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Socioeconomic Status and Lung Cancer: Unraveling the Contribution of Genetic Admixture

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Abstract

Objectives—We examined the relationship between genetic ancestry, socioeconomic status and lung cancer among African Americans and Latinos.

Methods—We evaluated socioeconomic status and genetic ancestry in a Northern California lung cancer case-control study (1998-2003) of African Americans and Latinos. Lung cancer cases and controls were frequency matched on age, sex and race/ethnicity. Case-control differences in individual admixture proportions were assessed using two-sample t-tests, and analysis of covariance. Logistic regression models examined associations between genetic ancestry, socioeconomic characteristics and lung cancer.

Results—Decreased Amerindian ancestry was associated with higher education among Latino controls and greater African ancestry was associated with decreased education among African

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lung cancer cases. Education was associated with lung cancer in both Latinos and African Americans, independently of smoking, ancestry, age and sex. Genetic ancestry was not associated with lung cancer in African Americans.

Conclusions—Findings suggest socioeconomic factors may have a greater impact than genetic ancestry for lung cancer among African Americans. The genetic heterogeneity and recent dynamic migration and acculturation of Latinos complicate recruitment, thus epidemiologic analyses and findings should be interpreted cautiously.

Introduction

Associations between socioeconomic status and cancer incidence or mortality and accompanying racial differences are common findings across cancers and populations.¹⁻⁹ An inverse association between socioeconomic measures and lung cancer incidence and mortality is a consistent observation among populations,^{7, 10-18} especially among men, although for lung cancer mortality in the U.S. this is a reversal of the pattern from earlier decades.¹⁹ Socioeconomic measurements are also known to vary across diverse populations.²⁰ In the United States, African Americans and Latinos have, on average, lower education, larger household sizes, lower income and are frequently unmarried compared to whites.²¹⁻²⁴ Smoking is more prevalent among persons characterized by low socioeconomic factors such as low education, low income and working class occupations.^{20, 25-27} Studies examining the relationship between socioeconomic status and lung cancer, or cancer in general, have used surveys and registries with large sample sizes, thereby increasing the precision of effect estimates.^{7, 11, 12} However, these studies are constrained by the lack of data on important risk factors for lung cancer¹¹ or link aggregate socioeconomic exposure data to individual-level disease status.^{6, 7, 11} Ascribing attributes of a group to an individual may not be appropriate and can result in inaccurate inferences, especially if the exposure, socioeconomic status, is misclassified.^{28, 29}

Despite known disparities in lung cancer incidence³⁰ and consistently observed associations between socioeconomic status and both lung cancer and race/ethnicity, few studies have examined this interrelationship which is thought to result from a complex interplay of environmental, social, economic and genetic factors. Using incident cancer registry data, Krieger *et al.* observed an inverse relationship between lung cancer incidence and socioeconomic deprivation among African Americans but an increase in incidence with economic prosperity among Latinos.³¹ A study examining lung cancer among Latinos found that incidence increased as income increased and the percent of Latinos residing in the census tract decreased.³² Many studies examining socioeconomic differences in lung cancer risk suggest the increased risk cannot be fully explained by smoking, occupational or dietary exposures,^{13, 15, 16, 33, 34} whereas others found controlling for several measures such as smoking,³⁵ dietary fat and perceived health removed associations with socioeconomic status.¹⁷ Some studies examining racial/ethnic differences in lung cancer found ethnic differences disappeared after adjusting for socioeconomic status.^{6, 7, 11} Together these findings highlight the complexities of understanding the relationship between socioeconomic status, lung cancer and race/ethnicity.

