LITERATURE REVIEW

Monitoring and Evaluation of Therapy Response in Advanced-Stage Lung Cancer Treated with Systemic Therapy

Ibrahim Syamsuri^{1*}, **Anna Febriani^{1,2}**, **Laksmi Wulandari^{1,2}**, **Farah Fatma Wati^{1,2,3}**, ¹Department of Pulmonology and Respiratory Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Airlangga, Surabaya, Indonesia.

ABSTRACT

³Ph.D. Program in Graduate Institute of Biomedical Science, College of Medicine, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 12 August 2024 Received in revised form 6 December 2024 Accepted 2 January 2025 Available online 31 May 2025

Keywords: Cancer, Lung cancer, Monitoring, Systemic therapy, Therapy response.

Cite this as:

Syamsuri I, Febriani A, Wulandari L, *et al.* Monitoring and Evaluation of Therapy Response in Advanced-Stage Lung Cancer Treated with Systemic Therapy. *J Respi* 2025; 11: 183-190.

INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer is the second most commonly diagnosed malignancy, with an incidence of 11.4% or 2,206,771 cases in 2020.¹ It is also the leading cause of cancer-related deaths, accounting for 1,796,144 fatalities or 18% of the total deaths.¹ In Indonesia, lung cancer ranks third with 34,783 cases, contributing to the highest mortality rate of 30,843 deaths or 13.2% of the total cancer-related deaths in 2020.² Lung cancer is broadly classified into two main types: non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and small cell lung cancer (SCLC). Non-small cell lung cancer is the most common type, accounting for approximately 85% of all lung cancer cases, while SCLC accounts for the remaining 15%.³ Lung cancer staging is critical for determining prognosis and guiding treatment decisions. Non-small cell lung cancer is divided into stages I to IV, with early stages

Lung cancer is the second most commonly diagnosed malignancy, with the highest mortality rate in the world. In Indonesia, lung cancer ranks third with 34,783 cases, contributing to the highest number of deaths due to cancer. Most patients are diagnosed at an advanced stage, requiring systemic therapy. Therapeutic modalities for lung cancer patients can include surgery, radiotherapy, and systemic therapy, with the choice of therapy determined by the histological type, disease stage, laboratory results, performance status (PS), and comorbidities. This situation requires regular monitoring and evaluation to reduce the symptoms and improve the patient's quality of life (QoL). Therapy response in systemic therapy patients can be evaluated through subjective, semi-subjective, and objective evaluations. Subjective evaluation involves monitoring QoL, focusing on cancer outcomes, and patients' well-being. Semi-subjective evaluation consists of monitoring the patient's weight and PS. Objective evaluation uses imaging equipment, such as computed tomography (CT) scans, fluoroscopy, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and positron emission tomography (PET) scans to monitor tumor progression.

being localized and potentially resectable, while stage IV indicates an advanced stage with distant metastases. In contrast, SCLC is categorized using a simplified twotier system: limited-stage and extensive-stage.⁴ Notably, 60% to 70% of lung cancer patients are diagnosed at an advanced or extensive stage.⁵ For such cases, the treatment modality that can be administered is not surgery, but systemic therapy. Systemic therapy in lung cancer includes chemotherapy, targeted therapy, and immunotherapy, all of which continue to play crucial roles in the management of both NSCLC and SCLC. Systemic therapy aims to increase survival rates and improve patients' quality of life (QoL).⁶ When administering systemic therapy, regular monitoring and evaluation are required to assess the patient's condition, manage therapy's side effects, and provide palliative therapy to improve QoL.7 Considering the importance of evaluating and monitoring lung cancer patients

Jurnal Respirasi, p-ISSN: 2407-0831; e-ISSN: 2621-8372.

Accredited No. 79/E/KPT/2023; Available at https://e-journal.unair.ac.id/JR. DOI: 10.20473/jr.v11-I.2.2025.183-190 This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 4.0 International License.

^{*}Corresponding author: Ibrahim.syamsuri-2022@fk.unair.ac.id

undergoing systemic therapy, this literature review aimed to explore the monitoring and evaluation of therapy response in such patients.

