This is a "preproof" accepted article for *Journal of Clinical and Translational Science*. This version may be subject to change during the production process. 10.1017/cts.2025.5

Bioethical and Critical Consciousness in Clinical Translational Neuroscience

Angela Fang*, Riana Elyse Anderson**, Sierra Carter**, Kristen Eckstrand**, Kean J. Hsu**, Shawn Jones**, Maria Kryza-Lacombe**, Andrew Peckham**, Greg J. Siegle**, Lucina Q. Uddin**, Mariann Weierich**, Mary Woody**, Judy Illes***

University of Washington, Seattle, WA

Columbia University, New York, NY

Georgia State University

University of Pittsburgh

National University of Singapore

Virginia Commonwealth University

Veterans Affairs Mental Illness Research Education and Clinical Centers and University of California San Francisco, California

U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs and University of Massachusetts Chan Medical School

University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine

University of California Los Angeles

University of Nevada, Reno

University of Pittsburgh

University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada

Word count: 5,443 (6,000 word limit)

Keywords: bioethics; translational; neuroscience; mental health disparities; mental health disorders

Conflicts of interest: G.J.S. receives royalty payments on a patent regarding a vibroacoustic intervention, licensed to Apollo Neurosciences, which was developed with the explicit goal of being culturally sensitive. No other co-authors have any conflicts to declare.

This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives licence (<u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/</u>), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is unaltered and is properly cited. The written permission of Cambridge University Press must be obtained for commercial re-use or in order to create a derivative work.

*Corresponding author: Angela Fang, Ph.D., Department of Psychology, University of Washington, 3751 W Stevens Way NE, Seattle, WA 98195, (206) 616-5783, <u>angfang@uw.edu</u> **Equal authors in alphabetical order ***Senior author

Abstract

Clinical translational neuroscience (CTN) is positioned to generate novel discoveries for advancing treatments for mental health disorders, but it is held back today by the siloing of bioethical considerations from critical consciousness. In this paper, we suggest that bioethical and critical consciousness can be paired to intersect with structures of power within which science and clinical practice are conducted. We examine barriers to adoption of neuroscience findings in mental health from this perspective, especially in the context of current collective attention to widespread disparities in the access to and outcomes of mental health services, lack of representation of marginalized populations in the relevant sectors of the workforce, and the importance of knowledge that draws upon multicultural perspectives. We provide ten actionable solutions to confront these barriers in CTN research, as informed by existing frameworks such as structural competency, adaptive calibration models, and community-based participatory research. By integrating critical consciousness with bioethical considerations, we believe that practitioners will be better positioned to benefit from cutting-edge research in the biological and social sciences than in the past, alert to biases and equipped to mitigate them, and poised to shepherd in a robust generation of future translational therapies and practitioners.

I. Introduction

Clinical translational neuroscience (CTN), sometimes also referred to as Mental Health Science¹, is an emerging trajectory within the broader field of mental health care delivery that focuses on understanding biological contributions to behavior and behavior change. Its goal is to advance therapeutic benefit for people with mental health and related conditions. Modern treatments have not benefited fully from contemporary scientific advancements or collaborations between clinicians and neuroscientists¹. CTN has brought together diverse theories and methods across subfields of neuroscience, involving the cognitive, biological, affective, and social bases of behavior. Like any science, however, CTN is vulnerable to biases held by the individuals and systems contributing to it.

For clinical and research scientists in the community of readers of this journal and others related to mental health care research and delivery, these issues are particularly salient in terms of understanding how bias impacts translational efforts across diverse patient populations and clinical settings, and how it affects the translational workforce. We suggest that when paired with bioethical consciousness, critical consciousness can uplift and support an integrative understanding of both the principles that guide health care, including decisions for mental health, and intersections with power structures within which science and clinical practice are conducted. Among bioethical frameworks, Beauchamp and Childress' four principles of respect for autonomy, nonmaleficence, beneficence, and justice² are well known and guide the translation of CTN findings into practice and care. Without attention to critical consciousness alongside it however, we argue that this classic framework, like others that are similarly comprehensive and robust (e.g.^{3,4}), cannot adequately embody laws and policies within clinical systems that could mitigate contemporary inequities. The downstream consequence is that the full and significant opportunity for CTN research to advance mental health intervention and service delivery research may be hampered.

By bringing critical consciousness to the foreground and urging its complementarity with bioethical consciousness, clinical translational neuroscientists may enhance translational efforts by: (1) advancing the measurement, interpretation, and reconciliation of biological variables with psychological and social ones^{5,6}; (2) reforming practices in research and clinical settings that have historically excluded marginalized communities⁷; and, (3) promoting the training of

scientists and clinicians in the connections between person-level and institution-level racism based on diversity science⁸ and the structural determinants of health⁹.

Insights from CTN have already entered mental health clinics through popular knowledge of pharmacologics (e.g., cannabis, ketamine, psychedelics), brain stimulation techniques (e.g., transcranial magnetic stimulation), and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). Advancements in understanding cellular, molecular, and circuit mechanisms of various neuromodulators in psychiatric disorders have opened the door to new neuroscience-informed clinical taxonomies¹⁰ and new classes of neuroscience-informed interventions, which mechanistically target dysfunctional circuits and pathologies¹¹. However, without an integrated bioethical and critical consciousness lens, knowledge of such translational discoveries may be limited to subsets of the population and promulgate disparities in the sociodemographic representation of patients, stigma, and health outcomes. Restricted access to interventions and services, for example in studies of neurocognitive development and functioning, is naturally an undesirable outcome. ^{12,13}.

Our primary objectives here are to: (1) evaluate the current state of evidence on barriers to why neuroscience has not penetrated mental health clinics from a critical consciousness lens, (2) better serve diverse and marginalized populations using existing frameworks that may address these barriers, and (3) propose some solutions for promoting bioethical and critical consciousness in CTN research.

