Blood-Based Biomarkers and Novel Technologies for the Diagnosis of Colorectal Cancer and Adenomas. A Narrative Review.

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Abstract

Introduction

Faecal tests are most commonly used in triage and screening for colorectal cancer (CRC), however there is a high false positive rate and poor sensitivity for colorectal adenomas (CRA). Blood-based biomarkers for CRC and CRA have recently shown great promise but none are in common use. This review aims to summarise the recent studies in this area and to describe their potential use in CRC and CRA diagnosis.

Methods

A systematic literature search regarding blood-based biomarkers in CRC and CRA was undertaken in line with the PRISMA 2020 guidelines. Medline and Embase were searched for eligible English language studies between 01/01/2017 - 01/03/2023. Conference abstracts and duplicates were removed. Key criteria included a range of terms describing CRC, CRA, liquid biopsy, blood-based tests, and diagnosis.

Results

12378 studies were found by the initial literature searches and reduced to 178 for data extraction after title, abstract and full text reviews. 60 focussed on proteomics, 53 on RNA species, 30 on cfDNA methylation, 7 on antigens and autoantibodies, and 28 on other novel techniques. There were 169 case-control studies and 9 cohort studies. Number of participants ranged from 100 to 54297, with a mean age of 58.26. CRC diagnostic sensitivity and specificity ranged from 9.10 to 100% and 20.40 to 100% respectively. CRA vs control diagnostic sensitivity and specificity ranged from 8.00 to 95.70% and 4.00 to 97.00% respectively.

Conclusion

There is a growing field of acceptably sensitive and specific blood-based tests for CRC and CRA. However, current studies demonstrate a broad range of heterogenous techniques and reporting quality which makes selecting the best candidates difficult. Further work should concentrate on larger validation studies and high-quality meta-analyses to determine which tests may realistically be worth progressing into clinical use.

Main Body

Introduction

Background and Aims

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the third commonest cancer world-wide, accounting for 11% of global cancer diagnoses with approximately 1.8 million new cases each year.[1] CRC is the second most deadly cancer globally, leading to approximately 16,800 deaths per year in the UK, or 10% of all cancer deaths.[2] Most CRC is known to develop from benign neoplasms derived from over-proliferation of mucosal epithelial cells, known as "polyps", which may grow slowly for 5 to 10 years or more before completing transformation into CRC.[3] The most common benign neoplasm of the colon and rectum at risk of causing CRC is a colorectal "adenoma" (CRA), a polyp originating from glandular cells whose function is to produce mucus which lines the colorectal mucosa.[4] Only a small number of all CRAs progress to become invasive cancers but this likelihood rises with time, increasing polyp size and differs by subtype of adenoma.[3, 5] CRC arising from CRAs is known as adenocarcinoma and represents 96% of CRC cases.[6] For this reason, diagnosis at the polyp stage or as an early CRC is obviously preferable and confers a survival benefit.[7]

CRC and CRAs are most commonly diagnosed because of symptoms which prompt further investigation or via CRC screening programmes.[8] Diagnosis is confirmed by direct tissue biopsy and histopathology, which is normally obtained by endoscopic examination of the colon and rectum. However, there have been efforts in recent years to reduce the burden placed on endoscopy resources by developing adequately sensitive and specific tests which help stratify a patient's risk of CRC and polyps. Presently, faecal tests which detect the presence of trace blood in stool samples are most commonly used, with the faecal immunochemical test (FIT) superseding the faecal occult blood (FOB) test in recent years.[9] Particularly in symptomatic populations, FIT is a useful "rule-out" test, with a negative predictive value of up to 99.8%.[10] However, FIT still has a high false positive rate and is less useful in identifying high-risk colorectal polyps, with a sensitivity of approximately 40% even at low FIT positivity thresholds.[11]

Blood-based biomarkers for CRC have been available for many years, with protein antigen biomarkers such as carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA) and carbohydrate antigen 19-9 (CA19-9) utilised as adjuncts in diagnosis and follow-up.[12, 13] None currently in common use have been shown to have sufficient accuracy to replace faecal-based tests. However, research in recent years has identified several classes of blood-based biomarkers and related technologies for the diagnosis of CRC and CRAs which show great promise. This narrative review aims to provide an updated summary of the broad range of recent studies in this area and to describe their potential use in the future of CRC diagnosis and screening.

The groups of biomarkers involved are explained below and can broadly be classified under proteomics, antigens and auto-antibodies, circulating tumour cells (CTCs), circulating (cell-free) DNA (cfDNA), ribonucleic acid (RNA) tests, and other technologies such as Raman spectroscopy and fluorescence spectroscopy.

Proteomics

Proteomics simply describes the study of proteins, a field which has expanded rapidly with widespread access to enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and other rapid protein-assay technologies.[14] Myriad protein biomarkers for CRC and colorectal polyps have been described which are often associated with pathways involved in inflammation, tissue growth, invasion, migration, metastasis, vascular development, cell adhesion and cell death.[15-18] This wide breadth of protein biomarker studies has yielded some promising results, particularly where multiple protein biomarkers are combined in panels, which have been shown to result in sensitivity and specificity as high as 90%.[16] However, no individual protein biomarkers have been shown to consistently outperform CEA or FIT sufficiently to enter common use.

