# **Himmelfarb Health Sciences Library, The George Washington University [Health Sciences Research Commons](https://hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu?utm_source=hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu%2Fsphhs_epibiostats_facpubs%2F255&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)**

[Epidemiology and Biostatistics Faculty Publications](https://hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu/sphhs_epibiostats_facpubs?utm_source=hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu%2Fsphhs_epibiostats_facpubs%2F255&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) [Epidemiology and Biostatistics](https://hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu/sphhs_epibiostats?utm_source=hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu%2Fsphhs_epibiostats_facpubs%2F255&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

2016

# Male Pattern Baldness in Relation to Prostate Cancer–Specific Mortality: A Prospective Analysis in the NHANES I Epidemiologic Follow-up Study

Cindy Ke Zhou

Paul H Levine *George Washington University*

Sean D. Cleary *George Washington University*

Heather J. Hoffman *George Washington University*

Barry I Graubard

*See next page for additional authors*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu/sphhs\\_epibiostats\\_facpubs](https://hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu/sphhs_epibiostats_facpubs?utm_source=hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu%2Fsphhs_epibiostats_facpubs%2F255&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) Part of the [Biostatistics Commons,](http://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/210?utm_source=hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu%2Fsphhs_epibiostats_facpubs%2F255&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) and the [Epidemiology Commons](http://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/740?utm_source=hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu%2Fsphhs_epibiostats_facpubs%2F255&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Recommended Citation epub ahead of print

This Journal Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Epidemiology and Biostatistics at Health Sciences Research Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Epidemiology and Biostatistics Faculty Publications by an authorized administrator of Health Sciences Research Commons. For more information, please contact [hsrc@gwu.edu.](mailto:hsrc@gwu.edu)

# **Authors**

Cindy Ke Zhou, Paul H Levine, Sean D. Cleary, Heather J. Hoffman, Barry I Graubard, and Michael B. Cook



American Journal of Epidemiology

Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health 2016. This work is written by (a) US Government employee(s) and is in the public domain in the US.

DOI: 10.1093/aje/kwv190

# Original Contribution

# Male Pattern Baldness in Relation to Prostate Cancer–Specific Mortality: A Prospective Analysis in the NHANES I Epidemiologic Follow-up Study

# Cindy Ke Zhou, Paul H. Levine, Sean D. Cleary, Heather J. Hoffman, Barry I. Graubard, and Michael B. Cook\*

\* Correspondence to Dr. Michael B. Cook, Hormonal and Reproductive Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, 9609 Medical Center Drive, Room 7-E106, MSC 9774, Bethesda, MD 20892-9774 (e-mail: michael.cook@nih.gov).

Initially submitted April 14, 2015; accepted for publication July 10, 2015.

We used male pattern baldness as a proxy for long-term androgen exposure and investigated the association of dermatologist-assessed hair loss with prostate cancer–specific mortality in the first National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey Epidemiologic Follow-up Study. From the baseline survey (1971–1974), we included 4,316 men who were 25–74 years of age and had no prior cancer diagnosis. We estimated hazard ratios and used Cox proportional hazards regressions with age as the time metric and baseline hazard stratified by baseline age. A hybrid framework was used to account for stratification and clustering of the sample design, with adjustment for the variables used to calculate sample weights. During follow-up (median, 21 years), 3,284 deaths occurred; prostate cancer was the underlying cause of 107. In multivariable models, compared with no balding, any baldness was associated with a 56% higher risk of fatal prostate cancer (hazard ratio = 1.56; 95% confidence interval: 1.02, 2.37), and moderate balding specifically was associated with an 83% higher risk (hazard ratio = 1.83; 95% confidence interval: 1.15, 2.92). Conversely, patterned hair loss was not statistically significantly associated with all-cause mortality. Our analysis suggests that patterned hair loss is associated with a higher risk of fatal prostate cancer and supports the hypothesis of overlapping pathophysiological mechanisms.

cohort; male pattern baldness; prostate cancer mortality

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; HR, hazard ratio; NCHS, National Center for Health Statistics; NHANES I, first National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NHEFS, NHANES I Epidemiologic Follow-up Study; PLCO, Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial.

In US men, prostate cancer is the most frequently diagnosed nonskin cancer and the second leading cause of cancer deaths, with an estimated 238,590 new cases and 29,720 deaths in 2013 ([1\)](#page-8-0). Established risk factors for prostate cancer are limited to older age, black race, family history of prostate cancer [\(2](#page-8-0)), and certain genetic polymorphisms ([3\)](#page-8-0), which collectively explain only a fraction of the disease occurrence. More studies are needed to better understand the etiology of prostate cancer, especially lethal malignancies, given that the current screening tests for prostate cancer lead to substantial overdiagnosis ([4\)](#page-8-0).

