

Is Prostate Specific Antigen Still The Best Tumor Marker for Prostate?

Sunai Leewansangtong, MD
Suchai Soontrapa, MD
Anupan Tantiwong, MD

Division of Urology, Department of Surgery, Siriraj Medical School, Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand.

Abstract

Prostate Specific Antigen (PSA) has been clinically utilized in prostate cancer for more than a decade. Because of the overwhelming benefit of PSA, the previous markers for prostate cancer were abandoned. Even though PSA is not organ specific agent, but importantly, its function as an organ specific remains in all clinical situations. PSA significantly involves not only in screening for early detection but also in all clinical spectrums of prostate cancer. Never before had the tumor marker played such a significant role in all purposes of clinical utilizations for prostate cancer as same as PSA did. The answer to the title of this article is absolutely positive. Nevertheless, the question that whether PSA has an impact in decreasing the mortality rate of patients with prostate cancer is yet to be answered. In Siriraj Hospital, though PSA has been available since 1991, the majority of patients registered with the advanced stage of disease and their treatment outcomes are still not satisfactory. Since the prognoses of patients with an early stage of disease appear excellent, to improve the mortality of Thai patients with prostate cancer, screening with PSA for early detection should be introduced and widely used.

Currently, prostate cancer incidence in Thailand is increasing.¹ Tumor markers for prostate cancer have played a significant role in the care of prostate cancer patients for more than a decade. There are 3 markers commonly used: acid phosphatase (AP), prostatic acid phosphatase (PAP), and prostate specific antigen (PSA).² Recently, several investigators indicated that AP and PAP are no longer utilized since the overwhelming advantage of PSA had been addressed.² Today, PSA appears to be a popular issue in prostate cancer known as the PSA era. This review will discuss the biochemical characteristics and the update of the clinical utilization of PSA for prostate cancer.

BIOCHEMICAL CHARACTERISTIC

PSA was firstly isolated from seminal plasma in 1971.³ It is a single chain glycoprotein which consists of 240 amino acids and 4 carbohydrate side chains.⁴ Depending on the different analysis methods, the molecular weight is approximately 26,000 to 34,000 d.⁵ The gene that is related to PSA is located on the long arm of chromosome 19.⁶ PSA is synthesized in the acina and ductal epithelium and subsequently secreted into the lumen of prostatic duct and eventually becomes a component of the seminal fluid.⁷ Physiological function of PSA is to liquefy the coagulum and

break down the seminal clot through proteolysis of the gel-forming proteins into a small soluble fragment.⁸ This subsequently causes releasing of spermatozoa. PSA has a role of promoting cell growth as well.⁹ Based on the structure and function characteristics as well as the gene location, PSA is classified in the human kallikrein family known as hK3.⁶

Different molecular forms of PSA have recently been discovered. The predominant forms are a PSA complexed to α 1-antichymotrypsin (PSA-ACT), a free (unbound) PSA, and a PSA complexed to α 2-macroglobulin (PSA-MG).¹⁰ Other forms such as PSA-PCI, PSA-AT, or PSA-ITI are either only a tract component in the serum or a minor component in the seminal fluid. At present, only the PSA-ACT and free PSA are measurable by immunoassays. Generally, the word "PSA" alone means a total PSA which composes of the free PSA plus the PSA-ACT. The total PSA assays have been introduced for a clinical use since 1980s' while the assays for the free PSA are just available.¹² There are many assays to measure PSA in the serum and the PSA value is dependent on each assay. These variations are results of the difference in the test methods such as monoclonal or polyclonal antibody; type of solid phase; sandwich or competitive; pH; incubation time; the composition of the diluent used; PSA isoforms used to generate the PSA antibodies; specificity of the antibodies; the composition of the calibrator or the PSA values assigned to the calibrator.¹³ Thus, the results reported by laboratories should include the identity of assay used. However, there are good correlations among some assays such as the Hybritech Tandem-R and Abbott AxSYM assays.^{13,14} Most PSA assays indicated that the normal level is between 0 and 4.0 ng/ml for the clinical use. The timing for drawing serum to measure PSA is very important because several prostatic conditions or urological manipulations such as prostatitis, cystoscopy, or prostatic biopsy could affect the value of PSA level in the serum.²⁷ The half life of PSA is 2-3 days.²⁸ Thus, PSA should be measured approximately 4 weeks after these events. However, several investigators suggested that an increase of PSA level due to digital rectal examination (DRE) is clinically insignificant.²⁹

