BMJ Open

BMJ Open is committed to open peer review. As part of this commitment we make the peer review history of every article we publish publicly available.

When an article is published we post the peer reviewers' comments and the authors' responses online. We also post the versions of the paper that were used during peer review. These are the versions that the peer review comments apply to.

The versions of the paper that follow are the versions that were submitted during the peer review process. They are not the versions of record or the final published versions. They should not be cited or distributed as the published version of this manuscript.

BMJ Open is an open access journal and the full, final, typeset and author-corrected version of record of the manuscript is available on our site with no access controls, subscription charges or payper-view fees (http://bmjopen.bmj.com).

If you have any questions on BMJ Open's open peer review process please email editorial.bmjopen@bmj.com

BMJ Open

Study Protocol for Developing a Barbershop-Based Trial on Masculinity Barriers to Care and Colorectal Cancer Screening Uptake among African-American Men Using an Exploratory Sequential Mixed-Methods Design

Journal:	BMJ Open
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2019-030000
Article Type:	Protocol
Date Submitted by the Author:	22-Feb-2019
Complete List of Authors:	Rogers, Charles; University of Utah School of Medicine, Family & Preventive Medicine Okuyemi, Kola; University of Utah School of Medicine, Family & Preventive Medicine Paskett, Electra; Ohio State University, Internal Medicine, College of Medicine Thorpe Jr, RJ; Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Program for Research on Men's Health Rogers, Tiana; University of Utah Eccles School of Business, Sorenson Impact Center Hung, Man; Roseman University of Health Sciences South Jordan Campus Zickmund, Susan; University of Utah, Internal Medicine Riley, Colin; University of Utah School of Medicine, Family & Preventive Medicine Fetters, Micheal; University of Michigan Medical School, Family Medicine
Keywords:	African-Americans, colonic neoplasms, community-based participatory research, men's health, minority health

SCHOLARONE™ Manuscripts

Study Protocol for Developing a Barbershop-Based Trial on Masculinity Barriers to Care and Colorectal Cancer Screening Uptake among African-American Men Using an Exploratory Sequential Mixed-Methods Design

Charles R. Rogers, PhD, MPH, MS, CHES®*
Department of Family & Preventive Medicine
University of Utah School of Medicine
375 Chipeta Way, Suite A
Salt Lake City, Utah 84108
USA

Work: +1.801.581.5752

Email: charles.rogers@utah.edu

Kola Okuyemi, MD, MPH
Department of Family & Preventive Medicine
University of Utah School of Medicine
375 Chipeta Way, Suite A
Salt Lake City, Utah 84108
USA

Email: kola.okuyemi@hsc.utah.edu

Electra D. Paskett, PhD
Department of Internal Medicine, College of Medicine
The Ohio State University
1590 North High St, Suite 525
Columbus, Ohio 43201
USA

Email: electra.paskett@osumc.edu

Roland J. Thorpe, Jr., PhD Program for Research on Men's Health Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health 624 North Broadway, Suite 708 Baltimore, Maryland 21205 USA

Email: rthorpe@jhu.edu

Tiana N. Rogers, PhD Sorenson Impact Center University of Utah Eccles School of Business 85 Fort Douglas Blvd, Bldg 602 Salt Lake City, Utah 84112 USA

Email: tiana.rogers@sorensonimpact.com

Man Hung, PhD, MS College of Dental Medicine Roseman University of Health Sciences 10920 South River Front Pkwy South Jordan, Utah 84095 USA

Email: mhung@roseman.edu

Susan Zickmund, PhD
Department of Internal Medicine
University of Utah
500 Foothill Dr.
Salt Lake City, Utah 84148
USA

Email: susan.zickmund@va.gov

Colin Riley, BSN, RN
Department of Family & Preventive Medicine
University of Utah School of Medicine
375 Chipeta Way, Suite A
Salt Lake City, Utah 84108
USA

Email: colin.riley@utah.edu

Michael D. Fetters, MD, MPH, MA
Department of Family Medicine
University of Michigan Medical School
1018 Fuller St.
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104
USA

Email: mfetters@med.umich.edu

*Corresponding Author

Issue date: 22 Feb 2019

Word count (excluding title page, abstract, references, figures and tables): 4,299

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Colorectal cancer (CRC) is preventable, as screening leads to identification and removal of pre-cancerous polyps. African-American men consistently have the highest CRC mortality rates, and their CRC screening uptake remains low for complex reasons. Culture-specific masculinity barriers to care may contribute to the low uptake among African-American men. Examining these barriers to care is vital as CRC screening may challenge cultural role expectations of African-American men, whose tendency is to delay help-seeking medical care. Barbershops provide a pathway for reaching African-American men with masculinity barriers to care who are not regularly receiving healthcare services and CRC screening, specifically. This study aims to develop and pilot-test a theory-driven, culture-specific, barbershop-based intervention specifically targeting masculinity barriers to care and CRC screening uptake among African-American men ages 45–75.

Methods and analysis: Guided by the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Behaviour Change Wheel, we will use a multi-stage mixed-methods study design, beginning with an exploratory sequential approach to validate items for subsequent use in a pilot mixed-methods intervention. First, we will collect and analyze qualitative data from focus groups and cognitive interviews to validate and test a culture-specific Masculinity Barriers to Care Scale (MBCS) among African-American men. Next, we will administered the MBCS to our target population as an online quantitative survey and evaluate the association between scores and CRC screening uptake. Then, we will consider existing evidence-based approaches, our integrated results (qualitative+quantitative), and community input to design a culture-specific, behavioral intervention aimed at increasing CRC screening uptake among African-American men and

feasible for barbershop delivery. We will test the peer intervention in a pilot study with a 2-arm cluster-randomized design (6 barbershops, randomized by site) to reduce contamination and account for barbershop culture differences. Our primary outcomes for the pilot study are recruitment, sample size estimation, preliminary efficacy, and acceptability.

Keywords: African-Americans, colonic neoplasms, community-based participatory research, men's health, minority health

Ethics and dissemination: Ethics approval was obtained from the University of Utah Institutional Review Board (00113679). Study results will be disseminated through publications in peer-reviewed journals, community dialogue sessions, and presentations at conferences.

Registration: ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT03733197; https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03733197

Article Summary

Strengths and limitations

By drawing on constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Behaviour Change
 Wheel, our study will be among the first to offer a structured approach to designing a
 behavior-change–focused, culture-specific arm for our pilot intervention, while taking into
 account a range of psychosocial factors associated with CRC screening among African American men.

- Our study proposes a new, culture-specific Masculinity Barriers to Care Scale for understanding and reducing CRC screening disparities among African-American men.
- Given the rising CRC burden among young adults, our study engages African-American men starting at age 45 years.
- Though self-report questionnaires are a common behavioral-science methodology, social desirability and non-response bias are potential concerns that we will offset by testing the reliability and validity of the data, while collecting it electronically and securely.
- Additional research will be needed to ascertain the generalizability of the findings to other settings, since this study limits involvement to African-American men from 2 metropolitan areas in Utah and Minnesota.

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is one of the most treatable and preventable cancers. Despite CRC screening's life-saving potential, however, nearly 28% of Americans aged 50–75 years have not received timely screening.[1] Across all gender and racial/ethnic groups, African-American men have the highest CRC mortality and shortest survival.[2] In 2010, national CRC screening uptake rates among African Americans (56%) were significantly lower than among non-Hispanic whites (62%).[3,4,5] CRC incidence and mortality rates are 27% and 52% higher, respectively, among African-American men than among non-Hispanic white men.[2,6] *Recommendations for CRC Screening*

The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force endorses a CRC-screening age range of 50–75 years for average-risk men and screening initiation at age 40 years for those with a family history of CRC.[7] Because African-American men are more likely than non-Hispanic white men to be diagnosed at both a younger age and a more-advanced disease stage,[3] the American College of Gastroenterology has lowered its recommended age of screening initiation to 45 years for African-American men.[2,3,8] The proportion of CRC cases diagnosed in individuals aged under 55 years has doubled in the past 2 decades, and CRC incidence among younger adults (aged 35–49 years), including African-American men, is predicted to increase 28% to 46% by 2030.[9] *Masculinity may contribute to low CRC screening*

Masculinity is an important aspect of gendered and cultural identity for men[10-12] and plays a critical role in African-American men's healthcare use, health behaviors, and mortality.[13-17] Because CRC screening challenges some cultural role expectations of African-American men, who tend to delay seeking medical care, examination of masculinity barriers to care is perilous. However, the specific influence of cultural masculinity perceptions on African-

American men's CRC screening rates is not well studied. An unacknowledged sense of vulnerability that conflicts with culturally accepted gender norms is also often inherent in men's experience of CRC screening. Further, no validated masculinity measures have been developed for African-American men in the context of CRC screening uptake or medical care.[18-20]

Low CRC screening rates may be influenced by psychosocial factors

Consideration of how psychosocial factors relate to CRC screening uptake is also critical. Previous research[18,21-24] with African-American men has documented the influence of factors such as attitudes, knowledge, racism, and perceived barriers (e.g., embarrassment, fear) on CRC screening. Medical mistrust is a widely cited attitudinal barrier to CRC screening and treatment seeking[23,25,26] and is related to the low health services utilization among African-American men,[23] yet it is unclear whether trust-related barriers are related to CRC screening.[18,25-30] Previous research suggests that inadequate existing validated measures and biases toward Western culture (norms, values, customs, etc., associated with Europe and European descent) may explain the absence of a significant association between masculinity and CRC screening attitudes among African-American men.[18,21-24,31] In a systematic review of the literature examining connections between masculinity, racism, social support, and CRC screening uptake among African-American men,[7] few studies have examined how masculinity relates to poor CRC screening uptake and, of these, none used validated measures.

Barbershops serving African-American men are favorable settings for reaching our target population.[32] Previous multi-component, barbershop-based trials have been conducted with African-American men on HIV risk reduction, prostate cancer education, heart disease control, and hypertension detection.[33-35] Few trials of CRC screening uptake among African-

Barbershops as a site for interventions to improve CRC screening

American men have found significant results. The MISTER B study, the first and to date only barbershop-based CRC screening trial, tested a phone-based patient-navigation intervention to urge CRC screening among older (mean age 57 years), low-income African-American men with uncontrolled hypertension.[36] Intervention completion was associated with a 16-fold increase in the odds of CRC screening uptake by 6 months; however, although nearly 70% of participants voiced the intent to obtain colonoscopy screening in the next 6 months, only 17% in the intervention groups and 8% in the control group did so. Our study will help fill this gap between uptake and intention by creating a new, culture-specific intervention that directly addresses masculinity barriers to care, psychosocial factors, and CRC screening uptake among African-American men beginning at age 45, then test its feasibility and acceptability in a cluster-randomized pilot intervention (at the barbershop level).

Study objectives

Disparities associated with CRC screening uptake for African-American men, the failure of previous interventions to significantly increase screening rates, and the novel idea of using the barbershop as an intervention setting led to the current study, with the following objectives: (1) validate and test a culture-specific Masculinity Barriers To Care Scale (MBCS) relative to psychosocial factors and CRC screening uptake among African-American men; and (2) develop and pilot-test a theory-driven, culture-specific peer intervention that targets masculinity barriers to care, psychosocial factors, and uptake of CRC screening (specifically, of the fecal immunochemical test [FIT]) among African-American men. *Culture-specific* refers to the embodiment of "an [African-American male's] real-life experiences within a given cultural context (e.g., neighborhood) and his understanding of those experiences."[37]

METHODS AND ANALYSIS

Overall Study Design

We will use a multi-stage mixed-methods design that is shown in Figure 1. We will begin with an exploratory sequential approach intended to validate items for subsequent use in a pilot mixed-methods intervention. For Objectives 1A and 1B (Years 1–2), we will collect and analyze qualitative data from focus groups and cognitive interviews to validate and test a culture-specific MBCS among African-American men. Next, we will administer the MBCS as an online quantitative survey of our target population to evaluate the association between scale scores and CRC screening uptake.

For Objective 2 (Years 3–5), we will consider existing evidence-based approaches (e.g., motivational interviewing), our integrated results (qualitative + quantitative) from Objectives 1A and 1B regarding masculinity barriers to care, and community input to design a novel, culture-specific, behavioral intervention that is (1) aimed at increasing CRC screening uptake (via FIT) among African-American men and (2) feasible for delivery in barbershops. To reduce contamination and account for differences in barbershop culture, we will pilot-test the peer intervention in a 2-arm cluster-randomized intervention (6 barbershops, with participants randomized by site). Our primary outcomes for the pilot are recruitment, sample size estimation, preliminary efficacy, and acceptability. We will also conduct post-intervention interviews with participants from both arms to evaluate acceptability (i.e., why and how each arm was or was not successful). This study protocol has received ethics approval from the University of Utah Institutional Review Board (00113679), who will also be responsible for receiving communication updates regarding important protocol modifications. To ensure confidentiality,

data dispersed to project team members will be blinded of any identifying participant information.

Patient and Public Involvement

Neither patients nor the public were involved in the design of the study.

Theoretical Foundation

A conceptual framework integrating constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) will guide our work. The TPB posits that behavior is a function of intention, which is influenced by attitudes and beliefs.[38] **Figure 2** illustrates how masculinity barriers to care and other psychosocial factors may influence CRC screening intention and uptake among African-American men. We will also assess demographic characteristics (e.g., age, marital status, health insurance status) that are known to influence African-American men's masculinity, and CRC screening perceptions and behaviors.[6,21,23,24]

Evidence-based cultural grounding to facilitate understanding of African-American men's culture and engage community stakeholders as trial-development partners is best achieved by an iterative, participatory, and reflexive research process.[39,40] Hence, we will use the Behaviour Change Wheel (BCW) as the conceptual framework driving our study's intervention-development phase. Developed from 19 behavior-change frameworks, the BCW offers a structured approach to inclusively analyzing available intervention options and designing behavior-change interventions.[41]

Setting

We will conduct this research in the Salt Lake City, Utah, and Minneapolis–St. Paul (Twin Cities), Minnesota, metro areas, regions notable for having the largest populations of African-Americans in their respective states.[42,43] Moreover, in both states, CRC screening rates among African Americans are well below statewide averages (53% vs 72% for all ethnic and racial groups combined in Utah; 57% vs 73% for both non-Hispanic whites and all ethnic and racial groups combined in Minnesota).[12-14] Nationally, African-American men exhibit a lower screening likelihood than African-American women.[3,5,44-46]

Focus Groups

Participants & Procedures

To inform MBCS development, we will conduct twelve 2-hour focus groups (a sufficient number to reach saturation),[47,48] each involving 8 men who (1) self-identify as non-Hispanic Black/African American; (2) were born in the United States; (3) are aged 45–75 years; (4) have a working telephone; (5) speak English; and (6) reside in the Salt Lake City or Twin Cities metro area. Six focus groups will be conducted in each metro area. Because participants may be more comfortable with other African-American men of similar age who either have or have not completed CRC screening, each group will be clustered by age and CRC screening status (**Table** 1). Men aged 45–49 years will be included because African-American men are diagnosed with CRC at both an earlier age and a more advanced disease stage.[3,7,8]

Table 1. Focus Group Composition					
Groups	Age Range	CRC Screening Status			
1–2	45–49	Never Completed			
3–4	50–65	Not Current			
5–6	66–75	Not Current			
7–8	45–49	Completed/Current			
9–10	50–65	Completed/Current			
10–12	66–75	Completed/Current			

We will use culture-specific marketing materials to promote the study through existing social networks, including newspaper advertisements, social media, predominantly African American churches, air time on 2 radio stations (1 in Minneapolis, 1 in Salt Lake City) with a predominantly African-American male audience, and African-American male—serving barbershops. The principal investigator (PI), CRR, has a record of success in recruiting African-American men using these strategies.[21,23,24]

Potential participants will be encouraged to visit www.cuttingCRC.com to express interest in focus-group participation. Basic demographic information will be collected (and kept confidential) to enable research-team members to contact participants by phone to confirm eligibility and discuss participation arrangements. Food and drink will be provided during each session. Each participant will receive a gift card and participants may choose to be entered into a random drawing to win 1 of 3 incentives.

