



Dietary and genetic factors associated with risk for development of colorectal cancer: Case-control study in a Basque population



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To my parents

“Let food be thy medicine and medicine be thy food.”

Hippocrates

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Glossary

A: adenine

AI: adequate intake

AICR: American Institute for Cancer Research

AMDR: acceptable macronutrient distribution ranges

APC: adenomatous polyposis coli

ASRi: age-standardized incidence rate

ASRm: age-standardized mortality rate

BMI: body mass index

C: cytosine

CI: confidence interval

CRC: colorectal cancer

CRCSP: colorectal cancer screening programme

CUP: Continuous Update Project

DHA: docosahexaenoic acid

DI: deprivation index

DUSP10: dual specificity protein phosphatase 10

EAR: estimated average requirements

EER: estimated energy requirement

EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid

ERK: extracellular regulated mitogen-activated protein kinase

FOBT: faecal occult blood test

FS: flexible sigmoidoscopy

G: guanine

gFOBT: guaiac-based faecal occult blood test

GH1: growth hormone 1

GQ: general questionnaire

GWAS: genome-wide association study

HEISD: Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet

HRT: hormonal replacement therapy

HWE: Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium

IBD: inflammatory bowel disease

IGF-I: insulin like growth factor 1

iFOBT: immunochemical faecal occult blood test

JNK: c-Jun amino terminal kinase

KOM: Kolon-ondesteko minbizia

L: level

MAPK: mitogen-activated protein kinase

MD: Mediterranean diet

MDS: MedDietScore

MEKK1: MAPK/ERK kinase kinase 1

mRNA: messenger RNA

MTHFR: methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase

MUFA: monounsaturated fatty acids

NA: not available data

NOSP: nutritional objectives for the Spanish population

NSAID: non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug

OR: odds ratio

PA: physical activity

PE: physical exercise

PI: physical inactivity

PRM: predictive risk modelling

PKG: cGMP-dependent protein kinase

PUFA: polyunsaturated fatty acids

Q: quintile

QoL: quality of life

RCT: randomized controlled trial

RR: relative risk

rs: reference single nucleotide polymorphism

SEK1: dual specificity mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase sek-1

SFFQ: short food frequency questionnaire

SFA: saturated fatty acids

SNP: single nucleotide polymorphism

T: thymine

TEI: total energy intake

WCR: World Cancer Research Fund

WHO: World Health Organization

Abstract

To date, case-control studies have revealed inconsistent evidence on the influence of dietary and genetic factors on colorectal cancer (CRC) risk. In order to better elucidate the role of some of these factors in the aetiology of CRC, the main objective of this study was to analyse dietary and genetic factors in a sample of cases and controls from the population-based CRC screening programme of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. In addition, taking into account that an unhealthy diet is associated with the risk of tumour recurrence, metastasis and death, the other aim of this thesis was to assess the adequacy of nutrients consumed and diet quality in a group of CRC patients postsurgery. The results showed that the diet of the studied CRC patients postsurgery is inadequate in many respects, including nutrients and food intakes. In fact, this inadequacy is associated with certain health determinants. On the other hand, there are direct associations between CRC risk and high-fat cheese, and inverse associations with fibre-containing foods and fatty fish, as well as adherence to a Mediterranean Diet pattern, in the case-control sample analysed. With respect to genetic factors, it was confirmed a CRC susceptibility locus and the existence of associations between modifiable factors and the rs6687758 SNP; moreover, the Genetic Risk Score was associated with CRC. However, further studies are needed to better understand the influence of the dietary habits on CRC prevention and to establish the role of the genetic factors, as well as the contribution of the gene-diet interactions to the risk of CRC in this population.

Resumen

Hasta la fecha, los estudios de casos y controles han mostrado contradicciones en las evidencias sobre la influencia de factores dietéticos y genéticos en el aumento del riesgo de cáncer colorrectal (CCR). Con el fin de conocer mejor el papel de algunos de estos factores en la etiología del CCR, planteamos el presente estudio con el objetivo principal de analizar factores dietéticos y genéticos en una muestra de casos y controles procedente del programa de cribado de CCR de Osakidetza/Servicio Vasco de Salud. Además, teniendo en cuenta que una dieta poco saludable se asocia con mayor riesgo de recurrencia del tumor, metástasis y mayor mortalidad, otro objetivo de esta tesis fue evaluar la adecuación de la ingesta de nutrientes y la calidad de la dieta en un grupo de pacientes diagnosticados de CCR, después del tratamiento quirúrgico. Los resultados mostraron que la dieta de los pacientes con CRC estudiados tras la cirugía, era inadecuada en varios aspectos, incluida la ingesta de nutrientes y alimentos, y que esta inadecuación estaba asociada a ciertos determinantes de salud. Por otro lado, en la muestra de casos y controles, se observó asociación directa entre el riesgo de CCR y el consumo de quesos con un alto contenido en grasa, y asociaciones inversas con la ingesta de alimentos ricos en fibra y de pescado azul, así como con la adherencia a un patrón de Dieta Mediterránea. Con respecto a los factores genéticos, se confirmó un locus de susceptibilidad para el CCR y la asociación entre ciertos factores modificables y el SNP rs6687758. También se asoció una mayor puntuación en el riesgo genético con el CCR. En cualquier caso, son necesarios más estudios para comprender mejor la influencia de los hábitos dietéticos sobre el CCR y para establecer el papel de los factores genéticos, así como la contribución de las interacciones gen-dieta al riesgo de CCR en esta población.

Laburpena

Orain arte, kasuen eta kontrolen azterketek agerian utzi dute faktore dietetikoek eta genetikoek kolon-ondesteko minbizirako (KOM) arriskua areagotzean duten eraginari buruzko ebidentziak kontraesankorrak direla. Faktore horietako batzuek KOM etiologian duten zeregina hobeto argitu nahian, azterlan honen helburu nagusia faktore dietetikoak eta genetikoak aztertzea izan zen, Osakidetza-Euskal osasun zerbitzuaren KOM detekzio goiztiarreko programaren kasuen eta kontrolen lagin batean. Gainera, kontuan hartuta dieta ez oso osasungarria tumorearen errepikatze-arriskuarekin, metastasiarekin eta hilkortasunarekin lotuta dagoela, tesi honen beste helburua izan zen ebaluatzea ea egokia zen mantenugaien kontsumoa eta dietaren kalitatea KOM zuten pazienteen talde batean, kirurgia-tratamendua jaso ondoren. Emaitzek erakutsi zuten kirurgiaren ondoren aztertutako KOM zuten pazienteen dieta desegokia zela alderdi batzuetan, mantenugaien eta elikagaien kontsumoan barne, eta gutxiegitasun hori osasun-determinatzaile jakin batzuekin lotuta zegoela. Bestalde, kasuen eta kontrolen laginean, lotura zuzenak zeuden KOM arriskuaren eta gantz eduki handiko gazta kontsumoaren artean, eta alderantzizko asoziazioak zuntza eta arrain koipetsua duten elikagai-kontsumoarekin, baita Dieta Mediterraneoko patroi batekiko atxikidura ere. Faktore genetikoei dagokienez, baieztatu zen KOM izateko arriskua zegoela, eta faktore aldagarrien eta SNP rs687758 delakoaren arteko loturak zeudela. Gainera, arrisku genetikoan puntuazio handiagoa lortu izana gaixotasunarekin lotu zen. Dena den, azterlan gehiago behar dira elikadura-ohituren eragina KOM arriskuan, faktore genetikoaren zeregina, eta geneen eta dietaren arteko elkarrekintzak hobeto ulertzeko.

Motivation of the present study

CRC is both one of the most common and one of the most preventable cancers. Its incidence is steadily rising in western countries and it is already the second most deadly cancer worldwide. The increased incidence of CRC has been attributed to environmental changes, such as a high consumption of processed foods, meat, meat derivatives and alcohol, more frequent sedentary behaviours, greater obesity and longevity. Many risk and protective factors, very common and potentially modifiable lifestyle behaviours, and specifically diet and nutrition have been studied to date. However, many of the results are inconsistent and vary considerably depending on the population and the methodology used. In order to better elucidate the role of some of these factors in the aetiology of CRC, the present work aimed to analyse dietary and genetic factors in a sample, not studied to date in this regard, from the population-based CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. In addition, taking into account the potential of tertiary prevention measures to improve the prognosis and quality of life of CRC patients, the other aim of this work was to assess the adequacy of the diet of CRC patients postsurgery to the nutritional recommendations. Given the complexity of the subject that we will tackle, the results will be confirmed in subsequent studies with bigger sample sizes. In this sense, the population of the Autonomous Region of Basque Country opens up new opportunities, due to the relatively high incidence of this kind of cancer and the fact of having a public health system that allows us access to clinical histories, pathology reports and tissue samples, all of which are necessary for this study.

Table of Contents	Page
1. Introduction: colorectal cancer	1
1.1. Definition and epidemiology	3
1.2. Aetiology	4
1.3. Risk factors	4
1.4. Preventive factors	6
1.5. Genetic susceptibility	8
1.6. Prevention	9
2. Hypotheses and objectives	27
2.1. Hypotheses	29
2.2. Objectives	30
3. Participants, methods and results	31
3.1. Study 1: “Nutritional Adequacy and Diet Quality in Colorectal Cancer Patients Postsurgery: A Pilot Study”	33
3.2. Study 2: “Gene-diet interactions in colorectal cancer: survey design, instruments, participants and descriptive data of a case-control study in the Basque Country”	61
3.3. Study 3: “Food groups, diet quality and colorectal cancer risk in the Basque Country”	95
3.4. Study 4: “Single nucleotide polymorphisms associated with susceptibility for development of colorectal cancer: Case-control study in a Basque population”	135
4. Discussion	177
5. Conclusions	205

1.INTRODUCTION

1. COLORECTAL CANCER

1.1. DEFINITION AND EPIDEMIOLOGY

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is a malignant neoplasm arising from epithelium anywhere in the large bowel (caecum, ascending, transverse, descending or sigmoid colon, rectum), excluding the appendix and the anus [1]. More than 90% of colorectal carcinomas are adenocarcinomas originating from the glandular epithelial of the large intestine [2]. CRC is already the second most deadly cancer worldwide, with about 881,000 deaths estimated for 2018 [3], and its incidence is steadily rising in western countries [4]. According to GLOBOCAN 2018 data, CRCs are the third most commonly diagnosed form of cancer globally, consisting of 11% of all cancer diagnoses [4]. This type of cancer has a higher incidence in men than women and an increasing age-standardized incidence rate, (ASR_i) per 100,000 of CRC in both sexes is 19.7, in males it is 23.6, and in females 16.3 [5].

Incidence and mortality varies geographically, more-developed regions have a higher incidence and mortality than less-developed ones [5]. Europe is among the seven world regions ranked according to ASR_i, with an ASR_i of 30.0 per 100,000 [6]. In particular, in Spain, the ASR_i for CRC is 33.4 per 100,000 (21.1 per 100,000 in males and 12.4 per 100,000 in females) [7]. In the Basque Country, one of the autonomous regions of the North of Spain, this pathology is the most frequent type of cancer (taking into account the incidence rates of both sexes combined) [8]. The main factors that contribute to incidence variation between countries and even within a nation are disparities in access to screenings and in lifestyle behaviours [4,9,10].

Regarding the mortality in CRC in countries with a high human development index, the age-standardized mortality rate (ASR_m) is 12.8 per 100,000 among males and 8.5 per 100,000 among females [4]. The CRC is the deadliest cancer among males in Saudi Arabia, Oman and United Arab Emirates, and the most deadly among females in Algeria, Belarus, Japan, Spain, and Portugal [4]. During recent years, mortality rates by CRC have been decreasing due to early screening programs [10,11] and better treatment options [12]. However, by the year 2030, the global burden of CRC is expected to increase by 60% to over 2.2 million new cases. This growth would be probably related to environmental changes, such as a high consumption of processed foods, meat, meat derivatives and alcohol, more frequent sedentary behaviours, greater obesity and longevity [13].

1.2. AETIOLOGY

The aetiology of CRC is complex and still not fully understood. Historically, CRCs have been hypothesized to arise via the gradual stepwise accumulation of mutations [14,15]. The progression from normal tissue to dysplastic epithelium to carcinoma would be accompanied by the accumulation of mutations that perturb specific genetic pathways at each phase of the tumorigenic process. However, several studies demonstrated that 80%–90% of CRC are initiated following the loss of activity of the adenomatous polyposis coli (APC) gene [16,17].

New evolutionary models, for their part, explain better the vast amount of heterogeneity observed within and across colorectal tumours [18]. Good examples of this are the “Big Bang” theory of tumorigenesis [19] and the cancer “punctuated equilibrium” model. This latter model describes the development of tumours as a process characterized by long periods of stasis, punctuated by rapid periods of transformation and molecular changes [20]. In these rapid periods, mutations, epigenetic and transcriptional alterations take place, producing changes in the phenotype and contributing to the development of adenoma.

Notwithstanding these advances, many aspects related to the aetiology of this type of cancer such as the adenoma-to-carcinoma sequence, the timing of mechanisms involved and the dynamics between multiple clones remain unknown. Authors such as Sievers *et al.* [18] have speculated that there are previously unidentified factors, such genetic, epigenetic, or signalling related factors, that make certain cells more susceptible to neoplastic transformation. Understanding better the causes and mechanisms of this disease is critical for long-term prevention, detection and treatment.

1.3. RISK FACTORS

Unlike other cancers, no single risk factor accounts for most cases of CRC. Although inherited susceptibility results in the most striking increases in risk, the majority of CRCs are sporadic rather than familial. Moreover, both genetic and environmental factors play an important role in its aetiology [21]. Males have about a 1.5-fold higher chance than females of developing CRC, taking into account all ages and nations [4]. However, women are more susceptible to suffer from right-sided colon cancer, which is characterised by a greater aggressive growth compared to the left-sided one [22]. In addition, people over 65 years old are about three times more likely to suffer from CRC than those between 50-64 years of age, and about 30 times more likely to suffer from CRC than those who are 25-49 years old [3].

Besides age and male sex, other risk factors identified in epidemiological studies are the following: family history of CRC [23], inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), smoking, excessive alcohol consumption, high consumption of red and processed meat, physical inactivity (PI), obesity, and diabetes. The risk increase is strongest for people with CRC history in first-degree and people with IBD, for both factors the estimated relative risks (RRs) are greater than 2. More than 30% of CRC patients have a family history of this type of cancer. Those with a relative with CRC history in first-degree suffer a 2-4 times higher risk. The most common hereditary syndrome, the Lynch syndrome, accounts for 2%-4% all cases. The second one is the familial adenomatous polyposis, which is less than 1% of all cases [3].

Patients with IBD have a two-fold risk of developing CRC. The primary causes behind IBD are ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease [24,25]. Both IBDs are auto-immunes and characterised by inflammation that results in the abnormal release of growth cytokines, metabolic free radicals, excess blood flow and other factors that have an influence on carcinogenesis. There are other, more common and potentially modifiable, risk factors, such as lifestyle and certain diseases that contribute greatly to CRC process at the population level, even if their RR is low (between 1.2 and 2.0) [26]. Thus toxic habits such as tobacco and alcohol have been associated with CRC risk. The relative CRC risk of regular smoking is 1.18 [27] and this risk has been associated with mutagens of tobacco [28]. A meta-analysis [29] and more recent studies [30] have also found that associations between alcohol consumption and CRC risk is dose-dependent. Although the mechanisms underlying alcohol-induced CRC are still not well defined, plausible events include: genotoxic effect of acetaldehyde, increased estrogen concentration, cellular stress, altered folate metabolism, and inflammation [31,32].

With regard to diet, red meat and meat derivatives are known to increase the risk of CRC [33]. Prospective studies found a RR of 1.22 among those who consumed the most red meat and meat derivatives [34]. In fact, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) designated processed meat as "carcinogenic" and red meat as "probably carcinogenic", due to its impact on CRC risk [35]. This effect has been related to the high fat and inflammatory substances content [36,37] and the high-temperature cooking of meat [37,38].

On the other hand, both obesity and PI constitute the most significant behavioural contributors to CRC development, especially in countries with a high human development index. Studies found that sedentary people can have up to a 50% risk of CRC. It has been estimated that obesity is associated with a 50% greater risk of colon

cancer in men and 20% in women, and 20% greater risk of rectal cancer in men and 10% in women [3]. The changes that occur in the obese state and that connect obesity with increased CRC risk are the following: altered levels of insulin, insulin-like growth factor-1, leptin, adiponectin, steroid hormones, and cytokines [39]. In the same way, Diabetes mellitus is linked to a predisposition to suffer from CRC [40], due to shared risk factors between diabetes, obesity and sedentary behaviours. Finally, emerging evidence suggests that infection with *Helicobacter pylori*, *Fusobacterium* spp, and other potential infectious agents might be associated with an increase of CRC [41-43].

1.4. PREVENTIVE FACTORS

Established preventive factors against CRC include physical activity (PA) and use of certain medications with risk reduction in the order of 20%-30% [22,44-46]. Many studies have emphasized the effect of PA in reducing the risk of susceptibility to CRC [47,48]. Authors such Golshiri *et al.* [49] found that CRC risk in people that practice PA in leisure-time is 27% less than people who do not. Possible events related to the mechanisms underlying PA-mediated CRC include: changes in the material in gastrointestinal transit time, immune function as well as changes in prostaglandin levels, insulin, insulin-like growth factors, bile acid secretion, serum cholesterol as well as pancreatic and gastrointestinal hormone profiles [50,51].

Certain medications that are commonly used for other diseases, such as non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and hormonal replacement therapy (HRT) in postmenopausal women have also been shown to protect against CRC. For the first of these drugs, the benefit has not been quantified, and due to the side effects that these drugs can cause they are not used in primary prevention of CRC [3]. And with regard to the latter, the protective effects remain controversial: although observational studies found a long-term decreased risk of CRC, randomized trials did not replicate these results [3]. Although not as consistent as PA and certain medications, several data suggest a protective effect of a diet especially rich in fruits and vegetables, fibre, resistant starch, dairy products, as well as calcium supplements [33,52,53]. This protective effect of diet and nutrition against the development of CRC is independent of obesity and is estimated to explain 30%-50% of the CRC incidences.

Fibre found commonly in vegetables, fruits, and whole grains are protective because they increase transit time and consequently reduce the carcinogens exposition. In addition, bacterial fermentation of fibre produces short-chain fatty acids with anticarcinogenic properties [54,55]. The Continuous Update Project (CUP) on CRC of

2011, led by the World Cancer Research Fund and American Institute of Cancer Research (WCRF/AICR), concluded that there was now “convincing” evidence that increased fibre intake was protective against the risk of colorectal cancer [56]. Regarding dairy product consumption, two meta-analyses [57,58] reported a significant inverse association when comparing the highest and lowest levels of intake. Observed inverse associations between intake of dairy products and CRC development have been largely attributed to their content of calcium, as well as lactic acid-producing bacteria and other constituents or bio-active compounds [59,60].

The last CUP on CRC, led by WCRF/AICR, determined that there is strong evidence that the consumption of dairy products may help to protect against CRC [33]. However, the CRC risk associated with the consumption of different types of dairy products (e.g., yogurt or hard cheese), as well as the consumption of dairy product subtypes according to their fat composition (e.g., skimmed/semi-skimmed or full milk), remains unclear [61-63]. The WCRF/AICR, in the last CUP on CRC, concluded that calcium supplement diets probably decrease CRC risk [33]. This mineral may reduce CRC risk via stimulating differentiation, reducing proliferation, and inducing apoptosis [64]. In addition, a few large randomized controlled trials (RCTs), have reported that this supplementation can reduce recurrence of adenomas, precursors of most sporadic CRCs [65-66]. Nevertheless, some issues on the association between calcium and CRC risk are still not well understood, as is the case of differences according to the anatomic subsite of the tumour, the dose-response or when exposure to this mineral may play the most significant role.

Other nutrients supplements apart from calcium, such as folate seem to inhibit carcinogenesis but promote the growth of existent tumours. Therefore, its use is not recommended, except in case of pregnancy or MTHFR mutation, which have a predisposition to high homocysteine levels [3]. In any case, foods and nutrients are not consumed in isolation but as part of a dietary pattern; therefore, the actual effect of diet on disease risk may be observed only when all components are considered jointly [67]. For this purpose, several diet quality indexes have been developed using point systems to measure whole diet quality based on the alignment of food choices with dietary recommendations. Some of these indices have been used to begin assessing the relationships between overall diet quality and CRC risk, and the results show that high scores in these indices are associated with a lower CRC risk [68-71]. In particular, the association between Mediterranean Diet (MD) and CRC has been examined by many case-control [72-74] and cohort studies [75].

This dietary pattern is characterised by high intakes of vegetables, fruits, whole grains, nuts, and olive oil; moderate intakes of fish, poultry, and low-fat dairy foods; and low intakes of red meat, processed meat, and sugar-sweetened drinks. Although most of studies showed an inverse association between the use of MD and the risk for CRC, some inconsistencies have been observed, firstly relating to the different scoring indexes utilized to determine MD adherence. In spite of these inconsistencies, results of observational studies and three meta-analyses showed a decreased risk of CRC associated with adherence to a MD [76]. The health benefits of the MD have been extensively documented in the literature about protection against various diseases, including cancers. This is also reflected in its inclusion as a recommended dietary pattern, among others in the 2015 Dietary Guidelines for Americans [77].

Lastly, it should be noted that protective and risk factors are not present in isolation, but coexist and interact with each other and with other factors, for example, both dietary and genetic factors affect CRC risk, through an interactive manner [78]. The recognition of these interactions as a driver in CRC may open up new areas of research in disease epidemiology, risk assessment, and treatments.

1.5. GENETIC SUSCEPTIBILITY

Although environmental factors are undoubtedly major risk factors for this type of cancer, early onset and familial clustering suggest that CRC has a substantial heritable component [79]. In a study carried out in a large twin sample [80], researchers noted that 35% of CRC risk might be attributable to heritable factors. While rare genetic variants with high penetrance do confer a predisposition for inherited forms of CRC, as is also the case in familial adenomatous polyposis and Lynch syndrome, which account for 5% of CRC cases [81], the remaining genetic heritability appears to be a consequence of joint inheritance of multiple common low-penetrance genetic variants [82,83]. It seems that susceptibility single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) confer weak but cumulative and increasing effects on CRC development [84].

To investigate common low-penetrance genetic variants for CRC, genome-wide screening using high-throughput DNA sequencing has been tried. A previous genome-wide association study (GWAS) had identified several CRC-susceptibility SNPs that confer a modest increased risk of CRC in populations of European ancestry [85-91]. Despite many candidate gene [92] and genome-wide association studies (GWAS) [93] evaluating common genetic risk factors for CRC, only a few of these have been replicated in subsequent studies [94].

1.6. PREVENTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is both one of the most common and one of the most preventable cancers globally, with an important potential for primary, secondary and tertiary prevention. Epidemiological evidence suggests that a significant proportion of CRCs could be avoided by changing lifestyle-related factors [96]. Several of the aforementioned risk factors, especially maintenance of a reasonable level of PA and a healthy weight, should be included in comprehensive primary prevention strategies. Regarding diet and nutrition, since foods and nutrients are not consumed in isolation and there is controversy about the role of specific foods groups and nutrients, consideration of dietary pattern as a whole appears useful for establishing recommendations.

The role of many nutritional supplements, including, folate, vitamin B₆ and omega-3, remains unknown. Apparently, only calcium and vitamin D supplementation appear to add a modest benefit, particularly in those with a low daily intake [97]. On the other hand, the role of medications such as aspirin and NSAIDs drugs, and postmenopausal HRT might be associated with substantial reductions in CRC risk. However, due to lack of data and possible side-effects, these medications are not recommended in primary prevention of CRC [98]. Since most cases of CRC develop slowly over more than 10 years and early detection allows efficient treatment, perspectives for secondary prevention by screening are much better for this cancer than for most other cancers. Faecal occult blood testing (FOBT) (that can either be guaiac-based (gFOBT) or immunochemical (iFOBT)), flexible sigmoidoscopy (FS) and colonoscopy are recognized as being cost-efficient [100] and the majority of guidelines suggest 1-2 year intervals for FOBT screening [99].

National and international screening guidelines also recommended starting at 50 years of age for average-risk individuals, with use of gFOBT or iFOBT. A positive gFOBT or iFOBT has to be followed up by colonoscopy. Population-based CRC screening programmes (CRCSPs) have been implemented from 2013 nationally or regionally in 20 of the EU Member States, in the 50+ year age group. Modelling studies [101] suggest that the cost-effectiveness ratio of these CRCSPs is dependent on several factors such as background risk, screening method and organization of the programme, resources in health care and on the targeted age range, among others. iFOBT has been the most common screening test because of its higher sensitivity and the logistic advantages it has over gFOBT [102,103].

The Spanish Society of Medical Oncology, for its part, recommends screening for average-risk individuals aged ≥ 50 , without any other added risk factors, with use of biennial iFOBT. As an alternative to iFOBT, annual or biennial high-sensitivity gFOBT, FS repeated every 5 years or colonoscopy repeated every 10 years can be used. Population-based CRCSP is covered in all the Autonomous Communities, and it was estimated that the entire population would be included in organized population-based programmes by the year 2024 [104]. In particular, in 2008, in the Autonomous Community of the Basque Country the implementation of a regional population-based screening programme for CRC was approved. The programme was aimed at men and women between 50 and 69 years old, using one sample of iFOBT biennially and a colonoscopy under sedation as a diagnostic confirmation in positive cases. The programme started in 2009, reaching almost the whole target population (approximately 586,700 people) at the beginning of 2014. The main results found in the first period showed a high participation rate, as well as high adenoma and CRC detection rates [105,106].

Increasing evidence shows also that the prognosis and quality of life (QoL) of CRC patients can be substantially improved by tertiary prevention measures [107]. In particular, the use of aspirin, increasing PA level and cessation of smoking could improve the survival and the quality of life of CRC patients. In observational studies there is increasing evidence that use of low-dose aspirin could enhance survival after CRC diagnosis [108-110], through mechanisms related to cyclooxygenase (COX) inhibition and non-COX mechanisms [111]. Some randomized controlled trials have begun to study the potential role of this medication in tertiary prevention [112]. A smoking habit and excessive alcohol consumption, in addition to being risk factors for CRC, are associated with lower survival rates in CRC patients [113]. Although the mechanism of these associations remain unclear, it is known that these unhealthy lifestyle habits increase surgical complications and decrease response to radiotherapy and chemotherapy, among other effects [114-116].

Moreover, there is evidence that PA appears to have a favourable influence on cancer outcomes, including common cancer symptoms, quality of life and survival [117,118]. In this sense, some of the most studied mechanisms include changes in whole-body and visceral fatness, metabolic dysregulation, adipokines, and sex hormones; chronic, low-grade inflammation; oxidative stress causing DNA damage and gene mutations; and impaired immune surveillance/function [119-121]. Finally, there is no convincing evidence about the association with improved survival in CRC patients that follow

guidelines [122]. However, having a healthy body weight, being physically active and following a healthy diet after diagnosis were all associated with a longer survival of colon cancer patients in stage III in a chemotherapy trial [123]. Taking into account that after the “teachable moment” of a cancer diagnosis patients are more likely to change their habits, then it seems likely that the promotion of healthy lifestyle in CRC patients could improve prognoses considerably.

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2. HYPOTHESES AND OBJECTIVES

2.1. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this doctoral thesis, concerning participants in the CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service, are as follows:

1. The diet of CRC patients postsurgery is inadequate in many respects, including nutrients and food intakes, and this dietetic and nutritional inadequacy is associated with certain health determinants such as age, weight status, lifestyles and socioeconomic conditions.
2. There are significant differences between cases and controls with regard to lifestyles (including diet), weight status, use of drugs related to decreasing CRC risk, socioeconomic level, health status, quality of life and stress level. These factors are more favourable in controls than in cases, that is, cases have healthy lifestyles, a healthy weight, a better health status, higher socioeconomic level, better life quality and lower stress level and use drugs related to decreasing CRC risk.
3. The consumption of certain foods (such as red meat, processed meat and alcoholic drinks, among others) are associated with an increased risk of CRC. Whereas other foods (for example, fibre-containing foods) and dietary patterns such as the MD pattern are associated with decreasing risk of CRC. These associations vary depending on tumour location.
4. Some of the previously reported CRC-related SNPs are associated with CRC susceptibility in the case-control sample under study.

2.2. Objectives

Main objective

To date, case-control studies have revealed inconsistent evidence on the influence of dietary and genetic factors on CRC risk. In order to better elucidate the role of some of these factors in the aetiology of CRC, the main objective of this study was to analyse dietary and genetic factors in a sample of cases and controls from the population-based CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. In addition, taking into account that an unhealthy diet is associated with the risk of tumour recurrence, metastasis and death, the other aim of this thesis was to assess the adequacy of nutrients consumed and diet quality in a group of CRC patients postsurgery. This doctoral thesis is part of a line of research on the impact of gene-diet interactions on the risk of CRC in the Basque Country.

Specific objectives

To achieve this general objective, the following specific objectives were set:

1. To assess the adequacy of nutrients consumed and diet quality, and to identify possible associations between nutritional adequacy and diet quality and certain health determinants (such as age, weight status, lifestyles and socioeconomic conditions), in a group of postsurgery CRC patients who participated in the CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. **Study 1.**
2. To analyse lifestyle (including diet from the nutritional perspective), weight status, health status, socioeconomic level, quality of life, stress level and use of drugs related to decreasing CRC risk, in a sample of cases and controls from the population-based CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. **Study 2.**
3. To assess the relationships between food group consumption, diet quality and CRC risk, and identify possible differences in consumption depending on tumour location, in the sample of cases and controls mentioned in objective 2. **Study 3.**
4. To investigate possible associations between susceptibility SNPs and development of sporadic CRC in the sample of cases and controls mentioned in objective 2. **Study 4.**

3. PARTICIPANTS, METHODS AND RESULTS

3.1. STUDY 1: “Nutritional Adequacy and Diet Quality in Colorectal Cancer Patients Post-Surgery: A Pilot Study”

NUTRITIONAL ADEQUACY AND DIET QUALITY IN COLORECTAL CANCER PATIENTS POST-SURGERY: A PILOT STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Recent evidence has shown that an unhealthy diet is associated with a higher risk of tumor recurrence, metastasis and death among patients with colorectal cancer (CRC). The aims of this study were to assess nutritional adequacy and diet quality in a group of CRC patients post-surgery and to identify possible associations between dietary and nutritional aspects and environmental factors and weight status. This was an observational study conducted on a random sample of 74 patients, aged 50-69 years. Dietary intake was evaluated utilizing a validated frequency questionnaire, and diet quality was evaluated utilizing the Healthy Eating Index for Spanish diet and the MedDietScore. Data regarding socio-economic, demographic, lifestyles, dietary supplements use and body mass index were collected. Participants followed a diet characterized by a low carbohydrate intake (94% of the cases), excessive protein (48%) and high fat intake (67%), and some micronutrient deficiencies. The inadequacy of some nutrients was associated with male gender, overweight/obesity, smoking and low educational level, and low adherence to the MedDiet was identified in those with a low educational level (adjusted OR=4.16, $P<0.05$). Therefore, such patients should be an important target group when applying educational programs and giving individualized nutritional advice to improve their life quality.

Keywords: Colorectal cancer, Diet, Body mass/BMI, Micronutrients

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is a major public health challenge worldwide. In Europe, it is the leading malignancy in terms of incidence and the second in terms of mortality in both genders (1). Diet contributes to 50-90% of colon cancer cases (2). Epidemiological studies have established a strong link between some dietary factors, such as fiber (inversely) and red/processed meat (increased risk), and the risk of developing CRC (3). Furthermore, an overall assessment of diet is an important alternative to traditional methods that have focused only on single nutrients or foods (4) given that people consume a variety of foods with complex combinations of micro- and macronutrients rather than single nutrients or foods. Because foods and nutrients act synergistically rather than in isolation (5-6), recent research has investigated the role of diet quality in cancer incidence (7-8) and survival (9).

