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Temporal trends in incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and national levels, 1990-2017

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1 **Title:**
2 **Temporal trends in incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer at the global,**
3 **regional, and national levels, 1990-2017**

4
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20
21 Running title: Epidemiology of laryngeal cancer

22
23 **Article summary**

24 Strengths and limitations of this study

- 25 ● We provided the most comprehensive description of laryngeal cancer incidence
26 and mortality.
- 27 ● The incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer were significantly decreased
28 at the global level and in most countries.
- 29 ● The temporal trends of incidence and mortality are critical to update the laryngeal
30 cancer prevention strategies.
- 31 ● The data used in this study were lack of individual data.
- 32 ● We cannot specify the laryngeal cancer into several subgroups according to the
33 anatomical position.

ABSTRACT**Objective**

Laryngeal cancer is the most prevalent entity of the head and neck cancer. Knowing the trends of incidence and mortality of laryngeal cancer are of importance for the reduction in related disease burden.

Design

Population-based observational study

Methods

The incidence and mortality data of laryngeal cancer were retrieved from the Global Burden of Disease study 2017 online database. Estimated average percentage change was used to quantify the trends of the laryngeal cancer incidence and mortality at the global, regional, and national levels.

Results

Globally, the number of incident cases and deaths of laryngeal cancer has increased 58.7% and 33.9%, respectively, from 1990 to 2017. The overall age-standardized incidence rate (ASIR) and age-standardized mortality rate (ASMR) decreased by 0.99% (95% CI 0.83%, 1.14%) and by 1.62% (95% CI 1.50%, 1.74%) per year, respectively. These decreases were ubiquitous across the world. However, an unfavorable trend in the ASIR of laryngeal cancer was also observed in a total of 51 developing countries.

Conclusions

The incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer were significantly decreased at the global level and in most countries over the past three decades. The regions where showed an increasing incidence trend deserve more attentions.

Keywords Laryngeal cancer; incidence; mortality; global

70 INTRODUCTION

71 Constituting 25-30 % of all head and neck cancer cases, laryngeal carcinoma is the most
72 common cancer site of the aero-digestive tract [1]. In 2018, it is estimated that a total
73 of 177 thousand and 95 thousand new cases of laryngeal cancer and its related deaths
74 were occurred worldwide, respectively [2]. Laryngeal cancer diagnoses more
75 commonly in men than in women [2]. The most well-determined risk factors for
76 laryngeal cancer include smoking and alcohol consumption [3, 4]. Owing to the
77 disparities in risk factor distribution from country to country, the incidence and
78 mortality patterns of laryngeal cancer are geographically heterogeneous [5]. In this
79 context, a comprehensive description of the epidemiological characteristics of laryngeal
80 cancer at the national level is needed. In addition, the incidence and mortality trends of
81 laryngeal cancer were commonly reported together with that of other head and neck
82 cancers (HNC) [6]. There were few studies have individually described and analyzed
83 the epidemiological features of laryngeal cancer. However, since the differences of
84 histology, pathology, clinical manifestation, and prognosis of HNC, separately
85 knowing their evolving incidence and mortality rates is important for the HNC
86 prevention.

87
88 In the current study, leveraging the data from Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study
89 2017, we comprehensively described the epidemiology and analyzed the temporal
90 trends of incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and
91 national levels. Our findings were of importance to assess the current prevention
92 strategies of laryngeal cancer and allowed the future establishment of health care
93 planning.

94

95 METHODS

96 *Study data*

97 The GBD study provides a tool to quantify health loss from hundreds of diseases,
98 injuries, and risk factors, so that health systems can be improved and disparities can be
99 eliminated. The GBD data have been widely used to assess the disease burden of

1
2
3
4 100 cancers. Herein, we retrieved the incidence and mortality data of laryngeal cancer by
5
6 101 sex, country or territory, region, and single calendar year, from 1990 to 2017 using the
7
8 102 online Global Health Data Exchange query tool. The electronic searches were
9
10 103 complemented with additional epidemiologic measures such as “metric” (i.e., “rate”
11
12 104 and “number”), “measure” (i.e., “incidence” and “deaths”), “year” (i.e., from 1990 to
13
14 105 2017), “sex” (i.e., “male” and “female”), “age” (i.e., “All Ages” and “Age-
15
16 106 standardized”) and “location”. The data were available at 5 regions in terms of socio-
17
18 107 demographical index (SDI; i.e., high SDI, high-middle SDI, middle SDI, low-middle
19
20 108 SDI, and low SDI), 21 GBD regions in terms of the geography (e.g., Western Europe),
21
22 109 and 195 countries or territories (e.g., China). The collection and processing procedures
23
24 110 of cancer data in GBD study have been extensively described elsewhere [7, 8]. In brief,
25
26 111 the crude incidence and mortality data of laryngeal cancer were collected from cancer
27
28 112 registries identifying by the ICD-10 codes of C32-C32.9 and ICD-9 codes of 161-161.9.
29
30 113 For regions that lack of incidence data, cancer incidence was estimated from cancer
31
32 114 mortality using mortality to incidence ratios. These data were then modeled by Cause
33
34 115 of Death Ensemble modelling (CODEm), which is the framework used to model most
35
36 116 cause-specific death rates in the GBD study [8]. The national SDIs were also retrieved
37
38 117 from GBD online database. SDI is a composite average of the rankings of the incomes
39
40 118 per capita, average educational attainment, and fertility rates of all areas in the GBD
41
42 119 study.

121 *Statistical analysis*

122 We used the estimated average percentage change (EAPC) to quantify the trends of the
123
124 123 laryngeal cancer incidence and mortality from 1990 to 2017. The EAPC can be
125
126 124 calculated from the regression model, which was fitted the calendar years with the
127
128 125 natural logarithm of the rates (i.e., $y = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$, where $y = \ln(\text{rate})$, and $x = \text{calendar}$
129
130 126 year) [9]. The Pearson correlation tests were applied to assess the correlations between
127
128 127 SDIs and other indexes (e.g., the incidence and the EAPC of incidence). All statistical
129
130 128 analyses were performed using the R program (Version 3.6.3, R core team, Vienna,
129
130 129 Austria). A P-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

130

131 Results**132 Incidence and its trend of laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and national levels**

133 Globally, the incident case number of laryngeal cancer increased from 132.7 thousand
134 in 1990 to 210.6 thousand in 2017 (Figure 1; Table 1). Approximately 85% of total
135 cases were occurred in men (Table 1). The case number was highest in regions with
136 high SDIs and decreased with the SDI levels. During the study period, the overall age-
137 standardized incidence rate (ASIR) of laryngeal cancer experienced a significant
138 decrease (EAPC = -0.99, 95% CI, -1.14, -0.83). The ASIR in different regions was
139 decreased with different magnitudes. The greatest reduction was observed in high-SDI
140 region (Table 1). As for GBD regions, the highest ASIR and case number of laryngeal
141 cancer was found in Caribbean and East Asia, respectively, in 2017 (Table 1). Between
142 1990 and 2017, we only found three of 21 GBD regions, including East Asia, Caribbean,
143 and Oceania, have experienced a significant increase in the ASIR (Table 1; Figure 2).
144 In the remaining GBD regions, the ASIR was significantly decreased, with the most
145 pronounced reduction was found in Andean Latin America (EAPC = -2.21, 95% CI, -
146 2.41, -2.00) (Table 1; Figure 2). In 2017, the ASIR of laryngeal cancer was varied 12-
147 fold across the world. The highest ASIR was observed in Cuba (8.58/100,000),
148 followed by Seychelles and Montenegro (Figure 3A). A total of 51 countries, most are
149 located in developing regions, experienced a significant increase in the ASIR of
150 laryngeal cancer from 1990 to 2017 (Figure 3B). The greatest increase was found in Sri
151 Lanka (EAPC = 2.31, 95% CI, 2.04, 2.58). In contrast, a total of 122 countries
152 experienced a significant decrease in the ASIR of laryngeal cancer (Figure 3B). The
153 most remarkable reduction was seen in Bahrain (EAPC = -4.79, 95% CI, -5.37, -4.21).

154

155 Mortality and its trend of laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and national levels

156 While the number of deaths from laryngeal cancer has increased 33.9% between 1990
157 and 2017, the corresponding age-standardized mortality rate (ASMR) was decreased
158 by 1.62% per year during the same period (Table 1; Figure 1). Most of deaths were
159 occurred in men and in regions with low to middle SDIs (Table 1). The most significant

160 reduction in the ASMR was found in high-SDI regions. Only one GBD region (i.e.,
161 Oceania) has seen a significant increase in the ASMR of laryngeal cancer between 1990
162 and 2017. The ASMR in the remaining GBD regions were remarkably decreased (Table
163 1; Figure 2). The greatest decrease was observed in high-income Asia Pacific (EAPC =
164 -3.85, 95% CI, -4.14, -3.56). At the national level, the highest ASMR was found in
165 Pakistan (5.17/100,000) in 2017, followed by Cuba and Seychelles (Figure 3C).
166 Between 1990 and 2017, 30 countries experienced a significant increase in the ASMR.
167 The greatest increase was found in Guinea (EAPC = 1.77, 95% CI, 1.56, 1.98), followed
168 by Chad and Mongolia (Figure 3D). On the contrary, a total of 150 countries
169 experienced a significant decrease in the ASMR of laryngeal cancer. The most
170 remarkable reduction was found in South Korea (EAPC = -7.10, 95% CI, -7.81, -6.40)
171 (Figure 3D).

172

173 *The associations of SDI with laryngeal cancer related indexes*

174 We also assessed the associations of the SDI with laryngeal cancer related indexes at
175 the national level (Figure 4). As shown in Figure 4A & B, the ASIR and ASMR and
176 their corresponding trends, quantified by the EAPC, of laryngeal cancer were both
177 highly correlated ($\rho = 0.795$, $P < 0.001$; $\rho = 0.907$, $P < 0.001$). The countries with higher
178 SDI seemed to have higher ASIR of laryngeal cancer (Figure 4C; $\rho = 0.369$, $P < 0.001$).
179 However, this relationship was reversed for ASMR, although the correlation index was
180 not statistically significant (Figure 4D; $\rho = -0.127$, $P = 0.079$). While no association
181 was found between the SDI and the EAPC of ASIR (Figure 4E; $\rho = -0.120$, $P = 0.097$),
182 a significantly negative association was found between the SDI and the EAPC of
183 ASMR (Figure 4F; $\rho = -0.403$, $P < 0.001$). This finding suggest that countries with
184 higher SDI have made greater improvement in the treatment of laryngeal cancer than
185 those with lower SDI.

