UCSF UC San Francisco Previously Published Works

Title

Minority recruitment trends in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials (2003-2014): progress and critical areas for improvement

Permalink https://escholarship.org/uc/item/0gz6k8w9

Journal Investigative Urology, 201(2)

ISSN

0021-0005

Authors

Balakrishnan, Ashwin S Palmer, Nynikka R Fergus, Kirkpatrick B <u>et al.</u>

Publication Date

2019-02-01

DOI

10.1016/j.juro.2018.09.029

Peer reviewed

Author's Accepted Manuscript

Minority recruitment trends in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials (2003-2014): progress and critical areas for improvement

Ashwin S. Balakrishnan , Nynikka R. Palmer , Kirkpatrick B. Fergus , Thomas W. Gaither , Nima Baradaran , Medina Ndoye , Benjamin N. Breyer



 PII:
 S0022-5347(18)43872-4

 DOI:
 10.1016/j.juro.2018.09.029

 Reference:
 JURO 15818

To appear in: *The Journal of Urology* Accepted Date: 1 September 2018

Please cite this article as: Balakrishnan AS, Palmer NR, Fergus KB, Gaither TW, Baradaran N, Ndoye M, Breyer BN, Minority recruitment trends in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials (2003-2014): progress and critical areas for improvement, *The Journal of Urology*® (2018), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2018.09.029.

DISCLAIMER: This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our subscribers we are providing this early version of the article. The paper will be copy edited and typeset, and proof will be reviewed before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to The Journal pertain.

Embargo Policy

All article content is under embargo until uncorrected proof of the article becomes available online.

We will provide journalists and editors with full-text copies of the articles in question prior to the embargo date so that stories can be adequately researched and written. The standard embargo time is 12:01 AM ET on that date. Questions regarding embargo should be directed to jumedia@elsevier.com.

Minority recruitment trends in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials (2003-2014): progress and

critical areas for improvement

Ashwin S. Balakrishnan BA (Ashwin.balakrishnan@ucsf.edu)¹, Nynikka R. Palmer, DrPH MPH (Nynikka.palmer@ucsf.edu)^{1,2}, Kirkpatrick B. Fergus BA (Kirk.fergus@ucsf.edu)¹, Thomas W. Gaither, MD MAS (Tom.gaither@ucsf.edu)¹, Nima Baradaran, MD

(Nima.baradaran@ucsf.edu)¹, Medina Ndoye, MD (Medina.ndoye@ucsf.edu)¹, Benjamin N. Breyer, MD MAS (Benjamin.breyer@ucsf.edu)¹

Affiliations: ¹Department of Urology, University of California, San Francisco (San Francisco, California, United States); ²Division of General Internal Medicine, Department of Medicine, Zuckerberg San Francisco General Hospital, University of California, San Francisco, (San Francisco, California, United States).

Running Head: Enrollment trends in prostate cancer trials

Word Counts: 249 (abstract), 2485 (body)

Corresponding Author: Benjamin N. Breyer MD, MAS, FACS Department of Urology and Epidemiology and Biostatistics University of California, San Francisco 1001 Potrero Ave, Suite 3A20 San Francisco, CA 94110-1444 Phone: 415.476.3372 Fax: 415.206.5153 Benjamin.Breyer@ucsf.edu

Declaration of Conflict of Interests: The Authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Funding: This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public,

commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Keywords: Prostate cancer, clinical trials, phase III, enrollment, minority health

Abstract

Purpose: U.S. minority groups have been historically underrepresented in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials despite often having higher risk disease. This study analyzes enrollment trends of major U.S. racial/ethnic groups in phase III prostate cancer trials between 2003-2014 compared to Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) incidence data. Materials and Methods: Phase III prostate cancer trials primarily enrolling patients from the U.S. were identified in the ClinicalTrials.gov database. Enrollment trends were analyzed for major racial/ethnic groups. Prostate cancer incidence data from the SEER registry was used to identify enrollment targets. The enrollment difference was determined by calculating the absolute difference between the percentage of a racial/ethnic subgroup in the SEER registry population and the percentage of that subgroup in the phase III prostate cancer trial population. Results: Among 39 studies identified, African American enrollment in therapeutic trials increased across the study period (p<0.001). The enrollment difference for African Americans was -9.0% (95% CI, -7.6 to -10.5; p<0.001) in 2003-05 and 1.4% (95% CI, 0.2 to 2.6; p = 0.020) in 2012-14. However, African American men were under-enrolled in metastatic disease trials (enrollment difference = -5.8%; 95% CI, -4.8 to -6.8; p<0.001). Latino and Asian American men were consistently under-enrolled in all trial types.

Conclusions: U.S. minority groups were largely under-enrolled in phase III prostate cancer trials between 2003-2014. While recruitment efforts may have had an impact, as demonstrated by increased enrollment of African American men, there remains a need to expand recruitment efforts to achieve diversity in trials.

Introduction:

Racial and ethnic disparities in prostate cancer persist. Compared to White men, African American men experience 60% higher incidence of disease, are more likely to be diagnosed at a younger age, have more aggressive disease, are more likely to be undertreated for high-risk disease, and have more than twice the mortality due to prostate cancer.^{1–3} Hispanic/Latino men with prostate cancer are more likely to be diagnosed with advanced stage prostate cancer and have higher tumor grades compared to non-Hispanic White men.⁴ Filipinos, Asian Indians/Pakistanis, and Pacific Islanders in the United States (U.S.) are also more likely to present with advanced prostate cancer compared with White men.^{5,6} Numerous factors likely interact and contribute to these disparities, including socioeconomics, access to care, quality of care, environmental factors, genetics, and systematic under-representation in clinical trials.^{7,8}

U.S. minority groups have been historically underrepresented in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials.⁹ With low enrollment of minorities, trials often lack statistical power to reveal potential racial and ethnic differences in response to therapy. Acknowledging the need for increased minority inclusion, the Health Revitalization Act of 1993 mandated guidelines for minority inclusion in National Institutes of Health (NIH) funded research.¹⁰ The Act was amended in 2001 to define minimum standards for collecting and reporting data by sex/gender and race/ethnicity, and again amended in 2017 with a requirement for phase III clinical trials to submit results by sex/gender and race/ethnicity to ClinicalTrials.gov.¹¹ Since the enactment in 1993, efforts have been made to increase the enrollment of minorities in prostate cancer trials, but it is unclear if they are having a meaningful impact.¹²

This study aims to analyze enrollment trends of major U.S. racial/ethnic groups in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials. We compare clinical trial enrollment of each group to prostate cancer incidence data from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) registry, as a suggested enrollment target for racial/ethnic groups. We chose to use the SEER registry because it accounts for cancer diagnoses in a large proportion of the U.S population and is designed to mirror the sociodemographics of the U.S. census.¹³ We hypothesize that the proportion of each U.S. minority subgroup in the clinical trial population will increase across the study period, but will not exceed the proportion of each subgroup in the SEER prostate cancer population.

