From the Department of Oncology-Pathology
Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

Investigation of Small-Cell Lung Cancer Epidemiology in Sweden and Analysis of Clinical and Tumor Specific Prognostic Biomarkers

Salomon Tendler

Stockholm, Sweden 2020

Published by Karolinska Institutet.
Printed by Sweden by Universitetsservice US Aktiebolag, Drottning Kristinas väg 53B, 114 28 Stockholm, Sweden

ISBN 978-91-7831-717-2

Investigation of Small-Cell Lung Cancer Epidemiology in Sweden and Analysis of Clinical and Tumor Specific Prognostic Biomarkers

Thesis for Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.)

Public defense, Friday, March 6, 2020 at 9.15 a.m. at J3;06 Ulf Von Euler Auditorium Karolinska University Hospital, Solna, Sweden

By

Salomon Tendler

Principal Supervisor:
Dr Luigi De Petris
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Oncology-Pathology

Co-supervisor(s):
Professor Rolf Lewensohn
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Oncology-Pathology

Dr Kristina Viktorsson
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Oncology-Pathology

Opponent:
MD, Senior Lecturer Yvonne Summers
Christie Hospital NHS Foundation Trust
Department of Medical Oncology

Examination Board:
Professor Michael Bergqvist
Umeå University
Department of Radiation Oncology

Professor Per Gustavsson
Karolinska Institutet
Institute of Environmental Medicine

Associate Professor Felix Haglund
Karolinska Institutet
Department of Oncology-Pathology

To my parents and grandparents.

ABSTRACT

Small-cell lung cancer (SCLC) accounts for approximately 13% of all newly diagnosed lung cancer (LC) cases. This disease is correlated with heavy smoking. It is characterized by a rapid doubling time combined with a propensity to metastasize quickly and by neuroendocrine differentiation. In patients with locally advanced disease, the standard of care is concurrent radiation and platinum-doublet chemotherapy (PDCT). Patients with stage IV disease have also until recently been treated with PDCT. Even though a majority of SCLC cases initially responds to PDCT, almost all patients inevitably relapse. This thesis aims to deepen the knowledge of SCLC.

Paper I was a population-based study, where we aimed to investigate the possible association between educational levels and overall death of Swedish SCLC patients. The patient population consisted of 4256 subjects. The key findings showed that educational level is an independent prognostic factor in Swedish men diagnosed with SCLC and among patients with Limited disease.

In **paper II**, we performed a validation of the 8th TNM staging system on 706 SCLC cases and compared the system´s prognostic performance to the 6th and 7th TNM editions as well as to the older two-stage system that segmented patients as either having Limited Disease (LD) or Extensive Disease (ED). The study provided additional information supporting the robustness of the 8th TNM edition in prognostically categorizing SCLC and confirms its usefulness in clinical practice.

In **paper III**, we conducted a real-world study on 545 consecutive cases during an eight-year period. The aim was to understand in depth the treatment patterns of SCLC patients from Karolinska University Hospital. Another goal was to examine the outcome of SCLC patients upon re-challenge with PDCT. The survival outcomes for LD and ED SCLC patients were poor, correlating with previous studies. The results also showed that SCLC patients with sensitive relapse after first line PDCT may benefit from re-challenge.

In **paper IV**, the expression of multiple biomarkers, including Notch1, Hes1, Ascl1, and DLL3, were analysed in a selected cohort of 46 SCLC patients. The study, in part, focused on how the expression patterns differed based on patients' resistance or sensitivity to PDCT. We evaluated the prevalence of expression of these four biomarkers in human samples using biopsies and studied the potential association with survival and benefit from 1st line PDCT. The study showed that Notch1 seems to be an independent prognostic factor in SCLC. Furthermore, a negative association between Notch1 and Ascl1 expression was observed.

In summary, this thesis expands on the understanding of SCLC by analysing epidemiological trends, the impact of socioeconomic status, changes to classifying patients, and possible prognostic biomarkers.

LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS

I. **Tendler S**, Holmqvist M, Wagenius G, Lewensohn R, Lambe M, De Petris L. Educational level, management and outcomes in small-cell lung cancer (SCLC): A population-based cohort study. *Lung Cancer 139: 111-117, 2020*

II. **Tendler S**, Grozman V, Lewensohn R, Tsakonas G, Viktorsson K, De Petris L. Validation of the 8th TNM classification for small-cell lung cancer in a retrospective material from Sweden. *Lung Cancer 120:75–81, 2018, Corrigendum 123; 178-179, 2018.*

III. **Tendler S**, Zhan Y, Pettersson A, Lewensohn R, Viktorsson K, Fang F, De Petris L. Treatment patterns and survival outcomes for small-cell lung cancer patients- a Swedish single center cohort study. *Acta Oncologica 1-7, 2020*

IV. **Tendler S**, Kanter L, Lewensohn R, Ortiz-Villalón C, Viktorsson K, De Petris L. The prognostic implications of Notch1, Hes1, Ascl1, and DLL3 protein expression in SCLC patients receiving platinum-based chemotherapy. *Manuscript.*

PUBLICATION NOT INCLUDED IN THESIS

Tsakonas G, Hellman F, Gubanski M, Friesland S, **Tendler S**, Lewensohn R, Ekman S, De Petris L. Prognostic factors affecting survival after whole brain radiotherapy in patients with brain metastasized lung cancer. *Acta Oncologica Feb; 57(2):231-238, 2018.*

CONTENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1st line	First-line
2nd line	Second-line
3rd line	Third-line
Bid	Twice per day
BSC	Best Supportive Care
CDR	Cause of Death Register
CRT	Chemo- and Radio-Therapy
CT	Chemotherapy
CI	Confidence Interval
DLL3	Delta-like ligand 3
ED	Extensive Disease
^{18}F-FDG	^{18}F-fluorodeoxyglucose (C6H1118FO5)
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
FFPE	Formalin-Fixed, Paraffin-Embedded
Gy	Gray
HR	Hazard Ratio
Hes1	Hairy/Enhancer of Split 1
LISA	Longitudinal Integration Database for Health Insurance, Labor Market Studies
LD	Limited Disease
IASLC	International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer
IHC	Immunohistochemistry
LCBaSe	Lung Cancer Data Base Sweden
LC	Lung Cancer
MRI	Magnetic Resonance Imaging
Notch1	Notch Homolog 1 Translocation-Associated
NLCR	Swedish National Lung Cancer Register
NSCLC	Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer
ORR	Objective Response Rate
OS	Overall Survival

PDX	Patient-Derived Xenograft
PCI	Prophylactic Cranial Irradiation
PDCT	Platinum-Doublet Chemotherapy
PE	Platinum and Etoposide
PET	Positron Emission Tomography
PFS	Progression-Free Survival
PS	Performance Status
RCT	Randomized Clinical Trial
Rova-T	Rovalpituzumab Tesirine
RT	Radiotherapy
SCLC	Small-Cell Lung Cancer
SCR	Swedish Cancer Register
SEI	Socioeconomic Index
TTF	Thyroid Transcriptor Factor
TNM	Tumor, Node, and Metastasis
VALSG	Veterans' Administration Lung Study Group

1 Background

1.1 Introduction

Lung cancer (LC) is the deadliest form of cancer worldwide in both sexes. (1) The World Health Organization (WHO) divides LC into two main categories: non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and small-cell lung cancer (SCLC). (2, 3) The majority of LC patients are diagnosed with NSCLC, with adenocarcinoma being the largest subtype (44%) followed by squamous cell carcinoma (26%) and large cell carcinoma (15%). (4) The proportion of LC that is classified as SCLC has decreased over the past decades from 20%-25% in the 1980s to around 13% today. (5, 6) SCLC is a rare disease in non-smokers, representing only 3% of cases. (7) The proportion of women diagnosed with SCLC has increased to 50% over the past few decades due to changes in tobacco consumption habits. (8) The risk of developing SCLC increases with age, with approximately 45% of cases are above 70 years. (5)

1.2 Origins of SCLC

SCLC cells originate from a sensory cell called neuroendocrine cell. (9) In 1926, Dr. WG Barnard identified certain mediastinal cells in the lungs. (10) At the time, such cells were thought to be “oat cell sarcomas”. However, in 1959, researchers correctly recognized that these neuroendocrine cells were in fact a separate and distinct form of LC, which today is known as SCLC. (11)

SCLC is diagnosed by immunohistochemical staining, a diagnostic tool used to distinguish SCLC from other malignancies. The disease is characterized by small homogenous malignant cells, which are larger in size compared to lymphocytes. (12) The diagnosis SCLC can usually be determined by testing for thyroid-transcriptor factor-1 (TTF-1), and established neuroendocrine markers such as, synaptophysin, chromogranin, and CD56. (12-15)

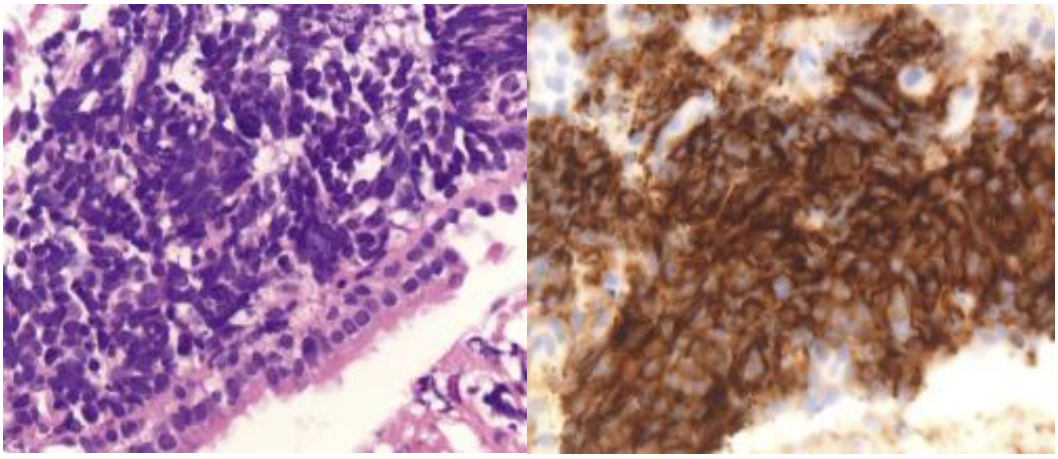

Figure 1 Morphology of SCLC

Hematoxylin and eosin stained SCLC section (left) and positively stained CD56 in brown color of a SCLC section (right). Magnification 40x. *Reprinted with permission from Elsevier*

1.3 LC registries

The Swedish Cancer Register (SCR) is maintained by the Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare. The SCR's purpose is to monitor cancer incidence and survival in the Swedish population for medical research. (16) Since 1958, the SCR has been prospectively collecting data on new cancer cases, including linked information on medical data (anatomical site, method and date of diagnosis, and morphology), patient data (age, sex, and place of residence), and follow-up time (cause and date of death). (16) A notification of clinical, morphological, and autopsy-based cancer diagnoses is mandated by Swedish law, which ensures a high national coverage of around 95% when validated against the National Patient Register (NPR). (16) The SCR is considered extensive, with similar registries from other countries having significantly lower coverage percentages. For example, the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) program accounts for around 28% of the United States population. (17)

The Swedish National Lung Cancer Register (NLCR) was founded in 2002 and aims to include all cases classified as LC according to the International Classification of Diseases for Oncology (code C34). (18) The NLCR collects a variety of patient data, including age, sex, smoking status, performance status (PS), diagnostic procedures, histopathology, and stage of disease at diagnosis. (19) The registry also includes information regarding planned treatment, lead times of referrals, and primary treatment decisions. The NLCR covers around 96% of Swedish lung cancer cases. (16, 19)

The Longitudinal Integration Database for Health Insurance and Labor Market studies (LISA) was established in 1990 and contains annual registers on highest achieved education for all residents aged 16 and older in Sweden. In addition to information on educational level, the LISA also has data on country of birth, date of emigration, employment, cohabitation status and number of persons per household. (20, 21)

Since 1961, the Swedish Cause of Death Register (CDR) has collected information on the date and underlying causes of death of every person in Sweden. According to recent statistics, the percentage of missing death certificates is less than 1%. (21, 22)

The Lung Cancer Data Base Sweden (LCBaSe) was started for research purposes and is based on all LC patients registered in the NLCR from 2002-2016. The LCBaSe is composed of linkages between the NLCR and the SCR, CDR, LISA, NPR, Prescribed Drug Registry and Total Population Registry. (20)

1.4 Epidemiology and socioeconomic factors

Socioeconomic factors, including income, educational level, and accessibility to healthcare providers, contribute to health disparities. The literature has historically used income as the main measure of socioeconomic index (SEI). (23) However, using educational level as the SEI instead can avoid the risk of reverse causation bias. Thus, while a cancer diagnosis may result in reduced income, it should not affect educational level, which the subject in almost all

cases has already achieved. (23, 24) In addition, education may to a certain extent facilitate a lifelong choice of health attitude and behavior. (23)

Other studies have investigated the potential association between SEI and cancer-specific mortality. (23, 25) In Sweden, everyone should have equal access to healthcare through a tax-funded National healthcare system. However, studies on Swedish prostate cancer, breast cancer, and NSCLC patients have shown differences in survival outcomes among the various SEI subgroups. (20, 24, 26) Furthermore, a recent report on Swedish NSCLC patients showed a difference in diagnostic intensity and mortality among different SEI groups. (27)

Less educated patients have been shown to be diagnosed with a more advanced stage of their cancer diagnosis. (28) This could possibly be explained by poorer compliance to certain screening programs (breast-, cervical-, colorectal-, and prostate- cancer). (29, 30) Another study has shown that patients with high education have a greater probability of receiving curative treatment compared to low educated cancer patients. (31) These factors may be less relevant to SCLC cases, since the majority of SCLC patients are diagnosed with metastatic disease. (32, 33)

The aim of paper I was to investigate the potential influence of educational level (as the measure of SEI) on treatment patterns, lead times, and outcomes in Swedish SCLC patients.

