

PSA Screening: Shared Decision-Making Is a Flawed Approach

Kenneth W. Lin, MD, MPH

From 2012 to 2018, the US Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) recommended against performing prostate-specific antigen (PSA) testing for prostate cancer screening (D grade). At that time, the USPSTF found that PSA screening would lead to early and persistent harm from treatment (eg, erectile dysfunction, urinary incontinence, cardiovascular events, venous thromboembolism) in approximately 50 men to possibly prevent one death from prostate cancer in the long term.¹ Consequently, the USPSTF concluded that the benefits of PSA-based screening do not outweigh the harms. During these years, fewer men received PSA tests, resulting in fewer prostate biopsies and corresponding declines in prostate cancer incidence and treatment-related adverse effects.^{2,3} Due to the lower number of early-stage prostate cancer diagnoses, the proportion of men with metastatic cancer at the time of diagnosis increased from 15% to 24%.^{4,5} One study showed a small increase in the incidence of metastatic prostate cancer, although there was no change in prostate cancer deaths.^{6,7}

In 2018, the USPSTF changed its assessment. Reasoning that the increasing use of active surveillance protocols for men with low-risk prostate cancer had reduced the burden of harm, it decided that the harms of PSA screening in men 55 to 69 years of age no longer canceled out small reductions in metastatic prostate cancer and prostate cancer mortality on the population level. Because an individual is still far more likely to experience harm than benefit from PSA screening, the USPSTF currently states that “men should have an opportunity to discuss the potential benefits and harms of screening with their clinician and to incorporate their values and preferences in the decision” (C grade).⁸

As discussed in a recent article in *American Family Physician*,⁹ prostate cancer screening guidelines from the USPSTF, American Cancer Society, and American Urological Association urge family physicians to inform patients about their risk of prostate cancer; discuss potential outcomes of PSA testing, including management of positive test results; and help them to decide whether to get tested.^{8,10,11} In contrast, a systematic review of barriers and facilitators to shared decision-making for PSA

screening in primary care showed that most clinicians do not have the time or tools to follow these guidelines in practice.¹² In 2020, less than 40% of US men who received a PSA test reported having a shared decision-making conversation with their clinician.¹³ Following the 2018 USPSTF recommendation, screening increased by a greater degree in men 70 years and older than in men 55 to 69 years of age.^{14,15} Despite the USPSTF maintaining a D (do not do) recommendation in men 70 years and older, more men who have little chance of benefiting are now being screened. A study including 26 European countries demonstrated evidence of similar trends, with countries where PSA screening is widely practiced reporting many more prostate cancer cases, particularly in older men, but minimal differences in mortality compared with countries with less PSA screening.¹⁶

Decision aids are unlikely to improve this situation. Although decision aids improve congruence between informed values and screening or treatment choices in some cases,¹⁷ their effects on prostate cancer screening are modest. Systematic reviews of randomized trials found that they slightly improve patients’ short-term knowledge but have no effect on the likelihood of having a shared decision-making conversation, the decision to undergo screening, or health outcomes.¹⁸⁻²⁰ Rather than assisting patients in making prostate cancer screening choices that are congruent with their preferences and values, shared decision-making leads to “decision abdication” by overwhelming them with facts and figures while not recommending a specific course of action.^{21,22} Overall, the shared decision-making, or informed choice, approach to PSA screening in the United States and Europe has not moderated high rates of testing among those least likely to benefit and most likely to be harmed by overdiagnosis and overtreatment.²³

What if family physicians instead concentrate on screening “high-risk” groups: men with a family history of prostate cancer and Black men? This screening strategy is unlikely to meaningfully shift the balance of benefits and harms. Family history has limited usefulness as a risk factor. Much of the increased risk of prostate cancer in first-degree relatives is due to more diagnoses of indolent tumors as a result of higher rates of PSA testing.²⁴ In a multicenter cohort study, patients who had a first-degree relative with prostate cancer were only 1.4 times more likely to have high-grade prostate cancer on biopsy than patients without a family history.²⁵ Race-based screening, on the other hand, is ethically fraught and risks social stigmatization, racial mislabeling, and exacerbation of current health disparities by introducing unnecessary harms, because the only two randomized

KENNETH W. LIN, MD, MPH, Lancaster General Hospital Family Medicine Residency, Pennsylvania

Author disclosure: No relevant financial relationships.

Address correspondence to Kenneth W. Lin, MD, MPH, at kenneth.lin@georgetown.edu.

trials that found PSA screening benefits included very few Black men.²⁶⁻²⁸ The higher prostate cancer mortality in Black men compared with other races has underlying structural causes, such as differential access to high-quality care and economic opportunity, that screening does not address.^{26,29}

Since its premature introduction as a screening test in the early 1990s, PSA has remained in the repertoire of preventive care because no one has come up with a more beneficial alternative. Even though this test's flaws, including poor accuracy and the cascade of interventions that follow a positive result,³⁰ are well established, guideline developers have assumed that shared decision-making would limit the population of men being screened to those prepared to endure the lifelong monitoring and interventions that follow a positive PSA result. The preponderance of the evidence has not reflected this assumption. The net population benefit of prostate cancer screening is too small—particularly in men older than 70 years—to justify continuing this failed approach. Rather than treating PSA as an elective test and trying unsuccessfully to present “both sides” of the screening decision, primary care physicians should go back to discouraging its use.

