Decision Aids for Prostate Cancer Screening Choice
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis

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IMPORTANCE US guidelines recommend that physicians engage in shared decision-making with men considering prostate cancer screening.

OBJECTIVE To estimate the association of decision aids with decisional outcomes in prostate cancer screening.

DATA SOURCES MEDLINE, Embase, PsycINFO, CINAHL, and Cochrane CENTRAL were searched from inception through June 19, 2018.

STUDY SELECTION Randomized trials comparing decision aids for prostate cancer screening with usual care.

DATA EXTRACTION AND SYNTHESIS Independent duplicate assessment of eligibility and risk of bias, rating of quality of the decision aids, random-effects meta-analysis, and Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations rating of the quality of evidence.

MAIN OUTCOMES AND MEASURES Knowledge, decisional conflict, screening discussion, and screening choice.

RESULTS Of 19 eligible trials (12,781 men), 9 adequately concealed allocation and 8 blinded outcome assessment. Of 12 decision aids with available information, only 4 reported the likelihood of a true-negative test result, and 3 presented the likelihood of false-negative test results or the next step if the screening test result was negative. Decision aids are possibly associated with improvement in knowledge (risk ratio, 1.38; 95% CI, 1.09-1.73; I² = 67%; risk difference, 12.1%; low quality), are probably associated with a small decrease in decisional conflict (mean difference on a 100-point scale, −4.19; 95% CI, −7.06 to −1.33; I² = 75%; moderate quality), and are possibly not associated with whether physicians and patients discuss prostate cancer screening (risk ratio, 112.95% CI, 0.90-1.39; I² = 60%; low quality) or with men's decision to undergo prostate cancer screening (risk ratio, 0.95; 95% CI, 0.88-1.03; I² = 36%; low quality).

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE The results of this study provide moderate-quality evidence that decision aids compared with usual care are associated with a small decrease in decisional conflict and low-quality evidence that they are associated with an increase in knowledge but not with whether physicians and patients discussed prostate cancer screening or with screening choice. Results suggest that further progress in facilitating effective shared decision-making may require decision aids that not only provide education to patients but are specifically targeted to promote shared decision-making in the patient-physician encounter.

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Owing to increasing use of prostate-specific antigen (PSA) screening, the incidence of early-stage prostate cancer has increased during the last 25 years. Advocates of screening often cite the European Randomized study of Screening for Prostate Cancer (ERSPC)2—of the available trials, the one at lowest risk of bias3—that suggested that PSA screening reduces prostate cancer-specific mortality but not overall mortality.2 Opponents of screening often cite an earlier meta-analysis4 or other major trials5,6 that reported no association between PSA screening and prostate cancer-specific mortality and point out possible harms associated with surgery or radiotherapy.7

Men’s choice of whether to undergo prostate cancer screening is sensitive to their values and preferences: that is, fully informed men will make different choices depending on their experience and perspective. For such decisions, shared decision-making, characterized by cooperative communication between patient and clinician in which they share knowledge, values, and preferences, represents an ideal approach to decision-making.8 Major guidelines therefore acknowledge the importance of informing men about the risks and benefits of PSA screening.9–12 The US Preventive Services Task Force has recently recommended that the decision to undergo prostate cancer screening should be an individual one in which men should discuss potential benefits and harms with their clinician before screening and recommended that men who do not express a clear preference for screening should not be screened.11 Even more recently, a BMJ Rapid Recommendations’ panel made a weak recommendation against systematic PSA screening that acknowledged the need for shared decision-making.12

Shared decision-making is challenging because of time constraints and the specific skills that it requires.13 Well-designed decision aids may, at least in part, address these challenges by summarizing the current best evidence and by supporting conversations that address the issues that matter most to patients.14,15 The association of decision aids with the decision-making process remains, however, uncertain.8 We therefore undertook a systematic review and meta-analysis of the randomized clinical trials (RCTs)—many of which were conducted before major PSA trials2,5,6 such as ERSPC,2 were published—that have addressed the effect of decision aids on the decision-making process in the context of prostate cancer screening.

Methods

We registered the protocol in the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO CRD42016052816) and followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) reporting guideline.16

Data Sources and Searches

We performed the search, developed in collaboration with an experienced research librarian (R.C.), on June 19, 2018, in MEDLINE, Embase, CINAHL, PsychINFO, and Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) without language limits (eAppendix 1 in the Supplement).