1.5 Clinical symptoms and prognosis

The most frequent symptoms of SCLC include a cough, dyspnea, weight loss, and fatigue. Most patients are diagnosed within three months of symptom onset, reflecting a short tumor doubling time. (34) For stage I-III disease, the median survival ranges from 15 to 20 months and the five-year survival rate is approximately 10%. (35) In contrast, for patients with stage IV disease, the median survival is 8 to 13 months and the five-year overall survival (OS) is only 1%. (36) In **Figure 2**, the five-year OS for SCLC and NSCLC patients diagnosed in Sweden between 2012 and 2018 are presented. (19)

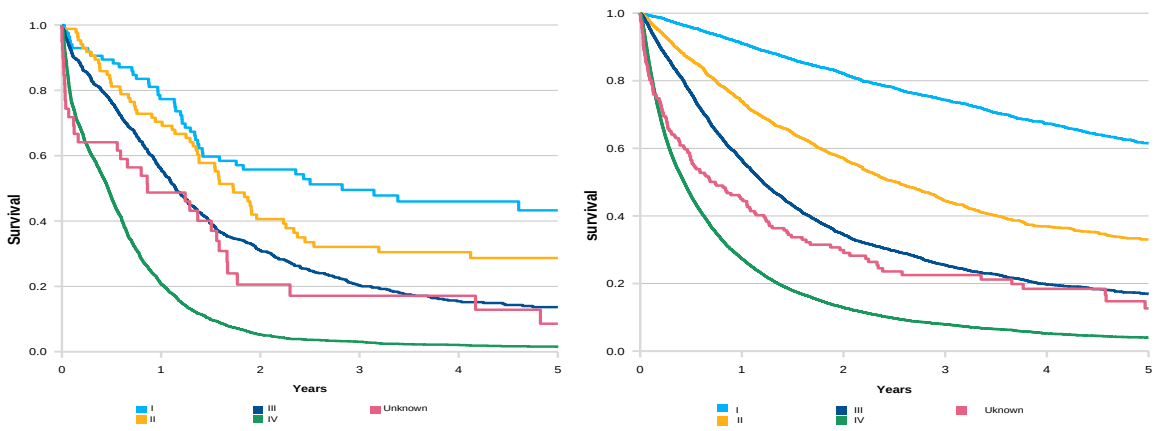

Figure 2 Prognosis for Lung Cancer patients according to stage of the disease

The overall survival for patients diagnosed with SCLC (n=3362) (left) and NSCLC (n=22132) (right) by stage of the disease (7th TNM) in Sweden between 2012-2018. *Picture from the Swedish National Lung Cancer Register.*

1.6 Classification of SCLC according to the VALSG classification and TNM

The classification systems used for SCLC patients are constructed according to the assessment of tumor burden at diagnosis and are key to determining prognosis. (37, 38) Early attempts to classify patients into subgroups have been performed to separate potentially curative patients from palliative ones. (5) In the late 1950s, Veterans' Administration Lung Study Group (VALSG) developed the first staging system for SCLC, which divided cases into Limited Disease (LD) or Extensive Disease (ED). (38) LD encompasses tumors confined to one hemithorax with or without regional lymph node involvement and where the tumor burden can be effectively included in the same radiation portal. ED comprises everything beyond LD. (38, 39) The VALSG classification system was later elaborated by the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer (IASLC) to encompass the contralateral mediastinal, hilar, and supraclavicular nodes into the definition of LD. (37)

The tumor, node, and metastasis (TNM) classification system was developed in the 1980s to better stratify LC patients. (40) Since then, it has been periodically revised with updated editions. A major revision resulted in the 7th TNM edition in 2007, which included 81,495 LC patients out of which 12,000 were SCLC cases. (37, 41) The 7th TNM edition added new subcategories to the tumor size (T)- and metastasis pattern (M)-descriptors. (42) No new stage categories were introduced. (37) In the 7th TNM edition, pleural or pericardial dissemination (effusions or nodules) were no longer classified as having localized disease (T4). (42) This subgroup was instead included into the metastatic descriptor (M1a) in order to distinguish patients treated with chemotherapy (CT) alone. (43) Despite certain improvements, the 7th TNM edition had several weaknesses, including the fact that the population used in this edition was largely limited to patients of European or North American descent and radiological tools, such as ^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan, were not yet implemented for clinical staging. (44)

To further improve the TNM classification system, IASLC developed the 8th TNM edition, analyzing data of approximately 70,000 LC cases (among them 6,000 SCLC) diagnosed between 1999 and 2010 in 16 countries. (45) In the 8th TNM edition several new subgroups were added according to the size of the primary tumor (T-descriptor). (46) Two new subcategories were also added to the M-descriptor, with patients designated with a single metastasis into M1b, while subjects with more than one extra-thoracic metastasis were classified as M1c. (47) There were no changes to the lymph node (N-descriptor) between the TNM editions because of adequate prediction of prognosis. (48)

The changes introduced between the 7th and 8th TNM editions are presented in **Table 1**, and the new stages introduced in the 8th TNM edition are outlined in **Table 2**. (45, 49)

Table 1 The changes between the 7th and 8th TNM editions.

Descriptor	7th TNM	8th TNM
T-descriptor		
</=1cm	T1a	T1a
>1-2 cm	T1a	T1b
>2-3 cm	T1b	T1c
>3-4 cm	T2a	T2a
>4-5 cm	T2a	T2b
>5-7cm	T2b	T3
>7 cm	T3	T4
Bronchus <2 cm from carina	T3	T2
Total atelectasis	T3	T2
Invasion of diaphragm	T3	T4
Invasion of mediastinal pleura	T3	-
M-descriptor		
Metastasis within the thoracic cavity	M1a	M1a
Single extrathoracic metastasis	M1b	M1b
Multiple extrathoracic metastasis	M1b	M1c

Table 2 New stages introduced in the 8th TNM edition.

Stage	T-descriptor	N-descriptor	M-descriptor
IA1	T1a	N0	M0
IA2	T1b	N0	M0
IA3	T1c	N0	M0
IB	T2a	N0	M0
IIIC	T3/T4	N3	M0
IVA	Any T	Any N	M1a/M1b
IVB	Any T	Any N	M1c

Besides the VALSG classification, which was specifically developed for SCLC, the 8th TNM classification system was validated on predominantly NSCLC patients. (45) The VALSG classification remains in use for guiding the treatment of SCLC patients. Despite this, for diagnosing SCLC patients, the TNM system is generally encouraged. (45) Therefore, the goal of paper II was to validate the 8th TNM edition, specifically as it relates to SCLC patients.

1.7 Radiological tools used in SCLC diagnosis

The diagnosis of SCLC is highly dependent on the different radiological modalities. (50) All radiological tools described below are important for accurately staging SCLC patients and are used either separately or in combination to determine the appropriate treatment option for each patient.

1.7.1 The role of CT scan

The first step of identifying and staging SCLC patients is to perform a computed tomography scan (CT scan) of the thorax and upper abdomen. This radiological modality is performed to evaluate the tumor burden and the effect of oncological treatments. (50)

Figure 3a CT scan thorax/abdomen of a SCLC patient. A CT thorax/abdomen scan performed on a SCLC patient showing a centrally localized tumor prior to initiating palliative chemotherapy.

1.7.2 The role of ^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan

Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)-positron emission tomography scan (^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan) is a radiological method using the fluorodeoxyglucose radioisotope that is administered into the patients. It is then taken up by high-glucose- using cells, including tumor cells. (51) Therefore, this radiological modality combines functional (by ^{18}F-FDG-PET) and anatomical information (by CT scan). (52) ^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan is used in SCLC patients to more precisely assess mediastinal lymph node status and exclude distant metastasis prior to initializing therapy with curative intent. (52, 53) Previous reports have shown that adding ^{18}F-FDG-PET to CT scan improves accuracy of staging and can result in a change of treatment. (44, 54, 55) The usage of ^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan became part of clinical practice in Sweden in 2008.

Figure 3b ^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan of a SCLC patient ^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan performed on a SCLC patient with a lymph node conglomerate located in the mediastinum with a high FDG-uptake and a primary tumor in the upper right lobe.

1.7.3 The role of CT scan and MRI of the brain

At the time of diagnosis, 15%-20% of SCLC patients have brain metastases, and the risk of development increases during the course of the disease. (56) The absence or presence of brain metastasis guides the treatment of SCLC patients. (57, 58) Therefore, it is recommended that SCLC patients receive a CT scan and MRI of the brain prior to initializing therapy to identify potential intracranial metastases. (56, 59) An MRI is better at finding small brain lesions compared to a CT scan of the brain. (56)

1.8 Tumor biology and signaling aberrations in SCLC

SCLC is characterized by a rapid tumor growth and a high degree of genomic alterations. (60) It has been suggested that most of the mutations observed in SCLC are passengers; they do not contribute to growth. This makes identifying the relevant driver mutations more difficult. (60) Whole genome sequencing performed on human SCLC samples has not found evidence of mutually exclusive targetable driver oncogenes. (61) The tumor suppressor genes *TP53* and *RB1* are inactivated in 90% and 65% of SCLC cases, respectively. (62) Mutations in targetable oncogenes, such as epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), are rarely found in SCLC. (63) However, recent publications suggest that SCLC may be subcategorized into four distinct types; SCLC- Ascl1(A) - NeuroD1(N), - YAP1(Y), and - POU2F3(P), with each letter representing the main transcription factor involved in each subtype. (63) The neuroendocrine-derived subgroup, SCLC- A, is the most common (70%). (63) The SCLC-Y and SCLC-P subtypes lack neuroendocrine features and have a different origin and growth pattern when compared to the SCLC-A subtype. (64, 65) The SCLC-Y and SCLC-P subtypes include a small proportion of SCLC patients. (63)

1.9 Notch signaling pathway activation (Notch1 and Hes1)

The Notch signaling pathway regulates several cellular processes in healthy individuals, including cell differentiation during both embryonic and adult development. (66, 67) The Notch pathway is also relevant in solid tumors, being either pro-tumorigenic or tumor-

suppressive, depending on the cellular context. (68) In certain cancers, including malignant melanoma and mesothelioma, the Notch signaling pathway acts as an oncogenic driver. (69, 70)

The Notch pathway is regulated by a short-range cell to cell signaling. (71) It consists of several receptors (Notch-1 to 4), and is inactivated in a majority of SCLC cases. (67, 72) The Notch1 receptor has been described as the main Notch receptor involved in regulating the proliferation of neuroendocrine cells. (66, 73) Notch1 has a higher affinity at the ligand-binding site compared to other Notch receptors. (74, 75) Some of the proteins regulated by Notch1 have been identified. One such protein is the hairy/enhancer of split 1 (Hes1), a transcription factor that controls neuroendocrine cell differentiation. (76) The consequence of Hes1 is among other things inhibition of transcription of the neuroendocrine transcription factor, achaete-scute complex homologue 1 (Ascl1). (67, 76) This subsequently leads to a switch towards proliferation of non-neuroendocrine cells, which are slow growing and have a seemingly chemo-resistant feature to platinum. (71, 77)

Notch signaling activation occurs between different cells when a ligand binds to its receptor, *in trans*. (78) The Golgi apparatus is the cellular localization for generation of Notch receptor proteins in which both protein synthesis and peptidase processing takes place generating an intermediate form of the Notch receptor. When a ligand binds onto the Notch receptor at the cell surface, proteolytic cleavage (S3 cleavage) of the Notch receptor by γ-secretase is triggered, resulting in release of the Notch intracellular domain (NICD) into the nucleus, where it induces transcription of the target genes, including Hes1. (78) This results in activation of the Notch signaling pathway. The activation is transient as the endogenous NICD degrades rapidly and is present at Notch target promoters only in response to the ligand. (67, 72) A simplified illustration of this Notch signaling activation is illustrated in **Figure 4a**, below.

1.10 Notch1 signaling pathway inactivation (Ascl1 and DLL3)

The Notch signaling pathway is inactivated by Notch ligands, which includes the transmembrane proteins; Delta-like ligand-1, 3, and 4 (DLL1, DLL3, DLL4) and Jagged 1 and 2 (JAG1 and 2). (72) DLL3 differs from the other Notch ligands by having a smaller amount of epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like repeats. (79) DLL3 expression is regulated by Ascl1, a transcription factor that induces neuroendocrine cell proliferation and regulates the proliferation of pro-oncogenes such as *Sox2, Myc-L and BCL-2*. (80-82) When expression of Ascl1 is silent, the DLL3 expression also seems to be suppressed. (83) Furthermore, studies have shown that ASCL1 and Notch1 expression have a mutually exclusive expression pattern. (84, 85)

Notch signaling inactivation occurs when DLL3 binds to its Notch receptor within the same cell (cis-interaction), in an autonomous pattern. (86, 87) The DLL3 expression is found in the cytoplasm of normal tissues, while in SCLC cells the ligand is expressed homogeneously on the cell surface. (88) When DLL3 binds to Notch receptor on the cell membrane, *in cis*,

Notch1 is relocated to the Golgi apparatus and becomes inactivated. (67) The inactivation of Notch signaling pathway results in neuroendocrine cell proliferation, which is believed to be more sensitive to platinum CT. The Notch signaling pathway inactivation is show in **Figure 4b** (71, 77)

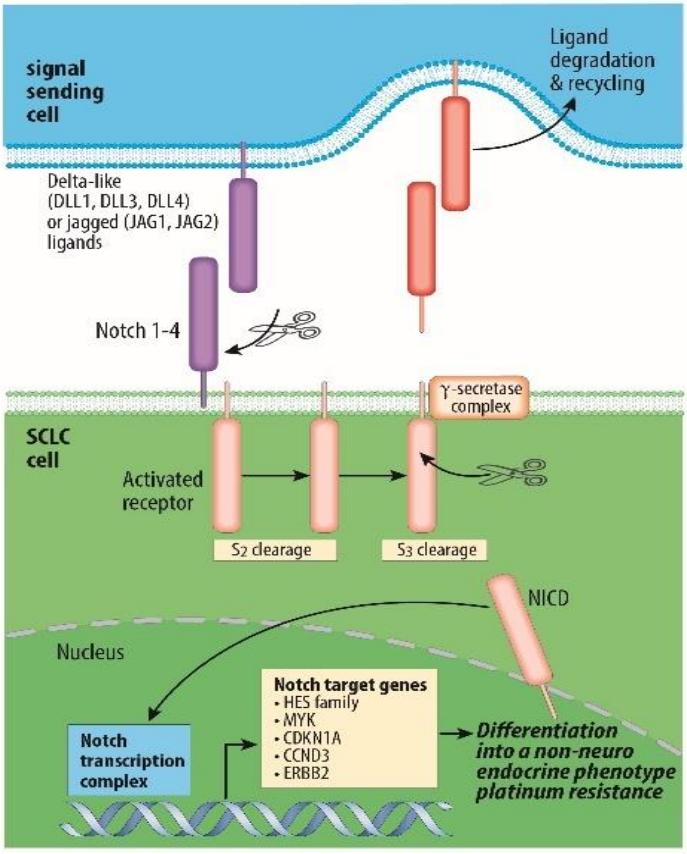

Figure 4a Notch signaling activation.

