

1 **Opportunities to diagnose fibrotic lung diseases in routine care: a**
2 **primary care cohort study**

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1 **Summary at a glance:** We analysed a primary care clinical cohort database
2 to investigate respiratory symptoms and healthcare use in the 10 years prior
3 to a diagnosis of pulmonary fibrosis. Utilisation progressively increased in the
4 years prior to diagnosis, suggesting multiple opportunities for diagnosis at an
5 earlier stage.

6

7 **ABSTRACT**

8 Background and objective: Temporal patterns of healthcare use in the period
9 before a diagnosis of pulmonary fibrosis are poorly understood. We
10 investigated trends in respiratory symptoms and lower respiratory healthcare
11 resource utilisation (HRU) in the 10 years prior to diagnosis.

12 Methods: We analysed a primary care clinical cohort database (UK Optimum
13 Patient Care Research Database) and assessed patients aged ≥ 40 years who
14 had an electronically coded diagnosis of pulmonary fibrosis between 2005–
15 2015 and a minimum 2 years' continuous medical records prior to diagnosis.
16 Electronic codes for recognised causes of pulmonary fibrosis such as CTD,
17 sarcoidosis or allergic alveolitis were exclusion criteria.

18 Results: Data for 2223 patients were assessed. Over the 10 years prior to
19 diagnosis of pulmonary fibrosis there was a progressive increase in HRU
20 across multiple lower respiratory (LR)-related domains. These further
21 increased between months 24–13 and 12–0 prior to diagnosis. Five years
22 before diagnosis, 18% of patients had multiple healthcare contacts for LR
23 complaints; this increased to 79% in the year before diagnosis, with 38% of
24 patients having five or more healthcare contacts.

1 Conclusions: There are opportunities to diagnose pulmonary fibrosis at an
2 earlier stage; research into case-finding algorithms and strategies to educate
3 primary care physicians is required.

4

5 **Key Words:** idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF), lower respiratory (LR),
6 healthcare resource utilisation (HRU), diagnosis

7

8 **Short title: Missed pulmonary fibrosis diagnostic opportunities**

9

10

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is a prototype of chronic, progressive
3 fibrotic lung disease. It is estimated to affect between 14–43 people per
4 100,000; slightly more men than women, and has a mean age at presentation
5 of 66 years [1–4]. The condition has a median post-diagnostic survival of 2–5
6 years and an associated 5-year survival of approximately 20% [3,5]. There is
7 a lack of public awareness of IPF, yet it kills more people every year than
8 leukaemia or ovarian cancer and the number of people affected is increasing
9 [6].

10

11 Historically, treatment options for IPF were limited to symptom management
12 and palliation, potentially providing little motivation for earlier diagnosis.

13 However, even in the absence of any approved pharmacological treatment,
14 delayed access to specialist interstitial lung disease (ILD) services has been
15 associated with an increased risk of death [7]. The recent approval of two
16 effective anti-fibrotic treatments (nintedanib and pirfenidone), which can slow
17 disease progression, now heralds a new era for the management of patients
18 with IPF [8,9]. Thus the importance of an early and accurate diagnosis is clear
19 [10].

20

21 While early diagnosis and treatment of IPF is now widely advocated [11,12],
22 exactly how it can be achieved remains less clear. Precision Medicine
23 approaches and genomic techniques to phenotype patients with fibrotic lung
24 disease are being widely researched with the goal of identifying blood- or
25 lung-specific molecular markers to enhance diagnostic accuracy [13].

1 However, such methodologies require expertise available only in specialist
2 centres, access to which first requires a suspicion, or a diagnosis, of lung
3 fibrosis. A fundamental challenge to the diagnostic and specialist referral
4 pathway is the limited understanding of the natural history of pulmonary
5 fibrosis; it is thought that some patients may be symptomatic for more than 5
6 years before a formal diagnosis [14].

7

8 As all patients with pulmonary fibrosis (including IPF) in the United Kingdom
9 (UK) will first present in primary care, primary care medical records provide an
10 important resource for understanding temporal patterns of healthcare system
11 utilisation (HRU) prior to diagnosis. In this study we assessed patterns of HRU
12 up to 10 years prior to a diagnosis of pulmonary fibrosis to inform potential
13 strategies for earlier identification.

