

## Lymphoid Malignancies in U.S. Asians: Incidence Rate Differences by Birthplace and Acculturation

Christina A. Clarke<sup>1,2</sup>, Sally L. Glaser<sup>1,2</sup>, Scarlett L. Gomez<sup>1,2</sup>, Sophia S. Wang<sup>3</sup>, Theresa H. Keegan<sup>1,2</sup>, Juan Yang<sup>1</sup>, and Ellen T. Chang<sup>1,2</sup>

### Abstract

**Background:** Malignancies of the lymphoid cells, including non-Hodgkin lymphomas (NHL), HL, and multiple myeloma, occur at much lower rates in Asians than other racial/ethnic groups in the United States. It remains unclear whether these deficits are explained by genetic or environmental factors. To better understand environmental contributions, we examined incidence patterns of lymphoid malignancies among populations characterized by ethnicity, birthplace, and residential neighborhood socioeconomic status (SES) and ethnic enclave status.

**Methods:** We obtained data about all Asian patients diagnosed with lymphoid malignancies between 1988 and 2004 from the California Cancer Registry and neighborhood characteristics from U.S. Census data.

**Results:** Although incidence rates of most lymphoid malignancies were lower among Asian than white populations, only follicular lymphoma (FL), chronic lymphocytic leukemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma (CLL/SLL), and nodular sclerosis (NS) HL rates were statistically significantly lower among foreign-born than U.S.-born Asians with incidence rate ratios ranging from 0.34 to 0.87. Rates of CLL/SLL and NS HL were also lower among Asian women living in ethnic enclaves or lower SES neighborhoods than those living elsewhere.

**Conclusions:** These observations support strong roles of environmental factors in the causation of FL, CLL/SLL, and NS HL.

**Impact:** Studying specific lymphoid malignancies in U.S. Asians may provide valuable insight toward understanding their environmental causes. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*; 20(6); 1064–77. ©2011 AACR.

### Introduction

Malignancies of the lymphoid cells, including non-Hodgkin lymphomas (NHL), HL, and multiple myeloma (MM), are highly heterogeneous with respect to clinical features and patterns of occurrence (1). Despite this variation, U.S. populations of Asian origin consistently have much lower incidence rates of lymphoid malignancies than populations of Caucasian or African origin (2). In our recent assessment of lymphoid malignancies in the United States, overall incidence rates were substantially lower among Filipinos (67% of non-Hispanic white rate), South Asians (64%), Vietnamese (62%), Japanese (53%),

Chinese (47%), and Koreans (33%) than among non-Hispanic whites (2). These striking differences may contain important clues about genetic or environmental risk factors for these diseases, especially whether incidence rates change with migration from low-risk (e.g., Asia) to higher risk areas (e.g., United States).

Unfortunately, cancer incidence rates according to measures of migration or acculturation cannot be readily calculated. Although patient's birthplace is collected by cancer registries, it is missing in a biased manner for a substantial proportion of patients (3–6), and the birthplace-specific annual population counts needed for rate denominators are not readily available from governmental agencies. Measures of immigrant acculturation (e.g., years since migration, language used at home) are not collected at all by cancer registries. To surmount these challenges, we have developed a resource (7) incorporating cancer registry data from California and population data needed to calculate cancer incidence rates among U.S. Asians by birthplace and 2 residential neighborhood measures of acculturation: socioeconomic status (SES) and ethnic enclave status. By using this resource, we examined variation in incidence rates of lymphoid malignancies among U.S. Asians by these factors.

**Authors' Affiliations:** <sup>1</sup>Cancer Prevention Institute of California, Fremont; <sup>2</sup>Division of Epidemiology, Department of Health Research and Policy, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford; <sup>3</sup>Department of Cancer Etiology, City of Hope and the Beckman Research Institute, Duarte, California

**Corresponding Author:** Christina A. Clarke, Cancer Prevention Institute of California, 2201 Walnut Avenue, Suite 300, Fremont, CA 94538. Phone: 510-608-5044; Fax: 510-608-5085. E-mail: tina@cpic.org

doi: 10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-11-0038

©2011 American Association for Cancer Research.

## Materials and Methods

### Cancer data for rate numerators

From the California Cancer Registry (CCR), which comprises 3 of the National Cancer Institute's Surveillance Epidemiology and End Results (SEER) program registries (8), we obtained information on all California residents diagnosed with a primary invasive lymphoid malignancy [International Classification of Disease for Oncology, 3rd Edition, (ICD-O-3) morphology codes 9590–9591, 9650–9655, 9661–9734, 9761, 9764, 9823, 9827–9837, 9940, 9948, and 9970] during the period 1 January 1988 to 31 December 2004. By using InterLymph Consortium guidelines (9, 10), we further classified lymphoid malignancies by histologic subtype into diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL; ICD-O-3 morphology codes 9680 and 9684, excluding those with code 9684 and a T-cell, NK-cell, or null-cell immunophenotype); follicular lymphoma (FL; codes 9690, 9691, 9695, and 9698); chronic lymphocytic leukemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma (CLL/SLL; codes 9823 and 9670); MM (codes 9731–9734); classical HL (codes 9650–9655 and 9661–9667) and its 2 most common subtypes, nodular sclerosis (NS) HL (codes 9663–9665 and 9667) and mixed cellularity (MC) HL (code 9652); and T- or NK-cell NHL (TCL; codes 9700–9719, 9729, 9827, 9831, 9834, 9837, and 9948 plus codes 9590, 9591, 9675, 9684, 9727, 9820, 9832, 9835, or 9970 and a T-cell or NK cell immunophenotype). Overall NHL was categorized as including codes 9590–9591, 9670–9729, 9761, 9764, 9820, 9823, 9827, 9831–9837, 9940, 9948, and 9970.

### Incidence rates by birthplace

We included in these analyses 8,638 lymphoid malignancies (6,712 NHL, 526 NHL, and 1,410 MM) occurring in patients from the 6 Asian ethnic populations that together comprised 92% of all Asian and Pacific Islander patients with lymphoid malignancies in the CCR in the study period. Of these, 2,385 (28%) cases were Chinese, 1,246 (14%) Japanese, 2,913 (34%) Filipino, 506 (6%) Korean, 701 (8%) South Asian (including Asian Indians, Pakistanis, Sri Lankans, and Bangladeshis), and 887 (10%) Vietnamese. Approximately 5% of patients were originally coded in the registry data as "Asian, not otherwise specified;" for 55% of these patients, we could determine a more specific Asian ethnic designation on the basis of birthplace and names (first, maiden, and last) by applying the North American Association of Central Cancer Registries Asian/Pacific Islander Identification Algorithm (11). We also included as a reference group 110,789 non-Hispanic white patients diagnosed with lymphoid malignancies (85,465 NHL, 8,967 HL, and 16,357 MM) during the same period.

Because patients in the cancer registry with unknown birthplace data are more likely to be U.S. born than those with available data (3–6), we developed a method on the basis of patients' social security numbers (SSN) to more accurately classify patient immigrant status, as described

previously (7). Briefly, we used: (i) registry-based birthplace data available for 81% of cases (73% from hospital medical records and 8% from death certificates) and (ii) for the 19% of cases with unknown birthplace, statistical imputation of immigrant status by using the patient's SSN. By comparing the age of SSN issue with self-reported birthplace in previously interviewed cancer patients ( $n = 1,836$ ) and based on maximization of the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve and confirmation with logistic regression modeling, we considered cases who received an SSN before age 25 years U.S. born, and those who had received an SSN at or after age 25 years as foreign born. This age cut point resulted in 84% sensitivity and 80% specificity for assigning foreign-born status across the Asian populations. Fewer than 3% of cases with missing or invalid SSNs were assigned an immigrant status on the basis of the ethnicity–sex–age birthplace distribution of the overall sample.