186

187 **DISCUSSION**

188 In this study, we reported the incidence and mortality trends of laryngeal cancer at the
189 global, regional, and national levels. In brief, our findings showed highly geographical

190 heterogeneities in both the incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer worldwide.
191 We observed significant decreasing trends in the incidence and mortality rates of
192 laryngeal cancer at the global level and in most countries between 1990 and 2017. These
193 reductions suggested the efficacy of current prevention strategies and highlighted the
194 importance of continuous application and even strengthening these strategies. However,
195 we also observed an unfavorable trend in the incidence of laryngeal cancer in a few
196 countries. Most of these countries were located in East Asia and North Africa and were
197 not advanced in economy. Owing to the large population size in these countries, the
198 increase of laryngeal cancer incidence might suggest a considerable disease burden of
199 this malignant carcinoma.

200
201 Several risk factors have been implicated in the pathogenesis of laryngeal cancer. The
202 most significant of these are tobacco and alcohol consumption. In addition, the risk of
203 laryngeal cancer increases with the amount of alcohol consumed [10]. In previous
204 studies conducted in North America, Europe, Japan, and Korea, the multivariate relative
205 risks for the highest levels of consumption ranged between 2 and 10, and were 1.94 for
206 50 g/day and 3.95 for 100 g/day in a meta-analysis of 20 studies [11]. In our study, we
207 found that the incidence of laryngeal cancer was higher in Europe, where the alcohol
208 consumption is higher than the global average [12]. The decreasing trend of laryngeal
209 cancer incidence might be partly attributed to the reduction of alcohol use in these
210 countries. In a recent study conducted in British, the authors found that for those born
211 post-1985, alcohol abstention rates are increasing and male consumption is falling
212 relative to preceding cohorts [13]. However, in a large-scale modeling study [14], the
213 authors reported that between 1990 and 2017, global adult per-capita consumption
214 increased from 5.9 L to 6.5 L, and is forecasted to reach 7.6 L by 2030. In parallel,
215 globally, the prevalence of lifetime abstinence decreased from 46% in 1990 to 43% in
216 2017, and is predicted to further decrease to 40% in 2030. These results alarmed us that
217 the global goals for reducing the harmful use of alcohol are unlikely to be achieved and
218 the alcohol use related diseases including laryngeal cancer remain the major challenges
219 for human health. In this unfavorable context, although we have seen a significant

220 reduction in the incidence of laryngeal cancer in most countries over the past three
221 decades, the primary prevention for alcohol use is well worth strengthening. For
222 example, increasing the tax of alcohol beverage and strictly forbidding the sale to
223 children and adolescents.

224
225 Tobacco use has also been shown to have a linear association with the development of
226 laryngeal cancer, with a risk for smokers that is 10 to 15 times higher than the risk for
227 nonsmokers, and the heaviest smokers have as much as a 30 times greater risk [15].
228 Fortunately, owing to the persistent efforts to combating tobacco, such as the
229 Framework Convention on Tobacco Control, the prevalence of daily smoking has
230 declined for both men and women in many countries [16]. However, given the
231 continuing increase in the number of smokers worldwide and the rapid emergence of
232 new tobacco products, additional efforts are needed to achieve a smoke-free world, help
233 smokers to quit, and protect youth from initiating tobacco use [16].

234
235 Although the global decrease in the incidence of laryngeal cancer, of note is the
236 unexpected increase of this rate in a few developing countries, such as China and
237 Vietnam. We suspected that this increase might be partly explained by the following
238 reasons: 1) since the improvement of health care service and the cancer surveillance
239 system, more laryngeal cancer cases have been diagnosed and recorded; and 2) the high
240 prevalence of risk factors, especially smoking, in these countries [17, 18]. For example,
241 the implementation of tobacco control policies in China since the signing of the WHO
242 Framework Convention on Tobacco Control in 2003 has not been effective in reducing
243 smoking prevalence. Smoking prevalence among adolescents of both genders has
244 increased substantially and there has been a steady increase among young women [17].
245 The similar phenomenon was observed in Vietnam, in which the reduction in the
246 prevalence of tobacco smoking during the last 5 years has not been as high as expected,
247 especially in rural areas [18]. These findings highlight more practical and effective
248 policies targeting smoking are urgently needed.

249

250 In our study, we also observed a ubiquitous decrease in the mortality rate of laryngeal
251 cancer. Unsurprisingly, the greatest reduction was mostly seen in developed countries.
252 The development of the mortality rate of laryngeal cancer was largely based on the
253 evolution of incidence and was likely also due to the change in the medical practices,
254 including screening, diagnosis and treatment [1]. Scheduled and opportunistic
255 screening, coupled with efforts to enhance education and health behavior modification,
256 are highly recommended for pre-defined, high-risk, targeted populations [19]. This can
257 enable early detection and therefore improve mortality. Previous studies have
258 demonstrated the feasibility of developing and implementing large-scale community-
259 based head and neck cancer screenings [20].

260
261 The limitations of this study should be noted here. First, all data used in our study were
262 retrieved from GBD study, which were obtained from mathematical models based on
263 surveillance data rather than the surveillance data itself. Therefore, for those countries
264 that are lack of useable cancer surveillance data, the incidence and mortality of
265 laryngeal cancer were estimates from mathematical models and should be interpreted
266 with cautions. Second, we cannot specify the laryngeal cancer into several subgroups
267 (e.g., glottic carcinoma and supraglottic carcinoma) according to the anatomical
268 position because of the data unavailability.

269
270 In conclusion, we reported a global decrease in both the incidence and mortality of
271 laryngeal cancer over the past three decades. These decreases suggest the effectiveness
272 of control for tobacco and alcohol use. However, an unfavorable increase in the
273 incidence of laryngeal cancer was observed in a few developing countries. More
274 targeted and potent prevention strategies for laryngeal cancer are therefore warranted.

275
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277 **Disclosure statement**

278 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

279 **Authors' contributions:**

280 Conceptualization: J.Y.W. and Q.W.Z.; Data curation: J.Y.W., Q.W.Z., and K.X.W.;
281 Formal analysis: J.Y.W. and Q.W.Z.; Methodology: C.W. and J.Y.W.; Software X.L.J,
282 and X.Z.; Supervision: J.Y.W. and X.Z.; Roles/Writing - original draft: all authors;
283 Writing - review & editing: all authors.

284 **Data sharing:**

285 The data used in our study were available at online Global Health Data Exchange query
286 tool (<http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-2017>).

287 **Patient and Public involvement:**

288 No patient involved

289

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337

338 **Figure legend**

339 Figure 1. The temporal trends of incident case number (A), death number (B), age-
340 standardized incidence rate (ASIR) (C), and age-standardized mortality rate (ASMR)
341 (D) of laryngeal cancer from 1990 to 2017.

342

343 Figure 2. The estimated average percentage change (EAPC) and its 95% confidence
344 interval (CI) of age-standardized incidence rate (A) and age-standardized mortality rate
345 (B) of laryngeal cancer at the global and regional levels.

346

347 Figure 3. The age-standardized incidence rate (A), the estimated average percentage
348 change of incidence rate between 1990 and 2017 (B), the age-standardized mortality
349 rate (C), and the estimated average percentage change of mortality rate between 1990
350 and 2017 (D) of laryngeal cancer at the national level.

351

352 Figure 4. The associations between national socio-demographical index (SDI) and
353 laryngeal cancer related indexes. (A, the association between age-standardized
354 incidence rate [ASIR] and age-standardized mortality rate [ASMR] of laryngeal cancer
355 in 2017; B, the association between changing trends of ASIR and ASMR; C, the
356 correlations of SDI with ASIR of laryngeal cancer; D, the correlations of SDI with
357 ASMR of laryngeal cancer; E, the correlations of SDI with the changing trends of ASIR
358 of laryngeal cancer; F, the correlations of SDI with the changing trends of ASMR of
359 laryngeal cancer.

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367 Table 1. The incidence and mortality of larynx cancer in 1990 and 2017 and the temporal trends between 1990 and 2017, by sex, SDI region, and GBD region.

