

# 10

# Trends, Risk Factors, and Preventions in Colorectal Cancer

## **Definition of Cancer**

Omer Engin, Gizem Kilinc, and Semra Salimoglu

Thousands of new cells proliferate in our body every day as many cells die. New cells locate in organs and tissues when adapting to their normal structures. Normally uncontrolled proliferation is not seen. Multiple genes are affected in most tumors. This may result in loss of function of the tumor suppressor genes or activation of the oncogenes [1, 2].

Cancer tissue is characterized by uncontrolled and limitless cell proliferation. It does not resemble the properties of the tissues that it originated. Cancer cell proliferation continues by disrupting the original tissue structure. With this proliferation, cancer cells exceed the organ borders and destroy the organs beside or spread into distant areas and begin to proliferate in distant tissues. Cancer cells need blood vessels for growing. This vascularization provides oxygen and nutritional elements to cancer cells and also helps in eliminating metabolic waste from the area through systemic circulation. Angiogenesis is the basic rule of disease in tumor growth. Vascular endothelial growth factor A is an important factor in this process [3].

Tumor cells continue uncontrolled proliferation and invade the blood and lymph vessels by destroying their wall. If the tumor cells invade the blood vessels, they continue to move with venous circulation. Inferior mesenteric vein drains to liver via portal vein. After the liver, circulation continues through the inferior vena cava to the right atrium and right ventricle. Blood flows from the right ventricle to the lung through the right pulmonary artery and then to the left atrium and from the left ventricle to the whole body. Therefore, the first step for colon cancer cells on this path is the liver, and the next place is lungs and the other organs of the body. According to this knowledge, liver metastases are common in colon cancer because the liver is the first organ in the pathway of tumor cells. If cancer cells pass through

O. Engin (🖂) · G. Kilinc · S. Salimoglu

Surgery Department, Tepecik Training and Research Hospital, Health Sciences University, Izmir, Turkey

<sup>©</sup> Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2021

O. Engin (ed.), Colon Polyps and Colorectal Cancer, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-57273-0\_10

liver, they come to the lungs and then spread to the entire body. In lymphatic spread, the cancer cell invades the lymphatic vessel first and then comes to the first lymph node in the path of that lymphatic drainage. There, while the lymph fluid infiltrates, most of the tumor cells attack and metastasize. Cancer cells that do not settle that lymph node can continue to settle in later lymph nodes. The lymph circulation continues like this and eventually enters the systemic circulation. These flow paths will be explained in detail in the anatomy section of the colon and rectum [4, 5].

Breast cancer is the cancer type which most causes death in women, whereas in men lung cancer is the cancer type which most causes death. In some countries, colorectal cancer (CRC) is the second leading cause of cancer-related deaths. Colorectal cancer occurs more frequently in Australia, New Zealand, Europe, and North America, but less frequently in Africa and South-Central Asia [6, 7].

**Risk Factors for Colorectal Cancer** Family history, inflammatory bowel diseases (crohn, colitis ulcerosis), diabetes, smoking, alcohol use, red meat consumption, processed meat consumption, presence of colon polyps, obesity, low physical activity, and low vegetable and fruit consumption are risk factors that increase CRC incidence.

**Risk Decreasing Factors** Acetyl cysteic acid and multivitamin use (supplemental folate and calcium), physical activity, and calcium and milk consumption can reduce the risk for colorectal cancer [8, 9].

We will explain these issues in detail in the following of this chapter.

#### **Risk Increasing Factors for Colorectal Cancer**

#### **Family History**

People with family history of CRC or who have colorectal adenoma (CRA) have a high risk of developing CRC. Colorectal adenomas will be discussed in detail in other sections. Relatives of patients diagnosed with CRC at a young age also have high risk [10].

First-degree relatives of patients with CRC have a high risk for CRC than the second and third degree relatives. Patients that have CRC in first-degree relatives double the risk of having CRC [11, 12].

It has been shown that the incidence of colorectal cancer is reduced by removing the polyps detected during colonoscopic scans in patients with a family history of colorectal cancer. According to our knowledge, the removal of adenomatous polyps reduces the risk of developing colorectal cancer. Therefore, adenomatous polyps must be removed in patients with or without family history [13, 14].

The American College of Gastroenterology (ACG) and the American Society of Gastrointestinal Endoscopy (ASGE) and the American Association of Gastroenterology (AGA) generally recommend colonoscopy screening every 5 years after the age of 40

for first-degree relatives of patients with colon cancer before the age of 60 years. While ASGE and AGA recommend colonoscopic screening after the age of 40 to first-degree relatives of patients diagnosed with colon cancer after age 60, ACG recommends colonoscopy after age 50 [15].

#### **Hereditary Syndromes**

The risk of colon cancer is high in patients with hereditary syndrome. These syndromes are named familial adenomatous polyposis and hereditary nonpolyposis coli [16, 17].

Familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) is an autosomal dominant disease. In this disease, there are many adenomatous polyps, and if these polyps are not detected and managed early, they can progress to colorectal cancer. Extraintestinal symptoms (osteomas, dental anomalies, etc.) may be present in 70% of the cases. In patients with the diagnosis of FAP or in family members with high-risk factors, annual sigmoidoscopy at 10–12 years of age is recommended for screening the lower gastrointestinal tract. If polyp is detected in sigmoidoscopy, total colonoscopy is recommended [18–20].

Hereditary nonpolyposis coli is also known as Lynch syndrome, and it is an autosomal dominant disease. It is a disease which many malignancies can accompany. The most common malignancy is presented as colorectal cancer. Other malignancies can be sorted as ovary cancer, endometrium cancer, intestinal cancer, hepatobiliary tract cancer, stomach cancer, urinary tract cancer, etc. In this disease, high-quality surveillance colonoscopy is recommended starting from the age of 20–25 every 1–2 years. Or screening colonoscopy is recommended to be performed 2–5 years before the earliest age of diagnosis in the family [21–26].

## Gender

Advanced colorectal neoplasia is more common in men than in women [27]. Right colon cancer is more common in women than in men [28].

## **Previous Treatment for Certain Cancers**

It is reported that the risk of colorectal cancer is increased in patients having radiotherapy due to testicular cancer. It is also reported that the risk of cancer is increased in men with prostate cancer. This may be due to radiotherapy given for prostate cancer. There is a relative risk for colorectal cancer development in women having pelvic radiation due to gynecological cancer. During radiotherapy, the rectum is exposed to radiation due to being nearer to gynecological organs. The American Cancer Society and other medical organizations recommend earlier screening for these patients with increased risk of colorectal cancer. Radiotherapy given directly to the abdomen is another risk factor that increases colon cancer [16, 29, 30].

## **Night Shift Work**

There are researches that working on night shifts three times a month for 15 years may increase colon cancer in women. Studies have shown that melatonin levels may be effective in the risk of developing colorectal cancer. More clinical research is needed on this subject. Night shift work is also reported to increase risk for breast cancer, prostate cancer, and endometrial cancer [29, 31–33].

#### **Presence of Multiple Primary Cancers**

There are reports that approximately 10% of patients may develop a second primary tumor within the first 10 years after primary tumor development [34].