SYSTEMIC THERAPY

Therapeutic modalities for lung cancer patients can include surgery, radiotherapy, and systemic therapy. Histological type, disease stage, laboratory results, performance status, and comorbidities determine the choice of therapy. Systemic therapy is the recommended treatment option for patients with advanced-stage lung cancer.⁸ Over the last decade, significant advancements have been made in treating NSCLC, particularly by developing therapies directed at molecular targets such as mutations in the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) or anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK). Other targets have also been identified, such as reactive oxygen species (ROS) proto-oncogene 1 (ROS1), B-Raf proto-oncogene (BRAF), mesenchymal-epithelial transition (MET), human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2), neurotrophic tyrosine receptor kinase (NTRK), and rearranged during transfection (RET) mutations. Identifying oncogenic driver mutations is necessary to provide targeted therapy appropriate to the patient's condition.^{9,10} Based on applicable guidelines, biomarker testing is crucial for diagnosing lung cancer.10-14

In NSCLC patients with oncogenic driver mutations, such as EGFR exon 19 deletion or exon 21 L858R mutation, first-line therapy typically involves osimertinib, a third-generation tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI). Alternative options include first- and secondgeneration TKIs, such as erlotinib, afatinib, gefitinib, and dacomitinib. For patients with EGFR mutations, such as S768I, L861Q, or G719X, treatment with afatinib or osimertinib is recommended. Additionally, patients with positive ALK mutations can be given ALK inhibitor therapy.¹⁴ For patients without oncogenic driver mutations, the recommended systemic therapy is platinum doublet-based chemotherapy (e.g., carboplatin or cisplatin) combined with pemetrexed, particularly in patients with adenocarcinoma or large cell carcinoma.¹⁵

For patients with adenocarcinoma or large cell carcinoma with programmed death-ligand 1 (PD-L1) expression levels of 1% to 49%, a combination of platinum doublet-based chemotherapy with pemetrexed and immunotherapy can be considered.⁶ Immunotherapy can also be considered if PD-L1 expression levels are 50% or above.⁶ Meanwhile, for advanced stages of SCLC, the first-line chemotherapy regimen typically involves carboplatin combined with etoposide or irinotecan as a primary choice, with the option to include immunotherapy.¹¹

TREATMENT EVALUATION

Regular and controlled examinations are required to monitor and evaluate patients undergoing systemic therapy. According to the European Society for Medical Oncology (ESMO), therapy response should be monitored after two to three cycles of chemotherapy or six to nine weeks after chemotherapy. Due to the heterogeneous nature of genetic mutations for patients receiving targeted therapy, evaluation and monitoring can be performed every 8 to 12 weeks, depending on the specific therapy.¹²

The Indonesian Society of Respirology (ISR) guidelines recommend evaluating and monitoring lung cancer patients not undergoing surgery every 8 to 12 weeks after chemotherapy.¹⁵ The examinations include history taking, physical examination, computed tomography (CT) scan, laboratory examination, and other necessary examinations.¹⁵

The evaluation process encompasses the following aspects:¹⁶

- 1. Subjective responses in the form of initial complaints
- 2. Semi-subjective responses, namely, performance status and body weight
- 3. Objective responses, including physical examination (e.g., presence or absence of new nodules) and radiology using the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST)
- 4. Side effects of medication

A. SUBJECTIVE RESPONSE

The main goal of therapy in patients with advanced lung cancer is to maintain QoL. Systemic therapy plays a crucial role in controlling and reducing cancer symptoms. Evaluating QoL in patients undergoing systemic therapy facilitates the early detection of emerging symptoms, enabling timely interventions such as adjustments to medication, additional therapies, and psychosocial support.¹⁷ Quality of life assessment in lung cancer patients generally encompasses cancer and patient outcomes. Cancer outcomes include the patient's response to treatment, duration of response, symptom-free period, and early detection of recurrence. Meanwhile, patient outcomes include the survival benefits achieved after treatment as measured by the increase in life expectancy and improvements in QoL before and after therapy.¹⁸

Quality of life is a broad, subjective, and multifaceted concept that includes the following dimensions:^{18,19}

- 1. Physical health and symptoms
- 2. Functional status and daily living activities
- 3. Mental and social health, including social roles in the community

The monitoring and evaluation of complaints may vary among patients. Iyer, *et al.* (2014) identified the most common symptoms in lung cancer patients, including fatigue (98%), loss of appetite (98%), breathing problems (94%), cough (93%), pain (90%), and coughing up blood (70%).²⁰ The study also found that the severity of the symptoms was inversely correlated with the QoL.²⁰ Symptoms, such as loss of appetite, fatigue, pain, and shortness of breath, were the most significant contributors to reduced QoL.²⁰

