

1
2
3
4 **Prostate Cancer Incidence Among Immigrant Men in Ontario, Canada: A Population-Based**
5
6 **Retrospective Cohort Study**
7

8 Aisha K Lofters MD PhD^{1,2,3,4,5,6}, Jacqueline L Bender PhD^{6,7,8}, Sarah Swayze MSc⁴, Shabbir Alibhai
9 PhD^{7,9}, Anthony Henry BA¹⁰, Kenneth Noel BSc¹⁰, Geetanjali Datta ScD^{11,12,13}
10
11
12
13
14
15

16 **Affiliations:**

- 17
18 1. Peter Gilgan Centre for Women's Cancers, Women's College Hospital, Toronto, Canada
19
20 2. Department of Family & Community Medicine, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada
21
22 3. Women's College Hospital Research Institute, Toronto, Canada
23
24 4. ICES, Toronto, Canada
25
26 5. Dalla Lana School of Public Health, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada
27
28 6. MAP Centre for Urban Health Solutions, Unity Health Toronto, Toronto, Canada
29
30 7. University Health Network, Toronto, Canada
31
32 8. Institute of Health Policy, Management and Evaluation, University of Toronto, Toronto,
33
34 Canada
35
36 9. Toronto General Hospital, Toronto, Canada
37
38 10. Walnut Foundation, Toronto, Canada
39
40 11. Cedar-Sinai Medical Center, Los Angeles, USA
41
42 12. Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, Université de Montréal, Montreal Canada
43
44 13. Research Center of the University of Montreal Hospital Center (CR-CHUM), Montreal Canada
45
46
47
48
49

50 **Corresponding Author:**

51 Aisha K. Lofters

52
53 Peter Gilgan Centre for Women's Cancers, Women's College Hospital, 76 Grenville St., Toronto, ON,
54
55 M5S 1B2, Aisha.lofters@wchospital.ca
56
57
58
59
60

ABSTRACT

Background: Prostate cancer incidence has been associated with various sociodemographic factors, such as race, income and age, but the association with immigrant status in Canada is unclear. In this population-based study, we compared age-standardized incidence rates for immigrant men from various regions of origin compared to long-term residents of Ontario, Canada for 2008-2016. **Methods:** We linked several provincial-level databases available at ICES, an independent, non-profit research institute. We determined age-standardized prostate cancer incidence rates, stratifying by immigrant status and region of origin. We used a log binomial model to estimate adjusted incidence rate ratios, with long-term residents as the reference group. We included age, neighbourhood income, and time since landing in the models. Models were repeated and limited to immigrant men in the cohort; these models included immigration admission category and time since landing in Canada. **Results:** There were 74,594 incident cases of prostate cancer in the study period, 6,742 of which were among immigrant men. Men who had immigrated from West Africa and the Caribbean had significantly higher incidence of prostate cancer than other immigrants and long-term residents: age-standardized incidence rates of 2.71 [95% CI 2.41-3.05] and 1.91 [95% CI 1.78-2.04] respectively. Immigrants from other regions, including East Africa and Middle-Southern Africa, had lower or similar incidence rates to long-term residents. Men from South Asia had the lowest adjusted rate ratio (0.47 [95% CI 0.45-0.50]). **Conclusion:** These findings suggest that describing all Black men as at higher risk of prostate cancer is likely inaccurate in the Canadian context.

INTRODUCTION

Prostate cancer is the 2nd most common cancer among men worldwide, and the most common cancer among men in 112 countries including Canada (1). In Canada, one in nine men will be diagnosed with prostate cancer during their lifetime and one in 29 will die from it (2). Ontario is Canada's largest province based on population with approximately 13 million people, and has the 2nd highest age-standardized incidence rate of prostate cancer of all Canadian provinces, reported at 121.8 cases per 100,000 (2).

Ontario also has a sizeable and diverse foreign-born population; 29% of the province's population are immigrants according to the 2016 Canada Census, coming from over 200 countries (3). It is important to understand where differences, if any, in prostate cancer risk for immigrants to ensure that we are best serving the healthcare needs of a very diverse population. However, very little is known about prostate cancer risk among immigrants in the Ontario or Canadian context. Incidence of breast and colorectal cancers have previously been found to differ significantly for immigrants versus long-term residents of Ontario, and to vary by region of origin and time in Canada (4), and it is reasonable to consider the same may hold true for prostate cancer. Although prostate cancer is pervasive worldwide, incidence rates vary widely from country to country (1), and may similarly vary widely for Ontario's immigrant men. As well, Black men are commonly considered to be at higher risk for prostate cancer (5-9). Race-based data are not systematically collected in Ontario or in Canada, but approximately half of Canada's Black population are immigrants, with the top countries of birth for Black Ontarians being Jamaica, Nigeria, Trinidad, Somalia, Ghana and Ethiopia (10).

1
2 Prostate cancer incidence has also been associated with other demographic factors. The risk of
3
4 prostate cancer increases with age, such that 40% of all prostate cancer cases occur in men aged 60-69
5
6 years (2). Higher levels of socioeconomic status have been associated with increased incidence (11,
7
8 12). Therefore, in this population-based study, we aimed to describe and compare age-standardized
9
10 incidence rates for immigrant men from various regions of origin compared to long-term residents of
11
12 Ontario for 2008-2016, and to better understand the role of sociodemographic and health factors on
13
14 prostate cancer incidence, specifically age, neighbourhood income quintile, immigration admission
15
16 category, and years in Canada.
17
18
19

20 **METHODS**

21
22 This study was approved by the Research Ethics Board of Unity Health Toronto.

