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**Young people’s beliefs about the risk of bowel cancer and its link with
physical activity**

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25

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32

33

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34 **Abstract**

35 Objectives: The primary objective was to explore young people's risk appraisals of bowel
36 cancer, including whether they had a coherent understanding of the protective effects of
37 physical activity (PA). A secondary objective was to examine whether the Illness Risk
38 Representations (IRR) framework could be used to understand beliefs underlying bowel
39 cancer risk appraisals.

40 Design: Qualitative.

41 Methods: Framework analysis of semi-structured interviews with 19 people aged 14-17
42 years.

43 Results: Participants judged their risk of getting bowel cancer as low. This was based on a
44 lack of family history of cancer and their current lifestyle behaviours, which were viewed as
45 having a protective effect, or because they planned on making change to their lifestyle in the
46 future when disease risk became more relevant. Participants were not aware of, and struggled
47 to understand, the link between PA and bowel cancer. They also lacked knowledge of the
48 effects of, or treatments for, bowel cancer. Beliefs underlying judgements about the risk of
49 bowel cancer fitted the IRR framework reasonably well.

50 Conclusions: The present research suggests that interventions designed to increase PA with a
51 view to reducing the risk of bowel cancer should aim to make the future risk of bowel cancer
52 feel more tangible, help young people to understand the full range of consequences, explain
53 how and why preventative behaviours such as PA are effective in reducing risk, and
54 emphasise that the typical late presentation of symptoms, and therefore investigation by
55 healthcare services, reduces treatability.

56

57 **Background**

58 Bowel cancer (cancer of the colon and rectum) is the fourth most common cancer in the UK
59 (Cancer Research UK, 2016b). Additionally, it is the second most common cause of cancer-
60 related mortality accounting for 10% of all deaths from cancer (Cancer Research UK, 2016b).
61 A family history of bowel cancer, some chronic illnesses, and lifestyle factors can all increase
62 the risk of bowel cancer (Cancer Research UK, 2016a). One of these lifestyle factors is
63 insufficient physical activity (PA).

64 Evidence suggests that to confer the greatest protective effect on bowel cancer, PA
65 needs to occur throughout the lifespan (Lee, Paffenbarger Jr., & Hsieh, 1991). Furthermore,
66 evidence indicates that PA in childhood tracks into adulthood (Strong et al., 2005). This
67 means that people who are not physically active as children are also unlikely to be physically
68 active as adults. Despite the importance of PA in early life, levels of PA in young people are
69 low, and there is a substantial decrease in levels of PA from childhood to adolescence. For
70 example, the Health Survey for England found that <10% of 12-15 year olds in the UK meet
71 the UK Government guidelines of ≥ 60 minutes of at least moderate activity per day (Health
72 Survey for England, 2012).

73 It is important therefore to find ways to promote PA among young people in order to
74 reduce their risk of getting bowel cancer in the future. A number of theories of health
75 behaviour identify risk appraisal as a primary motivator of protective action. According to
76 Protection Motivation Theory (PMT; (Rogers & Prentice-Dunn, 1997)) for example, people
77 will be motivated to perform a protective behaviour providing their risk and efficacy
78 appraisals are sufficiently high. Risk appraisal is typically operationalised as judgements
79 about the likelihood and severity of a threat (such as bowel cancer), and efficacy appraisal as
80 the perceived effectiveness of an action (such as PA) in removing that threat, along with
81 perceived ability to perform that action. Recent meta-analyses indicate that there is a small

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82 effect of changing risk appraisal on behaviour, which can be enhanced if efficacy appraisals
83 are also high or simultaneously increased (Sheeran, Harris, & Epton, 2014; Tannenbaum et
84 al., 2015).