Antigens and Auto-Antibodies

Antigens and auto-antibodies can be considered as an important subset of proteomics. Antigens are proteins presented on the surface of all human cells, which are able to bind with antibodies - proteins essential to the adaptive immune system by identifying "non-self" antigens which may represent foreign cells. Auto-antibodies are those antibodies which bind with "self" or "non-foreign" antigens. In CRC, the two most commonly used antigen biomarkers are CEA and CA19-9, as described above,

which are aberrantly expressed by CRC tissue.[19] CEA comprises a set of related glycosyl-phosphatidyl-inositol cell-surface glycoprotein antigens, which are highly expressed during embryonic development but are not produced normally by the time of birth. CA19-9 is a sialylated tetrasaccharide antigen normally involved in cell-cell recognition processes. Both show relatively poor overall sensitivity (though this increases with advancing tumour stage), confer a poor survival rate if significantly raised, and are most commonly utilised in monitoring for recurrence.[12, 20] CEA is more specific for CRC, with CA19-9 more commonly used for pancreaticobiliary cancers. CEA sensitivity in the diagnosis of CRC is known to be 30-80% depending on cut-off and tumour stage, and specificity is >90%, though it has also been shown to be raised in benign colorectal conditions.[12] Many studies have examined both "tumour-associated" and "tumour-specific" antigens, as well as auto-antibodies against these antigens such as p53, c-myc, p62 and koc. However, the same pattern of low sensitivity and high specificity remains prevalent.[21]

Circulating tumour cells (CTCs)

CTCs are shed from the primary tumour and/or metastases and are detectable in peripheral blood samples.[22] This process appears to begin much earlier than previously thought, from oncogenesis onwards, and can be used to diagnose even early-stage cancers.[23] However, their presence in peripheral blood indicates an increased risk of distant spread and has been shown to confer poorer rates of longterm disease-free survival.[24] It has been suggested that this is because their presence in peripheral blood is indicative of readily-shed, circulating cancer cells which are therefore more likely to result in metastases. Detection of CTCs can be challenging due to their very low concentration and involves enrichment (isolation of CTCs) before detection, normally by staining and microscopy or polymerase chain reaction (PCR) techniques.[25] CTCs have previously been shown to have good diagnostic accuracy for CRC, with sensitivity and specificity of 82% and 97% respectively in one recent meta-analyses.[26] Specificity is high by the very nature of CTCs, however false positives do occur (in benign colorectal disease, for example) and have been attributed to circulating epithelial cells with borderline phenotype. The addition of further genomic analysis, such as fluorescence in-situ hybridisation (FISH), or single-cell analysis has been suggested to avoid this but at the cost of increased time and resources.[27]

Circulating (cell-free) DNA (cfDNA)

cfDNA has been detected in peripheral blood since the 1940s, even before the double-helix structure of DNA was described.[28] cfDNA is released frequently from apoptotic or necrotic cancer cells, and infrequently from living cells.[29] In recent years its use as a biomarker for CRC has been explored by investigating properties such as overall cfDNA level, methylation, integrity, microsatellite instability and somatic mutations of known oncogenes or tumour-suppressor genes (e.g. APC, KRAS, p53).[30] As for CTCs, cfDNA can be difficult to isolate and detect in blood owing to issues such as variable levels in plasma versus serum and a half-life ranging from minutes to hours, making detectable concentrations inconsistent.[31] However, reasonable sensitivity and specificity have previously been reported at 71- 78% and 87-94% respectively, depending on the characteristic studied.[26] DNA methylation in particular has been highly studied because of its early and frequent occurrence in cancer, relatively easy detection via established techniques, stability in fixed samples, and cell-type specificity. Studies have tended to focus on hypermethylation of "promoter CpG islands", which are DNA regions which regulate gene expression through transcriptional silencing. When hypermethylation of these areas occurs in association with tumour-suppressor genes their expression is downregulated and this has been shown to be common amongst the myriad genetic changes present in early cancer formation.[32] Two of the only FDA-approved tests commercially available for the diagnosis of CRC which do not involve the detection of blood utilise cfDNA methylation: Cologuard (genes NDRG4 and BMP3 in faecal DNA) and Epi-pro-Colon (gene SEPT9 in peripheral blood).

Ribonucleic Acid (RNA)

Many varieties have been investigated in recent years including RNA, messenger-RNA (mRNA), micro-RNA (miRNA), long non-coding RNA (lncRNA), circular RNA (circRNA), piwi-interacting RNA (piRNA) and other "small RNAs". These may be isolated from serum, plasma, exosomes or other extracellular vesicles and are involved in regulating gene expression.[33]

RNA species comprise a single chain of nucleotides derived from a corresponding length of source DNA, however their size and function varies:

- mRNA (variable length) is created by direct transcription from DNA and codes for the formation of specific proteins by ribosomal translation. This is the first and main pathway by which genes are expressed – how genotype becomes phenotype.
- Small RNAs are short lengths of RNA comprising fewer than 200 nucleotides, of which most are thought to be non-coding.
- miRNAs (21-24 nucleotides in length) and piRNA (26-31 nucleotides) are short non-coding lengths of RNA which are known to act to silence RNA or regulate post-transcriptional gene expression.
- lncRNAs (>200 nucleotides in length) are thought to be mostly non-functional or biologically irrelevant but may be involved in transcriptional regulation.
- circRNAs are simply RNAs in a circular (rather than linear) structure and whose function may be as for any other RNA.

