



Original Investigation | Health Informatics

# Association of Disparities in Family History and Family Cancer History in the Electronic Health Record With Sex, Race, Hispanic or Latino Ethnicity, and Language Preference in 2 Large US Health Care Systems

Daniel Chavez-Yenter, MPH; Melody S. Goodman, PhD; Yuyu Chen, MS; Xiangying Chu, MS; Richard L. Bradshaw, MS, PhD; Rachele Lorenz Chambers, MS, CGC; Priscilla A. Chan, BS; Brianne M. Daly, BA; Michael Flynn, MD; Amanda Gammon, MS, CGC; Rachel Hess, MD; Cecelia Kessler, BS; Wendy K. Kohlmann, MS, CGC; Devin M. Mann, MD; Rachel Monahan, BA; Sara Peel, BA; Kensaku Kawamoto, MD, PhD, MHS; Guilherme Del Fiol, MD, PhD; Meenakshi Sigireddi, MD; Sandra S. Buys, MD; Ophira Ginsburg, MD; Kimberly A. Kaphingst, ScD

## Abstract

**IMPORTANCE** Clinical decision support (CDS) algorithms are increasingly being implemented in health care systems to identify patients for specialty care. However, systematic differences in missingness of electronic health record (EHR) data may lead to disparities in identification by CDS algorithms.

**OBJECTIVE** To examine the availability and comprehensiveness of cancer family history information (FHI) in patients' EHRs by sex, race, Hispanic or Latino ethnicity, and language preference in 2 large health care systems in 2021.

**DESIGN, SETTING, AND PARTICIPANTS** This retrospective EHR quality improvement study used EHR data from 2 health care systems: University of Utah Health (UHealth) and NYU Langone Health (NYULH). Participants included patients aged 25 to 60 years who had a primary care appointment in the previous 3 years. Data were collected or abstracted from the EHR from December 10, 2020, to October 31, 2021, and analyzed from June 15 to October 31, 2021.

**EXPOSURES** Prior collection of cancer FHI in primary care settings.

**MAIN OUTCOMES AND MEASURES** Availability was defined as having any FHI and any cancer FHI in the EHR and was examined at the patient level. Comprehensiveness was defined as whether a cancer family history observation in the EHR specified the type of cancer diagnosed in a family member, the relationship of the family member to the patient, and the age at onset for the family member and was examined at the observation level.

**RESULTS** Among 144 484 patients in the UHealth system, 53.6% were women; 74.4% were non-Hispanic or non-Latino and 67.6% were White; and 83.0% had an English language preference. Among 377 621 patients in the NYULH system, 55.3% were women; 63.2% were non-Hispanic or non-Latino, and 55.3% were White; and 89.9% had an English language preference. Patients from historically medically underserved groups—specifically, Black vs White patients (UHealth: 17.3% [95% CI, 16.1%-18.6%] vs 42.8% [95% CI, 42.5%-43.1%]; NYULH: 24.4% [95% CI, 24.0%-24.8%] vs 33.8% [95% CI, 33.6%-34.0%]), Hispanic or Latino vs non-Hispanic or non-Latino patients (UHealth: 27.2% [95% CI, 26.5%-27.8%] vs 40.2% [95% CI, 39.9%-40.5%]; NYULH: 24.4% [95% CI, 24.1%-24.7%] vs 31.6% [95% CI, 31.4%-31.8%]), Spanish-speaking vs English-speaking patients (UHealth: 18.4% [95% CI, 17.2%-19.1%] vs 40.0% [95% CI, 39.7%-40.3%]; NYULH: 15.1% [95% CI, 14.6%-15.6%] vs 31.1% [95% CI, 30.9%-31.2%]), and men vs women (UHealth: 30.8% [95% CI, 30.4%-31.2%] vs

(continued)

## Key Points

**Question** What is the availability and comprehensiveness of family history information in electronic health records (EHRs) and how are these associated with clinical decision support algorithms?

**Findings** In this EHR quality improvement study that included 522 105 primary care patients, significant differences were found in family history availability and comprehensiveness based on sex, race and ethnicity, and language preference.

**Meaning** These findings suggest inadvertent exclusion of patients in historically medically underserved groups from identification by clinical decision support tools that depend on family history input, potentially further exacerbating or creating new health care disparities.

## + Supplemental content

Author affiliations and article information are listed at the end of this article.

**Open Access.** This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the CC-BY License.

Abstract (continued)

43.0% [95% CI, 42.6%-43.3%]; NYULH: 23.1% [95% CI, 22.9%-23.3%] vs 34.9% [95% CI, 34.7%-35.1%])—had significantly lower availability and comprehensiveness of cancer FHI ( $P < .001$ ).

**CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE** These findings suggest that systematic differences in the availability and comprehensiveness of FHI in the EHR may introduce informative presence bias as inputs to CDS algorithms. The observed differences may also exacerbate disparities for medically underserved groups. System-, clinician-, and patient-level efforts are needed to improve the collection of FHI.

JAMA Network Open. 2022;5(10):e2234574. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2022.34574

## Introduction

Clinical decision support (CDS) tools are increasingly used within health care systems to identify and treat patients in need of specialty services.<sup>1-5</sup> Clinical decision support tools have been shown to expand the reach of such services to patients.<sup>1,6-9</sup> However, recent ethical frameworks have highlighted that CDS tools can perpetuate unfair or biased practices in health care, inadvertently reinforcing or even creating health care disparities.<sup>10,11</sup> These ethical frameworks assert that research should examine issues of fairness with regard to both individual-level and system-level factors in evaluating the impact of CDS tools and explicitly consider the impact on disparities in care.<sup>10,12</sup> Normative analysis has shown that the integration of CDS algorithms needs to navigate multiple sources of potential bias, including bias in the underlying data, algorithm design, and delivery within health care settings.<sup>12-14</sup> Algorithms that are based on electronic health record (EHR) data may be incomplete,<sup>15</sup> reflecting patients' interactions with the health care system,<sup>13,16</sup> encoding health care inequalities into the data that serve as inputs for models.<sup>17</sup> Incomplete EHR data can introduce a source of potential bias known as *informative presence bias* (ie, bias in the results of analyses based on EHR data due to systematic differences between data that are and are not observed owing to the structure of the observation process).<sup>18,19</sup>

One important source of input for CDS tools is family history information (FHI), because algorithms are increasingly being used to identify patients in need of services, such as cancer genetic services, based on their family history as an important marker for assessment of risk for multiple common conditions.<sup>20-22</sup> However, FHI is often not adequately collected, recorded, or updated in a patient's EHR.<sup>23-27</sup> Less commonly assessed information such as diagnosis for second-degree relatives and age at disease diagnosis for all family members is important for risk stratification and is seldom collected.<sup>27-31</sup> Resulting gaps in documentation of FHI in the EHR could be a critical source of informative presence bias that may differentially impact different patient subgroups. Although some prior research has investigated barriers to collection of FHI for medically underserved populations, this has often focused on what individual patients know about their family history.<sup>32-35</sup> Differences in availability of FHI across patient subgroups within an EHR need further exploration.

Previous investigators<sup>36-38</sup> have created a population health management approach that uses a standards-based CDS algorithm to identify unaffected patients eligible for genetic evaluation for hereditary breast, ovarian, prostate, pancreatic, and/or colorectal cancers based on cancer FHI available in the EHR and have demonstrated the feasibility of this approach. This CDS algorithm has the potential, in a given health care system, to identify thousands of patients in need of services. One critical issue in evaluating the development and implementation of system-level strategies is assessing whether an algorithm can exacerbate disparities already present in accessing cancer genetic services.<sup>39-43</sup> Despite a strong interest in receiving services, individuals from racial and ethnic minority groups have disproportionately low access to and use of genetic services.<sup>44-48</sup> Population health management approaches have the potential to address these disparities by broadly identifying eligible patients and offering genetic services. However, such strategies may also

exacerbate existing disparities in cancer genetic services if the required FHI needed as inputs into the CDS algorithm are insufficient or completely missing to a disproportionate extent for some patient subgroups. To inform the potential impact of the implementation of our CDS algorithm on identification of patients, our research question was therefore to examine whether there are disparities in the availability and comprehensiveness of cancer FHI by sex, race, Hispanic or Latino ethnicity, and language preference in EHR data in 2 large US health care systems.

