

EAU Guidelines on Non-Neurogenic Male Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms (LUTS), incl. Benign Prostatic Obstruction (BPO)

J.N. Cornu (Chair), M. Gacci, H. Hashim, T.R.W. Herrmann,
S. Malde, C. Netsch, M. Rieken, V. Sakalis, M. Tutolo
Guidelines Associates: M. Baboudjian, N. Bhatt,
M. Creta, M. Karavitakis, L. Moris
Guidelines Office: N. Schouten

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

1.	INTRODUCTION	5
1.1	Aim and objectives	5
1.2	Panel composition	5
1.3	Available publications	5
1.4	Publication history	5
2.	METHODS	5
2.1	Introduction	5
2.2	Review	6
2.3	Patients to whom the guidelines apply	6
3.	EPIDEMIOLOGY, AETIOLOGY AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGY	6
4.	DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION	7
4.1	Medical history	7
4.2	Symptom score questionnaires	8
4.2.1	The International Prostate Symptom Score (IPSS)	8
4.2.2	The International Consultation on Incontinence Questionnaire for Male LUTS (ICIQ-MLUTS)	8
4.2.3	Danish Prostate Symptom Score (DAN-PSS)	8
4.3	Frequency volume charts and/or bladder diaries	8
4.4	Physical examination and digital-rectal examination	9
4.4.1	Digital-rectal examination and prostate size evaluation	9
4.5	Urinalysis	9
4.6	Prostate-specific antigen	10
4.6.1	Prostate-specific antigen and the prediction of prostatic volume	10
4.6.2	Prostate-specific antigen and the probability of PCa	10
4.6.3	Prostate-specific antigen and the prediction of BPO-related outcomes	10
4.7	Renal function measurement	10
4.8	Post-void residual urine	11
4.9	Uroflowmetry	11
4.10	Imaging	12
4.10.1	Upper urinary tract	12
4.10.2	Prostate	12
4.10.2.1	Prostate size and shape	12
4.10.3	Voiding cysto-urethrogram	12
4.11	Urethrocystoscopy	12
4.12	Urodynamics	13
4.12.1	Diagnosing bladder outlet obstruction	13
4.12.2	Videourodynamics	13
4.13	Non-invasive tests in diagnosing bladder outlet obstruction in men with LUTS	14
4.13.1	Prostatic configuration/intravesical prostatic protrusion	14
4.13.2	Bladder/detrusor wall thickness and ultrasound-estimated bladder weight	14
4.13.3	Non-invasive pressure-flow testing	14
4.13.4	The diagnostic performance of non-invasive tests in diagnosing bladder outlet obstruction in men with LUTS compared with pressure-flow studies	15
4.14	Novel assessment	15
4.14.1	Visual prostate symptom score	15
4.14.2	Micro-RNA	15
5.	DISEASE MANAGEMENT	17
5.1	Conservative treatment	17
5.1.1	Watchful waiting	17
5.1.2	Behavioural and dietary modifications	17
5.1.3	Practical considerations	17
5.2	Pharmacological treatment	18
5.2.1	Alpha 1-Adrenoceptor antagonists (α 1-blockers)	18
5.2.2	5 α -reductase inhibitors	19

5.2.3	Muscarinic receptor antagonists	20
5.2.4	Beta-3 agonist	21
5.2.5	Phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors	23
5.2.6	Plant extracts - phytotherapy	24
5.2.7	Combination therapies	26
5.2.7.1	Alpha 1-blockers + 5 α -reductase inhibitors	26
5.2.7.2	Alpha 1-blockers + muscarinic receptor antagonists	28
5.2.7.3	Alpha 1-blockers + Beta-3 agonist	29
5.3	Surgical treatment	30
5.3.1	Resection of the prostate	30
5.3.1.1	Monopolar and bipolar transurethral resection of the prostate	30
5.3.1.2	Holmium laser resection of the prostate	32
5.3.1.3	Thulium:yttrium-aluminium-garnet laser vaporesction of the prostate	32
5.3.1.4	Transurethral incision of the prostate	33
5.3.2	Enucleation of the prostate	34
5.3.2.1	Open prostatectomy	34
5.3.2.2	Bipolar transurethral enucleation of the prostate	34
5.3.2.3	Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate	35
5.3.2.4	Thulium:yttrium-aluminium-garnet laser enucleation of the prostate	37
5.3.2.5	Diode laser enucleation of the prostate	38
5.3.2.6	Enucleation techniques under investigation	38
5.3.2.6.1	Minimal invasive simple prostatectomy	38
5.3.2.6.2	532 nm ('Greenlight') laser enucleation of the prostate	39
5.3.3	Vaporisation of the prostate	39
5.3.3.1	Bipolar transurethral vaporisation of the prostate	39
5.3.3.2	532 nm ('Greenlight') laser vaporisation of the prostate	40
5.3.3.3	Vaporisation techniques under investigation	41
5.3.3.3.1	Diode laser vaporisation of the prostate	41
5.3.4	Alternative ablative techniques	42
5.3.4.1	Aquablation – image guided robotic waterjet ablation: AquaBeam	42
5.3.4.2	Prostatic artery embolisation	43
5.3.4.3	Alternative ablative techniques under investigation	44
5.3.4.3.1	Convective water vapour energy (WAVE) ablation: The Rezum system	44
5.3.5	Non-ablative techniques	45
5.3.5.1	Prostatic urethral lift	45
5.3.5.2	Intra-prostatic injections	46
5.3.5.3	Non-ablative techniques under investigation	46
5.3.5.3.1	(i)TIND	46
5.4	Patient selection	47
5.5	Management of Nocturia in men with lower urinary tract symptoms	49
5.5.1	Diagnostic assessment	50
5.5.2	Medical conditions and sleep disorders Shared Care Pathway	50
5.5.3	Treatment for Nocturia	52
5.5.3.1	Antidiuretic therapy	52
5.5.3.2	Medications to treat LUTD	53
5.5.3.3	Other medications	53
5.6	Management of male urinary incontinence	54
5.6.1	Epidemiology and Pathophysiology	54
5.6.2	Diagnostic Evaluation	55
5.6.3	Conservative treatment	56
5.6.3.1	Simple clinical interventions	56
5.6.3.1.1	Lifestyle interventions	56
5.6.3.1.2	Treatment of co-morbidities	56
5.6.3.1.3	Constipation	57
5.6.3.1.4	Containment	57
5.6.3.2	Behavioural and Physical therapies	57
5.6.3.2.1	Prompted or timed voiding	57
5.6.3.2.2	Bladder training	57
5.6.3.2.3	Pelvic floor muscle training	58

	5.6.3.2.4	Electrical stimulation	58
	5.6.3.2.5	Posterior tibial nerve stimulation	58
5.6.4		Pharmacological management	59
	5.6.4.1	Drugs for urgency urinary incontinence	59
	5.6.4.2	Drugs for stress urinary incontinence	59
5.6.5		Surgical treatment for stress urinary incontinence	60
	5.6.5.1	Bulking agents in men	60
	5.6.5.2	Male Slings	60
	5.6.5.2.1	Non-adjustable slings	60
	5.6.5.2.2	Adjustable slings in males	61
	5.6.5.2.3	Autologous slings	62
	5.6.5.3	Compression devices in males	62
	5.6.5.3.1	Artificial urinary sphincter	62
	5.6.5.3.2	Non-circumferential compression device (ProACT®)	63
5.6.6		Surgical treatment for urgency urinary incontinence	64
	5.6.6.1	Bladder wall injection of botulinum Toxin-A	64
	5.6.6.2	Sacral nerve stimulation (neuromodulation)	65
	5.6.6.3	Cystoplasty/urinary diversion	65
6.		FOLLOW-UP	66
	6.1	Watchful waiting (behavioural)	66
	6.2	Medical treatment	66
	6.3	Surgical treatment	67
7.		REFERENCES	67
8.		CONFLICT OF INTEREST	105
9.		CITATION INFORMATION	106

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aim and objectives

Lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) are a common complaint in adult men with a major impact on quality of life (QoL) and have a substantial economic burden. The present Guidelines offer practical evidence-based guidance on the assessment and treatment of men aged 40 years or older with various non-neurogenic benign forms of LUTS. The understanding of the lower urinary tract (LUT) as a functional unit, and the multifactorial aetiology of associated symptoms, means that LUTS now constitute the main focus, rather than the former emphasis on Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia (BPH). The term BPH is now regarded as inappropriate as it is Benign Prostatic Obstruction (BPO) that is treated if the obstruction is a significant cause of a man's LUTS. It must be emphasised that clinical guidelines present the best evidence available to the experts. However, following guideline recommendations will not necessarily result in the best outcome. Guidelines can never replace clinical expertise when making treatment decisions for individual patients, but rather help to focus decisions - also taking personal values and preferences/individual circumstances of patients into account. Guidelines are not mandates and do not purport to be a legal standard of care.

1.2 Panel composition

The EAU Non-neurogenic Male LUTS Guidelines Panel consists of an international group of experts with urological and clinical epidemiological backgrounds. All experts involved in the production of this document have submitted potential conflict of interest statements which can be viewed on the EAU website Uroweb: <http://uroweb.org/guideline/treatment-of-non-neurogenic-male-luts/>.

1.3 Available publications

A quick reference document, the Pocket Guidelines, is available in print and on the Uroweb website. These are abridged versions, which may require consultation together with the full text version. All documents are accessible through the EAU website Uroweb: <http://www.uroweb.org/guideline/treatment-of-non-neurogenic-male-luts/>.

1.4 Publication history

The Non-Neurogenic Male LUTS Guidelines was first published in 2000. Standard procedure for EAU Guidelines includes an annual assessment of newly published literature in the field to guide future updates.

2. METHODS

2.1 Introduction

For the 2023 Non-Neurogenic Male LUTS Guidelines, a forensic review and restructure of Section 5.3 - Surgical treatment, was undertaken. An assessment of all newly published literature will be performed for the 2024 Non-Neurogenic Male LUTS Guidelines.

Detailed search strategies for the 2022 guideline update are available online: <http://www.uroweb.org/guideline/treatment-of-non-neurogenic-male-luts/supplementary-material>.

For each recommendation within the guidelines there is an accompanying online strength rating form which includes the assessment of the benefit to harms ratio and patients 'preferences for each recommendation. The strength rating forms draws on the guiding principles of the GRADE methodology but do not purport to be GRADE [1, 2]. Each strength rating form addresses a number of key elements namely:

1. the overall quality of the evidence which exists for the recommendation, references used in this text are graded according to a classification system modified from the Oxford Centre for Evidence-Based Medicine Levels of Evidence [3];
2. the magnitude of the effect (individual or combined effects);
3. the certainty of the results (precision, consistency, heterogeneity and other statistical or study related factors);
4. the balance between desirable and undesirable outcomes;
5. the impact of patient values and preferences on the intervention;
6. the certainty of those patient values and preferences.

These key elements are the basis which panels use to define the strength rating of each recommendation. The strength of each recommendation is represented by the words 'strong' or 'weak' [4]. The strength of each

recommendation is determined by the balance between desirable and undesirable consequences of alternative management strategies, the quality of the evidence (including certainty of estimates), and nature and variability of patient values and preferences.

Additional information can be found in the general Methodology section of this print, and online at the EAU website; <http://www.uroweb.org/guideline/>. A list of associations endorsing the EAU Guidelines can also be viewed online at the above address.

2.2 Review

The Non-Neurogenic Male LUTS Guidelines were peer reviewed prior to publication in 2016. The newly added section on management of urinary incontinence in males was peer reviewed prior to the publication in 2022.

2.3 Patients to whom the guidelines apply

Recommendations apply to men aged 40 years or older who seek professional help for LUTS in various non-neurogenic and non-malignant conditions such as BPO, detrusor overactivity (DO)/overactive bladder (OAB), or nocturnal polyuria (NP). Men with other associated factors relevant to LUT disease (e.g., concomitant neurological diseases, young age, prior LUT disease or surgery) usually require a more extensive work-up, which is not covered in these Guidelines, but may include several tests mentioned in the following sections. EAU Guidelines on Neuro-Urology, Urological Infections, Urolithiasis, or malignant diseases of the LUT have been developed by other EAU Guidelines Panels and are available online: www.uroweb.org/guidelines/.

3. EPIDEMIOLOGY, AETIOLOGY AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

Lower urinary tract symptoms can be divided into storage, voiding, and post-micturition symptoms [5], and they are prevalent, cause bother and impair QoL [6-9]. An increasing awareness of LUTS and storage symptoms in particular, is warranted to discuss management options that could increase QoL [10]. Lower urinary tract symptoms are strongly associated with ageing [6, 7], associated costs and burden are therefore likely to increase with future demographic changes [7, 11]. Lower urinary tract symptoms are also associated with a number of modifiable risk factors, suggesting potential targets for prevention (e.g. metabolic syndrome) [12]. In addition, men with moderate-to-severe LUTS may have an increased risk of major adverse cardiac events [13].

Most elderly men have at least one LUTS [7]; however, symptoms are often mild or not very bothersome [9, 10, 14]. Lower urinary tract symptoms can progress dynamically: for some individuals LUTS persist and progress over long time periods, and for others they remit [7]. Lower urinary tract symptoms have traditionally been related to bladder outlet obstruction (BOO), most frequently when histological BPH progresses through benign prostatic enlargement (BPE) to BPO [5, 8]. However, increasing numbers of studies have shown that LUTS are often unrelated to the prostate [7, 15]. Bladder dysfunction may also cause LUTS, including detrusor overactivity/OAB, detrusor underactivity (DU)/underactive bladder (UAB), as well as other structural or functional abnormalities of the urinary tract and its surrounding tissues [15]. Prostatic inflammation also appears to play a role in BPH pathogenesis and progression [16, 17]. In addition, many non-urolological conditions also contribute to urinary symptoms, especially nocturia [7].

The definitions of the most common conditions related to male LUTS are presented below:

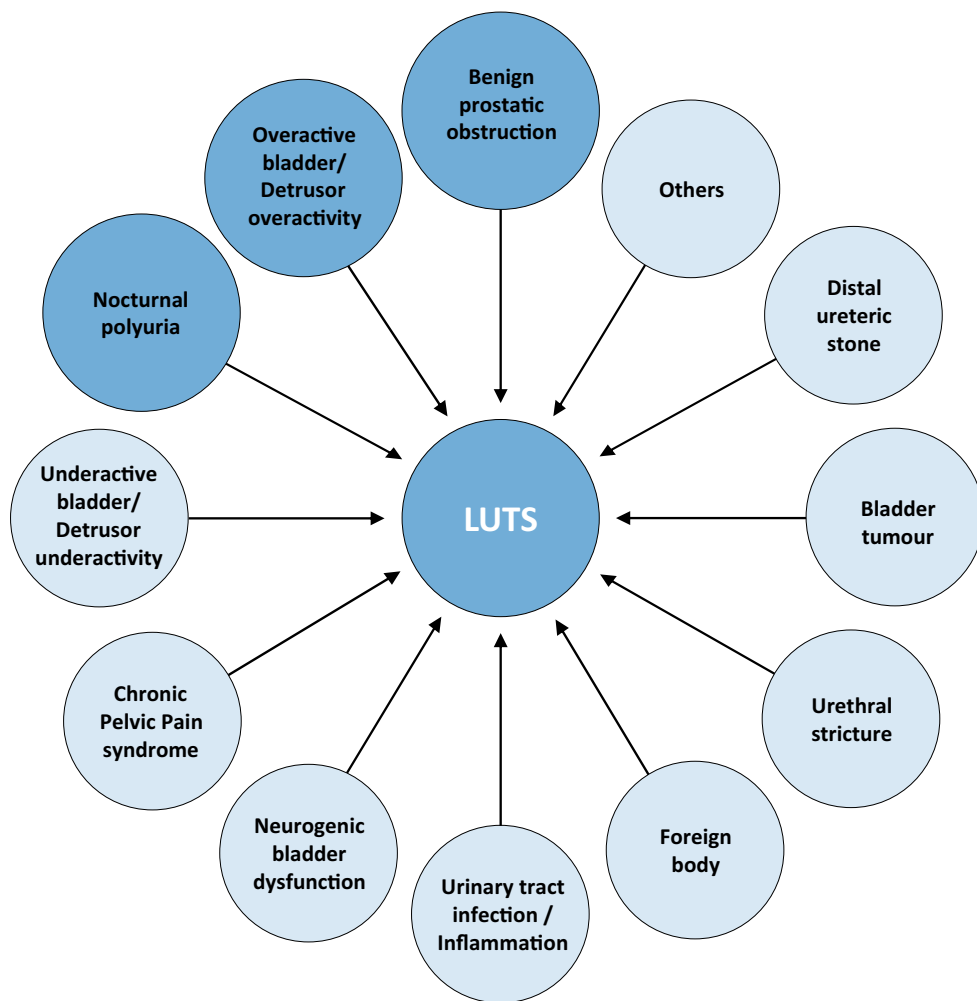
- Acute retention of urine is defined as a painful, palpable or percussible bladder, when the patient is unable to pass any urine [5].
- Chronic retention of urine is defined as a non-painful bladder, which remains palpable or percussible after the patient has passed urine. Such patients may be incontinent [5].
- Bladder outlet obstruction is the generic term for obstruction during voiding and is characterised by increasing detrusor pressure and reduced urine flow rate. It is usually diagnosed by studying the synchronous values of flow-rate and detrusor pressure [5].
- Benign prostatic obstruction is a form of BOO and may be diagnosed when the cause of outlet obstruction is known to be BPE [5]. In the Guidelines the term BPO or BOO is used as reported by the original studies.
- Benign prostatic hyperplasia is a term used (and reserved) for the typical histological pattern, which defines the disease.
- Detrusor overactivity is a urodynamic observation characterised by involuntary detrusor contractions during the filling phase which may be spontaneous or provoked [5]. Detrusor overactivity is usually

associated with OAB syndrome characterised by urinary urgency, with or without urge urinary incontinence (UUI), usually with increased daytime frequency and nocturia, if there is no proven infection or other obvious pathology [18].

- Detrusor underactivity during voiding is characterised by decreased detrusor voiding pressure leading to a reduced urine flow rate. Detrusor underactivity causes OAB syndrome which is characterised by voiding symptoms similar to those caused by BPO [19].

Figure 1 illustrates the potential causes of LUTS. In any man complaining of LUTS, it is common for more than one of these factors to be present.

Figure 1: Causes of male LUTS



4. DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION

Tests are useful for diagnosis, monitoring, assessing the risk of disease progression, treatment planning, and predicting treatment outcomes. The clinical assessment of patients with LUTS has two main objectives:

- to identify the differential diagnoses, since the origin of male LUTS is multifactorial, the relevant EAU Guidelines on the management of applicable conditions should be followed;
- to define the clinical profile (including the risk of disease progression) of men with LUTS in order to provide appropriate care.

4.1 Medical history

The importance of assessing the patient's history is well recognised [20-22]. A medical history aims to identify the potential causes and relevant co-morbidities, including medical and neurological diseases. In addition, current medication, lifestyle habits, emotional and psychological factors must be reviewed. The Panel recognises the need to discuss LUTS and the therapeutic pathway from the patient's perspective. This includes reassuring the patient that there is no definite link between LUTS and prostate cancer (PCa) [23, 24].

As part of the urological/surgical history, a self-completed validated symptom questionnaire (see section 4.2) should be obtained to objectify and quantify LUTS [20, 22]. Bladder diaries or frequency volume charts (FVC) are particularly beneficial (see section 4.3) [25]. Sexual function should also be assessed, preferably with validated symptom questionnaires such as the International Index of Erectile Function (IIEF) [26].

Summary of evidence	LE
A medical history is an integral part of a patient's medical evaluation.	4
A medical history aims to identify the potential causes of LUTS as well as any relevant co-morbidities and to review the patient's current medication and lifestyle habits.	4

Recommendation	Strength rating
Take a complete medical history from men with LUTS.	Strong

4.2 Symptom score questionnaires

All published guidelines for male LUTS recommend using validated symptom score questionnaires [20, 22]. Several questionnaires have been developed which are sensitive to symptom changes and can be used to monitor treatment [27-33]. Symptom scores are helpful in quantifying LUTS and in identifying which type of symptoms are predominant; however, they are not disease-, gender-, or age-specific. A systematic review (SR) evaluating the diagnostic accuracy of individual symptoms and questionnaires, compared with urodynamic studies (the reference standard), for the diagnosis of BOO in males with LUTS found that individual symptoms and questionnaires for diagnosing BOO were not significantly associated with one another [34].

4.2.1 The International Prostate Symptom Score (IPSS)

The IPSS is an eight-item questionnaire, consisting of seven symptom questions and one QoL question [28]. The IPSS score is categorised as 'asymptomatic' (0 points), 'mildly symptomatic' (1-7 points), 'moderately symptomatic' (8-19 points), and 'severely symptomatic' (20-35 points). Limitations include lack of assessment of incontinence, post-micturition symptoms, and bother caused by each separate symptom.

4.2.2 The International Consultation on Incontinence Questionnaire for Male LUTS (ICIQ-MLUTS)

The ICIQ-MLUTS was created from the International Continence Society (ICS) Male questionnaire. It is a widely used and validated patient completed questionnaire including incontinence questions and bother for each symptom [29]. It contains thirteen items, with subscales for nocturia and OAB, and is available in 24 languages. [35].

4.2.3 Danish Prostate Symptom Score (DAN-PSS)

The DAN-PSS [32] is a symptom score used mainly in Denmark and Finland. The DAN-PSS has twelve questions divided into parts A and B with questions on incontinence and measures the bother of each individual LUTS.

Summary of evidence	LE
Symptom questionnaires are sensitive to symptom changes.	3
Symptom scores can quantify LUTS and identify which types of symptoms are predominant; however, they are not disease-, gender-, or age-specific.	3

Recommendation	Strength rating
Use a validated symptom score questionnaire including bother and quality of life assessment during the initial assessment of male LUTS and for re-evaluation during and/or after treatment.	Strong

4.3 Frequency volume charts and/or bladder diaries

The recording of the volume and time of each void by the patient is referred to as a frequency volume chart (FVC). Inclusion of additional information such as fluid intake, use of pads, activities during recording, or which grades symptom severity and bladder sensation is termed a bladder diary [5]. Parameters that can be derived from the FVC and bladder diary include day-time and night-time voiding frequency, total voided volume, the fraction of urine production during the night (NP index), and volume of individual voids.

The mean 24-hour urine production is subject to considerable variation. Likewise, circumstantial influence and intra-individual variation cause FVC parameters to fluctuate, though there is comparatively little data [36, 37]. The FVC/bladder diary is particularly relevant in nocturia, where it underpins the categorisation of

underlying mechanism(s) [38-40]. The use of FVCs may cause a 'bladder training (BT) effect' and influence the frequency of nocturnal voids [41].

The duration of the FVC/bladder diary needs to be long enough to avoid sampling errors, but short enough to avoid non-compliance [25]. A SR of the available literature recommended FVCs should continue for at least three days [42]. There is no data as to whether the three days should be consecutive or scattered or whether it has to be on weekdays or weekends, as long as it is representative. The ICIQ-Bladder diary (ICIQ-BD) is the only diary that has undergone full validation [43].

Summary of evidence	LE
Frequency volume charts (FVC) and/or bladder diaries provide real-time documentation of urinary function and reduce recall bias.	3
Three day FVCs provide reliable measurement of urinary symptoms in patients with LUTS similar to seven days and without losing the diagnostic accuracy.	2b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Use a bladder diary to assess male LUTS with a storage component, especially nocturia.	Strong
Tell the patient to complete a bladder diary for at least three days.	Strong

4.4 Physical examination and digital-rectal examination

Physical examination particularly focusing on the suprapubic area, the external genitalia, the perineum, and lower limbs should be performed. Urethral discharge, meatal stenosis, phimosis, and penile cancer must be excluded.

4.4.1 Digital-rectal examination and prostate size evaluation

Digital-rectal examination (DRE) is the simplest way to assess prostate volume, but the correlation to prostate volume is poor. Quality-control procedures for DRE have been described [44]. Transrectal ultrasound (TRUS) is more accurate in determining prostate volume than DRE. There is an underestimation of prostate volume by DRE. The underestimation increases with increasing TRUS volume, particularly where the volume is > 30 mL [45]. A model of visual aids has been developed to help urologists estimate prostate volume more accurately [46]. One study concluded that DRE was sufficient to discriminate between prostate volumes > or < 50 mL [47].

Summary of evidence	LE
Physical examination is an integral part of a patient's medical evaluation.	4
Digital-rectal examination can be used to assess prostate volume and texture; however, the correlation to actual prostate volume is poor.	3

Recommendation	Strength rating
Perform a physical examination including digital rectal examination in the assessment of male LUTS.	Strong

4.5 Urinalysis

Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) must be included in the primary evaluation of any patient presenting with LUTS to identify conditions, such as urinary tract infections (UTI), microhaematuria and diabetes mellitus. If abnormal findings are detected further tests are recommended according to other EAU Guidelines, e.g., Guidelines on urinary tract cancers and urological infections [48-51].

Urinalysis is recommended in most Guidelines in the primary management of patients with LUTS [52, 53]. There is limited evidence, but general expert consensus suggests that the benefits outweigh the costs [54]. The value of urinary dipstick/microscopy for diagnosing UTI in men with LUTS without acute frequency and dysuria has been questioned [55].

Summary of evidence	LE
Urinalysis (dipstick or microscopy) may indicate a UTI, proteinuria, haematuria, or glycosuria requiring further assessment.	3
The benefits of urinalysis outweigh the costs.	4

Recommendation	Strength rating
Use urinalysis (by dipstick or microscopy) in the assessment of male LUTS.	Strong

4.6 Prostate-specific antigen

4.6.1 Prostate-specific antigen and the prediction of prostatic volume

Pooled analysis of randomised controlled trials (RCTs), of men with LUTS and presumed BPO, showed that prostate-specific antigen (PSA) has a good predictive value for assessing prostate volume, with areas under the curve (AUC) of 0.76-0.78 for various prostate volume thresholds (30 mL, 40 mL, and 50 mL). To achieve a specificity of 70%, whilst maintaining a sensitivity between 65-70%, approximate age-specific criteria for detecting men with prostate glands exceeding 40 mL are PSA > 1.6 ng/mL, > 2.0 ng/mL, and > 2.3 ng/mL, for men with BPH in their 50s, 60s, and 70s, respectively [56].

A strong association between PSA and prostate volume was found in a large community-based study in the Netherlands [57]. A PSA threshold value of 1.5 ng/mL could best predict a prostate volume of > 30 mL, with a positive predictive value (PPV) of 78%. The prediction of prostate volume can also be based on total and free PSA. Both PSA forms predict the TRUS prostate volume (\pm 20%) in > 90% of the cases [58, 59].

4.6.2 Prostate-specific antigen and the probability of PCa

The role of PSA in the diagnosis of PCa is presented by the EAU Guidelines on Prostate Cancer [60]. The potential benefits and harms of using serum PSA testing to diagnose PCa in men with LUTS should be discussed with the patient.

4.6.3 Prostate-specific antigen and the prediction of BPO-related outcomes

Serum PSA is a stronger predictor of prostate growth than prostate volume [61]. In addition, an RCT showed that PSA also predicted the changes in symptoms, QoL/bother, and maximum flowrate (Q_{max}) [62]. In a longitudinal study of men managed conservatively, PSA was a highly significant predictor of clinical progression to urinary retention [63, 64]. In the placebo arms of large double-blind studies, baseline serum PSA predicted the risk of acute urinary retention (AUR) and BPO-related surgery [65, 66]. An equivalent link was also confirmed by the Olmsted County Study. The risk for treatment was higher in men with a baseline PSA of > 1.4 ng/mL [67]. Patients with BPO seem to have a higher PSA level and larger prostate volumes. The PPV of PSA for the detection of BPO was recently shown to be 68% [68]. Furthermore, in an epidemiological study, elevated free PSA levels could predict clinical BPE, independent of total PSA levels [69].

Summary of evidence	LE
Prostate-specific antigen has a good predictive value for assessing prostate volume and is a strong predictor of prostate growth.	1b
Baseline PSA can predict the risk of AUR and BPO related surgery.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Measure prostate-specific antigen (PSA) if a diagnosis of prostate cancer will change management.	Strong
Measure PSA if it assists in the treatment and/or decision-making process.	Strong
Counsel patients about PSA testing and the implications of a raised PSA test.	Strong

4.7 Renal function measurement

Renal function may be assessed by serum creatinine or estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR). Hydronephrosis, renal insufficiency or urinary retention are more prevalent in patients with signs or symptoms of BPO [70]. Even though BPO may be responsible for these complications, there is no conclusive evidence on the mechanism [71].

One study reported that 11% of men with LUTS had renal insufficiency [70]. Neither symptom score nor QoL was associated with the serum creatinine level. Diabetes mellitus or hypertension were the most likely causes of the elevated creatinine concentration. Comiter *et al.*, [72] reported that non-neurogenic voiding dysfunction is not a risk factor for elevated creatinine levels. Koch *et al.*, [73] concluded that only those with an elevated creatinine level or reduced eGFR require investigational ultrasound (US) of the kidney and bladder to assess post-void residual.

In the Olmsted County Study, there was a cross-sectional association between signs and symptoms of BPO (though not prostate volume) and chronic kidney disease (CKD) [74]. In 2,741 consecutive patients who presented with LUTS, decreased Q_{max} , a history of hypertension and/or diabetes were associated with CKD [75]. Another study demonstrated a correlation between Q_{max} and eGFR in middle-aged men with moderate-to-severe LUTS [76]. Patients with renal insufficiency are at an increased risk of developing post-operative complications [77].

Summary of evidence	LE
Decreased Q_{\max} and a history of hypertension and/or diabetes are associated with CKD in patients who present with LUTS.	3
Patients with renal insufficiency are at an increased risk of developing post-operative complications.	3

Recommendation	Strength rating
Assess renal function if renal impairment is suspected based on history and clinical examination, or in the presence of hydronephrosis, or when considering surgical treatment for male LUTS.	Strong

4.8 Post-void residual urine

Post-void residual (PVR) urine can be assessed by transabdominal ultrasound (US), bladder scan or catheterisation. Post-void residual is not necessarily associated with BOO, since high PVR volumes can be a consequence of obstruction and/or poor detrusor function/DU [78, 79]. Using a PVR threshold of 50 mL, the diagnostic accuracy of PVR measurement has a PPV of 63% and a negative predictive value (NPV) of 52% for the prediction of BOO [80]. A large PVR is not a contraindication to watchful waiting (WW) or medical therapy, although it may indicate a poor response to treatment and especially to WW. In both the MTOPS and ALTESS studies, a high baseline PVR was associated with an increased risk of symptom progression [65, 66].

Monitoring of changes in PVR over time may allow for identification of patients at risk of AUR [81]. This is of importance for the treatment of patients using antimuscarinic medication. In contrast, baseline PVR has little prognostic value for the risk of BPO-related invasive therapy in patients on α 1-blockers or WW [82]. However, due to large test-retest variability and lack of outcome studies, no PVR threshold for treatment decision has yet been established; this is a research priority.

Summary of evidence	LE
The diagnostic accuracy of PVR measurement, using a PVR threshold of 50 mL, has a PPV of 63% and a NPV of 52% for the prediction of BOO.	3
Monitoring of changes in PVR over time may allow for identification of patients at risk of AUR.	3

Recommendation	Strength rating
Measure post-void residual in the assessment of male LUTS.	Weak

4.9 Uroflowmetry

Urinary flow rate assessment is a widely used non-invasive urodynamic test. Key parameters are Q_{\max} , voided volume, PVR, and flow pattern. Uroflowmetry parameters should preferably be evaluated with voided volume >150mL. As Q_{\max} is prone to within-subject variation [83, 84], it is useful to repeat uroflowmetry measurements, especially if the voided volume is < 150 mL, or Q_{\max} or flow pattern is abnormal.

The diagnostic accuracy of uroflowmetry for detecting BOO varies considerably and is substantially influenced by threshold values. A threshold Q_{\max} of 10 mL/s has a specificity of 70%, a PPV of 70% and a sensitivity of 47% for BOO. The specificity using a threshold Q_{\max} of 15 mL/s was 38%, the PPV 67% and the sensitivity 82% [85]. If Q_{\max} is > 15 mL/s, physiological compensatory processes mean that BOO cannot be excluded. Low Q_{\max} can arise as a consequence of BOO [86], DU or an under-filled bladder [87]. Therefore, it is limited as a diagnostic test as it is unable to discriminate between the underlying mechanisms. Specificity can be improved by repeated flow rate testing.

Uroflowmetry can be used for monitoring treatment outcomes [88] and correlating symptoms with objective findings [85, 89].

Summary of evidence	LE
The diagnostic accuracy of uroflowmetry for detecting BOO varies considerably and is substantially influenced by threshold values. Specificity can be improved by repeated flow rate testing.	2b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Perform uroflowmetry in the initial assessment of male LUTS.	Weak
Perform uroflowmetry prior to medical or invasive treatment.	Strong

4.10 Imaging

4.10.1 Upper urinary tract

Men with LUTS are not at increased risk for upper tract malignancy or other abnormalities when compared to the overall population [73, 90-92]. Several arguments support the use of renal US in preference to intravenous urography. Ultrasound allows for better characterisation of renal masses, the possibility of investigating the liver and retroperitoneum, and simultaneous evaluation of the bladder, PVR and prostate, together with a lower cost, no radiation dose and less side effects [90]. Ultrasound can be used for the evaluation of men with large PVR, haematuria, or a history of urolithiasis.

Summary of evidence	LE
Men with LUTS are not at increased risk for upper tract malignancy or other abnormalities when compared to the overall population.	3
Ultrasound can be used for the evaluation of men with large PVR, haematuria, or a history of urolithiasis.	4

Recommendation	Strength rating
Perform ultrasound of the upper urinary tract in men with LUTS.	Weak

4.10.2 Prostate

Imaging of the prostate can be performed by transabdominal US, TRUS, computed tomography (CT), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). However, in daily practice, prostate imaging is performed by transabdominal (suprapubic) US or TRUS [90].

4.10.2.1 Prostate size and shape

Assessment of prostate size is important for the selection of interventional treatment, i.e., open prostatectomy (OP), enucleation techniques, transurethral resection, transurethral incision of the prostate (TUIP), or minimally invasive therapies. It is also important prior to treatment with 5 α -reductase inhibitors (5-ARIs). Prostate volume predicts symptom progression and the risk of complications [92].

Transrectal US is superior to transabdominal volume measurement [93, 94]. The presence of a median lobe may guide treatment choice in patients scheduled for a minimally invasive approach since medial lobe presence can be a contraindication for some minimally invasive treatments (see section 5.3).

Summary of evidence	LE
Assessment of prostate size by TRUS or transabdominal US is important for the selection of interventional treatment and prior to treatment with 5-ARIs.	3

Recommendations	Strength rating
Perform imaging of the prostate when considering medical treatment for male LUTS, if it assists in the choice of the appropriate drug.	Weak
Perform imaging of the prostate when considering surgical treatment.	Strong

4.10.3 Voiding cysto-urethrogram

Voiding cysto-urethrogram (VCUG), on its own, is not recommended in the routine diagnostic work-up of men with LUTS, but it may be useful for the detection of vesico-ureteral reflux, bladder diverticula, or urethral diseases and can be combined with urodynamics in the form of video-urodynamics. Retrograde urethrography may additionally be useful for the evaluation of suspected urethral strictures.

4.11 Urethrocystoscopy

Patients with a history of microscopic or gross haematuria, urethral stricture, or bladder cancer, who present with LUTS, should undergo urethrocystoscopy during diagnostic evaluation. The evaluation of a prostatic middle lobe with urethrocystoscopy should be performed when considering interventional treatments for which the presence of middle lobe may affect the treatment offered e.g., Urolift.

A prospective study evaluated 122 patients with LUTS using uroflowmetry and urethrocystoscopy [95]. The pre-operative Q_{max} was normal in 25% of 60 patients who had no bladder trabeculation, 21% of 73 patients with mild trabeculation and 12% of 40 patients with marked trabeculation on cystoscopy. All 21 patients who presented with diverticula had a reduced Q_{max} .

Another study showed that there was no significant correlation between the degree of bladder trabeculation (graded from I to IV), and the pre-operative Q_{max} value in 39 symptomatic men aged 53-83 years [96]. The largest study published on this issue examined the relation of urethroscopic findings to urodynamic

studies in 492 elderly men with LUTS [97]. The authors noted a correlation between cystoscopic appearance (grade of bladder trabeculation and urethral occlusion) and urodynamic indices, DO and low compliance. It should be noted, however, that BOO was present in 15% of patients with normal cystoscopic findings, while 8% of patients had no obstruction, even in the presence of severe trabeculation [97].

Summary of evidence	LE
Patients with a history of microscopic or gross haematuria, urethral stricture, or bladder cancer, who present with LUTS, should undergo urethrocystoscopy during diagnostic evaluation.	3
No study clearly identified a strong association between the urethrocystoscopic and urodynamic findings.	3

Recommendation	Strength rating
Perform urethrocystoscopy in men with LUTS prior to minimally invasive/surgical therapies if the findings may change treatment.	Weak

4.12 Urodynamics

In male LUTS, the most widespread invasive urodynamic techniques employed are filling cystometry and pressure flow studies (PFS). The major goal of urodynamics (UDS) is to explore the functional mechanisms of LUTS, to identify risk factors for adverse outcomes and to provide information for shared decision-making. Most terms and conditions (e.g., DO, low compliance, BOO/BPO, DU) are defined by urodynamic investigation.

4.12.1 Diagnosing bladder outlet obstruction

Pressure flow studies are used to diagnose and define the severity of BOO, which is characterised by increased detrusor pressure and decreased urinary flow rate during voiding. Bladder outlet obstruction/BPO has to be differentiated from DU, which exhibits decreased detrusor pressure during voiding in combination with decreased urinary flow rate [5].

Urodynamic testing may also identify DO. Studies have described an association between BOO and DO [98, 99]. In men with LUTS attributed to BPO, DO was present in 61% and independently associated with BOO grade and ageing [98].

The prevalence of DU in men with LUTS is 11-40% [100, 101]. Detrusor contractility does not appear to decline in long-term BOO and surgical relief of BOO does not improve contractility [102, 103]. The UPSTREAM trial investigated whether urodynamics would reduce surgery without increasing urinary symptoms. UPSTREAM was a non-inferiority, RCT in men with bothersome LUTS, in whom surgery was an option, in 26 hospitals in England. In the UDS arm, 153/408 patients (38%) received surgery compared with 138/384 (36%) in the routine care (RC) arm. A total of 428 adverse events were recorded, with related events similar in both arms and eleven unrelated deaths. The UDS group was non-inferior to the RC group for IPSS, and UDS did not significantly reduce surgical rates. The authors concluded that routine use of UDS in the evaluation of uncomplicated LUTS has a limited role and should be used selectively [104]. If urodynamic investigation is performed, a rigorous quality control is mandatory [105, 106].

Due to the invasive nature of the test, a urodynamic investigation is generally only offered if conservative and medical treatment have failed. The Guidelines Panel attempted to identify specific indications for UDS based on age, findings from other diagnostic tests and previous treatments. The Panel allocated a different degree of obligation for UDS in men > 80 years and men < 50 years, which reflects the lack of evidence. In addition, there was no consensus whether UDS should or may be performed when considering surgery in men with bothersome predominantly voiding LUTS and $Q_{\max} > 10$ mL/s, although the Panel recognised that with a $Q_{\max} < 10$ mL/s, BOO is likely and UDS is not necessarily needed.

Patients with neurological disease, including those with previous radical pelvic surgery, should be assessed according to the EAU Guidelines on Neuro-Urology [107].

4.12.2 Videourodynamics

Videourodynamics provides additional anatomical and functional information and may be recommended if the clinician considers this is needed to understand the pathophysiological mechanism of an individual patient's LUTS.

Summary of evidence	LE
Pressure-flow studies is not a test for routine use prior to prostate surgery for all patients	3

Recommendations	Strength rating
Perform pressure-flow studies (PFS) only in individual patients for specific indications prior to invasive treatment or when further evaluation of the underlying pathophysiology of LUTS is warranted.	Weak
Perform PFS in men who have had previous unsuccessful (invasive) treatment for LUTS.	Weak
Perform PFS in men considering invasive treatment who cannot void > 150 mL.	Weak
Perform PFS when considering surgery in men with bothersome predominantly voiding LUTS and $Q_{max} > 10$ mL/s.	Weak
Perform PFS when considering invasive therapy in men with bothersome, predominantly voiding LUTS with a post void residual > 300 mL.	Weak
Perform PFS when considering invasive treatment in men with bothersome, predominantly voiding LUTS aged > 80 years.	Weak
Perform PFS when considering invasive treatment in men with bothersome, predominantly voiding LUTS aged < 50 years.	Weak

4.13 Non-invasive tests in diagnosing bladder outlet obstruction in men with LUTS

4.13.1 Prostatic configuration/intravesical prostatic protrusion

Prostatic configuration can be evaluated with TRUS, using the concept of the presumed circle area ratio (PCAR) [108]. The PCAR evaluates how closely the transverse US image of the prostate approaches a circular shape. The ratio tends toward one as the prostate becomes more circular. The sensitivity of PCAR was 77% for diagnosing BPO when PCAR was > 0.8, with 75% specificity [108].

Ultrasound measurement of intravesical prostatic protrusion (IPP) assesses the distance between the tip of the prostate median lobe and bladder neck in the midsagittal plane, using a suprapubically positioned US scanner, with a bladder volume of 150-250 mL; grade I protrusion is 0-4.9 mm, grade II is 5-10 mm and grade III is > 10 mm.

Intravesical prostatic protrusion correlates well with BPO (presence and severity) on urodynamic testing, with a PPV of 94% and a NPV of 79% [109]. Intravesical prostatic protrusion may also correlate with prostate volume, DO, bladder compliance, detrusor pressure at maximum urinary flow, BOO index and PVR, and negatively correlates with Q_{max} [110]. Furthermore, IPP also appears to successfully predict the outcome of a trial without catheter after AUR [111, 112]. However, no information with regards to intra- or inter-observer variability and learning curve is yet available. Therefore, whilst IPP may be a feasible option to infer BPO in men with LUTS, the role of IPP as a non-invasive alternative to PFS in the assessment of male LUTS remains under evaluation.

4.13.2 Bladder/detrusor wall thickness and ultrasound-estimated bladder weight

For bladder wall thickness (BWT) assessment, the distance between the mucosa and the adventitia is measured. For detrusor wall thickness (DWT) assessment, the only measurement needed is the detrusor sandwiched between the mucosa and adventitia [113].

A correlation between BWT and UDS parameters has been reported. A threshold value of 5 mm at the anterior bladder wall with a bladder filling of 150 mL was best at differentiating between patients with or without BOO [114]. Detrusor wall thickness at the anterior bladder wall with a bladder filling > 250 mL (threshold value for BOO > 2 mm) has a PPV of 94% and a specificity of 95%, achieving 89% agreement with PFS [73]. Threshold values of 2.0, 2.5, or 2.9 mm for DWT in patients with LUTS are able to identify 81%, 89%, and 100% of patients with BOO, respectively [115].

All studies found that BWT or DWT measurements have a higher diagnostic accuracy for detecting BOO than Q_{max} or Q_{ave} of free uroflowmetry, measurements of PVR, prostate volume, or symptom severity. One study could not demonstrate any difference in BWT between patients with normal UDS, BOO or DO. However, the study did not use a specific bladder filling volume for measuring BWT [116]. Disadvantages of the method include the lack of standardisation, and lack of evidence to indicate which measurement (BWT/DWT) is preferable [117]. Measurement of BWT/DWT is therefore not recommended for the diagnostic work-up of men with LUTS.

Ultrasound-estimated bladder weight (UEBW) may identify BOO with a diagnostic accuracy of 86% at a cut-off value of 35 g [118, 119]. Severe LUTS and a high UEBW (> 35 g) are risk factors for prostate/BPO surgery in men on α -blockers [120].

4.13.3 Non-invasive pressure-flow testing

The penile cuff method, in which flow is interrupted to estimate isovolumetric bladder pressure, shows promising data, with good test repeatability [121] and interobserver agreement [122]. A nomogram has also been derived [123] whilst a method in which flow is not interrupted is also under investigation [124].

The data generated with the external condom method [125] correlates with invasive PFS in a high proportion of patients [126]. Resistive index [127] and prostatic urethral angle [128] have also been proposed, but are still experimental.

4.13.4 ***The diagnostic performance of non-invasive tests in diagnosing bladder outlet obstruction in men with LUTS compared with pressure-flow studies***

A SR including 42 studies investigated the diagnostic performance of non-invasive tests in diagnosing BOO in men with LUTS compared with UDS/PFS [129]. The majority of the included studies were prospective cohorts, and the diagnostic accuracy of the following non-invasive tests were assessed: penile cuff test; uroflowmetry; DWT/BWT; bladder weight; external condom catheter method; IPP; Doppler US; prostate volume/height; and near-infrared spectroscopy. Overall, although the majority of studies have a low risk of bias, data regarding the diagnostic accuracy of these non-invasive tests is limited by the heterogeneity of the studies in terms of the threshold values used to define BOO, the different urodynamic definitions of BOO used across different studies and the small number of studies for each test. It was found that specificity, sensitivity, PPV and NPV of the non-invasive tests were highly variable. Therefore, even though several tests have shown promising results regarding non-invasive diagnosis of BOO, invasive urodynamics remains the modality of choice.

Summary of evidence	LE
Data regarding the diagnostic accuracy of non-invasive tests is limited by the heterogeneity of the studies as well as the small number of studies for each test.	1a
Specificity, sensitivity, PPV and NPV of the non-invasive tests were highly variable.	1a

Recommendation	Strength rating
Do not offer non-invasive tests as an alternative to urodynamics/pressure-flow studies for diagnosing bladder outflow obstruction in men.	Strong

4.14 **Novel assessment**

4.14.1 ***Visual prostate symptom score***

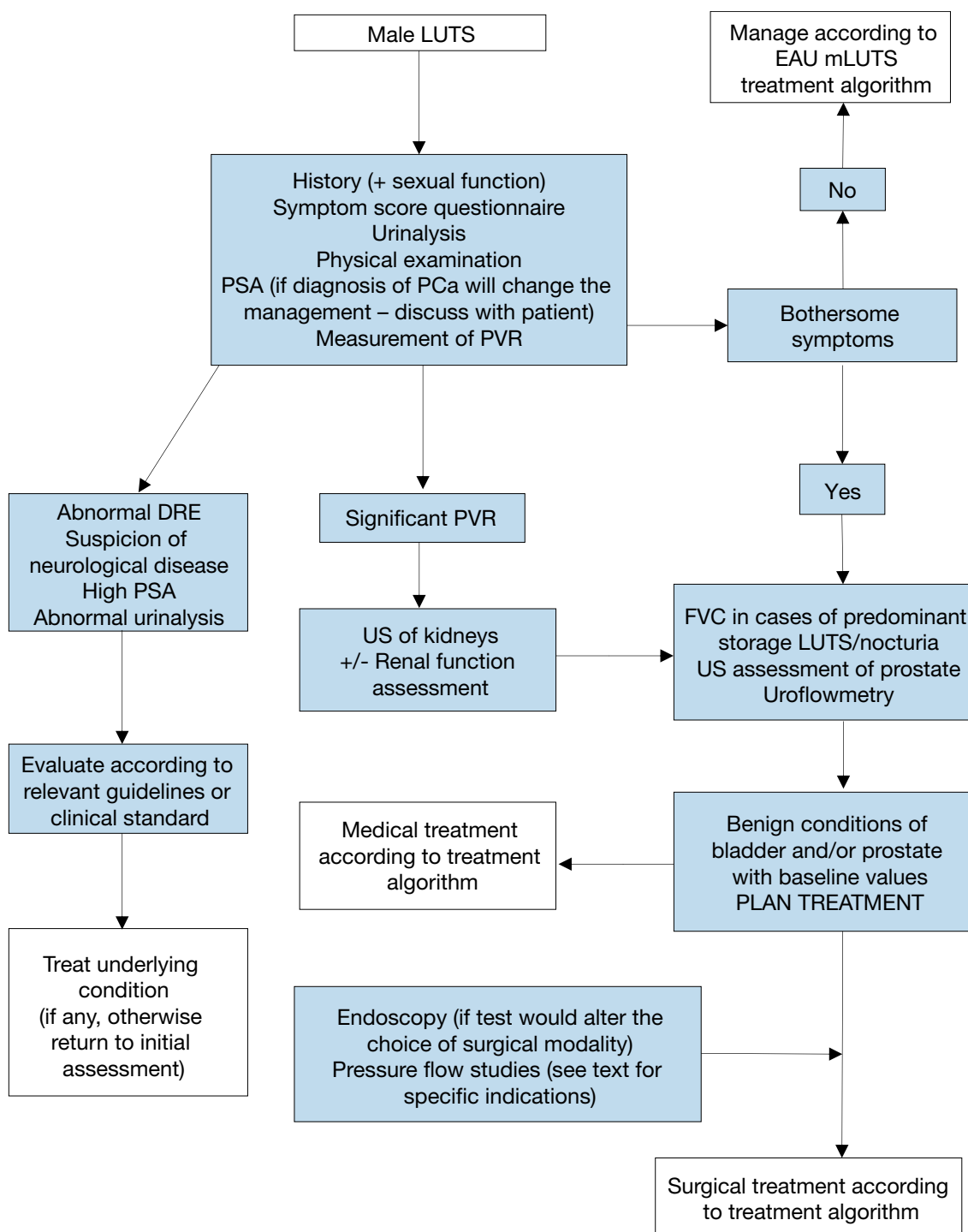
A novel visual prostate symptom score (VPSS) has been prospectively tested vs. the IPPS and correlated positively with the IPSS score [130, 131]. This visual score can be used as an option in men with limited literacy.

