

NIH Public Access

Author Manuscript

J Community Health. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2012 August 1.

Published in final edited form as:

J Community Health. 2011 August ; 36(4): 605–611. doi:10.1007/s10900-010-9348-0.

Colorectal Cancer Screening Among Primary Care Patients: Does Risk Affect Screening Behavior?

Christina B. Felsen,

Department of Family Medicine and Community Health, University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey (UMDNJ)-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, 1 World's Fair Drive, Suite 1500, Somerset, NJ 08873, USA

Alicja Piasecki,

Department of Family Medicine and Community Health, University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey (UMDNJ)-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, 1 World's Fair Drive, Suite 1500, Somerset, NJ 08873, USA

Jeanne M. Ferrante,

Department of Family Medicine and Community Health, University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey (UMDNJ)-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, 1 World's Fair Drive, Suite 1500, Somerset, NJ 08873, USA. The Cancer Institute of New Jersey, UMDNJ-RWJMS, New Brunswick, NJ, USA. Department of Family Medicine, UMDNJ-New Jersey Medical School, Newark, NJ, USA

Pamela A. Ohman-Strickland, and

Department of Family Medicine and Community Health, University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey (UMDNJ)-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, 1 World's Fair Drive, Suite 1500, Somerset, NJ 08873, USA. Department of Epidemiology, UMDNJ-School of Public Health, Piscataway, NJ, USA

Benjamin F. Crabtree

Department of Family Medicine and Community Health, University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey (UMDNJ)-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, 1 World's Fair Drive, Suite 1500, Somerset, NJ 08873, USA. The Cancer Institute of New Jersey, UMDNJ-RWJMS, New Brunswick, NJ, USA

Christina B. Felsen: cbf_37@hotmail.com

Abstract

Lifestyle factors including smoking, obesity, and diabetes can increase colorectal cancer (CRC) risk. Controversy exists regarding screening rates in individuals at increased CRC risk. To examine the effect of risk on CRC screening in primary care, cross-sectional data collected during January 2006–July 2007 from 720 participants in 24 New Jersey primary care practices were analyzed. Participants were stratified by risk: high (personal/family history of CRC, history of polyps, inflammatory bowel disease), increased (obesity, Type II diabetes, current/former smokers), and average. Outcomes were up-to-date with CRC screening, receiving a physician recommendation for screening, and recommendation adherence. Chi-square and generalized linear modeling were used to determine the effect of independent variables on risk group and risk group on outcomes. Thirty-seven percent of participants were high-risk, 46% increased-risk, and 17%

Correspondence to: Christina B. Felsen, cbf_37@hotmail.com.

[©] Springer Science+Business Media, LLC 2010

Conflict of Interest The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

average-risk. Age, race, insurance, education, and health status were related to risk. High-risk participants had increased odds of being up-to-date with screening (OR 3.14 95% CI 1.85–5.32) and adhering to physician recommendation (OR 7.18 95% CI 3.58–14.4) compared to average-risk. Increased-risk participants had 32% decreased odds of screening (OR 0.68, 95% CI 0.42–1.08). Low screening rates among increased-risk individuals highlight the need for screening interventions targeting these patients.

Keywords

Colorectal cancer; Cancer screening; Primary care; Risk factors; Physician recommendation; Recommendation adherence

Introduction

Colorectal cancer (CRC) remains the third most common cancer in the US [1–4] with an estimated 49,920 CRC deaths occurring in 2009 [1]. CRC has a 90% 5-year survival rate when detected and treated at a localized stage [1, 5, 6], however, fewer than 40% of cases are detected early [1]. Screening guidelines recommend that average-risk individuals initiate CRC screening at age 50 [1, 7], while high-risk individuals should obtain screening earlier [1, 4]. CRC screening rates remain low in the average-risk population [7–12] due to confusion over testing modalities [4, 8, 13], fear of embarrassment or discomfort [10, 13–18], or lack of physician recommendation [10, 16, 18–20].