Data Collection and Analyses

CRR will facilitate the focus groups, using an interview guide stemming from modifications to existing measures that examine masculinity as well as attitudes and practices precluding men from seeking healthcare access. Another team member will assist with consenting and note-taking. The 2-hour sessions will be audio-recorded with 2 voice recorders, transcribed, and checked for accuracy. De-identified transcripts will be imported into NVivo 11 software (QSR International Pty. Ltd., Melbourne, Australia). Our NVivo-proficient coding team (TNR, CRR, and the research assistant) will use constant comparative and content-analysis

methods to independently code transcripts for themes. [49,50] After identifying themes relevant to our research questions from a sample reading and initial coding, we will automate term searches, code all documents, and run reports to ascertain the code text related to study themes. NVivo can organize data by participant characteristics, allowing us to compare the responses of participants who have or have not undergone CRC screening. To interpret and discuss findings and develop a codebook depicting how our codes interrelate, we will track coding decisions in NVivo and adjudicate them at team meetings. MF and/or SZ will referee coding deviations, as needed. Key themes will be identified and incorporated into the new MBCS.[51,52] ORD,

Cognitive Interviews

Participants and Procedures

We will pilot-test the MBCS with 30 CRC advocates and survivors from across the United States (men and women who speak English, have a working telephone, and are aged 18– 75 years), using 1-hour cognitive interviews (conducted in person or by phone) to elicit input as participants respond to the survey in real time. [53,54] Interviews will probe (1) how participants understand each question and response option; (2) whether the questions are likely to elicit an honest response; (3) the clarity of question wording; (4) the user-friendliness of the online survey setup; and (5) the questions' cultural specificity. Participants will engage in a thinking-aloud process with follow-up probes such as "How did you arrive at that answer?" These approaches will improve feasibility, reduce response error, and enhance face validity (an estimate of the degree to which the scale is clearly tapping the desired construct we aim to assess, i.e., culturespecific masculinity barriers to care).[55-57] Cognitive interviews also allow us to assess participants' comfort with online survey completion via PsychData (PsychData LLC, State

College, PA), a secure, web-based application that supports data capture for research Objective 1B. Interviewees will receive a gift card. RJT will provide expert item review of the final MBCS.

Online Survey

Participants and Procedures

During Year 2, we will recruit 400 African-American men to complete an online survey, administered via smartphone, to test the relationship between masculinity barriers to care and CRC screening. Eligible respondents are men who (1) self-describe as non-Hispanic Black/African American; (2) were born in the United States; (3) are aged 45–75 years; (4) reside in the Salt Lake City or Twin Cities metro area; (5) have a telephone with internet access; and (6) speak English. With the aid of barbers and culture-specific marketing materials, we will recruit participants from African-American male–serving barbershops. Survey participants will have the opportunity to participate in drawings for 1 of 5 incentives.

Barbershops are cultural hubs of trust essential in the growth and development of African-American men. Men usually spend at least 30 minutes waiting for or getting a haircut or chatting with others in the barbershop. Using PsychData, participants will be able to complete our survey within 15 minutes on their smartphones while waiting for or getting a haircut in participating barbershops. PsychData prevents survey alterations and eliminates transcription errors.[58] The PI has a successful record of recruiting African-American men to complete surveys using mobile technology,[21,23,24] and African Americans outpace all groups for smartphone use.[59] For men who want to complete the survey but do not own a smartphone, each participating barbershop will be provided 1 smartphone courtesy of the study.

Dependent variables. We will use 2 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) questions to assess CRC screening uptake: (1) "A blood stool test is a test that may use a special kit at home to determine whether the stool contains blood. Have you ever had this test using a home kit?"; and (2) "Sigmoidoscopy and colonoscopy are exams in which a tube is inserted in the rectum to view the colon for signs of cancer or other health problems. Have you ever had either of these exams?" [60]

BMJ Open

Independent variables. In accordance with our conceptual model illustrated in Figure 2 and the PI's Male Role Norms, Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions associated with Colorectal Cancer Screening tool,[1,18,21-24] our independent variables will be masculinity barriers to care from our new scale and 5 factors known to influence CRC screening uptake among African-American men: knowledge, medical mistrust, social support, beliefs, and attitudes towards CRC and 2 CRC screening exams (FIT, colonoscopy).[13,18,24,27]

<u>Demographic covariates</u>. Age, educational level, marital status, and other covariates will be included as previous studies by the PI and others have found these factors to be related to CRC screening among African-American men.[2,18,21-24,61]

Sample Size and Power Considerations

With a sample of 400 African-American men, we will have 80% power at the 0.05 level to detect a masculinity barriers to care effect on the odds of having had CRC screening, assuming 35% of men with a masculinity barriers to care index equal to the mean have had CRC screening compared with 25% of men with a masculinity barriers to care index 1 standard deviation above the mean. We estimate that the average screening rate will be 35%, as the screening rate for African Americans is 53.1% in Utah and 52% in Minnesota and African-

American men in both states tend to have lower CRC screening rates than women. [4,6,12,42] This assumes a moderately strong relationship between the masculinity barriers to care index and confounders (i.e., $R^2 = 0.25$ for the linear model that regresses the masculinity barriers to care index on the confounders). If the relationship between the confounders and the masculinity index is weaker, the power will be higher: 82% power with $R^2 = 0.2$ and 87% power with $R^2 = 0.1$.

Power calculations were performed using PASS 15 (NCSS, LLC, Kaysville, Utah).

Data Collection and Analyses

We will test for associations between masculinity barriers to care, psychosocial factors, and CRC screening uptake. Our central hypothesis is that masculinity barriers to care will be negatively associated with CRC screening uptake. The masculinity barriers to care items emerging from Objective 1 will be utilized to create a latent variable that represents the construct being measured. The CRC screening-uptake outcome will be a binary variable that indicates whether a participant self-reported CRC screening uptake (i.e., answered Yes to either BRFSS dependent-variable question). We will fit a structural equation model with CRC screening uptake as the outcome and masculinity barriers to care as the predictor. We will adjust for potential confounders (e.g., age, educational level). We will also present the estimate and 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio comparing the odds of CRC screening uptake between participants with a 1-point difference in masculinity barriers to care scores. Descriptive statistics will summarize participants' characteristics.

Two-Arm Intervention

Integration

In an exploratory sequential—designed study, a key step is to apply the qualitative data captured in Objective 1A to assist with building Objective 1B's quantitative phase. As described by Fetters et al.,[62] we will "merge" qualitative and quantitative data from Objective 1 to identify content areas for contrasting, comparing, and synthesizing results. During the first 6 months of Year 3, 2 team members (MF and CRR) will determine to what degree and how the results from the combined qualitative and quantitative datasets yield a richer and more comprehensive understanding of the impact of masculinity barriers to care on CRC screening uptake among African-American men. Through this process, we will apply what we learn about the role of our variable of interest on CRC screening to develop a pilot intervention for overcoming these barriers.

Development

During the first 6 months of Year 3, we will adopt the BCW approach, working with Community Advisory Board members (2-hour small-group discussions via conference call and/or in person, 3 members per meeting) to develop the culture-specific intervention arm of our pilot intervention. We will use information from (1) our integrated Objective 1 results, (2) existing CRC screening intervention evidence, and (3) study-team expertise to apply the APEASE criteria (Acceptability, Practicability, Effectiveness/cost-effectiveness, Affordability, Safety/side-effects, Equity) (Table 2). Our hypothesis is that CRC screening uptake will be higher in the culture-specific arm than in the control arm.

Table 2. BCW Activities to Drive Development of Culture-Specific Trial Arm				
[1] Behavioural Diagnosis	Utilize the BCW to determine what needs to change for CRC screening uptake to increase among African-American men			
[2] Intervention Strategy	Utilize [1] to decide which intervention functions to apply (e.g.,			
<u>Selection</u>	Education, Persuasion, Enablement)			

[3] Behaviour Change Technique Identification	Develop a <u>detailed culture-specific arm plan</u> by selecting from among a range of specific, evidence-based behavior change techniques (e.g., intervention components such as barbers as motivational interviewers plus barbers distributing FIT kits; info about health consequences related to negating CRC screening).
[4] <u>Draft Full Intervention</u> <u>Specifications</u>	Create the detailed intervention specifications covering all aspects of content and delivery of the intervention structured around [3].

We anticipate that the culture-specific arm will include at least 2 core components: barbers as motivational interviewers and InSure® FIT™ kits distributed by barbers. Motivational interviewing (MI) is "a collaborative conversation style for strengthening a person's own motivation and commitment to change."[63] Telephone-based MI is an effective way to improve cancer screening among underrepresented groups. Community-member—led MI has proved successful, but it is unknown if barbers as motivational interviewers can assist with reducing CRC screening inequalities among African-American men.[64-67] Also, randomized trials have shown that the FIT is the first-choice fecal occult blood test for CRC screening, is less invasive, less costly, and may be better accepted than other CRC screening tests.[67] If we choose this route for the culture-specific arm, preliminary data from our barbers suggest that the PI may teach the barbers the MI technique using content stems from Objective 1 findings. Additional components for this arm may be developed during the APEASE process.

Based on the PI's research[18,21-24] and evidence-based strategies,[68] the control arm will include an informational CRC screening brochure developed by the American Cancer Society[69] plus a FIT kit distributed by the barbers. Since the FIT kits will be free and the study will cover postage and processing fees, participants will be able to complete screening regardless of whether they have health insurance. Participants will mail the completed FIT kits to our local

laboratory for processing. We will refer participants with positive FIT results to collaborator Huntsman Cancer Institute for a colonoscopy.

Participants and Procedures

Intervention participants will be non-Hispanic Black/African-American men (n = 60) who (1) have never completed CRC screening; (2) are aged 45–75 years; (3) were born in the United States; (4) reside in the Salt Lake City metro area; (5) have a telephone with internet access, and (6) speak English. As a feasibility intervention, sample size is not based on the power to detect a certain effect size.[65] Rather, n = 60 (30 per arm) was chosen based on practical considerations (e.g., cost, recruitment).

The intervention will comprise a *recruitment phase* and an *implementation phase*. The recruitment phase will occur during the last 6 months of Year 3. With the assistance of barbers and culture-specific marketing materials, we will enroll 10 eligible African-American men at each of 6 barbershops. At baseline, participants will complete the demographic portion of our online survey. Once total enrollment is reached and consent obtained, the 6 barbershops will be randomized to the culture-specific or control arm using a permuted block size of 6. Then the implementation phase will begin. These distinct phases provide advantages in a cluster-randomized design. First, we eliminate recruitment bias as we blind participants to the intervention at enrollment.[70] Second, the distinct phases allow each man to be exposed to the intervention for the same amount of time. We foresee the recruitment phase lasting 3 months and the implementation phase 7 months, resulting in a 10-month intervention, allowing ample time for participants to obtain CRC screening.

During the last 6 months of Year 4, our coding team will conduct exit interviews. Prior literature documents that 6 to 12 individual interviews per homogeneous group are sufficient to reach data saturation.[71,72] Thus, 18 in-depth, 60-minute participant interviews (2 participants from each of the 6 barbershops plus 3 barbers from each arm) will permit us to obtain rigorous outcomes data as well as participant accounts of what worked well and what did not.

Analyses

Descriptive statistics will summarize participants' baseline characteristics. Continuous variables will be summarized by mean (standard deviation) or median (interquartile range), and categorical variables in contingency tables. Feasibility of the study protocol will be evaluated as follows:

- 1) *Recruitment.* We will calculate the number of days needed to reach full enrollment at each barbershop, the percentage of men meeting eligibility criteria and, of those, the percentage who chose to enroll.
- 2) Sample Size Estimation. The intraclass correlation coefficient will be estimated from our study data and inflated (due to the expected downward bias) to estimate the necessary sample size for the full trial.[73]
- 3) *Preliminary Efficacy*. By treatment arm, we will calculate the percentage for whom we can ascertain FIT uptake. We will assess intervention adherence 7 months after the recruitment phase by FIT kits returned to our laboratory for processing. Because we will have only 3 barbershops per arm, no formal statistical analysis of FIT uptake will be performed. Instead, percentages for these outcomes will be calculated by barbershop. We will perform this as intent-to-treat, with men included based in the arm to which their shop was randomized. A

per-protocol analysis will also be performed. Many more barbershops are needed to accurately account for the correlation of African-American men within the same barbershop and achieve a cluster-level confounding balance.[74] In our pilot trial, a logistic mixed-effects model with a random intercept for each barbershop will be used to estimate the odds ratios comparing CRC screening uptake between our control and culture-specific arms.

4) Acceptability. After the 7-month intervention phase, we will conduct 18 post-intervention interviews to obtain rigorous outcomes data. The audio-recorded and transcribed post-intervention interviews will be analyzed by our coding team using NVivo[57] and Creswell's methods.[72] To increase our findings' internal validity, data will be triangulated or compared from the perspectives of the 2 study arms.[75]

Conclusion

African-American men have the highest CRC mortality across all gender and racial/ethnic groups. Moreover, national findings predict a 28% to 46% increase in CRC incidence among adults ages 35-49 years, including African-American men, by 2030.[9] Our study aims to aid in reducing CRC screening inequities among African-American men by creating a new, culture-specific intervention that directly addresses masculinity barriers to care, psychosocial factors, and CRC screening uptake among African-American men beginning at age 45 years. Subsequently, we will test its feasibility and acceptability in a cluster-randomized pilot intervention.

Completing our objective will provide the preliminary data needed for an R01 application to test the new intervention's efficacy in a large-scale, well-powered, cluster-randomized controlled trial. More broadly, this research will demonstrate that decisions regarding CRC

screening uptake are not detached from cultural and other influences. We will use the culture-specific survey instrument we create to more rigorously assess the association between masculinity barriers to care and CRC screening uptake. This will strengthen our scale's predictive utility while endorsing optimal health for African-American men as warranted by Healthy People 2020.[76] Additionally, our scale could be adapted for use in research on other types of cancer (e.g., prostate cancer) that disproportionately affect African-American and other underrepresented men.