Subjective complaints and QoL in patients can be evaluated using standardized questionnaires. An example of the questionnaire is the EuroQol-5 Dimension (EQ-5D), which assesses five aspects of QoL, such as mobility, self-care, daily activities, comfort, and anxiety, and includes a visual analog scale (VAS) that only takes a few minutes to complete. The resulting health state index can be used for evaluation in patient care.²¹ Another example is the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Lung (FACT-L) questionnaire, which assesses complaints and the QoL of lung cancer patients, including several aspects, such as symptoms, physical well-being, and emotional wellbeing, and has been developed comprehensively to evaluate lung cancer patients receiving treatment.²²

The choice between the EQ-5D and FACT-L for evaluating lung cancer patients depends on the specific objectives of the evaluation and the aspects of QoL under investigation. The EQ-5D is widely utilized in health economics research because it generates utility scores that can be employed to calculate quality-adjusted life years (QALYs) and is particularly suitable for costeffectiveness evaluation. It is also helpful for extensive research and general health evaluations due to its simplicity and conciseness. However, the EQ-5D is not sensitive to specific lung cancer symptoms or problems, such as hemoptysis or dyspnea, and may overlook minor changes in the patient's condition.²¹ The FACT-L, on the other hand, is specifically designed for lung cancer patients, making it highly effective in recording symptoms such as coughing, weight loss, and weariness that are particular to an illness and its treatments. Its sensitivity to changes in the patient's condition and its comprehensive evaluation of the QoL make it particularly valuable for clinical trials and studies focusing on treatment outcomes. However, the FACT-L requires more time to complete than the EQ-5D. Additionally, it is less suitable for economic assessments or cross-disease comparisons since it does not generate utility scores.22

B. SEMI-SUBJECTIVE RESPONSE

1. PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

During monitoring and evaluation, physical examination of the lungs may reveal abnormal findings such as lumps in the neck, armpit, or chest wall, signs of liver enlargement or ascites, and bone pain. The clinical signs observed in lung cancer patients depend on the location and size of the tumor, as well as the presence of metastases in other organs. Enlarged lymph nodes in the neck, supraclavicular region, and axilla indicate metastases. Abnormal shortness of breath may occur due to a large tumor mass, pleural effusion, or atelectasis. Venectasis (venous dilation) in the chest wall, accompanied by swelling (edema) of the face, neck, and arms, is associated with vena cava superior syndrome (VCSS). Thrombus in the veins of the extremities, characterized by edema accompanied by pain in the limbs and disruption of the hemostasis system (e.g., increased D-dimer levels), are symptoms of deep vein thrombosis (DVT). Metastases of the recurrent laryngeal nerve can cause hoarseness. Large tumor masses can invade the chest wall and brachial plexus, causing significant pain. Signs of a bone fracture may occur in cancer that metastasizes to the bones. Lastly, signs of neurological disorders may emerge if the cancer has spread to the spine or brain.^{15,23}

2. WEIGHT

Chemotherapy can lead to several side effects, including nausea, vomiting, and reduced appetite because of diminished sensory functions such as smell and taste. These conditions may result in malnutrition, which increases the risk of infections and complications and weakens the immune response to therapy.²⁴ Gul. et al. (2021) indicated a relationship between nutritional status and the prognosis of lung cancer patients.²⁵ The study used the Controlling Nutritional Status (CONUT) assessment by calculating albumin levels, lymphocyte and cholesterol levels. Plasma albumin count, concentration is commonly used to assess nutritional status and liver function. The study observed a direct correlation between poor nutrition and low survival rates in patients.²⁵ This finding suggested the importance of nutritional management interventions. Interventions that can be given to patients include dietary consultations, food supplementation, and enteral or parenteral nutrition. The choice of nutritional support varies depending on the patient's condition, the disease progression, and the administered therapy.²⁶

3. PERFORMANCE STATUS

Performance status (PS) is an assessment of a patient's functional abilities and capacity for self-care. This assessment plays a vital role in treatment selection and is an independent prognostic factor in patients with advanced lung cancer. Therefore, a thorough and accurate evaluation of PS is needed. Oncologists use different methods to assess PS before determining the choice of systemic therapy for cancer patients. The Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) and Karnofsky Performance Status (KPS) scale are the most commonly used tools.²⁷ The Karnofsky score, introduced in 1948, uses a linear scale from 0 to 100 based on the patient's ability to perform daily activities and the level of assistance required (Table 1).²⁷ On the other hand, the ECOG uses a five-point scale to assess PS and focuses on simple tools that can be used in routine clinical practice. This assessment was first developed in 1960 and is also known as the World Health Organization (WHO) performance status (Table 1).27

