Mutation Carriers' Perspectives on Lynch Syndrome; self-concept and lived experiences.

Vendel Petersen, Helle

2012

Link to publication

Citation for published version (APA):

Total number of authors:
1

General rights
Unless other specific re-use rights are stated the following general rights apply:
Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.
• Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
• You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
• You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

Read more about Creative commons licenses: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/

Take down policy
If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.
Mutation Carriers' Perspectives on Lynch Syndrome: Self-concept and Lived Experiences

Lynch syndrome is a hereditary cancer syndrome that predisposes to several types of cancer, including colorectal cancer, endometrial cancer and ovarian cancer. Genetic testing for Lynch syndrome has been available since the mid-1990's, which implies that an increasing number of individuals live with knowledge of a high risk of cancer. Most individuals affected by Lynch syndrome experience increased levels of e.g. anxiety and distress after having learnt about a disease-predisposing mutation. In the majority of the individuals, the scores return to normal within 12 months. A smaller subset reports remaining high scores, which may indicate a need for psychosocial support. Global measures of may have a limited possibility to capture the psychological and social issues specifically associated with genetic testing and life at increased risk of cancer. This motivates our evaluation and application of more specific instruments related to the psychological impact from Lynch syndrome and our study of perspectives among healthy individuals at increased risk.

In study I, we evaluated the structure of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and its performance in three Lynch syndrome populations. The findings support the basic structure of the scale and its applicability in western populations.

Study II provides the first extended use of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale through data collection from the entire Danish Lynch syndrome cohort. The results suggest that mutation carriers adapt well to the situation, though a subset reports adverse scores with a higher impact on self-concept.

In study III, sense of coherence (SOC) was assessed in individuals with Lynch syndrome and the data were correlated to self-concept. SOC scores in mutation carriers were similar to those in a general population. In the majority (76%), SOC and self-concept were in accordance. Discrepant subsets were identified, which likely reflects different aspects of finding life at increased risk difficult. Adverse scores on both scales, i.e. a low SOC and a high impact on self-concept, were reported by 10% of the individuals.

In study IV, the lived experiences among healthy mutation carriers in Lynch syndrome families were explored. The findings suggest that living with a high risk of cancer constitutes an act of balance, in which personal interpretation and family experiences combined with knowledge, contribute to how the individuals approach life at increased risk of cancer.

Key words
Lynch syndrome, psychological impact, self-concept, validity, sense of coherence, anxiety, lived experiences, questionnaires phenomenology, interviews

Supplementary bibliographical information

Language

English

ISSN and key title
1652-8220

ISBN
978-91-87189-62-3

Recipient's notes

Number of pages
122

Security classification

Price

I, the undersigned, being the copyright owner of the abstract of the above-mentioned dissertation, hereby grant to all reference sources permission to publish and disseminate the abstract of the above-mentioned dissertation.

Signature

Date November 5, 2012
Mutation Carriers’ Perspectives on Lynch Syndrome
Self-concept and Lived Experiences

Helle Vendel Petersen

Faculty of Medicine
Department of Oncology
Lund University, Sweden

In collaboration with
HNPPC register, Clinical Research Center,
Copenhagen University Hospital, Hvidovre, Denmark
The family, presented on the cover of this thesis, is a Lynch syndrome family with 17 children. The picture was taken in 1953, when the family was gathered to celebrate the father’s 65th birthday.

The picture is printed with permission from the family.
# Table of Contents

Table of Contents

Original studies 5

Preface 6

Definitions 7

Background 9

Hereditary colorectal cancer and the Danish HNPCC register 9
Genetic counselling 10
Lynch syndrome 11
  Historical perspective 11
  Genotype and phenotype 12
Surveillance 13
Psychological aspects of hereditary cancer 13

Conceptual framework 19
The self and self-concept 19
Salutogenesis and sense of coherence 20
Reflective lifeworld research and phenomenological research method 21

Aims and design 22
Aims 22
Design 22

Materials, informants and methods 23
The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale 23
The sense of coherence (SOC) scale 24
Original studies

This thesis is based on the following studies referred to in the text by their roman numerals:


IV  Petersen HV, Nilbert M, Bernstein I, Carlsson C. Balancing life at risk of hereditary cancer - A phenomenological study of the long-term experiences of healthy carriers of Lynch syndrome. In manuscript

The studies were reprinted with permission from the publishers.

Contribution not included in the thesis but of relevance to the field:

Preface

Mapping of the human genome has made predictive genetic testing for various diseases possible. From a public health perspective, genetic testing provides opportunities for identification of individuals, in whom targeted interventions may prevent disease and cancer-related death. This development implies that a growing number of people live with knowledge of an increased risk of cancer.

Since genetic testing became possible concerns have been raised, among health care professionals as well as the public, whether information about an increased risk may be psychologically harmful, or whether it may rather be perceived as an advantage and possibility for intervention.

When individuals learn about a potentially increased risk of disease, principles of autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence and justice must be met and ethical considerations regarding the individual’s right “to know” and “not to know” are mandatory. Knowledge about the individual’s perspectives and the short-term and long-term psychosocial impact from genetic testing is relevant in order to provide optimal support during counselling, diagnostic and surveillance for hereditary cancer.
Definitions

Definitions related to hereditary colorectal cancer:

**FAP:** Familial Adenomatous Polyposis

**HNPCC:** Hereditary Nonpolyposis Colorectal Cancer

**Mismatch repair (MMR) genes:** Genes responsible for the repair of DNA mismatches. When constitutionally mutated the MMR genes MLH1, MSH2, MSH6 and PMS2 cause Lynch syndrome

**Principal component analysis (factor analysis):** A statistical procedure that reduces a large set of variables into a smaller set of variables with common characteristics or underlying dimensions

**Proband:** The person within the family in whom a mutation is first verified

**Self-concept:** How we think about and perceive ourselves

**Sense of coherence:** A stress resource orientated concept that is thought to explain why some people stay well despite stressful situations and hardship

Definitions related to validity concepts:

**Construct validity:** The degree to which an instrument measures the construct under investigation

**Content validity:** The degree to which the items in an instrument adequately represents the universe of content

**Convergent validity:** An approach to construct validation that involves assessing the degree to which two measures of a construct are similar

**Criterion validity:** The correlation of a scale with some other measures of the trait or disorder under study
**External validity:** The degree to which the results of a study can be generalized to settings or samples others than the ones studied

**Face validity:** The extent to which an instrument indeed measures what it is supposed to measure

**Internal consistency:** The degree to which the subparts of an instrument all measure the same attribute or dimension, as a measure if the instruments reliability

**Internal validity:** The degree to which it can be inferred that the independent variable, rather than uncontrolled extraneous factors, is responsible for the effect observed

**Reliability:** The degree of consistency or dependability to which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure
Background

Hereditary colorectal cancer and the Danish HNPCC register

In Denmark, almost 4000 individuals are annually diagnosed with colorectal cancer (www.DCCG.dk), which is one of the most common forms of cancer with a 5% risk in the general population (Anonymous, 2008). Colorectal cancer represents the third most common cancer type in both men and women and in Denmark (www.cancer.dk). Familial aggregation has long since been recognized (Lynch and Lynch, 2002). Epidemiological studies estimate that 20-30% of colorectal cancers are caused by hereditary factors, though only about 5% originate from a defined germline mutation (de la Chapelle A, 2005).

The Danish hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer (HNPCC) register was established in 1991 at Hvidovre University hospital. Clinical geneticists, pathologists, surgeons and gynecologists contribute data to the register. Currently (October 2012) the register contains 2,600 families with suspected or verified hereditary colorectal cancer, of which about 1,600 are considered to be at increased risk (table 1) (Inge Bernstein, personal communication). To provide information to all Danes with suspected risk of hereditary colorectal cancer, the register was granted permission in 1997 to directly contact relatives of probands as an alternative to sharing information within the family. Relatives at risk are informed by mail and are invited to contact the register for genetic counseling.
Table 1. HNPCC and HNPCC-like families in the Danish register (October 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family type</th>
<th>Families (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lynch syndrome families</strong></td>
<td>251 (931 individuals)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amsterdam I families</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amsterdam II families</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HNPCC suspected families</td>
<td>724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late onset families</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate risk families</td>
<td>1,021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CRC: Colorectal cancer

Genetic counselling

Individuals or families suspected of hereditary colorectal cancer should be referred for genetic counselling. From a public health perspective, the goal is to identify individuals at high risk of cancer in order to decrease morbidity and mortality. For the individual, the goal is to gain understanding of heredity and to adapt to the medical, psychological and familial implications of a genetic predisposition to disease. The individual needs to make informed decisions about genetic diagnostics and risk reducing strategies (Resta et al. 2006). The counselling process integrates establishment of a family history, verification of cancer diagnoses, risk estimates, education about the medical aspects of the condition and information about surveillance programs (Resta et al. 2006; Weissman et al. 2011). Genetic counselling is generally performed in two steps. The first session includes risk estimates, heredity and informed decisions about genetic testing. The second session typically deals with the test result and its implications and recommendations for surveillance (Trimbath and Giardiello, 2002).
Clinical guidelines related to genetic counselling generally emphasize issues related to information, education, clinical management and surveillance, but tend to give less attention to the psychological and psychosocial aspects of hereditary cancer (Butow and Lobb, 2004; Ellington et al. 2005; Resta et al. 2006). As genetic counselling aims to guide and support individuals and families with increased risk, understanding patients’ perspectives and exploring the psychosocial dimensions of genetic counselling and testing are important (Bojesen et al. 2007; Trimbath and Giardiello, 2002).

Lynch syndrome

Historical perspective

Long before the identification of disease-predisposing mutations, families have been living with knowledge about a high cancer risk based on their family history. In 1895, the seamstress of Dr. Aldred Warthin told him that she was afraid of dying from cancer since several family members had been affected by cancer in the intestinal tract or in the genital organs. Dr. Warthin collected her family history and was the first to link gastrointestinal and gynaecological cancer to heredity when he in 1913 published a description of the family, which he called family G (Warthin A, 1985). The syndrome was rediscovered in the 1960’s (Lynch and Krush, 1971b) when Dr. Henry Lynch revisited the family and described other similar families, and thereby confirmed the presence of dominantly inherited colorectal and endometrial cancer (Lynch and Krush, 1971a; Lynch and Krush, 1971b). In an early overview Dr. Lynch emphasized the importance that counselees recognize the potential personal and societal consequences of genetic testing, including its effect on psychological stress (Lynch et al. 1996).

In 1991, an international collaborative group agreed on the establishment of the Amsterdam criteria for uniformed classification of families with hereditary colorectal cancer (Vasen et al. 1991). The Amsterdam I criteria include three or more family members with histologically verified colorectal cancer, one of whom, should be a first-degree relative to the other two and at least two successive generations should be affected. At least one individual should be diagnosed before the age of 50 and familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) should be excluded. Later, the criteria were broadened to the Amsterdam II criteria, which also include endometrial cancer, cancer of the upper urinary tract and cancer of the small bowel (Vasen et al. 1999). Though the Amsterdam criteria identify families with a high likelihood of Lynch syndrome, they cannot be used to exclude the syndrome since
many families escape detection, typically due to a few cases, small families or late age at onset. Among the Amsterdam positive families, only about half carry germline disease-predisposing mutations. Today, a combination of family history of cancer (pedigree) and histopathology/mismatch-repair (MMR) protein analysis is used to identify individuals suspected of HNPCC/Lynch syndrome. Lynch syndrome refers to families with a disease-predisposing MMR gene mutation and Familial Colorectal Cancer refers to families that met the Amsterdam criteria but do not show any MMR gene mutations (Vasen et al. 2007).

**Genotype and phenotype**

Lynch syndrome is estimated to cause 2-5% of colorectal cancer and around 3% of endometrial cancer (de la Chapelle A, 2005; Lynch et al. 2009). The syndrome is characterized by increased lifetime risks for several tumour types. The highest risks apply to colorectal cancer (50-80% risk), endometrial cancer (40-60% risk) and ovarian cancer (10-12% risk) (Koornstra et al. 2009; Patel and Ahnen, 2012; Quehenberger et al. 2005). Lynch syndrome-associated tumours develop at an earlier age with a mean age at onset of 45 years for colorectal cancer, 48 years for endometrial cancer and 40-45 years for ovarian cancer (Koornstra et al. 2009).

In 1993, the first germline mutations in the MMR genes *MLH1* and *MSH2* were linked to Lynch syndrome (Bronner et al. 1994; Fishel et al. 1993; Lindblom et al. 1993). A few years later, mutations in the MMR genes *MSH6* and *PMS2* genes were also linked to the syndrome (Miyaki et al. 1997; Nicolaides et al. 1994). The MMR proteins are responsible for repair of errors that occur during DNA replication. Failure to recognize such errors allow for accumulation of mutations in repeated sequences, referred to as microsatellite instability (MSI). Likewise, mutations that occur in coding repeats will lead to somatic frameshift mutations that often affect cancer-associated genes. Mutations in *MLH1* account for 50% of the families, *MSH2* 40%, *MSH6* 7% and *PMS2* 1-2% (Peltomaki and Vasen, 2004). In Denmark, the *MLH1* and *MHS2* genes contribute to an equal fraction of cases, whereas *MSH6* mutations account for higher number (20%) of the families than described in other populations (Nilbert et al., 2009).

The different MMR genes are linked to somewhat different tumour spectra, with a predominance of colorectal cancer in *MLH1* mutant families, high risks of gynaecological cancer and a later age at onset of colorectal cancer in *MSH6* mutant families and a broader phenotype and an increased risk of extracolonic cancers in the *MSH2* mutant cases.
Surveillance

Colonoscopies effectively reduce morbidity and mortality from colorectal cancer in Lynch syndrome mutation carriers (Jarvinen et al. 2000; Vasen et al. 2010). Colonoscopies are recommended every 1-2 years starting from age 20-25. In Denmark, recommendations call for colonoscopies every second year from age 25. Due to the increased risk of endometrial cancer, women are recommended to undergo gynaecological surveillance annually, and in conjunction with abdominal surgery, prophylactic hysterectomy is an option after child-bearing age (Lindor et al. 2006; Vasen et al. 2007). Evidence for the benefit of gynaecological cancer surveillance is, however, lacking (Lynch et al. 2009). Endometrial cancer generally causes early symptoms of bleeding and is associated with a favourable prognosis, whereas ovarian cancer may be difficult to detect and has a worse prognosis (Evans et al. 2009; Stuckless et al. 2012).

