

Prostate-specific Membrane Antigen: Alpha-labeled Radiopharmaceuticals

Honest Ndlovu ¹, Kgomotso M G Mokoala ¹, Ismaheel Lawal ², Louise Emmett ³, Mike M Sathekge ⁴

¹ Nuclear Medicine Research Infrastructure (NuMeRI), Steve Biko Academic Hospital, Pretoria, South Africa; Department of Nuclear Medicine, University of Pretoria & Steve Biko Academic Hospital, Pretoria, South Africa.

² Department of Nuclear Medicine, University of Pretoria & Steve Biko Academic Hospital, Pretoria, South Africa; Department of Radiology and Imaging Sciences, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA.

³ Theranostics and Nuclear Medicine, St Vincent's Hospital Sydney, Australia.

⁴ Nuclear Medicine Research Infrastructure (NuMeRI), Steve Biko Academic Hospital, Pretoria, South Africa; Department of Nuclear Medicine, University of Pretoria & Steve Biko Academic Hospital, Pretoria, South Africa. Electronic address: mike.sathekge@up.ac.za.

Novel prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) ligands labeled with α -emitting radionuclides are sparking a growing interest in prostate cancer treatment. These targeted alpha therapies (TATs) have attractive physical properties that deem them effective in progressive metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC). Among the PSMA TAT radiopharmaceuticals, [225Ac]Ac-PSMA has been used extensively on a compassionate basis and is currently undergoing phase I trials. Notably, TAT has the potential to improve quality of life and has favorable antitumor activity and outcomes in multiple scenarios other than in mCRPC. In addition, resistance mechanisms to TAT may be amenable to combination therapies.

Key points

- The physical characteristics of α -particles allow for the better radiobiological efficiency of prostate-specific membrane antigen radiopharmaceuticals that emit α -particles. They have a position in the progressive metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer because of their direct and indirect cytotoxic effects on DNA and organelles through reactive oxygen species, bystander, and abscopal immune-mediated pathways.
- Whether the metastatic prostate cancer is hormone-sensitive or castration-resistant, targeted-alpha therapy (TAT) has shown strong antitumor effectiveness, long-term survival, and an improvement in quality of life in patients at different stages of the disease.
- The salivary glands are the dose-limiting organs. Salivary gland toxicity secondary to TAT may manifest with indirect clinical symptoms such as loss of appetite impacting on the quality of life. Various mitigatory measures have been partially effective in reducing its incidence.

Introduction

Despite advances in diagnosis and treatment, prostate cancer remains one of the leading causes of death among men.¹ While there has been significant improvements in available treatments and patient outcomes in recent years, improvements in survival in patients with metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) remains an unmet need.

Prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) is an integral protein overexpressed by prostate cancer cells to a greater extent in metastatic and castrate-resistant prostate cancer (CRPC). Among therapeutic agents, the β -emitting radiopharmaceutical [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 has undergone a phase 3 trial. The results of which have led to the approval of [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 under the trade-name [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 (Pluvicto- Novartis Holding AG, Postfach Basel, Switzerland).^{2,3} However, a significant proportion of patients may not respond and most eventually demonstrate progression on [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617. This has opened a window for an extensive investigation of PSMA-based targeted-alpha therapy (TAT) in mCRPC either in lieu of [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 in patients who are not candidates or as an alternative in patients who are resistant to [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617.

Prostate-specific membrane antigen

PSMA is a type II transmembrane glycoprotein receptor that is encoded by the folate hydrolase 1 gene located on the short arm of chromosome 11. It has been a “game changer” in the management of prostate cancer as a target of both imaging and therapeutic agents.⁴ Although the name implies that it is found only in prostatic tissue, it is not specific to prostatic tissue since it has been isolated in various other tissues such as salivary glands, glial cells, enterocytes, kidneys, and importantly in the neovasculature of multiple other solid tumors. Structurally, PSMA consists of approximately 750 amino acids, with 19–amino-acid intracellular domain, a 24–amino-acid transmembrane domain, and a large, 707–amino-acid, extracellular domain. PSMA possess enzymatic functions that include glutamate carboxypeptidase II and folate hydrolase activity.

In normal prostatic tissue, PSMA is expressed in the apical surface rather than the basal endothelial surface. It is upregulated more than 100 to 1000 times in prostate cancer. The upregulation is inversely related to the androgen depletion correlating with the high levels of expression in CRPC.⁵ PSMA has been implicated in the metabolism, proliferation, and metastasis of prostate cancer in preclinical investigations. One of the proposed mechanisms is dysregulating the β 1-integrin/type I insulin-like growth factor receptor axis, resulting in a shift in signaling from the less aggressive mitogen-activated protein kinase-extracellular signal-regulated kinases 1 and 2 pathways to the prosurvival protein kinase AKT/phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase pathway.^{6,7} Once a ligand binds to PSMA, the ligand–PSMA complex is internalized by clathrin-dependent endocytosis, making this a valuable tool for the delivery of both diagnostic and therapeutic agents.

Alpha-emitting radionuclides for prostate-specific membrane antigen: physics and radiobiology

The favorable physical features of α -emitting radionuclides have sparked interest in them for PSMA TAT. As early as the 1950s, Zirkle and colleagues demonstrated that with the same dose rates, α -particles are more deleterious compared to other types of ionizing radiation. They explained this to be due to the high linear energy transfer (LET) defined as the amount of energy deposited per unit length by ionizing radiation.⁸ This high LET is due to the physical property of the α -particles, which is a heavy helium nucleus with a double-positive charge ($^4\text{He}^{2+}$). It has short path lengths of up to 100 μm in water equivalent tissues and 40 μm in bone, which translates to LET of 50 keV/ μm to a maximum of 230 keV/ μm at the Bragg Peak.⁹

The α -particles have several advantages that contribute to an increased cytotoxicity relative to other forms of radiation. Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) has generally been regarded as the most important target of ionizing radiation-mediated cytotoxicity. Ionizing radiation can cause direct or indirect damage to DNA. Direct damage as the name implies is mediated by direct transfer of energy to the DNA. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) formed by ionization of water mediate indirect DNA damage. The short path lengths and the high LET α -particles effect more direct DNA damage breaks compared to indirect DNA damages. This is independent of perfusion making α -radiation more effective in hypoxic tissues. In addition, α -particles induce more double-strand breaks that are more difficult to repair compared to the more common single-strand DNA breaks with β -emitting radiation.¹⁰ Ideally, the α -particles induce DNA damage within the cancerous cell without cross-over to the adjacent cells minimizing side effects to these tissues. Therefore, considering all these properties, it becomes suitable for the treatment of small metastatic lesions and lesions resistant to β -emitting radiation. Furthermore, α -radiation also provides extra advantages that ultimately causes cytotoxicity to cancerous cells that are not exposed directly to α -radiation. These cells may be distant or near the irradiated cell. If the cells are adjacent to the irradiated cell, these effects are known as bystander effects, whereas systemic effects are immune-mediated and are known as abscopal effects. Cytotoxic and genotoxic modifications (DNA damage, chromosomal aberrations) in cells that are in the proximity of irradiated cells, but that are not traversed by particles characterize these bystander effects. Irradiated cells release damage-associated molecular patterns that induce a local inflammatory response. The recruitment of antigen-presenting cells may lead to activation of the adaptive immune response with T-cell activation.^{11,12}

The cytotoxicity of α -particles has also been shown to be dependent on the damage of other cellular components in addition to DNA damage. These include the cell membrane, cytosol, and other organelles. As ionizing radiation traverses the cell membrane, cell membrane lipids may be disrupted. Mitochondria, a cytosolic organelle, possess DNA which can be damaged by α -particles affecting mitochondrial functions. Disruption of mitochondrial function following irradiation contributes to the persistence of oxidative stress through dysfunction of respiratory complex I. This leads to an intracellular increase in ROS production and mitochondrial DNA damage. Organelle interaction has also been implicated in bystander effects; however, this is beyond the scope of this review.^{12,13}

The α -emission is a highly energetic process associated with the recoil of the daughter radionuclide. Due to the momentum conservation law, part of the decay energy is transferred to a daughter nucleus. This recoil may lead to radiolysis of the radiopharmaceutical, which may lead to the decoupling of the daughter radionuclide from the radiopharmaceutical. The result of this recoil is 2 fold and dependent on the exact location of the parent radionuclide. If this is intracellular, the recoil of the daughter radionuclide may add to the overall cytotoxicity if retained within the tumor. If this occurs extracellularly, the daughter radionuclide that is in circulation might be hazardous to healthy organs like the kidneys. This is especially important in in vivo radionuclide generators that produce radioactive daughter nuclides. The use of single α -emitting radionuclides has been one of the proposed ways to address the recoil effect. Another approach is the use of a ligand with fast tumoral uptake and fast clearance of the unbound radioligand relative to the radionuclide from the nontarget organ. The faster uptake allows the emission and retention of the daughter radionuclide intratumorally with no release of radioactive daughter nuclides into the circulation. Other approaches have been intratumoral injection of the radionuclide and the encapsulation in nanocarriers.^{14,15}

As discussed later, [²²⁵Ac]Ac half-life of 9.9 days is an example of an in vivo radionuclide generator, emitting multiple α -particles through various daughter radionuclides one of which is [²¹³Bi]Bi. The rapid tumor approach with small PSMA molecules has been used to reduce the untoward effects of the recoil effect. This has also overcome the limitation of the relatively short half-life of [²¹³Bi]Bi (46 minutes). More importantly, the high number of α -particles emitted if [²²⁵Ac]Ac decays implies more cytotoxicity relative to the use of [²¹³Bi]Bi, an advantage of in vivo generators.^{16,17}

Despite these attractive properties, only a few α -emitting radionuclides have desirable properties suitable for PSMA-targeted therapy. [²²⁵Ac]Ac, [²¹³Bi]Bi, [¹⁴⁹Tb], [²¹²Pb/²¹²Bi], [²¹¹At]At, and [²²⁷Th]Th (Table 1 : *summary of their physical properties*), have been complexed to PSMA inhibitors and evaluated in preclinical and clinical studies for their efficacy and safety in the treatment of mCRPC.¹⁸ Among these, [²¹³Bi]Bi and [²²⁵Ac]Ac are the most extensively evaluated clinically due to the challenges associated with preclinical to clinical translation as discussed in later section.¹⁹

Table 1. Summary of alpha-emitting radionuclides suitable for targeted alpha therapy for prostate cancer

Radionuclide	Half-life	Emitted Particles	Total α -energy Emitted per decay (MeV)	Range in tissue (μ m)	LET (keV/ μ m)	Preclinical/Clinical
[²²⁵ Ac]Ac	9.9 d	4 α , 2 β^-	27.9	47–85	61–230	Preclinical/clinical
[²¹³ Bi]Bi	45.6 min	2 α , 2 β^-	8.5	40–100	65–230	Preclinical/clinical
[²¹² Pb]Pb/[²¹² Bi]Bi	10.6 h	1 α , 2 β^-	7.9	40–100	61–230	Preclinical
[¹⁴⁹ Tb]Tb	4.1 h	1 α , 1 ϵ /2 ϵ ; 1 β^+ /2 β^+	0.7	25	140	Preclinical
[²²⁷ Th]Th	18.7 d	4 α , 2 β^-	32.8	50–70	71–230	Preclinical
[²²³ Ra]Ra	11.4 d	4 α , 2 β^-	26.8	46–70	71–230	Preclinical

