Immuno-Biomarkers in Small Cell Lung Cancer: Potential Early Cancer Signals

Caroline J Chapman PhD*, Alison J Thorpe MSc*, Andrea Murray PhD†, Celine B Parsy-Kowalska PhD†, Jared Allen MSci†, Kelly Stafford PhD*, Alok Chauhan*, Thomas Kite*, Paul Maddison MD‡, John F R Robertson MD*†

*Division of Surgery, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, NG5 1PB, UK; †Oncimmune Ltd, Nottingham City Hospital, Nottingham, NG5 1PB, UK; ‡Department of Neurology, Queens Medical Centre, Nottingham, NG7 2UH, UK

Correspondence and reprint requests should be addressed to:
Dr Caroline Chapman
Division of Surgery
Clinical Sciences Building
Nottingham City Hospital
Nottingham
NG5 1PB, UK
Phone +44 115 8231825
Fax +44 115 8231958
Email: caroline.chapman@nottingham.ac.uk

Running header: autoantibodies in small cell lung cancer

Key words: autoantibodies; lung cancer; SCLC; diagnosis; tumor antigens; immuno-biomarkers
Translational Relevance

This study shows the clinical relevance of measuring the antibody response to a panel of tumor-associated antigens, by ELISA, in a large prospective cohort of individuals with small cell lung cancer (SCLC); and demonstrates the sensitivity and specificity of such a test when compared to an age, gender and smoking matched set of individuals.

SCLCs are a disease group that have a particularly poor overall cancer prognosis, due to their late presentation, and therefore a group that are most at need of early diagnosis. It would be envisaged that this simple, reliable and non-invasive blood test could aid the early detection of SCLC in a high risk population, and could be used most effectively to direct imaging modalities with low specificity such as spiral CT. Such a test could therefore have a significant impact on the long term survival of these individuals.
Summary

Purpose: We investigated the presence of autoantibodies as immuno-biomarkers to a panel of tumor-associated antigens in a group of individuals with small cell lung cancer (SCLC), a disease group which has a poor overall cancer prognosis and therefore may benefit most from early diagnosis.

Experimental Design: Sera from 243 patients with confirmed SCLC and normal controls matched for age, sex and smoking history, were analysed for the presence of these early immuno-biomarkers (ie autoantibodies to p53, CAGE, NY-ESO-1, GBU4-5, Annexin I, SOX2 and Hu-D) by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay.

Results: Autoantibodies were seen to at least 1 of 6 antigens in 55% of all the SCLC patients’ sera tested, with a specificity of 90% compared to controls. Using a higher assay cut-off to achieve a specificity of 99%, autoantibodies were still detectable in 42% of SCLC patients (receiver operator characteristic area under the curve, 0.76). There was no significant difference in sensitivity when analysed by stage of the cancer, or by patient age or gender. The frequency of autoantibodies to individual antigens varied, ranging from 4% for GBU4-5 to 35% for SOX2. Levels of Annexin I autoantibodies were not elevated in patients with SCLC. Antibodies were also detected in four separate patients, whose sera were taken up to three months before tumor diagnosis.

Conclusion: The presence of an autoantibody to one or more cancer-associated antigens may provide an important addition to the armamentarium available to the clinician to aid early detection of SCLC in high-risk individuals.
**Introduction**

Lung cancer is the largest cause of death from cancer worldwide being responsible for more than 1.2 million deaths every year. Whilst tobacco smoking is still the major contributing factor (estimated to cause around 90% of all cases) (1,2), other recognised risk factors for lung cancer include passive smoking, radon exposure and occupational exposures, especially to asbestos, arsenic and polycyclic hydrocarbons (1). It is estimated that the latency period for lung cancers attributable to smoking is at least 20 years (1), yet lung cancer is often only detected at an advanced stage, with little prospect of curative treatment. Presently there is no accepted early diagnostic test although screening trials using spiral computed tomography (CT) in ‘at-risk’ individuals are ongoing (3).

The incidence of small cell lung cancer (SCLC) has decreased in the USA in recent years from 17% of all lung tumors in 1986 to 13% in 2002, with equal numbers of men and women now presenting with the disease (4). In other countries, the incidence of SCLC is still reported at closer to 20% (3,5). At presentation, the vast majority of patients with SCLC are symptomatic (6) and from the date of diagnosis, the average survival time for SCLC patients with limited disease (LD) is approximately 18 months, reduced to only 9 months for those with extensive disease (ED) (7). Untreated, SCLC has the most aggressive clinical course of any type of lung cancer, with a median survival from diagnosis of only 2 to 4 months thus demonstrating the urgent need for earlier diagnosis (7). Compared with other types of lung cancer, SCLC is more responsive to chemotherapy and radiation therapy; however, a cure is difficult to achieve because SCLC has a greater tendency to be widely disseminated by the time of diagnosis.

