

1 **Age at cancer diagnosis by breed, weight, sex, and cancer type in a**
2 **cohort of over 3,000 dogs: determining the optimal age to initiate**
3 **cancer screening in canine patients**

4

5 **Jill M. Rafalko*, Kristina M. Kruglyak, Angela L. McCleary-Wheeler, Vidit Goyal, Ashley**
6 **Phelps-Dunn, Lilian K. Wong, Chelsea D. Warren, Gina Brandstetter, Michelle C.**
7 **Rosentel, Lisa M. McLennan, Daniel S. Grosu, Jason Chibuk, Dana W.Y. Tsui, Ilya**
8 **Chorny, Andi Flory**

9

10 PetDx, Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA

11 * Corresponding author: Jill M. Rafalko, PetDx, 9310 Athena Circle, Suite 230, La Jolla, CA
12 92037, USA. jrafalko@petdx.com.

13 **Abstract**

14 The goal of cancer screening is to detect disease at an early stage when treatment may be more
15 effective. Until recently, cancer screening in dogs has relied upon annual physical examinations
16 and routine laboratory tests, which are largely inadequate for detecting preclinical disease. With
17 the introduction of non-invasive “liquid biopsy” cancer detection methods, the discussion is
18 shifting from “*How* to screen dogs for cancer” to “*When* to screen dogs for cancer”. To address
19 this question, data from 3,452 cancer-diagnosed subjects were analyzed to determine the age at
20 which dogs of certain breeds and weights are typically diagnosed with cancer. In the study
21 population, the median age at cancer diagnosis was 8.8 years, with males diagnosed at younger
22 ages than females, and spayed/neutered dogs diagnosed at significantly later ages than intact
23 dogs. Overall, weight was inversely correlated with age at cancer diagnosis, and purebred dogs
24 were diagnosed at significantly younger ages than mixed-breed dogs. For breeds with 10 or more
25 subjects, a breed-based median age at diagnosis was calculated. A weight-based linear regression
26 model was developed to predict the median age at diagnosis for breeds represented by fewer than
27 10 subjects and for mixed-breed dogs. The study findings support a general recommendation to
28 start cancer screening for all dogs at the age of 7, and as early as 4 years of age for breeds with a
29 lower median age at cancer diagnosis, in order to increase the chances of early detection and
30 treatment.

31

32 **Introduction**

33 Cancer is by far the leading cause of death in adult dogs,³⁷ yet options for canine cancer
34 screening have historically been limited in comparison to the robust, guidelines-driven screening
35 programs in human medicine.¹⁰⁹ With novel cancer screening approaches (such as “liquid
36 biopsy” cancer detection methods using next-generation sequencing of DNA from blood
37 samples) being introduced in veterinary medicine,^{25,38,69} the question of *how* to screen dogs for
38 cancer may soon shift to *when* to start screening dogs for cancer. Currently there is limited
39 evidence to guide veterinarians on this topic, but a “one age fits all” approach to the initiation of
40 screening is unlikely to be appropriate for dogs, given the strong role of both genetic and
41 environmental factors in the development of cancer and the great diversity of breeds and sizes
42 represented in the species.

43 Previous published studies have often focused on age at cancer diagnosis, or age at death
44 from cancer, for individual breeds^{24,67,127} or for specific cancer types^{51,61,91}, making the findings
45 difficult to generalize to other breeds or to mixed-breed dogs. Furthermore, some of the larger,
46 population-based studies that incorporated a more diverse selection of breeds were conducted in
47 Europe,^{16,32,47,82} where “common” breeds may not be representative of breeds that are common
48 in the US; additionally, cancer incidence and cancer types observed in these studies may be
49 different from those seen in a US population, due to environmental differences and spay/neuter
50 rates in Europe versus the US.

51 The current study examines a large and heterogeneous population of cancer-diagnosed
52 dogs, the vast majority of which were from the US, representing over 120 breeds and a wide
53 variety of cancer types. The purpose of the study is to establish median ages at which dogs of
54 various breeds and weights are diagnosed with cancer, and to develop an evidence-based
55 approach for determining the age at which cancer screening should be initiated for individual
56 dogs.

57

58 **Materials and Methods**

59 The study population comprised a total of 3,452 cancer-diagnosed subjects (herein
60 “subjects”) from across three distinct cohorts that contributed data to this study.

61 The first cohort (“Cohort 1”) comprised subjects prospectively enrolled in the CANcer
62 Detection in Dogs (CANDiD) study.³⁸ All subjects were enrolled under protocols that received
63 institutional animal care and use committee (IACUC) or site-specific ethics approval, according
64 to each site’s requirements. All subjects were client-owned, and written informed consent was
65 obtained from all owners.

66 The subjects in Cohort 1 were all-comers with a current definitive diagnosis of cancer of
67 any type. For these subjects, the dog’s age (known or estimated; in years and months) at
68 enrollment was provided by the enrolling veterinarian, along with a “date of diagnosis” for the
69 patient’s cancer diagnosis. In the case of recurrence of a previous cancer, or a prior history of
70 cancer (before the current diagnosis at enrollment in CANDiD), the “date of diagnosis”
71 represented the date of the first documented cancer diagnosis. Using the dog’s age, date of

72 enrollment, and date of diagnosis, an “age at diagnosis” was calculated for all subjects. Data
73 from a total of 663 subjects from Cohort 1 were used in the current study.

74 The second cohort (“Cohort 2”) comprised subjects from the National Cancer Institute
75 (NCI) Division of Cancer Treatment and Diagnosis Biological Testing Tumor Repository,
76 deposited by the Canine Comparative Oncology Genetics Consortium (CCOGC).⁷⁹ Samples
77 were prospectively collected from multiple academic institutions within the United States
78 (Colorado State University, The Ohio State University, University of Wisconsin-Madison,
79 Michigan State University, Tufts University, University of California-Davis, University of
80 Missouri, and University of Tennessee), and the Standard Operating Procedures for the
81 collection of samples were approved by each site’s IACUC.

82 The data from Cohort 2 accompanied clinical samples from dogs with commonly
83 diagnosed cancers, with a focus on enrolling subjects with seven histologies: osteosarcoma,
84 lymphoma, melanoma, hemangiosarcoma, soft tissue sarcoma, mast cell tumor, and pulmonary
85 tumor. Blood samples (collected from subjects prior to surgery) and tumor tissue were collected
86 and submitted to the biorepository. As part of this process, clinical data regarding each subject’s
87 diagnosis were submitted to the NCI. Although the subject’s exact “date of diagnosis” or “age at
88 diagnosis” were not collected as part of this data set, an “age at sample collection” (in years) was
89 documented for each subject. For the purpose of this study, the “age at sample collection” was
90 used as a reasonable approximation for “age at diagnosis”, as the sample collection from the
91 majority of subjects was expected to have occurred within weeks or, at most, months from the
92 time the cancer diagnosis was first made. Data from a total of 1,888 subjects from Cohort 2 were
93 used in the current study.

94 For Cohorts 1 and 2, breed and weight information were provided for each subject by the
95 veterinarian or staff at the enrolling site.

96 The final cohort (“Cohort 3”) was a subset of study subjects from a recent publication.⁵²
97 The subjects were patients of the Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital at the University of
98 California – Davis. Information about each subject was obtained via retrospective chart review
99 and provided in the Supplementary Materials section of the Hart, *et al.* publication; the following
100 data points were used for the purpose of the current study: breed, sex, spay/neuter status, date of
101 birth, date at cancer diagnosis (which allowed for calculation of an “age at diagnosis”), and
102 cancer type (specifically, data was available for four common cancer types: lymphoma, mast cell
103 tumor, osteosarcoma, and hemangiosarcoma). Weight data were not available for any subjects in
104 this cohort. Data from a total of 901 subjects from Cohort 3 were used in the current study.

105 The overall study population (Cohorts 1, 2, and 3 combined) was examined to determine
106 the mean and median age at cancer diagnosis. Additionally, age at cancer diagnosis was analyzed
107 by breed, weight, sex, and cancer type. P-values were calculated using two-sided t-tests, and p-
108 values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

109

110 Results

111 *Subject demographics*

112 The combined study population of 3,452 subjects comprised 2,537 reported to be
 113 purebred, 858 reported to be mixed-breed, and 57 whose breed was described as “other”. As
 114 there was no significant difference between the ages at cancer diagnosis for dogs described as
 115 mixed-breed and “other” (p=0.6944), these two groups were combined for the purpose of data
 116 analysis, resulting in a total of 915 dogs classified as “mixed-breed/other”.

117 The study population consisted of 1,900 males (55%) and 1,552 females (45%); 76% of
 118 males were neutered and 90% of females were spayed. Weight data was available for all 2,551
 119 subjects from Cohorts 1 and 2, and those subjects ranged in weight from 2.5 kg to 98.0 kg, with a
 120 mean of 30.3 kg and a median of 30.6 kg (Table 1).

121

122 **Table 1: Demographics of the study population**

Characteristics	Disposition of study population
Breed (n=3,452)	Purebred: 2,537
	Mixed-breed/other: 915
Sex (n=3,452)	Male: 1,900
	- Male (neutered): 1,452
	- Male (intact): 446
	- Male (status not provided): 2
	Female: 1,552
	- Female (spayed): 1,390
	- Female (intact): 161
- Female (status not provided): 1	
Weight* (n=2,551)	Range: 2.5 – 98.0 kg
	Mean: 30.3 kg
	Median: 30.6 kg

123 * *Weight data were not available for subjects in Cohort 3 (n=901)*

124 Subjects were assigned a “cancer type”, based primarily on anatomic location, as
 125 previously described.³⁸ This classification system was adapted from Withrow and MacEwen’s
 126 Small Animal Clinical Oncology (Sixth Edition)¹²¹ and from the American Joint Committee on
 127 Cancer (AJCC) Cancer Staging Manual (Eighth Edition)¹¹. The most represented cancer type in
 128 the study population was lymphoma, followed by osteosarcoma, mast cell tumor,
 129 hemangiosarcoma, and soft tissue sarcoma (Table 2).