Most methods examining RNA species in clinical practice involve amplification by real-time reverse transcriptase quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) which remains comparatively costly, time-consuming and prone to issues with sample exclusion due to the relative lability of RNA species.[34] In RT-qPCR, the extracted target RNA of interest is first converted into a complimentary DNA (cDNA) strand by adding a specific RNA primer and the enzyme "reverse transcriptase". This cDNA template is then used to create exponential amplification of the original target RNA by use of further targeted primers and the enzyme "DNA polymerase" in repeated cycles. Diagnostic accuracy is improving with isolation of the most reliable markers and grouping into panels, however prior meta-analyses have continued to show overall sensitivity and specificity ranging between 70-80%.[35-38]

Other tests

Several other areas of research including metabolomics, lipidomics and specific analysis of standard clinical blood tests have also yielded promising results.[39-41] However, highly accurate peripheral blood-based tests are now emerging which involve novel technologies such as mass spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy and fluorescence spectroscopy, often in conjunction with machine learning techniques due to the high dimensionality and scalability of data analysis required.

Metabolomics involves the study of metabolites: small molecules involved in – and produced by – cell physiology and metabolic processes, whilst lipidomics can be considered as a subset of metabolomics. Lipidomics involves the identification of pathological lipid profiles where metabolic processes such as fatty acid synthesis, desaturation, elongation and mitochondrial oxidation have been disrupted in cancer cells.[42]

Spectroscopic tests involve the interaction of electromagnetic radiation (EMR) with the sample being studied. EMR spectra are produced which can be used to measure how the received frequency or wavelength of the detected EMR has been altered compared with the emitted EMR due to interaction with a sample. Known molecules and other particles have been shown to alter EMR in specific patterns using these methods, revealing a constituent molecular fingerprint. Mass spectroscopy involves ionising a sample, accelerating the charged molecules by exposure to an appropriate electromagnetic field, then detecting the constituent molecular components by measuring their mass-to-charge ratio.[43] Fluorescence spectroscopy involves exposing a sample to a given wavelength of EMR as light, normally ultraviolet light, which excites electrons. The movement of electrons between energy levels causes them to emit light (i.e photons), and the comparison of detected vs emitted light EMR is used to infer the molecular constituents of a sample.[44] Raman spectroscopy employs similar basic principles, normally involving a laser light source.

Spectroscopic tests produce versions of what could be considered a sample's molecular fingerprint, which involves large amounts of data and may encompass multiple individual biomarkers of cancer and other pathologies. These tests have been shown to give sensitivity and specificity of greater than 90%, however, there remain issues with data analysis and interpretation, cost, stability, hardware interreliability and scalability of these technologies.[45-47]

Methods

A systematic literature search regarding blood-based biomarkers in CRC and CRA was undertaken in line with the PRISMA 2020 guidelines.[48] Medline and Embase were searched for eligible English language studies between 1st January 2017 and 1st March 2023. Conference abstracts and duplicates were removed. A detailed PRISMA flowchart can be seen in Figure 1 and the full search strategy with included terms can be seen in Appendix 1. Key criteria included a range of terms describing CRC, CRA, liquid biopsy, blood-based tests, and diagnosis.

Three reviewers then undertook a title and abstract review. The inclusion criteria were: adult patients aged 18 and over, both sexes, diagnosis of colorectal carcinoma and/or adenoma, blood collected prior to cancer or adenoma treatment, blood-based biomarker methodology explained in detail, non-cancer controls included, at least 100 subjects, all study types except review articles. Exclusion criteria were: no diagnosis of colorectal carcinoma or adenoma, non-colorectal carcinoma neoplasms, less than 100 subjects, non-blood-based biomarkers, multi-cancer detection studies where colorectal-specific subgroups were not reported separately, non-English language, published prior to 2017, review articles, in-vitro or animal models, test sensitivity and/or uptake not recorded or could not be calculated. A specific reference standard test was not specified because histopathology is obligatory for the diagnosis of CRC and CRA. Single reviewer sign-off was used at this stage, with eligible studies progressing to full text review.

Three reviewers undertook full text review using identical criteria, as above. Dual reviewer sign-off was required, with all conflicts discussed and resolved prior to a final decision. Two rounds of blinded data extraction from eligible studies were then undertaken between three reviewers including: study design, biomarker type, specific biomarker(s), blood component (plasma vs serum vs other), processing method, inclusion and exclusion criteria, sample size, population characteristics, follow-up period, and test diagnostic performance for CRC +/- CRA. Sensitivity, specificity and AUC were recorded with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI), p-value, positive predictive value (PPV), negative predictive value (NPV), true positives (TP), false positives (FP), true negatives (TN), false negatives (FN) and test cut-off value where these were available. Risk of bias was assessed for each paper using the relevant Newcastle-Ottawa scale (NOS) for case-control and cohort studies. All data conflicts were then discussed and resolved before being entered into the final results. Detailed statistical meta-analysis was not undertaken due to the markedly heterogenous nature of the biomarkers, technologies, study types and reporting quality involved. Instead, a narrative review has been favoured with the aim of describing current literature in the field of blood-based biomarkers and novel techniques for the diagnosis of CRC and CRA. Where diagnostic statistics have

been provided, results from standard blood-based biomarker comparators (CEA and CA19-9) have been removed beforehand to reflect the true performance of test(s) described.

