

Collaborative Modeling to Compare Different Breast Cancer Screening Strategies

A Decision Analysis for the US Preventive Services Task Force

Amy Trentham-Dietz, PhD, MS; Christina Hunter Chapman, MD, MS; Jinani Jayasekera, PhD, MS; Kathryn P. Lowry, MD; Brandy M. Heckman-Stoddard, PhD, MPH; John M. Hampton, MS; Jennifer L. Caswell-Jin, MD; Ronald E. Gangnon, PhD; Ying Lu, PhD, MS; Hui Huang, MS; Sarah Stein, PhD; Liyang Sun, MS; Eugenio J. Gil Quessep, MS; Yuanliang Yang, MS; Yifan Lu, BAsC; Juhee Song, PhD; Diego F. Muñoz, PhD; Yisheng Li, PhD, MS; Allison W. Kurian, MD, MSc; Karla Kerlikowske, MD; Ellen S. O'Meara, PhD; Brian L. Sprague, PhD; Anna N. A. Tosteson, ScD; Eric J. Feuer, PhD; Donald Berry, PhD; Sylvia K. Plevritis, PhD; Xuelin Huang, PhD; Harry J. de Koning, MD, PhD; Nicolien T. van Ravestein, PhD; Sandra J. Lee, ScD; Oguzhan Alagoz, PhD, MS; Clyde B. Schechter, MD, MA; Natasha K. Stout, PhD; Diana L. Miglioretti, PhD, ScM; Jeanne S. Mandelblatt, MD, MPH

IMPORTANCE The effects of breast cancer incidence changes and advances in screening and treatment on outcomes of different screening strategies are not well known.

OBJECTIVE To estimate outcomes of various mammography screening strategies.

DESIGN, SETTING, AND POPULATION Comparison of outcomes using 6 Cancer Intervention and Surveillance Modeling Network (CISNET) models and national data on breast cancer incidence, mammography performance, treatment effects, and other-cause mortality in US women without previous cancer diagnoses.

EXPOSURES Thirty-six screening strategies with varying start ages (40, 45, 50 years) and stop ages (74, 79 years) with digital mammography or digital breast tomosynthesis (DBT) annually, biennially, or a combination of intervals. Strategies were evaluated for all women and for Black women, assuming 100% screening adherence and "real-world" treatment.

MAIN OUTCOMES AND MEASURES Estimated lifetime benefits (breast cancer deaths averted, percent reduction in breast cancer mortality, life-years gained), harms (false-positive recalls, benign biopsies, overdiagnosis), and number of mammograms per 1000 women.

RESULTS Biennial screening with DBT starting at age 40, 45, or 50 years until age 74 years averted a median of 8.2, 7.5, or 6.7 breast cancer deaths per 1000 women screened, respectively, vs no screening. Biennial DBT screening at age 40 to 74 years (vs no screening) was associated with a 30.0% breast cancer mortality reduction, 1376 false-positive recalls, and 14 overdiagnosed cases per 1000 women screened. Digital mammography screening benefits were similar to those for DBT but had more false-positive recalls. Annual screening increased benefits but resulted in more false-positive recalls and overdiagnosed cases. Benefit-to-harm ratios of continuing screening until age 79 years were similar or superior to stopping at age 74. In all strategies, women with higher-than-average breast cancer risk, higher breast density, and lower comorbidity level experienced greater screening benefits than other groups. Annual screening of Black women from age 40 to 49 years with biennial screening thereafter reduced breast cancer mortality disparities while maintaining similar benefit-to-harm trade-offs as for all women.

CONCLUSIONS This modeling analysis suggests that biennial mammography screening starting at age 40 years reduces breast cancer mortality and increases life-years gained per mammogram. More intensive screening for women with greater risk of breast cancer diagnosis or death can maintain similar benefit-to-harm trade-offs and reduce mortality disparities.

JAMA. doi:10.1001/jama.2023.24766
Published online April 30, 2024.

- [+ Editorial](#)
- [+ Multimedia](#)
- [+ Related articles and JAMA Patient Page](#)
- [+ Supplemental content](#)
- [+ CME at jamacmelookup.com](#)
- [+ Related articles at jamaoncology.com and jamanetworkopen.com](#)

Author Affiliations: Author affiliations are listed at the end of this article.

Corresponding Author: Amy Trentham-Dietz, PhD, MS, Department of Population Health Sciences and Carbone Cancer Center, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 610 Walnut St, WARF Room 307, Madison, WI 53726 (trentham@wisc.edu).

Since 2009, the US Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) has recommended biennial mammography screening at ages 50 to 74 years, with clinical recommendations for discussion between patients and their primary care clinicians about individual risks and preferences for starting screening before age 50.^{1,2} The USPSTF concluded in 2016 that the evidence was insufficient to assess the benefits and harms of digital breast tomosynthesis (DBT) as a primary screening method. In contrast to digital mammography, which uses a single radiograph projection per view, DBT involves multiple projections that are used to construct image slices, reducing tissue overlap. Screening facilities have been transitioning from digital mammography to DBT because of lower false-positive recall rates and higher cancer detection rates for DBT compared with digital mammography,^{3,4} even though data do not show a reduction in rates of advanced cancer diagnosis.^{5,6} Other changes since the 2016 recommendation include increasing breast cancer incidence among younger women and advances in treatment.⁷ Importantly, Black and African American women (hereafter referred to as Black women) continue to experience higher breast cancer mortality than White women despite similar rates of mammography screening and lower (but steadily increasing) rates of breast cancer incidence.⁸ The impact of these new data on the net benefit of screening mammography is unknown.

Population simulation models are a valuable tool for synthesizing evidence from observational and trial data to estimate the impact of different screening strategies. We used well-established Cancer Intervention and Surveillance Modeling Network (CISNET) models to estimate the benefits and harms of breast cancer screening strategies that varied by the ages to start and stop screening, modality, and interval for women overall and for Black women, including the impact of screening strategies on breast cancer mortality disparities for Black women. The results are provided to inform discussions about US breast cancer screening strategies by the USPSTF and other groups.

Methods

Model Overview

Six CISNET breast cancer models were used to estimate benefits and harms of mammography screening: Dana-Farber Cancer Institute (model D), Erasmus University Medical Center (model E), Georgetown Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center-Albert Einstein College of Medicine (model GE), University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center (model M), Stanford University (model S), and University of Wisconsin-Madison-Harvard Medical School (model W). These models were included in the 2 previous decision analyses conducted for the USPSTF.^{9,10} Since the 2016 analysis, the models have incorporated several updates to inputs including screening performance characteristics for digital mammography and DBT, current breast cancer incidence trends, updated breast cancer stage and hormone receptor distributions, "real-world" treatment assignment and effects for women overall and for Black women. Detailed descriptions of each model are available elsewhere¹¹⁻¹⁷ and in an online technical report.¹⁸ The University of Wisconsin Health Sciences institutional review board determined that this study was not human subjects research.

Key Points

Question What are the benefits and harms of different screening mammography strategies?

Findings Six validated CISNET models found that, compared with no screening, biennial mammography screening with digital breast tomosynthesis from age 40 to 74 yielded a median of 8.2 breast cancer deaths averted per 1000 women screened, equal to a 30% reduction in breast cancer mortality, and 165 life-years gained, 1376 false-positive recalls, 201 benign biopsies, and 14 overdiagnosed cases per 1000 women screened. For each strategy, benefits were larger for Black women than for all women.

Meaning Biennial mammography from ages 40 to 74 years has favorable benefit-to-harm tradeoffs.

Population for Analysis

These analyses modeled a single cohort of US women with no personal history of breast cancer born in 1980 (ie, age 40 years in 2020) excluding women at the highest risk (ie, genetic susceptibility mutations or chest radiation at a young age). The models began with women at birth or age 20 or 25 years (since breast cancer is rare before this age; the initiation age varied by model) and accumulated all outcomes until death. The models evaluated women overall and Black women, and strata according to breast density, elevated risk, or comorbidity level. The term "women" was used while recognizing that not all individuals eligible for mammography screening self-identify as women.¹⁹ Since model results are based on data for sex (ie, female) rather than gender identity, models apply to cisgender women and may not accurately reflect breast cancer risk for transgender men and nonbinary persons. This modeling analysis treated race as a social construct and aimed to provide evidence regarding the trade-offs of mammography screening strategies for self-identified Black women as an approach to reduce the observed disparities in breast cancer mortality.²⁰

Model Input Parameters

All 6 models used a common set of data inputs for women overall and 4 models included race-specific inputs for Black women for breast cancer incidence, breast density, digital mammography and DBT performance, treatment assignment and efficacy, and causes of death other than breast cancer (Table 1).¹⁸ In addition, model-specific parameters were used to represent preclinical detectable times, lead-time, and age- and estrogen receptor (ER)/human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)-specific stage distribution in screen-detected vs non-screen-detected cases on the basis of each model's structure.

