



Orchiectomy Versus Goserelin Each Plus Bicalutamide in Patients with Metastatic Adenocarcinoma of the Prostate: Adverse Events Highlighted

Charles Azuwike Odoemene*

Alex Ekwueme Federal University Teaching Hospital, Nigeria

*Corresponding author: Charles Azuwike Odoemene, Senior Lecturer/Consultant Urologist, Alex Ekwueme Federal University Teaching Hospital, Abakaliki (AEFUTHA), Nigeria

Received: 📅 June 24, 2019

Published: 📅 July 08, 2019

Abstract

Background: Androgen deprivation therapy (ADT), palliation for advanced/metastatic prostate cancer can be medical or surgical. This study compares the results of goserelin injection to orchiectomy each in combination with bicalutamide in patients diagnosed with metastatic adenocarcinoma of the prostate highlighting the adverse events.

Methods: Ninety-six patients with histologically diagnosed adenocarcinoma of the prostate, were prospectively randomized into two arms. Medical arm patients had subcutaneous goserelin injection plus bicalutamide. Surgical arm patients had bilateral orchiectomy plus bicalutamide. A nadir serum prostate specific antigen (PSA) of 0.2ng/ml was chosen and response to treatment was by determining total serum PSA levels at 3 and 6 months. The student's t test, chi-squared test and Kaplan-Meier survival analysis were the instruments for statistical analysis.

Results: Follow up was between 6-30 months. There were 11 (23%) and 9 (19%) deaths in the surgical and medical arms respectively. At 6 months serum PSA levels of $\leq 0.2\text{ng/ml}$ was noted in 44 (92%) and 45 (94%) patients of the medical and surgical castrations respectively. Anemia, impotence, hot flushes were some of the adverse events noted in both groups during the study worse with medical castration.

Conclusion: There was no statistical difference between the oncological efficacy and survival of both arms of treatment but a statistical difference in the adverse events

Keywords: Metastatic adenocarcinoma; Goserelin; Orchiectomy; Bicalutamide

Introduction

Prostate cancer is one of the most fatal cancers and the second most common cancer in men worldwide [1]. African authors have reported that prostate cancer is the commonest genitourinary cancer [2-5] With an estimated 1.1 million new cases and over 300,000 deaths annually, majority of the patients in developed, resource abundant regions are diagnosed with localized and potentially curable disease while patients in developing and resource limited regions typically present with advanced disease and increased mortality [1,6,7]. Androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) based on the primary work of Huggins C and Hodges CV in 1941 is the main stay of treatment for advanced /metastatic prostate cancer [8-15]. ADT may be surgical by way of bilateral orchiectomy or medical by subcutaneous injection of luteinizing hormone releasing hormone (LHRH) agonist. The major circulating androgen is testosterone

with 90% - 95% secreted by the testes and 5% - 10% of adrenal gland origin [14,16-19]. Antiandrogen can be combined with either medical or surgical castration to suppress androgens from both the testes and the adrenals termed maximal androgen blockade (MAB) [16,19]. About 80% - 90% of prostate cancers are androgen dependent at initial diagnosis [20]. Castration either medical or surgical effectively lowers serum testosterone levels by 90% - 95% [10,16,17,20], normalizes serum levels of prostate specific antigen (PSA) in 80% - 90% of patients [21,22]. Consequently, most prostate cancer cells die or go into a dormant phase lasting for a few months to up to 20years [18,23]. There are objective tumor responses in 80% - 90% of patients [15,20,21,24-27]. This study compares the clinical oncological efficacy and survival of goserelin plus bicalutamide to that of bilateral orchiectomy plus

bicalutamide in patients with histologically proven, previously untreated metastatic adenocarcinoma of the prostate. Maximal androgen blockade was adopted in both arms using bicalutamide to block the effects of adrenal androgens hence comparing the clinical effects of goserelin and orchiectomy. Furthermore, adverse events from either of the modalities of treatment were documented. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first time this kind of study is being carried out in Nigeria using maximal androgen blockade in both arms, hence the reason for the study.

Materials and Methods

This prospective study was carried out in two tertiary health institutions in south-east Nigeria. Clearance was got from the ethical committees of both institutions and informed written consent of individual patients got.

Inclusion criteria

- Histologically diagnosed and previously untreated metastatic adenocarcinoma of the prostate
- Total serum PSA of ≥ 20 ng/ml
- Adequate liver and renal functions
- Hemoglobin of ≥ 10 gm/dl
- Platelet count of $\geq 90 \times 10^9/l$
- Eastern Cooperative Oncology group performance status (ECOGps) ≤ 3 [28].

