

RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Knowledge of Colorectal Cancer Risk and Cancer Screening, with Colorectal Cancer Screening Attendance: A Nationwide Study in Japan (INFORM Study, 2020)

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Abstract

Background: Despite the availability of colorectal cancer (CRC) screening, participation rates in Japan remain low. Although knowledge about CRC has been identified as a predictor of screening uptake, data specific to the Japanese population remain limited. We aimed to examine the associations between knowledge of CRC risk factors and knowledge of cancer screening, with CRC screening attendance in Japan. **Methods:** A nationwide cross-sectional survey was conducted among 1,966 Japanese adults aged 40–69 years. Associations between correct answers on CRC risk factors and cancer screening, and CRC screening attendance were analyzed using multiple logistic regression, adjusting for relevant covariates. **Results:** Seventy percent of participants had undergone CRC screening. A significant positive linear association was observed between knowledge of CRC risk factors and CRC screening attendance (P for trend < 0.01). Similarly, greater knowledge of cancer screening was significantly associated with higher attendance (P for trend < 0.01). **Conclusion:** Accurate knowledge of CRC risk factors and cancer screening was positively associated with CRC screening attendance. These findings show the importance of disseminating accurate information to the Japanese population; however, further prospective studies are needed to examine this association more thoroughly.

Keywords: Cancer screening attendance- Colorectal cancer- Cross-sectional survey- Knowledge- Nationwide

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Introduction

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is highly prevalent in Japan and is expected to remain so in coming decades [1]. As of 2024, CRC was the leading cause of cancer-related deaths in women and the second in men [2]. Evidence indicates that cancer screening, particularly with the fecal occult blood test (FOBT), reduces CRC mortality [3]. In Japan, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare recommends annual CRC screening for individuals aged ≥ 40 years [4]. A national target of 60% screening uptake was set for 2023 [5]; however, self-reported past-year CRC screening participation remained 46% in 2022 [6].

International reviews have identified knowledge as a crucial factor influencing CRC screening attendance [7, 8], consistent with the health belief model [8, 9]. However,

in Japan, the relationship between knowledge and CRC screening participation remains unclear. Three studies have examined the associations between knowledge of CRC or cancer screening and actual screening attendance in the Japanese population [10–12]. However, the study populations and survey items had some limitations: participants were outpatients from specialties other than gastroenterology (n=388) [10] and parents of children (n=612) [11], and the focus was only on knowledge of cancer screening conducted by the municipality of residence among citizens of a single city [12]. Therefore, additional comprehensive investigations targeting a broader Japanese population were warranted.

We examined the associations between knowledge of CRC risk factors and knowledge of cancer screening and CRC screening attendance, using data from a nationwide

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survey of the Japanese population.

Materials and Methods

Study design and participants

We used data from a nationally representative cross-sectional survey on consumer access to health information in Japan in 2020 (INFORM Study 2020). The survey was conducted through mailed, self-administered questionnaires [13]. It assessed consumer behavior related to cancer prevention and screening, along with knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and access to reliable cancer information. The questionnaire incorporated core items from the Health Information National Trends Survey (HINTS) conducted in the United States [14].

Participants were selected using two-stage stratified random sampling. In the first stage, 500 census areas were randomly selected with probability proportional to stratum size, stratified by nine regions and four municipality categories based on population size. In the second stage, 20 individuals aged ≥ 20 years were randomly selected from each census area. 10,000 individuals were invited by mail; 281 surveys were undeliverable. Of the remaining 9,719 individuals, 3,929 consented and returned questionnaires. After excluding incomplete responses, 3,605 were eligible for analysis (response rate = 37%). The sampling strategy has been described previously [13]. For this analysis, 1,995 adults aged 40–69 years, eligible for CRC screening under national guidelines [4], were

considered. We excluded 23 individuals with a history of CRC and six with missing CRC screening data, resulting in 1,966 participants (Figure 1). The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Tohoku University Tohoku Medical Megabank Organization (project no. 2024-4-003) and the Research Ethics Committee of the National Cancer Center (project no. 2019-290).