[²¹¹ At]At	7.2 d	1α, 1ε	6.9	55–80	71–230	Preclinical
------------------------	-------	--------	-----	-------	--------	-------------

[¹⁴⁹Tb]Tb

[¹⁴⁹Tb]Tb is a radiolanthanide with a physical half-life of 4.1 hours and an attractive decay scheme. It consists of multiple different particulate and nonparticulate radiation: α-particles (3.97 MeV, 16.7%), electron capture (76.2%), positron emission (7.1%), gamma rays (165 keV, 26.4%), and x-rays. This possibility of both single-photon emission computed tomography and PET imaging in addition to TAT allows for accurate retrospective dose estimations to plan future applications and minimize off-target toxicity.¹⁸ It has been complexed to PSMA-617 and investigated preclinically. Umbricht and colleagues investigated TAT with [¹⁴⁹Tb]Tb-PSMA-617 in a PSMA mouse model. They demonstrated delayed tumor growth in the [¹⁴⁹Tb]Tb-PSMA-617 group compared to the control group, which was injected with normal saline. The downside was an increased radiation dose to the kidneys more than 10 times that of [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617.²⁰ The clinical translation of [¹⁴⁹Tb]Tb-PSMA-617 has been precluded by the limited supply and the difficulties of production and chemical separation. The high recoil energy causes radiolysis of the radiopharmaceutical leading to dissemination of these long-lived bone-seeking daughter radionuclides that eventually lead to increased bone-marrow and whole-body radiation dose.^{21,22}

[²¹²Pb] Pb

[²¹²Pb] Pb is obtained from a [²²⁴Ra]Ra/[²¹²Pb]Pb generator and has a half-life of 10.64 hours and is an in vivo α-particle emitting radionuclide generator. It decays to [²¹²Bi]Bi (half-life = 60.6 min) and [²¹²Po]Po (half-life = 0.3 μs). One α-particle is released in this process. One of its daughters [²¹²Bi]Bi has a half-life of 61 minutes which ultimately disintegrates to a stable [²⁰⁷Pb]Pb after the release of one α-particle and one β-particle. [²¹²Pb] Pb with a longer half-life allows the use of reasonable activities and is more practical than using [²¹²Bi]Bi, which has a much shorter half-life requiring administration of much higher activities.¹⁸ [²¹²Pb]Pb-PSMA-617 has initially demonstrated high kidney uptake. Although [²¹²Pb]Pb-NG001 has shown promising results with both higher tumoral uptake and less initial kidney uptake than [²¹²Pb]Pb-PSMA-617, the recoil energy is high. It is high enough to cause 36% of [²¹²Bi]Bi to dissociate from the radioligand imparting more radiation dose to the kidneys.^{18, 23} However, the actual off-target radiation dose remains to be evaluated in humans. A phase I clinical trial Dose Escalation and Efficacy Study of [²¹²Pb]Pb-ADVC001 in Patients with Metastatic Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer is currently ongoing [ClinicalTrials.gov ID NCT05720130].

[²¹¹At]At

[²¹¹At]At has its name derived from “astatos” meaning unstable and is often referred to as the rarest element on earth with only isotopes 214 to 219 found in the earth’s crust in equilibrium with uranium. Although this makes its availability an issue, its sustainability has been maintained by cyclotron production. Its radioactive decay follows a branched decay scheme with a half-life of 7.2 hours. The α-decay produces [²⁰⁷Bi]Bi, a long-lived relatively stable nuclide emitting 1 α-particle meaning that it is not subject to recoil effects. The remaining 58.3% decay by electron capture to [²¹¹Po]Po, a short-lived radionuclide (half-life

0.52 second) that produces characteristic x-rays (K x-rays). The K x-rays produced allow for in vivo imaging and quantification of [^{211}At]At radioactivity.^{24,25} The major challenge with [^{211}At]At has been accumulation in renal tubules and late nephrotoxicity in preclinical studies.²⁶ However, multiple other precursors have been developed and have shown promising results with less off-target accumulation preclinically. These remain to be translated into clinical practice.^{27,28}

[^{227}Th]Th

[^{227}Th]Th is a daughter radionuclide of [^{227}Ac]Ac. It decays with a half-life of 18.7 days to its daughter radionuclide [^{223}Ra]Ra by producing a single α -particle. [^{223}Ra]Ra decays to [^{207}Pb]Pb by producing multiple daughters, 5 α -particles and 2 β -particles. This makes [^{227}Th]Th-labeled conjugates subject to the recoil effect.^{15,29} Hammer and colleagues demonstrated an antitumor effect on both in vitro and animal studies with a PSMA-targeted [^{227}Th]Th conjugate (PSMA-TTC) including models resistant to enzalutamide. The same group also demonstrated that darolutamide, an androgen receptor inhibitor, potentiates the antitumor efficacy of a PSMA-targeted PSMA-TTC by a dual mode of action in prostate cancer models. This evidence supported the ongoing safety and toxicity (phase I) studies in humans (NCT03724747).^{30,31}

Clinical experience with targeted alpha therapy for prostate cancer

With the exception of the bone-seeking radiotracer [^{223}Ra]Ra, most of the clinical experience in prostate cancer is with [^{225}Ac]Ac and [^{213}Bi]Bi.

[^{213}Bi]Bi

[^{213}Bi]Bi is a product of [^{225}Ac]Ac an α/β emitter. It has a half-life of 46 minutes. About 97.8% is beta decay to [^{213}Po]Po, which is an α -emitter half-life of 4.2 microseconds. The other 2.2% of [^{213}Bi]Bi decays by α -emission to [^{209}Tl]Tl. Both [^{213}Po]Po and [^{209}Tl]Tl decay via [^{209}Pb]Pb to the long-lived [^{209}Bi]Bi. The total disintegration of [^{213}Bi]Bi consists of 92.7% α and the rest β -emission including decay of [^{209}Pb]Pb. The disintegration of [^{213}Po]Po contributes 98% to total α emission and is the main contributor of α -emission-mediated cytotoxicity. The coemission of 440 KeV gamma rays allows for in vivo imaging of [^{213}Bi]Bi biodistribution and the conduction of pharmacokinetic and dosimetric studies.¹⁹

Early in vitro and preclinical in vivo studies have used a monoclonal antibody J591, which targets the extracellular domain of PSMA, labeled with [^{213}Bi]Bi. Although effective cellular killing and prostate-specific antigen (PSA) decline were demonstrated, the inherent properties of monoclonal antibodies are not compatible with the very short half-life of [^{213}Bi]Bi of 46 minutes.³² These properties which include long blood circulating time, decreased vascular permeability, and low infusibility within solid tumors effectively allow for extracellular disintegration of [^{213}Bi]Bi, which is detrimental to nontarget organs. Consequently, smaller PSMA inhibitors with fast uptake and more favorable pharmacokinetics for [^{213}Bi]Bi radiolabeling has been pursued.^{33,34,35} No clinical studies have investigated [^{213}Bi]Bi-J591 in prostate cancer. Sathekge and colleagues reported the first-in-human therapeutic efficacy of [^{213}Bi]Bi-PSMA-617 in a patient with progressive mCRPC under

conventional therapy. The cumulative activity of 592 MBq administered over 2 cycles resulted in a good biochemical response with a PSA decline of more than 80%. In addition, [⁶⁸Ga]Ga-PSMA-11 PET/computed tomography (CT) done pretherapy and posttherapy showed a remarkable molecular imaging response.³⁶ Clinical pursuit of [²¹³Bi]Bi-PSMA-617 was halted after Kratochwil and colleagues demonstrated that [²¹³Bi]Bi-PSMA-617 had an inferior therapeutic index and increased radiation dose to the kidneys relative to [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617.³⁷

[²²⁵Ac]Ac

[²²⁵Ac]Ac is obtained by chemical separation from [²²⁹Th]Th, a product of fissile [²³⁵U]U. [²²⁵Ac]Ac has a relatively long half-life (9.9 days) and decays to [²⁰⁹Bi]Bi via multiple short-lived radioactive daughter nuclei. Cumulatively, its decay produces 4 α-particles (energies ranging from 5.8 to 8.4 MeV and associated tissue ranges of 47–85 μm) and 2 β-particles of 1.6 and 0.6 MeV maximum energy. Nonparticulate radiation, which allows for in vivo biodistribution imaging and dosimetry studies is produced through the decay of the daughters [²²¹Fr]Fr and [²¹³Bi]Bi, which have gamma-emissions of 218 KeV and 440 KeV, respectively, with 11.6% and 26.1% probabilities.¹⁹

Among the developed Glu-urea ligands targeting PSMA, [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 has been evaluated to a greater extent clinically and will be discussed extensively. In this publication, [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA refers to [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 unless specified. Other groups have aimed to develop ligands with differing or favorable pharmacokinetics to [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617, with an increased therapeutic efficacy and a better side-effect profile. In their approaches, they have focused on the development of ligands with an increased albumin binding. Although radioligands such as [²²⁵Ac]Ac-SibuDAB and [²²⁵Ac]Ac-RPS-074 demonstrated reasonable efficacy and toxicity, they remain to be translated clinically. One of their properties that may preclude their clinical translation is their increased circulation times, which makes [²²⁵Ac]Ac prone to recoil effects extracellularly resulting in more side-effects in humans.^{38,39}

Despite the long existence of PSMA-I&T, limited data exist on the potential of [²²⁵Ac] Ac-PSMA-I&T. Zacherl and colleagues were the first group to translate [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-I&T clinically. The efficacy and toxicity profile was comparable to those of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617.^{40,41} [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-I&T is currently undergoing a phase I/II study (NCT05902247 ; TATCIST: NCT05219500) and preliminary results are expected in 2024.

The clinical practice of [²²⁵Ac] Ac-prostate-specific membrane antigen

Currently, much of the clinical practice of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA has been extrapolated from lessons derived from [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA peptide radioligand therapy. Multiple national and international societies have published practice guidelines for [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617.^{42,43,44}

Patient selection for [²²⁵Ac]Ac-prostate-specific membrane antigen therapy

In general, [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA has been recommended for patients with histologically confirmed mCRPC who have progressed on conventional therapies and are either resistant or

have contraindications to [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy. This was based on a first-in-human retrospective study by Kratochwil and colleagues. In 2 patients, with mCRPC who had progressed on [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA and another who had extensive bone marrow involvement in superscan pattern on PSMA-PET/CT imaging, they demonstrated complete remission after 3 cycles of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy. ⁴⁵ Other studies have demonstrated that [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy may also be indicated or beneficial in other patient groups as discussed in later sessions.