Results

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A total of 12378 eligible studies were found by the initial literature searches and 4 duplicates were removed, leaving 12374 studies included in title and abstract review. 12042 studies were excluded at this stage, leaving 332 studies included in full text review. 154 papers were excluded at this stage, leaving 178 for data extraction. The review process is outlined in Figure 1.

Figure 1 – PRISMA Flowchart

Overall

Data were extracted from a total of 178 papers, comprising 60 focussed on proteomics, 53 on RNA species, 30 on cfDNA methylation, 7 on antigens and autoantibodies, and 28 on other novel techniques. 142 papers included data for CRC diagnosis alone, 2 for CRA alone, and 34 for both. There were 169 case-control studies and 9 cohort studies. 108 studies were obtained from China, 28 from Europe, 7 from Iran, 7 from Japan, 4 from the USA, 3 from multiple geographical areas, and 21 from other individual countries.

There were 23 studies involving symptomatic participants, 13 involving asymptomatic participants, 5 involving both populations, and 137 in which this was not stated. 112 studies used serum, 54 used plasma, 10 used whole blood and 2 used multiple blood sample types.

Number of participants ranged from 100 to 54297, with a mean age of 58.26 (95% CI 57.46 to 59.06) and male:female ratio of 1.34:1. CRC participants were distributed reasonably evenly between stages I+II (10732) and stages III+IV (11024) where this was recorded. CRC vs control diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 9.10 to 100%, 20.40 to 100% and 0.353 to 0.996 respectively. CRA vs control diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 8.00 to 95.70%, 4.00 to 97.00%, and 0.430 to 0.983 respectively.

Measures of uncertainty were poorly reported. 20 papers stated 95% CI for both sensitivity and specificity; 106 stated 95% CI for AUC; 58 stated p-values; 40 stated both PPV and NPV; and 4 stated TP, FP, TN and/or FN.

NOS score ranged from 4 to 8, with median 6 and interquartile range 6 to 7.

A breakdown of study characteristics, diagnostic results and risk of bias NOS for each blood-based biomarker subtype is provided below.

Proteomics

60 papers were obtained comprising 42856 participants (range 100 to 8415, mean 714.27). Mean age was 59.49, male:female ratio was 1.32:1 and CRC stage ratio was 0.86(I+II):1(III+IV). 48 papers involved CRC diagnosis, 12 papers involved both CRC and CRA diagnosis, and no papers involved CRA diagnosis alone. 7 papers

involved asymptomatic participants, 6 involved symptomatic participants, 1 involved both, and 46 did not record this information. 46 papers used serum, 13 used plasma and 1 used both. Study characteristics are summarised in Table 1.

CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 11.00 to 100%, 30.00 to 100%, and 0.530 to 0.990 respectively. CRC diagnostic data can be seen in Table 2.

CRA sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 17.00 to 86.49%, 27.93 to 90.00%, and 0.532 to 0.790 respectively. CRA diagnostic data can be seen in Table 3.

NOS score ranged from 5 to 8, with median 6 and interquartile range 5 to 7. NOS data can be seen in Table 4.

An example of a paper reporting high AUC from this group is Liu et al (2020).[49] 313 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC (with 95% CI), PPV, NPV, test cut-off value and p-value for CRC. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 86.76%, 97.76% and 0.968 (95% CI 0.949 to 0.986, p<0.0001) respectively for combined serum SYPL1 + CEA + CA19-9. NOS was 7. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, TP/FP/TN/FN, and CRA diagnostic results were not directly reported.

An example of a paper reporting low AUC from this group is Jeun et al (2019).[50] 155 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity and AUC (with 95% CI) for both CRC and CRA. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 44.4%, 86.7% and 0.670 (95% CI 0.570 to 0.770) respectively for plasma CCSP-2. They reported CRA diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 43.3%, 86.7% and 0.670 (95% CI 0.530 to 0.800) respectively for plasma CCSP-2. NOS was 7. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, test cut-off value, p-value, PPV/NPV and TP/FP/TN/FN were not directly reported.

RNA Species

53 papers were obtained (35 miRNA, 5 piRNA, 3 circRNA, 3 lncRNA, 3 mRNA, 2 other small RNA species, 1 RNA and 1 other long RNA species) comprising 15116 participants (range100 to 1899, mean 285.21). Mean age was 56.54, male:female ratio was 1.35:1 and CRC stage ratio was 1.14(I+II):1(III+IV). 42 papers involved CRC diagnosis, 9 papers involved both CRC and CRA diagnosis, and 2 papers

involved CRA diagnosis alone. 1 paper involved asymptomatic participants, 6 involved symptomatic participants, 2 involved both, and 44 did not record this information. 39 papers used serum, 12 used plasma and 2 used whole blood. Study characteristics are summarised in Table 5.

CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 45.20 to 100%, 34.00 to 100%, and 0.580 to 0.994 respectively. CRC diagnostic data can be seen in Table 6.

CRA sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 63.20 to 95.00%, 27.30 to 97.00%, and 0.600 to 0.978 respectively. CRA diagnostic data can be seen in Table 7.

NOS score ranged from 4 to 8, with median 6 and interquartile range 6 to 7. NOS data can be seen in Table 8.

An example of a paper reporting high AUC from this group is Herreros-Villanueva et al (2019).[51] 297 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC (with 95% CI), PPV and NPV for both CRC and CRA. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 91.00%, 90.00% and 0.950 (95% CI 0.903 to 0.991) respectively for combined plasma miRNA19a, miRNA19b, miRNA15b, miRNA29a, miRNA335, and miRNA1. They reported CRA diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 95.00%, 90.00% and 0.920 (95% CI 0.868 to 0.959) respectively for combined plasma miRNA19a, miRNA19b, miRNA15b, miRNA29a, miRNA335, and miRNA1. NOS was 6. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, TP/FP/TN/FN, test cut-off value and p-value were not directly reported.

An example of a paper reporting low AUC from this group is Zhou et al (2021).[52] 237 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC (with 95% CI), test cut-off value and pvalue for CRC. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 69.05%, 67.50% and 0.716 (95% CI 0.636 to 0.798) respectively for serum miRNA-135a. NOS was 6. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, PPV/NPV and TP/FP/TN/FN were not directly reported.

Aberrant cfDNA Methylation

30 papers were obtained (13 involving mSEPT9, 17 other), comprising 16305 participants (range100 to 4077, mean 543.5). Mean age was 61.44, male:female ratio was 1.22:1 and CRC stage ratio was 0.99(I+II):1(III+IV). 20 papers involved CRC diagnosis, 10 papers involved both CRC and CRA diagnosis, and no papers involved CRA diagnosis alone. 2 papers involved asymptomatic participants, 2 involved symptomatic participants, 3 involved both, and 23 did not record this information. 7 papers used serum, 22 used plasma and 1 used whole blood. Study characteristics are summarised in Table 9.

CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 39.90 to 96.80%, 50.00 to 99.50%, and 0.670 to 0.989 respectively. CRC diagnostic data can be seen in Table 10.

CRA sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 12.20 to 64.30%, 45.50 to 95.60%, and 0.510 to 0.840 respectively. CRA diagnostic data can be seen in Table 11.

NOS score ranged from 5 to 8, with median 7 and interquartile range 6 to 7. NOS data can be seen in Table 12.

An example of a paper reporting high AUC from this group is Zhang et al (2021).[53] 268 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity (with 95% CI), specificity (with 95% CI), and AUC (with 95% CI) for both CRC and CRA. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 80.00% (95% CI 66.70 to 93.30%), 97.10% (95% CI 91.40 to 100%) and 0.911 (95% CI 0.834 to 0.988) respectively for a 4-marker plasma DNA methylation panel. They reported CRA diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 54.40% (95% CI 41.50 to 67.30%), 45.50% (95% CI 22.70 to 68.20%) and 0.614 (95% CI 0.457 to 0.770) respectively for a 4-marker plasma DNA methylation panel. NOS was 7. PPV and NPV, TP/FP/TN/FN, test cut-off value and p-value were not directly reported.

An example of a paper reporting low AUC from this group is Ma et al (2021).[54] 135 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC (with 95% CI) and test cut-off value for CRC. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 74.00%, 50.00% and 0.710 (95% CI 0.620 to 0.800) respectively for plasma methylated SEPT9. NOS was 6. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, PPV and NPV, TP/FP/TN/FN and p-value were not directly reported.

Antigens and Autoantibodies

7 papers were obtained, comprising 3873 participants (range 110 to 2283, mean 553.29). Mean age was 60.87, male:female ratio was 1.54:1 and CRC stage ratio was $0.69(1+11):1(111+1V)$. 7 papers involved CRC diagnosis, no papers involved both CRC and CRA diagnosis, and no papers involved CRA diagnosis alone. No papers involved asymptomatic participants, 2 involved symptomatic participants and 5 did not record this information. 7 papers used serum and none used plasma or whole blood. Study characteristics are summarised in Table 13.

CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 25.00 to 95.00%, 39.3 to 100%, and 0.542 to 0.940 respectively. CRC diagnostic data can be seen in Table 14.

NOS score ranged from 5 to 8, with median 7 and interquartile range 6.5 to 7. NOS data can be seen in Table 15.

An example of a paper reporting high AUC from this group is Cai et al (2022).[55] 288 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC (with 95% CI), PPV, NPV and p-value for CRC. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 71.9%, 89.9% and 0.940 (95% CI 0.896 to 0.985) respectively for combined serum CST4 and DR-70. NOS was 7. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, TP/FP/TN/FN and test cut-off value were not directly reported.

An example of a paper reporting low AUC from this group is Rao et al (2021).[56] 2283 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC (with 95% CI), test cut-off value and pvalue for CRC. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 74.1%, 39.3% and 0.580 (95% CI 0.556 to 0.604) respectively for serum CA24. NOS was 6. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, PPV, NPV and TP/FP/TN/FN were not directly reported.

