

## Research Article

# MicroRNA Biomarker *hsa-miR-195-5p* for Detecting the Risk of Lung Cancer

Lei Li <sup>1,2</sup>, Tienan Feng <sup>3</sup>, Weituo Zhang <sup>3</sup>, Sumeng Gao <sup>1,2</sup>, Ruoyang Wang <sup>1,2</sup>, Wenwen Lv <sup>3</sup>, Tengteng Zhu <sup>3</sup>, Herbert Yu <sup>4</sup>, and Biyun Qian <sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Hongqiao International Institute of Medicine, Shanghai Tongren Hospital and Faculty of Public Health, Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine, Shanghai, China

<sup>2</sup>Clinical Research Center, Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine, Shanghai, China

<sup>3</sup>Hongqiao International Institute of Medicine, Shanghai Tongren Hospital and Clinical Research Institute, Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine, Shanghai, China

<sup>4</sup>Cancer Epidemiology Program, University of Hawaii Cancer Center, Honolulu, HI, USA

Correspondence should be addressed to Biyun Qian; [qianbiyun@sjtu.edu.cn](mailto:qianbiyun@sjtu.edu.cn)

Received 15 August 2019; Revised 14 November 2019; Accepted 3 December 2019; Published 2 January 2020

Academic Editor: Atsushi Kurabayashi

Copyright © 2020 Lei Li et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

**Background.** Lung cancer is one of the leading diagnosed cancers worldwide, and microRNAs could be used as biomarkers to diagnose lung cancer. *hsa-miR-195* has been demonstrated to affect the prognosis of NSCLC (non-small-cell lung cancer) in a previous study. However, the diagnostic value of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in lung cancer has not been investigated. **Methods.** To evaluate the ability of *hsa-miR-195-5p* to diagnose lung cancer, we compared the expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in lung cancer patients, COPD patients, and normal controls. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis was performed to investigate the sensitivity and specificity of *hsa-miR-195-5p*. Coexpression network and pathway analysis were carried out to explore the mechanism. **Results.** We found that *hsa-miR-195-5p* had lower expression in lung cancer and COPD patients than in normal controls, and the AUC was 0.92 for diagnosing lung cancer. *hsa-miR-143* correlated with *hsa-miR-195-5p*, and by combining these two microRNAs, the AUC was 0.97 for diagnosing lung cancer. **Conclusions.** *hsa-miR-195-5p* may act as a biomarker that contributes to the diagnosis of lung cancer and the detection of its high-risk population.

## 1. Background

Lung cancer is one of the leading diagnosed tumors with high mortality worldwide [1] and China [2]. It is estimated 2.09 million new lung cancer cases and 1.96 million lung cancer deaths worldwide in 2018 [1]. The 5-year survival estimates in lung cancer range from 73% in stage IA to 13% in stage IV [3]. Unfortunately, around 80% of patients with lung cancer have stage III or IV disease at presentation [4]. Surgery, radiotherapy, chemotherapy, target therapy, and immunotherapy significantly improve the survival and quality of life of lung cancer patients [5], especially in early-stage lung cancer [6]. However, only some subsets of patients in certain tumor types are suitable for target therapy [7] and drug resistance remains a big challenge [8]. Early diagnosis and

detection of lung cancer are effective strategies for prevention and treatment [9]. Low-dose computed tomography is a common and effective early screening method for lung cancer [10]. However, lung cancer screening with low-dose computed tomography has some limitations including increased costs, high rate of nodule detection, overdiagnosis [11], and radiation exposure [12]. It is accepted that biomarkers for early diagnosis could help reduce mortality for lung cancer [13]. The identification of genomic biomarkers such as the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) and anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK) has improved the current clinical practice [14]. Despite most published guidelines relating to the diagnosis and management of patients with lung cancer do not recommend any serum biomarker, serum biomarker assays are performed in some European and Asian countries

[15]. A number of diagnostic biomarkers for lung cancer have been suggested, including carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA), neuron-specific enolase (NSE), cytokeratin 19 (CYFRA-21-1), alpha-fetoprotein (AFP), serum carbohydrate antigen-125 (CA-125), carbohydrate antigen-19.9 (CA-19.9), and ferritin [14, 16]. Biomarkers as a safe and efficient way to combine with low-dose computed tomography and other methods can improve the early diagnosis of lung cancer [17]. COPD (chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) shares many high-risk factors with lung cancer, and COPD itself is a risk factor for the development of lung cancer [18].

In lung cancer, many biomarkers have been discovered and reported to predict lung cancer risk or diagnose lung cancer. Epigenetic changes, protein and proteomic signatures, gene mutations, RNA expression levels, and loss of gene heterozygosity all can serve as biomarkers of lung cancer [19]. Of these biomarkers, microRNAs are a class of short RNAs that regulate gene expression and have been widely investigated as potential biomarkers in lung cancer [20].

In a previous study from our research group [21], we found that microRNA *hsa-miR-195-5p* suppresses NSCLC (non-small-cell lung cancer) and predicts lung cancer prognosis. In addition to our research, previous studies have shown aberrant *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression in multiple cancer types, such as prostate cancer [22], hepatocellular carcinoma [22], and cervical cancer [23]. However, the expression level of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in normal controls, lung cancer patients, and COPD patients, who have a high risk for developing lung cancer, has not been investigated, and the diagnostic ability of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in lung cancer has not been evaluated. Therefore, we carried out this study to investigate these factors.

## 2. Methods

**2.1. Data Source.** All datasets were obtained from GEO (Gene Expression Omnibus) [24] and TCGA (The Cancer Genome Atlas) [25] databases with open access. We searched for datasets that had at least two types of people, either lung cancer or COPD patients and normal controls, in the GEO database. We selected datasets that had more than thirty participants in the study, for the next step of the analysis. All the GEO datasets contained noncoding RNA profiling by array using different platforms. The TCGA database had LUAD (lung adenocarcinoma) and LUSC (lung squamous cell carcinoma) microRNA data. The LUAD dataset had 46 normal controls and 456 lung cancer patients. The LUSC dataset had 45 normal controls and 342 lung cancer patients. We also combined mRNA data of TCGA-LUAD and TCGA-LUSC in a co-expression analysis. The details of these datasets are summarized in Table S1.

