Title: Deconstructing, Addressing, and Eliminating Racial and Ethnic Inequities in Prostate Cancer Care

Yaw A. Nyame,^{1,2} Matthew R Cooperberg,³ Marcus G. Cumberbatch,⁴ Scott E. Eggener,⁵ Ruth Etzioni,² Scarlett L. Gomez,⁶ Christopher Haiman,⁷ Franklin Huang,⁸ Cheryl T. Lee,⁹ Mark S. Litwin,¹⁰ Georgios Lyratzopoulos,¹¹ James L. Mohler,¹² Adam B. Murphy,¹³ Curtis Pettaway¹⁴, Isaac J Powell,¹⁵ Peter Sasieni,¹⁶ Edward M. Schaeffer,¹³ Shahrokh F. Shariat,^{17,18,19,20,21} John L. Gore^{1,2}

Author Affiliations:

¹Department of Urology, University of Washington Medical Center, Seattle WA

²Division of Public Health Sciences, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle WA

³Department of Urology, University of California at San Francisco, San Francisco CA

⁴Department of Urology, University of Sheffield, Sheffield UK

⁵Department of Urology, University of Chicago, Chicago IL

⁶Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco CA

⁷Department of Preventive Medicine, Center for Genetic Epidemiology, University of Southern California Los Angeles, CA

⁸Department of Medicine, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco CA

⁹Department of Urology, The Ohio State University, Columbus OH

¹⁰Department of Urology, University of California Los Angeles, Los Angeles CA

¹¹Epidemiology of Cancer Healthcare & Outcomes, Institute of Epidemiology & Health Care, University College London

¹²Department of Urology, Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center, Buffalo NY

¹³Department of Urology, Feinberg School of Medicine, Northwestern University, Chicago IL

¹⁴Department of Urology, The University of Texas, M.D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston TX

¹⁵Department of Urology, Wayne State University, Detroit MI

¹⁶Cancer Research UK & King's College London Cancer Prevention Trials Unit, King's College London

¹⁷Department of Urology, Comprehensive Cancer Center, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria.

¹⁸Division of Urology, Department of Special Surgery, Jordan University Hospital, The University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan.

¹⁹Institute for Urology and Reproductive Health, Sechenov University, Moscow, Russia.

²⁰Departments of Urology, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, NY, USA.

²¹Department of Urology, University of Texas Southwestern, Dallas, TX, USA.

Corresponding author: Yaw A. Nyame, MD, MS, MBA; 1959 NE Pacific St, Box 356510, Seattle, WA 98195; <u>nyamey@uw.edu</u>

Funding: This work is supported by a post-doctoral fellowship award from the Department of Defense CDMRP (YAN, W81XWH1910577) and the Pacific Northwest Prostate Cancer SPORE (YAN, NCI P50CA097186)

Key words: prostate cancer, racial disparities, health services, social determinants

Conflict of Interest: The authors report no relevant financial disclosures pertaining to this review article

Page Count: 30 pages (including title page)Figures and Tables Count: 3 Figure, 1 TablesWord Count: 352 words of abstract, 4527 words of text, 112 references

ABSTRACT

Context: Men of African ancestry have demonstrated markedly higher rates of prostate cancer mortality compared with men of other races and ethnicities around the world. In fact, the highest rates of prostate cancer mortality worldwide are found in the Caribbean, Sub-Saharan West Africa, and among men of African descent in the US. Addressing this inequity in prostate cancer care and outcomes requires a focused research approach that creates durable solutions to address the structural, social, environmental, and health factors that create racial disparities in care and outcomes.

Objective: To introduce a conceptual model for evaluating racial inequities in prostate cancer care to facilitate the development of translational research studies and interventions.

Evidence acquisition: A collaborative review of literature relevant to racial inequities in prostate cancer care and outcomes was performed. Existing literature was used to highlight various components of the conceptual model to inform future research and interventions towards equitable care and outcomes.

Evidence synthesis: Racial inequities in prostate cancer outcomes are driven by a series of structural and social determinants of health that impact exposures, mediators, and outcomes. Social determinants of equity, such as laws/policies, economic systems, structural racism affect the inequitable access to environmental and neighborhood exposures, in addition to healthcare access. Although the incidence disparity remains problematic, various studies have demonstrated parity in outcomes when social and health factors, such as access to equitable care, are normalized. Few studies have tested interventions to reduce inequities in prostate cancer among Black men.

Conclusions: Worldwide, men of African ancestry demonstrate worse outcomes in prostate cancer, a phenomenon driven largely by social factors that inform biologic, environmental, and healthcare risks. A conceptual model was presented that organizes the many factors that influence prostate cancer incidence and mortality. Within that framework, we must understand the current state of inequities in clinical prostate cancer practice, the optimal state of what

equitable practice would be, and how achieving equity in prostate cancer care balances costs, benefits, and harms. More robust characterization of the sources of prostate cancer inequities should inform testing of ambitious and innovative interventions as we work towards equity in care and outcomes.

Patient summary: Men of African ancestry demonstrate the highest rates of prostate cancer mortality, which may be reduced through social interventions. We present a framework for formalizing the identification of drivers of prostate cancer inequities to facilitate the development of interventions and trials to eradicate them.

INTRODUCTION

Prostate cancer is a heterogeneous disease characterized by wide variation in lifetime incident risk and mortality worldwide. Even within homogenous patient populations, prostate cancer outcomes vary widely by disease grade and stage at presentation. Routine prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing became available in the late 1980s and increased the heterogeneity of prostate cancer phenotypes and outcomes at disease diagnosis. One persistent and notable trend in prostate cancer outcomes is the high burden in both incidence and cancer-specific mortality observed in Black men (see Table 1 for terms and definitions [1]). Prostate cancer is the leading cause of male cancer death in 46 countries—almost all in Africa, the Caribbean, and South America—many of which have high proportions of Black men (Figure 1) [2–5]. The highest prostate cancer mortality rate in the world is in Barbados [6]. Population-based registry data from the Surveillance, Epidemiology and End Result (SEER) national cancer registry has consistently demonstrated that Black men exhibit a 60-70% higher rate of prostate cancer incidence and 100-120% increased rate of cancer-specific mortality compared with White men in the US [7–9]. The difference in incidence and mortality have remained relatively stable despite a 50-60% decrease in the rates of both incidence and mortality for both Black and non-Black men since the introduction of PSA testing [10]. Black men are more likely to present with clinically detected disease [11], more advanced disease by stage [12–15], and at a younger age [15–17]. Data from the National Cancer Data Repository in the United Kingdom (2008-2010) show that Black men have up to a two-fold increased risk of both incidental and fatal prostate cancer [18].

An evaluation of global prostate cancer trends demonstrated higher incidence of prostate cancer in more economically developed countries [2–4,19,20], which may reflect the resource intensive infrastructure needed to perform wide-scale prostate cancer screening and to develop and maintain national cancer registries [21]. A prostate cancer screening study of 1,037 healthy men (age 45-74 years) in Ghana, West Africa, demonstrated a higher prevalence of screen-detected prostate cancer in Ghana compared with Black men in the United States [22]. A similarly high prevalence of prostate cancer has been described in Trinidad and Tobago [23]. However, contrasting findings have been demonstrated in autopsy studies, which suggest lower rates of clinically diagnosed and latent prostate cancer among Black men in West Africa [24]. It is

unclear how geographic factors, such as social and environmental exposure, may drive the incidence disparities and inform prostate cancer biology in the US, UK, and Caribbean.