Individuals with a personal or family history of CRC [1, 16, 21], history of polyps [1, 4], Crohn's disease [22–24], or ulcerative colitis [22] are at high risk for CRC. This population tends to adhere to CRC screening guidelines at a higher rate than average-risk individuals. For example, rates of compliance with sigmoidoscopy and colonoscopy ranging from 56 to 80% [16, 25] have been reported in individuals with hereditary genetic CRC syndrome or a family history of CRC. These rates are much higher than the CRC screening rate of 45.6% reported in 2004 for the general population [7].

Certain lifestyle factors including smoking, obesity, and Type II diabetes may increase CRC risk. A body mass index (BMI) of 30 or greater has been linked to increased CRC mortality [26] and Larsen et al. [27] found a dose–response relationship between BMI and CRC incidence [27]. A dose–response relationship also exists between HbA1c level and CRC [28]. Seow et al. [29] found that diabetics have a 50% higher CRC risk than non-diabetics, although others suggest this relationship exists in women only [30]. Both duration of smoking [31] and number of cigarettes smoked per day [27] have been found to be positively associated with CRC incidence.

The rate at which diabetics, smokers and the obese obtain CRC screening relative to the general population remains unclear. Many studies show that smokers are less likely to obtain screening than non-smokers [6, 12, 19, 27, 32–34], but others show higher screening rates in both former [8, 35, 36] and current smokers [36]. Obese women may be less likely to obtain screening than normal-weight women [5, 37]. Ferrante et al. [37] reported 25% decreased odds of screening in obese patients when compared to normal-weight patients. However, other findings suggest that CRC screening is not affected by weight [38] and that overweight and moderately obese individuals are more likely to obtain screening by sigmoidoscopy [39]. Zhao et al. [40] found that a significantly higher proportion of diabetic women than non-diabetic women had undergone CRC screening in 2006. This is in contrast to other studies reporting decreased rates of CRC screening in diabetic women [41].

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of risk on CRC screening in primary care patients. To our knowledge, this is one of the first studies to compare CRC screening rates among community primary care patients at various risk levels. We aim to add to the existing knowledge of screening practices in high-risk individuals while exploring screening adherence and physician recommendation in patients that are at increased CRC risk due to obesity, diabetes or smoking status. Further knowledge of the screening behaviors of primary care patients at all risk levels can inform the application of CRC screening interventions in a more effective way.

Methods

Study Sample

We analyzed baseline, cross-sectional patient survey and medical record data collected during January 2006 to July 2007, as part of a quality improvement intervention study, Supporting Colorectal Outcomes through Participatory Enhancements (SCOPE). Twentyfour family and internal medicine practices were recruited to participate from the New Jersey Primary Care Research Network. Each participating practice provided written, informed consent, as did all participants. The University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School Institutional Review Board approved this study.

Research assistants approached consecutive patients as they entered each practice, with the goal of enrolling 30 participants [42]. Eligible patients were 50 or older, had at least one prior visit in the practice, and could read/write in English or Spanish. Participants completed a self-administered paper survey that included questions on demographics, risk factors, cancer screening dates, self-rated health and satisfaction with care. Participants also agreed to a one-time review of their medical record by a research nurse in order to verify cancer screening dates and abstract additional data. Abstracted data included patient weight, number of clinical visits in the past 2 years, physician recommendation for cancer screening, and presence of comorbidities. Data were collected by three participant recruiters and three research nurses, all of whom were trained in standardized data collection techniques.

Risk Stratification

Participants were divided into three risk groups based on survey and medical record data: (1) high-risk (Crohn's disease and/or ulcerative colitis, history of polyps, and/or personal/family history of CRC), (2) increased-risk (diabetes, obesity, and/or former or current smoking status), and (3) average-risk (50 or older with no other risk factor). BMI was calculated by dividing participants' weight in kilograms by height in meters squared. Obesity was defined as BMI greater than or equal to 30.0 [43]. Weight was obtained from participants diabetic status was determined using medical record data only. All other risk factors were considered to be present if they were noted in the medical record or were self-reported by the participant on the paper survey.

Outcome Measures

Outcome measures included up-to-date with CRC screening, receipt of physician recommendation for CRC screening, and adherence to physician recommendation.

