Journal of Molecular Biomarkers & Diagnosis

Kamel and Nassir, J Mol Biomark Diagn 2015, 7:1 DOI: 10.4172/2155-9929.1000262

Review Article Open Access

Conventional and Promising Biomarkers for Prostate Cancer their Clinical Implication and Prospective Role

Hala FM Kamel^{1,2*} and Anmar M Nassir³

- ¹Biochemistry Department, Faculty of Medicine, Umm Al-Qura University, Saudi Arabia
- ²Medical Biochemistry Department, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt
- ³Urology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Umm Al-Qura University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

Prostate cancer (PCa) is one of the most common cancer in men and most common causes of male cancer-related deaths. Over many years, biomarkers have been extensively studied for screening, diagnosis, prediction of (PCa) behavior and outcome and for assigning the patients during treatments. Molecular biomarkers could also help scientists to attain better understanding for the molecular basis of the disease and prediction of the patient response to therapies. Early detection of PCa was made possible about 30 years ago by the introduction of prostate specific antigen (PSA) in the clinical practice. However, PCa screening remains controversial, because of the risk of over diagnosis and/or over treatment and the inability to detect a significant proportion of advanced tumors. Several novel biomarkers have shown promises in preliminary studies. This review will focus on traditional biomarkers approved by FDA as PSA, PSA isoforms, Prostate health index (phi) and prostate cancer antigen 3 (PCA3), also novel and promising PCa biomarkers as Prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) and Urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA), emphasizing on their molecular and biochemical basis, clinical implication and prospective role.

Keywords: Prostate cancer; Genetic susceptibility; Biomarkers

Introduction

Prostate cancer (PCa) is the second most frequently diagnosed cancer in men, with 1.1 million new cases estimated to have occurred in 2012 worldwide [1]. Incidence rates vary by more than 25-fold worldwide [2,3]. Most of the variations reflect differences in the use of prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing [4]. (PCa) is the fifth leading cause of cancer death worldwide, with the highest mortality rates found in the Caribbean and Southern and Middle Africa. The reason for the high prostate cancer risk among some populations of African descent is still poorly understood, although it may in part reflect differences in genetic susceptibility [5]. During the 1930s, Gutmans' and his colleagues discovered increased acid phosphatase activity in the serum of 11/15 men with metastatic PCa, and only in 1/88 men with other non-cancerous conditions [6]. Few years later Huggins showed that castration in men with advanced PCa resulted in clinical relief, which was accompanied by a decline in serum acid phosphatase [7] Thus, acid phosphatase fulfilled the definition of biomarker more than 80 years ago and became the first PCa biomarker known.

PCa Biomarkers

Biomarkers may be defined in several ways. A simple definition proposed by the US Food and Drugs Administration (FDA) is 'Any measurable diagnostic indicator that is used to assess the risk or presence of disease'. However according to the US National Institutes of Health (NIH) a more comprehensive definition of a biomarker has been suggested as - 'A characteristic that is objectively measured and evaluated as an indicator of normal biological processes, pathogenic processes, or pharmacological responses to therapeutic intervention' [8].

Cancer biomarkers are produced either by the tumor cells or by the body in response to the tumor. In this review we will focus on the following categories of clinical utility and uses of PCa biomarkers (illustrated in Table 1), however some biomarkers could be used for more than one of the following categories and tools: a)Screening/Early detection: the biomarker is used for evaluating patients with either risk

Phases	Type of studies	Outcome	
Phase I	Preclinical exploration	Promising directions are explored and potential biomarkers identified	
Phase II	Clinical assay and validation	Determination of the potential capacity of the biomarker to established disease	
Phase III	Retrospective longitudinal	Determine how well biomarkers detect pre-clinical disease through retrospectively testing	
Phase IV	Prospective screening	Identify the characteristics of the disease detected by the biomarker and determine the false positive rate	
Phase V	Cancer control	Quantification of the role of the biomarkers in the reduction of disease burden through Phase 5 population screening	

Table 1: Structured phased -model for development evaluation, and validation of biomarkers modified from Pepe et al., and Paradiso et al. [11,13].