Eligibility Criteria

We included RCTs conducted among men who were potentially considering undergoing prostate cancer screening that compared decision aid interventions for prostate cancer screening with usual care. We evaluated decision aids and study protocols and judged interventions as either decision aids, information material, or usual care (not overlapping categories). We defined the interventions as decision aids if the material helped men making individual choices and included information regarding the association of screening with the following patient-important outcomes: risk of dying, risk of urinary or bowel symptoms, and risk of erectile dysfunction. We defined the intervention as usual care if clinicians provided no formal, structured presentation of information and informative material if interventions provided some structured information but did not meet our definition of a decision aid (eAppendix 2 in the Supplement).

We excluded studies comparing one decision aid with another and those that did not report on any of our specified outcomes (see the Outcomes subsection). We also excluded studies in which less than 50% of participants in intervention groups used a decision aid.

Outcomes

We evaluated the following outcomes: knowledge regarding prostate cancer screening, decisional conflict, discussions regarding screening between men and their physicians (screening discussion), decisions determining whether screening took place (actual screening decision), and satisfaction with screening decision.

Risk of Bias and the Quality of Decision Aids

We assessed the risk of bias using a modified version of the Cochrane Collaboration risk of bias tool addressing 5 criteria (eAppendix 3 in the Supplement). For each criterion, studies were judged to be at either high or low risk of bias. Studies with
a high risk of bias for 3 or more criteria were classified as being at high risk of bias overall.

We identified decision aids used in the studies by following a multistep approach: (1) we first reviewed original articles to identify links or references to electronically available decision aids or those provided as appendices; (2) if unavailable, we conducted electronic searches for decision aids online; and (3) we contacted study authors by email, requesting access to the decision aid. We evaluated the available decision aids using a modified version of the International Patient Decision Aid Standards instrument (IPDASi), version 3 for screening, by assessing 10 criteria (eAppendix 4 in the Supplement). We rated each criterion as met or unmet and summed the number of criteria met.

Study Selection and Data Extraction
We developed standardized forms with detailed instructions for screening of abstracts and full texts, risk of bias, quality of assessments of decision aids, and data extraction. Independently and in duplicate, 2 methodologically trained reviewers (J.M.R., T.P.K., S.C., A.A., P.J., N.P., P.O.R., J.R., H.S., and T.T.) applied the forms to screen study reports for eligibility and extracted data. Reviewers resolved disagreement through discussion and, if necessary, through consultation with an adjudicator (K.A.O.T.). We sent our consensus data extraction to the original authors for confirmation or correction and asked for clarification regarding missing or unclear information.

Statistical Analysis
For continuous outcomes in which investigators used different instruments to measure a construct, we standardized scores on a range from 0 to 100 for dichotomies and from 0 to 1 for continuous variables as potential sources of heterogeneity using meta-regression: allocation concealment, blinding of data collectors, and missing data (low vs high risk of bias for all variables). We hypothesized that effects would be larger in high-risk-of-bias trials.

Quality of Evidence
To assess the quality of evidence, we used the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations (GRADE) approach that classifies evidence as high, moderate, low, or very low quality. We used published GRADE guidance for ratings of risk of bias, consistency, directness, precision, and publication bias. We made 1 major modification of GRADE: the GRADE quality of evidence ratings are intended to address causal inferences; because of journal policy, we applied the quality ratings to issues of association.

Results
Of 12,032 potentially relevant reports, 238 proved potentially eligible; after full-text screening, 19 articles proved eligible (Figure 1). Six of the 19 authors (32%) confirmed the accuracy of our data extraction; none corrected errors or added additional information. Eleven of the 19 authors (58%) could not be contacted, and 2 authors (11%) were unable to assist. Trials were published between 1999 and 2017 (eFigure 1 in the Supplement) and randomized 12,781 men; the median of mean ages was 59 years (interquartile range, 57-62 years). Sixteen studies were performed in the United States, 2 in the United Kingdom, and 1 in Canada (Table 1).

