

Serum biomarkers for lung cancer screening: improving early detection and diagnosis

Biomarcadores séricos no câncer de pulmão: aprimorando o diagnóstico precoce

Flávia Cristina G. de Aquino¹, Thaís M. Guedes¹, Arthur Pires¹, Heraldo P. Souza²

Aquino FCG, Guedes TM, Pires A, Souza, HP. Serum biomarkers for lung cancer screening: improving early detection and diagnosis/*Biomarcadores séricos no câncer de pulmão: aprimorando o diagnóstico precoce*. Rev Med (São Paulo). 2019 Jan-Feb;98(1):59-71.

ABSTRACT: Lung cancer is by far the leading cause of cancer death among both men and women. Screening patients at high risk of developing lung cancer is a worldwide priority, since it can be cured if diagnosed in early stages. Currently, screening in high risk individuals is made using low dose computed tomography, however, this method may lead to false-positive tests and overdiagnosis. The usefulness of serum biomarkers would be relevant in two situations: 1) the screening of large groups at high risk of developing lung cancer, where the biomarker should be very sensitive and 2) during the investigation of pulmonary nodules, where the biomarker should be very specific. Several serum biomarkers have been tested to work as biomarkers for lung cancer screening. Unfortunately, so far, none of them has come into current clinical practice. In this review, we analyze some of the serum biomarkers described in the last 10 years, evaluating their potential as tools to detect lung cancer, particularly in smokers. The use of serum biomarkers and imaging methods together seems to be a solution to early diagnosis of lung cancer, more efficient treatment and enhanced chance of cure.

Keywords: Biomarkers; Early diagnosis; Tobacco use disorder; Carcinoma, non-small-cell lung; Neoplasias pulmonares/diagnóstico; Neoplasias pulmonares/diagnóstico por imagem.

RESUMO: O câncer de pulmão é de longe a principal causa de morte por câncer entre homens e mulheres. A triagem de pacientes com alto risco de desenvolver câncer de pulmão é uma prioridade mundial, já que pode ser curado se diagnosticado em estágios iniciais. O rastreamento em indivíduos de alto risco é feito usando tomografia computadorizada de baixa dose, no entanto, este método pode levar a testes falso-positivos e diagnósticos equivocados (“overdiagnosis”). Vários biomarcadores séricos foram testados para funcionar como biomarcadores para o rastreamento do câncer de pulmão. Infelizmente, até agora, nenhum deles entrou na prática clínica. Nesta revisão, analisamos alguns dos biomarcadores séricos descritos nos últimos 10 anos, avaliando seu potencial como ferramentas para detectar câncer de pulmão, particularmente em fumantes. A utilização de um biomarcador ou de um painel de biomarcadores seria relevante em duas situações: 1) triagem de grandes grupos de indivíduos com alto risco de desenvolver câncer de pulmão, para o qual o biomarcador deve ser muito sensível, e 2) durante a investigação de nódulos pulmonares, em que o biomarcador deve ser muito específico. Portanto, o uso combinado de biomarcadores séricos e métodos de imagem parece ser uma solução para o diagnóstico precoce do câncer de pulmão e, conseqüentemente, para um tratamento mais eficiente e maior chance de cura.

Descritores: Biomarcadores; Diagnóstico precoce; Tabagismo; Carcinoma pulmonar de células não pequenas; Neoplasias pulmonares/diagnóstico; Neoplasias pulmonares/diagnóstico por imagem.

Artigo Desenvolvido na Disciplina Optativa “*Abordagem Prática da Escrita Científica*” sob coordenação da Revista de Medicina do DC-FMUSP.

1. Faculdade de Medicina FMUSP, Universidade de São Paulo - USP. ORCID: Aquino FCG – <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1336-4957>; Guedes TM - <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1961-6318>; Pires A - <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0040-035X>. Email: flavia.aquino@fm.usp.br; thais.guedes@fm.usp.br; arthur.pires@fm.usp.br

2. Emergency Department, Faculdade de Medicina FMUSP, Universidade de São Paulo - USP. <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2499-5674>. Email: heraldo.possolo@fm.usp.br

Corresponding author: Flávia Aquino. Faculdade de Medicina, Universidade de São Paulo. Av. Dr. Arnaldo, 455. São Paulo, SP. Email: flavia.aquino@fm.usp.br

INTRODUCTION

Epidemiology of lung cancer

In most of the Western countries, cancer ranks the second most common cause of death following cardiovascular diseases. Tens of millions of people are diagnosed with cancer each year, and more than half of the patients will eventually die from it¹.

Lung cancer is particularly important. With an increasing incidence every year², it has the second higher incidence among males (behind prostate cancer) and females (behind breast cancer). However, it ranks first in mortality in both genders.

In Brazil, the National Cancer Institute (INCA), estimated the diagnosis of 18,740 new cases in men and 12,530 in women during the year 2018⁴. Moreover, according to data from the Mortality Information System (SIM), lung cancer accounted for more than 26,000 deaths in the year 2015⁴.

As the majority of other cancer types, lung tumors derive from synergy between genetic and environmental risk factors⁵; among the latter, smoking has been described as the most important risk factor for lung cancer development⁶. Other risk factors, such as occupational chemical exposures (asbestos, for example), environmental exposure to radon, personal and family history, are also recorded in the literature⁷.

About 90% of lung cancer cases are related to tobacco inhalation⁸. Smoking itself increases the risk of lung cancer 5 to 10 times, presenting a significant dose-response relationship. Not only active smoking, but also passive smoking is a risk factor for lung cancer, and exposure to tobacco accounts for about 20% of cases in nonsmokers^{3,6,8-10}.

Regarding the histopathological aspect, lung cancer is more commonly subdivided as small cell lung cancer (SCLC) and non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC)^{7,11}. In the present review, only NSCLC will be addressed, since it is the most common type and its relationship to smoking is better characterized.

Since lung cancer leads to death in a high percentage of the patients suffering from this condition, it is crucial to improve its early detection, when therapeutics is still curative and effective.

Screening for early lung cancer

The first large scale study for lung cancer screening was performed by the Mass Radiography Service of the North-West Metropolitan Region of London, in the 1960s¹². It was a prospective study without randomization, where the test group, composed by 29,723 men, were submitted to chest radiograph exams (CXR) every six months for

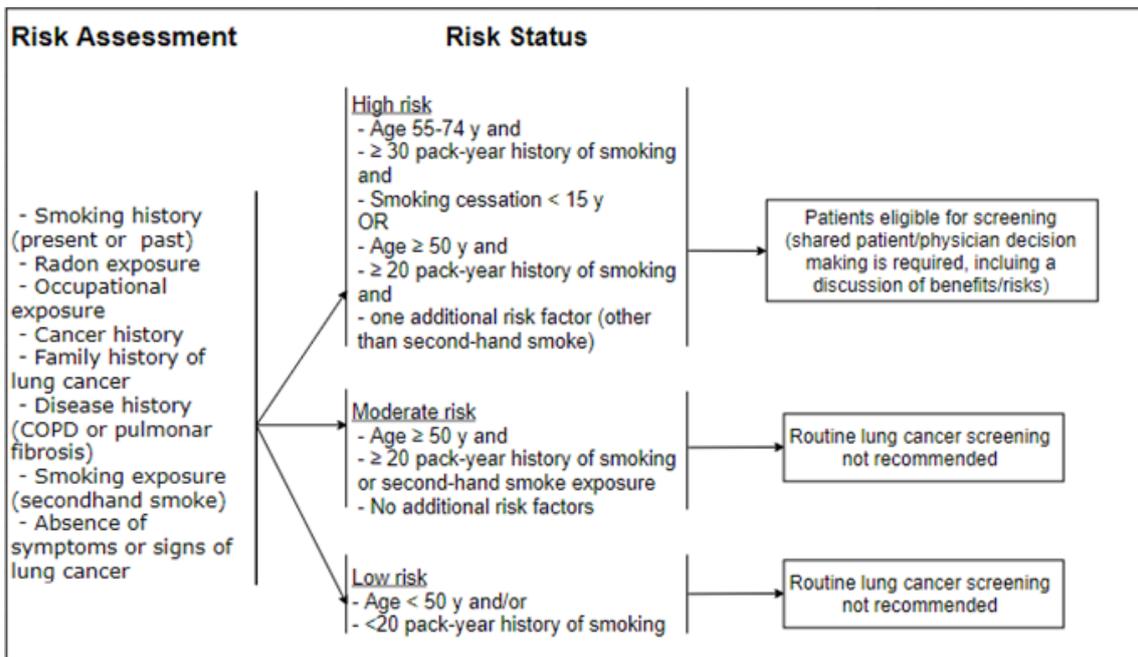
three years. In parallel, a control group, with 25,311 men, were radiographed at the beginning and at the end of the study, after three years. Lung cancer was diagnosed in more patients in the test group compared to the control group (132 vs. 96, respectively), however, there was no change in mortality between groups (62 vs. 59, respectively). Despite the absence of results in reducing mortality, this study was enough to encourage high-risk groups to be screened regularly since it showed success for the discovery of surgically approachable lung cancers.

