

Statistical Data

J Epidemiol 2019;29(10):399-405

Regional Differences in Colorectal Cancer Mortality Between 2000 and 2013 in Republic of Korea

Hyeong Taek Woo¹, Jin Ah Sim^{2,5}, Jonghoon Mo³, Young Ho Yun^{2,4}, and Aesun Shin^{1,5}

Received January 4, 2018; accepted September 13, 2018; released online October 6, 2018

ABSTRACT

Objective: Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the fourth most common site for cancer death in the Republic of Korea. The aim of this study was to describe the trends of colorectal cancer mortality by region.

Methods: CRC mortality trends in Republic of Korea were described by region using a *Joinpoint* regression model in both sexes. The annual percent changes (APCs) were calculated for each segment. Visualization of the changes in mortality rate of colorectal cancer death rates by 16 geographic areas in both sexes between 2000–2004 and 2009–2013 were also conducted.

Results: CRC mortality rates of men showed decreasing trend after increase in Daegu, Gyeongsangnam-do, and Chungcheongbuk-do between 2000 and 2013 based on the joinpoint model, while Gwangju, Jeollabuk-do, Jeollanam-do, and Gyeongsangbuk-do showed increase in CRC mortality during the same period. For women, CRC mortality of Seoul, Incheon, Daejeon, and Gyeongsangnam-do started to decrease in 2005, 2003, 2007, and 2006, respectively. The mortality rate for CRC in the eastern regions, which had relatively low rates of CRC among men in 2000 through 2004, reached a level similar to that in the northwestern regions of 2009 through 2013, while the highest CRC mortality rates in women was observed in Chungcheongbuk-do.

Conclusions: Reduction in CRC mortality varied across 16 metropolitan cities and provinces in men, and the visualization pattern showed that the east side of South Korea had the least progress in mortality reduction.

Key words: colorectal cancer (CRC); mortality; geographic difference; health geographical disparities

Copyright © 2018 Hyeong Taek Woo et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the third leading cause of cancer death in both sexes in worldwide ¹⁻³ and the fourth most common cause of cancer death in the Republic of Korea, with crude rates of 18.5/100,000 for men and 13.8/100,000 for women in 2012.⁴ Mortality rates of CRC have been decreasing in countries in Europe, Oceania, and Asia for the past several decades.⁵⁻⁷ This decrease may be affected by increased uptake of CRC screening ^{6,8,9} or differences in socioeconomic status. ¹⁰⁻¹²

In previous studies, it has been projected that CRC mortality could be reduced with appropriate interventions, ^{13,14} and deliberate public health action is being implemented in selected regions to accomplish the goal. ^{15–18} Besides, disparities by geographical regions contribute to variation of CRC mortality. ^{9,11,19} The geospatial approach describing the trends of CRC mortality would be highly useful to better understand the factors that contribute to differences in the overall CRC outcomes by region. ^{5,20}

In the Republic of Korea, decrease in CRC mortality was observed among women since 2004, whereas mortality of men

was stabilized since 2002.² However, the extent to which these decreases varies by sex and its influence on the regional characteristics of Korean CRC death rates are not documented in previous studies. Although the wide geographical variation in the mortality of CRC is evident, there was lack of evidence assessing regional differences with consideration of age and sex.

To this end, the present study aimed to explore the potential differences in trends of CRC mortality by geographical area and sex in the Republic of Korea. Therefore, we first analyzed CRC mortality trends in the Republic of Korea from 2000 through 2013 by province and sex; then, we examined the change in geographic visualization patterns of rates for two time intervals, 2000–2004 and 2009–2013.

METHODS

Materials

Age-specific mortality rate for CRC data from 2000 through 2013 for the 16 metropolitan cities and provinces (1 Special city, 6 metropolitan cities, 8 provinces, and Jeju Special Self-Governing

Address for correspondence. Dr. Aesun Shin, Department of Preventive Medicine, Seoul National University College of Medicine, 103 Daehak-ro, Jongno-gu, Seoul 03080, Korea (e-mail: shinaesun@snu.ac.kr).

Jin Ah Sim and Hyeong Taek Woo contributed equally to this work as first authors.

¹Department of Preventive Medicine, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea

²Institute of Health Policy and Management, Medical Research Center, Seoul National University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

³Department of Psychology, Seoul National University College of Social Science, Seoul, Republic of Korea

⁴Department of Family Medicine, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea

⁵Cancer Research Institute, Seoul National University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

Province) were obtained from the Korean Statistics Information Service (KOSIS) database as reported in the "Cause of Death" section of the statistical database. Mortality for cancers of the colon, rectum, and anus (ICD-10 code C18–C21) were extracted using the computer network (KOSIS, e-Nara Indicator) and standardized using the mid-year population of the Republic of Korea for 2005 and expressed per 100,000 populations.^{21,22}

CRC mortality and trends

CRC mortality trends in the Republic of Korea by region were described using a Joinpoint regression model to determine at which year the linear trend changed significantly in each of men and women. The Joinpoint regression models were fitted with a series of joined straight lines on a log scale to the annual agestandardized rates (ASRs). For each model, we allowed a maximum of 2 join-points for each area. The annual percent changes (APCs), which are the slopes of the change in death rates, were calculated for each segment. For each region, we also calculated the change in death rates between the 2000-2004 and 2009–2013 using rate ratio (2000–2004 to 2009–2013), with 95% confidential interval in both sexes. All statistical tests were two sided (P < 0.05). Joinpoint Regression Program version 4.2.0.1 (Statistical Methodology and Applications Branch, Surveillance Research Program, National Cancer Institute, Rockville, MD, USA) was used for statistical analysis (https://surveillance. cancer.gov/joinpoint/download).