23
24 Data Sources: We used several databases available at ICES, an independent, non-profit research
25
26 institute funded by an annual grant from the Ontario Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Long-Term
27
28 Care. As a prescribed entity under Ontario's privacy legislation, ICES is authorized to collect and use
29
30 health care data for the purposes of health system analysis, evaluation, and decision support. Secure
31
32 access to these data is governed by policies and procedures that are approved by the Information and
33
34 Privacy Commissioner of Ontario. ICES houses a secure array of Ontario's health-related
35
36 administrative provincial-level data. Data include population demographics and health service use
37
38 information on all Ontario residents who are eligible for the province's universal Ontario Health
39
40 Insurance Plan (OHIP). All Canadian citizens, permanent residents/landed immigrants and refugees
41
42 who live in Ontario are eligible for OHIP (13). All datasets are linked using unique encoded identifiers
43
44 and analyzed at ICES.
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

52 We used the Immigration, Refugee and Citizenship Canada Permanent Resident (IRCC-PR)
53
54 database, which includes demographic information on Ontario's immigrants and refugees who landed
55
56 from 1985 onward, including country of origin, date of landing, and immigration admission category
57
58
59
60

1
2 (14). We also used the Ontario Cancer Registry, which includes all Ontario residents who have been
3
4 newly diagnosed with cancer (except non-melanoma skin cancers), including the primary cancer site
5
6 and diagnosis date. Other databases that we used included the Primary Care Population dataset, which
7
8 is a bi-annual cohort of OHIP eligible Ontario residents with a date of last contact with the healthcare
9
10 system within 7-9 years of index; the Registered Persons Database, which includes date of birth, sex,
11
12 postal code, and dates of contact with the healthcare system; and the OHIP Database, which contains
13
14 procedural and diagnostic codes claimed by physicians in the province.
15
16
17
18
19

20 Study Population: We used the Primary Care Population dataset to identify all men aged 20 years and
21
22 over in the province of Ontario eligible for health care for each fiscal year in 2008-2016. We identified
23
24 incident prostate cancer cases for each year by linking annual cohorts to the Ontario Cancer Registry.
25
26 We defined men in the IRCC-PR database as immigrants, and those not in the IRCC-PR database as
27
28 long-term residents (as this group would include men who immigrated before 1985). We categorized
29
30 immigrant men by region of origin (i.e. Caribbean, Latin America, Western Europe, Eastern Europe
31
32 and Central Asia, Middle East and North Africa, East Asia and the Pacific, West Africa, East Africa,
33
34 Middle-Southern Africa, and Australia, New Zealand and the USA) based on country of birth. These
35
36 regions reflect classifications by the World Bank (15), with sub-classifications of Sub-Saharan Africa
37
38 reflecting the United Nations geoscheme (16).
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 Study Outcome: We determined age-standardized incidence rates (annual and for 2008-2016 overall) of
46
47 prostate cancer, age-standardized against the 2016 Canadian Census population standard.
48
49
50

51
52 Study Variables: We examined other variables that reflected factors potentially relevant to differences
53
54 in prostate cancer incidence: age (determined from the Registered Persons Database), neighbourhood
55
56 income quintile – a proxy for socioeconomic status determined from linking the postal code of the
57
58
59
60

1 individual's home address from the Registered Persons Database to 2016 Census data on mean
2 household income, and for immigrant men only, immigration admission category, also a likely
3 indicator of socioeconomic status, categorized as economic (i.e. skilled workers, business class), family
4 class (family reunification and sponsorship), and refugees or asylum seekers, and time since landing
5 based on IRCC-PR data.
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

Analysis: First, we conducted descriptive analyses and calculated chi-square statistics to describe the
16 study cohort, for each year and overall. We calculated age-standardized incidence rates for each year
17 and overall, stratifying by immigrant status and region of origin. We then used a log binomial model to
18 estimate adjusted incidence rate ratios, with long-term residents as the reference group. We included
19 age, neighbourhood income, and time since landing in the models. Then models were repeated and
20 limited to immigrant men in the cohort; these models included immigration admission category and
21 time since landing in Canada as covariates.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31 RESULTS

32 Descriptive characteristics of the overall cohort (2008 to 2016) are shown in Table 1. Immigrant
33 men tended to be younger than long-term residents, with men from Middle-Southern Africa having a
34 median age of 41 years versus long-term residents' median age of 48 years. The proportion of men in
35 each immigration admission category varied widely by region; 59.5% of Western European immigrants
36 were economic class versus 22.6% for Caribbean immigrants. More than half (57.1%) of Eastern
37 African immigrants came as refugees. Income quintile also varied widely. Caribbean, East African and
38 West African men were the least likely to live in the highest income quintiles (7.1%, 7.4% and 6.4%
39 respectively). Conversely, 28.5% of men from the USA, Australia and New Zealand lived in the
40 highest income quintile. Men from the USA, Australia and New Zealand and men from South Asia had
41 the lowest number of years since landing on average (mean 11.4 years and mean 11.8 years
42 respectively versus mean 13.6 years for immigrant men overall).
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 There were 74 594 incident cases of prostate cancer in the study period, 6 742 of which were
5
6 among immigrant men. Figure 1 displays the age-standardized incidence rates for each fiscal year from
7
8 2008 to 2016 for long-term residents and for immigrant men stratified by region of origin. Men who
9
10 had immigrated from West Africa and from the Caribbean consistently had higher incidence rates than
11
12 other immigrant groups and long-term residents; in every fiscal year, West African men had the highest
13
14 rates and Caribbean men had the second highest rates. Men from South Asia and East Asia consistently
15
16 had the lowest incidence rates. Table 2 and Figure 2 display age-standardized incidence rates for all
17
18 fiscal years combined. Overall, immigrant men had a lower incidence rate than long-term residents
19
20 (134.9 [95% confidence interval 131.6-138.3] vs. 184.4 [95% CI 183.0-185.8]), but the highest rates
21
22 were seen among men from Western Africa (475.3 [95% CI 385.7-579.4]) and the Caribbean (313.1
23
24 [95% CI 289.7-337.8]). Men from South Asia and East Asia had the lowest incidence rates (88.6 [95%
25
26 CI 83.3-94.1] and 104.0 [95% CI 98.4-109.8] respectively).