Overall, our efforts will serve as a model for more culture-specific tailored approaches to prevention, diagnosis, and treatment, a goal aligned with the NCI's Cancer Moonshot initiative.

Ethics and dissemination

Signed informed consent will be obtained from all participants prior to any data collection. Study results will be disseminated through publications in peer-reviewed journals, discourse sessions with the community, and presentations at national and international professional conferences.

References

- 1 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US). Vital signs: colorectal cancer screening test use—United States. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Centers for Disease Control *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2012;62(44):881–88
- American Cancer Society. Colorectal cancer facts & figures 2017–2019.

https://www.cancer.org/content/dam/cancer-org/research/cancer-facts-and-statistics/colorectal-cancer-facts-and-figures/colorectal-cancer-facts-and-figures-2017-2019.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

- 3 Agrawal S, Bhupinderjit A., Bhutani MS, et al. Colorectal cancer in African Americans. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2005;100:515–23.
- 4 Agrawal J, Syngal S. Colon cancer screening strategies. Curr Opin Gastroenterol 2005;21(1):59–63.
- 5 Gwede CK, Ward BG, Luque JS, et al. Application of geographic information systems and asset mapping to facilitate identification of colorectal cancer screening resources. *Online J Public Health Inform* 2010;2(1):2893.
- 6 American Cancer Society. *Cancer facts & figures for African Americans 2016-2018*. http://www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemiologysurveilance/documents/document/acspc-036921.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 7 U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for colorectal cancer: U.S. preventive services task force recommendation statement. *J Am Med Assoc* 2016;315(23):2564–75. doi: 10.1001/jama.2016.5989 8 Rex DK, Johnson DA, Anderson JC, et al. American College of Gastroenterology guidelines for colorectal cancer screening 2008. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2009;104(3):1739–50.
- 9 Bailey CE, Hu CY, You YN, et al. Increasing disparities in the age-related incidences of colon and rectal cancers in the United States, 1975-2010. *JAMA Surg* 2015;150(1):17–22. doi: 10.1001/jamasurg.2014.1756.
- 10 David D, Brannon R. The male sex role: our culture's blueprint for manhood, and what it's done for us lately. In: David D, Brannon R, eds. *The Forty-Nine Percent Majority: The Male Sex Role*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley 1976:1–48.
- 11 Levant RF. The male role: an investigation of contemporary norms. *J Ment Health Couns* 1992;14(3):325–37.
- 12 Mahalik JR, Locke BD, Ludlow LH, et al. Development of the conformity to masculine norms inventory. *Psychol Men Masc* 2003;4(1):3–25.
- 13 Hammond WP, Matthews D, Mohottige D, et al. Masculinity, medical mistrust, and preventive health services delays among community-dwelling African-American men. *J Crit Care Med* 2010;25(12):1300–08. doi:10.1007/s11606-010-1481-z.

14 Courtenay WH. Constructions of masculinity and their influence on men's well-being: a theory of gender and health. *Social Science & Medicine* 2000;50:1385–401.

15 Griffith DM, Gunter K, Allen JO. (2012). A systematic approach to developing contextual, culturally, and gender-sensitive interventions for African-American men: The example of men 4 health. *Cancer disparities: Causes and evidence-based solutions*. New York, NY: Springer 2012:193–206.

16 Harrison J. Warning: The male sex role may be dangerous to your health. *J Soc Issues* 1978;34:65–86.

doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4560.1978.tb02541.x

17 Marcell AV, Ford CA, Pleck JH, et al. Masculine beliefs, parental communication, and male adolescents' health care use. *Pediatrics* 2007;119:966–75.

18 Rogers CR, Mitchell JA, Franta GJ, et al. Masculinity, racism, social support, and colorectal cancer screening uptake among African American men: a systematic review. *Am J Mens Health* 2017;11(5):1486–1500. doi:10.1177/1557988315611227

19 Winterich JA, Quandt SA, Grzywacz JG, et al. Masculinity and the body: how African-American and White men experience cancer screening exams involving the rectum. *Am J Mens Health* 2009:3(4):300–09.

20 Beeker C, Kraft JM, Southwell BG, et al. Colorectal cancer screening in older men and women: qualitative research findings and implications for intervention. *J Community Health* 2000;25(3):263–78. 21 Rogers CR, Goodson P, Obidike OJ. Measuring factors associated with colorectal cancer screening among young adult African American men: a psychometric study. *J Immigr Minor Health* 2018;20(1):101–06. doi:10.1007/s10903-016-0523-y [published Online First: 4 November 2016]. 22 Rogers CR, Goodson P, Foster MJ. Factors associated with colorectal cancer screening among younger African American men: a systematic review. *J Health Dispar Res Pract* 2015;8(1):133–56. http://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/jhdrp/vol8/iss3/8 (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

23 Rogers CR, Goodson P. Male role norms, knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions of colorectal cancer screening among young adult African American men. *Front in Public Health* 2014;2(52):1–12. doi:10.3389/fpubh.2014.00252

- 24 Rogers CR, Goodson P, Dietz LR, et al. Predictors of intention to obtain colorectal cancer screening among African American men in a state fair setting. *Am J Mens Health*, 2016:1–12. doi:0.1177/1557988316647942
- 25 McKinstry B, Ashcroft RE, Car J, et al. Interventions for improving patients' trust in doctors and groups of doctors. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2006;3:1–26. doi:10.1002/14651858.CD004134.pub2 26 LaVeist TA, Nickerson KJ, Bowie JV. Attitudes about racism, medical mistrust, and satisfaction with care among African American and white cardiac patients. *Med Care Res Rev* 2000;57:146–61.
- 27 Adams LB, Richmond J, Corbie-Smith G, et al. Medical mistrust and colorectal cancer screening among African Americans. *J Community Health* 2017;42(5):1044–61. doi:10.1007/s10900-017-0339-2 28 Griffith DM, Johnson JL. Implications of racism for African American men's cancer risk, morbidity, and mortality. In: Treadwell HM, Xantos C, Holden CB, eds. *Social determinants of health among African-American men*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass 2013:21–38.
- 29 Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation. Fact sheet: the health status of African American men in the United States. http://www.kff.org/minorityhealth/upload/7630.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 30 Griffith DM, Gunter K, Watkins DC. Measuring masculinity in research on men of color: findings and future directions. *Am J Public Health*, 2012;102(S2):S187–S194.
- 31 Airhihenbuwa CO. *Health and Culture: Beyond the Western Paradigm*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications 1995.
- 32 Linnan LA, D'Angelo H, Harrington CB. A literature synthesis of health promotion research in salons and barbershops. *Am J Prev Med* 2014;47(1):77–85. doi: 10.1016/j.amepre.2014.02.007
- 33 Luque JS, Ross L, Gwede CK. Qualitative systematic review of barber-administered health education, promotion, screening and outreach programs in African-American Communities. *J Community Health* 2014;39(1):181–90.
- 34 Hood S, Hall M, Dixon C, et al. Organizational-level recruitment of barbershops as health promotion intervention study sites. *Health Promot Pract* 2018;19(3):377–89. doi:10.1177/1524839917696715 [published Online First: 23 Mar 2017].

35 Teo CH, Ling CJ, Nq CJ. Improving health screening uptake in men: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Am J Prev Med* 2018;54(1):133–43. doi:10.1016/j.amepre.2017.08.028

- 36 Cole H, Thompson HS, White M, et al. Community-based, preclinical patient navigation for colorectal cancer screening among older black men recruited from barbershops: the Mister B trial. *Am J Public Health* 2017;107(9):1433–40. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2017.303885
- 37 Nastasi BK, Varjas K, Bernstein R, et al. Conducting participatory culture-specific consultation: a global perspective on multicultural consultation. *School Psych Rev* 2000;29(3):401–13.
- 38 Ajzen I, Fishbein M. *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Publishing 1980.
- 39 Nastasi BK, Hitchcock JH. *Mixed Methods Research and Culture-Specific Interventions: Program Design and Evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications 2016.
- 40 Glandon D, Paina L, Alonge O, et al. 10 Best resources for community engagement in implementation research. *Health Policy and Plan* 2017;32(10):1457–65. doi:10.1093/heapol/czx123
- 41 Michie S, van Stralen MM, West R. The behaviour change wheel: a new method for characterizing and designing behaviour change interventions. *Implementation Science* 2011;6:42–42.
- 42 Office of Health Disparities. Moving forward in 2016: fifteen years of health data for Blacks/African Americans in Utah. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah Department of Health.
- https://health.utah.gov/disparities/data/race-ethnicity-report/MovingForwardAA2016.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 43 United State Census Bureau. QuickFacts Salt Lake City city, Utah; UNITED STATES.
- https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/saltlakecitycityutah, US/PST045217 (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 44 Agrawal J, Syngal S. Colon cancer screening strategies. Curr Opin Gastroenterol 2005;21(1):59–63.
- 45 Wallace PM, Suzuki R. Regional, racial, and gender differences in colorectal cancer screening in middle-aged African-Americans and Whites. *J Cancer Educ* 2012;27(4):703–08. doi:10.1007/s13187-012-0396-2

- 46 Martinez KA, Pollack CE, Phelan DF, et al. Gender differences in correlates of colorectal cancer screening among black Medicare beneficiaries in Baltimore. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2013;22(6):1037–42. doi:10.1158/1055-9965.epi-12-1215
- 47 Krueger RA, Casey MA. Focus group interviewing. In: Wholey J, Hattry H, Newcomer K, eds. *The Handbook of Practical Program Evaluation*. 3rd ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass 2010:378–403.
- 48 Krueger RA, Casey MA. *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research*. 5th ed. SAGE Publications 2014.
- 49 Glaser BG, Strauss AL. *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research.* New York: Aldine De Gruyter 1967.
- 50 Strauss A, Corbin J. *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications 1990.
- 51 Miles MB, Huberman AM. *Qualitative Data Analysis*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 1994.
- 52 Saldana J. *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 2009.
- 53 Willis GB. *Cognitive Interviewing: A Tool for Improving Questionnaire Design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 2005.
- 54 Sudman S, Bradburn NM, Schwarz N. *Thinking about Answers: The Application of Cognitive Processes to Survey Methodology*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers 1996.
- 55 Bornstein RF, Rossner SC, Hill EL, et al. Face validity and fakability of objective and projective measures of dependency. *J Pers Assess* 1994;63:363–86.
- 56 Messick S. Validity of psychological assessment: Validation of inferences from persons' responses and performances as scientific inquiry into score meaning. *Am Psychol* 1995;50:741–9.
- 57 Nevo B. Face validity revisited. *J Educ Meas* 1985;22:287–93.
- 58 Andrews D, Nonnecke B, Preece J. Electronic survey methodology: a case study in reaching hard to involve Internet Users. *Int J Hum Comput Interact* 2003;16(2):185–210.

- 59 The Nielsen Company. Multifaceted connections: African-American media usage outpaces across platforms. http://www.nielsen.com/us/en/insights/news/2015/multifaceted-connections-african-american-media-usage-outpaces-across-platforms.html (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 60 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2016 behavioral risk factor surveillance system questionnaire. https://www.cdc.gov/brfss/questionnaires/pdf-ques/2016_brfss_questionnaire_final.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 61 Gimeno García AZ. Factors influencing colorectal cancer screening participation. *Gastroenterol Res Pract* 2012;2012(483417):1–8. doi: 10.1155/2012/483417.
- 62 Fetters MD, Curry LA, Creswell JW. Achieving integration in mixed methods designs principles and practices. *Health Services Research* 2013;48(6):2134–56.
- 63 Miller WR, Rollnick S. *Motivational Interviewing Helping People Change*. New York: Guilford Press 2013:12.
- 64 Spencer JC, Wheeler SB. A systematic review of Motivational Interviewing interventions in cancer patients and survivors. *Patient Education and Counseling* 2016;99(7):1099–105.

doi:10.1016/j.pec.2016.02.003

65 Miller SJ, Foran-Tuller K, Ledergerber J, et al. Motivational interviewing to improve health screening uptake: a systematic review. *Patient Education and Counseling* 2017;100(2):190–8.

doi:10.1016/j.pec.2016.08.027

- 66 Resnicow K, Jackson A, Wang T, et al. A motivational interviewing intervention to increase fruit and vegetable intake through black churches: results of the eat for life trial. *Am J Public Health* 2001;91(10):1686–93. doi:10.2105/AJPH.91.10.1686
- 67 Robertson DJ, Lee JK, Boland CR, et al. Recommendations on fecal immunochemical testing to screen for colorectal neoplasia: a consensus statement by the US multi-society task force on colorectal cancer. *Gastroenterol* 2017;152(5):1217–37. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2016.08.053
- 68 National Cancer Institute. (2018). Colorectal cancer screening intervention programs.

https://rtips.cancer.gov/rtips/topicPrograms.do?topicId=102265&choice=default (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

69 American Cancer Society. (2017). They know how to prevent colon cancer – and you can, too. https://www.cancer.org/content/dam/cancer-org/cancer-control/en/booklets-flyers/they-know-how-to-prevent-colon-cancer-handout.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

70 Eldridge S, Kerry S, Torgerson D. Bias in identifying and recruiting participants in cluster randomized trials: what can be done?" *BMJ* 2009;339:b4006. doi: 10.1136/bmj.b4006

71 Crabtree BF, Miller MW. Using codes and code manuals. In: Crabtree BF Miller MW, eds. *Doing Qualitative Research*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage 1999.

72 Creswell JW. Analyzing and validating data. In: *30 Essential Skills for the Qualitative Researcher*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications 2015:151–65.

73 Leon AC, Davis LL, Kraemer HC. The role and interpretation of pilot studies in clinical research. *J Psych Res* 2011;45(5):626–9.

74 Campbell MK, Piaggio G, Elbourne DR. Consort 2010 statement: extension to cluster randomized trials. *BMJ* 2012;345:e5661. doi: 10.1136/bmj.e5661

75 Creswell JW. Sampling and Integration Issues. *A Concise Introduction to Mixed Methods Research*.

Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage 2015:74–75.

76 Secretary's Advisory Committee on Health Promotion and Disease Prevention Objectives for 2020. Healthy people 2020: an opportunity to address the societal determinants of health in the United States. http://www.healthypeople.gov/2010/hp2020/advisory/SocietalDeterminantsHealth.htm (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

77 Chan A-W, Tetzlaff JM, Altman DG, Laupacis A, Gøtzsche PC, Krleža-Jerić K, Hróbjartsson A, Mann H, Dickersin K, Berlin J, Doré C, Parulekar W, Summerskill W, Groves T, Schulz K, Sox H, Rockhold FW, Rennie D, Moher D. SPIRIT 2013 Statement: Defining standard protocol items for clinical trials. *Ann Intern Med* 2013;158(3):200-207.

