



Racial differences in brain cancer characteristics and survival: an analysis of SEER data

Julie A. Bytnar^{1,2} · Jie Lin^{1,2,3} · Craig D. Shriver^{1,3} · Kangmin Zhu^{1,2,4}

Received: 9 April 2019 / Accepted: 3 October 2019 / Published online: 22 October 2019
© Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2019

Abstract

Purpose Racial disparity with shorter survival for Blacks than Whites is well known for many cancers. However, for brain cancer, some national cancer registry studies have shown better survival among Blacks compared to Whites. This study aimed to systematically investigate whether Blacks and Whites differ in survival and also in tumor characteristics and treatment for neuroepithelial brain tumors.

Methods The National Cancer Institute's Surveillance Epidemiology and End Results (SEER) database was used to identify non-Hispanic White and Black patients diagnosed with malignant, histologically confirmed neuroepithelial brain cancer from 2004 through 2015. Racial differences in brain cancer survival were compared using Kaplan–Meier curve and Cox proportional hazard models. The associations of race with tumor and treatment characteristics (location, size, grade, surgical type) were examined using multinomial logistic regression.

Results After adjusting for demographic, tumor, and treatment factors, there were no significant differences in survival for non-Hispanic Blacks compared to non-Hispanic Whites [hazard ratio (HR) 1.05, 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.99–1.10]. Non-Hispanic Blacks had higher odds of being diagnosed with tumors of unknown grade [odds ratio (OR) 1.16, 95% CI 1.05–1.29], unknown size (OR 1.14, 95% CI 1.01–1.29), infratentorial (OR 1.12, 95% CI 1.01–1.24) or overlapping area (OR 1.39, 95% CI 1.14–1.70), and lower odds of having a total surgical resection (OR 0.83, 95% CI 0.74–0.93).

Conclusion Non-Hispanic Blacks do not exhibit longer brain cancer-specific survival than non-Hispanic Whites. They were more likely to have tumors of unknown size or grade and less likely to receive total surgical resection, which may result from racial differences in access to and use of healthcare.

Keywords Brain cancer · Disparity · Survival · SEER

Introduction

Racial disparity with shorter survival for Blacks than Whites has been observed in the United States for common cancers, such as breast, prostate, colorectal, and lung cancers, as well as less common cancers such as cervical, pancreatic, and esophageal cancers [1–8]. However, the understanding of racial differences in survival from brain cancer is not clear. Several large studies based on the data from the National Cancer Institute's Surveillance, Epidemiology and End Results (SEER) displayed better relative survival from most brain cancers among Black patients as compared to White patients. These studies show that Black brain cancer patients had lower mortality and 6 to 10% longer 5-year relative survival compared to White patients [9–11], but they did not take into account important tumor or treatment factors related to survival. In contrast, several other registry studies

✉ Kangmin Zhu
kzhu@murthacancercenter.org

¹ John P. Murtha Cancer Center, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences and Walter Reed National Military Medical Center, Bethesda, MD, USA

² Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine, Bethesda, MD, USA

³ Department of Surgery, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD, USA

⁴ Department of Preventive Medicine and Biostatistics, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD, USA

found that Black patients have worse all-cause mortality than White patients after adjustment for tumor and treatment characteristics [12, 13]. Furthermore, two studies found no survival differences between Black and White brain cancer patients using cancer-specific survival while adjusting for tumor and treatment variables, but these studies were limited to only glioblastomas [14, 15].

Racial disparities in cancer survival may be related to racial differences in tumor characteristics (such as tumor stage, grade, and size) as well as treatment receipt [16–22]. For brain cancer in particular, brain tumor characteristics, such as location and grade at diagnosis, and treatment receipt may differ between racial groups and may at least partially account for racial difference in survival. However, to the best of our knowledge, no studies have examined racial differences in tumor and treatment characteristics in conjunction with brain cancer-specific survival.

The primary aim of this study was to investigate whether non-Hispanic Blacks have better cancer-specific survival from neuroepithelial brain cancers, the most commonly occurring type of brain tumors, than non-Hispanic Whites after adjusting for demographic characteristics and tumor and treatment variables. We further assessed whether there are racial differences in tumor characteristics (grade, size, location) and treatment type that might account for any racial differences in neuroepithelial brain cancer survival.

Methods

Data source and study population

This study utilized the data from the Surveillance, Epidemiology and End Results (SEER) 18 database of the National Cancer Institute. SEER 18 covers approximately 28% of the U.S. population with data from 18 cancer registries in Atlanta, Connecticut, Detroit, Hawaii, Iowa, New Mexico, San Francisco-Oakland, Seattle-Puget Sound, Utah, Los Angeles, San Jose-Monterey, Rural Georgia, Alaska, Greater California, Greater Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, and New Jersey [23].

Patients included in this study were non-Hispanic Blacks and Whites age 20 or older diagnosed from 2004 through 2015 with malignant, histologically confirmed primary neuroepithelial brain cancer (Fig. 1). Neuroepithelial tumors comprise well over 80% of malignant brain tumors in the United States [24]. The year of 2004 was used as the beginning of the study period as that when tumor grade, as described below, was included in the SEER dataset. Brain cancer site was defined using the following International Classification of Disease for Oncology, Third Edition (ICD-O-3) topology codes: C70.0–72.9, 75.1–75.3, and 30.0 (only histology codes: 9520–9523) as recommend by

the Consensus Conference on Brain Tumor Definition [25]. Only tumors of the neuroepithelial tissue are included in this study.