Some dietary patterns, such as the Mediterranean Diet (MD), have been widely associated with human health. Specifically, several studies have associated adherence to the MD with a reduction in the risk of some types of cancer, specifically colorectal cancer as well as other neoplasms (16,17). The MD is characterized by a nutritional model consisting mainly of olive oil, cereals, fresh or dried fruits and vegetables as well as a moderate amount of fish, dairy and meat, accompanied by wine or infusions. However, it should be noted that the MD varies from country to country, even from region to region, throughout the Mediterranean basin due to the influence of various cultural and environmental factors (12).

There is scientific evidence of the relationship between the MD pattern and CRC risk (13-15); however, little is known about dietary intake, nutrient intake as well as diet quality, in CRC patients post-surgery, especially in the medium term post-operatively (16,17). In a recent study with respect to CRC recurrence and survival, an unhealthy diet (the processed meat dietary pattern) was associated with the risk of tumor recurrence, metastasis and death (16). The consumption of an adequate diet, supplying energy and nutrients in amounts sufficient to meet needs, should improve nutritional status and may enhance disease resistance, thereby prolonging lifespan.

Thus, the aim of this work was to assess the adequacy of nutrients consumed and diet quality in a group of CRC patients post-surgery. In addition, the study identified possible associations between nutritional adequacy and diet quality and environmental factors

and weight status. To the best of our knowledge, this nutritional study is the first one dedicated to nutritional adequacy and diet quality in CRC patient's post-surgery.

METHODS

Study participants

This study is part of a project that aims to analyze diet/genetic interactions on the risk of CRC in a population group in the Basque Country. Recruitment and data collection for the present pilot study were conducted between 2013 and 2014. A sample size of 142 participants was randomly selected from the list of confirmed CRC diagnosis and subjected to a surgical resection between January 1, 2009 and December 31, 2012 at some hospitals that participate in the CRC screening program in the Basque Country (Osakidetza/The Basque Health Service) (n=191). Participants were randomized using computer generated random numbers by SPSS version 22.0. (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). The sample size for this pilot study represents the 10% of the sample required for the full research, such as it is recommended for pilot studies (18), and was estimated taking into account the expected participation rate (50%).

The sample was stratified according to the age and gender distribution of the target population. The participation rate was 55.6%, and the low number of participants (n=5) excluded due to missing information supports the high quality of the data. Finally, 74 subjects (66.2% males) consented to participate in the survey and complete all questionnaires. CRC stage at diagnosis was stage 1 (62.2%), stage 2a (14.9%), stage 3a (4.1%) and stage 3b (18.9%).

This research was approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Country (Reference number PI2011006 and PI2014042). To be eligible for this CRC screening program, patients had to be between the ages of 50 and 69 years, asymptomatic with respect to colorectal symptoms, and registered with the services of the Osakidetza/The Basque Health Service. Subjects with symptoms suggestive of CRC or known risk groups for CRC such as familial adenomatous polyposis or hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer are managed outside this program and are not included in this analysis. The CRC screening program in the Basque Country employed the immunochemical fecal occult blood test (FOBT), and patients with a positive result were invited to undergo colonoscopy with sedation (19).

Participants in the present study who had tested positive in their FOBT results and had positive colonoscopy results had undergone surgical resection of CRC, and some of them had undergone adjuvant treatments, radiotherapy and/or chemotherapy. The percentages of participants according to the type of surgery procedure were the following: 50% sigmoidectomy, 18.9% right hemicolectomy resection, 13.5% left hemicolectomy resection, 9.5% right hemicolectomy resection + rectal anterior resection, 4.1% low anterior resection and 4.1% rectum amputation. The percentage who received chemotherapy was 33.8%, and chemotherapy and radiation 14.9%. Subjects were invited to take part in this survey at least 1 year after their operation (median, 2.0 years; range, 1.0-2.8 years). Written informed consent to assess their medical records was required from study participants. Consenting participants completed and returned a detailed Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ) and one General Questionnaire (GQ). All questionnaires were self-completed. Assistance from study staff was available to help with understanding items on the questionnaires.

Dietary intake and adequacy of nutrients intake

Diet was assessed using a FFQ that is a modified version of the Rodríguez *et al.* questionnaire (20). This adaptation was validated utilizing multiple 24-h recalls in a subsample of participants. It consists of 67 items and requires participants to recall the number of times each food item was consumed either per week or per month. The respondents might also record consumption of other foods not included on the food list. Moreover, data regarding dietary supplements and foods with added dietary ingredients were recorded.

Average portion sizes were employed to convert FFQ consumptions (21). For items that included several foods, each food's contribution was estimated with weighting coefficients obtained from usual consumption data (22). All food items consumed were entered into DIAL 2.12 (2011 ALCE INGENIERIA), a dietary assessment program. Initial energy and nutrient intakes were reported as mean and standard deviation (SD). The macronutrients were expressed as a percentage of total energy intake (TEI) and were compared to acceptable macronutrient distribution ranges (AMDR), ranges of intakes associated with reduced risk of chronic disease and which provide adequate intakes of essential nutrients (23). The approach employed to evaluate nutrient adequacy was the estimated average requirements (EARs) (24). Results of micronutrient and protein intakes were expressed as a percentage of the EARs. The EAR is the mean daily intake value which is estimated to meet the requirement of half the healthy individuals in a life-stage and gender group for that nutrient (25). Nutrient data were also compared with

tolerable upper intake levels (ULs) (26). Caffeine consumption was compared to reference values without any adverse effects (27).

Diet quality assessment

Adherence to the dietary guidelines was evaluated utilizing the Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet (HEISD) (28) and the MedDietScore (MDS) (29). The first one is a rapid and cheap method to estimate the quality of the diet in the population because it utilizes secondary data taken from the National Health Questionnaire and from feeding guidelines. The HEISD included 10 items: cereals and derivatives, vegetables, fruits, milk and dairy products, meats, legumes, cold meats, sweets, soft-drinks with added sugar, and diet variety. The items are equally weighted; thus, each item can contribute 10 points to the total score, and the theoretical range is 0-100.

MDS is an index that estimates the adherence level to the MD and is associated with biomarkers of cardiovascular disease risk (30). This diet score has 11 main components: non-refined cereals, fruits, vegetables, potatoes, legumes, olive oil, fish, red meat and products, poultry, full fat dairy products and alcohol beverages. Each component was scored separately. For the consumption of items presumed to be close to the MD pattern, scores 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were assigned when a participant reported no consumption, rare, frequent, very frequent, weekly and daily, respectively. For the consumption of foods presumed to be away from this diet pattern, the scores were assigned on a reverse scale (scores 5 to 0). Reverse scale was applied to four components of the MDS (red meat and products, poultry, full fat dairy products and alcohol beverages). Especially for alcohol, score 5 was assigned for the consumption of less 300 ml per day, score 0 for consumption of more than 700 ml per day or no consumption, and scores 4 to 1 for consumption of 300-400, 400-500, 500-600, and 600-700 ml per day, respectively (100 ml = 12 g ethanol). The total score (sum) is between 0 and 55. Higher values of this score indicate greater adherence to the MD pattern. A score equal to 55 represents 100% adherence to the MD pattern; then, a score equal to k represents $(k/55) \times 100\%$ agreement to this pattern.

Covariates

The GQ measured weight status (self-reported weight and height) and environmental factors (socioeconomic status: educational attainment, economic activity and last work activity; demographic factors: age and gender; and lifestyle information: physical activity in free time, smoking and alcohol consumption). These questions were taken from the Spanish Health Questionnaire (31). Body mass index (BMI) estimated from self-reported

height and weight was classified according to the WHO criteria (32). Additionally, life quality in general and stress level during the last month were analyzed utilizing a continuous scale with a range from 0 to 100, with higher scores indicating a better life quality and a higher stress level.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed utilizing SPSS version 22.0. (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) and reported as mean (standard deviation, SD), 95% confidence interval (CI) and frequencies. Symmetry in the distribution of continuous variables was determined by Kolmogorov–Smirnov–Lilliefors test for sample sizes greater than 30 and by Shapiro-Wilk test for sample size fewer than 30.

Differences between variables were calculated employing the Student's *t* test and ANOVA one way (in the case of normally distributed data) or Mann-Whitney U test and Wilcoxon *W* test (if the variables were not normally distributed). In addition, the effect size was performed employing the statistical Cohen's *d* and *f* for mean comparisons and *g* for proportions (G-power 3.1.7 software) to estimate the magnitude and significance of the result. Cohen's guidelines for the interpretation of effect size were employed (33). The categorical variables were analyzed using the Chi-square test (or the Fisher test when applicable), and the relationships between these categories were analyzed utilizing adjusted residuals.

Logistic regression analysis was performed for adjusted odds ratio (OR) based on weight status (BMI) and environmental factors to identify possible associations between these variables and inadequate intake of nutrients and inadequate diet quality. For simplicity and descriptive purposes, the variables *educational attainment*, *economic activity* and *last work* were regrouped according to the criteria of the Spanish Health Questionnaire (31). Continuous variable age was split at the sample median, thereby defining high and low groups of this variable in question. In the same sense, the dependent variable, adherence to the MD pattern, was dichotomized into less than or equal to 67.3%, and higher than 67.3%, utilizing the median split to define low and high adherence to the MD. All reported *P* values are two tailed ($P < 0.05$; $P < 0.01$; $P < 0.001$). Analyses were conducted separately for men and women, because of the differences in dietary intake (34). In addition, differences in dietary intake were analyzed by cancer stage and type of surgery. These variables were regrouped to simplify the analyses of results: cancer stage (stage 1; stage 2 or greater) and type of surgery (hemicolecotomy; sigmoidectomy or rectal resection). Those participants who have undergone two types of surgery, that it is

mean, hemicolectomy and rectal resection, were excluded for these comparisons, since the number of these cases was small ($n=7$).

RESULTS

General characteristics of the studied sample

General characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 1. BMI of the total sample was $27.2(3.5)$ kg/m² (95% CI 26.3-28.0). For men, BMI was $27.2(3.5)$ kg/m² (95% CI 26.2-28.2) and for women, was $27.1(3.5)$ kg/m² (95% CI 25.6-28.6). There was no difference in BMI between genders ($P=0.912$; $d=0.03$). Moreover, 69.4% of men and 60.0% of women had excess weight (overweight/obesity), and none of the sample reported underweight.

In the total sample, the score for life quality was $71.3(14.8)$ to 100 and for the stress level $41.2(28.1)$ to 100. There were no differences in these variables by gender ($P=0.474$ for life quality and $P=0.248$ for stress level), being the effect size for mean comparisons between low and moderate ($d=0.21$ for quality life and $d=0.35$ for stress level).

Dietary intake and adequacy of nutrients intake

The average daily intakes of energy, macro- and micronutrients are shown in Table 2. Significant gender differences were found only in polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) and alcohol consumption ($P<0.05$). The effect sizes of the gender differences were between low and moderate for lipids ($d=0.41$), saturated fatty acids (SFA) ($d=0.20$) and fiber ($d=0.37$). Without allowing for gender, more than 94% participants had an inadequate carbohydrate intake by default; over 48% of them had excessive protein intake; and more than 67% of the sample had an excessive fat intake.

Dietary nutrient density is presented in Table 3. Over one half of the participants had intakes below EARs for folic acid (66.2%), vitamins A (56.8%), D (100%) and E (85.1%), calcium (66.2%), magnesium (75.7%) and iodine (59.5%). Although gender differences were not found in the dietary nutrient density, the effect sizes of some micronutrients were between small and moderate: riboflavin ($d=0.39$), vitamins B₆ ($d=0.33$), B₁₂ ($d=0.23$), C ($d=0.31$) and E ($d=0.38$), folic acid ($d=0.21$), Ca ($d=0.44$) and Fe ($d=0.24$). And males were more likely to have inadequate intakes of thiamine (55.1% of men had intakes below EARs vs. 24.0% of women, $P=0.011$), vitamin A (69.4% of men vs. 32.0% of women, $P=0.002$), magnesium (95.9% of men vs. 76.0% of women, $P<0.001$) and zinc (59.2% of men vs. 8.0% of women, $P<0.001$). Some of these results were also

observed in logistic regression analysis, which revealed the following adjusted ORs, 95% CIs and significance level for men: inadequate intake of thiamine (OR=4.16, 1.06-16.40, $P=0.041$) and vitamin A (OR=5.37, 1.44-20.12, $P=0.013$), compared with women.

According to the cancer stage and type of surgery, no significant differences were found for energy and nutrients intake, nor for %EARs. However, the effect size for α -linolenic acid (g/d) was large ($d=0.89$), being higher the intake in stage 1 (12.7(5.5)) than in the other ones (8.9(2.5)). And according to the type of surgery, the effect size for thiamine was large ($d=1.26$), those who had undergone hemicolectomy had lower %EARs (96.3(21.3)) than who had undergone sigmoidectomy or rectal resection (147.2(52.9)). Participants who had undergone hemicolectomy were more likely to have inadequate intakes of thiamine (60.0% had intakes below EARs) than those who had undergone sigmoidectomy or rectal resection (15.4% had intakes below EARs) (Chi-square=3.58; $P=0.058$; effect size $g=0.45$).

Furthermore, participants who were overweight/obese had a higher inadequate intake of folic acid (OR=4.99, 1.37-18.22, $P=0.015$), vitamin A (OR=4.95, 1.34-18.30, $P=0.016$) and zinc (OR=7.05, 1.66-29.87, $P=0.008$) than those of normal weight. Smokers had a high inadequacy of folic acid intake (OR=4.40, 1.08-17.88, $P=0.038$), and those without studies or primary education had a higher inadequacy of thiamine (OR=5.42, 1.31-22.40, $P=0.020$). Logistic regression was not estimated for all nutrients because of their not meeting the criteria for this analysis (minimum ratio of valid cases to independent variables: 10 to 1).

However, there was a large proportion of participants with sodium intake exceeding the tolerable upper intake level (UL: 2300 mg/day), 57.1% of males and 48.0% of females ($P=0.011$). Furthermore, the median intake of caffeine was 63.0 mg/day; there were no cases with caffeine intakes higher than 300 mg/day (consumption that can cause adverse effects).

Diet quality

Table 4 presents the scores for components of the HEISD and the percentage of participants who did not meet the recommendations. No significant differences by gender were found, either for total score or for the components scores. Nevertheless, the effect sizes were small to medium for vegetables ($d=0.35$), fruits ($d=0.37$), legumes ($d=0.21$) and soft-drinks ($d=0.22$). According to the classification of HEISD, 14.9% had a "healthy diet" and 85.1% were in the category of "not healthy/need changes" ($P<0.001$). The

HEISD components with higher cases of non-compliance of HEISD recommendations were meats (100%), cold meats (89.2%), sweets (87.8%) and diet variety (100%); no differences were found by gender ($P>0.05$).

The scores of adequacies for components of the MDS for the total sample and by gender are presented in Table 5. Significant gender differences were found for non-refined cereals, the highest score for this component being found in women rather than in men ($P<0.01$). And the effect sizes for gender differences were small to medium for fruits ($d=0.44$), legumes ($d=0.31$), poultry ($d=0.33$), olive oil ($d=0.20$) and MDS total ($d=0.35$). The percentage of adherence to the MD was 66.6% (5.5) and there were no gender differences ($P>0.05$). No statistically significant correlation was found between HEISD and MDS ($P>0.05$).

No significant differences were found in HEISD and MDS, neither in components' scores, nor in the total scores, by cancer stage or by type of surgery. However, the effect size for potatoes group was large ($d=0.88$), being higher the score for participants who had undergone hemicolectomy (2.5(1.5)) than sigmoidectomy or rectal resection (3.7(1.2)). Table 6 presents the HEISD score and the adherence to the MD pattern by lifestyle and socio-economic and demographic factors. Participants who were 61 years or older obtained higher HEISD scores than subjects younger than 61 ($P<0.05$). None of the other variables considered in this study (weight status and environmental factors) were significantly associated with HEISD score. Nevertheless, the following data had the most significance for the HEISD: schooling ($f=0.44$), smoking status ($f=1.12$), physical activity during free time ($d=0.80$) and most recent job ($f=1.41$). Subjects who registered higher HEISD scores were those that had secondary educational level, were ex-smokers or had never smoked, had engaged in physical activity, and had worked as a businessman/women in the past. Logistic regression analyses did not show significant associations between HEISD and environmental factors and weight status.

Regarding MDS, although no significant differences were found for the adherence to the MD pattern between the categories according the socio-economic, demographic and lifestyle characteristics, the greatest size effect occurred in the variables schooling ($f=0.62$) and smoking status ($f=0.68$); subjects having secondary education and who are non-smokers exhibited a higher adherence to the MD (Table 6). According to results of logistic regression analysis, educational level, without studies or primary education, was associated with a low adherence to the MD (adherence $\leq 67.3\%$) (adjusted OR= 4.16, 1.15-15.03, $P=0.029$). In addition, the association between health behavior (alcohol,

tobacco use and physical activity) and adherence to the MD was analyzed; however, there was no relationship.

Table 1. General characteristics of the studied sample: colorectal patients post-surgery

	Total sample (n= 74)
Gender, male, %	66.2
Age, Mean(SD)	60.2(5.5)
Schooling, %	
Without studies	6.8
Primary education	35.1
Secondary education	44.6
University degree	13.5
Smoking status, %	
Never	33.8
Past	40.5
Current	25.7
BMI classification, overweight /obesity, %	66.2
Physical activity during free time, yes, %	74.3
Economic activity (multiple answer), %	
Working	21.6
Unemployed	6.8
Retired	62.2
Housework	9.5
Last work, %	
Employer	5.4
Businessman/women	8.1
Family help	6.8
Steady salaried employee	70.3
Temporary salaried employee	4.1
Member of a cooperative	5.4

SD, standard deviation

Table 2. Intakes of energy, macronutrients, cholesterol, fiber, water and alcohol in the studied sample: colorectal patients post-surgery

	Total (n= 74)	Men (n=49)	Women (n=25)	<i>P</i> ^a
	Mean(SD)			
Energy, kcal/d	1,993.1(586.5)	1,976.4(600.3)	2,025.9(569.2)	0.631
Protein, %TEI (AMDR, 10-15%TEI)	15.0(2.5)	15.0(2.7)	15.1(2.2)	0.914
Carbohydrate, %TEI (AMDR, 50-60%TEI)	41.5(6.3)	41.6(6.4)	41.3(6.0)	0.858
Lipids, %TEI (AMDR, <30-35%TEI)	38.3(5.0)	37.6(5.0)	39.6(4.8)	0.102
SFA, %TEI (AMDR, <7-8%TEI)	10.9(2.1)	10.7(2.0)	11.1(2.1)	0.398
MUFA, %TEI (AMDR, 20%TEI)	17.4(2.9)	17.3(3.0)	17.5(2.6)	0.841
PUFA, %TEI (AMDR, 5%TEI)	7.0(2.6)	6.5(2.3)	8.0(2.8)	0.017
Linoleic acid, g/d	12.4(6.2)	12.3(6.0)	12.7(6.6)	1.000
α-linolenic acid, g/d	1.8(0.7)	1.8(0.7)	1.8(0.7)	0.918
Cholesterol, mg/d	295.5(148.6)	293.8(161.8)	298.8(121.6)	0.797
Fiber, g/d	20.4(5.4)	19.7(4.7)	21.8(6.6)	0.116
Water ^b , g/d	1,062.6(248.1)	1,047.0(252.4)	1,092.2(241.6)	0.467
Alcohol, g/d	8.6(8.2)	10.4(8.9)	5.1(5.0)	0.001

AMDR, acceptable macronutrient distribution ranges; MUFA, monounsaturated fatty acids; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid; SD, standard deviation; SFA, saturated fatty acid; TEI, total energy intake; ^aDifferences by gender; ^bIntake of water from foods, not from drinking water.

Table 3. Dietary nutrient density (per 1000 kcal/day) in the studied sample: colorectal patients' post-surgery

Nutrient density (/1000 kcal/day)	Total (n=74)		Men (n=49)	Women (n=25)	<i>P</i> ^a
	Estimated intake	%EAR	Estimated intake		
	Mean(SD)				
Proteins, g	37.5(6.3)	78.7(25.8)	37.5(6.7)	37.6(5.5)	0.914
Vitamins					
Thiamine, mg	0.6(0.2)	104.5(42.6)	0.5(0.2)	0.6(0.2)	0.053
Riboflavin, mg	0.8(0.3)	123.1(43.5)	0.8(0.2)	0.9(0.3)	0.070
Niacin, mg	15.3(3.5)	255.7(70.0)	15.2(3.6)	15.5(3.3)	0.677
B ₆ , mg	1.0(0.3)	140.5(55.5)	1.0(0.3)	1.1(0.3)	0.301
Folic acid, mcg	152.2(42.2)	97.6(26.3)	149.1(38.7)	158.4(48.6)	0.779
B ₁₂ , mcg	2.9(0.9)	284.9(117.5)	3.0(1.0)	2.8(0.7)	0.344
C, mg	89.5(38.6)	283.4(116.6)	85.2(33.8)	97.9(46.1)	0.195
A, mcg	297.0(80.9)	87.0(27.6)	296.8(85.7)	297.5(72.4)	0.779
D, mcg	1.0(0.6)	34.2(25.1)	1.0(0.6)	1.1(0.6)	0.148
E, mg	4.5(3.9)	58.9(28.6)	4.2(1.6)	5.0(2.5)	0.199
Minerals					
Ca, mg	425.9(107.0)	82.5(21.0)	410.1(104.7)	456.9(106.7)	0.075
P, mg	701.3(119.4)	195.2(49.1)	694.0(131.0)	715.5(93.4)	0.334
Mg, mg	143.1(27.6)	83.0(21.0)	141.8(29.3)	145.5(24.4)	0.586
Fe, mg	7.4(2.0)	123.9(21.0)	7.2(1.9)	7.7(2.3)	0.370
Zn, mg	4.8(1.1)	114.3(38.4)	4.8(1.1)	5.0(1.0)	0.176
Cu, mg	0.6(0.07)	101.0(27.6)	0.6(0.07)	0.6(0.07)	0.862
I, mcg	47.7(9.9)	62.1(15.9)	47.3(10.2)	48.6(9.3)	0.603
Se, mcg	59.4(15.2)	212.2(70.7)	60.2(16.6)	57.9(12.3)	0.555

EARs, estimated average requirements; SD, standard deviation; ^adifferences by gender.

Table 4. Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet (HEISD): scores and percentage of participants who did not meet the recommendations in the studied sample: colorectal patients' post-surgery

HEISD components	Scores ^a , Mean(SD)				Participants who did not meet the recommendations ^b , %			
	Total (n=74)	Men (n=49)	Women (n=25)	<i>P</i> ^c	Total (n=74)	Men (n=49)	Women (n=25)	<i>P</i> ^c
Cereals	9.9(0.5)	9.9(0.5)	9.9(0.5)	0.987	4.1	4.1	4.0	1.000
Vegetables	9.2(1.4)	9.4(1.2)	8.9(1.6)	0.186	27.0	22.4	36.0	0.214
Fruits	9.5(1.2)	9.3(1.3)	9.7(0.8)	0.260	18.9	22.4	12.0	0.358
Milk and dairies	9.8(0.8)	9.8(0.9)	9.7(0.8)	0.405	8.1	6.1	12.0	0.400
Legumes	9.1(1.8)	9.2(1.5)	8.8(2.3)	0.657	29.7	28.6	32.0	0.760
Meats	3.2(1.8)	3.3(1.9)	3.1(1.7)	0.623	100	100	100	-
Cold meats	4.0(2.6)	4.0(2.8)	3.9(2.4)	0.937	89.2	87.8	92.0	0.578
Sweets	1.8(3.1)	1.6(3.0)	2.2(3.3)	0.395	87.8	87.8	88.0	0.976
Soft-drinks	9.1(2.3)	8.9(2.3)	9.4(2.2)	0.152	14.9	18.4	8.0	0.314
Diet variety	7.5(1.6)	7.6(1.6)	7.4(1.6)	0.512	100	100	100	-
Total	73.0(7.1)	73.0(7.2)	73.0(7.0)	0.991	85.1	83.7	88.0	0.621

HEISD, Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet; SD, standard deviation; ^aEach component can contribute 10 points to the total score and the theoretical range is 0-100; ^bPercentage of participants who did not meet the recommendations of the HEISD; ^cScore differences by gender.

Table 5. Scores for components of the MedDietScore (MDS) in the studied sample: colorectal patients' post-surgery

MDS components	Scores ^a , Mean(SD)			P ^b
	Total (n=74)	Men (n=49)	Women (n=25)	
Non-refined cereals	0.7(1.0)	0.5(0.9)	1.2(1.1)	0.004
Potatoes	2.4(1.2)	2.4(1.3)	2.4(1.2)	0.727
Fruits	2.7(0.9)	2.5(0.9)	2.9(0.9)	0.051
Vegetables	3.1(0.9)	3.1(0.8)	3.1(1.0)	1.000
Legumes	2.3(0.6)	2.3(0.6)	2.1(0.7)	0.344
Fish	3.1(1.0)	3.1(1.1)	3.3(0.6)	0.194
Red meat and products	2.8(1.3)	2.8(1.3)	3.0(1.3)	0.505
Poultry	4.8(0.6)	4.8(0.6)	4.6(0.6)	0.061
Full fat dairy	4.8(0.4)	4.8(0.4)	4.8(0.5)	0.824
Olive oil	4.9(0.5)	4.9(0.4)	4.8(0.6)	0.743
Alcoholic beverages	4.9(0.5)	4.9(0.6)	4.9(0.6)	0.475
MDS total	36.6(3.03)	36.2(2.7)	37.3(3.5)	0.104

MDS, MedDietScore; SD, standard deviation; ^aEach component can contribute 5 points to the total score and the theoretical range is 0-55; ^bdifferences by gender.

Table 6. Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet (HEISD) score and the adherence to MedDietScore (MDS) by lifestyle and socio-economic and demographic factors and body weight status in the studied sample: colorectal patients post-surgery

	HEISD		Adherence to MDS	
	Score ^a , Mean(SD)	<i>P</i>	Means(SD)	<i>P</i>
Age ^b				
<62 y	72.2(6.4)	0.046	66.7(5.7)	0.923
≥62 y	74.6(6.6)		66.0(5.2)	
Schooling ^c				
Without studies and primary education	72.2(7.0)	0.837	65.7(4.9)	0.870
Secondary education	74.3(6.8)		67.0(6.1)	
University education	72.1(3.8)		66.9(5.1)	
Smoking status				
Current	71.2(9.3)	0.292	66.4(5.2)	0.493
Never	73.2(6.1)		67.8(5.3)	
Past	74.0(6.3)		65.8(5.9)	
BMI				
Overweight/obese	72.0(7.2)	0.373	68.0(5.3)	0.360
Non overweight/obese	73.5(6.3)		65.8(5.5)	
Physical activity during free time				
Yes	73.3(6.9)	0.805	66.8(5.5)	0.943
No	72.5(5.5)		66.6(5.6)	
Economic activity				
Working	71.6(4.3)	0.370	66.1(5.9)	0.629
Unemployed, retired, housework	73.6(7.0)		66.5(5.4)	
Last work				
Employer and businessman/women	76.7(5.4)	0.837	66.0(5.0)	0.730
Family help				
Steady or temporary salaried employee, member of a cooperative	75.3(4.4)		66.4(6.0)	
	72.3(6.7)		66.5(5.6)	

HEISD, Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet; MDS, MedDietScore, ^aTheoretical range is 0-100; ^bAge variable was split at the sample median, thereby defining high and low groups on this variable in question; ^cThe answers of the variables *Schooling*, *Economic activity* and *Last work* were regrouped to simplified the analyses and presentation of results.

DISCUSSION

Research on the adequacy of nutrient intakes and the diet has recognized the greater vulnerability of certain population subgroups, such as the elderly (35) and cancer patients (36). Nevertheless, dietary intake data in CRC patient's post-surgery, especially in the medium term post-operatively, are limited (16,17). The present pilot study is, therefore,

an important seed contribution to the current literature on the dietary status of patients with CRC.

The current study reports dietary intakes from food, dietary supplements and foods with added dietary ingredients that are inadequate with respect to the recommended levels of a number of nutrients. In relation to macronutrients, diet was characterized by inadequate carbohydrate intake by default and by excessive protein and fat intakes, these results agree with those from general population surveys (22). Scientific evidence demonstrates that this type of diet has a causative link to colon cancer; however, mechanisms of action are not fully elucidated (2).

Regarding micronutrient intakes, a significant proportion of subjects did not meet daily requirements for folic acid, vitamins A, D and E, calcium, magnesium and iodine. Inadequate intakes of these nutrients were also noted by other authors in cancer patients (16,17) and in the general population (37). The inadequacy of dietary intake seems common in people of the age group of the present study (38-40). Similarly, Johnson *et al.* (41) reported that elderly persons were consuming more than the recommended amount of protein, but the average intakes of many vitamins and minerals were less than optimal based on the average intakes.

It should be noted that the prevalence of inadequate folate intakes in the present study (66.2%) was lower than that reported by Gómez *et al.* (17). In any case, there is some evidence that folic acid, calcium, and vitamin D reduce the risk of CRC. In particular, recent research indicates that calcium and vitamin D might act together, rather than separately, to reduce the risk of colorectal adenomas (42). However, the evidence is not completely consistent (43).

By comparing the inadequacy for nutrient intakes by gender, men had significantly less adequate intakes for thiamine, vitamin A, magnesium and zinc than women ($P<0.05$). Consistent with our results, Lim *et al.* (36) reported more dietary habit problems and poor nutritional balance in males with gastric cancer than those of females. And significant gender differences in nutrient intakes were also observed in the general population (44). Additionally, in the present study, patients who were overweight/obese presented higher inadequate intake of folic acid, vitamin A and zinc than those whose weight was normal ($P<0.05$). It should be noted that more than one half of the participants had excess weight. In the literature about CRC patients, data on prevalence of overweight/obesity do not present consistent results; thus, some studies detected a high prevalence of

overweight/obesity in patients with CRC (45), whereas others had associated malnutrition with this form of cancer (46,47).

In relation to the diet quality, we applied two scores, HEISD and MDS. The evaluation of the overall diet from a global perspective by these types of scores is widely used in nutritional studies (48-50). In particular, MDS has a beneficial effect on the risk of CRC (13-15,51) and on the risk of tumor recurrence, metastasis and death (16,52). In the current study, the mean percentage for adherence to the MD was of 66.6%, and a significant proportion of subjects did not meet food groups recommendations; 85.1% had "no healthy diet or need changes" according to the HEISD. The percentage of subjects classified as "no healthy diet or need changes" was similar to the general population of the Basque Country (28), and the quality of their diet was characterized by a low score for non-refined cereals, especially in males. To our knowledge, there are not published data on gender differences in whole grain intake in Spanish population, however, for British adults, no significant gender differences were found (53). There is convincing evidence that whole grains help reduce the risk of CRC. In addition to the high content of bioactive compounds, whole grain also represents a source of high-quality carbohydrate, as assessed by a low glycemic index, because of its slow digestion and absorption (54). Whole grain may exert beneficial effects on colorectal carcinogenesis by decreasing insulin (55). Nevertheless, in the present study no significant correlation was found between both scores (HEISD and MDS), most likely due to methodological differences, because items and reference criteria are different.

According to cancer stage and type of surgery, no significant differences were found neither for energy and nutrients intake nor for diet quality, probably due to the time spent after the diagnosis and treatment. To our knowledge, it is unknown whether the variance in adherence to dietary recommendations is consistent across all stages of CRC, or treatment settings. Although CRC patients admitted that they changed to a healthy diet after being diagnosed with CRC (56), these patients often either receive no dietary information or dietary advice is scarce (57,58). This fact could influence dietary adequacy and quality. In fact, evidence indicates that nutritional advice and education about diet can be effective in improving nutritional intake and status, quality of life (59) and long-term prognosis in CRC (60).