Historically, surgery has not been commonly utilised in the treatment of SCLC but new surgical and adjuvant chemotherapy regimens are beginning to show promise in LD patients, particularly platinum based regimens (8). A recent review of this subject has highlighted
encouraging results in Stage 1 patients with 5-year survival rates of up to 58% overall and 73% in patients with Stage 1A cancers (9). Lim and colleagues reported a 5-year survival of 52% for Stage 1 disease without adjuvant therapy (10) which strongly suggests that if found early SCLC may still be a localised disease. Brock and colleagues reported that in their series of Stage 1 SCLC the 5-year survival with platinum-based adjuvant chemotherapy was 85.7% (8). These studies indicate a potentially significant survival advantage from both early diagnosis and platinum-based adjuvant chemotherapy. A test that could identify such cancers at an early stage is critical to increase the chance of successful treatment.

There is an increasing body of literature describing the presence of a humoral immune response, in the form of autoantibodies, to tumor-associated antigens (TAAs) in lung and other solid tumors (11-17). Autoantibodies have been described as being present in some individuals prior to developing symptomatic cancer (13, 19-21), making their identification of particular relevance for early detection. We have recently reported the development of a highly reproducible assay to measure the presence of autoantibodies in, primarily non-small-cell, lung cancer (16). We now expand these results by reporting on autoantibody detection in a large prospective cohort of patients with SCLC collected from a single centre.

The panel of seven antigens selected in this study comprises a number of well-recognised cancer-associated proteins including six antigens (p53, SOX2, Annexin I, CAGE, GBU4-5 and NY-ESO-1) as previously reported (16) along with an additional antigen Hu-D. Autoantibodies to the p53 tumor suppressor gene were first described in 1982 (23) and have now been observed in a wide variety of malignancies (14-17). Autoantibodies to SOX2, a member of the SOX-B1 family of genes thought to be important in neurogenesis, have been reported in up to 33% of individuals with SCLC (23,24,25), and considered to be a specific serological marker for SCLC (23). Autoantibodies to Annexin I, a calcium- and phospholipid-binding protein that
is considered to play an important role in tumorigenesis and three SEREX identified proteins, GBU4-5, CAGE and NY-ESO-1, two of which (CAGE and NY-ESO-1) are members of the cancer testis antigen family, have also been reported in lung cancer (15,16,18). Autoantibodies to Hu-D, a member of the family of onconeural RNA binding proteins (also known as n-ELAV (neuronal-Embryonic Lethal, Abnormal Vision)-like gene), have also been described particularly in patients with SCLC and are classically associated with paraneoplastic neurological diseases (PND) such as paraneoplastic encephalomyelitis/sensory neuropathy (26). Low titers of anti-Hu-antibody have been reported in up to 16% of patients with neuroendocrine tumors such as SCLC, even in the absence of well-defined PND (26,27). A further antigen, recoverin, was also investigated, as autoantibodies to recoverin are known to be associated with cancer associated retinopathy (CAR) (6) and have also been reported in patients with NSCLC and SCLC without CAR (28).

This present study is the largest of its kind in SCLC to date and, unlike previous reports, includes an equal number of control samples matched for age, gender and smoking history, thereby minimising the possibility of overestimating the diagnostic potential of any one autoantibody.

Methods

Blood samples and patient details

Serum samples were collected from 243 consecutive unselected patients, who consented to the study, either with biopsy-proven SCLC, or with a characteristic PND if further follow-up investigations revealed SCLC. All patients were seen within the Trent Region, UK, between 2005 and 2010 (Nottingham Research Ethics Committee approval 04/Q2404/100). All patients underwent full neurological evaluation and examination, and serum samples were taken prior to chemotherapy. This sample set comprised over two-thirds of all newly diagnosed SCLC patients in the Trent region during this study period. Two hundred and thirty seven of the patients...
samples were obtained at or just after histopathological confirmation of the tumor with one sample obtained four months before a SCLC relapse. Ten of the patients with SCLC also had Lambert-Eaton myasthenic syndrome (LEMS) and four of these samples were taken one to three four months before SCLC had been confirmed. Four additional samples were also obtained from individuals considered to be at an increased risk of developing SCLC (one with LEMS and three with a subacute sensory neuronopathy. One other individual, originally thought to be at risk of SCLC, was found to have 2 suspicious lung 2 nodules at the time the blood was taken and had her SCLC subsequently confirmed 18 months later).

