# **Red blood cell fatty acids and risk of colorectal cancer in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC).**

Linseisen J<sup>1, 2\*</sup>, Grundmann N<sup>1, 2</sup>, Zoller D<sup>1,3</sup>, Kühn T<sup>3</sup>, Jansen E<sup>4</sup>, Chajès V<sup>5</sup>, Fedirko V<sup>6</sup>, Weiderpass E<sup>5</sup>, Dahm CC<sup>7</sup>, Overvad K<sup>7, 8</sup>, Tjønneland A<sup>9</sup>, Boutron-Ruault MC<sup>10</sup>, Rothwell JA<sup>10</sup>, Severi G<sup>10, 11</sup>, Kaaks R<sup>3</sup>, Schulze MB<sup>12, 13</sup>, Aleksandrova K<sup>12, 13</sup>, Sieri S<sup>14</sup>, Panico S<sup>15</sup>, Tumino R<sup>16</sup>, Masala G<sup>17</sup>, De Marco L<sup>18</sup>, Bueno-de-Mesquita B<sup>19</sup>, Vermeulen RCH<sup>20</sup>, Gram IT<sup>21</sup>, Skeie G<sup>21</sup>, Chirlaque MD<sup>22, 23, 24</sup>, Ardanaz E<sup>23, 25, 26</sup>, Agudo A<sup>27</sup>, Sánchez MJ <sup>23, 28, 29, 30</sup>, Amiano P<sup>23, 31</sup>, Wennberg M<sup>32</sup>, Bodén S<sup>33</sup>, Pérez-Cornago A<sup>34</sup>, Aglago EK<sup>5</sup>, Gunter MJ<sup>5</sup>, Jenab M<sup>5</sup>, Heath AK<sup>35</sup>, Nieters A<sup>36</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Chair of Epidemiology, LMU München, at UNIKA-T, Augsburg, Germany

<sup>2</sup> Clinical Epidemiology, Helmholtz Zentrum München, Neuherberg, Germany

<sup>3</sup> German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Division of Cancer Epidemiology, Heidelberg, Germany

<sup>4</sup> Centre for Health Protection, National Institute of Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), Bilthoven, The Netherlands

<sup>5</sup> International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC-WHO), Lyon, France

<sup>6</sup> Department of Epidemiology, Rollins School of Public Health, Winship Cancer Institute, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA

<sup>7</sup>Department of Public Health, Aarhus University, Denmark

<sup>8</sup> Department of Cardiology, Aalborg University Hospital

<sup>9</sup> Danish Cancer Society Research Center, Diet, Genes and Environment, Copenhagen, Denmark

 $10$  CESP (UMR1018), Faculté de Médecine Université Paris-Saclay, Inserm, Gustave Roussy, Villejuif, France

<sup>11</sup> Department of Statistics, Computer Science and Applications (DISIA), University of Florence, Italy

<sup>12</sup> German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbruecke, Nuthetal, Germany

<sup>13</sup> Institute of Nutritional Science, University of Potsdam, Potsdam, Germany

<sup>14</sup> Epidemiology and Prevention Unit, Fondazione IRCCS Istituto Nazionale dei Tumori di Milano, Milano, Italy

<sup>15</sup> Dipartimento di Medicina Clinica e Chirurgia, Federico II University, Naples, Italy

<sup>16</sup> Cancer Registry and Histopathology Department, Provincial Health Authority, Ragusa, Italy

<sup>17</sup> Cancer Risk Factors and Life-Style Epidemiology Unit, Institute for Cancer Research, Prevention and Clinical Network - ISPRO, Florence, Italy

<sup>18</sup> Cancer Epidemiology Unit, A.O.U. Città della Salute e della Scienza Hospital and CPO Piemonte, Turin, Italy

<sup>19</sup> Dept. for Determinants of Chronic Diseases (DCD), National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM), Bilthoven, The Netherlands

 $^{20}$  Division of Environmental Epidemiology, Institute for Risk Assessment Sciences (IRAS), Utrecht University, Utrecht, The Netherlands

<sup>21</sup> Department of Community Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Tromsø,

The Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø, Norway

<sup>22</sup> Department of Epidemiology, Murcia Regional Health Council, IMIB-Arrixaca, Murcia, Spain

<sup>23</sup> Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Epidemiología y Salud Pública (CIBERESP), Madrid, Spain

<sup>24</sup> Department of Health and Social Sciences, Universidad de Murcia, Murcia, Spain

<sup>25</sup> Navarra Public Health Institute, Pamplona, Spain

<sup>26</sup> IdiSNA, Navarra Institute for Health Research, Pamplona, Spain

 $27$  Unit of Nutrition and Cancer, Catalan Institute of Oncology - ICO, Nutrition and Cancer

Group, Bellvitge Biomedical Research Institute - IDIBELL, L'Hospitalet de Llobregat,

Barcelona, Spain

<sup>28</sup> Escuela Andaluza de Salud Pública (EASP), Granada, Spain

<sup>29</sup> Instituto de Investigación Biosanitaria ibs.GRANADA, Granada, Spain

<sup>30</sup> Department of Preventive Medicine and Public Health, University of Granada, Granada, Spain

<sup>31</sup> Public Health Division of Gipuzkoa, BioDonostia Research Institute, San Sebastian, Spain

<sup>32</sup> Section of Sustainable Health, Nutritional Research, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden

<sup>33</sup> Department of Radiation Sciences, Oncology unit, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden

<sup>34</sup> Cancer Epidemiology Unit, Nuffield Department of Population Health, Oxford, UK

<sup>35</sup> Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London, UK

<sup>36</sup> Institute of Immunodeficiency, Medical Faculty, University Hospital Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

**\***Correspondence: Univ. Prof. Dr. Jakob Linseisen, Chair of Epidemiology, LMU München, at UNIKA-T Augsburg, Neusässer Str. 47, 85156 Augsburg, Germany; Tel: +49 8221 598 6470; E-mail: [j.linseisen@unika-t.de](mailto:j.linseisen@unika-t.de)

**Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest.

## **Disclaimer**

Where authors are identified as personnel of the International Agency for Research on Cancer / World Health Organization, the authors alone are responsible for the views expressed in this article and they do not necessarily represent the decisions, policy or views of the International Agency for Research on Cancer / World Health Organization.

#### **Abstract**

**Background:** A growing body of evidence suggests that alterations of dietary fatty acid (FA) profiles are associated with colorectal cancer (CRC) risk. However, data from large-scale epidemiological studies using circulating fatty acid measurements to objectively assess individual FA and FA categories are scarce.

**Objective:** To investigate the association between red blood cell (RBC) membrane FAs and risk of CRC in a case-control study nested within a large prospective cohort.

**Design:** After a median follow-up of 6.4 years, 1069 incident CRC cases were identified and matched to 1069 controls among participants of the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC). The FA composition of RBC phospholipids (in mol%) was analyzed by gas chromatography, and their association with risk of CRC was estimated by multivariable adjusted conditional logistic regression models.

**Results:** After correction for multiple testing, subjects with higher concentrations of RBC stearic acid were at higher risk for CRC (OR=1.23;  $95\%$  CI=1.07-1.42, per 1 mol%). Conversely, CRC incidence decreased with increasing proportions of RBC n-3 PUFA, particularly eicosapentaenoic acid (0.75; 0.62-0.92, per 1 mol%). The findings for the n-6 PUFA arachidonic acid were inconsistent.