14

15

1 **METHODS**

2 **Data source and study approvals**

3 The Optimum Patient Care Research Database (OPCRD) contains
4 anonymised, longitudinal medical records for patients registered at primary
5 care practices across the UK [17]. It includes demographic, lifestyle,
6 diagnostic and HRU data recorded in primary and secondary care. At the time
7 of the study it comprised records for approximately 2.5 million patients
8 registered across approximately 525 primary care practices.

9

10 The OPCRD is approved by the Health Research Authority of the UK NHS for
11 clinical research use (REC reference: 15/EM/0150). Access to the database
12 for the purposes of this study was approved by the OPCRD's Anonymised
13 Data Ethics and Protocol Transparency Committee (approval code,
14 ADEPT0616). The study protocol was developed by an independent steering
15 committee of the Respiratory Effectiveness group (REG) and registered with
16 the European Network of Centres for Pharmacoepidemiology and
17 Pharmacovigilance (ENCePP; registration number EUPAS12086) [18].

18

19 **Study design and population**

20 This was a historical cohort study including an observation period of 2–10
21 years (as available) immediately prior to an index date at which patients
22 received a first diagnostic code for pulmonary fibrosis. The data extraction
23 cut-off date was December 31st 2015. Cases were identified from diagnostic
24 (Read) code lists developed by members of the REG ILD Working Group and
25 aligned with published IPF-related observational research conducted in the

1 UK (see Supplementary Table S1 and S2) [6,14]. Acknowledging the
2 potential for variations in coding practice between healthcare professionals,
3 cases were labelled as “pulmonary fibrosis-clinical syndrome” (PFCS) in the
4 presence of a code considered diagnostic of pulmonary fibrosis and the
5 absence of codes associated with recognised causes of ILD, such as a
6 connective tissue disease (CTD). A subpopulation of patients with only IPF-
7 specific diagnostic codes—here termed “IPF clinical syndrome” (IPFCS)—was
8 identified (Supplementary Table S1).

9

10 Eligible patients were aged ≥ 40 years at diagnosis and diagnosed with PFCS
11 between 2005–2015. Patients diagnosed before 1990, with less than two
12 years of continuous medical records immediately prior to diagnosis, or with a
13 diagnosis of CTD, sarcoidosis or allergic alveolitis at any point were excluded.

14

15 **Outcome measures**

16 *Characteristics at diagnosis*

17 Key characteristics of the study population described included: demographic
18 (age, sex, anthropomorphic measures); lifestyle (smoking history); clinical
19 features (lung function [FVC, FEV₁/FVC] recorded closest to diagnosis);
20 common comorbidities, and use of obstructive lung disease (OLD)
21 pharmacotherapy in the year preceding PFCS diagnosis.

22

23

1 *Healthcare resource utilisation*

2 Temporal patterns in respiratory symptoms were evaluated by assessment of
3 population-level functional impairment and per-patient annualised cough
4 coded primary care consultations (cough event rate) over the two and 10
5 years prior to PFCS diagnosis. Functional impairment was evaluated using
6 the mini-Medical Research Council (mMRC) score. Scores were captured as
7 a feature of the research database's systematic data capture protocol.
8 Availability of mMRC scores, therefore, reflects patients' willingness to
9 participate in routine data collection rather than their clinical situation.

10

11 Two- and 10-year trends in lower respiratory (LR) HRU were evaluated by
12 assessment of annualised per-patient rates of: primary care consultations,
13 chest radiography (CXR), hospitalisations, emergency room attendances, and
14 antibiotics and oral steroid (acute and maintenance) prescriptions coded for
15 an LR complaint. LR complaint codes included those for LR tract infections
16 (e.g. bronchitis, tracheitis, pneumonia), non-infective LR conditions (e.g.
17 chronic respiratory failure), and respiratory symptoms (e.g. breathlessness,
18 cough, wheezing).

