

1 **Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Lung Cancer Treatment &**

2 **Research**

3 Shreya Kailas Lovlekar, Yihua Wang\*

4

5 Biological Sciences, Faculty of Environmental and Life Sciences, University of Southampton SO17  
6 1BJ, UK.

7 \*Correspondence should be addressed to YW (E-mail: yihua.wang@soton.ac.uk).

8 **To the Editor,**

9

10 Despite recent advances in immunotherapy and targeted therapy, the mortality rate seen  
11 in lung cancer (LC) is the highest of all cancer forms. The recently topical coronavirus  
12 disease 19 (COVID-19) and its subsequent pandemic has resulted in over 505 million  
13 confirmed cases and approximately 6.2 million fatalities as of April 2022 (1), with a  
14 staggering 30-50% mortality rate seen in LC patients with COVID-19 (2). Cancer  
15 patients in particular are highly vulnerable to COVID-19 infection due to  
16 immunosuppression, from both the tumour and treatments. Here we report the impact  
17 of the pandemic to be largely negative on LC treatment and research.

18

19 **Impacts on Lung Cancer Treatments**

20 As seen in [Figure 1A](#), many countries saw a significant decline in observed LC cases  
21 during the first peak pandemic period. Cancer care was also notably affected – a global  
22 study by Jazieh *et al.* (3) compiled data from 356 centres across 54 countries to gauge  
23 this effect. Although this study focuses on cancer care in general, rather than providing  
24 a breakdown of individual cancer types, it provides insight into reasons why care may  
25 have been affected. Most centres (around 64%) remained open over the pandemic but  
26 at suboptimal capacity and reported various reasons for this such as precautionary  
27 measures, staff shortages and overburden to the system (3). Nearly half the centres also  
28 reported a shortage of personal protective equipment (PPE). Around 9% of centres were  
29 either fully or partially closed and the rest remained open at full capacity. The majority  
30 of centres in the study kept most services as either partially or fully available, but of  
31 those that fully stopped, surgery appears to be the most disrupted across centres and  
32 systemic therapy the least. This is likely due to the increased risk of infection and  
33 immunosuppression that accompany surgery. However, the extent to which services  
34 were partially available was not quantified and thus the magnitude of disruption cannot  
35 be fully concluded. Jazieh and colleagues (3) also found the distribution of disruption  
36 was relatively equal in countries across all levels of income, however only 9 of the 356  
37 centres were in the low-income level, so the conclusion that low-income countries were  
38 not affected disproportionately cannot be applied to all low-income countries.

39

## 40 **Impacts on Trials and Research**

41 A search for the term “lung cancer” was conducted using the PubMed database, and the  
42 number of papers published each year was plotted onto a graph (Figure 1B). This search  
43 revealed no significant change to the overall trend in publications on lung cancer  
44 following the start of the pandemic in 2020, however this does not necessarily mean  
45 that research was unaffected whatsoever. Over the pandemic, the sheer volume of  
46 COVID-19 related literature rapidly accumulated, with over 132,000 publications on  
47 PubMed in 2021 alone – 8 times as many as those on lung cancer. Whilst this is  
48 understandable given the topical nature of COVID-19, it may have resulted in some  
49 publications of lesser reliability and quality when compared with pre-pandemic levels  
50 due to relaxation or even absence of vigorous peer-reviewing processes (4). The same  
51 could extend for publications on lung cancer, meaning further assessment of literature  
52 published over the pandemic must be carried out to ensure their quality and  
53 trustworthiness.

54 Another search on PubMed for papers including both “lung cancer” and “COVID-  
55 19” yielded a total of 698 results, from 2020 to present. This number is significantly  
56 lesser than the quantity of results for “COVID-19”, which may indicate the neglect  
57 of lung cancer in terms of its relevance to COVID-19 as a respiratory illness, despite  
58 the severity of lung cancer and COVID-19 comorbidity.

59 In terms of trials, a search on the clinical trials database (clinicaltrials.gov) for “lung  
60 cancer” studies revealed no negative impacts on the number of new trials being set up  
61 over the pandemic when compared with pre-pandemic figures (Figure 1C), although  
62 there was a global decline of 14% in clinical trial participation over the peak of the  
63 pandemic (5). However, trials can take years to complete and thus the completion and  
64 relative success of these trials cannot yet be determined at present.