Five of the 6 models adapted an age-period-cohort modeling approach to estimate breast cancer incidence in the absence of screening among the overall and Black female population^{21,22}; model M used Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) rates with a linear model based on rates in 1975 and calibrated over time.¹² Incidence was increased for subgroups with elevated risk or with greater breast density. Density was modeled by Breast Imaging Reporting and Data Systems (BI-RADS) categories: almost entirely fatty ("a"), scattered fibroglandular densities ("b"), heterogeneously dense ("c"), and extremely

Table 1. Common CISNET Breast Cancer Model Input Parameters

| Input | Description | Updated since 2016 | Race-specific | Source ^a |
|---|---|---|---|--|
| Breast cancer incidence without screening | Age-period-cohort model using SEER breast cancer incidence with a period effect for mammography removed | Yes (recent years added, 1980 instead of 1970 birth cohort) | Yes; incidence varied by race Same data source | Gangnon et al, ²¹ 2015 Holford et al, ²² 2006 |
| Breast density | Prevalence of breast density (BI-RADS a, b, c, d) by age group (40-44, 45-49, 50-64, 65-74, 75-89 y) | Yes | Yes; density varied by race Same data source | BCSC ¹⁸ |
| Mammography performance ^b | Sensitivity and false-positive recall of initial and subsequent mammography by age (40-44, 45-49, 50-64, ≥65 y), screening interval (annual, biennial), and density (BI-RADS a,b,c,d) for digital mammography and DBT | Yes | Screening sensitivity did not vary by race False-positive recalls did vary by race Same data source | BCSC (Kerlikowske et al, ⁶ 2022) |
| Breast cancer stage distribution (AJCC or SEER Summary Stage) | Stage distributions by mode of detection, age group (40-44, 45-49, 50-64, 65-74, 75-89 y), screening round/interval (first, annual, biennial) for screen-detected cancers, and density (BI-RADS a, b, c, d) | Yes | Yes; stage distributions varied by race Same data source | BCSC ¹⁸ |
| ER/HER2 joint distribution | The distribution of ER/HER2 subtypes by age (40-49, 50-74, 75-89 y) and stage at diagnosis | Yes | Yes; subtype distributions varied by race Same data source | BCSC ¹⁸ |
| Survival in the absence of screening and treatment | 25-y breast cancer survival by joint ER/HER2 status, age group, AJCC/SEER stage, or tumor size | No | No; base survival did not vary by race | Munoz and Plevritis, ²³ 2018 Plevritis et al, ²⁴ 2018 |
| Treatment dissemination | Treatments and rates of use by time period, ER/HER2, stage and age for initial breast cancer diagnosis | Yes | No; treatment assignment did not vary by race | Caswell-Jin et al, ²⁵ 2018 Mandelblatt et al, ²⁶ 2018 Plevritis et al, ²⁴ 2018 |
| Treatment effects | Meta-analyses of clinical trial results by ER/HER2 for initial local therapy; clinical trial reports for efficacy of systemic primary and metastatic therapy, and of newer targeted therapies | Yes | Yes; treatment effectiveness reduced for Black patients based on published NCCN data ²⁷ | Caswell-Jin et al, ²⁵ 2018 Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative, ²⁸⁻³³ Plevritis et al, ²⁴ 2018 Warner et al, ²⁷ 2015 |
| Other-cause mortality | Age- and cohort-specific mortality rates from non-breast cancer causes by year and level of comorbidity | Yes | Yes; other-cause mortality rates varied by race Same data source | Cho et al, ³⁴ 2013 Gangnon et al, ³⁵ 2018 Lansdorp-Vogelaar et al, ³⁶ 2014 |
| Quality of life | Utility weights for general health and decrements for screening, diagnostic evaluation, and stage-specific treatment | No | No; utility weights did not vary by race | de Haes et al, ³⁷ 1991 Hamner and Kaplan, ³⁸ 2016 Hamner et al, ³⁸ 2006 Stout et al, ³⁹ 2006 |

Abbreviations: AJCC, American Joint Committee on Cancer; BCSC, Breast Cancer Surveillance Consortium; BI-RADS, Breast Imaging Reporting and Data Systems; CISNET, Cancer Intervention and Surveillance Modeling Network; DBT, digital breast tomosynthesis; ER, estrogen receptor; HER2, human epidermal growth factor receptor 2; NCCN, National Comprehensive Cancer Network; SEER, Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results.

^a Additional information regarding model inputs including BCSC data are available in the online Technical Report.¹⁸

^b With treatment, screen detection of breast cancer at an earlier stage could lead to improve survival, reduced risk of death, and/or greater chance of cure with a small tumor size, depending on model.

dense ("d").⁴⁰ Density category was assigned at age 40 years and remained the same or decreased by 1 level at age 50 years and again at age 65, based on observed age-specific prevalence rates in the Breast Cancer Surveillance Consortium (BCSC).¹⁸ Density was related to breast cancer risk and screening performance but was assumed to not affect molecular subtype or disease natural history (eg, tumor growth rates). Models incorporated screening sensitivity applied to each mammogram a woman received. Age-specific sensitivity values for digital mammography and DBT (hereafter referred to collectively as mammography) overall and by density category were also based on data from the BCSC.¹⁸ Data for the BCSC reflects breast imaging in community practice across the US.⁴¹

With treatment, screen detection at an earlier stage could lead to improved survival, reduced risk of death, and/or greater chance of cure with a smaller tumor size, depending on model. Treatment was assigned based on age, stage, and molecular subtype. To reflect real-world patterns of breast cancer care, the probability of receiving specific types of systemic treatment was based

on data from the National Comprehensive Cancer Network as previously reported and, for newer therapies, expert opinion.^{25,26} Efficacy of systemic therapy was based on the most recent published meta-analysis of clinical trials and, for newer therapies, clinical trial reports^{28,29}; treatment efficacy (in the setting of optimal stage-based and tumor subtype-based treatment) was assumed to be equal by race.⁴² In contrast to efficacy, treatment effectiveness was modeled as lower for Black women due to multiple factors that may arise from systemic racism and lead to worse treatment quality (eg, delayed initiation, suboptimal regimens, dose reductions, and incomplete cycles).⁴³⁻⁴⁶ Based on published data, treatment benefit was therefore reduced by 28% for ER-negative tumors and 56% for ER-positive tumors in models restricted to Black women.²⁷

Probability of death from non-breast cancer causes was derived from Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Wide-ranging Online Data for Epidemiologic Research (WONDER) and the Human Mortality Database; these values were replaced by comorbidity-specific values in subgroup analyses.^{35,36}

Screening Strategies

We compared model results for 36 mammography screening scenarios that varied by modality (digital mammography or DBT performed with concurrent or synthetic digital mammography),⁴⁷⁻⁵² starting age (40, 45, or 50 years) and stopping age (74 or 79 years), and interval (annual, biennial, or hybrid intervals). The 3 hybrid screening scenarios were (1) annual from ages 40 to 49 then biennial at age 50; (2) annual from ages 45 to 54 then biennial at age 55; and (3) annual from ages 45 to 49 then biennial at age 50. The models assumed 100% adherence to screening.

Outcomes

Benefits included percent reduction in breast cancer mortality, breast cancer deaths averted, and life-years gained (LYG) over the lifetimes of 1000 women screened compared with no screening. We also examined quality-adjusted life-years (QALYs) gained, which were calculated using age-specific utilities for women in the general population,^{38,53} with disutilities applied for undergoing screening, diagnostic evaluation, and breast cancer treatment based on the stage at diagnosis (eTable 1 in the [Supplement](#)^{37,39}).

Harms accumulated over the lifetime included recalls for additional imaging in women without cancer (hereafter referred to as false-positive recalls), benign results from biopsies recommended for findings on screening mammography (hereafter referred to as benign biopsies), and overdiagnosed cases of ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS) and invasive breast cancer. Overdiagnosis was defined as the excess breast cancer cases diagnosed in the presence of screening that were not diagnosed in the absence of screening over the lifetime. The harm of overtreatment after overdiagnosis was captured by the treatment-related decrement in utility without a change in life expectancy.

Analysis

Outcomes were tallied from age 40 years (the youngest age to start screening across strategies) to death and expressed per 1000 women. Results were summarized by the median and range across models for each outcome. We also generated efficiency frontiers by plotting the sequence of strategies that represented the largest incremental percent breast cancer mortality reduction (or LYG) per mammogram performed. Screening strategies on this frontier were considered the most efficient (ie, no alternative existed that provided equal or greater benefit with fewer screens or harms). Because a strategy providing outcomes that was very similar to an efficient strategy may be still be considered by decision-makers for other reasons (eg, consistency of starting and stopping ages across screening modalities),⁵⁴ we also identified "near-efficient" strategies⁵⁵ defined as a strategy within 5% of the value for screening biennially from ages 50 to 74 with DBT. Strategies that had more harms and/or fewer benefits were referred to as "inferior" to (inefficient or dominated by) other strategies.

Analyses were repeated for Black women and for strata according to density category, elevated relative risk of breast cancer, or comorbidity level.

In sensitivity analyses, for comparison with previous modeling in 2009 and 2016, we repeated the analysis assuming all women with cancer received the most effective therapy (vs the real-world patterns used in the primary analyses).

Results

Screening Strategies for the Overall Population

The 6 models produced consistent results for the screening strategies (eTables 2 and 3 in the [Supplement](#)). For instance, biennial screening with DBT from ages 40 to 74 years yielded a median 30.0% (range, 24.0%-33.7%) reduction in breast cancer mortality vs no screening, with 1376 (range, 1354-1384) false-positive recalls per 1000 women screened (Table 2). Compared with biennial screening with DBT from ages 50 to 74 years, starting at age 40 averted 1.3 (range, 0.9-3.2) additional breast cancer deaths, with 503 (range, 493-506) additional false-positive recalls, 65 (range, 62-66) additional benign biopsies, and 2 (range, 0-4) more overdiagnosed cases per 1000 women screened (Table 3).

Annual screening led to greater reductions in mortality than biennial strategies, with a 37.0% median reduction (range, 33.6%-38.9%) (Table 2) with screening annually from ages 40 to 74 years with DBT but resulted in more false-positive recalls, benign biopsies, and overdiagnosed cases.

With biennial screening from ages 40 to 74 years, digital mammography resulted in 1540 false-positive recalls and 210 benign biopsies per 1000 women screened vs 1376 and 201, respectively, with DBT (Table 2). Use of DBT instead of digital mammography further decreased breast cancer mortality by approximately 1 percentage point and averted less than 1 additional breast cancer death per 1000 women and reduced false-positive recalls by approximately 150-300 per 1000 women over their lifetimes among 9 screening strategies stopping at age 74 (eTable 4 in the [Supplement](#)).

Stopping screening at age 79 vs 74 years generally resulted in an additional 3- to 5-percentage point mortality reduction, 1 additional breast cancer death averted, 64 to 172 more false-positive recalls per 1000 women, and 2 to 4 additional overdiagnosed cases, depending on strategy (eTable 5 in the [Supplement](#)).