### Incidence rates by neighborhood socioeconomic and ethnic enclave status

By using patient residential address and small-area (census tract) information from the U.S. Census, we classified neighborhood SES and ethnic enclave status for all Asian patients diagnosed between 1 January 1998 and 31 December 2002. We considered all Asians together as a single group because detailed ethnicity-specific population estimates are not available for census tracts and chose the time period in question (i.e., within 2 years of the 2000 U.S. Census) because census tract estimates are only available for decennial census years. Census tracts were geocoded from patient residential address at time of diagnosis. A total of 3% of eligible cases whose address could not be precisely geocoded to a census tract were randomly assigned to a census tract within their county of residence. We assigned neighborhood SES by using a previously described index (12) that incorporates 2,000 census data on education, income, occupation, and housing costs. We categorized this measure by quintiles on the basis of the distribution of the composite SES index across the state of California, then recategorized into 2 groups because of small sample sizes in the quintiles: lower SES (quintiles 1–3) or higher SES (quintiles 4 and 5). Because the CCR does not collect any individual-level information on patient SES, we could not assess neighborhood-level effects separately from those at the individual level.

We defined a neighborhood ethnic enclave as a geographical unit that is relatively more concentrated in terms of its population and language (in this study specific to Asians) than other geographical units in California. To characterize residence in an ethnic enclave, we applied principal components analysis (13) to selected census variables at the block group level, which was, in turn, averaged to the census tract level. The census variables included in the ethnic enclave index were: percent of Asian language speaking households that are linguistically isolated, percent of all Asian language speakers

who speak limited English, percent of recent immigrants, and percent of Asian. This index explained 63% of the variability in the data. Neighborhood ethnic enclave was classified into quintiles on the basis of the distribution of the composite ethnic enclave index across the state of California, then recategorized into 2 groups because of small sample sizes in the quintiles: lower (quintiles 1–3) or higher (quintiles 4 and 5) enclave status.

#### Population data for cancer rate denominators

From the 1990 and 2000 Census Summary File 3, we obtained population counts by sex, race/ethnicity, immigrant status, and 5-year age group for the state of California. We also used data from the 20% integrated public use microdata sample of the census to estimate age- and birthplace-specific population counts for the 6 Asian groups (14–17) by smoothing with a spline-based function (18). For intercensal years, we estimated the percent of foreign born by using cohort component interpolation and extrapolation methods (19), adjusting estimates to the populations by age and year provided by the California Department of Finance for years 1988 to 1989 and the U.S. Census for years 1990 to 2004 due to data availability.

#### Statistical analysis

We used SEER\*Stat Software (20) to compute age-adjusted incidence rates (standardized to the 2,000 U.S. standard million population) and 95% CIs. To comply with CCR regulations, we do not present case counts or rates based on fewer than 15 cases. For HL, we also calculated age-adjusted rates for persons ages 15 to 44 ( $n = 159$  men and 153 women) and 45 and above ( $n = 110$  men and 70 women) at diagnosis because of strong previous evidence of etiologic differences between these groups (21). We calculated incidence rate ratios (IRR) to compare incidence rates. Because of small case numbers, Asian ethnic groups were combined for analyses of NHL subtypes, MM, and HL, and analyses of HL rates jointly by SES and enclave could not be undertaken by age group. We could not carry out joint analyses by birthplace and neighborhood SES or ethnic enclave status due to the lack of census-tract-level population data by birthplace. All analyses had the approval of the Institutional Review Board of the Cancer Prevention Institute of California, Fremont, CA.

#### Results

Among the 8,638 Asians diagnosed with a lymphoid malignancy in California in the years 1988 to 2004, the majority (75%) were foreign born, although this proportion was much lower for Japanese (32%; Table 1). Among histologic subtypes of NHL, the most common among Asians was DLBCL ( $n = 2,345$ , 35% of all NHL), followed by TCL ( $n = 721$ , 11%), FL ( $n = 661$ , 10%), and CLL/SLL ( $n = 560$ , 8%); by comparison, non-Hispanic whites had higher proportions of FL, CLL/SLL, and a lower propor-

tion of TCL. A total of 1,410 Asians were diagnosed with MM and 516 with HL, including 322 (62%) with NS HL and 96 (19%) with MC HL.

#### Lymphoid malignancy incidence among Asians as compared with whites

For NHL overall, age-adjusted incidence rates for most Asian ethnic groups were substantially lower than those for non-Hispanic whites (Table 2). For example, the IRR among foreign-born Filipino men versus white men was 0.70 (95% CI: 0.65–0.75) and the corresponding IRR for women was 0.76 (95% CI: 0.70–0.83); the IRR among foreign-born Chinese men versus white men was 0.49 (95% CI: 0.44–0.54); and the corresponding IRR among women was 0.50 (95% CI: 0.45–0.55). The only groups for which rates were not significantly different from those of non-Hispanic whites were the relatively small populations of foreign-born Japanese men and U.S.-born South Asian and Vietnamese men and women.

For most specific lymphoid malignancy subtypes, incidence rates for both U.S.- and foreign-born Asians were lower than those for non-Hispanic whites. The most marked deficits were observed for CLL/SLL (among men, IRR for foreign-born Asians versus whites = 0.22, 95% CI: 0.18–0.25; among women, IRR = 0.24, 95% CI: 0.18–0.30) and NS HL (among men, IRR for foreign-born Asians versus whites = 0.25, 95% CI: 0.13–0.37; among women, IRR = 0.19, 95% CI: 0.13–0.26). However, for TCL and DLBCL (in most ethnic groups), rates were comparable to those for non-Hispanic whites.

#### Lymphoid malignancy incidence among Asians by birthplace

For overall NHL, foreign-born Chinese, South Asian, and Vietnamese men and women had consistently lower incidence rates than their U.S.-born counterparts (Table 2). By contrast, foreign-born Japanese men had incidence rates 71% higher than their U.S.-born counterparts, whereas no birthplace difference was observed among Japanese women or Korean men or women.

For specific subtypes, Table 3 shows that FL incidence was consistently lower among foreign-born than U.S.-born Asian men and women. For DLBCL, for which numbers of cases were adequate for examining rates for Chinese and Japanese, patterns were similar to those observed for overall NHL, with lower incidence rates for foreign-born versus U.S.-born Chinese men and women, in contrast to higher rates among foreign-born versus U.S.-born Japanese men. Among Japanese and other Asian (Filipina, South Asian, and Vietnamese) women, there were no significant differences in the incidence rate of DLBCL by birthplace. Incidence rates of TCL did not vary by birthplace among Asian men or women. For MM, rates were marginally higher (37%) among foreign-born than U.S.-born Asian women, but comparable by birthplace in men.

For overall HL, rates among foreign-born Asians were approximately half those among U.S.-born Asians. IRR

**Table 1.** Demographic and disease characteristics of Asian and non-Hispanic white patients diagnosed with lymphoid malignancies, California, 1988–2004

Characteristic	Chinese	Japanese	Filipino	Korean	South Asian	Vietnamese	All Asian	Non-Hispanic white
Age at diagnosis, y								
0–29	272	58	285	79	131	165	990	7,455
30–49	381	141	467	97	147	195	1,428	17,158
50–69	801	433	1,009	173	264	299	2,979	36,730
70+	931	614	1,152	157	159	228	3,241	49,446
Sex								
Men	1,359	642	1,572	278	419	485	4,755	62,674
Women	1,026	604	1,341	228	282	402	3,883	48,115
Nativity								
U.S. born	620	850	355	72	134	112	2,143	—
Foreign born	1,765	396	2,558	434	567	775	6,495	—
Tumor histology								
DLBCL	621	366	845	131	118	264	2,345	21,920
FL	225	142	147	29	51	67	661	12,027
CLL/SLL	183	82	156	23	69	47	560	18,973
T-cell lymphoma	207	88	212	58	65	91	721	5,454
Other NHL	682	352	789	159	192	251	2,425	27,091
MM	342	170	575	85	123	115	1,410	16,357
Overall HL	125	46	189	21	83	52	516	8,967
NS HL	76	27	122	13	51	33	322	5,808
MC HL	28	8	31	2	16	11	96	1,532
Other classical HL	21	11	36	6	16	8	98	1,627
Total	2,385	1,246	2,913	506	701	887	8,638	110,789