**2.2. Coexpression Network.** We merged microRNA and mRNA data from the TCGA data and combined the LUAD and the LUSC samples. Then, we calculated a correlation matrix based on the Pearson correlation coefficient. We selected microRNAs directly linked with the *hsa-miR-195-5p* microRNA with cutoffs of  $R^2 > 0.5$  and  $p < 0.05$ . To determine other microRNAs that were indirectly linked with

*hsa-miR-195-5p* in the network, we set cutoffs of  $R^2 > 0.7$  and  $p < 0.05$  between indirectly linked microRNAs. We used a network diagram to show this coexpression network.

**2.3. Statistical Analyses.** All datasets were normalized using zero-mean normalization. A *t*-test was used to evaluate different expressions between different types of samples, and a *p* value  $< 0.05$  was considered statistically significant. When showing the expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in the bar chart, the expression of the control group was set to one and the fold changes of other groups were calculated. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves and area under the curve (AUC) were conducted to evaluate the ability of biomarkers to distinguish between lung cancer or COPD patients and normal controls. All statistics were performed using R software (version 3.4.1, URL: <https://cran.r-project.org/bin/windows/base/old/3.4.1/>).

**2.4. Pathway Analysis.** We uploaded the microRNA data from the coexpression network to IPA (Ingenuity Pathway Analysis, URL: <https://www.qiagenbioinformatics.com/products/ingenuity-pathway-analysis/>) to explore the mechanism and function of miRNAs. In the pathway enrichment and function analysis, we selected significant pathways and functions depending on  $p < 0.05$ .

## 3. Results

**3.1. The Expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in Lung Cancer Patients, COPD Patients, and Normal Controls.** Among the datasets, GSE15008, GSE62186, GSE64519, TCGA-LUAD, TCGA-LUSC, and GSE17681, which contained lung cancer patients and normal controls, *hsa-miR-195-5p* showed lower expression in lung cancer patients compared with normal controls ( $p < 0.05$ ). In the dataset GSE49881, which had COPD patients and normal controls, *hsa-miR-195-5p* presented lower expression in COPD patients compared with normal controls ( $p < 0.05$ ). The GSE31568, GSE61741, and GSE24709 datasets contained lung cancer patients, COPD patients, and normal controls, among which lung cancer and COPD patients had lower expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* than normal controls ( $p < 0.05$ ). However, there were no differences between lung cancer and COPD patients in *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression. Figure 1 shows the details of these analyses.

**3.2. The Association of *hsa-miR-195-5p* with Smoking Status and Sex.** Smoking status and sex information can be found in the TCGA-LUAD and TCGA-LUSC GSE62182 and GSE64591 datasets. The dataset GSE29135 only had information regarding the sex of patients. GSE62182 and GSE64591 datasets included both lung cancer patients and normal controls. Among lung cancer patients and normal controls, there were no differences between nonsmokers and smokers with regard to *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression ( $p > 0.05$ ). All datasets showed no differences between males and females in *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression ( $p > 0.05$ ), except for the TCGA-LUAD dataset. In the TCGA-LUAD dataset, females had a much higher *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression than males ( $p < 0.01$ ). Figure 2 shows the details of these analyses.

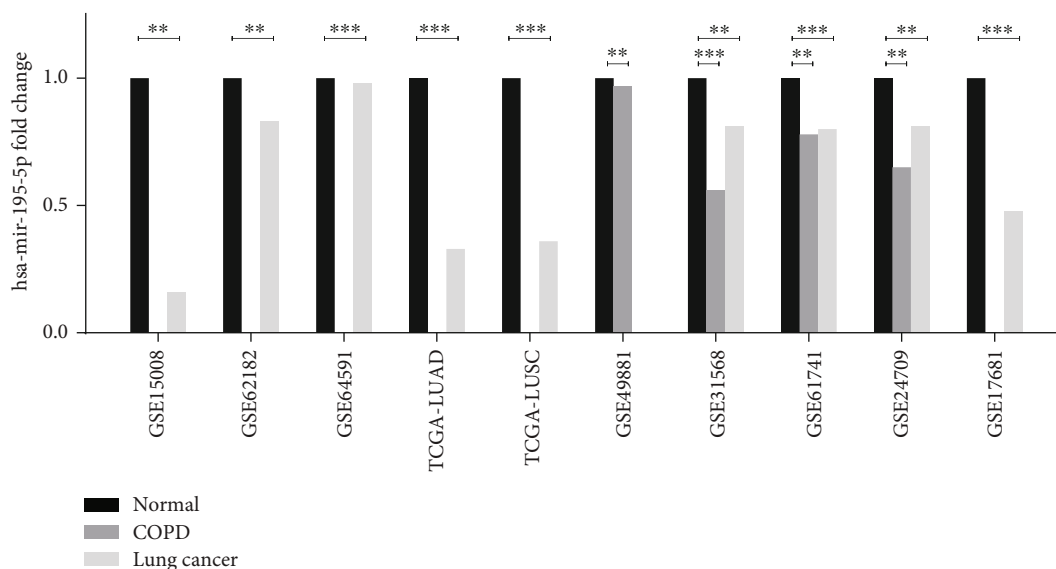


FIGURE 1: Expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in lung cancer patients, COPD patients, and normal controls. All datasets show higher expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in lung cancer and COPD patients compared with normal controls. Because of the absence of samples, some datasets do not contain all three population types.

**3.3. ROC Curve for Distinguishing Lung Cancer Patients, COPD Patients, and Normal Controls Using *hsa-miR-195-5p* Expression.** ROC curves were performed to evaluate the ability of *hsa-miR-195-5p* to distinguish lung cancer and COPD patients from normal controls using the GSE24709, GSE61741, and GSE31568 datasets, which included lung cancer patients, COPD patients, and normal controls. Above all, *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression was able to distinguish well lung cancer patients and normal controls in three datasets ( $AUC > 0.65$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). In distinguishing COPD patients and normal controls using *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression, the GSE31568 and GSE24709 datasets, but not the GSE61741 dataset, showed statistical significance ( $AUC > 0.70$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Using *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression to distinguish COPD and lung cancer patients, only the GSE61741 dataset showed significant differences ( $AUC = 0.60$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), and another two datasets did not reach a significant difference ( $p > 0.05$ ). The results from these analyses are shown in Figure 3.

