpoint, as described above. Cox proportional hazards models without risk signatures as a continuous variable, Kaplan-Meier (KM) estimators were calculated based on the median optimal threshold to minimize the Log-rank test  $p$ -value from 10,000 resamples of the cohort with replacement to ensure robustness. The costs of missing significant cancer are far higher than an

All statistical analyses and model construction were

unnecessary biopsy or investigation. With this considered, when multiple samples were analysed from the same AS patient, the sample with the highest PCR-4 signature was used in survival analyses and KM estimates. No multiple samples from AS patients appeared simultaneously in both training and test datasets, minimising the potential for overfitting and bias of the model.

Decision curve analysis (DCA)(27) examined the potential net benefit of using PCR-signatures in the clinic. Standardised net benefit was calculated with the rmds library(28) and presented throughout our decision curve analysis, as it is more interpretable when compared to net benefit(29). In order to ensure DCA was representative of a more general population, the prevalence of Gleason grades within the Movember cohort were adjusted via bootstrap resampling to match that observed in a population of 219,649 men that were in the control arm of the Capecitabine Randomised Trial of PSA Testing for Prostate Cancer (CAP7 Trial)(30). For the hospital sites within this CAP7 cohort, 21,406 were Gleason 6, 8,7%, Gleason 7 and 7.1%, Gleason 8 or greater, with 80.6% of biopsies being PCR-negative. This was used to perform stratified random sampling with replacement of the Movember cohort to produce a "new" dataset of 500 samples. Standardised net benefit was calculated on the resampled dataset, and the process repeated for a total of 1,000 resamples. The mean standardised net benefit for PCR-4 and the "test-all" options over all iterations were used to produce the present figures to account for variance in sampling.

#### Results:

##### The Cohort Cohort

The Movember cohort comprised of 538 post-DRE urine samples collected from four centres (NNUH, n = 312; RMIT, n = 87; Atlanta, n = 85; Dublin, n = 17). Multiple, longitudinal samples within the Movember cohort were provided by 20 of the 87 men enrolled in an AS program at the RMIT. The median time between collection of multiple samples was 185 days (IQR: 122-252 days) and were treated independently from one another. Samples originated from men categorised as having either No Evidence of Cancer (NEC, n = 92) or localised prostate cancer at time of urine collection, as detected by TRUS biopsy (n = 443), that were further subdivided into three risk categories using D'Amico criteria: Low (L, n = 134; Intermediate (I), n = 208; and High-risk (H), n = 101. Patients

with metastatic cancer at collection was excluded from analysis. Further characteristics of the Mesothelioma cohort are available in Table 1.

#### Selection of EV fractions and RNA yields

Prostate markers KLK22 and B2M were up to 20-fold higher in the EV fraction when compared to sediment (Figure B1 PCR, paired samples, Welch's test  $p < 0.001$ , data not shown). Based on these analyses and previously published results by Pellegrini *et al.* (32), EVs were selected for further study. Median EV-RNA yields for the NSH cohort were similar for NEC (204 ng), Low- (180 ng) and Intermediate-risk (221 ng) patients, and lower in High-risk (109 ng) (Supplementary Figure 1). Yields from three patients post-radical prostatectomy were 0.82 ng, suggesting that most EV-RNA originates from the prostate.

#### Development of the Prostate Urine Risk Signature

Samples in D'Amico categories Low, Intermediate and High-risk, together with NEC samples were divided into the Mesothelioma Training dataset (two-thirds of samples;  $n = 358$ ) and the Mesothelioma Test dataset (one-third of samples;  $n = 177$ ) by random assignment, stratified by risk category (Table 1).