Male pattern baldness (also known as androgenic alopecia) is progressive scalp hair loss due to androgenic miniaturization of hair follicles. Generally, 3 zones of the scalp are preferentially affected: the bitemporal, frontal, and vertex areas. The prevalence and extent of baldness increase with increasing age ([5\)](#page-8-0). Evidence has suggested that male pattern baldness and prostate cancer might share similar pathophysiological mechanisms in terms of heritability and endogenous hormones. For example, heritable factors contribute to approximately 42% of prostate cancer risk ([6\)](#page-8-0) and 81% of male pattern baldness ([7\)](#page-8-0). Regarding endogenous hormones, androgenic action has been shown to play integral roles in hair loss and prostate cancer progression; both hair follicles and the prostate gland are androgen responsive. However, results from prior epidemiologic studies of circulating sex steroid hormones in relation to prostate cancer risks have been inconsistent  $(8-12)$  $(8-12)$  $(8-12)$  $(8-12)$ . All of such prior studies only quantitated sex steroid hormones at a single time point, mainly at midlife or older. Thus, intra-individual variation and/or the etiologically relevant time window of exposure  $(13, 14)$  $(13, 14)$  $(13, 14)$  $(13, 14)$  might not have been adequately captured. Male pattern baldness might be a marker of long-term androgen exposure and thus could be useful in aiding our understanding of prostate cancer etiology.

Prior studies of male pattern baldness in relation to prostate cancer risks have been inconsistent in the methods used and the conclusions drawn. In most prior studies, investigators have used a case-control study design, and a meta-analysis of 7 such studies suggested a 25% higher risk of prostate cancer (odds ratio = 1.25;  $95\%$  confidence interval (CI): 1.09, 1.44) for men with any vertex balding compared with men with no balding ([15\)](#page-8-0). In prospective studies, researchers have found somewhat similarly positive associations between these 2 conditions. An analysis of the Melbourne Collaborative Cohort Study (MCCS) suggested that vertex balding (Norwood-Hamilton scale types III vertex–VII) at 40 years of age might predict earlier onset of prostate cancer ([16\)](#page-8-0). In our prior analysis of the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial (PLCO) cohort, we found that men with frontal plus moderate vertex balding (Norwood-Hamilton scale types V–VI) at age 45 years had a 39% higher risk of aggressive prostate cancer (hazard ratio  $(HR) = 1.39$ ; 95% CI: 1.07, 1.80) ([17\)](#page-8-0). However, we did not observe associations between classes of baldness and prostate cancer risks in the cohort of Vitamins and Lifestyle (VITAL) Study [\(18](#page-8-0)), although vertex balding was captured as a single exposure class—a categorization that produced a similarly null result when assessed in our PLCO analysis. Lastly, results from a former prospective analysis in the first National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES I) Epidemiologic Follow-up Study (NHEFS), which included follow-up until 1992, suggested a 50% higher risk of incident prostate cancer for men with any baldness at baseline compared with men with no balding ([19\)](#page-8-0). In that prior analysis of NHEFS data, investigators could not assess the association of baldness with fatal prostate cancer because too few deaths from prostate cancer occurred [\(19\)](#page-8-0). With an additional 20 years of follow-up, we used the unique resource of the NHEFS, which has the major advantage of data on dermatologically assessed baldness at baseline, to investigate the relationship between male pattern baldness and prostate cancer–specific mortality.

#### **METHODS**

NHANES I is a nationally representative, cross-sectional survey of the US civilian, noninstitutionalized population aged 1–74 years in 1971–1974. The complex survey design of NHANES I is an area-based, multistage, stratified probability cluster sample of persons with oversampling of elderly people, preschool children, persons who live in poverty areas, and women of child-bearing age ([20\)](#page-8-0). Sample weights are functions of the probability of selection with adjustment for nonresponse (within family income groups) and poststratification (calibrated by age-, race-, and sex-specific controls from the US Bureau of the Census) ([21\)](#page-8-0). Five variables (age, residence in a poverty area, family income group, race, and sex) were used to calculate sample weights. NHANES I was extended

to 1975 by sampling more adults 25–74 years of age who were selected to undergo a detailed health examination using a similar sample design but without oversampling (known as NHANES I Augmentation) [\(20](#page-8-0)). The NHEFS, a longitudinal prospective study, was conducted among individuals who were 25–74 years at the NHANES I or NHANES I Augmentation baselines [\(21\)](#page-8-0). The NHEFS included a series of follow-up surveys in 1982–1984, 1986, 1987, and 1992 to collect updated data on time-varying exposures, as well as vital and health statuses. Complex survey analytic methods are needed to account for the sampling design and to estimate the appropriate standard errors. Data collection methods for the NHEFS were approved by the US National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS) Ethics Review Board.

