

UKCTOCS update: applying insights of delayed effects in cancer screening trials to the long-term follow-up mortality analysis

Article (Accepted Version)

Burnell, Matthew, Gentry-Maharaj, Aleksandra, Skates, Steven J, Ryan, Andy, Karpinskyj, Chloe, Kalsi, Jatinderpal, Apostolidou, Sophia, Singh, Naveena, Dawnay, Anne, Woolas, Robert, Fallowfield, Lesley, Campbell, Stuart, McGuire, Alistair, Jacobs, Ian J, Parmar, Mahesh et al. (2021) UKCTOCS update: applying insights of delayed effects in cancer screening trials to the long-term follow-up mortality analysis. *Trials*, 11. a173 1-12. ISSN 1745-6215

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1 **UKCTOCS Update: Applying insights of delayed effects in cancer screening**
2 **trials to the long-term follow-up mortality analysis**

3

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33

34 **Abstract**

35

36 **Background**

37 During trials that span decades, new evidence including progress in statistical
38 methodology, may require revision of original assumptions. An example is the
39 continued use of a constant-effect approach to analyse the mortality reduction which
40 is often delayed in cancer-screening trials. The latter led us to re-examine our
41 approach for the upcoming primary mortality analysis(2020) of long-term follow-up of
42 the United Kingdom Collaborative Trial of Ovarian Cancer Screening (LTFU
43 UKCTOCS), having initially(2014) used the proportional hazards(PH) Cox-model.

44 **Methods**

45 We wrote to 12 experts in statistics/epidemiology/screening-trials, setting out current
46 evidence, importance of pre-specification, previous mortality analysis (2014) and three
47 possible choices for the follow-up analysis (2020) of the mortality outcome - (A)all
48 data(2001-2020) using the Cox-model(2014) (B)new data(2015-2020) only (C)all
49 data(2001-2020) using a test that allows for delayed effects.

50 **Results**

51 Of 11 respondents, eight supported changing the 2014-approach to allow for a
52 potential delayed effect (optionC), suggesting various tests while three favoured
53 retaining the Cox-model (optionA). Consequently, we opted for the Versatile test
54 introduced in 2016 which maintains good power for early, constant or delayed effects.
55 We retained the Royston-Parmar model to estimate absolute differences in disease-
56 specific mortality at 5,10,15 and 18 years.

57 **Conclusions**

58 The decision to alter the follow-up analysis for the primary outcome on the basis of
59 new evidence and using new statistical methodology for long-term follow-up is novel
60 and has implications beyond UKCTOCS. There is an urgent need for consensus
61 building on how best to design, test, estimate and report mortality outcomes from long-
62 term randomised cancer screening trials.

63

64 Trial registration: (ISRCTN22488978, Registration date: 6/4/2000)

65

66 **Key words**

67 UKCTOCS, follow-up, mortality analysis, ovarian cancer, cancer screening, delayed
68 effect
69

70 **BACKGROUND**

71 Randomised controlled trials (RCT) are the cornerstone of the evidence base for
72 clinical management of millions of patients across the world. RCTs evaluating the
73 mortality impact of cancer screening typically involve large numbers of participants
74 followed up over many years, sometimes decades. The general rule in clinical trials is
75 strict adherence to the statistical analysis plan specified prior to unblinding and
76 analysis of outcome data. Sometimes, during continued long-term follow-up of these
77 trials, new understanding based on evidence from other trials and new analytical
78 methods, may require re-evaluation of the analysis plan.

79
80 One important example is the accumulating evidence in cancer-screening trials of a
81 delay of several years before a mortality reduction is observed between the screen
82 and control arms[1-3]. Almost all the cancer-screening trials, breast[4-14], prostate,
83 colorectal and lung[15-31] in their graphic representation of disease-specific mortality
84 over time have reported a delayed difference (if present) between screen and control
85 arms(Table 1). Most have an initial time window in the first several years after start of
86 screening during which there is little or no mortality reduction, followed by one in which
87 the reduction becomes evident[2]. These findings are in keeping with our
88 understanding of how screening works. It reduces deaths by detecting cancers early,
89 before they reach an incurable state. It is less likely to prevent cancer deaths occurring
90 in the early years post randomisation as there is little chance to detect these cancers
91 sufficiently early in their natural history. However, almost none of these cancer-
92 screening trials have used analytical methods which formally allow for a non-constant
93 effect (non-proportional hazards). All have described the screening effect using
94 relatively simple methods, usually a single Poisson-based rate ratio (RR)[4, 12, 24,
95 30, 32, 33] or Cox model with a single hazard ratio (HR) estimate[18, 22]. A single HR
96 is only appropriate if the reduction in hazard rates is relatively immediate and constant
97 over time. In screening trials, such estimates cannot reliably describe the changing
98 effects of screening on mortality over time..