85 A small number of experimental studies have examined the effect of increasing risk
86 and efficacy appraisals for colon cancer on PA intentions among adults (Courneya &
87 Hellsten, 2001; Graham, Prapavessis, & Cameron, 2006; McGowan & Prapavessis, 2010).
88 Collectively, these studies show that increasing risk and efficacy beliefs can increase adults'
89 intentions to be more physically active. Notably, two of these studies were not able to
90 manipulate perceived severity (Graham et al., 2006; McGowan & Prapavessis, 2010),
91 possibly due to their adult sample already believing that cancer is severe leading to a ceiling
92 effect. The manipulation may be more successful among younger people who may be less
93 aware of the seriousness of cancer in general or of colon cancer specifically (Graham et al.,
94 2006). Two of the studies also failed to manipulate perceived likelihood (Courneya &
95 Hellsten, 2001; Graham et al., 2006). Courneya and colleagues (2001) argued that this may
96 reflect optimistic bias among their young adult sample. Taken together, these studies suggest
97 that while informing people about the threat of bowel cancer is a promising strategy for
98 motivating PA, more needs to be understood about how to best alter appraisals of bowel
99 cancer severity and likelihood.

100 A body of work initiated by Cameron (Cameron, 2003; Cameron, 2008) aims to
101 specify the beliefs upon which risk appraisals are based and may therefore offer a useful
102 theoretical framework for improving our understanding of how people assess their risk of
103 getting bowel cancer. This is important because if we are to successfully manipulate risk
104 appraisals, we first need to understand the beliefs on which they are based. These beliefs,
105 organised within the Illness Risk Representations (IRR) framework, are based on the
106 Common Sense Model (CSM; (Leventhal, Brissette, & Leventhal, 2003) which has typically

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107 been used to understand how people appraise and cope with an illness (Hagger & Orbell,
108 2003). Applied in this new way, the IRR framework can be used to understand how healthy
109 populations appraise the risk of health threats.

110 Cameron (Cameron, 2003; 2008) proposed that illness risk representations for any
111 illness threat are formed as a result of matching characteristics of the self with relevant illness
112 risk representation components. For example, in the case of bowel cancer, illness risk
113 representations about the cause of disease (e.g. ‘being physically inactive puts me at risk of
114 bowel cancer’) are based on matching beliefs about the cause of bowel cancer (e.g. ‘bowel
115 cancer is caused by being physically inactive’) with self-characteristics (e.g. ‘I am physically
116 inactive’). The components include identity (the label given to the illness and its symptoms),
117 cause (factors responsible for the occurrence of the illness), timeline (time of onset and
118 course of illness), consequences (expected pain, psychosocial effects, and death) and control
119 (control over illness progression). The identity, cause, timeline and control (over prevention)
120 components are proposed to serve as the basis for perceived likelihood estimates, and the
121 consequences and control (over treatment/cure) components to serve as the basis for
122 perceived severity estimates.

123 Evidence in support of the IRR framework has been provided by a number of studies
124 that have examined peoples’ behaviour in response to threats such as skin cancer (Cameron,
125 2008), cardiovascular disease (Classen, Henneman, Kindt, Marteau, & Timmermans, 2010),
126 and sexually transmitted infection (Newby, French, Brown, & Wallace, 2013). However,
127 whether the IRR framework could be useful in explaining how people appraise and respond
128 to the risk of bowel cancer is yet to be determined.

129 According to the CSM, people will only perform health behaviours that are consistent
130 with their understanding of the threat to their health (Leventhal et al., 1997). That is,
131 common-sense representations of an illness shape beliefs about risk and therefore what, if

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132 any, behaviours are selected and performed in order to reduce the threat. For example, if
133 young people do not believe that physical inactivity causes bowel cancer then they are
134 unlikely to increase their levels of PA in order to reduce that threat. Instead, other behaviours
135 for which there is a more intuitive link to the illness may be selected instead. These could
136 include for example changes to their diet. Here the link between the behaviour and the part of
137 the body that is affected is direct and logical given that food comes into contact with the
138 bowel. In support of the importance of providing a coherent model of the behaviour, Bishop
139 and colleagues (Bishop, Marteau, Hall, Kitchener, & Hajek, 2005) found that explaining the
140 link between smoking and cervical cancer increased intentions to stop smoking among
141 women receiving abnormal cervical screening results.