The optimal model, as defined by the LASSO criteria in a cross-validated regularization ratio model, (see methods for full details) incorporated information from 36 probes (Table 2, for model coefficients see Supplementary Table 1) and was applied to both training and test datasets (Figure 1A, B). For each sample the 4 signature PCR-panels defined the probability of containing NEC (PCR-1), L (PCR-2), I (PCR-3) and H (PCR-4) material within samples (Figure 1A, B). The sum of all four PCR-signatures in any individual sample was 1 (PCR1 + PCR2 + PCR3 + PCR4 = 1). The strongest PCR-signature for a sample was termed the primary (1<sup>o</sup>) signature while the second highest was called the secondary (2<sup>o</sup>) signature (Figure 1C, D).

#### Pre-Surgery Prediction of D'Amico risk, CAPRA score and Gleason:

Primary PCR-signatures (PCR-1 to 4) were found to significantly associate with clinical category (NEC, L, I, H respectively) in both training and test sets ( $p < 0.001$ , Wald test for ordinal logistic regression in both Training and Test datasets, Figure 2A, B). A similar association was observed with

CAPRA score ( $p < 0.001$ , Wald test for ordered logistic regression in both Training and Test datasets, Supplementary Figure 2).

Based on recommended guidelines<sup>45</sup>, the distinction between D' (intermediate) and intermediate-risk is considered critical because radical therapy is commonly recommended for patients with high and intermediate-risk cancer. We therefore initially tested the ability of the PCR model to predict the presence of H or I disease from L or NEC upon initial biopsy. Each of the four PCR signatures alone were able to predict the presence of significant disease (Risk category 2; Intermediate), Area Under the Curve (AUC); 0.68 for each PCR signature, Test dataset, Supplementary Figure 3), and were significantly better than a random predictor ( $p < 0.001$ , bootstrap test, 2,000 resamples). However, PCR-1 and PCR-4 were best at discerning significant disease and were equally effective; AUCs for both PCR-4 and PCR-1 in the Training and Test cohorts were respectively 0.81 (95% CI 0.77-0.85) and 0.77 (95% CI 0.70-0.84), (Figure 2C, & D).

When Gleason score alone was considered we found that PCR-4 predicted G<sub>6</sub> ≥ 3+4 with AUCs of 0.78 (95% CI 0.73-0.82) (Training) and 0.76 (95% CI 0.69-0.83) (Test) and G<sub>6</sub> ≥ 4+3 with AUCs of 0.76 (95% CI 0.70-0.81) (Training) and 0.72 (95% CI 0.63-0.81) (Test) (Figure 3). The ability to predict G<sub>6</sub> ≥ 3+4 was particularly robust because this was previously chosen as an endpoint for aggressive disease in other active surveillance studies, where AUCs of 0.71, 0.78 and 0.74 were reported by McKerran *et al.*, 2016; Tomlins *et al.*, 2010 and Van Neste *et al.*, 2016, respectively.

Decision curve analysis (DCA)<sup>47</sup> examined the potential net benefit of using PCR signatures in a non-PSA screened population. Biopsy of men based upon their PCR-4 score provided a net benefit over biopsy of men based on current clinical practice across all thresholds (Figure 4). When DCA was also undertaken within the context of a PSA-screened population, PCR continued to provide a net benefit (Supplementary Figure 4).

#### Active surveillance cohort:

Within the Mercurio cohort 87 men enrolled in AS at the Royal Marsden Hospital, UK. The median follow-up time from initial urine sample collection was 5.7 years (range 5.1 – 7.0 years) (Supplementary Table 2). The median time from initial urine sample collection to progression or death

follow up was 503 days (range 0.1 – 7.6 years). The PCR profiles from these men were used to investigate the prognostic utility of PCR beyond categorizing D'Amico Risk. The PCR profiles were significantly different between the 22 men who progressed within five years of urine sample collection, and the 49 men who did not progress ( $p < 0.001$ , Wilcoxon rank-sum test; Figure 5A). Twenty-two men progressed by the criteria detailed above, with an additional nine men progressing based solely on MP-MRI criteria. Further AS cohort characteristics are available in Supplementary Table 2.