Other – Including Novel Techniques

28 papers were obtained, comprising 72105 participants (range 100 to 54297, mean 2575.18). Mean age was 57.94, male:female ratio was 1.43:1 and CRC stage ratio was 1.12(I+II):1(III+IV). 7 papers involved mixed methods utilising standard blood tests, 5 Raman spectroscopy, 5 metabolomics, 3 fluorescence spectroscopy, 3 novel cfDNA or nucleosome analysis, 2 CTCs, 1 lipidomics and 2 mixed standard serum

biomarkers. 26 papers involved CRC diagnosis, 2 papers involved both CRC and CRA diagnosis, and no papers focussed on CRA diagnosis alone. 1 paper involved asymptomatic participants, 7 involved symptomatic participants and 20 did not record this information. 12 papers used serum, 7 used plasma, 7 used whole blood and 2 used both serum and plasma. Study characteristics are summarised in Table 16.

Raman spectroscopy CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 51.00 to 95.70%, 30.50 to 100%, and 0.402 to 0.996 respectively.

Fluorescence spectroscopy CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 82.00 to 88.00%, 81.00 to 95.20% and 0.820 to 0.940 respectively.

Metabolomics CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 57.00 to 99.30%, 42.30 to 100%, and 0.742 to 0.996 respectively.

CTCs CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 39.10 to 95.20, 86.00 to 100%, and 0.695 to 0.940 respectively.

Novel cfDNA and nucleosome analysis CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 85.80 to 97.40%, 86.20 to 94.80%, and 0.940 to 0.988 respectively.

Remaining papers involved mixed methods of utilising standard blood tests and biomarkers. CRC sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 41.00 to 100%, 20.40 to 95.60, and 0.571 to 0.992 respectively.

CRC diagnostic data is summarised in Table 17.

Two papers involved CRA diagnosis. A CTCs paper found CRA sensitivity 79.2%, specificity 84.70% and AUC 0.868. A cfDNA fragment analysis paper found CRA sensitivity 95.7%, specificity 94.8% and AUC 0.983. CRA diagnostic data is summarised in Table 18.

NOS score ranged from 5 to 8, with median 6 and interquartile range 6 to 7. NOS data can be seen in Table 19.

An example of a paper reporting high AUC from this group is Nishiumi et al (2017).[46] 573 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC test cut-off value and p-value for CRC. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 99.3%,

93.8% and 0.996 respectively for a multiple logistic regression model based on 8 selected metabolites analysed by plasma gas chromatography/triple-quadrupole mass spectrometry. NOS was 7. Sensitivity, specificity and AUC 95% CIs, PPV, NPV, TP/FP/TN/FN and test cut-off value were not directly reported.

An example of a paper reporting low AUC from this group is Huang et al (2019).[57] 332 participants were included, detailed population characteristics were given and results included sensitivity, specificity, AUC (with 95% CI) and test cut-off value for CRC. They reported CRC diagnostic sensitivity, specificity and AUC of 41.00%, 72.00% and 0.571 (95% CI 0.730 to 0.828) respectively for whole blood red cell distribution width to lymphocyte ratio. NOS was 6. Sensitivity and specificity 95% CIs, PPV, NPV, TP/FP/TN/FN and p-value were not directly reported.

CEA + CA19-9

CEA was included as an isolated test for the diagnosis of CRC in 63 studies. Sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 13.00 to 100%, 29.90 to 100%, and 0.469 to 0.869 respectively.

CA19-9 was included as an isolated test for the diagnosis of CRC in 34 studies. Sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged from 9.10 to 81.20%, 30.00 to 100%, and 0.353 to 0.777 respectively.

Table 1 – Proteomics – Study Characteristics

Table 2 – Proteomics – CRC Diagnostic Tests

Table 3 – Proteomics - CRA Diagnostic Tests

Table 4 – Proteomics – Risk of Bias NOS

Table 5 – RNA Species – Study Characteristics

Table 6 – RNA Species – CRC Diagnostic Tests

Table 7 – RNA Species – CRA Diagnostic Tests

Table 8 – RNA Species – Risk of Bias NOS

Table 9 – DNA Methylation – Study Characteristics

Table 10 – DNA Methylation – CRC Diagnostic Tests

Table 11 – DNA Methylation – CRA Diagnostic Tests

Table 12 – DNA Methylation – Risk of Bias NOS

Table 13 – Antigens and Autoantibodies – Study Characteristics

Table 14 – Antigens and Autoantibodies – CRC Diagnostic Tests

Table 15 – Antigens and Autoantibodies – Risk of Bias NOS

Table 16 – Other – Study Characteristics

Table 17 – Other – CRC Diagnostic Tests

Table 18 – Other – CRA Diagnostic Tests

Table 19 – Other – Risk of Bias NOS

Discussion

This review describes recent progress in the field of blood-based testing for CRC and CRA over more than 6 years, including both isolated biomarkers and novel approaches such as spectroscopic techniques. The aim was to provide an update regarding the potential accuracy of these tests and consider how they may be utilised in the diagnosis of CRC and CRA at a time when faecal-based testing remains prevalent and a heavy burden is being placed on services providing radiological imaging and direct visualisation by colonoscopy.

