# How asymptomatic are early cancer patients of five organs based on registry data in Japan

<sup>1, 2)</sup> Narue Nakabayashi, HIM, BA, MMedSci,

<sup>2)</sup> Masahiro Hirose, MD, PhD, DrPH,

<sup>3)</sup> Ritsuro Suzuki, MD, PhD,

<sup>4)</sup> Junji Suzumiya, MD, PhD.

<sup>5)</sup> Mikio Igawa, MD, PhD.

1) Medical Services Division, Faculty of Medicine, Shimane University

2) Department of Community-based Health Policy and Quality Management, Faculty of Medicine, Shimane

University

3) Center of Clinical Research, Shimane University Hospital

4) Center for Innovative Cancer Therapy, Shimane University Hospital

5) President, Shimane University Hospital

89-1 Enya-Chou, Izumo-Shi, Shimane 693-8501 JAPAN

Correspondence to: Professor Masahiro Hirose M.D.

Department of Community-based Health Policy and Quality Management, Faculty of Medicine, Shimane

University

89-1 Enya-Chou, Izumo-Shi, Shimane 693-8501 JAPAN

Tel.: +81 853 20 2128; Fax: +81 853 20 2076 E-mail address: mhirose@med.shimane-u.ac.jp

#### Abstract

#### Background

One reason for the low cancer screening rate in Japan is that people are not concerned about cancer if they do not have symptoms.

#### Methods

The authors retrospectively analyzed 18,405 cancer patients using hospital-based cancer registry data collected between 2007 and 2013 at the 13 hospitals of Shimane Prefecture, Japan. The symptomatic rates of five cancers (stomach, colorectal, lung, breast, and cervix) at each stage and the time of early diagnosis were investigated. The early detection rates of symptomatic and asymptomatic individuals were investigated.

#### Results

The percentages of symptomatic cases tended to increase with progressive stages. The odds ratio (OR) of stage IV compared with that of stage I was 12.23 for stomach, 7.21 for colorectal, 16.91 for lung, 10.30 for breast, and 51.62 for cervical cancer. The proportions of early symptomatic cases at the time of diagnosis were low. Compared with the percentage of early symptomatic cases of stomach cancer of 25.5%, the percentage of lung cancer was the lowest, at 8.2% (OR, 0.26), and the percentage of breast cancer was the highest, at 30.2% (OR, 1.26). The percentage of early symptomatic cases of colorectal and cervical cancer were 18.9% (OR, 0.68) and 19.9% (OR, 0.73), respectively. The early detection rates of the asymptomatic and symptomatic groups were 77.6% and 36.1%, respectively.

#### Conclusion

Cancer registry data indicate that early cancers are asymptomatic, and once symptoms appear, treatment may

not be effective. Policy makers should inform people of the necessity of cancer screening before they have symptoms.

(250 words)

Key words: symptomatic rate, hospital-based cancer registry, cancer screening, cancer stage

#### Text

#### Introduction:

There are primary and secondary cancer prevention policies to reduce cancer mortality. Primary prevention reduces the cancer incidence by improving lifestyle habits, such as smoking cessation<sup>1</sup>), and secondary prevention consists of cancer screening for early detection and early treatment<sup>2-6</sup>). Data are indispensable for deciding how to proceed with cancer policy and to evaluate whether the cancer policy is effective. Cancer registration can provide data on cancer incidence and patient survival, telling us whether a high mortality rate is due to a high incidence rate, low survival rate, or a lack of screening. The evidence gained using cancer registration data is indispensable for effective cancer screening.

Cancer screening guidelines for breast, cervical, lung, and colorectal cancer have been published by the American Cancer Society<sup>7)</sup> and the US Preventative Services in the United States<sup>8)</sup>. The first screening test to be widely used for cancer was the Pap test, which became widely used in the early 1960s. Modern mammography methods were developed late in the 1960s and were recommended in 1976<sup>7)</sup>. Lung cancer screening was suspended in the 1970s because radiography showed no mortality benefit<sup>9-10)</sup>; however, screening was reintroduced in the 1990s because chest CT with radiography was superior to chest radiography alone for detecting lung cancer<sup>11-12)</sup>.

In Japan, the Cancer Screening Assessment and Management Division, Research Center for Cancer Prevention and Screening, National Cancer Center, publishes cancer screening guidelines for the colorectum, lung, breast, cervix, and stomach<sup>13-16</sup>, which are common cancer sites in Japan. Stomach cancer screening began in Miyagi Prefecture circa 1960. The Health and Medical Service Law for the Aged was enacted in 1983, and cancer screening supported by law began in many prefectures at that time. Screening for cancer in five organs has been defined by guidelines from the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. The guidelines recommend photofluorography or endoscopy for the stomach, a fecal occult blood test for colorectal cancer, sputum cytology and X-rays for lung cancer, a mammogram for breast cancer, and a smear test for uterine cancer<sup>17</sup>.

