

# Progress in targeted therapy for prostate cancer via cell surface proteins (Review)

HUA LUO<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Urology, Deyang Hospital of Sichuan Provincial People's Hospital, Deyang, Sichuan 618000, P.R. China;

<sup>2</sup>Department of Urology, The Second People's Hospital of Deyang City, Deyang, Sichuan 618000, P.R. China

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**Abstract.** Prostate cancer (PCa), particularly metastatic castration-resistant PCa, remains a significant therapeutic challenge. Cell-surface proteins have emerged as promising therapeutic targets. The present review examines the biological characteristics of PCa cell surface proteins focusing on major targets, such as prostate-specific membrane antigen, six-transmembrane epithelial antigen 1, trophoblast cell-surface antigen 2, and prostate stem cell antigen. These targets provide the foundation for the development of emerging therapeutic strategies, including radioligand therapy, antibody-drug conjugates, and bispecific T cells and chimeric antigen receptor T cell therapy. Combining the latest clinical trial data, the present review discusses the efficacy of targeted therapy, the mechanisms of drug therapy resistance, and combination treatment strategies, analyzing their potential application in the management of PCa and exploring prospects for the development of precision therapy in the future. Additionally, this review aims to systematically summarize the relevant progress in this field. In conclusion, the findings provide a theoretical basis and clinical guidance for molecular-targeted therapy in PCa, thereby promoting further research and applications.

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## 1. Introduction

Prostate cancer (PCa) is a leading cause of cancer-related deaths in men worldwide (1). As medical technology evolves, approaches for treating PCa are being regularly refined (2). Metastatic castration-resistant PCa (mCRPC) poses significant therapeutic challenge (3). Current treatment modalities, including hormone therapy, chemotherapy, and radiotherapy, show limited effectiveness against mCRPC and frequently cause considerable adverse effects (4). The progression of metastatic PCa is influenced by multiple factors such as tumor load, molecular traits, and resistance to therapies (5).

Proteins located on the cell surface serve as specific markers for tumors and are increasingly recognized as key targets for targeted therapies in PCa (6). Research indicates that proteins such as prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) are significantly overexpressed in PCa cells, making them promising options for targeted treatment (7). These proteins play a role in tumor proliferation and spread, as well as in mechanisms that allow tumors to evade the immune system (8). Focusing on these surface proteins can enhance treatment efficacy and minimize adverse effects (9).

The shortcomings of conventional treatment strategies have led to the development of targeted therapies. Although chemotherapy and radiation therapy continue to play crucial roles in PCa management, their effectiveness is frequently hindered by variations within tumors and resistance to medications (10). Recently, therapies that focus on cell surface proteins have gained attention as innovative treatment options (11). This strategy not only targets particular cancer cells but also enhances the precision of drug delivery and increases the availability of medications in the body (12). Consequently, the management of mCRPC must differ from that of hormone-sensitive diseases (13,14), necessitating personalized strategies that target specific cell surface

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*Correspondence to:* Dr Hua Luo, Department of Urology, Deyang Hospital of Sichuan Provincial People's Hospital, 340, Section 1, Minjiang West Road, Jingyang, Deyang, Sichuan 618000, P.R. China  
E-mail: 276806341@qq.com

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markers [such as PSMA and six-transmembrane epithelial antigen 1 (STEAP1)] and often employ combination therapies to overcome resistance (15-17).

This review aims to comprehensively outline the advancements in targeted treatments associated with PCa cell surface proteins, focusing on the underlying molecular processes, therapeutic approaches, and their clinical relevance. By examining various strategies for targeted therapy and their implementation in clinical settings, it seeks to offer improved treatment alternatives for patients with PCa and inform future research pathways.

## 2. Clinical challenges and therapeutic differentiation in castration-resistant PCA

mCRPC represents a distinct and advanced stage of PCa characterized by disease progression despite androgen deprivation therapy (18). The management of mCRPC necessitates a differentiated approach compared to hormone-sensitive PCa due to its unique biological behavior, resistance mechanisms, and therapeutic vulnerabilities (19). Key challenges in mCRPC include persistent androgen receptor (AR) signaling, intratumoral heterogeneity, adaptive immune evasion, and the emergence of treatment-resistant clones (20).

