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- Are you aware of any undeclared conflicts of interest that might affect the balance, or perceived balance, of the article?

1 **Nature Reviews Urology**

2

3 **Consensus Statement:**

4

5 **Unanswered questions in prostate cancer: Findings of an** 6 **international multi-stakeholder consensus by the PIONEER** 7 **Consortium**

8

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 PIONEER is a European network of excellence for big data in prostate cancer, consisting of 37
17 private and public stakeholders from 9 countries across Europe. Major stakeholders including
18 healthcare professionals and patients were consulted to propose the most critical questions
19 in the field of prostate cancer to be answered using big data. Through this process, 44 key
20 questions were identified. The PIONEER consortium conducted a two-round modified Delphi
21 survey aiming to build consensus between the two stakeholder groups: healthcare
22 professionals and prostate cancer patients. Respondents were asked to consider what impact
23 answering the proposed questions would have on better diagnosis and treatment outcomes
24 for prostate cancer patients, while scoring these questions on a scale of 1 (not important) to
25 9 (critically important). In total, 73 healthcare professionals and 57 patients participated in
26 round one. Twelve additional questions were proposed during this first round. For the second
27 round 169 patients (including 53 English; 19 French; 31 German; 53 Italian; 13 Spanish)
28 participated. The results were analysed by calculating the percentage of respondents scoring
29 each question as not important, important, or critically important. The mean of the
30 percentages across the two stakeholder groups scoring each of the 56 questions as “critically
31 important” was calculated and used to rank the questions in terms of those scoring highest
32 in the “critically important” category. Three questions (Q1, Q2 and Q4) focused on prognostic
33 factors and two (Q4 and Q5) on the role of medical interventions on patient outcomes. The
34 disease stages that were covered are also varied, including localized (Q1, Q2, Q3), recurrent

35 (Q4) and metastatic (Q5) disease. Hence prioritisation does not seem to be biased towards
36 the opinion of a subgroup of HCPs (urologists versus medical oncologists for example).
37 Although the prioritisation of the first 5 questions was overall similar between HCPs and
38 patients, for two questions (Q3 and 4) there was a +/- 10% difference in the percentage of
39 respondents categorizing the question as critically important. For Q3 this was 91.8% by HCPs
40 versus 82.3% by patients and for Q4 79.6% versus 92.5%. Identification of critical questions
41 will help the PIONEER consortium to answer those questions that are critical to various
42 stakeholders.

43

44 **Background information**

45 Prostate cancer represents the most common cancer diagnosed in men in Europe with more
46 than 1,400,000 estimated cases in the year 2020 and the fifth cause of mortality for cancer
47 with more than 375,000 new deaths per year worldwide (1). Although prostate cancer is
48 characterized by a relatively prolonged natural history, the outcomes of prostate cancer
49 patients are heterogeneous and profoundly vary according to disease features as well as
50 individual characteristics (2). Over the last few years, the introduction of novel imaging
51 modalities, biomarkers, genomics and personalized medicine revolutionized the management
52 of prostate cancer patients (3, 4) (5). Nonetheless, several questions on the most optimal
53 management of prostate cancer at different stages of the disease still remain unanswered
54 and further research is needed in all stages of the disease with the aim of developing
55 approaches that improve oncologic control and survival and minimize the detrimental effects
56 on health-related quality of life.

57

58 Prostate cancer management is typically based on stratification into risk categories, which
59 provide an estimate of the probability of experiencing recurrence after primary treatment or
60 indeed the likelihood of disease progression should a non-curative intent management
61 strategy such as Active Surveillance (AS) was adopted. However, this classification relies
62 mainly on clinical factors such as PSA values, clinical stage, and biopsy grade group (6).
63 Moreover, its accuracy in the identification of men who would die from the disease itself or
64 who would suffer from side effects of the disease versus those who are more likely to die
65 from other causes and has no burden of his prostate cancer is suboptimal. Therefore, the
66 impact of novel available tools on risk stratification at diagnosis still needs to be clarified.

67

68 When focusing on patients with clinically localized disease, deferred treatment, which mainly
69 consists of active surveillance (AS) and watchful waiting (WW), as well as curative intent
70 treatments such as surgery to remove the prostate (radical prostatectomy) and radiation
71 treatment, all represent valid options. Although both AS and WW aim at avoiding unnecessary
72 therapies and their treatment-related side effects, they have substantial differences. AS
73 represents an alternative for selected patients with low- or intermediate-risk localized disease
74 with the aim of avoiding treatment-related side effects without missing the correct timing for
75 the delivery of curative-intent therapies (7). Several selection criteria for the inclusion in AS
76 protocols have been proposed. However, which are the patient- and tumor-specific factors
77 that could accurately guide the prognosis in this setting and identify the optimal AS candidates
78 are still unknown (8). For example, multiparametric MRI and genetic testing has been
79 proposed to identify men suitable for the inclusion in AS protocols (9, 10). Nonetheless, the
80 role of these factors and their impact on survival still needs to be elucidated. Similarly, the
81 optimal follow-up and triggers for intervention in patients enrolled in AS protocols have been
82 poorly addressed so far.

83

84 Patients considered for WW are deemed as unsuitable for curative treatments due to their
85 life expectancy or significant comorbidities and therefore, are typically monitored until the
86 development of local or systemic symptoms. The natural history of contemporary patients
87 managed with WW and the rates of disease progression and survival still need to be
88 investigated. Moreover, the improved life expectancy and different impact of comorbidities
89 on survival would preclude the generalizability of their results to contemporary cohorts.