65

## 66 **Conclusions**

67 Overall, the COVID-19 pandemic has had a distinctly negative impact on the lung  
68 cancer community, with increased morbidity and mortality, as well as a reduction in  
69 trial participation. Many countries saw a sharp decline in LC cases and there was also

70 much public anxiety of attending in-person appointments, supplemented by conflicting  
71 messages from the government and lung cancer organisations that contributed to this  
72 decrease. The effectiveness of telehealth, which was outside the scope of this review, is  
73 another possible aspect that may have improved or worsened delivery of care.

74 Further global collaborative studies need to be conducted in the near future in order  
75 to determine how different countries have been impacted based on income, magnitude  
76 of research and availability of specialist centres and relative number of COVID-19  
77 cases. Focus should also be on if racial/ethnic disparities in the lung cancer community  
78 were further amplified due to the pandemic. Additionally, more funding and resources  
79 should be given to lung cancer trials and research, particularly for developing more  
80 early detection methods, as this is proven to significantly reduce mortality rates.

81 The volume of research paper publications may not have been outwardly affected,  
82 but the reliability and quality of a small number still remains in question due to more  
83 lenient peer-reviewing processes. Furthermore, the data reviewed was from a singular  
84 database, *i.e.*, PubMed, and thus evaluation of data from multiple databases should be  
85 considered in the future when determining the impacts on published literature. There  
86 may also be a delayed effect on clinical trials, and subsequent approval of therapies,  
87 due to the lockdowns and reduction in trial participation. Whilst the pandemic  
88 restrictions now appear to be lifting around the world and a majority of people are  
89 immunised, there are still cases of COVID-19 present which could impact the  
90 unvaccinated and immunocompromised, especially those with lung cancer. A slight  
91 relaxation of lung screening criteria may aid in the detection of missed cases but does  
92 pose a risk of increasing false-positive diagnosis. It could also expose those with a  
93 slightly lower risk of lung cancer to ionising radiation, meaning the risks outweigh  
94 possible benefits. Regardless, the effects of missed cases will surely be seen in the next  
95 5 to 10 years, with an increased number of deaths, however if novel therapies currently  
96 in development are approved in time, this may change.

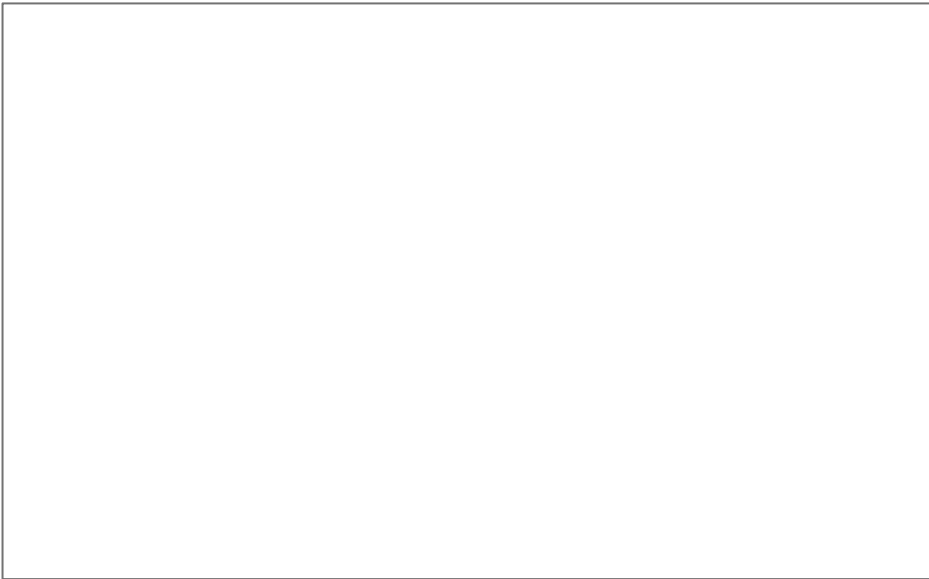
97 **Figure legend**

98 **Figure 1** – (A) Visualisation of percentage decrease in the number of lung cancer cases  
99 in various countries during the approximate March – May period in 2020 when  
100 compared with the baseline number of cases from previous years during the same March  
101 – May period. (B) Visualisation of the trend in the number of new papers published  
102 annually on lung cancer on PubMed from 2005 to 2021. The red arrow indicates the  
103 start of the pandemic in 2020. Data obtained from PubMed using the search criteria  
104 “lung cancer”. (C) Visualisation of the trend in number of new lung cancer trials  
105 registered on clinicaltrials.gov each month from August 2019 to April 2022. The red  
106 line denotes the official start of the COVID-19 pandemic in March 2020.

