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Musculoskeletal responses to exercise plus nutrition in men with prostate cancer on androgen deprivation: A 12-Month RCT

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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 *Purpose:* Androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) for prostate cancer (PCa) has multiple
25 adverse effects on musculoskeletal health. This 12-month randomised controlled trial aimed
26 to assess the effects of multi-component exercise training combined with whey protein,
27 calcium and vitamin D supplementation on bone mineral density (BMD), structure and
28 strength, body composition, muscle strength and physical function in ADT-treated men.

29 *Methods:* Seventy ADT-treated men were randomised to exercise plus supplementation
30 (Ex+Suppl; n=34) or usual care (Control; n=36). Ex+Suppl involved thrice weekly
31 progressive resistance training plus weight-bearing impact exercise with daily multi-nutrient
32 supplementation. Primary outcomes were DXA hip and spine areal BMD. Secondary
33 outcomes included: tibia and radius pQCT volumetric BMD, bone structure and strength;
34 DXA body composition; pQCT muscle and fat cross-sectional area and muscle density;
35 muscle strength and physical function.

36 *Results:* Sixty men (86%) completed the study. Mean exercise and supplement adherence
37 were 56% and 77%, respectively. There were no effects of the intervention on bone or body
38 composition outcomes. Ex+Suppl improved leg muscle strength (net difference [95% CI]
39 14.5% [-0.2, 29.2], P=0.007) and dynamic mobility (four-square-step test time, -9.3% [-17.3,
40 -1.3], P=0.014) relative to controls. Per-protocol analysis of adherent participants ($\geq 66\%$
41 exercise, $\geq 80\%$ supplement) showed Ex+Suppl preserved femoral neck aBMD (1.9% [0.1,
42 3.8], P=0.026) and improved total body lean mass (1.0 kg [-0.23, 2.22], P=0.044) relative to
43 controls.

44 *Conclusion:* Exercise training combined with multi-nutrient supplementation had limited
45 effect on ameliorating the adverse musculoskeletal consequences of ADT, likely related to
46 the modest intervention adherence.

47 **Key Words:** Exercise, Nutrition, Cancer, Bone, Muscle, Androgen Deprivation Therapy

48 INTRODUCTION

49 Androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) is commonly used to treat advanced or metastatic
50 prostate cancer (PCa) and is shown to improve survival in appropriately selected patients (1),
51 but is associated with multiple adverse effects, particularly regarding musculoskeletal health
52 (1, 2). Within the first year of treatment, 1-5% losses in hip and spine areal bone mineral
53 density (aBMD) (3, 4), a 6-13% deterioration in cortical bone structure and vBMD and a 2-
54 4% reduction in trabecular vBMD (5), a 2-4% decline in lean mass and a 7-14% increase in
55 fat mass along with impaired muscle strength and physical function have been reported (3, 6).
56 Clinically, these marked musculoskeletal changes likely contribute to the reported 39-46%
57 increased fracture risk in ADT-treated men (7, 8).

58 Exercise training is widely recommended to combat the adverse effects of ADT (4, 9), with
59 aerobic and/or progressive resistance training (PRT) shown to effectively reduce fat mass
60 gains and improve aerobic fitness, fatigue, muscle mass, strength, function and quality of life
61 in ADT-treated men (2, 9). However, the effects of exercise on bone health are largely
62 inconclusive. While some interventions have demonstrated that PRT and impact exercise can
63 attenuate hip and spine aBMD loss in ADT-treated men (10, 11), most report negligible
64 skeletal effects (12-15). Few studies have assessed the effects of exercise on other
65 determinants of bone strength beyond aBMD in ADT-treated men, including cortical and
66 trabecular bone density and cortical bone structure. This is important because changes in
67 these skeletal determinants can influence bone strength without measurable changes in
68 aBMD (16).

69 Calcium and vitamin D supplementation are recommended in clinical care guidelines for
70 ADT patients to mitigate bone loss (17), but few intervention trials have investigated their
71 effects on bone health or fracture risk in ADT-treated men. In healthy older adults, daily

72 calcium plus vitamin D supplementation has been shown to modestly improve or attenuate
73 bone loss and reduce fracture risk (18, 19). Increased dietary protein intake and vitamin D in
74 combination with exercise, particularly PRT, are recommended to prevent age-related muscle
75 loss in older adults (20). Indeed, there is evidence that supplementation with whey protein or
76 a multi-nutrient supplement containing protein with vitamin D can enhance the effects of
77 PRT on muscle mass and strength in older men and women (21, 22). Given that exercise
78 alone has not been shown to consistently mitigate bone or muscle loss in ADT-treated men,
79 interventions combining exercise with nutritional support specifically targeted at both bone
80 and muscle may provide the greatest benefits.