Among all possible strategies, 5 DBT screening strategies were identified as efficient or near-efficient for both percent mortality reduction and LYG in at least 5 of 6 models, including one with stopping age 74 years (biennial starting at age 50) and 4 with stopping age 79 (biennial starting at age 40; biennial starting at age 45; annual from ages 40 to 49 with biennial thereafter; and annual starting at age 40) (Figure 1; eFigures 1 and 2 and eTable 6 in the [Supplement](#)). Efficient strategies ranged from 1.7 to 4.3 more breast cancer deaths averted and 41 to 168 more benign biopsies than screening biennially from ages 50 to 74 years per 1000 women (Figure 2). Five similar strategies were identified as efficient when limited to the 18 options with stopping age 74 (biennial starting at age 40, biennial starting at age 45, biennial starting at age 50, annual at ages 40 to 49 with biennial at ages 50 to 74, and annual at ages 40 to 74; eFigure 3 in the [Supplement](#)).

Screening Strategies for Black Women

Seven screening strategies were efficient or near-efficient for LYG or breast cancer mortality reduction among Black women (Figure 1; eFigures 4 and 5 and eTable 7 in the [Supplement](#)). Three strategies were efficient or near-efficient for both metrics among most models, including biennial from ages 40 to 79 years, biennial from ages 45 to 79, and annual from ages 40 to 79. Expanding biennial screening with DBT from ages 50 to 74 to ages 40 to 74 or 79 averted

Table 2. Median Lifetime Benefits and Harms (and Range Across Models) of Mammography Screening Strategies per 1000 Women Screened Compared With No Screening According to Screening Modality, Interval, Starting Age, and Stopping Age

| | | Median lifetime benefits | | | Median lifetime harms | | |
|--|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|
| Strategy, start/stop years | Mammograms | Breast cancer mortality reduction, % | Breast cancer deaths averted | Life-years gained | False-positive recalls | Benign biopsies | Overdiagnosed cases ^a |
| Digital mammography until age 74 y ^b | | | | | | | |
| Biennial | | | | | | | |
| 50-74 | 11 192 (10 999-11 278) | 24.3 (18.3-27.5) | 6.9 (4.8-8.6) | 114.6 (109.8-165.0) | 1021 (1003-1027) | 148 (146-149) | 10 (4-29) |
| 45-74 | 13 283 (13 078-13 380) | 26.4 (20.4-29.3) | 7.8 (5.1-9.2) | 140.0 (125.0-187.7) | 1230 (1212-1238) | 173 (170-174) | 11 (4-30) |
| 40-74 | 16 092 (15 863-16 215) | 28.4 (22.3-31.7) | 8.4 (5.6-10.1) | 170.1 (141.2-214.1) | 1540 (1520-1551) | 210 (207-212) | 12 (4-33) |
| Hybrid | | | | | | | |
| Annual, 45-49; biennial, 50-74 | 15 992 (15 807-16 164) | 29.3 (22.4-30.5) | 8.6 (5.7-9.6) | 151.3 (140.8-194.5) | 1416 (1400-1430) | 189 (187-191) | 19 (4-33) |
| Annual, 45-54; biennial, 55-74 | 18 006 (17 804-18 197) | 29.3 (23.0-30.2) | 8.8 (5.8-9.4) | 159.3 (148.6-195.5) | 1514 (1497-1530) | 195 (193-197) | 19 (4-33) |
| Annual, 40-49; biennial, 50-74 | 20 898 (20 705-21 133) | 31.7 (24.4-33.1) | 9.3 (6.2-10.7) | 178.9 (161.9-234.6) | 1896 (1879-1916) | 236 (234-239) | 21 (4-35) |
| Annual | | | | | | | |
| 50-74 | 21 439 (21 010-21 650) | 29.4 (24.7-31.7) | 9.2 (6.8-9.5) | 153.2 (134.0-181.4) | 1543 (1513-1557) | 192 (188-194) | 16 (5-39) |
| 45-74 | 26 272 (25 776-26 526) | 33.4 (29.8-35.4) | 10.4 (7.5-11.8) | 187.3 (163.6-230.1) | 1943 (1907-1960) | 233 (229-235) | 18 (5-43) |
| 40-74 | 31 178 (30 649-31 493) | 35.2 (31.8-37.6) | 11.0 (8.0-13.1) | 208.7 (200.7-275.5) | 2423 (2385-2446) | 281 (276-283) | 19 (5-45) |
| Digital mammography until age 79 y | | | | | | | |
| Biennial | | | | | | | |
| 50-79 | 12 456 (12 223-12 560) | 26.9 (22.2-30.2) | 7.9 (5.6-9.4) | 122.7 (118.5-172.8) | 1105 (1084-1113) | 160 (157-161) | 12 (6-34) |
| 45-79 | 15 176 (14 907-15 297) | 31.7 (24.8-33.3) | 8.9 (6.3-11.9) | 145.6 (137.8-202.5) | 1356 (1333-1366) | 191 (187-192) | 14 (6-37) |
| 40-79 | 17 354 (17 081-17 494) | 32.9 (25.3-34.9) | 9.1 (6.4-12.3) | 176.8 (149.8-233.9) | 1624 (1601-1636) | 222 (219-223) | 14 (6-37) |
| Hybrid | | | | | | | |
| Annual, 45-49; biennial, 50-79 | 17 242 (17 026-17 443) | 31.8 (25.4-33.1) | 9.4 (6.4-11.7) | 156.7 (149.5-209.4) | 1499 (1481-1516) | 200 (198-203) | 22 (6-37) |
| Annual, 45-54; biennial, 55-79 | 19 876 (19 627-20 112) | 33.9 (27.5-34.2) | 10.0 (6.9-12.4) | 168.8 (158.7-217.2) | 1639 (1618-1658) | 213 (210-215) | 24 (6-40) |
| Annual, 40-49; biennial, 50-79 | 22 150 (21 921-22 412) | 34.9 (27.4-36.2) | 10.1 (6.9-13.1) | 187.9 (170.5-257.0) | 1979 (1960-2002) | 248 (245-251) | 24 (6-40) |
| Annual | | | | | | | |
| 50-79 | 24 563 (24 014-24 831) | 33.7 (32.1-35.8) | 10.5 (7.9-12.2) | 172.7 (145.8-192.7) | 1716 (1678-1733) | 212 (208-214) | 19 (7-46) |
| 45-79 | 29 389 (28 767-29 702) | 38.1 (35.1-39.5) | 11.6 (8.9-14.8) | 202.9 (172.0-256.1) | 2115 (2072-2136) | 253 (248-256) | 21 (7-50) |
| 40-79 | 34 289 (33 633-34 667) | 41.7 (37.2-42.9) | 12.2 (9.4-16.1) | 224.3 (211.4-300.6) | 2595 (2550-2621) | 301 (295-304) | 23 (7-52) |
| Digital breast tomosynthesis until age 74 y ^c | | | | | | | |
| Biennial | | | | | | | |
| 50-74 | 11 208 (10 976-11 278) | 25.4 (18.8-29.4) | 6.7 (5.1-9.2) | 120.8 (115.1-175.8) | 873 (855-878) | 136 (133-137) | 12 (4-33) |
| 45-74 | 13 299 (13 051-13 380) | 27.5 (21.7-31.2) | 7.5 (5.5-9.8) | 141.3 (133.9-200.1) | 1080 (1061-1086) | 164 (161-165) | 13 (4-34) |
| 40-74 | 16 116 (15 826-16 214) | 30.0 (24.0-33.7) | 8.2 (6.1-10.6) | 165.2 (152.4-221.9) | 1376 (1354-1384) | 201 (198-203) | 14 (4-37) |
| Hybrid | | | | | | | |
| Annual, 45-49; biennial, 50-74 | 16 053 (15 775-16 164) | 29.5 (23.9-32.5) | 8.0 (6.0-10.2) | 153.5 (146.3-207.2) | 1242 (1221-1250) | 184 (180-185) | 19 (4-37) |
| Annual, 45-54; biennial, 55-74 | 18 072 (17 772-18 197) | 29.9 (24.4-32.1) | 8.2 (6.2-10.0) | 161.1 (148.2-207.9) | 1317 (1296-1326) | 193 (189-194) | 20 (4-37) |
| Annual, 40-49; biennial, 50-74 | 20 979 (20 662-21 133) | 32.2 (26.1-34.4) | 8.8 (6.6-11.0) | 181.2 (163.9-240.1) | 1691 (1667-1703) | 238 (233-240) | 21 (4-39) |

(continued)

Table 2. Median Lifetime Benefits and Harms (and Range Across Models) of Mammography Screening Strategies per 1000 Women Screened Compared With No Screening According to Screening Modality, Interval, Starting Age, and Stopping Age (continued)

| | | Median lifetime benefits | | | Median lifetime harms | | |
|---|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|
| Strategy, start/stop years | Mammograms | Breast cancer mortality reduction, % | Breast cancer deaths averted | Life-years gained | False-positive recalls | Benign biopsies | Overdiagnosed cases ^a |
| Annual | | | | | | | |
| 50-74 | 21 500 (20 963-21 650) | 30.6 (24.7-32.8) | 8.6 (7.0-10.1) | 155.6 (137.1-191.7) | 1277 (1246-1285) | 186 (182-187) | 18 (5-42) |
| 45-74 | 26 349 (25 716-26 526) | 34.1 (31.4-36.5) | 9.7 (7.9-11.8) | 193.3 (165.7-230.1) | 1647 (1610-1657) | 234 (229-235) | 20 (5-46) |
| 40-74 | 31 273 (30 572-31 492) | 37.0 (33.6-38.9) | 10.3 (8.5-13.1) | 216.6 (190.1-274.9) | 2096 (2055-2110) | 288 (283-290) | 21 (5-48) |
| Digital breast tomosynthesis until age 79 y | | | | | | | |
| Biennial | | | | | | | |
| 50-79 | 12 488 (12 193-12 560) | 28.0 (23.6-32.2) | 7.6 (6.0-10.1) | 129.3 (119.6-184.1) | 937 (916-943) | 144 (141-145) | 14 (6-38) |
| 45-79 | 15 218 (14 871-15 297) | 32.1 (26.5-35.5) | 8.6 (6.7-12.1) | 153.4 (147.7-213.1) | 1176 (1153-1183) | 176 (173-177) | 16 (6-41) |
| 40-79 | 17 397 (17 037-17 494) | 33.3 (27.2-36.5) | 8.9 (6.9-12.5) | 173.9 (161.7-237.8) | 1440 (1415-1449) | 210 (206-211) | 17 (6-42) |
| Hybrid | | | | | | | |
| Annual, 45-49; biennial, 50-79 | 17 325 (16 987-17 443) | 32.5 (27.2-35.3) | 8.9 (6.9-11.9) | 160.5 (152.8-215.4) | 1306 (1282-1315) | 192 (188-193) | 22 (6-42) |
| Annual, 45-54; biennial, 55-79 | 19 980 (19 585-20 112) | 34.1 (29.2-36.4) | 9.2 (7.4-12.6) | 172.7 (161.0-220.8) | 1413 (1387-1423) | 205 (202-207) | 24 (6-44) |
| Annual, 40-49; biennial, 50-79 | 22 255 (21 870-22 412) | 35.3 (29.4-37.2) | 9.5 (7.4-13.3) | 188.7 (173.4-260.1) | 1755 (1728-1768) | 247 (242-248) | 24 (6-44) |
| Annual | | | | | | | |
| 50-79 | 24 687 (23 953-24 831) | 34.5 (32.6-36.9) | 9.8 (8.0-12.2) | 173.2 (148.2-203.6) | 1405 (1367-1417) | 202 (197-204) | 22 (7-50) |
| 45-79 | 29 517 (28 692-29 701) | 39.1 (37.1-40.8) | 10.9 (9.0-14.8) | 207.1 (176.1-255.8) | 1774 (1730-1789) | 250 (244-252) | 24 (7-54) |
| 40-79 | 34 441 (33 538-34 666) | 41.7 (39.2-43.0) | 11.5 (9.9-16.1) | 229.7 (200.4-300.7) | 2224 (2175-2240) | 304 (298-307) | 25 (7-56) |