In our case, the HEISD components with more cases of non-compliance of the recommendations were meats, cold meats, sweets and diet variety, and the MDS components with a higher percentage of participants who did not comply with the

recommendations were non-refined cereals, legumes and potatoes. It should be noted that CRC patients can have less tolerance of high-fiber foods (such as legumes and non-refined cereals). With respect to meat consumption, Zhu *et al.* (16) found that a high level of conformity with the processed meat pattern is significantly associated with an increased risk of all-cause mortality and recurrence in CRC; however, the prudent vegetable or the high-sugar patterns present no association with disease-free survival.

Furthermore, participants who were 61 years of age or older obtained higher HEISD scores than subjects younger than 61 ($P<0.05$); this result agrees with the findings of other studies (28). Other factors related to diet quality scores (HEISD and/or MDS) were educational attainment, most recent job, smoking status and physical activity participation; nevertheless, no significant association was identified; the size effect was considerable. Moreover, regression analyses demonstrated that those without studies or primary education had a low adherence to the MD and greater thiamine inadequacy ($P<0.05$). Results concerning educational level and MDS agreed with the findings of other authors (61). However, care must be taken in the interpretation of our analysis of logistic regression due to sample size.

In relation to lifestyle factors, the greatest size effect occurred in the variables of smoking status for both diet quality indices. In our study, tobacco consumption was associated with a greater inadequacy in the intake of folic acid ($P<0.05$) and could be associated with a low diet quality, even if the P -value were not significant. Other authors have observed relationships between smoking and dietary intake (62). Furthermore, significant interactions observed between smoking and CRC, suggesting a potential mediating effect of the MD (13,15). As in previous studies, physical activity and diet quality were associated (63). It should be noted that a quarter of the participants in the present study reported no physical activity in their free time. This proportion is higher than that of previous studies (64), and this is an unfavorable result, given that the known risks of sedentary behavior for survivors include the development of comorbid conditions and cancer recurrence (65,66).

LIMITATIONS

Several limitations to this study should be recognized. First, the sample size was small. As a result, we are increasing the sample size to be able to analyze more precisely dietary adequacy of this population group. Second, the data on dietary intake are self-reported, which is assumed to be related to some degree of under- or over-reporting, especially in specific groups of the populations defined by weight status or gender

(67,68). This fact could make it difficult to estimate actual micronutrient intake and produces some bias that can be avoided utilizing biomarkers (69). Anyway, FFQ can provide valid information on intake for a large number of micronutrients (69-71). Finally, the lack of control of some possible confounders such as comorbidities and other conditions that could affect food consumption and the capacity to absorb and use of nutrients should be noted.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, our results demonstrated that the diet of the studied group is inadequate in many respects, including nutrients and food intakes. The inadequacy of some nutrients was associated with male gender, excess of weight, smoking and low educational level, and the low adherence to the MD was pronounced in those with a low educational level. Therefore, these patients should be an important target group for the application of educational programs and individualized nutritional counseling sessions to improve their quality of life and reduce the risk of CRC mortality. Further studies are needed to confirm the determinants of the poor dietary habits and the inadequate nutrient intakes, keeping in mind surgical treatment and radiotherapy and/or chemotherapy as adjuvant treatments, and to know the diet changes after treatment for CRC.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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3.2. STUDY 2: “Gene-diet interactions in colorectal cancer: survey design, instruments, participants and descriptive data of a case-control study in the Basque Country”

Gene-diet interactions in colorectal cancer: survey design, instruments, participants and descriptive data of a case-control study in the Basque Country

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Abstract: Epidemiologic studies have revealed inconsistent evidence of gene-diet interaction in relation to colorectal cancer (CRC). In order to better elucidate the role of these types of interactions in the etiology of CRC, the aim of this study was to analyze them in a sample of cases and controls from the population-based screening programme for CRC of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. This case-control study analyzed dietetic, genetic, demographic, socioeconomic factors and lifestyles (smoking, alcohol or Physical activity (PA)). The participants were 308 patients diagnosed with CRC and 308 age- and sex-matched subjects as controls. Cases were more likely than controls to have overweight/obesity (67.5 vs. 58.1%, $P<0.05$), a lower intake of vitamin B2 (0.86(0.23) vs. 0.92(0.23) mg/1,000 kcal, $P<0.01$) and Ca/P ratio (0.62(0.12) vs. 0.65(0.13), $P<0.01$). Moreover a higher proportion of cases than controls “always” or “often” used salt added to cooking (76.8 vs. 69.7%, $P<0.05$) and did not meet the Nutritional Objectives for saturated fatty acids (85.7 vs. 67.5%, $P<0.001$) or cholesterol (35.4 vs. 25.0%, $P<0.01$). Moreover, the results presented in this manuscript allow us to conclude that some environmental factors, such as weight status and dietary components, could have an influence on the etiology of CRC in this population.

Keywords: Colorectal cancer, Diet, Genetic factors, Gene-diet interactions, Risk-factors, Case-control study.

1. Introduction

CRC is already the third leading cause of cancer death in the world, and its incidence is steadily rising in western countries [1]. According to GLOBOCAN 2018 data, CRCs are the third most commonly diagnosed form of cancer globally, comprising 11% of all cancer diagnoses [2]. Incidence varies geographically, more-developed regions have a higher incidence than less-developed ones [3]. Europe is among the seven world regions ranked according to increasing age-standardized incidence rate (ASR_i) with an ASR_i of 30.0 per 100,000 [4]. In particular, in Spain, the ASR_i for CRC is 33.4 per 100,000 (21.1 per 100,000 in males and 12.4 per 100,000 in females) [5]. In the Basque Country, one of the autonomous regions of the North of Spain, this pathology is the most frequent type of cancer (taking into account the combined incidence both sexes) [6].

During the recent years, mortality rates for CRC have been decreasing due to early screening programs [7,8] and better treatment options [9]. However, the etiology of CRC is complex and still not fully understood. Both genetic and environmental factors play an important role in the etiology of this disease [10]. Large population studies with varying strength of evidence have found CRC protective factors such as diet (fruits and vegetables, fibre, resistant starch, fish), vitamin supplements (folate, vitamin B₆, vitamin D, calcium, magnesium), garlic and coffee, PA, and drugs (aspirin, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, hormonal replacement therapy in postmenopausal); and CRC risk factors such as obesity, red/processed meat, tobacco and alcohol among others [11].

In any case, protective and/or risk factors are not present in isolation, but coexist and interact with each other and with other factors, for example, both dietary and genetic factors affect CRC risk, in an interactive manner [12]. The recognition of these gene-diet interactions as a driver in CRC may open up new areas of research in disease epidemiology, risk assessment, and treatments. To date, epidemiologic studies have revealed inconsistent evidence of gene-diet interaction in relation to CRC. In order to better elucidate the role of these types of interactions in the etiology of CRC, the aim of this study was to analyze them in a sample of cases and controls from the population-based screening programme for CRC of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. The main advantage of the present study compared to other similar researches [13-15] is that we confirmed that controls were free of the disease through colonoscopy. Colonoscopy was used as the diagnosis criteria to identify the cases in order to avoid false positives and negatives.

In particular, in this paper, we present the survey design, instruments, measurements and related quality management; this detailed information will allow its replication in other populations for a comparison of the results. In addition, we analyze differences between cases and controls in some data, especially those related to diet, but also in demographic data, weight status, lifestyle (different from diet), quality of life and stress level and use of drugs related with decreasing CRC risk.

2. Materials and Methods

Overall, this epidemiologic study is an observational analytic case-control study designed to address possible gene-diet interaction in relation to CRC.

Sampling and study subjects

Participants in this study were recruited from among patients attending any of the three hospitals of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service (Basurto, Galdakao and Donostia) members of the Basque Country's CRC screening programme (CRCSP). To be eligible for this CRCSP, the patients had to be aged between 50 and 69, asymptomatic for colorectal symptoms and registered with the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service [16]. These inclusion criteria were applied to both case and control group, that is, controls fulfilled the same eligibility criteria defined for the cases, with the exception of the disease (outcome). Recruitment and data collection through questionnaires were conducted between 2014 and 2016.

All the patients who were newly diagnosed with CRC (n=601) were invited to participate in this study. Of those, 283 refused to participate in the study, and 10 were excluded due to missing information. Ultimately, 308 subjects (66.2% men) consented to participate in the survey and completed all the questionnaires. In addition, for each case, three age- (± 9.0 years) and sex-matched control patients were randomly sought from the list of CRC-free subjects (n=1,836) who participated in the CRCSP during the same period as the cases. The matched controls were patients with positive results (abnormal) for immunochemical fecal occult blood test (iFOBT) and negative colonoscopy results (normal). The participation rate of the controls was 37.6%, and 17 subjects were excluded due to missing information. Finally, the matched case-to-control ratio was 1:1, and the final data set included 308 cases who were diagnosed with CRC and 308 age- and sex-matched controls. Further details on recruitment and data collection have been described elsewhere [17].

The characteristics of the cases (pathological staging, location of the cancer, tumor grade and treatments) have been also described before (World Journal of Gastroenterology, in review process). Briefly, 72% were diagnosed with early-stage (I/II) CRC, 76% had distal location of the cancer, 80.5% of tumors were well/moderately differentiated and 73.7% had undergone surgical resection. The cases were invited to take part in this survey at least one month after finishing their last treatment (surgery, chemotherapy or radiotherapy) (median, 1.3 years; range, 0.1 to 4.2 years). No statistically significant differences were found in the time elapsed between participation in the CRCSP and collaboration in this survey, between cases and controls (cases, 1.8(1.0) years, controls 1.6 (1.5) years; $p = 0.119$). All these clinical data were obtained from the Basque Country's population-based CRCSP database, which links patient medical records and clinical databases and were reviewed by expert staff.

This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki, and all procedures involving patients were approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Country (reference numbers PI2011006 and PI2014042). Written informed consent was obtained from all the study participants.

Procedures and survey modules

The modules in this study were initially selected to cover the assessment dietary intake, lifestyle, demographic and socioeconomic determinants and genetic factors. Table 1 provides an overview of the major study components. Consenting participants self-completed and returned one general questionnaire (GQ) and a short Food Frequency Questionnaire (SFFQ). The questions referred to behaviours before participating in the CRCSP. Assistance from the study staff was available to help the patients to understand the items on the questionnaires.

General questionnaire

The GQ was used to gather information on weight status (self-reported weight and height), environmental factors (demographic and socio-economic factors: age and sex, marital status and children, birthplace, place of residence, total number of co-residents per household, total number of rooms (excluding the kitchen and bathrooms), educational attainment, economic activity and last work; and lifestyle information: PA, physical exercise (PE) and smoking consumption). These questions were taken from the Spanish Health Questionnaire [15]. Body mass index (BMI), estimated from self-reported height and weight was classified according to the WHO criteria for those under 65 years

of age [18] and according to the criteria proposed by Silva Rodríguez *et al.* for those 65 years and older [19].

The GQ included as well information about perceived quality of life (QoL) and stress, and the use of drugs related with decreasing CRC risk (antiplatelet (including non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs), anticoagulants and hormone replacement therapy in the case of women) [20-23]. To assess the QoL and perceived stress an analog linear scale with a range from 0 to 100 was used [24].

The differences in general characteristics (age, BMI, educational attainment, economic activity, last employment, PE and smoking habit) between cases and controls were previously described (World Journal of Gastroenterology, in review process). Briefly, significant differences between cases and controls were found for educational level, smoking, and weight status; with a higher percentage of cases with low-medium educational level, past or current smoking status and with overweight/obesity compared to controls ($P < 0.01$).

Dietary habits questionnaire

Diets were assessed using a self-reported SFFQ that was a modified version of the Rodríguez *et al.* [25] questionnaire. This adaptation was validated with multiple 24-h recalls in the Basque general population [26] and in CRC diagnosed patients in a pilot of the present study [27]. It consisted of 67 items and requires the subjects to recall the number of times each food item was consumed either per week or per month. This SFFQ included specific questions about frequency of intake of alcoholic beverages. Moreover, the respondents could also record the consumption of other foods that were not included on the food list, as well as the use of dietetic products and nutritional supplements (name –generic and brand-, dose and frequency).

The SFFQ included additional items to ask about the consumption of fried foods, grilled or roast meat, added salt (cooking and at the table), as well as the average weekly consumption of some food types (cooked vegetables, salads, fruit/fruit products, fish/fish products, and meat/meat products/meat dishes). These last questions were taken from the EPIC-Norfolk Food Frequency Questionnaire [28-29]. Once the completed SFFQ was received back, it was reviewed by a dietitian. Consumption frequencies were standardized to “per day” and multiplied by standard serving sizes (grams) [30]. For items that included several foods, each food’s

contribution was estimated with weighting coefficients that were obtained from the usual consumption data [31].

Food items were then regrouped according to nutritional characteristics [32] and considering the potential contribution of food to the pathogenesis of CRC [33,34]. All food items that were consumed were entered into DIAL 2.12 (2011 ALCE INGENIERIA) [35] a type of dietary assessment software, to estimate energy intake (kilocalories/day, kcal/d), nutrients and dietary compounds intakes that were expressed in absolute values, as a percentage of the total energy intake (TEI) and as daily consumption per 1,000 kcal. Some nutrients and dietary compounds intakes were estimated by other food composition databases as detailed below. Methyl donor compounds (methionine, choline, and betaine), fatty acids (arachidonic, eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic) and dietary antioxidants (pro-vitamin A carotenoids (α -carotene, β -carotene, and β -cryptoxanthin), lutein and lycopene) were estimated using the US nutrients database [36]. And flavonoids and glucosinolate intakes were calculated using Phenol-Explorer [37].

Mean daily energy intake was compared with energy requirements derived from basal metabolic rate that was estimated using the Harris-Benedict formula [38] multiplied by activity factors [39]. The activity factor was based on self-reported main daily activity. Nutrient intake data (from diet and dietetic products and supplements) were compared with the Nutritional Objectives for the Spanish Population (NOSP) [40], the estimated energy requirements (EER), the Estimated Average Requirements (EAR) or Adequate Intakes (AI) [41,42]. The EAR is the mean daily intake value which is estimated to meet the requirement of half of healthy individuals in a life-stage and sex group for that nutrient, and the AI is established when there is insufficient scientific evidence to determine an EAR [41,42]. Results of energy and micronutrients were expressed as a percentage of the EER and EAR or AI, respectively. Micronutrient data were also compared with Tolerable Upper Intake Levels (UL) [44-47]. And caffeine consumption was compared to the Denmark and the UK's recommended limit for caffeine intake [48].

Additionally, in this survey, we also calculated a mineral score, which is a modified version of the score proposed by Swaminath *et al.* [49] who have associated this score with CRC risk. In the present study, this mineral score included six minerals with possible colon anti-carcinogenic effects (calcium, magnesium, zinc, selenium, potassium and iodine) and four with pro-carcinogenic properties (iron, copper, phosphorus and sodium). We did not include intakes of manganese, even though it

was part of the original score, due to the lack of data on this mineral in the food composition database used in the present study. Mineral intake was expressed as daily consumption per 1,000 kcal, and then the intakes of each mineral were categorized into tertiles based on the distribution within the controls group (taking into account sex differences when they were significantly different). We applied a similar score methodology to that developed by Swaminath *et al.* [49].

That is, for each mineral hypothesized to reduce CRC risk, each participant was assigned a value equal to their tertile rank (i.e., a value of 1–3, with lower ranks indicating lower mineral intakes and higher ranks indicating higher mineral intakes). For each mineral hypothesized to have predominantly pro-carcinogenic properties in the colon, the values assigned to the rankings were reversed (i.e., values of 3–1, with lower ranks indicating higher mineral intakes and higher ranks indicating lower mineral intakes). Finally, each participant's values for each mineral were summed to represent his/her mineral score; thus, the range of possible scores was 10–35.

Regarding alcohol consumption, the SFFQ used in this study included specific questions about the frequency of intake of the following five major types of alcoholic beverages: beer, wine, cider, aperitif with alcohol and liquor. The alcohol consumption data are expressed as grams of alcohol and standard drink units (SDU) per week [50]. We used the SDU defined for Spain (one SDU is the equivalent to 10 g of alcohol). With this information, the participants were categorized into those who did and did not meet the recommendations [51]. Finally, adherence to the dietary recommendations was evaluated utilizing the Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet (HEISD) [52] and the MedDietScore (MDS) [53], as previously explained [27]. The theoretical range of the HEISD is 0-100 and of the MDS 0-55, higher values of these scores indicate greater adherence to the dietary recommendations for the Spanish population and the Mediterranean diet pattern, respectively.

Adherence to guidelines for CRC prevention

Adherence to guidelines for CRC prevention was assessed using a modified version of the World Cancer Research Fund/ American Institute for Cancer Research (WCRF/AICR) score [54]. Of the 7 recommendations (components) (6 in men) included in the original version of this score, we selected 5 with convincing evidence of an association with CRC risk [11]: PA/PE, dietary fiber, red meat and processed meat, alcoholic beverages and body fatness (as BMI). The recommendation on abdominal

fatness and factors that lead to greater adult attained height were not included in this score because sufficient data were not available.

The score assigned for each component was 1 when the recommendation was met. An intermediate category (0.5 points) was created to appraise a higher proportion of the variability in the population. All other individuals received 0 points. The score was constructed using quantitative criteria laid down in the recommendations as cut-off points WCRF/AICR, and therefore, higher scores indicate a greater concordance with the recommendations of the WCRF/AICR [11]. Moreover, each component of the score was added to calculate a total score for each study participant. The theoretical range was between 0-5 points for both sexes.

Lifestyle changes after participating in the CRCSP

A questionnaire developed ad hoc, that included items related to the recommendations with convincing evidence of an association with CRC risk [11], was used to assess lifestyle changes after participating in the CRCSP. This tool was applied to a subsample of 102 matched case-control pairs, randomly selected from the study sample, through phone interviews by previously trained health professionals.

The questionnaire included the following items: PA/PE, food consumption (vegetables, fruit, whole cereals, red meat, processed meat, alcoholic drinks) and smoking habits. Possible answers were: “increase”, “decrease”, “the same” or “do not consume/practice”. If the answer was “increase” or “decrease”, additionally, subjects were asked about the reason/s for the change. Answers about the reasons were open and were analyzed manually and categorized as follows: “health promotion”, “food preference”, “changes in work, family or personal life”, “diagnostic and/or side effects of CRC treatment/s”, “other pathologies”, and “do not know or missing”.

Data obtained from clinical databases

Data about diagnosis and treatment of cases, as previously mentioned (pathological staging, location of the cancer, tumor grade and treatments), were obtained from clinical databases. Additionally, in both cases and controls, socio-economic level and health status (specifically health resource consumption) data were assessed with two indices that were obtained from the clinical databases developed by the Health Department of the Basque Government, namely the socioeconomic deprivation index (DI) and predictive risk modelling (PRM), respectively. The first one was estimated using the MEDEA project criteria [55], as has been described elsewhere [17] and was

divided into quintiles (Q), with the first being the least disadvantaged and the fifth being the most disadvantaged. The DI was successfully assigned to 80.2% of participants, while the quality of the registered information did not permit the linking of the remaining 19.8%.

The PRM is an index that is based on Adjusted Clinical Groups (ACG) [56], Diagnostic Cost Groups/Hierarchical Condition Categories (DCG-HCC) [57] and Clinical Risk Groups (CRG) [58]. This index combines information about diagnoses, prescriptions, previous costs and the use of specific procedures. It is capable of predicting the use of health resources [59] (), and it was stratified into four levels (L); the first included participants with a risk of high health resource consumption and the fourth included those with low health resource consumption. The PRM was successfully assigned to 95.1% of participants, while the quality of the registered information did not permit the linking of the remaining 4.9%.

The differences in these two indices (DI and PRM) between cases and controls were previously described (World Journal of Gastroenterology, in review process). Briefly, significant differences between the cases and the controls were found for DI and PRM, with a higher percentage of controls than cases in Q1-3 (the least disadvantaged) for DI, and a higher percentage of cases than controls in L1-2 (these levels included those with a risk of high health resource consumption) for PRM ($P < 0.001$).

Biological samples and genotyping

In this survey, healthy tissues or saliva samples of 230 CRC patients and 230 controls were collected and genotyped. Samples were provided by the Basque Biobank for Research-OEHUN www.biobancovasco.org and were processed following standard operation procedures with appropriate ethical approval. DNA was extracted using AllPrep DNA/RNA kit (Qiagen) for paraffin-embedded tissue samples and AutoGenFlex Tissue DNA Extraction kit (Autogen) for mouthwash saliva samples, and then was analyzed with NanoDrop™ Spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher).

Double-stranded DNA was quantified by fluorometry using theQuant-iT™ PicoGreen1 dsDNA Assay Kit (Invitrogen, CA) on a DTX 880 Multimode Detector (Beckman Coulter) to normalize DNA concentration. SNPs were selected for analysis on the basis of published studies concerning: (1) SNPs associated with susceptibility for development of CRC [60,61]; and (2) associations between SNPs and food groups or dietary factors as well as gene-diet interactions in CRC. SNPs were organized in the context of the gene(s) at or near locus and chromosome locus. The allelic

discrimination was assessed using the MassARRAY1 System (Agena Bioscience) on CeGen-PRB2-ISCI (Nodo USC) following the procedure provided by the manufacturer. Quality control samples were included in the genotyping assays.

Regarding the susceptibility SNPs for CRC, after an updated summary of the published SNPs [60,61]; 48 previously reported CRC-susceptibility SNPs were selected and analyzed. The results of these SNPs were described in the manuscript of Alegria-Lertxundi *et al.* [17]. In summary, we have confirmed a CRC susceptibility locus and the existence of associations between modifiable factors and the rs6687758 SNP; moreover, the GRS was associated with CRC. In relation to the SNPs associated with food groups or dietary factors as well as gene-diet interactions in CRC, after a bibliographic review on the topic, 82 SNPs were selected and analyzed, results are currently under review.

Quality management

We applied a similar methodology of those used in the IDEFICS study [62]. A unique subject identification number was attached to each recording sheet, questionnaire, and sample, as in other researches. The identification number had to be entered twice before the document could be entered into its respective database. All data were entered twice independently, and deviating entries were corrected. Inconsistencies that were identified by additional plausibility checks were rectified.

Timeline

Consenting participants self-completed and returned questionnaires between 2014 and 2016. Interviews to obtain data about lifestyle changes after participating in the CRCSP were carried out between 2015 and 2016, both in cases and controls after returning self-reported questionnaires. The collection of data from clinical databases, as well as the obtaining of biological samples were made after receiving and reviewing the questionnaires.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses for the present paper were performed using SPP 22.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, USA). Categorical variables are shown as a percentage, and continuous variables are shown as the means and standard deviation (SD). Normality was checked using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Lilliefors test. Paired t-test or the Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to two related means comparison. The categorical variables

were analyzed using the χ^2 test or the Fisher exact test. All tests were two-sided, and *P* values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

3. Results

Table 2 provides information regarding the demographic data, weight status, lifestyle (such as main daily activity, alcohol consumption, dietetic products and supplement use), drugs use, and quality of life and stress level. It should be noted that cases had a significantly higher prevalence of overweight/obesity than controls ($P<0.05$). Although the percentage of controls whose main daily activity was sedentary (sitting or standing) was higher compared to cases, these differences were not statistically significant. In addition, the use of dietary products and dietary or nutritional supplements was similar in cases and controls; being vegetable drinks the most common dietary product used and mineral supplements the most common nutritional supplement used. On the other hand, the use of antiplatelet agents was more frequent in cases than controls ($P<0.05$).

With respect to the weekly consumption of some food types, there were no significant differences between cases and controls in intakes of cooked vegetables, salads, fruit/fruit products, fish/fish products, and meat/meat products/meat dishes; neither in the consumption of fried foods nor grilled or roast meat nor in the frequency of use of added in table. However, a higher proportion of cases “always” or “often” used salt for cooking (76.8%) compared to controls (69.7%) ($P=0.036$). In any case, the average intake of Na from SFFQ was similar in cases and controls (Table 3).

Table 3 shows the daily energy and nutrients intake from diet and dietary products and supplements. Both in cases and controls, the average intake of protein and fat, especially SFA, expressed in percentage of the TEI was higher than NOSP; while, the average consumption of carbohydrate and dietary fiber was lower than NOSP. The cholesterol intake was lower than the NOSP. In particular, protein intake was higher than NOSP in 60.7 % of the sample, fat intake in 94.2%; and carbohydrate intake was lower than NOSP in 99.0%, and dietary fiber in 93.0%; there were no significant differences in any of these variables between cases and controls. Nevertheless, the percentage of cases whose consumption of SFA and cholesterol did not comply with NOSP was higher compared to controls (SFA: 85.7% vs. 67.5%, $P<0.001$; cholesterol: 35.4% vs. 25.0%, $P=0.009$).

The average intake of vitamin B₁, B₆/protein, cholesterol and caffeine were higher in cases than controls ($P<0.05$); while vitamin B₂ and the Ca/P ratio were higher in controls than cases ($P<0.01$). The percentage of cases whose vitamin B₂ intake did not

comply with NOSP was higher than controls (7.1% vs. 2.9%, $P=0.029$). Concerning the average consumption of caffeine, this was lower than the recommended limit in both cases and controls (400 mg/d).

On the other hand, the percentage of EAR (from diet and dietetic products and supplements) for Ca, Fe and vitamin B₂ was lower in cases than controls ($P<0.05$); while, the percentage of EAR for vitamin B₁ and B₆ was lower in controls than cases ($P<0.05$) (Table 4). The nutrients with the lowest proportions of subjects with intakes below EAR were: vitamin B₃ (4.8%), Fe (9.7%), vitamin B₁₂ (21.4%) and P (23.7%); there were no significant differences between cases and controls in these percentages. The percentage of the total sample (cases and controls) that exceeded the UL was: 18.8% for Mg (of which 1% used supplements and/or dietetic products), 37.4% for Na and 47.7% for vitamin B₃ (of which 1.6% used supplements and/or dietetic products); there were no significant differences between cases and controls. In cases group, 0.9% exceeded the UL value for the vitamin B₆.

Finally, the average mineral score was 20.2(3.4) with a range between 14 and 28, without significant differences between cases and controls. The distribution in tertiles of the mineral score showed a greater proportion of controls (76%) than cases (24%) in the second tertile ($P<0.001$), and a greater proportion of cases than controls in the third tertile (59.6% vs. 40.0%, $P<0.001$; respectively).

Table 1. Overview of the measurements and variables collected in this survey

Method	Measure of interest	Variables*
Self-reported data	Weight status	Self-reported weight (kg) and height (cm). BMI
	Demographic data	Age, sex.
	Socio-economic data	Educational attainment, economic activity, last employment, total number of co-residents per household and total number of rooms, excluding the kitchen and bathrooms. <i>HCI.</i>
	Lifestyle	PA (main daily activity), PE (<i>at least 20 minutes</i> per session), smoking habit (yes or no, age at start, number of cigarettes per day, years without smoking), and alcohol consumption (frequency and type of alcohol, these items were included in the SFFQ). Dietary habits: SFFQ, dietetic products and nutrient supplements consumption. Energy intake, macro/micronutrients (based on food composition tables), adequacy of energy and nutrients intake (percentage of the EER, NOSP, AI and UL), mineral score and diet quality index (HEISD and MDS). Adherence to guidelines for CRC prevention (PA/PE, dietary fiber, red meat and processed meat, alcoholic beverages and BMI) (subsample randomly selected). Perceived quality of life and stress.
Clinical databases	Quality of life and stress	Antiplatelet, anticoagulants and HRT (females).
	Drugs	
	Date of participation in the CRCSP	Date of the iFOBT <i>Time spent between iFOBT and participation in this survey.</i>
Phone interviews	Diagnosis and treatment (cases)	Pathological staging, location of the cancer, differentiation, tumor grade and treatments (type and data of surgery, radiation therapy and/or chemotherapy). <i>Time spent between treatments and participation in this survey.</i>
	Socio-economic level	<i>DI</i>
	Health status (specifically health resource consumption)	<i>PRM</i>
Genotyping	Lifestyle changes after participating in the CRCSP (subsample)	PA/PE, food consumption (vegetables, fruits, whole cereals, red meat, processed meat, alcoholic drinks) and smoking habits.
	48 SNPs of susceptibility	
	82 SNPs that could be associated with food groups or dietary factors and gene-diet interactions	

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 1

AI: adequate intakes; BMI: body mass index; CRCSP: colorectal cancer screening program; DI: deprivation index; EER: estimated energy requirements; HCI: Household crowding index; HEISD: Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet; HRT: hormone replacement therapy; iFOBT: immunochemical fecal occult blood test; MDS, MedDietScore; NOSP: Nutritional objectives for the Spanish population; PA: physical activity; PE: physical exercise; PRM: predictive risk modelling; SFFQ: short food frequency questionnaire; SNP: single nucleotide polymorphism; UL: daily tolerable upper limits.

*Text in italics corresponds to data derived from direct measurements.

Results presented in this manuscript are highlighted in bold

Table 2. Demographic data, weight status, lifestyle, drugs use, quality of life and stress level in cases and controls studied

Variables, % or mean SD	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		<i>P</i> ^a
Sex, men	66.2		66.2		
Age, y	61.5	5.2	61.1	5.5	0.093
BMI, kg/m ²	27.5	4.4	26.8	4.4	0.049
Overweight/obesity	67.5		58.1		0.015
Main daily activity					
<i>Sitting</i>	31.8		40.1		
<i>Standing</i>	29.8		29.9		
<i>Walking</i>	34.1		28.6		
Activities that demanded great <i>physical effort</i>	4.3		1.3		0.079
Alcohol consumption, SDU	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.682
Non-compliance with recommendations, %	13.0		12.0		0.715
Dietetic products and supplement use ^b	9.7		13.0		0.306
Among those who consumed dietetic products and/or supplements ^c					
Dietetic products use	26.1		21.7		0.249
Milk/dairy ^d	28.6		16.7		
Vegetable drinks ^e	71.4		66.6		
Iodized salt	-		16.7		1.000
Nutrient supplements	73.9		13.0		0.306
Vitamins	19.4		15.9		
Minerals	29.0		27.3		

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 2

Variables, % or mean SD	Cases		Controls		P ^a
	(n=308)		(n=308)		
Complex vitamin-mineral products	12.9		13.6		
n-3 PUFA	16.1		22.7		
n-6 PUFA	6.5		-		
Fiber	16.1		20.5		0.701
Drugs					
Antiplatelet	18.5		13.7		0.038
Anticoagulants	1.3		1.3		0.359
HRT (females) ^f	16.0		16.7		0.585
QoL ^g	71.5	14.0	69.8	15.2	0.141
Stress level ^g	40.4	26.4	41.1	24.8	0.846

BMI: body mass index; HRT: hormone replacement therapy; PUFA: polyunsaturated fatty acids; QoL: quality of life; SD: standard deviation; SDU: standard drink unit.

^aDifferences between cases and controls. Significant results are highlighted in bold.

^bPercentage calculated on the number of cases and controls.

^cThis question presented multiple answers. Percentage based on the number of answers obtained in each item.

^dEnriched with calcium, omega-3, lactose-free milk

^eRice, oat or soy drinks.

