ORIGINAL ARTICLE – THORACIC ONCOLOGY

Annals of SURGICALONCOLOGY OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE SOCIETY OF SURGICAL ONCOLOGY

Check for updates

Influence of Race, Insurance, Rurality, and Socioeconomic Status on Equity of Lung and Colorectal Cancer Care

Mary M. Leech, BA¹, Julie E. Weiss, MS², Chad Markey, BA¹, and Andrew P. Loehrer, MD, MPH^{1,3,4}

¹The Geisel School of Medicine at Dartmouth, Hanover, NH; ²Norris Cotton Cancer Center, Lebanon, NH; ³Department of Surgery, Dartmouth-Hitchcock Medical Center, Lebanon, NH; ⁴The Dartmouth Institute for Health Policy and Clinical Practice, Lebanon, NH

ABSTRACT

Background. This study evaluated the influence that social determinants of health had on stage at diagnosis and receipt of cancer-directed surgery for patients with lung and colorectal cancer in the North Carolina Central Cancer Registry (2010–2015).

Methods. This study examined non-Hispanic uninsured or privately-insured patients 18 to 64 years of age. Multivariable logistic regression models, including two-way interaction terms, assessed the influence of race, insurance status, rurality, and Social Deprivation Index on stage at diagnosis and receipt of surgery.

Results. 6574 lung cancer patients and 5355 colorectal cancer patients were included. Among the lung cancer patients, the uninsured patients had higher odds of having stage IV disease (odds ratio [OR] = 1.46; 95 % confidence interval [CI] = 1.22-1.76) and lower odds of receiving surgery (OR = 0.48; 95 % CI = 0.34-0.69) than the privately-insured patients. Among the colorectal cancer patients, uninsured status was associated with higher odds of stage IV disease (OR = 1.53; 95 % CI = 1.17-2.00) than privately-insured status. A significant insurance status and rurality interaction (p = 0.03) was found in the colorectal model for receipt of surgery. In the privately-insured group, non-Hispanic Black and rural patients had lower odds of receiving colorectal surgery (OR = 0.69; 95 % CI = 0.50-0.94 and OR = 0.68; 95 % CI = 0.52-0.89;

© Society of Surgical Oncology 2022

First Received: 30 August 2021 Accepted: 13 November 2021; Published Online: 7 January 2022

M. M. Leech, BA e-mail: Mary.M.Leech.Med@dartmouth.edu respectively) than their non-Hispanic White and urban counterparts.

Conclusions. After controlling for confounding and evaluation of interactions between patient-, community-, and geographic-level factors, uninsured status remained the strongest driver of patients' presentation with late-stage lung and colorectal cancer. As policy and care delivery transformation targets uninsured and vulnerable populations, explicit recognition, and measurement of intersectionality should be considered.

Lung and colorectal cancer are the two most common causes of cancer-related death in the United States, yet particular populations consistently suffer from inequitable access to and receipt of indicated cancer care. Community-level structural factors including race, insurance status, rurality, and socioeconomic status (SES) are well-known barriers to receipt of accessible health care, including quality cancer care.^{1–4} For lung and colorectal cancer patients, this leads to delayed presentation and suboptimal treatment, with consequent implications for patient morbidity and mortality.^{5,6}

The inequities in cancer care across multiple domains including race, insurance status, geography, and SES have been well-described.^{7–10} Non-White cancer patients are less likely to receive cancer-directed surgery than White patients.^{7–9,11,12} Additionally, insurance status is associated with screening availability, time of disease presentation, and odds of treatment delays.^{10,13–15} Uninsured patients consequently are more likely to present with high tumor burden and late-stage or node-positive disease.^{5,16} Rural patients have fewer screening and treatment facilities available, resulting in later stage of disease at diagnosis, poorer surgical care, lower odds of receiving

chemoradiation, and higher mortality than their urban counterparts.^{17–21} Socioeconomic status is a final factor with demonstrated clinical consequences for cancer patients, who often require years of costly multidisciplinary treatment and follow-up care.^{9,12,22–24}

This study examined how lack of insurance particularly affected populations by evaluating the interaction between insurance status and social determinants of race, rurality, and Social Deprivation Index (SDI, used as a measure for SES). We hypothesized that non-Hispanic Black (vs non-Hispanic White), uninsured (vs privately-insured), rural (vs urban), and high SDI (vs low SDI) statuses were independently associated with higher odds of advanced disease at diagnosis and lower odds of receiving cancer-directed surgery for lung and colorectal cancer. Furthermore, we hypothesized that insurance coverage would have a differential impact on care delivery for non-White, rural, and high-SDI communities.

METHODS

Data from the North Carolina Central Cancer Registry (NCCCR) identified patients 18 to 64 years of age diagnosed with lung or colorectal cancer from 2010 to 2015. This dataset was used because of North Carolina's generalizability to the U.S. population more broadly. The demographic breakdown of both, based on race, ethnicity, income, education level, and economy, are quite similar.^{25,26} For further characterization of the population, excellent state data also were collected and converted into "hot spot" maps describing various social determinants of health by region.²⁷ The patients included in the study had either private insurance (employer or individually purchased) or no insurance (uninsured status or self-pay coverage).

