

## A review on Prostate Cancer

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### ABSTRACT

One of the diseases that affects males and has a major impact on the rising worldwide death rates for men is prostate cancer. Individuals with prostate cancer may have a localised or advanced stage of the illness at diagnosis. Our goal in writing this review is to present a comprehensive picture of prostate cancer, covering diagnosis, pathogenesis, progression, and available treatments. Prostate biopsies, digital rectal examinations, and prostate-specific antigen analyses are methods used to diagnose prostate cancer. The beginning, development, and spread of cancer are all associated with mutations in certain genes. Ablative radiation treatment, radical prostatectomy, and active surveillance are all used to treat localised prostate cancer. Chemotherapy, salvage radiation, and androgen deprivation treatment (ADT) are given to men with metastatic prostate cancer or those who have relapsed. Even with these choices, prostate cancer is still incurable. Currently, existing treatment methods work better when taken in tandem with one another. Research into alternative treatment modalities, including gene therapy, traditional medicine, and the use of nanotechnologies, is still ongoing in an effort to combat prostate cancer, drug resistance, and side effects associated with existing treatment options. This page provides an overview of the genes linked to prostate cancer, the treatments that are now accessible, and the state of research on complementary therapies.

**Keywords** : Prostate cancer, prostate cancer diagnosis, genetics of prostate cancer, prostate-specific antigen (PSA)

### I. INTRODUCTION

Middle-aged men between the ages of 45 and 60 are most commonly affected by prostate cancer, which is the leading cause of cancer-related deaths in Western nations [1]. Prostate biopsy and analysis, PSA testing, digital rectal examination, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), or health screening are among the methods used to identify

prostate cancer in many men. Prostate cancer risk factors include age, weight, race, family history, and other environmental variables. Geographically and genetically, prostate cancer is a varied illness. There are variations in the prostate cancer epidemiology of various nations as a consequence of the interaction between genetics, environmental factors, and societal influences, which lowers estimates of the prostate cancer survival rate unique to a certain race [2]. Prostate cancer has a hereditary component, according to established research. Years of research have been dedicated to studying hereditary prostate cancer and the genetic component propensity to prostate cancer. Family inheritance is one of the strongest genetic risk factors for prostate cancer. The significance of hereditary prostate cancer has been demonstrated by twin studies as well as epidemiological research [3]. Numerous investigators have examined the potential contribution of genetic diversity to androgen production, metabolism, and function [4,5]. Chromosome rearrangements are among the molecular mechanisms that genomics research has linked to the development of some cancers [2]. Gene mutations are often a common cause of cancer. The genes involved in the androgen pathway and testosterone metabolism are candidate genes for the propensity to prostate cancer. The androgen receptor signalling pathway and testosterone are essential for the growth of prostatic epithelium and prostate cancer cells [6]. Prostate cancer can be treated specifically by identifying cancer biomarkers and focusing on certain genetic abnormalities. DNA tumour biomarkers, DNA biomarkers, and general biomarkers are among the biomarkers that can be employed for targeted therapy [7]. Androgen sensitivity and androgen insensitivity in prostate cancer refer to the degree of testosterone stimulation and the potential therapeutic options [8]. Active surveillance, chemotherapy, radiation therapy, hormone therapy, surgery, and cryotherapy are among the various treatment options for prostate cancer. The kind of tumour, PSA level, grade and stage, and potential

for recurrence all influence the treatment choices that are given to patients. For the treatment of low-risk prostate cancer, for instance, radiation therapy is combined with radical prostatectomy, a surgical approach that entails the removal of the prostate and adjacent tissues [9]. Hormonal therapy, commonly known as androgen-deprivation therapy, is advised for the treatment of malignancies that have returned and spread outside the prostate [1]. Severe side effects, including toxicity and lowered white and red blood cell counts, are linked to every treatment. These might result in tiredness, hair loss, peripheral neuropathy, erectile dysfunction and incontinence, metastasis, and finally, the development of resistance to the original treatment. The treatments that are now available are costly and have serious negative effects. It is essential to find new, more affordable chemotherapeutic drugs with little to no side effects and increased effectiveness [3]. In this study, we give a comprehensive overview of prostate cancer, including diagnosis, treatment choices, genetics and mutations that contribute to the disease's genesis and progression, and alternate therapy alternatives.