Self-reported race/ethnicity represents a combination of several factors which are genetic, social, economic and environmental.³⁶ Moreover, due to the ancestral heterogeneity of Latinos and African Americans, self-reported race/ethnicity does not provide precise genetic information. Recent advances in statistical tools and identification of genetic markers informative for ancestry have enabled the genetic heterogeneity of populations to be described and applied to epidemiologic studies. Genetic ancestry associations are a useful tool to suggest that a genetic component contributes to disease disparities and admixture mapping is implemented to identify genetic factors contributing to disease.^{37, 38} Importantly, genetic ancestry may be associated with socioeconomic factors.³⁹⁻⁴³ For example, Sanchez *et al.* revealed Amerindian ancestry was greater in individuals with fewer years of education.⁴² Complex associations between socioeconomic status, ancestry and lung cancer require examination to disentangle their contributions to lung cancer. We examined the relationship between socioeconomic status, genetic ancestry and lung cancer in a case-control study conducted in African Americans and Latinos.

Methods

Study participants

Persons with newly diagnosed primary lung cancer residing in the five San Francisco Bay Area counties were identified from September 1998 through March 2003 by the Northern California Cancer Center (NCCC), a Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results cancer registry, using rapid case ascertainment methods. One hospital in the catchment area, Summit Medical Center, was not a participant in the NCCC rapid case ascertainment program; therefore, lung cancer cases diagnosed at this hospital were ascertained independently using methods comparable to those implemented by NCCC. A total of 368 cases (255 African Americans and 113 Latinos) are included in this analysis.

Population and community-based methods were used to recruit potential controls from 1) random-digit dialing (RDD), 2) Health Care Financing Administration (HCFA) records for persons aged 65 or older, and 3) community-based sources, such as churches, health fairs, and senior centers. Cases and controls were eligible for participation if they 1) self-identified as African American or Latino (using U.S. Census categories), 2) were 21 years or older, and 3) resided within the five counties of Alameda, Contra Costa, Santa Clara, San Francisco, or San Mateo. For each case, approximately twice as many eligible controls were recruited having the same age (+/- 10 years), sex, and self-identified race/ethnicity. A total of 579 controls (280 African Americans and 299 Latinos) are included in the analysis.

Eligible cases and controls were invited to participate in an in-person interview and to donate a biologic (blood or buccal swab) sample. Extensive details of case and control recruitment, including participation frequencies, are summarized elsewhere.^{44, 45} Briefly, response rates for lung cancer cases that completed the full questionnaire and provided a biologic sample were 72% for African Americans and 68% for Latinos. Response rates for eligible controls were 62% for RDD controls, 21% for HCFA controls and 81% for community-based controls, with an overall participation of 55% among all eligible controls.⁴⁵ The Northern California Lung Cancer Study was developed to understand racial/ethnic differences in lung cancer susceptibility between two populations with extreme

differences in lung cancer risk. The study was approved by the University of California Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects. Written, informed consent was obtained from all participating subjects.

Interview Data Collection

Epidemiologic data were collected during in-person interviews using a structured questionnaire. Information was collected on household income, number of persons living in the household, highest degree obtained, number of years of education, marital status, and smoking history. Total household income was measured as an ordinal variable from the previous year for controls and year before diagnosis for cases. Number of people living in the household was ascertained one year before diagnosis for the cases and at time of interview for the controls. Education was collected as a categorical variable indicating highest degree obtained: less than high school, high school, technical/trade school, community college, college, and graduate school. For analyses, highest degree obtained was dichotomized into high school degree or less and post-secondary education. Total number of education years was collected and coded as reported. Current marital status was collected as a categorical variable: single, married/partner, separated, divorced, and widowed and coded as a nominal variable. Smoking level was coded as a three-level ordinal variable, capturing the amount and duration of smoking (non-smoker, < 30 pack-years, and ≥ 30 pack-years).

Specimen Processing

At the time of interview, either a blood or buccal specimen was collected. Specimens were transported to the Molecular Epidemiology Laboratory at the University of California, San Francisco within 48 hours of collection. Samples were processed for long-term storage until ready for future genotyping. When samples from all study participants were collected, DNA was isolated by automated phenol chloroform extraction using the Autogen 3000 (Autogen, Inc., Holliston, MA). DNA concentration was measured by fluorescence measurement (PicoGreen, Invitrogen Corporation, Carlsbad, CA) and normalized to 30-100ng/ul, for a total concentration of 150-500ng.

