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1 **A Cross-Sectional Comparison of Quality of Life between Physically Active and**
2 **Under-active Older Men with Prostate Cancer**
3
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Abstract

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2 Men with prostate cancer experience many side effects and symptoms that may be improved
3 by a physically active lifestyle. It was hypothesized that older men with prostate cancer who
4 were physically active would report significantly higher levels of quality of life (QOL) as
5 assessed by the WHOQOL-BREF and the WHOQOL-OLD. Of the 348 prostate cancer
6 survivors who were invited to participate in the present postal survey, 137 men returned the
7 questionnaires. Those who were physically active had significantly lower prostate specific
8 antigen (PSA) scores and higher social participation than those insufficiently active. These
9 findings offer some support for the benefits of physical activity (PA) within the prostate
10 cancer population in managing the adverse side effects of their treatments on aspects of their
11 QOL. Future research should more closely examine what types of PA best promote
12 improvements in varying aspects of QOL and psychological well-being for prostate cancer
13 survivors.

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15 **Key words:** physical activity, quality of life, prostate cancer, cancer survivorship, older
16 men.

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1 Prostate cancer represents a significant global public health burden and is the most
2 prevalent form of diagnosed malignancy for men in many countries (Australian
3 Institute of Health and Welfare & Australian Association of Cancer Registries, 2010).
4 Worldwide, close to 800,000 new cases of prostate cancer are diagnosed every year
5 (American Cancer Society, 2014). Improvements in early detection and advanced treatment
6 regimens have resulted in very high five-year prostate cancer survival rates of close to 90%,
7 with 53,296 Australian men still alive five years post-prostate cancer diagnosis (Ahmadi &
8 Daneshmand, 2013).

9 Monitoring of prostate specific antigen (PSA) levels is commonly used for screening
10 prostate cancer and as an indicator of cancer progression (Ornish et al., 2005). PSA is a
11 protease produced by epithelial cells in the prostate gland. Most healthy men have PSA
12 levels under 4 ng/mL, and one in three men with a PSA level between 4 and 10 ng/ml have a
13 confirmed diagnosis of prostate cancer (Frattaroli et al., 2008). For those men diagnosed
14 with prostate cancer, any increase in PSA level is typically considered a progression of the
15 cancer and as such may require additional treatments to combat the cancer.

16 Common treatment modalities for prostate cancer include external beam
17 radiotherapy, radical prostatectomy, brachytherapy, androgen deprivation therapy (ADT)
18 and chemotherapy (Chipperfield et al., 2013). While each of the available treatment options
19 can reduce cancer progression and increase cancer survival rates, they may also result in
20 significant morbidity, symptoms and side effects. These adverse effects may include
21 reduced muscle mass, strength and functional capacity, as well as increased body fat levels,
22 fatigue and risk of cardiovascular disease and falls (Windsor, Nicol, & Potter, 2004;
23 Carmack Taylor et al., 2006; Culos-Reed et al., 2010). Ultimately these adverse effects may
24 negatively impact on varying aspects of the quality of life (QOL) of prostate cancer patients
25 (survivors) (Tamburini, 2001).

26 According to Rejeski, & Mihalko (2001), QOL is a multidimensional construct that

1 can be broadly categorized into health-related and global QOL. Unfortunately, the
2 distinction between health-related and global QOL is not always well articulated in the
3 research literature and this may be one of the reasons for the potential equivalence in the
4 literature for the effect of physical activity (PA) on QOL in a range of older patient groups
5 (Rejeski, & Mihalko, 2001). Health-related QOL is commonly examined in health and
6 medical research. It can be considered synonymous with health and functional status and is
7 typically concerned with how aging or chronic disease may alter a patient's functioning and
8 overall health. Alternatively, global quality of life is more concerned with a person's
9 cognitive judgement of satisfaction with their own life.