**Conclusion:** The results obtained for eicosapentaenoic acid support a protective effect of fish consumption on CRC risk. The findings for stearic acid reflect differences in FA intake and metabolism between cancer cases and matched controls, assessed in RBCs obtained prior to diagnosis. As for stearic acid, the results obtained for long-chain n-6 PUFA deserve further investigation.

**Short title:** Erythrocyte fatty acids and colorectal cancer in EPIC

**Keywords:** colorectal cancer; fatty acids; erythrocytes; cohort study; biomarker; EPIC

#### **Introduction**

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is associated with Western lifestyle [1]. In 2018, CRC was the second most common cancer (12.8% of all cancers) diagnosed in Europe accounting for approximately 500,000 incident, and 242,500 fatal cases [2]. Experimental and epidemiological evidence indicates that nutritional and nutrition-related factors modulate CRC risk [3]. Obesity and physical inactivity, a diet high in red and processed meat or low in wholegrains and dairy products, and high alcohol consumption were shown to be associated with an increased CRC risk, while a reduced risk was reported for diets high in fibre and calcium [3]. Fatty acids are among the nutrients which are hypothesized to affect the risk of CRC [4, 5]. Among these, the role of n-3 and n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) is of particular interest [6-8].

In most studies in rodents, diets high in n-6 PUFA such as linoleic acid (LA) and arachidonic acid (AA) have shown a tumor-promoting effect, whereas diets high in n-3 PUFA, especially eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), were protective against colorectal neoplasms [9]. However, in humans these associations are less clear [7, 10].

Higher fish intake, the main source of EPA and DHA, has been consistently reported as potentially protective for CRC [7]. However, the interpretation of dietary intake data derived from food frequency questionnaires are hampered by substantial imprecision due to potential measurement errors, arguing for the use of objective biomarkers to overcome important limitations of dietary intake data [11-13]. Adipose tissue composition reflects best long-term dietary intake of fatty acids, but due to its invasive methodology, it is not feasible for prospective studies, however, specimens of red blood cells (RBCs) are more easily to collect. Compared to fatty acids in plasma phospholipids (as a possible alternative specimen), membrane-bound fatty acids are released by phospholipase A2, and - in case of AA and EPA

- may serve as substrates for enzymes of the AA and eicosanoid pathways. Thus, the fatty acid composition of RBCs is close to the site with an expected direct impact on metabolic processes involved in the development of CRC. However, it has to be acknowledged that RBCs are not fully comparable to eicosanoid producing target cells in the colon in terms of their enzymatic properties, e.g. expression of delta-5 and delta-6 desaturases. Due to their long half-life time of about 120 days, RBC fatty acids may reflect medium-term fatty acid supply from the diet, at least for some fatty acids [13, 14]. Significant correlations between dietary fatty acid intake (FFQ-derived) and their proportion in RBC membranes have been reported for very-long chain PUFA, especially fish oil fatty acids (EPA, DHA), oddnumbered fatty acids as markers of dairy fat intake (pentadecanoic acid, heptadecanoic acid), and trans fatty acids [15-17]. This has been confirmed in a randomized cross-over intervention study with chemical analysis of the diet [18]. In addition palmitic acid, oleic acid, and AA were added to the list of fatty acids for which evidence was found that dietary intake could directly modulate their content in RBC [18]. To date, only a few prospective studies have assessed the role of fatty acid levels in CRC development by measuring circulating biomarkers of FA [5, 19-22], and to our knowledge, this is the first study using RBC fatty acid composition to investigate this association prospectively. Here, we conducted a nested case-control study embedded in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC), a large multinational cohort of more than 520,000 participants across Europe with considerable variation in fat consumption and dietary fat quality [23-25].

### **Material and methods**

#### **Study Population and Collection of Blood Samples**

The detailed recruitment procedures and collection of questionnaire data, anthropometric measurements and blood samples for the EPIC cohort have been published elsewhere [24].

Briefly, dietary and non-dietary variables were assessed using standardized questionnaires that were administered between 1992 and 2000 to 519,978 individuals in ten European countries. Blood samples were collected at baseline from 385,747 participants. Fasting prior to blood samples collection was not systematic, but time since last consumption of food or drink was recorded. The present study included incident CRC cases that occurred after baseline assessment and matched control subjects from eight of the ten participating countries. At setup of this nested case-control study, few Norwegian CRC cases with available blood samples had been identified, and the EPIC center in Malmö, Sweden, did not provide RBCs for fatty acid analysis. Participants from Greece were not included in this analysis.

At recruitment, plasma was obtained from blood samples that were drawn into monovettes containing sodium citrate as an anti-coagulant except in Umeå, Sweden where EDTA or heparin-containing vials were used. After centrifugation of the monovettes and pipetting of the plasma and buffy coat (PBMC) layer, the remaining RBC suspension was aliquoted and frozen. RBC samples were stored in heat-sealed straws (0.5 ml) in liquid nitrogen (-196°C) at the biobank facility of the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC; Lyon, France) for all participating countries except Denmark and Sweden where samples were stored locally and under different protocols (Denmark: aliquots of 1.0ml stored locally in Nunc tubes at -150°C under nitrogen vapour, Sweden: stored in -80°C freezers).

This study was approved by the Ethical Review Committee of the IARC (Lyon/France), and ethical committees pertaining to all EPIC centers. All EPIC participants have provided written consent for the use of their blood samples and data.

#### **Follow-up for cancer incidence and vital status**

In Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and the UK, incident cancer cases were identified through record linkage with regional or national cancer registries. In Germany and France, follow-up was based on a combination of methods, including health insurance records, cancer and pathology registries, and active follow-up through study subjects and their next-of-kin. Data on vital status in most EPIC study centers was collected from mortality registries at the regional or national level, in combination with data collected by active follow-up. For each EPIC study center, closure dates of the study period were defined as the latest dates of complete follow-up for both cancer incidence and vital status. By March 2007, complete follow-up data had been reported up to December 2003 or December 2004 for most centers. For Germany, the censoring date was considered to be the date of the last known contact, or date of cancer diagnosis or death, whichever came first.

### **Selection of case and control subjects**

The 10<sup>th</sup> Revision of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases, Injuries and Causes of Death (ICD) was used to code the cancer sites. Colon cancers were defined as tumors in the cecum, appendix, ascending colon, hepatic flexure, transverse colon, splenic flexure, descending and sigmoid colon (C18.0-C18.7), as well as tumors that were overlapping or of unspecified origin (C18.8 and C18.9). Stratified analyses were performed for cancers located in the proximal colon  $(C18.0 - C18.5)$  and distal colon  $(C18.6 - C18.7)$ . Cancers of the rectum were defined as tumors occurring at the recto-sigmoid junction (C19) or in the rectum (C20). Anal canal tumors were excluded.

Controls were selected from all cohort members alive and free of cancer (except nonmelanoma skin cancer) at the time of diagnosis of the cases and were matched by age at recruitment (±6 months), sex, study center (to account for center specific differences in questionnaire design, blood collection procedures etc.), follow-up time since blood collection, time of the day at blood collection (to account for any potential changes that may have occurred in the blood samples over time during storage), and fasting status at the time of blood donation  $\langle 3, 3-6, 3, 6 \rangle$  hours). Women were further matched by menopausal status (pre-menopausal, postmenopausal, peri-menopausal/unknown) and phase of menstrual cycle at blood collection. The latter matching criteria was of necessity to other EPIC nested case-control studies that were being conducted using the same matched case-control sets.