Understanding and studying the drivers of racial inequities in prostate cancer in incidence and mortality is challenging, since the observed outcomes reflect a complex relationship among genetic, social, environmental, patient-related, and health system factors. Each of these components contains a significant amount of heterogeneity, with effects on prostate cancer outcomes that can vary by race and ethnicity. Race and ethnicity are social constructs used to classify and aggregate large, heterogenous groups. These constructs are affected by significant events (i.e., the slave trade, wars, genocide, segregation) that can influence biologic/genetic, social/environmental, and patient/health-related factors. For example, some of the geographic regions associated with the highest burden of prostate cancer mortality in the United States [25] and among Black men [26,27] have a high proportion men with low socioeconomic status, limited access to healthcare, limited availability of social services, and a high proportion of Black men in their population. One study found that the highest disparity in prostate cancer mortality exists in US cities with the highest levels of segretation [28]. Similar heterogeneity can be found among Black populations around the world. Genetic ancestry and admixture vary significantly among men who otherwise self-identify as Black [29]. Consequently, the use of a category such as "Black" may represent too broad of a cohort definition for certain disparities studies, such as those focused on biologic risk and phenotype [30], and strong consideration must be given to the use of genetic ancestry in this setting.

A framework is needed that organizes the complex structural, social, environmental, biologic, and health factors that influence prostate cancer outcomes to help guide future studies and interventions to mitigate racial inequities in prostate cancer, with a focus on the high burden of prostate cancer among Black men. The purpose of this review is to introduce a conceptual model for evaluating and addressing racial inequities in prostate cancer. This model integrates the impact of structural determinants of equity (i.e., structural racism, economic policies, environmental racism), social determinants of health, and disparate allocation of health services to provide a broad landscape of racial inequities in prostate cancer care and outcomes. This model aims to facilitate the development of translational research and interventions, with a health

equity lens. Although this conceptual model is presented in the context of racial inequities in prostate cancer among Black men, it can be adapted to other marginalized populations and urologic cancers and diseases.

EVIDENCE ACQUISITION

This is a collaborative review of literature relevant to racial inequities in prostate cancer among Black men that focused on English-language studies published from April 2011-April 2020 and identified using the MEDLINE electronic database. MEDLINE search terms are provided in the attached supplement. Additional relevant studies including clinical guidelines and level I clinical trial data were also included.

Articles were evaluated based on their level of evidence and subject matter. Articles were chosen for this review based on the relevance and appropriateness of its content as deemed by the expertise and knowledge of the authors. Given the breadth of the subject and the paucity of high-level data in some areas, a narrative synthesis was chosen over meta-analysis or systematic review to ensure adequate discussion of the topic. A conceptual model, which is introduced below, and was iteratively modified with all study authors, serves as the framework for organizing the data obtained from this review.

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR PROSTATE CANCER DISPARITIES

A conceptual model was proposed integrating structural, social, and health factors that impact racial inequities in prostate cancer from carcinogenesis to cancer-related death (Figure 2). At each clinical transition within the conceptual model, translational health disparities research would consider the following questions: (1) Are current practices equitable? (2) What is an equitable practice? (3) What are the costs, harms, and benefits of achieving equitable practices?

To develop this conceptual model, we first consider the continuum from carcinogenesis to death. Our conceptual model is divided into three broad clinical events: (1) diagnosis; (2) disease management/treatment; and (3) oncologic outcomes (e.g., cancer progression, death). We start by acknowledging that biology and environment drive disease risk and prognosis in men with

prostate cancer. Several studies demonstrate that West African genetic ancestry measured by SNP-based ancestry informative markers is associated with an increased risk of incident and clinically-significant prostate cancer in Black men [31–34]. A study of men from 64 global populations demonstrated that men of West and East African ancestry had the highest global estimates of prostate cancer risk and death [35]. This increased genetic risk among Black men was largely driven by a small number of genetic variants (i.e., 8q24, 2q37, and 22q13) that demonstrated a paradoxically high allele frequency in the study population, and it has been hypothesized that higher allele frequencies could be explained by a genetic bottleneck resulting from forced migration (i.e., slave trade) and immigration by the African diaspora [35]. Biology and environmental exposures likely continue to impact prostate cancer prognosis beyond diagnosis and management/treatment.

Inequities in health outcomes are driven by structural and social determinants of health and equity, which include economic stability, neighborhood/physical environment, education, food sources, community/social context, and healthcare systems available to patients [36,37]. These determinants of health are informed by structural and social determinants of equity, which are comprised of systemic factors, such as systemic and institutionalized racism, social norms, laws and policies, and economic systems [38]. These structural and social determinants of health and equity were integrated into the model overlying a patient's prostate cancer trajectory. The impact of the healthcare system on disparities can be further specified using published frameworks like the Andersen behavioral model for studying healthcare utilization, which comprises the following factors: (1) predisposing (i.e., age, race/ethnicity, family history); (2) enabling (i.e., insurance status, education, income); (3) need (i.e., comorbidity, cancer stage); and (4) context (i.e., physician density, health networks) [39,40].

A REVIEW OF THE RACIAL/ETHNIC DISPARITIES IN PROSTATE CANCER OUTCOMES USING A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The scope of this review was restricted to a discussion of health services within the conceptual model focusing on the known structural and social determinants and health factors underlying racial and ethnic inequities in prostate cancer treatment and outcomes. A review of environmental and biologic factors is out of the scope of this review, but no less important. We

review and summarize the current literature to illustrate potential areas of need in which the conceptual model can be used to guide future studies.

Figure 3 displays a context-specific application of the conceptual model to understanding disparities in the early diagnosis of prostate cancer. The diagnosis of prostate cancer can occur in an early, localized state due to PSA screening, or present symptomatically (largely representing locally advanced or metastatic disease). The presumed benefit of early detection is in the availability for curative therapy in men diagnosed with clinically localized, unfavorable-risk disease. The European Randomized Study of Screening for Prostate Cancer (ERSPC) trial provides level 1 evidence that PSA screening reduces mortality by 20% at a median follow-up of 16-years [41]. However, Black men represented 0-3% of the ERSPC and the Prostate, Lung, Colon and Ovarian (PLCO) screening trial cohorts [41,42] and has been cited as a reason for limited recommendations for early detection among Black men [43]. In practice, access to health insurance [44], PSA screening [45], multiparametric prostate magnetic resonance imaging [46], urologists [47] and prostate biopsy [48] differs significantly by race/ethnicity and could impact disparities in incidence, stage at diagnosis, and mortality. Figure 3 demonstrates the interconnectedness of structural, social, and health factors and their impact on carcinogenesis and health service utilization around early detection. The model provides opportunity for critical evidence synthesis, research prioritization, and intervention design, study, and implementation to address inequities in the early detection of prostate cancer in Black men.

Structural Factors

Structural and contextual factors are considered fundamental causes that impact the social determinants of health. Structural factors that are biased against particular racial and ethnic groups impose sustained and widespread effects on inequities in prostate cancer outcomes. Structural racism against Black men and its consequent downstream effects on residential segregation, physician/patient bias, medical distrust, perceived discrimination, adverse childhood experiences, and life course stressors, is of critical importance and deserve greater focus in observational, clinical trial, implementation, and intervention research [49]. Laws, policies, and social norms can correspond with practices such as redlining, which can place marginalized

communities at higher risk of adverse environmental exposures. In the US, Black individuals are more likely to live in areas with high levels of environmental pollution, which correlates with increased risk of all-cause mortality [50]. A SEER-Medicare analysis demonstrated that pollution was associated with worse disease stage and outcomes for Black men with prostate cancer [51].