Methods:

Data Collection

We identified phase III prostate cancer clinical trials completed between 2003-2014 from the U.S. National Library of Medicine (NLM) ClinicalTrials.gov database. The ClinicalTrials.gov database defines a clinical trial (therapeutic or behavioral) as a clinical study where participants are assigned to treatment or control groups and researchers evaluate the effects of an intervention on health-related outcomes.¹⁴ We define a therapeutic clinical trial as an investigation of a drug, biologic agent, dietary supplement, surgical procedure, radiotherapy, device or implant. A behavioral clinical trial was defined as a clinical study that evaluates the effects of an intervention on a behavioral outcome.

Although the ClinicalTrials.gov database was created in February 2000, only two prostate cancer clinical trials were registered from 2000-2002; therefore, we chose to begin the study period in 2003. Trials completed after 2014 were not included because SEER population data on incidence was not yet available after 2014. Trials enrolling participants outside of the U.S. and Canada were excluded. Included trials primarily enrolled patients from the U.S., but eight trials enrolled some patients from Canada. Of these eight trials, only 7.9% of the enrollment locations were in Canada.

Trials with incomplete reporting of participant race/ethnicity were included if they at a minimum reported the White population. If a study did not publish any enrollment results by race or ethnicity within their publication(s) or on ClinicalTrials.gov, corresponding authors were contacted electronically with a request for enrollment data. If results were not found in publication(s), on ClinicalTrials.gov, or by email request, the trial was excluded (Fig. 1).

We utilized prostate cancer incidence data from the SEER registry to calculate the proportion of disease burden and to identify enrollment targets by race/ethnicity and time period. SEER registry locations are strategically chosen to represent the racial/ethnic demographics of the U.S. census.¹³ For example, based on the 2010 U.S. Census and SEER data, African Americans account for 12.6% and 10.9% of the population, respectively.

We analyzed incidence data for 688,266 patients diagnosed with prostate cancer between 2003 and 2014 using the SEER*Stat software (version 8.3.4).¹⁵ SEER records were categorized by

race and ethnicity into: non-Hispanic White (hereafter: White), non-Hispanic Black/African American (hereafter: African American), Asian American or Pacific Islander (hereafter: Asian American), and Hispanic/Latino (hereafter: Latino). Other categories of interest in the SEER records included time period (2003-05, 2006-08, 2009-11, 2012-14) and disease stage.

Data Analyses

We calculated an enrollment difference using the difference between the percentage of a subgroup in the trial population and the percentage of that subgroup in the SEER population. The enrollment difference was a positive value if the trial enrollment percentage exceeded the SEER population percentage, and a negative value if the SEER population percentage exceeded the trial enrollment percentage. If a study did not report enrollment data for a certain race/ethnicity, its total population was not included in the calculation of the proportion of trial population represented by that race/ethnicity.

We conducted a two-sample test of proportions comparing the percentage of each racial/ethnic subgroup in the trial population to that of the U.S. prostate cancer population for the four time periods in the study (2003-05, 2006-08, 2009-11, 2012-14). The null hypothesis was that the proportions of a given race/ethnicity in the clinical trial and prostate cancer populations were equal. In order to observe changes in enrollment proportions over time, a chi-squared test for trend was used. We focused the trends analyses on therapeutic trials, and excluded behavioral trials because these two trial types are considerably different in their size, methods of enrollment, and enrollment settings. Additionally, there were not enough behavioral trials in our study to

perform a separate trend analysis. Sub-analyses of trend and enrollment difference were also done for therapeutic trials enrolling patients with metastatic disease. All p-values were 2-sided and the statistical significance threshold was defined as p<0.05. All analyses were performed using STATA version 15 (College Station, Texas).

Results:

Seventy-seven phase III prostate cancer clinical trials with enrollment locations in the U.S. were completed between 2003 and 2014 and registered with the NLM ClinicalTrials.gov database. Twenty-six trials did not meet eligibility criteria (Fig. 1). Of the remaining 51 trials, 12 did not have available data on participant race or ethnicity within the study's publications, on ClinicalTrials.gov, or by emailing a data request to the corresponding authors.

Thirty-nine phase III prostate cancer clinical trials were included with a total clinical trial population of 20,820 (Table 1). Of the 35 therapeutic trials, 27 were drug trials, two were dietary supplement trials, two tested biologic agents, two were surgical trials, one tested a medical device, and one was a radiation therapy trial (Data Supplement). Seventeen trials enrolled patients with localized and/or regional disease (43.6%) and 11 trials enrolled patients with metastatic disease (28.2%). Five trials enrolled patients without prostate cancer, and accounted for 30.7% of the total trial population of the study (Table 1). Three of the five trials enrolling patients without prostate cancer were behavioral interventions and two studied preventative drug therapies.

Of the 35 trials resulting in publication, five trials (14.3%) published enrollment data only for White patients and categorized non-White patients as "other" or "unknown", 28 (80.0%) published enrollment data on African Americans, 18 (51.4%) on Latinos, and 18 (51.4%) on Asian Americans. Of all trials in this study, only three (7.7%) reported enrollment results stratified by both race and ethnicity within the ClinicalTrials.gov database.

Comparison of SEER and trial populations (2003-2014)

White patients accounted for 69.5% of prostate cancer incidence in the SEER registry, and represented 77.8% of the total trial population, 82.0% of the therapeutic trial population, and 63.1% of the behavioral trial population (p<0.001, Fig. 2). African American patients represented 14.2% of prostate cancer incidence in the SEER registry, 17.9% of the total trial population (p<0.001), 14.3% of therapeutic trial population (p=0.72), and 30.4% of the behavioral trial population (p<0.001). Latino patients accounted for 8.8% of prostate cancer incidence in the SEER registry, 4.2% of the total trial population, 3.7% of the therapeutic trial population, and 5.9% of the behavioral trial population (p<0.001). Asian American patients accounted for 4.6% of prostate cancer incidence in the SEER registry, 1.0% of the total trial population, and 0.8% of the therapeutic trial population (p<0.001).