130

131 **Table 2: Cancer types* represented in the study population (n=3,452)**

Cancer type	Number of subjects
Lymphoma/Lymphoid Leukemia	979
Bone, Osteosarcoma	664

Mast Cell Tumor	565
Hemangiosarcoma	292
Soft Tissue Sarcoma	240
Malignant Melanoma	128
Lung	113
Oral Cavity	67
Skin	44
Histiocytic Sarcoma	40
Peripheral Nerve Sheath	33
Anal Sac Adenocarcinoma	29
Multiple Concurrent Primary Cancers	27
Unknown**	25
Chondrosarcoma	22
Liver	22
Urinary Bladder/Urethra	18
Nasal Cavity and Paranasal Sinuses	16
Mammary Gland Carcinoma	15
Thyroid	15
Bone, Multilobular Osteochondrosarcoma	12
Bone, Fibrosarcoma	9
Adrenal Gland	8
Bone, Sarcoma (other)	8
Brain	8
Spleen	8
Kidney	6
Small Intestine	6
Prostate	5
Transmissible Venereal Tumor	5
Heart Base	3
Pancreas	3
Bile Duct	2
Mediastinum	2
Multiple Myeloma	2
Salivary Gland	2
Spinal Cord	2
Ear Canal	1
Esophagus	1
Large Intestine	1
Nasal Planum	1
Thymoma	1
Uterus	1
Vagina	1

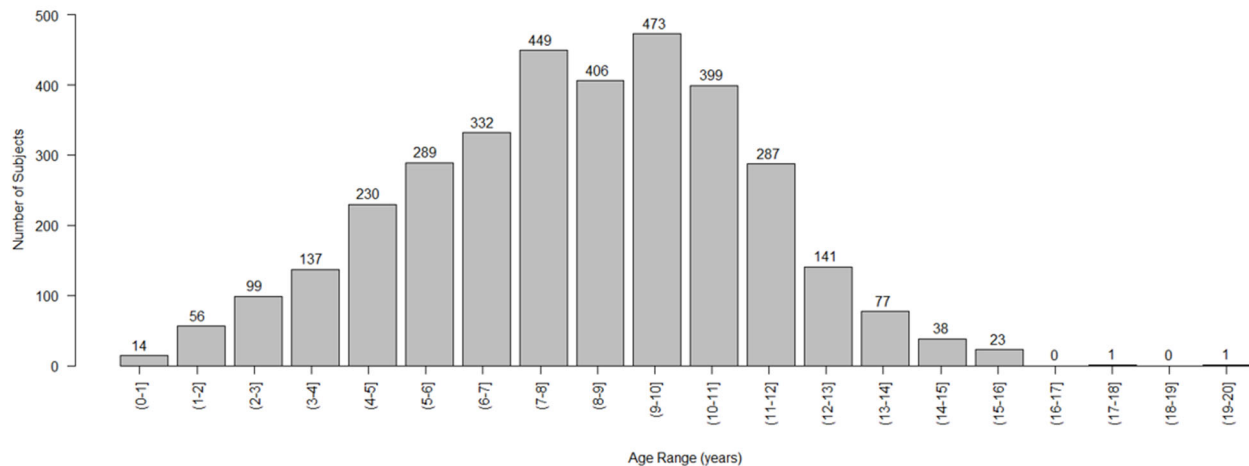
132 * *Cancer types were classified based primarily on anatomic location, as previously described.*³⁸
133 ** *Diagnosis of malignancy was confirmed, but cancer type was not assigned due to limited*
134 *clinical information.*
135

136 *Overall distribution of age groups at cancer diagnosis*

137 For the overall cohort of 3,452 dogs, the age at cancer diagnosis ranged from less than
138 one year to 20 years, with a mean of 8.5 years and a median of 8.8 years (Fig. 1).

139

140 **Figure 1: Distribution of subjects by age at cancer diagnosis (n=3,452)**



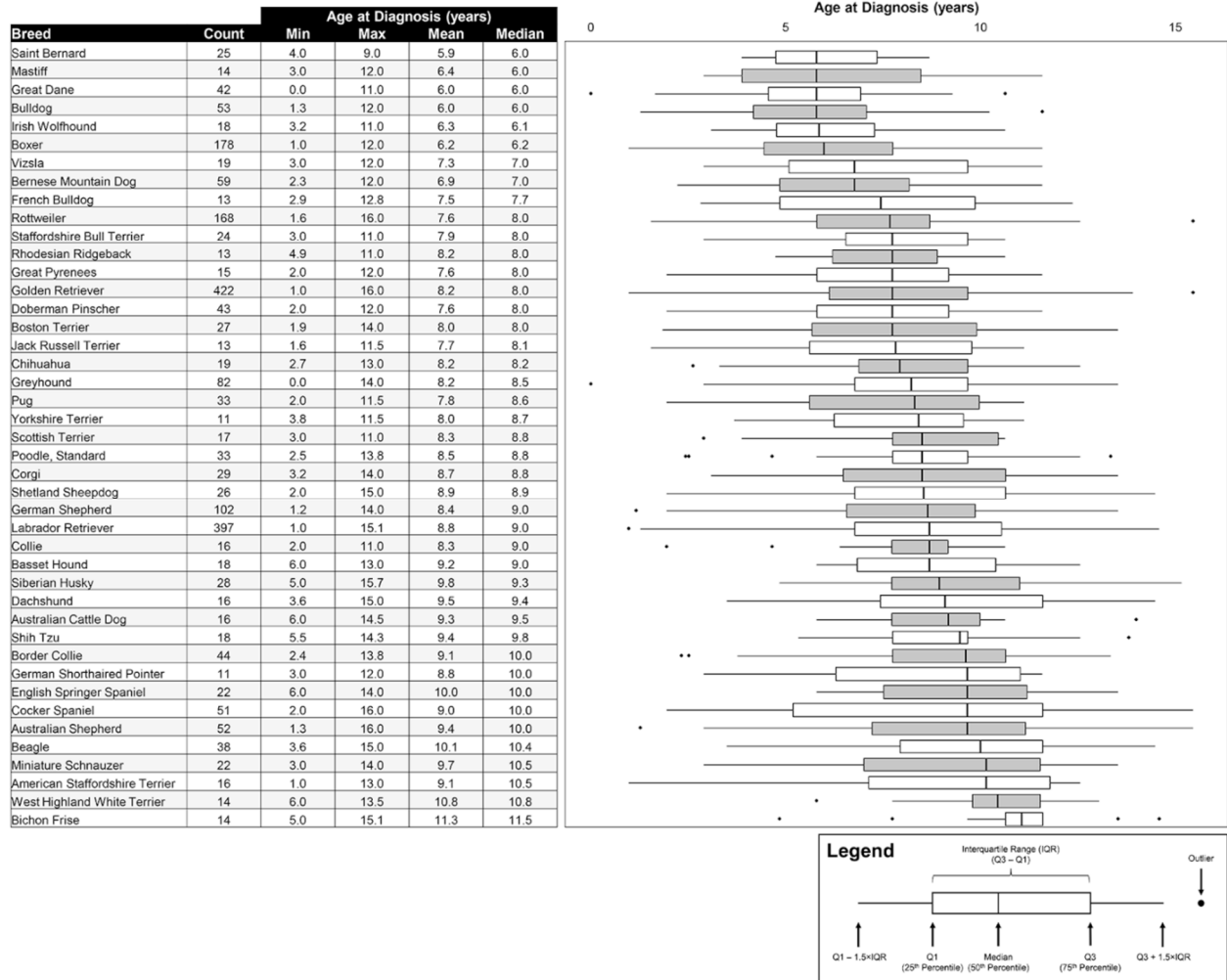
141

142 *Age at cancer diagnosis by breed*

143 The age at cancer diagnosis for the 2,537 purebred dogs in this study ranged from less
144 than one year to 20 years of age, with a mean of 8.2 years and a median of 8.0 years. These
145 subjects represented 122 distinct breeds. The most highly represented breeds in the study were
146 Golden Retrievers (n=422) and Labrador Retrievers (n=397), followed by Boxers (n=178),
147 Rottweilers (n=168), and German Shepherds (n=102).

148 For breeds represented by at least 10 subjects (n=43 breeds), mean and median ages at
149 diagnosis for the breed were calculated. The breeds with the youngest median age at cancer
150 diagnosis were Saint Bernards, Mastiffs, Great Danes, Bulldogs (median: 6 years), followed by
151 Irish Wolfhounds (median 6.1 years), Boxers (median: 6.2 years), and Vizslas and Bernese
152 Mountain Dogs (median: 7.0 years). The breed with the oldest median age at cancer diagnosis
153 was the Bichon Frise (median: 11.5 years) (Fig. 2).

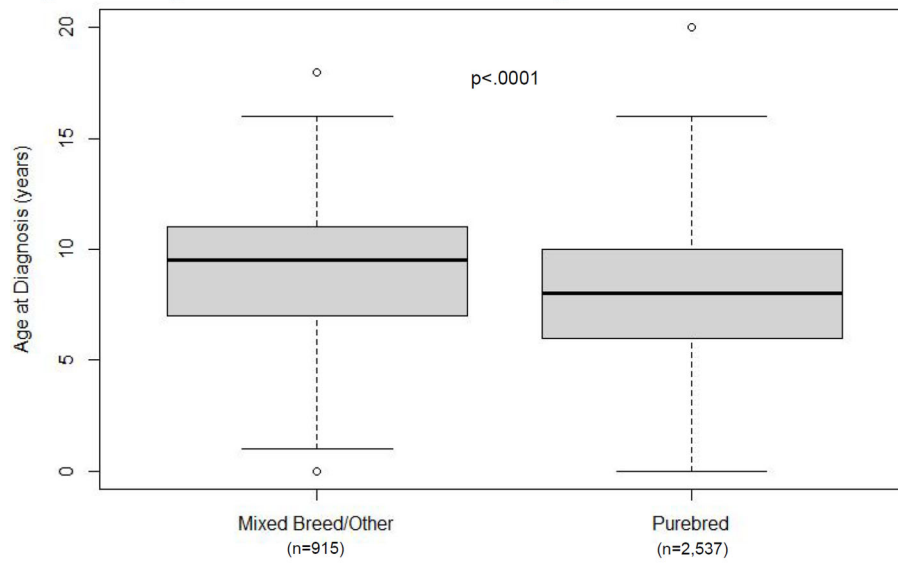
154 **Figure 2: Age distribution at cancer diagnosis by breed (for breeds represented by 10 or**
 155 **more subjects)**



156

157 For mixed-breed/other dogs (n=915), age at cancer diagnosis ranged from less than one
 158 year to 18 years of age, with a mean of 9.2 years and a median of 9.5 years. The mean age at
 159 cancer diagnosis for these 915 mixed-breed/other dogs was significantly later than the mean age
 160 at diagnosis for the 2,537 purebred dogs in this study (9.2 vs. 8.2 years; $p < .0001$). (Fig. 3)

161 **Figure 3: Age distribution at cancer diagnosis for mixed-breed/other vs. purebred subjects.**



162

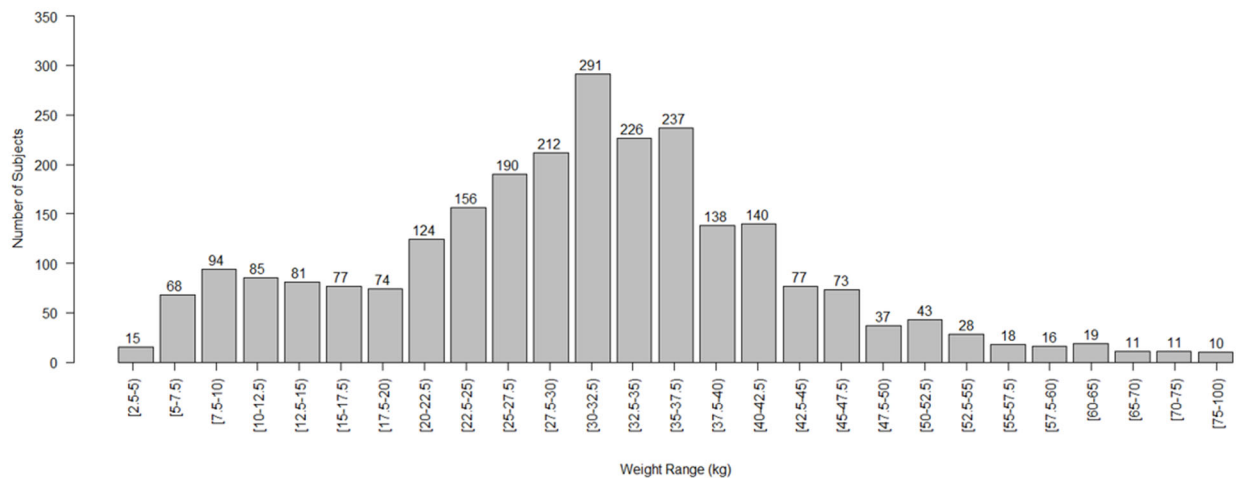
163

164 *Distribution of subjects by weight*

165 Weight data was available for 2,551 subjects. Weight ranged from 2.5 – 98.0 kg (Fig. 4),
 166 with a mean of 30.3 kg and a median of 30.6 kg (Table 1).

