# Treatment of local progression following radiotherapy

Theo M. de Reijke<sup>a</sup>, Thomas Wiegel<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Academic Medical Center, Amsterdam, The Netherlands <sup>b</sup>Universitätsklinikum Ulm, Ulm, Germany

#### Introduction

The outcome of radiotherapy for localised prostate cancer has improved over past years due to improved radiation techniques resulting in the possibility of delivering higher doses to the prostate and, secondly, due to more precise patient selection. However, there are still many men in follow-up that have been treated with radiotherapy doses which are nowadays considered as insufficient. Although improved staging and patient selection is possible, it is estimated that following surgery or radiotherapy for localised prostate cancer, approximately 40% of men will fail and present with a prostate specific antigen (PSA) relapse (biochemical recurrence) [1].

Since published results of phase III trials, randomising patients with high-risk prostate cancer between radiotherapy alone or radiotherapy plus neo- or adjuvant androgen deprivation therapy, have reported improved survival for the combined approach, these high-risk patients are, in most instances, now treated in first-line with this combination for a period of time up to 3 years [2,3]. Although improved survival rates were accomplished with this combined treatment, a considerable number of patients will still experience a biochemical relapse. The most important issue in case of a demonstrated PSA relapse is the determination of local disease only or distant failure, which has to be approached in a different way.

Following radical prostatectomy, several factors are helpful in defining patients at risk for local recurrence or metastatic disease e.g. time between surgery and PSA relapse, PSA doubling time, and pathological stage and grade [4]. For radiotherapy, these discriminative, predictive factors have not been identified.

#### **PSA** evaluation

Definition of PSA relapse

Following radical prostatectomy, the definition of PSA relapse is rather simple since the organ responsible for the majority of PSA production has been removed,

although sometimes benign glands can be left behind due to a nerve sparing procedure [5]. The PSA level for recurrence following radical prostatectomy is defined as 0.2 ng/mL followed by a subsequent rise [6]. Recently, however, there were proposals to increase the PSA level to 0.4 ng/mL, because this level better explained the development of distant metastases after controlling for clinical variables and use of secondary treatments [7,8]. Some laboratories provide ultrasensitive methods to determine PSA levels, which could detect PSA relapse at a much earlier stage, but in clinical trials these very low levels have never been confirmed as useful in the definition of biochemical failure (or they have never been used or reported).

In 1997, the American Society for Therapeutic Radiology and Oncology (ASTRO) agreed that PSA recurrence is an appropriate early endpoint for clinical trials. Biochemical failure after radiation therapy was defined as three consecutive increases in PSA. For clinical trials the date of failure should be the midpoint between post-irradiation PSA nadir and the first of the three consecutive increases [9]. This ASTRO definition was not linked to clinical progression or survival and it performed poorly in patients undergoing androgen deprivation therapy, and backdating biased the Kaplan-Meier estimates of event-free survival. A second Consensus Conference was sponsored by ASTRO and the Radiation Therapy Oncology Group in Phoenix to revise the ASTRO definition [10]. The panel recommended that a rise of 2 ng/mL or more above the nadir PSA be considered the standard definition for biochemical failure after external beam radiotherapy (EBRT) with or without short-term hormone therapy. Nowadays, the two definitions are often reported in most publications.

#### PSA response and bounce

Following radiotherapy the PSA decline is different compared to radical prostatectomy where an almost immediate disappearance can be observed according to the PSA half-life if radical surgical resection has been accomplished. Following radiotherapy, a PSA increase can first be observed due to cellular necrosis, inflammatory changes and disruption of the cellular membrane. Later, a rapid decline can be seen, followed by a slower, but more sustained, decrease.

The reason why three, rather than two, consecutive PSA values were proposed in the original ASTRO recommendation for PSA progression was due to the risk of 'bouncing'. This phenomenon results when, during follow-up, one or two increases in PSA are observed followed by a sustained decrease. The effect of PSA 'bounce' was reported following EBRT and also post-brachytherapy for prostate cancer. It seems that the incidence of the 'bounce' is higher following brachytherapy compared to EBRT (40% versus 12%) [11–14].