---

## Methods

### Settings

In this quality improvement study, we examined availability and comprehensiveness of cancer FHI available for cohorts of primary care patients within 2 health care systems: University of Utah Health (UHealth) and NYU Langone Health (NYULH). The UHealth system is one of the largest health care systems in the US Intermountain West region, providing care for 1.2 million residents of 6 states in a referral area that encompasses frontier (<7 persons per square mile), rural (<100 persons per square mile), and urban settings. The NYULH health system serves a diverse population of more than 8 million people receiving care at more than 300 ambulatory sites and affiliate hospitals anchored in the metropolitan New York City region. Sites were selected because they use the same EHR system (Epic Systems Corporation) supporting the CDS algorithm, but have different clinical structures, geographic locations in the US, and patient populations. The protocol was deemed a nonhuman participants quality improvement study by the institutional review boards of both sites; therefore, informed consent was not required. This study followed the Standards for Quality Improvement Reporting Excellence (SQUIRE) reporting guideline, when applicable.

### Eligible Patients

We examined the availability and comprehensiveness of FHI for all patients within the UHealth and NYULH systems who were between 25 and 60 years of age and had a primary care appointment during the previous 3 years. Data were collected or abstracted from the EHR from December 10, 2020, to October 31, 2021. These inclusion criteria were selected because this was the underlying patient population evaluated by the CDS algorithm.

### Data Abstracted

Using automated queries of the structured data within the family history section of the EHR at both health care systems, we examined the availability and comprehensiveness of family history generally and cancer family history specifically. Availability was defined as having any FHI and any cancer FHI in the EHR for a patient. For comprehensiveness, we focused on the presence or absence of 3 data elements needed for identification by the CDS algorithm in each observation of cancer family history in a patient's EHR: specific type of cancer diagnosed in a family member, relationship of the family member to the patient (eg, mother, sister), and age at onset of cancer for the family member. Each observation captured cancer FHI about 1 condition from 1 specific family member. Data on sex, race and ethnicity, and language preference were also abstracted from structured EHR fields. In both health care systems, such demographic characteristics are generally either self-reported by patients on intake forms and entered into the EHR or collected through direct inquiry from front desk staff or medical assistants. In the EHR of both systems, predetermined categorizations have been created for sex (men and women) and race or ethnicity (Asian, Black, Hispanic or Latino, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, non-Hispanic or non-Latino, and White), each with options for "other."

### Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed from June 15 to October 31, 2021. Analyses of availability were conducted at the patient level, and analyses of comprehensiveness were conducted at the level of each observation of a family history of cancer. Descriptive statistics were completed using frequencies and

percentages of the total numbers of patients or observations reviewed. Pearson  $\chi^2$  tests were used to determine associations between FHI availability and demographics for patient-level analysis. Mixed-effects regression models were used to examine the bivariate associations between the 3 comprehensiveness indicators of family history and demographic characteristics at the observation level, accounting for the potential for multiple records for an individual patient. Analysis was conducted using Stata, version 17 (StataCorp LLC), and R, version 4.0.5 (R Project for Statistical Computing) with 2-sided  $P < .05$  considered statistically significant.

## Results

### Availability of Any FHI in EHR

We first examined the availability of any FHI for the complete populations of 144 484 patients in the UHealth system (53.6% women and 36.5% men; 4.3% Asian, 2.4% Black, 1.4% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and 67.6% White; 74.4% non-Hispanic or non-Latino; and 83.0% with an English language preference) and 377 621 patients in the NYULH system (55.3% women and 44.7% men; 7.0% Asian, 13.2% Black, 0.5% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and 55.3% White; 63.2% non-Hispanic or non-Latino; and 89.9% with an English language preference) aged 25 to 60 years who had received primary care in the last 3 years. We found significant differences in the percentage of patients with any FHI in the EHR by sex, race, Hispanic or Latino ethnicity, and language preference in both health care systems (**Table 1**). Among primary care patients in the UHealth system, the proportion of patients with any FHI available differed significantly by race; this proportion was highest for White patients (70.8% [95% CI, 70.5%-71.1%]) and lowest for Black patients (54.3% [95% CI, 52.7%-56.0%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of non-Hispanic or non-Latino patients (69.5% [95% CI, 69.2%-69.8%]) had any FHI available compared with Hispanic

Table 1. Availability of Any FHI in the EHR by Sex, Race and Ethnicity, and Language Preference

Characteristic	Any FHI available for patients, No. (%) [95% CI]					
	UHealth (n = 144 484)			NYULH (n = 377 621)		
	Yes (n = 103 694)	No (n = 40 790)	P value	Yes (n = 252 919)	No (n = 124 702)	P value
<b>Sex</b>						
Women	55 700 (71.9) [71.6-72.2]	21 801 (28.1) [27.8-28.4]		149 715 (71.7) [71.5-71.9]	58 988 (28.3) [28.1-28.5]	
Men	33 933 (64.3) [63.9-64.7]	18 852 (35.7) [35.3-36.1]	<.001	103 162 (61.1) [60.9-61.3]	65 696 (38.9) [38.7-39.1]	<.001
Not documented in EHR	14 061 (99.0) [98.9-99.2]	137 (1.0) [0.8-1.1]		42 (70.0) [57.0-80.4]	18 (30.0) [19.6-43.0]	
<b>Race</b>						
Asian	3900 (62.5) [61.3-63.7]	2339 (37.5) [36.3-38.7]		17 443 (65.7) [65.2-66.3]	9095 (34.3) [33.7-34.8]	
Black	1922 (54.3) [52.7-56.0]	1615 (45.7) [44.0-47.3]		32 000 (64.1) [63.7-64.5]	17 933 (35.9) [35.5-36.3]	
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	1320 (64.0) [61.9-66.1]	742 (36.0) [33.9-38.1]		935 (51.2) [46.5-51.1]	892 (48.8) [48.9-53.5]	
White	69 107 (70.8) [70.5-71.1]	28 535 (29.2) [28.9-29.5]	<.001	145 139 (69.5) [69.3-69.7]	63 826 (30.5) [30.3-30.7]	<.001
Other <sup>a</sup>	11 769 (64.9) [64.2-65.6]	6352 (35.1) [34.4-35.8]		27 117 (64.7) [64.3-65.2]	14 767 (35.3) [34.8-35.7]	
Not documented in EHR	15 694 (92.9) [92.5-93.2]	1207 (7.1) [6.8-7.5]		9175 (60.1) [59.3-60.8]	6103 (39.9) [39.2-40.7]	
Refused to answer	NA	NA		21 153 (63.7) [63.2-64.2]	12 043 (36.3) [35.8-36.8]	
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
Hispanic or Latino	12 733 (66.3) [65.6-67.0]	6475 (33.7) [33.0-34.4]		48 166 (63.9) [63.6-64.2]	27 211 (36.1) [35.8-36.4]	
Non-Hispanic or non-Latino	74 698 (69.5) [69.2-69.8]	32 788 (30.5) [30.2-30.8]	<.001	162 842 (68.2) [68.0-68.4]	75 803 (31.8) [31.6-32.0]	<.001
Not documented in EHR	16 263 (91.4) [91.0-91.8]	1527 (8.6) [8.2-9.0]		41 911 (65.9) [65.5-66.3]	21 688 (34.1) [33.7-34.5]	
<b>Language preference</b>						
English	83 890 (70.0) [69.7-70.2]	35 994 (30.0) [29.8-30.3]		232 869 (68.6) [68.4-68.8]	106 605 (31.4) [31.2-31.6]	
Spanish	3606 (58.9) [57.7-60.2]	2513 (41.1) [39.8-42.3]	<.001	10 644 (51.9) [51.2-52.6]	9868 (48.1) [47.4-48.8]	<.001
Other	16 198 (87.6) [87.2-88.1]	2283 (12.3) [11.9-12.8]		9406 (53.3) [52.6-54.1]	8229 (46.7) [45.9-47.4]	

Abbreviations: EHR, electronic health record; FHI, family history information; NA, not applicable; NYULH, NYU Langone Health; UHealth, University of Utah Health.