Trends in enrollment (by 3-year intervals)

The proportion of White patients was consistently above SEER-based target enrollment in therapeutic trials across the four study intervals; however, this proportion decreased over time

with a significant test for trend (p<0.001; Fig. 3, A). The proportion of African American men in the therapeutic trial population progressively increased across the study period (p<0.001; Fig. 3, B). The proportion of Latinos did not significantly change (p<0.46; Fig. 3, C), and the proportion of Asian Americans modestly increased (p=0.035; Fig. 3, D).

The White enrollment difference decreased across the study period, from 20.4% (95% CI, 18.8 to 22.1; p<0.001) in 2003-05 to 13.0% (95% CI, 11.7 to 14.4; p<0.001) in 2012-14 (Fig. 4, A). The African American enrollment difference was -9.0% (95% CI, -7.6 to -10.5; p<0.001) in 2003-05 and 1.4% % (95% CI, 0.2 to 2.6; p=0.020) in 2012-14 (Fig. 4, B). Latino and Asian American men were consistently below SEER-based target enrollment. The Latino enrollment difference ranged from -3.9% to -5.7% (Fig. 4, C), and the Asian American enrollment difference ranged from -3.9% (Fig. 4, D).

In the sub-analysis of therapeutic trials enrolling patients with metastatic disease, White patients represented 65.0% of the SEER population with distant disease, and 84.7% of the metastatic trial population from 2003 to 2014. Across all years, African American men accounted for 17.5% of the SEER population with distant disease, and 11.7% of the metastatic trial population. The proportion of White enrollment decreased over time with a significant test for trend (p<0.001; Fig. 5, A). African American enrollment trended towards increased enrollment (p=0.014; Fig. 5, B). The African American enrollment difference was -13.1% (95% CI, -10.4 to -15.7; p<0.001) in 2003-05 and -2.9% (95% CI, -1.1 to -4.7; p=0.004) in 2012-14 (Data Supplement). Latino and Asian American patients were consistently below enrollment targets in metastatic trials (Fig. 5, C

and D). Latino enrollment decreased (p=0.026; Fig. 5, C), while Asian American enrollment modestly increased (p=0.027; Fig. 5, D).

Discussion:

It has been 25 years since the Health Revitalization Act of 1993 mandated the inclusion of minorities in NIH funded research. The NIH amended the act in 2001 to include guidelines for stratifying study results by sex/gender and race/ethnicity, and has recently mandated reporting of baseline enrollment data by race/ethnicity for publication on ClinicalTrials.gov.¹¹ The Food and Drug Administration designated 2016 the "Year of Diversity in Clinical Trials" to encourage minority inclusion.¹⁶ In spite of these efforts, our findings suggest that African American men are under-enrolled in advanced disease trials, and Latino and Asian American men are under-enrolled in all types of trials. However, government mandates and support for diversity may have impacted enrollment, as demonstrated by significantly increased enrollment of African Americans in therapeutic trials.

Our results demonstrate that investigators are not sufficiently reporting data by race/ethnicity. Only three studies in this analysis reported enrollment results stratified by race and ethnicity in ClinicalTrials.gov. Over 14% of studies resulting in publication did not report African American enrollment, and simply categorized patients as "White" and "other". It has long been established that African American men have a higher incidence and risk of death from prostate cancer, so it is concerning that a significant percentage of trials do not report African American enrollment. Additionally, only half of the trials published data on Latino and/or Asian American enrollment,

which are the fastest growing racial/ethnic groups in the U.S.¹⁷ Future trials should oversample racial/ethnic minority groups, above SEER incidence rates, to allow for statistically powered race-stratified or sub-group analyses.¹⁸ Additionally, funding agencies – such as the NIH, should identify ways to enforce enrollment and publication mandates.

In order to optimize minority enrollment, researchers must address limited access to care at academic centers, patient mistrust of healthcare systems, researcher biases, and cultural and linguistic barriers to enrollment. Therapeutic cancer trials at large cancer centers may be less accessible to minority communities.¹⁹ Studies have also shown minorities are more likely to participate in trials when research personnel are from the same racial, cultural or linguistic background, or when they are enrolled through trusted institutions such as places of worship and community-based organizations.^{20–23} Biases amongst clinical research teams must also be addressed. For example, some researchers believe minorities have little interest in research participate in clinical trials at the same rate as their White counterparts.^{24–26} Our finding that behavioral trials have had more success in recruiting minorities compared to therapeutic trials may reflect differences in investigator beliefs, study design, and enrollment location.

This study has some limitations. First, SEER incidence data as enrollment targets for clinical trials may underestimate the burden of disease among minorities, as there are areas that do not participate in the SEER program (e.g., Detroit) and SEER data covers only 34.6% of the total U.S. population.^{27–29} Second, we excluded twelve trials because they did not publish any

enrollment data by race/ethnicity or provide data when it was requested via email correspondence, and many of the included trials had incomplete reporting. There is potential for selection bias since studies not reporting enrollment data may have inadequate inclusion of minorities. Therefore, our study findings may overestimate minority enrollment. Third, this study did not account for substantial diversity within racial/ethnic categories by disaggregating data among Asian American or Latino patients. Lastly, we did not utilize individual patient data but rather relied on summary statistics.

Despite these limitations, this study has several strengths. It is the first investigation of prostate cancer clinical trial enrollment utilizing SEER incidence data and trial enrollment data to evaluate enrollment disparities. It provides researchers with a suggested framework to establish clinical trial enrollment targets. It also evaluates reporting on race/ethnicity within publications and on ClinicalTrials.gov, which is a valuable database for providers, patients, and researchers to access trial results and information.

Conclusions:

Much work remains in order to improve the enrollment of U.S. minority groups in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials. Efforts to improve enrollment may have led to increased inclusion of African American men in therapeutic trials as a whole; however, they face under-enrollment in advanced disease trials. Asian American and Latino patients also face persistent under-enrollment across all trial types. Investigators should work to improve recruitment and

enrollment efforts, and report enrollment data by race and ethnicity so that patients, providers, and researchers can better grasp the generalizability and applicability of study results.