II. Barriers to Adopting Neuroscience in Mental Health Clinics

To quote the scholar, author, and activist, Angela Davis (2015)¹⁴, "I feel that if we don't take seriously the ways in which racism is embedded in structures of institutions, if we assume that there must be an identifiable racist who is the perpetrator, then we won't ever succeed in eradicating racism." Racist practices are embedded in life experiences, in research, and in systems that produce research. Below, looking through the lens of critical consciousness, we describe major barriers to the adoption of neuroscience research in mental health clinics from a critical lens: a historical consciousness in society and in research that has been dismissive of racism; problematic methods, practices, and norms; and mismatch with clinician needs.

A. Historical consciousness

Academia has a tradition of sharing certain characteristics of white supremacy culture, such as objectivity and paternalism¹⁵. Scientific objectivity may manifest as being indifferent to

the life experiences of research participants. For example, participant race and ethnicity are often not reported in brain imaging studies, which ignores the potential impact that sociodemographic factors may have on cognitive, biological, or psychological constructs. At the same time, variables pertaining to race and ethnicity, particularly in the context of structural and functional neuroimaging, should not be misinterpreted to underlie race-based biological differences that perpetuate scientific racism (see Section IV.A.iv. on developing mindful theoretical models). Paternalism manifests as making decisions regarding study design and procedures without understanding the experiences of those who are impacted by the decisions and their autonomy. For Black research participants and patients, scholars have examined the historical underpinning of fearing the Black body in the U.S., rooted in a past where an individual's physical characteristics were utilized to justify the denial of freedom¹⁶. These ideas did not completely fade with time, and repercussions of this ideology permeate today throughout multiple healthcare systems^{17,18}. CTN practitioners must be careful not to perpetuate "colorblind ideologies" by ignoring that racial differences have a contextual foundation that is vital to the knowledge of the field.

CTN also struggles to recognize, reflect, and acknowledge current and past wrongdoings. Examples of harm include perpetuating the notion of race as a biological reality, engaging in racially exclusionary practices, and focusing on individual rather than structural racism^{6,17,19}. In general, the vast majority of CTN research has been completed with white heterosexual and ablebodied men, and sometimes women¹⁷. An important barrier that hinders the ability of neuroscience research to impact and serve actual communities is not understanding the harm associated with denying problematic research practices that disadvantage or inadvertently exclude marginalized individuals.

B. Case studies

Enduring challenges in CTN research stem from the tradition of research that is done for, about, or with participants in mind, but not with participants as collaborators in experimental design, data collection, analysis, interpretation, and writing, as has become increasingly important in other disciplines (Community-Based Participatory Research; e.g.,²⁰). Below, we highlight three specific examples of research methods, practices, and norms that may hinder the translation of neuroscience to mental health clinics: economic disadvantages in procuring

neuroscience technologies, use of so-called standardized stimulus sets with non-representative norms, and applications of predictive and normative modeling with fMRI data.

i. Economic disadvantages

CTN research assumes a certain level of economic privilege to participate in experimental treatments involving neuroscience technologies²¹. For example, research has focused on making fMRI useful for precision psychiatry, both in predicting treatment response²² and augmenting the effects of therapy, e.g., with real-time fMRI neurofeedback²³. Precision psychiatry is an emerging area in neuroscience and medicine that considers individual characteristics to maximize the effectiveness of treatment and interventions. Bringing this work into the community has been met with consistent challenges across insurance agency and clinician stakeholders, such as the availability of relevant hardware (research scans are frequently acquired on 3 Tesla scanners - whether these results will generalize to the 1.5 Tesla scanners more often available clinically is unclear), the ambiguity regarding who would pay for these uses of fMRI (often ~\$500/hour), and the lack of normative data stratified by variables such as race, age, and gender. Other nominally more available technologies are characterized by inherent biases that prevent ethical clinical translation. For example, because electroencephalography (EEG) is difficult to collect in dense hair, the vast majority of EEG data have been collected from white people (only 5/81 examined EEG articles reported having any black people in their samples;²⁴): available EEG-based technologies, which might be used for precision medicine or intervention are not even available to communities with denser hair²⁴⁻²⁶. EEG hardware costs range considerably, with higher end systems that yield better quality data costing ~\$80,000, again, creating barriers for implementation in disadvantaged communities. Similarly, the tools of psychophysiology, such as electrodermal activity, have long been known to vary with or perform poorly with darker skin (e.g.,²⁷). There are differences, by race, in many baseline psychophysiological measures (e.g.,²⁸) whereas norms in psychophysiology are generally for white samples, yielding biases in interpretation. Exclusion criteria common to neuroimaging and psychophysiology studies disproportionately rule out minority and disadvantaged samples, based on increased prevalence in marginalized individuals (e.g., head trauma, blood pressure medicines, drug dependence). Indeed, numerous studies have excluded or diminished the importance of racially minoritized participants because the data were believed to be possibly not usable due to different culture norms or that there is a deficit-based explanation

for racialized differences in findings^{6,29}. For example, biases have been well-documented in biomedical optics CTN research: paradoxically, skin tone bias in diagnostics and neuroimaging have been ignored on the one hand; Black participants have been disproportionately excluded of skin conductance data in fear conditioning studies in the other¹⁸.

ii. Diversity versus stimulus set standardization

Another fundamental barrier to effective translation of neuroscience to practice lies within the stimulus sets that are frequently employed in neuroscience paradigms. Exclusion of ethnically minoritized people is acutely obvious in studies that use facial displays of affect or affective scenes as stimuli in cognitive neuroscience paradigms paired with a neuroscience tool, such as fMRI or EEG. With recent exceptions (e.g.,^{30,31}), representations of facial affect typically employ stimuli sets comprised of white faces. In some cases, this homogeneity is explicitly acknowledged as a methodological decision (i.e., researchers may argue that this exclusion serves to reduce variability in stimuli). However, homogeneity in stimuli is increasingly recognized as a limitation and a threat to generalizability 32 . Neural response to faces can vary based on higher-order perceptions of identity, emotion, similarity, and trustworthiness. These functions are influenced by the social environment, including social experiences of racism, sexism, etc. and individual-level cultural norms. White-standardized stimulus sets may thus be classified as more foreign, novel, or threatening to non-White individuals. These may have a significant effect on data analysis, results, and interpretation³³. Because of the ubiquity of racially homogenous stimuli sets, this barrier permeates a range of translational neuroscience methods. A growing consensus among neuroscientists and related fields, however, recognizes the significance of this issue across paradigms such as neuroimaging¹⁹, computerized cognitive training³⁴, early childhood assessment³⁵, and as discussed below, have called for the adoption of more representative and diverse sets of facial affect stimuli.