90

91 When focusing on men with more advanced disease (i.e., locally advanced or metastatic
92 prostate cancer), several questions remain unanswered. Recent studies suggested that the
93 treatment of the primary tumor in oligo-metastatic patients at diagnosis, as well as the
94 delivery of metastases-directed therapies in the oligo-recurrence setting, might improve
95 outcomes (12, 13). However, the impact of these local therapies on long-term outcomes in
96 the metastatic setting still remains unknown.

97

98 Over the last few years, several novel systemic therapies have been introduced for the
99 treatment of metastatic hormone-sensitive and castration-resistant prostate cancer, such as
100 novel androgen-receptor targeted therapies (ARTA), chemotherapy, PARP inhibitors or
101 immunotherapy. However, which is the best sequencing of these molecules is still largely
102 unknown. Similarly, little is known regarding the use of biomarkers for the delivery of an
103 individualized approach.

104

105 Finally, it should be highlighted that each local or systemic therapy for the management of
106 prostate cancer patients is associated with specific treatment-related side effects which have
107 a profound impact on health-related quality of life. One of the main challenges in the
108 management of prostate cancer patients in the next decade would be to identify which is the
109 therapeutic approach with the best trade-off between toxicity and efficacy for each patient
110 in order to improve oncologic control without affecting quality of life.

111

112 **PIONEER project**

113 PIONEER (Prostate Cancer DlagNOsis and TreatmeNt Enhancement through the power of big
114 data in EuROpe) is a European network of excellence for big data in prostate cancer project,
115 consisting of 37 private and public stakeholders from 9 countries across Europe. Launched by
116 the Innovative Medicines Initiative 2 under grant agreement No.777492 and part of the Big
117 Data for Better Outcomes Programme (BD4BO), the overarching goal of PIONEER is to provide
118 high-quality evidence on prostate cancer management to improve health outcomes and
119 healthcare systems in Europe by unlocking the potential of big data.

120 Prostate cancer is the most common cancer diagnosed in men in Europe, representing 1 in 10
121 of all cancer deaths in men (14) Prostate cancer healthcare costs were estimated at €8.43
122 billion per year in the EU in 2009 and accounted for 7% of all cancer costs in Europe (15). At
123 present, there are a number of critical knowledge gaps in relation to the screening, diagnosis
124 and treatment of prostate cancer patients, including:

- 125 • lack of standardisation of prostate cancer outcomes definitions across all stages of
126 the disease;
- 127 • insufficient knowledge of the risk factors for developing prostate cancer;

- 128 • insufficient knowledge of appropriate patient stratification and patient prognostic
129 characteristics, including genetic profiles, for optimal stratification of patients at
130 time of diagnosis;
- 131 • lack of meaningful engagement of all key stakeholders, including patients, when
132 defining disease-specific core outcome sets (COS);
- 133 • ineffective implementation of knowledge and real-world clinical data into clinical
134 practice including care pathways.

135 The vision of PIONEER is to transform the management and clinical practice of prostate cancer
136 across all disease stages (Stage I to IV) towards a data-driven and outcome-driven, value-
137 based, and patient-centric health-care system. By applying advanced big data analytics, and
138 developing a data platform of unparalleled scale, quality and diversity, PIONEER will empower
139 meaningful improvement in clinical practice, prostate cancer disease-related outcomes, and
140 health economic outcomes across the European health care landscape (16). Specific
141 objectives of PIONEER project include:

- 142
- 143 1- To improve disease understanding and deliver a core set of clinically relevant
144 standardised prostate cancer -related outcomes
- 145 2- To optimise diagnosis and therapeutic management of prostate cancer patients across
146 different stages of the disease and across multiple geographies by delivering valuable
147 insights from real-world data and sharing best practices
- 148 3- To provide unique tools for standardisation and analysis of complex prostate cancer
149 data sets from a variety of sources, using different data models and different
150 terminology, whilst comprising different layers of information (e.g., genetic, omics,
151 imaging, biomarkers)
- 152 4- To develop a large and harmonised repository of prostate cancer data that can be used
153 to improve evidence-based decision-making for all prostate cancer patients, and
154 enable a wide variety of data re-use scenarios

155 **Knowledge gap and PIONEER's approach**

156 It is PIONEER's ultimate vision to re-orient the management and clinical practice of prostate
157 cancer across all stages of the disease towards a more outcome-driven, value-based, and
158 patient-centric healthcare system. Clinical research is traditionally led by scientists, clinical

159 professionals or commercial interest. In 2009, Chalmers and Glasziou, among others, argued
160 strongly for a more efficient research culture in which scientists study health conditions that
161 are not only the greatest burden on the population, but also address questions about
162 interventions and outcomes that patients and clinicians consider to be the most important
163 (17). Although the distinction between a scientific problem and a research question is
164 perhaps not always clear, we can consider a research question as identifying the particular
165 piece of knowledge a project seeks to generate to (partially) solve a problem. Generating
166 relevant research questions, with respect to novelty, scientific and practical impact,
167 feasibility, and clarity requires different types of pre-existing knowledge. Despite the fact that
168 PIONEER will have the availability of ample data, we must remain critical on what will be
169 feasible to address. In general, available patient-centered prostate cancer datasets can be
170 divided into three categories i.e., clinical, genomics and imaging, and availability of each
171 category will influence feasibility of solving a particular research question. However, as shown
172 above, the success of big data analysis does not solely depend on access to data. The
173 interaction between prostate cancer experts, patients, IT and data experts is crucial and calls
174 for a multi-disciplinary approach (18, 19).