Lung cancer was defined using International Classification of Diseases for Oncology, third edition (ICD-O-3)^{28,29} site codes C34.0 to C34.3, C34.8, and C34.9, and colorectal cancer was identified using the ICD-O-3 site codes C18.0, C18.1, C18.3 to C18.9, C19.9, and C20.9. The study excluded patients younger than 18 years or older than 65 years, and those with either Medicare or Medicaid coverage.

The NCCCR used standardized codes and definitions from the North American Association of Central Cancer Registries (NAACCR)³⁰ for stage at diagnosis, receipt of cancer-directed surgery, and other demographics including age at diagnosis, sex, race, insurance status, diagnosis year, ZIP code, census tract, and comorbidities.

The primary outcomes of the study were stage at diagnosis (Appendix 1), derived from the American Joint Committee on Cancer's seventh edition staging manual³¹ and receipt of cancer-directed surgery³² (Appendix 2). Stage was dichotomized as advanced for lung cancer at stage IV versus stages I to III and as advanced for colorectal cancer at stage IV versus stages 0 to III.

Among the non-metastatic patients, cancer-directed surgery was defined as the presence or absence of the most definitive surgical procedure or procedures to the primary site as part of the first course of treatment, not exclusively for palliative or diagnostic purposes, determined using CPT codes captured in the North Carolina Cancer Registry. Thoracic surgical procedures included lobectomy or bilobectomy, pneumonectomy, and resection of the lung. Colorectal surgical procedures included colectomy, total and partial plus resection, wedge or segmental resection, and proctocolectomy.

Distributions of patient demographics (n [%]) were reported for stage at diagnosis and receipt of cancer-directed surgery by cancer type. The SDI, a measure that compiled seven variables from the United States Census Bureau American Community Survey including income, employment, housing, education, and transportation was used to estimate community-level SES. The SDI was determined at the geographic level of the census tract,³³ with higher scores indicating higher degrees of community-level socioeconomic deprivation. A dichotomous SDI was defined from the data quartiles as high (Q4:76-100) versus low (Q1-Q3:1-75). Rural-urban commuting area (RUCA)³⁴ ZIP level data secondary codes were used for rural (4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0, 7.2, 8.0, 8.2, 9.0, 10.0, 10.2, 10.3) and urban (1.0, 1.1, 2.0, 2.1, 3.0, 4.1, 5.1, 7.1, 8.1, 10.1) location. Merged with the NCCCR data, the RUCA codes and SDI defined patient geographic location (rural vs urban) and community-level socioeconomic deprivation.

All models were adjusted for age at time of diagnosis, sex, year of diagnosis, and comorbidities. The patient Elixhauser Comorbidity Index (ECI) was calculated using NCCCR's comorbid/complication diagnosis codes and the Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project software, then dichotomized as 0 or 1+.³⁵ Additional variables in the NCCCR included insurance coverage at the time of diagnosis, race, and ethnicity.

Separate lung and colorectal cancer multivariable logistic regression models assessed the influence of race, insurance, rurality, and SDI on stage at diagnosis and cancer-directed surgery. Models were adjusted for age at diagnosis, sex, diagnosis year, and comorbidities and included two-way interactions among race, insurance, rurality, and SDI. The cancer-directed surgery models included patients with non-metastatic lung or colorectal cancer and were adjusted for stage.

Stratified analyses were conducted for significant interactions. Results are presented as odds ratios (OR) with 95 % confidence intervals (CI), and analyses were performed in SAS.³⁶ Given the public availability and de-identified nature of the data in the NCCCR dataset, the study was exempt from institutional review board review.

RESULTS

Our final analytic cohort comprised 11,929 patients, including 6574 patients with lung cancer and 5355 patients with colorectal cancer (Fig. 1). The lung cancer patients were older (68.6 % were 55 to 64 years old), and 33 % reported comorbidities (Table 1). In this group, 51.9 % were male, 17.9 % were non-Hispanic Black, 18.7 % were uninsured, 25.2 % resided in rural areas, and 22.4 % resided in communities of the highest SDI quartile.

The colorectal cancer patients were younger (52.2 % were <55 years old), and 22.6 % reported comorbidities (Table 1). In this group, 53.9 % were male, 22.0 % were non-Hispanic Black, 12.8 % were uninsured, 24.4 % resided in rural areas, and 22.3 % resided in communities of highest SDI quartile. Of the 6574 lung cancer patients, 52 % (n = 3416) had a diagnosis of stage IV disease. Cancer-directed surgery was performed for 50.8 % (n = 1603) of the patients with non-metastatic lung cancer. The uninsured patients were more likely to have a stage IV disease diagnosis than those with private insurance (OR = 1.46; 95 % CI = 1.22–1.76; Table 2). The uninsured patients with non-metastatic lung cancer were less likely to receive surgery than the privately-insured patients (OR = 0.48; 95 % CI = 0.34–0.69; Table 2). No significant two-way interactions were found for lung cancer stage or receipt of surgery.