**Table 2.** Age-adjusted incidence rates (per 100,000 person-years) of overall NHL and incidence rate ratios (IRRs) by nativity among Asians and non-Hispanic whites, California, 1988–2004

Ethnic group	Nativity	Men				
		Cases (n)	Incidence rate	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
Chinese	U.S. born	320	30.6	(26.7–34.8)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	775	16.9	(15.2–18.7)	<b>0.55</b>	<b>(0.47–0.65)</b>
Japanese	U.S. born	396	18.1	(16.3–20.1)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	130	30.9	(25.1–37.6)	<b>1.71</b>	<b>(1.35–2.14)</b>
Filipino	U.S. born	156	23.3	(18.0–29.6)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	1,026	24.1	(22.3–26.0)	1.03	(0.8–1.36)
Korean	U.S. born	36	16.8	(7.0–32.4)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	188	12.7	(10.7–15.1)	0.76	(0.38–1.84)
South Asian	U.S. born	58	46.9	(27.7–73.1)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	244	20.1	(17.1–23.4)	<b>0.43</b>	<b>(0.27–0.74)</b>
Vietnamese	U.S. born	50	66.3	(36.1–109.5)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	350	19.3	(16.9–22.0)	<b>0.29</b>	<b>(0.17–0.54)</b>
Non-Hispanic white		48,816	34.5	(34.2–34.8)	—	—
		Women				
Asian ethnic group	Nativity	Cases (n)	Incidence rate	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
Chinese	U.S. born	195	15.5	(13.1–18.1)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	628	10.4	(9.5–11.4)	<b>0.67</b>	<b>(0.56–0.81)</b>
Japanese	U.S. born	298	13	(11.5–14.7)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	206	14	(12–16.4)	1.08	(0.88–1.32)
Filipino	U.S. born	106	13.5	(9.8–18.1)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	861	15.8	(14.3–17.3)	1.17	(0.86–1.62)
Korean	U.S. born	25	6.3	(2.5–13.1)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	151	7.2	(5.9–8.6)	1.14	(0.53–2.98)
South Asian	U.S. born	37	35	(18.6–58.4)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	156	14.3	(11.8–17.2)	<b>0.41</b>	<b>(0.24–0.79)</b>
Vietnamese	U.S. born	39	34.9	(17.3–62.7)	1.00	reference
	Foreign born	281	14.8	(13–16.9)	<b>0.42</b>	<b>(0.23–0.87)</b>
Non-Hispanic white		36,649	20.7	(20.5–20.9)	—	—

patterns were similar for NS HL, but no nativity differences occurred in rates of MC HL. In data stratified by age, the protective effect of foreign birthplace was limited to young adults of both genders for HL overall; for NS HL, it was apparent for both younger and older women [IRRs of 0.34 (95% CI: 0.23–0.50) for ages 15 to 44 and 0.32 (95% CI: 0.14–0.80) for ages 45 and above].

Although we had limited statistical power to assess rate changes over time stratified by birthplace, rates did not vary significantly between the periods 1988 to 1996 and 1997 to 2004 (data not shown). For overall NHL, rates increased significantly among U.S.-born Chinese and Filipino men and foreign-born Korean men, but not among women of the same groups. IRRs comparing foreign-born versus U.S.-born Asians were generally similar between 1988 to 1996 and 1997 to 2004, although for overall HL and NS HL, they were statistically significant only in the latter period (data not shown).

#### Lymphoid malignancies by neighborhood ethnic enclave and SES

Among Asian men, ethnic enclave status did not impact the incidence rates of overall NHL, DLBCL, FL, CLL/SLL, TCL, MM, overall HL, NS HL, or MC HL (Table 4). By contrast, among Asian women, overall NHL, CLL/SLL, overall HL, and MC HL were significantly less common in neighborhoods with higher ethnic enclave status. For HL, these patterns did not differ by age group for either gender. Asian men living in higher SES neighborhoods had significantly elevated incidence rates of FL and NS HL (an effect limited to young adult men), but not of other lymphoma subtypes. Asian women in higher SES neighborhoods had significantly higher incidence rates of FL, TCL, and overall HL (apparent only for women older than 45 at diagnosis); marginally higher rates of NS HL and MC HL; but lower rates of CLL/SLL.

**Table 3.** Age-adjusted incidence rates (per 100,000 person-years) of NHL histologic subtypes, MM, HL subtypes, and IRRs by nativity among Asians and non-Hispanic whites, California, 1988–2004

Lymphoid malignancy	Ethnic group	Nativity	Men				
			Cases (n)	Incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
DLBCL	All Asians	U.S. born	314	8.5	(7.5–9.5)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	961	6.5	(6.1–7.0)	<b>0.77</b>	<b>(0.67–0.88)</b>
	Chinese	U.S. born	96	10.9	(8.6–13.6)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	257	4.7	(4.1–5.4)	<b>0.43</b>	<b>(0.33–0.57)</b>
	Japanese	U.S. born	149	6.7	(5.6–8.0)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	49	11.5	(8.0–15.7)	<b>1.71</b>	<b>(1.14–2.46)</b>
	Other Asian	U.S. born	69	8.8	(6.3–11.8)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	655	7.4	(6.8–8.1)	0.85	(0.62–1.20)
		Non-Hispanic white	12,636	8.8	(8.7–9.0)	—	—
	FL	All Asians	U.S. born	96	2.7	(2.1–3.3)	1.00
Foreign born			244	1.5	(1.3–1.7)	<b>0.57</b>	<b>(0.44–0.73)</b>
	Non-Hispanic white	5,981	4.1	(4.0–4.2)	—	—	
CLL/SLL	All Asians	U.S. born	81	2.4	(1.9–2.9)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	249	1.7	(1.5–1.9)	<b>0.72</b>	<b>(0.56–0.95)</b>
	Non-Hispanic white	11,094	7.9	(7.8–8.1)	—	—	
T-cell lymphoma	All Asians	U.S. born	122	2.2	(1.8–2.7)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	305	2.0	(1.8–2.3)	0.91	(0.71–1.18)
	Non-Hispanic white	3,348	2.4	(2.3–2.5)	—	—	
MM	All Asians	U.S. born	128	3.8	(3.2–4.5)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	614	4.3	(4.0–4.7)	1.14	(0.94–1.41)
	Non-Hispanic white	8,929	6.4	(6.2–6.5)	—	—	
Overall HL	All Asians	U.S. born	105	1.8	(1.4–2.2)	1.00	Reference
		Foreign born	179	1.1	(0.9–1.2)	<b>0.60</b>	<b>(0.46–0.80)</b>
	Non-Hispanic white	4,929	3.4	(3.3–3.5)	—	—	
HL, age <45 y	All Asians	U.S. born	82	1.7	(1.3–2.2)	1.00	Reference
		Foreign born	92	0.7	(0.6–1.0)	<b>0.43</b>	<b>(0.30–0.63)</b>
	Non-Hispanic white	3,010	3.2	(3.1–3.3)	—	—	
HL, age 45+ y	All Asians	U.S. born	23	1.8	(1.1–2.7)	1.00	Reference
		Foreign born	87	1.6	(1.3–2.0)	0.90	(0.55–1.51)
	Non-Hispanic white	1,919	3.8	(3.7–4.0)	—	—	
HL, NS	All Asians	U.S. born	64	1.0	(0.8–1.4)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	92	0.5	(0.4–0.7)	<b>0.53</b>	<b>(0.36–0.79)</b>
	Non-Hispanic white	2,900	2.0	(1.9–2.1)	—	—	
HL, MC	All Asians	U.S. born	15	0.3	(0.2–0.5)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	47	0.3	(0.2–0.4)	0.90	(0.48–1.86)
	Non-Hispanic white	1,001	0.7	(0.7–0.7)	—	—	
Women							
Lymphoid malignancy	Asian ethnic group	Nativity	Cases (n)	Incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
DLBCL	All Asians	U.S. born	198	4.6	(4.0–5.4)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	872	4.7	(4.4–5.0)	1.01	(0.86–1.19)
	Chinese	U.S. born	49	4.5	(3.3–6.0)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	219	3.6	(3.1–4.1)	0.80	(0.58–1.14)
	Japanese	U.S. born	107	4.4	(3.5–5.3)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	61	4.1	(3.0–5.4)	0.94	(0.65–1.34)
	Other Asian	U.S. born	42	5.1	(3.3–7.4)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	592	5.5	(5.0–5.9)	1.07	(0.73–1.66)
		Non-Hispanic white	9,284	5.2	(5.1–5.3)	—	—