The screening rate is extremely low in Japan compared with other Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries. For example, for both breast and cervical cancer screening in 2013, the frequency of screening in Japan (41.0% and 42.1%, respectively) was much lower than in the U.S. (80.8% and 84.5%), the UK (75.9% and 78.1%) and France (52.1% and 73.6%)<sup>18-19</sup>. Many Japanese people were diagnosed with cancer after visiting a medical institution because they presented with subjective symptoms. Several studies have been performed on the association between subjective symptoms and cancer of a single organ<sup>20-27</sup>; however, little is known about the relationship between symptoms and the cancer stage for several organs.

The aim of this study was to analyze symptom severity according to the cancer stage for five organs. In addition, this study investigated the relationship between subjective symptoms and early detection. These data could be used to encourage people to receive cancer screening, contributing to the early detection and treatment of cancer.

#### Methods

#### Cancer registry data

The authors used hospital-based cancer registry data<sup>28)</sup> collected between 2007 and 2013 by 13 hospitals in Shimane Prefecture, Japan. To improve cancer care, Shimane Prefecture has collected hospital-based cancer registry data at Shimane University, which is a designated prefecture cancer care hospital. Of the 13 hospitals, five are designated by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, and eight are designated by Shimane Prefecture. The hospital-based cancer registry data from the 13 hospitals include more than 90% of the regional-based cancer registrations in the area.

In the hospital-based cancer registry, information on all primary cancer patients diagnosed or treated at the hospitals is collected by cancer registrars belonging to each hospital. Each registry item used in this study was extracted from cancer registrars based on the medical records according to the standard registry definition<sup>29</sup>, although the information extraction was insufficient when the medical records were incomplete. The authors used the registration items, the topology (site) and morphology (histology) code of the International Classification of Diseases for Oncology, third Edition (ICD-O-3)<sup>30</sup>, the clinical and pathological stages of the Union for International Cancer Control (UICC) tumor, node, metastasis (TNM) system<sup>31-32</sup>, route to discovery, and subjective symptoms at diagnosis<sup>28</sup>).

Subjective symptoms were registered in cases of direct symptoms due to the tumor from the description of the medical record. If symptoms were caused by other diseases, they were registered as 'nothing'. Subjective symptoms were defined by their presence or absence, and the type was unknown. Subjective symptoms at diagnosis were not recorded in the nationwide collection<sup>33)</sup>, but these symptoms were recorded in Shimane Prefecture.

The final cancer stages were a combination of the clinical stages and pathological stages of the UICC TNM.

Cancer stages were classified according to the UICC TNM classification 6th edition<sup>31)</sup> from 2007 to 2011, and the UICC TNM classification 7th edition<sup>32)</sup> from 2012 to 2013. There were 104 cases (0.6%) of the 18,405 cases in which the UICC TNM classification in the 6th edition and the 7th edition became different stages. We converted all the classifications from the UICC 7th edition to those of the 6th edition.

Cervical cancer has different characteristics even in stage I, so the authors analyzed it by subdividing the classification into stage IA and IB. Stage 0 of cervical cancer is equivalent to cervical intraepithelial neoplasia grade 3 (CIN 3). CIN 3 that involves severe dysplasia and carcinoma in situ (CIS) is registered as stage 0 in the cancer registration.

Although different stages are regarded as early stages depending on the organ, early stage cancer was defined as stages 0 and I in this study.

Of the 41,202 cases registered between 2007 and 2013, 35,076 initial-treatment cases were included in our study to avoid duplication among patients who visited multiple medical institutions. Cases of diagnosis only and cases registered after the start of the initial treatment were excluded. Overall, 30,985 data points were used for the analysis, and items that indicated final stages and unknown symptoms were excluded because these aspects were the object of the analysis. Finally, a total of 18,405 data points were selected: 4,897 for stomach cancers, 6,614 for colorectal cancers, 3,481 for lung cancers, 2,514 for breast cancers, and 899 for cervical cancers (Figure 1).

To evaluate early detection, the stage distribution at the time of diagnosis was investigated. The percentage of symptomatic cases for each stage and the percentage of symptomatic cases at the time of early diagnosis were investigated. Then, the rates of early detection for the symptomatic and asymptomatic groups were investigated.

#### Statistical analysis

This study was approved by the institutional review board of Shimane University Hospital, and the authors

obtained permission to use data from the Shimane Prefecture cancer registration review committee.

The percentages of symptomatic cases were compared using the chi-square test and Fisher's exact test.