Exposure variables

Knowledge of CRC risk factors

Participants were asked, “Do you think the following items cause cancer?” with response options of “yes,” “no,” or “I don’t know” [13]. Of the 15 items, five (tobacco smoking, alcohol consumption, insufficient intake of vegetables/fruits, lack of exercise, and obesity) were identified as CRC risk factors [15]. A total score was calculated by assigning 1 point for each correct answer (“yes”) and 0 points for each incorrect answer (“no” or “I don’t know”), yielding a possible score of 0–5.

Knowledge of cancer screening

Participants were asked, “As far as you know, do you think the following statements regarding cancer screening (fecal occult blood test, mammography, cervical cytology, etc.) are true or false?” [13]. Knowledge of cancer screening was assessed with three true/false items: 1) Cancer screening can definitively tell that a person has cancer (“false” is correct [16]); 2) Cancer screening can cause additional physical burden depending on further

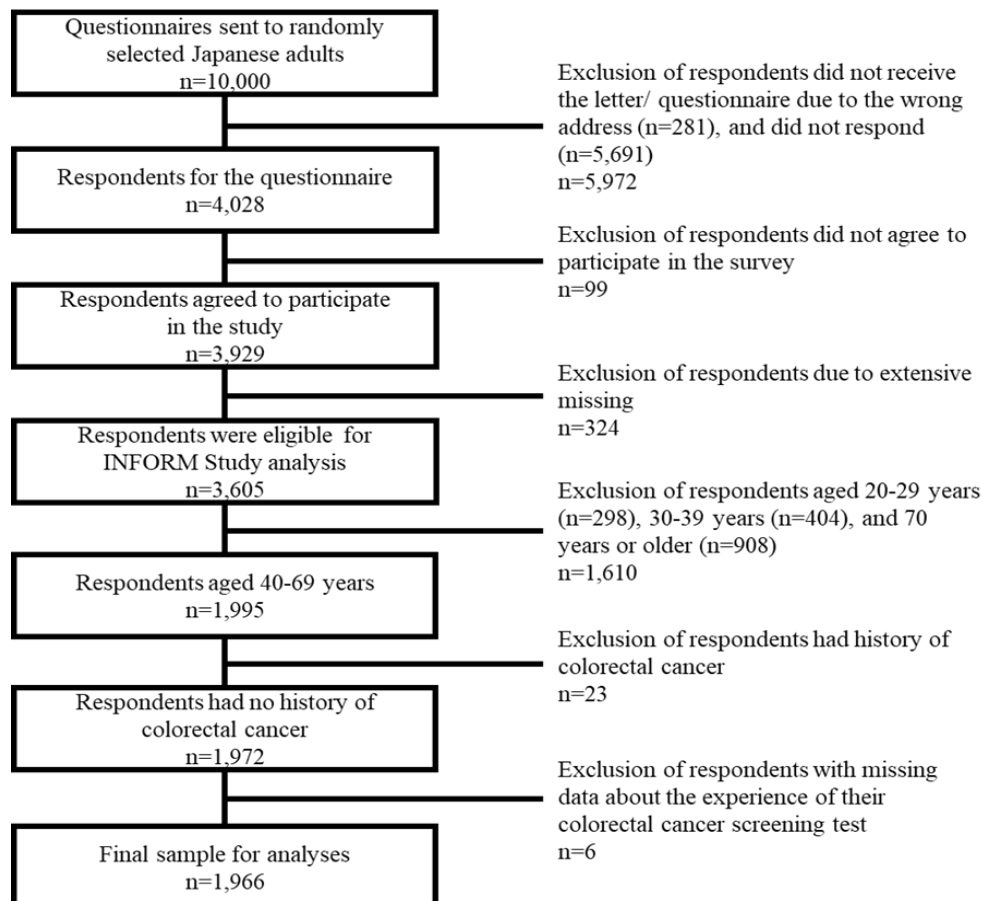


Figure 1. Participant Flowchart

testing (“true” is correct [17, 18]); and 3) Every “cancer” detected by cancer screening grows to a life-threatening extent (“false” is correct [17, 18]). Response options were “true,” “false,” or “I don’t know.” A total score was calculated by assigning 1 point for each correct answer and 0 points for each incorrect answer (including “I don’t know”), yielding a possible score of 0–3.

Outcome variable

CRC screening attendance was assessed with the question, “Have you ever had an FOBT to screen for colorectal cancer?” Response options were “yes,” “no,” or “I don’t know.” Participants who answered “yes” were categorized as attendees, and those who answered “no” or “I don’t know” were categorized as non-attendees.

