

Role of Heterogeneity in Lung Cancer and its Implications for Personalized Oncology

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Abstract

Tumor heterogeneity represents a major biological barrier to effective cancer treatment, arising from complex and dynamic interactions between genetic alterations, epigenetic regulation, and the tumor microenvironment. In lung cancer, which includes non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and small cell lung cancer (SCLC), this diversity is expressed across spatial and temporal dimensions, driving clonal evolution, therapeutic resistance, and disease progression. This review consolidates current evidence on the molecular and non-molecular mechanisms that generate heterogeneity in lung cancer, with particular emphasis on genomic instability, somatic mutation patterns, epigenetic plasticity, and immune interactions within the tumor microenvironment. We discuss how heterogeneity manifests differently in NSCLC and SCLC, highlighting subtype-specific cell states, immune escape mechanisms, and lineage plasticity. The clinical implications for personalized oncology are substantial, influencing both targeted therapy and immunotherapy outcomes. Despite advances in multi-omics profiling, challenges remain in accurately capturing heterogeneity and translating these insights into durable clinical benefit. Emerging approaches including single-cell technologies, spatial profiling, and adaptive therapeutic strategies offer promising avenues to address these challenges and improve individualized treatment outcomes for patients with lung cancer.

Keywords: Tumor heterogeneity, Lung cancer, Therapy resistance, Personalized oncology

1. INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer remains the deadliest malignancy worldwide, causing approximately 1.8 million deaths each year, according to recent global estimates (1). The disease is broadly classified into non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC), which comprises approximately 85% of cases, and small cell lung cancer (SCLC), a neuroendocrine malignancy characterized by rapid growth and early dissemination (2,3). Although recent advances in targeted therapies and immune checkpoint inhibitors have improved outcomes for selected patient subgroups, long-term survival remains limited for most individuals (4). A central biological factor underlying these poor outcomes is tumor heterogeneity—the coexistence of multiple, biologically distinct cancer cell populations within a single tumor or across different tumor sites in the same patient (5). Historically, lung cancer was treated as a

relatively uniform disease entity; however, the advent of next-generation sequencing and single-cell technologies has revealed extensive molecular and phenotypic diversity (6, 7). In NSCLC, driver alterations such as EGFR or KRAS mutations may be unevenly distributed across tumor regions, influencing sensitivity to targeted therapies (8). In SCLC, marked cellular plasticity enables transitions between neuroendocrine and non-neuroendocrine states, facilitating rapid adaptation to cytotoxic treatment (9, 10).

Personalized oncology aims to align therapeutic strategies with the molecular characteristics of individual tumors. However, the dynamic and heterogeneous nature of lung cancer complicates accurate tumor profiling and contributes to both intrinsic and acquired resistance. This review examines the mechanisms and manifestations of tumor heterogeneity in lung cancer and explores

their implications for diagnosis, therapeutic decision-making, and emerging precision oncology strategies.

2. MECHANISMS OF TUMOR HETEROGENEITY IN LUNG CANCER

Tumor heterogeneity in lung cancer arises from a convergence of genetic alterations, epigenetic regulation, and non-genetic influences exerted by the tumor microenvironment. Together, these processes generate diverse cellular populations that evolve over time and adapt to therapeutic pressure.

2.1. Genetic Mechanisms

Persistent genomic instability plays a central role in shaping heterogeneity by promoting ongoing diversification of cancer cell populations (11). Chromosomal instability leads to widespread aneuploidy, copy number alterations, and structural rearrangements, phenomena observed in a large proportion of lung tumors (12). In NSCLC, elevated chromosomal instability has been associated with unfavorable clinical outcomes, reflecting its role in accelerating clonal evolution and disease progression. (13). Somatic mutations accumulate due to environmental exposures like smoking, resulting in high tumor mutational burden (14). Early clonal events frequently involve genes such as TP53, EGFR, or KRAS, whereas later-arising subclonal mutations contribute to branching evolutionary trajectories (15). Mutant allele-specific imbalance further amplifies heterogeneity by increasing the dosage of oncogenic alleles through mechanisms such as loss of heterozygosity or copy-neutral alterations (16). In EGFR-mutant NSCLC, this phenomenon has been linked to adverse prognosis (17, 18). In SCLC, genetic heterogeneity is shaped by recurrent alterations including MYC amplification and concurrent loss of TP53 and RB1, with additional subclonal changes emerging during metastatic dissemination (19).