Psychological aspects of hereditary cancer

Since predictive genetic testing for various hereditary diseases became possible in the early 1990’s, the psychological aspects of pre-symptomatic genetic testing have been widely addressed, in particular in hereditary breast cancer and ovarian cancer (BRCA) and to some extent also in HNPCC/Lynch syndrome (table 2). The studies have focused on different aspects of genetic testing, e.g. risk perception, motivational factors, coping strategies, family history and short-term psychological effects from learning about hereditary cancer (Bjorvatn et al. 2007; Bjorvatn et al. 2008; Braithwaite et al. 2006; Broadstock et al. 2000; Codori et al. 2005; Esplien et al. 2007; Gritz et al. 2005; Hasenbring et al. 2011; Landsbergen et al. 2009; Meiser, 2005; Mikkelsen et al. 2009; Nordin et al. 2002; Shiloh et al. 2008). Few studies have, however, evaluated the long-term consequences of living with a high risk of hereditary cancer (Aktan-Collan et al. 2000; Bleiker et al. 2007; Gritz et al. 2005). The psychological impact from genetic testing has been assessed in various ways using a variety of different measures. Some of the most commonly used instruments used to measure anxiety are the hospital and depression scale (HADS) and the state trait anxiety inventory (STAI). For distress, the impact of event scale (IES), Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression scale (CES-D) and HADS have been widely applied. HADS and CES-D have been used to assess depression (Vadaparampil et al. 2005). Perceptions of different health beliefs related to hereditary colorectal cancer have been assessed using ratings on a Likert scale in relation to specific areas e.g. cancer worry, vulnerability and coping ability (Keller et al. 2002). The research area has been
influenced by the National Human genome Research Institute (NHGRI) that recommended the use of a core set of questionnaires developed by multidisciplinary teams for BRCA patients (Botkin et al. 1996).

The findings are fairly consistent and suggest that genetic diagnostics for Lynch syndrome leads to increased distress around the time of testing, but that the changes seem temporary with the majority of mutation carriers showing no adverse psychological effects 6–12 month after testing (Aktan-Collan et al. 2001; Braithwaite et al. 2006; Broadstock et al. 2000; Gritz et al. 2005; Meiser et al. 2004). Clinically relevant distress prior to and after genetic testing has been assessed in affected and unaffected individuals with BRCA1/2 and HNPCC and show that both internal and external factors affect the outcome. Such factors include pre-test level of distress, emotional illness, number of affected first-degree relatives, coping strategies and family communication, which may constitute predictors for post-test distress up to 6 month after disclosure (Meiser, 2005). Also, family system characteristics, in particular family communication and loss of close relatives have been shown to be of importance (Bartuma et al. 2012; McCann et al. 2009; Meiser, 2005). The prevalence of clinically relevant distress does not differ between individuals from BRCA1/2 and HNPCC families (Meiser, 2005). The psychological impact from genetic testing have by some investigators been found to depend more on the pre-test psychological distress than the test result itself (Gritz et al. 2005; Meiser, 2005; Murakami et al. 2004; Sivell et al. 2008). The specific knowledge about the psychological impact of genetic testing the first year after receiving a cancer diagnosis is limited (Landsbergen et al. 2009).

Assessment of anxiety has been widely used in relation to the psychological impact from genetic testing in Lynch syndrome. Short-term as well as a long-term decrease in colon cancer anxiety and general anxiety has been shown, whereas state anxiety does not seem to differ between carriers and non-carriers 12 months after testing occurred (Aktan-Collan et al. 2001; Meiser et al. 2004).

Subgroups with an increased vulnerability have been identified. A minor group reports clinically relevant depression scores before and after genetic counselling (Espllen et al. 2003; Keller et al. 2002; Murakami et al. 2004). Carriers with lower education have reported significantly higher levels of anxiety and depression compared to carriers with higher education (Gritz et al. 2005). Individuals with higher levels of mood disturbance at baseline may be at risk of both short-term and long-term increased distress after genetic testing (Gritz et al. 2005). Younger individuals with low social support may be at higher risk of anxiety, whereas individuals with low social support and poorer physical function seem to be more vulnerable to depression (Bjorvatn et al. 2007).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Year of publication</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Measurements and variables</th>
<th>Main findings and conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keller M et al.</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Impact on distress and perceptions related to genetic counselling in Lynch syndrome (HNPCC)</td>
<td>Anxiety and depression, impact of event, health beliefs, perception of risk, cancer worries, coping, attitude towards genetic testing and evaluation of counselling</td>
<td>An overall beneficial impact of comprehensive counselling. Distress and worries related to counselling declined. A substantial minority experienced increased worry and physical symptoms after counselling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esplen MJ et al.</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Experience of loss and distress in colorectal cancer patients undergoing genetic counselling</td>
<td>Family history, anticipated test result, psychological distress, anxiety and depression</td>
<td>A subgroup of colorectal cancer patients experience distress. Family history and losses related to cancer may be important factors of post-test adjustment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murikami et al</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Psychological distress after receiving a genetic test result</td>
<td>Major and minor depression, post traumatic stress disorder and acute stress disorder</td>
<td>Only history of major and minor depression was a predictor of distress 1 month after disclosure of test result.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meiser B et al.</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Psychological impact of testing for Lynch syndrome (HNPCC)</td>
<td>Coping, impact of event, anxiety and depression</td>
<td>Predictive testing leads to psychological benefits among non-mutation carriers and no adverse psychological outcome in mutation carriers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meiser B et al</td>
<td>Review</td>
<td>Psychological impact of genetic testing: an update of the literature on hereditary breast and ovarian cancer</td>
<td>Uptake, predictors of uptake, psychological impact in general on affected and non-affected carriers, behavioural impact, risk factors for psychological distress</td>
<td>Unique impact of genetic testing for different types of hereditary cancer. Psychological benefits for non-mutation carriers, no adverse effects amongst mutation carriers. Benefits more clear-cut for HNPCC.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gritz ER et al.</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Psychological impact from genetic testing for Lynch syndrome (HNPCC)</td>
<td>Depression, anxiety, cancer worries and perceived risk</td>
<td>No adverse long-tem psychological outcomes. Those with higher levels of baseline mood disturbance, low quality of life and lower social support may be at risk for both long and short-term increased distress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year of publication</td>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Measurements and variables</td>
<td>Main findings and conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claea E et al.</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Stress evaluation one year after test. Delineate if pre-test variables were predictors of post-test distress and health-related behaviour</td>
<td>Coping, perceived impact of test result, illness perception, perceived control, cancer specific distress, general distress and health related behaviour</td>
<td>A wide range of distress levels. Mutation carriers had higher levels of cancer related distress one year after test. Mutation carriers were adherent to colonoscopies one year after test. In general, predictive testing does not seem to induce major psychological problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Codori AM et al.</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Perceived risk and distress after genetic counselling for Lynch syndrome (HNPCC)</td>
<td>Perceived risk, distress, Lynch syndrome (HNPCC) related knowledge and beliefs about prevention</td>
<td>Risk overestimated. Risk perception change after counselling. Distress after counselling was positively related with baseline distress and anxiety symptoms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braithwaite D et al.</td>
<td>Review and meta-analysis</td>
<td>Psychological impact of genetic counselling for familial cancer</td>
<td>Risk perception, knowledge, anxiety, cancer specific worry, depression, and cancer surveillance</td>
<td>Genetic counselling improved knowledge, but did not alter risk perception. No adverse effect on affective outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Espllen MJ et al.</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Motivational factors and psychological functioning in cancer survivors undergoing genetic testing</td>
<td>Impact of event, anxiety, depression, social support and coping</td>
<td>Post counselling distress was predicted by less social support, escape-avoiding coping style and anticipation of becoming distressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blicker E et al.</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Psychological distress and social issues after genetic testing in Lynch syndrome (HNPCC) families</td>
<td>Perceived risk, involvement of relatives, professional support, cancer specific distress, familial relationship, consequences for future planning and social issues</td>
<td>Four years after genetic testing, only a small minority of counselled reported clinically significant levels of distress, or significant familial or social problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year of publication</td>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Measurements and variables</td>
<td>Main findings and conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siglen E et al</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>The influence from distress and SOC on anxiety and depression in hereditary cancer patients</td>
<td>SOC, impact of event, anxiety and depression</td>
<td>Association between cancer-related distress and symptoms of anxiety and depression. SOC significantly associated with anxiety and depression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bjorvatn C et al.</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Changes in anxiety and depression over time among subjects attending genetic counselling for hereditary cancer</td>
<td>Anxiety and depression</td>
<td>Overall low levels of anxiety and depression at all times. Anxiety and depression declined over time. Higher age, self-efficacy and social support were associated with lower levels of depression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sivell S et al. Review</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Risk perception</td>
<td>Accuracy and likelihood of personal risk, lifetime risk, risk rating and risk perception in relation to psychological wellbeing</td>
<td>Anxiety before testing was a predictor of increased perceived risk. However perceived risk was not a predictor of anxiety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bjorvatn C et al.</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Anxiety and depression in individuals attending genetic counselling for hereditary cancer</td>
<td>Social support, self-efficacy, self-rated physical function, social support satisfaction with genetic counselling, levels of worries, anxiety and depression</td>
<td>Anxiety and depression declined over time. Social support, satisfaction with genetic counselling, physical function, and self-efficacy were related with lower levels of anxiety. Social support interacts with anxiety over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mikkelsen E et al.</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Psychological consequences of genetic counselling (Breast and ovarian cancer mutation carriers)</td>
<td>Anxiety and depression, impact of event, quality of life</td>
<td>Genetic counselling does not reduce general anxiety, may alleviate cancer specific distress in women with a history of familial cancer, no adverse impact on anxiety depression and quality of life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year of publication</td>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Measurements and variables</td>
<td>Main findings and conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shiloh S et al.</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Coping style in testing for HNPCC</td>
<td>Impact of event, depression and coping style</td>
<td>No long-term distress after genetic testing for HNPCC in most individuals. Time and coping style have effect on emotional reactions. Individuals with a high monitoring coping style were more distressed than low monitors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landsbergen K et al.</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Psychological impact from genetic testing in the first year of individual affected with colorectal cancer</td>
<td>Quality of life, physical and mental health related quality of life, overall perceived health, demands of illness, diagnostic reactions, adjustment to cancer, anxiety, depression, impact of event</td>
<td>Limitation in emotional and social function can persist up to one year after cancer treatment. Little is known about the psychological impact during the first year after diagnosis and very little is known about additional psychological effect of genetic testing during the same period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bjorvatn C et al.</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Intrusion and avoidance in individuals undergoing genetic investigation and counselling for hereditary cancer</td>
<td>Satisfaction with genetic counselling, level of worry, impact of event, physical function.</td>
<td>Subject with lower levels of self-efficacy at baseline and high level of worry immediate after genetic counselling seemed to be more vulnerable to both intrusion and avoidance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hadley DW et al.</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Psychological impact of genetic services through a cascade approach</td>
<td>Depression, worries about cancer and impact of event</td>
<td>Those family member, from the same generation as the first identified mutation (index person), who were tested closest to the index person experience less distress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hasenbring M et al.</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Psychological impact from genetic testing for Lynch syndrome (HNPCC): The role of cancer history, gender, age and psychological distress</td>
<td>Anxiety, general affective distress, impact of event, and cancer and Lynch syndrome (HNPCC) related beliefs</td>
<td>Genetic counselling for Lynch syndrome (HNPCC) leads to an overall reduction of anxiety. Cancer-affected younger men do not seem to reduce high anxiety levels after testing (small sample size).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conceptual framework

The research presented in this thesis focuses on individuals in families with Lynch syndrome and integrates knowledge from natural sciences and lifeworld research. The conceptual framework presentation herein considers self-concept, salutogenesis and lived experiences in individuals with an increased risk of cancer.

The self and self-concept

Self-concept relates to how people think about and evaluate themselves and represents a psychological concept developed from research on the self (Markus and Wurf, 1987). Through an internal system of knowledge structures, referred to as schemas, experiences are stored in the long-term memory and constitute the cognitive foundation of purposive thoughts and actions. Self-schemas integrate and summarize an individual’s thoughts, feelings and experiences about the self in a specific domain. Individuals are more likely to be attentive to information and process it more quickly when it is consistent with an established self-schema (Stein, 1995). Self-concept comprises several self-representations, but most self-theorists agree that it is a multi-dimensional, multi-faceted dynamic structure that can be regarded as a set or collections of images, schemas, conceptions, theories and goals (Markus and Wurf, 1987). Three classes of self-conceptions have been hypothesized: the “actual” self, the “ideal” self and the “ought” self. Discrepancy between any of these can induce a state of discomfort (Higgins, 1987). Discrepancy between the actual and the ideal self is associated with depression, whereas discrepancy between the actual and the ought self is related to anxiety (Higgins, 1987). Another dimension of the self-concept relates to beliefs about the self in the past, present and future. The perceptions of the self are considered powerful determinants of behavior (Markus and Wurf, 1987). In this sense, self-concept is viewed as dynamic and changing. Individuals with a positive self-concept are more apt at enduring stressful situations in life as opposed to those with a more negative perception of the self (Markus and Wurf, 1987).
Self-concept has been considered both an outcome and an explanatory variable related to the psychosocial aspects of cancer (Curbow et al. 1990). Information about a person’s self can be experienced as threatening (Conkie-Rosell et al. 2000) and expression like “mutation” and “abnormal” may influence the way a person perceives themselves. Women tested negative for mutations have described “feeling normal for the first time” (Lim et al. 2004). Genetic information has been found to impact a person’s self in hereditary breast cancer (Esplen et al. 2009b; Lim et al. 2004), but otherwise, research on self-concept related to heredity is limited to the area of prenatal diagnostics where comprehensive measures of self-concept have been used (Conkie-Rosell et al. 2000). Global measures of self-concept may be limited in capturing specific aspects of self (Markus and Wurf, 1987). Self-concept scales for BRCA1/2, FAP and Lynch syndrome have, however, been developed with the aim to measure the impact of genetic testing on the mutations carriers’ self (Esplen et al. 2009b; Esplen et al. 2009a; Esplen et al. 2011).

Salutogenesis and sense of coherence

Salutogenesis is a stress resource orientated concept that has been applied in different cultural settings and subgroups. Salutogenesis is thought to explain why some people stay well despite stressful situations and hardship. The salutogenic concept focuses on orientation towards problem solving and capacity to use the resources available (Antonovsky A, 1987; Antonovsky, 1993; Lindstrom and Eriksson, 2005). Based on the salutogenic idea, sense of coherence (SOC) holds three nuclear components that reflect a person’s ability to assess and understand stressful situation (comprehensibility) ability to find meaning in situations (meaningfulness) and capacity to use internal and external resources available (manageability) (Antonovsky A, 1987). A key element is the presence of resources available e.g. knowledge, intelligence, coping strategies, social support, ego identity and religion and a preventive health orientation (Antonovsky A, 1987; Antonovsky, 1993; Eriksson and Lindstrom, 2005). SOC does not refer to a specific coping strategy, but rather to factors, which across cultures provide a basis for successful coping (Antonovsky, 1993). The original SOC scale consists of 29 items. A shorter form with 13 items has been developed (Antonovsky, 1987; 1993; Lindstrom and Eriksson, 2005).