PSA is no more an organ specific agent in the experimental data because it was found in several organs even in women such as apocrine sweat gland, salivary gland tumors, periurethral gland, en-

dometrium, or breast cancer.¹¹ Despite found in other organs, PSA is still an organ specific marker for all clinical situations. PSA is not cancer specific marker because it is produced by both normal epithelial cells and malignant cells.¹⁵ Many investigators showed an overlap of PSA level between men with benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH) and prostate cancer.^{2,17} Despite not a cancer-specificity, PSA has been utilized in all clinical situations for prostate cancer.

CLINICAL UTILIZATIONS

Total, PSA has been used in all spectrums for prostate cancer; screening for early detection; diagnosing; staging; predicting the prognosis; and monitoring after treatments. In Siriraj Hospital, PSA has been clinically utilized since 1991.

Screening

In the United State, screening with PSA testing and DRE has been widely used since 1990. Neither PSA nor DRE is a perfect method for the screening. Many studies reported a large proportion of missing prostate cancer and an underestimating the volume and the local stage by DRE.¹⁶ In addition, there is an overlap in serum PSA level between men with BPH and those with prostate cancer.^{2,17} The use of PSA alone to detect cancer could miss 14 per cent of the patients with prostate cancer due to their normal PSA (<4.0 ng/ml).² In two large screening trials (n=31,953 and 6,630), PSA had a higher positive predictive value than a DRE (30% versus 25%) but the combination of PSA and DRE admitted the highest result (48%).^{18,19} For these reasons, the American Cancer Society recommended that all men between 50-70 with ten year life expectancy should undergo annual screening by PSA testing and DRE. Nevertheless, the necessity of annual screening in men with a normal PSA (<4 ng/ml) is skeptical. One study (n=6842) determined the risks of developing prostate cancer within the next three years in men with an initial PSA level of 0-1, 1.1-2, and 2.1-4 ng/ml were 0.34, 0.97 and 6 per cent, respectively.²⁰ Men who have an initial PSA level of 2 ng/ml or less appear not to be necessary for an annual screening within the next three years while those with an initial PSA of more than 2 ng/ml do need. Because of the overwhelming using the screening programs by PSA testing and DRE, prostate cancer has become the most

common cancer in American men but a lot of significant localized cancer has become the most common cancer in American men but a lot of significant localized cancer were early detected and cured.²¹ In addition, the mortality rate of prostate cancer is not the first rank among cancer death.²¹ In Thailand, prostate cancer incidence in Siriraj Hospital is increasing despite the limited screening. However, the majority of the patients in Siriraj Hospital registered with an advanced disease and their treatment outcomes are not satisfactory¹. Thus, to improve the mortality rate of prostate cancer in Thai patients, screening by PSA testing and DRE should be introduced and widely used. However, some urologists would debate against the cost effectiveness issue.

Diagnosis

PSA is an important test to detect prostate cancer in men by performed a prostatic biopsy if their PSA values are more than 4 ng/ml. Since a substantial overlap of PSA between BPH and prostate cancer, the grey area is between 4.0-10 ng/ml. To improve the specificity and sensitivity of PSA testing, four methods were introduced; PSA density (PSAD), PSA velocity (PSAV), age specific reference range (ASRR), and free to total PSA ratio (F/T PSA).