Multiple primary tumors can develop in the same patient at the same time or at a different time. It is reported to be between 0.7% and 11.7% of all carcinomas. Multiple primary tumors are more common in age older than 65. Although multiple primary cancers are rare, nowadays we see more common. The development of diagnostic techniques and longer survival than previous times has been shown to be factors in this increase in frequency. Multiple primary tumors can be divided as synchronous and metachronous. If the second primary tumor is detected within 6 months after the diagnosis of the first primary tumor, it is called synchronous tumor. If the second primary tumor is dated a metachronous tumor [35, 36].

#### Age

Although colon cancer may be seen at a young age, its incidence increases with age. It is very rare in pediatric ages. Annual incidence in pediatric age is approximately 1 case per million individuals. It is most commonly seen between the ages 60 and 75. In colorectal cancers, 90% of new cases and 94% of deaths occur in people older than 50 years [37, 38].

#### Inflammatory Bowel Diseases (Crohn, Colitis Ulcerosa)

The coexistence of chronic inflammation and cancer has been demonstrated by studies between inflammatory bowel disease and colon cancer. People with inflammatory bowel disease have a higher risk of developing colorectal cancer. Especially if the disease persists for a long time, if there is extensive colonic involvement, if the patient has pseudopolyps, and if the disease is associated with primary sclerosing cholangitis, patients have a higher risk for colorectal cancer. People with chronic ulcerative colitis or Crohn's disease have a five- to sevenfold increased risk of developing colon cancer compared to healthy individuals. It is generally accepted that this risk develops after 8 years of illness. Initial screening for colon cancer is

recommended in patients with inflammatory bowel disease 8 years after the onset of the disease [39–41].

The lifetime risk of developing colorectal cancer in patients with ulcerative colitis is between 5% and 13.5% [42, 43].

There is an increased risk for colorectal cancer and dysplasia in patients with Crohn's colitis and primary sclerosing cholangitis [44].

## **Diabetes Mellitus**

Studies have shown that patients with type 2 diabetes have a 27% higher risk of colorectal cancer than non-diabetic patients. The risk of developing colorectal cancer in patients with diabetes is both validating for men and women. Type 2 diabetes creates risk factors such as hyperinsulinemia, insulin resistance, hyperglycemia, or hypertriglyceridemia for colorectal carcinogenesis. Insulin can stimulate cell proliferation. This stimulation can be directed with the insulin receptor or insulin like growth factor (IGF)-I receptor. Studies have shown that high levels of insulin, C-peptide (a marker of insulin secretion), or IGF-I may increase the risk of colorectal cancer. As intestinal transit time is prolonged in diabetes, it may lead to an increased risk of colorectal cancer. With prolonged bowel transit time, colon mucosa contacts potential carcinogenesis and fecal bile acids for longer periods. Even fecal acids have been shown to promote colorectal cancer in animal models. Some studies have reported increased colorectal cancer mortality in patients with diabetes, whereas some studies have not identified this risk. In a study, the risk of colon cancer recurrence is reported as similar in patients with and without diabetes at the time of diagnosis. There are studies reporting that type 2 diabetes is a potential risk for CRC to start at an early age in patients with type 2 diabetes, and early screening might be appropriate in patients with type 2 diabetes [45-50].

## Smoking

There are many carcinogens in cigarette smoke. These carcinogens can cause changes in DNA, and they can even cause irreversible damage and colon cancer in the colon mucosa. Carcinogens in cigarette smoke can come to the colon mucosa through the blood circulation or they may come to mucosa because of ingestion of smoke-contaminated saliva [51].

Some studies showed that smoking duration is associated with colorectal polyps. Smokers have an 18% greater risk of developing colorectal cancer than nonsmokers. Proximal colon cancer risk is reported to be higher in these patients than distal colon cancer risk. However, other studies reported no significant difference between proximal and distal colon cancer risks. Therefore, colorectal cancer screening may be recommended more frequently in smokers. American College of Gastroenterology supports screening for colorectal cancer in older smokers at an age of 45 instead of 50 [7, 51–56].

Smoking is the cause of microvascular disease that leads tissue ischemia. Tissue ischemia may pose a risk for anastomosis. There are also clinical studies reporting that the risk of anastomotic leakage after colon surgery is higher in smokers than in other patients. Therefore, caution should be exercised against the risk of postoperative fistula [57, 58].

## **Alcohol Use**

Individuals using alcohol have a modest increased risk for colon cancer. There is a connection between alcohol use and oral cavity cancer, pharynx cancer, larynx cancer, esophagus cancer, liver cancer, female breast cancer, and colorectal cancer. The risk of colorectal cancer associated with alcohol consumption is similar in both men and women. Alcohol consumption is divided into three groups as mild, moderate, and severe in the meta-analysis published by Fedirko et al. Heavy consumers are defined as who consume 50 g/day or more of alcohol, and there are 52% more likely to develop colorectal cancer than nonalcohol users. Moderate alcohol users are defined as those who consume 12.6-49.9 g/day ethanol, and the risk is 21% higher in these people. Those who consume mild alcohol are those who consume 12.5 g/ day or less ethanol, and the risk is 0-7% compared to those who do not consume alcohol. These results show that the risk of colorectal cancer depends on alcohol consumption dose. In correlation with the amount of alcohol consumption, the risk of developing colorectal cancer increases. It has been reported that alcohol consumption is a risk factor for anastomotic leakage in patients who underwent anastomosis after resection due to colorectal cancer [58–62].

In a study, it was found that increased risk of disease recurrence and shorter time to disease recurrence was higher in patients who used alcohol in early-stage rectum cancer than those who did not use alcohol. Ethanol intake is associated with poor prognosis and lower overall survival counts in cases of CRC [63, 64].

#### **Red Meat and Processed Meat Consumption**

High rate red meat consumption is associated with a high risk of colon cancer occurrence. Higher green leafy vegetable (GLV) consumption may reduce this risk [65].

Possible biological mechanisms that may explain the increased risk of colorectal cancer associated with consumption of red meat and processed meats are indicated. Potential mutagenic effects of heterocyclic amines present in highly cooked meat may be a reason. The second mechanism is the endogenous formation of N-nitroso compounds in the gastrointestinal tract. Depending on the dose of red meat intake, endogenous formation of nitroso compounds occurs in humans. Nitrites or nitrates are used as additives to prevent spoilage of meat. These form exogenous nitrites which work just like endogenous nitrites. The risk of cancer caused by taking cured

meats and red meats is a moderate risk (20-30%). It is recommended not to eat more than 500 g of red meat per week and avoid processed meat [66–70].

#### **Gallbladder Diseases**

Cholecystectomy is a moderate risk factor for colon cancer. This risk has not been shown for distal colon and rectal cancer. Biological mechanisms associated with intestinal exposure of bile may be responsible for this risk. The presence of gall-stone increases the risk of colonic adenoma. Chiong et al. reported in their meta-analysis that cholelithiasis increases the risk of rectal cancer. There are also studies reporting that reflux of bile into the stomach may be a risk factor for gastric cancer in patients with cholecystectomy [71–76].

#### Presence of Adenomatous Polyp

The presence of adenomatous polyps is a risk factor for colon cancer. Colonic adenomatous polyps may show malignant transformation. These risk factors can be classified as high risk and low risk.

Large size (especially >1.5 cm), sessile or flat formation, severe dysplasia, presence of squamous metaplasia, villous architecture, and polyposis syndrome (multiple polyps) are defined as high-risk factors for polyps. On the other hand, small size (especially <1.0 cm), pedunculated formation, mild dysplasia, no metaplastic areas, tubular architecture, and single polyp are identified as low-risk factors.

