Colorectal Cancer: What Patients Need to Know

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Paul Celano, MD FACP FASCO

Herman & Walter Samuelson Medical Director

Sandra & Malcolm Berman Cancer Institute
Greater Baltimore Medical Center

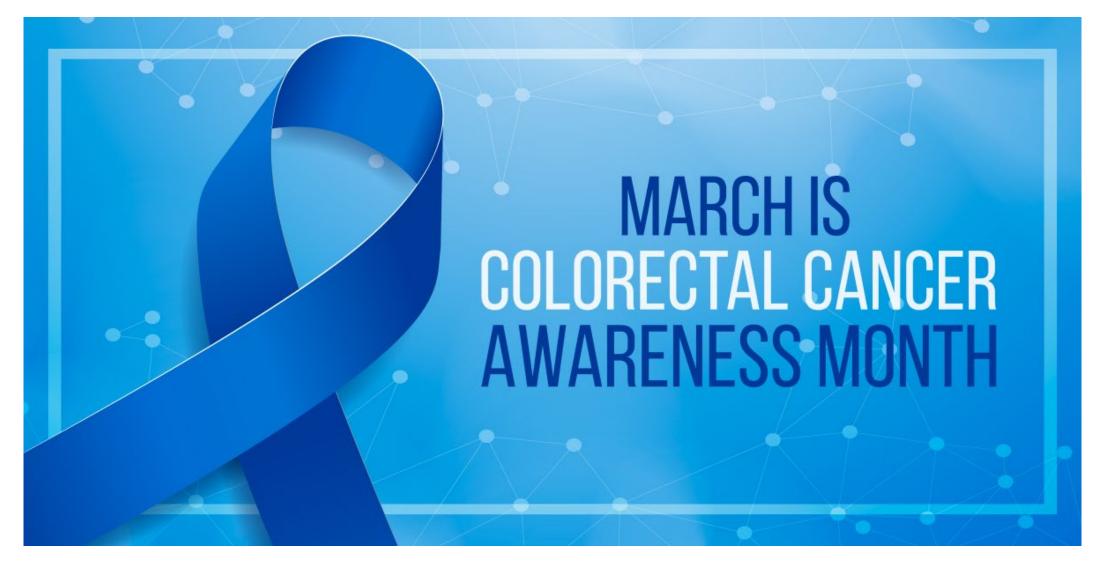
Eden Stotsky-Himelfarb, BS, BSN,RN,ONN-CG

Breast Cancer Program

New Patient and Multidisciplinary Care Nurse Coordinator *Johns Hopkins Sidney Kimmel Comprehensive Cancer Center*











Critical Discussion in Colorectal Cancer

- 1. Statistics
- 2. Risk Factors and Prevention
- 3. What Colorectal Cancer?
- 4. Colorectal Cancer Screening
- 5. Symptoms and Signs
- 6. Diagnosis
- 7. Genetics
- 8. Colorectal Cancer Stages

9. Treatments-

Surgery

Chemotherapy

Targeted Therapy

Immunotherapy

10. Personal Story and Survivorship

Colorectal Cancer Basics

- Colorectal cancer is a growth of cells that forms in the lower end of the digestive tract.
 - -Removing polyps can prevent cancer, screenings for those at high risk or over the age of 45.
- 2. Symptoms might include blood in the stool, abdominal discomfort, change in bowel habits.
- 3. Colorectal cancer treatment depends on the size, location, genetic analysis and stage of cancer.
- 4. Treatments may include surgery, chemotherapy, immunotherapy, targeted therapy and radiation therapy.
- 5. Genetics and Immunology are playing an increasing role.

COLORECTAL CAN

SIGNS &

(many people experience no symptoms)

- . Change in bowel habits, including diarrhoea/ constipation
- · Rectal bleeding or blood in stools
- · Persistent abdominal discomfort (cramps, gas or pain)
- . A feeling that the bowel doesn't empty completely
- · Weakness or fatigue
- · Unexplained weight loss

SYMPTOMS DETECTION IS KEY

The risk for 30% of cancers can be reduced by changing your diet and lifestyle

- · Go for regular colon screening tests such as a colonoscopy as from age 50 - every 10 years
- Some CANSA Care Centres & Mobile Health Clinics countrywide offer faecal occult blood tests (sample of stool collected on end of an applicator to help detect small quantities of blood). Although not always an indication of cancer, positive results require a referral to a doctor





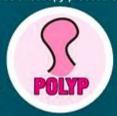






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Most colerectal cancers begin as a POLYP, a small growth of tissue that starts in the lining & grows into the centre of the colon or rectum. Doctors can remove polyps during the colonoscopy procedure





Lifestyle factors that contribute to increase the risk of colorectal cancer:



vegetable intake Lack of regular exercise





Low-fibre & high-fat diet



Alcohol consumption



Being overweight

(obesity)

Insufficient intake of clean safe water

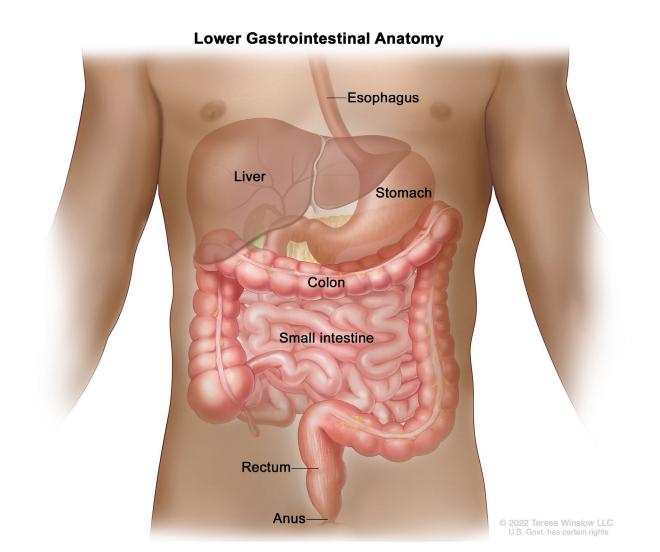


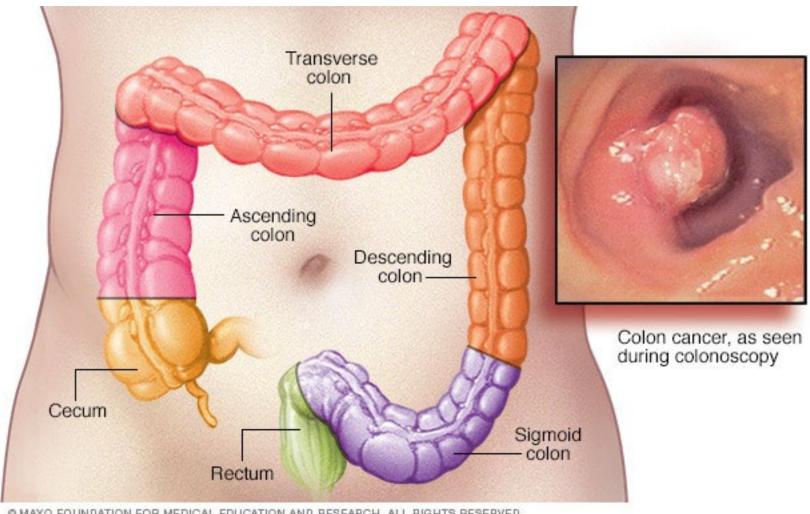
Tobacco

Other risk factors:

- · Inflammatory bowel disease
- · Personal or family history of:
- Colorectal polyps
- Colorectal cancer

Colon cancer is a disease in which malignant (cancer) cells form in the tissues of the colon





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Cancer Statistics 2024

In 2024 there will be a milestone

2 million (2,001,140) new cancers diagnosed in the United States

Cancer mortality has declined continuously from 1991, when the rate peaked, through 2021, **averting 4.1 million deaths** due largely to reductions in smoking, improvements in treatment, and early detection for some cancers.





However, this progress is jeopardized by increasing incidence for many common cancers, including:

breast, prostate, pancreas, uterine corpus, melanoma, liver (female), kidney, HPV-associated oral cancers, colorectal (0-54 years), and cervical (ages 30-44 years)

Colorectal cancer has moved up from the 4th leading cause of cancer death in people younger than 50 in the late 1990s to first in men and second in women (after breast).

Male	•	Fema	Female		
Prostate	299,010	29%	Breast	310,720	32%
Lung & bronchus	116,310	11%	Lung & bronchus	118,270	12%
Colon & rectum	81,540	8%	Colon & rectum	71,270	7%
Colon & rectum Urinary bladder Melanoma of the skin Kidney & renal pelvis Non-Hodgkin lymphoma Oral cavity & pharynx Leukemia	63,070	6%	Uterine corpus	67,880	7%
Melanoma of the skin	59,170	6%	Melanoma of the skin	41,470	4%
Kidney & renal pelvis	52,380	5%	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	36,030	4%
Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	44,590	4%	Pancreas	31,910	3%
Oral cavity & pharynx	41,510	496	Thyroid	31,520	3%
Leukemia	36,450	4%	Kidney & renal pelvis	29,230	3%
Pancreas	34,530	3%	Leukemia	26,320	3%
All sites	1,029,080		All sites	972,060	
Male	Fema	Female			
Lung & bronchus	65,790	20%	Lung & bronchus	59,280	21%
Prostate	35,250	11%	Breast	42,250	15%
Colon & rectum	28,700	9%	Pancreas	24,480	8%
Pancreas	27,270	8%	Colon & rectum	24,310	8%
Liver & intrahepatic bile duct	19,120	696	Uterine corpus	13,250	5%
Leukemia	13,640	496	Ovary	12,740	4%
Esophagus	12,880	496	Liver & intrahepatic bile due	t 10,720	4%
Pancreas Liver & intrahepatic bile duct Leukemia Esophagus Urinary bladder Non-Hodekin lymphoma	12,290	4%	Leukemia	10,030	3%
Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	11,780	4%	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	8,360	3%
Brain & other nervous system	10,690	3%	Brain & other nervous syste	m 8,070	3%
All sites	322,800		All sites	288,920	

Estimates are rounded to the nearest 10, and cases exclude basal cell and squamous cell skin cancers and in situ carcinoma except urinary bladder. Estimates do not include Puerto Rico or other US territories. Ranking is based on modeled projections and may differ from the most recent observed data.

Are you at risk for Colorectal Cancer?