This review found the largest area of research remains in the traditional biomarker field of proteomics. However, this was closely followed by papers involving RNA species (particularly small/microRNAs) and aberrant DNA methylation. Some studies are also now concentrating on the detection of multiple biomarkers and/or multiple cancers by spectroscopic techniques, including Raman and fluorescence spectroscopy, or through highly dimensional and scalable data analysis by machine learning. Though most papers concentrated on CRC detection alone (142 papers), many also included data for both CRC and CRA detection (34 papers), and a small number for CRA detection alone (2 papers). The large number of studies obtained (178 papers) suggests an expanding area of research when compared with similar reviews such as Nikolaou et al in 2018, who described 51 papers over 5 years.[58]

Reported diagnostic accuracy was shown to vary widely and should be considered in context, derived from a broad range of population sizes, biomarker types and reporting quality. Reported test sensitivity, specificity and AUC ranged between 9.10 to 100%, 20.40 to 100%, and 0.353 to 0.996 respectively for CRC vs controls. For comparison, several recent meta-analyses focussing solely on specific blood-based protein biomarkers, small RNA species and aberrant DNA methylation have found pooled AUC values of 0.760 to 0.890, 0.730 to 0.780, and 0.880 to 0.960 respectively.[26, 37, 59-70] Likewise, across 63 papers which included isolated CEA and CA19-9 tests for the diagnosis of CRC vs controls, reported AUC ranged from 0.469 to 0.869, and 0.353 to 0.777 respectively. This compares with previous studies which have reported AUC values for CEA and CA19-9 of 0.700 to 0.856, and 0.580 to 0.650 respectively for the diagnosis of CRC.[12, 20, 71, 72]

This review found that reported test sensitivity, specificity and AUC for CRA vs controls ranged between 8.00 to 95.70%, 4.00 to 97.00%, 0.430 to 0.983 and respectively. Data regarding CRA detection is more difficult to contextualise, with few studies regarding blood-based biomarkers having previously examined this specific population in detail. However, both CRC and CRA detection rates are reasonably well described for FIT, the most common faecal test currently in use for both screening and as an adjunct to triage symptomatic patients. In large meta-analyses FIT sensitivity for CRC of 79% (95% CI 69 to 86%) and specificity 94% (95% CI 92 to 95%) has been described in asymptomatic adults and sensitivity of 91% (95% CI 88 to 92%), specificity 75% (95% CI 69 to 80%) in symptomatic adults.[73, 74] However, FIT is significantly less useful in identifying high-risk CRA. Even at low positive detection thresholds, sensitivity of 40% (95% CI 33 to 47%) and specificity 90% (95% CI 87 to 93%) has been described in asymptomatic populations.[11] The optimal threshold for a positive FIT result is unclear and low thresholds (around 20ug/g) produce high false positive rates resulting in the increased use of colonoscopy. Furthermore, very little has been published regarding true FIT sensitivity at higher screening thresholds (around 80 to 120ug/g), which may be as low as 47% and 25% for CRC and high risk CRA respectively.[75-77]

Several limitations must be taken into consideration regarding the range of papers obtained in this review. The REMARK criteria for structuring studies describing clinical biomarkers were generally followed with correct layout, description of biomarker subtype, reporting of testing methods and statistical analysis.[78] However, marked test and population heterogeneity resulted in a broad range of diagnostic results for both CRC and CRA. This broad heterogeneity, along with overall poor reporting of complete data such as detailed population characteristics, specific inclusion/exclusion criteria and measures of uncertainty (such as 95% CIs and p-values) in particular meant a reliable and meaningful meta-analysis would be impractical. Test heterogeneity was demonstrated not only in the broad classification of biomarker types but also in the wide range of specific biomarker subtypes and myriad individual biomarkers within each subtype. Incomplete population characteristics, inclusion/exclusion criteria and different populations are also troublesome as they may all influence the diagnostic accuracy of a test.[79, 80] Furthermore, several studies demonstrated reporting bias by including CRA

populations but failing to report their outcomes, potentially due to poor or statistically insignificant results, which was also reflected in the poor reporting of measures of uncertainty. It is also interesting to note that several of the best diagnostic results relied on combination of their primary biomarker with CEA and/or CA19-9.

However, this narrative review represents a useful large-scale overview of recent studies regarding blood-based testing for CRC and CRA. It suggests a growing area of research with diagnostic accuracies being reported which are commonly equivalent or superior to current faecal-based tests at a time when blood-based testing is not widespread.[81, 82] Though a wide range of diagnostic sensitivities are reported - both in the literature regarding FIT and in our data - this review does tentatively suggest that several blood-based biomarkers and novel technologies report comparable or superior results for both CRC and CRA detection when compared with FIT. These results are particularly encouraging for the detection of CRA, which is important in screening as a precursor lesion to CRC and for which FIT has been shown to have poor diagnostic accuracy.[11]