PSA density is defined as the ratio between a value of PSA and a prostatic volume. It was observed that patients with prostate cancer have PSAD approximately 10 times than those with BPH^{2,22}. Several investigators suggested that a PSAD of 0.15 might increase the detection of prostate cancer patients who have a total PSA of 4.0-10 ng/ml²³. However, contrast results were subsequently reported by others^{24,25}. Recently, a large multicenter analysis in thousands men indicated that a cutoff PSAD for detection prostate cancer is limited. This is because the prostatic volume calculated by transrectal ultrasound is a subjective and an examiner dependent method. The differences among the examiners may mislead the interpretation.

PSA velocity is defined as the rate of PSA level changing over a time period. Men who have a rising PSA would be suspicious for prostate cancer. Many studies suggested that the rising PSA cutoff value of 0.75 to 0.8 ng/ml per year showed the maximized sensitivity and specificity for predicting cancer in 70 year-old men or younger^{30,31}. However, other studies showed that 12.5 per cent of men without prostate

cancer had a rising PSA more than 0.75 ng/ml/year over the 2-year period and suggested that a 2-year follow-up is needed before using PSAV to make a decision for a biopsy³². Nevertheless, many urologists feel that if PSA continuous rising, it is unnecessary to wait for two years to biopsy the patients. At present, PSAV can increase the predictive value and be widely utilized for detection of new prostate cancer.

ASRR was introduced because the PSA value in men without prostate cancer increases with age. The older patients are, the higher PSA is. Several investigators are studying the levels of ASRR.^{33,34} A PSA cutoff abnormal value is lower than 4.0 ng/ml for the younger men while it is higher than 4.0 ng/ml level for the older men. ASRR seems to be more specific in men whose age is higher than 60 and more sensitive in men whose age is lower than 60. However, the data showed that a 4.0 ng/ml cutoff PSA is superior to ASRR in all age groups for early detection.³⁵ In a large study (n=116,073), despite higher specificity as well as higher positive predictive value, ASRR has a lower sensitivity than a 4.0 ng/ml cutoff PSA value especially in older men which is the majority of prostate cancer patients.³⁶ Thus, most screening programs still prefer a 4.0 ng/ml cutoff PSA value for early detection.³⁶ At present, ASRR appears to be clinically useful for men who are younger than 60 years old only.

Free/total ratio PSA has been recently utilized since the observation that the fraction of free PSA is low in men with prostate cancer compared to men without malignancy. Several studies reported the cutoff ratios of 0.14 to 0.28 with the sensitivities and the specificities ranged of 71-100 per cent and 19-92 per cent, respectively.³⁷ The variations might be the results of the differences in the study designs, analysis methods, or biological factors that influence their outcomes. At present, the best cutoff point of using free/total ratio PSA to discriminate prostate cancer from other benign conditions is yet to be solved. Nevertheless, men who have a total PSA level of 4.0 to 10 ng/ml combined with a low F/T PSA ratio are strongly recommended for a biopsy. Today, free PSA has not yet available in Siriraj Hospital.

Staging

Importantly, PSA level is roughly correlated with the volume of intracapsular carcinoma at a rate of 3.5 ng/ml/gm cancer.^{2,22} In addition, it increases linearly

when the clinical stage of prostate cancer increases.³⁸ With the PSA levels less than 10 ng/ml, most tumors will be confined in the prostatic capsule and bone metastases as detected by bone scan are exceedingly rare.³⁹ At the PSA level of 50 ng/ml or greater, seminal vesicle invasion and pelvic lymphadenopathy are predominant.⁴⁰ However, PSA levels between 10 and 50 ng/ml are unpredictable. At the lower PSA levels, organ confined disease is more likely. In the other hand, stage T3 or C disease is more frequent at the higher PSA levels. Obviously, PSA levels above 100 ng/ml are associated with metastatic disease. Several investigators attempted to calculate the probability of lymphnode metastasis with a statistical model using PSA, Gleason score, and clinical stage by DRE.⁴¹ Some urologists would not perform lymphadenectomy if the PSA and Gleason score is low in stage T1C patients (negative for DRE).