Personal + Family History

Having a parent, sibling, or child with colorectal cancer increases your risk





Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD)

IBD, including ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease put you at higher risk



Not Being Physically **Active**



Red Meats

Processed Meats



Overweight or Obese



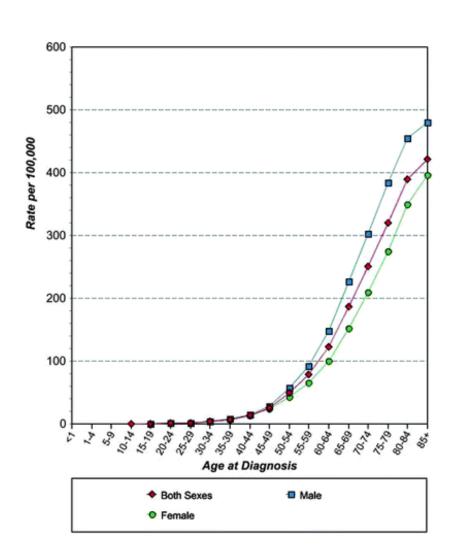
Alcohol





CENTER FOR ONCOLOGY

Colon Cancer Incidence Rates in US by Age



Rising Colon Cancer Rates in Young Adults

BORN IN 1950

BORN IN 1990

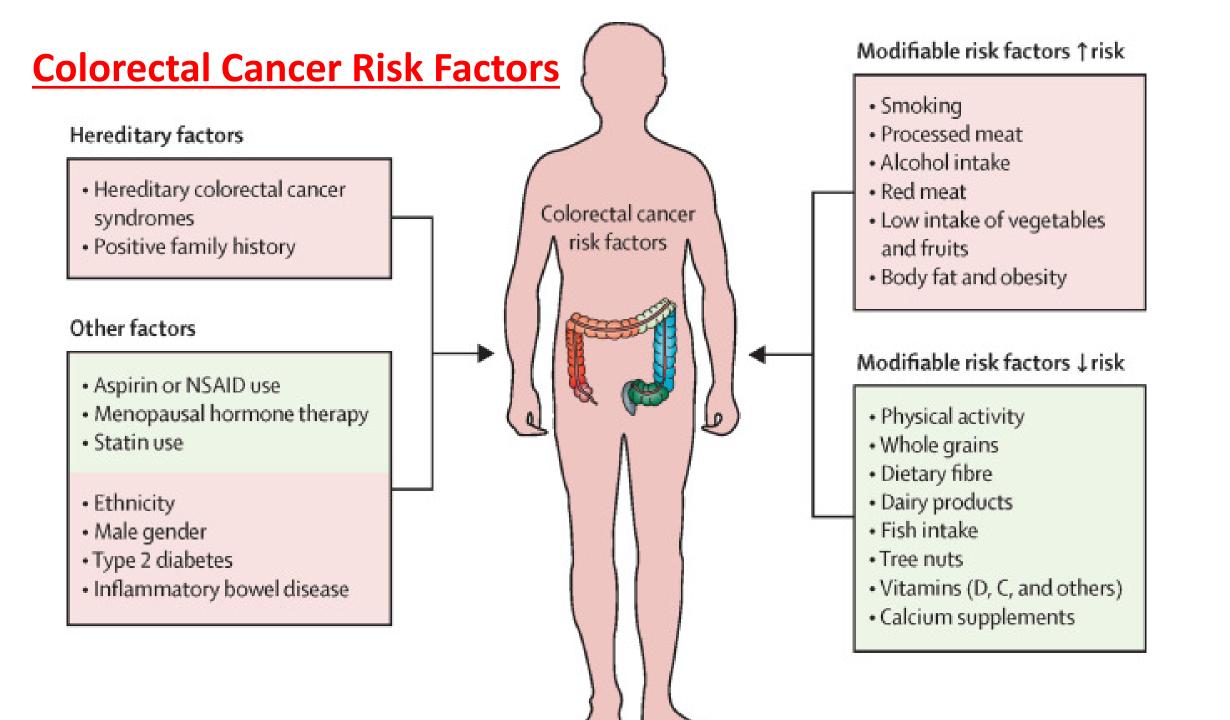




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www.ccalliance.org





Types of Genetic Tests for Cancer

Germline:

Normal cells are tested for genetic mutations that may be inherited and increase your risk of cancer

Somatic tumor:

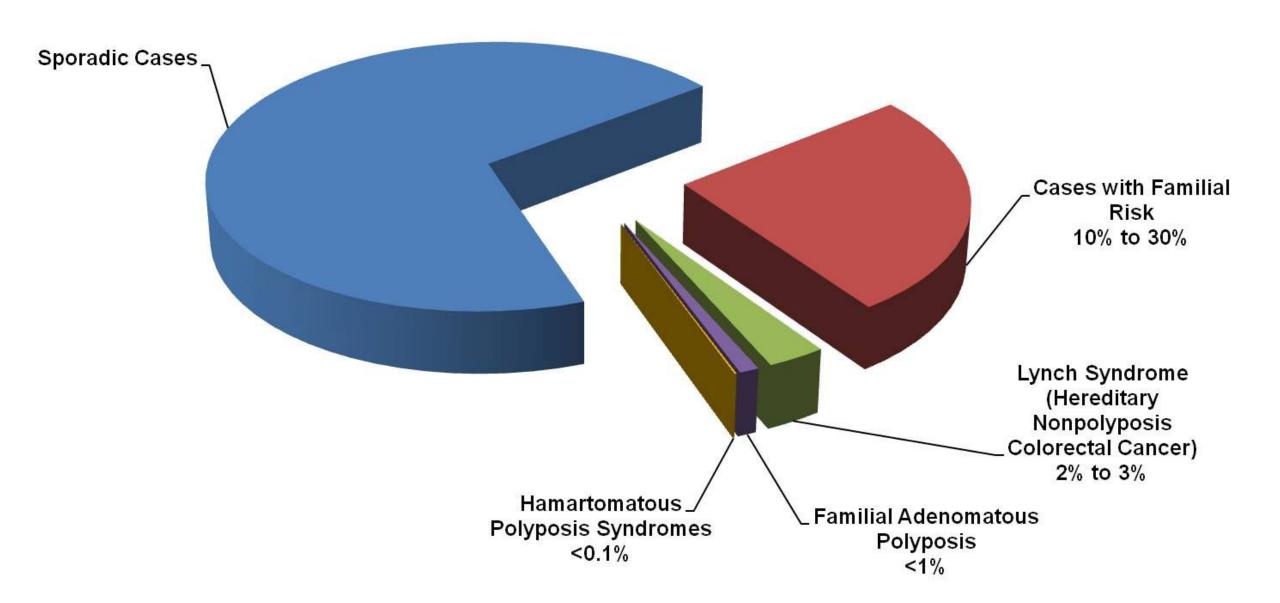
Cells from a known cancer are tested for mutations that could impact your prognosis or determine treatment



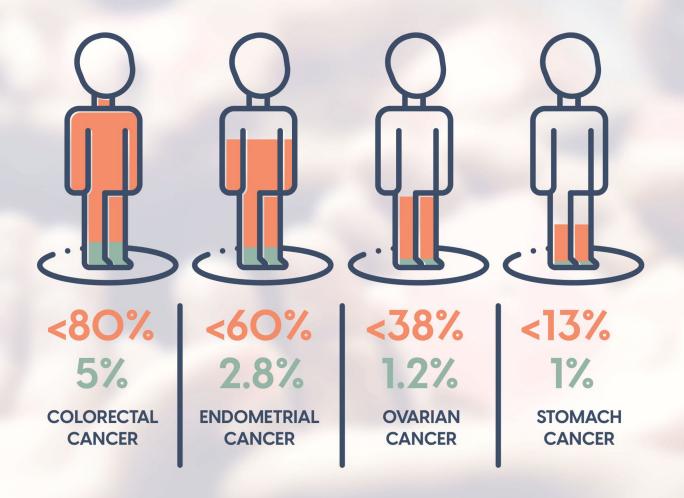
Inherited Cancer Risk Cancers of the Brain and the **Nervous System** Retinoblastoma predisposition syndrome (RB1) Basal cell nevus syndrome (PTCH1, PTCH2, SUFU) Familial glioma-melanoma syndrome (CDKN2A) Thyroid Familial adenomatous polyposis (APC) Multiple endocrine neoplasia 2 (RET, NTRK1) Neurofibromatosis type I and type II (NF1 and NF2) Cowden syndrome (PTEN) Brain tumor polyposis type I (MLH1, PMS2) MYH-associated polyposis (MUTYH) Brain tumor polyposis type II (APC) von Hippel-Lindau syndrome (VHL) Liver Peutz-Jeghers syndrome (STK11/LKB1) **Breast** Cowden syndrome (PTEN) Breast-ovarian cancer syndrome (BRCA1, BRCA2) Kidney Li-Fraumeni syndrome (TP53) von Hippel-Lindau syndrome (VHL) Wilms tumor (WT1) Lung Peutz-Jeghers syndrome (STK11/LKB1) Ovarian Breast-ovarian cancer syndrome (BRCA1, BRCA2) Peutz-Jeghers syndrome (STK11/LKB1) Gastric MYH-associated polyposis (MUTYH) Diffuse gastric and lobular breast cancer syndrome (CDH1) Uterine Hereditary leiomyomatosis and renal cell cancer (FH) Pancreas Peutz-Jeghers syndrome (STK11/LKB1) Breast-ovarian cancer syndrome (BRCA1, BRCA2) Familial atypical multiple mole-melanoma syndrome (CDKN2A) Blood cancers Hereditary pancreatitis/familial pancreatitis (PRSS1, SPINK1) (Leukemia; Lymphoma; Multiple endocrine neoplasia 1 (MEN1) Myelodysplastic syndrome) Peutz-Jeghers syndrome (STK11/LKB1) Ataxia telangiectasia (ATM) Inherited bone marrow failure syndromes, such as Colorectal Fanconi's anemia and telomere syndromes Lynch syndrome (EPCAM, MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, PMS2) (FANCC, FANC, FANCB, FANCS, BRCA1, TERT, TERC) MYH-associated polyposis (MUTYH) Li-Fraumeni syndrome (TP53) Familial adenomatous polyposis (APC) Hereditary myeloid malignancy syndromes, such as familial MDS/Acute myeloid leukemias (RUNX1, GATA2, CEBPA, ETV6, DDX41, ANKRD26, Familial atypical multiple mole-melanoma syndrome (CDKN2A) ATG2B/GSKIP) Familial glioma-melanoma syndrome (CDKN2A) Bone Multiple endocrine neoplasia 1 (MEN1) Retinoblastoma predisposition syndrome (RB1) Xeroderma pigmentosum (XPD, XPB, XPA) Li-Fraumeni syndrome (TP53) Basal cell nevus syndrome (PTCH1, PTCH2, SUFU) All cancers Bloom syndrome (BLM)

Depicted here are selected cancer types that are associated with inherited cancer syndromes. Also shown in parentheses are the genes, mutations in which are linked with various inherited cancer syndromes that predispose individuals to the shown cancer types.