Risk of Bias
In all 19 studies, the allocation sequence was adequately generated; in 9 studies (47%), allocation was adequately concealed; and in 8 studies (42%), data collectors were blinded. Missing data were judged as high risk of bias in 7 of 13 studies (54%) for actual screening decision and in 11 of 19 studies (58%) for other outcomes (knowledge, screening discussion, decisional conflict, and satisfaction with decision) (Table 1; eFigure 2 in the Supplement).

Decision Aids
Investigators used several types of decision aids: 13 of 19 studies used printed material (8 used booklets of 8-28 pages and 5 used leaflets of 1-2 pages); 5 studies used education (2 used group sessions and 3 used
individual education\(^{10,31,44}\), 5 studies used computer-based tools\(^{29,32,34,36,39}\) and 4 studies used videos\(^{31,40,42,45}\) Two studies used the same video\(^{42,45}\) One study used shared decision-making\(^{27}\) (Table I in the Supplement).

We identified 12 decision aids: 5 by reviewing original articles\(^{28,30,31,41,43}\) 4 by electronic searches\(^{29,34,38,40}\) and 3 from the authors\(^{39,42,45}\) Two authors reported that the decision aid was no longer available (Table I in the Supplement).\(^{35,44}\) Three decision aids scored well (8–10 points out of 10), 4 scored less well (5–7 points), and 5 scored poorly (≤4 points); the overall IPDASi mean (SD) score was 5.6 (2.9) (range, 2–10). All decision aids reported the screening aim; 11 of 12 decision aids (92%) reported the association of screening with overall or prostate cancer–specific mortality; and 10 of 12 decision aids (83%) reported the harms of the increase in surgery and radiotherapy consequent to screening (erectile dysfunction, urinary incontinence, and bowel problems). Four of 12 decision aids (33%) presented information regarding the probability of having a true-negative result; 3 of 12 decision aids (25%) presented the probability of a false-negative result or the next step if screening results were negative. Two of 12 decision aids (17%) presented the likelihood of detecting prostate cancer with and without the use of screening (eFigure 3 in the Supplement).

Outcomes
Knowledge
Of the 13 studies reporting short-term knowledge, 8 reported data as a continuous variable and 5 reported the proportion of correct items. Because the SDs of the latter are much smaller (owing to the nature of binomial distribution), they would dominate a pooled result of all 13 studies; therefore, we analyzed them separately. Pooled estimates from 8 studies reporting data as a continuous variable showed an increase in knowledge for decision aids (mean difference, 16.29; 95% CI, 3.45–28.94; low-quality evidence; Table 2 and Figure 2B). The proportion of correctness data from 5 studies demonstrated improved knowledge with decision aids, although the 95% CI includes a very small and likely unimportant difference (risk ratio, 1.38; 95% CI, 1.09–1.73; risk difference, 12.1; low-quality evidence; Table 2 and Figure 2A). Studies failed to demonstrate an association with knowledge in the long term (mean difference, 5.47; 95% CI, −0.52 to 11.45; low-quality evidence; eFigure 4 in the Supplement).

Decisional Conflict
In the pooled analysis (6 studies), the decision aids were associated with a small but consistent and statistically significant decrease in decisional conflict (mean difference on a 100-point scale, −4.19; 95% CI, −7.06 to −1.33; moderate-quality evidence; Table 2 and Figure 3A).

Screening Discussion
The frequency with which a screening discussion with the clinician took place varied from 8% to 97% (median, 47%) in usual care groups and from 16% to 99% in decision aid groups (median, 52%). The pooled analysis from 6 studies failed to demonstrate an association with whether physicians and patients discussed prostate cancer screening (risk ratio, 1.12; 95% CI, 0.90–1.39; low-quality evidence; Table 2 and Figure 3B). In 4 studies\(^{28,39,42,41}\) the decision aid was distributed 1 to 2 weeks before the visit or assessment; in 1 study\(^{31}\) the decision aid was distributed 1 hour before the assessment; and in 1 study\(^{30}\) the decision aid was distributed 8 months before the visit.

Actual Screening Decision
The frequency with which men choose to undergo prostate cancer screening ranged from 5% to 94% (median, 49%) in usual care groups and 5% to 90% in decision aid groups (median, 49%). The pooled analysis from 13 studies demonstrated no association in men's decision to undergo or not undergo prostate cancer screening between the decision aid and usual care groups (risk ratio, 0.95; 95% CI, 0.88–1.03; low-quality evidence; Table 2 and Figure 3C).