19

20 Opportunities for possible earlier PFCS diagnosis were explored and
21 quantified by evaluating the number and percentage of unique patients with 0,
22 1, 2, 3, 4, ≥ 5 LR-related primary care contacts within each 1-year period in the
23 decade preceding PFCS diagnosis. Prevalence of potential differential
24 pulmonary diagnoses (chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [COPD],
25 asthma and lung cancer) at time of PFCS diagnosis, and their proximity to

1 PFCS diagnosis, were also explored.

2

3 *Statistical analysis*

4 Summary statistics (n [%]) were used to describe patient characteristics at

5 time of PFCS diagnosis. Temporal changes in LR symptoms and HRU

6 patterns were assessed annually over the ten years prior to PFCS diagnosis.

7 A comparison in survival among IPF patient with (versus without) concomitant

8 lung cancer was made using a log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. All analyses were

9 conducted using STATA (version 14).

10

11 **RESULTS**

12 There were a total of 2,223 eligible PFCS patients (Fig. 1) including 743

13 patients eligible for the IPFCS subgroup (Supplementary Fig. S1).

14

15 **Cohort characteristics**

16 The PFCS study cohort comprised more men (62.9%) than women with an

17 overall mean (standard deviation [SD]) age of 72.6 (9.7) years. Two-thirds of

18 patients (67.2%) were current or former smokers. Cardiac or pulmonary

19 conditions were the most common comorbidities at the time of PFCS

20 diagnosis: ischaemic heart disease (32.4%), COPD (22.6%), lung cancer

21 (18.0%), and asthma (13.9%). Mean (SD) FVC was 2.9 (5.7) L and FEV₁/FVC

22 0.78 (0.1). Almost one-quarter of patients (23.2%) had received a prescription

23 for a short-acting beta₂-agonist (SABA) in the year prior to PFCS diagnosis

24 (Table 1). PFCS and IPFCS patient characteristics were broadly similar

25 (Tables 1 and S3, respectively). In patients with OLD, the diagnosis of COPD

1 occurred a mean (SD) 5.1 (6.7) years, and asthma a mean (SD) 12.1 (14.1)
2 years, prior to PFCS diagnosis. 40% of patients received their asthma
3 diagnosis within 5 years of being diagnosed with PFCS (60% within 10 years).

4
5 Functional impairment (assessed by mMRC) scores prior to PFCS diagnosis
6 were available for 52% of the cohort. When stratified by time between mMRC
7 assessment and PFCS diagnosis, there were no pronounced temporal trends,
8 although a slight reduction in the proportion of patients without signs of
9 functional impairment was apparent over the 10-year study period (Fig. S2).

10

11 Mortality data following PFCS diagnosis were available in the primary care
12 records of 32% of the cohort at the data extraction cut-off date, with survival
13 significantly shorter among patients with (versus without) a concomitant lung
14 cancer diagnosis ($p=0.046$).

15

16 **Healthcare resource utilisation**

17 There was a marked increase in incidence of cough events in the lead up to
18 PFCS diagnosis (Fig. 2). Mean (SD) annual per-patient cough event rate
19 increased 10-fold over the 10-year observation period (from 0.06 [0.3] per
20 patient per year (pppy) 10-years prior to diagnosis to 0.58 [0.6] in the year
21 immediately prior to diagnosis), doubling in the penultimate two years. A
22 similar, trend was seen in the IPFCS cohort, with mean cough event rates
23 increasing from 0.05 to 0.13 pppy over the same 10-year period.

24

25 Increasing trends in LR HRU were evident over the 10-year observation
26 period (Fig. 3 and Table 2). Mean (SD) annualised rates of primary care

1 consultations associated with LR complaints increased from 0.4 (1.3) pppy in
2 the year 10 years prior to diagnosis, to 4.5 (1.6) pppy in the year immediately
3 prior to diagnosis. Similarly, antibiotic and acute oral steroid prescriptions
4 coded for LR events also increased over the same 10-year period (0.08 [0.3]
5 to 0.81 [0.7] pppy and 0.02 [0.2] to 1.07 [0.7] pppy, respectively). The pattern
6 of increasing LR HRU was consistent in the IPFCS cohort (Table S4 and Fig.
7 S3).