## **Laboratory analysis**

Laboratory analyses were conducted at National Institute for Public Health and Environment (RIVM), Bilthoven, Netherlands. A detailed description of the methods was published elsewhere [26]. Briefly, the phospholipids from RBC membranes were extracted and subsequently methylated with a mixture of toluene and BF3/MeOH. The fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were separated by means of gas chromatography and results are reported as percent of the total of 32 fatty acids, on a molar basis (i.e., mol%). The trivial names or the systematic names of the fatty acids are given in Table 2, along with the short version; in the other tables, only the short version is given. Throughout the text, we use common trivial names (and abbreviations of) where possible.

#### **Statistical analysis**

Study participants' baseline characteristics and fatty acid concentrations were compared between cases and controls using the paired t-test (for normally distributed continuous data), the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (for not normally distributed continuous data) or the  $\gamma^2$ -test for matched pairs (for categorical data).

The association between fatty acids and CRC risk was estimated using conditional logistic regression models conditioned on the matching variables. The results are given as odds ratios (OR), considered as relative risk, and 95% confidence intervals (CI). Fatty acids were categorized into quintiles based on their distribution among the controls. Also, fatty acids data were analysed as continuous variables (per 1 mol%), and the corresponding Pvalues (Wald statistics) can be interpreted as p for trend. Three fatty acids, heptadecanoic acid, AA, and DHA were natural log-transformed for normality. All models were adjusted for BMI (continuous), smoking status (never, former or current), alcohol intake (continuous), educational level (none/primary, secondary, or higher degree), physical activity (inactive, moderately inactive, active), self-reported diabetes status at baseline (yes, no), and season of blood collection. Analyses of dietary sources of fatty acids were not conducted.

Additionally, sub-analyses were performed for 769 cases and their matched controls adjusting for 25-hydroxyvitamin D plasma concentrations. Information on family history of CRC was not available; in addition, data on waist and hip circumference was missing in one center (Umeå); however, sub-analyses with inclusion of waist-to-hip ratio as confounder showed no meaningful difference in risk estimates as compared to the main analysis. In sensitivity analyses, cases of CRC diagnosed within the first two years of follow-up were excluded, as the tumor might have already started growing and affecting biomarkers when the blood samples were taken.

We also conducted stratified analyses by anatomical sub-sites of the tumors (distal and proximal colon, rectum), sex, smoking status, and country to assess potential effect modification. Likelihood ratio chi-square tests were used to examine heterogeneity of the association by strata. All statistical analyses were performed using SAS software package, version 9.1 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). All P values reported were two-tailed and a P value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. The Benjamini-Hochberg correction was used to control for multiple comparisons in the main analysis [27].

## **Results**

The present study included a total of 1069 incident CRC cases, 670 cancers of the colon and 399 rectal cancer cases, and 1069 matched controls; their baseline characteristics were shown in Table 1. About half of the colon cancers were attributed to the distal colon and 40% to the proximal colon (table 1). In comparison to the controls, rectum cancer cases were more

likely to have high alcohol consumption ( $\geq$  40g/day). There was little difference in mean BMI between cases and controls for both colon and rectum cancer.

For the control group, the fatty acid composition of RBC membranes and the sums of SFA, MUFA, n-6 PUFA and n-3 PUFA are given in table 2. Even though the tests for differences between countries for most of the listed fatty acids were statistically significant (data not shown), the absolute differences between countries were within a fairly limited range. The mean fatty acid content (in mol%) in RBC membranes in colon and rectal cancer cases and controls are shown in Table 3.

The odds ratios of CRC for fatty acids and fatty acid groups are presented in table 4. After adjustment for established CRC risk factors, there was a significant positive association between the stearic acid content in RBC membranes and CRC incidence using categorical as well as the continuous variables. The OR (95%CI) increased by 23% (7-42%, p trend =0.005) per 1 mol% increase in stearic acid. No significant associations were seen for other saturated fatty acids (SFAs), thus the result for the sum of SFA (OR [per 1 mol%] = 1.13;  $95\%$ CI=1.03-1.24) was driven by the association observed for stearic acid.

The odd-numbered fatty acid heptadecanoic acid as a putative biomarker of dairy consumption was inversely associated with CRC risk (OR=0.49; 95%CI=0.33-0.80). Likewise, C18:1 trans fatty acids (sum of vaccenic and elaidic acid; their peaks could not be separated with the chosen laboratory methods) showed a significant inverse association with CRC (OR=0.56; 95%CI=0.33-0.96). The RBC membrane content of the cis monounsaturated fatty acids was unrelated to CRC risk.

Concerning n-6 PUFA, a statistically significant positive relationship between the AA content in RBC membranes and CRC risk was seen for the  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  (OR=1.53; 95%CI= 1.12-2.07) and  $4<sup>th</sup>$  quintile (OR=1.46; 95%CI=1.05-2.02) compared to the 1<sup>st</sup> quintile; using the continuous variable, OR estimates increased but failed to reach statistical significance.

However, docosatetraenoic acid (C22:4n6) was significantly associated with CRC incidence  $(OR=1.22; 95\% CI=1.04-1.45; p trend=0.018)$ . We observed no association between the RBC membranes content of LA or dihomo-γ-linolenic acid (C20:3n6) and CRC risk.

The content of EPA and DHA and the sum of n-3 PUFA in RBC membrane lipids was inversely associated with the risk of CRC. The odds ratios of CRC were 0.68 (0.49-0.96) and 0.70 (0.51-0.97) for the highest versus lowest quintile of EPA and DHA, respectively. Per 1 mol% increase in EPA, the cancer risk decreased by 25% (8-38%, p for trend=0.005).

After adjustment for multiple comparisons, significance of associations was confirmed for stearic acid and the total sum of SFA, EPA and the sum of n-3PUFA, and borderline significance for docosatetraenoic acid. Risk estimates for CRC and corresponding 95% CI by EPIC country are presented in figure 1 for the RBC content of stearic acid (Figure 1A), AA (Figure 1B), and EPA (Figure 1C).







**Figure 1**: Forest plots: Odds Ratios for CRC and their corresponding 95% CIs for the RBC content of stearic acid (Figure 1A)\*, of arachidonic acid (Figure 1B)\* and of eicosapentaenoic acid (Figure 1C)\*, for each country and total

\* Cases from France were excluded from these figures;

After exclusion of CRC cases diagnosed within the first two years of follow-up, significant associations persisted for stearic acid, heptadecanoic acid and EPA (supplementary table S1). In a sub-analysis with additional adjustment of the main model for plasma 25 hydroxy-vitamin D concentrations associations remained statistically significant for the sum of SFA, heptadecanoic acid and odd-chain fatty acids and borderline significant for EPA (supplementary table S2).

In table 5, the associations between fifths of fatty acids and the risk of cancer stratified by tumor site (colon, proximal colon, distal colon, and rectal cancer) are shown. Only the results for fatty acids identified from the main analysis as being associated with CRC risk are presented. For most fatty acids, including stearic acid, docosatetraenoic acid, EPA, and DHA we found no clear indication for differential effects by cancer sub-site.