The appropriateness of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA and any therapeutic regimen in oncology should be decided in a multidisciplinary team setting. Decision-making and baseline assessment of a patient for TAT should include assessment for PSMA expression and organ reserve. The relevant organs are the kidneys, liver, and bone marrow. The basis of this is due to the toxicity that has been demonstrated with both α -targeted and β -targeted therapies. Generally, the recommended tests include the following: estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) greater than 30 mL/min, creatinine less than 2 fold upper limit of normal; liver enzymes less than 5 fold upper limit of normal and bone marrow function: hemoglobin level greater than 8 g/dL; platelet count greater than 75×10^9 /L, and white cell count greater than 3×10^9 /L. ⁴²

Sufficient PSMA expression determined from PSMA imaging is a prerequisite for consideration of [²²⁵ Ac] Ac-PSMA therapy. .Notably, prostate cancer like all tumors is a heterogeneous entity. Despite the presumption that PSMA is overexpressed in prostate cancer relative to normal tissues, some metastatic lesions may not express PSMA at all. Therefore, the use of a noninvasive, in vivo whole-body assessment tool becomes vital for decision-making, response prediction and reducing morbidity associated with unbeneficial treatment regimes.⁴⁶ Different groups have used different approaches; however, high PSMA uptake with no discordant lesion with no PSMA uptake favored good therapeutic outcomes. Visual and semiquantitative criteria have been used. Uptake more than the liver or salivary gland entails some of the criteria that have been applied in using visual analysis to determine [¹⁷⁷ Lu] Lu-PSMA therapy eligibility. Other studies have used for [⁶⁸ Ga]Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT SUVmax (cutoffs ≥ 20 ; $\geq 1.5 \times$ SUVmax of liver), SUVmean (≥ 10 ; average SUVmax: cutoffs 14.3), and for fluorinated PSMA (SUVmax ≥ 10 or $> 1 \times$ liver uptake).^{3,47,48,49,50,51} A recent study by Hotta and colleagues used PSMA-PET tumor-to-salivary gland ratio to predict response to [¹⁷⁷ Lu]PSMA radioligand therapy. However, the applicability of this with [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy remains to be elucidated in light of the changes in salivary gland uptake with therapy.⁵² It is worth mentioning that [¹⁸ F]FDG PET/CT has been used in some studies. Hofman and colleagues in both the TheraP and LuPSMA trial used [¹⁸ F]FDG PET/CT to evaluate for discordance uptake in tumor.^{47,53} In our practice and in most other centers administering [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA for therapy for mCRPC across the world, [¹⁸ F]-FDG PET is not routinely used in the selection of patients for TAT.

Another factor that needs to be taken into consideration is the metastatic pattern as seen on PSMA imaging to decide on α -targeted or β -targeted therapy. In patients presenting with a super scan metastatic pattern on PSMA imaging, α -emitting radionuclides, in this case [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA, are preferable to reduce bone marrow toxicity. This is due to their shorter path lengths and their direct cytotoxic effects mainly limited to the cancerous cells as previously discussed.^{45,54} This also translates to patients with micrometastatic disease in which [¹⁷⁷

Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy may not be effective due to longer path length, a Bragg peak much further from the cancerous cell/DNA and low LET.⁵⁵

Preparation for therapy administration

National guidelines on the handling of unsealed radioactive sources should be adhered to for TAT. Generally, this should be administered in a facility accredited for handling unsealed sources of radiation. At the minimum, the team should consist of a nuclear medicine physician, a medical physicist, a nuclear medicine nurse, and a nuclear medicine technologist. In our institution, this is generally administered on an outpatient basis. An individualized approach should be used in preparing a patient for [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy. However, there are general baseline tests that should be obtained for efficacy and toxicity monitoring. These baseline blood tests should include the following.

- Serum PSA.
- Full blood count.
- Serum electrolytes, urea, and creatinine.
- eGFR.
- Liver function tests (LFTs).
- Dynamic renal scintigraphy is generally not indicated unless there is suspicion of obstructive uropathy either clinically or based on other tests that typically would have demonstrated a complete obstruction. [^{99m}Tc]Tc-MAG3 or other appropriate imaging agents may be used. Should an obstruction be present procedures to relieve obstruction are to be carried out before therapy to reduce the radiation dose to the kidneys.

Therapy administration

Kratochwil and colleagues recommended 100 kBq/kg body weight activities of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA to be administered at 8 weekly intervals.⁵⁶ However, the administered activities should be based on tumor burden. In our center, we start with an empirical dose of 8 MBq, we then de-escalate or escalate based on the response and side effects in subsequent cycles.⁵⁷ For example, in patients who demonstrate partial response to [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA, the administered activity is reduced to 6 Mq, whereas those that either have stable disease or progression, the activity is maintained at 8 MBq. See Fig. 1 for an example of dose escalation and de-escalation in a patient with metastatic prostate cancer. The administration intervals are, however, similar to those of Kratochwil and colleagues.⁵⁷

[²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA does not pose a significant radiation burden to those in contact with the patient. Therefore, the decision to treat as an inpatient or outpatient should be based on the national regulations on the safe handling of unsealed radioactive sources. If these permit, the patient may be treated as an outpatient.

[²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA is generally administered as a slow intravenous bolus over 20 to 30 seconds.

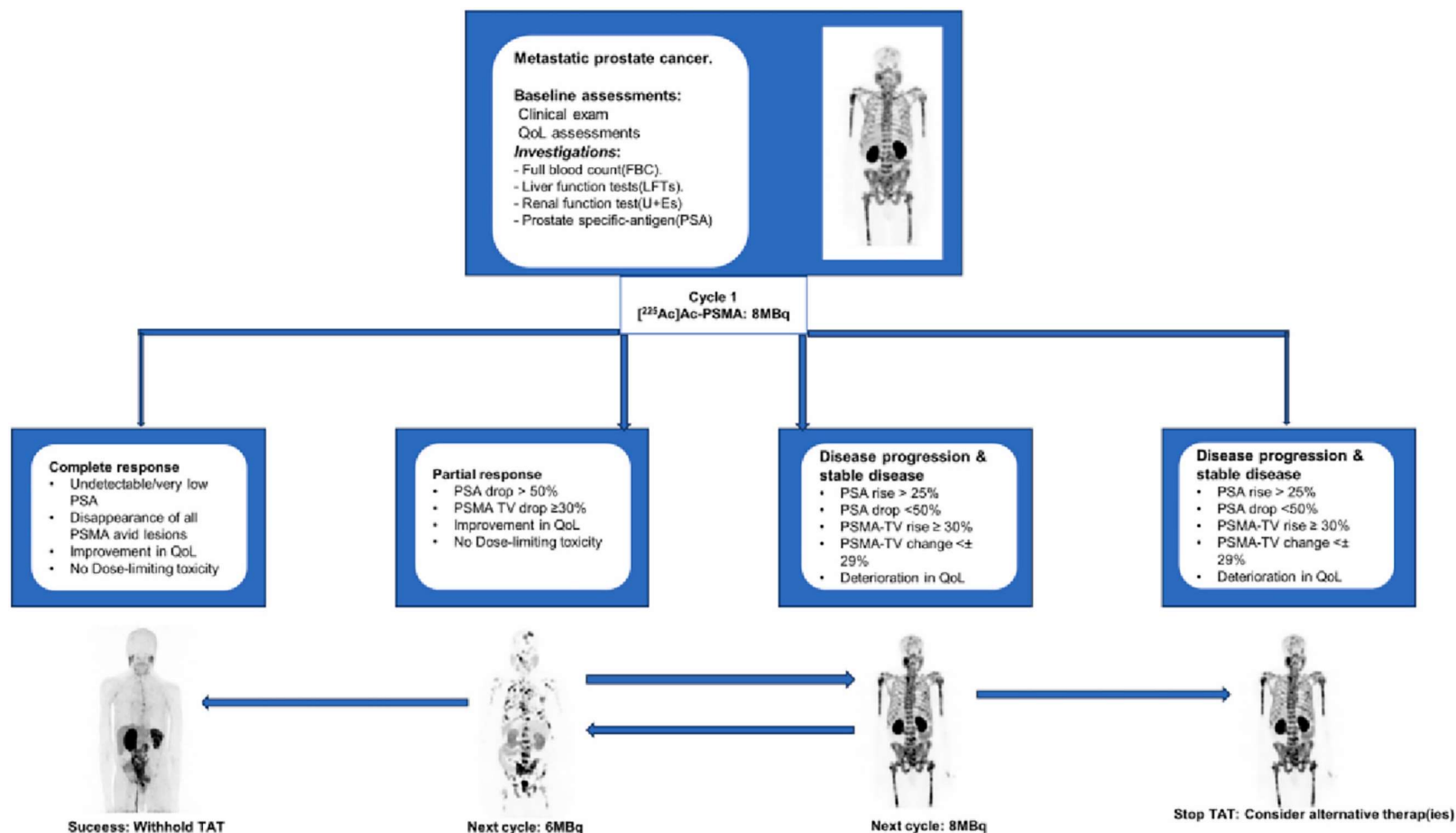


Fig. 1. This shows an example of dose-escalation and de-escalation with [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA. The patient is initially treated with 8 MBq of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA. If the patient has a partial response as per the EANM/RECIP criteria, the administered activity for the subsequent cycle will be 6 MBq. If they have complete response after 6 MBq (cumulative 14 MBq), [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA is deemed successful and stopped. Should the patient have stable disease or disease progression, the activity of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA is maintained at 8 MBq for the next cycle. If no objective response is seen thereafter, [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy is rendered unsuccessful and other therapies are considered. QoL: Quality of life; PSMA-TV: Prostate-specific membrane antigen-tumor volume; TAT: targeted alpha therapy.

The patients are encouraged to stay well hydrated and practice good toilet hygiene. This is especially important when it comes to voiding since unbound [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA is excreted via urine.

Follow-up and response assessment

In our center, we administer a minimum of 2 cycles. The maximum number of cycles is determined by the patient's response and side-effect profile. Generally, treatment is repeated every 8 weeks. This was based on the early studies with [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 by Kratochwil and colleagues who noted that if [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 is given every 8 weeks, there is a reasonable trade-off between toxicity and biochemical response.⁵⁶ Another factor that influences the dosing frequency is the supply of [²²⁵Ac]Ac. The response assessment is assessed in 3 domains: clinical response, biochemical response, and radiological response. This should be ideally done at most 2 weeks prior to therapy.

Clinical response entails the assessment of disease-related or treatment-related symptomatology. This is either by clinical history or using validated semiquantitative quality of life (QoL) assessment tools. These are robust tools that can assess QoL related to both disease and treatment objectively. They include validated questionnaires such as the European Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire (EORTC-QLQ), Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System, and Brief Pain Inventory.^{58,59,60}

Baseline blood tests (serum PSA; serum urea, electrolytes and creatinine levels, creatinine clearance for eGFR, and LFTs) should be performed as required during follow-up for safety and efficacy assessments. PSA is used for response assessment based on the prostate cancer working group (PCWG) 3 recommendations.⁶¹

- i. PSA response: PSA decline 50% or greater from baseline measured twice 3 to 4 weeks apart.
- ii. PSA progression: rise in PSA by 25% from the nadir and an increase of at least 2 ng/mL.
- iii. Stable PSA: decline less than 50% or rise less than 25%.

Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors 1.1 criteria is used to evaluate response to therapy. Although one would think PSMA-PET/CT imaging would be the most appropriate response assessment study, it should be taken into consideration that the downregulation of PSMA expression may be a mechanism of therapeutic resistance. Therefore, other parameters that include the clinical and biochemical response should be considered when using PSMA imaging as a response assessment tool. Reliance on imaging findings on PSMA imaging alone may lead to failure to confirm disease progression when lesions downregulate their expression of PSMA. Nonetheless various groups have demonstrated and endorsed PSMA-PET imaging as a potential tool for response assessment.^{62,63,64}

Current evidence for the efficacy of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-prostate-specific membrane antigen therapy in metastatic castrate-resistant prostate cancer

Most of the published data on the clinical application of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA have been retrospective in nature due to its use compassionate basis. The Heidelberg group provided the first preliminary insights into the potential of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA TAT for mCRPC. This included its safety and efficacy in the setting of diffuse red marrow metastases, its efficacy in cases resistant to [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA, its ability to eradicate high-volume metastases, and its efficacy as a last-line therapy in patients who had multiple conventional therapies for mCRPC.⁵⁶ Their cohort consisted of 2 patients (A and B), both with disease progression on conventional therapies. Whereas the next regimen available would have been [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617, it was contraindicated in patient A since they had diffuse bone marrow involvement. Patient B who had peritoneal carcinomatosis and liver metastases demonstrated progression on [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy. They were then considered for [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA, which is known for distinct and favorable physical properties compared to β-emitting [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy. After 3 cycles of therapy, they demonstrated clinical, biochemical, and imaging response to therapy. The PSA was undetectable and no PSMA-avid lesions were seen on [⁶⁸Ga] Ga-PSMA-11 PET imaging.⁴⁵

Their follow-up dose-escalation study to define the optimum activity required to achieve the maximum antitumor effect and the dose-limiting organs paved the way for the current global clinical practice on [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy. Their approach was estimating the dosimetry using time–activity curves derived from serially obtained [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 scans extrapolated to the physical half-life of [²²⁵Ac]Ac, assuming instant decay of unstable daughter nuclides. They treated 14 patients with an escalating activity of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617, from 50 to 200 kBq/kg body weight, and 100 kBq/kg was determined as the maximum tolerable activity and xerostomia as the dose-limiting toxicity. Notably, xerostomia was the commonest side effect at activity of 100 kBq/kg and above.⁵⁶

The same group proceeded to evaluate the antitumor effect and the duration of disease control of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA in patients treated with first-line, second-line, third-line, and fourth-line regimens using a Swimmer plot as recommended by the PCWG 3.⁶⁵ In a cohort of 31 patients treated with 3 cycles of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA, PSA decline 50% or greater was observed in 24 out of 38 (63%) and any PSA response in 33 out of 38 (87%) of patients. The median duration of tumor control was 9.0 months and more importantly, 5 patients demonstrated an enduring response beyond 2 years. This compared favorably with the duration of tumor control seen with other therapies. The duration of disease control regardless of the agent used as first-line, second-line, third-line, or fourth-line agent was 8.0, 7.0, 6.0, and 4.0, respectively. In their study, the commonest first-line, second-line, third-line, and fourth line agents were abiraterone, docetaxel, enzalutamide, and cabazitaxel. The median duration of tumor control was abiraterone (median duration 10.0 months), docetaxel (6.5 months), enzalutamide (6.5 months), and cabazitaxel (6.0 months). In cases where [²²³Ra]RaCl₂ was used, the median duration of tumor control was 4 months. This study provided insights into the antitumor activity of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA in patients who had exhausted other forms of therapy. Furthermore, the study provided evidence of the potential of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA to provide better survival outcomes relative to existing conventional therapies regardless of the stage of disease when it is instituted.⁶⁵

In a cohort of 73 patients (mean age, 69 years; range, 45–85 years), treated with 210 cycles of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA (median treatment cycle = 3, range = 1–8), Sathekge and colleagues demonstrated PSA decline of greater than or equal to 50% in 70% of patients; and any PSA decline in 82%. In 29% of patients, all lesions demonstrated complete resolution on PSMA-PET. The progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS) were 15.2 months (95% confidence interval [CI], 13.1–17.4) and 18 months (95% CI: 16.2–19.9), respectively. To date, this is the largest series, demonstrating the efficacy, durability of disease control, and survival inducible by [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 therapy for mCRPC.⁶⁶

In a much smaller but impactful series, Yadav and colleagues demonstrated median PFS and OS of 12 months (95% CI: 9–13 months) and 17 months (95% CI: 16 months—upper limit not reached), respectively.⁶⁷ The PSA response rates were much lower than that of the Pretoria group with 78.6% of the patients achieving any PSA decline, while 39% of patients achieved a PSA decline of 50% or more. This was the first study to provide insights into the effect of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA on the QoL. QoL was assessed using the visual analog score, analgesic score, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group performance status, and Karnofsky performance status. Statistically significant improvement was noted using these scoring tools, corresponding to improvement in pain severity, need for analgesia, and carrying out activities of daily living.⁶⁷

Two other groups demonstrated comparable quality-of-life effects in patients with mCRPC. Satapathy and colleagues focused on the Health-Related Quality-of-Life Outcomes related to [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA in 11 heavily pretreated patients. Pretherapy and posttherapy NCCN-FACT-FPSI-17 questionnaires revealed statistically significant improvement in the total FPSI score (*P* = .003) as well as the disease-related symptoms-physical (*P* = .004) and disease-related symptoms-emotional (*P* = .046) subscores. Significant improvement was noted with respect to pain, difficulty in urination, bone pain, fatigue, and restriction in physical activity.⁶⁸ The findings were comparable to those of the Heidelberg group whose patients experienced clinically relevant decrease in pain and QoL improvement in physical and role functioning domains. This group used the EORTC-QLQ-30 and BM-22 questionnaires with a corresponding reduction in the need for analgesia noted.⁶⁹

Multiple other retrospective studies showed an excellent response in patients with visceral metastases and exceptional disease control rates of remission as long as 5 years. Maserumule and colleagues reported an exceptional response in a patient with diffuse lung metastases. The same group also reported an exceptional response of cerebral metastases and widespread skeletal metastases. More importantly, this patient demonstrated a remarkable functional response (resolution of cerebral and extensive skeletal metastases) and biochemical response (decrease in serum PSA level from 788.63 to 6.52 µg/L) after 1 cycle of [²²⁵ Ac] Ac-PSMA.^{70,71,72}

Efficacy of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-prostate-specific membrane antigen in the post-[¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-prostate-specific membrane antigen therapy setting

[¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA has undergone extensive evaluation prospectively and retrospectively. It has demonstrated good antitumor and survival outcomes in patients who have exhausted other conventional therapies.^{73,74} In a phase II trial, Hoffman and colleagues a PSA decline of 50% or more was achieved in 17 (57%) patients (95% CI: 37–75). 21 (70%) patients (95% CI: 51–85)

achieved a PSA decline of at least 30%, 13 (43%) patients (20–56) of at least 80% and 6 (20%) patients (8–39) of 96% or higher.⁵³ On the other hand, the recent phase 3 multicenter VISION trial, which resulted in the FDA approval of [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 in mCRPC, only 9% had a complete response to therapy, whereas only 41% of patients in the [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 cohort had partial response to therapy.³ These studies demonstrated that despite the good tumor control seen with [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA, a large number of patients may not respond to [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA and of those who respond, many will experience disease progression. This necessitates the need for a more effective next-line or alternative therapeutic regimen. Authors have used [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy with the premise that its physical properties confer superior radiobiological effectiveness that overcomes resistance to [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA. Kratochwil and colleagues were the first to demonstrate complete biochemical and imaging response to [²²⁵ Ac] Ac-PSMA in a patient who had progressed on [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA.⁴⁵

A notable study showed a substantial antitumor effect of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA in patients refractory to [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA. Any PSA decline and a PSA decline of 50% or greater were observed in 23 (95% CI: 70%–97%) and 17 (95% CI: 46%–81%) of 26 patients, respectively. Higher functional status (ECOG 1/2) was associated with a better prognosis. Liver metastases at initial presentation were associated with shorter PSA-PFS (1.9 vs 4.0 months; *P* = .02, hazard ratio [HR] 3.01, 95% CI: 0.7 to 13.1), shorter clinical PFS (1.8 vs 5.2 months; *P* = .001, HR 4.38, 95% CI), and shorter OS (4.3 vs 10.4 months; *P* = .01, HR 9.35, 95% CI: 1.5–56.9).⁷⁶ Compared to other studies, the frequency of a PSA response and the duration of the response were, however, lower than in previous reports for [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 seen in less advanced and patients who were either both chemo and/or [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA-naïve. Another important issue was that there were no measurable changes in the global health status/QoL using the EORTC-QLQ30 questionnaire.^{65,75,76}

Although a substantial antitumor effect has been demonstrated, the survival is shorter after [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 in patients who have received [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA compared to those who have not received [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA prior to [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA-617. Sathekge and colleagues showed that patients with a prior history of [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy had a significantly shorter PFS (5.1 months, 95% CI: 3.8–6.5 months vs 16.5 months, 95% CI: 14.3–18.7 months) compared with [¹⁷⁷ Lu]-PSMA therapy-naïve patients. On multivariate analysis, prior [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy was significantly associated with shorter PFS.⁶⁶ Comparable results were in a case series of 19 patients with mCRPC who were refractory to treatment with [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA (2–9 cycles) by Alan-Selcuk and colleagues. One cycle of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA resulted in a decrease in PSA of more than 50% in 5 of 19 patients (26%). Any decrease in PSA was observed in 11 of 19 patients (58%). Median PFS and median OS were quite low at 3.1 and 7.7 months, respectively. In the Munich series of patients post [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy,⁷⁵ the median PSA-PFS, clinical PFS, and OS periods were 3.5 (95% CI: 1.8 to 11.2), 4.1 (95% CI: 3–14.8), and 7.7 (95% CI: 4.5–12.1) months, respectively.⁷⁵ These good PSA responses with shorter survival rates may have been due to the heterogeneous nature of these populations. Two approaches may be valuable to address this which include randomized control trials to determine which patients are likely to benefit from either therapy. One such study is the currently active phase 1 AcTion trial [clinicaltrials.gov . NCT04597411], which is investigating [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA in patients previously treated with [¹⁷⁷ Lu]-PSMA-I&T or [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 radioligand therapy.

Another approach that has been explored in patients refractory to [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy has been the use of tandem therapy. This involves using a cocktail of both [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA and [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA in patients who demonstrate poor response to [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA. The Homburg group in a cohort of 20 patients administered [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 and then [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 in the same week, typically on consecutive days. The median (ranges) of administered activities were 5.3 (1.5–7.9) MBq for [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 and 6.9 (5.0–11.6)GBq for [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617.⁷⁸ Their study showed better PSA responses with 13 out of 20 patients (65%) having PSA decline 50% or greater. Comparable response rates were seen in both patients who showed an earlier response to prior [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 therapy before developing resistance (n = 12) versus those patients who never responded to the prior [¹⁷⁷Lu]-PSMA-617 therapy.⁷⁸ Other studies have shown similar results including molecular imaging response based on PSMA-PET imaging.⁷⁹ Generally, these studies highlight the antitumor activity of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA against 2 patterns of radio resistant to β-emitting radionuclide therapy for mCRPC, which are acquired and inherent resistance.