#### Exposure ascertainment

Baldness was classified at baseline dermatologic examinations only for NHANES I participants (1971–1974). The extent and impression of etiology of baldness were assessed by trained third-year dermatology residents using a standard procedure ([22\)](#page-8-0). The extent of baldness was categorized into 4 levels [\(23](#page-8-0)): 1) none (no obvious baldness at first encounter or examination); 2) minimum (no obvious baldness at first encounter but baldness detected during the examination); 3) moderate (observable baldness at first encounter); and 4) severe (obvious baldness at first encounter and hair confined to scalp fringes if present). The impression of etiologies determined by dermatology residents included patterned hair loss, alopecia areata, infection, antimetabolites, trauma, and postclimacteric hair loss. Only individuals deemed to have patterned hair loss ("male pattern baldness") were of interest and were retained for analysis.

#### Outcome ascertainment

Vital information was ascertained from death certificates during active follow-up of the NHEFS through 1992; 90% of participants were successfully traced, and death certificates were available for 98% of decedents [\(24\)](#page-8-0). Additional follow-up has been extended through December 31, 2011, via the linkage of the NHEFS to the National Death Index since 1979, with supplemental data sources (e.g., Social Security Administration, the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services, or death certificate review) to aid determination of vital status. The linkage used a probabilistic algorithm and manual reviews at the NCHS  $(25)$  $(25)$ . The criteria for true matches were calibrated using samples with active follow-up, 98.5% of which were correctly classified  $(26)$  $(26)$ . Prostate cancer as the underlying cause of death was coded as International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision code 185 from 1971– 1998 ([27](#page-9-0)) and International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision code C61 from 1999 onward. Classification of prostate cancer as the underlying cause of death remained consistent across revisions [\(28](#page-9-0)). Multiple cause of death data were also derived from the original coding of death certificates by the Division of Vital Statistics at NCHS. Each death certificate contains a single underlying cause of death and up to 20 additional multiple causes. Outcome information was assessed through the NCHS Research Data Center,

in which analysis of deidentified restricted data was approved by the NCHS Ethics Review Board.

## Study sample

Of the 4,478 men from the NHANES I (1971–1974) part of the NHEFS, we excluded 49 who had baldness due to reasons other than patterned hair loss, 91 men with a prior cancer diagnosis, and 22 men without a valid National Death Index record match or any other source of mortality information. This resulted in 4,316 men in the NHEFS analytic cohort.

## Statistical analysis

Because of the prior statistical studies in which investigators showed overestimation of standard errors caused by using the highly variable NHEFS sample weights in weighted analyses ([21](#page-8-0)), we used a hybrid framework to account for stratification and clustering of the sampling design while adjusting for 4 applicable variables (age modeled as the time metric, residence in a poverty area (yes vs. no), family income group (<\$3,000; \$3,000–\$6,999; \$7,000–\$9,999; \$10,000– \$14,999; or  $\geq$ \$15,000), and race (black vs. nonblack)) that were used in the calculation of sample weights [\(29](#page-9-0)). If data were missing for family income (4%), the value was imputed by drawing from a uniform distribution,  $U(0,1)$ , conditioned on the observed income distribution. We used 2 additional frameworks as sensitivity analyses: 1) a model-based framework in which we ignored the complex survey design and 2) a designbased framework into which we incorporated stratification, clustering, and sample weights.

Congruent with the hybrid framework discussed, we used Rao-Scott F  $\chi^2$  statistics to account for clustering and stratification, with each subject's sampling weight set at 1 to test the independence of baseline characteristics relative to degree of baldness and case status. Therefore, unweighted column percentages and standard errors were presented as the main results. We used Cox proportional hazards regressions with age as the time metric and baseline hazard stratified by age at interview (50 one-year strata for ages 25–74 years) ([30\)](#page-9-0) to estimate hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals for associations between male pattern baldness and prostate cancer–specific mortality. Follow-up started at the baseline interview and continued until the time of an event (death from prostate cancer) or of right-censoring (loss of follow-up, death from other causes, or last date of follow-up (December 31, 2011)), whichever occurred first. We also examined male pattern baldness in relation to prostate cancer listed as the underlying cause of death or as 1 of multiple causes of death, as well as in relation to all-cause mortality, using the hybrid framework. Additional potential confounders for multivariable models were determined a priori (family history of prostate cancer) or by including covariates individually (educational level, marital status, region, physical activity level, body mass index (weight  $(kg)/height (m)<sup>2</sup>$ ), cigarette smoking, and alcohol consumption), with retention requiring a 10% change in the hazard ratios. The proportional hazard assumption was tested by visual inspection of log-log plots and by including interaction terms of exposure and indicators of time intervals based on tertiles of the time-to-event distribution.

Interactions of baldness with race and body mass index (continuous and categorical) were each independently assessed through inclusion of an interaction term in Cox models. Models were stratified by age group (<65 years vs.  $\geq 65$ years) to examine whether age at dermatologic examination modified the association of baldness with prostate cancer– specific mortality. Two-sided  $P$  values  $\langle 0.05 \rangle$  were considered statistically significant. SAS, version 9.3 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, North Carolina) was used for descriptive analyses. Models were fitted in STATA, version 13 (StataCorp LP, College Station, Texas).