Sociodemographic characteristics of study participants

Sociodemographic characteristics included sex, age, educational attainment, working status, equivalent household income, marital status, household composition, residential area, personal history of cancer other than CRC, family history of cancer, and history of cancer among friends or acquaintances [12, 19–27]. Educational attainment was categorized as “high” (vocational school, college, technical college, university, or graduate school) or “low” (high school or less). Equivalent household income was calculated by dividing annual household income by the square root of household size and categorized as “high” (>4.5 million JPY), “medium” (2.8–4.5 million JPY), and “low” (<2.8 million JPY).

Statistical analysis

We conducted a weighted analysis to account for the complex sampling design and nonresponse, ensuring accurate population parameter estimates for the Japanese general population. Each participant’s weight was calculated by multiplying the sampling weight and the nonresponse weight. Based on the survey’s sampling strategy, the sampling weight for each participant was the reciprocal of the probability of selection within the stratum. The nonresponse weight was estimated as the reciprocal of the response rate in “nonresponse adjustment cells,” assuming respondents in each cell represented a random sample of all sampled individuals in that cell [28]. We used a search algorithm [29] to create the nonresponse adjustment cells based on the variables of the sampling strata, sex, and age group, resulting in a total of 26 nonresponse adjustment cells [30]. Descriptive and inferential analyses were conducted using the weight consistently. Frequencies of participant characteristics were calculated according to the number of correct answers regarding CRC risk and cancer screening knowledge. Multiple logistic regression models were used to estimate odds ratios (ORs) for CRC screening attendance based on knowledge scores (0–5 for CRC risk factors; 0–3 for cancer screening), adjusting for age, educational attainment, marital status, personal history of cancer other than CRC, and family history of cancer. Knowledge scores were analyzed as both continuous and categorical variables. Participants with missing knowledge data were excluded from the regression

analysis. Confidence intervals (CIs) were estimated using the Taylor series linearization method [31]. All analyses were performed using the *svyset* command in Stata (version 17.0), with 500 census areas as the primary sampling units and 35 sampling strata as the strata variable. All analyses were conducted at a significance level of $\alpha=0.05$ using two-tailed tests.

Results

Tables 1 and 2 present participant characteristics stratified by knowledge scores. Table 1 shows the distribution and weighted proportions of participants by knowledge of CRC risk factors, while Table 2 presents knowledge related to cancer screening. Overall, 70% of participants reported having undergone CRC screening. Among respondents, 36%, 33%, and 31% were aged 40–49, 50–59, and 60–69 years, respectively. Overall, 728 participants (37%) correctly identified all five CRC risk factors. Higher CRC risk knowledge scores were more common among female individuals, younger participants, and those with higher educational attainment and equivalent household income.

For cancer screening knowledge, 295 participants (15%) correctly answered all three questions related to cancer screening knowledge. Higher knowledge scores were more common among CRC screening attendance, those with higher educational attainment, working, greater equivalent household income, and being married.

Table 3 shows a significant positive association between the number of correct answers on CRC risk factors and CRC screening attendance (P for trend < 0.01). Participants who correctly identified specific risk factors, such as insufficient intake of vegetables/fruits (adjusted OR [aOR]: 1.41; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.14–1.76) and lack of exercise (aOR: 1.38; 95% CI: 1.13–1.68), had higher odds of CRC screening attendance.

Table 3 summarizes the association between cancer screening knowledge and CRC screening attendance. A significant positive trend was observed between the number of correct answers on cancer screening knowledge and CRC screening attendance (P for trend < 0.01). Participants who correctly answered the items “Cancer screening can definitively tell that a person has cancer” (aOR: 1.32; 95% CI: 1.05–1.66) and “Every ‘cancer’ detected by cancer screening grows to a life-threatening extent” (aOR: 1.28; 95% CI: 1.04–1.56) were more likely to attend CRC screening than those who answered incorrectly.