For antibody analysis, the control group consisted of 247 healthy volunteers recruited in the same region of the UK who were matched to the SCLC and ‘at-risk’ patients according to age, gender and smoking status, and had no evidence of any current or prior cancer.

All serum samples were collected and stored at -70°C prior to analysis.

**Antigen production**

Specific cDNAs for p53, NY-ESO-1, CAGE, Hu-D, SOX2, Annexin I, GBU4-5 and recoverin were subcloned, along with a small tag, into the pET21b expression vector (Novagen, Darmstadt, Germany) as previously described (15,16). The recombinant proteins as well as a negative control protein (tag alone) were expressed, purified and analysed as described elsewhere (16, 29).

**Autoantibody detection**

Autoantibody detection was by ELISA using microtiter plates coated with set of semi-log serial dilutions of recombinant antigens as previously described (16). All assays were performed on a semi automated robotic system. For all assays, samples were measured in duplicate on at
least two separate occasions. All cancer and normal samples were interspersed and a
calibration system and control samples were also run to allow for QC monitoring of the assay
runs and to correct for any day-to-day variation. A subset of cancer and normal sera were
also investigated for the presence of autoantibodies to recoverin; in this case a calibration
system was not utilised.

Positive seroreactivity was defined as a) having evidence of a dose response to the antigen
titration series (30) and b) a calibrated optical density value (RU) (of the background
corrected signal) above a cut-off level set from the matched control data. Panel sensitivity for
the detection of SCLC was defined as the presence of an autoantibody to one or more of a
panel of six antigens (p53, NY-ESO-1, CAGE, Hu-D, SOX2 and GBU4-5). Two cut-offs were
applied such that the panel specificity was 99% or 90% specific for cancer detection (mean
plus 9SD or 3-4SD of the normal population for each antigen). Samples were designated
positive for each separate autoantibody assay if there was a reproducible signal above the
cut-off level. Specificity of the assay was calculated as the percentage of controls that gave a
negative result.

Statistics

Standard descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean and SD were calculated to describe
the study population. All analyses were performed using Microsoft Excel, SPSS or Graph Pad
Prism software. The number and proportion of positive samples were presented with 95%
exact confidence interval (95% CI) for binomial proportions (31). Chi-squared tests were used
to determine when the proportion of positive results was significantly different between
cancer groups and the normal controls.
Results

Patient and normal control demographics and tumor characteristics are shown in Table 1. Where complete data on the smoking history of the normal individuals was available (n=189) the estimated risk of developing a lung cancer within the next five years was calculated (according to the risk model proposed by Spitz and colleagues, (32)) to be 2.16%, ranging from 0.1%-9.8% demonstrating the appropriateness of the control group selected.

The presence of autoantibodies to seven of the TAAs is shown for one concentration of antigen in the scatter plots in Figure 1 and clearly demonstrates that elevated levels of autoantibodies (when compared to matched control sera) are present in individuals with SCLC for six of the antigens investigated. There was no difference in signal between the cancer and normal data sets for the presence of autoantibodies to the Annexin I antigen (2% sensitivity, 98% specificity). The antigen was also not additive in terms of improving overall sensitivity and specificity of the panel so was not included in the final panel analyses.

A subset of samples was also analysed for the presence of antibodies to recoverin. Autoantibodies were detected in only 4% of the SCLC subset tested. These autoantibodies were detected in samples that already had raised levels of autoantibodies to one of the other six TAAs; therefore recoverin was also excluded from the full panel.

The level and relative importance of autoantibody responses to individual antigens in the panel assay varied (Table 2). Table 2 also shows levels of detection of autoantibodies against individual antigens in limited and extensive disease groups and normal controls. Individual assay sensitivity ranged from 4% to 35% with specificity for each antigen (for all normal sera) being 97% to 99% (Table 2a). Autoantibodies to all the antigens could be detected at
similar frequencies in both the limited and extensive disease cohorts, apart from the autoantibodies to CAGE which appear to be more associated with the presence of extensive disease.