Lived and inherited experiences—which include historical exclusion, medical mistrust/distrust, John Henryism (i.e., the stress of high effort coping to succeed in the face of prolonged discrimination, inequality, and financial hardship resulting in physiologic cost), health literacy, cultural health beliefs (e.g., preferences for alternative/complementary medicine), transgenerational trauma, and financial burdens/stress—influence how patients navigate the complex social drivers of their medical decision-making. A qualitative analysis assessing interviews of rural Black men identified a lack of understanding, tradition, distrust of the system, fear, and perceived threat to manhood as common themes influencing their perception of prostate cancer and PSA testing [52]. Yet, informational resources, particularly those available online, have been shown to be not racially representatives, and of those with Black racial representation, determined to be low quality and readability [53].

Medicine is marked with examples of poor and marginalized populations being subjected to medical experimentation for the sake of clinical training or medical research [54]. This history and trauma influences relationships between marginalized communities and the medical field, and impacts the utilization of health services and participation in clinical research. However, it must be noted that marginalized populations have also been historically excluded from clinical trials and higher quality care as a result of structural and systemic racism [55]. Even now the improvement of Black men in clinical trial enrollment is largely limited to phase I trials.

Social Determinants of Prostate Cancer Disparities

Social determinants of health affect how prostate cancer patients access and utilize care. Socioeconomic and insurance status, financial toxicities, and social support networks all correlate with both race/ethnicity and oncologic outcomes among prostate cancer patients. Socioeconomic status is a broad term that aims to characterize the social and economic well-

being of a person or population by using education status, income, and/or occupation to classify individuals. Worldwide, studies have demonstrated that prostate cancer patients of higher socioeconomic status have better outcomes compared with men of lower socioeconomic status [56–58]. Lower socioeconomic status in Black men has been associated with decreased prostate cancer incidence [57], which may be due to reduced access to healthcare services. This hypothesis is supported by the mitigation of racial/ethnic disparities in prostate cancer screening after adjusting for socioeconomic status in the Southern Community Cohort Study [59]. Higher socioeconomic status was associated with improved access to care, higher health literacy, and financial stability, which all improve access to and quality of the health services one may have the opportunity to receive. Conversely, lower socioeconomic status may be associated with lower health literacy and underinsurance rates, thus creating barriers to early detection and/or treatment. These social determinants result from, or are exacerbated by, structural racism and other social/economic barriers. This is observed globally by the relationship between the human developmental index and burden of prostate cancer as measured by the mortality-to-incidence ratio [60].

A multi-institutional radical prostatectomy cohort of patients treated within the Veterans Affairs Health System demonstrated that Black men had a 10-11% increased risk of biochemical failure when adjusted for socioeconomic status [61]. There was a significant interaction between race and socioeconomic status such that Black men of lower socioeconomic status had lower risks of metastases, castration-resistant prostate cancer, and cancer-specific mortality relative to White men of higher socioeconomic status, which highlights the complexity of the interactions and relationship between socioeconomic status and race/ethnicity [61]. A multi-institutional cohort study of 347 Black men from two academic centers in northeastern US (2010-2015) demonstrated that lower socioeconomic status was associated with higher PSA and risk of adverse pathology measured by Cancer of the Prostate Risk Assessment postsurgical score (CAPRA-S), TNM stage (i.e., higher rates of seminal vesicle invasion), and margin status [62]. Black race, divorced status, and lower socioeconomic status measured via income have been associated with longer time to treatment following prostate cancer diagnosis in a cohort of 2,053 patients treated between 1990-2010 [44]. An interaction between income status and ethnicity has also been shown, with lower odds of definitive therapy utilization observed with decreasing

income among Black men with localized high-risk prostate cancer [63]. These studies likely reflect the strong impact of socioeconomic status on access to healthcare and that the effects of socioeconomic status appear to be mitigated in settings with equal access to healthcare services [64–66]. A more recent study evaluated treatment outcomes of Black and White men with localized prostate cancer from a pooled cohort of clinical trial data, data from the SEER cancer registry, and the Veteran Affairs Health System and demonstrated that the association of Black race with prostate cancer mortality is rendered insignificant by treatment in "equal-access" settings after adjusting for clinical and socioeconomic factors [67]. Though Black men in equal-access settings are younger (VA & RCTs) than their White counterparts, and healthier (86% with ECOG 0) than the SEER population, access to care is impactful.

In the US, Europe, and many parts of the world, socioeconomic status is correlated with both race and geography. For instance, Southern US has a higher proportion of Black populations, higher rates of poverty, and lower levels of educational attainment and access to medical care [68]. However, these geographic patterns in socioeconomic status can demonstrate significant variation within smaller geographic units, such as postal codes. Investigators have also shown an increase in incident prostate cancer among veterans living in areas with high indices of social vulnerability [69]. Medicare claims data show Black men have a lower odds of seeing a urologist within 1-year of prostate cancer diagnosis (odds ratio 0.65, 95% CI 0.60-0.71) and that residence in counties with high poverty and crime is an independent predictor of not having a post-diagnosis treatment visit. [70]. Even with high-quality data, geographic patterns of prostate cancer disparities, such as higher mortality, are difficult to disentangle from the confounding effects of race, social barriers, education, economics, and health care access [26].

Education status, a proxy for health literacy and financial status, has an inverse association with poor prostate cancer outcomes. A higher education level among Black men was associated with increased odds of undergoing PSA screening [71], while men with lower education levels and high-risk prostate cancer are less likely to utilize definitive therapies, such as radiotherapy and/or surgery, an association that remained significant in adjusted modeling accounting for race/ethnicity [72]. Social support is a powerful factor that influences patient decision-making. Numerous studies have demonstrated that partnered men with prostate cancer have better quality

of life [73,74] and oncologic outcomes [75–78]. However, partner status (e.g. married, single, etc.) is just one measure of social support, with the quality and quantity of social support a better predictor of treatment choice among low-income men with localized prostate cancer [79]. Black men are less likely to be partnered in a large regional community cohort of PSA screening-eligible men [59].

Health literacy and medical knowledge of prostate cancer among Black men is multi-factorial and reflects socioeconomic, educational, and support network factors that are informed by structural and social inequities. These same factors also impact lower prostate cancer-related knowledge among Black women [80]. Higher prostate cancer health knowledge is associated with higher education and income, younger age, and physician discussion about PSA testing among Black men [81]. Improving access to high-quality information and fund of knowledge among Black men might enhance their willingness to participate in diagnostic and therapeutic interventions, since self-efficacy is associated with the desire to seek PSA testing among Black men [82]. Additional factors that influence decision-making include younger age, religion/spirituality, and stories of famous persons with prostate cancer [83].

These factors also influence treatment decisions and regret. A study of men with prostate cancer demonstrated that Black men were more likely to underestimate the severity of their prostate cancer diagnosis, and twice as likely to factor the duration of their treatment and recovery in their treatment decisions compared with White men [84]. Black men experience nearly two-fold higher likelihood of decision regret after robotic radical prostatectomy [85] or at the time of cancer recurrence [86] than White men. Community-based participatory and patient-centered research efforts and interventions rooted in advocacy and partnership are strategies that can be used to assess and support the informational and educational needs of Black men, and other marginalized communities, around prostate cancer care and research.*Healthcare System Drivers of Disparities*

Healthcare systems can drive disparities in care and outcomes by creating barriers to access or through variations in quality of care that are likely to disproportionately impact Black men with prostate cancer. The healthcare system imposes barriers to improving prostate cancer outcomes in disadvantaged populations by under-accruing these men in clinical trials and translational clinical and health services research studies. These limitations can exacerbate disparities along the continuum of prostate cancer care (Figure 2). Black men have higher grade and stage disease at clinical presentation and are less likely to have a PSA test ordered by a clinician prior to diagnosis [11][87]. Black men are more likely to have treatment underutilization as measured by recommendations not executed by a prostate cancer provider [88]. The lack of targeted screening strategies, appropriate use of definitive therapies, access to appropriate post-treatment surveillance, and access to standard-of-care and novel systemic therapies in the metastatic setting may all impact the higher rate of prostate cancer-related mortality seen in Black men.