Authors' and data access statement

KO, EDP, MH, SZ, RJT, and MF serve as data monitoring committee (DMC) members for this study, while additional data monitoring, harms, and auditing logistics are available from the University of Utah Institutional Review Board. Only the DMC will have access to the full pilot trial dataset in order to ensure that the overall results are not disclosed by an individual study site prior to the main publication.

CRR is the study PI, wrote the first draft of the study protocol, and edited every draft thereafter. KO is a Primary Mentor for the study and edited the study protocol with the PI. EDP is a Secondary Mentor of the study and edited the study protocol with the PI. Study Co-Mentors MH, SZ, and RJT edited the study protocol with the PI. CR and TNR are Co-Investigators of the study and edited the study protocol with the PI. All authors read and approved the final manuscript. In addition to being a mixed-methods expert, MDF is a Co-Mentor on the study who edited the study protocol extensively with the PI as a senior co-author. All authors read and approved the final manuscript, and the SPIRIT checklist was used when writing this manuscript[77].

Acknowledgements

The research team extends gratitude to Eleanor Mayfield for editorial assistance.

Funding

This work was supported by the National Cancer Institute of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) under Award Number K01CA234319. RJT was supported by the National Institute on Aging (K02AG059140) and the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities

(U54MD000214-6867). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

Conflicts of Interests

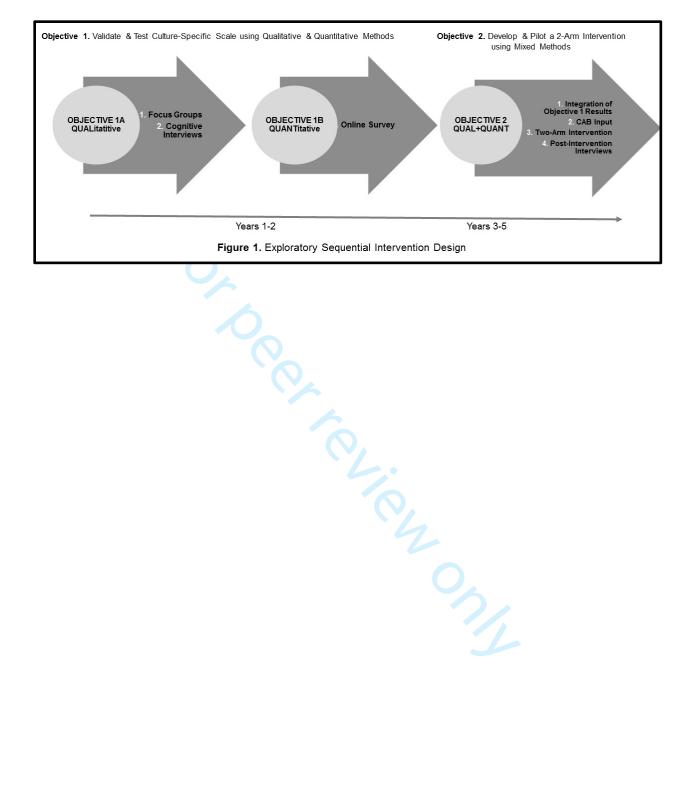
None declared.

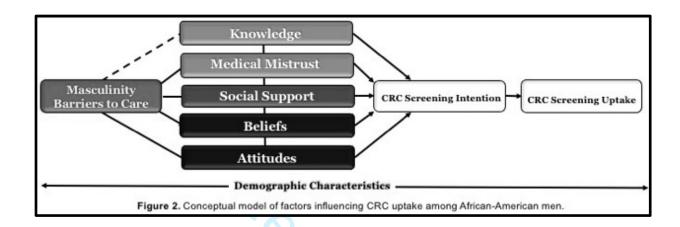
Figure legends

Figure 1. Exploratory Sequential Intervention Design

Figure 2. Conceptual model of factors influencing CRC screening uptake among African-

American men





Reporting checklist for protocol of a clinical trial.

Based on the SPIRIT guidelines.

Instructions to authors

Complete this checklist by entering the page numbers from your manuscript where readers will find each of the items listed below.

Your article may not currently address all the items on the checklist. Please modify your text to include the missing information. If you are certain that an item does not apply, please write "n/a" and provide a short explanation.

Upload your completed checklist as an extra file when you submit to a journal.

In your methods section, say that you used the SPIRIT reporting guidelines, and cite them as:

Chan A-W, Tetzlaff JM, Altman DG, Laupacis A, Gøtzsche PC, Krleža-Jerić K, Hróbjartsson A, Mann H, Dickersin K, Berlin J, Doré C, Parulekar W, Summerskill W, Groves T, Schulz K, Sox H, Rockhold FW, Rennie D, Moher D. SPIRIT 2013 Statement: Defining standard protocol items for clinical trials. Ann Intern Med. 2013;158(3):200-207

		Page	
		Reporting Item	Number
Title	#1	Descriptive title identifying the study design, population, interventions, and, if applicable, trial acronym	1
Trial registration	#2a	Trial identifier and registry name. If not yet registered, name of intended registry	4
Trial registration: data set	#2b	All items from the World Health Organization Trial Registration Data Set	4
Protocol version	#3	Date and version identifier	1
Funding	#4	Sources and types of financial, material, and other support	30
Roles and responsibilities: contributorship	#5a	Names, affiliations, and roles of protocol contributors	29
Roles and responsibilities:	#5b	Name and contact information for the trial sponsor	30

Page 35 of 39 BMJ Open

sponsor contact information			
Roles and responsibilities: sponsor and funder	#5c	Role of study sponsor and funders, if any, in study design; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of data; writing of the report; and the decision to submit the report for publication, including whether they will have ultimate authority over any of these activities	30
Roles and responsibilities: committees	#5d	Composition, roles, and responsibilities of the coordinating centre, steering committee, endpoint adjudication committee, data management team, and other individuals or groups overseeing the trial, if applicable (see Item 21a for data monitoring committee)	N/A
Background and rationale	#6a	Description of research question and justification for undertaking the trial, including summary of relevant studies (published and unpublished) examining benefits and harms for each intervention	6
Background and rationale: choice of comparators	#6b	Explanation for choice of comparators	6
Objectives	#7	Specific objectives or hypotheses	8
Trial design	#8	Description of trial design including type of trial (eg, parallel group, crossover, factorial, single group), allocation ratio, and framework (eg, superiority, equivalence, non-inferiority, exploratory)	9
Study setting	#9	Description of study settings (eg, community clinic, academic hospital) and list of countries where data will be collected. Reference to where list of study sites can be obtained	10
Eligibility criteria	#10	Inclusion and exclusion criteria for participants. If applicable, eligibility criteria for study centres and individuals who will perform the interventions (eg, surgeons, psychotherapists)	11
Interventions: description	#11a	Interventions for each group with sufficient detail to allow replication, including how and when they will be administered	16
Interventions: modifications	#11b	Criteria for discontinuing or modifying allocated interventions for a given trial participant (eg, drug dose change in response to harms, participant request, or improving / worsening disease)	17
Interventions: adherance	#11c	Strategies to improve adherence to intervention protocols, and any procedures for monitoring adherence (eg, drug tablet return; review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml	19

Interventions: #11d Relevant concomitant care and interventions that are permitted or prohibited during the trial Outcomes #12 Primary, secondary, and other outcomes, including the specific measurement variable (e.g., systolic blood pressure), analysis metric (e.g., change from baseline, final value, time to event), method of aggregation (e.g., median, proportion), and time point for each outcome. Explanation of the clinical relevance of chosen efficacy and harm outcomes is strongly recommended Participant timeline #13 Time schedule of enrolment, interventions (including any run-ins and washouts), assessments, and visits for participants. A schematic diagram is highly recommended (see Figure) Sample size #14 Estimated number of participants needed to achieve study objectives and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical assumptions supporting any sample size calculations Recruitment #15 Strategies for achieving adequate participant enrolment to reach target sample size Allocation: sequence generation #16a Method of generating the allocation sequence (e.g., computergenerated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (e.g., blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions Allocation: #16b Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (e.g., central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking): #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (e.g., trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a partici				3
Outcomes #12 Primary, secondary, and other outcomes, including the specific measurement variable (eg. systolic blood pressure), analysis metric (eg. change from baseline, final value, time to event), method of aggregation (eg. median, proportion), and time point for each outcome. Explanation of the clinical relevance of chosen efficacy and harm outcomes is strongly recommended Participant timeline #13 Time schedule of enrolment, interventions (including any run-ins and washouts), assessments, and visits for participants. A schematic diagram is highly recommended (see Figure) Sample size #14 Estimated number of participants needed to achieve study objectives and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical assumptions supporting any sample size calculations Recruitment #15 Strategies for achieving adequate participant enrolment to reach target sample size Allocation: sequence generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence (eg. computer-generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg. blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions Allocation #16b Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg. central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conecal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking): #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg. trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during			laboratory tests)	
measurement variable (eg., systolic blood pressure), analysis metric (eg., change from baseline, final value, time to event), method of aggregation (eg., median, proportion), and time point for each outcome. Explanation of the clinical relevance of chosen efficacy and harm outcomes is strongly recommended. Participant timeline #13 Time schedule of enrolment, interventions (including any run-ins and washouts), assessments, and visits for participants. A schematic diagram is highly recommended (see Figure) Sample size #14 Estimated number of participants needed to achieve study objectives and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical assumptions supporting any sample size calculations Recruitment #15 Strategies for achieving adequate participant enrolment to reach target sample size Allocation: sequence generation #16a Method of generating the allocation sequence (eg., computergenerated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg., blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions Allocation #16b Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg., central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking): #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg., trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how		#11d	_	20
and washouts), assessments, and visits for participants. A schematic diagram is highly recommended (see Figure) Sample size #14 Estimated number of participants needed to achieve study objectives and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical assumptions supporting any sample size calculations Recruitment #15 Strategies for achieving adequate participant enrolment to reach target sample size Allocation: sequence generation #16a Method of generating the allocation sequence (eg, computergenerated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg, blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions Allocation #16b Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg, central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking) #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	Outcomes	#12	measurement variable (eg, systolic blood pressure), analysis metric (eg, change from baseline, final value, time to event), method of aggregation (eg, median, proportion), and time point for each outcome. Explanation of the clinical relevance of chosen efficacy	20
and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical assumptions supporting any sample size calculations Recruitment #15 Strategies for achieving adequate participant enrolment to reach target sample size Allocation: sequence generation #16a Method of generating the allocation sequence (eg, computergeneration generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg, blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions Allocation #16b Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg, central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking) #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	Participant timeline	#13	and washouts), assessments, and visits for participants. A schematic	19
Allocation: sequence generation #16a Method of generating the allocation sequence (eg, computergeneration generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg, blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions Allocation #16b Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg, central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking) #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	Sample size	#14	and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical	15
generation generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg, blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions Allocation #16b Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg, central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking) #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	Recruitment	#15		11
concealment telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), mechanism describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned Allocation: #16c Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking) #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	1	#16a	generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg, blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or	19
implementation participants, and who will assign participants to interventions Blinding (masking) #17a Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	concealment	#16b	telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are	19
participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how Blinding (masking): #17b If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during		#16c		19
emergency procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	Blinding (masking)	#17a	participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and	19
			procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during	N/A

BMJ Open

Page 36 of 39

unblinding		the trial	
Data collection plan	#18a	Plans for assessment and collection of outcome, baseline, and other trial data, including any related processes to promote data quality (eg, duplicate measurements, training of assessors) and a description of study instruments (eg, questionnaires, laboratory tests) along with their reliability and validity, if known. Reference to where data collection forms can be found, if not in the protocol	12
Data collection plan: retention	#18b	Plans to promote participant retention and complete follow-up, including list of any outcome data to be collected for participants who discontinue or deviate from intervention protocols	12
Data management	#19	Plans for data entry, coding, security, and storage, including any related processes to promote data quality (eg, double data entry; range checks for data values). Reference to where details of data management procedures can be found, if not in the protocol	12
Statistics: outcomes	#20a	Statistical methods for analysing primary and secondary outcomes. Reference to where other details of the statistical analysis plan can be found, if not in the protocol	16
Statistics: additional analyses	#20b	Methods for any additional analyses (eg, subgroup and adjusted analyses)	18
Statistics: analysis population and missing data	#20c	Definition of analysis population relating to protocol non-adherence (eg, as randomised analysis), and any statistical methods to handle missing data (eg, multiple imputation)	13
Data monitoring: formal committee	#21a	Composition of data monitoring committee (DMC); summary of its role and reporting structure; statement of whether it is independent from the sponsor and competing interests; and reference to where further details about its charter can be found, if not in the protocol. Alternatively, an explanation of why a DMC is not needed	29
Data monitoring: interim analysis	#21b	Description of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines, including who will have access to these interim results and make the final decision to terminate the trial	29
Harms	#22	Plans for collecting, assessing, reporting, and managing solicited and spontaneously reported adverse events and other unintended effects of trial interventions or trial conduct	29
Auditing	#23 For peer	Frequency and procedures for auditing trial conduct, if any, and review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml	29

		whether the process will be independent from investigators and the sponsor	
Research ethics approval	#24	Plans for seeking research ethics committee / institutional review board (REC / IRB) approval	4
Protocol amendments	#25	Plans for communicating important protocol modifications (eg, changes to eligibility criteria, outcomes, analyses) to relevant parties (eg, investigators, REC / IRBs, trial participants, trial registries, journals, regulators)	9
Consent or assent	#26a	Who will obtain informed consent or assent from potential trial participants or authorised surrogates, and how (see Item 32)	12
Consent or assent: ancillary studies	#26b	Additional consent provisions for collection and use of participant data and biological specimens in ancillary studies, if applicable	19
Confidentiality	#27	How personal information about potential and enrolled participants will be collected, shared, and maintained in order to protect confidentiality before, during, and after the trial	12
Declaration of interests	#28	Financial and other competing interests for principal investigators for the overall trial and each study site	30
Data access	#29	Statement of who will have access to the final trial dataset, and disclosure of contractual agreements that limit such access for investigators	29
Ancillary and post trial care	#30	Provisions, if any, for ancillary and post-trial care, and for compensation to those who suffer harm from trial participation	21
Dissemination policy: trial results	#31a	Plans for investigators and sponsor to communicate trial results to participants, healthcare professionals, the public, and other relevant groups (eg, via publication, reporting in results databases, or other data sharing arrangements), including any publication restrictions	22
Dissemination policy: authorship	#31b	Authorship eligibility guidelines and any intended use of professional writers	N/A
Dissemination policy: reproducible research	#31c	Plans, if any, for granting public access to the full protocol, participant-level dataset, and statistical code	n/A
Informed consent materials	#32	Model consent form and other related documentation given to participants and authorised surrogates	N/A

For peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

BMJ Open

Page 38 of 39

Biological specimens #33 Plans for collection, laboratory evaluation, and storage of biological specimens for genetic or molecular analysis in the current trial and for future use in ancillary studies, if applicable