10 Many prostate cancer survivors report significant reductions in health-related and
11 global QOL. For example, these men can experience significant sexual dysfunction,
12 incontinence and fatigue that reduces their ability to engage in meaningful physical and
13 social activities as well as maintain intimate relationships with their significant others
14 (Hamilton, Chambers, Legg, Oliffe, & Cormie, 2015; Keogh, Patel, MacLeod, & Masters,
15 2013; Wenger & Oliffe, 2013). Attenuating the adverse side effects of prostate cancer
16 treatment is therefore desirable, and is therefore becoming a greater focus within the field of
17 cancer survivorship (Ahmadi & Daneshmand, 2013).

18 The therapeutic value of the implementation of PA as a tool to ameliorate the
19 adverse side effects of cancer treatment and to enhance QOL has been receiving heightened
20 research attention (Keogh & MacLeod, 2012). A systematic review by Keogh and MacLeod
21 (2012) found that PA, especially within a group-based setting, significantly improves body
22 composition, physical fitness, functional performance, varying aspects of QOL, and fatigue
23 for prostate cancer survivors. Regular PA may also reduce prostate cancer progression (as
24 demonstrated by relative maintenance of PSA levels) that minimizes the need for additional,
25 potentially harmful prostate cancer treatment for up to two years (Frattaroli et al., 2008; Ornish
26 et al., 2005). Despite some evidence of the benefits of PA on the QOL of prostate cancer

1 survivors, the overall literature remains somewhat equivocal. For example, some studies
2 report no significant improvements in aspects of QOL after an exercise program (Bourke et
3 al., 2011; Carmack Taylor et al., 2006), while other studies have found significant
4 improvements (Culos-Reed et al., 2007; Culos-Reed et al., 2010; Keogh & MacLeod, 2012;
5 Segal et al., 2003). The relative equivalence of these QOL findings within the PA literature
6 may reflect the type of QOL assessed in the studies. Specifically, this may reflect the
7 assessment of health-related vs global QOL as well as the variety of questionnaires used in
8 determining each of these categories of QOL (Tamburini, 2001). Examples of this wide
9 variety of QOL tools used in studies involving prostate cancer survivors include the Short
10 Form Health Survey (SF-36) (Carmack Taylor et al., 2006), Functional Assessment of
11 Cancer Therapy (FACT-P) (Bourke et al., 2011; Segal et al., 2003), the European
12 Organization for Research and Treatment in Cancer Health-Related Quality of Life
13 Questionnaire (EORTC QLQ C30) (Culos-Reed et al., 2007; Culos-Reed et al., 2010) and
14 more recently the World Health Organisation Quality of Life - BREF (WHOQOL-BREF)
15 (Keogh et al., 2010; Keogh, Krageloh, et al., 2013). While all these QOL tools assess
16 somewhat different aspects of health-related or global QOL and have demonstrated validity
17 and reliability in a variety of populations, the WHOQOL-BREF and the WHOQOL-OLD
18 tools may have some additional advantages over the other tools. Advantages include
19 providing cross-cultural validity and including questions that assess not just the presence of
20 side effects and symptoms, but also the participants' satisfaction with their life (Skevington,
21 2002). Additionally, as approximately two thirds of men diagnosed with prostate cancer are
22 65 years or older, the WHOQOL-OLD provides additional insight and understanding of the
23 QOL issues pertinent to aging and how these age-related changes may interact with their
24 cancer diagnosis and treatment (Nelen, 2007; Peel, Bartlett, & Marshall, 2007).

25 The WHOQOL-OLD has not been previously used in conjunction with the
26 WHOQOL-BREF in assessing the impact of PA within the prostate cancer. Specifically, the

1 partake in the study. Participants were eligible if they had histologically documented
2 prostate cancer (at any stage) and had currently been on ADT for at least six continuous
3 months or had never been on ADT. No participants were deemed eligible to participate in
4 this study if they had started ADT within the previous six months. This exclusion was
5 applied because it appears the greatest rate of ADT-related change in body composition,
6 physical function and QOL occurs within the first six months of ADT (Galvao et al., 2008;
7 Spry et al., 2006).