167

168 **Figure 4: Weight distribution of the study population (for subjects that had a documented**
 169 **weight; n=2,551)**



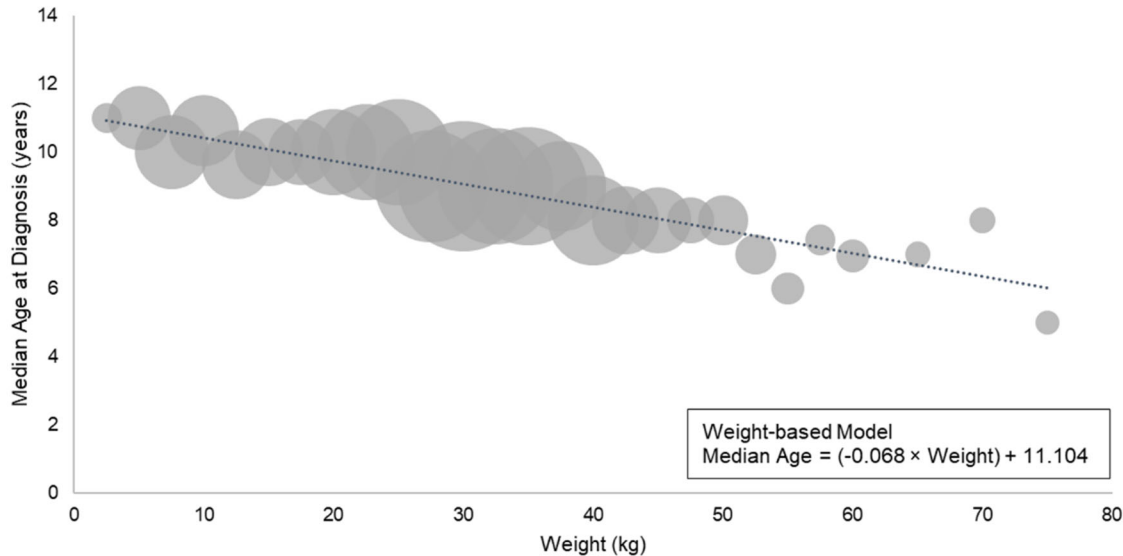
170

171 In general, as the weight of the dog increased, the median age at cancer diagnosis
 172 decreased. For instance, dogs weighing between 2.5 and 5 kg had a median age at cancer
 173 diagnosis of 11 years, compared to 5 years for dogs 75 kg and over. By plotting median age at
 174 cancer diagnosis for dogs in various weight brackets, a linear regression formula was derived

175 (herein referred to as the “weight-based model”): Median Age = $(-0.068 \times \text{Weight}) + 11.104$
176 (Fig. 5).

177

178 **Figure 5: Median age at cancer diagnosis by weight (for subjects that had a documented**
179 **weight; n=2,551)**

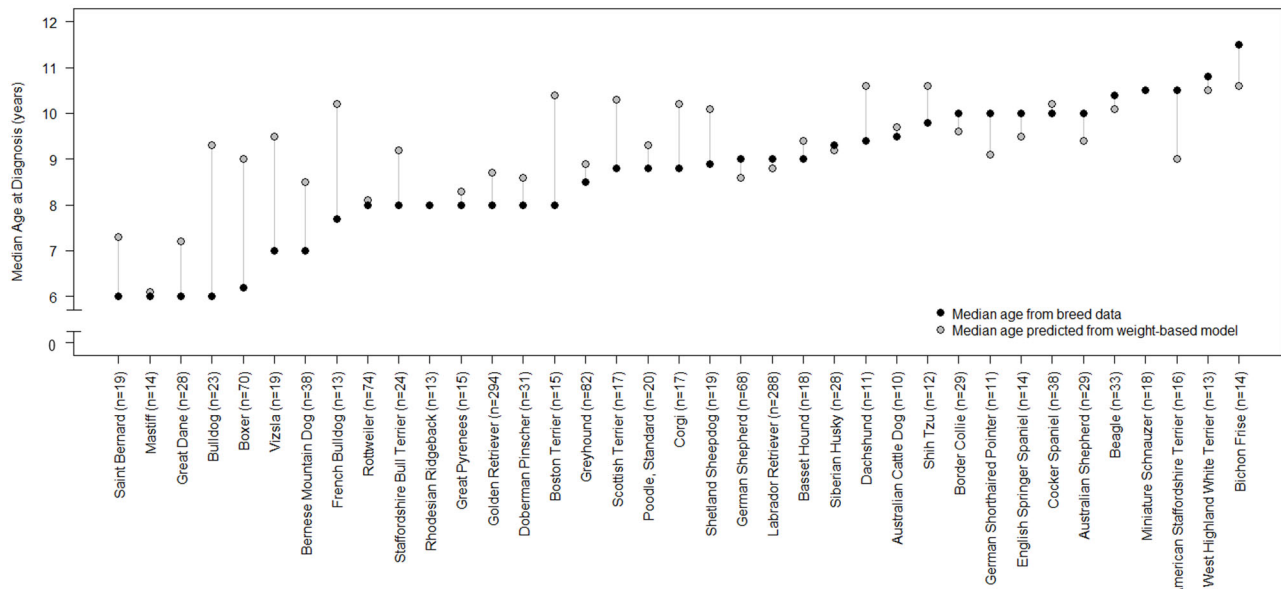


180

181 Additional analysis was performed on a subset of the breeds from Figure 2. There were
182 37 breeds for which weight data was available for at least 10 subjects in the study population.
183 For each of these 37 breeds, the median weight of subjects representing that breed in this study
184 was calculated. Then, the actual median age at cancer diagnosis (calculated directly from the
185 subjects of that breed – see Figure 2) was compared to the predicted median age at cancer
186 diagnosis using the weight-based model presented in Figure 5. For the majority of breeds (23 of
187 37), the median age at cancer diagnosis predicted by the weight-based model was within one
188 year of the actual median age calculated from subjects representing that breed in this study. For
189 certain breeds, particularly Bulldogs, Boxers, Vizslas, French Bulldogs, and Boston Terriers, the
190 median age at cancer diagnosis calculated directly from subjects of that breed was more than 2
191 years younger than the median age predicted by the weight-based model (Fig. 6).

192

193 **Figure 6: Median age at cancer diagnosis in purebred dogs: breed-based data versus**
 194 **prediction from weight-based model (for breeds that had a documented weight for ≥ 10**
 195 **subjects; n=1,495)**



196
 197 *Please note: Breeds included in Figure 6 are breeds in which weight data were available for 10*
 198 *or more cancer-diagnosed subjects. Six breeds included in Figure 2 are not represented in*
 199 *Figure 6 due to an insufficient number of subjects with weight information (<10 per breed).*

200
 201 *Age at cancer diagnosis by sex and spay/neuter status*

202 In the overall study population (n=3,452), the age of cancer diagnosis in males was
 203 significantly younger than in females (mean 8.3 vs. 8.7 years; p<.0001). When the data were
 204 subdivided by sex and spay/neuter status, neutered males were diagnosed with cancer at younger
 205 ages than spayed females (mean 8.5 vs. 8.9 years; p=0.0002); however, there was no significant
 206 difference between the age at cancer diagnosis for intact males vs. intact females (mean 7.6 vs.
 207 7.3 years; p=0.2623). There was a significant difference between neutered vs. intact males (mean
 208 8.5 vs. 7.6 years; p<0.0001) and spayed vs. intact female dogs (mean 8.9 vs. 7.3 years;
 209 p<0.0001), with neutered/spayed dogs showing a significantly later mean age at diagnosis than
 210 their intact counterparts (Table 3).

211
 212 **Table 3: Age at cancer diagnosis by sex and spay/neuter status of the study population**

Comparison groups (n)	Median age at cancer diagnosis (years)	Mean age at cancer diagnosis (years)	p-value
M : F (1,900 : 1,552)	8.4 : 9.0	8.3 : 8.7	p<0.0001
MN: FS (1,452 : 1,390)	8.9 : 9.0	8.5 : 8.9	p= 0.0002

MI : FI (446 : 161)	7.9 : 7.3	7.6 : 7.3	Not significant (p=0.2623)
MN : MI (1,452 : 446)	8.9 : 7.9	8.5 : 7.6	p<0.0001
FS : FI (1,390 : 161)	9.0 : 7.3	8.9 : 7.3	p<0.0001

213 M=Male; F=Female; N=Neutered; S=Spayed; I=Intact; Spay/neuter status was unavailable for 2 males
214 and 1 female.

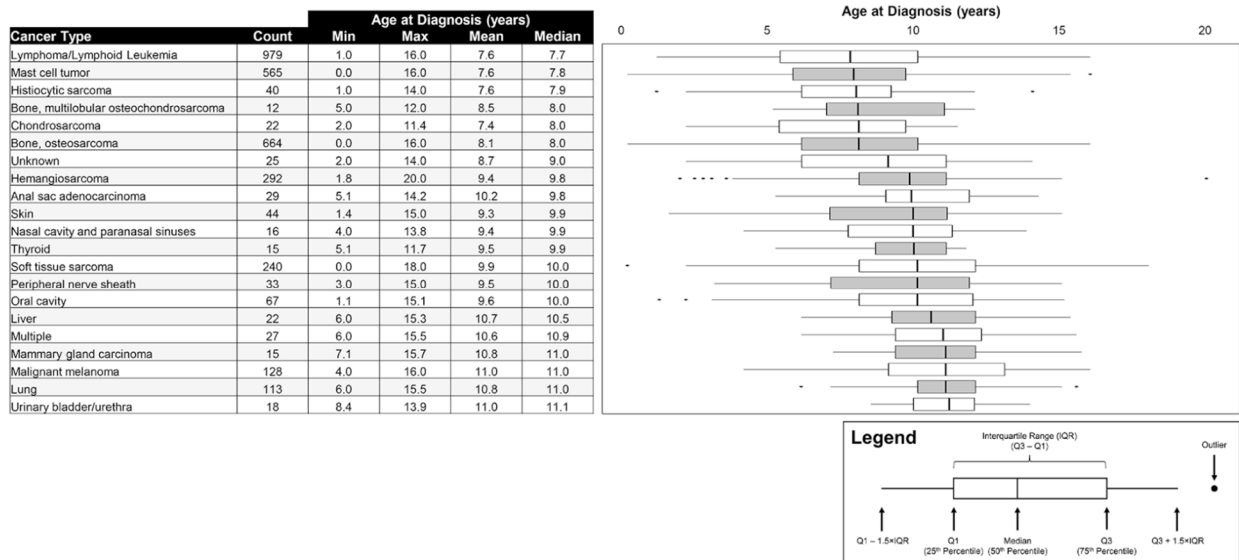
215

216 *Age at cancer diagnosis for common cancer types*

217 The median age at cancer diagnosis was analyzed for cancer types represented by at least
218 10 subjects (n=21 cancer types). Lymphoma/lymphoid leukemia, mast cell tumor, and histiocytic
219 sarcoma all showed median ages at diagnosis younger than age 8; whereas malignant melanoma
220 and cancers of the mammary gland, lung, and urinary bladder/urethra showed median ages at
221 diagnosis of 11 years or older (Fig. 7).