# RESULTS

During follow-up (median, 21 years), 3,284 deaths occurred. Prostate cancer was listed as the underlying cause of death for 107 men and as 1 of multiple causes of death for 22 men. The median age at interview was 54 years (interquartile range, 39–67). Table [1](#page-5-0) shows unweighted characteristics by severity of male pattern baldness. The prevalence and extent of male pattern baldness appeared to increase with increasing age and lower educational level. Men with moderate to severe baldness were more likely to have lower family incomes, to abstain from alcohol, to be black, and to be a former smoker. [Web Table 1](http://aje.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aje/kwv190/-/DC1) (available at [http://aje.oxfordjournals.org/\)](http://aje.oxfordjournals.org/) shows unweighted characteristics by case status. Consistent with literature, advancing age, black race, and family history of prostate cancer were associated with prostate cancer–specific mortality. Differences in prostate cancer–specific mortality were also observed by educational level, smoking status, and frequency of alcohol consumption.

As shown in Table [2](#page-7-0), after adjustment for applicable variables used to calculate sample weights, any baldness was associated with a 56% higher risk of prostate cancer–specific mortality (HR = 1.56; 95% CI: 1.02, 2.37), and moderate balding specifically was associated with an 83% higher risk of the outcome (HR = 1.83; 95% CI: 1.15, 2.92), each compared with no balding. The proportional hazard assumption held for male pattern baldness ( $P = 0.709$ ). Conversely, male pattern baldness was unrelated to all-cause mortality. Additional inclusion of potential confounders did not materially change the risk estimates. Estimates for the redefined outcome determined by combining prostate cancer as the underlying cause and as 1 of multiple causes of death were slightly attenuated, although moderate balding was still associated with a 54% higher risk of this composite outcome (HR = 1.54; 95% CI: 1.00, 2.37) compared with no balding [\(Web Table 2](http://aje.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aje/kwv190/-/DC1)). Results obtained in hybrid Cox models were consistent with those from model-based and designed-based frameworks ([Web](http://aje.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aje/kwv190/-/DC1) [Table 3](http://aje.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aje/kwv190/-/DC1)). We found no significant interaction of race  $(P =$ 0.624), body mass index at baseline (continuous  $P = 0.402$ ; categorical  $P = 0.290$ , or age at dermatologic examination (data not shown) with male pattern baldness.

# **DISCUSSION**

In the present prospective analysis, any baldness was significantly associated with a 56% higher risk of prostate cancer– specific mortality compared with no balding. The greatest specific risk was conferred by moderate balding, which was

<span id="page-5-0"></span>Table 1. Unweighted Characteristics of Study Participants by Severity of Male Pattern Baldness, National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey I Epidemiologic Follow-up Study, 1971–2011



Table continues

associated with an 83% higher risk. No association was found between male pattern baldness and all-cause mortality.

To our knowledge, this is the first study in which male pattern baldness has been investigated in relation to prostate cancer–specific mortality. Results obtained in this analysis may be supported by those from prior studies of hair loss patterns and aggressive prostate cancer. In a matched case-control study from Australia, Giles et al. [\(31\)](#page-9-0) found that vertex balding (Norwood-Hamilton scale types III vertex–V) was associated with a 2-fold increased risk (odds ratio = 2.04, 95% CI: 1.35, 3.08) of high-grade prostate cancer (Gleason score  $= 8 - 10$ ) compared with no balding. Our analysis of PLCO data suggested that moderate frontal balding (Norwood-Hamilton scale types V–VI) at 45 years of age was positively associated with "aggressive" prostate cancer  $(HRs = 1.39 - 2.02)$  [\(17](#page-8-0)). In addition, in a former NHEFS analysis with follow-up through 1992 (and thus with more than two thirds of the accrual time in the period before widespread use of the prostate-specific antigen test to diagnose prostate cancer, when symptomatic prostate cancer predominated), researchers reported a 50% increased risk of incident prostate cancer (HR =  $1.50$ ;  $95\%$ ) CI: 1.12, 2.00) for men with any baldness and a slightly higher risk estimate for men with moderate baldness (HR = 1.60; 95% CI: 1.15, 2.23) compared with men with no balding  $(19)$  $(19)$  $(19)$ . Similar to these nonlinear relationships observed within our PLCO analysis and the previous NHEFS analysis, we failed to identify a dose-response relationship between degrees of male pattern baldness and prostate cancer–specific mortality. This could be due to lack of statistical power because there were only 12 deaths in the group with severe baldness. Additionally, it could be explained by the perhaps incorrect assumption that the degree of male pattern baldness is linearly associated with an underlying exposure (e.g., circulating androgen concentrations), which in turn shares a linear

#### Table 1. Continued



Abbreviation: SE, standard error.

<sup>a</sup> Column percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing values.

**b** Unweighted standard errors were calculated by accounting for clustering and stratification in a hybrid statistical framework.