1. Mindbomb is a protein that ubiquitinates and activates the Notch ligand(s) on the signaling sending cell and then binds to the Notch receptor, *in trans*, on the plasma membrane of the receiving SCLC cell. 2. The S3 cleavage via the proteases, y-secretase, results in releasing the NICD from the transmembrane portion of the Notch receptor and moves the NICD to the nucleus where it activates Notch target genes such as Hes1. 3. The activation of Notch signaling pathway results in a non-neuroendocrine cell proliferation, which is believed to be more resistant to platinum CT.

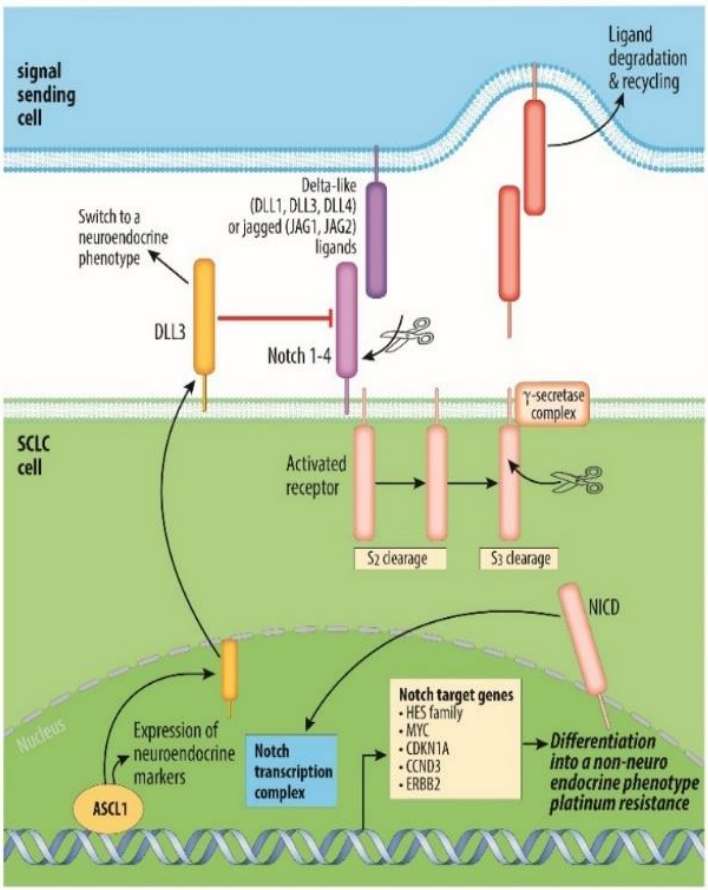

Figure 4b Notch signaling inactivation

1. Ascl1 transcription factor activates the Notch ligand (DLL3). DLL3 moves to the cell membrane where it binds to the Notch receptor, *in cis*, and competes for the same binding site as the sending cell. 2. When DLL3 has successfully, the release of NICD is inhibited and Hes1 is subsequently not expressed. 3. The inactivation of Notch signaling pathway results in a neuroendocrine cell proliferation, which is believed to be more sensitive to platinum CT.

1.11 Treatment of SCLC

There are many different treatment options administered to SCLC patients depending on the stage of the disease and the patient's PS. (89)

1.11.1 Surgery

Surgery is not the main treatment for patients with SCLC as surgical resection of the primary tumor is only indicated for those subjects who present with a solitary pulmonary nodule without mediastinal involvement or distant metastasis. (33) In the IASLC database, only 4% of SCLC cases underwent surgery. (33) There are no randomized clinical trials (RCT) that have compared surgery vs. surgery followed by adjuvant CT or chemo-and radio-therapy (CRT). (90) However, in an observational study, patients receiving adjuvant CT (with or without radiation) had an improved five-year OS compared to those who performed surgery alone (53% vs. 40%, respectively). (91) Today, adjuvant CT is recommended for SCLC patients who have undergone tumor resection. (90, 92) Patients with a lymph nodal involvement may be considered to receive adjuvant CRT. (93)

1.11.2 Concomitant CRT for stage I-III disease

The combination of CRT is the standard of care for patients whose tumors are considered unresectable but may be potentially cured (stage I-III disease). Two meta-analyses have demonstrated that CRT significantly improves survival outcomes compared to CT alone. (94, 95) Administering RT in combination with CT (concomitant) results in better survival outcomes than using RT after CT (sequential). (94, 96) The most frequent start of RT is after the first cycle of CT. (97) The PDCT regimen is the preferred CT administered in the first-line (1st line) setting of stage I-III disease.

There remains uncertainty regarding the optimal radiation dose and fractionation. The most frequently used schedule today is a total RT dose of 45 Gray (Gy) delivered in 30 fractions, twice per day (bid). An RCT from 1999 showed that the twice per day (bid) schedule was superior compared to a once per day schedule (5-year OS of 26% vs. 16%). (98) The main difference between these schedules appears to be the temporary acute toxicity, with an increase in grade III esophagitis when using the bid schedule (27% vs. 11%, $p < 0.001$). (98)

1.11.3 PCI for patients with stage I-III disease treated with CRT

The general recommendation for patients who have responded to CRT is prophylactic cranial irradiation (PCI) in order to prevent the development of brain metastases. (99) Two meta-analyses have evaluated the role of PCI in patients who achieved complete remission after CRT. (99, 100) The results from the first study showed that there was a significant decrease in incidence of brain metastases and mortality with PCI compared to observation with no treatment (hazard radio 0.46; 95% CI 0.38-0.57). (99) A second meta-analysis evaluating twelve RCTs reported similar findings. (100) Today, the most common PCI schedule used in Sweden is 2.5 Gy delivered in 10 fractions, once per day. (19)

1.11.4 Systemic 1st line CT for stage IV disease

Patients who are diagnosed with stage IV disease are generally recommended systemic 1st line treatment with PDCT. (35) The treatment in the 1st line setting had remained unchanged for several decades until the recent introduction of Atezolizumab (anti PD-L1 blockade inhibitor), which is administered together with PDCT. The results from a study, known as the Impower-133, found a two month prolonged median OS in favor of the experimental arm — Atezolizumab together with PDCT rather than PDCT alone (12.2 months vs. 10.2 months, respectively). (101) The combination of PDCT together with Atezolizumab as maintenance therapy became approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2019. (102)

In multiple RCTs, PDCT appears to be a more effective CT combination than older regimens such as cyclophosphamide, epirubicin, and vincristine. (103, 104) Carboplatin and cisplatin are the two types of platinum-agents that can be used in the PDCT regimen. Carboplatin is typically preferred to cisplatin, because carboplatin has a favorable toxicity profile. (105) (106) However, a meta-analysis found no statistically significant differences in survival outcomes between the two platinum agents. (107) There are also two different kinds of CT

agents used together with platinum; irinotecan and etoposide. (108) Etoposide is more frequently used in the Western world, while irinotecan is preferred in Asian populations. Four RCTs have compared these two agents together with platinum in the 1st line setting. The results showed no significant survival differences, with less hematologic and more gastrointestinal toxicity with irinotecan. (108-111)

1.11.5 Re-challenge with PDCT in 2nd line setting for stage IV patients

Most SCLC patient inevitably progress after receiving PDCT. Previous studies have shown the difficulty in treating these patients beyond the 1st line setting, because of platinum resistance. (112, 113) Relapsed patients survive only 2 to 4 months without second-line (2nd line) therapy. (114, 115) Re-challenge is defined as the administration of the same PDCT regimen provided in the 1st line setting. (116) Patients who have a longer duration without relapse after receiving 1st line PDCT will benefit more from re-challenge than patients with a shorter time before relapse. (116) According to this principle, relapsed patients are defined as either “sensitive” or “refractory” to PDCT. (114) The definitions of these subgroups differ between studies. The most frequently used definitions for “sensitive” and “refractory” relapse are defined as progression-free survival (PFS) of longer or shorter than 90 days after completion of CT, respectively. (114, 117, 118) Patients with “sensitive” relapse are recommended re-challenge with PDCT, while patients with "refractory” relapse should receive another CT regimen. These recommendations are based on several studies. (116, 117, 119, 120)

Other CT agents used in the 2nd line setting include taxanes, vinorelbine, gemcitabine, and temozolomide. These are usually administered as monotherapy and have response rates around 10%-15%. (121-124)

1.11.6 Consolidating RT for stage IV

Patient with stage IV disease, who have a complete response of distant metastasis and residual disease limited to the thorax after 1st line therapy, can be treated with consolidating RT to the thorax. (125, 126) The rationale for this treatment approach is to improve local control of the remaining tumor burden and ultimately prolong the survival. (125, 126) In an RCT, patients receiving 30 Gy to the residual tumor in the thorax had a longer median OS compared to the observational group. (125) The survival curves diverged after 18 months, with a statistically significant longer two-year OS in favor of the RT group, 13% vs. 3%, respectively ($p = 0.004$). (125) Because of this trial, consolidating RT has been used for stage IV patients more frequently during the past years. (125)

1.11.7 PCI for stage IV disease

The rationale of administering PCI in stage IV patients who have responded to 1st line CT is to decrease the risk of developing brain metastasis and thereby improve survival. (127) However, the prognostic impact of PCI in stage IV remains uncertain, as RCTs have shown conflicting results. (127, 128) A phase III trial conducted in Europe (n=286) randomized

patients 1:1, receiving either PCI or observation. (128) A brain MRI was not a requirement prior to PCI for this study, which meant that some patients may have had brain metastasis prior to initializing the therapy. (128) The results showed that patients treated with PCI had a statistically significant decreased risk of developing symptomatic brain metastases after a one-year follow-up (15% in the PCI group vs. 40% in the observational group developed brain metastasis). A Japanese trial (n=224) had a similar design, but patients were required to have performed an MRI of the brain prior to initializing PCI, and the presence of brain metastasis was an exclusion criterion. (127) The results from this study did not show a survival benefit for patients receiving PCI. The general recommendation for stage IV patients is currently to limit the use of PCI to those patients that have a complete response to 1st line CT and have a PS of 0-1. (19)

1.11.8 Systemic 3rd line therapy for stage IV disease

A minor proportion of SCLC patients have a PS which allows them to receive a third-line (3rd line) treatment. For those who are eligible, the survival outcomes are generally poor. (119) The only FDA approved drug in the 3rd line setting is an immunotherapy, nivolumab (anti-programmed cell death receptor 1) antibody, with a response rate of less than 20%. (129) Other treatment options depend on the individual patient's treatment history and may include a single-agent CT if the patient has already progressed on PDCT. (130)

1.11.9 Role of molecular targeted agents in SCLC

Several molecular targeted agents have been tested in phase I and phase II clinical trials for 1st, 2nd, and 3rd line SCLC patients, as well as maintenance after 1st line. (131-133) Some of these agents act broadly on the tyrosine kinase signaling pathways (for example, sunitinib, bevacizumab, and everolimus). The phase II and phase III clinical trials testing these drugs have all shown poor response rates as well as poor tolerability when used alone or in combination with PDCT. (134-137) Furthermore, therapies targeting other signaling pathways including epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), PI3K/AKT/mTOR**,** and insulin-growth factor receptor (IGFR), have also demonstrated poor efficacy. (138, 139)

One of the most promising agents developed recently is the so called Rovalpituzumab Tesirine (Rova-T), an antibody-drug conjugate (ADC) composed of a humanized DLL3-specific IgG1 monoclonal antibody, a protease-cleavable linker, and a DNA cross-linking agent pyrrolobenzodiazepine (PDB). (81) Rova-T has been shown to bind DLL3 with high affinity on the cell surface. Internalization to the lysosome occurs rapidly, resulting in the cleavage of the linker and release of the toxin, which subsequently leads to a cell-cycle arrest. (81, 86) In a patient derived xenograft (PDX) model, mice treated with Rova-T had a prolonged response compared to mice treated with platinum CT. PDX tumor models that were resistant to platinum also showed responses to Rova-T. (81)

In a first-in-human, open-label phase I study, 11 (17%) patients receiving Rova-T achieved durable responses and 35 (54%) patients had stable disease (SD). (140) Thirty-nine patients provided tumor samples for analysis of DLL3 expression. Twenty-nine assessable patients

had DLL3-high tumors (> 50% or more tumor cells by IHC). None of the 10 patients with DLL3-low tumors (< 50%) showed a clinical response. Rova-T was found to have unacceptable delayed toxicity in humans, such as pleural effusion. (140) One reason may be that the PBD toxin stays in the systemic circulation because of a premature lysis of the linker attached to the PBD toxin. This subsequently leads to severe toxicity since the DLL3 ligand is not expressed on the cell surface of normal tissues. (141)

Rova-T has been investigated in several RCTs without showing any survival benefit. (142) These results have been disappointing considering the promising antitumoral effects of Rova-T in mouse models. Further studies are needed to modify the molecule, for example by adding an alternative cytotoxic payload, to achieve acceptable tolerability.

The timeline for the development of therapies in SCLC is described in **Figure 5**.