In the 1990's, improvements in computerized tomography scanners brought back the interest in screening for lung cancer. The Early Lung Cancer Action Project (ELCAP) was designed to evaluate the usefulness of CT in annual lung cancer screening¹³. The ELCAP obtained chest radiography and low-dose CT (LDCT) of 1,000 asymptomatic individuals, 60 years old or more, with smoking history of at least 10 pack-years. The low-dose CT was more efficient in the detection of noncalcified pulmonary nodules (NCN) than the CXR (23% versus 7%, respectively) and identified the disease in earlier and curable stages (often stage I).

On the other side, this screening method was criticized for the potential overdiagnosis of small lesions that would not fully develop into symptomatic tumors. In order to avoid it, pathologic criteria were carefully used, and an analysis of the histologic specimens from surgeries was done to confirm the previous lung cancer diagnosis. Based on ELCAP and other similar projects, the proportion of overdiagnosis could be empirically estimated. These findings were further confirmed by other studies with high-risk groups¹⁴.

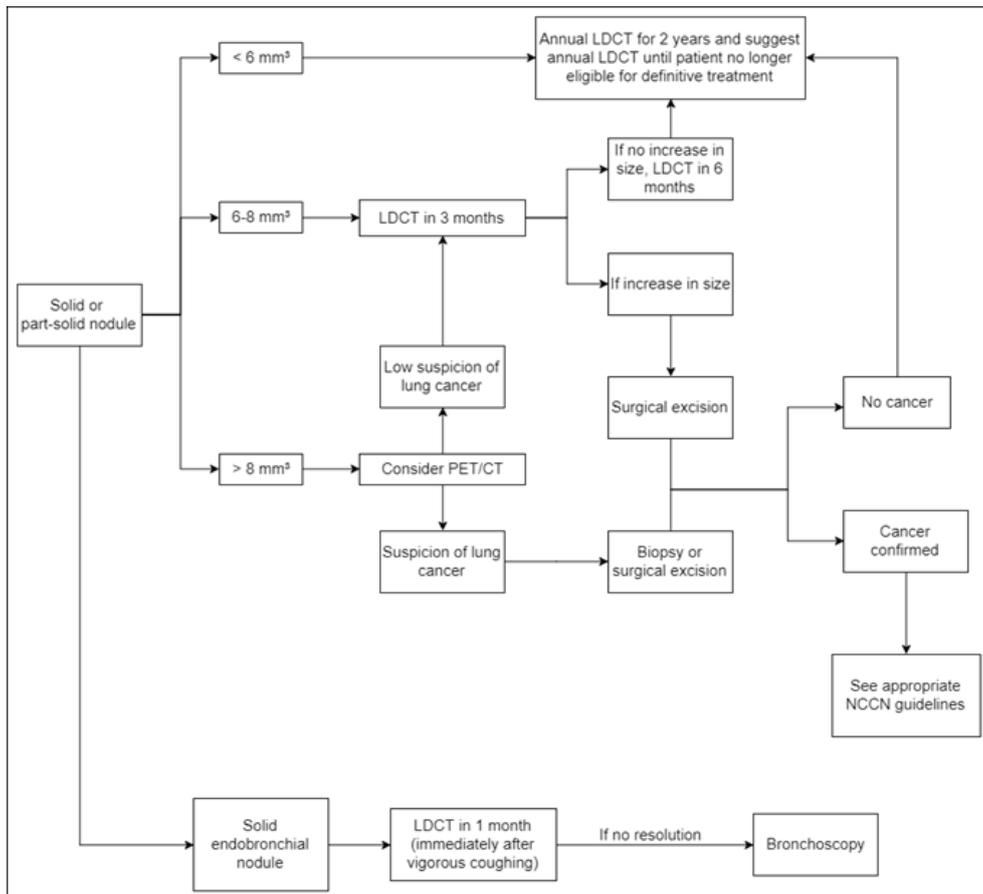
These studies showed that LDCT was adequate to identify early lung nodules, but none of them was capable of demonstrating reductions in mortality related to lung cancer. Hence, a large randomized controlled trial was performed, the National Lung Screening Trial (NLST). In this trial, 53,456 participants underwent screening from 2002 to 2004. This study demonstrated a 20% reduction in disease-specific mortality when low-dose CT (LDCT) was used, compared to chest radiography¹⁰.

These findings prompted the National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN) to release their guidelines for lung cancer screening in 2015¹⁵, with an algorithm to calculate lung cancer risk and indications for CT screening (Figure 1). Smoking history, radon exposure, occupational exposure, cancer history, family history of lung cancer, pulmonary disease history, smoking exposure and absence of symptoms or signs of lung cancer are relevant factors to differentiate the groups. Patients included in the high-risk group are recommended to undergo screening routinely. In case of nodule detection, the algorithm shown in Figure 2 should be followed.



Adapted from: NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology (NCCN Guidelines) for Lung Cancer Screening V.1.2015.

Figure 1: Algorithm for calculating risk of lung cancer and indications for screening

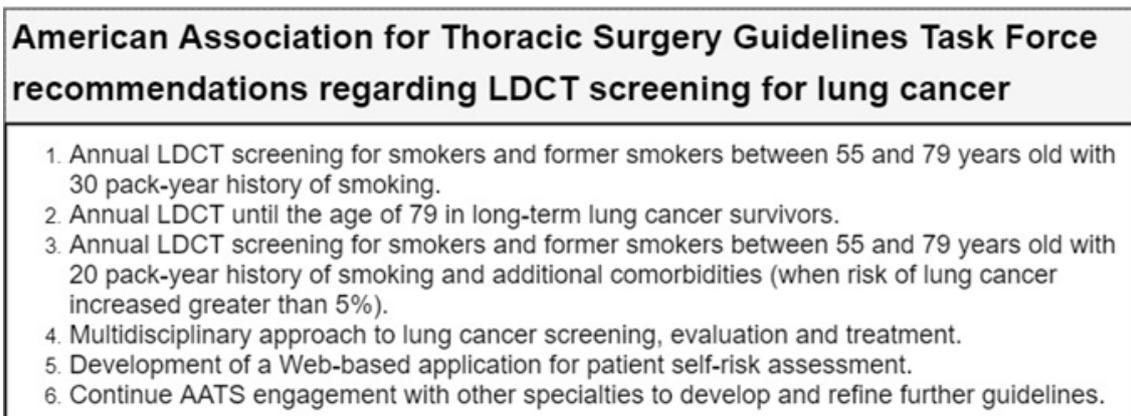


Adapted from: NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology (NCCN Guidelines) for Lung Cancer Screening V.1.2015.

Figure 2: Algorithm to investigation of lung nodule detected at CT screening

The American Association for Thoracic Surgery Guidelines Task Force has also released their

recommendations to indicate screening with annual LDCT, which are summarized in Figure 3¹⁶.



Adapted from: Stiles BM et al. *Surgical Oncology Clinics of North America*. 2016 Jul;25(3):469-79 (16)

Figure 3: American Association for Thoracic Surgery recommendations for CT screening for lung cancer

Although the current data show reduced mortality in patients that underwent LDCT screening, particularly due to early surgery to remove suspect nodules, there is still several concerns, mainly about false-positive tests, overdiagnosis and their complications¹⁷.

LDCT is not a very specific method, with a high incidence of false-positive diagnoses; these patients are, then, usually submitted to invasive procedures to confirm the diagnosis of cancer (mediastinoscopy, thoracoscopy, thoracotomy, bronchoscopy or needle biopsy), and complications may arise. Moreover, this kind of investigation can have deleterious effect in patients' mental and physical health, before the cancer diagnosis could be dismissed¹⁸.

In addition, increasing exposure to ionizing radiation from CT screening is also relevant. The amount of radiation in the LDCT is very low, however the repeatedly exposure that the annual screening demands may be clinically relevant, due to its carcinogenic potential¹⁹.

As summary, LDCT screening has proved to be a valuable tool for identifying small nodules and, consequently, lung cancer in early stages. Unfortunately, this method is not highly specific. Therefore, a non-negligible number of patients are submitted to invasive procedures and have a benign histopathological diagnosis. This high incidence of false-positive CTs may lead to undesirable invasive procedures and implies in higher costs to the whole health system²⁰.