Satisfaction With Decision
Three studies\(^{29,40,41}\) reported men's satisfaction with their decision; 2 of these studies used the Satisfaction with Decision Scale\(^{29,45,46}\) and 1\(^{41}\) used a Likert scale. Two studies reported no difference in satisfaction between the intervention and control groups.\(^{40,46}\) One study\(^{29}\) reported that men in both the group that received a printed decision aid (odds ratio [OR], 1.79; 95% CI, 1.41–2.29) and the group that received a web-based decision aid (OR, 1.29; 95% CI, 1.02–1.66) were more likely to report high satisfaction at 1 month of follow-up compared with usual care (high satisfaction reported by 60.4% in the printed decision aid group and 52.2% in the web decision aid group compared with 45.5% in the control group). This difference persisted compared with the usual care group for the printed decision aid group (OR, 1.29; 95% CI, 1.01–1.66) but not for the web-based decision aid group (OR, 1.04; 95% CI, 0.81–1.34) at 13 months of follow-up. Furthermore, participants with printed material reported significantly greater satisfaction than with web material at 1 month (OR, 1.38; 95% CI, 1.07–1.77) but not at 13 months (OR, 1.24; 95% CI, 0.96–1.60). None of these studies examined whether satisfaction varied by whether the decision aid was distributed before or after the visit.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Men Randomized, No.</th>
<th>Type of Intervention</th>
<th>Men Randomized, No.</th>
<th>Age, y</th>
<th>Recruitment Years</th>
<th>Overall Risk of Bias</th>
<th>IPDASi Score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stamm et al, 2017 United States</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>Group 1: printed leaflet; group 2: printed leaflet and shared decision-making</td>
<td>Group 1: 113; group 2: 110</td>
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<td>106</td>
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<td>Landrey et al, 2013 United States</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>Printed leaflet</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>2009-2010</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor et al, 2013 United States</td>
<td>1893</td>
<td>Group 1: printed booklet; group 2: computer based</td>
<td>Group 1: 630; group 2: 631</td>
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<td>632</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>2007-2010</td>
<td>High</td>
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<td>Lepore et al, 2012 United States</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>Telephone education and printed booklet</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>NR</td>
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<td>Sheridan et al, 2012 United States</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>Video, printed leaflet, and individual education</td>
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<td>70</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>Low</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chan et al, 2011 United States</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>Group education: video, printed booklet, script, and slides</td>
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<td>157</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<td>Allen et al, 2010 United States</td>
<td>2615</td>
<td>Computer based</td>
<td>1118</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>1497</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>High</td>
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<td>Evans et al, 2010 United Kingdom</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>Group 1: computer based; group 2: printed booklet</td>
<td>Group 1: 129; group 2: 126</td>
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<td>259</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>2008</td>
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<td>Rubel et al, 2010 United States</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>Printed booklet</td>
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<td>NR</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Low</td>
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<td>Frosch et al, 2008 United States</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>Group 1: computer-based chronic disease trajectory model; group 2: computer-based traditional model; group 3: computer-based combination of both 1 and 2</td>
<td>Group 1: 153; group 2: 155; group 3: 152</td>
<td>Group 1: 58; group 2: 59; group 3: 59</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2005-2006</td>
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<td>Husaini et al, 2008 United States</td>
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<td>Group education: video, printed leaflet, and teaching session</td>
<td>235</td>
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<td>Stephens et al, 2008 United States</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>Printed booklet</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>NR</td>
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<td>Low</td>
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<td>497</td>
<td>Group 1: printed booklet; group 2: computer based</td>
<td>Group 1: 196; group 2: 226</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>2002-2004</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
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<td>Taylor et al, 2006 United States</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>Group 1: video; group 2: printed booklet</td>
<td>Group 1: 95; group 2: 98</td>
<td>Group 1: 56; group 2: 57</td>
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<td>Watson et al, 2006 United Kingdom</td>
<td>1960</td>
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<td>980</td>
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<td>Partin et al, 2004 United States</td>
<td>1152</td>
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<td>Group 1: 384; group 2: 384</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>68</td>
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<td>342</td>
<td>Printed leaflet</td>
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<td>Individual education: verbal and printed</td>
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<td>80</td>
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<td>80</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: IPDASi, International Patient Decision Aid Standards instrument, version 3; NA, not applicable; NR, not reported.