2.2. Epigenetic Mechanisms

Beyond genetic alterations, epigenetic dysregulation introduces substantial non-genetic heterogeneity in lung cancer. Aberrant DNA methylation patterns can silence tumor suppressor genes or activate oncogenic pathways without altering the underlying DNA sequence. Regulatory non-coding RNAs, including microRNAs, further modulate gene expression programs associated with drug response and disease outcome (20, 21). In SCLC, epigenetic regulators like EZH2 suppress MHC class I expression via H3K27me3 marks, promoting immune evasion in neuroendocrine states (22, 23). Enzymes involved in

chromatin remodeling, including Lysine-specific demethylase 1 (LSD1) and histone deacetylases, maintain cellular plasticity by enabling transitions between distinct transcriptional programs (24). This epigenetic flexibility allows tumor cells to dynamically shift phenotypes in response to environmental and therapeutic cues.

2.3. Microenvironmental and Non-Genetic Mechanisms

The tumor microenvironment imposes selective pressures that further expand heterogeneity by favoring the survival of specific cellular clones. Variations in oxygen tension, nutrient availability, acidity, and immune cell infiltration create spatially distinct ecological niches within tumors. Cancer stem-like cells contribute disproportionately to this diversity by generating hierarchically organized progeny with differing proliferative and drug-resistant capacities (25). In NSCLC, stem-like populations expressing markers such as CD133 or ALDH have been linked to resistance to chemotherapy (26). In SCLC, transcriptional regulators including ASCL1, NEUROD1, POU2F3, and YAP1 define discrete cell states that coexist within tumors (27). Signaling pathways such as Notch and MYC-driven programs orchestrate transitions between these states, reinforcing phenotypic plasticity and therapeutic escape (9).

3. TYPES OF TUMOR HETEROGENEITY IN LUNG CANCER

Tumor heterogeneity in lung cancer can be conceptualized across multiple dimensions, including diversity within individual tumors, differences between lesions, spatial variation across tumor regions, and dynamic changes over time.

3.1. Intratumoral Heterogeneity (ITH)

Within a single lung tumor, multiple cellular populations often coexist, differing in genetic alterations, epigenetic states, phenotypes, and functional behavior. An observation collectively described as intratumoral heterogeneity (Fig 1). In NSCLC, multi-region sequencing has revealed that up to 70% of somatic mutations can be subclonal, with different regions harboring distinct driver mutations, such as alterations in EGFR, KRAS, or MET (28). In SCLC, ITH is characterized by the presence of co-existing neuroendocrine (ASCL1/NEUROD1-high) and non-neuroendocrine (YAP1/POU2F3-high) subtypes within the same tumor, promoting rapid adaptation and contributing to chemoresistance (29).

3.2. Intertumoral Heterogeneity

Intertumoral heterogeneity describes the differences between tumors within the same

patient, particularly between primary and metastatic lesions or among multiple primary lung cancers (MPLC) (Fig 1). Metastases often arise from distinct subclones, leading to divergent molecular profiles. For example,

lymph node metastases may lose EGFR mutations present in the primary NSCLC lesion, while brain metastases frequently acquire new alterations, such as PIK3CA or CDK4/6 amplifications (30).

