

抗肿瘤药物相关高血压的研究进展

夏云龙¹ 刘飞¹

[摘要] 癌症是全世界死亡的主要原因之一,不断演进的抗癌药物使癌症患者的生存期明显延长。心血管疾病逐步取代癌症本身成为癌症患者致死和致残的主要原因,高血压是其中最常见的心血管疾病之一,所以监测及管理肿瘤患者的血压对降低化疗引起的心脏毒性风险和降低长期心血管疾病的风险至关重要。本文主要回顾与高血压发生相关的常见抗肿瘤药物,包括血管内皮生长因子抑制剂、小分子酪氨酸激酶抑制剂、蛋白酶体抑制剂、烷基化剂和免疫抑制剂等相关高血压的流行病学、潜在机制及针对性的管理建议,并讨论癌症患者应用血管内皮生长因子信号通路抑制剂相关血压的评估和管理策略。

[关键词] 高血压;肿瘤心脏病;心脏毒性

DOI:10.13201/j.issn.1001-1439.2022.08.003

[中图分类号] R544.1 **[文献标志码]** C

Advance in chemotherapy-induced hypertension

XIA Yunlong LIU Fei

(Department of Cardiology, The First Affiliated Hospital of Dalian Medical University, Dalian, Liaoning, 116011, China)

Corresponding author: XIA Yunlong, E-mail: yunlong_xia@126.com

Summary Cancer is one of the leading causes of death worldwide, and the evolution of anti-cancer drugs has significantly prolonged the life expectancy of cancer patients. Cardiovascular diseases have gradually replaced cancer as the leading cause of morbidity and mortality in cancer patients. Among these cancer patients, hypertension is one of the most common cardiovascular diseases. Therefore, monitoring and managing blood pressure in cancer patients is crucial to reducing the risk of cardiotoxicity caused by chemotherapy and the risk of cardiovascular diseases. In this review, we reviewed common antitumor drugs related to hypertension, including vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) inhibitors, small molecule tyrosine kinase inhibitors, protease inhibitors, alkylating agents, and immunosuppressants. We also discussed epidemiology, underlying mechanisms, and corresponding management advice of these antitumor drugs. Finally, we discussed the blood pressure assessment and management strategy for cancer patients using VEGF pathway inhibitors.

Key words hypertension; cardio-oncology; cardiotoxicity

随着癌症早期检测及抗肿瘤治疗手段的不断进展,癌症患者的远期生存率显著改善,众多癌症已然从一种致命疾病转变为一种慢性疾病^[1]。研究发现,抗癌治疗可导致多种心血管毒性的发生,这使得心血管疾病(cardiovascular diseases,CVD)逐渐成为肿瘤人群死亡的主要原因之一^[2]。与众

多抗癌治疗介导的心血管毒性相比,高血压的发生尤为普遍^[3],既往研究表明接受血管内皮生长因子(vascular endothelial growth factor, VEGF)抑制剂治疗的患者中高血压的发生率高达70%^[4]。高血压是公认的CVD发生率和死亡率的重要危险因素,与卒中、冠心病、外周动脉疾病、心力衰竭(心衰)和肾脏疾病有关^[5-6]。高血压的早期监测及治疗可使患者能够耐受化疗,从而更好地控制肿

¹大连医科大学附属第一医院心内科(辽宁大连,116011)
通信作者:夏云龙,E-mail:yunlong_xia@126.com

引用本文:夏云龙,刘飞.抗肿瘤药物相关高血压的研究进展[J].临床心血管病杂志,2022,38(8):609-613.DOI:
10.13201/j.issn.1001-1439.2022.08.003.

- [8] Kario K, Harada N, Okura A. Digital Therapeutics in Hypertension: Evidence and Perspectives[J]. Hypertension, 2022; HYPER TENSION AHA12219414.
- [9] Kario K, Nomura A, Harada N, et al. A multicenter clinical trial to assess the efficacy of the digital therapeutics for essential hypertension: Rationale and design of the HERB-DH1 trial[J]. J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich), 2020, 22(9): 1713-1722.
- [10] Kario K, Nomura A, Kato A, et al. Digital therapeutics

for essential hypertension using a smartphone application: A randomized, open-label, multicenter pilot study [J]. J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich), 2021, 23(5): 923-934.