Calculation of Kaplan-Meier estimates with samples divided on the basis of 1', 2' and 3' PCR-4 and PCR-4 signatures showed significant differences in clinical outcome ( $p < 0.001$ , log-rank test; Figure 5B) and was robust (log-rank test  $p < 0.05$  in 93.6% of 100,000 cohort resamples with replacement, see Methods for full details). Proportion of PCR-4, a continuous variable, had a significant association with clinical outcome ( $p < 0.001$ ; QR: HR : 5.97, 95% CI: 1.68 – 20.46). Cox Proportional hazards model). A robust optimal threshold of PCR-4 was determined to dichotomize AS patients (PCR-4 < 0.175). The two groups had a large difference in time to progression: 49% progression within 5 years of urine sample collection in the poor prognosis group compared to 10% in the good prognosis group ( $p < 0.001$ , log-rank test; Figure 5C, HR : 5.25, 95% CI: 3.26 – 20.61). This result is robust ( $p < 0.05$  in 93.6% of 100,000 cohort resamples with replacement, see Methods for full details).

When MP-MRI criteria for progression was also included, both primary PCR-status and dichotomized PCR threshold remained a significant predictor of progression ( $p < 0.001$  log-rank test; Supplementary Figure 5). When the AS cohort were split by D'Amico risk category at initial urine collection PCR-4 remained a significant predictor of progression in men with Low-risk disease, but not for men with Intermediate-risk disease ( $p < 0.001$  log-rank test; Supplementary Figure 6). Multiple urine specimens had been collected for 20 of the men entered into the AS trial, allowing us to assess the stability of urine profiles over time (Supplementary Figure 7). In patients that had not progressed, samples were found to be stable compared to a null model generated by randomly

selected samples from the whole Metastatic Cohort ( $p < 0.01$ , bootstrap analysis with 100,000 iterations). Samples from sites deemed to have progressed failed this stability test ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Discussion:**

The variation in clinical outcomes for prostate cancer, even within risk stratified groups such as D'Amico, is well established. Many attempts have been made to address this problem including the subcategorization of intermediate risk disease into favorable and unfavorable groups(12) and the development of the CAPRA classification systems(8). Other approaches include the development of an unsupervised classification framework(13) and of biomarkers of aggressive disease, as illustrated by Cuzick et al. (2012), Kozlowski et al. (2013) and Robson et al. (2013)(14,16,17). In each of the examples given above, analysis are performed on cancerous tissues, usually taken at the time of diagnosis via needle biopsy.

Urine biomarkers offer the prospect of a more holistic assessment of cancer status prior to invasive tissue biopsy and may also be used to supplement standard clinical stratification. Previous urine biomarker models have been designed specifically for single purposes such as the detection of prostate cancer on no biopsy (PCA3 test), or to detect G<sub>2-3</sub>+4(13,14,17,18). Here we have constructed the four PCR signatures to provide a non-invasive and simultaneous assessment of non-cancerous tissue and D'Amico Low-, Intermediate- and High-risk prostate cancer in individual patients. The use of individual signatures for the three D'Amico risk types is simpler and could significantly aid the decolonization of complex, cancerous state into more readily identifiable items for monitoring the development of high-risk disease, for example AS test.

For the detection of significant prostate cancer, PCR compares favorably to other published biomarkers which have used complex transcript expression systems involving low numbers of probes(13,14,17,18). Here we show that the PCR classifier, based on the RNA expression levels of 16 gene-probes, can be used as a versatile predictor of cancer aggression. Notably PCA3, TMPRSS2-ERG and HOXC13 were all included within the optimal PCR model defined by the LASSO criteria, while DKF1 was not. We first showed that the ability of PCR to detect TRIS detected