175

176 The PIONEER consortium initiated a research prioritisation exercise aiming to identify the
177 major unmet questions in the field. First, the PIONEER consortium identified critical prostate
178 cancer evidence gaps from the perspectives of academic and industry professionals and
179 patients and then used modified Delphi methods to come to a consensus on a prioritised list
180 of research questions.

181

182 **Methods**

183 The most important stakeholder groups for identifying the top unanswered questions in
184 prostate cancer are healthcare professionals (HCPs), because they design and administer care
185 and drive the research agenda and the patient group because they are the recipients of the
186 benefits and harms of care and research. The modified Delphi method was identified as
187 appropriate to assess agreement within and between these stakeholder groups, and to
188 facilitate consensus (20). The modified Delphi method allows for anonymous controlled
189 feedback, whereby participants are first asked to score a series of items, then, in subsequent

190 rounds are shown a summary of the scores that other participants attributed to each item in
191 the previous round. They are then asked to re-score the items (21).

192

193 Key Opinion Leaders including EAU Prostate Cancer Guideline panel members and other
194 urologists, oncologists, radiologists, nurses, health economists, and researchers were
195 consulted to propose the most critical questions in the field of prostate cancer to be answered
196 using big data. These KOLs work in a variety of different setting including academic/university
197 environments, hospitals, and primary care. They were asked to provide critical unanswered
198 research questions for prostate cancer, considering what we do not know for sure about
199 prostate cancer but would be important to know and answering these questions
200 can/could transform practice and patient outcomes. Through this process, 44 key questions
201 were identified. Afterwards, the PIONEER consortium conducted a two-round modified
202 Delphi survey in order to assess and build consensus between the two stakeholder groups:
203 healthcare professionals (including representatives from pharmaceutical companies who are
204 medically qualified and work in either R&D or medical affairs branches of industry and not
205 from marketing departments) and prostate cancer patients. Several organisations helped us
206 with the dissemination of the surveys including the [EAU](#), [EAUN](#), [Ecaner](#), [ECPC](#), [EUROPA](#)
207 [UOMO](#), [Prostate Cancer UK](#), and [UCAN](#). Respondents were asked to consider what impact
208 answering the proposed questions would have on better diagnosis and treatment outcomes
209 for prostate cancer, while scoring these questions on a scale of 1 (not important) to 9
210 (critically important). The results were analysed by calculating the percentage of respondents
211 scoring each question as: not important (score 1 to 3), important (score 4 to 6) or critically
212 important (score 7 to 9). In the second round, participants were shown a summary of the
213 percentage of other participants' (patients and healthcare professionals) who considered the
214 question "critically important" in round one.

215

216 **Results:**

217 In total, 73 healthcare professionals and 57 patients participated in round one of the modified
218 Delphi survey. Twelve additional questions were proposed during this first round. For the
219 second round, the patients' surveys were translated into French, German, Italian and Spanish.
220 49 healthcare professionals and 169 patients (including 53 English; 19 French; 31 German; 53
221 Italian; 13 Spanish) participated in round two of the surveys (**Figure 1**).

222

223 The mean of the percentages across the two stake-holder groups scoring each of the 56
224 questions as “critically important” was calculated and used to rank the questions in terms of
225 those scoring highest in the “critically important” category. The top ten questions are listed
226 in **Table 1** and the process is illustrated in **Figure 2**. The complete results are in **Appendix 1**.

227

228 The five questions with highest prioritisation were overall deemed critically important by
229 more than 85% of all respondents (**Table 1**). None of the questions that were added after the
230 first modified Delphi round were retained within the final top 10 prioritised questions. All top
231 5 questions were also part of the top 10 questions after the first modified Delphi voting round.
232 Three questions (Q1, Q2 and Q4) focused on prognostic factors and two (Q4 and Q5) on the
233 role of medical interventions on patient outcomes. The disease stages that were investigated
234 are also varied, including localized (Q1, Q2, Q3), recurrent (Q4) and metastatic (Q5) disease.
235 Hence prioritisation does not seem to be biased towards the opinion of a subgroup of HCPs
236 (urologists versus medical oncologists for example). Although the prioritisation of the first 5
237 questions was overall similar between HCPs and patients, for two questions (Q3 and 4) there
238 was a +/- 10% difference in the percentage of respondents categorizing the question as
239 critically important. For Q3 this was 91.8% by HCPs versus 82.3% by patients and for Q4 79.6%
240 versus 92.5%.

241

242 The remaining 5 questions (Q6 – Q10) had an overall prioritisation score around 85% with the
243 exception of Q10 which scored lower, at 80.5%. Three questions (Q6, 7 and 9) were part of
244 the top 10 questions identified by the healthcare professionals and patients after the first
245 modified Delphi voting round. Two questions (Q8 and Q10) were also part of the 10 questions
246 prioritised by the HCP group after Round 1. Three out of the 5 questions focused on
247 treatment-related benefits and harms and sequencing of available treatment options (Q6, Q9
248 and Q10), while Questions 7 and 8 revolved around optimising patient selection for treatment
249 at various clinical stages, and using genetic profile to maximise treatment effect. While
250 prioritisation scores were similar between the groups of patients and HCPs for Questions 7
251 and 8 (~85%), patient prioritisation scores for Questions 6, 9 and 10 were ~10-15% higher
252 than the scores provided by the HCPs (91.4%, 90.8% and 88.1% versus 79.6%, 77.6% and
253 72.9%, respectively).