Exclusion criteria

- Cancers at other sites
- Significant cardiovascular disease
- Other cancers of the prostate

Detailed history was taken from all the patients emphasizing on symptoms of metastasis like bone pains, pathological fractures, chest pain. Co-morbid pathology like diabetes mellitus, hypertension, dyslipidemia was sought. Physical examination for pallor jaundice, paraplegia, pedal oedema, scrotal/penile lymphedema was done. ECOGps of each patient was noted. Hepatomegaly and pelvic masses were sought. Digital rectal examination (DRE) was done to ascertain the nodularity and obliteration of median sulcus of the prostate. Laboratory investigations included hemoglobin, platelet count, serum electrolyte, urea and creatinine, calcium, total serum PSA, lipid profiles, fasting blood sugar. Abdomino pelvic/Transrectal ultrasonography (US), plain x-rays of the chest and spine, computerized tomographic scan (CT Scan), isotopic bone scan were utilized to detect metastasis. Either digital guided or ultrasound guided trans rectal needle biopsy of the prostate was done to confirm adenocarcinoma and determine the Gleason score. The patients were openly randomized into two modalities of treatment. There were two arms of (48 patients each), medical castration (MC) and surgical castration (SC). The MC group had subcutaneous injection of 3.6mg of goserelin in 39(84.8%) patients every four weeks or 10.8mg in 7(15.2%) patients every

three months. Bicalutamide, 50mg daily was commenced a week before onset of goserelin injection. The SC group had total bilateral orchiectomy plus bicalutamide 50mg daily. Either 4mg of zoledronic acid every three weeks or 70mg alendronate tablet weekly was used to minimize bone mineral density (BMD) loss. A nadir serum PSA level of 0.2ng/ml was chosen, and treatment was continued until there was evidence of disease progression such as rising PSA, deteriorating ECOGps, bone pains, cord compression. Response to treatment was determined by assaying total serum PSA in three and six months after commencement of treatment, change in ECOGps. Adverse/toxic events following treatment in each group were documented.

Statistical Analysis

SPSS version 16.0, Chicago SPSS Inc was used to analyze the data. The student's t test, chi-square test and Kaplan-Meier survival analysis were the instruments for statistical analysis. p values ≤ 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Between January 2016 and January 2018, 96 patients were enrolled into the study comprising of two groups of 48 patients each. The median follow up was 20 months. (Range 6-30 months). There were 9 (18.6%) and 11(22.9%) deaths in the MC and SC groups respectively. Age range for MC was 45-80 years, mean of 68.0 years. Age range for SC was 53-79 years, mean of 67.8years. (p = 0.302) The sites of metastasis in the MC and SC groups included the bone (75% vs 67%), lymph nodes (21% vs 27%), liver (4% vs 2%) and scalp (2% vs 1%) respectively. (p = 0.870) The median Gleason score for MC and SC were 6 (range 4 - 10) and 7 (range 5 - 10) respectively (p = 0.49). Twenty-three (47.9%) patients in the MC group and 25 (52.1%) in the SC group had Gleason scores >7 . The ECOGps of patients at presentation for MC and SC were 0 (4.2% vs 4.2%), 1 (43.8% vs 54.2%), 2 (45.8% vs 37.5%), 3 (6.2% vs 4.2%) respectively (p = 0.013). At 30 months follow up, ECOGps for MC and SC changed to 0 (54.1% vs 50.0%), 1 (27.1% vs 27.1%), 5 (18.8% vs 22.9%) respectively (p = 0.073; Table 1). Baseline total and mean serum PSA for MC group were 2595.54ng/ml and 54.10ng/ml. For the SC group, total serum and mean PSA values were 2851.5ng/ml and 59.29ng/ml (p = 0.256). Three months while on treatment, total and mean PSA for MC and SC groups were 221.26ng/ml, 4.61ng/ml and 181.95ng/ml, 3.78ng/ml respectively (p = 0.223). There were serum nadir PSA levels (≤ 0.2 ng/ml) in 36 (75%) patients for MC and 39 (81.3%) patients for SC. At six months, total and mean serum PSA for MC and SC were 99.74ng/ml, 2.08 \pm 4.8ng/ml and 88.67ng/ml, 1.85 \pm 1.84ng/ml respectively. Serum PSA nadir levels (≤ 0.2 ng/ml) was seen in 44 (92%) patients for MC and 45 (94%) patients for SC (p = 0.403; Table 2). Eleven (22.9%) patients and 14 (29.29%) patients during follow up had relapses in the MC and SC groups respectively. Mean progressive free survival (PFS) for MC was 14.0 \pm 4.55 months (95% confidence interval [CI] 9-23 months). Mean PFS for SC was 14.4 \pm 4.61 months (95% CI, 9.5-24 months). No statistical difference between the two groups (p = 0.883; Table 2, Figure 1). Survival rates for MC at 24 and 30 months were 85.4% and 83.3% respectively, mean