Tumor, treatment, and survival variables

Since brain tumors do not typically spread outside of the brain, they are not staged in terms of size, spread, and lymph involvement as are many other cancers [26]. Rather, they are graded based on tumor clinical features and behaviors such as cell type, growth rate, and aggressiveness [24]. Tumor grade was defined using the 2007 WHO standard [19]. Grade I and II tumors were grouped together as low-grade tumors and grade III and IV tumors were grouped together as high-grade tumors. According to the 2007 WHO Classification of Central Nervous System Tumors, cancers of neuroepithelial tissues were categorized into the following histologic subtypes: astrocytic tumors, glioblastomas, oligodendroglial tumors, oligoastrocytic tumors, gliomas, embryonal tumors, and other [19].

Tumor size was categorized into tertiles for neuroepithelial tumors overall. When the analyses were repeated by histology, tertiles were calculated for each histologic type, respectively. Using the SEER registry guidelines, tumor location was defined in relationship to the cerebellar tentorium: supratentorial (ICD-O-3 70.0, 70.9, 71.0–71.4, 72.2, 72.3, 75.1–75.3), infratentorial (ICD-O-3 C71.6, 71.7, 72.4, 72.5), spinal (70.1, 72.0, 72.1), or other (ICD-O-3 C30.0, 71.5, 71.8, 71.9, 72.8, 72.9) if the site was unspecified or had overlapping regions [27]. Surgery was classified as radical/total resection, subtotal resection (to include excisional biopsies), NOS (not otherwise specified), or unknown.

Survival was defined as being the time from the brain tumor diagnosis to the time of death attributed to the primary brain cancer. Cases were censored if they were alive at the end of the surveillance period or upon death from a cause other than brain cancer.

Statistical analysis

We first analyzed the distributions of demographic and tumor characteristics by race. We then compared brain cancer-specific survival between racial groups using Kaplan–Meier curves and log rank tests. Patients were censored if they died from a cause other than brain cancer or if they remained alive after the last date of contact. We used Cox proportional hazard models to estimate the hazard ratios (HR) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) with adjustment for potential confounders. Three models were used: univariate with unadjusted HRs, multivariate with HRs adjusted for sex, age at diagnosis, and year of diagnosis, and the full model, adjusted for sex, age at diagnosis, year of diagnosis, tumor characteristics (grade, size,

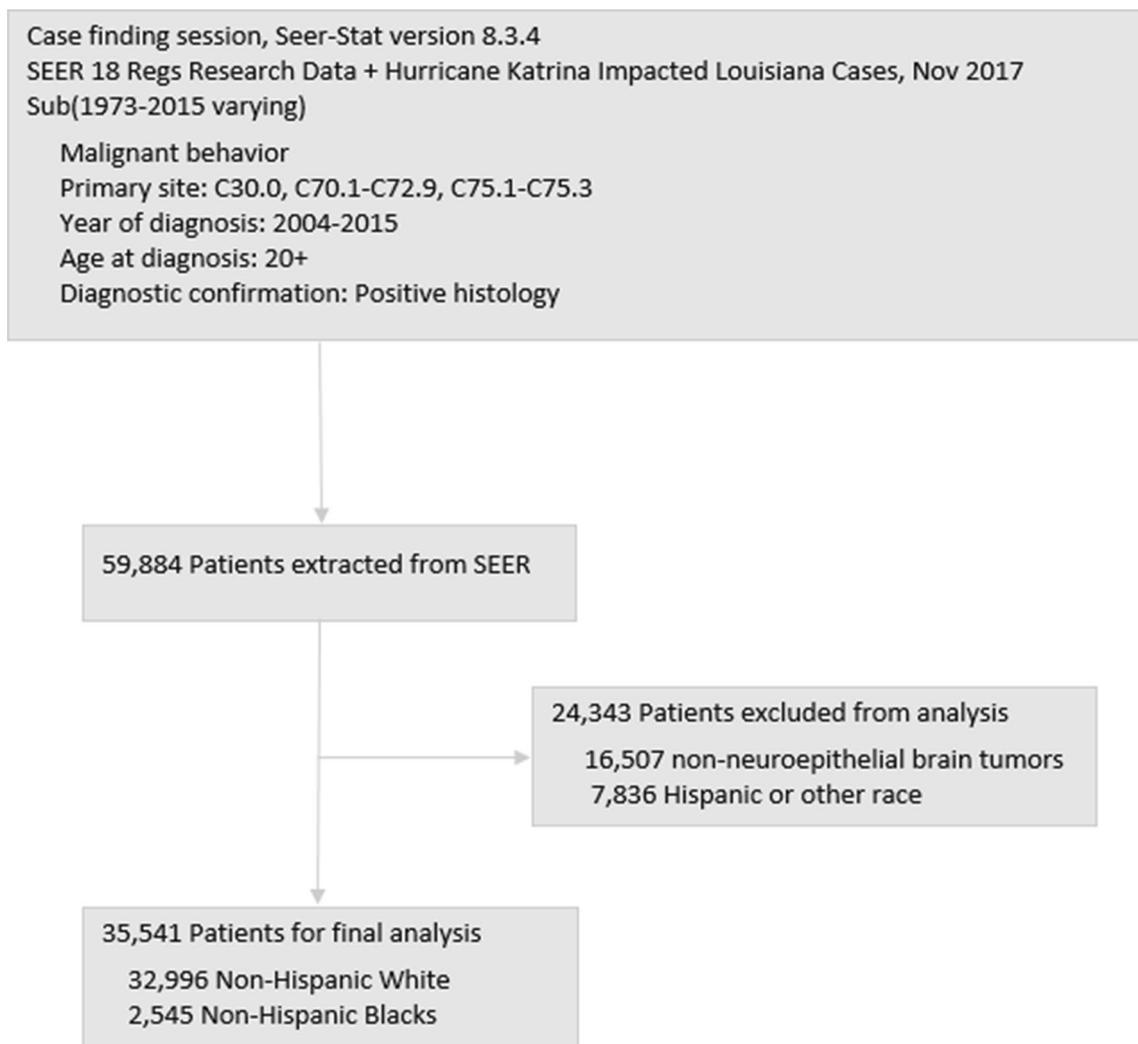


Fig. 1 Seer*Stat Session information and selection of cases from SEER 18 diagnosed from 2004 to 2015 included in study