The Present Research

143 The primary objective of the present study was to explore young people's bowel cancer risk
144 appraisals, including whether they have a coherent understanding of the preventative
145 relationship between PA and bowel cancer. A secondary objective was to examine whether
146 the IRR Framework could help to understand beliefs underlying bowel cancer risk appraisals.
147 As far as we are aware, this is the first study that seeks to understand how young people
148 appraise their risk of bowel cancer and to explore people's beliefs about the relationship
149 between preventative behaviour and this disease. It is also the first qualitative study to
150 examine how well the IRR framework reflects the way in which assessments of illness risk
151 are made.

152

Method

Participants

155 To be eligible for participation, individuals had to be aged between 13-18 years old and to
156 have not been diagnosed with cancer themselves. In total, 19 young people aged 14-17 years

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157 old participated in this study (8 males and 11 females). The ethnicity of participants was as
158 follows: 13 White British, two Indian, two of mixed ethnicity, one Black Caribbean, and one
159 Asian other. Ten of the participants had known someone with cancer. In two cases this was a
160 parent; in all other cases this was a more distant family member or friend or a friend's parent.
161 Six of the participants only engaged in PA at school (approximately 2-3 hours a week). The
162 remaining participants reported that in addition to PA at school, they also played sport, or
163 took part in exercise classes or recreational activities such as walking. Participants were
164 recruited from three secondary schools located in Liverpool ($n = 5$), Birmingham ($n = 3$) and
165 London ($n = 11$). Two of the schools were comprehensive and one was a boy's grammar.
166 Sample size was determined pragmatically and aimed to include as many participants as was
167 feasible within time and financial constraints.

Materials and procedure

169 The study received institutional ethics approval prior to commencement. The head teacher at
170 each school provided their consent to allow teachers to provide eligible pupils with an
171 information sheet about the study. Pupils provided informed consent before participating.
172 Parental consent was obtained for those aged under 16 years ($n=9$).
173 A semi-structured interview schedule was developed by the research team to guide the
174 interviews. Some questions were designed to specifically elicit beliefs relating to each of the
175 five IRR components. Further questions were included to enable additional beliefs to be
176 explored. The schedule was structured to ensure that questions exploring participants
177 understanding of the physiological link between PA and bowel cancer were asked after all
178 questions exploring beliefs about the likelihood of illness. This was done to ensure, that
179 should participants not be aware of this link, that this new information did not influence the
180 appraisals of likelihood captured by this research. The schedule was piloted with six young

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181 people recruited through family and work colleagues of the authors. Minor amendments were
182 subsequently made. The finalised schedule is presented in supplementary file one.
183 The interviews were conducted in summer 2015 by five researchers (KN, TLW, AF, SM,
184 GP), all with experience of interviewing on sensitive subjects. Interviews were carried out in
185 a private room and lasted between 45 and 60 minutes. All interviews were recorded and
186 transcribed prior to analysis.

187 Analysis

188 The data were analysed using a deductive version of Framework Analysis in accordance with
189 Gale and colleagues (2013). An initial set of codes representing IRR beliefs was developed.
190 For example, for the component ‘consequences’, three codes to capture beliefs about death,
191 pain and the psychosocial consequences of cancer were formed. Three researchers (KN, CC,
192 and SM) independently coded three interview transcripts using the initial set of codes.
193 Additional codes were added if the content of the interview could not be captured by the
194 predetermined codes. The three researchers then met to discuss the initial coding. A few
195 minor changes were made at this point and an agreed set of codes was created. This set of
196 codes, known as the ‘analytical framework’, was then used by the team to code all of the
197 remaining interviews.

198 A framework matrix was created in Microsoft Excel. Participants’ responses were
199 summarised within relevant cells of the matrix and illustrative quotes were entered for each
200 cell. Two researchers (KN and AF) then independently interpreted the data, examining the
201 codes in detail across participants to identify themes. Following discussion, KN and AF came
202 to a shared interpretation of the findings which is presented below. Quotes are provided to
203 illustrate the themes and each quotation is followed by a code which represents the
204 participants’ gender and participant number.

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205 Detailed information about bowel cancer is provided in supplementary file two to
206 enable the reader to make comparisons to participants' responses.