99
100 Alongside, new analytical methods have been developed for trials lacking treatment
101 proportionality. Tests that combine evidence from more than one aspect of the data
102 have gained popularity as a way to mitigate the effects of potential but unknown non-
103 proportionality of hazards, although some may work best in a specific scenario. The

104 'joint test' appears in simulations to be preferentially beneficial under late effects[34,
105 35] whilst the 'combined test' appears to be preferentially beneficial under early
106 effects[36, 37]. Another recent addition is the Versatile test[38], which seeks to cover
107 all bases by combining three (weighted) log-rank tests giving good power for the test
108 under early effects, proportional hazards(PH) and late effects, respectively. These
109 tests are likely better suited than the Cox model for analysis of outcomes which are
110 non-proportional across the duration of a trial.

111

112 In the United Kingdom Collaborative Trial of Ovarian Cancer Screening (UKCTOCS)
113 too, the initial mortality analysis in 2014 used a PH Cox model and reported an average
114 mortality reduction estimate. However, given the growing external evidence, there
115 have been extensive discussions within the UKCTOCS trial committees to ensure the
116 outcome data is analysed appropriately. We believe that this issue will be important
117 for any long-term cancer screening trial. The Cox model, while valid, could be viewed
118 as restrictive and failing to utilise the most appropriate analytical approach, given the
119 delayed mortality reductions seen in many screening trials across a range of cancers
120 (Table1)[14, 17, 24, 31]. Furthermore, retention of the Cox model based on pre-
121 specification may result in suboptimal interpretation of UKCTOCS data and therefore
122 an abrogation of our responsibility to the huge collective investment by the trial
123 volunteers, the funding agencies, charities, the National Health Service (NHS),
124 researchers and most importantly women who develop ovarian cancer in the future.
125 This is balanced by a concern that changes to the 2014 analysis plan could be
126 controversial and lead to criticism of cherry-picking methodology that gives the 'best'
127 test result.

128

129 Many trialists may face similar dilemmas, when new evidence suggests that trial
130 design, conduct or analysis may need to be amended. Decisions are often made by
131 the Trial Management Committee (TMC) with input from independent oversight bodies
132 such as a Trial Steering (TSC) or Scientific Advisory (SAC) Committees. We report on
133 the process we undertook in UKCTOCS to re-examine our approach for the upcoming
134 analysis (2020) of the primary mortality outcome at the end of extended follow-up and
135 how we addressed the issue of delayed effects.

136

137 **METHODS**

138 Between 2001 and 2005, 202,638 postmenopausal women aged 50-74 were recruited
139 to UKCTOCS. They were randomised to screening using a longitudinal serum CA125
140 algorithm (multimodal group, MMS, 50,640), transvaginal ultrasound (ultrasound
141 group,USS,50,639) or no screening (control group,C,101,279) as described
142 previously[39-41]. Women in the screen groups underwent screening until the end of
143 2011 and received a median of nine annual screens. At median follow-up of 11.1 years
144 (administrative censorship 31 Dec 2014), a higher proportion of women were
145 diagnosed with low-volume (stage I, II, and IIIa) tubo-ovarian cancer in the
146 MMS(40%; $p<0.0001$) compared to C(26%) group. The Cox-model indicated a trend to
147 mortality reduction in favour of MMS (HR 0.85;95%CI:0.70-1.03, $p=0.10$) and USS (HR
148 0.89;95% CI:0.73-1.07, $p=0.21$), which was not statistically significant at the 5% level.
149 A Royston-Parmar (RP) flexible parametric model showed that HR varied over time.
150 In the MMS group, it was 0.92(95% CI:0.69-1.20) in years 0-7 and 0.77(95% CI:0.54-
151 0.99) in years 7-14. In the USS group, it was 0.98(95% CI:0.74-1.27) in years 0-7 and
152 0.79(95%:CI 0.58-1.02) in years 7-14[39]. Follow-up was extended to 30 June 2020
153 to assess the long-term mortality impact (LTFU UKCTOCS)[39, 42]. Final receipt of
154 death data from the registries is anticipated by the end of September 2020, with
155 unblinding and analysis planned for November 2020.