- [11] Kario K, Nomura A, Harada N, et al. Efficacy of a digital therapeutics system in the management of essential hypertension: the HERB-DH1 pivotal trial[J]. Eur Heart J, 2021, 42(40): 4111-4122.

(收稿日期:2022-07-13)

瘤^[7],还可以降低远期CVD风险。

本文主要总结各类抗肿瘤药物相关高血压的发生率、作用机制、治疗方法,探讨控制血压对肿瘤患者的重要性,并讨论癌症幸存者应用VEGF信号通路抑制剂的血压评估和管理策略。

1 抗肿瘤药物与高血压

众多抗肿瘤药物可以导致高血压,包括VEGF抑制剂、小分子酪氨酸激酶抑制剂、蛋白酶体抑制剂、烷基化剂和免疫抑制剂等。抗肿瘤药物相关高血压的发生率、机制及管理见表1。

1.1 VEGF信号通路抑制剂

VEGF是血管生成^[8]最重要的递质之一,在肿瘤生长和扩散的病理生理机制中发挥着至关重要的作用^[9]。VEGF信号通路抑制剂主要通过2种机制发挥抗癌作用:①直接抑制VEGF配体与VEGF受体结合的能力,例如贝伐珠单抗^[10];②酪氨酸激酶抑制剂^[11],包括舒尼替尼和索拉非尼等药物。

1.1.1 VEGF抑制剂 高血压是VEGF抑制剂最常见的心血管副作用之一,既往报道发生率从17%~80%不等^[12]。一项研究对72个接受贝伐单抗治疗的临床试验进行荟萃分析后发现25.3%的患者新发高血压。虽然VEGF抑制剂诱导高血压的确切机制尚有争议,但众多研究表明与氧化应激和内皮功能障碍^[13]、血管扩张因子^[14]和血管收缩因子失衡^[15]、血管重塑^[16]、毛细血管稀薄^[17]、肾素-血管紧张素-醛固酮系统(RAAS)激活^[18]等机制相关。

一项血压管理共识^[19]建议只有当血压<160/100 mmHg(1 mmHg=0.133 kPa)时,才可以安全地启动贝伐珠单抗治疗,否则建议进行家庭血压监测(home blood pressure monitoring, HBPM),如果连续4 d血压为>150/95 mmHg,则应考虑进行降压治疗,可启动氨氯地平5 mg以控制血压。启动抗癌治疗后建议每周监测1次血压,然后每隔2~3周监测1次,建议所有患者维持血压<140/90 mmHg,在家庭血压与临床血压存在差异的情况下,首选HBPM来决定贝伐单抗的剂量。在严重高血压的情况下,需要联用其他的降压药,例如血管紧张素转换酶抑制剂(angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors, ACEI)^[19]。最近的美国心脏协会高血压指南^[20]建议在使用VEGF抑制剂的患者中,血压控制目标为<130/80 mmHg,二氢吡啶类钙通道阻滞剂(calcium channel blockers, CCB)和ACEI是首选的一线选择,但在合并心衰或心肌病患者的ACEI治疗中添加β受体阻滞剂有助于通过预防心脏重塑改善预后。应该避免使用非二氢吡啶类CCB,因为该类药物抑制CYP3A4,抑制VEGF降解,有可能进一步加重VEGF介导的高血压^[21]。

如果患者在使用贝伐单抗期间出现高血压急诊或危象,建议停止应用贝伐单抗,采用替代治疗方案^[22]。贝伐单抗相关的高血压通常在疗程结束或结束后就会消失。重要的是,应该对患者在治疗完成后的4周内进行密切随访,根据血压水平调整或停止抗高血压治疗^[23]。在一项研究中,在末次服用贝伐单抗^[23]后,超过82%的患者高血压缓解,中位持续时间为87 d。一旦血压恢复正常,每隔1年或2年监测血压通常就足够了。

1.1.2 小分子酪氨酸激酶抑制剂 小分子酪氨酸激酶抑制剂(tyrosine kinase inhibitors, TKI)可用于多种实体肿瘤的治疗。在一项关于索拉非尼诱发高血压的系统综述和meta分析中,19.1%患者新发高血压^[24]。另一项对TKI治疗的胃肠道间质瘤患者的观察性研究中,索拉非尼治疗介导的新发或加重高血压的发生率为33.3%,舒尼替尼导致的高血压的发生率为22.7%^[25]。TKI诱导高血压的确切机制尚有争议,既往报道多与VEGF抑制剂的机制类似,常与一氧化氮合酶(NOS)活性降低及RAAS激活相关^[18]。