Geographic patterns of CRC death rates

To visualize the changes in mortality rate by geographic patterns of CRC death rates in both sexes between 2000–2004 and 2009–2013, we used regional maps using Korea 'map shp' from the Statistical Geographic Information Service with R version 3.1.0 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) (http://cran.r-project.org) Rgdal package (R for Geospatial Data Abstraction Library: https://r-forge.r-project.org/projects/rgdal/). The source map was driven by the Republic of Korea shp (Shape file) from SGIS. For each time interval, age-standardized rates for each state were sorted in descending order of rates and grouped into eight categories. The highest and lowest categories are approximately the 10th and 90th percentiles, whereas the remaining regions were divided into six equivalent groups. The color gradient in the maps reflect the CRC burden, with regions with the highest CRC mortality rate assigned the darkest color.

RESULTS

Although the CRC mortality has been stabilized in men since 2003 nationwide, the mortality kept increasing until 2013 in Gwangju, Jeollabuk-do, Jeollanam-do, and Gyeongsangbuk-do, with significant APCs (Table 1 and Figure 1). Nationwide, the APCs in CRC death rates of women started to decrease from 2004 (Table 2 and Figure 1). According to joinpoint regression among women, mortality decreased significantly in Seoul since 2005, in Incheon since 2003, in Daejeon since 2007, and in Gyeongsangnam-do since 2006. Figure 2 illustrates the ASR of CRC mortality during 2000–2004 and 2009–2013 in both sexes by geographical region. During 2000–2004 in men, the highest CRC mortality rates were observed in metropolitan areas, such as Daejeon, Incheon, and Seoul, and the lowest mortality rates were observed in Gangwondo, Jeollanam-do, and Jeju-do. During 2009–2013, the highest mortality rates in men were found in Gwangju and Incheon.

Table 1. Colorectal cancer (CRC) mortality per 100,000 and trends among men in 16 provinces, Republic of Korea, 2000–2013