4.14.2 ***Micro-RNA***

The use of miR-221 has been shown to have the potential to be used as a biomarker and novel target in the early diagnosis and therapy of BPH [132].

Figure 2: Assessment algorithm of LUTS in men aged 40 years or older

Readers are strongly recommended to read the full text that highlights the current position of each test in detail.



DRE = digital-rectal examination; FVC = frequency volume chart; LUTS = lower urinary tract symptoms; PCa = prostate cancer; PSA = prostate specific antigen; PVR = post-void residual; US = ultrasound.

5. DISEASE MANAGEMENT

5.1 Conservative treatment

5.1.1 Watchful waiting

Many men with LUTS are not troubled enough by their symptoms to need drug treatment or surgical intervention. All men with LUTS should be formally assessed prior to any allocation of treatment in order to establish symptom severity and to differentiate between men with uncomplicated (the majority) and complicated LUTS. Watchful waiting is a viable option for many men with non-bothersome LUTS as few will progress to AUR and complications (e.g. renal insufficiency or stones) [133, 134], whilst others can remain stable for years [135]. In one study, approximately 85% of men with mild LUTS were stable on WW at one year [136].

A study comparing WW and transurethral resection of the prostate (TURP) in men with moderate LUTS showed the surgical group had improved bladder function (flow rates and PVR volumes), especially in those with high levels of bother; 36% of WW patients crossed over to surgery within five years, leaving 64% doing well in the WW group [137, 138]. Increasing symptom bother and PVR volumes are the strongest predictors of WW failure. Men with mild-to-moderate uncomplicated LUTS who are not too troubled by their symptoms are suitable for WW.

5.1.2 Behavioural and dietary modifications

It is customary for this type of management to include the following components:

- education (about the patient's condition);
- reassurance (that cancer is not a cause of the urinary symptoms);
- periodic monitoring;
- lifestyle advice [135, 136, 139, 140] such as:
 - o reduction of fluid intake at specific times aimed at reducing urinary frequency when most inconvenient (e.g., at night or when going out in public);
 - o avoidance/moderation of intake of caffeine or alcohol, which may have a diuretic and irritant effect, thereby increasing fluid output and enhancing frequency, urgency and nocturia;
 - o use of relaxed and double-voiding techniques;
 - o urethral milking to prevent post-micturition dribble;
 - o distraction techniques such as penile squeeze, breathing exercises, perineal pressure, and mental tricks to take the mind off the bladder and toilet, to help control OAB symptoms;
 - o bladder retraining that encourages men to hold on when they have urgency to increase their bladder capacity and the time between voids;
 - o reviewing the medication and optimising the time of administration or substituting drugs for others that have fewer urinary effects (these recommendations apply especially to diuretics);
 - o providing necessary assistance when there is impairment of dexterity, mobility, or mental state;
 - o treatment of constipation.

Evidence exists that self-management as part of WW reduces both symptoms and progression [139, 140]. Men randomised to three self-care management sessions in addition to standard care had better symptom improvement and QoL than men treated with standard care only, for up to a year [139]. A SR and meta-analysis found reasonable certainty in estimates that self-management intervention significantly reduced symptom severity in terms of IPSS at six months compared with usual care [141]. The reduction in IPSS score with self-management was similar to that achieved with drug therapy at six to twelve weeks. Self-management had a smaller, additional benefit at six weeks when added to drug therapy [141].

5.1.3 Practical considerations

The components of self-care management have not been individually studied. The above components of lifestyle advice have been derived from formal consensus methodology [142]. Further research in this area is required.

Summary of evidence	LE
Watchful waiting is usually a safe alternative for men who are less bothered by urinary difficulty or who wish to delay treatment. The treatment failure rate over a period of five years was 21%; 79% of patients were clinically stable.	1b
An additional study reported 81% of patients were clinically stable on WW after a mean follow-up of seventeen months.	2

Men randomised to three self-management sessions in addition to standard care had better symptom improvement and QoL than men treated with standard care alone at up to a year. Self-care management as part of WW reduces both symptoms and progression.	1b
Self-management achieved a clinically meaningful reduction in symptom severity at six months compared to usual care. There was also a small but significant additional benefit of adding self-management to drug therapy.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer men with mild/moderate symptoms, minimally bothered by their symptoms, watchful waiting.	Strong
Offer men with LUTS lifestyle advice and self-care information prior to, or concurrent with, treatment.	Strong

5.2 Pharmacological treatment

5.2.1 Alpha 1-Adrenoceptor antagonists (α 1-blockers)

Mechanism of action: Alpha 1-blockers aim to inhibit the effect of endogenously released noradrenaline on smooth muscle cells in the prostate and thereby reduce prostate tone and BOO [143]. However, α 1-blockers have little effect on urodynamically determined bladder outlet resistance [144], and treatment-associated improvement of LUTS correlates poorly with obstruction [145]. Thus, other mechanisms of action may also be relevant.

Alpha 1-adrenoceptors located outside the prostate (e.g. urinary bladder and/or spinal cord) and α 1-adrenoceptor subtypes (α 1B- or α 1D-adrenoceptors) may play a role as mediators of effects. Alpha 1-adrenoceptors in blood vessels, other non-prostatic smooth muscle cells, and the central nervous system may mediate adverse events.

Currently available α 1-blockers are: alfuzosin hydrochloride (alfuzosin); doxazosin mesylate (doxazosin); silodosin; tamsulosin hydrochloride (tamsulosin); terazosin hydrochloride (terazosin); and naftopidil. Alpha 1-blockers exist in different formulations. Although different formulations result in different pharmacokinetic and tolerability profiles, the overall difference in clinical efficacy between the difference formulations seems negligible.

Efficacy: Indirect comparisons and limited direct comparisons between α 1-blockers demonstrate that all α 1-blockers have a similar efficacy in appropriate doses [146]. Clinical effects take a few weeks to develop fully, but significant efficacy over placebo can occur within hours to days [145].

Controlled studies show that α 1-blockers typically reduce IPSS by approximately 30-40% and increase Q_{\max} by approximately 20-25%. However, substantial improvements also occurred in the corresponding placebo arms [63, 147]. In open-label studies, an IPSS improvement of up to 50% and Q_{\max} increase of up to 40% were documented [63, 147]. A recent SR and meta-analysis suggested that Q_{\max} variation underestimates the real effect of α 1-blockers on BPO, as small improvements in Q_{\max} correspond to relevant improvements in BOO index in PFS [148].

Alpha 1-blockers can reduce both storage and voiding LUTS. Prostate size does not affect α 1-blocker efficacy in studies with follow-up periods of less than one year, but α 1-blockers do seem to be more efficacious in patients with smaller prostates (< 40 mL) in longer-term studies [65, 149-152]. The efficacy of α 1-blockers is similar across age groups [147]. A pooled analysis of phase III and IV trials of silodosin 8 mg demonstrated that improvements in total, storage, voiding, and QoL IPSS scores were similar for the severe and not severe LUTS cohorts [153]. In addition, α 1-blockers neither reduce prostate size nor prevent AUR in long-term studies [150-152]; however, recent evidence suggests that the use of α 1-blockers (alfuzosin and tamsulosin) may improve resolution of AUR [154]. Nonetheless, IPSS reduction and Q_{\max} improvement during α 1-blocker treatment appears to be maintained over at least four years.

Tolerability and safety: Tissue distribution, subtype selectivity, and pharmacokinetic profiles of certain formulations may contribute to the tolerability profile of specific drugs. The most frequent adverse events of α 1-blockers are asthenia, dizziness and (orthostatic) hypotension. Vasodilating effects are most pronounced with doxazosin and terazosin and are less common with alfuzosin and tamsulosin [155]. Patients with cardiovascular co-morbidity and/or vaso-active co-medication may be susceptible to α 1-blocker-induced vasodilatation [156]. In contrast, the frequency of hypotension with the α 1A-selective blocker silodosin is comparable with placebo [157]. In a large retrospective cohort analysis of men aged > 66 years treated with α 1-blockers the risks of falling (odds ratio [OR] 1.14) and of sustaining a fracture (OR 1.16) was increased, most likely as a result of induced hypotension [158].

An adverse ocular event termed intra-operative floppy iris syndrome (IFIS) was reported in 2005, affecting cataract surgery [159]. A meta-analysis on IFIS after alfuzosin, doxazosin, tamsulosin or terazosin exposure showed an increased risk for all α 1-blockers [160]. However, the OR for IFIS was much higher for

tamsulosin. It appears prudent not to initiate α 1-blocker treatment prior to scheduled cataract surgery, and the ophthalmologist should be informed about α 1-blocker use.

A SR concluded that α 1-blockers do not adversely affect libido, have a small beneficial effect on erectile function (ED), but can cause abnormal ejaculation [161]. Originally, abnormal ejaculation was thought to be retrograde, but more recent data demonstrate that it is due to a decrease or absence of seminal fluid during ejaculation, with young age being an apparent risk factor. In a recent meta-analysis ejaculatory dysfunction (EjD) was significantly more common with α 1-blockers than with placebo (OR: 5.88). In particular, EjD was significantly more commonly related with tamsulosin or silodosin (OR: 8.57 and 32.5) than placebo, while both doxazosin and terazosin (OR: 0.80 and 1.78) were associated with a low risk of EjD [162]. In the meta-regression, the occurrence of EjD was independently associated with the improvement of urinary symptoms and flow rate, suggesting that the more effective the α 1-blocker is the greater the incidence of EjD.

Practical considerations: Alpha 1-blockers are usually considered the first-line drug treatment for male LUTS because of their rapid onset of action, good efficacy, and low rate and severity of adverse events. However, α 1-blockers do not prevent occurrence of urinary retention or need for surgery. Ophthalmologists should be informed about α 1-blocker use prior to cataract surgery. Elderly patients treated with non-selective α 1-blockers should be informed about the risk of orthostatic hypotension. Sexually active patients treated with selective α 1-blockers should be counselled about the risk of EjD.

Summary of evidence	LE
Alpha 1-blockers are effective in reducing urinary symptoms (IPSS) and increasing the peak urinary flow rate (Q_{max}) compared with placebo.	1a
Alfuzosin, terazosin and doxazosin showed a statistically significant increased risk of developing vascular-related events compared with placebo.	1a
Alfuzosin, doxazosin, tamsulosin or terazosin exposure has been associated with an increased risk of IFIS.	1a
Ejaculatory dysfunction is significantly more common with α 1-blockers than with placebo, particularly with more selective α 1-blockers such as tamsulosin and silodosin.	1a

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer α 1-blockers to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS.	Strong

5.2.2 5 α -reductase inhibitors

Mechanism of action: Androgen effects on the prostate are mediated by dihydrotestosterone (DHT), which is converted from testosterone by the enzyme 5 α -reductase [163], which has two isoforms:

- 5 α -reductase type 1: predominant expression and activity in the skin and liver.
- 5 α -reductase type 2: predominant expression and activity in the prostate.

Two 5-ARIs are available for clinical use: dutasteride and finasteride. Finasteride inhibits only 5 α -reductase type 2, whereas dutasteride inhibits both 5 α -reductase types (dual 5-ARI). The 5-ARIs induce apoptosis of prostate epithelial cells [164] leading to prostate size reduction of about 18-28% and a decrease in circulating PSA levels of about 50% after six to twelve months of treatment [165]. Mean prostate volume and PSA reduction may be even more pronounced after long-term treatment. Continuous treatment reduces the serum DHT concentration by approximately 70% with finasteride and 95% with dutasteride. However, prostate DHT concentration is reduced to a similar level (85-90%) by both 5-ARIs.

Efficacy: Clinical effects relative to placebo are seen after treatment of at least six months. After two to four years of treatment 5-ARIs improve IPSS by approximately 15-30%, decrease prostate volume by 18-28%, and increase Q_{max} by 1.5-2.0 mL/s in patients with LUTS due to prostate enlargement [65, 151, 152, 166-172]. An indirect comparison and one direct comparative trial (twelve months duration) indicated that dutasteride and finasteride are equally effective in the treatment of LUTS [165, 173]. Symptom reduction depends on initial prostate size.

Finasteride may not be more efficacious than placebo in patients with prostates < 40 mL [174]. However, dutasteride seems to reduce IPSS, prostate volume, and the risk of AUR, and to increase Q_{max} even in patients with prostate volumes of between 30 and 40 mL [175, 176]. A long-term trial with dutasteride in symptomatic men with prostate volumes > 30 mL and increased risk for disease progression showed that dutasteride reduced LUTS at least as much as the α 1-blocker tamsulosin [151, 172, 177]. The greater the baseline prostate volume (or serum PSA level), the faster and more pronounced the symptomatic benefit of dutasteride as compared to tamsulosin.

5 α -reductase inhibitors, but not α 1-blockers, reduce the long-term (> 1 year) risk of AUR or need for surgery [65, 170, 178]. In the PLESS study, finasteride reduced the relative risk of AUR by 57% and need for surgery by 55% (absolute risk reduction 4% and 7%, respectively) at four years, compared with placebo [170]. In the MTOPS study, finasteride reduced the relative risk of AUR by 68% and need for surgery by 64% (absolute risk reduction 2% and 3%, respectively), also at four years [65]. A pooled analysis of three RCTs with two-year follow-up data, reported that treatment with finasteride decreased the relative risk of AUR by 57%, and surgical intervention by 34% (absolute risk reduction 2% for both) in patients with moderately symptomatic LUTS [179]. Dutasteride has also demonstrated efficacy in reducing the risks for AUR and BPO-related surgery. Open-label trials have demonstrated relevant changes in urodynamic parameters [180, 181]. Furthermore, finasteride might reduce blood loss during transurethral prostate surgery, probably due to its effects on prostatic vascularisation [182, 183].

Tolerability and safety: The most common adverse events are reduced libido, erectile dysfunction (ED) and less frequently, ejaculation disorders such as retrograde ejaculation, ejaculation failure, or decreased semen volume [65, 152, 165, 184]. Gynaecomastia (with breast or nipple tenderness) develops in 1-2% of patients. Two studies have suggested that treatment with 5-ARIs is associated with a higher incidence of high-grade cancers although no causal relationship has been proven [185, 186]. There is a long-standing debate regarding potential cardiovascular side effects of 5-ARIs, in particular dutasteride [187]. Population-based studies in Taiwan and Ontario did not find an association between the use of 5-ARIs and increased cardiovascular side effects [187, 188]. In a British-Taiwanese population-based cohort study, the risk of type II diabetes was higher in men with 5-ARIs than in men receiving tamsulosin but did not differ between dutasteride and finasteride [189].

Practical considerations: Treatment with 5-ARIs should be considered in men with moderate-to-severe LUTS and an enlarged prostate (> 40 mL) and/or elevated PSA concentration (> 1.4-1.6 ng/mL). They can prevent the risk of AUR and need for surgery. Due to the slow onset of action, they are not suitable for short-term use. Their effect on PSA needs to be considered in relation to PCa screening.

Summary of evidence	LE
After two to four years of treatment, 5-ARIs improve IPSS by approximately 15-30%, decrease prostate volume by 18-28%, and increase Q _{max} by 1.5-2.0 mL/s in patients with LUTS due to prostate enlargement.	1b
5 α -reductase inhibitors can prevent disease progression with regard to AUR and the need for surgery. Due to 5-ARIs slow onset of action, they are suitable only for long-term treatment (years).	1a
The most relevant adverse effects of 5-ARIs are related to sexual function, and include reduced libido, ED and less frequently, ejaculation disorders such as retrograde ejaculation, ejaculation failure, or decreased semen volume.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Use 5 α -reductase inhibitors (5-ARIs) in men who have moderate-to-severe LUTS and an increased risk of disease progression (e.g., prostate volume > 40 mL).	Strong
Counsel patients about the slow onset of action of 5-ARIs.	Strong

5.2.3 Muscarinic receptor antagonists

Mechanism of action: The detrusor is innervated by parasympathetic nerves whose main neurotransmitter is acetylcholine, which stimulates muscarinic receptors (M-cholinoreceptors) on the smooth muscle cells. Muscarinic receptors are also present on other cell types, such as bladder urothelial cells and epithelial cells of the salivary glands. Five muscarinic receptor subtypes (M1-M5) have been described, of which M2 and M3 are predominant in the detrusor. The M2 subtype is more numerous, but the M3 subtype is functionally more important in bladder contractions [190, 191]. Antimuscarinic effects might also be induced or modulated through other cell types, such as the bladder urothelium or by the central nervous system [192, 193].

The following muscarinic receptor antagonists are licensed for treating OAB/storage symptoms: darifenacin hydrobromide (darifenacin); fesoterodine fumarate (fesoterodine); oxybutynin hydrochloride (oxybutynin); propiverine hydrochloride (propiverine); solifenacin succinate (solifenacin); tolterodine tartrate (tolterodine); and trospium chloride. Transdermal preparations of oxybutynin have been formulated and evaluated in clinical trials [194, 195].

Efficacy: Antimuscarinics were mainly tested in females in the past, as it was believed that LUTS in men were caused by the prostate, so should be treated with prostate-specific drugs. However, there is no scientific data for this assumption [196]. A sub-analysis of an open-label trial of OAB patients showed that age, but

not gender had an impact on urgency, frequency, or urgency incontinence [197]. In a pooled analysis, which included a sub-analysis of male patients, fesoterodine 8 mg was superior to tolterodine extended release (ER) 4 mg for the improvement of severe urgency episodes/24 hours and the OAB-q Symptom Bother score at week twelve, the urinary retention rate was around 2% [198].

The efficacy of antimuscarinics as single agents in men with OAB in the absence of BOO have been tested [199-204]. Most trials lasted only twelve weeks. Four *post hoc* analyses of large RCTs on the treatment of OAB in women and men without presumed BOO were performed focusing only on the men [196, 200, 205]. Tolterodine can significantly reduce urgency incontinence, daytime or 24-hour frequency and urgency-related voiding whilst improving patient perception of treatment benefit [206]. Solifenacin significantly improved mean patient perception of bladder condition scores, mean OAB questionnaire scores, and overall perception of bladder problems. Fesoterodine improved micturition frequency, urgency episodes, and UII episodes. In open-label trials with tolterodine, daytime frequency, nocturia, UII, and IPSS were significantly reduced compared with baseline values after twelve to 25 weeks [201, 204]. The TIMES RCT reported that tolterodine ER monotherapy significantly improved UII episodes per 24 hours compared to placebo, at week twelve. Tolterodine ER did not significantly improve urgency, IPSS total or QoL score compared with placebo [203].

A further analysis showed that men with PSA levels of < 1.3 ng/mL (smaller prostates) might benefit more from antimuscarinics [207]. Two other studies found a positive effect of antimuscarinics in patients with OAB and concomitant BPO [204, 208]. In a small RCT propiverine improved frequency and urgency episodes [208].

Tolerability and safety: Antimuscarinic drug trials generally show approximately 3-10% withdrawals, which is similar to placebo. Drug-related adverse events include dry mouth (up to 16%), constipation (up to 4%), micturition difficulties (up to 2%), nasopharyngitis (up to 3%), and dizziness (up to 5%).

Increased PVR in men without BOO is minimal and similar to placebo. Nevertheless, fesoterodine 8 mg showed higher PVRs (+20.2 mL) than placebo (-0.6 mL) or fesoterodine 4 mg (+9.6 mL) [201]. Incidence of urinary retention in men without BOO was similar to placebo for tolterodine (0-1.3% vs. 0-1.4%). With fesoterodine 8 mg, 5.3% had symptoms, which was higher than placebo or fesoterodine 4 mg (both 0.8%). These symptoms appeared during the first two weeks of treatment and mainly affected men aged 66 years or older.

Theoretically antimuscarinics might decrease bladder strength, and hence might be associated with PVR or urinary retention. A twelve week safety study on men with mild-to-moderate BOO showed that tolterodine increased the PVR (49 mL vs. 16 mL) but not AUR (3% in both arms) [209]. The urodynamic effects included larger bladder volumes at first detrusor contraction, higher maximum cystometric capacity, and decreased bladder contractility index, Q_{max} was unchanged. This trial indicated that short-term treatment with antimuscarinics in men with BOO is safe [196].

Practical considerations: Not all antimuscarinics have been tested in elderly men, and long-term studies on the efficacy of muscarinic receptor antagonists in men of any age with LUTS are not yet available. In addition, only patients with low PVR volumes at baseline were included in the studies. These drugs should therefore be prescribed with caution, and regular re-evaluation of IPSS and PVR is advised. Men should be advised to discontinue medication if worsening voiding LUTS or urinary stream is noted after initiation of therapy.

Summary of evidence	LE
Antimuscarinic monotherapy can significantly improve urgency, UII, and increased daytime frequency.	2
Antimuscarinic monotherapy can be associated with increased PVR after therapy, but acute retention is a rare event in men with a PVR volume of < 150 mL at baseline.	2

Recommendations	Strength rating
Use muscarinic receptor antagonists in men with moderate-to-severe LUTS who mainly have bladder storage symptoms.	Strong
Do not use antimuscarinic overactive bladder medications in men with a post-void residual volume > 150 mL.	Weak

5.2.4 **Beta-3 agonist**

Mechanism of action: Beta-3 adrenoceptors are the predominant beta receptors expressed in the smooth muscle cells of the detrusor and their stimulation is thought to induce detrusor relaxation. The mode of action of beta-3 agonists is not fully elucidated [210].

Efficacy: Mirabegron 50 mg is the first clinically available beta-3 agonist with approval for use in adults with OAB. Mirabegron has undergone extensive evaluation in RCTs conducted in Europe, Australia, North America, and Japan [211-215]. Mirabegron demonstrated significant efficacy in treating the symptoms of OAB, including micturition frequency, urgency and UUI and also patient perception of treatment benefit. These studies had a predominantly female study population. A meta-analysis of eight RCTs including 10,248 patients (27% male) found that mirabegron treatment resulted in reduced frequency, urgency and UUI rates, as well as an improved voided volume with a statistically significant improvement of nocturia compared with both placebo and tolterodine [216].

Mirabegron has been evaluated in male patients with OAB in the context of LUTS either associated or not associated with BPO confirmed by urodynamics [217]. Mirabegron 25 mg daily led to increased satisfaction and improved QoL, but symptoms assessed by validated questionnaires (IPSS and OAB-SS), only improved in non-obstructed patients. Mirabegron as an add-on therapy has been studied in OAB patients with incontinence despite antimuscarinic therapy [218], again in a predominantly female study population. An Asian study with a higher proportion of male subjects (approximately one third) reported superiority over placebo in reducing frequency of micturition but did not report the results separately for the genders [219].

In a study of more than 1,000 patients of whom approximately 30% were male, combination therapy of mirabegron 25/50 mg and solifenacin 5/10 mg was associated with statistically significant improvements in patient outcomes and health related QoL vs. solifenacin 5 mg and placebo; however, they did not separate out the effects in men and women [220]. In another study, in which 28% patients were male, mirabegron significantly improved patient reported perception of their condition and QoL whether or not patients were incontinent [221]. A phase IV study, with a small proportion of male subjects, reported addition of mirabegron in people with persisting urgency despite solifenacin in a Japanese population [222].

Tolerability and safety: The most common treatment-related adverse events in the mirabegron groups were hypertension, UTI, headache and nasopharyngitis [211-214]. Mirabegron is contraindicated in patients with severe uncontrolled hypertension (systolic blood pressure ≥ 180 mmHg or diastolic blood pressure ≥ 110 mmHg, or both). Blood pressure should be measured before starting treatment and monitored regularly during treatment. A combination of thirteen clinical studies including 13,396 patients, 25% of whom were male, showed that OAB treatments (anticholinergics or mirabegron) were not associated with an increased risk of hypertension or cardiovascular events compared to placebo [223]. The proportion of patients with dry mouth and constipation in the mirabegron groups was notably lower than reported in RCTs of other OAB agents or of the active control tolterodine [211]. Evaluation of urodynamic parameters in men with combined BOO and OAB concluded that mirabegron did not adversely affect voiding urodynamic parameters compared to placebo in terms of Q_{max} , detrusor pressure at maximum flow and bladder contractility index [224]. The overall change in PVR with mirabegron is small [224].

A small prospective study (mainly focused on males) has shown that mirabegron 25 mg is safe in patients aged 80 years or more with multiple co-morbidities [225]. A pooled analysis of three trials, each of twelve weeks and a one-year trial showed, in patients aged > 65 years, a more favourable tolerability profile for mirabegron than antimuscarinics [226]. The PILLAR phase IV study also showed that in a large population of 888 patients ≥ 65 years (approx. 30% of males), mirabegron 50 mg was safe and effective [227]. In an eighteen-week study of 3,527 patients (23% male), the incidence of adverse events was higher in the combination (solifenacin 5 mg plus mirabegron 25 mg) group (40%) than the mirabegron 25 mg alone group (32%). Events recorded as urinary retention were low ($< 1\%$) but were reported slightly more frequently in the combined group when compared with the monotherapy and placebo groups. The PVR volume was slightly increased in the combined group compared with solifenacin 5 mg, and the mirabegron monotherapy and placebo groups. Combined therapy with solifenacin 5 mg plus mirabegron 25 mg and solifenacin 5 mg plus mirabegron 50 mg provided improvements in efficacy generally consistent with an additive effect [228].

In a retrospective analysis of persistence and adherence in 21,996 patients, of whom 30% were male, the median time to discontinuation was significantly longer for mirabegron (169 days) compared to tolterodine (56 days) and other antimuscarinics (30-78 days). There was no statistical difference between men and women [229].

The phase III EMPOWUR trial comparing vibegron to placebo and tolterodine showed once daily 75 mg vibegron provided statistically significant reductions in micturitions, urgency episodes and UUI [230]. Treatment was well tolerated with a favourable safety profile. However, the majority of the study population (85%) were female and vibegron is not yet licenced in Europe.

Practical considerations: Long-term studies on the efficacy and safety of mirabegron in men of any age with LUTS are not yet available. Available studies on mirabegron in combination with antimuscarinics in OAB patients had a predominantly female study population, while further trials are still pending.

Summary of evidence	LE
Mirabegron improves storage LUTS, including urinary frequency, urgency and UUI.	2
Patients prescribed mirabegron remained on treatment longer than those prescribed antimuscarinics.	3

Recommendation	Strength rating
Use beta-3 agonists in men with moderate-to-severe LUTS who mainly have bladder storage symptoms.	Weak

5.2.5 Phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors

Mechanism of action: Phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors (PDE5Is) increase intracellular cyclic guanosine monophosphate, thus reducing smooth muscle tone of the detrusor, prostate, and urethra. Nitric oxide and PDE5Is might also alter reflex pathways in the spinal cord and neurotransmission in the urethra, prostate, or bladder [231]. Moreover, chronic treatment with PDE5Is seems to increase blood perfusion and oxygenation in the LUT [232]. Phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors could also reduce chronic inflammation in the prostate and bladder [233]. The exact mechanism of PDE5Is on LUTS remains unclear.

Although clinical trials of several selective oral PDE5Is have been conducted in men with LUTS, only tadalafil (5 mg once daily) has been licensed for the treatment of male LUTS.

Efficacy: Randomised controlled trials have demonstrated that PDE5Is reduce IPSS, storage and voiding LUTS, and improve QoL. However, Q_{max} did not significantly differ from placebo in most trials [234]. A Cochrane review included a total of sixteen RCTs that examined the effects of PDE5Is compared to placebo and other standard of care drugs (α 1-blockers and 5-ARIs) in men with LUTS [235]. In the updated meta-analysis, PDE5Is led to a small reduction (mean difference (MD) 1.89 lower; 95% CI: 2.27 lower to 1.50 lower; $n = 4293$) in IPSS compared to placebo [235]. There was no difference between PDE5Is and α 1-blockers in IPSS [236]. Most evidence was limited to short-term treatment up to twelve weeks. In other meta-analyses, PDE5Is were also found to improve IPSS and IIEF score, but not always Q_{max} [237, 238]. A meta-regression suggested that younger men with low body mass index and more severe LUTS benefit the most from treatment with PDE5Is [237].

In a *post hoc* analysis of data pooled from four blinded trials of tadalafil 5 mg vs. placebo once daily, a minimum improvement of 25% in IPSS score was found in 60% in the tadalafil and in 44% in the placebo group [239]. The maximum trial duration was 52 weeks [240]. A subgroup analysis of pooled data from four RCTs demonstrated a significant reduction in LUTS, regardless of baseline severity, age, previous use of α -blockers or PDE5Is, total testosterone level or predicted prostate volume [241]. In a *post hoc* analysis of pooled data from four RCTs, tadalafil was shown to also be effective in men with cardiovascular risk factors/co-morbidities, except for patients receiving more than one antihypertensive medication. Among sexually active men > 45 years, tadalafil improved both LUTS/BPH and ED [241].

An integrated data analyses from four placebo controlled clinical studies showed that total IPSS improvement was largely attributed to direct (92.5%) vs. indirect (7.5%) treatment effects via IIEF-EF improvement [242]. Another analysis showed a small but significant increase in Q_{max} without any effect on PVR [243]. An integrated analysis of RCTs showed that tadalafil was not superior to placebo for IPSS improvement at twelve weeks in men ≥ 75 years (with varied effect size between studies) but was for men < 75 years [244]. An open label urodynamic study of 71 patients showed significant improvements in both voiding and storage symptoms, confirmed by improvements in BOO index (61.3 to 47.1), and resolution of DO in fifteen (38%) of 38 patients. Flow rate improved from 7.1 to 9.1 mL/s and mean IPSS from 18.2 to 13.4 [245].

A multicenter, double blind, placebo controlled RCT compared once daily tadalafil 20 mg vs. placebo during twelve weeks in men with LUTS with or without BOO. Urodynamic measures including detrusor pressure at maximum urinary flow rate, Q_{max} , maximum detrusor pressure, BOO or bladder capacity remained largely unchanged during the study with no statistically significant or clinically adverse event differences between tadalafil and placebo [246].

A combination of PDE5Is and α -blockers has also been evaluated. A meta-analysis of five RCTs (two studies with tadalafil 20 mg, two with sildenafil 25 mg, and one with vardenafil 20 mg), showed that combination therapy significantly improved IPSS score (-1.8), IIEF score (+3.6) and Q_{max} (+1.5 mL/s) compared with α -blockers alone [237]. Both a SR and Cochrane review found similar findings [235, 247]. The effects of tadalafil 5 mg combined with finasteride 5 mg were assessed in a 26-week placebo-controlled RCT. The combination of tadalafil and finasteride provided a significant early improvement in urinary symptoms at four, twelve and 26 weeks as well as a significant improvement of storage and voiding symptoms and QoL. Combination therapy was well tolerated and improved erectile function [248]. However, only tadalafil 5 mg has been licensed in the context of LUTS management while data on combinations of PDE5Is and other LUTS medications is emerging.

Tolerability and safety: Reported adverse effects in RCTs comparing the effect of all PDE5Is vs. placebo in men with LUTS include flushing, gastroesophageal reflux, headache, dyspepsia, back pain and nasal congestion [237].

Tadalafil is contraindicated in patients using nitrates or guanylate cyclase stimulators, such as riociguat, and in men with cardiac disease for whom sexual activity is inadvisable [249]. Tadalafil is also contraindicated in patients with myocardial infarction within the last 90 days, - patients with unstable angina or angina occurring during sexual intercourse, - patients with New York Heart Association Class 2 or greater heart failure in the last six months, - patients with uncontrolled arrhythmias, hypotension (< 90/50 mm Hg), or uncontrolled hypertension, - patients with a stroke within the last six months or if anterior ischaemic optic neuropathy with sudden loss of vision is known or was reported after previous use of PDE5Is [249]. Detailed information regarding tolerability/safety of all available PDE5Is for the treatment of erectile dysfunction in men treated with α -blockers for LUTS are provided by the EAU Guidelines on Sexual and Reproductive Health [250].

Practical considerations: To date, only tadalafil 5 mg once daily has been officially licensed for the treatment of male LUTS with or without ED. Long-term experience with tadalafil in men with LUTS is limited to one trial with a one-year follow-up [240]; limiting conclusions about efficacy or tolerability greater than one year. There is limited information on reduction of prostate size and no data on disease progression.

Summary of evidence	LE
Phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors significantly improve IPSS and IIEF score, but not Q _{max} .	1a

Recommendation	Strength rating
Use phosphodiesterase type 5 inhibitors in men with moderate-to-severe LUTS with or without erectile dysfunction.	Strong

5.2.6 **Plant extracts - phytotherapy**

Potential mechanism of action: Herbal drug preparations are made of roots, seeds, pollen, bark, or fruits. There are single plant preparations (mono-preparations) and preparations combining two or more plants in one pill (combination preparations) [251].

Possible relevant compounds include phytosterols, β -sitosterol, fatty acids, and lectins [251]. *In vitro*, plant extracts can have anti-inflammatory, anti-androgenic and oestrogenic effects; decrease sexual hormone binding globulin; inhibit aromatase, lipoxygenase, growth factor-stimulated proliferation of prostatic cells, α -adrenoceptors, 5 α -reductase, muscarinic acetylcholine receptors, dihydropyridine receptors and vanilloid receptors; and neutralise free radicals [245, 251, 252]. The *in vivo* effects of these compounds are uncertain, and the precise mechanisms of plant extracts remain unclear.

Efficacy: The extracts of the same plant produced by different companies do not necessarily have the same biological or clinical effects; therefore, the effects of one brand cannot be extrapolated to others [253]. In addition, batches from the same producer may contain different concentrations of active ingredients [254]. A review of recent extraction techniques and their impact on the composition/biological activity of available *Serenoa repens* based products showed that results from different clinical trials must be compared strictly according to the same validated extraction technique and/or content of active compounds [255], as the pharmacokinetic properties of the different preparations can vary significantly.

Heterogeneity and a limited regulatory framework characterise the current status of phytotherapeutic agents. The European Medicines Agency (EMA) has developed the Committee on Herbal Medicinal Products (HMPC). European Union (EU) herbal monographs contain the HMPC's scientific opinion on safety and efficacy data about herbal substances and their preparations intended for medicinal use. The HMPC evaluates all available information, including non-clinical and clinical data, whilst also documenting long-standing use and experience in the EU. European Union monographs are divided into two sections: a) Well established use (marketing authorisation): when an active ingredient of a medicine has been used for more than ten years and its efficacy and safety have been well established (including a review of the relevant literature); and b) Traditional use (simplified registration): for herbal medicinal products which do not fulfil the requirements for a marketing authorisation, but there is sufficient safety data and plausible efficacy on the basis of long-standing use and experience.

The HPMC periodically invites all interested parties to submit any scientific data that the Committee should consider during their periodic review of the monographs. Table 1 lists the available EU monographs for herbal medicinal products and the current calls for update.

Table 1: European Union monographs for herbal medicinal products [256]

Herbal substance	HMPC evaluation	Therapeutic Indication by HMPC	Date of monograph
<i>Serenoa repens</i> , fructus (saw palmetto, fruit) Extraction solvent: hexane [257]	Well established use	Symptomatic treatment of BPH	14/01/2016 Addendum 1/9/21**
<i>Serenoa repens</i> , fructus (saw palmetto, fruit) Extraction solvent: ethanol [257]	Traditional use	LUTS related to BPH*	14/01/2016 Addendum 1/9/21**
<i>Cucurbita pepo</i> L., semen (pumpkin seed) Preparation as defined in the monograph [258]	Traditional use	LUTS related to BPH or related to an OAB*	25/03/2013 Call ended 30/4/21
<i>Prunus africana</i> (Hook f.) Kalkm., cortex (pygeum africanum bark) Preparation as defined in the monograph [259]	Traditional use	LUTS related to BPH*	01/09/2017 No call for update
<i>Urtica dioica</i> L., <i>Urtica urens</i> L., their hybrids or their mixtures, radix Preparation as defined in the monograph [260]	Traditional use	LUTS related to BPH*	05/11/2012 Call ended 30/6/21
<i>Epilobium angustifolium</i> L. and/or <i>Epilobium parviflorum</i> Schreb., herba (Willow herb) Preparation as defined in the monograph [261]	Traditional use	LUTS related to BPH*	13/01/2016 No call for update

* After serious conditions have been excluded by a medical doctor.

** Addendum concluded that no revision was needed.

Panel interpretation: Only hexane extracted *Serenoa repens* (HESr) has been recommended for well-established use by the HMPC. Based on this a detailed scoping search covering the timeframe between the search cut-off date of the EU monograph and May 2021 was conducted for HESr.

A large meta-analysis of 30 RCTs with 5,222 men and follow-up ranging from four to 60 weeks, demonstrated no benefit of treatment with *S. repens* in comparison to placebo for the relief of LUTS [262]. It was concluded that *S. repens* was not superior to placebo, finasteride, or tamsulosin with regard to IPSS improvement, Q_{max} , or prostate size reduction; however, the similar improvement in IPSS or Q_{max} compared with finasteride or tamsulosin could be interpreted as treatment equivalence. Importantly, in the meta-analysis all different brands of *S. repens* were included regardless or not of the presence of HESr as the main ingredient in the extract.

Another SR focused on data from twelve RCTs on the efficacy and safety of HESr [263]. It was concluded that HESr was superior to placebo in terms of improvement of nocturia and Q_{max} in patients with enlarged prostates. Improvement in LUTS was similar to tamsulosin and short-term use of finasteride. An updated SR analysed fifteen RCTs and also included twelve observational studies. It confirmed the results of the previous SR on the efficacy of HESr [264]. Compared with placebo, HESr was associated with 0.64 (95% CI: 0.98 - 0.31) fewer voids/night and an additional mean increase in Q_{max} of 2.75 mL/s (95% CI: 0.57 - 4.93), both were significant. When compared with α -blockers, HESr showed similar improvements in IPSS (WMD 0.57; 95% CI: 0.27 - 1.42) and a comparable increase in Q_{max} when compared to tamsulosin (WMD 0.02; 95% CI: 0.71 - 0.66). Efficacy assessed using IPSS was similar after six months of treatment between HESr and 5-ARIs. Analysis of all available published data for HESr showed a mean significant improvement in IPSS from baseline of 5.73 points (95% CI: 6.91 - 4.54) [264].

A network meta-analysis tried to compare the clinical efficacy of *S. repens* (HESr and non-HESr) against placebo and α 1-blockers in men with LUTS. Interestingly, only two RCTs on HESr were included in the analysis. It was found that *S. repens* achieved no clinically meaningful improvement against placebo or α 1-blockers in short-term follow-up. However, *S. repens* showed a clinical benefit after a prolonged period of treatment, and HESr demonstrated a greater improvement than non-HESr in terms of IPSS [265].

With respect to safety and tolerability data from the SRs showed that HESr had a favourable safety profile with gastrointestinal disorders being the most frequent adverse effects (mean incidence 3.8%) while HESr had very limited impact on sexual function.

A cross-sectional study compared the combination of HESr with silodosin, to silodosin monotherapy in patients treated for at least twelve months (mean duration 13.5 months) [266]. It was reported that 69.9% of the combination therapy patients achieved the predefined clinically meaningful improvement (improvement more than three points in baseline IPSS) compared to 30.1% of patients treated only with silodosin. In addition, a greater than 25% improvement in IPSS was found in 68.8% and 31.2% of the patients in the combination and the monotherapy groups, respectively. These data suggest that combination of a α 1-blocker with HESr may result in greater clinically meaningful improvements in LUTS compared to α 1-blocker monotherapy [266].

Practical considerations: Available RCTs do not use the same endpoints (e.g., IPSS). More studies on the use of HESr in combination with other pharmacotherapeutic agents for male LUTS are pending. There is a need to define the subpopulation of patients who will benefit most from therapy with HESr.

Summary of evidence	LE
Hexane extracted <i>Serenoa repens</i> improves Q_{max} and results in fewer voids/night (0.64 [95% CI: 0.98 to 0.31]) compared to placebo.	2
Hexane extracted <i>Serenoa repens</i> has a very limited negative impact on sexual function.	2

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer hexane extracted <i>Serenoa repens</i> to men with LUTS who want to avoid any potential adverse events especially related to sexual function.	Weak
Inform the patient that the magnitude of efficacy may be modest.	Strong

5.2.7 Combination therapies

5.2.7.1 Alpha 1-blockers + 5 Alpha reductase inhibitors

Mechanism of action: Combination therapy consists of an α 1-blocker (Section 5.2.1) together with a 5-ARI (Section 5.2.2). The α 1-blocker exhibits clinical effects within hours or days, whereas the 5-ARI needs several months to develop full clinical efficacy. Finasteride has been tested in clinical trials with alfuzosin, terazosin, doxazosin or terazosin, and dutasteride with tamsulosin.

Efficacy: Several studies have investigated the efficacy of combination therapy against an α 1-blocker, 5-ARI, or placebo alone. Initial studies with follow-up periods of six to twelve months demonstrated that the α 1-blocker was superior to finasteride in symptom reduction, whereas combination therapy of both agents was not superior to α 1-blocker monotherapy [167, 168, 267]. In studies with a placebo arm, the α 1-blocker was consistently more effective than placebo, but finasteride was not. Data at one year in the MTOPS study showed similar results [65].

Long-term data (four years) from the MTOPS and CombAT studies showed that combination treatment is superior to monotherapy for symptoms and Q_{max} , and superior to α 1-blocker alone in reducing the risk of AUR or need for surgery [65, 151, 152].

The CombAT study demonstrated that combination treatment is superior to either monotherapy regarding symptoms and flow rate starting from month nine, and superior to α 1-blocker for AUR and the need for surgery after eight months [152]. Thus, the differences in MTOPS may reflect different inclusion and exclusion criteria and baseline patient characteristics.

Discontinuation of the α 1-blocker after six to nine months of combination therapy was investigated in an RCT and an open-label multicentre trial [268, 269]. The first trial evaluated the combination of tamsulosin with dutasteride and the impact of tamsulosin discontinuation after six months [268], with almost three quarters of patients reporting no worsening of symptoms. However, patients with severe symptoms (IPSS > 20) at baseline may benefit from longer combination therapy.

A more recent trial evaluated the symptomatic outcome of finasteride monotherapy at three and nine months after discontinuation of nine-month combination therapy [269]. Lower urinary tract symptom improvement after combination therapy was sustained at three months (IPSS difference 1.24) and nine months (IPSS difference 0.4). The limitations of the studies include the short duration of the studies and the short follow-up period after discontinuation.

In both the MTOPS and CombAT studies, combination therapy was superior to monotherapy in preventing clinical progression as defined by an IPSS increase of at least four points, AUR, UTI, incontinence, or an increase in creatinine > 50%. The MTOPS study found that the risk of long-term clinical progression (primarily due to increasing IPSS) was reduced by 66% with combined therapy vs. placebo and to a greater extent than with either finasteride or doxazosin monotherapy (34% and 39%, respectively) [65]. In addition, finasteride

(alone or in combination), but not doxazosin alone, significantly reduced both the risks of AUR and the need for BPO-related surgery over the four-year study. In the CombAT study, combination therapy reduced the relative risks of AUR by 68%, BPO-related surgery by 71%, and symptom deterioration by 41% compared with tamsulosin, after four years [270]. To prevent one case of urinary retention and/or surgical treatment, thirteen patients need to be treated for four years with dutasteride and tamsulosin combination therapy compared to tamsulosin monotherapy while the absolute risk reduction (risk difference) was 7.7%.

The CONDUCT study compared efficacy and safety of a fixed-dose combination of dutasteride and tamsulosin to a WW approach with the potential initiation of tamsulosin (step-up approach) in a two-year RCT with a total of 742 patients. In both arms detailed lifestyle advice was given. This fixed-dose combination resulted in a rapid and sustained improvement in men with moderate LUTS at risk of disease progression, the difference in IPSS at 24 months was 5.4 in the active arm and 3.6 in the placebo arm [271]. Furthermore, tamsulosin plus dutasteride significantly reduced the relative risk of clinical progression (mainly characterised as a worsening in symptoms) by 43.1% when compared with WW, with an absolute risk reduction of 11.3% (number needed to treat [NNT] = 9).

The influence of baseline variables on changes in IPSS after combination therapy with dutasteride plus tamsulosin or either monotherapy was tested based on the four-year results of the CombAT study. Combination therapy provided consistent improvement of LUTS over tamsulosin across all analysed baseline variables at 48 months [272].

A combination of the 5-ARI finasteride and tadalafil 5 mg was tested in a large scale RCT against finasteride monotherapy. This study supports the concept of this novel combination therapy and is described in more detail in section 5.2.5 [248].

Tolerability and safety: Adverse events for both drug classes have been reported with combination treatment [65, 151, 152]. The adverse events observed during combination treatment were typical of α 1-blockers and 5-ARIs. The frequency of adverse events was significantly higher for combination therapy. The MTOPS study demonstrated that the incidence of treatment related adverse events is higher during the first year of combined treatment between doxazosin and finasteride [273]. A meta-analysis measuring the impact of medical treatments for LUTS/BPH on ejaculatory function, reported that combination therapy with α 1-blockers and 5-ARIs resulted in a three-fold increased risk of EjD compared with each monotherapy [162].

Practical considerations: Compared with α 1-blockers or 5-ARI monotherapy, combination therapy results in a greater improvement in LUTS and increase in Q_{max} and is superior in prevention of disease progression. However, combination therapy is also associated with a higher rate of adverse events. Combination therapy should therefore be prescribed primarily in men who have moderate-to-severe LUTS who are at risk of disease progression (higher prostate volume, higher PSA concentration, advanced age, higher PVR, lower Q_{max} , etc.). Combination therapy should only be used when long-term treatment (more than twelve months) is intended, and patients should be informed of this. Discontinuation of the α 1-blocker after six months might be considered in men with moderate LUTS.

Summary of evidence	LE
Long-term data (four years) from the MTOPS and CombAT studies showed that combination treatment is superior to monotherapy for symptoms and Q_{max} , and superior to α 1-blocker alone in reducing the risk of AUR or need for surgery.	1b
The MTOPS study found that the risk of long-term clinical progression (primarily due to increasing IPSS) was reduced by 66% with combined therapy vs. placebo and to a greater extent than with either finasteride or doxazosin monotherapy.	1b
The CombAT study found that combination therapy reduced the relative risks of AUR by 68%, BPH-related surgery by 71%, and symptom deterioration by 41% compared with tamsulosin, after four years.	1b
Adverse events of both drug classes are seen with combined treatment using α 1-blockers and 5-ARIs.	1b

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer combination treatment with an α 1-blocker and a 5 α -reductase inhibitor to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS and an increased risk of disease progression (e.g. prostate volume > 40 mL).	Strong

5.2.7.2 Alpha 1-blockers + muscarinic receptor antagonists

Mechanism of action: Combination treatment consists of an α 1-blocker together with an antimuscarinic aiming to antagonise both α 1-adrenoceptors and muscarinic receptors. The possible combinations have not all been tested in clinical trials to date.

Efficacy: Several RCTs and prospective studies investigated combination therapy, lasting four to twelve weeks, either as an initial treatment in men with OAB and presumed BPO or as a sequential treatment for storage symptoms persisting while on an α 1-blocker [195, 206, 270, 274-281]. Combination treatment is more efficacious in reducing urgency, UUI, voiding frequency, nocturia, or IPSS compared with α 1-blockers or placebo alone, and improves QoL [206, 281]. A SR showed that combination therapy of tolterodine and an α 1-blocker was significantly more efficacious than either monotherapy for 24-hours and night voiding frequency, and 24-hours urgency episodes [206].

One trial used the α 1-blocker naftopidil (not registered in most European countries) with and without antimuscarinics [282]. A high proportion of men with voiding and storage LUTS need to add anticholinergics after α 1-blocker monotherapy, particularly those with longer duration of symptoms at presentation, and men with storage symptoms and a small prostate volume [283].

Symptom improvement is higher regardless of PSA concentration with combination therapy, whereas tolterodine alone improved symptoms mainly in men with a serum PSA of < 1.3 ng/mL [207].

Persistent LUTS during α 1-blocker treatment can be reduced by the additional use of an antimuscarinic, [270, 274, 280, 284, 285]. Two SRs of the efficacy and safety of antimuscarinics in men suggested that combination treatment provides significant benefit [286, 287]. In a meta-analysis of sixteen studies with 3,548 patients with BPH/OAB, initial combination treatment of an α 1-blocker with anticholinergic medication improved storage symptoms and QoL compared to α 1-blocker monotherapy without causing significant deterioration of voiding function [288]. There was no difference in total IPSS and Q_{\max} between the two groups.