Microsimulation data calibrated to US cancer registry data suggested Black men have a 28-56% increased risk of preclinical prostate cancer and a 44-75% increased risk of progression to metastatic disease compared with the general population [11]. High-level data do not exist to inform the use of PSA screening in Black men. The ERSPC was almost exclusively conducted without Black men [41], and Black men only comprised 3% of the US PLCO screening trial [89]. Policy and guideline recommendations regarding diagnostic and therapeutic interventions are driven by the availability and quality of trial data, and the lack of available evidence hinders developing recommendation for the early detection of prostate cancer in Black men around the world, though NCCN has attempted to do so for sub-Saharan Africa [90].

PSA and PSA derivatives (i.e., PSA density) may vary by race/ethnicity [91,92]. Studies have demonstrated Black men undergoing prostate cancer screening have higher PSA levels [93] and more rapid increases in PSA [94] compared with men of other race/ethnicities, which could be due to biological, social or lifestyle factors, or access to care. Other groups have demonstrated PSA values of men without cancer are similar regardless of race [94,95]; however, Black men have demonstrated higher median PSAs among prostate cancer cases [95]. Better understanding this relationship is essential, as a midlife baseline PSA is a strong predictor of lifetime prostate cancer risk among Black men [95], as well as men of other races/ethnicities. A reconstruction of PSA screening over time between Black and White men using data from the National Health Interview Survey and Medicare data demonstrated that the rates of PSA testing among men 40-74 years of age are similar between Black and White men [11]. The absolute difference in screening rates has been reported to be 2.6% higher in White men compared with Black men surveyed between 2010 and 2014 [96]. The relationship between these small absolute

differences in screening and racial disparities in prostate cancer mortality remains unclear. A SEER-Medicare study based on data from 1994 to 2002 found that Black men had longer intervals between PSA screening and a higher likelihood of a clinical prostate cancer diagnosis [81]. Prostate cancer screening was associated with a decreased disparity in the diagnosis of locally advanced and metastatic prostate cancer between Black and White men [81], suggesting that early detection strategies for prostate cancer may mitigate racial prostate cancer disparities.

Several factors were associated with increased utilization of PSA screening among Black men that included family history [97], higher medical knowledge/health literacy [98], a regular medical home [99–101], decreased physician/medical trust [99,102], having a partner [100], higher educational attainment [100], increased burden of comorbidities [100], being insured [102], and higher income [102]. Adopting and implementing more intensive detection strategies that decreases the interval between PSA testing has the potential to reduce racial disparities in outcomes in Black men [103]. However, increased rates of screening, without access to higher specificity tools like PSA density, prostate health index and prostate MRI, are likely to increase the detection of indolent and clinically insignificant prostate cancers [104].

The model can then be adapted to other prostate cancer contexts. For localized disease, patients may be eligible for active surveillance, observation, or definitive therapy based on their disease risk, life expectancy, and comorbidities. The decision to pursue treatment may be influenced by access to care, financial concerns, caretaker support, medical distrust, patient and provider preferences, and the availability of resources. Clinical outcomes during disease management may vary based on the quality and timeliness of care patients receive. Outcomes may be modified by various competing risk factors, such as obesity [105], smoking status [106], and diet and physical activity [107]. Among patients who receive definitive therapy, appropriate monitoring is a critical component of providing timely and effective salvage therapies for patients with clinical recurrences. The availability of salvage therapies and clinical trials represents an important source of outcome disparities among men with localized prostate cancer. These factors are all impacted by structural, social, and health care access factors.

Similarly, survivorship is an important and complex consideration for men with a prostate cancer diagnosis given the long natural history of the disease. Considerations should be given to understanding the impact of race/ethnicity and other social factors on how men live with their prostate cancer and its treatments.

Translational Health Services

A review of disparities research in prostate cancer revealed many studies that characterize the magnitude of the problem. Few studies demonstrated viable clinical and policy solutions that can create parity in outcomes for Black men. A few examples of these interventions include the Improving, Access, Counseling and Treatment for Californians with Prostate Cancer (IMPACT) program, the Cleveland Clinic Glickman Urological and Kidney Institute Minority Men's Health Center, and the Los Angeles County Department of Health Services interventions [108].

We found that few studies have defined equitable practice and the benefit/cost/harm of achieving these equitable practices. The routine consideration of defining equity beyond current practice patterns are fundamental to applying the conceptual model that we present and provide opportunity for translating health services research into equitable prostate cancer care and outcomes. The pathway to reducing prostate cancer inequities is essential and relies on a few important considerations: (1) development of large, high-quality comparative data in the form of prospective cohorts and clinical trials; (2) strong policy solutions to mitigate disparities in access to care; (3) culturally appropriate interventions to bridge the divide between healthcare institutions and at-risk, marginalized populations; (4) enrichment of biologic cohorts from underrepresented populations to facilitate the development of personalized risk- and therapy-stratifying molecular tools; (5) community-engaged and patient-centered efforts rooted in partnership, collaboration, and trust; (6) increasing the diversity of our clinical workforce applying existing roadmaps to increase underrepresented populations in medicine [109]. Underlying each of these considerations must be attention to structural and social determinants of equity and health.

Advocacy partnerships can facilitate the prioritization, development, and execution of research activities [110]. Patient advocacy networks also present opportunities to create supportive networks for marginalized communities and can provide important perspective on defining optimal practices and assessing the benefits/costs/harms of equitable practices. These efforts ultimately drive the quality of care that is provided to patients with prostate cancer by providing care that is safe, effective, patient-centered, timely, efficient, and equitable [111].

Conclusions

A conceptual model was presented that organized the many structural, social, and health system factors that influence prostate cancer incidence and mortality. Within the proposed framework, we must understand the current state of inequities in clinical prostate cancer practice, the optimal state of what equitable practice would be, and how achieving equity in prostate cancer care balances benefits and harms. More robust characterization of the sources of prostate cancer inequities that inform testing of ambitious and innovative interventions may one day overcome these disparities in care and outcomes.