^fPercentage of females

^gTo assess the QoL and perceived stress an analog linear scale with a range from 0 to 100 was used

Table 3. Daily energy and nutrients intake (from diet and dietetic products and supplements) in cases and control studied

Daily intake from diet and dietetic products and supplements	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		P ^a
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Energy, kcal/d	1774.3	388.0	1743.1	390.9	0.205
Macronutrients					
Protein, % TEI	15.7 ^b	2.3	16.1	7.1	0.681
NOSP, 10–15% TEI					
Carbohydrates, % TEI	36.2	4.9	36.7	5.6	0.277
NOSP, 50-60% TEI					
Fat, %TEI	42.5	4.5	42.1	5.1	0.256

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 3

Daily intake from diet and dietetic products and supplements	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		<i>P</i> ^a
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
NOSP, <30-35% TEI					
SFA, % TEI	12.7	2.5	12.4	2.8	0.179
NOSP, <7-8% TEI					
MUFA, % TEI	19.6	2.7	19.7	2.8	0.631
NOSP, 20% TEI					
PUFA, % TEI	6.6	2.0	6.3	1.7	0.183
NOSP, 5% TEI					
Linoleic acid, % TEI	5.1	1.9	4.8	1.5	0.118
NOSP, 3% TEI					
α -linolenic acid, % TEI	0.7	0.2	0.7	0.2	0.422
NOSP, 1-2% TEI					
EPA, mg	334.7	192.8	329.9	209.9	0.542
DHA, mg	582.4	321.7	563.3	316.9	0.380
NOSP, 300 mg					
<i>Minerals and electrolytes</i>					
Ca, mg	759.4	238.0	780.6	227.0	0.225
NOSP, 800-1,000 mg					
P, mg	1220.2	314.5	1207.9	297.6	0.648
Ca/P ^c	0.6	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.009^b
NOSP, 1,3/1					
Fe, mg	14.1	3.9	14.4	4.2	0.765
Mg, mg	263.1 ^b	73.7	263.8	63.1	0.760
K, mg	2616.0	615.3	2627.7	610.2	0.954
I, μ g	88.8	39.9	87.3	24.7	0.961
NOSP, 150 μ g					
Na ^d , mg	1950.8	1041.4	1820.1	1004.3	0.081
NOSP, <2,000 mg/d					
Se, μ g	88.3	24.3	87.3	24.4	0.682
Cu, mg	1.0	0.3	1.0	0.3	0.568
Zn, mg	9.4	2.8	9.3	2.9	0.375
Vitamins					

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 3

Daily intake from diet and dietetic products and supplements	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		<i>P</i> ^a
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Vitamin B ₁ ^e , mg/1,000 kcal NOSP, 0,4 mg/1,000 kcal	1.0	7.6	0.6	0.2	0.003
Vitamin B ₂ ^f , mg/1,000 kcal NOSP, 0,6 mg/1,000 kcal	0.9	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.002
Vitamin B ₃ , mg/1,000 kcal NOSP, 6,6 mg/1,000 kcal	17.1	3.3	17.2	3.3	0.117
Vitamin B ₆ (mg)/protein (g) NOSP, > 0.02 vitamin B ₆ (mg)/protein (g)	0.04	0.2	0.03	0.01	0.020
Folate, µg NOSP, >300-400 µg	267.2	80.1	273.3	76.5	0.406
Vitamin B ₁₂ ^e , µg	6.7	28.5	4.9	1.7	0.094
Vitamin C, mg	149.3	66.0	147.8	59.9	0.611
Vitamin A, µg	532.4	206.9	522.0	181.4	0.420
Vitamin D, µg NOSP (>50 y old), 10 µg	2.1	1.0	2.3	1.9	0.799
Vitamin E, mg NOSP, > 0.4 vitamin E (mg)/PUFA (g)	0.6	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.139
Others					
Cholesterol, mg	274.7 ^b	96.7	256.2	95.3	0.019
Fiber, g	19.9	6.5	20.1	6.0	0.459
Caffeine, mg	15.1	9.7	13.8	11.7	0.025
Water ^g , ml	1062.3 ^b	264.8	1069.9	261.2	0.769

DHA: docosahexaenoic acid; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; MUFA: monounsaturated fatty acids; NOSP, Nutritional objectives for the Spanish population; PUFA: polyunsaturated fatty acids; SD, standard deviation; SFA: saturated fatty acids; TEI: total energy intake.

^aDifferences between cases and controls. Significant results are highlighted in bold.

^bThis variable followed a normal distribution.

^cThe Ca/P ratio was 0.62(0.12) in cases and 0.65(0.13) in controls.

^dSodium from foods, does not include the amount of salt added

^eThis high SD is due to the use of nutritional supplements by one of the cases.

^fVitamin B₂ intake per 1,000 kcal was 0.86(0.23) in cases and 0.92(0.23) in controls.

^gIntake of water from foods, but not from water from beverages.

Table 4. Energy and nutrients intake (from diet and dietetic products and supplements) expressed as a percentage of the estimated energy requirement (EER), the Estimated Average Requirements (EAR) or Adequate Intakes (AI) in cases and controls studied

% of energy requirement estimated, EARs or AI	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		P ^a
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Energy	114.4	32.7	107.0	31.3	0.056
<i>Minerals and electrolytes</i>					
Ca	49.7 ^b	11.1	52.7	13.4	0.025
P	118.9	18.1	120.1	18.5	0.469
Fe	142.5	35.7	147.5	36.4	0.044
Mg	47.5	13.2	48.1	12.0	0.094
K ^c	55.7	13.1	55.9	13.0	0.081
I	53.2	22.9	53.0	10.5	0.236
Na ^c	150.1	80.1	140.0	77.3	0.954
Se	111.9	24.6	112.3	24.6	0.598
Cu	80.6	13.4	81.1	13.1	0.360
Zn	64.0	19.5	64.1	18.7	0.938
<i>Vitamins</i>					
Vitamin B ₁ ^d	110.7	847.4	66.5	19.4	0.003
Vitamin B ₂	84.6	25.5	89.9	24.8	0.002
Vitamin B ₃	147.4	30.5	150.5	29.0	0.121
Vitamin B ₆	110.8	73.6	81.2	19.6	0.010
Folate	47.8	13.7	49.8	13.1	0.060
Vitamin B ₁₂ ^d	185.2	763.1	139.2	36.5	0.350
Vitamin C	124.0	55.5	124.5	51.7	0.865
Vitamin A	52.5	19.9	52.4	17.5	0.943
Vitamin D	11.9	5.7	13.1	11.9	0.956
Vitamin E	38.3	16.3	35.7	12.2	0.053

AI : adequate intakes ; EAR : estimated average requirements ; SD : standard deviation

^aDifferences between cases and controls. Significant results are highlighted in bold.

^bThis variable followed a normal distribution.

^cNutrient intake expressed as a percentage of the AI (the rest of the nutrients were expressed as a percentage of the EAR).

^dThis high SD is due to the use of nutritional supplements by one of the cases.

4. Discussion

This study was successful in obtaining a sample of cases and controls from the population-based CRCSP of the Basque Health Service (Osakidetza), all of whom agreed to participate in the full study protocol (self-reported data, clinical databases and genotyping). More men than women participated (1.96:1.0), and they were mostly elderly people (average age in cases= 61.5; and in controls=61.1 years), which was consistent with previous literature on CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service [63]. Although the average participation rate in this CRCSP was higher in women than men (70.9% vs. 65.6%), the proportion of CRC diagnosed was higher in men than in women (4.8% vs. 2.1%) [63].

With regard to the characteristics of the sample studied the prevalence of overweight/obesity was higher in cases than controls. This result is in agreement with previous studies [64-66] that have confirmed that obesity is associated with an increased risk of CRC. Even though the biological mechanisms underlying the association between body-fat in excess and CRC remain unclear [67], evidence seems to support the important role of metabolic syndrome, insulin resistance [68], systemic inflammation and immunity [69], microbial dysbiosis [70], as well as certain genetic factors especially in early-onset CRC [71,72]. Elucidating the mediating role of these factors in obesity-induced CRC should be very useful in the prevention and treatment of this type of cancer. In addition to the direct contribution of obesity to CRC risk, body-fat in excess, in turn, could be associated to other risk factors for CRC, such as unhealthy diet and sedentary lifestyle [73,74] (). Notably, we also observed a slightly higher proportion of controls whose main daily activity was sedentary compared to cases, but this result could be influenced by a greater awareness of the associations between diseases and lifestyle factors among cases.

Regarding the diet, no significant differences were found for the food group studied, except for the frequency of use of salt added to cooking that was significantly higher in cases than controls. In other case-control studies, a positive association between sodium intake and CRC was also observed [75]. In any case, our average intake of Na from SFFQ was similar in cases than controls, probably due to the difficulty to estimate this intake from self-reported data on salt added [76].

From the nutritional point of view, the diet of participants, both cases and controls, was characterized by high intakes of protein, fat, SFA, and low intakes of carbohydrates and dietary fibre; thus, it was a western diet pattern. This dietary pattern has been associated

before with an elevated CRC incidence [77,78]. Moreover, the percentage of cases whose consumption of SFA and cholesterol did not comply with NOSP was higher than controls. This result is in agreement with those reported by other authors that have observed a higher CRC risk among subjects with high intake of both SFA and cholesterol (highest vs. lowest) [79]. Arafaet *et al.* [80] also reported a higher intake of saturated fats and cholesterol among CRC diagnosed subjects as compared to controls. The mechanisms involved in the influence of fat on the colorectal carcinogenesis is complex and appear to be related with its effect on the insulin-signal pathway and the c-Hun N-terminal kinase pathway that promote the colonic cell proliferation [81].

On the other hand, in the present study, we have not found a higher intake in controls than in cases of protective factors associated with a decrease in CRC risk according to the scientific literature, such as, for example, Ca, Mg, fiber diet, vitamin D, B₆ or regular use of certain drugs [9]. However, the average intake of vitamin B₂ and the Ca/P ratio was higher in controls than cases. Some studies have indicated before that vitamin B₂ intake is inversely associated with CRC risk [82]. Although this vitamin has received less attention than other ones, as protective factor of epithelial cancers (including CRC), the interest in vitamin B₂ is increasing due the role of flavins in folate metabolism and the possible synergistic protective effect between these two vitamins for cancer [83]. With respect to Ca/P ratio, Botron *et al.* [84] reported a case-control study in which they analyzed the possible association between this ratio and colorectal carcinogenesis, and found positive associations, but they did not observe any modulation by P intake of the association between dietary Ca intake and CRC.

Finally, on the contrary, the hypothesis that higher intakes of minerals with colon anti-carcinogenic effects, combined with lower intakes of those minerals with pro-carcinogenic effects may be associated with lower CRC risk was not supported. A greater proportion of controls than cases positioned in the second tertile of the minerals score, in contrast to what has been observed in the third tertile.

Strengths and limitations

The main strength is the fact that information is provided based on a standardised protocol including not only dietary and genetic factors, but also other possible determinants of CRC such as health determinants and weight status, among others. Another strength of this study compared to others [13-15] is that colonoscopy was used as diagnosis criteria to identify the cases in order to avoid false positives and negatives. However, there are some limitations that should be mentioned. First, recall bias inherent

in a case-control study design cannot be ruled out. Second, self-reported data could be subject to measurement errors and the problem of food omissions due to memory failure and under-reporting of unhealthy habits among disease subjects. However, previous validation studies indicate that the self-reported dietary information is reported with sufficient accuracy for use in epidemiology analysis [85]; and it should be noted that dietary changes are usually modest after participating in the CRCSP due to a lack of information and personalized advice [86,87]. Finally, to avoid selection bias of controls, we obtained controls from the same CRCSP and in the same period as cases, thus, it was confirmed that they did not suffer from CRC by colonoscopy.

5. Conclusions

This study provides valuable data for analyzing the complexity of gene-diet interaction in relation to CRC in a sample from a screening programme. These data include not only lifestyle and genetic determinants of CRC risk but also demographic, socio-economic data, weight status, perceived quality of life and stress, use of drugs related with decreasing CRC risk and lifestyle changes after participating in the CRCSP. Thus, this research provides valuable data for analyzing the determinants of this pathology and for designing prevention strategies. The authors hope that this report could help other researchers replicate this survey in other populations in order to easily and accurately compare their results. However, it is worth noting that some questionnaires include culturally sensitive topics, such as dietary habits and should be adapted to and validated in the population of interest. In addition, the results presented in this manuscript allow us to conclude that cases were more likely than controls to have overweight/obesity, a higher frequency of consumption of salt added for cooking, a lower intake of vitamin B₂ and Ca/P ratio, and not to have adequate intakes of SFA and cholesterol. Thus, some environmental factors, such as weight status and dietary components, could influence on the etiology of CRC in this population.

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Footnotes

Institutional review board statement: This study was approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Country (reference numbers PI2011006 and PI2014042).

Informed consent statement: Written informed consent was obtained from all the study participants.

Conflict-of-interest statement: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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3.3. STUDY 3: “Food groups, diet quality and colorectal cancer risk in the Basque Country”

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Case Control Study

Food groups, diet quality and colorectal cancer risk in the Basque Country

Alegria-Lertxundi I *et al.* Food groups, diet quality and colorectal cancer risk in the Basque Country

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Abstract

BACKGROUND

The results obtained to date concerning food groups, diet quality and colorectal cancer (CRC) risk vary according to criteria used and the study populations.

AIM

To study the relationships between food groups, diet quality and CRC risk, in an adult population of the Basque Country (North of Spain).

METHODS

This observational study included 308 patients diagnosed with CRC and 308 age- and sex-matched subjects as controls. During recruitment, dietary, anthropometric, lifestyle,

socioeconomic, demographic and health status information was collected. Adherence to the dietary recommendations was evaluated utilizing the Healthy Eating Index for the Spanish Diet and the MedDietScore. Conditional logistic regressions were used to evaluate the associations of food group intakes, diet quality scores, categorized in tertiles, with CRC risk.

RESULTS

The adjusted models for potential confounding factors showed a direct association between milk/dairy products consumption, in particular high-fat cheeses (OR third tertile vs first tertile=1.87, 95% CI 1.11-3.16), and CRC risk. While the consumption of fiber-containing foods, especially whole grains (OR third tertile vs first tertile=0.62, 95% CI 0.39-0.98), and fatty fish (OR=0.53, 95% CI 0.27-0.99) was associated with a lower risk for CRC. Moreover, higher MD adherence was associated with a reduced CRC risk in adjusted models (OR=0.40, 95% CI 0.20-0.80).

CONCLUSION

Direct associations were found for high-fat cheese, whereas an inverse relation was reported for fiber-containing foods and fatty fish, as well as adherence to a Mediterranean dietary pattern.

Keywords: Colorectal cancer; Food group; Dietary quality; Mediterranean diet; Risk-factors; Case-control study

Core tip: This matched case-control study supports the role of diet in colorectal cancer (CRC) risk. The results suggest that high consumption of high-fat cheeses is associated with CRC risk, whereas, a high intake of fiber-containing foods, especially whole grains, and fatty fish, as well as adherence to the Mediterranean dietary pattern, was associated with a lower risk for CRC. Future studies are needed to better understand the influence of the dietary habits on CRC prevention in this population that can provide leads for the design and tailoring of future interventions, and guide counselling strategies for promoting a healthy lifestyle.

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is a major public health challenge worldwide. CRC is the third-most commonly diagnosed malignancy and the fourth leading cause of cancer deaths in the world, accounting for approximately 1.8 million new cases and almost 900,000 deaths in 2018^[1]. In Europe, CRC is the leading malignancy in terms of incidence and the second in mortality in both sexes^[2]. CRC is linked to western lifestyles, in particular, to diet, physical inactivity, smoking, alcohol consumption, and body weight^[3,4].

Epidemiological evidence suggests that dietary factors may both protect against and promote the development of CRC. A comprehensive review^[5] shows robust evidence about the protective role of dietary fiber. Other foods, such as milk or garlic, also may be protective. Conversely, red meat and processed meat intake and alcoholic drinks increase CRC risk. This food group approach has the advantage of reducing some of the problems inherent to analyses of nutrient intake (*e.g.*, inaccuracy and incompleteness of food-composition tables). Furthermore, it offers an advantage from a preventive perspective since food group results are easier to transform into dietary recommendations than those of nutrients^[6].

In this regard, foods are not consumed in isolation but as part of a dietary pattern; therefore, the actual effect of diet on disease risk may be observed only when all components are considered jointly^[6]. For this purpose, several diet quality indexes have been developed using point systems to measure whole diet quality based on the alignment of food choices with dietary recommendations. Some of these indices have been used to begin assessing the relationships between overall diet quality and CRC risk, and the results show that high scores in these indices are associated with a lower CRC risk^[7-10]. However, the results vary considerably according to the index used and other factors such as sex and age. Therefore, there is a need to further examine these relationships in diverse population studies.

The current case-control study was undertaken in the North of Spain to elucidate the relationships between food group consumption, diet quality and CRC risk, and identify possible differences in consumption depending on tumor location, in an adult population that participated in a CRC screening programme (CRCSP) in the Basque Country. To our knowledge, this is the first study in the Basque country population, in which both CRC incidence and mortality have increased in recent years^[11]. There are few studies in this regard in Spain^[12,13]. And both in these Spanish studies and in others carried out in

other Mediterranean countries controls were apparently healthy subjects without clinical symptoms or signs of any type of cancer^[14].

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study subjects

This is an observational, matched case-control study in a population group residing in the Basque Country (North of Spain). Participants in this study were recruited from among patients attending any of the three hospitals of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service (Basurto, Galdakao and Donostia) members of the Basque Country CRCSP. To be eligible for this CRCSP, the patients had to be aged between 50 and 69, asymptomatic for colorectal symptoms and registered with the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service^[11]. These inclusion criteria were applied to both case and control group, that is, controls fulfilled the same eligibility criteria defined for the cases, with the exception of the disease (outcome). Recruitment and data collection for the present study were conducted between 2014 and 2016.

All the patients who were newly diagnosed with CRC (n=601) were invited to participate in this study. Of those, 283 refused to participate in the study, and 10 were excluded due to missing information. Ultimately, 308 subjects (66.2% men) consented to participate in the survey and completed all the questionnaires. In addition, for each case, three age- (± 9.0 years) and sex-matched control patients were randomly sought from the list of CRC-free subjects (n=1,836) who participated in the CRCSP during the same period as the cases. The matched controls were patients with positive results (abnormal) for immunochemical fecal occult blood test (iFOBT) and negative colonoscopy results (normal). The participation rate of the controls was 37.6%, and 17 subjects were excluded due to missing information. Finally, the matched case-to-control ratio was 1:1, and the final data set included 308 cases who were diagnosed with CRC and 308 age- and sex-matched controls. Further details on recruitment and data collection have been described elsewhere^[15]. The main advantage of the present study compared to other above-mentioned researches^[12-14] is that we confirmed that controls were free of the disease through colonoscopy. Colonoscopy was used as diagnostic criteria to identify the cases in order to avoid false positives and negatives.

The pathological staging was based on the 7th edition of the AJCC cancer staging manual^[16] as follows: I (57.1%), IIA (13.6%), IIB (1.0%), IIC (0.3%), IIIA (7.5%), IIIB (14.6%), IIIC (1.9%), IVA (2.9%), and IVB (1.0%). The location of the cancer was distal in 76% and proximal (to the splenic flexure of the colon) in 24.0% of the samples.

Concerning the tumor grade classification, we adopted a two-grade classification that was divided into low grade (well or moderately differentiated) (80.5%) and high grade (poorly differentiated, anaplastic, or undifferentiated) (4.5%); the percentage of missing data for this classification was 14.9%.

Some of the cases had undergone surgical resection (73.7%) and/or adjuvant treatments, chemotherapy (34.1%), and chemotherapy and radiation (6.8%). The percentages of subjects according to the type of surgical procedure were as follows: 26.3% sigmoidectomy, 17.5% right hemicolectomy resection, 18.8% low anterior resection, 6.5% left hemicolectomy resection, 2.3% transverse colectomy, 1.0% abdominoperineal resection, 1.0% total colectomy, and 0.3% transanal endoscopic operation. The cases were invited to take part in this survey at least one month after finishing their last treatment (surgery, chemotherapy or radiotherapy) (median, 1.3 years; range, 0.1 to 4.2 years). All the clinical data were obtained from the Basque Country's population-based CRCSP database, which links patient medical records and clinical databases and reviewed by expert staff. This review allowed the monitorization of all cases from the submission of the sample through the analysis, colonoscopy, pathology and follow-up.

This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki, and all procedures involving patients were approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Country (reference numbers PI2011006 and PI2014042). Written informed consent was obtained from all the study participants. Consenting participants self-completed and returned a detailed food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) and one general questionnaire (GQ). The questions referred to the behaviors before participating in the CRCSP. Assistance from the study staff was available to help the patients to understand the items on the questionnaires. The quality management applied in the present study has been described in a previous article^[15].

Dietary assessment

Diets were assessed using a short FFQ that was a modified version of the Rodríguez *et al*^[17] (2008) questionnaire. This adaptation was validated with multiple 24-h recalls in the Basque general population^[18] and in CRC diagnosed patients in a pilot of the present study^[19]. It consists of 67 items and requires the subjects to recall the number of times each food item was consumed either per week or per month. This FFQ included specific questions about the frequency of intake of alcoholic beverages. Moreover, the

respondents could also record the consumption of other foods that were not included on the food list.

Consumption frequencies were standardized to “per day” and multiplied by standard serving sizes (grams)^[20]. For items that included several foods, each food’s contribution was estimated with weighting coefficients that were obtained from the usual consumption data^[21]. Food items were then regrouped according to nutritional characteristics^[22] and considering the potential contribution of food to the pathogenesis of CRC^[23,24]. Details on the items included in each food group are shown in Table 1. All food items that were consumed were entered into DIAL 2.12 (2011 ALCE INGENIERIA)^[25], a type of dietary assessment software, to estimate energy intake (*kilocalories/day, kcal/d*).

Adherence to the dietary recommendations was evaluated utilizing the Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet (HEISD)^[26] and the MedDietScore (MDS)^[27], as previously described^[19]. The theoretical range of the HEISD is 0-100 and of the MDS 0-55, higher values of these scores indicate greater adherence to the dietary recommendations for the Spanish population and the Mediterranean diet pattern, respectively. HEISD was divided into the following categories: poor diet (<50 points), needs improvement (50-80 points) and proper diet (>80 points)^[26]; and the MDS into the following ones: low adherence to MD (0-34 points) and high adherence (>35 points). The cut-off point of MDS was established taking into account that scores below 34 points were associated with a higher risk of coronary heart disease, being the relative odds ≥ 1.42 ^[27].

General questionnaire

A general questionnaire was used to gather information on weight status (self-reported weight and height) and environmental factors (demographic factors: age and sex; and lifestyle information: physical exercise (PE) and smoking consumption). These questions were taken from the Spanish Health Questionnaire^[28]. Body mass index (BMI) estimated from self-reported height and weight was classified according to the WHO criteria for those under 65 years of age^[29] and according to the criteria proposed by Silva Rodríguez *et al*^[30] (2014) for those 65 years and older.

Additionally, socioeconomic and health status data were assessed with two indices that were obtained from the clinical databases developed by the Health Department of the Basque Government, namely the socioeconomic deprivation index (DI) and predictive risk modelling (PRM), respectively. The first one was estimated using the MEDEA project criteria^[31], as has been described elsewhere^[12] and was divided into quintiles (Q), with the first being the least disadvantaged and the fifth being the most disadvantaged. The

DI was successfully assigned to 80.2% of participants, while the quality of the registered information did not permit the linking of the remaining 19.8%.

The PRM is an index that is based on Adjusted Clinical Groups (ACG)^[32], Diagnostic Cost Groups/Hierarchical Condition Categories (DCG-HCC)^[33] and Clinical Risk Groups (CRG)^[34]. This index combines information about diagnoses, prescriptions, previous costs and the use of specific procedures. It is capable of predicting the use of health resources^[35], and it was stratified into four levels (L); the first included participants with a risk of high health resource consumption and the fourth included those with low health resource consumption. The PRM was successfully assigned to 95.1% of participants, while the quality of the registered information did not permit the linking of the remaining 4.9%.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 22.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, USA) and STATA 13.0 (StataCorp LP, Texas, USA). Categorical variables are shown as a percentage, and continuous variables are shown as the means and standard deviations (SD). Normality was checked using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Lilliefors test. Differences between continuous variables were calculated with a Wilcoxon test, and a McNemar's test was used for categorical variables.

Conditional logistic regression was used to calculate odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) for CRC risk according to tertiles of food group intakes and diet quality scores for unadjusted and adjusted models. Intake of all food groups and total diet quality scores were categorized into tertiles by the distribution in the control population, taking into account sex differences when they were significant. The lowest tertile was used as the reference group. Tertile cut-offs for HEISD were: 1st tertile (T₁), <69; 2nd tertile (T₂), 69-74.5 and 3rd tertile (T₃), >74.5; and for MDS: T₁, <35; T₂, 35-37 and T₃, >37.

Based on known risk factors for CRC^[36,37,38], covariates in adjusted models included age, sex, weight status, energy intake, PE level, smoking status, intensity of smoking (in current and past smokers) and time not smoking (in past smokers), DI and PRM. Quantitative covariates (cigarettes/d and years not smoking) were dichotomized by mean or median, according to the normality test. We used the cut-off of Romaguera *et al.* (2012)^[39] to create two PE levels expressed in *minutes/day* (min/d) of cycling/sports: sedentary-light (<15 min/d) and moderate-vigorous (≥15 min/d). Age was dichotomized using the same age ranges that were used in the sample selection process (50-59 years

old vs 60-69 years old). Qualitative ones, such as DI and PRM were dichotomized taking into account the distribution of frequencies to obtain similar sample sizes for each category (DI, Q₁₋₃ vs Q₄₋₅; PRM, L₃₋₄ vs L₁₋₂). Energy intake was included as a quantitative variable in the adjusted models. We included participants with missing data for the covariates as a separate category. The reference categories were those that, according to the literature, have a lower CRC risk. All tests were 2-sided, and *P*-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Comparisons of general characteristics between the cases and the controls are presented in Table 2. Significant differences between the cases and the controls were found for educational level, smoking and weight status, with a higher percentage of cases with low-medium educational level, past or current smoking status and with overweight/obesity compared to the controls (*P*<0.01).

Table 3 shows food group intakes expressed as mean values and SD according to case-control status. No significant differences were found between the two groups for the majority of foods groups, except for a higher consumption of eggs and a lower intake of whole grains in the cases than the controls (*P*<0.05).

The ORs for CRC risk by the main food group and food subgroup intakes are presented in Table 4 and 5, respectively. The adjusted ORs for CRC risk increased with higher red and processed meat, eggs, milk/dairy products intakes; whereas it decreased with higher fiber-containing foods and nut intakes. The food group with the highest adjusted OR for CRC risk was milk/dairy products. Fish consumption showed an association with CRC risk in the unadjusted analysis but not in the adjusted analysis. For some of these food groups, specifically for red and processed meat, fish, eggs and nuts, the null value 1 was contained in the confidence interval. Concerning the food subgroup intakes, the ORs for CRC risk increased with higher high-fat cheese intakes, while it decreased with higher fatty fish, in the adjusted analysis.

Supplementary Table 1 describes food group intakes of cases according to tumor location and their matched controls. Food group intakes were not substantially different between proximal and distal cancer cases, except for fish, milk/dairy products and fat. The fish consumption was higher in both case subgroups (proximal and distal cancer cases) in comparison with their matched controls (*P*<0.001). However, the milk/dairy products intake was higher in proximal tumor cases and was lower in distal tumor cases than in their matched controls (*P*<0.001). Finally, the fat intake was higher in proximal

tumor cases in comparison with their matched controls ($P<0.05$). The sample sizes did not allow the assessment of food group intakes related to disease risk, stratifying according to the tumor location.

The components and total scores of the HEISD and MDS are displayed in Table 6. According to HEISD, 91.9% of the participants (cases and controls) followed a diet classified as “needs improvement”, 7.6% followed a “good diet” and 0.5 followed a “poor diet”. Significant differences were neither observed in the HEISD classification nor the components scores nor in the total score. However, the total score for this dietary quality index and the score of diet variety components were higher for cases with the proximal location of cancer than for their matched controls ($P<0.05$) (Supplementary Table 2). No association was found between this index and risk of CRC, in the conditional logistic regressions.

Concerning the MDS, in the total sample, 39.8% showed low adherence to the MD and the remaining percentage had high adherence, without significant differences in the MDS classification between the cases and the controls. However, the scores for whole grains and total index were lower for cases than for controls ($P<0.05$). This last result was confirmed using conditional logistic regressions, showing that those participants with higher MDS had a lower CRC risk than those with a lower score, in both unadjusted (model I: T_3 vs T_1 , OR 0.57, 95% CI 0.37-0.89, $P=0.013$) and adjusted models (model II: T_3 vs T_1 , OR 0.40, 95% CI 0.20-0.80, $P=0.009$). No significant differences were observed in total MDS between cases stratified by tumor location and their matched controls, but the total score was higher for cases with the proximal location of cancer than for those with distal location ($P<0.05$) (Supplementary Table 2). Moreover, the score for potatoes and whole grain components were lower for cases with the distal location of cancer than for their matched controls ($P<0.05$).

Table 1. Food group definitions

Food group	Food items
Red and processed meat	
Red meat	Beef, pork and lamb, minced meat, hamburgers, meatballs...
Processed meat	Ham, sausage, salami, mortadella, black pudding or blood sausage...
Egg	Egg
Fish	White fish (hake, grouper, sole, cod) and fatty fish (sardine, tuna, salmon, mackerel)
Milk/dairy products	
Non-cheese products	Whole milk, semi-skimmed milk, skimmed milk, whole yogurt, skimmed yogurt and dairy desserts
Cheese	Burgos cheese, curd, cottage and cheeses low in calories, mature, semi-mature and creamy cheese
Fiber-containing foods	
Fruits	Orange, tangerine, apple, pear, banana, peach, raisins, prunes, dried figs... natural fruit juices
Vegetables	Salads, green beans, chard, spinach... garnish vegetables (eggplant, mushrooms, peppers...), garlic, onion
Whole grains	Whole grain pasta, brown rice, whole grain cookies, whole breakfast cereals (Muesli, All-Bran)...
Nuts	Walnuts, almonds, hazelnuts, peanuts...
Fat	Vegetable oils (olive, sunflower, corn, soy), butter, margarine, mayonnaise...
Sweet and added sugar	Chocolate, breakfast cereals, cookies, muffins, donuts, honey, sugar, commercial fruit juice, soft-drinks, cakes, pies...
Alcoholic beverages	Beer, wine, hard cider, vermouth, whiskey, rum, gin, brandy, cocktails...

Table 2. General characteristics of the sample studied

Characteristics	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		P
Sex, men, n(%)	204(66.2)		204(66.2)		
Age, y, mean SD	61.5	5.2	61.1	5.5	0.093
Schooling, %					
No education/primary education	36.7		29.2		
Technical/secondary education	48.0		44.5		
University degree	15.3		26.3		0.005
Economic activity, %					
Working	27.9		32.1		
Unemployed	5.2		3.2		
Retired	58.8		56.2		
Housework	8.1		8.4		0.496
Last work, %					
Employer or businessman/women	19.2		17.9		
Steady salaried employee	75.0		71.8		
Temporary salaried employee or member of a cooperative	0.6		4.5		
Household help and other activities without salary	5.1		5.8		0.073
Smoking status, %					
Never	27.9		38.6		
Past/current	72.1		61.4		0.004
Time to quit smoking					
≥ 11 y	67.2		66.7		
< 11 y	32.8		33.3		0.931
Intensity of smoking ¹					
≤15 cigarettes/d	50.7		33.1		
>15 cigarettes/d	49.3		66.9		0.003

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 2.

Characteristics	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		P
Physical exercise, %					
< 15 minutes/d of cycling/sports	79.2		65.9		
≥ 15 minutes/d of cycling/sports	20.8		34.1		<0.001
BMI, %					
Underweight	6.5		7.8		
Normal weight	26.0		34.1		
Overweight/obesity	67.5		58.1		0.033
Energy intake (kcal/d), mean SD	1769.9	383.4	1736.6	388.2	0.172
DI,% ²					
Q ₁₋₃	47.1		65.6		
Q ₄₋₅	18.8		29.5		<0.001
PRM,% ²					
L ₁₋₂	15.6		12.3		
L ₃₋₄	83.4		79.2		<0.001

¹Percentages were calculated excluding never smokers;²Valid percentages. BMI: body mass index; d: day; DI: deprivation index (this index was successfully assigned to 80.2% of the study sample); L: level; PRM: predictive risk modelling (this index was successfully assigned to 95.1% of the study sample); Q: quintile; SD: standard deviation; y: years.