Effectiveness of therapy is evident primarily in those men with moderate-to-severe storage LUTS [289]. Long term use of combination therapy has been reported in patients receiving treatment for up to one year, showing symptomatic response is maintained, with a low incidence of AUR [290]. In men with moderate-to-severe storage symptoms, voiding symptoms and PVR < 150 mL, the reduction in symptoms using combination therapy is associated with patient-relevant improvements in health related QoL compared with placebo and α 1-blocker monotherapy [291].

The intake of fixed-dose combination tablet containing solifenacin 6 mg and tamsulosin 0.4 mg improved OAB-q symptom bother in > 80% of LUTS/BPH patients not adequately responding to monotherapy, with a high treatment persistence (77% at weeks 40 to 52), and a low risk of AUR [292]. Combined behavioural and drug therapy yielded greater improvements in OAB symptoms than drug therapy alone, but not behavioural therapy alone in a RCT evaluating the effectiveness of combined behavioural strategies and drug therapy for OAB symptoms in men [293].

Tolerability and safety: Adverse events of both drug classes are seen with combined treatment using α 1-blockers and antimuscarinics. The most common side-effect is dry mouth. Some side-effects (e.g. dry mouth or ejaculation failure) may show increased incidence which cannot simply be explained by summing the incidence with the drugs used separately. Increased PVR may be seen, but is usually not clinically significant, and risk of AUR is low up to one year of treatment [203, 286, 294]. Antimuscarinics do not cause evident deterioration in Q_{\max} used in conjunction with an α 1-blocker in men with OAB symptoms [281, 295].

A recent RCT investigated safety in terms of maximum detrusor pressure and Q_{\max} for solifenacin (6 mg or 9 mg) with tamsulosin in men with LUTS and BOO compared with placebo [296]. The combination therapy was non-inferior to placebo for the primary urodynamic variables; Q_{\max} was increased vs. placebo [296].

Practical considerations: Class effects are likely to underlie efficacy and QoL using an α 1-blocker and antimuscarinic. Trials used mainly storage symptom endpoints, were of short duration, and included only men with low PVR volumes at baseline. Therefore, measuring PVR is recommended during combination treatment.

Summary of evidence	LE
Combination treatment with α 1-blockers and antimuscarinics is effective for improving LUTS-related QoL impairment.	2
Combination treatment with α 1-blockers and antimuscarinics is more effective for reducing urgency, UUI, voiding frequency, nocturia, or IPSS compared with α 1-blockers or placebo alone.	2
Adverse events of both drug classes are seen with combined treatment using α 1-blockers and antimuscarinics.	1

There is a low risk of AUR using α 1-blockers and antimuscarinics in men known to have a PVR volume of < 150 mL.	2
---	---

Recommendations	Strength rating
Use combination treatment of a α 1-blocker with a muscarinic receptor antagonist in patients with moderate-to-severe LUTS if relief of storage symptoms has been insufficient with monotherapy with either drug.	Strong
Do not prescribe combination treatment in men with a post-void residual volume > 150 mL.	Weak

5.2.7.3 Alpha 1-blockers + beta-3 agonist

Mechanism of action: Combination therapy consists of an α 1-blocker (Section 5.2.1) together with a beta-3-agonist (Section 5.2.4) as an add-on therapy in males receiving α 1-blockers with persisting OAB symptoms.

Efficacy: The MATCH study explored the effect of the addition of mirabegron 50 mg to tamsulosin 0.2 mg compared to tamsulosin plus placebo in 544 patients [297]. A statistically significant difference of 0.52 voids per day was seen in favour of mirabegron. Total IPSS score also improved but was not significant between the groups. Another RCT evaluated add-on therapy with mirabegron for OAB symptoms persisting after treatment with tamsulosin 0.2 mg daily in men with BPO [298]. Combination therapy was associated with greater improvements in OAB symptom score, in urinary urgency and daytime frequency as well as the storage sub-score of IPSS and QoL index compared to monotherapy with tamsulosin [299].

The PLUS phase IV trial [298] compared mirabegron and placebo in a population of males treated with a standard dose of tamsulosin 0.4 mg. After a four-week run-in period of treatment with tamsulosin 0.4 mg alone, 715 patients were randomised between placebo and mirabegron 25 mg, upgraded to 50 mg after one month. While mean number of micturition's were significantly reduced in the experimental arm, the effect size was deemed as low (mean adjusted difference of 0.39 voids per day). Similar results were seen for mean voided volume and urgency episodes, but total IPSS, IPSS sub-scores and OAB-q symptom score were not significantly different between the groups.

An RCT comparing the efficacy of mirabegron 50 mg or fesoterodine 4 mg add-on therapy to silodosin in LUTS patients with persisting OAB symptoms reported that at three months, fesoterodine add-on therapy showed a significantly greater improvement than mirabegron add-on therapy in OAB symptom score and urgency score and IPSS-QoL score [220]. Fesoterodine was also superior in alleviating DO.

Tolerability and safety: In the MATCH study main adverse events were in line with previous trials, and cardiovascular events were uncommon in the studied populations [297]. The PLUS phase IV trial also reported adverse events similar to those seen in previous trials (hypertension, headache and nasopharyngitis being the most frequent) [298]. There were six episodes of retention recorded (1.7%) and overall, no clinically significant specific change was seen in Q_{max} and PVR. An open-label, randomised, 2-arm, 2-sequence study reported that the addition of mirabegron or tamsulosin to patients under tamsulosin or mirabegron mono therapy did not cause clinically relevant changes in cardiovascular safety or safety profiles [300].

Solifenacin and mirabegron were also compared in another RCT that has shown comparable efficacy but a better safety profile for mirabegron [301].

Practical considerations: Add-on therapy with mirabegron in patients with remaining symptoms under α 1-blocker therapy has been evaluated only in short-term clinical trials. The short-term benefit remains uncertain with a low effect size in urinary frequency compared to placebo, and more studies with longer follow-up are required.

Summary of evidence	LE
Combination treatment with α 1-blockers and mirabegron results in a slight decrease of number of voids and urgency episodes per day compared with α 1-blockers alone.	1b
Adverse events of both drug classes are seen with combined treatment using α 1-blockers and mirabegron.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Use combination treatment of a α 1-blocker with mirabegron in patients with persistent storage LUTS after treatment with α 1-blocker monotherapy.	Weak

Note: All patients should be counselled about pharmacological treatment related adverse events in order to select the most appropriate treatment for each individual patient.

5.3 Surgical treatment

Surgical treatment is one of the cornerstones of LUTS/BPO management. Based on its ubiquitous availability, as well as its efficacy, monopolar TURP (M-TURP) has long been considered as the reference technique for the surgical management of LUTS/BPO. However, in recent years various techniques have been developed with the aim of providing a safe and effective alternative to M-TURP. Previously, the surgical section of the Guidelines was based on technology rather than surgical approach. As the clinical reality is primarily reflected by surgical approach and not necessarily by a specific technology, the chapter on surgical management has been restructured. It is now divided into the following five sections:

1. Resection;
2. Enucleation;
3. Vaporisation;
4. Alternative ablative techniques; and
5. Non-ablative techniques.

In addition, most of the studies are restricted by prostate size, which is also reflected in the present Guidelines. Notably, only a small fraction of RCTs are performed in patients with a prostate > 80 mL; therefore, high-level evidence for larger prostates are limited.

Based on Panel consensus, timeframes defining short-, mid- and long-term follow-up of patients submitted to surgical treatments are twelve, 36, and over 36 months, respectively. The durability of a technique is reflected by the re-operation rate during follow-up, the failure to wean patients off medication as well as the initiation of novel LUTS medication after surgery. However, for the majority of techniques only the re-operation rate is reported, and clinicians should inform patients that long-term surgical RCTs are often lacking. Some patients value sexual function and perceived higher safety over maximum efficacy and it is not therefore surprising that some patients consciously choose an alternative ablative or non-ablative technique despite the knowledge that it might not be their definitive treatment. In contrast, many urologists are critical about these procedures due to their inferior relief of BOO.

Recommendations on new devices or interventions will only be included in the Guidelines once supported by a minimum level of evidence. To clarify this the Panel have published their position on certainty of evidence (CoE) [302]. In summary, a device or technology is only included once supported by RCTs looking at both efficacy and safety, with adequate follow-up, and secondary studies to confirm the reproducibility and generalisability of the first pivotal studies [302]. Otherwise, there is a danger that a single pivotal study can be over exploited by device manufacturers. Studies that are needed include proof of concept, RCTs on efficacy and safety, as well as cohort studies with a broad range of inclusion and exclusion criteria to confirm both reproducibility and generalisability of the benefits and harms [302]. The panel assesses the quality of all RCTs and if they do not meet the standard required the intervention will continue to have no recommendation i.e., an RCT does not guarantee inclusion in the Guidelines.

In addition, the Guidelines continues to include techniques under investigation. These are devices or technologies that have shown promising results in initial studies; however, they do not meet the aforementioned criteria yet to provide a CoE which allows the Panel to regard these devices or technologies as recommended alternatives. To account for evolving evidence, recommendations for some techniques under investigation have been made; however, these techniques remain under investigation until further studies provide the recommended CoE.

5.3.1 **Resection of the prostate**

5.3.1.1 *Monopolar and bipolar transurethral resection of the prostate*

Mechanism of action: Transurethral resection of the prostate is either performed in a M-TURP or bipolar TURP (B-TURP) fashion. Transurethral resection of the prostate removes tissue from the transition zone of the gland in various degrees resulting in a volume and PSA reduction of 25 -58%. Contrary to M-TURP, in B-TURP systems, the energy does not travel through the body to reach a skin pad. Bipolar circuitry is completed locally; energy is confined between an active (resection loop) and a passive pole situated on the resectoscope tip ("true" bipolar systems) or the sheath ("quasi" bipolar systems) using normal saline for irrigation thereby eliminating transurethral resection syndrome (TUR-syndrome) [303, 304].

Efficacy: In a meta-analysis of twenty RCTs with a maximum follow-up of five years, M-TURP resulted in a substantial mean Q_{max} improvement (+162%), a significant reduction in IPSS (-70%), QoL score (-69%), and PVR (-77%) [305]. Monopolar-TURP delivers durable outcomes as shown by studies with a follow-up of eight to 22 years [306]. One study with a mean follow-up of thirteen years reported a significant and sustained decrease in most symptoms and improvement in urodynamic parameters. Failures were associated with detrusor underactivity (DUA) rather than re-growth of BPH [103]. A second prostatic operation, usually

re-TURP, has been reported at a constant annual rate of approximately 1-2%. A SR analysing 29 RCTs found a retreatment rate of 2.6% after a mean follow-up of sixteen months [307]. Data from an Austrian nationwide study of two cohorts totalling 41,059 men submitted to M-TURP showed that the overall retreatment rates (re-TURP, urethrotomy and bladder neck incision) remained unchanged during the last decade (0.9%, 3.7%, 9.5% and 12.7% at three months, one year, five years, and eight years, respectively), and that the respective incidence of re-TURP was 0.8%, 2.4%, 6.1% and 8.3%, respectively [308, 309].

Bipolar TURP is the most widely investigated alternative to M-TURP. Pooled results from 59 RCTs have been reported to date [310]. Early pooled results as well as at twelve months, concluded that no clinically relevant differences exist in short-term efficacy (IPSS, QoL score and Q_{max}) [310, 311]. Subsequent meta-analyses supported these conclusions though trial quality was generally poor [305, 312-315]. The largest meta-analysis published to date, confirmed that B-TURP compared to M-TURP results in little to no difference in urological symptoms and bother (IPSS and QoL score) at twelve months [310]. Data from RCTs with mid- to long-term follow-up (up to 60 months) showed no differences in efficacy parameters [316-324]. A meta-analysis of RCTs comparing B-TURP vs. M-TURP, reported similar efficacy at 36 months in terms of IPSS, and Q_{max} [325].

A meta-analysis was conducted to evaluate the quasi-bipolar transurethral resection in saline (TURis), Olympus Medical system vs. M-TURP. Ten unique RCTs (1,870 patients) were included, and it was concluded that TURis was of equivalent efficacy to M-TURP [326].

Tolerability and safety: Peri-operative mortality and morbidity of M-TURP have decreased over time, but morbidity remains considerable (0.1% and 11.1%, respectively) [327]. Data from an Austrian nationwide study of two cohorts totalling 41,059 men submitted to M-TURP showed a 20% reduction in mortality rate over time, to 0.1% at 30 days and 0.5% at 90 days [308, 309].

The risk of TUR-syndrome decreased to < 1.1% [307, 328]. Data from 10,654 M-TURPs reported bleeding requiring transfusion in 2.9% [327]. Short- to mid-term complications reported in an analysis of RCTs using M-TURP as a comparator were: bleeding requiring transfusion 2% (0-9%), TUR-syndrome 0.8% (0-5%), AUR 4.5% (0-13.3%), clot retention 4.9% (0-39%), and UTI 4.1% (0-22%) [305]. Long-term complications of M-TURP comprise UI, urinary retention and UTIs, bladder neck contracture (BNC), urethral stricture, retrograde ejaculation and ED [307].

Early pooled results concluded that no differences exist in short-term urethral stricture/BNC rates, but B-TURP is preferable to M-TURP due to a more favourable peri-operative safety profile (elimination of TUR-syndrome; lower clot retention/blood transfusion rates; shorter irrigation, catheterisation, and possibly hospitalisation times) [311]. Subsequent meta-analyses supported these conclusions [305, 312-315, 325]; however, trial quality was relatively poor and limited follow-up might cause under-reporting of late complications, such as urethral stricture/BNC [311]. The largest meta-analysis published to date, concluded that B-TURP compared to M-TURP reduced TUR-syndrome and blood transfusion events by twenty and 28 fewer events per 1,000 participants, respectively [310]. The study also concluded that B-TURP may carry a similar risk of UI and may result in similar rates of re-TURP in the short-term (four fewer events and one more re-TURP per 1000 participants, respectively), compared to M-TURP [310]. An RCT based meta-analysis has shown that TURis reduces the risk of TUR-syndrome and the need for blood transfusion compared to M-TURP [315]. It was concluded that TURis is associated with improved peri-operative safety, eliminating the risk of TUR-syndrome, reducing the risk of blood transfusion/clot retention and hospital stay. No significant difference was detected in urethral stricture rates.

Data from the vast majority of individual RCTs with mid- to long-term follow-up (up to 60 months), showed no differences between M-TURP and B-TURP in urethral stricture/BNC rates [316-324], in accordance with all published meta-analyses. However, two individual RCTs have shown opposing results [323, 329]. A significantly higher stricture (urethral stricture + BNC) rate was detected in the B-TURP arm performed with a “quasi” bipolar system (TURis, Olympus Medical) in patients with a prostate volume > 70 mL at 36-months follow-up [323]. In addition, a significantly higher BNC, but not urethral stricture, rate was detected in the B-TURP arm performed with a “true” bipolar system (Gyrus PK SuperPulse, Olympus Medical) in 137 patients at twelve months follow-up [329].

Randomised controlled trials using the erectile function domain of the IIEF (IIEF-ED) and the ejaculatory domain of the male sexual-health questionnaire (Ej-MSHQ) showed that M-TURP and B-TURP have a similar effect on erectile and ejaculatory function [330, 331]. Comparative evaluations of the effects on overall sexual function, quantified with IIEF-15, showed no differences between B-TURP and M-TURP at twelve months follow-up (erection, orgasmic function, sexual desire, intercourse satisfaction, overall satisfaction) [331, 332]. Furthermore, the largest meta-analysis published to date, showed that erectile function measured by IIEF-5 appears to be similar at twelve months follow-up after B-TURP and M-TURP [310].

A comparative study [333] evaluated the safety of B-TURP in patients taking therapeutic oral anticoagulation (phenprocoumon) or anti-platelet drug therapy (acetylsalicylic acid or clopidogrel), without stopping or bridging the medication. Outcomes under acetylsalicylic acid were comparable to the unmedicated control group. Under oral anticoagulation therapy catheterisation (median 41-hours vs. 24-hours) and hospitalisation time was longer (median four days vs. three days), AUR rate was higher (18% vs. 6%), but blood transfusion rates did not differ to the control group. Under anti-platelet therapy blood transfusion (19% vs. 1%) and re-hospitalisation rates (19% vs. 3%) were higher.

Practical considerations: Monopolar-TURP is an effective treatment for moderate-to-severe LUTS secondary to BPO. The choice should be based primarily on prostate volume (30-80 mL suitable for M-TURP). No studies on the optimal cut-off value exist, but the complication rates increase with prostate size [327]. The upper limit for M-TURP is suggested as 80 mL (based on Panel consensus, under the assumption that this limit depends on the surgeon's experience, choice of resectoscope size and resection speed), as surgical duration increases, there is a significant increase in the rate of complications and the procedure is safest when performed in under 90 minutes [334].

Bipolar TURP in patients with moderate-to-severe LUTS secondary to BPO has similar efficacy with M-TURP but lower peri-operative morbidity. The duration of improvements with B-TURP were documented in a number of RCTs with mid-term follow-up. Long-term results (up to five years) for B-TURP showed that safety and efficacy are comparable to M-TURP [316-324]. The choice of B-TURP should be based on equipment availability, surgeon's experience, and patient's preference.

Summary of evidence	LE
Bipolar- or M-TURP is the current standard surgical procedure for men with prostate sizes of 30-80 mL and bothersome moderate-to-severe LUTS secondary of BPO.	1a
Bipolar-TURP achieves short-, mid- and long-term results comparable with M-TURP, but B-TURP has a more favourable peri-operative safety profile.	1a

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer bipolar- or monopolar-transurethral resection of the prostate to surgically treat moderate-to-severe LUTS in men with prostate size of 30-80 mL.	Strong

5.3.1.2 Holmium laser resection of the prostate

With the advent of holmium laser enucleation of the prostate (section 5.3.2.3) and the fact that no relevant publications on holmium laser resection of the prostate (HoLRP) have been published since 2004, HoLRP of the prostate does not play a role in contemporary treatment algorithms.

5.3.1.3 Thulium:yttrium-aluminium-garnet laser vaporessection of the prostate

Mechanism of action: In the Thulium:yttrium-aluminium-garnet laser (Tm:YAG), a wavelength between 1,940 and 2,013 nm is emitted in continuous wave mode. The laser is primarily used in front-fire applications [335]. Different applications such as vaporessection (ThuVAP) have been published [336].

Efficacy: Several meta-analyses with pooled data from both RCTs, and non-RCTs have evaluated ThuVAP vs. M-TURP [337-339], and B-TURP [340-342]. The largest meta-analyses included nine RCTs and seven non-RCTs and reported no clinically relevant differences in efficacy (IPSS, QoL score and Q_{max}) between ThuVAP and M-TURP or B-TURP at twelve months [341]. A multicentre, RCT with 410 men reported that ThuVAP and TURP are equivalent in terms of IPSS but not Q_{max} , with TURP deemed superior at twelve months follow-up [343]. The beneficial effect of TURP in terms of Q_{max} was strengthened in men aged < 70 years and in those diagnosed with LUTS rather than urinary retention. No differences in individual patient-reported urinary symptoms were seen between arms, with the exception of some evidence to indicate potential reduction in nocturia in the TURP arm. Data from one RCT with long-term follow-up showed no difference in efficacy and re-operation rates between ThuVAP and M-TURP (2.1% vs. 4.1%, respectively) [344]. A prospective multicentre study on ThuVAP, including 2,216 patients, showed durable post-operative improvement in IPSS, QoL, Q_{max} , and PVR for the entire eight years of follow-up [345].

Tolerability and safety: In a number of meta-analyses longer operation times, shorter catheterisation/hospitalisation times and less blood loss without significant differences in transfusion rates or in any other short-term complication rates have been reported for ThuVAP compared to TURP [337-342]. A significantly higher transfusion rate was reported after M-TURP in two meta-analyses [339, 341]. However, overall RCT quality was relatively low with limited follow-up potentially accounting for under-reporting of late complications,

such as urethral stricture/BNC [341]. A multicentre RCT with 410 men, followed up for twelve months reported that ThuVAP and TURP show similar operation, catheterisation, and hospitalisation times between arms with no difference in the frequency or severity of surgical complications or in blood transfusions rate or haemoglobin change [343, 346]. Patients with urinary retention had similarly positive outcomes to those with LUTS [343, 346]. Data from three RCTs with mid- to long-term follow-up (eighteen to 48 months) showed no differences in late complication rates between ThuVAP and TURP [344, 347, 348].

Haemoglobin drop was significantly higher in the bridging group in a retrospectively analysed case series of 103 patients who underwent ThuVAP and received either low molecular weight heparin bridging or continued antiplatelet/anticoagulant therapy [349].

Practical considerations: As a limited number of RCTs with mid- to long-term follow-up support the efficacy of ThuVAP, there is a need for ongoing investigation of the technique.

Summary of evidence	LE
Laser vaporesction of the prostate using Tm:YAG laser (ThuVAP) has similar operation, catheterisation and hospitalisation times compared to TURP. ThuVAP and TURP are equivalent in terms of IPSS but not Q_{max} , with TURP deemed superior at twelve months follow-up. ThuVAP and TURP show similar short-term safety. Mid- to long-term results on efficacy and safety compared to TURP are very limited.	1b

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer laser resection of the prostate using Tm:YAG laser (ThuVAP) as an alternative to transurethral resection of the prostate.	Weak

5.3.1.4 Transurethral incision of the prostate

Mechanism of action: Transurethral incision of the prostate (TUIP) involves incising the bladder outlet without relevant tissue removal. Transurethral incision of the prostate is conventionally performed with Collins knife using electrocautery; however, alternative energy sources such as holmium laser may be used [350]. The mainstay of this technique is in prostate sizes < 30 mL without a middle lobe.

Efficacy: An RCT comparing conventional TUIP vs. TUIP using holmium laser in prostates ≤ 30 mL with a follow-up of twelve months, found both procedures to be equally effective in relieving BOO with similarly low re-operation rates [350]. A meta-analysis of ten RCTs found similar LUTS improvements and lower but significant improvements in Q_{max} for TUIP [351]. In this meta-analysis, an upper limit of prostate size was reported as an entry criterion for eight studies with five < 30 mL and three < 60 mL. A meta-analysis of six trials showed that re-operation was more common after TUIP (18.4%) than after M-TURP (7.2%) [351].

Tolerability and safety: An RCT comparing conventional TUIP vs. TUIP using holmium laser reported both procedures to be safe with low complication rates; however, the operation time and retrograde ejaculation rate was significantly lower in the conventional TUIP arm [350]. No cases of TUR-syndrome have been recorded after TUIP. The risk of bleeding after TUIP is small [351].

Practical considerations: Transurethral incision of the prostate is an effective treatment for moderate-to-severe LUTS secondary to BPO. The choice between M-TURP and TUIP should be based primarily on prostate volume (< 30 mL TUIP) [351].

Summary of evidence	LE
Transurethral incision of the prostate shows similar efficacy and safety to M-TURP for treating moderate-to-severe LUTS secondary to BPO in men with prostates < 30 mL.	1a
No case of TUR-syndrome has been recorded, the risk of bleeding requiring transfusion is negligible and retrograde ejaculation rate is significantly lower after TUIP, but the re-operation rate is higher compared to M-TURP.	1a
The choice between TUIP and TURP should be based primarily on prostate volume (< 30 mL and 30-80 mL suitable for TUIP and TURP, respectively).	4

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer transurethral incision of the prostate to surgically treat moderate-to-severe LUTS in men with prostate size < 30 mL, without a middle lobe.	Strong

5.3.2 **Enucleation of the prostate**

5.3.2.1 **Open prostatectomy**

Mechanism of action: Open prostatectomy is the oldest surgical treatment for moderate-to-severe LUTS secondary to BPO. Obstructive adenomas are enucleated using the index finger, approaching from within the bladder (Freyer procedure) or through the anterior prostatic capsule (Millin procedure). It is used for substantially enlarged glands (> 80-100 mL).

Efficacy: Open prostatectomy reduces LUTS by 63-86% (12.5-23.3 IPSS points), improves QoL score by 60-87%, increases mean Q_{max} by 375% (+16.5-20.2 mL/s), and reduces PVR by 86-98%. Efficacy is maintained for up to six years [352-357]. Data from an Austrian nationwide study of 1,286 men submitted to OP showed that the endourological re-intervention rates after primary OP were 0.9%, 3.0%, 6.0%, and 8.8%, at three months, one year, five years, and eight years, respectively [9].

Two meta-analyses [358, 359] evaluated the overall efficacy of OP performed via a transvesical approach vs. two transurethral enucleation techniques for treating patients with large glands, namely bipolar transurethral enucleation of the prostate (B-TUEP) and holmium laser enucleation of the prostate (HoLEP). Five RCTs compared OP with B-TUEP [357, 360-363] and four RCTs compared OP with HoLEP [352, 353, 364, 365]. At three, six, twelve and 24-months follow-up there were no significant differences in Q_{max} [359]. Post-void residual, PSA, IPSS and QoL score showed no significant differences during twelve-months follow-up [359]. Open prostatectomy and HoLEP had similar improvements regarding Q_{max} , IPSS score and re-operation rates after five years in one RCT [352].

Tolerability and safety: Two meta-analyses evaluated the overall safety of OP performed via a transvesical approach vs. B-TUEP and HoLEP [358, 359]. Operation time did not differ significantly between OP and B-TUEP but was significantly shorter for OP compared to HoLEP. Catheterisation and hospitalisation time were significantly longer for OP, which was also associated with more blood transfusions. There were no significant differences regarding other complications. There was no significant difference in IIEF-5 at three, six, twelve and 24-months follow-up.

Open prostatectomy mortality has decreased significantly during the past two decades (< 0.25%) [356]. Data from a study of 1,286 men submitted to OP showed mortality rates of 0.2% at 30 days and 0.4% at 90 days [309]. The estimated transfusion rate was about 7-14% [352, 355, 356, 358]. Long-term complications include transient UI (up to 10%), BNC and urethral stricture (about 6%) [352-354, 358, 366].

Practical considerations: Open prostatectomy is the most invasive surgical method, but it is an effective and durable procedure for the treatment of LUTS/BPO. In the absence of an endourological armamentarium including a holmium laser or a bipolar system and with appropriate patient consent, OP is a reasonable surgical treatment of choice for men with prostates > 80 mL.

Summary of evidence	LE
Open prostatectomy is an effective and durable procedure for the treatment of LUTS/BPO, but it is the most invasive surgical method.	1b
Open prostatectomy shows similar short- and mid-term efficacy to B-TUEP and HoLEP for treating moderate-to-severe LUTS secondary to BPO in patients with large prostates.	1a
Open prostatectomy has a less favourable peri-operative safety profile compared to B-TUEP and HoLEP.	1a
The long-term functional results of OP are comparable to HoLEP.	1b

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer open prostatectomy in the absence of bipolar transurethral enucleation of the prostate and holmium laser enucleation of the prostate to treat moderate-to-severe LUTS in men with prostate size > 80 mL.	Strong

5.3.2.2 **Bipolar transurethral enucleation of the prostate**

Mechanism of action: Following the principles of bipolar technology (section 5.3.1.1), the obstructive adenoma is enucleated endoscopically by the transurethral approach. Currently, two technologies exist, namely plasmakinetic (PK) enucleation of the prostate (PKEP) and bipolar plasma enucleation of the prostate (BPEP) [363, 367, 368]. Bipolar transurethral enucleation of the prostate is followed by either morcellation [363, 369] or resection [367, 370-374] of the enucleated adenoma.

Efficacy: Two meta-analyses, reported similar efficacy at twelve months in terms of IPSS, QoL score and Q_{max} for B-TUEP (PKEP or BPEP) vs. B-TURP [375, 376]. Another meta-analysis evaluating B-TUEP vs. B-TURP, reported similar efficacy at 36 months in terms of IPSS, and Q_{max} [325]. One RCT evaluating PKEP vs. M-TURP reported a significant improvement in IPSS, QoL score, and Q_{max} , with urodynamically proven de-obstruction favouring PKEP at 36-months follow-up [371]. One RCT evaluating PKEP vs. B-TURP in patients with prostate volume > 80 mL reported no clinically relevant differences in IPSS, QoL score, and Q_{max} , at six months follow up [377]. Another RCT evaluating BPEP vs. B-TURP in patients with prostate volume > 80 mL reported not clinically relevant differences in IPSS, QoL score, Q_{max} and PVR at 24-months follow-up [378]. Two RCTs evaluated the mid-term efficacy of PKEP vs. B-TURP at 36 months [372, 373] and one RCT evaluated long-term efficacy at 60 months [374]. Efficacy was significantly better for PKEP in patients with large prostates at 36, 48 and 60 months [372, 374]. Comparative data on efficacy for B-TUEP vs. OP and the various forms of laser enucleation are presented in section 5.3.2.1 – 5.3.2.5, respectively.

Tolerability and safety: Two meta-analyses evaluating B-TUEP vs. B-TURP reported similar operation, catheterisation and hospitalisation times; lower acute urine retention rates; significantly reduced haemoglobin drop and blood transfusion rates; no difference in ED; and no difference in all other reported complication rates including urethral stricture/BNC rates for B-TUEP at 24-months follow-up [375, 376]. [378]. A meta-analysis evaluating PKEP vs. TURP reported that mid-term IIEF-5 scores were comparable [379]. Another meta-analysis reported less bleeding with B-TUEP compared to M-TURP but similar UI rates and AUR after catheter removal [325]. An RCT evaluating PKEP vs. M-TURP in patients with prostate volume < 80 mL and 36-month follow-up reported that PKEP is superior to M-TURP in terms of catheterisation, and hospitalisation time [371]. No significant differences between the arms were reported in operation time, blood transfusion rates, sexual function, or any other reported complications (TUR-syndrome, clot retention, incontinence, retrograde ejaculation, urethral structures/BNC) [371]. One RCT evaluating PKEP vs. B-TURP in patients' prostate volume > 80 mL and six months follow-up reported that PKEP is superior to B-TURP in terms of operation, catheterisation and hospitalisation time [377]. Significant differences were reported in blood transfusion, BNC and retrograde ejaculation rates favouring PKEP, but no differences in urethral stricture and ED rates were reported [377]. Another RCT evaluating BPEP vs. B-TURP in patients with prostate volume > 80 mL reported that BPEP had longer operative time but shorter catheterisation, hospitalisation time with no differences in blood transfusion, urethral stricture and UI rates at 24-months follow-up [378]. No difference in urethral stricture/BNC rates was reported at 60 months follow-up [374]. Comparative data on efficacy for B-TUEP vs. OP and the various forms of laser enucleation are presented in section 5.3.2.1 – 5.3.2.5, respectively.

Summary of evidence	LE
Bipolar transurethral PKEP shows favourable mid- to long-term efficacy compared to TURP.	1b
Bipolar transurethral PKEP has a favourable peri-operative safety profile and demonstrates similar mid- to long-term safety compared to TURP.	1b

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer bipolar transurethral (plasmakinetic) enucleation of the prostate to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS as an alternative to transurethral resection of the prostate.	Weak

5.3.2.3 Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate

Mechanism of action: The holmium:yttrium-aluminium garnet (Ho:YAG) laser (wavelength 2,140 nm) is a pulsed solid-state laser that is absorbed by water and water-containing tissues. Tissue coagulation and necrosis are limited to 3-4 mm, which is enough to obtain adequate haemostasis [380].

Efficacy: An initial meta-analysis reported no significant differences in short-term efficacy (Q_{max}) and re-intervention rates (4.3% vs. 8.8%) between HoLEP and M-TURP [381]; however, subsequent meta-analyses reported favourable short-term efficacy (Q_{max} and IPSS) for HoLEP [305, 338, 375, 382]. Another meta-analysis reported similar efficacy at 24-months in terms of IPSS, and Q_{max} [325]. Three meta-analyses evaluating HoLEP vs. B-TURP showed no significant differences in short-term efficacy (IPSS, QoL score and Q_{max}) [325, 375, 383]. One RCT comparing HoLEP with B-TURP in patients with prostate volume < 80 mL reported no significant difference in IPSS, QoL score and Q_{max} at 24-months [384]. One RCT comparing HoLEP with M-TURP in a small number of patients with mean prostate volume < 80 mL and a seven year follow-up found that the functional long-term results were comparable [385]. Another RCT comparing HoLEP with B-TURP in patients with prostate volume > 80 mL reported no significant difference in IPSS, QoL score and Q_{max} at 36 months, however, the overall re-treatment rate was significantly lower following HoLEP with less patients restarting α -blockers and less re-operations [386]. Comparative efficacy data for HoLEP vs. OP is presented in

section 5.3.2.1. One RCT evaluating HoLEP vs. PKEP in patients with mean prostate volume < 80 mL reported similar improvements in IPSS and Q_{\max} at twelve months follow-up [369]. An RCT comparing HoLEP vs. bipolar transurethral enucleation reported no significant difference in IPSS, QoL score, PVR, and Q_{\max} at one, three-, and twelve-months follow-up [387].

Tolerability and safety: Several meta-analyses found that HoLEP has longer operation times, shorter catheterisation and hospitalisation times, reduced blood loss, fewer blood transfusions but no significant differences in urethral strictures (2.6% vs. 4.4%) and stress urinary incontinence (SUI) (1.5% vs. 1.5%) rates compared to M-TURP [338, 375, 381, 382, 388]. Another meta-analysis reported that HoLEP has shorter catheterisation times, fewer blood transfusions, urethral strictures and UTIs but no significant differences in clot retention rates and AUR after catheter removal compared to M-TURP [325]. Three meta-analyses evaluated HoLEP vs. B-TURP [375, 383, 389]. One, reported longer operation times for HoLEP, but no significant differences in hospitalisation time or complication rates [375] whilst another reported no significant differences in operation and catheterisation times or short-term complication rates [383]. Data from a large national database on peri-operative outcomes of 2,869 laser enucleation of the prostate and 37,577 TURP procedures supports that laser enucleation of the prostate is associated with longer operation times, shorter hospitalisation times, similar complication rates (including transfusions, and re-operations), but lower rates of infectious complications [390]. A SR reported that HoLEP has lower AUR rates after catheter removal but similar haemoglobin drop, UTI, urethral stricture, and UI rates [325]. An RCT comparing HoLEP with B-TURP in patients with prostate volume < 80 mL reported longer operation time, shorter catheterisation and hospitalisation times and a lower risk for haemorrhage for HoLEP with no significant differences in blood transfusion rates or other complication rates at 24 months [384]. Another RCT comparing HoLEP with B-TURP in patients with prostate volume > 80 mL reported shorter operation, catheterisation and hospitalisation times and lower blood transfusion rates for HoLEP but no differences in complication rates including UI and IIEF-5 score at 36 months [386]. Comparative data on safety of HoLEP vs. OP are presented in section 5.3.2.1. One RCT evaluating HoLEP vs. PKEP in patients with mean prostate volume < 80 mL reported significantly shorter operation times for HoLEP, but similar catheterisation and hospitalisation times and complication rates at twelve months follow-up [369]. An RCT comparing HoLEP vs. bipolar B-TUEP demonstrated shorter operation and hospitalisation times and earlier catheter removal for HoLEP [387].

An RCT of pulse modulation in HoLEP (Virtual basket) demonstrated significantly less haemoglobin drop and reduced operation times when compared to conventional HoLEP [391].

Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate has been safely performed in patients using anticoagulant and/or antiplatelet medications [392, 393]. However, current limitations include: a lack of RCTs; limited data on short- and mid-term complications and bridging therapy; data presentation does not allow for separate interpretation of either antiplatelet and anticoagulant therapy.

A meta-analysis of seven RCTs evaluating HoLEP vs. TURP reported that short- and mid-term IIEF-5 scores were comparable, whilst long-term scores were significantly better for HoLEP [394]. Two other meta-analyses detected no difference in mid-term retrograde ejaculation rates [395].

The impact on erectile function and retrograde ejaculation is comparable between HoLEP and TURP [396, 397]. Erectile function did not decrease from baseline in either group; three quarters of sexually active patients had retrograde ejaculation after HoLEP. Data have shown that ejaculation and orgasm perception are the two most impacted domains after HoLEP [398]. Attempts to maintain ejaculatory function with HoLEP have been reported to be successful in up to 46.2% of patients [399].

An RCT comparing HoLEP vs. B-TUEP, reported shorter operation and hospitalisation times and earlier catheter removal for HoLEP [387].

Practical considerations: The experience of the surgeon is the most important factor affecting the overall occurrence of complications in HoLEP [400, 401]. Mentorship programmes are advised to improve surgical performance from both an institutional and personal learning curve perspective [402-404].

Summary of evidence	LE
Laser enucleation of the prostate using Ho:YAG laser (HoLEP) demonstrates similar mid- to long-term efficacy when compared to TURP.	1b
Laser enucleation of the prostate using Ho:YAG laser (HoLEP) demonstrates similar short-term safety when compared to TURP.	1a
Laser enucleation of the prostate using Ho:YAG laser (HoLEP) demonstrates longer operation times, but a more favourable peri-operative profile when compared to TURP.	1a

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer laser enucleation of the prostate using Ho:YAG laser (HoLEP) to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS as an alternative to transurethral resection of the prostate or open prostatectomy.	Strong

5.3.2.4 Thulium:yttrium-aluminium-garnet laser enucleation of the prostate

Mechanism of action: The Tm:YAG laser has been described in section 5.3.1.3. Enucleation using the Tm:YAG laser includes thulium vapoenucleation of the prostate (ThuVEP) and thulium Laser enucleation of the prostate (ThuLEP) (blunt enucleation).

Efficacy: Two meta-analyses evaluating ThuLEP vs. M-TURP and B-TURP reported no clinically relevant differences in short-term efficacy (Q_{max} , IPSS and QoL score) [325, 375]. An RCT with five years follow-up comparing ThuLEP with B-TURP found no difference between the two procedures for Q_{max} , IPSS, PVR, and QoL [405]. A meta-analysis [406] evaluating ThuLEP vs. HoLEP showed no clinically relevant differences in IPSS, QoL score and Q_{max} at twelve months in accordance with one RCT showing similar results at eighteen months [407]. Furthermore, ThuLEP and PKEP were compared in one RCT with twelve months follow-up with no difference with regard to efficacy [408]. There are mainly prospective case studies on ThuVEP showing a significant improvement in IPSS, Q_{max} , and PVR after treatment [409-412].

Tolerability and safety: Two meta-analyses evaluating ThuLEP vs. M-TURP and B-TURP reported a longer operation time and shorter catheterisation time for ThuLEP compared to M-TURP and a shorter hospitalisation time for ThuLEP compared to B-TURP [325, 375]. Lower blood transfusion rates compared to M-TURP, lower clot retention rates compared to B-TURP, and no difference in the other complication rates were also reported for ThuLEP [325, 375]. One meta-analysis [413] evaluating ThuLEP vs. HoLEP showed a significant difference in enucleation time favouring ThuLEP, but no significant differences in operation, catheterisation and hospitalisation times, and short-term complication rates. One RCT showed no urethral and bladder neck strictures at eighteen months after ThuLEP and HoLEP, respectively [407]. ThuLEP and PKEP were compared in one RCT with twelve months follow-up [408]. No significant difference in complication rates was detected, but haemoglobin level decrease and catheterisation time was significantly lower for ThuLEP. An RCT comparing ThuLEP with B-TURP reported a significant difference in IIEF-5 score favouring ThuLEP at twelve months [414].

In comparative studies ThuVEP shows high intra-operative safety [415], also in case series of patients with large prostates [409] and anticoagulation or bleeding disorders [410, 411]. A study focusing on post-operative complications after ThuVEP reported adverse events in 31% of cases, with 6.6% complications greater than Clavien grade 2 [416]. One case control study on ThuVEP with 48 month follow-up reported long-term durability of voiding improvements and overall re-operation rates of 2.4% [411].

Practical considerations: ThuLEP seems to offer similar efficacy and safety when compared to TURP, bipolar enucleation and HoLEP; whereas, ThuVEP is not supported by RCTs. Based on the limited number of RCTs there is a need for ongoing investigation of these techniques.

Summary of evidence	LE
Enucleation of the prostate using the Tm:YAG laser demonstrates similar efficacy when compared to M-TURP/bipolar transurethral (plasmakinetic) enucleation, HoLEP and B-TURP in the short-, mid-, and long-term, respectively.	1b
Enucleation of the prostate using the Tm:YAG laser (ThuLEP) demonstrates similar safety compared to TURP/bipolar transurethral (plasmakinetic) enucleation, and HoLEP in the short- and mid-term, respectively.	1b
Vapoenucleation of the prostate using a Tm:YAG laser (ThuVEP) seems to be safe in patients with large prostates and those receiving anticoagulant or antiplatelet therapy.	2b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer enucleation of the prostate using the Tm:YAG laser (ThuLEP, ThuVEP) to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS as an alternative to transurethral resection of the prostate, holmium laser enucleation or bipolar transurethral (plasmakinetic) enucleation.	Weak
Offer Tm:YAG laser enucleation of the prostate to patients receiving anticoagulant or antiplatelet therapy.	Weak

5.3.2.5 Diode laser enucleation of the prostate

Mechanism of action: For prostate surgery, diode lasers with a wavelength of 940, 980, 1,318, and 1,470 nm (depending on the semiconductor used) are marketed for vaporisation and enucleation. Only a few have been evaluated in clinical trials [385].

Efficacy: One RCT comparing 1,318 nm diode laser enucleation of the prostate (DiLEP) with B-TURP in patients with mean prostate volume < 80 mL reported no significant differences in IPSS, QoL score, Q_{\max} and PVR at six months follow-up [417]. Another RCT comparing 1,470 nm DiLEP with B-TURP in patients with mean prostate volume < 80 mL also reported no significant differences in IPSS, QoL score, Q_{\max} and PVR at twelve months follow-up [418]. In addition, three RCTs comparing 980 nm DiLEP with PKEP in patients with mean prostate volume < 80 mL [419, 420] and > 80 mL [421] reported no significant differences in IPSS, QoL score, Q_{\max} and PVR at twelve months follow-up. An RCT of DiLEP (980 nm) vs. HoLEP detected no significant difference in Q_{\max} , PVR, IPSS, and QoL within twelve months follow-up [422].

Tolerability and safety: One small RCT comparing 1,318 nm DiLEP with B-TURP in patients with mean prostate volume < 80 mL and six months follow-up reported a significantly longer operation time for DiLEP, but shorter catheterisation and hospitalisation times, as well as less blood loss (without differences in blood transfusion rates) [417]. No differences in complication rates were reported between the two arms [417]. Another RCT comparing 1,470 nm DiLEP with B-TURP in patients with prostate volume < 80 mL and twelve months follow-up reported significantly shorter operation, catheterisation, and hospitalisation times with less blood loss (without differences in blood transfusion rates) for DiLEP, with no differences in complication rates between the two arms [418]. Three RCTs comparing 980 nm DiLEP with PKEP in patients with prostate volume < 80 mL [419, 420] and > 80 mL [421] and twelve months follow-up reported conflicting peri-operative outcomes. All trials reported no differences in blood transfusion rates and complication rates [419-421]. An RCT of DiLEP (980 nm) vs. HoLEP with twelve months follow-up demonstrated no significant difference in peri-operative outcomes including operation and hospitalisation times [422].

Practical considerations: Diode laser enucleation seems to offer similar efficacy and safety when compared to either B-TURP or bipolar transurethral (plasmakinetic) enucleation. Based on the limited number of mainly low-quality RCTs, and controversial data on the retreatment rate, results for DiLEP should be evaluated in further higher quality RCTs.

Summary of evidence	LE
Laser enucleation of the prostate using the 1,318 nm or 1,470 laser showed comparable short-term efficacy and safety to B-TURP. Peri-operative parameters like blood loss, catheterisation time and hospital stay are in favour of diode enucleation.	1b
Laser enucleation of the prostate using the 980 nm laser showed comparable short-term efficacy and safety to bipolar transurethral (plasmakinetic) enucleation.	1b

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer 120-W 980 nm, 1,318 nm or 1,470 nm diode laser enucleation of the prostate to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS as a comparable alternative to bipolar transurethral (plasmakinetic) enucleation or bipolar transurethral resection of the prostate.	Weak

5.3.2.6 Enucleation techniques under investigation

5.3.2.6.1 Minimal invasive simple prostatectomy

Mechanism of action: The term minimal invasive simple prostatectomy (MISP) includes laparoscopic simple prostatectomy (LSP) [423] and robot-assisted simple prostatectomy (RASP) [424]. Both LSP and RASP are performed using different personalised techniques, based on the transcapsular (Millin) or transvesical (Freyer) approach.

Efficacy: A SR and meta-analysis showed that in 27 observational studies including 764 patients mean increase in Q_{\max} was 14.3 mL/s, and the mean improvement in IPSS was 17.2 [425]. There were no differences in improvements in Q_{\max} and IPSS [425]. A meta-analysis comparing MISP vs. OP reported no significant differences with regard to functional and symptom parameters between the two techniques [426]. A multicentre RCT with median follow-up of 26 months did not demonstrate any significantly different functional or peri-operative results between LSP, RASP and HoLEP [427].

Tolerability and safety: A meta-analysis comparing MISP vs. OP demonstrated shorter hospital stay, as well as blood loss and transfusion rates for MISP [426]. In comparative studies to OP, length of hospital stay, length of catheter use, and estimated blood loss were significantly lower in the MISP group, while the duration of surgery was longer. There were no differences in peri-operative complications between both procedures [425]. In a multicentre RCT comparing LSP, RASP and HoLEP LSP demonstrated significantly longer catheterisation times than RASP and HoLEP, whilst RASP and LSP showed longer hospitalisation times and lower rates of *de novo* bladder storage symptoms [427]. In a comparative analysis of robotic vs. OP for large-volume prostates, a propensity score-matched analysis was performed with five covariates. Robotic compared with OP demonstrated a significant shorter average length of hospital stay, but longer mean operative time. The robotic approach was associated with a lower estimated blood loss. Improvements in maximal flow rate, IPSS, QoL, PVR and post-operative PSA levels were similar for both groups. There was no difference in complications between the groups [428].

Practical considerations: Currently, most studies on MISP are of a retrospective nature. High-quality studies are needed to compare efficacy, safety, and hospitalisation times, learning curve and costs of MISP and both OP and endoscopic methods.

Summary of evidence	LE
Minimal invasive simple prostatectomy is feasible in men with prostate sizes > 80 mL needing surgical treatment; however, RCTs are needed.	2a

5.3.2.6.2 532 nm ('Greenlight') laser enucleation of the prostate

Two approaches for Potassium-Titanyl-Phosphate (KTP) and the lithium triborate (LBO) laser-based enucleation technique exist [429]. GreenLEP is an anatomical enucleation technique following the principle of blunt dissection of the adenoma with the sheath and laser energy for incision as described for ThuLEP [430]. A variation is the *in-situ* vaporisation of apically enucleated tissue, also referred to as anatomic vaporisation-incision technique [430, 431]. To date, no RCTs evaluating enucleation using the KTP/LBO laser have been carried out [432].

5.3.3 Vaporisation of the prostate

5.3.3.1 Bipolar transurethral vaporisation of the prostate

Mechanism of action: Bipolar transurethral vaporisation of the prostate (B-TUVP) utilises a bipolar electrode and a high-frequency generator to create plasma field (thin layer of highly ionized particles) to vaporise prostatic tissue [433]. Bipolar transurethral vaporisation of the prostate displays thinner (< 2 mm) coagulation zones [434], compared to monopolar TUVP (up to 10 mm) [435], potentially resulting in fewer irritative side-effects and SUI [434, 436, 437].

Efficacy: Bipolar-TUVP has been compared to TURP in thirteen RCTs, including a total of 1,244 men with a prostate size of < 80 mL [319, 438-449]. Early RCTs evaluated the PK B-TUVP system [438-442]; however, during the last decade, only the "plasma" B-TUVP system with the "mushroom- or button-like" electrode (Olympus, Medical) has been evaluated [319, 443-449]. Results have been pooled in three meta-analyses [305, 450, 451], and a narrative synthesis has been produced in two SRs [305, 452].

Follow-up in most RCTs is twelve months [438-441, 443-445, 447, 449] with the longest being 36 months in a small RCT (n = 40) and eighteen months in a subsequent RCT (n = 340); evaluating PK [442] and plasma B-TUVP [319], respectively. Pooled results from meta-analyses concluded that no significant differences exist in short-term efficacy (IPSS, QoL score, Q_{max} and PVR) between PK B-TUVP and TURP [305, 325, 451] and this was confirmed in a separate SR of seven RCTs [452]. However, the promising initial efficacy profile of the former may be compromised by inferior clinical outcomes (IPSS and Q_{max}) at mid-term. Higher quality RCTs with longer follow-up are necessary to draw definite conclusions on mid and long-term outcomes [305, 442].