*Cluster randomized trial.
Table 2. GRADE Evidence Profile: Decision Aid vs Usual Care for Prostate Cancer Screening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Assessment</th>
<th>Summary of Findings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relative Effect (95% CI)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Decisional Conflict</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge (short-term; percentage correct)</td>
<td>Decision aid increased discussion about prostate cancer screening by 38% (from 9% to 73% increase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledges (short-term; continuous)</td>
<td>Decision aid increased screening discussion by 12% (from 10% decrease to 39% increase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening Discussion</td>
<td>Decision aid decreased discussion about prostate cancer screening by 5% (from 13% decrease to 4% increase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual Screening Decision</td>
<td>Decision aid decreased screening by 38% (from 9% to 73% increase)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: GRADE, Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations; NA, not applicable.
<sup>a</sup> Of the 5 studies, 3 (60%) were at high risk of bias, and 2 (40%) were at low risk of bias (Table 1; eFigure 2 in the Supplement).
<sup>b</sup> The low quality of the rating reflects concerns in 2 domains: risk of bias and imprecision.
<sup>c</sup> Of the 8 studies, 6 (75%) were at high risk of bias, and 2 (25%) were at low risk of bias (Table 1; eFigure 2 in the Supplement).
<sup>d</sup> Of the 6 studies, 5 (83%) were at high risk of bias, and 1 (17%) was at low risk of bias (Table 1; eFigure 2 in the Supplement).
<sup>e</sup> The moderate quality of rating reflects concerns in 2 domains: risk of bias and imprecision.
<sup>f</sup> Of the 6 studies, 4 (67%) were at high risk of bias, and 2 (33%) were at low risk of bias (Table 1; eFigure 2 in the Supplement).
<sup>g</sup> Of the 13 studies, 11 (85%) were at high risk of bias, and 2 (15%) were at low risk of bias (Table 1; eFigure 2 in the Supplement).

Discussion

Main Findings

To examine the association of prostate cancer screening decision aids with decisional outcomes and screening decisions, we pooled data from 19 trials. Low-quality evidence suggests that decision aids are associated with an improvement in men's knowledge regarding prostate cancer screening, and moderate-quality evidence suggests that decision aids are associated with a small decrease in decisional conflict. Overall, decision aids proved to not be statistically significantly associated with whether physicians and patients discussed prostate cancer screening, or with men's decision to undergo or not undergo screening (low-quality evidence). The decision aids used in these studies provided most of the crucial information (benefits and harms of screening) but typically omitted test properties of the screening tests.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

Strengths of our study include a comprehensive search, duplicate assessment of eligibility and data extraction, appraisal of risk of bias, use of outcomes that are important to patients, and evaluation of decision aids using the IPDASi instrument. To increase the precision of estimates, whenever possible, we conducted meta-analyses using appropriate statistical methods. The GRADE approach was applied to assess the quality of evidence for each outcome (Table 2).

Limitations of our review are largely those of the available literature. First, we were not able to use all studies: in 26
studies, there was no usual care control group, 5 studies did not report on any of our outcomes, and 1 study had very low adherence to the decision aid (eTable 3 in the Supplement). Second, we were able to conduct IPDASi evaluation in only 12 decision aids used in 13 studies. Third, most trials were performed before major PSA trials—ERSPC2; Prostate, Lung, Colorectal, and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial; and Cluster Randomized Trial of PSA Testing for Prostate Cancer6—provided data (Figure 1 in the Supplement). Fourth, different instruments were used for assessment of knowledge. Fifth, we found only low-quality evidence for the association of decision aids with knowledge, whether a screening discussion was conducted, or patients’ decisions whether to undergo screening. Furthermore, many available decision aids have not undergone formal testing in randomized trials.