207 **Findings**

208 Most but not all of the participants had heard of bowel cancer. Participants were however
209 vague about details of the disease and the language that they used indicated a degree of
210 uncertainty and guess work based on their existing understanding of the human body,
211 personal experiences, and messages from the media. In the section that follows, we present
212 participants beliefs with respect to the components of the IRR framework.

213 *Identity*

214 None of the participants reflected on personal characteristics that they felt put them at
215 increased risk of bowel cancer. Two participants (one male, one female) said that they
216 thought the disease was more likely to affect men than women; neither related this to their
217 own risk of bowel cancer.

218 *Cause*

219 The majority of participants knew that those with a family history of cancer were at increased
220 risk of cancer themselves. Almost all reported no cancer in their immediate family; a fact that
221 they used in part to explain their relatively low level of perceived vulnerability:

222 *And I don't know anyone in my family who's had cancer or bowel cancer, so I don't*
223 *think I've got that much of a chance that I'll get it (2M)*

224 Participants identified a number of behaviours that they believed increased or reduced the
225 risk of bowel cancer. In the former category was poor diet (e.g., eating too much sugar or salt,
226 over-eating, eating processed food/meat, fatty foods, acidic foods, or citric acid), smoking,
227 drinking alcohol, having a sedentary lifestyle, pollution, radiation, and chemicals (e.g. in
228 water or sanitary products). Behaviours deemed likely to reduce the risk of bowel cancer

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229 included healthy eating (e.g. eating fibre) and drinking water. Once again, participants
230 reflected on their own lifestyle behaviour as evidence of their reduced risk:

231 *Also I think being vegetarian I'm not eating a lot of red meat... overall I do take care*
232 *of my body. I try and drink a lot of water, and things. ... I'd say unlikely (11F)*

233 *I'd like to think I have more control, because I do put myself in a position where I'm*
234 *less susceptible to developing it, by staying fit and healthy, yeah (8F)*

235 A few participants when discussing lifestyle risks noted 'exceptions to the rule' such as
236 having a 'Grandma who smoked 60 cigarettes a day' who had 'nothing wrong with her', and
237 contrasted this with others who were young or lived an apparently healthy lifestyle but still
238 got cancer. This appeared to discredit messages about the efficacy of lifestyle changes.

239 Some participants talked about cancer being 'bad luck', 'chance', or a 'random event':

240 *It's just your cells doing something weird (3M)*

241 *With this mutation thing it can be anyone (8M)*

242 Overall, participants estimated that about 40-50% of incidences of bowel cancer were due to
243 hereditary factors or chance and 50-60% were due to lifestyle factors.

244 Participants were asked directly how they thought lifestyle behaviours were linked to bowel
245 cancer. Most found this question difficult to answer. Some participants suggested that the
246 cause might be to do with ingesting certain foods, particularly processed products:

247 *I'm tempted to say if it's stemmed from chemicals that are in certain processed foods,*
248 *things like that. Probably something to do with what we take in, because that's how I*
249 *see the only way it could affect the inside (7F)*

250 Some mentioned specifically that a lack of fibre may be responsible:

251 *So fibre is supposed to keep everything moving. So it prevents things building up and*
252 *causing cancer, bad things happening. So I guess that sort of diet (4F)*

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253 Other explanations included alcohol causing mutations, trauma to the bowel area, a blockage
254 in the bowel, or fat clogging up the veins that supply the bowel. Levels of PA did not feature
255 in any of the participants' accounts of how bowel cancer occurred.

256 Participants were then told by each interviewer that there was a link between PA and
257 bowel cancer and asked why this may be. All of the participants found it difficult to answer
258 this question. Some participants believed that exercise might keep the body in optimal
259 condition, making cancer less likely:

260 *It might obviously keep the cells healthy as well, and stop a mutation occurring (2M)*

261 Similarly some participants felt that a healthy body was more able to fight off cancerous cells
262 once formed:

263 *I think if you exercise and have a healthy lifestyle then your immune system is more*
264 *likely to be better and more equipped and it can deal with those cells more and that*
265 *sort of thing (8M)*

266 *It would probably help reduce it because obviously it keeps your cells healthy and*
267 *active. So if you've got a healthy body your cells keep regenerating... so that might*
268 *make it easier to fight it off and kill those cells that are mutated (1M)*