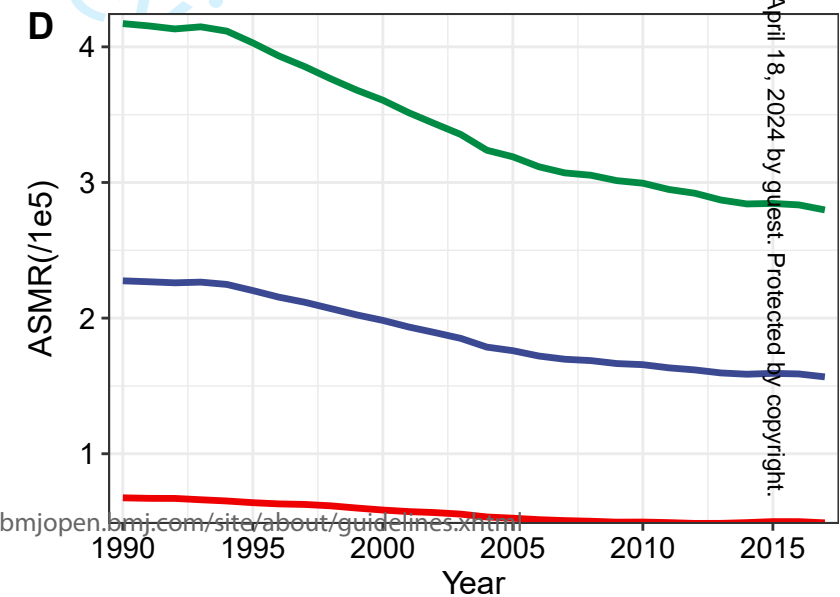
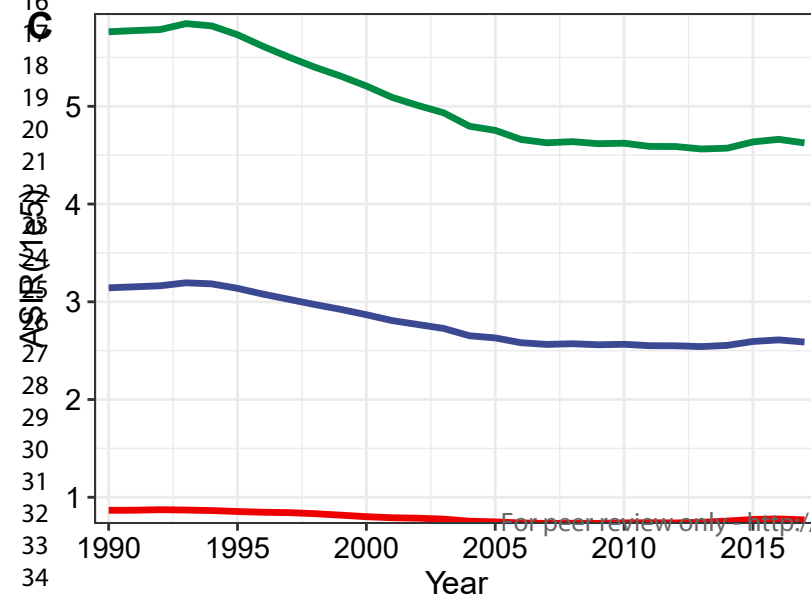
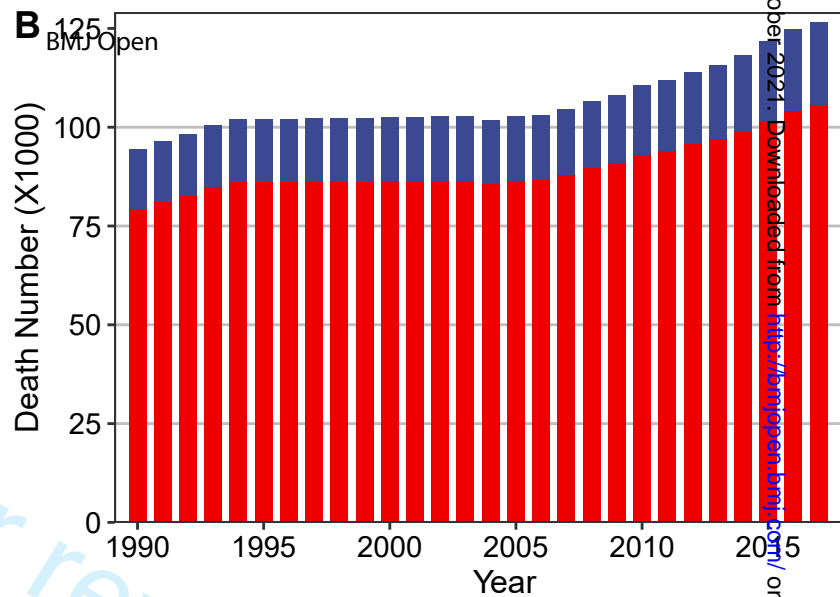
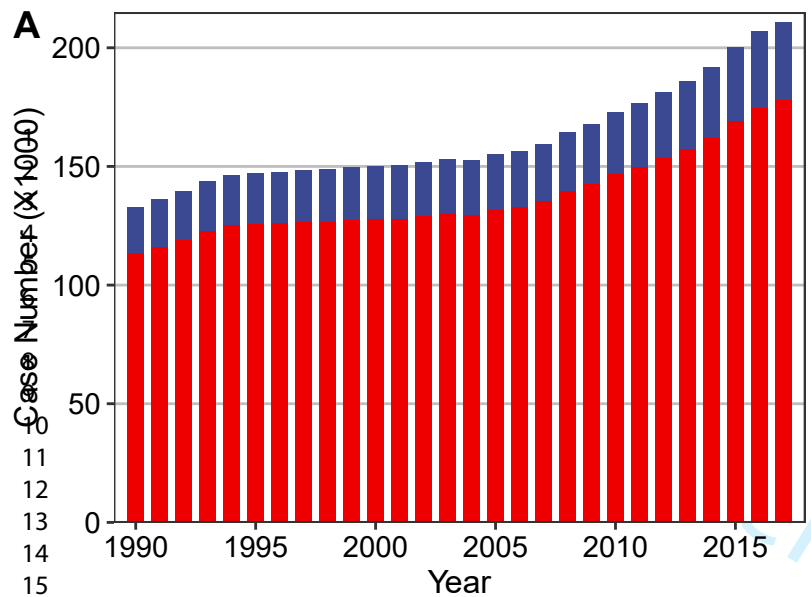
	Age-standardized incidence rate					Age-standardized mortality rate				
	1990		2017		1990-2017	1990		2017		1990-2017
	Case number (× 1000)	ASIR (/10 ⁵)	Case number (× 1000)	ASIR (/10 ⁵)	EAPC (95% CI)	Death number (× 1000)	ASMR (/10 ⁵)	Death number (× 1000)	ASMR (/10 ⁵)	EAPC (95% CI)
Global	132.7	3.14	210.6	2.59	-0.99 (-1.14, -0.83)	94.5	2.27	126.5	1.57	-1.62 (-1.74, -1.50)
Sex										
Male	113.3	5.76	178.0	4.63	-1.08 (-1.23, -0.93)	79.5	4.17	105.6	2.80	-1.71 (-1.82, -1.59)
Female	19.4	0.87	32.6	0.77	-0.66 (-0.83, -0.50)	15.0	0.68	20.9	0.49	-1.40 (-1.56, -1.25)
SDI regions										
High	48.9	3.91	57.8	2.82	-1.58 (-1.71, -1.46)	22.9	1.81	19.7	0.92	-2.83 (-2.96, -2.70)
High-middle	30.2	3.04	49.5	2.68	-0.87 (-1.09, -0.65)	23.0	2.37	26.6	1.46	-2.25 (-2.44, -2.06)
Middle	20.8	2.10	49.1	2.17	-0.02 (-0.22, 0.18)	18.0	1.90	32.5	1.48	-1.07 (-1.19, -0.95)
Low-middle	18.8	3.11	32.6	2.64	-0.72 (-0.82, -0.62)	17.3	2.97	28.2	2.36	-0.95 (-1.02, -0.87)
Low	13.8	3.88	20.8	2.84	-1.19 (-1.38, -1.00)	13.0	3.80	19.0	2.68	-1.32 (-1.48, -1.15)
GBD region										
Andean Latin America	0.3	1.48	0.5	0.90	-2.21 (-2.41, -2.00)	0.3	1.44	0.4	0.75	-2.80 (-3.01, -2.59)
Australasia	0.7	3.01	1.0	2.08	-1.73 (-1.91, -1.55)	0.3	1.20	0.3	0.60	-2.94 (-3.11, -2.77)
Caribbean	1.1	3.97	2.4	4.64	0.56 (0.43, 0.70)	0.8	3.12	1.5	3.02	-0.16 (-0.26, -0.05)
Central Asia	1.5	2.95	1.7	2.20	-1.32 (-1.46, -1.17)	1.2	2.47	1.2	1.64	-1.76 (-1.94, -1.58)
Central Europe	7.2	4.68	8.7	4.39	-0.40 (-0.53, -0.26)	5.3	3.48	5.0	2.44	-1.51 (-1.63, -1.38)
Central Latin America	1.8	2.15	3.4	1.48	-1.88 (-2.04, -1.73)	1.6	1.96	2.5	1.11	-2.52 (-2.66, -2.39)
Central Sub-Saharan Africa	0.5	1.98	0.8	1.55	-1.02 (-1.11, -0.92)	0.5	2.00	0.8	1.53	-1.09 (-1.18, -1.01)

East Asia	14.4	1.53	41.9	1.98	1.01 (0.62, 1.40)	12.0	1.33	20.4	1.00	-1.12 (-1.36, -0.88)
Eastern Europe	13.2	4.52	12.3	3.67	-1.48 (-1.79, -1.15)	9.4	3.20	6.9	2.02	-2.54 (-2.92, -2.15)
Eastern Sub-Saharan Africa	1.6	1.92	2.3	1.38	-1.51 (-1.64, -1.38)	1.5	1.89	2.2	1.33	-1.60 (-1.74, -1.47)
High-income Asia Pacific	4.8	2.28	6.9	1.64	-1.71 (-1.90, -1.53)	1.7	0.84	1.7	0.36	-3.85 (-4.14, -3.56)
High-income North America	12.7	3.71	18.6	3.11	-1.22 (-1.44, -1.01)	5.0	1.41	5.7	0.92	-1.96 (-2.09, -1.83)
North Africa and Middle East	4.9	2.71	10.1	2.33	-0.60 (-0.64, -0.56)	4.3	2.46	6.8	1.66	-1.54 (-1.63, -1.46)
Oceania	0.1	1.91	0.1	2.05	0.42 (0.34, 0.50)	0.1	1.79	0.1	1.88	0.37 (0.28, 0.45)
South Asia	29.7	4.62	50.6	3.57	-1.11 (-1.31, -0.90)	27.6	4.45	44.3	3.22	-1.33 (-1.50, -1.17)
Southeast Asia	5.3	1.95	11.5	1.89	-0.20 (-0.27, -0.14)	4.6	1.76	8.0	1.38	-0.96 (-1.00, -0.92)
Southern Latin America	1.6	3.42	1.9	2.32	-1.83 (-2.02, -1.65)	1.2	2.62	1.2	1.48	-2.39 (-2.56, -2.22)
Southern Sub-Saharan Africa	0.7	2.30	1.1	1.84	-1.09 (-1.63, -0.55)	0.6	2.08	0.9	1.63	-1.12 (-1.70, -0.54)
Tropical Latin America	3.0	3.08	7.2	3.03	-0.18 (-0.27, -0.10)	2.5	2.62	5.1	2.16	-0.81 (-0.88, -0.74)
Western Europe	26.3	4.78	25.3	3.19	-1.76 (-1.90, -1.63)	12.9	2.27	9.3	1.08	-2.98 (-3.12, -2.84)
Western Sub-Saharan Africa	1.4	1.47	2.4	1.33	-0.31 (-0.34, -0.28)	1.3	1.44	2.3	1.29	-0.36 (-0.40, -0.32)

368 SDI, socio-demographical index; ASIR, age-standardized incidence rate; ASMR, age-standardized mortality rate; EAPC, estimated average percentage change.

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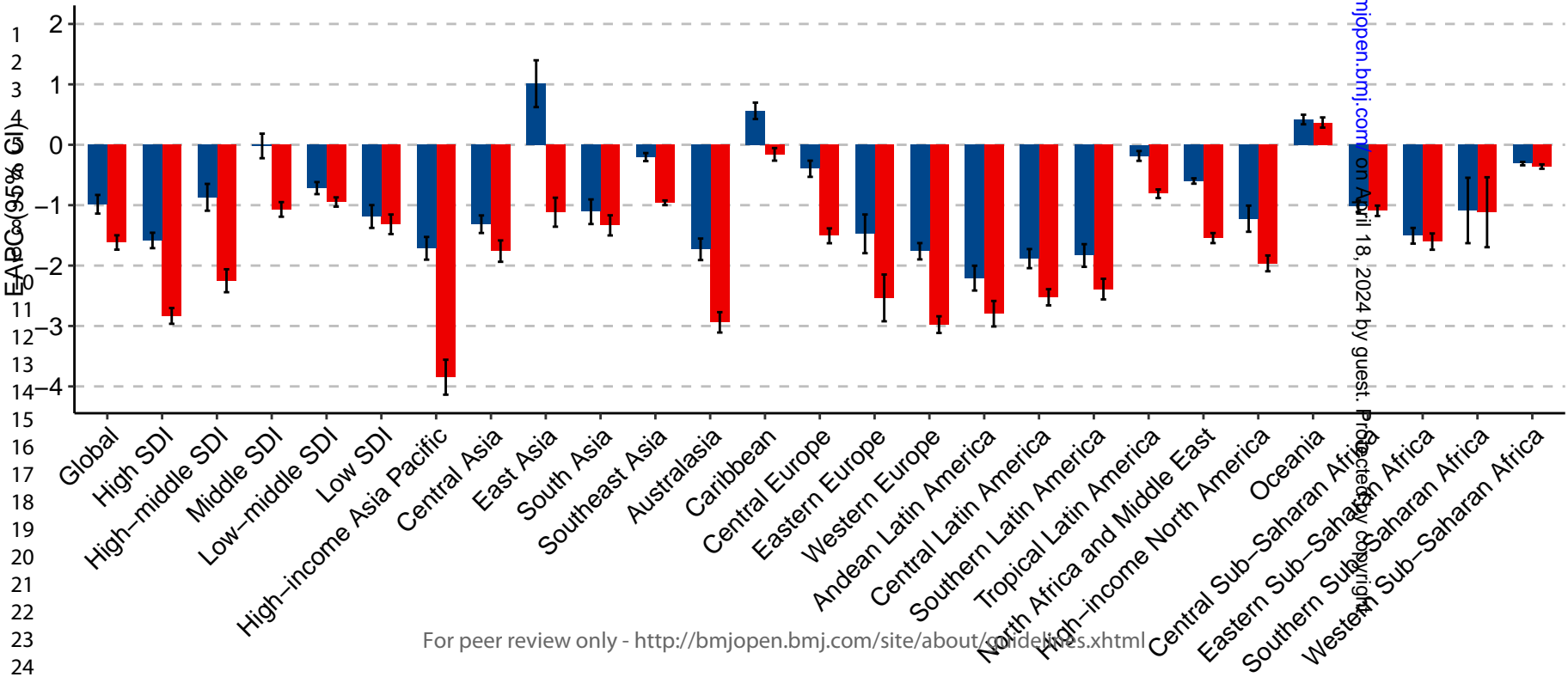