**3.4. Coexpression Network of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in the TCGA Lung Cancer Patients.** Depending on the TCGA lung cancer dataset, microRNA and mRNA expression data were merged. The genes directly linked to *hsa-miR-195-5p* with an  $R^2 > 0.5$  were selected as directly associated genes. In the network of these genes, which were not directly linked to *hsa-miR-195-5p*, the cutoff was  $R^2 > 0.7$ . Thirteen genes were directly associated with *hsa-miR-195-5p* expression. IPA analysis was performed using directly associated genes together with another indirectly linked gene. The IL-8 signaling pathway was the most important pathway in this network and plays a key role in lung cancer patients (Figures 4(b) and 4(c)). Among thirteen genes, the microRNA *hsa-miR-143* was selected as a candidate for further analyses; this miRNA has been widely reported to be associated with lung cancer. The results are shown in Figure 4(a).

**3.5. ROC Curve for *hsa-miR-195-5p* Combined with *hsa-miR-143* to Distinguish Lung Cancer Patients and Normal Controls.** The GSE72526 was a dataset using microRNA to predict *ALK*, *EGFR*, and *KRAS* statuses in lung cancer patients and to use *ALK*, *EGFR*, and *KRAS* as biomarkers to diagnose lung cancer. The sensitivity and specificity of this dataset were 0.64 and 1.00, respectively. In this dataset, *hsa-miR-195-5p* was used to predict lung cancer with a sensitivity and a specificity of 0.79 and 1.00, respectively ( $AUC = 0.92$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). When *hsa-miR-195-5p* was combined with *hsa-miR-143*, the sensitivity and specificity were 0.99 and 0.83, respectively ( $AUC = 0.97$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Table 1, Figure 4(d), and Figure 4(e) show the parameters of these analyses.

## 4. Discussion

For lung cancer screening, large research studies have been carried out. The Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial (PLCO) is a cancer screening trial to determine whether a screening procedure reduces the mortality of PLCO cancers [26]. Based on this trial, researchers found that age, race or ethnicity, education, body mass index, COPD, personal history of cancer, family history of lung cancer, smoking status, smoking intensity, smoking duration, and smoking quit time influenced lung cancer morbidity [27]. This model can be used to assess the risk of lung cancer. The National Lung Screening Trial (NLST) is a multicentre, randomized clinical trial comparing low-dose helical computerized tomographic scanning (CT) with chest radiography in screening smokers for early detection of lung cancer [28]. A risk model was also made on the risk of lung cancer diagnosis. In this model, age, sex, race, smoking pack-years, emphysema on T0 CT, self-reported history of COPD, and family history of lung cancer were included [29]. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is the fourth most

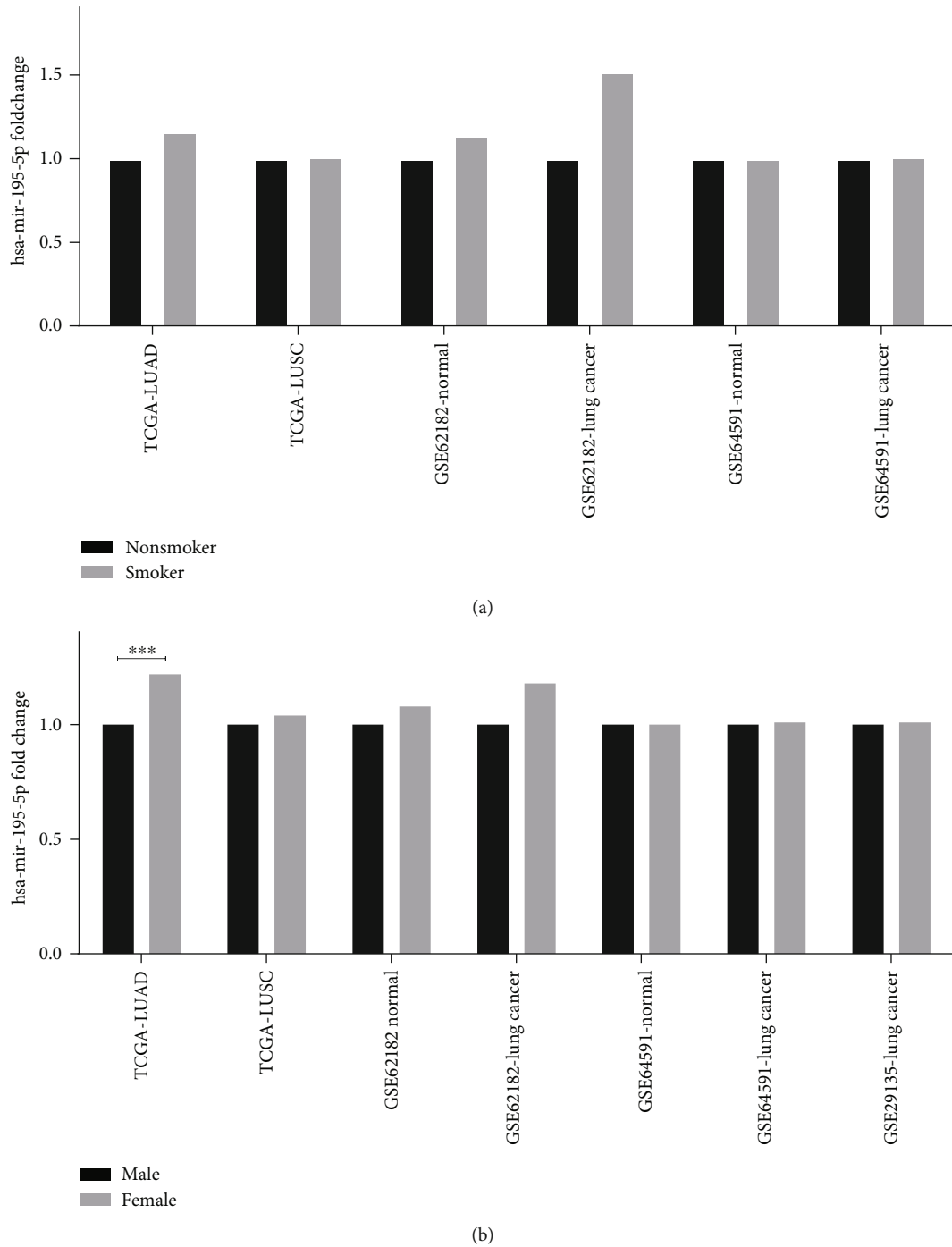


FIGURE 2: Expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* in different sexes and smoking statuses among lung cancer and COPD patients. In most datasets, sex and smoking status of patients do not affect the expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p*. The expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* is higher in females than in males.