Association With Other Studies
Three previous systematic reviews have investigated decision aids for prostate cancer screening.47-49 One review published more than 10 years ago addressed different questions and did not include 14 studies included in our review.47

A systematic review published in 2015 concluded that decision aids increase patient knowledge and confidence in decision-making regarding prostate cancer testing.48 This review included 13 studies, of which we did not include 6 studies50-54 because of the lack of a standard care control group, but it failed to include 12 trials that proved to be eligible in our systematic review: 11 RCTs of decision aids that were reported before the publication of their review and apparently met their eligibility criteria28,35-41,43-45 and one study27 that was published after their review appeared. The authors failed to conduct a meta-analysis.48

Ivlev and colleagues49 have published the most recent systematic review on prostate cancer screening patient decision aids and concluded that integration of decision aids in clinical practice may result in a decrease in the number of men who elect to undergo PSA testing, which may in turn reduce screening uptake. Support for this statement came from an analysis of intent to screen (risk ratio, 0.88; 95% CI, 0.81-0.95). Their meta-analysis of 2 RCTs that addressed men’s actual decision found, however, no difference between the decision aid and usual care groups (risk ratio, 0.92; 95% CI, 0.62-1.36) and is consistent with our analysis of 13 RCTs (risk ratio, 0.95; 95% CI, 0.88-1.03).

The review by Ivlev et al49 included 13 RCTs and 5 observational studies; to avoid bias associated with prognostic imbalance, we restricted our eligible studies to RCTs. Of the RCTs that Ivlev and colleagues49 included, we did not include 3 studies54-56 because they did not have a standard care control group and 1 study47 because it lacked our prespecified outcomes. The review by Ivlev et al49 failed to include 10 of our 19 eligible trials: 3 trials29,31,33 were considered—contrary to our judgment—as not having a decision aid group, 3 trials29,35,38 were excluded because they did not meet their eligibility criteria of reporting immediate or deferred intention or utilization data, 1 trial44 was excluded without explanation, and
### A Decisional conflict