Individuals with a strong SOC are more likely to perceive a stressor as a challenge rather than a negative influence and to react more appropriately to stressful situations by way of using relevant personal coping strategies (Stankunas et al. 2009). SOC is positively correlated to mental health, quality of life, low depressive mode, high self-esteem and an optimistic life orientation (Eriksson and Lindstrom,
2006; 2007; Feldt *et al.* 2007; Idler and Benyamini, 1997). The concept of SOC is considered a health resource that influences quality of life. SOC may be mediated by a good perceived health (Eriksson and Lindstrom, 2007). SOC tends to increase with age and may be less stable than primarily assumed (Eriksson and Lindstrom, 2005).

Both the 13-item and the 29-item SOC scales have been widely validated and applied. The scales have shown satisfactory performance (Antonovsky, 1993; Eriksson and Lindstrom, 2006; Gili *et al.* 2006; Jakobsson *et al.* 2004; Langius-Eklolf *et al.* 2009; Lindmark *et al.* 2009; Siglen *et al.* 2007; Soderhamn and Holmgren, 2004). The scale is considered psychometrically sound with acceptable face validity and good construct validity and reliability (Antonovsky A, 1987; Antonovsky, 1993; Lindstrom and Eriksson, 2005).

**Reflective lifeworld research and phenomenological research method**

Phenomenology and hermeneutic philosophy provide strong foundations for human sciences and reflective lifeworld research. Phenomenology is not a single philosophy and has been described by several philosophers during the 18th century (Dahlberg *et al.* 2010). Phenomenology can be defined as the study of structures of consciousness as experienced from the first-person point of view. In the phenomenological framework, humans are considered both biological infrastructures as well as bearers of consciousness (Giorgi, 2005). In the 19th century and the beginning of 20th century, logical empiricism was the dominating perspective in science. The German philosopher Edmund Husserl introduced a shift in the philosophic paradigm from things and nature towards human being and their world (Giorgi, 2005).

The phenomenological idea of “going to the things themselves” implies to do justice to the everyday experience. As researchers we should position ourselves in a way that things can show themselves to us. “Phenomenon” is a central concept within the phenomenology and can be understood as a matter, a thing or a part of the world. Phenomenology is thus the “science of phenomenon, and consequently the science of the world and its inhabitants”. Based on phenomenology a descriptive phenomenological research method has been developed. The purpose of the descriptive phenomenological research method is to investigate and describe a phenomenon as precisely as possible in terms of the meaning it has for those who experience it (Dahlberg *et al.* 2010; Giorgi, 1975; 2005; 2009; 2011).
Aims and design

Aims

The overall aims of this thesis were to evaluate the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and to address perspectives from life with a high risk of cancer.

The specific aims were:

- To validate the structure of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and to evaluate its performance in different Western countries (study I).

- To evaluate self-concept in the entire Danish Lynch syndrome cohort (study II).

- To assess SOC in individuals with Lynch syndrome and to correlate the data to self-concept and to SOC in a general population (study III).

- To explore the lived experiences of healthy mutation carriers in Lynch syndrome families (study IV).

Design

This thesis is based on 4 studies: a validation study of self-concept in three Western countries (study I), a descriptive cohort study based on data from Danish individuals with Lynch syndrome (study II), a descriptive and comparative cohort study based on data from Danish mutation carriers and published data on SOC in a general population (study III) and an interview study with individuals from Lynch syndrome families (study IV).
The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale

The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale contains two subscales that reflect *stigma and vulnerability* (15 items) and *bowel symptom-related anxiety* (5 items) (Esplen et al. 2011). Sum scores range between 20 and 140. Whereas statements 1 and 2 are positive and consequently reversed in the analysis, the remaining 18 statements are negative. Responders are asked to indicate their agreement on a 7-point Likert scale or indicate the item as non-applicable. Sum scores range between 20 and 140 with higher scores linked to a greater impact on self-concept. The self-concept scale was translated into Danish according to recommended guidelines, including re-back translation and a bilingual panel to ensure preservation of the conceptual meaning. The bilingual panel consisted of 6 native Danish and English speaking persons from different age groups (Bonomi et al. 1996; Sousa and Rojjanasrirat, 2011).

The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale has shown promising psychometric properties with positive correlations to validating measures (Esplen et al. 2011). A positive correlation to the Impact of Event scale (Horowitz et al. 1979) supports the convergent validity and a weaker correlation with the Fear Questionnaire support discriminating validity (Van Zuuren, 1988). The scale has been found to have a high level of internal consistency with an inter-item correlation at 0.40 and a Cronbach’s $\alpha$ at 0.93. We contributed to the evaluation of the test-retest reliability using data from 45 Danish mutation carriers. A high degree of reliability was found (intra-class coefficient of 0.92) supporting the use of the scale (Esplen et al. 2011). Further validation of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale will later be presented and discussed as a part of this thesis.
The sense of coherence (SOC) scale

The SOC scale is a self-administered scale developed by Antonovsky (Antonovsky A, 1987; Antonovsky, 1993). Responders are asked to state their agreement on a 7-point Likert scale. For this study the 13-item version of the scale was chosen. Some statements are reversed to avoid extreme answering. The scale can be divided into three subscales though Antonovsky argued that the scale should be used as a single concept (Antonovsky, 1993) The SOC scale has previously been translated into Danish (Due and Holstein, 1998), but in application, disagreement between the Danish and the English version was found for statement 11. We chose to re-translate this statement using a bilingual panel. The new version was in accordance with the Swedish version and was consequently chosen for study III.

Studies I-III

At the time of data collection for studies I-II, the Danish HNPCC register contained 180 Lynch syndrome families. Data were collected on two occasions; in May 2008 (n=262, response rate 80%) and in January 2009 (n=260, response rate 78%). In June 2011, we did a follow-up and collected data from mutation carriers identified after January 2009 (n=181, response rate 80%). In total, 522 eligible adults (>18 years of age) provided data. No significant differences regarding sex, time since testing, previous cancer and age were identified between responders and non-responders.

Self-reported data on self-concept were used for studies I-III and additional self-reported data on SOC was used in study III. Eligible participants were identified from the HNPCC register and information and questionnaires were sent by post including a letter of invitation and information about voluntary participation and the possibility to withdraw from the study at any time. Carriers were asked to return the questionnaires within two weeks if possible and one reminder was sent out. Return of the questionnaire was considered consent for participation. The questionnaires were coded with unique family numbers, which were kept separate from identifiable data during analysis.

Study I focused on validation of the self-concept scale. In addition to data from 404 Danish mutation carries, it also included data from 65 Swedish Lynch syndrome mutation carriers (mean age 49 years, 57% female) and secondary data from 107 Canadian mutation carriers (mean age 50 years, 55% female). The Canadian data have been used for the development of the Lynch syndrome self-
concept scale (Esplen et al. 2011), whereas the Swedish data have not previously been published.

**Study II** is a descriptive study on self-concept in Lynch syndrome and was based on data from 419 Danish mutation carriers (mean age 48 years (18-85), 52% female).

**Study III** is a descriptive and comparative cohort study based on self-reported data on self-concept and SOC from 345 Danish carriers of Lynch syndrome. These individuals represent part of the sample used in studies I-II, but for practical reasons the SOC questionnaire was only distributed in Western Denmark. SOC data in the Lynch syndrome cohort were compared to data from the general Danish population based on a publication containing five birth cohorts from 1975 (N=663), 1965 (N=663), 1940 (N=272), 1930 (N=270) and 1920 (N=438). Data on SOC in the general population were collected within the Danish longitudinal Health behaviour study in 1994 (Due and Holstein, 1998).

**Study IV**

*Study IV* represents an interview study based on individual interviews with healthy mutation carriers with long-term experience (minimum 3 years) from living with an increased risk of cancer. From the Danish HNPCC register 16 eligible mutation carriers (men and women in different age groups and with different time since genetic testing) were identified. The 16 mutation carriers were invited to participate by post or email and returned response letters for participation, whereupon 12 individuals were interviewed. The informants had a mean age of 48 years (range 31-69) and their mean time since genetic testing was 9.6 years (range 3-14).
Figure 1. Examples of pedigrees of the families of participants in study IV. The nuclear family from an extended pedigree is presented. The arrows indicate the informant, and the numbers refer to the ages at diagnosis.

The interviews were performed by HVP, were audio taped and lasted 45–75 minutes. The interviews took place at a time and location chosen by the informants. Five interviews were performed at the research centre, five in the informants’ homes and two at a local hospital close to the informants’ homes. The interviews started with an open-ended question: “Tell me about life after you were told that you were carrying a mutation?”. “Tell me more about…” is an example of follow up questions. Prior to the interviews there was some small talk to establish a relationship. Afterwards the informants were given the opportunity to reflect on the interview and ask questions.
Data analysis

Statistical analysis

Study I

Demographic differences between cohorts were evaluated using analysis of variance (ANOVA) for age. Differences in sex and previous cancer between cohorts were tested, using Pearson’s chi square test. Analysis of variance was also used to test for differences in self-concept scale scores as a function of cohort, sex and cancer history. The significance level was set to 0.05. The 20 items were compared between cohorts, applying Bonferroni correction to reduce risk of false positive findings due to multiple testing. A significance level of 0.0025 was required for this. Post hoc comparisons were performed for items with significant differences between the cohorts.

Principal component analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was used to extract clusters of highly interrelated variables and performed in both the three cohorts and the combined cohort with similar results. Components identified with eigenvalues ≥1 were reported and factor loadings ≥0.35 was used to identify correlated sets of statements in each component. After identification of the dimension of the scale, the amount of variance within the variables was calculated. After having identified the underlying dimensions of the scale, communalities representing the amount of variance each variable shares with the other variables were calculated. Assessment of internal consistency was tested using Chronbach’s α.

Studies II-III

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the characteristics of the participants as well as the scores on both the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and the SOC scale. Continuous data was presented as mean values and standard deviations and discrete data were presented as counts and percentages. Missing values and answers labelled as “non applicable” on the self-concept scale were considered missing. For both the self-concept scale and the SOC scale, responders with more than three missing values were excluded from the analysis. Three or less missing
values were imputed using the average mean of the informant. Univariate analysis included sex, formal education (dichotomized into “primary school” and “continued”), time since testing, cancer status (currently or previously affected or non-affected) and experiences from cancer in close relatives.

_in study II_, non-responder analysis was performed in order to identify whether they differed from the responders in relation to age, sex, time since test and cancer status. Univariate analysis, using Wilcoxon two-sample test, was used to analyze dichotomized variables and Kendals Tau-b correlation to analyze continuous data. The Wilcoxon’s signed rank test was used to analyze individual scores in relation to sex and education. Finally, logistic regression analysis was applied using the upper quartile as the outcome variable.

**Phenomenological analysis**

The interviews in _study IV_ were analysed using Giorgi’s phenomenological method based on four steps where each step is a prerequisite for the next (Giorgi A, 2009; Giorgi A, 2011). In the first step, the texts were read and re-read in order to grasp a sense of the whole experience while trying to assume naïve openness to the phenomena and a willingness to wonder about what is said by the participants (Giorgi A, 2009). At this step, one must try to keep an open mind: bracketing one’s pre-understanding and being conscious to pre-assumptions. Thereafter, the text was divided into different text blocks of self-containing meaning units, while keeping an open mind on the phenomenon of interest. Nvivo® 9 software was used to name the meaning units with a short codename and sort them into clusters and sub-clusters. During this step the first ideas of the structure of the phenomenon started to appear. In the following step, the meaning units were condensed; firstly through rewriting the meaning units using third-person language to describe the contents. Secondly, careful descriptions related to how these “present them selves to the consciousness of the researcher”, were made in intuitive sentences. In the final step, the transformed meaning units formed the basis for the structure, in which the most invariant constitutions and an expression of the essential constitution were formed (Giorgi A, 2009). All steps were performed in collaboration between HVP and CC and the final structure of the phenomenon was presented and discussed with all co-authors.
Table 3. Examples of condensed meaning units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning unit and the corresponding code name</th>
<th>Re-writing</th>
<th>How it present it self</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus on living</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“One should not be so focused on the risk that you forget to live. I want to live while I can.” KF</td>
<td><strong>K do not focus on the risk but live while she can.</strong></td>
<td>Living in the present and not thinking about what may happen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Living in the present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“You’ got to learn to live in the present. Not ruining your life by thinking about what might happen. You don’t know if it happens.” MF</td>
<td><strong>Learning to live in the present is important to M. She will not allow her life to be ruined by thinking about what may happen.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ethical considerations

The studies in this thesis were carried out in accordance with the ethical principles in the Helsinki declaration. According to the Danish Act on Research Ethics Review of Health Research Projects, ethical approval for the four studies was not needed in Denmark. For study I ethical approval in Sweden was obtained from the Lund University Ethical committee and in Canada from the Toronto Mount Sinai Hospital Research Ethics Board and the Memorial University Ethics Review Board.

Precautions were taken to secure confidentiality and voluntarieness. The letters of invitation stated that non-participation would not influence usual care and participants were informed about voluntariness as well as possibility to withdraw from the study. For studies I-III consent was obtained when the questionnaires were returned. In study IV, the informants either returned a signed consent form or contacted HVP directly by post or phone for inclusion.

Prior to the studies, ethical considerations were made regarding potential harm from participation. Receiving a letter from the HNPCC-register and filling out the self-concept questionnaire with statements related to negative thoughts and emotions could evoke worry and anxiety. Considerations in relation to not disturbing people made us refrain from sending out multiple questionnaires in May 2008. The high response rate (80%) suggested an interest in participation, which encouraged us to include the SOC questionnaire in January 2009. Ethical considerations were similarly made in relation to study IV. The informants had been invited because of their mutation status, which potentially could create feelings of pressure, or obligation to participate for the sake of other mutation carriers or obligation to make a contribution to science. On the other hand, the interviews could be perceived as an opportunity for the mutation carriers to talk about their situation and to provide health professionals with information they considered important. The in-depth interviews aimed to encourage reflection on issues related to heredity, which might evoke negative as well as positive emotions.
Findings

Validity of the self-concept scale

As a first assessment of the external validity of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale, pooled data from Denmark, Sweden and Canada were used to perform a PCA. This analysis identified similar sets of linked statements as those reported in the original scale development (Esplen et al. 2009b). Initially, the PCA identified three components; the first including 12 statements related to feeling labeled, isolated, different and cursed due to the test result as well as statement 8 (I feel guilt that I might pass on cancer risk to my children), which was considered part of the anxiety subscale in the initial scale development. The second component identified 5 statements, 4 of which related to worries about bowel changes and one, statement 11 (I think about my test result a lot), originally considered belonging to the stigma and vulnerability subscale. The third component represented the two positive and future oriented statements. Communalities that express the degree of uniqueness/overlap were calculated (table 3, study I). As an example, statement 20 (I feel embarrassed when I go for my bowel screening) showed low variance (0.15) suggestive of uniqueness. In contrast, high variance for statement 15 (0.74) suggests that other statements also capture its impact.