The magnitude of PSA increase and the occurrence of PSA 'bounce' were evaluated in several series with respect to subsequent failure. Mitchell and colleagues found a lower rate of subsequent biochemical failure in a prospectively collected database where PSA 'bounce' was defined as a rise of 0.2 ng/mL above an initial PSA nadir with subsequent decline to or below that nadir without treatment. The patients who received neo-adjuvant or adjuvant hormone manipulation were excluded. Biochemical failure was determined using both the ASTRO consensus and Phoenix definitions [15]. Horwitz and colleagues found an increased risk of biochemical failure in patients with a PSA 'bounce' following EBRT, while Crook and colleagues found no relationship with PSA 'bounce' and subsequent biochemical failure following 125-I prostate brachytherapy [13,16]. The reasons for these different findings are not completely understood, but definition and perhaps the use of different PSA kits could be an explanation.

The PSA 'bounce' was independent of age, race, pre-treatment PSA, clinical T-stage, Gleason score and radiation dose although Hanlon and colleagues concluded that 'bouncing' was associated with a lower radiation dose and higher pre-treatment PSA levels [17]. The median time of occurrence for this phenomenon was 9 to 18 months from the time of therapy and the majority of 'bounces' were observed within 36 months. This phenomenon should of course be fully understood by all doctors following patients after radiotherapy for prostate cancer in order to reassure the patient.

#### PSA levels and nomograms

The initial PSA level is a determining factor for eventual success of radiotherapy. 5-year biochemical

relapse rates were reported in 32%, 49% and 69% of patients with an initial PSA of 10–20 ng/mL, 20–30 ng/mL and 30 ng/mL or greater, respectively [18]. The PSA nadir was also a strong prognostic factor, with PSA recurrence-free survival rates of 83%, 68%, 56% and 28% if the PSA nadirs were 0.5 ng/mL or less, 0.6–0.9 ng/mL, 1.0–1.9 ng/mL and 2.0 ng/mL or greater, respectively.

The initially developed nomograms could help to predict the risk of recurrence for EBRT and different forms of brachytherapy by including different baseline characteristics e.g. pre-treatment PSA, Gleason score on biopsies and clinical T-stage. Since an increasing number of patients were treated with combination treatments (neo- and/or adjuvant hormonal therapy for shorter or longer duration), the more recent nomograms also included this as a baseline factor in order to determine the risk of PSA recurrence [19–22]. However, there are so many variables in treatment techniques, durations and schemes of neo- and/or adjuvant treatment that it is questionable if these nomograms are very helpful for the individual patient.

#### Investigations in case of PSA recurrence

#### Physical examination

In case of a PSA only relapse, a physical examination, and especially a digital rectal examination (DRE), is usually not helpful in determining the site of relapse. Due to the radiation the prostate has undergone changes and can be displaced, which usually makes a proper digital evaluation not possible. Only in the case of a high-risk patient and a very early PSA relapse or in the case of local symptoms can a local progression be identified by DRE.

#### Transrectal ultrasound and biopsies

Transrectal ultrasound (TRUS) examination following radiation therapy of the prostate is also not very helpful and certainly no better than DRE. No exact data exist on the sensitivity, specificity, and positive predictive value in case of follow-up after radiotherapy, but these figures will not differ significantly from the data for the initial work-up in case there is suspicion of prostate cancer, approximately 32–85%, 41–89%, and 20–76%, respectively [23]. In the field of TRUS many new developments (e.g. Doppler sonography, contrastenhanced TRUS, elastography) are now being evaluated in the initial work-up of patients with elevated

PSA. Some of these improved sonographic investigations have already shown promising results but, in the field of evaluation of PSA recurrence following radiation treatment, no data are available yet [24–26].

Following radiation therapy there is no role for routine follow-up prostate biopsies. It is known that it takes up to 3 years for biopsies to convert to negative, so there is no role for taking routine prostate biopsies before 3 year follow-up unless there are other clinical reasons [27].

In case local recurrence is suspected and the demonstration of local recurrence has clinical consequences, prostate biopsies are indicated. However, no prospective data exist on the number and location of the biopsies, but it would be recommendable to target the biopsies to the previously positive location of the biopsies, although this information will frequently be lacking. The number of biopsies should not differ from that of the initial work-up of an elevated PSA, i.e. 12 biopsies. The interpretation of post-irradiation biopsies should be done with great care, especially if radiation was combined with hormonal therapy, because morphological changes may be present that resemble prostate cancer, but in fact these may just be radiation-induced changes [28].