<sup>a</sup> Selected if the patient did not meet any of the preestablished listed categorizations in the EHR systems.

or Latino patients (66.3% [95% CI, 65.6%-67.0%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of women had any FHI available (71.9% [95% CI, 71.6%-72.2%]) compared with men (64.3% [95% CI, 63.9%-72.2%];  $P < .001$ ). The proportion of English-speaking patients with any FHI available (70.0% [95% CI, 69.7%-70.2%]) was higher than that of Spanish-speaking patients (58.9% [95% CI, 57.7%-60.7%];  $P < .001$ ). Among primary care patients in the NYULH system, the proportion of patients with any FHI available also differed significantly by race; this proportion was highest for White patients (69.5% [95% CI 69.3%-69.7%]) and lowest for Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander patients (51.2% [95% CI, 46.5%-51.1%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of non-Hispanic or non-Latino patients (68.2% [95% CI, 68.0%-68.4%]) had any FHI available compared with Hispanic or Latino patients (63.9% [95% CI, 63.6%-64.2%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of women had any FHI available (71.7% [95% CI, 71.5%-71.9%]) compared with men (61.1% [95% CI, 60.9%-61.3%];  $P < .001$ ). The proportion of English-speaking patients with any FHI available (68.6% [95% CI, 68.4%-68.8%]) was higher than that of Spanish-speaking patients (51.9% [95% CI, 51.2%-52.6%];  $P < .001$ ).

### Availability of Cancer FHI

We found similar patterns of associations for availability of cancer FHI in the EHR (Table 2). Among primary care patients in the UHealth system, the proportion of patients with cancer FHI available differed significantly by race; this proportion was highest for White patients (42.8% [95% CI, 42.5%-43.1%]) and lowest for Black patients (17.3% [95% CI, 16.1%-18.6%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of non-Hispanic or non-Latino patients (40.2% [95% CI, 39.9%-40.5%]) had cancer FHI available compared with Hispanic or Latino patients (27.2% [95% CI, 26.5%-27.8%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of women had cancer FHI available (43.0% [95% CI, 42.6%-43.3%]) compared with men (30.8% [95% CI, 30.4%-31.2%];  $P < .001$ ). The proportion of English-speaking patients with cancer FHI available (40.0% [95% CI, 39.7%-40.3%]) was higher than that of Spanish-speaking patients

Table 2. Availability of Cancer FHI in the EHR by Sex, Race and Ethnicity, and Language Preference

Characteristic	Cancer FHI available for patients, No. (%) [95% CI]					
	UHealth patients (n = 144 484)		P value	NYULH patients (n = 377 621)		P value
Yes (n = 56 482)	No (n = 88 002)	Yes (n = 111 774)		No (n = 265 847)		
<b>Sex</b>						
Women	33 291 (43.0) [42.6-43.3]	44 210 (57.0) [56.7-57.4]	<.001	72 822 (34.9) [34.7-35.1]	135 881 (65.1) [64.9-65.3]	<.001
Men	16 272 (30.8) [30.4-31.2]	36 513 (69.2) [68.8-69.6]		38 929 (23.1) [22.9-23.3]	129 929 (77.0) [76.7-77.1]	
Not documented in EHR	6919 (48.7) [47.9-49.6]	7279 (51.3) [50.4-52.1]		23 (38.3) [26.8-51.4]	37 (61.7) [48.6-73.2]	
<b>Race</b>						
Asian	1399 (22.4) [21.4-23.5]	4840 (77.6) [76.5-78.6]	<.001	6338 (23.9) [23.4-24.4]	20 200 (76.1) [75.6-76.6]	<.001
Black	611 (17.3) [16.1-18.6]	2926 (82.7) [81.4-83.9]		12 179 (24.4) [24.0-24.8]	37 754 (75.6) [75.2-76.0]	
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	483 (23.4) [21.6-25.3]	1579 (76.6) [74.7-78.4]		570 (15.8) [13.2-16.5]	3037 (84.2) [83.5-86.8]	
White	41 764 (42.8) [42.5-43.1]	55 878 (57.2) [56.9-57.5]		70 624 (33.8) [33.6-34.0]	138 341 (66.2) [66.0-66.4]	
Other <sup>a</sup>	4477 (24.7) [24.1-25.3]	13 644 (75.3) [74.7-75.9]		10 079 (25.1) [24.4-25.2]	30 025 (74.9) [74.8-75.6]	
Not documented in EHR	7748 (45.9) [45.1-46.6]	9135 (54.1) [53.4-54.9]		3485 (22.8) [22.1-23.5]	11 793 (77.2) [76.5-77.8]	
Refused to answer	NA	NA		8499 (25.6) [25.1-26.1]	4697 (74.4) [73.9-74.9]	
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
Hispanic or Latino	5219 (27.2) [26.5-27.8]	13 989 (72.8) [72.2-73.5]	<.001	18 366 (24.4) [24.1-24.7]	57 011 (75.6) [75.3-75.9]	<.001
Non-Hispanic or non-Latino	43 196 (40.2) [39.9-40.5]	64 290 (59.8) [59.5-60.1]		75 346 (31.6) [31.4-31.8]	163 299 (68.4) [68.2-68.6]	
Not documented in EHR	8067 (45.4) [44.6-46.1]	9723 (54.7) [53.9-55.4]		18 062 (28.4) [28.1-28.8]	45 537 (71.6) [71.2-71.9]	
<b>Language preference</b>						
English	47 970 (40.0) [39.7-40.3]	71 914 (60.0) [59.7-60.3]	<.001	105 471 (31.1) [30.9-31.2]	234 003 (68.9) [68.8-69.1]	<.001
Spanish	1108 (18.4) [17.2-19.1]	5011 (81.9) [80.9-82.8]		3098 (15.1) [14.6-15.6]	17 414 (84.9) [84.4-85.4]	
Other	7404 (40.1) [39.4-40.8]	11 077 (59.9) [59.2-60.6]		3205 (18.2) [17.6-18.8]	14 430 (81.8) [81.2-82.4]	

Abbreviations: EHR, electronic health record; FHI, family history information; NA, not applicable; NYULH, NYU Langone Health; UHealth, University of Utah Health.

<sup>a</sup> Selected if the patient did not meet any of the preestablished listed categorizations in the EHR systems.

(18.4% [95% CI, 17.2%-19.1%];  $P < .001$ ). Among primary care patients in the NYULH system, the proportion of patients with cancer FHI available differed significantly by race; this proportion was highest for White patients (33.8% [95% CI, 33.6%-34.0%]) and lowest for Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander patients (15.8% [95% CI, 13.2%-16.5%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of non-Hispanic or non-Latino patients (31.6% [95% CI, 31.4%-31.8%]) had cancer FHI available compared with Hispanic or Latino patients (24.4% [95% CI, 24.1%-24.7%];  $P < .001$ ). A higher proportion of women had cancer FHI available (34.9% [95% CI, 34.7%-35.1%]) compared with men (23.1% [95% CI, 22.9%-23.3%];  $P < .001$ ). The proportion of English-speaking patients with cancer FHI available (31.1% [95% CI, 30.9%-31.2%]) was higher than that of Spanish-speaking patients (15.1% [95% CI, 14.6%-15.6%];  $P < .001$ ). We observed the same patterns of associations among both patients with a personal cancer history and unaffected patients without a personal cancer history in stratified analyses, suggesting that the differences in availability of cancer FHI were not owing to underlying differences in cancer diagnoses between patient subgroups.