Beyond depictions of white faces, a potentially more insidious issue with stimuli used in neuroscience paradigms involves linguistic stimuli, such as sentences, phrases, or single words used in many cognitive neuroscience paradigms, or cognitive training paradigms such as interpretation bias modification. Many such stimuli sets are normed within convenience samples of college students in North America, the majority of whom are white³⁶. Few studies have explicitly examined how intersecting factors of race, ethnicity, class, gender, or sexual orientation may influence ratings for such stimuli, yet the ubiquity of college student samples

and the limited diversity of such samples raises the significant possibility that translation of paradigms using such verbal stimuli are inherently limited in their potential for uptake in more diverse settings. One study examined racial bias in stimulus sets used in multiple research studies, largely finding that corpi of affective stimulus sets tend to have photos rated, and thus selected, as "negative" which include more ethnically minoritized people, but photos that are rated and used as exemplars of "positive" content include more apparently white people. Explicitly including racially diverse content across valences may require going outside standard normed picture corpi. Racial bias in using standardized stimulus sets is problematic, given well-known demand characteristics associated with responding to non-representative researchers and stimuli and, indeed, studies have shown that researchers who are not diverse tend to propagate perspectives that do not account for diversity³⁷, and may introduce demand characteristics based on their own positionality (e.g., ³⁸).

iii. Limitations of predictive and normative modeling

A major obstacle to progress in precision psychiatry is that systematic algorithmic biases in current machine learning approaches are overly tuned to majority populations, and often fail to generalize to minority populations. For example, predictive models formed on neuroimaging data collected from white participants break down in their performances when used to predict phenotypes for Black participants³⁹. Another statistical approach increasingly applied in precision psychiatry, called normative modeling, maps variation in quantitative brain metrics associated with psychiatric conditions. Normative models employ a strategy similar to growth charts in pediatric medicine, where an individual child's physical measurements are compared to a reference population and significant deviations may indicate a medical concern. Similarly, in the sibling discipline of neuropsychology, individual cognitive performance is compared to normative reference standards that include faulty separate sets of norms for different racial groups ³⁰. These have led to calls for removing race as a factor in normative modeling⁴⁰, and for taking extra care in determining when a neuropsychological construct can be expected to generalize (i.e., is influenced by race-related psychosocial factors), and when it should not⁴¹. In CTN, normative models may be used to identify the extent of neural variation of an individual diagnosed with a clinical condition relative to a normative (non-diagnosed) population⁴². However, similar to growth charts and neuropsychological reference norms, such approaches have inherent flaws. First, the ecological validity of the reference group must be considered.

When reference groups fail to include individuals from diverse sociodemographic perspectives in the normative population to which individuals are compared, healthy individual differences can be conflated with pathology and further disadvantage marginalized groups. This concern has been discussed by some of the groups who are leading the field of normative modeling ⁴³, but not yet functionally addressed. Second, it remains unclear what percentage or standard deviation difference from a normative model is cause for concern and whether this varies by sociodemographic measurements. Third, the clinical importance of observed differences remains unclear and is subject to clinician bias. If an individual's pattern of neural variation differs from a normative model, who determines it is cause for concern and what clinical workup follows is not defined objectively through well-established clinical guidelines. Without objective strategies for clinical decision-making, the known microaggressions and discrimination in clinical bias can impact implementation.

C. Mismatch with clinician needs

Research has shown, using computational linguistics, that patients use different vocabulary, reflecting different clinical concerns, than are represented by either treatment providers or institutions that control resources⁴⁴. For example, whereas translational scientists may want to target mechanisms of disorder, patients may want more functional days at work. It is thus possible that scientists could be successful in their research goals and patients' needs will not have been met. Particularly, there are little data suggesting that the needs of diverse communities are accounted for in translational science, as considerations like systematic racism, which are of particular interest at the community level, are often hard to operationalize or neglected in translational contexts.

A gap between what clinicians perceive as their need to use the results of neuroscience research in their practices and the work being done by translational researchers was highlighted by Strege et al. (2021)⁴⁵ who reported that 91% of those surveyed want multiple randomized controlled trials to validate methods before they are adopted as empirically supported treatments. 77% want better prediction of outcomes with representative – which we interpret as diverse – clinical samples. These requirements are at odds with the majority of CTN research that remains focused on small-scale conceptual studies that are often not randomized or which potentially advance to the level of randomized efficacy trials with highly selected samples, but rarely to effectiveness trials, which would satisfy the needs of clinicians. Similarly, 41% of clinicians

surveyed requested that translational methods be endorsed by a psychological society, which can be seen as representing endorsement by their chosen community and highlights the importance of researchers to build trust with communities of people who are using and stand to benefit from translational research.

III. Serving Diverse and Marginalized Populations

In the next section, we bring attention to two theoretical frameworks (structural competency and adaptive calibration), as well as a research framework (community-based participatory research (CBPR) methods) for CTN.

A. Structural competency and social determinants of health

Structural competency models were first conceptualized by Metzl & Hansen (2014)⁹ as "the trained ability to discern how a host of issues defined clinically as symptoms, attitudes, or diseases (e.g., depression, hypertension, obesity, smoking, medication "non-compliance", trauma, psychosis) also represent the downstream implications of a number of upstream decisions about such matters as health care and food delivery systems, zoning laws, urban and rural infrastructures, medicalization, or even about the very definitions of illness and health" (p.126). At the core of this model is a recognition that social, political, and economic forces may produce symptoms or alter neurodevelopment and biology through DNA methylation or other processes. Such forces are sometimes referred to as social determinants of health, which refer to a broad range of factors that are not distributed evenly across the population and contribute to health inequities⁴⁶. The structural competency framework is particularly important in clinicallyfocused disciplines, as it emphasizes systems-level and structural barriers to health, compared to individual-level factors, that are not just the product of interpersonal encounters or biased health providers, but which are caused by structural inequities, and have implications for interventions to address bias and stigma on a policy level. This framework is also important because it recognizes a link between societal processes and the biological variables we measure in research that may be a function of the laws and policies governing access to transportation, housing, wealth, and health. There have already been efforts to integrate structural competency models into medical and psychology training programs⁴⁷, including guidelines for developing competencies for working with individuals identifying as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, gender nonconforming, or born with differences in sex $development^{48}$.