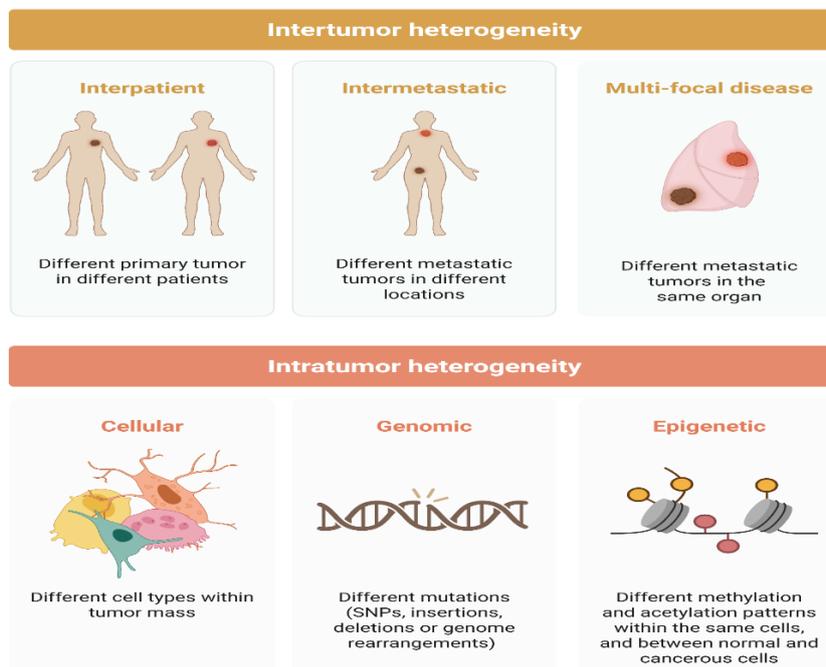


Figure 1. Schematic representation of tumor heterogeneity. Created in BioRender. <https://BioRender.com/64dckm2>

3.3. Spatial Heterogeneity

Spatial heterogeneity reflects geographic variation within a tumor or across lesions, influenced by gradients of hypoxia, pH, nutrient availability, and immune infiltration. In NSCLC, the tumor core is often hypoxic and immunosuppressive, referred to as “cold,” while the invasive margin displays a higher density of CD8+ T cells, termed “hot.”(31,32). Advances in radiomics and spatial transcriptomics have revealed distinct ecological habitats such as immune-inflamed, metabolic, or proliferative zones that correlate with prognosis and response to immunotherapy (33).

3.4. Temporal Heterogeneity

Temporal heterogeneity arises over time, particularly under therapeutic selection pressure. This phenomenon is most pronounced in EGFR-mutant NSCLC, which can undergo histological transformation to SCLC in approximately 5–15% of resistant cases (34,35). Additionally, relapsed SCLC often exhibits subtype switching (e.g., from ASCL1-high to YAP1-high). Longitudinal liquid biopsies demonstrate dynamic shifts in clonal architecture, with resistant subclones emerging following targeted therapy or immunotherapy (36–38).

4. IMPLICATIONS FOR PERSONALIZED ONCOLOGY

4.1. Therapy Resistance

Tumor heterogeneity is the primary driver of both intrinsic and acquired resistance in lung cancer (39). In EGFR-mutant non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC), subclonal pretreatment populations harboring mutations such as T790M, MET amplification, or C797S emerge as dominant clones under the pressure of tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) (18). Additionally, histological transformation to small cell lung cancer (SCLC) occurs in 5–15% of cases. In KRAS-mutant tumors, co-occurring alterations in STK11 and KEAP1—often present as subclonal populations—confer primary resistance to both immunotherapy and chemotherapy (18, 40). The extreme plasticity of SCLC allows for rapid switching between neuroendocrine and non-neuroendocrine states (e.g., ASCL1-high to YAP1/POU2F3-high), rendering platinum-etoposide ineffective within a few months (41).