### Comprehensiveness of Cancer Family History Records

We next examined the comprehensiveness of cancer family history for 684 861 observations in the UHealth system and 1 154 161 observations in the NYULH system. We observed significant differences for each of the 3 data elements examined in both health care systems. Having the type of relative diagnosed with cancer specified in observations of cancer family history differed significantly by race for both UHealth and NYULH patients, with the proportion of observations with this information highest for White patients (17.4% [95% CI, 17.3%-17.5%]) and 17.5% [95% CI, 17.4%-17.6%], respectively;  $P < .001$  (Table 3). In addition, in both health care systems, the proportion of observations specifying the type of relative diagnosed with cancer was significantly higher for non-Hispanic or non-Latino (16.9% [95% CI, 16.8%-17.0%]) at UHealth; 16.4% [95% CI, 16.3%-16.5%]

Table 3. Presence of Information in Cancer Family History Observations in the EHR on Relative Diagnosed by Sex, Race and Ethnicity, and Language Preference

Characteristic	Type of relative specified in observations, No. (%) [95% CI]					
	UHealth (n = 684 861)			NYULH (n = 1 154 161)		
	Yes (n = 112 064)	No (n = 572 797)	P value	Yes (n = 178 395)	No (n = 975 766)	P value
<b>Sex</b>						
Women	70 734 (16.8) [16.7-16.9]	349 862 (83.2) [83.1-83.3]	<.001	122 503 (17.0) [17.0-17.1]	596 366 (82.9) [82.9-83.0]	<.001
Men	29 140 (15.2) [15.1-15.4]	162 332 (84.8) [84.6-84.9]		55 854 (12.8) [12.7-12.9]	379 224 (87.2) [87.1-87.3]	
Not documented in EHR	12 190 (16.7) [16.5-17.0]	60 603 (83.3) [83.0-83.5]		38 (17.8) [13.2-23.5]	176 (82.2) [76.5-86.8]	
<b>Race</b>						
Asian	2231 (11.3) [10.9-11.8]	17 457 (88.7) [88.2-89.1]	<.001	9399 (12.0) [11.7-12.2]	69 176 (88.0) [87.8-88.3]	<.001
Black	1050 (9.5) [9.0-10.0]	10 015 (90.5) [90.0-91.0]		18 564 (12.9) [12.7-13.0]	125 884 (87.1) [87.0-87.3]	
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	810 (10.8) [10.1-11.5]	6693 (89.2) [88.5-89.9]		362 (8.8) [8.0-9.7]	3754 (91.2) [90.3-92.0]	
White	86 736 (17.4) [17.3-17.5]	410 893 (82.6) [82.5-82.7]		113 606 (17.5) [17.4-17.6]	536 054 (82.5) [82.4-82.6]	
Other <sup>a</sup>	7495 (11.3) [11.1-11.6]	58 779 (88.7) [88.4-88.9]		17 334 (13.0) [12.8-13.2]	115 957 (87.0) [86.8-87.2]	
Not documented in EHR	13 742 (16.6) [16.4-16.9]	68 960 (83.4) [83.1-83.6]		5098 (12.9) [12.6-13.2]	34 426 (87.1) [86.8-87.4]	
Refused to answer	NA	NA		14 032 (13.4) [13.2-13.6]	90 515 (86.6) [86.4-86.8]	
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
Hispanic or Latino	8856 (12.0) [11.8-12.3]	64 756 (88.0) [87.8-88.2]	<.001	28 259 (12.8) [12.7-13.0]	191 844 (87.2) [87.0-87.3]	<.001
Non-Hispanic or non-Latino	88 830 (16.9) [16.8-17.0]	435 767 (83.1) [83.0-83.2]	121 729 (16.4) [16.3-16.5]	619 464 (83.6) [83.5-83.7]		
Not documented in EHR	14 378 (16.6) [16.3-16.8]	72 274 (83.4) [83.2-83.7]	28 407 (14.7) [14.6-14.9]	164 458 (85.3) [85.1-85.4]		
<b>Language preference</b>						
English	97 518 (16.7) [16.6-16.8]	486 723 (83.3) [83.2-83.4]	<.001	169 826 (15.8) [15.8-15.9]	903 522 (84.2) [84.1-84.2]	<.001
Spanish	1603 (9.2) [8.7-9.6]	15 890 (90.8) [90.4-91.3]		4319 (9.6) [9.3-9.9]	40 782 (90.4) [90.1-90.7]	
Other	12 943 (15.6) [15.3-15.8]	70 184 (84.4) [84.2-84.7]		4250 (11.9) [11.6-12.2]	31 461 (88.1) [87.8-88.4]	

Abbreviations: EHR, electronic health record; NA, not applicable; NYULH, NYU Langone Health; UHealth, University of Utah Health.

<sup>a</sup> Selected if the patient did not meet any of the preestablished listed categorizations in the EHR systems.



at NYULH) compared with Hispanic or Latino patients (12.0% [95% CI, 11.8%-12.3%] at UHealth; 12.8% [95% CI, 12.7%-13.0%] at NYULH;  $P < .001$  at both sites); for women (16.8% [95% CI, 16.7%-16.9%] at UHealth; 17.0% [95% CI, 17.0%-17.1%] at NYULH) compared with men (15.2% [95% CI, 15.1%-15.4%] at UHealth; 12.8% [95% CI, 12.7%-12.9%] at NYULH;  $P < .001$  at both sites); and for English-speaking patients (16.7% [95% CI, 16.6-16.8] at UHealth; 15.8% [95% CI, 15.8%-15.9%] at NYULH) compared with Spanish-speaking patients (9.2% [95% CI, 8.7%-9.6%] at UHealth; 9.6% [95% CI, 9.3%-9.9%] at NYULH;  $P < .001$  at both sites). We observed the same systematic differences for both health care systems by sex, race and ethnicity, and language preference as to whether observations specified the type of cancer with which the family member had been diagnosed (Table 4). We also generally observed the same systematic differences as to whether observations specified the age at onset of cancer for the family member, although the association between race and specifying age at onset was not significant in the UHealth system (Table 5). The number of observations specifying the age at onset was generally low for all groups in both systems.

### Demographic Characteristics of Patients Identified by the CDS Algorithm

The CDS algorithm identified 7340 patients (4.3%) from the underlying UHealth population and 21 913 (5.7%) from the underlying NYULH population. At both sites, the proportions of patients who were White, non-Hispanic or non-Latino, and women and who had an English language preference were higher among those identified by the CDS algorithm compared with those for the underlying patient populations (eTable in the Supplement).

**Table 4. Presence of Information in Cancer Family History Observations in the EHR on Type of Cancer Diagnosed by Sex, Race and Ethnicity, and Language Preference**

Characteristic	Type of cancer specified in observations, No. (%) [95% CI]					
	UHealth (n = 684 861)			NYULH (n = 1 154 161)		
	Yes (n = 71 394)	No (n = 613 467)	P value	Yes (n = 132 422)	No (n = 1 021 739)	P value
<b>Sex</b>						
Women	46 323 (11.0) [10.9-11.1]	374 273 (89.0) [88.9-89.1]	<.001	93 048 (12.9) [12.9-13.0]	625 821 (87.1) [87.0-87.1]	<.001
Men	17 002 (8.9) [8.8-9.0]	174 470 (91.1) [91.0-91.2]		39 345 (9.0) [9.0-9.1]	395 733 (91.0) [90.9-91.0]	
Not documented in EHR	8069 (11.1) [10.9-11.3]	64 724 (88.9) [88.7-89.1]		29 (13.6) [9.6-18.9]	185 (86.4) [81.1-90.4]	
<b>Race</b>						
Asian	1452 (7.4) [7.0-7.7]	18 236 (92.6) [92.3-93.0]	<.001	7150 (9.1) [8.9-9.3]	71 425 (90.9) [90.7-91.1]	<.001
Black	636 (5.7) [5.3-6.2]	10 429 (94.3) [93.8-94.7]		13 414 (9.3) [9.1-9.4]	131 034 (90.7) [90.6-90.9]	
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	466 (6.2) [5.7-6.8]	7037 (93.8) [93.2-94.3]		223 (5.4) [4.8-6.2]	3893 (94.6) [93.8-95.2]	
White	55 218 (11.1) [11.0-11.2]	442 411 (88.9) [88.8-89.0]		84 055 (12.9) [12.9-13.0]	565 605 (87.1) [87.0-87.1]	
Other <sup>a</sup>	4492 (6.8) [6.6-7.0]	61 782 (93.2) [93.0-93.4]		12 614 (9.5) [9.3-9.6]	120 677 (90.5) [90.4-90.7]	
Not documented in EHR	9130 (11.0) [10.8-11.3]	73 572 (89.0) [88.7-89.2]		3819 (9.7) [9.4-10.0]	35 705 (90.3) [90.0-90.6]	
Refused to answer	NA	NA		11 147 (10.7) [10.5-10.9]	93 400 (89.3) [89.1-89.5]	
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
Hispanic or Latino	5301 (7.2) [7.0-7.4]	68 311 (92.8) [92.6-93.0]	<.001	20 556 (9.3) [9.2-9.5]	199 547 (90.7) [90.5-90.8]	<.001
Non-Hispanic or non-Latino	56 573 (10.8) [10.7-10.9]	468 024 (89.2) [89.1-89.3]		89 585 (12.1) [12.0-12.2]	651 608 (87.9) [87.8-88.0]	
Not documented in EHR	9520 (11.0) [10.8-11.2]	77 132 (89.0) [88.8-89.2]		22 281 (11.6) [11.4-11.7]	170 584 (88.4) [88.3-88.6]	
<b>Language preference</b>						
English	61 953 (10.6) [10.5-10.7]	522 288 (89.4) [89.3-89.5]	<.001	127 036 (11.8) [11.8-11.9]	946 312 (88.2) [88.1-88.2]	<.001
Spanish	932 (5.3) [5.0-5.7]	16 561 (94.7) [94.3-95.0]		2457 (5.4) [5.2-5.7]	42 645 (94.6) [94.3-94.8]	
Other	8509 (10.2) [10.0-10.4]	74 618 (89.8) [89.6-90.0]		2929 (8.2) [7.9-8.5]	32 782 (91.8) [91.5-92.1]	

Abbreviations: EHR, electronic health record; NA, not applicable; NYULH, NYU Langone Health; UHealth, University of Utah Health.