Current standard therapies for mCRPC, including novel hormonal agents (such as enzalutamide and abiraterone), chemotherapies (for example docetaxel), and radiopharmaceuticals (such as <sup>177</sup>Lu-PSMA-617), have demonstrated survival benefits (21). However, their efficacy is often limited by primary or acquired resistance, which is driven by AR alterations, neuroendocrine differentiation, and an immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment (TME) (22).

Therapeutic differentiation in mCRPC involves several key approaches: i) Molecular stratification based on genomic alterations (for example BRCA1/2 and PTEN), AR variant expression, and PSMA avidity (23); ii) sequential and combination therapies that leverage synergistic effects between AR-directed agents, radioligands, immunotherapies, and targeted agents (24); and iii) liquid biopsy and biomarker monitoring utilizing circulating tumor cells (CTCs) and cell-free DNA to track clonal evolution and treatment response (25). Emerging evidence supports the integration of multi-omics profiling and artificial intelligence (AI) to guide personalized therapy in mCRPC, emphasizing the necessity for dynamic treatment adaptation in response to evolving tumor biology (26).

## 3. Biological characteristics and main targets of PCa cell surface proteins

**PSMA.** PSMA is a glycoprotein that spans the cell membrane and is predominantly found in PCa cells, especially in aggressive forms, such as metastatic, poorly differentiated, and castration-resistant variants, where its elevated presence often correlates with increased tumor severity (27). Although normal tissues, including parts of the urinary system and certain nerve tissues, exhibit lower PSMA levels, PSMA is markedly overexpressed on cancer cell surfaces (6). This overexpression plays a crucial role in tumor cell growth and survival within the TME, and possibly in promoting new blood vessel formation

in tumors. The distinct expression pattern of PSMA, characterized by high levels in tumors and minimal expression in non-tumor tissues, makes it a promising therapeutic target (6). Treatment with radiopharmaceuticals, such as Lu-PSMA-617, can effectively destroy cancer cells while sparing healthy tissue (28). Additionally, PSMA is not exclusive to PCa cells; it is also present in some newly formed blood vessels associated with tumors (29). The use of radiolabeled compounds, such as 68Ga-PSMA-11, enhances the diagnostic precision for detecting metastatic cancer (30). However, PSMA expression shows intra- and intertumoral heterogeneity, which may lead to varying treatment responses (31). In addition, its low expression in normal tissues, such as the salivary glands and kidneys, may cause off-target toxicity, requiring close monitoring during treatment (32).

**STEAP1.** STEAP1 is frequently overexpressed in PCa, especially in advanced and metastatic forms, with >85% of prostate tumors exhibiting this expression (33). By contrast, normal tissues show minimal expression, highlighting their potential as significant targets for therapy (34). This is further supported by the link with biomarkers found in STEAP1-positive extracellular vesicles, which can assist in both diagnosis and prognosis (35). As a cell surface antigen, STEAP1 plays a role in various aspects of tumor development, including cell growth, migration, survival, intercellular communication, and metal metabolism (36). It also enhances tumor cell functions through pathways such as PI3K/Akt and is linked to aggressive characteristics such as invasion and metastasis (37). Previous research on PCa models have demonstrated that STEAP1 exerts antitumor effects when used in chimeric antigen receptor T (CAR-T) cell therapy (38). When combined with localized IL-12 therapy, it was shown to improve treatment effectiveness by modifying the TME and countering antigen escape (29). Moreover, clinical trials are being conducted using STEAP1-targeted T-cell inducers and antibody-drug conjugates (ADCs) (39). In summary, STEAP1 is a promising target in PCa; however, its expression dynamics in advanced cancer and association with metal metabolism need to be further elucidated.

**Other key cell surface proteins.** Additional important proteins on cell surfaces include trophoblast cell-surface antigen 2 (TROP-2), a transmembrane protein frequently found at elevated levels in various cancers, including PCa, making it a promising candidate for ADCs (40). Ongoing clinical trials are assessing the effectiveness of sacituzumab-govitecan in treating urothelial carcinoma and PCa, with supportive evidence of its anticancer properties emerging from animal studies (41). Likewise, prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) is present in ~90% of PCa cases and is associated with tumor aggressiveness, leading to the development of targeted immunotherapies such as CAR-T cells and ADCs (42). Nonetheless, obstacles such as the immunosuppressive nature of the TME, potential off-target effects, and variability in expression levels may pose challenges (43). Furthermore, delta-like ligand 3 (DLL3) is overexpressed in neuroendocrine PCa (NEPC), linking it to tumor severity and patient prognosis (44). Monoclonal antibodies and radioimmunotherapy, including <sup>177</sup>Lu-labeled antibodies, have demonstrated preclinical promise. However,