The sensitivity of the panel assay to correctly identify SCLC is shown in Table 2 and graphically represented by the Receiver Operator Characteristic curve in Figure 2. Panel sensitivity for the detection of SCLC was 55% (51% LD, 57% ED) with specificity for cancer detection at 90% (Table 2a). An alternative six antigen panel which included Annexin I but not Hu-D gave a sensitivity of 51% (47% LD; 53% ED) with a specificity of 90%.

There were no significant differences in sensitivity of the autoantibody panel to detect different stages of disease, with similar levels of sensitivity seen across all the stages from stage IA to those with extensive (metastatic) disease (p=0.41), (Figure 3). The level of sensitivity was also independent of lymph node involvement (p=0.61).

Nine of ten patients with SCLC and LEMS were positive in the assay, with eight having high titres of antibodies to the SOX2 antigen. Removal of these particularly high risk individuals from the analysis did not significantly decrease the sensitivity of the panel for the detection of cancer (53%).

Restriction of the panel to the presence of SOX2, Hu-D & p53 autoantibodies correctly identified 48% of SCLCs with a specificity for cancer detection of 94%. There was again no statistical difference between the sensitivity for ED (48%, 95%CIs 40-57%) and LD (46%, 95%CIs 36-57%) (p=0.72).
Within the LD cohort, 14 patients were confirmed to have Stage I disease (five being stage IA) and, although numbers were small, autoantibodies to p53, SOX2 or Hu-D were detected in 80% of stage IA and 50% of the Stage I cancers overall. Notably, four of these stage I individuals had samples taken between one and three months before first SCLC diagnosis, (due to detection of a PND) and all four had autoantibodies to SOX2. The individual who had a sample taken four months before SCLC relapse (again with PND) also had autoantibodies to SOX2.

Three of the five of patients who had never smoked had elevated levels of autoantibodies and the four individuals considered to be at a high risk of developing SCLC (due to their PND) also had raised levels of autoantibodies to one of the six antigens.

An increased specificity for detecting SCLC could be achieved by increasing the cut-off (for cancer detection) by using a mean plus 9 SD of the normal population (Table 2b). Under those conditions, 99% of the normals and 42% of the SCLC samples were correctly identified, again with no statistical difference between the detection of limited or extensive disease types (p=0.32), different stages of disease (p=0.76) or nodal status (p=0.86). All four of the pre-diagnostic samples were still identified at this level of specificity, (and two of the four at-risk individuals). The limited panel of p53, SOX2 and Hu-D identified 37% of the SCLC samples at greater than 99% specificity.

**Discussion**

Autoantibodies to TAAs are revealing themselves as important immunological biomarkers for the (early) detection of cancer. Over half of the SCLC samples tested here had autoantibodies to at least one of six TAAs, with the majority of these samples having high titres of
autoantibodies to one or more of SOX2, p53 and Hu-D, antigens highly associated with SCLC. Autoantibodies to Annexin I were also investigated in all the samples tested, having previously been included in a panel to detect primary lung cancer (both NSCLC and SCLC) (16).

SCLC is also the cancer most commonly associated with PNDs which occurs in up to 6% of patients with this tumor type (33). LEMS is found in approximately 3-4% of patients with SCLC (33,34), and is usually associated with the presence of voltage-gated calcium channel antibodies. When LEMS is detected in association with SCLC in its paraneoplastic state, autoantibodies to Hu-D and / or SOX2 are also found in most patients (23). We have been able to demonstrate in this study that exclusion of the LEMS patients’ data from the overall analysis, which may have been expected to overestimate the presence of antibodies to such TAAs, did not significantly change the positivity of the assay for cancer detection.

A feature of immunosenescence is an increase in autoantibody levels to a variety of antigens with increasing age, as reported in several studies (35-37), additionally women display a different pattern of autoimmune diseases relative to men (38). To achieve a reliable comparison between a cancer and a control population, patients with SCLC were therefore matched by age as well as gender to a normal healthy control population. Tobacco smoking has also been reported to alter an autoantibody profile (39) in fact autoantibodies to p53 have been demonstrated in individuals with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) who smoke (21). In view of these findings, the smoking status of the control group was also closely matched to that of the test group to ensure the results would be appropriate for a population of smokers or ex-smokers at a higher risk of lung cancer. We have also analysed the presence of autoantibodies to these antigens in 103 individuals with LEMS who are at a particularly high risk group for SCLC, and did not find a statistically increased level of autoantibodies in this group over the normal matched population (data submitted).
A recent study which analysed the presence of autoantibodies to six of the antigens investigated here, reported the technical (16) and clinical (40) validation of an autoantibody test for all lung cancers, using a calibrated system. These publications reported that such a test could reproducibly detect nearly 40% of primary lung cancers (SCLC and NSCLC) with a specificity of 90% for both age-matched normal sera, and 89% for individuals with benign lung disease (40). With five of the same antigens but with the inclusion of Hu-D, 55% of a much larger number of SCLCs could be detected at the same specificity of 90%, and 42% of SCLCs at a higher specificity of 99%.