<sup>a</sup> Selected if the patient did not meet any of the preestablished listed categorizations in the EHR systems.

## Discussion

Our analysis found systematic differences in the availability and comprehensiveness of FHI in the EHR for primary care patients in 2 large health care systems. Patients who were members of racial and ethnic minority groups had less available FHI—including cancer FHI—than White and non-Hispanic or non-Latino patients. Similarly, Spanish-speaking patients had less cancer FHI available and, when available, it was less comprehensive compared with that of English-speaking patients. These patterns strongly suggest that patients from demographic minority groups in medical care are less likely to be identified as needing specialty health care services or with tailored disease prevention recommendations if identification relies on FHI.

Our examination of the characteristics of patients identified by the CDS algorithm at both sites indicates that patterns of missing data contribute to differences in identification of patients eligible for cancer genetic evaluation. Family history documentation has been noted to be insufficient in two-thirds of EHRs in a primary care setting,<sup>49,50</sup> and the present data show that this insufficiency has a disproportionate association with medically underserved groups. Findings such as these, which show the potential of an algorithm to exacerbate health disparities, are essential as part of continuous quality improvement efforts and allow solutions to be developed before integration into a health care system so that patients are not overlooked owing to missing or unavailable data.<sup>51,52</sup> For example, automated procedures may be developed to circumvent potential biases owing to missing data.<sup>53</sup> However, a recent review of generated prediction algorithms studies<sup>54</sup> found only 54% of studies accounted for missing data in the EHR, and such solutions may fail to address issues of algorithmic fairness.<sup>17</sup> Development of interventions to better collect FHI and potential development of targeted interventions to collect FHI from historically underserved groups and thereby address informative presence bias are also imperative. This work also highlights how the

**Table 5. Presence of Information in Cancer Family History Observations in the EHR on Age at Onset by Sex, Race and Ethnicity, and Language Preference**

Characteristic	Age at onset specified in observations, No. (%) [95% CI]					
	UHealth (n = 684 861)			NYULH (n = 1 154 161)		
	Yes (n = 7698)	No (n = 677 163)	P value	Yes (n = 26 467)	No (n = 1 127 685)	P value
<b>Sex</b>						
Women	5456 (1.3) [1.3-1.3]	415 140 (98.7) [98.7-98.7]		21 288 (3.0) [2.9-3.0]	697 581 (97.0) [97.0-97.1]	
Men	1517 (0.8) [0.8-0.8]	189 955 (99.2) [99.2-99.2]	<.001	5185 (1.2) [1.2-1.2]	429 893 (98.8) [98.8-98.8]	<.001
Not documented in EHR	725 (1.0) [0.9-1.1]	72 068 (99.0) [98.9-99.1]		3 (1.4) [0.4-1.4]	211 (98.6) [95.7-99.6]	
<b>Race</b>						
Asian	223 (1.1) [1.0-1.3]	19 465 (98.9) [98.7-99.0]		1678 (2.1) [2.0-2.2]	76 897 (97.9) [97.8-98.0]	
Black	86 (0.8) [0.6-1.0]	10 979 (99.2) [99.0-99.4]		2892 (2.0) [1.9-2.0]	141 619 (98.0) [98.0-98.1]	
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	47 (0.6) [0.5-0.8]	7456 (99.4) [99.2-99.5]		69 (1.7) [1.3-2.1]	4047 (98.3) [97.9-98.7]	
White	5896 (1.20) [1.2-1.2]	491 733 (98.8) [98.8-98.8]	.41	16 112 (2.5) [2.4-2.5]	633 548 (97.5) [97.5-97.6]	<.001
Other <sup>a</sup>	626 (0.9) [0.9-1.0]	65 648 (99.1) [99.0-99.1]		3137 (2.3) [2.3-2.4]	130 154 (97.6) [97.6-97.7]	
Not documented in EHR	820 (1.0) [0.9-1.1]	81 882 (99.0) [98.9-99.1]		641 (1.6) [1.5-1.8]	38 883 (98.4) [98.2-98.5]	
Refused to answer	NA	NA		2010 (1.9) [1.8-2.0]	102 537 (98.1) [98.0-98.2]	
<b>Ethnicity</b>						
Hispanic to Latino	729 (1.0) [0.9-1.1]	72 883 (99.0) [98.9-99.1]		4277 (1.9) [1.9-2.0]	215 826 (98.1) [98.0-98.1]	
Non-Hispanic or non-Latino	6093 (1.2) [1.1-1.2]	518 504 (98.8) [98.8-98.9]	.02	18 351 (2.5) [2.4-2.5]	722 842 (97.5) [97.5-97.6]	<.001
Not documented in EHR	876 (1.0) [0.9-1.1]	85 776 (99.0) [98.9-99.1]		3848 (2.0) [1.9-2.1]	189 017 (98.0) [97.9-98.1]	
<b>Language preference</b>						
English	6754 (1.2) [1.1-1.2]	577 487 (98.8) [98.8-98.9]		25 247 (2.4) [2.3-2.4]	1 048 101 (97.6) [97.6-97.7]	
Spanish	153 (0.9) [0.7-1.0]	17 340 (99.1) [99.0-99.3]	<.001	757 (1.7) [1.6-1.8]	44 345 (98.3) [98.2-98.4]	<.001
Other	791 (0.9) [0.9-1.0]	82 336 (99.0) [99.0-99.1]		472 (1.3) [1.2-1.4]	35 239 (98.7) [98.6-98.8]	

Abbreviations: EHR, electronic health record; NA, not applicable; NYULH, NYU Langone Health; UHealth, University of Utah Health.

<sup>a</sup> Selected if the patient did not meet any of the preestablished listed categorizations in the EHR systems.



potential impact of new technologies on disparities should be embedded into the process of development and inform the decision to deploy based on the estimated impact on health inequities.<sup>55</sup>

Within the clinical context of inherited cancer, FHI drives other important decisions and recommendations in a health care system outside of the use of this information in a CDS algorithm. Family history can affect cancer screening recommendations.<sup>56-58</sup> In addition, cancer FHI may help determine what type of genetic testing is ordered.<sup>57</sup> Limited prior research has examined availability of FHI across patient subgroups.<sup>59-62</sup> However, previous research has shown multiple barriers to the collection of FHI generally, including limited time, competing demands, reimbursement criteria, and clinician and staff training and knowledge.<sup>63-67</sup> Prior studies have also shown underuse of FHI owing to incomplete or inaccurate information, lack of awareness about hereditary cancers, lack of awareness of evidence-based guidelines, and time constraints.<sup>24,68,69</sup> The patterns observed herein strongly suggest at least 1 reason why underlying disparities in referral to and use of cancer genetic services may be systematic disparities in the collection of FHI in primary care clinics.<sup>70</sup>

Efforts have been launched to improve the collection of FHI through patient portals in EHR systems.<sup>31,58,71</sup> The shift from patient intake forms to electronic formats has improved completeness, processing, updating, and storage of patient information,<sup>31</sup> if patients have access to a patient portal system. As was seen in the transition to telehealth during the pandemic, the shift to digital FHI data collection may reinforce disparities driven by the digital divide.<sup>72</sup> In addition, this puts the onus on patients to input comprehensive information about their own FHI, and patient-clinician discussions are often still needed to supplement patient input while addressing missing data.<sup>31</sup> Thus, interventions for both patients and clinicians are needed to improve the collection of FHI across patient subgroups. Although FHI collection is taught in professional schools and emphasized in residency training for many clinicians, there are noted differences in clinical practice patterns across sites and specialties of care.<sup>70,73-76</sup> Training and continuing education efforts with a cultural humility lens could address how to collect a complete family history that includes the elements needed to identify patients who may have inherited risk of disease,<sup>77</sup> optimally combined with system-level prompts within the clinical workflow.