^a Overdiagnosed cases are in situ and invasive breast cancer cases that would not have been clinically detected in the absence of screening. Overdiagnosis is calculated by subtracting the number of cases detected in the screening scenario from the number of cases detected in the no-screening scenario. Model S (Stanford University) is excluded because it does not include ductal carcinoma in situ.

^b Digital mammography strategies show results for models D (Dana-Farber

Cancer Institute), E (Erasmus Medical Center), GE (Georgetown Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center-Albert Einstein College of Medicine), M (University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center), and W (University of Wisconsin-Madison and Harvard Pilgrim Health Care Institute).

^c Digital breast tomosynthesis strategies show results for models D, E, GE, M, S, and W.

a median of 1.8 and 3.0 additional breast cancer deaths across models, respectively (Figure 2).

Trade-offs between benefits and harms of different screening strategies for Black women followed similar patterns as for all women combined (eTables 8-10 in the [Supplement](#)). All strategies resulted in more breast cancer deaths averted and LYG for Black women compared with the same strategies for women overall. However, this gain in averted breast cancer deaths was insufficient to reduce breast cancer mortality disparities for Black women compared with women overall. Specifically, if Black women were screened with the same strategy as for women overall, breast cancer mortality for Black women would remain more than 40% greater than for women overall (Table 4). Alternatively, if Black women were screened annually from ages 40 to 49 years with biennial screening from ages 50 to 79 and the overall population was screened biennially from ages 40 to 74, the ratio of breast cancer mortality rate for Black women vs women overall would be reduced from 1.44 (28.8/20.0) to 1.34 (26.8/20.0; a disparity reduction of 23%). Notably, Black women screened annually at ages 40 to 49 and biennially at ages 50 to 79 would experience fewer false-positives and mammograms per breast can-

cer death averted with greater life-years gained than women overall screened biennially at ages 40 to 74 (eTable 10 in the [Supplement](#)).

Density, Elevated Risk, and Comorbidity Subgroups

Only 3 strategies were efficient in most models for women with dense breasts (BI-RADS category c and d), including biennial screening from ages 50 to 74 years, biennial screening from ages 40 to 79, and annual screening at ages 40 to 79 (eTable 11 in the [Supplement](#)). Across all strategies efficient in at least 1 density category, breast cancer deaths averted using DBT for women with almost entirely fatty breasts ranged from 4.9 for biennial screening at ages 50 to 74 to 7.6 with annual screening at ages 40 to 79 and increased among women with extremely dense breasts from 8.3 to 14.6 (eTable 12 in the [Supplement](#)).

Models showed greater benefits and fewer harms as breast cancer risk increased to 150% and 200% of average risk, with the same 3 screening strategies efficient for both elevated risk levels as for dense breasts (eTable 13 in the [Supplement](#)). Incremental benefits of screening after age 74 years were reduced in the presence of severe comorbidities (eTable 14 in the [Supplement](#)).

Table 3. Lifetime Additional Benefits and Harms of Screening Mammography Starting at Age 40 Years Instead of 50 Until Age 74 per 1000 Women From 6 Models

| Benefits and harms by modality | Difference in biennial screening starting at 40 vs 50 until 74 years by model ^a | | | | | | Median (range) |
|---|--|------|-------|------|------|------|------------------|
| | D | E | GE | M | S | W | |
| Mammograms | | | | | | | |
| DM | 4936 | 4900 | 4924 | 4869 | NA | 4864 | 4900 (4864-4936) |
| DBT | 4936 | 4895 | 4924 | 4870 | 4920 | 4850 | 4907 (4850-4936) |
| Breast cancer mortality reduction, % | | | | | | | |
| DM | 4.1 | 4.1 | 8.6 | 6.5 | NA | 3.1 | 4.1 (3.1-8.6) |
| DBT | 4.4 | 4.3 | 8.6 | 6.4 | 4.9 | 3.6 | 4.6 (3.6-8.6) |
| Breast cancer deaths averted | | | | | | | |
| DM | 1.3 | 1.2 | 3.2 | 1.5 | NA | 0.8 | 1.3 (0.8-3.2) |
| DBT | 1.4 | 1.3 | 3.2 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 1.3 (0.9-3.2) |
| Life-years gained | | | | | | | |
| DM | 43.1 | 35.3 | 102.7 | 53.3 | NA | 31.4 | 43 (31.4-102.7) |
| DBT | 46.1 | 36.5 | 102.9 | 52.3 | 27.0 | 36.3 | 41 (27.0-102.9) |
| False-positive recalls | | | | | | | |
| DM | 523 | 520 | 521 | 514 | NA | 517 | 520 (514-523) |
| DBT | 506 | 502 | 504 | 493 | 505 | 499 | 503 (493-506) |
| Benign biopsies | | | | | | | |
| DM | 63 | 62 | 62 | 60 | NA | 62 | 62 (60-63) |
| DBT | 66 | 65 | 66 | 62 | 66 | 65 | 65 (62-66) |
| Overdiagnosed cases (DCIS and invasive) | | | | | | | |
| DM | 1 | 2 | 0 | 3 | NA | 4 | 2 (0-4) |
| DBT | 1 | 2 | 0 | 3 | NA | 4 | 2 (0-4) |

Abbreviations: DBT, digital breast tomosynthesis; DCIS, ductal carcinoma in situ; DM, digital mammography; NA, not available.

^a D indicates Dana-Farber Cancer Institute; E, Erasmus Medical Center; GE, Georgetown Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center-Albert Einstein College of Medicine; M, University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center; S, Stanford University; W, University of Wisconsin-Madison and Harvard Pilgrim Health Care Institute.

Sensitivity Analysis

When all breast cancer cases received the most effective treatment for their cancer subtype and screening stopped at age 74 years, the percent reduction in breast cancer mortality increased as compared with the primary analysis, in which cases received treatment based on real-world treatment patterns (eTable 15 in the [Supplement](#)).

Discussion

This study used 6 well-established models to estimate the potential benefits and harms of different breast cancer screening strategies in the US. The models demonstrated that screening initiation at age 40 years had superior benefit-to-harm tradeoffs compared with no screening and other screening strategies. Benefits of DBT were comparable with those of digital mammography but resulted in fewer false-positive recalls and similar benign biopsies. Annual screening would lead to greater reductions in breast cancer mortality than biennial strategies but correspondingly more false-positive recalls and overdiagnosed cases. Since breast cancer death rates are higher for Black women, all screening strategies generated greater survival and mortality benefits for Black women than for women overall. However, to reduce racial disparities in breast cancer mortality in the absence of improved equity in the treatment setting, an increase in screening intensity such as annual screening of Black women from ages 40 to 49 would also be needed. Benefits for women with elevated risk or higher breast density were higher than for women overall, but the rankings of strategies were similar to those for women overall. In addition, several strategies with a stopping age of 79 were efficient. For women aged 75 to 79, comorbidi-