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Decision Aid, Mean (SE)</th>
<th>No Decision Aid, Mean (SE)</th>
<th>Mean Difference (95% CI)</th>
<th>Favors Decision Aid</th>
<th>Favors No Decision Aid</th>
<th>Weight, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Davison et al, 1999</td>
<td>44.56 (0.79)</td>
<td>55.00 (0.70)</td>
<td>-10.44 (-16.10 to -4.77)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krist et al, 2007</td>
<td>81.58 (1.08)</td>
<td>83.16 (3.34)</td>
<td>-1.58 (-8.46 to 5.31)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>Stephens et al, 2008</td>
<td>49.25 (0.53)</td>
<td>50.25 (0.61)</td>
<td>-1.00 (-2.57 to 0.57)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen et al, 2010</td>
<td>-11.00 (2.89)</td>
<td>-8.00 (2.96)</td>
<td>-3.00 (-11.12 to 5.12)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor et al, 2012</td>
<td>34.15 (1.64)</td>
<td>39.85 (1.64)</td>
<td>-5.70 (-10.24 to -1.16)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneity: P &lt; 0.01, I² = 75%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### B Screening discussion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Decision Aid, No./Total No.</th>
<th>No Decision Aid, No./Total No.</th>
<th>Risk Ratio (95% CI)</th>
<th>Favors No Decision Aid</th>
<th>Favors Decision Aid</th>
<th>Weight, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wilt et al, 2001</td>
<td>36/163</td>
<td>27/179</td>
<td>1.46 (0.93 to 2.29)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partin et al, 2004</td>
<td>114/302</td>
<td>90/290</td>
<td>1.22 (0.98 to 1.53)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krist et al, 2007</td>
<td>208/211</td>
<td>73/75</td>
<td>1.01 (0.97 to 1.05)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheridan et al, 2012</td>
<td>39/58</td>
<td>51/70</td>
<td>0.90 (0.71 to 1.14)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lepore et al, 2012</td>
<td>34/215</td>
<td>18/216</td>
<td>1.90 (1.11 to 3.26)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landrey et al, 2013</td>
<td>51/71</td>
<td>48/77</td>
<td>1.15 (0.92 to 1.44)</td>
<td>18</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneity: P = 0.03, I² = 60%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.12 (0.90 to 1.39)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### C Actual screening decision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Decision Aid, No./Total No.</th>
<th>No Decision Aid, No./Total No.</th>
<th>Risk Ratio (95% CI)</th>
<th>Favors No Screening Choice</th>
<th>Favors Screening Choice</th>
<th>Weight, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Davison et al, 1999</td>
<td>28/50</td>
<td>21/50</td>
<td>1.33 (0.88-2.00)</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volk et al, 1999</td>
<td>24/70</td>
<td>37/67</td>
<td>0.62 (0.42-0.92)</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wilt et al, 2001</td>
<td>51/163</td>
<td>66/179</td>
<td>0.85 (0.63-1.14)</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partin et al, 2004</td>
<td>202/302</td>
<td>203/290</td>
<td>0.96 (0.86-1.07)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krist et al, 2007</td>
<td>166/194</td>
<td>66/70</td>
<td>0.91 (0.84-0.99)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frosch et al, 2008</td>
<td>110/123</td>
<td>100/107</td>
<td>0.96 (0.89-1.04)</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Husaini et al, 2008</td>
<td>35/101</td>
<td>15/53</td>
<td>1.22 (0.74-2.02)</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evans et al, 2010</td>
<td>6/124</td>
<td>13/249</td>
<td>0.90 (0.35-2.34)</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lepore et al, 2012</td>
<td>153/244</td>
<td>164/246</td>
<td>0.94 (0.82-1.07)</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheridan et al, 2012</td>
<td>11/58</td>
<td>29/70</td>
<td>0.46 (0.25-0.84)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landrey et al, 2013</td>
<td>85/136</td>
<td>86/147</td>
<td>1.07 (0.89-1.29)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor et al, 2013</td>
<td>205/496</td>
<td>212/530</td>
<td>1.04 (0.90-1.21)</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stamm et al, 2017</td>
<td>29/86</td>
<td>26/81</td>
<td>1.06 (0.69-1.63)</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Heterogeneity: P = 0.09, I² = 36%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.95 (0.88-1.03)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 trials\(^{37,40,43}\) were either not identified by their search or were excluded during title and abstract screening (not possible to distinguish which reason). Other differences included our measuring of screening discussions and reporting a meta-analysis of decisional conflict, which were not in the review by Ivlev et al.\(^{49}\) Ivlev and colleagues\(^{46}\) stated in their methods (including PROSPERO CRD42017060606) that they used the GRADE approach\(^{21}\); however, they provided evidence quality for only 2 outcomes: intention to undergo PSA testing and knowledge. Our judgments applying the GRADE approach\(^{21}\) included all outcomes and differed from the review by Ivlev et al.\(^{49}\) regarding knowledge because we considered the failure to use blinded assessments as a reason to rate the quality of evidence downward and they did not.

**Implications for Clinicians and Policymakers, and Future Directions**

Our results suggest modest and uncertain associations between existing decision aids and key outcomes: a possible increase in knowledge and likely a small decrease in decisional
Conflict but no apparent association with whether physicians and patients discussed prostate cancer screening or with men’s decision to undergo or not undergo prostate cancer screening. Many prostate cancer screening decision aids are available online, but only a few have undergone formal testing. All decision aids included in our review provided education to patients, and all but 1 decision aid failed to show clear facilitation of screening discussions (ie, shared decision-making).14 The results demonstrate a lack of prostate cancer decision aids specifically geared toward or successful in facilitating shared decision-making.

The best available evidence suggests that PSA screening may have a small, although uncertain, benefit on prostate cancer mortality.2 Evidence shows, however, that PSA screening also harms men because of false-positive test results and overdiagnosis and overtreatment of prostate cancer.3 Before the major prostate cancer screening trials reported their results,2,5,6 there was insufficient evidence to recommend for or against screening. In our meta-analysis, only 2 trials27,28 began recruitment of patients after ERSPC and the Prostate, Lung, Colorectal, and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial had published their results (eFigure 1 in the Supplement). Although these 2 trials27,28 reported results similar to our pooled results, it is possible that decision aids with new, updated evidence summaries may have more benefit than earlier decision aids in which results were more uncertain. There is therefore a call for new trials with updated decision aids.12 In general, trustworthy decision aids require links to recent evidence-based summaries and clinical practice guidelines that carry out dynamic updating.12,14