8
9 A 10-fold increase in chest X-rays (CXR) was seen when comparing the 10
10 years prior to diagnosis with the year immediately prior to diagnosis (mean
11 [SD] annual rate of 0.03 [0.2] to 0.40 [0.5] pppy, respectively; Fig. 3 and Table
12 2). There was no clear 10-year trends in secondary care contacts associated
13 with LR complaints (hospital admissions or ER attendances) or incidence of
14 pneumonia, although there was a 3-fold increase in pneumonia incidence in
15 the two years immediately prior to PFCS diagnosis (data not shown).

16
17 All-cause primary care consultations were also examined to explore whether
18 increases in LR consultations reflected a general escalation in all-cause HRU
19 as the cohort aged over the 10-year period. All-cause consultations did
20 increase over the 10-year period, but LR complaints became a more dominant
21 driver of HRU accounting for 10% and 37% of all primary care consultations in
22 the year ten years and in the year immediately prior to diagnosis, respectively
23 (Supplementary Fig. S4). The increasing contribution of LR to all-cause
24 primary care consultations (particularly in the year immediately prior to
25 diagnosis) was also evident in the IPFCS cohort.

1 Ten years prior to PFCS diagnosis, 18% of patients visited primary care for a
2 LR reason over a 1-year period. Of these patients, only 6.3% consulted
3 multiple times and 1.5% five times or more. Five years later, approximately
4 30% of patients had consulted at least once in the year for an LR complaint,
5 14.4% multiple times and 3.8% at least five times. In the year immediately
6 prior to PFCS diagnosis, almost all patients (99.9%) had visited primary care
7 at least once for a LR complaint, 78.8% multiple times and 38.0% at least five
8 times (Fig. 4 and Supplementary Table S5).

9

10

1 **DISCUSSION**

2 Our findings show that in the years preceding a diagnosis of PFCS there is a
3 progressive increase in HRU across a number of domains: cough, LR
4 consultations, antibiotic and oral steroid prescriptions, and CXR. Eighteen
5 percent of patients made multiple primary care visits with some form of LR
6 complaint five years before PFCS diagnosis; this had increased to almost
7 80% in the year before diagnosis, 38% having five or more primary health
8 care contacts. The data shows that opportunities exist for earlier referral for
9 investigation of suspected pulmonary fibrosis in primary care health setting.

10

11 Whilst the natural history of OLD is growing [19], that of fibrotic lung diseases
12 remains limited. Research into fibrotic lung disease has traditionally been
13 restricted to evaluations conducted within specialist centres; large-scale
14 primary care databases offer an opportunity to study more widely
15 representative and generalisable populations.

16

17 We analysed a historical dataset that has been widely used in primary care
18 studies and is regarded as high quality [17,19] Key anthropomorphic
19 measures (age, body mass index) and lung function measures are consistent
20 with previous IPF cohort studies [6,8,9,20]. The diagnosis of PFCS was based
21 on the presence of codes considered diagnostic of pulmonary fibrosis and the
22 absence of codes associated with recognised causes of ILD (e.g. CTD). While
23 potentially including patients with a form of pulmonary fibrosis other than IPF,
24 analysis of the subgroup of patients with diagnostic codes considered more
25 specific for IPF demonstrated comparability between these groups. All such

1 patients need specialist referral for investigation irrespective of final diagnosis;
2 additional studies would be required to validate specific diagnostic groups,
3 including investigation of the correlation of primary care diagnostic codes with
4 diagnosis received in specialist care.

5

6 Certain data were only available for a subset of patients, potentially limiting
7 their interpretation. Spirometry is not routinely performed in primary care and
8 utilisation varies according to diagnosis, with patients suspected to have
9 COPD or asthma more likely to have spirometry performed. Additionally,
10 secondary care data requires manual reporting between secondary and
11 primary care colleagues, and subsequent manual entry into the primary care
12 records, resulting in inevitable under-reporting and potential under-estimation
13 of HRU in secondary care.