The total mean score was 54.4 without significant differences between the three cohorts for the total score and the subscale scores (table 2, study I). When differences in individual statements were analysed, significant differences were related to four statements (figure 2). Differences remained significant for statements 8 (I feel guilty that I might have passed on cancer risk to my children), 10 (I feel I have lost my sense of privacy) and 13 (I am worried that cancer will be found when I go for screening) after Bonferroni correction. For items related to guilt, no differences were found between the Danish and the Swedish cohorts, whereas significantly higher scores were reported in the Canadian cohort (p<0.001). When these data were stratified for sex and previous cancer, women across the cohorts reported higher scores than men (p<0.01). Individuals with cancer reported higher scores (0.001), with the highest impact reported in the Canadian cohort (interaction, p<0.001). Danish carriers reported significantly lower scores than the Canadians related to feelings of loosing one’s privacy.
(p<0.0001). No interaction was found for sex and previous cancer history for statements 10 and 13.

Figure 2. Scores for statements where significant differences were found between the cohorts. Random noise has been added to each score to visualize the number of identical scores. Filled diamonds and squares represent the mean and median scores respectively.

Self-concept in the Danish Lynch syndrome cohort

Study II evaluated the impact on self-concept in the entire Danish Lynch syndrome cohort. A total of 568 carriers were included in the combined cohort. A wide range of scores (range 20-132) were obtained with the majority unimodal skewed in a positive direction (figure 3). Results from the combined cohorts (study III) were similar to results from study II where a mean sum score of 54.8 was found. In the combined cohort the mean sum score was 55.2 (SD 22.6), which when divided with the number of statements corresponded to a mean score of 2.8 (SD 1.13). For
the stigma and vulnerability subscale and the bowel symptom-related subscales the mean scores were 35.4 (SD 17.1) and 19.9 (SD 7.6) respectively.

In the multivariate regression analysis predictors for highest impact on self-concept were identified. Female sex and lower education correlated with an increased OR for scores in the upper quartiles. Women reported more impact on self-concept both on the total scale (OR 1.84 (CI 1.14 –2.99)) and for the individual subscales (OR 1.7 and 1.8 respectively). Individuals with lower education reported higher impact on the stigma and vulnerability subscale (OR 1.8 (CI 1.06-3.03)).

In table 4 the distribution of self-concept scores for each statement in the Danish Lynch syndrome cohort and combined data from studies I-III are presented.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Non applicable</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am hopeful about myself in the future</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am able to deal with my test result</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am worried about bowel symptoms (like bleeding) when going to the bathroom</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel my body has betrayed me</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel like a walking time bomb</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel different from others my age</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel cursed because of my test result</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel guilty that I might pass on a cancer risk to my children</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel isolated because of my test result</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I have lost my sense of privacy</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think about my test result a lot</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m afraid of having bowel pain</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am worried that cancer will be found when I go for screening</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel labelled</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I worry about chances in my bowels</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel burdened with this information</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I distrust my body</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My test result get in the way of who I really am</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have become more secretive</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel embarrassed when I go for my bowel screening</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statements for bowel-symptom related anxiety are in green.
SOC and self-concept

In *study III*, we assessed SOC in Lynch syndrome mutation carriers and correlated the data to self-concept and to SOC in a general Danish population. The mean self-concept score was 55 (SD 22.5) ranging from 20-132. In the Lynch syndrome
subset the mean SOC was 70, which was significantly higher than scores reported in the general population (mean 65, p<0.0001). We used the cut-off values defined in the general population and found that 16% of the mutation carriers reported low scores, 21% under average, 22% over average and 40% high scores. No differences in SOC were found in relation to sex (p = 0.41). Carriers affected with cancer had somewhat higher scores than non-affected (mean 71 versus 68) (p=0.047), but the findings were not significant after adjusting for sex and cancer in multivariate analysis. The distribution of SOC scores was similar to that of the general population except for the older age groups, in which carriers reported significantly higher scores. SOC increases with age in both cohorts, but the increase was more pronounced in the Lynch syndrome cohort.

Correlation between SOC and specific statements on the self-concept scale revealed that all but one statement showed significantly higher impact on self-concept with decreasing SOC scores (data not shown). Some statements presented a larger span in SOC scores than others, e.g. in those who strongly agreed in “feeling like a walking time bomb” we found a mean of 52 on the SOC scale compared to those who strongly disagreed scoring 74. Statement three related to worries for bowel symptoms on a daily basis did not show significantly differences, indicating that this statement is not related to SOC. Assessment of the correlation between self-concept and SOC adds to a further evaluation of the criterion validity of the self-concept scale. A favourable agreement between SOC and self-concept was found (Pearson correlation coefficient – 0.51) (p<0.0001). When correlating SOC scores to the self-concept subscales the correlation became weaker for gastrointestinal anxiety whereas it remained the same for the stigma and vulnerability subscale. Scatter plots demonstrating the for weak/strong SOC and high and low impact on self-concept have been applied, correlation between SOC and self-concept are shown below (figure 4). Cut off values resulting in 4 groups with different combinations of SOC and self-concept scores: A: weak SOC/high impact in self-concept, B: strong SOC/high impact on self-concept, C: weak SOC and low impact on self-concept and D: Strong SOC and low impact on self-concept.
Lived experiences

In study IV, the lived experiences from being at risk were explored. Four major themes or constitutions were identified: Relational context, interpretation and transformation, approach to risk and balancing life at risk. A key feature related to life with Lynch syndrome is the relational context in which life is led and understood. Family history, communication within the family, support from family members and caring for other members of the family are other factors that influence how risk is perceived and handled.

Interpretation of knowledge and personal as well as familial experiences, influences risk perception. Different reactions, from shock and panic to relief and confirmation, are described after learning about hereditary cancer. Heredity provides an explanation of many cancer deaths in the family and while it initially may be perceived as a death sentence, most informants consider it an opportunity to change the family history. Lack of knowledge contributed to feelings of loosing control. Factual knowledge provided an overview of the situation in some
mutation carriers, whereas it in others created anxiety and feelings of being different. The notion that cancer was preventable, meant that in most individuals, fear of cancer was not dominating daily life. However, experiences from previous colonoscopies created different levels of anxiety. Though some individuals struggled to accept the situation, most informants considered themselves healthy with normal lives.

Approaches and strategies to handle life at risk differ. Choosing the right time for disclosure of risk to children was important to many informants. In some families communication was open, knowledge was shared among family members and children were informed about heredity from an early age. In other families children were protected from the information, which was considered potentially harmful for them, sometimes to an extent that negatively influenced family communication and interaction. The impact from heredity on family planning varied. For some individuals this knowledge did not influence decisions related to family planning, whereas others considered pre-implantatory or prenatal diagnostics. Several informants referred to consciously choosing a positive approach to life, e.g. by positive thinking. Even if cancer was considered unavoidable, they were reassured that it would be discovered at an early stage. The informants referred to two major issues related to cancer prevention, i.e. following the surveillance program and considering lifestyle changes. Though some informants had considered not attending the colonoscopies because of discomfort and pain, all eventually chose to participate. Personal experiences had formed the informants approach to the colonoscopies and it was important for them to be able to manage the situation. Informants expressed doubts that lifestyle would influence their cancer risk but some still chose to lead a healthy lifestyle including diet and physical activity. Such decisions also influenced children who were taught to maintain a healthy diet and to be physically active.

The interaction between interpretation and approach to risk constitutes a balance (or un-balance) in the informants’ lives. Life at increased risk is associated with ambivalent feelings and emotions. A conscious choice of positive thinking, being able to do something and feelings of control and security helps in balancing the negative emotions like fear, anxiety and worries related to risk. Living with risk is a learning process in which experiences and approach to risk helps the informants to balance life. In this perspective, the mutation carriers compare their situation to earlier generations who did not have any opportunity for preventive measures.
### Table 5. Examples of meaning units for each constitution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>Meaning unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relational context</td>
<td>“We (EM and her mother) have a special bond....[...]. It probably has to do with all of us (the family) having experienced loosing someone” EM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Suddenly my mother and my cousin started getting ill. And you just think: When will it be me?” AF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach to risk</td>
<td>“Not even my mother knows that of her three children it is me carrying the gene. She loves talking about that disease and I just don’t want to talk about it. SF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I am convinced that children are exposed to so many big things when they are growing up [...] It would be too much (to tell them about risk).” CF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation and transformation</td>
<td>“Through your knowledge you are able to process, you can give yourself an overview. With the overview comes the energy to handle it (the risk) emotionally. PM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I feel extremely lucky compared to others from my family.... MM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balancing life at risk</td>
<td>“...trying to make it a natural part of your life [...] I decided from the beginning that this is just a part of who I am.” CF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Well, it is a load of shit (the mutation), to tell you the truth. That is the way it is, but, well... there is nothing we can do about it, so we must take it from there.” PM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mutation carriers’ perspectives

Studies II and IV describe mutation carriers’ perspectives of living with Lynch syndrome. In total, 79% of the mutation carriers reported feeling hopeful about the future and 78% reported being able to deal with their test result. The overall scores related to the future are reflected in findings from study IV, where the informants described how initial shock and disbelief after learning about a mutation was gradually replaced by more optimistic feelings and thoughts linked to prevention. Thoughts about cancer in previous generations evoked feelings of security and optimism. Only a few individuals strongly disagreed to an optimistic perspective on the future. As an example, a female informant was struggling a lot with knowledge about the increased risk of cancer and expressed fear of cancer. She did not have an optimistic perspective with a score of 5 on the statement related to the future and in general reported a high impact on self-concept with an overall sum score of 111. In the interview she said: “because... you don’t know how long you’ll be here”.

The model in study IV describes the structure of the lived experiences of Lynch syndrome mutation carriers and illustrates how information and experiences create thoughts and feelings related to risk in a relational context. In study IV, we found that some carriers experienced worries and anxiety to a degree, where they felt it influenced their lives negatively. Others, although being attentive to symptoms, did not worry on a daily basis. Anxiety and worries related to symptoms were strongly influenced by previous experiences of cancer. Though the informants had not been diagnosed with cancer, some had had adenomas removed during colonoscopies, which contributed to the perception risk, but also to feelings of security and control. One participant from study II wrote in a note on the questionnaire that her worries related to symptoms were not caused by the test result, but by the fact that she had previously been diagnosed with cancer. In total, 235 individuals had been diagnosed with cancer and of those 26% agreed or strongly agreed in worrying about bowel symptoms compared to 24% among non-affected carriers. Attending colonoscopies meant confronting the risk and sometimes also anxiety and worry. In other carriers, thoughts about risk did not create any negative feelings; however the colonoscopy procedure itself could create feelings of anxiety and worries. The large variety to which knowledge about Lynch syndrome create feelings of anxiety and worry are reflected in a less skewed distribution of answers related to worries. Among the informants 43% of the carriers disagree to the statement that they think about the test result a lot, while 20% agreed. Worries about bowel changes were reported by 34%, whereas 27% reported not being worried.
Guilt towards children was reported to some degree by 38% of the carriers, including 67% of the women and 33% of the men. Feelings of guilt were not specifically articulated by the informants (study IV) but the scores related to guilt may reflect concern for children, particularly in relation to different aspects of heredity. Different approaches to children’s risk, e.g. disclosure of risk and striving to influence children’s lifestyle, as well as thoughts and feelings related to passing on a disease predisposing mutation to children may be expressed in the statement related to guilt.

Only 10% of the carriers stated that their test result “gets in the way of whom they are”. In study IV we found that mutation carriers strive to balance life at risk. Some of the aspects related to this balance were acceptance of the situation and integration of risk knowledge into their perception of themselves. This can be exemplified by the quote “it is just a part of who I am” (table 5).
Discussion and perspectives

The discussion has been divided into two major sections related to self-concept/SOC and lived experiences in Lynch syndrome. Here, methodological considerations and major findings are discussed, followed by strengths and weaknesses.

Methodological considerations related to studies I-III

Our studies are the first to apply the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale in a setting outside of North America. We have thereby generated data on scale validity and reliability. The internal validity is supported by the high response rates (78–80%) without differences in key factors such as sex, age, previous cancer and time since genetic testing in responders and non-responders. The Swedish and Canadian cohorts are restricted in size and the latter cohort had also been used for the construction of the scale. The participants included in studies I-III represent selected groups in regard to external validity since all participants had a verified disease-predisposing mutation. Data on the number of individuals at risk of Lynch syndrome who fail to undergo genetic testing in Denmark are lacking. However, clinical experience suggests a high up-take rate, which is supported by data from Finland where 75% of the individuals at risk undergo genetic testing (Aktan-Collan et al. 2000). Whether the findings from this study apply to other groups at risk needs further investigation. Studies I-III include a relatively large number of individuals. The two scales used for study III have been validated and tested in both Danish and Swedish populations, which are similar in relation to culture and health care system. The comparison to a general population is valuable, though the cohorts are not matched as regards age cohorts. Moreover, the population data were generated 18 years ago. Another limitation of the study is the use of cut-off points. Division into high or low impact on both the self-concept scale and the SOC scale has been made using lower and upper quartiles respectively. The cut-off points are arbitrary and optimal cut-offs need further investigation.
The concept of self in Lynch syndrome

A test is valid only if it measures an attribute that actually exists and if the attribute affects the outcome of the measure (Borsboom et al. 2004). Self-concept scales for different types of hereditary cancer have been developed since global measures may not reflect issues specifically related to hereditary cancer (Esplen et al. 2009a; 2009b; 2011). Whether a distinct self-concept domain related to Lynch syndrome indeed exists and whether knowledge about high risk has an impact on the specific self can be questioned. The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale is based on a scale developed for hereditary breast cancer (BRCA) (Esplen et al. 2009b). However, aspects related to self-concept, e.g. sexuality, body image and femininity, may differ between hereditary breast cancer and colorectal cancer (Curbow et al. 1990). Women with breast cancer have described altered self-perceptions (Esplen et al. 2004). In patients with colorectal cancer, impaired body image has been reported among patients with stomas (Gosselink et al. 2006; Mrak et al. 2011). Anxiety and depression have been found to increase one to 5 years after genetic testing for breast and ovarian cancer, but the impact may be confounded by the impact from prophylactic surgery (van Oostrom et al. 2003). In hereditary colorectal cancer the results are more clear-cut in that carriers experience no long-term increase in distress, which may relate to the proven effect from colorectal cancer surveillance (Meiser, 2005). Whether this is relevant and to what extent Lynch syndrome mutation carriers’ interpretations and experiences can be inferred from hereditary breast and ovarian cancer needs further support. The self-concept scale showed a positive skew towards the favourable end, with the majority of the participants’ responses clustered around the positive answers. This produced a floor effect, which means that the scale may be limited in capturing improvements and to distinguish between various grades of low impact.

