

## DISEASE PROGRESSION IN IDIOPATHIC PULMONARY FIBROSIS UNDER ANTI-FIBROTIC TREATMENT

*Aykut Cilli, Fatih Uzer*

Department of Respiratory Disease, Akdeniz University, Antalya, Türkiye

**ABSTRACT.** Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is the most common progressive interstitial disease of unknown etiology. The course of the disease cannot be predicted with certainty. It is crucial to regularly monitor the disease using multiple assessments to evaluate its progression. Currently, there is no consensus on the exact definition of disease progression. Although nintedanib and pirfenidone can slow down the progression of IPF, the disease can still advance even under anti-fibrotic treatment. The aim of this review is to examine and summarize the current data regarding IPF progression in patients receiving anti-fibrotic treatment, while also highlighting the limitations of the tests used for assessing disease progression

**KEY WORDS:** IPF, disease progression, nintedanib, pirfenidone

### INTRODUCTION

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is the most common subtype of idiopathic interstitial pneumonias. It is a chronic disease characterized by progressive fibrosis and carries a poor prognosis. The incidence of IPF ranges from 0.22 to 11.7 per 100,000 individuals, with variations influenced by age and the geographical location of the study (1–3). Although the exact cause of IPF remains unknown, several risk factors have been identified, including advanced age, male gender, smoking, genetic mutations, environmental or occupational exposures, and microaspirations. The average survival time for patients with IPF who do not receive anti-fibrotic treatment is typically between 2.5 and 3.5 years (4), and the 5-year survival rate has been reported as 20–30% in certain studies (5).

IPF exhibits a variable clinical course, ranging from asymptomatic to progressive respiratory failure. Predicting the disease's course is impossible.

Disease progression in IPF is indicated by a decline in lung function, worsening dyspnea, and radiological changes. Forced vital capacity (FVC) and diffusing capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide (DLCO) are commonly used parameters in the literature (6,7). A 10% reduction in FVC within 6–12 months has been associated with increased mortality (8). The GAP (gender, age, physiology) index is also used to assess prognosis (9). In the AIFR study, desaturation during the 6-minute walk test (6MWT) was the only parameter linked to survival or disease progression after 12 months of follow-up (6). Furthermore, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid cell distribution and certain interleukins have been investigated as predictors of IPF prognosis. High levels of neutrophils and eosinophils in BAL fluid have been associated with a poor prognosis (10–13). However, there is currently no definitive marker for IPF progression. While anti-fibrotic drugs like nintedanib and pirfenidone have been shown to slow disease progression, IPF can still progress despite their use. In this review, we aimed to examine and summarize the current data on IPF progression in patients undergoing anti-fibrotic treatment, while also discussing the limitations of the tests used to assess disease progression.

Received: 8 December 2022

Accepted: 20 July 2023

Correspondence: Aykut Cilli

Akdeniz University, Department of Respiratory Disease, Antalya, Türkiye

E-mail: acilli@akdeniz.edu.tr

## REDUCED RATE OF DECLINE IN FVC IN PHASE STUDIES

Nintedanib, an orally administered tyrosine kinase inhibitor originally developed as a cancer drug, targets key receptors involved in the pathogenesis of IPF, including vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), transforming growth factor  $\beta$  (TGF- $\beta$ ), and fibroblast growth factor (FGF) receptors (14). The efficacy of nintedanib in IPF was initially assessed in the TOMORROW study conducted by Richeldi et al (15). This multinational, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study demonstrated a reduction in FVC decline in 68.4% of patients treated with nintedanib for 52 weeks (15). However, there were no significant differences observed in DLCO and the 6MWT between the nintedanib group (150 mg twice daily) and the placebo group. Subsequently, the INPULSIS study was conducted, involving 1,061 IPF patients from 24 countries (14). The findings of these studies indicated that nintedanib significantly slowed the annual decline in FVC, irrespective of sex, age, or race (14,16). In both the INPULSIS 1 and INPULSIS 2 trials, after one year of nintedanib treatment, less than 10% reductions in FVC were observed in 70.6% and 69.6% of patients, respectively (14,16). Additionally, nintedanib demonstrated efficacy in prolonging the time to first exacerbation. These positive results led to the approval of nintedanib for the treatment of IPF in Japan, the United States, and Europe. In the long-term efficacy study INPULSIS-ON (17), which investigated the effects of nintedanib over 192 weeks, the mean FVC of the entire cohort showed a 7.5% decrease from baseline. The study also reported a 5-year mortality rate of 24% in patients receiving nintedanib treatment. Overall, these phase studies demonstrate the ability of nintedanib to reduce the rate of FVC decline in IPF patients.