## Bone scintigraphy

Bone scans are indicated in the initial work-up in the following cases: PSA is greater than 20 ng/mL, higher clinical stage or Gleason grade. In the situation of a demonstrated PSA relapse following radiation therapy, a rapid slope or a PSA greater than 40 ng/mL are indications to perform bone scintigraphy [29,30]. However, in case a second local therapy is considered, distant metastases should be excluded, and certainly if the PSA relapse occurs early following radiation therapy. In cases of salvage therapy, a complete work-up will usually be performed, including a bone scan.

#### Computer tomography (CT)-scan

In spite of improvements in imaging techniques, a CT-scan is not the most sensitive technique for identifying prostate cancer or excluding the presence of metastatic disease. The diagnostic accuracy ranges between 50 and 60%. Johnstone and colleagues concluded that only in the case of a rapidly increasing PSA could a CT-scan be of any value [30].

#### Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)

Thanks to the technical improvements and introduction of the endorectal coil, the diagnostic accuracy of MRI increased, compared to CT-scans, to 60–70%. MR-spectroscopy is evaluating metabolism properties of different areas in the prostate, choline/citrate ranges, which can increase the diagnostic accuracy again to 70–90%. However, these data are obtained in the initial work-up of patients suspected for the presence of prostate cancer; if these figures are also to apply for patients presenting with PSA relapse, further research is needed. For the evaluation of lymphogenous spread, ultrasmall superparamagnetic iron oxide (USPIO)-enhanced MRI seems very promising with a detection limit for lymph node metastases of 4 mm [31].

# Positron emission tomography (PET)-scan

The role of PET-scan is not clearly defined at this moment due to conflicting reports on the accuracy of demonstrating local and/or distant recurrences. Different techniques are being used at this moment which makes interpretation of the published data difficult.

[18]fluorocholine PET/CT can be performed to exclude distant metastases in patients with PSA levels greater than 4 ng/mL and 11C-choline PET/CT seems a valuable tool to demonstrate recurrent prostate cancer, but the limited positive predictive value warrants careful interpretation of these data [32,33]. Further studies using these techniques have to be awaited before PET-scans can be introduced in the work-up of patients who are candidates for salvage treatment following radiation treatment.

#### Timing of salvage treatment

Once a PSA relapse has been demonstrated the most important question is if the patient is a candidate for salvage treatment with curative intent or not. It has to be realised that combination treatment also implies a higher risk of morbidity.

In order to discuss salvage treatment the patient should have a good performance status, the morbidity of the initial radiotherapy should have been minimal, the metastatic work-up should be negative and the life expectancy should be at least 10 years.

In case of a biochemical relapse following radical prostatectomy, it has been shown that it takes at least 8 years before metastatic disease is demonstrated without any treatment and another 5 years until patients die [34]. In the survival analysis, time to PSA recurrence, Gleason score and PSA doubling time were predictive factors of the probability and time to metastatic disease. Whether the same is true for PSA relapse following radiotherapy is not known, but these facts should be taken into consideration when counselling a patient for a salvage procedure.

#### Salvage treatments

In early publications it was reported that salvage treatments had a poor outcome, due to the observation that many patients had marginal positive disease and/or lymph node metastases in the pathological specimen. Also, an increase in Gleason score and ane-uploid tumours was found and this resulted in a poor outcome [35,36]. However, due to the introduction of PSA, radio-recurrent disease can be detected earlier and patients treated initially have been better staged and possibly had lower prostate cancer volume; these factors could result in better outcomes for patients once treated with a salvage treatment.

### Salvage radical prostatectomy

Apart from a biochemical recurrence the reason for salvage radical prostatectomy could also be indicated if there is severe toxicity, e.g. incontinence, radiation cystitis or a contracted bladder. The proposed indications for salvage surgery are a PSA <10 ng/mL, PSA doubling time >12 months, ≤T3a stage and N0M0 [37].

The series of salvage surgery reported in the literature comprise only small numbers of patients; the oncological outcome with a median follow-up of 2–92 months showed a 5-year failure-free survival of 31–83% [38]. The reported morbidity was considerable: urinary incontinence: 17–67%, rectal injury: 4–8%, erectile dysfunction: 100%, bladder neck stricture: 0–41%, and mortality: 0–4%. These data have to be interpreted with great care because of patient selection, the small number of patients and short follow-up.

