# American College of Radiology
## ACR Appropriateness Criteria®
### Prostate Cancer–Pretreatment Detection, Surveillance, and Staging

#### Variant 1:
**Clinically suspected prostate cancer, no prior biopsy (biopsy naïve). Detection.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radiologic Procedure</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>RRL*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRUS-guided biopsy prostate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRI pelvis without and with IV contrast</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>MRI (with or without contrast) in biopsy-naïve patients may be performed before TRUS-guided biopsy so the targeted sample may be obtained using MRI or TRUS fusion technology in patients with appropriate targets. MRI is complementary to TRUS-guided biopsy in this setting.</td>
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<td>TRUS prostate</td>
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<td>CT abdomen and pelvis without IV contrast</td>
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<td>Bone scan whole body</td>
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**Rating Scale:** 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate

*Relative Radiation Level*  

#### Variant 2:
**Clinically suspected prostate cancer, prior negative TRUS-guided biopsy. Detection.**

<table>
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*Relative Radiation Level*
### Variant 3:
Clinically established low-risk prostate cancer. Active surveillance.

<table>
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<th>Radiologic Procedure</th>
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<tr>
<td>MRI-targeted biopsy prostate</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>TRUS-guided biopsy prostate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Serial repeat TRUS-guided systematic biopsy is standard practice for patients on active surveillance, but MRI (with or without contrast) should be performed as well so that MRI-targeted biopsies (fusion or in-bore technique) can be obtained from appropriate suspicious lesions.</td>
<td>O</td>
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<tr>
<td>MRI pelvis without IV contrast</td>
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<td>TRUS prostate</td>
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<tr>
<td>CT abdomen and pelvis with IV contrast</td>
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<td>CT abdomen and pelvis without IV contrast</td>
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<td>Bone scan whole body</td>
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*Relative Radiation Level

### Variant 4:
Clinically established intermediate-risk prostate cancer. Staging and/or surveillance.

<table>
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<th>Radiologic Procedure</th>
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<td>MRI pelvis without and with IV contrast</td>
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<tr>
<td>MRI-targeted biopsy prostate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>☢☢☢</td>
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<tr>
<td>CT abdomen and pelvis with IV contrast</td>
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<td>Bone scan whole body</td>
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<tr>
<td>TRUS-guided biopsy prostate</td>
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<tr>
<td>CT abdomen and pelvis without IV contrast</td>
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<td>TRUS prostate</td>
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<tr>
<td>CT abdomen and pelvis without and with IV contrast</td>
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<td>☢☢☢☢</td>
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*Relative Radiation Level
### Variant 5: Clinically established high-risk prostate cancer. Staging.

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<td>MRI pelvis without and with IV contrast</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bone scan whole body</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>This procedure is complementary to MRI or CT for evaluation of possible bone metastases.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CT abdomen and pelvis with IV contrast</td>
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<td>MRI pelvis without IV contrast</td>
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<tr>
<td>MRI-targeted biopsy prostate</td>
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<td>CT abdomen and pelvis without and with IV contrast</td>
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<td>TRUS prostate</td>
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<tr>
<td>TRUS-guided biopsy prostate</td>
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*Relative Radiation Level*
专家小组：Fergus V. Coakley, MD; Aytekin Oto, MD; Lauren F. Alexander, MD; Brian C. Allen, MD; Brian J. Davis, MD, PhD; Adam T. Froemming, MD; Pat F. Fulgham, MD; Keyanoosh Hosseinzadeh, MD; Christopher Porter, MD; V. Anik Sahni, MD; David M. Schuster, MD; Timothy N. Showalter, MD, MPH; Aradhana M. Venkatesan, MD; Sadhana Verma, MD; Carolyn L. Wang, MD; Erick M. Remer, MD; Steven C. Eberhardt, MD.