Among the 5355 patients with colorectal cancer, 23.7 % (n = 1269) had a diagnosis of with stage IV disease (Table 1). Uninsured patients were more likely to be diagnosed with stage IV disease than privately-insured patients (OR = 1.53; 95 % CI = 1.17–2.00; Table 3). No significant two-way interactions were found for colorectal cancer stage.

Of those diagnosed with non-metastatic colorectal cancer (n = 4086), 84.5 % received cancer-directed surgery (Table 1). A significant interaction was found in the nonmetastatic colorectal cancer-directed surgery model



TABLE 1 Patier	nt characteristic	cs among 11,929	patients with lun	g or colorectal car	ncer (2010–2015) b	y stage and ca	ncer-directed surge	ery		
	Lung					Colorectal				
		Stage $(n = 657^2)$	4)	Cancer-directed 3158)	surgery ¹ ($n =$		Stage $(n = 5355)$		Cancer-directed 4086)	surgery ^a ($n =$
Characteristic ^b	Total $(n = 6574)$ n (%)	1-3(n = 3158, 48 %) n (row %)	$4 \ (n = 3416, 52.0 \ \%)$	No (<i>n</i> = 1555, 49.2 %)	Yes (<i>n</i> = 1603, 50.8 %)	Total $(n = 5355)$ n (%)	$\begin{array}{l} 0-3 \ (n=4086, \\ 76.3 \ \%) \\ n \ (row \ \%) \end{array}$	$4 \ (n = 1269, 23.7 \ \%)$	No $(n = 634, 15.5 \%)$	Yes (<i>n</i> = 3452, 84.5 %)
Age (years)										
18-44	287 (4.4)	134 (46.7)	153 (53.3)	43 (32.1)	91 (67.9)	830 (15.5)	619 (74.6)	211 (25.4)	88 (14.2)	531 (85.8)
4554	1778 (27.0)	828 (46.6)	950 (53.4)	395 (47.7)	433 (52.3)	1966 (36.7)	1512 (76.9)	454 (23.1)	241 (15.9)	1271 (84.1)
55-64	4509 (68.6)	2196 (48.7)	2313 (51.3)	1117 (50.9)	1,079 (49.1)	2559 (47.8)	1955 (76.4)	604 (23.6)	305 (15.6)	1650 (84.4)
Sex										
Male	3414 (51.9)	1550 (45.4)	1864 (54.6)	846 (54.6)	704 (45.4)	2886 (53.9)	2201 (76.3)	685 (23.7)	340 (15.4)	1861 (84.6)
Female	3160 (48.1)	1608 (0.9)	1552 (49.1)	709 (44.1)	899 (55.9)	2469 (46.1)	1885 (76.3)	584 (23.7)	294 (15.6)	1591 (84.4)
Race/ethnicity										
NH White	5348 (82.1)	2586 (48.4)	2762 (51.6)	1254 (48.5)	1332 (51.5)	4138 (78.0)	3167 (76.5)	971 (23.5)	450 (14.2)	2717 (85.8)
NH Black	1169 (17.9)	545 (46.6)	624 (53.4)	287 (52.7)	258 (47.3)	1168 (22.0)	876 (75.0)	292 (25.0)	174 (19.9)	702 (80.1)
Diagnosis year										
2010	1046 (15.9)	496 (47.4)	550 (52.6)	233 (46.0)	263 (53.0)	753 (14.1)	578 (76.8)	175 (23.2)	87 (15.1)	491 (84.9)
2011	1094 (16.6)	551 (50.4)	543 (49.6)	268 (48.6)	283 (51.4)	825 (15.4)	638 (77.3)	187 (22.7)	79 (12.4)	559 (87.6)
2012	1045 (15.9)	497 (47.6)	548 (52.4)	226 (45.5)	271 (54.5)	855 (16.0)	646 (75.6)	209 (24.4)	95 (14.7)	551 (85.3)
2013	1136 (17.3)	546 (48.1)	590 (51.9)	296 (54.2)	250 (45.8)	920 (17.2)	700 (76.1)	220 (23.9)	103 (14.7)	597 (85.3)
2014	1089 (16.6)	517 (47.5)	572 (52.5)	256 (49.5)	261 (50.5)	956 (17.8)	733 (76.7)	223 (23.3)	138 (18.8)	595 (81.2)
2015	1164 (17.7)	551 (47.3)	613 (52.7)	276 (50.1)	275 (49.9)	1046 (19.5)	791 (75.6)	255 (24.4)	132 (16.7)	659 (85.3)
Stage										
0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	77 (1.4)	77 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	50 (64.9)	27 (35.1)
1	1149 (17.5)	1149 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	238 (20.7)	911 (79.3)	1285 (24.0)	1285 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	421 (32.8)	864 (67.2)
2	547 (8.3)	547 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	132 (24.1)	415 (75.9)	1131 (21.1)	1131 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	70 (6.2)	1061 (93.8)
3	1462 (22.2)	1462 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	1185 (81.0)	277 (19.0)	1593 (29.8)	1593 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	93 (5.8)	1500 (94.2)
4	3416 (52.0)	0 (0.0)	3416 (100.0)	NA	NA	1269 (23.7)	0 (0.0)	1,269 (100.0)	NA	NA
ECI										
0	4408 (67.0)	2106 (47.8)	2302 (52.2)	1025 (49.0)	1075 (51.0)	4145 (77.4)	3199 (77.2)	946 (22.8)	525 (16.4)	2674 (83.6)
1 +	2166 (33.0)	1052 (48.6)	1114 (51.4)	524 (49.8)	528 (50.2)	1210 (22.6)	887 (73.3)	323 (26.7)	109 (12.3)	778 (87.7)
Race/ethnicity										
NH White	5348 (82.1)	2586 (48.4)	2762 (51.6)	1254 (48.5)	1332 (51.5)	4138 (78.0)	3167 (76.5)	971 (23.5)	450 (14.2)	2717 (85.8)
NH Black	1169 (17.9)	545 (46.6)	624 (53.4)	287 (52.7)	258 (47.3)	1168 (22.0)	876 (75.0)	292 (25.0)	174 (19.9)	702 (80.1)