All four of the individuals who were considered to be at an increased risk of developing lung cancer due to the presence of a PND and their smoking history had raised levels of autoantibodies and are being closely monitored. In fact one of the individuals within the Stage 1A cancer group was asymptomatic at time of blood collection, and originally considered at risk of lung cancer due to their sensory neuronopathy and smoking history. Following autoantibody results and subsequent CT the individual was found to have 2 small lung nodules highly suspicious of SCLC. This has subsequently been clinically confirmed.

Previous publications (12-17, 20) have highlighted the potential value of a panel of autoantibodies for the early detection and monitoring of cancer. Autoantibodies to individual antigens have also been described prior to clinical diagnosis of cancer (13,19,21,41), with autoantibodies to p53 having been reported prior to diagnosis of lung cancer in smokers with COPD (21) or in patients with asbestosis (19). In the latter publication thirteen patients were shown to have p53 autoantibodies prior to clinical diagnosis of cancer with the average lead time (time from first positive sample to diagnosis) of 3.5 years (range 1–12 years). Using a
panel of antigens, autoantibodies have also been reported up to five years before screening CT scans in lung cancer (13). This study has shown elevated levels of autoantibodies are present at a similar frequency in individuals with all stages of disease ranging from stage 1A tumors to those with extensive disease. All four of the individuals who had samples taken between one and two months before first diagnosis of their SCLC also had elevated levels of autoantibodies, at a time when they did not have respiratory or systemic symptoms suggestive of cancer. These findings further support previous publications that demonstrate tumor-associated antibodies prior to clinical presentation of lung cancer.

Autoantibodies to the panel(s) of antigens reported in this study can be used to aid early identification of patients with SCLC, in a high risk population. Due to the large numbers of prospectively collected SCLC samples, appropriately matched controls and the use of a validated, calibrated assay we believe that the data reported in this article are the most statistically robust and clinically relevant data to date.

The sensitivity of 55% with a specificity of 90% is higher than mammography in high-risk young women (42). Furthermore the sensitivity and specificity has to be seen in the context of a disease (ie SCLC) which is usually diagnosed late and has a mortality rate of greater than 90% worldwide, but which may have a possibility for increased survival if diagnosed at an early stage, while still localized. By way of contrast, annual screening CT in the Mayo helical CT screening trial had a specificity of 49% for all types of lung cancer (with a sensitivity of 67%) in the prevalence round. The specificity fell to 36% after 2 years and 25% after four rounds of screening CT (43). While such comparisons serve to highlight the potential value of an autoantibody test for lung cancer that has a specificity of 90%, the authors envisage autoantibody technology and imaging as being complementary.
An increase in specificity for cancer detection to 99% may be worth a reduction in sensitivity from 55% to 42% for SCLC, the exact specificity being led by the clinical utility of such a test. Ultimately it would be envisaged that a simple, reliable and non-invasive blood test that can aid the early detection of SCLC in a high risk population could be used most effectively to direct imaging modalities with low specificity such as spiral CT and thereby in combination presents a real opportunity to impact on patient outcomes.

**Acknowledgements**

We would like to acknowledge Jane McElveen and Lolita Wilson for technical assistance and Graham Healey for statistical advice. This work was supported by funding from Oncimmune Ltd, the University of Nottingham and the Association of British Neurologists.

**Conflict of interest**

Caroline Chapman is a consultant to Oncimmune Ltd. John Robertson is a shareholder and consultant to Oncimmune Ltd, a University of Nottingham spinout company.

**References**


Figure Legends

Figure 1. Enzyme-linked immunosorbant assay antibody titers of individual patients and normal controls for tumor-associated antigens. Scatter plots of OD values of autoantibodies from SCLC sera (242) and matched normal sera (247) to 1: SOX2; 2: Hu-D, 3: p53, 4: NY-ESO-1, 5: CAGE, 6: GBU4-5, 7: Annexin I in: cancer (C) and Normal (N) sera. Mean shown.