P-values < 0.05 were considered significant. A logistic regression model was used to calculate the odds ratio with a 95%

confidence interval. The statistical analyses were conducted using JMP® 12 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

#### Results

#### Distribution of UICC TNM stages at diagnosis

To evaluate early detection by organ, the distribution of the UICC TNM stages at diagnosis for both the Shimane data and the nationwide collection<sup>33)</sup> was examined (Figure 2). The percentage of early detection was defined as the number of cases diagnosed at stages 0 and I among all cases in this study. The percentages of early detection in the Shimane and the nationwide collections were 62.8 % and 66.4% in the stomach, 52.4% and 42.4% in the colorectum, 39.1% and 43.4% in the lungs, 53.4% and 55.1% in breast tissue, and 83.5% and 81.0% in the cervix.

The Shimane and the nationwide collections had similar stage distributions. Cervical cancer tended to be detected early, whereas the early detection of lung cancer was the least frequent among the five organs. However, the relative frequency of detection of stage IV lung cancer was 32.0%, which was higher than the relative frequency of detection of stage IV cancer in any of the other organs.

#### The frequency of symptoms at each UICC TNM stage

The percentages of the symptomatic cases for each cancer UICC TNM stage are shown in Table 1. The proportion of symptomatic cases tended to increase as the cancer stage progressed in the five organs. The frequencies of symptomatic cases for each cancer stage showed different trends depending on the organ. For the stomach and colorectum, the frequencies of symptomatic cases at stages 0 and I were less than 50%, whereas the proportion at stage II was greater than 50%. Lung cancer had a lower proportion of symptomatic cases than cancer of any other organ at any stage from stages 0 to IV. The percentage of symptomatic cases for the lungs in stage IV was 81.9%, and approximately 20% of patients did not present subjective symptoms at the time of diagnosis. Breast tissue had the most subjective

symptoms, and the symptomatic cases represented 44.7% even at stage 0. Cervical cancer has a symptomatic frequency exceeding 70% at the stage IB or higher, but a symptomatic frequency of only 20% to 30% in CIN3 to the stage IA.

#### The relative frequencies of symptomatic cases in early cancer stages

As Table 2 shows, the frequencies of symptomatic cases in early cancer stages were low in the five organs. The frequency of symptomatic cases at an early cancer stage was the highest for breast at 30.2% and the lowest for lung at 8.2%. Compared with stomach cancer, the odds ratio of the subjective symptoms at the early cancer stage for breast cancer was the highest, at 1.26, and that for lung cancer was the lowest, at 0.26.

#### Early detection in the symptomatic and asymptomatic groups

The early detection rates for the symptomatic and asymptomatic groups were calculated (Table 3). The early detection rates for the asymptomatic groups were higher than for the symptomatic groups for each organ. The percentage of early detection of stomach cancer among the asymptomatic group was 86.2%, whereas the percentage for the symptomatic group was 44.9%. Similar percentage of 74.9% and 34.2% were observed for colorectal cancer, 64.5% and 15.8% for lung cancer, 76.7% and 43.3% for breast cancer, and 98.8% and 55.9% for cervical cancer.

#### Discussion

This study found that the proportion of symptomatic cases increased with the progression of the cancer stage. The percentages of symptomatic cases in early cancer were low, with the highest being 30% for breast cancer and the lowest being 8% for lung cancer. Cancer must be detected at an early stage for a high probability of survival. However, the relative frequencies of symptomatic cases in early cancer stages were low, and cancer might already have become advanced by the time the subjective symptoms appeared.

The frequencies of symptomatic cases for each cancer stage showed different trends depending on the organ. Although the percentages of symptomatic cases in the early stomach and colorectum cancer stages were low (stomach 25.5% and colorectum 18.9%), the early detection percentages at diagnosis were high (stomach 62.8% and colorectum 52.4%). Some cases were diagnosed before symptoms appeared. Similar trends were observed for the stage distributions in the hospital-based cancer registration nationwide data<sup>33)</sup> and the regional cancer registration nationwide data<sup>34.35)</sup>.

The percent (8.2%) of symptomatic cases in the early stages of lung cancer was the lowest, the symptoms appearing at the odds ratio of 0.26 compared with that of stomach cancer. The stage distribution of lung cancer seemd to have two peaks; the early stages was at 39.1% and the stage IV was at 32.0%. The same trend was observed for other cancer registration data<sup>33-35</sup>. Because lung cancer was asymptomatic at the early stages, if it was not detected by cancer screening or by an examination during follow-up for another disease, then it might be found by an examination after it had progressed and symptoms appeared. This characteristic was presumed to be the cause of many advanced cases of lung cancer.

Breast cancer tended to be the most symptomatic among the five organs because the tumor could often be

detected by touch by the patient. The frequency of symptomatic cases in the early stages of breast cancer was approximately 1.3 times higher than for the stomach. Nevertheless, the percentage was only 30.2% for breast cancer, and breast cancer screening is necessary for efficient early detection.