Colon Cancer Cases Arising in Various Family Risk Settings



Lifetime Cancer Risk Comparison





Lynch syndrome versus FAP

NAME	Lynch syndrome	Familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP)		
% OF ALL CRCs	3% to 10%	1%		
PATHOGENESIS	Microsatellite instability	Chromosomal instability		
INHERITANCE & PENETRANCE	Autosomal dominant 80% penetrance	Autosomal dominant Close to 100% penetrance		
AGE OF ONSET	Mean at age 44 15% develop cancer by 40	Symptoms at age 16 (8 – 34) 90% develop cancer by 45		
POLYPS	Not seen, few	Many		
TYPICAL TUMOR CHARACTERISTICS	Rapid conversion of polyp to cancer; right-sided , large, non-fibrous tumors	Slower-converting polyps which degenerate to fibrous and bowel constricting tumors		

Sources: Dr. David A. Owen, Department of Pathology, VGH, UBC. Buchanan *et al.* Lessons from Lynch syndrome: a tumor biology-based approach to familial colorectal cancer. *Future Oncology* 6(4):539-549. Bonis *et al.* Lynch syndrome (hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer): Screening and management of patients and families. UpToDate (November 28th, 2011 revision). Ahnen *et al.* Clinical features and diagnosis of familial adenomatous polyposis. UpToDate (August 28th, 2010 revision). OncoLink.org.

WHO SHOULD CONSIDER TESTING FOR LYNCH SYNDROME

(Consult your Physician)

FAMILY HISTORY

- If you have a family member that has been diagnosed with Lynch Syndrome
- If at least 3 relatives had cancer linked to Lynch Syndrome
- If at least 1 first degree relative and 2 successive generations are affected
- If at least 1 relative was diagnosed before the age of 50

PERSONAL HISTORY

- If you have had more than 1 cancer linked to Lynch Syndrome at any age
- If you had colorectal or endometrial cancer before age 50
- If you have had a cancer linked to Lynch Syndrome and 1 or more relatives also had a cancer linked to Lynch Syndrome
- If at least 1 relative was diagnosed with a Lynch Syndrome related cancer before the age of 50

SCREENINGS Make a Difference

Lifetime risk of cancer diagnosis (based on 2016 – 2018 data):

Breast cancer About 12.9 percent of women

Colorectal cancer

About 4.1 percent of adults

Cervical cancer

About **0.6 percent** of women

Cancer death rates dropped by



This amounts to **3.1 million lives saved** through reduced smoking and improved detection and treatment.

percent between 1991 and 2018.



About 39 percent

of adults will be diagnosed with cancer in their lifetimes.

As of 2019, there were an estimated



million
cancer survivors in the United States

SIDEBAR 18

USPSTF-recommended Tests to Screen for Cancer

The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) is an independent Congressionally mandated panel of experts in preventive care convened by the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. USPSTF rigorously reviews the evidence on the benefits and harms of behavioral counseling, preventive medications, and screening strategies related to cancer.

Described below are screening tests that are included as part of evidence-based recommendations by USPSTF to screen for four cancer types in individuals who are at an average risk of being diagnosed with cancer, and to screen for lung cancer in individuals who are at a higher-than-average risk of being diagnosed with cancer.

BREAST CANCER

Digital mammography

Uses X-rays to generate two dimensional images of the breast that can be stored electronically and analyzed for signs of breast cancer.

Digital breast tomosynthesis

Also called three-dimensional mammography, this screening method generates 3D images of the breast that are analyzed for signs of breast cancer. Must be accompanied by digital mammography.

CERVICAL CANCER

Cytology

Samples cervical cells, which are analyzed under a microscope to look for abnormalities. Also called Pap test or Pap smear.

High-risk Human Papillomavirus (HPV) test

Detects the presence of certain cervical cancer-causing types of HPV and identifies people for whom further testing is recommended. Does not directly detect precancerous or cancerous cervical lesions.

COLORECTAL CANCER

Stool-based tests

Some test for the presence of a product of red blood cells. Others test for both the presence of a product of red blood cell and certain genetic mutations linked to colorectal cancer. Do not directly detect precancerous lesions or cancers but identify people for whom further testing is recommended.

Direct visualization tests

Flexible sigmoidoscopy and colonoscopy Use a thin, flexible, lighted tube with a small video camera on the end to examine the lining of the entire colon and rectum (as is the case with colonoscopy), or only certain parts (as is the case with flexible sigmoidoscopy).

Computed tomography (CT) colonography (virtual colonoscopy) Uses X-rays to image the colon and rectum.



PROSTATE CANCER

Low-dose spiral CT scan

LUNG CANCER

Uses low doses of X-rays to rapidly image the lungs and detect any structural abnormalities suggestive of lung cancer. Suspicious lesions are then biopsied to examine for the presence of abnormal or cancer cells.

THE REPORT OF THE PARTY OF THE

PSA test

Measures the level of a protein called prostate-specific antigen (PSA) in blood, which is often elevated in men with prostate cancer. Does not directly detect prostate cancer but identifies men for whom further testing is recommended.



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SCREENING OPTIONS for COLORECTAL CANCER

What

COLORECTAL CANCER
IS THE THIRD MOST
COMMON CANCER

yet it is one of the most preventable. It is highly treatable and is often curable when caught early.

Who

AGE 45 to 75

Adults at average risk for Colorectal Cancer should get screened

AGE 75+

The decision to continue screening should be personalized in adults over age 75

When

10 VS. 1

In general, colonoscopy every 10 years starting at age 45 for average risk adults is recommended as a screening test as compared to the alternate stool FIT test which you have to undergo every 1 year.

Why

POLYPS

Removing polyps with Colonoscopy reduces the risk of Colorectal Cancer and saves lives.



1-Step Test

COLONOSCOPY

Your doctor can see and remove pre-cancers called polyps and preventor detect or confirm colorectal cancer ALL IN 1 STEP.

How

1-STEP TEST

Colonoscopy is a one-step test that looks for growths called polyps in your entire colon (large intestine) and rectum. Your doctor can remove polyps and prevent colorectal cancer.

2-STEP TESTS

If they are positive, tests such as Fecal Immunochemical Tests (FIT) or Multitarget Stool DNA tests need a follow-up colonoscopy to diagnose any problems. Two steps are needed to screen.

2-Step Test

1ST STEP

Stool-Based Test FIT Test (Fecal Immunochemical Test) Multitarget Stool DNA



Flexible Sigmoidoscopy



Imaging Test CT Colonography Colon Capsule



2ND STEP Colonoscopy



Learn About Your Screening Options for Colorectal Cancer: gi.org/coloncancer



Find a gastroenterologist near you: gi.org/find-a-gastroenterologist

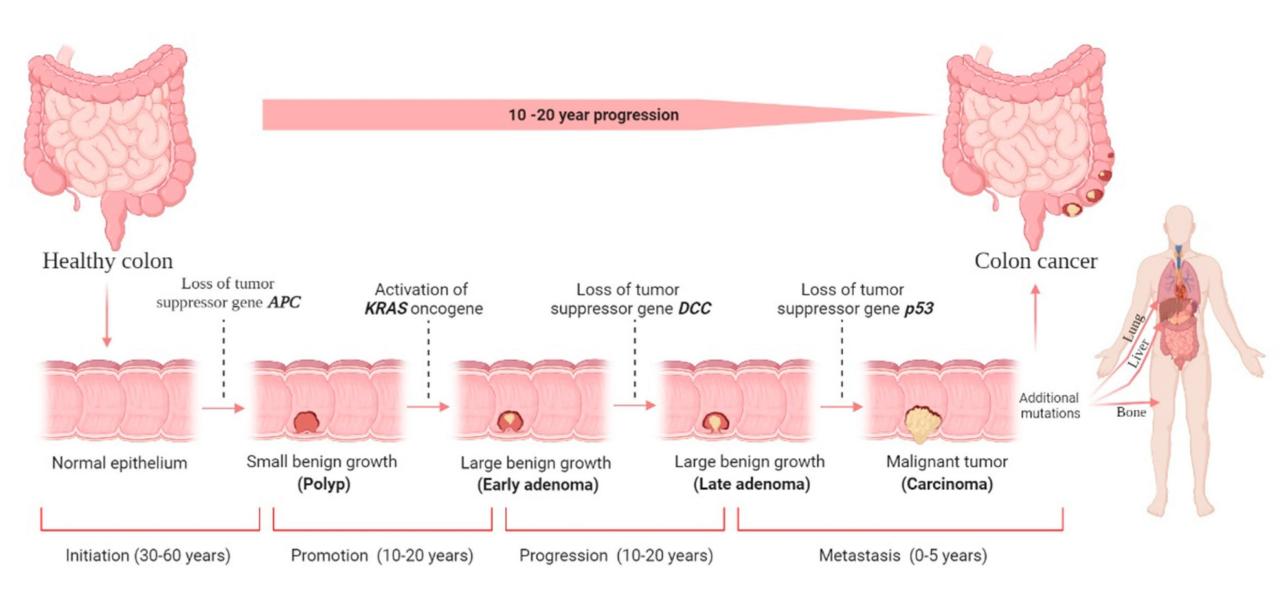
45 IS THE NEW 50!

YOU CAN PREVENT COLORECTAL CANCER

NEW SCREENING RECOMMENDATIONS FROM THE AMERICAN COLLEGE OF GASTROENTEROLOGY

Digestive Disease Specialists Committed to Quality in Patient Care





COLORECTAL CANCER

SCREENING GUIDELINES

for people at average risk

AGES

45 to 75

AGES

76 to 85

OVER AGE

85

YOUR AGE IN YEARS

Get screened.

Several types of tests can be used. Talk to your doctor about which option is best for you.

No matter which test you choose, the most important thing is to get screened regularly.

Talk to your doctor

about whether you should continue screening. When deciding, take into account your own preferences, overall health, and past screening history.

No longer screen.

People over age 85 should no longer get colorectal cancer screening.

TESTING OPTIONS

- Visual exams such as colonoscopy or CT colonography look at the inside of the colon and rectum for polyps (growths) or cancer.
- Stool-based tests look for signs of cancer in stool and can be done at home. These tests include the fecal immunochemical test (FIT), fecal occult blood test (FOBT), and multi-target stool DNA test.
- All abnormal results on noncolonoscopy screening tests should be followed up with a timely colonoscopy.
- People with a family history of polyps or colorectal cancer, or who have other risk factors, might need to start screening before age 45, be screened more often, and/or get specific tests.



CANCER SCREENING SAVES LIVES. GET SCREENED.

Talk to your doctor about screening, and contact your insurance provider about insurance coverage for screening. To learn more, **visit cancer.org/get-screened** or call **1-800-227-2345**.

COLON CANCER

Colorectal cancer is a growth of cells that forms in the lower end of the digestive tract. Most of these cancers start as non-cancerous growths called polyps. Removing polyps can prevent cancer, so health care providers recommend screenings for those at high

risk or over the age of 45.