Currently, the reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) of PSA mRNA has been utilized to detect a metastatic prostate cancer cell in the peripheral blood and bone marrow samples in the patients who had micrometastases that undetected by conventional methods such as total PSA or bone scintigraphy.⁴² The detection rate of prostate cancer cells in metastatic patients was high (88%) while the false positive rate was low.⁴³ It may provide the best prognostic indicator for improving the accuracy of staging metastatic disease. However, due to the variation of different laboratories, at the present time, some investigators suggested that clinical decisions should not depend on the RT-PCR results only.⁴⁴

Prognostic Indicator

PSA has also been used as a prognostic indicator in prostate cancer. Pretreatment serum PSA is an important predictor of the results of definitive treatments for clinically localized prostate cancer. Data suggested that 3-5 year rates of biochemical failure stratified by pretreatment PSA < 4 ng/ml, 4-10 ng/ml, >10-20 ng/ml, and > 20 ng/ml were approximately 8, 17-16, 45-55, and 55-80 per cent for radical prostatectomy series and 0-31, 10-56, 11-73, and 20-87 per cent for radiotherapy series.⁴⁵ However, there were the varieties of the outcomes and the definitions of biochemical failure among those series. Thus, its value for predicting prostate cancer should be interpreted cautiously. Nevertheless, the combination of pretreat-

ment PSA with other prognostic factors such as clinical stage, Gleason score, tumor volume, DNA ploidy, P53, bcl-2, or Ki-67 could improve the prognostic accuracy.⁴⁶

Monitoring

To determine the treatment outcomes as well as to follow-up prostate cancer patients, urologists monitor their patients with several parameters. But the most important parameter is PSA which mostly used in term of biochemical failure PSA failure, PSA recurrence, or PSA progression. It is usually more sensitive than other parameters such as symptoms or radiological investigations. PSA monitoring is utilized not only in a localized disease but also in a locally advanced or an advanced disease. After the radical prostatectomy in a localized disease, serum PSA level should decline to the undetectable levels (PSA < 0.2 ng/ml) within three weeks and should stay undetectable indefinitely.⁴⁷ Whenever the PSA level dose not decline to the undetectable level or increase after its nadir level, it means that there may be somewhere of residual disease or tumors progress, respectively. Data suggested that PSA recurrence rates are correlated to the pathological stage of disease. Ten year likelihood of PSA progression free rates after radical prostatectomy were approximately 71-90 per cent in stage T1 or T2, 58-82 per cent in stage T3a, 21-43 per cent in stage T3b, and 0 per cent in N1.⁴⁸ Several urologists use the PSA failure as an indication for adjuvant therapy such as adjuvant radiation therapy or hormonal therapy especially in asymptomatic patients. For the definitive radiotherapy in a localized prostate cancer, PSA should decline to the normal level within 6 months after therapy in many patients.⁴⁹ However, it dose not imply disease-free status in the future.⁵⁰ Thus, PSA monitoring after definitive therapy is very important. For an

Table 1 New classification in metastatic prostate cancer.

Metastatic stage	Definition
D1	Pelvic lymphnode metastases
D1.5	Rising PSA after failed local treatment
D2	Bone and/or other organs metastases
D2.5	Rising PSA after nadir level
D3	Hormone refractory disease
D3S	Hormonally sensitive
D3I	Hormonally insensitive

advanced disease, PSA also plays a significant role as an indicator for the hormonal treatment. Recently, some investigators used PSA for the new classification of metastatic disease as shown in Table 1.⁵¹ With the new definition, PSA is not only more important for monitoring but also significant to decide treatment options. The rising PSA indicates a disease progression in metastatic prostate cancer treated with hormonal therapy. Thus, the treatment should be reconsidered for the hormonal refractory disease. At present, though PSA monitoring is universal, the pattern for the follow-up is various because it depends on the difference of treatment options in each stage of disease.