8 **Procedure**

9 The data collection procedure undertaken for both the 2009 and 2011 data sets were
10 identical. An initial letter of invitation was sent to all participants who met the inclusion
11 criteria. The initial mail out included a cover letter that explained the study's aim and how
12 they could voluntarily partake. One week later, a package was sent to participants containing
13 a detailed participation information sheet, the self-administered questionnaires, and a pre-
14 paid return-addressed envelope. To maximize response rates, a second questionnaire
15 package was distributed two to four weeks after the initial mail out to those who had not yet
16 completed the questionnaires.

17 **Outcome Measures**

18 **WHOQOL-BREF.** The WHOQOL-BREF is a 26-item health-related QOL measure
19 developed by the World Health Organisation Quality of Life Group (WHOQOL Group,
20 1998). The instrument consists of the following QOL domains: physical (7 items),
21 psychological (6 items), social (3 items), environmental (8 items) and two general items,
22 probing global QOL and self-assessed health. The WHOQOL-BREF has been designed
23 primarily for assessing QOL at a population level in research studies. Construct validity of
24 the WHOQOL-BREF has been demonstrated when compared to the following instruments
25 SF-36, EQ-5D and SF-12 as criterion measures (Murphy, Herrman, Hawthorne, Pinzone, &
26 Evert, 2000). All four domains of the WHOQOL-BREF demonstrate good internal

1 consistency and excellent test-retest reliability (Murphy et al., 2000). The WHOQOL-
2 BREF has been validated for use in older adults and for the general adult population of New
3 Zealand (Krägeloh et al., 2013).

4 **WHOQOL-OLD.** The WHOQOL-OLD is an optional module that is used to
5 supplement the information provided by the WHOQOL-BREF (Peel et al., 2007). The
6 WHOQOL-OLD scale includes six facets with each containing four items. To minimize
7 response burden, only three facets, namely autonomy (4 items), social participation (4 items)
8 and death and dying (4 items) were assessed. Members of the research team in consultation
9 with the cancer clinicians selected these three facets as they were deemed the most relevant
10 to the study sample and research question.

11 **Rapid Assessment of Physical Activity (RAPA).** The RAPA scale assesses the PA
12 levels of adults 50 years and over by requiring participants to respond using a yes or no
13 response to a series of nine questions (Topolski et al., 2006). The RAPA1 sub-scale consists
14 of seven questions, which assess the level of aerobic activity from inactive to active. The
15 RAPA2 sub-scale consists of two questions, which assesses whether the respondent engages
16 in strength and flexibility training, respectively. Following the methods of Keogh et al.
17 (2010), participants were classified as being *physically active* if they answered “I do 30
18 minutes or more of moderate physical activities, five or more days a week” or “I do 20
19 minutes or more a day of vigorous physical activities, 3 or more days a week” within the
20 RAPA1 sub-scale (Topolski et al., 2006). All the other participants were classified as being
21 *physically under-active* (Keogh et al., 2010). The respondents received a RAPA2 score of
22 zero if they did not engage in either muscle strength or flexibility exercises, a score of one if
23 they engaged in muscle strength, and a score of two if they engaged in flexibility exercise
24 once a week or more.

25 **Statistical Analysis**

26 Prior to statistical analysis, the three negatively worded WHOQOL items were reverse

1 coded so that a higher score represented higher QOL. Additionally, due to the small sample
2 size, missing items were imputed by the mean score of the non-missing items, on the
3 specific WHOQOL domains for the same participants. Missing items were not imputed
4 when more than half of the items on the domain were missing; in which case no domain
5 score was calculated for that participant. To continue with consistency of the ordinal 5-point
6 structure of the scale, imputed scores were rounded up from 0.5 and all other scores were
7 rounded down. A statistical analysis was conducted using Statistics Package for the Social
8 Sciences (SPSS) version 22. Significance was accepted at $p \leq 0.05$.