与TKI相关的高血压通常不需要中断治疗,只需要同时进行降压治疗,除非患者发生高血压危象或难治性高血压,需要立即停药。TKI引起的血压升高基本可逆,在停药后往往血压会恢复正常^[26]。但血压得到很好的控制后,再次启动TKI治疗是否安全仍有待进一步研究。部分学者提出一旦高血压得到良好控制且识别管控血管毒性的潜在危险因素后,重启TKI治疗应该可行^[20]。

1.2 蛋白酶体抑制剂

常见的蛋白酶体抑制剂如硼替佐米和卡非佐米常被用于治疗多发性骨髓瘤。在ENDEAVORⅢ期临床试验中,16%使用卡非佐米的患者和6%使用硼替佐米的患者发生高血压。目前认为蛋白酶体抑制剂导致的高血压的可能机制是其介导了泛素化蛋白异常积累,从而导致细胞毒性和内皮损伤^[27],也有研究报道表示蛋白酶体抑制剂降低一氧化氮(NO)生物利用度导致血管收缩^[28]进而导致高血压。由于蛋白酶体抑制剂也与心功能不全相关,ACEI或血管紧张素Ⅱ受体拮抗剂(angiotensinⅡ receptor blocker, ARB)的应用可起到降压同时保护心脏的作用^[29]。

1.3 烷化剂

环磷酰胺、异环磷酰胺和顺铂常被用于血液恶性肿瘤和实体恶性肿瘤的化疗药物。对睾丸癌幸存者的研究表明,顺铂会导致高达50%的患者发生高血压^[30]。在睾丸癌幸存者中,顺铂治疗引起的高血压呈明显的剂量依赖关系。烷基化剂引起高血压多继发于其肾毒性^[31]。此外,高血压的主要机制可能与内皮细胞氧化损伤、内膜厚度增加和血管重塑异常^[32]有关。对于与烷化剂有关的高血

压的治疗,虽然没有一种降压药具有绝对优势,但由于 ACEI 和 ARB 具有保护肾脏的特性,所以 ACEI 和 ARB 常被作为控制烷化剂相关血压的一线药物。

1.4 钙调磷酸酶抑制剂

高血压是钙调磷酸酶抑制剂常见的不良反应,报道发生率在 30%~80%^[33]。与环孢素相比,他克莫司的高血压发生率相对较低^[34]。高血压发病机制包括交感神经活性改变、近端小管钠重吸收增加、远端小管上皮钠通道激活导致肾功能障碍、NO 生成减少、RAAS 激活等^[35]。

国家肾脏基金会-肾脏疾病结局质量倡议指南建议肾移植受者使用慢性免疫抑制剂应该将血压维持在<130/80 mmHg^[36]。小剂量氨氯地平与其他降压药疗效相同且副作用最小^[37]。当用于环孢素引起的高血压时,ACEI 与肾小球滤过率轻度降低、高钾血症和尿酸水平升高相关^[38]。利尿剂可

以提高尿酸水平,并导致急性痛风,此外,利尿剂会导致低镁血症,增加心律失常的风险,因此,必须谨慎使用利尿剂。他克莫司通过刺激噻嗪类敏感的氯化钠共转运体,抑制肾外髓质钾通道活性,进而导致高血压,所以噻嗪类利尿剂控制他克莫司介导的高血压多有效^[39]。

1.5 其他抗肿瘤药制剂

醋酸阿比特龙是一种口服激素制剂,它可以抑制 17 α -羟化酶/C17,20-裂解酶,这是一种催化雄激素生物合成的关键酶,最终降低血清睾酮和其他雄激素水平^[40]。类固醇前体可转化为盐皮质激素,导致液体潴留和高血压的发生^[41]。针对性预防及治疗通常使用泼尼松,对于不能耐受的患者,可以考虑使用醛固酮受体拮抗剂,如螺内酯。