HUMAN KALLIKREIN 2 (hK2)

As stated above, PSA belongs to kallikrein family. Recently, a novel marker known as hK2 has been investigated for prostate cancer. It is also located on chromosome 19 and contains 237 amino acid that 80 per cent of its sequences are as same as PSA.^{52,53} Primary data showed that with the use of RT-PCR in human serum, 67 per cent of men with prostate cancer were positive for hK2 and 17 per cent of those men were positive for PSA whereas none of men without prostate cancer were positive for either hK2 or PSA.⁵⁴ At present, the utilization of hK2 in the clinical aspect for prostate cancer has not yet been reported. Thus, the role of hK2 need to be further investigated for the clinical benefit.

References

1. Soontrapa S, Tantiwong A, Panawattanakul S, et al. Prostatic carcinoma at Siriraj Hospital. *Siriraj Hosp Gaz* 1997; 49:107-13.
2. Leewangsagatong S, Tantiwong A. Prostatic tumors markers in BPH and prostate cancer. *Siriraj Hosp Gaz* 1997; 49:1-9.
3. Hara M, Koyanagi Y, Inoue T, Fukuyama T. Some physico-chemical characteristics of seminoprotein, an antigenic component specific for human seminal plasma. *Forensic immunological study of body fluids and secretion. Jap J Legal Med* 1971; 25:322-4.
4. Lundwall A, Lilja H. Molecular cloning of human prostate specific antigen cDNA. *FEBS Letters* 1987; 214:317-22.
5. Belanger A, van Halbeek H, Graves HC et al. Molecular mass and carbohydrate structure of prostate specific antigen studies for establishment of an international PSA standard. *Prostate* 1995; 27:187-97.
6. Riegman PH, Vlietstra RJ, Suurmeijer L, Cleutjens CB, Trapman J. Characterization of the human kallikrein locus. *Genomics* 1992; 14:6-11.
7. Wang MC, Papsidero LD, Kuriyama M, Valenzuela LA, Murphy GP, Chu TM. Prostate antigen: a new potential marker for prostatic cancer. *Prostate* 1981; 2:89-96.
8. Lilja H, Oldbring J, Rannevik G, Laurell CB. Seminal vesicle-secreted proteins and their reactions during gelation and liquefaction of human semen. *J Clin Invest* 1987; 80:281-5.
9. Cohen P, Graves HC, Peehl DM, Kamarei M, Giudice LC, Rosenfeld RG. Prostate-specific antigen (PSA) is an insulin-like growth factor binding protein-3 protease found in seminal plasma. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1992; 75:1046-53.
10. McCormack RT, Rittenhouse HG, Finlay JA, et al. Molecular forms of prostate-specific antigen and the human kallikrein gene family: a new era. *Urology* 1995; 45:729-44.
11. Van Duijnhoven HL, Pequeriaux NC, van Zon JP, Blankenstein MA. Large discrepancy between prostate-specific antigen results from different assays during longitudinal follow-up of a prostate cancer patient. *Clin Chem* 1996; 42:637-41.
12. Lilja H. Significance of different molecular forms of serum PSA. The free, noncomplexed form of PSA versus that complexed to alpha 1-antichymotrypsin. *Urol Clin North Am* 1993; 20:681-6.
13. Leewangsagatong S, Goktas S, Lepoff R, Holthaus K, Crawford ED. Comparability of serum prostate-specific antigen measurement between the Hybritech Tandem-R and Abbott AxSYM assays. *Urology* 1998; 52:467-9.
14. Turkes A, Nott JP, Griffiths K. Prostate-specific antigen: problems in analysis. *Eur J Cancer* 1991; 27:650-2.
15. Brawer MK, Lange PH. Prostate specific antigen: its role in early detection, staging and monitoring of prostatic carcinoma. *J Endourol* 1989; 3:227-36.
16. Flanigan RC, Catalona WJ, Richie JP, et al. Accuracy of digital rectal examination and transrectal ultrasonography in localizing prostate cancer. *J Urol* 1994; 152:1506-9.
17. Stamey TA, Yang N, Hay AR, McNeal JE, Freiha FS, Redwine E. Prostate-specific antigen as a serum marker for adenocarcinoma of the prostate. *N Engl J Med* 1987; 317:909-16.
18. Catalona WJ, Richie JP, Ahmann FR, et al. Comparison of digital rectal examination and serum prostate specific antigen in the early detection of prostate cancer: results of a multicenter clinical trial of 6,630 men. *J Urol* 1994; 151:1283-90.
19. Crawford ED, DeAntoni EP, Etzioni R, Schaefer VC, Olson RM, Ross CA. Serum prostate-specific antigen and digital rectal examination for early detection of prostate cancer in a national community-based program. The Prostate Cancer Education Council. *Urology* 1996; 47:863-9.
20. Leewangsagatong S, Crawford ED, Gordon SG, et al. Longitudinal follow up from prostate cancer Awareness Week (PCAW): screening interval. *J Urol* 1998; 5(Suppl):177, abstract 680.
21. Landis SH, Murray T, Bolden S, Wingo PA. Cancer statistics, 1998. *Ca Cancer J Clin* 1998; 48:6-29.
22. Stamey TA, Kabalin JN, McNeal JE, et al. Prostate specific