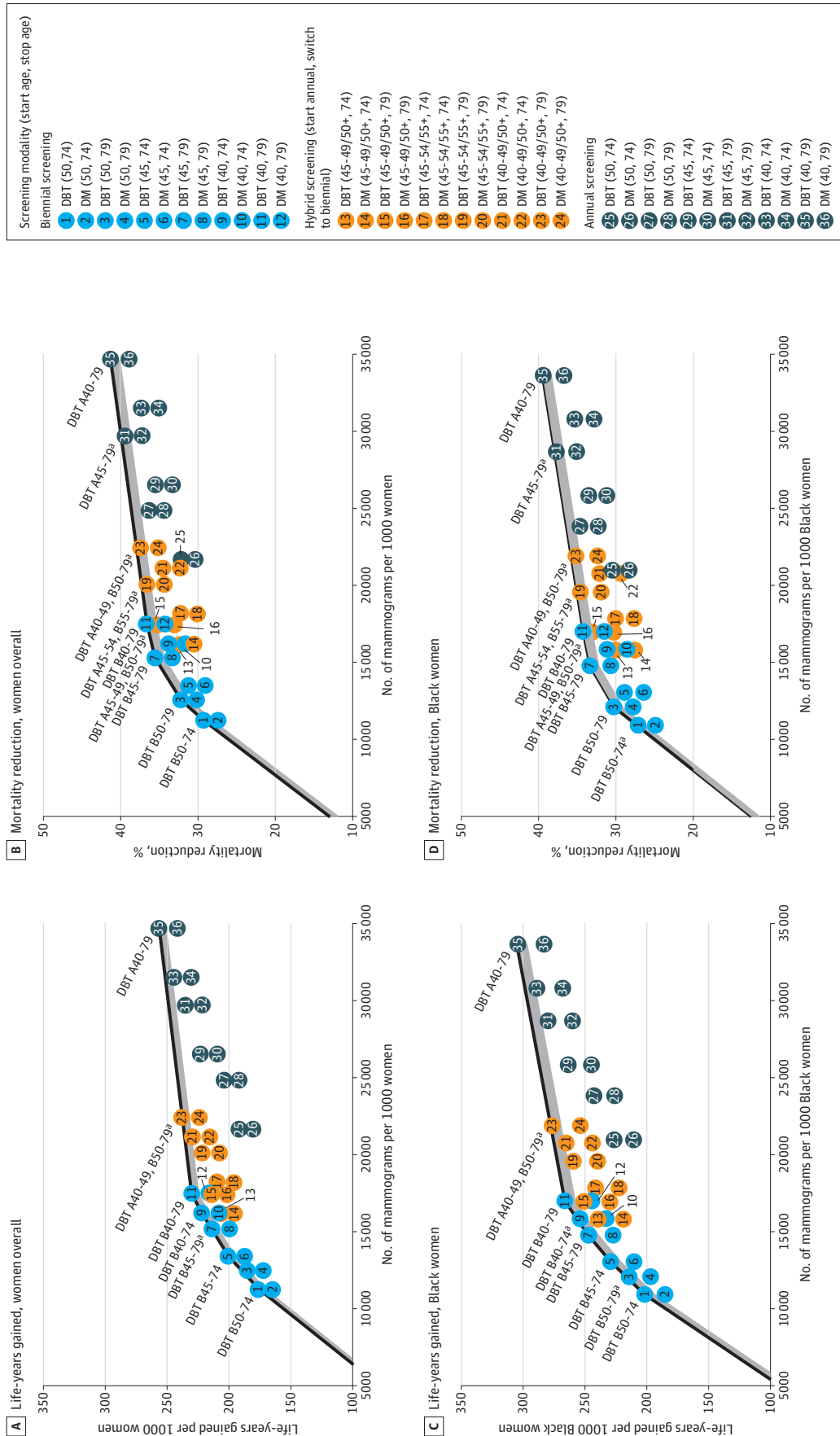
ties may be an important factor in decisions about when to cease breast cancer screening.

Compared with our 2016 analysis,¹⁰ the predicted benefit-to-harm ratios with biennial strategies starting at age 40 or 45 years have modestly improved. Due to recent increases in breast cancer incidence among women aged 40-49 (154.1 to 160.5 per 100 000 from 1999 to 2018), life-years gained were notably higher for screening strategies that started at age 40 or 45.^{7,56} Past analyses assumed optimal treatment selection; starting screening earlier partially compensated for less-than-optimal real-world treatment uptake in the current analysis. Also, with the growing evidence for lower false-positive recall rates with DBT than with digital mammography,^{3,4} fewer harms were associated with earlier ages of screening initiation than occurred in prior analyses.

Prospective studies that include multiple rounds of breast cancer screening are needed to determine whether, compared with digital mammography, DBT results in a shift toward detecting breast cancer at earlier stages with a concomitant decrease in advanced stage. Initial studies suggest that DBT leads to increased detection of stage I invasive breast cancer as compared with digital mammography, although a reduction in advanced stage has not yet been demonstrated.^{6,57-59} Screening benefit related to reductions in breast cancer deaths depends on the advantage of beginning treatment in earlier vs more advanced stages.

This analysis extended findings published in 2021 for a model (GE) that evaluated strategies for reducing breast cancer mortality disparities and improving health equity between Black and White women.⁶⁰ Our models are intended to generate findings for individuals who self-identify as Black, defining race as a social construct where the sociopolitical environment influences biological processes

Figure 1. Lifetime Number of Screening Mammograms, Life-Years Gained, and Breast Cancer Mortality Reduction From Model D (Dana-Farber Cancer Institute) According to Screening Strategy for Women Overall and for Black Women



The line represents the estimated efficiency frontier for model D; labels above line indicate efficient and near-efficient strategies. Efficiency frontier graphs for all models are shown in the [Supplement](#). Grey shading, in which near-efficient strategies are located, shows area within 5% of the value for screening biennially during ages 50 to 74 years with digital breast tomosynthesis (DBT). For panels A and C, near-efficient strategies included those within 2.20 days of life gained per woman of the efficiency frontier for all women and 3.22 days of life per Black woman. For B and D, near-efficient strategies included those within 5% of the efficiency frontier on a relative scale—on an absolute scale, equivalent to 1.27 percentage points for women overall and 1.21 points for Black women. Strategies vary by age at starting and stopping screening, interval between mammograms, and screening modality. A indicates annual; and B, biennial. ^aNear-efficient.

Figure 2. Breast Cancer Deaths Averted and Benign Biopsies per 1000 Women Screened With Various Digital Breast Tomosynthesis Mammography Screening Strategies



All strategies use digital breast tomosynthesis. Results shown as medians across 6 models of women overall (D [Dana-Farber Cancer Institute], E [Erasmus Medical Center], GE [Georgetown Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center-Albert Einstein College of Medicine], M [University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center], S [Stanford University], and W [University of Wisconsin-Madison and Harvard Pilgrim Health Care Institute]) and across 4 models of Black women (D, GE, M, and W). Differences in medians calculated by subtracting values in Table 2.

Table 3, and eTables 8 and 9 in the Supplement may not be equivalent to the median of the differences across models, as shown in this figure.

^aEfficient or near-efficient in most models.

Table 4. Ratios of Breast Cancer Deaths and Life-Years for Black Women vs Women Overall by Screening Strategy

| Screening strategy (interval, start-stop ages in years), Black women | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|------------------|---|---|-----------------------------|----------------|
| Screening strategy (interval, start-stop ages in years) | All women ^a | No screening | Biennial (50-74) ^b | Biennial (40-74) ^b | Annual (40-49), biennial (50-74) ^b | Biennial (45-79) | Biennial (40-79) | Annual (40-49), biennial (50-79) ^b | Annual (40-74) ^b | Annual (40-79) |
| Breast cancer deaths per 1000 women | | | | | | | | | | |
| Breast cancer deaths, No. | | 39.3 | 30.0 | 28.8 | 28.3 | 27.5 | 27.3 | 26.8 | 26.0 | 23.7 |
| No screening | 28.3 | 1.39 | 1.06 | 1.02 | 1.00 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.95 | 0.92 | 0.84 |
| Biennial (50-74) | 21.1 | 1.86 | 1.42 | 1.36 | 1.34 | 1.30 | 1.29 | 1.27 | 1.23 | 1.12 |
| Biennial (40-74) ^c | 20.0 | 1.97 | 1.50 | 1.44 | 1.42 | 1.38 | 1.37 | 1.34 | 1.30 | 1.19 |
| Annual (40-49); biennial (50-74) ^c | 19.6 | 2.01 | 1.53 | 1.47 | 1.44 | 1.41 | 1.39 | 1.37 | 1.33 | 1.21 |
| Biennial (45-79) | 19.4 | 2.03 | 1.55 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.42 | 1.41 | 1.39 | 1.34 | 1.23 |
| Biennial (40-79) | 19.1 | 2.05 | 1.57 | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.44 | 1.43 | 1.40 | 1.36 | 1.24 |
| Annual (40-49); biennial (50-79) | 18.7 | 2.10 | 1.60 | 1.53 | 1.51 | 1.47 | 1.46 | 1.43 | 1.39 | 1.27 |
| Annual (40-74) ^c | 18.2 | 2.16 | 1.65 | 1.58 | 1.55 | 1.51 | 1.50 | 1.47 | 1.43 | 1.30 |
| Annual (40-79) | 16.9 | 2.33 | 1.78 | 1.71 | 1.68 | 1.63 | 1.62 | 1.59 | 1.54 | 1.41 |
| Life-years per 40-year-old woman | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | No screening | Biennial (50-74) ^b | Biennial (45-79) | Biennial (40-74) ^b | Biennial (40-79) | Annual (40-49), biennial (50-74) ^b | Annual (40-49), biennial (50-79) ^b | Annual (40-74) ^b | Annual (40-79) |
| Life-years, No. | | 41.783 | 41.994 | 42.058 | 42.063 | 42.080 | 42.080 | 42.097 | 42.116 | 42.139 |
| No screening | 43.670 | 0.957 | 0.962 | 0.963 | 0.963 | 0.964 | 0.964 | 0.964 | 0.964 | 0.965 |
| Biennial (50-74) | 43.789 | 0.954 | 0.959 | 0.960 | 0.961 | 0.961 | 0.961 | 0.961 | 0.962 | 0.962 |
| Biennial (45-79) | 43.850 | 0.953 | 0.958 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.960 | 0.960 | 0.960 | 0.960 | 0.961 |
| Biennial (40-74) ^c | 43.866 | 0.953 | 0.957 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.960 | 0.960 | 0.961 |
| Biennial (40-79) | 43.879 | 0.952 | 0.957 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.960 | 0.960 |
| Annual (40-49), biennial (50-74) ^c | 43.882 | 0.952 | 0.957 | 0.958 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.960 | 0.960 |
| Annual (40-49), biennial (50-79) | 43.897 | 0.952 | 0.957 | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.960 |
| Annual (40-74) ^c | 43.907 | 0.952 | 0.956 | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.959 | 0.959 | 0.960 |
| Annual (40-79) | 43.927 | 0.951 | 0.956 | 0.957 | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.958 | 0.959 | 0.959 |

^a Calculations use the median values for breast cancer deaths from 4 models (D [Dana-Farber Cancer Institute], GE [Georgetown Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center-Albert Einstein College of Medicine], M [University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center], and W [University of Wisconsin-Madison and Harvard Pilgrim Health Care Institute]). Strategies limited to efficient and near-efficient strategies for both percent breast cancer mortality reduction and life-years gained vs no screening in most models for all women, listed in eTable 6 in the [Supplement](#), along with selected other strategies.

^b Strategy not efficient nor near-efficient for at least 3 of 4 models for both percent breast cancer mortality reduction and life-years gained vs no screening for Black women as shown in eTable 7 in the [Supplement](#).