27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34 In adjusted analyses for the overall population (Table 3), significantly higher incidence rate
35
36 ratios were seen for immigrant men from Western Africa (ARR 2.71 [95% CI 2.41-3.05]) and the
37
38 Caribbean (ARR 1.91 [95% CI 1.78-2.04]) versus long-term residents. Significantly lower incidence
39
40 rate ratios were seen for men from East Africa (ARR 0.76 [95% CI 0.66-0.88], East Asia and the
41
42 Pacific (ARR 0.55 [95% CI 0.52-0.58]), Eastern Europe and Central Asia (ARR 0.84 [95% CI 0.79-
43
44 0.89]), the Middle East and North Africa (ARR 0.72 [95% CI 0.66-0.78]), and South Asia (ARR 0.47
45
46 [95% CI 0.45-0.50]). Neighbourhood income quintile and age group were also associated with
47
48 incidence in adjusted analyses (Table 3). As income quintile increased, incidence rate ratios increased
49
50 (ARR for quintile 5 1.22 [95% CI 1.20-1.25]). Compared to men age 60-69 years, men 70 years and
51
52 over had higher rate ratios (with the highest value seen for men 70-79 years: ARR 1.37 [95% CI 1.35-
53
54 1.39]). and men under 60 years had lower rate ratios.

1
2
3
4 In adjusted analyses for immigrant men only (Table 3), similar patterns were seen although the
5
6 income gradient was less pronounced (ARR for quintile 5 1.11 [1.02-1.20]). Men who had been in
7
8 Canada longer than 5 years had lower adjusted rate ratios than men who had been in Canada 5 years or
9
10 less, peaking at ARR 0.92 [95% CI 0.84-1.00] for men in Canada for 16-20 years. Immigration
11
12 admission category was not associated with prostate cancer incidence.
13
14

15 **DISCUSSION**

16
17
18 In this population-based study, we found that men who have immigrated from West Africa and
19
20 from the Caribbean have significantly and persistently higher incidence of prostate cancer than other
21
22 immigrants and long-term residents of Ontario: age-standardized incidence rates of 2.71 [95% CI 2.41-
23
24 3.05] and 1.91 [95% CI 1.78-2.04] respectively, representing a 171% and 91% higher incidence rate
25
26 than long-term residents. Immigrants from other major regions of the world either had lower or similar
27
28 incidence rates to long-term residents, with men from South Asia having the lowest adjusted rate ratios
29
30 (ARR 0.47 [95% CI 0.45-0.50]). We also found that higher neighbourhood income quintile and
31
32 advancing age were both associated with higher incidence of prostate cancer and that, among
33
34 immigrants, being in Canada for five years or less was associated with higher incidence.
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 Although we did not examine race in this study (Ontario does not collect the data to allow
42
43 researchers to do so at the provincial level), our findings suggest that describing Black men as a group
44
45 at higher risk of developing prostate cancer, as is common practice, is likely an oversimplification and
46
47 inaccurate in the Canadian context. We found that immigrants from the Caribbean and West Africa had
48
49 the highest incidence of prostate cancer, but that immigrants from East Africa and from Middle &
50
51 Southern African countries had lower incidence compared to long-term residents. Many immigrants
52
53 from the Caribbean and from these African sub-regions would be grouped together in the single racial
54
55 category of Black, but showed a diversity of incidence rates in this study. In the US context, African-
56
57
58
59
60

1 American men have been found to have a higher incidence of prostate cancer, the cause of which is not
2 well understood and has been speculated to be due to social, economic and environmental disparities as
3 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
4 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
5 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
6 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
7 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
8 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
9 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
10 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
11 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
12 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
13 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
14 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
15 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
16 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
17 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
18 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
19 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
20 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
21 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
22 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
23 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
24 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
25 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
26 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
27 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
28 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
29 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
30 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
31 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
32 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
33 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
34 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
35 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
36 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
37 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
38 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
39 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
40 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
41 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
42 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
43 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
44 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
45 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
46 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
47 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
48 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
49 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
50 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
51 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
52 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
53 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
54 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
55 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
56 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
57 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
58 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
59 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that
60 well as potential genetic differences (1)(5)(5-7, 17). If biology does play a role, and considering that

Although the Canadian literature is limited, these results are in line with other studies.