**Summary of Literature Review**

**Introduction/Background**

尽管经常有人声称“大多数男性死于前列腺癌，而不是死于前列腺癌”，[1] 现实情况是前列腺癌是导致男性死亡的第二常见原因，仅次于肺癌。具体来说，在2015年，估计有220,800名美国男性被诊断出患有前列腺癌，27,540名因该疾病死亡[2]。除了个人的痛苦和损失外，美国前列腺癌的直接经济成本估计每年约为100亿美元[3]。与其他恶性肿瘤一样，治疗的主要目标是在接受治疗之前对前列腺癌进行基线评估，即确定疾病范围，无论是局部的还是远处的，以及侵犯性。确定肿瘤的侵犯性在最终决定治疗方式时是最重要的一点，因为这会决定患者的预后。

一些特殊情况使得准确评估前列腺癌基线状态特别具有挑战性：

- 当前可用的标准临床工具，如直肠指检，前列腺特异性抗原（PSA）检测，以及系统性活检结果，如阳性活检数量和 Gleason 得分，都是在不同准确度的级别上进行分类的。即使是根治性前列腺切除术，通常被认为是病理学标准，也在某种程度上受到主观解读的影响。通过不同病理学家分析根治性前列腺切除术标本来判断外侵的情况[4,5]，其结果与不同放射科医生检测外侵的情况[6]有相同的趋势。多项研究报道了0.33到0.63的观察者一致率，用于检测外侵的磁共振成像（MRI）[6]。多项研究文献被描述，如 Partin 表格或 D’Amico 风险分层系统，这些表格会根据这些参数来建立一个更接近实际肿瘤分期或肿瘤侵犯性的模型，[7,8]。这些表格是一个合理的尝试来整合数据，但结果是受特定参数的限制：Gleason 得分和 PSA，[9,10]。也就是说，D’Amico 系统和国家综合癌症网络（NCCN）风险分层系统被广泛使用，并在下面的文献中被引用（见附录1和附录2）。应该指出的是，这些阳性活检数目和临床分期是两个因素，根据它们的共同作用，可以在不考虑其他参数的前提下，根据 Gleason 分数和 PSA，决定预后。

许多新型生物标志物已经并且持续被研究用来在没有治疗的情况下，尝试改善基于患者的预后变量的特征：

- 前列腺癌是一种异质性疾病，从很小的低等级肿瘤到大的，具有攻击性的，威胁生命的肿瘤。这种疾病具有二重性。首先，由于我们有限的能力来精确地诊断一个给定患者的疾病，即使在匹配到最佳治疗之前，也很难匹配到最佳治疗。其次，具有低风险疾病的人会被视为具有需要长时间观察的疾病，而那些具有高风险的疾病将被给予放射性治疗或手术，这种治疗可能由短期或长期的雄激素剥夺疗法来补充。那些有系统性疾病的人需要系统性治疗，通常由雄激素剥夺疗法来补救，这种方法在化疗后会降低肿瘤的生长。

前列腺癌的基线评估是困难的，因为它需要考虑多种因素，包括患者的具体情况，如PCA3，基因型特征，基于血清的microRNA，细胞自由DNA，以及肿瘤细胞分析，但目前没有进入主流应用。

**PROSTATE CANCER–PRETREATMENT DETECTION, SURVEILLANCE, AND STAGING**

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The American College of Radiology seeks and encourages collaboration with other organizations on the development of the ACR Appropriateness Criteria through society representation on expert panels. Participation by representatives from collaborating societies on the expert panel does not necessarily imply individual or society endorsement of the final document.

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ACR Appropriateness Criteria® 4 Prostate Cancer–Pretreatment Detection
Prostate cancer is a difficult organ and disease to image. For many years, the only imaging received by most patients was a transrectal ultrasound (TRUS) used to localize the prostate (not the cancer) prior to 6- to 12-core systematic biopsy. The emergence of multiparametric MRI over the last few decades as a powerful and relatively accurate tool for the local evaluation of prostate cancer has both enhanced and complicated the baseline evaluation of prostate cancer because it has added the option of MRI-targeted biopsy as a supplement or replacement for standard systematic biopsy [23,24], at least in the approximately 60% of patients who have an actionable target at MRI [25]. A recent meta-analysis demonstrated that MRI-targeted biopsy significantly increases the detection rate for both all cancers and clinically significant cancers and significantly decreases the detection of clinically insignificant cancers [26].