common cause of death and smoking-related disorders [30]. COPD shares many risk factors with lung cancer, including smoking exposure, underweight, and low education [31, 32], and COPD itself is a risk factor for lung cancer [27]. Some lung cancer risk models considered COPD as a component [27].

In addition to these models comprised of classical phenotypes, some researchers discovered biomarkers to improve

the prediction accuracy of the models [33]. The ITALUNG biomarker panel (IBP) combined with low-dose computed tomography achieved good performance for the identification of lung cancers at baseline screening, with a sensitivity of 90.0% and specificity of 89.0% [34]. A study suggested that a panel of four biomarkers composed of prolactin, *CRP*, *NY-ESO-1*, and *HGF* to screen for lung cancer. Combining this panel with sex, age, and smoking status, this analysis can

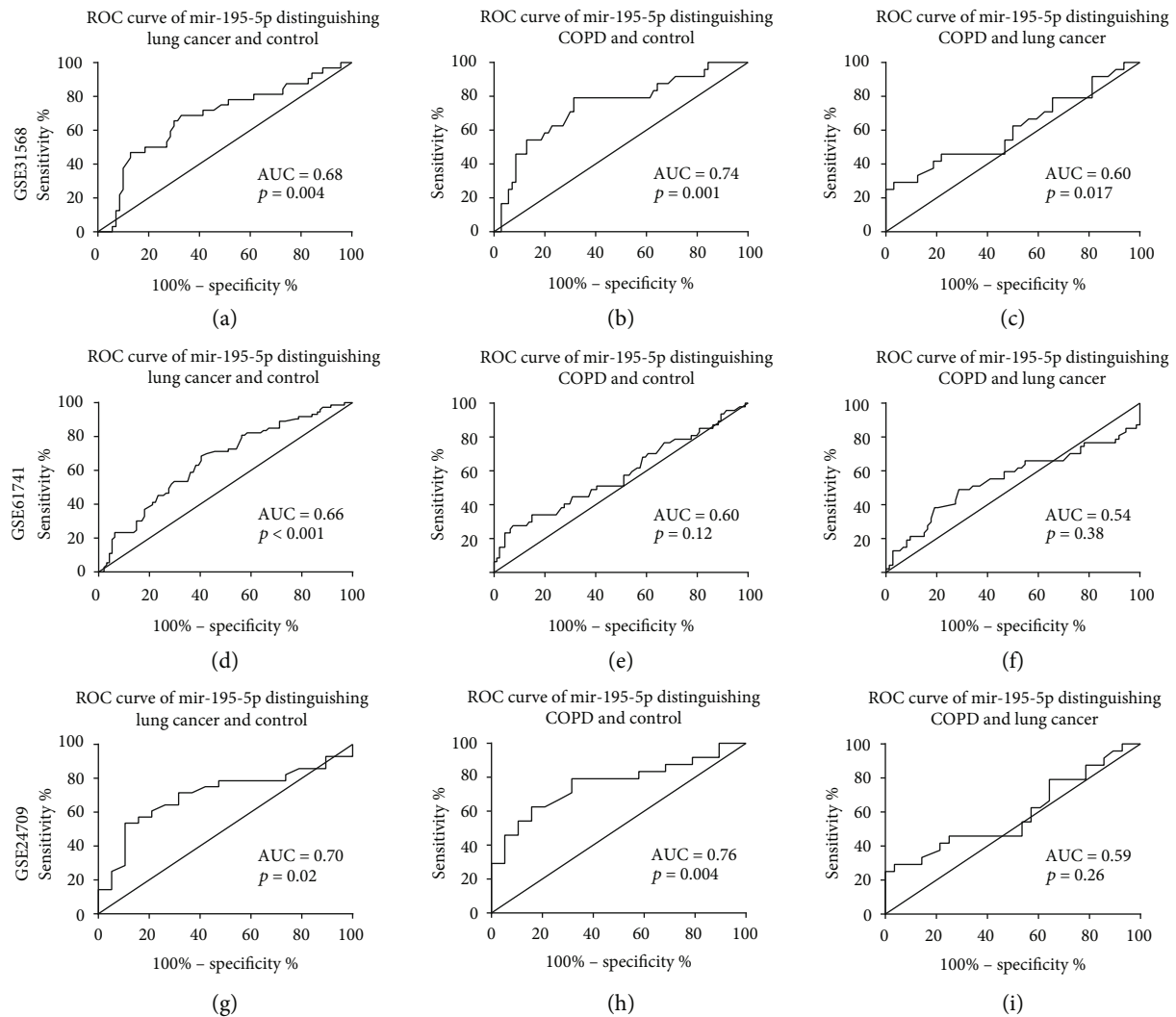


FIGURE 3: ROC curves of *hsa-miR-195-5p* to distinguish lung cancer patients, COPD patients, and normal controls. In all three datasets, *hsa-miR-195-5p* showed good performance in distinguishing between lung cancer or COPD patients and normal controls, but not between lung cancer and COPD patients.

achieve 86.96% sensitivity and 98.25% specificity for detecting lung cancer patients [35]. A study of a panel of transcript expressions of 14 antioxidants, DNA repair, and transcription factor genes in normal bronchial epithelial cells showed an AUC of 0.87 [36]. A lung cancer diagnostic panel consisting of *APOA1*, *CO4A*, *CRP*, *GSTP1*, and *SAMP* expression levels reached 95% sensitivity and 81% specificity [37]. Similarly, a panel of four biomarkers ( $\alpha$ -2 macroglobulin, haptoglobin, ceruloplasmin, and hemopexin) was able to discriminate COPD patients and controls [38]. Sawa et al. reported that the frequency of the *PIK3CA* mutation increased in parallel with COPD severity, and the *PIK3CA* mutation is a genetic feature of patients with non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) with COPD, regardless of age, smoking, pathological stage, and histology [39]. These biomarkers could improve the detection of lung cancer and COPD patients (the high-risk population for developing lung cancer).