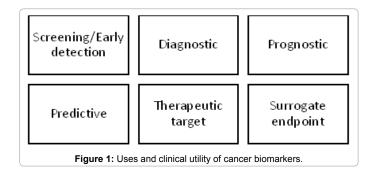
factors or suggestive symptoms of PCa. b) Diagnostic: this biomarker can help classical histopathological characteristics in assessing, staging or confirming PCa. c) Prognostic: this biomarker is used to predict the overall outcome of a patient, regardless of therapy, regards to risk of recurrence, relapse or progression. d) Predictive: this biomarker is used to predict or monitor the effectiveness of the treatment, beside this biomarkers may identify subpopulations of patients who are most likely to respond to a given therapy. A predictive biomarker can be a

*Corresponding author: Hala F. M. Kamel, Biochemistry Department, Faculty of Medicine, Umm AlQura University, Makah, KSA, Tel: +966 12 550 1000; E-mail: kamelhala@msn.com, hfkamel@uqu.edu.sa.com

Received October 15, 2015; Accepted November 24, 2015; Published November 26, 2015

Citation: Kamel HFM, Nassir AM (2015) Conventional and Promising Biomarkers for Prostate Cancer their Clinical Implication and Prospective Role. J Mol Biomark Diagn 6: 262. doi:10.4172/2155-9929.1000262

Copyright: © 2015 Kamel HFM, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.



target for therapy. e) Therapeutic target: this biomarker can potentially identify the molecular targets of novel therapies therefore identify the patients who will benefit from such particular therapeutic regimen. f) Surrogate endpoint: this biomarker is used to substitute for a clinical endpoint and/or to measure clinical benefit, harm or lack of benefit or harm (Figure 1) [9]. Ideal biomarker must be strictly able to differentiate between cancerous tissue from benign tissue, aggressive tumors from insignificant one; it should be of high specificity and sensitivity. Furthermore, it should be a non-invasive test and inexpensive [10]. Structured phased -model for development evaluation, and validation of biomarkers has been proposed by Pepe et al. [11], and has been adopted and modified by others [12,13]. This model was comparable with that commonly used in drug development; phase 1 preclinical exploratory studies, phase 2 clinical assay and validation, phase 3 retrospective longitudinal repository studies, phase 4 prospective screening studies and phase 5 cancer control studies, as shown in Table 1. Only PSA has been categorized as phase 4, prospective screening trials [11].

PSA and PSA kinetics

PSA is a glycoprotein, encoded by the KLK3 gene, which belongs to the family of human kallikerin proteins and is a neutral serine protease, it has several isoforms [14]. PSA testing was first approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 1986. It was indicated firstly as prognostic marker for PCa, its value in that manner has never been challenged. PSA test revolutionized the PCa screening and diagnosis landscape, the introduction of PSA as a screening test has led to a sharp increase in the incidence of PCa because there has been a shift to diagnosis at earlier stages, consequently reducing mortality from PCa [15]. PSA is one of the few molecular markers routinely used for detection, risk stratification, and monitoring clinical response to treatments [16]. Although PSA is organ specific, it not cancer-specific, some non-malignant diseases can cause rise in PSA levels, e.g. benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH) and prostatitis. In men with serum level of PSA between 4-10 ng/ml (the so-called gray zone) it is very difficult to discriminate between patients with PCa and those with BPH or others suffering from prostatitis or even as a result of prostate manipulation, which can also increase PSA levels [17]. In spite of low specificity, PSA is still, in combination with a digital rectal examination (DRE) the most commonly used diagnostic method for PCa. [18]. For many years, widespread use of PSA has led to an increase in diagnostic prostate biopsies, some of these screen-detected tumors might not have become clinically significant during lifetime with over diagnosis of those patients, some times over treatment and bringing psychological burden to the patient [19]. Even though, PCa screening based on PSA levels still a matter of contraverse, it will be extensively studied because of many of its characteristics [20]. Another tool concerning PSA kinetics has been investigated in order to improve its diagnostic accuracy or to be used as prognostic marker during follow up as PSA density, velocity and doubling time. Vickers and his colleagues has reported that PSA velocity and PSA doubling time are correlated with PCa diagnosis at biopsy, however, they found little evidence that both provide additional value to absolute total PSA level alone [21]. However PSA doubling time has been deducted to be of high sensitivity for prediction of recurrence after radical prostatectomy and radiotherapy [22].

PSA Derivatives, Isoforms and Prostate Health Index (phi)

PSA exists in two forms: free (fPSA) and bound or complexed. About 75% of serum PSA is bound to alfa-1-antichymotrypsin, 1–2% forms a complex with alfa-1-proteinase inhibitor and 5–10% occurs in complex with alfa-2-macroglobulin. The FDA has approved the use of percent fPSA testing (%fPSA) [i.e., (fPSA/tPSA) \times 100] as an adjunct to tPSA in men with a tserum tPSA concentration between 4 and 10 ng/mL which could improve the diagnostic accuracy of the PSA test alone [23]. (%fPSA) tends to increase in BPH compared with PCa [24], and low %fPSA is associated with more aggressive PCa [25].

PSA have 3 distinct cleavage isoforms: pro-PSA, BPH associated PSA (BPSA), and intact free PSA [26]. PSA is synthesized from the inactive pro-PSA form which is activated through removal of a short peptide by human glandular kallikrein 2. Truncated forms of pro-PSA [-2] (proPSA) is pro form with remaining un-cleaved amino acids. Cancerous prostate cells contain higher levels of [-2] (proPSA) [26]. Moreover, [-2] (proPSA) reported to be of the highest specificity for PCa screening and was the most efficient predictor of PCa aggressiveness [27].