Discussion

We examined the associations between knowledge of CRC risk factors, knowledge of cancer screening, and CRC screening attendance using data from a nationwide survey of the Japanese population. Our findings revealed a positive association between knowledge of CRC risk factors and screening attendance. Among nine previous studies investigating this relationship [10, 11, 32–38], seven studies found no association [10, 11, 34–38]. These studies considered non-modifiable factors such as age

Table 1. Sociodemographic Characteristics of Study Participants According to the Knowledge Score Regarding CRC Risk (n=1,966)

Characteristic	Knowledge score regarding CRC risk										Overall (n=1,966) (Weighted %)					
	0 (n=24) (Weighted %)	1 (n=180) (Weighted %)	2 (n=316) (Weighted %)	3 (n=369) (Weighted %)	4 (n=325) (Weighted %)	5 (n=728) (Weighted %)	Missing (n=24) (Weighted %)									
CRC screening attendance	10	44	61	34	109	35	98	28	103	32	186	25	11	45	578	30
Non-attendance																
Sex																
Male	18	77	99	60	171	60	172	53	135	47	292	45	7	35	894	51
Age in years																
40-49	5	27	43	26	88	32	117	36	119	40	263	40	6	28	641	36
50-59	7	26	67	38	109	35	114	31	109	34	230	31	8	35	644	33
60-69	12	47	70	35	119	33	138	33	97	26	235	29	10	37	681	31
Educational attainment																
Low	14	55	87	48	162	51	156	42	123	37	241	33	14	59	797	40
Working status																
Not working	6	24	39	20	76	21	98	24	66	18	160	20	6	23	451	21
Equivalent household income																
Low	13	50	60	32	113	36	132	35	120	36	198	27	9	36	645	32
Marital status																
Not married	8	35	34	19	58	19	78	21	76	23	162	22	12	49	428	22
Household composition																
None	5	24	19	11	20	6	32	9	32	10	68	9	6	27	182	9
Residential area																
21 major cities	5	20	45	24	81	25	98	26	101	31	238	32	7	31	575	29
History of cancer other than CRC																
No	21	89	163	91	299	95	338	92	305	94	667	92	20	85	1,813	93
Family history of cancer																
No	10	44	63	35	114	37	137	38	117	37	258	36	12	51	711	37
History of cancer among friends or acquaintances																
No	8	35	50	29	91	30	103	30	89	27	204	29	10	43	555	29

Analyses were restricted to participants aged 40-69 years from the INFORM Study 2020. Values are presented as prevalence estimates, expressed as percentages adjusted for survey weights. Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.

Table 3. Association between the Knowledge Score and CRC Screening Attendance: Logistic Regression Results (n=1,966)

	Non attendance (n=578)		Attendance (n=1,388)		OR	(95% CI)	P value	AOR **	(95% CI)	P value
	n	(Weighted %)*	n	(Weighted %)*						
Knowledge score regarding CRC risk										
0	10	44	14	56	1	(Ref.)		1	(Ref.)	
1	61	34	119	66	1.5	(0.63-3.59)	0.36	1.31	(0.53-3.20)	0.56
2	109	35	207	65	1.46	(0.64-3.37)	0.37	1.35	(0.57-3.22)	0.5
3	98	28	271	72	2.05	(0.88-4.76)	0.1	1.89	(0.80-4.48)	0.15
4	103	32	222	68	1.68	(0.72-3.94)	0.23	1.59	(0.66-3.82)	0.3
5	186	25	542	75	2.31	(0.99-5.37)	0.052	2.15	(0.90-5.13)	0.09
Knowledge score regarding cancer screening										
0	152	35	283	65	1	(Ref.)		1	(Ref.)	
1	191	30	454	70	1.27	(0.98-1.64)	0.07	1.35	(1.05-1.75)	0.02
2	163	29	413	71	1.3	(1.004-1.69)	0.047	1.3	(0.99-1.70)	0.06
3	67	24	228	76	1.73	(1.23-2.42)	<0.01	1.76	(1.24-2.49)	<0.01
Knowledge score regarding CRC risk										
					OR when knowledge score was treated as a continuous variable ***		P for linear trend	AOR when knowledge score was treated as a continuous variable ***		P for linear trend
					1.12	(1.05-1.21)	<0.01	1.13	(1.05-1.22)	<0.01
					1.17	(1.06-1.29)	<0.01	1.16	(1.05-1.29)	<0.01

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; AOR, adjusted odds ratio; Missing values of knowledge score regarding CRC risk (n=24) and knowledge score regarding cancer screening (n=15) were excluded from the analysis; *Values are presented as prevalence estimates, expressed as percentages adjusted for survey weights. Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding; ** Adjusted for age, educational attainment, marital status, personal history of cancer other than CRC, and family history of cancer; *** P values for linear trends were calculated by treating knowledge scores as continuous variables.

and family history of CRC, which may be less effective in promoting behavior change compared with modifiable risk factors. Such discrepancies highlight the potential role of awareness of modifiable risks in encouraging screening participation.