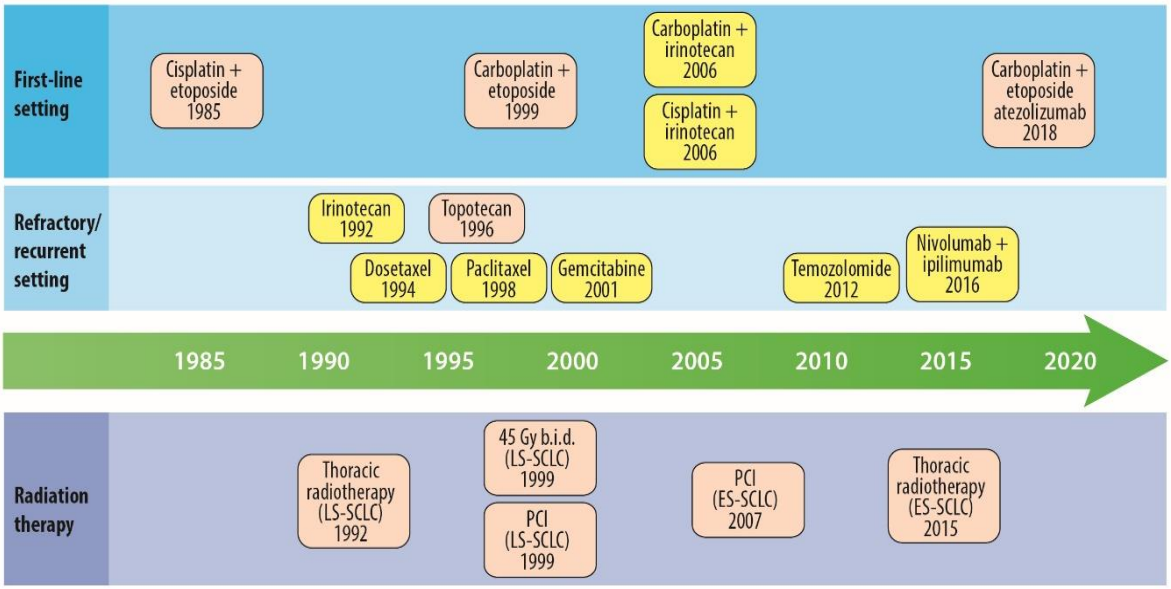

Figure 5 Timeline of treatment options in SCLC from the 1980s to 2020.

The development of treatment options for SCLC with regards to chemotherapy, radiotherapy, immunotherapy and different combinations. Abbreviations; LS- Limited stage, ES- Extensive stage, PCI- Prophylactic brain irradiation, B.i.d- twice per day.

2 Aims of the Thesis

The purpose of the thesis was to expand on the understanding of SCLC; epidemiological trends and treatment patterns, changes to classifying patients and prognostic biomarkers. The specific aims for each paper were;

Paper I was performed to investigate if there was an association between educational status and overall death of Swedish SCLC patients. It also examined if educational level influenced management and lead times.

Paper II aimed to discover if the 8th TNM staging system could provide additional prognostic information compared to the previous 6th and, 7th TNM versions and the older VALSG classification system.

Paper III evaluated the treatment patterns of SCLC patients. Another goal was to investigate the outcome of SCLC patients upon re-challenge with PDCT, and associations between clinical characteristics and survival outcomes.

Paper IV aimed to analyze the prevalence of the expression of Notch1, Hes1, Ascl1, and DLL3, and the potential association of these four biomarkers to sensitivity to PDCT, prognosis, and clinical characteristics of SCLC.

3 Patients, Material, and Methods

3.1 Patient Cohort

All four studies were based on retrospectively collected data from registries and patient files. The data for paper I was obtained from the LcBase, the NLCR, and several other population-based registers in Sweden, and covered SCLC patients diagnosed between 2002 and 2011. For paper II, III, and IV, the patient data was obtained from the NLCR with some clinical characteristics also collected from each individual health record file. For paper II and III, SCLC cases were obtained over an eight year time period, from 2008 to 2016. In paper IV, all patients' samples were retrieved from the Karolinska University Hospital, diagnosed with SCLC between 2008 and 2015. The cohort was highly selected depending on the amount of biopsy material, PDCT administered in 1st line setting, and follow-up data in order to evaluate the specific aims of the study. These strict criteria for paper IV resulted in excluding certain cases. All projects were undertaken with approved ethical and regulatory permissions (EPN 2012/1162-31/4, 2016-8/31), as well as permission from the Stockholm medical biobank (BBK 1693 FUB 2016087).

3.2 Re-classifying patients according to the TNM classification

In paper II, each case was re-classified from the VALSG classification to the different TNM editions (6th, 7th, and 8th) by using all available radiological scans at the time of diagnosis. The radiological scans available were reviewed; including CT scan of the thorax and abdomen, ^{18}F-FDG-PET/CT scan, CT/MRI scan of the brain, and ultrasound of the liver. Radiological scans that were difficult to assess were reviewed together with an experienced radiologist.

3.3 RWD analysis and definitions of treatment patterns and outcomes

Real-world data (RWD) analysis means data collected for the purpose of evaluating the treatment outcomes for patients not treated in clinical trials. RWD analyses can be used to support regulatory decision-making and to guide clinical practice. (143)

In SCLC patients, the survival outcomes have been shown to be worse in a real-world setting compared to RCTs (including the observational group). Thus, a matched comparison analysis showed a survival benefit for patients treated in an RCT compared to a real-world setting. (144, 145) One of the suggested explanations may be that patients enrolled in RCTs are a small and highly selected subgroup, which includes younger subjects who have a better PS compared to patients in clinical practice. (146-148) This highlights the limitations of extrapolating data from RCTs to a real-world setting.

The definitions of survival outcomes (PFS and OS) were important for evaluating the results presented in paper III and IV. In paper III, the PFS was defined as the start of each line of CT until documented progression either clinically, on a radiological scan, or death. The definition for OS was the same for both papers, defined as the interval between the date of initiating each line of CT until death. (149)

However, the definition for platinum sensitivity to 1st line PDCT differed between the papers. In paper III, the "sensitive" subgroup only included patients that relapsed after PDCT and had a PFS of longer than 180 days after start of 1st line, since the aim was to evaluate the cases that were eligible for re-challenge. In paper IV the "sensitive" subgroup included all patients with a PFS of longer than 90 days after completion of PDCT, regardless if relapse occurred, since the aim was to investigate the sensitivity of platinum CT with regards to biomarkers.

3.4 Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry (IHC) is an established routine diagnostic method that uses antibodies to detect the localization and staining patterns of proteins in a tumor specimen. (150, 151) This diagnostic method is widely available and cost-efficient with a rapid turnaround time, making it the foundation of diagnosing SCLC. (151) In paper IV, the protein expression was determined using IHC on 4-µm-thick formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) sections. (152) The Notch1, Hes1, and Ascl1 antibodies were applied manually, and several concentrations for each antibody were tested on human SCLC control cases in order to determine the optimal concentration. Two DLL3 antibodies were also tested using western blot and IHC, with poor results. (153) Therefore, when the automated immunostaining instrument (Ventana platform) for the DLL3 antibody became commercially available, it was used for paper IV. (154, 155)

The FFPE sections were de-paraffinized in xylene and rehydrated in alcohol. To visualize the primary antibody binding a secondary antibody was applied. For each case, one hematoxylin-eosin staining was performed and a positive/negative control for each biomarker was performed according to the manufacturer's instruction. (156)

The IHC evaluations was performed by one pathologist (L.K), who was blinded to the clinical data. The number of positive tumor cells was counted under high magnification (x20 and x40). The tumor cells were counted in a quantitative manner and three random and non-overlapping fields (with approximately 100 tumor cells per field, a total of 300 tumor cells per specimen). (157) The scoring of IHC staining were made into four categories according to the number of positive tumor cells stained; 0: No positive cells, 1; ≥1-25% positive cells, 2; ≥26-50 % positive cells, 3; ≥51-75% cells, 4; ≥76% positive cells. The staining intensity was defined as any positivity in the tumor cells of each specimen as previously described. (158, 159)

Of the analyzed markers only DLL3 had a previously established cut-off between low vs. high expression (more or less than 50% of neoplastic cells, respectively). (140) For the other markers; Notch1, Hes1, and Ascl1, a cut-off was established based on sensitivity to PDCT using a dichotomizing score with receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis. The hypothesis was that Notch1 and Hes1 high expression would be more "refractory" to PDCT, while Ascl1 high expression be more "sensitive" to PDCT. The most statistically significant cutoff for each biomarker was defined as the point on the ROC curve giving the smallest distance to the point; 1-specificity, sensitivity = (0,1). (160)

3.5 Statistical analysis

Two statisticians analyzed the data collected for paper I-IV in the thesis. Established prognostic clinical factors for each paper were included in uni- and multi- variate cox regression analysis using hazard ratio (HR) of 95% confidence interval (CI). Statistical significance was defined as $p< 0.05$. (161) For paper II, III, and IV, the survival models were compiled with the Kaplan-Meier curves and the log-rank test. (162) The correlation between the different biomarkers in paper IV was analyzed using Pearson's correlation coefficient. (163)

Statistical analysis presented in paper II was performed using the JMP software version 5.1.2, while R 3.5 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) was used in paper I and III. The statistical analyses for paper IV was carried out using SPSS© version 25 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA).

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 The influence of educational level on outcome of SCLC patients (Paper I)

Paper I aimed to explore a potential association in SCLC patients between educational level and death. This included examining if educational level influenced management, lead times, and prognosis of SCLC patients over a 10-year period. These research topics had not previously been explored in a SCLC cohort.

We identified a large number of patients for this nationwide register-based study (n=4256). The median age at diagnosis was 69 years (Interquartile range of 64-75), 50.3% were women, and the majority of patients were diagnosed with ED (74.4%). Over 50% of cases had low education, while 39% had a medium level of education and 11% of the patients were categorized as having high education.

The study had a number of key findings. With respect to lead time and treatment patterns, there were no significant differences between patients with low, medium, and high educational levels.

However, educational level was found to influence prognosis in certain populations groups. Men with a high educational level had a better prognosis (high versus low: HR 0.84, 95% CI 0.73-0.98). This association was not observed in women. (HR 0.92, 95% CI 0.78-1.09). The reason men with a lower education had a worse prognosis may be explained by the rate of smoking cessation after diagnosis. Men with a low education were more likely to continue smoking post-diagnosis compared to those with high education in a previous study. (164) It is known that continued smoking after being diagnosed with LC reduces the efficacy of oncological treatments and therefore could result in a worse prognosis. (165, 166) This explanation is a hypothesis, since data on smoking cessation could not be obtained from the registries.

High educational level was also a statistically significant prognostic factor in LD patients (HR 0.76, 95 % CI; 0.58-0.98). This was not found in ED patients. Since SCLC often relapse after curative intended treatment, the adherence to follow-up visits and radiological scans are crucial. It could be speculated that lower educated patients may lack knowledge on the importance of follow-up visits, especially if clinical symptoms related to relapse appears.

The underlying causes contributing to differences between educational level remain unclear, but have been discussed in relation to management of the disease and the role of the healthcare system. (23) This study found that socioeconomic differences exist in SCLC patients, which is in accordance with reports on patients with other cancer diagnoses. (20)

In addition to exploring educational level the study investigated other SEI factors, such as cohabitations status. A poorer prognosis was observed in women living alone (HR 1.15, 95% CI; 1.05-1.26), which was not seen in men. This is in contrast to results from other studies

where it was shown that cohabitation status was a more important prognostic factor in men. (167)

The strengths of this study were that almost all SCLC patients from 2002 to 2011 were included in the study and large amounts of patient data for these patients could be analyzed. A limitation was that data on smoking cessation could not be obtained from the registries. Another limitation was that the study only included patients diagnosed until 2011, which limits the extrapolation of data to today's setting, since there is a trend towards patients receiving more consolidating RT and less PCI during the past decade. (36)

4.2 Validation of the 8th TNM classification for SCLC in a retrospective study from Sweden (Paper II)

The applicability of the TNM classification system has previously been studied mainly on small cohorts with stage I and II disease. (168-170) The results from these studies do not extrapolate to a majority of SCLC cases, since they are predominantly diagnosed with stage IV disease. (171) **Paper II** included a large patient cohort (n= 706), with most patients having locally advanced or metastatic disease. The aim of this study was to investigate if the 8th TNM edition can be used to classify SCLC patients and compare its prognostic performance to the older TNM editions and the VALSG definitions.

The results from this study showed that tumor size (T) and nodal involvement (N) were important prognostic subgroups in the 8th TNM edition, with poorer prognosis observed in patients with larger tumors or more extensive nodular involvement. The proportion of SCLC patients with a single metastasis (M1b) was low, as expected, since SCLC usually presents with a larger metastatic burden. Patients with a M1b disease had a better prognosis compared to subjects with pleural dissemination or multiple extrathoracic metastasis, M1a and M1c, respectively. In recent years, the concept of oligometastatic disease has been incorporated into clinical trials for NSCLC patients were survival outcomes have improved in patients treated aggressively with local therapies such as stereotactic body radiation therapy (SBRT) compared to observation. (172) Patients with M1a disease had similar prognosis with M1c, illustrating the difficulty of treating SCLC patients with pleural dissemination.

The proportion of stage I and II patients was low in this study, which makes the results from these subgroups difficult to interpret. In previous reports, stage I and II patients, had a better prognosis compared to advanced stage disease. (173) A large proportion of patients migrated to three new stage subgroups in the 8th TNM edition; IIIC, IVA, and IVB, which illustrates the importance of these subgroups. Patients with stage IIIC disease had a poor prognosis, similar to stage IVA disease. This illustrates the difficulty of effectively treating subjects with CRT that have a large primary tumor (T3-T4) and extensive lymph nodal involvement (N3-disease). (35)

This study showed that the 8th TNM edition was an independent statistically significant prognostic factor for SCLC patients after adjusting for clinical characteristics in the multi-variate analysis. Given that most SCLC patients are diagnosed with locally advanced or

metastatic disease, the 8th TNM edition will not frequently alter the clinical management. Nevertheless, the 8th TNM edition should be incorporated into clinical research since more precise classification of subgroups could influence treatment approaches in the future.