[²²⁵Ac]Ac-prostate-specific membrane antigen: in the prechemotherapy and/or postandrogen deprivation therapy settings

Radioligand therapies have generally been considered and used at the end of the disease spectrum.^{80,81} However, more favorable outcomes and responses to therapeutic regimens are noted in earlier phases of prostate cancer pathogenesis. This may be multifactorial with a predominance of less resistance mechanisms in the earlier phases. To the best of our knowledge, no randomized control trial studies have been published to determine the therapeutic effectiveness as a determinate of the order of therapy after androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) has failed. Better PSA responses have been seen if [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA was used in chemotherapy-naïve patients.⁸² Translation of this to [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA is important especially in patients with contraindications to chemotherapy or who may not wish to have chemotherapy at all. Sathekge and colleagues reported on a group of 17 men who had mCRPC therapies other than chemotherapy but inclusive of [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA.⁵⁷ Sixteen patients demonstrated good antitumor activity of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-PSMA assessed by serum PSA level and [⁶⁸Ga]Ga-PSMA-PET/CT. In 14 out of 17 patients, PSA decline 90% or greater was seen after treatment, including 7 patients with undetectable serum PSA following 2 (2 out of 7) or 3 cycles (5 out of 7) cycles of [²²⁵Ac]-PSMA-617. Fifteen of 17 patients had a greater than 50% decline in lesion avidity for tracer on [⁶⁸Ga]Ga-PSMA-PET/CT including 11 patients with complete resolution (PET-negative and either stable sclerosis on CT for bone or resolution of lymph node metastases) of all metastatic lesions.⁵⁷ The same group also did a subgroup analysis of treatment outcome and survival in patients who progressed only on ADT.⁷⁶ Forty-eight patients (91%) had a PSA decline of at least 50%, and 51 patients (96%) had any decline in PSA. [⁶⁸Ga]Ga-PSMA-PET findings became negative in 30 patients. The median estimated OS was 9 months for patients with a PSA decline of less than 50% but was not yet reached at the latest follow-up (55 months) for patients with a PSA decline of 50% or more. The estimated median PFS was 22 months for patients with a PSA decline of at least 50% and 4 months for patients with a PSA decline of less than 50%.⁷⁶ These studies are congruent with the outcomes seen when [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA was applied earlier.⁸² This implies that [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA may need to be considered in the earlier phases of disease, to harness its full potential. Despite the application of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA as the last line, the median duration of tumor control was 9.0 months. This was excellent compared to earlier applied therapeutic regimens

of abiraterone, docetaxel, enzalutamide, cabazitaxel, and [²²³ Ra]RaCl₂ with median durations of tumor control of 10.0, 6.5, 6.5, 6.0 and 4.0 months, respectively.⁶⁵ However, the performance of a prospective large multicenter randomized study comparing [²²⁵ Ac] Ac-PSMA with current standard-of-care treatment options such as enzalutamide, abiraterone acetate, and docetaxel after ADT in different stages of disease is needed.

[²²⁵ Ac]Ac-prostate-specific membrane antigen: application in the hormone-sensitive setting

In patients with high-volume disease at initial presentation who are presumably hormone-sensitive, various treatment regimens as monotherapy or in combination are recommended by various treatment guidelines. These include ADT, taxane-based chemotherapy, and novel antiandrogen drugs. Some patients may not be able to tolerate these regimens based on their physical status or preferences. They are thus started on ADT alone, which may be insufficient without systemic therapy.⁸⁰ This stimulates the need for other tolerable therapies such as [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA. Sathekge and colleagues reported a retrospective series of 21 men with untreated bone and visceral metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate carcinoma who refused standard treatment options and were treated with [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA-617.⁸³ The treatment was well tolerated with only grade 1 and 2 xerostomia in 94% of patients. Ninety-five percent of the patients had any decline in PSA and 86% presented with a PSA decline of at least 50% including 4 patients in whom PSA became undetectable. A lower percentage decrease in PSA following treatment was associated with an increased mortality and shorter PFS.⁸³

Side-effect Profile of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-prostate-specific Membrane Antigen

Ma and colleagues reported on the side-effect profile of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA therapy. Salivary gland toxicity was the most common with any grade occurring in approximately 77.1% and grade 3 or higher salivary gland toxicity occurring in 3%. Anemia was the second commonest toxicity, with any grade occurring in 30.3%, and grade 3 accounting for 7.5% of patients; grade III leukopenia and thrombocytopenia were 4.5% and 5.5%, respectively. Grade 3 nephrotoxicity occurred in 6%.⁸⁴

The most common toxicities observed make sense given that organs expressing significant PSMA expression include salivary glands, lacrimal glands, enterocytes of the small bowel, and the epithelial lining of the proximal convoluted tubules.⁸⁵ Further early dosimetry data on TAT showed that salivary glands received the highest radiation dose and are the dose-limiting organ for TAT.^{75,85,86} These treatment-related side effects with TAT are also due to both direct and indirect radiation effects (ROS). The salivary gland secretions provide a good milieu for the generation of ROS, making them one of the most radiosensitive organs.⁸⁷ The signs and symptoms of salivary gland toxicity include a burning sensation in the mouth, dysgeusia, problems with speech, sleep and mastication, and dental infections. These can adversely affect the patient's QoL.^{88,89}

Various groups have aimed to mitigate for salivary gland toxicity. Lessons learnt from head and neck external beam radiotherapy suggest that the general approach should entail reducing radioligand uptake in the salivary glands, administration of radioprotectors, stimulation of salivary gland secretion, and restoration of salivary gland function.⁹⁰

External salivary gland cooling has been explored as a way of reducing radioligand uptake. However, limited benefit was noted with this strategy, no difference in PSMA uptake was seen on PET imaging between the cooled and uncooled salivary glands.^{91,92} The administration of botulinum toxin, other anticholinergic drugs, local anesthetics such as lidocaine, and modifications of tracer administration have also shown promise.^{57,93}

Sathekge and colleagues⁵⁷ exploited the tumor sink effect, that is, decreased uptake in dose-limiting organs in the setting of high tumor burden,⁹⁴ to modify the activity of tracer administered through the course of treatment in an effort to reduce the incidence and severity of treatment-induced xerostomia.^{57,96} Initial activity of 8 MBq was given, with subsequent de-escalation to 7 MBq, 6 MBq, or 4 MBq for subsequent therapy sessions in patients with good titrated against residual tumor burden. In patients with disease progression, the activity administered was increased against the tumor burden. Reduced toxicity in the salivary glands was observed with only grade 1/2 xerostomia seen in all patients, and no xerostomia severe enough to lead to treatment discontinuation. Importantly, the antitumor effect and long-term outcomes were maintained despite the dose modifications in subsequent cycles.⁵⁷

Other groups have evaluated the tandem administration of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA and [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA. Khreish and colleagues were the first to report their experience with 1 course of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617/[¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 tandem therapy in 20 patients with mCRPC⁷⁸. They reported grade 1 (very mild), and grade 2 (mild) xerostomia in 8 out of 20 patients (40%) and 5 out of 20 (25%). No grade 3/4 xerostomia was reported, and no patient stopped therapy due to dryness of the mouth. This included patients with previous [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA therapy.⁷⁸ Lower incidences of grade 1/2 I/II xerostomia were also reported in follow-up studies that used tandem therapy.^{79,95}

In a recent retrospective analysis of patients with extensive skeletal metastases, severe hematotoxicity was rare.⁹⁶ The study included 106 patients who received a median of 4 cycles of [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617. Among these 106 patients, 32.1% presented with a super scan pattern on [⁶⁸Ga]Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT, the rest had more than 20 skeletal lesions, and 92% had baseline hematological abnormalities. Only 1 patient had grade 4 thrombocytopenia. Grade 3 anemia, leukopenia, and thrombocytopenia were seen in 1 (0.9%), 3 (2.8%), and 2 (1.9%) patients, respectively. Age, number of treatment cycles, and the presence of renal dysfunction were significant risk factors for hematologic toxicity of [²²⁵Ac] Ac-PSMA-617 therapy.⁹⁶ Comparable results were seen in other groups and a previous meta-analysis.^{56,66,97} Satapathy and colleagues noted that clinically significant toxicity was limited with grade 3 or greater xerostomia, anemia, leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and nephrotoxicity occurring in 1.2%, 12.3%, 8.3%, 6.3%, and 3.8% of the patients, respectively.⁹⁷ The rarity of hematological side effects is in line with the shorter path length of α -particles compared with β -particles, which implies that high energy is deposited within the targeted bone metastases with a limited dose delivered to the surrounding red marrow.^{11,54}

Chronic kidney disease after [²²⁵Ac] Ac-PSMA therapy is rare, but seen. Satapathy and colleagues showed that 3.8% of patients had grade 3 or greater toxicity warranting the stoppage of therapy.⁹⁷

Resistance and Mutations

Genotypical features conferring resistance to TAT point toward an increased prevalence of mutations in the DNA damage repair machinery. P53 protein halts cell cycle progression in response to DNA damage by acting via cyclin and cyclin-dependent kinases. Mutations in the TP53 the gene, which codes for the p53 protein have been demonstrated in patients with poor prognosis to [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA.⁹⁸ Patients with resistance to PSMA TAT despite PSMA positivity frequently harbor mutations in DNA damage repair and checkpoint genes.^{99,100,101} In 7 tumor samples analyzed by Kratochwil and colleagues, deleterious or presumably deleterious mutations affecting *TP53* , *CHEK2* , *ATM* , and *BRCA1* , *BRCA2* , *PALB2* , *MSH2* , *MSH6* , *NBN* , *FANCB* , and *PMS1* were found.¹⁰¹ Knowledge of these pathogenic germline variants is important for patient selection for TAT and the possible design of combination therapies that will improve outcomes in patients with resistance to TAT. This has opened the door for combination therapy with poly(ADP) ribosyl polymerase inhibitors such as olaparib to be used in combination with radioligand therapy. Olaparib and other PARP inhibitors as either monotherapy or combination therapies have been demonstrated to prolong survival in patients harboring *BRCA1/2* germline mutations.^{102,103} The ability of olaparib to potentiate the antitumor effect of [¹⁷⁷ Lu]Lu-PSMA is currently being evaluated (NCT03874884). This is a possible route that trials on [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA will take later. Alpha particles are well known to be associated with abscopal effects as an indirect immune-mediated cytotoxic effect in nontarget cancer cell.¹² This is due to the release of tumor neoantigens that potentiate the host adaptive immune system suggesting a possible role of immunotherapy.¹⁰⁴ However, little success has been achieved with the use of immunotherapy agents in the treatment of mCRPC. This limited success has been attributed to the immunologic coldness of prostate cancer resulting from poor expression of neoantigens.¹⁰⁵

Rechallenge options

Despite the success of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA, some patients who initially respond to therapy demonstrate disease recurrence. Such patients are likely to have exhausted other therapies and [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA becomes the only option. The initial response of the patient to therapy should be part of the qualifying criteria. Therapy should only be administered in patients who demonstrated an initial objective response. The toxicity from past cycles of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA should also be considered. In addition, the clinical status of the patient should be considered, and such rechallenge be considered in patients who demonstrate a good functional status and prognosis. Figs. 2 and 3 demonstrate a patient with an initially excellent response to therapy, followed by more than 24 month remission. Rechallenge with [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 shows more than 90% PSA decline.¹⁰⁶