CRC Screening

Participants were considered to have received screening if the month and year of a CRCspecific screening test were documented in their medical record. Average and increased-risk participants were considered up-to-date with CRC screening if colonoscopy in the past 10

years, sigmoidoscopy in the past 5 years, or fecal occult blood test (FOBT) in the past year was documented in their medical record [1, 7]. Participants with Crohn's disease or ulcerative colitis were considered up-to-date with screening if they had a colonoscopy or sigmoidoscopy documented within the past 2 years or FOBT documented within the past year [4]. The rest of the high-risk group (participants with a family/personal history of CRC) was considered to be up-to-date with screening if they had a colonoscopy or sigmoidoscopy documented within the past 5 years or FOBT in the past year [4]. Participants that had CRC at the time of enrollment into the study were excluded from this analysis.

Physician Recommendation for Screening

Participants who had received an FOBT, colonoscopy or sigmoidoscopy within the screening guidelines recommended for their risk level were considered to have received a recommendation for screening [44]. In addition, participants who were never screened or were not up-to-date with screening were considered recommended for screening if there was evidence of physician recommendation in the medical record. Patient adherence to physician recommendation was defined as the proportion of patients receiving physician recommendation who were up-to-date with screening guidelines.

Independent Variables

The main independent variable of interest when determining CRC screening rates was risk group (high, increased, or average). Potential confounding variables included age, gender, race/ethnicity (Black, Hispanic, White, other), health insurance (Medicare, Medicaid, commercial, none/unknown), education level (some high school or lower, high school diploma/some college, college or higher), marital status (single, married, divorced, widowed/other), self-rated health (excellent, very good, fair/poor), and number of clinical visits in the past 2 years.

Statistical Analysis

A binary variable was created to indicate whether participants were up-to-date with CRC screening (0 = no, 1 = yes). Similar binary variables were created to indicate if participants had received a physician recommendation for screening and if they were adherent to the received recommendation. CRC screening rates were calculated for each risk group based on the CRC screening intervals defined above. The effect of potential confounding variables on screening was evaluated for all participants and was also compared between risk groups. Chi-square tests were used to evaluate the effect of each independent variable on risk group. Generalized estimating equations were used, assuming a logit link, and the binomial distribution to model the outcome variables. Unadjusted modeling was performed to determine the prevalence of the outcome variables by CRC risk group. An adjusted model using score tests to evaluate the effect of risk group and other independent variables on CRC outcomes was also performed. Potential confounding variables were controlled for and clustering of patients within practices was accounted for. Adjusted odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated based on the regression parameter estimates. All statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.2 for Windows [45].

Results

Participant demographics at baseline are summarized in Table 1. Approximately 37% of participants were considered to be high-risk (n = 267, 37.1%) with 328 (45.6%) and 125 (17.4%) comprising the increased and average-risk groups, respectively. Age group, race/ ethnicity, insurance, education level and self-rated health status were significantly associated with risk group (Table 1).

The unadjusted prevalence of being up-to-date with CRC screening, receiving a physician recommendation for screening, and adhering to a physician recommendation for screening is presented in Table 2. Forty-four percent of all participants were up-to-date with CRC screening. All three outcome variables were significantly associated with risk group. Thirty-one percent of increased-risk participants were up-to-date with CRC screening as compared to 41% of average-risk and 63% of high-risk participants. Of the 454 participants that received a physician recommendation for screening, approximately 71% were adherent to the recommendation. Increased-risk participants were the least likely to receive a physician recommendation for screening recommendation if received.

Adjusted odds ratios for being up-to-date with CRC screening, receiving a physician recommendation for screening, and adhering to a physician recommendation for screening by risk group are presented in Table 3. High-risk participants had more than three times the odds of being up-to-date with CRC screening and more than seven times the odds of adhering to a physician recommendation for screening when compared to average-risk participants. Participants in the increased risk group had 32% decreased odds of screening relative to those at average-risk, although this difference was not statistically significant (P = 0.10, 95% CI 0.42–1.08) Increased-risk participants also had 35% decreased odds of receiving a physician recommendation for screening and 20% decreased odds for adhering to a physician recommendation for screening and 20% decreased odds for adhering to a physician recommendation for screening and 20% decreased odds for adhering to a physician recommendation for screening and 20% decreased odds for adhering to a physician recommendation for screening when compared to average-risk participants, although again these results were not statistically significant (P = 0.08 95% CI 0.40–1.06; P = 0.12 95% CI 0.46–1.42).