 Table 1. Assessment criteria for performance status according to Karnofsky and the World Health Organization (WHO)²⁷

Score	WHO	Limitation
90-100	0	Normal to minor complaints/signs, able to
		perform everyday activities, limited or
		unable to perform strenuous activities
70-80	1	Some complaints, able to perform everyday
		activities with up to 100% effort, unable to
		perform everyday activities but able to take
		care of themselves, able to be active for
		more than 50% of their waking hours
50-60	2	Able to take care of themselves or
		occasionally requiring help, able to be
		active for more than 50% of their waking
		hours, confined to bed/chair for more than
		50% of their waking hours
30-40	3	Unable to perform activities, requiring
		special care or assistance to take care of
		themselves, seriously ill, requiring hospital
		treatment, confined to bed/chair
10-20	4	Severely ill, confined to the bed, requiring
		hospital treatment, and requiring active
		assistance from others
0	5	Dead

C. OBJECTIVE RESPONSE RADIOLOGIST

There are several principles for objectively monitoring therapy response in lung cancer patients:²⁸

- 1. The timing of diagnostic examinations must be adjusted to the pathogenesis and progression of lung cancer
- Diagnostic examination should be directed at the location most likely to exhibit progression or metastasis, and the examination must have high positive and negative predictive values

3. Diagnostic examination should lead to available therapies that significantly improve healing, prolong life expectancy, or alleviate symptoms

Monitoring the therapy response in lung cancer patients is recommended after two to three cycles of chemotherapy or six to nine weeks after administering immunotherapy or targeted therapy. This evaluation should use the same diagnostic examination as the initial examination to detect the presence of tumor lesions. According to the cancer type, the diagnostic examination should also include organs that may exhibit metastases. Lesion measurement during monitoring must follow the RECIST guidelines for patients undergoing chemotherapy and targeted therapy and the Immune Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (iRECIST) guidelines for patients undergoing immunotherapy.^{29,30} However, routine diagnostic examination in patients with lung cancer has limitations, as it may increase the patient's anxiety and impose an additional financial burden.²⁸

Monitoring and evaluation of the therapy response in lung cancer patients often involve radiographic examinations as follows:

1) Chest X-ray

Chest X-ray is inexpensive and widely accessible, but relatively less sensitive than other radiographic examinations.³¹ According to the ISR guidelines, therapy response can be evaluated by assessing changes in tumor size on chest X-ray after the second cycle of chemotherapy, with subsequent evaluations performed monthly.¹⁵ According to the RECIST guidelines, therapy response can be evaluated using the same modalities employed during the initial tumor diagnosis, including a chest X-ray. However, a chest X-ray can only be used if the lesion is visible and surrounded by aerated lung tissue. The minimum measurable tumor lesion diameter for evaluation by chest X-ray is 20 mm or larger.³²

2) Thoracic computed tomography (CT) scan and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)

Thoracic CT scan is the primary radiographic modality for diagnosing lung cancer and determining disease stage. It is used as an initial diagnostic tool for patients suspected of having lung cancer, with its scope extended to the adrenal glands to assess possible metastases. Further examinations, such as head or abdomen CT scans, can be performed if necessary.¹³ According to the ISR guidelines, the evaluation of therapy response to NSCLC using a thoracic CT scan can be performed after three cycles of chemotherapy.¹⁵ For patients undergoing targeted therapy, the monitoring and evaluation schedule aligns with that for chemotherapy, occurring every three months or three cycles.¹⁷ Similarly, the ESMO recommends that the

evaluation of therapy response be performed after two to three cycles of chemotherapy in patients with advancedstage.³⁰ For patients with extensive-stage SCLC, the ESMO recommends performing a CT scan every two to three months, especially for those eligible for further treatment.¹¹ Thoracic MRI is an alternative when a thoracic CT scan with contrast cannot be performed. Moreover, MRI is the primary tool to detect metastases in the brain and spine.¹³