Pirfenidone, another oral anti-fibrotic drug, has been in use in the European Union since 2011 and in the USA since 2014. It was subsequently recommended in the ATS/ERS/JTS/ALAT guideline in 2015. Although its mechanism of action is not fully understood, it is believed to inhibit the TGF-beta pathway, thereby preventing fibroblast proliferation and their transformation into myofibroblasts (18). The first clinical study on pirfenidone was conducted in Japan following the phase 2 study by Raghu et al. in 1999 (19). This study involved 13 patients with

IPF and showed that nine months of pirfenidone use reduced vital capacity decline and the number of exacerbations (20). In addition, CAPACITY (21), ASCEND (22), and EMPIRE (23) studies were conducted. In all three studies, pirfenidone demonstrated a reduction in FVC decline compared to the placebo group and showed a positive effect on progression-free survival. In the EMPIRE study, which examined the effect of pirfenidone on FVC levels and survival, it was reported that patients with a  $\geq 10\%$  decline in FVC did not have superior mortality outcomes compared to the group that did not receive anti-fibrotic treatment within the first two years. However, at the end of two years, there was a statistically significant improvement in survival (23). The EMPIRE study also suggested that a 10% reduction in DLCO has potential value in predicting mortality. In the ASCEND study, an increase in FVC values was observed in 22.7% of patients after 52 weeks of pirfenidone use. The CAPACITY study showed a 36% reduction in the rate of death and disease progression (21).

In these phase studies, the decline in lung function in the placebo groups was significantly greater than in the treatment arms. In the CAPACITY study, FVC decline was -11% at the end of 72 weeks, while in the ASCEND trial, it was -280 ml at 52 weeks. For nintedanib, the decline rates were -6% and -6.2% in the INPULSIS 1 and INPULSIS 2 trials, respectively, at 52 weeks.

## LIMITATION OF THE TESTS USING FOR DISEASE PROGRESSION IN IPF

### *Pulmonary function test*

There is no standardized definition for disease progression in IPF, although progressive pulmonary fibrosis is well defined in recently updated guideline (24). Many studies in the literature have utilized a decline in FVC ( $>10\%$ ) and DLCO ( $>15\%$ ) as criteria for disease progression (22,23,25–33). Other studies have considered lesser radiological progression, 6MWT, symptom worsening, and/or acute exacerbations [10,13,24,30,31]. A decrease in DLCO is often considered indicative of progressive disease, particularly when accompanied by a decline in FVC or an increase in fibrosis on high-resolution computed tomography (HRCT). Table 1 provides an overview of parameters used to define IPF

progression. However, no gold standard criterion for disease progression can be used in routine clinical practice, and each criterion has its limitations.

FVC is the most commonly used physiological parameter for monitoring patients with IPF. It has been reported that FVC can indicate the progression of IPF due to its easy accessibility, reproducibility, and association with mortality, making it an outcome criterion in clinical studies (34). The FVC maneuver is often used to measure airflow velocities. However, since the FVC maneuver requires patient cooperation and effort, it can be influenced by various factors. Several studies have reported that a 6–12 month decline in FVC is indicative of increased mortality (22,23,26,27,30–32). Nevertheless, there is no standardized definition in the literature on how to utilize observed decreases in FVC in clinical practice. FVC measurement in IPF follow-up has both advantages and disadvantages. Disadvantages include its reliance on patient effort, variability in test results, laboratory quality, and susceptibility to the impact of comorbid diseases (35). Additionally, many IPF patients are elderly and may have limited exercise capacity, which can affect their cooperation during the test. Moreover, a significant portion of IPF patients also have emphysema (36). Furthermore, different trials have used either absolute or relative changes in FVC to assess the progression of pulmonary fibrosis, reflecting different patient populations.

#### *Diffusing capacity for carbon monoxide*

DLCO is another parameter used to predict IPF progression. In the literature, a 15% decrease in DLCO in IPF patients has been reported as an indication of progression [26,27,32,33]. Various methods exist for measuring DLCO, and although there may be differences between laboratories, the single breath

method has been proven effective in determining lung function in different lung diseases (37). However, it's important to note that low DLCO does not always indicate impaired diffusion capacity, as several non-respiratory factors can affect DLCO, such as smoking, menstrual cycle, and alcohol intake (38,39). Additionally, there are challenges in performing the DLCO test in patients with very reduced lung volumes and difficulty in breathing. It's also worth mentioning that persistent isolated reduction in DLCO may occur in pulmonary vasculopathy without an increase in pulmonary fibrosis, therefore should be used cautiously if only accompanied by worsening of symptoms. A decline in absolute DLCO measurements, in the absence of other explanations for the decline, may indicate progression, particularly when complemented by a decrease in FVC or an increase in the extent of fibrosis on HRCT.