Discussion

To our knowledge, this is one of the first studies to compare CRC screening rates among community primary care patients with differing risk levels. Our findings add to the evidence that patients who are at increased CRC risk due to obesity, diabetes, and smoking are undergoing CRC screening at lower rates than high- or average-risk patients. Increased-risk patients were the least likely to be screened for CRC, to have received a physician recommendation for screening, and to adhere to physician recommendations. Similar to previous findings, high-risk participants were most likely to be up-to-date with CRC screening, receive a physician recommendation for screening, and adhere to this recommendation [25, 46].

The increased rate of CRC screening and physician recommendation for screening in highrisk participants is likely due to increased CRC knowledge and perceived risk in this group. High-risk individuals, particularly those with a family history, may be more likely to initiate screening discussions with their primary care physician because their family member's condition has heightened their awareness of CRC, their increased risk, and the need for screening. In addition, physicians are more likely to recommend screening to these individuals [46] and physician recommendation has been shown to be a highly significant predictor of screening behavior in the high-risk [47, 48].

The screening rate in our increased-risk population (31%) is the same or lower than rates previously reported for diabetics, the obese, and/or current smokers [5, 40, 49]. Increased-risk status was not a statistically significant independent predictor of screening status. However, the low percentage of increased-risk patients who were up-to-date with screening guidelines is worrisome in light of the increasing body of evidence that suggests that lifestyle factors such as obesity [26, 27] and Type II diabetes [28, 29] can play a significant role in CRC incidence and mortality. Reasons increased-risk patients do not obtain CRC screening include fear of embarrassment and discomfort, specifically in the case of the obese [37] and low adherence to preventive health behaviors in general [12, 19, 34]. Increased-risk

patients may not be aware that lifestyle choices can elevate CRC risk and may not view CRC screening as a priority, especially if they are already managing multiple health concerns.

Equally worrisome is the low rate of physician recommendation in the increased-risk group which may be due to physicians' focus on management of chronic conditions or more pressing acute concerns [17, 20, 37] rather than preventive care during the limited timeframe of a primary care visit. In addition, physicians may not be aware of the recent research linking certain lifestyle behaviors to increased CRC risk or may be unsure how to translate this research into clinical application for increased-risk patients since the current national screening guidelines do not address this population specifically. Development of guidelines that specifically target this population for CRC screening may become necessary as the incidence of diabetes [50, 51] and obesity [52, 53] continues to rise, therefore increasing the number of patients at increased risk for CRC. CRC screening interventions in primary care should include educational components that target both increased-risk patients and the physicians that treat them, and highlight the role lifestyle plays in the development of CRC.

Several limitations to our analysis should be considered. Firstly, the small sample size and lack of diversity in our sample limits our ability to generalize our findings. Participants in this analysis were mainly White, highly educated and had a commercial insurance plan and may therefore not be representative of the majority of primary care patients. The reliance solely on patient medical record data to determine screening status may have led to an underestimation of screening rates. While screening data obtained from medical records is generally considered to be more accurate than self-reported data [54, 55], it's probable that some patients received screening but that their medical record audit. This is especially likely for colonoscopies and sigmoidoscopies, which are typically performed by specialists. There is no reason, however, to suspect that this under-documentation of screening would differ by participant risk group. Finally, we did not differentiate between CRC testing done for screening rates. This is especially likely for the high-risk group which would be more likely to obtain tests for diagnostic rather than screening purposes.

Conclusion

Our findings highlight the need for continued CRC screening education for both primary care patients and physicians. In particular, education and intervention efforts should be focused on patients that have diabetes, are obese, or are former/current smokers. This population represents a sub-group of patients who are obtaining CRC screening at a rate lower than the average-risk population. Significant reductions in CRC incidence and mortality might be possible by providing targeted screening interventions to increased-risk individuals and by educating physicians on the importance of recommending screening to these patients even in the face of multiple competing demands.