B. Adaptive calibration theory

Adaptive calibration models rooted in evolutionary developmental theories of stress and propose that individuals living in highly stressful environments make strategic resource tradeoffs to adapt and survive^{17,49}. Adaptive calibration conceptually differs from deficit-focused models, which may conceive of constructs such as hypervigilance to threat as a deficit that needs to be normalized. More adaptive aspects of surviving systems of oppression are not adequately represented or studied in the neuroscience literature or in research paradigms aimed in understanding dimensions of psychopathology, such as the Research Domain Criteria (RDoC) or Hierarchical Taxonomy of Psychopathology (HiTOP). Adaptive calibration models therefore allow the reconceptualization of certain processes as strengths, rather than deficits, that support resilience and survival. Within the context of stress responsivity, an important implication of this framework is revising conceptualizations of threat and safety based on one's broader context.

C. Community-based participatory research

CBPR²⁰ refers to an approach to community engaged research, which involves engaging community members as partners in the design, conduct, and interpretation of research. Although limited community engaged research has been conducted in translational neuroscience, this is a growing area and there are already strong examples of integrating CBPR and neuroscientific methods to better serve specific community mental health needs. For example, researchers have collaborated with Indigenous communities to examine cultural identification using multimodal assessments, which necessitates working closely with tribal sovereignty and research regulatory infrastructure to minimize harms and maximize benefits⁵⁰. Integrating CBPR methods in CTN centers the ethics of research and clinical practice within communities and maximizes the potential for findings to be meaningful.

IV. Bringing Bioethical and Critical Consciousness in CTN into Action

Ethics are complex, contextually-driven principles, but ethics alone are not enough. In this section, we outline a curriculum of bioethical and critical consciousness in the form of ten steps that can positively offer added translational impact to CTN research (see Table 1).

A. Actionable solutions to bridge the translational gap

i. Understand ethics mistakes of the past

Despite the good intentions of individual researchers and clinicians to uphold the principle of beneficence, ethical missteps in the past highlight how aspirations may not always correspond to actions and ethical values are not universally applied. One example of a major violation of bioethics is the case of Henrietta Lacks, who was a Black woman in 1951 suffering from an aggressive form of cervical cancer, and whose cells were used and shared without her consent⁵¹. Mistrust is born out of a legacy of neuroscience, medicine, and psychology that developed problematic practices, such as phrenology, eugenics, and intelligence testing as a justification for racial superiority and Black slavery⁵². Because of such historical wrongs, scientists and clinicians alike need to acknowledge that there may be a deep and valid mistrust of our mental health clinic by marginalized people. Given that modern neuroscience-informed interventions rely on medicalized procedures such as with non-invasive brain stimulation or fMRI, a critical consciousness lens that accounts for the experiences of marginalized communities with such technologies is even more important. Ethically-conscious scientists and clinicians can proactively address mistrust of biomedical methods by anticipating bias at the outset of the work and engaging with communities.

ii. Understand structural barriers to mental health

The structural competency framework associated with critical consciousness fosters an understanding of systems-level factors that can perpetuate social oppression and mental health disparities⁹. Systems-level determinants of mental health may include sociodemographic factors, housing insecurity, transportation availability, and neighborhood factors, such as poverty and unemployment⁵³. Structural competency is an extension of cultural competency and implies that the scope of understanding cultural influences on health outcomes must be expanded to the systems level to understand policy-related patterns that shape differential access to mental health resources and interventions. Social barriers to receiving neuroscience-informed interventions must be addressed to succeed in making clinically significant improvements on a population scale. For individual research studies, understanding such structural barriers may translate to shifting the timing and access of research study visits to accommodate those who may need more support to attend visits (e.g., extending study visits beyond typical business hours, providing transportation or meal vouchers for longer visits). At an institutional level, researchers can work with their departmental units and local IRBs to shape recruitment and retention practices and improve equitable access to research for marginalized groups.

iii. Integrate CBPR approaches and build trust

CBPR can serve as a guiding framework for conducting inclusive CTN. "Nothing about us without us" is a simple and strong guiding principle. CBPR approaches enhance the broad reach of science and reduce health disparities for marginalized groups in the process, but does not apply only to health equity research. It encourages collaboration with individuals and groups outside of academia, and attention to participants as decision-makers in the research process. These can be family members, caregivers, teachers and other educators, paraprofessionals, spiritual leaders, and policymakers. Not having to remove street clothes during fMRI scans, being able to access and understand their own data, or hearing about incidental findings that allow them to take clinical action, may open opportunities for modifying study procedures are some examples of how input can shape study procedures. Involving additional stakeholders helps to develop a shared language and build trust in the research process, in the value of neuroscience in informing psychological and physical health, and in developing a common understanding of the causes of mental health disorders. Scientists who lack prior experience examining health disparities should be cognizant of quick solutions that may fail them in the long-term. Sustainable, proactive solutions will come from an acquired understanding of health equity work that has already been conducted with communities of interest. To avoid erasure of historical efforts, community partners should be acknowledged on a timeline and in a manner that is beneficial to them. This may not necessarily lead to a metric such as authorship in a peerreviewed manuscript that is only unidirectionally meaningful if results are not further shared in outreach or given back to those – individuals and communities – who offered their primary data.

iv. Develop mindful theoretical models

One major challenge in neuroscience is how researchers use socially-defined groups in analyses and then hypothesize a biological - rather than social - basis for any observed group differences. One example of this is in research comparing people by sexual orientation. While significant research has shown very limited evidence for a biological basis for sexual orientation⁵⁴, comparing neural structure and function between heterosexual and non-heterosexual people has been an ongoing topic of interest in neuroscience (for systematic review and critique, see ⁵⁵). However, recent research has shown that it is the impact of differential social experiences (i.e., victimization) and not orientation itself that influences differences in neural functioning⁵⁶. Other examples of biological embedding have emerged in the threat processing literature²⁹, which underscores the bi-directional relationship between life experiences and biological processes.