REFERENCES

- [1] Flanagin A, Frey T, Christiansen SL. Updated Guidance on the Reporting of Race and Ethnicity in Medical and Science Journals 2021:7.
- [2] Culp MB, Soerjomataram I, Efstathiou JA, Bray F, Jemal A. Recent Global Patterns in Prostate Cancer Incidence and Mortality Rates. European Urology 2020;77:38–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2019.08.005.
- [3] Global Burden of Disease Cancer Collaboration, Fitzmaurice C, Akinyemiju TF, Al Lami FH, Alam T, Alizadeh-Navaei R, et al. Global, Regional, and National Cancer Incidence, Mortality, Years of Life Lost, Years Lived With Disability, and Disability-Adjusted Life-Years for 29 Cancer Groups, 1990 to 2016: A Systematic Analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study. JAMA Oncol 2018;4:1553–68. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2018.2706.
- [4] Center MM, Jemal A, Lortet-Tieulent J, Ward E, Ferlay J, Brawley O, et al. International variation in prostate cancer incidence and mortality rates. Eur Urol 2012;61:1079–92. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2012.02.054.
- [5] Warner WA, Lee TY, Fang F, Llanos AAM, Bajracharya S, Sundaram V, et al. The burden of prostate cancer in Trinidad and Tobago: one of the highest mortality rates in the world. Cancer Causes Control 2018;29:685–97. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-018-1038-8.
- [6] Bray F, Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Siegel RL, Torre LA, Jemal A. Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians 2018;68:394–424. https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21492.
- [7] Taksler GB, Keating NL, Cutler DM. Explaining racial differences in prostate cancer mortality. Cancer 2012;118:4280–9. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.27379.
- [8] DeSantis CE, Siegel RL, Sauer AG, Miller KD, Fedewa SA, Alcaraz KI, et al. Cancer statistics for African Americans, 2016: Progress and opportunities in reducing racial disparities: Cancer Statistics for African Americans, 2016. CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians 2016;66:290–308. https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21340.
- [9] Kelly SP, Rosenberg PS, Anderson WF, Andreotti G, Younes N, Cleary SD, et al. Trends in the Incidence of Fatal Prostate Cancer in the United States by Race. Eur Urol 2017;71:195–201. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2016.05.011.
- [10] Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) Program (www.seer.cancer.gov) SEER*Stat Database: Incidence - SEER Research Data, 9 Registries, Nov 2019 Sub (1975-2017) - Linked To County Attributes - Time Dependent (1990-2017) Income/Rurality, 1969-2018 Counties, National Cancer Institute, DCCPS, Surveillance Research Program, released April 2020, based on the November 2019 submission. n.d.
- [11] Tsodikov A, Gulati R, de Carvalho TM, Heijnsdijk EAM, Hunter-Merrill RA, Mariotto AB, et al. Is prostate cancer different in black men? Answers from 3 natural history models: Prostate Cancer in Black Men. Cancer 2017;123:2312–9. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.30687.
- [12] Rodriguez S, Sparks AD, Zhou H, Amdu RL, Lin J. Racial disparities in late-stage prostate cancer: a SEER analysis 2005-2015. Can J Urol 2019;26:9946–51.
- [13] Mahal BA, Chen Y-W, Muralidhar V, Mahal AR, Choueiri TK, Hoffman KE, et al. Racial disparities in prostate cancer outcome among prostate-specific antigen screening eligible populations in the United States. Ann Oncol 2017;28:1098–104. https://doi.org/10.1093/annonc/mdx041.
- [14] Powell IJ, Bock CH, Ruterbusch JJ, Sakr W. Evidence supports a faster growth rate and/or earlier transformation to clinically significant prostate cancer in black than in white American men, and influences racial progression and mortality disparity. J Urol 2010;183:1792–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2010.01.015.

- [15] Chornokur G, Dalton K, Borysova ME, Kumar NB. Disparities at presentation, diagnosis, treatment, and survival in African American men, affected by prostate cancer. The Prostate 2011;71:985–97. https://doi.org/10.1002/pros.21314.
- [16] Williams VL, Awasthi S, Fink AK, Pow-Sang JM, Park JY, Gerke T, et al. African-American men and prostate cancer-specific mortality: a competing risk analysis of a large institutional cohort, 1989-2015. Cancer Med 2018;7:2160–71. https://doi.org/10.1002/cam4.1451.
- [17] Parker PM, Rice KR, Sterbis JR, Chen Y, Cullen J, McLeod DG, et al. Prostate cancer in men less than the age of 50: a comparison of race and outcomes. Urology 2011;78:110–5. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2010.12.046.
- [18] Lloyd T, Hounsome L, Mehay A, Mee S, Verne J, Cooper A. Lifetime risk of being diagnosed with, or dying from, prostate cancer by major ethnic group in England 2008-2010. BMC Med 2015;13:171. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-015-0405-5.
- [19] Wong MCS, Goggins WB, Wang HHX, Fung FDH, Leung C, Wong SYS, et al. Global Incidence and Mortality for Prostate Cancer: Analysis of Temporal Patterns and Trends in 36 Countries. Eur Urol 2016;70:862–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2016.05.043.
- [20] Global Burden of Disease Cancer Collaboration, Fitzmaurice C, Dicker D, Pain A, Hamavid H, Moradi-Lakeh M, et al. The Global Burden of Cancer 2013. JAMA Oncol 2015;1:505–27. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2015.0735.
- [21] Nyame YA, Gore JL. What Goes Up Must Come Down: Identifying Truth from Global Prostate Cancer Epidemiology. European Urology 2020;77:53–4. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2019.09.018.
- [22] Hsing AW, Yeboah E, Biritwum R, Tettey Y, De Marzo AM, Adjei A, et al. High Prevalence of Screen Detected Prostate Cancer in West Africans: Implications for Racial Disparity of Prostate Cancer. Journal of Urology 2014;192:730–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2014.04.017.
- [23] Patrick AL, Bunker CH, Nelson JB, Dhir R, Wheeler VW, Zmuda JM, et al. Argument for prostate cancer screening in populations of African-Caribbean origin. BJU Int 2015;116:507–8. https://doi.org/10.1111/bju.12869.
- [24] Bosland MC, Nettey OS, Phillips AA, Anunobi CC, Akinloye O, Ekanem IA, et al. Prevalence of prostate cancer at autopsy in Nigeria—A preliminary report. The Prostate 2021;81:553–9. https://doi.org/10.1002/pros.24133.
- [25] Mokdad AH, Dwyer-Lindgren L, Fitzmaurice C, Stubbs RW, Bertozzi-Villa A, Morozoff C, et al. Trends and Patterns of Disparities in Cancer Mortality Among US Counties, 1980-2014. JAMA 2017;317:388. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2016.20324.
- [26] Fletcher SA, Marchese M, Cole AP, Mahal BA, Friedlander DF, Krimphove M, et al. Geographic Distribution of Racial Differences in Prostate Cancer Mortality. JAMA Netw Open 2020;3:e201839. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.1839.
- [27] Schroeder JC, Bensen JT, Su LJ, Mishel M, Ivanova A, Smith GJ, et al. The North Carolina–Louisiana Prostate Cancer Project (PCaP): Methods and design of a multidisciplinary population-based cohort study of racial differences in prostate cancer outcomes. Prostate 2006;66:1162–76. https://doi.org/10.1002/pros.20449.
- [28] Benjamins MR, Hunt BR, Raleigh SM, Hirschtick JL, Hughes MM. Racial Disparities in Prostate Cancer Mortality in the 50 Largest US Cities. Cancer Epidemiol 2016;44:125–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canep.2016.07.019.
- [29] Bryc K, Durand EY, Macpherson JM, Reich D, Mountain JL. The Genetic Ancestry of African Americans, Latinos, and European Americans across the United States. The American Journal of Human Genetics 2015;96:37–53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2014.11.010.
- [30] Sucheston LE, Bensen JT, Xu Z, Singh PK, Preus L, Mohler JL, et al. Genetic Ancestry, Self-Reported Race and Ethnicity in African Americans and European Americans in the PCaP Cohort. PLoS ONE 2012;7:e30950. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0030950.