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Female
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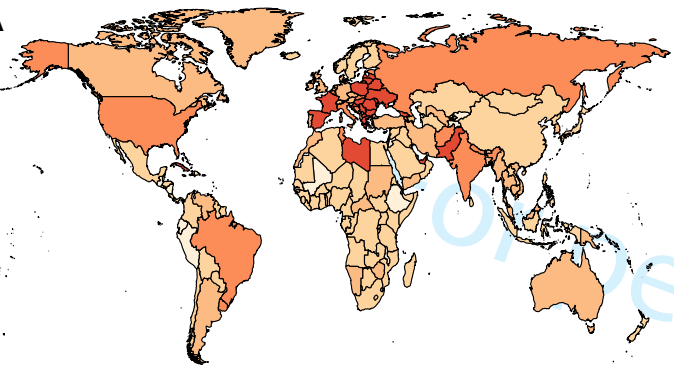
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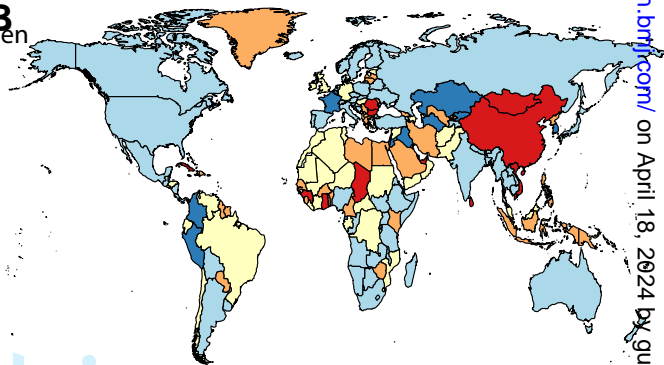
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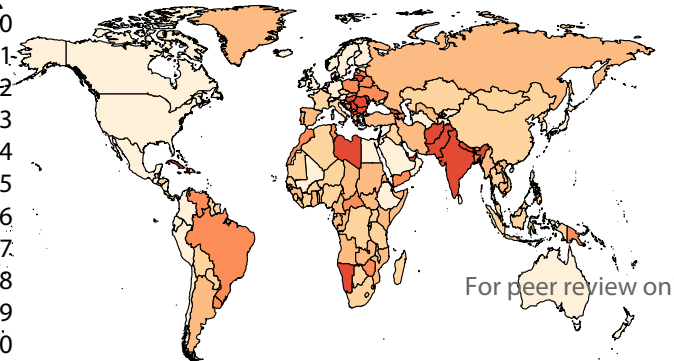
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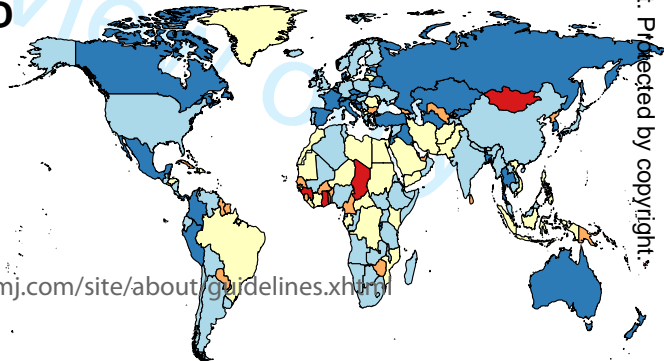
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C



D



STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cohort studies*

	Item No	Recommendation	Page No
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract (b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	1, 2
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	3
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	3
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	4
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	4
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up (b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	4
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	4
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	4
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	4
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	4
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	4
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding (b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions (c) Explain how missing data were addressed (d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed (e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	4
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed (b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage (c) Consider use of a flow diagram	5
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders (b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest (c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	5
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	6

1	Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	5-6
2				
3			(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	
4			(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	
5	Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	
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11	Discussion			
12				
13	Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	6
14	Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	8
15				
16	Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	7-8
17				
18	Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	7
19				
20				
21	Other information			
22	Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	1
23				
24				

25
26 *Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

27
28 **Note:** An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and
29 published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely
30 available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at <http://www.plosmedicine.org/>, Annals of Internal Medicine at
31 <http://www.annals.org/>, and Epidemiology at <http://www.epidem.com/>). Information on the STROBE Initiative is
32 available at <http://www.strobe-statement.org>.
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Temporal trends in incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and national levels, 1990-2017

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Title:

Temporal trends in incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and national levels, 1990-2017

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Running title: Epidemiology of laryngeal cancer

ABSTRACT**Objectives**

Laryngeal cancer is the most prevalent entity of head and neck cancer. Knowing the trends of incidence and mortality of laryngeal cancer is important for the reduction in related disease burden.

Design

Population-based observational study

Main outcomes and measures

The incidence and mortality data of laryngeal cancer were retrieved from the Global Burden of Disease study 2017 online database. The estimated average percentage change was used to quantify the trends of laryngeal cancer incidence and mortality at the global, regional, and national levels.

Results

Globally, the numbers of incident cases and deaths due to laryngeal cancer increased 58.7% and 33.9%, respectively, from 1990 to 2017. However, the overall age-standardized incidence rate (ASIR) and age-standardized mortality rate (ASMR) decreased by 0.99% (95% CI 0.83%, 1.14%) and 1.62% (95% CI 1.50%, 1.74%) per year, respectively. These decreases were ubiquitous worldwide. However, unfavourable trends in the ASIR of laryngeal cancer were also observed in a total of 51 developing countries.

Conclusions

The incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer have significantly decreased at the global level and in most countries over the past three decades. The regions that showed an increasing incidence trend deserve more attention.

Keywords Laryngeal cancer; incidence; mortality; global

Article summary

Strengths and limitations of this study

- We provided the most comprehensive description of laryngeal cancer incidence

60 and mortality.

- 61 ● The temporal trends of incidence and mortality are critical to update laryngeal
- 62 cancer prevention strategies.
- 63 ● The data used in this study lacked individual data.
- 64 ● Laryngeal cancer cannot be further classified according to the anatomical position.

66 INTRODUCTION

67 Laryngeal carcinoma is the most common cancer site of the aerodigestive tract and
68 accounts for 25-30% of all head and neck cancer cases [1]. In 2018, it was estimated
69 that a total of 177,000 cases of laryngeal cancer and 95,000 related deaths occurred
70 worldwide [2]. Laryngeal cancer is diagnosed more commonly in men than in women
71 [2]. The most well-determined risk factors for laryngeal cancer include smoking and
72 alcohol consumption [3, 4]. Owing to the disparities in risk factor distribution from
73 country to country, the incidence and mortality patterns of laryngeal cancer are
74 geographically heterogeneous [5]. In this context, a comprehensive description of the
75 epidemiological characteristics of laryngeal cancer at the national level is needed. In
76 addition, the incidence and mortality trends of laryngeal cancer were commonly
77 reported together with those of other head and neck cancers (HNCs) [6]. Few studies
78 have individually described and analysed the epidemiological features of laryngeal
79 cancer in the international/global setting. However, due to the differences in the
80 histology, pathology, clinical manifestation, and prognosis of HNC, separately
81 knowing their evolving incidence and mortality rates is important for HNC prevention.

82
83 In the current study, leveraging the data from the 2017 Global Burden of Disease (GBD)
84 study [7], we comprehensively described the epidemiology and analysed the temporal
85 trends of incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and
86 national levels.

88 METHODS

89 *Study data*

90 The GBD study provides a tool to quantify health loss from hundreds of diseases,

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3
4 91 injuries, and risk factors so that health systems can be improved and disparities can be
5
6 92 eliminated [7, 8]. GBD data have been widely used to assess the disease burden of
7
8 93 cancers [5, 9]. Herein, we retrieved the incidence and mortality data of laryngeal cancer
9
10 94 by sex, country or territory, region, and single calendar year from 1990 to 2017 using
11
12 95 the online Global Health Data Exchange query tool. The electronic searches were
13
14 96 complemented with additional epidemiologic measures such as “metric” (i.e., “rate”
15
16 97 and “number”), “measure” (i.e., “incidence” and “deaths”), “year” (i.e., from 1990 to
17
18 98 2017), “sex” (i.e., “male” and “female”), “age” (i.e., “all ages” and “age-standardized”)
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20 99 and “location”. The data were available at four geographical levels: global (level 1); 5
21
22 100 regions in terms of sociodemographic index (SDI; i.e., high SDI, high-middle SDI,
23
24 101 middle SDI, low-middle SDI, and low SDI; level 2); 21 GBD regions in terms of
25
26 102 geography (e.g., Western Europe; level 3); and 195 countries or territories (e.g., China;
27
28 103 level 4). The SDI is a composite indicator of development status that is strongly
29
30 104 correlated with health outcomes. It is the geometric mean of 0 to 1 indexes of total
31
32 105 fertility rate under the age of 25, mean education for those ages 15 and older, and lag-
33
34 106 distributed income per capita. As a composite, a location with an SDI of 0 would have
35
36 107 a theoretical minimum level of development relevant to health, while a location with
37
38 108 an SDI of 1 would have a theoretical maximum level [10].