It is critical for CTN to explore research strategies that understand how biology interacts with the differential social experiences that come with marginalization to produce mental health disparities⁵⁷. To do this effectively, researchers need to be mindful of methods for: (1) collecting and reporting sociodemographic information on people; (2) optimizing community engagement to inform research questions and analyses; (3) interpreting results that neither over-interpret findings towards social categorizations as a function of biology nor ignoring important group differences that could aid understanding of disparities; and (4) translating results equitably to reduce suffering in the communities disproportionately impacted⁵⁸.

The most effective research study designs may therefore not translate to group comparisons between marginalized and non-marginalized groups, as marginalized communities may be valuable to study in their own right without reference to comparative populations. Health equity and developmental psychopathology researchers have long advocated for study designs that focus on within-person differences over time, recognizing that relying solely on crosssectional, between-group comparisons may obscure important variations in lived experiences and clinical presentations^{29,59-63}. The use of between-group designs should involve careful consideration of how metrics from marginalized populations are compared with those from majority groups to avoid reinforcing inequities by perpetuating notion of the majority experience as the standard.

v. Use multimodal assessments of lived experiences

Laboratory-based paradigms designed to capture biopsychosocial influences on health inequities will benefit from the use of personalized and ecologically-valid stimuli that capture the unique challenges of minority stress (e.g., laboratory analogues)^{64,65}. Studies may also include measures of life experiences that theoretically modulate the biological processes or interventions of interest, such as measures of early adverse life experiences, traumatic experiences, or experiences with everyday racism and discrimination. However, there are limitations to the validity, acceptability, and clinical utility of screening measures for adverse childhood experiences, as well as barriers to implementing trauma-informed care in clinical research settings^{66,67}. Paradigm development should involve incorporating feedback from community experts and insights gleaned from qualitative research.

vi. Utilize diverse stimulus sets

Despite the historical reliance on stimuli that reflect white faces or stimuli normed among predominantly white samples, recent commentaries and reviews have encouraged researchers to seek out and utilize stimulus sets that reflect greater racial diversity^{19,34,35}. An example of such a database is the Racially Diverse Affective Expression Face Stimuli Set (RADIATE³⁰). Unfortunately, there are few comparable examples of verbal stimuli developed and normed by racially diverse participant pools; developing these stimuli will be a positive accomplishment for for future research.

vii. Adopt inclusive psychophysiological methods

Psychophysiological methods such as EEG and electrodermal activity are linked to the unintended exclusion of Black participants from translational neuroscience research^{64,65}. Although there is increasing emphasis on the introduction of novel hardware to address these disparities, there are immediate steps that researchers can take to improve measurement with existing systems^{24,25,68}. For example, informed by CBPR, scholars now recommend more inclusive and equitable recruitment materials that directly acknowledge concerns regarding the potential impact of EEG on hair with dense coils, particularly for people with hairstyles requiring substantial time and financial upkeep. Additionally, scheduling research appointments flexibly to accommodate changes in hairstyles can increase inclusion. Moreover, adopting the 15-20 minute braiding technique to increase electrode contact with the scalp can be used with existing systems²⁵. For instance, as part of the EEG Hair Project, researchers at the Biomechanics, Rehabilitation, and Interdisciplinary Neuroscience (BRaIN) Lab at the University of Central Florida enlisted the expertise of a local Black hair stylist to train research staff in this braiding method, aiming to promote greater equity and inclusion for Black participants⁶⁹.

viii. Identify and mitigate bias in predictive models

There is an urgent need to develop a more complete understanding of the role that sociodemographic factors characterizing aspects of population diversity (e.g., participant gender, race, ethnicity, and income) play in cognitive and mental health phenotype prediction⁶⁹. Identification and explicit modeling of the major sources of population stratification is a necessary milestone towards developing justice, equity, diversity, and inclusion (JEDI)-informed machine learning frameworks. This can be done by constructing predictive modeling solutions that jointly acknowledge a broad portfolio of inter-individual differences and is a necessary precondition for responsible use of population neuroscience data to avoid further disadvantaging

underrepresented groups and communities. For example, systematic bias in who gets classified as carrying a particular medical or mental health diagnosis could reinforce disparities in access to health care and services. Underdeveloped practices in predictive modeling and inappropriate handling of demographic stratification can lead to further exclusion and stigmatization of groups that have historically been marginalized in health care institutions. Since the reproducibility, generalizability, and clinical utility of published machine learning models have rarely been put to the test in broadly sampled, more diverse cohorts, deepening our understanding of the full extent and consequences of generalization failure in neuroscience is a critical paradigm shift necessary for developing a truly JEDI-informed precision psychiatry that serves the diverse global population. It is also necessary to frame results and questions carefully, especially when considering participant race and ethnicity, to counteract harmful biases⁷⁰ and improve health-related predictions at the single-subject level. Documenting the extent of neural variation along with diverse sociodemographic factors may be an important step for making stronger inferences about variation that falls within healthy and pathological ranges, so long as large and diverse datasets can be examined.

ix. Recruit and retain a diverse research workforce

The likelihood that translational insights will be applied beyond well-resourced majority populations will be improved when marginalized communities are represented not just as community partners, but as mental health scientists in their own right Governmental agencies, funding bodies, and other key players in the decision-making process of who enters and advances down the pipeline from trainee to principal investigator have started to attend more to JEDI issues than before. Yet the leakiness of this pipeline, especially for trainees from marginalized communities, is well documented^{71,72}. Inclusivity of scientific ecosystems at <u>all</u> levels of training will be improved when these factors come into sustainable focus⁷³.

x. Provide training in neuroscience literacy

Supporting the development of neuroscience literacy among clinicians is another important step toward the adoption of neuroscience in mental health clinics in marginalized communities. Clinicians may be hesitant to adopt neuroscience-informed tools in the clinic because they are unfamiliar with neuroscience terminology and because they may not have received training in the tools neuroscience has to offer⁷⁴. In addition, a training emphasis on CBPR-informed neuroscience studies may also increase the uptake of these tools by emphasizing

education modules most likely to positively impact care for marginalized communities. It is important to consider not only doctoral-level clinicians but especially the much greater number of mental health workers at the master's level who conduct trauma work in marginalized communities. Development of neuroscience literacy can be supported by offering free Continuing Education credits across mental health professions to educate clinicians about how neuroscience can be applied in the clinic, as well as integrating a neuroscience curriculum into training programs. Enhancing neuroscience literacy may also be beneficial for patients and research participants. For example, information on how brain and disorder mechanisms change with treatment, sometimes referred to as neuroeducation, may directly impact clinical care by supporting treatment⁷⁵, increase patient openness to participating in neuroscience studies.