Numerous studies demonstrated significant improvement in PCa detection using a PSA isoform [-2] (proPSA) and its percentage derivative %proPSA [proPSA/ (fPSA X 1000) X100], especially with multivariate regression analysis [28,29]. Recently further improvement in PCa diagnosis was developed by the formula of prostate health index (Phi), that combines three forms of PSA ie: tPSA, fPSA and [-2] (proPSA) (Phi = [-2]proPSA/free PSA) $\times \sqrt{PSA}$), Phi is a single score that can be used as an aid in clinical decision-making [30], in screening [31] and in prediction of aggressive PCa [32]. Eventually %p2PSA (based on 2 markers) and even more Phi (based on 3 markers) demonstrated better diagnostic performance than tPSA and %fPSA for PCa detection as was indicated by better specificities at high sensitivities, results that indicate a potential reduction of unnecessary biopsies. Additionally, correlations between %p2PSA or Phi with Gleason score suggested that these biomarkers may more accurately detect aggressive PCa [31,33]. Two biomarkers have been approved recently by the FDA. These include proPSA as part of the Phi and Prostae cancer antigen 3 (PCA3) [34].

PCA3 as Urine Biomarker

PCA3 was first described as the Differential Display clone 3 (DD3) gene in 1999 [35], it is noncoding messenger RNA (mRNA); overexpressed in 95% of prostate cancers with a median 66-fold upregulation and no expression in cell lines of non-prostatic cancers and benign non-prostate tissue [35,36]. It is a prostate-specific and highly over expressed in primary PCa specimens and PCa metastases therefore it has been proposed as a promising diagnostic tool for PCa in urine [36] and in tissue [37]. Urinary assay, transcription-mediated amplification (TMA) method (PCA3, Gen-Probe Incorporated) for PCA3 assessment was developed in the last decade by Groskopf et al. [38], it measures both PCA3 mRNA and PSA mRNA in first-

catch urine samples collected after DRE (three strokes per lobe) This method of urine collection provides higher informative rates compared to samples obtained without performing a DRE [39]. As prostate is anatomically in direct relation to the urethra, so just after performance of pressure within the prostate by DRE there will be shed and release of prostate cells within the prostate duct system into the urinary tract and thus into the urine. Quantitative PCA3 score is calculated as a ratio between PCA3 and PSA mRNA ([PCA3 mRNA / PSA mRNA] \times 1000). PSA mRNA concentrations are used in this calculation to normalize for the quantity of PSA mRNA, since KLK3, the gene encoding for PSA, is not up-regulated in PCa [38].

PCA3 urine assay has promising role in improving the accuracy of PCa detection in the PSA gray zone [40,41]. It was postulated that PCA3 score may be a novel molecular marker for classification of patients diagnosed with PCa due to the significant PCA3 score association with tumor volume and Gleason score in prostatectomy specimens [42]. Furthermore, PCA3 could improve the specificity to diagnose PCa and prevent many unnecessary prostate biopsies [43]. As a prognostic marker, the quantitative urinary PCA3 score was reported to be directly related to the probability of positive biopsy [44]. The results were promising, however the diagnostic value needs to be further validated in a multicenter setting and followed closely to show if indeed the PCA3 urine test is able to "predict" the presence of PCa.

uPA and uPA Receptors as Prognostic Biomarkers

The Uokinase plasminogen activation system is involved in the process of extracellular matrix degradation, thereby represents a potential target for PCa biomarkers through its involvement in various phases of tumor development, progression and metastases. uPA is an inactive precursor of serine protease, is secreted as a zymogen (prouPA), and activation of pro-uPA is accelerated by its binding to its specific soluble cell-surface uPA receptor (uPAR), promoting the transformation of plasminogen into plasmin [45]. Plasmin subsequently activates a cascade of proteases involved in wide degradation process of various forms of extracellular matrix proteins because of its broad spectrum of substrate specificities. In addition to the proteolytic degradation activity of uPA, the binding of uPA to uPAR also results in signaling cascade of events leading to cell migration, tissue remodeling, atherogenesis, angiogenesis [46] and cell proliferation [45]. Increased serum levels of different forms of uPAR have been associated with distant metastases and poor prognosis in various cancers [47,48]. Multiple studies reported that higher plasma or serum levels of uPA correlate with the tumor progression, suggesting uPA as a poor prognostic marker in PCa [49-51]. uPA and uPAR expression are up regulated in aggressive PCa cells and in stromal cells surrounding the tumor so they correlate with the metastatic potential of prostate cancer cells [52]. Overexpression of both uPA and its inhibitor (PAI-1), in PCa specimen after radical prostatectomy in men with PCa, was associated with aggressive PCa and recurrence [53]. Steuber et al. demonstrated that uPAR were significant predictors of PCa biopsy specimens of patients with an elevated PSA and serum levels of soluble uPAR and fPSA before prostate biopsy improved the regression model accuracy for prediction of PCa [54]. Numerous studies reported the potential prognostic value of uPA and uPAR, moreover levels of uPA and uPAR have been associated with advancing stage of PCa and bone metastases [47,55,56]. Meanwhile preoperative plasma uPA was a strong predictor of biochemical recurrence and associated with aggressive recurrence and distant metastasis with fast PSA doubling time [53]. However, Milanese and his colleagues found no significant prediction of uPAR for PCa, so far uPAR was helpful in predicting the presence of poor pathologic characteristics [57].