9 Differences between the physically active and under-active groups were compared
10 initially using an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for all continuous variables and with a
11 chi-square analysis for all categorical variables. Follow-up analysis used an Analysis of
12 Covariance (ANCOVA), controlling for the previous participant demographic details i.e.
13 age, PSA and time since diagnosis. An ANCOVA was chosen as it eliminates systematic
14 bias when comparing self-selected groups, such as physically active and under-active and as
15 it reduces group or error variance (Miller & Chapman, 2011).

16 Furthermore, a rank analysis of covariance was undertaken to confirm the results
17 provided from the parametric analysis. This approach follows the recommendations of
18 Krägeloh et al. (2013) who asserted that WHOQOL data are most appropriately analyzed
19 using nonparametric statistics. The Quade's test is a nonparametric alternative for
20 comparing groups, and is an extension of the Wilcoxon signed rank for paired samples
21 (Miller & Chapman, 1983). In order to conduct the Quade's test, dependent and independent
22 variables were ranked, using the SPSS rank procedure (Quade, 1967). A linear regression
23 was conducted for each dependent variable by using the ranks of the dependent variables as
24 the outcome variable and the ranks of the co-variants as predictor variables. A *t*-test of the
25 resulting non-standardized residuals, comparing the physically active and under-active
26 groups equated to Quade's nonparametric test.

1 Due to a previous planned comparison to assess the effects of adherence to PA on
2 sexual functioning and fatigue, three specific WHOQOL-BREF questions were analyzed
3 separately. These questions included: “Do you have enough energy for everyday life?”,
4 “How satisfied are you with your personal relationships?” and “How satisfied are you with
5 your sex life?”. The additional analysis of these questions enabled further insight into the
6 understanding of PA on increasing sexual functioning and reducing fatigue levels in prostate
7 cancer survivors.

8 **Results**

9 **Participant Characteristics and Clinical Markers**

10 Of the 348 men that were invited to participate in the study, 137 men returned the
11 questionnaires, resulting in a response rate of 39%. Participants were classified as either
12 being physically under-active or physically active based on their responses to the RAPA1
13 sub-scale. Descriptions of the participants based on these groupings are shown in Table 1.

14 **Quality of Life**

15
16 The initial ANOVA analysis indicated that the physically active group were significantly
17 younger, had lower PSA scores and greater physical QOL and social participation than the
18 physically under-active group. The ANCOVA ($F(1,107)=5.19, p=0.02$); Quade
19 ($F(1,107)=4.91, p=0.02$) tests found that the only significant difference was the greater
20 levels of social participation. The effects of the variables explained very little overall
21 variation in the social participation sub-scale of the WHOQOL-OLD. Additional analysis
22 was performed to control for participation domain, ANCOVA ($F(1,135)=11.32, p=0.01$).
23 Additionally, the PSA variable was the only co-variant that appeared to significantly
24 influence the level of social participation, with higher PSA values associated with reduced
25 levels of social participation ANCOVA ($F(1,110)=5.49, p=0.02$).

26 **Fatigue**

27 There was no significant difference in fatigue levels between the physically under-active and

1 physically active groups, ANCOVA ($F(1,108)=0.08, p=0.76$); Quade ($F(1,108)=0.19,$
2 $p=0.65$).

3 **Personal relationships and Sexual Function**

4 The results indicated no significant difference on personal relationships, ANCOVA (F
5 $(1,108)=0.07, p=0.77$); Quade ($F(1,108)=0.06, p=0.79$), or sex life, ANCOVA (F
6 $(1,108)=0.01, p=0.92$); Quade ($F(1,108)=0.01, p=0.92$) between the two groups.