156

157 To ensure independent input into our statistical conundrum, the TMC proposed
158 seeking the views of a broad panel of international experts with statistical and
159 screening trial expertise who had not been involved in any aspect of UKCTOCS. The
160 process was developed through detailed discussions with the independent members
161 of the TSC. In September 2019, 12 experts (Table 2) were approached by the Trial
162 Statistician for advice. They were sent a letter briefly describing UKCTOCS together
163 with a summary of the current evidence from other cancer-screening trials, importance
164 of pre-specification and our 2014 mortality analysis results. Three potential options for
165 the primary analysis of the extended follow-up data developed with the TSC were
166 described sequentially, each including possible pros and cons, in a neutral manner.
167 These were:

168 A) analyse all outcome data (2001-2020) using the PH Cox-model of the original
169 UKCTOCS analysis, representing the pre-specification viewpoint

170 B) analyse only the outcomes that occurred since the original censorship (31
171 December 2014), either assuming PH or not, to address the view that data should not
172 be re-used, without formal statistical accommodation for multiple analyses.

173 C) model all outcome data using a method of analysis and model that allows for a late
174 effect of screening on mortality and reflects current understanding of cancer-screening
175 trials - a pragmatic evidential approach. The specific model suggested for C) was the
176 RP model[43] as it had been used as a secondary analysis method for the 2014
177 analysis[39].

178

179 Experts were asked to critique and state a preference or suggest another option
180 (Supplementary Materials 1). Results were collated and summarised based on 1)
181 indicated choice of A, B, C or other and 2) pertinent comments provided.

182

183 **RESULTS**

184 In total 12 individuals were contacted from the UK (5), USA (5), Canada (1) and
185 Belgium (1) and 11 responded (see acknowledgement). Their anonymised responses
186 can be found in Table 2 and Supplementary Table 1.

187

188 Eight (73%) of the 11 experts recommended changing the pre-specified analysis to
189 one that more appropriately allows for a delayed effect (Table 2). *EX4* was not troubled
190 by the shift from a pre-hoc to post-hoc decision - “reason” should have a role in
191 science. Similarly, *EX8* argued “a conclusion should be reached based on a proper
192 consideration of the full evidence” and use scientific principles – “full information from
193 data should be extracted”. Indeed, rather than viewing it as “data-dredging” or
194 “changing the endpoint”, *EX8* described this approach as just “using common sense”.

195 *EX9* felt the lack of (complete) pre-specification a weakness, but not “a violation of
196 good scientific principles”. For “a major and definitive screening trial such
197 regulatory constraints should not be the primary consideration” but instead
198 “approximating the truth as well as possible”. *EX11* was not persuaded by the pre-
199 specification argument, and claimed keeping a plan that is less preferable “turns
200 research rules into an irrational, mindless, and restricting obsession with
201 methodological procedure”; “rules have a purpose, but when the higher priority is
202 understanding phenomena in a reasoned disciplined way... then a compelling
203 argument can be made to deviate from them”. *EX11* stated that no screening trial has

204 shown an immediate effect and appealed to the common sense of the scientific
205 audience; “we can discern the difference in attempts by a study team to game the
206 analysis to gain statistical significance, from a good faith effort to apply a statistical
207 technique that is more appropriate for the data”. Different screening trials will have
208 different results and delayed effects, all dependent on differing facets of trial design
209 and the cancer itself, the effects of which are largely unknown until we do the study.
210 “Point is, we are still learning how to design and analyse RCT screening trial data.”

211 Three of the eleven (*EX2*, *EX3*, *EX1*) believed that we should retain the initial analysis
212 approach (option A). This was based on the pre-specification argument - “avoids the
213 appearance of trying to get a significant result by changing the test”(*EX2*), “maintains
214 credibility in the scientific community”(*EX3*), “most likely to be accepted as valid by the
215 cancer research and policy community”(*EX1*). However, *EX1* did suggest modifying
216 the pre-specified plan to limit analysis to only cancers diagnosed within the screening
217 period.