3) Positron emission tomography (PET) scan

F-fluorodeoxyglucose emission positron tomography (FDG-PET) can be used to evaluate and monitor the response of lung cancer patients receiving chemotherapy and radiotherapy. Patients with lung cancer experience increased glucose metabolism, resulting in increased uptake of FDG, which can be detected using PET scans. Compared to CT scans, PET scans can detect cancer lesion activity in areas beyond the lungs. They can also identify disease progression in lung cancer images complicated by atelectasis, consolidation, and radiation-induced fibrosis. An increase in FDG levels in patients after the first cycle of chemotherapy indicates a poor prognosis for the patient's survival rate.³³ Positron emission tomography scans effectively predict therapy response in patients undergoing chemotherapy, which can be evaluated by

comparing the image of the lesion with the level of FDG uptake. Additionally, PET scans can differentiate between active tumor lesions and those undergoing necrosis or fibrosis.³¹

Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors

Tumor progression is determined using a measurement scale based on the RECIST criteria. These criteria have been widely accepted as objective standards for measuring and monitoring tumor size and evaluating therapy response.³² However, there is ongoing debate over using RECIST criteria to evaluate therapy response to targeted therapies. While the RECIST criteria remain a key reference, clinical examinations are necessary to detect potential worsening.³⁰

Lung cancer evaluations use the RECIST 1.1 assessment (Table 2). The criteria focus on changes in tumor size based on target lesions, non-target lesions, and the presence or absence of new lesions.³⁴ Updates in RECIST 1.1 include a minimum measurable lesion of 1 cm, five total target lesions and a maximum of two per organ, and the classification of lymph nodes smaller than 1 cm as a complete response. Another study highlighted limitations of this measurement, particularly in measuring tumors with irregular or spiculated shapes.³⁵

 Table 2. Assessment of tumor progression based on Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST) 1.1 criteria³²

Response	Target Lesion	Non-Target Lesion	Lesion
Complete response (CR)	All target lesions disappear	All non-target lesions disappear	None
Partial response (PR)	Tumor size reduces by \geq 30% from baseline (over four weeks)	There is no development of non- target lesions	None
Progressive disease	Tumor size increases by $\geq 20\%$ compared to the smallest tumor	There is progression from non-	New
(PD)	size of the previous examination	target lesions	lesion
Stable disease (SD)	Not meeting the CR, PR, and PD criteria	There is no development of non- target lesions	None

In patients undergoing immunotherapy, therapy response is evaluated using the iRECIST criteria, which modify RECIST 1.1. Unlike chemotherapy, immunotherapy elicits different responses that necessitate tailored assessment criteria. Immunotherapy can increase survival rates in patients and cause a unique condition in the body known as pseudoprogression.³⁶ This condition is defined as an increase in the size of the

primary tumor or the appearance of new lesions, followed by tumor regression. Pseudoprogression does not indicate a worsening of tumor development, as confirmed by histopathological biopsy, which revealed infiltration and recruitment of various immune cells, such as T or B lymphocytes, in the tumor. This can lead to ineffective discontinuation of therapy due to errors in defining progressive disease in patients.³⁷

Table 3. Differences between Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST) 1.1 and iRECIST ²¹				
	RECIST 1.1	iRECIST		
Dimension	Unidimensional	Same with RECIST		
Definition of	Diameter length above 10 mm using computed			
measurable	tomography scan with calipers; 20 mm using	Same with RECIST		
lesions	chest X-ray			
Lymph nodes				
that can be	>15 mm on short axis	-		
measured				
Measured target	Five total target lesions (two per organ); other	Same with RECIST		
lesions	non-target lesions			
Additional	The total longest diameter of the target lesion or	The total longest diameter of the target lesion or short axis for		
criteria	short axis for lymph nodes	lymph nodes; separate measurement of new lesions		
New lesion	Classified as a progressive disease	Unconfirmed progressive disease necessitating further examination		
	\geq 20% increase in the sizes with an absolute	\geq 20% increase compared with the size of the smallest tumor of		
Progressive	increase of \geq 5 mm compared with the smallest	the prior examination; the presence of new lesions; classified as		
disease	tumor size of the previous examination; the	an unconfirmed progressive disease; confirmation or re-		
	presence of new lesions	examination after four to eight weeks		

OTHER LABORATORY EXAMINATIONS TUMOR MARKERS

Tumor markers are biochemical indicators of the presence or absence of tumors. They can be produced by the tumor or non-tumor cells in response to the tumor. Tumor markers play several roles: diagnostic, prognostic, predictive, and monitoring. Their use in monitoring evaluates the success of therapy and followup.³⁸ Several markers commonly used in diagnosing lung cancer include carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA), carbohydrate antigen 125 (CA125), squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) antigen, cytokeratin-19 fragment progesterone-releasing (CYFRA21-1), peptide neuron-specific (ProGRP), and enolase (NSE). Additionally, these markers can be used to monitor and evaluate therapy response. Combining several tumor markers can increase the sensitivity and accuracy of disease progression monitoring.³⁹