Biologic samples yielding insufficient quantities of DNA (blood, n = 2 and buccal, n = 4) underwent whole genome amplification as previously described.⁴⁶ Genotypes from genomic and whole genome amplified (WGA) DNA were called using separate clustering analyses. Genotype call rates (GenCall ≥ 0.25) averaged 99.41% and 99.16% for genomic and WGA samples, respectively. Genotype reproducibility was verified with duplicates of unamplified DNA and WGA/genomic DNA pairs. Unamplified duplicates (n = 31) had a mean reproducibility of 99.99%. WGA/genomic DNA pairs amplified from blood (n = 18 pairs) and buccal specimens (n = 28 pairs) exhibited a mean genotype reproducibility of 99.39% and 98.49%, respectively.⁴⁷

Genotyping of Ancestry Informative Markers

Samples were genotyped at the UC Davis Genome Center using the Illumina Bead Station 500G Golden Gate™ genotyping platform and a custom SNP panel.⁴⁶ A panel of 184 autosomal biallelic ancestry informative genetic markers (AIMs) distinguishing the continental ancestral populations comprising Latinos and African Americans was genotyped

to determine the genetic ancestry of each participant as described previously.⁴⁸ Subjects were removed from statistical analyses if they self-reported more than one race/ethnicity (n = 44) or failed genotyping on the Illumina panel (n = 5) for a final sample size for analysis of 947 subjects who self-described as African American or Latino.

DNA collected from the ancestral populations, specifically Europeans (San Francisco Bay Area, US, N = 47), West Africans (Bantu and Nilo Saharan speakers, Nigeria, N = 46), and Amerindians (Mayans, Guatemala, N = 46) was also included on the genotyping platform. The mean difference (“delta”) in allele frequencies between the parental populations ranged from 0.43 to 0.49.

Statistical Analysis

Subjects included in this analysis are those which self-identified as African American (N = 535) or Latino (N = 412). Individual genetic ancestry (percent European, Amerindian, and African ancestry) of African American and Latino participants was determined using 184 AIMs and a maximum likelihood method written with R statistical software (<http://cran.r-project.org/>) and following estimation methods described by Chakraborty *et al.*^{49, 50} and Hanis *et al.*⁵¹ Briefly, we assumed a three population model to estimate the contribution of the parental populations to the admixed population. Given the expected genotype probabilities, maximum likelihood estimates were obtained for the proportion of alleles the admixed individual received from the parental populations and summed over all loci. This method provides similar ancestry estimates to STRUCTURE, a commonly used Bayesian algorithm.^{48, 52} Ancestral population allele frequencies were included to improve genetic ancestry estimates.

Analyses were conducted separately for African Americans and Latinos, as these groups are genetically and epidemiologically different. Differences in mean genetic ancestry between cases and controls by socioeconomic status were assessed using a two-sample t-test. Analysis of covariance was used to identify associations between individual admixture estimates and socioeconomic status variables and smoking, adjusting for the variables age and sex. Logistic regression models were used to estimate odds ratios assessing the relationship between lung cancer and socioeconomic status variables, adjusting for admixture, age and sex. Tests assessing the influence of admixture were not adjusted for smoking since adjusting for a collider (a variable directly influenced by two or more other variables) in a causal pathway, such as smoking (Supplemental Figure 1), can induce biased effect estimates in causal models and can change associations between its causes.^{53, 54} A two-sided significance probability of 0.05 was used to infer non-random influences.

Results

African American and Latino lung cancer cases and controls did not differ according to the frequency strata-matched variables age and sex (Table 1). African American and Latino lung cancer cases and controls significantly differed by individual and household-level socioeconomic indicators. African American controls were more educated and had fewer persons living in the household compared to cases (Table 1). Latinos controls had significantly lower household income compared to Latino cases (Table 1). Among both

African Americans and Latinos, lung cancer cases smoked significantly more than controls. More Latino cases were born in the U.S. compared to Latino controls. Latino cases had significantly greater European ancestry and lower Amerindian ancestry compared to Latino controls; whereas, African American cases and controls did not differ by genetic ancestry (Table 1).