MicroRNAs are a type of very short noncoding RNA. It is well known that miRNAs can bind to complementary sites in

the 3'-untranslated region (UTR) of target mRNA, leading to posttranscriptional gene silencing. Many miRNAs have been discovered as biomarkers for the diagnosis of lung cancer and for stratifying lung cancer subtypes [40]. Jin et al. reported that *miR-181-5p*, *miR-30a-3p*, *miR-30e-3p*, *miR-361-5p*, *miR-10b-5p*, *miR-15b-5p*, and *miR-320b* can be used to NSCLC with an AUC value of 0.899 for detecting NSCLC [41]. Zhu et al. developed a signature containing 4 miRNAs, *miR-23b*, *miR-221*, *miR-148b*, and *miR-423-3p*, with an AUC of 0.885, and this signature may be considered as a biomarker for diagnosing lung cancer.

Bioinformatics is an appropriate approach for an initial discovery to identify biomarkers. Using bioinformatics methods, researchers found a series of microRNAs that can be used as diagnosis and prognosis biomarkers in tumors. The public databases such as GEO and TCGA and the prediction tools of mirDIP (<http://ophid.utoronto.ca/mirDIP>) and DIANA-mirPath (<https://omictools.com/diana-mirpath-tool>) are widely used in the researches of microRNAs. Based on a GEO dataset, Hafsi et al. found

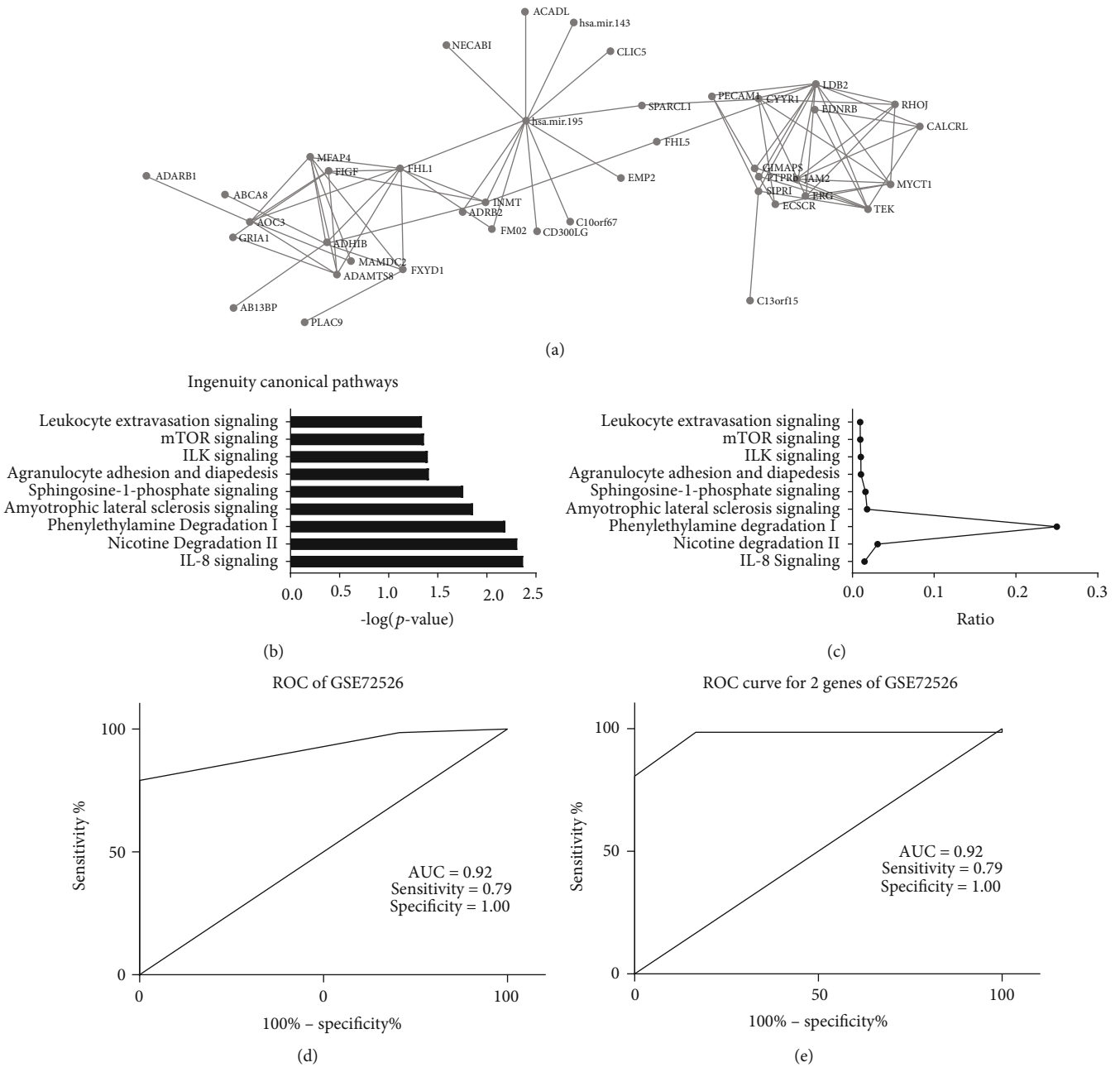


FIGURE 4: Coexpression network and Ingenuity Pathway Analysis of *hsa-miR-195* in the TCGA lung cancer patients. The ROC curve of *hsa-miR-195* combined with *hsa-miR-143* to distinguish lung cancer patients and normal controls in another two datasets. (a) The network analysis shows another microRNA highly correlated with *hsa-miR-195*. (b, c) Ingenuity Pathway Analysis shows that the IL-8 signaling pathway was the most important pathway in this network. (d, e) The combination of *hsa-miR-195* and *hsa-miR-143* has a better performance in distinguishing lung cancer patients and normal controls compared with *hsa-miR-195* alone.