Liquid Biopsy

Liquid biopsy is a non-invasive examination using blood, sputum, and urine to detect the presence or absence of tumor cells in the bloodstream. This examination can be used for screening, initial diagnosis, monitoring, and identifying molecular diversity in lung cancer. An advantage of liquid biopsy is its ability to detect mutations in cancer tissue, identify the mechanisms of resistance to therapy that occur, and predict response to therapy. The four biomarkers commonly used include circulating tumor cells (CTCs), cell-free deoxyribonucleic acid (cfDNA), exosomes, and metabolites.⁴⁰

Circulating tumor cells are cancer cells released from the primary tumor or metastases into the bloodstream. These markers are more frequently detected in advanced-stage cancer and serve as a prognostic factor and a tool for monitoring response to systemic therapy.³¹ Cell-free DNA is a DNA fragment circulating in the bloodstream. In lung cancer, the tumor mass undergoes apoptosis and necrosis, resulting in a DNA fraction known as cell tumor DNA (ctDNA) that provides insights into the genetic heterogeneity of different types of tumors. It can also facilitate monitoring therapy response and identify resistance to treatment.⁴⁰

According to the ESMO, ctDNA has several advantages over CTCs. One example of ctDNA is the EGFR mutation from T790M, which indicates the presence of a mutation and can serve as a monitoring marker in patients who have received first-line TKI therapy. The absence of the T790M mutation in the blood indicates a positive response to therapy and is a good prognostic indicator. In patients who previously responded well to TKI therapy and no mutations were detected in the blood, re-detection of ctDNA can indicate relapse and correlate poorly with the patient's clinical and radiological findings. For patients who receive immunotherapy, detecting tumor mutational burden (TMB) suggests an improvement in the patient's clinical condition.¹²

Liquid biopsy presents a viable alternative to biopsy because of its ease of examination and avoidance of tissue biopsy. However, this examination is not widely adopted as a routine diagnostic and monitoring tool for lung cancer because of its high cost, limited availability, and the need for extensive research and consensus on standardization in diagnosis and therapy.^{6,12,40}

SUMMARY

Lung cancer is the second most commonly diagnosed malignancy, with the highest mortality rate in the world. Most patients present at an advanced stage that requires systemic therapy. This situation requires regular monitoring and evaluation to reduce the symptoms and improve the patient's QoL. Three approaches can be employed in evaluating and monitoring patients undergoing systemic therapy: subjective, semi-subjective, and objective evaluations. Subjective evaluation involves monitoring the patient's OoL, focusing on cancer and patient outcomes. Cancer outcomes include patient response to treatment, duration of response, symptom-free period, and early detection of recurrence, while patient outcomes include the survival benefits achieved. Semi-subjective evaluation involves the monitoring of the patient's weight and performance status. Monitoring body weight is a clinical predictor and prognostic factor for evaluating disease progression. At the same time, performance status plays a vital role in treatment selection and is an independent prognostic factor for patients with advanced cancer. Finally, objective evaluation involves using imaging tools such as CT scans, chest X-rays, MRI, and PET scans to monitor tumor progression. Using assessment criteria such as RECIST 1.1 or iRECIST simplifies the determination of progression and aids in deciding subsequent therapeutic strategies.

Acknowledgments

None declared.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declared there is no conflict of interest.

Funding

This study did not receive any funding.

Authors' Contribution

Conceptualization of the framework and methodology: AF, FFW, LW. Data collection and analysis, synthesis of the findings, and drafting of the manuscript: IS. All authors contributed and approved the final version of the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, *et al.* Global Cancer Statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN Estimates of Incidence and Mortality Worldwide for 36 Cancers in 185 Countries. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2021; 71: 209– 249. [PubMed]
- 2. Kementerian Kesehatan Republik Indonesia. Hari Kanker Sedunia 2019. *Kemenkes*, https://kemkes.go.id/id/hari-kanker-sedunia-2019 (2019).
- Padinharayil H, Varghese J, John MC, et al. Non-Small Cell Lung Carcinoma (NSCLC): Implications on Molecular Pathology and Advances in Early Diagnostics and Therapeutics. *Genes Dis* 2023; 10: 960–989. [ScienceDirect]
- Duma N, Santana-Davila R, Molina J. Non–Small Cell Lung Cancer: Epidemiology, Screening, Diagnosis, and Treatment. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2019;