N/A

The SPIRIT checklist is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License CC-BY-ND 3.0. This checklist was completed on 21. February 2019 using https://www.goodreports.org/, a tool made by the EQUATOR Network in collaboration with Penelope.ai



BMJ Open

Study Protocol for Developing a Barbershop-Based Trial on Masculinity Barriers to Care and Colorectal Cancer Screening Uptake among African-American Men Using an Exploratory Sequential Mixed-Methods Design

Journal:	BMJ Open
Manuscript ID	bmjopen-2019-030000.R1
Article Type:	Protocol
Date Submitted by the Author:	26-Jun-2019
Complete List of Authors:	Rogers, Charles; University of Utah School of Medicine, Family & Preventive Medicine Okuyemi, Kola; University of Utah School of Medicine, Family & Preventive Medicine Paskett, Electra; Ohio State University, Internal Medicine, College of Medicine Thorpe Jr, RJ; Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Program for Research on Men's Health Rogers, Tiana; University of Utah Eccles School of Business, Sorenson Impact Center Hung, Man; Roseman University of Health Sciences South Jordan Campus Zickmund, Susan; University of Utah, Internal Medicine Riley, Colin; University of Utah School of Medicine, Family & Preventive Medicine Fetters, Micheal; University of Michigan Medical School, Department of Family Medicine
Primary Subject Heading :	Public health
Secondary Subject Heading:	Gastroenterology and hepatology
Keywords:	African-Americans, colonic neoplasms, community-based participatory research, men's health, minority health



Study Protocol for Developing a Barbershop-Based Trial on Masculinity Barriers to Care and Colorectal Cancer Screening Uptake among African-American Men Using an Exploratory Sequential Mixed-Methods Design

Charles R. Rogers, PhD, MPH, MS, CHES®*
Department of Family & Preventive Medicine
University of Utah School of Medicine
375 Chipeta Way, Suite A
Salt Lake City, Utah 84108
USA

Work: +1.801.581.5752

Email: charles.rogers@utah.edu

Kola Okuyemi, MD, MPH
Department of Family & Preventive Medicine
University of Utah School of Medicine
375 Chipeta Way, Suite A
Salt Lake City, Utah 84108
USA

Email: kola.okuyemi@hsc.utah.edu

Electra D. Paskett, PhD
Department of Internal Medicine, College of Medicine
The Ohio State University
1590 North High St, Suite 525
Columbus, Ohio 43201
USA

Email: electra.paskett@osumc.edu

Roland J. Thorpe, Jr., PhD Program for Research on Men's Health Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health 624 North Broadway, Suite 708 Baltimore, Maryland 21205 USA

Email: rthorpe@jhu.edu

Tiana N. Rogers, PhD Sorenson Impact Center University of Utah Eccles School of Business 85 Fort Douglas Blvd, Bldg 602 Salt Lake City, Utah 84112 USA

Email: tiana.rogers@sorensonimpact.com

Man Hung, PhD, MS College of Dental Medicine Roseman University of Health Sciences 10920 South River Front Pkwy South Jordan, Utah 84095 USA

Email: mhung@roseman.edu

Susan Zickmund, PhD
Department of Internal Medicine
University of Utah
500 Foothill Dr.
Salt Lake City, Utah 84148
USA

Email: susan.zickmund@va.gov

Colin Riley, BSN, RN
Department of Family & Preventive Medicine
University of Utah School of Medicine
375 Chipeta Way, Suite A
Salt Lake City, Utah 84108
USA

Email: colin.riley@utah.edu

Micheal D. Fetters, MD, MPH, MA Department of Family Medicine University of Michigan Medical School 1018 Fuller St. Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104 USA

Email: <u>mfetters@med.umich.edu</u>

*Corresponding Author

Issue date: 26 Jun 2019

Word count (excluding title page, abstract, references, figures and tables): 4,900

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Colorectal cancer (CRC) is preventable, as screening leads to identification and removal of pre-cancerous polyps. African-American men consistently have the highest CRC mortality rates, and their CRC screening uptake remains low for complex reasons. Culture-specific masculinity barriers to care may contribute to the low uptake among African-American men. Examining these barriers to care is vital as CRC screening may challenge cultural role expectations of African-American men, whose tendency is to delay help-seeking medical care. Barbershops provide a pathway for reaching African-American men with masculinity barriers to care who are not regularly receiving healthcare services and CRC screening. This study aims to develop and pilot-test a theory-driven, culture-specific, barbershop-based intervention targeting masculinity barriers to care and CRC screening uptake among African-American men ages 45–75.

Methods and analysis: Guided by the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Behaviour Change Wheel, we will use a multi-stage mixed-methods study design, beginning with an exploratory sequential approach to validate items for subsequent use in a pilot mixed-methods intervention. First, we will collect and analyze qualitative data from focus groups, cognitive interviews, and expert item review to validate and test a culture-specific Masculinity Barriers to Care Scale (MBCS) among African-American men. Next, we will administer the MBCS to our target population as an online quantitative survey and evaluate the association between scores and CRC screening uptake. Then, we will consider existing evidence-based approaches, our integrated results (qualitative+quantitative), and community input to design a culture-specific, behavioral intervention aimed at increasing CRC screening uptake among African-American men and

feasible for barbershop delivery. We will test the peer intervention in a pilot study with a 2-arm cluster-randomized design (6 barbershops, randomized by site) to reduce contamination and account for barbershop culture differences. Our primary outcomes for the pilot are recruitment, sample size estimation, preliminary efficacy, and acceptability.

Keywords: African-Americans, colonic neoplasms, community-based participatory research, men's health, minority health

Ethics and dissemination: Ethics approval was obtained from the University of Utah Institutional Review Board (00113679). Study results will be disseminated through publications in peer-reviewed journals, community dialogue sessions, and presentations at conferences.

Registration: ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT03733197;

https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03733197

Article Summary

Strengths and limitations

- By drawing on constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Behaviour Change
 Wheel, our study will be among the first to offer a structured approach to designing a
 behavior-change–focused, culture-specific arm for our pilot intervention, while considering a
 range of psychosocial factors associated with CRC screening among African-American men.
- Our study proposes a new, culture-specific Masculinity Barriers to Care Scale for understanding and reducing CRC screening disparities among African-American men.

- Given the rising CRC burden among young adults, our study engages African-American men starting at age 45 years.
- Though self-report questionnaires are a common behavioral-science methodology, social
 desirability and non-response bias are potential concerns that we will offset by testing the
 reliability and validity of the data, while collecting it electronically and securely.
- Additional research will be needed to ascertain the generalizability of the findings to other settings, since this study limits involvement to African-American men from 2 metropolitan areas in Utah and Minnesota.

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is one of the most treatable and preventable cancers. Despite CRC screening's life-saving potential, however, nearly 28% of Americans aged 50–75 years have not received timely screening.[1] Across all gender and racial/ethnic groups, African-American men have the highest CRC mortality and shortest survival.[2] In 2010, national CRC screening uptake rates among African Americans (56%) were significantly lower than among non-Hispanic whites (62%).[3,4,5] CRC incidence and mortality rates are 27% and 52% higher, respectively, among African-American men than among non-Hispanic white men.[2,6] *Recommendations for CRC Screening*

The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force endorses a CRC-screening age range of 50–75 years for average-risk men and screening initiation at age 40 years for those with a family history of CRC.[7] Because African-American men are more likely than non-Hispanic white men to be diagnosed at both a younger age and a more-advanced disease stage,[3] the American College of Gastroenterology has lowered its recommended age of screening initiation to 45 years for African-American men.[2,3,8] The proportion of CRC cases diagnosed in individuals aged under 55 years has doubled in the past 2 decades, and CRC incidence among younger adults (aged 35–49 years), including African-American men, is predicted to increase 28% to 46% by 2030.[9] *Masculinity and psychosocial factors may contribute to low CRC screening*

Masculinity is an important aspect of gendered and cultural identity for men[10-12] and plays a critical role in African-American men's healthcare use, health behaviors, and mortality.[13-17] Because CRC screening challenges some cultural role expectations of African-American men, who tend to delay seeking medical care, examination of masculinity barriers to care is perilous. However, the specific influence of cultural masculinity perceptions on African-

American men's CRC screening rates is not well studied. An unacknowledged sense of vulnerability that conflicts with culturally accepted gender norms is also often inherent in men's experience of CRC screening. Previous research suggests that inadequate existing validated measures and biases toward Western culture (norms, values, customs, etc., associated with Europe and European descent) may explain the absence of a significant association between masculinity and CRC screening attitudes among African-American men.[18 – 23] In a systematic review of the literature examining connections between masculinity, racism, social support, and CRC screening uptake among African-American men,[7] few studies have examined how masculinity relates to poor CRC screening uptake and, of these, none used validated measures. Further, no validated masculinity measures have been developed for African-American men in the context of CRC screening uptake or medical care [18, 24-25]

Consideration of how psychosocial factors relate to CRC screening uptake is also critical. Previous research[18-22] with African-American men has documented the influence of factors such as attitudes, knowledge, racism, and perceived barriers (e.g., embarrassment, fear) on CRC screening. Medical mistrust is another widely cited attitudinal barrier to CRC screening and treatment seeking[21,26,27] and is related to the low health services utilization among African-American men,[21] yet it is unclear whether trust-related barriers are related to CRC screening.[18,26-31] Since each of the aforementioned factors represent deeply intricate aspects of the social milieu in which African-American men make health decisions, the first author lead the creation and psychometric evaluation of the reliability and validity of his *Male Role Norms*, *Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions associated with CRC Screening* (MKAP-CRCS) survey.²¹ On average, our sample of young adult African-American men (ages 19-45) disagreed with traditional masculinity ideology—as measured by the 21-item Male Role Norms Inventory-Short

Form (MRNI-SF) scale.[32] Our principal component analysis revealed the MKAP-CRCS measure was psychometrically sound, but some participants may have withdrawn prematurely from the MRNI-SF portion as they found the measures' norms offensive/taboo, or felt awkward sharing beliefs about the roles expected of men. We concluded that research focused on developing a scale explicitly considering African-American men's masculinity beliefs in the medical care context and with more rigorous psychometric assessments (e.g., exploratory factor analysis) is needed. *Barbershops as a site for interventions to improve CRC screening*

Barbershops serving African-American men are favorable settings for reaching our target population.[33] Previous multi-component, barbershop-based trials have been conducted with African-American men on HIV risk reduction, prostate cancer education, heart disease control, and hypertension detection.[34-36] Few trials of CRC screening uptake among African-American men have found significant results. The MISTER B study, the first and to date only barbershop-based CRC screening trial, tested a phone-based patient-navigation intervention to urge CRC screening among older (mean age 57 years), low-income African-American men with uncontrolled hypertension.[37] Intervention completion was associated with a 16-fold increase in the odds of CRC screening uptake by 6 months; however, although nearly 70% of participants voiced the intent to obtain colonoscopy screening in the next 6 months, only 17% in the intervention groups and 8% in the control group did so. Our study will help fill this gap between uptake and intention by creating a new, culture-specific intervention that directly addresses masculinity barriers to care, psychosocial factors, and CRC screening uptake among African-American men beginning at age 45, then test its feasibility and acceptability in a clusterrandomized pilot intervention (at the barbershop level).

Study objectives

Disparities associated with CRC screening uptake for African-American men, the failure of previous interventions to significantly increase screening rates, and the novel idea of using the barbershop as an intervention setting led to the current study, with the following objectives: (1) validate and test a culture-specific Masculinity Barriers To Care Scale (MBCS) relative to psychosocial factors and CRC screening uptake among African-American men; and (2) develop and pilot-test a theory-driven, culture-specific peer intervention that targets masculinity barriers to care, psychosocial factors, and uptake of CRC screening (specifically, of the fecal immunochemical test [FIT]) among African-American men. *Culture-specific* refers to the embodiment of "an [African-American male's] real-life experiences within a given cultural context (e.g., neighborhood) and his understanding of those experiences."[38]

METHODS AND ANALYSIS

Overall Study Design

The SPIRIT checklist was utilized while developing this manuscript.[39] For the proposed study, a multi-stage mixed-methods design that is shown in Figure 1 will be employed. We will begin with an exploratory sequential approach intended to validate items for subsequent use in a pilot mixed-methods intervention. For Objectives 1A and 1B (Years 1–2), we will collect and analyze qualitative data from focus groups, cognitive interviews, and expert item review to validate and test a culture-specific MBCS among African-American men. Questions for the MCBS will stem from modifications to the (a) the *Barriers to Help Seeking Scale* developed by Mansfield, Addis, and Courtenay [38], (b) the *Group-Based Medical Mistrust Scale* developed by Thompson et al. [40], (c) Mincey and colleagues' *Masculinity Inventory Scale* [41], (d) the *Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form* by Levant, Hall, and Rankin [31],

Bowleg and colleagues' *Black Men's Experiences Scale* [42], and the *Masculinity Salience* scale developed by Hammond et al. [13]. Six factors are expected for the underlying structure of the 21 items in the MBCS: (1) Need for Control and Self-Reliance, (2) Minimizing Health Problems and Resignation (3) Medical Mistrust, (4) Privacy, (5) Emotional Control, and (6) Black Masculinity. For all factors, individual items will be assessed on a Likert-type scale. Higher scores will indicate a greater degree of endorsement of masculinity barriers to care. Next, we will administer the MBCS as an online quantitative survey of our target population to evaluate the association between scale scores and CRC screening uptake.

For Objective 2 (Years 3–5), we will consider existing evidence-based approaches (e.g., motivational interviewing), our integrated results (qualitative + quantitative) from Objectives 1A and 1B regarding masculinity barriers to care, and community input to design a novel, culturespecific, behavioral intervention that is (1) aimed at increasing CRC screening uptake (via FIT) among African-American men and (2) feasible for delivery in barbershops. To reduce contamination and account for differences in barbershop culture, we will pilot-test the peer intervention in a 2-arm cluster-randomized intervention (6 barbershops, with participants randomized by site). Our primary outcomes for the pilot are recruitment, sample size estimation, preliminary efficacy, and acceptability. We will also conduct post-intervention interviews with participants from both arms to evaluate acceptability (i.e., why and how each arm was or was not successful). This study protocol has received ethics approval from the University of Utah Institutional Review Board (00113679), who will also be responsible for receiving communication updates regarding important protocol modifications. To ensure confidentiality, data dispersed to project team members will be blinded of any identifying participant information.

Patient and Public Involvement

Neither patients nor the public were involved in the design of the study.