survival was 23.05 months (95% CI, 17.5 - 28.6 months). Survival rates for SC at 24 and 30 months were 81.3% 77.1% respectively. Mean survival was 22.75 months (95% CI, 16.5 - 29 months). No statistical difference in survival rate ($p = 0.836$). The median overall survival was not reached in either of the two groups during the study (Table 2, Figure 2). A total of 94 adverse events were noted

in the MC arm and 79 in the SC arm in this series ($p < 0.001$; Table 3). Some of the adverse events observed were anemia, new onset fasting hyperglycemic episodes, (mean 152.25mg/dl, range 136 - 163mg/dl) in 4(4.3%) patients, impotence, pathological fractures in 2(2.1%) patients, (left hip and third lumbar vertebra) and others.

Table 1: Clinicopathological characteristics of 98 patients in the two groups.

	Medical Castration (MC) N = 48	Surgical Castration (SC) N = 48	P Value
Age (years) mean	68.0 (45-80)	67.8 (53-79)	0.302
Site of Metastasis			
Bone	36(75%)	32(67%)	0.870
Lymph Nodes	10(21%)	13(27%)	
Liver	2(4%)	1(2%)	
Scalp	1(2%)	2(4%)	
Gleason Score			
4-5	7(14.6%)	9(18.8%)	0.49
6-7	18(37.5%)	14(29.1%)	
>7	23(47.9%)	25(52.1%)	
Total	48(100%)	48(100%)	
Median	6(4-10)	7(5-10)	
ECOGps			
At Presentation			
0	2(4.2%)	2(4.2%)	0.013
1	21(43.8%)	26(54.2%)	
2	22(45.8%)	18(37.5%)	
3	3(6.2%)	2(4.2%)	
At 30 months Follow Up			
0	26(54.1%)	24(50%)	0.073
1	13(27.1%)	13(27.1%)	
5	9(18.8%)	11(22.9%)	

Table 2: Response to treatment (Changes in Serum PSA, Relapses and Survival).

Base Line PSA (ng/ml)	MC N = 48	SC N = 48	P Value
Total	2595.54	2851.5	0.256
Mean	54.10 (20.23-170)	59.2 (20.48-136.40)	
At 3 months of Treatment			
Total	221.26	189.5	0.256
Mean	4.61 (0.03-24.7)	3.78 (0.07-21.4)	
No with PSA \leq 0.2ng/ml	36(75%)	39(81.3%)	
At 6 months of Treatment			
Total	99.74	88.67	0.05
Mean	2.08 (0.01-7.19)	1.85 (0.01-9.42)	
No with PSA \leq 0.2ng/ml	44(91.7%)	45(93.8%)	
Progression Free Survival (PFS)			
No. of Patients	11 (22.9%)	14(29.2%)	0.883
Mean (Months)	14.0	14.4	
Survival Rate			
Mean (Months)	23.05	22.75	0.836

Table 3: Adverse Events Following Treatment.

Nature of Adverse Event	MC N = 48		SC N = 48		P Value
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Anaemia	17	18.0	9	11.4	
Hot Flashes	23	24.5	21	26.6	
Tumor Flare	1	1.1	-	-	
Gynecomastia	2	2.1	1	1.3	0.001
Impotence	45	47.9	48	60.8	
New Onset Fasting Hyperglycemic Episodes	4	4.3	-	-	
Pathological Fracture	2	2.1	-	-	
Total	94	100	79	100	