^c Strategy not efficient nor near-efficient for at least 5 of 6 models for both percent breast cancer mortality reduction and life-years gained vs no screening for women overall as shown in eTable 6 in the [Supplement](#).

over the life course.⁶¹⁻⁶³ The current study showed that Black women gained more life-years per mammogram than women overall for each screening strategy. This was due in part to Black women having higher breast cancer mortality, especially among younger women, and gaining less benefit from intended therapy due to worse quality of care. If Black women obtained annual mammography from age 40 to 49 years with biennial screening afterward, mortality disparities were projected to decline while also achieving similar benefit-to-harm tradeoffs as biennial screening starting at age 40 for women overall. These results are similar to those recently published by others using US mortality data that more intensive screening could potentially reduce the Black/White disparity in breast cancer mortality.⁶⁴ If health care systems, policymakers, clinicians, and scientists work to fully eliminate disparities experienced by Black women, the balance of benefits and harms for screening could eventually change to the extent that more intensive screening strategies for Black

women are no longer needed to increase equity. However, as described by Chapman et al,⁶⁰ until treatment disparities are substantially decreased or eliminated, screening Black women more intensively represents an immediate possible solution for improving equity. Optimal implementation of any strategy will also require improved equity in DBT access and timely diagnostic workup.⁶⁵

Our analysis considered breast cancer screening strategies using mammography, which has poorer performance in women with dense breasts compared with nondense breasts. Our models estimated that for any given mammography screening strategy, women with dense breasts had more deaths averted and greater life-years gained per mammogram than those with nondense breasts, but false-positive recall rates were higher. Evidence on the impact of supplemental screening with breast magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) or ultrasound for women with dense breasts is limited.^{66,67} With federal regulations expanding breast density notification in September 2024 and the

absence of consistent clinical guidelines for supplemental screening,⁶⁸ this is a critical area for future research and policymaking.

After accounting for recent trends in life expectancy (prior to the COVID-19 pandemic) and improvements in breast cancer therapies, strategies with screening until age 79 years were identified as efficient. This is consistent with a recent simulation study but contrasts with an emulated trial based on Medicare data showing that breast cancer mortality was not significantly reduced among women screened through age 79.^{69,70} Current breast cancer screening trials in progress, including TMIST and WISDOM, are not recruiting women older than 74, and trials testing screening in older women are unlikely to be conducted. Evidence from other types of studies is needed to better understand outcomes of screening for older women.

Relative rankings of strategies were similar across the models. However, the models differ in meaningful ways in structure and assumptions. For example, some models incorporated a benefit from screening due to within-stage shift in detection and subsequent treatment (models E, S, and W) while others required a stage shift (models D and GE) or assigned greater benefit for screen-detected than clinically detected cases within each stage at detection (model M). Among the 5 models that included DCIS as well as invasive breast cancer, 3 models found that the overall number of overdiagnosed cases exceeded the number of breast cancer deaths averted for all screening strategies considered. Underlying incidence in the absence of screening and the proportion of tumors that were nonprogressive are unknown and unobservable; therefore, the different results across models with their respective assumptions about breast cancer natural history provide a range of possible estimates.

Limitations

This research has many important strengths, including the collaboration of 6 independent modeling teams with consistent results

and use of the most current data on incidence, screening performance, and modern, real-world therapy. Several caveats should also be considered in interpreting our results. First, the models portray the entire lifetime of women in the 1980 birth cohort and assume that future trends continued along the same trajectories as observed now. Second, we compared results for Black women with the overall female population, which leads to an underestimate of the impact of racism. This was a necessary simplification because these models did not produce estimates for other minoritized groups, non-Black women, or White women. In future research, models will be developed to examine results by racial and ethnic groups as well as interventions to improve health equity. Finally, some analyses were based on findings from fewer than 6 models for pragmatic reasons. In particular, some models were well-poised to examine analyses of racial disparities,⁶⁰ breast density,⁷¹ or comorbidities³⁶ due to programming completed in previous projects.

Conclusions

Overall, this analysis suggests that biennial screening starting at ages 40 or 45 years with digital mammography or DBT and continuing through age 74 or 79 provides gains in life-years and breast cancer mortality reduction per mammogram—and averts more deaths from breast cancer among Black women—than waiting to start screening at age 50. More intensive screening for populations of women with greater risk of breast cancer diagnosis or death can maintain similar benefit-to-harm trade-offs and reduce breast cancer mortality disparities. In the presence of recent changes in breast cancer incidence and improvements in screening technology and breast cancer therapy, mammography screening remains an important strategy to reduce breast cancer burden.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Accepted for Publication: November 9, 2023.

Published Online: April 30, 2024.

doi:10.1001/jama.2023.24766

Author Affiliations: Department of Population Health Sciences and Carbone Cancer Center, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin–Madison (Trentham-Dietz, Hampton, Gangnon); Department of Radiation Oncology and Center for Innovations in Quality, Safety, and Effectiveness, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas (Chapman); Health Equity and Decision Sciences (HEADS) Research Laboratory, Division of Intramural Research at the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland (Jayasekera); University of Washington School of Medicine, Seattle (Lowry); Division of Cancer Prevention, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland (Heckman-Stoddard); Department of Medicine, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, California (Caswell-Jin); Department of Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin–Madison (Gangnon); Stanford University, Stanford, California (Ying Lu, Sun, Muñoz); Department of Data Science, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, Massachusetts (H. Huang, Lee); Harvard Pilgrim

Health Care Institute, Boston, Massachusetts (Stein, Stout); Erasmus MC—University Medical Center, Rotterdam, the Netherlands (Gil Quessep, de Koning, van Ravesteyn); University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston (Yang, Song, Li, Berry, X. Huang); Department of Industrial and Systems Engineering and Carbone Cancer Center, University of Wisconsin–Madison (Yifan Lu, Alagoz); Departments of Medicine and Epidemiology and Population Health, Stanford University, Stanford, California (Kurian); Departments of Medicine and Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of California San Francisco (Kerlikowske); Kaiser Permanente Washington Health Research Institute, Seattle, Washington (O'Meara, Miglioretti); Department of Surgery, University of Vermont, Burlington (Sprague); Dartmouth Institute for Health Policy and Clinical Practice and Departments of Medicine and Community and Family Medicine, Dartmouth Geisel School of Medicine, Hanover, New Hampshire (Tosteson); Division of Cancer Control and Population Sciences, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland (Feuer, Stout); Departments of Biomedical Data Science and Radiology, Stanford University, Stanford, California (Plevritis); Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, New York (Schechter); Department of Public Health Sciences, University of California Davis (Miglioretti); Departments of Oncology and Medicine,

Georgetown University Medical Center, and Georgetown Lombardi Comprehensive Institute for Cancer and Aging Research at Georgetown University Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center, Washington, DC (Mandelblatt).

Author Contributions: Drs Trentham-Dietz and Mandelblatt had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Concept and design: Trentham-Dietz, Chapman, Lowry, Heckman-Stoddard, Kerlikowske, Sprague, Tosteson, Berry, Plevritis, X. Huang, de Koning, van Ravesteyn, Schechter, Miglioretti, Mandelblatt.

Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data:

Trentham-Dietz, Chapman, Jayasekera, Lowry, Heckman-Stoddard, Hampton, Caswell-Jin, Gangnon, Ying Lu, H. Huang, Stein, Sun, Gil Quessep, Yang, Yifan Lu, Song, Muñoz Medina, Li, Kurian, Kerlikowske, O'Meara, Sprague, Tosteson, Feuer, Berry, Plevritis, de Koning, van Ravesteyn, Lee, Alagoz, Schechter, Stout, Miglioretti, Mandelblatt.

Drafting of the manuscript: Trentham-Dietz, Chapman, Hampton, H. Huang, Mandelblatt.

Critical review of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Trentham-Dietz, Chapman, Jayasekera, Lowry, Heckman-Stoddard, Caswell-Jin, Gangnon, Ying Lu, Stein, Sun, Gil Quessep, Yang,

Yifan Lu, Song, Munoz Medina, Li, Kurian, Kerlikowske, O'Meara, Sprague, Tosteson, Feuer, Berry, Plevritis, X. Huang, de Koning, van Ravesteyn, Lee, Alagoz, Schechter, Stout, Miglioretti, Mandelblatt.

Statistical analysis: Trentham-Dietz, Chapman, Jayasekera, Hampton, Gangnon, Ying Lu, H. Huang, Stein, Sun, Yang, Yifan Lu, Song, Munoz Medina, Li, Berry, Plevritis, X. Huang, Lee, Alagoz, Schechter, Stout, Miglioretti.

Obtained funding: Trentham-Dietz, Sprague, Berry, Plevritis, X. Huang, van Ravesteyn, Lee, Alagoz, Stout, Mandelblatt.

Administrative, technical, or material support: Trentham-Dietz, Jayasekera, Heckman-Stoddard, Gil Quessep, Kerlikowske, O'Meara, Tosteson, Feuer, Plevritis, X. Huang, Mandelblatt.

Supervision: Trentham-Dietz, Heckman-Stoddard, Plevritis, X. Huang, de Koning, van Ravesteyn, Lee, Alagoz, Stout, Miglioretti, Mandelblatt.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: Dr Chapman reported receiving personal fees from ASCO Advantage Program/Daiichi Sankyo outside the submitted work. Dr Caswell-Jin reported receiving grants from Novartis, Effector Therapeutics, and QED Therapeutics outside the submitted work. Dr Li reported holding stock in Agenus Inc and Mink Therapeutics Inc outside the submitted work. Dr Berry reported receiving grants from MD Anderson Cancer Center of the University of Texas during the conduct of the study and being co-owner of Berry Consultants LLC, a company that designs bayesian adaptive clinical trials for pharmaceutical and medical device companies, National Institutes of Health (NIH) cooperative groups, patient advocacy groups, and international consortia, outside the submitted work. Dr Plevritis reported serving as a scientific advisor to Adela Biosciences. Dr X. Huang reported receiving grants from University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center during the conduct of the study. Dr van Ravesteyn reported receiving consulting fees (paid to institution) from Wickenstones outside the submitted work. Dr Alagoz reported receiving personal fees from Bristol Myers Squibb, Johnson & Johnson, and Exact Sciences and owning stock in Innovo Analytics LLC outside the submitted work. No other disclosures were reported.