Overview of Imaging Modalities

The common modalities used to evaluate prostate cancer are TRUS, MRI, computed tomography (CT), and bone scintigraphy. TRUS or MRI may be combined with biopsy. TRUS and MRI are used to evaluate local disease extent, whereas CT and bone scintigraphy are used to evaluate metastatic disease, which typically involves either nodal or bone deposits. Prostate risk stratification is central in determining the appropriateness of evaluating for locally advanced or distant disease, since both are primarily detectable in intermediate- and high-risk disease alone (Appendix 3). Although several organizations have proposed guidelines on imaging prostate cancer based on slightly differing definitions of higher-risk disease [27], it should be noted that the NCCN criteria for high-risk disease are any of the following [28]:

- PSA ≥20 ng/mL
- Gleason score ≥8
- Clinical stage ≥T3
- Any 2 of: clinical stage T2b or T2c, Gleason score ≥7, PSA of 10 to 20 ng/mL

Transrectal ultrasound

In North America, TRUS is generally performed by urologists for purposes of localizing the prostate gland (not the cancer) prior to systematic biopsy. Conventional grayscale TRUS is not widely used for tumor localization because only 11% to 35% of tumors are sonographically visible and only 17% to 57% of sonographically detected hypoechoic lesions are malignant [29]. In a study of 31,296 cores obtained from 3912 consecutive patients undergoing TRUS with biopsy, there was no statistically significant association between the presence of a hypoechoic lesion and the detection of cancer, whether on a per-patient or per-core basis [30]. Advanced ultrasound (US) techniques, such as Doppler, 3-D US, microbubble contrast-enhanced US, and elastography, have the potential to improve TRUS performance in the future [29,31,32], but none of these refinements have entered routine practice.

Transrectal ultrasound with biopsy

TRUS-guided systematic biopsy has been the standard diagnostic test for prostate cancer since a landmark study in 1989 showed that it was superior to digitally directed biopsy sampling of the prostate [33]. However, because needle positioning relative to tumor location is essentially random, TRUS biopsy has a false-negative rate of 15% to 46% [34] and a tumor undergrading rate of up to 38% when compared to final Gleason score at radical prostatectomy [35]. So-called tumor progression based on Gleason upgrading on repeat systematic biopsy during active surveillance may simply reflect inadequate initial sampling [36]. Despite this substantial sampling error, multiple risk stratification and management schemes rely heavily on systematic biopsy findings of Gleason grade and percentage of tumor-containing cores. Scientifically, it is suboptimal practice for such critical decision making to depend on inherently flawed data.

Multiparametric MRI

Over the last few decades, multiparametric MRI of the prostate has emerged as a powerful tool for the local evaluation of prostate cancer, including volumetric tumor localization within the prostate and assessment of local tumor extent and aggressiveness, as reviewed in more detail below according to clinical scenario. Pioneering studies in the 1980s established that cancer generally appears as an ovoid mass-like or crescentic subcapsular
region of reduced T2 signal. Subsequent multicenter trials were disappointing [37-39] but did not incorporate multiparametric MRI with diffusion, perfusion, or spectroscopic sequences. In particular, diffusion imaging has been seen as a “game changer” by seasoned investigators, and more recent studies using a multiparametric approach have shown substantially improved results [40-44]. A recent meta-analysis [45] incorporating 75 studies and 9796 patients showed sensitivity and specificity of 0.57 (95% CI, 0.49–0.64) and 0.91 (95% CI, 0.88–0.93), respectively, for the diagnosis of extracapsular extension and sensitivity and specificity of 0.58 (95% CI, 0.47–0.68) and 0.96 (95% CI, 0.95–0.97), respectively, for the diagnosis of seminal vesicle invasion. The authors concluded that MRI has high specificity but poor and heterogeneous sensitivity for local prostate cancer staging, although it should be noted that any such meta-analysis inevitably includes studies that may not be considered optimal by current state-of-the-art technical and interpretative standards. Finally, the role of intravenous gadolinium-containing contrast media merits particular attention because, although it is widely recognized that diffusion imaging is a critical component of multiparametric prostate MRI, the role of perfusion imaging is more controversial [46,47]. Prostate cancer typically enhances more rapidly and washes out more quickly than benign prostatic tissue, and so detection may be aided by dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI sequences. Conversely, perfusion imaging adds time to study acquisition, poses the small risk of contrast reactions, and adds to the duration and complexity of interpretation by the radiologist tasked with reading the study. Recent work suggests the incremental benefit of perfusion imaging on tumor detection is relatively modest [48]. Accordingly, when performing a multiparametric prostate MRI, the administration of intravenous gadolinium will likely confer only slightly improved tumor evaluation over the same study performed without contrast.