4.2. Targeted Therapies

The presence of heterogeneity necessitates multi-clone targeting strategies. Single-agent EGFR

TKIs are often ineffective when MET or HER2 bypass tracks are subclonal (42, 43). To preempt resistance, combinations such as upfront osimertinib with savolitinib or amivantamab are currently being explored. In ALK-rearranged NSCLC, sequential treatment with lorlatinib is more effective at delaying resistance compared to crizotinib, as it targets multiple known and unknown compound mutations simultaneously (44–46). The case of MET exon 14 skipping in NSCLC illustrates the impact of spatial heterogeneity: high-level focal amplification predicts durable responses to capmatinib or tepotinib, while cases with low-level amplification or polysomy tend to relapse early.

4.3. Immunotherapy

High levels of intratumoral heterogeneity are directly correlated with the failure of immunotherapy. Tumors characterized by dominant clonal neoantigens and a low subclonal burden tend to respond better to PD-1 blockade, while heterogeneous neoantigen landscapes often lead to immune editing and exhaustion (47). Priming strategies that combine EZH2 and LSD1 inhibitors with checkpoint blockade are currently entering clinical trials to reverse this resistance (48).

5. CHALLENGES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

5.1. Challenges

Significant challenges persist in standardizing heterogeneity assessment in cancer. Single biopsies often underestimate subclonal diversity, while liquid biopsies face limitations in spatial

resolution (49). Additionally, the integration of radiomics and multi-omics data is hindered by reproducibility issues across different scanners and platforms (50,51). Therapeutic resistance, particularly driven by plasticity—such as subtype switching in small cell lung cancer (SCLC) and the transformation from non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) to SCLC—continues to restrict durable responses to targeted therapies and immunotherapy (52).

5.2. Future Directions

Future directions in cancer treatment include the routine adoption of single-cell sequencing (Fig 2) and spatial transcriptomics to effectively map tumor ecosystems (Fig 3). Additionally, AI-enhanced radiomics can facilitate non-invasive heterogeneity scoring and guide biopsy procedures (53,54). Serial monitoring of circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) will enable real-time tracking of clonal evolution (55). Combination strategies that target plasticity, such as the use of EZH2 and LSD1 inhibitors, aim to restore antigen presentation and address common trunk alterations, showing considerable promise (56). Furthermore, adaptive clinical trials that incorporate dynamic treatment switching based on evolving tumor profiles, along with personalized neoantigen vaccines and next-generation CAR-T and NK cell therapies, provide hope for overcoming the barriers posed by tumor heterogeneity in the pursuit of a cure (56).