Information about a disease-predisposition may impact one’s self (Stein, 1995). A genetic self has been described in relation to genetic counselling and hereditary cancer (Read et al. 2005). In study II, 7% of the participants reported feeling betrayed by their body and 9% stated that they distrusted their body. This suggests that body image may be of relevance in Lynch syndrome. Findings from study IV show that thoughts and feelings related to risk were internalized in the carriers as an “actual self” (Markus H and Wurf E, 1987), e.g. “I am healthy”, “I am lucky” and “this is just a part of who I am”, that might also be expressed in the second statement (I am able to deal with the test result). The “future self” (Markus and Wurf, 1987) integrates former experiences from other difficult situations. In study IV, one carrier described the test result as a death sentence, implying a “future self” of being dead. Another informant had experienced a brother having a colostomy and consequently imagined himself as a stoma patient. Several informants described that they tried to prepare themselves for becoming cancer
patients. Still, it can be discussed whether statements related to worries about
cancer can be interpreted as an expression of a future self in a hereditary context.

**Impact on self-concept**

The studies included in this thesis comprised a large number of participants with
long experience from living with Lynch syndrome. This provides a broad picture
of how carriers of Lynch syndrome perceive themselves. These results are
supported by the findings from study IV, where the complexity in life at risk is
described. Though we did not link our data to any evaluation of depression or
general anxiety, the high frequency of positive answers in the self-concept scale
suggests that most mutation carriers adapt well to the situation. This is also
supported by findings from other investigations (table 1), (Bleiker et al. 2007;

Subgroups who report a higher impact on their self-concept were identified.
Adverse scores on the stigma and vulnerability subscale were overrepresented
among individuals with lower education. This is supported by evidence that
women report higher levels of distress and anxiety disorders than men and
individuals with low education and income have the highest levels of
psychological distress and mental disorders (Thoits, 2010). Female mutation
carriers also report a larger impact on their self-concept. This may relate to
responsibilities for spread of information and coordinating surveillance in the
family (Bartuma et al. 2012). Differences in how men and women perceive their
roles in the family and their responsibility for other family members could also
influence how they regard their situation (d'Agincourt-Canning and Baird, 2006).
Another aspect may be that women are also at risk of gynaecological cancers and
undergo surveillance and/or prophylactic procedures (Hadley et al. 2008). A recent
study showed that in younger individuals reporting high levels of anxiety prior to
genetic testing, men were less likely to experience decreased anxiety levels shortly
after genetic testing than women (Hasenbring et al. 2011). However, the study was
based on a small sample size and the importance of gender in Lynch syndrome
needs further investigation.
The concepts of SOC and self-concept are theoretically related in that SOC expresses a person’s perceived ability to handle difficult situations, whereas self-concept reflects the impact specific situations or circumstances may have on a person’s self. Assessment of the correlation between these two scales adds information related to the self-concept scale’s convergent validity. The concept of SOC is considered a health resource that influences quality of life. However, SOC may also be mediated by good perceived health (Eriksson and Lindstrom, 2007). The correlation between SOC and self-concept was expected, but also raises questions about face validity and internal consistency, i.e. whether self-concept indeed captures issues specifically related to Lynch syndrome (Esplen et al. 2011). SOC has been found to predict anxiety and depression in hereditary cancer, but may not constitute an as a strong predictor for anxiety (Eriksson and Lindstrom, 2006; Lindstrom and Eriksson, 2005; Siglen et al. 2007). When SOC was correlated to the self-concept subscales, the correlation between SOC and self-concept weakened for the anxiety subscale. This result supports the content validity in that the scale captures anxiety related to Lynch syndrome that SOC couldn’t predict. Whether the statements related to bowel symptom-related anxiety are of relevance to self-concept needs further exploration.

In study III, 76% of the SOC and self-concept scores were in accordance. The majority of the mutation carriers (66%) reported strong SOC and low impact on self-concept, which supports the notion that the majority of individuals at increased risk are able to handle the situation well. Weak SOC and high impact on self-concept were reported by 10%. In women with verified or suspected breast cancer, SOC is a main predictor of distress levels and women diagnosed with breast cancer reporting strong SOC experienced fewer stressful events and reported better health status (Gilbar, 2003; Kenne et al. 2011). In colorectal cancer, SOC has been shown to correlate to psychological distress and represents an independent predictor of health-related quality of life (Hyphantis et al. 2011). However, previous history of depression has also been shown as to be a strong predictor of depression in cancer patients (Nordin et al. 2001). The subgroup reporting weak SOC and high impact on self-concept may include individuals who, in general, are vulnerable and in need of specialized support to be able to handle the different aspect of hereditary cancer.

The 14% that reported weak SOC and low impact on self-concept may represent individuals who, despite reporting having difficulties in handling difficult situations in general, do not experience a large impact on self-concept from the knowledge about hereditary cancer. This subgroup may include mutation carriers who have chosen a blunting coping style, where they avoided or distracted...
themselves from information deemed as threatening (Hickman, Jr. et al. 2010; Miller, 1987). In line with that, weak SOC has been found to predict anxiety and depression in hereditary cancer with the strongest correlation for depression (Siglen et al. 2007). Although a blunting coping style may be important to some mutation carriers’ psychological wellbeing, it is necessary to evaluate the impact this may have on adherence to surveillance.

High SOC and high impact on self-concept were reported by 9% of the individuals. These individuals represent a subgroup that despite reporting feeling able to deal with difficult situations in general, experience high impact on their self-concept. The relatively weak correlation between SOC and the subscale for bowel related anxiety suggests that the impact is primarily related to anxiety. SOC has not been found to be a strong predictor of anxiety in carriers of Lynch syndrome, which adds to the impression that anxiety is a complex structure in hereditary cancer (Siglen et al. 2007; Sivell et al. 2008). A high monitoring coping style means to process the situation emotionally, actively engage with information, active problem solving and taking precaution. These are issues that relates to a strong SOC. Monitoring coping style influences distress in mutation carriers with high monitors being generally more distressed than low monitors 6-12 month after testing (Shiloh et al. 2008). It can be discussed whether anxiety reported by individuals with a strong SOC is an expression of awareness and high levels of information, rather than a condition that requires intervention (Peters et al. 2006).

When assessing the psychological impact from a specific situation, comparison to general population is relevant. Lynch syndrome mutation carriers reported SOC scores similar to a general population, which suggests that despite a high risk of cancer, most individuals find themselves capable of handling difficult situations to the same extent as a reference group. In breast and ovarian cancer, no differences in depression were found between women attending genetic counselling and a reference group (Mikkelsen et al. 2009).

**Methodological considerations related to study IV**

Phenomenological philosophy provides an essential element for lifeworld research. The phenomenological idea of going “to the things themselves” means to do justice to the everyday experience and approach the world as it is experienced, in all its variety (Dahlberg K et al. 2010).

By perceiving the lived experiences as one, we revealed an essence of these (illustrated in the model presented in study IV). The essence was found across informants (representing both sexes, different ages and variable times since genetic testing), which increases the applicability of the data transferability of the
findings. However, the informants represent a select group of healthy mutation carriers, which implies that the findings may not e.g. apply for individuals who declined participation in genetic counselling and testing. To increase the credibility, we used an interview technique with open-ended questions. Efforts were made to make the informants feel confident and to encourage talking about what they found important. Application of the phenomenological research method requires that the researcher puts his/her knowledge about the phenomenon aside (Giorgi A, 2011; Giorgi, 2005). The interviews were performed over a span of two years, during which the investigator’s knowledge increased, which may have influenced the interviews. The investigator and co-analyzer were, however, aware of this and used self-reflection during the data analysis process and interpretation (Dahlberg K et al. 2010).

Lived experiences

Study IV revealed 4 constitutions related to mutation carriers’ lived experiences; Interpretation and transformation, Approach to risk, Balancing life and Relational context, all of which may influence each other. By interrelation of the constitutions, the essence of the phenomenon “living with Lynch syndrome” became: Balancing life at risk in a relational context through interpretation and transformation of experiences and knowledge, and approach to risk.

It is the perception of an event rather than the event itself that determines the emotional, cognitive and behavioural consequences (Rao, 2009). Our findings illustrate how experiences and knowledge related to risk were interpreted and transformed into thoughts and feelings, which influenced the way the healthy mutation carriers approached their increased risk. The informants interpreted knowledge and experiences related to heredity and risk differently, which was reflected in the variety in descriptions of reactions to learning about cancer, but also in assimilation and acceptance. Perception of risk was influenced by both familial beliefs about risk, personal experiences and communication within the family, which is in line with findings from other studies (Codori et al. 2005; Palmquist et al. 2010). In the majority of mutation carriers of Lynch syndrome, increased levels of anxiety related to a positive test result return to normal levels after six to 12 months (Aktan-Collan et al. 2001; Bjorvatn et al. 2008; Broadstock et al. 2000; Meiser, 2005). Initial shock and disbelief was gradually replaced by more positive emotions, and anxiety seems to be variable and very much influenced by the specific time and specially situation. This is supported by results from study II where 69% of the participants reported worrying about cancer when they went for screening but much less (36%) were thinking a lot about their test result.
Our findings indicate that mutation carriers do indeed use an active coping style in an attempt to gain a sense of control over their situation and reduce their emotional distress (Buckmaster and Gallagher, 2010). Mutation carriers, not having a colonoscopy 6 months following genetic testing, are 6 times more likely to report depressive symptoms (Hadley et al. 2011). Adherence to surveillance is an active and conscious coping style and it is important to note that informants with a long-term experience described the surveillance programs as the main reason for feeling secure and in control.

Balancing life at risk implies balancing perceptions of being healthy even though in need of health care. Informants described how they aimed for influence and control over their situation and thereby led normal lives. The notion of a shared family history, but different destinies and possibilities contributed to balance in individuals at high risk. The wish to continue with life as normal is common (Steinvall et al. 2011) and reflected in expressions such as “learning to live with” and “coming to terms with” (McAllister, 2003). Interventions and support may therefore consider support related to personal balance, e.g. between anxiety and worries versus security and control, and in the context of relations.

Relational contexts were identified as a key feature related to how risk was perceived and handled (McAllister, 2003; Palmquist et al. 2010; Underhill et al. 2012). Experience from cancer in family members and the notion of not being the only one affected provides a reference frame within which life at increased risk is understood and lived. Heredity is not only understood in a tangible manner, but also in relation to family structure, which creates a sense of responsibility and care for others (Bartuma et al. 2012; Palmquist et al. 2010). Support from family members was described to be the main support mechanism though it is likely to be sensitive to communication. Whereas open communication can create feelings of support and balance, restricted communication may infer uncertainty and anxiety (Barthuma K et al. 2011; Bleiker et al. 2007; McCann et al. 2009).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Table 6. Strengths and weaknesses of the studies</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Strengths** | **Studies I-III**  
The self-concept scale was validated in Lynch syndrome populations from different countries and showed stable performance.  
PCA verified the basic scale structure and also recognized the two subscales.  
Self-concept was assessed in a large Danish cohort with minor selection bias.  
Possibilities to compare self-concept with SOC.  
Comparison between SOC in the Lynch syndrome cohort and in the general population.  
**Study IV**  
Included mutation carriers with long-term experiences ranging from 3-14 years.  
Men and women of different ages were included.  
Open ended interview technique and co-analysers were used.  
Focus were on the mutation carrier’ own perspectives. |
| **Weaknesses** | **Studies I-III**  
Limited-size cohorts from Sweden and Canada used for scale validation.  
Generalizability in non-western populations has not been demonstrated.  
About 20% non-responders.  
Different age cohorts used for comparison between SOC in Lynch syndrome and in the general population.  
Uncertain relevant cut-off levels; quartile values used.  
The degree to which self-concept is relevant in Lynch syndrome and to which it corresponds to a need for additional psychosocial support is unknown.  
**Study IV**  
The findings are limited to the perspectives of healthy mutation carriers.  
The interviewers own pre-assumptions may have influenced the interviews and the analysis process. |
Conclusions and future perspectives

Our results validate the self-concept scale, which is found to be psychometrically sound as regards aspects related to external and internal validity and reliability. Its use is supported in Western Lynch syndrome populations, though its performance in other population needs to be confirmed. The scale seems to measure aspects relevant for mutation carriers, including issues related to the genetic self. The relevance of statements related to gastrointestinal-related anxiety can be questioned. Though our overall results support its application, its impact, as compared to other psychological measures, is not fully known. Correlation to additional measures may therefore be relevant. Overall, it can also be questioned, whether self-concept as a phenomenon is equally important in Lynch syndrome as in other hereditary diseases, particularly against the background of a successful surveillance program with a significantly reduced risk of cancer.

The self-concept scale may also be applied to identify specific issues of relevance for individuals with Lynch syndrome. In such applications it is central to keep in mind that the “self” represents one issue among others related to living with risk. For the individual, other areas may be of greater importance in order to create a balance in life. The development of genetic counselling and the inclusion of high-risk individuals into surveillance programs will likely change the family patterns and diminish experiences from cancer in Lynch syndrome families.

Self-concept correlated to SOC scores in the majority of the individuals, but the identification of subsets with divergent results is interesting. We suggest that these subgroups may reflect individuals who find different aspects of heredity difficult, which may suggest need for different types of support. The possibility to apply self-concept and SOC in order to identify subgroups with different needs should be further explored. Such data could be generated through correlations between self-concept data and registry data on, e.g. health care consumption, and through further prospective evaluation of self-concept and other measures in conjunction with genetic counselling and testing.
Though it has been argued that the focus in genetic counselling should be on health (Siglen et al. 2007), a large proportion of mutation carriers of Lynch syndrome are cancer survivors. We did not detect differences related to previous cancer, but our studies have not considered survivorship perspectives (Chubak et al. 2012). Aspects relevant in cancer survivorship may also be of importance for healthy individuals at increased risk. Cancer rehabilitation represents another area where current knowledge suggests that support should be initiated early in the course of the disease (Anonymous, 2010; Chubak et al. 2012). In hereditary cancer this could potentially imply after learning about a predisposition, but before a diagnosis of cancer. In most individuals, simple rehabilitation methods are sufficient, whereas a smaller number of individuals need highly qualified support. Whether the principles and need for cancer rehabilitation also applies to hereditary cancer and to individuals at increased risk remains to be demonstrated, but would be of interest to define (Mitchell et al. 2012).