(Continued on the following page)

**Table 3.** Age-adjusted incidence rates (per 100,000 person-years) of NHL histologic subtypes, MM, HL subtypes, and IRRs by nativity among Asians and non-Hispanic whites, California, 1988–2004 (Cont'd)

Lymphoid malignancy	Asian ethnic group	Nativity	Women				
			Cases (n)	Incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
FL	All Asians	U.S. born	77	2.0	(1.5–2.5)	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	244	1.2	(1.0–1.4)	<b>0.61</b>	<b>(0.47–0.81)</b>
CLL/SLL	Non-Hispanic white	U.S. born	6,046	3.5	(3.4–3.6)	—	—
		All Asians	44	1.2	(0.8–1.6)	1.00	reference
T-cell lymphoma	All Asians	U.S. born	186	1.0	(0.9–1.2)	<b>0.87</b>	<b>(0.56–0.95)</b>
		Foreign born	7,879	4.2	(4.1–4.3)	—	—
MM	All Asians	U.S. born	2,106	1.3	(1.2–1.3)	—	—
		Foreign born	87	2.3	(1.8–2.9)	1.00	reference
Overall HL	All Asians	U.S. born	581	3.2	(2.9–3.5)	<b>1.37</b>	<b>(1.09–1.75)</b>
		Foreign born	7,428	4.0	(3.9–4.1)	—	—
HL, age <45 y	All Asians	U.S. born	107	1.6	(1.2–1.9)	1.00	Reference
		Foreign born	125	0.6	(0.5–0.7)	<b>0.38</b>	<b>(0.28–0.52)</b>
HL, age 45+ y	All Asians	U.S. born	4,038	2.8	(2.7–2.8)	—	—
		Foreign born	91	1.7	(1.3–2.1)	1.00	Reference
HL, NS	All Asians	U.S. born	71	0.5	(0.4–0.7)	<b>0.29</b>	<b>(0.20–0.43)</b>
		Foreign born	2,600	2.9	(2.8–3.1)	—	—
HL, MC	All Asians	U.S. born	16	1.3	(0.7–2.1)	1.00	Reference
		Foreign born	54	0.8	(0.6–1.0)	0.60	(0.34–1.14)
HL, NS	All Asians	U.S. born	1,438	2.4	(2.3–2.5)	—	—
		Foreign born	83	1.1	(0.9–1.4)	1.00	reference
HL, MC	All Asians	U.S. born	83	0.4	(0.3–0.5)	<b>0.34</b>	<b>(0.24–0.48)</b>
		Foreign born	2,908	2.1	(2.0–2.1)	—	—
HL, MC	All Asians	U.S. born	11	—	—	1.00	reference
		Foreign born	23	0.1	(0.1–0.2)	0.64	(0.28–1.67)
HL, MC	Non-Hispanic white	U.S. born	531	0.3	(0.3–0.4)	—	—
		Foreign born	23	0.1	(0.1–0.2)	0.64	(0.28–1.67)

<sup>a</sup>Standardized to the 2,000 U.S. population age standard. Incidence rates with numerator less than 15 are not computed.

When we analyzed rates by neighborhood ethnic enclave status and SES jointly, we found that Asian men living in areas with both lower ethnic enclave status and higher SES had significantly higher incidence rates of overall NHL and FL, and a marginally higher incidence rate of DLBCL, than Asian men living in areas with both higher enclave status and lower SES (Table 4). For overall HL and NS HL, rates were marginally higher for Asian men living in neighborhoods of higher than lower SES irrespective of their ethnic enclave status. Compared with Asian women living in neighborhoods with both higher ethnic enclave status and lower SES, Asian women living in neighborhoods with lower ethnic enclave status and higher SES also had significantly elevated incidence rates of overall NHL, FL, overall HL, and NS HL; elevations were particularly marked for the latter 2 (IRR = 4.1, 95% CI: 2.15–7.74, and 2.5, 95% CI: 1.17–5.14, respectively). In addition, Asian women who resided in neighborhoods with both higher ethnic enclave status and higher SES

had elevated incidence rates of FL, TCL, and overall HL but a lower rate of CLL/SLL. MM incidence rates did not vary by neighborhood enclave status and SES among Asian men or women.

## Discussion

A role for environmental exposures in cancer etiology can be inferred from changes in cancer incidence after migration from low- to high-risk areas. In a large population-based series of U.S. Asians with lymphoid malignancies, we found that rates were substantially lower in foreign-born than U.S.-born patients for certain lymphoma subtypes, specifically CLL/SLL, FL, and NS HL. Rates of CLL/SLL and NS HL were also significantly lower among Asian women living in ethnic enclaves or lower SES neighborhoods than rates of Asian women living in lower enclave or higher SES neighborhoods, respectively. For HL, the risks associated with higher

**Table 4.** Age-adjusted incidence rates (per 100,000 person-years) of NHL and histologic subtypes, MM, and HL and histologic subtypes, and incidence rate ratios (IRRs) by neighborhood immigrant enclave status and SES among Asians, California, 1998–2002

Lymphoid malignancy	Neighborhood characteristic	Men				
		Cases (n)	Incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
Overall NHL	Low enclave status	343	22.6	(20.2–25.2)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	1,139	20.6	(19.4–21.9)	0.91	(0.80–1.04)
	Low SES	715	20.2	(18.7–21.7)	1.00	reference
	High SES	767	22.1	(20.4–23.8)	1.09	(0.98–1.22)
	High enclave status/low SES	546	19.9	(18.2–21.7)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	169	20.7	(17.6–24.2)	1.04	(0.87–1.24)
	High enclave status/high SES	593	21.4	(19.5–23.3)	1.07	(0.95–1.21)
	Low enclave status/high SES	174	24.8	(21.0–29.0)	<b>1.24</b>	<b>(1.03–1.49)</b>
DLBCL	Low enclave status	112	7.6	(6.2–9.2)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	374	7.0	(6.2–7.7)	0.92	(0.74–1.16)
	Low SES	235	6.7	(5.9–7.7)	1.00	reference
	High SES	251	7.6	(6.6–8.6)	1.12	(0.93–1.36)
	High enclave status/low SES	184	6.8	(5.9–7.9)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	51	6.4	(4.7–8.5)	0.94	(0.67–1.29)
	High enclave status/high SES	190	7.2	(6.1–8.4)	1.05	(0.85–1.31)
	Low enclave status/high SES	61	9.0	(6.8–11.7)	1.32	(0.95–1.79)
FL	Low enclave status	36	2.3	(1.6–3.2)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	106	1.8	(1.5–2.2)	0.81	(0.55–1.24)
	Low SES	57	1.5	(1.2–2.0)	1.00	reference
	High SES	85	2.4	(1.9–2.9)	<b>1.52</b>	<b>(1.06–2.19)</b>
	High enclave status/low SES	48	1.7	(1.2–2.2)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	9	—		0.62	(0.27–1.29)
	High enclave status/high SES	58	2.0	(1.5–2.6)	1.19	(0.79–1.81)
	Low enclave status/high SES	27	3.7	(2.4–5.5)	<b>2.19</b>	<b>(1.29–3.64)</b>
CLL/SLL	Low enclave status	32	2.1	(1.4–3.1)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	102	1.9	(1.6–2.4)	0.91	(0.60–1.42)
	Low SES	64	1.8	(1.4–2.3)	1.00	reference
	High SES	70	2.2	(1.7–2.8)	1.20	(0.83–1.73)
	High enclave status/low SES	46	1.7	(1.2–2.3)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	18	2.2	(1.3–3.5)	1.30	(0.70–2.29)
	High enclave status/high SES	56	2.2	(1.6–2.9)	1.30	(0.85–1.99)
	Low enclave status/high SES	14	—		1.20	(0.58–2.27)
T-cell lymphoma	Low enclave status	37	2.2	(1.5–3.1)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	148	2.5	(2.1–2.9)	1.13	(0.77–1.71)
	Low SES	87	2.3	(1.8–2.8)	1.00	reference
	High SES	98	2.6	(2.1–3.2)	1.13	(0.82–1.54)
	High enclave status/low SES	72	2.4	(1.9–3.1)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	15	1.7	(0.9–2.8)	0.69	(0.36–1.23)
	High enclave status/high SES	76	2.5	(2.0–3.2)	1.03	(0.73–1.47)
	Low enclave status/high SES	22	2.8	(1.7–4.4)	1.14	(0.65, 1.92)
MM	Low enclave status	62	4.4	(3.3–5.7)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	202	3.8	(3.3–4.4)	0.87	(0.65–1.19)
	Low SES	137	4.0	(3.3–4.7)	1.00	reference
	High SES	127	3.9	(3.2–4.6)	0.97	(0.75–1.25)
	High enclave status/low SES	101	3.8	(3.1–4.6)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	36	4.8	(3.3–6.6)	1.26	(0.83–1.86)