39 109
40
41 110 The collection and processing procedures of cancer data in GBD studies have been
42
43 111 extensively described elsewhere [11, 12]. In brief, the crude incidence and mortality
44
45 112 data were collected from cancer registries or aggregated databases of the cancer registry,
46
47 113 such as “Cancer Incidence In Five Continents (CI5)”. Data were excluded if they were
48
49 114 not representative of the general population (e.g., hospital-based registries). Laryngeal
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51 115 cancer was identified by the ICD-10 codes C32-C32.9 and the ICD-9 codes 161-161.9
52
53 116 from the cancer databases. Most cancer registries only report cancer incidence.
54
55 117 However, if a cancer registry also reported cancer mortality, mortality data were also
56
57 118 extracted from the source to be used in the mortality to incidence estimation. For
58
59 119 regions that lack incidence data, cancer incidence was estimated from cancer mortality
60
120 using mortality to incidence ratios. These data were then modelled by cause of death

121 ensemble modelling (CODEm), which is the framework used to model most cause-
122 specific death rates in the GBD study [12, 13]. In brief, the CODEm approach is based
123 on the principles that all types of available data should be used even if data quality
124 varies; that individual models but also ensemble models should be tested for their
125 predictive validity; and that the best model or sets of models should be chosen based
126 on the out-of-sample predictive validity. Despite the advanced modelling strategies
127 used in GBD studies, we should bear in mind that the estimates provided were based
128 on modelling data rather than raw data. The national SDIs were also retrieved from the
129 GBD online database.

130

131 ***Statistical analysis***

132 We used the estimated average percentage change (EAPC) to quantify the trends of
133 laryngeal cancer incidence and mortality from 1990 to 2017 [14]. The EAPC can be
134 calculated from the regression model, which was fitted to the calendar years with the
135 natural logarithm of the rates (i.e., $y = \alpha + \beta x + \varepsilon$, where $y = \ln(\text{rate})$, and $x = \text{calendar}$
136 year) [15]. Pearson correlation tests were applied to assess the correlations between
137 SDIs and other indexes (e.g., the incidence and the EAPC of incidence). All statistical
138 analyses were performed using the R program (Version 3.6.3, R core team, Vienna,
139 Austria). A P-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

140

141 **Patient and public involvement**

142 No patients were involved.

143

144 **Results**

145 ***Incidence and its trend for laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and national*** 146 ***levels***

147 Globally, the number of incident cases of laryngeal cancer increased from 132.7
148 thousand in 1990 to 210.6 thousand in 2017 (Figure 1A; Table 1). Approximately 85%
149 of total cases occurred in men (Table 1). The case numbers were highest in regions with
150 high SDIs and decreased with the SDI levels. During the study period, the overall age-

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4 151 standardized incidence rate (ASIR) of laryngeal cancer experienced a significant
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6 152 decrease (EAPC = -0.99, 95% CI, -1.14, -0.83) (Figure 1B). The ASIR decreased with
7
8 153 different magnitudes in different regions. The greatest reductions were observed in
9
10 154 high-SDI regions (Table 1). For GBD regions, the highest ASIR and case number of
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12 155 laryngeal cancer were found in the Caribbean and East Asia, respectively, in 2017
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14 156 (Table 1). Between 1990 and 2017, we found that only three of 21 GBD regions, namely,
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16 157 East Asia, the Caribbean, and Oceania, experienced significant increases in the ASIR
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18 158 (Table 1; Figure 1C). In the remaining GBD regions, the ASIR was significantly
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20 159 decreased, with the most pronounced reduction found in Andean Latin America (EAPC
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22 160 = -2.21, 95% CI, -2.41, -2.00) (Table 1; Figure 1C). In 2017, the ASIR of laryngeal
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24 161 cancer varied 12-fold worldwide. The highest ASIR was observed in Cuba
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26 162 (8.58/100,000), followed by Seychelles and Montenegro (Figure 1D). A total of 51
27
28 163 countries, most of which are located in developing regions, experienced significant
29
30 164 increases in the ASIR of laryngeal cancer from 1990 to 2017 (Figure 1E). The greatest
31
32 165 increase was found in Sri Lanka (EAPC = 2.31, 95% CI, 2.04, 2.58). In contrast, a total
33
34 166 of 122 countries experienced significant decreases in the ASIR of laryngeal cancer
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36 167 (Figure 1E). The most marked reduction was seen in Bahrain (EAPC = -4.79, 95% CI,
37
38 168 -5.37, -4.21).

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41 170 ***Mortality and its trend for laryngeal cancer at the global, regional, and national***
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43 171 ***levels***

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45 172 While the number of deaths from laryngeal cancer increased 33.9% between 1990 and
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47 173 2017, the corresponding age-standardized mortality rate (ASMR) decreased by 1.62%
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49 174 per year during the same period (Table 1; Figure 2A& B). Most deaths occurred in men
50
51 175 and in regions with low to medium SDIs (Table 1). The most significant reductions in
52
53 176 the ASMR were found in high-SDI regions. Only one GBD region (i.e., Oceania)
54
55 177 showed a significant increase in the ASMR of laryngeal cancer between 1990 and 2017.
56
57 178 The ASMRs in the remaining GBD regions were significantly decreased (Table 1;
58
59 179 Figure 2C). The greatest decrease was observed in high-income Asia Pacific (EAPC =
60
180 -3.85, 95% CI, -4.14, -3.56). At the national level, the highest ASMR was found in

181 Pakistan (5.17/100,000) in 2017, followed by Cuba and Seychelles (Figure 2D).
182 Between 1990 and 2017, 30 countries experienced significant increases in the ASMR.
183 The greatest increase was found in Guinea (EAPC = 1.77, 95% CI, 1.56, 1.98), followed
184 by Chad and Mongolia (Figure 2E). In contrast, a total of 150 countries experienced
185 significant decreases in the ASMR of laryngeal cancer. The most marked reduction was
186 found in South Korea (EAPC = -7.10, 95% CI, -7.81, -6.40) (Figure 2E).

188 *The associations of SDI with laryngeal cancer-related indexes*

189 We also assessed the associations of the SDI with laryngeal cancer-related indexes at
190 the national level (Figure 3). As shown in Figure 3A & B, the ASIR and ASMR and
191 their corresponding trends, quantified by the EAPC, of laryngeal cancer were both
192 highly correlated ($\rho = 0.795$, $P < 0.001$; $\rho = 0.907$, $P < 0.001$). Countries with a higher
193 SDI had a higher ASIR of laryngeal cancer (Figure 3C; $\rho = 0.369$, $P < 0.001$). However,
194 this relationship was reversed for ASMR, although the correlation index was not
195 statistically significant (Figure 3D; $\rho = -0.127$, $P = 0.079$). While no significant
196 association was found between the SDI and the EAPC of ASIR (Figure 3E; $\rho = -0.120$,
197 $P = 0.097$), a significantly negative association was found between the SDI and the
198 EAPC of ASMR (Figure 3F; $\rho = -0.403$, $P < 0.001$). These findings suggest that
199 countries with higher SDIs have made greater improvements in the treatment of
200 laryngeal cancer than those with lower SDIs.

202 **DISCUSSION**

203 In this study, we reported the incidence and mortality trends of laryngeal cancer at the
204 global, regional, and national levels. In brief, our findings showed high geographical
205 heterogeneity in both the incidence and mortality rates of laryngeal cancer worldwide.
206 We observed significant decreasing trends in the incidence and mortality rates of
207 laryngeal cancer at the global level and in most countries between 1990 and 2017. These
208 reductions suggested the efficacy of current prevention strategies and highlighted the
209 importance of continuous application and even strengthening of these strategies.
210 However, we also observed unfavourable trends in the incidence of laryngeal cancer in

211 a few countries. Most of these countries were located in East Asia and North Africa in
212 areas that lacked advanced economies. Owing to the large population sizes in these
213 countries, the increase in laryngeal cancer incidence might suggest a considerable
214 disease burden of this malignant carcinoma.

215
216 Several risk factors have been implicated in the pathogenesis of laryngeal cancer. The
217 most significant of these are tobacco use and alcohol consumption. In addition, the risk
218 of laryngeal cancer increases with the amount of alcohol consumed [16]. In previous
219 studies conducted in North America, Europe, Japan, and Korea, the multivariate relative
220 risks for the highest levels of consumption ranged between 2 and 10 and were 1.94 for
221 50 g/day and 3.95 for 100 g/day in a meta-analysis of 20 studies [17]. In our study, we
222 found that the incidence of laryngeal cancer was higher in Europe, where alcohol
223 consumption is higher than the global average [18]. The decreasing trend of laryngeal
224 cancer incidence might be partly attributed to the reduction of alcohol use in these
225 countries. In a recent study conducted in Great Britain, the authors found that for those
226 born post-1985, alcohol abstinence rates are increasing and male consumption is
227 decreasing relative to preceding cohorts [19]. However, in a large-scale modelling study
228 [20], the authors reported that between 1990 and 2017, global adult per capita
229 consumption increased from 5.9 L to 6.5 L and is forecasted to reach 7.6 L by 2030. In
230 parallel, globally, the prevalence of lifetime abstinence decreased from 46% in 1990 to
231 43% in 2017 and is predicted to further decrease to 40% in 2030. These results alarmed
232 us that the global goals for reducing the harmful use of alcohol are unlikely to be
233 achieved and that alcohol use-related diseases, including laryngeal cancer, remain the
234 major challenges for human health. In this unfavourable context, although we have seen
235 a significant reduction in the incidence of laryngeal cancer in most countries over the
236 past three decades, the primary preventive strategy of decreasing alcohol use is worth
237 strengthening, such as by increasing the tax of alcohol beverages and strictly forbidding
238 sales to children and adolescents.

239
240 Tobacco use has also been shown to have a linear association with the development of

241 laryngeal cancer, with a risk for smokers that is 10 to 15 times higher than the risk for
242 nonsmokers, and the heaviest smokers have as much as a 30 times greater risk [21].
243 Fortunately, owing to persistent efforts to combat tobacco use, such as the Framework
244 Convention on Tobacco Control, the prevalence of daily smoking has declined for both
245 men and women in many countries [22]. However, given the continuing increase in the
246 number of smokers worldwide and the rapid emergence of new tobacco products,
247 additional efforts are needed to achieve a smoke-free world, help smokers quit, and
248 protect youth from initiating tobacco use [22].

249
250 Despite the global decrease in the incidence of laryngeal cancer, of note are the
251 unexpected increases in this rate in a few developing countries, such as China and
252 Vietnam. We suspected that these increases might be partly explained by the following
253 reasons: 1) since the improvement of health care services and the cancer surveillance
254 system, more laryngeal cancer cases have been diagnosed and recorded; and 2) the
255 prevalence rates of risk factors, especially smoking, are high in these countries [23, 24].
256 For example, the implementation of tobacco control policies in China since the signing
257 of the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control in 2003 has not been effective
258 in reducing smoking prevalence. Smoking prevalence among adolescents of both sexes
259 has increased substantially, and there has been a steady increase in smoking among
260 young women [23]. A similar phenomenon was observed in Vietnam, in which the
261 reduction in the prevalence of tobacco smoking during the last 5 years was not as high
262 as expected, especially in rural areas [24]. These findings highlight that more practical
263 and effective policies targeting smoking are urgently needed.