222

223 **Figure 7: Age distribution at cancer diagnosis by cancer type (for cancer types represented
224 by 10 or more subjects)**



225

226

227 Discussion

228 Cancer is the leading cause of death in dogs,³⁷ and the presence of preclinical malignancy
229 in significant numbers of canine patients has been extensively documented in studies of
230 incidental findings on imaging, surgery, and necropsy.^{18,21,27,30,44,99,105,122} Multiple veterinary
231 professional organizations recognize the value of early cancer detection for optimizing
232 outcomes,^{4,9,10,12} and veterinary academic institutions have issued prevention and screening
233 recommendations for cancer in dogs.^{28,29} However, formal guidelines for earlier detection of
234 cancer through regular screening programs do not currently exist in veterinary medicine as they

235 do in human medicine.^{6,38} It is important to note that the term “screening” is used here in the
236 strict sense,^{6,87} referring to measures taken to detect cancer preclinically in canine patients that
237 are at higher risk for the disease due to age or breed but do not currently have clinical signs
238 indicative of cancer.

239 Recently, liquid biopsy using next generation sequencing of cell-free DNA was
240 introduced as a novel, non-invasive option for cancer screening in dogs.³⁸ With the availability of
241 a blood-based cancer test, the question of *how* to screen dogs for cancer may soon shift to *when*
242 to start screening dogs for cancer.

243 To address this question, the current study compiled and analyzed data regarding age at
244 cancer diagnosis in dogs of various breeds and weights to help establish evidence-based
245 recommendations for when to initiate cancer screening.

246 The ages at cancer diagnosis in a population of over 3,400 dogs ranged from <1 year to
247 20 years, with a median of 8.8 years. Overall, in this study population, males were diagnosed
248 with cancer at younger ages than females, and dogs that had been spayed/neutered were
249 diagnosed at significantly later ages compared to their intact counterparts. The impact of
250 spay/neuter status on the lifetime risk of cancer has been studied previously, with mixed
251 findings. For example, the role of hormonal impact has been well documented in the
252 development of mammary gland carcinoma, with a decreased risk in spayed females compared to
253 reproductively intact females.^{106,113} Conversely, other studies have suggested an increased risk
254 for the development of certain types of cancers in spayed/neutered dogs, such as osteosarcoma,
255 lymphoma, prostate cancer, and bladder cancer.^{23,52–54,57,104} Regardless of the lifetime risk for
256 cancer following spay/neuter, the data from the current study suggest that if cancer is going to
257 develop, it will typically be diagnosed at later ages in dogs that are spayed/neutered.

258 When age at cancer diagnosis was analyzed by cancer type, the mean and median ages at
259 cancer diagnosis were found to vary significantly across cancer types, with hematological
260 malignancies and mast cell tumors being diagnosed at much younger ages than malignant
261 melanomas and lung cancers. These findings are consistent with previous literature, where the
262 median age at cancer diagnosis for lymphoma has been reported as 6-9 years,³⁴ while oral
263 malignant melanoma¹⁰¹ and pulmonary tumors⁴⁶ are primarily diseases of older dogs, with
264 reported median ages at diagnosis of 11 years. Furthermore, the mean ages at diagnosis for four
265 common cancers (hemangiosarcoma, lymphoma, mast cell tumor, and osteosarcoma) in the
266 current study are closely aligned with findings from a large study at an academic veterinary
267 center in California, US.²⁰

268 Prior research has found that the lifetime prevalence of common cancers is similar for
269 purebred and mixed-breed dogs, when matched for age, sex, and weight²⁰ Building on this
270 research, the current study further evaluated the age at which cancer is diagnosed and found that
271 purebred dogs were diagnosed at significantly younger ages than mixed-breed dogs. This finding
272 could be explained in part by selective breeding methods, which may perpetuate germline
273 mutations that predispose certain breeds to cancer at younger ages.³² However, it should be noted
274 that there was wide variability in the age at diagnosis by breed in the purebred cohort in this
275 study, with median ages at diagnosis ranging from 6.0 to 11.5 years (in breeds represented by at
276 least 10 subjects).

277 In this study, weight was independently correlated with age at cancer diagnosis. Many of
278 the breeds with younger ages at cancer diagnosis in Figure 2 were large- and giant-breed dogs.
279 This finding is supported by Figure 5, which shows that weight appears to be inversely related to
280 age at cancer diagnosis in the overall study population. By plotting a median age at diagnosis for
281 various weight brackets of subjects, a formula for the weight-based model was derived: Median
282 Age = $(-0.068 \times \text{Weight}) + 11.104$. This formula can be used to estimate the median age at
283 cancer diagnosis for mixed-breed dogs, or for purebred dogs that have an insufficient number of
284 subjects (<10) to calculate a breed-based median age at diagnosis, if their weight is known.

285 For the 37 breeds with weight data available from at least 10 subjects, a median weight
286 was calculated for dogs comprising each breed (using demographic data from the study
287 population) and entered into the weight-based model. This allowed the breed-based median age
288 at cancer diagnosis (calculated directly from the subjects of that breed) to be compared to a
289 prediction for median age at cancer diagnosis based only on weight. Though the median age at
290 cancer diagnosis by breed versus weight prediction was similar (within one year) for most
291 breeds, certain breeds showed significant deviations; in particular, breed-based data for Bulldogs,
292 Boxers, Vizslas, French Bulldogs, and Boston Terriers showed median ages at cancer diagnosis
293 at least 2 years younger than the weight-predicted ages. This suggests that genetics may play a
294 stronger role in cancer onset in certain breeds, resulting in younger ages at diagnosis. This aligns
295 with observations from an analysis of cancer claims in more than 1.6 million dogs covered by a
296 leading US pet health insurer over a six-year period, which found significant differences among
297 breeds for both overall relative cancer risk and for average age at first cancer claim. Extensive
298 similarities were noted between the findings of that analysis and those of the present study; for
299 example, Boxers, Great Danes, and French Bulldogs had significantly younger median ages at
300 cancer diagnosis (and average ages at first cancer claim) compared to Beagles, Miniature
301 Schnauzers, and Shih Tzus.⁹⁰

302 The lifetime risk of cancer as well as cancer mortality in dogs are known to vary
303 significantly by breed.^{16,32} For example, approximately 50% of Irish Water Spaniels and Flat-
304 Coated Retrievers die of cancer, whereas cancer-related mortality is significantly lower in breeds
305 such as Shih Tzus and Dachshunds. However, even in the least-affected breeds, the rate of
306 mortality from cancer is still in the range of 15-20%.³² For comparison, common
307 pathophysiologic processes such as traumatic, infectious, metabolic, inflammatory, and
308 degenerative each account for 10% or less of deaths in adult dogs, across all breeds.³⁷ Cancer is a
309 leading cause of death even among breeds that are relatively less affected by cancer, suggesting
310 that all dogs – regardless of breed – would derive preventive benefit from regular cancer
311 screening.³⁸

312 Once an approximate age at which cancer may be diagnosed in each dog is calculated,
313 based on breed-specific data or the weight-based model, an “age to initiate screening” can be
314 derived.

315 Cancer progression timelines are well established in human oncology for multiple types
316 of cancer, and are used to inform recommendations for appropriate screening intervals.^{25,88,110,120}
317 A recent analysis estimated a latency range of 2.2 to 35.7 years for lymphoproliferative and
318 hematopoietic cancers, and 6.6 to 57 years for solid malignancies, with 35 of the 44 cancer types
319 in the analysis found to progress silently for 10 years or longer prior to detection.⁸⁵ Other studies,
320 focusing on genomic evolution timelines across many human cancers, have similarly shown that

321 driver mutations often precede diagnosis by many years to decades.⁴² Analyses focusing on
322 specific cancer types have demonstrated that it takes approximately 17 years for a large benign
323 tumor to evolve into advanced colorectal cancer, but less than 2 additional years for cells within
324 that advanced cancer to acquire metastatic potential;⁶⁴ and in pancreatic cancer, approximately
325 20 years will pass from the initiation of tumorigenesis until end-stage disease, with metastasis
326 occurring only within the last 2-3 years.¹²⁶ In the recurrence setting, a long-term follow-up study
327 in breast cancer documented recurrence in approximately 25% of patients at distant sites, up to
328 20 years after the initial curative-intent treatment.³⁶

329 These clinical observations are consistent with tumor growth estimates based on reported
330 tumor doubling times, which have been studied extensively in human cancer. Doubling times of
331 30 to 300 or more days have been reported for many common cancer types, with significant
332 variation noted across tumor stages, tumor types, and individual patients.^{13,33,41,65,80,93,118} It is
333 generally accepted that a malignant mass becomes clinically detectable (on physical exam or
334 imaging) once it reaches a volume of approximately 1 cm³ (1.2 cm diameter), at which point it
335 contains upwards of 1 billion cells and weighs approximately 1 gram.^{31,35,45,56} Using these
336 doubling times, corresponding latency periods can be calculated for cancer in humans, and range
337 from 4 to 25 years, consistent with the clinical studies described above.

338 Biologically, a similar progression of cancer over an extended period of time is likely to
339 occur in dogs, albeit on a shorter timescale than in humans given the compressed canine
340 lifespan.²⁵ Studies of spontaneous and induced canine cancer models have provided estimates of
341 *in vivo* tumor doubling times ranging widely from several days to over 100 days, depending on
342 tumor type and method of measurement, and varying widely across individuals.^{19,75,95,96,116} These
343 doubling times would correspond to latency periods of 1 to 3 years based on the calculation
344 presented above. However, these estimates are likely conservative since cancer is not typically
345 diagnosed as soon as it reaches the threshold of clinical detection; in dogs, cancers are often
346 diagnosed, or present for treatment, in the range of 2.5 to 10 cm^{49,62,63,74,78,83,98,105,107,108,117}
347 (containing 10 billion to 500 billion cells), corresponding to latency periods upwards of 5 years.
348 This estimate is consistent with multi-year latency periods previously documented in dogs
349 following exposure to ionizing radiation: 2 to 10+ years for bone malignancies,^{43,59,76} 2 to 4 years
350 for hemangiosarcomas,¹¹⁶ 4 to 10+ years for hepatic malignancies,⁴⁸ and 3 to 10+ years for
351 pulmonary malignancies.⁸⁴

352 It is also important to note that tumor growth is not linear during the course of cancer
353 progression. Growth tends to be rapid very early in the disease process but slows considerably by
354 the time the disease reaches a clinically detectable size. This progressive increase in the tumor
355 doubling time as the tumor gets bigger is described by Gompertzian growth kinetics (or the
356 Gompertz curve)^{71,115} and is recognized as a feature of both human^{1,2,40,50,94} and canine^{14,124}
357 malignancies. This non-linear growth trajectory further supports the value of general screening,
358 as it implies a relatively long period when the presence of preclinical but detectable cancer could
359 be confirmed by standard clinical evaluation methods, following a positive screening result.