Funding/Support: This report is based on research conducted by the CISNET Breast Cancer Working Group under National Cancer Institute grant UO1CA253911. This research was also supported in part by National Cancer Institute (NCI) grant P30CA014520 and P01CA154292 and a Vilas Associate Award to Dr Trentham-Dietz by the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Dr Jayasekera was supported by the Division of Intramural Research at the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) and the NIH Distinguished Scholars Program. The Breast Cancer Surveillance Consortium (<http://www.bccs-research.org/>) and its data collection and data sharing activities are funded by the NCI (P01CA154292).

Role of the Funder/Sponsor: Investigators worked with USPSTF members, AHRQ staff, and the EPC review team to define the scope of the project and key questions to be addressed. AHRQ had no role in the conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; and

preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript findings.

Disclaimer: The contents of this manuscript are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of the National Cancer Institute, the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities, or the Veteran's Affairs Administration. The opinions expressed in this document are those of the authors and do not reflect the official position of AHRQ, the US Department of Health and Human Services, or the National Cancer Institute.

Additional Contributions: We thank the following individuals for their contributions to this project: Tracy Wolff, MD, MPH (US Preventive Services Task Force Program); Howard Tracer, MD (AHRQ); Jillian Henderson, PhD, MPH, Elizabeth Webber, MS, and other members of the Kaiser Permanente Evidence-based Practice Center; members of the US Preventive Services Task Force who contributed to the decision analysis work plan; Doug Owens, MD, MS (Stanford University), Ya-Chen Tina Shih, PhD (MD Anderson Cancer Center), Jennifer Croswell, MD, MPH (Healthcare Delivery Research Program, National Cancer Institute), Sarah M. Temkin, MD (Office of Research on Women's Health, National Institutes of Health), and 2 additional content experts for their review of the draft report; Julie McGregor, BA, Jennie Martin, MS, and Victoria Foster, MS, for project coordination at the University of Wisconsin-Madison; Linn Abraham, MS (Kaiser Permanente Washington), and Thomas Lawler, PhD (University of Wisconsin-Madison), for assistance with data; and Amy Knudsen, PhD (Massachusetts General Hospital), Claudia Seguin, BA (Massachusetts General Hospital), and Hannah Johnson, MPH (University of Wisconsin-Madison), for assistance with graphing. None of the persons acknowledged received any additional compensation for their contributions.

Additional Information: The small writing committee (Drs Trentham-Dietz, Chapman, Jayasekera, Lowry, Miglioretti, and Mandelblatt) wrote initial drafts and solicited input from the larger group.

REFERENCES

1. Siu AL; US Preventive Services Task Force. Screen for breast cancer: US Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2016;164(4):279-296. doi:10.7326/M15-2886
2. US Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for breast cancer: US Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2009;151(10):716-726. doi:10.7326/0003-4819-151-10-20091170-00008
3. Giampietro RR, Cabral MVG, Lima SAM, Weber SAT, Dos Santos Nunes-Nogueira V. Accuracy and effectiveness of mammography versus mammography and tomosynthesis for population-based breast cancer screening: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sci Rep.* 2020;10(1):7991. doi:10.1038/s41598-020-64802-x
4. Marinovich ML, Hunter KE, Macaskill P, Houssami N. Breast cancer screening using tomosynthesis or mammography: a meta-analysis of cancer detection and recall. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2018;110(9):942-949. doi:10.1093/jnci/djy121
5. Houssami N, Zackrisson S, Blazek K, et al. Meta-analysis of prospective studies evaluating breast cancer detection and interval cancer rates for digital breast tomosynthesis versus mammography population screening. *Eur J Cancer.* 2021;148:14-23. doi:10.1016/j.ejca.2021.01.035
6. Kerlikowske K, Su YR, Sprague BL, et al. Association of screening with digital breast tomosynthesis vs digital mammography with risk of interval invasive and advanced breast cancer. *JAMA.* 2022;327(22):2220-2230. doi:10.1001/jama.2022.7672
7. Ellington TD, Miller JW, Henley SJ, Wilson RJ, Wu M, Richardson LC. Trends in breast cancer incidence, by race, ethnicity, and age among women aged ≥ 20 years—United States, 1999-2018. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2022;71(2):43-47. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm7102a2
8. Giaquinto AN, Sung H, Miller KD, et al. Breast cancer statistics, 2022. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2022;72(6):524-541. doi:10.3322/caac.21754
9. Mandelblatt JS, Cronin KA, Bailey S, et al; Breast Cancer Working Group of the Cancer Intervention and Surveillance Modeling Network. Effects of mammography screening under different screening schedules: model estimates of potential benefits and harms. *Ann Intern Med.* 2009;151(10):738-747. doi:10.7326/0003-4819-151-10-20091170-00010
10. Mandelblatt JS, Stout NK, Schechter CB, et al. Collaborative modeling of the benefits and harms associated with different U.S. breast cancer screening strategies. *Ann Intern Med.* 2016;164(4):215-225. doi:10.7326/M15-1536
11. Alagoz O, Ergun MA, Cevik M, et al. The University of Wisconsin Breast Cancer Epidemiology Simulation Model: an update. *Med Decis Making.* 2018;38(1 suppl):995-1115. doi:10.1177/0272989X17711927
12. Huang X, Li Y, Song J, Berry DA. A Bayesian simulation model for breast cancer screening, incidence, treatment, and mortality. *Med Decis Making.* 2018;38(1 suppl):785-885. doi:10.1177/0272989X17714473
13. Lee SJ, Li X, Huang H, Zelen M. The Dana-Farber CISNET model for breast cancer screening strategies: an update. *Med Decis Making.* 2018;38(1 suppl):445-535. doi:10.1177/0272989X17741634
14. Munoz DF, Xu C, Plevritis SK. A molecular subtype-specific stochastic simulation model of US breast cancer incidence, survival, and mortality trends from 1975 to 2010. *Med Decis Making.* 2018;38(1 suppl):895-985. doi:10.1177/0272989X17737508
15. Schechter CB, Near AM, Jayasekera J, Chandler Y, Mandelblatt JS. Structure, function, and applications of the Georgetown-Einstein (GE) breast cancer simulation model. *Med Decis Making.* 2018;38(1 suppl):665-775. doi:10.1177/0272989X17698685
16. van den Broek JJ, van Ravesteyn NT, Heijnsdijk EA, de Koning HJ. Simulating the impact of risk-based screening and treatment on breast cancer outcomes with MISCAN-Fadia. *Med Decis Making.* 2018;38(1 suppl):545-655. doi:10.1177/0272989X17711928
17. Cancer Intervention and Surveillance Modeling Network, National Cancer Institute. Breast cancer modeling. Accessed August 26, 2021. <https://cisnet.cancer.gov/breast/>