The cancer focus within the adenomatous polyp will progress and lead to invasive cancer; therefore, polyp excision prevents this risk [77–80].

## Obesity

Obesity has been implicated as a risk factor for colorectal cancer. Obesity has also been shown to be a risk factor for postmenopausal breast cancer, endometrial cancer, kidney cancer, and esophageal cancer. In a study conducted in postmenopausal women showed that the existence and duration of obesity are risk factors for cancer development. In addition, there are also studies that reported this risk can be decreased with regression of the obesity [81, 82].

Obesity increases the risk of colon cancer in men more than in women. According to clinical studies, it is reported that the presence of abdominal obesity is more risky than subcutaneous fat tissue in colorectal cancer etiology [83–86].

Leptin secreted from adipose tissue controls the body fat storage and stimulates cell proliferation. Circulatory leptin levels increase as adipose tissue mass increases. Studies have reported that leptin may be responsible for the development of colorectal adenoma [87].

There are also studies that make obesity responsible for colorectal cancer recurrence, treatment outcomes, and survival [88].

#### **Metabolic Syndrome**

The condition consisting of three or more components is called metabolic syndrome. These components are defined as high blood pressure, increased waist circumference, hypertriglyceridemia, low level of HDL cholesterol, and diabetes. The risk of colon cancer, liver cancer, pancreas cancer, breast cancer, and endometrial cancer increases in metabolic syndrome [89–91].

### Infections

Helicobacter pylori can settle in the stomach and cause gastritis, ulcers, and gastric neoplasia. Helicobacter pylori infection should be considered in the risk of colonic adenomatous polyps and colon cancer [92–95].

Schistosomiasis is a common parasitic disease in underdeveloped and developing countries. Contaminated water can cause infection. Chronic schistosomiasis can cause cystitis and fibrosis. It can also be a risk factor for bladder cancer, liver cancer, colonic adenomatous polyps, and colorectal cancer [39, 96].

Human papilloma virus infection is associated with cervical cancer. In clinical studies, association between human papillomavirus infection and colorectal cancer has been identified. The risk of colon cancer increases tenfold in people with human papillomavirus infection than in healthy individuals [97–99].

Human cytomegalovirus (HCMV) is a beta-herpes virus and can be found endemically. It can lead to life-threatening diseases in immunosuppressive individuals. Studies have shown that CMV nucleic acids and proteins can be found in neoplastic cells in colorectal polyps and adenocarcinomas. It is informed that this virus infection may have an important role in colon cancer [100, 101].

There are also studies that indicate an increased risk of colorectal cancer in people with HIV infection [102, 103].

#### **Organ Transplantation**

Organ transplantation increases the risk of cancer in other organs. Adami et al. reported the risk of colorectal cancer fourfold higher in patients undergoing organ transplantation. In addition, in a study, it was reported that proximal colon cancer increased in patients who underwent organ transplants, whereas there was no increase in distal colon cancer [104, 105].

#### Nonalcoholic Steatohepatitis

Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease is a risk factor for colorectal neoplasm and colorectal cancer. Also nonalcoholic fatty liver disease has an additive effect on the development of colorectal cancer. In a study published in 2011, Wong et al. reported that nonalcoholic steatohepatitis was highly associated with colorectal adenoma and advanced neoplasm. They also reported that these adenomas were more common in the right colon, and they recommended colorectal cancer screening for these highly risked patients [106, 107].

#### Gallbladder Polyps

There are studies suggesting the association between gallbladder polyps and proximal colon polyps [108].

## **Risk-Reducing Factors for Colorectal Cancer**

#### Acetylsalicylic Acid

The use of prophylactic aspirin is currently recommended for the possible risk of thromboembolism. On the other hand, aspirin use can cause bleeding complications and hemostasis problems [109].

The use of aspirin also reduces the recurrence of adenomatous polyps. The mechanism on this issue is not fully known. There are studies reporting that low-dose (75–300 mg/day) aspirin use reduces colon cancer incidence by 76% and mortality by 65% in the long term (median time 18 years). Aspirin is known to reduce the incidence and mortality of colorectal cancer. In another study, it was suggested that the use of intermittent aspirin or naproxen inhibits the progression of colon adenomas to colonic invasive adenocancer [109–113].

#### Statins

Statin is used in the treatment of hypercholesterolemia. Some studies have reported that statin use reduces proximal colon cancer in men and rectal cancer risk in both genders. Another case-control study has shown that statin reduces the risk of colorectal cancer. However, in most cohort studies, the benefit of statin could not be found [114, 115].

## **Bisphosphonates**

Bisphosphonates are often used in treatment of osteoporosis. Some studies have reported that the use of bisphosphonates for more than a year reduces the risk of colorectal cancer by 59% [116].

## **Calcium and Vitamin D**

It was suggested that calcium combined with secondary bile acids and ionized fatty acids reduced the risk of colon cancer by forming insoluble soap in the colon lumen. It is also reported that colon cancer is associated with vitamin D deficiency. Studies showed that vitamin D deficiency increases the risk of colorectal cancer, whereas vitamin D intake reduces the risk of colorectal cancer [117–120].

## **Physical Activity**

Physical activity has a risk-reducing effect for many types of cancer (e.g., breast cancer, endometrial cancer, prostate cancer, colon cancer). Physical activity can prevent about 15% of colon cancers. For cancer prevention, 30–60 min of moderate-vigorous intensity physical activity is recommended 5 days in a week. Since physical activity increases bowel movements, it may be effective in reducing the risk of colon cancer by reducing the passage duration of the carcinogenic substances [121–126].

## **Fish Consumption**

Some studies showed that consuming more than two servings of fish each week may reduce the risk of colorectal cancer recurrence [127].

## **Serum Cholesterol Level**

In a clinical study, it was reported that high concentration of serum HDL reduces the risk of colon cancer [128].

## **Dietary Fiber**

There are studies reported that meals with fiber-rich grain reduce the risk of colorectal cancer. Especially the cereal fibers and whole grains are mentioned to reduce the risk of colorectal cancer. The contact time of toxic substances with the colon mucosa is reduced by reducing the intestinal passage time and constipation with taking fibrous foods [129–131].

#### Postmenopausal Hormone Therapy

It is reported that hormone therapy given to postmenopausal women reduces the risk of colorectal cancer [132–135].

#### **Screening Program**

Screening programs have an important role in decreasing the incidence and mortality of CRC. There is a generally accepted opinion that the age of onset of CRC screening should be 50 years. However nowadays, some groups advise that CRC screening starts from 45 years old. The side effects of colonoscopy are rare, but these side effects may increase in the elderly individuals due to their comorbidities. For this reason, some guidelines recommend the screening program to terminate at the age of 75, while others recommend it to end at the age of 80. Major risk factors for CRC are defined as family history, medical history, presence of colorectal polyps, and chronic inflammatory bowel disease history. Also familial adenomatous polyposis and hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer (Lynch syndrome) are determined as high-risk factor for CRC. Smoking increases the development of adenomatous polyps, and smokers have a higher incidence of rectal cancer. The success of screening programs may increase with the increase of the general population education [8, 136].