MRI-targeted biopsy

MRI-targeted biopsy of the prostate, after a diagnostic multiparametric MRI has depicted a focus of possible or probable malignancy, is currently a topic of major scientific interest and promises to dramatically alter the current approach to prostate cancer diagnosis. MRI-guided biopsy may be used for baseline diagnosis in patients who are biopsy naïve, for diagnosis of cancer (often in the central gland) in patients who have had a negative TRUS-guided systematic biopsy but who continue to have an elevated PSA or other cause for clinical concern, for re-evaluation of tumor grade in patients on active surveillance, and for diagnosis of local recurrence in patients who have undergone prior therapy. After identification of a “high-value target,” MRI-targeted biopsy can be performed in 1 of 3 ways [49]:

- Direct or “in bore”: The patient is in the MRI scanner and the needle is placed in the target under MRI visualization. Generally, only the target(s) is/are sampled.
- Fusion: The patient undergoes a standard TRUS-guided biopsy, but MRI targets from a preceding MRI scan are digitally “fused” to the US images so that additional cores can also be taken from those locations under US visualization.
- Cognitive: The patient undergoes a standard TRUS-guided biopsy, but in addition the operator biopsies the MRI target based on visual anatomic coregistration. As might be expected, several studies [50-52], including a prospective comparative trial, have confirmed the inferiority of this approach.

Overall, the clinical paradigm for prostate cancer diagnosis is rapidly moving towards MRI-targeted transrectal biopsy, based on substantial evidence from several centers (notably the National Institutes of Health; New York University [NYU]; University of California, Los Angeles [UCLA]; and Nijmegen) that this approach can transform baseline cancer evaluation when compared with traditional systematic biopsy, with fewer false negatives, better tumor characterization, improved tumor localization, and better treatment stratification, especially stratification to lower-risk cohorts that may be appropriate for active surveillance or focal therapy [23,24,49,53-55].

Computed tomography

Although the primary tumor site may be seen as a focal area of mass-like enhancement in the peripheral prostate on portal venous phase contrast-enhanced CT [56], the primary role of CT in prostate cancer is the detection of nodal metastases. In a meta-analysis of 24 published studies [57], the pooled sensitivity of CT was 0.42 (95% CI, 0.26–0.56) and pooled specificity was 0.82 (95% CI, 0.8–0.83). These relatively disappointing results likely reflect the limitations of the underlying assumption that nodal size reflects nodal content—it is well known that this paradigm has limited validity. The poor performance of CT for detection of nodal metastases has been confirmed in other recent studies [58,59]. NCCN guidelines [28] recommend CT if clinical stage is T3 or T4 or nomogram probability of lymph node involvement exceeds 10%. Recent European guidelines note that patients
with stage T2 or less, PSA <10 ng/mL, Gleason score ≤6, and <50% positive biopsy cores have a <10% likelihood of having node metastases and do not need nodal evaluation [60].

**Bone scan**

Bone scintigraphy remains the standard test used for detection of bone metastases in high-risk patients, although emerging techniques like positron emission tomography/CT with new tracers such as sodium fluoride or choline and whole-body MRI may replace the traditional bone scan in the years to come. In the absence of these advanced techniques, it is ideal if bone scintigraphy is performed at sites with single-photon emission CT/CT capability. That said, bone scintigraphy remains widely available, relatively cheap, and accurate. A recent meta-analysis demonstrated a sensitivity of 0.79 (95% CI, 0.73–0.83), a specificity of 0.82 (95% CI, 0.78–0.85), and an area under the curve of 0.89 for the diagnosis of bone metastases by bone scintigraphy [61]. NCCN guidelines [28] recommend bone scintigraphy if baseline PSA is ≥20, clinical stage is T2 and PSA is ≥10, clinical stage is T3 or T4, Gleason score is ≥8, or any symptoms are suggestive of bone metastases.

**Discussion of Imaging Modalities by Variant**

**Variant 1: Clinically suspected prostate cancer, no prior biopsy (biopsy naïve). Detection.**

**Transrectal ultrasound**

In isolation, TRUS is inaccurate for prostate cancer detection [29,30] and is not recommended for this purpose.