81 The primary aim of this 12-month RCT was to investigate whether a community-based,
82 multi-component exercise program combined with a protein, calcium and vitamin D enriched
83 supplement could improve hip and lumbar spine (LS) aBMD in ADT-treated men. It was
84 hypothesised that the intervention would attenuate the expected decline in aBMD, relative to
85 controls. Secondary aims were to investigate the effects of the intervention on pQCT assessed
86 cortical and trabecular vBMD, bone structure and strength at the distal and proximal tibia and
87 radius, as well as body composition, muscle strength and physical function.

88 **METHODS**

89 **Study Design**

90 This was a two-arm, 12-month RCT in which 70 men with PCa treated with ADT were
91 randomised to either multi-component exercise training combined with multi-nutrient
92 supplementation (Ex+Suppl) or a usual care control (CON) group. The study protocol has
93 been described previously (23). Briefly, participants were randomised 1:1 following baseline
94 assessment, stratified by age (<65 or ≥65 years) and BMI (<30 and ≥30 kg/m²) using a
95 computer-generated random number sequence, by an independent researcher into one of the

96 two groups. Outcomes were assessed at baseline, six and 12 months. The study was approved
97 by the Deakin University Human Research Ethics Committee, Alfred Health and Peter
98 MacCallum Cancer Centre, and registered with the Australian and New Zealand Clinical
99 Trials Registry (ACTRN12614000317695).

100 **Participants**

101 Men aged 50-85 years with PCa treated with ADT were recruited between April 2014 and
102 November 2017 via clinician referral, PCa support groups and local newspaper
103 advertisements throughout Victoria, Australia. Eligible participants were men with
104 histologically diagnosed PCa currently being treated with pharmacological ADT for longer
105 than 12 weeks. Participants were excluded if they could not complete surveys in the English
106 language, had any disorder(s) known to affect bone, calcium or vitamin D metabolism (other
107 than hypogonadism), were currently receiving pharmacological intervention known to affect
108 bone metabolism (other than ADT), had supplemented with protein, calcium (>600 mg/day)
109 or vitamin D (>1000 IU/day) in the past three months, had undertaken PRT (>1
110 session/week) or regular weight-bearing impact exercise (>150 min/week) in the past three
111 months, were current smokers, weighed >159 kg or had any absolute contraindications to
112 exercise testing (24). All eligible participants obtained medical approval from their physician
113 and gave written informed consent prior to participation. The study was conducted in
114 accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

115 **Intervention**

116 *Exercise training program*

117 A detailed description of the exercise program has been previously reported (23). Briefly,
118 participants were prescribed two gym-based sessions and one home-based session per week.
119 Each gym-based session (~60 minutes) consisted of 5-10 minutes of aerobic training
120 (stationary cycling, treadmill walking, rowing) as part of the warm-up, 5-6 PRT exercises

121 (two sets, 8-12 repetitions at moderate to hard intensity) predominantly targeting the hip and
122 spine using machine and free weights, three weight-bearing impact exercises (three sets, 10-
123 20 repetitions) predominantly targeting the lower-limb (e.g. jumping, hopping, step-ups), two
124 challenging balance/functional exercises (two sets of 30-60 seconds or a given number of
125 repetitions) and two core stability exercises (two sets, 10-15 repetitions). Progressive
126 overload was applied to PRT by increasing the resistance, and to impact exercises by
127 increasing the height of jumps, adding additional weight, increasing the rate of impact-
128 loading or adding multi-directional movement patterns. During the first six months, two
129 weekly gym-based sessions were supervised by an accredited exercise physiologist in a
130 community-based health and fitness facility. For the final six months, one weekly gym-based
131 session was supervised. The home-based exercise program (20-60 minutes) followed a
132 similar structure and exercises to the gym-based sessions but used body weight and resistance
133 bands. Participants first practiced the home exercises in the gym and were provided with
134 instructions and an exercise card to complete at home. All exercise programs were
135 individually tailored with modifications made based on factors such as bone metastases or
136 comorbid conditions.

137 *Multi-nutrient nutritional supplement*

138 The multi-nutrient supplement consisted of a whey protein-, calcium- and vitamin D-enriched
139 drink (powder mixed with 150ml of water) combined with a single vitamin D tablet. Each
140 sachet contained approximately 440kJ energy, 25g whey-protein concentrate 80% (WPC80),
141 containing approximately 2.4g leucine, 1200mg calcium carbonate and 1000IU vitamin D
142 (Omniblend, Campbellfield, Victoria, Australia). The vitamin D tablet contained 1000IU
143 (Ostelin, Macquarie Park, NSW, Australia). Participants were asked to take one sachet every
144 morning, either before breakfast on non-training days or within 1–2 hours of exercise on

145 training days. Participants were advised to consume the supplement in addition to their
146 regular diet.