The percentages of symptomatic cases in cervical cancer were 19.1% in CIN3, 30.4% in stage IA, and more than 72.7% in stage IB. Early cervical cancer has a good prognosis, but it tends to be asymptomatic, so it is important to detect it by screening. In addition, if patients wish to become pregnant and their cancer is in an early stage, fertility preservation therapy can be considered<sup>36</sup>.

According to our survey, asymptomatic patients tended to be diagnosed earlier than symptomatic patients (Table 3). Therefore, it is important for Japanese people to be screened for cancer even when they are asymptomatic.

Various cancer policies are proposed to reduce cancer mortality, including primary and secondary prevention approaches. Early detection and early treatment can enhance the quality of life for patients through minimally invasive treatment<sup>37-40</sup>. Cancer screening in Japan began in 1983. The cancer screening rate in Japan has been much lower than the rates in other OECD countries. Although the different survey methods used in each country might have affected the OECD cancer screening rate data<sup>18</sup>. The basic plan for promoting cancer control in Japan proposed to increase the cancer screening rate to 50% in 2007<sup>40</sup>, but this has not been achieved.

The Cabinet Office Government of Japan conducted a public opinion poll on the reasons for not receiving cancer screening in 2014. The main reasons were "No time to receive cancer screening", "Economic burden", "Afraid of detecting cancer", "Confident in health", and "Able to see a doctor at any time"<sup>41</sup>). Psychological problems and medical system problems were also mentioned as factors. Even if people do not receive a cancer screening, they can be examined

at a medical institution at any time because Japan has nationwide insurance with free access. If they are visiting a medical institution for other diseases, they can undergo a detailed examination such as image diagnosis and endoscopic examination. However, rising medical costs are a problem in Japan. It is becoming difficult to pay medical insurance for diseases unrelated to the main disease since the introduction of the Diagnosis Procedure Combination/Per-Diem Payment System<sup>42)</sup> of 2003. If examinations unrelated to the main disease are reduced, cancers might not be discovered by chance during observation for another disease.

In the United States, medical insurance covers cancer screening, so the cancer screening rate is higher. For those who do not have medical insurance, the country provides cancer screening. Organized cancer screening is carried out by the local government in European countries. Organized cancer screening is a mechanism by which the local government prepares a list of people and thoroughly calls and recalls them to recommend screening based on scientific evidence<sup>43-44</sup>.

In Japan, cancer screening is provided by local governments. When cancer screening began in 1983 based on the Health and Medical Service Law for the Aged, there was a specific financial resource that could be used for cancer screening. Since the financial resources for cancer screening were converted to general resources in 1998, expenses for cancer screening became the burden of local governments.

However, local governments are trying to improve the cancer screening rate by organized cancer screening as in European countries. Baron et al. reported that a reminder-recall system (in which a healthcare provider sends letters to target persons) is effective for improving cancer screening rates of patients in a systematic review<sup>45</sup>.

Ishikawa et al. proposed a more effective reminder-recall system. They stratified people into three groups:

group 1, high screening intention; group 2, low screening intention and high cancer worry; and group 3, low screening intention and low cancer worry. They found that it was effective to give different messages to the different groups<sup>46</sup>.

This study adds further information in the form of numerical values to the reminder-recall system message. The low screening intention/high cancer worry group could be informed that if they are diagnosed asymptomatically by cancer screening, the probability of detecting cancer at an early stage is 64.5-98.8%. The low screening intention/low cancer worry group could be informed that 8.2-30.2% of cancers are asymptomatic at an early stage, so it could be beneficial to receive cancer screening even without symptoms.

Policy makers and healthcare providers need to improve the cancer screening rate by implementing an effective reminder-recall system. Lung cancer rarely shows symptoms, so the reminder-recall system needs to emphasize that. In addition, women should not be rely on self-checks because only 30% of early breast cancer cases are symptomatic

#### Conclusions

To reduce the mortality rates, cancer must be detected and treated at an early stage. The results of this study show that the frequency of symptomatic cases tended to increase as the cancer stage progressed, and the frequency of symptomatic cases at the early stages of cancer were lower than those at advanced stages in the five organs. Therefore, the cancer may have already progressed when the patients received a consultation at a medical institution after the appearance of subjective symptoms. Lung cancer was the least symptomatic and the most advanced at diagnosis among the five organs, and breast cancer was the most frequently symptomatic at the early stages, but the frequency was only 30%. If patients are diagnosed asymptomatically, the probability of the cancer being at an early stage is 77.6%, but if patients are diagnosed after symptoms appear, the probability of the cancer being at an early stage will drop to 36.1%.

Thus, policy makers should inform people of the necessity of receiving cancer screening before they have symptoms.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors wish to acknowledge the cancer registrars of the 13 hospitals in Shimane that participated in this

study.