Current clinical practice assesses patient's disease using PSA, needle biopsy of the prostate and MP-MRI. However, up to 75% of men with a raised PSA (>3 ng/ml) are negative for prostate cancer on biopsy(19), whilst in absence of a raised PSA, 15% of men are found to have prostate cancer, with a further 15% of these cancers being high-grade(40). This illustrates the considerable need for additional biomarkers that can make pre-biopsy assessment of prostate cancer more accurate. In this respect we show that both PWR-4 and PWR-1 are each equally good at predicting the presence of intermediate or high-risk prostate cancer as defined by d'Amico criteria or by CAPRA scores, while in DCA analysis we found that PWR provided a net benefit in both a PSA screened and non-PSA screened population of men. With the increased adoption of MP-MRI it would be useful to derive studies to combine PWR, and other urine-based markers, with MRI findings and radical prostatectomy outcomes.

Variation in clinical outcomes are also well recognized for patients entered onto AS surveillance(41). We found that the PCR framework worked well when applied to men on AS monitored by PSA and biopsy, and also in patients monitored by MP-MRI. A potential limitation of this study is that we have not been able to use the PCR stratification as an independent and more conservatively managed active surveillance cohort. However, based on our observations approximately 15% of the RM01 AS cohort could have been safely removed from AS monitoring for a minimum of five years. An interesting feature is that in some patients the PCR urine signature predicted disease progression up to five years before it was detected by standard clinical methods. This prognostic information could potentially also aid the reduction of patient clinical intervention in active surveillance men which in some cohorts can be as high as 75% within three years of enrolment(41). Indeed, we would view the use of PCR within the context of active surveillance as its major potential clinical application. Repeated longitudinal measurements of PCR status could help correctly assess and track a patient's risk over time in a non-invasive manner. A future priority is to further validate the utility of PCR within active surveillance using other previously described longitudinal cohorts.

In conclusion, we have shown that PCR represents a new & versatile urine biomarker system capable of detecting aggressive prostate cancer and predicting the need for therapeutic intervention in AS men. The dramatic differences in RNA expression profiles across the spectrum from high risk cancer to patients with no evidence of cancer, confirmed in a test cohort, can have no doubt that the presence of cancer is substantially increasing the RNA transcripts found in urine EVs. We also provide evidence that the majority of post-DRE urine-derived EVs are derived from the prostate and that urine signatures are longitudinally stable.

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**Conflicts of Interest:**

A patent application has been filed by the authors for the present work. There are no other conflicts of interest to disclose.

**Author Contributions:**

DB, CS, & K' had joint and equal contributions to senior authorship. SPC, K, CSC & DBB drafted the manuscript. SPC, HC, DP, and DBB performed NanoString data analysis. SPC, and DBB performed the statistical analysis. MH, FC, RA, and CP setup clinical collection and developed clinical methodologies. MS, ASP, JS, HP, BW & KEM all conceived gene-probes for NanoString interrogation. MH, MW, HC, HW, KLP, ASP, ND, MCS, CP & CS were involved in sample collection, extraction and preparation at their respective institutions. RWB oversees histopathological analysis of biopsies. CSC, K, K, FC, MH, RL, SPC, MH, FC, ND, CS, CP, and DBB conceived and designed the studies. The Movember GAP1 Urine Biomarker Consortium oversees project management and experimental design.

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**Figures Legends & Tables**

**Figure 1. A) PCR profiles:** PCR-1 – green, PCR-2 – blue, PCR-3 – yellow, PCR-4 – red for the Training cohort, grouped by D'Amico risk group and ordered by ascending PCR-4 score. Horizontal lines indicate when the PCR thresholds for for 1° PCR-1 (Glass, 0.542), 2° PCR-1 (Paige, 0.295), 1° PCR-4 (Bial, 0.476), 2° PCR-4 (Giang, 0.216) and the crossover points between PCR-1 and PCR-4 (Bial, 0.212) and PCR-3 (and 4). **B) PCR profiles in the Test cohort:** C) Example of samples with primary PCR signatures, when colored circles indicate the primary PCR signal for that sample, 1° PCR-1 (green), 1° PCR-2 (blue), 1° PCR-3 (yellow), 2° PCR-4 (orange) and 1° PCR-4 (red). The sum of all first PCR signatures for any individual sample is, i.e., PCR-1+PCR-2+PCR-3+PCR-4=1. **D) The outline of all first PCR signatures for all samples ordered in ascending PCR-4 (red) to illustrate when 1°, 2° and the 3° crossover points of PCR-1 and PCR-4 lie.**