254

255 Overall, both groups' prioritised questions related to four specific question types in their top
256 ten. These question types were comparisons of treatments or specific diagnostic / treatment
257 questions for specific stages e.g. CRPC, timing of treatment and care pathways, comparison
258 of side effects, or genetics and understanding patient types / risk profiles and treatment. The
259 main difference between the two groups was that the patients also prioritised questions
260 related to co-ordination of care and skill of care provider within their top ten list of priorities.

261

262 The top ten priorities for patients relate to five specific question types – comparisons of
263 treatments or specific treatment questions for specific stages e.g. CRPC, timing of treatment
264 and care pathways, understanding of side effects, co-ordination of care and skill of care
265 provider or genetics and understanding patient types and treatment. Examples include
266 questions related to the comparison of rates of side effects between different treatments;
267 questions related to tumour-specific and patient-specific variables, prognosis and active
268 surveillance; and questions related to sequencing of therapeutic options to support best
269 outcomes. The most rated question was around treatment options and timing of treatment
270 following recurrence of prostate cancer (for full details see **Appendix 1**).

271

272 These are all key dimensions of evidence-based decision making which would help increase
273 patient understanding of their diagnosis, their potential treatment options and inform their
274 outcome expectancies. Greater evidence to support a more complete understanding of these
275 questions would support appropriate decision-making and could minimise decisional regret.
276 The co-ordination of care and skill sets of care providers are important dimensions of
277 confidence and trust in the process of care.

278

279 The top ten priorities for healthcare providers relate to four specific question types
280 comparisons of treatments or specific diagnostic / treatment questions for specific stages e.g.
281 CRPC, timing of treatment and care pathways, comparison of side effects, or genetics and
282 understanding patient types / risk profiles and treatment. Examples include questions related
283 to best models for risk stratification; questions related to understanding which specific groups
284 of patients benefit from specific treatments such as upfront chemotherapy; questions related
285 to diagnosis and use of pre-biopsy mpMRI (for full details see **Appendix 1**).

286

287 Interestingly, whilst there was a clear emphasis on developing better understanding of
288 treatment options and aspects of tailoring these to specific patient groups, there was less
289 emphasis on the delivery and co-ordination of care or the particular expertise or skill set of
290 the healthcare professionals involved in care.

291

292 **Discussion**

293 Both the abandonment of the paternalistic model of the doctor-patient relationship and the
294 increasing knowledge of prostate cancer biology has led to a change in how prostate cancer
295 patients are treated. General cancer treatments made way for patient-tailored treatments,
296 not only taking tumour features into consideration, but also patients' quality of life, their
297 personal expectations and desires. Although practice has already dramatically changed, the
298 plethora of unanswered questions identified from this prioritisation exercise clearly reflects
299 that this transition is not yet complete. The prioritised questions reflect the main concerns of
300 both patients and HCPs on the natural history of prostate cancer, importance of improved
301 disease stratification, its treatment options, their effectiveness and associated side effects or
302 complications.

303

304 Notably, the two highest ranked questions are focussed on conservative strategies and are
305 focussed on identifying patients who can be treated conservatively and safely in the active
306 surveillance (AS) and watchful waiting (WW) setting. Although both treatment options are
307 being used in daily practice, many uncertainties still exist. Among others, this is reflected by
308 the recently published DETECTIVE Study, which was designed to formulate consensus
309 statements on AS due to the lack of higher levels of evidence {Lam, 2019, EAU-EANM-ESTRO-
310 ESUR-SIOG Prostate Cancer Guideline Panel Consensus Statements for Deferred Treatment
311 with Curative Intent for Localised Prostate Cancer from an International Collaborative Study
312 (DETECTIVE Study)}.

313

314 Questions 3-5 and 8 are also a reflection of the increasing appreciation of disease and patient
315 heterogeneity {Joniau, 2015, Stratification of high-risk prostate cancer into prognostic
316 categories: a European multi-institutional study}{Van den Broeck, 2019, Prognostic Value of
317 Biochemical Recurrence Following Treatment with Curative Intent for Prostate Cancer: A

318 Systematic Review}. Big data will allow for a better risk stratification of patients and disease
319 with meaningful real world clinical endpoints. Further, this big data could lead to optimised
320 risk stratification using both clinical and omics data (Q7), which could ultimately lead to the
321 development of clinical prediction models, allowing for more patient-tailored treatment
322 strategies with less toxicity and higher efficacy.

323 Not only would big data allow for the development of prognostic models, it could also allow
324 for better prediction of therapeutic response. Management of the various stages of prostate
325 cancer is becoming more challenging as we gain more knowledge on disease biology and with
326 the introduction of new technologies and treatments. In an ever-changing field,
327 understanding the safety profile of the available treatments, and determining the optimal
328 sequencing of the various types of multimodal treatments that are now part of the treatment
329 armamentarium are critical (Q 6 and Q10). Finally, the management of complex and less
330 common clinical scenarios (such as the management of oligometastatic disease) remains
331 unclear (Q9), which could be answered using big data as well.