References

- Anon: Prostate Cancer Cancer Stat Facts. Available at: https://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/prost.html, Accessed April 26, 2018.
- Chornokur G, Dalton K, Borysova ME, et al: Disparities at presentation, diagnosis, treatment, and survival in African American men, affected by prostate cancer. Prostate 2011; 71: 985–97.
- Moses KA, Orom H, Brasel A, et al: Racial/Ethnic Disparity in Treatment for Prostate Cancer: Does Cancer Severity Matter? Urology 2017; 99: 76–83.
- Schupp CW, Press DJ and Gomez SL: Immigration factors and prostate cancer survival among Hispanic men in California: Does neighborhood matter? Cancer 2014; 120: 1401– 1408.
- 5. Chao GF, Krishna N, Aizer AA, et al: Asian Americans and prostate cancer: A nationwide population-based analysis. Urol. Oncol. Semin. Orig. Investig. 2016; **34**: 233.e7-233.e15.
- Lichtensztajn DY, Gomez SL, Sieh W, et al: Prostate cancer risk profiles of Asian-American men: disentangling the effects of immigration status and race/ethnicity. J Urol 2014; 191: 952–956.
- Cooperberg MR: Re-examining racial disparities in prostate cancer outcomes. J. Clin. Oncol. 2013; 31: 2979–2980.
- 8. Martin DN, Starks AM and Ambs S: Biological determinants of health disparities in

prostate cancer. Curr Opin Oncol 2013; 25: 235-41.

- 9. Murthy VH, Krumholz HM and Gross CP: Participation in cancer clinical trials: race-, sex-, and age-based disparities. JAMA 2004; **291**: 2720–2726.
- Chen MS, Lara PN, Dang JHT, et al: Twenty years post-NIH Revitalization Act: enhancing minority participation in clinical trials (EMPaCT): laying the groundwork for improving minority clinical trial accrual: renewing the case for enhancing minority participation in cancer clinical trials. Cancer 2014; **120 Suppl**: 1091–1096.
- Zarin DA, Tse T, Williams RJ, et al: Trial Reporting in ClinicalTrials.gov The Final Rule. N. Engl. J. Med. 2016; **375**: 1998–2004.
- Ahaghotu C, Tyler R and Sartor O: African American Participation in Oncology Clinical Trials - Focus on Prostate Cancer: Implications, Barriers, and Potential Solutions. Clin. Genitourin. Cancer 2016; 14: 105–116.
- Mohanty S and Bilimoria KY: Comparing national cancer registries: The National Cancer Data Base (NCDB) and the surveillance, epidemiology, and end results (SEER) program.
 J. Surg. Oncol. 2014; 109: 629–630.
- Anon: Glossary of Common Site Terms ClinicalTrials.gov. Available at: https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/about-studies/glossary, accessed April 26, 2018.
- Anon: SEER*Stat Software. Available at: https://seer.cancer.gov/seerstat/, accessed April 26, 2018.
- Anon: 2016: The Year of Diversity in Clinical Trials | FDA Voice. Available at: https://blogs.fda.gov/fdavoice/index.php/2016/01/2016-the-year-of-diversity-in-clinicaltrials/, accessed April 26, 2018.
- 17. Office UCBPI: 2010 Census Shows Asians are Fastest-Growing Race Group 2010

Census - Newsroom - U.S. Census Bureau. Available at: https://www.census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/2010_census/cb12-cn22.html, accessed April 26, 2018.

- Yancey AK, Ortega AN and Kumanyika SK: Effective Recruitment and Retention of Minority Research Participants. Annu. Rev. Public Health 2006; 27: 1–28.
- Huang LC, Ma Y, Ngo J V., et al: What factors influence minority use of National Cancer Institute-designated cancer centers? Cancer 2014; **120**: 399–407.
- Hughson J, Woodward-Kron R, Parker A, et al: A review of approaches to improve participation of culturally and linguistically diverse populations in clinical trials. Trials 2016; 17: 263.
- Green MA, Michaels M, Blakeney N, et al: Evaluating a Community-Partnered Cancer Clinical Trials Pilot Intervention with African American Communities. J. Cancer Educ. 2015; **30**: 158–166.
- 22. Pinsky PF, Ford M, Gamito E, et al: Enrollment of racial and ethnic minorities in the prostate, lung, colorectal and ovarian cancer screening trial. J. Natl. Med. Assoc. 2008;
 100: 291–298.
- 23. Ford ME, Havstad SL and Davis SD: A randomized trial of recruitment methods for older African American men in the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian (PLCO) cancer screening trial. Clin. Trials 2004; 1: 343–351.
- 24. Kaplan CP, Nápoles AM, Narine S, et al: Knowledge and attitudes regarding clinical trials and willingness to participate among prostate cancer patients. Contemp. Clin. Trials 2015;
 45: 443–448.
- 25. Wood CG, Wei SJ, Hampshire MK, et al: The influence of race on the attitudes of

radiation oncology patients towards clinical trial enrollment. Am. J. Clin. Oncol. 2006; **29**: 593–599.

- 26. Williams IC and Corbie-Smith G: Investigator beliefs and reported success in recruiting minority participants. Contemp. Clin. Trials 2006; **27**: 580–586.
- Park HS, Lloyd S, Decker RH, et al: Limitations and Biases of the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Database. Curr. Probl. Cancer 2012; 36: 216–224.
- Gomez SL and Glaser SL: Misclassification of race/ethnicity in a population-based cancer registry (United States). Cancer Causes Control 2006; 17: 771–781.
- 29. National Institute of Health: What is a Cancer Registry? Available at: https://seer.cancer.gov/registries/cancer_registry/index.html, accessed August 14, 2018.

Figure Legends:

Figure 1. Flow diagram showing study identification, eligibility, and inclusion process.

Figure 2. Phase III prostate cancer clinical trial enrollment by race/ethnicity and trial type in comparison to proportion of prostate cancer in Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) registry population by race/ethnicity from 2003-2014.

* indicates significant *P* value (<0.05) from two sample test of proportion comparing proportion of trial enrollment by race/ethnicity and trial type to proportion of prostate cancer in SEER by race/ethnicity.

[†]Asian American enrollment results not reported in the four behavioral trials.

Figure 3. Percentage of White, African American (AA), Hispanic/Latino (HL), and Asian American (Asian) patients amongst phase III prostate cancer therapeutic trial population and the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) prostate cancer population, 2003 to 2014. (A) White. (B) AA. (C) HL (D) Asian. *P* trend value corresponds to chi-square test for trend of proportion in trial enrollment. *P* value for two sample test of proportion comparing proportion of trial enrollment by race/ethnicity to proportion of prostate cancer in SEER by race/ethnicity was significant (<0.05) for all comparisons.

Figure 4. Enrollment difference between phase III prostate cancer therapeutic trials and the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) prostate cancer population with 95% confidence intervals, 2003 to 2014. (A) White patients. (B) African American patients. (C) Hispanic/Latino patients. (D) Asian American patients. The enrollment difference is the absolute difference between the percentage of a racial/ethnic group in the trial population and the percentage of that racial/ethnic group in the SEER population.