269 Participants also suggested that physical activity might improve digestion:

270 *Maybe to do with digestion again, just helping it all (2F)*

271 Finally, some participants thought that excess fat and obesity might account for the
272 relationship between PA and cancer risk:

273 *If you don't do enough exercise then, again, that's going to clog up your arteries*
274 *because you're eating too much and not burning off the fat (11F)*

Timeline

276 All participants believed that people got bowel cancer from late middle age (40-50 years)
277 onwards. This was put down to ageing cells which were 'deteriorating' and 'more likely to do

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278 *something stupid*. As such bowel cancer was seen as a problem for the future and not
279 something that young people would give much consideration to:

280 *I just feel like it affects older people more. So I don't have to worry now, but when I'm*
281 *older I might do (5F)*

282 *Once you get past about 40-ish, then that's when you should start concentrating on it,*
283 *thinking about it (4M)*

284 Some participants viewed other cancers, such as breast cancer, as more of a concern for
285 young people as these seemed to affect people throughout the adult lifespan. Despite the
286 participants believing that bowel cancer was a condition that mostly affects older people,
287 many could see the benefit of adopting a healthy lifestyle for cancer prevention from a young
288 age. Sometimes this related to putting good habits in place early, which would then benefit
289 them later:

290 *I don't think what I do now will affect my chance of getting cancer too much, but I do*
291 *think it will play a factor, because if you don't participate in much sport now, the*
292 *chances are you're not going to participate in sport when you're older (5M)*

293 *It's important to stay fit as a child because it will set you up, and it will obviously*
294 *reduce risks for the future.... If you exercise as a child more, then you have a stronger*
295 *body, which you can maintain more easily as an adult (2M)*

296 Other comments suggested that participants believed that behaviours have a cumulative effect
297 on the body:

298 *Just because we are younger doesn't really mean that what we do isn't going to affect*
299 *us. It isn't like a sudden age where it's like okay, everything you do from now is going*
300 *to affect you; it's kind of like a gradual thing (3F)*

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301 Some participants however, felt that preventative behaviours could be postponed until later in
302 life:

303 *Well, hopefully, I will make sure that when I get to whatever age it is, that it starts*
304 *being more of a risk, I will hopefully have already started to take better care of my*
305 *diet or exercise (10F)*

306 *Yes [what I do now affects my health in the future], like a bit, but I don't think it's*
307 *majorly important. Probably when you are 20 [It starts to become important].*

308 *Because when you get to that age, you've stopped growing and everything, haven't*
309 *you, so that's when you have to start looking after yourself properly (5F)*

310 ***Frequency of occurrence***

311 A number of participants made judgements about the likelihood of getting bowel cancer
312 based on beliefs about the prevalence of the disease. Participants judged the overall
313 likelihood of getting bowel cancer as low due to it receiving relatively little media attention
314 and because they had not heard of anyone with the disease:

315 *It [bowel cancer] wasn't, like, the first cancer that comes to-mind ...breast cancer*
316 *because it's so talked about and how often people have said that they don't expect to*
317 *get it and they do. I think that might be my biggest concern (11F)*

318 *I don't think that there's much, not publicity, but awareness about it [bowel cancer]. I*
319 *don't think I know anyone with it. Maybe it's less common. Or it might not be but I*
320 *just haven't heard about it much (3F)*

321 ***Consequences***

322 The majority of participants knew that bowel cancer, like all cancers, could be fatal:

323 *I think that [death] is what's going to happen if it doesn't get relieved or cured (7M)*

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324 Participants mentioned a number of symptoms including discomfort, or a change in bowel
325 habits and blood in stools:

326 *I know the symptoms of it are blood in your faeces and unusual bowel behaviour so*
327 *more diarrhoea or constipation (2M)*

328 The emotional impact of cancer was identified by many of the participants:

329 *I think obviously it would impact on people around me as well because they'd be*
330 *obviously very sad and stuff like that. And it would probably make life a lot harder*
331 *for them as well, dealing with somebody who has got cancer, probably a lot more*
332 *stressful, I can imagine (2M)*