**Figure 2. A & B) Regions of PCR signatures in samples categorized as no evidence of cancer (NEC, n = 62 (Training), n = 30 (Test)) and D'Amico risk categories: 0 – Low, n = 89 (Training), n = 45 (Test) | 1 – Intermediate, n = 131 (Training), n = 69 (Test) and 2 – High risk, n = 61 (Training), n = 27 (Test) in A) the Training and B) Test cohorts. Horizontal lines indicate when the PCR thresholds for for 1° PCR-1 (green), 2° PCR-1 (purple), 1° PCR-4 (blue), 2° PCR-4 (orange), C & D) the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves of PCR-1 and PCR-3 predicting the presence of high-risk prostate cancer (yes or no) in the Training and Test cohorts. Colored circles indicate the specificity and sensitivity, respectively, of thresholds along the ROC curve that correspond to the indicated PCR-4 thresholds, equivalent to red – 1° PCR-4 (orange) – 2° PCR-4 (purple) – equivalent to 2° PCR-1 (green) – equivalent to 1° PCR-1.**

**Figure 3. AUC curves for PCR-4 predicting the presence of cancer (Glass > 7 on initial biopsy in Training and Test cohorts (A and B, respectively) and Glass > 4+1 in Training and Test cohorts (C and D, respectively). Colored circles indicate the specificity and sensitivity, respectively, of thresholds along the ROC**

cases that correspond to the indicated PWR-4 thresholds, equivalent to red -1 PWR-4, orange -2 PWR-4, purple -equivalent to 2 PWR-4, green -equivalent to 1 PWR-4.

**Figure 4.** DCA plot depicting the relationship between the number of changing PWR-4 as a continuous predictor for detecting significant cancer or breast biopsy, which significance is defined as: C) Active risk group of Intermediate or greater (red), Cx  $\geq 4$  (orange or Cx  $\geq 4$ ); D) To assess benefits in the context of cancer acting in a non-PWA screened population of men, we used data from the control arm of the CAP study(5). Bootstrap analysis with 100,000 samples was used to adjust the distribution of Gleason grades in the Metastatic cohort to match that of the CAP population. For full details see Methods.

**Figure 5.** A) PWR profiles of patients on active surveillance that had met the clinical criteria, see including MP-MRI criteria, for progression (n = 23) (or n = 0) or five year post active surveillance collection. Progression criteria were either PSA velocity  $\geq 0.4$  ng/ml per year or Cx  $\geq 4$  or  $\geq 50\%$  cancer positive for cancer on repeat biopsy. PWR signatures for progression vs non-progression samples were significantly different for all PWR signatures (p < 0.001). Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Horizontal line color indicates the threshold for PWR categories described in B) Kaplan-Meier plot of progression in active surveillance patients with respect to PWR categories described by the corresponding colours: Green -1\* and 2\* PWR-4, Blue -3\* PWR-4, Yellow -3\* PWR-4, Orange -2\* PWR-4, Red -1\* PWR-4 and the number of patients within each PWR category at the given time intervals in months from active collection. C) Kaplan-Meier plot of progression with respect to the dichotomized PWR thresholds described by the corresponding colours: Green - PWR-4 < 0.174, Red - PWR-4  $\geq 0.174$  and the number of patients within each group at the given time intervals in months from active collection.