We found no evidence for heterogeneity of the results between men and women (supplementary table S3). There was suggestion of heterogeneity by smoking status for EPA, with current smokers having a lower risk of CRC with increasing EPA concentrations (P for heterogeneity =0.012), whereas there was no association for former smokers. There was also evidence for significant heterogeneity for the association between stearic acid and CRC by country  $(P = 0.018)$  (results not shown).

## **Discussion**

In this multi-center case-control study nested in the prospective EPIC cohort, we observed a positive association between stearic acid content in RBC membrane lipids and the risk of CRC, and an inverse association with EPA, the major very long-chain n-3 PUFA. We got indication for a risk-increasing association for the n-6 PUFA AA and docosatetraenoic acid, but for AA, a dose-response relationship could not be established. Inverse associations with CRC risk were also noted for the odd-numbered fatty acid heptadecanoic acid and the sum of

C18:1 trans fatty acids (vaccenic acid and elaidic acid). Correction for multiple testing as well as the results of sensitivity analyses confirmed especially the associations reported for stearic acid and the sum of SFA as well as for EPA and the sum of n-3 PUFA.

We observed that a higher proportion of stearic acid was associated with a higher risk of both colon and rectal cancer. This has also been found in a few very small human studies measuring fatty acid composition in plasma, RBC or tumor tissue (versus normal tissue) [28- 30] and strong indication for a causal relationship was provided by using the Mendelian randomisation approach [31]. Two nested case-control studies with fatty acid measurements in serum and blood did either not report the results for SFA [20] or found no statistically significant association for the total SFA content [19]. Stearic acid in blood is poorly correlated with dietary intake, and is endogenously synthesized and also metabolized to the corresponding monounsaturated fatty acid. Studies in rodents have shown that long-chain fatty acid elongase (Elov1-5, Elov1-6) activities are tightly regulated by diet and fasting, hormones, drugs, and also in chronic disease [32]. Fatty acid synthesis is increased in many tumors and fatty acid synthase (FASN), the primary enzyme involved in de novo lipogenesis from carbohydrates, has been suggested as a drug target for cancer therapy [33]. Interestingly, increased expression of FASN has been detected in more than 80% of aberrant crypt foci, the earliest identified monoclonal lesion in the colon [34], suggesting an involvement of fatty acid metabolism in very early colorectal tumorigenesis. Emerging evidence indicates also a role of SFAs in DNA damage response [35]. SFA, including stearic acid, resulted in reduced accumulation of p53, compromised induction of p21 and Bax expression and increased cell proliferation in response to double stranded breaks and single stranded DNA in primary mouse fibroblasts [35]. High intake of SFA may also modulate CRC risk through an increased bile acid production [36] and elevated diacylglycerol levels [37]. Bile acids have been shown

to cause DNA damage [38] and possibly play a role in the modulation of COX-2 expression [39], which is thought to play a role in CRC development.

In our study, odd-numbered fatty acids in RBCs, especially heptadecanoic acid, were inversely associated with CRC risk. Being highly correlated with habitual consumption, heptadecanoic acid can be interpreted as a marker for milk and dairy products consumption [40]; however, it can also be of endogenous origin. A protective association has been found for the consumption of total dairy products and CRC risk in EPIC, which is consistent with data from other prospective studies [3, 41]. The protective effect of dairy products is likely due to their high calcium content. Results from a previous analysis in EPIC confirmed that a higher intake of dietary calcium was associated with a reduced risk of CRC [42] as well as colorectal adenoma [43]. Intake of vaccenic acid, the C18:1trans fatty acid originating from ruminant microbiota activity, is also associated with dairy intake. However, vaccenic and elaidic acid could not be separated, thus, a summary estimate for both combined was presented. Since elaidic acid, produced by industrial fat hydrogenation, may have distinctly different biological activities as compared to vaccenic acid, our results are difficult to interpret.

Though we found no significant trend and thus no clear does-response relationship for AA, we obtained significant positive associations for  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  and  $4<sup>th</sup>$  quintile of AA and for the n-6 PUFA docosatetraenoic acid. Using plasma fatty acid data, a Mendelian randomisation study supported a causal link between AA and CRC incidence [31]. However, a Japanese cohort study reported no association between serum n-6 PUFA and CRC risk [19]. Another nested case-control study found a positive association between colon cancer and the ratio of plasma AA/LA as indicator of fatty acid desaturase activity [22].

For long-chain n-3 PUFA, EPA and DHA, our data demonstrated a lower risk of CRC and significant association was confirmed by correction for multiple comparisons; this finding

is in accordance with previously published results [5, 7] and fits with the reported inverse association between dietary fish intake or the intake of n-3 PUFA in EPIC [5] or in a recent meta-analyses of prospective studies [7]. This recently published meta-analysis found a small inverse dose response relationship between blood levels of n-3 PUFA and CRC risk [7]. An inverse association between advanced colorectal adenomas and the levels of EPA and DHA in erythrocyte membrane phospholipids was also observed in the E3N-EPIC cohort [44].

N-3 and n-6 PUFA use the same enzymes for conversion to different eicosanoids with different biological properties [45]. N-3 PUFA were shown to have an effect on cell proliferation and apoptosis, and exert anti-inflammatory functions [46]. Inhibition of the synthesis of pro-inflammatory cytokines, e.g., interleukin-1 beta (IL-1ß) and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ), has been observed with supplementation of n-3 PUFA in humans [47]. This effect is likely to be mediated via decreased activity of the NF- $\kappa$ B system, a crucial regulator of apoptotic processes. In addition, effects through inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) and thus decreased production of pro-inflammatory eicosanoids derived from AA, especially prostaglandin  $E_2$ , are well described [48]. PGE<sub>2</sub> itself can promote tumor growth by activating signaling pathways which control cell proliferation and apoptosis [49]. Regular use of aspirin and other non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) have protective associations with colorectal adenoma and CRC development, most likely via inhibition of COX-1 and COX-2 enzymes [50], thus underlining the importance of this pathway. Enrichment of bio-membranes with EPA in subjects with high fish consumption or supplementation of fish oil may have pleiotropic effects on various molecular pathways, including cellular oxidative stress responses [51] as well as alteration in membrane fluidity and subsequent signalling processes [52]. Interference in these pathways via dietary interventions appears to be an interesting alternative to the use of chemopreventive drugs, which may exert harmful side-effects [53]. Direct evidence for suppression of inflammation-

driven tumor progression by n-3 PUFA has been reported using fat-1 transgenic mice [54]. These mice, which convert endogenous n-6 PUFA to n-3 PUFA in multiple tissues, were at reduced risk of colitis-associated colon cancer. Further, the crucial balance between colonic epithelial cell proliferation and apoptosis was shown to be favourably affected by dietary n-3 PUFA [55-57]. Apoptotic processes are progressively inhibited during colon cancer development [58] which may be restored by n-3 PUFA. Cox-2 downregulation appears to be the mechanism underlying the apoptotic effect of n-3 PUFA in colon cancer cells [59]. However, proteasome-dependent degradation of b-catenin and downregulation of survivin, an important anti-apoptotic factor, may be implicated as well [60].