#### *Six minute walk test*

6MWT is another parameter used for assessing disease progression in IPF, although it is also a non-standardized test. The primary measurement in the 6MWT is the distance walked by the patient in 6 minutes, and secondary measurements include monitoring oxygen saturation, heart rate, and dyspnea. Studies have shown that a decline of 16.5% in 6MWT distance within one year can indicate disease progression in IPF (22). Additionally, desaturation during the 6MWT has been identified as a prognostic factor in IPF (6). However, the 6MWT can be influenced by various factors such as body mass index, heart failure, respiratory failure, and muscle disease. The length of the track used for the test and the distance covered can also impact the results (40,41).

#### *High-resolution computed tomography*

HRCT plays a well-defined role in the diagnosis of IPF, but its role in demonstrating disease progression is less established. Progression of fibrosis is visually assessed by evaluating the percentage of lung volume containing fibrotic changes. An increased extent of fibrotic changes in both the transverse and coronal planes indicates progression. Quantitative CT methods have been developed to provide a more objective measure of fibrosis extent (42). Some studies have utilized quantitative

**Table 1.** Parameters used in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis progression.

|                                 |
|---------------------------------|
| Decline in FVC ( $\geq 10\%$ )  |
| Decline in DLCO ( $\geq 15\%$ ) |
| Radiologic progression          |
| Decline in 6MWT ( $> 50$ m)     |
| Increased oxygen requirement    |
| Exacerbations/hospitalizations  |
| Worsening of pulmonary symptoms |

FVC: forced vital capacity; DLCO: diffusing capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide; 6MWT: 6-minute walk test.

lung fibrosis scores derived from imaging features to predict progression-free survival in IPF patients. However, the use of radiological progression as a criterion for disease progression in clinical studies is often combined with other clinical and physiological parameters, and there is no clear definition of radiological progression across these studies [24,25,41]. Various types of quantitative CT analyses have been developed (AMFM, CALIPER, QLF/QILD, DTA) (43). All these quantitative CTs have produced a certain level of usefulness, but quantifiable parenchymal pattern may vary by software. Serial changes in DTA scores showed a significant correlation with changes in both FVC% predicted and DLCO% predicted (44). In a very recent study, Sun et al. showed that changes in CT-related parameters during follow-up may have better predictive performance compared with baseline imaging parameters and pulmonary function tests for disease progression in IPF (45). While the results to date are promising, it is clear that further prospective clinical studies are warranted to determine the potential role of the quantitative CT in patients with IPF.

In IPF, acute exacerbation is defined as acute worsening of dyspnea accompanied by newly developed bilateral ground glass densities and/or consolidation on top of the radiological baseline of usual interstitial pneumonia (UIP) pattern (46,47). Non-parenchymal causes such as pneumothorax, pleural effusion, pulmonary embolism, and isolated heart failure or fluid overload must be excluded to define acute exacerbation of IPF (17,46).

#### *IPF progression in phase studies and in real-life studies*

Determining the true progression rate of patients with IPF under anti-fibrotic treatment is challenging due to the lack of a gold standard parameter for disease progression. However, based on the available literature, the progression rates in phase studies and real-life studies can vary. In the literature, it has been reported that patients receiving anti-fibrotic treatment demonstrated a minimum of 10% decline in FVC within the first year for 6.5–38%, within the second year for 4.4–47%, and within the third year for 6.6–54% (22,23,25–27,31–33,48). As for DLCO reduction, a 15% decline was observed in 7.4–38% of patients in the first year, 4.4–15% in the second year, and 6.6–15% for longer follow-ups (22,23,28,29). When clinical worsening and/or acute

exacerbation are considered as criteria for IPF progression, the progression rate ranges from 2.6% to 11.8% (10,11,13,24,30,31).