- antigen in the diagnosis and treatment of adenocarcinoma of the prostate. II. Radical prostatectomy treated patients. *J Urol* 1989; 141:1076-83.
23. Seaman E, Whang M, Olsson CA, Katz A, Cooner WH, Benson MC. PSA density (PSAD). Role in patient evaluation and management. *Urol Clin North Am* 1993; 20:653-63.
 24. Brawer MK, Aramburu EA, Chen GL, Preston SD, Ellis WJ. The inability of prostate specific antigen index to enhance the predictive value of prostate specific antigen in the diagnosis of prostatic carcinoma. *J Urol* 1995; 150:369-73.
 25. Ohori M, Dunn JK, Scardino PT. Is prostate-specific antigen density more useful than prostate-specific antigen levels in the diagnosis of prostate cancer? *Urology* 1995; 46:666-71.
 26. Catalona WJ, Richie JP, deKernion JB, et al. Comparison of prostate specific antigen concentration versus prostate specific antigen density in the early detection of prostate cancer: receiver operating characteristic curves. *J Urol* 1994; 152:2031-6.
 27. Bunting PS. A guide to the interpretation of serum prostate specific antigen levels. *Clin Biochem* 1995; 28:221-41.
 28. Sokoll LJ, Chan DW. Prostate-specific antigen. Its discovery and biochemical characteristics. *Urol Clin North Am* 1997; 24:253-9.
 29. Crawford ED, Schutz MJ, Clejan S, et al. The effect of digital rectal examination on prostate-specific antigen levels. *JAMA* 1992; 267:2227-8.
 30. Smith DS, Catalona WJ. Rate of change in serum prostate specific antigen levels as a method for prostate cancer detection. *J Urol* 1994; 152:1163-7.
 31. Carter HB, Pearson JD, Metter EJ, et al. Longitudinal evaluation of prostate-specific antigen levels in men with and without prostate disease. *JAMA* 1992; 267:2215-20.
 32. Kadmon D, Weinberg AD, Williams RH, Pavlik VN, Cooper P, Migliore PJ. Pitfalls in interpreting prostate specific antigen velocity. *J Urol* 1996; 155:1655-7.
 33. Oesterling JE, Jacobsen SJ, Chute CG, et al. Serum prostate-specific antigen in a community-based population of healthy men. Establishment of age-specific reference ranges. *JAMA* 1993; 270:860-4.
 34. DeAntoni EP, Crawford ED, Oesterling JE, et al. Age- and race-specific reference ranges for prostate-specific antigen from a large community-based study. *Urology* 1996; 48:234-9.
 35. Catalona WJ, Hudson MA, Scardino PT, et al. Selection of optimal prostate specific antigen cutoffs for early detection of prostate cancer: receiver operating characteristic curves. *J Urol* 1994; 152:2037-42.
 36. Crawford ED, Leewansangtong S, Goktas S, Holthaus K, Baier M. The efficiency of prostate specific antigen and digital rectal examination in screening using 4.0 ng/ml and age specific reference range as a cutoff for abnormal PSA. *Prostate* 1998 (in press).
 37. Woodrum DL, Brawer MK, Partin AW, Catalona WJ, Southwick PC. Interpretation of free prostate specific antigen clinical research studies for the detection of prostate cancer. *J Urol* 1998; 159:5-12.