7 **Resistance and Flexibility**

8 The chi-square test indicated that the physically active group had significantly greater
9 participation in resistance (strength) activities ($X(1, 128)=8.66, p<0.001$) than the
10 physically under-active group. There was no significant difference in flexibility ($X(1, 128)$
11 $=3.12, p=0.07$) activities between the two groups.

12

13 *Insert Table 1 here*

14

15

15 **Discussion**

16

17 Prostate cancer survivors often live with several cancer-related symptoms that may affect
18 many aspects of their QOL (Hamilton et al., 2015; Keogh, Patel et al., 2013; Wenger &
19 Oliffe, 2013). As a number of these symptoms may be improved by PA, this study sought to
20 compare a variety of forms of PA and aspects of QOL in active and under-active prostate
21 cancer survivors.

22 The primary findings of the current study were that being physically active (i.e.
23 performing at least 150 minutes of moderate PA or 60 minutes of vigorous PA per week)
24 was associated with significantly reduced PSA scores and significantly greater social
25 participation than the physically under-active group. In contrast, none of the four
26 WHOQOL-BREF domains (physical, psychological, social and environment), three specific
27 WHOQOL-BREF questions (sex life, personal relationships, energy for everyday life) or

1 two of the three WHOQOL-OLD facets (autonomy, and death and dying) were
2 significantly different between the groups. When age, PSA levels and time since diagnosis
3 were controlled for by using the ANCOVA and the Quade tests, the only significant
4 difference was that the physically active group had significantly higher perceived social
5 participation compared to the physically under-active group.

6 While the relative lack of QOL benefits for the physically active group was
7 somewhat surprising, the significantly greater perception of social participation for the
8 physically active group was of considerable interest. Physical activity may enhance social
9 dissipation commonly experienced by prostate cancer survivors due to cancer treatment side
10 effects. Studies have found that PA can reduce treatment side effects including reduced
11 physical functioning, perceptions of masculinity, fatigue, incontinence (Hamilton et al.,
12 2015; Keogh & MacLeod, 2012; Windsor et al., 2004; Wenger & Oliffe, 2013). These
13 direct effects of PA may therefore allow these men to re-engage in meaningful social
14 activities. Epidemiological studies suggest that social participation may be particularly
15 important for the health and well-being of older adults (Adams, Leibbrandt, & Moon, 2011;
16 Craike, Livingston, & Botti, 2011). Furthermore, previous studies have shown that engaging
17 in a health-promoting behavior such as PA can be seen to promote and provide an
18 opportunity for meaningful social interactions (Craike et al., 2011; Gilmour, 2012). Being
19 socially active provides the promotion of self-efficacy and a sense of meaning and purpose
20 (Gilmour, 2012; Penedo & Dahn, 2005).

21 Physical activity within the prostate cancer population enables social support and
22 therefore, can be thought to be a facilitator of health and well-being. Improvements in social
23 participation on the WHOQOL-OLD domain, however, did not coincide with a significant
24 increase in the WHOQOL-BREF social domain in the current study. Closer inspection
25 revealed that the WHOQOL-BREF social domain questions were predominantly focused on
26 personal relationships and sex life, with only one question concerned with social support.

1 This limiting focus was one of the reasons underlying the creation of the WHOQOL-OLD
2 and why it was selected to complement the WHOQOL-BREF in the current study involving
3 older prostate cancer survivors. On this basis, we would recommend the inclusion of the
4 WHOQOL-OLD in addition to other more health-related QOL tools for studies involving
5 older cancer survivors.

6 The relative equivalence in the variety of QOL domains and facets between the
7 physically active and under-active group in the current study was inconsistent with our
8 initial hypotheses but somewhat consistent with the overall literature (Bourke et al., 2011;
9 Carmack Taylor et al., 2007). This relative equivalence of the literature may reflect a
10 variety of between-study differences. One potential answer reflects the wide variety of
11 health-related QOL and relative lack of global QOL tools used in the prostate cancer
12 literature. Another potential answer is that many cancer survivors who have had their
13 symptoms for many months or years become accustomed to the symptoms, and therefore no
14 longer perceive these issues as significantly affecting their QOL (Hamilton et al., 2015). A
15 third possible answer reflects the definition of physically active and/or the variety of PA
16 performed within the literature (Keogh & MacLeod, 2012).