Serum biomarkers for lung cancer screening

LDCT is the method recommended by the recent guidelines to identify early lung nodules but has several

pitfalls that points out the necessity to improve or replace it by less invasive methods that might offer a better cost-effectiveness relationship¹⁸⁻²¹.

Biomarkers are parameters that can be objectively measured aiming to detect a physiological or pathological process²². Biomarkers can be useful for screening, diagnosing, staging or classifying a particular disease, as well as to give a prognosis and to monitor the clinical response to an intervention. They are also a potential tool to provide information about diseases pathophysiology.

Cancer biomarkers are already being used for screening and diagnosis, such as the prostate-specific antigen (PSA) for prostate cancer²³, genetic alterations (BRCA mutations) for breast cancer²⁴ and the presence of occult blood in the stool for colorectal cancer²⁵.

Serum biomarkers for lung cancer screening would be less invasive, exposing patients only to minimal risks and they should reflect pathophysiology mechanisms, leading to lower rates of overdiagnosis and false-positives. Beyond that, serum biomarkers could be more accurate when allied to the LDCT regarding the indication of invasive procedures, such as biopsies.

These biomarkers must have specific properties to be considered suitable for screening and diagnosis: they must be involved in carcinogenesis, may be modulated according to disease progression, and be associated with risk factors²⁶. Once a biomarker complies with these properties, it may help to more accurately evaluate a disease.

Therefore, in this review, we summarize some of the serum biomarkers that have been studied as potentially useful for screening lung cancer in smokers, a group of patients at high risk to develop the disease. We focused our research in the last ten years literature about serum

biomarkers and did not evaluate studies that show possible genetic traits related to lung cancer.

METHODOLOGY

This study is a non-systematic review, performed to identify published studies that describe serum biomarkers of lung cancer.

A single database was used, PubMed, accessed during October 2016. The terms used for the search were “lung cancer” AND “biomarker” AND (smoker OR smoking OR tabagism).

Initially 306 articles were retrieved, and filters were applied: “humans”; “adults older than 19 years”; “date of publication the past 10 years”; “English or Portuguese language”. After this procedure, 138 articles were obtained (Figure 4).

The authors, then, analyzed each article by title and abstract. Articles identified as reviews, articles focused on prognostic or other risk factors different from smoking,

sources of biomarkers other than serum, and papers about genetic mutations that cause lung cancer were excluded.

Therefore, 30 articles were included in our review and were carefully analyzed. The selected articles were divided by the three main authors who read the articles and discussed them with the other authors. Table 1 lists all the articles analyzed, while in Results those describing more promising biomarkers are discussed in detail.

RESULTS

Thirty articles describing serum biomarkers for screening lung cancer were evaluated, as shown in Table 1. We divided the serum biomarkers described in each article by their biochemical characteristics: proteins and specific antibodies against antigens expressed by some tumors, micronutrients and metabolites, and nucleic acids, as miRNAs and DNA modifications. Some of them are discussed below.