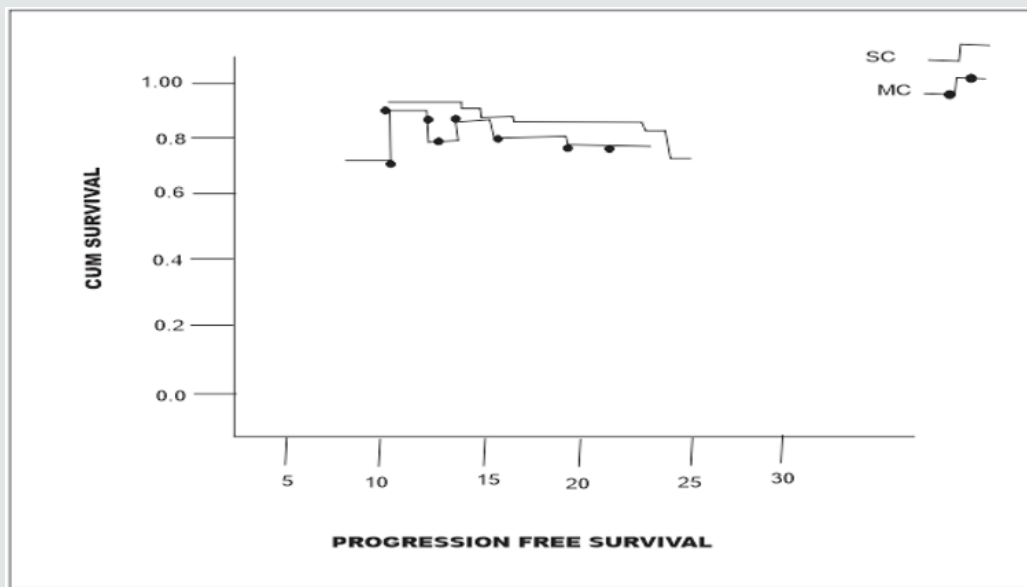


Figure 1: Kaplan-Meier curves for progression free survival in MC and SC arms of treatment.

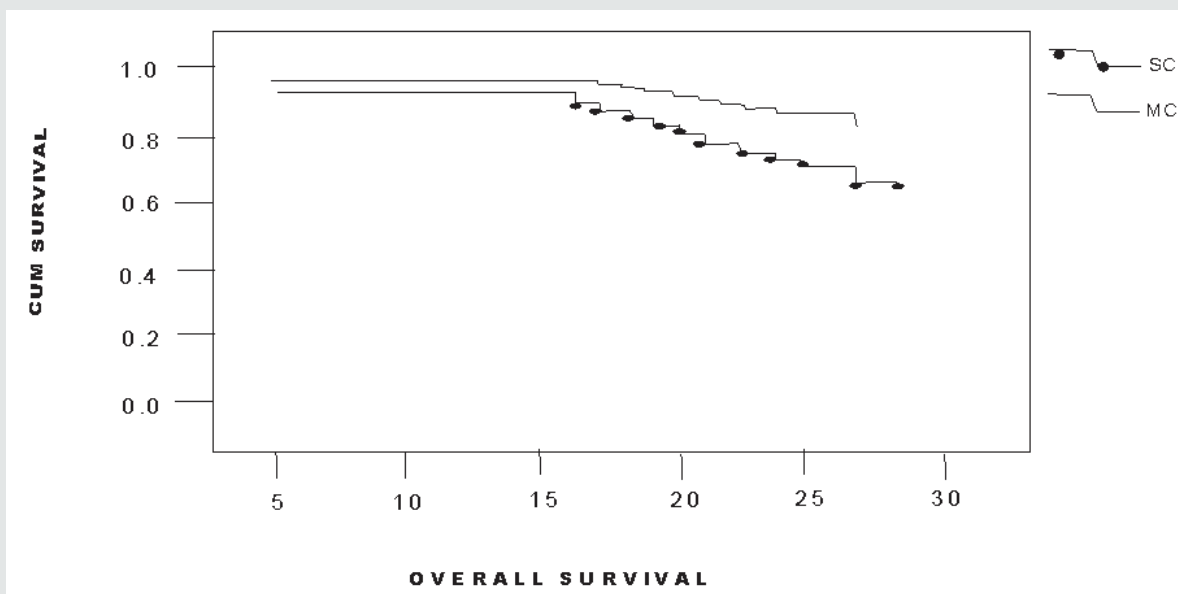


Figure 2: Kaplan-Meier curves for overall survival in MC and SC arms of treatment.