In addition, colorectal cancer can be prevented by removing adenomatous polyps which can cause cancer with screening colonoscopy. Another advantage of the screening program is the early recognition of CRC. Early diagnosis of CRC has a higher chance for treatment. Colorectal cancers usually develop in 10–15 years. It typically begins as a noncancerous polyp; then, the polyp may become cancerous. Such polyps are called adenomatous polyps or adenomas. Ten percent of adenomas can develop to cancer. Adenomas are quite common and one third or half of individuals can have one or more adenomas. Ninety-six percent of colorectal cancers are adenocarcinomas, and most of these cancers develop from adenomatous polyps. When cancer occurs, it begins to grow in the colon wall and tries to invade blood and lymph vessels. The tumoral cells make lymph node, liver, and spleen metastasis due to these vascular and lymphatic invasions. On the other hand, tumor can invade the organs in abdominal cavity according to its localization [137–140].

#### **Green Tea Consumption**

There is a weak relationship between more green tea consumption and a reduced risk of male colon cancer [141].

## **Prevention of Colorectal Cancer**

Colonoscopy screening reduces colorectal cancer risk by 90%. Screening colonoscopy can prevent cancer by detecting precancerous polyps. There are studies reporting that the prevalence of adenomatous polyps at the age of 50 is 25% in men and 15% in women. The majority of these polyps are found as asymptomatic, and the excision of these polyps during colonoscopy is important in preventing colon cancer [142, 143].

Some studies report that changing lifestyle reduces the risk of colorectal cancer [144].

It has been reported that consumption of fiber-rich fruit and vegetables reduces the risk of colorectal cancer. It has been suggested that the fibers contained in our food absorb or dilute fecal carcinogens, modulate colonic transit time, even alter acid metabolism, decrease colonic pH, and increase short-chain fatty acid production. High intake of fiber or vegetables is reported to reduce the risk of colon cancer by 40–50%. Red meat consumption is also known to increase the risk of colorectal cancer. Instead of red meat, alternative animal proteins such as fish can be taken. Reduction or discontinuation of alcohol intake will reduce the risk of colorectal cancer. Smoking is strictly forbidden. Also, obesity should be avoided, visceral fat mass should be reduced, and regular sports should be done. There are studies reporting that colorectal cancer can be reduced by 24% by doing physical activity. Calcium is thought to reduce the risk of colon cancer by binding to toxic secondary biliary acids [117, 145–149].

The most important risk in colon cancer is older ages. The greatest success in preventing colorectal cancer depends on screening tests. Precancerous lesions such as adenomatous polyps can be detected by screening tests before the cancer appearance, and the cancer can be prevented by polypectomy.

Colorectal cancer screening tests can be divided into two groups:

- 1. Stool tests: occult blood and exfoliated DNA tests
- 2. Structural examinations: colonoscopy and virtual colonoscopy

Stool tests for occult blood test are known as guaiac test and fecal immunochemical test (FIT) [150].

## **Guaiac Test**

The Guaiac test is a test that measures occult blood in the stool. Some foods may affect this test result. Therefore, before 3 days of the test, patients must stop eating red meat, cantaloupe, uncooked broccoli, turnip, radish, and horseradish. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, vitamin C, aspirin, ibuprofen, and naproxen may also affect the test result. A negative test means that there is no blood in the stool, whereas a positive result indicates that there is too little blood to be seen in the stool. There are studies reporting the false-positive rate as 11% with normal diet. Also false-negative results can reach up to 48% [151, 152].

#### Fecal Immunochemical Test (FIT)

This test is known as a new fecal occult blood test. This test is performed with monoclonal antibodies that produced against human hemoglobin beta subunit. If the test result comes normal, it means that there is no blood in the stool. The sensitivity of this test is high, and FIT is seen more sensitive to colorectal cancer than guaiac test [153, 154].

## **Exfoliated DNA Test**

Stool DNA test can detect colorectal cancer and large adenomas with high sensitivity. This enables the patient's early diagnosis and curability. Serrated sessile polyps greater than 1 cm can be recognized by this method [155, 156].

Colorectal screening is recommended in women and men. However, colonoscopy should be performed within the indications mentioned in Chap. 3.

Screening options may vary depending on risks, patient preference, and access. FOBT and FIT can be done once a year. The stool DNA test is a newly recommended test, and the interval for this test is uncertain. If adenomatous precancerous condition is detected in colonoscopy, colonoscopy must be performed more frequently (see Chap. 3) [157–160].

For positive results, indirect tests, such as the occult blood test, require the lesions in the colon to bleed and to pass this blood with feces. Therefore, it is not possible to identify non-bleeding lesions with these tests. For this reason, colono-scopic examination is thought to be more effective in detecting bleeding and non-bleeding colonic lesions early.

American Cancer Society Guideline for Colorectal Cancer Screening recommends people at average risk of colorectal cancer to start regular screening at age 45. For screening, people are considered to be at average risk if they do not have one of the following criteria:

- A personal history of CRC or certain types of polyps
- A family history of CRC
- A personal history of inflammatory bowel disease (ulcerative colitis or Crohn's disease)
- A confirmed or suspected hereditary colorectal cancer syndrome, such as familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) or Lynch syndrome
- A personal history of getting radiation therapy to the abdomen or pelvic area to treat for a prior cancer [161]

Acknowledgment This chapter is based on Chapter 13 Tendency and Prevention in Colon Cancer written by Omer Engin, Mebrure Evnur Uyar, Oguzhan Sunamak, Fuat Ipekci, published in the first edition of the book O. Engin (ed.), Colon Polyps and the Prevention of Colorectal Cancer, 2015.