| Provinces | Age s | tandard | Age standardized mortality (2000-2013) | ırtality | (2000- | 2013) | | | | | | | | | Mortality Rate (Male) | te (Male) | Rate r. | Rate ratios (95% CI) | 0 | Trend 1 | | Trend 2 | |
|-------------------------------|-------|---------|--|----------|--------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----------------------|-----------|---------|----------------------|----------|-----------|--------|-----------|-------|
| (2010 Population size) | 00 | 01 | 02 | 03 | 40 | 05 | 90 | 07 | 80 | 60 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 2000-2004 | 2009-2013 | RR | Lower CI | Upper CI | Years | APC | Years | APC |
| Republic of Korea | 14 | 14.8 | 16.4 | 16.7 | 17.1 | 16.7 | 16.7 | 17.4 | 16.9 | 16.5 | 17.4 | 16.6 | 17 | 16.1 | 15.80 | 16.72 | 1.06 | 06.0 | 1.25 | 2000-2003 | 6.7* | 2003–2013 | -0.2 |
| Seoul (4,726,028) | 16.8 | 17.6 | 17.0 | 16.0 | 18.4 | 17.1 | 17.2 | 17.7 | 17.3 | 9.91 | 18.0 | 16.3 | 17.1 | 15.6 | 17.28 | 16.74 | 0.97 | 0.87 | 1.09 | 2000-2013 | -0.28 | | |
| Busan (1,664,678) | 12.2 | 14.3 | 15.8 | 17.7 | 19.1 | 17.0 | 19.5 | 18.2 | 18.5 | 17.3 | 20.5 | 18.3 | 17.5 | 16.5 | 16.05 | 17.94 | 1.12 | 0.93 | 1.34 | 2000-2004 | 10.81* | 2004-2013 | -0.9 |
| Daegu (1,204,428) | 14.9 | 16.4 | 18.2 | 18.0 | 17.3 | 20.2 | 19.3 | 20.4 | 18.2 | 18.8 | 14.1 | 17.6 | 15.9 | 14.9 | 17.03 | 16.35 | 96.0 | 92.0 | 1.21 | 2000-2006 | 4.36 | 2006-2013 | -4.22 |
| Incheon (1,315,562) | 16.2 | 16.9 | 19.9 | 18.2 | 18.6 | 18.5 | 20.6 | 20.3 | 21.3 | 18.0 | 20.7 | 16.7 | 20.5 | 16.1 | 18.11 | 18.45 | 1.02 | 0.82 | 1.27 | 2000-2013 | 0.32 | | |
| Gwangju (724,161) | 14.9 | 14.5 | 16.5 | 14.2 | 14.2 | 16.7 | 8.91 | 20.8 | 18.1 | 16.7 | 21.3 | 19.5 | 19.3 | 18.0 | 14.98 | 18.94 | 1.26 | 0.93 | 1.73 | 2000-2013 | 2.49* | | |
| Daejeon (745,150) | 14.2 | 17.9 | 17.7 | 18.6 | 22.0 | 16.2 | 19.0 | 18.4 | 19.0 | 16.6 | 19.0 | 18.9 | 17.9 | 18.3 | 18.31 | 18.23 | 1.00 | 0.74 | 1.34 | 2000-2013 | 89.0 | | |
| Ulsan (550,869) | 6.7 | 18.6 | 15.5 | 15.6 | 14.0 | 9.91 | 17.9 | 17.6 | 14.9 | 18.8 | 16.5 | 19.9 | 13.9 | 17.1 | 14.80 | 17.19 | 1.16 | 0.75 | 1.79 | 2000-2013 | 1.76 | | |
| Gyeonggi-do (5,599,570) | 16.0 | 14.5 | 17.1 | 18.3 | 18.0 | 17.9 | 17.7 | 17.3 | 16.3 | 17.3 | 18.2 | 17.0 | 17.3 | 16.5 | 17.00 | 17.27 | 1.02 | 0.91 | 1.14 | 2000-2013 | 0.39 | | |
| Gangwon-do (735,075) | 11.2 | 12.0 | 12.6 | 14.8 | 16.1 | 17.6 | 15.2 | 15.5 | 14.9 | 15.6 | 16.1 | 16.2 | 19.3 | 16.3 | 13.48 | 16.85 | 1.25 | 0.98 | 1.60 | 2000-2004 | 9.25* | 2004-2013 | 0.75 |
| Chungcheongbuk-do (748,622) | 11.1 | 12.5 | 17.9 | 17.0 | 21.1 | 19.9 | 20.7 | 19.5 | 21.6 | 19.2 | 17.1 | 19.6 | 16.0 | 16.6 | 16.04 | 17.63 | 1.10 | 98.0 | 1.41 | 2000-2004 | 17.28* | 2004-2013 | -2.68 |
| Chungcheongnam-do (1,007,454) | 15.6 | 17.5 | 17.4 | 16.4 | 15.4 | 16.3 | 15.3 | 19.1 | 16.7 | 17.4 | 16.9 | 15.6 | 15.5 | 14.6 | 16.48 | 15.73 | 0.95 | 0.78 | 1.17 | 2000-2013 | -0.45 | | |
| Jeollabuk-do (867,630) | 12.2 | 14.6 | 18.9 | 16.5 | 17.3 | 15.8 | 14.7 | 18.4 | 16.0 | 17.5 | 16.8 | 16.9 | 17.1 | 19.4 | 16.00 | 17.59 | 1.10 | 0.89 | 1.36 | 2000-2013 | 1.60* | | |
| Jeollanam-do (845,952) | 11.1 | 10.5 | 13.4 | 16.5 | 13.4 | 12.8 | 12.1 | 13.5 | 14.6 | 12.8 | 16.4 | 15.3 | 17.3 | 14.8 | 12.94 | 15.36 | 1.19 | 96.0 | 1.47 | 2000-2013 | 2.37* | | |
| Gyeongsangbuk-do (1,281,510) | 13.2 | 13.2 | 15.1 | 16.9 | 13.7 | 13.6 | 14.1 | 15.5 | 15.3 | 14.9 | 15.8 | 17.1 | 15.7 | 16.2 | 14.50 | 16.00 | 1.10 | 0.92 | 1.32 | 2000-2013 | 1.35* | | |
| Gyeongsangnam-do (1,562,686) | 12.2 | 13.2 | 14.1 | 16.1 | 17.5 | 17.4 | 14.8 | 15.4 | 15.2 | 15.7 | 15.1 | 13.6 | 15.6 | 14.9 | 14.84 | 15.01 | 1.01 | 0.83 | 1.23 | 2000-2004 | 8.25* | 2004-2013 | -1.71 |
| Jeju-do (261,521) | 11.9 | 9.1 | 12.5 | 9.4 | 18.1 | 10.4 | 16.8 | 12.1 | 21.1 | 13.2 | 13.1 | 11.2 | 16.8 | 16.3 | 12.54 | 14.42 | 1.15 | 0.70 | 1.90 | 2000-2013 | 2.76 | | |

Mortality rate is per 100,000, age adjusted to the 2005 Republic of Korea standard population. APC, Annual Percent Change; CI, Confidential Interval with IACR method; RR, Rate Ratios. *APC is significantly different from zero at alpha = 0.05.

