

1 **Aetiology, Risk Factors, and Biomarkers in Systemic Sclerosis with Interstitial**
2 **Lung Disease**

3 Running title: SSc-ILD Disease Awareness

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39 **Abstract**

40 Systemic sclerosis (SSc) is a complex, multi-organ, autoimmune disease. Lung fibrosis occurs in ~80%
41 of patients with SSc; 25–30% develop progressive interstitial lung disease (ILD). The pathogenesis of
42 fibrosis in SSc-associated ILD (SSc-ILD) involves cellular injury, activation/differentiation of
43 mesenchymal cells and morphological/biological changes in epithelial/endothelial cells. Risk factors
44 for progressive SSc-ILD include older age, male sex, degree of lung involvement on baseline high-
45 resolution computed tomography, reduced diffusing capacity for carbon monoxide and reduced
46 forced vital capacity. SSc-ILD does not share the genetic risk architecture observed in idiopathic
47 pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) with key risk factors yet to be identified. Presence of anti-Scl-70 antibodies
48 and absence of anti-centromere antibodies indicate increased likelihood of progressive ILD. Elevated
49 levels of serum Krebs von den Lungen-6 and C-reactive protein are both associated with SSc-ILD
50 severity and predict SSc-ILD progression. A promising prognostic indicator is serum chemokine (C-C
51 motif) ligand 18. SSc-ILD shares similarities with IPF, although clear differences exist. Histologically, a
52 non-specific interstitial pneumonia pattern is commonly observed in SSc-ILD, whereas IPF is defined
53 by usual interstitial pneumonia. The course of SSc-ILD is variable, ranging from minor, stable disease
54 to a progressive course, while all IPF patients experience progression of disease. Although
55 appropriately treated patients with SSc-ILD have better chances of stabilization and survival, a
56 relentlessly progressive course, akin to IPF, is seen in a minority. Better understanding of cellular and
57 molecular pathogenesis, genetic risk and distinctive features of SSc-ILD, and identification of robust
58 prognostic biomarkers are needed for optimal disease management.

59

60 **Keywords:** Systemic sclerosis; interstitial lung diseases; autoimmune diseases; risk factors;
61 biomarkers

62

63 **Introduction**

64 Systemic sclerosis (SSc) is a complex autoimmune disease with a range of manifestations
65 including vasculopathy, Raynaud's phenomenon, immune dysfunction and fibrosis of the
66 skin and internal organs (1-3). It is a rare disease, with an estimated global prevalence of 3–
67 24 per 100,000 (4). Diagnostic criteria for SSc were published jointly by the European League
68 Against Rheumatism and the American College of Rheumatology in 2013, with a scoring
69 system based on a range of possible signs, symptoms and autoantibodies (5).

70 Lung fibrosis occurs in up to around 80% of patients with SSc, with varying
71 prevalence depending on ascertainment methods and 25–30% of patients develop
72 progressive interstitial lung disease (ILD) (2). In a large international cohort study, 35% of
73 SSc-related deaths were attributed to pulmonary fibrosis, making it the leading cause of
74 mortality in this patient population (6). The course of SSc-associated ILD (SSc-ILD) is highly
75 variable; some patients have limited or stable lung involvement whereas in others, lung
76 disease progresses inexorably. Due to the largely irreversible and potentially progressive
77 nature of ILD, it is important that diagnostic tests are performed early, so that treatment
78 can be initiated with minimal delay.

79 In this article, we review SSc-ILD with a focus on pathogenesis, risk factors and
80 patient characteristics associated with the condition, with a view to identifying patients
81 most at risk of the disease and its progression. We also highlight similarities and differences
82 between SSc-ILD and idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF), the most frequent and deadly of
83 the idiopathic ILDs.

84

85 **Pathogenesis**

86 The architectural disruption and collagen-rich extracellular matrix (ECM) in SSc-ILD results
87 from the interaction of cells in the epithelial, endothelial and interstitial compartments with
88 components of the innate and adaptive immune system, and the ECM, following chronic
89 micro-injuries in the lung. The first step in the pathological process is thought to comprise
90 repetitive endothelial and epithelial cell injury. This leads to activation of the innate and
91 adaptive immune system, recruitment and activation of fibroblasts, and differentiation of
92 fibroblasts to a myofibroblast phenotype (7) with accumulation of ECM and development of
93 fibrosis (8). Apoptosis is triggered in some epithelial cells, while others undergo epithelial
94 mesenchymal transition (EMT) (7). Many of the phenotypic changes occurring in respiratory
95 epithelial cells in the context of fibrosis remain unknown and require further study. Cells
96 undergoing EMT exhibit profound morphological and biological changes such as loss of
97 polarity, increased capacity for migration, increased production of ECM components and
98 increased resistance to apoptosis (7). Resistance to apoptosis is also characteristic of certain
99 myofibroblasts, which may contribute to the rate and extent of fibrosis (7) in SSc-ILD.

100 A plausible model of pathogenesis for parenchymal lung involvement in connective
101 tissue disease, which consolidates current evidence on SSc-ILD pathology and describes
102 initial alveolar epithelial and endothelial injuries that are triggered by environmental
103 factors, pathogens or inflammation is shown in Figure 1 (9). The latter event results in
104 damage to the lung tissue and initiation of repair pathways including the recruitment of
105 fibroblasts and myofibroblasts; close anatomical and functional interactions between
106 alveolar epithelial and endothelial compartments result in recruitment of circulating cellular
107 components and mediators such as platelets and progenitor cells. In this model,
108 myofibroblasts are key profibrotic cells that persist in affected lung tissue; the extent of

109 their persistence determines the pattern and type of fibrotic reaction. Interplay of
110 myofibroblasts with the ECM via matricellular proteins such as integrins and microfibrils
111 together with soluble factors such as connective tissue growth factor drive the fibrotic
112 process. The degree of irreversible architectural disruption likely determines the
113 progression or reversibility of the lung condition (9).

114 Transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β) is believed to be one of the key factors in
115 the process of fibrosis. It has been implicated in ECM accumulation and the regulation of
116 immune response (7, 8). Injured cells secrete TGF- β , which leads to the recruitment of
117 immune cells, including macrophages, which in turn release more TGF- β (7). Increased
118 expression of genes regulated by TGF- β has been confirmed in patients with progressive
119 lung fibrosis (10). Type 2 helper T-cells that secrete interleukins (IL; e.g., IL-4, IL-13) are also
120 believed to play a role in the development of fibrosis (8). Moreover, levels of thrombin are
121 increased in the lungs of patients with SSc-ILD (7), probably as a consequence of cellular
122 injury. In addition to its role in the coagulation cascade, thrombin may contribute to fibrosis
123 by increasing proliferation of fibroblasts in response to fibrinogen, and facilitating
124 differentiation of fibroblasts into myofibroblasts (7). The Wnt/ β -catenin pathway has been
125 implicated in the activation of fibroblasts and in pulmonary tissue remodeling (7).

126 Elements involved in the pathogenesis of SSc, such as IL-6 and M2-like macrophages,
127 may also contribute to the development of SSc-ILD, especially early in the disease (11-13).
128 Increases in both macrophage polarization, elevated C-reactive protein, and serum IL-6
129 levels have been associated with the progression of early SSc-ILD (10, 12, 14).

130

131 **Genetics and Epigenetics**

132 SSc-ILD has been associated with a number of human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-dependent
133 genes and non-HLA genes (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2) (15). Following the analyses of at
134 least 200 patients with SSc-ILD, only two variants conferred an odds ratio of at least 2.0 with
135 statistical significance: *HLA-DRB1*3* (Han Chinese population) and *CTGF rs6918698* (GG
136 genotype; UK population) (15).