### Limitations

These findings should be considered in light of study limitations. The automated queries searched only structured EHR fields and did not include attachments or information documented in comments or narrative clinical notes. This could be especially relevant for patients that have "other" listed in their demographics fields but have notes that clarify the other categorizations.<sup>78,79</sup> Therefore, patients who are members of sex or racial and ethnic minority groups could be missed by CDS algorithms. Clinicians in primary care may record FHI in different ways and may not use the structured fields. The large sample size enabled us to detect small differences with high power, and statistically significant differences should be considered in the context of the absolute differences between percentage estimates. Additionally, we are unable to determine the reasons for missing data in this analysis. For example, patients may have limited knowledge of FHI, potentially based on factors such as cultural norms around communication about disease conditions that vary across patient subgroups.<sup>68,80</sup> Entry of FHI may have particular challenges for non-English-speaking populations; for example, FHI collection and discussion may be less extensive when interpreters are involved. Future research should assess the reasons for missingness of data and how missing data may affect identification by CDS algorithms.

### Conclusions

The findings of this quality improvement study suggest that there may be important systematic differences in the availability and comprehensiveness of cancer FHI by sex, race and ethnicity, and language preference in 2 large health care systems in different regions of the country with different

structures. Such differences may exacerbate disparities in the identification of patients who require specialty services or tailored disease screening recommendations. System-level, clinician-level, and patient-level efforts are needed to improve the collection of FHI across subgroups, and efforts are particularly needed to improve availability and comprehensiveness of FHI for Black, Hispanic or Latino, Spanish-speaking, and male patients to mitigate the risk of health inequalities associated with these digital innovations.

---

## ARTICLE INFORMATION

**Accepted for Publication:** August 12, 2022.

**Published:** October 4, 2022. doi:[10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2022.34574](https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2022.34574)

**Open Access:** This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [CC-BY License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). © 2022

Chavez-Yenter D et al. *JAMA Network Open*.

**Corresponding Author:** Daniel Chavez-Yenter, MPH, Cancer Control and Population Sciences, Huntsman Cancer Institute, University of Utah, 2000 Circle of Hope, HCI Research South, Room 4503, Salt Lake City, UT 84112 ([daniel.chavez-yenter@utah.edu](mailto:daniel.chavez-yenter@utah.edu)).

**Author Affiliations:** Huntsman Cancer Institute, University of Utah, Salt Lake City (Chavez-Yenter, Daly, Gammon, Kessler, Kohlmann, Peel, Buys, Kaphingst); Department of Communication, University of Utah, Salt Lake City (Chavez-Yenter, Kaphingst); School of Global Public Health, New York University, New York, New York (Goodman, Chen, Chu); Department of Biomedical Informatics, University of Utah, Salt Lake City (Bradshaw, Kawamoto, Del Fiol); School of Medicine, University of Utah Health, Salt Lake City, Utah (Bradshaw, Flynn); Perlmutter Cancer Center, NYU Langone Health, New York, New York (Lorenz Chambers, Chan, Monahan, Sigireddi); Department of Population Health Sciences, University of Utah, Salt Lake City (Hess); Department of Internal Medicine, University of Utah, Salt Lake City (Hess, Buys); Department of Population Health, New York University Grossman School of Medicine, New York University, New York, New York (Mann, Monahan); Center for Global Health, National Cancer Institute, Rockville, Maryland (Ginsburg).

**Author Contributions:** Drs Goodman and Kaphingst had full access to all of the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

**Concept and design:** Chavez-Yenter, Lorenz Chambers, Flynn, Gammon, Hess, Kessler, Kohlmann, Mann, Del Fiol, Kaphingst.

**Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data:** Chavez-Yenter, Goodman, Chen, Chu, Bradshaw, Chan, Daly, Flynn, Kohlmann, Monahan, Peel, Kawamoto, Del Fiol, Sigireddi, Buys, Ginsburg, Kaphingst.

**Drafting of the manuscript:** Chavez-Yenter, Chan, Monahan, Kaphingst.

**Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content:** Chavez-Yenter, Goodman, Chen, Chu, Bradshaw, Lorenz Chambers, Daly, Flynn, Gammon, Hess, Kessler, Kohlmann, Mann, Peel, Kawamoto, Del Fiol, Sigireddi, Buys, Ginsburg, Kaphingst.

**Statistical analysis:** Goodman, Chen, Chu, Bradshaw.

**Obtained funding:** Mann, Kawamoto, Del Fiol, Buys, Kaphingst.

**Administrative, technical, or material support:** Chavez-Yenter, Bradshaw, Lorenz Chambers, Chan, Kessler, Kohlmann, Monahan, Del Fiol.

**Supervision:** Del Fiol, Sigireddi, Kaphingst.

**Conflict of Interest Disclosures:** Dr Goodman reported receiving grants from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) during the conduct of the study. Dr Flynn reported grants from the NIH during the conduct of the study. Dr Hess reported grants from the National Cancer Institute (NCI) during the conduct of the study and serving on the data safety monitoring board for Astellas Pharma Inc outside the submitted work. Dr Kawamoto reported receiving grants from the NCI during the conduct of the study. Dr Del Fiol reported receiving grants from the NCI during the conduct of the study. Dr Kaphingst reported receiving grants from the NIH during the conduct of the study. No other disclosures were reported.