 38. Lange PH. Prostate-specific for staging prior to surgery and for early detection of recurrence after surgery. *Urol Clin North Am* 1990; 17:813-7.
 39. Oesterling JE, Martin SK, Bergstralh EJ, Lower FC. The use of prostate-specific antigen in staging patients with newly diagnosed prostate cancer. *JAMA* 1993; 269:57-60.
 40. Lange PH. Prostate-specific antigen for staging prior to surgery and for early detection of recurrence after surgery. *Urol Clin North Am* 1990; 17:813-7.
 41. Partin AW, Yoo J, Carter HB, et al. The use of prostate specific antigen, clinical stage and Gleason score to predict pathological stage in men with localized prostate cancer. *J Urol* 1993; 150:110-4.
 42. Wood DP Jr, Banks ER, Humphreys S, McRoberts JW, Rangnekar VM. Identification of bone marrow micrometastases in patients with prostate cancer. *Cancer* 1994; 74:2533-40.
 43. Olsson Ca, de Vries GM, Buttyan R, Katz AE. Reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction assays for prostate cancer. *Urol Clin North Am* 1997; 24:367-78.
 44. Verkaik NS, Schroder FH, Romijn JC. Clinical usefulness of RT-PCR detection of hematogenous prostate cancer spread. *Urol Res* 1997; 25:373-84.
 45. Vicini FA, Horwitz EM, Gonzalez J, Martinez AA. Treatment options for localized prostate cancer based on pretreatment serum prostate specific antigen levels. *J Urol* 1997; 158:319-25.
 46. Bauer JJ, Bauer JJ, Connelly RR, et al. Biostatistical modeling using traditional variables and genetic biomarkers for predicting the risk of prostate carcinoma recurrence after radical prostatectomy. *Cancer* 1997; 79:952-62.
 47. Stamey TA, Yang N, Hay AR, McNeal JE, Freiha FS, Redwine E. Prostate-specific antigen as a serum marker for adenocarcinoma of the prostate. *N Engl J Med* 1987; 317:909-16.
 48. Nadler RB, Andriole GL. Who is best benefited by radical prostatectomy? *Hematol Oncol Clin North Am* 1996; 10:581-93.
 49. Ritter MA, Messing EM, Shanahan TG, Potts S, Chappell RJ, Kinsella TJ. Prostate specific antigen as a predictor of radiotherapy response and patterns of failure in localized prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 1992; 10:1208-17.
 50. Lillis P, Thompson IM Jr. Should asymptomatic progression following definitive local treatment for prostate cancer be treated? *Hematol Oncol Clin North Am* 1996; 10:703-12.
 51. Crawford ED, Blumenstein BA. Proposed substages for metastatic prostate cancer. *Urology* 1997; 50:1027.
 52. Lilja H. Structure, function, and regulation of the enzyme activity of prostate-specific antigen. *World J Urol* 1993; 11:188-91.
 53. Schedlich LJ, Bennetts BH, Morris BJ. Primary structure of a human glandular kallikrein gene. *DNA* 1987; 6:429-37.
 54. Young CY, Seay T, Hogen K, et al. Prostate-specific human kallikrein (hK2) as a novel marker for prostate cancer. *Prostate* 1996; 7(suppl):17-24.