332

333 **Future directions**

334 PIONEER is a consortium dedicated to improving the diagnosis, treatment and care of patients
335 with prostate cancer through the development and implementation of research studies to
336 address clinical knowledge gaps. Members of the PIONEER Consortium can form Research
337 Question (RQ) Teams. . These RQ Teams are dedicated to address specific Research Questions
338 and each data contributor has the right to participate in the research teams developing the
339 protocols. Any PIONEER beneficiary or data contributor (including industry participants) can
340 propose the creation of a new Research Question Team to focus on specific Research
341 Questions identified from either the list of 56 prioritized questions or by proposing a new
342 question (non-prioritized questions must be justified).

343

344 In order to support and sanction the establishment of RQ Teams, a PIONEER RQ Oversight
345 Committee was formed with membership designated by the PIONEER Executive Committee.
346 The RQ Oversight Committee is made up of senior clinicians and researchers from both public
347 and private partners with the aim of ensuring transparency and efficiency when using the
348 PIONEER big data platform to answer the most relevant questions pertaining to prostate
349 cancer patients, and generate high-quality publications with results that provide evidence-

350 based data to underpin clinical practice guideline recommendations as well as informing the
351 decision-making processes by healthcare providers and patients.

352

353 The committee process is covered in the Research Committee Charter, which is available to
354 all PIONEER members. Briefly, to initiate the formation of a new RQ Team , the beneficiary or
355 associated partner will submit an application to the Chair of the RQ Oversight Committee at
356 least 7 days prior to the next Research Committee Meeting, which are held once monthly. A
357 thorough review of the merits of the proposed application is made on the basis of:

- 358 a) Does the proposed team address a scientifically or clinically relevant question?
- 359 b) Does the proposed team overlap an existing team's activities?
- 360 c) Does PIONEER have sufficient data to support the proposed investigation?
- 361 d) Does the proposed team meet the basic qualifications as set out in the application?

362 In addition to the above criteria, there are a number of points that must be addressed before
363 approval is given. To warrant a true collaborative team, the RQ Team membership must
364 include a minimum of 2 Public and 2 EFPIA partners. Once the application is approved then
365 membership to the RQ Team is open to all PIONEER partners. Also within the proposal, the
366 applicant should clearly explain the RQ to be tackled, address the knowledge gaps that are
367 associated with the question, present the study design and methods to be used, state the key
368 variables (inclusion/exclusion criteria, endpoints, covariates/controls) and indicate expected
369 key findings; including how the findings will be used to improve patient care, outcomes and
370 lives.

371 Finally, the applicant must identify a list of at least 3 datasets that will be used to answer the
372 question along with a timeline and publication/dissemination plan.

373 The Research Committee bylaws state that in order for a proposal to be considered, a
374 minimum of 80% of the RQ Oversight Committee members must be present at the meeting
375 and a decision to sanction a new RQ team will require at least 60% majority of the committee
376 members present at the meeting. The decision will be announced to the applicant within 3
377 days of the committee meeting.

378 For example, the research question 1 which focuses on the natural history of PCa patients and
379 the impact of life expectancy and comorbidities on outcome of conservative management,
380 was approved by the PIONEER Research Committee. The research team organised the

381 PIONEER Study-A-Thon held in March 2020 in collaboration with [EHDEN](#) (The European
382 Health Data & Evidence Network) and [OHDSI](#) (The Observational Health Data Sciences and
383 Informatics) aimed to characterise the long-term outcomes (clinical characterisation) of
384 prostate cancer patients managed with conservative treatment and to build a prediction
385 model to generate risk scores that could inform patients about their possible risks. Out of 12
386 data bases analysed at the time of the Study-A-Thon, there were 1,557,114 PCa patients
387 identified (patients diagnosed between 1989 and 2021). Out of these patients, 896,318
388 received immediate treatment whereas 536,235 received conservative
389 management. Critically, patients were actively participated from start to finish of the Study-
390 A-Thon, they shared their experiences of living with prostate cancer, impact of treatment and
391 their experiences of survivorship including gaps in care that exist and outcomes of most
392 importance for them. Results will be presented in a separate publication. PIONEER has formed
393 other RQ teams to answer some of the top questions. Patients will again be central to the
394 planning, protocol development and execution of the research questions.
395 By successfully answering the prioritised research questions, the expectation is that the
396 findings would constitute real world evidence that would be relevant and used to fill gaps in
397 clinical practice guidelines (underpinning recommendations) and further improving clinician-
398 patient shared decision making.

399

400 **Strengths and weaknesses of the study**

401 Main strengths of our modified Delphi approach are that the online format facilitated a large
402 and diverse sample, and the anonymous feedback allowed participants to know both
403 stakeholder groups' scores without giving undue influence to dominant voices or to those
404 with perceived authority. A limitation of our approach is that additional patient group
405 participants were added in round two, whereas methods guidance supports not adding
406 participants (21). Although we did accept this as a limitation, the decision to invite further
407 participants was to boost sample size, target maximum diversity in opinion and to mitigate
408 against the anticipated critique that our original English speaking-only sample may not have
409 adequately included opinions from other native European languages, in case these opinions
410 systematically deviated from the English-speaking sample.