333 *Well, it would, obviously, be a real strain, especially if it was quite difficult to treat,*
334 *or whatever, because obviously there isn't a cure, so they could die. So it would be a*
335 *massive strain on your family and friends (6F)*

336 One participant identified the potential for bowel cancer to affect mental health:

337 *I think you'd become, obviously, quite depressed, and rightly so. Quite depressed,*
338 *withdrawn, that would obviously affect your social life and your interaction with*
339 *others (8F)*

340 A number of participants also identified the financial implications of cancer:

341 *I suppose, and also financially, if I'm supporting a family when I'm older, then yes,*
342 *that's also a negative effect. I won't be able to support them anymore. ...Cancer in*
343 *general doesn't just affect the person with cancer (3M)*

344 *Control over Cure/Treatment*

345 Similarly to perceptions of likelihood, there was some indication that the relatively low media
346 and public profile of bowel cancer also affected participants' beliefs about whether bowel
347 cancer is treatable:

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348 *Bowel cancer is just something I don't really hear of commonly. I mean, I don't really*
349 *know exactly how it affects your body in any way, so probably not as serious (8F)*

350 When asked how bowel cancer would be treated, participants frequently listed surgery,
351 chemotherapy, and radiation. However, participants were not sure about the extent to which
352 bowel cancer could be treated and many commented that it would depend on how early the
353 cancer was identified.

354 Participants were asked which cancers they felt were most serious and where bowel cancer
355 fitted into that order. Pancreatic cancer was mentioned a number of times as being the most
356 serious because of the low chances of survival. Some cancers were identified as being more
357 serious than others because they affected a vital organ (e.g. the brain or lungs). For some, the
358 bowel was considered part of that group but others felt that the bowel was less vital and that
359 parts of the bowel could be fairly easily accessed and removed:

360 *It's because it's kind of... it's where all foods end up and that's where a lot of things*
361 *happen. I think it's probably quite a vital organ to your body. So it would be quite bad*
362 *(8M)*

363 *I feel like surgery would work better, especially because... the way I say this might*
364 *sound a bit weird, it's in quite a reachable place as well. It's not like too deep into the*
365 *body that you can't find the tumour. So I feel like it would work well (11F)*

366 The majority of participants felt that the only way to treat cancer was with conventional
367 medicine, and that without this, the disease would progress. A small number of participants
368 suggested that there was a chance that someone could get better without treatment:

369 *I think it's possible [that people with cancer can get better without treatment], but I*
370 *think the likelihood of survival is quite slim... I just think there's a chance because,*

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371 *before this treatment ever happened, people must have died quite a lot from cancer,*
372 *but I'm guessing some people may have survived (2M)*

373 None of the participants felt that alternative medicine or a healthy lifestyle could change the
374 course of bowel cancer once it was present. However, some participants did feel that these
375 could be beneficial in terms of managing the symptoms:

376 *I think if it was the early stages of the diagnosis and the stages of the cancer then*
377 *possibly [you could manage the symptoms with lifestyle behaviours], but if you are*
378 *talking about critical stages, no (6F)*

379 *I think it would probably work [to alleviate cancer symptoms], but it would probably*
380 *make it a bit easier to deal with, like eating healthily and physical activity. But*
381 *overall, I don't think you could deal with it [cancer] that way, it would be quite hard*
382 *to, yes (8M)*

383 **Discussion**

384 The present research found that young people consistently judged their risk of getting bowel
385 cancer to be low. This seemed to be based on their lack of a family history of cancer and their
386 current lifestyle behaviours (e.g., good diet, relatively high levels of PA), which were viewed
387 as being protective, or because they planned to change their lifestyle in the future when
388 disease risk became more relevant. While cancer was viewed as a serious and potentially fatal
389 illness, participants lacked knowledge about the effects of bowel cancer and it was not
390 considered distinct from other cancers in terms of severity. Furthermore, the success of
391 treatment for bowel cancer was unknown. Participants struggled to explain how levels of PA
392 contribute to bowel cancer risk, finding it easier to imagine harm occurring through direct
393 contact with a substance (e.g. unhealthy food).