#### **Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest associated with this manuscript.

(2997words)

#### References

 Inoue M, Sawada N, Matsuda T et al (2012), Attributable causes of cancer in Japan in 2005—systematic assessment to estimate current burden of cancer attributable to known preventable risk factors in Japan, Ann Oncol (2012) 23 (5): 1362-1369.

 Tabar L, Gad A, Holmberg L et al (1985), Reduction in Mortality from Breast Cancer after mass Screening with Mammography, The Lancet Ltd (1985) April 13:829-832.

3) Lee K, Inoue M, Otani T et al (2006), Gastric cancer screening and subsequent risk of gastric cancer: A large-scale

population-based cohort study, with a 13-year follow-up in Japan, Int. J. Cancer (2006): 118, 2315–2321.

 Mandel J, Church T, Ederer F et al (1999), Colorectal Cancer Mortality: Effectiveness of Biennial Screening for Fecal Occult Blood, Journal of the National Cancer Institute (1999), Vol. 91, No. 5, March 3.

5) Nishii K, Ueoka H, Kiura K et al (2001), A case-control study of lung cancer screening in Okayama Prefecture, Japan,

Lung Cancer 34 (2001) 325–332.

6) Aklimunnessa K, Mori M, Khan M et al (2006), Effectiveness of Cervical Cancer Screening Over Cervical Cancer Mortality Among Japanese Women, Jpn J Clin Oncol (2006);36(8)511–518:doi:10.1093/jjco/hyl060.

7) American Cancer Society, American Cancer Society Guidelines for the Early Detection of Cancer, https://www.cancer.org/healthy/find-cancer-early/cancer-screening-guidelines/american-cancer-society-guidelines-for-the -early-detection-of-cancer.html (18 August 2017, date last accessed)

8) Smith A, Andrews K, Brooks D et al (2017), Cancer Screening in the United States, 2017, A Review of Current American Cancer Society Guidelines and Current Issues in Cancer Screening, CA CANCER J CLIN 2017;67:100–121. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. https://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/Page/Name/home (18 August 2017, date last accessed)

9) Fontana RS, Sanderson DR, Woolner LB et al (1986),Lung cancer screen: ng the Mayo Program. J Occup Med, 1986
 28:746-50.

10) Marcus PM, Bergstralh EJ, Fagerstrom RM et al (2000), Lung cancer mortality in the Mayo Lung Project: impact of extended follow-up. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2000;92(16):1308-16.

11)Swensen SJ, Jett JR, Sloan JA et al (2002), Screening for lung cancer with low-dose spiral computed tomography. Am

J Respir Crit Care Med 2002;165:508-13.

12) Fintelman F, Adam Bernheim A, McLoud T et al (2017), Brief History of Lung Cancer Screening Including the National Lung Screening Trial,Roentgenology: http://dx.doi.org/10.1053/j.ro.2017.06.006

13) Cancer Screening Assessment and Management Division, Reserch Center for Cancer Prevention and Screening,

National Cancer Center, http://canscreen.ncc.go.jp/guideline/matome.html (18 August 2017, date last accessed)

14)Hamashima C, Shibuya D, Yamazaki H et al (2008), The Japanease Guidelines for Gastric Cancer Screening, Jpn J

Clin Oncol, doi:10.1093/jjco/hyn017,2008

15)Hamashima C (2016), The Japanease Guidelines for Breast Cancer Screening, Jpn J Clin Oncol 2016,1-11,

doi:10.1093/jjco/hyw008,2016

16)Hamashima C, Aoki D, Miyagi E et al (2010), The Japanease Guidelines for Cervical Cancer Screening, Jpn J Clin Oncol 2010;40(6)485-502, doi:10.1093/jjco/hyq036,2010

17) Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (2016), Guidelines for cancer preventive health education and cancer

screening, http://www.mhlw.go.jp/stf/seisakunitsuite/bunya/0000059490.html (7 August 2017, date last accessed) (in Japanese)

 OECD (2015), Health at a Glance 2015 OECD INDICATORS, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/health\_glance-2015-en.

19) Cancer Registry and Statistics. Cancer Information Service, National Cancer Center, Japan,
Pref\_Cancer\_Screening\_Rate (2007\_2013) http://ganjoho.jp/reg\_stat/statistics/dl/index.html#pref\_screening (7 August
2017, date last accessed) (in Japanese)

20) Kong S, Park D, Lee H et al (2004), Clinicopathologic features of asymptomatic gastric adenocarcinoma patients in Korea, Jpn J Clin Oncol ;34(1)1-7.

21) Sato T (2005), Clinicopathological study of asymptomatic gastric cancer and symptomatic gastric cancer, Niigata igakkai zasshi (in Japanese English abstract).

22) Astin M, Griffin T, Neal R et al (2011), The diagnostic value of symptoms for colorectal cancer in primary care:a systematic review, British Journal of General Practice,231-243, DOI:10.3399/bjgp11X572427.