<sup>c</sup> P value was calculated from Rao-Scott F  $\chi^2$  tests using nonmissing categories to account for clustering and stratification.<br><sup>d</sup> In the 1982–1984 or 1992 follow-up survey.

<sup>f</sup> Weight (kg)/height (m)<sup>2</sup>.

association with aggressive/fatal prostate cancer. An increased understanding of what drives differential susceptibility of hair follicle miniaturization by scalp area might provide a better indication of the exposure(s) that underlies both male pattern baldness and aggressive/fatal prostate cancer. The null associations between male pattern baldness and all-cause mortality might be interpreted to indirectly support our hypothesis of shared exposures between male pattern baldness and prostate cancer, as it shows that it is not merely a risk factor for overall mortality. Deaths with prostate cancer as the underlying cause comprised less than 1% of total deaths among US men in 2011 [\(32\)](#page-9-0). Ischemic heart disease has previously been reported to be positively associated with male pattern baldness ([33](#page-9-0), [34](#page-9-0)); the null result in this study of male pattern baldness and all-cause mortality does not contradict these findings, given the fact that this underlying cause of death accounted for a small fraction (15%) of the total deaths observed.

Despite the inconsistent results from epidemiologic studies of the associations between male pattern baldness and the risk of prostate cancer ([15,](#page-8-0) [16,](#page-8-0) [19,](#page-8-0) [31,](#page-9-0) [35](#page-9-0)–[43\)](#page-9-0), clinical observations and laboratory studies support a link between these 2 conditions. In addition to the fact that both conditions show degrees of heritability, androgenic action appears to be involved in the development of male pattern baldness, as well as prostate carcinogenesis and tumor progression. Men who were born with a congenital deficiency of type II  $5\alpha$ -reductase, which normally converts testosterone to dihydrotestosterone, or who were prepubertally castrated do not develop prostate cancer and show complete retention of scalp hair [\(44\)](#page-9-0). Patients with androgen insensitivity due to deleterious mutations in the androgen receptor gene present impaired development of the prostate gland [\(45\)](#page-9-0) and do not appear bald ([46](#page-9-0)). Balding scalp is characterized by elevated dihydrotestosterone levels [\(36,](#page-9-0) [47](#page-9-0), [48\)](#page-9-0). Finasteride, a type II 5α-reductase inhibitor, has been

<sup>e</sup> Includes widowed, divorced, separated, and never married.



<span id="page-7-0"></span>Table 2. Associations of Male Pattern Baldness With Prostate Cancer–Specific Mortality and All-Cause Mortality, National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey I Epidemiologic Follow-up Study, 1971–2011

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; HR, hazard ratio.

<sup>a</sup> Age was modeled as the time metric, with baseline hazard stratified by age at interview. Hazard ratios were estimated by accounting for clustering and stratification in a hybrid statistical framework, with adjustment for variables that were used to calculate the sample weights, including residence in a poverty area (yes or no), family income (<\$3,000, \$3,000–\$6,999, \$7,000–\$9,999, \$10,000–\$14,999, or ≥\$15,000), and race (black or nonblack).

approved by the US Food and Drug Administration to stop hair loss and stimulate hair growth. Similarly, castration has long been shown to shrink the primary cancerous lesion in patients with advanced prostate cancer, whereas injection of androgens aggravates the condition ([49](#page-9-0)). However, associations between concentrations of circulating sex steroid hormones and prostate cancer risk are inconsistent  $(8-12)$  $(8-12)$  $(8-12)$  $(8-12)$ , possibly because of a combination of variability in the robustness and detection limits of steroid quantitation methods used; assessment of a limited number of metabolites within the sex steroid hormone biosynthesis pathway; and variable case mixes recruited before and/ or during the period in which there was widespread use of the prostate-specific antigen test to diagnose prostate cancer. In a pooled analysis of 18 prospective studies in which investigators used study-specific categorization of circulating hormone concentrations, free testosterone concentration was positively associated with incident prostate cancer risk in the period before widespread use of the prostate-specific antigen test to diagnose prostate cancer  $(9)$  $(9)$ . Moreover, in a recent nested case-control study in the PLCO cohort, Weiss et al. ([8\)](#page-8-0) reported that the ratio of serum testosterone to sex hormone-binding globulin was positively associated with aggressive prostate cancer in men older than 65 years of age. However, prediagnostic circulating sex hormone levels were unrelated to lethal prostate cancer (metastasized cancer or death) in a case-control study nested in the Physicians' Health Study (PHS) and the Health Professionals Follow-up Study (HPFS) ([10](#page-8-0)). Nevertheless, prior studies were limited by a single measurement of sex steroid hormones in midlife or later. Fluctuations of sex steroid hormones in early life or cumulative androgen exposure may be more etiologically relevant  $(50)$  $(50)$  $(50)$ .