V. Conclusion

Neuroscience research involving biological variables and interventions will most beneficially impact clinical practice for mental health disorders if it contends with biases that are revealed and mitigated through a combined bioethical and critical consciousness framework approach. We outline actionable steps to maximize the potential of the approach. These steps are informed by structural competency, adaptive calibration, and community based participation in research. By pairing critical consciousness with bioethical consciousness in CTN, we believe that significant strides will be made in achieving enduring relief from the burdens of mental illness.
 Table 1. Bringing Bioethical and Critical Consciousness in CTN into Action

Farge	t Objective	Approach
1.	Recognizing ethics errors of the	Cultivate humility by anticipating and
	past	proactively addressing bias in research and
		clinical procedures.
2.	Reducing structural barriers to	Translate knowledge of structural barriers and
	mental health	social determinants of mental health into
		research practices by providing more support fo
		transportation or meals for research participants
		and improving policies for recruiting and
		retaining marginalized populations, such as by
		modifying timing of study visits.
3.	Embracing community-based	Involve community stakeholders in research as
	research	partners by soliciting input and feedback on
		research design and throughout studies as they
		unfold process.
4.	Embodying mindful theoretical	Resist the attribution of biological causes to
	models	differences between socially-defined groups, an
		utilize alternative study designs that do not
		simply compare marginalized versus non-
		marginalized groups.
5.	Incorporating multimodal	Incorporate personalized and ecologically-valid
	assessments of lived experiences	stimuli in research studies, such as experiences
		with discrimination, racial stress, or early life
		adversity, to acknowledge and measure social
		experiences that may modulate biological
		processes.
6.	Utilizing meaningful stimulus sets	Utilize stimulus sets, such as the Racially
		Diverse Affective Expression Face Stimuli Set
		$(RADIATE^{27})$, that are representative of the

	general population.
7. Innovating with measurement	Develop recruitment materials to address
procedures	physiologic variability of participants, including
	skin tone and hair density.
8. Minimizing bias in predictive	Conduct research to understand the impact of
models	sociodemographic factors on cognitive and
	mental health phenotypes in predictive models
	that rely on machine learning models.
9. Promoting diversity in the	Support inclusivity of researchers in training,
workforce	hiring and retention.
10. Fostering neuroscience literacy	Enhance understanding of the malleability of
	biological processes and neuroscience research
	through efforts to improve literacy among
	clinicians, patients, and the public.

Author Contributions

Members of the Association for Behavioral and Cognitive Therapies (ABCT) Neurocognitive Therapies and Translational Research (NTTR) Special Interest Group (A.F., K.H., M.K.L., A.P., G.J.S., & M.W.) conceptualized the original research question. A.F. oversaw administration of the manuscript and takes responsibility for the manuscript as a whole. A.F. and all equal authors engaged in formal writing, reviewing, and editing. J. I. led the structure, organization, and format of the work.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank members of the Neurocognitive Therapies and Translational Research Special Interest Group and the Neurocognitive Methods for the Clinic Think Tank at the Association for Behavioral and Cognitive Therapies (ABCT) for their longstanding support of this work and for providing an opportunity at the 2021 convention in New York to bring together experts and stakeholders from diverse disciplines to engage in a panel discussion on this topic.

Competing Interests

G.J.S. receives royalty payments on a patent regarding a vibroacoustic intervention, licensed to Apollo Neurosciences, which was developed with the explicit goal of being culturally sensitive. No other co-authors have any competing interests to declare.

Funding Statement

This work was supported by a National Institute of Mental Health award (grant number R01MH133581) to A.F.

References

1. Holmes EA, Craske MG, Graybiel AM. A call for mental-health science. Nature 2014;511:287-9.

2. Beauchamp TL, Childress JF. Principles of Biomedical Ethics, 8th Ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 2019.

3. Frankena, WK. Ethics, 2nd Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

4. Jonsen AR, Toulmin S. The Abuse of Casuistry: A History of Moral Reasoning. London: University of California Press, 1990.

5. Rollins O. Towards an antiracist (neuro)science. Nat Hum Behav 2021;5:540-1.

6. Webb EK, Cardenas-Iniguez C, Douglas R. Radically reframing studies on neurobiology and socioeconomic circumstances: A call for social justice-oriented neuroscience. Front Integr Neurosci 2022;16:958545.

7. Buchanan NT, Perez M, Prinstein MJ, Thurston IB. Upending racism in psychological science: Strategies to change how science is conducted, reported, reviewed, and disseminated. Am Psychol 2021;76:1097-112.

8. Neblett EW. Diversity (psychological) science training: Challenges, tensions, and a call to action. Journal of Social Issues 2019;75:1216-39.

9. Metzl JM, Hansen H. Structural competency: theorizing a new medical engagement with stigma and inequality. Soc Sci Med 2014;103:126-33.

10. Shephard E, Stern ER, van den Heuvel OA, et al. Toward a neurocircuit-based taxonomy to guide treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder. Mol Psychiatry 2021;26:4583-604.

11. Tatti E, Phillips AL, Paciorek R, et al. Boosting psychological change: Combining noninvasive brain stimulation with psychotherapy. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 2022;142:104867.

12. Goldfarb MG, Brown DR. Diversifying participation: The rarity of reporting racial demographics in neuroimaging research. Neuroimage 2022;254:119122.

13. Weinberger DR, Dzirasa K, Crumpton-Young LL. Missing in Action: African Ancestry Brain Research. Neuron 2020;107:407-11.