4.3 Treatment patterns and survival outcomes for SCLC patients – a Swedish single center cohort study (Paper III)

Paper III was an RWD analysis of a large patient cohort (n=544) treated at Karolinska University Hospital and diagnosed between 2008-2016. The aim was to evaluate the treatment patterns and survival outcomes from Karolinska University Hospital compared to other studies.

The survival outcomes of patients with ED in paper III were similar to previous studies. (35, 117) However, the survival of patients with locally advanced disease was shorter compared to a large RCT. (174) One explanation for the discrepancy may be that monitoring of patients in a RCT is more intense, with more frequent follow-up visits and radiological scans, which subsequently leads to longer survival. (144) The number of patients that did not show signs of relapse was similar with historical data. (175)

The survival outcomes for 2nd and 3rd line therapies, regardless of initial stage of disease, were very poor, illustrating the difficulty in treating patients after relapse occurs. (115) The main reasons for these results are that resistance mechanisms occurs rapidly in the course of the disease, together with a deteriorating PS. This can also in part explain the failure of molecular targeted agents and immunotherapies in the 2nd and 3rd line setting. (35, 115)

The evidence of using re-challenge with PDCT is based on retrospective studies. (115, 119) In paper III, both LD and ED patients with Sensitive relapse (Sr) after PDCT had a longer median OS compared to the Resistant relapse (Rr) subgroup. Therefore, the length of PFS after 1st line PDCT can be a predictor for prognosis for 2nd line CT in both LD and ED patients. Patients without treatment for a longer time period may have a better PS when relapses occur compared to those with a shorter relapse-free interval. This enables the patient to better tolerate the next line of CT which may result in a longer survival. Another reason could be that the tumor has not developed platinum-resistance yet. (119)

There were no significant differences in survival outcomes between CT regimens used in the monotherapy setting.

Paper III had several limitations, including that data on tumor responses was not collected. Different radiological modalities were used and strict criteria to evaluate the treatment were therefore not feasible to carry out. Furthermore, there was an inconsistency between patients with regards to the timing of assessing the treatment response, with radiological scans performed after two up to five cycles of CT.

4.4 The prognostic implications of Notch1, Hes1, Ascl1, and DLL3 protein expression in SCLC patients receiving platinum-based chemotherapy (Paper IV)

In **Paper IV** the protein expression of Notch1, Hes1, Ascl1, and DLL3 were analyzed in biopsies of SCLC patients and their correlation to PDCT sensitivity as well as prognosis was investigated. These four biomarkers have not, to the best of our knowledge, been studied in the same cohort previously. (158, 176, 177)

The results showed that Hes1, Ascl1, and DLL3 expression was found in most cases, while Notch1 expression was absent in the majority of samples. Both findings were in accordance to previous studies. (71, 154, 158, 177) A positive staining in the nucleus or cytoplasm was observed for Notch1, Hes1 and Ascl1, while DLL3 staining was confined to the plasma membrane. These staining patterns were in accordance with previous reports. (158, 176, 177)

We found that Notch1 expression was an independent prognostic factors in the multi-variate analysis and that patients with Notch1-low tumor expression had a favorable prognosis. Notch1 expression has previously been linked to chemotherapy refractoriness consistent with a potential pro-tumorigenic role, which is in accordance with our results. (77) However, in another study on surgically resected SCLC samples (n=125), low Notch1 expression was an unfavorable prognostic factor. (177) These conflicting results highlights the need to future investigate the role of Notch1 with respect to PDCT sensitivity and prognosis in SCLC patients. Furthermore, a negative association between Notch1 and Ascl1 expression was found. This finding is supported by an earlier study which mechanistically reported that Ascl1 has the ability to reduce Notch1 at both transcription and post-translational level, the latter by protein degradation. (67)

Hes1 expression was positive for most cases in paper IV, which substantiate *in vitro* results from a SCLC cell line where Hes1 expression was found in cell lines with neuroendocrine features. (178) Furthermore, there was no significant association between Hes1 and Notch1 expression, which indicates that Hes1 expression is not solely regulated by Notch1. (76)

A predictive or prognostic role of Ascl1 or DLL3 with regards to PDCT and OS was not observed in this study, in accordance with earlier reports. (154, 176)

The results in paper IV are difficult to compare to previous studies, since this study mainly included stage IV patients while previous reports have investigated patients with surgically resected primary tumors. (35, 154, 176)

In paper IV, a single diagnostic technique (IHC) was performed, which has been the most important diagnostic technique for SCLC diagnosis for decades. (151) However, the rapid development of more extensive testing is ongoing, including whole genome sequencing techniques which is illustrated by the human protein atlas and the proposed human tumor atlas. (179, 180) These growing databases will hopefully result in identifying new signaling pathways that can be targeted with small molecules that have improved efficacy and better toxicity profile compared to today's standard of care. The highly complex biology behind

SCLC is yet to be fully understood, but it is clear that the Notch signaling pathway has an important role in both the development and resistance mechanisms in SCLC. (67, 72) Future studies on ADCs targeting the DLL3 expression are ongoing, which will hopefully generate more effective drugs for SCLC patients. (86)

5 Conclusions

Paper I showed that a lower level of education in men and LD SCLC patients was associated with a poorer prognosis compared to individuals with a high level of education. Future studies need to address these findings in order to minimize the discrepancies in survival outcomes between educational groups in SCLC.

Paper II reiterated that the stage of SCLC is the most important prognostic factor for the disease. The 8th TNM edition provided an improvement in the nomenclature to describe characteristics of the tumor size and metastatic patterns as well as distinguish subgroups in SCLC. Further prospective studies are required to confirm the results of paper II.

Understanding the outcomes and management for 1st, 2nd, and 3rd line CT and RT in **paper III** both informs and reflects clinical practice. The results emphasize the need for improving treatment options in SCLC, in all lines of therapy but especially for the majority of patients who eventually relapses after 1st line therapy.

Paper IV focused on expression analysis of multiple proteins involved in the Notch signaling pathway. Notch1 was found to be a significant prognostic biomarker, which needs to be further validated on larger cohorts. DLL3 expression was positively stained in a majority of cases and this supports the notion that DLL3 continues to be a promising target.

6 Future Perspectives

Despite advancements in understanding basic and clinical research regarding SCLC during the past decade, several questions remain to be answered in order to improve treatment options for this deadly disease.

Strategies to achieve equal management for SCLC patients with different educational levels include more attention from healthcare professionals and a standardized program, which monitors compliance to treatment and offers social support. In order to improve the survival outcomes of SCLC patients, there is also a need to further understand the patterns of smoking cessation after SCLC diagnosis.

The lack of new drugs for SCLC has been unsatisfactory during the past decades. (36) However, a new wave of enthusiasm has emerged in the field. The knowledge regarding survival outcomes and treatment patterns are important when designing clinical trials with the aim of improving the prognosis for SCLC patients.

Enrolling a higher proportion of SCLC patients into clinical trials with obligatory biomarker analysis will be crucial to achieving better survival outcomes. This will require an active role of physicians treating SCLC patients as well as easing of eligibility requirements for clinical trials. SCLC is a very challenging disease to treat; however, my opinion is that the future for this disease seems brighter than its past.

7 Acknowledgements

First of all, I want to sincerely thank all patients involved in this PhD thesis. Without their contribution, my projects would not have been possible. I also want to thank the Swedish cancer society, Stockholm cancer society, Stockholm county council, Karolinska FOUU funding for their financial support.

I also want to thank all my collaborators and co-authors who have made my thesis possible. I could spend another book writing about each one of them, but for the sake of brevity, there are some people I want to especially thank for their contributions:

Dr. De Petris, for accepting me as a PhD student. I am very grateful for your support and guidance during these years. I have seen you work incredibly hard to combine roles as a leader, clinician, and researcher. Your dedication has inspired me to also work hard and do my very best, and I hope that our collaboration will continue in the future.

Prof. Lewensohn, for providing me with preclinical facilities and sharing your vast experience and vision in the oncology field. We have had many interesting conversations along the way, and you have always believed in me, even in my weakest moments. I appreciate all your efforts in helping me during the PhD.

Dr. Viktorsson, who has helped me with conceptualizing and finalizing the projects. Your knowledge in molecular biology and oncology has been invaluable for my projects. You have shown great interest in helping me reach my goals and pushed me toward finalizing the papers. I appreciate all your efforts and time spent.

Dr. Kanter, who has worked very hard helping me with the laboratory work and shared your vast experience in pathology. You have taught me a lot, and we have shared many long (but always pleasant) days together.

My mentor, **Dr. Dobra**, for your support and help, especially during the first crucial years.

Dr. Yachnin, my friend and colleague, who has always given me valuable feedback and been honest with me regarding my questions and hesitations. I admire you both as a doctor and as a person.

I want to mention some of my colleagues from the Oncology Department; **Prof. Bergh, Prof. Mercke**, **Dr. Rotstein**, **Dr. Foukakis**, **Dr. Wickart, Dr. Cohn Cedermark, Dr. Harmenberg,** who have all mentored me during my time in the clinic. You have all helped me to better understand the complexity of oncology and spurred my interest in the field.

I want to thank all my co-authors; **Prof. Wagenius, Prof. Lambe, Dr. Fang, Dr. Zhang, Dr. Holmqvist, Dr. Pettersson, Dr. Ortiz-Villalón,** for your contributions and efforts in helping me to finalize the projects. You have all taught me a great deal. I also want to thank

the people that helped me with the translational project; **Ms. Malmerfelt, Ms. Kaufeldt,** and **Ms. Bodin**. Your help has been essential in finalizing that project. A special appreciation is due to **Dr. Pettersson,** for giving me important feedback on the projects after my licentiate examination. I really needed the feedback you gave me, and your pedagogical skills helped me understand how to proceed with the projects.

Thank you to my present and former research group members **Dr.Ekman, Prof. Stenke, Dr. Kamali, Dr. Efazat, Dr. Sierakowiak, Dr. Hååg, Dr. Zielinska-Chomeij, Dr. Novak.** I have enjoyed working with all of you and learning from our discussions. Also, a special thank you to **Dr. Rounis** and **Ms Holmqvist** for helping me with the figures.

I want to thank my previous managers; **Dr. Hedman, Dr. Helde Frankling, Dr. Hjelm-Eriksson, Dr. Lagerkrantz and Dr. Costa Svedman** for all your inputs and support over the years. You have all contributed to me finalizing my specialty training in Oncology, and I am very grateful to have worked under your supervision.

I want to thank **Dr. Friesland,** who heads the Department of Oncology, for being a great manager and friend since the very first day I started in oncology. I remember you helping me through difficult situations in my first months, when everything seemed incomprehensible.

Dr. Grozman and **Dr. Tsakonas,** who have been great collaborators and friends during this important period of my life.

I also want to thank my colleagues from Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, where I spent time researching SCLC; firstly, **Prof. Rudin** and **Dr. Lewis** for giving me the opportunity to work at their institution. Also, to my MSK colleagues **Ms. Tully**, **Dr. Sen, Dr. Poirier, Dr. Goffin, Dr. Goos, Dr. Chan, Dr. Wilson, Dr. Demetrio De Souza Franca** and many others, for all your help and support.

Most importantly, I would like to thank my parents, **Michael** and **Anna**. My greatest blessing in life has been one I could not control: having two amazing parents who made great sacrifices to provide a great life for me and my sister, most importantly emigrating from the darkness of the Soviet Union and Poland. Without their love and support this book would not have been possible. They have made me who I am, and I am very thankful to have such caring, loving, and intelligent parents. I love you both very much.

I would also like to thank my dear sister, **Cecilia**, my only sibling, who has been a great friend and support over the years. You have shown me that, with hard work, dedication, and determination, anything is possible. You have been a true inspiration for me, both in my professional and personal life. You have also raised two wonderful children, Isaac and Natalie. I secretly hope that at least one of them will pursue medicine one day, but it's completely up to them!

My grandparents **Deborah, Boris, Salomon and Kristina**, who survived the indescribable horrors of WW2 in eastern Europe and emigrated to Sweden for the rest of the family to have a chance of a better life. Their life story and achievements cannot be explained in a few sentences, but, without them, our family would not have the possibility to live a prosperous life. With this book, I hope that I have made them proud. My grandmother Deborah deserves a special mention for planting a seed in medical research that was somehow passed on to me (as the only one out of four grandchildren). I am especially proud to be presenting this thesis at the Karolinska Institute, which is where she ended her long career in endocrinology at Prof. Rolf Lufts laboratory.

Jacob, my cousin, confidant, and best friend. You have been by my side from the very beginning, and we have shared many wonderful memories together. One of the most cherished features is that you have always been my support system and given me solid advice when I needed it the most. I am sure that our friendship will continue to blossom and that our children will maintain our strong bond.

Sam, my other cousin, was the first of our generation to emigrate almost two decades ago. Your journey has been an inspiration and I truly admire the path you have taken. I know that you have worked very hard to get where you are. You have a wonderful family, and I am very much looking forward to spending more time with you in the future.

I also want to thank my aunt **Miriam** for everything you have done for me over the years, including keeping my wardrobe constantly up-to-date, organizing trips, and teaching me about arts and antiques. You have taught me many things and I hope that, one day, I will be nearly as organized as you.

Finally, I want to thank **Leah**, for being my support system, friend, and confidant during this time.

8 References

1. Torre LA, Bray F, Siegel RL, Ferlay J, Lortet-Tieulent J, Jemal A. Global cancer statistics, 2012. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians. 2015;65(2):87-108.

2. Inamura K. Lung Cancer: Understanding Its Molecular Pathology and the 2015 WHO Classification. Frontiers in oncology. 2017;7:193-.

3. Beasley MB, Brambilla E, Travis WD. The 2004 World Health Organization classification of lung tumors. Seminars in Roentgenology. 2005;40(2):90-7.

4. Houston KA, Henley SJ, Li J, White MC, Richards TB. Patterns in lung cancer incidence rates and trends by histologic type in the United States, 2004-2009. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2014;86(1):22-8.