Following interstitial radiotherapy, only small series have been reported, but the outcome does not seem different from patients treated following EBRT [39].

Salvage radical prostatectomy is nowadays also feasible via the laparoscopic approach [40]. It is clear that these salvage procedures should be performed in centres of excellence and the data should be collected prospectively in order to obtain conclusions on which patients are best suitable for salvage radical prostatectomy.

## Salvage radiation treatment

Since many patients that are in follow-up have been treated with doses that are nowadays considered insufficient, there could be room for salvage radiation treatment. Different scenarios are possible in this case: patients treated with EBRT could be treated with salvage EBRT or brachytherapy and vice versa.

Of course, patients qualifying for salvage radiation therapy should not have radiation-induced toxicity from the initial treatment.

The series on salvage brachytherapy reported are again small; oncological outcome with a median follow-up of 19–64 months showed a 5-year failure-free survival rate ranging from 20–89%. The morbidity was considerable: urinary incontinence: 0–31%, rectal grade 3–4 toxicity: 0–24%, genito-urinary grade 3–4 toxicity: 0–47%, and prostatic-rectal fistula: 0–12% [38]. The series are difficult to compare since different forms of brachytherapy were used (palladium, iodine and iridium). Salvage brachytherapy and salvage EBRT following initial brachytherapy are incidentally reported and no clear recommendations can be made from these small, highly selected series [41].

## Salvage cryotherapy

The technique for cryotherapy has been improved considerably in recent years, especially the introduction of the transperineal ultrasound-guided implantation technique using thin needles which has reduced toxicity and improved outcome for the treatment of primary diagnosed prostate cancer [42].

The technique has now also been introduced for salvage procedures because it has the theoretical advantage of no radiation being used and the formation of the ice ball can be monitored accurately. The median follow-up of the series reported in the literature ranges from 12-82 months. Different cryotherapy techniques were used in these series resulting in a failure-free survival rate of 18-77%. Different PSA criteria were used for defining success, which makes comparison difficult. The reported percentages for morbidity were: urinary incontinence 4-96%, tissue sloughing 0-55%, bladder neck stricture 0-55%, and fistula 0-11% [38]. In a recent series using upto-date equipment the 5-year biochemical relapsefree survival was 73%, 45%, and 11% for low-, intermediate-, and high-risk patients, respectively, with a median follow-up of 33.5 months [43]. The reported morbidity figures were: urinary incontinence 13%, erectile dysfunction 86%, lower urinary tract symptoms 16%, and fistula 1%.

## New minimally invasive salvage procedures

High intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU)

HIFU is a relatively new technique combining an imaging and treatment modality using ultrasound.

It destroys tissue with rapid heat elevation, which essentially "cooks" the tissue. Ultrasound energy is focused when transrectal ultrasound is guided at a specific location and at that focal point the temperature rises to 90°C in a matter of seconds. This technique is applied in some centres for the primary treatment of localised prostate cancer. Long-term data are still lacking, but the technique seems feasible. Recently, a retrospective analysis was published on the application of HIFU in radio-recurrent disease [44].

Local cancer control with negative biopsies was achieved in 122/167 patients (73%) with a short median follow-up (18.1 months). Urinary incontinence rates were considerable (49.5%) and in 18 patients an artificial urinary sphincter prosthesis was implanted. Five patients developed a recto-urethral fistula. This technique should not be applied in patients that present with a PSA relapse following brachytherapy with permanent seed implants, because the recto-urethral fistula rate is then increased, probably due to impaired blood supply near the rectum or HIFU-associated near-field heating of the rectal wall [45].

## Vascular targeted photodynamic therapy

Photodynamic therapy for prostate cancer has only been used in a small cohort of patients and only early reports have been published on this new technique. This technique applies photosensitisers that are activated on different wavelengths. Several agents have been explored in phase I/II studies and showed minimal morbidity. Following a phase I trial exploring photosensitiser and light doses, Trachtenberg and colleagues reported on 28 patients treated with this technique [46,47]. In this series, avascular areas could be created based on MRI images and the tumour burden could be decreased based on the outcome of 6-month biopsies. This is an evolving technique that should be explored in well-defined studies in order to demonstrate reproducibility and to produce longterm outcome data. The treatment can be given in an outpatient setting and the authors concluded that the morbidity of this salvage therapy was low, although two recto-urethral fistulas were seen.