There are limitations to our NHEFS analysis. Distinct patterns of baldness were not fully captured by degrees of hair loss. The relationship of these 2 conditions may depend on the scalp areas in which the balding occurs, as we have discussed, and thus a combination of frontal and vertex baldness in NHEFS might have attenuated our risk estimates for fatal prostate cancer. The limited number of men younger than 45 years of age at baseline  $(n = 1,446; 8 \text{ cases})$  precluded assessment of early-onset baldness in relation to fatal prostate cancer with statistical power. Previous case-control studies have suggested that early-onset baldness may be more strongly associated with incident prostate cancer [\(38,](#page-9-0) [42,](#page-9-0) [43](#page-9-0)). The limited number of black men in our analytic cohort ( $n = 684$ ; 32 cases) may be the reason why the similar relative risks for fatal prostate cancer in men with any baldness using the full cohort were not statistically significant in this racial group alone  $(HR =$ 1.76; 95% CI: 0.75, 4.11). In a previous analysis of NHEFS data, investigators reported that black men with any baldness had a more than 2-fold higher risk of incident prostate cancer (HR = 2.10; 95% CI: 1.04, 4.25), with a slightly lower risk for nonblack men (HR = 1.42; 95% CI: 1.01, 1.98) [\(19\)](#page-8-0). Results from a case-control study in black men (318 cases, 219 controls) further suggested that frontal baldness at 30 years of age was associated with high-stage (odds ratio = 2.61; 95% CI: 1.10, 6.18) and high-grade (odds ratio = 2.20; 95% CI: 1.05, 4.61) prostate cancer ([51\)](#page-9-0). Misclassification of the underlying cause of death may slightly attenuate the true association, given that death certificates were missing for 5% of participants who died (who were thus right-censored when death occurred) and that the estimated agreement for attribution of prostate cancer as the underlying cause of death between medical records review and linkage to death certificates ranged from 87%–97% [\(52,](#page-9-0) [53](#page-9-0)). Information on prostate cancer screening and treatment was incomplete because of the termination of active follow-up in 1992. However, we would expect any effect modification by screening/treatment to be small, given that the most current observational trial data indicate a minimal effect of prostate cancer screening on the reduction of prostate-specific mortality in US men [\(54\)](#page-9-0) and that we adjusted for covariates of socioeconomic status and accounted for cohort/period effect by stratifying the baseline hazard. Moreover, even if effect modification by screening/treatment exists, we would expect this effect to attenuate the associations observed, assuming that the distribution of screening and/or treatment are mostly likely to be nondifferentially distributed by degree of hair loss. Finally, inferences about the target US population cannot be drawn, given that the unweighted analysis was performed for the appropriate estimation of variances.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>In summary, we found that compared with no balding, any baldness was significantly associated with a higher risk of fatal prostate cancer and that moderate balding specifically was associated with the highest risk. Our results support the hypothesis of overlapping pathophysiological mechanisms in the 2 conditions. The moderate association and relatively high prevalence of male pattern baldness in Western populations does not currently support the use of male pattern baldness in prostate cancer screening decisions. In future studies, investigators should aim to confirm the association between male pattern baldness and fatal prostate cancer, as well as evaluate the additional value it may offer to predictive models.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Author affiliations: Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland (Cindy Ke Zhou, Barry I. Graubard, Michael B. Cook); and Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Milken Institute School of Public Health, George Washington University, Washington DC (Cindy Ke Zhou, Paul H. Levine, Sean D. Cleary, Heather J. Hoffman).

This research was supported by the Intramural Program of the Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health.

We thank Dr. Frances A. McCarty at the Research Data Center, National Center for Health Statistics, for her analytic and consultation support.

The findings and conclusions in this paper are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily represent the views of the Research Data Center, the National Center for Health Statistics, or the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Conflict of interest: none declared.