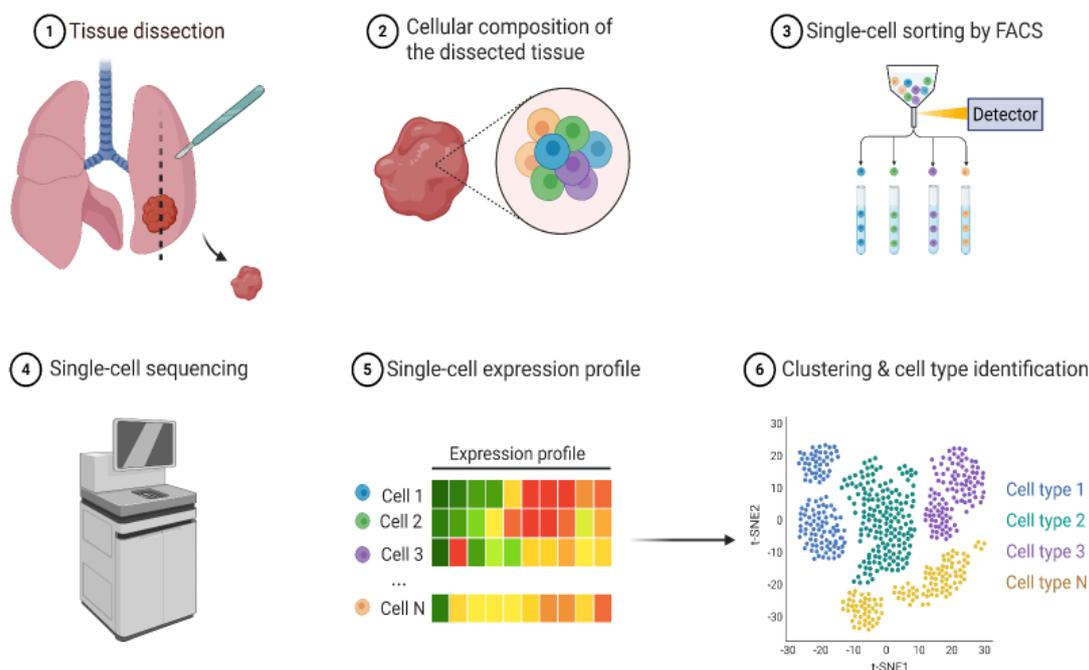


Figure 2. Single cell sequencing work flow in lung cancer. Created in BioRender. <https://BioRender.com/uorexws>

Spatial Transcriptomics

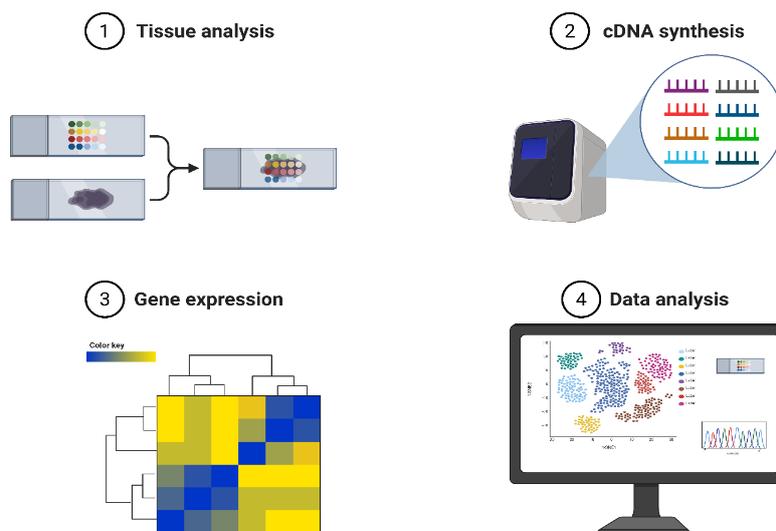


Figure 3. A thin tissue slice is placed on a barcoded slide → mRNA from each cell sticks to the nearest barcode (1) → mRNA is turned into DNA (2) → sequencing reads the gene + its exact location barcode (3) → computer draws a color-coded map showing which genes are active (4). Created in BioRender.

<https://BioRender.com/mby84ai>.

6. CONCLUSION

Tumor heterogeneity remains a significant obstacle to curing lung cancer. However, by embracing multi-modal profiling, adaptive therapies, agents that target plasticity, and

individualized immunotherapy, personalized oncology has the potential to transform this challenge into an actionable roadmap. This approach can ultimately lead to durable responses and improved survival rates for patients

Abbreviations

ASCL1	Achaete-Scute Family BHLH Transcription Factor 1
ctDNA	Circulating Tumor DNA
EZH2	Enhancer of Zeste Homolog 2
ITH	Intratumoral Heterogeneity
LSD1	Major Histocompatibility Complex Class I
MHC-I	Major Histocompatibility Complex Class I
MPLC	Multiple Primary Lung Cancer
NEUROD1	Neuronal Differentiation 1
NSCLC	Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer
PD-1/PD-L1	Programmed Death-1/Programmed Death-Ligand 1
POU2F3	POU Class 2 Homeobox 3
SCLC	Small Cell Lung Cancer
TKI	Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitor
YAP1	Yes-Associated Protein 1

ETHICS APPROVAL AND CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Not applicable.

CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION

The authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest related to this study.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

No datasets were generated or analyzed during The Current Study.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.A and **K.F** Conceptualization, **B.M**; methodology, writing, original draft preparation,

K.F., M.A., B.A.K. M.S. and A.D.; review and editing, **K.S-** supervision, all authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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