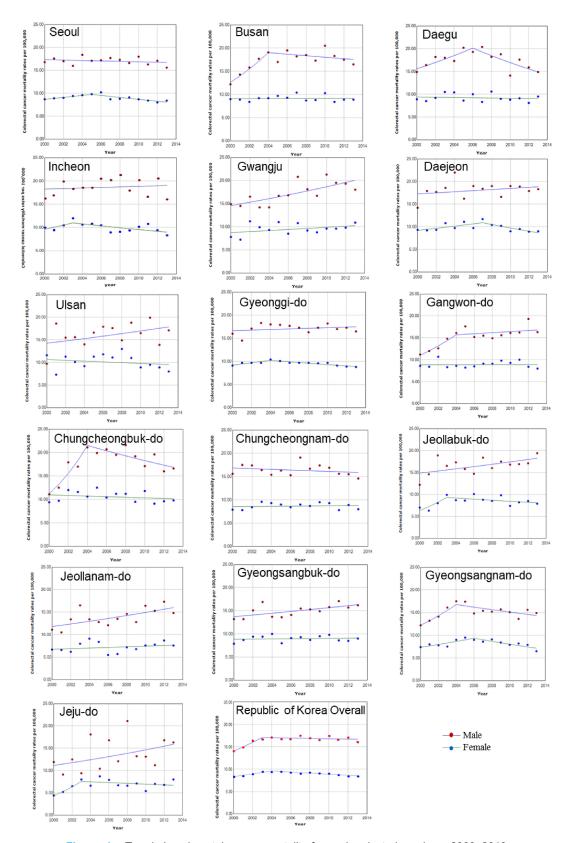


Figure 1. Trends in colorectal cancer mortality for each selected province, 2000–2013

Specifically for men, the west sides of South Korea showed higher mortality rate in 2000-2004; however, in 2009-2013, the mortality rate of CRC in the eastern regions increased, reaching a level similar to that in the western regions.

In contrast, death rates of all cities and provinces decreased or were stable in women. The mortality rate ratios between 2000-2004 and 2009-2013 were the lowest in Incheon (0.91), followed by Chungcheongbuk-do (0.93), whereas Jeju-do (1.11)

Colorectal cancer (CRC) mortality per 100,000 and trends among women in 16 provinces, Republic of Korea, 2000–2013

| (2010 Desiration circa) | 0 | IIdaniz | ed mor | tality ra. | Age standardized mortality rate (2000–2013) | -2013) | _ | | | | | | | Mortality | Mortality Rate (Female) | Kate | Rate ratios (95% CI) | (F | Trend 1 | | Trend 2 | |
|------------------------------|------|---------|----------|------------|---|--------|--------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|-------------------------|------|----------------------|----------|-----------|-------|-----------|--------|
| | 00 | 0 10 | 02 0 | 03 0 | 04 0 | 05 0 | 0 90 | 0 | 08 80 | 09 1(| 10 1 | 11 12 | 12 13 | 3000-2004 | 4 2009–2013 | RR | Lower CI | Upper CI | Years | APC | Years | APC |
| Republic of Korea | 8.4 | 8.5 9 | ٥ | 9.4 | 9 5.6 | 5. | 3 5 | 1.1 | .2 9. | .1 9. | 1 8 | .7 8. | 8.5 8.5 | 5 8.96 | 8.78 | 0.98 | 98.0 | 1.12 | 2000–2004 | 3.6* | 2004–2013 | -1.3* |
| Seoul (4,905,454) | 8.7 | 8.9 | 3 0.0 | 9.4 € | 9.6 | .8 | 10.2 | 8.7 8 | 6 8: | .1 8. | 8.7 8 | .4 | .8 0. | 4 9.17 | 8.58 | 0.94 | 92.0 | 1.15 | 2000-2005 | 2.4 | 2005-2013 | -2.38* |
| Busan (1,728,513) | 9.0 | 8.9 8 | 2, 4. | 3.2 | 9.2 9 | 5 2 | 3.3 | 10.4 8 | .7 8 | .8 | 10.3 8. | 8.4 8. | .8 | 9 8.93 | 9.12 | 1.02 | 0.73 | 1.42 | 2000-2013 | 0.1 | | |
| Daegu (1,227,346) | 8.9 | 8.5 9 | 1.2 | 10.5 | 10.4 8 | .6 | 10.0 | 8.3 | 10.6 9. | .0 8. | 8.8 | 9.1 8. | .1 9 | 5 9.59 | 8.99 | 0.94 | 0.64 | 1.38 | 2000-2013 | -0.3 | | |
| Incheon (1,316,473) | 10.0 | 9.5 | 10.5 | 12.0 1 | 10.6 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 9.0 | .1 9. | 4. | 10.2 | 10.8 9. | 9.4 8.3 | 3 10.56 | 9.64 | 0.91 | 0.62 | 1.34 | 2000-2003 | 4.58 | 2003–2013 | -2.01* |
| Gwangju (741,982) | 7.8 | 7.2 1 | 11.2 | 9.9 | 9.3 | 1.0 | 8.5 1 | 10.8 | 9.2 8. | 8.8 | 9.6 | 9.6 | .8 10 | 01.6 6.01 | 62.6 | 1.08 | 0.63 | 1.85 | 2000-2013 | 1.2 | | |
| Daejeon (745,008) | 9.3 | 9.2 | 9.3 | 10.8 | 3.7 1 | 1.1 | 3.7 | 11.7 | 10.4 | 10.2 9. | 6 0 | 9.5 8. | .9 9.0 | 89.6 0 | 9.37 | 0.97 | 0.57 | 1.64 | 2000-2007 | 2.5 | 2007–2013 | -3.74* |
| Ulsan (520,804) | 11.6 | 7.3 1 | 1.3 | 10.1 | 3.2 | 11.3 | 11.8 1 | 1.1 | 13.0 | 11.0 8. | 8.9 | 9.5 8. | 8.9 8.0 | 0 9.91 | 9.31 | 0.94 | 0.46 | 1.92 | 2000-2013 | 8.0- | | |
| Gyeonggi-do (5,596,483) | 9.1 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 1.7 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 9.6 | 9.7 | 9.1 8. | 8.9 8.8 | 8 9.79 | 9.24 | 0.94 | 0.78 | 1.14 | 2000-2004 | 2.70* | 2004-2013 | -1.6 |
| Gangwon-do (728,575) | 8.6 | 8.4 | 10.7 | 8.3 8 | 8.6 8 | 8.2 8 | 3.5 5 | 9 1. | 9.1 9. | 9.8 | 9.3 | 10.0 | 8.4 8.0 | 06.8 0 | 9.10 | 1.02 | 29.0 | 1.55 | 2000-2013 | 0.1 | | |
| Chungcheongbuk-do (747,362) | 9.4 | 1 2.6 | 12.0 1 | 11.6 | 10.6 | 12.5 | 10.4 | 11.2 | 1.2 9. | .5 | 11.8 | 9.1 9. | 9.6 9.8 | 8 10.73 | 66.6 | 0.93 | 0.63 | 1.39 | 2000-2013 | 9.0- | | |
| Chungcheongnam-do (993,019) | 7.9 | 7.8 8 | 8.4 9 | 9.6 | 9.3 | 8 0.6 | 8.4 9 | 9.0 | 7 9 | .5 9. | 9.3 7. | 7.8 8. | 8.9 8.0 | 0 8.63 | 8.58 | 0.99 | 69.0 | 1.43 | 2000-2013 | 0.2 | | |
| Jeollabuk-do (898,414) | 7.0 | 6.3 8 | 2 0. | 8 6.6 | 8.7 8 | 8.6 1 | 10.1 | 8.8 | .5 9 | .8 7. | 8 | 8.2 8. | .5 7. | 9 8.03 | 8:38 | 1.04 | 0.70 | 1.56 | 2000-2003 | 13.7 | 2003–2013 | -1.4 |
| Jeollanam-do (882,797) | 6.7 | 9 9.9 | 6.2 8 | 8.0 | 9.1 8 | 8.4 5 | 5.5 5 | 5.7 7 | .2 6. | .8 7. | 7.6 7. | .8 8. | .7 T. | 6 7.36 | 7.70 | 1.05 | 0.71 | 1.54 | 2000-2013 | 1.0 | | |
| Gyeongsangbuk-do (1,293,860) | 7.9 | 8.7 9 | 9.4 | 9.4 | 10.0 | 5 0. | 3.1 5 | 9.3 8 | .7 | .5 9. | 8 | 8.6 8. | .5 9.0 | 0 9.10 | 9.11 | 1.00 | 0.74 | 1.35 | 2000-2013 | 0.2 | | |
| Gyeongsangnam-do (1,556,885) | 7.4 | 8.0 7 | %: %: | 5.5 | 9.0.6 | 5. | 3.0.6 | 8.6 | .1 8 | .4 7. | 8 6 | 8.2 7. | .9 6. | 5 7.98 | 7.81 | 0.98 | 0.70 | 1.38 | 2000-2006 | 4.10* | 2006-2013 | -3.77* |
| Jeju-do (266,890) | 4.4 | 5.2 6 | 6.5 8 | 8.0 | 8 9.9 | 8.7 7 | 7.9 6 | 9 2.9 | .6 7. | .1 5. | 4 7 | .0 6. | 6.8 8.0 | 0 6.27 | 6.97 | 1.11 | 0.44 | 2.82 | 2000-2003 | 19.7 | 2003–2013 | -1.2 |