and location), histology as well as surgical treatment. We further conducted Cox regression stratified by histologic type using interaction terms between race and histology to assess the hazard ratio for each histological type. An adjusted survival curve using the final overall model was created using the fully adjusted Cox proportional hazard model. We also calculated the rates of 5-year survival, for which only patients diagnosed from 2004 through 2011 were included to allow for at least 5 years of follow-up.

Multinomial logistic regression was used to calculate the odds ratios (ORs) and 95% CIs to examine the association between race and tumor grade, categorized tumor size, tumor location, as well as between race and type of surgery. The models similar to those described above were used: unadjusted; adjusted for sex, age at diagnosis, and year of diagnosis; and the full model adjusted for sex,

age at diagnosis, year of diagnosis, tumor characteristics (grade, size, and location), and histology.

All HRs and ORs were calculated with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). All *P* values are two-sided with a significance level of 0.05. All statistical analysis was conducted using SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC).

Results

The study population included 32,996 non-Hispanic White and 2,545 non-Hispanic Black patients (Table 1). As compared to non-Hispanic Whites, non-Hispanic Blacks were diagnosed at a younger age (median age of 54 vs 59) with fewer non-Hispanic Blacks being diagnosed above age 60 (35.5% vs 48.5%, $p < 0.0001$). There was a higher percentage of woman (46.4% vs 42.3%, $p < 0.0001$) among

Table 1 Demographic and tumor characteristics for patients with malignant brain tumors of the neuroepithelial tissues by race diagnosed from 2004–2015, SEER 18

	Non-Hispanic White		Non-Hispanic Black		<i>p</i> value
Age (median, IQR) ^a	59 (48–69)		55 (46–64.5)		
Age					
20–29	2,057	6.23	239	9.40	< .0001
30–39	2,742	8.32	294	11.56	
40–49	4,506	13.65	455	17.88	
50–59	7,686	23.29	653	26.66	
60–69	8,223	24.92	530	20.82	
70+	7,782	23.58	374	14.70	
Sex (<i>n</i> , %)					
Male	19,042	57.71	1,365	53.63	< .0001
Female	13,954	42.29	1,180	46.37	
Year of diagnosis (<i>n</i> , %)					
2004–2007	10,665	32.32	757	29.74	0.0149
2008–2011	10,956	33.20	901	35.40	
2012–2015	11,375	34.47	887	34.85	
Neuroepithelial histology group (<i>n</i> , %)					
Astrocytic tumors	5,988	18.15	514	20.20	< .0001
Glioblastomas	20,949	63.49	1,491	58.59	
Oligodendroglial tumors	2,379	7.21	142	5.58	
Oligoastrocytic tumors	1,146	3.47	79	3.10	
Gliomas	666	2.02	69	2.71	
Embryonal tumors	581	1.76	77	3.03	
Other	1,287	3.90	173	6.80	
WHO grade (<i>n</i> , %)					
I	416	1.26	45	1.77	
II	4,122	12.49	331	13.01	0.0002
III	4,067	12.33	312	12.26	
IV	16,718	50.67	1,188	46.68	
Unknown	7,673	23.25	669	26.29	
Tumor size (<i>n</i> , %)					
First tertile (0–35 mm)	8,874	26.89	706	27.74	0.0081
Second tertile (> 35–50 mm)	8,358	25.33	622	24.44	
Third tertile (> 50 mm)	8,643	26.19	610	23.97	
Unknown	7,121	21.57	601	24.04	
Location (<i>n</i> , %)					
Supratentorial	24,437	74.06	1,744	68.53	< 0.0001
Infratentorial	1,123	3.40	154	6.05	
Spinal	894	2.71	115	4.52	
Overlapping regions/ventricles	6,542	19.83	532	20.90	
Surgery at primary site (<i>n</i> , %)					
No surgery	6,559	19.88	517	20.31	0.0004
Local surgery/subtotal resection	11,059	33.52	928	36.46	
Radical/total resection	14,991	45.43	1,056	41.49	
Surgery NOS	319	0.97	37	1.45	
Unknown	68	0.21	7	0.28	

Results based on chi squared test for categorical variables and Mann–Whitney/Wilcoxon test for continuous variables unless otherwise noted

^aInterquartile range

non-Hispanic Black patients than non-Hispanic Whites and fewer non-Hispanic Blacks were diagnosed earlier in the study period than were non-Hispanic Whites (e.g., 29.7% vs 32.3% during 2004–2007, $p = 0.0143$). Non-Hispanic Blacks had a lower percentage of glioblastomas (58.6% vs 63.5%), and a higher percentage of embryonal (3.0% vs 1.8%) and other neuroepithelial tumors (6.8% vs 3.9%) than non-Hispanic Whites ($p < 0.0001$). Non-Hispanic Blacks were diagnosed with a lower percent of grade IV tumors (46.7% vs 50.7%, $p = 0.0006$), fewer large tumors (greater than 50 mm (24.0% vs 26.2%, $p = 0.0095$), were less likely to have a supratentorial tumor (68.5% vs 74.1%, $p < 0.0001$), and were less likely to have a total surgical resection of the tumor 41.5% vs 45.4%, $p = 0.0004$). Non-Hispanic Blacks

also had a larger percentage of tumors of unknown grade (26.3% vs 23.3%, $p = 0.0002$) and unknown size (24.0% vs 21.6%, $p = 0.0095$).