147 **Usual Care Control Group**

148 Participants allocated to usual care received ongoing care from their physician/specialist and
149 a single 1000IU vitamin D tablet per day.

150 **Outcome Measures**

151 *Areal BMD*

152 Lumbar spine (L1-L4) and proximal femur (femoral neck [FN] and total hip) aBMD (g/cm^2)
153 were assessed using DXA (Lunar iDXA, GE Lunar Corp., Madison, WI, USA). The
154 prevalence of osteoporosis (T-score ≤ -2.5) or osteopenia (T-score between -2.5 and -1.0) was
155 based on the World Health Organization criteria (25) from the lowest T-score at any site. The
156 short-term coefficient of variation (CV) for aBMD ranged from 0.6-1.0% within our
157 laboratory.

158 *Volumetric BMD, bone structure and strength*

159 Proximal (66%) and distal (4%) sites of the non-dominant radius and dominant tibia were
160 scanned using pQCT (XCT 3000, Stratec Medizintechnik GmbH, Pforzheim, Germany).
161 Cortical volumetric BMD (mg/cm^3), bone structure (total, cortical and medullary area [mm^2])
162 and strength (density-weighted polar cross-sectional moment of inertia [I_{polar} , mg/cm]) at
163 proximal sites, as well as trabecular vBMD (mg/cm^3) and strength (bone strength index [BSI,
164 mg^2/mm^4]) at distal sites were assessed. The slice thickness was 1mm and voxel size was
165 0.5mm at a scanning speed of 20mm/s. pQCT images were analysed in the Fiji image
166 analysis platform (26) using the BoneJ plugin (27) as previously reported (28). Distal radius
167 and tibia (4%) total bone area were analysed based on thresholding at $169\text{mg}/\text{cm}^3$. Trabecular
168 density was determined by peeling single layers of pixels until 45% of the total bone area

169 remained. BSI was calculated as total area multiplied by the square of total vBMD (29). For
170 the 66% proximal radius and tibia, the periosteal surface was determined based on a threshold
171 of 280mg/cm³, and cortical bone a threshold of 550mg/cm³. Medullary area was calculated
172 by subtracting cortical area from total area. I_{polar} was determined using the bone threshold of
173 480mg/cm³ (30). Scans were excluded according to the visual inspection rating scale of
174 participant movement (31, 32). Short-term CVs were 0.9-2.2% for the 4% radius, 0.7-2.5%
175 for the 4% tibia and 0.6-1.8% for the 66% tibia outcomes (33).

176 *Body composition*

177 Total and regional (arms, legs, trunk and appendicular) lean mass and fat mass were assessed
178 by DXA as described above. The short-term CV for lean and fat mass ranged from 1.0-1.7%.
179 Muscle and subcutaneous fat cross-sectional area (CSA) and muscle density (as a measure of
180 intermuscular adiposity) at the proximal (66%) radius and tibia were assessed using pQCT.
181 Thresholds of -40 to +40 mg/cm³ hydroxyapatite density were used for estimating
182 subcutaneous fat CSA. Muscle CSA was estimated by subtracting the total bone CSA and
183 subcutaneous fat CSA from the total area of the 66% tibia or radius. The following CVs have
184 been reported for muscle CSA (radius, 2.1-5.3%; tibia, 2.5-3.7%), muscle density (radius,
185 1.4-3.2%; tibia 0.7-3.2%) and subcutaneous fat CSA (radius, 2.4-3.2%; tibia, 6.0-6.3%) (34).

186 *Muscle strength and function*

187 As reported in detail previously (23), maximum muscle strength of the lower body (leg
188 press), chest (chest press) and back (seated row) was assessed using three-repetition
189 maximum (3-RM) protocols. Maximal grip strength was assessed using a digital grip-strength
190 dynamometer (Jamar Plus Digital, Lafayette Instrument Company, IN, USA). Physical
191 function was assessed via the 30-second sit-to-stand test, timed-up-and-go (TUG) test with a
192 cognitive task (counting backwards by 3 from a random number), four-square step test

193 (FSST), Berg Balance Scale, 4-m usual walk (to assess gait speed) and 400-m walk. Detailed
194 methodology for each test has been described previously (23).

195 *Demographic, health and lifestyle information*

196 A questionnaire was used to obtain background demographic, clinical and lifestyle
197 information from participants, including cultural background, PCa and ADT use details,
198 medical conditions (past and current), prescription and non-prescription medication use (type
199 and dose) and history of falls in the previous 12 months and fractures since the age of 45.