# Focal therapy

Since the follow-up of patients with localised prostate cancer treated with potential curative intent is more stringent and early relapses are diagnosed at an earlier stage, the question arises if salvage treatment should entail the whole prostate once PSA only recurrence has been demonstrated. Due to improvements in imaging

modalities, recurrent tumour areas within the prostate can possibly be identified and, hopefully in the near future, the dominant tumour area within the prostate can also be identified using new molecular techniques. The possible advantages of focal therapy are the reduction of toxicities using subsequent treatment modalities because that is still a matter of great concern with all existing salvage treatment modalities. In fact, all the described techniques can be used for focal therapy and in the literature the first reports have appeared for using focal therapy as initial treatment or salvage therapy [48–50].

## Hormonal therapy

In case of metastatic disease androgen deprivation therapy is indicated, but based on the outcome of several phase III trials there is also a role for the combination of hormonal therapy with EBRT for specific high-risk patient groups. However, if only biochemical recurrence is found, the role of androgen deprivation has not been clearly defined until now. The important question is if early hormonal therapy is as good as delayed hormonal therapy. Some studies have appeared randomising patients between immediate and delayed hormonal therapy as initial therapy, showing conflicting results. The Medical Research Council (MRC) initially reported that patients with M0 disease as well as M+ disease benefited from early hormonal therapy, but in a later, not published, report it was said that this benefit was only apparent for patients with M0 disease [51,52]. The European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Genito-Urinary (EORTC GU) group also investigated the role of immediate versus delayed therapy in approximately 1000 patients that were not candidates for primary treatment with curative intent. The trigger to start hormonal therapy in the delayed arm was symptomatic progression and not PSA progression only. It was demonstrated that immediate androgen deprivation resulted in a modest but statistically significant increase in overall survival but no significant difference in prostate cancer mortality or symptom-free survival [53]. In a further analysis of this trial, risk groups for progression in the delayed treatment arm were identified: patients with a baseline PSA greater than 50 ng/mL and/or a PSA doubling time less than 12 months were at increased risk of dying from prostate cancer and might have benefited from immediate androgen deprivation therapy, whereas patients with a baseline PSA less than 50 ng/mL and a slow PSA doubling time (>12 months) were likely to die of causes unrelated to prostate cancer, and thus could be spared the burden of immediate androgen deprivation [54]. These data do not directly apply to biochemical recurrence following radiation therapy, but this group of patients can be considered to have advanced disease and the criteria identified in this EORTC GU group study could be used to counsel the patient on the timing of hormonal therapy. A specific problem can be the group of patients that have been treated with a period of neo- or adjuvant hormonal therapy and who develop biochemical recurrence. The androgen deprivation treatment could have modified the androgen receptor and this could result in a worse outcome of starting hormonal therapy again. Hormonal therapy in the trials mentioned was given in the form of a chemical (LHRH analogue) or surgical castration. This treatment induces short-term and long-term side effects, which have to be taken into account when discussing immediate therapy, especially if treatment is started at the time of first demonstration of PSA relapse, where most patients will receive androgen deprivation therapy for a (very) long period of time. The recently identified metabolic syndrome and high chance of osteoporosis is especially a risk for this older patient group [55,56]. Because of these issues other forms of hormonal manipulation have been explored, e.g anti-androgen monotherapy, intermittent androgen deprivation and 5-alpha reductase inhibitors alone or in combination. These treatments are all investigational in this setting and no strong recommendations can be made on their role for PSA relapse following radiation treatment.

## Conclusion

The treatment of biochemical relapse only following radiation treatment is still controversial and the optimal treatment and timing of treatment are not known. The patient is concerned with the fact that, following unsuccessful initial treatment with curative intent, salvage treatment might induce considerable morbidity, which will have an impact on his quality of life. Based on clinical data and new evolving imaging modalities, local or systemic recurrence can nowadays be predicted in a better, but still not optimal way. In case of local recurrence a salvage treatment can be discussed, although the best modality is not yet known and it is clear from the scarce literature that the salvage procedure will add to the already present toxicity. The patient opting for salvage treatment should have a good life expectancy and a good performance status, but it remains a matter of discussion between the doctor and the patient to decide which treatment is best in each individual case. New developments are being explored and although these are called 'minimally invasive', the morbidity can still be significant in a salvage approach. Well designed clinical trials are necessary in order to define which patients will benefit most from salvage treatment and which technique is the best. Follow-up procedures should be defined and evaluation of outcome parameters of salvage strategies determined, because the used parameters have not been tested in this setting. Besides the evaluation of new imaging procedures and the described salvage techniques, collaboration with molecular biologists, pathologists and others is essential in order to determine which recurrent tumours are at risk, based on molecular/genetic/metabolomic profiles, and need a salvage procedure.