137 In spite of the number of reported associations, genetic biomarkers relevant to the
138 risk of ILD in patients with SSc are yet to be established with certainty (15). Many of the
139 individual studies reporting associations of genetic variants with SSc-ILD have been small,
140 and follow-up studies of specific associations are either lacking or have reported conflicting
141 data. Therefore, a concerted effort is needed, involving large numbers of patients of
142 different ethnicities, to establish more definite genetic risk factors for SSc-ILD and its
143 progression.

144 A few studies have investigated the epigenetics of SSc-ILD (7). Epigenetic factors that
145 may play a role in the pathogenesis of SSc-ILD include CpG methylation, which is related to
146 increased DNA methyltransferase expression in fibroblasts. Increased DNA
147 methyltransferase expression may affect the activities of nitric oxide synthase or the
148 collagen transcription suppression factor Friend leukemia virus integration 1 (Fli1). Fli1
149 appears to play a role in protecting against ILD, by up-regulating the expression of genes
150 including *autoimmune regulator* and *CXCL13* (7, 16). A genome-wide study of genes in
151 peripheral blood mononuclear cells identified four methylation-regulated genes (*F2R*, *FYN*,
152 *PAG1* and *PRKCH*) as being under-expressed in patients with SSc-ILD versus patients with SSc
153 and no ILD (17). Significantly increased expression of the *XRCC4 DNA repair* gene was
154 reported in SSc patients with versus without ILD (18). Micro-ribonucleic acid (miRNA)

155 expression has also been assessed in animal models, and in lung tissue and peripheral blood
156 mononuclear cells derived from patients with SSc-ILD. Studies have shown that increased
157 expression of *miR-155* is associated with worsened lung function and increased lung fibrosis
158 (19).

159

160 **Risk Factors for the Development and Progression of SSc-ILD**

161 Risk factors associated with progressive ILD among patients with SSc include diffuse
162 cutaneous SSc, male gender, African-American race, and the presence of anti-Scl-70
163 antibodies, also known as anti-topoisomerase I antibodies or ATA, discussed previously in
164 the section on *genetics and epigenetics* (20-22). Other indices of SSc-ILD severity have also
165 been associated with progressive disease, including the extent of disease on high-resolution
166 computed tomography (HRCT), reduced diffusing capacity of the lungs for carbon monoxide
167 (DL_{CO}) (% predicted), and decreased forced vital capacity (FVC; % predicted) (23, 24).

168 Similarly, risk factors for mortality in SSc-ILD include older age, male gender, extent
169 of disease on HRCT, lower FVC and lower DL_{CO} (23). Several models including the Composite
170 Physiologic Index; Interstitial Lung Disease-Gender, Age, Physiology Index; du Bois index;
171 modified du Bois index, have been reported to help predict mortality in patients with SSc-
172 ILD (25). These models are based on readily-available clinical details such as age, gender and
173 FVC. HRCT is routinely performed at most centers, and the findings can be integrated with
174 pulmonary function tests (PFT) results as per the Limited/Extensive Staging System
175 developed by Goh *et al.* for SSc-ILD (26). This staging system, which is based on the visual
176 estimation of disease extent of disease on HRCT and, as necessary, integrated with FVC (%
177 predicted), appears to predict the patients' risk of mortality more accurately than either of
178 the component variables when used in isolation (26). This validated staging system proposes

179 the rapid identification of limited or extensive lung disease using HRCT based on a disease
180 extent threshold of 20%. In cases in which disease extent remains indeterminate on HRCT,
181 FVC is used to classify lung disease as either limited or extensive based on a FVC threshold
182 of 70%. This system represents a practical means of integrating HRCT extent and functional
183 severity in routine prognostic evaluation (26). HRCT images from patients with SSc-ILD are
184 provided in Figures 2–4 to demonstrate examples of ILD with limited, indeterminate and
185 extensive disease on CT, according to the Goh *et al.* 20% threshold (26). Stratification of
186 patients using this system has been shown to be predictive of both progression-free survival
187 and mortality.

188 The 6-minute walk test has also been demonstrated to be an independent predictor
189 of mortality in SSc-ILD. Certain blood biomarkers may also be used to predict the risk of
190 disease progression (27, 28), although are not routinely used in clinical practice.

191 In the Scleroderma Lung Study (SLS) I and II, higher baseline skin score, older age,
192 and a decline in FVC and DL_{CO} over 2 years were independently associated with an increased
193 risk of mortality (29). A decline in the FVC and the DL_{CO} over 2 years was a better predictor
194 of mortality than the baseline FVC and DL_{CO} (29). In a long-term study of the prognostic
195 significance of PFT changes, the strongest 1-year predictor of future mortality in patients
196 with SSc-ILD was a composite endpoint defined either by a decline from baseline in FVC of
197 $\geq 10\%$ or a decline of 5–9% in FVC with a decrease in DL_{CO} of $\geq 15\%$ (30). Thus, short-term
198 changes in measurements of SSc-ILD progression appear to have important implications
199 regarding long-term outcomes. The overlap between risk factors for ILD progression and for
200 increased mortality is unsurprising.

201 Treatment of SSc-ILD is beyond the scope of this review; however, several landmark
202 studies have indicated that some treatments may be able to stabilize or slow down disease

203 progression, and, therefore, improve patient outcomes. All these trials focused on patients
204 with clinically meaningful ILD, defined as a combination of moderate-to-severe ILD on HRCT,
205 abnormal pulmonary physiology with symptoms. SLS I showed that 12 months of treatment
206 of SSc-ILD with cyclophosphamide (CYC) improved FVC (% predicted) by 2.53% versus
207 placebo ($P < 0.03$). A modest benefit was also reported in total lung capacity, dyspnea, skin
208 thickening and health-related quality of life (31, 32). SLS II was a 24-month study comparing
209 2-year treatment with mycophenolate mofetil (MMF) with 1 year of treatment with CYC
210 followed by 1 year of placebo in patients with SSc-ILD. The two treatment approaches
211 showed similar efficacy in terms of FVC % predicted (mean improvement of 2.19% and
212 2.88%, respectively) at 24 months. However, MMF treatment was reported to be better
213 tolerated (e.g., lower rates of leucopenia and thrombocytopenia) (33). The Fibrosing
214 Alveolitis in Scleroderma Trial was a randomized, placebo-controlled study of low-dose
215 prednisolone and six-monthly doses of intravenous CYC and oral azathioprine. Compared
216 with placebo, study intervention showed a non-significant trend towards improving FVC
217 (treatment difference 4.19%, $P = 0.08$) (34). Recently nintedanib became the first FDA-
218 approved treatment for SSc-ILD; it is indicated for slowing the rate of decline in pulmonary
219 function in patients with SSc-associated ILD based on the results of the phase III,
220 randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled Safety and Efficacy of Nintedanib in Systemic
221 Sclerosis (SENSCIS) trial (35). Primary endpoint analysis in the SENSCIS trial showed that the
222 adjusted annual rate of decline in FVC was 52.4 mL/year in nintedanib-treated patients
223 versus 93.3 mL/year in placebo-treated patients (difference 41.0 mL/year; 95% confidence
224 interval [CI] = 2.9–79.0 mL/year; $P = 0.04$) over a 1-year period in the total study population.
225 Subgroups analyses reported that nintedanib reduced the progression of ILD irrespective of
226 mycophenolate use at baseline. Statistical testing did not indicate heterogeneity in the

227 treatment effect of nintedanib between those who were or were not receiving
228 mycophenolate at baseline ($P = 0.45$ for treatment-by-time-by-subgroup interaction). While
229 the absolute effect of nintedanib versus placebo in reducing the rate of decline in FVC was
230 numerically lower in patients who were receiving mycophenolate at baseline compared with
231 those who were not receiving mycophenolate at baseline (26.3 mL/year versus 55.4
232 mL/year). The relative treatment effect of nintedanib was similar between these subgroups
233 (40% and 46%, respectively) and consistent with that observed in the overall population
234 (44%). No other significant clinical benefits were observed (36).