Mortality rate is per 100,000, age adjusted to the 2005 Republic of Korea standard population. APC, Amual Percent Change; CI, Confidential Interval with IACR method; RR, Rate Ratios. *APC is significantly different from zero at alpha = 0.05.

and Gwangju (1.08) showed the highest rate ratios, although none of the rate ratios were statistically significant.

DISCUSSION

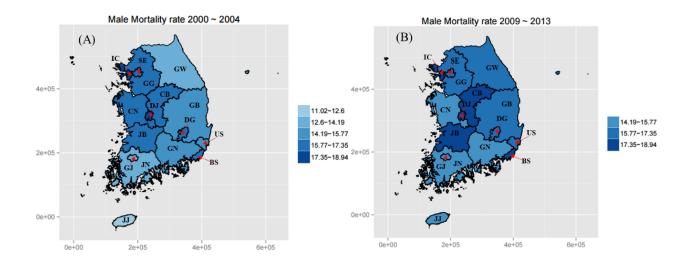
In this study, the data provided are the most recent regional information of CRC in South Korea from KOSIS. Mortality data of CRC in South Korea from 16 metropolitan cities and provinces are presented. Similar to other countries' geographical studies, 5,23 we analyzed temporal trends in age-standardized CRC death rates from 2000 through 2013 by geographical areas in both sexes and the change in geographic patterns of rates for two time intervals, 2000–2004 and 2009–2013. The study showed that significant regional differences in CRC mortality were shown in men, even in the rural areas (Gangwon-do, Jeollabuk-do, Jeollanam-do, and Gyeongsangbuk-do) where mortality increased from 2000 to 2013. In the Republic of Korea, cancer-related survival burden is expected to show a rapid growth with the increasing cancer incidence and mortality. 24-26