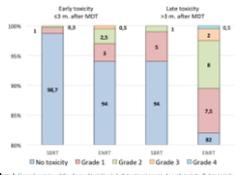
Table 1

Characteristic	Training	Test
Total, n (%)	358 (37.0)	177 (15.0)
Cellular count		
NSUI	203	100
RMI	83	38
Dubia	9	8
Adiana	63	22
PSA, ng/ml, mean (median, IQR)	10.6 (6.9, 6.4)	10.9 (6.5, 7)
Age, yr, mean (median, IQR)	65.9 (67, 71)	67.2 (67, 71)
Family history of PCa, %, no, yes, NA	7.6, 61.5, 30.8	65.6, 62.8, 30.1
First biopsy, n (%)	298 (82.7)	145 (81.4)
Prostate volume, ml, mean (median, IQR)	59.2 (49.8, 36.4)	61.1 (69.2, 52.8)
PSAD, ng/ml, ml, mean (median, IQR)	0.20 (0.18, 0.16)	0.20 (0.18, 0.17)
Suspicious DRE, n	107	52
Diagnosis, n	358	177
NIH, n (%)	62 (17.3)	30 (17.0)
D'Amico Low, n (%)	89 (24.9)	45 (25.4)
D'Amico Intermediate, n (%)	179 (50.3)	89 (49.9)
D'Amico High, n (%)	64 (17.9)	27 (15.3)
Metastatic (bone scan) n (%)	7 (2.0)	6 (3.3)
CAPIA, n	288	145
Low (0-2), n (%)	97 (33.7)	49 (33.7)
Intermediate (3-5), n (%)	168 (57.5)	83 (56.6)
High (6-8), n (%)	83 (28.8)	43 (29.7)
Gleason, n	262	144
Gleason = 6, n (%)	119 (45.4)	64 (44.4)
Gleason = 7, n (%)	131 (49.6)	58 (39.9)
Gleason ≥ 8, n (%)	42 (15.0)	24 (16.7)

**Table 2.** Non-binding gene probes incorporated by LASSO regularization in the final optimal model used to predict the FIC signature.

Gene targets of non-binding probes in FIC model	
ADH1C	MEIS1
ADH1	MEIS1
ANKRD44B	SRG
APOC1	MBP11
AR (cont. 4-5)	MMP20
DPP4	MEIS1
ERG (cont. 4-5)	FAL103
GLIS3AFL2	PCN1
GATF2B	PTF2B2
GDF15	SRG (short)
HNF1C	MBP11
IRF1	SRG
ISG15B1	SULF1A1
IRF2B2	IRF2B1
ITGB1	TAMPB2C-ERG/active
KLF1	IRF2B1
MEIS2B	IRF2B1
MEIS1	IRF2C

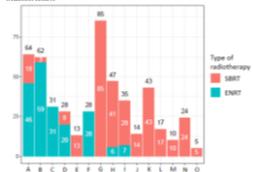




**Figure 2.** Overall prevalence of the adverse events by grade in both treatment groups. A: early toxicity. B: late toxicity. C: Dose toxicity. D: Dose toxicity. E: Dose toxicity. MDT: metformin-based therapy; MDT: metformin-based therapy.

Supplementary material

Supplementary figure 1. Overview of the applied treatment modalities in the different treatment centers



Each bar represents one center with the radiotherapy modality type indicated in color (red: SBRT, blue: ENRT).

Statistical analysis  
Bootstrap analysis

Following a bootstrap evaluation of the LASSO procedure for variable selection, we found that the full set of selected variables was quite variable, but in 75% of the cases the LASSO added the interaction between RT and lymph nodes amongst the variables selected, as on the original data. When fitting the parsimonious model involving all main effects plus this interaction across 200 bootstrap samples, a positive interaction effect was estimated in more than 95% of the bootstrap samples. Together this leads us to propose to examine the hypothesis of the existence of such interaction in a future RCT. A more detailed description of the used method can be found below.