(Continued on the following page)



**Table 4.** Age-adjusted incidence rates (per 100,000 person-years) of NHL and histologic subtypes, MM, and HL and histologic subtypes, and incidence rate ratios (IRRs) by neighborhood immigrant enclave status and SES among Asians, California, 1998–2002 (Cont'd)

		Men				
Lymphoid malignancy	Neighborhood characteristic	Cases (n)	Incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
Overall HL	High enclave status/high SES	101	3.9	(3.1–4.7)	1.02	(0.76–1.37)
	Low enclave status/high SES	26	3.9	(2.5–5.8)	1.04	(0.64–1.63)
	Low enclave status	27	1.5	(1.0–2.2)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	84	1.2	(0.9–1.5)	0.79	(0.50–1.28)
	Low SES	42	1.0	(0.7–1.4)	1.00	reference
HL, age <45 y	High SES	69	1.5	(1.1–1.9)	1.46	(0.98–2.23)
	Low enclave status	12	—	—	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	56	1.1	(0.8–1.4)	1.19	(0.63–2.45)
HL, age 45+ y	Low SES	21	0.7	(0.4–1.0)	1.00	reference
	High SES	47	1.4	(1.0–1.9)	<b>2.12</b>	<b>(1.24–3.75)</b>
	Low enclave status	15	2.6	(1.4–4.3)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	28	1.4	(0.9–2.0)	0.53	(0.27–1.09)
HL, NS	Low SES	21	1.6	(1.0–2.5)	1.00	reference
	High SES	22	1.6	(1.0–2.5)	0.96	(0.50–1.89)
	Low enclave status	14	—	—	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	49	0.7	(0.5–0.9)	0.92	(0.49–1.83)
HL, MC	Low SES	20	0.4	(0.3–0.7)	1.00	reference
	High SES	43	0.9	(0.6–1.2)	<b>2.01</b>	<b>(1.14–3.66)</b>
	Low enclave status	6	—	—	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	16	0.2	(0.1–0.4)	0.67	(0.24–2.13)
	Low SES	12	—	—	1.00	reference
		Women				
Lymphoid malignancy	Neighborhood characteristic	Cases (n)	Incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
Overall NHL	Low enclave status	307	16.0	(14.2–17.9)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	921	13.7	(12.8–14.7)	<b>0.86</b>	<b>(0.75–0.98)</b>
	Low SES	604	13.8	(12.7–14.9)	1.00	reference
	High SES	624	14.7	(13.5–15.9)	1.06	(0.95–1.20)
	High enclave status/low SES	442	13.2	(12.0–14.5)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	162	15.7	(13.3–18.3)	1.18	(0.98–1.43)
	High enclave status/high SES	479	14.2	(12.9–15.6)	1.08	(0.94–1.23)
	Low enclave status/high SES	145	16.5	(13.8–19.5)	<b>1.24</b>	<b>(1.02–1.51)</b>
DLBCL	Low enclave status	108	5.7	(4.7–6.9)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	343	5.2	(4.7–5.8)	0.91	(0.73–1.15)
	Low SES	235	5.3	(4.7–6.1)	1.00	reference
	High SES	216	5.3	(4.6–6.1)	1.00	(0.82–1.21)
	High enclave status/low SES	169	5.0	(4.3–5.8)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	66	6.4	(4.9–8.2)	1.28	(0.94–1.71)
	High enclave status/high SES	174	5.5	(4.7–6.4)	1.09	(0.87–1.36)
FL	Low enclave status/high SES	42	4.9	(3.5–6.7)	0.98	(0.67–1.39)
	Low enclave status	32	1.6	(1.1–2.2)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	88	1.2	(1.0–1.5)	0.80	(0.53–1.25)
	Low SES	44	1.0	(0.7–1.3)	1.00	reference
	High SES	76	1.7	(1.3–2.1)	<b>1.71</b>	<b>(1.16–2.55)</b>
	High enclave status/low SES	31	0.9	(0.6–1.3)	1.00	reference

(Continued on the following page)

**Table 4.** Age-adjusted incidence rates (per 100,000 person-years) of NHL and histologic subtypes, MM, and HL and histologic subtypes, and incidence rate ratios (IRRs) by neighborhood immigrant enclave status and SES among Asians, California, 1998–2002 (Cont'd)

Lymphoid malignancy	Neighborhood characteristic	Cases (n)	Women			
			Incidence rate <sup>a</sup>	95% CI	IRR	95% CI
CLL/SLL	Low enclave status/low SES	13	—		1.26	(0.60–2.50)
	High enclave status/high SES	57	1.6	(1.2–2.0)	<b>1.71</b>	<b>(1.08–2.76)</b>
	Low enclave status/high SES	19	2.1	(1.2–3.3)	<b>2.25</b>	<b>(1.17–4.18)</b>
	Low enclave status	29	1.7	(1.1–2.4)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	60	1.0	(0.7–1.2)	<b>0.58</b>	<b>(0.36–0.95)</b>
	Low SES	59	1.4	(1.1–1.8)	1.00	reference
	High SES	30	0.8	(0.5–1.1)	<b>0.53</b>	<b>(0.33–0.85)</b>
	High enclave status/low SES	39	1.2	(0.9–1.7)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	20	2.1	(1.3–3.3)	1.76	(0.95–3.11)
	High enclave status/high SES	21	0.7	(0.4–1.0)	<b>0.55</b>	<b>(0.30–0.96)</b>
T-cell lymphoma	Low enclave status/high SES	9	—		0.91	(0.37–1.94)
	Low enclave status	25	1.2	(0.8–1.8)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	104	1.4	(1.2–1.8)	1.22	(0.77–2.00)
	Low SES	52	1.1	(0.8–1.5)	1.00	reference
	High SES	77	1.7	(1.3–2.1)	<b>1.45</b>	<b>(1.00–2.12)</b>
	High enclave status/low SES	40	1.2	(0.8–1.6)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	12	1.1	(0.6–1.9)	0.95	(0.44–1.87)
MM	High enclave status/high SES	64	1.7	(1.3–2.2)	1.50	(0.99–2.30)
	Low enclave status/high SES	13	—		1.18	(0.56–2.29)
	Low enclave status	63	3.2	(2.5–4.1)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	211	3.3	(2.9–3.8)	1.03	(0.77–1.40)
	Low SES	150	3.5	(2.9–4.1)	1.00	reference
	High SES	125	3.2	(2.6–3.8)	0.92	(0.72–1.18)
	High enclave status/low SES	112	3.4	(2.8–4.1)	1.00	reference
	Low enclave status/low SES	38	3.6	(2.5–5.0)	1.06	(0.71–1.56)
	High enclave status/high SES	99	3.3	(2.6–4.0)	0.95	(0.72–1.26)
	Low enclave status/high SES	25	2.7	(1.7–4.1)	0.80	(0.49–1.26)
Overall HL	Low enclave status	41	2.0	(1.4–2.7)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	68	0.9	(0.7–1.1)	<b>0.44</b>	<b>(0.29–0.67)</b>
	Low SES	40	0.8	(0.6–1.1)	1.00	reference
	High SES	69	1.4	(1.1–1.8)	<b>1.71</b>	<b>(1.13–2.62)</b>
HL, age <45 y	Low enclave status	28	1.9	(1.2–2.7)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	50	0.9	(0.7–1.2)	<b>0.50</b>	<b>(0.30–0.82)</b>
	Low SES	32	1.0	(0.7–1.4)	1.00	reference
HL, age 45+ y	High SES	46	1.3	(1.0–1.8)	1.37	(0.84–2.23)
	Low enclave status	13	—		1.00	reference
	High enclave status	18	0.8	(0.4–1.2)	<b>0.35</b>	<b>(0.12–0.79)</b>
HL, NS	Low SES	8	—		1.00	reference
	High SES	23	1.6	(1.0–2.4)	<b>2.83</b>	<b>(1.20–7.46)</b>
	Low enclave status	24	1.1	(0.7–1.7)	1.00	reference
	High enclave status	56	0.7	(0.5–0.9)	0.63	(0.38–1.08)
HL, MC	Low SES	31	0.6	(0.4–0.9)	1.00	reference
	High SES	49	0.9	(0.7–1.3)	1.51	(0.93–2.48)
	Low enclave status	9	—		1.00	reference
	High enclave status	5	—		<b>0.16</b>	<b>(0.04–0.55)</b>
	Low SES	<5	—		1.00	reference
	High SES	11	—		3.76	(0.98–21.08)