Table I. Summary of major cell surface protein targets in prostate cancer and their characteristics.

| Target | Expression profile   | Primary functions   | Therapeutic modalities  | Development stage/ challenges   |
|--------|--|---|---|---|
| PSMA   | Highly expressed in mCRPC, high-grade tumors, and tumor neovasculature; low-level expression in salivary glands and kidneys (18,19,21) | Cell growth, survival, TME adaptation, and a potential role in angiogenesis (18,19,21)      | RLT (such as 177Lu-PSMA-617), ADCs, BiTEs, and CAR-T (20,39,45,48,52) | Standard of care (mCRPC); challenges: Expression heterogeneity, off-target toxicity, drug resistance (23,24,106)  |
| STEAP1 | Overexpressed in >85% of PCa, especially in advanced/metastatic disease; minimal expression in normal tissues (25)                     | Cell proliferation, migration, intercellular communication, and metal ion metabolism (6,28) | CAR-T, ADCs, and BiTEs (29,30,51)                                     | Under clinical investigation; challenges: Expression dynamics in advanced cancer, role in metal metabolism (6,25) |
| TROP-2 | Highly expressed in various carcinomas (including mCRPC), and associated with poor prognosis (31)                                      | Calcium signaling, cell proliferation, migration, and adhesion (31)                         | ADCs (such as sacituzumab govitecan) (31,32)                          | Clinically validated (ADCs); less explored in other modalities (such as CAR-T) (31)                               |
| PSCA   | Upregulated in ~90% of PCa cases, and associated with tumor aggressiveness (33)  | Cell proliferation, invasion, and stem cell-like properties (33)                            | CAR-T, and ADCs (33)  | Preclinical/early clinical; challenges: Immunosuppressive TME, and off-target potential (33,34)                   |
| DLL3   | Specifically overexpressed in NEPC (35)  | Ligand for Notch signaling pathway, and involved in cell fate determination (35)            | Radioimmunotherapy, and monoclonal antibodies (35,36)                 | Preclinical/early clinical; challenges: Expression in non-neuroendocrine tumors and patient variability (35)      |
| CELSR3 | Highly expressed in NEPC (37)  | Regulates cell polarity and migration via the Wnt/PCP pathway (37)                          | CAR-T and ADCs (exploratory) (37)                                     | Emerging target (preclinical); requires more functional studies and clinical validation (37)                      |
| GPC3   | Upregulated in CRPC (38)   | Promotes tumor growth by regulating the Hedgehog signaling pathway (38)                     | ADCs (exploratory) (39,103)   | Emerging target (preclinical); ADC trials in liver cancer inform PCa potential (38,103)                           |

PSMA, prostate-specific membrane antigen; CRPC, castration-resistant prostate cancer; STEAP1, six-transmembrane epithelial antigen of the prostate 1; TROP-2, trophoblast cell-surface antigen 2; PSCA, prostate stem cell antigen; DLL3, delta-like ligand 3; CELSR3, cadherin EGF LAG seven-pass G-type receptor 3; GPC3, glypican-3; TME, tumor microenvironment; mCRPC, metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer; NEPC, neuroendocrine prostate cancer; RLT, radioligand therapy; ADCs, antibody-drug conjugates; BiTEs, bispecific t-cell engagers; CAR-T, chimeric antigen receptor t-cell therapy; PCa, prostate cancer.

concerns regarding their expression in non-neuroendocrine tumors and patient variability must be resolved (45). In addition, emerging targets, such as cadherin EGF LAG seven-pass G-type receptor 3 (CELSR3) and glypican-3 (GPC3), have also attracted attention. CELSR3 is highly expressed in NEPC and is involved in the regulation of cell polarity and migration through the Wnt/PCP signaling pathway; its overexpression is associated with tumor invasiveness. Research has explored its potential as a target for CAR-T cells and ADC (46). GPC3 is upregulated in castration-resistant PCa and promotes tumor growth by regulating the Hh signaling pathway. Preclinical studies have shown that GPC3-targeting antibodies can inhibit tumor progression, and phase I clinical trials are underway (47) (Table I).