Tolerability and safety: Early pooled results concluded that no statistically significant differences exist for intra-operative and short-term complications between PK B-TUVP and TURP, but peri-operative complications are significantly fewer after B-TUVP [305]. However, the results of a statistical analysis comparing pooled specific complication rates were not directly reported in this meta-analysis [305]. Mid-term complications (urethral stricture, ED, and retrograde ejaculation) are similar [442], but larger RCTs with longer follow-up are necessary to draw definite conclusions [305, 442]. A SR of seven RCTs comparing PK and plasma B-TUVP with TURP concluded that most RCTs shorter catheterisation (42.5 vs. 77.5 hours) and hospitalisation times (3.1 vs. 4.4 days) with B-TUVP [452], but another SR concluded that heterogeneity of RCTs, and methodological

limitations do not permit firm conclusions [305]. A meta-analysis reported that B-TUVP has shorter and similar catheterisation time compared to M-TURP and B-TURP, respectively; significantly fewer clot retentions/blood transfusions compared to M-TURP but not B-TURP; and no difference in other complication rates compared to either TURP technique [325]. A meta-analysis of six RCTs specifically evaluating plasma B-TUVP vs. TURP, concluded that no significant differences exist between the techniques in overall complication and transfusion rates [451]. However, a statistically significant difference was detected in major complication rates (Clavien 3, 4), including urethral stricture, severe bleeding necessitating re-operation and UI, and in the duration of catheterisation, favouring plasma B-TUVP.

Practical considerations: Bipolar-TUVP and PK TUVP have similar short-term efficacy to TURP, but with a favourable short-term safety profile. However, heterogeneity of RCTs, non-standardised techniques and methodological limitations do not permit firm conclusions, and multicentre, long-term RCTs are needed.

Summary of evidence	LE
Bipolar-TUVP and TURP have similar short-term efficacy.	1a
Plasmakinetic B-TUVP has a favourable peri-operative profile, similar mid-term safety but inferior mid-term efficacy compared to TURP.	1a
Plasma B-TUVP has a lower short-term major morbidity rate compared to TURP.	1a

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer bipolar transurethral vaporisation of the prostate as an alternative to transurethral resection of the prostate to surgically treat moderate-to-severe LUTS in men with a prostate volume of 30-80 mL.	Weak

5.3.3.2 532 nm ('Greenlight') laser vaporisation of the prostate

Mechanism of action: The KTP and LBO lasers have been described in section 5.3.2.6.2.

Efficacy: Meta-analyses of RCTs comparing photoselective vaporisation of the prostate (PVP) using the 80-W and 120-W lasers with TURP have reported no difference in Q_{max} and IPSS between 80-W or 120-W PVP and TURP [453, 454]. Another meta-analysis of four RCTs including 559 patients, on the 120-W laser, demonstrated no significant difference in functional and symptomatic parameters at 24-month follow-up when compared to TURP [455]. A meta-analysis of two RCTs reported similar efficacy of 120-W PVP, compared to M-TURP at 36-months follow-up [325].

The only available RCT for the 180-W laser reported non-inferiority to TURP in terms of IPSS, Q_{max} , PVR, prostate volume reduction, PSA decrease and QoL questionnaires. Efficacy outcomes were similar to TURP with stable results at 24-months follow-up [456].

One RCT comparing HoLEP to PVP, in patients with prostates > 60 mL, showed comparable symptom improvement, but significantly higher flow rates and lower PVR volume after HoLEP at short-term follow-up; in addition, PVP showed a 22% conversion rate to TURP [457].

One RCT compared B-TUVP with PVP with the 180-W XPS Laser. Comparable improvement in IPSS and Q_{max} were reported at 24-months follow-up [458].

Tolerability and safety: A meta-analysis of RCTs comparing the 80-W and 120-W lasers with TURP showed shorter catheterisation time (mean difference 32 hours) and length of hospital stay (mean difference 1.85 days) after PVP [305]. Blood transfusions and clot retention were less with PVP. No difference was noted in post-operative urinary retention, UTI, meatal stenosis, urethral stricture, or bladder neck stenosis [305]. A meta-analysis including trials with the 120-W laser likewise reported lower transfusion rates, catheterisation time and duration of hospital stay compared to TURP. Re-operation rates and operation time were in favour of TURP. No significant differences were demonstrated for treatment for urethral stricture, BNC, incidence of incontinence and UTI [455]. A meta-analysis confirmed that PVP was superior to both M-TURP/B-TURP with regard to catheterisation and to M-TURP but not to B-TURP with regard to transfusion rate and clot retention [325]. In an RCT comparing the 120-W HPS laser with TURP, with a follow-up of 36-months, the re-operation rate was significantly higher after PVP (11% vs. 1.8%) [459].

180-W Greenlight laser prostatectomy is non-inferior to TURP in terms of peri-operative complications. Re-operation free survival during a 24-month follow-up was comparable between the TURP-arm and the 180-W XPS laser-arm [456].

Based mostly on case series, the 80-,120- and 180-W Greenlight laser appears to be safe in high-risk patients undergoing anticoagulation treatment [460-463]; however, patients under anticoagulation therapy were either excluded from or represented a very small sample in currently available RCTs. In one

study, anticoagulated patients had significantly higher rates of bladder irrigation (17.2%) compared with those not taking anticoagulants (5.4%) [463]. In contrast, another retrospective study focusing on the 180-W LBO laser did not find any significant differences between patients receiving or not receiving anticoagulants [464]. A retrospective study of a mixed cohort of patients, treated with 80-W KTP PVP and 120-W LBO HPS, revealed that delayed gross haematuria was common in patients (33.8%) during an average follow-up of 33 months [465]. A retrospective review of a database of patients undergoing 180-W PVP, without interruption of anticoagulation therapy, had a 30.5% rate of peri-operative adverse events with a significant occurrence of high grade Clavien Dindo events [466].

Safety in patients with urinary retention, impaired detrusor contractility, elderly patients or prostates > 80 mL was shown in various prospective short-term non-randomised trials. No RCT including prostates > 100 mL has been reported; therefore, comparison of retreatment rates between prostate volumes of different sizes is not possible [467-469].

A meta-analysis of five RCTs comparing collectively all three “Greenlight” lasers with TURP detected no difference in retrograde ejaculation rates [395]. Additional studies have also reported no difference between OP/TURP and Greenlight PVP for erectile function [470, 471]. However, IIEF-5 scores were significantly decreased at six-, twelve-, and 24- months in patients with pre-operative IIEF-5 greater than nineteen [472].

No significant difference with respect to peri- and post-operative complications was reported in an RCT comparing B-TUVP and PVP with the 180-W XPS Laser. Redo TURP for recurrent adenoma was required in 9.8% (B-TUVP) and 1.7% (PVP) of the patients during 24-months follow-up, respectively [458].

Practical considerations: The 180-W XPS represents the current standard of generators for PVP; however, the number and quality of supporting publications are low, especially for large glands (> 100 mL), with no long-term follow-up.

Summary of evidence	LE
Laser vaporisation of the prostate using the 80-W KTP and the 120-W LBO laser (PVP) demonstrated higher intra-operative safety with regard to haemostatic properties when compared to TURP. Peri-operative parameters such as catheterisation time and hospital stay are in favour of PVP, whereas operation time and risk of re-operation are in favour of TURP. Short-term results for the 80-W KTP laser and mid-term results for the 120-W LBO laser were comparable to TURP.	1a
Laser vaporisation of the prostate using the 180-W LBO laser (PVP) demonstrated higher intra-operative safety with regard to haemostatic properties when compared to TURP. Peri-operative parameters such as catheterisation time and hospital stay were in favour of PVP, whereas operation time was in favour of TURP. Short- to mid-term results are comparable to TURP.	1b
Laser vaporisation of the prostate using the 80-W KTP and 120-W LBO lasers seems to be safe for the treatment of patients receiving antiplatelet or anticoagulant therapy.	2
Laser vaporisation of the prostate using the 180-W LBO laser seems to be safe for the treatment of patients receiving antiplatelet or anticoagulant therapy; however, the level of evidence available is low.	3

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer 80-W 532-nm Potassium-Titanyl-Phosphate (KTP) laser vaporisation of the prostate to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS with a prostate volume of 30-80 mL as an alternative to transurethral resection of the prostate (TURP).	Strong
Offer 120-W 532-nm Lithium Borate (LBO) laser vaporisation of the prostate to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS with a prostate volume of 30-80 mL as an alternative to TURP.	Strong
Offer 180-W 532-nm LBO laser vaporisation of the prostate to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS with a prostate volume of 30-80 mL as an alternative to TURP.	Strong
Offer laser vaporisation of the prostate using 80-W KTP, 120- or 180-W LBO lasers for the treatment of patients receiving antiplatelet or anticoagulant therapy with a prostate volume < 80 mL.	Weak

5.3.3.3 Vaporisation techniques under investigation

5.3.3.3.1 Diode laser vaporisation of the prostate

Mechanism of action: Diode lasers with a wavelength of 980 nm are marketed for prostate vaporisation; however, only a few have been evaluated in clinical trials [335].

Efficacy: Two RCTs for 120-W 980 nm diode laser vaporisation vs. M-TURP are available [473, 474]. The first RCT with 24-month follow-up reported similar efficacy (IPSS, Q_{max} and PVR) at one- and six -months. However, at twelve- and 24-months improvements in IPSS and Q_{max} were significantly in favour of TURP, and repeat

TURP was more frequent in the diode laser group [473]. The second RCT reported equivalent results for both interventions at three-month follow-up [474].

Tolerability and safety: A meta-analysis comparing diode laser vaporisation vs. M-TURP reported shorter catheterisation time and lower transfusion rates for diode laser vaporisation [325]. In an RCT reflecting on peri-operative and post-operative complications no significant differences were demonstrated for clot retention, AUR after catheter removal, UII and UTI [473]. Moreover, for late complications no significant differences could be demonstrated for re-operation rate, urethral stricture, bladder neck sclerosis, de novo sexual dysfunction and mean time of dysuria [473]. Published studies on 980 nm diode laser vaporisation indicate high haemostatic potential, although anticoagulants or platelet aggregation inhibitors were taken in 24% and 52% of patients, respectively [475, 476]. In a number of studies, a high rate of post-operative dysuria was reported [473, 475-477].

Early publications on diode vaporisation reported high re-operation rates (8-33%) and persisting SUI (9.1%) [473, 475-477].

Practical considerations: Diode laser vaporisation leads to similar improvements in clinical and symptomatic parameters during short-term follow-up and provides good haemostatic properties. Based on the limited number of mainly low quality RCTs, and controversial data on the retreatment rate, results for diode laser vaporisation should be evaluated in further higher quality RCTs.

Summary of evidence	LE
Laser vaporisation of the prostate using the 120-W 980 nm diode laser demonstrated high intra-operative safety with regard to haemostatic properties when compared to TURP. Peri-operative parameters like catheterisation time and hospital stay were in favour of diode lasers. Evidence is limited by the number and quality of the available studies.	1b
In a number of studies, post-operative complications such as severe storage symptoms and persisting incontinence, occurred with laser vaporisation of the prostate using the 120-W 980 nm diode laser.	3
Laser vaporisation using the 120-W 980 nm diode laser seems to be safe with regard to haemostasis in patients receiving anticoagulant therapy.	3

5.3.4 **Alternative ablative techniques**

5.3.4.1 *Aquablation – image guided robotic waterjet ablation: AquaBeam*

Mechanism of action: AquaBeam uses the principle of hydro-dissection to ablate prostatic parenchyma while sparing collagenous structures like blood vessels and the surgical capsule. A targeted high velocity saline stream ablates prostatic tissue without the generation of thermal energy under real-time transrectal ultrasound guidance. After completion of ablation haemostasis is performed with a Foley balloon catheter on light traction or diathermy or low-powered laser if necessary [478].

Efficacy: In a double-blind, multicentre, pivotal RCT, 181 patients with a prostate size of 30-80mL were randomised to TURP or Aquablation [479, 480]. Mean total operative time was similar for Aquablation and TURP (33 vs. 36 minutes), but resection time was significantly lower for Aquablation (4 vs. 27 minutes). At six months patients treated with Aquablation and TURP experienced large IPSS improvements (-16.9 and -15.1, respectively), satisfying the non-inferiority hypothesis. At one year follow-up, mean IPSS reduction was 15.1 with a mean reduction in IPSS score of 67% for both groups. No significant difference in improvement of IPSS, QoL, Q_{max} and reduction of PVR was reported between the groups [481].

Improvements in IPSS and Q_{max} were maintained after three years in both groups [482]. Mean IPSS improvements were 14.4 and 13.9 points in the Aquablation and TURP groups, respectively. Similarly, three-year improvements in Q_{max} were 11.6 and 8.2 mL/s [483]. Over three years, surgical retreatments were 4.3% and 1.5% respectively. Cohort studies reported similar, consistent results [484].

Results of AquaBeam in patients with large prostates (80-150mL) were evaluated in a cohort study of 101 men (WATER II) [479]. After twelve months, significant improvements were seen in IPSS (mean decrease of 17 points), Q_{max} (increase of 12.5 cc/sec) and PVR (a drop of 171 cc in those with PVR > 100 at baseline). No patient underwent a repeat procedure for BPH symptoms [485]. Improvement was maintained at two years, with a surgical retreatment rate of 2% in WATER II [486].

Another RCT comparing Aquablation with TURP performed urodynamic studies on 66 patients at six months follow-up and reported significant changes in $p_{det}Q_{max}$ (reductions of 35 and 34 cm H₂O, respectively) and large improvements in BOO index in both groups [487].

Tolerability and safety: Results for the WATER trial have shown comparable hospital stay and catheterisation duration (1.4 and 1 day, respectively) [479]. One case of blood transfusion was reported after Aquabeam and none after TURP. In a SR of seven patient groups involving 446 patients treated by aquablation, although there was a significant haemoglobin drop (2.06 g/dL), it did not translate into increased transfusion rates. In WATER, fewer men in the Aquablation group had a persistent Clavien-Dindo grade 1 or 2 or higher adverse event compared to TURP (26% vs. 42%) at three months. Among sexually active men the rate of an ejaculation was lower in those treated with Aquablation compared to TURP (10% vs. 36%, respectively). There were no procedure-related adverse events after six months [481].

In patients with a prostate volume between 80-150 mL (WATERII trial), bleeding related events were observed in fourteen patients (13.9%) of which eight (7.9%) occurred prior to discharge and six (5.9%) occurred within one month of discharge. Blood transfusions were required in eight patients, return to the theatre for fulguration in three patients, and both transfusion and fulguration in two patients [488]. Maintenance of antegrade ejaculation was slightly lower in WATER II at 81% compared to 90% in the smaller prostates of WATER I [489]. In WATER II there was a 2% de novo incontinence rate at twelve months [490].

Practical considerations: During mid-term follow-up, aquablation provides non-inferior functional outcomes compared to TURP in patients with LUTS and a prostate volume between 30-80 mL. Longer term follow-up is necessary to assess the clinical value of aquablation.

Summary of evidence	LE
Aquablation appears to be as effective as TURP both subjectively and objectively; however, there are still some concerns about the best methods of achieving post-treatment haemostasis.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer Aquablation* to patients with moderate-to-severe LUTS and a prostate volume of 30-80 mL as an alternative to transurethral resection of the prostate.	Weak
Inform patients about the risk of bleeding and the lack of long-term follow-up data.	Strong

* Aquablation remains under investigation

5.3.4.2 Prostatic artery embolisation

Mechanism of action: Prostatic artery embolisation (PAE) can be performed as a day procedure under local anaesthesia with access through the femoral or radial arteries. Digital subtraction angiography displays arterial anatomy, and the appropriate prostatic arterial supply is selectively embolised to effect stasis in treated prostatic vessels. Different technical variations (including bead size) have been described for PAE, which needs specific training [491, 492].

Efficacy: Superior efficacy of PAE compared with a sham procedure was found in a six-month randomised, single-blind, sham-controlled trial in 80 patients with LUTS, refractory to medical treatment. The decrease in IPSS at six months was 5.03 +/- 8.13 in the sham group and 17.1 +/- 7.25 in the PAE group [493].

A SR and meta-analysis including RCTs and two non-RCTs comparative studies (n = 708 patients) showed that TURP achieved a significantly higher mean post-operative difference for IPSS and IPSS-QoL, 3.80 and 0.73 points, respectively compared to PAE [494]. All of the functional outcomes assessed were significantly superior after TURP: 3.62 mL/s for Q_{max} , 11.51 mL for prostate volume, 11.86 mL for PVR, and 1.02 ng/mL for PSA [494]. Another SR and meta-analysis including six studies with 598 patients showed that TURP resulted in significantly greater improvement in Q_{max} , prostate volume, and PSA compared to PAE [495]. However, there was no significant difference between PAE and TURP in IPSS improvement, IPSS QoL, IIEF and PVR [495]. Another SR and meta-analysis of ten RCTs (one vs. sham, five vs. TURP and four exploring variations in PAE technique) confirmed that PAE is non-inferior to TURP in improving patient reported outcome measures (PROMs), though TURP is superior to PAE for most objective outcomes [496].

According to a non-inferiority trial, 21% of patients who initially had PAE underwent TURP within two years [497].

In a single centre retrospective analysis of 75 PAE patients over a three-year period, PAE was shown to be a safe, effective, and durable treatment option for non-index patients with urinary retention (87% catheter free) or gross haematuria (resolved 87.5%) [498].

Tolerability and safety: Available RCTs, as well as SR and meta-analyses show conflicting results about the comparative rate of adverse events after PAE or TURP, depending on studies included, definition of adverse

events, and follow-up. In a SR of comparative studies PAE resulted in significantly more adverse events than TURP/OP (41.6% vs. 30.4%). The frequency of AUR after the procedures was significantly higher in the PAE group (9.4% vs. 2.0%) [499]. In another compilation of studies, PAE was associated with significantly fewer overall adverse events but similar rates of severe side effects, as well as and shorter hospitalisation times (mean difference = -1.94 days), but longer procedural times (mean difference = 51.43 min) [495].

Another SR and meta-analysis of four studies (506 patients) comparing PAE and TURP found no significant difference in the post-operative complication rate between TURP and PAE [500].

Concerning sexual adverse events, the mean differences in IIEF-5 score were not significantly different between TURP and PAE in a meta-analysis [495]. Another meta-analysis of two RCTs detected no difference in retrograde ejaculation rates [395]. Post-operative erectile function measured by IIEF-5 was in favour of PAE with mean difference in change of 2.56 points. In another updated meta-analysis PAE was consistently associated with lower sexual dysfunction than TURP (OR 0.24) [501].

Concerns still exist about non-target embolisation, reported in earlier studies [502]; however, more recent studies report less incidents [494, 503]. A SR of 22 studies reporting radiation exposure during PAE, with a twenty-fold range of exposures, estimated that the median risk for a 66-year-old patient of a cancer related death was 0.117%, equivalent to a reduced life expectancy of 5.4 days. Radiation exposure therefore should be part of the counselling for patients considered for PAE. These data suggest there is potential for significant radiation reduction in some centres using appropriate protocols [504].

Practical considerations: A multidisciplinary team approach of urologists and radiologists is mandatory and patient selection should be done by urologists and interventional radiologists. The investigation of patients with LUTS to indicate suitability for invasive techniques should be performed by urologists only. This technically demanding procedure should only be done by an interventional radiologist with specific mentored training and expertise in PAE [505]. There are data suggesting that larger prostates have a higher chance of a superior outcome with PAE in *post hoc* analysis of RCTs, but larger trials are required to clarify the most suitable patients for PAE [488, 506].

Further data with medium- and long-term follow-up are still required and comparison with other minimally invasive techniques would be valuable. However, current evidence of safety and efficacy of PAE appears adequate to support the use of this procedure for men with moderate-to-severe LUTS provided proper arrangements for consent and audit are in place; therefore, a recommendation has been given, but PAE remains under investigation.

Summary of evidence	LE
Prostatic artery embolisation (PAE) is less effective than TURP at improving symptoms and urodynamic parameters such as flow rate.	1a
Procedural time is longer for PAE compared to TURP, but blood loss, catheterisation and hospitalisation time are in favour of PAE.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer prostatic artery embolisation (PAE)* to men with moderate-to-severe LUTS who wish to consider minimally invasive treatment options and accept less optimal outcomes compared with transurethral resection of the prostate.	Weak
Perform PAE only in units where the work up and follow-up is performed by urologists working collaboratively with trained interventional radiologists for the identification of PAE suitable patients.	Strong

* PAE remains under investigation

5.3.4.3 Alternative ablative techniques under investigation

5.3.4.3.1 Convective water vapour energy (WAVE) ablation: The Rezum system

Mechanism of action: The Rezum system uses radiofrequency power to create thermal energy in the form of water vapour, which in turn deposits the stored thermal energy when the steam phase shifts to the liquid phase upon cell contact. The steam disperses through the tissue interstices and releases stored thermal energy onto prostatic tissue effecting cell necrosis. The procedure can be performed in an office-based setting. Usually, one to three injections are needed for each lateral lobe and one to two injections may be delivered into the median lobe (depending on the prostate size).

Efficacy: In a multicentre RCT, 197 men were enrolled and randomised in a 2:1 ratio to treatment with water vapour energy ablation or sham treatment [507]. At three months relief of symptoms, (measured by a change in IPSS and Q_{max}) were significantly improved and maintained after WAVE therapy compared to the sham arm, although only the active treatment arm was followed up to twelve months. No relevant impact was observed on PVR. Quality of life outcome was significantly improved with a meaningful treatment response of 52% at twelve months. Further validated objective outcome measures such as BPH impact index (BPHII), Overactive Bladder Questionnaire Short Form for OAB bother, and impact on QoL and ICS Male Item Short Form Survey for male incontinence demonstrated improvements of symptoms at three months follow-up with sustained efficacy throughout the study period of twelve months. The reported two-year results in the Rezum cohort arm of the same study and the recently reported four-year results confirmed durability of the positive clinical outcome after convective water vapour energy ablation [508, 509]. Surgical retreatment rate was 4.4% over four years [509]. A Cochrane review found no studies comparing convective radiofrequency water vapour thermal therapy to any other active treatment form, such as TURP [510].

Tolerability and safety: Safety profile was favourable with adverse events documented to be mild-to-moderate and resolving rapidly. Preservation of erectile and ejaculatory function after convective water vapour thermal therapy was demonstrated utilising validated outcome instruments such as IIEF and Male Sexual Health Questionnaire-Ejaculation Disorder Questionnaire [507].

Practical considerations: There are two SRs of the Rezum cohort studies. One concludes that Rezum provides improvement in BPH symptoms that exceeds established minimal clinically important difference thresholds, preserves sexual function, and is associated with low surgical retreatment rates over four years. Therefore, suggesting that it may be a valuable addition to the urological armamentarium to treat LUTS in men with BPH [511]. The other, a Cochrane review reported that the certainty of evidence ranged from moderate to very low, with study limitations and imprecision being the most common reasons for down-grading of the evidence [510]. Randomised controlled trials against a reference technique are needed to confirm the first promising clinical results and to evaluate mid- and long-term efficacy and safety of water vapour energy treatment.

5.3.5 **Non-ablative techniques**

5.3.5.1 **Prostatic urethral lift**

Mechanism of action: Prostatic urethral lift (PUL) is a minimally invasive approach under local or general anaesthesia. Encroaching lateral lobes are compressed by small permanent suture-based implants delivered under cystoscopic guidance resulting in an opening of the prostatic urethra leaving a continuous anterior channel through the prostatic fossa.

Efficacy: Several reports have shown that PUL achieves a significant improvement in IPSS (-39% to -52%), Q_{max} (+32% to +59%) and QoL (-48% to -53%) [512-517]. In a meta-analysis of retrospective and prospective trials, pooled estimates showed an overall improvement following PUL, including IPSS, Q_{max} , and QoL [517]. A Cochrane review of the sham RCT and the RCT against TURP concluded that PUL appears less effective than TURP in improving urological symptoms (IPSS, Q_{max}) in both short- and long term, while QoL outcomes may be similar [518]. Prostatic urethral lift was evaluated vs. sham in a multicentre study with one [514] three [519] and five [520] years follow-up of the treated cohort. Improvements in IPSS, QoL, and Q_{max} were durable with improvement rates of 36%, 50%, and 44% at 60-month follow-up, respectively [520].

A retrospective observational study of 1,413 consecutive patients from North America and Australia split patients into those still voiding (Group A) and those in retention (Group B). The results from Group A were comparable to the results from the clinical trials and of the 165 patients in Group B 69% were catheter free after five days, 83% after one month and 89% by study end [521].

Tolerability and safety: The most common complications reported post-operatively included haematuria (16-63%), dysuria (25-58%), pelvic pain (5-17.9%), urgency (7.1-10%), transient incontinence (3.6-16%), and UTI (2.9-11%) [514, 517, 519, 520]. Most symptoms were mild-to-moderate in severity and resolved within two to four weeks after the procedure. In an RCT comparing PUL to TURP, surgical recovery was measured using a validated instrument. They found that recovery from PUL is more rapid and more extensive in the first three to six months [522]. A SR and meta-analysis found that sexual function with regard to erectile and ejaculatory function remained stable or improved slightly during the 24-month follow-up [496, 517, 518].

In an RCT comparing PUL to TURP, PUL resulted in superior quality of recovery and ejaculatory function preservation. Ejaculatory function and bother scores did not change significantly in either treatment arm [522].

A SR of surgical re-interventions of eleven studies (2,016 patients), among which TURP/laser (51%), repeat PUL (32.7%) and device explant (19.6%) were most common, revealed an annual rate of surgical

re-intervention of 6% per year (95% CI: 3.0-8.9) [523]. The re-treatment rate was 13.6% over five years in a multicentre study comparing PUL vs. sham [520].

Practical considerations: There are only limited data on treating patients with an obstructed/protruding middle lobe [524]. The effectiveness in large prostate glands has not been shown yet. Long-term studies are needed to evaluate the duration of the effect in comparison to other techniques.

Summary of evidence	LE
Prostatic urethral lift improves IPSS, Q _{max} and QoL; these improvements are inferior to TURP at 24-months.	1b
Prostatic urethral lift has a low incidence of sexual side effects.	1b
Patients should be informed that long-term effects, including the risk of retreatment, have not been evaluated.	4

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer Prostatic urethral lift (Urolift®) to men with LUTS interested in preserving ejaculatory function, with prostates < 70 mL and no middle lobe.	Strong

5.3.5.2 Intra-prostatic injections

Mechanism of action: Various substances have been injected directly into the prostate in order to improve LUTS including Botulinum toxin-A (BoNT-A), fexapotide trifluate (NX-1207) and PRX302. The primary mechanism of action of BoNT-A is through the inhibition of neurotransmitter release from cholinergic neurons [525]. The mechanisms of action for the injectables NX-1207 and PRX302 are not completely understood, but experimental data suggest apoptosis-induced atrophy of the prostate with both drugs [525].

Efficacy: A SR and meta-analysis showed no differences in efficacy of BoNT-A compared with placebo and concluded that there is no evidence of clinical benefit in medical practice [526]. The positive results from Phase II-studies have not been confirmed in Phase III-trials for PRX302 [527, 528]. NX-1207 was evaluated in two multicentre placebo controlled double-blind randomised parallel group trials including a total of 995 patients with a mean follow-up of 3.6 years, IPSS change from baseline was significantly higher and AUR rate was significantly reduced in the treatment arm. The authors concluded that NX-1207 is an effective transrectal injectable for long-term treatment for LUTS and that treated patients have reduced need for further intervention [529].

Tolerability and Safety: A SR and meta-analysis showed low incidence rates of procedure-related adverse events [526]. Two multicentre placebo controlled double-blind randomised parallel group trials with long-term follow-up evaluating NX-1207 detected no significant safety differences between the study arms [529].

Practical considerations: Positive results for PRX302 from Phase II-studies have not been confirmed in Phase III-trials yet. Nevertheless, an RCT evaluating transperineal intraprostatic BoNT-A injection vs. TURP concluded that IPSS significantly decreased in all patients, with a non-significant difference between the arms and that the BoNT-A injection significantly maintained erectile function compared to TURP at twelve months [530]. More high-quality evidence against reference techniques is needed.

Summary of evidence	LE
Results from clinical trials have shown no clinical benefits for BoNT-A compared to placebo for the management of LUTS due to BPO.	1a
Results from clinical trials have shown clinical benefits for NX-1207 compared to placebo for the management of LUTS due to BPO.	1b

Recommendation	Strength rating
Do not offer intraprostatic Botulinum toxin-A injection treatment to patients with male LUTS.	Strong

5.3.5.3 Non-ablative techniques under investigation

5.3.5.3.1 (i)TIND

Mechanism of action: The iTIND is a nitinol device composed of three elongated struts and an anchoring leaflet. Under direct visualisation iTIND is deployed inside the prostate in expanded configuration. The intended

mode of action is to compress obstructive tissue by the expanded device, thereby exerting radial force leading to ischaemic necrosis resulting in a Turner Warwick like incision. The iTIND device is left in position for five days and removed in an outpatient setting by standard urethroscopy.

Efficacy: A single-arm, prospective study of 32 patients with a three-year follow-up was conducted to evaluate feasibility and safety of the procedure [531]. The change from baseline in IPSS, QoL and Q_{\max} was significant at every follow-up [532]. In a multicenter RCT, 175 men were randomised 2:1 between iTIND and sham procedures. Patients were assessed at baseline, 45 days, three, and twelve months postoperatively. A total of 78.6% of patients in the iTIND arm showed a reduction of ≥ 3 points in IPSS, vs. 60% of patients in the control arm at three months. At twelve months follow-up, the iTIND group reported a mean decrease of 9.25 in IPSS, of 1.9-point in QoL and a 3.52mL/s increase in Q_{\max} compared to baseline [533]. In a prospective multicentre study, 81 patients were enrolled and treated with a second generation iTIND device. At twelve-month follow-up, mean IPSS decreased from 22.5 to 8.8 and Q_{\max} at one month increased from 7.3 to 14.7 ml/s at twelve months [534].

Tolerability and safety: The device were reported as well tolerated by all patients. Four early complications (12.5%) were recorded, including one case of urinary retention (3.1%), one case of transient incontinence due to device displacement (3.1%), and two cases of infection (6.2%). No further complications were recorded during the 36-month follow-up period [532]. In the RCT against sham study adverse events were typically mild and transient, most were Clavien-Dindo grade 1 or 2 with 38.1% in the iTIND arm and 17.5% in the control arm [533]. No new ejaculatory or erectile dysfunction has been reported [533, 534].

In a prospective multicentre study, 81 patients were enrolled and treated with a second generation iTIND device. During the twelve-month period, two patients required medical therapy, two patients required TURP, and ten patients were lost to follow-up [534].

Practical considerations: Randomised controlled trials comparing iTIND to a reference technique are ongoing.

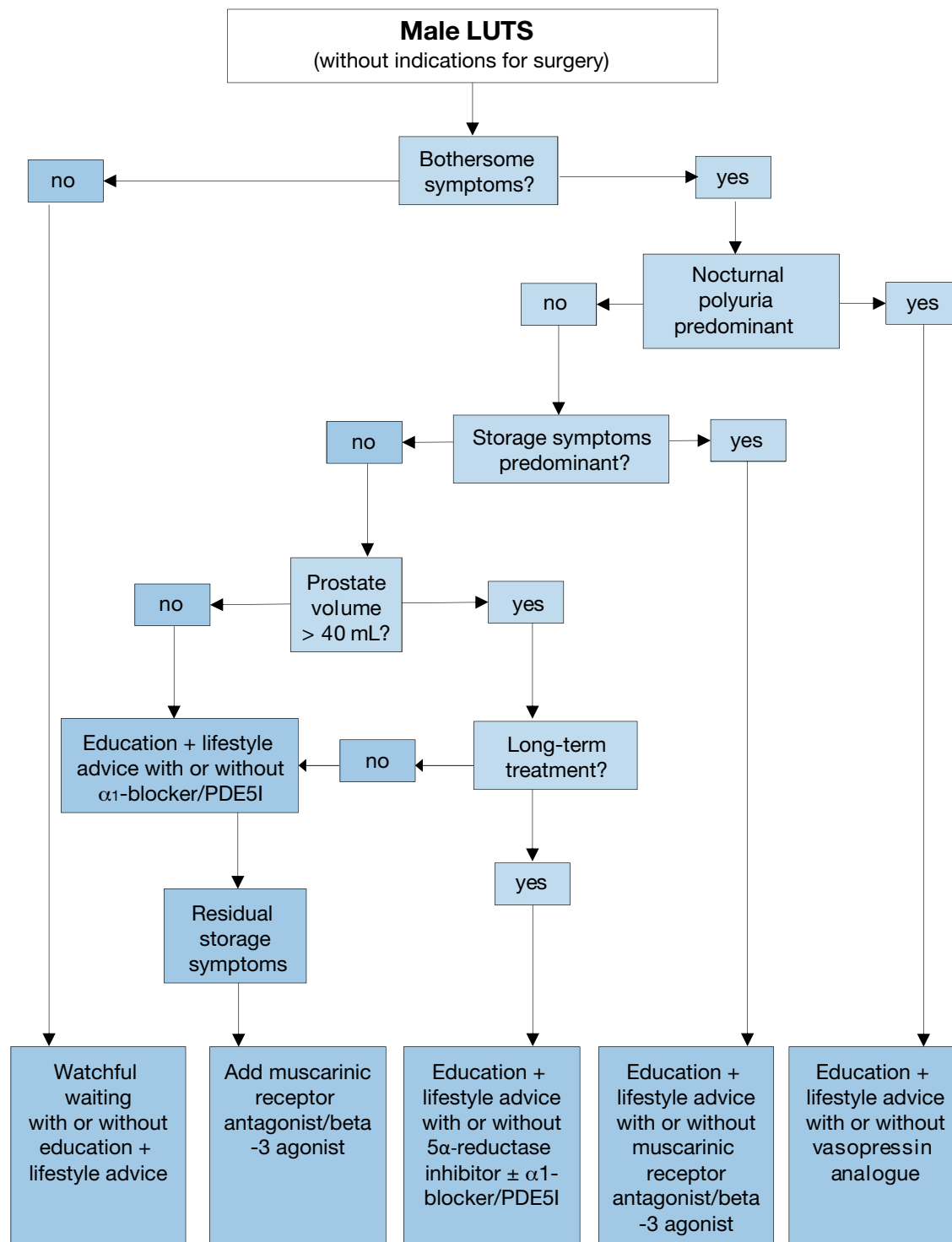
5.4 Patient selection

The choice of treatment depends on the assessed findings of patient evaluation, ability of the treatment to change the findings, treatment preferences of the individual patient, and the expectations to be met in terms of speed of onset, efficacy, side effects, QoL, and disease progression.

Behavioural modifications, with or without medical treatments, are usually the first choice of therapy. Figure 3 provides a flow chart illustrating treatment choice according to evidence-based medicine and patient profiles. Surgical treatment is usually required when patients have experienced recurrent or refractory urinary retention, overflow incontinence, recurrent UTIs, bladder stones or diverticula, treatment-resistant macroscopic haematuria due to BPH/BPE, or dilatation of the upper urinary tract due to BPO, with or without renal insufficiency (absolute operation indications, need for surgery).

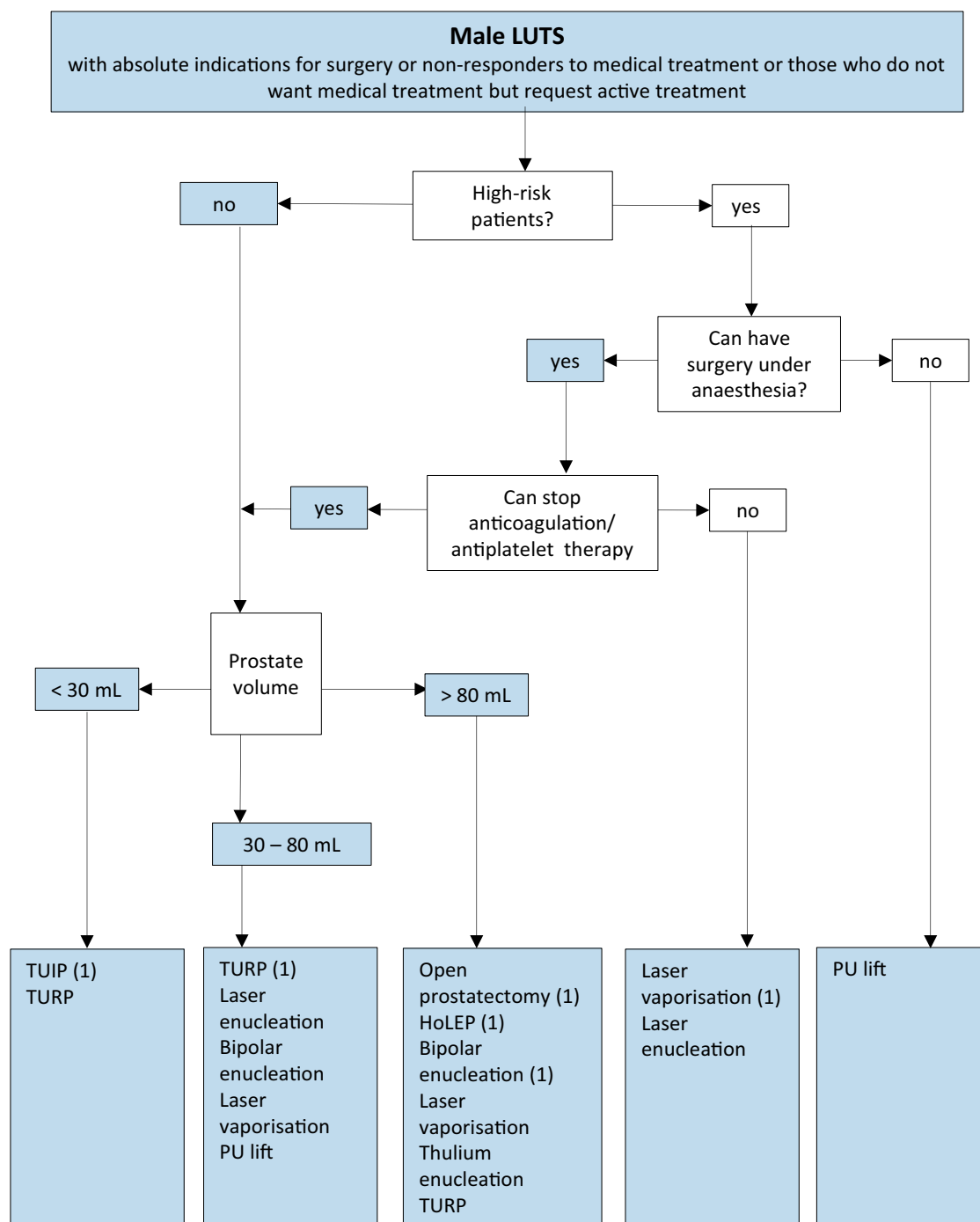
Additionally, surgery is usually needed when patients have not obtained adequate relief from LUTS or PVR using conservative or medical treatments (relative operation indications). The choice of surgical technique depends on prostate size, co-morbidities of the patient, ability to have anaesthesia, patients' preferences, willingness to accept surgery-associated specific side-effects, availability of the surgical armamentarium, and experience of the surgeon with these surgical techniques. An algorithm for surgical approaches according to evidence-based medicine and the patient's profile is provided in Figure 4.

Figure 3: Treatment algorithm of male LUTS using medical and/or conservative treatment options.
Treatment decisions depend on results assessed during initial evaluation.
Note that patients' preferences may result in different treatment decisions.



PDE5I = phosphodiesterase type 5 inhibitors.

Figure 4: Treatment algorithm of bothersome LUTS refractory to conservative/medical treatment or in cases of absolute operation indications. The flowchart is stratified by the patient's ability to have anaesthesia, cardiovascular risk, and prostate size.



(1) Current standard/first choice. The alternative treatments are presented in alphabetical order. Laser vaporisation includes GreenLight, thulium, and diode laser vaporisation. Laser enucleation includes holmium and thulium laser enucleation.

HoLEP = holmium laser enucleation; PU = prostatic urethral; TUIP = transurethral incision of the prostate; TURP = transurethral resection of the prostate.

5.5 Management of Nocturia in men with lower urinary tract symptoms

The following section reports a SR of therapy for the management of nocturia in men with LUTS. It also emphasises the need to consider the wide range of possible causes of nocturia [535].

Nocturia has been defined as the complaint of waking at night to void [5]. The ICS Standardisation Steering Committee has introduced the concept of *main sleep period*, defined as “the period from the time of falling asleep to the time of intending to rise for the next “day” [536].

Nocturia reflects the relationship between the amount of urine produced while asleep, and the ability of the bladder to store the urine received. Nocturia can occur as part of lower urinary tract dysfunction (LUTD), such as OAB and chronic pelvic pain syndrome. Nocturia can also occur in association with other forms of LUTD, such as BOO, but here it is debated whether the link is one of causation or simply the co-existence of two common conditions. Crucially, nocturia may have behavioural, sleep disturbance (primary or secondary) or systemic causes unrelated to LUTD (Table 2). Differing causes often co-exist and each has to be considered in all cases. Only where LUTD is contributory should nocturia be termed a LUTS.

Table 2: Categories of nocturia

CATEGORY	Disproportionate urine production (at all times, or during sleep)	Low volume of each void (at all times, or overnight)
<i>Behavioural</i>	Inappropriate fluid intake	“Bladder awareness” due to secondary sleep disturbance
<i>Systemic</i>	Water, salt and metabolite output	
<i>Sleep disorder</i>	Variable water and salt output	“Bladder awareness” due to primary sleep disturbance
<i>LUTD</i>		Impaired storage function and increased filling sensation

5.5.1 **Diagnostic assessment**

Evaluation is outlined in Figure 5;

1. Evaluate for LUTD according to the relevant guidelines. The severity and bother of individual LUTS should be identified with a symptom score, supplemented by directed questioning if needed. A validated bladder diary is mandatory.
2. Review whether behavioural factors affecting fluid balance and sleep are contributing.
3. Review of medical history and medications, including directed evaluation for key conditions, such as renal failure, diabetes mellitus, cardiac failure, and obstructive sleep apnoea. If systemic factors or sleep disorders are potentially important, consider involving appropriate medical expertise (see Figure 6). This is appropriate where a known condition is sub optimally managed, or symptoms and signs suggest an undiagnosed condition.

5.5.2 **Medical conditions and sleep disorders Shared Care Pathway**

Causative categories for nocturia comprise [537]:

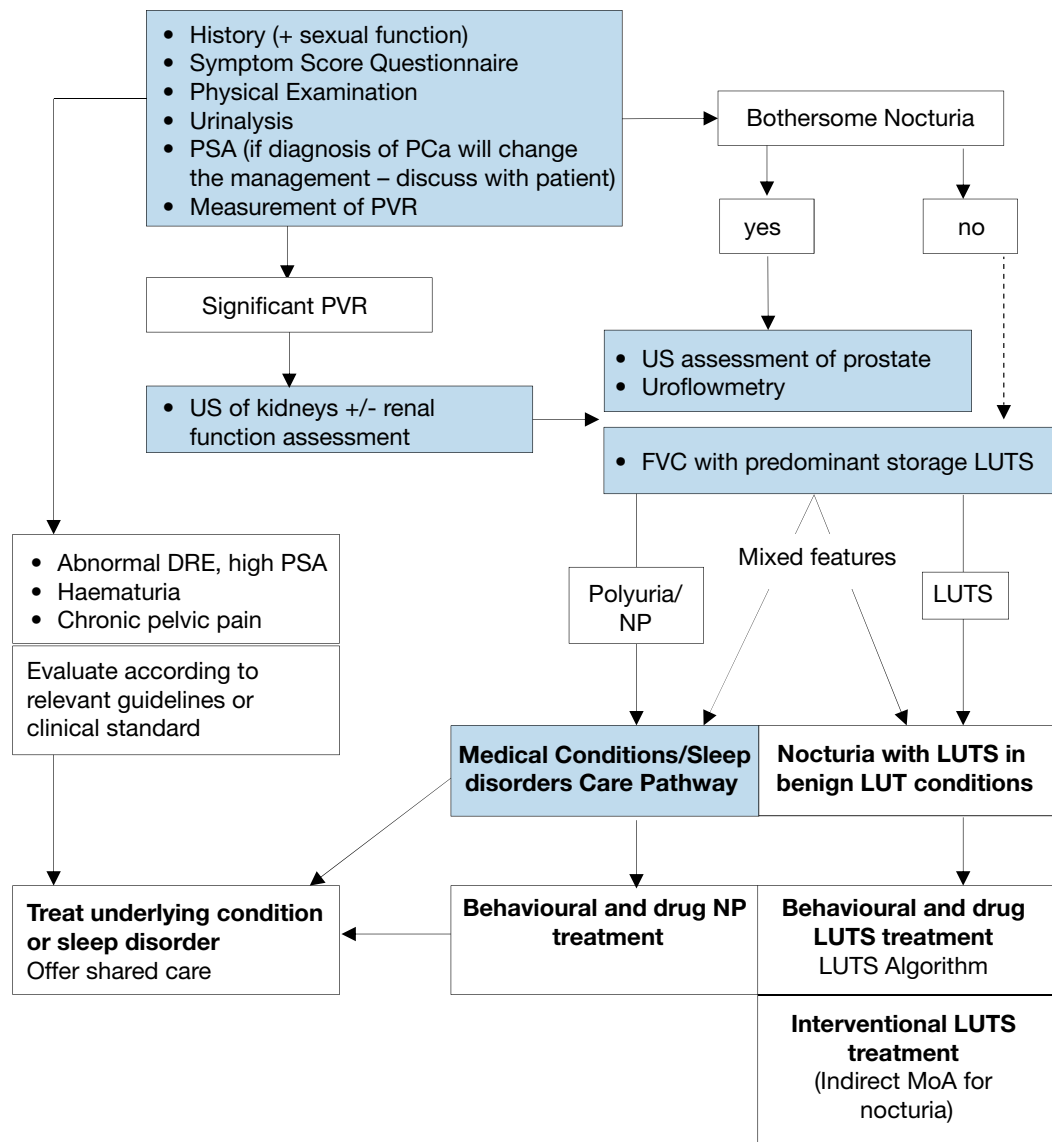
1. bladder storage problems;
2. 24-hour polyuria (> 40 mL/kg urine output over a 24-hour period);
3. nocturnal polyuria (NP; defined as excessive production of urine during the individual's main sleep period, i.e. nocturnal output exceeding 20% of 24-hour urine output in the young, or 33% of urine output in people > 65 [5]);
4. sleep disorders;
5. mixed aetiology.

Potentially relevant systemic conditions are those which impair physiological fluid balance, including influences on the levels of free water, salt, other solutes, and plasma oncotic pressure; endocrine regulation e.g., by antidiuretic hormone; natriuretic peptides; cardiovascular and autonomic control; renal function; neurological regulation, e.g., circadian regulation of the pineal gland, and renal innervation. As nocturia is commonly referred to the specialty without full insight into cause, the urologist must review the likely mechanisms underlying a presentation with nocturia and instigate review by relevant specialties accordingly. Thus, the managing urologist needs to evaluate nocturia patients in a context where additional medical expertise is available (Table 3). They should not proceed along any LUTD management pathway unless a causative link with LUTD is justifiably suspected, and systemic or sleep abnormalities have been considered.

In patients with non-bothersome nocturia, the medical evaluation (history and physical examination) should consider the possibility of early stages of systemic disease, and whether there is possibility of earlier diagnosis or therapy adjustment.

Some important potentially treatable non-urological causes of nocturia include obstructive sleep apnoea, congestive cardiac failure, poorly controlled diabetes mellitus and medications (e.g., diuretics, or lithium).

Figure 5. Evaluation of Nocturia in non-neurogenic Male LUTS.



Assessment must establish whether the patient has polyuria, LUTS, a sleep disorder or a combination. Therapy may be driven by the bother it causes, but non-bothersome nocturia may warrant assessment with a frequency volume chart (indicated by the dotted line) depending on history and clinical examination since potential presence of a serious underlying medical condition must be considered.

FVC = frequency volume chart; DRE = digital rectal examination; NP = nocturnal polyuria; MoA = mechanism of action; PVR = post-void residual; PSA = prostate-specific antigen; US = ultrasound.

Table 3: Shared care pathway for nocturia, highlighting the need to manage potentially complex patients using relevant expertise for the causative factors.

UROLOGICAL CONTRIBUTION	SHARED CARE	MEDICAL CONTRIBUTION
Diagnosis of LUTD <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urological/LUTS evaluation • Nocturia symptom scores • Bladder diary 		Diagnosis of conditions causing NP <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluate patient's known conditions • Screening for sleep disorders • Screening for potential causes of polyuria*
Conservative management Behavioural therapy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fluid/sleep habits advice • Drugs for storage LUTS • Drugs for voiding LUTS • ISC/catherisation • Increased exercise • Leg elevation • Weight loss Interventional therapy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Therapy of refractory storage LUTS • Therapy of refractory voiding LUTS 	Conservative management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Antidiuretic • Diuretics • Drugs to aid sleep 	Management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiation of therapy for new diagnosis • Optimised therapy of known conditions * Potential causes of polyuria NEPHROLOGICAL DISEASE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tubular dysfunction • Global renal dysfunction CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cardiac disease • Vascular disease ENDOCRINE DISEASE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diabetes insipidus/mellitus • Hormones affecting diuresis/natriuresis NEUROLOGICAL DISEASE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pituitary and renal innervation • Autonomic dysfunction RESPIRATORY DISEASE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obstructive sleep apnoea BIOCHEMICAL <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Altered blood oncotic pressure

ISC = intermittent self catheterisation

5.5.3 Treatment for Nocturia

5.5.3.1 Antidiuretic therapy

The antidiuretic hormone arginine vasopressin (AVP) plays a key role in body water homeostasis and control of urine production by binding to V2 receptors in the renal collecting ducts. Arginine vasopressin increases water re-absorption and urinary osmolality, so decreasing water excretion and total urine volume. Arginine vasopressin also has V1 receptor mediated vasoconstrictive/hypertensive effects and a very short serum half-life, which makes the hormone unsuitable for treating nocturia/nocturnal polyuria.