Our results demonstrate that most mutation carriers do well and indicate that a monitoring coping style with adherence to surveillance and focus on lifestyle is commonly used. The model presented in study IV suggests dynamics between the different constitutions. Several issues related to these constitutions are already used as outcome variables to assess the psychological impact from genetic testing and life at risk, e.g. risk perception, anxiety, coping strategies, social support and family history. Thus, this model may be useful to increase the understanding of different areas and issues important to mutation carriers of Lynch syndrome. The model also suggests that changes in one area may influence the others and this focus may guide the development of targeted interventions. Whereas some mutation carriers may need additional information to decrease anxiety and handle specific situations, others may rather need specific psychological intervention to handle intrusive and irrational thoughts. Studies that contribute to the identification of such subgroups would be valuable for individualized management of Lynch syndrome from a psychological point of view.
Lynch syndrom är den vanligaste typen av ärftlig cancer i tjock- och ändtarm och beräknas utgöra 2-4% av all tarmcancer. Syndromet medför förutom den ökade risken för tarmcancer (på 60-80% livstidsrisk) också ökade risker för livmodercancer (endometriecancer, ca 40-60% risk) och äggstockscancer (ovarialcancer, ca 10-15% risk). I mitten av 1990-talet upptäcktes de genetiska förändringar som ligger bakom Lynch syndrom, vilket möjliggjorde genetisk diagnostik i familjer med misstänkt ärftlig tarmcancer. Ett ökande antal individer lever därmed med kunskap om en ökad cancerrisk.

Flera undersökningar har visat att individer med Lynch syndrom upplever ökad ångest, oro och har en ökad risk för depression efter att ha genomgått genetisk diagnostik och befunnits bärja sjukdomsorsakande mutationer. Hos de flesta individer sjunker oron och mätningar ger normala resultat efter 6-12 månader. Hos en mindre grupp kvarstår oro och ångest, vilket kan antyda att dessa individer är behov av psykosocialt stöd. De flesta studier inom området har använt sig av generella mått på t.ex. ångest och oro. Det finns anledning att ifrågasätta om dessa i tillräcklig omfattning fångar de särskilda problem och den oro som orsakas av ärftlig cancer.


I studie II undersökt självuppfattning med användande av skalan ovan bland alla danska mutationsbärande med Lynch syndrom. Det danska HNPCC registret användes för att identifiera 550 mutationsbärande som per brev inbjöds att delta och med svar från 80% av de tillfrågade. Av dessa uttryckte 80% hoppfullhet över framtiden och uppfattade att de var i stånd att hantera sitt testresultat. Endast en mindre grupp rapporterade höga poäng, vilket indikerar en större påverkan på självuppfattningen.
Känsla av sammanhang (SOC) anger hur stressande en person uppfattar en viss situation. I studie III mättes SOC hos 345 individer med Lynch syndrom och korrelerades till känsla av sammanhang. SOC skiljde sig inte mellan individer med ärfilig cancer och danskar i allmänhet. SOC och korrelerade väl med känsla av sammanhang. 10% av individerna rapporterade att de var påverkade av kunskapen med utfall på båda skalorna, vilket antyder att dessa individer behöver stöd i kunskapen om ärfilig cancer. Två grupper med skilda resultat mellan skalorna påvisades En grupp visade hög påverkan på självuppfattningen trots normal SOC, vilket sannolikt betyder att dessa individer, även om de normalt hanterar svåra situationer väl, tycker att kunskapen om ärfilig cancer är särskilt svår att hantera. En annan grupp hade låg SOC men mindre påverkad självuppfattning. Dessa individer tycks alltså, trots att de generellt har svårare att klara påfrestande situationer, hantera kunskapen om ärfilig cancer väl.

Acknowledgements

The work of this thesis was conducted in collaboration between the Department of Oncology, Lund University and the HNPCC register and the Clinical Research Center, Hvidovre University Hospital. Financial support was granted from the Danish Cancer Society and Hvidovre University Hospital. Many people have contributed and generously shared their experiences and knowledge. Firstly, sincere thanks to all the people who took their time to complete the questionnaires and tell me what life at high risk of hereditary cancer implies.

I would especially like also to thank:

My supervisors, Mef Nilbert and Christina Carlsson for introducing me to this field of research, and for challenging me and patiently teaching me the ways of academic science and writing. Mef, you have been an excellent mentor and taught me never to compromise. There is always room for improvement! Christina, thank you for teaching me the skills of qualitative research and for being such a great companion on our trips around the world.

All the colleagues at the Clinical Research Center for help and support. Especially Steen Ladelund, head of the statistical section for helping me with the analysis in studies II and III and for many great discussions, and Yoshio Suzuki for help with the datamanagement. Christina and Anja for help and support and teaching me about all “the little things”. Thank you Ove Andersen, Head of Clinical Research Center and Linda Andresen for believing in me and for giving me the opportunity to pursue a new career.

My co-workers at the department of oncology in Lund for a fruitful collaboration, in particular Katarina and Pia from the FOPP seminar group. Thank you, for making me feel welcome, for trying to understand my “Swedish” and for including me in the Swedish group on our many trips. A special thanks to Pär-Ola Bendahl for help with the statistics in study I.

My co-workers and colleagues at the HNPCC register and Department of gastroenterology, in particular Head of the HNPCC register, Inge Bernstein, Elza Ahmedovska and Jeanet Kruse Rasmussen for all your help with the data collection. Zoreh and Line for inspiring discussions and great company.
Lone Sunde, Aarhus for help with data collection.

Mary Jane Esplen, and Jiahui Wong, de Souza Institute, Toronto, Canada for inspiring discussions and good collaboration.

My ph.d. network, Nete Hornnes for introducing me to research, and “Spiregruppen” in particular the “adults” Tove Lindhardt, Hanne Kjærgaard, Bente Appel Esbensen and Ingrid Poulsen for being a great source of support and inspiration.

All my fellow students from VIA University College in Aarhus.

Anne-Marie Gerdes for introducing me to genetic counselling.

My family, especially Jan, Katrine and Andreas for all your love and support and for reminding me of what is important in life. Also thanks to Emma for help with the languish revision.

All my friends, Gitte for keeping my social life going and my MPH group for being a pillar of support.
References


Lynch syndrome is a hereditary cancer syndrome linked to increased risks for several cancer types, among which colorectal cancer predominates. Several of the members of this Lynch syndrome family have, since the picture was taken in 1953, died from cancer. Identification of disease-predisposing genes allows for genetic diagnostics. Today, family members undergo individualized surveillance that effectively reduces the risk of death from cancer. This thesis explores how individuals with Lynch syndrome experience life at increased risk. Does this knowledge affect their self-concept, their sense of coherence and how do they perceive life and describe their perspectives?
Spørgeskema
Risiko for arvelig kræft - selvopfattelse og viden

Spørgeskemaet består af 3 dele:

DEL1: Grundlæggende oplysninger om køn, alder, uddannelse og sygdomserfaring.

DEL 2: Selvopfattelse Her bedes du angive, hvor enig du er i 20 udsagn.

DEL 3: Viden Her bedes du at svare "sandt" eller "falsk" på 11 udsagn.

Det besvarede spørgeskema bedes returneret i den vedlagte frankerede svarkuvert inden 2 uger.

Med venlig hilsen
Overlæge Inge Bernstein og forskningssygeplejerske Helle Vendel Petersen

HNPCC registret
Klinisk Forskningscenter
Hvidovre Hospital
Kettegård Allé 30
2650 Hvidovre

Dato: ___-___-_____
## DEL 1: Grundlæggende oplysninger

1. **Køn**  
   - □ Mand  
   - □ Kvinde

2. **Alder**  
   - __________ år

3. **Min højeste uddannelse er:**  
   - □ Folkeskole  
   - □ Gymnasium  
   - □ Universitetet  
   - □ Andet

4. **Jeg har eller har haft kræft**  
   - □ Ja  
   - □ Nej

5. **Jeg føler, jeg har været tæt involveret i nærtstående familiemedlem's kræftsygdom**  
   - □ Ja  
   - □ Nej

6. **Synes du selv, du har tilstrækkelig viden til at håndtere livet med risiko for arvelig kræft?**  
   - □ Ja  
   - □ Nej

   **Hvis nej, hvad vil du gerne vide mere om?:**  
   - .....................................................................................................................................................................................
   - .....................................................................................................................................................................................
   - .....................................................................................................................................................................................

7. **Oplever du selv, at du har brug for hjælp til at håndtere, at leve risiko for arvelig kræft?**  
   - □ Ja, i høj grad  
   - □ Ja, af og til  
   - □ Nej, slet ikke
### DEL 2: Selvopfattelse

Følgende 20 udsagn afspejler reaktioner hos personer, som har fået resultatet af genetisk undersøgelse for arvelig tyktarmskræft. Vi er interesseret i at vide, i hvilken grad du er enig eller uenig i disse udsagn. Angiv venligst dine svar ved at sætte X i boksene, der passer bedst med din opfattelse. Brug din første indskydelse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Udsagn</th>
<th>1: Helt uenig</th>
<th>2: Delvis uenig</th>
<th>3: Nærmere uenig</th>
<th>4: Delvis enig</th>
<th>5: Helt enig</th>
<th>Ved ikke</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Jeg ser positivt på min fremtid</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Jeg er i stand til at håndtere mine testresultater</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Jeg er bekymret for tarmlydninger (f.eks. blødning), når jeg går på toilettet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Jeg føler, at min krop har foråldt mig</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Jeg føler mig som en tidsindstillet bombe</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Jeg føler mig anderledes end andre i min alder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Jeg føler, at testresultatet er en forblændelse, der har ramt mig</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Jeg føler skyld over mulighed at have påført mine børn risiko for kræft</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Jeg føler mig isoleret på grund af mit testresultat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Jeg føler, at jeg har mistet mit privatliv</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Jeg tænker meget på mit testresultat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Jeg er bange for at få mavesmerter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Jeg er bekymret for, at der vil blive fundet kræft ved tarmundersøgelserne</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Jeg føler mig stemplet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Jeg er bekymret for ændringer i min tarmfunktion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Jeg føler mig tynget af denne information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Jeg stoler ikke på min krop</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Testresultatet hæmmer min mulighed for at være den, jeg er</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Jeg er blevet mere indelukket</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Jeg føler mig pinligt berørt, når jeg skal have foretaget tarmundersøgelserne</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DEL 3: Viden

Nedenfor kommer 11 udsagn. Angiv venligst om du mener de er sande eller falske ved at sætte et $\Box$ i en af boksene. Brug din første indskydelse.

1. Tyktarmskæft rammer cirka 5% af alle individer i Danmark

2. En person, der bærer en HNPCC-genfejl, vil helt sikkert udvikle kræft

3. En person, der ikke bærer en HNPCC-genfejl, kan aldrig få tyktarmskæft

4. Kvinder med HNPCC har en forhøjet risiko for livmoderkræft (endometriecancer)

5. Kvinder med HNPCC har en forhøjet risiko for æggestokskæft

6. Coloskopi (tarmundersøgelse) er af værdi for individer med tarmsymptomer

7. En person, som bærer en HNPCC-genfejl, skal tilbydes regelmæssige tarmundersøgelser

8. En person med HNPCC vil videregive arveanlægget til 25% af sine børn

9. I forbindelse med udredning for HNPCC vil man i enkelte tilfælde undersøge prøver fra pårørende, som har haft kræft

10. Genetisk diagnostik af HNPCC kan udføres på blodprøve fra en enkelt person

11. Sygdommen HNPCC nedarves oftest gennem familiens mandlige medlemmer

Tak for din medvirken!
**DE4: Oplevelse af sammenhæng**

Følgende 13 spørgsmål har ikke direkte relation til risiko for arvelig tarmkræft, men berører forskellige sider af livet.

Hvert spørgsmål har syv svarmuligheder.

Marker venligst hvor på skalaen mellem yderpunkterne 1 og 7, du selv føler du hører til. Sæt O omkring tallet.

1. **Oplever du, at du er ligeglad med det, der sker omkring dig?**
   - 1: Meget sjældent/aldrig
   - 2: Ofte

2. **Er det sket for dig, at du er blevet overrasket over opførslen hos personer, du kendte godt?**
   - 1: Meget sjældent/aldrig
   - 2: Ofte

3. **Er det sket, at mennesker, du stolede på, har skuffet dig?**
   - 1: Meget sjældent/aldrig
   - 2: Ofte

4. **Indtil nu har dit liv:**
   - 1: Meget ofte
   - 2: Ofte

5. **Føler du dig uretfærdigt behandlet?**
   - 1: Meget ofte
   - 2: Meget sjældent/aldrig

6. **Oplever du, at du er i en uvant situation og ikke ved, hvad du skal gøre?**
   - 1: Meget ofte
   - 2: Meget sjældent/aldrig
7. Er din dagligdag en kilde til…

8. Har du meget modstridende tanker og følelser?

9. Sker det, at du har følelser, du helst ikke vil føle?

10. Selv mennesker med en stærk personlighed føler sig indimellem som tabere. Hvor ofte har du følt dig sådan?

11. Når noget er sket, oplever du, at du generelt

12. Hvor ofte føler du, at de ting du foretager dig i din hverdag er uden mening?

13. Hvor ofte har du følelser, du ikke er sikker på, du kan kontrollere?

© Sense of Coherence Aron Antonovsky
 Validation of a Self-Concept Scale for Lynch Syndrome in Different Nationalities

Helle Vendel Petersen · Katarina Domanska · Pär-Ola Bendahl · Jiahui Wong · Christina Carlsson · Inge Bernstein · Mary Jane Esplen · Mef Nilbert

Received: 23 August 2010 / Accepted: 6 January 2011 © National Society of Genetic Counselors, Inc. 2011

Abstract Learning about hereditary cancer may influence an individual’s self-concept, which otherwise represents a complex but stable cognitive structure. Recently, a 20-statement self-concept scale, with subscales related to stigma-vulnerability and bowel symptom-related anxiety, was developed for Lynch syndrome. We compared the performance of this scale in 591 mutation carriers from Denmark, Sweden and Canada. Principal component analysis identified two sets of linked statements—the first related to feeling different, isolated and labeled, and the second to concern and worry about bowel changes. The scale performed consistently in the three countries. Minor differences were identified, with guilt about passing on a defective gene and feelings of losing one’s privacy being more pronounced among Canadians, whereas Danes more often expressed worries about cancer. Validation of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale supports its basic structure, identifies dependence between the statements in the subscales and demonstrates its applicability in different Western populations.

Keywords HNPCC · Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer · Psychological impact · Reliability · Questionnaire · Validity

Introduction

Lynch syndrome is a hereditary multi-cancer syndrome characterized by early onset (mean 45 years) and particularly high lifetime risks for colorectal cancer (50–80%) and gynecological cancer (40–60% risk for endometrial cancer, and 10–15% risk for ovarian cancer). Germ-line mutations in the mismatch repair genes MLH1, MSH2, MSH6 and PMS2 were identified as the genetic causes of hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer, HNPCC, in the early 1990’s (Lynch and de la Chapelle 2003; Lynch et al. 2008, 2009). Today, mutation positive families are referred to as having Lynch syndrome and genetic counseling and testing are well established in clinical routine. Early identification of individuals at increased risk of colorectal cancer is important since colonoscopic surveillance reduces morbidity and mortality by up to 60% (Jarvinen et al. 2000; Lindor et al. 2006; Renkonen-Sinisalo et al. 2000; Stupart et al. 2009).