Acknowledgments

We are indebted to all of the participants who agreed to take part in the study, as well as the clinicians and staff members of each participating practice. We thank the New Jersey Primary Care Research Network, the SCOPE research team, and all of the SCOPE participant recruiters and research nurses. Finally, we thank the National Cancer Institute for funding this research. This manuscript is comprised of data arising from the Supporting Colorectal Outcomes through Participatory Enhancements (SCOPE) study, which is funded by the National Cancer Institute (1R01CA112387-01).

References

- 1. American Cancer Society. Cancer facts and figures 2009. Atlanta: American Cancer Society; 2009.
- Ananthakrishnan AN, Schellhase KG, Sparapani RA, Laud PW, Neuner JM. Disparities in colon cancer screening in the medicare population. Archives of Internal Medicine. 2007; 167(3):258–264. [PubMed: 17296881]
- Espey DK, Wu XC, Swan J, et al. Annual report to the nation on the status of cancer, 1975–2004, featuring cancer in American Indians and Alaska Natives. Cancer. 2007; 110(10):2119–2152. [PubMed: 17939129]
- 4. Levin B, Lieberman DA, McFarland B, et al. Screening and surveillance for the early detection of colorectal cancer and adenomatous polyps, 2008: A joint guideline from the American cancer society, the US multi-society task force on colorectal cancer, and the American college of radiology. CA: a Cancer Journal for Clinicians. 2008; 58(3):130–160. [PubMed: 18322143]
- Rosen AB, Schneider EC. Colorectal cancer screening disparities related to obesity and gender. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2004; 19(4):332–338. [PubMed: 15061742]
- Straus WL, Mansley EC, Gold KF, Wang Q, Reddy P, Pashos CL. Colorectal cancer screening attitudes and practices in the general population: A risk-adjusted survey. Journal of Public Health Management and Practice. 2005; 11(3):244–251. [PubMed: 15829838]
- Smith RA, Cokkinides V, Eyre HJ. Cancer screening in the United States, 2007: A review of current guidelines, practices, and prospects. CA: a Cancer Journal for Clinicians. 2007; 57(2):90–104. [PubMed: 17392386]
- Meissner HI, Breen N, Klabunde CN, Vernon SW. Patterns of colorectal cancer screening uptake among men and women in the United States. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention. 2006; 15(2):389–394.
- Rothenberger DA, Dalberg DL, Leininger A. Minnesota colorectal cancer initiative: Successful development and implementation of a community-based colorectal cancer registry. Diseases of the Colon and Rectum. 2004; 47(10):1571–1577. [PubMed: 15540283]
- Seeff LC, Nadel MR, Klabunde CN, et al. Patterns and predictors of colorectal cancer test use in the adult U.S. population. Cancer. 2004; 100(10):2093–2103. [PubMed: 15139050]
- Subramanian S, Amonkar MM, Hunt TL. Use of colonoscopy for colorectal cancer screening: Evidence from the 2000 national health interview survey. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention. 2005; 14(2):409–416.
- Tabbarah M, Nowalk MP, Raymund M, Jewell IK, Zimmerman RK. Barriers and facilitators of colon cancer screening among patients at faith-based neighborhood health centers. Journal of Community Health. 2005; 30(1):55–74. [PubMed: 15751599]
- Shokar NK, Vernon SW, Weller SC. Cancer and colorectal cancer: Knowledge, beliefs, and screening preferences of a diverse patient population. Family Medicine. 2005; 37(5):341–347. [PubMed: 15883900]
- Janz NK, Lakhani I, Vijan S, Hawley ST, Chung LK, Katz SJ. Determinants of colorectal cancer screening use, attempts, and non-use. Preventive Medicine. 2007; 44(5):452–458. [PubMed: 17196247]
- Janz NK, Wren PA, Schottenfeld D, Guire KE. Colorectal cancer screening attitudes and behavior: A population-based study. Preventive Medicine. 2003; 37(6 Pt 1):627–634. [PubMed: 14636796]
- Bleiker EM, Menko FH, Taal BG, et al. Screening behavior of individuals at high risk for colorectal cancer. Gastroenterology. 2005; 128(2):280–287. [PubMed: 15685539]
- Denberg TD, Melhado TV, Coombes JM, et al. Predictors of nonadherence to screening colonoscopy. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2005; 20(11):989–995. [PubMed: 16307622]
- Wee CC, McCarthy EP, Phillips RS. Factors associated with colon cancer screening: The role of patient factors and physician counseling. Preventive Medicine. 2005; 41(1):23–29. [PubMed: 15916989]
- Gilbert A, Kanarek N. Colorectal cancer screening: Physician recommendation is influential advice to Marylanders. Preventive Medicine. 2005; 41(2):367–379. [PubMed: 15917034]