## References

- Berns A. Insertional mutagenesis: a powerful tool in cancer research. In: Insertional mutagenesis strategies in cancer genetics. New York, NY: Springer; 2011. p. 1–18.
- Xu X, Li J, Sun X, Guo Y, Chu D, et al. Tumor suppressor NDRG2 inhibits glycolysis and glutaminolysis in colorectal cancer cells by repressing c-Myc expression. Oncotarget. 2015;6:26161.
- 3. Lokody I. Cancer genetics: ignoring the signs. Nat Rev Cancer. 2014;14(8):514-5.
- Jin K, Gao W, Lu Y, Lan H, Teng L, et al. Mechanisms regulating colorectal cancer cell metastasis into liver. Oncol Lett. 2012;3(1):11–5.
- Chambers AF, Groom AC, Macdonald IC. Metastasis: dissemination and growth of cancer cells in metastatic sites. Nat Rev Cancer. 2002;2(8):563.
- Menees SB, et al. The impact of fair colonoscopy preparation on colonoscopy use and adenoma miss rates in patients undergoing outpatient colonoscopy. Gastrointest Endosc. 2013;78(3):510–6.
- 7. Jemal A, et al. Global cancer statistics. CA Cancer J Clin. 2011;61(2):69-90.
- Edwards BK, et al. Annual report to the nation on the status of cancer, 1975-2006, featuring colorectal cancer trends and impact of interventions (risk factors, screening, and treatment) to reduce future rates. Cancer. 2010;116(3):544–73. http://www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemiologysurveilance/documents/document/acspc-028323.pdf.
- Johnson CM, Wei C, Ensor JE, Smolenski DJ, Amos CI, Levin B, Berry DA. Meta-analyses of colorectal cancer risk factors. Cancer Causes Control. 2013;24(6):1207–22.
- Johns LE, Houlston RS. A systematic review and meta-analysis of familial colorectal cancer risk. Am J Gastroenterol. 2001;96(10):2992–3003.
- Taylor DP, et al. Population-based family history-specific risks for colorectal cancer: a constellation approach. Gastroenterology. 2010;138(3):877–85.
- Lowery JT, Ahnen DJ, Schroy PC III, Hampel H, Baxter N, et al. Understanding the contribution of family history to colorectal cancer risk and its clinical implications: a state-of-thescience review. Cancer. 2016;122(17):2633–45.
- Dove-Edvin I, Sasieni P, Adams J, et al. Prevention of colorectal cancer by colonoscopic surveillance in individuals with family history of colorectal cancer: 16 year, prospective, followup study. BMJ. 2005;331:1047–9.
- Winawer SJ, Zauber AG, Ho MN, et al. Prevention of colorectal cancer by colonoscopic polypectomy. N Engl J Med. 1993;329(27):1977–81.
- Ergül B, Sarikaya M, Doğan Z, et al. Kolorektal kanserli hastaların asemptomatik birinci derece yakınlarının kolonoskopik değerlendirme sonuçları: Tek merkezli prospektif çalışma. Endoskopi Gastrointestinal. 2013;21:2.
- http://www.mayoclinic.org/diseases-conditions/colon-cancer/basics/risk-factors/ con-20031877.
- http://www.cancer.org/cancer/colonandrectumcancer/detailedguide/ colorectal-cancer-risk-factors.
- Dinarvand P, Davaro EP, Doan JV, Ising ME, et al. Familial adenomatous polyposis syndrome: an update and review of extraintestinal manifestations. Arch Pathol Lab Med. 2019;143:1382.
- Hyer W, Cohen S, Attard T, Vila-Miravet V, Pienar C, et al. Management of familial adenomatous polyposis in children and adolescents: position paper from the ESPGHAN polyposis working group. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr. 2019;68(3):428–41.
- Huang E, McGee MF. Hereditary colorectal cancer syndromes. In: Clinical algorithms in general surgery. Cham: Springer; 2019. p. 243–50.
- Féau S, Caulet M, Lecomte T. What is the best colonoscopy surveillance for lynch syndrome patients? Curr Colorect Cancer Rep. 2016;12(2):88–93.
- Kohlmann W, Gruber SB. Lynch syndrome. In: GeneReviews<sup>®</sup>. Seattle, WA: University of Washington; 2018.

- 23. Ziegler A, Thorpe E. Oral tongue cancer in a patient with hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer: a case report and review of the literature. Oral Oncol. 2019;92:92–3.
- Ceppi L, Dizon DS, Birrer MJ. Hereditary cancers. In: Management of endometrial cancer. Cham: Springer; 2020. p. 101–15.
- Canouï-Poitrine F, et al. Epidemiology of colorectal cancer: incidence, survival, and risk factors. In: Emergency surgical management of colorectal cancer. Cham: Springer; 2019. p. 15–29.
- Umar A, Boland CR, Terdiman JP, Syngal S, et al. Revised Bethesda Guidelines for hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer (Lynch syndrome) and microsatellite instability. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2004;96(4):261–8.
- 27. Nguyen SP, Bent S, Chen YH, et al. Gender as a risk factor for advanced neoplasia and colorectal cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2009;7(6):676–681.E3.
- Kim SE, Paik HY, Yoon H, Lee JE, Kim N, et al. Sex-and gender-specific disparities in colorectal cancer risk. World J Gastroenterol. 2015;21(17):5167.
- http://www.cancer.org/cancer/colonandrectumcancer/detailedguide/colorectal-cancer-riskfactors. Accessed 10 October 2014.
- 30. Sandler RS, Sandler DP. Radiation-induced cancers of the colon and rectum: assessing the risk. Gastroenterology. 1983;84(1):51–7.
- Schernhammer ES, Laden F, Speizer FE, et al. Night-shift work and risk of colorectal cancer in the nurses' health study. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2003;95(11):825–8.
- 32. Conlon M, Lightfoot N, Kreiger N. Rotating shift work and risk of prostate cancer. Epidemiology. 2007;18(1):182–3.
- Viswanathan AN, Hankinson SE, Schernhammer ES. Night shift work and the risk of endometrial cancer. Cancer Res. 2007;67(21):10618–22.
- 34. Horii A, Han HJ, Shimada M, Yanagisawa A, Kato Y, et al. Frequent replication errors at microsatellite loci in tumors of patients with multiple primary cancers. Cancer Res. 1994;54(13):3373–5.
- 35. Doğu GG, Yaren A, Taşköylü BY, İşler K, et al. Senkron ve metakron çift primer kanserli hastalarımız: tek merkez deneyimi. Pamukkale Tıp Dergisi. 2012;1:1–4.
- 36. Jena A, Patnayak R, Lakshmi AY, Manilal B, et al. Multiple primary cancers: an enigma. S Asian J Cancer. 2016;5(1):29.
- Erişmiş B. 70 Yaş Üstü Kolon Kanser Tanısı Alan Hastalar İle 50 Yaş Altı Kolon Kanserli Hastaların Klinik Ve Patolojik Özelliklerinin Karşılaştırılması. 2011. Doctoral dissertation. http://www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemiologysurveilance/documents/document/acspc-028323.pdf.
- Sultan I, Rodriguez-Galindo C, El-Taani H, et al. Distinct features of colorectal cancer in children and adolescents: a population-based study of 159 cases. Cancer. 2010;116(3):758–65.
- 39. Shacter E, Weitzman SA. Chronic inflammation and cancer. Oncology. 2002;16(2):217–30.
- 40. Okayasu I. Development of ulcerative colitis and its associated colorectal neoplasia as a model of the organ-specific chronic inflammation-carcinoma sequence. Pathol Int. 2012;62(6):368–80.
- Abdalla M, Herfarth H. Rethinking colorectal cancer screening in IBD, is it time to revisit the guidelines? J Crohns Colitis. 2018;12(7):757.
- Jess T, Rungoe C, Peyrin-Biroulet L. Risk of colorectal cancer in patients with ulcerative colitis: a meta-analysis of population-based cohort studies. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2012;10(6):639–45.
- Messaris E, Koltun W. Management of ulcerative colitis in patients with rectal cancer. In: Mastery of IBD surgery. Cham: Springer; 2019. p. 273–8.
- 44. Lindström L, et al. Increased risk of colorectal cancer and dysplasia in patients with Crohn's colitis and primary sclerosing cholangitis. Dis Colon Rectum. 2011;54(11):1392–7.
- 45. Besic N, Povsic MK. Long term survival in 200 patients with advanced stage of colorectal carcinoma and diabetes mellitus–a single institution experience. Radiol Oncol. 2019;53(2):238–44.