#### 4. Therapeutic strategies targeting surface proteins of PCa cells

**Radionuclide treatment.** The drug 177Lu-PSMA-617 is a radioligand used for mCRPC that targets PSMA to deliver the radioactive isotope 177Lu directly to cancer cells, leading to their destruction (48). Findings from the VISION trial indicated that it notably enhanced both overall survival and quality of life in patients, and its favorable tolerability has established it as a standard treatment for mCRPC (49). Currently, there is growing interest in exploring novel radioactive isotopes, such as 161Tb-PSMA, which may offer promising avenues for combination therapies (50). Clinical studies have demonstrated the safety and effectiveness of 161Tb-PSMA, suggesting that

its use along with  $^{177}\text{Lu}$ -PSMA-617 could potentially amplify therapeutic outcomes (51). Overall, radioligand therapy (RLT), such as  $^{177}\text{Lu}$ -PSMA-617, has been demonstrated to significantly improve survival in patients with mCRPC; however, drug resistance and heterogeneous expression remain major challenges.

**ADCs.** ADCs are designed to transport cytotoxic medications directly to cancer cells using antibodies that specifically attach to tumor antigens (52). This targeted approach enhances the therapeutic effectiveness while minimizing harm to healthy tissues (53). PSMA is recognized as a well-established therapeutic target that facilitates efficient delivery of ADCs. Clinical studies have indicated favorable results and manageable side effects in patients with mCRPC, including a 50% or more reduction in prostate-specific antigen levels during second-line treatments, along with some instances of complete responses (54). Additionally, TROP-2, which is prominently expressed in metastatic PCa and linked to poor prognosis, represents another significant target for ADCs, showing encouraging clinical results (40). In contrast to conventional chemotherapy, the targeted nature of ADCs mitigates widespread toxicity and drug resistance (55). ADCs achieve precise delivery; however, the internalization efficiency of the target, linker stability, and off-target toxicity limit their widespread applications.

**Bispecific T-cell engagers (BiTEs).** BiTEs are designed to bind both tumor-specific antigens and CD3 receptors on T cells, thereby effectively linking T cells to cancer cells (56). This connection not only activates T cells to kill tumor cells but also facilitates the direct destruction of the tumor. For instance, AMG 160, which targets PSMA, elicits cytotoxic effects in PCa, whereas BiTEs that target STEAP1 further improve therapeutic outcomes (57). In addition to their direct effects on tumors, BiTEs enhance the immune response against cancer by promoting the release of cytokines from activated T cells, which, in turn, activate nearby immune cells (58). Although the combination of BiTEs with immune checkpoint inhibitors has the potential to address the immunosuppressive environments found in 'cold tumors', such as PCa, their application in clinical settings is hindered by issues such as cytokine release syndrome (CRS) and other immune-related adverse effects (irAEs) (59). BiTEs activate T cells with strong cytotoxic effects; however, CRS and neurotoxicity limit their clinical application.

**CAR-T cell therapy.** CAR-T cell therapy is a groundbreaking immunotherapeutic approach. Preclinical research has demonstrated that CAR-T cells targeting the STEAP1 antigen in PCa cells can effectively identify and eliminate tumor cells (60). Additionally, CAR-T therapy targeting PSMA has been proven effective in patients with metastatic disease. Studies conducted *in vitro* and in animal models revealed enhanced anti-tumor properties, particularly when combined with chemotherapy agents (60,61). Nonetheless, obstacles, such as the immunosuppressive nature of the TME and the mechanisms of antigen escape, hinder their overall effectiveness, leading to the exploration of dual CAR-T cells paired with IL-23 antibodies to enhance their proliferation and functionality (62). NEPC is

a particularly aggressive variant that poses distinct treatment challenges owing to the presence of specific antigens. CAR-T cells targeting carcinoembryonic antigen-related cell adhesion molecule 5 have shown significant cytotoxic potential in preclinical studies, thereby addressing some of the shortcomings of traditional therapies (63). Although CAR-T has made breakthroughs in hematologic tumors, its efficacy is limited in solid tumors such as PCa, mainly due to: i) Immunosuppressive cells [such as myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs)] and factors (such as TGF- $\beta$ ) in the TME inhibiting T-cell function (64); ii) physical barriers such as fibrotic stroma hindering T-cell infiltration (65); and iii) antigen heterogeneity leading to antigen escape (66). By contrast, hematological tumors often exhibit more uniform antigen expression and a less immunosuppressive microenvironment, which facilitates the efficacy of CAR-T therapy (67). CAR-T cells exhibit potential in PCa, however the obstacles presented by the solid TME and antigen escape limit their efficacy, requiring combined strategies to overcome this bottleneck.