An increasing number of individuals live with knowledge of a high risk of cancer, which may have psychosocial effects and evoke feelings of being different, alluded to in
expressions such as “altered, abnormal and mutated” (Bleiker et al. 2003; Lynch 2008; Vadaparampil et al. 2005; Esplen et al. 2009b). Increased anxiety and depression have been demonstrated 6–12 months after genetic testing (Aktan-Collan et al. 2001; Collins et al. 2007; Meiser 2005) and subgroups such as young individuals and females, seem to be more vulnerable to test-related distress (Gritz et al. 2005; Keller et al. 2002, 2008; Meiser 2005). To date, most studies of psychological function have, however, applied global measures, which have limited ability to identify specific psychosocial issues associated with hereditary cancer (Bleiker et al. 2003; Esplen et al. 2010; Vadaparampil et al. 2005). Self-concept is a complex cognitive structure that influences how individuals think about and evaluate themselves in relation to identity, social roles, values and interests. Several factors, including knowledge, experience, sex and internalized cultural values form a person’s self-concept and individuals with a positive perception of the self are more capable of handling challenges (Esplen et al. 2009b; Markus 1977; Markus and Wurf 1987). Though self-concept remains relatively stable throughout life, it may change during difficult periods or due to crises that evoke feelings or alter perceptions about one’s identity. Recently, self-concept scales for hereditary cancer have been developed and applied to cohorts affected by hereditary breast and ovarian cancer, familial adenomatous polyposis and most recently Lynch syndrome (Esplen et al. 2009a, b, 2010). The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale contains general items related to self-concept (e.g., feelings of guilt and isolation, vulnerability, and sense of being labeled) as well as specific items (e.g., worry about bowel symptoms and anxiety at cancer surveillance) (Table 1). The self-concept scales reflect psychosocial aspects of being at high risk of cancer and may potentially be used to identify individuals in need of extended psychosocial support. The aim of our study was to validate the structure of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and evaluate its performance in populations from different Western countries.

### Methods

#### Instrumentation

Individual interviews and focus group interviews with patients and genetic counselors formed the basis for identification of items in the construction of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and after item selection, reliability and construct validity were assessed in an independent cohort (Esplen et al. 2010). The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale contains 20 statements (Table 1) divided into two subscales related to stigma and vulnerability (15 statements) and to bowel symptom-related anxiety (5 statements). Responders are asked to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement on a 7-point, Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” By adding the scores and dividing by number of statements in each subscale, we

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Individual statements in the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statements are rated on a 7-point scale where 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Statements on the Bowel-Symptom Related Anxiety subscale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b Statements on the Stigma and Vulnerability subscale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c Statements for which scores should be reversed in the analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
get a summed score with the same range, 1–7, as the individual statements. The first 2 statements are positive (and consequently reverse scored), whereas the remaining 18 statements are negative. Higher scores indicate a stronger negative impact on an individual’s self-concept. The self-concept scale was translated from English into Danish and Swedish (translations available from the authors upon request) according to recommended guidelines, including back-translation into English (Cha et al. 2007).

Sample and Procedures

The study sample of 591 individuals was recruited from Denmark (n=415), Sweden (n=68), and Canada (n=108). The Danish data were collected from a national study on self-concept that included all identified carriers of Lynch syndrome predisposing germ-line mutations in Denmark (Vendel Petersen, unpublished data). The Swedish data were collected for the present study and have not previously been published. The Canadian sample consisted of secondary data from carriers of Lynch Syndrome included in the development of the self-concept scale (Esplen et al. 2010). Data on age, sex and previous cancer were available for all three cohorts. The response rate was 79% in Denmark, 76% in Sweden, and 72% in Canada. Fifteen questionnaires contained missing data for 4 or more statements and thus were excluded, leaving 576 individuals for the final analysis (Table 2).

In all three countries, genetic counseling took place prior to genetic testing. The test results were communicated at a second counseling session in Sweden and Canada, whereas the Danish individuals had a choice between a second session or receiving information about the result by mail. All participants were offered surveillance programs, including biannual colonoscopies. Ethical approval for the study was, according to the Danish ethical regulation, not needed. Ethical approval was obtained in Sweden obtained from the Lund University Ethics committee and in Canada from the Toronto Mount Sinai Hospital Research Ethics Board and the Memorial University Ethics Review board.

Data Analysis

Demographic differences between the cohorts were evaluated using analysis of variance (ANOVA) for age and chi square tests for sex and previous Lynch syndrome-associated cancer. Analysis of variance was also used to test for differences in self-concept scale scores as a function of cohort, sex and cancer history. All tests were two-tailed and the significance level was set to 0.05. For items where significant differences were found, paired comparisons were performed. Bonferroni correction was used to reduce the risk of false positive findings due to multiple testing. Since differences in the distribution of the 20 items were evaluated, a p-value<0.05/20=0.0025 was required for significance.

Principal component analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was used to explain score variability. In this analysis, missing values, on average 1.6%, were imputed with the group median score for each item. The principal components were normed to the associated eigenvalues and Varimax rotation was applied. Components with eigenvalues ≥1 were reported, and a cut off value of 0.35 for factor loadings was used to identify correlated sets of statements representative of each factor. After having identified the underlying dimensions of the scale, communalities, representing the amount of variance each variable in the analysis shares with other variables, were calculated. To assess the internal consistency of the scale Cronbach’s alpha was used. Stata 11.0 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX, USA, 2010) and PASW Statistics 18 were used for the statistical analyses.

Results

The average inter-item correlation between the 20 items in the scale was 0.4 and Cronbach’s alpha, used for testing for internal consistency, was 0.93 indicating that the statements in the self-concept scale are measuring a uni-dimensional construct.

Principal component analysis identified three components (Table 3), of which the first component defined 12

### Table 2 Summary of self-concept data in the different cohorts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
<th>Denmark</th>
<th>Canada</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of informants</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean age</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex, male/female (%)</td>
<td>47/53</td>
<td>48/52</td>
<td>45/55</td>
<td>43/57</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous Lynch syndrome-associated cancer (%)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD) total self-concept score</td>
<td>2.72 (1.14)</td>
<td>2.74 (1.16)</td>
<td>2.68 (1.00)</td>
<td>2.64 (1.20)</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD) stigma and vulnerability</td>
<td>2.31 (1.12)</td>
<td>2.33 (1.14)</td>
<td>2.25 (0.98)</td>
<td>2.30 (1.18)</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD) GI anxiety</td>
<td>3.91 (1.49)</td>
<td>3.93 (1.51)</td>
<td>3.97 (1.41)</td>
<td>3.64 (1.50)</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
statements related to feeling labeled, isolated, different and cursed due to the test result. The second component identified 5 statements, 4 of which related to concern and worry about bowel changes and belonged to the bowel symptom-related anxiety subscale. The third component filtered out statements 1 and 2, which represent positive and future-directed statements. These three components respectively explained 44%, 9% and 5% of the total variance. The PCA in the individual cohorts revealed the same overall picture (data not shown). Calculations of communalities (Table 3) showed a variable degree of overlap/uniqueness, which can be exemplified by a high variance for statement 15 (0.74) suggesting that other statements also capture its impact, whereas statement 20 (0.15) showed low variance suggestive of uniqueness.

The total mean score for the whole sample was 2.72, and there were no significant differences between the three cohorts (Table 2). When individual items were analyzed, significant differences ($p<0.05$) were identified for 4 of the 20 statements, 3 of which remained after the Bonferroni correction (Fig. 1). These items related to guilt about passing on a mutated gene to children (statement 8), feelings of losing one’s privacy (statement 10), and worries about cancer found at surveillance (statement 13).

For statement 8 (I feel guilty that I might pass on cancer risk to my children) no significant differences were found between the Danish and Swedish cohorts, whereas higher scores were reported in the Canadian cohort ($p<0.001$). When these data were stratified for sex and previous cancer, women across all three cohorts reported higher scores ($p<0.01$) than men. Individuals affected by cancer reported higher scores ($p<0.001$) and the impact hereof was highest in the Canadian cohort (interaction, $p<0.001$), whereas individuals without previous cancer showed similar scores ($p=0.5$). For statement 10 (I feel I have lost my sense of privacy) Danes had significantly ($p<0.0001$) lower scores than Canadians. There were no significant effects or interactions for sex and previous cancer history. For statement 13 (I am worried that cancer will be found when I go for screening) significantly higher scores were observed in the Danish cohort compared to the Canadian cohort ($p=0.0001$). Consistent with the results for statement 10, there were no significant main effects or interactions for sex and previous cancer history.

**Discussion**

International guidelines for genetic testing and surveillance have been established for Lynch syndrome (Bleiker et al. 2003; Lindor et al. 2006; Vasen et al. 2007, 2010), but recommendations regarding optimal psychological management and support are lacking. Though the majority of individuals adapt to a genetic test result, a subset experience an adverse outcome, expressed as increased anxiety and depression (Bjorvatn et al. 2008, 2009; Hamilton et al. 2009; Keller et al. 2008; Murakami et al.)

---

**Table 3** Factor loadings from principal component analysis ($n=576$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
<th>Component 3</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>−0.23</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Predominant factor loadings are in italics
Changes in overall psychological functioning following genetic testing have been documented. Knowledge is, however, lacking about how specific psychological factors, such as self-concept, contribute to how individuals adapt to living with a high risk of cancer and whether self-concept may influence participation in surveillance programs. Tools that measure variables such as self-concept would allow for individualized psychosocial follow-up. As self-concept is a psychological structure that incorporates past, present and future sense of self and is influenced by internalized cultural values and norms (Markus and Wurf 1987), it may be used to identify individuals in need of psychosocial intervention.

In the present study, using the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale, we applied the same statistical methods as Esplen et al. (2010) and obtained similar results regarding scale reliability and inter-item correlation, which supports internal consistency of the scale. In order to assess the basic structure of the scale, PCA with Varimax rotation was used (Table 3). The first component identified 12 statements related to the “stigma and vulnerability” subscale. All but one of these statements (no. 11, I think about my test result a lot) related to intrusive thoughts about the genetic test result, are consistent between this study and the original study, suggesting little differences in self-concept between the cohorts. The second component identified 5 statements (nos. 3, 11, 12, 13 and 15), 4 of which are represented in the bowel symptom-related anxiety subscale proposed by Esplen et al. (2010). Statement 8 (I feel guilty that I might pass on a cancer risk on to my children) did not load well on either factor in the current combined sample. Our data thus support the use of both subscales, but suggests that statements 8 and 11 are more complex and warrant further examination, (e.g., related to the sex by cohort interaction observed for statement 8). The third component identified the two positive future orientated statements in the scale (I am hopeful about myself in the future and I am able to deal with my test result), which were part of the stigma and vulnerability subscales and represent positive appraisals of the impact of a genetic test result. Though the two statements were the weakest in the PCA analysis, we believe they are relevant since they represent future-directed aspects of a person’s “self” (Esplen et al. 2009b; Markus and Wurf 1987). Minor modifications of the subscale may be relevant, but the similar structures in the cohorts provide strong evidence that the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale is valid and support extended use of the scale in different settings.

When the Danish, Swedish and Canadian cohorts were compared, their total mean scores were not significantly different, suggesting that the impact on self-concept, as measured by the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale is similar in these countries. Significant differences were identified for three of the 20 statements (Fig. 1). The Canadian cohort reported higher scores for guilt about passing on cancer risk to children (statement 8) than either the Danish or Swedish cohorts. When stratified for sex and previous cancer, the difference was explained by higher values reported by women and by individuals with previous cancer. These findings are consistent with data suggesting that women in Western societies traditionally take responsibility for family health (d’Agincourt-Canning 2001) and may therefore more often experience guilt towards children. Parents affected by cancer are struggling with feelings of guilt about the possible transmission of a cancer gene and feel responsible for their children’s’ health. Pressures to engage in “good parenting” or a strong sense of responsibility to be an “ideal parent” may be culturally linked and may thus vary across countries (Semple and McCance 2010). However, the differences in reported guilt identified between the cohorts are subtle and might also reflect differences in sample sizes, genetic counseling services, information and follow-up recommendations. Compared to the Canadian cohort, Danish mutation carriers reported lower scores related to feelings of losing one’s privacy (statement 10), but higher scores for worry about cancer being found at surveillance (statement 13). The differences in statements 10 and 13 were, in contrast to statement 8, independent of sex and previous cancer. The smaller impact on privacy could perhaps be linked to Danes having a long tradition of national registries based on unique civic registration numbers. The causes of the higher degree of worry about cancer reported by Danes remain unknown, but might reflect a need for additional information and psychological support in Denmark, where the HNPCC register mainly focuses on genetic counseling and information about test results and surveillance.

In conclusion, the present data are the first to assess the psychosocial impact of genetic testing for Lynch syndrome across populations and constitute the first validation of this scale outside of North America. The minor differences identified between the cohorts, related to feeling guilt about passing on a defective gene, losing privacy and worries about cancer found at surveillance, could possibly be explained by cultural factors and differences in genetic counseling. Limitations of the present study include the validity of the constructs measured, which is not demonstrated herein. This was, however, taken into account in the original development of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale with comparison to 4 other scales related to distress, self-esteem, social desirability and fear. Furthermore, the cohorts had different sample sizes and data from the Canadian cohort had previously been used for scale construction (Esplen et al. 2010). Use of data from three populations with similar cultures and health care systems limit the generalizability of the findings to Western
populations, and its applicability in populations with different health care systems, cultures and religions needs further investigation. Further validation could include e.g. confirmatory factor analysis and Rasch analysis. Moreover, correlations between self-concept and educational level, prior loss of family members to cancer, surveillance attitudes, and long-term mutation carrier perspectives could be investigated with the aim to identify specific groups in higher need of psychosocial intervention after genetic testing for Lynch syndrome.

Acknowledgments The Danish Cancer Fund and the Hvidovre University Hospital financially supported the study.

References


Limited impact on self-concept in individuals with Lynch syndrome; results from a national cohort study

Helle Vendel Petersen · Mary Jane Esplen · Steen Ladelund · Inge Bernstein · Lone Sunde · Christina Carlsson · Mef Nilbert

Abstract An increasing number of individuals seek genetic counseling and thereby learn about hereditary cancer in the family. Lynch syndrome is associated with an inherited high risk for colorectal and gynecological cancer, but knowledge about how family members at risk perceive their situation is limited. We used the national Danish HNPCC register to collect data on self-concept from 413 individuals with Lynch syndrome. The recently developed Lynch syndrome self-concept scale contains 20 items within two subscales related to stigma-vulnerability and bowel symptom-related anxiety. Significantly higher total scores, indicating a greater impact on self-concept, were reported by females and by individuals with experience from cancer in close relatives, whereas individuals with less formal education scored significantly higher on the stigma and vulnerability subscale. Scores in the upper quartile were more often reported by women (odds ratio 1.8) and by individuals with less education (OR 1.8). This study provides the first extended use of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and suggests that the majority of the Danish mutation carriers adapt well to the situation, though knowledge about the increased risk of cancer seem to have a greater impact in females, individuals with less education and those with experience of cancer in close relatives.