- Lasser KE, Ayanian JZ, Fletcher RH, Good MJ. Barriers to colorectal cancer screening in community health centers: A qualitative study. BMC Family Practice. 2008; 9:15. [PubMed: 18304342]
- Bujanda L, Sarasqueta C, Zubiaurre L, et al. Low adherence to colonoscopy in the screening of first-degree relatives of patients with colorectal cancer. Gut. 2007; 56(12):1714–1718. [PubMed: 17400596]
- 22. Bernstein CN, Blanchard JF, Kliewer E, Wajda A. Cancer risk in patients with inflammatory bowel disease: A population-based study. Cancer. 2001; 91(4):854–862. [PubMed: 11241255]
- Jess T, Loftus EV Jr, Velayos FS, et al. Risk of intestinal cancer in inflammatory bowel disease: A population-based study from olmsted county, Minnesota. Gastroenterology. 2006; 130(4):1039– 1046. [PubMed: 16618397]
- 24. Yano Y, Matsui T, Uno H, Hirai F, Futami K, Iwashita A. Risks and clinical features of colorectal cancer complicating Crohn's disease in Japanese patients. Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology. 2008; 23(11):1683–1688. [PubMed: 18752557]
- Kinney AY, Choi YA, DeVellis B, Kobetz E, Millikan RC, Sandler RS. Interest in genetic testing among first-degree relatives of colorectal cancer patients. American Journal of Preventive Medicine. 2000; 18(3):249–252. [PubMed: 10722992]
- Calle EE, Rodriguez C, Walker-Thurmond K, Thun MJ. Overweight, obesity, and mortality from cancer in a prospectively studied cohort of U.S. adults. New England Journal of Medicine. 2003; 348(17):1625–1638. [PubMed: 12711737]
- 27. Larsen IK, Grotmol T, Almendingen K, Hoff G. Lifestyle as a predictor for colonic neoplasia in asymptomatic individuals. BMC Gastroenterology. 2006; 6:5. [PubMed: 16412216]
- 28. Khaw KT, Wareham N, Bingham S, Luben R, Welch A, Day N. Preliminary communication: Glycated hemoglobin, diabetes, and incident colorectal cancer in men and women: A prospective analysis from the European prospective investigation into cancer-Norfolk study. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention. 2004; 13(6):915–919.
- Seow A, Yuan JM, Koh WP, Lee HP, Yu MC. Diabetes mellitus and risk of colorectal cancer in the Singapore Chinese Health Study. Journal of the National Cancer Institute. 2006; 98(2):135– 138. [PubMed: 16418516]
- Nilsen TI, Vatten LJ. Prospective study of colorectal cancer risk and physical activity, diabetes, blood glucose and BMI: Exploring the hyperinsulinaemia hypothesis. British Journal of Cancer. 2001; 84(3):417–422. [PubMed: 11161410]
- 31. Otani T, Iwasaki M, Yamamoto S, et al. Alcohol consumption, smoking, and subsequent risk of colorectal cancer in middle-aged and elderly Japanese men and women: Japan public health center-based prospective study. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention. 2003; 12(12): 1492–1500.
- Carlos RC, Underwood W 3rd, Fendrick AM, Bernstein SJ. Behavioral associations between prostate and colon cancer screening. Journal of the American College of Surgeons. 2005; 200(2): 216–223. [PubMed: 15664097]
- Ford ME, Havstad SL, Fields ME, Manigo B, McClary B, Lamerato L. Effects of baseline comorbidities on cancer screening trial adherence among older African American men. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention. 2008; 17(5):1234–1239.
- Zimmerman RK, Tabbarah M, Trauth J, Nowalk MP, Ricci EM. Predictors of lower endoscopy use among patients at three inner-city neighborhood health centers. Journal of Urban Health. 2006; 83(2):221–230. [PubMed: 16736371]
- Schumacher MC, Slattery ML, Lanier AP, et al. Prevalence and predictors of cancer screening among American Indian and Alaska native people: The EARTH study. Cancer Causes and Control. 2008; 19(7):725–737. [PubMed: 18307048]
- Sewitch MJ, Fournier C, Ciampi A, Dyachenko A. Adherence to colorectal cancer screening guidelines in Canada. BMC Gastroenterology. 2007; 7:39. [PubMed: 17910769]
- Ferrante JM, Ohman-Strickland P, Hudson SV, Hahn KA, Scott JG, Crabtree BF. Colorectal cancer screening among obese versus non-obese patients in primary care practices. Cancer Detection and Prevention. 2006; 30(5):459–465. [PubMed: 17067753]