紫杉烷广泛用于各种实体肿瘤的治疗。紫杉烷介导高血压的作用机制主要是影响微管,导致细胞周期阻滞和有丝分裂异常,最终导致内皮功能障碍^[42]。

表 1 抗肿瘤药物相关高血压的发生率、机制及管理

Table 1 Incidence rate, mechanism and management of anti-tumor drug-related hypertension

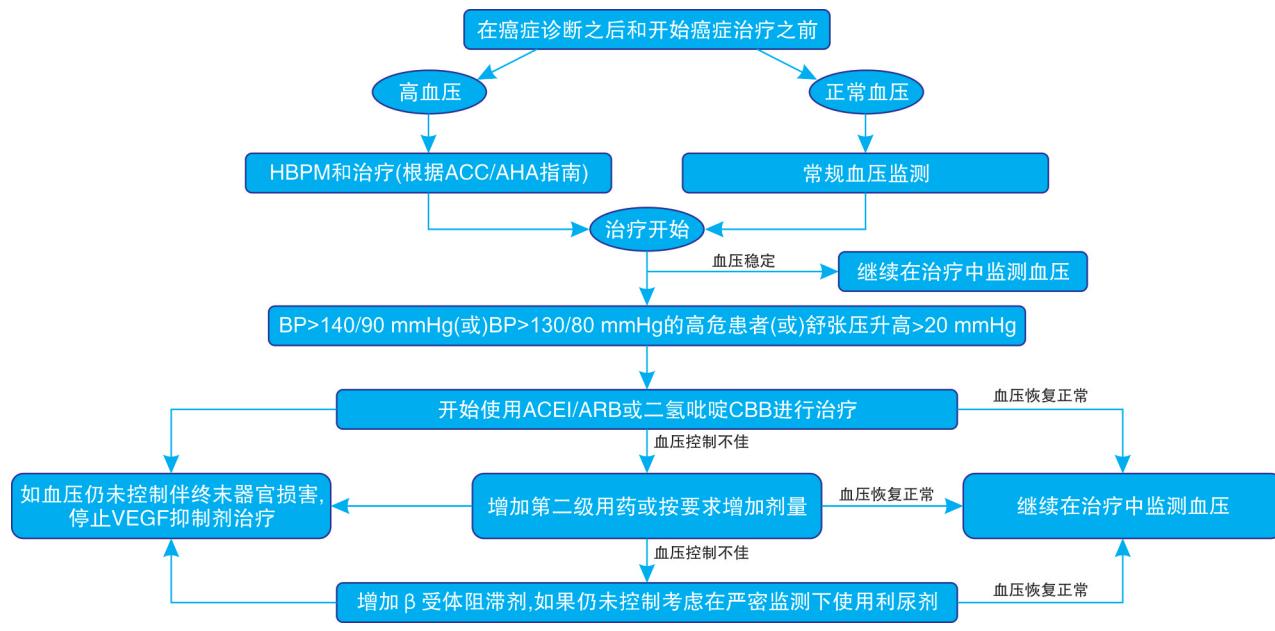
药物种类	机制	高血压发生率/%	治疗
VEGF 抑制剂	内皮功能障碍,抑制 NO 途径(NO 和前列环素 I 减少),内皮素-1 增加,血管重塑,全身血栓性微血管病和氧化应激,毛细血管稀疏,肾钠排泄减少	17~80	CCB(如氨氯地平)、ACEI(如赖诺普利)
酪氨酸激酶抑制剂	NOS 活性降低,RAAS 激活	17~47	ACEI 或 CCB
蛋白酶体抑制剂	血管紧张素诱导高血压,主动脉血管重构,血栓性微血管病	3~15	ACEI 或 ARB(如氯沙坦)
烷化剂	内皮细胞氧化损伤、内膜厚度增加,血管重塑异常,钠潴留、肾毒性和微量白蛋白血症	36~50	ACEI 或 ARB
钙调神经磷酸酶抑制剂和其他免疫抑制剂	交感神经过度活动,肾动脉血管收缩,肾钠重吸收增加、纳潴留(远端小管上皮钠通道激活),NO 生成减少,RAAS 激活,肾前列腺素合成改变	30~80	CCB、噻嗪类利尿剂(尤其是他克莫司)
阿比特龙	具有盐皮质激素特性的类固醇前体增加(钠和液体滞留)		盐皮质激素拮抗剂、利尿剂
紫杉烷	内皮功能障碍、贝伐单抗和蒽环类药物毒性增强		ACEI、ARB 或 CCB