Prostate Stem Cell Antigen (PSCA)

Reiter and his colleges reported the identification of a predominantly cell surface antigen; PSCA. It has been identified at first through an analysis of genes up regulated in the LAPC-4 prostate xenograft model of human PCa [58]. It is located on chromosome 8q24.2 and PSCA encodes a 123 amino acid glycoprotein, a glycosyl phosphatidylinositol- anchored cell surface protein related to the Ly-6/Thy-1 family of cell surface antigens, that bears 30% homology to stem cell antigen type 2 (SCA-2). This homology PSCA was a misnomer since it is neither a marker for a stem cell nor an exclusive protein of prostate cells [59]. The possible mechanism of PSCA overexpression in PCa may be gene amplification, as PSCA is located on chromosome 8q24.2 [58] which is often amplified in metastatic and recurrent PCa and considered to indicate a poor prognosis [60]. Furthermore, PSCA is in close proximity to the c-myc oncogene, which is usually amplified in recurrent and metastatic PCa [61].

Within the prostate, PSCA is expressed in basal and secretory epithelial cells as well as neuroendocrine cells [62]. Immunohistochemical studies of PCSA showed that, It was not only detected in more than 80% of primary PCa tissues but also in metastatic lesions [62,63]. Additional reports have demonstrated a significant relationship between PSCA expression and seminal vesicle and capsular invasion [64], Other researchers reported that increased PSCA expression in PCa were significantly associated with higher Gleason score, advanced stage, extra-prostatic extension, distant metastases and increased risk of biochemical recurrence or progression to androgen-independent disease [62,64,65]. Follow up of patients with advanced PCa noted that patients who expressed PSCA had worse disease-free survival than negative PSCA' PCa patients [66,67].

Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) analysis for PSCA revealed recently that greater levels of PSCA mRNA was correlated with metastatic PCa [63,68] Furthermore, PSCA has been considered to be an indicator of poor prognosis [58,69]. All these characteristics make PSCA a potentially useful predictor for high-risk and metastatic PCa and suggesting that PSCA may be promising for the molecular staging of PCa [70].

Recently, In a study published this year, PSCA was found to be an important biomarker for predicting BPH patients who are at high risk for PCa development [71].

Conclusion

Introduction of PSA in clinical practice and its approval by FDA as a screening biomarker has resulted in revolution in early detection, diagnosis and reduced mortality from PCa, however there was consequently overdiagnosis of prostate biopsies with increase in insignificant PCa incidence worldwide, resulting in potential overtreatment but sometimes inability to detect a significant proportion of PCa cases. Lately great effort and numerous studies have been introduced to improve diagnosis, monitoring, assessment of therapeutic response and to guide molecular targeted therapy of PCa patients. An integrated approach with measurement of different isoforms of PSA, kinetic tools of PSA and calculation ratios or scores as phi in combination with new genetic and urine biomarkers hold the promise of improving screening for and diagnosis of PCa. Urine can serve as an ideal, non-invasive tool, easy to obtain sample and to get the biochemical and molecular information about the released prostate cells in urine. PCA3 as a PCa specific and non-invasive urine biomarker

Biomarker	Biochemical characteristic	Туре	Sample	Reference
PSA*	Kallikrein-related peptidase 3 Secreted serine protease	Screening/ Diagnostic	Blood	[14,72]
PSA density, Velocity, doubling time	Kinetic characterization of PSA	Diagnostic/prognostic/predictor of recurrence?	Blood	[21,22]
fPSA*, tPSA ,-2pro-PSA*	Isoforms and cleavage forms of PSA	Diagnostic with better diagnostic performance	Blood	[29,30]
Phi*	Score formula = [-2]proPSA/free PSA) × √PSA	Diagnostic	Blood	[33,34]
PCA3*	Non coding mRNA, highly up-regulated in PCa	Diagnostic (indicator for repeat biopsy)	Urine /tissue	[41,73]
uPA, uPAR	Precursor for serine protease and its receptor for degradation of extra cellular matrix	Prognostic (increased uPA and uPAR in PCa patients with bone metastasis)	Tissue/blood	[47,57]
PSCA	Membrane glycoprotein. Specific production in the prostate and possible target for therapy Prognostic	Prognostic (correlated with higher Gleason score, higher stage, and the presence of metastasis)	Tissue / blood	[62,74]