**Comparison of BiTEs and CAR-T therapy.** BiTEs and CAR-T cells are both T cell-directed therapies; however, each has advantages and disadvantages. BiTEs are easy to prepare, act quickly, and can be easily combined with immune checkpoint inhibitors (57); however, they have a short half-life and require continuous infusion, and the risk of CRS is high (59). Although CAR-T is durable and can expand *in vivo*, it is complex to prepare, costly, and easily inhibited by the TME in solid tumors (62,65). In summary, BiTEs offer a cost-effective, rapid response option for short-term intervention, whereas CAR-T therapy provides durable, personalized control, but faces manufacturing and TME challenges in PCa. The choice should be guided by treatment goals and patient-specific factors.

**Nanotechnology and targeted delivery mechanisms.** The use of nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems, which include functionalized nanoparticles, such as gold and polymeric carriers, allows for the precise targeting of cancer cells that express PSMA (68). This approach significantly improves drug bioavailability and can decrease systemic toxicity by 50-70% (68). These systems enhance the solubility and circulation duration of drugs, encourage tumor-specific accumulation to enhance effectiveness, and minimize side effects, while enabling treatment response monitoring through imaging methods (69). Furthermore, ultrasound-responsive nanocarriers are effective in delivering small interfering RNA to suppress gene expression in PCa cells (70). Nonetheless, the transition to clinical applications encounters obstacles, such as biocompatibility, immune reactions, and mechanisms of drug resistance. Nanocarriers enhance drug targeting and bioavailability; however, biocompatibility, immunogenicity, and large-scale production are challenges for translation.

Different treatment strategies have distinct advantages and disadvantages. RLT (such as  $^{177}\text{Lu}$ -PSMA-617) has a high response rate in PSMA-high-expressing mCRPC but may cause myelosuppression (71); ADCs have strong targeting but carry the risk of off-target toxicity (72); BiTEs activate T cells rapidly but can easily lead to cytokine release syndrome (73); and CAR-T therapy has been successful in