Desmopressin is a synthetic analogue of AVP with high V2 receptor affinity and no relevant V1 receptor affinity. It has been investigated for treating nocturia [538], with specific doses, titrated dosing, differing formulations, and options for route of administration. Most studies have short follow-up. Global interpretation of existing studies is difficult due to the limitations, imprecision, heterogeneity and inconsistencies of the studies.

A SR of randomised or quasi-randomised trials in men with nocturia found that desmopressin may decrease the number of nocturnal voids by -0.46 compared to placebo over short-term follow-up (up to three months); over intermediate-term follow-up (three to twelve months) there was a change of -0.85 in nocturnal voids in a substantial number of participants without increase in major adverse events [539].

Another SR of comparative trials of men with nocturia as the primary presentation and LUTS including nocturia or nocturnal polyuria found that antidiuretic therapy using dose titration was more effective than placebo in relation to nocturnal voiding frequency and duration of undisturbed sleep [535]. Adverse events include headache, hyponatremia, insomnia, dry mouth, hypertension, abdominal pain, peripheral edema, and nausea. Three studies evaluating titrated-dose desmopressin in which men were included, reported seven serious adverse events in 530 patients (1.3%), with one death. There were seventeen cases of hyponatraemia (3.2%) and seven of hypertension (1.3%). Headache was reported in 53 (10%) and nausea in fifteen (2.8%) [535]. Hyponatremia is the most important concern, especially in patients > 65 years of age, with potential life-threatening consequences. Baseline values of sodium over 130 mmol/L have been used as inclusion criteria in some research protocols. Assessment of sodium levels must be undertaken at baseline, after initiation of treatment or dose titration and during treatment. Desmopressin is not recommended in high-risk groups [535].

Desmopressin oral disintegrating tablets (ODT) have been studied separately in the sex-specific pivotal trials CS41 and CS40 in patients with nocturia [540, 541]. Almost 87% of included patients had nocturnal polyuria and approximately 48% of the patients were > 65 years. The co-primary endpoints in both trials were change in number of nocturia episodes per night from baseline and at least a 33% decrease in the mean number of nocturnal voids from baseline during three months of treatment. The mean change in nocturia episodes from baseline was greater with desmopressin ODT compared to placebo (difference: women = -0.3 [95% CI: -0.5 to -0.1]; men = -0.4 [95% CI: -0.6 to -0.2]). The 33% responder rate was also greater with desmopressin ODT compared to placebo (women: 78% vs. 62%; men: 67% vs. 50%).

Analysis of three published placebo-controlled trials of desmopressin ODT for nocturia showed that clinically significant hyponatraemia was more frequent in patients aged ≥ 65 years than in those aged < 65 years in all dosage groups, including those receiving the minimum effective dose for desmopressin (11% of men aged ≥ 65 years vs. 0% of men aged < 65 years receiving 50 mcg; 4% of women ≥ 65 aged years vs. 2% of women aged < 65 years receiving 25 mcg). Severe hyponatraemia, defined as ≤ 125 mmol/L serum sodium, was rare, affecting 22 of 1,431 (2%) patients overall [542].

Low-dose desmopressin ODT has been approved in Europe, Canada and Australia for the treatment of nocturia with ≥ 2 episodes in gender-specific low doses 50 mcg for men and 25 mcg for women; however, it initially failed to receive FDA approval, with the FDA citing uncertain benefit relative to risks as the reason. Following resubmission to the FDA in June 2018 desmopressin acetate sublingual tablet, 50 mcg for men and 25 mcg for women, was approved for the treatment of nocturia due to nocturnal polyuria in adults who awaken at least two times per night to void with a boxed warning for hyponatremia.

Desmopressin acetate nasal spray is a new low-dose formulation of desmopressin and differs from other types of desmopressin formulation due to its bioavailability and route of administration. Desmopressin acetate nasal spray has been investigated in two RCTs including men and women with nocturia (over two episodes per night) and a mean age of 66 years. The average benefit of treatment relative to placebo was statistically significant but low, -0.3 and -0.2 for the 1.5 mcg and 0.75 mcg doses of desmopressin acetate, respectively. The number of patients with a reduction of more than 50% of nocturia episodes was 48.5% and 37.9%, respectively compared with 30% in the placebo group [543]. The reported adverse event rate of the studies was rather low, and the risk of hyponatremia was 1.2% and 0.9% for desmopressin acetate 1.5 mcg and 0.75 mcg, respectively. Desmopressin acetate nasal spray was approved by the FDA in 2017 for the treatment of nocturia due to nocturnal polyuria, but it is not available in Europe.

Practical considerations: A complete medical assessment should be made, to exclude potentially non-urological underlying causes, e.g., sleep apnoea, before prescribing desmopressin in men with nocturia due to nocturnal polyuria. The optimal dose differs between patients, in men < 65 years desmopressin treatment should be initiated at a low dose (0.1 mg/day) and may be gradually increased up to a dosage of 0.4 mg/day every week until maximum efficacy is reached. Desmopressin is taken once daily before sleeping. Patients should avoid drinking fluids at least one hour before and for eight hours after dosing. Low dose desmopressin may be prescribed in patients > 65 years. In men ≥ 65 years or older, low dose desmopressin should not be used if the serum sodium concentration is below normal: all patients should be monitored for hyponatremia. Urologists should be cautious when prescribing low-dose desmopressin in patients under-represented in trials (e.g., patients > 75 years) who may have an increased risk of hyponatremia.

5.5.3.2 Medications to treat LUTD

Where LUTD is diagnosed and considered causative of nocturia, relevant medications for storage (and voiding) LUTS may be considered. Applicable medications include; selective α 1-adrenergic antagonists [544], antimuscarinics [545-547], 5-ARIs [548] and PDE5Is [549]. However, effect size of these medications is generally small, or not significantly different from placebo when used to treat nocturia [535]. Data on OAB medications (antimuscarinics, beta-3 agonist) generally had a female-predominant population. No studies specifically addressing the impact of OAB medications on nocturia in men were identified [535]. Benefits with combination therapies were not consistently observed.

5.5.3.3 Other medications

Agents to promote sleep [550], diuretics [551], non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents (NSAIDs) [552] and phytotherapy [553] were reported as being associated with response or QoL improvement [535]. Effect size of these medications in nocturia is generally small, or not significantly different from placebo. Larger responses have been reported for some medications, but larger scale confirmatory RCTs are lacking. Agents to promote sleep do not appear to reduce nocturnal voiding frequency but may help patients return to sleep.

Summary of evidence	LE
No clinical trial of pathophysiology-directed primary therapy has been undertaken.	4
No robust clinical trial of behavioural therapy as primary intervention has been undertaken.	4
Antidiuretic therapy reduces nocturnal voiding frequency in men with baseline severity of two or more voids per night.	1b
There is an increased risk of hyponatremia in patients 65 years of age or older under antidiuretic therapy.	1b
Antidiuretic therapy increases duration of undisturbed sleep.	1b
Alpha 1-blocker use is associated with improvements in undisturbed sleep duration and nocturnal voiding frequency, which are generally of only marginal clinical significance.	2
Antimuscarinic medications can reduce night-time urinary urgency severity, but the reduction in overall nocturia frequency is small or non-significant.	2
Antimuscarinic medications are associated with higher incidence of dry mouth compared with placebo.	2
5 α -reductase inhibitors reduce nocturia severity in men with baseline nocturia severity of two or more voids per night.	2
A trial of timed diuretic therapy may be offered to men with nocturia due to nocturnal polyuria.	1b
Screening for hyponatremia should be undertaken at baseline and during treatment.	

Recommendations	Strength rating
Treat underlying causes of nocturia, including behavioural, systemic condition(s), sleep disorders, lower urinary tract dysfunction, or a combination of factors.	Weak
Discuss behavioural changes with the patient to reduce nocturnal urine volume and episodes of nocturia and improve sleep quality.	Weak
Offer desmopressin to decrease nocturia due to nocturnal polyuria in men < 65 years of age.	Weak
Offer low dose desmopressin for men > 65 years of age with nocturia at least twice per night due to nocturnal polyuria.	Weak
Screen for hyponatremia at baseline, day three and day seven, one month after initiating therapy and periodically during treatment. Measure serum sodium more frequently in patients > 65 years of age and in patients at increased risk of hyponatremia.	Strong
Discuss with the patient the potential clinical benefit relative to the associated risks from the use of desmopressin, especially in men > 65 years of age.	Strong
Offer α 1-adrenergic antagonists for treating nocturia in men who have nocturia associated with LUTS.	Weak
Offer antimuscarinic drugs for treating nocturia in men who have nocturia associated with overactive bladder.	Weak
Offer 5 α -reductase inhibitors for treating nocturia in men who have nocturia associated with LUTS and an enlarged prostate (> 40 mL).	Weak
Do not offer phosphodiesterase type 5 inhibitors for the treatment of nocturia.	Weak

5.6 Management of male urinary incontinence

The aim of the following section is to provide evidence-based recommendations for the management of male UI.

5.6.1 Epidemiology and Pathophysiology

Urinary incontinence is defined as an unintentional loss of urine and is reported to have a prevalence of 11% in men aged 60 to 64 years old to 31% in men \geq 85 years and to affect up to 32% of men with LUTS [554-556]. Urinary incontinence can be further classified into three types: SUI, UII and mixed urinary incontinence (MUI). Overflow urinary incontinence, post-micturition dribble, nocturnal enuresis, and total incontinence are specific forms of UI that are outside the current scope of this guideline. An overview of the epidemiology and pathophysiology of male UI is given in table 4.

Table 4: Epidemiology and pathophysiology overview of male UI [556-560].

Type	Definition	Causes and associated factors	Pathophysiology	Clinical presentation
Stress UI: prevalence < 10%	Urine loss during movement or efforts or in general during increased abdominal pressure.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benign Prostatic Obstruction surgery • Neurogenic condition • Pelvic surgery • Radical prostatectomy • Urethral surgery 	Sphincter deficiency	<p>Symptoms: UI during physical activity, exercises, e.g. during coughing, sneezing, no leakage during sleep, no nocturnal enuresis</p> <p>Voiding diary/Pad test: with activity</p> <p>Cough stress test: leakage can coincide with coughing</p>
Urgency UI: prevalence 40-80%	Urine loss concomitant or immediately following an urgency episode.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ageing process • Anorectal dysfunction/GI disorders • Behavioural factors (fluid intake and caffeine consumption) • Chronic BPO • Idiopathic • Intrinsic bladder diseases (cystitis, fibrosis, interstitial cystitis) • Metabolic syndrome • Neurogenic conditions • UTIs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Detrusor overactivity (neurogenic or not) • Urothelial stimulation • Increased afferent signalling • Others (pelvic organ cross talk, bladder wall ischemia etc.) 	<p>Symptoms: urgency, usually associated with, increased frequency and nocturia</p> <p>Voiding diary: urgency, frequency and nocturia</p>
Mixed UI: prevalence 10-30%	Any combination of SUI and UUI.	Causes of both SIU and UUI	Combination of SUI and UUI	<p>Symptoms: UI equally as often with physical activity as with a sense of urgency</p> <p>Voiding diary: varies</p> <p>Cough stress test: may show leakage with coughing</p>

BPO = benign prostatic obstruction; GI = gastrointestinal; SUI = stress urinary incontinence; UI = urinary incontinence; UTI = urinary tract infection; UUI = urgency urinary incontinence

5.6.2 Diagnostic Evaluation

Medical history and physical examination of males with UI is the same as for male LUTS and should allow UI to be categorised into SUI, UUI or MUI and to identify other types of UI (overflow UI, nocturnal enuresis), or those who need rapid referral to an appropriate specialist (e.g., pelvic diseases, neurological conditions).

Specific validated questionnaires can help to quantify UI severity; however, a detailed description of the different urinary symptoms questionnaires and PROMs is beyond the scope of this guideline. For more information on available questionnaires see the 6th ICI review on patient reported outcomes assessment [561].

Voiding diaries are a standardised method of measuring symptom severity, including frequency and extent of UI episodes, voided volume and 24-hour or nocturnal total urine volume [43].

Pad tests can be used to quantify severity of UI and to monitor patient's response to treatment although the usefulness of these tests in predicting outcome of treatment is uncertain. Despite this, early post-operative testing with pad tests may predict future continence in men after prostatectomy [562, 563].

Urodynamic testing (multichannel cystometry, video-urodynamics) and specific tests of urethral function (urethral pressure profilometry, Valsalva leak point pressure, retrograde urethral resistance) should be considered on an individual basis, such as in cases when invasive treatment is considered. A Cochrane review showed that use of urodynamic tests increased the likelihood of prescribing drugs or avoiding surgery, while there is limited evidence that it should be used for the assessment of post prostatectomy UI [561].

Post-void residual volume measurement can be applied with caution to men with non-neurogenic UI, as the prevalence, severity, and clinical application of PVR in men with UI is uncertain.

Imaging (US, MRI, CT scan) can improve the understanding of the anatomical and functional abnormalities that may cause UI and thus help its management [564].

Urinalysis: Reagent strip ('dipstick') urinalysis may indicate UTI, proteinuria, haematuria, or glycosuria, requiring further tests as recommended according to other EAU Guidelines, e.g., Guidelines on urinary tract cancers and urological infections [48-51].

Summary of evidence	LE
Validated specific symptom score questionnaires and voiding diaries assist in the screening for and categorisation of UI.	3
Pad test can be used to quantify the presence and severity of UI, as well as a patient's response to treatment.	3
There is limited evidence that urodynamics and PVR affect treatment choice in men with uncomplicated UI.	3

Recommendation	Strength rating
Take a complete medical history including symptoms and co-morbidities, medications, and a focused physical examination in the evaluation of men with urinary incontinence (UI).	Strong
Use a validated symptom score questionnaire, bladder diary and pad-test to assess UI.	Strong
Measure post-void residual in the assessment of UI.	Strong
Perform urodynamics for UI when considering invasive treatment.	Weak

5.6.3 **Conservative treatment**

5.6.3.1 *Simple clinical interventions*

5.6.3.1.1 Lifestyle interventions

Examples of lifestyle factors that may be associated with UI include obesity, smoking, level of physical activity and diet. Modification of these factors may improve UI, but most of the evidence for these interventions come from studies with predominately female study populations. However, as many of these interventions are now generalised public health measures their recommendation is in line with general medical practice [565-567].

Modification of fluid intake, particularly restriction, is a strategy commonly used by people with UI to relieve symptoms. Advice on fluid intake given by healthcare professionals should be based on 24-hour fluid intake and urine output measurements. From a general health point of view, it should be advised that fluid intake should be sufficient to avoid thirst and that low or high 24-hour urine output should be investigated [565, 568]. A cross-sectional population survey found no statistical association between caffeine intake and UI [569]. Conversely, an RCT showed that reduction of caffeine intake, associated with behavioural therapy, resulted in reduced urgency but not UI compared to behavioural therapy alone [570].

5.6.3.1.2 Treatment of co-morbidities

Urinary incontinence, especially in the elderly, has been associated with multiple co-morbid conditions [571]. It is possible that improvement of associated disease may reduce the severity of urinary symptoms. However, this is often difficult to assess as patients frequently suffer from more than one condition. Interventions may be combined and individualised, making it impossible to decide which alteration in an underlying disease has affected a patient's UI.

In patients with existing UI, particularly the elderly, it may be difficult or impossible to distinguish between the effects of medication, co-morbidities or ageing on UI. Although changing drug regimens for underlying diseases may be considered as a possible early intervention, there is limited evidence of benefit [572]. There is also a risk that stopping or altering medication may result in greater harm than benefit.

5.6.3.1.3 Constipation

One RCT, with a majority female population, found that a multimodal intervention in elderly patients, involving assisted toileting, fluid intake, etc., reduced the occurrence of UI and constipation, while behavioural therapy appeared to improve both [573]. However, there is no evidence to show whether treating constipation improves UI, although both constipation and UI appear to be improved by certain behavioural interventions.

5.6.3.1.4 Containment

Containment includes the use of absorbent pads, urinary catheters, external collection devices and penile clamps. A SR of six RCTs comparing different types of pads found that pads filled with super absorbent material were better than standard pads [574]. For men with light UI, a randomised crossover trial found that a leaf-shaped type of pad was preferred to rectangular pads [575].

A Cochrane review compared different types of long-term indwelling catheters and found no evidence that one catheter material or type of catheter was superior to another [576]. A SR of non-randomised studies found no differences in UTI outcome or Upper Urinary Tract (UUT) changes between use of suprapubic or urethral catheter drainage; however, patients with suprapubic catheters were less likely to have urethral complications [577]. For people using intermittent catheterisation, a Cochrane review found no evidence that one type of catheter or regimen of catheterisation was better than another [578].

An RCT in 56 men with post-prostatectomy incontinence (PPI) compared sheath drainage system, body-worn urinal, penile clamp, and absorbent pads. It was found that the three devices and absorbent pads have different strengths and limitations that make them more (or less) suitable for particular activities. Most men prefer to use a combination of devices and pads to meet their lifestyle needs. Hinge-type penile clamp was good for short vigorous activities as it was the most secure, least likely to leak and most discreet, although almost all men described it as uncomfortable or painful [579].

Summary of evidence	LE
There is limited evidence that lifestyle interventions e.g., weight reduction, smoking cessation or diet modification improves UI in males.	3
There is limited evidence that improving co-morbidities or changing drug regimens for underlying disease improves UI in males.	3
Pads and/or penile sheaths are palliative options for management of UI.	1b

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer lifestyle advice that may improve urinary incontinence (UI) to patients; however, patients should be informed that the evidence for these interventions is lacking.	Weak
Review any medication associated with the development or worsening of UI.	Weak
Use pads and/or penile sheaths as a palliative option for the management of UI.	Weak

5.6.3.2 Behavioural and Physical therapies

Behavioural and physical therapies encompass all treatments which require a form of self-motivated personal retraining by the patient and include techniques that are used to augment this effect. Usually in clinical practice, these will be introduced as part of a package of care including lifestyle changes, patient education, and possibly cognitive therapy as well. Further details for behavioural treatments are outlined in section 5.1.2 of these guidelines.

5.6.3.2.1 Prompted or timed voiding

With prompted voiding, carers rather than the patient, initiate the decision to void. Two SRs confirmed a positive effect on continence outcomes for prompted voiding in comparison to standard care [580, 581]. Timed voiding is defined as fixed, pre-determined, time intervals between toileting, applicable for those with or without cognitive impairment. A Cochrane review of timed voiding, included two RCTs, found inconsistent improvement in continence compared with standard care in cognitively impaired adults [582].

5.6.3.2.2 Bladder training

Bladder training goals are to correct faulty habit patterns of frequent urination, improve control over bladder urgency, prolong voiding intervals, increase bladder capacity, reduce incontinent episodes, and restore patient

confidence in controlling bladder function. The ideal form or intensity of a BT program for UI is unclear. It is also unclear whether BT can prevent the development of UI. The addition of BT to anticholinergic therapy did not improve UI compared to antimuscarinics alone but it did improve frequency and nocturia [583]. In seven RCTs, BT was compared to drug therapy alone, and showed only a benefit for oxybutynin in cure and improvement of UI [583].

5.6.3.2.3 Pelvic floor muscle training

A 2015 Cochrane review concluded that there was no overall benefit at twelve months post-surgery for men who received post-operative pelvic floor muscle training (PFMT) for the treatment of PPI and that the benefits of conservative treatment of PPI remain uncertain [584]. However, a subsequent SR and meta-analysis showed that PFMT either alone or in combination with biofeedback and/or electrical stimulation was effective for treating PPI, significantly reducing the time to continence recovery [585]. A further meta-analysis demonstrated that the addition of guided programs using biofeedback and/or pelvic floor muscle electric stimulation (PFES) significantly improved continence recovery rates at one- and three-month intervals post-surgery compared to PFMT alone [586].

Two subsequent SRs in patients who underwent robotic-assisted radical prostatectomy demonstrated that the addition of PFMT to the post-operative management plan shorten the time to continence recovery [587, 588].

Two RCTs have shown that written instructions alone offer similar levels of improvement to supervised PFMT [589, 590]. One RCT found that PFMT was helpful in men who had been incontinent for at least one year after prostatectomy, and who had had no previous therapy [591].

One RCT compared PFMT to no treatment in men undergoing TURP. There was no demonstrable difference in the incidence of post-operative incontinence up to twelve months [592]. On the other hand, an RCT in men who underwent HoLEP, demonstrated that PFMT when started pre-operatively promoted early recovery of continence [593].

Other RCTs demonstrated that like PFMT, increased pelvic floor muscle strength and quicker return to continence may be achieved with the Pilates method [594], the oscillating rod [595], a combination of biofeedback with electrostimulation [596] and whole body vibration training [597]. Furthermore, quicker return to continence and improved QoL may be achieved, even with extended and continuing nursing care [598].

5.6.3.2.4 Electrical stimulation

The majority of evidence on electrical stimulation refers to women with SUI and many are generally low quality, with a variety of stimulation parameters, treatment regimens and outcome parameters [592].

An RCT of 70 PPI men receiving surface or intra-anal electrostimulation reported a significant reduction in UI in terms of grams of urine loss and a significant improvement in QoL from baseline, but no statistically significant difference between treatment arms [599].

A Cochrane review of six RCTs on electrical stimulation in men with UI concluded that there was some evidence that electrical stimulation enhanced the effect of PFMT in the short-term but not after six months. Electrical stimulation was also more effective than sham stimulation at six, but not twelve months; however, there were more adverse effects including pain and discomfort with electrical stimulation [600].

Electromagnetic stimulation has been promoted as a treatment for UI, but only weak evidence of the short- and long-term effects has been reported in SRs [601, 602].

5.6.3.2.5 Posterior tibial nerve stimulation

Posterior tibial nerve stimulation (PTNS) has been studied as a treatment of UI, especially UUI. Electrical stimulation of the posterior tibial nerve delivers electrical stimuli to the sacral micturition centre via the S2-S4 sacral nerve plexus. Stimulation is done either percutaneously using a fine, 34-G, needle, inserted just above the medial aspect of the ankle (P-PTNS) or transcutaneously using surface electrodes (T-PTNS). Percutaneous-PTNS treatment cycles typically consist of twelve weekly treatments of 30 minutes and T-PTNS treatment cycles typically consists of self-administered, twenty-minute daily sessions, after adequate education.

A female-predominant sham controlled RCT, assessed the effectiveness of PTNS in OAB population. There were 22.8% and 20% males in the treatment and sham arms, respectively [603]. Overactive bladder symptoms improved significantly in 54.5% of patients in the PTNS arm compared to 20.9% in the sham arm. A non-inferiority RCT comparing T-PTNS compared to P-PTNS, reported significant improvements in daytime frequency, urgency and UUI episodes without significant difference between treatment arms after twelve weeks of therapy [604]. A SR on T-PTNS in idiopathic and neurogenic female-predominant (males < 10%) population, reported significant improvement in OAB symptoms in 48-93% of patients and cure of UUI episodes in 25-45% [605].

For PTNS, mild pain and discomfort at the puncture site is the most common adverse event [606]. Small hematomas, swelling, leg tingling and vasovagal reaction to needle placement have also been reported [603]. Treatment adherence is generally high at 89.7% [604]. Contra-indications include a cardiac pacemaker and skin disease at the site of stimulation.

There is some evidence that PTNS may benefit male patients with OAB, but due to too insufficient data, no recommendation on PTNS in males can be made at this time. However, considering the safety of this therapy, it can be offered to male patients as an alternative option prior to more invasive treatments.

Summary of evidence	LE
Prompted voiding, either alone or as part of a behavioural modification programme, improves continence in elderly, care-dependent people.	1b
The combination of bladder training (BT) with antimuscarinic drugs does not result in greater improvement of UI but may improve frequency and nocturia.	1b
There is conflicting evidence on whether the addition of BT, electrostimulation or biofeedback increases the effectiveness of PFMT alone.	1b
Pre-operative PFMT does not confer additional benefit to men undergoing radical prostatectomy.	1b
Electrical stimulation may add benefit to PFMT up to six months.	2
Electrical stimulation may improve UI compared to sham up to six months.	2
There is limited evidence for the effectiveness of PTNS in male population.	2
There is no evidence that PTNS cures UII in male population.	2

Recommendations	Strength rating
Implement prompted voiding for patients with urinary incontinence (UI) where appropriate.	Strong
Offer bladder training as a complementary treatment for UI.	Weak
Offer pelvic floor muscle training alone or in combination with biofeedback and/or electrostimulation to men undergoing radical prostatectomy to speed recovery from UI.	Weak

5.6.4 Pharmacological management

5.6.4.1 Drugs for urgency urinary incontinence

Muscarinic receptor antagonists [607-610] and beta-3 agonist [297-299, 611-614] are currently the first-line pharmacological treatments for UII. The mechanism of action, efficacy, and safety and tolerability profiles of both classes of drugs are discussed in detail in sections 5.2.3 and 5.2.4, respectively.

5.6.4.2 Drugs for stress urinary incontinence

A SR of eight studies evaluating the efficacy of duloxetine in postprostatectomy SUI reported that duloxetine resulted in a mean dry rate of 58% (25–89%), mean improvement in pad number of 61% (12–100%), and mean improvement in one-hour pad weight of 68% (53–90%), at short-term follow-up (mean one to nine months) [615]. However, mean adverse event rates were high, and treatment was discontinued in 38% of cases. The overall certainty of the evidence was low due to study heterogeneity and methodological limitations. Further RCTs with long-term follow-up are required.

Summary of evidence	LE
Antimuscarinic monotherapy can significantly improve urgency, UII, and increased daytime frequency.	1b
Mirabegron is superior to placebo and as efficacious as antimuscarinics for improvement of UII.	1b
Duloxetine led to a short-term improvement in postprostatectomy SUI symptoms and QoL improvement; however, a significant proportion of men discontinued treatment.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer antimuscarinic drugs or mirabegron to adults with urge urinary incontinence who failed conservative treatment.	Strong
Offer duloxetine to men with stress urinary incontinence.	Weak
Inform patients about the possible adverse events of duloxetine and that its use is off label for this indication in Europe.	Strong

5.6.5 **Surgical treatment for stress urinary incontinence**

5.6.5.1 **Bulking agents in men**

Mechanism of Action: Urethral bulking agents work by adding bulk and improving the coaptation of a damaged sphincter zone. They represent a treatment option for men with either small volume leak or for those unfit for more invasive treatment options [616].

Efficacy: A Cochrane review on surgical treatment of PPI identified only one RCT that fulfilled the inclusion criteria. This trial randomised 45 men to Macroplastique injection or artificial urinary sphincter (AUS) implantation and compared their outcomes at 48 months [616]. Significant improvement was reported in both groups for men with minimal incontinence, but in men with total incontinence there was a significant difference in continence rates favouring AUS implantation (72% vs. 23%) [617]. A SR of eight studies (n=142) in men using Macroplastique, Ophys, Durasphere and Urolastic, showed short-term improvement, and reported dry rates between 0-83% [616]. A propensity score-matched analysis of 104 men with PPI, compared submucosal injection of Macroplastique to transobturator male sling (TiLOOP male) [618]. At twelve months follow-up, the reported failure free rates were 15.4% and 76.9%, the daily use of 0-1 pads was 21.2% and 67.3% and the satisfaction rate was 3.8% and 71.2%, respectively. Several small cohort studies of several different bulking agents have not shown any benefit.

A narrative review including data from 25 articles, reports a success rate with all bulking procedures of 54.3%, with 37.5% of symptoms improvement and almost 30% of dryness [619].

In a SR and meta-analysis, three studies addressed bulking agents. Two of them, involving a total of 384 participants, showed a pooled short-term cure rate of 26.1% and a single study on 68 subjects reported a 10.3% long term cure rate. Short- and long-term reoperation rates were not described [620].

Tolerability and safety: Bulking agent associated dysuria and haematuria are frequently reported to be transient and self-resolving [616]. The risk of urinary retention requiring clean intermittent self-catheterisation (CISC), or long-term catheter use is minimal [621]. However, they may provoke allergic reactions [622] and carry a potential risk for migration [623] to proximal and distal lymph nodes [624]. Overall, post procedural urinary retention rates range between 3-17%, with rare need for temporary catheterisation, while post-operative urinary tract infections ranged from 6-7% [619].

Practical considerations: Bulking agents have shown low cure rates but remain an option for men unfit for more invasive treatment options.

Summary of evidence	LE
There is very limited evidence that bulking agents are effective for the treatment of PPI.	2

Recommendation	Strength rating
Do not offer bulking agents to men with post-prostatectomy incontinence.	Weak

5.6.5.2 **Male Slings**

Male slings have been introduced to treat mild-to-moderate PPI. However, the definitions of mild and moderate UI are unclear. The majority of studies define cure as 'no pad use' or 'one security pad per 24-hours'. Some authors used more strict criteria such as 'urine loss of less than 2 g per 24-hour pad test' [625].

5.6.5.2.1 **Non-adjustable slings**

Mechanism of Action: Non-adjustable male slings are positioned under the urethra and fixed by a retropubic or transobturator approach. The tension is adjusted during the surgery, and it cannot be re-adjusted post-operatively. Synthetic slings restore continence in males either by urethral compression and/or by repositioning the bulb of urethra [626, 627].

Efficacy: A SR and meta-analysis involving 33 prospective cohorts and one RCT comparing sling to AUS, reported that both options are effective in improving UI and QoL [628]. Following sling insertion, the overall cure rate was 60% (95% CI: 0.51-0.67) and 56% (95% CI: 0.44-0.68) for sling and AUS respectively. The 24-hour pad use was -3.33 (95% CI: -4.33 to -2.34) and -3.75 (95% CI: -4.56 to -2.93) for slings and AUS, respectively. Similar findings were reported by a network meta-analysis that showed comparable efficacy between slings and AUS [629].

The MASTER Trial, a non-inferiority RCT comparing the outcomes of continence surgery in men with bothersome urodynamic SUI, using a very strict definition of UI after prostate surgery, reported that at twelve-

months incontinence rates were 87% for male sling vs. 84.2% for AUS (95% CI: -11.6-4.6, $P_{NI}=0.003$), confirming non-inferiority [630]. The subgroup analysis suggested that male sling is inferior to AUS for men with greater incontinence at baseline (pad weight > 250g); however, the difference did not reach statistical significance.

For the re-positioning slings (AdVance™ and AdVanceXP®), a mean subjective cure rate of 49% (8.6-73.7%) after mean follow-up of three years has been reported for 136 patients [631]. A prospective multicentre cohort study, with 60-month follow-up, in men with AdVanceXP demonstrated a constant continence outcome over time with a 57.6% cure rate, 25.4% improvement rate and 16.9% failure rate. These findings were verified in an additional study which reported cure rates of 66.7% and 71.7%, improvement rates of 26.5% and 24.4% and failures rates of 6.9% and 13.3% at 24- and 48-months, respectively [632]. A retrospective comparative study showed that both options are safe and effective in the treatment of male SUI [633].

With the transobturator compressive I-Stop TOMS male sling, 38% of men were dry at twelve months, but this reduced to 23% and 15% after four and five years, respectively [634].

Tolerability and safety: A SR and meta-analysis of 1,170 men with SUI and male sling, demonstrated that the predictors of failure are prior radiation, severity of incontinence and previous surgeries [635]. Pelvic radiotherapy has also been reported in other studies as a negative prognostic factor [636]. A comparison among radiated vs. non-radiated men who had AdVanceXP reported a greater degree of post-operative improvement in the non-radiated group (49.6% vs. 22.2%) as well as greater satisfaction rates (95% vs. 64%) [637]. The most common complication with male slings is pain and local superficial wound infection [638]. Chronic pain has been observed in 1.3% of men who had non-adjustable slings [638]. Post-operative transient voiding dysfunction occurred in 4.3-10.3%, mostly as *de novo* urgency or urinary retention, while erosions and chronic pain were uncommon (0-0.4%), as was explantation [631, 632, 639-641].

Practical considerations: Fixed male slings are considered safe and improve continence, but their efficacy is limited in men with severe incontinence or previous radiotherapy.

5.6.5.2.2 Adjustable slings in males

Mechanism of Action: Adjustable slings in males are those for which the tension of the sling can be adjusted post-operatively. Three main systems have been used in men: the Remeex® system [642], the Argus® system [643] and the ATOMS® system [644].

Efficacy: There is one small RCT for adjustable slings in males [645]. Most studies consist of prospective or retrospective case series, with variable follow-up and different definitions of success [642, 644-648]. A SR reported objective cure rates varying between 17-92% after adjustable sling implantation [638].

For the Remeex® system, only two studies, with conflicting findings, have been published. One study followed nineteen patients for nearly seven years and reported 70% success, with no explants, infections, or erosions [642]. The second study followed fourteen patients for 25 months. Only 36% of patients were satisfied and multiple re-adjustments were needed. Mechanical failure was reported in 21% [646].

Data on the Argus® system has been reported for 404 men, but only few series have reported on more than 40 patients, with the longest follow-up being 35-months. Success rates varied between 17-93%, with a mean of 73.0% reporting subjective cure [647, 648]. A head-to-head comparison between the two Argus systems reported similar efficacy outcomes at 44 months, but Argus T was associated with a higher inguinal pain and explantation rate [649]. A small study of 22 men with PPI randomised to AdVance or Argus T reported superior 24-hour pad test results and of patient satisfaction levels for Argus T at eighteen-months follow-up [645].

A SR of the ATOMS® system reported the pooled evidence from 1,393 patients with a 67% dryness, 90% improvement after adjustment and 16.4% complication rate [644]. The expulsion rate was 5.75%. Another SR and meta-analysis with 3,059 patients reported that ATOMS® was superior to ProACT in mean dryness rate (68% vs. 55%), overall improvement (91% vs. 80%), satisfaction rate (87% vs. 56%), mean number of filing adjustments (2.4 vs. 3.5) and post-operative pad use per day (1.1 vs. 2.1) [650].

Tolerability and Safety: The most frequent complications in adjustable male slings are pain, erosions, and infections [638]. Pain at the implant site was usually only temporary, but chronic pain has been reported in 1.5% of men [647, 648]. The number of implants requiring re-adjustment is reported between 8-38.6% [648, 651, 652]. Explantation rates range from 10-15.8% and erosion rate is estimated around 10% [635]. The most common

reasons for explantation are device infection (4.1-8%), erosions (4-12%), and urethral perforations (2.7-16%). A SR reported a device explantation rate of 5% vs. 25% and a major complication rate of 4.2% vs. 10.4% for ATOMS® and ProACT, respectively [650].

Practical considerations: There is no evidence that adjustability offers additional benefit as RCTs are lacking; therefore, no recommendation can be made at this time. Explantation rate seems superior to fixed male sling based on external comparisons.

5.6.5.2.3 Autologous slings

The strategy of intra-operative placement of an autologous vas deferens sling below the vesico-urethral anastomosis during robotic-assisted radical prostatectomy (RARP) has been explored with the intention to improve early return of continence. Two RCTs [653, 654] showed an advantage of sling vs. no sling at one-month follow-up, and another study [655] showed an advantage of a 6-branch vs. a 2-branch sling at one month follow-up. However, a larger RCT (n=195), showed that continence rate and near-continence rate were similar between groups at six months with 66% vs. 65% and 86% vs. 88%, respectively [656].

Summary of evidence	LE
There is limited short-, medium- and long-term evidence that fixed transobturator male slings cure or improve PPI in patients with mild-to-moderate incontinence.	1b
Men with severe incontinence, previous radiotherapy or transurethral surgery may have less benefit from fixed transobturator male slings.	2
There is limited evidence that adjustable male slings can cure or improve SUI in men.	3
There is no evidence that adjustability offers additional benefit over other types of slings.	3
There is no evidence that intra-operative placement of an autologous sling during RARP improves return of continence at six months.	1b

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer non-adjustable transobturator slings to men with mild-to-moderate* post-prostatectomy incontinence.	Weak
Inform men that severe incontinence, prior pelvic radiotherapy or transurethral surgery may worsen the outcome of non-adjustable male sling surgery.	Weak

* The terms "mild" and "moderate" PPI remain undefined.

5.6.5.3 Compression devices in males

5.6.5.3.1 Artificial urinary sphincter

Mechanism of action: The AUS is the standard treatment for moderate-to-severe male SUI. The AMS 800 three component system with inflatable cuff, control pump and pressure regulating balloon is the device with the longest follow-up and the greatest level of evidence [657]. The ZSI 375 is a two-component device, inflatable cuff, and control pump, allowing an easier implantation process [658]. Other AUS devices have been launched e.g., the Victo and Br-SL-AS 904 systems but robust evidence regarding their efficacy and safety is pending [659].

Efficacy: A meta-analysis of 33 cohort studies and one RCT, reported significant improvement after AUS implantation in overall cure rates (56%) and reductions in pad used per 24-hours (-3.75) [628]. Several observational studies reported on functional outcomes after AMS 800. Social continence rates (0-1 pads used daily) ranged from 55-76.8% [660-662]. A 77.2% continence rate and 89.5% subjective satisfaction rate have been reported after a median follow-up of > 15 years in 57 men who had undergone AUS placement [663]. A prospective cohort study of 40 patients with a mean follow-up of 53 months, showed that from all urodynamic parameters only low bladder compliance had a negative impact on outcome [664]. However, another retrospective study showed that no urodynamic factors adversely altered the outcome of AUS implantation [665]. Some recent multicenter studies have confirmed older statements that surgeon's experience and higher surgical volume is associated with better outcomes and a lower revision rate after AUS implantation [666, 667].

The data regarding ZSI 375 is limited. A retrospective, non-randomised trial across several centres in Europe, reported an 84.4% success rate (19.3% dry rate and 65.1% improved 0-1 pads per day) after 43 months [658]. A 72% success rate was reported at seven years follow-up for 45 patients who underwent placement of the ZSI 375 device in France [668].

Tolerability and safety: Artificial urinary sphincter complications include device infection/erosion (8.5%), mechanical failure (6.2%) and urethral atrophy (7.9%) [669]. In multivariate analysis, radiation therapy was

independently associated with risk of urethral atrophy, as were older age and a longer time interval between prostate cancer treatment and AUS surgery [662]. Urethral erosion is associated with previous irradiation and penoscrotal approach [670]. The reported revision rates at three years for any reason were 10-29.1% [660, 670-672]. The risk of urethral erosion after ZSI 375 AUS is 8.2-13.3% and risk of mechanical failure is 2.2-2.5% [658].

Practical Considerations: Artificial urinary sphincter is efficacious and improves the QoL of men with PPI. To minimise complications, it is advised to refer patients to specialised centres experienced in AUS implementation. Men considering insertion of an AUS should be fully informed that the success of the intervention relies on their ability to operate the pump. Treating physicians should keep in mind that operating the AUS may become difficult in men who develop cognitive impairment or lose manual dexterity. Artificial urinary sphincter has a limited lifespan and 'maintenance' re-operations are common in the long-term. These re-interventions should not be classified as complications [657].

5.6.5.3.2 Non-circumferential compression device (ProACT®)

Mechanism of action: The ProACT® system consists of two devices. Each device includes the balloon, the bi-lumen tubing, and the volume-adjustment port. The devices are introduced by a trocar via two small perineal incisions and are placed under fluoroscopic guidance on each side of the bladder neck, close to the vesico-urethral anastomotic site. The balloons can be filled, and their volume can be adjusted post-operatively using a hypodermic needle injected through the intra-scrotal port.

Efficacy: A SR and meta-analysis of nineteen studies including 1,264 patients reported a 60.2% dry rate, significant reduction in number of pads used per day (-3.1) and greatly improved QoL scores for ProACT® [673]; however, the level of heterogeneity among the included studies was high. A comparison between ATOMS® and ProACT®, showed that the former is associated with higher improvement and satisfaction rates and fewer complications [650]. A quasi-randomised trial comparing ProACT® with bone-anchored male slings found that both resulted in similar improvements in SUI (68% vs. 65%, respectively) [674]. A questionnaire study showed that 50% of patients were still significantly bothered by persistent incontinence following ProACT® [675]. A subgroup analysis of radiotherapy patients reported worst outcomes as compared to patients not receiving radiotherapy (46% vs. 68% success rate) as well as a higher percentage of urethral erosion for ProACT® [676].

Tolerability and safety: The most common intra-operative complication during ProACT® implantation is perforation of the bladder and/or urethra. A meta-analysis estimated a perforation rate of 5.3% [673]. The estimated overall revision rate is 22.2%, and the main causes are erosion (3.8%), device leaking (4.1%) and migration (6.5%) [673]. Other prospective series have shown that adverse events were frequent, leading to an explantation rate of 11-58% [674, 675, 677-679].

Practical Considerations: ProACT® has a satisfactory rate of success and seems to be a reasonable alternative for the treatment of male UI; however, it is associated with high complication rates.

Summary of evidence	LE
Primary AUS implantation is effective for cure of SUI in men.	1b
There are conflicting data on whether previous pelvic radiotherapy affects the outcome of AUS implantation.	3
The non-circumferential compression device (ProACT®) is effective for treatment of PPI SUI; however, it is associated with a high failure and complication rate leading to frequent explantation and particularly after pelvic radiation therapy.	2b
The rate of explantation of the AUS due to infection or erosion remains high (up to 24% in some series).	3

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer artificial urinary sphincter (AUS) to men with moderate-to-severe stress urinary incontinence.	Strong
Implantation of AUS or ProACT® for men should only be offered in expert centres.	Weak
Warn men receiving AUS or ProACT® that, although cure can be achieved there is a high risk of complications, mechanical failure, and the need for explantation.	Strong
Do not offer non-circumferential compression device (ProACT®) to men who have had pelvic radiotherapy.	Weak

5.6.6 **Surgical treatment for urgency urinary incontinence**

5.6.6.1 *Bladder wall injection of botulinum Toxin-A*

Mechanism of action: The primary mechanism of action of BoNT-A is through the inhibition of neurotransmitter release from cholinergic neurons [525]. OnabotulinumtoxinA (onabotA; BOTOX®) 100 U is licenced in Europe to treat OAB with persistent or refractory non-neurogenic UUI in adults [680, 681].

Efficacy: An RCT of OAB-wet patients whose symptoms were not adequately managed with anticholinergics and who receive either bladder wall injections of onabotA (100 U) or saline reported a 50% reduction in UUI episodes/day whilst the number of micturitions/day reduced by more than two in patients receiving onabotA [682]. A total of 22.9% of the patients in the onabotA arm were fully dry, vs. 6.5% in the saline arm.

A SR and meta-analysis comparing the efficacy of onabotA, mirabegron and anticholinergics in adults with idiopathic OAB reported that patients who received onabotA (100U) achieved greater reduction in UI episodes, surgery, micturition frequency and the highest odds of achieving dryness as well as > 50% reduction from baseline UI episodes per day [683].

A randomised, placebo-controlled pilot study, assessing the effect of onabotA for the treatment of refractory OAB symptoms after prostatectomy reported significantly improved QoL and ICIQ scores and improvements in daily frequency in patients receiving onabotA compared to placebo [684]. A retrospective trial assessed onabotA efficacy in 65 non-obstructed men with refractory OAB and reported significant improvement in UDI-6 score (-4.2) and IIQ-7 (-6.0) scores, compared to baseline [685].

In a retrospective, single-centre cohort study of onabotA treatment for OAB in 120 patients lead to lower CISC rates in male patients after prior de-obstructive surgery than in surgery-naïve patients (28.6% CISC in the group without prior surgery, 7.5% in the TURP subgroup, and 4.2% in the radical prostatectomy subgroup) [686].

A phase IIIb trial randomised solifenacin-naïve patients (10% males) with refractory OAB to onabotA, solifenacin or placebo, and showed that patients receiving onabotA had significantly greater changes in UI episodes (-3.19) compared to solifenacin (-2.6) and placebo (-1.33) [687].

A network meta-analysis (male population range 9.8-40.2%) which compared onabotA to mirabegron demonstrated that onabotA was associated with improved outcomes in frequency episodes per day (-0.43, [-1.22-0.37]) and in UI episodes per day (-0.46, [-1.46-0.53]) [688].

Tolerability and safety: Urinary retention and UTIs are the two most common adverse events after onabotA injection. Other reported adverse events include haematuria, dysuria and post-treatment pain [689]. Compared to mirabegron, onabotA is associated with higher risk for UTI and treatment emergent adverse events [688]. A retrospective analysis compared the use of CISC after onabotA injection, among men who had previous prostatectomy vs. those without prior surgery [686]. A 7.5% catheterisation rate after TURP, 4.2% rate after radical prostatectomy and 28.6% rate in men without prior prostate surgery was reported.

Practical Considerations: BoNT-A injections is a recommended treatment option for men with refractory UUI. Despite the lack of a universally accepted injection protocol, gender specific studies and absence of studies in BPO patients, BoNT-A seems superior to medical therapy. It is associated with, higher UTIs and urinary retention risk coupled with the need for repeated injections. A dedicated series in male population, focused on treatment persistence, has shown a high discontinuation rate [690]. Patients treated for OAB with onabotA treatment that have not undergone prior de-obstruction are more likely to develop retention and subsequent CISC.

Summary of evidence	LE
A single treatment session of onabotA (100 U) injected in the bladder wall is more effective than placebo at curing and improving UUI/OAB symptoms and QoL.	1b
There is no evidence that repeated injections of onabotA have reduced efficacy, but discontinuation rates are high.	3
There is an increased risk of retention and UTI with onabotA injections.	2

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer bladder wall injections of onabotulinumtoxinA (100 U) to patients with overactive bladder/urge urinary incontinence refractory to medical therapy.	Weak
Warn patients of the limited duration of response, risk of urinary tract infection and the possible prolonged need for clean intermittent self-catheterisation (ensure that they are willing and able to do so).	Strong

5.6.6.2 Sacral nerve stimulation (neuromodulation)

Mechanism of action: Sacral nerve stimulation (SNS) delivers low amplitude electrical impulses to the sacral nerve roots via an electrode implanted adjacent to the third sacral nerve root and connected to an attached pulse generator implanted in the buttocks. It works by modulating neural activity thus stabilising bladder electrical activity through an unknown mechanism. It is a two-stage process: in the first stage, a tined lead electrode is placed percutaneously near the S3 root and linked to an external stimulator to assess the response. If symptoms reduced more than 50%, patients are candidates for the second stage which is the full implant.

Efficacy: Several trials assess the clinical effectiveness of SNS. All RCTs suffer from the limitation that patients and assessors cannot be blinded to the treatment allocation since all recruited subjects had to respond to a test phase before randomisation. In addition, the percentage of male population in these trials is around 10%. A meta-analysis compared the effectiveness of SNS to onabotA and reported no significant difference in successfully treated cases at six-month follow-up (RR 0.93; 95% CI: 0.63-1.39) [691].

Tolerability and safety: Main complications after SNS are pain at the implant site (13-42%), lead migration (4.0-21%), leg or back pain (3.0-18%) and wound infection (5.7-6.7%). Surgical revision is required in 29-33% of patients due to device malfunction, battery or device replacement or lead migration [692].

Practical Considerations: Sacral nerve stimulation represents an alternative to onabotA in patients with refractory OAB, as it has been shown good success rates and an acceptable safety profile.

Summary of evidence	LE
Sacral nerve stimulation is effective after failed conservative treatment for OAB/UUI, but no sham controls have been used.	2a

Recommendation	Strength rating
Offer sacral nerve stimulation to patients who have urge urinary incontinence refractory to medical therapy and are willing to undergo surgical treatment.	Weak

5.6.6.3 Cystoplasty/urinary diversion

Mechanism of action: Augmentation cystoplasty involves the interposition of a detubularised segment of bowel into the bivalved bladder wall, aiming to increase bladder capacity and reduce OAB related symptoms. Urinary diversion remains a reconstructive option for patients with intractable UI after multiple pelvic procedures, radiotherapy or pelvic pathology leading to irreversible sphincteric incompetence or fistula formation.

Efficacy: There are no RCTs comparing bladder augmentation to other treatments for patients with refractory OAB/UUI. In a large study with three years follow-up augmentation cystoplasty resulted in a post-operative continence rate of 93% in idiopathic detrusor overactivity patients, 78% in neurogenic overactivity and up to 90% when an AUS was implanted, respectively [693]. The largest case series of bladder augmentation in an idiopathic population included only women [694]. At an average follow up of 75.4 months only 53% were continent and satisfied with the surgery, whereas 25% had occasional leaks and 18% continued to have disabling UUI. A small prospective mixed gender trial reported high patient satisfaction rates with augmentation cystoplasty vs. onabotA therapy [695]. A small study comparing ileal with colonic conduits concluded that there were no differences in the relative risks of UUT infection and uretero-intestinal stenosis [696]. However, there are no studies that have specifically examined these techniques in the treatment of intractable OAB/UUI [696]. Therefore, careful consideration on which operation is undertaken will depend on thorough pre-operative counselling, access to stoma/continence nurses as well as patient factors to allow for fully informed patient choice.