264
265 In our study, we also observed a ubiquitous decrease in the mortality rate of laryngeal
266 cancer. Unsurprisingly, the greatest reductions were mostly seen in developed countries.
267 The development of the mortality rate of laryngeal cancer was largely based on the
268 evolution of incidence and was likely also due to changes in medical practices,
269 including screening, diagnosis and treatment [1]. Taking radiotherapy as an example,
270 Atun et al. reported that the coverage of radiotherapy was positively associated with

271 gross national income [25]. Moreover, countries with a relatively higher income will
272 benefit more from investment in radiotherapy than countries with lower or lower-
273 middle income [25]. Scheduled and opportunistic screening, coupled with efforts to
274 enhance education and health behaviour modification, are highly recommended for
275 predefined, high-risk, targeted populations [26]. These measures can enable early
276 detection and therefore improve mortality. Previous studies have demonstrated the
277 feasibility of developing and implementing large-scale community-based head and
278 neck cancer screenings [27].

279

280 The limitations of this study should be noted here. First, all data used in our study were
281 retrieved from GBD studies, which were obtained from mathematical models based on
282 surveillance data rather than the surveillance data itself. Therefore, for countries that
283 lack useable cancer surveillance data, the incidence and mortality of laryngeal cancer
284 are estimated from mathematical models and should be interpreted with caution. In
285 other words, the data used in our study were largely dependent on the quality and
286 quantity of data used in the modelling. For example, the cancer surveillance system was
287 generally more complete in developed countries than in developing countries, which
288 might lead to a larger number of reported cancer cases or a higher ASIR/ASMR of
289 cancer in developed countries. However, GBD studies incorporate sparse data
290 worldwide and provide the most comprehensive data source for the study of cancer
291 disease burden. Second, because of a lag in data availability, estimates for the most
292 recent years are based on past time trends and covariates rather than data, which is
293 reflected in the larger uncertainty [5]. Finally, we cannot specify laryngeal cancer into
294 several subgroups (e.g., glottic carcinoma and supraglottic carcinoma) according to the
295 anatomical position because of data unavailability. A previous study reported that the
296 temporal trends differed markedly between cancers of different anatomical subsites
297 [28]. Moreover, different subtypes of laryngeal cancer might be considered different
298 entities that are distinct in clinicopathological and immunohistochemical staining
299 characteristics [29].

300

301 In conclusion, we reported global decreases in both the incidence and mortality of
302 laryngeal cancer over the past three decades. These decreases suggest the effectiveness
303 of the control of tobacco and alcohol use. However, unfavourable increases in the
304 incidence of laryngeal cancer were observed in a few developing countries. More
305 targeted and potent prevention strategies for laryngeal cancer are therefore warranted.

306
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308 **Disclosure statement**

309 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

310 **Authors' contributions:**

311 Conceptualization: J.Y.W. and Q.W.Z.; Data curation: J.Y.W., Q.W.Z., and K.X.W.;
312 Formal analysis: J.Y.W. and Q.W.Z.; Methodology: C.W. and J.Y.W.; Software X.L.J,
313 and L.X.Z.; Supervision: J.Y.W. and L.X.Z.; Roles/Writing - original draft: all authors;
314 Writing - review & editing: all authors.

315 **Data sharing:**

316 The data used in our study were available at online Global Health Data Exchange query
317 tool (<http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-2017>).

318 **Ethics approval statement:**

319 Ethics approval is not applicable for this study due to only public data were used. No
320 individual data or human participants were involved.

321

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392

393 **Figure legends**

394 Figure 1. Epidemiological features of laryngeal cancer incidence.

395 (A) the temporal trends of incident case number and (B) age-standardized incidence
396 rate (ASIR) of laryngeal cancer at the global level between 1990 and 2017. (C) the
397 temporal trend of ASIR of laryngeal cancer at the regional level between 1990 and 2017.
398 (D) the ASIR of laryngeal cancer at the national level in 2017. (E) the temporal trend
399 of ASIR of laryngeal cancer at the national level between 1990 and 2017.

400

401 Figure 2. Epidemiological features of laryngeal cancer mortality.

402 (A) the temporal trends of incident death number and (B) age-standardized mortality
403 rate (ASMR) of laryngeal cancer at the global level between 1990 and 2017. (C) the
404 temporal trend of ASMR of laryngeal cancer at the regional level between 1990 and
405 2017. (D) the ASMR of laryngeal cancer at the national level in 2017. (E) the temporal
406 trend of ASMR of laryngeal cancer at the national level between 1990 and 2017.

407

408 Figure 3. The associations between the national sociodemographic index (SDI) and
409 laryngeal cancer-related indexes. (A), the association between age-standardized
410 incidence rate [ASIR] and age-standardized mortality rate [ASMR] of laryngeal cancer
411 in 2017; (B), the association between changing trends of ASIR and ASMR; (C), the
412 correlations of SDI with ASIR of laryngeal cancer; (D), the correlations of SDI with
413 ASMR of laryngeal cancer; (E), the correlations of SDI with the changing trends of
414 ASIR of laryngeal cancer; (F), the correlations of SDI with the changing trends of
415 ASMR of laryngeal cancer.

416

417

418

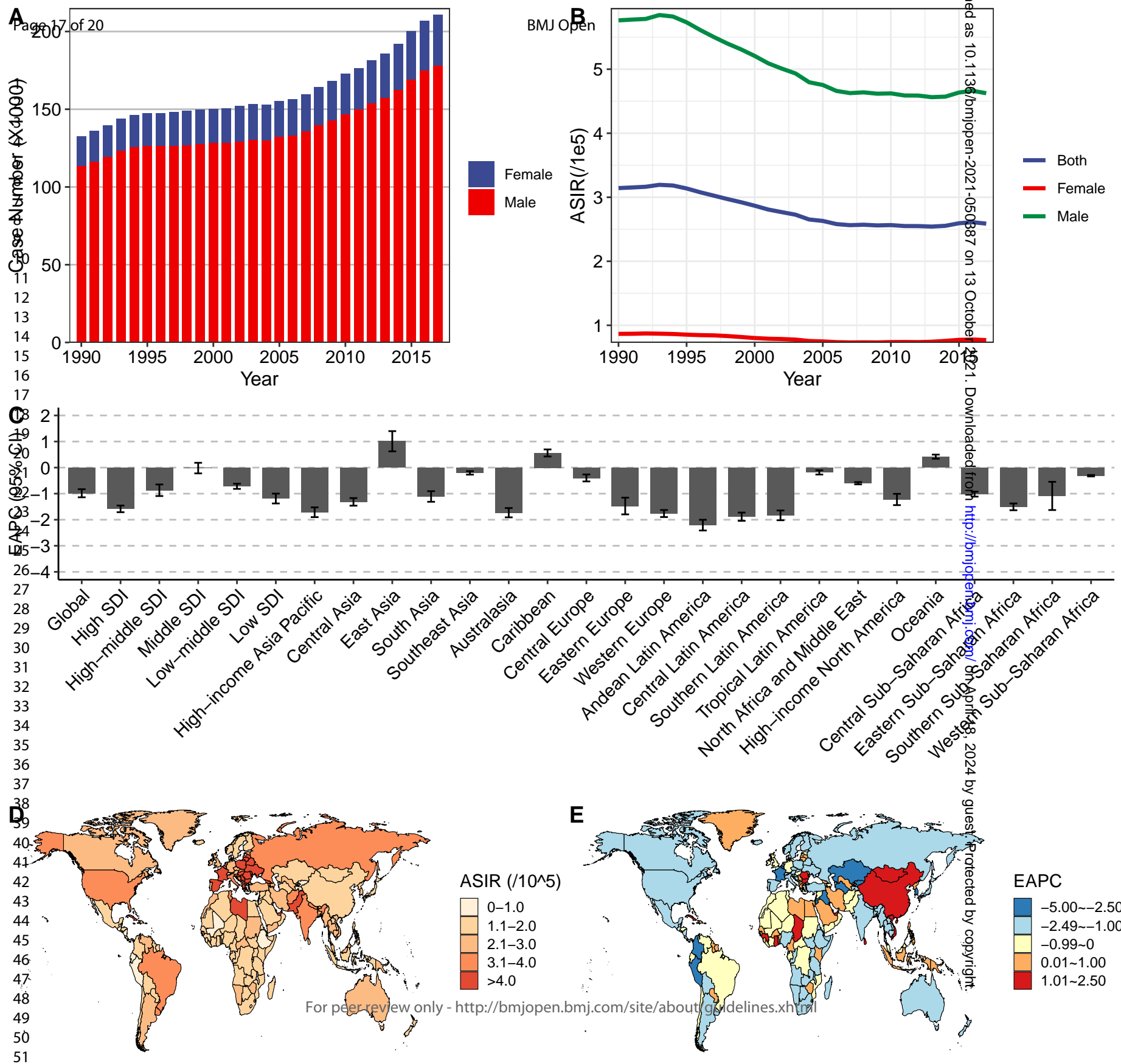
419 Table 1. The incidence and mortality of larynx cancer in 1990 and 2017 and the temporal trends between 1990 and 2017, by sex, SDI region, and GBD region.