411

412 A further limitation was the inclusion of pharmaceutical industry representatives who may be
413 seen as having a conflict of interest in driving the prioritisation of research questions.
414 Nonetheless, our anonymous scoring process, and the definition of consensus being applied
415 as a percentage and to the two stakeholder groups separately means that industry voice has
416 been considered, but had no more weight than any other stakeholder group in the results.

417

418 **Conclusions**

419 PIONEER has conducted an international multi-stakeholder consensus in order to identify and
420 prioritise the most important questions in the field of prostate cancer. Identification of critical
421 questions will help the PIONEER consortium to answer those questions that are critical to key
422 stakeholders including patients.

423

Results:

In total

73

healthcare
professionals



57

patients
participated in
round one of
the surveys.



12

additional
questions were
proposed during
the first round.



For the second round the patients' surveys were also translated into French, German, Italian and Spanish.



49

healthcare
professionals



169

patients including:



53 

English

19 

French

31 

German

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Italian

13 

Spanish

participated in round two of the surveys.

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Figure 1: Graphical illustration of participants who took part in an international multi-stakeholder consensus by PIONEER Consortium

PIONEER - Unanswered questions in prostate cancer: Findings of an international multi-stakeholder consensus by the PIONEER Consortium				
Final Ranking	Questions	HCPs centred prioritiation	Patients centred prioritiation	All respondents
1	What are the relevant tumour-specific and patient-specific variables that affect prognosis of PCa patients suitable for active surveillance? (Q4)	89.6	90.2	89.9
2	What is the natural history of PCa patients undergoing conservative management (i.e., watchful waiting) and what is the impact of comorbidities and life expectancy on long-term outcomes?	85.4	89.0	87.2
3	Currently, the scientific community generally applies the EAU Guidelines PCa risk stratification, stratifying patients into low-, intermediate- and high-risk PCa. This is based on the risk of recurrent disease of patients after radical treatments. However, this risk stratification still has its limits and patients still have very heterogeneous outcomes especially in the high-risk group. What we still do not know is what differentiates patients with lethal vs non-lethal disease, irrespective of their risk stratification.	91.8	82.3	87.1
4	When should we treat patients who experience prostate cancer recurrence after primary treatment and which are the most effective therapeutic approaches?	79.6	92.5	86.0
5	Which specific patient groups benefit most of upfront chemotherapy? What are the side effects and What is impact on quality of life in real-life practice of chemotherapy in this setting? the benefit of potentially toxic upfront chemotherapy appears to be highly individual. Other factors to predict who would benefit most are needed. the benefit of chemotherapy in the subgroup patients who have recurrence after primary treatment is not known.	87.8	83.3	85.5
6	How does the rate of side effects / local problems (including secondary / palliative treatments needed) compare between treatments (open, laparoscopic, robot surgery, with or without lymph node dissection; brachytherapy, different forms of external beam radiation therapy), and which patient specific factors are associated with these adverse secondary endpoints?	79.6	91.4	85.5
7	What is the clinical benefit of determining patients' genetic risk profile regarding PCa management, especially in the screening setting? (Q1)	85.1	84.8	85.0
8	Which specific patient benefits from different available treatment options for CRPC?	85.1	84.7	84.9
9	Is there a therapeutic benefit of treating the local tumour in patients diagnosed with (oligo)metastatic PCa?	77.6	90.8	84.2
10	How should the available therapeutical options be sequenced in order to achieve response and best outcomes in individual patients and in specific settings? effects ideally need to be maximized while limiting side effects.	72.9	88.1	80.5
11	We still do not know whether in a real life setting, pre-biopsy mpMRI would be successful at predicting biopsy and patient outcomes. Furthermore, the added value of targeted biopsies in positive mpMRI investigations remains unclear as well.	79.2	79.6	79.4
12	Which is the best prognostic marker for prostate cancer patients treated with active surveillance?	77.6	79.8	78.7
13	At the moment we still do not know whether PSA screening is a viable strategy to detect PCa and if there are any other strategies defining patients who should under PSA screening. For example in patients with a positive family history, BRCA screening has been proposed and its results could be applicable to increase PSA screening efficiency. Up to now, this is based on small but valuable studies. Furthermore, other genetic tests (germline mutations in DNA damage repair genes or SNP studies for example) could be proposed to define this subset of patients that could benefit from PSA screening.	77.1	75.8	76.4
14	Which is the best test to be used during follow-up in prostate cancer patients?	64.6	85.8	75.2
15	What is the rate of long-term side effects specified per treatment type (surgery versus radiation)? How does surgeon training and experience impact outcomes?	59.2	87.6	73.4
16	Should we individualize follow-up according to treatment modality and disease characteristics in patients with prostate cancer?	71.7	74.1	72.9
17	Which are the most clinically relevant functional and oncologic outcomes that should be collected during follow-up in prostate cancer patients?	58.3	83.9	71.1
18	How best to co-ordinate care between multiple health professionals during and following completion of treatment for prostate cancer?	55.1	86.2	70.6
19	Are PSA screening policies for men aged 50 years and early diagnosis improving survival as compared to opportunistic screening?	59.2	78.8	69.0
20	Although mpMRI in expert hands overall has good NPVs and PPVs, still some tumors will never be captured by imaging. We do not know whether these tumors are pathologically different.	61.2	76.5	68.9
21	How can we improve patient-physician communication in patients diagnosed with prostate cancer and what is its impact on quality of life patient-reported outcomes?	55.1	75.9	65.5
22	Which are the most clinically relevant outcomes in PCa patients that should be collected by all cancer registries?	56.3	73.5	64.9
23	Which are the most effective strategies to improve functional outcomes recovery and mitigate side effects associated with systemic therapies in prostate cancer patients?	46.7	80.9	63.8
24	What is the rate of adherence to international guidelines for the diagnostic and treatment pathways of prostate cancer?	69.4	56.7	63.0