Increasingly, an interaction between PUFA and the epigenome has been reported, with effects at the global as well as the gene-specific level [61]. PUFA, particularly EPA, were shown to change the expression and activity of crucial epigenomic regulators such as DNMTs and TET proteins. Among the differentially methylated sites are important factors for colon carcinogenesis such as FAS death receptor and the HLTF tumor suppressor protein [62]. Stearic and palmitic acid, in mice, were shown to modulate methylation levels of the PPARγ promoter in murine macrophages triggering expression of proinflammatory factors suggesting one mechanism via which these SFAs may promote colon tumorigenesis [63]. This favouring of the proinflammatory milieu and dysregulation of lipid metabolism through epigenetic mechanisms triggered by n-6 PUFA and SFA is also supported by other pieces of research as summarized in a recent review [64].

The major strength of our study is its large sample size and its prospective design. Blood samples were collected, at baseline of the study, prior to diagnosis, and thus we could exclude the possibility that the cancer itself, subsequent medication, or a change in the patients` dietary habits following the cancer diagnosis and treatment, could subsequently have entailed changes in the fatty acid composition of the erythrocyte phospholipids. Sensitivity analysis

with exclusion of cases diagnosed within the first two years of follow-up complemented this approach. Additional robustness of results was obtained by correction for multiple comparisons. Although having adjusted for several common CRC risk factors, residual and unmeasured confounding cannot be excluded, and thus still remains an important limitation. For a substantial subset of this study, we could adjust for vitamin D status and thus confirm that the major findings reported here are independent of possible vitamin D effects on colorectal carcinogenesis. The lack of separation of the C18:1 trans fatty acids with the applied analytic method is a clear limitation of our study.

In conclusion, the results from this large case-control study nested within EPIC provide evidence for a positive association between stearic acid and probably also long-chain n-6 PUFA (AA, docosatetraenoic acid) in RBC membranes and the risk of CRC. Inverse associations were observed for the RBC long-chain n-3 PUFA, especially EPA, and CRC. These associations can partly be explained by well described biologic mechanisms. However, more research integrating genetic as well as epigenetic data is recommended to further decipher the differential effects of individual fatty acids in colorectal carcinogenesis.

#### **Acknowledgements**

This work was supported by the German Cancer Aid [Deutsche Krebshilfe, #106812]. We thank all the participants in EPIC for their invaluable contribution to the study. The authors gratefully acknowledge the EPIC centres Spain-Asturias and UK-Cambridge for providing data.

#### **Grant sponsors:**

The coordination of EPIC is financially supported by the European Commission (DG-SANCO) and the International Agency for Research on Cancer. The national cohorts are supported by Danish Cancer Society (Denmark); Ligue Contre le Cancer, Institut Gustave Roussy, Mutuelle Générale de l'Education Nationale, Institut National de la Santé et de la

Recherche Médicale (INSERM) (France); German Cancer Aid, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), Deutsche Krebshilfe, Deutsches Krebsforschungszentrum and Federal Ministry of Education and Research (Germany); the Hellenic Health Foundation (Greece); Associazione Italiana per la Ricerca sul Cancro-AIRC-Italy and National Research Council (Italy); Dutch Ministry of Public Health, Welfare and Sports (VWS), Netherlands Cancer Registry (NKR), LK Research Funds, Dutch Prevention Funds, Dutch ZON (Zorg Onderzoek Nederland), World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF), Statistics Netherlands (The Netherlands); ERC-2009-AdG 232997 (Norway); Health Research Fund (FIS), PI13/00061 to Granada, PI13/01162 to EPIC-Murcia, Regional Governments of Andalucía, Asturias, Basque Country, Murcia and Navarra, and the Catalan Institute of Oncology – ICO, ISCIII RETIC (RD06/0020); AGAUR, Generalitat de Catalunya [exp. 2014 SGR 726]; and the Red Tematica de Investigacion Cooperativa en Cancer of the Instituto de Salud Carlos III [ISCIII RTICC RD12/0036/0018], co-funded by FEDER funds/European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) "A Way to Build Europe" to Barcelona (Spain); Swedish Cancer Society, Swedish Research Council and County Councils of Skåne and Västerbotten (Sweden); Cancer Research UK (14136 to EPIC-Norfolk; C570/A11692, C570/A16491, C8221/A19170 and C8221/A29017 to EPIC-Oxford), Medical Research Council (1000143 to EPIC-Norfolk, MR/M012190/1 to EPIC-Oxford) (United Kingdom).