two microRNAs that targeted *YY1* mRNA in Burkitt's lymphoma using miRNA target prediction tools and Pearson correlation. The two microRNAs were related to the expression of *YY1* and downregulated in Burkitt's lymphoma [42]. Using two public available GEO datasets, Falzone et al. reported several microRNAs that were associated with the epithelial-mesenchymal transition pathway and NGAL/MMP-9 pathways in bladder cancer [43]; the author also found four microRNAs which were related to colorectal cancer through the mismatch repair pathway and

other tumor signaling pathways [44]. The research group reported three microRNAs, which were associated with the prognosis in uveal melanomas [45]; in oral cancer, they identified 11 microRNAs with a potential diagnostic role and eight microRNAs associated with prognosis [46]. For the first time, they discovered a set of deregulated miRNAs in both glioblastoma and Alzheimer's disease [47].

In this study, we compared the expression of *hsa-miR-195-5p* between lung cancer patients, COPD patients, and normal controls. We found a lower expression of *hsa-miR-*

TABLE 1: Statistical parameters of *has-mir-195-5p* combined with *has-mir-143* to distinguish lung cancer and normal.

Parameter	<i>has-miR-195-5p</i>	<i>has-miR-195-5p</i> & <i>has-miR-143</i>
Sensitivity	0.79	0.99
Specificity	1.00	0.83
False positive rate	0.00	0.17
False negative rate	0.21	0.02
Accuracy	0.84	0.95
Kappa	0.62	0.85
AUC	0.92	0.97

*195-5p* in lung cancer and COPD patients. Using *has-miR-195-5p* as a biomarker to diagnose lung cancer, the AUC was 0.92, when combining *has-miR-195-5p* with the correlative microRNA *has-miR-143*, and the AUC was 0.97 for diagnosing lung cancer. Similarly, *has-miR-195-5p* has the ability to diagnose COPD, but the evidence was not strong enough to distinguishing lung cancer from COPD.

*has-miR-195-5p* is located at 17p13 with 87bp in the genome. Our previous research has demonstrated the effect of *has-miR-195-5p* on the prognosis of NSCLC patients. *has-miR-195-5p* can suppress NSCLC by decreasing *CHEK1* expression [21]. *MiR-195* regulates the response of NSCLC to microtubule-targeting agents (MTAs) by targeting *CHEK1* [48]. In addition to lung cancer, *miR-195* suppresses colon cancer proliferation and metastasis [49], inhibits tumour growth and angiogenesis in breast cancer [50], and is associated with the chemotherapy sensitivity of cisplatin and the clinical prognosis in gastric cancer [51]. In the studies of Falzone, *has-miR-195-5p* is one of the 16 microRNAs, which are downregulated in oral cancer [45]; in colorectal cancer, *has-miR-195-5p* is also downregulated and directly related to colorectal cancer through some cancer pathways [5]. *has-miR-143* is located at 5q32 with 106bp in the genome. *MiR-143* can suppress gastric cancer cell migration and metastasis by inhibiting *MYO6* and EMT [52]; it can also regulate the proliferation and migration of osteosarcoma through *MAPK7* [53]. *has-miR-143-5p* is upregulated in uveal melanomas [45] and bladder cancer [43] in bioinformatics studies. The ability of *has-miR-195-5p* to diagnose lung cancer and to find a high-risk population has not been reported.

This study has some limitations. We did not have enough clinical samples to confirm the results. The clinical information of the datasets is not complete; therefore, we could not analyze the subtypes of lung cancer and COPD. In addition, we could not adjust the relevant factors properly. The pathway and functional analysis remained at the sample level and was only a little exploration for mechanistic research.

## 5. Conclusions

Early diagnosis and detection of lung cancer are effective strategies for prevention and treatment. *has-miR-195-5p* has a good performance as a biomarker to diagnose lung

cancer. *has-miR-195-5p* may contribute to the diagnosis of lung cancer and the detection of its high-risk population.

## Abbreviations

COPD: Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease  
 NSCLC: Non-small-cell lung cancer  
 GEO: Gene expression omnibus  
 TCGA: The cancer genome atlas  
 LUAD: Lung adenocarcinoma  
 LUSC: Lung squamous cell carcinoma  
 ROC: Receiver operating characteristic curves  
 AUC: Area under the curve  
 NLST: The national lung screening trial  
 PLCO: The prostate, lung, colorectal, and ovarian cancer screening trial.

## Data Availability

The datasets generated and/or analyzed during the current study are available in the GEO repository, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gds>, and TCGA repository, <https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/>.

## Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## Authors' Contributions

WZ and TF developed the methodology, SG and RW collected the data, WL and TZ made some suggestions for writing manuscript, HY took some advice and provided study supervision. BQ designed the study and provided financial support. LL was a major contributor in the analysis and interpretation of data and writing of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

## Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 81573231), the Shanghai Municipal Health Bureau (Grant No. 20144y0249), and the SJTU Medicine-Engineering Research Fund (Grant No. YG2016QN78).