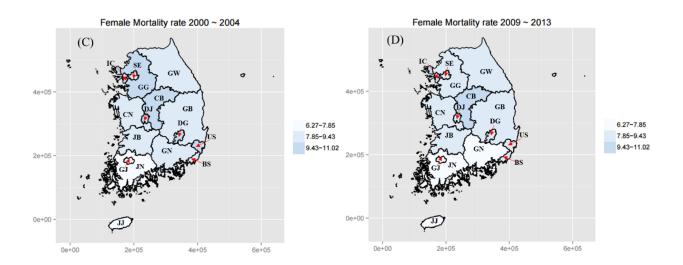
We also found that the time trends of some provinces indicated that there were joinpoint around 2004. In the Republic of Korea, the age-standardized mortality rate of men for CRC increased from 1984 through 2003, then remained stable thereafter, while the CRC mortality rate in women started to decrease since 2004.²⁷ Those findings have been affected by an underlying birth-cohort pattern: while the period effects also steadily increased until 2004 among both sexes,² the cohort effect curve showed decreasing patterns since 1919, which resulted in the decreasing relative risk of CRC mortality in recent younger cohorts.

In addition, the national cancer screening program (NCPS) in Korea for CRC using fecal occult blood test (FOBT) began in 2004.²⁸ People who are within the lower 50% of insurance premium bucket of the National Health Insurance Corporation (NHIC) are the targeted population for the NCSP. Therefore, introduction of a screening program may contribute to improved CRC survival and consequent reduction in mortality in Korea.²⁹ In Korea, CRC incidence rapidly increased until 2011, then started to decrease in both men and women. Introduction of a national cancer screening program may have affected the reduction of mortality rate and transient increase in incidence due to finding of prevalent cases during the initial period of the screening program.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to report on the regional differences in CRC mortality in Republic of Korea. In prior studies conducted in the United States, socio-economic status (SES) inequalities in CRC death by state^{11,20} were investigated using SEER cancer statistic data.⁵ Earlier studies suggested that there were significant geographic disparities in the United States for overall CRC mortality trends, and those differences are explained by the inequality factor of education^{11,20} or uptake of screening rates.⁵ In addition, in China, there was a study investigating CRC mortality calculated by area, sex, and age category groups.²³

Considering our results with those of other studies, possible explanations for geographical disparities in CRC death rates in the Republic of Korea includes multiple factors, such as uptake of screening, as well as several known behavioral and lifestyle factors, such as physical inactivity and unhealthy dietary habits. 10–12,32 From the previous studies, regions whose uptake of CRC screening was lower were more likely to have CRC cases with advanced stages 4,33 and were related with less decrease in





- (A) Male mortality rate 2000-2004
- (B) Male mortality rate 2009-2013
- (C) Female mortality rate 2000-2004
- (D) Female mortality rate 2009-2013

SE, Seoul; BS, Busan; DG, Daegu; IC, Inchon; DJ, Daejeon; GJ, Gwangju; US, Ulsan; GG, Gyunggi-do; GW, Gangwon-do; CB, Chungcheongbuk-do; CN, Chungcheongnam-do; GB, Gyeongsangbuk-do; GN, Gyeongsangnam-do; JB, Jeollabuk-do; JN, Jeollanam-do; JJ, Jeju-do.

Figure 2. Colorectal cancer age-standardized mortality rates in 16 provinces, 2000–2004 to 2009–2013

mortality rates compared with other regions.⁵ In this study, we did not analyze primary causative factors affecting CRC death rates according to the geographical patterns, leaving the possibility that this disparity can be explained by multiple factors due to geographical differences. 5,10 While, among other lifestyle factors, obesity may increase the risk of CRC.34,35 Based on the data of

NHIS, the top ranking of obesity prevalence in 2015 was observed in Jeju-do, Gangwon-do, Incheon, and Jeollado areas, which showed increasing rates of CRC from 2000-2004 to 2009-2013 in men.

Even if data on regional variation in CRC treatment are limited, CRC survivors residing in rural areas or poorer provinces

^a Age-standardized rates for each states and periods by sex were sorted in descending order and grouped into eight categories (6.27-7.85, 7.85-9.43, 9.43-11.02, 11.02-12.6. 12.6-14.19, 14.19-15.77, 15.77-17.35, 17.35-18.94). Unit: /100.000

are less likely to receive appropriate and timely treatment than those residing in urban or more affluent areas. 10,36 From previous studies, people with lower SES may delay their treatment for CRC due to diverse factors, including lack of treatment-related knowledge, care burden, and limited medical accessibility. 10,37 CRC patients residing in rural areas or poorer neighborhoods are less likely to receive adjuvant chemotherapy than patients residing in urban or more affluent areas.

A limitation of our study is the validity of death certificates, which can affect our results. The Cause of Death Statistics of Korea is primarily based on death certificates. In a previous study, overall accuracy of the Cause of Death Statistics was 91.9%.38 In addition, if there were no available death certificates, deaths were classified as unknown causes. Other previous studies identified that, overall, 18.3% of deaths were classified as unknown causes and proportion of unknown causes varied region to region.³⁹ In other aspects, overall, as proportions of death certificates issued by physicians have steadily increased, 40 the proportion of unknown cause of death has steadily decreased. This could contribute to little change in CRC mortality rate in most areas. However, since CRC is major neoplasm, its diagnosis is more likely to be fairly accurate.