The 5-year brain cancer-specific survival rates were 36% and 29% for non-Hispanic Blacks Whites, respectively ($p < 0.0001$, results not shown). Kaplan–Meier curves show that non-Hispanic Blacks had a better brain cancer survival than non-Hispanic Whites during the study period ($p < 0.0001$, Fig. 2). Non-Hispanic Blacks had showed better brain cancer survival than non-Hispanic Whites (HR 0.88, 95% CI 0.84–0.93) overall and for glioblastomas specifically (HR 0.90, 95% CI 0.85–0.96) in the unadjusted model (model 1, Table 2). After further adjusting for sex, age at diagnosis, and year of diagnosis (model 2, Table 2), the direction of the association was reversed with non-Hispanic Black having worse brain cancer survival for all neuroepithelial tissue tumors (HR 1.07, 95% CI 1.02–1.13), astrocytic tumors (HR 1.16, 95% CI 1.02–1.33), and for oligoastrocytic tumors (HR 1.42, 95% CI 1.01–2.01), while the survival benefit disappeared for glioblastomas. The fully adjusted model (model 3, Table 2) which included demographic, tumor, and treatment characteristics shows no racial difference in brain cancer survival for neuroepithelial cancer overall (HR 1.05, 95% CI 0.99–1.10) or for any histology subtype (Fig. 3).

In the unadjusted model (model 1, Table 3), non-Hispanic Blacks were more likely to be diagnosed with a tumor of low grade (OR 1.15, 95% CI 1.02–1.29), and unknown grade (OR 1.21, 95% CI 1.10–1.33), smaller size (OR 1.13, 95% CI 1.01–1.36), unknown size (OR 1.21, 95% CI 1.08–1.36), non-supratentorial tumor (infratentorial: OR 1.92, 95% CI 1.61–2.29; spinal: OR 1.80, 95% CI 1.48–2.20; overlapping location: OR 1.14, 95% CI 1.03–1.26, Table 3). They were less likely to receive a total surgical resection compared to

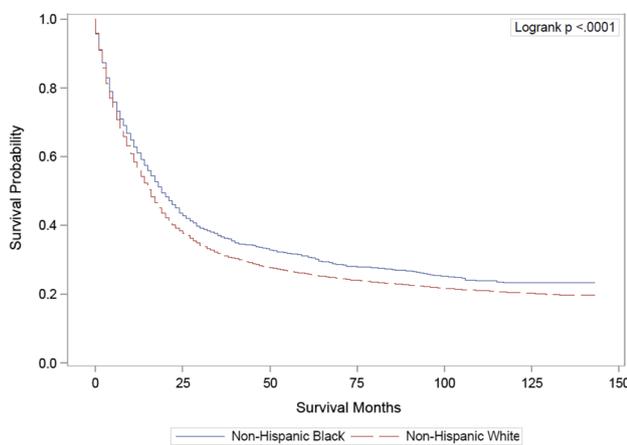


Fig. 2 Kaplan–Meier brain cancer-specific survival curve for non-Hispanic Black and non-Hispanic White patients with malignant brain tumors of the neuroepithelial tissues by race diagnosed from 2004 to 2011, SEER 18

Table 2 Cox proportional hazard cancer-specific survival model comparing non-Hispanic Blacks to non-Hispanic Whites in SEER 18, 2004–2015

	Hazard ratio (95% CI)		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Overall	0.88 (0.84, 0.93)*	1.07 (1.02, 1.13)*	1.05 (0.99, 1.10)
Astrocytic	0.92 (0.81, 1.05)	1.16 (1.02, 1.33)*	1.08 (0.95, 1.24)
Glioblastoma	0.90 (0.85, 0.96)*	1.03 (0.97, 1.09)	1.03 (0.97, 1.09)
Oligodendroglial	0.97 (0.68, 1.39)	1.17 (0.82, 1.68)	1.09 (0.76, 1.55)
Oligoastrocytic	1.35 (0.96, 1.89)	1.42 (1.01, 2.01)*	1.26 (0.89, 1.77)
Gliomas	0.80 (0.54, 1.17)	0.96 (0.65, 1.42)	0.95 (0.64, 1.40)
Embryonal	1.26 (0.82, 1.92)	1.26 (0.82, 1.95)	1.26 (0.83, 1.93)
Other	1.22 (0.78, 1.90)	1.54 (0.98, 2.43)	1.24 (0.79, 1.93)

Hazard ratios presented are for Non-Hispanic Blacks compared to Non-Hispanic Whites

Model 1: univariable

Model 2: adjusted for sex, age, and year of diagnosis

Model 3: adjusted for sex, age, year of diagnosis, tumor grade, tumor size, tumor location, histology, and surgical type