18. Trentham-Dietz A, Chapman CH, Jinani J, et al. *Breast Cancer Screening With Mammography: An Updated Decision Analysis for the US Preventive Services Task Force*. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2024. AHRQ publication 23-05303-EF-2.
19. Caughey AB, Krist AH, Wolff TA, et al. USPSTF approach to addressing sex and gender when making recommendations for clinical preventive services. *JAMA*. 2021;326(19):1953-1961. doi:10.1001/jama.2021.15731
20. US Preventive Services Task Force. Actions to transform US Preventive Services Task Force methods to mitigate systemic racism in clinical preventive services. *JAMA*. 2021;326(23):2405-2411. doi:10.1001/jama.2021.17594
21. Gangnon RE, Sprague BL, Stout NK, et al. The contribution of mammography screening to breast cancer incidence trends in the United States: an updated age-period-cohort model. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2015;24(6):905-912. doi:10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-14-1286
22. Holford TR, Cronin KA, Mariotto AB, Feuer EJ. Changing patterns in breast cancer incidence trends. *J Natl Cancer Inst Monographs*. 2006;(36):19-25. doi:10.1093/jncimonographs/lgj016
23. Munoz DF, Plevritis SK. Estimating breast cancer survival by molecular subtype in the absence of screening and adjuvant treatment. *Med Decis Making*. 2018;38(1 suppl):325-435. doi:10.1177/0272989X17743236
24. Plevritis SK, Munoz D, Kurian AW, et al. Association of screening and treatment with breast cancer mortality by molecular subtype in US women, 2000-2012. *JAMA*. 2018;319(2):154-164. doi:10.1001/jama.2017.19130
25. Caswell-Jin JL, Plevritis SK, Tian L, et al. Change in survival in metastatic breast cancer with treatment advances: meta-analysis and systematic review. *J Natl Cancer Inst Cancer Spectr*. 2018;2(4):pk0062. doi:10.1093/jncics/pky062
26. Mandelblatt JS, Near AM, Miglioretti DL, et al. Common model inputs used in CISNET collaborative breast cancer modeling. *Med Decis Making*. 2018;38(1 suppl):9S-23S. doi:10.1177/0272989X17700624
27. Warner ET, Tamimi RM, Hughes ME, et al. Racial and ethnic differences in breast cancer survival: mediating effect of tumor characteristics and sociodemographic and treatment factors. *J Clin Oncol*. 2015;33(20):2254-2261. doi:10.1200/JCO.2014.57.1349
28. Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG). Effects of chemotherapy and hormonal therapy for early breast cancer on recurrence and 15-year survival: an overview of the randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2005;365(9472):1687-1717. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(05)66544-0
29. Peto R, Davies C, Godwin J, et al; Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG). Comparisons between different polychemotherapy regimens for early breast cancer: meta-analyses of long-term outcome among 100,000 women in 123 randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2012;379(9814):432-444. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(11)61625-5
30. Darby S, McGale P, Correa C, et al; Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG). Effect of radiotherapy after breast-conserving surgery on 10-year recurrence and 15-year breast cancer death: meta-analysis of individual patient data for 10,801 women in 17 randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2011;378(9804):1707-1716. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(11)61629-2
31. Davies C, Godwin J, Gray R, et al; Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG). Relevance of breast cancer hormone receptors and other factors to the efficacy of adjuvant tamoxifen: patient-level meta-analysis of randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2011;378(9793):771-784. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(11)60993-8
32. Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG). Aromatase inhibitors versus tamoxifen in early breast cancer: patient-level meta-analysis of the randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2015;386(10001):1341-1352. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)61074-1
33. Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG). Long-term outcomes for neoadjuvant versus adjuvant chemotherapy in early breast cancer: meta-analysis of individual patient data from ten randomised trials. *Lancet Oncol*. 2018;19(1):27-39. doi:10.1016/S1470-2045(17)30777-5
34. Cho H, Mariotto AB, Mann BS, Klabunde CN, Feuer EJ. Assessing non-cancer-related health status of US cancer patients: other-cause survival and comorbidity prevalence. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2013;178(3):339-349. doi:10.1093/aje/kws580
35. Gangnon RE, Stout NK, Alagoz O, Hampton JM, Sprague BL, Trentham-Dietz A. Contribution of breast cancer to overall mortality for US women. *Med Decis Making*. 2018;38(1 suppl):24S-31S. doi:10.1177/0272989X17717981
36. Lansdorp-Vogelaar I, Gulati R, Mariotto AB, et al. Personalizing age of cancer screening cessation based on comorbid conditions: model estimates of harms and benefits. *Ann Intern Med*. 2014;161(2):104-112. doi:10.7326/M13-2867
37. de Haes JC, de Koning HJ, van Oortmarssen GJ, van Agt HM, de Bruyn AE, van Der Maas PJ. The impact of a breast cancer screening programme on quality-adjusted life-years. *Int J Cancer*. 1991;49(4):538-544. doi:10.1002/ijc.2910490411
38. Hanmer J, Lawrence WF, Anderson JP, Kaplan RM, Fryback DG. Report of nationally representative values for the noninstitutionalized US adult population for 7 health-related quality-of-life scores. *Med Decis Making*. 2006;26(4):391-400. doi:10.1177/0272989X06290497
39. Stout NK, Rosenberg MA, Trentham-Dietz A, Smith MA, Robinson SM, Fryback DG. Retrospective cost-effectiveness analysis of screening mammography. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2006;98(11):774-782. doi:10.1093/jnci/dij210
40. D'Orsi CJ, Sickles EA, Mendelson EB, et al. *ACR BI-RADS Atlas, Breast Imaging Reporting and Data System*. American College of Radiology; 2013.
41. Lehman CD, Arao RF, Sprague BL, et al. National performance benchmarks for modern screening digital mammography: update from the Breast Cancer Surveillance Consortium. *Radiology*. 2017;283(1):49-58. doi:10.1148/radiol.2016161174
42. Dignam JJ. Efficacy of systemic adjuvant therapy for breast cancer in African-American and Caucasian women. *J Natl Cancer Inst Monogr*. 2001;(30):36-43. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.jncimonographs.a003458
43. Kurian AW, Lichtensztajn DY, Keegan TH, et al. Patterns and predictors of breast cancer chemotherapy use in Kaiser Permanente Northern California, 2004-2007. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. 2013;137(1):247-260. doi:10.1007/s10549-012-2329-5
44. Wu AH, Kurian AW, Kwan ML, et al. Diabetes and other comorbidities in breast cancer survival by race/ethnicity: the California Breast Cancer Survivorship Consortium (CBCSC). *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2015;24(2):361-368. doi:10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-14-1140
45. Griggs JJ, Culakova E, Sorbero ME, et al. Social and racial differences in selection of breast cancer adjuvant chemotherapy regimens. *J Clin Oncol*. 2007;25(18):2522-2527. doi:10.1200/JCO.2006.10.2749
46. Reeder-Hayes KE, Mayer SE, Olshan AF, et al. Race and delays in breast cancer treatment across the care continuum in the Carolina Breast Cancer Study. *Cancer*. 2019;125(22):3985-3992. doi:10.1002/cncr.32378
47. Caumo F, Zorzi M, Brunelli S, et al. Digital breast tomosynthesis with synthesized two-dimensional images versus full-field digital mammography for population screening: outcomes from the verona screening program. *Radiology*. 2018;287(1):37-46. doi:10.1148/radiol.201710745
48. Yoon JH, Kim EK, Kim GR, et al. Comparing recall rates following implementation of digital breast tomosynthesis to synthetic 2D images and digital mammography on women with breast-conserving surgery. *Eur Radiol*. 2020;30(11):6072-6079. doi:10.1007/s00330-020-06992-6
49. Zuckerman SP, Conant EF, Keller BM, et al. Implementation of synthesized two-dimensional mammography in a population-based digital breast tomosynthesis screening program. *Radiology*. 2016;281(3):730-736. doi:10.1148/radiol.2016160366
50. Zuckerman SP, Sprague BL, Weaver DL, Herschorn SD, Conant EF. Multicenter evaluation of breast cancer screening with digital breast tomosynthesis in combination with synthetic versus digital mammography. *Radiology*. 2020;297(3):545-553. doi:10.1148/radiol.2020200240
51. Chong A, Weinstein SP, McDonald ES, Conant EF. Digital breast tomosynthesis: concepts and clinical practice. *Radiology*. 2019;292(1):1-14. doi:10.1148/radiol.2019180760
52. Alabousi M, Wadera A, Kashif Al-Ghita M, et al. Performance of digital breast tomosynthesis, synthetic mammography, and digital mammography in breast cancer screening: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2021;113(6):680-690. doi:10.1093/jnci/djaa205
53. Hanmer J, Kaplan RM. Update to the report of nationally representative values for the noninstitutionalized US adult population for five health-related quality-of-life scores. *Value Health*. 2016;19(8):1059-1062. doi:10.1016/j.jval.2016.05.019
54. Mark DH. Visualizing cost-effectiveness analysis. *JAMA*. 2002;287(18):2428-2429. doi:10.1001/jama.287.18.2428
55. Knudsen AB, Rutter CM, Peterse EFP, et al. Colorectal cancer screening: an updated modeling study for the US Preventive Services Task Force. *JAMA*. 2021;325(19):1998-2011. doi:10.1001/jama.2021.5746
56. Henderson JT, Webber EM, Weyrich M, Miller M, Melnikow J. *Screening for Breast Cancer*:

A Comparative Effectiveness Review for the US Preventive Services Task Force. Evidence Synthesis No. 231. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2024. AHRQ publication 23-05303-EF-1.

57. Conant EF, Zuckerman SP, McDonald ES, et al. Five consecutive years of screening with digital breast tomosynthesis: outcomes by screening year and round. *Radiology*. 2020;295(2):285-293. doi:10.1148/radiol.2020191751
58. Bahl M, Gaffney S, McCarthy AM, Lowry KP, Dang PA, Lehman CD. Breast cancer characteristics associated with 2D digital mammography versus digital breast tomosynthesis for screening-detected and interval cancers. *Radiology*. 2018;287(1):49-57. doi:10.1148/radiol.2017171148
59. Sprague BL, Coley RY, Lowry KP, et al. Digital breast tomosynthesis versus digital mammography screening performance on successive screening rounds from the Breast Cancer Surveillance Consortium. *Radiology*. 2023;307(5):e223142. doi:10.1148/radiol.223142
60. Chapman CH, Schechter CB, Cadham CJ, et al. Identifying equitable screening mammography strategies for Black women in the United States using simulation modeling. *Ann Intern Med*. 2021;174(12):1637-1646. doi:10.7326/M20-6506
61. Carlos RC, Obeng-Gyasi S, Cole SW, et al. Linking structural racism and discrimination and breast cancer outcomes: a social genomics approach. *J Clin Oncol*. 2022;40(13):1407-1413. doi:10.1200/JCO.21.02004
62. Gee GC, Walsemann KM, Brondolo E. A life course perspective on how racism may be related to health inequities. *Am J Public Health*. 2012;102(5):967-974. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2012.300666
63. Jones NL, Gilman SE, Cheng TL, Drury SS, Hill CV, Geronimus AT. Life course approaches to the causes of health disparities. *Am J Public Health*. 2019;109(51):S48-S55. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2018.304738
64. Chen T, Kharazmi E, Fallah M. Race and ethnicity-adjusted age recommendation for initiating breast cancer screening. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2023;6(4):e238893. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2023.8893
65. Lawson MB, Bissell MCS, Miglioretti DL, et al. Multilevel factors associated with time to biopsy after abnormal screening mammography results by race and ethnicity. *JAMA Oncol*. 2022;8(8):1115-1126. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2022.1990
66. Veenhuizen SGA, de Lange SV, Bakker MF, et al; DENSE Trial Study Group. Supplemental breast MRI for women with extremely dense breasts: results of the second screening round of the DENSE trial. *Radiology*. 2021;299(2):278-286. doi:10.1148/radiol.2021203633
67. Ohuchi N, Suzuki A, Sobue T, et al; J-START investigator Groups. Sensitivity and specificity of mammography and adjunctive ultrasonography to screen for breast cancer in the Japan Strategic Anti-cancer Randomized Trial (J-START): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2016;387(10016):341-348. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)00774-6
68. Harris E. FDA updates breast density reporting standards, other mammogram rules. *JAMA*. 2023;329(14):1142-1143. doi:10.1001/jama.2023.4004
69. García-Albéniz X, Hernán MA, Logan RW, Price M, Armstrong K, Hsu J. Continuation of annual screening mammography and breast cancer mortality in women older than 70 years. *Ann Intern Med*. 2020;172(6):381-389. doi:10.7326/M18-1199
70. Schousboe JT, Sprague BL, Abraham L, et al. Cost-effectiveness of screening mammography beyond age 75 years: a cost-effectiveness analysis. *Ann Intern Med*. 2022;175(1):11-19. doi:10.7326/M20-8076
71. Trentham-Dietz A, Kerlikowske K, Stout NK, et al; Breast Cancer Surveillance Consortium and the Cancer Intervention and Surveillance Modeling Network. Tailoring breast cancer screening intervals by breast density and risk for women aged 50 years or older: collaborative modeling of screening outcomes. *Ann Intern Med*. 2016;165(10):700-712. doi:10.7326/M16-0476