Table 2 shows the proportions of patients who progressed despite anti-fibrotic treatment in both phase studies and real-life studies, categorized by years. It is evident that the progression rates of IPF vary depending on the progression criteria and follow-up period used in the studies. In phase studies, where strict criteria are used for patient selection, the IPF progression rate in the first year is around 10%. However, in real-life studies, the progression rates can be much higher, reaching up to 38% in the first year, 47% in the second year, and 54% after two years (14,16,17,22,23,25–33,48–54). These differences may be attributed to variations in the selected progression criteria and the evaluation period, as well as the differences in patient characteristics and management in real-life settings compared to controlled clinical trials. It is important to consider these variations and limitations when interpreting the progression rates reported in different studies, as the definition and assessment of disease progression in IPF are still evolving. Further research and long-term follow-up studies are needed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of IPF progression under anti-fibrotic treatment in real-life settings.

The efficacy of pirfenidone in the treatment of IPF has been investigated in several phase studies, which also provided data on IPF progression (21–23). However, IPF progression was not clearly defined in the CAPACITY and ASCEND studies. In the ASCEND study, 6.5% of patients using pirfenidone for 52 weeks exhibited a decrease of 10% or more in FVC, while 16.5% had a decrease of 50m or more in the 6MWT. In the CAPACITY study, a decline in FVC was detected in 21% of the patients, and pirfenidone demonstrated a 26% reduction in the risk of disease progression and mortality in progression-survival analyses (21). A post hoc analysis, which included the CAPACITY and ASCEND studies and focused on IPF patients with a baseline FVC value  $\geq 80\%$ , reported a progression rate of 17.9% based on a 10% decline in FVC and 21.4% based on a  $\geq 50\text{m}$  decrease in 6MWT (53). In the EMPIRE study, the percentages of patients experiencing a  $\geq 10\%$  decline in FVC at 6, 12, 18, and 24 months were as follows: 5.3%, 10.7%, 16.6%, and 17.0%, respectively. Using a  $\geq 15\%$  decline in DLCO as the marker of progression, the percentages of patients who progressed at 6,

**Table 2.** Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis progression rates under anti-fibrotic therapy.

| Study/author     | Study design  | Progression criteria                    | Progression rate (%) |         |        | Treatment              |
|------------------|---------------|---|----------------------|---------|--------|------------------------|
|                  |               |   | ≤ 1 yr               | 1-≤2 yr | 2-3 yr |                        |
| Richeldi (15)    | Phase 2       | Disease worsening, exacerbation         | 9.8                  | -       | -      | Nintedanib             |
| Richeldi (14)    | Phase 3       | Disease worsening, exacerbation         | 10                   | -       | -      | Nintedanib             |
| Crestani (17)    | Phase 3       | Worsening of symptoms, exacerbation     | 14.4                 | 13.7    | -      | Nintedanib             |
| King (22)        | Phase 3       | FVC 10 %↓                               | 6.5                  | -       | -      | Pirfenidone            |
|                  |               | 6MWT 50 m ↓                             | 16.5                 | -       | -      |                        |
| Song (50)        | Phase 3       | Worsening of symptoms, exacerbation     | 16                   | 10.7    | -      | Nintedanib             |
| Zurkova (23)     | Phase 3       | FVC 10% ↓                               | 10.7                 | 17.0    | -      | Pirfenidone            |
| Taniguchi (55)   | Phase 3       | VC 10% ↓                                | 4.6                  | -       | -      | Pirfenidone            |
|                  |               | Worsening of symptoms                   | 2.8                  | -       | -      |                        |
| Antoniou (25)    | Retrospective | Died or FVC 10% ↓                       | 35                   | 47      | 54     | Nintedanib             |
| Oltmanns (26)    | Retrospective | FVC 10% ↓ or DLCO 15%↓                  | 38                   | -       | -      | Pirfenidone            |
| Feng (27)        | Retrospective | FVC 10% ↓                               | 7.4                  | 9.5     | -      | Pirfenidone            |
|                  |               | DLCO 15 %↓                              | 7.4                  | 10      | -      |                        |
| Vianello (28)    | Case control  | Worsening of symptoms and FVC and/or CT | 25                   | -       | -      | Pirfenidone            |
| Suzuki (29)      | Retrospective | FVC 10% ↓, CT                           | -                    | 45.9    | -      | Pirfenidone-Nintedanib |
| Milger (30)      | Case control  | FVC 10% ↓                               | 28.5                 | -       | -      | Pirfenidone            |
|                  |               |   | 28.5                 | -       | -      | Nintedanib             |
| Bando (31)       | Retrospective | FVC 10% ↓                               | 16.2                 | 31.9    | 31.3   | Pirfenidone            |
| Cerri (32)       | Prospective   | FVC 10% ↓, DLCO 15% ↓                   | 12                   | 15      | 30     | Pirfenidone            |
|                  |               |   | 11                   | 17      | 33     | Nintedanib             |
| Vietri (33)      | Retrospective | FVC 10% ↓, DLCO 15% ↓                   | -                    | 4.4     | 6.6    | Pirfenidone            |
| Caro (49)        | Retrospective | Exacerbation                            | 6                    | -       | -      | Pirfenidone            |
| Cilli (48)       | Retrospective | FVC 10 % ↓                              | -                    | 35.7    | -      | Pirfenidone            |
|                  |               | FVC 10% ↓+ CT                           | -                    | 26.8    | -      |                        |
|                  |               | FVC 10%                                 | -                    | 10      | -      | Nintedanib             |
|                  |               | FVC 10 %+ CT                            | -                    | 10      | -      |                        |
| Sakayori (56)    | Retrospective | NA                                      | 6                    | -       | -      | Pirfenidone            |
| Tzouvelekis (51) | Retrospective | NA                                      | 12.8                 | -       | -      | Nintedanib             |
| Kato (52)        | Retrospective | NA                                      | 18.2                 | -       | -      | Nintedanib             |