^{*}FDA approved

Table 2: Some conventional and promising PCa biomarkers.

has obtained FDA approval to be a clinical aid tool regarding decision making regarding the repeat biopsy setting. It showed higher specificity and diagnostic accuracy for PCa outcome compared to serum PSA.

The tremendous progress that has been made in last decade within the field of molecular profiling have led to the discovery of novel, promising biomarkers as uPA, uPAR and recently PSCA which may be one of most promising biomarkers for molecular staging of prostate cancer especially after standardization of its RT-PCR methodology. However, multiple studies aiming to detect PCa specific biomarkers within peripheral blood mononuclear cells are also ongoing and some promising results in this field are to be expected, Some of the extensively studied, some of the conventional and promising PCa biomarkers are shown in Table 2. In conclusion, the gain of technical improvements in the field of molecular biology during last decades led to new breakthroughs in PCa biomarkers and although results already seem promising so far, there are still major steps to be made. Finally, it is becoming clear that panels of biomarkers, or molecular signatures are far more powerful than single or small combinations of biomarkers.

Conflict of Interest Statement

Both authors declare that they have no conflicting interests in relation to this manuscript.

References

- 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: E359-386.
- Ferlay J, Parkin DM, Steliarova-Foucher E (2010) Estimates of cancer incidence and mortality in Europe in 2008. Eur J Cancer 46: 765-781.
- Torre LA, Bray F, Siegel RL, Ferlay J, Lortet-Tieulent J, et al. (2015) Global cancer statistics, 2012. CA Cancer J Clin 65: 87-108.
- Center MM, Jemal A, Lortet-Tieulent J, Ward E, Ferlay J, et al. (2012) International variation in prostate cancer incidence and mortality rates. Eur Urol 61: 1079-1092.
- Rebbeck TR, Devesa SS, Chang BL, Bunker CH, Cheng I, et al. (2013) Global patterns of prostate cancer incidence, aggressiveness, and mortality in men of african descent. Prostate Cancer 2013: 560857.
- Gutman AB, Gutman EB (1938) An " Acid " Phosphatase Occurring in the Serum of Patients With Metastasizing Carcinoma of the Prostate Gland. J Clin Invest 17: 473-478.
- Huggins C (1942) Effect of Orchiectomy and Irradiation on Cancer of the Prostate. Ann Surg 115: 1192-1200.
- 8. Ilyin SE, Belkowski SM, Plata-Salamán CR (2004) Biomarker discovery and validation: technologies and integrative approaches. Trends Biotechnol 22:

411-416

- Shariat SF, Semjonow A, Lilja H, Savage C, Vickers AJ, et al. (2011) Tumor markers in prostate cancer I: blood-based markers. Acta Oncol 50 Suppl 1: 61-75
- Biomarkers Definitions Working Group. (2001) Biomarkers and surrogate endpoints: preferred definitions and conceptual framework. Clin Pharmacol Ther 69: 89-95.
- Pepe MS, Etzioni R, Feng Z, Potter JD, Thompson ML, et al. (2001) Phases of biomarker development for early detection of cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst 93: 1054-1061.
- 12. Bensalah K, Montorsi F, Shariat SF (2007) Challenges of cancer biomarker profiling. Eur Urol 52: 1601-1609.
- 13. Paradiso A, Mangia A, Orlando C, Verderio P, Belfiglio M, et al. (2009) The Integrated Oncology Program of the Italian Ministry of Health. Analytical and clinical validation of new biomarkers for early diagnosis: network, resources, methodology, quality control, and data analysis. The International journal of biological markers 24:119-29.
- Lukes M, Urban M, Záleský M, Zachoval R, Herácek J, et al. (2001) Prostatespecific antigen: current status. Folia Biol (Praha) 47: 41-49.
- Bjartell AS (2013) Next-generation prostate-specific antigen test: ready to use? Eur Urol 64: 700-702.
- Lilja H, Ulmert D, Vickers AJ (2008) Prostate-specific antigen and prostate cancer: prediction, detection and monitoring. Nat Rev Cancer 8: 268-278.
- Thompson IM, Ankerst DP, Chi C, Lucia MS, Goodman PJ, et al. (2005) Operating characteristics of prostate-specific antigen in men with an initial PSA level of 3.0 ng/ml or lower. JAMA 294: 66-70.
- Heidenreich A, Bellmunt J, Bolla M, Joniau S, Mason M, et al. (2011) EAU guidelines on prostate cancer. Part 1: screening, diagnosis, and treatment of clinically localised disease. European urology 59:61-71.
- Heijnsdijk EA, der Kinderen A, Wever EM, Draisma G, Roobol MJ, et al. (2009) Overdetection, overtreatment and costs in prostate-specific antigen screening for prostate cancer. Br J Cancer 101: 1833-1838.
- Thompson IM Jr, Tangen CM (2012) Prostate cancer--uncertainty and a way forward. N Engl J Med 367: 270-271.
- 21. Vickers AJ, Savage C, O'Brien MF, Lilja H (2009) Systematic review of pretreatment prostate-specific antigen velocity and doubling time as predictors for prostate cancer. Journal of clinical oncology: official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology 27: 398-403.
- Vickers AJ, Brewster SF (2012) PSA Velocity and Doubling Time in Diagnosis and Prognosis of Prostate Cancer. Br J Med Surg Urol 5: 162-168.
- 23. Graefen M, Karakiewicz PI, Cagiannos I, Hammerer PG, Haese A, et al. (2002) Percent free prostate specific antigen is not an independent predictor of organ confinement or prostate specific antigen recurrence in unscreened patients with localized prostate cancer treated with radical prostatectomy. J Urol 167: 1306-1309.
- 24. El Melegy NT, Aboulella HA, Abul-Fadl AM, Mohamed NA (2010) Potential