Table 3. Food group intakes of the sample studied

Food groups, g/d	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		<i>P</i>
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Red and processed meat	70.9	36.6	66.0	39.7	0.064
Red meat	49.7	30.5	46.1	31.0	0.130
Processed meat	21.2	16.6	19.9	17.2	0.155
Total fish	76.8	39.2	77.6	40.9	0.540
White fish	40.9	25.2	44.1	27.4	0.055
Fatty fish	35.9	22.6	33.6	24.1	0.236
Eggs	20.8	12.7	18.7	11.5	0.038
Milk/dairy products	264.7	153.4	271.0	119.4	0.310
Non-cheese dairy products	246.0	152.4	253.8	118.5	0.203
Total cheeses	18.8	17.4	17.1	16.8	0.172
Fresh cheeses ¹	6.9	10.3	7.1	13.3	0.867
Other cheeses ²	11.7	11.8	10.1	10.7	0.172
Fiber-containing foods	570.3	243.9	564.8	214.1	0.761
Fruits (including natural juices)	330.2	202.5	322.6	168.2	0.791
Vegetables	202.1	88.8	200.6	90.9	0.803
Whole grains	14.4	19.9	18.8	23.4	0.012
Fat	35.5	6.9	34.6	6.4	0.064
Nuts	9.1	10.1	10.9	10.5	0.055
Sweets and added sugar	108.3	95.4	110.7	116.5	0.969
Alcoholic beverages	103.4	100.7	96.8	105.9	0.269

¹Fresh cheeses, e.g., Burgos cheese and cheeses low in calories;

²Other cheeses, mature, semi-mature and creamy cheeses. g/d: grams/day; SD: standard deviation.

Table 4. Association between main food group in and colorectal cancer risk

Main food group intakes ¹	No. Case/Control	Model I ²	Model II ³	Model III ⁴
		OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
Red and processed meat				
T ₁	90/102	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	97/103	1.06(0.72-1.57)	1.02(0.61-1.72)	1.08(0.61-1.94)
T ₃	121/109	1.32(0.91-1.93)	1.65(0.99-2.75)	1.26(0.71-2.23)
<i>P</i>		0.314	<0.001	-
Fish				
T ₁	95/105	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	77/103	0.82(0.53-1.25)	0.97(0.56-1.68)	0.83(0.46-1.51)
T ₃	136/105	1.49(1.01-2.20)	1.06(0.62-1.79)	1.25(0.68-2.29)
<i>P</i>		0.008	<0.001	-
Eggs				
T ₁	71/98	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	107/116	1.15(0.77-1.72)	1.04(0.62-1.76)	0.97(0.61-1.93)
T ₃	130/104	1.55(1.03-2.33)	1.72(1.00-2.94)	1.26(0.71-2.23)
<i>P</i>		0.081	<0.001	-
Milk/dairy products				
T ₁	60/102	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	127/104	2.05(1.35-3.11)	2.02(1.19-3.42)	1.97(1.10-3.53)
T ₃	121/102	2.00(1.31-3.05)	2.12(1.25-3.84)	1.80(0.95-3.42)
<i>P</i>		<0.001	<0.001	-
Fiber-containing foods				
T ₁	121/102	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	75/101	0.60(0.39-0.92)	0.47(0.26-0.85)	0.49(0.25-0.95)
T ₃	112/105	0.86(0.58-1.28)	0.63(0.36-1.11)	0.65(0.35-1.21)
<i>P</i>		0.048	<0.001	-
Nuts				
T ₁	121/102	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	75/101	0.60(0.39-0.92)	0.47(0.26-0.85)	0.49(0.25-0.95)
T ₃	112/105	0.86(0.58-1.28)	0.63(0.36-1.11)	0.65(0.35-1.21)

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 4.

Main food group intakes ¹	No. Case/Control	Model I ²	Model II ³	Model III ⁴
		OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
<i>P</i>		0.048	<0.001	-
Fat				
T ₁	86/100	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	101/105	1.12(0.75-1.67)	0.94(0.56-1.59)	0.83(0.45-1.51)
T ₃	121/100	1.34(0.92-1.97)	1.46(0.85-2.50)	1.25(0.68-2.29)
<i>P</i>		0.297	<0.001	-
Sweets and added sugar				
T ₁	82/120	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	120/103	1.47(0.99-2.20)	1.67(0.98-2.86)	1.88(1.01-3.52)
T ₃	106/103	1.30(0.87-1.94)	1.63(0.92-2.89)	1.39(0.72-2.67)
<i>P</i>		0.159	<0.001	-
Alcoholic beverage				
T ₁	90/103	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	107/101	1.20(0.81-1.77)	1.05(0.63-1.75)	1.10(0.63-1.92)
T ₃	111/104	1.19(0.83-1.72)	0.82(0.50-1.36)	0.75(0.42-1.32)
<i>P</i>		0.558	<0.001	-

¹Food groups consumption was categorized into tertiles according to the distribution in controls, and by sexes for food groups with significant differences according to sex; Tertiles of food groups: red and processed meat, T₁<47.7 grams/day, T₂ 47.7-78.5, T₃>78.5; total fish, T₁<42.8, T₂ 42.8-67.2, T₃>67.2; eggs, T₁<15.7, T₂ 15.7-23.5, T₃>23.5; milk/dairy products, T₁<72.0, T₂ 72.0-232.1, T₃>232.1; fat, T₁<30.8, T₂ 30.8-34.8, T₃>34.8; nuts, T₁<2.9, T₂ 2.9-12.8, T₃>12.8; sweets and added sugar, T₁<50.1, T₂ 50.1-117.3, T₃>117.3; Tertiles of food groups for men: fiber-containing foods, T₁<424.3, T₂ 424.3-617.8, T₃>617.8; alcoholic beverages, T₁<66.7, T₂ 66.7-137.2, T₃>137.2; Tertiles of food groups for women: fiber-containing foods, T₁<537.9, T₂ 537.9-723.6, T₃>723.6; T₁< 8.3; T₂ 8.3-85.7; T₃>85.7. ²Model I, analyses were performed using crude conditional logistic regression, without taking into account confounding factors. ³Model II, analyses were performed using conditional logistic regression analysis adjusted for age (50-59 years old, 60-69 years old), sex, Body Mass Index (underweight/normal weight, overweight/obesity), energy intake (kcal/day), physical exercise level (< 15 minutes/day of cycling/sports, ≥15 minutes/day), smoking status and intensity of smoking (never; past: quit smoking ≥ 11 years ago, quit < 11 years ago; smoker: ≤15 cigarettes/day, >15 cigarettes/day), Deprivation Index (quintile 1-3, quintile 4-5) and Predictive Risk Modelling (level 1-2, level 3-4), including food groups separately; participants with missing data for the confounding variables were included as a separate category for these variables. ⁴Model III, model II including all the mean food groups. CI: confidence interval; No.: number; OR: odd ratio; T: tertile.

Table 5. Association between food subgroup intakes and colorectal cancer risk

Food subgroup intakes ¹	No. Case/Control	Model I ²	Model II ³	Model III ⁴
		OR(95% CI)	OR(95% CI)	OR(95%CI)
Red meat				
T ₁	88/101	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	103/98	1.20(0.81-1.79)	1.38(0.82-2.34)	1.10(0.62-1.96)
T ₃	117/109	1.22(0.84-1.78)	1.41(0.87-2.30)	1.17(0.67-2.03)
<i>P</i>		0.534	<0.001	-
Processed meat				
T ₁	102/103	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	82/99	0.84(0.57-1.24)	0.62(0.36-1.07)	0.67(0.38-1.18)
T ₃	124/106	1.21(0.83-1.77)	1.54(0.91-2.60)	1.54(0.88-2.70)
<i>P</i>		0.206	<0.001	-
White fish				
T ₁	95/105	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	77/103	0.82(0.53-1.25)	0.97(0.56-1.68)	0.96(0.36-2.53)
T ₃	136/105	1.49(1.01-2.20)	1.06(0.62-1.79)	1.29(0.74-2.25)
<i>P</i>		0.008	<0.001	-
Fatty fish				
T ₁	119/110	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	105/102	1.05(0.71-1.55)	0.93(0.56-1.55)	0.89(0.43-1.69)
T ₃	74/96	0.72(0.49-1.08)	0.50(0.29-0.87)	0.53(0.27-0.99)
<i>P</i>		0.145	<0.001	-
Fresh cheese				
T ₁	150/153	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	224/33	0.64(0.32-1.28)	1.06(0.44-2.55)	1.11(0.66-1.87)
T ₃	134/122	1.11(0.80-1.55)	1.10(0.70-1.72)	0.92(0.58-1.46)
<i>P</i>		0.272	<0.001	-
Other cheeses				
T ₁	96/116	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	71/75	1.16(0.76-1.77)	1.51(0.86-2.63)	1.83(1.15-2.89)
T ₃	141/117	1.46(1.01-2.12)	1.85(1.12-3.05)	1.87(1.11-3.16)

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 5.

Food subgroup intakes ¹	No. Case/Control	Model I ²	Model II ³	Model III ⁴
		OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
<i>P</i>		0.112	<0.001	-
Fruits				
T ₁	109/99	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	98/110	0.82(0.56-1.19)	1.08(0.63-1.85)	1.03(0.58-1.83)
T ₃	101/99	0.92(0.62-1.37)	0.70(0.40-1.22)	0.68(0.37-1.26)
<i>P</i>		0.567	<0.001	-
Vegetables				
T ₁	97/102	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	111/103	1.14(0.76-1.71)	0.98(0.55-1.73)	1.10(0.60-2.04)
T ₃	100/103	1.03(0.68-1.57)	0.94(0.52-1.70)	1.10(0.58-2.11)
<i>P</i>		0.789	<0.001	-
Whole grains				
T ₁	144/128	1.00	1.00	1.00
T ₂	83/77	0.92(0.62-1.38)	0.86(0.52-1.42)	0.98(0.58-1.65)
T ₃	81/103	0.68(0.46-1.01)	0.62(0.37-1.06)	0.62(0.39-0.98)
<i>P</i>		0.135	<0.001	

¹Food groups consumption was categorized into tertiles according to the distribution in controls, and by sexes for food groups with significant differences according to sex; Tertiles of food groups: red meat, T₁<33.5 grams/day, T₂ 33.5-54.9, T₃>54.9; processed meat, T₁<11.6, T₂ 11.6-22.8, T₃>22.8; non-cheese dairy, T₁<225.0, T₂ 225.0-325.0, T₃>325.0; cheese, T₁<7.5, T₂ 7.5-20.0, T₃>20.0; vegetables, T₁<152.9, T₂ 152.9-237.2, T₃>237.2; Tertiles of food groups for men: fruits, T₁<207.5, T₂ 207.5-392.9, T₃>392.9; whole grains, T₁<1.0, T₂ 1.0-17.5, T₃>17.5; Tertiles of food groups for women: fruits T₁<242.9, T₂ 242.9-425.0, T₃>425.0; whole grains, T₁<2.0, T₂ 2.0-30.0, T₃>30.0. ²Model I, analyses were performed using crude conditional logistic regression, without taking into account confounding factors. ³Model II, analyses were performed using conditional logistic regression analysis adjusted for age (50-59 years old, 60-69 years old), sex, Body Mass Index (underweight/normal weight, overweight/obesity), energy intake (kcal/day), physical exercise level (< 15 minutes/day of cycling/sports, ≥15 minutes/day), smoking status and intensity of smoking (never; past: quit smoking ≥ 11 years ago, quit < 11 years ago; smoker: ≤15 cigarettes/day, >15 cigarettes/day), Deprivation Index (quintile 1-3, quintile 4-5) and Predictive Risk Modelling (level 1-2, level 3-4), including food groups separately; participants with missing data for the confounding variables were included as a separate category for these variables. ⁴Model III, model II including all the mean food groups. CI: confidence interval; No.: number; OR: odd ratio; T: tertile.

Table 6. Diet quality indices in the sample studied

	Cases (n=308)		Controls (n=308)		<i>P</i>
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
HEISD components¹					
Meats	3.1	1.7	3.1	1.7	0.811
Processed meats	2.8	2.0	3.1	2.2	0.162
Legumes	8.6	2.1	8.5	2.3	0.716
Milk/Dairy	9.8	1.2	9.8	1.1	0.797
Fruits	9.1	1.8	9.1	1.9	0.464
Vegetables	8.9	1.7	8.9	1.6	0.816
Grains	9.9	0.9	9.9	1.9	0.862
Sweets	1.6	3.1	1.6	3.0	0.847
Soft-drink	8.8	2.5	8.7	2.6	0.583
Variety	8.0	1.7	8.0	1.7	0.646
Total HEISD	70.7	7.2	70.8	7.9	0.906
MDS components²					
Red meats and processed meats	0.7	1.0	0.8	1.2	0.134
Poultry	2.9	1.2	2.9	1.2	0.335
Fish	3.8	1.1	3.8	1.2	0.771
Legumes	2.4	1.2	2.3	1.1	0.482
Full fat dairy	2.0	1.8	2.0	1.9	0.618
Vegetables	4.9	0.6	4.9	0.5	0.599
Fruits	4.6	1.0	4.6	1.0	0.726
Potatoes	2.2	1.5	2.4	1.5	0.054
Whole grains	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.3	0.044
Alcoholic beverages	4.9	0.4	4.9	0.4	0.729
Olive oil	4.9	0.6	4.8	0.8	0.446
Total MDS	35.3	4.5	36.0	4.3	0.027

¹Each component can contribute 10 points to the total score and the theoretical range is 0–100.

²Each component can contribute five points to the total score and the theoretical range is 0–55. HEISD: Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet; MDS: Mediterranean Diet Score; SD: standard deviation.

Supplementary Table S1. Food group intakes by tumor location

	Proximal cancer cases (n=74)		Paired controls (n=74)		Distal cancer cases (n=234)		Paired controls (n=74)		<i>P</i> ^a	<i>P</i> ^b	<i>P</i> ^c
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Red and processed meat	67.3	38.5	55.6	32.7	72.1	36.0	69.3	41.2	0.206	0.109	0.230
Red meat	48.2	27.9	39.0	26.2	50.2	31.4	48.3	32.2	0.795	0.081	0.435
Processed meat	19.1	16.3	16.6	14.9	21.8	16.6	21.0	17.8	0.128	0.244	0.340
Fish	78.9	38.0	47.1	25.3	76.2	39.6	44.9	28.5	0.558	<0.001	<0.001
Eggs	21.2	13.5	17.6	10.9	20.7	12.5	19.0	11.6	0.948	0.099	0.125
Milk/dairy products	279.9	124.9	277.7	138.9	285.5	165.4	289.6	125.0	0.377	<0.001	<0.001
Non-dairy products	270.2	128.2	260.0	123.7	274.3	123.1	267.1	164.0	0.465	0.755	0.132
Total cheeses	18.9	13.6	15.9	14.9	18.8	18.5	17.5	17.4	0.479	0.053	0.593

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S1

	Proximal cancer cases (n=74)		Paired controls (n=74)		Distal cancer cases (n=234)		Paired controls (n=74)		<i>P</i> ^a	<i>P</i> ^b	<i>P</i> ^c
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Fiber-containing foods	594.3	233.5	634.2	204.0	562.2	247.3	542.9	212.8	0.264	0.144	0.703
Fruits ^d	341.4	181.9	373.5	154.5	326.6	208.9	306.5	169.5	0.399	0.202	0.678
Vegetables	212.2	96.5	214.3	89.4	198.9	86.2	196.3	91.1	0.246	0.672	0.573
Whole grains	16.6	19.4	23.7	26.7	13.7	20.1	17.2	22.0	0.062	0.063	0.068
Fat	35.4	7.0	32.3	4.7	35.6	6.8	35.2	6.7	0.782	0.023	0.386
Nuts	10.7	11.2	12.8	12.0	8.6	9.7	10.3	9.9	0.122	0.287	0.113
Sweets and added sugar	101.8	91.8	83.0	90.1	110.4	96.6	119.4	124.7	0.420	0.134	0.399
Alcoholic beverage	117.3	128.9	81.7	89.2	99.1	89.8	101.6	110.4	0.418	0.057	0.765

^aDifferences by tumor location (comparison of independent samples).

^bDifferences between the proximal cancer cases and their paired controls (comparison of related samples).

^cDifferences between the distal cancer cases and their paired controls (comparison of related samples).

^dIncluding natural fruit juices. SD: standard deviation.

Supplementary Table S2. Dietary quality indexes and their components by tumor location

	Proximal cancer cases (n=74)		Paired controls (n=74)		Distal cancer cases (n=234)		Paired controls (n=74)		<i>P</i> ^a	<i>P</i> ^b	<i>P</i> ^c
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
HEISD components											
Meats	3.0	1.6	3.2	1.8	3.2	1.7	3.1	1.7	0.583	0.491	0.912
Processed meats	3.2	2.0	3.4	2.1	2.7	2.0	3.0	2.2	0.083	0.544	0.209
Legumes	8.6	1.9	8.5	2.5	8.6	2.1	8.5	2.2	0.515	0.851	0.604
Milk/dairy	9.7	1.7	9.7	1.4	9.8	1.1	9.8	1.0	0.791	0.794	0.872
Fruits	9.3	1.7	9.7	1.0	9.0	1.9	8.9	2.1	0.200	0.064	0.952
Vegetables	8.8	1.9	9.1	1.7	9.0	1.6	8.9	1.6	0.488	0.1135	0.543
Grains	10.0	0.3	9.9	0.4	9.9	0.6	9.9	0.6	0.159	0.564	1.000
Sweets	1.9	3.7	2.7	3.8	1.5	2.9	1.3	2.7	0.830	0.145	0.443
Soft-drink	9.0	2.4	9.0	2.3	8.8	2.6	8.7	2.7	0.407	0.929	0.517
Variety	8.2	1.7	8.6	1.5	8.0	1.6	7.8	1.7	0.294	0.037	0.600
Total HEISD	71.6	7.2	73.9	7.8	70.4	7.1	69.9	7.7	0.157	0.019	0.294
MDS components											
Red meats and processed meats	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.4	0.6	1.0	0.8	1.1	0.091	0.485	0.168

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S2

	Proximal cancer cases (n=74)		Paired controls (n=74)		Distal cancer cases (n=234)		Paired controls (n=74)		P^a	P^b	P^c
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Poultry	2.9	1.1	2.9	1.3	2.9	1.1	2.9	1.1	0.583	0.470	0.485
Fish	4.0	1.1	3.8	1.2	3.8	1.1	3.8	1.2	0.233	0.294	0.816
Legumes	2.4	1.1	2.3	1.2	2.4	1.2	2.4	1.1	0.566	0.340	0.810
Full fat dairy	2.1	1.8	2.4	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	0.438	0.267	0.977
Vegetables	4.9	0.6	4.9	0.6	4.9	0.6	4.9	0.4	0.518	0.891	0.528
Fruits	4.7	0.9	4.9	0.5	4.6	1.0	4.6	1.1	0.529	0.107	0.819
Potatoes	2.2	1.3	2.2	1.6	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.4	0.742	0.812	0.040
Whole grains	2.3	2.2	2.6	2.4	1.8	2.2	2.3	2.2	0.051	0.587	0.045
Alcoholic beverages	4.9	0.7	4.9	0.2	5.0	0.2	4.9	0.5	0.307	0.167	0.168
Olive oil	5.0	0.3	5.0	0.2	4.9	0.6	4.8	0.9	0.265	0.785	0.394
Total MDS	36.2	5.0	37.1	4.7	35.0	4.3	35.7	4.1	0.037	0.257	0.055

^aDifferences by tumor location (comparison of independent samples).

^bDifferences between the proximal cancer cases and their paired controls (comparison of related samples).

^cDifferences between the distal cancer cases and their paired controls (comparison of related samples). HEISD: Healthy Eating Index for Spanish Diet; MDS: Mediterranean Diet Score; SD: standard deviation.

DISCUSSION

The results from this observational study indicate that high consumption of milk/dairy products, in particular high-fat cheeses, is associated with CRC risk, while a high intake of fiber-containing foods, specially whole grains, and fatty fish was associated with a lower risk for CRC. Moreover, a higher MD adherence in general and particularly a higher score for whole grains have been associated with a reduced CRC risk.

As other authors have previously reported^[40] milk/dairy products were the food group with the highest adjusted OR for CRC risk, which is not in agreement with the probable evidence of protection of this food group against CRC^[5]. Some cohort studies support the protective effect of total dairy products and milk^[41-43]. This effect has been hypothetically associated with calcium, vitamin D, fats and other components such as lactoferrin or lactic bacteria in the case of fermented dairy products milk^[41,42]. However, case-control studies published to date are heterogeneous and, on average, do not provide evidence of an association between total intake of total dairy products, milk, cheese or yogurt and CRC risk^[41]. Regarding milk/dairy products consumption according to anatomical subsites of cases, the intake was higher in proximal tumor cases and lower in distal cases than in their matched controls. Although according to scientific literature, the effect of this food group seems to be similar across all locations of the bowel^[43].

In general, epidemiological studies have not found evidence of either reduction or increase of CRC risk specifically associated with the consumption of cheese^[41,42]. Although there are few pieces of research on cheese consumption that reported an inverse association with CRC^[44] in the present research, high-fat cheeses are shown to be possible risk factors for CRC development. Some studies showed a positive relationship between fatty foods and CRC incidence^[45]. Dairy products, e.g., mature, semi-mature and creamy cheeses, are rich in saturated fat, so this relationship might be due to the content of fat in these products. Several studies have suggested that high-fat consumption increases bile acid discharge. Moreover, an increase in the concentration of bile acids above physiological levels has been reported to promote CRC^[46,47]. In any case, the association between milk/dairy products consumption and the risk of developing CRC is complex and some researchers indicated that the fat content contained within dairy products does not influence this association^[43].

In line with previous studies^[48-50], we also found that the consumption of fiber-containing foods was inversely associated with CRC risk. Specifically, consumption of more than 424.3 g/d in men and 537.9 g/d in women of fiber-containing foods decreased CRC risk

by about 50% (OR ~0.5) compared to lower consumption, in adjusted models. The preventive effect of dietary fiber can be explained by biological mechanisms that include increasing amounts of feces, decreasing gastrointestinal transit time, diluting intestinal cancer-causing factors, interfering absorption of those, and lowering intestinal acidity^[51]. In addition, fermentation of fiber produced butyrate. This short-chain fatty acid showed anti-inflammatory, anti-proliferation and antineoplastic properties in colonocyte cells metabolism through microbiota homeostasis and genetic/epigenetic regulation^[52].

Furthermore, our findings suggest that high consumption of whole grains (higher than 17.5 g/d in men and 30.0 g/d in women) may decrease the risk of CRC, after controlling confounding factors. There is convincing evidence that whole grains help to reduce CRC risk^[5,53]. The observed reduction in CRC risk associated with high consumption of whole grains may partly be attributed to dietary fiber, resistant starch, and oligosaccharides that can influence the gut environment. Insoluble fiber increases the bulk of luminal contents, diluting potential carcinogens and promoters in the colon and decreasing transit time, and, consequently, reduces the exposure of the colonic epithelium to harmful compounds^[54,55]. Additionally, other components such as vitamins (especially B-vitamins), minerals (e.g. magnesium and zinc), phenolic compounds, antinutrients (e.g. tannins), and phytoestrogens may also contribute to this protection^[54].

On the other hand, the consumption of fatty fish (higher than 42.8 g/d) was associated with a decreased risk in CRC by about 50% (OR ~0.5) compared to lower consumption, after adjusting models for covariates. It should be noted that the Basque Country population has a higher consumption of total fish and fatty fish compared to other Spanish autonomous communities^[55,56]. Recent cohort studies have observed that fatty fish was inversely associated with CRC incidence^[57,58] and they have related this association with exposure to long-chain n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids^[57]. Evidence from animal and in vitro studies indicates that n-3 fatty acids present in fatty fish may inhibit carcinogenesis^[59]. High intake of n-3 fatty acids suppresses the production of arachidonic acid-derived eicosanoids such as prostaglandin E2 and leukotriene B431. N-3 fatty acids could also suppress the expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase (NOS) and nuclear transcription factor κ B (NF- κ B)^[60].

In relation to the diet quality, our findings on the MDS and CRC risk are supported by those of other researchers^[13,61-63], who found significant associations between lower risk of CRC and adherence to Mediterranean dietary pattern. However, the HEISD was not associated with CRC risk, discrepancies in results obtained with the two dietary quality indices analysed are probably due to differences in their constructs and scoring criteria.

The overall MDS was inversely associated with CRC risk, being higher the total score in cases with the proximal location of cancer than for those with the distal location. These last results contrast with previous findings, which showed that the protective effects of adherence to the MD were mainly for distal colon and rectal cancer and not for proximal colon cancer^[64]. In the total sample, investigation of the separate score components showed that whole grain score was lower for cases than for controls. This result is consistent with that obtained for the association between whole grains consumption and CRC risk.

Our study has several limitations. First, recall bias inherent in a case-control study design cannot be ruled out. The primary concern of this study is the low participation rate, which may have limited the representativeness of study samples. The decision to participate or not may be influenced by several factors, including social, educational and health conditions, which may again correlate with outcome risk factors. Second, self-reported data could be subject to measurement errors and the problem of food omissions due to memory failure and underreporting of unhealthy habits among disease subjects. However, previous validation studies indicate that the self-reported dietary information is reported with sufficient accuracy for use in epidemiology analyses^[65]; and it should be noted that dietary changes are usually modest after participating in the CRCSP due to a lack of information and personalized advice^[66,67]. Another limitation of this type of study could be the selection of controls (selection bias). To avoid this type of bias, we obtained controls from the same CRCSP and in the same period as cases, thus, it was confirmed that they did not suffer from CRC by colonoscopy.

Despite these limitations, the results allow us to conclude that high consumption of high-fat cheeses is associated with CRC risk, whereas, a high intake of fiber-containing foods, especially whole grains, and fatty fish, and adherence to the Mediterranean dietary pattern was associated with a lower risk for CRC. Future studies are needed to better understand the influence of the dietary habits on CRC prevention in this population that can provide leads for the design and tailoring of future interventions, and guide counselling strategies for promoting a healthy lifestyle.

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ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Epidemiological evidence suggests that some foods may both protect against and promote the development of colorectal cancer (CRC). However, foods are not consumed in isolation but as part of a dietary pattern; therefore, the actual effect of diet on disease risk may be observed only when all components are considered jointly. For this purpose, several diet quality indexes have been developed using point systems to measure whole diet quality based on the alignment of food choices with dietary recommendations.

Research motivation

Some diet quality indexes have been used to begin assessing the relationships between overall diet quality and CRC risk, and the results show that high scores in these indices are associated with a lower CRC risk. However, the results vary considerably according to the index used and other factors such as sex and age. Therefore, there is a need to further examine these relationships in diverse population studies.

Research objectives

To study the relationships between food groups, diet quality and CRC risk, in an adult population of the Basque Country (North of Spain).

Research methods

This observational study included 308 patients diagnosed with CRC and 308 age- and sex-matched subjects as controls. During recruitment, dietary, anthropometric, lifestyle, socioeconomic, demographic and health status information was collected. Dietary intake was assessed using a short food frequency questionnaire that was adapted and validated for this population. Adherence to the dietary recommendations was evaluated utilizing the Healthy Eating Index for the Spanish Diet and the MedDietScore. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 22.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, USA) and STATA 13.0 (StataCorp LP, Texas, USA). Conditional logistic regressions were used to evaluate the associations of food group intakes, diet quality scores, categorized in tertiles, with CRC risk.

Research results

The adjusted models for potential confounding factors showed a direct association between milk/dairy products consumption, in particular high-fat cheeses (OR third tertile vs first tertile=1.87, 95% CI 1.11-3.16), and CRC risk. While the consumption of fiber-containing foods, especially whole grains (OR third tertile vs first tertile=0.62, 95% CI 0.39-0.98), and fatty fish (OR=0.53, 95% CI 0.27-0.99) was associated with a lower risk for CRC. Moreover, higher MD adherence was associated with a reduced CRC risk in adjusted models (OR=0.40, 95% CI 0.20-0.80).

Research conclusions

Direct associations were found for high-fat cheese, whereas an inverse relation was reported for fiber-containing foods and fatty fish, as well as adherence to a Mediterranean dietary pattern.

Research perspectives

Future studies are needed to better understand the influence of the dietary habits on CRC prevention in this population that can provide leads for the design and tailoring of future interventions, and guide counselling strategies for promoting a healthy lifestyle.

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Footnotes

Institutional review board statement: This study was approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Country (reference numbers PI2011006 and PI2014042).

Informed consent statement: Written informed consent was obtained from all the study participants.

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3.4. STUDY 4: “Single nucleotide polymorphisms associated with susceptibility for development of colorectal cancer: Case-control study in a Basque population”

Single nucleotide polymorphisms associated with susceptibility for development of colorectal cancer: Case-control study in a Basque population

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Abstract

Given the significant population diversity in genetic variation, we aimed to investigate whether single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) previously identified in studies of colorectal cancer (CRC) susceptibility were also relevant to the population of the Basque Country (North of Spain). We genotyped 230 CRC cases and 230 healthy controls for 48 previously reported CRC-susceptibility SNPs. Only the rs6687758 in *DUPS10* exhibited a statistically significant association with CRC risk based on the crude analysis. The rs6687758 AG genotype conferred about 2.13-fold increased risk for CRC compared to the AA genotype. Moreover, we found significant associations in cases between smoking status, physical activity, and the rs6687758 SNP. The results of a Genetic Risk Score (GRS) showed that the risk alleles were more frequent in cases than controls and the score was associated with CRC in crude analysis. In conclusion, we have confirmed a CRC susceptibility locus and the existence of associations between modifiable factors and the rs6687758 SNP; moreover, the GRS was associated with CRC. However, further experimental validations are needed to establish the role of this SNP, the function of the gene identified, as well as the contribution of the interaction between environmental factors and this locus to the risk of CRC.

Introduction

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the fourth most common type of tumour, being 6.1% of the total new cases of cancer diagnosed in 2018 and one of the major causes of cancer-related morbidity and mortality globally (9.2% of cancer deaths) [1]. There is wide geographical variation in incidence with rates varying 8-fold (colon cancer) and 6-fold (rectal cancer) in both sexes worldwide [1]. In this sense, Spain is one of the countries with the highest incidence of CRC, and taking into account both sexes, it was the most frequent cancer diagnosed in 2018 with 13.7% of new cancer cases [2] and is the main cause of cancer related deaths [3]. Considering the magnitude of the problem, the use of screening tests for early detection and effective treatment of CRC during the initial stages would have a significant impact on public health. In this sense, US Preventive Services Task Force and the American Cancer Society recommend the screening for CRC by annual faecal occult blood testing (FOBT), flexible sigmoidoscopy or (every 5 years) or colonoscopy (every 10 years), in subjects aged 50 years or older [4].

The mechanisms underlying CRC occurrence and progression are complicated and mainly involve genetic and environmental factors, such as sex [5,6], diet and physical activity [5,7]. Various oncogenes and tumour suppressors, such as *KRAS*, *APC*, *BRAF*, *TP53*, and *SMAD4*, have been identified by CRC-related studies and may be useful for diagnosing and treating CRC in the future [5,8,9]. There is a direct association between sporadic tumour occurrence and susceptibility variants carried by an individual [10]. Many candidate gene [11] and genome-wide association studies (GWAS) [12] have evaluated common genetic risk factors for CRC; however, only a few of these have been replicated in subsequent studies [10]. Thus, in this study, we aimed to test the hypothesis that some of the previously reported CRC-related SNPs are associated with CRC susceptibility in the Basque population, in which there are no previous studies of this kind. Therefore, we investigated possible associations between 48 susceptibility SNPs and development of sporadic CRC in the adult population of the Basque Country.

Methods

Design

This is an observational, matched case-control study in a population group residing in the Basque Country (Spain).

Study Population

Participants in this study were recruited among patients attending, between January 2012 and December 2014, any of the three hospitals of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service (Basurto, Galdakao and Donostia) belong of the Basque Country Colorectal Cancer Screening Programme (CRCSP) [13]. To be eligible for this CRCSP, average risk people from 50 to 69 years, asymptomatic for colorectal symptoms and registered with the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service [13]. Subjects with symptoms suggesting CRC or with high CRC risk, such as individuals with familial adenomatous polyposis or hereditary nonpolyposis are managed outside this programme and are not included in this analysis. Subjects were invited to participate in this study by the gastroenterologists who performed the colonoscopies as a confirmatory test.