FVC: forced vital capacity; VC: vital capacity; DLCO: diffusing capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide; 6MWT: 6-minute walk test; CT: computed tomography; NA: not available

12, 18, and 24 months were 6.1%, 11.3%, 11.5%, and 14.3%, respectively. A randomized controlled study conducted by Taniguchi et al. in Japan reported a progression rate of 4.6% when the progression criterion was a vital capacity  $\geq 10\%$  decrease and 2.8%

when the criterion was symptom worsening (55). In a retrospective study by Bando et al., which included patients with two-year data under pirfenidone treatment, a decline of 10% or more in FVC values was observed in 31.9% of the patients (31). Furthermore,

other real-life studies with pirfenidone reported IPF progression rates ranging from 4.4% to 38%, using criteria such as FVC decrease, DLCO decrease, or exacerbations (22,23,29,30,44).

Regarding nintedanib, the TOMORROW study, the first phase study investigating its efficacy in the treatment of IPF, reported a one-year progression rate of 12.8% for a daily dose of 50 milligrams and 4.7% for a twice-daily dose of 150 milligrams (15). The overall one-year progression rate in the entire cohort was found to be 9.8% in the TOMORROW study. In the INPULSIS 1-2 study conducted by Richeldi et al., which accepted disease worsening and acute exacerbations as progression criteria, the progression rate was 10%, similar to the TOMORROW study (14). Subsequently, two separate INPULSIS-ON studies were conducted to investigate the long-term effects of nintedanib, which reported IPF progression rates of 10.7% and 11.8% in patients receiving long-term nintedanib (17,50). In a real-life study by Antoniou et al., which included a large number of patients, three-year data of patients receiving nintedanib treatment were presented. In this study, a reduction in FVC  $\geq 10\%$  or mortality was considered a progression criterion, and the first, second, and third-year progression rates were reported as 35%, 47%, and 54%, respectively (25). In another real-life study where IPF progression was reported as 12.8%, without clear criteria for progression, the FVC reduction of the entire cohort was reported to be approximately 5% after six months of nintedanib treatment, and approximately 6% from baseline at one year (51). These findings from various studies highlight the progression rates observed in IPF patients under anti-fibrotic treatment with pirfenidone and nintedanib, emphasizing the need to consider different progression criteria and follow-up periods.

## CONCLUSIONS

IPF demonstrates considerable heterogeneity, and a subset of patients experience disease progression despite anti-fibrotic treatment. The variability in reported progression rates can be attributed to differences in selected criteria for disease progression. Notably, real-life studies tend to report higher progression rates compared to phase studies. The ability to predict which patients will experience disease progression remains elusive, underscoring the challenge of identifying prognostic factors in IPF. Furthermore,

a standardized definition for disease progression in IPF is currently lacking, leading to the utilization of various physiological, radiological, and clinical criteria for assessing disease progression. However, each criterion has its own limitations, necessitating the development of more objective and reliable measures. It is crucial to establish standardized definitions and more objective criteria for assessing disease progression in order to improve prognostic accuracy and guide treatment decisions in IPF patients.