Knowledge of cancer screening covering certainty about screening, potential disadvantages, and cancer prognosis was positively associated with CRC screening participation. This finding is consistent with the health belief model, suggesting that knowledge of cancer screening may be linked to higher perceived benefits and greater participation [8, 9]. However, accurate knowledge of potential disadvantages (e.g., “Cancer screening can cause additional physical burden depending on further testing”) was not associated with screening attendance. Respondents who endorsed this item may have been considering the discomfort of diagnostic colonoscopy or potential complications (e.g., perforation), although this interpretation remains speculative. Previous research indicates that individuals without prior colonoscopy experience may overestimate the risks of complications [39]. Public education on CRC should therefore focus not only on disseminating information, but also on providing effective risk–benefit communication.

The primary strength of this study is its novelty, being the first population-based survey in Japan to examine the relationships between knowledge of CRC risk factors, knowledge of cancer screening, and screening attendance. However, several limitations should be noted. First, the cross-sectional design precludes causal inference. Using lifetime CRC screening as the outcome limits temporal interpretation, and reverse causation, cannot be excluded, as individuals who underwent screening may have subsequently acquired knowledge of CRC risk and screening. Nonetheless, intervention studies indicate that educational programs can increase screening uptake [40]. Second, data collection occurred during the corona virus disease 2019 pandemic, which may have influenced screening behaviors and levels of knowledge. National data indicated a 13% decline in CRC screening rates in fiscal year (FY) 2020 compared with FY2017–2019 [41]. As a result, screening attendance observed in this study may not represent usual patterns, and the direction and magnitude of the pandemic’s influence on both knowledge and screening behavior cannot be determined. Therefore, the findings should be interpreted with caution due to potential temporal confounding. Third, the response rate was relatively low (37%), which may have led to participation being skewed toward more health-conscious individuals, potentially resulting in overestimation of both knowledge levels and screening participation. Although we conducted a sensitivity analysis excluding healthcare workers (n = 123), a group presumed to be more health-conscious and knowledgeable, selection bias related to unmeasured factors cannot be fully ruled out. In our results, association between knowledge levels and screening participation may be affected by this bias, although the degree of its impact is unknown. Further studies with higher response rate are desirable.

Our findings underscore the importance of disseminating accurate information about CRC risk and

screening to support informed decision-making [42]. Future initiatives should prioritize targeted educational programs that equip healthcare providers to guide individuals in weighing the risks and benefits of screening.

In conclusion, this nationwide Japanese survey identified positive associations between knowledge of CRC risk factors, knowledge of cancer screening, and CRC screening attendance. These findings highlight the importance of disseminating accurate information to the Japanese population, although further prospective studies are needed to further examine the relevance.

Author Contribution Statement

OW, NN, KN, TS, AH: Conceptualization, study planning, methodology, data curation; OW, NN, KN, TS, AK: Formal analysis; OW, NN, KN, YK, AO, JS, AY-S, AK, MF, TS, AH: Drafting and revising the manuscript; TS, AH: Supervision.

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Approval

This work forms part of the author’s doctoral dissertation.

Ethical Declarations

The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Tohoku University Tohoku Medical Megabank Organization (2024-4-003) and the Research Ethics Committee of National Cancer Center (2019-290). This study employed a self-administered postal questionnaire survey. The mailing envelope contained a written document describing the study’s aims, procedures,

and ethical considerations, along with the questionnaire. The questionnaire included a statement requesting consent to participate in the study. Participation was entirely voluntary, and informed consent was obtained by asking respondents to indicate their consent by checking a designated box on the questionnaire and returning it anonymously by mail.

Data Availability

Data are not publicly available; anonymized data may be shared upon approval by the INFORM study group and the institutional review board. Proposals should be submitted to the corresponding author, Atsushi Hozawa, Taichi Shimazu.

Study Registration

This study was not subject to clinical trial or systematic review registration requirements.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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