**Transrectal ultrasound–guided biopsy**

Despite significant concerns related to both underdiagnosis and overdiagnosis [34,35,62], TRUS-guided systematic prostate biopsy remains the standard of care for diagnosis in patients with clinically suspected prostate cancer.

**Magnetic resonance imaging**

Historically, given the primacy of TRUS-guided systematic biopsy for prostate cancer diagnosis, MRI has not been widely used in biopsy-naïve patients with clinically suspected prostate cancer based on an abnormal digital rectal examination or serum PSA level. However, the emerging literature on the use of MRI targeting to guide baseline prostate biopsy (whether by fusion or in-bore approaches) provides strong evidence in favor of MRI to assist in tumor localization in this population. For example, in a prospective study of 223 biopsy-naïve patients, high-value targets (ie, lesions with a Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System [PI-RADS] score of 4 or 5) were seen in 109 patients (49%), and 94 of these patients (86%) had positive targeted in-bore biopsies [63]. Of the 94 patients with MRI-guided biopsies, the targeted cores showed intermediate- or high-risk disease in 90 (96%), and 16 of the patients (17%) had negative systematic biopsy results. Such results suggest prebiopsy MRI is a useful adjunct for tumor localization in biopsy-naïve patients.

**MRI-targeted biopsy**

Given the emerging data on the utility of prebiopsy diagnostic MRI for tumor localization, MRI-targeted biopsy is among the appropriate options for biopsy-naïve patients [63].

**Computed tomography**

CT is generally not recommended unless higher-risk disease has been established histologically [27,28].

**Bone scan**

Bone scintigraphy is generally not recommended unless or until the presence of higher-risk disease has been established histologically [27,28].

**Variant 2: Clinically suspected prostate cancer, prior negative TRUS-guided biopsy. Detection.**

**Transrectal ultrasound**

In isolation, TRUS is inaccurate for prostate cancer detection [29,30] and is not recommended for this purpose.

**Transrectal ultrasound–guided biopsy**

In patients with clinically suspected prostate cancer who have had 1 negative standard TRUS-guided systematic biopsy, a second TRUS-guided systematic biopsy will be positive in approximately 15% to 20% of cases [64-67], and so a second repeat biopsy in this setting is reasonable. The yield from additional systematic biopsies, particularly the yield of clinically significant cancer, falls off rapidly, with reported positive rates for the third biopsy of 8% to 17% and for the fourth biopsy of 7% to 12% [64-66,68], suggesting alternative approaches such as MRI-guided biopsy or saturation biopsy may be more appropriate in the niche setting of patients with 2 or more negative TRUS-guided systematic biopsies and persistent clinical concern for prostate cancer.
Emerging data suggest using MRI to localize high-value targets for possible MRI-guided biopsy is an appropriate approach to patients with clinically suspected prostate cancer and 1 or more prior negative TRUS-guided systematic biopsies. In a series of 105 patients from UCLA with a negative TRUS biopsy and persistently elevated PSA, multiparametric MRI demonstrated intermediate- and high-value targets in 34 (32%) and 14 (13%) patients, respectively, with corresponding fusion cancer detection rates of 23% and 88% [69]. In a similar series of 172 patients from NYU, targets with suspicion scores of 3, 4, and 5 were seen in 60 (35%), 40 (23%), and 18 (10%), with overall cancer detection rates of 17%, 42%, and 89%, respectively [70]. In a Nijmegen study of 438 patients with a PSA over 4.0 ng/mL and 1 or more prior negative TRUS biopsies, 265 patients were found to have targets worthy of MRI-guided biopsy, with a cancer detection rate of 41% [53]. Such results suggest prebiopsy MRI is a useful adjunct for tumor localization in biopsy-negative patients.

**MRI-targeted biopsy**

Given the emerging data on the utility of prebiopsy/rebiopsy diagnostic MRI for tumor localization, MRI-targeted biopsy is among the appropriate options for biopsy-negative patients [69,70].

**Computed tomography**

CT is generally not recommended unless higher-risk disease has been established histologically [27,28].

**Bone scan**

Bone scintigraphy is generally not recommended unless or until the presence of higher-risk disease has been established histologically [27,28].