- Larsson SC, Orsini N, Wolk A. Diabetes mellitus and risk of colorectal cancer: a metaanalysis. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2005;97(22):1679–87.
- Chubak J, Yu O, Ziebell RA, Bowles EJA, et al. Risk of colon cancer recurrence in relation to diabetes. Cancer Causes Control. 2018;29(11):1093–103.
- de Kort S, Simons CC, van den Brandt PA, Janssen-Heijnen MLG, et al. Diabetes mellitus, genetic variants in the insulin-like growth factor pathway and colorectal cancer risk. Int J Cancer. 2019;145:1774.
- Yang Y-X, Hennessy S, Lewis JD. Insulin therapy and colorectal cancer risk among type 2 diabetes mellitus patients. Gastroenterology. 2004;127(4):1044–50.
- 50. Young J, Price TJ, Hardingham J, Symonds E, et al. Type 2 diabetes as a potential risk marker for early onset colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol. 2019;37(15):e15005.
- Leufkens AM. et al. Cigarette smoking and colorectal cancer risk in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition study. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2011;9(2):137–44.
- Fliss-Isakov N, Zelber-Sagi S, Webb M, Halpern Z, et al. Smoking habits are strongly associated with colorectal polyps in a population-based case-control study. J Clin Gastroenterol. 2018;52(9):805–11.
- Limsui D, et al. Cigarette smoking and colorectal cancer risk by molecularly defined subtypes. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2010;102(14):1012–22.
- Gong J, et al. A pooled analysis of smoking and colorectal cancer: timing of exposure and interactions with environmental factors. Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev. 2012;21(11):1974–85.
- Cleary SP, et al. Cigarette smoking, genetic variants in carcinogen-metabolizing enzymes, and colorectal cancer risk. Am J Epidemiol. 2010;172(9):1000–14.
- 56. Inger T, Gram S-YP, Wilkens LR, Haiman CA, Le Marchand L. Smoking and risk of colorectal cancer by sex and histological subsites: the Multiethnic Cohort (MEC) study [abstract]. In: Proceedings of the American Association for Cancer Research Annual Meeting 2019; 2019; Atlanta, GA. Philadelphia (PA): AACR. Cancer Res. 2019;79(13 Suppl):Abstract nr 628.
- Richards CH, et al. Smoking is a major risk factor for anastomotic leak in patients undergoing low anterior resection. Color Dis. 2012;14(5):628–33.
- Kim MJ, et al. The impact of heavy smoking on anastomotic leakage and stricture after low anterior resection in rectal cancer patients. World J Surg. 2011;35(12):2806–10.
- 59. Fedirko V, et al. Alcohol drinking and colorectal cancer risk: an overall and dose–response meta-analysis of published studies. Ann Oncol. 2011;22(9):1958–72.
- Phipps AI, Baron J, Newcomb PA. Prediagnostic smoking history, alcohol consumption, and colorectal cancer survival. Cancer. 2011;117(21):4948–57.
- 61. Bagnardi V, et al. Light alcohol drinking and cancer: a meta-analysis. Ann Oncol. 2013;24(2):301–8.
- 62. Boccola MA, et al. Risk factors and outcomes for anastomotic leakage in colorectal surgery: a single-institution analysis of 1576 patients. World J Surg. 2011;35(1):186–95.
- 63. Phipps AI, Shi Q, Limburg PJ, Nelson GD, Sargent DJ, Sinicrope FA, Chan E, Gill S, Goldberg RM, Kahlenberg M, Nair S, Shields AF, Newcomb PA, Alberts SR, Alliance for Clinical Trials in Oncology. Alcohol consumption and colon cancer prognosis among participants in north central cancer treatment group phase III trial N0147. Int J Cancer. 2016;139(5):986–95. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.30135. PMID: 27060850; PMCID: PMC4911257.
- Rossi M, Jahanzaib Anwar M, Usman A, Keshavarzian A, Bishehsari F. Colorectal cancer and alcohol consumption-populations to molecules. Cancers (Basel). 2018;10(2):38. https:// doi.org/10.3390/cancers10020038. PMID: 29385712; PMCID: PMC5836070.
- 65. Smith KS, Raney SV, Greene MW, et al. Development and validation of the dietary habits and colon cancer beliefs survey (DHCCBS): an instrument assessing health beliefs related to red meat and green leafy vegetable consumption. J Oncol. 2019;2019:2326808.
- 66. Chan DS, Lau R, Aune D, Vieira R, et al. Red and processed meat and colorectal cancer incidence: meta-analysis of prospective studies. PLoS One. 2011;6:6.
- Cross AJ, Ferrucci LM, Risch A, Graubard BI, et al. A large prospective study of meat consumption and colorectal cancer risk: an investigation of potential mechanisms underlying this association. Cancer Res. 2010;70(6):2406–14.

- Corpet DE. Red meat and colon cancer: should we become vegetarians, or can we make meat safer? Meat Sci. 2011;89(3):310–6.
- 69. Chan DSM, Aune D, Norat T. Red meat intake and colorectal cancer risk: a summary of epidemiological studies. Curr Nutr Rep. 2013;2(1):56–62.
- Carr PR, Banbury BL, Berndt SI, Campbell PT, et al. Association between intake of red and processed meat and survival in patients with colorectal cancer in a pooled analysis. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2019;17(8):1561–1570.e3.
- Shao T, Yang YX. Cholecystectomy and the risk of colorectal cancer. Am J Gastroenterol. 2005;100(8):1813–20.
- Lagergren J, Ye W, Ekbom A. Intestinal cancer after cholecystectomy: is bile involved in carcinogenesis? Gastroenterology. 2001;121(3):542–7.
- Chiong C, Cox MR, Eslick GD. Gallstones are associated with colonic adenoma: a metaanalysis. World J Surg. 2012;36:2202.
- Chiong C, Cox MR, Eslick GD. Gallstone disease is associated with rectal cancer: a metaanalysis. Scand J Gastroenterol. 2012;47(5):553–64.
- 75. Coats M, Shimi SM. Cholecystectomy and the risk of alimentary tract cancers: a systematic review. World J Gastroenterol. 2015;21(12):3679.
- Kang SH, Kim YH, Roh YH, et al. Gallstone, cholecystectomy and risk of gastric cancer. Ann Hepato Bili Pancr Surg. 2017;21(3):131–7.
- Hardy RG, Meltzer SJ, Jankowski JA. ABC of colorectal cancer: molecular basis for risk factors. Br Med J. 2000;321(7265):886.
- Zauber AG, et al. Colonoscopic polypectomy and long-term prevention of colorectal-cancer deaths. N Engl J Med. 2012;366(8):687–96.
- 79. Leggett B, Whitehall V. Role of the serrated pathway in colorectal cancer pathogenesis. Gastroenterology. 2010;138(6):2088–100.
- Cairns SR, Scholefield JH, Steele RJ, Dunlop MG, Thomas HJ, Evans GD, et al. Guidelines for colorectal cancer screening and surveillance in moderate and high risk groups (update from 2002). Gut. 2010;59(5):666–89.
- 81. Wolin KY, Carson K, Colditz GA. Obesity and cancer. Oncologist. 2010;15(6):556-65.
- Arnold M, Jiang L, Stefanick ML, Johnson KC, et al. Duration of adulthood overweight, obesity, and cancer risk in the women's health initiative: a longitudinal study from the United States. PLoS Med. 2016;13(8):e1002081.
- 83. Bardou M, Barkun AN, et al. Obesity and colorectal cancer. Gut. 2013;62(6):933-47.
- 84. Burke CA. Colonic complications of obesity. Gastroenterol Clin N Am. 2010;39(1):47-55.
- Sinicrope FA, Foster NR, Sargent DJ, O'Connell MJ, et al. Obesity is an independent prognostic variable in colon cancer survivors. Clin Cancer Res. 2010;16(6):1884–93.
- Flores M, et al. Obesity-induced increase in tumor necrosis factor-α leads to development of colon cancer in mice. Gastroenterology. 2012;143(3):741–753.e4.
- 87. Gialamas SP, et al. Circulating leptin levels and risk of colorectal cancer and adenoma: a case–control study and meta-analysis. Cancer Causes Control. 2013;24(12):2129–41.
- Jochem C, Leitzmann M. Obesity and colorectal cancer. In: Pischon T, Nimptsch K, editors. Obesity and cancer. Recent results in cancer research, vol. 208. Cham: Springer; 2016.
- Ahmed RL, et al. The metabolic syndrome and risk of incident colorectal cancer. Cancer. 2006;107(1):28–36.
- Mendonça FM, de Sousa FR, Barbosa AL, Martins SC, et al. Metabolic syndrome and risk of cancer: which link? Metabolism. 2015;64(2):182–9.
- Micucci C, Valli D, Matacchione G, Catalano A, et al. Current perspectives between metabolic syndrome and cancer. Oncotarget. 2016;7(25):38959.
- Sonnenberg A, Genta RM. Helicobacter pylori is a risk factor for colonic neoplasms. Am J Gastroenterol. 2012;108(2):208–15.
- Wu Q, Yang ZP, Xu P, et al. Association between Helicobacter pylori infection and the risk of colorectal neoplasia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Color Dis. 2013;15(7):e352–64.
- 94. Teimoorian F, Ranaei M, Tilaki KH, Shirvani JS, et al. Association of Helicobacter pylori Infection with colon cancer and adenomatous polyps. Iran J Pathol. 2018;13(3):325.