**Author Contributions:** A.C and F.U. have contributed to the conceptualization and writing of the manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## REFERENCES

1. Case AH. Clinical Overview of Progressive Fibrotic Interstitial Lung Disease. *Front Med.* 2022;9. 9:858339. doi: 10.3389/fmed.2022.858339
2. Nalysnyk L, Cid-Ruzafa J, Rotella P, Esser D. Incidence and prevalence of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: review of the literature. *Eur Respir Rev Off J Eur Respir Soc.* 2012;21(126):355–361. doi: 10.1183/09059180.00002512.
3. Hutchinson J, Fogarty A, Hubbard R, McKeever T. Global incidence and mortality of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: a systematic review. *Eur Respir J.* 2015;46(3):795–806. doi: 10.1183/09031936.00185114.
4. Raghu G, Collard HR, Egan JJ, et al. An Official ATS/ERS/JRS/ALAT Statement: Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis: Evidence-based Guidelines for Diagnosis and Management. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2011;183(6):788–824. doi: 10.1164/rccm.2009-040GL.
5. Ley B, Collard HR, King TE. Clinical course and prediction of survival in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2011;183(4):431–440. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201006-0894CI.
6. Jo HE, Glaspole I, Moodley Y, et al. Disease progression in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis with mild physiological impairment: analysis from the Australian IPF registry. *BMC Pulm Med.* 2018;18(1):19. doi: 10.1186/s12890-018-0575-y.
7. Raghu G. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: lessons from clinical trials over the past 25 years. *Eur Respir J.* 2017;50(4):1701209. doi: 10.1183/13993003.01209-2017.
8. du Bois RM, Nathan SD, Richeldi L, Schwarz MI, Noble PW. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: lung function is a clinically meaningful endpoint for phase III trials. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2012;186(8):712–715. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201206-1010PP.
9. Ley B, Ryerson CJ, Vittinghoff E, et al. A Multidimensional Index and Staging System for Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis | *Annals of Internal Medicine.* 2022;156(10):684–691. doi: <https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-156-10-201205150-00004>.
10. Schwartz DA, Van Fossen DS, Davis CS, et al. Determinants of progression in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1994;149(2 Pt 1):444–449. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm.149.2.8306043.
11. Rudd RM, Haslam PL, Turner-Warwick M. Cryptogenic fibrosing alveolitis. Relationships of pulmonary physiology and bronchoalveolar lavage to response to treatment and prognosis. *Am Rev Respir Dis.* 1981;124(1):1–8. doi: 10.1164/arrd.1981.124.1.1.