* $p < 0.05$

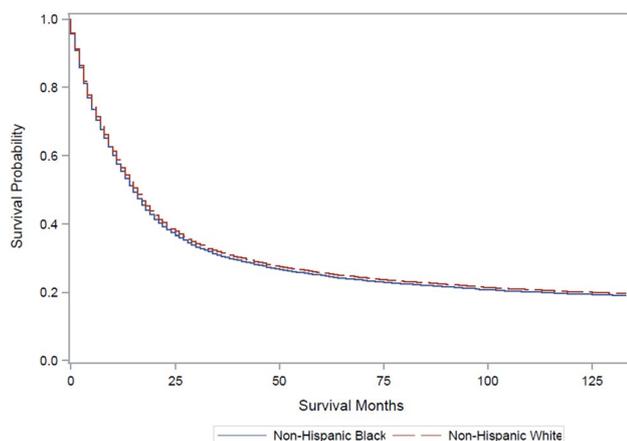


Fig. 3 Adjusted brain cancer-specific survival curve for non-Hispanic Black and non-Hispanic White patients with malignant brain tumors of the neuroepithelial tissues by race diagnosed from 2004 to 2011, SEER 18. The model was adjusted for sex, age at diagnosis, year of diagnosis, tumor grade, tumor size, tumor location, and type of surgical treatment

non-Hispanic Whites (OR 0.89, 95% CI 0.80–1.00). After controlling for demographic variables (model 2, Table 3), compared to non-Hispanic White, non-Hispanic Blacks had lower odds of being diagnosed with a low-grade tumor (OR 0.87, 95% CI 0.77–0.99) and higher odds of having been diagnosed with a tumor of unknown grade (OR 1.26, 95% CI 1.14–1.39). Non-Hispanic Blacks were also more likely to have tumors in the smallest tertile (OR 1.13, 95% CI 1.01–1.26), and tumor of unknown size (OR 1.19, 95% CI 1.06–1.34), and more likely to have a non-supratentorial brain tumor (infratentorial: OR 1.60, 95% CI 1.34–1.91; spinal: OR 1.53, 95% CI 1.25–1.87; overlapping: OR 1.17, 95% CI 1.06–1.30). Non-Hispanic Blacks were less likely than non-Hispanic Whites to receive a radical total surgical resection (OR 0.81, 95% CI 0.73–0.91).

After including tumor characteristics (model 3, Table 3), only tumors of unknown grade and size, infratentorial and overlapping tumor locations, and total surgical resection remained significant. Non-Hispanic Blacks were still more likely to be diagnosed with tumors of unknown grade (OR 1.16, 95% CI 1.05–1.29) and unknown size (OR 1.14, 95% CI 1.01–1.29, Table 3). Non-Hispanic Blacks also had

Table 3 Logistic regression estimates of the likelihood of brain tumor characteristics comparing non-Hispanic Blacks to non-Hispanic Whites in SEER 18, 2004–2015

Characteristic	Tumors of the neuroepithelial tissues		
	Odds ratio (95% CI)		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Tumor grade			
High grade	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
Low grade	1.15* (1.02, 1.29)	0.87* (0.77, 0.99)	0.90 (0.77, 1.04)
Unknown	1.21* (1.10, 1.33)	1.26* (1.14, 1.39)	1.16* (1.05, 1.29)
Tumor size (mm)			
T3 (> 50 mm)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
T2 (> 35–50 mm)	1.05 (0.94, 1.18)	1.07 (0.95, 1.20)	1.05 (0.94, 1.18)
T1 (0–35 mm)	1.13* (1.01, 1.26)	1.13* (1.01, 1.26)	1.08 (0.96, 1.21)
Unknown	1.21* (1.08, 1.36)	1.19* (1.06, 1.34)	1.14* (1.01, 1.29)
Location			
Supratentorial	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
Infratentorial	1.92* (1.61, 2.29)	1.60* (1.34, 1.91)	1.39* (1.14, 1.70)
Spinal	1.80* (1.48, 2.20)	1.53* (1.25, 1.87)	1.22 (0.91, 1.63)
Overlapping regions/ventricles	1.14* (1.03, 1.26)	1.17* (1.06, 1.30)	1.12* (1.01, 1.24)
Surgery			
No surgery	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
Local surgery/subtotal resection	1.07 (0.95, 1.19)	0.96 (0.86, 1.08)	0.96 (0.85, 1.08)
Radical/total resection	0.89* (0.80, 1.00)	0.81* (0.73, 0.91)	0.83* (0.74, 0.93)
Surgery NOS	1.48* (1.04–2.10)	1.28 (0.90, 1.82)	1.18 (0.83, 1.69)

Odds ratios presented are for Non-Hispanic Blacks compared to Non-Hispanic Whites

Model 1: univariable

Model 2: adjusted for sex, age, and year of diagnosis

Model 3: adjusted for sex, age, year of diagnosis, mutually adjusted for tumor grade, tumor size, and tumor location

* $p < 0.05$

higher odds of having an infratentorial tumor (OR 1.39, 95% CI 1.14–1.70), a tumor in an overlapping or unspecified region (OR 1.12, 95% CI 1.01–1.24) and less likely to receive a radical or total surgical resection of their tumor (OR 0.83, 95% CI 0.74–0.93). After stratifying by histology type, similar significant results were only observed among glioblastomas (results not shown).

Discussion

After controlling for tumor and treatment variables, this study found no difference in brain cancer-specific survival between non-Hispanic Black and non-Hispanic White patients with neuroepithelial brain cancer. Comparison of the tumor characteristics and surgical treatment type showed that non-Hispanic Blacks were more likely to be diagnosed with tumors of unknown grade, unknown size, and infratentorial or overlapping (or unspecified) located tumors; they were less likely to receive a radical surgical resection than non-Hispanic Whites.