235

236 **Blood Serum and Bronchoalveolar Lavage Fluid Biomarkers**

237 Blood serum or bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) biomarkers may be of value in
238 diagnosing SSc-ILD and in prognostication. A number of potential biomarkers have been
239 identified, which could be indicative of lung involvement in patients with SSc (Table 1 and
240 Supplementary Table 3) (27). Autoantibodies are the only blood markers currently available
241 in routine clinical practice (Table 1 and Supplementary Table 3). The presence of anti-Scl-70
242 antibodies and the absence of anti-centromere antibodies in SSc indicate an increased
243 likelihood of progressive ILD (20, 22, 37). Associations of these antibodies with major
244 histocompatibility complex II antigens support the genetic basis of SSc-ILD (37).

245 A number of biomarkers are being investigated in clinical research (Tables 1 and
246 Supplementary Table 3), although they are not currently available for use in routine clinical
247 practice, with the exception of Krebs von den Lungen-6 (KL-6) which is available but only in
248 Japan. Among biomarkers under clinical investigation, high plasma levels of KL-6 appear to
249 be predictive of lung involvement and ILD progression in patients with SSc (23, 38, 39),
250 including in SLS-II. Serum chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 18 (CCL18), a macrophage 2-derived

251 protein that is chemotactic for a number of immune cells, has also been shown to be a good
252 prognostic marker, even after adjustment for baseline ILD severity (40, 41). Analysis of
253 serum CCL18 was able to differentiate the impact of tocilizumab versus placebo in SSc with
254 early ILD on FVC% (14).

255 Serum levels of matrix metalloproteinase-7 (MMP7) are higher in patients with SSc-
256 ILD versus SSc without ILD, and combined measurements of KL-6 and MMP7 have been
257 suggested for identifying patients at risk of developing clinically significant ILD (27). Higher
258 levels of MMP12 have been found in patients with SSc-ILD versus those without lung
259 involvement; in the population with SSc-ILD, increased MMP12 levels appear to be
260 associated with lower FVC (42). Data from two cohorts of patients with SSc showed that
261 high plasma concentrations of chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2 (CCL2) are predictive of ILD
262 progression and shorter survival (43). Elevated acute phase reactants, such as high plasma
263 C-reactive protein levels have been associated with an increased likelihood of progressive
264 early SSc-ILD (44). Also, elevated serum IL-6 levels have been reported to be predictive of
265 early disease progression (specifically, declines in DL_{CO} and FVC or death within 12 months)
266 in patients with SSc-ILD (12). However, IL-6 would provide only low specificity for diagnosing
267 SSc-ILD because its levels are elevated in a range of inflammatory diseases.

268 A proteome-wide analysis in SSc identified chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 4 (CXCL4)
269 as the principal protein secreted by plasmacytoid dendritic cells (45). Plasmacytoid dendritic
270 cells in the BALF are associated with the severity of disease on HRCT in SSc-ILD (46). Plasma
271 levels of CXCL4 correlate with the occurrence of ILD in SSc patients, and higher levels of this
272 biomarker are associated with more rapid decline in DL_{CO} (45). Volkman *et al.* found that
273 plasma CXCL4 levels were higher in patients with SSc-ILD compared with healthy controls in
274 SLS II; however, the levels did not correlate with severity of ILD at baseline. Plasma CXCL4

275 levels reduced with immunosuppressive therapy; larger declines observed over the first 12
276 months of treatment were associated with greater improvements in lung function over the
277 subsequent 12 months (47). Moreover, levels of antibodies against chemokine (C-X-C motif)
278 receptor 3 and CXCL4 have been reported to be increased in patients with SSc-ILD versus
279 healthy controls, but lower in patients with deteriorating versus stable lung function (48).
280 Serum levels of chitinase-3-like protein 1, also known as YKL-40, have been shown to be
281 higher in SSc patients with versus those without pulmonary involvement (49). Levels of
282 chitinase 1 have been reported to be significantly higher in patients with SSc-ILD than in
283 patients with SSc and no lung involvement; as well as being a candidate biomarker, this
284 enzyme could be considered as a therapeutic target (50).

285 Currently, bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) is not routinely performed in patients with
286 SSc-ILD; the previously observed link between BALF neutrophilia and mortality was
287 subsequently found to be mainly related to disease severity (51, 52). However, BAL has been
288 shown to be useful in identifying clinically unsuspected infections in a small minority of
289 patients with SSc-ILD. If not appropriately treated, such infections have the potential to be
290 aggravated by immunosuppressive therapy (53). In routine clinical practice, BAL is not
291 considered to provide additional meaningful prognostic information; however, this could
292 change if biomarkers independent of disease severity and without an equivalent correlate in
293 the peripheral blood, are identified. BALF inflammatory cytokines have been described as
294 potential predictive biomarkers of SSc-ILD deterioration; this, however, has so far only been
295 reported in small patient cohorts (54). Furthermore, proteomic and gene expression analysis
296 of BALF is likely to provide insights that are specific to SSc-ILD pathogenesis that may not be
297 possible in the peripheral blood. Proteomic analysis of BALF has also identified the

298 differential expression of a number of potential biomarkers including C3a, APOAI, 14-3-3ε,
299 SPFA2 and S100A6, involved in fibrosis, innate immune responses and vascular damage (55).

300 **Comparison with Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis**

301 Respiratory clinicians are often more familiar with IPF than SSc-ILD, IPF being the prototypic
302 ILD; IPF affects a greater number of patients and has been researched more extensively than
303 SSc-ILD. Not surprisingly, there is a larger literature and clinical experience in IPF compared
304 with SSc-ILD; therefore, it appears it is logical to explore the similarities and differences
305 between SSc-ILD and IPF. A comparative summary is provided in Supplementary Tables 3
306 and 4.

307 Although ILD occurs in a large proportion of patients with SSc, only some will
308 experience disease that worsens over time (2). Spontaneous regression can occur, albeit
309 rarely, in SSc-ILD, and the disease course is likely to be stabilized by treatment with
310 immunosuppressants or as part of natural history of the disease — changing from a
311 declining trend to stability or, in a small percentage of cases, improving over time (13, 56).
312 In contrast, all patients with IPF have progressive fibrosis, albeit at different rates (57),
313 which never undergoes spontaneous regression.

314 Immunological involvement appears to differ between SSc-ILD and IPF
315 (Supplementary Table 3 and 4), although adaptive and innate immune mechanisms are
316 implicated in both diseases. Most patients with SSc-ILD are positive for autoantibodies (e.g.,
317 antinuclear antibodies), while clinically relevant levels of autoantibodies are believed to be
318 absent from patients with IPF (13). A single study has reported a link between anti-HSP70
319 antibodies and poor survival in IPF, although, currently, this is not considered in routine
320 clinical practice (58). The existence of specific activation mechanisms for different

321 macrophage subpopulations has been described in IPF, whereby M1 macrophages (inducers
322 include lipopolysaccharide, interferon- γ and granulocyte stimulating colony factor) and M2
323 macrophages (inducers include IL-4, IL-10 and IL-13, and TGF- β) are both involved in the
324 pathogenesis of the disease (59). IL-4+ T cells in the BALF are associated with the severity of
325 disease on HRCT in SSc-ILD (60). Levels of CCL18 are increased in BALF and serum of patients
326 with either IPF or SSc-ILD. In both diseases, serum CCL18 has been linked to worse prognosis
327 independent of disease severity (40, 61), and levels of serum CCL18 appear to decrease in
328 response to anti-IL6 therapy (14) with stabilization in lung function.