- biomarkers for differentiation of benign prostatic hyperplasia and prostate cancer. British journal of biomedical science 67: 109-12.
- Catalona WJ, Southwick PC, Slawin KM, Partin AW, Brawer MK, et al. (2000) Comparison of percent free PSA, PSA density, and age-specific PSA cutoffs for prostate cancer detection and staging. Urology 56: 255-260.
- Mikolajczyk SD, Marks LS, Partin AW, Rittenhouse HG (2002) Free prostatespecific antigen in serum is becoming more complex. Urology 59: 797-802.
- 27. Catalona WJ, Bartsch G, Rittenhouse HG, Evans CL, Linton HJ, et al. (2004) Serum pro-prostate specific antigen preferentially detects aggressive prostate cancers in men with 2 to 4 ng/ml prostate specific antigen. J Urol 171: 2239-2244
- Sokoll LJ, Wang Y, Feng Z, Kagan J, Partin AW, et al. (2008) [-2]proenzyme prostate specific antigen for prostate cancer detection: a national cancer institute early detection research network validation study. The Journal of urology 180: 539-43.
- 29. Stephan C, Kahrs AM, Cammann H, Lein M, Schrader M, et al. (2009) A [-2] proPSA-based artificial neural network significantly improves differentiation between prostate cancer and benign prostatic diseases. The Prostate 69: 198-207.
- 30. Catalona WJ, Partin AW, Sanda MG, Wei JT, Klee GG, et al. (2011) A multicenter study of [-2]pro-prostate specific antigen combined with prostate specific antigen and free prostate specific antigen for prostate cancer detection in the 2.0 to 10.0 ng/ml prostate specific antigen range. The Journal of urology 2011:185:1650-5.
- Jansen FH, van Schaik RH, Kurstjens J, Horninger W, Klocker H, et al. (2010) Prostate-specific antigen (PSA) isoform p2PSA in combination with total PSA and free PSA improves diagnostic accuracy in prostate cancer detection. Eur Urol 57: 921-927.
- 32. Guazzoni G, Nava L, Lazzeri M, Scattoni V, Lughezzani G,et al. (2011) Prostate-specific antigen (PSA) isoform p2PSA significantly improves the prediction of prostate cancer at initial extended prostate biopsies in patients with total PSA between 2.0 and 10 ng/ml: results of a prospective study in a clinical setting. European urology 60:214-22.
- 33. Guazzoni G, Lazzeri M, Nava L, Lughezzani G, Larcher A, et al. (2012) Preoperative prostate-specific antigen isoform p2PSA and its derivatives, %p2PSA and prostate health index, predict pathologic outcomes in patients undergoing radical prostatectomy for prostate cancer. European urology 61: 455-66.
- 34. Sartori DA, Chan DW (2014) Biomarkers in prostate cancer: what's new? Curr Opin Oncol 26: 259-264.
- Bussemakers MJ, van Bokhoven A, Verhaegh GW, Smit FP, Karthaus HF, et al. (1999) DD3: a new prostate-specific gene, highly overexpressed in prostate cancer. Cancer Res 59: 5975-5979.
- Hessels D, Klein Gunnewiek JM, van Oort I, Karthaus HF, van Leenders GJ, et al. (2003) DD3(PCA3)-based molecular urine analysis for the diagnosis of prostate cancer. Eur Urol 44: 8-15.
- 37. de Kok JB, Verhaegh GW, Roelofs RW, Hessels D, Kiemeney LA, et al. (2002) DD3(PCA3), a very sensitive and specific marker to detect prostate tumors. Cancer Res 62: 2695-2698.
- Groskopf J, Aubin SM, Deras IL, Blase A, Bodrug S, et al. (2006) APTIMA PCA3 molecular urine test: development of a method to aid in the diagnosis of prostate cancer. Clin Chem 52: 1089-1095.
- Sokoll LJ, Ellis W, Lange P, Noteboom J, Elliott DJ,et al. (2008) A multicenter evaluation of the PCA3 molecular urine test: pre-analytical effects, analytical performance, and diagnostic accuracy. Clinica chimica acta; international journal of clinical chemistry 389:1-6.
- Marks LS, Fradet Y, Deras IL, Blase A, Mathis J, et al. (2007) PCA3 molecular urine assay for prostate cancer in men undergoing repeat biopsy. Urology 69: 532-535.
- van Gils MP, Cornel EB, Hessels D, Peelen WP, Witjes JA, et al. (2007) Molecular PCA3 diagnostics on prostatic fluid. Prostate 67: 881-887.
- Nakanishi H, Groskopf J, Fritsche HA, Bhadkamkar V, Blase A, et al. (2008) PCA3 molecular urine assay correlates with prostate cancer tumor volume: implication in selecting candidates for active surveillance. The Journal of urology 179:1804-1809.
- 43. van Gils MP, Hessels D, van Hooij O, Jannink SA, Peelen WP, et al. (2007)