25	Which patients [demographics] experience side effects and late effects of different treatment modalities for prostate cancer? What are these side effects and late effects? When do they occur in the cancer care and aftercare pathway?	47.9	73.3	60.6
26	Should there be specialized Prostate Cancer Centers certified and re-certified according to the same criteria throughout Europe with public reporting of identical outcomes?	45.8	73.8	59.8
27	Although there is an excellent correlation between the newly introduced histological grading groups (ISUP groups) and prognosis, these results are all based on biochemical recurrence, which is a surrogate endpoint for PCa outcomes such as prostate cancer specific mortality and overall mortality. We do not know yet whether these grading groups are actually associated with hard end points such as prostate cancer specific survival.	51.1	66.1	58.6
28	Are results obtained using currently available data sources generalizable to all PCa patients?	41.7	74.1	57.9
29	Are available markers able to predict stronger endpoints such as metastases-free survival in prostate cancer patients?	54.2	59.0	56.6
30	What are the most important outcomes across different parts of the prostate cancer care pathway? The outcome domains can be subdivided into the following groups: a. Oncologic/b. Functional. Process and recovery/d. Complications and/or adverse event/e. Quality of life. Health economic and cost effectiveness	43.8	68.5	56.1
31	What are the oncologic and functional outcomes of patients with clinically localized prostate cancer undergoing experimental therapies that are not currently recommended by international guidelines (e.g., high-intensity focused ultrasound) as compared to the standard of care?	52.1	59.7	55.9
32	Should we routinely implement quality control initiatives to improve the quality of data collected?	44.7	66.9	55.8
33	How can we integrate clinical and biomarker data in prostate cancer data sources to develop novel predictive tools?	52.1	59.3	55.7
34	We do not know which risk calculator is the best risk calculator and whether there are differences between their efficiencies between populations. Furthermore, up to now it is not known either whether the use of a risk calculator would make the use of a pre-biopsy mpMRI obsolete.	47.9	57.3	52.6
35	How can we reduce heterogeneity in the outcomes reported by different data sources?	40.8	61.5	51.2
36	Can we integrate data coming from randomized trials into population-based and prospective cancer registries?	50.0	50.9	50.5
37	What is the best way of measuring those outcomes identified above (question 37)? The outcome measures can be sub-stratified further into the following domains: a. Definitions (e.g. biochemical recurrence following radical prostatectomy or radical radiotherapy) b. Thresholds c. Outcome measuring instrument (including PROMS for functional or quality of life outcomes) d. Metrics of measurement (change from baseline or discrete endpoints) e. Reporting statistic f. Time point of measurement	45.8	54.4	50.1
38	What are the rates of incidence, prevalence, and mortality of prostate cancer across Europe?	46.9	53.2	50.1
39	How does focal therapy compare to standard of care in terms of oncological and functional outcomes in patients affected by localized prostate cancer?	46.9	50.3	48.6
40	How do we routinely collect cancer survivorship data including current disease status, functional ability, current medications, co-morbidities, quality of life, psychological wellbeing, social outcomes, cancer treatment history and modalities used?	35.4	59.6	47.5
41	Should we offer imaging during follow-up in men treated with androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer?	38.8	53.7	46.2
42	Although it is generally assumed that a Gleason pattern 5 (most dedifferentiated histological subtype) is a major determinant in PCa mortality, we do not know whether a tertiary Gleason 5 component <5% in ISUP group 2 or 3 on a RP specimen has an impact on patients' outcome and whether there is a differential outcome in patients with ISUP group 4 with a Gleason 5 component >5% compared to only Gleason 4 pattern. It has been suggested before that this tertiary component is correlated with a more extensive tumor phenotype, mainly in lower grade tumors.	35.4	56.7	46.1
43	We do not know whether there is a difference in (significant) PCa occurrence based on geographical location within Europe when corrected for differential PCa management (differences in PSA screening, treatment decisions etc).	49.0	40.7	44.8
44	For each part of the prostate cancer care pathway, what important baseline or pre-intervention characteristics are important? What is the best way of measuring them?	27.1	59.3	43.2
45	What support is needed for psychosocial late effects (fear, anxiety, distress, ptsd, employment) (+ = strengthened relationships, empowerment, appreciation of life) following detection? When is this needed in the cancer care and aftercare pathway? What triggers the delivery of this support?	29.2	56.8	43.0
46	At this moment, multiple commercially available biomarker tests have shown success in increasing PCa diagnosis efficiency. However, we do not know how this has contributed to PCa diagnosis dynamics in Europe.	44.7	40.9	42.8
47	What support is needed for physical late effects (include musculoskeletal issues, fatigue, last of stamina, urinary / bowel problems, lymphedema, premature menopause, cognitive deficits and sexual dysfunction) following detection? When is this needed in the cancer care and aftercare pathway? What triggers the delivery of this support?	26.5	58.6	42.6
48	How does state-of-the-art risk assessment and treatment regimes for PC compare across major cancer centers, and how has this changed over the past decade?	26.5	57.1	41.8
49	When should we stop follow-up in patients with localized prostate cancer?	27.1	52.8	39.9
50	What is the impact of satellite low-volume lesions next to the index lesion in patients suitable for focal therapy?	28.6	45.6	37.1
51	How do various PC data-sources/databases compare in terms of quality, size, geography, and overlap?	28.6	44.8	36.7
52	What is the risk of prostate cancer death for men on five alpha reductase inhibitors?	25.0	48.4	36.7
53	We do not know which of the proposed environmental risk factors are actually causative or protective for (significant) PCa?	36.7	29.5	33.1
54	Are men aged 50-75 years old who underwent vasectomy at increased incidence of prostate cancer as compared to individuals who did not receive a vasectomy?	21.3	30.8	26.0
55	Are currently available predictive models for prostate cancer outcomes generalizable to a population level?	16.3	26.3	21.3
56	Which individuals are most likely to drop out of employment during and following completion of treatment for prostate cancer? When does this occur in the cancer care and aftercare pathway?	14.3	22.4	18.3