### Epidemiology

One of the most prevalent cancers in males globally is prostate cancer [10]. According to GLOBOCAN, there were around 1,276,106 new instances of prostate cancer globally in 2018, accounting for 358,989 deaths; the disease is more common in industrialised nations. Globally, there are around 80,000 deaths from prostate cancer each year, and there is an average of 190,000 new cases each year [11]. Prostate cancer incidence varies globally among different geographic locations and ethnic groupings. In the globe, black males have the highest documented incidence rates of prostate cancer [12]. In America, Black Americans have incidence rates that are almost 60% greater than those of White men. The industrialised world's greatest incidence rates of prostate cancer are found in places where PSA testing is a common screening method and prostate cancer awareness is high [13]. According to the GLOBOCAN PSA test findings from 2012, there were significant incidence rates in the USA (97.2 per 100,000) and Australasia (111.6 per 100,000) [14]. Due to the world's population growth, which is expected to continue exponentially, and the enormous number of men who will be 65 years of age and older, prostate cancer is expected to climb to nearly 1.7 million

new cases and 499,000 deaths worldwide by the year 2030 [15,16].

### Diagnosis

The primary causes of the elevated death rate are therapy failure and prostate cancer diagnoses made at advanced stages of the illness. Prostate cancer cannot be identified by a single test; however, a digital rectal examination (DRE), in which the patient's rectum is probed with a gloved finger to measure the prostate gland's size and look for anomalies, is the standard method of diagnosis. The cornerstone for prostate cancer screening is still the prostate-specific antigen (PSA) test, but [17]. PSA is a glycoprotein released by the prostate gland's epithelial cells. Although it may also be detected in the bloodstream, it is typically present in semen [18]. Blood samples are obtained for PSA testing in order to determine the PSA level. The blood samples are then examined at a 4 ng/mL PSA cut-off point. PSA values more than 4 ng/mL indicate the necessity for further testing for the patient [19]. An estimated one in four patients with PSA values between 4 and 10 ng/mL may develop prostate cancer. Prostate cancer is more likely to occur in men whose PSA is higher than 10 ng/mL [20]. Prostate-specific antigen levels can therefore indicate benign pathologies like benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH) and prostatitis rather than prostate cancer because PSA is specific to the prostate gland and not the cancer. Men without prostate cancer have also been reported to have elevated PSA levels. To determine whether cancer is present, a prostate tissue biopsy is often carried out [21].

During a biopsy, tiny tissue samples from the prostate gland are taken using a thin, hollow needle so they can be examined under a microscope. The biopsy can be carried out through the rectal wall (referred to as a transrectal biopsy) or through the skin between the anus and scrotum [22]. Transrectal ultrasonography (TRUS) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) are commonly used to detect the prostate gland during a biopsy. A powerful magnetic field and radio waves are used by an MRI scanner to provide detailed pictures of bodily tissue [23]. During a biopsy, aberrant regions of the prostate gland can be carefully targeted based on positive results from an MRI [24]. If a DRE, PSA test, and MRI were all negative, a multiparametric MRI may also be used as a triage test in place of a biopsy. A little probe called a TRUS is inserted into a patient's rectum. After the probe detects and interprets the echoes, a

computer programme converts them into a black-and-white picture of the organ [25]. However, recent advancements in machine learning algorithms and artificial intelligence (AI) have led to new classifications for prostate cancer. The paradigm of prostate cancer screening, diagnosis, and treatment has changed in recent years due to the availability of novel molecular markers and the introduction of sophisticated imaging techniques like prostate-specific membrane antigen positron emission tomography (PSMA-PET) scans and multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (mpMRI) [27]. The most recent guidelines say that every male who is at risk of prostate cancer should first get a prostate MRI in order to prepare for a prostate biopsy [28,29].

#### Prostate cancer in the relationship with genetics

Prostate cancer is primarily associated with close familial lineage. Compared to males without a family history of prostate cancer, those with close relatives who have been diagnosed with the disease have a 50% higher chance of acquiring cancer [26]. Prostate cancer with an early beginning is typically found in first-degree relatives who have had prostate cancer detected in subsequent generations [31]. Studies using epidemiologic methods have demonstrated that genes predisposing to prostate cancer are inherited. According to case-control, twin, and family study analyses, there may be heritable components that contribute to the risk of prostate cancer. Certain gene mutations have been linked to hereditary prostate cancer, and people who carry these mutations are at higher risk of developing the illness, according to research [4]. Scientists employ multigene sequencing of males with prostate cancer diagnoses as well as those at high risk of getting cancer to evaluate inheritance patterns genetically. Significant mutations in DNA repair genes, including ATM, BRCA1, and BRCA2, were found in about 5.5% of these individuals. Due to specific genetic alterations that make African males more susceptible to prostate cancer, racial factors as well as environmental variables including migration and dietary habits are thought to have a role [21].

Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), somatic copy number alterations (SCNAs), and point mutations are examples of mutations that affect the DNA sequence and cause cancer [31]. Tumour suppressor genes can be turned off and oncogenes can be turned on by mutations, which can lead to prostate cell cancer [32]. This frequently results in unchecked cell division. Gene

mutations can be acquired by an individual or handed down from one generation to the next. In the nucleus, acquired mutations often happen during DNA replication [33]. Prostate cancer biomarkers that are often utilised include the ATM gene, RNase L (HPC1, 1q22), HOX genes, BRCA genes, MSR1 (8p), and ELAC2/HPC2 (17p11). The benefits of using biomarkers for diagnostic processes, staging, determining the disease's aggressiveness, and monitoring the therapy process are evident. Profiling technologies have led to several advancements, including as precision medicine and the discovery of new biomarkers that aid in diagnosis. Prostate health index (PHI), TMPRSS2-ERG fusion gene, 4K tests, and PCA3 are examples of contemporary biological markers that have been shown to improve PSA specificity and sensitivity, saving patients from undergoing biopsies and minimising overdiagnosis [76].

#### Treatment options

An additional approach to finding a gene-specific prostate cancer therapy for those individuals with advanced disease is the rapidly developing field of precision medicine. In order to identify diagnoses, prognostic therapies for patients, and precise dosage, it makes use of both genetic and environmental biomarkers. In order to identify patients with tumours displaying actionable targets and to facilitate more informed and precise treatment decisions, precision medicine uses genome sequencing to classify disorders [81].

Gene mutations linked to prostate cancer Men with mCRPC who have BRCA1 and BRCA2 are eligible for treatment with rucaparib or olaparib, as well as additional prostate cancer genes such as ATM, CDK12, CHECK2, CHECK1, PALB2, PP2R2A, and RAD54L that have shown positive response to olaparib therapy [82]. In a study of 1302 individuals with 67 BRCA mutation carriers, the impact of BRCA mutations on treatment results was examined. According to the findings, individuals who underwent radiation therapy or prostatectomy experienced metastases and had a worse chance of surviving when compared to those without BRCA gene abnormalities.

The BRCA1 gene was also shown to be 12% more prevalent in this research than the BRCA2 gene, which was just 2% common. A Chinese patient treated for prostate cancer with radiation and ADT was found to have the BRCA gene mutation (c.4211C > G) in a 2019 research. According to the study, individuals with this

particular mutation in prostate cancer responded well to both radiation and ADT, increasing the efficacy of the treatment [83]. The F876L mutation alters the binding ligand pocket in the AR, making it challenging to treat or build an effective CRPC. In a similar vein, the mutation W741L/C promotes particular AR binding that permits AR to transition into its active state. These mutations make it difficult to develop a successful treatment plan [84].

### Clinical Management Procedures

When deciding on a course of therapy for prostate cancer, variables including age, comorbidities, and baseline urine function have all been taken into account in addition to the prognostic indicators, which include initial PSA level, clinical TNM stage, and Gleason's score [85]. The ability of doctors to categorise patients by risk and recommend therapy based on cancer prognosis and patient preference has improved due to advancements in the detection and treatment of prostate cancer [86]. For individuals with stage I–III prostate cancer, surveillance, prostatectomy, and radiation therapy are accepted as the conventional therapies.

All patients in stages IV and high-risk stages III can experience a long-lasting remission following androgen ablation by surgical or pharmaceutical castration. First-generation antiandrogens like flutamide and bicalutamide can help in this situation. However, the prognosis is dismal in stage IV due to the inevitability of castration resistance, which is characterised by genetic alterations in the androgen receptor [87].

## II. CONCLUSIONS

Subsequent to lung illness, prostate cancer ranks among the world's primary causes of mortality for males. As indicators of the disease that reveal the stage and aetiology of the cancer, frequently altered genes, proteins, and pathways linked to an elevated risk of prostate cancer growth can be employed as biomarkers. Specifics about the kind of cancer treatment needed can also be determined by biomarkers. For prostate cancer, there is an immediate need for an efficient, tailored treatment. The majority of patients' quality of life is inevitably impacted by the various side effects of the prostate cancer therapies now in use, which only help a small number of people. Drug resistance is one of the negative side effects of chemotherapy, radiation therapy, and hormonal treatment, which continues to be a barrier to

anticancer treatment. Numerous therapeutic plants, gene therapy, and the current study using nanotechnology have demonstrated the ability to lessen side effects and restore chemosensitivity in tumour cells that have become resistant to chemotherapy. Potential therapy options for prostate cancer include targeted medicines based on cellular pathways, genetic material encased in target-specific nanocarriers with controlled release, and medicinal plant fractions and chemicals.

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