**Funding/Support:** This study was supported by grants U01CA232826S1 and U24CA204800 from the NCI of the NIH.

**Role of the Funder/Sponsor:** The sponsor had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

**Disclaimer:** The content of this article is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

## REFERENCES

1. Bright TJ, Wong A, Dhurjati R, et al. Effect of clinical decision-support systems: a systematic review. *Ann Intern Med.* 2012;157(1):29-43. doi:10.7326/0003-4819-157-1-201207030-00450
2. Middleton B, Sittig DF, Wright A. Clinical decision support: a 25 year retrospective and a 25 year vision. *Yearb Med Inform.* 2016;(suppl 1):S103-S116.
3. Sutton RT, Pincock D, Baumgart DC, Sadowski DC, Fedorak RN, Kroeker KI. An overview of clinical decision support systems: benefits, risks, and strategies for success. *NPJ Digit Med.* 2020;3(1):17. doi:10.1038/s41746-020-0221-y
4. Leslie SJ, Hartswood M, Meurig C, et al. Clinical decision support software for management of chronic heart failure: development and evaluation. *Comput Biol Med.* 2006;36(5):495-506. doi:10.1016/j.compbiomed.2005.02.002
5. Lai F, Macmillan J, Daudelin DH, Kent DM. The potential of training to increase acceptance and use of computerized decision support systems for medical diagnosis. *Hum Factors.* 2006;48(1):95-108. doi:10.1518/001872006776412306
6. Kunhimangalam R, Ovalath S, Joseph PK. A clinical decision support system with an integrated EMR for diagnosis of peripheral neuropathy. *J Med Syst.* 2014;38(4):38. doi:10.1007/s10916-014-0038-9
7. Martinez-Franco AI, Sanchez-Mendiola M, Mazon-Ramirez JJ, et al. Diagnostic accuracy in family medicine residents using a clinical decision support system (DXplain): a randomized-controlled trial. *Diagnosis (Berl).* 2018;5(2):71-76. doi:10.1515/dx-2017-0045
8. Tsolaki E, Svolos P, Kousi E, et al. Fast spectroscopic multiple analysis (FASMA) for brain tumor classification: a clinical decision support system utilizing multi-parametric 3T MR data. *Int J Comput Assist Radiol Surg.* 2015;10(7):1149-1166. doi:10.1007/s11548-014-1088-7
9. Jacob V, Thota AB, Chattopadhyay SK, et al. Cost and economic benefit of clinical decision support systems for cardiovascular disease prevention: a community guide systematic review. *J Am Med Inform Assoc.* 2017;24(3):669-676. doi:10.1093/jamia/ocw160
10. Goodman SN, Goel S, Cullen MR. Machine learning, health disparities, and causal reasoning. *Ann Intern Med.* 2018;169(12):883-884. doi:10.7326/M18-3297
11. Vyas DA, Eisenstein LG, Jones DS. Hidden in plain sight—reconsidering the use of race correction in clinical algorithms. *N Engl J Med.* 2020;383(9):874-882. doi:10.1056/NEJMms2004740
12. Mhasawade V, Zhao Y, Chunara R. Machine learning and algorithmic fairness in public and population health. *Nat Mach Intell.* 2021;3(8):659-666. doi:10.1038/s42256-021-00373-4
13. Ahmad MA, Patel A, Eckert C, Kumar V, Teredesai A. Fairness in machine learning for healthcare. In: *Proceedings of the 26th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery & Data Mining (KDD 20)*. Association for Computing Machinery; 2020:3529-3530.
14. Rajkomar A, Hardt M, Howell MD, Corrado G, Chin MH. Ensuring fairness in machine learning to advance health equity. *Ann Intern Med.* 2018;169(12):866-872. doi:10.7326/M18-1990
15. Evans EL, Whicher D. What should oversight of clinical decision support systems look like? *AMA J Ethics.* 2018;20(9):E857-E863. doi:10.1001/amajethics.2018.857
16. Agniel D, Kohane IS, Weber GM. Biases in electronic health record data due to processes within the healthcare system: retrospective observational study. *BMJ.* 2018;361:k1479. doi:10.1136/bmj.k1479
17. McCradden MD, Joshi S, Mazwi M, Anderson JA. Ethical limitations of algorithmic fairness solutions in health care machine learning. *Lancet Digit Health.* 2020;2(5):e221-e223. doi:10.1016/S2589-7500(20)30065-0
18. Harton J, Mitra N, Hubbard RA. Informative presence bias in analyses of electronic health records-derived data: a cautionary note. *J Am Med Inform Assoc.* 2022;29(7):1191-1199. doi:10.1093/jamia/ocac050
19. Goldstein BA, Phelan M, Pagidipati NJ, Peskoe SB. How and when informative visit processes can bias inference when using electronic health records data for clinical research. *J Am Med Inform Assoc.* 2019;26(12):1609-1617. doi:10.1093/jamia/ocz148
20. Bevers TB, Helvie M, Bonaccio E, et al. Breast cancer screening and diagnosis, version 3.2018, NCCN clinical practice guidelines in oncology. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw.* 2018;16(11):1362-1389. doi:10.6004/jnccn.2018.0083
21. Provenzale D, Gupta S, Ahnen DJ, et al. NCCN guidelines insights: colorectal cancer screening, version 1.2018. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw.* 2018;16(8):939-949. doi:10.6004/jnccn.2018.0067

22. Williams CD, Grady WM, Zullig LL. Use of NCCN guidelines, other guidelines, and biomarkers for colorectal cancer screening. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw*. 2016;14(11):1479-1485. doi:10.6004/jnccn.2016.0154
23. Acton RT, Burst NM, Casebeer L, et al. Knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors of Alabama's primary care physicians regarding cancer genetics. *Acad Med*. 2000;75(8):850-852. doi:10.1097/00001888-200008000-00021
24. Flynn BS, Wood ME, Ashikaga T, Stockdale A, Dana GS, Naud S. Primary care physicians' use of family history for cancer risk assessment. *BMC Fam Pract*. 2010;11(1):45. doi:10.1186/1471-2296-11-45
25. Grover S, Stoffel EM, Bussone L, Tschoeigl E, Syngal S. Physician assessment of family cancer history and referral for genetic evaluation in colorectal cancer patients. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2004;2(9):813-819. doi:10.1016/S1542-3565(04)00352-0
26. Schroy PC III, Barrison AF, Ling BS, Wilson S, Geller AC. Family history and colorectal cancer screening: a survey of physician knowledge and practice patterns. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2002;97(4):1031-1036. doi:10.1111/j.1572-0241.2002.05624.x
27. Sweet KM, Bradley TL, Westman JA. Identification and referral of families at high risk for cancer susceptibility. *J Clin Oncol*. 2002;20(2):528-537. doi:10.1200/JCO.2002.20.2.528
28. Frezzo TM, Rubinstein WS, Dunham D, Ormond KE. The genetic family history as a risk assessment tool in internal medicine. *Genet Med*. 2003;5(2):84-91. doi:10.1097/01.GIM.0000055197.23822.5E
29. Murff HJ, Byrne D, Syngal S. Cancer risk assessment: quality and impact of the family history interview. *Am J Prev Med*. 2004;27(3):239-245.
30. Sifri RD, Wender R, Paynter N. Cancer risk assessment from family history: gaps in primary care practice. *J Fam Pract*. 2002;51(10):856.
31. Polubriaginof F, Tatonetti NP, Vawdrey DK. An assessment of family history information captured in an electronic health record. *AMIA Annu Symp Proc*. 2015;2015:2035-2042.
32. Cronin RM, Halvorson AE, Springer C, et al. Comparison of family health history in surveys vs electronic health record data mapped to the observational medical outcomes partnership data model in the All of Us research program. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2021;28(4):695-703. doi:10.1093/jamia/ocaa315
33. Lin J, Marcum CS, Myers MF, Koehly LM. Racial differences in family health history knowledge of type 2 diabetes: exploring the role of interpersonal mechanisms. *Transl Behav Med*. 2018;8(4):540-549. doi:10.1093/tbm/ibx062
34. Madhavan S, Bullis E, Myers R, et al. Awareness of family health history in a predominantly young adult population. *PLoS One*. 2019;14(10):e0224283. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0224283
35. Sanghavi K, Moses I, Moses D, Gordon A, Chyr L, Bodurtha J. Family health history and genetic services—the East Baltimore community stakeholder interview project. *J Community Genet*. 2019;10(2):219-227. doi:10.1007/s12687-018-0379-z
36. Del Fiol G, Kohlmann W, Bradshaw RL, et al. Standards-based clinical decision support platform to manage patients who meet guideline-based criteria for genetic evaluation of familial cancer. *JCO Clin Cancer Inform*. 2020;4:1-9. doi:10.1200/CCI.19.00120
37. Kaphingst KA, Kohlmann W, Chambers RL, et al; BRIDGE research team. Comparing models of delivery for cancer genetics services among patients receiving primary care who meet criteria for genetic evaluation in two healthcare systems: BRIDGE randomized controlled trial. *BMC Health Serv Res*. 2021;21(1):542. doi:10.1186/s12913-021-06489-y
38. Welch BM, Allen CG, Ritchie JB, Morrison H, Hughes-Halbert C, Schiffman JD. Using a chatbot to assess hereditary cancer risk. *JCO Clin Cancer Inform*. 2020;4(4):787-793. doi:10.1200/CCI.20.00014
39. Hinchcliff EM, Bednar EM, Lu KH, Rauh-Hain JA. Disparities in gynecologic cancer genetics evaluation. *Gynecol Oncol*. 2019;153(1):184-191. doi:10.1016/j.ygyno.2019.01.024
40. Childers KK, Maggard-Gibbons M, Macinko J, Childers CP. National distribution of cancer genetic testing in the United States: evidence for a gender disparity in hereditary breast and ovarian cancer. *JAMA Oncol*. 2018;4(6):876-879. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2018.0340
41. Kurian AW, Hare EE, Mills MA, et al. Clinical evaluation of a multiple-gene sequencing panel for hereditary cancer risk assessment. *J Clin Oncol*. 2014;32(19):2001-2009. doi:10.1200/JCO.2013.53.6607
42. Chapman-Davis E, Zhou ZN, Fields JC, et al. Racial and ethnic disparities in genetic testing at a hereditary breast and ovarian cancer center. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2021;36(1):35-42. doi:10.1007/s11606-020-06064-x
43. Hall M, Olopade OI. Confronting genetic testing disparities: knowledge is power. *JAMA*. 2005;293(14):1783-1785. doi:10.1001/jama.293.14.1783