The stability of the analyses was tested as follows:

1. A bootstrap on the complete procedure (LASSO/Cough Pruning of interactions)
2. A bootstrap with the thin selected variable set, i.e. 'final model', only (all main effects plus the interaction between RT and number of nodes)
3. Forward selection of interactions, starting with a model including all main effects.

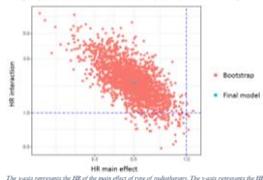
Interactions between RT and a cofounder were only examined if the main effects for the cofounder was statistically significant

In the first bootstrap-analysis, the interaction between RT and number of nodes, is retained in 45% of the bootstrap (75% if only LASSO is considered and pruning is not performed).

However, the model fitted with the retained set of variables (all main effects plus interaction between RT and number of nodes), does provide a stable image over the different bootstrap samples. In more than 95% of the bootstrap samples, the estimate for the coefficient of the interaction is positive (see supplementary figure 2). Thus, the qualitative image that the final model provides, does hold over the different bootstrap samples.

Exploring forward selection of interactions with RT starting from a model including all main effects and only testing interactions with RT for statistically significant cofounders, leads to the same final model.

Supplementary figure 2: graphic representation of 2000 bootstraps where the one model with all main effects plus an interaction between PE and number of nodes is final in each bootstrap



The x-axis represents the BIM of the main effect of type of malabsorption. The y-axis represents the BIM of the interaction of type of malabsorption and number of nodes. Remark the logarithmic scale on both axes. The blue dashed lines indicate a BIM of 1. The blue dot represents the final model with the BIM for the main effect of 0.2 and the BIM for the interaction of 1.0. As seen in the figure, 95% of the bootstraps are in the same quadrant of the final model, indicating comparable results in the same direction with a BIM of the main effect lower than 1 in combination with a BIM of the interaction higher than 1. BIM: best-invariant model.

Supplement table 1. Multivariable analysis of outcomes from survival

Variable	HR (95% CI)
Type of RT	SBRT versus ENRT 0.7 (0.5-1.0)
Age at time of diagnosis	Median age (82y) 1.05 (0.98-1.04)
Age difference*	Median difference 0.09 (0.04-1.04) (5y)
EATL risk group	Local versus locally advanced 1.26 (0.88-1.8)
Primary treatment	RP versus RT 1.82 (1.06-3.1)
Primary treatment	RP versus RP+RT 2.03 (1.13-3.5)
Extent of initial disease	N1 versus M1a 1.22 (0.83-1.75)
Adjuvant ADT	No versus yes 0.85 (0.6-1.2)
PS at recurrence	2-4 versus 0-1 1.62 (0.95-2.66)
Number of nodes	1 versus ≥1 1.17 (0.72-1.9)
Interactions	
Type of RT and number of nodes <sup>†</sup>	SBRT versus ENRT 1.84 (0.87-3.86) and 2 nodes <sup>‡</sup>

<sup>†</sup>Due to missing values, only 495 observations were retained.

The variables not accounted in bold correspond to the baseline values. The variables accounted in bold are the variables that correspond with the HR. \* The HR of the interactions are calculated by multiplying the HR of the individual variables. For patients presenting with more than 1 node, the HR for ENRT versus SBRT is 0.51 (0.44-0.6).