2 VEGF 信号通路抑制剂的血压管理

图 1 展示了合理的 VEGF 信号通路抑制剂相关高血压的分步管理方法,所有患者在启动抗癌治疗前都应评估 CVD 风险。2017 美国心脏病学会(ACC)和美国心脏学会(AHA)高血压指南概述了适用于肿瘤患者护理的建议^[43],认为 10 年动脉粥样硬化性 CVD 风险≤10%且无额外心血管合并症的患者应将血压控制在<140/90 mmHg,但也有可能将癌症患者的血压控制在<130/80 mmHg 更获益。10 年风险≥10%的患者,或有其他心血管合并症如 2 型糖尿病或慢性肾病的患者^[44],应治疗至血压<130/80 mmHg。如果有证据表明潜在的病因,建议采取个体化治疗方法,治疗应注意患者的共病条件,如慢性肾脏疾病、糖尿病和心衰。

治疗可能会导致一些不良反应^[45]。

目前还没有研究比较不同降压药治疗化疗引起的高血压的疗效,因此,在缺乏证据的情况下,ACEI、ARB 和 CCB 都被认为是可行的一线治疗^[46]。利尿剂和第二代 β 受体阻滞剂被认为是可行的二线治疗选择。建议谨慎使用利尿剂,因为利尿剂可能导致电解质紊乱,从而延长 QT 间期。此外,也应该避免使用非二氢吡啶类 CCB,如维拉帕米和地尔硫卓,因为非二氢吡啶 CCB 抑制 CYP3A4, CYP3A4 是代谢 VEGF 抑制剂的酶,导致潜在的高 VEGF 抑制剂血浆水平,这可能加重 VEGF 抑制剂等诱导的高血压^[47]。当高血压被证明难以用降压药物控制时,建议暂时停用 VEGF 抑制剂改用其他替代治疗^[48]。



BP: 血压。

图 1 VEGF 信号通路抑制剂相关高血压的管理方法

Figure 1 Management of VEGF signaling pathway inhibitor related hypertension

3 总结

高血压和 CVD 在抗癌治疗的患者中很常见,随着癌症预后的改善和更多癌症幸存者的出现,预计癌症患者高血压的患病率将会持续增加。所有癌症患者应接受化疗前中后的心血管风险评估,以确定和适当的血压管理方案。关于心血管肿瘤学中高血压的管理,未来进行高质量的临床试验为临床医生提供循证指导非常必要。

利益冲突 所有作者均声明不存在利益冲突

参考文献

- [1] Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2020 [J]. CA Cancer J Clin, 2020, 70(1):7-30.
- [2] Oeffinger KC, Mertens AC, Sklar CA, et al. Chronic health conditions in adult survivors of childhood cancer[J]. N Engl J Med, 2006, 355(15):1572-1582.
- [3] Lenihan DJ, Cardinale D, Cipolla CM. The compelling need for a cardiology and oncology partnership and the birth of the International Cardi-Oncology Society [J]. Prog Cardiovasc Dis, 2010, 53(2):88-93.
- [4] Schlumberger M, Tahara M, Wirth LJ, et al. Lenvatinib versus placebo in radioiodine-refractory thyroid cancer[J]. N Engl J Med, 2015, 372(7):621-630.
- [5] Fuchs FD, Whelton PK. High Blood Pressure and Cardiovascular Disease [J]. Hypertension, 2020, 75(2):285-292.
- [6] Williams B, Mancia G, Spiering W, et al. 2018 ESC/ESH Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension: The Task Force for the management of arterial hypertension of the European Society of Cardiology and the European Society of Hypertension [J]. J Hypertension, 2018, 36(10):1953-2041.
- [7] Souza VB, Silva EN, Ribeiro ML, et al. Hypertension in patients with cancer[J]. Arq Bras Cardiol, 2015, 104(3):246-252.
- [8] Hein TW, Rosa RH Jr, Ren Y, et al. VEGF Receptor-2-Linked PI3K/Calpain/SIRT1 Activation Mediates Retinal Arteriolar Dilations to VEGF and Shear Stress[J]. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci, 2015, 56(9):5381-5389.
- [9] Viallard C, Larrivée B. Tumor angiogenesis and vascular normalization: alternative therapeutic targets[J]. Angiogenesis, 2017, 20(4):409-426.
- [10] Simons M, Gordon E, Claesson-Welsh L. Mechanisms and regulation of endothelial VEGF receptor signalling[J]. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol, 2016, 17(10):611-625.
- [11] Kamli H, Li L, Gobe GC. Limitations to the Therapeutic Potential of Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors and Alternative Therapies for Kidney Cancer[J]. Ochsner J, 2019, 19(2):138-151.
- [12] Small HY, Montezano AC, Rios FJ, et al. Hypertension due to antiangiogenic cancer therapy with vascular endothelial growth factor inhibitors: understanding and managing a new syndrome[J]. Can J Cardiol, 2014, 30(5):534-543.
- [13] Syrigos KN, Karapanagiotou E, Boura P, et al. Bevacizumab-induced hypertension: pathogenesis and management[J]. BioDrugs, 2011, 25(3):159-169.
- [14] Versmissen J, Mirabito Colafella KM, Koolen S, et al. Vascular Cardio-Oncology: Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Inhibitors and Hypertension[J]. Cardiovasc Res, 2019, 115(5):904-914.
- [15] Gressett SM, Shah SR. Intricacies of bevacizumab-induced toxicities and their management[J]. Ann Pharmacother, 2009, 43(3):490-501.
- [16] Li M, Kroetz DL. Bevacizumab-induced hypertension: Clinical presentation and molecular understanding[J]. Pharmacol Ther, 2018, 182:152-160.
- [17] Frey MK, Dao F, Olvera N, et al. Genetic predisposition to bevacizumab-induced hypertension[J]. Gynecol Oncol, 2017, 147(3):621-625.