For several socioeconomic strata two-sample t-tests showed significant differences in African, European and Amerindian ancestry between Latino cases and controls (Supplemental Table 1). For all differences reaching statistical significance among Latinos, mean European genetic ancestry was significantly increased and Amerindian ancestry was decreased in cases compared to controls (Supplemental Table 1). Among African Americans, ancestry differences were small with no consistent pattern and significant for only two socioeconomic strata (Supplemental Table 2).

Analyses indicated that Latino controls with a post-secondary education had decreased Amerindian ancestry compared to controls with a high-school degree or less (36% versus 40%, respectively), adjusting for age and sex ($P = 0.03$, Table 2). African American cases without a post-secondary education had increased African ancestry compared to cases with a post-secondary education, adjusting for age and sex ($P < 0.01$, Table 3). Among both Latino and African American cases, increased smoking amount was associated with increased European ancestry ($P = 0.05$ and $P = 0.04$, respectively, data not shown).

Controlling for genetic admixture, smoking, age and sex (Table 4), having a post-secondary education was associated with significantly decreased risk of lung cancer compared to having a high school education or less (odds ratio (OR) = 0.41, 95% confidence interval (CI): 0.23 – 0.75). In Latinos, no evidence of an association was observed between household income, household size or marital status and lung cancer, adjusting for admixture, smoking, age and sex. Among Latinos, genetic admixture was significantly associated with lung cancer in all models, controlling for socioeconomic status, age and sex ($P < 0.01$) (Table 4). Smoking was significantly associated with lung cancer in all models, adjusting for genetic admixture, age, sex and each socioeconomic status variable ($P < 0.01$).

In African Americans, lung cancer was significantly associated with fewer education years (OR = 0.92, 95% CI: 0.86 – 0.98) and larger household size (OR = 1.31, 95% CI: 1.13 – 1.53), controlling for admixture, smoking, age and sex (Table 4). Income and marital status showed no evidence of an association with lung cancer in African Americans, controlling for admixture, smoking, age and sex. Genetic admixture was not associated with lung cancer among African Americans. Smoking was significantly associated with an increased risk of lung cancer in African Americans, controlling for genetic admixture, each socioeconomic status variable, age and sex ($P < 0.01$).

Discussion

Results from this analysis reveal a complex relationship between lung cancer, socioeconomic status and genetic ancestry. The genetic ancestry differences observed between Latinos and African Americans reflect their unique origins and gene flow that has

occurred over time.³⁶ In Latinos, European and Amerindian genetic ancestry differed between cases and controls when stratified by socioeconomic variables. Greater covariance between Amerindian ancestry and income and marital status for Latino cases versus controls suggests that income and marital status vary with ancestral population among cases but not among controls, although not statistically significant after multiple testing correction. Since cases were more likely to be US born, covariance between ancestry and socioeconomic factors may reflect acculturation within the Latino population.²¹ Regression analyses consistently indicated an association between genetic ancestry and lung cancer among Latinos, adjusted for socioeconomic indicators, self-reported race, age and sex. Together these results suggest genetic factors may play an important role in lung cancer incidence among Latinos, although this finding should be interpreted with caution due to known differences in the sampling schemes and study base between cases and controls, resulting in an observed increased European ancestry among controls as previously published.^{44, 48} A significant association between post-secondary education and lung cancer in Latinos remained after adjusting for genetic ancestry and smoking, suggesting increased education is associated with reduced lung cancer risk not explained by genetic ancestry or smoking. Krieger *et al.* observed the incidence of lung cancer increased with economic prosperity in Latinos in the San Francisco Bay Area and suggested that this could be due to smoking or occupational carcinogens.³¹ Similarly, an increased association was observed between household income and lung cancer among Latinos, although non-significant. This association may be influenced by access to medical care since poorer Latinos are more likely to be recent immigrants with no health insurance.⁵⁵ Unlike the Krieger *et al.* study,³¹ this lung cancer study benefited from available individual-level smoking data and was able to control for smoking in analyses, allowing an assessment of the influence of household income adjusted for smoking. Importantly, greater European ancestry was associated with increased smoking highlighting that ancestry may serve as a biomarker for targeted smoking cessation programs.⁵⁶ Moreover, if European ancestry is a proxy for acculturation this link may support the complex relationship between smoking, high socioeconomic status and lung cancer among Latinos.