Tolerability and safety: Cystoplasty and urinary diversion are major urologic operations. The early post-operative complications include infection, bowel obstruction, bleeding, and cardiorespiratory complications.

Long-term complications include metabolic disturbances (hyperchloraemic metabolic acidosis), change in bowel habits, increased mucus production, stone formation, bladder perforation and rarely bladder cancer [697]. Following augmentation cystoplasty or diversion, the majority of patients will depend on self-catheterisation for bladder emptying. Patients with urinary conduit will depend on lifelong urine bags.

Practical Considerations: Augmentation cystoplasty and urinary diversion represent realistic treatment options for men with refractory OAB. However, both options involve a major operation, with a non-negligible long-term complication rate and a lifelong reliance on catheterisation or urine bags.

Summary of evidence	LE
There is limited evidence of the effectiveness of augmentation cystoplasty and urinary diversion in treatment of idiopathic OAB.	3
The need to perform CISC following augmentation cystoplasty is high.	3
Augmentation cystoplasty and urinary diversion are associated with high risks of short- and long-term complications.	3
There is no evidence comparing the efficacy or adverse effects of augmentation cystoplasty to urinary diversion.	3

Recommendations	Strength rating
Offer augmentation cystoplasty to patients with overactive bladder (OAB)/urge urinary incontinence (UUI) who have failed all other treatment options and are able and willing to perform self-catheterisation.	Weak
Inform patients undergoing augmentation cystoplasty of the high risk of complications; the risk of having to perform clean intermittent self-catheterisation and the need for life-long surveillance.	Strong
Only offer urinary diversion to patients who have failed less invasive therapies for the treatment of OAB/UUI, who will accept a stoma.	Weak

6. FOLLOW-UP

6.1 Watchful waiting (behavioural)

Patients who elect to pursue a WW policy should be reviewed at six months and then annually, provided there is no deterioration of symptoms or development of absolute indications for surgical treatment. The following are recommended at follow-up visits: history, IPSS, uroflowmetry, and PVR volume.

6.2 Medical treatment

Patients receiving α 1-blockers, muscarinic receptor antagonists, beta-3 agonists, PDE5Is or the combination of α 1-blockers and 5-ARIs or muscarinic receptor antagonists should be reviewed four to six weeks after drug initiation to determine the treatment response. If patients gain symptomatic relief in the absence of troublesome adverse events, drug therapy may be continued. Patients should be reviewed at six months and then annually, provided there is no deterioration of symptoms or development of absolute indications for surgical treatment. The following are recommended at follow-up visits: history, IPSS, uroflowmetry, and PVR volume. Frequency volume charts or bladder diaries should be used to assess response to treatment for predominant storage symptoms or nocturnal polyuria.

Patients receiving 5-ARIs should be reviewed after twelve weeks and six months to determine their response and adverse events. The following are recommended at follow-up visits: history, IPSS, uroflowmetry and PVR volume. Men taking 5-ARIs should be followed up regularly using serial PSA testing if life expectancy is greater than ten years and if a diagnosis of PCa could alter management. A new baseline PSA should be determined at six months, and any confirmed increase in PSA while on 5-ARIs should be evaluated.

In patients receiving desmopressin, serum sodium concentration should be measured at day three and seven, one month after initiating therapy and periodically during treatment. If serum sodium concentration has remained normal during periodic screening follow-up screening can be carried out every three months subsequently. However, serum sodium concentration should be monitored more frequently in patients \geq 65 years of age and in patients at increased risk of hyponatremia. The following tests are recommended at follow-up visits: serum-sodium concentration and FVC. The follow-up sequence should be restarted after dose escalation.

6.3 Surgical treatment

After prostate surgery, patients should be reviewed four to six weeks after catheter removal to evaluate treatment response and adverse events. If patients have symptomatic relief and are without adverse events, no further re-assessment is necessary. The following tests are recommended at follow-up visit after four to six weeks: IPSS, uroflowmetry and PVR volume.

Summary of evidence	LE
Follow-up for all conservative, medical, or operative treatment modalities is based on empirical data or theoretical considerations, but not on evidence-based studies.	4

Recommendations	Strength rating
Follow-up all patients who receive conservative, medical, or surgical management.	Weak
Define follow-up intervals and examinations according to the specific treatment.	Weak

7. REFERENCES

1. Guyatt, G.H., *et al.* GRADE: an emerging consensus on rating quality of evidence and strength of recommendations. *BMJ*, 2008. 336: 924.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18436948/>
2. Guyatt, G.H., *et al.* What is "quality of evidence" and why is it important to clinicians? *BMJ*, 2008. 336: 995.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18456631/>
3. Phillips B, *et al.* Oxford Centre for Evidence-based Medicine Levels of Evidence. Updated by Jeremy Howick March 2009. 1998.
<https://www.cebm.ox.ac.uk/resources/levels-of-evidence/oxford-centre-for-evidence-based-medicine-levels-of-evidence-march-2009>
4. Guyatt, G.H., *et al.* Going from evidence to recommendations. *BMJ*, 2008. 336: 1049.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18467413/>
5. Abrams, P., *et al.* The standardisation of terminology of lower urinary tract function: report from the Standardisation Sub-committee of the International Continence Society. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2002. 21: 167.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11857671/>
6. Martin, S.A., *et al.* Prevalence and factors associated with uncomplicated storage and voiding lower urinary tract symptoms in community-dwelling Australian men. *World J Urol*, 2011. 29: 179.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20963421/>
7. Société Internationale d'Urologie (SIU), Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms (LUTS): An International Consultation on Male LUTS. , C. Chapple & P. Abrams, Editors. 2013.
8. Kupelian, V., *et al.* Prevalence of lower urinary tract symptoms and effect on quality of life in a racially and ethnically diverse random sample: the Boston Area Community Health (BACH) Survey. *Arch Intern Med*, 2006. 166: 2381.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17130393/>
9. Agarwal, A., *et al.* What is the most bothersome lower urinary tract symptom? Individual- and population-level perspectives for both men and women. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 1211.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24486308/>
10. De Ridder, D., *et al.* Urgency and other lower urinary tract symptoms in men aged ≥ 40 years: a Belgian epidemiological survey using the ICIQ-MLUTS questionnaire. *Int J Clin Pract*, 2015. 69: 358.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25648652/>
11. Taub, D.A., *et al.* The economics of benign prostatic hyperplasia and lower urinary tract symptoms in the United States. *Curr Urol Rep*, 2006. 7: 272.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16930498/>
12. Gacci, M., *et al.* Metabolic syndrome and benign prostatic enlargement: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJU Int*, 2015. 115: 24.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24602293/>
13. Gacci, M., *et al.* Male Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms and Cardiovascular Events: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 788.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27451136/>

14. Kogan, M.I., *et al.* Epidemiology and impact of urinary incontinence, overactive bladder, and other lower urinary tract symptoms: results of the EPIC survey in Russia, Czech Republic, and Turkey. *Curr Med Res Opin*, 2014. 30: 2119.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24932562/>
15. Chapple, C.R., *et al.* Lower urinary tract symptoms revisited: a broader clinical perspective. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 563.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18423969/>
16. Ficarra, V., *et al.* The role of inflammation in lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) due to benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH) and its potential impact on medical therapy. *Curr Urol Rep*, 2014. 15: 463.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25312251/>
17. He, Q., *et al.* Metabolic syndrome, inflammation and lower urinary tract symptoms: possible translational links. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2016. 19: 7.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26391088/>
18. Drake, M.J. Do we need a new definition of the overactive bladder syndrome? ICI-RS 2013. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2014. 33: 622.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24838519/>
19. Chapple, C.R., *et al.* Terminology report from the International Continence Society (ICS) Working Group on Underactive Bladder (UAB). *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2018. 37: 2928.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30203560/>
20. Novara, G., *et al.* Critical Review of Guidelines for BPH Diagnosis and Treatment Strategy. *Eur Urol Suppl* 2006. 4: 418.
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1569905606000121>
21. McVary, K.T., *et al.* Update on AUA guideline on the management of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2011. 185: 1793.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21420124/>
22. Bosch, J., *et al.* Etiology, Patient Assessment and Predicting Outcome from Therapy. International Consultation on Urological Diseases Male LUTS Guideline 2013. (In press).
<https://snucm.elsevierpure.com/en/publications/lower-urinary-tract-symptoms-in-men-male-luts-etiology-patient-as>
23. Martin, R.M., *et al.* Lower urinary tract symptoms and risk of prostate cancer: the HUNT 2 Cohort, Norway. *Int J Cancer*, 2008. 123: 1924.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18661522/>
24. Young, J.M., *et al.* Are men with lower urinary tract symptoms at increased risk of prostate cancer? A systematic review and critique of the available evidence. *BJU Int*, 2000. 85: 1037.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10848691/>
25. Bright, E., *et al.* Urinary diaries: evidence for the development and validation of diary content, format, and duration. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2011. 30: 348.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21284023/>
26. De Nunzio, C., *et al.* Erectile Dysfunction and Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2017. 3: 352.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29191671/>
27. Barqawi, A.B., *et al.* Methods of developing UWIN, the modified American Urological Association symptom score. *J Urol*, 2011. 186: 940.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21791346/>
28. Barry, M.J., *et al.* The American Urological Association symptom index for benign prostatic hyperplasia. The Measurement Committee of the American Urological Association. *J Urol*, 1992. 148: 1549.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1279218/>
29. Donovan, J.L., *et al.* Scoring the short form ICSmaleSF questionnaire. International Continence Society. *J Urol*, 2000. 164: 1948.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11061889/>
30. Epstein, R.S., *et al.* Validation of a new quality of life questionnaire for benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Clin Epidemiol*, 1992. 45: 1431.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1281223/>
31. Homma, Y., *et al.* Symptom assessment tool for overactive bladder syndrome--overactive bladder symptom score. *Urology*, 2006. 68: 318.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16904444/>
32. Schou, J., *et al.* The value of a new symptom score (DAN-PSS) in diagnosing uro-dynamic infravesical obstruction in BPH. *Scand J Urol Nephrol*, 1993. 27: 489.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7512747/>

33. Homma, Y., *et al.* Core Lower Urinary Tract Symptom score (CLSS) questionnaire: a reliable tool in the overall assessment of lower urinary tract symptoms. *Int J Urol*, 2008. 15: 816.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18657204/>
34. D'Silva, K.A., *et al.* Does this man with lower urinary tract symptoms have bladder outlet obstruction?: The Rational Clinical Examination: a systematic review. *JAMA*, 2014. 312: 535.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25096693/>
35. ICIQ. International Consultation on Incontinence Questionnaire Male Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Module (ICIQ-MLUTS). 2022.
<https://icq.net/icq-mluts-1f>
36. Bryan, N.P., *et al.* Frequency volume charts in the assessment and evaluation of treatment: how should we use them? *Eur Urol*, 2004. 46: 636.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15474275/>
37. Gisolf, K.W., *et al.* Analysis and reliability of data from 24-hour frequency-volume charts in men with lower urinary tract symptoms due to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Eur Urol*, 2000. 38: 45.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10859441/>
38. Cornu, J.N., *et al.* A contemporary assessment of nocturia: definition, epidemiology, pathophysiology, and management--a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 62: 877.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22840350/>
39. Weiss, J.P. Nocturia: "do the math". *J Urol*, 2006. 175: S16.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16458734/>
40. Weiss, J.P., *et al.* Nocturia Think Tank: focus on nocturnal polyuria: ICI-RS 2011. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2012. 31: 330.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22415907/>
41. Vaughan, C.P., *et al.* Military exposure and urinary incontinence among American men. *J Urol*, 2014. 191: 125.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23871759/>
42. Yap, T.L., *et al.* A systematic review of the reliability of frequency-volume charts in urological research and its implications for the optimum chart duration. *BJU Int*, 2007. 99: 9.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16956355/>
43. Bright, E., *et al.* Developing and validating the International Consultation on Incontinence Questionnaire bladder diary. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 294.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24647230/>
44. Weissfeld, J.L., *et al.* Quality control of cancer screening examination procedures in the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian (PLCO) Cancer Screening Trial. *Control Clin Trials*, 2000. 21: 390s.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11189690/>
45. Roehrborn, C.G. Accurate determination of prostate size via digital rectal examination and transrectal ultrasound. *Urology*, 1998. 51: 19.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9586592/>
46. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Interexaminer reliability and validity of a three-dimensional model to assess prostate volume by digital rectal examination. *Urology*, 2001. 57: 1087.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11377314/>
47. Bosch, J.L., *et al.* Validity of digital rectal examination and serum prostate specific antigen in the estimation of prostate volume in community-based men aged 50 to 78 years: the Krimpen Study. *Eur Urol*, 2004. 46: 753.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15548443/>
48. Babjuk, M., *et al.* EAU Guidelines on Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Cancer In: EAU Guidelines published at the 38th EAU Annual Congress, Milan 2023. Arnhem, The Netherlands.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/non-muscle-invasive-bladder-cancer>
49. Bonkat, G., *et al.* EAU Guidelines on Urological Infections In: EAU Guidelines published at the 38th EAU Annual Congress, Milan 2023. Arnhem, The Netherlands.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/urological-infections>
50. Palou, J., *et al.* ICUD-EAU International Consultation on Bladder Cancer 2012: Urothelial carcinoma of the prostate. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 81.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22938869/>
51. Roupret, M., *et al.* EAU Guidelines on Upper Urinary Tract Urothelial Cell Carcinoma In: EAU Guidelines published at the 38th EAU Annual Congress, Milan 2023. Arnhem, The Netherlands.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/upper-urinary-tract-urothelial-cell-carcinoma>
52. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia: a comparative, international overview. *Urology*, 2001. 58: 642.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11711329/>

53. Abrams, P., *et al.* Evaluation and treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms in older men. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: S93.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23234640/>
54. Medicine., E.C.o.L. European urinalysis guidelines. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest Suppl*, 2000. 231: 1.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12647764/>
55. Khasriya, R., *et al.* The inadequacy of urinary dipstick and microscopy as surrogate markers of urinary tract infection in urological outpatients with lower urinary tract symptoms without acute frequency and dysuria. *J Urol*, 2010. 183: 1843.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20303096/>
56. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Serum prostate-specific antigen as a predictor of prostate volume in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 1999. 53: 581.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10096388/>
57. Bohnen, A.M., *et al.* Serum prostate-specific antigen as a predictor of prostate volume in the community: the Krimpen study. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 51: 1645.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17320271/>
58. Kayikci, A., *et al.* Free prostate-specific antigen is a better tool than total prostate-specific antigen at predicting prostate volume in patients with lower urinary tract symptoms. *Urology*, 2012. 80: 1088.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23107399/>
59. Morote, J., *et al.* Prediction of prostate volume based on total and free serum prostate-specific antigen: is it reliable? *Eur Urol*, 2000. 38: 91.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10859448/>
60. Mottet, N., *et al.* EAU - EANM - ESTRO - ESUR - ISUP - SIOG Guidelines on Prostate Cancer. Edn. presented at the EAU Annual Congress Milan. 2021.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/archive/prostate-cancer>
61. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Serum prostate specific antigen is a strong predictor of future prostate growth in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. PROSCAR long-term efficacy and safety study. *J Urol*, 2000. 163: 13.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10604304/>
62. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Serum prostate-specific antigen and prostate volume predict long-term changes in symptoms and flow rate: results of a four-year, randomized trial comparing finasteride versus placebo. PLESS Study Group. *Urology*, 1999. 54: 662.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10510925/>
63. Djavan, B., *et al.* Longitudinal study of men with mild symptoms of bladder outlet obstruction treated with watchful waiting for four years. *Urology*, 2004. 64: 1144.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15596187/>
64. Patel, D.N., *et al.* PSA predicts development of incident lower urinary tract symptoms: Results from the REDUCE study. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2018. 21: 238.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29795141/>
65. McConnell, J.D., *et al.* The long-term effect of doxazosin, finasteride, and combination therapy on the clinical progression of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *N Engl J Med*, 2003. 349: 2387.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/14681504/>
66. Roehrborn, C.G. Alfuzosin 10 mg once daily prevents overall clinical progression of benign prostatic hyperplasia but not acute urinary retention: results of a 2-year placebo-controlled study. *BJU Int*, 2006. 97: 734.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16536764/>
67. Jacobsen, S.J., *et al.* Treatment for benign prostatic hyperplasia among community dwelling men: the Olmsted County study of urinary symptoms and health status. *J Urol*, 1999. 162: 1301.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10492184/>
68. Lim, K.B., *et al.* Comparison of intravesical prostatic protrusion, prostate volume and serum prostatic-specific antigen in the evaluation of bladder outlet obstruction. *Int J Urol*, 2006. 13: 1509.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17118026/>
69. Meigs, J.B., *et al.* Risk factors for clinical benign prostatic hyperplasia in a community-based population of healthy aging men. *J Clin Epidemiol*, 2001. 54: 935.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11520654/>
70. Gerber, G.S., *et al.* Serum creatinine measurements in men with lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 1997. 49: 697.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9145973/>
71. Oelke, M., *et al.* Can we identify men who will have complications from benign prostatic obstruction (BPO)? ICI-RS 2011. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2012. 31: 322.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22415947/>

72. Comiter, C.V., *et al.* Urodynamic risk factors for renal dysfunction in men with obstructive and nonobstructive voiding dysfunction. *J Urol*, 1997. 158: 181.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9186351/>
73. Koch, W.F., *et al.* The outcome of renal ultrasound in the assessment of 556 consecutive patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 1996. 155: 186.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7490828/>
74. Rule, A.D., *et al.* The association between benign prostatic hyperplasia and chronic kidney disease in community-dwelling men. *Kidney Int*, 2005. 67: 2376.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15882282/>
75. Hong, S.K., *et al.* Chronic kidney disease among men with lower urinary tract symptoms due to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *BJU Int*, 2010. 105: 1424.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19874305/>
76. Lee, J.H., *et al.* Relationship of estimated glomerular filtration rate with lower urinary tract symptoms/benign prostatic hyperplasia measures in middle-aged men with moderate to severe lower urinary tract symptoms. *Urology*, 2013. 82: 1381.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24063940/>
77. Mebust, W.K., *et al.* Transurethral prostatectomy: immediate and postoperative complications. A cooperative study of 13 participating institutions evaluating 3,885 patients. *J Urol*, 1989. 141: 243.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2643719/>
78. Rule, A.D., *et al.* Longitudinal changes in post-void residual and voided volume among community dwelling men. *J Urol*, 2005. 174: 1317.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16145411/>
79. Sullivan, M.P., *et al.* Detrusor contractility and compliance characteristics in adult male patients with obstructive and nonobstructive voiding dysfunction. *J Urol*, 1996. 155: 1995.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8618307/>
80. Oelke, M., *et al.* Diagnostic accuracy of noninvasive tests to evaluate bladder outlet obstruction in men: detrusor wall thickness, uroflowmetry, postvoid residual urine, and prostate volume. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 52: 827.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17207910/>
81. Emberton, M. Definition of at-risk patients: dynamic variables. *BJU Int*, 2006. 97 Suppl 2: 12.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16507047/>
82. Mochtar, C.A., *et al.* Post-void residual urine volume is not a good predictor of the need for invasive therapy among patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 213.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16406914/>
83. Jorgensen, J.B., *et al.* Age-related variation in urinary flow variables and flow curve patterns in elderly males. *Br J Urol*, 1992. 69: 265.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1373664/>
84. Krane, R., *et al.* Causes for variability in repeated pressure-flow measurements. *Urology*, 2003. 61: 930.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12736007/>
85. Reynard, J.M., *et al.* The ICS-'BPH' Study: uroflowmetry, lower urinary tract symptoms and bladder outlet obstruction. *Br J Urol*, 1998. 82: 619.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9839573/>
86. Idzenga, T., *et al.* Accuracy of maximum flow rate for diagnosing bladder outlet obstruction can be estimated from the ICS nomogram. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2008. 27: 97.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17600368/>
87. Siroky, M.B., *et al.* The flow rate nomogram: I. Development. *J Urol*, 1979. 122: 665.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/159366/>
88. Siroky, M.B., *et al.* The flow rate nomogram: II. Clinical correlation. *J Urol*, 1980. 123: 208.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7354519/>
89. Reynard, J.M., *et al.* The value of multiple free-flow studies in men with lower urinary tract symptoms. *Br J Urol*, 1996. 77: 813.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8705213/>
90. Grossfeld, G.D., *et al.* Benign prostatic hyperplasia: clinical overview and value of diagnostic imaging. *Radiol Clin North Am*, 2000. 38: 31.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10664665/>
91. Thorpe, A., *et al.* Benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Lancet*, 2003. 361: 1359.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12711484/>
92. Wilkinson, A.G., *et al.* Is pre-operative imaging of the urinary tract worthwhile in the assessment of prostatism? *Br J Urol*, 1992. 70: 53.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1379105/>

93. Loch, A.C., *et al.* Technical and anatomical essentials for transrectal ultrasound of the prostate. *World J Urol*, 2007. 25: 361.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17701043/>
94. Stravodimos, K.G., *et al.* TRUS versus transabdominal ultrasound as a predictor of enucleated adenoma weight in patients with BPH: a tool for standard preoperative work-up? *Int Urol Nephrol*, 2009. 41: 767.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19350408/>
95. Shoukry, I., *et al.* Role of uroflowmetry in the assessment of lower urinary tract obstruction in adult males. *Br J Urol*, 1975. 47: 559.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1191927/>
96. Anikwe, R.M. Correlations between clinical findings and urinary flow rate in benign prostatic hypertrophy. *Int Surg*, 1976. 61: 392.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/61184/>
97. el Din, K.E., *et al.* The correlation between bladder outlet obstruction and lower urinary tract symptoms as measured by the international prostate symptom score. *J Urol*, 1996. 156: 1020.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8709300/>
98. Oelke, M., *et al.* Age and bladder outlet obstruction are independently associated with detrusor overactivity in patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 419.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18325657/>
99. Oh, M.M., *et al.* Is there a correlation between the presence of idiopathic detrusor overactivity and the degree of bladder outlet obstruction? *Urology*, 2011. 77: 167.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20934743/>
100. Jeong, S.J., *et al.* Prevalence and Clinical Features of Detrusor Underactivity among Elderly with Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms: A Comparison between Men and Women. *Korean J Urol*, 2012. 53: 342.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22670194/>
101. Thomas, A.W., *et al.* The natural history of lower urinary tract dysfunction in men: the influence of detrusor underactivity on the outcome after transurethral resection of the prostate with a minimum 10-year urodynamic follow-up. *BJU Int*, 2004. 93: 745.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15049984/>
102. Al-Hayek, S., *et al.* Natural history of detrusor contractility--minimum ten-year urodynamic follow-up in men with bladder outlet obstruction and those with detrusor. *Scand J Urol Nephrol Suppl*, 2004: 101.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15545204/>
103. Thomas, A.W., *et al.* The natural history of lower urinary tract dysfunction in men: minimum 10-year urodynamic followup of transurethral resection of prostate for bladder outlet obstruction. *J Urol*, 2005. 174: 1887.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16217330/>
104. Drake, M.J., *et al.* Diagnostic Assessment of Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms in Men Considering Prostate Surgery: A Noninferiority Randomised Controlled Trial of Urodynamics in 26 Hospitals. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 78: 701.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32616406/>
105. Aiello, M., *et al.* Quality control of uroflowmetry and urodynamic data from two large multicenter studies of male lower urinary tract symptoms. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2020. 39: 1170.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32187720/>
106. Young, G.J., *et al.* Prostate Surgery for Men with Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms: Do We Need Urodynamics to Find the Right Candidates? Exploratory Findings from the UPSTREAM Trial. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2021.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34922898/>
107. Blok, B., *et al.* EAU Guidelines on Neuro-urology In: EAU Guidelines published at the 38th EAU Annual Congress, Milan 2023. Arnhem, The Netherlands.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/neuro-urology>
108. Kojima, M., *et al.* Correlation of presumed circle area ratio with infravesical obstruction in men with lower urinary tract symptoms. *Urology*, 1997. 50: 548.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9338730/>
109. Chia, S.J., *et al.* Correlation of intravesical prostatic protrusion with bladder outlet obstruction. *BJU Int*, 2003. 91: 371.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12603417/>
110. Keqin, Z., *et al.* Clinical significance of intravesical prostatic protrusion in patients with benign prostatic enlargement. *Urology*, 2007. 70: 1096.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18158025/>

111. Mariappan, P., *et al.* Intravesical prostatic protrusion is better than prostate volume in predicting the outcome of trial without catheter in white men presenting with acute urinary retention: a prospective clinical study. *J Urol*, 2007. 178: 573.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17570437/>
112. Tan, Y.H., *et al.* Intravesical prostatic protrusion predicts the outcome of a trial without catheter following acute urine retention. *J Urol*, 2003. 170: 2339.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/14634410/>
113. Arnolds, M., *et al.* Positioning invasive versus noninvasive urodynamics in the assessment of bladder outlet obstruction. *Curr Opin Urol*, 2009. 19: 55.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19057217/>
114. Manieri, C., *et al.* The diagnosis of bladder outlet obstruction in men by ultrasound measurement of bladder wall thickness. *J Urol*, 1998. 159: 761.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9474143/>
115. Kessler, T.M., *et al.* Ultrasound assessment of detrusor thickness in men-can it predict bladder outlet obstruction and replace pressure flow study? *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 2170.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16697831/>
116. Blatt, A.H., *et al.* Ultrasound measurement of bladder wall thickness in the assessment of voiding dysfunction. *J Urol*, 2008. 179: 2275.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18423703/>
117. Oelke, M. International Consultation on Incontinence-Research Society (ICI-RS) report on non-invasive urodynamics: the need of standardization of ultrasound bladder and detrusor wall thickness measurements to quantify bladder wall hypertrophy. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2010. 29: 634.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20432327/>
118. Kojima, M., *et al.* Ultrasonic estimation of bladder weight as a measure of bladder hypertrophy in men with infravesical obstruction: a preliminary report. *Urology*, 1996. 47: 942.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8677600/>
119. Kojima, M., *et al.* Noninvasive quantitative estimation of infravesical obstruction using ultrasonic measurement of bladder weight. *J Urol*, 1997. 157: 476.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8996337/>
120. Akino, H., *et al.* Ultrasound-estimated bladder weight predicts risk of surgery for benign prostatic hyperplasia in men using alpha-adrenoceptor blocker for LUTS. *Urology*, 2008. 72: 817.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18597835/>
121. McIntosh, S.L., *et al.* Noninvasive assessment of bladder contractility in men. *J Urol*, 2004. 172: 1394.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15371853/>
122. Drinnan, M.J., *et al.* Inter-observer agreement in the estimation of bladder pressure using a penile cuff. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2003. 22: 296.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12808703/>
123. Griffiths, C.J., *et al.* A nomogram to classify men with lower urinary tract symptoms using urine flow and noninvasive measurement of bladder pressure. *J Urol*, 2005. 174: 1323.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16145412/>
124. Clarkson, B., *et al.* Continuous non-invasive measurement of bladder voiding pressure using an experimental constant low-flow test. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2012. 31: 557.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22190105/>
125. Van Mastrigt, R., *et al.* Towards a noninvasive urodynamic diagnosis of infravesical obstruction. *BJU Int*, 1999. 84: 195.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10444152/>
126. Pel, J.J., *et al.* Development of a non-invasive strategy to classify bladder outlet obstruction in male patients with LUTS. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2002. 21: 117.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11857664/>
127. Shinbo, H., *et al.* Application of ultrasonography and the resistive index for evaluating bladder outlet obstruction in patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Curr Urol Rep*, 2011. 12: 255.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21475953/>
128. Ku, J.H., *et al.* Correlation between prostatic urethral angle and bladder outlet obstruction index in patients with lower urinary tract symptoms. *Urology*, 2010. 75: 1467.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19962734/>
129. Malde, S., *et al.* Systematic Review of the Performance of Noninvasive Tests in Diagnosing Bladder Outlet Obstruction in Men with Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms. *Eur Urol*, 2016.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27687821/>

130. Els, M., *et al.* Prospective comparison of the novel visual prostate symptom score (VPSS) versus the international prostate symptom score (IPSS), and assessment of patient pain perception with regard to transrectal ultrasound guided prostate biopsy. *Int Braz J Urol*, 2019. 45: 137.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30620160/>
131. Sanman, K.N., *et al.* Can new, improvised Visual Prostate Symptom Score replace the International Prostate Symptom Score? Indian perspective. *Indian J Urol*, 2020. 36: 123.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32549664/>
132. Grosso, G., *et al.* The Potential Role of MicroRNAs as Biomarkers in Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2019. 5: 497.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29398458/>
133. Ball, A.J., *et al.* The natural history of untreated "prostatism". *Br J Urol*, 1981. 53: 613.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/6172172/>
134. Kirby, R.S. The natural history of benign prostatic hyperplasia: what have we learned in the last decade? *Urology*, 2000. 56: 3.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11074195/>
135. Isaacs, J.T. Importance of the natural history of benign prostatic hyperplasia in the evaluation of pharmacologic intervention. *Prostate Suppl*, 1990. 3: 1.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1689166/>
136. Netto, N.R., Jr., *et al.* Evaluation of patients with bladder outlet obstruction and mild international prostate symptom score followed up by watchful waiting. *Urology*, 1999. 53: 314.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9933046/>
137. Flanigan, R.C., *et al.* 5-year outcome of surgical resection and watchful waiting for men with moderately symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia: a Department of Veterans Affairs cooperative study. *J Urol*, 1998. 160: 12.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9628595/>
138. Wasson, J.H., *et al.* A comparison of transurethral surgery with watchful waiting for moderate symptoms of benign prostatic hyperplasia. The Veterans Affairs Cooperative Study Group on Transurethral Resection of the Prostate. *N Engl J Med*, 1995. 332: 75.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7527493/>
139. Brown, C.T., *et al.* Self management for men with lower urinary tract symptoms: randomised controlled trial. *BMJ*, 2007. 334: 25.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17118949/>
140. Yap, T.L., *et al.* The impact of self-management of lower urinary tract symptoms on frequency-volume chart measures. *BJU Int*, 2009. 104: 1104.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19485993/>
141. Albarqouni, L., *et al.* Self-Management for Men With Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Ann Fam Med*, 2021. 19: 157.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33685877/>
142. Brown, C.T., *et al.* Defining the components of a self-management programme for men with uncomplicated lower urinary tract symptoms: a consensus approach. *Eur Urol*, 2004. 46: 254.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15245822/>
143. Michel, M.C., *et al.* Alpha1-, alpha2- and beta-adrenoceptors in the urinary bladder, urethra and prostate. *Br J Pharmacol*, 2006. 147 Suppl 2: S88.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16465187/>
144. Kortmann, B.B., *et al.* Urodynamic effects of alpha-adrenoceptor blockers: a review of clinical trials. *Urology*, 2003. 62: 1.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12837408/>
145. Barendrecht, M.M., *et al.* Do alpha1-adrenoceptor antagonists improve lower urinary tract symptoms by reducing bladder outlet resistance? *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2008. 27: 226.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17638312/>
146. Djavan, B., *et al.* State of the art on the efficacy and tolerability of alpha1-adrenoceptor antagonists in patients with lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 2004. 64: 1081.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15596173/>
147. Michel, M.C., *et al.* Comparison of tamsulosin efficacy in subgroups of patients with lower urinary tract symptoms. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 1998. 1: 332.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12496876/>

148. Fusco, F., *et al.* alpha1-Blockers Improve Benign Prostatic Obstruction in Men with Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Urodynamic Studies. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 1091.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26831507/>
149. Boyle, P., *et al.* Meta-analysis of randomized trials of terazosin in the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 2001. 58: 717.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11711348/>
150. Roehrborn, C.G. Three months' treatment with the alpha1-blocker alfuzosin does not affect total or transition zone volume of the prostate. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2006. 9: 121.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16304557/>
151. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* The effects of dutasteride, tamsulosin and combination therapy on lower urinary tract symptoms in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia and prostatic enlargement: 2-year results from the CombAT study. *J Urol*, 2008. 179: 616.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18082216/>
152. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* The effects of combination therapy with dutasteride and tamsulosin on clinical outcomes in men with symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia: 4-year results from the CombAT study. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 57: 123.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19825505/>
153. Creta, M., *et al.* Detrusor overactivity and underactivity: implication for lower urinary tract symptoms related to benign prostate hyperplasia diagnosis and treatment. *Minerva Urol Nephrol*, 2020.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32026666/>
154. Karavitakis, M., *et al.* Management of Urinary Retention in Patients with Benign Prostatic Obstruction: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 788.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30773327/>
155. Nickel, J.C., *et al.* A meta-analysis of the vascular-related safety profile and efficacy of alpha-adrenergic blockers for symptoms related to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Int J Clin Pract*, 2008. 62: 1547.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18822025/>
156. Barendrecht, M.M., *et al.* Treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostatic hyperplasia: the cardiovascular system. *BJU Int*, 2005. 95 Suppl 4: 19.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15871732/>
157. Chapple, C.R., *et al.* Silodosin therapy for lower urinary tract symptoms in men with suspected benign prostatic hyperplasia: results of an international, randomized, double-blind, placebo- and active-controlled clinical trial performed in Europe. *Eur Urol*, 2011. 59: 342.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21109344/>
158. Welk, B., *et al.* The risk of fall and fracture with the initiation of a prostate-selective alpha antagonist: a population based cohort study. *BMJ*, 2015. 351: h5398.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26502947/>
159. Chang, D.F., *et al.* Intraoperative floppy iris syndrome associated with tamsulosin. *J Cataract Refract Surg*, 2005. 31: 664.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15899440/>
160. Chatziralli, I.P., *et al.* Risk factors for intraoperative floppy iris syndrome: a meta-analysis. *Ophthalmology*, 2011. 118: 730.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21168223/>
161. van Dijk, M.M., *et al.* Effects of alpha(1)-adrenoceptor antagonists on male sexual function. *Drugs*, 2006. 66: 287.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16526818/>
162. Gacci, M., *et al.* Impact of medical treatments for male lower urinary tract symptoms due to benign prostatic hyperplasia on ejaculatory function: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Sex Med*, 2014. 11: 1554.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24708055/>
163. Andriole, G., *et al.* Dihydrotestosterone and the prostate: the scientific rationale for 5alpha-reductase inhibitors in the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2004. 172: 1399.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15371854/>
164. Rittmaster, R.S., *et al.* Evidence for atrophy and apoptosis in the prostates of men given finasteride. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*, 1996. 81: 814.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8636309/>
165. Naslund, M.J., *et al.* A review of the clinical efficacy and safety of 5alpha-reductase inhibitors for the enlarged prostate. *Clin Ther*, 2007. 29: 17.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17379044/>

166. Andersen, J.T., *et al.* Can finasteride reverse the progress of benign prostatic hyperplasia? A two-year placebo-controlled study. The Scandinavian BPH Study Group. *Urology*, 1995. 46: 631.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7495111/>
167. Kirby, R.S., *et al.* Efficacy and tolerability of doxazosin and finasteride, alone or in combination, in treatment of symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia: the Prospective European Doxazosin and Combination Therapy (PREDICT) trial. *Urology*, 2003. 61: 119.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12559281/>
168. Lepor, H., *et al.* The efficacy of terazosin, finasteride, or both in benign prostatic hyperplasia. Veterans Affairs Cooperative Studies Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia Study Group. *N Engl J Med*, 1996. 335: 533.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8684407/>
169. Marberger, M.J. Long-term effects of finasteride in patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia: a double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicenter study. PROWESS Study Group. *Urology*, 1998. 51: 677.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9610579/>
170. McConnell, J.D., *et al.* The effect of finasteride on the risk of acute urinary retention and the need for surgical treatment among men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. Finasteride Long-Term Efficacy and Safety Study Group. *N Engl J Med*, 1998. 338: 557.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9475762/>
171. Nickel, J.C., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of finasteride therapy for benign prostatic hyperplasia: results of a 2-year randomized controlled trial (the PROSPECT study). PROscar Safety Plus Efficacy Canadian Two year Study. *Cmaj*, 1996. 155: 1251.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8911291/>
172. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of a dual inhibitor of 5-alpha-reductase types 1 and 2 (dutasteride) in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 2002. 60: 434.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12350480/>
173. Nickel, J.C., *et al.* Comparison of dutasteride and finasteride for treating benign prostatic hyperplasia: the Enlarged Prostate International Comparator Study (EPICS). *BJU Int*, 2011. 108: 388.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21631695/>
174. Boyle, P., *et al.* Prostate volume predicts outcome of treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia with finasteride: meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Urology*, 1996. 48: 398.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8804493/>
175. Gittelman, M., *et al.* Dutasteride improves objective and subjective disease measures in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia and modest or severe prostate enlargement. *J Urol*, 2006. 176: 1045.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16890688/>
176. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Long-term sustained improvement in symptoms of benign prostatic hyperplasia with the dual 5alpha-reductase inhibitor dutasteride: results of 4-year studies. *BJU Int*, 2005. 96: 572.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16104912/>
177. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* The influence of baseline parameters on changes in international prostate symptom score with dutasteride, tamsulosin, and combination therapy among men with symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia and an enlarged prostate: 2-year data from the CombAT study. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 55: 461.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19013011/>
178. Roehrborn, C.G. BPH progression: concept and key learning from MTOPS, ALTESS, COMBAT, and ALF-ONE. *BJU Int*, 2008. 101 Suppl 3: 17.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18307681/>
179. Andersen, J.T., *et al.* Finasteride significantly reduces acute urinary retention and need for surgery in patients with symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 1997. 49: 839.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9187688/>
180. Kirby, R.S., *et al.* Long-term urodynamic effects of finasteride in benign prostatic hyperplasia: a pilot study. *Eur Urol*, 1993. 24: 20.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7689971/>
181. Tammela, T.L., *et al.* Long-term effects of finasteride on invasive urodynamics and symptoms in the treatment of patients with bladder outflow obstruction due to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 1995. 154: 1466.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7544845/>
182. Donohue, J.F., *et al.* Transurethral prostate resection and bleeding: a randomized, placebo controlled trial of role of finasteride for decreasing operative blood loss. *J Urol*, 2002. 168: 2024.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12394700/>

183. Khwaja, M.A., *et al.* The Effect of Two Weeks Preoperative Finasteride Therapy in Reducing Prostate Vascularity. *J Coll Phys Surg Pakistan*, 2016. 26: 213.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26975954/>
184. Corona, G., *et al.* Sexual dysfunction in subjects treated with inhibitors of 5alpha-reductase for benign prostatic hyperplasia: a comprehensive review and meta-analysis. *Andrology*, 2017. 5: 671.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28453908/>
185. Andriole, G.L., *et al.* Effect of dutasteride on the risk of prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2010. 362: 1192.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20357281/>
186. Thompson, I.M., *et al.* The influence of finasteride on the development of prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*, 2003. 349: 215.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12824459/>
187. Hsieh, T.F., *et al.* Use of 5-alpha-reductase inhibitors did not increase the risk of cardiovascular diseases in patients with benign prostate hyperplasia: a five-year follow-up study. *PLoS One*, 2015. 10: e0119694.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25803433/>
188. Skeldon, S.C., *et al.* The Cardiovascular Safety of Dutasteride. *J Urol*, 2017. 197: 1309.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27866006/>
189. Wei, L., *et al.* Incidence of type 2 diabetes mellitus in men receiving steroid 5alpha-reductase inhibitors: Population based cohort study. *BMJ (Online)*, 2019. 365: l1204.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30971393/>
190. Chess-Williams, R., *et al.* The minor population of M3-receptors mediate contraction of human detrusor muscle *in vitro*. *J Auton Pharmacol*, 2001. 21: 243.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12123469/>
191. Matsui, M., *et al.* Multiple functional defects in peripheral autonomic organs in mice lacking muscarinic acetylcholine receptor gene for the M3 subtype. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 2000. 97: 9579.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10944224/>
192. Kono, M., *et al.* Central muscarinic receptor subtypes regulating voiding in rats. *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 353.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16406941/>
193. Wuest, M., *et al.* Effect of rilmakalim on detrusor contraction in the presence and absence of urothelium. *Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol*, 2005. 372: 203.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16283254/>
194. Goldfischer, E.R., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of oxybutynin topical gel 3% in patients with urgency and/or mixed urinary incontinence: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2015. 34: 37.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24133005/>
195. Baldwin, C.M., *et al.* Transdermal oxybutynin. *Drugs*, 2009. 69: 327.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19275276/>
196. Chapple, C.R., *et al.* A shifted paradigm for the further understanding, evaluation, and treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms in men: focus on the bladder. *Eur Urol*, 2006. 49: 651.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16530611/>
197. Michel, M.C., *et al.* Does gender or age affect the efficacy and safety of tolterodine? *J Urol*, 2002. 168: 1027.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12187215/>
198. Chapple, C., *et al.* Fesoterodine clinical efficacy and safety for the treatment of overactive bladder in relation to patient profiles: a systematic review. *Curr Med Res Opin*, 2015. 31: 1201.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25798911/>
199. Dmochowski, R., *et al.* Efficacy and tolerability of tolterodine extended release in male and female patients with overactive bladder. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 51: 1054.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17097217/>
200. Herschorn, S., *et al.* Efficacy and tolerability of fesoterodine in men with overactive bladder: a pooled analysis of 2 phase III studies. *Urology*, 2010. 75: 1149.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19914702/>
201. Hofner, K., *et al.* Safety and efficacy of tolterodine extended release in men with overactive bladder symptoms and presumed non-obstructive benign prostatic hyperplasia. *World J Urol*, 2007. 25: 627.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17906864/>
202. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Efficacy and tolerability of tolterodine extended-release in men with overactive bladder and urgency urinary incontinence. *BJU Int*, 2006. 97: 1003.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16643482/>

203. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Tolterodine and tamsulosin for treatment of men with lower urinary tract symptoms and overactive bladder: a randomized controlled trial. *Jama*, 2006. 296: 2319.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17105794/>
204. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Tolterodine extended release attenuates lower urinary tract symptoms in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2005. 174: 2273.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16280803/>
205. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Solifenacin treatment in men with overactive bladder: effects on symptoms and patient-reported outcomes. *Aging Male*, 2010. 13: 100.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20001469/>
206. Gacci, M., *et al.* Tolterodine in the Treatment of Male LUTS. *Curr Urol Rep*, 2015. 16: 60.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26149965/>
207. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Effects of serum PSA on efficacy of tolterodine extended release with or without tamsulosin in men with LUTS, including OAB. *Urology*, 2008. 72: 1061.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18817961/>
208. Yokoyama, T., *et al.* Naftopidil and propiverine hydrochloride for treatment of male lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostatic hyperplasia and concomitant overactive bladder: a prospective randomized controlled study. *Scand J Urol Nephrol*, 2009. 43: 307.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19396723/>
209. Abrams, P., *et al.* Safety and tolerability of tolterodine for the treatment of overactive bladder in men with bladder outlet obstruction. *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 999.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16469601/>
210. Andersson, K.E. On the Site and Mechanism of Action of beta3-Adrenoceptor Agonists in the Bladder. *Int Neurourol J*, 2017. 21: 6.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28361520/>
211. Chapple, C.R., *et al.* Randomized double-blind, active-controlled phase 3 study to assess 12-month safety and efficacy of mirabegron, a beta(3)-adrenoceptor agonist, in overactive bladder. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 296.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23195283/>
212. Herschorn, S., *et al.* A phase III, randomized, double-blind, parallel-group, placebo-controlled, multicentre study to assess the efficacy and safety of the beta(3) adrenoceptor agonist, mirabegron, in patients with symptoms of overactive bladder. *Urology*, 2013. 82: 313.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23769122/>
213. Khullar, V., *et al.* Efficacy and tolerability of mirabegron, a beta(3)-adrenoceptor agonist, in patients with overactive bladder: results from a randomised European-Australian phase 3 trial. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 283.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23182126/>
214. Nitti, V.W., *et al.* Results of a randomized phase III trial of mirabegron in patients with overactive bladder. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: 1388.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23079373/>
215. Yamaguchi, O., *et al.* Efficacy and Safety of the Selective beta3 -Adrenoceptor Agonist Mirabegron in Japanese Patients with Overactive Bladder: A Randomized, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled, Dose-Finding Study. *Low Urin Tract Symptoms*, 2015. 7: 84.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26663687/>
216. Sebastianelli, A., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis on the efficacy and tolerability of mirabegron for the treatment of storage lower urinary tract symptoms/overactive bladder: Comparison with placebo and tolterodine. *Int J Urol*, 2018. 25: 196.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29205506/>
217. Liao, C.H., *et al.* Mirabegron 25mg Monotherapy Is Safe but Less Effective in Male Patients With Overactive Bladder and Bladder Outlet Obstruction. *Urology*, 2018. 117: 115.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29630956/>
218. Drake, M.J., *et al.* Efficacy and Safety of Mirabegron Add-on Therapy to Solifenacin in Incontinent Overactive Bladder Patients with an Inadequate Response to Initial 4-Week Solifenacin Monotherapy: A Randomised Double-blind Multicentre Phase 3B Study (BESIDE). *Eur Urol*, 2016. 70: 136.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26965560/>
219. Kuo, H.C., *et al.* Results of a randomized, double-blind, parallel-group, placebo- and active-controlled, multicenter study of mirabegron, a beta3-adrenoceptor agonist, in patients with overactive bladder in Asia. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2015. 34: 685.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25130281/>

220. Abrams, P., *et al.* Combination treatment with mirabegron and solifenacin in patients with overactive bladder: exploratory responder analyses of efficacy and evaluation of patient-reported outcomes from a randomized, double-blind, factorial, dose-ranging, Phase II study (SYMPHONY). *World J Urol*, 2017. 35: 827.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27514371/>
221. Khullar, V., *et al.* Patient-reported outcomes with the beta3 -adrenoceptor agonist mirabegron in a phase III trial in patients with overactive bladder. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2016. 35: 987.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26288118/>
222. Yamaguchi, O., *et al.* Safety and efficacy of mirabegron as 'add-on' therapy in patients with overactive bladder treated with solifenacin: a post-marketing, open-label study in Japan (MILAI study). *BJU Int*, 2015. 116: 612.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25639296/>
223. White, W.B., *et al.* Cardiovascular safety of mirabegron: analysis of an integrated clinical trial database of patients with overactive bladder syndrome. *J Am Soc Hypertension*, 2018. 12: 768.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30181042/>
224. Nitti, V.W., *et al.* Urodynamics and safety of the beta(3)-adrenoceptor agonist mirabegron in males with lower urinary tract symptoms and bladder outlet obstruction. *J Urol*, 2013. 190: 1320.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23727415/>
225. Lee, Y.K., *et al.* Safety and therapeutic efficacy of mirabegron 25 mg in older patients with overactive bladder and multiple comorbidities. *Geriatr Gerontol Int*, 2018. 18: 1330.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29931793/>
226. Wagg, A., *et al.* Oral pharmacotherapy for overactive bladder in older patients: mirabegron as a potential alternative to antimuscarinics. *Curr Med Res Opin*, 2016. 32: 621.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26828974/>
227. Wagg, A., *et al.* Efficacy, safety, and tolerability of mirabegron in patients aged ≥ 65 yr with overactive bladder wet: a phase IV, double-blind, randomised, placebo-controlled study (PILLAR). *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 211.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31733990/>
228. Herschorn, S., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of combinations of mirabegron and solifenacin compared with monotherapy and placebo in patients with overactive bladder (SYNERGY study). *BJU Int*, 2017. 120: 562.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28418102/>
229. Chapple, C.R., *et al.* Persistence and Adherence with Mirabegron versus Antimuscarinic Agents in Patients with Overactive Bladder: A Retrospective Observational Study in UK Clinical Practice. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: 389.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28196724/>
230. Staskin, D., *et al.* International phase III, randomized, double-blind, placebo and active controlled study to evaluate the safety and efficacy of vibegron in patients with symptoms of overactive bladder: EMPOWUR. *J Urol*, 2020. 204: 316.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32068484/>
231. Giuliano, F., *et al.* The mechanism of action of phosphodiesterase type 5 inhibitors in the treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms related to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 506.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23018163/>
232. Morelli, A., *et al.* Phosphodiesterase type 5 expression in human and rat lower urinary tract tissues and the effect of tadalafil on prostate gland oxygenation in spontaneously hypertensive rats. *J Sex Med*, 2011. 8: 2746.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21812935/>
233. Vignozzi, L., *et al.* PDE5 inhibitors blunt inflammation in human BPH: a potential mechanism of action for PDE5 inhibitors in LUTS. *Prostate*, 2013. 73: 1391.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23765639/>
234. Nagasubramanian, S., *et al.* Tamsulosin and placebo vs tamsulosin and tadalafil in male lower urinary tract symptoms: a double-blinded, randomised controlled trial. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 718.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32012409/>
235. Pattanaik, S., *et al.* Phosphodiesterase inhibitors for lower urinary tract symptoms consistent with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2018. 2018: CD010060.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30480763/>
236. Guo, B., *et al.* Comparative effectiveness of tadalafil versus tamsulosin in treating lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostate hyperplasia: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Med Sci Monitor*, 2020. 26: e923179.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32327621/>