- The time-resolved fluorescence-based PCA3 test on urinary sediments after digital rectal examination; a Dutch multicenter validation of the diagnostic performance. Clinical cancer research: an official journal of the American Association for Cancer Research 13:939-943.
- Deras IL, Aubin SM, Blase A, Day JR, Koo S, et al. (2008) PCA3: a molecular urine assay for predicting prostate biopsy outcome. J Urol 179: 1587-1592.
- 45. Andreasen PA, Egelund R, Petersen HH (2000) The plasminogen activation system in tumor growth, invasion, and metastasis. Cell Mol Life Sci 57: 25-40.
- Basire A, Sabatier F, Ravet S, Lamy E, Mialhe A, et al. (2006) High urokinase expression contributes to the angiogenic properties of endothelial cells derived from circulating progenitors. Thrombosis and haemostasis 95: 678-88.
- Duffy MJ (2002) Urokinase-type plasminogen activator: a potent marker of metastatic potential in human cancers. Biochem Soc Trans 30: 207-210.
- 48. Stephens RW, Nielsen HJ, Christensen IJ, Thorlacius-Ussing O, Sorensen S, et al. (1999) Plasma urokinase receptor levels in patients with colorectal cancer: relationship to prognosis. Journal of the National Cancer Institute 91: 869-874.
- 49. Shariat SF, Roehrborn CG, McConnell JD, Park S, Alam N, et al. (2007) Association of the circulating levels of the urokinase system of plasminogen activation with the presence of prostate cancer and invasion, progression, and metastasis. Journal of clinical oncology: official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology 25:349-355.
- Lilja H, Vickers A, Scardino P (2007) Measurements of proteases or protease system components in blood to enhance prediction of disease risk or outcome in possible cancer. Journal of clinical oncology: official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology 25:347-348.
- 51. Miyake H, Hara I, Yamanaka K, Arakawa S, Kamidono S (1999) Elevation of urokinase-type plasminogen activator and its receptor densities as new predictors of disease progression and prognosis in men with prostate cancer. Int J Oncol 14: 535-541.
- Cozzi PJ, Wang J, Delprado W, Madigan MC, Fairy S, et al. (2006) Evaluation of urokinase plasminogen activator and its receptor in different grades of human prostate cancer. Human pathology 37:1442-1451.
- 53. Gupta A, Lotan Y, Ashfaq R, Roehrborn CG, Raj GV, et al. (2009) Predictive value of the differential expression of the urokinase plasminogen activation axis in radical prostatectomy patients. European urology 55:1124-1133.
- 54. Steuber T, Vickers A, Haese A, Kattan MW, Eastham JA, et al. (2007) Free PSA isoforms and intact and cleaved forms of urokinase plasminogen activator receptor in serum improve selection of patients for prostate cancer biopsy. International journal of cancer Journal international du cancer 120:1499-1504.
- Hienert G, Kirchheimer JC, Pflüger H, Binder BR (1988) Urokinase-type plasminogen activator as a marker for the formation of distant metastases in prostatic carcinomas. J Urol 140: 1466-1469.
- 56. Miyake H, Hara I, Yamanaka K, Gohji K, Arakawa S, et al. (1999) Elevation of serum levels of urokinase-type plasminogen activator and its receptor is associated with disease progression and prognosis in patients with prostate cancer. The Prostate 39:123-129.
- 57. Milanese G, Dellabella M, Fazioli F, Pierpaoli E, Polito M, et al. (2009) Increased urokinase-type plasminogen activator receptor and epidermal growth factor receptor in serum of patients with prostate cancer. J Urol 181: 1393-1400.
- 58. Reiter RE, Gu Z, Watabe T, Thomas G, Szigeti K, et al. (1998) Prostate stem cell antigen: a cell surface marker overexpressed in prostate cancer. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 95:1735-1740.
- Antica M, Wu L, Scollay R (1997) Stem cell antigen 2 expression in adult and developing mice. Immunol Lett 55: 47-51.
- Sato K, Qian J, Slezak JM, Lieber MM, Bostwick DG, et al. (1999) Clinical significance of alterations of chromosome 8 in high-grade, advanced, nonmetastatic prostate carcinoma. Journal of the National Cancer Institute 91:1574-1580.
- Nupponen NN, Kakkola L, Koivisto P, Visakorpi T (1998) Genetic alterations in hormone-refractory recurrent prostate carcinomas. Am J Pathol 153: 141-148.
- 62. Gu Z, Thomas G, Yamashiro J, Shintaku IP, Dorey F, et al. (2000) Prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) expression increases with high gleason score, advanced stage and bone metastasis in prostate cancer. Oncogene 19: 1288-1296.