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394 Beliefs underlying judgements about the risk of bowel cancer fitted the IRR
395 framework reasonably well. The beliefs expressed, and used to make assertions about
396 personal risk, were largely captured by the five illness risk representation components. In
397 particular, appraisals of likelihood were underpinned by beliefs about the 'Cause' of illness,
398 and appraisals of severity were underpinned by beliefs about illness 'Consequences'. Of
399 interest, however, and not captured by the framework, the relatively low media and public
400 profile of bowel cancer unhelpfully influenced participants' appraisals of their risk of getting
401 bowel cancer, it's lack of prominence led young people to conclude that bowel cancer cannot
402 be that common or serious.

403 The present research represents one of the first studies to try to understand the beliefs
404 underlying young people's appraisals of the risk of bowel cancer. IRR was used as a
405 framework for organising these beliefs, but we were also open to the possibility that
406 additional beliefs could influence judgments. The interview schedule was carefully prepared
407 and piloted with six young people prior to administration, and participants were drawn from
408 cities in south, central and northern England. Data were coded by three researchers, and
409 interpreted by two researchers, thus increasing the reliability and trustworthiness of the data
410 and the breadth of interpretation.

411 The findings should however be interpreted in the context of a number of potential
412 limitations. First, caution should be taken in generalising the findings given that the sample
413 was drawn from urban and sub-urban areas only. Second, interviewer effects may have
414 influenced responses. For example, many participants reported seeing the benefit of adopting
415 a healthy lifestyle for cancer prevention. However, this was in the context of the interviewer
416 having just explained that PA can help to reduce the risk of bowel cancer; and participants
417 may have felt uncomfortable disagreeing with this idea. It should also be acknowledged there
418 is the potential for information provided to participants during the interview on the link

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419 between PA and bowel cancer to have altered their beliefs about the risk of illness. Whilst the
420 structure of the interview schedule ensured that the provision of this new information would
421 not have influenced participants' beliefs about the likelihood of bowel cancer, there is the
422 potential for it to have influenced severity appraisals. Whilst we did not identify any direct
423 evidence of this, there is for example the possibility that this new information could have led
424 to defensive processing, and consequently for individuals who did not meet recommended
425 levels of PA to downplay the severity of the illness. Finally, the sample is limited to 19
426 participants. Data collection ceased on pragmatic grounds rather than when no new
427 information appeared to be obtained (i.e. saturation point). As such, care should be taken not
428 to overstate the findings. Whilst the themes from the initial interviews seemed to be
429 replicated in the later interviews, further interviews may have identified additional themes or
430 provided more nuanced explanations.

431 The beliefs that emerged reflect elements of the IRR framework as described by
432 Cameron (2003). In terms of likelihood, participants largely judged risk on the basis of their
433 beliefs about the Causes of bowel cancer. Beliefs about control over prevention were closely
434 linked with beliefs about cause. When talking about cause, participants reflected on lifestyle
435 behaviours that they believed reduced their likelihood of getting bowel cancer in the future.

436 The IRR component of Identity had little influence on likelihood appraisals. This is likely
437 because the features of individuals that increase the likelihood of bowel cancer, such as being
438 male or having conditions such as diabetes or ulcerative colitis, are not well known. In terms
439 of Timeline, whilst the age at which most people were affected by bowel cancer was an
440 important consideration for young people in this study, it did not affect perceptions of
441 likelihood per se but rather the relevance of the illness to the participants now as teenagers.
442 Of importance however, the distal nature of the illness led a number of participants to believe
443 that prevention efforts could be postponed until middle age and as such unfavourably

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444 influenced judgements about control over prevention. In terms of judgements of severity,
445 beliefs about the consequences of bowel cancer seemed to be taken into consideration
446 although these representations were not particularly rich and were largely based on
447 hypotheses and ideas rather than any lived experience. Control of cancer through its treatment
448 or cure, was deemed relevant to judgements of severity, but participants' knowledge of
449 treatments was relatively poor, thus undermining its potential influence. Participants also
450 seemed to judge the likelihood and severity of bowel cancer based on the (relatively low)
451 public and media profile of the disease. This suggests that appraisals are not solely made by
452 matching characteristics of the self with risk representation components.