- 95. Venerito M, Vasapolli R, Rokkas T, Delchier JC, et al. Helicobacter pylori, gastric cancer and other gastrointestinal malignancies. Helicobacter. 2017;22:e12413.
- 96. Yasri S, Wiwanitkit V. Schistosoma Japonicum and colon polyps. Am J Med. 2018;131(4):e163.
- Damin DC, Ziegelmann PK, Damin AP. Human papillomavirus infection and colorectal cancer risk: a meta-analysis. Color Dis. 2013;15(8):e420–8.
- http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/cancer-info/cancerstats/types/bowel/riskfactors/bowelcancer-risk-factors#Infections. Accessed 10 October 2014.
- 99. Roesch-Dietlen F, Cano-Contreras AD, Sánchez-Maza YJ, et al. Frequency of human papillomavirus infection in patients with gastrointestinal cancer. Frecuencia de infección por virus del papiloma humano en pacientes con cáncer del aparato digestivo. Rev Gastroenterol Mex. 2018;83(3):253–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rgmx.2017.09.003.
- 100. Harkins L, et al. Specific localisation of human cytomegalovirus nucleic acids and proteins in human colorectal cancer. Lancet. 2002;360(9345):1557–63.
- 101. Li X, Qian D, Ju F, Wang B. Upregulation of Toll-like receptor 2 expression in colorectal cancer infected by human cytomegalovirus. Oncol Lett. 2015;9(1):365–70. https://doi. org/10.3892/ol.2014.2621.
- 102. Göttgens KWA, Breukink SO. Colorectal and anal cancer. In: Reisman Y, Gianotten W, editors. Cancer, intimacy and sexuality. Cham: Springer; 2017.
- 103. Shiels MS, Islam JY, Rosenberg PS, Hall HI, Jacobson E, Engels EA. Projected cancer incidence rates and burden of incident cancer cases in HIV-infected adults in the United States through 2030. Ann Intern Med. 2018;168(12):866–73. https://doi.org/10.7326/M17-2499.
- 104. Adami J, et al. Cancer risk following organ transplantation: a nationwide cohort study in Sweden. Br J Cancer. 2003;89(7):1221–7.
- 105. Safaeian M, Robbins HA, Berndt SI, Lynch CF, Fraumeni JF Jr, Engels EA. Risk of colorectal cancer after solid organ transplantation in the United States. Am J Transplant. 2016;16(3):960–7. https://doi.org/10.1111/ajt.13549.
- 106. Wong VW-S, et al. High prevalence of colorectal neoplasm in patients with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. Gut. 2011;60:829.
- 107. Pan S, Hong W, Wu W, Chen Q, Zhao Q, Wu J, Jin Y. The relationship of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and metabolic syndrome for colonoscopy colorectal neoplasm. Medicine (Baltimore). 2017;96(2):e5809. https://doi.org/10.1097/MD.000000000005809. PMID: 28079806; PMCID: PMC5266168.
- 108. Lee KC, Jeng WJ, Hsu CM, Kuo CJ, et al. Gallbladder polyps are associated with proximal colon polyps. Gastroenterol Res Pract. 2019;2019:9832482.
- Thun MJ, Jacobs EJ, Patrono C. The role of aspirin in cancer prevention. Nat Rev Clin Oncol. 2012;9(5):259–67.
- 110. Din FVN, et al. Aspirin inhibits mTOR signaling, activates AMP-activated protein kinase, and induces autophagy in colorectal cancer cells. Gastroenterology. 2012;142(7):1504–1515.e3.
- 111. Sung JJY. Is aspirin for colorectal cancer prevention on the prime time yet? Gut. 2014;63:1691.
- 112. Sung JJ, Ho JM, Chan FC, et al. Low-dose aspirin can reduce colorectal cancer mortality after surgery: a 10-year follow-up of 13 528 colorectal cancer patients. J Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2019;34(6):1027–34.
- 113. Mohammed A, et al. Intermittent dosing regimens of aspirin and naproxen inhibit azoxymethane-induced colon adenoma progression to adenocarcinoma and invasive carcinoma. Cancer Prev Res. 2019;12(11):751–62.
- 114. Lee JE, et al. Statin use and colorectal cancer risk according to molecular subtypes in two large prospective cohort studies. Cancer Prev Res. 2011;4(11):1808–15.
- 115. Lee JW, You NY, Kim Y, Kim Y, Kim J, et al. Statin use and site-specific risk of colorectal cancer in individuals with hypercholesterolemia from the National Health Insurance Service-National Health Screening Cohort (NHIS-HEALS). Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis. 2019;29(7):701–9.