5. Govindan R, Page N, Morgensztern D, Read W, Tierney R, Vlahiotis A, et al. Changing epidemiology of small-cell lung cancer in the United States over the last 30 years: analysis of the surveillance, epidemiologic, and end results database. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2006;24(28):4539-44.

6. Navada S, Lai P, Schwartz AG, Kalemkerian GP. Temporal trends in small cell lung cancer: Analysis of the national Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End-Results (SEER) database. Journal of Clinical Oncology. 2006;24(18_suppl):7082-.

7. Muscat JE, Wynder EL. Lung cancer pathology in smokers, ex-smokers and never smokers. Cancer letters. 1995;88(1):1-5.

8. Jamal A, King BA, Neff LJ, Whitmill J, Babb SD, Graffunder CM. Current Cigarette Smoking Among Adults - United States, 2005-2015. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2016;65(44):1205-11.

9. Hirsch FR, Matthews MJ, Aisner S, Campobasso O, Elema JD, Gazdar AF, et al. Histopathologic classification of small cell lung cancer. Changing concepts and terminology. Cancer. 1988;62(5):973-7.

10. Barnard WG. The nature of the “oat-celled sarcoma” of the mediastinum. 1926;29(3):241-4.

11. Azzopardi JG. Oat-cell carcinoma of the bronchus. J Pathol Bacteriol. 1959;78:513-9.

12. Guinee DG, Jr., Fishback NF, Koss MN, Abbondanzo SL, Travis WD. The spectrum of immunohistochemical staining of small-cell lung carcinoma in specimens from transbronchial and open-lung biopsies. Am J Clin Pathol. 1994;102(4):406-14.

13. Folpe AL, Gown AM, Lamps LW, Garcia R, Dail DH, Zarbo RJ, et al. Thyroid transcription factor-1: immunohistochemical evaluation in pulmonary neuroendocrine tumors. Modern pathology : an official journal of the United States and Canadian Academy of Pathology, Inc. 1999;12(1):5-8.

14. Messaritakis I, Stoltidis D, Kotsakis A, Dermitzaki E-K, Koinis F, Lagoudaki E, et al. TTF-1- and/or CD56-positive Circulating Tumor Cells in patients with small cell lung cancer (SCLC). Sci Rep. 2017;7:45351-.

15. Thunnissen E, Borczuk AC, Flieder DB, Witte B, Beasley MB, Chung J-H, et al. The Use of Immunohistochemistry Improves the Diagnosis of Small Cell Lung Cancer

and Its Differential Diagnosis. An International Reproducibility Study in a Demanding Set of Cases. Journal of Thoracic Oncology. 2017;12(2):334-46.

16. Barlow L, Westergren K, Holmberg L, Talback M. The completeness of the Swedish Cancer Register: a sample survey for year 1998. Acta oncologica (Stockholm, Sweden). 2009;48(1):27-33.

17. National Cancer Institute. Surveillance e, and end results program. 2016.

18. http://www.who.int/classifications/icd/en/ WHOC.

19. Årsrapport från Nationella Lungcancerregistret 2018. Uppsala SRc, Uppsala Örebro; 2016 October 2016.

20. Berglund A, Holmberg L, Tishelman C, Wagenius G, Eaker S, Lambe M. Social inequalities in non-small cell lung cancer management and survival: a population-based study in central Sweden. 2010;65(4):327-33.

21. Ludvigsson JF, Almqvist C, Bonamy AK, Ljung R, Michaelsson K, Neovius M, et al. Registers of the Swedish total population and their use in medical research. European journal of epidemiology. 2016;31(2):125-36.

22. Brooke HL, Talback M, Hornblad J, Johansson LA, Ludvigsson JF, Druid H, et al. The Swedish cause of death register. European journal of epidemiology. 2017;32(9):765-73.

23. Finke I, Behrens G, Weisser L, Brenner H, Jansen L. Socioeconomic Differences and Lung Cancer Survival-Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Frontiers in oncology. 2018;8:536.

24. Tomic K, Ventimiglia E, Robinson D, Häggström C, Lambe M, Stattin P. Socioeconomic status and diagnosis, treatment, and mortality in men with prostate cancer. Nationwide population-based study. 2018;142(12):2478-84.

25. Crawford SM, Sauerzapf V, Haynes R, Zhao H, Forman D, Jones AP. Social and geographical factors affecting access to treatment of lung cancer. British journal of cancer. 2009;101:897.

26. Eaker S, Halmin M, Bellocco R, Bergkvist L, Ahlgren J, Holmberg L, et al. Social differences in breast cancer survival in relation to patient management within a National Health Care System (Sweden). 2009;124(1):180-7.

27. Radkiewicz C, Dickman PW, Johansson ALV, Wagenius G, Edgren G, Lambe M. Sex and survival in non-small cell lung cancer: A nationwide cohort study. PloS one. 2019;14(6):e0219206.

28. Sarici F, Babacan T, Buyukhatipoglu H, Balakan O, Sever AR, Kertmen N, et al. Correlation of educational status and clinicopathological characteristics of breast cancer: a single center experience. Journal of BUON : official journal of the Balkan Union of Oncology. 2016;21(4):826-31.

29. Liu L, Cozen W, Bernstein L, Ross RK, Deapen D. Changing relationship between socioeconomic status and prostate cancer incidence. Journal of the National Cancer Institute. 2001;93(9):705-9.

30. Willems B, Bracke P. The education gradient in cancer screening participation: a consistent phenomenon across Europe? International journal of public health. 2018;63(1):93-103.

31. Linder G, Sandin F, Johansson J, Lindblad M, Lundell L, Hedberg J. Patient education-level affects treatment allocation and prognosis in esophageal- and gastroesophageal junctional cancer in Sweden. Cancer epidemiology. 2018;52:91-8.

32. Tendler S, Grozman V, Lewensohn R, Tsakonas G, Viktorsson K, De Petris L. Validation of the 8th TNM classification for small-cell lung cancer in a retrospective material from Sweden. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2018;120:75-81.

33. Vallieres E, Shepherd FA, Crowley J, Van Houtte P, Postmus PE, Carney D, et al. The IASLC Lung Cancer Staging Project: proposals regarding the relevance of TNM in the pathologic staging of small cell lung cancer in the forthcoming (seventh) edition of the TNM classification for lung cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2009;4(9):1049-59.

34. Harris K, Khachaturova I, Azab B, Maniatis T, Murukutla S, Chalhoub M, et al. Small Cell Lung Cancer Doubling Time and its Effect on Clinical Presentation: A Concise Review. Clinical Medicine Insights Oncology. 2012;6:199-203.

35. Byers LA, Rudin CM. Small cell lung cancer: where do we go from here? Cancer. 2015;121(5):664-72.

36. Gazdar AF, Bunn PA, Minna JD. Small-cell lung cancer: what we know, what we need to know and the path forward. Nature Reviews Cancer. 2017;17:725.

37. Shepherd FA, Crowley J, Van Houtte P, Postmus PE, Carney D, Chansky K, et al. The International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer lung cancer staging project: proposals regarding the clinical staging of small cell lung cancer in the forthcoming (seventh) edition of the tumor, node, metastasis classification for lung cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2007;2(12):1067-77.

38. Micke P, Faldum A, Metz T, Beeh KM, Bittinger F, Hengstler JG, et al. Staging small cell lung cancer: Veterans Administration Lung Study Group versus International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer--what limits limited disease? Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2002;37(3):271-6.

39. Sherman CA, Rocha Lima CM, Turrisi AT. Limited small-cell lung cancer: a potentially curable disease. Oncology (Williston Park). 2000;14(10):1395-409.

40. Stahel RA, Ginsberg R, Havemann K, Hirsch FR, Ihde DC, Jassem J, et al. Staging and prognostic factors in small cell lung cancer: a consensus report. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 1989;5(4):119-26.

41. Goldstraw P, Crowley JJ. The International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer International Staging Project on Lung Cancer. Journal of Thoracic Oncology. 2006;1(4):281-6.

42. Ou SH, Zell JA. Validation study of the proposed IASLC staging revisions of the T4 and M non-small cell lung cancer descriptors using data from 23,583 patients in the California Cancer Registry. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2008;3(3):216-27.

43. Mirsadraee S, Oswal D, Alizadeh Y, Caulo A, van Beek E, Jr. The 7th lung cancer TNM classification and staging system: Review of the changes and implications. World journal of radiology. 2012;4(4):128-34.

44. Kut V, Spies W, Spies S, Gooding W, Argiris A. Staging and monitoring of small cell lung cancer using [18F]fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose-positron emission tomography (FDG-PET). Am J Clin Oncol. 2007;30(1):45-50.

45. Goldstraw P, Chansky K, Crowley J, Rami-Porta R, Asamura H, Eberhardt WEE, et al. The IASLC Lung Cancer Staging Project: Proposals for Revision of the TNM Stage Groupings in the Forthcoming (Eighth) Edition of the TNM Classification for Lung Cancer. Journal of Thoracic Oncology. 2016;11(1):39-51.

46. Rami-Porta R, Bolejack V, Crowley J, Ball D, Kim J, Lyons G, et al. The IASLC Lung Cancer Staging Project: Proposals for the Revisions of the T Descriptors in the Forthcoming Eighth Edition of the TNM Classification for Lung Cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2015;10(7):990-1003.

47. Eberhardt WE, Mitchell A, Crowley J, Kondo H, Kim YT, Turrisi A, 3rd, et al. The IASLC Lung Cancer Staging Project: Proposals for the Revision of the M Descriptors in the Forthcoming Eighth Edition of the TNM Classification of Lung Cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2015;10(11):1515-22.

48. Detterbeck FC, Bolejack V, Arenberg DA, Crowley J, Donington JS, Franklin WA, et al. The IASLC Lung Cancer Staging Project: Background Data and Proposals for the Classification of Lung Cancer with Separate Tumor Nodules in the Forthcoming Eighth Edition of the TNM Classification for Lung Cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2016;11(5):681-92.

49. Mirsadraee S, Oswal D, Alizadeh Y, Caulo A, van Beek E, Jr. The 7th lung cancer TNM classification and staging system: Review of the changes and implications. World journal of radiology. 2012;4(4):128-34.

50. Carter BW, Glisson BS, Truong MT, Erasmus JJ. Small Cell Lung Carcinoma: Staging, Imaging, and Treatment Considerations. Radiographics : a review publication of the Radiological Society of North America, Inc. 2014;34(6):1707-21.

51. Miele E, Spinelli GP, Tomao F, Zullo A, De Marinis F, Pasciuti G, et al. Positron Emission Tomography (PET) radiotracers in oncology--utility of 18F-Fluoro-deoxy-glucose (FDG)-PET in the management of patients with non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Journal of experimental & clinical cancer research : CR. 2008;27:52.

52. Azad A, Chionh F, Scott AM, Lee ST, Berlangieri SU, White S, et al. High Impact of 18F-FDG-PET on Management and Prognostic Stratification of Newly Diagnosed Small Cell Lung Cancer. 2010;12(4):443-51.

53. Schumacher T, Brink I, Mix M, Reinhardt M, Herget G, Digel W, et al. FDG-PET imaging for the staging and follow-up of small cell lung cancer. European journal of nuclear medicine. 2001;28(4):483-8.

54. Carter BW, Glisson BS, Truong MT, Erasmus JJ. Small Cell Lung Carcinoma: Staging, Imaging, and Treatment Considerations. 2014;34(6):1707-21.

55. Bradley JD, Dehdashti F, Mintun MA, Govindan R, Trinkaus K, Siegel BA. Positron emission tomography in limited-stage small-cell lung cancer: a prospective study. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2004;22(16):3248-54.

56. Hochstenbag MM, Twijnstra A, Wilmink JT, Wouters EF, ten Velde GP. Asymptomatic brain metastases (BM) in small cell lung cancer (SCLC): MR-imaging is useful at initial diagnosis. Journal of neuro-oncology. 2000;48(3):243-8.

57. Seute T, Leffers P, Wilmink JT, ten Velde GP, Twijnstra A. Response of asymptomatic brain metastases from small-cell lung cancer to systemic first-line chemotherapy. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2006;24(13):2079-83.

58. Kristensen CA, Kristjansen PE, Hansen HH. Systemic chemotherapy of brain metastases from small-cell lung cancer: a review. Journal of Clinical Oncology. 1992;10(9):1498-502.

59. Schellinger PD, Meinck HM, Thron A. Diagnostic accuracy of MRI compared to CCT in patients with brain metastases. Journal of neuro-oncology. 1999;44(3):275-81.

60. Peifer M, Fernandez-Cuesta L, Sos ML, George J, Seidel D, Kasper LH, et al. Integrative genome analyses identify key somatic driver mutations of small-cell lung cancer. Nature genetics. 2012;44(10):1104-10.

61. George J, Lim JS, Jang SJ, Cun Y, Ozretic L, Kong G, et al. Comprehensive genomic profiles of small cell lung cancer. Nature. 2015;524(7563):47-53.

62. Peifer M, Fernández-Cuesta L, Sos ML, George J, Seidel D, Kasper LH, et al. Integrative genome analyses identify key somatic driver mutations of small-cell lung cancer. Nature genetics. 2012;44(10):1104-10.

63. Rudin CM, Poirier JT, Byers LA, Dive C, Dowlati A, George J, et al. Molecular subtypes of small cell lung cancer: a synthesis of human and mouse model data. Nature Reviews Cancer. 2019;19(5):289-97.

64. Huang YH, Klingbeil O, He XY, Wu XS, Arun G, Lu B, et al. POU2F3 is a master regulator of a tuft cell-like variant of small cell lung cancer. Genes & development. 2018;32(13-14):915-28.

65. McColl K, Wildey G, Sakre N, Lipka MB, Behtaj M, Kresak A, et al. Reciprocal expression of INSM1 and YAP1 defines subgroups in small cell lung cancer. Oncotarget. 2017;8(43):73745-56.

66. Ito T, Kudoh S, Ichimura T, Fujino K, Hassan WAMA, Udaka NJHC. Small cell lung cancer, an epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT)-like cancer: significance of inactive Notch signaling and expression of achaete-scute complex homologue 1. 2017;30(1):1-10.