Conclusions

Randomized clinical trials provide moderate-quality evidence that decision aids are associated with a small reduction in decisional conflict, while low-quality evidence suggests that they are associated with an increase in knowledge but not with whether physicians and patients discuss prostate cancer screening or with men’s decision to undergo or not undergo prostate cancer screening. The available evidence does not provide a compelling rationale for clinicians to use existing decision aids to facilitate shared decision-making in their discussions with men considering undergoing prostate cancer screening. Future decision aids should include provision for continuous updating and not only provide education to patients but also promote shared decision-making in the patient-physician encounter.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

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Author Contributions: Drs Rikonen and Tikkinen had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. Concept and design: Rikonen, Guyatt, Agoritsas, Montori, Tikkinen. Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: All authors.

Drafting of the manuscript: Rikonen. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: All authors.


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Additional Contributions: Theresa Byrd, DiPh, Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center, Jerome R. Hoffman, MA, MD, University of California, Los Angeles School of Medicine, Baqar A. Husaini, PhD, Tennessee State University, Alexander H. Krist, MD, MPH, Virginia Commonwealth University, Daniel Matlock, MD, University of Colorado, Melissa A. Partin, PhD, University of Minnesota, Michael S. Wilkes, MD, MPH, PhD, University of California, Davis, and Timothy J. Wilt, MD, MPH, Minneapolis Veterans Affairs Center for Chronic Diseases Outcomes checked extracted data for accuracy, provided additional information regarding the original studies, and/or provided decision aids used in the studies. They were not compensated for their contributions.

REFERENCES

Decision Aids for Prostate Cancer Screening Choice


Decision Aids for Prostate Cancer Screening—The True Potential Remains Unknown

Laura D. Scherer, PhD; Grace Lin, MD, MAS

In 2009, routine prostate cancer screening using a prostate-specific antigen (PSA) test was described as “the controversy that refuses to die.”1(p1351) Unfortunately, 10 years later, the controversy is still alive and thriving.2 Clinical trials have failed to resolve whether or to what degree screening using PSA tests help reduce prostate cancer-specific mortality, and it has long been clear that PSA screening tests increase the diagnosis of low-risk cancers and can lead to patient harm from potentially unnecessary biopsies and cancer treatment. As a result, many expert groups recommend shared decision-making (SDM) and informed patient choice for routine prostate cancer screening.3,4

Patient decision aids (DAs) have been proposed as a crucial tool for supporting SDM. In a new meta-analysis reported in this issue of JAMA Internal Medicine, Riikonen et al5 report the outcomes of DAs for prostate cancer screening relative to usual care, assessing their association with patient knowledge, decisional conflict, screening discussions, decision satisfaction, and screening decisions. The results are disappointing; compared with usual care, these DAs increased patient knowledge to some extent and decreased decisional conflict but had no effect on screening discussions, decision satisfaction, or receiving screening. The authors conclude that “the available evidence does not provide a compelling rationale for clinicians to use existing decision aids to facilitate shared decision making in their discussions with men considering undergoing prostate cancer screening.”

Although we agree that these data do not provide a persuasive case for use of the DAs included in the meta-analysis, it would be premature to conclude on the basis of these data that DAs do not and could not affect prostate cancer screening decisions. One issue that this study5 highlights is that randomized clinical trials of prostate cancer screening DAs vs usual care are heterogeneous in DA content, design, delivery, and outcome measures. For example, the only information that was common to all the DAs was the purpose of prostate cancer screening. There was considerable variation in DA presentation and measurement of patient knowledge, from a 1-page flyer received by mail, with patients’ knowledge assessed up to 3 weeks later, to an in-clinic DA intervention that included a 12-minute video and an 8-minute coaching session, with knowledge assessed immediately after these interventions.5 Furthermore, some DAs recommended that the patient talk with their doctor, while others did not, and still others actively coached patients on how to address barriers to communication just prior to their appointment. There was also heterogeneity in communication method (eg, booklets, leaflets, computer tools, video), how the DAs were implemented (eg, in clinic, by mail), and when and how the primary outcomes were assessed. Outcome measurements also varied among the studies, and the most robust outcome observed was a reduction in decisional conflict, the only outcome for which there was a standard, validated measure. Each of these factors, if de-