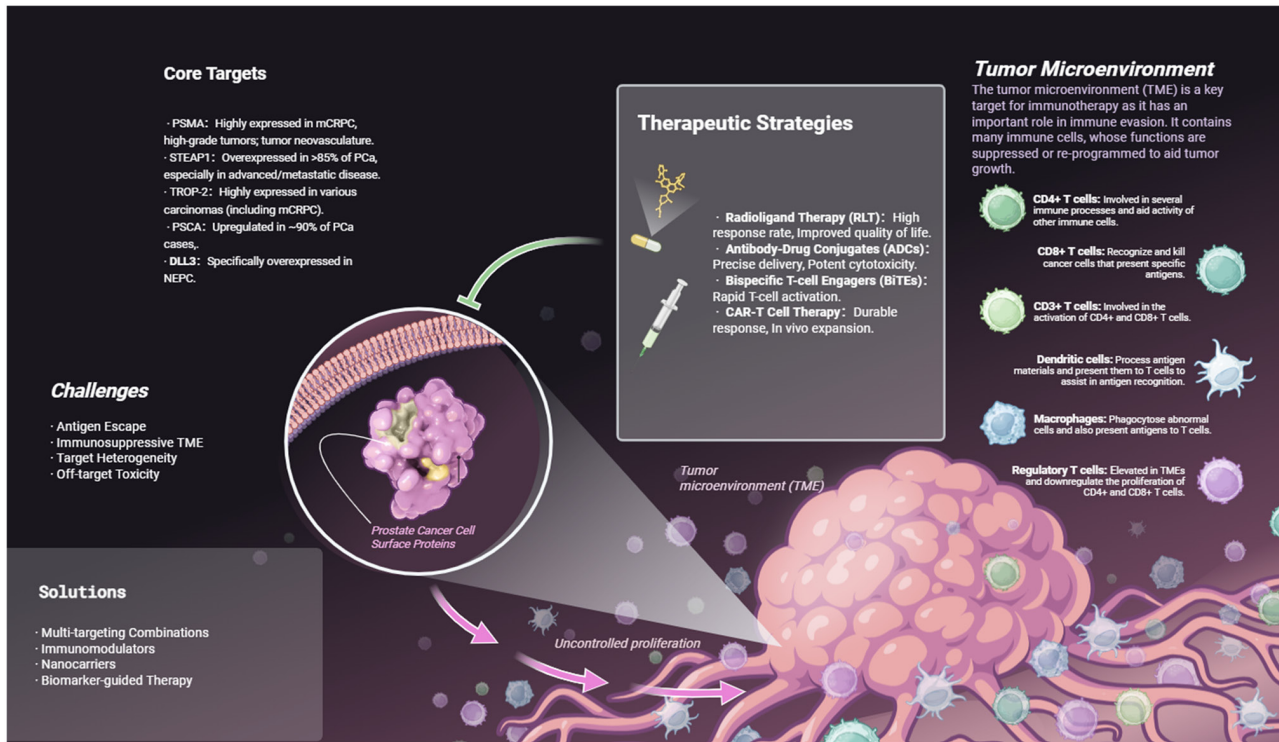


Figure 1. Therapeutic strategies targeting prostate cancer cell surface proteins and associated challenges. Schematic overview of key cell surface targets in prostate cancer (such as PSMA, STEAP1, TROP-2) and the corresponding therapeutic strategies, including RLT, ADCs, BiTEs, and CAR-T cell therapy. Major challenges such as antigen escape and an immunosuppressive microenvironment are highlighted, along with potential solutions including multi-targeting approaches and immunomodulation. PSMA, prostate-specific membrane antigen; STEAP1, six-transmembrane epithelial antigen of prostate 1; TROP-2, trophoblast cell-surface antigen 2; RLT, radioligand therapy; ADCs, antibody-drug conjugates; BiTEs, bispecific T-cell engagers; CAR-T, chimeric antigen receptor T-cell therapy; PSCA, prostate stem cell antigen; DLL3, delta-like ligand 3; TME, tumor microenvironment.

hematologic neoplasms but is limited in solid tumors such as PCa owing to TME suppression, resulting in limited efficacy (74). Longitudinal comparisons showed that both BiTEs and CAR-T cells are T cell-directed therapies, but BiTEs are cost-effective, quick to deploy, and suitable for short-term interventions, while CAR-T modifications are durable but complex to manufacture, making them more suitable for individualized long-term treatment (75) (Fig. 1).

## 5. Mechanisms and strategies of resistance to cell surface protein targeted therapy

### *Downregulation of antigen expression and antigen escape.*

The reduction in antigen expression and the phenomenon of antigen escape are significant factors in how tumor cells avoid detection by the immune system (76). This downregulation is often associated with various strategies employed by tumor cells to elicit immune responses. In PCa cells, the levels of PSMA and similar antigens frequently decrease due to factors such as genetic alterations, epigenetic modifications, and the effects of the TME (77). Lower PSMA expression can lead to a diminished response to immunotherapy, allowing tumor cells to evade immune monitoring (78). Furthermore, decreased antigen expression can hinder T-cell activation, thus impairing the overall immune response (79). Research indicates that antigen escape is intricately linked to the heterogeneity of tumor cells, where variations in antigen expression among different tumor cells contribute to the complexity and

variability of immune responses against tumors (80). To cope with antigen downregulation, multitarget CAR-T cells (such as PSMA and STEAP1) or combined epigenetic regulators (such as HDAC inhibitors) can be used to stabilize antigen expression (81,82).

The diversity of PCa tumors significantly contributes to their ability to evade the immune system (83). Within PCa, various tumor cell subtypes may exhibit resistance to immunotherapy, whereas others respond positively to such treatments (84). This variability leads to differences in antigen expression, enabling some tumor cells to avoid immune detection by reducing or completely losing expression of crucial antigens (85). Additionally, elements within the TME that inhibit immune function, including tumor-associated macrophages and MDSCs, further facilitate the immune evasion of these tumor cells, intensifying the heterogeneity of the tumors (86-88). Consequently, investigating combination therapies aimed at enhancing immune responses and improving treatment effectiveness against tumors is critically important (89).