Early Stage Symptoms



Changes in bowel habits



Bloody Stools



Pain or cramping in the abdomen



Unintended weight loss



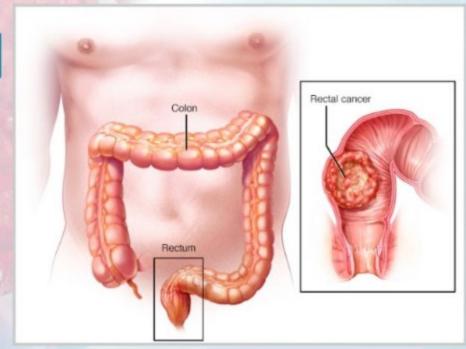
Cancer spreading to lymph nodes



Bowel obstructions

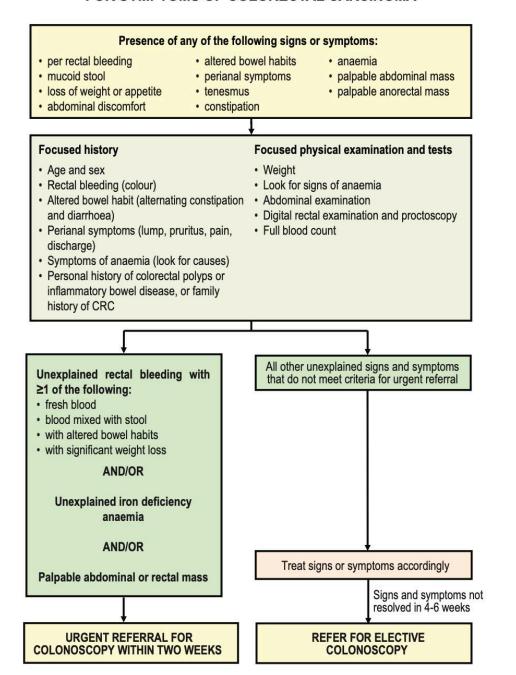


Cancer spreading to liver and other organs





ALGORITHM B: PRIMARY CARE REFERRAL FOR SYMPTOMS OF COLORECTAL CARCINOMA

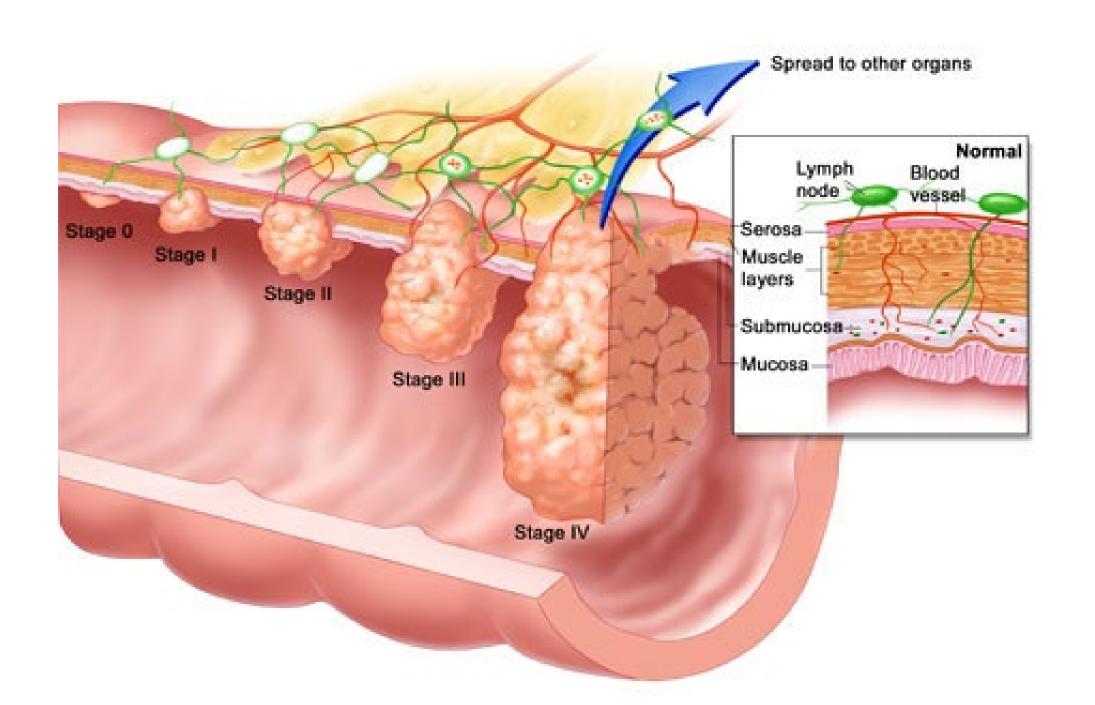


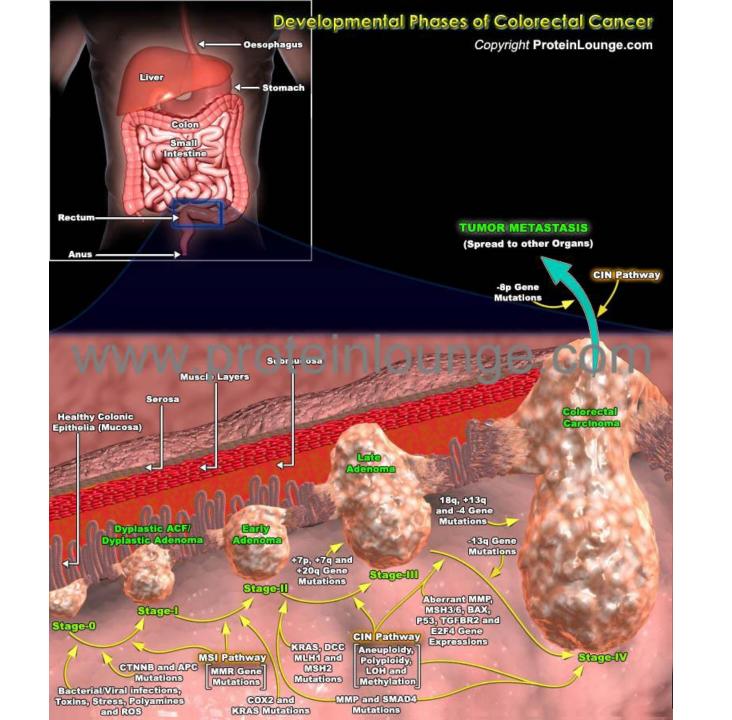


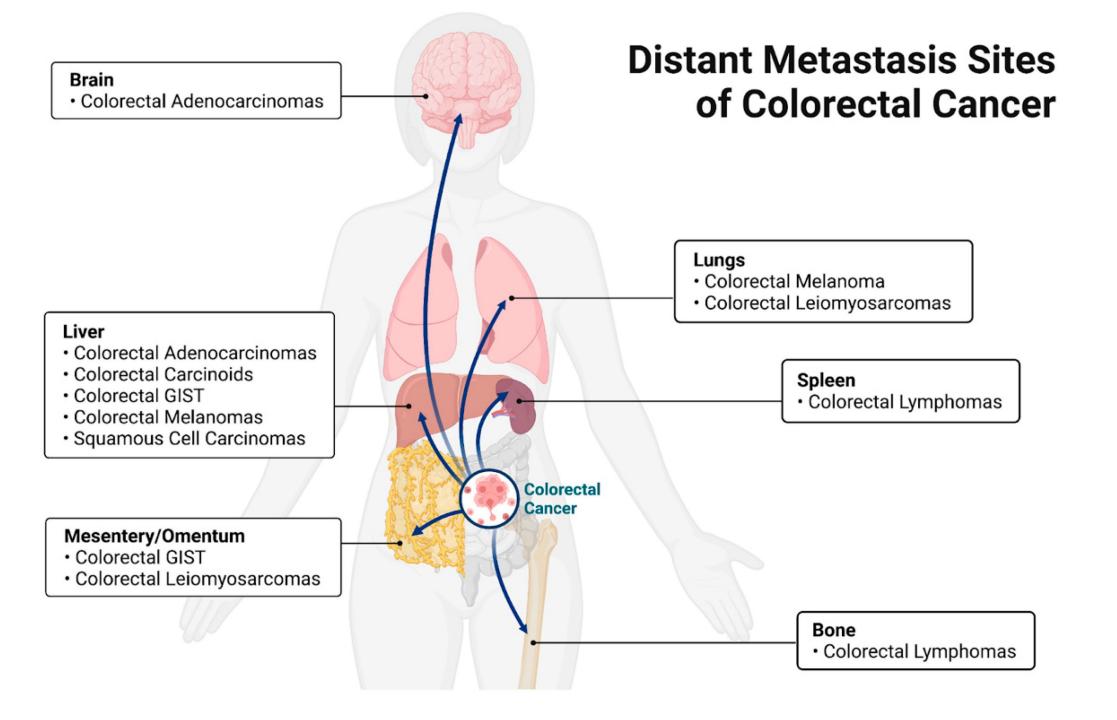


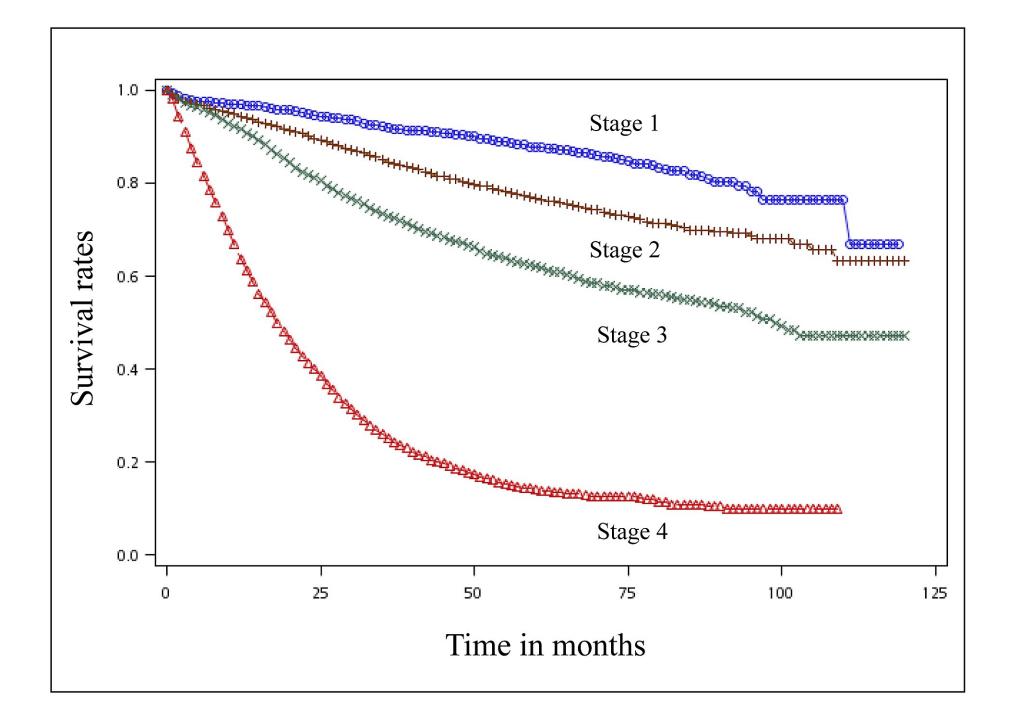
STAGES OF COLON CANCER

AND THEIR TREATMENT

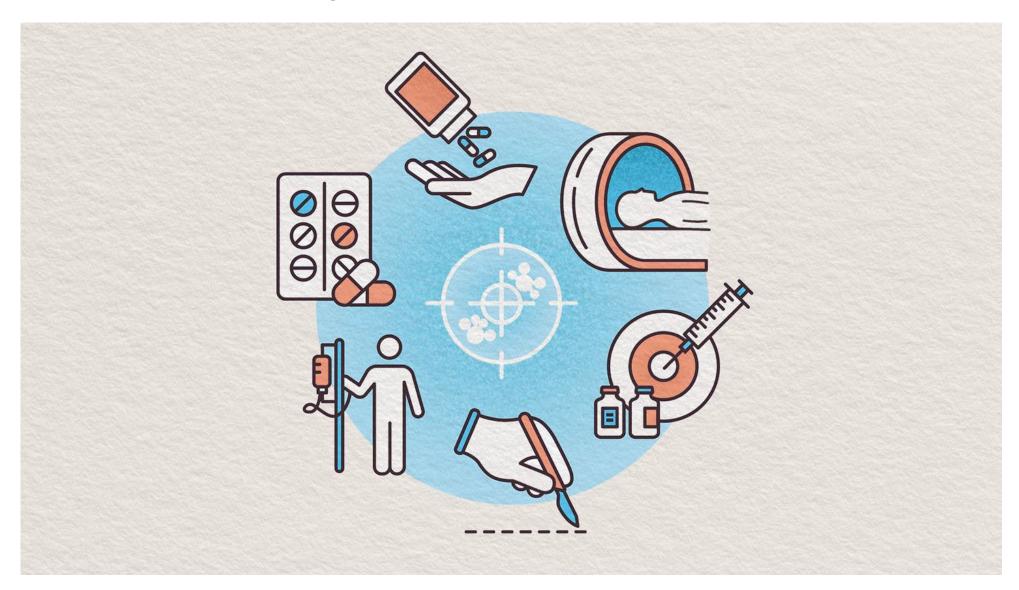








How Will My Colon Cancer Be Treated



Treatment Of Colon Cancer

(AS PER STAGES)

STAGE 00

Surgery is often the only treatment needed for stage 0 colon cancer.

STAGE 01

Surgery alone is recommended for stage 1 colon cancer. The technique used may vary based on the location and size of the tumor.

STAGE 02

Surgery is recommended to remove the cancerous section of the colon and nearby lymph nodes. Chemotherapy may be recommended in certain circumstances, such as if the cancer is considered high-grade or if there are high-risk features.

STAGE 03

Treatment includes surgery to remove the tumor and lymph nodes followed by chemotherapy. In some instances, radiation therapy may also be recommended.

STAGE **04**

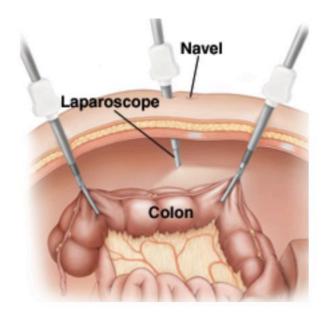
Treatment may include surgery, chemotherapy, and possibly radiation therapy. In some instances, targeted therapy or immunotherapy may also be recommended.

Robotic surgery often has improved outcomes for most colon cancer patients

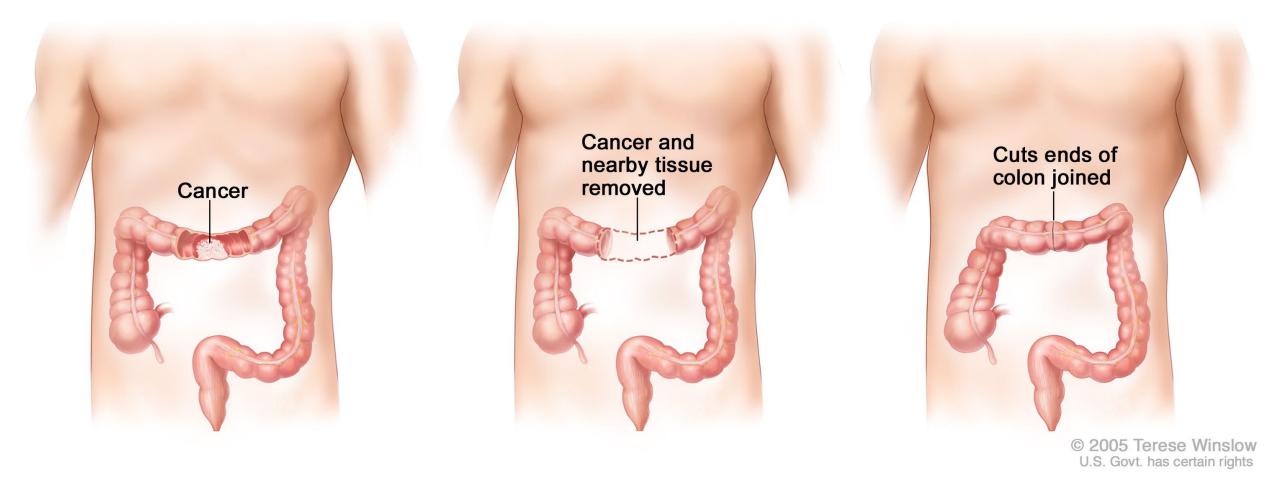


Possible benefits of a laparoscopic approach

- Less scarring
- Less pain
- Faster recovery
- Shorter hospital stay
- · Quicker return to normal activity



Resection of the Colon with Anastomosis



When is chemotherapy used?

Chemo may be used at different times during treatment for colorectal cancer:

- **Neoadjuvant chemo** is given (sometimes with radiation) **before surgery** to try to shrink the cancer and make it easier to remove. This is often done for rectal cancer.
- Adjuvant chemo is given after surgery. The goal is to kill cancer cells that might have been left behind at surgery because they were too small to see, as well as cancer cells that might have escaped from the main colon or rectal cancer to settle in other parts of the body but are too small to see on imaging tests. This helps lower the chance that the cancer will come back.
- For advanced cancers that have spread to other organs like the liver, chemo can be used to help shrink tumors and ease problems they're causing. While it's not likely to cure the cancer, this often helps people feel better and live longer.