12. Turner-Warwick M, Haslam PL. The value of serial bronchoalveolar lavages in assessing the clinical progress of patients with cryptogenic fibrosing alveolitis. *Am Rev Respir Dis.* 1987;135(1):26–34. doi: 10.1164/arrd.1987.135.1.26.
13. Watters LC, Schwarz MI, Cherniack RM, et al. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. Pretreatment bronchoalveolar lavage cellular constituents and their relationships with lung histopathology and clinical response to therapy. *Am Rev Respir Dis.* 1987;135(3):696–704. doi: 10.1164/arrd.1987.135.3.696.
14. Richeldi L, du Bois RM, Raghu G, et al. Efficacy and Safety of Nintedanib in Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2014;370(22):2071–2082. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1402584.
15. Richeldi L, Costabel U, Selman M, et al. Efficacy of a Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitor in Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;365(12):1079–1087. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1103690.
16. Costabel U, Inoue Y, Richeldi L, et al. Efficacy of Nintedanib in Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis across Prespecified Subgroups in INPULSIS. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2016;193(2):178–185. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201503-0562OC.
17. Crestani B, Huggins JT, Kaye M, et al. Long-term safety and tolerability of nintedanib in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: results from the open-label extension study, INPULSIS-ON. *Lancet Respir Med.* Elsevier; 2019;7(1):60–68. doi: 10.1016/S2213-2600(18)30339-4.
18. Conte E, Gili E, Fagone E, Fruciano M, Iemmolo M, Vancheri C. Effect of pirfenidone on proliferation, TGF- $\beta$ -induced myofibroblast differentiation and fibrogenic activity of primary human lung fibroblasts. *Eur J Pharm Sci Off J Eur Fed Pharm Sci.* 2014;58:13–19. doi: 10.1016/j.ejps.2014.02.014.
19. Raghu G, Johnson WC, Lockhart D, Mageto Y. Mageto Y. Treatment of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis with a new antifibrotic agent, Pirfenidone: results of a prospective, open-label Phase II study. *Am J Resp Crit Care Med.* 1999;159(4 Pt 1):1061-9. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm.159.4.9805017.
20. Nagai S, Hamada K, Shigematsu M, Taniyama M, Yamauchi S, Izumi T. Open-label compassionate use one year-treatment with pirfenidone to patients with chronic pulmonary fibrosis. *Intern Med Tokyo Jpn.* 2002;41(12):1118–1123. doi: 10.2169/internalmedicine.41.1118.
21. Noble PW, Albera C, Bradford WZ, et al. Pirfenidone in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (CAPACITY): two randomised trials. *Lancet Lond Engl.* 2011;377(9779):1760–1769. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(11)60405-4.
22. King TE, Bradford WZ, Castro-Bernardini S, et al. A phase 3 trial of pirfenidone in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2014;370(22):2083–2092. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1402582.
23. Zurkova M, Kriegova E, Kolek V, et al. Effect of pirfenidone on lung function decline and survival: 5-yr experience from a real-life IPF cohort from the Czech EMPIRE registry. *Respir Res.* 2019;20(1):16. doi: 10.1186/s12931-019-0977-2.
24. Raghu G, Remy-Jardin M, Richeldi L, et al. Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis (an Update) and Progressive Pulmonary Fibrosis in Adults: An Official ATS/ERS/JRS/ALAT Clinical Practice Guideline. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* American Thoracic Society - AJRCCM; 2022;205(9):e18–e47. doi: 10.1164/rccm.202202-0399ST.
25. Antoniou K, Markopoulou K, Tzouveleki A, et al. Efficacy and safety of nintedanib in a Greek multicentre idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis registry: a retrospective, observational, cohort study. *ERJ Open Res.* European Respiratory Society; 2020;6(1). doi: 10.1183/23120541.00172-2019.
26. Oltmanns U, Kahn N, Palmowski K, et al. Pirfenidone in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: real-life experience from a German tertiary referral center for interstitial lung diseases. *Respir Int Rev Thorac Dis.* 2014;88(3):199–207. doi: 10.1159/000363064.
27. Feng H, Zhao Y, Li Z, Kang J. Real-life experiences in a single center: efficacy of pirfenidone in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and fibrotic idiopathic non-specific interstitial pneumonia patients. *Ther Adv Respir Dis.* 2020;14:1753466620963015. doi: 10.1177/1753466620963015.
28. Vianello A, Salton F, Molena B, et al. Nintedanib Treatment for Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis Patients Who Have Been Switched from Pirfenidone Therapy: A Retrospective Case Series Study. *J Clin Med.* 2020;9(2). doi: 10.3390/jcm9020422.
29. Suzuki Y, Mori K, Aono Y, et al. Switching antifibrotics in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: a multi-center retrospective cohort study. *BMC Pulm Med.* 2021;21(1):221. doi: 10.1186/s12890-021-01587-3.
30. Milger K, Kneidinger N, Neurohr C, Reichenberger F, Behr J. Switching to nintedanib after discontinuation of pirfenidone due to adverse events in IPF. *Eur Respir J.* 2015;46(4):1217–1221. doi: 10.1183/13993003.00584-2015.
31. Bando M, Yamauchi H, Ogura T, et al. Clinical Experience of the Long-term Use of Pirfenidone for Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis. *Intern Med Tokyo Jpn.* 2016;55(5):443–448. doi: 10.2169/internalmedicine.55.5272.
32. Cerri S, Monari M, Guerrieri A, et al. Real-life comparison of pirfenidone and nintedanib in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: A 24-month assessment. *Respir Med.* 2019;159:105803. doi: 10.1016/j.rmed.2019.105803.
33. Vietri L, Cameli P, Perruzza M, et al. Pirfenidone in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: real-life experience in the referral centre of Siena. *Ther Adv Respir Dis.* 2020;14:1753466620906326. doi: 10.1177/1753466620906326.
34. Behr J. Disease Progression in Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis. FVC Is Not Enough. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2017;196(9):1094–1095. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201706-1246ED.
35. Nathan SD, Wanger J, Zibrak JD, Wencil ML, Burg C, Stauffer JL. Using forced vital capacity (FVC) in the clinic to monitor patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF): pros and cons. *Expert Rev Respir Med.* 2021;15(2):175–181. doi: 10.1080/17476348.2020.1816831.
36. Antoniou KM, Walsh SL, Hansell DM, et al. Smoking-related emphysema is associated with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and rheumatoid lung. *Respirol Carlton Vic.* 2013;18(8):1191–1196. doi: 10.1111/resp.12154.
37. Pellegrino R, Viegi G, Brusasco V, et al. Interpretative strategies for lung function tests. *Eur Respir J. European Respiratory Society;* 2005;26(5):948–968. doi: 10.1183/09031936.05.00035205.
38. Hegewald MJ. Diffusing capacity. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol.* 2009;37(3):159–166. doi: 10.1007/s12016-009-8125-2.
39. Sansores RH, Abboud RT, Kennell C, Haynes N. The effect of menstruation on the pulmonary carbon monoxide diffusing capacity. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1995;152(1):381–384. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm.152.1.7599851.
40. Kono K, Nishida Y, Moriyama Y, Yabe H, Taoka M, Sato T. Investigation of factors affecting the six-minute walk test results in hemodialysis patients. *Ther Apher Dial Off Peer-Rev J Int Soc Apher Jpn Soc Apher Jpn Soc Dial Ther.* 2014;18(6):623–627. doi: 10.1111/1744-9987.12177.
41. Sciruba F, Criner GJ, Lee SM, et al. Six-minute walk distance in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: reproducibility and effect of walking course layout and length. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2003;167(11):1522–1527. doi: 10.1164/rccm.200203-166OC.
42. Kim GHJ, Weigt SS, Belperio JA, et al. Prediction of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis progression using early quantitative changes on CT imaging for a short term of clinical 18–24-month follow-ups. *Eur Radiol.* 2020;30(2):726–734. doi: 10.1007/s00330-019-06402-6.
43. Egashira R, Raghu G. Quantitative computed tomography of the chest for fibrotic lung diseases: Prime time for its use in routine clinical practice? *Respirol Carlton Vic.* 2022;27(12):1008–1011. doi: 10.1111/resp.14351.
44. Humphries SM, Yagihashi K, Huckleberry J, et al. Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis: Data-driven Textural Analysis of Extent of Fibrosis at Baseline and 15-Month Follow-up. *Radiology.* 2017;285(1):270–278. doi: 10.1148/radiol.2017161177.