453 The findings suggest a number of ways in which beliefs underlying young people's
454 appraisals of bowel cancer risk could be changed in order to motivate them to engage in
455 preventative behaviour. Previous attempts to manipulate appraisals of the likelihood of
456 getting bowel cancer have at times been unsuccessful (Courneya & Hellsten, 2001; Graham
457 et al., 2006) and have led to the conclusion that young people may be overly optimistic about
458 the likelihood of getting bowel cancer. Consistent with this idea, the present study found that
459 participants largely judged their likelihood of getting future bowel cancer to be low, and this
460 was rationalised in part by their engagement in preventative behaviour including PA. While
461 participants believed that their levels of PA were good and therefore protected them against
462 the risk of bowel cancer, when they were asked specifically about activities that they did in a
463 typical day or week, whilst this was not assessed using standardized measures, it was clear
464 that this fell short of the recommended levels for many. Whether this reflects a degree of
465 optimistic bias or simply a lack of knowledge about the amount or intensity of PA required to
466 offer protection is unclear but either way making this shortfall apparent to young people
467 might be advantageous. Previous studies have also struggled to manipulate perceptions of the
468 severity of bowel cancer (Graham et al., 2006; McGowan & Prapavessis, 2010). This has

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469 been attributed to a ceiling effect whereby those reaching adulthood are likely to have
470 experiences of cancer to draw upon and thereby judge severity as high. The present research
471 supports that. Participants' beliefs about the consequences of cancer in general and bowel
472 cancer specifically were not rich and did not reflect an appreciation of the full range of
473 psychosocial consequences and ramifications and this may be due to their age and
474 consequently more limited life experience. Helping young people to put themselves 'in the
475 shoes' of an older person diagnosed with bowel cancer may, therefore, be an effective
476 strategy for enhancing appraisals of severity.

477 There are a number of other implications for practice evident from the findings. As
478 discussed above, the age relevance of the illness appears to be important in motivating action.
479 Strategies which enable young people to visualise a future self and to perceive the benefits of
480 preventative behaviour now in reducing future risk would be beneficial. In addition,
481 encouraging individuals to reflect on the likelihood that they will begin or significantly
482 increase levels of PA in later life, and conveying that this would not fully compensate for
483 lack of PA in earlier life, would also be beneficial. There was some evidence that perceptions
484 of likelihood were undermined by knowledge of 'exceptions to the rule', such as those who
485 had smoked all their life but not got cancer. Providing young people with a clear explanation
486 of how factors relating to genetics, lifestyle and chance interplay to determine cancer risk
487 may help to prevent individuals refuting the contribution of lifestyle behaviour both in
488 contributing to and preventing cancer. It was clear from the findings that young people
489 struggled to understand how PA may relate to bowel cancer risk. The work of Bishop and
490 colleagues (2005) who studied women's understanding of the link between smoking and
491 cervical cancer, suggests that providing a coherent and common sense explanation of this
492 relationship could be important for motivating PA.

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493 In order to increase perceptions of the severity of bowel cancer, it may be important to
494 highlight that treatment for bowel cancer is more effective when presentation is early, than
495 for more advanced disease (see supplementary file two). Key to this is also explaining that it
496 is in the advanced stages when most people notice symptoms and therefore engage with
497 health care services. It may also be helpful to emphasise the essential role that the bowel
498 plays in normal human functioning and the daily consequences faced by those whose bowel
499 is diseased or has been removed.

500 Conclusions

501 The present research provides evidence that young people may underestimate their risk of
502 getting bowel cancer in the future. This finding suggests that interventions that manipulate
503 young adults' beliefs about the risk of bowel cancer may be successful in motivating
504 protective behaviour, such as promoting PA. The findings also attest to the importance of
505 providing young people with a coherent and logical explanation of how protective behaviours
506 such as PA work to reduce risk. The way in which young people in this study made
507 judgments about the risk of bowel cancer reflected elements of illness risk representations
508 described by Cameron (2003), providing support for the idea that this theoretical framework
509 could be useful in developing future interventions. Given the study sample size, additional
510 qualitative work of this nature is required to support and increase confidence in these
511 conclusions.

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