Ipilimumab Ramucirumab In combination with nivolumab for In combination with FOLFIRI, for patients with MSI-H or dMMR mCRC the treatment of mCRC with that has progressed following disease progression on or after treatment with a fluoropyrimidine, prior therapy with bevacizumab, oxaliplatin, and irinotecan. oxaliplatin, and a Bevacizumab fluoropyrimidine. In combination with 5-fluorouracilbased chemotherapy for first- or Capecitabine second-line treatment of mCRC. Entrectinib First line treatment of mCRC **Pembrolizumab** Advanced solid tumors harboring Ziv-aflibercept NTRK gene fusion and have no Patients with MSI-H dMMR mCRC in combination FOLFIRI for satisfactory alternative treatments 5-Fluorouracil that have progressed following mCRC resistant to or that or that have progressed following treatment Treatment of colorectal has progressed following treatment. Oxaliplatin with a fluoropyrimidine, oxaliplatin, cancer an oxaliplatin-containing and irinotecan. Combination with 5regimen. Fluorouracil as I line treatment of mCRC 1996 1998 2002 2006 2012 2015 2017 2018 2020 1962 2004 2019 **Panitumumab** Trifluoridine-tipiracil Single agent for the Larotrectinib Encorafenib treatment of metastatic After progression to Advanced solid tumors In combination with cetuximab, for the colorectal carcinoma with fluoropyrimidine-, oxaliplatin- and harboring NTRK gene fusion treatment of adult patients disease progression on or irinotecan-based chemotherapy, Irinotecan and have no satisfactory with a BRAF V600E mutant mCRC after prior following fluoropyrimidine, an anti- VEGF therapy, and, if In combination with 5-Fluorouracil as I alternative treatments or therapy. oxaliplatin, and irinotecan. KRAS wild type, an anti-EGFR line treatment of mCRC that have progressed therapy following treatment. As single agent after progression to 5-Flouroracil of mCRC Cetuximab

- in combination with irinotecan in patients who are refractory to irinotecan-based chemotherapy,
- as a single agent in patients who have failed oxaliplatin- and irinotecan-based chemotherapy or who are intolerant to irinotecan.

Regorafenib

After progression to fluoropyrimidine-, oxaliplatin- and irinotecan-based chemotherapy, an anti- VEGF therapy, and, if KRAS wild type, an anti-EGFR therapy

Nivolumab

Patients with MSI-H or dMMR mCRC that has progressed following treatment with a fluoropyrimidine, oxaliplatin, and irinotecan.

Difference between Chemotherapy, Targeted Therapy and Immunotherapy









How does it work?

Targets rapidly dividing cells (mostly cancer cells)

Targets Proteins required for cancer growth

rash

Uses our immune system against cancer

Side Effects

Hair loss, intestinal damage, nausea

Liver problems, diarrhea, skin

Autoimmune effects

Limitations

Cancer cells develop resistance to chemotherapy, not specific

Cancer cells develop resistance

Tailored and expensive

Types of Genetic Tests for Cancer

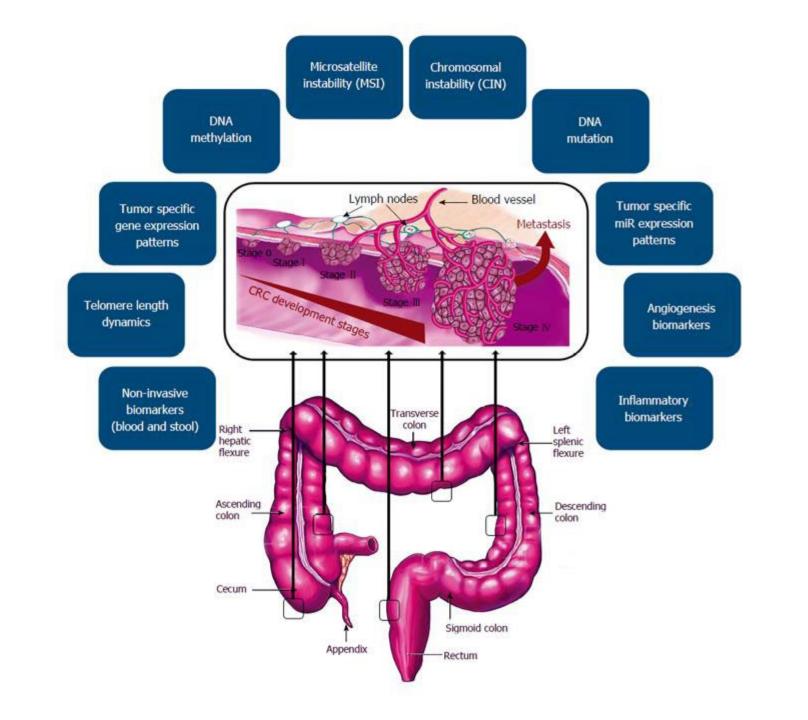
Germline:

Normal cells are tested for genetic mutations that may be inherited and increase your risk of cancer

Somatic tumor:

Cells from a known cancer are tested for mutations that could impact your prognosis or determine treatment





Midgut derivative

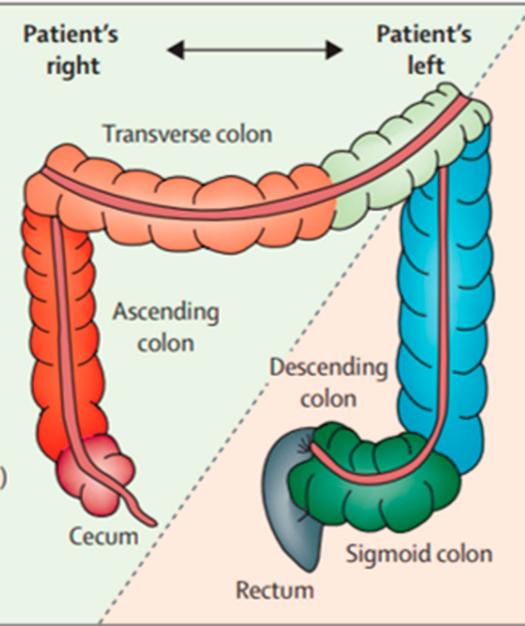
↑Women

↑Sessile serrated lesions

↑Mucinous tumours

Overall worse prognosis*

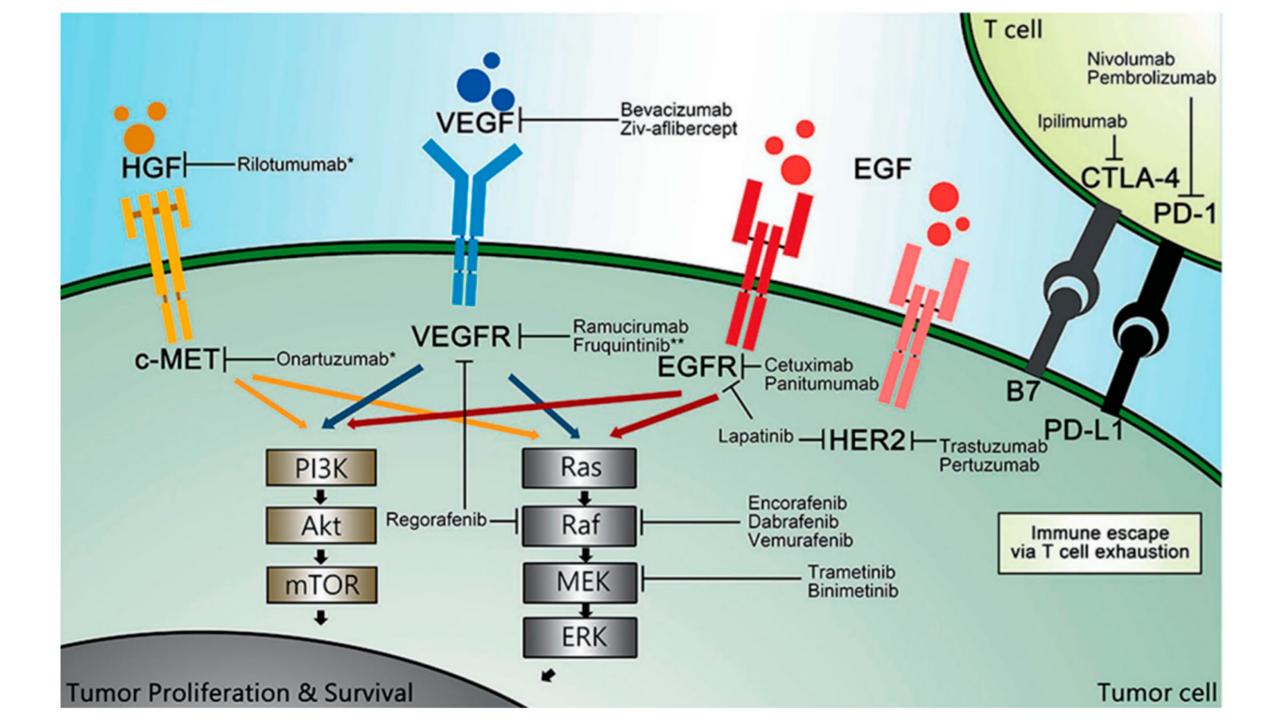
↑CIMP-high ↑BRAF ↑MSI-high ↑MSI immune tumours (CMS1) ↑Metabolic tumours (CMS3) (↑KRAS)



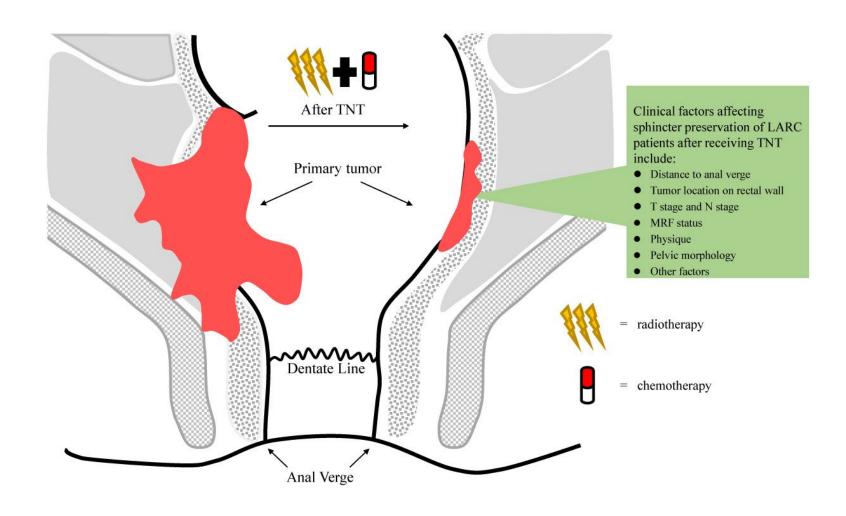
Hindgut derivative ↑Men

Overall better prognosis*

↑Mesenchymal (CMS4) ↑Canonical (CMS2), distally ↑TP53 ↑APC



Rectal Cancer



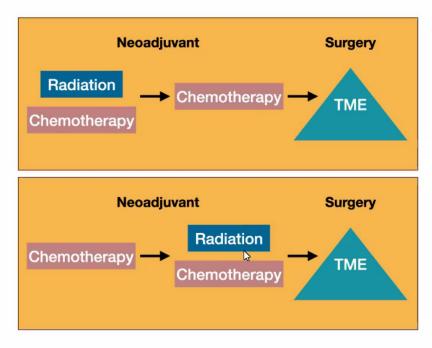
Rectal cancer

What's emerging:





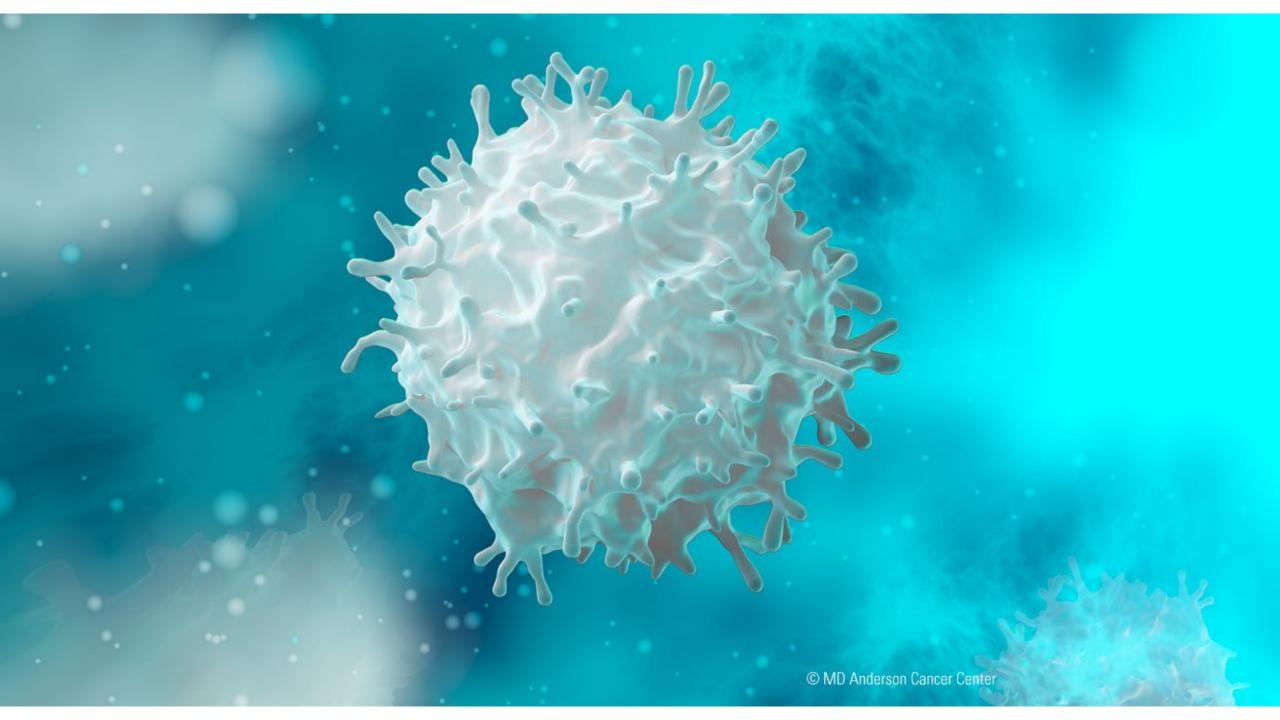
The Total Neoadjuvant Therapy Paradigm



 Several trials have demonstrated the feasibility of TNT, with chemo either after chemoRT (consolidation) or before chemoRT (induction)