Theoretical Foundation

A conceptual framework integrating constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) will guide our work. The TPB posits that behavior is a function of intention, which is influenced by attitudes and beliefs.[43] **Figure 2** illustrates how masculinity barriers to care and other psychosocial factors may influence CRC screening intention and uptake among African-American men. We will also assess demographic characteristics (e.g., age, marital status, health insurance status) that are known to influence African-American men's masculinity, and CRC screening perceptions and behaviors.[6,19,21,22]

Evidence-based cultural grounding to facilitate understanding of African-American men's culture and engage community stakeholders as trial-development partners is best achieved by an iterative, participatory, and reflexive research process.[44,45] Hence, we will use the Behaviour Change Wheel (BCW) as the conceptual framework driving our study's intervention-development phase. Developed from 19 behavior-change frameworks, the BCW offers a structured approach to inclusively analyzing available intervention options and designing behavior-change interventions.[46]

Setting

We will conduct this research in the Salt Lake City, Utah, and Minneapolis-St. Paul (Twin Cities), Minnesota, metro areas, regions notable for having the largest populations of African-

Americans in their respective states.[47,48] Moreover, in both states, CRC screening rates among African Americans are well below statewide averages (53% vs 72% for all ethnic and racial groups combined in Utah; 57% vs 73% for both non-Hispanic whites and all ethnic and racial groups combined in Minnesota).[12-14] Nationally, African-American men exhibit a lower screening likelihood than African-American women.[3,5,49-51]

Focus Groups

Participants & Procedures

To inform MBCS development, we will conduct twelve 2-hour focus groups (a sufficient number to reach saturation),[52,53] each involving 8 men who (1) self-identify as non-Hispanic Black/African American; (2) were born in the U.S.; (3) are aged 45–75 years; (4) have a working telephone; (5) speak English; and (6) reside in the Salt Lake City or Twin Cities metro area. Six focus groups will be conducted in each metro area. Because participants may be more comfortable with other African-American men of similar age who either have or have not completed CRC screening, each group will be clustered by age and CRC screening status (**Table** 1). Men aged 45–49 years will be included because African-American men are diagnosed with CRC at both an earlier age and a more advanced disease stage.[3,7,8]

Table 1. Focus Group Composition				
Groups	Age Range	CRC Screening Status		
1–2	45–49	Never Completed		
3–4	50–65	Not Current		
5–6	66–75	Not Current		
7–8	45–49	Completed/Current		
9–10	50–65	Completed/Current		
10–12	66–75	Completed/Current		

We will use culture-specific marketing materials to promote the study through existing social networks, including newspaper advertisements, social media, predominantly African-American churches, air time on 2 radio stations (1 in Minneapolis, 1 in Salt Lake City) with a predominantly African-American male audience, and African-American male—serving barbershops. The principal investigator (PI), CRR, has a record of success in recruiting African-American men using these strategies.[19,21,22]

Potential participants will be encouraged to visit www.cuttingCRC.com to express interest in focus-group participation. Basic demographic information will be collected (and kept confidential) to enable research-team members to contact participants by phone to confirm eligibility and discuss participation arrangements. Food and drink will be provided during each session. Each participant will receive a \$20 Target gift card and participants may choose to be entered into a random drawing to win 1 of 3 incentives: (1) an \$100 pre-paid Visa gift card, (2) two tickets to a Utah Jazz or Minnesota Timberwolves basketball game in Fall 2019 (respective of your home state), or (3) a Samsung 55" 4K UHDTV.

Data Collection and Analyses

CRR will facilitate the focus groups, using an interview guide stemming from modifications to existing measures [13, 40-42] that examine masculinity as well as attitudes and practices precluding men from seeking healthcare access. Another team member will assist with consenting and note-taking. The 2-hour sessions will be audio-recorded with 2 voice recorders, transcribed, and checked for accuracy. De-identified transcripts will be imported into NVivo 11 software (QSR International Pty. Ltd., Melbourne, Australia). Our NVivo-proficient coding team (TNR, CRR, and the research assistant) will use constant comparative and content-analysis

methods to independently code transcripts for themes. [54,55] After identifying themes relevant to our research questions from a sample reading and initial coding, we will automate term searches, code all documents, and run reports to ascertain the code text related to study themes. NVivo can organize data by participant characteristics, allowing us to compare the responses of participants who have or have not undergone CRC screening. To interpret and discuss findings and develop a codebook depicting how our codes interrelate, we will track coding decisions in NVivo and adjudicate them at team meetings. MDF and/or SZ will referee coding deviations, as needed. Key themes will be identified and incorporated into the new MBCS.[56,57]

Cognitive Interviews

OR Participants and Procedures

We will pilot-test the MBCS with 20 CRC advocates and survivors from across the U.S. (men and women who speak English, have a working telephone, and are aged 18–75 years), using 1-hour cognitive interviews (conducted in person or by phone) to elicit input as participants respond to the survey in real time. [58,59] Interviews will probe (1) how participants understand each question and response option; (2) whether the questions are likely to elicit an honest response; (3) the clarity of question wording; (4) the user-friendliness of the online survey setup; and (5) the questions' cultural specificity. Participants will engage in a thinking-aloud process with follow-up probes such as "How did you arrive at that answer?" These approaches will improve feasibility, reduce response error, and enhance face validity (an estimate of the degree to which the scale is clearly tapping the desired construct we aim to assess, i.e., culturespecific masculinity barriers to care).[60-62] Cognitive interviews also allow us to assess participants' comfort with online survey completion via PsychData (PsychData LLC, State

College, PA), a secure, web-based application that supports data capture for research Objective 1B. Our MBCS will be modified as a result of the cognitive interviews when necessary. Interviewees will receive a \$20 Amazon gift card. RJT and two additional leaders in African-American men's health will provide expert item review of the final MBCS utilizing a questionnaire appraisal system [63].

Online Survey

Participants and Procedures

During Year 2, we will recruit 400 African-American men to complete an online survey, administered via smartphone, to test the relationship between masculinity barriers to care and CRC screening. Eligible respondents are men who (1) self-describe as non-Hispanic Black/African American; (2) were born in the U.S.; (3) are aged 45–75 years; (4) reside in the Salt Lake City or Twin Cities metro area; (5) have a telephone with internet access; and (6) speak English. With the aid of barbers and culture-specific marketing materials, we will recruit participants from African-American male–serving barbershops. Survey participants will have the opportunity to participate in drawings for 1 of 5 incentives: (1) a \$50 Target gift card, (2) a \$75 Amazon gift card, (3) an \$100 Trader Joe's gift card, (4) an Apple iPad, or (5) Samsung 43" 4K UHDTV.

Barbershops are cultural hubs of trust essential in the growth and development of African-American men. Men usually spend at least 30 minutes waiting for or getting a haircut or chatting with others in the barbershop. Using PsychData, participants will be able to complete our survey within 15 minutes on their smartphones while waiting for or getting a haircut in participating barbershops. PsychData prevents survey alterations and eliminates transcription errors.[64] The PI

has a successful record of recruiting African-American men to complete surveys using mobile technology,[19,21,22] and African Americans outpace all groups for smartphone use.[65] For men who want to complete the survey but do not own a smartphone, each participating barbershop will be provided 1 smartphone courtesy of the study.

<u>Dependent variables</u>. We will use 2 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) questions to assess CRC screening uptake: (1) "A blood stool test is a test that may use a special kit at home to determine whether the stool contains blood. Have you ever had this test using a home kit?"; and (2) "Sigmoidoscopy and colonoscopy are exams in which a tube is inserted in the rectum to view the colon for signs of cancer or other health problems. Have you ever had either of these exams?" [66]

Independent variables. In accordance with our conceptual model illustrated in Figure 2 and the PI's Male Role Norms, Knowledge, Attitudes, and Perceptions associated with Colorectal Cancer Screening tool,[1,18,19-22] our independent variables will be masculinity barriers to care from our new scale and 5 factors known to influence CRC screening uptake among African-American men: knowledge, social support, beliefs, and attitudes towards CRC and 2 CRC screening exams (FIT, colonoscopy).[13,18,21,27]

<u>Demographic covariates</u>. Age, educational level, marital status, employment status, and other covariates will be included as previous studies by the PI and others have found these factors to be related to CRC screening among African-American men.[2,18,19-22,67]

Sample Size and Power Considerations

With a sample of 400 African-American men, we will have 80% power at the 0.05 level to detect a masculinity barriers to care effect on the odds of having had CRC screening,

assuming 35% of men with a masculinity barriers to care index equal to the mean have had CRC screening compared with 25% of men with a masculinity barriers to care index 1 standard deviation above the mean. We estimate that the average screening rate will be 35%, as the screening rate for African Americans is 53.1% in Utah and 52% in Minnesota and African-American men in both states tend to have lower CRC screening rates than women.[4,6,12,45] This assumes a moderately strong relationship between the masculinity barriers to care index and confounders (i.e., $R^2 = 0.25$ for the linear model that regresses the masculinity barriers to care index on the confounders). If the relationship between the confounders and the masculinity index is weaker, the power will be higher: 82% power with $R^2 = 0.2$ and 87% power with $R^2 = 0.1$.

Data Collection and Analyses

We will test for associations between masculinity barriers to care, psychosocial factors, and CRC screening uptake. Our central hypothesis is that masculinity barriers to care will be negatively associated with CRC screening uptake. The masculinity barriers to care items emerging from Objective 1 will be utilized to create a latent variable that represents the construct being measured. The CRC screening-uptake outcome will be a binary variable that indicates whether a participant self-reported CRC screening uptake (i.e., answered Yes to either BRFSS dependent-variable question). We will fit a structural equation model with CRC screening uptake as the outcome and masculinity barriers to care as the predictor. We will adjust for potential confounders (e.g., age, educational level). We will also present the estimate and 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio comparing the odds of CRC screening uptake between participants

with a 1-point difference in masculinity barriers to care scores. Descriptive statistics will summarize participants' characteristics.

Two-Arm Intervention

Integration

In an exploratory sequential—designed study, a key step is to apply the qualitative data captured in Objective 1A to assist with building Objective 1B's quantitative phase. As described by Fetters et al.,[68] we will "merge" qualitative and quantitative data from Objective 1 to identify content areas for contrasting, comparing, and synthesizing results. During the first 6 months of Year 3, 2 team members (MDF and CRR) will determine to what degree and how the results from the combined qualitative and quantitative datasets yield a richer and more comprehensive understanding of the impact of masculinity barriers to care on CRC screening uptake among African-American men. Through this process, we will apply what we learn about the role of our variable of interest on CRC screening to develop a pilot intervention for overcoming these barriers.

Development

During the first 6 months of Year 3, we will adopt the BCW approach, working with Community Advisory Board members (2-hour small-group discussions via conference call and/or in person, 3 members per meeting) to develop the culture-specific intervention arm of our pilot intervention. We will use information from (1) our integrated Objective 1 results, (2) existing CRC screening intervention evidence, and (3) study-team expertise to apply the APEASE criteria (Acceptability, Practicability, Effectiveness/cost-effectiveness, Affordability,

Safety/side-effects, Equity) (**Table 2**). Our hypothesis is that CRC screening uptake will be higher in the culture-specific arm than in the control arm.

Table 2. BCW Activities to I	Prive Development of Culture-Specific Trial Arm
[1] Behavioural Diagnosis	Utilize the BCW to determine what needs to change for CRC
[1] Benaviourar Biagnosis	screening uptake to increase among African-American men
[2] <u>Intervention Strategy</u>	Utilize [1] to decide which <u>intervention functions</u> to apply (e.g.,
Selection	Education, Persuasion, Enablement)
[3] Behaviour Change Technique Identification	Develop a <u>detailed culture-specific arm plan</u> by selecting from among a range of specific, evidence-based behavior change techniques (e.g., intervention components such as barbers as motivational interviewers plus barbers distributing FIT kits; info about health consequences related to negating CRC screening).
[4] <u>Draft Full Intervention</u> <u>Specifications</u>	Create the detailed intervention specifications covering all aspects of content and delivery of the intervention structured around [3].

We anticipate that the culture-specific arm will include at least 2 core components: barbers as motivational interviewers and InSure® FIT™ kits distributed by barbers. Motivational interviewing (MI) is "a collaborative conversation style for strengthening a person's own motivation and commitment to change."[69] Telephone-based MI is an effective way to improve cancer screening among underrepresented groups. Community-member—led MI has proved successful, but it is unknown if barbers as motivational interviewers can assist with reducing CRC screening inequalities among African-American men.[70-73] Also, randomized trials have shown that the FIT is the first-choice fecal occult blood test for CRC screening, is less invasive, less costly, and may be better accepted than other CRC screening tests.[74] If we choose this route for the culture-specific arm, preliminary data from our barbers suggest that the PI may teach the barbers the MI technique using content stems from Objective 1 findings. Additional components for this arm may be developed during the APEASE process.

Based on the PI's research[18-22] and evidence-based strategies,[75] the control arm will include an informational CRC screening brochure developed by the American Cancer Society[76] plus a FIT kit distributed by the barbers. Since the FIT kits will be free and the study will cover postage and processing fees, participants will be able to complete screening regardless of whether they have health insurance. Participants will mail the completed FIT kits to our local laboratory for processing. We will refer participants with positive FIT results to Huntsman Cancer Institute for a colonoscopy.

Participants and Procedures

Intervention participants will be non-Hispanic Black/African-American men (n = 60) who (1) have never completed CRC screening; (2) are aged 45–75 years; (3) were born in the U.S.; (4) reside in the Salt Lake City metro area; (5) have a telephone with internet access, and (6) speak English. As a feasibility intervention, sample size is not based on the power to detect a certain effect size.[77] Rather, n = 60 (30 per arm) was chosen based on practical considerations (e.g., cost, recruitment).

The intervention will comprise a *recruitment phase* and an *implementation phase*. The recruitment phase will occur during the last 6 months of Year 3. With the assistance of barbers and culture-specific marketing materials, we will enroll 10 eligible African-American men at each of 6 barbershops. At baseline, participants will complete the demographic portion of our online survey. Once total enrollment is reached and consent obtained, the 6 barbershops will be randomized to the culture-specific or control arm using a permuted block size of 6. Then the implementation phase will begin. These distinct phases provide advantages in a cluster-randomized design. First, we eliminate recruitment bias as we blind participants to the

intervention at enrollment.[77] Second, the distinct phases allow each man to be exposed to the intervention for the same amount of time. We foresee the recruitment phase lasting 3 months and the implementation phase 7 months, resulting in a 10-month intervention, allowing ample time for participants to obtain CRC screening.

During the last 6 months of Year 4, our coding team will conduct exit interviews. Prior literature documents that 6 to 12 individual interviews per homogeneous group are sufficient to reach data saturation.[78,79] Thus, 18 in-depth, 60-minute participant interviews (2 participants from each of the 6 barbershops plus 3 barbers from each arm) will permit us to obtain rigorous outcomes data as well as participant accounts of what worked well and what did not for our two-arm intervention's implementation.