# **References**

- 1. Brenner, H., M. Kloor, and C.P. Pox, *Colorectal cancer.* Lancet, 2014. **383**(9927): p. 1490-1502.
- 2. International Agency for Research on Cancer, *Estimated number of new cases in 2018, Europe, all cancers, both sexes, all ages. Available from: [http://gco.iarc.fr/today/online-analysis](http://gco.iarc.fr/today/online-analysis-pie?v=2018&mode=cancer&mode_population=continents&population=900&populations=908&key=total&sex=0&cancer=39&type=0&statistic=5&prevalence=0&population_group=0&ages_group%5B%5D=0&ages_group%5B%5D=17&nb_items=7&group_cancer=1&include_nmsc=1&include_nmsc_other=1&half_pie=0&donut=0&population_group_globocan_id=#collapse-group-1-4-0)[pie?v=2018&mode=cancer&mode\\_population=continents&population=900&popula](http://gco.iarc.fr/today/online-analysis-pie?v=2018&mode=cancer&mode_population=continents&population=900&populations=908&key=total&sex=0&cancer=39&type=0&statistic=5&prevalence=0&population_group=0&ages_group%5B%5D=0&ages_group%5B%5D=17&nb_items=7&group_cancer=1&include_nmsc=1&include_nmsc_other=1&half_pie=0&donut=0&population_group_globocan_id=#collapse-group-1-4-0) [tions=908&key=total&sex=0&cancer=39&type=0&statistic=5&prevalence=0&pop](http://gco.iarc.fr/today/online-analysis-pie?v=2018&mode=cancer&mode_population=continents&population=900&populations=908&key=total&sex=0&cancer=39&type=0&statistic=5&prevalence=0&population_group=0&ages_group%5B%5D=0&ages_group%5B%5D=17&nb_items=7&group_cancer=1&include_nmsc=1&include_nmsc_other=1&half_pie=0&donut=0&population_group_globocan_id=#collapse-group-1-4-0) [ulation\\_group=0&ages\\_group%5B%5D=0&ages\\_group%5B%5D=17&nb\\_items=7](http://gco.iarc.fr/today/online-analysis-pie?v=2018&mode=cancer&mode_population=continents&population=900&populations=908&key=total&sex=0&cancer=39&type=0&statistic=5&prevalence=0&population_group=0&ages_group%5B%5D=0&ages_group%5B%5D=17&nb_items=7&group_cancer=1&include_nmsc=1&include_nmsc_other=1&half_pie=0&donut=0&population_group_globocan_id=#collapse-group-1-4-0) [&group\\_cancer=1&include\\_nmsc=1&include\\_nmsc\\_other=1&half\\_pie=0&donut=0](http://gco.iarc.fr/today/online-analysis-pie?v=2018&mode=cancer&mode_population=continents&population=900&populations=908&key=total&sex=0&cancer=39&type=0&statistic=5&prevalence=0&population_group=0&ages_group%5B%5D=0&ages_group%5B%5D=17&nb_items=7&group_cancer=1&include_nmsc=1&include_nmsc_other=1&half_pie=0&donut=0&population_group_globocan_id=#collapse-group-1-4-0) [&population\\_group\\_globocan\\_id=#collapse-group-1-4-0](http://gco.iarc.fr/today/online-analysis-pie?v=2018&mode=cancer&mode_population=continents&population=900&populations=908&key=total&sex=0&cancer=39&type=0&statistic=5&prevalence=0&population_group=0&ages_group%5B%5D=0&ages_group%5B%5D=17&nb_items=7&group_cancer=1&include_nmsc=1&include_nmsc_other=1&half_pie=0&donut=0&population_group_globocan_id=#collapse-group-1-4-0) ; date of access: 22.10.2019.* Data source: Globocan 2018.
- 3. World Cancer Research Fund/American Institute for Cancer Research, *Continuous Update Project. Diet, nutrition, physical activity and colorectal cancer.* 2018.
- 4. Kim, M. and K. Park, *Dietary Fat Intake and Risk of Colorectal Cancer: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Prospective Studies.* Nutrients, 2018. **10**(12).
- 5. Aglago, E.K., et al., *Consumption of Fish and Long-chain n-3 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids Is Associated With Reduced Risk of Colorectal Cancer in a Large European Cohort.* Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol, 2019.
- 6. Manson, J.E., et al., *The VITamin D and OmegA-3 TriaL (VITAL): rationale and design of a large randomized controlled trial of vitamin D and marine omega-3 fatty acid supplements for the primary prevention of cancer and cardiovascular disease.* Contemp Clin Trials, 2012. **33**(1): p. 159-71.
- 7. Kim, Y. and J. Kim, *Intake or blood levels of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and risk of colorectal cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies.* Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev, 2019.
- 8. Tutino, V., et al., *Elevated AA/EPA Ratio Represents an Inflammatory Biomarker in Tumor Tissue of Metastatic Colorectal Cancer Patients.* Int J Mol Sci, 2019. **20**(8).
- 9. Liu, M., et al., *Elevation of n-3/n-6 PUFAs ratio suppresses mTORC1 and prevents colorectal carcinogenesis associated with APC mutation.* Oncotarget, 2016. **7**(47): p. 76944-76954.
- 10. Shen, X.J., et al., *Dietary intake of n-3 fatty acids and colorectal cancer risk: a metaanalysis of data from 489 000 individuals.* Br J Nutr, 2012. **108**(9): p. 1550-6.
- 11. Bingham, S.A., et al., *Are imprecise methods obscuring a relation between fat and breast cancer?* Lancet, 2003. **362**(9379): p. 212-4.
- 12. Baylin, A. and H. Campos, *The use of fatty acid biomarkers to reflect dietary intake.* Curr Opin Lipidol, 2006. **17**(1): p. 22-7.
- 13. Arab, L. and J. Akbar, *Biomarkers and the measurement of fatty acids.* Public Health Nutr, 2002. **5**(6A): p. 865-71.
- 14. Stanford, J.L., I. King, and A.R. Kristal, *Long-term storage of red blood cells and correlations between red cell and dietary fatty acids: results from a pilot study.* Nutr Cancer, 1991. **16**(3-4): p. 183-8.
- 15. Sun, Q., et al., *Comparison between plasma and erythrocyte fatty acid content as biomarkers of fatty acid intake in US women.* Am J Clin Nutr, 2007. **86**(1): p. 74-81.
- 16. Sun, Q., et al., *Plasma and erythrocyte biomarkers of dairy fat intake and risk of ischemic heart disease.* Am J Clin Nutr, 2007. **86**(4): p. 929-37.
- 17. Fuhrman, B.J., et al., *Erythrocyte membrane phospholipid composition as a biomarker of dietary fat.* Ann Nutr Metab, 2006. **50**(2): p. 95-102.
- 18. Poppitt, S.D., et al., *Assessment of erythrocyte phospholipid fatty acid composition as a biomarker for dietary MUFA, PUFA or saturated fatty acid intake in a controlled cross-over intervention trial.* Lipids Health Dis, 2005. **4**: p. 30.
- 19. Kojima, M., et al., *Serum levels of polyunsaturated fatty acids and risk of colorectal cancer: a prospective study.* Am J Epidemiol, 2005. **161**(5): p. 462-71.
- 20. Hall, M.N., et al., *Blood levels of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids, aspirin, and the risk of colorectal cancer.* Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev, 2007. **16**(2): p. 314- 21.
- 21. Hodge, A.M., et al., *Dietary and biomarker estimates of fatty acids and risk of colorectal cancer.* Int J Cancer, 2015. **137**(5): p. 1224-34.
- 22. Butler, L.M., et al., *Plasma fatty acids and risk of colon and rectal cancers in the Singapore Chinese Health Study.* NPJ Precis Oncol, 2017. **1**(1): p. 38.
- 23. Riboli, E. and R. Kaaks, *The EPIC project: Rationale and study design.* International Journal of Epidemiology, 1997. **26**: p. S6-S14.
- 24. Riboli, E., et al., *European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC): study populations and data collection.* Public Health Nutr, 2002. **5**(6B): p. 1113-24.
- 25. Linseisen, J., et al., *Dietary fat intake in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition: results from the 24-h dietary recalls.* European Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 2009. **63**: p. S61-S80.