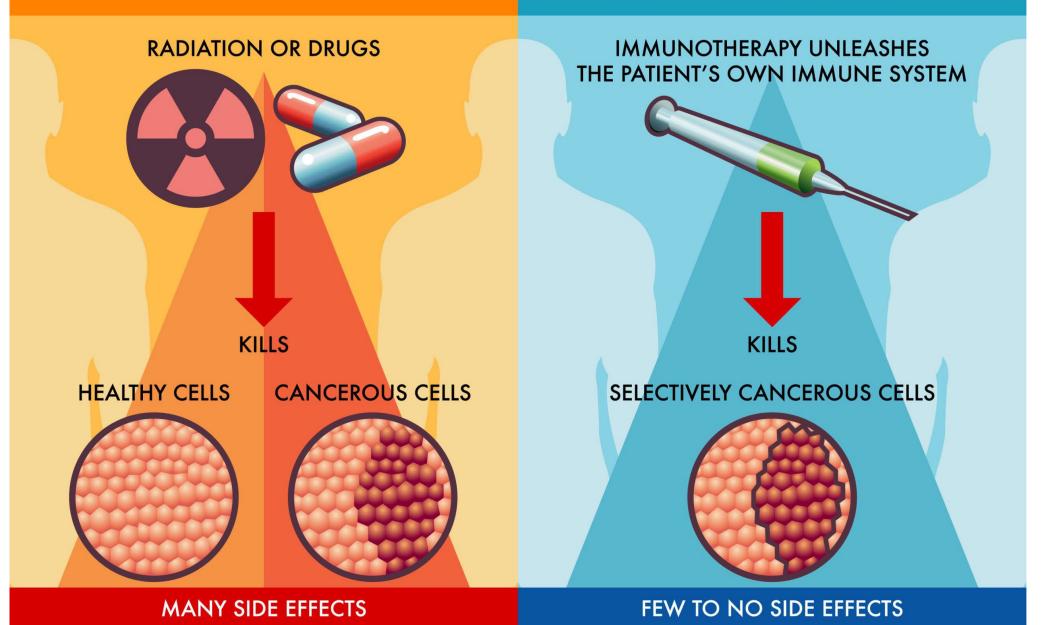
Rationale:

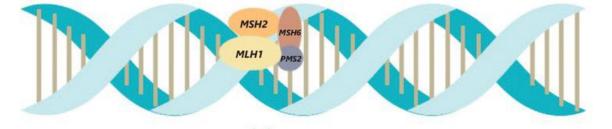
- Increase tumor regression and complete resectability
- Maximize compliance
- Improve delivery of planned systemic treatment
- Address potential micrometastatic disease and reduce risk of DM
- Improve overall survival



TRADITIONAL CANCER THERAPIES

CANCER IMMUNOTHERAPIES





Opportunities

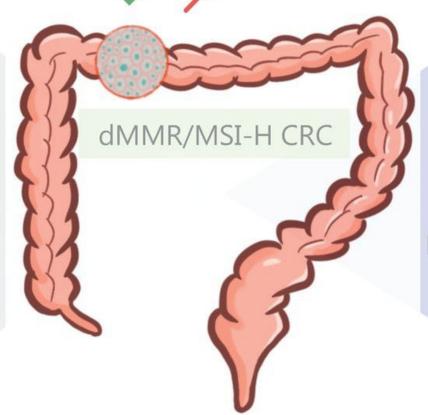
Longer survival

Higher response rate

Lower AE rate

Better quality of life

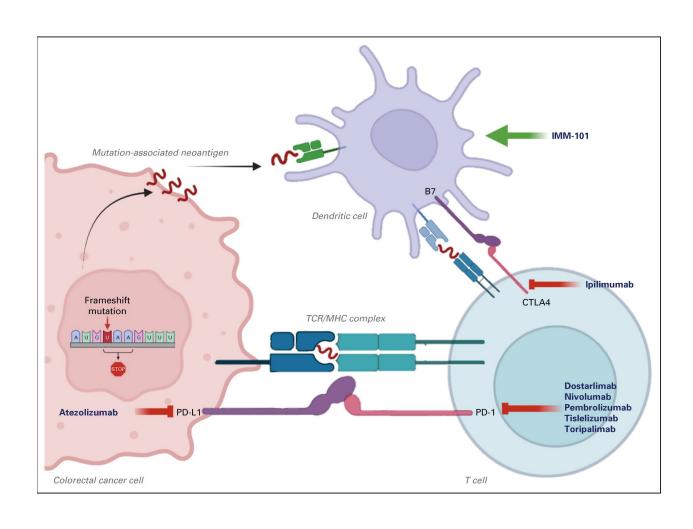
Immunotherapy



Challenges

Patient selection
Regimen selection
Treatment duration
Radiographic evaluation
Immune-related AE
Resistance

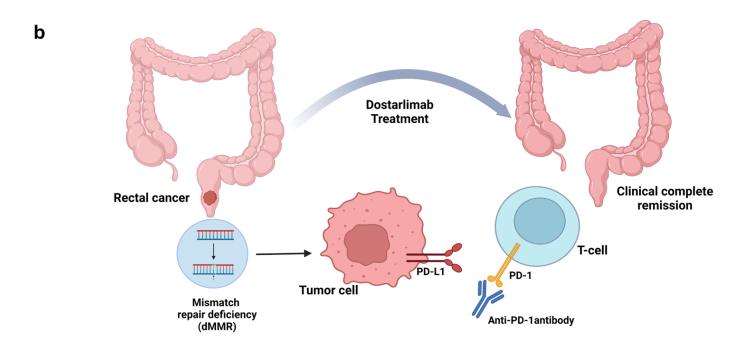
Immune checkpoint inhibitor therapy activates mutation-associated neoantigen-primed T cells and induces antitumor response.

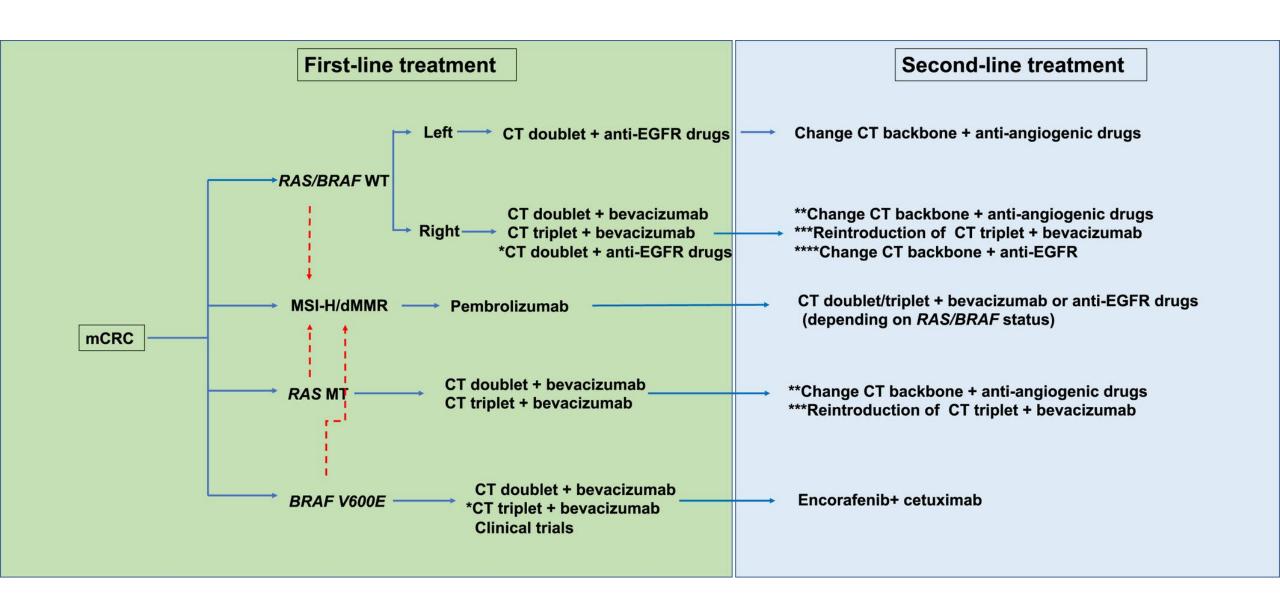


Neoadjuvant PD-1 blockade: mismatch repair—deficient, locally advanced rectal cancer

a

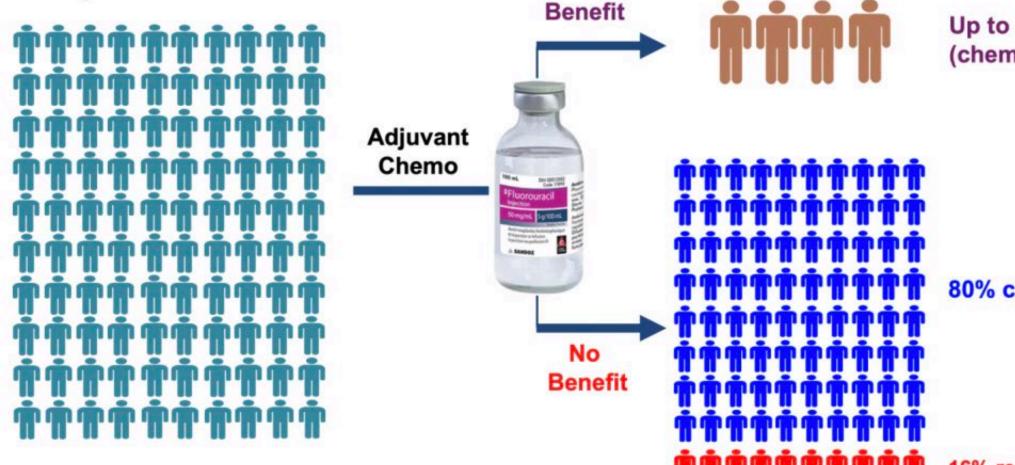
Summary of published clinical trials of neoadjuvant immunotherapy in dMMR, locally advanced CRCs					
Trials	Setting	Phase	Patients	Therapy	Outcome
			(lynch syndrome,%)		
NICHE	Neoadjuvant	II	32 (13, 41%)	Nivolumab+ipilimumab	pCR (69%)
PICC	Neoadjuvant	II	17 vs 17 (4, 24% vs 1, 6%)	Toripalimab+celecoxib vs Toripalimab	pCR (88% vs 65%)
NCT04165772	Neoadjuvant	II	14 (8, 57%)	Dostarlimab	cCR (100%)





The Crux of Adjuvant Therapy in CRC: Treat Many to Save a Few

Stage II Colon Cancer



Up to 4% cured by chemo (chemo-sensitive)

80% cured by surgery alone

16% recur despite chemo (chemo-resistant)

Using cancer DNA in the blood (ctDNA) to determine management for patients who have had surgery for colon cancer





ABOUT THE TRIAL

NRG-GI008: Colon Adjuvant Chemotherapy Based on Evaluation of Residual Disease (CIRCULATE-US)