Demographic Influences on Surgical Oncology

р
e
<u>n</u>
·=
Ē
0
્ઝ
-
-
<u> </u>
ē
a
<u> </u>

	Lung					Colorectal				
		Stage $(n = 6574)$	(1	Cancer-directed 3158)	surgery ¹ ($n =$		Stage $(n = 5355)$		Cancer-directed 4086)	surgery ^a $(n =$
Characteristic ^b	Total $(n = 6574)$ n (%)	1-3(n = 3158,48 %)n (row %)	$4 \ (n = 3416, 52.0 \ \%)$	No (<i>n</i> = 1555, 49.2 %)	Yes (<i>n</i> = 1603, 50.8 %)	Total $(n = 5355)$ n (%)	$\begin{array}{l} 0-3 \ (n=4086, \\ 76.3 \ \%) \\ n \ (\mathrm{row} \ \%) \end{array}$	$4 \ (n = 1269, 23.7 \ \%)$	No $(n = 634, 15.5\%)$	Yes (<i>n</i> = 3452, 84.5 %)
Insurance										
Private	5348 (81.4)	2678 (50.1)	2670 (49.9)	1242 (46.4)	1436 (53.6)	4669 (87.2)	3598 (77.1)	1071 (22.9)	554 (15.4)	3044 (84.6)
Uninsured/self-	1226 (18.6)	480 (39.2)	746 (60.8)	313 (65.2)	167 (34.8)	686 (12.8)	488 (71.1)	198 (28.9)	80 (16.4)	408 (83.1)
pay										
Geography										
Urban	4848 (74.8)	2366 (48.8)	2482 (51.2)	1134 (47.9)	1232 (52.1)	3978 (75.6)	3036 (76.3)	942 (23.7)	461 (15.2)	2575 (84.8)
Rural	1632 (25.2)	747 (45.8)	885 (54.2)	398 (53.3)	349 (46.7)	1282 (24.4)	972 (75.8)	310 (24.2)	162 (16.7)	810 (83.3)
SDI										
Q1-3 (1-75)	5024 (77.6)	2431 (48.4)	2593 (51.6)	1168 (48.1)	1263 (51.9)	4084 (77.7)	3089 (75.6)	995 (24.4)	105 (13.6)	668 (86.4)
Q4 (76–100)	1451 (22.4)	679 (48.0)	772 (53.2)	362 (53.3)	317 (46.7)	1173 (22.3)	917 (78.2)	256 (21.8)	156 (17.0)	761 (83.0)
NH, non-Hispanic	;; NA, Not Ap	plicable; ECI, Eli	ixhauser Comorb	idity Index; SDI, 5	Social Deprivation	Index; Q, quar	tile			
^a Cancer-directed	surgery among	g patients with no.	n-metastatic cano	ter						

^bMissing: race (lung = 57; colorectal = 49); rurality (lung = 94; colorectal = 95); Social Deprivation Index (lung = 99; colorectal = 98)

 TABLE 2
 Multivariable
logistic regression models^a for lung cancer by stage and receipt of cancer-directed surgery

Characteristic	Advanced stage at diagnosis OR (95 % CI)	Receipt of cancer-directed surgery
Non-Hispanic Black ^b	1.17 (0.96–1.42)	0.87 (0.61–1.24)
Uninsured ^c	1.46 (1.22–1.76)	0.48 (0.34–0.69)
Rural ^d	1.16 (0.99–1.34)	0.78 (0.59–1.01)
High SDI ^e	1.11 (0.92–1.33)	0.75 (0.54–1.04)

NOS, Not Otherwise Specified; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; SDI, Social Deprivation Index; Q1-3, quartiles 1-3

^aModels adjusted for age at diagnosis, sex, comorbidities, and year of diagnosis.

Additionally, the cancer-directed surgery model adjusted for stage.

^{b-e}Reference groups: non-Hispanic White, privately-insured, urban, and SDI Q1-3 (1-75), respectively.