17 At the time of the study, physical activity guidelines for cancer survivors involved
18 the performance of 150 minutes of moderate or 60 minutes of vigorous aerobic exercise per
19 week. The guideline of what constitutes sufficient PA for cancer survivors has also been
20 updated since the collection of data for this study, with the American Cancer Society now
21 recommending that cancer survivors also include resistance (strength) training exercises at
22 least twice a week (Rock et al., 2012). Resistance training is the optimal exercise
23 prescription for increasing muscle mass, strength and endurance, all of which significantly
24 decline with a number of common prostate cancer treatments including ADT (Beydoun et
25 al., 2014; Keogh & MacLeod, 2012; Segal et al., 2003). Lower rates of physical activity and
26 QOL in the physically under-active prostate cancer group may stem from the negative body

1 composition and muscular function changes associated with prostate cancer treatment.
2 Resistance training may therefore be an integral part of the PA promotion message for men
3 with prostate cancer, especially those on ADT (Keogh et al., in press). It should be noted,
4 however, that in the present study the data from the RAPA questionnaire that resistance
5 training was uncommon in both groups, with less than one quarter of the physically active
6 group performing even one session of resistance training per week. It could therefore be
7 argued that if more of the physically active men with prostate cancer also performed regular
8 resistance training, the between-group differences in QOL may have been more pronounced.

9 The physically active group's significantly lower PSA levels were also of major
10 interest as PSA predicts clinical progression of prostate cancer (Ornish et al., 2005).
11 Previous studies have also shown that a change in serum PSA to be one of the strongest
12 determinants for assessing the outcomes of any prostate cancer treatment (Frattaroli et al.,
13 2008; Ornish et al., 2005). Previous research has also demonstrated that physically active
14 prostate cancer survivors had a slower prostate cancer progression and could therefore delay
15 undergoing prostate cancer treatment (i.e. utilize active surveillance) for up to two years
16 with no adverse side effects (Frattaroli et al., 2008; Ornish et al., 2005). The lower PSA
17 levels for the physically active group would provide additional support that PA within the
18 prostate cancer population has benefits beyond physical performance and QOL outcomes.

19 There are several limitations inherent to this study. Firstly, when undertaking survey
20 based studies the issue of how representative this sample is of the population is always of
21 some concern. The calculated response rate of 39% was comparable to other studies within
22 this area of research (Bestmann et al., 2007), although it may somewhat underestimate the
23 true response rate due to some of the older men changing residence or passing away prior to
24 receiving the letter of invitation. Nevertheless, the generalizability of this data could be
25 affected by participation bias, whereby the men that chose to take part were more likely to
26 be physically active than the general prostate cancer population. As we were unable to

1 obtain demographic data on the non-responders, the potential for this participation bias
2 cannot be discounted.

3 It is not possible to determine causation in a cross-sectional comparison and
4 therefore, differences in QOL may have been influenced by the group's perceptions of QOL
5 and/or PA levels prior to cancer diagnosis and/or treatment. The physically active and
6 under-active groups were not matched according to disease characteristics, pre-cancer PA
7 levels or self-reported QOL or health and therefore, differences between groups relied on
8 statistical control of covariates. Finally, the outcome measures used were self-report
9 inventories of PA and QOL and consequently, participants may have under- or over-stated
10 their level of PA, or their current perceptions of QOL.