14

15 Our findings extend those of Hewson *et al* who identified increasing
16 breathlessness and cough in the five years prior to a diagnosis of IPFCS [14].
17 We identified a progressive increase in HRU across a number of LR-related
18 domains over the 10-years (and in particular the penultimate two years)
19 preceding a diagnosis of PFCS. This may reflect the progression of
20 symptoms from minor to moderate/severe, whereby symptoms begin to affect
21 quality of life so healthcare is increasingly sought. The parallel increase in LR-
22 related consultations and prescriptions for acute oral steroid and antibiotics
23 suggests that infective episodes could act as a trigger, unmasking or
24 increasing symptoms, and so precipitating HRU and subsequent diagnosis.
25 Alternatively, the increase in acute prescriptions may represent empirical trials

1 by primary care physicians following repeated patient attendances for
2 persistent symptoms of uncertain aetiology.

3

4 The finding that 38% of patients had five or more LR consultations in the year
5 preceding IPF diagnosis is suggestive that repeated primary care attendances
6 are required to initiate further investigations or specialist referral. Given the
7 potential for misdiagnosis we investigated the relationship of respiratory
8 comorbidities to PFCS diagnosis. No clear association was identified, with
9 COPD and asthma diagnoses occurring an average of five and 12 years
10 before PFCS diagnosis, respectively. While these timelines may suggest the
11 true presence of alternative respiratory diagnoses, the findings could reflect
12 possible misdiagnosis of initial dyspnoea and functional impairment
13 associated with early-onset PFCS.

14

15

16 Patients consistently report dissatisfaction with the time taken to diagnosis
17 [15,16]. Our study identifies that there are repeated opportunities for earlier
18 specialist referral and investigation. Studies investigating how to effectively
19 increase awareness of pulmonary fibrosis among primary care physicians are
20 required. This may include re-emphasis of the importance of routine lung
21 auscultation in primary care to check for the presence of crackles, particularly
22 in older patients who present with repeated LR complaints over a short time
23 period. In older populations, there may be value in promoting a joint
24 spirometric assessment / lung auscultation approach to obstructive and
25 fibrotic lung disease diagnosis. Future research should seek to link primary

1 and secondary care data and to focus on the development of a pulmonary
2 fibrosis risk algorithm for integration within clinical decision management
3 systems.

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5

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7 The study protocol was developed by the Respiratory Effectiveness Group
8 (REG) on behalf of its independent ILD Working Group. The dataset was
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10 behalf of the ILD Working Group who reviewed the results and approved the
11 development of this manuscript. The corresponding author had full access to
12 all of the data and accepts responsibility for their submission for publication.
13 AC worked with the REG at the time of initial study analysis; she now works
14 for Syneos Health.