- 26. Kroger, J., et al., *Erythrocyte membrane phospholipid fatty acids, desaturase activity, and dietary fatty acids in relation to risk of type 2 diabetes in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC)-Potsdam Study.* Am J Clin Nutr, 2011. **93**(1): p. 127-42.
- 27. Benjamini, Y. and Y. Hochberg, *Controlling the False Discovery Rate - a Practical and Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing.* Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B-Statistical Methodology, 1995. **57**(1): p. 289-300.
- 28. Baro, L., et al., *Abnormalities in plasma and red blood cell fatty acid profiles of patients with colorectal cancer.* Br J Cancer, 1998. **77**(11): p. 1978-83.
- 29. Neoptolemos, J.P., et al., *Dietary fat in relation to fatty acid composition of red cells and adipose tissue in colorectal cancer.* Br J Cancer, 1988. **58**(5): p. 575-9.
- 30. Neoptolemos, J.P., et al., *Arachidonic acid and docosahexaenoic acid are increased in human colorectal cancer.* Gut, 1991. **32**(3): p. 278-81.
- 31. May-Wilson, S., et al., *Pro-inflammatory fatty acid profile and colorectal cancer risk: A Mendelian randomisation analysis.* Eur J Cancer, 2017. **84**: p. 228-238.
- 32. Wang, Y., et al., *Elevated hepatic fatty acid elongase-5 activity affects multiple pathways controlling hepatic lipid and carbohydrate composition.* J Lipid Res, 2008. **49**(7): p. 1538-52.
- 33. Kuhajda, F.P., *Fatty acid synthase and cancer: new application of an old pathway.* Cancer Res, 2006. **66**(12): p. 5977-80.
- 34. Kearney, K.E., T.G. Pretlow, and T.P. Pretlow, *Increased expression of fatty acid synthase in human aberrant crypt foci: possible target for colorectal cancer prevention.* Int J Cancer, 2009. **125**(1): p. 249-52.
- 35. Zeng, L., et al., *Saturated fatty acids modulate cell response to DNA damage: implication for their role in tumorigenesis.* PLoS One, 2008. **3**(6): p. e2329.
- 36. Hill, M.J., *Bile acids and colorectal cancer: hypothesis.* Eur J Cancer Prev, 1991. **1 Suppl 2**: p. 69-74.
- 37. Pickering, J.S., J.R. Lupton, and R.S. Chapkin, *Dietary fat, fiber, and carcinogen alter fecal diacylglycerol composition and mass.* Cancer Res, 1995. **55**(11): p. 2293-8.
- 38. Bernstein, H., et al., *Bile acids as carcinogens in human gastrointestinal cancers.* Mutation Research-Reviews in Mutation Research, 2005. **589**(1): p. 47-65.
- 39. Wendum, D., et al., *Cyclooxygenase-2 and its role in colorectal cancer development.* Virchows Arch, 2004. **445**(4): p. 327-33.
- 40. Saadatian-Elahi, M., et al., *Plasma phospholipid fatty acid profiles and their association with food intakes: results from a cross-sectional study within the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition.* Am J Clin Nutr, 2009. **89**(1): p. 331-46.
- 41. Norat, T. and E. Riboli, *Dairy products and colorectal cancer. A review of possible mechanisms and epidemiological evidence.* Eur J Clin Nutr, 2003. **57**(1): p. 1-17.
- 42. Jenab, M., et al., *Association between pre-diagnostic circulating vitamin D concentration and risk of colorectal cancer in European populations:a nested casecontrol study.* BMJ, 2010. **340**: p. b5500.
- 43. Kesse, E., et al., *Dietary calcium, phosphorus, vitamin D, dairy products and the risk of colorectal adenoma and cancer among French women of the E3N-EPIC prospective study.* Int J Cancer, 2005. **117**(1): p. 137-44.
- 44. Cottet, V., et al., *Erythrocyte membrane phospholipid fatty acid concentrations and risk of colorectal adenomas: a case-control nested in the French E3N-EPIC cohort study.* Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev, 2013. **22**(8): p. 1417-27.
- 45. Calder, P.C., *Omega-3 fatty acids and inflammatory processes: from molecules to man.* Biochem Soc Trans, 2017. **45**(5): p. 1105-1115.
- 46. !!! INVALID CITATION !!! [11, 12].
- 47. Endres, S., et al., *The effect of dietary supplementation with n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids on the synthesis of interleukin-1 and tumor necrosis factor by mononuclear cells.* N Engl J Med, 1989. **320**(5): p. 265-71.
- 48. !!! INVALID CITATION !!! [11, 14].
- 49. Wang, D. and R.N. Dubois, *Prostaglandins and cancer.* Gut, 2006. **55**(1): p. 115-22.
- 50. Das, D., N. Arber, and J.A. Jankowski, *Chemoprevention of colorectal cancer.* Digestion, 2007. **76**(1): p. 51-67.
- 51. Leufkens, A.M., et al., *Biomarkers of oxidative stress and risk of developing colorectal cancer: a cohort-nested case-control study in the European Prospective Investigation Into Cancer and Nutrition.* Am J Epidemiol, 2012. **175**(7): p. 653-63.
- 52. Larsson, S.C., et al., *Dietary long-chain n-3 fatty acids for the prevention of cancer: a review of potential mechanisms.* Am J Clin Nutr, 2004. **79**(6): p. 935-45.
- 53. Juni, P., et al., *Risk of cardiovascular events and rofecoxib: cumulative meta-analysis.* Lancet, 2004. **364**(9450): p. 2021-9.
- 54. Jia, Q., et al., *Reduced colitis-associated colon cancer in Fat-1 (n-3 fatty acid desaturase) transgenic mice.* Cancer Res, 2008. **68**(10): p. 3985-91.
- 55. Courtney, E.D., et al., *Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) reduces crypt cell proliferation and increases apoptosis in normal colonic mucosa in subjects with a history of colorectal adenomas.* Int J Colorectal Dis, 2007. **22**(7): p. 765-76.
- 56. Cheng, J., et al., *Increased intake of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids elevates the level of apoptosis in the normal sigmoid colon of patients polypectomized for adenomas/tumors.* Cancer Lett, 2003. **193**(1): p. 17-24.
- 57. Skender, B., A.H. Vaculova, and J. Hofmanova, *Docosahexaenoic fatty acid (DHA) in the regulation of colon cell growth and cell death: a review.* Biomed Pap Med Fac Univ Palacky Olomouc Czech Repub, 2012. **156**(3): p. 186-99.
- 58. Bedi, A., et al., *Inhibition of apoptosis during development of colorectal cancer.* Cancer Res, 1995. **55**(9): p. 1811-6.
- 59. Zhang, C., et al., *Growth inhibitory effect of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) on colon cancer cells via their growth inhibitory metabolites and fatty acid composition changes.* PLoS One, 2015. **10**(4): p. e0123256.
- 60. Calviello, G., S. Serini, and E. Piccioni, *n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and the prevention of colorectal cancer: molecular mechanisms involved.* Curr Med Chem, 2007. **14**(29): p. 3059-69.
- 61. Moradi Sarabi, M., et al., *Polyunsaturated fatty acids and DNA methylation in colorectal cancer.* World J Clin Cases, 2019. **7**(24): p. 4172-4185.
- 62. Aslibekyan, S., et al., *DNA methylation patterns are associated with n-3 fatty acid intake in Yup'ik people.* J Nutr, 2014. **144**(4): p. 425-30.
- 63. Wang, X., et al., *Epigenetic regulation of macrophage polarization and inflammation by DNA methylation in obesity.* JCI Insight, 2016. **1**(19): p. e87748.
- 64. Gonzalez-Becerra, K., et al., *Fatty acids, epigenetic mechanisms and chronic diseases: a systematic review.* Lipids Health Dis, 2019. **18**(1): p. 178.