Discussion

Bicalutamide at a dose of 50mg daily was given to each patient in the two groups. About 500ug/day of testosterone secretion is of adrenal origin. Furthermore, 40% of prostatic dihydroxy testosterone is of adrenal origin [19,29]. The bicalutamide is to block the effect of adrenal testosterone. Furthermore, the tumor flare symptoms occasioned by the initial surge of testosterone from goserelin injection is averted [12,17,30,31]. Bone was the commonest metastatic site in this series. This has been noted in other studies [12,32-34]. Disseminated tumor cells (DTCs) from prostate cancer has predilection for the bone. They take advantage of the normal marrow physiology and survive far away from the primary tumor. The complex interaction between the DTCs and hematopoietic stem cells of the marrow vascular niche favors early bone colonization, proliferation and eventual metastatic mass [35,36]. There was a statistical difference in the ECOGPs of both groups pre therapy ($p = 0.013$). At 30 months follow up, the ECOGPs for both groups were similar ($p = 0.073$; Table 1). It was observed that the 20 deaths encountered during follow up had Gleason score of >7 . This implies that irrespective of the modality of ADT, high Gleason score (>7) indicates poor prognosis and high mortality. This has been noted by other researchers that the Gleason score and the presence of metastasis were the strongest predictor of prostate cancer specific mortality in patients with high PSA levels at presentation [37,38]. Response to treatment in this study was by monitoring the changes to levels of serum PSA. Serum PSA is widely used for monitoring response to treatment and disease progression in metastatic prostate cancer [33,39-44]. Furthermore, it is useful in monitoring the rate of decline of PSA which may be of prognostic value [41,45,46]. The mean time to hormonal resistance in this series for MC and SC was 14.0 ± 4.55 and 14.4 ± 4.61 months respectively ($p = 0.883$). There was no statistical difference. Purushothaman et al. in their comparison of leuprolide to bilateral orchiectomy, the mean time to hormonal resistance were 20.78 and 19.71 months respectively ($p > 0.05$) showing no significant difference between the study groups [12]. Furthermore, Aslan et al comparing bilateral sub capsular orchiectomy plus antiandrogen to LHRH agonist plus antiandrogen found mean time to hormonal resistance as 26.48 and 27.3 months respectively with no statistical difference ($p > 0.05$) [47]. In our study, the mean survival of MC and SC groups were 23.05 and 22.75 months respectively ($p = 0.836$). Purushothaman et al. got overall survival time of 45 months for medical castration and 41 months for surgical castration ($p > 0.05$) [12]. Aslan et al. found average survival time for orchiectomy plus antiandrogen and LHRH agonist plus anti androgen to be 45.25 and 34.35 months respectively ($p > 0.05$) [47]. There were more adverse events noted during the study in the MC than the SC group ($p < 0.001$; Table 3). Anemia was noted in both groups but more in the MC ($p < 0.001$). Androgen stimulates erythropoietin release, increased bone marrow activity and increase iron uptake by red blood cells [48,49]. ADT will suppress those functions leading to anemia. Normocytic and normochromic anemia is a common side effect of patients on ADT [49,50]. Furthermore, Vargas et al noted a greater decrease in the hemoglobin levels of the group exposed to LHRH agonist [51]. A new onset fasting hyperglycaemic episode

was noted in four (4.10%) patients in the MC group. Studies have confirmed the link of ADT and diabetes mellitus [50-55]. There is a decrease in number of skeletal muscles fibres during ADT therapy leading to reduction in peripheral glucose uptake by muscle tissues. Hypogonadism increases adipose tissues, a known risk factor for insulin resistance [51]. There is a greater reduction in androgen of adrenal origin in those subjected to LHRH agonist. In a study comparing the serum levels of dehydroeioandrosterone (DHEA) in patients on ADT by means of bilateral orchiectomy versus LHRH agonist, there was a statistically significant reduction in DHEA levels in the LHRH agonist group [56]. Also found was a direct relationship between the decrease in DHEA levels and poorer insulin mediated glucose uptake in healthy men subjected to LHRH agonist [57]. There is thus, decreased insulin sensitivity in patients subjected to LHRH agonist [51]. This explains the new onset hyperglycaemic episodes in four of our patients subjected to goserelin. Two (2.1%) patients on goserelin had pathological fractures (left hip and third lumbar vertebra). Patients on ADT with prostate cancer are predisposed to loss of bone mineral density (BMD) and fracture [50,58,59]. Both the cortical and trabecular bones are affected [60-63]. A direct relationship has been established between the number of doses of LHRH agonist given and the risk of fractures [50,58,62,63]. The findings of Sun et al indicate LHRH agonist was associated with significant higher rate of fractures and other complications compared to surgical castration [64]. There are reports of psychological stress in patients following loss of testicles from surgical castration for advanced prostate cancer [24,62,64]. No case of psychological stress was encountered in the patients in the SC arm in this series. Ibrahim et al in their series found no psychological stress following orchiectomy in any of their patients [65]. A major challenge in this study was recruiting patients for the MC arm due to high cost of goserelin. This is in contrast to what obtains in the developed world where more patients opt for LHRH agonists [41,64,66,67].

Conclusion

This study shows that there is no statistical difference in the oncological clinical efficacy of medical and surgical castrations. However, there is significant statistical difference in the adverse events noted in the MC and SC groups worse in MC. There were higher incidences of anemia, new onset diabetes mellitus, and bone fractures. These risks should be explained to the patients before treatment. A multi-disciplinary approach involving urologist and other specialist clinicians is advocated for patients on ADT. The goal here is to prevent and ameliorate the discomfort from these adverse events thus availing the patients a better quality of life.

Acknowledgement

I want to thank Mr. Stanley Ndoh for his secretarial assistance and also to Mr. Gregory Udokwu for his meticulous laboratory analysis.

References

1. Hamid RAH, Tendi W, Sesari SS, Mochtar CA, Umbas R, et al. (2019) The importance of targeting intracrinology in prostate cancer management World. J Urol 37: 751.