The recruitment and data collection for the present study were conducted between 2014 and 2016. All the patients who were newly diagnosed with CRC (n=601) were invited to participate in this study, that is, the individuals with a positive result, (abnormal) to an immunochemical faecal occult blood test (iFOBT), being the faecal-Haemoglobin cut-off point of 20 µg Hb/g faeces for both sexes [13] and a colonoscopy [13]. Of those, 283 refused to participate in the study, and 10 were excluded due to missing information. Ultimately, 308 subjects (66.2% men) consented to participate in the survey and completed all the questionnaires.

In addition, for each case, three age- (± 9.0 years) and sex-matched control patients were randomly sought from the list of CRC-free subjects (n=1,836) who participated in the CRCSP during the same period as the cases. The matched controls were patients with positive results (abnormal) for iFOBT and negative colonoscopy results (normal). The participation rate of the controls was 37.6%, and 17 subjects were excluded due to missing information. Finally, the matched case-to-control ratio was 1:1, and the final dataset included 308 cases who were diagnosed with CRC and 308 age- and sex-matched controls. The flowchart displaying the selection process for the CRC cases and controls is shown in Fig 1. Thirty-three cases, 39 controls and 6 cases-controls initially included in this study were excluded from the genetic analysis because incomplete genotyping by insufficient DNA available for the assay, and the respective partners of cases and controls were also excluded of the study. Finally, genotyping data were obtained from 230 cases and 230 controls.

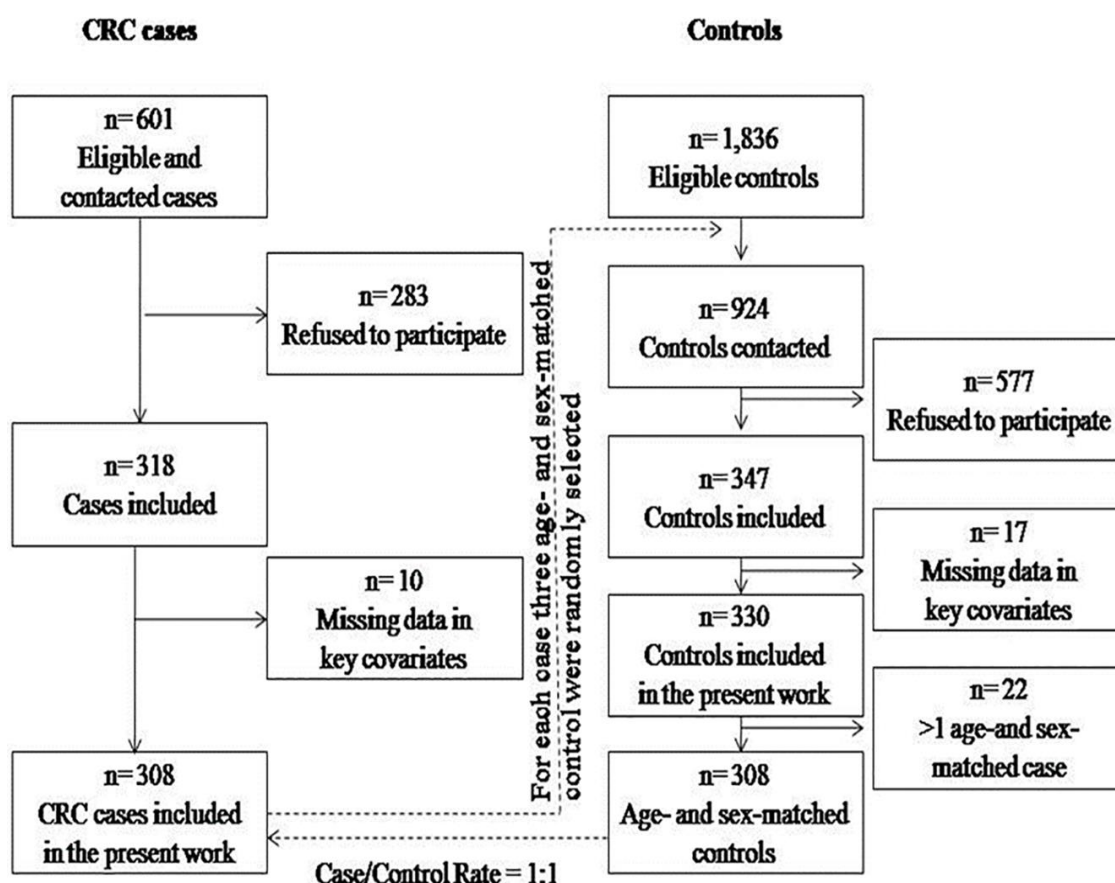


Fig 1. Flow chart of the process of obtaining the sample. CCR, Colorectal cancer.

The time spent between the participation in the CRCSP and in the present study was 1.8(1.0) years (range: 0.4-4.6) in cases and 1.6(1.5) years (range: 0.2-3.7) in controls, without significant differences ($P=0.119$). Consenting participants self-completed and returned a detailed Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ) and one general questionnaire (GQ). The questions referred to the behaviours before participating in the CRCSP. Assistance from the study staff was available to help the patients to understand the items on the questionnaires.

This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki, and all procedures involving patients were approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Basque Country (reference numbers PI2011006 and PI2014042). Written informed consent was obtained from all the study participants.

Biological Samples and Genotyping

In this study, healthy tissues or saliva samples of 230 CRC patients and 230 controls were collected and genotyped. Samples were provided by the Basque Biobank for Research-OEHUN www.biobancovasco.org and were processed following standard

operating procedures with appropriate ethical approval. DNA was extracted using AllPrep DNA / RNA kit (Qiagen) for paraffin-embedded tissue samples and AutoGenFlex Tissue DNA Extraction kit (Autogen) for mouthwash saliva samples and then was quantified with NanoDrop™ Spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher).

Double-stranded DNA was quantified by fluorometry using theQuant-iT™ PicoGreen® dsDNA Assay Kit (Invitrogen, CA) on a DTX 880 Multimode Detector (Beckman Coulter) to normalize DNA concentration. After an updated summary of the published SNPs associated with susceptibility for development of CRC [14,15], those shown in Table 1 were selected. These SNPs were organized in the context of the gene(s) at or near locus and chromosome locus. The allelic discrimination was assessed using the MassARRAY® System (Agena Bioscience) on CeGen-PRB2-ISCI (Nodo USC) following the procedure provided by the manufacturer. Quality control samples were included in the genotyping assays.

Table 1. 48 SNPs associated with susceptibility for the development of CRC and analyzed in this study.

SNP	Gene(s) at or near locus, variant type	Chr. locus	OR ^a	Risk allele ^b	SNP	Gene(s) at or near locus, variant type	Chr. locus	OR ^a	Risk allele ^b
rs12080929	<i>TRABD2B</i> , intron variant	1p33	0.87	C [61]	rs1535	<i>FADS2</i> , intron variant, <i>FADS1</i> , upstream gene variant	11q12.2	1.15	A [69]
rs6687758	<i>DUSP10</i> , regulatory region variant	1q41	1.04	G [62]	rs3802842	<i>COLCA1</i> , upstream gene variant, <i>COLCA2</i> , intron variant	11q23.1	1.14	C [69]
rs6691170	<i>LOC105372950</i> , <i>DUSP10</i> , intergenic variant	1q41	1.01	T [62]	rs10849432	<i>LOC105369625</i> , intron variant, non coding transcript variant	12p13.3 1	1.14	T [70]
rs10911251	<i>LAMC1</i> , intron variant	1q25.3	1.11	A [62]	rs3217810 ^e	<i>CCND2</i> , intron variant, <i>CCND2-AS1</i> , upstream gene variant	12p13.3 2	1.19	T [62]
rs11903757	<i>NABP1/SDPR</i> , Intergenic variant	2q.32.3	1.14	C [62]	rs3217901	<i>CCND2</i> , intron variant	12p13.3 2	1.10	G[71]
rs10936599	<i>MYNN</i> , upstream gene variant	3q26.2	1.02	C [62]	rs10774214	<i>CCND2</i> , intron variant, non coding transcript variant	12p13.3 2	1.17	T [72]
rs647161	<i>C5orf66</i> , Intron variant, non coding transcript variant	5q31.1	1.07	A [62]	rs7136702	<i>LARP4/DIP2B</i> , <i>ATF1</i> , intergenic variant	12q13.1 2	1.10	T [62]
rs2736100	<i>TERT</i> , 3 prime UTR variant	5p15.33	1.07	A [63]	rs11169552	<i>LARP4/DIP2B</i> , <i>ATF1</i> , upstream gene variant	12q13.1 2	1.05	C [62]
rs1321311	<i>SRSF3/CDKN1A</i> , regulatory region variant	6p21.2	1.07	A [62]	rs59336	<i>TBX3</i> , intron variant	12q24.2 1	1.15	T [62]
rs11987193	<i>DUSP4</i> , intergenic variant	8p12	0.79	T [61]	rs4444235	<i>BMP4/ATP5C1P1/CDKN3/MIR5580</i> , downstream gene variant	14q22.2	1.11	C [73]

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 1.

SNP	Gene(s) at or near locus, variant type	Chr. locus	OR ^a	Risk allele ^b	SNP	Gene(s) at or near locus, variant type	Chr. locus	OR ^a	Risk allele ^b
rs16892766	<i>TRPS1/EIF3H/UTP23</i> , downstream gene variant	8q23.3	1.25	C [63]	rs1957636	<i>LOC105370507</i> , regulatory region variant	14q22.2	1.03	T [74]
rs6983267	<i>CCAT2</i> , intron variant, non coding transcript variant, <i>CCAT2</i> , non coding transcript exon variant	8q24.21	1.15	G [63]	rs4779584	<i>SCG5, GREM1, FMN1</i> , intergenic variant	15q13.3	1.18	T [70]
rs10505477	<i>CASC8</i> , intron variant, non coding transcript variant	8q24.21	1.11	A [64]	rs16969681	<i>GREM 1</i> , downstream gene variant	15q13.3	1.18	T [75]
rs7014346	<i>CASC8</i> , intron variant, non coding transcript variant, <i>POU5F1B</i> , intron variant	8q24.21	1.20	A [65]	rs11632715	<i>SCG5, GREM1, FMN1</i> , intergenic variant	15q13.3	1.12	A [76]
rs719725	<i>TPD52L3/UHRF2/GLDC</i> , intergenic variant	9p24.1	1.08	A [61]	rs9929218	<i>CDH1</i> , intron variant	16q22.1	1.10	A [75]
rs10795668	<i>LOC105376400</i> , upstream gene variant	10p14	1.32	A [66]	rs12603526	<i>NXN</i> , intron variant	17p13.3	1.10	C [69]
rs704017	<i>ZMIZ1-AS1</i> , intron variant, non coding transcript variant	10q22.3	1.13	G [67]	rs4939827	<i>SMAD7</i> , intron variant	18q21.1	1.16	T [77]
rs1035209	<i>ABCC2/MRP2</i> , intergenic variant	10q24.2	1.13	T [68]	rs10411210	<i>RHPN2</i> , intron variant	19q13.1 1	1.15	C [73]
rs12241008	<i>VTI1A</i> , intron variant	10q25.2	1.19	C [38]	rs1800469	<i>TGFB1</i> , upstream gene variant <i>B9D2</i> , downstream gene variant, <i>TMEM91</i> , intron variant	19q13.2	1.09	G[69]

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 1.

SNP	Gene(s) at or near locus, variant type	Chr. locus	OR ^a	Risk allele ^b	SNP	Gene(s) at or near locus, variant type	Chr. locus	OR ^a	Risk allele ^b
rs11196172	<i>TCF7L2</i> , intron variant	10q25.2	1.14	A [69]	rs2241714	<i>TGFB1</i> , <i>TMEM91</i> , upstream gene variant, <i>B9D2</i> , missense variant	19q13.2	1.09	C [70]
rs1665650	<i>HSPA12A</i> , intron variant	10.q25.3	0.95	T [64]	rs961253	<i>BMP2/HAO1/FERMT1</i> , upstream gene variant	20p12.3	1.12	A [73]
rs174537	<i>TNEM258</i> , downstream gene variant, <i>MYRF</i> , intron variant	11q12.2	1.16	G [64]	rs4813802	<i>BMP2/HAO1/FERMT1</i> , regulatory region variant	20p12.3	1.10	C [70]
rs4246215	<i>TNEM258</i> , upstream gene variant <i>FEN1</i> , 3 prime UTR variant, <i>FADS1</i> , downstream gene variant, <i>MIR611</i> , upstream gene variant, <i>FADS2</i> , intron variant	11q12.2	1.15	G [69]	rs2423279	<i>HAO1/PLCB1</i> , downstream gene variant	20p12.3	1.10	C [72]
rs174550	<i>FADS1</i> , intron variant	11q12.2	1.15	T [69]	rs5934683	<i>SHROOM</i> , upstream gene variant, <i>GPR143</i> , intron variant	Xp22.2	1.04	C [31]

Chr, Chromosome; OR, odds ratio; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism

^aOdds ratios of previous studies are reported to calculate weighted Genetic Score^bSuperscript numbers correspond with the studies in References

Associated data

The questionnaire mentioned above, the GQ was used to gather information on weight status (self-reported weight and height) and environmental factors (demographic factors: age and sex; and lifestyle information: physical activity (PA) and smoking consumption). These questions were taken from the Spanish Health Questionnaire [16]. Body mass index (BMI), estimated from self-reported height and weight was classified according to the WHO criteria for those under 65 years of age [17] and according to the criteria proposed by Silva Rodríguez *et al.* for those 65 years and older [18].

Diet was assessed using a short FFQ that is a modified version of the Rodríguez *et al.* questionnaire [19]. This adaptation was validated with multiple 24- recalls in a subsample of the participants [20]. It consists of 67 items and requires the subjects to recall the number of times each food item was consumed either per week or per month. The respondents might also record the consumption of other foods that were not included on the food list.

Average portion sizes were employed to convert FFQ consumptions [21]. For items that included several foods, each food's contribution was estimated with weighting coefficients that were obtained from the usual consumption data [22]. All the food items that were consumed were entered into DIAL 2.12 (2011ALCE INGENIERIA), a type of dietary assessment software, to estimate energy intake (kcal/d). Moreover, the FFQ included specific questions about their frequency of intake of five major types of alcohol beverages: beer, wine, cider, aperitif with alcohol and liquor. In terms of the amount consumed, 10 g of alcohol was considered a standard drink [23]. Participants were categorized into non-drinker/moderate consumption and risk consumption, according to the SENC criteria that consider moderate drinking is up to 1 standard drink per day for women and up to 2 standard drinks per day for men [23]. Alcohol consumption was also expressed in tertiles of ml per day according to sex (men: T1, ≤ 70.6 ; T2, 70.7-138.8; T3, ≥ 138.9 ; and women: T1 ≤ 5.8 ; T2, 5.9-69.8; T3, ≥ 69.9).

Additionally, socioeconomic data was assessed with an index that was obtained from the clinical databases developed by the Health Department of the Basque Government, namely the socioeconomic deprivation index (DI). This index was estimated using the MEDEA project criteria [24] from simple indicators in the 2001 Census, namely unemployment, manual workers, casual workers, low education level and low education level among young people. The DI was divided into quintiles (Q), with the first being the least disadvantaged and the fifth being the most disadvantaged. The DI was successfully

assigned to 82.4% of participants, while the address information quality did not permit the linking of the remaining 17.6%.

Quality management

In the present research, we apply a similar quality management that those used in the IDEFICS study [25]. A unique subject identification number was attached to each recording sheet, questionnaire, and sample, as in other researches. The identification number had to be entered twice before the document could be entered into its respective database. All data were entered twice independently, and deviating entries were corrected. Inconsistencies that were identified by additional plausibility checks were rectified.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 22.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, USA), STATA 13.0 (StataCorp LP, Texas, USA). Categorical variables are shown as a percentage, and continuous variables are shown as the means and standard deviations (s.d.). Normality was checked using Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Lilliefors test. Paired *t*-test or Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to two related means comparison, and a χ^2 test was used to evaluate differences. Tests for association and deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium were performed separately in CRC patients and healthy controls. When expected frequencies were lesser than 5, Fisher's exact test was used.

In the case-control study, we estimated the odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (95% CI) for the polymorphism selected using conditional logistic regression adjusted for age (50-59 years old vs. 60-69 years old), sex (women vs. men), BMI (underweight/normal weight vs. overweight/obesity), physical activity (≥ 15 min/d vs. < 15 min/d), smoking status (never smoker vs. current and former smoker and quit smoking: ≥ 11 years ago vs. < 11 years ago), alcohol consumption (T1, T2 and T3) and Deprivation Index (DI) (quintile 1-3 vs. quintile 4-5) as categorical variables and energy intake as quantitative (kcal/d). ORs were calculated for the codominant model, dominant model, recessive model, and allelic comparison. The most frequent genotype (homozygous) was considered the reference group to calculate ORs in a codominant and dominant model, and the most frequent genotype (homozygous) and the heterozygous genotype containing the risk allele were considered the reference group in the recessive model. The significance level was corrected using a Bonferroni correction by dividing the standard *P* value (two-tailed) (0.05) by the total number of SNPs analyzed ($n=48$), assuming alpha was equal to 0.001 ($\alpha=0.05/48$).

Additionally, correspondence analysis (CA) was performed using PAST 3.21 to identify potential associations between SNPs associated with CRC and associated data. CA is a multivariate statistical technique which provides Cartesian diagrams based on the association of the variables examined. All variables were represented in graphs and the more closed are the points the more higher is the level of association between variables [26].

To assess genetic susceptibility, two methods were used as a simple, unweighted count method (count Genetic Risk Scores, c-GRS) and a weighted method (w-GRS) [27,28]. Both methods assumed each SNP to be independently associated with risk [29]. An additive genetic model was assumed: weightings of 0, 1, and 2 were given according to the number of risk alleles present [29,30].

The count method assumed that each SNP contributed equally to CRC risk and was calculated by summing the number of risk alleles across the panel of SNPs tested. This produced a score between 0 and twice the number of SNPs, i.e., representing the total number of risk alleles. The weighted GRS was calculated by multiplying each β -coefficient for the CRC phenotype from the discovery set by the number of corresponding risk alleles (0, 1, or 2 copies of the risk allele except for the SNP rs5934683 in chromosome X that was coded 0, 0.5, and 1) and then summing the products [31].

Finally, we defined the GRS as the count of risk alleles across all 48 SNPs, ranging from 0 to 95 for c-GRS and 0 to 105 for w-GRS. Since the published effects of each SNP were similar, an unweighted GRS was preferred. However, we also explored the models using weights derived from the GWAS publications and models fitted to our data [32].

Gene expression association analyses

Gene expression changes in tumour and normal colon tissue associated to SNPs with significant association with CRC risk were analyzed using publicly available data and bioinformatic tools. In the first place Genomic Data Commons Data Portal (GDC) (<https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov>) was used to examine data generated by the TCGA (The Cancer Genome Atlas) research network (<https://www.cancer.gov/tcga>), but for SNPs with unavailable data in GDC portal alternative bioinformatic tools were applied. On the one hand, gene expression data from between case and control samples of colon and rectum adenocarcinomas were compared using GEPIA (Gene Expression Profiling Interactive Analysis) (<http://gepia.cancer-pku.cn/index.html>) [33]. On the other hand, GTEx (The Genotype-Tissue expression project) (<https://gtexportal.org/home/>) was used

to check the relationship between SNPs and the expression level of genes related to these SNPs in colon tissue of healthy donors.

Results

Table 2 shows the comparisons of associated data between cases and controls. Cases had a higher consumption of cigarettes/day and were more engaged in regular physical activity at a medium-high level as compared with controls. In addition, in the total sample, there were more smokers in men than in women (70.6% vs. 54.5%; $P < 0.001$); and had a higher consumption of cigarettes/day (11.6(11.1) vs. 9.0(11.4); $P = 0.030$). Among controls 51.9% of women and 65.4% of men were smokers ($P = 0.049$); and among cases, 57.1% of women and 75.8% of men were smokers ($P = 0.004$).

The distribution of genotypes and alleles at SNPs selected in the CRC group and in the control group that deviated from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium are shown in Supplementary Material(S1 Table).The SNPs that were not following the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in cases were rs12080929 and rs5934683. None of the genotype or allele frequencies for the SNPs analysed reached statistically significant differences between cases and controls, after Bonferroni correction application.

Table 3 presents some results of the association of susceptibility genotypes and alleles with the risk of CRC in the codominant model. Other SNPs analyzed in this study are shown in Supplementary Material (S2 Table). Adjusting for potential confounders did not appreciably alter the observed ORs. Only the rs6687758 exhibited a statistically significant association with CRC risk based on the crude analysis. The AG genotype of rs6687758 conferred about 2.13-fold increased risk for CRC compared to the AA genotype.

Table 2. Comparison of associated data between cases and controls with genotyping data.

	Cases (n=230)	Controls (n=230)	<i>P</i>^a- value
Age, years, mean(s.d.)	61.5(5.4)	60.9(5.5)	0.333
BMI classification, %			
NonOv/Ob	42.2	33.0	
Ov/Ob	57.8	67.0	0.043
Physical activity level, %			
Low	65.7	77.4	
Medium and high	34.3	22.6	0.005

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table 2.

	Cases (n=230)	Controls (n=230)	P^a- value
Smoking status, % ^b			
Non-smoker	30.4	39.1	
Smoker	69.6	60.9	0.050
Cigarettes, cigarettes/day, mean(s.d.)	10.7(11.2)	8.3(10.9)	0.007
Number of cigarettes, % ^b			
< 15	49.3	66.9	
≥ 15	50.7	33.1	0.003
Alcoholic beverage intake, ml/day, mean(s.d.)	98.0(91.5)	97.2(107.5)	0.637
Tertiles of alcohol intake, ml/day ^c , %			
T1	32.6	33.9	
T2	31.3	35.7	
T3	36.1	30.4	0.404
Standard drink units, classification, %			
Abstemious /low risk	72.1	79.1	
High risk	27.9	20.9	0.078
DI, % ^b			
Q1-Q3	73.5	69.6	
Q4-Q5	26.5	30.4	0.409

BMI, body mass index; DI, deprivation index; Ob, obesity; Ov, overweight, Q, quintile; s.d. standard deviation

^aP<0.05 was significant

^bValid percentages

^cMen: T1, ≤ 70.6; T2, 70.7-138.8; T3, ≥ 138.9; and women: T1 ≤ 5.8; T2, 5.9-69.8; T3, ≥ 69.9

Table 3. Association between genetic variants associated with susceptibility and the risk of CRC in the codominant model.

Gene, SNP ID^a	N (cases/controls)	Model I^b		Model II^c	
		OR (95% CI)	P^d- value	OR (95% CI)	P^d- value
rs6687758					
AA	136/169	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	87/51	2.13(1.39-3.25)	<0.001	1.95(1.05-3.60)	0.034
GG	7/9	1.02(0.37-2.82)	0.967	1.06(0.21-5.28)	0.945
A	359/389	1.00	-	1.00	-
G	101/69	1.60(1.13-2.28)	0.009	1.54(0.97-2.46)	0.067
rs6691170					
GG	72/87	1.00	-	1.00	-

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Table 3.

Gene, SNP ID ^a	N (cases/controls)	Model I ^b		Model II ^c	
		OR (95% CI)	P ^d - value	OR (95% CI)	P ^d - value
GT	112/108	1.22(0.82-1.82)	0.331	1.20(0.64-2.26)	0.570
TT	45/31	1.79(1.01-3.16)	0.045	1.70(0.74-3.89)	0.207
G	256/282	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	202/170	1.23(0.94-1.62)	0.124	1.27(0.89-1.79)	0.185
rs719725					
AA	63/91	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	116/106	1.46(0.97-2.18)	0.068	1.99(1.07-3.71)	0.030
CC	51/31	2.14(1.27-3.64)	0.005	1.80(0.78-4.17)	0.168
A	242/288	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	218/168	1.60(1.22-2.11)	<0.001	1.49(1.05-2.10)	0.025
rs12241008					
TT	196/204	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	33/24	1.47(0.82-2.64)	0.192	1.49(0.75-2.95)	0.253
CC	½	0.50(0.05-5.51)	0.571	0.78(0.05-12.84)	0.862
T	425/435	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	35/28	1.22(0.72-2.09)	0.455	1.34(0.66-2.72)	0.412
rs7136702					
CC	80/91	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	108/114	1.11(0.75-1.65)	0.593	1.03(0.56-1.89)	0.826
TT	42/25	1.98(1.09-3.64)	0.026	2.83(1.12-7.17)	0.028
C	268/296	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	192/164	1.34(1.03-1.74)	0.030	1.28(0.91-1.80)	0.154
rs2241714					
CC	116/101	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	94/105	0.79(0.55-1.15)	0.217	0.54(0.31-0.95)	0.034
TT	20/23	0.72(0.37-1.38)	0.321	0.28(0.09-0.89)	0.031
C	326/307	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	134/151	0.80(0.61-1.06)	0.125	0.74(0.51-1.07)	0.114
rs961253					
CC	101/124	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	103/76	1.65(1.11-2.46)	0.013	1.79(0.67-4.78)	0.247
AA	26/30	1.03(0.57-1.85)	0.925	1.04(0.41-2.63)	0.941
C	305/324	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	155/136	1.20(0.90-1.59)	0.208	1.11(0.76-1.62)	0.584

A, adenine; C, cytosine; CI, confidence interval; G, guanine; OR, odds ratio; rs, reference single nucleotide polymorphism; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; T, thymine

^aThe most frequent genotype (homozygous) was considered the reference group

^bModel I, crude conditional logistic regression model

^cModel II, conditional logistic regression adjusted for age, sex, BMI, physical activity, smoking status, alcohol consumption, Deprivation Index and energy intake. Participants

with missing data for the confounding variables were included as a separate category for these variables

^d $P < 0.001$ was significant

Moreover, there was an association between smoking status, physical activity and the rs6687758 SNP for CRC risk in cases (Fig 2). We did not find an association between the risk genotype for rs6687758 and other associated variables (BMI, sex, alcohol consumption, DI and age). The results of CA for all cases are shown in a Cartesian diagram. The first three axes accounted for more than 50.0% of the total variance in all cases (axis 1: 23.0%; axis 2: 19.6% and axis 3: 13.4%). An inverse association can be observed between the variable DI (which plotted at the negative end of axis 1) and age, positioned in the positive segment of axis 1. Overall, axis 1 represents a gradient that runs from low values for DI (0: Q1-Q3; 1: Q4-Q5) to high values for age (0: 50-59 y; 1: 60-69 y). From the genetic viewpoint, the SNP that showed the closest association with associated variables was rs6687758, which also plotted in the quadrant delimited by the positive segments of axis 1 and 2.

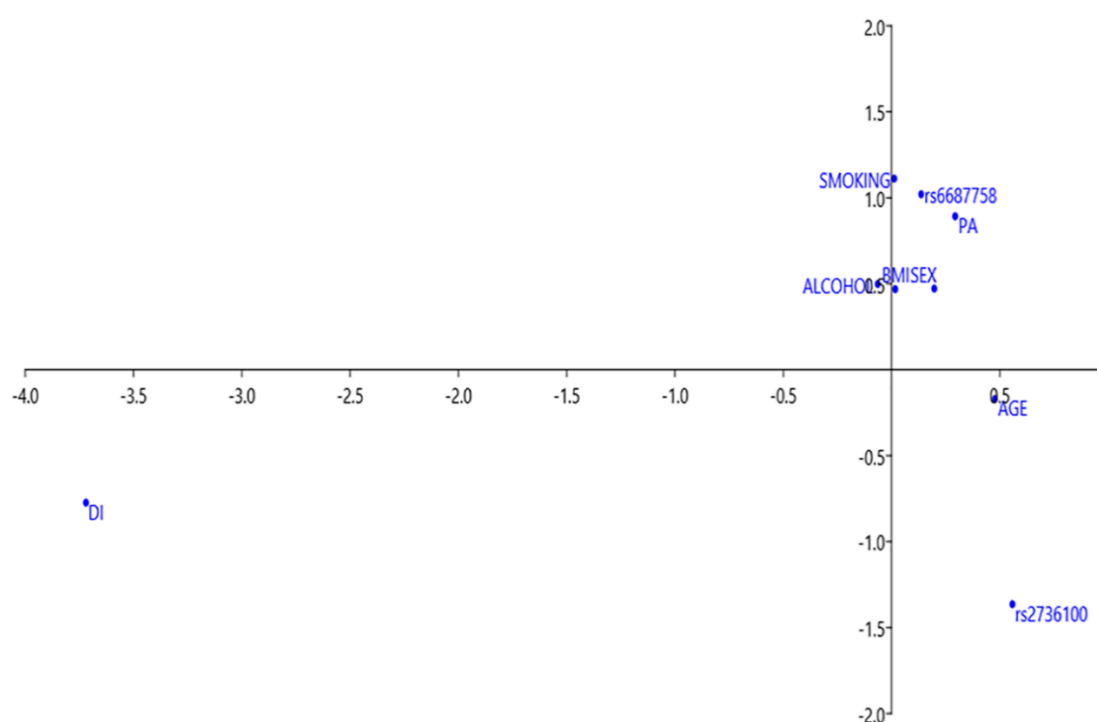


Fig 2. Cartesian diagram of correspondence analysis for studied associations between genetic and environmental factors in cases. BMI, body mass index; DI, deprivation index; PA, physical activity.

Analyses performed to study possible changes in gene expression associated with rs6687758 in tumour versus normal colon tissue showed that gene *DUSP10* is more expressed in colon sigmoid tissue when rs6687758 has GG genotype (in healthy

individuals) (S1 Fig), but also, that it has higher expression in cases of colon and rectum adenocarcinomas than in healthy persons (S2 Fig).

For SNP rs719725, an increased CRC risk was found to be associated with the CC genotype in dominant and recessive models for crude analysis, compared with the AA and AC genotype (OR_{CC}: 1.77; 95% CI=1.09-2.86; $P=0.020$ in recessive model and OR_{AC+CC}: 1.64; 95% CI = 1.12-2.38; $P=0.010$ in dominant model). Moreover, significantly elevated CRC risk was found to be associated with rs2736100, rs11987193 and rs961253 by using dominant model (for rs2736100 OR_{AA+AC}: 1.72; 95% CI = 1.00-2.94; $P=0.048$ in adjusted model; for rs11987193 OR_{CC+CT}: 1.45; 95% CI = 1.01-2.49; $P=0.046$ in crude analysis; and for rs961253 OR_{AA+AC}: 1.47; 95% CI = 1.02-2.11; $P=0.038$ in crude analysis).

Finally, the unweighted GRS of the sample studied was 38.6(4.6) (range: 25-52), with statistically significant differences between cases and controls (39.2(4.4) (range: 28-50.5) vs. 37.95(4.6) (range: 25-52); $P=0.002$). The GRS built as the unweighted count of risk alleles was significantly associated with CRC risk, with an average per-allele OR of 1.07 (95% CI=1.02-1.11; $P=0.002$) in crude analysis. However, this association was not statistically significant in the adjusted model (OR: 1.04; 95% CI=1.00-1.10; $P=0.066$). On the other hand, w-GRS was 44.7(5.5) for the total sample, with statistically significant differences between cases and controls (45.3(5.4) (range: 32.2-58.6) vs. 44.1(5.6) (range: 27.7-57.6); $P=0.036$). The w-GRS was associated with CRC risk (OR: 1.04; 95% CI=1.00-1.09; $P=0.037$) in crude analysis but not in the adjusted one (OR: 1.01; 95% CI=0.97-1.05; $P=0.588$).

Supporting information

S1 Table. Deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and differences in allele frequencies and genotype distribution between cases and controls.