The time of trends examined from 2000 through 2013 may also be limitation. Cause-specific mortality data was available from 1983, so we could calculated the yearly ASR per 100,000 based on the KOSIS from 1983 to 2013. However, because we wanted to look at the recent trends in the past 10 years, we only selected the data from 2000 to 2013. Therefore, in our study we chose the year of 2000 as the observation starting point. In addition, although we tried to explain the regional differences of CRC mortality with prevalence of known risk factors, such as smoking and alcohol consumption, and especially for screening, a further study to investigate the reasons for regional differences in trends of CRC mortality based on more descriptive evidence should be pursued.

Nevertheless, the main strength of this study is that we examined representative CRC mortality trends in Korea using nationwide data. Joinpoint regression usually needs a large sample size, although statistical power to detect a significant APC depends on a value size of APC and rate per population. In addition, this study is the first to show the geographical pattern of CRC death rates using visualization data. We found that the mortality rate for CRC in the eastern regions, such as Deagu after 2006, Chongchengbuk-do after 2004, and Gyeongsangnamdo after 2004, which had relatively lower rates than that of the men in 2000 to 2004, reached a level similar to that in the northwestern regions of 2009 to 2013. Northwestern regions, such as Incheon and Daejeon, showed stable and higher CRC over the observation period in men; Gwangju, Jeollabuk-do, Jeollanum-do, and Gyeongsamgbuk-do, which are located in the southwest, showed an increasing trend of CRC mortality. Generally, the regional disparity of CRC death rates decreased in men from 2000-2004 to 2009-2013.

In conclusion, regional variation in CRC mortality of men became less apparent between 2000-2013. Still, based on the APC analysis, CRC mortality has started to decline in Daegu since 2006 and in Chungcheongnam-do and Gyeongsangnam-do since 2004 in men. In women, the mortality rate of CRC started to decrease in 2005, 2003, 2007, and 2006 in Seoul, Incheon, Daejeon, and Gyeongsangnam-do, respectively.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the Education and Research Encouragement Fund of Seoul National University Hospital and Korea National Research Foundation (2017R1A2B4009233).

Authors' Contributions: Study concept and design: Aesun Shin; Statistical Analysis: Hyeong Taek Woo, Jin Ah Sim; Spatial Analysis: Jong Hun Mo, Jin Ah Sim; Provision of study materials or patients: Statistic Korea, Republic of Korea; Collection and assembly of data: Jin Ah Sim, Hyeong Taek Woo; Data analysis and interpretation: Jin Ah Sim, Hyeong Taek Woo, Aesun Shin, Young Ho Yun; Manuscript writing: Jin Ah Sim, Hyeong Taek Woo, Aesun Shin, Young Ho Yun; Administrative, technical, or material support: Aesun Shin.

Conflicts of interest: None declared.

REFERENCES

- 1. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2015. CA Cancer J Clin. 2015;65:5-29
- 2. Shin A, Jung KW, Won YJ. Colorectal cancer mortality in Hong Kong of China, Japan, South Korea, and Singapore. World J Gastroenterol. 2013;19(7):979-983.
- 3. Torre LA, Bray F, Siegel RL, et al. Global cancer statistics, 2012. CA Cancer J Clin. 2015;65:87–108.
- 4. Jung KW, Won YJ, Kong HJ, et al. Cancer statistics in Korea: incidence, mortality, survival, and prevalence in 2012. Cancer Res Treat. 2015;47:127-141.
- Naishadham D, Lansdorp-Vogelaar I, Siegel R, et al. State disparities in colorectal cancer mortality patterns in the United States. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2011;20:1296-1302.
- 6. Kohler BA, Sherman RL, Howlader N, et al. Annual Report to the Nation on the Status of Cancer, 1975-2011, Featuring Incidence of Breast Cancer Subtypes by Race/Ethnicity, Poverty, and State. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2015;107:djv048.
- 7. Howlader N, Noone A, Krapcho M, et al. SEER Cancer Statistics Review, 1975–2012. Bethesda, MD, USA: National Cancer Institute; 2015.
- 8. Haggar FA, Boushey RP. Colorectal cancer epidemiology: incidence, mortality, survival, and risk factors. Clin Colon Rectal Surg. 2009;22:191-197.
- 9. Henry KA, Niu X, Boscoe FP. Geographic disparities in colorectal cancer survival. Int J Health Geogr. 2009;8:48.
- 10. Le H, Ziogas A, Lipkin SM, et al. Effects of socioeconomic status and treatment disparities in colorectal cancer survival. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2008;17:1950-1962.
- 11. Beckmann KR, Bennett A, Young GP, et al. Sociodemographic disparities in survival from colorectal cancer in South Australia: a population-wide data linkage study. BMC Health Serv Res. 2016; 16:24
- 12. Behavioral risk factors in colorectal cancer linked to socioeconomic factors, JNCL J Nat Cancer Inst. 2012:104:NP.
- 13. Vogelaar I, van Ballegooijen M, Schrag D, et al. How much can current interventions reduce colorectal cancer mortality in the U.S.? Mortality projections for scenarios of risk-factor modification, screening, and treatment. Cancer. 2006;107:1624-1633.
- 14. Demark-Wahnefried W, Rock CL, Patrick K, et al. Lifestyle interventions to reduce cancer risk and improve outcomes. Am Fam Physician. 2008;77:1573-1578.
- 15. Faruque FS, Zhang X, Nichols EN, et al. The impact of preventive screening resource distribution on geographic and population-based disparities in colorectal cancer in Mississippi. BMC Res Notes. 2015:8:423.
- 16. Seeff LC, DeGroff A, Joseph DA, et al. Moving forward: using the experience of the CDCs' Colorectal Cancer Screening Demonstration Program to guide future colorectal cancer programming efforts. Cancer. 2013;119(Suppl 15):2940-2946.

