

# Screening

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Criteria for screening (based on Wilson-Junger criteria for a screening programme)

Lead time bias describes the phenomenon whereby early detection of a disease will always prolong survival from the time of diagnosis when compared with disease picked up at a later stage in its development whether or not detection in the screening process has altered the progression of the cancer (Figure 12.4)

Selection bias describes the finding that individuals who accept an invitation for screening are, in general, healthier than those who do not. It follows that individuals with screen-detected disease will tend to live longer, independently of the condition for which screening is being performed. Length bias occurs because small, slow-growing tumours are likely to be picked up by screening whereas larger, fast-growing tumours are likely to arise and produce symptoms in between screening rounds. Screen-detected tumours will therefore tend to be less aggressive than symptomatic tumours. Because of these biases it is essential to carry out population-based randomised controlled trials and to compare the mortality rate in a whole population offered screening (including those who refuse to be screened and those who develop cancer after a negative test) with the mortality rate in a population that has not been offered screening. This research design has been applied to both breast cancer and colorectal cancer: in both cases there was a reduction in disease-specific mortality. However, in general, clinical trials of screening with the gold-standard endpoint of overall survival have not been undertaken because of the very large number of participants required with long study follow-up periods.

Cancer screening remains a controversial topic with advocates on both sides of the argument. Targeted, risk-based screening approaches, such as computed tomography (CT) scan-based screening of smokers and ex-smokers for lung cancer, are being evaluated as methods of developing more conclusive screening programmes.

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Figure 12.3 The management of cancer spans the natural history of the disease and all humankind, from the individual to the population of the world. The disease: Recognisable early stage Treatment at early stage more effective than at later stage Sufficiently common to warrant screening The test: Sensitive and specific Acceptable to the screened population Safe Inexpensive The programme: Adequate diagnostic facilities for those with a positive test High-

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the tumour would be diagnosed in a screening programme, and point B indicates the time at which the tumour would be diagnosed clinically, i.e. in the absence of any screening programme. If the date of diagnosis is used as the start time for measuring survival, then, in the absence of any effect from treatment, the screening programme will, artefactually, add to the survival time. The amount of 'increased' survival is equal to  $y - x$  years, in this example just over 2 years. This artefactual inflation of survival time is referred to as

lead time bias. Tumour b is a rapidly growing tumour; again its progress is uninfluenced by treatment. It grows so rapidly that, in the interval between two screening tests, it can cross both the threshold for detectability by screening and that of clinical detectability (at point C). It will continue to progress rapidly after diagnosis

and the measured survival time will be short. This phenomenon, whereby those tumours that are 'missed' by the screening programme are associated with decreased survival, is called length time bias.

Accurate diagnosis is the key to successful management of cancer. Precise diagnosis is crucial to the choice of correct therapy; the wrong operation, no matter how well performed, is useless. An unequivocal diagnosis is also the key to an accurate prognosis. Only rarely can a diagnosis of cancer be confidently made in the absence of tissue for pathological or cytological examination. Cancer is a disease of cells and, for accurate diagnosis, the abnormal cells need to be obtained and visualised by a histopathologist. Different tumours are classified in different ways: most squamous epithelial tumours are classed as well (G1), moderate (G2) or poorly (G3) differentiated. Adenocarcinomas are also often classified as G1, G2 or G3 but prostate cancer is an exception, with widespread use of the Gleason system. The Gleason system grades prostate cancer according to the degree of differentiation of the two most prevalent architectural patterns. The

final score is the sum of the two grades and can vary from 6 (3 + 3) to 10 (5 + 5) with the higher scores indicating poorer prognosis. The ongoing development of molecular classifiers in many cancer types is beginning to profoundly alter our approach to treatment of these malignancies based on genetic mutations and other molecular features identified in individual patients, i.e. in melanoma where patients with BRAF gene mutations can be successfully treated with the BRAF inhibitors. Molecular characterisation of malignancies and identification of their vulnerabilities have already become standard of care in many

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