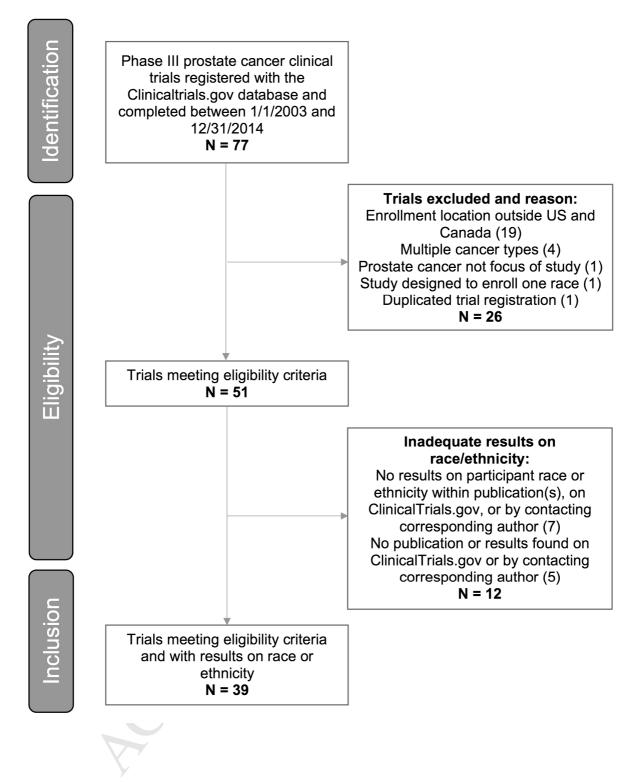
Figure 5. Percentage of White, African American (AA), Hispanic/Latino (HL), and Asian American (Asian) patients in phase III prostate cancer clinical trials enrolling patients with metastatic disease and the in Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) metastatic prostate cancer population, 2003 to 2014. (A) White. (B) AA. (C) HL. (D) Asian. *P* trend value corresponds to the chi-square test for trend of proportion in trial enrollment. *P* value for two sample test of proportion comparing proportion of trial enrollment by race/ethnicity to proportion of prostate cancer in SEER by race/ethnicity was significant (<0.05) for all comparisons except for HL in 2003-05.

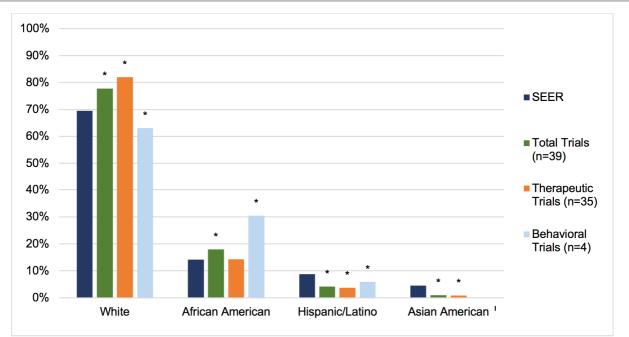
[†]Hispanic/Latino enrollment in metastatic trials not reported in 2009-11.

	Number of Trials (%)	Trial Population (%)
Total Trials	39	20,820
Trial Intervention		
Therapeutic	35 (89.7)	16,177 (77.7)
Behavioral	4 (10.3)	4,643 (22.3)
Year of Study Completion		
2003-2005	8 (20.5)	3,627 (17.4)
2006-2008	8 (20.5)	6,668 (32.0)
2009-2011	12 (30.8)	6,815 (32.7)
2012-2014	11 (28.2)	3,710 (17.8)
Clinical Stage of Trial Population		
Localized and/or regional	17 (43.6)	8,467 (40.7)
Distant	11 (28.2)	5,058 (24.3)
Failure after localized treatment	6 (15.4)	911 (4.4)
No cancer	5 (12.8)	6,384 (30.7)
Primary Funding Source		
NIH or other U.S. government	25 (64.1)	13,840 (66.5)
Industry	11 (28.2)	6,657 (32.0)
University	3 (7.7)	323 (1.5)
Enrollment Location	·	
United States	31 (79.5)	12,677 (60.9)
United States and Canada	8 (20.5)	8,143 (39.1)

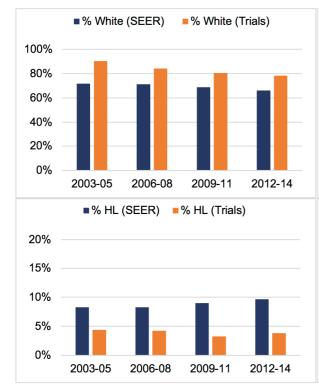
Table 1. Characteristics of phase III clinical trials included in this analysis

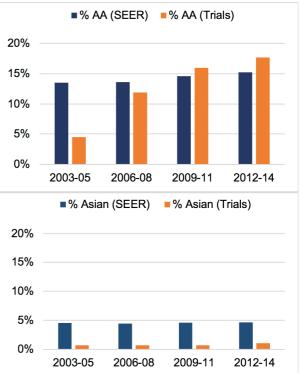
Abbreviation: NIH, National Institute of Health; U.S., United States.

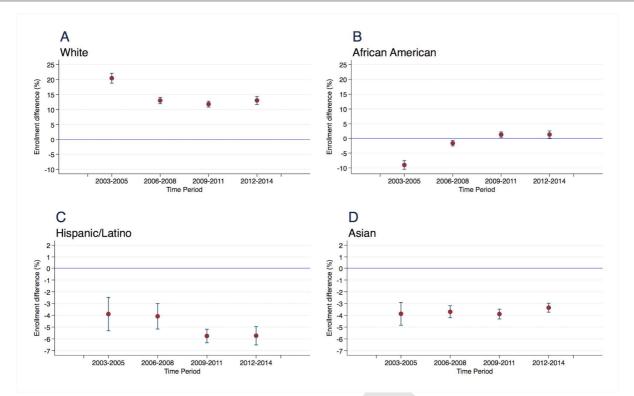




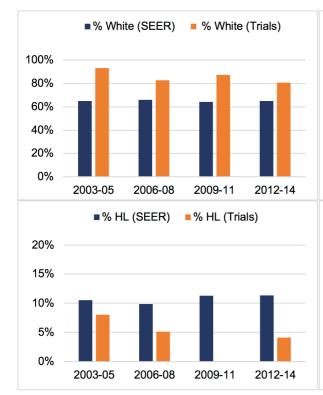
CEP HIM

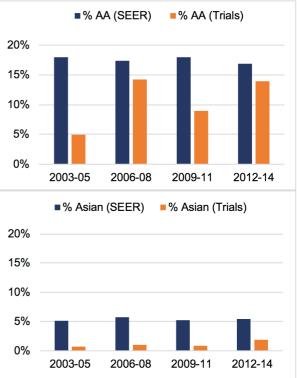






CER MAN





CER CER

Abbreviation Key:

AA: African American

HL: Hispanic/Latino

NIH: National Institutes of Health

SEER: Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results registry

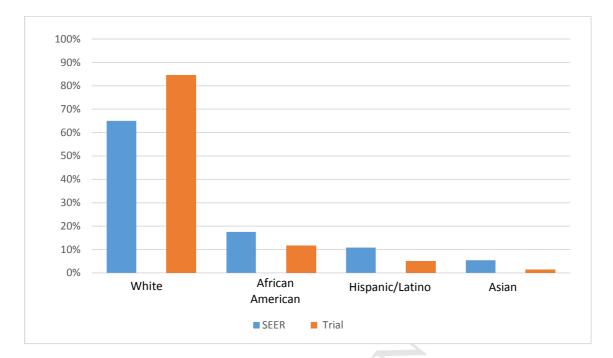
Supplementary Tables and Figures:

1	2003-2005		2006-2008		2009-2011		2012-2014	
	SEER	Trial	SEER	Trial	SEER	Trial	SEER	Trial
	JEEK	11141	BEEK	11141	JEEK	11141	JEEK	11141
All Trials (n=39)								
	115,725	2766	128,665	5085	122,817	5,409	97,160	3,710
White	(71.7%)	(76.3%)	(71.1%)	(76.3%)	(68.7%)	(79.4%)	66.0%	(79.1%)
	21,794	565	24,640	1,321	26,115	1,114	22,428	617
African American	(13.5%)	(11.4%)	(13.6%)	(19.8%)	(14.6%)	(17.0%)	(15.2%)	(16.6%)
	13,349	180	15,012	57	16,109	124	14,237	98
Hispanic/Latino	(8.3%)	(5.5%)	(8.3%)	(4.1%)	(9.0%)	(3.3%)	(9.7%)	(4.0%)
Thispanie, Davino	7,372	2	8,002	8	8,201	9	6,872	49
Asian American	(4.6%)	(0.3%)	(4.4%)	(0.7%)	(4.6%)	(0.6%)	(4.7%)	(1.3%)
				, ,				
Therapeutic Trials					\sim			
(n=35)								
	115,725	957	128,665	4,030	122,817	5,344	97,160	2,934
White	(71.7%)	(92.1%)	(71.1%)	(84.1%)	(68.7%)	(80.5%)	66.0%	(79.1%)
	21,794	36	24,640	571	26,115	1,019	22,428	617
African American	(13.5%)	(4.5%)	(13.6%)	(11.9%)	(14.6%)	(15.9%)	(15.2%)	(16.6%)
	13,349	35	15,012	57	16,109	124	14,237	49
Hispanic/Latino	(8.3%)	(4.4%)	(8.3%)	(4.2%)	(9.0%)	(3.3%)	(9.7%)	(4.0%)
	7,372	2	8,002	8	8,201	11	6,872	29
Asian American	(4.6%)	(0.7%)	(4.4%)	(0.7%)	(4.6%)	(0.7%)	(4.7%)	(1.3%)
Metastatic Disease								
Trials (n=11)	4,500	385	4,847	877	5,073	1,323	6,091	517
White	4,300 (65%)	(93.2%)	(65.9%)		(64.3%)		(65.0%)	(80.7%)
white	· · · · ·			(82.8%)		(87.2%)		
	1,245	14	1,277	151	1,419	152 (9.0%)	1,581	229
African American	(18.0%)	(4.9%)	(17.4%)	(14.3%)	(18.0%)	(9.0%)	(16.9%)	(14.0%)
	726	23	725	54	890	na	1,062	41
Hispanic/Latino	(10.5%)	(8.0%)	(9.9%)	(5.1%)	(11.3%)	10	(11.3%)	(4.1%)
Asian American	356	2	422	7 (1.0%)	411	10	509	31
Asian American	(5.1%)	(0.7%)	(5.7%)	(1.0%)	(5.2%)	(0.9%)	(5.4%)	(1.9%)

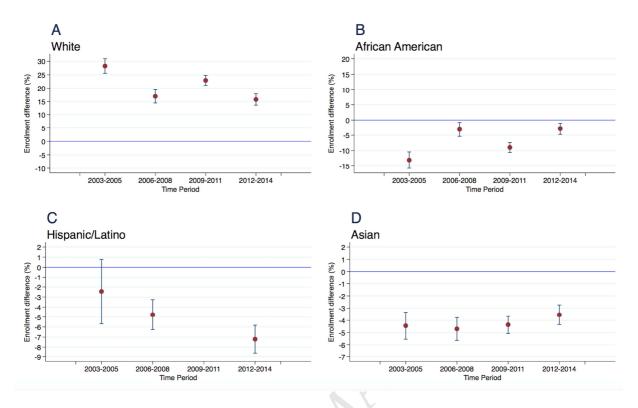
eTable 1. Phase III prostate cancer clinical trial enrollment in comparison to SEER incidence (2003-2014)

Abbreviation: SEER, Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Registry.

	Primary Author	Intervention Type		
Trial Identifier	(publication year)			
NCT00182052	Smith, MR (2004)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00164437	No publication	Behavioral		
NCT00005947	Small, EJ (2006)	Therapeutic (biologic)		
NCT00027859	Walczak, JR (2003)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00002855	Millikan, RE (2008)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00002703	Zietman, AL (2005)	Therapeutic (radiation)		
NCT00196781	Taylor, KL (2010)	Behavioral		
NCT00177619	Greenspan, SL (2007)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00244309	Elshaikh, MA (2005)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00136487	Smith, MR (2006)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00196807	Taylor, KL (2013)	Behavioral		
NCT00004001	Petrylak, DP (2004)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00171639	Campbell, SC (2010)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00028574	Loprinzi, CL (2009)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00002723	Ahles, TA (2004)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00657904	Iversen, P (2010)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00065442	Kantoff, PW (2010)	Therapeutic (biologic)		
NCT00002760	Small, EJ (2004)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00626431	Spitz, A (2012)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00255125	Hamilton-Reeves, JM (2013)	Therapeutic (dietary supplement)		
NCT00117286	No publication	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00043069	Kearns, AE (2010)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00007644	Wilt, TJ (2012)	Therapeutic (surgery)		
NCT00106691	Taneja, SS (2013)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00004635	Figg, WD (2009)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00002597	Jones, CU (2011)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00623090	Dorfman, CS (2010)	Behavioral		
NCT00110214	Kelly, WK (2012)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00928434	No publication	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00398281	Halpern, EJ (2012)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT01825642	Gilbert, SM (2017)	Therapeutic (surgery)		
NCT00765479	Bosland, MC (2013)	Therapeutic (dietary supplement)		
NCT00134056	Quinn, DI (2013)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00004054	Rosenthal, SA (2015)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT01415960	No publication	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT01538628	Mariados, N (2015)	Therapeutic (device)		
NCT00079001	Smith, MR (2014)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NCT00329797	Kachnic, LA (2013)	Therapeutic (drug)		
NC100329797	Pisansky, TM (2014)	Therapeutic (drug)		



eFigure 1. Proportion of enrollment in phase III prostate cancer metastatic disease trials in comparison to proportion of metastatic prostate cancer in Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) population by race, 2003-2014.