Individual studies with promising results are not uncommon and clearly (given the lack of common blood-based testing for CRC) it has been the case for many years in biomarker research that exceedingly few tests progress to clinical use. One reason for this is a lack of reliable systematic reviews and meta-analyses of promising tests. For example, this review found and excluded only 18 high quality meta-analyses from the original 12374 papers returned. Low participant numbers, a lack of large validation studies, uncertain inter-reliability and reproducibility between labs, bias in reporting of subgroup results and inconsistent or unclear diagnostic thresholds are also issues, some of which were encountered in this review.[83, 84] It is also known that independent external validation, increased study population size and focussed meta-analysis are all shown to decrease reported detection rates.[85-87]

Further work should concentrate on larger collaborative studies with rigorous methodology, independent external validation and clear test positivity thresholds. Inclusion/exclusion criteria should be well defined, with adequate description of both CRC/CRA groups (symptomatic vs asymptomatic) and controls (confirmed clean colon at endoscopy vs healthy community controls). High-quality systematic reviews and meta-analyses should be prioritised, aiming to ameliorate the influence of bias

demonstrated in smaller studies and provide a more accurate picture of a biomarker's potential.

Compared with running initial case-control studies, there is a significant increase in resources required to then progress potential biomarkers through to clinical use.[81] This review demonstrates the breadth of current research in blood-based biomarkers and novel technologies for the detection of CRC / CRA, and it may be inefficient to progress any test to clinical use without properly considering its competitors. Therefore, once there are sufficient numbers, it would also be beneficial to consider umbrella reviews of high-quality systematic reviews and meta-analyses, comparing the best available evidence for each test to reveal the most promising candidates.[88] Cost-effectiveness analysis would then need to be done before considering the use of any new test within the NHS.

Real-world feasibility is important not only where there is potential for increased diagnostic accuracy in symptomatic patients but also because there may be significant benefits for CRC screening uptake. Despite the benefits of early diagnosis, faecal-based tests remain unpopular and only 63% of adults in England and Wales who receive bowel screening kits complete them, with 12% of all CRC diagnoses via bowel screening overall.[89] It has been suggested that 97% of screening participants who refuse colonoscopy would be receptive to a non-invasive test and of these 83% would prefer a blood test.[90] If an acceptably accurate bloodbased test were clinically available it may improve bowel screening uptake and rates of early diagnosis.

Conclusion

In summary, blood-based testing continues to show great promise and may eventually be feasible to replace or complement FIT both for screening and in the diagnosis of CRC/CRA in symptomatic patients. This review suggests a growing field of acceptably sensitive and specific tests which may be comparable or superior to current faecal-based testing. However, current studies demonstrate a broad range of heterogenous tests, techniques and reporting quality which makes selecting the best candidates difficult. Further work should concentrate on larger validation studies and high-quality meta-analyses to determine which tests may realistically be worth progressing into clinical use.

Appendix 1

Initial searches run 26/10/2022 – Repeated at monthly intervals until 01/03/2023

The searches below were run in OVID Medline Ovid MEDLINE(R) Epub Ahead of Print and In-Process, In-Data-Review & Other Non-Indexed Citations <October 25, 2022> AND Embase <1996 to 2022 October 24> Limits on both databases were English language only and date range of 2017 -2023 as requested. Conference abstracts were removed from EMBASE. Both sets of references were exported into ENDNOTE and reviewed for duplicates which were removed.

A total of 15888 references were found in the searches and 3561 duplicates were removed leaving 123 exported to Covidence. Covidence also checks for duplicates when references are imported but did not identify any duplicates.

Ovid MEDLINE 2017-2023, English language only

Ovid MEDLINE(R) Epub Ahead of Print and In-Process, In-Data-Review & Other Non-Indexed Citations <October 25, 2022>

Ovid MEDLINE(R) <1996 to October 25, 2022>

[https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHARE](https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHAREDSEARCHID=3HCldg0ZhiM4wD6KHOVlQ6XQk2M7wdTyNkjoO7ApBxOU4HGIZmp8az7WflIpHrVQ8) [DSEARCHID=3HCldg0ZhiM4wD6KHOVlQ6XQk2M7wdTyNkjoO7ApBxOU4HGIZmp](https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHAREDSEARCHID=3HCldg0ZhiM4wD6KHOVlQ6XQk2M7wdTyNkjoO7ApBxOU4HGIZmp8az7WflIpHrVQ8) [8az7WflIpHrVQ8](https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHAREDSEARCHID=3HCldg0ZhiM4wD6KHOVlQ6XQk2M7wdTyNkjoO7ApBxOU4HGIZmp8az7WflIpHrVQ8)

Exported to Endnote for deduplication with EMBASE

Embase <1996 to 2022 October 24>

[https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHARE](https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHAREDSEARCHID=3awRrJds8HJhQtFsSJeyUl31Vlb86XWGJFeygXHc57LE6CebB6wDCkggDxtVJRma8) [DSEARCHID=3awRrJds8HJhQtFsSJeyUl31Vlb86XWGJFeygXHc57LE6CebB6wDC](https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHAREDSEARCHID=3awRrJds8HJhQtFsSJeyUl31Vlb86XWGJFeygXHc57LE6CebB6wDCkggDxtVJRma8) [kggDxtVJRma8](https://ovidsp.ovid.com/athens/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&NEWS=N&PAGE=main&SHAREDSEARCHID=3awRrJds8HJhQtFsSJeyUl31Vlb86XWGJFeygXHc57LE6CebB6wDCkggDxtVJRma8)

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