23) Ford A, Zanten S, Rodgers C et al (2008), Diagnostic utility of alarm features for colorectal cancer: systematic review and meta-analysis, Gut, 57:1545-1552, DOI:10.1136/gut.2008.159723.

24) Hatch Q, Kniery K, Johnson E et al (2016), Screening or Symptoms? How Do We Detect Colorectal Cancer in an Equal Ascess Health Care System?, J Gastrointest Surg, 20:431-438.

25) Samalavicius N, Dulskas A, Baltruskeviciene E et al (2016), Asymptomatic primary tumor in incurable metastatic colorectal cancer: is there a role for surgical resection prior to systematic therapy or not? Videosurgery

Miniinv,:11(4):274-282.

26) Singh D, Malila N, Pokhrel A et al (2015), Association of symptoms and breast cancer in population-based mammography screening in Finland,International Journal of Cancer:136,E630-637

27) Myriokefalitaki E, Potdor N, Barnfield L et al (2016), Cervical Cancer still presents symptomatically 20 years after the introduction of a structured national screening programme,Cytopathology,27,229-236.

28) Higashi T, Nakamura F, Shibata A et al (2014), The National Database of Hospital-based Cancer Registries: A Nationwide Infrastructure to Support Evidence-based Cancer Care and Cancer Control Policy in Japan, Jpn J Clin Oncol, ;44(1)2-8.

29) Center for Cancer Control and Information Services, National Cancer Center. Coding Definitions of the Hospital-based Cancer Registry in Designated Cancer Care Hospitals. http://ganjoho.jp/reg\_stat/can\_reg/hospital/info/regulation.html (4 August 2017, date last accessed) (in Japanese).

30) World Health Organization. International Classification of Diseases for Oncology (ICD-O-3). 3rd edn. http://www.who.int/classifications/icd/adaptations/oncology/en/ (4 August 2017, date last accessed).

31) Sobin L, Wittekind C, TNM Classification of Malignant Tumors (UICC). 6th edn. New York: Wiley-Liss 2002.

32) Sobin L, Gospodarowicsz M, Wittekind C, TNM Classification of Malignant Tumors (UICC). 7th edn. New York:Wiley-Liss 2009.

33) Center for Cancer Control and Information Services, National Cancer Center (2017), The 2015 National Cancer Statistics Report from Hospital-based Cancer Registry, http://ganjoho.jp/data/reg\_stat/statistics/brochure/2015\_report.pdf
(7 Septem 2017, date last accessed) (in Japanese)

34) Hori M, Matsuda T, Shibata A et al (2015), Cancer incidence and incidence rate in Japan in 2009: a study of 32 population-based cancer registries for the Monitoring of Cancer Incidence in Japan (MCIJ) project, Japanese Journal of Clinical Oncology.

35) Center for Cancer Control and Information Services, National Cancer Center (2016), Monitoring of Cancer Incidence in Japan,2012, http://ganjoho.jp/data/reg\_stat/statistics/brochure/mcij2012\_report.pdf (7 August 2017, date last accessed) (in Japanese)

36) Ebina Y, Yaegashi N, Katabuchi H et al (2015), Japan Society of Gynecologic Oncology guidelines 2011 for the treatment of uterine cervical cancer, Int J Clin Oncol (2015) 20:240–248.

37) Katai H, Sano T (2005), Early gastric cancer: concepts, diagnosis, and management, Int J Clin Oncol 10:375–383
38) Ohira T, Suga Y, Nagatsuka Y et al (2006), Early-stage lung cancer: diagnosis and treatment, Int J Clin Oncol 11:9–
12

39) Suzuki T, Toi M, Saji S et al (2006), Early breast cancer, Int J Clin Oncol 11:108-119

40) Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (2007), Basic plan for promoting cancer control, http://www.mhlw.go.jp/bunya/kenkou/gan keikaku.html(7 August 2017, date last accessed) (in Japanese)

41) Cabinet Office Government of Japan (2014), Public opinion poll on cancer control, http://survey.gov-online.go.jp/h26/h26-gantaisaku/index.html (7 August 2017, date last accessed) (in Japanese)

42) Yasunaga H, Ide H, Imamura T et al (2005), Impact of the Japanese Diagnosis Procedure Combination-based

Payment System on Cardiovascular Medicine-related Costs, Int Heart J(2005)855-866