67. Marignol LJTCR. Notch signalling: the true driver of small cell lung cancer? 2017. 2017:S1191-S6.

68. Wael H, Yoshida R, Kudoh S, Hasegawa K, Niimori-Kita K, Ito T. Notch1 signaling controls cell proliferation, apoptosis and differentiation in lung carcinoma. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2014;85(2):131-40.

69. Müller CSL. Notch signaling and malignant melanoma. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2012;727:258-64.

70. Graziani I, Eliasz S, De Marco MA, Chen Y, Pass HI, De May RM, et al. Opposite effects of Notch-1 and Notch-2 on mesothelioma cell survival under hypoxia are exerted through the Akt pathway. Cancer research. 2008;68(23):9678-85.

71. Ito T. Intratumoral heterogeneity of Notch1 expression in small cell lung cancer. J Thorac Dis. 2018;10(3):1272-5.

72. Leonetti A, Facchinetti F, Minari R, Cortellini A, Rolfo CD, Giovannetti E, et al. Notch pathway in small-cell lung cancer: from preclinical evidence to therapeutic challenges. Cellular Oncology. 2019;42(3):261-73.

73. Sriuranpong V, Borges MW, Ravi RK, Arnold DR, Nelkin BD, Baylin SB, et al. Notch signaling induces cell cycle arrest in small cell lung cancer cells. Cancer research. 2001;61(7):3200-5.

74. Tilley AE, Harvey BG, Heguy A, Hackett NR, Wang R, O'Connor TP, et al. Down-regulation of the notch pathway in human airway epithelium in association with smoking and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine. 2009;179(6):457-66.

75. Mumm JS, Schroeter EH, Saxena MT, Griesemer A, Tian X, Pan DJ, et al. A ligand-induced extracellular cleavage regulates gamma-secretase-like proteolytic activation of Notch1. Molecular cell. 2000;5(2):197-206.

76. Nowell CS, Radtke F. Notch as a tumour suppressor. Nature Reviews Cancer. 2017;17(3):145-59.

77. Lim JS, Ibaseta A, Fischer MM, Cancilla B, O'Young G, Cristea S, et al. Intratumoural heterogeneity generated by Notch signalling promotes small-cell lung cancer. Nature. 2017;545(7654):360-4.

78. Henrique D, Schweisguth F. Mechanisms of Notch signaling: a simple logic deployed in time and space. 2019;146(3):dev172148.

79. D'Souza B, Miyamoto A, Weinmaster G. The many facets of Notch ligands. Oncogene. 2008;27(38):5148-67.

80. Borromeo MD, Savage TK, Kollipara RK, He M, Augustyn A, Osborne JK, et al. ASCL1 and NEUROD1 Reveal Heterogeneity in Pulmonary Neuroendocrine Tumors and Regulate Distinct Genetic Programs. Cell reports. 2016;16(5):1259-72.

81. Saunders LR, Bankovich AJ, Anderson WC, Aujay MA, Bheddah S, Black K, et al. A DLL3-targeted antibody-drug conjugate eradicates high-grade pulmonary neuroendocrine tumor-initiating cells in vivo. Science translational medicine. 2015;7(302):302ra136-302ra136.

82. Augustyn A, Borromeo M, Wang T, Fujimoto J, Shao C, Dospoy PD, et al. ASCL1 is a lineage oncogene providing therapeutic targets for high-grade neuroendocrine lung cancers. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2014;111(41):14788-93.

83. Ball DW. Achaete-scute homolog-1 and Notch in lung neuroendocrine development and cancer. Cancer letters. 2004;204(2):159-69.

84. Collins BJ, Kleeberger W, Ball DW. Notch in lung development and lung cancer. Seminars in Cancer Biology. 2004;14(5):357-64.

85. Ito T, Udaka N, Okudela K, Yazawa T, Kitamura HJEP. Mechanisms of neuroendocrine differentiation in pulmonary neuroendocrine cells and small cell carcinoma. 2003;14(2):133-9.

86. Owen DH, Giffin MJ, Bailis JM, Smit M-AD, Carbone DP, He K. DLL3: an emerging target in small cell lung cancer. Journal of hematology & oncology. 2019;12(1):61-.

87. del Álamo D, Rouault H, Schweisguth F. Mechanism and Significance of cis-Inhibition in Notch Signalling. Current Biology. 2011;21(1):R40-R7.

88. Geffers I, Serth K, Chapman G, Jaekel R, Schuster-Gossler K, Cordes R, et al. Divergent functions and distinct localization of the Notch ligands DLL1 and DLL3 in vivo. 2007;178(3):465-76.

89. De Ruysscher D, Pijls-Johannesma M, Vansteenkiste J, Kester A, Rutten I, Lambin P. Systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised, controlled trials of the timing of chest radiotherapy in patients with limited-stage, small-cell lung cancer. Ann Oncol. 2006;17(4):543-52.

90. Marr AS, Ganti AK. Resected small cell lung cancer-what do we do next? Ann Transl Med. 2016;4(15):288-.

91. Yang CF, Chan DY, Speicher PJ, Gulack BC, Wang X, Hartwig MG, et al. Role of Adjuvant Therapy in a Population-Based Cohort of Patients With Early-Stage Small-Cell Lung Cancer. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2016;34(10):1057-64.

92. Yu JB, Decker RH, Detterbeck FC, Wilson LD. Surveillance epidemiology and end results evaluation of the role of surgery for stage I small cell lung cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2010;5(2):215-9.

93. Rossi AJTCR. Adjuvant therapy in early-stage small-cell lung cancer: what's new? 2016. 2016:S166-S9.

94. Pignon JP, Arriagada R, Ihde DC, Johnson DH, Perry MC, Souhami RL, et al. A meta-analysis of thoracic radiotherapy for small-cell lung cancer. The New England journal of medicine. 1992;327(23):1618-24.

95. Warde P, Payne D. Does thoracic irradiation improve survival and local control in limited-stage small-cell carcinoma of the lung? A meta-analysis. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 1992;10(6):890-5.

96. Fried DB, Morris DE, Poole C, Rosenman JG, Halle JS, Detterbeck FC, et al. Systematic review evaluating the timing of thoracic radiation therapy in combined modality therapy for limited-stage small-cell lung cancer. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2004;22(23):4837-45.

97. Amini A, Byers LA, Welsh JW, Komaki RU. Progress in the management of limited-stage small cell lung cancer. Cancer. 2014;120(6):790-8.

98. Turrisi AT, 3rd, Kim K, Blum R, Sause WT, Livingston RB, Komaki R, et al. Twice-daily compared with once-daily thoracic radiotherapy in limited small-cell lung cancer treated concurrently with cisplatin and etoposide. The New England journal of medicine. 1999;340(4):265-71.

99. Auperin A, Arriagada R, Pignon JP, Le Pechoux C, Gregor A, Stephens RJ, et al. Prophylactic cranial irradiation for patients with small-cell lung cancer in complete remission. Prophylactic Cranial Irradiation Overview Collaborative Group. The New England journal of medicine. 1999;341(7):476-84.

100. Meert AP, Paesmans M, Berghmans T, Martin B, Mascaux C, Vallot F, et al. Prophylactic cranial irradiation in small cell lung cancer: a systematic review of the literature with meta-analysis. BMC cancer. 2001;1:5.

101. Horn L, Mansfield AS, Szczęsna A, Havel L, Krzakowski M, Hochmair MJ, et al. First-Line Atezolizumab plus Chemotherapy in Extensive-Stage Small-Cell Lung Cancer. 2018;379(23):2220-9.

102. Pacheco J, Bunn PA. Advancements in Small-cell Lung Cancer: The Changing Landscape Following IMpower-133. Clinical lung cancer. 2019;20(3):148-60.e2.

103. Roth BJ, Johnson DH, Einhorn LH, Schacter LP, Cherng NC, Cohen HJ, et al. Randomized study of cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, and vincristine versus etoposide and cisplatin versus alternation of these two regimens in extensive small-cell lung cancer: a phase III trial of the Southeastern Cancer Study Group. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 1992;10(2):282-91.

104. Fukuoka M, Furuse K, Saijo N, Nishiwaki Y, Ikegami H, Tamura T, et al. Randomized trial of cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, and vincristine versus cisplatin and etoposide versus alternation of these regimens in small-cell lung cancer. Journal of the National Cancer Institute. 1991;83(12):855-61.

105. Sundstrom S, Bremnes RM, Kaasa S, Aasebo U, Hatlevoll R, Dahle R, et al. Cisplatin and etoposide regimen is superior to cyclophosphamide, epirubicin, and vincristine regimen in small-cell lung cancer: results from a randomized phase III trial with 5 years' follow-up. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2002;20(24):4665-72.

106. Karam I, Jiang SY, Khaira M, Lee CW, Schellenberg D. Outcomes of Small Cell Lung Cancer Patients Treated With Cisplatin-Etoposide Versus Carboplatin-Etoposide. 2015;38(1):51-4.

107. Rossi A, Di Maio M, Chiodini P, Rudd RM, Okamoto H, Skarlos DV, et al. Carboplatin- or cisplatin-based chemotherapy in first-line treatment of small-cell lung cancer: the COCIS meta-analysis of individual patient data. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2012;30(14):1692-8.

108. Noda K, Nishiwaki Y, Kawahara M, Negoro S, Sugiura T, Yokoyama A, et al. Irinotecan plus cisplatin compared with etoposide plus cisplatin for extensive small-cell lung cancer. The New England journal of medicine. 2002;346(2):85-91.

109. Hanna N, Bunn PA, Jr., Langer C, Einhorn L, Guthrie T, Jr., Beck T, et al. Randomized phase III trial comparing irinotecan/cisplatin with etoposide/cisplatin in patients with previously untreated extensive-stage disease small-cell lung cancer. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2006;24(13):2038-43.

110. Lara PN, Jr., Natale R, Crowley J, Lenz HJ, Redman MW, Carleton JE, et al. Phase III trial of irinotecan/cisplatin compared with etoposide/cisplatin in extensive-stage small-cell lung cancer: clinical and pharmacogenomic results from SWOG S0124. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2009;27(15):2530-5.

111. Zatloukal P, Cardenal F, Szczesna A, Gorbunova V, Moiseyenko V, Zhang X, et al. A multicenter international randomized phase III study comparing cisplatin in combination with irinotecan or etoposide in previously untreated small-cell lung cancer patients with extensive disease. Ann Oncol. 2010;21(9):1810-6.

112. Oronsky B, Reid TR, Oronsky A, Carter CA. What's New in SCLC? A Review. Neoplasia. 2017;19(10):842-7.

113. Allen J, Jahanzeb M. Extensive-Stage Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Evolution of Systemic Therapy and Future Directions. Clinical lung cancer. 2008;9(5):262-70.

114. Shiozawa T, Sekine I, Aida Y, Watanabe H, Nakazawa K, Kurishima K, et al. Rechallenge with First-Line Platinum Chemotherapy for Sensitive-Relapsed Small-Cell Lung Cancer. Case reports in oncology. 2018;11(3):622-32.

115. Coutinho AD, Shah M, Lunacsek OE, Eaddy M, Willey JP. Real-world treatment patterns and outcomes of patients with small cell lung cancer progressing after 2 lines of therapy. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2019;127:53-8.

116. Rossi A. Relapsed small-cell lung cancer: platinum re-challenge or not. J Thorac Dis. 2016;8(9):2360-4.

117. Genestreti G, Tiseo M, Kenmotsu H, Kazushige W, Di Battista M, Cavallo G, et al. Outcomes of Platinum-Sensitive Small-Cell Lung Cancer Patients Treated With Platinum/Etoposide Rechallenge: A Multi-Institutional Retrospective Analysis. Clinical lung cancer. 2015;16(6):e223-8.

118. Chan BA, Coward JIG. Chemotherapy advances in small-cell lung cancer. J Thorac Dis. 2013;5 Suppl 5(Suppl 5):S565-S78.

119. Garassino MC, Torri V, Michetti G, Lo Dico M, La Verde N, Aglione S, et al. Outcomes of small-cell lung cancer patients treated with second-line chemotherapy: a multi-institutional retrospective analysis. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2011;72(3):378-83.

120. Inoue A, Sugawara S, Maemondo M, Mori Y, Oizumi S, Harada M, et al. Randomized phase II trial comparing amrubicin with re-challenge of platinum doublet in patients with sensitive-relapsed small-cell lung cancer: North Japan Lung Cancer Study Group trial 0702. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2015;89(1):61-5.

121. Pietanza MC, Kadota K, Huberman K, Sima CS, Fiore JJ, Sumner DK, et al. Phase II trial of temozolomide in patients with relapsed sensitive or refractory small cell lung cancer, with assessment of methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase as a potential biomarker. Clinical cancer research : an official journal of the American Association for Cancer Research. 2012;18(4):1138-45.

122. Smit EF, Fokkema E, Biesma B, Groen HJ, Snoek W, Postmus PE. A phase II study of paclitaxel in heavily pretreated patients with small-cell lung cancer. British journal of cancer. 1998;77(2):347-51.

123. Hoang T, Kim K, Jaslowski A, Koch P, Beatty P, McGovern J, et al. Phase II study of second-line gemcitabine in sensitive or refractory small cell lung cancer. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2003;42(1):97-102.

124. Masters GA, Declerck L, Blanke C, Sandler A, DeVore R, Miller K, et al. Phase II trial of gemcitabine in refractory or relapsed small-cell lung cancer: Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group Trial 1597. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2003;21(8):1550-5.

125. Slotman BJ, van Tinteren H, Praag JO, Knegjens JL, El Sharouni SY, Hatton M, et al. Use of thoracic radiotherapy for extensive stage small-cell lung cancer: a phase 3 randomised controlled trial. Lancet. 2015;385(9962):36-42.

126. Jeremic B, Shibamoto Y, Nikolic N, Milicic B, Milisavljevic S, Dagovic A, et al. Role of radiation therapy in the combined-modality treatment of patients with extensive disease small-cell lung cancer: A randomized study. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 1999;17(7):2092-9.