- 17. Seeff LC, Rohan EA. Lessons learned from the CDC's Colorectal Cancer Screening Demonstration Program. Cancer. 2013; 119(Suppl 15):2817-2819.
- 18. Prevention CfDCa: Increasing Colorectal Cancer Screening: An Action Guide for Working with Health Systems, in Prevention CfDCa (ed). Atlanta: US Dept of Health and Human Services; 2013.
- 19. Perdue DG, Haverkamp D, Perkins C, Daley CM, Provost E. Geographic variation in colorectal cancer incidence and mortality, age of onset, and stage at diagnosis among American Indian and Alaska Native people, 1990–2009. Am J Public Health. 2014; 104(Suppl 3):S404-S414.
- 20. Jemal A, Siegel RL, Ma J, et al. Inequalities in premature death from colorectal cancer by state. J Clin Oncol. 2015;33:829-835.
- 21. Shin HY, Lee JY, Song J, et al. Cause-of-death statistics in the Republic of Korea, 2014. J Korean Med Assoc. 2016;59:221-232.
- 22. Korea(KOSIS) S. Annual report on the causes of death statistics (The nation/Cities and Provinces), in computer network (KOSIS e-NI (ed). Daejeon; 2015.
- 23. Liu S, Zheng R, Zhang M, et al. Incidence and mortality of colorectal cancer in China, 2011. Chin J Cancer Res. 2015;27:22-
- 24. Lee KS, Chang HS, Lee SM, Park EC. Economic burden of cancer in Korea during 2000-2010. Cancer Res Treat. 2015;47(3):387-
- 25. Oh CM, Won YJ, Jung KW, et al. Community of population-based regional cancer registries. cancer statistics in Korea: incidence, mortality, survival, and prevalence in 2013. Cancer Res Treat. 2016;48(2):436–450.
- 26. Park JH, Lee KS, Choi KS. Burden of cancer in Korea during 2000-2020. Cancer Epidemiol. 2013;37:353-359.
- 27. Jee Y, Oh CM, Shin A. Recent decrease in colorectal cancer mortality rate is affected by birth cohort in Korea. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev. 2015;16:3951-3955.
- 28. Yoon M, Kim N, Nam B, Joo J, Ki M. Changing trends in colorectal cancer in the Republic of Korea: contrast with Japan. Epidemiol Health. 2015;37:e2015038.
- 29. Suh M, Song S, Cho HN, et al. Trends in participation rates for the national cancer screening program in Korea, 2002-2012. Cancer

- Res Treat. 2017;49:798-806.
- 30. Ayanian JZ, Carethers JM. Bridging behavior and biology to reduce socioeconomic disparities in colorectal cancer risk. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2012;104:1343-1344.
- 31. Doubeni CA, Major JM, Laiyemo AO, et al. Contribution of behavioral risk factors and obesity to socioeconomic differences in colorectal cancer incidence. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2012;104:1353-
- 32. Doubeni CA, Laiyemo AO, Major JM, et al. Socioeconomic status and the risk of colorectal cancer: an analysis of more than a half million adults in the National Institutes of Health-AARP Diet and Health Study. Cancer. 2012;118:3636-3644.
- 33. Henley SJ, King JB, German RR, Richardson LC, Plescia M; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Surveillance of screening-detected cancers (colon and rectum, breast, and cervix) -United States, 2004–2006. MMWR Surveill Summ. 2010;59(9):1-25.
- 34. John BJ, Abulafi AM, Poullis A, et al. Chronic subclinical bowel inflammation may explain increased risk of colorectal cancer in obese people. Gut. 2007;56:1034-1035.
- 35. Calle EE, Rodriguez C, Walker-Thurmond K, Thun MJ. Overweight, obesity, and mortality from cancer in a prospectively studied cohort of U.S. adults. N Engl J Med. 2003;348(17):1625-1638.
- 36. Mandelblatt J, Andrews H, Kao R, et al. The late-stage diagnosis of colorectal cancer: demographic and socioeconomic factors. Am J Public Health. 1996;86:1794-1797.
- 37. Edwards BK, Brown ML, Wingo PA, et al. Annual report to the nation on the status of cancer, 1975-2002, featuring populationbased trends in cancer treatment. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2005;97:1407-1427.
- 38. Won TY KB, Im TH, Choi HJ. The study of accuracy of death statistics. J Korean Soc Emerg Med. 2007;18:256-262.
- 39. Park SH, Lee TY. Analysis and improving ways of factors affecting the ill-defined causes of death of the aged in Korea. Korean J Health Policy Admin. 2011;21:329-348.
- 40. Jo MW, Khang YH, Yun S, et al. Proportion of death certificates issued by physicians and associated factors in Korea, 1990-2002. J Prev Med Public Health. 2004;37:345-352.