- 63. Lam JS, Yamashiro J, Shintaku IP, Vessella RL, Jenkins RB, et al. (2005) Prostate stem cell antigen is overexpressed in prostate cancer metastases. Clinical cancer research: an official journal of the American Association for Cancer Research 11:2591-2596.
- 64. Han KR, Seligson DB, Liu X, Horvath S, Shintaku PI, et al. (2004) Prostate stem cell antigen expression is associated with gleason score, seminal vesicle invasion and capsular invasion in prostate cancer. J Urol 171: 1117-1121.
- 65. Joung JY, Cho KS, Kim JE, Seo HK, Chung J, et al. (2010) Prostate stem cell antigen mRNA in peripheral blood as a potential predictor of biochemical recurrence in high-risk prostate cancer. Journal of surgical oncology 101: 145-148
- 66. Raff AB, Gray A, Kast WM (2009) Prostate stem cell antigen: a prospective therapeutic and diagnostic target. Cancer Lett 277: 126-132.
- 67. Hara N, Kasahara T, Kawasaki T, Bilim V, Obara K, et al. (2002) Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction detection of prostate-specific antigen, prostate-specific membrane antigen, and prostate stem cell antigen in one milliliter of peripheral blood: value for the staging of prostate cancer. Clinical cancer research: an official journal of the American Association for Cancer Research:8:1794-1799.
- 68. Dannull J, Diener PA, Prikler L, Fürstenberger G, Cerny T, et al. (2000) Prostate stem cell antigen is a promising candidate for immunotherapy of advanced prostate cancer. Cancer Res 60: 5522-5528.
- 69. Cher ML, MacGrogan D, Bookstein R, Brown JA, Jenkins RB, et al. (1994)

- Comparative genomic hybridization, allelic imbalance, and fluorescence in situ hybridization on chromosome 8 in prostate cancer. Genes, chromosomes & cancer 11: 153-162.
- 70. Joung JY, Yang SO, Jeong IG, Han KS, Seo HK, et al. (2007) Reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction and immunohistochemical studies for detection of prostate stem cell antigen expression in prostate cancer: potential value in molecular staging of prostate cancer. International journal of urology: official journal of the Japanese Urological Association 14: 635-643.
- 71. Fawzy MS, Mohamed RH, Elfayoumi AR (2015) Prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) mRNA expression in peripheral blood in patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia and/or prostate cancer. Med Oncol 32: 74.
- Aprikian A (2007) PSA for prostate cancer detection: In serum, in urine or both?
 Canadian Urological Association journal Journal de l'Association des urologues du Canada 1:382.
- 73. Leyten GH, Hessels D, Jannink SA, Smit FP, de Jong H, et al. (2014) Prospective multicentre evaluation of PCA3 and TMPRSS2-ERG gene fusions as diagnostic and prognostic urinary biomarkers for prostate cancer. Eur Urol 65: 534-542.
- 74. Gu Z, Yamashiro J, Kono E, Reiter RE (2005) Anti-prostate stem cell antigen monoclonal antibody 1G8 induces cell death in vitro and inhibits tumor growth in vivo via a Fc-independent mechanism. Cancer Res 65: 9495-9500.