#### Conflict of interest statement

None declared.

#### References

- 1 Moul J. Prostate specific antigen only progression of prostate cancer. J Urol 2000;163:1632–42.
- 2 Bolla M, Collette L, Blank L, et al. Long-term results with immediate androgen suppression and external irradiation in patients with locally advanced prostate cancer (an EORTC study): a phase III randomised trial. *Lancet* 2002;360:103–6.
- 3 Lawton CA, DeSilvio M, Roach M 3rd, et al. An update of the phase III trial comparing whole pelvic to prostate only radiotherapy and neoadjuvant to adjuvant total androgen suppression: updated analysis of RTOG 94-13, with emphasis on unexpected hormone/radiation interactions. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2007;**69**:646-55.
- 4 Pound CR, Partin AW, Epstein JI, Walsh PC. Prostate-specific antigen after anatomic radical retropubic prostatectomy. Patterns of recurrence and cancer control. *Urol Clin N Am* 1997;24: 395–06.
- 5 Soderdahl DW, Diaz JI, Rabah DM, Schellhammer PF, Fabrizio MD. Laparoscopic radical prostatectomy: evaluation of specimen pathologic features to critically assess and modify surgical technique. *Urology* 2005;66:552-6.
- 6 Kupelian PA, Elshaikh M, Reddy CA, et al. Comparison of the efficacy of local therapies for localized prostate cancer in the prostate-specific antigen era: A large singleinstitution experience with radical prostatectomy and externalbeam radiotherapy. J Clin Oncol 2002;20:3376–85.
- 7 Scher HI, Eisenberger M, D'Amico AV, et al. Eligibility and outcomes reporting guidelines for clinical trials for patients in the state of a rising prostate specific antigen: Recommendations from the Prostate-Specific Antigen Working Group. *J Clin Oncol* 2004;22:537–56.
- 8 Stephenson AJ, Kattan MW, Eastham JA, et al. Defining biochemical recurrence of prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy: a proposal for a standardized definition. *J Clin Oncol* 2006:24:3973–8.