eFigure 2. Enrollment difference between phase III prostate cancer interventional trials enrolling only patients with metastatic disease and the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) metastatic prostate cancer population with 95% confidence intervals, 2003 to 2014. (A) White patients. (B) African American patients. (C) Hispanic/Latino patients. (D) Asian American patients. The enrollment difference is the absolute difference between the percentage of a racial/ethnic group in the trial population and the percentage of that racial/ethnic group in the SEER population.

References for trials included in analysis:

- Ahles J. E., 2nd; Small, E. J.; Vogelzang, N. J.; Kornblith, A. B.; Ratain, M. J.; Stadler, W.; Palchak, D.; Marshall, M. E.; Wilding, G.; Petrylak, D.; Holland, J. C.; Cancer,; Leukemia Group, B.; Ahles, Tim A.; Herndon, James E., 2nd; Small, Eric J.; V TA. H. Quality of life impact of three different doses of suramin in patients with metastatic hormone-refractory prostate carcinoma: results of Intergroup O159/Cancer and Leukemia Group B 9480. *Cancer*. 2004;101(10):2202-2208. doi:10.1002/cncr.20655
- 2. Bosland MC, Kato I, Zeleniuch-Jacquotte A, et al. Effect of soy protein isolate supplementation on biochemical recurrence of prostate cancer after radical prostatectomy: A randomized trial. *JAMA J Am Med Assoc.* 2013;310(2):170-178. doi:10.1001/jama.2013.7842
- 3. Campbell SC, Bhoopalam N, Moritz TE, et al. The Use of Zoledronic Acid in Men Receiving Androgen Deprivation Therapy for Prostate Cancer With Severe Osteopenia or Osteoporosis. *Urology*. 2010;75(5):1138-1143. doi:10.1016/j.urology.2009.11.083
- 4. Dorfman CS, Williams RM, Kassan EC, et al. The development of a web- and a print-based decision aid for prostate cancer screening. 2010.
- 5. Elshaikh MA, Ulchaker JC, Reddy CA, et al. Prophylactic tamsulosin (Flomax) in patients undergoing prostate125I brachytherapy for prostate carcinoma: Final report of a double-blind placebo-controlled randomized study. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2005;62(1):164-169. doi:10.1016/j.ijrobp.2004.09.036
- 6. Figg WD, Hussain MH, Gulley JL, et al. A Double-Blind Randomized Crossover Study of Oral Thalidomide Versus Placebo for Androgen Dependent Prostate Cancer Treated With Intermittent Androgen Ablation. *J Urol.* 2009;181(3):1104-1113. doi:10.1016/j.juro.2008.11.026
- 7. Gilbert SM, Dunn RL, Miller DC, et al. Functional Outcomes Following Nerve Sparing Prostatectomy Augmented with Seminal Vesicle Sparing Compared to Standard Nerve Sparing Prostatectomy: Results from a Randomized Controlled Trial. *J Urol.* 2017;198(3):600-607. doi:10.1016/j.juro.2017.03.133
- Greenspan SL, Nelson JB, Trump DL, Resnick NM, Miller M. Effect of once-weekly oral alendronate on bone loss in men receiving androgen deprivation therapy for prostate cancer: A randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med.* 2007;146(6):416-424. http://www.embase.com/search/results?subaction=viewrecord&from=export&id=L351650576%5 Cnhttp://www.annals.org/cgi/reprint/146/6/416.pdf.
- 9. Halpern EJ, Gomella LG, Forsberg F, McCue PA, Trabulsi EJ. Contrast enhanced transrectal ultrasound for the detection of prostate cancer: A randomized, double-blind trial of dutasteride pretreatment. *J Urol.* 2012;188(5):1739-1745. doi:10.1016/j.juro.2012.07.021
- 10. Hamilton-Reeves JM, Banerjee S, Banerjee SK, et al. Short-Term Soy Isoflavone Intervention in Patients with Localized Prostate Cancer: A Randomized, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Trial. *PLoS One.* 2013;8(7):2-9. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0068331
- 11. Iversen P, McLeod DG, See WA, Morris T, Armstrong J, Wirth MP. Antiandrogen monotherapy in patients with localized or locally advanced prostate cancer: Final results from the bicalutamide Early Prostate Cancer programme at a median follow-up of 9.7 years. *BJU Int.* 2010;105(8):1074-1081. doi:10.1111/j.1464-410X.2010.09319.x
- 12. Jones CU, Hunt D, McGowan DG, et al. Radiotherapy and Short-Term Androgen Deprivation for Localized Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;365(2):107-118. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1012348
- 13. Kachnic LA, Pugh SL, Tai P, et al. RTOG 0518: randomized phase III trial to evaluate zoledronic acid for prevention of osteoporosis and associated fractures in prostate cancer patients. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis.* 2013;16(4):382-386. doi:10.1038/pcan.2013.35
- 14. Kantoff PW, Higano CS, Shore ND, et al. Sipuleucel-T Immunotherapy for Castration-Resistant Prostate Cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2010;363(5):411-422. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1001294
- 15. Kearns AE, Northfelt DW, Dueck AC, et al. Osteoporosis prevention in prostate cancer patients receiving androgen ablation therapy: Placebo-controlled double-blind study of estradiol and

risedronate: N01C8. Support Care Cancer. 2010;18(3):321-328. doi:10.1007/s00520-009-0655-x