218
219 Of the eight who suggested changing the pre-specified analysis, five (*EX7*, *EX8*, *EX9*,
220 *EX10* and *EX11*) explicitly selected approach C (using all acquired outcome data and
221 a model that allows for delayed effects). While there were positive comments about
222 the suggested RP model (credibility due to pre-specification *EX7*, informative of the
223 screening effect over time *EX9*), none gave a clear endorsement of this approach. The
224 main reason was interpretability (*EX7*, *EX9*, *EX4*, *EX6*). *EX10* noted that power was
225 little studied under various “flavours” of non-PHs, and suggested separating testing
226 from estimation, opting for a versatile weighted log-rank test for the former. *EX4* and
227 *EX6* formally indicated an alternative option. *EX6*’s preference was for dividing the
228 data into yearly bins and estimating the HR in each, possibly with some smoothing.
229 *EX6* argued extensively we should avoid a single HR estimate, which will provide “a
230 very blurred, incomplete and misleading picture of how much/little good screening did
231 for the 100,000 participants screened, or of how much future women might expect
232 from a screening regimen based on these screening tools.” *EX4* stated that the
233 number needed to screen was the most suitable measure for a screening study. *EX5*
234 recommended a test based on the difference of restricted mean survival times (RMST)
235 which “does not need any modelling and the results can be interpreted easily
236 clinically”.

237
238 None of the 11 responders chose Approach B. This was mainly because it did not use
239 the full dataset. In addition, there were concerns that it could lead to 'unfavourable
240 early results (important data) being censored(*EX11*) and a "disconnected" HR(*EX6*).

241
242 Based on the feedback, we decided to change the primary analysis test for LTFU
243 UKCTOCS. Table 3 summarises the major pros and cons of available approaches to
244 dealing with non-PH in terms of tests. We used two main criteria to choose the specific
245 test - (1) minimal *a priori* specification on the specific form of the mortality difference
246 over time (2) able to accommodate delayed effects while maintaining good power in a
247 variety of potential scenarios. Based on these criteria, we opted for the Versatile
248 test[16], suggested by *EX10*. The RP model was retained to estimate absolute
249 differences in disease-specific mortality at 5, 10, 15 and 18 (our estimate of the upper
250 limit of reliable follow-up given administrative censorship on 30 June 2020) years.
251 Options A and B were included as secondary analyses of the primary mortality
252 outcome. These amendments were incorporated into the statistical analysis plan (20
253 February 2020), which was endorsed by the independent TSC.

254

255 **DISCUSSION**

256 Given the now large body of evidence of a delay in mortality reduction in long-term
257 cancer-screening randomised trials, and the majority view of independent statistical,
258 epidemiological and screening trial experts, we altered the approach for our primary
259 mortality analysis for the LTFU from that used for our 2014 analysis. The new
260 approach allows for a delayed effect in contrast to our previous analysis which
261 assumed a constant screening effect. There were a variety of opinions on the specific
262 test which suggests an urgent need for consensus building on how best to design,
263 analyse and report mortality outcomes in cancer-screening trials.

264

265 Our decision to change the statistical analysis plan for extended follow-up is a
266 significant decision. The large majority of the published cancer-screening trials[17, 25,
267 26, 31, 32, 44] have retained the same primary mortality analysis methodology for both
268 their initial and extended follow-up analysis (Table 1). The only exceptions we found
269 were the Two County trial which used negative binomial regression[14] for follow-up
270 analysis in place of Mantel-Haenszel stratified risk-ratios[12] and the Norwegian

271 Colorectal Cancer Prevention Trial (NORCCAP) which changed the primary analysis
272 from overall population to subgroups based on gender[21]. In the Two Country trial,
273 whilst no explanation was given, the change was not substantive; both initial and
274 follow-up methods estimated risk ratios. For NORCCAP, “because substantial
275 heterogeneity existed between women and men, the steering committee decided to
276 present results for women and men separately”, which may be argued as a significant
277 post-hoc data-driven amendment. None of the trials as far as we are aware sought
278 independent expert opinion. In contrast, we undertook an external consultation.
279 Although the independent expert panel was not unanimous, the majority concluded
280 that a rational argument for revision outweighs that of procedure and pre-specification,
281 and recommended choosing the most appropriate test that allows for a delayed effect.
282 We accepted the view of EX7 that one should “do what you yourselves think is the
283 most effective and secure analysis of all your data, bearing in mind the current state
284 of information about the field.” There will be debate about our decision, which we
285 welcome, given the broader implications.