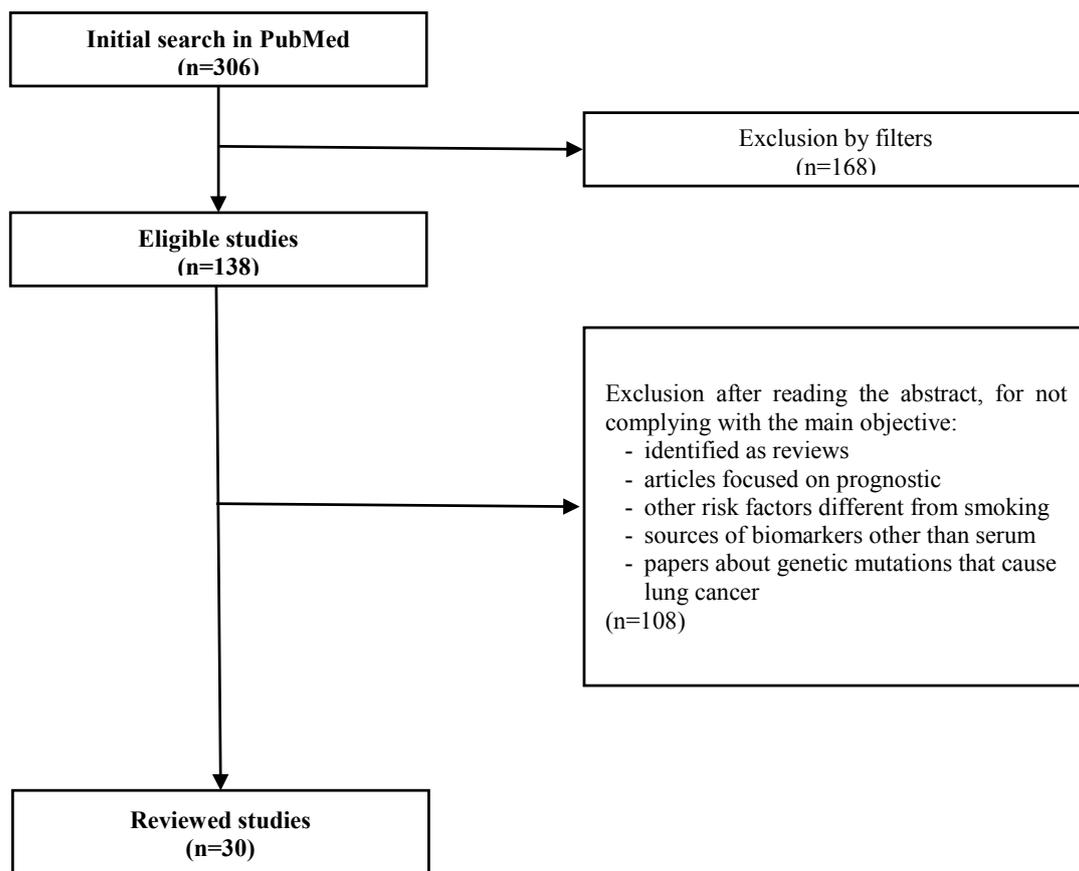


Figure 4. Flowchart describing the studies selection

Table 1: Biomarkers for screening of lung cancer evaluated in this review

Author, Year	Biomarker	Number of patients	Summary	Comments
Ho et al., 2016 ⁵¹	Insulin and IGFBP3	1143 cases; 1143 controls	Insulin and IGFBP3: the combination of these biomarkers could be used for screening.	The sample was composed by postmenopausal women.
Guo et al., 2013 ³²	Insulin-Like Growth Factor Binding Protein-2	164 cases; 80 controls	Higher serum IGFBP2 levels in patients with lung cancer. In addition, this serum biomarker correlates with clinical and prognostic outcomes.	Alone, the biomarker IGFBP2 is not a sufficient diagnostic value, since sensitivity and specificity have been around 70%.
Sin et al., 2013 ³⁵	Pro-surfactant protein B (pro-SFTPB)	2,485 individuals	Lung cancer tumor cells (mainly adenocarcinomas) have dysregulated Pro-surfactant protein B synthesis leading to the overexpression of it.	Lack of specificity, pro-SFTPB can also rise in other lung diseases.
Taguchi et al., 2013 ³⁶	Pro-surfactant protein B (pro-SFTPB)	188 cases; 337 controls	Levels of circulating mature Pro-surfactant protein B were increased among subjects with lung cancer both at the time of diagnosis and in a pre-diagnostic setting.	Nonspecific - it indicates a pulmonary disease. The sample was composed just by men.
Wikoff et al., 2015 ³⁷	Serum Diacetylspermine + Pro-Surfactant Protein B	208 cases; 415 controls	DAS presented an AUC = 0,657 and pro-SFTPB presented an AUC = 0,682. Combined, the total AUC = 0,808.	Nonspecific - it indicates pulmonary disease.
Shiels et al., 2013 ⁴⁰	C-reactive protein (CRP)	526 patients; 592 controls	Elevated C-reactive protein (CRP) levels were associated with a two-fold increased risk of lung cancer. Cigarette smoke itself can lead to pulmonary inflammation.	Nonspecific - Serum CRP levels reliably indicate the presence of chronic inflammation (not specific for lung inflammation).
Xu et al., 2013 ⁴¹	CRP	96 cases; 124 controls	SNPs associated with CRP level, but not at risk; higher risk for high CRP levels. OR 2.11 for CRP > 5.5.	CRP is an extremely nonspecific marker.
Diamandis et al., 2011 ⁴³	Pentraxin-3; human kallikrein 11 (KLK11) and progranulin	203 patients, 180 heavy smokers, 43 other cancers	Only pentraxin-3 was able to distinguish high risk individuals from lung cancer patients, with 48% sensitivity and 80% specificity. Using specificity of 90%, sensibility declines to 25%.	Pentraxin may be elevated in inflammatory conditions.
Lee et al., 2011 ⁴⁴	CTAP III	30 patients, 30 high-risk individuals	CTAP III is significantly higher in lung cancer patients.	Small sample.
Yee et al., 2009 ⁴⁵	CTAP III	16 (1st phase) and 64 (2nd phase)	CTAP III is significantly higher in lung cancer patients and is a good predictive tool, when associated to other methods.	Small sample.
Sen et al., 2008 ⁴⁷	EMAP II	48 cases; 30 controls	Levels of EMAP II are higher in patients with lung cancer, but it is not able to distinguish high risk group.	Small sample and it is a marker of prognosis, more than diagnosis.
Liu et al., 2012 ⁴⁹	Antibody anti-ABCC3	275 patients	ABCC 3 was significantly higher only in women with adenocarcinoma.	The result shows restrict use of the biomarker.
Rom et al., 2010 ⁵⁰	Antibodies anti-TAAs	194 patients	A panel of autoantibodies is used to distinguish healthy controls, high risk and lung cancer and the groups have significant differences.	The sample is too small (only 22 cancer patients).
Chen et al., 2016 ⁵¹	Anti-CD25 autoantibody	111 cases; 216 controls	Higher levels of Anti-CD25 IgG in patients with stage IV NSCLC only; not useful for early stages	The observations obtained suggest a more prognostic biomarker than a diagnostic
Church et al., 2009 ⁵²	NNAL and PheT	100 cases; 100 controls	Total NNAL in serum is significantly associated with lung cancer risk.	Nonspecific.
Epplein et al., 2009 ⁵⁴	Antioxidant biomarkers	207 cases; 414 controls	Association between increasing levels of serum carotenoids and a reduced risk of lung cancer in men.	The biomarkers used are nonspecific for lung cancer; the results of this study diverge from other studies.
Lee et al., 2014 ⁵⁵	Reactive oxygen species modulator 1 (Romo1)	58 cases; 118 controls	Romo1 expression is higher in NSCLC than in controls. For a corset of 329.7pg / mL, sensitivity of 81.9% and specificity of 89.8%, AUC of 0.847.	ROMO1 may be elevated in other pulmonary diseases.
Chen et al., 2012 ⁵⁷	10 miRNAs	400 cases; 220 controls	It is possible to distinguish cases and controls based in a panel of 10 miRNAs, with 93% sensibility and 90% specificity.	Promising as a screening method. Calibration of the quantitative PCR method is a concern
Levine et al., 2015 ⁶⁰	DNA methylation levels at CpG dinucleotides	2029 participants; 43 lung cancer incidences	Having an aging acceleration rate observed by the levels of DNA methylation is associated with a 2.5-fold increase in the risk of developing lung cancer (smoking is seen as a pro-aging factor).	Nonspecific - the methylation was evaluated in blood cells; the sample was composed by women; the predictability is more sensitive for individuals aging 70 years and older; the IEAA has no connection to the exposure (tobacco).
Zhang et al., 2015 ⁶¹	F2RL3 methylation	4987 participants; 97 lung cancer incidences	F2RL3 hypomethylation was strongly associated with both lung cancer incidence and mortality. An overexpression of PAR-4 was associated with significantly shorter 3-year survival.	Nonspecific - the methylation was evaluated in blood cells; the predictability is more sensitive for individuals aging 65 years and older.
Greenberg et al., 2007 ⁶⁴	S-adenosylmethionine (AdoMet)	68 patients	Plasma AdoMet levels had difference between lung cancer, high risk and controls. This may be a useful tool for the diagnosis of early lung cancer, in combination with chest CT.	Nonspecific, difficult to measure, small sample.
Seow et al., 2014 ⁶⁶	Telomere length in white blood cells	847 cases; 847 controls	The effect of long telomere length in white blood cells and lung cancer is particularly evident for adenocarcinoma, and especially among women.	Nonspecific - the length of the telomeres can indicate different types of cancer; the study was performed using white blood cells.

Table 1: Biomarkers for screening of lung cancer evaluated in this review

continuation

Author, Year	Biomarker	Number of patients	Summary	Comments
Aujollet et al., 2010 ⁶⁸	NTproBNP	439 patients	Patients with lung cancer have higher chances of increased levels of NTproBNP.	The objective is to analyze other causes to high levels of the marker.
Köhler et al., 2016 ⁶⁹	Circulating U2 small nuclear RNA fragments	211 cases; 112 controls	RNU2-1f expression levels were elevated in patients with LC patients treatment naive, compared to controls.	More useful as a prognostic and follow-up biomarker.
Gumireddy et al., 2015 ⁷⁰	AKAP4	264 cases; 135 controls	In the combined cohort, the AKAP4 relative value of -4.3 distinguished cases from controls with an AUC = 0,9714. Also, distinguished NSCLC from benign pulmonary nodes with an AUC = 0,9825 and accuracy = 93,5%.	Promising as a tool to identify lung cancer from benign nodules. Low sensitivity.
Seder et al., 2015 ⁷¹	Angiogenesis growing factors	193 cases; 110 controls	Differences in the concentrations of HB-EGF, EGF, VEGF-A, VEGF-C E VEGF-D were strongly significant (p<0,001), while differences in the concentrations of foliastatin, PLGF e BMP-9 were significant (p<0,05).	There was no control of some covariables, such as tobacco history.
Doseeva et al., 2015 ⁷²	Panel of 3 tumor antigens (CEA, CA-125, and CYFRA 21-1) and 1 autoantibody marker (NY-ESO-1)	Training set: 115 cases; 115 controls. Validation set: 75 cases; 75 controls	Training set: in the individual analysis of each biomarker, UAC ranged from 0,60-0,79, with CEA being the largest (0,79). The combined panel had AUC of 0,83. Validation set: UAC 0.81. For a cutoff value of 6.4, it resulted in a sensitivity of 71% and a specificity of 88%. VPN of 99.4% and VPP of 7.2%.	Healthy controls? It did not include in the analysis benign pulmonary diseases or indeterminate nodules. In addition, it does not present the expected distribution of types of cancer, stages, etc.
Li et al., 2015 ⁷³	Mesenchymal-epithelial transition factor (MET)	95 cases; 44 controls	Serum MET is higher in patients with LC compared to controls. MET is even higher in patients with higher smoking load, squamous cell carcinoma, advanced staging. Sensitivity of 72.6% and specificity of 90.9%.	MET levels may be higher in patients with other tumors.
Zhang et al., 2014 ⁷⁴	Lemur tyrosine kinase-3 (LMTK3)	524 cases; 380 controls	AUC 0.701. In addition, patients with LMTK3> 6.85 presented lower survival, correlating with prognosis as well.	It did not present a high AUC to be considered a diagnostic marker by itself, perhaps it could be associated with other biomarkers. It's more for a prognostic marker.
Weber et al., 2013 ⁷⁵	RNA MALAT1 (metastasis-associated lung adenocarcinoma transcript 1)	45 cases; 25 controls	NSCLC: AUC 0.79; AdCa: 0.75; Squamous cell carcinoma: 0.82; AdCaxSCC: 0.58.	Small sample, no high-risk patient was evaluated.

Proteins

Insulin and Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 3 (IGFBP3)^{31,32}

Smoke produced by tobacco cigarettes induces a state of chronic inflammation⁸. It is well known that chronic inflammatory process is usually associated with a reduction in the insulin peripheral sensitivity, inducing a hyperinsulinemic status²⁷⁻²⁹. Insulin is a potent mitogen that activates the Ras/MAPK and PI3K pathways. Therefore, hyperinsulinemia can induce cell proliferation that is associated with the pathogenesis of lung cancer²⁹.

Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 3 (IGFBP3) is part of a family of proteins that serve as carriers for insulin-like growth factors (IGF), enhancing their circulating half-life and modulating their activity³⁰. It has been reported that IGFBP3 prevents the activation of the IGF1-induced Ras/MAPK pathways, inhibiting its inflammatory and proliferative actions³⁰, hence acting as an antitumorogenic molecule.