McDonald et al. used Canadian Census data and found that immigrant men overall had lower incidence of prostate cancer than Canadian-born men, and that immigrant men from the Americas (the Caribbean was not a separate group) had the highest odds ratio for prostate cancer (1.588, p-value <0.01) and that men from South Asia (OR 0.67, p-value 0.01) and other Asian nations (0.506, p-value <0.01) had the lowest when compared to immigrant men born in the US (21). In the Canadian province of Alberta, Chinese immigrants have been found to have lower prostate cancer incidence than Canadian-born men (22). Looking at international data, Sung et al found that African-American men and men in the Caribbean have the highest incidence rates globally, and suggested that West African ancestry modulates prostate cancer risk (1). They found men from South Central Asia had the lowest ASIRs (1). In Sweden, men from the Caribbean and from Middle Africa had increased incidence; immigrant men overall had decreased incidence (23).

1
2
3
4 Our finding that incidence rate increased as income quintile increased is in line with the
5
6 literature, and may reflect increased screening for prostate cancer and/or lifestyle factors among men of
7
8 higher socioeconomic status (11, 12, 24-26). We also found that men who have been in Canada the
9
10 shortest amount of time had higher incidence of prostate cancer, which is not in line with the concept of
11
12 the healthy immigrant effect (4, 21). The healthy immigrant effect refers to the observation that
13
14 immigrants are in relatively better health on arrival in Canada (or the country of immigration) than
15
16 native-born Canadians, and that immigrant health eventually converges to that of native-born levels
17
18 after years spent in Canada (21). Our finding of shorter time in Canada being associated with higher
19
20 prostate cancer incidence is also in contrast to other studies. For example, in Sweden, immigrant men
21
22 had higher risk of prostate cancer with longer time in the country (23, 27). McDonald et al found that
23
24 immigrant men overall exhibit convergence to Canadian-born levels for diagnosis of prostate cancer
25
26 (21). The reasons for our results cannot be elucidated from these data but warrant further study. One
27
28 hypothesis worth exploration is that there may have been increased medical investigations, such as
29
30 prostate-specific antigen testing, during the initial arrival and immigration period to Ontario in more
31
32 recent years.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 This population-based study is the first we are aware of to examine prostate cancer incidence
42
43 for immigrant men by region of origin in Canada, however it has several limitations. First, the IRCC-
44
45 PR database does not include immigrants who migrated to another province before Ontario or those
46
47 who arrived before 1986. Both groups would have been misclassified as long-term residents of the
48
49 province. However, this misclassification would bias toward the null. Second, we did not look at
50
51 differences based on country of origin. There may still be sizeable differences in prostate cancer
52
53 incidence within one world region. For example, although the top two countries in the world for
54
55 prostate cancer incidence (Guadeloupe and Martinique) are in the Caribbean, the number three country
56
57
58
59
60

1
2 is Ireland (28). Future research in the Canadian context should explore this question. Third, it is
3
4 possible that healthcare providers and men themselves may have been more vigilant on screening for
5
6 and identifying prostate cancer among certain ethnic groups considered to be at higher risk, leading to
7
8 diagnostic suspicion bias (1). As noted, this increased vigilance has also been proposed as an
9
10 explanation for the association between higher income and increased prostate cancer incidence (29).
11
12 Thus, future research should also explore differences between immigrants and long-term residents in
13
14 use of prostate cancer screening, stage of diagnosis and importantly mortality in the Canadian context.
15
16
17

18 **CONCLUSION**

19
20 In this population-based study in Ontario, Canada, the age-standardized incidence rate of
21
22 prostate cancer from 2008 to 2016 was consistently and significantly higher among immigrant men
23
24 from West African and Caribbean countries than among other immigrant men and than long-term
25
26 residents of the province. Future research in Canada needs to recognize this difference and focus on
27
28 further understanding prostate cancer risk and epidemiology, including stage of diagnosis and
29
30 mortality, for these men.
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

1
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**Funding**

This work was supported by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (grant # 162506). AL is supported as the Provincial Primary Care Lead, Cancer Screening at Ontario Health (Cancer Care Ontario). AL is supported by a CIHR New Investigator Award, as a Clinician Scientist by the University of Toronto Department of Family and Community Medicine, and as Chair in Implementation Science at the Peter Gilgan Centre for Women's Cancers at Women's College Hospital, in partnership with the Canadian Cancer Society.

Role of Funder

The analyses, conclusions, opinions and statements expressed herein are those of the authors, and not necessarily those of CIHR, CIHI, CCO or IRCC; no endorsement is intended or should be inferred.

Disclosures

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Author Contributions

AL, JB and GD conceived and designed the study. AL, SA and GD provided oversight to the analysis plan. SS analyzed and all authors interpreted the data. AL drafted the manuscript and all authors critically revised the manuscript for important intellectual content. SS had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Data Availability Statement

The dataset from this study is held securely in coded form at ICES. While legal data sharing agreements between ICES and data providers (e.g., healthcare organizations and government) prohibit ICES from making the dataset publicly available, access may be granted to those who meet pre-specified criteria for confidential access, available at www.ices.on.ca/DAS (email: das@ices.on.ca).