286
287 A number of factors contribute to delayed mortality effect. In the early trial-years, the
288 absolute death rates are low as a result of eligibility criteria which exclude women with
289 cancer diagnosis. The time interval for an individual to be diagnosed with cancer after
290 joining the trial and then dying of the disease also contributes to the delay in separation
291 of the mortality curves. Additionally, the impact of screening on cancers detected at
292 the initial prevalence screen is reduced, as these are necessarily more advanced
293 when screen-detected compared to screen-detected cancers in later years. The
294 performance of most screening strategies improve over time as the number of screens
295 accumulate and the teams involved get more experienced. This is magnified when
296 longitudinal biomarker algorithms are used as they are based on detecting change
297 from baseline. Finally, the length of follow-up after end of screening impacts on the
298 specific form of the mortality difference over time as the longer the interval, the greater
299 the dilution of screen-detected cancers by cancers that develop after the end of
300 screening[32].

301
302 The PLCO colorectal[29] and ovarian[19] trials used a test that has better power for
303 the delayed effect described above. Both used the weighted log-rank test, which is
304 perhaps the best known method for improving power in such situations. However, it

305 requires correctly anticipating the specific form of the mortality difference over time,
306 which will depend on the natural history of the cancer, screening strategy, number and
307 frequency of screens and years of follow-up. We have chosen the Versatile test[38],
308 introduced in 2016, which does not require pre-specification of the mortality difference
309 over time. It combines three (weighted) log-rank tests appropriate for capturing early
310 effects, PH and delayed effects, respectively. It is therefore versatile enough to
311 maintain good power in all potential scenarios, rather than optimal in any given
312 scenario.

313
314 Unlike other trials, including the PLCO colorectal[29] and ovarian[19] trials, who
315 measured the screening effect using a single 'averaged' rate-ratio, we will use a
316 flexible parametric model to estimate absolute differences in disease-specific mortality
317 at 5,10,15 and 18 years. This is in keeping with the growing view that to adequately
318 describe what might be achieved with a particular cancer screening strategy, a more
319 comprehensive set of time-specific measures needs to be reported. Hanley *et al* has
320 extensively re-analysed cancer screening trial data and shown that a one-number
321 summary measure systematically dilutes the estimate of mortality reduction that
322 results from screening[2]. In the most recent re-analysis involving breast cancer
323 screening data from Funen, Denmark, the average mortality reduction was 18% using
324 a PH model and ranged from 0 to 30% when a non-PH model was used that
325 considered the impact at different points over time. The reductions were largest for
326 periods where sufficient time had elapsed for the impact to manifest[45]. It is important
327 to note that our estimates of screening efficacy will not necessarily capture the
328 screening effect of a screening program, where participants would likely start
329 screening at age 50 and continue for possibly 25 years. However, once results of our
330 primary analysis are published, it will be possible for groups around the world to use
331 our data to model effectiveness over a longer timeframe and in multiple settings.

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332
333 The key strength of our approach is the independent and transparent process we have
334 adopted to address a challenging issue and the criteria we used to choose a new
335 specific approach. This involved accommodating delayed effects while maintaining
336 good power in a variety of potential scenarios and requiring minimal *a priori*
337 speculation on the specific form of the mortality difference over time. A limitation is
338 that given the orthodoxy surrounding pre-specification for analysis of trials, we have

Deleted: ¶

341 retained the original Cox model with an averaged HR over time as an estimate for our
342 secondary analysis.

343

344 The screening community is only beginning to understand the challenges posed by
345 long-term cancer-screening trials. Mortality reductions may have been underestimated
346 across cancer types by not considering their timing. Given the importance of early
347 detection in many national cancer strategies, we hope our report will accelerate much
348 needed consensus building on how best to design, analyse and report trials testing
349 cancer screening strategies – as it is clear our currently accepted and widely used
350 methods are insufficient. We also hope it will encourage debate and transparency on
351 how advances in understanding and new analytical methods can be evaluated and
352 incorporated into long-term trials.