**Variant 3: Clinically established low-risk prostate cancer. Active surveillance.**

**Transrectal ultrasound**

TRUS is inaccurate for prostate cancer detection [29,30] and also has limited accuracy for prostate cancer staging [71] and so is not generally recommended for the evaluation of patients on active surveillance.

**Transrectal ultrasound–guided biopsy**

Many active surveillance programs incorporate serial PSA testing and annual repeat TRUS biopsies, and some form of serial biopsy regimen is certainly the standard practice, although compliance with recommendations for serial biopsy is low [72].

**Magnetic resonance imaging**

The role of MRI in active surveillance has recently been the subject of a meta-analysis incorporating 7 studies and 1028 patients [73]. MRI demonstrated an unrecognized significant lesion in 33% of patients, and targeted biopsy demonstrated disease unsuitable for continued active surveillance in 15% of these cases. Conversely, only 6% of patients with a negative MRI were found to be outside criteria for active surveillance on repeat biopsy. In another study of 111 patients on active surveillance [74], multiparametric MRI showed actionable targets (PI-RADS scores of 3, 4, or 5) in 70 patients (63%). Sixty-nine of these 70 patients proceeded to targeted biopsy, which was positive in 31, including 16 patients with Gleason pattern 4 or above that was considered to preclude continuation on active surveillance. A study from Toronto showed high-value targets (Likert scores of 4 or 5) in 37 of 71 (52%) patients on active surveillance [75]. Fusion-targeted biopsy was positive for Gleason 7+ cancer in 18 of these 37 patients, including 16 in whom the higher-grade cancer was present specifically in the targeted cores. Conversely, only 1 of the 35 patients without a high-value target was found to have Gleason 7+ cancer on rebiopsy. Other similar studies have confirmed that a negative MRI is a favorable prognostic finding in patients on active surveillance [76,77], and only 9% of such patients are reclassified to higher-risk disease on repeat biopsy [78].

**MRI-targeted biopsy**

Existing data support the use of MRI to look for visible disease as a potential biopsy target in men on active surveillance [79]. The use of serial MRI to evaluate disease progression is intuitively appealing, but as noted in a recent systematic review, “Robust data on the use of repeat MRI in active surveillance are lacking. Prospective studies with clear definitions of radiological significance and progression are needed before this approach can be adopted” [80].

**Computed tomography**

CT is generally not recommended unless higher-risk disease has been established [27,28].
Bone scan
Bone scintigraphy is generally not recommended unless higher-risk disease has been established [27,28].

Variant 4: Clinically established intermediate-risk prostate cancer. Staging and/or surveillance.

Transrectal ultrasound
TRUS is unlikely to provide useful incremental information in patients with an established diagnosis of intermediate-risk prostate cancer and so is not recommended.

Transrectal ultrasound–guided biopsy
Some publications have suggested that active surveillance may be an appropriate management option for at least a subset of patients with intermediate-risk prostate cancer [81,82]. In that setting, some form of serial TRUS-guided biopsy would be appropriate as part of the monitoring regimen.

Magnetic resonance imaging
In addition to standard local and nodal staging observations, multiparametric MRI may be helpful in the management of intermediate-risk prostate cancer by revealing unfavorable disease in patients who may be considering active surveillance, demonstrating more extensive disease that may merit supplementary extended androgen deprivation therapy, localizing dominant disease for focal therapy, or guiding surgical planning [83-86].

MRI-targeted biopsy
Many patients with intermediate-risk disease choose definitive therapy, and targeted biopsy is unlikely to significantly alter management or prognostic counseling. However, MRI-targeted biopsy in patients with established intermediate-risk disease may be appropriate in selected circumstances, for example, in patients with Gleason score 3+4 cancer who might be considering active surveillance but who would opt for more aggressive therapy if targeted biopsy demonstrated Gleason score 4+3 or higher disease.

Computed tomography
CT or MRI for nodal staging is generally appropriate in intermediate-risk patients, since the a priori risk of nodal disease exceeds 10% [28,60].

Bone scan
NCCN guidelines and existing literature [28,87] recommend bone scintigraphy if baseline PSA is ≥20, clinical stage is T2 and PSA is ≥10, clinical stage is T3 or T4, Gleason score is ≥8, or any symptoms are suggestive of bone metastases. Many intermediate-risk patients would meet these criteria.