Keywords Anxiety · Hereditary cancer · Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer · Psychosocial · Vulnerability

Introduction

Genetic counseling services have been expanding during the last decade, following the identification of causative genes for e.g. breast cancer, ovarian cancer, and colorectal cancer [1–3]. An increasing number of individuals live with knowledge about hereditary cancer in the family. Lynch syndrome (formerly referred to as hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer, HNPCC) is one of the most common hereditary cancer syndromes identified and accounts for 2–4% of colorectal cancer. Tumors typically develop at an early age (mean 44 years) and mutation carriers are at 60–90% lifetime risk of colorectal cancer, 40–60% risk of endometrial cancer, and are at increased risks also for ovarian cancer, gastric cancer, urothelial cancer, brain tumors and skin tumors [1, 4, 5]. Mutations in DNA mismatch repair genes have been identified as the underlying cause [5]. Identification and optimal management of these families is important since surveillance programmes for colorectal cancer have proven effective in reducing morbidity and mortality from colorectal cancer
The possibility to prevent colorectal cancer has been identified as a major motivating factor for at-risk individuals’ participation in surveillance programmes and also evokes hope for the future [8].

Most patients with colorectal cancer express positive attitudes toward genetic testing with colorectal cancer in close relatives as being a major motivating factor [9, 10]. Though the vast majority of counselees are satisfied with their decision, emotional issues are among those where expectations are not always fulfilled [11]. Worry and distress have been reported by one-third of individuals with suspected Lynch syndrome prior to genetic counseling with figures decreasing to 13–25% shortly afterwards [12]. The increased levels of distress, anxiety and depression observed in mutation carriers after genetic testing seem to be temporary with little undue psychological distress reported one and 3 years post testing for the majority of individuals [13–16]. Disclosure of an increased risk of cancer may not only influence psychological functioning, but may also evoke feelings of being different, alluded to as in such self-expressions as “abnormal, mutated and altered”, used by mutation carriers [17, 18]. Global measures, such as those to assess depressive symptomatology used in most studies of psychological function may fail to capture the specific psychological issues linked with being at high risk of cancer and the long-term perspectives of living with an increased risk of colorectal cancer is at present largely unknown [16, 19–22].

Self-concept is a complex cognitive structure related to perception about one’s self and refers to how we think about and evaluate ourselves in relation to the surrounding society. Social roles, physical appearance, experiences, values and interests are among the factors that influence our self-concept, [23, 24]. In hereditary cancer, self-concept may influence how mutation carriers adopt to the situation and whether individuals at risk participate in surveillance programmes. Self-concept scales have been developed for hereditary breast and ovarian cancer (BRCA1/2) [25], familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) [26] and most recently for Lynch syndrome [18, 27]. The self-concept scales differ from the more global depression and anxiety scales in taking specific psychological issues linked with being at high risk of cancer and the long-term perspectives of living with an increased risk of colorectal cancer.

**Material and method**

**Sample**

In Denmark, more than 1,000 families (excluding familial adenomatous polyposis) with suspected or verified risk of hereditary colorectal cancer, are registered in the national HNPCC register, which was established in 1991. Clinical geneticists, pathologists, surgeons and gynecologists report data on a national basis. At the time of the study, Lynch syndrome had been identified in 180 families in which 522 adult (>18 years of age) mutation carriers were eligible.

The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale was distributed by ordinary mail at two time points (May 2008 in eastern Denmark and January 2009 in western Denmark). A reminder was sent after 3–4 weeks. The two data sets were pooled for further analysis. Demographic data on gender, age, education, previous/current cancer and experience from cancer in close relatives were collected from the participants. The total response rate was 79% (N = 413) and the 109 non-responders did not differ significantly from the responders regarding the demographic variables available, i.e. sex, age, previous cancer, and time since genetic testing (data not shown).

The Lynch syndrome self-concept scale

The self-concept scale is a two-factor scale containing 20 statements intended to reflect issues specific for Lynch syndrome mutation carriers. Responders are asked to indicate their degree of agreement on a seven-grade Likert scale (range: 1–7) [18, 19]. Sum scores may range from 20 to 140, with higher scores linked to a greater impact on the individual’s self-concept. The scale contains two subscales, which reflect stigma-vulnerability (15 items) and bowel symptom-related anxiety (5 items). Statements 1 and 2 are positive, and consequently reversed in the analyses, whereas the remaining 18 statements are negative. The scale was translated into Danish according to recommended guidelines, including re-back-translation and the use of a bilingual panel to ensure preservation of the conceptual meaning [28–30].

**Statistical analysis**

Missing data and answers labeled “non applicable” were coded as “missing” and responders with more than 3 missing values were not included in the final analysis, whereas responders with 1–3 missing values were re-coded using the average mean of the informant. Univariate analysis included sex, formal education (dichotomized into “primary school”), which equals maximum 9 years, and “continued”), time since genetic testing, current or previous cancer, and self-reported experience with cancer in close relatives.
Descriptive analysis of the total score and the subscales included mean values and standard deviations. The total sum score as well as the mean score were calculated. Wilcoxon two-sample test was used to analyze dichotomized variables and Kendals Tau–b correlation was used to analyze the continuous data (age and time since genetic testing). Wilcoxon signed rank test was used to analyze individual scores in relation to sex and education. Logistic regression analysis was used to assess explanatory variables in individuals using scores in the upper quartile (sum score ≥66) as the outcome variable. Significance was set at $P = 0.05$. The statistical analyses were performed using SAS version 9.1.

**Results**

In total, 419 individuals, including 218 women, with a mean age of 48 (18–85) years contributed with data. Time since genetic testing was mean 5.2 (range 0.7–14.8) years, 182 individuals (44%) had been affected by cancer, and the majority (87%) reported experience from cancer in close relatives. Non-responders did not differ from responders regarding gender, time since genetic testing, cancer status and age (data not shown). After excluding responders with incomplete data, 398 (75%) individuals were included in the final analysis.

The distribution of the scores for the 20 items is presented in Table 1 with the majority unimodal right-skewed towards positive self-concept. A wide range (20–132) of self-concept scores was obtained with 75% reporting scores less than 3.4 out of 7 possible (Table 2). The results can be exemplified by item 1 (*feeling hopeful about my future*) to which 78% agreed or strongly agreed and item 2 (*able to deal with the test result*) to which 78% agreed or strongly agreed. Less than 4% reported *not having hope for the future* and the same number reported feeling *unable to deal...*
with the test result. Among the negative statements, feelings of guilt for having passed on a defective gene to children were reported as agree/strongly agree by 27% and worries that cancer would be found when going to screening was agreed upon by 50% of the responders. The mean sum score was 54.8, which when divided by the number of statements corresponded to a mean score of 2.74. The mean subscale scores were 35.1 (2.34 per statement) for the stigma and vulnerability subscale and 19.7 (3.94) for the bowel symptom-related anxiety.

### Table 2
Mean self-concept scores stratified for demographic variables and correlated to age and time since testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Stigma vulnerability</th>
<th>Gastrointestinal-related anxiety</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>P-valuea</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cohort (n = 398)</td>
<td>2.74 (1.14)</td>
<td>2.34 (1.15)</td>
<td>3.94 (1.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (n = 192)</td>
<td>2.55 (1.03)</td>
<td>2.16 (1.04)</td>
<td>3.71 (1.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (n = 206)</td>
<td>2.91 (1.21)</td>
<td>2.50 (1.23)</td>
<td>4.1 (1.56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school (n = 111)</td>
<td>2.93 (1.78)</td>
<td>2.55 (1.18)</td>
<td>4.07 (1.51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continued (n = 287)</td>
<td>2.66 (0.89)</td>
<td>2.26 (1.50)</td>
<td>3.88 (1.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous cancer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes (n = 180)</td>
<td>2.82 (1.14)</td>
<td>2.41 (1.17)</td>
<td>4.05 (1.51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No (n = 226)</td>
<td>2.67 (1.15)</td>
<td>2.29 (1.14)</td>
<td>3.84 (1.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience from cancer in close relatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes (n = 344)</td>
<td>2.8 (1.16)</td>
<td>2.39 (1.72)</td>
<td>4.02 (1.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No (n = 54)</td>
<td>2.37 (0.95)</td>
<td>2.03 (0.97)</td>
<td>3.4 (1.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation with self-concept scores</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tau-b [95% CI]</td>
<td>P-valueb</td>
<td>Tau-b [95% CI]</td>
<td>P-valueb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.0003 [−0.66–0.07]</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.014 [−0.08–0.05]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time since genetic testing</td>
<td>0.0083 [−0.08–0.06]</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.019 [−0.09–0.08]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bolded figures refer to significant findings

SD standard deviation

* Wilcoxon rank test

b Kendals Tau-b two-sided Z

### Table 3
Adjusted odds ratios for self-concept scores within the upper quartile in relation to demographic variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Subscale score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OR (95% CI)</td>
<td>Stigma vulnerability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female: male</td>
<td>1.84 (1.14–2.99)</td>
<td>1.66 (1.04–2.66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school: continued</td>
<td>1.41 (0.82–2.43)</td>
<td>1.8 (1.06–3.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous cancer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes: no</td>
<td>1.62 (0.94–2.81)</td>
<td>1.05 (0.61–1.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience from cancer in close relatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes: no</td>
<td>1.58 (0.77–3.27)</td>
<td>1.46 (0.71–3.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continuous</td>
<td>0.98 (0.96–1.0)</td>
<td>0.99 (0.97–1.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time since genetic testing</td>
<td>continuous</td>
<td>0.99 (0.93–1.06)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bolded figures refer to significant findings
subscale. Females, individuals with less formal education and individuals with experience from cancer in close relatives reported significantly higher scores on the total scale (Table 2). When the subscales were analyzed, women and individuals with experience from cancer reported higher scores on both subscales, whereas individuals with less education had higher scores on the stigma and vulnerability subscale. Previous cancer, age and time since genetic testing did not correlate with the self-concept scores.

Multivariate regression analysis was used to identify subsets with the highest impact on self-concept. Herein, female sex and lower education correlated with an increased OR for scores in the upper quartile (Table 3). Females had higher scores on the total scales (OR 1.8) as well as on both subscales (OR 1.7 and 1.8, respectively) and individuals with lower education showed an increased risk (OR 1.8) for high scores on the stigma and vulnerability subscale (Table 3). Further investigation demonstrated that the higher scores in females derived from 12 statements, which were equally distributed on both subscales. In individuals with less formal education, the higher scores derived from 7 of the 15 statements on the stigma-vulnerability subscale, which indicates that several issues, rather than specific statements, account for the differences in scores related to sex and education.

Discussion

We investigated self-concept in the entire Danish Lynch syndrome population with more than 400 responders in order to obtain a broad picture of how these individuals perceive themselves and to identify subsets with a higher impact on self-concept. The individuals had undergone genetic testing mean 5 years prior to the study, which implies that the results reflect self-concept in a cohort with relatively long experience from being at increased risk of cancer. The majority of the Danish mutation carriers reported minor impact on self-concept, which suggests that they, in general, adapt well to the situation. Though we did not evaluate depression, the high frequency of positive answers in the self-concept scale suggests that psychological distress is not a predominant problem in Danish mutation carriers. This is in line with results from studies that have evaluated anxiety and depression among Lynch syndrome mutation carriers and concluded that most individuals seem to be able to handle the genetic test result [14]. Higher scores were, however, reported by women, individuals with less formal education, and those with experience from cancer in close relatives. These subsets are among those previously identified as vulnerable in studies of anxiety and psychological distress in hereditary cancer [31–34]. In this regard, it is interesting to note that neither young individuals nor individuals affected by cancer in our cohort reported higher self-concept scores, which supports the underlying concept that the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale measures issues different from global anxiety and depression measures. The lack of correlation to time since genetic testing also suggests that factors other than time influence self-concept in mutation carriers.

Multivariate analysis revealed increased risks of high self-concept scores in women and individuals with less formal education (Table 3). Women had an OR of 1.8 for scoring in the upper quartile on both subscales, which may reflect differences in how men and women perceive themselves in relation to cancer risk. In this regard, it is the perception of an event rather than the event itself that determine the emotional, cognitive and behavioral responses [35]. Women have in previous studies been suggested to take on responsibility for the well-being of family members and for coordinating surveillance and spreading information in the family [36]. This could reflect differences in how women and men perceive their roles and could imply that the women’s feelings of responsibility for other family members may influence how they regard their own situation. Another explanation for the higher impact on self-concept in women may be that whereas men are recommended colonoscopic surveillance only, women are also at risk of endometrial and ovarian cancer and undergo surveillance and/or prophylactic procedures for these cancer types.

Differences in coping styles could also represent an explanation with women preferentially using problem-focused coping, distraction methods and seeking social support [35, 37–39]. Psychological coping mechanisms are among the factors that influence the emotional outcome of genetic testing [40]. Passive or escape-avoidant coping style and pessimistic perception of the reaction to the test result or the disease itself has been shown to increase post distress counseling in hereditary colorectal cancer as well as in hereditary breast-ovarian cancer [39, 41]. Several items in the self-concept scale relate to coping mechanisms, e.g. being able to deal with the test results and feeling hopeful about the future. Detailed understanding of how coping mechanisms relate to self-concept, however, needs further investigation and a major research challenge related to psychosocial aspects of Lynch syndrome lies in the identification of relevant causes since the genetic testing procedure, the surveillance programs, and the increased risk of cancer may all represent stressful events.

Individuals with less formal education showed an increased risk (OR 1.8) for scores in the upper quartile on the stigma and vulnerability subscale, whereas no increased risk was identified for high scores on the gastrointestinal-related anxiety subscale. Hence, worry or anxiety about bowel symptoms seems unrelated to educational level,
whereas stigmatization seems to be particularly pronounced in individuals with a lower educational level. Socioeconomic status and educational level have previously been identified as important determinants of health [42]. We did not collect information on socioeconomic status, but this factor may be relevant to consider in the development of psychosocial support and intervention programs for mutation carriers.

The present study represents the first extended use of the Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and reveals a relatively low impact on self-concept in Danish mutation carriers. Women, individuals with less former education and experience from cancer in close relatives reported higher impact on self-concept in Danish mutation carriers. Low impact on self-concept in Danish mutation carriers. Lynch syndrome self-concept scale and reveals a relatively development of psychosocial support and intervention status, but this factor may be relevant to consider in the University Hospital and the Danish Cancer Fund.

Acknowledgments The study was supported by Hvidovre University Hospital and the Danish Cancer Fund.

References

Paper III
Paper IV