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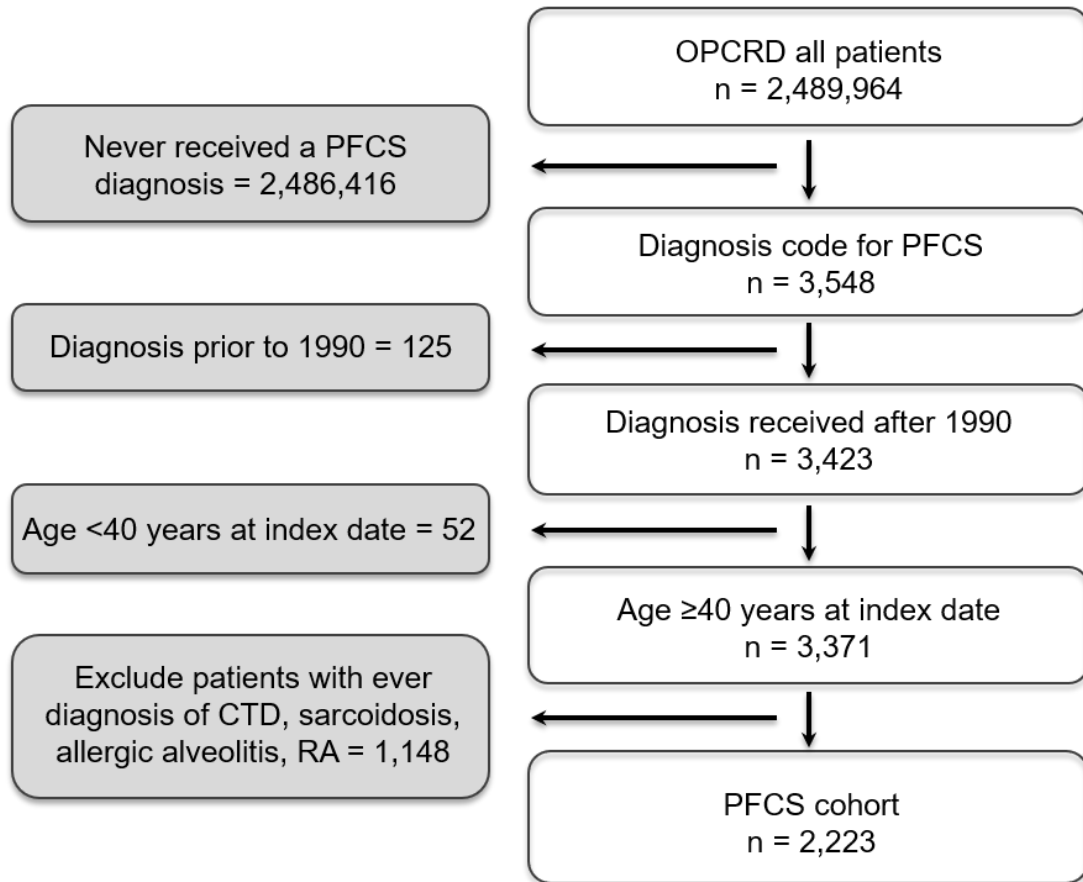
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- 1 **Figure 1. Pulmonary fibrosis clinical syndrome (PFCS) eligibility flow**
- 2 **diagram**
- 3 **Figure 2. Increase in cough-related events in the ten years prior to PFCS**
- 4 **diagnosis**
- 5 **Figure 3. Temporal HRU trends in the 10 years prior to PFCS diagnosis**
- 6 **Figure 4. Distribution of LR healthcare contacts over the 10 years prior to**
- 7 **PFCS diagnosis**
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Fig. 1. Pulmonary fibrosis clinical syndrome (PFCS) eligibility flow diagram

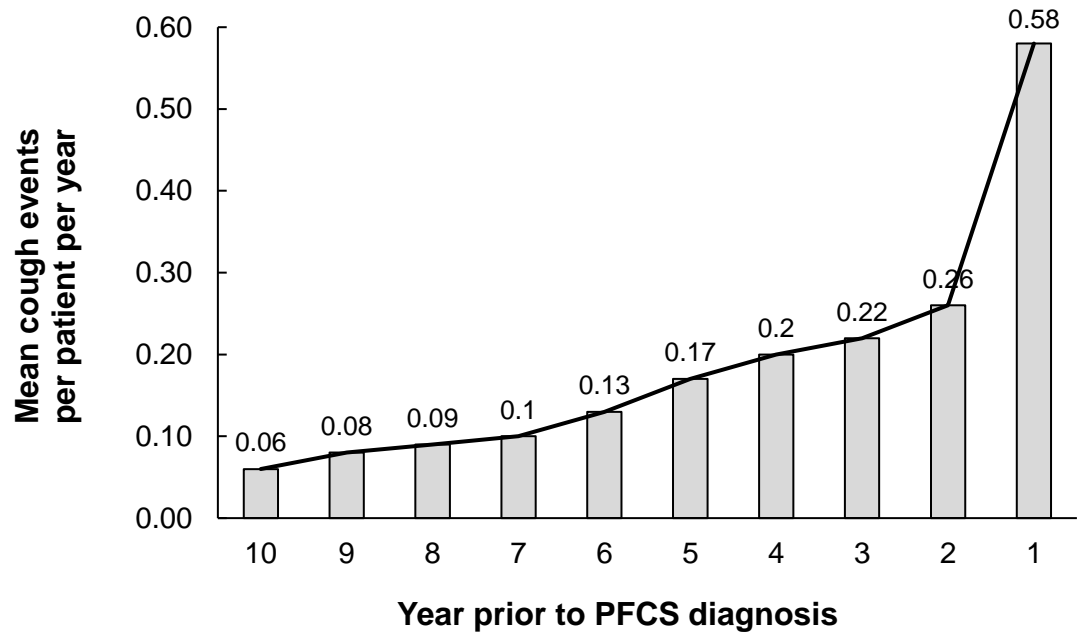


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CTD: connective tissue disease; OPCR: Optimum Patient Care Research Database (OPCRD); RA: rheumatoid arthritis;