200 *Anthropometry, physical activity and diet*

201 Height and weight were assessed using a portable stadiometer (SECA, Hamburg, Germany)
202 and scales (A&D, Tokyo, Japan), respectively. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as
203 body mass (kg) divided by height (m) squared (kg/m^2). The Community Healthy Activities
204 Model Programme for Seniors (CHAMPS) physical activity questionnaire was used to assess
205 habitual physical activity levels (35). Diet was assessed using a 24-hour food recall and
206 analysed using Australia-specific dietary analysis software (FoodWorks, Xyris software,
207 Highgate Hills, Australia).

208 *Adherence*

209 Exercise adherence was assessed using exercise cards for gym-based sessions or self-reported
210 training diaries for home-based sessions. Supplement adherence was assessed by counting
211 sachets and vitamin D capsules returned at six and 12 months and cross-checked against
212 supplement calendars completed by participants.

213 *Adverse events*

214 Adverse events, defined as any unfavourable or unintended health-related event or issue that
215 developed or worsened during the study period as a result of the intervention, were recorded
216 at exercise sessions for the Ex+Suppl group and at follow-up testing sessions for controls.

217 *Blood biomarkers*

218 Fasted, resting morning blood samples were collected at a commercial pathology clinic, with
219 serum aliquots stored at -80°C. Blood samples were assessed immediately for total prostate
220 specific antigen (PSA) and high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (CRP) using standard
221 techniques. Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D [25(OH)D] was assessed using a LIAISON®
222 25OH-Vitamin D assay (DiaSorin, Stillwater, MN, USA) and serum insulin-like growth
223 factor 1 (IGF-1) using a LIAISON® IGF-1 one-step sandwich chemiluminescence
224 immunoassay (DiaSorin, Saluggia, VC, Italy). All samples were analysed in duplicate at
225 Monash Health (Monash Medical Centre, Clayton, VIC, Australia) at the completion of the
226 study.

227 **Sample Size Calculations**

228 Based on previous research (5, 36), it was estimated that 29 participants per group would
229 provide 90% power ($P < 0.05$, two-tailed) to detect a net difference of 3.5-4.0% (assuming a
230 SD of 4.0) in the primary outcomes of proximal femur and LS aBMD. For secondary pQCT
231 bone structure outcomes, it was estimated that 39 participants in each group would provide
232 90% power ($P < 0.05$, two-tailed) to detect a 50% reduction in the previously reported 11.5-
233 12.5% annual losses in radial and tibia cortical area (assuming a SD of 8.0) (5). Assuming a
234 30% dropout, we aimed to recruit and randomise 51 participants per group.

235 **Statistical Analysis**

236 Data were analysed using Stata statistical software (Version 15.0, Stata, College Station, TX,
237 USA). Primary analyses were completed using an intention-to-treat approach. Per protocol
238 analyses were also completed including participants with $\geq 66\%$ exercise adherence and
239 $\geq 80\%$ nutritional supplement adherence. All data were screened for outliers and assessed for
240 normality by visual inspection of histograms of the residuals. Linear mixed-effects models
241 with random effects (participants) were used to assess within-group changes over time and

242 group-by-time interactions (both fixed effects) at six and 12 months. Generalised linear
243 mixed models (GLMM) with a gamma distribution and log-link were used for variables that
244 were non-normally distributed. Baseline measures are presented as means \pm SD for
245 continuous data or frequency and percentage for categorical data, unless specified otherwise.
246 Mean change in outcomes with 95% confidence interval are presented as either absolute
247 change or as percentage change from baseline. Net differences between groups for the change
248 from baseline to six and 12 months were calculated as the change within the control group
249 subtracted from the change within the intervention group. For non-normally distributed data
250 that was assessed using GLMMs, the data was log transformed so that the percentage change
251 could be calculated as the absolute change in natural log transformed values multiplied by
252 100 (37). No data imputation was made for missing data as the linear mixed models can
253 handle missing data with maximum likelihood estimation. An alpha level of 0.05 was used to
254 determine statistical significance.

255 **RESULTS**

256 **Participant characteristics**

257 In total, 214 men expressed interest in the study from which 70 were randomised (Figure 1).
258 Recruitment ceased after 43 months, prior to reaching our target of 102 men, due to funding
259 constraints given a slow recruitment rate. As shown in Table 1, on average the men were
260 aged 71 years, with 53% and 30% classified as overweight and obese, respectively, 89%
261 reporting the presence of co-morbidities (mean number 2.6), and 50% and 6% classified as
262 having osteopenia and osteoporosis, respectively. Median time since PCa diagnosis was 3.3
263 years and median duration of ADT use was 12 months. Overall, 64% of men were classified
264 as having advanced PCa and 29% as having bone metastases, with 49% reported having a
265 previous prostatectomy, 69% previous radiotherapy and 16% previous chemotherapy.