Associations among self-reported African Americans differed from Latinos. Case and control European, African and Amerindian genetic ancestry differed little and regression analyses revealed no important associations. This does not rule out individual susceptibility based on a specific loci among African Americans as we and others have demonstrated.⁵⁷ However, both education and household size were associated with incident lung cancer in African Americans. A greater number of education years was associated with a decreased risk of lung cancer and a larger household size was associated with an increased risk of lung cancer, indicating the importance of social factors, independent of smoking or genetic ancestry.

It is possible the inconsistent associations between African Americans and Latinos are due to different genetic ancestry compositions resulting from their differing historical and societal contexts.^{36, 58} Socioeconomic status consists of a constellation of environmental, occupational, behavioral and lifestyle determinants of lung cancer.^{3, 59} Socioeconomic variables, such as income and household size, are dynamic and change over the lifetime of

an individual. For a chronic disease such as lung cancer, changing socioeconomic conditions over time may be relevant. However, for both African Americans and Latinos, education was inversely associated with lung cancer in this study. This variable may be more informative than others since it is relevant to each participant, is stable over time unlike occupation or income and is accurately assessed.¹⁷ Future lung cancer studies would benefit from careful attention and a more detailed assessment of socioeconomic status, including measures of census block-group which may be relevant to racial/ethnic populations,⁶⁰ in an attempt to elucidate the association with lung cancer.

Community-based controls may be an imperfect counterfactual for the lung cancer cases potentially limiting our inferences. However, comparisons of our study controls with individuals in the target study base, demonstrate education status and household size are comparable.⁴⁵ The large percentage of the foreign-born Latinos in this study suggests future investigations should examine selection bias and acculturation. Ascertainment of cases may vary by socioeconomic status and aggressive lung cancers may be missed, however using the NCCC rapid case ascertainment we sought to identify all incident lung cancers, irrespective of socioeconomic status or lung cancer stage. An important limitation of this study is its modest sample size, limiting the statistical power. Replication of our findings is warranted in independent studies with larger sample sizes of African Americans and diverse Latino populations, which can greatly vary in their ancestry,⁶¹ to confirm our observed associations and overcome the multiple testing present in our analyses. Exclusion of 44 multiethnic subjects may have resulted in a selection bias, however, including only those identifying as African American or Latino may better control for unmeasured factors.

Estimation of admixture makes several important assumptions yet it is difficult to know whether the assumptions hold.^{51, 52} Measurement error of admixture proportions can either result in biased effect estimates or residual confounding.⁴⁸ Genetic ancestry associations are suggestive of a genetic contribution to disease; however, associations may be confounded by non-genetic factors (environmental or social) correlated with genetic ancestry and associated with disease. Genetic ancestry may also be a proxy for acculturation since it correlates with country-of-origin and birth site.^{58, 62} Thus associations with genetic ancestry can be reflective of either genetic or non-genetic factors, accentuating the need for comprehensive multifaceted research.^{36, 39} By incorporating several socioeconomic variables and smoking, we were able to more thoroughly control for varied socioeconomic influences.

A strength of this study is the measurement of the genetic heterogeneity of self-reported African Americans and Latinos. Reports of racial/ethnic differences in lung cancer have used self-reported ethnicity. Although this measure is a useful summary of unmeasured genetic, environmental and social factors, it does not provide information about genetic heterogeneity. Using genetic admixture in statistical models provides a concise way to examine genetic background that may be associated with particular genetic risk factors. Thus, associations between socioeconomic variables and lung cancer were controlled not only for self-reported ethnicity through matching, but also for genetic background through analyses. The number of ancestry informative markers used is a strength of this study and are sufficiently informative for estimation of ancestry since accurate estimates of ancestry proportions can be achieved with as few as 24-30 markers.^{63, 64} This analysis also benefited

from explicitly stating its causal graph and using this as a roadmap to make decisions about which factors to control for as possible confounders. Our findings are similar to investigations of other outcomes emphasizing the important role of socioeconomic status (e.g. education) that may better explain disease risk relative to genetic ancestry.^{41, 43, 65, 66}