<sup>a</sup>Standardized to the 2,000 U.S. population age standard. Incidence rates with numerator less than 15 are not computed.

SES and lower enclave neighborhoods were stronger in women than in men. For MM, incidence rates did not differ according to birthplace, ethnic enclave status, or neighborhood SES. We also confirmed that the incidence rates of most subtypes were substantially lower than rates in non-Hispanic white populations; for TCL and DLBCL—the 2 subtypes for which absolute incidence rates were most similar between Asians and non-Hispanic whites—we did not observe consistent differences in incidence according to birthplace or neighborhood characteristics.

There is little published information about the incidence patterns of lymphoid malignancy subtypes among Asians according to detailed ethnicity and birthplace. Our recent analysis based on SEER data documented lower incidence of lymphoid malignancies among 6 Asian ethnic groups than whites (2), but lacked the data to consider differences by birthplace. In SEER data, an assessment of NHL cases diagnosed in the period 1973 to 1986 and classified according to the working formulation scheme also found reduced risk of FL in foreign-born compared with U.S.-born Chinese and Japanese (but not Filipinos), with incidence rates 60% to 80% lower than rates in their U.S.-born counterparts (22). However, in that analysis, the authors assumed that the SEER cases without birthplace information had randomly missing data. As we have shown that those with missing data are more likely to be U.S.-born (5), this earlier analysis may have underestimated rate differences by birthplace, which may explain the difference in findings for CLL/SLL and HL. To our knowledge, ours is the first study to address lymphoid malignancy incidence patterns among U.S. Asians according to neighborhood characteristics, although we did report previously that rates of young-adult HL were lower among Asian women (but not men) living in the lowest terciles of neighborhood SES in California (23). Our findings of lowered rates of CLL/SLL and NS HL among Asian women living in impoverished or ethnic enclave communities as compared with more affluent and presumably more acculturated communities further support the notion that the causation of these particular lymphoid malignancy subtypes involves environmental exposures more common in Westernized environments.

Differences in cancer incidence rates between Asians who immigrate to the United States (and their descendants) and those who remain in Asia have long been considered strong evidence of environmental influences on carcinogenesis, although it is possible that there are also genetic differences among persons who are healthy enough to emigrate. For breast cancer, incidence rates among Chinese and Filipina women born in the United States are nearly twice those of women living in Asia, and these differences are increasingly thought to relate to reproductive and dietary changes associated with Westernized lifestyle (7, 24). For NS HL, exposures of interest include correlates of the childhood social environment (ref. 25; e.g., family size and household crowding) and

measures of microbial burden or other immunological relevant environmental exposures (e.g., age at diagnosis with mononucleosis; ref. 26), particularly in early life (21, 25, 27–33). Childhood environment has not been consistently associated with the risk of FL or CLL/SLL (34–36), although a recent pooled analysis including more than 13,500 NHL cases did report for FL significantly positive associations with both birth order and sibship size (36). However, risk of both FL and CLL/SLL has inversely been associated with atopic disease (37), which could be associated, in turn, with early-life microbial exposures. It is uncertain whether chronic infection with hepatitis viruses, linked to doubled risks of NHL (38, 39) and endemic in Asia (40, 41), are relevant to the observed rate patterns. Although U.S.-born Asians have lower rates of chronic infection with hepatitis B and C viruses than their foreign-born counterparts in the United States and Asia (40, 42), the associations of viral hepatitis with the risk of specific NHL subtypes (e.g., DLBCL) do not correspond to the observed incidence rate differences by birthplace in our study (43).

The stronger effects of birthplace and neighborhood characteristics for CLL/SLL and HL observed in women than men could, in part, reflect socially determined differences in exposure opportunities (such as those involving children) and biologically determined differences in immunoresponse to exposures (23). For HL, the gender difference in the effect of nativity may result from protection in low-acculturation women afforded by both early exposure to infection and higher parity or lactation, as hormonal exposures through pregnancy and breast feeding may interact with childhood exposures to affect the risk of HL (44).

For HL, the varying impact of birthplace by age group is consistent with prior evidence of differing pathogenesis of HL by age (21). It is also relevant to the differential effect of birthplace on incidence of the NS and MC subtypes, given that young adult HL is predominant of the NS subtype. Furthermore, subtype differences in birthplace associations may reflect etiologic differences in immunosuppression and age at infection of Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), as EBV is more commonly found in tumors of the MC than NS type (45, 46) and Asians than whites (47).

Dietary patterns and energy balance/obesity, which also vary by birthplace among U.S. Asians (48), may also be associated with the risk of developing certain lymphoid malignancies (49–52), and therefore represent important areas for future study in Asian immigrant populations. For MM, our observation of substantially lowered rates among Asians as compared with non-Hispanic whites, but no difference according to birthplace or neighborhood characteristics, suggests a more important role for genetic susceptibility and less of an influence of environmental exposures that change with acculturation. In support of this hypothesis, MM risk has been associated with polymorphisms in genes thought to influence innate immunity and immunoregulatory processes (53, 54).

By using more than 16 years of SEER data from California, we could capitalize on the relatively large size of the Asian population in this state and draw conclusions on the basis of the representativeness of these high-quality population-based data. We consider the ethnic and birthplace classifications used here to have low probabilities of misclassification or bias. Specific Asian ethnic group was classified directly from registry records or, for those without specific registry information on ethnicity, from applying a validated ethnicity classification algorithm. With this approach, a small proportion (<3%) of patients was excluded from these analyses because of missing ethnic classification. Furthermore, cancer registry classification of specific Asian ethnicity shows good agreement with self-reported information (55). For cases for whom birthplace information was reported to the registry (the vast majority), we have also shown that this classification shows excellent agreement in comparison with self-reported birthplace (4, 5); for the remaining cases, we applied a validated birthplace classification algorithm with good sensitivity and specificity.