- Rennert G, et al. Use of bisphosphonates and reduced risk of colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol. 2011;29(9):1146–50.
- 117. Chan AT, Giovannucci EL. Primary prevention of colorectal cancer. Gastroenterology. 2010;138(6):2029–2043.e10.
- 118. Jenab M, et al. Association between pre-diagnostic circulating vitamin D concentration and risk of colorectal cancer in European populations: a nested case-control study. BMJ. 2010;340:b5500.
- 119. Thacher TD, Clarke BL. Vitamin D insufficiency. In: Mayo Clinic Proceedings. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2011. p. 50–60.
- 120. Barbáchano A, Larriba MJ, Ferrer-Mayorga G, et al. Vitamin D and colon cancer. In: Vitamin D. New York, NY: Academic Press; 2018. p. 837–62.
- 121. Kushi LH, et al. American Cancer Society guidelines on nutrition and physical activity for cancer prevention. CA Cancer J Clin. 2012;62(1):30–67.
- 122. Friedenreich CM, Neilson HK, Lynch BM. State of the epidemiological evidence on physical activity and cancer prevention. Eur J Cancer. 2010;46(14):2593–604.
- 123. Pham NM, et al. Physical activity and colorectal cancer risk: an evaluation based on a systematic review of epidemiologic evidence among the Japanese population. Jpn J Clin Oncol. 2012;42(1):2–13.
- 124. Winzer BM, et al. Physical activity and cancer prevention: a systematic review of clinical trials. Cancer Causes Control. 2011;22(6):811–26.
- Oruç Z, Kaplan MA. Effect of exercise on colorectal cancer prevention and treatment. World J Gastrointest Oncol. 2019;11(5):348.
- 126. Dukas L, Willett WC, Giovannucci EL. Association between physical activity, fiber intake, and other lifestyle variables and constipation in a study of women. Am J Gastroenterol. 2003;98(8):1790.
- 127. Lawrence L. Fish may reduce risk of colon cancer recurrence. Oncology. 2019;33:10.
- 128. Duijnhoven V, Fränzel JB, et al. Blood lipid and lipoprotein concentrations and colorectal cancer risk in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. Gut. 2011;60:1094.
- 129. Aune D, et al. Dietary fibre, whole grains, and risk of colorectal cancer: systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies. BMJ. 2011;343:d6617.
- 130. Dahm CC, et al. Dietary fiber and colorectal cancer risk: a nested case–control study using food diaries. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2010;102:614.
- 131. Chen H-M, et al. Decreased dietary fiber intake and structural alteration of gut microbiota in patients with advanced colorectal adenoma. Am J Clin Nutr. 2013;97(5):1044–52.
- 132. Lin JH, et al. Postmenopausal hormone therapy is associated with a reduced risk of colorectal cancer lacking CDKN1A expression. Cancer Res. 2012;72(12):3020–8.
- 133. Limburg PJ, et al. Postmenopausal hormone therapy and colorectal cancer risk in relation to somatic KRAS mutation status among older women. Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev. 2012;21(4):681–4.
- 134. Simon MS, et al. Estrogen plus progestin and colorectal cancer incidence and mortality. J Clin Oncol. 2012;30:3983.
- 135. Lin KJ, et al. The effect of estrogen vs. combined estrogen-progestogen therapy on the risk of colorectal cancer. Int J Cancer. 2012;130(2):419–30.
- 136. Huang J, Choi P, Lok V, Chen C, Leung C, Wang A, et al. IDDF2018-ABS-0146 The knowledge and perceptions on colorectal cancer (CRC) screening in general population: a 10-year comparison. Gut. 2018;67:A58.
- 137. http://www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemiologysurveilance/documents/document/acspc-028323.pdf.
- Cappell MS. Reducing the incidence and mortality of colon cancer: mass screening and colonoscopic polypectomy. Gastroenterol Clin N Am. 2008;37(1):129–60.

- 139. Seitz U, et al. Is endoscopic polypectomy an adequate therapy for malignant colorectal adenomas? Presentation of 114 patients and review of the literature. Dis Colon Rectum. 2004;47(11):1789–97.
- 140. Lieberman DA, et al. Guidelines for colonoscopy surveillance after screening and polypectomy: a consensus update by the US Multi-Society Task Force on Colorectal Cancer. Gastroenterology. 2012;143(3):844–57.
- 141. Wada K, Oba S, Tsuji M, Goto Y, et al. Green tea intake and colorectal cancer risk in Japan: the Takayama study. Jpn J Clin Oncol. 2019;49(6):515–20.
- 142. Young PE, Womeldorph CM. Colonoscopy for colorectal cancer screening. J Cancer. 2013;4(3):217.
- 143. Boyne DJ, Lix LM, Town S, Heitman SJ, Hilsden RJ, et al. A simple risk prediction model for high-risk adenomatous polyps at the time of colonoscopy. Cancer Res. 2018;78:Abstract nr 2213.
- 144. Joshu CE, Parmigiani G, Colditz GA, Platz EA. Opportunities for the primary prevention of colorectal cancer in the United States. Cancer Prev Res. 2012;5(1):138–45.
- 145. http://www.cancer.org/cancer/colonandrectumcancer/detailedguide/ colorectal-cancer-prevention.
- 146. Joshu CE, et al. Opportunities for the primary prevention of colorectal cancer in the United States. Cancer Prev Res. 2012;5(1):138–45.
- 147. Wolin KY, et al. Physical activity and colon cancer prevention: a meta-analysis. Br J Cancer. 2009;100(4):611–6.
- 148. Reddy BS, et al. Preventive potential of wheat bran fractions against experimental colon carcinogenesis: implications for human colon cancer prevention. Cancer Res. 2000;60(17):4792–7.
- 149. Van Blarigan EL, Fuchs CS, Niedzwiecki D, Zhang S, et al. Association of survival with adherence to the American Cancer Society nutrition and physical activity guidelines for cancer survivors after colon cancer diagnosis: the CALGB 89803/alliance trial. JAMA Oncol. 2018;4(6):783–90.
- 150. Quintero E, Castells A, Bujanda L, Cubiella J, Salas D, Lanas Á, et al. Colonoscopy versus fecal immunochemical testing in colorectal-cancer screening. N Engl J Med. 2012;366(8):697–706.
- 151. http://www.nlm.nih.gov/medlineplus/ency/article/003393.htm. Accessed 10 October 2014.
- 152. Bassett ML, Goulston KJ. False positive and negative Hemoccult reactions on a normal diet and effect of diet restriction. Aust NZ J Med. 1980;10(1):1–4.
- 153. http://www.nlm.nih.gov/medlineplus/ency/patientinstructions/000704.htm. Accessed 10 October 2014.
- 154. Smith A, et al. Comparison of a brush-sampling fecal immunochemical test for hemoglobin with a sensitive guaiac-based fecal occult blood test in detection of colorectal neoplasia. Cancer. 2006;107(9):2152–9.
- 155. Ahlquist DA, Zou H, Domanico M, Mahoney DW, Yab TC, Taylor WR, et al. Next-generation stool DNA test accurately detects colorectal cancer and large adenomas. Gastroenterology. 2012;142(2):248–56.
- 156. Heigh RI, Yab TC, Taylor WR, Hussain FT, Smyrk TC, Mahoney DW, et al. Detection of colorectal serrated polyps by stool DNA testing: comparison with fecal immunochemical testing for occult blood (FIT). PLoS One. 2014;9(1):e85659.
- 157. Smith RA, Brooks D, Cokkinides V, Saslow D, Brawley OW. Cancer screening in the United States, 2013. CA Cancer J Clin. 2013;63(2):87–105.
- 158. Qaseem A, Denberg TD, Hopkins RH, Humphrey LL, Levine J, Sweet DE, Shekelle P. Screening for colorectal cancer: a guidance statement from the American College of Physicians. Ann Intern Med. 2012;156(5):378–86.
- 159. Levin B, Lieberman DA, McFarland B, Smith RA, Brooks D, Andrews KS, et al. Screening and surveillance for the early detection of colorectal cancer and adenomatous polyps, 2008: a joint guideline from the American Cancer Society, the US Multi-Society Task Force on colorectal cancer, and the American College of Radiology\*†. CA Cancer J Clin. 2008;58(3):130–60.

- 160. Qaseem A, Crandall CJ, Mustafa RA, et al. for the Clinical Guidelines Committee of the American College of Physicians. Screening for Colorectal cancer in asymptomatic averagerisk adults: a guidance statement from the American College of Physicians. Ann Intern Med. 2019;171:643–54. https://doi.org/10.7326/M19-0642.
- 161. https://www.cancer.org/cancer/colon-rectal-cancer/detection-diagnosis-staging/acs-recommendations.html. Accessed 12 December 2019.