- 39. Heo M, Allison DB, Fontaine KR. Overweight, obesity, and colorectal cancer screening: Disparity between men and women. BMC Public Health. 2004; 4:53. [PubMed: 15533259]
- Zhao G, Ford ES, Ahluwalia IB, Li C, Mokdad AH. Prevalence and trends of receipt of cancer screenings among US women with diagnosed diabetes. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2009; 24(2):270–275. [PubMed: 19089511]
- 41. McBean AM, Yu X. The underuse of screening services among elderly women with diabetes. Diabetes Care. 2007; 30(6):1466–1472. [PubMed: 17351285]
- Felsen CB, Shaw EK, Ferrante JM, Lacroix LJ, Crabtree BF. Strategies for in-person recruitment: Lessons learned from a New Jersey primary care research network (NJPCRN) study. Journal of the American Board of Family Medicine. 2010; 23(4):523–533. [PubMed: 20616295]
- 43. World Health Organization. BMI classification. 2010. [updated 2 Dec 2010; cited 2009 7 Oct 2009]; Available from: http://www.apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp?introPage=intro_3.html
- Ferrante JM, Chen PH, Crabtree BF, Wartenberg D. Cancer screening in women: Body mass index and adherence to physician recommendations. American Journal of Preventive Medicine. 2007; 32(6):525–531. [PubMed: 17533069]
- 45. SAS II. (2002). SAS for Windows 9.2.
- Chao A, Thun MJ, Jacobs EJ, Henley SJ, Rodriguez C, Calle EE. Cigarette smoking and colorectal cancer mortality in the cancer prevention study II. Journal of the National Cancer Institute. 2000; 92(23):1888–1896. [PubMed: 11106680]
- Kinney AY, Hicken B, Simonsen SE, et al. Colorectal cancer surveillance behaviors among members of typical and attenuated FAP families. American Journal of Gastroenterology. 2007; 102:153–162. [PubMed: 17266693]
- Manne S, Markowitz A, Winawer S, et al. Correlates of colorectal cancer screening compliance and stage of adoption among siblings of individuals with early onset colorectal cancer. Health Psychology. 2002; 21(1):3–15. [PubMed: 11846342]
- Cokkinides VE, Chao A, Smith RA, Vernon SW, Thun MJ. Correlates of underutilization of colorectal cancer screening among U.S. adults, age 50 years and older. Preventive Medicine. 2003; 36(1):85–91. [PubMed: 12473428]
- Fox CS, Muntner P. Trends in diabetes, high cholesterol, and hypertension in chronic kidney disease among US adults: 1988–1994 to 1999–2004. Diabetes Care. 2008; 31(7):1337–1342. [PubMed: 18436617]
- Ong KL, Cheung BM, Wong LY, Wat NM, Tan KC, Lam KS. Prevalence, treatment, and control of diagnosed diabetes in the US national health and nutrition examination survey 1999–2004. Annals of Epidemiology. 2008; 18(3):222–229. [PubMed: 18201902]
- 52. Flegal KM, Carroll MD, Ogden CL, Curtin LR. Prevalence and trends in obesity among US adults, 1999–2008. JAMA. 2010; 303(3):235–241. [PubMed: 20071471]
- 53. Stewart ST, Cutler DM, Rosen AB. Forecasting the effects of obesity and smoking on US life expectancy. New England Journal of Medicine. 2009; 361(23):2252–2260. [PubMed: 19955525]
- Ferrante JM, Ohman-Strickland P, Hahn KA, et al. Self-report versus medical records for assessing cancer-preventive services delivery. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention. 2008; 17(11):2987–2994.
- 55. Tisnado DM, Adams JL, Liu H, et al. What is the concordance between the medical record and patient self-report as data sources for ambulatory care? Medical Care. 2006; 44(2):132–140. [PubMed: 16434912]