447 **Table 1: Unanswered questions in prostate cancer: Findings of an international multi-**
448 **stakeholder consensus by the PIONEER Consortium**
449 Percentage (%) of agreement indicate the mean of the percentages across the two stake-
450 holder groups scoring each of the 56 questions as “critically important” was calculated and
451 used to rank the questions in terms of those scoring highest in the “critically important”
452 category.
453 * Blue-12 additional questions proposed in Round 1
454

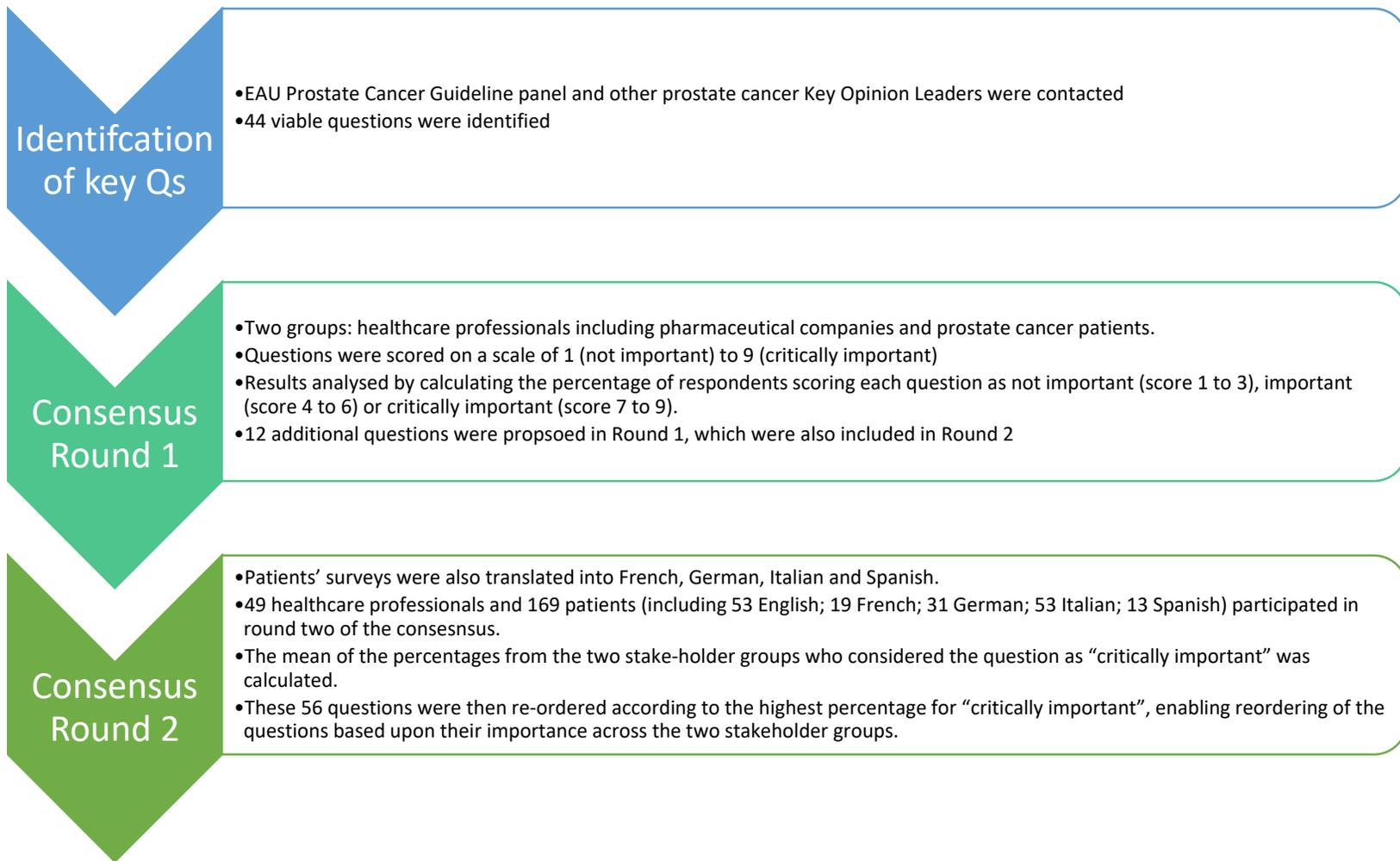


Figure 2: Consensus process

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