329 A study of lung tissue showed increased mast cell density in patients with IPF
330 compared with healthy controls, whereas mast cell density was similar in patients with SSc-
331 ILD and healthy controls (62). With regards to adaptive immunity, numbers of CD4+CD25+
332 regulatory T-cells in the lungs appear to be increased in SSc-ILD but not in IPF (63, 64). Also,
333 increased numbers of IL-22-producing T-helper cells have been observed in SSc-ILD, but not
334 in IPF (65, 66). Consistent with these findings, individuals with SSc-ILD but not those with
335 IPF, benefit from CYC treatment (13). There is, therefore, good evidence to suggest that
336 adaptive immune mechanisms play a reduced role in IPF than in SSc-ILD. In fact, few
337 patients with IPF are likely to respond to any immunosuppressant therapy, whereas most
338 patients with SSc-ILD respond to such treatment. Further understanding of the phenotypes,
339 activation mechanisms and roles of macrophages in lung fibrosis, both in IPF and SSc-ILD,
340 may help in the development of therapeutic targets.

341 Some of the pathological pathways involved in fibrogenesis in IPF are similar to those
342 in SSc-ILD. The initial trigger of fibrosis in both diseases appears to be epithelial and/or
343 endothelial cell injury (13). The associated cell death has several effects including the
344 activation of TGF- β , which then triggers immune responses and causes fibroblast activation,

345 proliferation and differentiation into myofibroblasts. These processes culminate in the
346 excess deposition of ECM (11).

347 On histopathologic analysis, patients with SSc-ILD usually exhibit fibrotic (rarely
348 cellular) non-specific interstitial pneumonia (NSIP; Figure 5) (67), while usual interstitial
349 pneumonia (UIP) may be observed only in a minority of patients with SSc-ILD. In contrast,
350 UIP is the defining morphological pattern in patients with IPF (68). Patients with SSc-ILD and
351 a UIP pattern have a better prognosis than patients with IPF; moreover, patients with SSc
352 and a UIP pattern do not appear to have a significantly worse survival than patients with SSc
353 and NSIP (69, 70). Although the reasons for this are unclear, UIP in patients with a
354 connective tissue disease is characterized by higher numbers of lymphoid follicles, smaller
355 honeycomb cysts and fewer fibroblastic foci compared with UIP in IPF (71).

356 Genetic variants associated with SSc-ILD and IPF do not appear to overlap. The
357 association with the MUC5B promoter variant rs35705950, observed in sporadic IPF and
358 familial idiopathic interstitial pneumonias (IIPs), is one notable example that is absent in SSc-
359 ILD (72, 73). MUC5B expression is increased in the small airways and honeycomb cysts in
360 UIP/IPF but similar to controls in the small airways of SSc patients with an NSIP pattern (74).
361 More generally, the genetic susceptibility loci identified in IIPs were not observed in a large
362 North-American cohort of patients with SSc-ILD (75). It is possible that the underlying
363 genetics of ILDs are related to the different histopathological patterns. For example,
364 rheumatoid arthritis-associated ILD with a UIP pattern is associated with the MUC5B
365 promoter variant rs35705950 (76); however, the same variant has also been associated with
366 idiopathic NSIP (77). Further studies are needed to characterize the link between genetic
367 characteristics and ILD patterns. A number of HLA alleles have been associated with SSc-ILD
368 as discussed previously. Although associations between HLA alleles and IIP have been

369 reported (78, 79), specific HLA allele associations do not overlap between SSc-ILD and IPF.
370 For instance, HLA DRB1*1501 observed to be associated with IPF (78), has been reported as
371 protective against SSc (80).

372 Epigenetic changes may underpin bronchiolar remodeling and the associated
373 formation of enlarged bronchiolized airspaces (i.e., honeycombing, which occurs to differing
374 extents in IPF and SSc-ILD). Chilosi *et al.* were the first to highlight the importance of the
375 bronchioloalveolar junction and to report overexpression of markers of the Wnt pathway
376 (e.g., β -catenin, MMP7) in IPF but not in NSIP (81). Differences between SSc-ILD and IPF are
377 likely in specific miRNA profiles as well as in other epigenetic parameters; further studies are
378 needed to characterize these differences and their relevance.

379 Despite treatment not being the focus of this review, we briefly mention some
380 important differences and similarities in terms of treatment of SSc-ILD and IPF as highlighted
381 by key clinical trials. The anti-fibrotic agents nintedanib and pirfenidone have shown benefit
382 and are approved as treatments in IPF. In SSc-ILD, nintedanib has been granted FDA
383 approval to slow the rate of decline in pulmonary function in patients with SSc-ILD based on
384 the results of the phase III SENSICIS trial, similar to its affect in patients with IPF.
385 Furthermore and in line with the known safety profile of nintedanib in patients with IPF,
386 diarrhea was the most common AE; all reported AEs were at worst mild or moderate in
387 severity as reported in 49.5% and 45.0% of patients, respectively (36). The phase II LOTUSS
388 trial showed that pirfenidone administered either as monotherapy or in combination with
389 MMF had an acceptable tolerability profile in patients with SSc-ILD. The most common
390 adverse events (AEs) were nausea, headache and fatigue which is consistent with its
391 tolerability profile in patients with IPF (82). SLS III (NCT03221257), for which recruitment
392 was ongoing at the time of writing, was designed to compare pirfenidone plus MMF, with

393 MMF alone in SSc-ILD. The results of this study, due in May 2021, may provide further data
394 regarding the similarities and differences between treatment response in SSc-ILD and IPF.

395

396 **Conclusions**

397 ILD is a common complication of SSc and a significant cause of morbidity and mortality.
398 Differentiation from IPF is particularly important since IPF is the most common fibrosing ILD.
399 This is usually straightforward in the context of the classic extra-pulmonary SSc
400 manifestations, but can be more difficult in patients with SSc sine scleroderma. Knowledge
401 of SSc-ILD is important in our community to ensure that affected patients are managed
402 optimally. Greater extent of lung fibrosis on HRCT, lower FVC and early lung function decline
403 are predictors of early mortality. Familiarity with key clinical features (including established
404 risk factors of progressive lung disease) may prove useful in raising our alertness to the
405 possibility of SSc-ILD in relevant patients. Perhaps most importantly, high awareness of the
406 disease and its characteristics will be needed to realize the potential of new treatment
407 options.

408

409 **Conflict of Interest**

410 Dinesh Khanna is an employee of University of Michigan and Civi Biopharma and has
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436

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818

819

820 **Tables**821 **Table 1. Clinically-used biomarkers and biomarkers under investigation in SSc-ILD**

Biomarker	Mechanistic Pathway	References
Clinically-used biomarkers		
Immune dysregulation or inflammation		
Anti-centromere		(20, 22, 37)
Anti-Scl-70		(22, 37)
Nucleolar pattern on ANA (representing anti-Th/To, U3 RNP)		(83)
Biomarkers supported by significant clinical data		
Epithelial cell injury or barrier dysfunction		
CCL-18		(40, 61)
KL-6		(23, 38, 39)
SP-D		(84)
Immune dysfunction or inflammation		
IL-6/CRP		(12, 41)
Biomarkers under investigation		
Epithelial cell injury or barrier dysfunction		
APOAI		(55)
CC16		(85)
ET-1		(86)
Isoprostane		(86)
SP-A		(87)
sE-selectin		(86)
sVCAM-1		(86)
SPFA2		(55)
S100A6		(55)
TGF- β		(86)