Editor's Note: Dr. Lin is deputy editor of *AFP*.

REFERENCES

- Lin KW, Ebell MH. How to counsel men about PSA screening. *Am Fam Physician*. 2016;94(10):782-784.
- Fleshner K, Carlsson SV, Roobol MJ. The effect of the USPSTF PSA screening recommendation on prostate cancer incidence patterns in the USA. *Nat Rev Urol*. 2017;14(1):26-37.
- Kearns JT, Holt SK, Wright JL, et al. PSA screening, prostate biopsy, and treatment of prostate cancer in the years surrounding the USPSTF recommendation against prostate cancer screening. *Cancer*. 2018;124(13):2733-2739.
- Oke JL, Welch HG. Deceptive shifts in cancer stage distribution. *BMJ Evid Based Med*. 2024;29(1):47-49.
- Butler SS, Muralidhar V, Zhao SG, et al. Prostate cancer incidence across stage, NCCN risk groups, and age before and after USPSTF Grade D recommendations against prostate-specific antigen screening in 2012. *Cancer*. 2020;126(4):717-724.
- Desai MM, Cacciamani GE, Gill K, et al. Trends in incidence of metastatic prostate cancer in the US. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2022;5(3):e222246.
- Welch HG, Albertsen PC. Reconsidering prostate cancer mortality—the future of PSA screening. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;382(16):1557-1563.
- US Preventive Services Task Force. Final recommendation statement. Prostate cancer: screening. May 08, 2018. Accessed August 29, 2024. <https://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/uspstf/recommendation/prostate-cancer-screening>
- Xu J, McPharlin S, Mulhem E. Prostate cancer screening: common questions and answers. *Am Fam Physician*. 2024;110(5):493-499.
- Wolf AMD, Wender RC, Etzioni RB, et al.; American Cancer Society guideline for the early detection of prostate cancer: update 2010. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2010;60(2):70-98.
- Wei JT, Barocas D, Carlsson S, et al. Early detection of prostate cancer: AUA/SUO guideline part I: prostate cancer screening. *J Urol*. 2023;210(1):46-53.
- Estevan-Vilar M, Parker LA, Caballero-Romeu JP, et al. Barriers and facilitators of shared decision-making in prostate cancer screening in primary care: a systematic review. *Prev Med Rep*. 2023;37:102539.
- Golijanin B, Bhatt V, Homer A, et al. “Shared decision-making” for prostate cancer screening: is it a marker of quality preventative healthcare? *Cancer Epidemiol*. 2024;88:102492.
- Leapman MS, Wang R, Park H, et al. Changes in prostate-specific antigen testing relative to the revised US Preventive Services Task Force recommendation on prostate cancer screening. *JAMA Oncol*. 2022;8(1):41-47.
- Kensler KH, Mao J, Davuluri M. Frequency of guideline-discordant prostate cancer screening among older males. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2024;7(4):e248487.
- Vaccarella S, Li M, Bray F, et al. Prostate cancer incidence and mortality in Europe and implications for screening activities: population based study. *BMJ*. 2024;386:e077738.
- Stacey D, Lewis KB, Smith M, et al. Decision aids for people facing health treatment or screening decisions. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2024;(1):CD001431.
- Riikonen JM, Guyatt GH, Kilpeläinen TP, et al. Decision aids for prostate cancer screening choice: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2019;179(8):1072-1082.
- Martínez-González NA, Neuner-Jehle S, Plate A, et al. The effects of shared decision-making compared to usual care for prostate cancer screening decisions: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Cancer*. 2018;18:1015.
- Pekala KR, Shill DK, Austria M, et al. Shared decision-making before prostate cancer screening decisions. *Nat Rev Urol*. 2024;21:329-338.
- Vickers AJ, Bennett P. “Sensemaking” to aid shared decision making in clinical practice: a personal response to information overload and decision abdication. *Med Decis Making*. 2024;44(6):607-610.
- Skolnik N. No wonder no one trusts us. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2017;177(9):1253.
- Vickers A, O'Brien F, Montorsi F, et al. Current policies on early detection of prostate cancer create overdiagnosis and inequity with minimal benefit. *BMJ*. 2023;381:e071082.
- Bratt O, Garmo H, Adolfsson J, et al. Effects of prostate-specific antigen testing on familial prostate cancer risk estimates. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2010;102(17):1336-1343.
- Clements MB, Vertosick EA, Guerrios-Rivera L, et al. Defining the impact of family history on detection of high-grade prostate cancer in a large multi-institutional cohort. *Eur Urol*. 2022;82(2):163-169.
- Arenas-Gallo C, Michie M, Jones N, et al. Race-based screening under the public health ethics microscope—the case of prostate cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2024;391(5):468-474.
- Mülder DT, O'Mahony JF, Doubeni CA, et al. The ethics of cancer screening based on race and ethnicity. *Ann Intern Med*. 2024;177(9):1259-1264.
- Bratt O, Auvinen A, Godtman RA, et al. Screening for prostate cancer: evidence, ongoing trials, policies and knowledge gaps. *BMJ Oncol*. 2023;(2):e000039.
- Welch HG, Adamson AS. Should recommendations for cancer screening differentiate on race? *NEJM Evid*. 2022;1(6):EVIDe2200070.
- Ganguli I. Curbing cascades of care: what they are and how to stop them. *Am Fam Physician*. 2022;105(3):228-229. ■