## Supplementary Materials

Table S1: summarized information of the databases. This table summarized the details of the database used in this article, including the brand of the platform, the type of platform, the type of technology, the type of experiment, the number of samples, the type of samples, and other relevant information of samples. (*Supplementary Materials*)

## References

- [1] F. Bray, J. Ferlay, I. Soerjomataram, R. L. Siegel, L. A. Torre, and A. Jemal, "Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN

- estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries," *CA: a Cancer Journal for Clinicians*, vol. 68, no. 6, pp. 394–424, 2018.
- [2] W. Chen, R. Zheng, P. D. Baade et al., "Cancer statistics in China, 2015," *CA: a Cancer Journal for Clinicians*, vol. 66, no. 2, pp. 115–132, 2016.
  - [3] G. A. Woodard, K. D. Jones, and D. M. Jablons, "Lung cancer staging and prognosis," *Cancer Treatment and Research*, vol. 170, pp. 47–75, 2016.
  - [4] S. S. Biring and M. D. Peake, "Symptoms and the early diagnosis of lung cancer," *Thorax*, vol. 60, no. 4, pp. 268–269, 2005.
  - [5] L. Falzone, L. Scola, A. Zanghi et al., "Integrated analysis of colorectal cancer microRNA datasets: identification of microRNAs associated with tumor development," *Aging*, vol. 10, no. 5, pp. 1000–1014, 2018.
  - [6] K. M. Latimer and T. F. Mott, "Lung cancer: diagnosis, treatment principles, and screening," *American Family Physician*, vol. 91, no. 4, pp. 250–256, 2015.
  - [7] J. Zugazagoitia, C. Guedes, S. Ponce, I. Ferrer, S. Molina-Pinelo, and L. Paz-Ares, "Current challenges in cancer treatment," *Clinical Therapeutics*, vol. 38, no. 7, pp. 1551–1566, 2016.
  - [8] G. Housman, S. Byler, S. Heerboth et al., "Drug resistance in cancer: an overview," *Cancers*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 1769–1792, 2014.
  - [9] V. W. Rusch, J. Crowley, D. J. Giroux et al., "The IASLC lung cancer staging project: proposals for the revision of the N descriptors in the forthcoming seventh edition of the TNM classification for lung cancer," *Journal of Thoracic Oncology*, vol. 2, no. 7, pp. 603–612, 2007.
  - [10] P. M. Boiselle, "Computed tomography screening for lung cancer," *JAMA*, vol. 309, no. 11, pp. 1163–1170, 2013.
  - [11] J. R. Jett, "Limitations of screening for lung cancer with low-dose spiral computed tomography," *Clin Cancer Res*, vol. 11, no. 13, pp. 4988s–4992s, 2005.
  - [12] P. F. Pinsky, "Assessing the benefits and harms of low-dose computed tomography screening for lung cancer," *Lung Cancer Management*, vol. 3, no. 6, pp. 491–498, 2014.
  - [13] T. Liloglou, N. G. Bediaga, B. R. B. Brown, J. K. Field, and M. P. A. Davies, "Epigenetic biomarkers in lung cancer," *Cancer Letters*, vol. 342, no. 2, pp. 200–212, 2014.
  - [14] P. Villalobos and I. I. Wistuba, "Lung cancer biomarkers," *Hematology/Oncology Clinics of North America*, vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 13–29, 2017.
  - [15] M. J. Duffy and K. O'Byrne, "Chapter one - tissue and blood biomarkers in lung cancer: a review," in *Advances in Clinical Chemistry*, G. S. Makowski, Ed., pp. 1–21, Elsevier, 2018.
  - [16] X. Li, T. Asmitananda, L. Gao et al., "Biomarkers in the lung cancer diagnosis: a clinical perspective," *Neoplasma*, vol. 59, no. 05, pp. 500–507, 2012.
  - [17] V. Brower, "Biomarkers: portents of malignancy," *Nature*, vol. 471, no. 7339, pp. S19–S21, 2011.
  - [18] D. M. Skillrud, K. P. Offord, and R. D. Miller, "Higher risk of lung cancer in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. A prospective, matched, controlled study," *Annals of Internal Medicine*, vol. 105, no. 4, pp. 503–507, 1986.
  - [19] N. Hasan, R. Kumar, and M. S. Kavuru, "Lung cancer screening beyond low-dose computed tomography: the role of novel biomarkers," *Lung*, vol. 192, no. 5, pp. 639–648, 2014.
  - [20] Y. Wang, D. Zheng, Q. Tan, M. X. Wang, and L.-Q. Gu, "Nanopore-based detection of circulating microRNAs in lung cancer patients," *Nature Nanotechnology*, vol. 6, no. 10, pp. 668–674, 2011.
  - [21] B. Liu, J. Qu, F. Xu et al., "MiR-195 suppresses non-small cell lung cancer by targeting CHEK1," *Oncotarget*, vol. 6, no. 11, pp. 9445–9456, 2015.
  - [22] X. Zhang, T. Tao, C. Liu et al., "Downregulation of miR-195 promotes prostate cancer progression by targeting HMGA1," *Oncology Reports*, vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 376–382, 2016.
  - [23] J. Zhong, H. Yuan, X. Xu, and S. Kong, "MicroRNA-195 inhibits cell proliferation, migration and invasion by targeting defective in cullin neddylation 1 domain containing 1 in cervical cancer," *International Journal of Molecular Medicine*, vol. 42, no. 2, pp. 779–788, 2018.
  - [24] R. Edgar, M. Domrachev, and A. E. Lash, "Gene Expression Omnibus: NCBI gene expression and hybridization array data repository," *Nucleic Acids Research*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 207–210, 2002.
  - [25] K. Tomczak, P. Czerwinska, and M. Wiznerowicz, "The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA): an immeasurable source of knowledge," *Contemporary Oncology*, vol. 19, no. 1a, pp. A68–A77, 2015.
  - [26] M. Doroudi and P. F. Pinsky, "Flexible sigmoidoscopy in the randomized prostate, lung, colorectal, and ovarian (PLCO) cancer screening trial: colorectal cancer survival by trial arm," *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, vol. 34, 15\_suppl, pp. 1549–1549, 2016.
  - [27] M. C. Tammemägi, H. A. Katki, W. G. Hocking et al., "Selection criteria for lung-cancer screening," *The New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 368, no. 8, pp. 728–736, 2013.
  - [28] National Lung Screening Trial Research Team, D. R. Aberle, C. D. Berg et al., "The National Lung Screening Trial: overview and study design," *Radiology*, vol. 258, no. 1, pp. 243–253, 2011.
  - [29] E. F. Patz Jr., E. Greco, C. Gatsonis, P. Pinsky, B. S. Kramer, and D. R. Aberle, "Lung cancer incidence and mortality in National Lung Screening Trial participants who underwent low-dose CT prevalence screening: a retrospective cohort analysis of a randomised, multicentre, diagnostic screening trial," *The Lancet Oncology*, vol. 17, no. 5, pp. 590–599, 2016.
  - [30] A. S. Gershon, L. Warner, P. Cascagnette, J. C. Victor, and T. To, "Lifetime risk of developing chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a longitudinal population study," *The Lancet*, vol. 378, no. 9795, pp. 991–996, 2011.
  - [31] D. S. Postma, A. Bush, and M. Van Den Berge, "Risk factors and early origins of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease," *Lancet*, vol. 385, no. 9971, pp. 899–909, 2015.
  - [32] Y.-C. Chen, S.-F. Liu, C.-H. Chin et al., "Association of tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$ -863C/A gene polymorphism with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease," *Lung*, vol. 188, no. 4, pp. 339–347, 2010.
  - [33] M. Hassanein, J. C. Callison, C. Callaway-Lane, M. C. Aldrich, E. L. Grogan, and P. P. Massion, "The state of molecular biomarkers for the early detection of lung cancer," *Cancer Prevention Research*, vol. 5, no. 8, pp. 992–1006, 2012.
  - [34] F. M. Carozzi, S. Bisanzi, L. Carrozzi et al., "Multimodal lung cancer screening using the ITALUNG biomarker panel and low dose computed tomography. Results of the ITALUNG biomarker study," *International Journal of Cancer*, vol. 141, no. 1, pp. 94–101, 2017.
  - [35] S. Ma, W. Wang, B. Xia et al., "Multiplexed serum biomarkers for the detection of lung cancer," *eBioMedicine*, vol. 11, no. C, pp. 210–218, 2016.