- [31] Conti DV, Darst BF, Moss LC, Saunders EJ, Sheng X, Chou A, et al. Trans-ancestry genome-wide association meta-analysis of prostate cancer identifies new susceptibility loci and informs genetic risk prediction. Nat Genet 2021;53:65–75. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-020-00748-0.
- [32] Haiman CA, Patterson N, Freedman ML, Myers SR, Pike MC, Waliszewska A, et al. Multiple regions within 8q24 independently affect risk for prostate cancer. Nat Genet 2007;39:638–44. https://doi.org/10.1038/ng2015.
- [33] Freedman ML, Haiman CA, Patterson N, McDonald GJ, Tandon A, Waliszewska A, et al. Admixture mapping identifies 8q24 as a prostate cancer risk locus in African-American men. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 2006;103:14068–73. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0605832103.
- [34] Grizzle WE, Kittles RA, Rais-Bahrami S, Shah E, Adams GW, DeGuenther MS, et al. Self-Identified African Americans and prostate cancer risk: West African genetic ancestry is associated with prostate cancer diagnosis and with higher Gleason sum on biopsy. Cancer Med 2019;8:6915–22. https://doi.org/10.1002/cam4.2434.
- [35] Lachance J, Berens AJ, Hansen MEB, Teng AK, Tishkoff SA, Rebbeck TR. Genetic Hitchhiking and Population Bottlenecks Contribute to Prostate Cancer Disparities in Men of African Descent. Cancer Res 2018;78:2432–43. https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-17-1550.
- [36] World Health Organization. A conceptual framework for action on the social determinants of health: debates, policy & practice, case studies. 2010.
- [37] Health WC on SD of, Organization WH. Closing the Gap in a Generation: Health Equity Through Action on the Social Determinants of Health : Commission on Social Determinants of Health Final Report. World Health Organization; 2008.
- [38] Jones P, Jones C, Perry G, Barclay G, Jones C. Addressing the social determinants of children's health: a cliff analogy. Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved 2009;20.
- [39] Andersen R, Newman JF. Societal and Individual Determinants of Medical Care Utilization in the United States. The Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly Health and Society 1973;51:95–124. https://doi.org/10.2307/3349613.
- [40] Andersen RM. Revisiting the Behavioral Model and Access to Medical Care: Does it Matter? Journal of Health and Social Behavior 1995;36:1–10. https://doi.org/10.2307/2137284.
- [41] Hugosson J, Roobol MJ, Månsson M, Tammela TLJ, Zappa M, Nelen V, et al. A 16-yr Follow-up of the European Randomized study of Screening for Prostate Cancer. European Urology 2019;76:43–51. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2019.02.009.
- [42] Pinsky PF, Prorok PC, Yu K, Kramer BS, Black A, Gohagan JK, et al. Extended mortality results for prostate cancer screening in the PLCO trial with median follow-up of 15 years. Cancer 2017;123:592–9. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.30474.
- [43] Etzioni R, Nyame YA. Prostate Cancer Screening Guidelines for Black Men: Spotlight on an Empty Stage. JNCI: Journal of the National Cancer Institute 2020:djaa172. https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djaa172.
- [44] Weiner AB, Vo AX, Desai AS, Hu JC, Spratt DE, Schaeffer EM. Changes in prostate-specific antigen at the time of prostate cancer diagnosis after Medicaid expansion in young men. Cancer 2020;126:3229–36. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.32930.
- [45] Kensler KH, Pernar CH, Mahal BA, Nguyen PL, Trinh Q-D, Kibel AS, et al. Racial and Ethnic Variation in PSA Testing and Prostate Cancer Incidence Following the 2012 USPSTF Recommendation. JNCI: Journal of the National Cancer Institute 2021;113:719–26. https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djaa171.
- [46] Gaffney CD, Cai P, Li D, Margolis D, Sedrakyan A, Hu JC, et al. Increasing Utilization of MRI Before Prostate Biopsy in Black and Non-Black Men: An Analysis of the SEER-Medicare Cohort. American Journal of Roentgenology 2021;217:389–94. https://doi.org/10.2214/AJR.20.23462.
- [47] Major JM, Norman Oliver M, Doubeni CA, Hollenbeck AR, Graubard BI, Sinha R. Socioeconomic status, healthcare density, and risk of prostate cancer among African American and Caucasian men

in a large prospective study. Cancer Causes Control 2012;23:1185–91. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-012-9988-8.

- [48] Miller EA, Pinsky PF, Black A, Andriole GL, Pierre-Victor D. Secondary prostate cancer screening outcomes by race in the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal, and Ovarian (PLCO) Screening Trial. Prostate 2018;78:830–8. https://doi.org/10.1002/pros.23540.
- [49] Bailey ZD, Feldman JM, Bassett MT. How Structural Racism Works Racist Policies as a Root Cause of U.S. Racial Health Inequities. N Engl J Med 2021;384:768–73. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMms2025396.
- [50] Tessum CW, Paolella DA, Chambliss SE, Apte JS, Hill JD, Marshall JD. PM _{2.5} polluters disproportionately and systemically affect people of color in the United States. Sci Adv 2021;7:eabf4491. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abf4491.
- [51] Vigneswaran HT, Jagai JS, Greenwald DT, Patel AP, Kumar M, Dobbs RW, et al. Association between environmental quality and prostate cancer stage at diagnosis. Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis 2021;24:1129–36. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41391-021-00370-z.
- [52] Oliver JS. Attitudes and beliefs about prostate cancer and screening among rural African American men. J Cult Divers 2007;14:74–80.
- [53] Loeb S, Borno H, Gomez SL, Ravenell J, Myrie A, Sanchez T. Representation in Online Prostate Cancer Content Lacks Racial and Ethnic Diversity: Implications for Black and Latinx men. J Urol 2021;In Press.
- [54] Washington HA. Medical Apartheid: The Dark History of Medical Experimentation on Black Americans from Colonial Times to the Present. Anchor; 2008.
- [55] Vince RA, Jamieson S, Mahal B, Underwood W. Examining the Racial Disparities in Prostate Cancer. Urology 2021:S009042952100772X. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2021.08.004.
- [56] Tomic K, Ventimiglia E, Robinson D, Häggström C, Lambe M, Stattin P. Socioeconomic status and diagnosis, treatment, and mortality in men with prostate cancer. Nationwide population-based study. International Journal of Cancer 2018;142:2478–84. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.31272.
- [57] Cheng I, Witte JS, McClure LA, Shema SJ, Cockburn MG, John EM, et al. Socioeconomic status and prostate cancer incidence and mortality rates among the diverse population of California. Cancer Causes Control 2009;20:1431–40. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-009-9369-0.
- [58] Rapiti E, Fioretta G, Schaffar R, Neyroud-Caspar I, Verkooijen HM, Schmidlin F, et al. Impact of socioeconomic status on prostate cancer diagnosis, treatment, and prognosis. Cancer 2009;115:5556–65. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.24607.
- [59] Moses KA, Zhao Z, Bi Y, Acquaye J, Holmes A, Blot WJ, et al. The impact of sociodemographic factors and PSA screening among low-income Black and White men: data from the Southern Community Cohort Study. Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis 2017;20:424–9. https://doi.org/10.1038/pcan.2017.32.
- [60] Sharma R. The burden of prostate cancer is associated with human development index: evidence from 87 countries, 1990–2016. EPMA Journal 2019;10:137–52. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13167-019-00169-γ.
- [61] Everist MM, Howard LE, Aronson WJ, Kane CJ, Amling CL, Cooperberg MR, et al. Socioeconomic status, race, and long-term outcomes after radical prostatectomy in an equal access health system: Results from the SEARCH database. Urol Oncol 2019;37:289.e11-289.e17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2018.12.004.
- [62] Weprin SA, Parker DC, Jones JD, Kaplan JR, Giusto LL, Mydlo JH, et al. Association of Low Socioeconomic Status With Adverse Prostate Cancer Pathology Among African American Men Who Underwent Radical Prostatectomy. Clinical Genitourinary Cancer 2019;17:e1054–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clgc.2019.06.006.