360 The relatively long duration of cancer progression, in humans and in dogs, affords
361 multiple opportunities for earlier detection over the lifespan through screening at regular
362 intervals.^{5,22,35,56,65,80} In humans, it is recommended to start screening for cancer prior to the peak
363 incidence of age at cancer diagnosis, as noted in breast cancer, where peak incidence occurs in
364 the age group 55-64⁸⁶ and annual or biennial screening mammograms are recommended starting

365 at age 45-50 (or earlier ages for high-risk individuals)^{8,39}; or in prostate cancer, where peak
366 incidence occurs in the age group 65-74⁸⁶ and annual or biennial screening is advised to start at
367 age 50 (or earlier ages for high-risk individuals)⁷. Large-scale longitudinal studies are needed to
368 accurately determine the optimal timing and interval of cancer screening in dogs. One such
369 study, the Cancer Lifetime Assessment Screening Study in Canines (CLASSiC) was launched in
370 December 2021 (PetDx, La Jolla, CA); the study aims to prospectively follow over 1,000
371 initially cancer-free dogs, with semi-annual liquid biopsy testing and comprehensive
372 documentation of cancer-related clinical outcomes, over many years.^{26,97}

373 Considering estimated timeframes for cancer development in dogs, a prudent
374 recommendation would be to start screening for cancer 2 years prior to the median age at
375 diagnosis. In the current study, the median age at diagnosis was close to 9 years (8.8 years),
376 supporting a recommended screening age of 7 years for all dogs. For dogs belonging to breeds
377 with an earlier median age at cancer diagnosis (6 to 7 years), screening should begin as early as 4
378 years of age. In the current study, 58.3% of subjects (2,012/3,452) were diagnosed with cancer at
379 or before 9 years of age. Indeed, even in breeds with a median age at diagnosis of 10 or greater
380 (Figure 2), 38.0% of subjects (108/284) were diagnosed at or before 9 years of age, reinforcing
381 the benefits of starting to screen no later than age 7 even in those breeds.

382 This recommendation would align with a screening paradigm centered around a dog's
383 annual or semiannual wellness visit,^{3,5} with serial testing to increase the opportunity for early
384 detection and intervention. In human cancer screening, the value of repeat (interval) testing is
385 well documented, as it results in a higher cumulative detection rate over the lifespan compared to
386 a single testing event, since each successive test provides an additional opportunity for
387 detection.^{66,68,81,128} A similar scenario is likely to be observed in cancer screening programs for
388 canine patients.³⁸

389 The strengths of this study include the large size of the overall cohort and the wide range
390 of breeds and cancer types represented; however, there are several limitations to acknowledge as
391 well.

392 For subjects from Cohort 2, the subject's "age at collection" was used as a proxy for "age
393 at cancer diagnosis". In doing so, the data presented likely overestimates the actual age at
394 diagnosis, to an unknown extent (possibly by weeks or months). One possible mitigation is that
395 Cohort 2 subjects had their "age at collection" reported in years, rather than years and months,
396 potentially offsetting some of this putative overestimation.

397 Additionally, the subjects from Cohort 2 and Cohort 3 represented a skewed distribution
398 of cancer types. As noted above, the collection of subjects for Cohort 2 (the Canine Comparative
399 Oncology and Genomics Consortium Biospecimen Repository) was primarily focused on
400 enrolling seven pre-defined cancer types; and Cohort 3 (from the Veterinary Medical Teaching
401 Hospital at the University of California – Davis) has only provided data for four cancer types.
402 These selection biases may have enriched this study for dogs with certain demographic
403 characteristics, because particular cancer types may disproportionately affect dogs of certain
404 breeds, weights or ages; and may have also impacted the estimate for median age at cancer
405 diagnosis for a given breed, if certain cancers were under- or over-represented for that breed in
406 the Cohorts 2 and 3 datasets.

407 For the cohort of purebred dogs, the median age at cancer diagnosis was calculated for
408 breeds represented by at least 10 subjects. It is unclear whether this is a sufficient number of
409 subjects for deriving a valid median age at cancer diagnosis for each of these breeds. More
410 accurate calculations are expected in the future as larger datasets are collected to inform each of
411 the breed-based estimates.

412 Another limitation is that breed assignments were provided by the enrolling site, with no
413 way to ensure the accuracy of this information. Furthermore, approximately 2% of dogs were
414 assigned a breed of “other”, with no further information to assign them to a breed category. This
415 small cohort of dogs was combined with the mixed-breed cohort for purposes of data analysis;
416 however, it should be acknowledged that an undefined number of these dogs could be purebred.

417 Regarding the geographical distribution of subjects, it is estimated that over 95% of dogs
418 in this study were from the United States. This factor may limit the generalizability of the study
419 findings to other geographies in which different environmental characteristics, spay-neuter
420 practices, breed distributions, or other considerations may play a role in age at cancer diagnosis.

421 Lastly, an assessment of age at diagnosis by breed or weight for specific cancer types was
422 beyond the scope of the current study. This remains an opportunity for future research.

423 The clinical benefits of earlier cancer detection have been extensively documented in
424 humans^{55,60,89,100} as well as in dogs^{15,17,22,58,70,72,73,77,92,102,103,111,112,114,119,123,125}, and major
425 veterinary professional organizations have emphasized these benefits through statements such as
426 “early detection is critical for the best outcome” and “neoplasia is frequently treatable and early
427 diagnosis will aid [the] veterinarian in delivering the best care possible”.^{4,10} The introduction of novel
428 cancer screening tools for dogs raises the important question of when to start screening for
429 cancer.³⁸ This study aims to provide an evidence-based foundation for answering this question by
430 examining the ages at which dogs of various breeds and weights are typically diagnosed with
431 cancer. The study findings support a general recommendation to start screening all dogs at the
432 age of 7, and as early as 4 years of age for breeds that have a lower median age at cancer
433 diagnosis, in order to increase the chances of early detection and treatment. As additional
434 epidemiological data from larger cohorts become available and are incorporated into these
435 algorithms, recommended screening ages can be more accurately determined, particularly for
436 breeds that are underrepresented in this study.

437

438 **Acknowledgments**

439 The authors would like to thank all of the dogs (and the humans who love and care for them)
440 enrolled in the various studies that contributed data for this manuscript. Dominique Lau for her
441 assistance creating tables, figures, and graphics to support the visual representation of data
442 associated with this manuscript. Dr. Benjamin L. Hart, Dr. Lynette A. Hart, Abigail P. Thigpen
443 and Dr. Neil H. Willits for the collection and publication of data in the Hart *et al.* 2020 study that
444 were incorporated into the present study as “Cohort 3” (citation 24).

445

446 **Declaration of conflicting interests**

447 All authors are employees and shareholders of PetDx, Inc.

448 **Funding**

449 All data analysis for this study was fully funded by PetDx, Inc. Data from the Cohort 2
450 corresponded to samples purchased by PetDx from the National Cancer Institute Division of
451 Cancer Treatment and Diagnosis Biological Testing Tumor Repository, deposited by the Canine
452 Comparative Oncology Genetics Consortium. The authors received no external financial support
453 for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

454

455 **References**

456

457 1. Akanuma A. Parameter analysis of Gompertzian function growth model in clinical tumors.
458 *European J Cancer* 1965. 1978;14(6):681-688. doi:10.1016/0014-2964(78)90304-3

459 2. Albano G, Giorno V, Román-Román P, Torres-Ruiz F. Inferring the effect of therapy on
460 tumors showing stochastic Gompertzian growth. *J Theor Biol.* 2011;276(1):67-77.
461 doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2011.01.040

462 3. American Animal Hospital Association. Approach to the apparently healthy senior pet.
463 Accessed March 29, 2022. <https://www.aaha.org/aaha-guidelines/senior-care-configuration/approach-to-the-apparently-healthy-senior-pet/>

465 4. American Animal Hospital Association. Is my dog at risk for cancer? Accessed March 28,
466 2022. <https://www.aaha.org/your-pet/pet-owner-education/ask-aaha/canine-cancer/>

467 5. American Animal Hospital Association, American Veterinary Medical Association. AAHA-
468 AVMA Canine Preventive Healthcare Guidelines. Accessed February 8, 2022.
469 [https://www.aaha.org/globalassets/02-guidelines/preventive-
470 healthcare/caninepreventiveguidelines_ppph.pdf](https://www.aaha.org/globalassets/02-guidelines/preventive-healthcare/caninepreventiveguidelines_ppph.pdf)

471 6. American Cancer Society. American Cancer Society Guidelines for the Early Detection of
472 Cancer. Accessed March 28, 2022. [https://www.cancer.org/healthy/find-cancer-early/american-
473 cancer-society-guidelines-for-the-early-detection-of-cancer.html](https://www.cancer.org/healthy/find-cancer-early/american-cancer-society-guidelines-for-the-early-detection-of-cancer.html)

474 7. American Cancer Society. American Cancer Society Recommendations for Prostate Cancer
475 Early Detection. Published April 23, 2021. Accessed February 8, 2022.
476 [https://www.cancer.org/cancer/prostate-cancer/detection-diagnosis-staging/acs-
477 recommendations.html](https://www.cancer.org/cancer/prostate-cancer/detection-diagnosis-staging/acs-recommendations.html)

478 8. American Cancer Society. American Cancer Society screening recommendations for women
479 at average breast cancer risk. Published January 14, 2022. Accessed February 8, 2022.
480 [https://www.cancer.org/cancer/breast-cancer/screening-tests-and-early-detection/american-
481 cancer-society-recommendations-for-the-early-detection-of-breast-cancer.html](https://www.cancer.org/cancer/breast-cancer/screening-tests-and-early-detection/american-cancer-society-recommendations-for-the-early-detection-of-breast-cancer.html)