The full dataset creation plan and underlying analytic code are available from the authors upon request,

1
2 understanding that the computer programs may rely upon coding templates or macros that are unique to
3
4 ICES and are therefore either inaccessible or may require modification.
5

6 **Acknowledgements**

7
8 This study was supported by ICES, which is funded by an annual grant from the Ontario Ministry of
9 Health (MOH) and the Ministry of Long-Term Care (MLTC). Parts of this material are based on data
10 and information Parts or whole of this material are based on data and/or information compiled and
11 provided by Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada (IRCC). However, the analyses,
12 conclusions, opinions and statements expressed in the material are those of the author(s), and not
13 necessarily those of IRCC. Parts of this material are based on data and/or information compiled and
14 provided by CIHI and Cancer Care Ontario (CCO). The analyses, conclusions, opinions and statements
15 expressed herein are solely those of the authors and do not reflect those of the data sources; no
16 endorsement is intended or should be inferred.
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

REFERENCES

1. Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, Laversanne M, Soerjomataram I, Jemal A, et al. Global Cancer Statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN Estimates of Incidence and Mortality Worldwide for 36 Cancers in 185 Countries. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2021;71(3):209-49.
2. Canadian Cancer Statistics 2018. Toronto: Canadian Cancer Society; 2018.
3. Learn about Ontario: Government of Canada; [cited September 29, 2021. Available from: <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/new-immigrants/prepare-life-canada/provinces-territories/ontario.html>.
4. Shuldiner J, Liu Y, Lofters A. Incidence of breast and colorectal cancer among immigrants in Ontario, Canada: a retrospective cohort study from 2004-2014. *BMC Cancer.* 2018;18(1):537.
5. Tsodikov A, Gulati R, de Carvalho TM, Heijnsdijk EAM, Hunter-Merrill RA, Mariotto AB, et al. Is prostate cancer different in black men? Answers from 3 natural history models. *Cancer.* 2017;123(12):2312-9.
6. Powell IJ. Epidemiology and pathophysiology of prostate cancer in African-American men. *J Urol.* 2007;177(2):444-9.
7. Kheirandish P, Chingwundoh F. Ethnic differences in prostate cancer. *Br J Cancer.* 2011;105(4):481-5.
8. Nyame YA, Gulati R, Heijnsdijk EAM, Tsodikov A, Mariotto AB, Gore JL, et al. The Impact of Intensifying Prostate Cancer Screening in Black Men: A Model-Based Analysis. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2021;113(10):1336-42.
9. Malika N, Roberts L, Alemi Q, Casiano CA, Montgomery S. Ethnic Differences Among Black Men in Prostate Cancer Knowledge and Screening: a Mixed-Methods Study. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities.* 2021.
10. Diversity of the Black Population in Canada: An Overview: Statistics Canada; 2019 [Available from: <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/89-657-x/89-657-x2019002-eng.htm>.
11. Coughlin SS. A review of social determinants of prostate cancer risk, stage, and survival. *Prostate Int.* 2020;8(2):49-54.
12. Cheng I, Witte JS, McClure LA, Shema SJ, Cockburn MG, John EM, et al. Socioeconomic status and prostate cancer incidence and mortality rates among the diverse population of California. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2009;20(8):1431-40.
13. Apply for OHIP and get a health card [Available from: <https://www.ontario.ca/page/apply-ohip-and-get-health-card#section-2>.
14. Chiu M, Lebenbaum M, Lam K, Chong N, Azimae M, Iron K, et al. Describing the linkages of the immigration, refugees and citizenship Canada permanent resident data and vital statistics death registry to Ontario's administrative health database. *BMC Med Inform Decis Mak.* 2016;16(1):135.
15. Data & Statistics - Country Classification: World Bank; 2008 [Apr 2 2009]. Available from: <http://go.worldbank.org/K2CKM78CC0>.
16. Methodology: United Nations Statistics Division; [September 29, 2021]. Available from: <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/methodology/m49/>.
17. Datta GD, Glymour MM, Kosheleva A, Chen JT. Prostate cancer mortality and birth or adult residence in the southern United States. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2012;23(7):1039-46.

18. Enea K, Barsky SH. Race and Genetic Ancestry in Medicine. *N Engl J Med*. 2021;384(21):2070.
19. Schroeder H, Ávila-Arcos MC, Malaspinas AS, Poznik GD, Sandoval-Velasco M, Carpenter ML, et al. Genome-wide ancestry of 17th-century enslaved Africans from the Caribbean. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2015;112(12):3669-73.
20. Fortes-Lima C, Gessain A, Ruiz-Linares A, Bortolini MC, Migot-Nabias F, Bellis G, et al. Genome-wide Ancestry and Demographic History of African-Descendant Maroon Communities from French Guiana and Suriname. *Am J Hum Genet*. 2017;101(5):725-36.
21. McDonald JT, Farnworth M, Liu Z. Cancer and the healthy immigrant effect: a statistical analysis of cancer diagnosis using a linked Census-cancer registry administrative database. *BMC Public Health*. 2017;17(1):296.
22. Luo W, Birkett NJ, Ugnat AM, Mao Y. Cancer incidence patterns among Chinese immigrant populations in Alberta. *J Immigr Health*. 2004;6(1):41-8.
23. Beiki O, Ekblom A, Allebeck P, Moradi T. Risk of prostate cancer among Swedish-born and foreign-born men in Sweden, 1961-2004. *Int J Cancer*. 2009;124(8):1941-53.
24. Clegg LX, Reichman ME, Miller BA, Hankey BF, Singh GK, Lin YD, et al. Impact of socioeconomic status on cancer incidence and stage at diagnosis: selected findings from the surveillance, epidemiology, and end results: National Longitudinal Mortality Study. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2009;20(4):417-35.
25. Spencer BA, Babey SH, Etzioni DA, Ponce NA, Brown ER, Yu H, et al. A population-based survey of prostate-specific antigen testing among California men at higher risk for prostate carcinoma. *Cancer*. 2006;106(4):765-74.
26. Gilligan T, Wang PS, Levin R, Kantoff PW, Avorn J. Racial differences in screening for prostate cancer in the elderly. *Arch Intern Med*. 2004;164(17):1858-64.
27. Mousavi SM, Fallah M, Sundquist K, Hemminki K. Age- and time-dependent changes in cancer incidence among immigrants to Sweden: colorectal, lung, breast and prostate cancers. *Int J Cancer*. 2012;131(2):E122-8.
28. Prostate Cancer Statistics: American Institute for Cancer Research; [September 29, 2021]. Available from: <https://www.wcrf.org/dietandcancer/prostate-cancer-statistics/>.
29. Liu L, Cozen W, Bernstein L, Ross RK, Deapen D. Changing relationship between socioeconomic status and prostate cancer incidence. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2001;93(9):705-9.

Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of overall study cohort, Ontario, Canada (2008-2016).

VARIABLE	Caribbean	East Africa	East Asia & Pacific	Eastern Europe & Central Asia	Latin America	Middle East and North Africa	Middle-Southern Africa	South Asia	Western Africa	Western Europe	USA, Australia & New Zealand	Long-term residents	TOTAL
	N 529,651	N 289,254	N 1,969,550	N 1,065,676	N 634,289	N 846,259	N 78,052	N 2,151,654	N 146,040	N 544,498	N 153,710	N 36,754,786	N 45,163,419
ADGs													
0-5	478,464 (90.3%)	257,640 (89.1%)	1,793,362 (91.1%)	967,137 (90.8%)	563,669 (88.9%)	730,025 (86.3%)	70,545 (90.4%)	1,840,505 (85.5%)	128,973 (88.3%)	500,119 (91.8%)	142,250 (92.5%)	32,320,263 (87.9%)	39,792,952 (88.1%)
6-9	46,568 (8.8%)	28,160 (9.7%)	161,963 (8.2%)	89,346 (8.4%)	64,002 (10.1%)	103,060 (12.2%)	6,733 (8.6%)	280,660 (13.0%)	15,480 (10.6%)	40,331 (7.4%)	10,394 (6.8%)	3,908,070 (10.6%)	4,754,767 (10.5%)
10+	4,619 (0.9%)	3,454 (1.2%)	14,225 (0.7%)	9,193 (0.9%)	6,618 (1.0%)	13,174 (1.6%)	774 (1.0%)	30,489 (1.4%)	1,587 (1.1%)	4,048 (0.7%)	1,066 (0.7%)	526,453 (1.4%)	615,700 (1.4%)
Age													
Mean ± SD	42.9 ± 13.4	42.9 ± 13.6	46.0 ± 15.5	45.0 ± 14.2	43.9 ± 13.7	43.2 ± 14.6	42.3 ± 14.1	44.1 ± 14.6	42.5 ± 12.0	44.5 ± 13.7	43.3 ± 14.4	48.7 ± 17.6	47.9 ± 17.2
Median (IQR)	42 (32-51)	42 (32-52)	45 (34-55)	45 (34-55)	43 (33-53)	43 (31-52)	41 (31-51)	42 (33-53)	43 (33-52)	44 (34-53)	42 (32-53)	48 (34-62)	47 (34-60)
Immigration admission category													
Economic class	119,936 (22.6%)	67,747 (23.4%)	1,137,941 (57.8%)	508,464 (47.7%)	181,875 (28.7%)	471,661 (55.7%)	41,446 (53.1%)	1,048,987 (48.8%)	45,357 (31.1%)	323,774 (59.5%)	55,450 (36.1%)	N/a	4,002,638 (8.9%)
Family Class	376,427 (71.1%)	51,471 (17.8%)	632,136 (32.1%)	213,367 (20.0%)	269,545 (42.5%)	136,677 (16.2%)	12,393 (15.9%)	693,638 (32.2%)	58,951 (40.4%)	188,731 (34.7%)	92,755 (60.3%)	n/a	2,726,091 (6.0%)
Refugee	23,024 (4.3%)	165,062 (57.1%)	158,333 (8.0%)	331,121 (31.1%)	167,899 (26.5%)	228,069 (27.0%)	21,959 (28.1%)	381,704 (17.7%)	36,406 (24.9%)	26,697 (4.9%)	3,851 (2.5%)	n/a	1,544,125 (3.4%)
Other	10,264 (1.9%)	4,974 (1.7%)	41,140 (2.1%)	12,724 (1.2%)	14,970 (2.4%)	9,852 (1.2%)	2,254 (2.9%)	27,325 (1.3%)	5,326 (3.6%)	5,296 (1.0%)	1,654 (1.1%)	n/a	135,779 (0.3%)
Income quintile													
1 (lowest)	173,267 (32.7%)	131,476 (45.5%)	486,560 (24.7%)	233,729 (21.9%)	185,944 (29.3%)	211,773 (25.0%)	20,401 (26.1%)	591,574 (27.5%)	57,843 (39.6%)	90,107 (16.5%)	23,085 (15.0%)	6,535,312 (17.8%)	8,741,071 (19.4%)