- [63]Ziehr DR, Mahal BA, Aizer AA, Hyatt AS, Beard CJ, D'Amico AV, et al. Income inequality and treatment of African American men with high-risk prostate cancer. Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations 2015;33:18.e7-18.e13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2014.09.005.
- [64] Freeman VL, Ricardo AC, Campbell RT, Barrett RE, Warnecke RB. Association of census tract-level socioeconomic status with disparities in prostate cancer-specific survival. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2011;20:2150–9. https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-11-0344.
- [65] Daskivich TJ, Kwan L, Dash A, Litwin MS. Racial parity in tumor burden, treatment choice and survival outcomes in men with prostate cancer in the VA healthcare system. Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis 2015;18:104–9. https://doi.org/10.1038/pcan.2014.51.
- [66] Freedland SJ, Vidal AC, Howard LE, Terris MK, Cooperberg MR, Amling CL, et al. Race and risk of metastases and survival after radical prostatectomy: Results from the SEARCH database. Cancer 2017;123:4199–206. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.30834.
- [67] Dess RT, Hartman HE, Mahal BA, Soni PD, Jackson WC, Cooperberg MR, et al. Association of Black Race With Prostate Cancer–Specific and Other-Cause Mortality. JAMA Oncol 2019. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2019.0826.
- [68] Artiga S, Damico A. Health and Health Coverage in the South: A Data Update. The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation; 2016.
- [69] Georgantopoulos P, Eberth JM, Cai B, Emrich C, Rao G, Bennett CL, et al. Patient- and area-level predictors of prostate cancer among South Carolina veterans: a spatial analysis. Cancer Causes Control 2020;31:209–20. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-019-01263-2.
- [70] Onukwugha E, Osteen P, Jayasekera J, Mullins CD, Mair CA, Hussain A. Racial disparities in urologist visits among elderly men with prostate cancer: a cohort analysis of patient-related and county of residence-related factors. Cancer 2014;120:3385–92. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.28894.
- [71] Sammon JD, Dalela D, Abdollah F, Choueiri TK, Han PK, Hansen M, et al. Determinants of Prostate Specific Antigen Screening among Black Men in the United States in the Contemporary Era. The Journal of Urology 2016;195:913–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2015.11.023.
- [72] Bagley AF, Anscher MS, Choi S, Frank SJ, Hoffman KE, Kuban DA, et al. Association of Sociodemographic and Health-Related Factors With Receipt of Nondefinitive Therapy Among Younger Men With High-Risk Prostate Cancer. JAMA Netw Open 2020;3:e201255. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.1255.
- [73] Bellardita L, Rancati T, Alvisi MF, Villani D, Magnani T, Marenghi C, et al. Predictors of health-related quality of life and adjustment to prostate cancer during active surveillance. Eur Urol 2013;64:30–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2013.01.009.
- [74] Kamen C, Mustian KM, Heckler C, Janelsins MC, Peppone LJ, Mohile S, et al. The association between partner support and psychological distress among prostate cancer survivors in a nationwide study. J Cancer Surviv 2015;9:492–9. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11764-015-0425-3.
- [75] Khan S, Nepple KG, Kibel AS, Sandhu G, Kallogjeri D, Strope S, et al. The association of marital status and mortality among men with early-stage prostate cancer treated with radical prostatectomy: insight into post-prostatectomy survival strategies. Cancer Causes Control 2019;30:871–6. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-019-01194-y.
- [76] Tyson MD, Andrews PE, Etzioni DA, Ferrigni RG, Humphreys MR, Swanson SK, et al. Marital status and prostate cancer outcomes. Can J Urol 2013;20:6702–6.
- [77] Du KL, Bae K, Movsas B, Yan Y, Bryan C, Bruner DW. Impact of marital status and race on outcomes of patients enrolled in Radiation Therapy Oncology Group prostate cancer trials. Support Care Cancer 2012;20:1317–25. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00520-011-1219-4.
- [78] Abdollah F, Sun M, Thuret R, Abdo A, Morgan M, Jeldres C, et al. The effect of marital status on stage and survival of prostate cancer patients treated with radical prostatectomy: A population-

based study. Cancer Causes and Control 2011;22:1085–95. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-011-9784-x.

- [79] Chamie K, Kwan L, Connor SE, Zavala M, Labo J, Litwin MS. The impact of social networks and partnership status on treatment choice in men with localized prostate cancer. BJU Int 2012;109:1006–12. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-410X.2011.10515.x.
- [80] Eastland TY. A Survey of the Knowledge of African-American Women About Prostate Cancer Screening. J Cancer Educ 2018;33:1115–9. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13187-017-1220-9.
- [81] Woods-Burnham L, Stiel L, Wilson C, Montgomery S, Durán AM, Ruckle HR, et al. Physician Consultations, Prostate Cancer Knowledge, and PSA Screening of African American Men in the Era of Shared Decision-Making. Am J Mens Health 2018;12:751–9. https://doi.org/10.1177/1557988318763673.
- [82] Qin W, Hamler TC, Miller DB. Self-efficacy and importance of participation reasons as predictors for prostate cancer screening intention in African American men. Ethnicity & Health 2020:1–13. https://doi.org/10.1080/13557858.2020.1724269.
- [83] Trinh Q-D, Hong F, Halpenny B, Epstein M, Berry DL. Racial/ethnicity differences in endorsing influential factors for prostate cancer treatment choice: An analysis of data from the personal patient profile-prostate (P3P) I and II trials. Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations 2020;38:78.e7-78.e13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2019.10.015.
- [84] Gordon B-BE, Basak R, Carpenter WR, Usinger D, Godley PA, Chen RC. Factors influencing prostate cancer treatment decisions for African American and white men. Cancer 2019;125:1693–700. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.31932.
- [85] Collingwood SA, McBride RB, Leapman M, Hobbs AR, Kwon YS, Stensland KD, et al. Decisional regret after robotic-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy is higher in African American men. Urol Oncol 2014;32:419–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2013.10.011.
- [86] Mahal BA, Chen M-H, Bennett CL, Kattan MW, Sartor O, Stein K, et al. The association between race and treatment regret among men with recurrent prostate cancer. Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis 2015;18:38–42. https://doi.org/10.1038/pcan.2014.42.
- [87] Mullins CD, Onukwugha E, Bikov K, Seal B, Hussain A. Health disparities in staging of SEER-medicare prostate cancer patients in the United States. Urology 2010;76:566–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2009.10.061.
- [88] Bickell NA, Lin JJ, Abramson SR, Hoke GP, Oh W, Hall SJ, et al. Racial Disparities in Clinically Significant Prostate Cancer Treatment: The Potential Health Information Technology Offers. J Oncol Pract 2018;14:e23–33. https://doi.org/10.1200/JOP.2017.025957.
- [89] Pinsky PF, Ford M, Gamito E, Higgins D, Jenkins V, Lamerato L, et al. Enrollment of racial and ethnic minorities in the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial. Journal of the National Medical Association 2008;100:291–8.
- [90] Mutebi M, Adewole I, Orem J, Abdella K, Coker O, Kolawole I, et al. Toward Optimization of Cancer Care in Sub-Saharan Africa: Development of National Comprehensive Cancer Network Harmonized Guidelines for Sub-Saharan Africa. JCO Global Oncology 2020:1412–8. https://doi.org/10.1200/GO.20.00091.
- [91] Chinea FM, Lyapichev K, Epstein JI, Kwon D, Smith PT, Pollack A, et al. Understanding PSA and its derivatives in prediction of tumor volume: Addressing health disparities in prostate cancer risk stratification. Oncotarget 2017;8:20802–12. https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.14903.
- [92] Nelson TJ, Javier-DesLoges J, Deka R, Courtney PT, Nalawade V, Mell L, et al. Association of Prostate-Specific Antigen Velocity With Clinical Progression Among African American and Non-Hispanic White Men Treated for Low-Risk Prostate Cancer With Active Surveillance. JAMA Netw Open 2021;4:e219452. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.9452.