94: 1623–1640. [PubMed]

- Guo H, Li H, Zhu L, *et al.* 'How Long Have I Got?' in Stage IV NSCLC Patients with at Least 3 Months Up to 10 Years Survival, Accuracy of Long-, Intermediate-, and Short-Term Survival Prediction is not Good Enough to Answer this Question. *Front Oncol* 2021; 11: 761042. [PubMed]
- National Comprehensive Cancer Network. NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology (NCCN Guidelines) for Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer (NSCLC). Philadelphia, https://www.nccn.org/guidelines/guidelinesdetail?category=1&id=1450 (2023).
- American Society of Clinical Oncology. ASCO Cancer Treatment and Survivorship Care Plans, https://www.cancer.org/cancer/survivorship/longterm-health-concerns/survivorship-care-plans.html (2021).
- Miller M, Hanna N. Advances in Systemic Therapy for Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer. *BMJ* 2021; 375: n2363. [PubMed]
- Broaddus VC, Ernst JD, King TE, et al. Murray & Nadel's Textbook of Respiratory Medicine E-Book. Elsevier, https://books.google.co.id/books?id=R5UwEAAAQ BAJ (2021).
- Araghi M, Mannani R, Maleki AH, *et al.* Recent Advances in Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Targeted Therapy; An Update Review. *Cancer Cell Int* 2023; 23: 162. [PubMed]
- Dingemans AMC, Früh M, Ardizzoni A, et al. Small-Cell Lung Cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for Diagnosis, Treatment and Follow-Up. Ann Oncol Off J Eur Soc Med Oncol 2021; 32: 839–853. [PubMed]
- Hendriks LE, Kerr KM, Menis J, *et al.* Oncogene-Addicted Metastatic Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for Diagnosis, Treatment and Follow-Up. *Ann Oncol Off J Eur Soc Med Oncol* 2023; 34: 339–357. [PubMed]
- Kementerian Kesehatan Republik Indonesia. Keputusan Menteri Kesehatan Republik Indonesia Nomor HK.01.07/MENKES/1438/2023 tentang Pedoman Nasional Pelayanan Kedokteran Tata Laksana Kanker Paru. HK.01.07/MENKES/1438/2023, Indonesia, https://kemkes.go.id/app_asset/file_content_downlo ad/16998444836551918303c728.14190138.pdf (2023).
- Ettinger DS, Wood DE, Aisner DL, et al. Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer, Version 3.2022, NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology. J Natl Compr Canc Netw 2022; 20: 497–530. [PubMed]
- Syahruddin E, Icksan AG, Soeroso NN, et al. Kanker Paru Pedoman Penstagingan di Indonesia. Jakarta: Perhimpunan Dokter Paru Indonesia (PDPI), https://bukupdpi.klikpdpi.com/kanker-parupedoman-penstagingan-di-indonesia-2025/ (2025).
- 16. Marhana IA, Amin M, Permatasari A, et al. Buku Ajar Paru 2022. Surabaya: Airlangga University Press,

https://books.google.co.id/books?id=tG6dEAAAQB

AJ (2022).

- Di Maio M, Basch E, Denis F, *et al.* The Role of Patient-Reported Outcome Measures in the Continuum of cancer Clinical Care: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline. *Ann Oncol Off J Eur Soc Med Oncol* 2022; 33: 878–892. [PubMed]
- Lehto RH. Psychosocial Challenges for Patients with Advanced Lung Cancer: Interventions to Improve Well-Being. *Lung Cancer (Auckland, NZ)* 2017; 8: 79–90. [PubMed]
- Prapa P, Papathanasiou IV, Bakalis V, *et al.* Quality of Life and Psychological Distress of Lung Cancer Patients Undergoing Chemotherapy. *World J Oncol* 2021; 12: 61–66. [PubMed]
- Iyer S, Roughley A, Rider A, et al. The Symptom Burden of Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer in the USA: A Real-World Cross-Sectional Study. Support Care Cancer Oofficial J Multinatl Assoc Support Care Cancer 2014; 22: 181–187. [PubMed]
- Reenen M van, Janssen B, Stolk E, et al. *EQ-5D-5L User Guide*. Rotterdam, https://euroqol.org/wpcontent/uploads/2023/11/EQ-5D-5LUserguide-23-07.pdf (2019).
- Mohindra NA, Peipert JD, Blum SI, *et al.* General Population Reference Values for the Functional Assessment of Cancer Therapy-Lung and PROMIS-29. *Cancer Med* 2023; 12: 12765–12776. [PubMed]
- 23. DeVita VT, DeVita VT, Rosenberg SA, et al. Devita, Hellman, and Rosenberg's Cancer: Principles and Practice of Oncology. Wolters Kluwer, https://books.google.co.id/books?id=3ih5zgEACAA