VEGF	(86)
14-3-3ε	(55)
Immune dysfunction or inflammation	
Anti-CXCR4	(48)
Anti-CXCR3	(48)
CCL2	(43)
CRP	(88)
CXCL4	(45)
CXCL10	(89)
CX3CL1	(90)
C3a	(55)
IL-10	(86)
IL-15	(86)
IL-17 [†]	(65)
IL-22 [†]	(65)
IL-23	(86)
miR-155	(19)
Remodeling and fibrosis	
Chitinase-1	(50)
CTGF	(86)
Circulating fibrocytes	(88)
GDF-15	(88)
MMP7	(27)
MMP12	(42)
MMP13	(88)
miR-21	(19)
miR-92A	(91)

miR-200c	(88)
PMN elastase	(86)
TIMP-1	(86)
TIMP-2	(88)
YKL-40	(49)

822 *Definition of abbreviations:* ANA = anti-nuclear antibody; APOAI = apolipoprotein A-I; CC16 = clara
823 cell secretory protein; CCL = chemokine (C-C motif) ligand; CTGF = connective tissue growth factor;
824 CRP = c-reactive protein; CX3CL1 = chemokine fractalkine; CXCL = chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand;
825 CXCR3 = chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 3; C3a = complement 3 anaphylatoxin; ET-1 = endothelin-
826 1; HP = hypersensitivity pneumonitis; a; IL = interleukin; KL-6 = Krebs von den lugen-6; MMP = matrix
827 metalloproteinase; miR = microRNA; PMN = polymorphonuclear; Scl-70 = topoisomerase 1; SP-A =
828 surfactant protein A; SP-D = surfactant protein D; sE-selectin = soluble E selectin; S100A6 = S100
829 calcium-binding protein A6; TIMP-1 = Tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases-1; TNF- α = tumor
830 necrosis factor; U3 RNP = fibrillar; VCAM-1 = vascular cell adhesion molecule 1; VEGF = vascular
831 endothelial growth factor; YKL-40 = chitinase-3-like protein 1; * = approved by Japan's Health
832 Insurance Program as a diagnostic marker for ILDs in 1999; † = circulating interleukin-producing T
833 cells.

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Statistically Significant Associations Between SSc-ILD and HLA Alleles:

Studies with Ssc-ILD Cohorts \geq 100 Patients (15). Reproduced with kind permission of Takahashi T, et al. *J Exp Med* 2017.

HLA region	Allele/Serotype	OR and P Value for SSc-ILD	Population	Cohort Size
<i>DPB1</i>	301	OR = 3.56 (1.27–10.73)* $P = 0.0069$	Han Chinese	199/78 [†]
	1301	OR = 2.25 (1.4–3.62) [‡] $P = 3.3 \times 10^{-4}$		
<i>DQB1</i>	501	OR = 5.03 [‡] $P = 6 \times 10^{-7}$	Han Chinese	134/239 [§]
<i>DRB1</i>	3	OR = 2.47 (1.35–4.52) [‡] $P = 0.0026$	Han Chinese	295/458 [§]

Definition of abbreviations: HLA = human leukocyte antigen; ILD = interstitial lung disease; OR = odds ratio; SSc = systemic sclerosis; SSc-ILD = systemic sclerosis-associated interstitial lung disease.

*Versus SSc-no ILD.

[†]SSc-ILD/SSc-no ILD.

[‡]Versus control.

[§]SSc-ILD/control.

Supplementary Table 2. Statistically Significant Associations Between SSc-ILD and Non-HLA Genes: Studies with SSc-ILD Cohorts \geq 100 Patients (15). Reproduced with kind permission of Takahashi T, et al. *J Exp Med* 2017.

Gene	Polymorphism	Function	OR and P		
			ILD	Population	Cohort Size
CD226	rs763361:T>A	–	OR = 1.27 (1.12–1.45)* $P = 2.98 \times 10^{-4}$	French, German, Italian [†]	662/1642 [‡]
	Haplotype rs763361:T>A, rs34794968:C>A, rs727088:G>A	Correlates with expression levels in T cells	OR = 1.27 (1.05–1.54)* $P = 0.032$	Spanish, German, Dutch, Italian, Swedish, British, Norwegian [†]	729/3,966 [‡]
CTGF	rs918698:G>C	Alters ratio of Sp1:Sp3 binding affecting transcriptional activity	OR = 3.1 (1.9–5.0)* $P = 0.001$	British	207/500 [‡]
	rs6918698:G>C	See above	OR = 2.0 (1.5–2.6)* $P = 0.001$	Japanese	188/269 [‡]
IRAK1	rs1059702:A>G/ rs1059703:G>A (in complete LD)	Increased NFκ-B activity	OR = 1.37 (1.16–1.62)* $P = 1.99 \times 10^{-4}$	French, Italian, German [†] (Female only)	604/2,217 [‡]

	rs1059702:A>G/ rs1059703:G>A (in complete LD)	See above	OR = 1.30 (1.07–1.58)* $P = 8.46 \times 10^{-3}$	Spanish, German, Dutch, British [†] (Female only)	461/2,043 [‡]
	rs1059702:A>G/ rs1059703:G>A (in complete LD) [§]	See above	OR = 1.2 (1.05–1.37) $P = 0.007$	European descent [†]	1,065/2,237
<i>IRF5</i>	rs2004640:G>T	Results in transcription of alternative exon 1	OR = 1.44 (1.19–1.76)*	French	280/760 [‡]
	rs2004640:G>T	See above	OR = 1.38 (1.1–1.75)* $P = 0.028$	Han Chinese	502/227 [‡]
	Haplotype rs3757385:G>T – rs2004640:G>T – rs10954213:G>A	In LD with 5-bp indel which increases SP1 binding	OR = 0.64 (0.51–0.79)*	French	292/989 [‡]
	rs4728142:G>A	Associated with lower expression	Mean difference = 2.64 (0.43–4.84) $P = 0.019$	American Caucasian	914** (Linear regression analysis with FVC % predicted)

	rs2004640:G>T [§]	See above	OR = 1.12 (1.02–1.22) <i>P</i> = 0.014	French, European Caucasian, Han Chinese [†]	1,682/2,806 [¶]
<i>NLRP1</i>	rs8182352:T>C	–	OR = 1.19 (1.05–1.36)* <i>P</i> = 0.0065	French, German, Italian [†]	674/1,587 [‡]
<i>STAT4</i>	rs7574865:T>G	–	OR = 1.42 (1.16–1.73)* <i>P</i> = 0.008	French	316/970 [‡]
	rs7574865:T>G	–	OR = 1.86 (1.34–2.59)* <i>P</i> = 1.2 x 10 ⁻⁴	Han Chinese	237/534 [‡]
	rs7574865:T>G [§]	–	OR = 1.259 (1.07–1.47) <i>P</i> = 5.35 x 10 ⁻³	French, Spanish, Han Chinese [†]	640/842 [¶]
	rs10168266:C>T	–	OR = 1.73 (1.24–2.41) <i>P</i> = 7.7 x 10 ⁻⁴	Han Chinese	237/534 [‡]
	rs3821236:G>A	–	OR = 1.54 (1.07–2.22)* <i>P</i> = 0.015	Han Chinese	237/534 [‡]
Unreplicated studies with small cohort sizes		–	OR = 1.45 (1.17–1.79) <i>P</i> = 0.0006	European descent	439/399 [¶]
<i>ALOX5AP</i>	rs10507391:A>T (NC_000013.11: g_30737959A>T)				

Definition of abbreviations: ALOX5AP = arachidonate 5-lipoxygenase activating protein; bp = base pairs; CTGF = connective tissue growth factor; FVC = forced vital capacity; CD226 = cluster of differentiation 226; HLA = human leukocyte antigen; ILD = interstitial lung disease; IRAK1= Interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 1; IRF5 = interferon Regulatory Factor 5; LD, linkage disequilibrium; NFκβ = nuclear factor κβ; NLRP1 = NLR family pyrin domain containing 1; OR = odds ratio; SSc = systemic sclerosis; STAT4 = signal transducer and activator of transcription 4; SSc-ILD = systemic sclerosis-associated interstitial lung disease.