Previous studies on racial differences in brain tumor survival found a survival advantage to Black brain cancer patients [10, 28–30]. A large SEER registry-based study found that the 5-year survival for Blacks with glioblastomas was significantly higher than that for Whites (32.8% vs. 26.8%) [10]. However, another registry-based study found the age-adjusted mortality rate in Whites to be about 1.8 times higher than in Blacks [30]. Using the data from a regional cancer registry in Texas, Nizamutdinov et al. [28] found that compared to Whites, Black patients had a much higher survival rate from glioblastoma (47.4% vs. 7.3%). These studies are limited in the extent to which they controlled only for age and demographic characteristics without adjustment for tumor and treatment specific variables. Ostrom et al. recently found lower relative survival rates among non-Hispanic Whites over 34 years of age as compared to other racial groups [31]. While they were able to control for surgery and stratified by histology, they did not adjust for any other tumor-specific variables such as size or location.

Our study showed better 5-year brain cancer-specific survival for non-Hispanic Black patients than non-Hispanic Whites disappeared after adjusting for tumor and treatment variables, as well as demographic characteristics. Several large SEER based studies on glioblastomas adjusted for tumor characteristics and treatment variables comparable to the ones included in our study and had similar findings [14, 15]. Some studies found worse survival among non-Hispanic Black patients as compared to non-Hispanic Whites. Using SEER data to evaluate supratentorial low-grade gliomas, Claus et al. found a 30% all-cause survival benefit for White patients [21]. However, this study was

primarily focused on patterns of treatment modalities and survival by age. We were able to evaluate cancer-specific survival while incorporating more tumor-specific variables, including tumor histology and location, and type of surgery. Barnholtz-Sloan and colleagues' large SEER base analysis determined Black patients to be at a 13% increased risk of death compared to Whites with eleven specific types of brain tumors [12]. In a later study focusing on a small population of older glioblastoma patients from the linked SEER Medicare database, Barnholtz-Sloan et al. found no racial differences in survival [13]. Unlike our study, these studies were limited to fewer histology types than our study, used only supratentorial tumors [21], or defined location based only on the ICD-O primary site codes rather than in relation to the clinically significant cerebellar tentorium [12].

We showed that non-Hispanic Blacks were more likely to have infratentorial tumors or tumors in overlapping or unspecified regions than non-Hispanic Whites. To our knowledge, no research has described the distribution of tumor location (supratentorial vs. infratentorial) by race. Given that supratentorial tumors are associated with worse survival than those in other sites [18, 32], not controlling for tumor location might be a factor explaining better survival in some previous studies [12, 21]. Tumor location was adjusted for in our study. However, racial disparity in tumor location and its effects on survival warrants future studies.

This is the first study showing that non-Hispanic Blacks had significantly higher odds of having a tumor of unknown size or grade. Non-Hispanic Blacks may have less access to the health care systems and thus did not have their tumors measured and graded. Poorer follow-up and heavier reliance on lower quality healthcare reducing the chance of determining tumor grade or size due to less access to medical care with sufficient clinical and technological resources has been observed for racial minority cancer patients [1, 33–35].

The non-Hispanic Blacks in this study were found to be less likely to receive a gross total resection of the tumor, which is the recommended surgical treatment when feasible [36]. Studies examining racial disparities in receipt of surgery type for other cancers have noted differences with Blacks and other racial minorities are typically less likely than their White counterparts to receive the recommended type of surgical cancer treatments [37–40]. Studies examining racial disparities in extent of initial surgical treatments for brain cancer in particular are sparse, but two studies did find that Black patients have lower odds of receiving surgical resection [21, 41]. This study provides evidence for racial disparities in the type of brain cancer surgery received.

This study was able to contribute new information to the issue of racial disparities in brain cancer survival by using cancer-specific survival rather than relative or all-cause survival. It has been shown that the two methods of quantifying survival provide similar results, usually with slightly higher

estimates of cause-specific survival [42, 43]. Given the small impact of cause of death misclassification on the calculation of hazard ratios in conjunction with SEER's uses of an algorithm which reduces the impact of cause of death misclassification [42, 44], the choice of cancer-specific survival is appropriate and superior to all-cause calculation methods.

This study's strength is in using brain cancer-specific death as the outcome and assessing the potential effects of tumor and treatment variables, based on the large SEER database. However, there are some limitations. Although we controlled for more confounding variables in this study than many previous studies, there might be residual confounding by variables not included in SEER data, such as specific treatments and comorbidities important factors for brain cancer prognosis [45, 46]. Other databases with relevant information may be used in future studies.

Funding This project was supported by the Murtha Cancer Center Research Program, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences and Walter Reed National Military Medical Center under the auspices of the Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