J (2023). 24. Lin T, Yang J, Hong X, *et al.* Nutritional Status in

- Patients with Advanced Lung Cancer Undergoing Chemotherapy: A Prospective Observational Study. *Nutr Cancer* 2020; 72: 1225–1230. [PubMed]
- Gul B, Metintas S, Ak G, *et al.* The Relationship between Nutritional Status and Prognosis in Patients with Locally Advanced and Advanced Stage Lung Cancer. *Support Care Cancer* 2021; 29: 3357–3365. [PubMed]
- Jain R, Coss C, Whooley P, *et al.* The Role of Malnutrition and Muscle Wasting in Advanced Lung Cancer. *Curr Oncol Rep* 2020; 22: 54. [PubMed]
- 27. Azam F, Latif MF, Farooq A, et al. Performance Status Assessment by Using ECOG (Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group) Score for Cancer

Patients by Oncology Healthcare Professionals. *Case Rep Oncol* 2019; 12: 728–736. [PubMed]

- Wilson BE, Wright K, Koven R, *et al.* Surveillance Imaging after Curative-Intent Treatment for Cancer: Benefits, Harms, and Evidence. *J Clin Oncol* 2024; 42: 2245–2249. [PubMed]
- Edelman MJ, Meyers FJ, Siegel D. The Utility of Follow-Up Testing after Curative Cancer Therapy. A Critical Review and Economic Analysis. J Gen Intern Med 1997; 12: 318–331. [PubMed]
- Planchard D, Popat S, Kerr K, *et al.* Metastatic Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for Diagnosis, Treatment and Follow-Up. *Ann Oncol Off J Eur Soc Med Oncol* 2018; 29: iv192–iv237. [PubMed]
- 31. Munzenrider JE. Handbook of Cancer Diagnosis and Treatment Evaluation. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 2009; 75: 1621. [Journal]
- 32. Eisenhauer EA, Therasse P, Bogaerts J, *et al.* New Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumours: Revised RECIST Guideline (Version 1.1). *Eur J Cancer* 2009; 45: 228–247. [PubMed]
- Walter MA. The Role of Positron Emission Tomography–Computed Tomography in the Workup of Non–Small Cell Lung Cancer. JAMA Netw Open 2019; 2: e1915873–e1915873. [Journal]
- Hwang KE, Kim HR. Response Evaluation of Chemotherapy for Lung Cancer. *Tuberc Respir Dis* (Seoul) 2017; 80: 136–142. [PubMed]
- Marcus C, Tajmir SH, Rowe SP, et al. 18F-FDG PET/CT for Response Assessment in Lung Cancer. Semin Nucl Med 2022; 52: 662–672. [ScienceDirect]
- 36. Persigehl T, Lennartz S, Schwartz LH. iRECIST: how to do it. *Cancer Imaging* 2020; 20: 2. [Journal]
- Ma Y, Wang Q, Dong Q, *et al.* How to Differentiate Pseudoprogression from True Progression in Cancer Patients Treated with Immunotherapy. *Am J Cancer Res* 2019; 9: 1546–1553. [PubMed]
- Zhou Y, Tao L, Qiu J, *et al.* Tumor Biomarkers for Diagnosis, Prognosis and Targeted Therapy. *Signal Transduct Target Ther* 2024; 9: 132. [Journal]
- Jiang C, Zhao M, Hou S, *et al.* The Indicative Value of Serum Tumor Markers for Metastasis and Stage of Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer. *Cancers (Basel)*; 14. Epub ahead of print October 2022. [PubMed]
- 40. Freitas C, Sousa C, Machado F, *et al.* The Role of Liquid Biopsy in Early Diagnosis of Lung Cancer. *Front Oncol* 2021; 11: 634316. [PubMed]