Figure 2. Receiver Operator Characteristics (ROC) of the panel for the detection of SCLC. Receiver operator characteristic area under the curve (AUC) = 0.761 (se 0.027) for the panel Individual Antigen AUC: SOX2: 0.662 (se 0.031); Hu-D: 0.598 (se 0.032); p53: 0.588 (se 0.032); NY-ESO-1: 0.515 (se 0.032); CAGE: 0.517 (se 0.032); GBU4-5: 0.500 (se 0.032).

Figure 3. Forest Plot showing the sensitivity at a fixed specificity of 90% by tumor stage and nodal status. Line shows sensitivity of 55%. SCLC: small cell lung cancer; ED: Extensive Disease; LD: Limited Disease; Node Negative (n=20, Stages I and IIA).
Table 1. Patient details and clinical characteristics of samples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SCLC sera</th>
<th>Normal Control sera</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>LD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group n</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean age</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age range</td>
<td>33-87</td>
<td>33-87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female n (%)</td>
<td>118 (49%)</td>
<td>49 (52%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% smokers/ex</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>99%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n, number; ED, extensive disease. LD, limited disease. LD cohort consist of individuals with Stage III (n=61); Stage II (n=15) and Stage I (n=14, of which 5 = Stage IA) disease.
Table 2. Frequency of autoantibodies to tumor-associated antigens

Table 2a. Individual autoantibody positivity derived using cut-offs leading to overall panel specificity of 90%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>SOX2</th>
<th>Hu-D</th>
<th>p53</th>
<th>NY-ESO-1</th>
<th>CAGE</th>
<th>GBU 4-5</th>
<th>Panel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All SCLC</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>35 (29, 41)**</td>
<td>13 (9, 18)</td>
<td></td>
<td>16 (12, 21)</td>
<td>6 (3, 10)NS</td>
<td>7 (4, 11)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited Disease</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>36 (26, 46)**</td>
<td>17 (10, 26)</td>
<td></td>
<td>17 (10, 26)</td>
<td>4 (1, 11)NS</td>
<td>3 (1, 9)NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extensive Disease</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>34 (27, 42)**</td>
<td>11 (7, 17)</td>
<td></td>
<td>16 (10, 22)</td>
<td>7 (4, 11)NS</td>
<td>9 (5, 15)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matched Normals</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>3 (1, 6)</td>
<td>1 (0, 4)</td>
<td>2 (1, 5)</td>
<td>3 (1, 6)</td>
<td>2 (1, 5)</td>
<td>1 (0, 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specificity %</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2b. Individual autoantibody positivity derived using cut-offs leading to overall panel specificity of 99%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>SOX2</th>
<th>Hu-D</th>
<th>p53</th>
<th>NY-ESO-1</th>
<th>CAGE</th>
<th>GBU 4-5</th>
<th>Panel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All SCLC</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>29 (23, 35)**</td>
<td>9 (6, 14)</td>
<td></td>
<td>12 (8, 16)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (1, 6)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited Disease</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>29 (20, 39)**</td>
<td>10 (5, 18)</td>
<td></td>
<td>13 (7, 22)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (1, 9)NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extensive Disease</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>29 (22, 37)**</td>
<td>9 (5, 15)</td>
<td></td>
<td>10 (6, 16)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (1, 7)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matched Normals</td>
<td>%+ve (95% CI)</td>
<td>0 (0, 1)</td>
<td>0 (0, 1)</td>
<td>0 (0, 2)</td>
<td>1 (0, 3)</td>
<td>0 (0, 1)</td>
<td>0 (0, 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specificity %</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>&gt;99</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage positivity (%+ve) with 95% confidence interval (95% CI) in each patient group. Panel: autoantibody positivity to any one of the six antigens. *Denotes p-value relative to normal control results. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; NS, not significant p>0.05 (Chi-squared analysis). SCLC: small cell lung cancer.
Clinical Cancer Research

Immuno-Biomarkers in Small Cell Lung Cancer: Potential Early Cancer Signals

Caroline J Chapman, Alison J Thorpe, Andrea Murray, et al.

Clin Cancer Res  Published OnlineFirst December 7, 2010.

Updated version  Access the most recent version of this article at: doi:10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-10-1363

Author Manuscript  Author manuscripts have been peer reviewed and accepted for publication but have not yet been edited.

E-mail alerts  Sign up to receive free email-alerts related to this article or journal.

Reprints and Subscriptions  To order reprints of this article or to subscribe to the journal, contact the AACR Publications Department at pubs@aacr.org.

Permissions  To request permission to re-use all or part of this article, contact the AACR Publications Department at permissions@aacr.org.