- [93] Moul JW, Sesterhenn IA, Connelly RR, Douglas T, Srivastava S, Mostofi FK, et al. Prostate-Specific Antigen Values at the Time of Prostate Cancer Diagnosis in African-American Men. JAMA 1995;274:1277–81. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.1995.03530160029029.
- [94] Sarma AV, St Sauver JL, Jacobson DJ, McGree ME, Klee GG, Lieber MM, et al. Racial differences in longitudinal changes in serum prostate-specific antigen levels: the Olmsted County Study and the Flint Men's Health Study. Urology 2014;83:88–93. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2013.08.025.
- [95] Preston MA, Gerke T, Carlsson SV, Signorello L, Sjoberg DD, Markt SC, et al. Baseline Prostatespecific Antigen Level in Midlife and Aggressive Prostate Cancer in Black Men. Eur Urol 2019;75:399–407. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2018.08.032.
- [96] Jindal T, Kachroo N, Sammon J, Dalela D, Sood A, Vetterlein MW, et al. Racial differences in prostate-specific antigen–based prostate cancer screening: State-by-state and region-by-region analyses. Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations 2017;35:460.e9-460.e20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2017.01.023.
- [97] Drake BF, Lathan CS, Okechukwu CA, Bennett GG. Racial differences in prostate cancer screening by family history. Ann Epidemiol 2008;18:579–83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2008.02.004.
- [98] Hooper GL, Allen RS, Payne-Foster P, Oliver JS. A Qualitative Study to Determine Barriers for Prostate Cancer Screening in Rural African-American Men 2019:12.
- [99] Carpenter WR, Godley PA, Clark JA, Talcott JA, Finnegan T, Mishel M, et al. Racial differences in trust and regular source of patient care and the implications for prostate cancer screening use. Cancer 2009;115:5048–59. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.24539.
- [100] Hosain GMM, Sanderson M, Du XL, Chan W, Strom SS. Racial/Ethnic Differences in Predictors of PSA Screening in a Tri-Ethnic Population. Cent Eur J Public Health 2011;19:30–4. https://doi.org/10.21101/cejph.a3622.
- [101] Glenn BA, Bastani R, Maxwell AE, Mojica CM, Herrmann AK, Gallardo NV, et al. Prostate cancer screening among ethnically diverse first-degree relatives of prostate cancer cases. Health Psychol 2012;31:562–70. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028626.
- [102] Halbert CH, Gattoni-Celli S, Savage S, Prasad SM, Kittles R, Briggs V, et al. Ever and Annual Use of Prostate Cancer Screening in African American Men. Am J Mens Health 2017;11:99–107. https://doi.org/10.1177/1557988315596225.
- [103] Carpenter WR, Howard DL, Taylor YJ, Ross LE, Wobker SE, Godley PA. Racial differences in PSA screening interval and stage at diagnosis. Cancer Causes Control 2010;21:1071–80. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-010-9535-4.
- [104] Nyame YA, Gulati R, Heijnsdijk EAM, Tsodikov A, Mariotto AB, Gore JL, et al. The Impact of Intensifying Prostate Cancer Screening in Black Men: A Model-Based Analysis. JNCI: Journal of the National Cancer Institute 2021:djab072. https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djab072.
- [105] Barrington WE, Schenk JM, Etzioni R, Arnold KB, Neuhouser ML, Thompson IM, et al. Difference in Association of Obesity With Prostate Cancer Risk Between US African American and Non-Hispanic White Men in the Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial (SELECT). JAMA Oncol 2015;1:342–9. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2015.0513.
- [106] Murphy AB, Akereyeni F, Nyame YA, Guy MC, Martin IK, Hollowell CMP, et al. Smoking and prostate cancer in a multi-ethnic cohort. Prostate 2013;73:1518–28. https://doi.org/10.1002/pros.22699.
- [107] Kazmi N, Haycock P, Tsilidis K, Lynch BM, Truong T, PRACTICAL Consortium, CRUK, BPC3, CAPS, PEGASUS, et al. Appraising causal relationships of dietary, nutritional and physical-activity exposures with overall and aggressive prostate cancer: two-sample Mendelian-randomization study based on 79 148 prostate-cancer cases and 61 106 controls. Int J Epidemiol 2019. https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyz235.

- [108] Sanchez DE, Frencher SK, Litwin MS. Moving urologic disparities research from evidence synthesis to translational research: a dynamic, multidisciplinary approach to tackling inequalities in urology. Urology 2021:S0090429521003460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2021.04.018.
- [109] Simons ECG, Thavaseelan AP of S (Urology) S, Saigal C, Downs T. Diversifying Graduate Medical Education & the Urology Workforce: Re-imagining our Structures, Policies, Practices, Norms & Values. Urology 2021:S0090429521005549. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2021.06.011.
- [110] Smith AB, Chisolm S, Deal A, Spangler A, Quale DZ, Bangs R, et al. Patient-centered prioritization of bladder cancer research: Patient Engagement in Research. Cancer 2018;124:3136–44. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.31530.
- [111] Institute of Medicine. Crossing the Quality Chasm: A New Health System for the 21st Century. Washington, DC: National Academic Press; 2001.
- [112] Daniszewski J. The decision to capitalize Black. Associated Press 2020. https://blog.ap.org/_f07 (accessed November 19, 2021).

Figures Legend

Figure 1 – Global Age-Adjusted Rates of Prostate Cancer Mortality (permission to use required)

Figure 2 - Conceptual Model for Translating Health Services Research and Interventions into Solutions to Address Inequities in Prostate Cancer Care and Outcomes. This model provides a formalized framework to incorporate structural, social, and health factors in the study of inequities in prostate cancer along the continuum of care delivery and outcomes.

Figure 3 – Application of Conceptual Model for Racial Inequities in the Early Detection of Prostate Cancer

Term	Definition
Race	"Historically referred to broad categories of people that are divided
	arbitrarily but based on ancestral origin and physical characteristics." [1]
Ethnicity	"Historically referred to a person's cultural identity (e.g., language,
	customs, religion)." [1]
Ancestry ^{1,2}	"Refers to a person's country or region of origin or an individual's
	lineage of descent." [1]
Black	"A racial, ethnic or cultural sense, conveying an essential and shared
	sense of history, identity and community among people who identify as
	Black, including those in the African diaspora and within Africa." [112]
Genetic admixture	"Refers to genetic exchange among people from different ancestries and
	may correlate with an individual's risk for certain genetic diseases." [1]
A frigger angestry refers to an individual whose country or region of origin is in A frigg, or has a lineage of	

Table 1 – Key Terms and Definitions

¹African ancestry refers to an individual whose country or region of origin is in Africa, or has a lineage of descent from Africa; ²African ancestry often refers specifically to men of predominant West African ancestry in prostate cancer studies