TABLE 3 Multivariable logistic regression models^a for colorectal cancer by stage, and among those with private insurance, receipt of cancerdirected surgery

		Receipt of cancer-directed surgery	
Characteristic	Advanced stage at diagnosis OR (95 % CI)	Uninsured	Privately-Insured
Non-Hispanic Black ^b	1.16 (0.93–1.44)	0.67 (0.29–1.51)	0.69 (0.50-0.94)
Uninsured ^c	1.53 (1.17-2.00)	_	_
Rural ^d	0.98 (0.81-1.19)	1.60 (0.64-4.01)	0.68 (0.52-0.89)
High SDI ^e	0.93 (0.73–1.19)	1.09 (0.43–2.76)	0.91 (0.64–1.29)

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; SDI, Social Deprivation Index; Q1-3, quartiles 1-3

^aModels adjusted for age at diagnosis, sex, comorbidities, and year of diagnosis; additionally, the cancerdirected surgery model adjusted for stage

^{b-e}Reference groups: non-Hispanic White, privately-insured, urban, and SDI Q1-3 (1-75), respectively.

between insurance and rurality (p = 0.03). Among privately-insured patients, those in rural areas were less likely to receive surgery than their urban counterparts (OR, 0.68; 95 % CI, 0.52–0.89; Table 3), and the non-Hispanic Black patients were less likely to receive surgery for colorectal cancer than the non-Hispanic White patients (OR, 0.69; 95 % CI, 0.50–0.94; Table 3).

DISCUSSION

Lung and colorectal cancer are the leading causes of cancer-related death in the United States, yet this burden is not experienced equally across society. This study found that insurance status had the largest effect on differences in stage at diagnosis and receipt of surgery. Among the lung cancer patients, uninsured patients were less likely to receive cancer-directed surgery than those with private insurance. Among the colorectal cancer patients and within the privately-insured group, there were persistent disparities by race and rurality.

These findings demonstrate the consequences of singular and combined community-level demographics. They emphasize the critical importance of insurance status to cancer diagnosis and management, and they foreshadow the potential clinical impact of policies that target uninsured patients. If lacking insurance augments existing disparities, then improving insurance access and affordability has the potential to combat them. Prior work has shown that increased access to care through expanded insurance coverage is associated with earlier presentation and improved surgical management for a variety of cancers.^{37–40} However, further studies are needed to determine whether these data are generalizable across the country and between communities of differing geographic or socioeconomic characteristics.

Importantly, a nuanced interpretation of these data shows that insurance expansion is not a panacea for variable access to healthcare and that disparities persist even within the privately-insured population. This suggests that beyond insurance status, race and rurality pose additional barriers to receipt of optimal cancer care delivery. These findings may highlight the reach of structural racism and the need for critical evaluations of heterogeneous social determinants among differing populations and communities.

These findings align with existing literature describing independent drivers of cancer care inequities. Prior work has shown that uninsured patients seeking medical treatment are charged more for care²³ and tend to have diagnoses of more advanced disease.^{5,16} Socioeconomic status generally parallels insurance status, with more than 80 % of uninsured patients having a household income below 400 % of the federal poverty line.²³ Additionally, trends in SES mirror trends in poor diet, smoking, reduced physical activity, decreased rates of cancer screening, and higher cancer-related mortality.^{24,41} Moreover, Black patients are less likely to receive cancer-directed surgery,^{7,8} and when they do, Black patients experience increased mortality, even after adjusting for patient-level differences.⁹ The clinical consequences of structural, interpersonal, and intrapersonal racism that contribute to differences in surgical care are dire for non-White patients, with reduced 5-year survival compared with White Americans.^{8,12,42} Finally, previous study has described the impact of geography on surgical oncology, with a tendency of high-volume centers with lower procedural mortality rates to be located in urban areas.43,44

The limitations of this study included but were not limited to the exclusion of ethnicity. The Hispanic population was likely underestimated in the study cohort (4.3 %, Fig. 1) and therefore would not reflect the underlying Hispanic population in North Carolina (9.8 %).⁴⁵ By comparison, the study populations of non-Hispanic White and Black patients more closely correlated with both state and national demographics, so we elected to limit our analysis to those two groups. Our analysis excluded individuals with Medicaid coverage. North Carolina did not elect to expand Medicaid eligibility in conjunction with the Affordable Care Act. Therefore, individuals with Medicaid coverage in North Carolina represent especially poor parents of children (<41 % of the federal poverty limit for a family of three), with childless or single adults notably ineligible for Medicaid regardless of their income.⁴⁶ Finally, our study excluded individuals older than 65 years and patients younger than 65 years with Medicare due to the unique structure of the Medicare insurance program. Although cancer is more common in the aging population, we felt that the low barriers to entry, significantly reduced copays, and other aspects of Medicare make the programits beneficiaries-different enough from other insurance programs and patients that these groups could not be considered together. Furthermore, younger patients with Medicare represent a unique group with either end-stage renal disease or significant disability, limiting comparisons with other cancer patients who had no Medicare coverage.

This study demonstrated the multiple—and at times, intersecting—factors, specifically the impact of insurance status associated with stage at the time of diagnosis and care for lung and colorectal cancer patients. Understanding how social determinants including race, insurance status, SES, and rurality influence cancer diagnosis and subsequent surgical treatment will be critical in urging leaders to reform health policy and delivery to incorporate broad population-level factors. Given the common, costly, and morbid nature of cancer, consideration of racial parity, increased health insurance coverage, geographic access to care, and poverty reduction likely will play an important role in improving equity of cancer care in the United States.