- [18] Valent P, Hadzijusufovic E, Hoermann G, et al. Risk factors and mechanisms contributing to TKI-induced vascular events in patients with CML[J]. Leuk Res, 2017, 59:47-54.
- [19] Plummer C, Michael A, Shaikh G, et al. Expert recommendations on the management of hypertension in patients with ovarian and cervical cancer receiving bevacizumab in the UK[J]. Br J Cancer, 2019, 121(2): 109-116.
- [20] Touyz RM, Herrmann J. Cardiotoxicity with vascular endothelial growth factor inhibitor therapy[J]. NPJ Precis Oncol, 2018, 2:13.
- [21] Izzidine H, Ederhy S, Goldwasser F, et al. Management of hypertension in angiogenesis inhibitor-treated patients[J]. Ann Oncol, 2009, 20(5):807-815.
- [22] Souza VB, Silva EN, Ribeiro ML, et al. Hypertension in patients with cancer[J]. Arq Bras Cardiol, 2015, 104(3):246-252.
- [23] Corr BR, Breed C, Sheeder J, et al. Bevacizumab induced hypertension in gynecologic cancer: Does it resolve after completion of therapy? [J]. Gynecol Oncol Rep, 2016, 17:65-68.
- [24] Li Y, Li S, Zhu Y, et al. Incidence and risk of sorafenib-induced hypertension: a systematic review and meta-analysis [J]. J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich), 2014, 16(3):177-185.
- [25] Fu Y, Wei X, Lin L, et al. Adverse reactions of sorafenib, sunitinib, and imatinib in treating digestive system tumors[J]. Thorac Cancer, 2018, 9(5):542-547.
- [26] Kollmannsberger C, Soulieres D, Wong R, et al. Sunitinib therapy for metastatic renal cell carcinoma: recommendations for management of side effects[J]. Can Urol Assoc J, 2007, 1(2 Suppl):S41-54.
- [27] Hasinoff BB, Patel D, Wu X. Molecular Mechanisms of the Cardiotoxicity of the Proteasomal-Targeted Drugs Bortezomib and Carfilzomib [J]. Cardiovasc Toxicol, 2017, 17(3):237-250.
- [28] Chari A, Hajje D. Case series discussion of cardiac and vascular events following carfilzomib treatment: possible mechanism, screening, and monitoring [J]. BMC Cancer, 2014, 14:915.
- [29] Wu P, Oren O, Gertz MA, et al. Proteasome Inhibitor-Related Cardiotoxicity: Mechanisms, Diagnosis, and Management[J]. Curr Oncol Rep, 2020, 22(7):66.
- [30] Cameron AC, Touyz RM, Lang NN. Vascular Complications of Cancer Chemotherapy[J]. Can J Cardiol, 2016, 32(7):852-862.
- [31] Kooijmans EC, Bökenkamp A, Tjahjadi NS, et al. Early and late adverse renal effects after potentially nephrotoxic treatment for childhood cancer[J]. Cochrane Database Syst Rev, 2019, 3:CD008944.
- [32] Soultati A, Mountzios G, Avgerinou C, et al. Endothelial vascular toxicity from chemotherapeutic agents: preclinical evidence and clinical implications[J]. Cancer Treat Rev, 2012, 38(5):473-483.
- [33] Morales JM. Influence of the new immunosuppressive combinations on arterial hypertension after renal transplantation[J]. Kidney Int Suppl, 2002, (82):S81-S87.