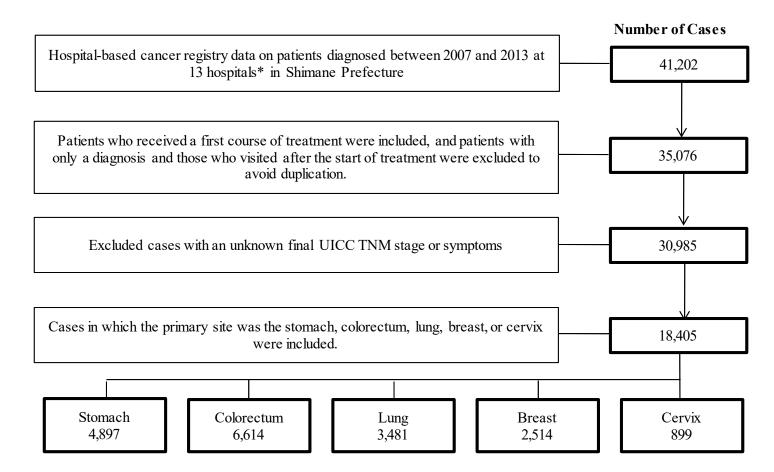
43) Taplin S, Ichikawa L, Buist D et al (2004), Evaluating Organized Breast Cancer Screening Implementation: The

Prevention of Late-Stage Disease?, Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention, vol 13, 225-234, February 2004.

44) Resende J, Vazquez F, Biot S et al (2017), Organized Cervical Cancer Screening Program in Barretos, Brazil:Experience in 18 Municipalities of Sao Paulo State(2017), Acta Cytologica 2018;62:19-27, doi:10.1159/000480446.

45) Baron R, Melillo S, Rimer BK et al (2010). Intervention to increase recommendation and delivery of screening for breast, cervical, and colorectal cancers by healthcare providers: a systematic review of provider reminders. Am J Prev Med 2010;38(1):110-7.

46) Ishikawa Y, Hirai K, Saito H et al (2012). Cost-effectiveness of a tailored intervention designed to increase breast cancer screening among a non-adherent population: a randomized controlled trial, BMC Public Health 2012.12:760, http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2458/12/760



### Figure 1. Schematic of data collection

\*Five hospitals are government-designated cancer care hospitals, and 8 hospitals are cancer information promotion hospitals designated by Shimane Prefecture.

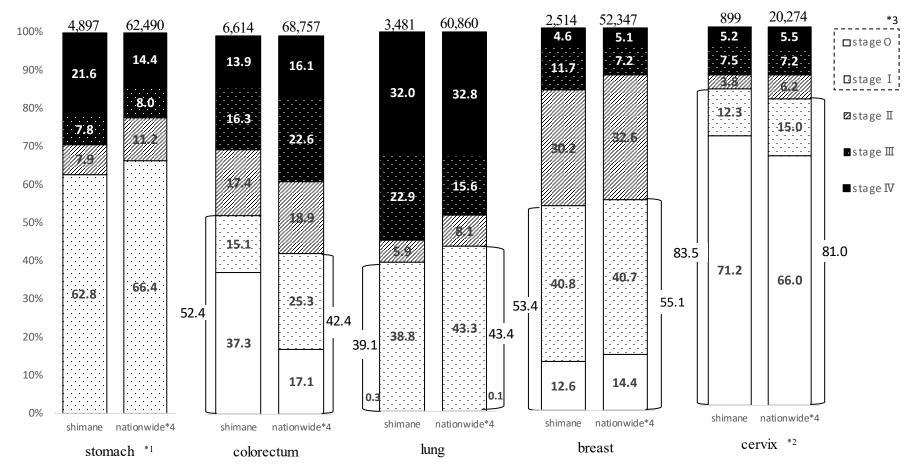


Figure 2.Distribution of UICC TNM stage at diagnosis of Shimane and Nationwide collection

\*1 Stage 0 in the stomach is not defined according to the Japanese Hospital-based cancer registry.

\*2 Stage 0 in the cervix is equivalent to CIN III (cervical intraepithelial neoplasia, grade III).

\*3 Early-stage cancer was defined as stage 0 and I in this study.

\*4 NCC, The 2015 National Cancer Statistics Report from hospital-based cancer registry