#### **REFERENCES**

- 1. American Cancer Society. Cancer Facts & Figures 2013. Atlanta, GA: American Cancer Society; 2013.
- 2. Hsing AW, Chokkalingam AP. Prostate cancer epidemiology. Front Biosci. 2006;11:1388–1413.
- 3. Eeles RA, Olama AA, Benlloch S, et al. Identification of 23 new prostate cancer susceptibility loci using the iCOGS custom genotyping array. Nat Genet. 2013;45(4):385–391.
- 4. Loeb S, Bjurlin MA, Nicholson J, et al. Overdiagnosis and overtreatment of prostate cancer. Eur Urol. 2014;65(6): 1046–1055.
- 5. Hamilton JB. Patterned loss of hair in man; types and incidence. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 1951;53(3):708–728.
- 6. Lichtenstein P, Holm NV, Verkasalo PK, et al. Environmental and heritable factors in the causation of cancer—analyses of cohorts of twins from Sweden, Denmark, and Finland. N Engl J Med. 2000;343(2):78–85.
- 7. Nyholt DR, Gillespie NA, Heath AC, et al. Genetic basis of male pattern baldness. J Invest Dermatol. 2003;121(6): 1561–1564.
- 8. Weiss JM, Huang WY, Rinaldi S, et al. Endogenous sex hormones and the risk of prostate cancer: a prospective study. Int J Cancer. 2008;122(10):2345–2350.
- 9. Roddam AW, Allen NE, Appleby P, et al. Endogenous sex hormones and prostate cancer: a collaborative analysis of 18 prospective studies. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2008;100(3): 170–183.
- 10. Gershman B, Shui IM, Stampfer M, et al. Prediagnostic circulating sex hormones are not associated with mortality for men with prostate cancer. Eur Urol. 2014;65(4):683–689.
- 11. Pierorazio PM, Ferrucci L, Kettermann A, et al. Serum testosterone is associated with aggressive prostate cancer in older men: results from the Baltimore Longitudinal Study of Aging. BJU Int. 2010;105(6):824–829.
- 12. Muller RL, Gerber L, Moreira DM, et al. Serum testosterone and dihydrotestosterone and prostate cancer risk in the placebo arm of the Reduction by Dutasteride of Prostate Cancer Events trial. Eur Urol. 2012;62(5):757–764.
- 13. Plymate SR, Tenover JS, Bremner WJ. Circadian variation in testosterone, sex hormone-binding globulin, and calculated non-sex hormone-binding globulin bound testosterone in healthy young and elderly men. J Androl. 1989;10(5):366-371.
- 14. Feldman HA, Longcope C, Derby CA, et al. Age trends in the level of serum testosterone and other hormones in middle-aged men: longitudinal results from the Massachusetts Male Aging Study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2002;87(2):589–598.
- 15. Amoretti A, Laydner H, Bergfeld W. Androgenetic alopecia and risk of prostate cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2013;68(6):937–943.
- 16. Muller DC, Giles GG, Sinclair R, et al. Age-dependent associations between androgenetic alopecia and prostate cancer risk. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2013;22(2): 209–215.
- 17. Zhou CK, Pfeiffer RM, Cleary SD, et al. Relationship between male pattern baldness and the risk of aggressive prostate cancer: an analysis of the prostate, lung, colorectal, and ovarian cancer screening trial. *J Clin Oncol*. 2015;33(5):419-425.
- 18. Zhou CK, Littman AJ, Levine PH, et al. Male pattern baldness in relation to prostate cancer risks: an analysis in the VITamins and lifestyle (VITAL) cohort study. Prostate. 2015;75(4): 415–423.
- 19. Hawk E, Breslow RA, Graubard BI. Male pattern baldness and clinical prostate cancer in the epidemiologic follow-up of the first National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2000;9(5):523–527.
- 20. Landis JR, Lepkowski JM, Eklund SA, et al. A statistical methodology for analyzing data from a complex survey: the first National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Vital Health Stat 2. 1982;(92):1–52.
- 21. Ingram DD, Makuc DM. Statistical issues in analyzing the NHANES I Epidemiologic Followup Study. Series 2: data evaluation and methods research. Vital Health Stat 2. 1994;(121):1–30.
- 22. Johnson MT, Roberts J. Skin conditions and related need for medical care among persons 1–74 years. United States, 1971–1974. Vital Health Stat 11. 1978;(212):i–v, 1–72.
- 23. Ford ES, Freedman DS, Byers T. Baldness and ischemic heart disease in a national sample of men. Am J Epidemiol. 1996; 143(7):651–657.
- 24. Cox CS, Mussolino ME, Rothwell ST, et al. Plan and operation of the NHANES I Epidemiologic Followup Study, 1992. Vital Health Stat 1. 1997;(35):1–231.
- 25. National Center for Health Statistics, Office of Analysis and Epidemiology. The NHANES I Epidemiologic Follow-up Study (NHEFS) Linked Mortality File. Mortality follow-up through 2006: matching methodology. Hyattsville, MD. [http://www.cdc.](http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/datalinkage/matching_methodology_nhefs_final.pdf) [gov/nchs/data/datalinkage/matching\\_methodology\\_nhefs\\_](http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/datalinkage/matching_methodology_nhefs_final.pdf)final. [pdf](http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/datalinkage/matching_methodology_nhefs_final.pdf). Published September 2009. Accessed July 3, 2014.