In summary, African Americans and Latinos experience not only heterogeneous social and environmental exposures but are themselves genetically heterogeneous. Our findings reinforce the need to understand non-smoking environmental risk factors and genetic heritage in lung cancer. Although racial/ethnic differences in associations between socioeconomic status and lung cancer will be difficult to disentangle, future studies will benefit from a multifactorial and transdisciplinary framework to better understand the etiology.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Table 1
Socioeconomic, genetic ancestry, and smoking characteristics of Northern California Lung Cancer Study participants, 1998-2003

Characteristic	African Americans (N=535)		Latinos (N=412)		p ^b
	Controls (N=280)	Cases (N=255)	Controls (N=299)	Cases (N=113)	
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	
Age ^d , years					
<45	14 (5.0)	9 (3.5)	11 (3.7)	5 (4.4)	
45-54	71 (25.4)	43 (16.9)	50 (16.7)	17 (15.0)	
55-64	78 (27.9)	90 (35.3)	52 (17.4)	29 (25.7)	
65-74	73 (26.1)	70 (27.5)	105 (35.1)	31 (27.4)	
75	44 (15.7)	43 (16.9)	81 (27.1)	31 (27.4)	
Mean (s.e.)	61.8 (0.7)	63.5 (0.7)	66.3 (0.7)	65.8 (1.1)	
Min	30	30	28	36	
Max	87	92	95	90	
Sex ^d					
Male	120 (42.9)	120 (47.1)	146 (48.8)	59 (52.2)	
Female	160 (57.1)	135 (52.9)	153 (51.2)	54 (47.8)	
Foreign born					
Yes	3 (1.1)	6 (2.4)	196 (65.6)	52 (46.0)	
No	277 (98.9)	249 (97.7)	103 (34.5)	61 (54.0)	
Household income (\$)					
< 19999	158 (57.3)	136 (59.1)	140 (53.4)	35 (38.9)	
20000	118 (42.8)	94 (40.9)	122 (27.1)	55 (61.1)	
Unknown	4	25	37	23	
% Genetic ancestry (s.e.)					
European	20.09 (0.8)	18.98 (0.9)	53.99 (0.98)	60.24 (1.83)	<0.01
African	77.42 (0.8)	78.0 (0.9)	7.71 (0.43)	6.99 (0.76)	0.39
Amerindian	2.49 (0.2)	3.01 (0.23)	38.30 (0.95)	32.78 (1.74)	<0.01
Mean number of people in household ^c (s.e.)	2.1 (0.07)	2.5 (0.08)	2.6 (0.08)	2.8 (0.13)	
Mean education ^d , years (s.e.)	13.6 (0.19)	12.3 (0.21)	11.0 (0.3)	10.1 (0.4)	

Characteristic	African Americans (N=535)				Latinos (N=412)			
	Controls (N=280)		Cases (N=255)		Controls (N=299)		Cases (N=113)	
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	p ^b
Marital status								
Single	41 (14.6)	27 (11.3)	34 (11.4)	9 (8.0)				
Married/partner	66 (23.6)	71 (29.7)	140 (47.0)	48 (42.9)				
Separated	23 (8.2)	20 (8.4)	15 (5.0)	3 (2.7)				
Divorced	95 (33.9)	61 (25.5)	50 (16.8)	20 (17.9)				
Widowed	55 (19.6)	60 (25.1)	59 (19.8)	32 (28.6)				
Unknown		16	1	1				
Smoking level								
Non-smoker	90 (32.1)	15 (6.0)	158 (53.0)	32 (28.3)				
< 30 pack-years	134 (47.9)	105 (41.7)	108 (36.2)	31 (27.4)				
30 pack-years	56 (20.0)	132 (52.4)	32 (10.7)	50 (44.3)				
Unknown		3	1					

^a Frequency matched variable.