- [34] Haddad EM, McAlister VC, Renouf E, et al. Cyclosporin versus tacrolimus for liver transplanted patients[J]. Cochrane Database Syst Rev, 2006, (4):CD005161.
- [35] Zhai YJ, Wu MM, Linck VA, et al. Intracellular cholesterol stimulates ENaC by interacting with phosphatidylinositol-4, 5-bisphosphate and mediates cyclosporine A-induced hypertension[J]. Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Basis Dis, 2019, 1865(7):1915-1924.
- [36] Divac N, Naumovic R, Stojanovic R, et al. The Role of Immunosuppressive Medications in the Pathogenesis of Hypertension and Efficacy and Safety of Antihypertensive Agents in Kidney Transplant Recipients [J]. Curr Med Chem, 2016, 23(19):1941-1952.
- [37] Chanard J, Toupance O, Lavaud S, et al. Amlodipine reduces cyclosporin-induced hyperuricaemia in hypertensive renal transplant recipients [J]. Nephrol Dial Transplant, 2003, 18(10):2147-2153.
- [38] Vergoulas G. Antihypertensive agents and renal transplantation[J]. Hippokratia, 2007, 11(1):3-12.
- [39] Lazelle RA, McCully BH, Terker AS, et al. Renal Deletion of 12 kDa FK506-Binding Protein Attenuates Tacrolimus-Induced Hypertension [J]. J Am Soc Nephrol, 2016, 27(5):1456-1464.
- [40] Vasaitis TS, Bruno RD, Njar VC. CYP17 inhibitors for prostate cancer therapy[J]. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol, 2011, 125(1-2):23-31.
- [41] Veccia A, Maines F, Kinspergher S, et al. Cardiovascular toxicities of systemic treatments of prostate cancer[J]. Nat Rev Urol, 2017, 14(4):230-243.
- [42] Canelo MD, Noppen S, Bueno O, et al. Antivascular and antitumor properties of the tubulin-binding chalcone TUB091[J]. Oncotarget, 2017, 8(9):14325-14342.
- [43] Whelton PK, Carey RM, Aronow WS, et al. 2017 ACC/AHA/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/AGS/APhA/ASH/ASPC/NMA/PCNA Guideline for the Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Management of High Blood Pressure in Adults: A Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines[J]. Hypertension, 2018, 71(6):1269-1324.
- [44] Gressett SM, Shah SR. Intricacies of bevacizumab-induced toxicities and their management[J]. Ann Pharmacother, 2009, 43(3):490-501.
- [45] Menditto E, Gimeno Miguel A, Moreno Juste A, et al. Patterns of multimorbidity and polypharmacy in young and adult population: Systematic associations among chronic diseases and drugs using factor analysis [J]. PLoS One, 2019, 14(2):e0210701.
- [46] MacDonald TM, Williams B, Webb DJ, et al. Combination Therapy Is Superior to Sequential Monotherapy for the Initial Treatment of Hypertension: A Double-Blind Randomized Controlled Trial[J]. J Am Heart Assoc, 2017, 6(11).
- [47] Humphreys BD, Atkins MB. Rapid development of hypertension by sorafenib: toxicity or target? [J]. Clin Cancer Res, 2009, 15(19):5947-5949.
- [48] Jain M, Townsend RR. Chemotherapy agents and hypertension: a focus on angiogenesis blockade[J]. Curr Hypertens Rep, 2007, 9(4):320-328.

(收稿日期:2022-07-06)