14. Davis AY. Freedom is a constant struggle: Ferguson, Palestine, and the foundations of a movement. Chicago, IL: Haymarket Books; 2015.

15. White supremacy culture. 2023. at

https://www.whitesupremacyculture.info/characteristics.html)

https://doi.org/10.1017/cts.2025.5 Published online by Cambridge University Press

16. Strings S. Fearing the black body: The racial origins of fat phobia. Fearing the Black Body. New York: University Press; 2019.

 Carter SE, Mekawi Y, Harnett NG. It's about racism, not race: a call to purge oppressive practices from neuropsychiatry and scientific discovery. Neuropsychopharmacology 2022;47:2179-80.

18. Webb EK, Etter JA, Kwasa JA. Addressing racial and phenotypic bias in human neuroscience methods. Nat Neurosci 2022;25:410-4.

19. Ricard JA, Parker TC, Dhamala E, Kwasa J, Allsop A, Holmes AJ. Confronting racially exclusionary practices in the acquisition and analyses of neuroimaging data. Nat Neurosci 2023;26:4-11.

20. Viswanathan M, Ammerman A, Eng E, et al. Community-based participatory research: assessing the evidence. Evid Rep Technol Assess (Summ) 2004:1-8.

21. Kam JWY, Badhwar A, Borghesani V, et al. Creating diverse and inclusive scientific practices for research datasets and dissemination. Imaging Neuroscience 2024.

22. Siegle GJ, Thompson WK, Collier A, et al. Toward clinically useful neuroimaging in depression treatment: prognostic utility of subgenual cingulate activity for determining depression outcome in cognitive therapy across studies, scanners, and patient characteristics. Arch Gen Psychiatry 2012;69:913-24.

23. Compere L, Siegle GJ, Riley E, et al. Enhanced efficacy of CBT following augmentation with amygdala rtfMRI neurofeedback in depression. J Affect Disord 2023;339:495-501.

24. Choy T, Baker E, Stavropoulos K. Systemic Racism in EEG Research: Considerations and Potential Solutions. Affect Sci 2022;3:14-20.

25. Etienne A, Laroia T, Weigle H, et al. Novel Electrodes for Reliable EEG Recordings on Coarse and Curly Hair. Annu Int Conf IEEE Eng Med Biol Soc 2020;2020:6151-4.

26. Penner F, Wall KM, Guan KW, et al. Racial disparities in EEG research and their implications for our understanding of the maternal brain. Cogn Affect Behav Neurosci 2023;23:1-16.

27. Korol B, Bergfeld GR, McLaughlin LJ. Skin color and autonomic nervous system measures. Physiol Behav 1975;14:575-8.

28. Adzika Nsatimba PA, Pathak K, Soares MJ. Ethnic differences in resting metabolic rate, respiratory quotient and body temperature: a comparison of Africans and European Australians. Eur J Nutr 2016;55:1831-8.

 Carter SE, Gibbons FX, Beach SRH. Measuring the Biological Embedding of Racial Trauma Among Black Americans Utilizing the RDoC Approach. Dev Psychopathol 2021;33:1849-63.

30. Conley MI, Dellarco DV, Rubien-Thomas E, et al. The racially diverse affective expression (RADIATE) face stimulus set. Psychiatry research 2018;270:1059-67.

31. Weierich MR, Kleshchova O, Rieder J, Reilly DM. The Complex Affective Scene Set (COMPASS): Solving the social content problem in affective visual stimulus sets. Collabra: Psychology 2019;5:53.

32. Hsu KJ, Shumake J, Caffey K, et al. Efficacy of attention bias modification training for depressed adults: a randomized clinical trial. Psychol Med 2021;52:1-9.

33. Chen Y, Zhao Y, Song H, Guan L, Wu X. The neural basis of intergroup threat effect on social attention. Sci Rep 2017;7:41062.

34. Peckham AD. Why don't cognitive training programs transfer to real life?: Three possible explanations and recommendations for future research. The Behavior Therapist 2021;44:357.

35. Kamboukos D, Ursache A, Cheng S, et al. Measuring Children's Emotion Knowledge:
Steps Toward an Anti-Racist Approach to Early Childhood Assessments. Affect Sci 2022;3:628.

36. Characteristics of Postsecondary Students. Condition of Education. 2023. (Accessed May 31, 2024, at https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator/csb.)

37. Roberts SO, Bareket-Shavit C, Dollins FA, Goldie PD, Mortenson E. Racial inequality in psychological research: Trends of the past and recommendations for the future. Perspectives on Psychological Science 2020;15:1295-309.

38. Sue DW. Confronting ourselves: The white and racial/ethnic-minority researcher. The Counseling Psychologist 1993;21:244-9.

39. Li J, Bzdok D, Chen J, et al. Cross-ethnicity/race generalization failure of behavioral prediction from resting-state functional connectivity. Sci Adv 2022;8:eabj1812.

40. Position statement on use of race as a factor in neuropsychological test norming and performance prediction. 2021. (Accessed April 23, 2023, at <u>https://theaacn.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/11/AACN-Position-Statement-on-Race-Norms.pdf</u>.)

41. Malik HB, Norman JB. Best Practices and Methodological Strategies for Addressing Generalizability in Neuropsychological Assessment. J Pediatr Neuropsychol 2023;9:47-63.

42. Shan X, Uddin LQ, Xiao J, et al. Mapping the Heterogeneous Brain Structural Phenotype of Autism Spectrum Disorder Using the Normative Model. Biol Psychiatry 2022;91:967-76.

43. Rutherford S, Fraza C, Dinga R, et al. Charting brain growth and aging at high spatial precision. Elife 2022;11.

44. Siegle GJ, Cramer AOJ, van Eck NJ, et al. Where are the breaks in translation from theory to clinical practice (and back) in addressing depression? An empirical graph-theoretic approach. Psychol Med 2019;49:2681-91.

45. Strege M, Persons JB, Ressler KJ, et al. Integrating neuroscience into clinical practice: Current Opinions and Dialogue between Drs. Jaqueline Persons and Kerry Ressler. The Behavior Therapist 2021;44:326-35.