- DeSantis CE, Siegel RL, Sauer AG, Miller KD, Fedewa SA, Alcaraz KI, Jemal A (2016) Cancer statistics for African Americans, 2016: progress and opportunities in reducing racial disparities. *CA Cancer J Clin* 66(4):290–308. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21340>
- DeSantis CE, Ma J, Goding Sauer A, Newman LA, Jemal A (2017) Breast cancer statistics, 2017, racial disparity in mortality by state. *CA Cancer J Clin* 67(6):439–448. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21412>
- Yoo W, Kim S, Huh WK, Dilley S, Coughlin SS, Partridge EE, Chung Y, Dicks V, Lee JK, Bae S (2017) Recent trends in racial and regional disparities in cervical cancer incidence and mortality in United States. *PLoS ONE* 12(2):e0172548. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0172548>
- Lin JJ, Mhango G, Wall MM, Lurslurchachai L, Bond KT, Nelson JE, Berman AR, Salazar-Schicchi J, Powell C, Keller SM, Halm EA, Leventhal H, Wisnivesky JP (2014) Cultural factors associated with racial disparities in lung cancer care. *Ann Am Thorac Soc* 11(4):489–495. <https://doi.org/10.1513/AnnalsATS.201402-055OC>
- Benjamins MR, Hunt BR, Raleigh SM, Hirschtick JL, Hughes MM (2016) Racial disparities in prostate cancer mortality in the 50 largest US cities. *Cancer Epidemiol* 44:125–131. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canep.2016.07.019>
- Robbins AS, Siegel RL, Jemal A (2012) Racial disparities in stage-specific colorectal cancer mortality rates from 1985 to 2008. *J Clin Oncol* 30(4):401–405. <https://doi.org/10.1200/jco.2011.37.5527>
- Khawja SN, Mohammed S, Silberfein EJ, Musher BL, Fisher WE, Van Buren G II (2015) Pancreatic cancer disparities in African Americans. *Pancreas* 44(4):522–527. <https://doi.org/10.1097/mpa.0000000000000323>
- Jinjuvadia R, Jinjuvadia K, Liangpunsakul S (2013) Racial disparities in gastrointestinal cancers-related mortality in the U.S. population. *Dig Dis Sci* 58(1), 236–243. DOI: 10.1007/s10620-012-2312-3.
- Siegel RL, Miller KD (2016) Jemal A (2016) Cancer statistics. *CA Cancer J Clin* 66(1):7–30. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21332>
- Deorah S, Lynch CF, Sibenaller ZA, Ryken TC (2006) Trends in brain cancer incidence and survival in the United States: Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Program, 1973 to 2001. *Neurosurg Focus* 20(4):E1. <https://doi.org/10.3171/foc.2006.20.4.E1>
- Kohler BA, Ward E, McCarthy BJ, Schymura MJ, Ries LA, Ehemman C, Jemal A, Anderson RN, Ajani UA, Edwards BK (2011) Annual report to the nation on the status of cancer, 1975–2007, featuring tumors of the brain and other nervous system. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 103(9):714–736. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djr077>
- Barnholtz-Sloan JS, Sloan AE, Schwartz AG (2003) Racial differences in survival after diagnosis with primary malignant brain tumor. *Cancer* 98(3):603–609. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.11534>
- Barnholtz-Sloan JS, Maldonado JL, Williams VL, Curry WT, Rodkey EA, Barker FG II, Sloan AE (2007) Racial/ethnic differences in survival among elderly patients with a primary glioblastoma. *J Neurooncol* 85(2):171–180. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11060-007-9405-4>
- Pan IW, Ferguson SD, Lam S (2015) Patient and treatment factors associated with survival among adult glioblastoma patients: a USA population-based study from 2000–2010. *J Clin Neurosci* 22(10):1575–1581. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jocn.2015.03.032>
- Bohn A, Braley A, Rodriguez de la Vega P, Zevallos JC, Barengo NC (2018) The association between race and survival in glioblastoma patients in the US: A retrospective cohort study. *PLoS ONE* 13(6):e0198581. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198581>
- Iqbal J, Ginsburg O, Rochon PA, Sun P, Narod SA (2015) Differences in breast cancer stage at diagnosis and cancer-specific survival by race and ethnicity in the United States. *JAMA* 313(2):165–173. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2014.17322>
- Efird JT, Landrine H, Shiue KY, O'Neal WT, Podder T, Rosenman JG, Biswas T (2014) Race, insurance type, and stage of presentation among lung cancer patients. *SpringerPlus* 3:710. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2193-1801-3-710>
- Sayegh ET, Aranda D, Kim JM, Oh T, Parsa AT, Oh MC (2014) Prognosis by tumor location in adults with intracranial ependymomas. *J Clin Neurosci* 21(12):2096–2101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jocn.2014.05.011>
- Louis DN, Ohgaki H, Wiestler OD, Cavenee WK, Burger PC, Jouvet A, Scheithauer BW, Kleihues P (2007) The 2007 WHO Classification of Tumours of the Central Nervous System. *Acta Neuropathol* 114(2):97–109. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00401-007-0243-4>
- Butowski NA (2015) Epidemiology and diagnosis of brain tumors. *Continuum (Minneapolis, Minn)* 21(2Neuro-oncology):301–313. <https://doi.org/10.1212/01.CON.0000464171.50638.f8>
- Claus EB, Black PM (2006) Survival rates and patterns of care for patients diagnosed with supratentorial low-grade gliomas: data from the SEER program, 1973–2001. *Cancer* 106(6):1358–1363. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.21733>
- Silber JH, Rosenbaum PR, Clark AS, Giantonio BJ, Ross RN, Teng Y, Wang M, Niknam BA, Ludwig JM, Wang W, Even-Shoshan O, Fox KR (2013) Characteristics associated with differences