266 **Attrition and adherence**

267 Sixty (86%) men completed the study (Ex+Suppl, n=31; Control, n=29). One participant in
268 Ex+Suppl did not commence the exercise program due to a perceived lack of time, while five
269 men discontinued training (four within three months, one after nine months) due to health
270 issues unrelated to the study (n=3), perceived lack of time (n=1) or personal reasons (n=1).
271 Four of these six men continued taking the nutritional supplement for the duration of the
272 study, and five of the six agreed to attend follow-up testing sessions. Mean \pm SD exercise
273 adherence was $56\% \pm 30\%$ (supervised $65\% \pm 25\%$; unsupervised $49\% \pm 38\%$). Mean multi-
274 nutrient supplement adherence was $77\% \pm 30\%$.

275 **Safety, tolerability and adverse events**

276 There were no serious adverse events related to the intervention. There were 21
277 musculoskeletal complaints reported by 14 (41%) participants in Ex+Suppl. Most complaints
278 (n=19) were minor requiring no treatment and led to between one and four missed or
279 modified sessions. Two participants experienced exacerbation of existing knee injuries and
280 trained with a modified program for six weeks. Additionally, three participants stopped
281 taking the nutritional supplement within the first six months due to gastrointestinal
282 complaints that they attributed to the supplement.

283 **Prostate cancer treatment**

284 At baseline, median ADT duration was five months higher in the control compared to
285 Ex+Suppl group (Table 1). Eight men (1 Ex+Suppl; 7 CON) discontinued ADT treatment
286 during the first 6 months of the intervention and a further eight (4 Ex+Suppl; 4 CON)
287 discontinued treatment between 6 and 12 months. The total number of men in each group that
288 discontinued ADT (5 Ex+Suppl; 11 CON) did not differ statistically (P=0.114). During the
289 study period, four participants (all Ex+Suppl) commenced radiation therapy, six participants
290 (5 Ex+Suppl; 1 CON) commenced chemotherapy, and seven participants (4 Ex+Suppl; 3

291 CON) were prescribed adjuvant anti-androgen medication, to be taken concomitantly with
292 existing gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists. The results were unchanged when ADT
293 duration, whether participants discontinued ADT, had bone metastasis at baseline,
294 commenced radiation therapy, commenced chemotherapy or were prescribed anti-androgen
295 medication during the study, were included as covariates in the analyses. Thus the unadjusted
296 results are presented below.

297 **Diet and physical activity**

298 Baseline mean dietary calcium intake was 841 mg/d, with 51 (73%) men classified as having
299 intakes below the Australian Recommended Dietary Intake (RDI). There were no significant
300 between-group differences over time or within-group changes in habitual physical activity
301 and daily energy, carbohydrate, protein, fat or calcium intake (excluding the supplement)
302 (Supplementary Table 1), except for an increase in habitual physical activity within the
303 control group at 12 months (mean change, 453 kJ/day [95% CI 70, 835], P=0.040).

304 **Blood biomarkers**

305 Mean baseline serum 25(OH)D levels were 69.8 nmol/L, with 12 (17%) men having
306 insufficient vitamin D levels (<50 nmol/L). Ex+Suppl had a greater increase in serum
307 25(OH)D compared to controls after six months (net difference 12.4 nmol/L [95% CI 8.9,
308 19.9], P=0.001), but not 12 months (Supplementary Table 2). There were no significant
309 between-group effects or within-group changes in serum IGF-1, hs-CRP or PSA after six or
310 12 months (Supplementary Tables 2-3).

311 **DXA areal BMD**

312 There were no significant effects of the intervention on LS or proximal femur aBMD (Table
313 2), with both groups experiencing a significant 1.1% to 1.9% loss in FN and total hip aBMD
314 after 12 months.

315 **pQCT volumetric BMD, bone structure and strength**

316 There were no significant effects of the intervention on distal (4%) tibia or radius trabecular
317 vBMD or BSI after six or 12 months (Table 3), with both groups experiencing similar losses
318 in distal tibia (3.8-4.5%) and radius (9.2-10.6%) BSI, and distal radius (2.7-2.9%) trabecular
319 vBMD after 12 months. There were also no significant intervention effects on proximal
320 (66%) tibia or radius cortical vBMD, bone structure or I_{polar} after six or 12 months, except for
321 a 1.4% net benefit of Ex+Suppl on proximal radius cortical vBMD after six months
322 ($P=0.035$). Tibia and radius cortical area declined similarly in each group after 12 months
323 with no change in total bone area, indicating that cortical bone loss was due to increased
324 endocortical resorption.