353

354 **List of abbreviations**

355 United Kingdom Collaborative Trial of Ovarian Cancer Screening (UKCTOCS)

356 Long-term follow-up of the United Kingdom Collaborative Trial of Ovarian Cancer
357 Screening (LTFU UKCTOCS)

358 Randomised controlled trial (RCT)

359 Rate ratio (RR)

360 Hazard ratio (HR)

361 Confidence interval (CI)

362 Proportional hazards (PH)

363 Trial Management Committee (TMC)

364 Trial Steering Committee (TSC)

365 Scientific Advisory Committee (SAC)

366 Multimodal group (MMS)

367 Ultrasound group (USS)

368 Royston-Parmar model (RP)

369 Norwegian Colorectal Cancer Prevention Trial (NORCCAP)

370 Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial (PLCO)

371 **Declarations**

372 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

373 The initial study was approved by the UK North West Multicentre Research Ethics
374 Committees (North West MREC 00/8/34) on 21 June 2000 with site-specific approval
375 from the local regional ethics committees and the Caldicott guardians (data controllers)
376 of the primary care trusts. The long-term follow-up amendment was approved on 24
377 January 2017 and the amended protocol including the new statistical plan was
378 approved on 12 May 2020. All trial participants provided written informed consent.

379

380 **Consent for publication**

381 All authors have seen the final version of the manuscript and give their consent for
382 publication.

383

384 **Availability of data and materials**

385 Tables 2 and Supplementary Table 1 contain the exact comments provided by the
386 experts.

387

388 **Competing interests**

389 UM has stocks in Abcodia Ltd. awarded to her by UCL. SJS and IJJ are co-inventors
390 of the Risk of Ovarian Cancer Algorithm (ROCA) that has been licensed to Abcodia
391 Ltd by Massachusetts General Hospital (MGH) and Queen Mary University of London
392 (QMUL). IJJ has a financial interest in Abcodia. Ltd as a shareholder and director. IJJ
393 and SJS are entitled to royalty payments via MGH and QMUL from any commercial
394 use of the ROCA. All other authors declare no competing interests.

395

396 **Funding**

397 The LTFU UKCTOCS is supported by National Institute for Health Research (NIHR
398 HTA grant 16/46/01), Cancer Research UK (CRUK) and The Eve Appeal. UKCTOCS
399 was funded by Medical Research Council (G9901012 and G0801228), CRUK
400 (C1479/A2884), and the Department of Health, with additional support from The Eve
401 Appeal. Researchers at UCL are supported by the NIHR University College London
402 Hospitals (UCLH) Biomedical Research Centre and MRC CTU at UCL core funding
403 (MR_UU_12023).

404

405 **Disclaimer:** The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those
406 of the NHS, the NIHR or the Department of Health and Social Care.

407

408 **Author contributions**

409 The process was conceived following many discussions within the TMC involving all
410 authors. MP and UM supervised the study. MB performed the literature search. MB,
411 SJS, AMcG, and MP proposed the statistical analysis options with further input from
412 JC (TSC). The survey was drafted by MB, AGM, MP and UM with input from IJJ,
413 AMcG, and SJS. AGM, AR and MB collated the results and MB undertook analysis.
414 All contributed to data interpretation. MB prepared the tables. MB, AGM and UM
415 drafted the manuscript. AMcG, LF, SA, JK, RW, IJJ, MP and SJS helped revise the
416 draft. All authors critically reviewed the manuscript and approved the report before
417 submission.

418

419 **Acknowledgements**

420 We are hugely grateful to the international panel of experts (Professor Marc Buyse,
421 Professor David Cox, Professor Stephen Duffy, Professor Mitch Gail, Professor Jim
422 Hanley, Professor David Harrington, Professor Patrick Royston, Professor David
423 Schoenfeld, Professor Robert Smith, Professor David Spiegelhalter, Professor LJ
424 Wei) who have contributed their time and expertise. We are also indebted to the
425 insights and support provided by the members of the Trial Steering Committee -
426 Professor Henry Kitchener (Chair), Professor Julietta Patnick, Professor Jack Cuzick
427 and Ms Annwen Jones. We thank all 202,638 volunteers without whom the trial would
428 not have been possible and all the staff involved in this trial for their hard work and
429 dedication.

430

431

432

433

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Table legends

Table 1: Summary of mortality analyses of randomised controlled cancer-screening trials

Table 2: Summary of choices and additional suggestions if not in concordance with A, B or C of the experts

Table 3: Summary of pros and cons of potential statistical tests that could be used when there is a time varying mortality difference (non-proportional hazards)

Supplementary material legends

Supplementary Material 1: Cover Letter to Independent International Expert panel, Outline of Options, Comment Form

Supplementary Table 1: Summary of Responses from Independent International Group