Despite these important strengths, our results may also be subjected to some limitations. First, we had limited statistical power to analyze certain subgroups, such as specific Asian ethnic groups and uncommon lymphoid malignancies. Second, the heterogeneity in the complex pathologic methods required to diagnose and classify lymphoma cases may have resulted in misclassification of some cases by subtype. Our prior comparisons of cancer registry ICD-O-3 classifications to those obtained from uniform rereview of pathologic specimens suggest a high degree of reliability for the diagnosis of overall NHL and HL (56) and for particular subtype classifications including FL (89%), SLL (79%), DLBCL (90%), and NS HL (95%), but more moderate reliability for rarer subtypes (57, 58). In addition, cancer registry data lack detail about certain histopathologic characterizations (e.g., t(14;18) translocations for FL, and EBV tumor-cell status for HL), and information about parental race/ethnicity, individual-level education, and other measures of SES, medical history, age at immigration, duration of immigration, and other risk factors that could be relevant to our observed incidence rate differentials. Finally, these data cannot speak to the independent or joint influence of genetic factors in modifying risk of FL and CLL/SLL across populations. Recent genome-wide association studies found genetic variants that influence the risk for FL (59) and SLL/CLL (60) and the absolute difference between rates in U.S.-born Asians and whites does not rule out a role for genetic predisposition to FL and CLL/SLL. Regardless,

our results suggest that environmental exposures have greater influence than genes on the variation in incidence rates by ethnicity and nativity.

The markedly lowered rates of lymphoid malignancies among Asians relative to other racial/ethnic groups in the United States and among foreign-born Asians relative to U.S.-born Asians have suggested some kind of protection from lymphomagenic processes, but it has been unclear whether this protection relates to genetic or environmental differences. Our data suggest a clear pattern of increased risk of FL, CLL/SLL, and HL in Asians according to U.S. birthplace and neighborhood acculturation indicators, and thereby point to a strong influence of environmental factors that change with immigration and acculturation to a Westernized lifestyle. Future studies of FL, CLL/SLL, and HL designed to collect a wide array of environmental exposure information (and implicated genetic variants of risk) are warranted among Asian immigrant populations in the United States and other Westernized countries, as they may identify heretofore unrecognized and modifiable causes of these malignancies.

#### Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

The ideas and opinions expressed herein are those of the authors and endorsement by the State of California, Department of Public Health, National Cancer Institute, and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention or their Contractors and Subcontractors are not intended nor should be inferred. No authors report any financial conflict of interest.

#### Acknowledgments

We thank S. Shema and T. Miller for their contributions to this study.

#### Grant Support

This study was supported by the National Cancer Institute's Surveillance Epidemiology and End Results (SEER) program under contract HHSN261201000036C awarded to the Cancer Prevention Institute of California (CPIC). The collection of cancer incidence data used in this study was supported by the California Department of Public Health as part of the statewide cancer reporting program mandated by California Health and Safety Code Section 103885; the SEER Program under contract N01-PC-35136 awarded to CPIC (formerly the Northern California Cancer Center), contract N01-PC-35139 awarded to the University of Southern California, and contract N01-PC-54404 awarded to the Public Health Institute; the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's National Program of Cancer Registries, under agreement 1U58DP00807-01 awarded to the Public Health Institute; and R01-ES015552 from the NIEHS and R01-CA121052 from NCI.

The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked *advertisement* in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Received January 11, 2011; revised March 2, 2011; accepted April 4, 2011; published OnlineFirst April 14, 2011.

#### References

- Morton LM, Wang SS, Devesa SS, Hartge P, Weisenburger DD, Linet MS. Lymphoma incidence patterns by WHO subtype in the United States, 1992-2001. *Blood* 2006;107:265-76.
- Carreon JD, Morton LM, Devesa SS, Clarke CA, Gomez SL, Glaser SL, et al. Incidence of lymphoid neoplasms by subtype among six Asian ethnic groups in the United States, 1996-2004. *Cancer Causes Control* 2008;19:1171-81.
- Gomez SL, Glaser SL. Quality of birthplace information obtained from death certificates for Hispanics, Asians, and Pacific Islanders. *Ethn Dis* 2004;14:292-5.