237. Gacci, M., *et al.* A systematic review and meta-analysis on the use of phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors alone or in combination with alpha-blockers for lower urinary tract symptoms due to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 61: 994.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22405510/>
238. Wang, Y., *et al.* Tadalafil 5 mg Once Daily Improves Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms and Erectile Dysfunction: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Low Urin Tract Symptoms*, 2018. 10: 84.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29341503/>
239. Oelke, M., *et al.* Time to onset of clinically meaningful improvement with tadalafil 5 mg once daily for lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia: analysis of data pooled from 4 pivotal, double-blind, placebo controlled studies. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 1581.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25437533/>
240. Donatucci, C.F., *et al.* Tadalafil administered once daily for lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia: a 1-year, open-label extension study. *BJU Int*, 2011. 107: 1110.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21244606/>
241. Porst, H., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of tadalafil 5 mg once daily for lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostatic hyperplasia: subgroup analyses of pooled data from 4 multinational, randomized, placebo-controlled clinical studies. *Urology*, 2013. 82: 667.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23876588/>
242. Brock, G.B., *et al.* Direct effects of tadalafil on lower urinary tract symptoms versus indirect effects mediated through erectile dysfunction symptom improvement: integrated data analyses from 4 placebo controlled clinical studies. *J Urol*, 2014. 191: 405.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24096120/>
243. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Effects of tadalafil once daily on maximum urinary flow rate in men with lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2014. 191: 1045.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24445278/>
244. Oelke, M., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of tadalafil 5 mg once daily in the treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms associated with benign prostatic hyperplasia in men aged ≥ 75 years: integrated analyses of pooled data from multinational, randomized, placebo-controlled clinical studies. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 793.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27988986/>
245. Buck, A.C. Is there a scientific basis for the therapeutic effects of *serenoa repens* in benign prostatic hyperplasia? Mechanisms of action. *J Urol*, 2004. 172: 1792.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15540722/>
246. Dmochowski, R., *et al.* Urodynamic effects of once daily tadalafil in men with lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to clinical benign prostatic hyperplasia: a randomized, placebo controlled 12-week clinical trial. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: S135.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23234619/>
247. Chen, P.-C., *et al.* Combination alpha blocker and phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitor versus alpha-blocker monotherapy for lower urinary tract symptoms associated with benign prostate hyperplasia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Urol Sci*, 2020. 31: 99.
<https://www.e-urol-sci.com/article.asp?issn=1879-5226;year=2020;volume=31;issue=3;page=99;epage=107;aulast=Chen>
248. Casabe, A., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of the coadministration of tadalafil once daily with finasteride for 6 months in men with lower urinary tract symptoms and prostatic enlargement secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2014. 191: 727.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24096118/>
249. EMA, Tadalafil Lilly : EPAR - Product Information, European Medicines Agency, Editor. 2017.
<https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/medicines/human/EPAR/tadalafil-lilly>
250. Salonia, A.B., *et al.* European Association of Urology Guidelines on Sexual and Reproductive Health. In: EAU Guidelines published at the 38th EAU Annual Congress, Milan 2023. Arnhem, The Netherlands.
<https://uroweb.org/guidelines/sexual-and-reproductive-health>
251. Madersbacher, S., *et al.* Plant extracts: sense or nonsense? *Curr Opin Urol*, 2008. 18: 16.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18090484/>
252. Levin, R.M., *et al.* A scientific basis for the therapeutic effects of *Pygeum africanum* and *Serenoa repens*. *Urol Res*, 2000. 28: 201.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10929430/>
253. Habib, F.K., *et al.* Not all brands are created equal: a comparison of selected components of different brands of *Serenoa repens* extract. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2004. 7: 195.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15289814/>

254. Scaglione, F., *et al.* Comparison of the potency of different brands of *Serenoa repens* extract on 5alpha-reductase types I and II in prostatic co-cultured epithelial and fibroblast cells. *Pharmacology*, 2008. 82: 270.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18849646/>
255. De Monte, C., *et al.* Modern extraction techniques and their impact on the pharmacological profile of *Serenoa repens* extracts for the treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms. *BMC Urol*, 2014. 14: 63.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25112532/>
256. EMA. European Union monographs for Herbal Medicinal Products.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>
257. Committee on Herbal Medicinal Products. European Union herbal monograph on *Serenoa repens* (W. Bartram) Small, fructus. EMA/HMPC/280079/2013, 2015.
https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/herbal-monograph/draft-european-union-herbal-monograph-serenoa-repens-w-bartram-small-fructus_en.pdf
258. Committee on Herbal Medicinal Products. Community herbal monograph on *Cucurbita pepo* L., semen. EMA/HMPC/136024/2010, 2012.
https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/herbal-monograph/final-community-herbal-monograph-cucurbita-pepo-l-semen_en.pdf
259. Committee on Herbal Medicinal Products. European Union herbal monograph on *Prunus africana* (Hook f.) Kalkm., cortex. EMA/HMPC/680626/2013, 2016.
https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/herbal-monograph/draft-european-union-herbal-monograph-prunus-africana-hook-f-kalkm-cortex_en.pdf
260. Committee on Herbal Medicinal Products. Community herbal monograph on *Urtica dioica* L., *Urtica urens* L., their hybrids or their mixtures, radix. EMA/HMPC/461160/2008, 2012.
https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/herbal-monograph/final-community-herbal-monograph-urtica-dioica-l-urtica-urens-l-their-hybrids-their-mixtures-radix_en.pdf
261. Committee on Herbal Medicinal Products. European Union herbal monograph on *Epilobium angustifolium* L. and/or *Epilobium parviflorum* Schreb., herba EMA/HMPC/712511/2014, 2015.
https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/herbal-monograph/final-european-union-herbal-monograph-epilobium-angustifolium-l-epilobium-parviflorum-schreb-herba_en.pdf
262. Tacklind, J., *et al.* *Serenoa repens* for benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2009: CD001423.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19370565/>
263. Novara, G., *et al.* Efficacy and Safety of Hexanic Lipidosterolic Extract of *Serenoa repens* (Permixon) in the Treatment of Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Due to Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2016. 2: 553.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28723522/>
264. Vela-Navarrete, R., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of a hexanic extract of *Serenoa repens* (Permixon®) for the treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms associated with benign prostatic hyperplasia (LUTS/BPH): systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials and observational studies. *BJU Int*, 2018. 122: 1049.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29694707/>
265. Russo, G.I., *et al.* Clinical Efficacy of *Serenoa repens* Versus Placebo Versus Alpha-blockers for the Treatment of Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms/Benign Prostatic Enlargement: A Systematic Review and Network Meta-analysis of Randomized Placebo-controlled Clinical Trials. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31952967/>
266. Boeri, L., *et al.* Clinically Meaningful Improvements in LUTS/BPH Severity in Men Treated with Silodosin Plus Hexanic Extract of *Serenoa Repens* or Silodosin Alone. *Sci Rep*, 2017. 7: 15179.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29123161/>
267. Debruyne, F.M., *et al.* Sustained-release alfuzosin, finasteride and the combination of both in the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia. European ALFIN Study Group. *Eur Urol*, 1998. 34: 169.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9732187/>
268. Barkin, J., *et al.* Alpha-blocker therapy can be withdrawn in the majority of men following initial combination therapy with the dual 5alpha-reductase inhibitor dutasteride. *Eur Urol*, 2003. 44: 461.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/14499682/>
269. Nickel, J.C., *et al.* Finasteride monotherapy maintains stable lower urinary tract symptoms in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia following cessation of alpha blockers. *Can Urol Assoc J*, 2008. 2: 16.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18542722/>
270. Athanasopoulos, A., *et al.* Combination treatment with an alpha-blocker plus an anticholinergic for bladder outlet obstruction: a prospective, randomized, controlled study. *J Urol*, 2003. 169: 2253.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12771763/>

271. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of a fixed-dose combination of dutasteride and tamsulosin treatment (Duodart(R)) compared with watchful waiting with initiation of tamsulosin therapy if symptoms do not improve, both provided with lifestyle advice, in the management of treatment-naïve men with moderately symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia: 2-year CONDUCT study results. *BJU Int*, 2015. 116: 450.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25565364/>
272. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Influence of baseline variables on changes in International Prostate Symptom Score after combined therapy with dutasteride plus tamsulosin or either monotherapy in patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia and lower urinary tract symptoms: 4-year results of the CombAT study. *BJU Int*, 2014. 113: 623.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24127818/>
273. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Time Course of Incident Adverse Experiences Associated with Doxazosin, Finasteride and Combination Therapy in Men with Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: The MTOPS Trial. *J Urol*, 2016. 195: 1825.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26678956/>
274. Chapple, C., *et al.* Tolerodine treatment improves storage symptoms suggestive of overactive bladder in men treated with alpha-blockers. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 56: 534.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19070418/>
275. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Safety and tolerability of solifenacin add-on therapy to alpha-blocker treated men with residual urgency and frequency. *J Urol*, 2009. 182: 2825.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19837435/>
276. Lee, J.Y., *et al.* Comparison of doxazosin with or without tolterodine in men with symptomatic bladder outlet obstruction and an overactive bladder. *BJU Int*, 2004. 94: 817.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15476515/>
277. Lee, K.S., *et al.* Combination treatment with propiverine hydrochloride plus doxazosin controlled release gastrointestinal therapeutic system formulation for overactive bladder and coexisting benign prostatic obstruction: a prospective, randomized, controlled multicenter study. *J Urol*, 2005. 174: 1334.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16145414/>
278. MacDiarmid, S.A., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of extended-release oxybutynin in combination with tamsulosin for treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms in men: randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Mayo Clin Proc*, 2008. 83: 1002.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18775200/>
279. Saito, H., *et al.* A comparative study of the efficacy and safety of tamsulosin hydrochloride (Harnal capsules) alone and in combination with propiverine hydrochloride (BUP-4 tablets) in patients with prostatic hypertrophy associated with pollakisuria and/or urinary incontinence. *Jpn J Urol Surg*, 1999. 12: 525.
http://www.eurostaga.com/pdf_estudios/lostam/lostam_en_seguridad_en_HPB.pdf
280. Yang, Y., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of combined therapy with terazosin and tolterodine for patients with lower urinary tract symptoms associated with benign prostatic hyperplasia: a prospective study. *Chin Med J (Engl)*, 2007. 120: 370.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17376305/>
281. van Kerrebroeck, P., *et al.* Combination therapy with solifenacin and tamsulosin oral controlled absorption system in a single tablet for lower urinary tract symptoms in men: efficacy and safety results from the randomised controlled NEPTUNE trial. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 64: 1003.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23932438/>
282. Maruyama, O., *et al.* Naftopidil monotherapy vs naftopidil and an anticholinergic agent combined therapy for storage symptoms associated with benign prostatic hyperplasia: A prospective randomized controlled study. *Int J Urol*, 2006. 13: 1280.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17010005/>
283. Lee, H.N., *et al.* Rate and associated factors of solifenacin add-on after tamsulosin monotherapy in men with voiding and storage lower urinary tract symptoms. *Int J Clin Pract*, 2015. 69: 444.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25363606/>
284. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Add-on fesoterodine for residual storage symptoms suggestive of overactive bladder in men receiving alpha-blocker treatment for lower urinary tract symptoms. *BJU Int*, 2012. 109: 1831.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21966995/>
285. Kim, T.H., *et al.* Comparison of the efficacy and safety of tolterodine 2 mg and 4 mg combined with an alpha-blocker in men with lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) and overactive bladder: a randomized controlled trial. *BJU Int*, 2016. 117: 307.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26305143/>

286. Athanasopoulos, A., *et al.* The role of antimuscarinics in the management of men with symptoms of overactive bladder associated with concomitant bladder outlet obstruction: an update. *Eur Urol*, 2011. 60: 94.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21497434/>
287. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Antimuscarinics for treatment of storage lower urinary tract symptoms in men: a systematic review. *Int J Clin Pract*, 2011. 65: 487.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21210910/>
288. Kim, H.J., *et al.* Efficacy and Safety of Initial Combination Treatment of an Alpha Blocker with an Anticholinergic Medication in Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia Patients with Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms: Updated Meta-Analysis. *PLoS One*, 2017. 12: e0169248.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28072862/>
289. Van Kerrebroeck, P., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of solifenacin plus tamsulosin OCAS in men with voiding and storage lower urinary tract symptoms: results from a phase 2, dose-finding study (SATURN). *Eur Urol*, 2013. 64: 398.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23537687/>
290. Drake, M.J., *et al.* Long-term safety and efficacy of single-tablet combinations of solifenacin and tamsulosin oral controlled absorption system in men with storage and voiding lower urinary tract symptoms: Results from the NEPTUNE study and NEPTUNE II open-label extension. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 262.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25070148/>
291. Drake, M.J., *et al.* Responder and health-related quality of life analyses in men with lower urinary tract symptoms treated with a fixed-dose combination of solifenacin and tamsulosin OCAS: results from the NEPTUNE study. *BJU Int*, 2015.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25907003/>
292. Rees, J., *et al.* Vesomni improves the quality of life in men with lower urinary tract symptoms in routine clinical practice in Europe. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 981.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30801782/>
293. Burgio, K.L., *et al.* Effectiveness of Combined Behavioral and Drug Therapy for Overactive Bladder Symptoms in Men: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Int Med*, 2020. 180: 411.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31930360/>
294. Drake, M.J., *et al.* Incidence of urinary retention during treatment with single tablet combinations of solifenacin+tamsulosin OCAS for up to 1 year in adult men with both storage and voiding LUTS: A subanalysis of the NEPTUNE/NEPTUNE II randomized controlled studies. *PLoS One*, 2017. 12: e0170726.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28166296/>
295. Gong, M., *et al.* Tamsulosin combined with solifenacin versus tamsulosin monotherapy for male lower urinary tract symptoms: a meta-analysis. *Curr Med Res Opin*, 2015. 31: 1781.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26211817/>
296. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Solifenacin plus tamsulosin combination treatment in men with lower urinary tract symptoms and bladder outlet obstruction: a randomized controlled trial. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 158.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22831853/>
297. Kakizaki, H., *et al.* Mirabegron Add-on Therapy to Tamsulosin for the Treatment of Overactive Bladder in Men with Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms: A Randomized, Placebo-controlled Study (MATCH). *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020. 6: 729.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31718957/>
298. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Efficacy and Safety of Mirabegron versus Placebo Add-On Therapy in Men with Overactive Bladder Symptoms Receiving Tamsulosin for Underlying Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: A Randomized, Phase 4 Study (PLUS). *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 1163.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31895002/>
299. Ichihara, K., *et al.* A randomized controlled study of the efficacy of tamsulosin monotherapy and its combination with mirabegron for overactive bladder induced by benign prostatic obstruction. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 921.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25254938/>
300. Van Gelderen, M., *et al.* Absence of clinically relevant cardiovascular interaction upon add-on of mirabegron or tamsulosin to an established tamsulosin or mirabegron treatment in healthy middle-aged to elderly men. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther*, 2014. 52: 693.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24755125/>

301. Soliman, M.G., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of mirabegron versus solifenacin as additional therapy for persistent OAB symptoms after tamsulosin monotherapy in men with probable BPO. *World J Urol*, 2020. 39: 2049.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32869151/>
302. Speakman, M.J., *et al.* What Is the Required Certainty of Evidence for the Implementation of Novel Techniques for the Treatment of Benign Prostatic Obstruction? *Eur Urol Focus*, 2019. 5: 351.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31204291/>
303. Issa, M.M. Technological advances in transurethral resection of the prostate: bipolar versus monopolar TURP. *J Endourol*, 2008. 22: 1587.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18721041/>
304. Rassweiler, J., *et al.* Bipolar transurethral resection of the prostate--technical modifications and early clinical experience. *Minim Invasive Ther Allied Technol*, 2007. 16: 11.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17365673/>
305. Cornu, J.N., *et al.* A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Functional Outcomes and Complications Following Transurethral Procedures for Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Resulting from Benign Prostatic Obstruction: An Update. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 1066.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24972732/>
306. Reich, O., *et al.* Techniques and long-term results of surgical procedures for BPH. *Eur Urol*, 2006. 49: 970.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16481092/>
307. Madersbacher, S., *et al.* Is transurethral resection of the prostate still justified? *BJU Int*, 1999. 83: 227.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10233485/>
308. Madersbacher, S., *et al.* Reoperation, myocardial infarction and mortality after transurethral and open prostatectomy: a nation-wide, long-term analysis of 23,123 cases. *Eur Urol*, 2005. 47: 499.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15774249/>
309. Eredics, K., *et al.* Reoperation Rates and Mortality After Transurethral and Open Prostatectomy in a Long-term Nationwide Analysis: Have We Improved Over a Decade? *Urology*, 2018. 118: 152.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29733869/>
310. Alexander, C.E., *et al.* Bipolar versus monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate for lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic obstruction. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2019. 2019: CD009629.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31792928/>
311. Mamoulakis, C., *et al.* Bipolar versus monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 56: 798.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19595501/>
312. Burke, N., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis of transurethral resection of the prostate versus minimally invasive procedures for the treatment of benign prostatic obstruction. *Urology*, 2010. 75: 1015.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19854492/>
313. Omar, M.I., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis of the clinical effectiveness of bipolar compared with monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate (TURP). *BJU Int*, 2014. 113: 24.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24053602/>
314. Inzunza, G., *et al.* Bipolar or monopolar transurethral resection for benign prostatic hyperplasia? *Medwave*, 2018. 18: e7134.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29351269/>
315. Treharne, C., *et al.* Economic Value of the Transurethral Resection in Saline System for Treatment of Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia in England and Wales: Systematic Review, Meta-analysis, and Cost-Consequence Model. *Eur Urol focus*, 2016. 4: 270.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28753756/>
316. Autorino, R., *et al.* Four-year outcome of a prospective randomised trial comparing bipolar plasmakinetic and monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate. *Eur Urol*, 2009. 55: 922.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19185975/>
317. Chen, Q., *et al.* Bipolar transurethral resection in saline vs traditional monopolar resection of the prostate: results of a randomized trial with a 2-year follow-up. *BJU Int*, 2010. 106: 1339.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20477825/>
318. Fagerstrom, T., *et al.* Complications and clinical outcome 18 months after bipolar and monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate. *J Endourol*, 2011. 25: 1043.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21568691/>

319. Geavlete, B., *et al.* Bipolar plasma vaporization vs monopolar and bipolar TURP-A prospective, randomized, long-term comparison. *Urology*, 2011. 78: 930.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21802121/>
320. Giulianelli, R., *et al.* Comparative randomized study on the efficaciousness of endoscopic bipolar prostate resection versus monopolar resection technique. 3 year follow-up. *Arch Ital Urol Androl*, 2013. 85: 86.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23820656/>
321. Mamoulakis, C., *et al.* Midterm results from an international multicentre randomised controlled trial comparing bipolar with monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 667.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23102675/>
322. Xie, C.Y., *et al.* Five-year follow-up results of a randomized controlled trial comparing bipolar plasmakinetic and monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate. *Yonsei Med J*, 2012. 53: 734.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22665339/>
323. Komura, K., *et al.* Incidence of urethral stricture after bipolar transurethral resection of the prostate using TURis: results from a randomised trial. *BJU Int*, 2015. 115: 644.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24909399/>
324. Kumar, N., *et al.* Prospective Randomized Comparison of Monopolar TURP, Bipolar TURP and Photoselective Vaporization of the Prostate in Patients with Benign Prostatic Obstruction: 36 Months Outcome. *LUTS: Low Urin Tract Symptoms*, 2018. 10: 17.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27168018/>
325. Huang, S.-W., *et al.* Comparative efficacy and safety of new surgical treatments for benign prostatic hyperplasia: systematic review and network meta-analysis. *BMJ (Clin Res ed.)*, 2019. 367: l5919.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27168018/>
326. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. The TURis system for transurethral resection of the prostate. *NICE GUIDelines*, 2015.
<https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/mtg53>
327. Reich, O., *et al.* Morbidity, mortality and early outcome of transurethral resection of the prostate: a prospective multicenter evaluation of 10,654 patients. *J Urol*, 2008. 180: 246.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18499179/>
328. Rassweiler, J., *et al.* Complications of transurethral resection of the prostate (TURP)--incidence, management, and prevention. *Eur Urol*, 2006. 50: 969.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16469429/>
329. Stucki, P., *et al.* Bipolar versus monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate: a prospective randomized trial focusing on bleeding complications. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 1371.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25464004/>
330. Akman, T., *et al.* Effects of bipolar and monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate on urinary and erectile function: a prospective randomized comparative study. *BJU Int*, 2013. 111: 129.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22672229/>
331. El-Assmy, A., *et al.* Erectile and ejaculatory functions changes following bipolar versus monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate: a prospective randomized study. *Int Urol Nephrol*, 2018. 50: 1569.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30083842/>
332. Mamoulakis, C., *et al.* Bipolar vs monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate: evaluation of the impact on overall sexual function in an international randomized controlled trial setting. *BJU Int*, 2013. 112: 109.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23490008/>
333. Ruhle, A., *et al.* Safety and Effectiveness of Bipolar Transurethral Resection of the Prostate in Patients under Ongoing Oral Anticoagulation with Coumarins or Antiplatelet Drug Therapy Compared to Patients Without Anticoagulation/Antiplatelet Therapy. *J Endourol*, 2019. 33: 455.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30834782/>
334. Riedinger, C.B., *et al.* The impact of surgical duration on complications after transurethral resection of the prostate: an analysis of NSQIP data. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2019. 22: 303.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30385836/>
335. Bach, T., *et al.* Laser treatment of benign prostatic obstruction: basics and physical differences. *Eur Urol*, 2012. 61: 317.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22033173/>
336. Xia, S.J., *et al.* Thulium laser versus standard transurethral resection of the prostate: a randomized prospective trial. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 53: 382.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17566639/>

337. Jiang, H., *et al.* Safety and Efficacy of Thulium Laser Prostatectomy Versus Transurethral Resection of Prostate for Treatment of Benign Prostate Hyperplasia: A Meta-Analysis. Lower urinary tract symptoms, 2016. 8: 165.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27619781/>
338. Zhang, X., *et al.* Different lasers in the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia: a network meta-analysis. Sci Rep, 2016. 6: 23503.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27009501/>
339. Zhu, Y., *et al.* Thulium laser versus standard transurethral resection of the prostate for benign prostatic obstruction: a systematic review and meta-analysis. World J Urol, 2015. 33: 509.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25298242/>
340. Zhao, C., *et al.* Thulium Laser Resection Versus Plasmakinetic Resection of Prostates in the Treatment of Benign Prostate Hyperplasia: A Meta-Analysis. J Laparoendos Adv Surg Tech. Part A, 2016. 26: 789.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27500451/>
341. Deng, Z., *et al.* Thulium laser VapoResection of the prostate versus traditional transurethral resection of the prostate or transurethral plasmakinetic resection of prostate for benign prostatic obstruction: a systematic review and meta-analysis. World J Urol, 2018. 36: 1355.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29651642/>
342. Lan, Y., *et al.* Thulium (Tm:YAG) laser vaporesction of prostate and bipolar transurethral resection of prostate in patients with benign prostate hyperplasia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lasers Med Sci, 2018. 33: 1411.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29947009/>
343. Hashim, H., *et al.* Thulium laser transurethral vaporesction of the prostate versus transurethral resection of the prostate for men with lower urinary tract symptoms or urinary retention (UNBLOCS): a randomised controlled trial. The Lancet, 2020. 396: 50.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32622397/>
344. Cui, D., *et al.* A randomized trial comparing thulium laser resection to standard transurethral resection of the prostate for symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia: four-year follow-up results. World J Urol, 2014. 32: 683.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23913094/>
345. Sun, F., *et al.* Long-term results of thulium laser resection of the prostate: a prospective study at multiple centers. World J Urol, 2015. 33: 503.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25487702/>
346. Worthington, J., *et al.* Thulium laser transurethral vaporesction versus transurethral resection of the prostate for benign prostatic obstruction: The UNBLOCS RCT. Health Tech Assess, 2020. 24: 1.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32901611/>
347. Yang, Z., *et al.* Thulium laser enucleation versus plasmakinetic resection of the prostate: a randomized prospective trial with 18-month follow-up. Urology, 2013. 81: 396.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23374815/>
348. Wei, H., *et al.* Thulium laser resection versus plasmakinetic resection of prostates larger than 80 ml. World J Urol, 2014. 32: 1077.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24264126/>
349. Sener, T.E., *et al.* Thulium laser vaporesction of the prostate: Can we operate without interrupting oral antiplatelet/ anticoagulant therapy? Invest Clin Urol, 2017. 58: 192.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28480345/>
350. Bansal, A., *et al.* Holmium Laser vs Monopolar Electrocautery Bladder Neck Incision for Prostates Less Than 30 Grams: A Prospective Randomized Trial. Urology, 2016. 93: 158.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27058689/>
351. Lourenco, T., *et al.* The clinical effectiveness of transurethral incision of the prostate: a systematic review of randomised controlled trials. World J Urol, 2010. 28: 23.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20033744/>
352. Kuntz, R.M., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate versus open prostatectomy for prostates greater than 100 grams: 5-year follow-up results of a randomised clinical trial. Eur Urol, 2008. 53: 160.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17869409/>
353. Naspro, R., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate versus open prostatectomy for prostates >70 g: 24-month follow-up. Eur Urol, 2006. 50: 563.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16713070/>

354. Skolarikos, A., *et al.* Eighteen-month results of a randomized prospective study comparing transurethral photoselective vaporization with transvesical open enucleation for prostatic adenomas greater than 80 cc. *J Endourol*, 2008. 22: 2333.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18837655/>
355. Varkarakis, I., *et al.* Long-term results of open transvesical prostatectomy from a contemporary series of patients. *Urology*, 2004. 64: 306.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15302484/>
356. Gratzke, C., *et al.* Complications and early postoperative outcome after open prostatectomy in patients with benign prostatic enlargement: results of a prospective multicenter study. *J Urol*, 2007. 177: 1419.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17382744/>
357. Chen, S., *et al.* Plasmakinetic enucleation of the prostate compared with open prostatectomy for prostates larger than 100 grams: a randomized noninferiority controlled trial with long-term results at 6 years. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 66: 284.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24502959/>
358. Li, M., *et al.* Endoscopic enucleation versus open prostatectomy for treating large benign prostatic hyperplasia: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *PLoS One*, 2015. 10: e0121265.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25826453/>
359. Lin, Y., *et al.* Transurethral enucleation of the prostate versus transvesical open prostatectomy for large benign prostatic hyperplasia: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *World J Urol*, 2016. 34: 1207.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26699627/>
360. Ou, R., *et al.* Transurethral enucleation and resection of the prostate vs transvesical prostatectomy for prostate volumes >80 mL: a prospective randomized study. *BJU Int*, 2013. 112: 239.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23795788/>
361. Rao, J.M., *et al.* Plasmakinetic enucleation of the prostate versus transvesical open prostatectomy for benign prostatic hyperplasia >80 mL: 12-month follow-up results of a randomized clinical trial. *Urology*, 2013. 82: 176.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23601443/>
362. Geavlete, B., *et al.* Bipolar vaporization, resection, and enucleation versus open prostatectomy: optimal treatment alternatives in large prostate cases? *J Endourol*, 2015. 29: 323.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25111385/>
363. Geavlete, B., *et al.* Bipolar plasma enucleation of the prostate vs open prostatectomy in large benign prostatic hyperplasia cases - a medium term, prospective, randomized comparison. *BJU Int*, 2013. 111: 793.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23469933/>
364. Salonia, A., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation versus open prostatectomy for benign prostatic hyperplasia: an inpatient cost analysis. *Urology*, 2006. 68: 302.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16904441/>
365. Zhang, Y., *et al.* Transurethral holmium laser enucleation for prostate adenoma greater than 100 g. *Zhonghua Nan Ke Xue*, 2007. 13: 1091.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18284057/>
366. Tubaro, A., *et al.* A prospective study of the safety and efficacy of suprapubic transvesical prostatectomy in patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2001. 166: 172.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11435849/>
367. Zhang, K., *et al.* Plasmakinetic Vapor Enucleation of the Prostate with Button Electrode versus Plasmakinetic Resection of the Prostate for Benign Prostatic Enlargement >90 ml: Perioperative and 3-Month Follow-Up Results of a Prospective, Randomized Clinical Trial. *Urol Int*, 2015. 95: 260.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26044933/>
368. Wang, Z., *et al.* A prospective, randomised trial comparing transurethral enucleation with bipolar system (TUEB) to monopolar resectoscope enucleation of the prostate for symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Biomed Res*, 2017. 28.
<https://www.alliedacademies.org/articles/a-prospective-randomised-trial-comparing-transurethral-enucleation-with-bipolar-system-tueb-to-monopolar-resectoscope-enucleation-.pdf>
369. Neill, M.G., *et al.* Randomized trial comparing holmium laser enucleation of prostate with plasmakinetic enucleation of prostate for treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 2006. 68: 1020.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17095078/>

370. Ran, L., *et al.* Comparison of fluid absorption between transurethral enucleation and transurethral resection for benign prostate hyperplasia. *Urol Int*, 2013. 91: 26.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23571450/>
371. Zhao, Z., *et al.* A prospective, randomised trial comparing plasmakinetic enucleation to standard transurethral resection of the prostate for symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia: three-year follow-up results. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 58: 752.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20800340/>
372. Li, K., *et al.* A Novel Modification of Transurethral Enucleation and Resection of the Prostate in Patients With Prostate Glands Larger than 80 mL: Surgical Procedures and Clinical Outcomes. *Urology*, 2018. 113: 153.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29203184/>
373. Luo, Y.H., *et al.* Plasmakinetic enucleation of the prostate vs plasmakinetic resection of the prostate for benign prostatic hyperplasia: comparison of outcomes according to prostate size in 310 patients. *Urology*, 2014. 84: 904.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25150180/>
374. Zhu, L., *et al.* Electrosurgical enucleation versus bipolar transurethral resection for prostates larger than 70 ml: a prospective, randomized trial with 5-year followup. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: 1427.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23123549/>
375. Zhang, Y., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of enucleation vs. resection of prostate for treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2019. 22: 493.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30816336/>
376. Arcaniolo, D., *et al.* Bipolar endoscopic enucleation versus bipolar transurethral resection of the prostate: an ESUT systematic review and cumulative analysis. *World J Urol*, 2020. 38: 1177.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31346761/>
377. Tian, J., *et al.* Comparative study of the effectiveness and safety of transurethral bipolar plasmakinetic enucleation of the prostate and transurethral bipolar plasmakinetic resection of the prostate for massive benign prostate hyperplasia (>80 ml). *Med Sci Monitor*, 2020. 26: e921272.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32339160/>
378. Samir, M., *et al.* Two-year Follow-up in Bipolar Transurethral Enucleation and Resection of the Prostate in Comparison with Bipolar Transurethral Resection of the Prostate in Treatment of Large Prostates. Randomized Controlled Trial. *Urology*, 2019. 133: 192.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31404581/>
379. Liu, Q.-L., *et al.* Comparison of the Transurethral Resection of the Prostate by Traditional Versus Preserved Urethral Mucosa of the Prostatic Apex. *J Endourol*, 2020. 34: 482.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31964193/>
380. Gilling, P.J., *et al.* Combination holmium and Nd:YAG laser ablation of the prostate: initial clinical experience. *J Endourol*, 1995. 9: 151.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7633476/>
381. Tan, A., *et al.* Meta-analysis of holmium laser enucleation versus transurethral resection of the prostate for symptomatic prostatic obstruction. *Br J Surg*, 2007. 94: 1201.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17729384/>
382. Yin, L., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate versus transurethral resection of the prostate: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *J Endourol*, 2013. 27: 604.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23167266/>
383. Qian, X., *et al.* Functional outcomes and complications following B-TURP versus HoLEP for the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia: a review of the literature and Meta-analysis. *Aging Male*, 2017. 20: 184.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28368238/>
384. Chen, Y.B., *et al.* A prospective, randomized clinical trial comparing plasmakinetic resection of the prostate with holmium laser enucleation of the prostate based on a 2-year followup. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: 217.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23174256/>
385. Gilling, P.J., *et al.* Long-term results of a randomized trial comparing holmium laser enucleation of the prostate and transurethral resection of the prostate: results at 7 years. *BJU Int*, 2012. 109: 408.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21883820/>

386. Elshal, A.M., *et al.* Randomised trial of bipolar resection vs holmium laser enucleation vs Greenlight laser vapo-enucleation of the prostate for treatment of large benign prostate obstruction: 3-years outcomes. *BJU Int*, 2020. 126: 731.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32633020/>
387. Higazy, A., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate versus bipolar transurethral enucleation of the prostate in management of benign prostatic hyperplasia: A randomized controlled trial. *Int J Urol*, 2021. 28: 333.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33327043/>
388. Lourenco, T., *et al.* Alternative approaches to endoscopic ablation for benign enlargement of the prostate: systematic review of randomised controlled trials. *BMJ*, 2008. 337: a449.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18595932/>
389. Huang, K.C., *et al.* Combination of Thulium Laser Incision and Bipolar Resection Offers Higher Resection Velocity than Bipolar Resection Alone in Large Prostates. *Urol J*, 2019. 16: 397.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30318570/>
390. Heidar, N.A., *et al.* Laser enucleation of the prostate versus transurethral resection of the prostate: perioperative outcomes from the ACS NSQIP database. *World J Urol*, 2020. 38: 2891.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32036397/>
391. Bozzini, G., *et al.* A prospective multicenter randomized comparison between Holmium Laser Enucleation of the Prostate (HoLEP) and Thulium Laser Enucleation of the Prostate (ThuLEP). *World J Urol*, 2020.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32997262/>
392. El Tayeb, M.M., *et al.* Holmium Laser Enucleation of the Prostate in Patients Requiring Anticoagulation. *J Endourol*, 2016. 30: 805.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27065437/>
393. Sun, J., *et al.* Safety and feasibility study of holmium laser enucleation of the prostate (HoLEP) on patients receiving dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT). *World J Urol*, 2018. 36: 271.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29138929/>
394. Liu, Y., *et al.* Impact on sexual function of endoscopic enucleation vs transurethral resection of the prostate for lower urinary tract symptoms due to benign prostatic hyperplasia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Endourol*, 2020. 34: 1064.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32242462/>
395. Cacciamani, G.E., *et al.* Anterograde ejaculation preservation after endoscopic treatments in patients with bladder outlet obstruction: systematic review and pooled-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Minerva Urol Nefrol*, 2019. 71: 427.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31487977/>
396. Briganti, A., *et al.* Impact on sexual function of holmium laser enucleation versus transurethral resection of the prostate: results of a prospective, 2-center, randomized trial. *J Urol*, 2006. 175: 1817.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16600770/>
397. Li, Z., *et al.* The impact of surgical treatments for lower urinary tract symptoms/benign prostatic hyperplasia on male erectile function: A systematic review and network meta-analysis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 2016. 95: e3862.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27310968/>
398. Elshal, A.M., *et al.* Prospective controlled assessment of men's sexual function changes following Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate for treatment of benign prostate hyperplasia. *Int Urol Nephrol*, 2017. 49: 1741.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28780626/>
399. Kim, M., *et al.* Pilot study of the clinical efficacy of ejaculatory hood sparing technique for ejaculation preservation in Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate. *Int J Impot Res*, 2015. 27: 20.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25007827/>
400. Elzayat, E.A., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate (HoLEP): long-term results, reoperation rate, and possible impact of the learning curve. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 52: 1465.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17498867/>
401. Du, C., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation of the prostate: the safety, efficacy, and learning experience in China. *J Endourol*, 2008. 22: 1031.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18377236/>
402. Robert, G., *et al.* Multicentre prospective evaluation of the learning curve of holmium laser enucleation of the prostate (HoLEP). *BJU Int*, 2016. 117: 495.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25781490/>

403. Aho, T., *et al.* Description of a modular mentorship programme for holmium laser enucleation of the prostate. *World J Urol*, 2015. 33: 497.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25271105/>
404. Enikeev, D., *et al.* A Randomized Trial Comparing The Learning Curve of 3 Endoscopic Enucleation Techniques (HoLEP, ThuFLEP, and MEP) for BPH Using Mentoring Approach-Initial Results. *Urology*, 2018. 121: 51.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30053397/>
405. Yang, Z., *et al.* Comparison of thulium laser enucleation and plasmakinetic resection of the prostate in a randomized prospective trial with 5-year follow-up. *Lasers Med Sci*, 2016. 31: 1797.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27677474/>
406. Hartung, F.O., *et al.* Holmium Versus Thulium Laser Enucleation of the Prostate: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2021.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33840611/>
407. Zhang, F., *et al.* Thulium laser versus holmium laser transurethral enucleation of the prostate: 18-month follow-up data of a single center. *Urology*, 2012. 79: 869.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22342411/>
408. Feng, L., *et al.* Thulium Laser Enucleation Versus Plasmakinetic Enucleation of the Prostate: A Randomized Trial of a Single Center. *J Endourol*, 2016. 30: 665.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26886719/>
409. Bach, T., *et al.* Thulium:YAG vapoenucleation in large volume prostates. *J Urol*, 2011. 186: 2323.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22014812/>
410. Hauser, S., *et al.* Thulium laser (Revolix) vapoenucleation of the prostate is a safe procedure in patients with an increased risk of hemorrhage. *Urol Int*, 2012. 88: 390.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22627127/>
411. Netsch, C., *et al.* Safety and effectiveness of Thulium VapoEnucleation of the prostate (ThuVEP) in patients on anticoagulant therapy. *World J Urol*, 2014. 32: 165.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23657354/>
412. Netsch, C., *et al.* Comparison of 120-200 W 2 µm thulium:yttrium-aluminum-garnet vapoenucleation of the prostate. *J Endourol*, 2012. 26: 224.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22191688/>
413. Xiao, K.W., *et al.* Enucleation of the prostate for benign prostatic hyperplasia thulium laser versus holmium laser: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lasers Med Sci*, 2019.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30604345/>
414. Hanada, I., *et al.* Functional outcomes of transurethral thulium laser enucleation versus bipolar transurethral resection for benign prostatic hyperplasia over a period of 12 months: A prospective randomized study. *Int J Urol*, 2020. 27: 974.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33241599/>
415. Chang, C.H., *et al.* Vapoenucleation of the prostate using a high-power thulium laser: a one-year follow-up study. *BMC Urol*, 2015. 15: 40.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25956819/>
416. Gross, A.J., *et al.* Complications and early postoperative outcome in 1080 patients after thulium vapoenucleation of the prostate: results at a single institution. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 859.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23245687/>
417. Lusuardi, L., *et al.* Safety and efficacy of Eraser laser enucleation of the prostate: preliminary report. *J Urol*, 2011. 186: 1967.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21944122/>
418. Zhang, J., *et al.* 1470 nm Diode Laser Enucleation vs Plasmakinetic Resection of the Prostate for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: A Randomized Study. *J Endourol*, 2019. 33: 211.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30489151/>
419. Zou, Z., *et al.* Dual-centre randomized-controlled trial comparing transurethral endoscopic enucleation of the prostate using diode laser vs. bipolar plasmakinetic for the treatment of LUTS secondary of benign prostate obstruction: 1-year follow-up results. *World J Urol*, 2018.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29459994/>
420. Xu, A., *et al.* A randomized trial comparing diode laser enucleation of the prostate with plasmakinetic enucleation and resection of the prostate for the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Endourol*, 2013. 27: 1254.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23879477/>

421. Wu, G., *et al.* A comparative study of diode laser and plasmakinetic in transurethral enucleation of the prostate for treating large volume benign prostatic hyperplasia: a randomized clinical trial with 12-month follow-up. *Lasers Med Sci*, 2016. 31: 599.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26822403/>
422. He, G., *et al.* Comparison of Diode Laser (980 nm) Enucleation vs Holmium Laser Enucleation of the Prostate for the Treatment of Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: A Randomized Controlled Trial with 12-Month Follow-Up. *J Endourol*, 2019. 33: 843.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31298571/>
423. Mariano, M.B., *et al.* Laparoscopic prostatectomy with vascular control for benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2002. 167: 2528.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11992078/>
424. Sotelo, R., *et al.* Robotic simple prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2008. 179: 513.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18076926/>
425. Lucca, I., *et al.* Outcomes of minimally invasive simple prostatectomy for benign prostatic hyperplasia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *World J Urol*, 2015. 33: 563.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24879405/>
426. Li, J., *et al.* Comparison Between Minimally Invasive Simple Prostatectomy and Open Simple Prostatectomy for Large Prostates: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Comparative Trials. *J Endourol*, 2019. 33: 767.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31244334/>
427. Velotti, G., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation of prostate versus minimally invasive simple prostatectomy for large volume (≥ 120 ml) prostate glands: a prospective multicenter randomized study. *Miner Minerva Urol Nefrol*, 2020. 73: 638.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33200899/>
428. Sorokin, I., *et al.* Robot-Assisted Versus Open Simple Prostatectomy for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia in Large Glands: A Propensity Score-Matched Comparison of Perioperative and Short-Term Outcomes. *J Endourol*, 2017. 31: 1164.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28854815/>
429. Stoddard, M.D., *et al.* Standardization of 532 nm Laser Terminology for Surgery in Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: A Systematic Review. *J Endourol*, 2020. 34: 121.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31880953/>
430. Gomez Sancha, F., *et al.* Common trend: move to enucleation-Is there a case for GreenLight enucleation? Development and description of the technique. *World J Urol*, 2015. 33: 539.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24929643/>
431. Law, K.W., *et al.* Anatomic GreenLight laser vaporization-incision technique for benign prostatic hyperplasia using the XPS LBO-180W system: How I do it. *Can J Urol*, 2019. 26: 9963.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31629449/>
432. Elshal, A.M., *et al.* Prospective Assessment of Learning Curve of Holmium Laser Enucleation of the Prostate for Treatment of Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia Using a Multidimensional Approach. *J Urol*, 2017. 197: 1099.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27825972/>
433. Botto, H., *et al.* Electrovaporization of the prostate with the Gyrus device. *J Endourol*, 2001. 15: 313.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11339400/>
434. Reich, O., *et al.* Plasma Vaporisation of the Prostate: Initial Clinical Results. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 57: 693.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/50533904/>
435. Reich, O., *et al.* *In vitro* comparison of transurethral vaporization of the prostate (TUVF), resection of the prostate (TURP), and vaporization-resection of the prostate (TUVRP). *Urol Res*, 2002. 30: 15.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11942320/>
436. Gallucci, M., *et al.* Transurethral electrovaporization of the prostate vs. transurethral resection. Results of a multicentric, randomized clinical study on 150 patients. *Eur Urol*, 1998. 33: 359.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9612677/>
437. Poulakis, V., *et al.* Transurethral electrovaporization vs transurethral resection for symptomatic prostatic obstruction: a meta-analysis. *BJU Int*, 2004. 94: 89.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15217438/>
438. Dunsmuir, W.D., *et al.* Gyrus bipolar electrovaporization vs transurethral resection of the prostate: a randomized prospective single-blind trial with 1 y follow-up. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2003. 6: 182.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12806380/>
439. Fung, B.T., *et al.* Prospective randomized controlled trial comparing plasmakinetic vaporessection and conventional transurethral resection of the prostate. *Asian J Surg*, 2005. 28: 24.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15691793/>

440. Karaman, M.I., *et al.* Comparison of transurethral vaporization using PlasmaKinetic energy and transurethral resection of prostate: 1-year follow-up. J Endourol, 2005. 19: 734.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16053367/>
441. Hon, N.H., *et al.* A prospective, randomized trial comparing conventional transurethral prostate resection with PlasmaKinetic vaporization of the prostate: physiological changes, early complications and long-term followup. J Urol, 2006. 176: 205.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16753403/>
442. Kaya, C., *et al.* The long-term results of transurethral vaporization of the prostate using plasmakinetic energy. BJU Int, 2007. 99: 845.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/46439565/>
443. Geavlete, B., *et al.* Transurethral resection (TUR) in saline plasma vaporization of the prostate vs standard TUR of the prostate: 'the better choice' in benign prostatic hyperplasia? BJU Int, 2010. 106: 1695.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20518763/>
444. Nuhoglu, B., *et al.* The role of bipolar transurethral vaporization in the management of benign prostatic hyperplasia. Urol Int, 2011. 87: 400.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/51717888/>
445. Zhang, S.Y., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of bipolar plasma vaporization of the prostate with "button-type" electrode compared with transurethral resection of prostate for benign prostatic hyperplasia. Chin Med J (Engl), 2012. 125: 3811.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23106879/>
446. Falahatkar, S., *et al.* Bipolar transurethral vaporization: a superior procedure in benign prostatic hyperplasia: a prospective randomized comparison with bipolar TURP. Int Braz J Urol, 2014. 40: 346.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25010300/>
447. Geavlete, B., *et al.* Continuous vs conventional bipolar plasma vaporisation of the prostate and standard monopolar resection: A prospective, randomised comparison of a new technological advance. BJU Int, 2014. 113: 288.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/52898764/>
448. Yip, S.K., *et al.* A randomized controlled trial comparing the efficacy of hybrid bipolar transurethral vaporization and resection of the prostate with bipolar transurethral resection of the prostate. J Endourol, 2011. 25: 1889.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21923418/>
449. Elsakka, A.M., *et al.* A prospective randomised controlled study comparing bipolar plasma vaporisation of the prostate to monopolar transurethral resection of the prostate. Arab J Urol, 2016. 14: 280.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27900218/>
450. Lee, S.W., *et al.* Transurethral procedures for lower urinary tract symptoms resulting from benign prostatic enlargement: A quality and meta-analysis. Int Neurourol J, 2013. 17: 59.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23869269/>
451. Wroclawski, M.L., *et al.* 'Button type' bipolar plasma vaporisation of the prostate compared with standard transurethral resection: A systematic review and meta-analysis of short-term outcome studies. BJU Int, 2016. 117: 662.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26299915/>
452. Robert, G., *et al.* Bipolar plasma vaporization of the prostate: ready to replace GreenLight? A systematic review of randomized control trials. World J Urol, 2015. 33: 549.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25159871/>
453. Thangasamy, I.A., *et al.* Photoselective vaporisation of the prostate using 80-W and 120-W laser versus transurethral resection of the prostate for benign prostatic hyperplasia: a systematic review with meta-analysis from 2002 to 2012. Eur Urol, 2012. 62: 315.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22575913/>
454. Kang, D.H., *et al.* A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Functional Outcomes and Complications Following the Photoselective Vaporization of the Prostate and Monopolar Transurethral Resection of the Prostate. World J Mens Health, 2016. 34: 110.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27574594/>
455. Zhou, Y., *et al.* Greenlight high-performance system (HPS) 120-W laser vaporization versus transurethral resection of the prostate for the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia: a meta-analysis of the published results of randomized controlled trials. Lasers Med Sci, 2016. 31: 485.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26868032/>