- 16. Kelly WK, Halabi S, Carducci M, et al. Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase III trial comparing docetaxel and prednisone with or without bevacizumab in men with metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer: CALGB 90401. *J Clin Oncol.* 2012;30(13):1534-1540. doi:10.1200/JCO.2011.39.4767
- 17. Loprinzi CL, Dueck AC, Khoyratty BS, et al. A phase III randomized, double-blind, placebocontrolled trial of gabapentin in the management of hot flashes in men (N00CB). *Ann Oncol.* 2009;20(3):542-549. doi:10.1093/annonc/mdn644
- Mariados N, Sylvester J, Shah D, et al. Hydrogel Spacer Prospective Multicenter Randomized Controlled Pivotal Trial: Dosimetric and Clinical Effects of Perirectal Spacer Application in Men Undergoing Prostate Image Guided Intensity Modulated Radiation Therapy. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2015;92(5):971-977. doi:10.1016/j.ijrobp.2015.04.030
- 19. Millikan RE, Wen S, Pagliaro LC, et al. Phase III trial of androgen ablation with or without three cycles of systemic chemotherapy for advanced prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2008;26(36):5936-5942. doi:10.1200/JCO.2007.15.9830
- 20. Petrylak DP, Tangen CM, Hussain MHA, et al. Docetaxel and estramustine compared with mitoxantrone and prednisone for advanced refractory prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;351(15):1513-1520. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa041318
- 21. Pisansky TM, Pugh SL, Greenberg RE, et al. Tadalafil for prevention of erectile dysfunction after radiotherapy for prostate cancer: The Radiation Therapy Oncology Group [0831] randomized clinical trial. *JAMA J Am Med Assoc.* 2014;311(13):1300-1307. doi:10.1001/jama.2014.2626
- 22. Quinn DI, Tangen CM, Hussain M, et al. Docetaxel and atrasentan versus docetaxel and placebo for men with advanced castration-resistant prostate cancer (SWOG S0421): A randomised phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol.* 2013;14(9):893-900. doi:10.1016/S1470-2045(13)70294-8
- 23. Rosenthal SA, Hunt D, Sartor AO, et al. A Phase 3 Trial of 2 Years of Androgen Suppression and Radiation Therapy With or Without Adjuvant Chemotherapy for High-Risk Prostate Cancer: Final Results of Radiation Therapy Oncology Group Phase 3 Randomized Trial NRG Oncology RTOG 9902. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 2015;93(2):294-302. doi:10.1016/j.ijrobp.2015.05.024
- 24. Small EJ, Halabi S, Dawson NA, et al. Antiandrogen withdrawal alone or in combination with ketoconazole in androgen-independent prostate cancer patients: A phase III trial (CALGB 9583). *J Clin Oncol.* 2004;22(6):1025-1033. doi:10.1200/JCO.2004.06.03
- 25. Small EJ, Schellhammer PF, Higano CS, et al. Placebo-controlled phase III trial of immunologic therapy with Sipuleucel-T (APC8015) in patients with metastatic, asymptomatic hormone refractory prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol.* 2006;24(19):3089-3094. doi:10.1200/JCO.2005.04.5252
- 26. Smith MR, Halabi S, Ryan CJ, et al. Randomized controlled trial of early zoledronic acid in men with castration-sensitive prostate cancer and bone metastases: Results of CALGB 90202 (Alliance). *J Clin Oncol*. 2014;32(11):1143-1150. doi:10.1200/JCO.2013.51.6500
- 27. Smith MR, Manola J, Kaufman DS, et al. Rosiglitazone versus placebo for men with prostate carcinoma and a rising serum prostate-specific antigen level after radical prostatectomy and/or radiation therapy. *Cancer*. 2004;101(7):1569-1574. doi:10.1002/cncr.20493
- 28. Smith MR, Manola J, Kaufman DS, Oh WK, Bubley GJ, Kantoff PW. Celecoxib versus placebo for men with prostate cancer and a rising serum prostate-specific antigen after radical prostatectomy and/or radiation therapy. *J Clin Oncol.* 2006;24(18):2723-2728. doi:10.1200/JCO.2005.03.7804
- Spitz A, Young JM, Larsen L, Mattia-Goldberg C, Donnelly J, Chwalisz K. Efficacy and safety of leuprolide acetate 6-month depot for suppression of testosterone in patients with prostate cancer. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis.* 2012;15(1):93-99. doi:10.1038/pcan.2011.50
- 30. Taneja SS, Morton R, Barnette G, Sieber P, Hancock ML, Steiner M. Prostate cancer diagnosis among men with isolated high-grade intraepithelial neoplasia enrolled onto a 3-year prospective phase III clinical trial of oral toremifene. *J Clin Oncol.* 2013;31(5):523-529. doi:10.1200/JCO.2012.41.7634

- Taylor KL, Davis KM, Lamond T, et al. Use and evaluation of a CD-ROM-based decision aid for prostate cancer treatment decisions. *Behav Med.* 2010;36(4):130-140. doi:10.1080/08964289.2010.525263
- 32. Taylor KL, Williams RM, Davis K, et al. Decision making in prostate cancer screening using decision aids vs usual care a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Intern Med.* 2013;173(18):1704-1712. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2013.9253
- 33. Walczak JR, Carducci MA. Phase 3 randomized trial evaluating second-line hormonal therapy versus docetaxel-estramustine combination chemotherapy on progression-free survival in asymptomatic patients with a rising prostate-specific antigen level after hormonal therapy for prostate. *Urology*. 2003;62(SUPPL. 1):141-146. doi:10.1016/j.urology.2003.09.006
- 34. Wilt TJ. The prostate cancer intervention versus observation trial: VA/NCI/AHRQ cooperative studies program #407 (PIVOT): Design and baseline results of a randomized controlled trial comparing radical prostatectomy with watchful waiting for men with clinically loc. *J Natl Cancer Inst Monogr.* 2012;407(45):184-190. doi:10.1093/jncimonographs/lgs041
- 35. Zietman a L, DeSilvio M, Slater JD, et al. Comparison of convention-dose vs high-dose conformal radiation therapy in clinically localized adenocarcinoma of the prostate. *J.aM.a.* 2005;294(10):1233-1239.
- 36. A Study of Degarelix in Patients With Prostate Cancer Full Text View ClinicalTrials.gov. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00928434. Accessed April 27, 2018.
- Extension Study Investigating the Long-Term Safety of Degarelix One-Month Depots in Patients With Prostate Cancer - Full Text View - ClinicalTrials.gov. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00117286. Accessed April 27, 2018.
- Efficacy and Safety of Leuprolide Acetate 22.5 mg Depot in Treatment of Prostate Cancer Full Text View - ClinicalTrials.gov. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT01415960. Accessed April 27, 2018.
- 39. CD-ROM Intervention for Prostate Cancer Screening Full Text View ClinicalTrials.gov. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00164437. Accessed April 27, 2018.

CER