45. Sun H, Liu M, Kang H, et al. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis disease progression: a dynamic quantitative chest computed tomography follow-up analysis. *Quant Imaging Med Surg.* 2023;13(3):1488–1498. doi: 10.21037/qims-22-843.
46. Collard HR, Moore BB, Flaherty KR, et al. Acute exacerbations of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2007;176(7):636–643. doi: 10.1164/rccm.200703-463PP.
47. Collard HR, Ryerson CJ, Corte TJ, et al. Acute Exacerbation of Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis. An International Working Group Report. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2016;194(3):265–275. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201604-0801CI.
48. Cilli A, Uzer F, Sevinç C, et al. Tolerability and efficacy of second-line antifibrotics in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther.* 2021;71:102099. doi: 10.1016/j.pupt.2021.102099.
49. Caro FM, Alberti ML, Campins F, et al. Real-Life Experience with Pirfenidone in Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis in Argentina. A Retrospective Multicenter Study. *Arch Bronconeumol.* 2019;55(2):75–80. doi: 10.1016/j.arbres.2018.06.014.
50. Song JW, Ogura T, Inoue Y, et al. Long-term treatment with nintedanib in Asian patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: Results from INPULSIS®-ON. *Respirology.* 2020;25(4):410–416. doi: 10.1111/resp.13647.
51. Tzouveleki A, Karampitsakos T, Kontou M, et al. Safety and efficacy of nintedanib in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: A real-life observational study in Greece. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther.* 2018;49:61–66. doi: 10.1016/j.pupt.2018.01.006.
52. Kato M, Sasaki S, Tateyama M, et al. Clinical Significance of Continuous Treatment with Nintedanib Over 12 Months for Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis in a Real-World Setting. *Drug Des Devel Ther.* 2021;15:223–230. doi: 10.2147/DDDT.S284819.
53. Albera C, Costabel U, Fagan EA, et al. Efficacy of pirfenidone in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis with more preserved lung function. *Eur Respir J. European Respiratory Society;* 2016;48(3):843–851. doi: 10.1183/13993003.01966-2015.
54. Richeldi L, Cottin V, du Bois RM, et al. Nintedanib in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: Combined evidence from the TOMORROW and INPULSIS® trials. *Respir Med.* 2016;113:74–79. doi: 10.1016/j.rmed.2016.02.001.
55. Taniguchi H, Ebina M, Kondoh Y, et al. Pirfenidone in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Eur Respir J.* 2010;35(4):821–829. doi: 10.1183/09031936.00005209.
56. Sakayori M, Terada J, Abe M, et al. Differences in tolerability of pirfenidone between elderly and younger patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Drug Des Devel Ther.* 2019;13:2295–2303. doi: 10.2147/DDDT.S208733.