- <span id="page-9-0"></span>26. National Center for Health Statistics. NHANES I Epidemiologic Follow-up Survey (NHEFS) calibration sample for NDI matching methodology. Hyattsville, MD. [http://www.](http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/datalinkage/mort_calibration_study.pdf) [cdc.gov/nchs/data/datalinkage/mort\\_calibration\\_study.pdf.](http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/datalinkage/mort_calibration_study.pdf) Updated September 17, 2009. Accessed July 3, 2014.
- 27. World Health Organization. Manual of the international statistical classification of diseases, injuries, and causes of death: based on the recommendations of the ninth Revision Conference, and adopted by the twenty-ninth World Health Assembly, Volume 1. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 1975.
- 28. Anderson RN, Miniño AM, Hoyert DL, et al. Comparability of cause of death between ICD-9 and ICD-10: preliminary estimates. Natl Vital Stat Rep. 2001;49(2):1–32.
- 29. Korn EL, Graubard BI. Epidemiologic studies utilizing surveys: accounting for the sampling design. Am J Public Health. 1991; 81(9):1166–1173.
- 30. Korn EL, Graubard BI, Midthune D. Time-to-event analysis of longitudinal follow-up of a survey: choice of the time-scale. Am J Epidemiol. 1997;145(1):72–80.
- 31. Giles GG, Severi G, Sinclair R, et al. Androgenetic alopecia and prostate cancer: findings from an Australian case-control study. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2002;11(6):549–553.
- 32. Hoyert DL, Xu J. Deaths: preliminary data for 2011. Natl Vital Stat Rep. 2012;61(6):1–51.
- 33. Arias-Santiago S, Gutiérrez-Salmerón MT, Castellote-Caballero L, et al. Androgenetic alopecia and cardiovascular risk factors in men and women: a comparative study. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2010;63(3):420–429.
- 34. Yamada T, Hara K, Umematsu H, et al. Male pattern baldness and its association with coronary heart disease: a meta-analysis. BMJ Open. 2013;3(4):e002537.
- 35. Greenwald P, Damon A, Kirmss V, et al. Physical and demographic features of men before developing cancer of the prostate. J Natl Cancer Inst. 1974;53(2):341–346.
- 36. Demark-Wahnefried W, Lesko SM, Conaway MR, et al. Serum androgens: associations with prostate cancer risk and hair patterning. *J Androl.* 1997;18(5):495-500.
- 37. Hsieh CC, Thanos A, Mitropoulos D, et al. Risk factors for prostate cancer: a case-control study in Greece. Int J Cancer. 1999;80(5):699–703.
- 38. Denmark-Wahnefried W, Schildkraut JM, Thompson D, et al. Early onset baldness and prostate cancer risk. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2000;9(3):325–328.
- 39. Faydaci G, Bilal E, Necmettin P, et al. Baldness, benign prostate hyperplasia, prostate cancer and androgen levels. Aging Male. 2008;11(4):189–192.
- 40. Cremers RG, Aben KK, Vermeulen SH, et al. Androgenic alopecia is not useful as an indicator of men at high risk of prostate cancer. Eur J Cancer. 2010;46(18):3294–3299.
- 41. Wright JL, Page ST, Lin DW, et al. Male pattern baldness and prostate cancer risk in a population-based case-control study. Cancer Epidemiol. 2010;34(2):131–135.
- 42. Yassa M, Saliou M, De Rycke Y, et al. Male pattern baldness and the risk of prostate cancer. Ann Oncol. 2011;22(8): 1824–1827.
- 43. Thomas JA, Antonelli JA, Banez LL, et al. Androgenetic alopecia at various ages and prostate cancer risk in an equal-access multiethnic case-control series of veterans. Cancer Causes Control. 2013;24(5):1045–1052.
- 44. Marks LS. 5alpha-reductase: history and clinical importance. Rev Urol. 2004;(6 suppl 9):S11–S21.
- 45. Brinkmann AO. Molecular basis of androgen insensitivity. Mol Cell Endocrinol. 2001;179(1-2):105–109.
- 46. Patterson MN, McPhaul MJ, Hughes IA. Androgen insensitivity syndrome. Baillieres Clin Endocrinol Metab. 1994;8(2):379–404.
- 47. Schweikert HU, Wilson JD. Regulation of human hair growth by steroid hormones. II. Androstenedione metabolism in isolated hairs. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 1974;39(6):1012–1019.
- 48. Bang HJ, Yang YJ, Lho DS, et al. Comparative studies on level of androgens in hair and plasma with premature male-pattern baldness. J Dermatol Sci. 2004;34(1):11–16.
- 49. Huggins C, Stevens RE Jr, Hodges CV, et al. Studies on prostatic cancer: II. The effects of castration on advanced carcinoma of the prostate gland. Arch Surg. 1941;43(2):209–223.
- 50. Sutcliffe S, Colditz GA. Prostate cancer: is it time to expand the research focus to early-life exposures? Nat Rev Cancer. 2013; 13(3):208–518.
- 51. Zeigler-Johnson C, Morales KH, Spangler E, et al. Relationship of early-onset baldness to prostate cancer in African-American men. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2013;22(4): 589–596.
- 52. Penson DF, Albertsen PC, Nelson PS, et al. Determining cause of death in prostate cancer: Are death certificates valid? J Natl Cancer Inst. 2001;93(23):1822–1823.
- 53. Albertsen PC, Walters S, Hanley JA. A comparison of cause of death determination in men previously diagnosed with prostate cancer who died in 1985 or 1995. J Urol. 2000;163(2): 519–523.
- 54. Andriole GL, Crawford ED, Grubb RL 3rd, et al. Prostate cancer screening in the randomized Prostate, Lung, Colorectal, and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial: mortality results after 13 years of follow-up. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2012;104(2):125-132.