### *Regulation of the immunosuppressive microenvironment.*

Management of the immunosuppressive tumor environment is a crucial focus in PCa research. Factors associated with tumor-induced immunosuppression, such as S100A4, play a significant role in the initiation and progression of PCa (90). This protein is elevated in numerous tumors and is associated with unfavorable outcomes in patients with PCa (91). The

use of anti-S100A4 antibodies could potentially counteract this immunosuppressive effect in PCa, leading to improved treatment responses (92). Targeting S100A4 with anti-S100A4 antibodies may effectively reverse the immunosuppressive state of PCa, thereby improving patient response rates to treatment (90). The combination of immunomodulatory approaches and targeted therapies has great potential. For example, YY001, a novel EP4 antagonist, is vital for shaping the immune landscape of PCa (93). Research indicates that YY001 can reduce the differentiation and activity of MDSCs, while promoting T-cell growth and antitumor functions (93). By modulating cytokine and chemokine levels, YY001 can effectively restore a more favorable immune environment within tumors, functioning synergistically with anti-PD-1 antibodies to significantly enhance antitumor immune activity (93). The effectiveness of this combined approach highlights the potential of integrating immunomodulatory and targeted therapies for PCa treatment.

*Therapeutic approaches in combination.* To manage PCa, a dual-target strategy is employed in combination therapies (94). For instance, the AR blocker enzalutamide, which also targets PSMA, has been shown to enhance anticancer efficacy and improve survival rates during the emergence of drug resistance (95). In patients with mCRPC, 177Lu-PSMA-617 was associated with improved survival outcomes. Furthermore, integrating RLT with immune checkpoint inhibitors such as PD-1/PD-L1 antibodies or cytokine treatments can stimulate tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes and enhance the TME, thereby improving immune responses (96). The timing and dosage of the combination therapies can be fine-tuned (97). For example, the enzalutamide-docetaxel combination influences E2F transcription factor 1 (E2F1) expression, while synchronizing Janus kinase/signal transducer and activator of transcription with phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitors reveals synthetic lethality during epithelial-mesenchymal transition (98). The mechanisms of drug resistance, such as mutations in AR and epigenetic alterations, can be addressed by targeting pathways related to E2F1 or Snail, including XPO1/PI3K/mTOR (99). The combination of poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors and AR antagonists is effective against certain genetic mutations (100). In summary, multi-targeting approaches incorporate innovative drugs, including small molecules and ADCs, to improve tumor targeting while reducing toxicity. In conclusion, overcoming PCa resistance requires a multifaceted approach that addresses antigen loss, remodels the TME, and blocks compensatory pathways. Future efforts should prioritize the development of dynamic biomarker monitoring and rational, multi-targeted combination regimens.

## 6. Clinical application prospects

*Tailored therapies based on biomarker insights.* The combination and evaluation of multi-omics information, including genomics, transcriptomics, and proteomics, have enabled the discovery of novel biomarkers and treatment targets for PCa (101). Notably, mutations in genes such as BRCA1/2 are significantly linked to patient outcomes. Treatments targeting these mutations, such as PARP, have demonstrated

efficacy (102). Molecular subtyping allows for the identification of high-risk patients and enhances the likelihood of successful treatment outcomes. Advanced AI techniques, such as deep and machine learning, aid in the accurate analysis of biomarkers and refinement of personalized treatment strategies (103). In addition, tracking CTCs is essential. The number of CTCs and the expression of surface proteins (such as PSMA and STEAP1) can indicate tumor severity, prognosis, and response to therapy (104), whereas liquid biopsy methods can efficiently isolate CTCs for ongoing clinical assessment (105). The management of mCRPC should be individualized based on several key factors, including i) tumor burden and metastatic sites; ii) expression levels of cell surface targets (such as PSMA PET/CT standardized uptake value); iii) genome characteristics (such as DNA repair defects); and iv) prior treatment history (106-108). Studies have shown that PSMA-targeted therapy can achieve a response rate of 60-70% in patients with mCRPC and high PSMA expression, while the effect is limited in patients with low expression, emphasizing the importance of target assessment before treatment (109-111).