- 482 9. American Kennel Club Canine Health Foundation. Cancer in the dog. Accessed March 28,
483 2022. [https://www.akcchf.org/canine-health/top-health-concerns/canine-cancer/cancer-in-the-](https://www.akcchf.org/canine-health/top-health-concerns/canine-cancer/cancer-in-the-dog.html)
484 [dog.html](https://www.akcchf.org/canine-health/top-health-concerns/canine-cancer/cancer-in-the-dog.html)
- 485 10. American Veterinary Medical Association. Cancer in pets. Accessed March 28, 2022.
486 <https://www.avma.org/resources/pet-owners/petcare/cancer-pets>
- 487 11. Amin MB, Gress DM, Vega LRM, et al. *AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Eighth Edition*.
488 Eighth Edition. American College of Surgeons; 2018. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-40618-3
- 489 12. Animal Cancer Foundation. 10 Warning signs of cancer. Accessed March 28, 2022.
490 <https://acfoundation.org/the-10-warning-signs-of-cancer/>
- 491 13. Aoki T, Nakata H, Watanabe H, et al. Evolution of Peripheral Lung Adenocarcinomas: CT
492 Findings Correlated with Histology and Tumor Doubling Time. *Am J Roentgenol*.
493 2000;174(3):763-768. doi:10.2214/ajr.174.3.1740763
- 494 14. Argyle DJ, Brearley MJ, Turek MM. *Decision Making in Small Animal Oncology*. Wiley-
495 Blackwell; 2009.
- 496 15. Bacon NJ, Dernell WS, Ehrhart N, Powers BE, Withrow SJ. Evaluation of primary re-
497 excision after recent inadequate resection of soft tissue sarcomas in dogs: 41 cases (1999–2004).
498 *J Am Vet Med Assoc*. 2007;230(4):548-554. doi:10.2460/javma.230.4.548
- 499 16. Baioni E, Scanziani E, Vincenti MC, et al. Estimating canine cancer incidence: findings from
500 a population-based tumour registry in northwestern Italy. *BMC Vet Res*. 2017;13(1):203.
501 doi:10.1186/s12917-017-1126-0
- 502 17. Batschinski K, Nobre A, Vargas-Mendez E, et al. Canine visceral hemangiosarcoma treated
503 with surgery alone or surgery and doxorubicin: 37 cases (2005-2014). *Can Vet J La Revue*
504 *Veterinaire Can*. 2018;59(9):967-972.
- 505 18. Baum JI, Boston SE, Case JB. Prevalence of adrenal gland masses as incidental findings
506 during abdominal computed tomography in dogs: 270 cases (2013–2014). *J Am Vet Med Assoc*.
507 2016;249(10):1165-1169. doi:10.2460/javma.249.10.1165
- 508 19. Bech-Nielsen S, Reif JS, Brodey RS. The Use of Tumor Doubling Time in Veterinary
509 Clinical Oncology1. *Vet Radiology*. 1976;17(3):113-116. doi:10.1111/j.1740-
510 8261.1976.tb00561.x
- 511 20. Bellumori TP, Famula TR, Bannasch DL, Belanger JM, Oberbauer AM. Prevalence of
512 inherited disorders among mixed-breed and purebred dogs: 27,254 cases (1995-2010). *J Am Vet*
513 *Med Assoc*. 2013;242(11):1549-1555. doi:10.2460/javma.242.11.1549

- 514 21. Bertolini G, Drigo M, Angeloni L, Caldin M. Incidental and nonincidental canine thyroid
515 tumors assessed by multidetector row computer tomography: a single-centre cross sectional
516 study in 4520 dogs. *Vet Radiol Ultrasoun*. 2017;58(3):304-314. doi:10.1111/vru.12477
- 517 22. Boerman I, Selvarajah GT, Nielen M, Kirpensteijn J. Prognostic factors in canine
518 appendicular osteosarcoma – a meta-analysis. *BMC Vet Res*. 2012;8(1):56. doi:10.1186/1746-
519 6148-8-56
- 520 23. Bryan JN, Keeler MR, Henry CJ, Bryan ME, Hahn AW, Caldwell CW. A population study
521 of neutering status as a risk factor for canine prostate cancer. *Prostate*. 2007;67(11):1174-1181.
522 doi:10.1002/pros.20590
- 523 24. Cheng K, Soh P, Bennett P, Williamson P. Lymphoma in Australian Border Collies: survey
524 results and pedigree analyses. *Aust Vet J*. 2019;97(1-2):14-22. doi:10.1111/avj.12780
- 525 25. Chibuk J, Flory A, Kruglyak KM, et al. Horizons in Veterinary Precision Oncology:
526 Fundamentals of Cancer Genomics and Applications of Liquid Biopsy for the Detection,
527 Characterization, and Management of Cancer in Dogs. *Frontiers Vet Sci*. 2021;8:664718.
528 doi:10.3389/fvets.2021.664718
- 529 26. Clifford CA, Mullin C. Clinical trial to evaluate OncoK9 liquid biopsy test for dogs.
530 Published January 30, 2022. Accessed February 8, 2022.
531 <https://www.dvm360.com/view/clinical-trial-to-evaluate-oncok9-liquid-biopsy-test-for-dogs>
- 532 27. Cook AK, Spaulding KA, Edwards JF. Clinical findings in dogs with incidental adrenal
533 gland lesions determined by ultrasonography: 151 cases (2007–2010). *J Am Vet Med Assoc*.
534 2014;244(10):1181-1185. doi:10.2460/javma.244.10.1181
- 535 28. Cornell University College of Veterinary Medicine. General Recommendations for Cancer
536 Screening. Accessed March 28, 2022. [https://www.vet.cornell.edu/departments-centers-and-
537 institutes/sprecher-institute-comparative-cancer-research/cancer-care-cuha/general-
538 recommendations-cancer-screening](https://www.vet.cornell.edu/departments-centers-and-institutes/sprecher-institute-comparative-cancer-research/cancer-care-cuha/general-recommendations-cancer-screening)
- 539 29. Cornell University College of Veterinary Medicine. Specific Prevention and Screening for
540 Cancer. Accessed March 28, 2022. [https://www.vet.cornell.edu/departments-centers-and-
541 institutes/sprecher-institute-comparative-cancer-research/cancer-care-cuha/specific-prevention-
542 and-screening-cancer](https://www.vet.cornell.edu/departments-centers-and-institutes/sprecher-institute-comparative-cancer-research/cancer-care-cuha/specific-prevention-and-screening-cancer)
- 543 30. Dank G, Segev G, Moshe D, Kent MS. Follow-up study comparing necropsy rates and
544 discrepancies between clinical and pathologic diagnoses at a veterinary teaching hospital: 2009
545 versus 1989 and 1999. *J Small Anim Pract*. 2012;53(12):679-683. doi:10.1111/j.1748-
546 5827.2012.01296.x
- 547 31. DelMonte U. Does the cell number 10⁹ still really fit one gram of tumor tissue? *Cell Cycle*.
548 2009;8(3):505-506. doi:10.4161/cc.8.3.7608

- 549 32. Dobson JM. Breed-Predispositions to Cancer in Pedigree Dogs. *Isrn Vet Sci.* 2013;2013:1-
550 23. doi:10.1155/2013/941275
- 551 33. Encyclopedia of Cancer. Published online 2017:1576-1576. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-16483-
552 5_2473
- 553 34. Ernst T, Kessler M, Lautscham E, Willimzig L, Neiger R. Das multizentrische Lymphom bei
554 411 Hunden – eine epidemiologische Studie [Multicentric lymphoma in 411 dogs - An
555 epidemiological study]. *Tierärztliche Praxis Ausgabe K Kleintiere Heimtiere.* 2016;44(04):245-
556 251. doi:10.15654/tpk-150338
- 557 35. Fiala C, Diamandis EP. Utility of circulating tumor DNA in cancer diagnostics with
558 emphasis on early detection. *BMC Med.* 2018;16(1):166. doi:10.1186/s12916-018-1157-9
- 559 36. Fisher B, Anderson S, Bryant J, et al. Twenty-Year Follow-up of a Randomized Trial
560 Comparing Total Mastectomy, Lumpectomy, and Lumpectomy plus Irradiation for the
561 Treatment of Invasive Breast Cancer. *New Engl J Medicine.* 2002;347(16):1233-1241.
562 doi:10.1056/nejmoa022152
- 563 37. Fleming JM, Creevy KE, Promislow DEL. Mortality in North American Dogs from 1984 to
564 2004: An Investigation into Age-, Size-, and Breed-Related Causes of Death. *J Vet Intern Med.*
565 2011;25(2):187-198. doi:10.1111/j.1939-1676.2011.0695.x
- 566 38. Flory A, Kruglyak KM, Tynan JA, et al. Clinical validation of a next-generation sequencing-
567 based multi-cancer early detection “liquid biopsy” blood test in over 1,000 dogs using an
568 independent testing set: The CANcer Detection in Dogs (CANDiD) study. *In press.*
- 569 39. Force USPST. Breast Cancer: Screening. Accessed February 8, 2022.
570 <https://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/uspstf/recommendation/breast-cancer-screening>
- 571 40. Fornalski KW, Reszczyńska J, Dobrzynski L, Wysocki P, Janiak MK. Possible Source of the
572 Gompertz Law of Proliferating Cancer Cells: Mechanistic Modeling of Tumor Growth. *Acta*
573 *Physica Polonica A.* 138(6):854-862. doi:10.12693/aphyspola.138.854
- 574 41. Friberg S, Mattson S. On the growth rates of human malignant tumors: Implications for
575 medical decision making. *J Surg Oncol.* 1997;65(4):284-297. doi:10.1002/(sici)1096-
576 9098(199708)65:4<284::aid-jsol11>3.0.co;2-2
- 577 42. Gerstung M, Jolly C, Leshchiner I, et al. The evolutionary history of 2,658 cancers. *Nature.*
578 2020;578(7793):122-128. doi:10.1038/s41586-019-1907-7
- 579 43. Gillette SM, Gillette EL, Powers BE, Withrow SJ. Radiation-induced osteosarcoma in dogs
580 after external beam or intraoperative radiation therapy. *Cancer Res.* 1990;50(1):54-57.
581 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2403417/>

- 582 44. Gilson SD, Withrow SJ, Wheeler SL, Twedt DC. Pheochromocytoma in 50 Dogs. *J Vet*
583 *Intern Med.* 1994;8(3):228-232. doi:10.1111/j.1939-1676.1994.tb03222.x
- 584 45. Greenfield LJ, Mulholland MW, Oldham KT, Zelenock GB, Lillemoe KD. *Essentials of*
585 *Surgery: Scientific Principles and Practice.* (Wilkins LW&, ed.); 1998.
- 586 46. Griffey SM, Kraegel SA, Madewell BR. Rapid detection of K-ras gene mutations in canine
587 lung cancer using single-strand conformational polymorphism analysis. *Carcinogenesis.*
588 1998;19(6):959-963. doi:10.1093/carcin/19.6.959
- 589 47. Grüntzig K, Graf R, Boo G, et al. Swiss Canine Cancer Registry 1955–2008: Occurrence of
590 the Most Common Tumour Diagnoses and Influence of Age, Breed, Body Size, Sex and
591 Neutering Status on Tumour Development. *J Comp Pathol.* 2016;155(2-3):156-170.
592 doi:10.1016/j.jcpa.2016.05.011
- 593 48. Hahn FF, Muggenburg BA, Boecker BB. Hepatic Neoplasms from Internally Deposited
594 144CeCl₃*. *Toxicologic Pathology.* 1997;24(3):281-289.
- 595 49. Hahn FF, Muggenburg BA, Griffith WC. Primary Lung Neoplasia in a Beagle Colony. *Vet*
596 *Pathol.* 1996;33(6):633-638. doi:10.1177/030098589603300601
- 597 50. Hanin L, Bunimovich-Mendrazitsky S. Reconstruction of the natural history of metastatic
598 cancer and assessment of the effects of surgery: Gompertzian growth of the primary tumor. *Math*
599 *Biosci.* 2014;247:47-58. doi:10.1016/j.mbs.2013.10.010
- 600 51. Harari J, Patterson JS, Rosenthal RC. Clinical and pathologic features of thyroid tumors in 26
601 dogs. *J Am Vet Med Assoc.* 1986;188(10):1160-1164.
- 602 52. Hart BL, Hart LA, Thigpen AP, Willits NH. Assisting Decision-Making on Age of Neutering
603 for 35 Breeds of Dogs: Associated Joint Disorders, Cancers, and Urinary Incontinence. *Frontiers*
604 *Vet Sci.* 2020;7:388. doi:10.3389/fvets.2020.00388
- 605 53. Hart BL, Hart LA, Thigpen AP, Willits NH. Assisting Decision-Making on Age of Neutering
606 for Mixed Breed Dogs of Five Weight Categories: Associated Joint Disorders and Cancers.
607 *Frontiers Vet Sci.* 2020;7:472. doi:10.3389/fvets.2020.00472
- 608 54. Hart BL, Hart LA, Thigpen AP, Willits NH. Long-Term Health Effects of Neutering Dogs:
609 Comparison of Labrador Retrievers with Golden Retrievers. *PLOS One.* 2014;9(7):e102241.
610 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0102241
- 611 55. Hawkes N. Cancer survival data emphasise importance of early diagnosis. *BMJ.*
612 2019;364:l408. doi:10.1136/bmj.l408
- 613 56. Hesketh R. *Introduction to Cancer Biology.* Cambridge University Press; 2012.