Analyses

Descriptive statistics will summarize participants' baseline characteristics. Continuous variables will be summarized by mean (standard deviation) or median (interquartile range), and categorical variables in contingency tables. Feasibility of the study protocol will be evaluated as follows:

- 1) *Recruitment.* We will calculate the number of days needed to reach full enrollment at each barbershop, the percentage of men meeting eligibility criteria and, of those, the percentage who chose to enroll.
- 2) Sample Size Estimation. The intraclass correlation coefficient will be estimated from our study data and inflated (due to the expected downward bias) to estimate the necessary sample size for the full trial.[80]

3) *Preliminary Efficacy*. By treatment arm, we will calculate the percentage for whom we can ascertain FIT uptake. We will assess intervention adherence 7 months after the recruitment phase by FIT kits returned to our laboratory for processing. Because we will have only 3 barbershops per arm, no formal statistical analysis of FIT uptake will be performed. Instead, percentages for these outcomes will be calculated by barbershop. We will perform this as intent-to-treat, with men included based in the arm to which their shop was randomized. A per-protocol analysis will also be performed. Many more barbershops are needed to accurately account for the correlation of African-American men within the same barbershop and achieve a cluster-level confounding balance.[81] In our pilot trial, a logistic mixed-effects model with a random intercept for each barbershop will be used to estimate the odds ratios comparing CRC screening uptake between our control and culture-specific arms.

4) Acceptability. After the 7-month intervention phase, we will conduct 18 post-intervention interviews to obtain rigorous outcomes data. The audio-recorded and transcribed post-intervention interviews will be analyzed by our coding team using Nvivo [64] and Creswell's methods.[82] To increase our findings' internal validity, data will be triangulated or compared from the perspectives of the 2 study arms.[83]

Conclusion

African-American men have the highest CRC mortality across all gender and racial/ethnic groups. Moreover, national findings predict a 28% to 46% increase in CRC incidence among adults ages 35-49 years, including African-American men, by 2030.[9] Our study aims to aid in reducing CRC screening inequities among African-American men by creating a new, culture-specific intervention that directly addresses masculinity barriers to care,

psychosocial factors, and CRC screening uptake among African-American men beginning at age 45 years. Subsequently, we will test its feasibility and acceptability in a cluster-randomized pilot intervention.

Completing our objective will provide the preliminary data needed for an R01 application to test the new intervention's efficacy in a large-scale, well-powered, cluster-randomized controlled trial. More broadly, this research will demonstrate that decisions regarding CRC screening uptake are not detached from cultural and other influences. We will use the culture-specific survey instrument we create to more rigorously assess the association between masculinity barriers to care and CRC screening uptake. This will strengthen our scale's predictive utility while endorsing optimal health for African-American men as warranted by Healthy People 2020. [82] Additionally, our scale could be adapted for use in research on other types of cancer (e.g., prostate cancer) that disproportionately affect African-American and other underrepresented men.

Overall, our efforts will serve as a model for more culture-specific tailored approaches to prevention, diagnosis, and treatment, a goal aligned with the NCI's Cancer Moonshot initiative.

Ethics and dissemination

Signed informed consent will be obtained from all participants prior to any data collection. Study results will be disseminated through publications in peer-reviewed journals, discourse sessions with the community, and presentations at national and international professional conferences.

References

- 1 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US). Vital signs: colorectal cancer screening test use—United States. Atlanta, GA: U.S. Centers for Disease Control *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2012;62(44):881–88
- 2 American Cancer Society. Colorectal cancer facts & figures 2017–2019. https://www.cancer.org/content/dam/cancer-org/research/cancer-facts-and-statistics/colorectal-cancer-facts-and-figures/colorectal-cancer-facts-and-figures-2017-2019.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 3 Agrawal S, Bhupinderjit A., Bhutani MS, et al. Colorectal cancer in African Americans. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2005;100:515–23.
- 4 Agrawal J, Syngal S. Colon cancer screening strategies. Curr Opin Gastroenterol 2005;21(1):59–63.
- 5 Gwede CK, Ward BG, Luque JS, et al. Application of geographic information systems and asset mapping to facilitate identification of colorectal cancer screening resources. *Online J Public Health Inform* 2010;2(1):2893.
- 6 American Cancer Society. *Cancer facts & figures for African Americans 2016-2018*. http://www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemiologysurveilance/documents/document/acspc-036921.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 7 U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for colorectal cancer: U.S. preventive services task force recommendation statement. *J Am Med Assoc* 2016;315(23):2564–75. doi: 10.1001/jama.2016.5989 8 Rex DK, Johnson DA, Anderson JC, et al. American College of Gastroenterology guidelines for colorectal cancer screening 2008. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2009;104(3):1739–50.
- 9 Bailey CE, Hu CY, You YN, et al. Increasing disparities in the age-related incidences of colon and rectal cancers in the United States, 1975-2010. *JAMA Surg* 2015;150(1):17–22. doi: 10.1001/jamasurg.2014.1756.
- 10 David D, Brannon R. The male sex role: our culture's blueprint for manhood, and what it's done for us lately. In: David D, Brannon R, eds. *The Forty-Nine Percent Majority: The Male Sex Role*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley 1976:1–48.

- 11 Levant RF. The male role: an investigation of contemporary norms. *J Ment Health Couns* 1992;14(3):325–37.
- 12 Mahalik JR, Locke BD, Ludlow LH, et al. Development of the conformity to masculine norms inventory. *Psychol Men Masc* 2003;4(1):3–25.
- 13 Hammond WP, Matthews D, Mohottige D, et al. Masculinity, medical mistrust, and preventive health services delays among community-dwelling African-American men. *J Crit Care Med* 2010;25(12):1300–08. doi:10.1007/s11606-010-1481-z.
- 14 Courtenay WH. Constructions of masculinity and their influence on men's well-being: a theory of gender and health. *Social Science & Medicine* 2000;50:1385–401.
- 15 Griffith DM, Gunter K, Allen JO. (2012). A systematic approach to developing contextual, culturally, and gender-sensitive interventions for African-American men: The example of men 4 health. *Cancer disparities: Causes and evidence-based solutions*. New York, NY: Springer 2012:193–206.
- 16 Harrison J. Warning: The male sex role may be dangerous to your health. *J Soc Issues* 1978;34:65–86. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4560.1978.tb02541.x
- 17 Marcell AV, Ford CA, Pleck JH, et al. Masculine beliefs, parental communication, and male adolescents' health care use. *Pediatrics* 2007;119:966–75.
- 18 Rogers CR, Mitchell JA, Franta GJ, et al. Masculinity, racism, social support, and colorectal cancer screening uptake among African American men: a systematic review. *Am J Mens Health* 2017;11(5):1486–1500. doi:10.1177/1557988315611227
- 19 Rogers CR, Goodson P, Obidike OJ. Measuring factors associated with colorectal cancer screening among young adult African American men: a psychometric study. *J Immigr Minor Health* 2018;20(1):101–06. doi:10.1007/s10903-016-0523-y [published Online First: 4 November 2016]. 20 Rogers CR, Goodson P, Foster MJ. Factors associated with colorectal cancer screening among younger African American men: a systematic review. *J Health Dispar Res Pract* 2015;8(1):133–56. http://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/jhdrp/vol8/iss3/8 (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

- 21 Rogers CR, Goodson P. Male role norms, knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions of colorectal cancer screening among young adult African American men. *Front in Public Health* 2014;2(52):1–12. doi:10.3389/fpubh.2014.00252
- 22 Rogers CR, Goodson P, Dietz LR, et al. Predictors of intention to obtain colorectal cancer screening among African American men in a state fair setting. *Am J Mens Health*, 2016:1–12. doi:0.1177/1557988316647942
- 23 Levant, R F, Hall R.J., & Rankin T.J. Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF):

 Development, confirmatory factor analytic investigation of structure, and measurement invariance across gender. *J Couns Psychol* 2013;60(2), 228-238.
- 24 Winterich JA, Quandt SA, Grzywacz JG, et al. Masculinity and the body: how African-American and White men experience cancer screening exams involving the rectum. *Am J Mens Health* 2009:3(4):300–09.
- 25 Beeker C, Kraft JM, Southwell BG, et al. Colorectal cancer screening in older men and women: qualitative research findings and implications for intervention. *J Community Health* 2000;25(3):263–78. 26 McKinstry B, Ashcroft RE, Car J, et al. Interventions for improving patients' trust in doctors and groups of doctors. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2006;3:1–26. doi:10.1002/14651858.CD004134.pub2 27 LaVeist TA, Nickerson KJ, Bowie JV. Attitudes about racism, medical mistrust, and satisfaction with care among African American and white cardiac patients. *Med Care Res Rev* 2000;57:146–61. 28 Adams LB, Richmond J, Corbie-Smith G, et al. Medical mistrust and colorectal cancer screening among African Americans. *J Community Health* 2017;42(5):1044–61. doi:10.1007/s10900-017-0339-2 29 Griffith DM, Johnson JL. Implications of racism for African American men's cancer risk, morbidity, and mortality. In: Treadwell HM, Xantos C, Holden CB, eds. *Social determinants of health among African-American men*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass 2013:21–38.
- 30 Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation. Fact sheet: the health status of African American men in the United States. http://www.kff.org/minorityhealth/upload/7630.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

- 31 Griffith DM, Gunter K, Watkins DC. Measuring masculinity in research on men of color: findings and future directions. *Am J Public Health*, 2012;102(S2):S187–S194.
- 32 Airhihenbuwa CO. *Health and Culture: Beyond the Western Paradigm*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications 1995.
- 33 Linnan LA, D'Angelo H, Harrington CB. A literature synthesis of health promotion research in salons and barbershops. *Am J Prev Med* 2014;47(1):77–85. doi: 10.1016/j.amepre.2014.02.007
- 34 Luque JS, Ross L, Gwede CK. Qualitative systematic review of barber-administered health education, promotion, screening and outreach programs in African-American Communities. *J Community Health* 2014;39(1):181–90.
- 35 Hood S, Hall M, Dixon C, et al. Organizational-level recruitment of barbershops as health promotion intervention study sites. *Health Promot Pract* 2018;19(3):377–89. doi:10.1177/1524839917696715 [published Online First: 23 Mar 2017].
- 36 Teo CH, Ling CJ, Nq CJ. Improving health screening uptake in men: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Am J Prev Med* 2018;54(1):133–43. doi:10.1016/j.amepre.2017.08.028
- 37 Cole H, Thompson HS, White M, et al. Community-based, preclinical patient navigation for colorectal cancer screening among older black men recruited from barbershops: the Mister B trial. *Am J Public Health* 2017;107(9):1433–40. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2017.303885
- 38 Mansfield, AK, ME Addis, and W Courtenay. "Measurement of Men's Help Seeking: Development and Evaluation of the Barriers to Help Seeking Scale." *Psychology of Men & Masculinity* 6 (2)2005: 95–108.
- 39 Campbell MK, Piaggio G, Elbourne DR. Consort 2010 statement: extension to cluster randomized trials. *BMJ* 2012;345:e5661. doi: 10.1136/bmj.e5661
- 40 Thompson, HS, HB Valdimarsdottir, G Winkel, L Jandorf, and W Redd. "The Group-Based Medical Mistrust Scale: Psychometric Properties and Association with Breast Cancer Screening." *Preventive Medicine* 38 (2)2004: 209–18.

- 41 Mincey, K, M Alfonso, A Hackney, and J Luque. "Being a Black Man: Development of the Masculinity Inventory Scale (MIS) for Black Men ." *The Journal of Men's Studies* 22 (3)2014: 167–79 .
- 42 Bowleg, L, D English, AM Del Rio-Gonzalez, G J Burkholder, M Teti, and JM Tschann. "Measuring the Pros and Cons of What It Means to Be a Black Man: Development and Validation of the Black Men's Experiences Scale (BMES)." *Psychol Men Masc* 17 (2)2016: 177–88.
- 43 Nastasi BK, Varjas K, Bernstein R, et al. Conducting participatory culture-specific consultation: a global perspective on multicultural consultation. *School Psych Rev* 2000;29(3):401–13.
- 44 Ajzen I, Fishbein M. *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Publishing 1980.
- 45 Nastasi BK, Hitchcock JH. *Mixed Methods Research and Culture-Specific Interventions: Program Design and Evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications 2016.
- 46 Glandon D, Paina L, Alonge O, et al. 10 Best resources for community engagement in implementation research. *Health Policy and Plan* 2017;32(10):1457–65. doi:10.1093/heapol/czx123
- 47 Michie S, van Stralen MM, West R. The behaviour change wheel: a new method for characterizing and designing behaviour change interventions. *Implementation Science* 2011;6:42–42.
- 48 Office of Health Disparities. Moving forward in 2016: fifteen years of health data for Blacks/African Americans in Utah. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah Department of Health.
- https://health.utah.gov/disparities/data/race-ethnicity-report/MovingForwardAA2016.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 49 United State Census Bureau. QuickFacts Salt Lake City city, Utah; United States.
- https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/saltlakecitycityutah,US/PST045217 (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 50 Agrawal J, Syngal S. Colon cancer screening strategies. Curr Opin Gastroenterol 2005;21(1):59-63.
- 51 Wallace PM, Suzuki R. Regional, racial, and gender differences in colorectal cancer screening in middle-aged African-Americans and Whites. *J Cancer Educ* 2012;27(4):703–08. doi:10.1007/s13187-012-0396-2

- 52 Martinez KA, Pollack CE, Phelan DF, et al. Gender differences in correlates of colorectal cancer screening among black Medicare beneficiaries in Baltimore. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2013;22(6):1037–42. doi:10.1158/1055-9965.epi-12-1215
- 53 Krueger RA, Casey MA. Focus group interviewing. In: Wholey J, Hattry H, Newcomer K, eds. *The Handbook of Practical Program Evaluation*. 3rd ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass 2010:378–403.
- 54 Krueger RA, Casey MA. Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research. 5th ed. SAGE Publications 2014.
- 55 Glaser BG, Strauss AL. *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research.* New York: Aldine De Gruyter 1967.
- 56 Strauss A, Corbin J. *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications 1990.
- 57 Miles MB, Huberman AM. *Qualitative Data Analysis*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 1994.
- 58 Saldana J. *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 2009.
- 59 Willis GB. *Cognitive Interviewing: A Tool for Improving Questionnaire Design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications 2005.
- 60 Sudman S, Bradburn NM, Schwarz N. *Thinking about Answers: The Application of Cognitive Processes to Survey Methodology*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers 1996.
- 61 Bornstein RF, Rossner SC, Hill EL, et al. Face validity and fakability of objective and projective measures of dependency. *J Pers Assess* 1994;63:363–86.
- 62 Willis, G, and J Lessler. *Questionnaire Appraisal System-1999*. Research Triangle Park, NC: Research Triangle Institute1999.
- 63 Messick S. Validity of psychological assessment: Validation of inferences from persons' responses and performances as scientific inquiry into score meaning. *Am Psychol* 1995;50:741–9.
- 64 Nevo B. Face validity revisited. *J Educ Meas* 1985;22:287–93.

65 Andrews D, Nonnecke B, Preece J. Electronic survey methodology: a case study in reaching hard to involve Internet Users. *Int J Hum Comput Interact* 2003;16(2):185–210.