APPENDIX 1

Definition for cancer stage^a Derived AJCC-7 stage GRP NAACCR item no. 3430

Code	Description	Stage
000	Stage 0	0
010	Stage 0a	0
020	Stage Ois	0
100	Stage 1	1
110	Stage 1NOS	1
120	Stage 1A	1
130	Stage 1A1	1
140	Stage 1A2	1
121	Stage 1A NOS	1
150	Stage 1B	1
160	Stage 1B1	1
170	Stage 1B2	1
151	Stage 1B NOS	1
180	Stage 1C	1
190	Stage 1S	1
300	Stage 2	2
310	Stage 2 NOS	2
320	Stage 2A	2
321	Stage 2A NOS	2
322	Stage 2A1	2
323	Stage 2A NOS	2
330	Stage 2B	2
340	Stage 2C	2
500	Stage 3	3
510	Stage 3 NOS	3
520	Stage 3A	3
530	Stage 3B	3
540	Stage 3C	3
541	Stage 3C1	3
542	Stage 3C2	3
700	Stage 4	4
710	Stage 4 NOS	4
720	Stage 4A	4
730	Stage 4B	4
740	Stage 4C	4

Code	Description	Stage
888	Not applicable	9
900	Stage occult	9
999	Stage Unknown	9

^aDerived from the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC)-7 Stage Group Crosswalk (https://seer.cancer.gov/data-software/docu mentation/seerstat/nov2018/TextData.FileDescription.pdf, accessed 7/15/2020)

APPENDIX 2

Definition for cancer-directed surgery

Code	Surgical procedure of primary site (NAACCR #1290) ^a	Cancer- directed surgery
00	None; no surgery of primary site; autopsy ONLY	No
10–19	Local tumor destruction, NOS	No
20-80	Site-specific codes ^b	Yes
90	Surgery, NOS	No
99	Unknown whether surgery was performed; death certificate ONLY	No

^aRetrieved 10 July 2020 at https://www.facs.org/~/media/files/qua lity%20programs/cancer/ncdb/store_manual_2018.ashx, pages 468–470, Appendix B: site-specific surgery codes

^bAdditional site-specific codes for lung and colorectal cancer coded as "No" for cancer-directed surgery:

Lung

22 Segmental resection, including lingulectomy

23 Excision, NOS

24 Laser excision

Colorectal

- 20 Local tumor excision, NOS
- 27 Excisional biopsy
- 26 Polypectomy, NOS
- 28 Polypectomy-endoscopic
- 29 Polypectomy-surgical excision
- Any combination of 20 or 26-29 WITH
- 21 Photodynamic therapy (PDT)
- 22 Electrocautery
- 23 Cryosurgery
- 24 Laser ablation
- 25 Laser excision

DISCLOSURE There are no conflicts of interests.

REFERENCES

- Bierman AS, Dunn JR. Swimming upstream: access, health outcomes, and the social determinants of health. J Gen Intern Med. 2006;21:99–100. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1525-1497.2005. 00317.x.PMID:16423133;PMCID:PMC1484628.
- Dean LT, Gehlert S, Neuhouser ML, Oh A, Zanetti K, Goodman M, et al. Social factors matter in cancer risk and survivorship. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2018;29:611–8. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s10552-018-1043-y (Epub 30 May 2018. PMID: 29846844; PMCID: PMC5999161).
- Blair A, Datta GD. Associations between area-level deprivation, rural residence, physician density, screening policy, and latestage colorectal cancer in Canada. *Cancer Epidemiol.* 2020;64:101654. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canep.2019.101654 (Epub 11 December 2019 PMID: 31837534).
- Kurani SS, McCoy RG, Lampman MA, Doubeni CA, Finney Rutten LJ, Inselman JW, et al. Association of neighborhood measures of social determinants of health with breast, cervical, and colorectal cancer screening rates in the US. *Midwest JAMA Netw Open.* 2020;3:e200618. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetwor kopen.2020.0618 (PMID: 32150271; PMCID: PMC7063513).
- Coburn N, Fulton J, Pearlman DN, Law C, DiPaolo B, Cady B. Treatment variation by insurance status for breast cancer patients. *Breast J.* 2008;14:128–34. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1524-4741.2 007.00542.x (PMID: 18315690).
- Pasch JA, MacDermid E, Velovski S. Effect of rurality and socioeconomic deprivation on presentation stage and long-term outcomes in patients undergoing surgery for colorectal cancer. *ANZ J Surg.* 2021;91:1569–74. https://doi.org/10.1111/ans.16734 (Epub 1 April 2021 PMID: 33792127).
- Gross CP, Smith BD, Wolf E, Andersen M. Racial disparities in cancer therapy: did the gap narrow between 1992 and 2002? *Cancer*. 2008;112:900–8. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.23228.
- Hines RB, Markossian TW. Differences in late-stage diagnosis, treatment, and colorectal cancer-related death between rural and urban African Americans and whites in Georgia. *J Rural Health.* 2012;28:296–305. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-0361.2011.003 90.x (Epub 24 August 2011 PMID: 22757954).
- Du XL, Lin CC, Johnson NJ, Altekruse S. Effects of individuallevel socioeconomic factors on racial disparities in cancer treatment and survival: findings from the National Longitudinal Mortality Study, 1979–2003. *Cancer.* 2011;117:3242–51. http s://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.25854 (Epub 24 January 2011. PMID: 21264829. PMCID: PMC3090714).
- Halpern MT, Ward EM, Pavluck AL, Schrag NM, Bian J, Chen AY. Association of insurance status and ethnicity with cancer stage at diagnosis for 12 cancer sites: a retrospective analysis. *Lancet Oncol.* 2008;9:222–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-20 45(08)70032-9 (Epub 20 February 2008 PMID: 18282806).
- Nelson A. Unequal treatment: confronting racial and ethnic disparities in health care. J Natl Med Assoc. 2002;94:666–8.
- Ward E, Jemal A, Cokkinides V, Singh GK, Cardinez C, Ghafoor A, Thun M. Cancer disparities by race/ethnicity and socioeconomic status. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2004;54:78–93. https://doi.org/ 10.3322/canjclin.54.2.78 (PMID: 15061598).
- Sommers BD, Blendon RJ, Orav EJ, Epstein AM. Changes in utilization and health among low-income adults after Medicaid expansion or expanded private insurance. *JAMA Intern Med.* 2016;176:1501–9. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2016. 4419.
- Sommers BD, Gawande AA, Baicker K. Health insurance coverage and health: what the recent evidence tells us. *N Engl J Med.* 2017;377:586–93. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMsb1706645 (Epub 21 January 2017 PMID: 28636831).