SNP ID	Genotype Alleles	Cases n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Controls n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Diff. ^c P^b -value
rs12080929	TT	123(53.5)		132(57.4)		
	CT	89(38.7)		83(36.1)		
	CC	18(7.8)	<0.001	15(6.5)	0.690	0.670
	T	335(72.8)		347(75.4)		
	C	125(27.2)	-	113(24.6)	-	0.653
rs6687758	AA	136(59.1)		169(73.8)		
	AG	887(37.8)		51(23.3)		
	GG	7(3.0)	0.116	9(3.9)	0.050	0.001
	A	359(78.0)		389(84.6)		
	G	101(22.0)	-	69(15.4)	-	0.016

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S1.

SNP ID	Genotype Alleles	Cases n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Controls n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Diff. ^c P^b -value
rs6691170	GG	72(31.4)		87(38.5)		
	GT	112(48.9)		108(47.8)		
	TT	45(19.7)	0.903	31(13.7)	0.784	0.132
	G	256(55.7)		282(61.3)		
rs10911251	T	202(44.3)	-	170(38.7)	-	0.150
	AA	87(37.8)		74(32.3)		
	AC	110(47.8)		107(46.7)		
	CC	33(14.3)	0.852	48(21.0)	0.420	0.145
rs11903757	A	284(61.7)		255(55.4)		
	C	176(38.3)	-	203(44.6)	-	0.066
	TT	150(65.2)		168(73.4)		
	CT	74(32.2)		57(24.9)		
rs10936599	CC	6(2.6)	0.376	4(1.7)	0.934	0.170
	T	374(81.3)		393(85.4)		
	C	86(18.7)	-	65(14.6)	-	0.044
	CC	150(65.2)		135(58.7)		
rs647161	CT	74(32.2)		81(35.2)		
	TT	6(2.6)	0.376	14(6.1)	0.692	0.116
	C	374(81.3)		351(76.3)		
	T	86(18.7)	-	109(23.7)	-	0.053
rs2736100	AA	101(44.9)		104(45.6)		
	AC	95(42.2)		105(46.1)		
	CC	29(12.9)	0.374	19(8.3)	0.292	0.273
	A	297(64.6)		313(68.0)		
rs1321311	C	153(35.4)	-	143(32.0)	-	0.359
	CC	61(26.6)		69(30.0)		
	AC	121(52.8)		119(51.7)		
	AA	47(20.5)	0.358	42(18.3)	0.455	0.674
rs11987193	C	243(52.8)		257(55.9)		
	A	215(47.2)	-	203 (44.1)	-	0.235
	CC	116(50.9)		129 (56.3)		
	AC	102(44.7)		88 (38.4)		
rs16892766	AA	10(4.4)	0.033	12 (5.2)	0.544	0.384
	C	334(72.6)		346 (75.2)		
	A	122(27.4)	-	112 (24.8)	-	0.086
	CC	105(45.7)		127 (55.2)		
rs6983267	CT	110(47.8)		90 (39.1)		
	TT	15(6.5)	0.050	13 (5.7)	0.570	0.121
	C	320(69.6)		344 (74.8)		
	T	140(30.4)	-	116 (25.2)	-	0.067
rs16892766	AA	202(87.8)		209(90.9)		
	AC	27(11.7)		21(9.1)		
	CC	1(0.4)	1.000	0(0.0)	0.907	0.393
	A	431(93.7)		439(95.4)		
rs6983267	C	29(6.3)	-	21(4.6)	-	0.130
	GG	75(32.6)		64(27.8)		
	GT	115(50.0)		117(50.9)		
	TT	40(17.4)	0.719	49(21.3)	0.742	0.407
rs6983267	G	265(57.6)		245(53.3)		
	T	195(42.4)	-	215(46.7)	-	0.144

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S1.

SNP ID	Genotype Alleles	Cases n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Controls n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Diff. ^c P^b -value
rs10505477	AA	71(32.3)		64(30.9)		
	AG	110(50.0)		110(47.8)		
	GG	39(17.7)	0.667	53(23.0)	0.667	0.304
	A	252(54.8)		238(51.7)		
	G	188(45.2)	-	216(48.3)	-	0.110
rs7014346	GG	95(4.3)		108(47.2)		
	AG	107(46.5)		90(39.3)		
	AA	28(12.2)	0.800	31(13.5)	0.085	0.294
	G	297(64.6)		306(66.5)		
	A	163(35.4)	-	152(33.5)	-	0.357
rs719725	AA	63(27.4)		91(39.9)		
	AC	116(50.4)		106(46.5)		
	CC	51(22.2)	0.862	31(13.6)	0.988	0.005
	A	242(52.6)		288(62.6)		
	C	218(47.4)	-	168(37.4)	-	0.002
rs10795668	GG	110(47.8)		104(45.4)		
	AG	100(43.5)		104(45.4)		
	AA	20(8.7)	0.685	21(9.2)	0.490	0.874
	G	320(69.6)		312(67.8)		
	A	140(30.4)	-	146(32.2)	-	0.222
rs704017	AA	67(29.5)		63(27.4)		
	AG	116(51.1)		121(52.6)		
	GG	44(19.4)	0.623	46(20.0)	0.772	0.881
	A	250(54.3)		247(53.7)		
	G	204(45.7)	-	213(46.3)	-	0.632
rs1035209	CC	146(63.8)		154(67.2)		
	CT	75(32.8)		61(26.5)		
	TT	8(3.5)	0.666	14(6.1)	0.024	0.193
	C	367(79.8)		369(80.2)		
	T	91(20.2)	-	89(19.8)	-	0.870
rs12241008	TT	196(85.2)		204(88.7)		
	CT	33(14.3)		24(10.4)		
	CC	1(0.4)	0.973	2(0.9)	0.419	0.442
	T	425(92.4)		432(93.9)		
	C	35(7.6)	-	28(6.1)	-	0.430
rs11196172	GG	174(76.0)		172(74.8)		
	AG	53(23.1)		49(21.3)		
	AA	2(0.9)	0.640	9(3.9)	0.092	0.099
	G	401(87.2)		393(85.4)		
	A	57(12.8)	-	67(14.6)	-	0.257
rs1665650	CC	139(60.4)		149(64.8)		
	CT	75(32.6)		73(31.7)		
	TT	16(7.0)	0.189	8(3.5)	0.797	0.219
	C	353(76.7)		371(80.6)		
	T	107(23.3)	-	89(19.4)	-	0.230
rs174537	GG	113(49.3)		102(44.5)		
	GT	98(42.8)		103(45.0)		
	TT	18(7.9)	0.609	24(10.5)	0.790	0.462
	G	324(70.4)		307(66.7)		
	T	134(29.6)	-	151(33.3)	-	0.255

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S1.

SNP ID	Genotype Alleles	Cases n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Controls n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Diff. ^c P^b -value
rs4246215	GG	113(49.1)		101(43.9)		
	GT	98(42.6)		105(45.7)		
	TT	19(8.3)	0.727	24(10.4)	0.668	0.473
	G	324(70.5)		307(66.7)		
	T	136(29.5)	-	153(33.3)	-	0.238
rs174550	TT	114(49.6)		101(43.9)		
	CT	97(42.2)		104(45.2)		
	CC	19(8.3)	0.818	25(10.9)	0.797	0.397
	T	325(70.7)		306(66.5)		
	C	135(29.3)	-	154(33.5)	-	0.121
rs1535	AA	116(50.4)		96(41.7)		
	AG	93(40.4)		107(46.5)		
	GG	21(9.1)	0.705	27(11.7)	0.733	0.164
	A	325(70.7)		299(65.0)		
	G	135(29.3)	-	161(35.0)	-	0.067
rs3802842	AA	109(47.6)		107(46.5)		
	AC	99(43.2)		104(45.2)		
	CC	21(9.2)	0.827	19(8.3)	0.367	0.887
	A	317(68.9)		318(69.1)		
	C	141(31.1)	-	142(30.9)	-	0.965
rs10849432	TT	171(74.3)		174(75.7)		
	CT	57(24.8)		53(23.0)		
	CC	2(0.9)	0.495	3(1.3)	0.902	0.839
	T	399(86.7)		401(87.2)		
	C	61(13.3)	-	59(2.8)	-	0.923
rs3217810	CC	182(79.5)		191(83.4)		
	CT	45(19.7)		38(16.6)		
	TT	2(0.9)	0.909	0(0.0)	0.646	0.271
	C	409(88.9)		420(91.3)		
	T	49(11.1)	-	38(8.7)	-	0.923
rs3217901	AA	85(37.1)		90(39.5)		
	AG	111(48.5)		111(48.7)		
	GG	33(37.1)	0.738	27(11.8)	0.413	0.691
	A	281(61.1)		291(63.3)		
	G	177(38.9)	-	165(36.7)	-	0.236
rs10774214	CC	106(46.7)		109(47.4)		
	CT	101(44.5)		95(41.3)		
	TT	20(8.7)	0.557	26(11.3)	0.446	0.610
	C	313(68.0)		313(68.0)		
	T	141(32.0)	-	147(32.0)	-	0.675
rs7136702	CC	80(34.8)		91(39.6)		
	CT	108(46.9)		114(49.6)		
	TT	42(18.3)	0.601	25(10.8)	0.224	0.075
	C	268(58.3)		296(64.3)		
	T	192(41.7)	-	164(35.7)	-	0.043
rs11169552	CC	151(65.9)		128(56.9)		
	CT	71(31.0)		89(39.6)		
	TT	7(3.1)	0.698	8(3.6)	0.113	0.139
	C	373(81.1)		345(75.0)		
	T	85(18.9)	-	105(25.0)	-	0.229

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of the Supplementary Table S1.

SNP ID	Genotype Alleles	Cases n(%) ^a	HWE P^{b-} value	Controls n(%) ^a	HWE P^{b-} value	Diff. ^c P^{b-} value
rs59336	AA	63(27.4)		58(25.2)		
	AT	110(47.8)		109(47.4)		
	TT	57(24.8)	0.516	63(27.4)	0.433	0.774
	A	236(51.3)		225(48.9)		
rs4444235	T	224(48.7)	-	235(51.1)	-	0.323
	CC	61(26.5)		69(30.0)		
	CT	118(51.3)		113(49.1)		
	TT	51(22.2)	0.671	48(20.9)	0.890	0.708
rs1957636	C	240(52.2)		251(54.6)		
	T	220(47.8)	-	209(45.4)	-	0.644
	CC	80(34.9)		97(42.2)		
	CT	109(47.6)		95(41.3)		
rs4779584	TT	40(17.5)	0.784	38(16.5)	0.079	0.267
	C	269(58.5)		289(62.8)		
	T	189(41.5)	-	171(37.2)	-	0.411
	CC	164(71.6)		166(72.2)		
rs16969681	CT	60(26.2)		57(24.8)		
	TT	5(2.2)	0.858	7(3.0)	0.442	0.811
	C	388(84.3)		389(84.6)		
	T	67(15.7)	-	71(15.4)	-	0.627
rs11632715	CC	191(83.0)		180(78.3)		
	CT	37(16.1)		48(20.9)		
	TT	2(0.9)	1.000	2(0.9)	0.856	0.378
	C	419(91.1)		408(88.7)		
rs9929218	T	41(8.9)	-	61(11.3)	-	0.660
	GG	84(36.7)		84(36.8)		
	AG	108(47.2)		105(46.1)		
	AA	37(16.2)	0.817	39(17.1)	0.530	0.955
rs12603526	G	276(60.3)		273(59.9)		
	A	182(39.7)		183(40.1)	-	0.808
	GG	111(48.5)		111(48.3)		
	AG	101(44.1)		100(43.5)		
rs4939827	AA	17(7.4)	0.357	19(8.3)	0.593	0.945
	G	323(70.2)		322(70.0)		
	A	135(29.8)	-	135(30.0)	-	1.000
	TT	228(99.1)		228(99.1)		
rs10411210	CT	2(0.9)		2(0.9)		
	CC	0(0.0)	1.000	0(0.0)	1.000	1.000
	T	458(99.6)		458(99.6)		
	C	2(0.4)	-	2(0.4)	-	1.000
rs12603526	TT	66(28.8)		70(30.6)		
	CT	125(54.6)		112(48.9)		
	CC	38(16.6)	0.101	47(20.5)	0.857	0.410
	T	257(55.9)		252(54.8)		
rs10411210	C	201(44.1)	-	206(45.2)	-	0.232
	CC	180(78.6)		178(77.4)		
	CT	45(19.7)		51(22.2)		
	TT	4(1.7)	0.699	1(0.4)	0.362	0.336
rs10411210	C	405(88.0)		407(88.5)		
	T	53(12.0)	-	53(12.5)	-	0.743

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of the Supplementary Table S1.

SNP ID	Genotype Alleles	Cases n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Controls n(%) ^a	HWE P^b -value	Diff. ^c P^b -value
rs1800469	GG	118(51.8)		104(45.4)		
	AG	91(39.9)		102(44.5)		
	AA	19(8.3)	0.806	23(10.0)	0.783	0.389
	G	327(71.1)		310(67.4)		
	A	129(28.9)	-	148(32.6)	-	0.127
rs2241714	CC	116(50.4)		101(44.1)		
	CT	94(40.9)		105(45.9)		
	TT	20(8.7)	0.877	23(10.0)	0.572	0.396
	C	326(70.9)		307(66.7)		
	T	134(29.1)	-	151(33.3)	-	0.220
rs961253	CC	101(43.9)		124(53.9)		
	AC	103(44.8)		76(33.0)		
	AA	26(11.3)	0.973	30(13.0)	0.002	0.035
	C	305(66.3)		324(70.4)		
	A	155(33.7)	-	136(29.6)	-	0.157
rs4813802	TT	113(49.3)		112(48.9)		
	GT	88(38.4)		94(41.0)		
	GG	28(12.2)	0.100	23(10.0)	0.618	0.707
	T	314(68.3)		318(69.1)		
	G	144(31.7)	-	140(30.9)	-	0.775
rs2423279	TT	94(40.9)		109(47.4)		
	CT	113(49.1)		101(43.9)		
	CC	23(10.0)	0.192	20(8.7)	0.618	0.370
	T	301(65.4)		319(69.3)		
	C	159(34.6)	-	141(30.7)	-	0.325
rs5934683	C	102(37.6)		116(32.2)		
	CT	41(17.9)		40(17.4)		
	T	86(44.5)	<0.001	74(50.4)	0.001	0.405
	C	245(53.3)		272(59.1)		
	T	213(46.7)	-	188(41.9)	-	0.127

A, adenine; C, cytosine; G, guanine; HWE, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium; rs, reference single nucleotide polymorphism; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; T, thymine.

^aValid percentages.

^b $P < 0.001$ was significant.

^cDifferences in allele frequencies and genotype distribution between cases and controls.

S2 Table. Association between genetic variants associated with susceptibility and the risk of CRC in the codominant model.

Gene, SNP ID ^a	Model I ^b		Model II ^c	
	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value
TRABD2B (Chr 1)				
rs12080929				
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.15(0.78-1.68)	0.480	0.81(0.25-2.61)	0.721
CC	1.30(0.62-2.76)	0.488	0.52(0.17-1.58)	0.249
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	1.14(0.84-1.55)	0.390	1.30(0.86-1.97)	0.218
LAMC1 (Chr 1)				
rs10911251				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	0.88(0.59-1.30)	0.525	0.77(0.41-1.45)	0.422
CC	0.56(0.32-0.99)	0.046	0.40(0.16-0.98)	0.045
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	0.76(0.58-0.99)	0.043	0.71(0.51-0.99)	0.046
NABP1/SDPR (Chr 2)				
rs11903757				
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.42(0.95-2.14)	0.090	3.81(0.55-26.36)	0.175
CC	1.67(0.47-5.99)	0.430	1.67(0.93-3.00)	0.087
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	1.47(1.03-2.10)	0.035	1.54(0.96-2.45)	0.073
MYNN (Chr 3)				
rs10936599				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	0.84(0.57-1.22)	0.350	0.89(0.49-1.61)	0.692
TT	0.40(0.15-1.06)	0.065	0.39(0.10-1.52)	0.175
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	0.75(0.55-1.04)	0.083	0.81(0.54-1.21)	0.302
PITX1/H2AFY				
rs647161				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	0.97(0.66-1.44)	0.897	1.09(0.60-1.96)	0.784
CC	1.70(0.87-3.37)	0.123	2.84(0.93-8.65)	0.066
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	1.13(0.86-1.50)	0.359	1.07(0.75-1.53)	0.705
TERT (Chr 5)				
rs2736100				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	1.14(0.73-1.77)	0.562	2.83(1.13-4.83)	0.023
AA	1.25(0.73-2.16)	0.420	1.87(0.81-4.34)	0.143
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	1.13(0.87-1.48)	0.348	1.13(0.81-1.59)	0.468
SRSF3/CDKN1A (Chr 6)				
rs1321311				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	1.45(0.56-3.78)	0.439	1.19(0.25-3.79)	0.962
AA	1.08(0.41-2.79)	0.881	0.97(0.65-2.20)	0.572
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	1.12(0.84-1.51)	0.439	1.23(0.84-1.80)	0.278

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S2.

Gene, SNP ID ^a	Model I ^b		Model II ^c	
	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value
DUSP4 (Chr 8)				
rs11987193				
CC	1.00		1.00	-
CT	1.45(1.00-2.10)	0.050	1.15(0.67-1.99)	0.614
TT	1.47(0.65-3.29)	0.353	1.35(0.39-4.63)	0.636
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.32(0.99-1.77)	0.057	1.13(0.78-1.64)	0.527
TRPS1/EIF3H/UTP23 (Chr 8)				
rs16892766				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	1.33(0.72-2.46)	0.356	2.06(0.80-5.35)	0.136
CC	NA	-	NA	-
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	1.65(0.90-3.05)	0.102	2.24(1.02-4.88)	0.043
CCAT2 (Chr 8)				
rs6983267				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
GT	0.83(0.53-1.29)	0.399	0.81(0.41-1.60)	0.546
TT	0.69(0.41-1.19)	0.183	0.75(0.33-1.68)	0.483
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	0.82(0.63-1.06)	0.131	0.78(0.56-1.09)	0.145
CASC8 (Chr 8)				
rs10505477				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	0.94(0.60-1.47)	0.794	0.98(0.50-1.95)	0.962
GG	0.70(0.41-1.19)	0.184	0.71(0.32-1.57)	0.402
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
G	0.80(0.61-1.04)	0.089	0.78(0.56-1.09)	0.149
rs7014346				
GG	1.00	0.986	1.00	-
AG	1.30(0.90-1.89)	0.167	1.46(0.83-2.57)	0.188
AA	0.99(0.55-1.79)	-	1.56(0.62-3.96)	0.345
G	1.00	0.374	1.00	-
A	1.13(0.86-1.48)		1.23(0.87-1.73)	0.240
KRT8P16/TCEB1P3 (Chr 10).				
rs10795668				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	1.11(0.76-1.61)	0.591	1.16(0.66-2.02)	0.611
AA	1.12(0.56-2.26)	0.744	0.34(0.10-1.11)	0.074
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	1.09(0.82-1.44)	0.563	1.09(0.75-1.58)	0.655
ZMIZ1-AS1 (Chr 10)				
rs704017				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	0.91(0.58-1.42)	0.731	1.03(0.50-2.11)	0.938
GG	0.91(0.52-1.58)	0.670	0.73(0.30-1.79)	0.497
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
G	1.08 (0.83-1.42)	0.542	0.87(0.61-1.23)	0.417
ABCC2/MRP2 (Chr 10)				
rs1035209				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S2.

Gene, SNP ID ^a	Model I ^b		Model II ^c	
	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value
CT	1.29(0.85-1.94)	0.235	1.74(0.93-3.24)	0.081
TT	0.61(0.25-1.47)	0.270	0.72(0.19-2.70)	0.627
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.01 (0.71-1.34)	0.973	0.88(0.56-1.38)	0.576
TCF7L2 (Chr 10)				
rs11196172				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	1.11(0.71-1.76)	0.642	0.95(0.49-1.86)	0.889
AA	0.22(0.05-1.03)	0.054	0.13(0.01-1.63)	0.114
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	0.80(0.54-1.18)	0.260	0.96(0.57-1.61)	0.871
HSPA12A (Chr 10)				
rs1665650				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.13(0.76-1.69)	0.566	1.05(0.57-1.96)	0.874
TT	2.46(0.93-6.52)	0.070	2.19(0.58-8.31)	0.248
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.25(0.90-1.73)	0.184	1.18(0.77-1.80)	0.437
MYRF, FEN1, FADS1, FADS2 (Chr 11)				
rs174537				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
GT	0.85(0.57-1.26)	0.407	0.85(0.48-1.49)	0.566
TT	0.71(0.37-1.32)	0.274	0.70(0.27-1.79)	0.472
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	0.85(0.64-1.12)	0.253	0.76(0.54-1.09)	0.135
rs4246215				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
GT	0.84(0.57-1.24)	0.382	0.80(0.46-1.40)	0.437
TT	0.74(0.40-1.38)	0.349	0.83(0.33-2.14)	0.707
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	0.86(0.65-1.13)	0.276	0.77(0.54-1.09)	0.145
rs174550				
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	0.82(0.56-1.23)	0.270	1.22(0.45-3.34)	0.694
CC	0.71(0.38-1.31)	0.353	1.44(0.56-3.68)	0.452
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	0.81(0.61-1.08)	0.159	0.69(0.47-0.99)	0.047
rs1535				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	0.73(0.49-1.07)	0.106	0.80(0.45-1.40)	0.427
GG	0.68(0.37-1.23)	0.203	0.68(0.27-1.71)	0.414
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
G	0.78(0.59-1.03)	0.079	0.69(0.48-0.98)	0.037
LOC120376, FL45803, c11orf53, POU2AF1 (Chr 11)				
rs3802842				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AC	0.95(0.65-1.38)	0.780	0.96(0.53-1.74)	0.899
CC	1.08(0.56-2.06)	0.833	1.03(0.36-2.94)	0.958
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	0.99(0.74-1.32)	0.941	1.14(0.78-1.67)	0.485
CD9 (Chr 9)				
rs10849432				

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S2.

Gene, SNP ID ^a	Model I ^b		Model II ^c	
	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.10(0.71-1.70)	0.659	1.47(0.11-19.03)	0.768
CC	0.67(0.11-3.99)	0.657	0.88(0.45-1.71)	0.709
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	0.92(0.62-1.35)	0.658	1.24(0.74-2.07)	0.420
CCND2 (Chr 12)				
rs3217810				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.32(0.79-2.21)	0.295	1.21(0.57-2.56)	0.620
TT	NA	-	NA	-
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.56(0.98-2.47)	0.059	1.26(0.73-2.20)	0.408
rs3217901				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	1.05(0.71-1.55)	0.799	1.10(0.59-2.04)	0.761
GG	1.30(0.72-2.35)	0.388	0.94(0.38-2.36)	0.897
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
G	1.15(0.88-1.53)	0.293	1.22(0.85-1.74)	0.285
rs10774214				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.08(0.73-1.60)	0.688	0.80(0.44-1.44)	0.452
TT	0.81(0.43-1.52)	0.509	0.72(0.28-1.81)	0.480
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.08(0.81-1.44)	0.616	1.19(0.82-1.71)	0.353
ATF1 (Chr 12)				
rs11169552				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	0.69(0.47-1.02)	0.061	0.53(0.29-0.98)	0.044
TT	0.77(0.28-2.16)	0.622	0.90(0.18-4.51)	0.897
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	0.80(0.58-1.10)	0.165	0.78(0.52-1.19)	0.247
TBX3 (Chr 12)				
rs59336				
AA	1.00	-	1.00	-
AT	0.92(0.58-1.44)	0.706	0.83(0.42-1.65)	0.604
TT	0.83(0.49-1.39)	0.472	0.46(0.19-1.10)	0.081
A	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	0.84(0.65-1.10)	0.210	1.25(0.89-1.76)	0.206
BMP4/ATP5C1P1/CDKN3/MIR5580 (Chr 14)				
rs4444235				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.21(0.76-1.92)	0.416	1.50(0.73-3.07)	0.272
TT	1.23(0.71-2.13)	0.460	0.56(0.24-1.34)	0.194
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.02(0.79-1.33)	0.867	1.12(0.79-1.60)	0.515
rs1957636				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.46(0.95-2.26)	0.085	1.45(0.75-2.80)	0.271
TT	1.28(0.73-2.23)	0.384	0.68(0.30-1.54)	0.360
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.09(0.83-1.43)	0.534	0.99(0.69-1.41)	0.947

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S2.

Gene, SNP ID ^a	Model I ^b		Model II ^c	
	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value
SCG5, GREM1, FMN1 (Chr 15)				
rs4779584				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.09(0.71-1.69)	0.698	0.79(0.39-1.60)	0.519
TT	0.61(0.15-2.58)	0.504	0.31(0.06-1.70)	0.177
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.11(0.77-1.58)	0.584	0.06(0.56-1.45)	0.679
rs16969681		0.193		
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	0.73(0.46-1.17)	0.193	0.69(0.33-1.46)	0.332
TT	0.93(0.13-6.62)	0.938	0.67(0.05-8.47)	0.756
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	0.88(0.57-1.37)	0.577	0.77(0.42-1.42)	0.402
rs11632715				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	1.06(0.70-1.61)	0.796	1.13(0.57-2.25)	0.727
AA	1.00(0.59-1.71)	0.991	0.58(0.27-1.27)	0.173
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	0.97(0.74-1.28)	0.854	0.96(0.67-1.37))	0.815
CDH1 (Chr 16)				
rs9929218				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	1.02(0.70-1.50)	0.900	1.24(0.71-2.18)	0.930
AA	0.90(0.45-1.78)	0.776	0.95(0.32-2.83)	0.447
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	0.94(0.71-1.25)	0.663	1.10(0.76-1.61)	0.605
NXN (Chr 17)				
rs12603526				
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.00(0.14-7.10)	1.000	1.49(0.08-28.04)	0.790
CC	NA	-	NA	-
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	1.00(0.14-7.10)	1.000	0.74(0.10-5.65)	0.774
SMAD7 (Chr 18)				
rs4939827				
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.19(0.79-1.81)	0.408	1.14(0.60-2.17)	0.691
CC	0.90(0.52-1.54)	0.694	0.80(0.35-1.82)	0.592
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	0.87(0.66-1.13)	0.288	0.90(0.64-1.27)	0.554
RHPN2 (Chr 19)				
rs10411210				
CC	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	0.90(0.59-1.39)	0.646	0.52(0.26-1.03)	0.060
TT	3.77(0.42-34.22)	0.238	4.44(0.33-58.89)	0.262
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.01(0.67-1.52)	0.959	0.98(0.57-1.68)	0.942
TGFB1 (Chr 19)				
rs1800469				
GG	1.00	-	1.00	-
AG	0.80(0.55-1.15)	0.257	0.56(0.32-0.99)	0.047

To be continued in the next page.

Continuation of Supplementary Table S2.

Gene, SNP ID ^a	Model I ^b		Model II ^c	
	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value	OR (95%CI)	P ^d -value
AA	0.68(0.35-1.33)	0.230	0.32(0.10-0.99)	0.049
G	1.00	-	1.00	-
A	0.80(0.60-1.06)	0.115	0.77(0.53-1.12)	0.171
BMP2/HAO1/FERMT1 (Chr 20)				
rs4813802				
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
GT	0.91(0.62-1.33)	0.550	0.90(1.28-9.70)	0.754
GG	1.20(0.66-2.21)	0.627	3.52(1.28-9.70)	0.015
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
G	1.03(0.77-1.37)	0.855	0.82(0.56-1.18)	0.283
HAO1/PLCB1				
rs2423279				
TT	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.26(0.87-1.83)	0.213	1.04(0.61-1.79)	0.880
CC	1.28(0.68-2.43)	0.441	0.63(0.23-1.68)	0.352
T	1.00	-	1.00	-
C	1.19(0.89-1.57)	0.235	1.12(0.78-1.60)	0.534
SHROOM (Chr X)				
rs5934683				
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
CT	1.16(0.63-2.18)	0.626	1.20(0.47-3.09)	0.702
T	1.30(0.87-1.94)	0.207	1.47(0.79-2.75)	0.225
C	1.00	-	1.00	-
T	1.20(0.91-1.59)	0.197	1.21(0.83-1.76)	0.322

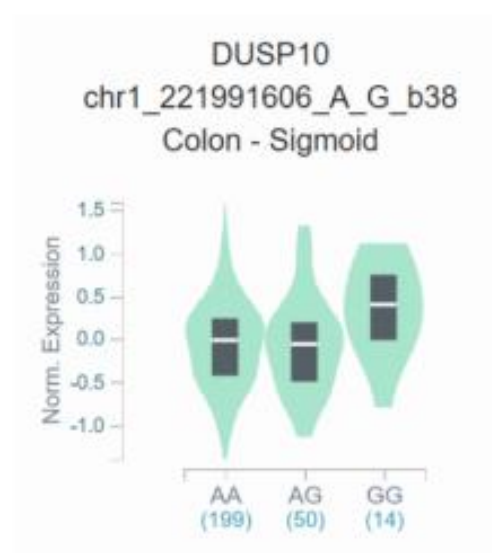
A, adenine; C, cytosine; CI, confidence interval; G, guanine; NA, no available data; OR, odds ratio; rs, reference single nucleotide polymorphism; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; T, thymine.

^aThe most frequent genotype was considered the reference group.

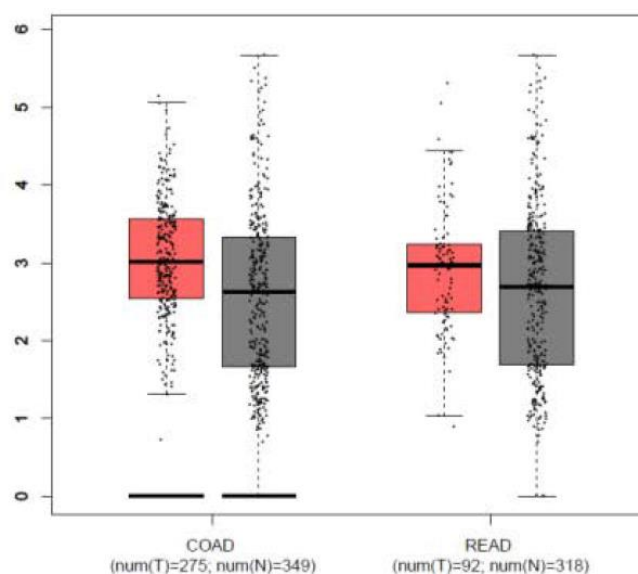
^bModel I, crude conditional logistic regression model.

^cModel II, conditional logistic regression adjusted for: age, sex, BMI, physical activity, smoking status, alcohol consumption, Deprivation Index and energy intake. Participants with missing data for the confounding variables were included as a separate category for these variables.

^dP<0.001 was significant.



S1 Fig. eQTL violin plot showing gene association results for *DUSP10* gene, rs6687758 and colon sigmoid healthy tissue. A, adenine. G, guanine. Data Source: GTEx Analysis Release V8 (dbGaP Accession phs000424.v8.p2).



S2 Fig. Box plot for comparing the difference of expression for *DUSP10* gene between cases (in red) and controls (in grey) in colon adenocarcinoma and rectum adenocarcinoma. COAD, colon adenocarcinoma. N, normal. READ, rectum adenocarcinoma. T, tumour. The method for differential analysis is one-way ANOVA, using disease state (Tumor or Normal) as variable for calculating differential expression. Data Source: TCGA and GTEx data, using GEPIA.

Discussion

In this study, we investigated SNPs associated with susceptibility for the development of CRC in a Basque population who took part in the population screening programme. We found that out of 48 analysed SNPs, only the rs6687758 was associated with the risk of CRC in this population. This is in agreement with previous GWAS that reported a positive association between this SNP and CRC also in European population [15,34]. Some authors have also observed relationships between this SNP and colorectal polyp risk [35]; although this SNPs is not associated significantly with adenoma risk and has their effects on the malignant stage of colorectal tumorigenesis [36]. The frequency of the risk allele of rs6687758 (G) in the European population (22.2%) [37] is similar to that registered in the cases of the present study and higher than that of the controls.