Corrected *P* values given where available. ORs are shown as OR (95% confidence interval), 517 where available.

*Versus control.

†Meta-analysis of the different populations 519 included.

‡SSc-ILD/control.

§Meta-analysis or previously published studies.

||Versus SSc-no ILD.

¶SSc-ILD/SSc-no ILD.

**Total number of SSc patients 518, when SSc-ILD number not given.

Supplementary Table 3. Levels of Serum Biomarkers in Ssc-ILD: Comparison with Healthy Controls, Ssc Without ILD and IPF. Significant Differences Between Study Groups Were Only Seen with Respect to KL-6, SP-D and MMP7 (the Kruskal–Wallis Test was Used to Assess for Differences Across the Four Groups) (27). Data are presented as median (interquartile range). Reproduced with kind permission of Kennedy B, et al. *Diffuse Lung Dis* 2015.

	Controls	Ssc w/o ILD	Ssc-ILD	IPF	P Value
KL-6 (ng/ml)	198 (52–360)	192 (0–525)	836 (431–1303)	633 (492–1,675)	0.0003*
SP-D (ng/ml)	137 (97–284)	169 (137–219)	398 (190–727)	542 (305–577)	0.0012 [†]
MMP7 (ng/ml)	0 (0–0.06)	2.36 (1.2–5.1)	5.4 (2.6–7.25)	2.85 (1.5–3.6)	0.0009 [‡]
TGF-β (pg/ml)	7,251 (5,654–10,034)	2,986 (2,483–4,029)	3,743 (1,855–5,500)	2,388 (1,501–7,367)	0.07
CCL18 (ng/ml)	46.85 (34.6–153.1)	49.1 (43.65–65.05)	62.05 (52.3–137.4)	48.4 (36.8–90.5)	0.58
PDGF-AA (pg/ml)	1,011 (605–2,989)	437 (314.5–649)	554 (328–935)	405 (167.5–1,222)	0.057
TNF-α (pg/ml)	2.73 (2.18–3.39)	2.53 (2.43–3.21)	3.41 (2.24–10.06)	2.78 (1.9–5.3)	0.84
VEGF (pg/ml)	60.32 (23.3–209.6)	22.9 (11.88–29.28)	24.96 (20.5–33.46)	24.14 (11.45–37.28)	0.053
Thrombomodulin (ng/ml)	3.07 (1.84–4.45)	1.36 (1.1–2.57)	1.63 (1.05–3.07)	2.57 (1.72–6.2)	0.054
PAI-1 (ng/ml)	37.2 (26.7–61.35)	21.3 (9.15–41.95)	40.55 (21.55–56.5)	32.7 (15.75–56.2)	0.35
VCAM-1 (ng/ml)	467.5 (397.1–686.6)	700.1 (567–969.5)	706.1 (583.2–801.3)	753.7 (444.5–916.3)	0.12
ICAM-1 (ng/ml)	297.7 (206.5–742.7)	259.5 (210.4–361.8)	431.4 (325.3–504.80)	416 (289.7–569.1)	0.18
P-Selectin (ng/ml)	168.5 (91.35–224.6)	131.3 (110–137.3)	133.9 (115.4–167.1)	119.1 (100.9–170.3)	0.51
L-Selectin (ng/ml)	1,397 (914.3–1,878)	1,385 (1,032–1679)	1329 (818.1–1746)	1,203 (891.4–1,784)	0.9

CCL2 (pg/ml)	84.9 (78.3–121.1)	86.7 (43.85–121.7)	145.2 (118.8–189.5)	159.4 (103.7–180.3)	0.06
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Definition of abbreviations: CCL = chemokine (C-C motif) ligand; ICAM-1 = Intercellular Adhesion Molecule 1; IL = interleukin; KL-6 = Krebs von den lügen-6; MMP = matrix metalloproteinase; Pal-1 = Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1; PDGF-AA = Platelet Derived Growth Factor AA; SP-A = surfactant protein A; TGF- β = Tumor growth factor beta; TNF- α = tumor necrosis factor alpha ; VCAM-1 = vascular cell adhesion molecule 1; VEGF = vascular endothelial growth factor.

Supplementary Table 4. Comparison of Clinical and Mechanistic Features of SSc-ILD and IPF

Feature of	SSC-ILD	IPF
Lung involvement	Lung fibrosis occurs in ~80% of patients with SSc, 25–30% of whom develop progressive ILD (2).	All patients develop characteristic progressive lung fibrosis (57, 92)
Pulmonary symptoms	Dyspnea on exertion, nonproductive cough and predominantly basal inspiratory crackles on auscultation (13, 93, 94)	Dyspnea on exertion, non-productive cough and predominantly basal inspiratory crackles on auscultation (13, 92)
Extra-pulmonary features	Multisystem characteristics of SSc (e.g., vasculopathy, Raynaud’s phenomenon, immune dysfunction, skin fibrosis, gastro-esophageal reflux) (1-3)	Digital clubbing (13)
Clinical course	Variable rate of progression (some patients show rapid, early decline; disease course may be stabilized by treatment with immunosuppressants; spontaneous regression can occur [albeit infrequently]); median survival is 5–8 years (13, 56)	Progressive decline in lung function; spontaneous regression never occurs and the disease is unlikely to respond to immunosuppressant therapy; median survival is 2–3 years (13, 57)
Disease mechanisms	Repetitive endothelial/epithelial cell injury leads to activation of innate	Similar to SSc-ILD, fibroblast activation, proliferation and differentiation into

	and adaptive immune system, recruitment and activation of fibroblasts, and differentiation of fibroblasts to a myofibroblast phenotype, accumulation of ECM and development of fibrosis (7, 8, 93, 95). Increased numbers of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T-cells and IL-22-producing T-helper cells (63, 65); mast cell density similar to healthy controls (62).	myofibroblasts culminates in excess deposition of ECM (11, 95). However, unlike SSc-ILD, mast cell density is increased versus healthy controls and no increases in CD4+CD25+ regulatory T-cells or IL-22-producing T-helper cells are observed (62, 64, 66).
Autoimmune characteristics	Most patients are positive for antinuclear antibodies and other specific autoantibodies (13).	No clinically relevant levels of autoantibodies (13)
Radiographic features	NSIP pattern is typical, including ground-glass opacities with areas of subpleural sparing, reticular markings and traction bronchiectasis. UIP observed in a minority of patients, with honeycombing of lower prominence compared with IPF (13, 71).	UIP pattern with honeycombing; ground-glass opacities not seen (13, 68).

Definition of abbreviations: ECM, extracellular matrix; IL = interleukin; ILD = interstitial lung disease; IPF = idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis; NSIP = nonspecific interstitial pneumonia; SSc = systemic sclerosis; UIP = usual interstitial pneumonia.