- Ayanian JZ, Kohler BA, Abe T, Epstein AM. The relation between health insurance coverage and clinical outcomes among women with breast cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 1993;329:326–31. h ttps://doi.org/10.1056/NEJM199307293290507 (PMID: 8321261).
- Kuzmiak CM, Haberle S, Padungchaichote W, Zeng D, Cole E, Pisano ED. Insurance status and the severity of breast cancer at the time of diagnosis. *Acad Radiol.* 2008;15:1255–8. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.acra.2008.04.011 (PMID: 18790396).
- Tatalovich Z, Zhu L, Rolin A, Lewis DR, Harlan LC, Winn DM. Geographic disparities in late-stage breast cancer incidence: results from eight states in the United States. *Int J Health Geogr.* 2015;14:31. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12942-015-0025-5.PMID:2 6497363;PMCID:PMC4619382.
- Chow CJ, Al-Refaie WB, Abraham A, Markin A, Zhong W, Rothenberger DA, et al. Does patient rurality predict quality colon cancer care? A population-based study. *Dis Colon Rectum*. 2015;58:415–22. https://doi.org/10.1097/DCR.0000000000001 73.PMID:25751798;PMCID:PMC4356018.
- Nfonsam VN, Vijayasekaran A, Pandit V, Vera E, Aziz H, Nzuonkwelle S, Ohlson E, DiGiovanni RM, Jandova J. Patients diagnosed with colorectal cancer in rural areas in Arizona typically present with higher stage disease. J Gastrointest Dig Syst. 2015;5:346. https://doi.org/10.4172/2161-069X.1000346.
- Johnson AM, Hines RB, Johnson JA III, Bayakly AR. Treatment and survival disparities in lung cancer: the effect of social environment and place of residence. *Lung Cancer*. 2014;83:401–7. h ttps://doi.org/10.1016/j.lungcan.2014.01.008 (Epub 18 January 2014 PMID: 24491311).
- Zahnd WE, Fogleman AJ, Jenkins WD. Rural-urban disparities in stage of diagnosis among cancers with preventive opportunities. *Am J Prev Med.* 2018;54:688–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.amepre.2018.01.021 (Epub 15 March 2018 PMID: 29550163).
- 22. Singh GK, Miller BA, Hankey BF, Edwards BK. Area Socioeconomic Variations in U.S. Cancer Incidence, Mortality, Stage, Treatment, and Survival, 1975–1999. NCI Cancer Surveillance Monograph Series, no. 4. NIH publication no. 03-5417. National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, 2003.
- 23. Tolbert J, Orgera K, Damico A. Key facts about the uninsured population. Kaiser Family Foundation. 6 November 2020. Retrieved 18 October 2020 at https://www.kff.org/uninsured/iss ue-brief/key-facts-about-the-uninsured-population/.
- Penson DF, Stoddard ML, Pasta DJ, Lubeck DP, Flanders SC, Litwin MS. The association between socioeconomic status, health insurance coverage, and quality of life in men with prostate cancer. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2001;54:350–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/ s0895-4356(00)00312-7 (PMID: 11297885).
- QuickFacts: North Carolina. United States Census Bureau. Retrieved 11 October 2021 at https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/ NC.
- QuickFacts: United States. United States Census Bureau. Retrieved 11 October 2021 at https://www.census.gov/quickfac ts/fact/table/US/PST045219.
- North Carolina Social Determinants of Health by Regions. NC State Center for Health Statistics. Retrieved 11 October 2021 at h ttps://arcg.is/9bbHr.
- Fritz A, Percy C, Jack A, Shanmugaratnam K, Sobin L, Parkin DM, Whelan S. International classification of diseases for encology: ICD-0. World Health Organization. ed 3, 1st revision. Retrieved July 7, 2020 at https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/hand le/10665/96612/9789241548496_eng.pdf.
- SEER ICD-0-3 coding materials archive. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health. 2001. Retrieved July 7, 2020 at https://seer.cancer.gov/archive/icd-o-3/.