ABOUT NRG ONCOLOGY

As one of the five research groups in

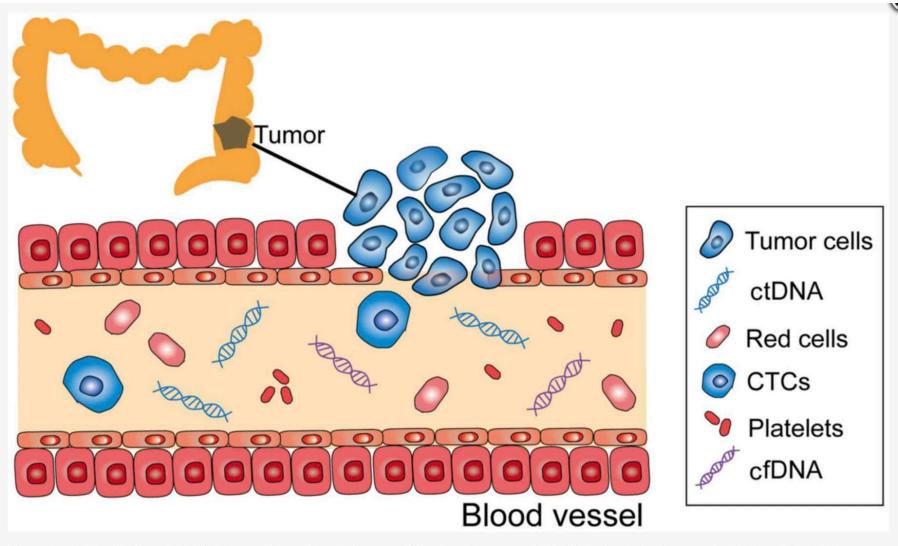
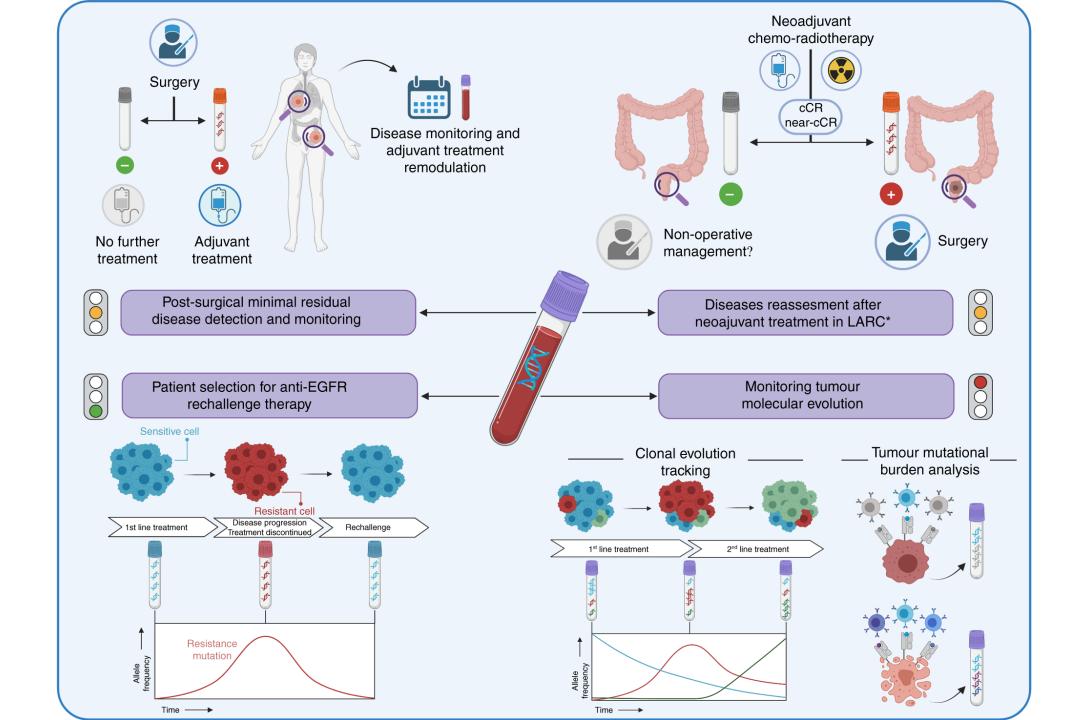
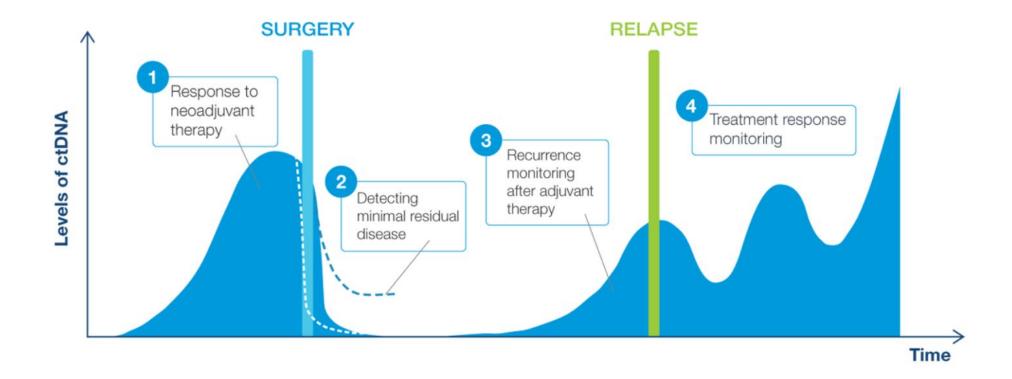
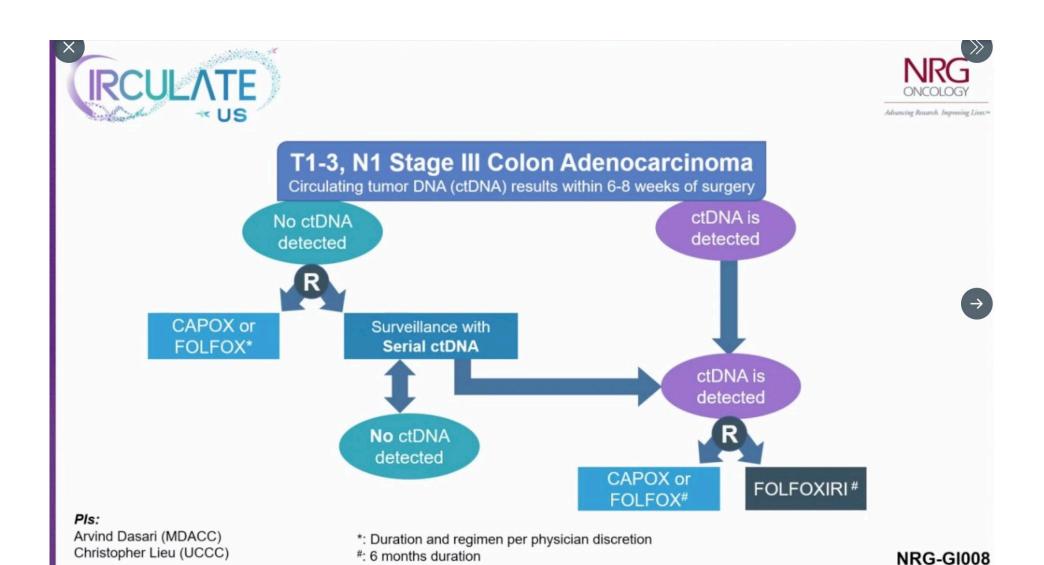


Figure 1. - CTCs, ctDNA and cfDNA in the peripheral blood stream. ctDNA, circulating tumor DNA; CTC, circulating tumor cell; cfDNA, cell-free DNA.







Colorectal Cancer Conclusions

- Colorectal cancer is a growth of cells that forms in the lower end of the digestive tract.
 - -Removing polyps can prevent cancer, screenings for those at high risk or over the age of 45.
- 2. Symptoms might include blood in the stool, abdominal discomfort, change in bowel habits.
- 3. Colorectal cancer treatment depends on the size, location, genetic analysis and stage of cancer.
- 4. Treatments may include surgery, chemotherapy, immunotherapy, targeted therapy and radiation therapy.
- 5. Genetics and Immunology are playing an increasing role.

Colorectal Cancer: What Patients Need To Know

Eden Stotsky-Himelfarb, BSN, RN, ONN-CG
Breast Cancer Clinical Triage Coordinator

Johns Hopkins Sidney Kimmel Comprehensive Cancer Center

Baltimore, Maryland

March 20, 2024





Personal Story - Statistics

1 diagnosis – 1997 – Stage 3b rectal cancer

2 surgeries – 1997 and 2018

30 radiation treatments - 1998

30 chemotherapy treatments - 1998

24 colonoscopies and counting – 1997 - 2021

Numerous blood draws

Countless CT scans

Multiple PET scans

Six unsuccessful cycles of invitro fertilization – 2010-2012

1 successful adoption - 2013





Survivorship

• Surveillance – H&P, CEA, CT c/a/p, colonoscopy

• Impact on Quality of Life – physical and emotional impact





Survivorship

• Long-term side effects – GI problems, uterine dysfunction, vaginal stenonis, menopause, fatigue, sleep difficulty, fear of recurrence/scanxiety, anxiety, depression, negative body images, peripheral neuropathy, urinary incontinence, sexual dysfunction, difficulties with sexual health or intimacy

Late term effects – secondary cancers s/p radiation





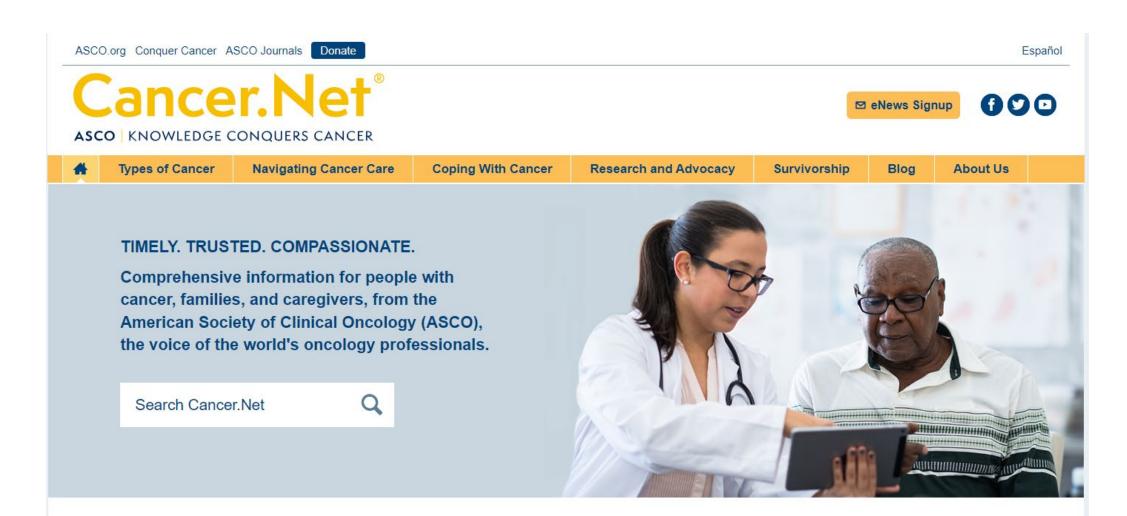
Survivorship

• Finding a PCP with knowledge of cancer surveillance

Impact on relationships











Contact Information

Paul Celano, MD FACP FASCO

Herman & Walter Samuelson Medical Director Sandra & Malcolm Berman Cancer Institute Greater Baltimore Medical Center

pcelano@gbmc.org

Office: 443-849-3051

Eden Stotsky-Himelfarb, BS, BSN,RN,ONN-CG

Breast Cancer Program

New Patient and Multidisciplinary Care Nurse Coordinator

Johns Hopkins Sidney Kimmel Comprehensive Cancer Center

eden@jhmi.edu

Office: 443-287-9045