Figures

Figure 1. Cellular pathogenesis of fibrotic lung injury in systemic sclerosis. ECM = extracellular matrix; EMT = epithelial-mesenchymal transition; IgG = immunoglobulin G; NK = Natural killer T cell;

*including SPINT2hi, MFAP5hi and few WIF1hi fibroblasts

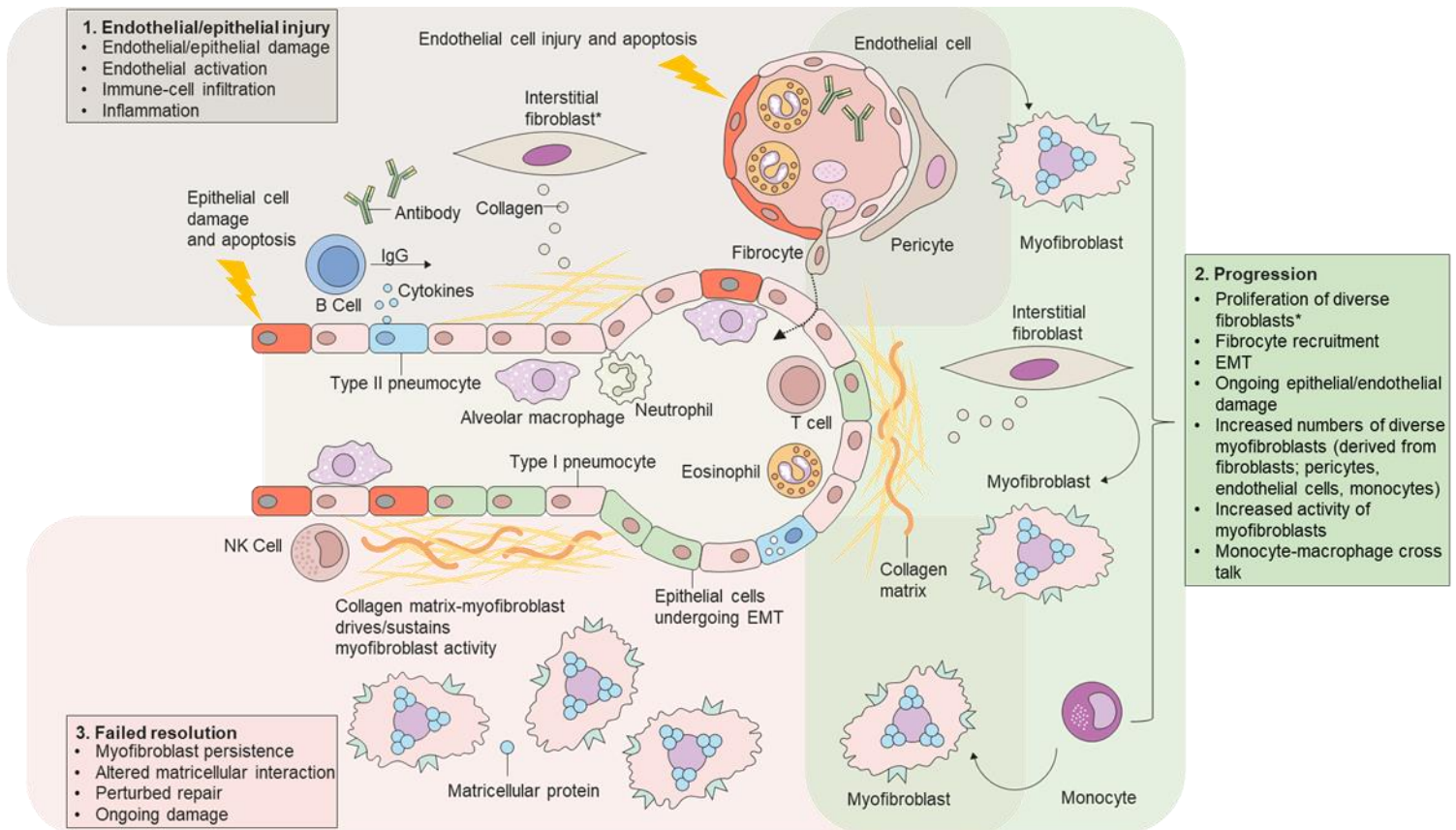


Figure 2. Limited disease (<20% extent; panels A–C) on HRCT in a 72-year-old female non-smoker. HRCT images at the level of (A) the aortic arch show no convincing ILD, and (B and C) very limited sub-pleural ground-glass opacification. ILD of ‘indeterminate’ extent (panels D–F) on HRCT in a 46-year-old female non-smoker with SSc. Images (A) through (D) the upper zones showing minor reticulation, (E) just below the level of the right hemidiaphragm and (F) the costophrenic recesses demonstrating reticulation, ground-glass opacification and traction bronchiectasis/bronchiolectasis. The morphologic features are in keeping with a fibrotic NSIP pattern. Disease extent on HRCT with regard to the 20% threshold is difficult to gauge (i.e. ‘indeterminate’ according to the Goh staging); FVC in this patient was 60% predicted thereby indicating ‘extensive’ ILD. Note the marked esophageal dilatation containing food residue. FVC = forced vital capacity; HRCT = high resolution-computed tomography; NSIP = nonspecific interstitial pneumonia

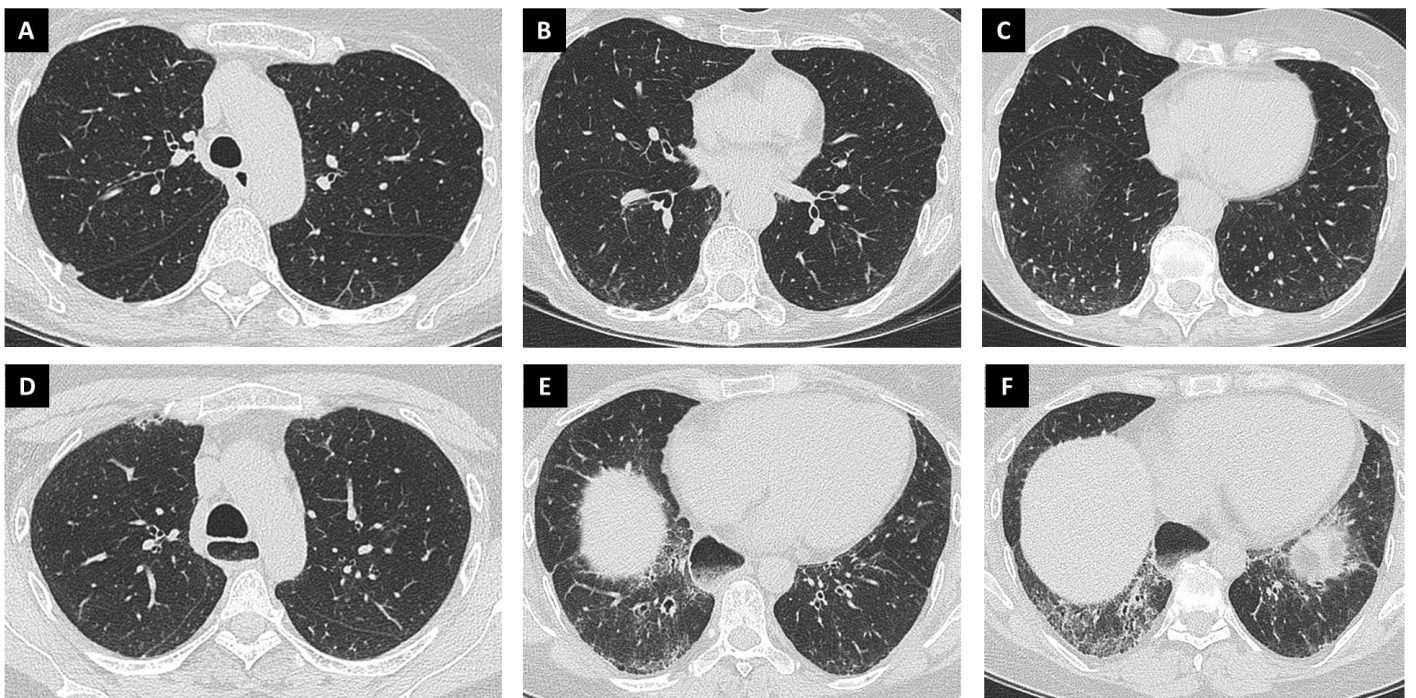


Figure 3. HRCT images in a 58-year-old female with systemic sclerosis, who never smoked; DLco 32% predicted and FVC 76% predicted. Axial images at (A) the level of the aortic arch, (B) the carina and (C) the lower lobes demonstrating extensive disease (>20% extent by visual estimation) and (D) coronal reconstruction. There is marked honeycombing, particularly in the lower lobes, indicating a UIP pattern. The coronal image shows striking lower zone preponderance of disease. FVC = forced vital capacity; HRCT = high-resolution computed tomography; DLco = diffusing capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide; UIP = usual interstitial pneumonia