- 614 57. Hoffman JM, Creevy KE, Promislow DEL. Reproductive Capability Is Associated with
615 Lifespan and Cause of Death in Companion Dogs. *PLOS One*. 2013;8(4):e61082.
616 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061082
- 617 58. Horta RS, Lavalle GE, Monteiro LN, Souza MCC, Cassali GD, Araújo RB. Assessment of
618 Canine Mast Cell Tumor Mortality Risk Based on Clinical, Histologic, Immunohistochemical,
619 and Molecular Features. *Vet Pathol*. 2018;55(2):212-223. doi:10.1177/0300985817747325
- 620 59. Hosoya K, Poulson JM, Azuma C. Osteoradionecrosis and radiation induced bone tumors
621 following orthovoltage radiation therapy in dogs. *Vet Radiol Ultrasound*. 2008;49(2):189-195.
622 doi:10.1111/j.1740-8261.2008.00349.x
- 623 60. Hubbell E, Clarke CA, Aravanis AM, Berg CD. Modeled reductions in late-stage cancer with
624 a multi-cancer early detection test. *Cancer Epidemiology Prev Biomarkers*. Published online
625 2020:cebp.1134.2020. doi:10.1158/1055-9965.epi-20-1134
- 626 61. Hugen S, Thomas RE, German AJ, Burgener IA, Mandigers PJJ. Gastric carcinoma in
627 canines and humans, a review. *Vet Comp Oncol*. 2017;15(3):692-705. doi:10.1111/vco.12249
- 628 62. Itoh T, Kojimoto A, Uchida K, Chambers J, Shii H. Long-term postsurgical outcomes of
629 mast cell tumors resected with a margin proportional to the tumor diameter in 23 dogs. *J Vet Med*
630 *Sci*. Published online 2020:20-0281. doi:10.1292/jvms.20-0281
- 631 63. Iwaki Y, Lindley S, Smith A, Curran KM, Looper J. Canine myxosarcomas, a retrospective
632 analysis of 32 dogs (2003–2018). *Bmc Vet Res*. 2019;15(1):217. doi:10.1186/s12917-019-1956-z
- 633 64. Jones S, Chen W dong, Parmigiani G, et al. Comparative lesion sequencing provides insights
634 into tumor evolution. *Proc National Acad Sci*. 2008;105(11):4283-4288.
635 doi:10.1073/pnas.0712345105
- 636 65. Kay K, Dolcy K, Bies R, Shah DK. Estimation of Solid Tumor Doubling Times from
637 Progression-Free Survival Plots Using a Novel Statistical Approach. *AAPS J*. 2019;21(2):27.
638 doi:10.1208/s12248-019-0302-5
- 639 66. Keen JD, Keen JE. What is the point: will screening mammography save my life? *BMC Med*
640 *Inform Decis*. 2009;9(1):18-18. doi:10.1186/1472-6947-9-18
- 641 67. Kent MS, Burton JH, Dank G, Bannasch DL, Rebhun RB. Association of cancer-related
642 mortality, age and gonadectomy in golden retriever dogs at a veterinary academic center (1989-
643 2016). *PLOS One*. 2018;13(2):e0192578. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0192578
- 644 68. Kooyker AI, Toes-Zoutendijk E, Winden AWJO, et al. The second round of the Dutch
645 colorectal cancer screening program: Impact of an increased fecal immunochemical test cut-off
646 level on yield of screening. *Int J Cancer*. 2020;147(4):1098-1106. doi:10.1002/ijc.32839

- 647 69. Kruglyak KM, Chibuk J, McLennan L, et al. Blood-Based Liquid Biopsy for Comprehensive
648 Cancer Genomic Profiling Using Next-Generation Sequencing: An Emerging Paradigm for Non-
649 invasive Cancer Detection and Management in Dogs. *Frontiers Vet Sci*. 2021;8:704835.
650 doi:10.3389/fvets.2021.704835
- 651 70. Kuntz CA, Dernell WS, Powers BE, Devitt C, Straw RC, Withrow SJ. Prognostic factors for
652 surgical treatment of soft-tissue sarcomas in dogs: 75 cases (1986-1996). *J Am Vet Med Assoc*.
653 1997;211(9):1147-1151. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9364229/>
- 654 71. Laird AK. Dynamics of Tumor Growth. *Brit J Cancer*. 1964;18(3):490-502.
655 doi:10.1038/bjc.1964.55
- 656 72. Lautscham EM, Kessler M, Ernst T, Willimzig L, Neiger R. Comparison of a CHOP-LAsp-
657 based protocol with and without maintenance for canine multicentric lymphoma. *Vet Rec*.
658 2017;180(12):303. doi:10.1136/vr.104077
- 659 73. Lee BM, Clarke D, Watson M, Laver T. Retrospective evaluation of a modified human lung
660 cancer stage classification in dogs with surgically excised primary pulmonary carcinomas. *Vet*
661 *Comp Oncol*. Published online 2020. doi:10.1111/vco.12582
- 662 74. Lee M, Park J, Choi H, Lee H, Jeong SM. Presurgical assessment of splenic tumors in dogs:
663 a retrospective study of 57 cases (2012–2017). *J Vet Sci*. 2018;19(6):827-834.
664 doi:10.4142/jvs.2018.19.6.827
- 665 75. Lloyd RD, Angus W, Taylor GN, Thurman GB, Miller SC. Occurrence of Metastases in
666 Beagles With Skeletal Malignancies Induced by Internal Irradiation. *Health Phys*.
667 1994;66(3):293-299. doi:10.1097/00004032-199403000-00009
- 668 76. Lloyd RD, Taylor GN, Angus W, Miller SC, Boecker BB. Skeletal Malignancies Among
669 Beagles Injected With 241Am. *Health Phys*. 1994;66(2):172-177. doi:10.1097/00004032-
670 199402000-00007
- 671 77. Manley CA, Leibman NF, Wolchok JD, et al. Xenogeneic Murine Tyrosinase DNA Vaccine
672 for Malignant Melanoma of the Digit of Dogs. *J Vet Intern Med*. 2011;25(1):94-99.
673 doi:10.1111/j.1939-1676.2010.0627.x
- 674 78. Martin TW, Griffin L, Custis J, et al. Outcome and prognosis for canine appendicular
675 osteosarcoma treated with stereotactic body radiation therapy in 123 dogs. *Vet Comp Oncol*.
676 2021;19(2):284-294. doi:10.1111/vco.12674
- 677 79. Mazcko C, Thomas R. The Establishment of the Pfizer-Canine Comparative Oncology and
678 Genomics Consortium Biospecimen Repository. *Vet Sci*. 2015;2(3):127-130.
679 doi:10.3390/vetsci2030127

- 680 80. Mehrara E, Forssell-Aronsson E, Ahlman H, Bernhardt P. Specific Growth Rate versus
681 Doubling Time for Quantitative Characterization of Tumor Growth Rate. *Cancer Res.*
682 2007;67(8):3970-3975. doi:10.1158/0008-5472.can-06-3822
- 683 81. Melnikow J, Henderson JT, Burda BU, Senger CA, Durbin S, Weyrich MS. Screening for
684 Cervical Cancer With High-Risk Human Papillomavirus Testing: Updated Evidence Report and
685 Systematic Review for the US Preventive Services Task Force. *JAMA.* 2018;320(7):687-705.
686 doi:10.1001/jama.2018.10400
- 687 82. Merlo DF, Rossi L, Pellegrino C, et al. Cancer Incidence in Pet Dogs: Findings of the Animal
688 Tumor Registry of Genoa, Italy. *J Vet Intern Med.* 2008;22(4):976-984. doi:10.1111/j.1939-
689 1676.2008.0133.x
- 690 83. Morgan MJ, Lurie DM, Villamil AJ. Evaluation of tumor volume reduction of nasal
691 carcinomas versus sarcomas in dogs treated with definitive fractionated megavoltage radiation:
692 15 cases (2010–2016). *BMC Res Notes.* 2018;11(1):70. doi:10.1186/s13104-018-3190-3
- 693 84. Muggenburg BA, Guilmette RA, Hahn FF, et al. Radiotoxicity of Inhaled ²³⁹PuO₂ in Dogs.
694 *Radiat Res.* 2008;170(6):736-757. doi:10.1667/rr1409.1
- 695 85. Nadler DL, Zurbenko IG. Estimating Cancer Latency Times Using a Weibull Model. *Adv*
696 *Epidemiology.* 2014;2014:1-8. doi:10.1155/2014/746769
- 697 86. National Cancer Institute. Age Distribution at Diagnosis and Death, CSR 1975-2017.
698 Accessed February 8, 2022.
699 https://seer.cancer.gov/archive/csr/1975_2017/results_merged/topic_age_dist.pdf
- 700 87. National Cancer Institute. Cancer Screening Overview. Accessed March 28, 2022.
701 <https://www.cancer.gov/about-cancer/screening/patient-screening-overview-pdq>
- 702 88. National Cancer Institute. National Cancer Institute Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End
703 Results Program. Accessed February 8, 2022. <https://seer.cancer.gov/>
- 704 89. National Cancer Institute. Screening Tests. Accessed February 1, 2022.
705 <https://www.cancer.gov/about-cancer/screening/screening-tests>
- 706 90. Nationwide. Diversity of risk: Purebred dogs and cancer. Published 2022. Accessed March
707 17, 2022.
708 [https://assets.ctfassets.net/440y9b545yd9/4inMq7Attnq5K1kInWrqcR/01160a4e7cfcbdda1c0248](https://assets.ctfassets.net/440y9b545yd9/4inMq7Attnq5K1kInWrqcR/01160a4e7cfcbdda1c0248d2bafc39be/Nationwide_Diversity_Of_Risk_Purebred_Cancer_White_Paper.pdf)
709 [d2bafc39be/Nationwide_Diversity_Of_Risk_Purebred_Cancer_White_Paper.pdf](https://assets.ctfassets.net/440y9b545yd9/4inMq7Attnq5K1kInWrqcR/01160a4e7cfcbdda1c0248d2bafc39be/Nationwide_Diversity_Of_Risk_Purebred_Cancer_White_Paper.pdf)
- 710 91. Newman SJ, Mrkonjich L, Walker KK, Rohrbach BW. Canine Subcutaneous Mast Cell
711 Tumour: Diagnosis and Prognosis. *J Comp Pathol.* 2007;136(4):231-239.
712 doi:10.1016/j.jcpa.2007.02.003