325 **Body composition**

326 There were no significant between-group effects on weight or any DXA or pQCT body
327 composition measure after six or 12 months (Table 4 and Supplementary Table 4), except
328 that leg fat mass increased in Ex+Suppl compared to controls at 12 months (net difference
329 0.34kg [95% CI -0.06, 0.74], $P=0.018$), proximal tibia and radius subcutaneous fat CSA
330 increased in Ex+Suppl compared to controls at 12 months (net differences 9.8% [95% CI 0.8,
331 18.8], $P=0.030$ and 9.0% [95% CI 1.4, 16.7], $P=0.004$, respectively), and proximal radius
332 muscle density decreased in Ex+Suppl compared to controls at 12 months (net difference -
333 1.7% [95% CI -3.3, -0.2], $P=0.012$).

334 **Muscle strength and function**

335 Lower body muscle strength (leg press) improved in Ex+Suppl compared to controls at six
336 months (net difference 11.0% [95% CI 0.1, 21.9], $P=0.048$) and 12 months (net difference
337 14.5% [95% CI -0.2, 29.2], $P=0.007$) (Table 5). Chest press muscle strength increased in
338 Ex+Suppl compared to controls at six months (net difference 10.7% [95% CI 0.2, 21.1],
339 $P=0.024$), but not at 12 months. There was no effect of the intervention on back (seated row)

340 or grip strength or any measure of physical function (Table 5), except that FSST performance
341 improved in Ex+Suppl compared to controls at six months (net difference -10.3%, (95% CI -
342 17.1, -3.4), P=0.003) and 12 months (net difference -9.3% [95% CI -17.3, -1.3], P=0.014).

343 **Per protocol analysis**

344 All results for the per-protocol analysis (exercise adherence $\geq 66\%$ and supplement adherence
345 $\geq 80\%$ [n=11]) remained unchanged, except for the following (Supplementary Tables 5-8): 1)
346 there was a net beneficial effect of Ex+Suppl relative to controls on FN aBMD at 12 months
347 (net difference 1.9% [95% CI 0.1, 3.8], P=0.026), which was driven by a significant loss in
348 controls (-1.8% [95% CI -2.9, -0.7], P<0.001); 2) there was no effect of Ex+Suppl on
349 proximal radius cortical vBMD; 3) total body lean mass increased in Ex+Suppl compared to
350 controls at six months (net difference 1.2kg [95% CI 0.2, 2.1], P=0.021), which persisted
351 after 12 months (net difference 1.0kg [95% CI -0.2, 2.2], P=0.044) (similar findings were
352 observed for leg lean mass); and 4) weight increased in Ex+Suppl compared to controls after
353 12 months (net difference 1.9kg [95% CI -0.4, 4.1], P=0.039).

354

355 **DISCUSSION**

356 The main findings from this 12-month RCT was that a multi-component exercise program
357 with a daily protein, calcium and vitamin D enriched supplement was largely ineffective for
358 improving or maintaining bone density, structure or strength, body composition or physical
359 function compared to usual care in men with prostate cancer treated with ADT. There was
360 evidence to support a beneficial effect on FN aBMD and lean mass among men who were
361 adherent to the intervention (exercise adherence $\geq 66\%$ and supplement adherence $\geq 80\%$), but
362 these findings must be interpreted with caution due to the small number of men (n=11) that
363 achieved this level of adherence.

364 The lack of any significant effect of our intervention on aBMD measures is largely consistent
365 with several previous 12-month interventions that have reported no or limited benefits of
366 exercise (all incorporating PRT) alone on LS and proximal femur aBMD in ADT-treated men
367 (10, 12-15). While one three-arm, 12-month RCT in 154 ADT-treated men reported that PRT
368 plus impact exercise, but not PRT plus aerobic training, attenuated LS aBMD loss relative to
369 controls (-0.6% versus -1.8% , $P=0.035$), there were no long-term exercise benefits on
370 proximal femur aBMD after 12 months (10). Similarly, the lack of effect on tibia or radius
371 vBMD, bone structure or strength in our study is consistent with the only other known
372 exercise RCT in ADT-treated men that used pQCT (12). Cormie and colleagues (12) reported
373 no effect of three months of PRT and aerobic training on distal tibia total vBMD in 63 men
374 commencing ADT, although a limitation of this study is the short duration which is
375 insufficient to capture true physiological changes in bone given the typical bone remodelling
376 cycle lasts approximately six months. However, several longer-term trials (8-18 months) in
377 healthy older men have reported inconsistent findings regarding the effects of PRT and
378 impact exercise training on (p)QCT-derived bone measures (38, 39). Collectively, findings
379 from our trial and previous interventions suggest that there is currently little evidence to
380 support multi-component exercise programs as an approach to attenuate ADT-related bone
381 loss in men with PCa, particularly at the proximal femur.