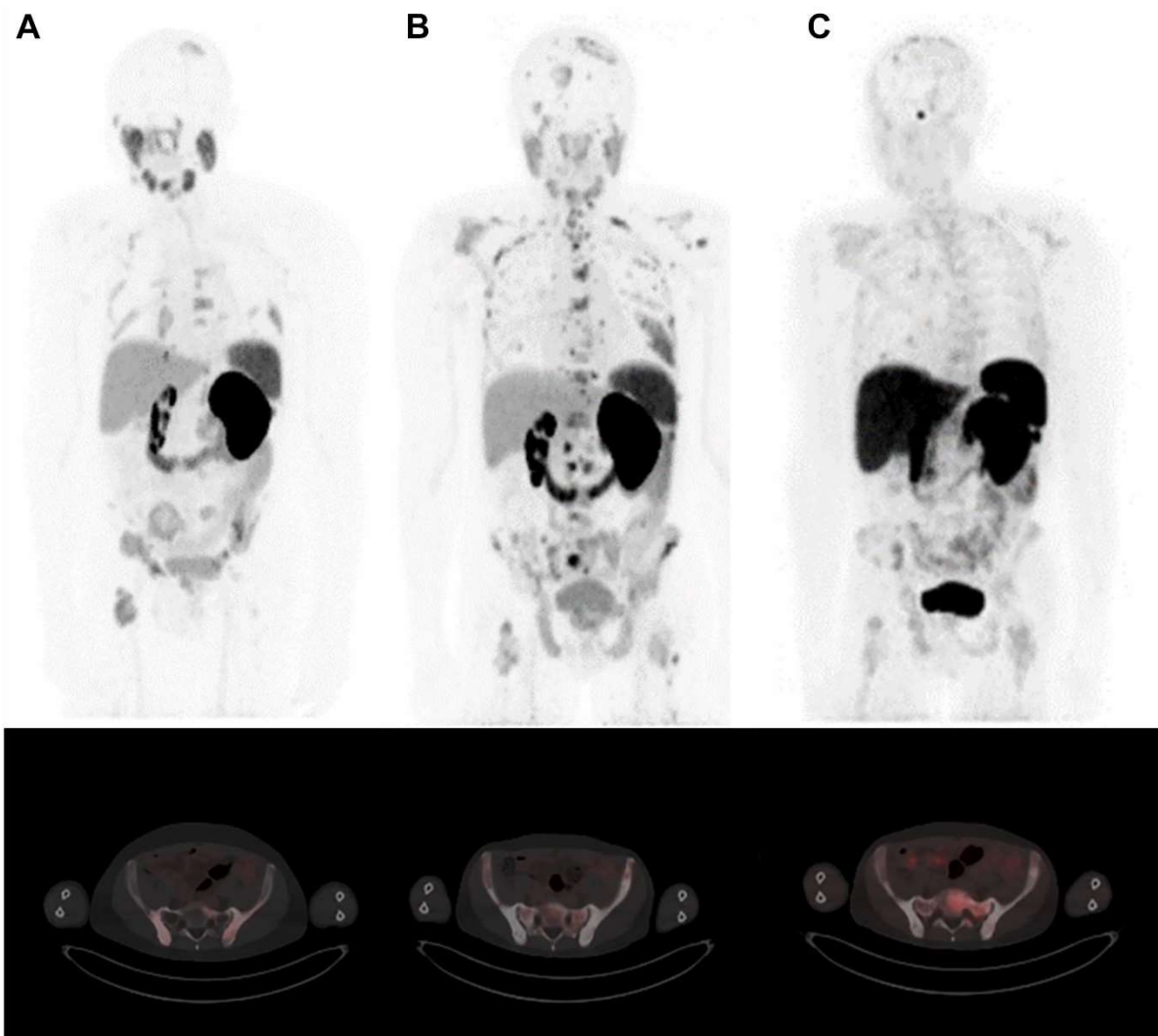


Fig. 2. A case of a 55 year old male patient with metastatic prostate cancer stage IVb, Gleason 5 + 4 diagnosed in February 2021. *Panel A (MIP)* is a [⁶⁸ Ga]Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT done after androgen deprivation therapy and chemotherapy, which demonstrated PSMA-avid metastatic bone disease. *Panel B (MIP)* demonstrates progression after 5 cycles of [²²⁵ Ac]Ac-PSMA-617; PSA rose from 94 to 294 ng/mL. *Panel C (MIP)* [⁶⁸ Ga]Ga-DOTATATE PET/CT demonstrates tracer avid skeletal metastases, for example, sacral uptake (Panel C axial) demonstrates DOTATATE uptake despite PSMA negativity in [⁶⁸ Ga]Ga-PSMA-PET/CT images. This is a classic case of neuroendocrine dedifferentiation in progressive mCRPC.

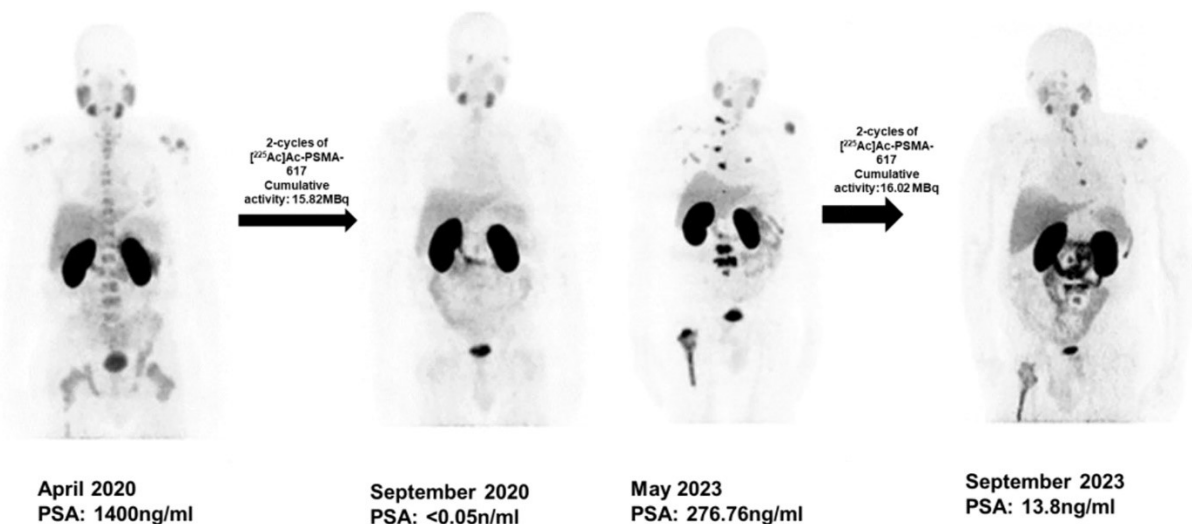


Fig. 3. [^{68}Ga]Ga-PSMA-11 PET/CT images of a 67 year old male patient with mCRPC postchemotherapy demonstrated excellent response to [^{225}Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 at initial presentation. The patient went on remission for more than 24 months. Rechallenge with [^{225}Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 demonstrates more than 90% drop in PSA levels. In addition, resolution of PSMA-avid lesions is noted.

Summary

This review discusses α -PSMA radiopharmaceuticals and their clinical applications worldwide. We introduce the radiopharmaceuticals that have been evaluated in the preclinical setting and discuss the mechanisms that confer increased radiobiological effectiveness. The relative advantages of the different PSMA TAT are also discussed. The discussion then focuses on [^{225}Ac] Ac-PSMA-617, which has been evaluated in multiple clinical retrospective studies. These showed that it can be used in situations where resistance to other therapies exists, it is safe and associated with long-term survival and good tumor control. It is suitable in metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer and in mCRPC after or before the use of novel antiandrogen therapies, chemotherapies, or [^{177}Lu] Lu-PSMA-617. Detailed patient selection criteria, preparation, and administration of TAT is also outlined.

Clinics care points

- Compared to other therapies in mCRPC, TAT with PSMA radiopharmaceutical is associated with a good antitumor effect and prolonged survival outcomes.
- Salivary gland toxicity is the dose-limiting toxicity; however, hematotoxicity and renal toxicity are infrequent.

Disclosure

Ethical approval and consent to participate: Although this is a review article, ethics approval and informed consent for the images used are available. *Competing interests:* The authors declare that they have no competing interests. *Consent for publication:* Informed patient consent for publication of [^{68}Ga] Ga-DOTATATE PET/CT and [^{68}Ga]Ga-PSMA-PET/CT images and other relevant information was obtained. *Availability of data and materials:* The articles quoted and referenced are available online as referenced. The images used for the review are

available from the corresponding author on request. *Funding:* The authors declare that the review was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships.

Author contributions: All authors contributed equally.

1 Contributed equally.

References

1. Siegel R.L., Miller K.D., Wagle N.S., Jemal A.: Cancer statistics, 2023. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2023; 73: pp. 17-48.
2. Hennrich U., Eder M.: [177Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 (Pluvicto™): the first FDA-Approved Radiotherapeutical for treatment of prostate cancer. *Pharmaceuticals* 2022; 15: pp. 1-13.
3. Sartor O., de Bono J., Chi K.N., et. al.: Lutetium-177–PSMA-617 for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med* 2021; 385: pp. 1091-1103.
4. Donin N.M., Reiter R.E.: Why targeting PSMA is a game changer in the management of prostate cancer. *J Nucl Med* 2018; 59: pp. 177-182.
5. Wang X., Yin L., Rao P., et. al.: Targeted treatment of prostate cancer. *J Cell Biochem* 2007; 102: pp. 571-579.
6. Caromile L.A., Shapiro L.H.: PSMA redirects MAPK to PI3K-AKT signaling to promote prostate cancer progression. *Mol Cell Oncol* 2017; 4: pp. 1-3.
7. Hong X., Mao L., Xu L., et. al.: Prostate-specific membrane antigen modulates the progression of prostate cancer by regulating the synthesis of arginine and proline and the expression of androgen receptors and Fos proto-oncogenes. *Bioengineered* 2022; 13: pp. 995-1012.
8. Zirkle R.E., Tobias C.A.: Effects of ploidy and linear energy transfer on radiobiological survival curves. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 1953; 47: pp. 282-306.
9. Poty S., Francesconi L.C., McDevitt M.R., et. al.: α -emitters for radiotherapy: from basic radiochemistry to clinical studies—part 1. *J Nucl Med* 2018; 59: pp. 878-884.
10. King A.P., Lin F.I., Escorcia F.E.: Why bother with alpha particles?. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2021; 49: pp. 7-17.
11. Pouget J.P., Constanzo J.: Revisiting the Radiobiology of targeted alpha therapy. *Front Med* 2021; 8: pp. 1-11.
12. Gorin J.B., Ménager J., Gouard S., et. al.: Antitumor immunity induced after α irradiation. *Neoplasia* 2014; 16: pp. 319-328.
13. Zhou H., Ivanov V.N., Lien Y.C., et. al.: Mitochondrial function and nuclear factor- κ B-mediated signaling in radiation-induced bystander effects. *Cancer Res* 2008; 68: pp. 2233-2240.
14. Roscher M., Bakos G., Benešová M.: Atomic nanogenerators in targeted alpha therapies: Curie's legacy in modern cancer management. *Pharmaceuticals* 2020; 13: pp. 1-21.
15. Kozempel J., Mokhodoeva O., Vlk M.: Progress in targeted alpha-particle therapy. What we learned about recoils release from in vivo generators. *Molecules* 2018; 23:
16. Edem P., Fonslet J., Herth M., et. al.: In vivo radionuclide generators for diagnostics and therapy Release and redistribution of daughter radionuclides. *Bioinorg Chem Appl* 2016; 2016: pp. 1-8.