- 66 The Nielsen Company. Multifaceted connections: African-American media usage outpaces across platforms. http://www.nielsen.com/us/en/insights/news/2015/multifaceted-connections-african-american-media-usage-outpaces-across-platforms.html (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 67 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2016 behavioral risk factor surveillance system questionnaire. https://www.cdc.gov/brfss/questionnaires/pdf-ques/2016_brfss_questionnaire_final.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).
- 68 Gimeno García AZ. Factors influencing colorectal cancer screening participation. *Gastroenterol Res Pract* 2012;2012(483417):1–8. doi: 10.1155/2012/483417.
- 69 Fetters MD, Curry LA, Creswell JW. Achieving integration in mixed methods designs principles and practices. *Health Services Research* 2013;48(6):2134–56.
- 70 Miller WR, Rollnick S. *Motivational Interviewing Helping People Change*. New York: Guilford Press 2013:12.
- 71 Spencer JC, Wheeler SB. A systematic review of Motivational Interviewing interventions in cancer patients and survivors. *Patient Education and Counseling* 2016;99(7):1099–105.

doi:10.1016/j.pec.2016.02.003

72 Miller SJ, Foran-Tuller K, Ledergerber J, et al. Motivational interviewing to improve health screening uptake: a systematic review. *Patient Education and Counseling* 2017;100(2):190–8.

doi:10.1016/j.pec.2016.08.027

- 73 Resnicow K, Jackson A, Wang T, et al. A motivational interviewing intervention to increase fruit and vegetable intake through black churches: results of the eat for life trial. *Am J Public Health* 2001;91(10):1686–93. doi:10.2105/AJPH.91.10.1686
- 74 Robertson DJ, Lee JK, Boland CR, et al. Recommendations on fecal immunochemical testing to screen for colorectal neoplasia: a consensus statement by the US multi-society task force on colorectal cancer. *Gastroenterol* 2017;152(5):1217–37. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2016.08.053

75 National Cancer Institute. (2018). Colorectal cancer screening intervention programs. https://rtips.cancer.gov/rtips/topicPrograms.do?topicId=102265&choice=default (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

76 American Cancer Society. (2017). They know how to prevent colon cancer – and you can, too.

https://www.cancer.org/content/dam/cancer-org/cancer-control/en/booklets-flyers/they-know-how-to-prevent-colon-cancer-handout.pdf (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

77 Eldridge S, Kerry S, Torgerson D. Bias in identifying and recruiting participants in cluster randomized trials: what can be done?" *BMJ* 2009;339:b4006. doi: 10.1136/bmj.b4006

78 Crabtree BF, Miller MW. Using codes and code manuals. In: Crabtree BF Miller MW, eds. *Doing Qualitative Research*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage 1999.

79 Creswell JW. Analyzing and validating data. In: *30 Essential Skills for the Qualitative Researcher*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications 2015:151–65.

80 Leon AC, Davis LL, Kraemer HC. The role and interpretation of pilot studies in clinical research. *J Psych Res* 2011;45(5):626–9.

81 Creswell JW. Sampling and Integration Issues. *A Concise Introduction to Mixed Methods Research*.

Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage 2015:74–75.

82 Secretary's Advisory Committee on Health Promotion and Disease Prevention Objectives for 2020. Healthy people 2020: an opportunity to address the societal determinants of health in the United States. http://www.healthypeople.gov/2010/hp2020/advisory/SocietalDeterminantsHealth.htm (accessed 7 Feb 2019).

83 Chan A-W, Tetzlaff JM, Altman DG, Laupacis A, Gøtzsche PC, Krleža-Jerić K, Hróbjartsson A, Mann H, Dickersin K, Berlin J, Doré C, Parulekar W, Summerskill W, Groves T, Schulz K, Sox H, Rockhold FW, Rennie D, Moher D. SPIRIT 2013 Statement: Defining standard protocol items for clinical trials. *Ann Intern Med* 2013;158(3):200-207.

Authors' contributions and data access statement

KO, EDP, MH, SZ, RJT, and MDF serve as data monitoring committee (DMC) members for this study, while additional data monitoring, harms, and auditing logistics are available from the University of Utah Institutional Review Board. Only the DMC will have access to the full pilot trial dataset in order to ensure that the overall results are not disclosed by an individual study site prior to the main publication.

CRR is the study PI, wrote the first draft of the study protocol, and edited every draft thereafter. KO is a Primary Mentor for the study and edited the study protocol with the PI. EDP is a Secondary Mentor of the study and edited the study protocol with the PI. Study Co-Mentors MH, SZ, and RJT edited the study protocol with the PI. CR and TNR are Co-Investigators of the study and edited the study protocol with the PI. In addition to being a mixed-methods expert, MDF is a Co-Mentor on the study who edited the study protocol extensively with the PI as a senior co-author. All authors agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the study in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the study are appropriately investigated and resolved. Lastly, all authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

The research team extends gratitude to Eleanor Mayfield for editorial assistance.

Funding

This work was supported by the National Cancer Institute of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) under Award Number K01CA234319. RJT was supported by the National Institute on Aging (K02AG059140) and the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities

(U54MD000214-6867). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

Conflicts of Interests

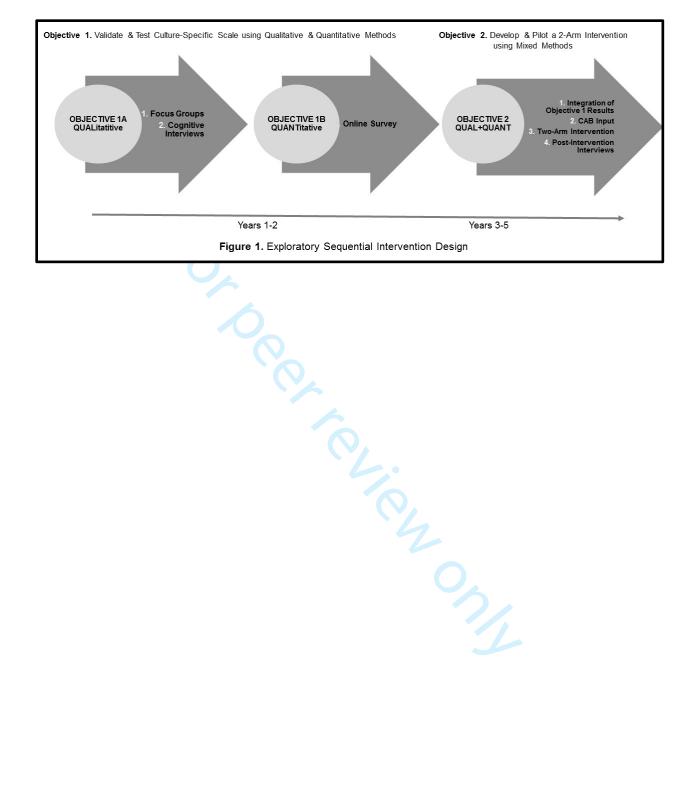
None declared.

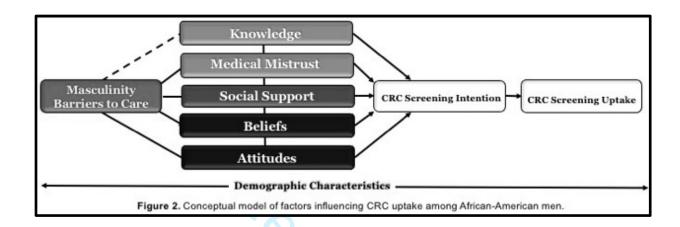
Figure legends

Figure 1. Exploratory Sequential Intervention Design

Figure 2. Conceptual model of factors influencing CRC screening uptake among African-

American men





Reporting checklist for protocol of a clinical trial.

Based on the SPIRIT guidelines.

Instructions to authors

Complete this checklist by entering the page numbers from your manuscript where readers will find each of the items listed below.

Your article may not currently address all the items on the checklist. Please modify your text to include the missing information. If you are certain that an item does not apply, please write "n/a" and provide a short explanation.

Upload your completed checklist as an extra file when you submit to a journal.

In your methods section, say that you used the SPIRIT reporting guidelines, and cite them as:

Chan A-W, Tetzlaff JM, Altman DG, Laupacis A, Gøtzsche PC, Krleža-Jerić K, Hróbjartsson A, Mann H, Dickersin K, Berlin J, Doré C, Parulekar W, Summerskill W, Groves T, Schulz K, Sox H, Rockhold FW, Rennie D, Moher D. SPIRIT 2013 Statement: Defining standard protocol items for clinical trials. Ann Intern Med. 2013;158(3):200-207

			Page
		Reporting Item	Number
Title	#1	Descriptive title identifying the study design, population, interventions, and, if applicable, trial acronym	1
Trial registration	#2a	Trial identifier and registry name. If not yet registered, name of intended registry	4
Trial registration: data set	#2b	All items from the World Health Organization Trial Registration Data Set	4
Protocol version	#3	Date and version identifier	1
Funding	#4	Sources and types of financial, material, and other support	30
Roles and responsibilities: contributorship	#5a	Names, affiliations, and roles of protocol contributors	29
Roles and responsibilities:	#5b	Name and contact information for the trial sponsor	30

2 3 4

5

6 7

8

9 10

11 12

13

14 15

16

17 18 19

20

21 22

23 24

25 26

27

28 29

30 31 32

33

34 35

36 37

38

39 40

41 42

43 44

45

46 47 48

49

50 51 52

53

54

55 56 57

58

59

60

			_
		laboratory tests)	
Interventions: concomitant care	#11d	Relevant concomitant care and interventions that are permitted or prohibited during the trial	20
Outcomes	#12	Primary, secondary, and other outcomes, including the specific measurement variable (eg, systolic blood pressure), analysis metric (eg, change from baseline, final value, time to event), method of aggregation (eg, median, proportion), and time point for each outcome. Explanation of the clinical relevance of chosen efficacy and harm outcomes is strongly recommended	20
Participant timeline	#13	Time schedule of enrolment, interventions (including any run-ins and washouts), assessments, and visits for participants. A schematic diagram is highly recommended (see Figure)	19
Sample size	#14	Estimated number of participants needed to achieve study objectives and how it was determined, including clinical and statistical assumptions supporting any sample size calculations	15
Recruitment	#15	Strategies for achieving adequate participant enrolment to reach target sample size	11
Allocation: sequence generation	#16a	Method of generating the allocation sequence (eg, computer- generated random numbers), and list of any factors for stratification. To reduce predictability of a random sequence, details of any planned restriction (eg, blocking) should be provided in a separate document that is unavailable to those who enrol participants or assign interventions	19
Allocation concealment mechanism	#16b	Mechanism of implementing the allocation sequence (eg, central telephone; sequentially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes), describing any steps to conceal the sequence until interventions are assigned	19
Allocation: implementation	#16c	Who will generate the allocation sequence, who will enrol participants, and who will assign participants to interventions	19
Blinding (masking)	#17a	Who will be blinded after assignment to interventions (eg, trial participants, care providers, outcome assessors, data analysts), and how	19
Blinding (masking): emergency	#17b	If blinded, circumstances under which unblinding is permissible, and procedure for revealing a participant's allocated intervention during review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml	N/A

BMJ Open

Page 38 of 41

	unblinding		the trial	
)	Data collection plan	#18a	Plans for assessment and collection of outcome, baseline, and other trial data, including any related processes to promote data quality (eg, duplicate measurements, training of assessors) and a description of study instruments (eg, questionnaires, laboratory tests) along with their reliability and validity, if known. Reference to where data collection forms can be found, if not in the protocol	12
<u>2</u> 3 1	Data collection plan: retention	#18b	Plans to promote participant retention and complete follow-up, including list of any outcome data to be collected for participants who discontinue or deviate from intervention protocols	12
7 3 9 9 9 9	Data management	#19	Plans for data entry, coding, security, and storage, including any related processes to promote data quality (eg, double data entry; range checks for data values). Reference to where details of data management procedures can be found, if not in the protocol	12
1 5 7 8	Statistics: outcomes	#20a	Statistical methods for analysing primary and secondary outcomes. Reference to where other details of the statistical analysis plan can be found, if not in the protocol	16
)) <u>2</u>	Statistics: additional analyses	#20b	Methods for any additional analyses (eg, subgroup and adjusted analyses)	18
3 1 5 7	Statistics: analysis population and missing data	#20c	Definition of analysis population relating to protocol non-adherence (eg, as randomised analysis), and any statistical methods to handle missing data (eg, multiple imputation)	13
3)) 2 3 1	Data monitoring: formal committee	#21a	Composition of data monitoring committee (DMC); summary of its role and reporting structure; statement of whether it is independent from the sponsor and competing interests; and reference to where further details about its charter can be found, if not in the protocol. Alternatively, an explanation of why a DMC is not needed	29
7 3 3)	Data monitoring: interim analysis	#21b	Description of any interim analyses and stopping guidelines, including who will have access to these interim results and make the final decision to terminate the trial	29
2 3 4 5	Harms	#22	Plans for collecting, assessing, reporting, and managing solicited and spontaneously reported adverse events and other unintended effects of trial interventions or trial conduct	29
7 })	Auditing	#23	Frequency and procedures for auditing trial conduct, if any, and	29
)		For peer	review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml	

		whether the process will be independent from investigators and the sponsor	
Research ethics approval	#24	Plans for seeking research ethics committee / institutional review board (REC / IRB) approval	4
Protocol amendments	#25	Plans for communicating important protocol modifications (eg, changes to eligibility criteria, outcomes, analyses) to relevant parties (eg, investigators, REC / IRBs, trial participants, trial registries, journals, regulators)	9
Consent or assent	#26a	Who will obtain informed consent or assent from potential trial participants or authorised surrogates, and how (see Item 32)	12
Consent or assent: ancillary studies	#26b	Additional consent provisions for collection and use of participant data and biological specimens in ancillary studies, if applicable	19
Confidentiality	#27	How personal information about potential and enrolled participants will be collected, shared, and maintained in order to protect confidentiality before, during, and after the trial	12
Declaration of interests	#28	Financial and other competing interests for principal investigators for the overall trial and each study site	30
Data access	#29	Statement of who will have access to the final trial dataset, and disclosure of contractual agreements that limit such access for investigators	29
Ancillary and post trial care	#30	Provisions, if any, for ancillary and post-trial care, and for compensation to those who suffer harm from trial participation	21
Dissemination policy: trial results	#31a	Plans for investigators and sponsor to communicate trial results to participants, healthcare professionals, the public, and other relevant groups (eg, via publication, reporting in results databases, or other data sharing arrangements), including any publication restrictions	22
Dissemination policy: authorship	#31b	Authorship eligibility guidelines and any intended use of professional writers	N/A
Dissemination policy: reproducible research	#31c	Plans, if any, for granting public access to the full protocol, participant-level dataset, and statistical code	n/A
Informed consent materials	#32	Model consent form and other related documentation given to participants and authorised surrogates	N/A

For peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

BMJ Open

Page 40 of 41

Biological specimens #33 Plans for collection, laboratory evaluation, and storage of biological specimens for genetic or molecular analysis in the current trial and for future use in ancillary studies, if applicable

N/A

The SPIRIT checklist is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License CC-BY-ND 3.0. This checklist was completed on 21. February 2019 using https://www.goodreports.org/, a tool made by the EQUATOR Network in collaboration with Penelope.ai