*Novel therapeutic targets are emerging in the field.* Investigation of innovative surface proteins, including CELSR3, which is notably overexpressed in NEPC, is crucial for controlling cell growth and movement (46). Additionally, GPC3, which is linked to tumor aggressiveness, opens up new possibilities for the targeted treatment of PCa. CAR-T cells targeting CELSR3 have demonstrated significant tumor-suppressive activity in patient-derived xenograft models (37), while GPC3-targeted ADCs showed promising results in phase I trials for liver cancer, and its trial for PCa has been initiated (112). Concurrently, gene therapy-utilizing carriers, such as poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) nanoparticles, can effectively transport nucleic acid medications aimed at PSMA (47). Treatment efficacy can be enhanced by employing a multifaceted approach that influences tumor dynamics and encourages immune cell infiltration (113). Advances in nanotechnology have enabled the development of immunotherapies. Functionalized nanoparticles can transport immunomodulatory agents and checkpoint inhibitors directly to tumor locations, enhancing biodistribution and facilitating synergistic combination therapies through the simultaneous delivery of various therapeutic compounds (114). Multi-omics and AI technologies drive individualized therapy; however, target validation, biomarker standardization, and clinical trial design remain key to achieving precision medicine.

## 7. Challenges and future research directions

*Challenges related to specificity and safety in target selection.* In the context of targeted therapy for PCa, a major challenge in choosing PSMA is the heterogeneity of the targets (115). Differences in PSMA expression across various tumor types and their microenvironments result in notable variations in treatment effectiveness among individuals (116). To address this heterogeneity, multimodal imaging (such as PSMA-PET/MRI) can be used to assess target expression and develop bispecific antibodies that simultaneously target both PSMA and STEAP1. Beyond this heterogeneity, there is the potential for unintended toxicity that can harm non-target tissues (117). This issue can be mitigated by the use

of functionalized nanoparticles and targeted ligands, which improve the precision of therapeutic agents (118). By utilizing tumor-targeting peptides in conjunction with nanoparticles, selective absorption of cancer drugs can be achieved, whereas biocompatible carriers help minimize systemic toxicity and ensure accurate delivery to PCa cells (119).

*Addressing immune-related side effects.* Immunotherapy can result in a range of irAEs when treating PCa and other urological malignancies, including mild symptoms such as rashes and fatigue as well as serious conditions such as endocrine dysfunction and potentially fatal pneumonia (120). Consequently, it is crucial to promptly recognize these issues through consistent monitoring of symptoms and patient feedback (121). Management approaches involve providing symptomatic relief for less severe cases and administering immunosuppressive medications, including steroids, to patients with moderate-to-severe irAEs, alongside patient education (122,123). Similarly, CAR-T cell therapy demonstrates promising effectiveness but requires rigorous safety oversight to monitor adverse reactions such as CRS and neurotoxicity (124). This requires ongoing evaluation of vital signs and neurological health, offering symptomatic care and tocilizumab when appropriate and a thorough pretreatment assessment to identify risk factors (125). In future, priority should be given to exploring the dynamic expression patterns of targets, the mechanisms of immunotoxicity, and the establishment of predictive models to optimize the treatment window.

## 8. Conclusion

Advancements in targeted therapies for PCa cell surface proteins, including PSMA, STEAP1, and TROP-2, have significantly improved the management of mCRPC. Innovative approaches such as RLT (including 177Lu-PSMA-617), ADCs, bispecific antibodies, and CAR-T cell therapy have demonstrated promising results. Nonetheless, challenges, such as antigen escape, immunosuppressive environments, and drug resistance, persist. Addressing these issues requires the development of combination therapies, including targeted drug pairings and the integration of RLT with immunotherapy, alongside personalized treatments informed by biological markers, such as genomic characteristics and CTC analysis. Future research should focus on the following directions: i) Elucidating the molecular mechanisms of antigen escape, particularly the roles of epigenetic regulation and TME-mediated immune suppression. ii) Prioritizing the clinical evaluation of combination strategies, such as RLT (for example 177Lu-PSMA-617) and immune checkpoint inhibitors (including anti-PD-1). iii) Accelerating the translational development of therapies against emerging targets (such as CELSR3- and GPC3-directed ADCs or CAR-T cells). iv) Developing integrated biomarker panels (for example combining ctDNA, CTCs, and radiomics) and standardizing toxicity management guidelines to improve patient quality of life. By fostering interdisciplinary collaboration to expedite the clinical application of novel therapies, targeted PCa treatment can advance to a more precise and effective era.

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HL conceived and designed the review, drafted the manuscript, as well as read and approved the final manuscript. Data authentication is not applicable.

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## Competing interests

The author declares that he has no competing interests.

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