2	128,653 (24.3%)	55,738 (19.3%)	479,606 (24.4%)	196,724 (18.5%)	157,504 (24.8%)	159,145 (18.8%)	11,884 (15.2%)	524,889 (24.4%)	33,274 (22.8%)	113,249 (20.8%)	26,812 (17.4%)	7,117,317 (19.4%)	9,004,795 (19.9%)
3	116,933 (22.1%)	43,783 (15.1%)	392,267 (19.9%)	209,583 (19.7%)	131,328 (20.7%)	161,064 (19.0%)	12,532 (16.1%)	510,422 (23.7%)	28,004 (19.2%)	108,795 (20.0%)	28,433 (18.5%)	7,312,052 (19.9%)	9,055,196 (20.0%)
4	72,929 (13.8%)	36,727 (12.7%)	362,229 (18.4%)	245,483 (23.0%)	97,800 (15.4%)	178,241 (21.1%)	14,900 (19.1%)	351,117 (16.3%)	17,577 (12.0%)	113,792 (20.9%)	31,586 (20.5%)	7,688,061 (20.9%)	9,210,442 (20.4%)
5 (highest)	37,869 (7.1%)	21,530 (7.4%)	248,888 (12.6%)	180,157 (16.9%)	61,713 (9.7%)	136,036 (16.1%)	18,335 (23.5%)	173,652 (8.1%)	9,342 (6.4%)	118,555 (21.8%)	43,794 (28.5%)	8,102,044 (22.0%)	9,151,915 (20.3%)
Years since landing													
Mean ± SD	15.4 ± 8.0	14.3 ± 7.9	13.5 ± 7.5	15.4 ± 7.1	15.3 ± 8.4	12.7 ± 7.6	13.1 ± 8.3	11.8 ± 7.0	12.0 ± 7.5	15.8 ± 8.9	11.4 ± 8.4	n/a	13.6 ± 7.7
Median (IQR)	17 (9-22)	15 (8-21)	13 (7- 19)	16 (10-21)	16 (8-22)	12 (6-19)	12 (6-20)	11 (6-17)	12 (6-18)	17 (8-23)	10 (4-18)	n/a	13 (7-20)

1
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

Table 2. Age-standardized incidence rates per 100,000 for prostate cancer for the overall cohort and stratified by region of origin, Ontario Canada (2008-2016).

	Age-standardized incidence rate per 100,000 [95% confidence interval]
Overall cohort	178.8 [177.6-180.1]
Caribbean	313.1 [289.7-337.8]
East Africa	144.0 [122.2-168.4]
East Asia & Pacific	104.0 [98.4-109.8]
Eastern Europe & Central Asia	154.1 [143.8-165.0]
Latin America	167.7 [153.1-183.3]
Middle East and North Africa	131.5 [120.7-143.0]
Middle-Southern Africa	194.0 [149.8-247.1]
South Asia	88.6 [83.3-94.1]
Western Africa	475.3 [385.7-579.4]
Western Europe	176.7 [160.7-193.9]
USA, Australia & New Zealand	173.0 [143.1-207.4]
All immigrants	134.9 [131.6-138.3]
Long-term residents	184.4 [183.0-185.8]

Confidential

Table 3. Adjusted incidence rate ratios for overall study population (n=45,163,419) and for immigrants (n=8,408,633) in the cohort only, adjusted for variables listed in the table.

Overall study population	Adjusted rate ratio	p-value	Immigrants in the study cohort	Adjusted rate ratio	p-value
Region of origin			Region of origin		
Caribbean	1.91 [1.78-2.04]	<.0001	Caribbean	2.06 [1.72-2.45]	<.0001
East Africa	0.76 [0.66-0.88]	0.0002	East Africa	0.85 [0.68-1.06]	0.148
East Asia & Pacific	0.55 [0.52-0.58]	<.0001	East Asia & Pacific	0.60 [0.50-0.71]	<.0001
Eastern Europe & Central Asia	0.84 [0.79-0.89]	<.0001	Eastern Europe & Central Asia	0.94 [0.79-1.12]	0.485
Latin America	0.95 [0.87-1.02]	0.201	Latin America	1.04 [0.87-1.25]	0.665
Middle East and North Africa	0.72 [0.66-0.78]	<.0001	Middle East and North Africa	0.80 [0.66-0.95]	0.0135
Middle-Southern Africa	1.14 [0.91-1.41]	0.252	Middle-Southern Africa	1.27 [0.97-1.67]	0.0854
South Asia	0.47 [0.45-0.50]	<.0001	South Asia	0.52 [0.44-0.62]	<.0001
Western Africa	2.71 [2.41-3.05]	<.0001	Western Africa	3.01 [2.46-3.68]	<.0001
Western Europe	0.95 [0.87-1.04]	0.251	Western Europe	0.95 [0.87-1.04]	0.251
USA, Australia & New Zealand	0.91 [0.78-1.07]	0.255	USA, Australia & New Zealand	1 (reference)	
Long-term residents	1 (reference)				
Income quintile			Income quintile		
1 (lowest)	1 (reference)		1 (lowest)	1 (reference)	
2	1.08 [1.06-1.11]	<.0001	2	1.03 [0.96-1.10]	0.413
3	1.13 [1.10-1.16]	<.0001	3	1.06 [0.99-1.14]	0.112
4	1.17 [1.14-1.19]	<.0001	4	1.13 [1.05-1.21]	0.0016
5 (highest)	1.22 [1.20-1.25]	<.0001	5 (highest)	1.11 [1.02-1.20]	0.0136
Age group (years)			Age group (years)		
<50	0.01 [0.01-0.01]	<.0001	<50	0.01 [0.01-0.01]	<.0001
50-59	0.31 [0.30-0.32]	<.0001	50-59	0.30 [0.28-0.31]	<.0001
60-69	1 (reference)		60-69	1 (reference)	
70-79	1.37 [1.35-1.39]	<.0001	70-79	1.43 [1.34-1.52]	<.0001
80+	1.04 [1.02-1.07]	0.0005	80+	0.96 [0.87-1.06]	0.424
			Immigrant admission category		
			Economic class	1 (reference)	