Variant 5: Clinically established high-risk prostate cancer. Staging.

Transrectal ultrasound
TRUS is unlikely to provide useful incremental information in patients with an established diagnosis of high-risk prostate cancer and so is not recommended.

Transrectal ultrasound–guided biopsy
TRUS-guided biopsy is unlikely to provide useful incremental information in patients with an established diagnosis of high-risk prostate cancer and so is not recommended.

Magnetic resonance imaging
In addition to standard local and nodal staging observations, multiparametric MRI may be helpful in the management of high-risk prostate cancer by demonstrating more extensive disease that may merit supplementary extended androgen deprivation therapy, localizing dominant disease for focal therapy, or guiding surgical planning [83-86].

MRI-targeted biopsy
Most patients with high-risk disease require definitive therapy, and targeted biopsy is unlikely to significantly alter management or prognostic counseling.

Computed tomography
CT or MRI for nodal staging is generally appropriate in high-risk patients, since the a priori risk of nodal disease exceeds 10% [28,60].
Bone scan

NCCN guidelines and existing literature [28,87] recommend bone scintigraphy if baseline PSA is ≥20, clinical stage is T2 and PSA is ≥10, clinical stage is T3 or T4, Gleason score is ≥8, or any symptoms are suggestive of bone metastases. Essentially all high-risk patients would meet these criteria.

Summary of Recommendations

- For diagnosis of prostate cancer, TRUS-guided systematic biopsy remains the standard procedure in routine clinical practice. However, MRI-targeted biopsy of high-value lesions identified at multiparametric MRI, whether by fusion or in-bore techniques, is increasingly emerging as an important diagnostic tool that may be used to supplement (and perhaps someday supplant) TRUS-guided biopsy. MRI-targeted biopsy necessarily requires performance of a preceding multiparametric MRI. MRI-targeted biopsy is particularly appropriate for patients with an elevated PSA after 1 or more negative TRUS-guided biopsies who have a high-value target at diagnostic multiparametric MRI.

- For monitoring of lower-risk prostate cancer being managed by active surveillance, serial TRUS-guided systematic biopsy remains a standard component of active surveillance regimens. MRI-targeted biopsy of high-value lesions identified at multiparametric MRI, whether by fusion or in-bore techniques, is increasingly emerging as an important supplementary tool that often results in tumor upgrading. The role of serial multiparametric MRI as part of a surveillance regimen is undetermined.

- For staging of intermediate- or higher-risk prostate cancer, multiparametric MRI offers reasonable accuracy in the evaluation of extracapsular extension and seminal vesicle invasion. MRI or CT can be used to evaluate pelvic and retroperitoneal lymph nodes, whereas bone scintigraphy remains the standard procedure for evaluation of possible bone metastases.

Summary of Evidence

Of the 93 references cited in the ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Prostate Cancer-Pretreatment Detection Staging and Surveillance document, 1 reference is categorized as a good-quality therapeutic reference. Additionally, 87 references are categorized as diagnostic references including 3 well-designed studies, 23 good-quality studies, and 33 quality studies that may have design limitations. There are 28 references that may not be useful as primary evidence. There are 5 references that are meta-analysis studies.

The 93 references cited in the ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Prostate Cancer-Pretreatment Detection Staging and Surveillance document were published from 1989 through 2016.

Although there are references that report on studies with design limitations, 27 well-designed or good-quality studies provide good evidence.