The other 47 risk SNPs did not replicate in our population. This may be due to differences in the underlying linkage patterns given the ethnic differences in populations studied. Twenty-one of the SNPs analyzed have been replicated in Asian, American-Caucasian or African, but not in European (rs11903757, rs1321311, rs10505477, rs719725, rs704017, rs12241008, rs11196172, rs174537, rs4246215, rs174550, rs1535, rs10849432, rs3217901, rs4444235, rs11632715, rs4939827, rs10411210, rs1800469, rs2241714, rs961253 and rs4813802); and 4 were not replicated in population studies; however, they were associated with susceptibility for development of CRC in GWAS (rs1665650, rs59336, rs1957636 and rs12603526). The effect sizes of some of these associations were small (OR <1.20, $P < 0.05$, for rs1321311, rs12241008, and rs704017) [38-40]. Additionally, it may be that the distribution of environmental factors in our population differs from that of the populations in which these genetic variants were discovered.

The SNP rs6687758 is in a regulatory region, flanking the promoter of *DUSP10*, at ~250 kb from the start of the gene. Hence, it is likely to affect the expression of this gene. Polymorphisms in *DUSP10* gene (*dual* specificity protein phosphatase 10) have been previously demonstrated to be associated with CRC risk [41,42]. In this study, we confirmed this CRC susceptibility locus in the Basque population sample. Earlier analyses have found frequent dysregulation of dual specificity protein phosphatase 10 (*DUSP10/MKP-5*) in CRC [41]. *DUSP10* belongs to the dual kinase phosphatase family. These proteins are associated with cellular proliferation and differentiation, and they act as tumour suppressors [41,43].

Target kinases of DUSPs are inactivated by dephosphorylation of both phosphoserine/threonine and phosphotyrosine residues [41,42]. They act at several levels, taking part in fine-tuning signalling cascades. DUSPs negatively regulate members of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (*MAPK*) superfamily [41,44], which are implicated in some activities that are often dysregulated in cancer, such as cell proliferation, survival, and migration [41]. *MAPK* signalling also plays a key role in determining the response of tumour cells to cancer therapies, since its abnormal signalling has important consequences for the development and progression of human cancer [44]. Several studies have already shown the involvement of *DUSPs* as major modulators of critical signalling pathways dysregulated in different cancers [43], such as in the case of the overexpression of *DUSP1/MKP-1* in the early phases of cancer and its decreasing during tumour progression [42].

There is abundant evidence that *DUSP10*, in particular, may play an important role in tumorigenesis and could alter CRC risk [45,46]. It inactivates *p38* and *JNK* *in vitro* [41,47], and its upregulation are very common in CRC[48]. The activation of *JNK* protein is due to the protein kinase *G* (*PKG*)/*MEKK1/SEK1/JNK* cascade, and it is related with cell proliferation and inducing apoptosis [41,49]. Moreover, *p38* is involved in the promotion of cellular senescence as a means of eluding oncogene-induced transformation; it participates in cell cycle regulation suppressing cell proliferation and tumorigenesis [41,49].

On the other hand, the results extracted from gene expression association analyses **show** a higher expression of *DUSP10* gene in CRC cases, but also that there is a higher expression of this gene in colon tissue of healthy controls when they have the GG genotype for rs6687758. Thus, it would be likely to find a relationship between higher expression of the gene and the presence of allele G in rs6687758 in tumour tissue. Nonetheless, it would be interesting to further explore this aspect through future analyses to compare gene expression between individuals carrying the risk variant and control individuals. Previous studies have pointed in the same direction that there is overall increase in patients' relapse-free survival when *DUSP10* expression is upregulated, and that *DUSP10* mRNA was increased in the tumour compared with normal tissue adjacent to the tumours [46,49,50].

We found an association between smoking status and the rs6687758 SNP for CRC risk in cases. Other authors have also observed this association [51]. Benzo[a]pyrene, one of the carcinogenic compounds included in cigarette smoke, up-regulated *COX-2* in mouse cells [52], which in turn could either activate or be dependent on the *MAPK* pathway,

suggesting a possible gene-smoking interaction [53,54]. Concerning the association between physical activity, the rs6687758 SNP and CRC risk, as far as we know, there are no precedents in the literature. However, other studies have found interactions between polymorphisms associated with growth hormone (*GH1*) and insulin-like growth factor I (*IGF-I*) (rs647161, rs2665802), physical activity and CRC [53,54]. According our results, rs6687758, medium-high physical activity level and CRC would be associated. However, this outcome, contrary to what it could be expected, could be related to changes in the lifestyles, including physical activity level, in cases after diagnosis [55].

We also analyzed unweighted and weighted GRS models. We observed that cases had more risk alleles than controls, this result was according to expectations considering the previous studies [56]. In the crude analysis, we observed that patients that had a higher number of risk alleles had a higher risk of CRC. Other authors observed similar results using an adjusted unweighted model [32]. However, some other authors did not find this association [57]. It should be noted that common allele variants generally have modest effect sizes [58], but the combination of multiple loci with modest effects into a global GRS might improve the identification of patients with genetic risk for common complex diseases, such cancer [59]. In this sense, Ortlepp *et al.* [60] concluded that more than 200 polymorphisms might be necessary for “reasonable” genetic discrimination.

Our study has several limitations and strengths. The principal limitations of this study were the small sample size that makes difficult to detect possible associations between polymorphisms and disease risk since some genotypes showed very low frequencies in our population. Another disadvantage of the small sample size is that they can produce false-positive results; in order to avoid it, the Bonferroni correction was used. The strengths of the study were that although controls tested positive in iFOBT, in CRCSP were confirmed that they were free of the disease through colonoscopy. Colonoscopy was used as diagnosis criteria to identify the cases in order to avoid false positives and negatives.

In **conclusion**, most SNPs analyzed were not associated with risk of CRC. Only one of the 48 SNPs analyzed, rs6687758, was associated with risk of CRC, in this population (on crude analysis). Moreover, there were significant associations between smoking status, physical activity, the rs6687758SNP and CRC risk. On the other hand, the results of the GRS showed that the risk alleles were more frequent in cases than controls and this score was associated with this type of cancer in crude analysis. Therefore, in this study, we have confirmed a CRC susceptibility locus and the existence of associations between modifiable factors such as smoking and physical activity and the presence of

the risk genotype for rs6687758. However, further experimental validations are needed to establish the role of this SNP, the function of the gene identified, as well as the contribution of the interaction between environmental factors and this polymorphism to the risk of CRC.

Acknowledgments

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4. DISCUSSION

The main objective of this thesis was to study the association between dietary and genetic factors and the risk of development of CRC in a sample of cases and controls from the population-based CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. To achieve this aim, a case-control study based on a standardised protocol was carried out, which included not only dietary and genetic factors but also certain health determinants (such as age, lifestyle and socioeconomic conditions), weight status, perceived quality of life and stress and use of drugs related to decreasing the CRC risk. In addition, the other aim of this thesis was to assess the adequacy of the nutrients consumed and the diet quality in a group of CRC patients postsurgery.

Pilot study of CRC patients postsurgery

Before starting the case-control study, we conducted a pilot study in a group of CRC patients postsurgery who participated in the CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service. The objectives of this pilot study were, on one hand, to assess the adequacy of the nutrients consumed and the diet quality and, on the other hand, to identify possible associations between nutritional adequacy and diet quality and certain health determinants (such as age, weight status, lifestyles and socioeconomic conditions) in the aforementioned group. Regarding diet of CRC patients in this pilot study, this tended to follow the western pattern. This dietary pattern is characterized by a high protein and fat intake and a low consumption of carbohydrates. Scientific evidence demonstrates that this type of diet has a causative link to colon cancer; however, the mechanisms of action have not been fully elucidated [1].

Regarding micronutrient intakes, a significant proportion of subjects did not meet daily requirements for folic acid, vitamins A, D and E, Ca, Mg and I. Inadequate intakes of these nutrients were also noted by other authors in cancer patients [2,3] and in the general population [4]. In addition, the inadequacy for nutrient intakes was greater in men than women for the following micronutrients: thiamine, vitamin A, Mg and Zn ($P<0.05$). Consistent with our results, Lim *et al.* [5] reported more dietary habit problems and poor nutritional balance in males with gastric cancer than in females. Moreover, in the present study, patients who were overweight/obese presented greater inadequate intake of folic acid, vitamin A and Zn than those whose weight was normal ($P<0.05$).

In relation to the diet quality, the mean percentage for adherence to the MD was 66.6%, and a significant proportion of subjects did not meet food group recommendations; 85.1% had "no healthy diet or need changes" according to the HEISD. The percentage of subjects classified as "no healthy diet or need changes" was similar to the general

population of the Basque Country [6]. Although CRC patients claimed to have changed to a healthy diet after being diagnosed with CRC [7,8], these patients often either receive no dietary information or dietary advice is scarce [9,10]. This fact could influence dietary adequacy and quality. Furthermore, participants who were 61 years of age or older obtained higher HEISD scores than subjects younger than 61 ($P<0.05$); this result agrees with the findings of other studies [6].

Other factors related to diet quality scores (HEISD and/or MDS) were educational attainment, most recent occupation, smoking status and physical activity participation. Although no significant association was identified, there was a medium size effect. In addition, regression analyses demonstrated that those without studies or primary education had a low adherence to the MD and greater thiamine inadequacy ($P<0.05$). Results concerning educational level and MDS agreed with the findings of other authors [11]. However, care must be taken in the interpretation of our analysis of logistic regression due to sample size. In relation to lifestyle factors, the greatest size effect occurred in the smoking status variable for both diet quality indices. In our study, tobacco consumption was associated with a greater inadequacy in the intake of folic acid ($P<0.05$) and could be associated with a low diet quality, even though the P -value was not significant. Other authors have observed relationships between smoking and dietary intake [12]. Furthermore, significant interactions were observed between smoking and CRC, suggesting a potential mediating effect of the MD [13,14].

In summary, our results demonstrated that the diet of the studied group was inadequate in many respects, including nutrients and food intakes. The inadequacy of some nutrients was associated with male gender, excess weight, smoking and low educational level, and the low adherence to the MD was pronounced in those with a low educational level. These results confirm the hypothesis that the diet of CRC patients postsurgery is inadequate in many respects, including nutrients and food intakes, and this dietetic and nutritional inadequacy is associated with certain health determinants.

Participants in the case-control study of the CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service

To contextualize this section of the doctoral thesis, the rate of participation, as well as certain characteristics of cases and controls should be mentioned. The participation rate of the cases was 52.9% and that of the controls was 37.6%. More men than women participated (1.96:1.0), most being elderly people (average age in cases= 61.5; and in controls=61.1 years), which was consistent with previous literature on CRCSP of the

Osakidetza/Basque Health Service [15]. Although the average participation rate in this CRCSP was higher in women than men (70.9% vs. 65.6%), the proportion of CRC diagnosed was higher in men than in women (4.8% vs. 2.1%) [15]. Regarding pathological staging of the cases, 72% were diagnosed with in early-stage (I/II) CRC, 76% had distal location of the cancer, 80.5% of tumours were well/moderately differentiated and 73.7% had undergone surgical resection. The cases were invited to take part in this survey at least one month after finishing their last treatment (surgery, chemotherapy or radiotherapy) (median, 1.3 years; range, 0.1 to 4.2 years). No statistically significant differences were found either in the time elapsed between participation in the CRCSP and collaboration in this survey or between cases and controls.

Significant differences between cases and controls were found for educational level, smoking, and weight status; with a higher percentage of cases with low-medium educational level, past or current smoking status and with overweight/obesity compared to controls ($P<0.01$). This last result is in agreement with previous studies [16-18] that have confirmed that obesity is associated with an increased risk of CRC. Even though the biological mechanisms underlying the association between excess body-fat and CRC remain unclear [19], evidence seems to support the important role of metabolic syndrome, insulin resistance [20], systemic inflammation and immunity [21], microbial dysbiosis [22], as well as certain genetic factors especially in early-onset CRC [23,24]. Elucidating the mediating role of these factors in obesity-induced CRC should be very useful in the prevention and treatment of this type of cancer. In addition to the direct contribution of obesity to CRC risk, excess body-fat could, in turn, be associated with other risk factors for CRC, such as unhealthy diet and sedentary lifestyle [25,26]. It is worth noting that we also observed a slightly higher proportion of controls whose main daily activity was sedentary compared to cases, but this result could be influenced by a greater awareness of the associations between diseases and lifestyle factors in cases.

On the other hand, in this study, we have not found a more frequent use of certain drugs related to a decreasing CRC risk [27]. In addition, alcohol consumption, perceived quality of life and stress levels did not differ between cases and controls. Lastly, significant differences between cases and controls were found for DI and PRM, with a higher percentage of controls than cases in Q₁₋₃ (the least disadvantaged) for DI, and a higher percentage of cases than controls in L₁₋₂ (these levels included those with a risk of high health resource consumption) for PRM ($P<0.001$). Briefly, results indicated significant differences in favour of controls for smoking habit, weight status, socioeconomic level and health status. So, the hypothesis that there are significant differences between cases

and controls with regard to lifestyle, weight status, use of drugs related to decreasing CRC risk, socioeconomic level, health status, quality of life and stress level was supported in part.

Diet of the case-control sample of the CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service

The diet of the case-control sample was assessed from several point of views: (1) adequacy of nutrient intake; (2) food groups; and (3) diet quality. First, the diet of participants, both cases and controls, was characterized by high intakes of protein, fat, SFA, and low intakes of carbohydrates and dietary fibre; thus, following a western diet pattern. This dietary pattern has been associated before with an elevated CRC incidence [28]. Moreover, the percentage of cases whose consumption of SFA and cholesterol did not comply with NOSP was higher than that for controls. This result is in agreement with those reported by other authors who observed a higher CRC risk among subjects with high intake of both SFA and cholesterol (highest vs. lowest) [29,30]. The mechanisms involved in the influence of fat on the colorectal carcinogenesis are complex and appear to be related with its effect on the insulin-signal pathway and the c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) pathway that promote the colonic cell proliferation [31].

On the other hand, in the present study, we have not found a higher intake in controls than in cases of protective factors associated with a decrease in CRC risk according to the scientific literature, such as, for example, Ca, Mg, fibre diet, vitamin D or B₆ [27]. However, the average intake of vitamin B₂ and the Ca/P ratio was higher in controls than in cases. Some studies have indicated before that vitamin B₂ intake is inversely associated with CRC risk [32]. With respect to the Ca/P ratio, Botron *et al.* [33] reported a case-control study in which they analysed the possible association between this ratio and colorectal carcinogenesis, and found positive associations, but the intake of phosphorous did not appear to have any modulating effect on the relation between dietary Ca intake and CRC.

In addition, the frequency of use of salt added to cooking was significantly higher in cases than controls. In other case-control studies, a positive association between sodium intake and CRC was also observed [34]. In any case, our average intake of Na from SFFQ was similar for cases and for controls, probably due to the difficulty to estimate this intake from self-reported data on added salt [35]. In summary, the results were in agreement with the hypothesis that diet, from the nutritional perspective, is significantly different between cases and controls, being in some aspects more favourable in controls,

particularly with regard to intake of SFA, cholesterol, vitamin B₂, the Ca/P ratio and the use of salt added to cooking.

Second, in respect to consumption by food groups, a high consumption of high-fat cheeses was associated with CRC risk, whereas, a high intake of fibre-containing foods, especially whole grains, and fatty fish, was associated with a lower risk for CRC. As other authors have previously reported [36] milk/dairy products was the food group with the highest adjusted OR for CRC risk, which is not in agreement with the likelihood of evidence that this food group may have a protector effect against CRC [37]. However, case-control studies published to date are heterogeneous and, on average, do not provide evidence of an association between total intake of total dairy products, milk, cheese or yogurt and CRC risk [37]. Regarding milk/dairy product consumption according to anatomical subsites of cases, the intake was higher in proximal tumour cases and lower in distal cases than in their matched controls. Although according to scientific literature, the effect of this food group seems to be similar across all locations of the bowel [38].

In general, epidemiological studies have not found evidence of either a reduction or an increase in CRC risk specifically associated with the consumption of cheese [39,40]. Although there are few research papers on cheese consumption that have reported an inverse association with CRC [41], in this research, high-fat cheeses are shown to be possible risk factors for CRC development. Some studies showed a positive relationship between fatty foods and CRC incidence [42]. Dairy products, e.g., mature, semi-mature and creamy cheeses, are rich in saturated fat, so this relationship might be due to the content of fat in these products. In any case, the association between milk/dairy product consumption and the risk of developing CRC is complex and some researchers indicated that the fat content contained within dairy products does not influence this association [38].

In line with previous studies [43-45], we also found that the consumption of fibre-containing foods was inversely associated with CRC risk. The preventive effect of dietary fibre can be explained by biological mechanisms that include increasing amounts of faeces, decreasing gastrointestinal transit time, diluting intestinal cancer-causing factors, interfering absorption of those, and the lowering of intestinal acidity [46]. Furthermore, our findings suggest that high consumption of whole grains (higher than 17.5 g/d in men and 30.0 g/d in women) may decrease the risk of CRC, after controlling confounding factors. There is convincing evidence that whole grains help to reduce CRC risk [37,47,48]. The observed reduction in CRC risk associated with high consumption of whole grains may partly be attributed to dietary fibre, resistant starch, and

oligosaccharides that can influence the gut environment. In addition, recent research about the influence of dietary intake on gene expression in colon tissue has observed that the genes that are differentially expressed with a high intake of whole grain and vegetable consumption are associated with NF- κ B signalling, regulation of apoptosis, cytoskeleton dynamics, and carbohydrate metabolism [49].

On the other hand, the consumption of fatty fish was associated with a decreased risk in CRC, after adjusting models for covariates. It should be noted that the consumption of total fish and fatty fish is higher in the Basque Country compared to other Spanish autonomous communities [50,51]. Recent cohort studies have observed that fatty fish was inversely associated with CRC incidence [52,53] and they have related this association with exposure to long-chain n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids [52]. Evidence from animal and in vitro studies indicates that n-3 fatty acids present in fatty fish may inhibit carcinogenesis [54]. According to the hypothesis raised by Larsson *et al.* (2004) [55], n-3 fatty acids can suppress arachidonic acid-derived eicosanoid biosynthesis; influence transcription factor activity, gene expression, and signal transduction pathways; modulate estrogen metabolism; increase or decrease the production of free radicals and reactive oxygen species; and influence insulin sensitivity and membrane fluidity.

In summary, these results confirm part of Hypothesis 3 of the thesis, about the association between certain foods with increasing or decreasing risk for CRC. Although association between CRC risk and certain foods such as red meat and processed meat or alcoholic drinks, that are well documented in the literature [37], were not confirmed in this case-control sample. Furthermore, food group intakes were not substantially different between proximal and distal cancer cases, except for fish, milk/dairy products and fat.

Finally, adherence to the MD pattern was associated with a lower risk of CRC. These findings on the MDS and CRC risk are supported by those of other researchers [56-61], who found significant associations between lower risk of CRC and adherence to the Mediterranean dietary pattern. However, the HEISD was not associated with CRC risk, discrepancies in results obtained with the two dietary quality indices analysed are probably due to differences in their constructs and scoring criteria. The overall MDS was inversely associated with CRC risk, the total score in cases with the proximal location of cancer being higher than for those with the distal location. These last results contrast with previous findings, which showed that the protective effects of adherence to the MD were mainly for distal colon and rectal cancer and not for proximal colon cancer [13]. In the total sample, investigation of the separate score components showed that whole

grain score was lower for cases than for controls. This result is consistent with that obtained for the association between whole grain consumption and CRC risk. Therefore, we are able to confirm part of Hypothesis 3 put forward in this doctoral thesis with reference to the association between the MD pattern and decreasing risk for CRC, and to differences depending on tumour location.

SNPs associated with susceptibility for the development of CRC in the case-control sample from the CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service

The study of SNPs associated with susceptibility for the development of CRC showed that out of 48 analysed SNPs, only the rs6687758 was associated with the risk of CRC in this population. This is in agreement with previous GWAS that also reported a positive association between this SNP and CRC in the European population [62,63]. Some authors have also observed relationships between this SNP and colorectal polyp risk [64]; although this SNP is not associated significantly with adenoma risk and effects the malignant stage of colorectal tumorigenesis [65]. The frequency of the risk allele of rs6687758 (G) in the European population (22.2%) [66] is similar to that registered in the cases of the present study and higher than that of the controls.

The SNP rs6687758 is in a regulatory region, flanking the promoter of *dual* specificity protein phosphatase 10 (*DUSP10*), also known as MAP kinase phosphatase 5 (*MKP5*), at ~250 kb from the start of the gene. Hence, it is likely to affect the expression of this gene. Polymorphisms in *DUSP10* gene have previously been demonstrated to be associated with CRC risk [67,68]. *DUSP10* is considered to be an inhibitor of inflammation [69] and was shown to negatively regulate the proliferation of intestinal epithelial cells and act as a suppressor for CRC [70]. It seems likely that *DUSP10* inhibits the intestinal epithelial cell barrier function via inhibition of ERK1/2 activation and *KLF5* expression, which in turn reduces intestinal epithelial cell proliferation, necessary for wound healing [70]. In any case, the harmful effect will occur when, for example, the intestine is exposed to carcinogenic compounds leading to the development of cancer-associated mutation.

Target kinases of DUSPs are inactivated by dephosphorylation of both phosphoserine/threonine and phosphotyrosine residues [67,68]. They act at several levels, taking part in fine-tuning signalling cascades. DUSPs negatively regulate members of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (*MAPK*) superfamily [67,71], which are implicated in some activities that are often dysregulated in cancer, such as cell proliferation, survival, and migration [67]. The most important groups of MAPKs are the

p38, JNK1/2 and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK1/2). *MAPK* signalling also plays a key role in determining the response of tumour cells to cancer therapies, since its abnormal signalling has important consequences for the development and progression of human cancer [71].

Several studies have already shown the involvement of *DUSPs* as major modulators of critical signalling pathways dysregulated in different cancers [72], such as in the case of the overexpression of *DUSP1/MKP-1* in the early phases of cancer and its decrease during tumour progression [68]. There is abundant evidence that *DUSP10*, in particular, may play an important role in tumorigenesis and could alter CRC risk [71,73]. It inactivates *p38* and *JNK in vitro* [67,74], and its upregulation is very common in CRC [75]. The activation of the JNK protein is due to the protein kinase G (*PKG*)/*MEKK1/SEK1/JNK* cascade, and it is related to cell proliferation and apoptosis induction [67,70]. Moreover, *p38* is involved in the promotion of cellular senescence as a means of eluding oncogene-induced transformation; it participates in cell cycle regulation, suppressing cell proliferation and tumorigenesis [67,70].

On the other hand, the results extracted from gene expression association analyses show a higher expression of the *DUSP10* gene in CRC cases, but also that there is a higher expression of this gene in colon tissue of healthy controls when they have the GG genotype for rs6687758. Thus, a relationship is likely to be found between higher expression of the gene and the presence of allele G in rs6687758 in tumour tissue. Nonetheless, it would be interesting to further explore this aspect through future analyses to compare gene expression between individuals carrying the risk variant and control individuals. Previous studies have concurred to some extent that there is an overall increase in patients' relapse-free survival when *DUSP10* expression is upregulated, and that *DUSP10* mRNA was increased in the tumour compared with normal tissue adjacent to the tumours [70,73,76].

In addition, we found an association between smoking status and the rs6687758 SNP for CRC risk in cases. Other authors have also observed this association [77]. Benzo[a]pyrene, one of the carcinogenic compounds included in cigarette smoke, up-regulated *COX-2* in mouse cells [78], which in turn could either activate or be dependent on the *MAPK* pathway, suggesting a possible gene-smoking interaction [79,80]. Regarding the association between physical activity, the rs6687758 SNP and CRC risk, as far as we know, there are no precedents in the literature. However, other studies have found interactions between polymorphisms associated with growth hormone (*GH1*) and insulin-like growth factor I (*IGF-I*) (rs647161, rs2665802), physical activity and CRC [79,80]. According to our results, rs6687758, medium-high physical activity level and

CRC would be associated. However, this outcome, contrary to what might be expected, could be related to lifestyle changes, including increased physical activity level, in cases following diagnosis [81].

The remaining 47 SNPs analysed in this doctoral thesis were not replicated in our population. This may be due to differences in the underlying linkage patterns given the ethnic differences in the populations studied. Twenty-one of the SNPs analysed have been replicated in Asian, American-Caucasian or African but not in European populations; and four were not replicated in any population studies; however, they were associated with susceptibility for development of CRC in GWAS. The effect sizes of some of these associations were small (OR <1.20, $P < 0.05$, for rs1321311, rs12241008, and rs704017) [82-84]. Additionally, it may be that the distribution of environmental factors in our population differs from that of the populations in which these genetic variants were discovered.

Finally, the unweighted and weighted GRS models showed that cases had more risk alleles than controls; this result was according to expectations considering the previous studies [85]. In the crude analysis, we observed that patients that had a higher number of risk alleles had a higher risk of CRC. Other authors observed similar results using an adjusted unweighted model [87]. However, some other authors did not find this association [88]. It should be noted that common allele variants generally have modest effect sizes [89], but the combination of multiple loci with modest effects in a global GRS might improve the identification of patients with genetic risk for common complex diseases, such cancer [90]. In this sense, Ortlepp *et al.* [91] concluded that more than 200 polymorphisms might be necessary for “reasonable” genetic discrimination.

Briefly, the results of this section of the thesis showed that most SNPs analysed were not associated with risk of CRC. Only one of the 48 SNPs analysed, rs6687758, was associated with a risk of CRC, in this population (on crude analysis). Moreover, there were significant associations between smoking status, physical activity, the rs6687758SNP and CRC risk. On the other hand, the results of the GRS showed that the risk alleles were more frequent in cases than in controls and this score was associated with this type of cancer in crude analysis.

Strengths and limitations

One of the strengths of this thesis comes from the originality of the pilot study, to the best of our knowledge, this nutritional study is the first one dedicated to nutritional adequacy and diet quality in CRC patients postsurgery. But the main strength is the fact that it

provides information based on a standardised protocol including not only dietary and genetic factors but also other possible determinants of CRC such as health determinants and weight status, among others. A further strength of the case-control study compared to others [56,92,93] is that colonoscopy was used as a diagnosis criterion to identify the cases in order to avoid false positives and negatives.

However, there are a number of limitations that should be mentioned. First, the small sample size of the pilot study carried out in CRC patients postsurgery did not allow a more precise analysis of the dietary adequacy of this group. Second, recall bias inherent in a case-control study design cannot be ruled out. The primary concern of this study is the low participation rate, which may have limited the representativeness of study samples. The decision to participate or not may have been influenced by several factors, including social, educational and health conditions, which may again correlate with outcome risk factors. Third, self-reported data could be subject to measurement errors and the problem of food omissions due to memory failure and underreporting of unhealthy habits among disease subjects. Despite that, previous validation studies indicate that the self-reported dietary information is reported with sufficient accuracy for use in epidemiology analysis [94,95]; and it should be noted that dietary changes are usually modest after participating in the CRCSP due to a lack of information or personalized advice [96-98].

Fourth, to avoid selection bias of controls we obtained controls from the same CRCSP and in the same period as cases, thus, it had been confirmed by colonoscopy that they did not suffer from CRC. Fifth, the lack of control of some possible confounders, such as comorbidities and other conditions that could affect food consumption and the capacity to absorb and to use nutrients, should be noted. Finally, sixth, the sample size of the case-control study makes it difficult to detect possible associations between polymorphisms and disease risk since some genotypes showed very low frequencies in our population. Another disadvantage of the small sample size is that it can produce false-positive results; in order to avoid this the Bonferroni correction was used.

Despite these limitations and considering all the results obtained in this doctoral thesis, we can conclude that the diet of the studied CRC patients postsurgery is inadequate in many respects, including nutrients and food intakes, and that this inadequacy is associated with certain health determinants. Further studies are needed to confirm these determinants with the purpose of applying educational programs in target groups and individualized nutritional counselling sessions to improve life quality and reduce the risk of CRC mortality. On the other hand, we also conclude that there are direct associations between CRC risk and high-fat cheese, and inverse associations with fibre-containing

foods and fatty fish, as well as adherence to an MD pattern, in the case-control sample analysed. With respect to genetic factors, we have confirmed a CRC susceptibility locus and the existence of associations between modifiable factors and the rs6687758 SNP; moreover, the GRS was associated with CRC. However, further studies are needed to better understand the influence of the dietary habits on CRC prevention and to establish the role of the genetic factors, as well as the contribution of the gene-diet interactions to the risk of CRC in this population.

Future perspectives

The results obtained in this thesis will be confirmed in later studies with larger sample sizes. The population of the Basque Autonomous Community offers us a great opportunity due to the relatively high incidence of this type of cancer and the existence of a public health system that facilitates the obtaining of clinical histories, pathology reports and tissue samples needed for the study. Therefore, in the future, it is expected to be able to extend the project to other Osakidetza Hospitals in order to increase the sample size. It should be remembered that this doctoral thesis is part of a line of research on the impact of gene-diet interactions on the risk of CRC in the Basque Country.

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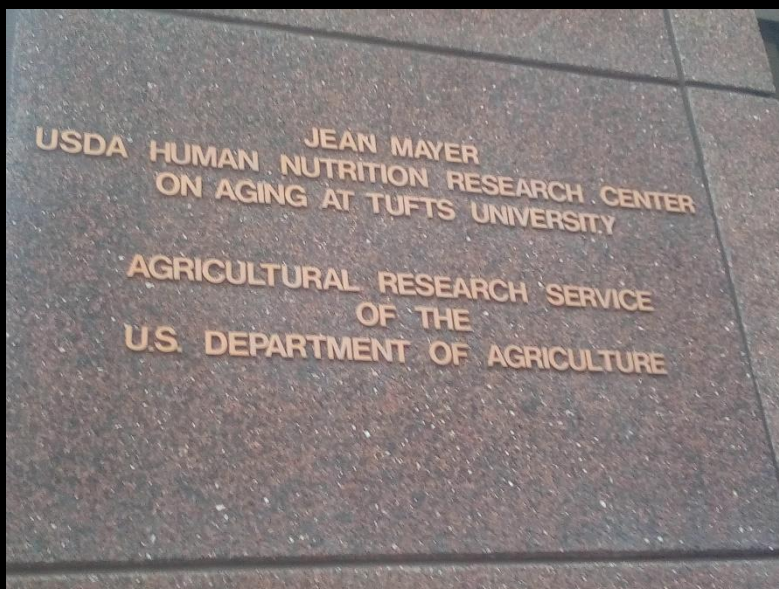
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5. CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the results obtained in this doctoral thesis, the following conclusions were derived:

1. The diet of the studied group of CRC patients postsurgery from the CRCSP of the Osakidetza/Basque Health Service is inadequate in many respects, including nutrients and food intakes. The inadequacy of some nutrients was associated with male gender, excess of weight, smoking and low educational level, and the low adherence to the MD was pronounced in those with a low educational level.
2. The cases of the case-control study were more likely than controls to have overweight/obesity, a higher frequency of consumption of salt added for cooking, a lower intake of vitamin B₂ and Ca/P ratio, and to have not adequate intakes of SFA and cholesterol. Thus, some environmental factors such as diet, and weight status could influence on the aetiology of CRC in this population group from the CRCSP.
3. High consumption of high-fat cheeses was associated with CRC risk, whereas, a high intake of fibre-containing foods, especially whole grains, and fatty fish, and adherence to the MD pattern was associated with a lower risk for CRC, in the case-control sample from the CRCSP. In addition, according to tumour location, cases with the proximal location had higher adherence to MD pattern than those with the distal location.
4. Most SNPs analysed in the case-control sample from the CRCSP were not associated with risk of CRC. Only one of the 48 SNPs analysed, rs6687758, was associated with risk of CRC, in this population (on crude analysis). Moreover, there were significant associations between smoking status, physical activity, the rs6687758SNP and CRC risk. On the other hand, the results of the GRS showed that the risk alleles were more frequent in cases than controls and this score was associated with this type of cancer in crude analysis.



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