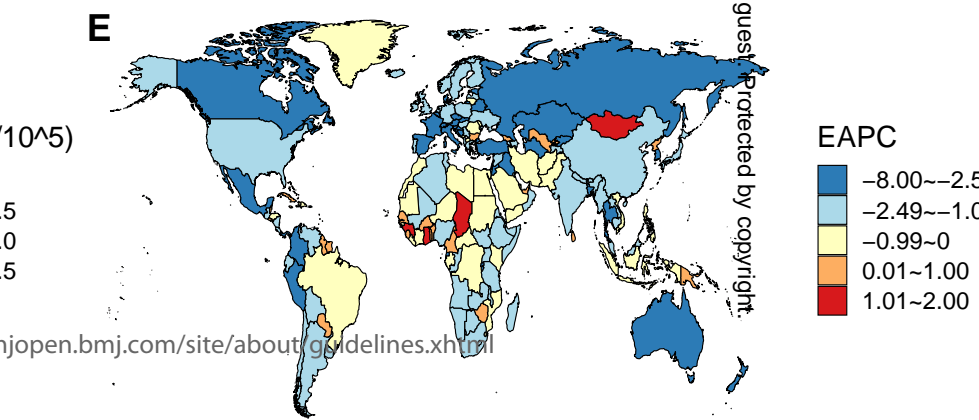
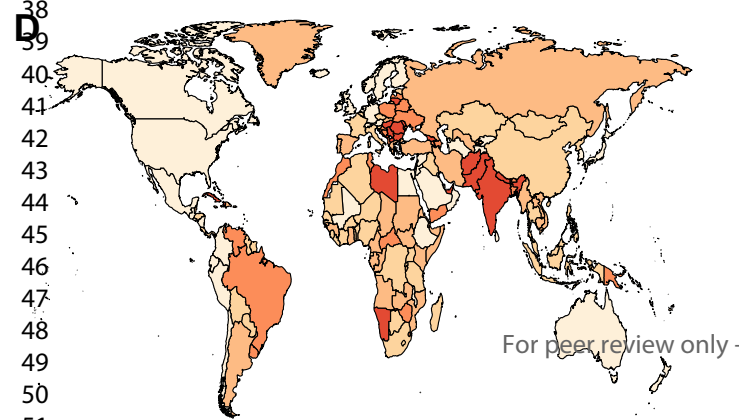
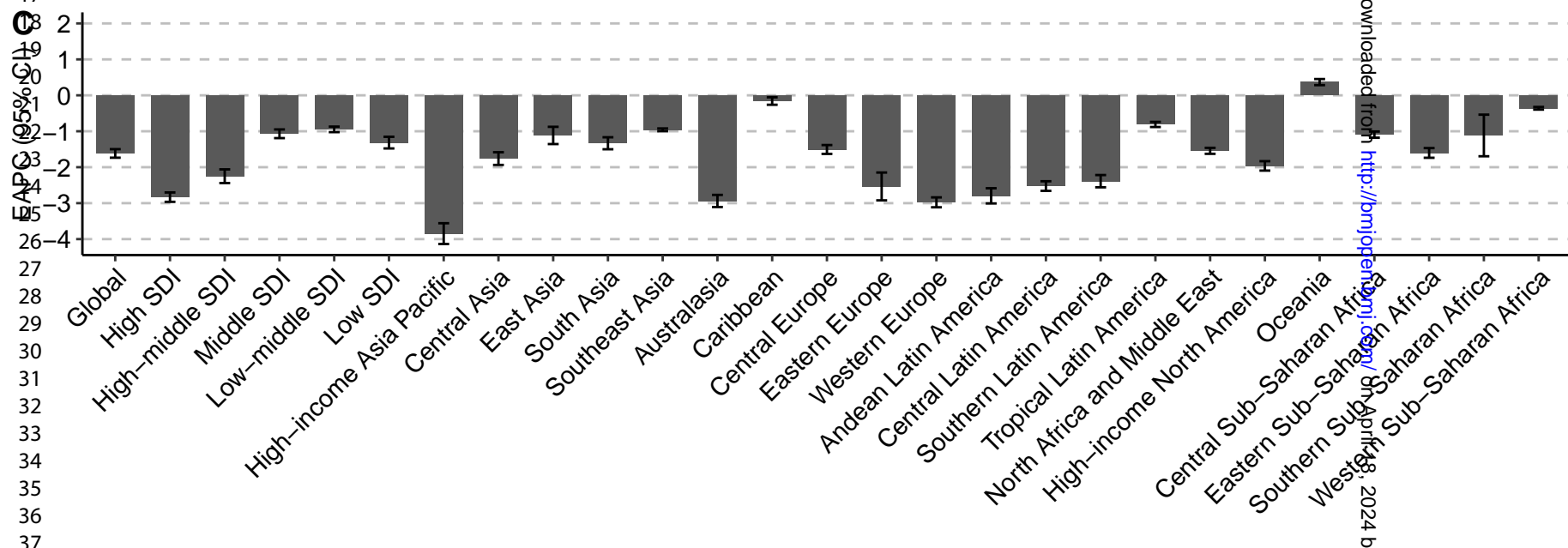
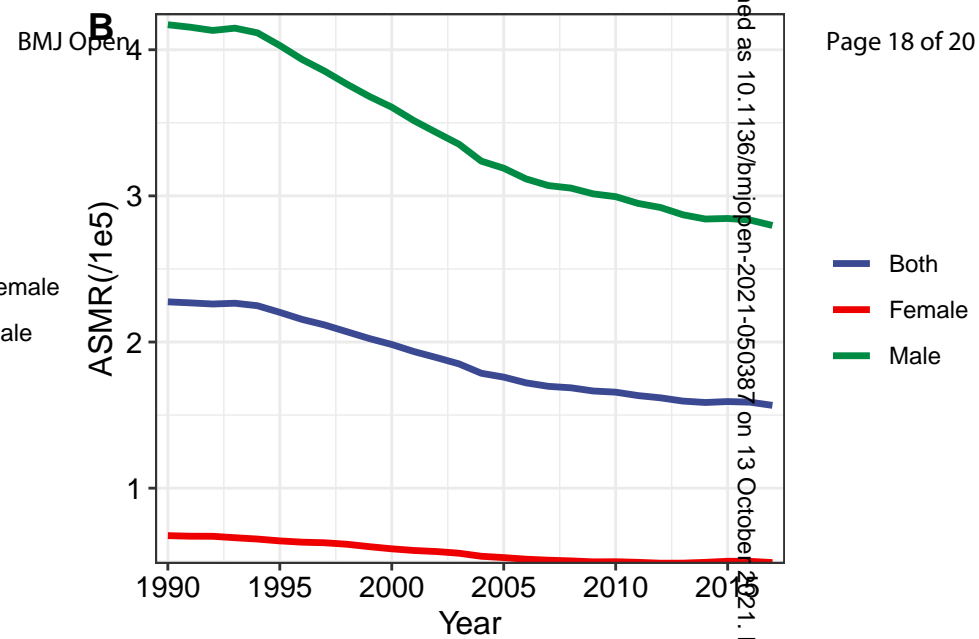
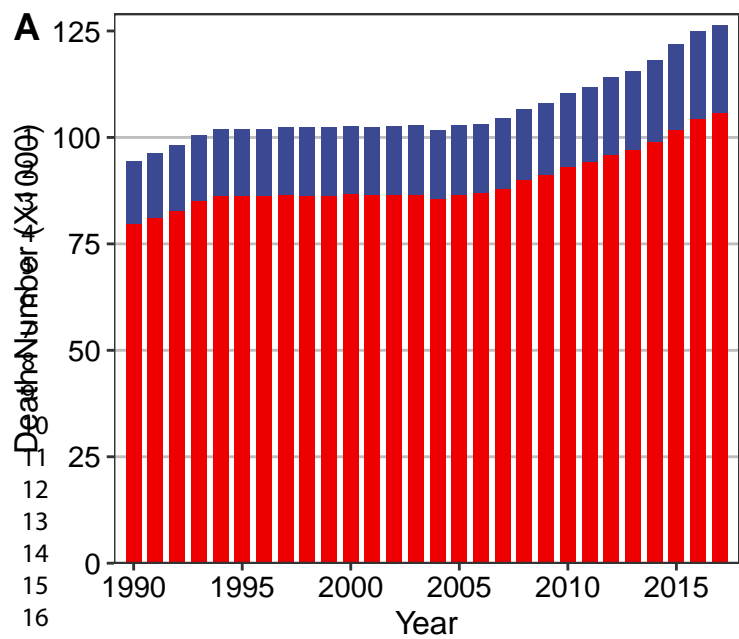
	Age-standardized incidence rate					Age-standardized mortality rate				
	1990		2017		1990-2017	1990		2017		1990-2017
	Case number (× 1000)	ASIR (/10 ⁵)	Case number (× 1000)	ASIR (/10 ⁵)	EAPC (95% CI)	Death number (× 1000)	ASMR (/10 ⁵)	Death number (× 1000)	ASMR (/10 ⁵)	EAPC (95% CI)
Global	132.7	3.14	210.6	2.59	-0.99 (-1.14, -0.83)	94.5	2.27	126.5	1.57	-1.62 (-1.74, -1.50)
Sex										
Male	113.3	5.76	178.0	4.63	-1.08 (-1.23, -0.93)	79.5	4.17	105.6	2.80	-1.71 (-1.82, -1.59)
Female	19.4	0.87	32.6	0.77	-0.66 (-0.83, -0.50)	15.0	0.68	20.9	0.49	-1.40 (-1.56, -1.25)
SDI regions										
High	48.9	3.91	57.8	2.82	-1.58 (-1.71, -1.46)	22.9	1.81	19.7	0.92	-2.83 (-2.96, -2.70)
High-middle	30.2	3.04	49.5	2.68	-0.87 (-1.09, -0.65)	23.0	2.37	26.6	1.46	-2.25 (-2.44, -2.06)
Middle	20.8	2.10	49.1	2.17	-0.02 (-0.22, 0.18)	18.0	1.90	32.5	1.48	-1.07 (-1.19, -0.95)
Low-middle	18.8	3.11	32.6	2.64	-0.72 (-0.82, -0.62)	17.3	2.97	28.2	2.36	-0.95 (-1.02, -0.87)
Low	13.8	3.88	20.8	2.84	-1.19 (-1.38, -1.00)	13.0	3.80	19.0	2.68	-1.32 (-1.48, -1.15)
GBD region										
Andean Latin America	0.3	1.48	0.5	0.90	-2.21 (-2.41, -2.00)	0.3	1.44	0.4	0.75	-2.80 (-3.01, -2.59)
Australasia	0.7	3.01	1.0	2.08	-1.73 (-1.91, -1.55)	0.3	1.20	0.3	0.60	-2.94 (-3.11, -2.77)
Caribbean	1.1	3.97	2.4	4.64	0.56 (0.43, 0.70)	0.8	3.12	1.5	3.02	-0.16 (-0.26, -0.05)
Central Asia	1.5	2.95	1.7	2.20	-1.32 (-1.46, -1.17)	1.2	2.47	1.2	1.64	-1.76 (-1.94, -1.58)
Central Europe	7.2	4.68	8.7	4.39	-0.40 (-0.53, -0.26)	5.3	3.48	5.0	2.44	-1.51 (-1.63, -1.38)
Central Latin America	1.8	2.15	3.4	1.48	-1.88 (-2.04, -1.73)	1.6	1.96	2.5	1.11	-2.52 (-2.66, -2.39)
Central Sub-Saharan Africa	0.5	1.98	0.8	1.55	-1.02 (-1.11, -0.92)	0.5	2.00	0.8	1.53	-1.09 (-1.18, -1.01)

15/15

East Asia	14.4	1.53	41.9	1.98	1.01 (0.62, 1.40)	12.0	1.33	20.4	1.00	-1.12 (-1.36, -0.88)
Eastern Europe	13.2	4.52	12.3	3.67	-1.48 (-1.79, -1.15)	9.4	3.20	6.9	2.02	-2.54 (-2.92, -2.15)
Eastern Sub-Saharan Africa	1.6	1.92	2.3	1.38	-1.51 (-1.64, -1.38)	1.5	1.89	2.2	1.33	-1.60 (-1.74, -1.47)
High-income Asia Pacific	4.8	2.28	6.9	1.64	-1.71 (-1.90, -1.53)	1.7	0.84	1.7	0.36	-3.85 (-4.14, -3.56)
High-income North America	12.7	3.71	18.6	3.11	-1.22 (-1.44, -1.01)	5.0	1.41	5.7	0.92	-1.96 (-2.09, -1.83)
North Africa and Middle East	4.9	2.71	10.1	2.33	-0.60 (-0.64, -0.56)	4.3	2.46	6.8	1.66	-1.54 (-1.63, -1.46)
Oceania	0.1	1.91	0.1	2.05	0.42 (0.34, 0.50)	0.1	1.79	0.1	1.88	0.37 (0.28, 0.45)
South Asia	29.7	4.62	50.6	3.57	-1.11 (-1.31, -0.90)	27.6	4.45	44.3	3.22	-1.33 (-1.50, -1.17)
Southeast Asia	5.3	1.95	11.5	1.89	-0.20 (-0.27, -0.14)	4.6	1.76	8.0	1.38	-0.96 (-1.00, -0.92)
Southern Latin America	1.6	3.42	1.9	2.32	-1.83 (-2.02, -1.65)	1.2	2.62	1.2	1.48	-2.39 (-2.56, -2.22)
Southern Sub-Saharan Africa	0.7	2.30	1.1	1.84	-1.09 (-1.63, -0.55)	0.6	2.08	0.9	1.63	-1.12 (-1.70, -0.54)
Tropical Latin America	3.0	3.08	7.2	3.03	-0.18 (-0.27, -0.10)	2.5	2.62	5.1	2.16	-0.81 (-0.88, -0.74)
Western Europe	26.3	4.78	25.3	3.19	-1.76 (-1.90, -1.63)	12.9	2.27	9.3	1.08	-2.98 (-3.12, -2.84)
Western Sub-Saharan Africa	1.4	1.47	2.4	1.33	-0.31 (-0.34, -0.28)	1.3	1.44	2.3	1.29	-0.36 (-0.40, -0.32)

SDI, socio-demographical index; ASIR, age-standardized incidence rate; ASMR, age-standardized mortality rate; EAPC, estimated average percentage change.