Table 1

Characteristics of participants by CRC risk, supporting colorectal outcomes through participatory enhancements (SCOPE), New Jersey, 2006–2007

Total $n = 720$	Average-risk	Increased-risk	High-risk
Number of respondents	125	328	267
Proportion of total sample (%)	17.4	45.6	37.1
Age group (vears)*			
≥50–60	52.8	44.8	35.6
> 60-70	21.6	33.5	32.6
> 70	25.6	21.7	31.8
Gender			
Male	32.0	37.5	43.8
Female	68.0	62.5	56.2
Race/ethnicity*			
White	68.0	64.0	74.9
Black	10.4	21.9	15.7
Hispanic	15.2	9.2	5.6
Other	6.4	4.9	3.8
Insurance*			
Commercial	59.7	48.2	52.3
Medicare	33.1	38.8	41.3
Medicaid	2.4	6.2	4.5
None/unknown	4.8	6.8	1.9
Education [*]			
College or higher	55.2	30.7	44.7
High school diploma or some college	36.8	50.9	48.5
Some high school or lower	8.0	18.4	6.8
General health*			
Excellent	12.0	5.9	8.7
Very good	61.6	52.2	53.4
Fair or poor	26.4	41.9	37.9
Marital status			
Single	7.2	13.2	11.0
Married	68.0	60.1	66.3
Divorced	13.6	10.7	7.9
Widowed/other	11.2	16.0	14.8
Number of clinical visits in the past 2 year	s		
< 5	36.0	35.4	31.1
5-8	33.6	29.9	32.2
9–12	19.2	20.1	21.3
> 12	11.2	14.6	15.4

Felsen et al.

*P < 0.05

NIH-PA Author Manuscript

NIH-PA Author Manuscript

NIH-PA Author Manuscript

Unadjusted prevalence of CRC screening, physician recommendation, and adherence to physician recommendation by CRC risk group, supporting colorectal outcomes through participatory enhancements (SCOPE), New Jersey, 2006-2007

	Total n (%)	Average-risk n (%)	Increased-risk n (%)	High-risk n (%)	P value
n (%)	720 (100)	125 (17.4)	328 (45.6)	267 (37.1)	
Up-to-date with CRC screening	320 (44.4)	51 (40.8)	100(30.5)	169 (63.3)	< .0001
Physician recommendation for CRC screening	454 (63.1)	84 (67.2)	180 (54.9)	190 (71.2)	0.004
Adherence to physician recommendation for CRC screening ^a	320 (70.5)	51 (60.7)	100 (55.6)	169 (88.9)	< .0001

Table 3

Adjusted odds ratios for CRC screening, physician recommendation, and adherence to physician recommendation by CRC risk category, supporting colorectal outcomes through participatory enhancements (SCOPE), New Jersey, 2006–2007

Felsen et al.

	Total <i>n</i>	Average-risk	Increased-risk		High-risk	
		OR	OR (95% CI)	P value	OR (95% CI)	P value
Up-to-date with CRC screening	320	1.00	0.68 (0.42–1.08)	0.10	3.14 (1.85–5.32)	<.0001
Physician recommendation for CRC screening	454	1.00	$0.65\ (0.40{-}1.06)$	0.08	1.41 (0.81–2.46)	0.22
Adherence to physician recommendation for CRC screening	320	1.00	0.80 (0.46–1.42)	0.12	7.18 (3.58–14.4)	<.0001

Adjusted for age, gender, race/ethnicity, insurance, education, general self-rated health status, marital status, and number of clinical visits in the past 2 years