- 9 ASTRO. Consensus statement. Guidelines for PSA following radiation therapy. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1997;37: 1035–41.
- 10 Roach M 3rd, Hanks G, Thames H Jr, et al. Defining biochemical failure following radiotherapy with or without hormonal therapy in men with clinically localized prostate cancer: recommendations of the RTOG-ASTRO Phoenix Consensus Conference. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2006;65:965–74.
- 11 Critz FA, Hamilton Wiliams H, Benton JB, Levinson AK, Holladay CT, Holladay DA. Prostate specific antigen bounce after radioactive seed implantation followed by external beam radiation for prostate cancer. *J Urol* 2000;163:1085–9.
- 12 Rosser CJ, Kuban DA, Levy LB, et al. The prostate specific antigen bounce phenomenon after external beam radiation for clinically localized prostate cancer. J Urol 2002;168:2001–5.
- 13 Crook J, Gillan C, Yeung I, Austen L, McLean M, Lockwood G. PSA kinetics and PSA bounce following permanent seed prostate brachytherapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2007;69:426–33.
- 14 Sengoz M, Abacioglu U, Cetin I, Turkeri L. PSA bouncing after external beam radiation for prostate cancer with or without hormonal treatment. Eur Urol 2003;43:473–7.
- 15 Mitchell DM, Swindell R, Elliott T, Wylie JP, Taylor CM, Logue JP. Analysis of prostate-specific antigen bounce after I(125) permanent seed implant for localised prostate cancer. *Radiother Oncol* 2008;88:102–7.
- 16 Horwitz EM, Levy LB, Thames HD, et al. Biochemical and clinical significance of the posttreatment prostate-specific antigen bounce for prostate cancer patients treated with external beam radiation therapy alone: a multiinstitutional pooled analysis. *Cancer* 2006;107:1496–502.
- 17 Hanlon AL, Pinover WH, Horwitz EM, Hanks GE. Patterns and fate of PSA bouncing following 3D-CRT. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 2001;50:845–9.
- 18 Shipley WU, Thames HD, Sandler HM, et al. Radiation therapy for clinically localized prostate cancer: a multi-institutional pooled analysis. *JAMA* 1999;281:1598–604.
- 19 Kattan MW, Zelefsky MJ, Kupelian PA, et al. Pretreatment nomogram that predicts 5-year probability of metastasis following three-dimensional conformal radiation therapy for localized prostate cancer. J Clin Oncol 2003;21:4568–71.
- 20 Kattan MW, Potters L, Blasko JC, et al. Pretreatment nomogram for predicting freedom from recurrence after permanent prostate brachytherapy in prostate cancer. *Urology* 2001;58:393–9.
- 21 Kattan MW, Zelefsky MJ, Kupelian PA, Scardino PT, Fuks Z, Leibel SA. Pretreatment nomogram for predicting the outcome of three-dimensional conformal radiotherapy in prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2000;18:3352–9.
- 22 D'Amico AV, Whittington R, Malkowicz SB, et al. Biochemical outcome after radical prostatectomy, external beam radiation therapy, or interstitial radiation therapy for clinically localized prostate cancer. *JAMA* 1998;280:969–74.
- 23 Tamsel S, Killi R, Hekimgil M, Altay B, Soydan S, Demirpolat G. Transrectal ultrasound in detecting prostate cancer compared with serum total prostate-specific antigen levels. *J Med Imaging Radiat Oncol* 2008;52:24–8.
- 24 Strigari L, Marsella A, Canitano S, et al. Color Doppler quantitative measures to predict outcome of biopsies in prostate cancer. *Med Phys* 2008;35:4793–9.
- 25 Kamoi K, Okihara K, Ochiai A, et al. The utility of transrectal real-time elastography in the diagnosis of prostate cancer. *Ultrasound Med Biol* 2008;34:1025–32.
- 26 Aigner F, Pallwein L, Mitterberger M, et al.Contrast-enhanced ultrasonography using cadence-contrast pulse sequencing

- technology for targeted biopsy of the prostate. *BJU Int* 2009;**103**:458–63.
- 27 Crook JM, Perry GA, Robertson S, Esche BA. Routine prostate biopsies following radiotherapy for prostate cancer: results for 226 patients. *Urology* 1995;45:624–31.
- 28 Cheng L, Cheville JC, Bostwick DG. Diagnosis of prostate cancer in needle biopsies after radiation therapy. Am J Surg Pathol 1999;23:1173–83.
- 29 Cher ML, Bianco FJ Jr, Lam JS, et al. Limited role of radionuclide bone scintigraphy in patients with prostate specific antigen elevations after radical prostatectomy. *J Urol* 1998:160:1387–91.
- 30 Johnstone, PAS, Tarman, GJ, Riffenburgh, R, et al: Yield of imaging and scintigraphy assessing biochemical failure in prostate cancer patients. *Urol Oncol* 1997;3:108–12.
- 31 Harisinghani MG, Barentsz J, Hahn PF, et al. Noninvasive detection of clinically occult lymph node metastases in prostate cancer. N Engl J Med 2003;348:2491–9.
- 32 Cimitan M, Bortolus R, Morassut S, et al. [18F]fluorocholine PET/CT imaging for the detection of recurrent prostate cancer at PSA relapse: experience in 100 consecutive patients. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging 2006;33:1387–98.
- 33 Schilling D, Schlemmer HP, Wagner PH, et al. Histological verification of 11C-choline-positron emission/computed tomography-positive lymph nodes in patients with biochemical failure after treatment for localized prostate cancer. *BJU Int* 2008;102:446–51.
- 34 Pound CR, Partin AW, Eisenberger MA, Chan DW, Pearson JD, Walsh PC. Natural history of progression after PSA elevation following radical prostatectomy. *JAMA* 1999;281:1591–7.
- 35 Siders DB, Lee F. Histologic changes of irradiated prostatic carcinoma diagnosed by transrectal ultrasound. *Hum Pathol* 1992;23:344–51.
- 36 Lerner SE, Blute ML, Zincke H. Critical evaluation of salvage surgery for radio-recurrent/resistant prostate cancer. *J Urol* 1995; 154:1103–9.
- 37 Bianco FJ Jr, Scardino PT, Stephenson AJ, Diblasio CJ, Fearn PA, Eastham JA. Long-term oncologic results of salvage radical prostatectomy for locally recurrent prostate cancer after radiotherapy. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 2005;62:448–53.
- 38 Nguyen PL, D'Amico AV, Lee AK, Suh WW. Patient selection, cancer control, and complications after salvage local therapy for postradiation prostate-specific antigen failure: a systematic review of the literature. *Cancer* 2007;110:1417–28.
- 39 Russo P. Salvage radical prostatectomy after radiation therapy and brachytherapy. J Endourol 2000;14:385–90.
- 40 Kaouk JH, Hafron J, Goel R, Haber GP, Jones JS. Robotic salvage retropubic prostatectomy after radiation/brachytherapy: initial results. *BJU Int* 2008;102:93–6.
- 41 Koutrouvelis P, Hendricks F, Lailas N, et al. Salvage reimplantation in patient with local recurrent prostate carcinoma after brachytherapy with three dimensional computed tomography-guided permanent pararectal implant. *Technol Cancer Res Treat* 2003;2:339–44.
- 42 Onik GM, Cohen JK, Reyes GD, Rubinsky B, Chang Z, Baust J. Transrectal ultrasound-guided percutaneous radical cryosurgical ablation of the prostate. *Cancer* 1993;72:1291–9.
- 43 Ismail M, Ahmed S, Kastner C, Davies J. Salvage cryotherapy for recurrent prostate cancer after radiation failure: a prospective case series of the first 100 patients. *BJU Int* 2007;100:760–4.
- 44 Murat FJ, Poissonnier L, Rabilloud M, et al. Mid-term results demonstrate salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU) as an effective and acceptably morbid salvage treatment option