17. McDevitt M.R., Ma D., Lai L.T., et. al.: Tumor therapy with targeted atomic nanogenerators. *Science* (1979) 2001; 294: pp. 1537-1540.
18. Juzeniene A., Stenberg V.Y., Bruland Ø.S., et. al.: Preclinical and clinical status of psma-targeted alpha therapy for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Cancers* 2021; 13: pp. 1-25.
19. Morgenstern A., Apostolidis C., Kratochwil C., et. al.: An Overview of targeted alpha therapy with 225 actinium and 213 Bismuth. *Curr Radiopharm* 2018; 11: pp. 200-208.
20. Umbricht C.A., Köster U., Bernhardt P., et. al.: Alpha-PET for prostate cancer: preclinical investigation using 149Tb-PSMA-617. *Sci Rep* 2019; 9: pp. 1-10.
21. Müller C., Domnanich K.A., Umbricht C.A., et. al.: Scandium and terbium radionuclides for radiotheranostics: current state of development towards clinical application. *Br J Radiol* 2018; 91:
22. Beyer G.J., Miederer M., Vranješ-Durić S., et. al.: Targeted alpha therapy in vivo: direct evidence for single cancer cell kill using 149Tb-rituximab. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2004; 31: pp. 547-554.
23. de Kruijff R.M., Wolterbeek H.T., Denkova A.G.: A critical review of alpha radionuclide therapy-how to deal with recoiling daughters?. *Pharmaceuticals* 2015; 8: pp. 321-336.
24. Guérard F., Gestin J.F., Brechbiel M.W.: Production of [211At]-astatinated radiopharmaceuticals and applications in targeted α -particle therapy. *Cancer Biother Radiopharm* 2013; 28: pp. 1-20.
25. Albertsson P., Bäck T., Bergmark K., et. al.: Astatine-211 based radionuclide therapy: current clinical trial landscape. *Front Med* 2023; 9:
26. Kiess A.P., Minn I., Vaidyanathan G., et. al.: (2S)-2-(3-(1-carboxy-5-(4-211At-astatobenzamido)pentyl) ureido)-pentanedioic acid for PSMA-targeted α -particle radiopharmaceutical therapy. *J Nucl Med* 2016; 57: pp. 1569-1575.
27. Mease R.C., Kang C.M., Kumar V., et. al.: An improved 211At-labeled agent for PSMA-targeted α -therapy. *J Nucl Med* 2022; 63: pp. 259-267.
28. Sweatt S.K., Gower B.A., Chieh A.Y., et. al.: 乳鼠心肌提取 HHS public access. *Physiol Behav* 2016; 176: pp. 139-148.
29. Hagemann U.B., Wickstroem K., Hammer S., et. al.: Advances in Precision oncology: targeted thorium-227 conjugates as a New Modality in targeted alpha therapy. *Cancer Biother Radiopharm* 2020; 35: pp. 497-510.
30. Hammer S., Hagemann U.B., Zitzmann-Kolbe S., et. al.: Preclinical efficacy of a PSMA-targeted thorium-227 conjugate (PSMA-TTC), a targeted alpha therapy for prostate cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 2020; 26: pp. 1985-1996.
31. Hammer S., Schlicker A., Zitzmann-Kolbe S., et. al.: Darolutamide potentiates the antitumor efficacy of a PSMA-targeted thorium-227 conjugate by a dual mode of action in prostate cancer models. *Clin Cancer Res* 2021; 27: pp. 4367-4378.
32. George D.J., McDevitt M.R., Barendsward E., et. al.: An α -particle emitting antibody ([213Bi]J591) for radioimmunotherapy of prostate cancer. *Prostate J* 2001; 3: pp. 1.
33. Alati S., Singh R., Pomper M.G., et. al.: Preclinical development in radiopharmaceutical therapy for prostate cancer. *Semin Nucl Med* 2023; 53: pp. 663-686.
34. Afshar-Oromieh A., Hetzheim H., Kratochwil C., et. al.: The theranostic PSMA ligand PSMA-617 in the diagnosis of prostate cancer by PET/CT: biodistribution in humans, radiation dosimetry, and first evaluation of tumor lesions. *J Nucl Med* 2015; 56: pp. 1697-1705.

35. Benesová M., Schäfer M., Bauder-Wüst U., et. al.: Preclinical evaluation of a tailor-made DOTA-conjugated PSMA inhibitor with optimized linker moiety for imaging and endoradiotherapy of prostate cancer. *J Nucl Med* 2015; 56: pp. 914-920.
36. Sathekge M., Knoesen O., Meckel M., et. al.: ²¹³Bi-PSMA-617 targeted alpha-radionuclide therapy in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2017; 44: pp. 1099-1100.
37. Kratochwil C., Schmidt K., Afshar-Oromieh A., et. al.: Targeted alpha therapy of mCRPC: dosimetry estimate of ²¹³Bismuth-PSMA-617. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2018; 45: pp. 31-37.
38. Kelly J.M., Amor-Coarasa A., Ponnala S., et. al.: A single dose of ²²⁵Ac-RPS-074 induces a complete tumor response in an LNCaP xenograft model. *J Nucl Med* 2019; 60: pp. 649-655.
39. Busslinger S.D., Tschan V.J., Richard O.K., et. al.: [²²⁵Ac]Ac-SibuDAB for targeted alpha therapy of prostate cancer: preclinical evaluation and Comparison with [²²⁵Ac]Ac-PSMA-617. *Cancers* 2022; 14: pp. 5651.
40. Hooijman E.L., Chalashkan Y., Ling S.W., et. al.: Development of [²²⁵ac]ac-psma-i&t for targeted alpha therapy according to gmp guidelines for treatment of mcrpc. *Pharmaceutics* 2021; 13:
41. Zacherl M.J., Gildehaus F.J., Mittlmeier L., et. al.: First clinical results for PSMA-targeted α -therapy using ²²⁵Ac-PSMA-I&T in advanced-mCRPC patients. *J Nucl Med* 2021; 62: pp. 669-674.
42. Kratochwil C., Fendler W.P., Eiber M., et. al.: Joint EANM/SNMMI procedure guideline for the use of ¹⁷⁷Lu-labeled PSMA-targeted radioligand-therapy (¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-RLT). *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2023; 50: pp. 2830-2845.
43. Vorster M., Warwick J., Lawal I.O., et. al.: South African guidelines for receptor radioligand therapy (RLT) with Lu-177-PSMA in prostate cancer. *S Afr J Surg* 2019; 57: pp. 45-51.
44. Ahmadzadehfar H., Aryana K., Pirayesh E., et. al.: The Iranian Society of Nuclear Medicine practical guideline on radioligand therapy in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer using ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA. *Iran J Nucl Med* 2018; 26: pp. 2-8.
45. Kratochwil C., Bruchertseifer F., Giesel F.L., et. al.: ²²⁵Ac-PSMA-617 for PSMA-targeted α -radiation therapy of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *J Nucl Med* 2016; 57: pp. 1941-1944.
46. Current K., Meyer C., Magyar C.E., et. al.: Investigating PSMA-targeted radioligand therapy efficacy as a function of cellular PSMA levels and intratumoral PSMA heterogeneity. *Clin Cancer Res* 2020; 26: pp. 2946-2955.
47. Buteau J.P., Martin A.J., Emmett L., et. al.: PSMA and FDG-PET as predictive and prognostic biomarkers in patients given [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 versus cabazitaxel for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (TheraP): a biomarker analysis from a randomised, open-label, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol* 2022; 23: pp. 1389-1397.
48. Ferdinandus J., Violet J., Sandhu S., et. al.: Prognostic biomarkers in men with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer receiving [¹⁷⁷Lu]-PSMA-617. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2020; 47: pp. 2322-2327.
49. Gafita A., Calais J., Grogan T.R., et. al.: Nomograms to predict outcomes after ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA therapy in men with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: an international, multicentre, retrospective study. *Lancet Oncol* 2021; 22: pp. 1115-1125.

50. Seifert R., Seitzer K., Herrmann K., et. al.: Analysis of PSMA expression and outcome in patients with advanced Prostate Cancer receiving ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA-617 Radioligand Therapy. *Theranostics* 2020; 10: pp. 7812-7820.
51. Sartor O.: Predicting benefit from [¹⁷⁷Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 therapy: what do we need to know?. *Lancet Oncol* 2022; 23: pp. 1344-1345.
52. Hotta M., Gafita A., Murthy V., et. al.: PSMA PET tumor-to-salivary gland ratio to predict response to [¹⁷⁷Lu]PSMA radioligand therapy: an international multicenter retrospective study. *J Nucl Med* 2023; 64: pp. 1024-1029.
53. Hofman M.S., Violet J., Hicks R.J., et. al.: [¹⁷⁷ Lu]-PSMA-617 radionuclide treatment in patients with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (LuPSMA trial): a single-centre, single-arm, phase 2 study. *Lancet Oncol* 2018; 19: pp. 825-833.
54. Sgouros G.: Alpha-particles for targeted therapy. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* 2008; 60: pp. 1402-1406.
55. Hindie E., Zanotti-Fregonara P., Quinto M.A., et. al.: Dose deposits from ⁹⁰Y, ¹⁷⁷Lu, ¹¹¹In, and ¹⁶¹Tb in micrometastases of various sizes: Implications for radiopharmaceutical therapy. *J Nucl Med* 2016; 57: pp. 759-764.
56. Kratochwil C., Bruchertseifer F., Rathke H., et. al.: Targeted a-therapy of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer with ²²⁵Ac-PSMA-617: dosimetry estimate and empiric dose finding. *J Nucl Med* 2017; 58: pp. 1624-1631.
57. Sathekge M., Bruchertseifer F., Knoesen O., et. al.: ²²⁵Ac-PSMA-617 in chemotherapy-naive patients with advanced prostate cancer: a pilot study. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2019; 46: pp. 129-138.
58. Management I.T.D., User Guide user Guide. Computer (long Beach Calif). 2020;(September):169-232, Available at: www.impact-test.co.uk . Accessed September 2, 2023.
59. Devlin N. Value Sets for EQ-5D-5L : a Compendium, Comparative review & user Guide, Available at: <https://library.oapen.org/bitstream/id/122663fb-2ed2-4c34-8048-ae61be55bea6/978-3-030-89289-0.pdf> , 2022. Accessed September 2, 2023.
60. Esper P., Mo F., Chodak G., et. al.: Measuring quality of life in men with prostate cancer using the functional assessment of cancer therapy-prostate instrument. *Urology* 1997; 50: pp. 920-928.
61. Scher H.I., Morris M.J., Stadler W.M., et. al.: Trial design and objectives for castration-resistant prostate cancer: Updated recommendations from the prostate cancer clinical trials working group 3. *J Clin Oncol* 2016; 34: pp. 1402-1418.
62. Grubmüller B., Senn D., Kramer G., et. al.: Response assessment using ⁶⁸ Ga-PSMA ligand PET in patients undergoing ¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA radioligand therapy for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2019; 46: pp. 1063-1072.
63. Fanti S., Goffin K., Hadaschik B.A., et. al.: Consensus statements on PSMA PET/CT response assessment criteria in prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2021; 48: pp. 469-476.
64. Heinzl A., Boghos D., Mottaghy F.M., et. al.: ⁶⁸ Ga-PSMA PET/CT for monitoring response to ¹⁷⁷ Lu-PSMA-617 radioligand therapy in patients with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2019; 46: pp. 1054-1062.
65. Kratochwil C., Bruchertseifer F., Rathke H., et. al.: Targeted a-therapy of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer with ²²⁵ Ac-PSMA-617: Swimmer-Plot Analysis