Cancer types and stages	No. of total cases	Symptomatic cases		Asymptomatic cases		<i>p</i> -value <sup>*1</sup>	Odds ratio symptoms (+)/(-) *3		(95% CI)				<i>p</i> -value <sup>*2</sup>
Stomach						<.0001							
stage I	3,075	1,248	(40.6)	1,827	(59.4)		1.00						
stage II	385	284	(73.8)	101	(26.2)		4.12	(	3.26	-	5.24	)	<.0001
stage III	380	302	(79.5)	78	(20.5)		5.67	(	4.40	-	7.39	)	<.0001
stage IV	1,057	944	(89.3)	113	(10.7)		12.23	(	9.98	-	15.13	)	<.0001
Colorectum						<.0001							
stage O	2465	805	(32.7)	1660	(67.3)		0.61	(	0.52	-	0.70	)	<.0001
stage I	1,001	445	(44.5)	556	(55.5)		1.00						
stage II	1,150	829	(72.1)	321	(27.9)		3.23	(	2.70	-	3.86	)	<.0001
stage III	1,077	792	(73.5)	285	(26.5)		3.47	(	2.89	-	4.18	)	<.0001
stage IV	921	785	(85.2)	136	(14.8)		7.21	(	5.80	-	9.02	)	<.0001
Lung						<.0001							
stage O	11	1	(9.1)	10	(90.9)		0.37	(	0.02	-	1.97	)	0.2854
stage I	1,351	285	(21.1)	1,066	(78.9)		1.00						
stage II	206	98	(47.6)	108	(52.4)		3.39	(	2.51	-	4.37	)	<.0001
stage III	798	516	(64.7)	282	(35.3)		6.84	(	5.64	-	8.33	)	<.0001
stage IV	1,115	913	(81.9)	202	(18.1)		16.91	(	13.86	-	20.71	)	<.0001
Breast						<.0001							
stage O	318	142	(44.7)	176	(55.3)		0.53	(	0.41	-	0.69	)	<.0001
stage I	1,025	617	(60.2)	408	(39.8)		1.00						
stage II	760	617	(81.2)	143	(18.8)		2.85	(	2.29	-	3.57	)	<.0001
stage III	295	268	(90.8)	27	(9.2)		6.56	(	4.41	-	10.15	)	<.0001
stage IV	116	109	(94.0)	7	(6.0)		10.30	(	5.10	-	24.59	)	<.0001
Cervix						<.0001							
stage O(CIN3)	640	122	(19.1)	518	(80.9)		0.54	(	0.30	-	1.01	)	0.0535
stage I	111	57	(51.4)	54	(48.6)								
IA	56	17	(30.4)	39	(69.6)		1.00						
IB	55	40	(72.7)	15	(27.3)		6.12	(	2.74	-	14.31	)	<.0001
stage II	34	33	(97.1)	1	(2.9)		75.71	(	14.45	-	1400.86	)	<.0001
stage III	67	63	(94.0)	4	(6.0)		36.13	(	12.50	-	133.52	)	<.0001
stage IV	47	45	(95.7)	2	(4.3)		51.62	(	13.79	_	339.41	)	<.0001

## Table 1. Symptomatic cases in each cancer UICC TNM stage

 $^{\ast 3}$  "Odds ratio symptoms(+)/(-)" indicates ratio symptomatic cases to asymptomatic cases

The percentage of symptomatic cases tended to increase as the cancer stage progressed in the five organs.

Cancer types	No. of total cases	No. of symptomatic cases at stage 0 & I		Othe	Others		Odds ratio symptoms (+)/(-) *3		(95%)	<i>p</i> -value <sup>*2</sup>	
Stomach	4,897	1,248	(25.5)	3,649	(74.5)	<.0001	1.00				
Colorectum	6,614	1,250	(18.9)	5,364	(81.1)	<.0001	0.68	(	0.62 -	0.74)	<.0001
Lung	3,481	286	(8.2)	3,195	(91.8)	<.0001	0.26	(	0.23 -	0.30)	<.0001
Breast	2,514	759	(30.2)	1,755	(69.8)	<.0001	1.26	(	1.14 -	1.41)	<.0001
Cervix	899	179	(19.9)	720	(80.1)	<.0001	0.73	(	0.61 -	0.86)	0.0003

 Table 2. Symptomatic cases of early cancer stages

<sup>\*1</sup> Fisher's exact test

\*<sup>2</sup> Logistic regression model

 $^{*3}$  "Odds ratio symptoms(+)/(-)" indicates ratio symptomatic cases to asymptomatic cases

The symptomatic cases of early cancer stages were low in the five organs.

Cancer types	No. of total cases		Symptomatic gro	սթ	A			
		No.of patients	No.of patients at stage 0 and I	Early detection rates <sup>*1</sup>	No.of patients	No.of patients at stage 0 and I		<i>p</i> -value <sup>*2</sup>
Five organs	18,405	10,320	3,722	36.1	8,085	6,275	77.6	<.0001
Stomach	4,897	2,778	1,248	44.9	2,119	1,827	86.2	<.0001
Colorectum	6,614	3,656	1,250	34.2	2,958	2,216	74.9	<.0001
Lung	3,481	1,813	286	15.8	1,668	1,076	64.5	<.0001
Breast	2,514	1,753	759	43.3	761	584	76.7	<.0001
Cervix	899	320	179	55.9	579	572	98.8	<.0001

## Table 3. Early detection rates in the symptomatic and asymptomatic groups of cancer patients

\*1 The early detection rates are the cases which are stages 0 and I at diagnosis among each group.

\*2 Fisher's exact test

The early detection rates of the asymptomatic cancer patients were higher than those of symptomatic patients for each organ.