- [36] T. Blomquist, E. L. Crawford, D. Mullins et al., "Pattern of antioxidant and DNA repair gene expression in normal airway epithelium associated with lung cancer diagnosis," *Cancer Research*, vol. 69, no. 22, pp. 8629–8635, 2009.
- [37] M. Uribarri, I. Hormaeche, R. Zalacain et al., "A new biomarker panel in bronchoalveolar lavage for an improved lung cancer diagnosis," *Journal of Thoracic Oncology Official Publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer*, vol. 9, no. 10, pp. 1504–1512, 2014.
- [38] N. M. Verrills, J. A. Irwin, X. Yan He et al., "Identification of novel diagnostic biomarkers for asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease," *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, vol. 183, no. 12, pp. 1633–1643, 2011.
- [39] K. Sawa, Y. Koh, T. Kawaguchi et al., "PIK3CA mutation as a distinctive genetic feature of non-small cell lung cancer with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a comprehensive mutational analysis from a multi-institutional cohort," *Lung Cancer*, vol. 112, pp. 96–101, 2017.
- [40] V. Del Vescovo and M. A. Denti, "MicroRNA and lung cancer," *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, vol. 889, pp. 153–177, 2015.
- [41] X. Jin, Y. Chen, H. Chen et al., "Evaluation of tumor-derived exosomal miRNA as potential diagnostic biomarkers for early-stage non-small cell lung cancer using next-generation sequencing," *Clinical Cancer Research*, vol. 23, no. 17, pp. 5311–5319, 2017.
- [42] S. Hafsi, S. Candido, R. Maestro et al., "Correlation between the overexpression of Yin Yang 1 and the expression levels of miRNAs in Burkitt's lymphoma: a computational study," *Oncology Letters*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 1021–1025, 2016.
- [43] L. Falzone, S. Candido, R. Salemi et al., "Computational identification of microRNAs associated to both epithelial to mesenchymal transition and NGAL/MMP-9 pathways in bladder cancer," *Oncotarget*, vol. 7, no. 45, pp. 72758–72766, 2016.
- [44] L. Falzone, S. Salomone, and M. Libra, "Evolution of cancer pharmacological treatments at the turn of the third millennium," *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, vol. 9, no. 1300, 2018.
- [45] L. Falzone, G. Lupo, G. R. M. La Rosa et al., "Identification of novel microRNAs and their diagnostic and prognostic significance in oral cancer," *Cancers*, vol. 11, no. 5, 2019.
- [46] L. Falzone, G. L. Romano, R. Salemi et al., "Prognostic significance of deregulated microRNAs in uveal melanomas," *Molecular Medicine Reports*, vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 2599–2610, 2019.
- [47] S. Candido, G. Lupo, M. Pennisi et al., "The analysis of miRNA expression profiling datasets reveals inverse microRNA patterns in glioblastoma and Alzheimer's disease," *Oncology Reports*, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 911–922, 2019.
- [48] X. Yu, Y. Zhang, X. Ma, and A. Pertsemliadis, "miR-195 potentiates the efficacy of microtubule-targeting agents in non-small cell lung cancer," *Cancer Letters*, vol. 427, pp. 85–93, 2018.
- [49] B. Li, S. Wang, and S. Wang, "MiR-195 suppresses colon cancer proliferation and metastasis by targeting WNT3A," *Molecular Genetics and Genomics*, vol. 293, no. 5, pp. 1245–1253, 2018.
- [50] Y. Wang, X. Zhang, C. Zou et al., "miR-195 inhibits tumor growth and angiogenesis through modulating IRS1 in breast cancer," *Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy*, vol. 80, pp. 95–101, 2016.
- [51] R. Ye, B. Wei, S. Li et al., "Expression of miR-195 is associated with chemotherapy sensitivity of cisplatin and clinical prognosis in gastric cancer," *Oncotarget*, vol. 8, no. 57, pp. 97260–97272, 2017.
- [52] C. Lei, F. du, L. Sun et al., "miR-143 and miR-145 inhibit gastric cancer cell migration and metastasis by suppressing MYO6," *Cell Death & Disease*, vol. 8, no. 10, p. e3101, 2017.
- [53] X. Dong, B. Lv, Y. Li, Q. Cheng, C. Su, and G. Yin, "MiR-143 regulates the proliferation and migration of osteosarcoma cells through targeting MAPK7," *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, vol. 630, pp. 47–53, 2017.