2. Yeboah ED, Quartey JKM (1997) Low dosage stilboestrol in the management of carcinoma of the prostate. *Ghana Med J* p. 13-15.
3. Nkposong EO, Lawani J (1983) Primary carcinoma of the prostate in Ibadan. *W Afr Med J* 22: 108-111.
4. Attah C (1989) Pattern and management of urinary tract cancers among Nigerian Igbos. *Int. Urol and Nephro* 21: 449-454.
5. Magoha GAO (2000) Management and survival in advanced prostate cancer in Nairobi. *East Afr Med J* 77: 260-263.
6. Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Ervik M, Dikshit R, Eser S, et al. (2013) GLOBOCAN 2012 V10, Cancer incidence mortality worldwide", IARC cancer base II. International agency for research.
7. Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Dikshit R, Eser S, Mathers C, et al. (2015) Cancer incidence and mortality worldwide; Sources, methods and major patterns in GLOBOCAN 2012. *Int J Cancer* 136: 359-386.
8. Huggins C, Hodges CV (1941) Studies on prostate cancer 1; The effect of castration, of estrogen and of androgen injection on serum phosphatases in metastatic carcinoma of the prostate. *Cancer Res* 1: 293-297.
9. Lin YH, Chen CL, Hou CP, Chang PL, Tsui KH, et al. (2011) A comparison of androgen deprivation therapy versus surgical castration for patients with advanced prostatic carcinoma. *Acta pharmacologica Sinica* 32: 537-542.
10. Masaki S, Masatashi E (2016) Current status of primary pharmacotherapy and future perspectives toward upfront therapy for metastatic hormone sensitive prostate cancer. *Int J Urol* 23: 360-369.
11. Salmasi AH, Patel N, Yi-Kim I (2016) Androgen deprivation therapy; Appropriate patients timing to initiate ADT and complications. In: *mydlo JH, Godec CJ (Eds.), Prostate cancer science and clinical practice (2nd edn)*, 481-489.
12. Raghavan RP, Purushothaman A, Kumar GP, Gangadharan P (2016) A comparison of leuprolide acetate versus bilateral orchiectomy for patients with metastatic prostate cancer. *Asian J Pharm Clin Res* 9: 51-54.
13. Zhang K, Zhang L, Hao Z, Liang C (2016) Androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer; friend or foe to the cardiovascular system. *World J Urol* 34: 879-881.
14. Conndly RM, Carducci AM, Antonraki ES (2012) Use of androgen deprivation therapy in prostate cancer, indications and prevalence. *Asian J Androl* 14: 177-186.
15. Cowey CL, Hutson T (2013) Management of newly diagnosed metastatic disease. In: *Klein EA, Jones JS, (Eds.), Current clinical urology. springer science. pp.* 361-378.
16. Miyamoto H, Messing EM, Chang C (2004) Androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer; current status and future prospects. *Prostate* 61: 332-353.
17. Raj GV, Seith LA, Day TK, Tilley WD (2015) Evolution of androgen deprivation therapy. *Cancer Forum* 39: 189-194.
18. De Paula AP, Piccelli HR, Pinto NP, Tele AG, Franqueiro AG, et al. (2003) Economic impact of orchiectomy for advanced prostate cancer. *Int braz j urol* 29: 127-132.
19. Labrie F (2011) Blockade of testicular and adrenal androgens in prostate cancer treatment. *Nat Rev Urol* 8: 73-80.
20. Heinlen CA, Chang C (2004) Androgen receptor in prostate cancer. *Endocr Rev* 25(2): 276-308.
21. Lee RJ, Smith MR (2016) Initial systemic therapy for castration sensitive prostate cancer.
22. Bott SRJ, Birtle AJ, Taylor CJ, Kirby RS (2003) Prostate cancer management: (2) an update on locally advanced and metastatic disease. *Postgrad Med J* 79(937): 643-645.
23. Catolana WJ (2017) Hormonal therapy explained.