44. Hann KEJ, Freeman M, Fraser L, et al; PROMISE study team. Awareness, knowledge, perceptions, and attitudes towards genetic testing for cancer risk among ethnic minority groups: a systematic review. *BMC Public Health*. 2017;17(1):503. doi:10.1186/s12889-017-4375-8
45. Kaphingst KA, Stafford JD, McGowan LD, Seo J, Lachance CR, Goodman MS. Effects of racial and ethnic group and health literacy on responses to genomic risk information in a medically underserved population. *Health Psychol*. 2015;34(2):101-110. doi:10.1037/hea0000177
46. Sussner KM, Edwards T, Villagra C, et al. BRCA genetic counseling among at-risk Latinas in New York City: new beliefs shape new generation. *J Genet Couns*. 2015;24(1):134-148. doi:10.1007/s10897-014-9746-z
47. Canedo JR, Miller ST, Myers HF, Sanderson M. Racial and ethnic differences in knowledge and attitudes about genetic testing in the US: systematic review. *J Genet Couns*. 2019;28(3):587-601. doi:10.1002/jgc4.1078
48. Chavez-Yenter D, Chou WS, Kaphingst KA. State of recent literature on communication about cancer genetic testing among Latinx populations. *J Genet Couns*. 2021;30(3):911-918. doi:10.1002/jgc4.1351
49. O'Neill SM, Rubinstein WS, Wang C, et al; Family Healthware Impact Trial Group. Familial risk for common diseases in primary care: the Family Healthware Impact Trial. *Am J Prev Med*. 2009;36(6):506-514. doi:10.1016/j.amepre.2009.03.002
50. Ginsburg GS, Wu RR, Orlando LA. Family health history: underused for actionable risk assessment. *Lancet*. 2019;394(10198):596-603. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(19)31275-9
51. Gianfrancesco MA, Tamang S, Yazdany J, Schmajuk G. Potential biases in machine learning algorithms using electronic health record data. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2018;178(11):1544-1547. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2018.3763
52. McCradden MD, Joshi S, Anderson JA, Mazwi M, Goldenberg A, Zlotnik Shaul R. Patient safety and quality improvement: ethical principles for a regulatory approach to bias in healthcare machine learning. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2020;27(12):2024-2027. doi:10.1093/jamia/ocaa085
53. Ramoni M, Sebastiani P. Robust learning with missing data. *Mach Learn*. 2001;45(2):147-170. doi:10.1023/A:1010968702992
54. Goldstein BA, Navar AM, Pencina MJ, Ioannidis JPA. Opportunities and challenges in developing risk prediction models with electronic health records data: a systematic review. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2017;24(1):198-208. doi:10.1093/jamia/ocw042
55. Chokshi DA, Foote MM, Morse ME. How to act upon racism—not race—as a risk factor. *JAMA Health Forum*. 2022;3(2):e220548. doi:10.1001/jamahealthforum.2022.0548
56. Acheson LS, Wiesner GL, Zyzanski SJ, Goodwin MA, Stange KC. Family history-taking in community family practice: implications for genetic screening. *Genet Med*. 2000;2(3):180-185. doi:10.1097/00125817-200005000-00004
57. Haga SB, Orlando LA. The enduring importance of family health history in the era of genomic medicine and risk assessment. *Per Med*. 2020;17(3):229-239. doi:10.2217/pme-2019-0091
58. Orlando LA, Buchanan AH, Hahn SE, et al. Development and validation of a primary care-based family health history and decision support program (MeTree). *N C Med J*. 2013;74(4):287-296. doi:10.18043/ncm.74.4.287
59. Li M, Zhao S, Hsiao YY, Kwok OM, Tseng TS, Chen LS. Factors influencing family health history collection among young adults: a structural equation modeling. *Genes (Basel)*. 2022;13(4):612. doi:10.3390/genes13040612
60. Lee SI, Patel M, Dutton B, Weng S, Luveta J, Qureshi N. Effectiveness of interventions to identify and manage patients with familial cancer risk in primary care: a systematic review. *J Community Genet*. 2020;11(1):73-83. doi:10.1007/s12687-019-00419-6
61. Cerda Diez M, E Cortés D, Trevino-Talbot M, et al. Designing and evaluating a digital family health history tool for Spanish speakers. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2019;16(24):E4979. doi:10.3390/ijerph16244979
62. Cleoplat JE, Nabi H, Pelletier S, Bouchard K, Dorval M. What characterizes cancer family history collection tools? a critical literature review. *Curr Oncol*. 2018;25(4):e335-e350. doi:10.3747/co.25.4042
63. Acheson L. Fostering applications of genetics in primary care: what will it take? *Genet Med*. 2003;5(2):63-65. doi:10.1097/01.GIM.0000056946.67707.67
64. Fuller M, Myers M, Webb T, Tabangin M, Prows C. Primary care providers' responses to patient-generated family history. *J Genet Couns*. 2010;19(1):84-96. doi:10.1007/s10897-009-9264-6
65. Kelly KM, Ferretich AK, Sturm AC, et al. Cancer risk and risk communication in urban, lower-income neighborhoods. *Prev Med*. 2009;48(4):392-396. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2009.01.009
66. Kelly KM, Love MM, Pearce KA, Porter K, Barron MA, Andrykowski M. Cancer risk assessment by rural and Appalachian family medicine physicians. *J Rural Health*. 2009;25(4):372-377. doi:10.1111/j.1748-0361.2009.00246.x

67. Rich EC, Burke W, Heaton CJ, et al. Reconsidering the family history in primary care. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2004;19(3):273-280. doi:10.1111/j.1525-1497.2004.30401.x
68. Qureshi N, Wilson B, Santaguida P, et al. Family history and improving health. *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Full Rep)*. 2009;(186):1-135.
69. Saul RA, Trotter T, Sease K, Tarini B. Survey of family history taking and genetic testing in pediatric practice. *J Community Genet*. 2017;8(2):109-115. doi:10.1007/s12687-016-0291-3
70. Taber P, Ghani P, Schiffman JD, et al. Physicians' strategies for using family history data: having the data is not the same as using the data. *JAMIA Open*. 2020;3(3):378-385. doi:10.1093/jamiaopen/ooaa035
71. Edwards E, Lucassen A. The impact of cancer pathology confirmation on clinical management of a family history of cancer. *Fam Cancer*. 2011;10(2):373-380. doi:10.1007/s10689-010-9407-9
72. Chunara R, Zhao Y, Chen J, et al. Telemedicine and healthcare disparities: a cohort study in a large healthcare system in New York City during COVID-19. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2021;28(1):33-41. doi:10.1093/jamia/ocaa217
73. Cameron LD, Marteau TM, Brown PM, Klein WM, Sherman KA. Communication strategies for enhancing understanding of the behavioral implications of genetic and biomarker tests for disease risk: the role of coherence. *J Behav Med*. 2012;35(3):286-298. doi:10.1007/s10865-011-9361-5
74. Lim JNW, Hewison J. Do people really know what makes a family history of cancer? *Health Expect*. 2014;17(6):818-825. doi:10.1111/j.1369-7625.2012.00808.x
75. Maradiegue A, Edwards QT. An overview of ethnicity and assessment of family history in primary care settings. *J Am Acad Nurse Pract*. 2006;18(10):447-456. doi:10.1111/j.1745-7599.2006.00156.x
76. Welch BM, O'Connell N, Schiffman JD. 10 Years later: assessing the impact of public health efforts on the collection of family health history. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2015;167A(9):2026-2033. doi:10.1002/ajmg.a.37139
77. Scheuner MT, Hamilton AB, Peredo J, et al. A cancer genetics toolkit improves access to genetic services through documentation and use of the family history by primary-care clinicians. *Genet Med*. 2014;16(1):60-69. doi:10.1038/gim.2013.75
78. Boehmer U, Kressin NR, Berlowitz DR, Christiansen CL, Kazis LE, Jones JA. Self-reported vs administrative race/ethnicity data and study results. *Am J Public Health*. 2002;92(9):1471-1472. doi:10.2105/AJPH.92.9.1471
79. Magaña López M, Bevans M, Wehrlen L, Yang L, Wallen GR. Discrepancies in race and ethnicity documentation: a potential barrier in identifying racial and ethnic disparities. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2016;4(5):812-818. doi:10.1007/s40615-016-0283-3
80. Ashida S, Goodman MS, Stafford J, Lachance C, Kaphingst KA. Perceived familiarity with and importance of family health history among a medically underserved population. *J Community Genet*. 2012;3(4):285-295. doi:10.1007/s12687-012-0097-x

#### SUPPLEMENT.

**eTable.** Characteristics of Primary Care Patients Identified by the CDS Algorithm Compared With the Underlying Patient Populations