46. Alcantara C, Diaz SV, Cosenzo LG, Loucks EB, Penedo FJ, Williams NJ. Social determinants as moderators of the effectiveness of health behavior change interventions: scientific gaps and opportunities. Health Psychol Rev 2020;14:132-44.

47. Woods-Jaeger B, Cho B, Briggs EC. Training psychologists to address social determinants of mental health. Training and Education in Professional Psychology 2024;18:31-41.

48. Donald CA, DasGupta S, Metzl JM, Eckstrand KL. Queer Frontiers in Medicine: A Structural Competency Approach. Acad Med 2017;92:345-50.

49. Ellis BJ, Del Giudice M. Beyond allostatic load: rethinking the role of stress in regulating human development. Dev Psychopathol 2014;26:1-20.

50. White EJ, Demuth MJ, Wiglesworth A, et al. Five recommendations for using large-scale publicly available data to advance health among American Indian peoples: the Adolescent Brain and Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study(SM) as an illustrative case.

Neuropsychopharmacology 2023;48:263-9.

51. Henrietta Lacks: Science must right a historical wrong. Nature, 2020. (Accessed May 31, 2024, at https://www.nature.com/articles/d41586-020-02494-z.)

52. Saini A. Superior: The return of race science. Boston: Beacon Press; 2019.

53. Alegria M, Alvarez K, Cheng M, Falgas-Bague I. Recent Advances on Social Determinants of Mental Health: Looking Fast Forward. Am J Psychiatry 2023;180:473-82.

54. Ganna A, Verweij KJH, Nivard MG, et al. Large-scale GWAS reveals insights into the genetic architecture of same-sex sexual behavior. Science 2019;365.

55. Nicholson AA, Siegel M, Wolf J, et al. A systematic review of the neural correlates of sexual minority stress: towards an intersectional minority mosaic framework with implications for a future research agenda. Eur J Psychotraumatol 2022;13:2002572.

56. Eckstrand KL, Silk JS, Nance M, et al. Medial Prefrontal Cortex Activity to Reward Outcome Moderates the Association Between Victimization Due to Sexual Orientation and Depression in Youth. Biol Psychiatry Cogn Neurosci Neuroimaging 2022;7:1289-97.

57. Eckstrand KL, Singh MK, Ajilore O. Diversity, Equity, and Inclusivity in Biological Psychiatry Research. Biol Psychiatry Cogn Neurosci Neuroimaging 2022;7:1195-7.

58. Call CC, Eckstrand KL, Kasparek SW, et al. An Ethics and Social-Justice Approach to Collecting and Using Demographic Data for Psychological Researchers. Perspect Psychol Sci 2023;18:979-95.

59. Cicchetti D, Rogosch FA. A developmental psychopathology perspective on adolescence. Journal of consulting and clinical psychology 2002;70:6-20.

60. Jones SCT, Anderson RE, Gaskin-Wasson AL, Sawyer BA, Applewhite K, Metzger IW. From "crib to coffin": Navigating coping from racism-related stress throughout the lifespan of Black Americans. Am J Orthopsychiatry 2020;90:267-82.

61. Molenaar PC, Campbell CG. The new person-specific paradigm in psychology. Current Directions in Psychological Science 2009;18:112-7.

62. Neblett EW, Jr., Sosoo EE, Willis HA, Bernard DL, Bae J, Billingsley JT. Racism, Racial Resilience, and African American Youth Development: Person-Centered Analysis as a Tool to Promote Equity and Justice. Adv Child Dev Behav 2016;51:43-79.

63. Woody ML, Bell EC, Cruz NA, Wears A, Anderson RE, Price RB. Racial Stress and Trauma and the Development of Adolescent Depression: A Review of the Role of Vigilance Evoked by Racism-Related Threat. Chronic Stress (Thousand Oaks) 2022;6:24705470221118574. 64. Harrell JP, Hall S, Taliaferro J. Physiological responses to racism and discrimination: an assessment of the evidence. Am J Public Health 2003;93:243-8.

65. Jones DR, Harrell JP, Morris-Prather CE, Thomas J, Omowale N. Affective and physiological responses to racism: the roles of afrocentrism and mode of presentation. Ethn Dis 1996;6:109-22.

66. Danese, A., Amussen, K., MacLeod, J., Meehan, A., Sears, J., Slopen, N., Smith, P., & Sweeney, A. (2024). Revisiting the use of adverse childhood experience screening in healthcare settings. Nat Rev Psychol, *3*, 729-740.

67. Huo, Y., Couzner, L., WIndsor, T., Laver, K., Dissanayaka, N. N., & Cations, M. (2023). Barriers and enablers for the implementation of trauma-informed care in healthcare settings: A systematic review. Implement Sci Commun, 4, 49.

68. Bradford DE, DeFalco A, Perkins ER, et al. Whose Signals Are Being Amplified? Toward a More Equitable Clinical Psychophysiology. Clin Psychol Sci 2024;12:237-52.

69. Kopal J, Uddin LQ, Bzdok D. The end game: respecting major sources of population diversity. Nat Methods 2023;20:1122-8.

70. Cardenas-Iniguez C, Gonzalez MR. Recommendations for the responsible use and communication of race and ethnicity in neuroimaging research. Nat Neurosci 2024;27:615-28.

71. Berenbaum H, Washburn JJ, Sbarra D, et al. Accelerating the rate of progress in reducing mental health burdens: Recommendations for training the next generation of clinical psychologists. Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice 2021;28:107-23.

72. Gee DG, DeYoung KA, McLaughlin KA, et al. Training the Next Generation of Clinical Psychological Scientists: A Data-Driven Call to Action. Annu Rev Clin Psychol 2022;18:43-70.

73. De Los Reyes A, Uddin LQ. Revising evaluation metrics for graduate admissions and faculty advancement to dismantle privilege. Nat Neurosci 2021;24:755-8.

74. Goss D, Panell T. Integrating neuroscience into counselling psychology: Exploring the views and experiences of UK based counselling psychologists. Counselling Psychology Review 2016;32:4-17.

75. Kryza-Lacombe M, Richards E, Hansen N, Goldin P. Integrating neuroeducation into psychotherapy practice: Why and how to talk to patients about the brain. The Behavior Therapist 2021;44:361-70.