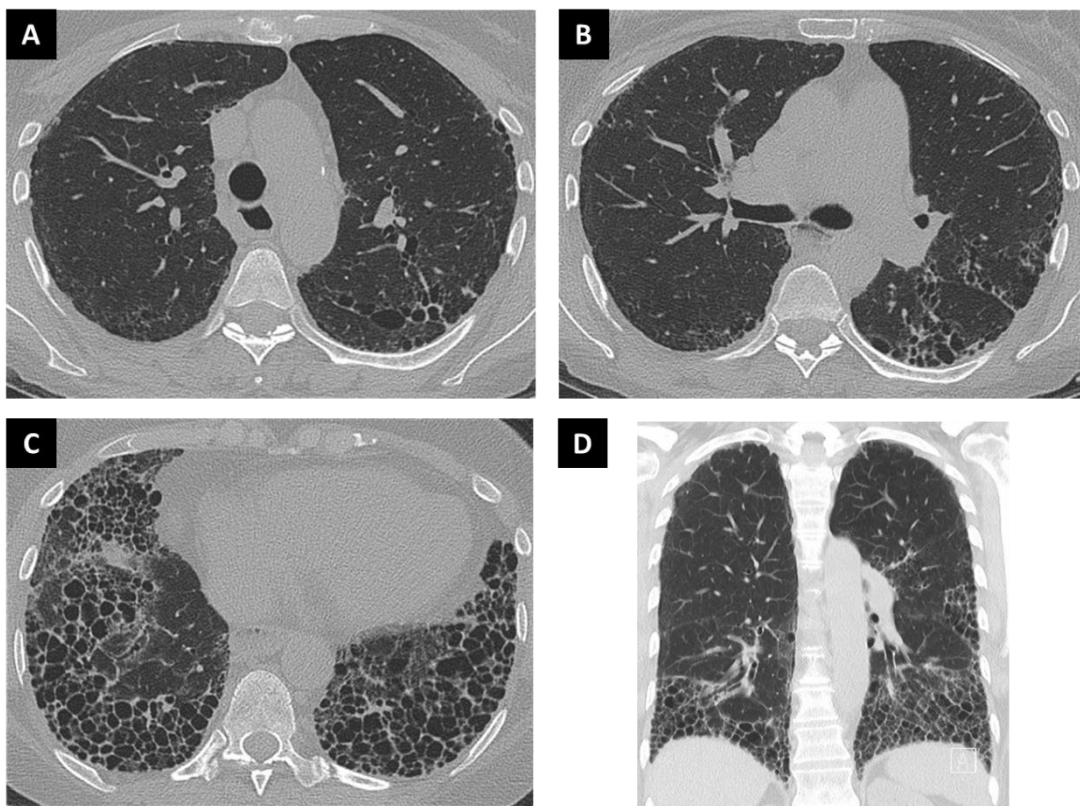


Figure 4. CT in 52-year-old male, ex-smoker with a DLco of 22% and FVC 56% predicted. Axial images at (A) the level of the arch, (B) the pulmonary venous confluence and (C) the costophrenic recesses showing extensive (>20%) disease. There is predominant ground-glass opacification with fine reticulation, no honeycombing but severe traction bronchiectasis. The CT features are consistent with a fibrotic NSIP pattern. Note also the marked esophageal dilatation. DLco = diffusing capacity for carbon monoxide.

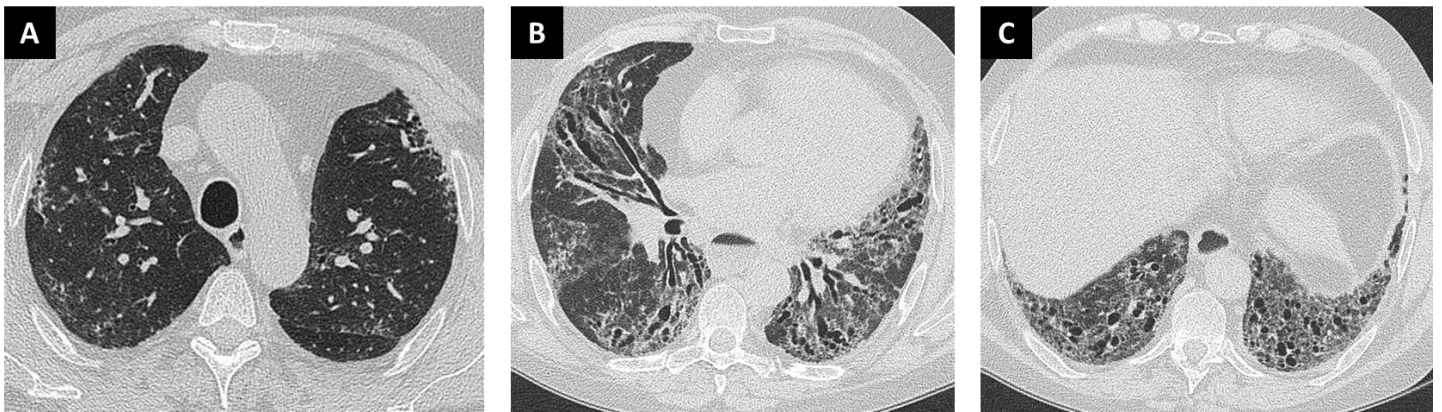


Figure 5. Histopathology of systemic sclerosis-associated interstitial lung disease (SSc-ILD) and idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) (13, 68). Reproduced with kind permission of (A) Cavazza A, et al. *Respir Med* 2010, and (B) Herzog EL, et al. *Arthritis Rheumatol* 2014.

(A) SSc-ILD. *i*, Nonspecific interstitial pneumonia; note the diffuse alveolar septal thickening throughout the lobule with lack of peripheral accentuation in the area of an interlobular septum on the left. *ii*, UIP; note the peripheral involvement of a pulmonary lobule sparing the centrilobular area containing the broncho-vascular bundle. Arrows indicate fibroblastic foci. *iii*, Pulmonary arterial hypertension; note the hypertensive arterial changes with prominent intimal fibrosis. Arrow indicates separation of the media and intima by the internal elastic lamina. *iv*, Pleural fibrosis; its presence supports the diagnosis of SSc-associated ILD in the appropriate clinical setting.

Hematoxylin and eosin stained sections are shown in *i*, *ii*, and *iv*; Verhoeff-van Gieson stained sections in *iii*. Original magnification $\times 40$ in *i* and *ii*; $\times 200$ in *iii*; $\times 100$ in *iv*. (B) UIP. *i*) At low magnification, the diagnostic key is the abrupt alternating of scarred and normal lung (patchwork pattern: scar-normal-scar-normal). In the scarred areas, the alveolar architecture is obliterated. *ii*) The fibrosis frequently prevails at the periphery of the lobule in the subpleurale-paraseptal regions (arrows), with relative sparing of the centrilobule. This is a useful diagnostic clue, particularly in early cases like here (haematoxylineeosin 20). *iii*) Honeycomb consists of enlarged airspaces lined by bronchiolar epithelium, frequently filled by mucus and surrounded by dense scars. Note the architectural distortion and the abrupt transition with residual normal lung seen in the right upper corner. *iv*) A fibroblastic focus consisting of a dome-shaped proliferation of myofibroblasts immersed in a myxoid matrix. Fibroblastic foci can be covered by bronchiolar epithelium, as here, or by hyperplastic pneumocytes. Hematoxylin and eosin stained sections are shown in *i*, *ii*, *iii* and *iv*. Original magnification $\times 20$ in *i* and *ii*; $\times 20$ in *iii*; $\times 100$ in *iv*. UIP = usual interstitial pneumonia.