382 A number of factors likely explain the lack of effect of our multi-faceted exercise and
383 nutrition intervention on bone outcomes, despite our exercise program being modelled on the
384 successful *Osteo-cise: Strong Bones for Life* community-based exercise program that
385 significantly improved LS and FN aBMD by 1.0-1.1% in healthy older adults (36). Modest
386 adherence to the exercise training in our study (mean 56% over 12 months) is likely a key
387 reason, which is partly supported by our per-protocol analyses that revealed a significant
388 positive effect (net 1.9% benefit) of the intervention on FN aBMD relative to controls.

389 However, these findings must be interpreted with caution given the relatively small number
390 (n=11) of men from the intervention group that were included in the per-protocol analysis.
391 There were also no intervention effects on other bone outcomes in the per-protocol analysis,
392 suggesting that factors beyond just adherence contributed to the lack of effect on bone. For
393 instance, modifications made for some participants due to PCa related factors, such as bone
394 metastases and adverse effects associated with additional PCa treatments, limited the
395 intensity and/or dose of exercise training or the specificity of the program to target clinically
396 relevant skeletal sites. It is also possible that hypogonadism induced by ADT may have
397 blunted the osteogenic response to exercise training. Testosterone suppression with ADT can
398 lead to low estrogen levels, which is suggested to influence the minimal effective strain
399 threshold required for bone adaptation and therefore the anabolic response of bone to loading
400 (40). Consequently, a greater mechanical stimulus (strain) may be required to overcome this
401 and elicit osteogenic adaptations in men with hypogonadism induced by ADT. Finally, men
402 in the current study generally had sufficient dietary protein intakes, and calcium intakes were
403 within the current Australian estimated average requirements, and vitamin D levels were
404 replete, which may have limited potential additional exercise-related benefits of the
405 nutritional supplement on bone (or muscle) outcomes.

406 The lack of any intervention effects on bone may also relate to negligible effects of the
407 intervention on muscle-related outcomes, including lean mass, muscle CSA and muscle
408 strength. The 0.5 kg non-significant net intervention related benefit to total body lean mass in
409 our study was less than the significant 0.8 kg net benefits reported in two previous three to six
410 month PRT and aerobic exercise interventions in ADT-treated men (41, 42), however several
411 other PRT-related trials over three to 12 months in ADT-treated men also reported non-
412 significant 0.3 to 0.7 kg net benefits to lean mass relative to controls (10, 12, 13, 43). The
413 heterogeneity in reported skeletal muscle responses to PRT-related training in ADT-treated

414 men may be attributed to a number of factors, including differences in training intensity and
415 frequency, the inclusion of aerobic training which has been hypothesized to influence
416 hypertrophic adaptations, and the timing of commencing exercise relative to the initiation of
417 ADT (44). As with the bone outcomes, modest adherence to the intervention also likely
418 contributed to the lack of marked muscle benefits. Indeed, our per-protocol analyses showed
419 a net 1.0 to 1.2 kg intervention related benefit to total body lean mass after six and 12
420 months. However, there were no effects on pQCT assessed muscle CSA of the forearm or
421 lower leg. Collectively, these findings may relate to the multi-component nature of our
422 exercise program in which PRT was one of four key training elements and a greater dose or
423 volume of PRT may be required to elicit skeletal muscle gains. This is supported by a meta-
424 analysis reporting higher volume PRT programs were associated with the greatest benefits in
425 lean mass among older adults (45). Furthermore, a meta-analysis of seven exercise RCTs in
426 ADT-treated men found that low- to moderate-intensity PRT and aerobic training had no
427 effect on lean mass, despite increasing muscle strength (44). It is also possible that the dose
428 of whey protein provided (25g/d) in the nutritional supplement in our study may have been
429 insufficient to enhance skeletal muscle adaptations in combination with the exercise program
430 as there is some evidence from acute feeding studies that protein doses (whey or milk
431 protein) of 30-40g post-exercise are required to maximally stimulate muscle protein synthesis
432 (46, 47). However, there are mixed findings from meta-analyses of RCTs examining whether
433 protein supplementation can enhance the effects of exercise (resistance training) on muscle
434 mass or strength in older adults (48-50). As a result, there is no universal consensus on the
435 optimal dose (or type or timing) of protein needed to enhance the effects of exercise on
436 muscle mass and strength in older adults or cancer survivors (51, 52).