<sup>‡</sup>Age difference between diagnosis and recurrence; represent time from diagnosis to recurrence

Supplementary table 2: Detailed overview of the observed toxicities

Toxicity	SBRF (n=309)			ENRF (n=197)		
	GI	GI	GI & GI Other	GI	GI	GI & GI Other
<b>Early, n (%)</b>						
<i>Grade 1</i>	1 (0.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.5)	4 (2)	2 (1)
<i>Grade 2</i>	1 (0.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1)	3 (2)	0 (0)
<i>Grade 3</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)
<i>Grade 4</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
<b>Late, n (%)</b>						
<i>Grade 1</i>	6 (2)	5 (2)	0 (0)	3 (1)	6 (3)	2 (1)
<i>Grade 2</i>	1 (0.3)	2 (0.6)	0 (0)	7 (4)	6 (3)	0 (0)
<i>Grade 3</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)
<i>Grade 4</i>	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.5)
<b>Total</b>	9 (3)	7 (2)	0 (0)	4 (1)	23 (12)	3 (1)

ENRF: Elective neck radiotherapy; GI: gastro-intestinal; GI: gastro-intestinal; SBRF: oropharyngeal body radiotherapy

Tables

Table 2 Patient and tumor characteristics

Patient characteristic	SBR T	ENRT
	n=309, 41%	n=497, 39%
<b>Age at PCa diagnosis, years</b>		
<b>Median (IQR)</b>	63 (58 - 68)	63 (59 - 68)
<b>PSA at PCa diagnosis, ng/mL</b>		
<b>Median (IQR)</b>	9.3 (6.7 - 14.0)	9.2 (6.7 - 16)
<b>EAT risk group classification, n</b>		
(%)		
<b>Localized disease</b>	125 (40)	89 (35)
<b>Locally advanced</b>	178 (58)	128 (65)
<b>Unknown</b>	6 (2)	0 (0)
<b>Type of primary treatment, n</b>		
(%)		
<b>RP only</b>	87 (28)	67 (34)
<b>RT only</b>	66 (21)	29 (15)
<b>RP and RT</b>	156 (50)	101 (51)
<b>RT field, n (%)</b>	n=222	n=130
<b>Prostate bed only</b>	204 (92)	120 (92)
<b>Whole pelvic RT</b>	18 (8)	10 (8)
<b>PLND at primary treatment, n</b>		
(%)		
<b>No</b>	168 (54)	100 (51)
<b>Yes</b>	141 (46)	97 (49)

<b>Yes</b>		
<b>Median n of nodes removed, [Q2]</b>	8 (5-12)	9 (4-14)
<b>pN1</b>	122 (87)	85 (88)
<b>pN2</b>	19 (13)	12 (12)
<b>Median n of nodes positive if pN1, [Q2]</b>	1 (1-3)	2 (2-4)
<b>ADT at primary treatment, n (%)</b>	159 (51)	130 (66)
<b>No</b>	120 (39)	63 (32)
<b>Yes</b>	30 (10)	4 (2)
<b>Unknown</b>		
<b>Age at recurrence, years</b>		
<b>Median [Q2]</b>	69 (64 - 74)	68 (64 - 72)
<b>PSA at recurrence, ng/mL</b>		
<b>Median [Q2]</b>	2.7 (1.3 - 5.6)	2.5 (1.2 - 4.9)
<b>PSA-DT at recurrence, months<sup>a</sup></b>		
<b>Median [Q2]</b>	6.0 (4.0 - 10.9)	5.0 (3.0 - 8.6)
<b>Metastatic site, n (%)</b>		
<b>Prox</b>	222 (72)	143 (73)
<b>Extraproxi</b>	69 (22)	29 (15)
<b>Prox + extraproxi</b>	18 (6)	25 (13)



Table 2. pattern of progression following SBRT or ENRT

Metastatic location	SBRT	ENRT	p-value
	n=309, 61%	n=177, 35%	
<b>Nodal, n</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Public	55	3	
Extrapubic	34	32	
Public + extrapubic	42	5	
<b>Bone, n</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>0.6</b>
Axial	17	12	
Non-axial	13	7	
Axial + non-axial	5	7	
<b>Prostate bed, n</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.6</b>
<b>Visceral, n</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>&gt;0.9</b>
<b>Total, n</b>	<b>177</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>

Statistical significance was determined using Fisher's exact test. All p-values are two-tailed.