In a well-designed case-control study³¹ it was observed in current smokers that high serum levels of insulin and low levels of IGFBP3 were strongly associated with lung cancer. Serum IGF1 was also associated with lung cancer, however, only moderately. The authors

speculated that, among current smokers, both insulin and IGF1 activates proliferative pathways, increasing the susceptibility to lung cancer. In the other hand, the IGFBP3 suppresses these pathways, reducing the risk of lung cancer. Interestingly, authors observed that the effect of insulin in the lung carcinogenesis does not hold a relationship with obesity development.

Pro-Surfactant Protein B (pro-SFTPB)^{35, 36, 37}

The pro-surfactant protein B, precursor of protein B, is a hydrophilic 42-kD protein produced by type 2 pneumocytes and non-ciliated bronchiolar cells³³. Lung tumors, particularly adenocarcinomas, overexpress pro-SFTPB with a muted ability to turn into the mature form³⁴.

In a prospective study, 2,485 individuals (older than 50 years old) with high risk for lung cancer (2,237 of them were smokers) were followed for at least 2 years and 144 (5.79%) of them developed the disease. It was observed that higher levels of plasma pro-SFTPB, collected at baseline, were significantly and independently associated to presence of lung cancer in smokers. This phenomenon increments the lung cancer prediction calculated by established risk factors³⁵. In another study from the same group, it was also noticed that, paradoxically, non-detectable levels of

pro-SFTPB were significantly associated with lung cancer risk in never smokers³⁶.

Although this protein seems to be suitable as a cancer biomarker, it can also be an indicator of other lung diseases, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), what limits its clinical usefulness.

C-reactive protein (CRP)^{40, 41}

C-reactive protein (CRP) is a circulating protein largely used in the clinical set as a marker on systemic inflammation³⁸. High serum levels of CRP have also been identified in various types of cancer³⁹.

In a nested case-control study, 526 lung cancer patients were matched to 592 control subjects and 77 inflammatory mediators were evaluated⁴⁰. CRP proved to be the most discriminatory of these (with an odds ratio around 2.2). However, association of inflammatory chemokines and cytokines with CRP seemed to be more effective as biomarkers for lung cancer risk among smokers.

Despite this strong association, high serum levels of CRP can also be found in inflammatory lung conditions, such as COPD and pneumonias. Hence, this lack of specificity limits the use of CRP as a valid biomarker for lung cancer screening, unless it is used in combination with other more specific biomarkers.

*Pentraxin-3 (PTX3)*⁴³

Several proteins expressed by NSCLC cells in culture were identified by a proteomics analysis⁴². Three of these proteins were tested in samples from 203 patients with lung cancer, 180 heavy smokers and 43 patients with cancer in other locations⁴³. Human kallikrein 11 and progranulin showed to be no informative about cancer. Pentraxin-3, however, was a significant lung cancer biomarker, with considerable ability to separate lung cancer patients from high-risk controls. At 90% and 80% specificity, the sensitivity versus the high-risk and control group were 37% and 48%, respectively. Pentraxin-3 is a protein associated to resistance to pathogens and could be elevated in infections, sepsis and other malignancies. Due to its high specificity, PTX3 would be a very interesting biomarker to differentiate lung cancer from benign pulmonary nodules, however, no study so far has used it in a clinical set.

Connective Tissue-Activating Peptide III (CTAP III)^{44,45}

Connective Tissue-Activating Peptide III (CTAPIII) is a chemokine related to angiogenesis and tumorigenesis and was reduced in peripheral blood after surgical resection of the tumor. Using a different approach, Lee et al.⁴⁴ evaluated plasma from 30 patients with lung cancer and 30 high-risk individuals using Protein Chip immunoassays. They identified elevation of CTAP III plasma levels in patients' group. Further, they confirmed this hypothesis using an ELISA test in the same population.

In a previous study, it was shown that CTAP III serum levels are increased in patients with lung cancer and decrease after the tumor resection⁴⁵. Unfortunately, both studies enrolled a small number of patients with lung cancer^{30,49} and no information was provided about histology or follow up of these patients. However, due to its specificity and relation to cancer pathogenesis, CTAP III persists as an intriguing possibility as a lung cancer biomarker.

*Endothelial monocyte-activating polypeptide-II (EMAP II)*⁴⁷

Endothelial monocyte-activating polypeptide-II (EMAPII) is a cytokine that has the ability of inhibiting angiogenesis, markedly in solid tumors⁴⁶. The mean EMAPII serum levels were found to be significantly higher in patients' population with untreated NSCLC than the detected in the control group⁴⁷. Serum levels had no significant association with various clinical or pathological features (age, smoking history, performance status, histopathology, tumor stage, lymph node stage, or distant metastasis). However, the authors reported a potential prognostic value, since higher levels were related to poor prognosis.

Even though the difference was significant between patients and controls, this marker could not detect the early stages of the tumor, what limited its use as a screening instrument.

*Anti-ATP-binding cassette C3 (Anti-ABCC3)*⁴⁹

ATP-binding cassette C3 (ABCC3) is an ATP-dependent transporter that functions as an energy-driven pump to maintain intracellular drug concentrations below a toxic level. Therefore, they are one of the main pathways responsible for tumor multidrug resistance⁴⁸. Since this class of transporters is usually overexpressed by tumors, it is reasonable to conceive that antibodies against them might signal the presence of tumors.

Analyzing 178 men and 97 women diagnosed with lung cancer (adenocarcinoma or squamous carcinoma), authors found that the concentration of IgG against ABCC 3 was significantly higher only in women with adenocarcinoma⁴⁹. This finding restricts its use as a biomarker and suggests that it would be useful only in a panel of autoantibodies, to increase the sensibility of the test.

*Anti-tumor associated antigens (Anti-TAAs)*⁵⁰

Sera from lung cancer patients contain autoantibodies that react with tumor associated antigens (TAAs) and reflect genetic over-expression, mutation, or other anomalies of cell cycle, growth, signaling, and metabolism pathways.

Following previous studies that identify some of these TAAs, a study was designed to evaluate whether a panel containing ten antibodies against TAAs was able to

differentiate lung cancer from other more benign nodules found on computed tomography⁵⁰. They examined the sera from lung cancer patients (22 subjects); smokers with ground-glass opacities (GGOs) (46 subjects), benign solid nodules (55 subjects), or normal CTs (35 subjects); and normal non-smokers (36 subjects). The authors reported a high specificity for distinguishing patients with lung cancer from smokers with normal CTs, stable solid nodules, ground glass opacities, or normal healthy never smokers.

Although promising, the study sample was small, and no follow-up of the control groups was provided.

Micronutrients and metabolites

There are some circulating molecules that can also have a strong association with lung cancer, such as tobacco-specific carcinogens and antioxidants.

*Tobacco-specific carcinogen*⁵²

Among the many known carcinogens in cigarette smoke, 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone (NNK) is specific to tobacco and causes lung cancer in laboratory animals. Exposure to NNK can be measured by serum levels of its metabolites, 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanol and its glucuronides (total NNAL). Therefore, authors evaluated sera from 100 lung cancer patients and 100 matched controls for the presence of NNAL. It was reported that serum total NNAL is significantly associated with lung cancer risk, particularly among long-term heavy smokers⁵². Besides that, there is a positive correlation between serum levels of total NNAL and the presence of lung cancer. Therefore, NNAL may be a valid biomarker of cigarette smoke exposure and consequently, of risk for lung cancer development.

Antioxidants^{54, 55}

Some experimental works have demonstrated a relationship between disruption of redox signaling and carcinogenesis⁵³. Epplein et al studied the association between circulating levels of antioxidants, such as carotenoids, tocopherols and selenium, and the presence of lung cancer⁵⁴. It was found a strong inverse association between lung cancer risk and total plasma carotenoid levels, albeit only in male individuals. No other more specific marker of redox signaling dysfunction could be associated with the disease. Moreover, there were no other relevant data that can corroborate the use of antioxidants as biomarkers for lung cancer screening.

Nucleic acids

*MicroRNA (miRNA)*⁵⁷

Micro (mi)RNAs are small RNA species that have an expression frequently dysregulated in cancer. Several studies have focused on the relationship between circulating miRNAs and cancer⁵⁶.

Using samples from 200 lung cancer patients and

comparing them to 110 healthy controls, Chen et al. found 10 miRNAs differentially expressed from the 91 miRNAs initially tested. Further, these 10 miRNAs were tested in a distinct sample of patients and controls, confirming the initial findings. Finally, the authors obtained serum samples from 20,000 individuals who participated in a community-based screening program and tested for the panel of 10 miRNAs. Seven of these individuals had lung cancer during the medical follow-up and the miRNAs panel was capable of identify six of these seven patients, almost 3 years before the diagnosis was made⁵⁷.

These data are very encouraging, since identification of miRNAs is performed by quantitative PCR, an inexpensive and disseminated method.