^b P values are from the two-sample t-test.

^c Subjects indicating group housing (n=2) or homeless (n=2) are not included.

^d Number of subjects with unreported total years of education for African Americans is n=16 and for Latinos is n=5.

Table 2
Association between Amerindian ancestry and socioeconomic status indicators and smoking pack-years for Latinos in the Northern California Lung Cancer Study, 1998-2003

Model	Variable	df	Controls		Cases	
			F	P	F	P
1	Income	9	0.65	0.78	1.69	0.11
2	Post-secondary education	1	4.61	0.03	3.45	0.07
3	Household size	5	2.10	0.07	1.81	0.12
4	Marital status	4	0.21	0.93	1.13	0.35
5	Smoking level	2	0.10	0.91	3.62	0.03

F-tests are derived from analysis of covariance models, adjusted for age and sex.

Table 3
Association between African ancestry and socioeconomic status indicators and smoking pack-years for African Americans in the Northern California Lung Cancer Study, 1998-2003

Model	Variable	df	Controls		Cases	
			F	P	F	P
1	Income	9	1.21	0.29	1.37	0.20
2	Post-secondary education	1	2.98	0.09	14.70	<0.01
3	Household size	5	0.74	0.57	0.87	0.50
4	Marital status	4	0.59	0.67	0.75	0.56
5	Smoking level	2	0.25	0.78	3.60	0.03

F-tests are derived from analysis of covariance models, adjusted for age and sex.

Table 4
Association between lung cancer, admixture, socioeconomic, and smoking variables among Latinos and African Americans participating in the Northern California Lung Cancer Study, 1998-2003

Variable	Latinos		African Americans	
	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI
Model 1 ^a	1.09	(0.98-1.21)	1.04	(0.96-1.11)
Household income				
Model 2 ^b	1.00	(0.96-1.02)	1.01	(0.99-1.02)
African ancestry				
Amerindian ancestry	0.99	(0.97-1.00)	1.05	(0.99-1.11)
Global admixture association	$P < 0.01$ Global admixture association $P = 0.26$			
Model 3 ^a	0.41	(0.23-0.75)	0.72	(0.49-1.05)
Post-secondary education				
Model 4 ^b	0.98	(0.95-1.02)	1.01	(0.99-1.02)
African ancestry				
Amerindian ancestry	0.99	(0.97-1.00)	1.05	(0.99-1.11)
Global admixture association	$P < 0.01$ Global admixture association $P = 0.28$			
Model 5 ^a	0.96	(0.90-1.01)	0.92	(0.86-0.98)
Education years				
Model 6 ^b	0.98	(0.95-1.02)	1.00	(0.99-1.02)
African ancestry				
Amerindian ancestry	0.99	(0.97-1.00)	1.05	(0.99-1.11)
Global admixture association	$P < 0.01$ Global admixture association $P = 0.20$			
Model 7 ^a	1.17	(0.99-1.39)	1.31	(1.13-1.53)
Household size ^c				
Model 8 ^b	0.99	(0.96-1.02)	1.01	(0.99-1.02)
African ancestry				
Amerindian ancestry	0.99	(0.97-1.00)	1.05	(0.99-1.11)
Global admixture association	$P < 0.01$ Global admixture association $P = 0.11$			
Model 9 ^a	1.74	(0.72-4.19)	1.24	(0.70-2.21)
Ever married				
Model 10 ^b	0.99	(0.96-1.02)	1.01	(0.99-1.02)
African ancestry				
Amerindian ancestry	0.99	(0.98-1.00)	1.05	(0.99-1.11)
Global admixture association	$P < 0.01$ Global admixture association $P = 0.17$			

^aOdds ratios are derived from logistic regression model, adjusting for age, sex, admixture, and smoking.

^b Odds ratios are derived from logistic regression model, adjusting for age, sex and socioeconomic variable. The impact of admixture is assessed using a likelihood ratio test comparing the full model to a restricted model without the two admixture variables.

^c Subjects reporting group housing are not included in analysis.