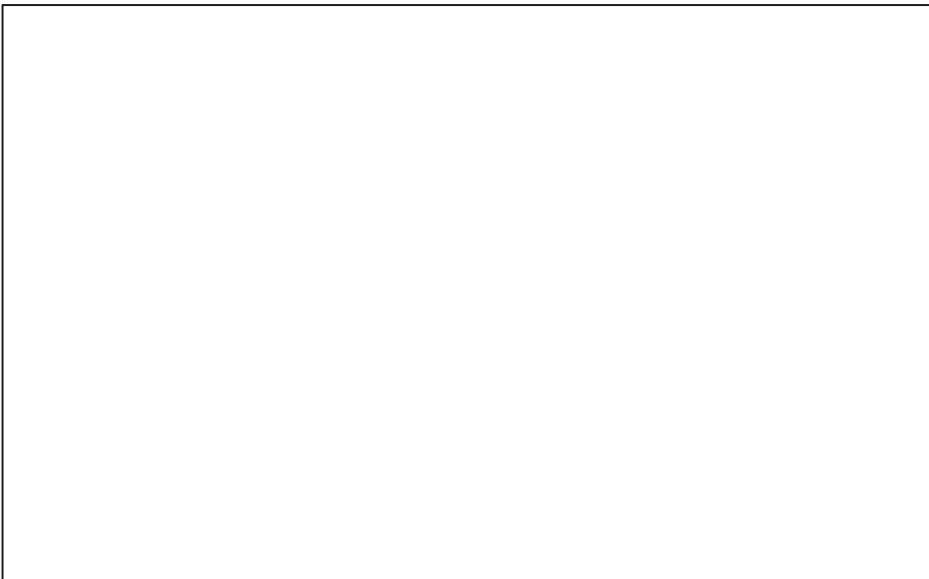
!



"



#



107 **References:**

- 108 1. World Health Organisation. WHO Coronavirus (COVID-19) Dashboard [Internet].  
109 [cited 2022 Oct 27]. Available from: <https://covid19.who.int>
- 110 2. Peravali M, Joshi I, Ahn J, Kim C. A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of  
111 Clinical Characteristics and Outcomes in Patients With Lung Cancer with  
112 Coronavirus Disease 2019. JTO Clinical and Research Reports. 2021  
113 Mar;2(3):100141.
- 114 3. Jazieh AR, Akbulut H, Curigliano G, Rogado A, Alsharm AA, Razis ED, et al.  
115 Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Cancer Care: A Global Collaborative Study.  
116 JCO Global Oncology. 2020 Nov;(6):1428–38.
- 117 4. Martins RS, Cheema DA, Sohail MR. The Pandemic of Publications: Are We  
118 Sacrificing Quality for Quantity? Mayo Clinic Proceedings. 2020 Oct;95(10):2288–  
119 90.
- 120 5. Zhang C, Wu YL, Zhong WZ. New Normal for Lung Cancer Clinical Trials Under  
121 Coronavirus Disease 2019. Journal of Thoracic Oncology. 2022 May;17(5):588–91.

122  
123  
124

125 **Acknowledgements**

126 YW was supported by the Medical Research Council [grant no: MR/S025480/1] and an Academy  
127 of Medical Sciences/the Wellcome Trust Springboard Award [grant no: SBF002\1038]. SKL  
128 would like to dedicate this work to her brother Adi Lovlekar. For the purpose of open access, the  
129 authors have applied a CC-BY public copyright license to any Author Accepted Manuscript version  
130 arising from this submission.

131

132 **Competing interests**

133 The authors declare that they have no relevant conflict of interest.