- Suggests efficacy regarding duration of tumor control. *J Nucl Med* 2018; 59: pp. 795-802.
66. Sathekge M., Bruchertseifer F., Vorster M., et. al.: Predictors of overall and disease-free survival in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer patients receiving 225Ac-PSMA-617 radioligand therapy. *J Nucl Med* 2020; 61: pp. 62-69.
 67. Yadav M.P., Ballal S., Sahoo R.K., et. al.: Efficacy and safety of 225Ac-PSMA-617 targeted alpha therapy in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer patients. *Theranostics* 2020; 10: pp. 9364-9377.
 68. Satapathy S., Mittal B., Sood A., et. al.: Health-related quality-of-life outcomes with actinium-225-prostate-specific membrane antigen-617 therapy in patients with heavily pretreated metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Indian J Nucl Med* 2020; 35: pp. 299.
 69. van der Doelen M.J., Mehra N., van Oort I.M., et. al.: Clinical outcomes and molecular profiling of advanced metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer patients treated with 225Ac-PSMA-617 targeted alpha-radiation therapy. *Urol Oncol: Seminars and Original Investigations* 2021; 39: pp. 729.e7-16.
 70. Sathekge M.M., Bruchertseifer F., Lawal I.O., et. al.: Treatment of brain metastases of castration-resistant prostate cancer with 225Ac-PSMA-617. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2019; 46: pp. 1756-1757.
 71. Rathke H., Bruchertseifer F., Kratochwil C., et. al.: First patient exceeding 5-year complete remission after 225Ac-PSMA-TAT. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2021; 48: pp. 311-312.
 72. Maserumule L.C., Mokoala K.M.G., Hlongwa K.N., et. al.: Exceptional initial response of prostate cancer lung metastases to 225Ac-PSMA: a case report. *Curr Probl Cancer: Case Reports* 2021; 3:
 73. Ahmadzadehfar H., Rahbar K., Baum R.P., et. al.: Prior therapies as prognostic factors of overall survival in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer patients treated with [177Lu]Lu-PSMA-617. A WARMTH multicenter study (the 617 trial). *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2021; 48: pp. 113-122.
 74. Jeklin A., Bustamante Farías Ó., Saludables P., et. al.: 濟無No Title No Title No Title. *Correspondencias & Análisis* 2016; 15018: pp. 1-23.
 75. Feuerecker B., Tauber R., Knorr K., et. al.: Activity and Adverse Events of actinium-225-PSMA-617 in advanced metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer after failure of Lutetium-177-PSMA[Formula presented]. *Eur Urol* 2021; 79: pp. 343-350.
 76. Sathekge M., Bruchertseifer F., Vorster M., et. al.: mCRPC patients receiving 225Ac-PSMA-617 therapy in the post-androgen deprivation therapy setting: response to treatment and survival analysis. *J Nucl Med* 2022; 63: pp. 1496-1502.
 77. Alan-Selcuk N., Beydagi G., Demirci E., et. al.: Clinical experience with [225 Ac]Ac-PSMA treatment in patients with [177 Lu]Lu-PSMA–Refractory metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *J Nucl Med* 2023; 64: jnumed.123.265546
 78. Khreish F., Ebert N., Ries M., et. al.: 225Ac-PSMA-617/177Lu-PSMA-617 tandem therapy of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: pilot experience. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2020; 47: pp. 721-728.
 79. Rosar F., Hau F., Bartholomä M., et. al.: Molecular imaging and biochemical response assessment after a single cycle of [225Ac]Ac-PSMA-617/[177Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 tandem therapy in mCRPC patients who have progressed on [177Lu]Lu-PSMA-617 monotherapy. *Theranostics* 2021; 11: pp. 4050-4060.

80. Schaeffer E.M., Srinivas S., Adra N., et. al.: NCCN GUIDELINES® INSIGHTS: prostate cancer, version 1.2023: Featured Updates to the NCCN guidelines. *JNCCN Journal of the National Comprehensive Cancer Network* 2022; 20: pp. 1288-1298.
81. Amaro A., Esposito A.I., Gallina A., et. al.: Validation of proposed prostate cancer biomarkers with gene expression data: a long road to travel. *Cancer Metastasis Rev* 2014; 33: pp. 657-671.
82. Barber T.W., Singh A., Kulkarni H.R., et. al.: Clinical outcomes of ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA radioligand therapy in earlier and later phases of metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer grouped by previous taxane chemotherapy. *J Nucl Med* 2019; 60: pp. 955-962.
83. Sathekge M., Bruchertseifer F., Vorster M., et. al.: ²²⁵Ac-PSMA-617 radioligand therapy of de novo metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate carcinoma (mHSPC): preliminary clinical findings. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2023; 50: pp. 2210-2218.
84. Ma J., Li L., Liao T., et. al.: Efficacy and safety of ²²⁵Ac-PSMA-617-Targeted alpha therapy in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Front Oncol* 2022; 12:
85. Kinoshita Y., Kuratsukuri K., Landas S., et. al.: Expression of prostate-specific membrane antigen in normal and malignant human tissues. *World J Surg* 2006; 30: pp. 628-636.
86. Belli M.L., Sarnelli A., Mezzenga E., et. al.: Targeted alpha therapy in mCRPC (metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer) patients: predictive dosimetry and toxicity modeling of ²²⁵Ac-PSMA (Prostate-Specific membrane antigen). *Front Oncol* 2020; 10: pp. 1-12.
87. Jasmer K.J., Gilman K.E., Forti K.M., et. al.: Radiation-induced salivary gland dysfunction: mechanisms, therapeutics and future directions. *J Clin Med* 2020; 9: pp. 1-37.
88. Taïeb D., Foletti J.M., Bardies M., et. al.: PSMA-targeted radionuclide therapy and salivary gland toxicity: Why does it matter?. *J Nucl Med* 2018; 59: pp. 747-748.
89. Langbein T., Chaussé G., Baum R.P.: Salivary gland toxicity of PSMA radioligand therapy: Relevance and preventive strategies. *J Nucl Med* 2018; 59: pp. 1172-1173.
90. Heynickx N., Herrmann K., Vermeulen K., et. al.: The salivary glands as a dose limiting organ of PSMA- targeted radionuclide therapy: a review of the lessons learnt so far. *Nucl Med Biol* 2021; 98-99: pp. 30-39.
91. Yilmaz B., Nisli S., Ergul N., et. al.: Effect of external cooling on ¹⁷⁷Lu-PSMA uptake by the parotid glands. *J Nucl Med* 2019; 60: pp. 1388-1393.
92. van Kalmthout L.W.M., Lam M.G.E.H., de Keizer B., et. al.: Impact of external cooling with icepacks on ⁶⁸Ga-PSMA uptake in salivary glands. *EJNMMI Res* 2018; 8:
93. Baum R.P., Langbein T., Singh A., et. al.: Injection of botulinum toxin for Preventing salivary gland toxicity after PSMA radioligand therapy: an empirical Proof of a promising Concept. *Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2018; 52: pp. 80-81.
94. Gaertner F.C., Halabi K., Ahmadzadehfar H., et. al.: Oncotarget 55094 www.impactjournals.com/oncotarget Uptake of PSMA-ligands in normal tissues is dependent on tumor load in patients with prostate cancer. *Oncotarget* 2017; 8: pp. 55094-55103. Available at: www.impactjournals.com/oncotarget/
95. Rosar F., Krause J., Bartholomä M., et. al.: Efficacy and safety of [²²⁵ac]ac-psma-617 augmented [¹⁷⁷lu]lu-psma-617 radioligand therapy in patients with highly advanced mcrpc with poor prognosis. *Pharmaceutics* 2020; 13: pp. 1-14.

96. Lawal I.O., Morgenstern A., Vorster M., et. al.: Hematologic toxicity profile and efficacy of [225Ac]Ac-PSMA-617 α -radioligand therapy of patients with extensive skeletal metastases of castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2022; 49: pp. 3581-3592.
97. Satapathy S., Sood A., Das C.K., et. al.: Evolving role of 225Ac-PSMA radioligand therapy in metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer—a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis* 2021; 24: pp. 880-890.
98. Stuparu A.D., Capri J.R., Meyer C.A.L., et. al.: Mechanisms of resistance to prostate-specific membrane antigen-targeted radioligand therapy in a mouse model of prostate cancer. *J Nucl Med* 2021; 62: pp. 989-995.
99. Kratochwil C., Giesel F.L., Heussel C.P., et. al.: Patients resistant against PSMA-targeting α -radiation therapy often harbor mutations in DNA damage-repair-associated genes. *J Nucl Med* 2020; 61: pp. 683-688.
100. Vietri M.T., D'elia G., Caliendo G., et. al.: Hereditary prostate cancer: genes related, target therapy and prevention. *Int J Mol Sci* 2021; 22:
101. Boussios S., Rassy E., Moschetta M., et. al.: BRCA mutations in Ovarian and prostate cancer: Bench to Bedside. *Cancers* 2022; 14: pp. 1-29.
102. Prasad V., Zengerling F., Steinacker J.P., et. al.: First experiences with 177Lu-PSMA therapy in combination with Pembrolizumab or after Pretreatment with Olaparib in single patients. *J Nucl Med* 2021; 62: pp. 975-979.
103. de Bono J., Mateo J., Fizazi K., et. al.: Olaparib for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med* 2020; 382: pp. 2091-2102.
104. Schumacher T.N., Schreiber R.D.: Neoantigens in cancer immunotherapy. *Science (1979)* 2015; 348: pp. 69-74.
105. Kgatle M.M., Boshomane T.M.G., Lawal I.O., et. al.: Immune checkpoints, inhibitors and radionuclides in prostate cancer: promising Combinatorial therapy approach. *Int J Mol Sci* 2021; 22:
106. Sathekge M.M., Bruchertseifer F., Vorster M., et. al.: Global experience with PSMA-based alpha therapy in prostate cancer. *Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging* 2021; 49: pp. 30-46.