- North American Association of Central Cancer Registries Data Dictionary. Retrieved 10 July 2020 at http://datadictionary.naacc r.org/default.aspx?c=10&Version=21#sources.
- SEER Research Data Record Description: Cases Diagnosed in 1975–2016. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health. April 2019. Retrieved 10 July 2020 at https://seer.cancer.gov/data-software/documentation/seerstat/n ov2018/TextData.FileDescription.pdf.
- 32. American College of Surgeons Commission on Cancer. Standards for Oncology Registry Entry 2018 Appendix B: Site-Specific Surgery Codes, 468–470, 2020. Retrieved 10 July 2020 https:// www.facs.org/~/media/files/quality%20programs/cancer/ncdb/s tore_manual_2018.ashx.
- Social Deprivation Index (SDI). Robert Graham Center. Retrieved 10 July 2020 at https://www.graham-center.org/rgc/ma ps-data-tools/sdi/social-deprivation-index.html/ACS2015_CTallv ars.xlsx.
- 34. Economic Research Service. Rural-Urban Commuting Area Codes. United States Department of Agriculture. Retrieved 20 August 20 at https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/rural-urban -commuting-area-codes/.
- Elixhauser Comorbidity Software, version 3.7. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. Retrieved 20 August 2020 at h ttps://www.hcup-us.ahrq.gov/toolssoftware/comorbidity/comorbi dity.jsp.
- SAS 9.4 System Options: Reference. SAS Institute Inc. 2nd ed; 2011.
- 37. Eguia E, Cobb AN, Kothari AN, Molefe A, Afshar M, Aranha GV, Kuo PC. Impact of the Affordable Care Act (ACA) Medicaid expansion on cancer admissions and surgeries. *Ann Surg.* 2018;268:584–90. https://doi.org/10.1097/SLA. 000000000002952.
- 38. Wright BJ, Conlin AK, Allen HL, Tsui J, Carlson MJ, Li HF. What does Medicaid expansion mean for cancer screening and prevention? Results from a randomized trial on the impacts of acquiring Medicaid coverage. *Cancer*. 2016;122:791–7. https://d oi.org/10.1002/cncr.29802 (Epub 9 December 2015. PMID: 26650571; PMCID: PMC6193753).
- Le Blanc JM, Heller DR, Friedrich A, Lannin DR, Park TS. Association of Medicaid expansion under the Affordable Care Act with breast cancer stage at diagnosis. *JAMA Surg.* 2020. h ttps://doi.org/10.1001/jamasurg.2020.1495 (Epub 1 July 2020).
- 40. Takvorian SU, Oganisian A, Mamtani R, Mitra N, Shulman LN, Bekelman JE, Werner RM. Association of Medicaid expansion under the Affordable Care Act with insurance status, cancer stage, and timely treatment among patients with breast, colon, and lung cancer. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2020;3:e1921653. https://doi. org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2019.21653 (PMID: 32074294).
- Singh GK, Miller BA, Hankey BF, Edwards BK. Area Socioeconomic Variations in U.S. Cancer Incidence, Mortality, Stage, Treatment, and Survival, 1975–1999. NCI Cancer Surveillance Monograph Series, no. 4. NIH publication no. 03-5417. National Cancer Institute Bethesda, MD, 2003.
- Jones, CP. Systems of power, axes of inequity: parallels, intersections, braiding the strands. *Medical Care*. 2014;52:S71–5. Retrieved 27 June 2021 at from http://www.jstor.org/stable/ 24465890.
- Begg CB, Cramer LD, Hoskins WJ, Brennan MF. Impact of hospital volume on operative mortality for major cancer surgery. *JAMA*. 1998;280:1747–51. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.280.20. 1747 (PMID: 9842949).
- Hillner BE, Smith TJ, Desch CE. Hospital and physician volume or specialization and outcomes in cancer treatment: importance in quality of cancer care. *J Clin Oncol*. 2000;18:2327–40. https://d oi.org/10.1200/JCO.2000.18.11.2327 (PMID: 10829054).

- 45. Ordonez, D. North Carolina's Hispanic Community: 2020 Snapshot. Carolina Demography. Retrieved 28 July 2021 at h ttps://www.ncdemography.org/2021/02/05/north-carolinas-hispan ic-community-2020-snapshot/.
- 46. Medicaid Income Eligibility Limits for Adults as a Percent of the Federal Poverty Level. Retrieved 23 August 2021 at https://www. kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/medicaid-income-eligibilit y-limits-for-adults-as-a-percent-of-the-federal-poverty-level/?cur
- rentTimeframe=0&sortModel=%7B%22colId%22:%22Locatio n%22,%22sort%22:22asc%22%7D.

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.