437 Previous exercise studies in ADT-treated men have reported improved upper and lower body
438 strength (10, 12, 41, 53), chair rise performance, gait speed and balance (12, 13, 41, 54). In

439 our study, leg press muscle strength and dynamic balance assessed by the FSST, were the
440 only outcomes that improved following exercise relative to controls. While it is possible that
441 the lack of intervention effects on lean mass or muscle CSA contributed to the limited effects
442 on other measures of muscle strength and physical function, the positive effects observed on
443 the above outcomes supports the training principle of specificity as the exercise program
444 focussed on lower body resistance exercises and challenging balance and mobility exercises.
445 Nevertheless, it should be recognised that our net benefits to muscle strength (15%) and
446 dynamic mobility (9%) were relatively modest, which may be likely due to the men included
447 in the study being relatively well functioning at baseline.

448 Previous exercise interventions in ADT-treated men have reported either reduced fat mass
449 (12, 42) or no changes over time relative to control groups (10, 13, 41), but no studies have
450 examined the combined effects of exercise with nutritional supplementation. In older
451 overweight/obese adults, there is evidence to support reduced fat mass and weight loss with
452 whey protein supplementation alone or in combination with exercise (55, 56). Therefore the
453 observed, albeit non-significant, 0.9 to 1.0 kg net increases in fat mass and body weight (and
454 greater gains in forearm and lower leg subcutaneous fat CSA) in Ex+Suppl relative to
455 controls after 12 months in our study were unexpected. While this could relate to the
456 additional 440 kJ per day consumed from the supplement, all results remained unchanged
457 when energy (kJ) from the nutritional supplement (adjusted for supplement adherence) was
458 factored into the daily dietary energy intake results. Although the observed net gain in fat
459 mass in our study appears to contrast with findings from several previous exercise
460 interventions in ADT-treated men (10, 12, 13, 41, 42), similar magnitude 0.9 to 1.1 kg within
461 group increases have been reported following six to 12 month exercise interventions
462 conducted in ADT-treated men (10, 14). It is important to note that men allocated to the
463 intervention in our study were advised that the supplement was not to be taken as a meal

464 replacement. Subsequent dietary analyses indicate that this occurred as mean habitual dietary
465 intakes (excluding the supplement) were no different between groups at any timepoint. Given
466 that weight and fat gain are common side-effects of ADT, further studies are needed to
467 evaluate the effects of nutritional supplementation with exercise on body composition in
468 ADT-treated men.

469 A strength of this study is that it is the first to investigate the effects of multi-component
470 exercise training combined with targeted nutritional supplementation on a wide battery of
471 musculoskeletal health outcomes known to be adversely affected by ADT. This provided a
472 comprehensive assessment of the effects of our intervention on a battery of common fracture
473 risk factors. However, there are several limitations. Firstly, due to the lack of a factorial 2x2
474 study design we cannot address the question of whether the combination of exercise with
475 nutritional supplementation is more effective (additive or synergistic) than either approach
476 alone. Secondly, we did not reach our target sample size which likely limited the statistical
477 power to detect possible between group differences in some bone outcomes, particularly bone
478 structure and strength estimates. Thirdly, intervention adherence was relatively modest and
479 our per protocol analyses were limited by a small number of men who met pre-specified cut
480 points for both exercise and supplement adherence. Furthermore, we could not access either
481 tumor characteristics or cancer recurrence data, so the intervention's effect on these clinical
482 outcomes could not be evaluated. Additionally, compared to more precise objective physical
483 activity assessment, the subjective physical activity measurement tool used in this study may
484 have limited our ability to capture differences and changes in habitual physical activity
485 throughout the intervention. Finally, volunteer bias may limit the generalisability of the
486 results as it is possible that participants capable of completing the intervention volunteered
487 for the study knowing they could be allocated to a 12-month exercise and nutritional
488 supplementation intervention.

489 In conclusion, we have demonstrated that a 12-month multi-component exercise program
490 combined with a daily protein, calcium and vitamin D enriched supplement was largely
491 ineffective for improving or maintaining bone density, structure or strength, body
492 composition or muscle function in men with PCa treated with ADT compared to usual care.
493 This is likely related to the modest intervention adherence as there was some evidence that
494 the intervention was effective for improving FN aBMD and total body lean mass among
495 highly adherent participants. Further research is therefore required to identify strategies to
496 promote long-term exercise adherence for this cohort of men.

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513 **Author contributions:** Study design: PJO, RMD, PML, SFF. Study conduct: JDV, PJO,
514 NLM, SJF. Data collection: JDV, PJO, NLM, SJF. Data analysis: JDV, TR, PJO. Data
515 interpretation: JDV, RMD. Drafting manuscript: JDV. Revising manuscript content: All.
516 Approving final version of manuscript: All. JDV takes responsibility for the integrity of the
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686

687 **Figure legends:**

688 **Figure 1.** Participant flow through the study.

689

690 **Supplemental digital content:**

691 Dalla Via et al_IMPACT_Supplementary tables_MSSE.docx