- 713 92. Nguyen F, Peña L, Ibisch C, et al. Canine invasive mammary carcinomas as models of
714 human breast cancer. Part 1: natural history and prognostic factors. *Breast Cancer Res Tr.*
715 2018;167(3):635-648. doi:10.1007/s10549-017-4548-2
- 716 93. Niknamian S. On the Mathematical Models for Cancer Growth. *J Cancer Stud and Therap.*
717 2020;01(02):26-29. [https://researchinfotext.com/article-details/On-the-Mathematical-Models-](https://researchinfotext.com/article-details/On-the-Mathematical-Models-for-Cancer-Growth#h9)
718 [for-Cancer-Growth#h9](https://researchinfotext.com/article-details/On-the-Mathematical-Models-for-Cancer-Growth#h9)
- 719 94. Norton L, Simon R, Brereton HD, Bogden AE. Predicting the course of Gompertzian growth.
720 *Nature.* 1976;264(5586):542-545. doi:10.1038/264542a0
- 721 95. Peperzeel HAV. Effects of single doses of radiation on lung metastases in man and
722 experimental animals. *European J Cancer* 1965. 1972;8(6):665-675. doi:10.1016/0014-
723 2964(72)90150-8
- 724 96. Perry RE, Weller RE, Buschbom RL, Dagle GE, Park JF. Radiographically determined
725 growth dynamics of primary lung tumors induced in dogs by inhalation of plutonium. *Am J Vet*
726 *Res.* 1992;53(10):1740-1743.
- 727 97. PetDx. Welcoming Veterinarians & Pet Parents to PetDx Clinical Studies. Accessed March
728 11, 2022. <https://petdx.com/clinical-studies/>
- 729 98. Pinard CJ, Hocker SE, Weishaar KM. Clinical outcome in 23 dogs with exocrine pancreatic
730 carcinoma. *Vet Comp Oncol.* Published online 2020. doi:10.1111/vco.12645
- 731 99. Pollard RE, Bohannon LK, Feldman EC. Prevalence of incidental thyroid nodules in
732 ultrasound studies of dogs with hypercalcemia (2008–2013). *Vet Radiol Ultrasoun.*
733 2015;56(1):63-67. doi:10.1111/vru.12181
- 734 100. Post TA. World Cancer Day 2019: Emphasis on Early Detection. Published 2019. Accessed
735 March 17, 2022.
736 <https://ascopost.com/News/59711#:~:text=Benefits%20of%20Early%20Diagnosis&text=Early%20detection%2C%20screening%2C%20and%20diagnosis%20have%20been%20proven%20to%20significantly,and%20complexity%20of%20cancer%20treatment.>
- 739 101. Ramos-Vara JA, Beissenherz ME, Miller MA, et al. Retrospective Study of 338 Canine
740 Oral Melanomas with Clinical, Histologic, and Immunohistochemical Review of 129 Cases. *Vet*
741 *Pathol.* 2000;37(6):597-608. doi:10.1354/vp.37-6-597
- 742 102. Rassnick KM, Bailey DB, Malone EK, et al. Comparison between l-CHOP and an l-CHOP
743 protocol with interposed treatments of CCNU and MOPP (l-CHOP-CCNU-MOPP) for
744 lymphoma in dogs. *Vet Comp Oncol.* 2010;8(4):243-253. doi:10.1111/j.1476-5829.2010.00224.x
- 745 103. Ravicini S, Baines SJ, Taylor A, Amores-Fuster I, Mason SL, Treggiari E. Outcome and
746 prognostic factors in medically treated canine prostatic carcinomas: A multi-institutional study.
747 *Vet Comp Oncol.* 2018;16(4):450-458. doi:10.1111/vco.12400

- 748 104. Riva GT de la, Hart BL, Farver TB, et al. Neutering Dogs: Effects on Joint Disorders and
749 Cancers in Golden Retrievers. *PLOS One*. 2013;8(2):e55937. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0055937
- 750 105. Rose RJ, Worley DR. A Contemporary Retrospective Study of Survival in Dogs With
751 Primary Lung Tumors: 40 Cases (2005–2017). *Frontiers Vet Sci*. 2020;7:519703.
752 doi:10.3389/fvets.2020.519703
- 753 106. Schneider R, Dorn CR, Taylor DO. Factors influencing canine mammary cancer
754 development and postsurgical survival. *J Natl Cancer I*. 1969;43(6):1249-1261.
- 755 107. Shiu KB, Flory AB, Anderson CL, et al. Predictors of outcome in dogs with subcutaneous
756 or intramuscular hemangiosarcoma. *J Am Vet Med Assoc*. 2011;238(4):472-479.
757 doi:10.2460/javma.238.4.472
- 758 108. Skorupski KA, Alarcón CN, Lorimier LP de, LaDouceur EEB, Rodriguez CO, Rebhun RB.
759 Outcome and clinical, pathological, and immunohistochemical factors associated with prognosis
760 for dogs with early-stage anal sac adenocarcinoma treated with surgery alone: 34 cases (2002-
761 2013). *J Am Vet Med Assoc*. 2018;253(1):84-91. doi:10.2460/javma.253.1.84
- 762 109. Smith RA, Andrews KS, Brooks D, et al. Cancer screening in the United States, 2019: A
763 review of current American Cancer Society guidelines and current issues in cancer screening. *Ca*
764 *Cancer J Clin*. 2019;69(3):184-210. doi:10.3322/caac.21557
- 765 110. Smith RA, Andrews KS, Brooks D, et al. Cancer screening in the United States, 2019: A
766 review of current American Cancer Society guidelines and current issues in cancer screening. *Ca*
767 *Cancer J Clin*. 2019;69(3):184-210. doi:10.3322/caac.21557
- 768 111. Sorenmo K, Overley B, Krick E, Ferrara T, LaBlanc A, Shofer F. Outcome and toxicity
769 associated with a dose-intensified, maintenance-free CHOP-based chemotherapy protocol in
770 canine lymphoma: 130 cases. *Vet Comp Oncol*. 2010;8(3):196-208. doi:10.1111/j.1476-
771 5829.2010.00222.x
- 772 112. Sorenmo KU, Rasotto R, Zappulli V, Goldschmidt MH. Development, Anatomy, Histology,
773 Lymphatic Drainage, Clinical Features, and Cell Differentiation Markers of Canine Mammary
774 Gland Neoplasms. *Vet Pathol*. 2011;48(1):85-97. doi:10.1177/0300985810389480
- 775 113. Sorenmo KU, Shofer FS, Goldschmidt MH. Effect of Spaying and Timing of Spaying on
776 Survival of Dogs with Mammary Carcinoma. *J Vet Intern Med*. 2000;14(3):266.
777 doi:10.1892/0891-6640(2000)014<0266:eosato>2.3.co;2
- 778 114. Spodnick GJ, Berg J, Rand WM, et al. Prognosis for dogs with appendicular osteosarcoma
779 treated by amputation alone: 162 cases (1978-1988). *J Am Vet Med Assoc*. 1992;200(7):995-999.
780 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1577656/>

- 781 115. Tabassum S, Rosli NB, Mazalan MSAB. Mathematical Modeling of Cancer Growth
782 Process: A Review. *J Phys Conf Ser.* 2019;1366(1):012018. doi:10.1088/1742-
783 6596/1366/1/012018
- 784 116. Thompson RC. Life-span effects of ionizing radiation in the beagle dog: A summary
785 account of four decades of research funded by the US Department of Energy and its predecessor
786 agencies. *US Department of Energy Office of Health and Environmental Research.* Published
787 1989. doi:10.2172/6073442
- 788 117. Tierce R, Martin T, Hughes KL, et al. Response of Canine Soft Tissue Sarcoma to
789 Stereotactic Body Radiotherapy. *Radiat Res.* 2021;196(6):587-601. doi:10.1667/rade-20-00271.1
- 790 118. Tubiana M. Tumor Cell Proliferation Kinetics and Tumor Growth Rate. *Acta Oncol.*
791 1989;28(1):113-121. doi:10.3109/02841868909111193
- 792 119. Turek M, LaDue T, Looper J, et al. Multimodality treatment including ONCEPT for canine
793 oral melanoma: A retrospective analysis of 131 dogs. *Vet Radiol Ultrasoun.* Published online
794 2020. doi:10.1111/vru.12860
- 795 120. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force
796 Recommendation Topics. Accessed February 8, 2022.
797 <https://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/uspstf/recommendation-topics>
- 798 121. Vail DM, Thamm DH, Liptak JM. *Withrow and MacEwen's Small Animal Clinical*
799 *Oncology.* Sixth Edition. Saunders; 2019.
- 800 122. Vos JH, Borst GHA, Visser IJR, et al. Comparison of clinical and pathological diagnoses in
801 dogs. *Vet Quart.* 2005;27(1):2-10. doi:10.1080/01652176.2005.9695181
- 802 123. Walz JZ, Desai N, Asselt NV, Poirier VJ, Hansen K, Selmic L. Definitive-intent intensity-
803 modulated radiation therapy for treatment of canine prostatic carcinoma: A multi-institutional
804 retrospective study. *Vet Comp Oncol.* Published online 2019. doi:10.1111/vco.12561
- 805 124. Washabau RJ, Day MJ. *Canine and Feline Gastroenterology.* Elsevier; 2012.
- 806 125. Wong H, Byrne S, Rasotto R, et al. A Retrospective Study of Clinical and Histopathological
807 Features of 81 Cases of Canine Apocrine Gland Adenocarcinoma of the Anal Sac: Independent
808 Clinical and Histopathological Risk Factors Associated with Outcome. *Animals.*
809 2021;11(11):3327. doi:10.3390/ani11113327
- 810 126. Yachida S, Jones S, Bozic I, et al. Distant Metastasis Occurs Late during the Genetic
811 Evolution of Pancreatic Cancer. *Nature.* 2010;467(7319):1114-1117. doi:10.1038/nature09515
- 812 127. Zink MC, Farhooody P, Elser SE, Ruffini LD, Gibbons TA, Rieger RH. Evaluation of the
813 risk and age of onset of cancer and behavioral disorders in gonadectomized Vizslas. *J Am Vet*
814 *Med Assoc.* 2014;244(3):309-319. doi:10.2460/javma.244.3.309

815 128. Zorzi M, Hassan C, Capodaglio G, et al. Long-term performance of colorectal cancer
816 screening programmes based on the faecal immunochemical test. *Gut*. 2018;67(12):2124.
817 doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2017-314753