DNA methylation^{60,61,64}

DNA methylation is an epigenetic mechanism that controls the activity of genes and is supposed to play an important role in carcinogenesis⁵⁸. It has also been described that specific methylated motifs may be used to identify the aging process⁵⁹.

Based on this premise, Levine et al. studied DNA methylation levels at CpG nucleotides in circulating leukocytes of patients with lung cancer⁶⁰. DNA methylation was classified as positive whether the patient expresses a DNA methylation higher than it would be expected according to the individual chronological age; the negative value expresses a DNA methylation lower than the expected. The smoking history was not taken into account in this study.

It was observed that one standard deviation above the mean indicated a 2.5-fold increased risk of lung cancer. Despite the association found, the use of DNA methylation in a blood cell can indicate an increased risk of cancer in different tissues, not only in the lung tissue, what demonstrates the non-specificity of this biomarker⁶⁰.

Methylation of a specific gene, F2RL3, was also studied⁶¹. F2RL3 gene codifies the production of the coagulation factor II receptor-like 3, also known as protease-activated receptor-4 (PAR4), a thrombin receptor, part of the G-protein-coupled receptor subfamily that plays an important role in tumor development and progression⁶². The PAR4 protein seems to be overexpressed in the majority NSCLC tissues and this overexpression was associated with a shorter 3-year survival⁶³.

Hypomethylation of the F2RL3 gene induces an enhanced expression of the protein PAR4. Thus, the risk of cancer increased with the decreasing methylation intensity. There was a significant difference in methylation between former smokers and current ones. Former smokers showed intermediate methylation intensity when compared to the current ones. Both hyper and hypomethylation are more prominent in older individuals (65 years and above), what can restrain the use of the DNA methylation as a biomarker⁶¹.

From previous studies, it seems that the association of changes in genes methylation and the development of cancer is more relevant when found in the tumor cells. The use of blood cells in both studies turns this method less specific and sensible, making it less useful in a clinical set.

Another study about methylation was made by Greenberg et al.⁶⁴ As many genes related to cell cycle can be methylated, it would be difficult to study each one and this would reduce sensitivity of one possible test. By analyzing S-adenosylmethionine (AdoMet), which is a component of the enzymatic pathway for DNA methylation, it would be possible to identify more alterations⁶⁴.

This study measured AdoMet levels in three groups of patients: lung cancer, high risk smokers and healthy nonsmokers, also comparing their CT scans. AdoMet levels were significantly higher in serum from patients who have cancer as compared to high risk smokers with small noncalcified nodules. These findings suggest that using AdoMet levels could help distinguishing suspect and benign nodules in a CT scan, leading to previous diagnosis of lung cancer.

Telomere length

Telomere length has been directly connected with carcinogenesis, since telomerases are more expressed in cancer cells, allowing them to keep an unlimited capacity of proliferation⁶⁵.

Seow et al. described a strong association between the telomere length in blood leukocytes and the presence of lung cancer⁶⁶. This association was more evident in adenocarcinomas, particularly among females.

The limitation of using this biomarker is related to its lack of specificity. Telomere length is associated with carcinogenesis in every tissue, not only lung. Therefore, its use as a biomarker should be allied to other markers that are more specific to lung carcinogenesis. Also, the smoking history wasn't relevant in this study.

DISCUSSION

The probability of cure for patients with lung cancer is directly related to the ability to detect the disease in early stages, when both surgical and chemotherapy are more effective. Therefore, early detection is crucial, particularly in patients at high risk, like smokers^{2,3,17}.

Unfortunately, the available methods are not sensible or specific enough to identify early lesions with the necessary accuracy. Actual guidelines rely heavily on the ability of low dose computed tomography to detect small nodules that may be lung tumors⁷. The main problem of this approach is the large number of false-positive exams or overdiagnosis, leading to invasive procedures and, consequently, increased risks to the patients^{17,19}.

New tests are necessary and serum biomarkers of lung cancer would be ideal tools to screening large number of individuals.

In this review, we listed several potential candidates as serum biomarkers for early detection of lung cancer in high-risk patients (Table 1). Some of these articles were discussed in more detail above. There are several candidates to perform this task, however, none seems to possess all the necessary attributes.

Looking at the actual guidelines, there are two points where serum biomarkers could be more relevant.

First in selecting patients who could be at higher risk of developing lung cancer. Currently, these patients are submitted to LDCT annually, what leads to an enhanced chance of false-positive exams, besides all the risks of radiation and the costs of the exams^{17, 19}. At this step of screening, serum tests should be very sensitive, since our goal would be to recognize all patients at risk of disease and submit them to more specific tests.

Serum biomarkers like NNAL⁵², that detect high exposure to cigarette smoke or Pro-Surfactant Protein B³⁸, that is related with early stages of lung cancer development, could be useful tools to sort patients that would need more frequent or more complex exams.

A second point that serum biomarkers can improve the guidelines is to differentiate between benign and cancerous nodules. Nowadays, once a pulmonary solid nodule is detected, patient is submitted to an invasive procedure (biopsy) or a new exam is performed after some time.

Circulating substances like insulin growth factor binding protein 3^{31,32} or the already cited Pro-Surfactant Protein B^{35,36,37} could help to identify the nature of the solid nodule, improving specificity of LDCT.

Given the important role of inflammation in lung cancer development⁶⁷, the serum levels of some inflammatory mediators (CRP, Pentraxin, EMAP, etc.) could be useful to discriminate between lung cancer and more benign nodules.

CONCLUSION

Unfortunately, no single biomarker seems to be able to identify patients at risk to develop lung cancer, or to differentiate malign nodules from benign ones.

However, some of the serum biomarkers described above appear to be promising, particularly when used in conjunction with other methods, like LDCT.

Large populational studies are yet needed to explore the usefulness of serum biomarkers for lung cancer diagnosis.