- in survival among black and white women with breast cancer. *JAMA* 310(4):389–397. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.8272>
23. National Cancer Institute Surveillance Epidemiology and End Result Program (2018) <https://seer.cancer.gov/registries/>. Accessed 29 June 2018
 24. Ostrom QT, Gittleman H, Liao P, Vecchione-Koval T, Wolinsky Y, Kruchko C, Barnholtz-Sloan JS (2017) CBTRUS Statistical Report: primary brain and other central nervous system tumors diagnosed in the United States in 2010–2014. *Neuro Oncol* 19(suppl_5):v1–v88. <https://doi.org/10.1093/neuonc/nox158>
 25. McCarthy BJ, Surawicz T, Bruner JM, Kruchko C, Davis F (2002) Consensus conference on brain tumor definition for registration. November 10, 2000. *Neuro Oncol* 4(2):134–145. <https://doi.org/10.1093/neuonc/4.2.134>
 26. Chandana SR, Movva S, Arora M, Singh T (2008) Primary brain tumors in adults. *Am Fam Physician* 77(10):1423–1430
 27. SEER (2018) Topographic sites. <https://training.seer.cancer.gov/brain/tumors/abstract-code-stage/topographic.html>. Accessed 29 June 2018
 28. Nizamutdinov D, Stock EM, Dandashi JA, Vasquez EA, Mao Y, Dayawansa S, Zhang J, Wu E, Fonkem E, Huang JH (2018) Prognostication of survival outcomes in patients diagnosed with glioblastoma. *World Neurosurg* 109:e67–e74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wneu.2017.09.104>
 29. Jemal A, Ward EM, Johnson CJ, Cronin KA, Ma J, Ryerson B, Mariotto A, Lake AJ, Wilson R, Sherman RL, Anderson RN, Henley SJ, Kohler BA, Penberthy L, Feuer EJ, Weir HK (2017) Annual report to the nation on the status of cancer, 1975–2014, featuring survival. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djx030>
 30. Gittleman H, Kromer C, Ostrom QT, Blanda R, Russell J, Kruchko C, Barnholtz-Sloan JS (2017) Is mortality due to primary malignant brain and other central nervous system tumors decreasing? *J Neurooncol* 133(2):265–275. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11060-017-2449-1>
 31. Ostrom QT, Cote DJ, Ascha M, Kruchko C, Barnholtz-Sloan JS (2018) Adult glioma incidence and survival by race or ethnicity in the United States from 2000 to 2014. *JAMA Oncol* 4(9):1254–1262. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2018.1789>
 32. McGuire CS, Sainani KL, Fisher PG (2009) Both location and age predict survival in ependymoma: a SEER study. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 52(1):65–69. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pbc.21806>
 33. Daniel CL, Gilreath K, Keyes D (2017) Colorectal cancer disparities beyond biology: Screening, treatment, access. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)* 22:465–478
 34. Press R, Carrasquillo O, Sciacca RR, Giardina EG (2008) Racial/ethnic disparities in time to follow-up after an abnormal mammogram. *J Womens Health (Larchmt)* 17(6):923–930. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2007.0402>
 35. Coughlin SS, Blumenthal DS, Seay SJ, Smith SA (2016) Toward the elimination of colorectal cancer disparities among African Americans. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities* 3(4):555–564. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40615-015-0174-z>
 36. Stupp R, Brada M, van den Bent MJ, Tonn JC, Pentheroudakis G (2014) High-grade glioma: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up. *Ann Oncol* 25(Suppl 3):iii93–101. 10.1093/annonc/mdl050
 37. Kiechle JE, Abouassaly R, Gross CP, Dong S, Cherullo EE, Zhu H, Trinh QD, Sun M, Meropol NJ, Hoimes CJ, Ialacci S, Kim SP (2016) Racial disparities in partial nephrectomy persist across hospital types: results from a population-based cohort. *Urology* 90:69–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2015.10.035>
 38. Chen AY, Halpern MT, Schrag NM, Stewart A, Leitch M, Ward E (2008) Disparities and trends in sentinel lymph node biopsy among early-stage breast cancer patients (1998–2005). *J Natl Cancer Inst* 100(7):462–474. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djn057>
 39. Dehal A, Abbas A, Johns S (2013) Racial disparities in clinical presentation, surgical treatment and in-hospital outcomes of women with breast cancer: analysis of nationwide inpatient sample database. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 139(2):561–569. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10549-013-2567-1>
 40. Bristow RE, Zahurak ML, Ibeanu OA (2011) Racial disparities in ovarian cancer surgical care: a population-based analysis. *Gynecol Oncol* 121(2):364–368. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ygyno.2010.12.347>
 41. Iwamoto FM, Reiner AS, Panageas KS, Elkin EB, Abrey LE (2008) Patterns of care in elderly glioblastoma patients. *Ann Neurol* 64(6):628–634. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.21521>
 42. Howlader N, Ries LA, Mariotto AB, Reichman ME, Ruhl J, Cronin KA (2010) Improved estimates of cancer-specific survival rates from population-based data. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 102(20):1584–1598. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djq366>
 43. Utada M, Ohno Y, Shimizu S, Hori M, Soda M (2012) Comparison between overall, cause-specific, and relative survival rates based on data from a population-based cancer registry. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 13(11):5681–5685
 44. Sarfati D, Blakely T, Pearce N (2010) Measuring cancer survival in populations: relative survival vs cancer-specific survival. *Int J Epidemiol* 39(2):598–610. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp392>
 45. Ening G, Osterheld F, Capper D, Schmieder K, Brenke C (2015) Charlson comorbidity index: an additional prognostic parameter for preoperative glioblastoma patient stratification. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol* 141(6):1131–1137. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00432-014-1907-9>
 46. Chambless LB, Parker SL, Hassam-Malani L, McGirt MJ, Thompson RC (2012) Type 2 diabetes mellitus and obesity are independent risk factors for poor outcome in patients with high-grade glioma. *J Neurooncol* 106(2):383–389. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11060-011-0676-4>

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