1
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

			Family class	1.01 [0.95-1.07]	0.712
			Refugee	0.94 [0.87-1.01]	0.106
			Other	0.93 [0.77-1.12]	0.448
			Years since landing		
			0-5 years	1 (reference)	
			6-10 years	0.77 [0.70-0.84]	<.0001
			11-15 years	0.78 [0.71-0.85]	<.0001
			16-20 years	0.92 [0.84-1.00]	0.0432
			21+ years	0.88 [0.81-0.95]	0.0013

Confidential

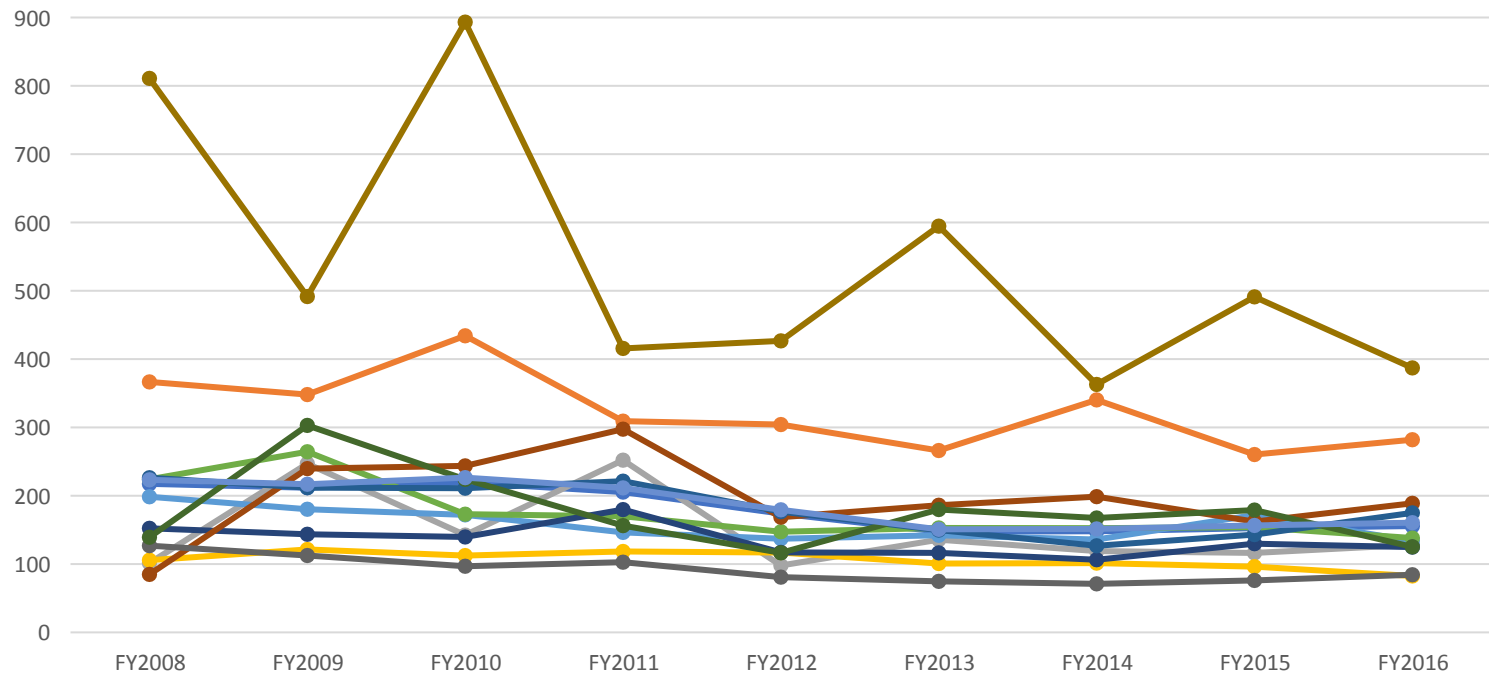
1
2
3 **Figure Legends.**
4

5 Figure 1. Age-standardized incidence rates per 100,000 for prostate cancer in Ontario for fiscal years (FY) 2008-2016, stratified by region of
6 origin
7

8
9 Figure 2. Age-standardized incidence rates per 100,000 for prostate cancer for the overall cohort and stratified by region of origin, Ontario
10 Canada (2008-2016). Error bars represent 95% confidence interval.
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

Confidential

1
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



- Overall
- Caribbean
- East Africa
- East Asia & Pacific
- Eastern Europe & Central Asia
- Latin America
- Middle East and North Africa
- Middle-Southern Africa
- South Asia
- Western Africa
- Western Europe
- [USA, Australia & New Zealand]
- Long-term resident