# **Table 1:** Baseline characteristics of colon and rectal cancer cases and matched controls [Mean (±SD) or N (%)]



\* chi² test or t-test for matched pairs;

Abbreviations: NOS = not otherwise specified

Fatty acids	France	Italy	Spain	UK	Netherlands	Germany	Sweden	Denmark
N	8	138	116	172	122	122	76	315
Saturated fatty acids (SFA)								
C14:0, Myristic acid	$0.5(0.4-0.6)$	$0.3(0.3-0.4)$	$0.3(0.2-0.3)$	$0.4(0.3-0.5)$	$0.5(0.4-0.5)$	$0.4(0.4-0.5)$	$0.4(0.4-0.5)$	$0.4(0.4-0.5)$
$C16:0$ , Palmitic acid	21.9 (21.4-22.5)	$21.0(20.6-21.5)$	$20.3(19.7-21.0)$	$21.3(20.8-21.8)$	$21.2(20.7-21.6)$	21.3 (20.8-21.9)	$21.2(20.6-21.5)$	21.4 (20.9-21.9)
C18:0, Stearic acid	$13.5(12.9-14.0)$	$13.9(13.6-14.3)$	$14.2(13.7-14.7)$	$13.7(13.3-14.1)$	$14.1(13.7-14.6)$	$14.3(14.0-14.7)$	$14.1(13.8-14.4)$	$14.0(13.6-14.5)$
SFA, total <sup>a</sup> Odd-chain fatty acids	42.7 (41.7-43.2)	40.9 (40.0-41.6)	40.1 (39.4-41.0)	40.9 (40.2-41.7)	41.8 (40.9-42.8)	42.0 (41.3-42.8)	$40.5(40.1-41.1)$	$41.9(41.1-42.8)$
C15:0, Pentadecanoic acid	$0.4(0.4-0.5)$	$0.4(0.3-0.5)$	$0.4(0.3-0.4)$	$0.5(0.4-0.5)$	$0.5(0.3-0.6)$	$0.5(0.2-0.7)$	$0.4(0.3-0.4)$	$0.3(0.3-0.3)$
C17:0, Heptadecanoic acid	$0.4(0.4-0.5)$	$0.4(0.3-0.4)$	$0.4(0.4-0.4)$	$0.4(0.3-0.4)$	$0.3(0.3-0.4)$	$0.3(0.3-0.4)$	$0.3(0.3-0.4)$	$0.3(0.3-0.4)$
Monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA)								
C16:1n7c, palmitoleic acid	$0.7(0.5-0.8)$	$0.4(0.3-0.5)$	$0.3(0.2-0.4)$	$0.5(0.4-0.6)$	$0.5(0.4-0.6)$	$0.5(0.4-0.6)$	$0.5(0.4-0.6)$	$0.5(0.4-0.6)$
C18:1n9c, Oleic acid	$12.5(12.3-13.6)$	$13.4(12.8-14.2)$	$13.1(12.1-14.3)$	$12.5(11.5-13.4)$	$11.9(11.3-12.6)$	$12.1(11.6-12.8)$	$13.4(12.7-14.2)$	$12.5(11.9-13.2)$
$C18:1n7t+n9t,$ Sum of vaccenic acid and elaidic acid	$0.5(0.4-0.5)$	$0.4(0.3-0.5)$	$0.5(0.4-0.5)$	$0.8(0.6-0.9)$	$0.8(0.6-0.9)$	$0.5(0.4-0.7)$	$0.6(0.5-0.7)$	$0.5(0.4-0.6)$
MUFA, total b	18.3 (17.5-19.2)	19.2 (18.0-20.5)	18.9 (17.3-20.4)	$17.5(16.6-18.3)$	$16.4(15.6-17.7)$	$17.5(17.1-18.3)$	$18.5(17.8-19.1)$	$18.3(17.7-19.1)$
n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-6 PUFA)								

**Table 2:** Red blood cell fatty acid (FA) composition among controls by EPIC country [mol%; Median (25th-75th percentile)]



Abbreviations:

a sum of C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0; <sup>b</sup> sum of C16:1n7c, C18:1n9c, C18:1n7c, C20:1n9c; <sup>c</sup> sum of C18:2n6c, C18:3n6, C20:2n6, C20:3n6, C20:4n6, C22:4n6; <sup>d</sup> sum of C18:3n3, C20:5n3, C22:5n3, C22:6n3



# **Table 3:** Red blood cell fatty acid composition for cases and matched controls [mol%; Median (25th-75th percentile)]



<sup>a</sup> sum of C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0; <sup>b</sup> sum of C16:1n7c, C18:1n9c, C18:1n7c, C20:1n9c; <sup>c</sup> sum of C18:2n6c, C18:3n6, C20:2n6,

C20:3n6, C20:4n6, C22:4n6; d sum of C18:3n3, C20:5n3, C22:5n3, C22:6n3;



# **Table 4: Odds Ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) of colorectal cancer by red blood cell fatty acid composition**





 $^a$  sum of C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0;  $^b$  sum of C16:1n7c, C18:1n9c, C18:1n7c, C20:1n9c;  $^c$  sum of C18:2n6c, C18:3n6, C20:2n6, C20:3n6, C20:4n6, C22:4n6;  $^d$  sum of C18:3n3, C20:5n3, C22:5n3, C22:6n3; e sum of C15:0, C17:0;

Abbreviations: § log-transformed; <sup>§</sup> Wald test statistics; + Sum of vaccenic acid and elaidic acid; # significant after correction for multiple comparisons (Benjamini-Hochberg); OR, adjusted ‡ conditional logistic regression adjusted for BMI, smoking status, education, physical activity, alcohol intake, history of diabetes, and season of blood collection



# **Table 5: Multivariable adjusted Odds Ratio (OR) ‡ and 95% confidence interval (CI) of colorectal cancer by sub-site in association with red blood cell fatty acid composition**



 $^a$  sum of C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0;  $^b$  sum of C16:1n7c, C18:1n9c, C18:1n7c, C20:1n9c;  $^c$  sum of C18:2n6c, C18:3n6, C20:2n6, C20:3n6, C20:4n6, C22:4n6;  $^d$  sum of C18:3n3, C20:5n3, C22:5n3, C22:6n3; § log-transformed; \$ Wald test statistics

 $\stackrel{\ddots}{*}$  conditional logistic regression adjusted for BMI, smoking status, education, physical activity, alcohol intake, history of diabetes, and season of blood collection



# **Supplementary Table S1: Odds Ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) of colorectal cancer by red blood cell fatty acid composition, first two years excluded**





 $^a$  sum of C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0;  $^b$  sum of C16:1n7c, C18:1n9c, C18:1n7c, C20:1n9c;  $^c$  sum of C18:2n6c, C18:3n6, C20:2n6, C20:3n6, C20:4n6, C22:4n6;  $^d$  sum of C18:3n3, C20:5n3, C22:5n3, C22:6n3; e sum of C15:0, C17:0; §log-transformed; + Sum of vaccenic acid and elaidic acid; §Wald test statistics; OR, adjusted ‡ conditional logistic regression adjusted for BMI, smoking status, education, physical activity, alcohol intake, history of diabetes, and season of blood collection



# **Supplementary Table S2: Odds Ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) of colorectal cancer by red blood cell fatty acid composition, total FU, adjusted for plasma 25-hydroxy- vitamin D concentration**





 $^a$  sum of C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0;  $^b$  sum of C16:1n7c, C18:1n9c, C18:1n7c, C20:1n9c;  $^c$  sum of C18:2n6c, C18:3n6, C20:2n6, C20:3n6, C20:4n6, C22:4n6;  $^d$  sum of C18:3n3, C20:5n3, C22:5n3, C22:6n3; e sum of C15:0, C17:0; §log-transformed; + Sum of vaccenic acid and elaidic acid; §Wald test statistics; OR, adjusted ‡ conditional logistic regression adjusted for BMI, smoking status, education, physical activity, alcohol intake, vitamin D, history of diabetes, and season of blood collection

# **Supplementary Table S3: Multivariable adjusted Odds Ratio (OR) ‡ and 95% confidence interval (CI) of colorectal cancer by red blood cell fatty acid composition (continuous variable), stratified by gender and smoking status**



 $^a$  sum of C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0;  $^b$  sum of C16:1n7c, C18:1n9c, C18:1n7c, C20:1n9c;  $^c$  sum of C18:2n6c, C18:3n6, C20:2n6, C20:3n6, C20:4n6, C22:4n6;  $^d$  sum of C18:3n3, C20:5n3, C22:5n3, C22:6n3; §log-transformed; <sup>§</sup> Wald test statistics; \*P heterogeneity; ‡ conditional logistic regression adjusted for BMI, education, physical activity, alcohol intake, history of diabetes, and season of blood collection