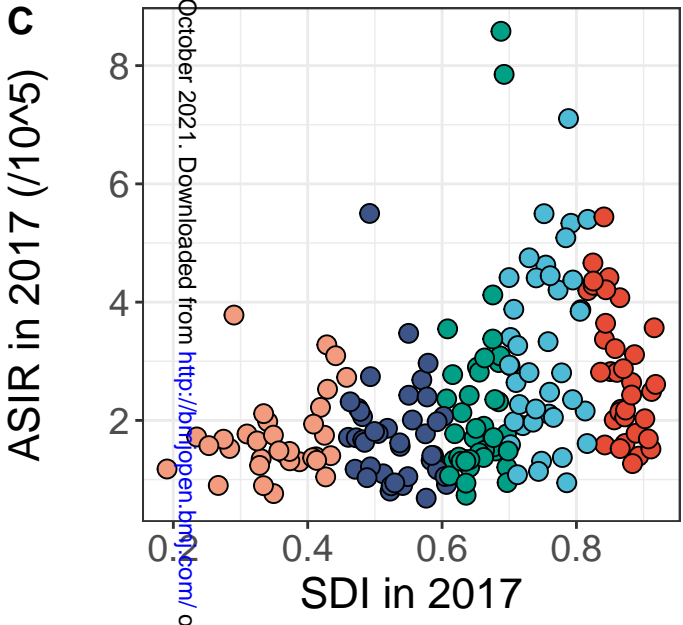
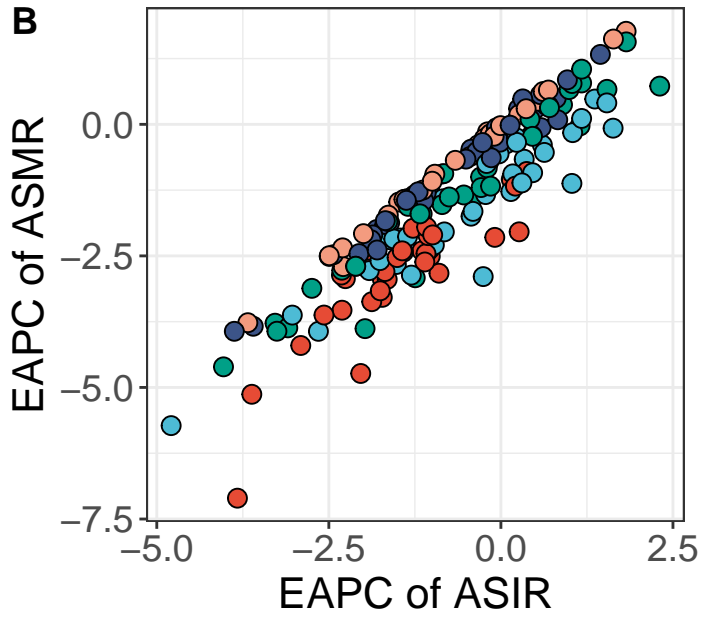
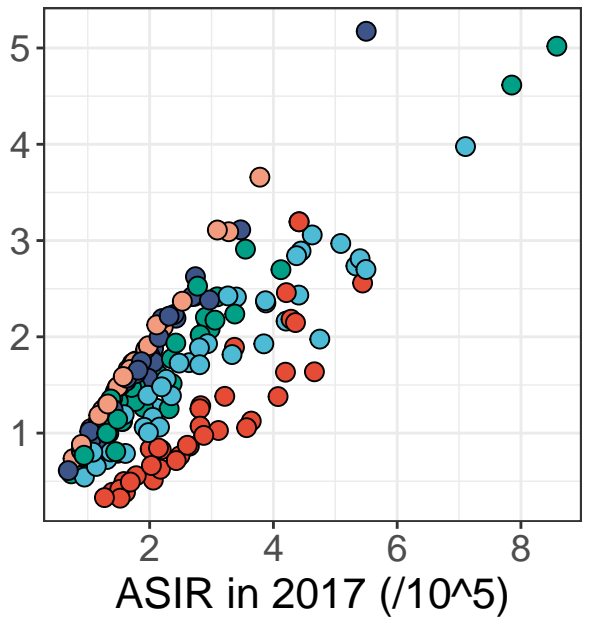


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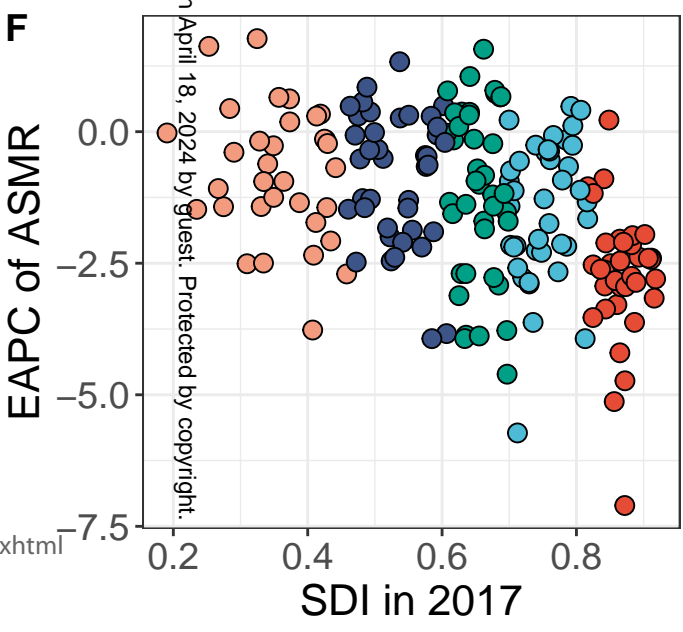
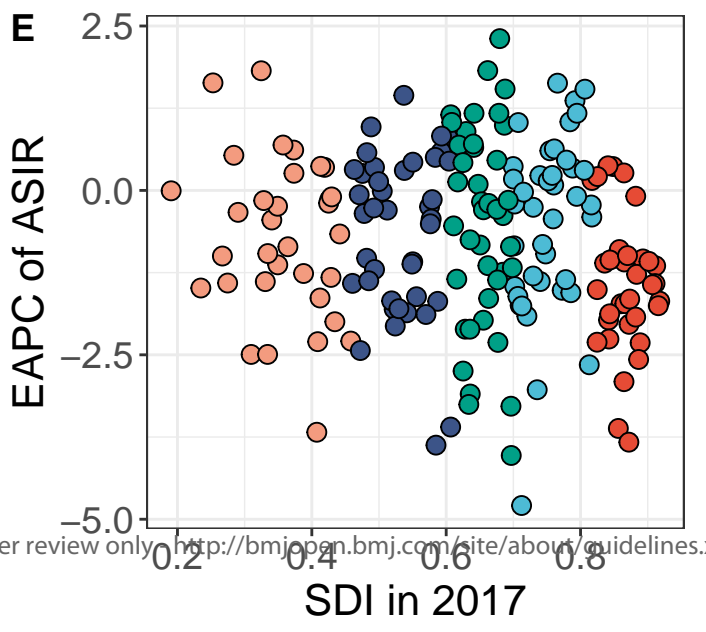
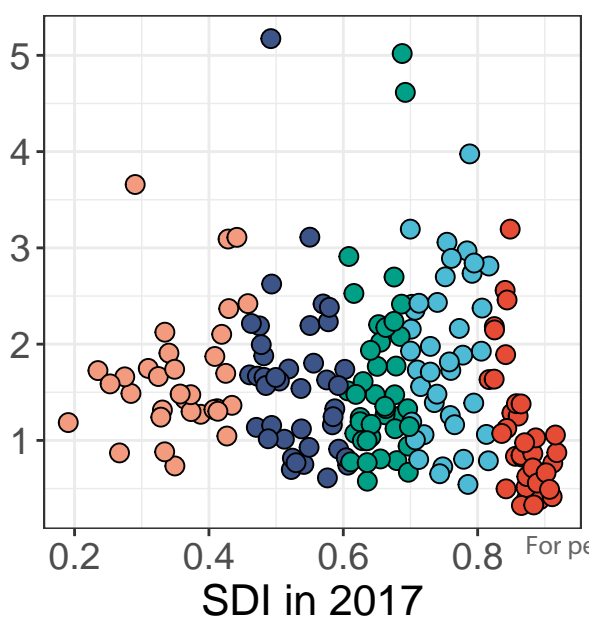
SDI Quintile

- High SDI
- High-middle SDI
- Middle SDI
- Low-middle SDI
- Low SDI

ASMR in 2017 (/10^5)



ASMR in 2017 (/10^5)



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STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cohort studies*

	Item No	Recommendation	Page No
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract (b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	1, 2
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	3
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	3
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	4
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	4
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up (b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	4
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	4
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	4
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	4
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	4
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	4
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding (b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions (c) Explain how missing data were addressed (d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed (e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	4
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed (b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage (c) Consider use of a flow diagram	5
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders (b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest (c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	5
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	6

1	Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	5-6
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3			(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	
4			(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	
5	Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	
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11	Discussion			
12	Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	6
13	Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias	8
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15	Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	7-8
16				
17	Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	7
18				
19	Other information			
20	Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	1
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26 *Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

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28 **Note:** An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and
29 published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely
30 available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at <http://www.plosmedicine.org/>, Annals of Internal Medicine at
31 <http://www.annals.org/>, and Epidemiology at <http://www.epidem.com/>). Information on the STROBE Initiative is
32 available at <http://www.strobe-statement.org>.
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