11 Future research in this area should use more objective PA measures such as
12 accelerometry and make a clearer distinction on the use of global vs health-related QOL
13 tools. Some of this research should use a longitudinal research design and a mixed-method
14 data collection approach to enable a clearer understanding on the effect of PA on QOL
15 outcomes in the prostate cancer population. Previous qualitative studies around PA and
16 adherence to PA have focused predominantly on participants' motivation as well as
17 perceived barriers, benefits and risks to engaging in PA (Craike et al., 2011; Keogh, Patel, et
18 al., 2013; Keogh et al., 2014). Prostate cancer survivors in these studies have spoken of how
19 PA provided them with an embodied confident sense of self and how it reduced their feeling
20 of anxiety regarding their cancer treatment related side-effects and disease progression
21 (Craike et al., 2011; Hamilton et al. 2013; Keogh, Patel, et al., 2013; Keogh et al., 2014).
22 Additionally, future research may wish to further investigate the dose response between
23 resistance training and changes in QOL for a variety of prostate cancer groups. Interventions
24 to increase resistance-based PA for prostate cancer survivors may need to consider the co-
25 morbidities associated with older age, treatment side effects and the common barriers,
26 motives and facilitators to this form of exercise (Craike et al., 2011; Hamilton et al., 2015;

1 Keogh, Patel, et al., 2013; Wenger & Oliffe, 2013).

2 **Conclusions**

3 Due to the very high five year survival rates for cancers including that of the prostate, more
4 research is now focusing on the wider issues of cancer survivorship rather than just how to
5 reduce mortality rates (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare & Australian Association
6 of Cancer Registries, 2010). A major focus of this wider cancer survivorship research is
7 better understanding how the regular performance of healthy behaviours like PA may impact
8 various aspects of the survivors' health and QOL.

9 Overall, the results of this study indicate that those who were physically active had
10 significantly lower PSA levels and higher social participation than their under-active peers.
11 Both of these results are major findings indicative of the benefits of PA for men with
12 prostate cancer. While the lack of significant differences within the other QOL domains was
13 contrary to our hypothesis, these findings still provide useful information to direct future
14 research. In particular, these findings may be used to further guide researchers and cancer
15 clinicians in regards to the importance of promoting PA within the prostate cancer
16 population so to better manage some of the adverse side effects of treatment regimens.

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4

5

1 Table 1

2 *Clinical descriptors of the two groups of participants*

	Physically Under-active (n=63)	Physically Active (n=74)
Age (years) *	75.9 (9.6)	72.5 (9.9)
PSA (ng/mL) *	9.5 (23.6)	2.8 (6.3)
Time since diagnosis (years)	5.9 (4.0)	5.1 (2.9)
Duration of ADT (years)	4.6 (3.9)	4.1 (3.1)
Number of current ADT users	37 [58.7%]	32 [43.2%]
Engage in Flexibility training	9 [14.3%]	19 [25.7%]
Engage in resistance training [^]	3 [4.8%]	16 [21.6%]
Physical QOL*	25.0 (4.6)	26.7 (5.0)
Psychological QOL	22.8 (3.6)	23.8 (3.6)
Social QOL	11.5 (2.6)	11.7 (2.5)
Environmental QOL	32.0 (4.6)	33.1 (4.1)
Sex Life	3.5 (1.1)	3.5 (1.3)
Personal Relationships	4.0 (0.9)	3.5 (1.3)
Energy for everyday life	3.7 (0.9)	3.9 (0.8)
Autonomy	15.9 (2.7)	16.2 (2.7)
Social participation* ^{†‡}	13.4 (3.3)	15.2 (3.0)
Death and Dying	11.9 (3.1)	12.1 (3.0)

5

6 Note. All values shown in the table are means and standard deviations, with the exception of
7 the prevalence of ADT usage, flexibility and resistance training, which are total numbers
8 and percentages, as shown in [].

9 *Significant difference ($p < .05$) between the two groups based on the ANOVA analysis

10 [^] Significant difference ($p < .05$) between the two groups based on the chi-square analysis

11 [†] Significant difference ($p < .05$) between the two groups based on the ANCOVA analysis

12 [‡] Significant difference ($p < .05$) between the two groups based on the Quade analysis

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