REFERENCES

1. Ferlay J, Colombet M, Soerjomataram I, Dyba T, Randi G, Bettio M, Gavin A, Visser O, Bray F. Cancer incidence and mortality patterns in Europe: Estimates for 40 countries and 25 major cancers in 2018. *Eur J Cancer*. 2018;103:356-87. doi: 10.1016/j.ejca.2018.07.005.
2. Bray F, Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Siegel RL, Torre LA, Jemal A. Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2018;68:394-424. doi: 10.3322/caac.21492.
3. de Sa VK, Coelho JC, Capelozzi VL, de Azevedo SJ. Lung cancer in Brazil: epidemiology and treatment challenges. *Lung Cancer*. 2016;7:141-8. doi: 10.2147/LCTT.S93604.
4. INCA – Instituto Nacional de Câncer [citado 24 mar. 2019]. http://www2.inca.gov.br/wps/wcm/connect/observatorio_controle_tabaco/site/home/dados_numeros/mortalidade+.
5. Hanahan D, Weinberg RA. Hallmarks of cancer: the next generation. *Cell*. 2011;144(5):646-74. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2011.02.013.
6. Hecht SS. Tobacco smoke carcinogens and lung cancer. *J Nat Cancer Inst*. 1999;91(14):1194-210.
7. Jaklitsch MT, Jacobson FL, Austin JH, Field JK, Jett JR, Keshavjee S, et al. The American Association for Thoracic Surgery guidelines for lung cancer screening using low-dose computed tomography scans for lung cancer survivors and other high-risk groups. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2012;144(1):33-8. doi: 10.1016/j.jtcvs.2012.05.060.
8. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. The health consequences of smoking - 50 years of progress: a report of the surgeon general. The health consequences of smoking-50 years of progress: a report of the surgeon general. Reports of the Surgeon General. Atlanta (GA): – Atlanta, GA. : U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, Office on Smoking and Health, 2014. Available from: <https://www.surgeongeneral.gov/library/reports/50-years-of-progress/full-report.pdf>
9. Doll R, Hill AB. The mortality of doctors in relation to their smoking habits: a preliminary report. 1954. *BMJ*. 2004;328(7455):1529-33. doi: 10.1136/bmj.328.7455.1529.
10. National Lung Screening Trial Research. Reduced lung-cancer mortality with low-dose computed tomographic screening. *N Engl J Med*. 2011;365:395-409. doi: 10.1056/nejmoa1102873.
11. Miller KD, Siegel RL, Lin CC, Mariotto AB, Kramer JL, Rowland JH, et al. Cancer treatment and survivorship statistics, 2016. *CA: Cancer J Clin*. 2016;66(4):271-89. doi: 10.3322/caac.21349.
12. Brett GZ. The value of lung cancer detection by six-monthly chest radiographs. *Thorax*. 1968;23(4):414-20.
13. Henschke CI, McCauley DI, Yankelevitz DF, Naidich DP, McGuinness G, Miettinen OS, et al. Early lung cancer action project: a summary of the findings on baseline screening. *Oncologist*. 2001;6(2):147-52.
14. International Early Lung Cancer Action Program I, Henschke CI, Yankelevitz DF, Libby DM, Pasmantier MW, Smith JP, et al. Survival of patients with stage I lung cancer detected on CT screening. *New Engl J Med*. 2006;355(17):1763-71. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa060476.
15. Wood DE. National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN) Clinical practice guidelines for lung cancer screening. *Thorac Surg Clin*. 2015;25(2):185-97. doi: 10.1016/j.thorsurg.2014.12.003.
16. Stiles BM, Pua B, Altorki NK. Screening for lung cancer. *Surg Oncol Clin North Amer*. 2016;25(3):469-79. doi: 10.1016/j.soc.2016.02.002.
17. Chudgar NP, Bucciarelli PR, Jeffries EM, Rizk NP, Park BJ, Adusumilli PS, et al. Results of the national lung cancer screening trial: where are we now? *Thorac Surg Clin*. 2015;25(2):145-53. doi: 10.1016/j.thorsurg.2014.11.002.
18. Carter SM, Barratt A. What is overdiagnosis and why should we take it seriously in cancer screening? *Public Health Res Pract*. 2017;27(3):pii: 2731722. doi: 10.17061/phrp2731722.
19. Treskova M, Aumann I, Golpon H, Vogel-Claussen J, Welte T, Kuhlmann A. Trade-off between benefits, harms and economic efficiency of low-dose CT lung cancer screening: a microsimulation analysis of nodule management strategies in a population-based setting. *BMC Med*. 2017;15(1):162. doi: 10.1186/s12916-017-0924-3.
20. Ten Haaf K, Tammemagi MC, Bondy SJ, van der Aalst CM, Gu S, McGregor SE, et al. Performance and cost-effectiveness of computed tomography lung cancer screening scenarios in a population-based setting: a microsimulation modeling analysis in Ontario, Canada. *PLoS Med*. 2017;14(2):e1002225. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1002225.
21. Ten Haaf K, Jeon J, Tammemagi MC, Han SS, Kong CY, Plevritis SK, et al. Risk prediction models for selection of lung cancer screening candidates: a retrospective validation study. *PLoS Med*. 2017;14(4):e1002277. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1002277.
22. Biomarkers Definitions Working Group. Biomarkers and surrogate endpoints: preferred definitions and conceptual framework. *Clin Pharmacol Therap*. 2001;69(3):89-95. doi: 10.1067/mcp.2001.113989.
23. Carter HB, Albertsen PC, Barry MJ, Etzioni R, Freedland SJ, Greene KL, et al. Early detection of prostate cancer: AUA guideline. *J Urol*. 2013;190(2):419-26. doi: 10.1016/j.juro.2013.04.119.
24. Valencia OM, Samuel SE, Viscusi RK, Riall TS, Neumayer LA, Aziz H. The Role of Genetic Testing in Patients With Breast Cancer: A Review. *JAMA Surg*. 2017;152(6):589-94. doi: 10.1001/jamasurg.2017.0552.
25. Rex DK, Boland CR, Dominitz JA, Giardiello FM, Johnson DA, Kaltenbach T, et al. Colorectal cancer screening: recommendations for physicians and patients from the U.S. Multi-Society Task Force on Colorectal Cancer. *Gastroenterology*. 2017;153(1):307-23. doi: 10.1053/j.gastro.2017.05.013.
26. Nair M, Sandhu SS, Sharma AK. Prognostic and predictive biomarkers in cancer. *Curr Cancer Drug Targets*. 2014;14(5):477-504.
27. Cação B, Simoes A, Mendes C, Souza HP. Macrophage polarization and obesity complications: what we can learn from experimental studies. *Rev Med (São Paulo)*. 2016;95(2):103-12. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.11606/>

- issn.1679-9836.v.95i2p103-112.
28. Cyphert TJ, Morris RT, House LM, Barnes TM, Otero YF, Barham WJ, et al. NF-kappaB-dependent airway inflammation triggers systemic insulin resistance. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol*. 2015;309(9):R1144-52. doi: 10.1152/ajpregu.00442.2014.
 29. Gallagher EJ, LeRoith D. Obesity and diabetes: the increased risk of cancer and cancer-related mortality. *Physiol Rev*. 2015;95(3):727-48. doi: 10.1152/physrev.00030.2014.
 30. Mohan S, Baylink DJ. IGF-binding proteins are multifunctional and act via IGF-dependent and -independent mechanisms. *The Journal of endocrinology*. 2002;175(1):19-31.
 31. Ho GYF, Zheng SL, Cushman M, Perez-Soler R, Kim M, Xue X, et al. Associations of insulin and IGFBP-3 with lung cancer susceptibility in current smokers. *J Nat Cancer Inst*. 2016;108(7). doi: 10.1093/jnci/djw012.
 32. Guo C, Lu H, Gao W, Wang L, Lu K, Wu S, et al. Insulin-like growth factor binding protein-2 level is increased in blood of lung cancer patients and associated with poor survival. *PLoS One*. 2013;8(9):e74973. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0074973.
 33. Guttentag S, Robinson L, Zhang P, Brasch F, Buhling F, Beers M. Cysteine protease activity is required for surfactant protein B processing and lamellar body genesis. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol*. 2003;28(1):69-79. doi: 10.1165/rmb.2002-0111OC.
 34. Khor A, Whitsett JA, Stahlman MT, et al. Utility of surfactant protein B precursor and thyroid transcription factor 1 in differentiating adenocarcinoma of the lung from malignant mesothelioma. *Hum Pathol*. 1999;30:695-700.
 35. Sin DD, Tammemagi CM, Lam S, Barnett MJ, Duan X, Tam A, et al. Pro-surfactant protein B as a biomarker for lung cancer prediction. *J Clin Oncol*. 2013;31(36):4536-43. doi: 10.1200/JCO.2013.50.6105.
 36. Taguchi A, Hanash S, Rundle A, McKeague IW, Tang D, Darakjy S, et al. Circulating pro-surfactant protein B as a risk biomarker for lung cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2013;22(10):1756-61. doi: 10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-13-0251.
 37. Wikoff WR, Hanash S, DeFelice B, Miyamoto S, Barnett M, Zhao Y, et al. Diacetylspermine 1s a novel prediagnostic serum biomarker for non-small-cell lung cancer and has additive performance with pro-surfactant protein B. *J Clin Oncol*. 2015;33(33):3880-6. doi: 10.1200/JCO.2015.61.7779.
 38. Watt DG, Horgan PG, McMillan DC. Routine clinical markers of the magnitude of the systemic inflammatory response after elective operation: a systematic review. *Surgery*. 2015;157(2):362-80. doi: 10.1016/j.surg.2014.09.009.
 39. Pierce BL, Ballard-Barbash R, Bernstein L, Baumgartner RN, Neuhauser ML, Wener MH, et al. Elevated biomarkers of inflammation are associated with reduced survival among breast cancer patients. *J Clin Oncol*. 2009;27(21):3437-44. doi: 10.1200/JCO.2008.18.9068.
 40. Shiels MS, Pfeiffer RM, Hildesheim A, Engels EA, Kemp TJ, Park JH, et al. Circulating inflammation markers and prospective risk for lung cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2013;105(24):1871-80. doi: 10.1093/jnci/djt309.
 41. Xu M, Zhu M, Du Y, Yan B, Wang Q, Wang C, Zhao J. Serum C-reactive protein and risk of lung cancer: a case-control study. *Med Oncol*. 2013;30(1):319. doi: 10.1007/s12032-012-0319-4.
 42. Planque C, Kulasingam V, Smith CR, Reckamp K, Goodglick L, Diamandis EP. Identification of five candidate lung cancer biomarkers by proteomics analysis of conditioned media of four lung cancer cell lines. *Mol Cell Proteomics*. 2009;8(12):2746-58. doi: 10.1074/mcp.M900134-MCP200.
 43. Diamandis EP, Goodglick L, Planque C, Thornquist MD. Pentraxin-3 is a novel biomarker of lung carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2011;17(8):2395-9. doi: 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-10-3024.
 44. Lee G, Gardner BK, Elashoff DA, Purcell CM, Sandha HS, Mao JT, et al. Elevated levels of CXC chemokine connective tissue activating peptide (CTAP)-III in lung cancer patients. *Am J Transl Res*. 2011;3(3):226-33.
 45. Yee J, Sadar MD, Sin DD, Kuzyk M, Xing L, Kondra J, et al. Connective tissue-activating peptide III: a novel blood biomarker for early lung cancer detection. *J Clin Oncol*. 2009;27(17):2787-92. doi: 10.1200/JCO.2008.19.4233.
 46. Schwarz MA, Kandel J, Brett J, Li J, Hayward J, Schwarz RE, et al. Endothelial-monocyte activating polypeptide II, a novel antitumor cytokine that suppresses primary and metastatic tumor growth and induces apoptosis in growing endothelial cells. *J Exp Med* 1999;190:341-54.
 47. Sen E, Ulger F, Kaya A, Akar N, Gonullu U. Serum endothelial monocyte-activating polypeptide-II: a novel biomarker in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer. *Clinical Lung Cancer*. 2008;9(3):166-70. doi: 10.3816/CLC.2008.n.025.
 48. Gatti L, Cossa G, Beretta GL, Zaffaroni N, Perego P. Novel insights into targeting ATP-binding cassette transporters for antitumor therapy. *Curr Med Chem*. 2011;18:4237-49. doi: 10.2174/092986711797189682.
 49. Liu L, Liu N, Liu B, Yang Y, Zhang Q, Zhang W, et al. Are circulating autoantibodies to ABCG3 transporter a potential biomarker for lung cancer? *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol*. 2012;138(10):1737-42. doi: 10.1007/s00432-012-1260-9.
 50. Rom WN, Goldberg JD, Addrizzo-Harris D, Watson HN, Khilkin M, Greenberg AK, et al. Identification of an autoantibody panel to separate lung cancer from smokers and nonsmokers. *BMC Cancer*. 2010;10:234. doi: 10.1186/1471-2407-10-234.
 51. Chen C, Wang W, Meng Q, Wu N, Wei J. Further study of circulating IgG antibodies to CD25-derived peptide antigens in non small cell lung cancer. *FEBS Open Bio*. 2016;6(3):211-5. doi: 10.1002/2211-5463.12034.
 52. Church TR, Anderson KE, Caporaso NE, Geisser MS, Le CT, Zhang Y, et al. A prospectively measured serum biomarker for a tobacco-specific carcinogen and lung cancer in smokers. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev*. 2009;18(1):260-6. doi: 10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-08-0718.
 53. Idelchik M, Begley U, Begley TJ, Melendez JA. Mitochondrial ROS control of cancer. *Semin Cancer Biol*. 2017;47:57-66. doi: 10.1016/j.semcancer.2017.04.005.
 54. Epplein M, Franke AA, Cooney RV, Morris JS, Wilkens LR, Goodman MT, et al. Association of plasma micronutrient levels and urinary isoprostane with risk of lung cancer: the