24. Rud O, Peter J, Kheyri R, Gilfrich C, Ahmed AM, et al. (2012) Sub capsular orchiectomy in the primary therapy of patients with bone metastasis in advanced prostate cancer: An anachronistic intervention? *Advances in urol* 2012: 190624,
25. Theyer G, Ulsperger E, Baumgartner G, Raderer M, Hamilton G (2000) Prolonged response to a single androgen suppression phase in a subpopulation of prostate cancer patients. *Annals of oncology* 11: 877-881.
26. d'Ancona FCH, Debruyne FMJ (2005) Endocrine approaches in the therapy of prostate carcinoma. *Human Reproduction Update* 11: 309-317.
27. Tai Lung C (2015) Chemo-hormonal therapy for metastatic hormone sensitive prostate cancer: clinical trial fantasy or practice reality? *Urological science* 26: 223-224.
28. Oken M, Creech RH, Tormey DC, Horton J, Davis TE, et al. (1982) Toxicity and response criteria of the Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group. *Am J Clin Oncol* 5: 649-655.
29. Raiput R, Seghal A (2012) Endocrine manipulations in cancer prostate: A review. *Indian J Endocrinol Metab* 16(supll 2): S199-S204.
30. Helsen C, Van den Broeck T, Voet A, Prekovic S, Van Poppel H, et al. (2014) Androgen receptor antagonists for prostate cancer therapy. *Endocrn Relat Cancer* 21: T105-T118.
31. Pope AJ, Abel PD (2010) Androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer and its complications. *Trends in Urol Gynaecol and sexual health* 15: 32-37.
32. Gandaglia G, Abdollah F, Schiffmann J, Trudeau V, Shariat SF, et al. (2014) Distribution of metastatic sites in patients with prostate cancer: A population-based analysis. *The prostate* 74: 210-216.
33. Wallace TJ, Torre T, Grob M, Yu J, Avital I, et al. (2014) Current approaches challenges and future directions for monitoring treatment response in prostate cancer. *J Cancer* 5: 3-24.
34. Wong K W, Ma W K, Wong C W (2016) Impact of skeletal related events on survival in patients with metastatic prostate cancer prescribed androgen deprivation therapy. *Hongkong Med J* 22: 106-115.
35. Pederson EA, Shiozawa Y, Pienta KJ, Taichman RS (2012) The prostate cancer bone marrow niche: more than just "fertile soil". *Asian J Androl* 14: 423-427.
36. Tsuzuki S, Park S H, Eber M R, Shiozawa Y (2016) Skeletal complications in cancer patients with bone metastasis. *Int J Urol* 23: 825-832.
37. Merseburger A S, Hupe M C (2016) An update on Triptorelin: current thinking on androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *Adv. Ther* 33: 1072-1093.
38. Ang M, Raicic B, Foreman D, O Callaghan ME (2016) Men presenting with prostate specific antigen (PSA) values of over 100ng/ml. *BJU Int* 112(suppl 4): 68-75.
39. Crawford ED, Bennett CL, Andriole GL, Garnick MB, Petrylak DP (2013) The utility of prostate specific antigen in the management of advanced prostate cancer. *BJU Int* 112: 548-560.
40. Fitzpatrick JM, Banu E, Oudard S (2009) Prostate-specific antigen kinetics in localized and advanced prostate cancer. *BJU Int* 103: 578-587.
41. Rosario DJ, Davey P, Green J, Greene D, Turner B, et al. (2016) The role of gonadotrophin-releasing hormone antagonist in the treatment of patients with advanced hormone dependent prostate cancer in the UK. *World J Urol* 34: 1601-1609.
42. Tombal B, Miller K, Boccon-Gibod L, Schröder F, Shore N, et al. (2010) Additional analysis of the secondary end point of biochemical recurrence rate in a phase 3 trial (CS21) comparing degarilix 80mg versus leuprolide in prostate cancer patients segmented y base line characteristics. *Eur Urol* 57: 836-842.