- for locally radiorecurrent prostate cancer. *Eur Urol* 2009;**55**: 640–7.
- 45 Ahmed HU, Ishaq A, Zacharakis E, et al. Rectal fistulae after salvage high-intensity focused ultrasound for recurrent prostate cancer after combined brachytherapy and external beam radiotherapy. BJU Int 2009;103:321–3.
- 46 Trachtenberg J, Bogaards A, Weersink RA, et al. Vascular targeted photodynamic therapy with palladium-bacteriopheophorbide photosensitizer for recurrent prostate cancer following definitive radiation therapy: assessment of safety and treatment response. *J Urol* 2007;178:1974–9.
- 47 Trachtenberg J, Weersink RA, Davidson SR, et al. Vascular-targeted photodynamic therapy (padoporfin, WST09) for recurrent prostate cancer after failure of external beam radiotherapy: a study of escalating light doses. *BJU Int* 2008;102:556–62.
- 48 Eggener SE, Coleman JA. Focal treatment of prostate cancer with vascular-targeted photodynamic therapy. *ScientificWorldJournal* 2008:8:963-73.
- 49 Ritch CR, Katz AE. Prostate cryotherapy: current status. *Curr Opin Urol* 2009;**19**:177–81.
- 50 Van Leenders GJ, Beerlage HP, Ruijter ET, de la Rosette JJ, van de Kaa CA. Histopathological changes associated with

- high intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU) treatment for localised adenocarcinoma of the prostate. *J Clin Pathol* 2000;**53**:391–4.
- 51 The MRC prostate cancer working party investigators group. Immediate versus deferred treatment for advanced prostatic cancer: initial results of the Medical Research Council trial. *BJU* 1997;**79**:235–46.
- 52 Kirk D. Timing and choice of androgen ablation. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis* 2004;7:217–22.
- 53 Studer UE, Whelan P, Albrecht W, et al. Immediate or deferred androgen deprivation for patients with prostate cancer not suitable for local treatment with curative intent: European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) Trial 30891. J Clin Oncol 2006;24:1868–76.
- 54 Studer UE, Collette L, Whelan P, et al. Using PSA to guide timing of androgen deprivation in patients with T0–4 N0–2 M0 prostate cancer not suitable for local curative treatment (EORTC 30891). *Eur Urol* 2008;53:941–9.
- 55 Nobes JP, Langley SE, Laing RW. Metabolic syndrome and prostate cancer: A review. Clin Oncol (R Coll Radiol). 2009;21: 183–91.
- 56 Tuck SP, Francis RM. Testosterone, bone and osteoporosis. Front Horm Res 2009;37:123–32.