- multiethnic cohort study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2009;18(7):1962-70. doi: 10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-09-0003.
55. Lee SH, Lee JS, Lee EJ, Min KH, Hur GY, Lee SH, et al. Serum reactive oxygen species modulator 1 (Romo1) as a potential diagnostic biomarker for non-small cell lung cancer. *Lung Cancer.* 2014;85(2):175-81. doi: 10.1016/j.lungcan.2014.05.023
 56. Hamam R, Hamam D, Alsaleh KA, Kassem M, Zaher W, Alfayez M, et al. Circulating microRNAs in breast cancer: novel diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers. *Cell Death Dis.* 2017;8(9):e3045. doi: 10.1038/cddis.2017.440.
 57. Chen X, Hu Z, Wang W, Ba Y, Ma L, Zhang C, et al. Identification of ten serum microRNAs from a genome-wide serum microRNA expression profile as novel noninvasive biomarkers for non-small cell lung cancer diagnosis. *Int J Cancer.* 2012;130(7):1620-8. doi: 10.1002/ijc.26177.
 58. Langevin SM, Kratzke RA, Kelsey KT. Epigenetics of lung cancer. *Transl Res.* 2015;165(1):74-90. doi: 10.1016/j.trsl.2014.03.001.
 59. Horvath S. DNA methylation age of human tissues and cell types. *Genome Biol.* 2013;14:R115. doi: 10.1186/gb-2013-14-10-r115
 60. Levine ME, Hosgood HD, Chen B, Absher D, Assimes T, Horvath S. DNA methylation age of blood predicts future onset of lung cancer in the women's health initiative. *Aging.* 2015;7(9):690-700. doi: 10.18632/aging.100809.
 61. Zhang Y, Schottker B, Ordóñez-Mena J, Holleczeck B, Yang R, Burwinkel B, et al. F2RL3 methylation, lung cancer incidence and mortality. *Int J Cancer.* 2015;137(7):1739-48. doi: 10.1002/ijc.29537.
 62. Kaufmann R, Rahn S, Pollrich K, Hertel J, Dittmar Y, Hommann M, et al. Thrombin-mediated hepatocellular carcinoma cell migration: cooperative action via proteinase-activated receptors 1 and 4. *J Cell Physiol.* 2007;211(3):699-707. doi: 10.1002/jcp.21027.
 63. Zhang Y, Yang R, Burwinkel B, Breitling LP, Holleczeck B, Schottker B, et al. F2RL3 methylation in blood DNA is a strong predictor of mortality. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2014;43(4):1215-25. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyu006.
 64. Greenberg AK, Rimal B, Felner K, Zafar S, Hung J, Eylers E, et al. S-adenosylmethionine as a biomarker for the early detection of lung cancer. *Chest.* 2007;132(4):1247-52. doi: 10.1378/chest.07-0622
 65. Bisoffi M, Heaphy CM, Griffith JK. Telomeres: prognostic markers for solid tumors. *Int J Cancer.* 2006;119(10):2255-60. doi: 10.1002/ijc.22120
 66. Seow WJ, Cawthon RM, Purdue MP, Hu W, Gao YT, Huang WY, et al. Telomere length in white blood cell DNA and lung cancer: a pooled analysis of three prospective cohorts. *Cancer research.* 2014;74(15):4090-8. doi: 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-14-0459.
 67. Conway EM, Pikor LA, Kung SH, Hamilton MJ, Lam S, Lam WL, Bennewith KL. Macrophages, inflammation, and lung cancer. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2016;193(2):116-30. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201508-1545CI.
 68. Aujollet N, Meyer M, Cailliod R, Combiere F, Coignet Y, Campard S, et al. High N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide: a biomarker of lung cancer? *Clin Lung Cancer.* 2010;11(5):341-5. doi: 10.3816/CLC.2010.n.043.
 69. Köhler J, Schuler M, Gauler TC, Nöpel-Dünnebacke S, Ahrens M, Hoffmann AC, et al. Circulating U2 small nuclear RNA fragments as a diagnostic and prognostic biomarker in lung cancer patients. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol.* 2016;142(4):795-805. doi: 10.1007/s00432-015-2095-y.
 70. Gumireddy K, Li A, Chang DH, Liu Q, Kossenkov AV, Yan J, et al. AKAP4 is a circulating biomarker for non-small cell lung cancer. *Oncotarget.* 2015;6(19):17637-47.
 71. Seder CW, Kubasiak JC, Pithadia R, Basu S, Fhied C, Tarhoni I, et al. Angiogenesis Biomarkers May Be Useful in the Management of Patients With Indeterminate Pulmonary Nodules. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2015;100(2):429-36. doi: 10.1016/j.athoracsur.2015.04.018.
 72. Doseeva V, Colpitts T, Gao G, Woodcock J, Knezevic V. Performance of a multiplexed dual analyte immunoassay for the early detection of non-small cell lung cancer. *J Transl Med.* 2015;13:55. doi: 10.1186/s12967-015-0419-y.
 73. Li D, Li F, Wu Y, Zhou D, Chen H. Quantification of serum MET in non-small-cell lung cancer and its clinical significance. *Clin Biochem.* 2015;48(3):110-4. doi: 10.1016/j.clinbiochem.2014.11.021.
 74. Zhang K, Chen L, Deng H, Zou Y, Liu J, Shi H, et al. Serum lemur tyrosine kinase-3: a novel biomarker for screening primary non-small cell lung cancer and predicting cancer progression. *Int J Clin Exp Pathol.* 2015;8(1):629-35.
 75. Weber DG, Johnen G, Casjens S, Bryk O, Pesch B, Jöckel KH, et al. Evaluation of long noncoding RNA MALAT1 as a candidate blood-based biomarker for the diagnosis of non-small cell lung cancer. *BMC Res Notes.* 2013;6:518. doi: 10.1186/1756-0500-6-518.

Received: November 29, 2019

Accepted: March 21, 2019