4. Gomez SL, Glaser SL. Quality of cancer registry birthplace data for Hispanics living in the United States. *Cancer Causes Control* 2005;16:713–23.
5. Gomez SL, Glaser SL, Kelsey JL, Lee MM. Bias in completeness of birthplace data for Asian groups in a population-based cancer registry (United States). *Cancer Causes Control* 2004;15:243–53.
6. Lin SS, Clarke CA, O'Malley CD, Le GM. Studying cancer incidence and outcomes in immigrants: methodological concerns. *Am J Public Health* 2002;92:1757–9.
7. Gomez SL, Quach T, Horn-Ross PL, Pham JT, Cockburn M, Chang ET, et al. Hidden breast cancer disparities in Asian women: disaggregating incidence rates by ethnicity and migrant status. *Am J Public Health* 2010;100 Suppl 1:S125–31.
8. Surveillance Epidemiology and End Results. SEER Registries. [Internet]. [accessed May 2011]. Available from: <http://seer.cancer.gov/registries/>
9. Morton LM, Turner JJ, Cerhan JR, Linet MS, Treseler PA, Clarke CA, et al. Proposed classification of lymphoid neoplasms for epidemiologic research from the Pathology Working Group of the International Lymphoma Epidemiology Consortium (InterLymph). *Blood* 2007;110:695–708.
10. Turner JJ, Morton LM, Linet MS, Clarke CA, Kadin ME, Vajdic CM, et al. InterLymph hierarchical classification of lymphoid neoplasms for epidemiologic research based on the WHO classification (2008): update and future directions. *Blood* 2010;116:e90–8.
11. NAACCR Asian Pacific Islander Identification Algorithm [NAPIIA v1.2]. Springfield, IL: NAACCR Asian/Pacific Islander Work Group; 2008 Jul [accessed 2010 Feb 19]. Available from: [http://www.naacr.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=fQW\\_aU5kfCw%3D&tabid=92](http://www.naacr.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=fQW_aU5kfCw%3D&tabid=92)
12. Yost K, Perkins C, Cohen R, Morris C, Wright W. Socioeconomic status and breast cancer incidence in California for different race/ethnic groups. *Cancer Causes Control* 2001;12:703–11.
13. Hu FB. Dietary pattern analysis: a new direction in nutritional epidemiology. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 2002;13:3–9.
14. Chang ET, Keegan TH, Gomez SL, Le GM, Clarke CA, So SK, et al. The burden of liver cancer in Asians and Pacific Islanders in the Greater San Francisco Bay Area, 1990 through 2004. *Cancer* 2007;109:2100–8.
15. Gomez SL, Le GM, Miller T, Undurraga DM, Shema SJ, Stroup A, et al. Cancer incidence among Asians in the Greater Bay Area, 1990–2002. Fremont, CA: Northern California Cancer Center; July 2005.
16. Keegan TH, Gomez SL, Clarke CA, Chan JK, Glaser SL. Recent trends in breast cancer incidence among 6 Asian groups in the Greater Bay Area of Northern California. *Int J Cancer* 2007;120:1324–9.
17. Wang SS, Carreon JD, Gomez SL, Devesa SS. Cervical cancer incidence among 6 Asian ethnic groups in the United States, 1996 through 2004. *Cancer* 2010;116:949–56.
18. Bates D, Chambers J, Dalgaard P, Falcon S, Gentleman R, Hornik K, et al. R Program [R]. 2.8.0 ed. Vienna, Austria: The R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2008.
19. Shryock HS, Siegel JS, Larmon EA. The methods and materials of demography. Washington, DC: US Census Bureau; 1973.
20. Surveillance Research Program, National Cancer Institute SEER \*Stat software version 6.5.1. Available from <http://www.seer.cancer.gov/seerstat/>.
21. Hjalgrim H, Engels EA. Infectious aetiology of Hodgkin and non-Hodgkin lymphomas: a review of the epidemiological evidence. *J Int Medicine* 2008;264:537–48.
22. Herrinton LJ, Goldoft M, Schwartz SM, Weiss NS. The incidence of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and its histologic subtypes in Asian migrants to the United States and their descendants. *Cancer Causes Control* 1996;7:224–30.
23. Clarke CA, Glaser SL, Keegan TH, Stroup A. Neighborhood socioeconomic status and Hodgkin's lymphoma incidence in California. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2005;14:1441–7.
24. Stanford JL, Herrinton LJ, Schwartz SM, Weiss NS. Breast cancer incidence in Asian migrants to the United States and their descendants. *Epidemiology* 1995;6:181–3.
25. Glaser SL, Clarke CA, Nugent RA, Stearns CB, Dorfman RF. Social class and risk of Hodgkin's disease in young-adult women in 1988–94. *Int J Cancer* 2002;98:110–7.
26. Glaser SL, Keegan TH, Clarke CA, Trinh M, Dorfman RF, Mann RB, et al. Exposure to childhood infections and risk of Epstein-Barr virus-defined Hodgkin's lymphoma in women. *Int J Cancer* 2005;115:599–605.
27. Chang ET, Zheng T, Weir EG, Borowitz M, Mann RB, Spiegelman D, et al. Childhood social environment and Hodgkin's lymphoma: new findings from a population-based case-control study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2004;13:1361–70.
28. Cozen W, Hamilton AS, Zhao P, Salam MT, Deapen DM, Nathwani BN, et al. A protective role for early oral exposures in the etiology of young adult Hodgkin lymphoma. *Blood* 2009;114:4014–20.
29. Gutensohn (Mueller) N, Cole P. Childhood social environment and Hodgkin's disease. *New Engl J Med* 1981;304:135–40.
30. Hjalgrim H, Askling J, Rostgaard K, Hamilton-Dutoit S, Frisch M, Zhang JS, et al. Characteristics of Hodgkin's lymphoma after infectious mononucleosis. *N Engl J Med* 2003;349:1324–32.
31. Hjalgrim H, Smedby KE, Rostgaard K, Molin D, Hamilton-Dutoit S, Chang ET, et al. Infectious mononucleosis, childhood social environment, and risk of Hodgkin lymphoma. *Cancer Res* 2007;67:2382–8.
32. Chang ET, Zheng T, Lennette ET, Weir EG, Borowitz M, Mann RB, et al. Heterogeneity of risk factors and antibody profiles in Epstein-Barr virus genome-positive and -negative Hodgkin lymphoma. *J Infect Dis* 2004;189:2271–81.
33. Mueller N, Evans A, Harris NL, Comstock GW, Jellum E, Magnus K, et al. Hodgkin's disease and Epstein-Barr virus. Altered antibody pattern before diagnosis. *N Engl J Med* 1989;320:689–95.
34. Bracci PM, Dalvi TB, Holly EA. Residential history, family characteristics and non-Hodgkin lymphoma, a population-based case-control study in the San Francisco Bay Area. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2006;15:1287–94.
35. Smedby KE, Hjalgrim H, Chang ET, Rostgaard K, Glimelius B, Adami HO, et al. Childhood social environment and risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma in adults. *Cancer Res* 2007;67:11074–82.
36. Grulich AE, Vajdic CM, Falster MO, Kane E, Smedby KE, Bracci PM, et al. Birth order and risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma—true association or bias? *Am J Epidemiol* 2010;172:621–30.
37. Vajdic CM, Falster MO, de Sanjose S, Martinez-Maza O, Becker N, Bracci PM, et al. Atopic disease and risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma: an InterLymph pooled analysis. *Cancer Res* 2009;69:6482–9.
38. Ulcickas Yood M, Quesenberry CP Jr, Guo D, Caldwell C, Wells K, Shan J, et al. Incidence of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma among individuals with chronic hepatitis B virus infection. *Hepatology* 2007;46:107–12.
39. Negri E, Little D, Boiocchi M, La Vecchia C, Franceschi S. B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and hepatitis C virus infection: a systematic review. *Int J Cancer* 2004;111:1–8.
40. Shepard CW, Finelli L, Alter MJ. Global epidemiology of hepatitis C virus infection. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2005;5:558–67.
41. Shepard CW, Simard EP, Finelli L, Fiore AE, Bell BP. Hepatitis B virus infection: epidemiology and vaccination. *Epidemiol Rev* 2006;28:112–25.
42. Lin SY, Chang ET, So SK. Why we should routinely screen Asian American adults for hepatitis B: a cross-sectional study of Asians in California. *Hepatology* 2007;46:1034–40.
43. Engels EA, Cho ER, Jee SH. Hepatitis B virus infection and risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma in South Korea: a cohort study. *Lancet Oncol* 2010;11:827–34.
44. Glaser SL, Clarke CA, Nugent RA, Stearns CB, Dorfman RF. Reproductive risk factors in Hodgkin's disease in women. *Am J Epidemiol* 2003;158:553–63.
45. Ambinder RF. Epstein-Barr virus and Hodgkin lymphoma. *Hematol Am Soc Hematol Educ Program* 2007;2007:204–9.
46. Jarrett RF. Viruses and Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Ann Oncol* 2002;13 Suppl 1:23–9.

47. Glaser SL, Gulley ML, Clarke CA, Keegan TH, Chang ET, Shema SJ, et al. Racial/ethnic variation in EBV-positive classical Hodgkin lymphoma in California populations. *Int J Cancer* 2008;123:1499–507.
48. UCLA Center for Health Policy Research, California Department of Health Services, Public Health Institute. California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) 2001–2007. [last accessed 2010 Jul 6]. Available from: [www.chis.ucla.edu](http://www.chis.ucla.edu).
49. Chang ET, Smedby KE, Zhang SM, Hjalgrim H, Melbye M, Ost A, et al. Dietary factors and risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma in men and women. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2005;14:512–20.
50. Kilfoy BA, Ward MH, Zheng T, Holford TR, Boyle P, Zhao P, et al. Risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma and nitrate and nitrite from the diet in Connecticut women. *Cancer Causes Control* 2010;21:889–96.
51. Willett EV, Morton LM, Hartge P, Becker N, Bernstein L, Boffetta P, et al. Non-Hodgkin lymphoma and obesity: a pooled analysis from the InterLymph consortium. *Int J Cancer* 2008;122:2062–70.
52. Britton JA, Khan AE, Rohrmann S, Becker N, Linseisen J, Nieters A, et al. Anthropometric characteristics and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and multiple myeloma risk in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC). *Haematologica* 2008;93:1666–77.
53. Lee KM, Baris D, Zhang Y, Hosgood HD III, Menashe I, Yeager M, et al. Common single nucleotide polymorphisms in immunoregulatory genes and multiple myeloma risk among women in Connecticut. *Am J Hematol* 2010;85:560–3.
54. Purdue MP, Lan Q, Menashe I, Zheng T, Zhang Y, Yeager M, et al. Variation in innate immunity genes and risk of multiple myeloma. *Hematol Oncol* 2010;29:42–6.
55. Gomez SL, Glaser SL. Misclassification of race/ethnicity in a population-based cancer registry. *Cancer Causes Control* 2006;17:771–81.
56. Glaser SL, Dorfman RF, Clarke CA. Expert review of the diagnosis and histologic classification of Hodgkin disease in a population-based cancer registry: interobserver reliability and impact on incidence and survival rates. *Cancer* 2001;92:218–24.
57. Clarke CA, Glaser SL, Dorfman RF, Bracci PM, Eberle E, Holly EA. Expert review of non-Hodgkin's lymphomas in a population-based cancer registry: reliability of diagnosis and subtype classifications. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2004;13:138–43.
58. Clarke CA, Undurraga DM, Harasty PJ, Glaser SL, Morton LM, Holly EA. Changes in cancer registry coding for lymphoma subtypes: reliability over time and relevance for surveillance and study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2006;15:630–8.
59. Conde L, Halperin E, Akers NK, Brown KM, Smedby KE, Rothman N, et al. Genome-wide association study of follicular lymphoma identifies a risk locus at 6p21.32. *Nat Genet* 2010;42:661–4.
60. Crowther-Swanepoel D, Broderick P, Di Bernardo MC, Dobbins SE, Torres M, Mansouri M, et al. Common variants at 2q37.3, 8q24.21, 15q21.3 and 16q24.1 influence chronic lymphocytic leukemia risk. *Nat Genet* 2010;42:132–6.