Relative Radiation Level Information

Potential adverse health effects associated with radiation exposure are an important factor to consider when selecting the appropriate imaging procedure. Because there is a wide range of radiation exposures associated with different diagnostic procedures, a relative radiation level (RRL) indication has been included for each imaging examination. The RRLs are based on effective dose, which is a radiation dose quantity that is used to estimate population total radiation risk associated with an imaging procedure. Patients in the pediatric age group are at inherently higher risk from exposure, both because of organ sensitivity and longer life expectancy (relevant to the long latency that appears to accompany radiation exposure). For these reasons, the RRL dose estimate ranges for pediatric examinations are lower as compared to those specified for adults (see Table below). Additional information regarding radiation dose assessment for imaging examinations can be found in the ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Radiation Dose Assessment Introduction document.
Relative Radiation Level Designations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative Radiation Level*</th>
<th>Adult Effective Dose Estimate Range</th>
<th>Pediatric Effective Dose Estimate Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☀</td>
<td>0 mSv</td>
<td>0 mSv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☀☢</td>
<td>&lt;0.1 mSv</td>
<td>&lt;0.03 mSv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☀☢☢</td>
<td>0.1-1 mSv</td>
<td>0.03-0.3 mSv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☀☢☢☢</td>
<td>1-10 mSv</td>
<td>0.3-3 mSv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☀☢☢☢☢</td>
<td>10-30 mSv</td>
<td>3-10 mSv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☀☢☢☢☢☢</td>
<td>30-100 mSv</td>
<td>10-30 mSv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*RRL assignments for some of the examinations cannot be made, because the actual patient doses in these procedures vary as a function of a number of factors (e.g., region of the body exposed to ionizing radiation, the imaging guidance that is used). The RRLs for these examinations are designated as “Varies”.

Supporting Documents
For additional information on the Appropriateness Criteria methodology and other supporting documents go to www.acr.org/ac.

References


The ACR Committee on Appropriateness Criteria and its expert panels have developed criteria for determining appropriate imaging examinations for diagnosis and treatment of specified medical condition(s). These criteria are intended to guide radiologists, radiation oncologists and referring physicians in making decisions regarding radiologic imaging and treatment. Generally, the complexity and severity of a patient’s clinical condition should dictate the selection of appropriate imaging procedures or treatments. Only those examinations generally used for evaluation of the patient’s condition are ranked. Other imaging studies necessary to evaluate other co-existent diseases or other medical consequences of this condition are not considered in this document. The availability of equipment or personnel may influence the selection of appropriate imaging procedures or treatments. Imaging techniques classified as investigational by the FDA have not been considered in developing these criteria; however, study of new equipment and applications should be encouraged. The ultimate decision regarding the appropriateness of any specific radiologic examination or treatment must be made by the referring physician and radiologist in light of all the circumstances presented in an individual examination.
### Appendix 1. D’Amico risk stratification system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk group</th>
<th>Characteristics*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low</strong></td>
<td>PSA &lt;10 ng/mL and Gleason score ≤6 and clinical stage T1 or T2a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intermediate</strong></td>
<td>PSA ≥10 and &lt;20 or Gleason score = 7 or clinical stage T2b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High</strong></td>
<td>PSA ≥20 ng/mL or Gleason score ≥8 or clinical stage ≥T2c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Clinical stage based on digital rectal examination results [88]:
- T1: Clinically unapparent tumor neither palpable nor visible by imaging
- T2: Palpable or visible tumor confined to prostate
- T2a: Tumor involves one-half of one lobe or less
- T2b: Tumor involves more than one-half of one lobe but not both lobes
- T2c: Tumor involves both lobes
- T3: Tumor extends through the prostate capsule
- T3a: Unilateral or bilateral extracapsular extension
- T3b: Tumor invades seminal vesicle(s)
- T4: Tumor is fixed or invades adjacent structures other than seminal vesicles, such as external sphincter, rectum, bladder, levator muscles, and/or pelvic wall

### Appendix 2. NCCN risk stratification system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk group</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very low</strong></td>
<td>Clinical stage T1c and PSA &lt;10 ng/mL and PSA density &lt;0.15 ng/mL/g and 1–2 positive biopsy cores with ≤50% cancer in each and Gleason score ≤6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low</strong></td>
<td>Clinical stage T1-T2a and PSA &lt;10 ng/mL and Gleason score ≤6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intermediate</strong></td>
<td>Clinical stage T2b-T2c or PSA 10–20 ng/mL or Gleason score 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High</strong></td>
<td>Clinical stage T3a or PSA &gt;20 ng/mL or Gleason score 8+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very high</strong></td>
<td>Clinical stage T3b-T4 or primary Gleason pattern 5 or &gt;4 cores with Gleason 8+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appendix 3: Likelihood of locally advanced or distant disease in prostate cancer stratified by D’Amico risk category [89-93].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D’Amico risk group</th>
<th>Extracapsular extension</th>
<th>Seminal vesicle invasion</th>
<th>Nodal metastases</th>
<th>Positive bone scan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low</strong></td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intermediate</strong></td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1.6%–4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High</strong></td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>21%–41%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>