456. Thomas, J.A., *et al.* A Multicenter Randomized Noninferiority Trial Comparing GreenLight-XPS Laser Vaporization of the Prostate and Transurethral Resection of the Prostate for the Treatment of Benign Prostatic Obstruction: Two-yr Outcomes of the GOLIATH Study. *Eur Urol*, 2016. 69: 94.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26283011/>
457. Elmansy, H., *et al.* Holmium laser enucleation versus photoselective vaporization for prostatic adenoma greater than 60 ml: preliminary results of a prospective, randomized clinical trial. *J Urol*, 2012. 188: 216.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22591968/>
458. Ghobrial, F.K., *et al.* A randomized trial comparing bipolar transurethral vaporization of the prostate with GreenLight laser (xps-180watt) photoselective vaporization of the prostate for treatment of small to moderate benign prostatic obstruction: outcomes after 2 years. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 144.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31621175/>
459. Al-Ansari, A., *et al.* GreenLight HPS 120-W laser vaporization versus transurethral resection of the prostate for treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia: a randomized clinical trial with midterm follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 58: 349.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20605316/>
460. Chung, D.E., *et al.* Outcomes and complications after 532 nm laser prostatectomy in anticoagulated patients with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2011. 186: 977.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21791350/>
461. Reich, O., *et al.* High power (80 W) potassium-titanyl-phosphate laser vaporization of the prostate in 66 high risk patients. *J Urol*, 2005. 173: 158.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15592063/>
462. Ruszat, R., *et al.* Safety and effectiveness of photoselective vaporization of the prostate (PVP) in patients on ongoing oral anticoagulation. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 51: 1031.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16945475/>
463. Sandhu, J.S., *et al.* Photoselective laser vaporization prostatectomy in men receiving anticoagulants. *J Endourol*, 2005. 19: 1196.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16359214/>
464. Lee, D.J., *et al.* Laser Vaporization of the Prostate With the 180-W XPS-Greenlight Laser in Patients With Ongoing Platelet Aggregation Inhibition and Oral Anticoagulation. *Urology*, 2016. 91: 167.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26829717/>
465. Jackson, R.E., *et al.* Risk factors for delayed hematuria following photoselective vaporization of the prostate. *J Urol*, 2013. 190: 903.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23538242/>
466. Knapp, G.L., *et al.* Perioperative adverse events in patients on continued anticoagulation undergoing photoselective vaporisation of the prostate with the 180-W Greenlight lithium triborate laser. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 33.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28544292/>
467. Woo, H., *et al.* Outcome of GreenLight HPS 120-W laser therapy in specific patient populations: those in retention, on anticoagulants, and with large prostates (>80 ml). *Eur Urol Suppl*, 2008. 7: 378.
[https://www.eu-openscience.europeanurology.com/article/S1569-9056\(08\)00027-4/pdf](https://www.eu-openscience.europeanurology.com/article/S1569-9056(08)00027-4/pdf)
468. Rajbabu, K., *et al.* Photoselective vaporization of the prostate with the potassium-titanyl-phosphate laser in men with prostates of >100 mL. *BJU Int*, 2007. 100: 593.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17511771/>
469. Ruszat, R., *et al.* Photoselective vaporization of the prostate: subgroup analysis of men with refractory urinary retention. *Eur Urol*, 2006. 50: 1040.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16481099/>
470. Alivizatos, G., *et al.* Transurethral photoselective vaporization versus transvesical open enucleation for prostatic adenomas >80ml: 12-mo results of a randomized prospective study. *Eur Urol*, 2008. 54: 427.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18069117/>
471. Bouchier-Hayes, D.M., *et al.* KTP laser versus transurethral resection: early results of a randomized trial. *J Endourol*, 2006. 20: 580.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16903819/>
472. Bruyere, F., *et al.* Influence of photoselective vaporization of the prostate on sexual function: results of a prospective analysis of 149 patients with long-term follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2010. 58: 207.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20466480/>
473. Razzaghi, M.R., *et al.* Diode laser (980 nm) vaporization in comparison with transurethral resection of the prostate for benign prostatic hyperplasia: randomized clinical trial with 2-year follow-up. *Urology*, 2014. 84: 526.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25168526/>

474. Cetinkaya, M., *et al.* 980-Nm Diode Laser Vaporization versus Transurethral Resection of the Prostate for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: Randomized Controlled Study. *Urol J*, 2015. 12: 2355.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26571321/>
475. Chiang, P.H., *et al.* GreenLight HPS laser 120-W versus diode laser 200-W vaporization of the prostate: comparative clinical experience. *Lasers Surg Med*, 2010. 42: 624.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20806388/>
476. Ruszat, R., *et al.* Prospective single-centre comparison of 120-W diode-pumped solid-state high-intensity system laser vaporization of the prostate and 200-W high-intensive diode-laser ablation of the prostate for treating benign prostatic hyperplasia. *BJU Int*, 2009. 104: 820.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19239441/>
477. Seitz, M., *et al.* The diode laser: a novel side-firing approach for laser vaporisation of the human prostate--immediate efficacy and 1-year follow-up. *Eur Urol*, 2007. 52: 1717.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17628326/>
478. MacRae, C., *et al.* How I do it: Aquablation of the prostate using the AQUABEAM system. *Can J Urol*, 2016. 23: 8590.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27995858/>
479. Gilling, P., *et al.* WATER: A Double-Blind, Randomized, Controlled Trial of Aquablation vs Transurethral Resection of the Prostate in Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2018. 199: 1252.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29360529/>
480. Kasivisvanathan, V., *et al.* Aquablation versus transurethral resection of the prostate: 1 year United States - cohort outcomes. *Can J Urol*, 2018. 25: 9317.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29900819/>
481. Gilling, P.J., *et al.* Randomized Controlled Trial of Aquablation versus Transurethral Resection of the Prostate in Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: One-year Outcomes. *Urology*, 2019. 125: 169.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30552937/>
482. Gilling, P., *et al.* Two-Year Outcomes After Aquablation Compared to TURP: Efficacy and Ejaculatory Improvements Sustained. *Adv Ther*, 2019. 36: 1326.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31028614/>
483. Gilling, P., *et al.* Three-year outcomes after Aquablation therapy compared to TURP: results from a blinded randomized trial. *Can J Urol*, 2020. 27: 10072.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32065861/>
484. Bach, T., *et al.* Aquablation of the prostate: single-center results of a non-selected, consecutive patient cohort. *World J Urol*, 2019. 37: 1369.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30288598/>
485. Plante, M., *et al.* Symptom relief and anejaculation after aquablation or transurethral resection of the prostate: subgroup analysis from a blinded randomized trial. *BJU Int*, 2019. 123: 651.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29862630/>
486. Nguyen, D.-D., *et al.* WATER versus WATER II 2-Year Update: Comparing Aquablation Therapy for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia in 30-80-cm3 and 80-150-cm3 Prostates. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2021. 25: 21.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34337500/>
487. Pimentel, M.A., *et al.* Urodynamic Outcomes After Aquablation. *Urology*, 2019. 126: 165.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30721737/>
488. Desai, M., *et al.* Aquablation for benign prostatic hyperplasia in large prostates (80-150 mL): 6-month results from the WATER II trial. *BJU Int*, 2019. 124: 321.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30734990/>
489. Nguyen, D.-D., *et al.* Waterjet Ablation Therapy for Endoscopic Resection of prostate tissue trial (WATER) vs WATER II: comparing Aquablation therapy for benign prostatic hyperplasia in 30-80 and 80-150 mL prostates. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 112.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31599044/>
490. Bhojani, N., *et al.* Aquablation for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia in Large Prostates (80-150 cc): 1-Year Results. *Urology*, 2019. 129: 1.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31059728/>
491. Abt, D., *et al.* Comparison of prostatic artery embolisation (PAE) versus transurethral resection of the prostate (TURP) for benign prostatic hyperplasia: randomised, open label, non-inferiority trial. *BMJ*, 2018. 361: k2338.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29921613/>
492. Zhang, J.L., *et al.* Effectiveness of Contrast-enhanced MR Angiography for Visualization of the Prostatic Artery prior to Prostatic Arterial Embolization. *Radiology*, 2019: 181524.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30806596/>

493. Pisco, J.M., *et al.* Randomised Clinical Trial of Prostatic Artery Embolisation Versus a Sham Procedure for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia. *Eur Urol*, 2020. 77: 354.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31831295/>
494. Zumstein, V., *et al.* Prostatic Artery Embolization versus Standard Surgical Treatment for Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Secondary to Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2018. 5: 1091.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30292422/>
495. Knight, G.M., *et al.* Systematic Review and Meta-analysis Comparing Prostatic Artery Embolization to Gold-Standard Transurethral Resection of the Prostate for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia. *Cardiovasc Int Radiol*, 2021. 44: 183.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33078236/>
496. Xiang, P., *et al.* A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Prostatic Urethral Lift for Male Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Secondary to Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia. *Eur Urol Open Sci*, 2020. 19: 3.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34337448/>
497. Abt, D., *et al.* Prostatic Artery Embolisation Versus Transurethral Resection of the Prostate for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: 2-yr Outcomes of a Randomised, Open-label, Single-centre Trial. *Eur Urol*, 2021. 80: 34.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33612376/>
498. Ayyagari, R., *et al.* Prostatic Artery Embolization in Nonindex Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia Patients: Single-center Outcomes for Urinary Retention and Gross Prostatic Hematuria. *Urology*, 2020. 136: 212.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31734349/>
499. Shim, S.R., *et al.* Efficacy and Safety of Prostatic Arterial Embolization: Systematic Review with Meta-Analysis and Meta-Regression. *J Urol*, 2017. 197: 465.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27592008/>
500. Jiang, Y.L., *et al.* Transurethral resection of the prostate versus prostatic artery embolization in the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia: A meta-analysis. *BMC Urol*, 2019. 19: 11.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31522236/>
501. Xu, X.J., *et al.* An updated meta-analysis of prostatic arterial embolization versus transurethral resection of the prostate in the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *World J Urol*, 2020. 38: 2455.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31813027/>
502. Moreira, A.M., *et al.* A Review of Adverse Events Related to Prostatic Artery Embolization for Treatment of Bladder Outlet Obstruction Due to BPH. *Cardiovasc Intervent Radiol*, 2017. 40: 1490.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28795212/>
503. Ray, A.F., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of prostate artery embolization for benign prostatic hyperplasia: an observational study and propensity-matched comparison with transurethral resection of the prostate (the UK-ROPE study). *BJU Int*, 2018. 122: 270.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29645352/>
504. Zumstein, V., *et al.* Radiation Exposure During Prostatic Artery Embolisation: A Systematic Review and Calculation of Associated Risks. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32418877/>
505. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Prostate artery embolisation for lower urinary tract symptoms caused by benign prostatic hyperplasia. NICE Guidance, 2018.
<https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ipg611>
506. Abt, D., *et al.* Outcome prediction of prostatic artery embolization: post hoc analysis of a randomized, open-label, non-inferiority trial. *BJU Int*, 2019. 124: 134.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30499637/>
507. McVary, K.T., *et al.* Erectile and Ejaculatory Function Preserved With Convective Water Vapor Energy Treatment of Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Secondary to Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: Randomized Controlled Study. *J Sex Med*, 2016. 13: 924.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27129767/>
508. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Convective Thermal Therapy: Durable 2-Year Results of Randomized Controlled and Prospective Crossover Studies for Treatment of Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Due to Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2017. 197: 1507.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27993667/>
509. McVary, K.T., *et al.* Rezum Water Vapor Thermal Therapy for Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Associated With Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: 4-Year Results From Randomized Controlled Study. *Urology*, 2019. 126: 171.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30677455/>

510. Kang, T.W., *et al.* Convective radiofrequency water vapour thermal therapy for lower urinary tract symptoms in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2020. 3: CD013251.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32212174/>
511. Miller, L.E., *et al.* Water vapor thermal therapy for lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Medicine*, 2020. 99: e21365.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32791742/>
512. Chin, P.T., *et al.* Prostatic urethral lift: two-year results after treatment for lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Urology*, 2012. 79: 5.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22202539/>
513. McNicholas, T.A., *et al.* Minimally invasive prostatic urethral lift: surgical technique and multinational experience. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 64: 292.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23357348/>
514. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* The prostatic urethral lift for the treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms associated with prostate enlargement due to benign prostatic hyperplasia: the L.I.F.T. Study. *J Urol*, 2013. 190: 2161.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23764081/>
515. Woo, H.H., *et al.* Safety and feasibility of the prostatic urethral lift: a novel, minimally invasive treatment for lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH). *BJU Int*, 2011. 108: 82.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21554526/>
516. Woo, H.H., *et al.* Preservation of sexual function with the prostatic urethral lift: a novel treatment for lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Sex Med*, 2012. 9: 568.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22172161/>
517. Perera, M., *et al.* Prostatic urethral lift improves urinary symptoms and flow while preserving sexual function for men with benign prostatic hyperplasia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 67: 704.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25466940/>
518. Jung, J.H., *et al.* Prostatic urethral lift for the treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2019. 5: CD012832.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31128077/>
519. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Three year results of the prostatic urethral L.I.F.T. study. *Can J Urol*, 2015. 22: 7772.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26068624/>
520. Roehrborn, C.G., *et al.* Five year results of the prospective randomized controlled prostatic urethral L.I.F.T. study. *Can J Urol*, 2017. 24: 8802.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28646935/>
521. Eure, G., *et al.* Real-World Evidence of Prostatic Urethral Lift Confirms Pivotal Clinical Study Results: 2-Year Outcomes of a Retrospective Multicenter Study. *J Endourol*, 2019. 33: 576.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31115257/>
522. Sonksen, J., *et al.* Prospective, Randomized, Multinational Study of Prostatic Urethral Lift Versus Transurethral Resection of the Prostate: 12-month Results from the BPH6 Study. *Eur Urol*, 2015. 68: 643.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25937539/>
523. Miller, L.E., *et al.* Surgical Reintervention Rate after Prostatic Urethral Lift: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis Involving over 2,000 Patients. *J Urol*, 2020. 204: 1019.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32396049/>
524. Rukstalis, D., *et al.* Prostatic Urethral Lift (PUL) for obstructive median lobes: 12 month results of the MedLift Study. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis*, 2019. 22: 411.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30542055/>
525. Magistro, G., *et al.* New intraprostatic injectables and prostatic urethral lift for male LUTS. *Nat Rev Urol*, 2015. 12: 461.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26195444/>
526. Shim, S.R., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of botulinum toxin injection for benign prostatic hyperplasia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int Urol Nephrol*, 2016. 48: 19.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26560471/>
527. Elhilali, M.M., *et al.* Prospective, randomized, double-blind, vehicle controlled, multicenter phase IIb clinical trial of the pore forming protein PRX302 for targeted treatment of symptomatic benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: 1421.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23142202/>

528. Denmeade, S.R., *et al.* Phase 1 and 2 studies demonstrate the safety and efficacy of intraprostatic injection of PRX302 for the targeted treatment of lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Eur Urol*, 2011. 59: 747.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21129846/>
529. Shore, N., *et al.* Fexapotide triflutate: results of long-term safety and efficacy trials of a novel injectable therapy for symptomatic prostate enlargement. *World J Urol*, 2018. 36: 801.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29380128/>
530. El-Dakhakhny, A.S., *et al.* Transperineal intraprostatic injection of botulinum neurotoxin A vs transurethral resection of prostate for management of lower urinary tract symptoms secondary to benign prostate hyperplasia: A prospective randomised study. *Arab J Urol*, 2019. 17: 270.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31723444/>
531. Porpiglia, F., *et al.* Temporary implantable nitinol device (TIND): a novel, minimally invasive treatment for relief of lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) related to benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH): feasibility, safety and functional results at 1 year of follow-up. *BJU Int*, 2015. 116: 278.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25382816/>
532. Porpiglia, F., *et al.* 3-Year follow-up of temporary implantable nitinol device implantation for the treatment of benign prostatic obstruction. *BJU Int*, 2018. 122: 106.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29359881/>
533. Chughtai, B., *et al.* The iTind Temporarily Implanted Nitinol Device for the Treatment of Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms Secondary to Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia: A Multicenter, Randomized, Controlled Trial. *Urology*, 2021. 153: 270.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33373708/>
534. Porpiglia, F., *et al.* Second-generation of temporary implantable nitinol device for the relief of lower urinary tract symptoms due to benign prostatic hyperplasia: results of a prospective, multicentre study at 1 year of follow-up. *BJU Int*, 2019. 123: 1061.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30382600/>
535. Sakalis, V.I., *et al.* Medical Treatment of Nocturia in Men with Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms: Systematic Review by the European Association of Urology Guidelines Panel for Male Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms. *Eur Urol*, 2017. 72: 757.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28666669/>
536. Hashim, H., *et al.* International Continence Society (ICS) report on the terminology for nocturia and nocturnal lower urinary tract function. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 499.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30644584/>
537. Marshall, S.D., *et al.* Nocturia: Current Levels of Evidence and Recommendations From the International Consultation on Male Lower Urinary Tract Symptoms. *Urology*, 2015. 85: 1291.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25881866/>
538. Cannon, A., *et al.* Desmopressin in the treatment of nocturnal polyuria in the male. *BJU Int*, 1999. 84: 20.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10444118/>
539. Han, J., *et al.* Desmopressin for treating nocturia in men. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2017. 10: CD012059.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29055129/>
540. Weiss, J.P., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of low dose desmopressin orally disintegrating tablet in men with nocturia: results of a multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo controlled, parallel group study. *J Urol*, 2013. 190: 965.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23454402/>
541. Sand, P.K., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of low dose desmopressin orally disintegrating tablet in women with nocturia: results of a multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo controlled, parallel group study. *J Urol*, 2013. 190: 958.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23454404/>
542. Juul, K.V., *et al.* Low-dose desmopressin combined with serum sodium monitoring can prevent clinically significant hyponatraemia in patients treated for nocturia. *BJU Int*, 2017. 119: 776.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27862898/>
543. Cohn, J.A., *et al.* Desmopressin acetate nasal spray for adults with nocturia. *Expert Rev Clin Pharmacol*, 2017. 10: 1281.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29048257/>
544. Djavan, B., *et al.* The impact of tamsulosin oral controlled absorption system (OCAS) on nocturia and the quality of sleep: Preliminary results of a pilot study. *Eur Urol Suppl*, 2005. 4: 1119.
[https://www.tqfarma.com/Portals/0/docs/pdf/The%20Impact%20of%20Tam%20\(OCAS\)%20on%20Nocturia%20and%20the%20QO%20Sleep-%20Preliminary.pdf](https://www.tqfarma.com/Portals/0/docs/pdf/The%20Impact%20of%20Tam%20(OCAS)%20on%20Nocturia%20and%20the%20QO%20Sleep-%20Preliminary.pdf)

545. Yokoyama, O., *et al.* Efficacy of fesoterodine on nocturia and quality of sleep in Asian patients with overactive bladder. *Urology*, 2014. 83: 750.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24518285/>
546. Yokoyama, O., *et al.* Efficacy of solifenacin on nocturia in Japanese patients with overactive bladder: impact on sleep evaluated by bladder diary. *J Urol*, 2011. 186: 170.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21575976/>
547. Johnson, T.M., 2nd, *et al.* The effect of doxazosin, finasteride and combination therapy on nocturia in men with benign prostatic hyperplasia. *J Urol*, 2007. 178: 2045.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17869295/>
548. Oelke, M., *et al.* Impact of dutasteride on nocturia in men with lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostatic hyperplasia (LUTS/BPH): a pooled analysis of three phase III studies. *World J Urol*, 2014. 32: 1141.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24903347/>
549. Oelke, M., *et al.* Effects of tadalafil on nighttime voiding (nocturia) in men with lower urinary tract symptoms suggestive of benign prostatic hyperplasia: a post hoc analysis of pooled data from four randomized, placebo-controlled clinical studies. *World J Urol*, 2014. 32: 1127.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24504761/>
550. Drake, M.J., *et al.* Melatonin pharmacotherapy for nocturia in men with benign prostatic enlargement. *J Urol*, 2004. 171: 1199.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/14767300/>
551. Reynard, J.M., *et al.* A novel therapy for nocturnal polyuria: a double-blind randomized trial of frusemide against placebo. *Br J Urol*, 1998. 81: 215.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9488061/>
552. Falahatkar, S., *et al.* Celecoxib for treatment of nocturia caused by benign prostatic hyperplasia: a prospective, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Urology*, 2008. 72: 813.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18692876/>
553. Sigurdsson, S., *et al.* A parallel, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study to investigate the effect of SagaPro on nocturia in men. *Scand J Urol*, 2013. 47: 26.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23323790/>
554. D'Ancona, C., *et al.* The International Continence Society (ICS) report on the terminology for adult male lower urinary tract and pelvic floor symptoms and dysfunction. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 433.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30681183/>
555. Helfand, B.T., *et al.* Prevalence and Characteristics of Urinary Incontinence in a Treatment Seeking Male Prospective Cohort: Results from the LURN Study. *J Urol*, 2018. 200: 397.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29477718/>
556. Shamliyan, T.A., *et al.* Male urinary incontinence: prevalence, risk factors, and preventive interventions. *Rev Urol*, 2009. 11: 145.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19918340/>
557. Hester, A.G., *et al.* Male Incontinence: The Etiology or Basis of Treatment. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2017. 3: 377.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29249687/>
558. Herschorn, S., *et al.* A population-based study of urinary symptoms and incontinence: the Canadian Urinary Bladder Survey. *BJU Int*, 2008. 101: 52.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17908260/>
559. Espuna-Pons, M., *et al.* [Prevalence of urinary incontinence in Catalonia, Spain]. *Med Clin (Barc)*, 2009. 133: 702.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19656535/>
560. Hampel, C., *et al.* Epidemiology and etiology of male urinary incontinence. *Urologe A*, 2010. 49: 481.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20376650/>
561. Abrams, P., *et al.* 5th International Consultation on Incontinence, Paris, February 2012.
562. Sato, Y., *et al.* Simple and reliable predictor of urinary continence after radical prostatectomy: serial measurement of urine loss ratio after catheter removal. *Int J Urol*, 2014. 21: 647.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24612261/>
563. Shy, M., *et al.* Objective Evaluation of Overactive Bladder: Which Surveys Should I Use? *Curr Bladder Dysfunct Rep*, 2013. 8: 45.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23439804/>
564. Soljanik, I., *et al.* Imaging for urinary incontinence. *Urologe A*, 2015. 54: 963.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26162272/>
565. Wyman, J.F., *et al.* Practical aspects of lifestyle modifications and behavioural interventions in the treatment of overactive bladder and urgency urinary incontinence. *Int J Clin Pract*, 2009. 63: 1177.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19575724/>

566. Breyer, B.N., *et al.* Intensive lifestyle intervention reduces urinary incontinence in overweight/obese men with type 2 diabetes: results from the Look AHEAD trial. *J Urol*, 2014. 192: 144.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24533998/>
567. Imamura, M., *et al.* Lifestyle interventions for the treatment of urinary incontinence in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2015. 2015: CD003505.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26630349/>
568. Townsend, M.K., *et al.* Fluid intake and risk of stress, urgency, and mixed urinary incontinence. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*, 2011. 205: 73.e1.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21481835/>
569. Hannestad, Y.S., *et al.* Are smoking and other lifestyle factors associated with female urinary incontinence? The Norwegian EPINCONT Study. *BJOG*, 2003. 110: 247.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12628262/>
570. Bryant, C.M., *et al.* Caffeine reduction education to improve urinary symptoms. *Br J Nurs*, 2002. 11: 560.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11979209/>
571. Chughtai, B., *et al.* Prevalence of and Risk Factors for Urinary Incontinence in Home Hospice Patients. *Eur Urol*, 2019. 75: 268.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30482670/>
572. Held, F., *et al.* Polypharmacy in older adults: Association Rule and Frequent-Set Analysis to evaluate concomitant medication use. *Pharmacol Res*, 2017. 116: 39.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27988385/>
573. Schnelle, J.F., *et al.* A controlled trial of an intervention to improve urinary and fecal incontinence and constipation. *J Am Geriatr Soc*, 2010. 58: 1504.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20653804/>
574. Brazzelli, M., *et al.* Absorbent products for containing urinary and/or fecal incontinence in adults. *J Wound Ostomy Continence Nurs*, 2002. 29: 45.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11810074/>
575. Fader, M., *et al.* Absorbent products for urinary/faecal incontinence: a comparative evaluation of key product designs. *Health Technol Assess*, 2008. 12: iii.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18547500/>
576. Jahn, P., *et al.* Types of indwelling urinary catheters for long-term bladder drainage in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2012. 10: CD004997.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23076911/>
577. Hunter, K.F., *et al.* Long-term bladder drainage: Suprapubic catheter versus other methods: a scoping review. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2013. 32: 944.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23192860/>
578. Prieto, J., *et al.* Catheter designs, techniques and strategies for intermittent catheterisation: What is the evidence for preventing symptomatic UTI and other complications? A Cochrane systematic review. *Eur Urol Suppl*, 2014. 13: e762.
<http://lib.ajau.ac.ir/booklist/1-s2.0-S156990561460751X-main.pdf>
579. Macaulay, M., *et al.* A trial of devices for urinary incontinence after treatment for prostate cancer. *BJU Int*, 2015. 116: 432.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25496354/>
580. Eustice, S., *et al.* Prompted voiding for the management of urinary incontinence in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2000: CD002113.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10796861/>
581. Flanagan, L., *et al.* Systematic review of care intervention studies for the management of incontinence and promotion of continence in older people in care homes with urinary incontinence as the primary focus (1966-2010). *Geriatr Gerontol Int*, 2012. 12: 600.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22672329/>
582. Ostaszkiwicz, J., *et al.* Habit retraining for the management of urinary incontinence in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2004. 2004: CD002801.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15106179/>
583. Rai, B.P., *et al.* Anticholinergic drugs versus non-drug active therapies for non-neurogenic overactive bladder syndrome in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2012. 12: CD003193.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23235594/>
584. Anderson, C.A., *et al.* Conservative management for postprostatectomy urinary incontinence. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2015. 1: CD001843.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25602133/>

585. Kannan, P., *et al.* Effectiveness of Pelvic Floor Muscle Training Alone and in Combination With Biofeedback, Electrical Stimulation, or Both Compared to Control for Urinary Incontinence in Men Following Prostatectomy: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Phys Ther*, 2018. 98: 932.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30137629/>
586. Sciarra, A., *et al.* A biofeedback-guided programme or pelvic floor muscle electric stimulation can improve early recovery of urinary continence after radical prostatectomy: A meta-analysis and systematic review. *Int J Clin Pract*, 2021. 75: e14208.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33811418/>
587. Goonewardene, S.S., *et al.* A systematic review of PFE pre-prostatectomy. *J Robot Surg*, 2018. 12: 397.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29564692/>
588. Primiceri, G., *et al.* Conservative management of urinary incontinence following robot-assisted radical prostatectomy. *Miner Minerva Urol Nefrol*, 2020. 72: 555.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32432436/>
589. Dubbelman, Y., *et al.* The recovery of urinary continence after radical retropubic prostatectomy: a randomized trial comparing the effect of physiotherapist-guided pelvic floor muscle exercises with guidance by an instruction folder only. *BJU Int*, 2010. 106: 515.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20201841/>
590. Moore, K.N., *et al.* Return to continence after radical retropubic prostatectomy: a randomized trial of verbal and written instructions versus therapist-directed pelvic floor muscle therapy. *Urology*, 2008. 72: 1280.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18384853/>
591. Goode, P.S., *et al.* Behavioral therapy with or without biofeedback and pelvic floor electrical stimulation for persistent postprostatectomy incontinence: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*, 2011. 305: 151.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21224456/>
592. Glazener, C., *et al.* Urinary incontinence in men after formal one-to-one pelvic-floor muscle training following radical prostatectomy or transurethral resection of the prostate (MAPS): two parallel randomised controlled trials. *Lancet*, 2011. 378: 328.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21741700/>
593. Anan, G. *et al.* Preoperative pelvic floor muscle exercise for early continence after holmium laser enucleation of the prostate: a randomized controlled study. *BMC Urol*, 2020. 20: 3.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31973706/>
594. Gomes, C.S., *et al.* The effects of Pilates method on pelvic floor muscle strength in patients with post-prostatectomy urinary incontinence: A randomized clinical trial. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2018. 37: 346.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28464434/>
595. Heydenreich, M. *et al.* Does trunk muscle training with an oscillating rod improve urinary incontinence after radical prostatectomy? A prospective randomized controlled trial. *Clin Rehabil*, 2020. 34: 320.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31858823/>
596. Soto Gonzalez, M., *et al.* Early 3-month treatment with comprehensive physical therapy program restores continence in urinary incontinence patients after radical prostatectomy: A randomized controlled trial. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2020. 39: 1529.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32442334/>
597. Farzinmehr, A., *et al.* A Comparative Study of Whole Body Vibration Training and Pelvic Floor Muscle Training on Women's Stress Urinary Incontinence: Three- Month Follow- Up. *J Family Reprod Health*, 2015. 9: 147.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27047560/>
598. Wang, C., *et al.* Extended nursing for the recovery of urinary functions and quality of life after robot-assisted laparoscopic radical prostatectomy: a randomized controlled trial. *Support Care Cancer*, 2018. 26: 1553.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29196816/>
599. Pané-Alemany, R., *et al.* Efficacy of transcutaneous perineal electrostimulation versus intracavitary anal electrostimulation in the treatment of urinary incontinence after a radical prostatectomy: Randomized controlled trial. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2021. 40: 1761.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34224598/>
600. Berghmans, B., *et al.* Electrical stimulation with non-implanted electrodes for urinary incontinence in men. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2013: CD001202.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23740763/>

601. Lim, R., *et al.* Efficacy of electromagnetic therapy for urinary incontinence: A systematic review. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2015. 34: 713.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25251335/>
602. Wallace, P.A., *et al.* Sacral nerve neuromodulation in patients with underlying neurologic disease. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*, 2007. 197: 96 e1.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17618775/>
603. Civic, D., *et al.* Re: Randomized trial of percutaneous tibial nerve stimulation versus sham efficacy in the treatment of overactive bladder syndrome: results from the SUMiT trial: K. M. Peters, D. J. Carrico, R. A. Perez-Marrero, A. U. Khan, L. S. Wooldridge, G. L. Davis and S. A. MacDiarmid *J Urol* 2010; 183: 1438-1443. *J Urol*, 2011. 185: 362; author reply 362.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21092997/>
604. Ramírez-García, I., *et al.* Efficacy of transcutaneous stimulation of the posterior tibial nerve compared to percutaneous stimulation in idiopathic overactive bladder syndrome: Randomized control trial. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 261.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30311692/>
605. Booth, J. *et al.* The effectiveness of transcutaneous tibial nerve stimulation (TTNS) for adults with overactive bladder syndrome: A systematic review. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2018. 37: 528.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28731583/>
606. Wang, M., *et al.* Percutaneous tibial nerve stimulation for overactive bladder syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int Urogynecol J*, 2020. 31: 2457.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32681345/>
607. Chapple, C., *et al.* Superiority of fesoterodine 8 mg vs 4 mg in reducing urgency urinary incontinence episodes in patients with overactive bladder: results of the randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled EIGHT trial. *BJU Int*, 2014. 114: 418.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24552358/>
608. Kaplan, S.A., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of fesoterodine 8 mg in subjects with overactive bladder after a suboptimal response to tolterodine ER. *Int J Clin Pract*, 2014. 68: 1065.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24898471/>
609. Bianco, F.J., *et al.* A randomized, double-blind, solifenacin succinate versus placebo control, phase 4, multicenter study evaluating urinary continence after robotic assisted radical prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2015. 193: 1305.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25281778/>
610. Yang, R., *et al.* Efficacy of solifenacin in the prevention of short-term complications after laparoscopic radical prostatectomy. *J Int Med Res*, 2017. 45: 2119.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28661264/>
611. Chapple, C.R., *et al.* Mirabegron in overactive bladder: a review of efficacy, safety, and tolerability. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2014. 33: 17.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24127366/>
612. Maman, K., *et al.* Comparative efficacy and safety of medical treatments for the management of overactive bladder: a systematic literature review and mixed treatment comparison. *Eur Urol*, 2014. 65: 755.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24275310/>
613. MacDiarmid, S., *et al.* Mirabegron as Add-On Treatment to Solifenacin in Patients with Incontinent Overactive Bladder and an Inadequate Response to Solifenacin Monotherapy. *J Urol*, 2016. 196: 809.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27063854/>
614. Su, S., *et al.* The efficacy and safety of mirabegron on overactive bladder induced by benign prostatic hyperplasia in men receiving tamsulosin therapy: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 2020. 99: e18802.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31977871/>
615. Kotecha, P., *et al.* Use of Duloxetine for Postprostatectomy Stress Urinary Incontinence: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2021. 7: 618.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32605820/>
616. Toia, B., *et al.* Bulking for stress urinary incontinence in men: A systematic review. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 1804.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>
617. Imamoglu, M.A., *et al.* The comparison of artificial urinary sphincter implantation and endourethral macroplastique injection for the treatment of postprostatectomy incontinence. *Eur Urol*, 2005. 47: 209.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15661416/>

618. Sacco, E. *et al.* A propensity score-matching analysis comparing bulking agent with sling implantation for the treatment of postprostatectomy stress urinary incontinence. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: S57.
<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/nau.24013>
619. Nguyen, L., *et al.* The use of urethral bulking injections in post-prostatectomy stress urinary incontinence: A narrative review of the literature. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 2060.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31432568/>
620. Choinière, R., *et al.* Evaluation of Benefits and Harms of Surgical Treatments for Post-radical Prostatectomy Urinary Incontinence: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2021.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34563480/>
621. Kowalik, C.R., *et al.* Results of an innovative bulking agent in patients with stress urinary incontinence who are not optimal candidates for mid-urethral sling surgery. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2018. 37: 339.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28452427/>
622. Stothers, L., *et al.* Delayed hypersensitivity and systemic arthralgia following transurethral collagen injection for stress urinary incontinence. *J Urol*, 1998. 159: 1507.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9554343/>
623. Malizia, A.A., Jr., *et al.* Migration and granulomatous reaction after periurethral injection of polytetrafluoroethylene (Teflon). *Jama*, 1984. 251: 3277.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/6374180/>
624. Pannek, J., *et al.* Particle migration after transurethral injection of carbon coated beads for stress urinary incontinence. *J Urol*, 2001. 166: 1350.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11547072/>
625. Cornel, E.B., *et al.* Can advance transobturator sling suspension cure male urinary postoperative stress incontinence? *J Urol*, 2010. 183: 1459.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20172561/>
626. Zeif, H.J., *et al.* The male sling for post-radical prostatectomy urinary incontinence: urethral compression versus urethral relocation or what is next? *British J Med Surg Urol*, 2010. 3: 134.
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1875974210000248>
627. Bole, R., *et al.* Narrative review of male urethral sling for post-prostatectomy stress incontinence: sling type, patient selection, and clinical applications. *Transl Androl Urol*, 2021. 10: 2682.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34295753/>
628. Chen, Y.-C., *et al.* Surgical treatment for urinary incontinence after prostatectomy: A meta-analysis and systematic review. *PLoS ONE*, 2017. 12: e0130867.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28467435/>
629. Guacheta Bomba, P.L., *et al.* Effectiveness of surgical management with an adjustable sling versus an artificial urinary sphincter in patients with severe urinary postprostatectomy incontinence: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. *Ther Adv Urol*, 2019. 11.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31632464/>
630. Abrams, P., *et al.* Outcomes of a Noninferiority Randomised Controlled Trial of Surgery for Men with Urodynamic Stress Incontinence After Prostate Surgery (MASTER). *Eur Urol*, 2021. 79: 812.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/33551297/>
631. Cornu, J.N., *et al.* Mid-term evaluation of the transobturator male sling for post-prostatectomy incontinence: focus on prognostic factors. *BJU Int*, 2011. 108: 236.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20955265/>
632. Grabbert, M., *et al.* Extended follow-up of the AdVance XP male sling in the treatment of male urinary stress incontinence after 48 months: Results of a prospective and multicenter study. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 1973.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31297894/>
633. Husch, T., *et al.* The AdVance and AdVanceXP male sling in urinary incontinence: is there a difference? *World J Urol*, 2018. 36: 1657.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29728764/>
634. Malval, B., *et al.* Long-term outcomes of I-Stop TOMSTM male sling implantation for post-prostatectomy incontinence management. *Prog Urol*, 2017. 27: 1084.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29097039/>
635. Silva, L.A.d., *et al.* Adjustable sling for the treatment of post-prostatectomy urinary incontinence: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Einstein (Sao Paulo, Brazil)*, 2019. 17: eRW4508.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31553360/>

636. Bauer, R.M., *et al.* Results of the AdVance transobturator male sling after radical prostatectomy and adjuvant radiotherapy. *Urology*, 2011. 77: 474.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21167563/>
637. Wright, H.C., *et al.* Transobturator sling for post-prostatectomy incontinence: radiation's effect on efficacy/satisfaction. *Can J Urol*, 2017. 24: 8998.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28971786>
638. Meisterhofer, K., *et al.* Male Slings for Postprostatectomy Incontinence: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020. 6: 575.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30718160/>
639. Abrams, P., *et al.* Fourth International Consultation on Incontinence Recommendations of the International Scientific Committee: Evaluation and treatment of urinary incontinence, pelvic organ prolapse, and fecal incontinence. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2010. 29: 213.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20025020/>
640. Gill, B.C., *et al.* Patient perceived effectiveness of a new male sling as treatment for post-prostatectomy incontinence. *J Urol*, 2010. 183: 247.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19913826/>
641. Rehder, P., *et al.* The 1 year outcome of the transobturator retroluminal repositioning sling in the treatment of male stress urinary incontinence. *BJU Int*, 2010. 106: 1668.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20518761/>
642. Navalon-Monllor, V., *et al.* Long-term follow-up for the treatment of male urinary incontinence with the Remeex system. *Actas Urol Esp*, 2016. 40: 585.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27237411/>
643. Shamout, S., *et al.* Short-term evaluation of the adjustable bulbourethral male sling for post-prostatectomy urinary incontinence. *Low Urin Tract Symptoms*, 2019. 11: O111.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29869450/>
644. Esquinas, C., *et al.* Effectiveness of Adjustable Transobturator Male System (ATOMS®) to Treat Male Stress Incontinence: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Adv Ther*, 2019. 36: 426.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30560525/>
645. Lima, J.P., *et al.* Argus T® versus Advance® Sling for postprostatectomy urinary incontinence: A randomized clinical trial. *Int Braz J Urol*, 2016. 42: 531.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27286117/>
646. Kim, J. Long term follow-up of readjustable urethral sling procedure (Remeex System) for male stress urinary incontinence. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2011. 30: #209. [No abstract available].
647. Bochove-Overgaaauw, D.M., *et al.* An adjustable sling for the treatment of all degrees of male stress urinary incontinence: retrospective evaluation of efficacy and complications after a minimal followup of 14 months. *J Urol*, 2011. 185: 1363.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21334683/>
648. Dalpiaz, O., *et al.* Mid-term complications after placement of the male adjustable suburethral sling: a single center experience. *J Urol*, 2011. 186: 604.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21684559/>
649. Loertzer, H., *et al.* Retropubic vs transobturator Argus adjustable male sling: Results from a multicenter study. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2020. 39: 987.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32125722/>
650. Abellan, F.J., *et al.* Systematic review and meta-analysis comparing Adjustable Transobturator Male System (ATOMS®) and Adjustable Continence Therapy (ProACT) for male stress incontinence. *PLoS ONE*, 2019. 14: e0225762.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31790490/>
651. Hubner, W.A., *et al.* Adjustable bulbourethral male sling: experience after 101 cases of moderate-to-severe male stress urinary incontinence. *BJU Int*, 2011. 107: 777.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20964801/>
652. Muhlstadt, S., *et al.* Five-year experience with the adjustable transobturator male system for the treatment of male stress urinary incontinence: a single-center evaluation. *World J Urol*, 2017. 35: 145.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27156092/>
653. Cestari, A., *et al.* Retropubic Intracorporeal Placement of a Suburethral Autologous Sling During Robot-Assisted Radical Prostatectomy to Improve Early Urinary Continence Recovery: Preliminary Data. *J Endourol*, 2015. 29: 1379.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26131781/>
654. Kojima, Y., *et al.* Bladder neck sling suspension during robot-assisted radical prostatectomy to improve early return of urinary continence: a comparative analysis. *Urology*, 2014. 83: 632.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24387929/>

655. Cestari, A., *et al.* Simple vs six-branches autologous suburethral sling during robot-assisted radical prostatectomy to improve early urinary continence recovery: prospective randomized study. *J Robot Surg*, 2017. 11: 415.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28078523/>
656. Nguyen, H.G., *et al.* A Randomized Study of Intraoperative Autologous Retropubic Urethral Sling on Urinary Control after Robotic Assisted Radical Prostatectomy. *J Urol*, 2017. 197: 369.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27693447/>
657. Kretschmer, A., *et al.* Surgical Treatment of Male Postprostatectomy Incontinence: Current Concepts. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2017. 3: 364.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29174616/>
658. Ostrowski, I., *et al.* Preliminary outcomes of the European multicentre experience with the ZSI 375 artificial urinary sphincter for treatment of stress urinary incontinence in men. *Centr Eur J Urol*, 2019. 72: 263.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31720028/>
659. de Barros, E.G.C., *et al.* Artificial sphincter "BR - SL - AS 904" in the treatment of urinary incontinence after radical prostatectomy: efficacy, practicality and safety in a prospective and multicenter study. *Int Braz J Urol*, 2018. 44: 1215.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30325613/>
660. Suh, Y.S., *et al.* Long-term outcomes of primary implantation and revisions of artificial urinary sphincter in men with stress urinary incontinence. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2017. 36: 1930.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28169469/>
661. Serra, A.C., *et al.* Prospective follow-up study of artificial urinary sphincter placement preserving the bulbospongiosus muscle. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2017. 36: 1387.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/27654121/>
662. Viers, B.R., *et al.* Long-Term Quality of Life and Functional Outcomes among Primary and Secondary Artificial Urinary Sphincter Implantations in Men with Stress Urinary Incontinence. *J Urol*, 2016. 196: 838.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26997310/>
663. Léon, P., *et al.* Long-term functional outcomes after artificial urinary sphincter implantation in men with stress urinary incontinence. *BJU Int*, 2015. 115: 951.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24958004/>
664. Trigo Rocha, F., *et al.* A prospective study evaluating the efficacy of the artificial sphincter AMS 800 for the treatment of postradical prostatectomy urinary incontinence and the correlation between preoperative urodynamic and surgical outcomes. *Urology*, 2008. 71: 85.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18242371/>
665. Lai, H.H., *et al.* Urodynamic testing in evaluation of postradical prostatectomy incontinence before artificial urinary sphincter implantation. *Urology*, 2009. 73: 1264.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19371935/>
666. Queissert, F., *et al.* High/low-volume center experience predicts outcome of AMS 800 in male stress incontinence: Results of a large middle European multicenter case series. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2020. 39: 1856.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32567709/>
667. Dosanjh, A., *et al.* A national study of artificial urinary sphincter and male sling implantation after radical prostatectomy in England. *BJU Int*, 2020. 125: 467.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31755624/>
668. Llorens, C., *et al.* Urinary artificial sphincter ZSI 375 for treatment of stress urinary incontinence in men: 5 and 7 years follow-up report. *Urol J*, 2017. 84: 263.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>
669. Van der Aa, F., *et al.* The artificial urinary sphincter after a quarter of a century: a critical systematic review of its use in male non-neurogenic incontinence. *Eur Urol*, 2013. 63: 681.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23219375/>
670. Queissert, F., *et al.* Artificial Urinary Sphincter Cuff Size Predicts Outcome in Male Patients Treated for Stress Incontinence: Results of a Large Central European Multicenter Cohort Study. *Int Neurourol J*, 2019. 23: 219.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31607101/>
671. Kaiho, Y., *et al.* Surgical and Patient Reported Outcomes of Artificial Urinary Sphincter Implantation: A Multicenter, Prospective, Observational Study. *J Urol*, 2018. 199: 245.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28823767/>

672. Sacco, E., *et al.* Artificial urinary sphincter significantly better than fixed sling for moderate post-prostatectomy stress urinary incontinence: a propensity score-matched study. *BJU Int*, 2021. 127: 229. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32744793/>
673. Larson, T., *et al.* Adjustable continence therapy (ProACT) for the treatment of male stress urinary incontinence: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2019. 38: 2051. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31429982/>
674. Crivellaro, S., *et al.* Adjustable continence therapy (ProACT) and bone anchored male sling: Comparison of two new treatments of post prostatectomy incontinence. *Int J Urol*, 2008. 15: 910. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18761534/>
675. Martens, F.M., *et al.* ProACT for stress urinary incontinence after radical prostatectomy. *Urol Int*, 2009. 82: 394. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19506404/>
676. Roupret, M., *et al.* Management of stress urinary incontinence following prostate surgery with minimally invasive adjustable continence balloon implants: functional results from a single center prospective study. *J Urol*, 2011. 186: 198. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21575974/>
677. Herschorn, S., *et al.* Surgical treatment of stress incontinence in men. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2010. 29: 179. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20025026/>
678. Gilling, P.J., *et al.* An adjustable continence therapy device for treating incontinence after prostatectomy: a minimum 2-year follow-up. *BJU Int*, 2008. 102: 1426. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18564132/>
679. Hubner, W.A., *et al.* Treatment of incontinence after prostatectomy using a new minimally invasive device: adjustable continence therapy. *BJU Int*, 2005. 96: 587. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16104915/>
680. Duthie, J.B., *et al.* Botulinum toxin injections for adults with overactive bladder syndrome. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2011: CD005493. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22161392/>
681. Mangera, A., *et al.* Contemporary management of lower urinary tract disease with botulinum toxin A: a systematic review of botox (onabotulinumtoxinA) and dysport (abobotulinumtoxinA). *Eur Urol*, 2011. 60: 784. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21782318/>
682. Nitti, V.W., *et al.* OnabotulinumtoxinA for the treatment of patients with overactive bladder and urinary incontinence: results of a phase 3, randomized, placebo controlled trial. *J Urol*, 2013. 189: 2186. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23246476/>
683. Drake, M.J., *et al.* Comparative assessment of the efficacy of onabotulinumtoxinA and oral therapies (anticholinergics and mirabegron) for overactive bladder: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. *BJU Int*, 2017. 120: 611. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28670786/>
684. Chughtai, B., *et al.* Randomized, double-blind, placebo controlled pilot study of intradetrusor injections of onabotulinumtoxinA for the treatment of refractory overactive bladder persisting following surgical management of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Can J Urol*, 2014. 21: 7217. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24775575/>
685. Faure Walker, N.A., *et al.* Onabotulinum toxin A Injections in Men With Refractory Idiopathic Detrusor Overactivity. *Urology*, 2019. 123: 242. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30266377/>
686. Bels, J., *et al.* Long-term Follow-up of Intravesical Onabotulinum Toxin-A Injections in Male Patients with Idiopathic Overactive Bladder: Comparing Surgery-naïve Patients and Patients After Prostate Surgery. *Eur Urol Focus*, 2020. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32919951/>
687. Herschorn, S., *et al.* The Efficacy and Safety of OnabotulinumtoxinA or Solifenacin Compared with Placebo in Solifenacin Naïve Patients with Refractory Overactive Bladder: Results from a Multicenter, Randomized, Double-Blind Phase 3b Trial. *J Urol*, 2017. 198: 167. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28161352/>
688. Lozano-Ortega, G., *et al.* The Relative Efficacy and Safety of Mirabegron and OnabotulinumtoxinA in Patients With Overactive Bladder who Have Previously Been Managed With an Antimuscarinic: A Network Meta-analysis. *Urology*, 2019. 127: 1. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30790650/>

689. Cui, Y., *et al.* Botulinum toxin-A injections for idiopathic overactive bladder: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Urol Int*, 2013. 91: 429.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23970316/>
690. Mateu Arrom, L., *et al.* Treatment Response and Complications after Intradetrusor OnabotulinumtoxinA Injection in Male Patients with Idiopathic Overactive Bladder Syndrome. *J Urol*, 2020. 203: 392.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31479408/>
691. He, Q., *et al.* Treatment for refractory overactive bladder: a systematic review and meta-analysis of sacral neuromodulation and onabotulinumtoxinA. *Int Urogynecol J*, 2021. 32: 477.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32661556/>
692. Tutolo, M., *et al.* Efficacy and Safety of Sacral and Percutaneous Tibial Neuromodulation in Non-neurogenic Lower Urinary Tract Dysfunction and Chronic Pelvic Pain: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *Eur Urol*, 2018. 73: 406.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29336927/>
693. Venn, S.N., *et al.* Long-term results of augmentation cystoplasty. *Eur Urol*, 1998. 34 Suppl 1: 40.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9705554/>
694. Awad, S.A., *et al.* Long-term results and complications of augmentation ileocystoplasty for idiopathic urge incontinence in women. *Br J Urol*, 1998. 81: 569.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9598629/>
695. El-Azab, A.S., *et al.* The satisfaction of patients with refractory idiopathic overactive bladder with onabotulinumtoxinA and augmentation cystoplasty. *Arab J Urol*, 2013. 11: 344.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26558103/>
696. Cody, J.D., *et al.* Urinary diversion and bladder reconstruction/replacement using intestinal segments for intractable incontinence or following cystectomy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 2012: CD003306.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22336788/>
697. Hoen, L., *et al.* Long-term effectiveness and complication rates of bladder augmentation in patients with neurogenic bladder dysfunction: A systematic review. *Neurourol Urodyn*, 2017. 36: 1685.
<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28169459/>

8. CONFLICT OF INTEREST

All members of the EAU Non-neurogenic Male LUTS Guidelines Panel have provided disclosure statements of all relationships that they have that might be perceived as a potential source of a conflict of interest. This information is publically accessible through the European Association of Urology website: <http://uroweb.org/guideline>. This guidelines document was developed with the financial support of the European Association of Urology. No external sources of funding and support have been involved. The EAU is a non-profit organisation and funding is limited to administrative and travel and meeting expenses. No honoraria or other reimbursements have been provided.

9. CITATION INFORMATION

The format in which to cite the EAU Guidelines will vary depending on the style guide of the journal in which the citation appears. Accordingly, the number of authors or whether, for instance, to include the publisher, location, or an ISBN number may vary.

The compilation of the complete Guidelines should be referenced as:

EAU Guidelines. Edn. presented at the EAU Annual Congress Milan March 2023. ISBN 978-94-92671-19-6.

If a publisher and/or location is required, include:

EAU Guidelines Office, Arnhem, the Netherlands. <http://uroweb.org/guidelines/compilations-of-all-guidelines/>

References to individual guidelines should be structured in the following way:

Contributors' names. Title of resource. Publication type. ISBN. Publisher and publisher location, year.