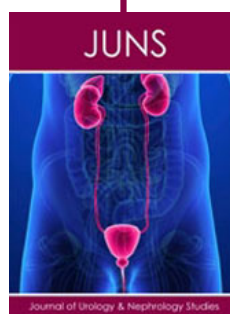
43. Hussain M, Tangen C M, Higano C, Schelhammer PF, Faulkner J, et al. (2006) Absolute prostate -specific antigen value after androgen deprivation is a strong independent predictor of survival in new metastatic prostate cancer; data from south west Oncology Group trial 9346 (INT-0162). *J Clin Oncology* 24: 3984-3990.
44. Hussain MHA, Goldman B, Tangen C, Higano CS, Petrylak DP, et al. (2009) Prostate-specific antigen survival in patients with metastatic prostate cancer: data from south west Oncology Group trials 9346 (intergroup study 0162 and 9916). *J Clin Oncol* 27: 2450-2456.
45. Lin G W, Yao X D, Zhang S L, Dai B, Ma CG, et al. (2009) Prostate specific antigen half-life a new predictor of progression free survival and overall survival in Chinese prostate cancer patients. *Asian J Androl* 11: 443-450.
46. Hanninen M, Venner P, North S (2009) A rapid PSA half-life following docetaxel chemotherapy is associated with improved survival in hormone refractory prostate cancer. *J Can Urol Assoc* 3: 369-374.
47. Demir A, Cecen K, Karadag MA, Kocaaslan R, Turkeri L (2014) The course of metastatic prostate cancer under treatment. *Springerplus* 3: 725.
48. Shahani S, Braga-Basaria M, Maggio M, Basaria S (2009) Androgens and erythropoiesis past and present. *J Endocrinol Invest* 32: 704-716.
49. Rodriguez vida A, Choudry S, Choudry S (2014) Management of fatigue and anemia in men treated with androgen deprivation therapy. *Trends in Urology and Men's health* 5: 25-28.
50. Nguyen PL, Alibhai SM, Basaria S, D'Amico AV, Kantoff P W, et al. (2015) Adverse effect of androgen deprivation therapy and strategies to mitigate them. *European Urology* 67: 825-836.
51. Vargas A, Machado RD, Filho DI, Paiva CE, Dos Reis RB, et al. (2016) LHRH analog is associated with worse metabolic side effects than bilateral orchiectomy in prostate cancer. *World J Urol* 34: 1621-1628.
52. Jeating NL, O'Mally A, Freedland SJ, Smith MR (2010) Diabetes and cardiovascular diseases during androgen deprivation therapy: observational study of veterans with prostate cancer. *J Natl of Cancer Inst* 102: 39-46.
53. Alibhai SM, Duong Hua M, Sutradhar R, Fleshner NE, Warde P, et al. (2009) Impact of androgen deprivation therapy on cardiovascular disease and diabetes. *J Clin Oncol* 27: 3452-3458.
54. Rivera Arkoncel M, Sagun M, Arkoncel F, Jimeno C, Lapitan M (2014) Prevalence of diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome in prostate cancer patients given androgen deprivation therapy. *Journal of the ASEAN Federation of Endocrine Societies* 29: 42.
55. Teoh JY, Chiu PK, Chan Sm Y, Poon DM, Cheung HY, et al. (2015) Risk of new onset diabetes after androgen deprivation therapy in the Asian population. *J Diabetes* 7: 672-680.
56. Oka H, Negoro H, Sugino Y, Iwamura H, Moroi S, et al. (2003) Change of serum adrenal androgens in prostatic cancer patients after bilateral orchiectomy or LHRH agonist treatment. *Hinyokika Kiyo* 49: 521-525.
57. Chauhan S, Collins K, Kruga M, Diamond MP (2004) Effect of gonadotrophin releasing hormone hypogonadism on insulin action as assessed by hyperglycemic clamp studies in Men. *Fertile Steril* 84: 109-1098.
58. Bienz M, Saad F (2015) Androgen deprivation therapy and bone loss in prostate cancer patients: a clinical review. *BoneKey Rep* 4: 716.
59. Nagao K, Matsuyama H, Nozawa M, Hara I, Nishioka T, et al. (2016) Zoledronic acid combined with androgen-deprivation therapy may prolong time to castration-resistant prostate cancer in hormone-naïve metastatic prostate cancer patients - A propensity scoring approach. *Asian journal of urology* 3(1): 33-38.
60. Cheung AS, Zaiac JD, Grossmann M (2014) Muscle and bone effect of androgen deprivation therapy: current and emerging therapies. *Endocr Relat Cancer* 21: R371-R394.
61. Hamilton EJ, Ghasem Zadeh A, Gianatti E, Lim Joon D, Bolton D, et al. (2010) Structural decay of bone micro architecture in men with prostate cancer treated with androgen deprivation therapy. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 95: E456-E463.
62. Sharifi N, Gulley JJ, Dahut WI (2005) Androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer. *JAMA* 294: 238-244.
63. Udoh E, Oisaeke F (2015) Our experience with prostate cancer patients who presented with side effect of androgen deprivation therapy (Adt) since 2007 and review of literature. *Asian J Biomedical research* 1: 2454-6275.
64. Sun M, Choueiri T K, Hamnvik O P, Preston M A, De Velasco G, et al. (2016) Comparison of Gonadotropin Releasing hormone Agonists and Orchiectomy: Effects of Androgen deprivation therapy. *JAMA Oncol* 2: 500-507.
65. Ibrahim AG, Aliyu S, Dogo HM, Tahir MB, Zarami AB (2015) Orchiectomy as the primary therapy in patients with advanced carcinoma of the prostate: A ten year experience in Maiduguri North Eastern Nigeria. *IJAR* 1: 515-517.
66. Krahn M, Bremner KE, Tomlinson G, Luo J, Ritvo P, et al. (2011) Androgen deprivation therapy in prostate cancer: are rising concerns leading to falling use? *BJU Int* 108: 1588-1596.
67. Cassileth BR, Soloway MS, Vogelzang NJ, Schellhammer PS, Seidman EJ, et al. (1989) Patient's choice of treatment in stage D prostate cancer. *Urology* 33(5 suppl): 57-62.



This work is licensed under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License

To Submit Your Article Click Here: [Submit Article](#)

DOI: [10.32474/JUNS.2019.02.000131](https://doi.org/10.32474/JUNS.2019.02.000131)



Journal of Urology & Nephrology Studies

Assets of Publishing with us

- Global archiving of articles
- Immediate, unrestricted online access
- Rigorous Peer Review Process
- Authors Retain Copyrights
- Unique DOI for all articles