

RETROSPECTIVE ANALYSIS OF EPIDEMIOLOGY, PROGNOSTIC FACTORS AND RESPONSE OF TREATMENT OF RECTAL CANCER

Thesis

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List of Abbreviations

| Abb. | Full term |
|-------------|--|
| ACS | American Cancer Society |
| | American Joint Committee on Cancer/Union for International Cancer Control |
| <i>ALP</i> | Alkaline phosphatase |
| APC | Adenomatous polyposis gene |
| <i>APR</i> | Abdominoperineal resection |
| ASCO | American Society of Clinical Oncology |
| ASR | Age standardized risk |
| <i>CEA</i> | Carcino-embryonic antigen |
| <i>CIMP</i> | CpG island methylator pathway |
| CIN | Chromosomal instability |
| <i>CpG</i> | Cytosine- phosphate- Guanine |
| CR | Complete Response |
| CRC | Colorectal cancer |
| CRCs | Colorectal cancers |
| <i>CRM</i> | Circumferential resection margin |
| CTC | Computed tomographic colonography |
| DCBE | Double-contrast barium enema |
| DFS | Disease free survival |
| ECE | Extracapsular nodal extension |
| EGFR | Epidermal growth factor receptor |
| <i>ESD</i> | Endoscopic submucosal dissection |
| <i>ESMO</i> | European Society for Medical Oncology |
| EUS | Endoscopic Ultrasound |

List of Abbreviations (Cont...)

| Abb. | Full term |
|------------|---|
| <i>FAP</i> | . Familial adenomatous polyposis |
| FOBTs | . Fecal occult blood tests |
| FU | . Fluoroura cil |
| <i>GI</i> | . Gastroint estinal |
| HNPCC | . Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer |
| HR | . Hazard ratio |
| IGF-1 | .Insulin-like growth factor 1 |
| IGFBP-3 | .IGF binding protein-3 |
| <i>LAR</i> | . Lower anterior resection |
| LCCRT | $. Long\text{-}course\ chemoradio the rapy$ |
| <i>LE</i> | . Local excision |
| <i>LS</i> | .Lynch syndrome |
| LVI | .Lymphovascular invasion |
| <i>MAP</i> | $. MUTYH-associated\ polyposis$ |
| MCRC | . Metastatic Colorectal Cancer |
| mCRC | . Metastatic colorectal cancer |
| <i>MMR</i> | .Mismatch repair |
| MRI | . Magnetic Resonance Imaging |
| MSI | $. Microsatellite\ in stability$ |
| N stage | $. Nodal\ stage$ |
| OS | . Overall survival |
| PD | . Progressive Disease |
| <i>PET</i> | . Positron emission tomography |
| PFS | . Progression free survival |

List of Abbreviations (Cont...)

| Abb. | Full term |
|------------|---|
| PNI | Perineural invasion |
| PR | Partial Response |
| <i>PS</i> | Performance status |
| <i>RR</i> | Relative risk |
| SCRT | Short-course radiotherapy |
| <i>SD</i> | Stable Disease |
| SEER | Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results |
| <i>TME</i> | Total mesorectal excision |
| <i>TNM</i> | Tumor, node, metastasis |
| TRUS | Trans Rectal Ultrasound |
| TSGs | Tumor-suppressor genes |
| <i>WBC</i> | White blood cell |
| WHO | World Health Organization |

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer is the third most frequently diagnosed malignancy just behind lung and breast cancer, accounting for about 1.8 million cases each year, and the second cancer causing death worldwide, accounting to more than 850,000 death per year (*GLOBOCAN*, 2018). The magnitude of the rectal cancer problem is significant with 40,000 new cases of rectal cancer seen yearly in the United States (*Jemal et al.*, 2009). An estimated 80,000 new cases in EU countries per year, rectal carcinoma is one of the most prevalent tumor types (*Smith et al.*, 2010).

The 5- and 10-year relative survival rates for people with colorectal cancer are 65% and 58% respectively. When colorectal cancer is detected at a localized stage the 5-year survival is 90% however only 40% of colorectal cancers are diagnosed at this early stage due to the underuse of screening. If the cancer has spread regionally to involve nearby organs or lymph nodes by the time of diagnosis the 5-year survival drops to 71%. If the disease has spread to distant organs the 5-year survival is 13% (American Cancer Society, 2015).

The risk of CRC increases with age. Median age at diagnosis is about 70 years or slightly older in most European countries (*Glimelius et al.*, 2013).



Incidence of rectal carcinoma is strongly connected with age because ninety percent of cases are diagnosed over the age of 50. It is known that as many as 30 to 50% of individuals older than 50 harbor one or more adenomatous polyps (Smith et al., 2010).

The importance of the timely diagnosis of younger patients with rectal cancer is demonstrated by several studies examining outcomes in these patients. Younger patients tend to present with more advanced disease, and their overall survival has been reported to be inferior to that of older patients (Meyer et al., 2010).

CRC which are distal to the recto-sigmoid junction are designated as rectal cancer. In one-third of the cases, CRC is diagnosed in the rectum, and rectal involvement has a worse prognosis due to a higher rate of local recurrence and a higher incidence of metastasis at diagnosis. Any tumor whose distal margin is seen approximately 15 cm or less from the anal verge by using a rigid proctoscope should typically be classified as a rectal cancer (Sagar et al., 2006).

Regular use of NSAIDs is associated with reduced incidence. Diabetes type II increases the risk and there is probably a causal role of hyperinsulinaemia and insulin-like growth factors. It is well recognized that individuals with inflammatory bowel disease (ulcerative colitis and Crohn's

disease) are at an increased risk for colorectal cancer (Beaugerie et al., 2013).

The literature on risk factors for colorectal cancer is extensive. Diet and dietary components are important, although the risk increases are not marked and not universally seen. Dietary fiber most likely decreases the risk, whereas excessive consumption of red or processed meat most likely increases it. Smoking increases the risk as does at least moderate and heavy alcohol use. It has been noted that an otherwise healthy lifestyle can substantially reduce the risk (*Kirkegaard et al., 2010*).

Approximately 20% of cases of colorectal cancer are associated with familial clustering. Genetic susceptibility of colorectal cancer includes well-defined inherited syndromes such as lynch syndrome (also known as hereditary non polyposis colorectal cancer [HNPCC]). Therefore, it is recommended that all patients with colorectal cancer be queried regarding their family history and considered for risk assessment (*Hemminki et al.*, 2004).

Screening has the potential to prevent colorectal cancer because it can detect precancerous growths, called polyps, in the colon and rectum. Although most polyps will not become cancerous, removing them can prevent cancer from occurring. Furthermore, regular screening increases the likelihood that colorectal cancers that do develop will be detected at an early