127. Takahashi T, Yamanaka T, Seto T, Harada H, Nokihara H, Saka H, et al. Prophylactic cranial irradiation versus observation in patients with extensive-disease small-cell lung cancer: a multicentre, randomised, open-label, phase 3 trial. The Lancet Oncology. 2017;18(5):663-71.

128. Slotman BJ, Faivre-Finn C, Kramer GW, Rankin E, Snee M, Hatton M, et al. [Prophylactic cranial irradiation in patients with extensive disease caused by small-cell lung cancer responsive to chemotherapy: fewer symptomatic brain metastases and improved survival]. Nederlands tijdschrift voor geneeskunde. 2008;152(17):1000-4.

129. Ready N, Farago AF, de Braud F, Atmaca A, Hellmann MD, Schneider JG, et al. Third-Line Nivolumab Monotherapy in Recurrent SCLC: CheckMate 032. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2019;14(2):237-44.

130. Nair BS, Bhanderi V, Jafri SH. Current and emerging pharmacotherapies for the treatment of relapsed small cell lung cancer. Clin Med Insights Oncol. 2011;5:223-34.

131. Schneider BJ. Maintenance sunitinib for extensive-stage small cell lung cancer: a new standard, an option or a step in the right direction? Transl Lung Cancer Res. 2015;4(5):635-8.

132. Ready NE, Pang HH, Gu L, Otterson GA, Thomas SP, Miller AA, et al. Chemotherapy With or Without Maintenance Sunitinib for Untreated Extensive-Stage Small-Cell Lung Cancer: A Randomized, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Phase II Study-CALGB 30504 (Alliance). Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2015;33(15):1660-5.

133. Sharp A, Bhosle J, Abdelraouf F, Popat S, O'Brien M, Yap TA. Development of molecularly targeted agents and immunotherapies in small cell lung cancer. European journal of cancer (Oxford, England : 1990). 2016;60:26-39.

134. Ready NE, Dudek AZ, Pang HH, Hodgson LD, Graziano SL, Green MR, et al. Cisplatin, irinotecan, and bevacizumab for untreated extensive-stage small-cell lung cancer: CALGB 30306, a phase II study. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2011;29(33):4436-41.

135. Han J-Y, Kim HY, Lim KY, Han JH, Lee YJ, Kwak MH, et al. A phase II study of sunitinib in patients with relapsed or refractory small cell lung cancer. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2013;79(2):137-42.

136. Tiseo M, Boni L, Ambrosio F, Camerini A, Baldini E, Cinieri S, et al. Italian, Multicenter, Phase III, Randomized Study of Cisplatin Plus Etoposide With or Without Bevacizumab as First-Line Treatment in Extensive-Disease Small-Cell Lung Cancer: The GOIRC-AIFA FARM6PMFJM Trial. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2017;35(12):1281-7.

137. Tarhini A, Kotsakis A, Gooding W, Shuai Y, Petro D, Friedland D, et al. Phase II Study of Everolimus (RAD001) in Previously Treated Small Cell Lung Cancer. 2010;16(23):5900-7.

138. Pandya KJ, Dahlberg S, Hidalgo M, Cohen RB, Lee MW, Schiller JH, et al. A Randomized, Phase II Trial of Two Dose Levels of Temsirolimus (CCI-779) in Patients with Extensive-Stage Small-Cell Lung Cancer Who Have Responding or Stable Disease after Induction Chemotherapy: A Trial of the Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (E1500). Journal of Thoracic Oncology. 2007;2(11):1036-41.

139. Moore AM, Einhorn LH, Estes D, Govindan R, Axelson J, Vinson J, et al. Gefitinib in patients with chemo-sensitive and chemo-refractory relapsed small cell cancers: A Hoosier Oncology Group phase II trial. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2006;52(1):93-7.

140. Rudin CM, Pietanza MC, Bauer TM, Ready N, Morgensztern D, Glisson BS, et al. Rovalpituzumab tesirine, a DLL3-targeted antibody-drug conjugate, in recurrent small-cell lung cancer: a first-in-human, first-in-class, open-label, phase 1 study. The Lancet Oncology. 2017;18(1):42-51.

141. Morgensztern D, Besse B, Greillier L, Santana-Davila R, Ready N, Hann CL, et al. Efficacy and Safety of Rovalpituzumab Tesirine in Third-Line and Beyond Patients with DLL3-Expressing, Relapsed/Refractory Small-Cell Lung Cancer: Results From the Phase II TRINITY Study. Clinical cancer research : an official journal of the American Association for Cancer Research. 2019;25(23):6958-66.

142. Phase 3 Trial of Rova-T as Second-line Therapy for Advanced Small-Cell Lung Cancer (TAHOE Study) Halted [press release]. North Chicago IA.

143. Cave A, Kurz X, Arlett P. Real-World Data for Regulatory Decision Making: Challenges and Possible Solutions for Europe. Clin Pharmacol Ther. 2019;106(1):36-9.

144. Povsic M, Enstone A, Wyn R, Kornalska K, Penrod JR, Yuan Y. Real-world effectiveness and tolerability of small-cell lung cancer (SCLC) treatments: A systematic literature review (SLR). PloS one. 2019;14(7):e0219622-e.

145. Lakdawalla DN, Shafrin J, Hou N, Peneva D, Vine S, Park J, et al. Predicting Real-World Effectiveness of Cancer Therapies Using Overall Survival and Progression-Free Survival from Clinical Trials: Empirical Evidence for the ASCO Value Framework. Value Health. 2017;20(7):866-75.

146. Lakdawalla DN, Shafrin J, Hou N, Peneva D, Vine S, Park J, et al. Predicting Real-World Effectiveness of Cancer Therapies Using Overall Survival and Progression-Free Survival from Clinical Trials: Empirical Evidence for the ASCO Value Framework. Value in Health. 2017;20(7):866-75.

147. Wang H, Zhang J, Shi F, Zhang C, Jiao Q, Zhu H. Better cancer specific survival in young small cell lung cancer patients especially with AJCC stage III. Oncotarget. 2017;8(21):34923-34.

148. Owonikoko TK, Ragin CC, Belani CP, Oton AB, Gooding WE, Taioli E, et al. Lung Cancer in Elderly Patients: An Analysis of the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Database. Journal of Clinical Oncology. 2007;25(35):5570-7.

149. Tendler S, Zhan Y, Pettersson A, Lewensohn R, Viktorsson K, Fang F, et al. Treatment patterns and survival outcomes for small-cell lung cancer patients – a Swedish single center cohort study. Acta Oncologica. 2020:1-7.

150. Coons AH, Creech HJ, Jones RN. Immunological Properties of an Antibody Containing a Fluorescent Group. 1941;47(2):200-2.

151. Inamura K. Update on Immunohistochemistry for the Diagnosis of Lung Cancer. Cancers (Basel). 2018;10(3):72.

152. Grillo F, Bruzzone M, Pigozzi S, Prosapio S, Migliora P, Fiocca R, et al. Immunohistochemistry on old archival paraffin blocks: is there an expiry date? 2017;70(11):988-93.

153. Burnette WN. "Western Blotting": Electrophoretic transfer of proteins from sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gels to unmodified nitrocellulose and radiographic detection with antibody and radioiodinated protein A. Analytical Biochemistry. 1981;112(2):195-203.

154. Huang RSP, Holmes BF, Powell C, Marati RV, Tyree D, Admire B, et al. Delta-like Protein 3 Prevalence in Small Cell Lung Cancer and DLL3 (SP347) Assay Characteristics. Archives of pathology & laboratory medicine. 2019;143(11):1373-7.

155. Brcic L, Kuchler C, Eidenhammer S, Pabst D, Quehenberger F, Gazdar AF, et al. Comparison of four DLL3 antibodies performance in high grade neuroendocrine lung tumor samples and cell cultures. Diagn Pathol. 2019;14(1):47-.

156. Yan L-X, Liu Y-H, Li Z, Luo D-L, Li Y-F, Yan J-H, et al. Prognostic value of delta-like protein 3 combined with thyroid transcription factor-1 in small-cell lung cancer. Oncol Lett. 2019;18(3):2254-61.

157. Liu Y, Yan L, He J, Luo D. JCES 01.17 The Correlation of DLL3 Expression with High-Grade Pulmonary Neuroendocrine Carcinoma Clinicopathologic Features and Prognose. Journal of Thoracic Oncology. 2017;12(11):S1736.

158. Tanaka K, Isse K, Fujihira T, Takenoyama M, Saunders L, Bheddah S, et al. Prevalence of Delta-like protein 3 expression in patients with small cell lung cancer. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2018;115:116-20.

159. Fedchenko N, Reifenrath J. Different approaches for interpretation and reporting of immunohistochemistry analysis results in the bone tissue - a review. Diagn Pathol. 2014;9:221-.

160. Goos JA, Coupe VM, Diosdado B, Delis-Van Diemen PM, Karga C, Belien JA, et al. Aurora kinase A (AURKA) expression in colorectal cancer liver metastasis is associated with poor prognosis. British journal of cancer. 2013;109(9):2445-52.

161. Lin D-Y, Dai L, Cheng G, Sailer MO. On confidence intervals for the hazard ratio in randomized clinical trials. Biometrics. 2016;72(4):1098-102.

162. Rich JT, Neely JG, Paniello RC, Voelker CCJ, Nussenbaum B, Wang EW. A practical guide to understanding Kaplan-Meier curves. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2010;143(3):331-6.

163. Hotelling H. New Light on the Correlation Coefficient and its Transforms. 1953;15(2):193-225.

164. Ostroff JS, Jacobsen PB, Moadel AB, Spiro RH, Shah JP, Strong EW, et al. Prevalence and predictors of continued tobacco use after treatment of patients with head and neck cancer. Cancer. 1995;75(2):569-76.

165. Walker MS, Vidrine DJ, Gritz ER, Larsen RJ, Yan Y, Govindan R, et al. Smoking relapse during the first year after treatment for early-stage non-small-cell lung cancer. Cancer epidemiology, biomarkers & prevention : a publication of the American

Association for Cancer Research, cosponsored by the American Society of Preventive Oncology. 2006;15(12):2370-7.

166. Baser S, Shannon VR, Eapen GA, Jimenez CA, Onn A, Lin E, et al. Smoking cessation after diagnosis of lung cancer is associated with a beneficial effect on performance status. Chest. 2006;130(6):1784-90.

167. Aizer AA, Chen MH, McCarthy EP, Mendu ML, Koo S, Wilhite TJ, et al. Marital status and survival in patients with cancer. Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology. 2013;31(31):3869-76.

168. Vallières E, Shepherd FA, Crowley J, Van Houtte P, Postmus PE, Carney D, et al. The IASLC Lung Cancer Staging Project: Proposals Regarding the Relevance of TNM in the Pathologic Staging of Small Cell Lung Cancer in the Forthcoming (Seventh) Edition of the TNM Classification for Lung Cancer. Journal of Thoracic Oncology. 2009;4(9):1049-59.

169. Kurowski K, Rzyman W, Zurek W, Chwirot P, Skokowski J. P-382 Role of surgery in the management of small cell lung cancer. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2003;41:S187-S8.

170. Cataldo I, Bidoli P, Brega Massone PP, Conti B, Lequaglie C. Long term survival for resectable small cell lung cancer. Lung cancer (Amsterdam, Netherlands). 2000;29(1):130.

171. Inoue M, Miyoshi S, Yasumitsu T, Mori T, Iuchi K, Maeda H, et al. Surgical results for small cell lung cancer based on the new TNM staging system. Thoracic Surgery Study Group of Osaka University, Osaka, Japan. The Annals of thoracic surgery. 2000;70(5):1615-9.

172. Gomez DR, Blumenschein GR, Jr., Lee JJ, Hernandez M, Ye R, Camidge DR, et al. Local consolidative therapy versus maintenance therapy or observation for patients with oligometastatic non-small-cell lung cancer without progression after first-line systemic therapy: a multicentre, randomised, controlled, phase 2 study. The Lancet Oncology. 2016;17(12):1672-82.

173. Nicholson AG, Chansky K, Crowley J, Beyruti R, Kubota K, Turrisi A, et al. The International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer Lung Cancer Staging Project: Proposals for the Revision of the Clinical and Pathologic Staging of Small Cell Lung Cancer in the Forthcoming Eighth Edition of the TNM Classification for Lung Cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer. 2016;11(3):300-11.

174. Faivre-Finn C, Snee M, Ashcroft L, Appel W, Barlesi F, Bhatnagar A, et al. Concurrent once-daily versus twice-daily chemoradiotherapy in patients with limited-stage small-cell lung cancer (CONVERT): an open-label, phase 3, randomised, superiority trial. The Lancet Oncology. 2017;18(8):1116-25.

175. Gaspar LE, Gay EG, Crawford J, Putnam JB, Herbst RS, Bonner JA. Limited-stage small-cell lung cancer (stages I-III): observations from the National Cancer Data Base. Clinical lung cancer. 2005;6(6):355-60.

176. Furuta M, Sakakibara-Konishi J, Kikuchi H, Yokouchi H, Nishihara H, Minemura H, et al. Analysis of DLL3 and ASCL1 in Surgically Resected Small Cell Lung Cancer (HOT1702). The oncologist. 2019;24(11):e1172-e9.

177. Kikuchi H, Sakakibara-Konishi J, Furuta M, Yokouchi H, Nishihara H, Yamazaki S, et al. Expression of Notch1 and Numb in small cell lung cancer. Oncotarget. 2017;8(6):10348-58.

178. Fujino K, Motooka Y, Hassan WA, Ali Abdalla MO, Sato Y, Kudoh S, et al. Insulinoma-Associated Protein 1 Is a Crucial Regulator of Neuroendocrine Differentiation in Lung Cancer. The American journal of pathology. 2015;185(12):3164-77.

179. Uhlén M, Fagerberg L, Hallström BM, Lindskog C, Oksvold P, Mardinoglu A, et al. Tissue-based map of the human proteome. 2015;347(6220):1260419.

180. Tomczak K, Czerwinska P, Wiznerowicz M. The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA): an immeasurable source of knowledge. Contemporary oncology (Poznan, Poland). 2015;19(1a):A68-77.