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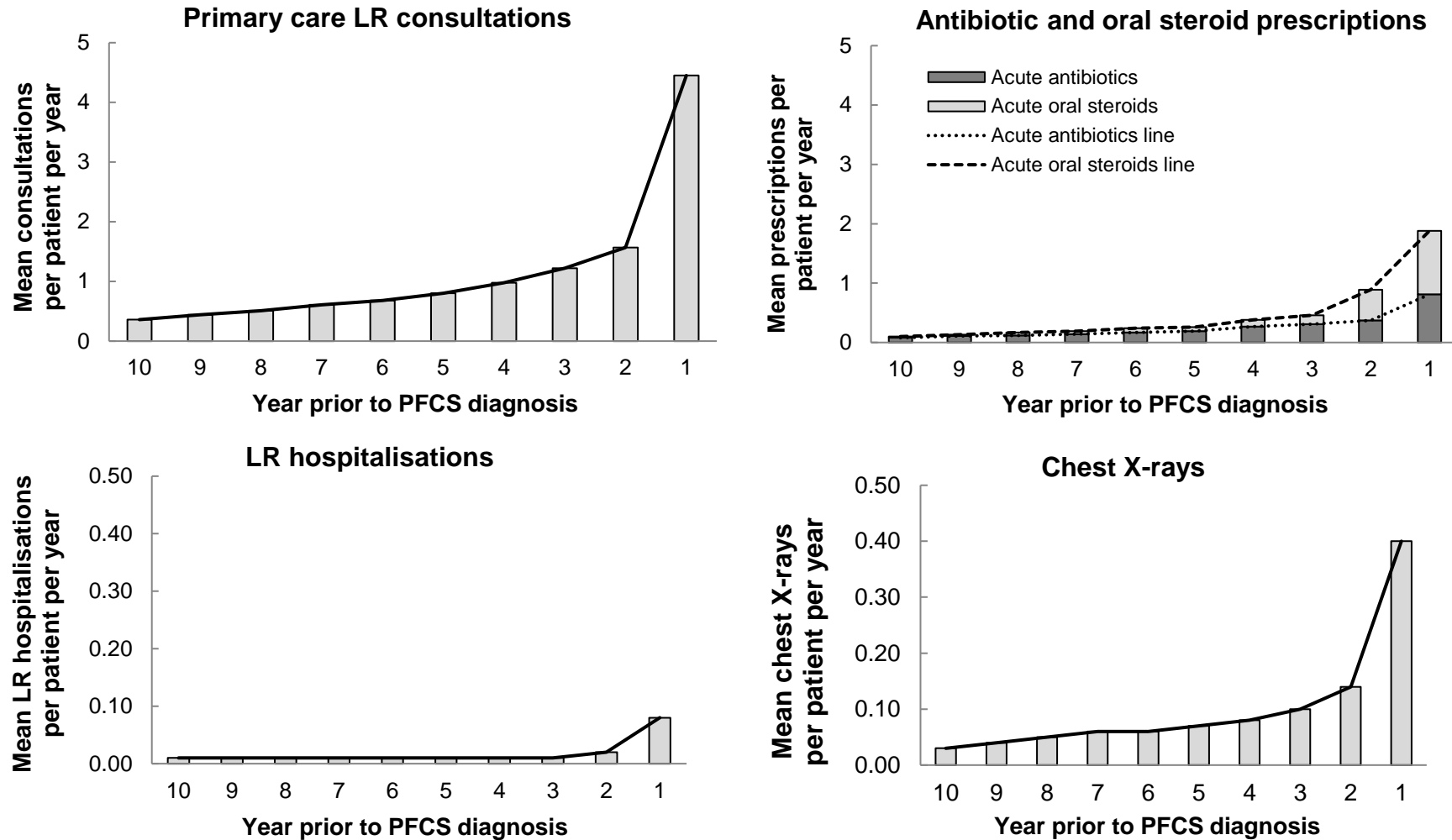
Fig. 2. Increase in cough-related events in the ten years prior to PFCS diagnosis



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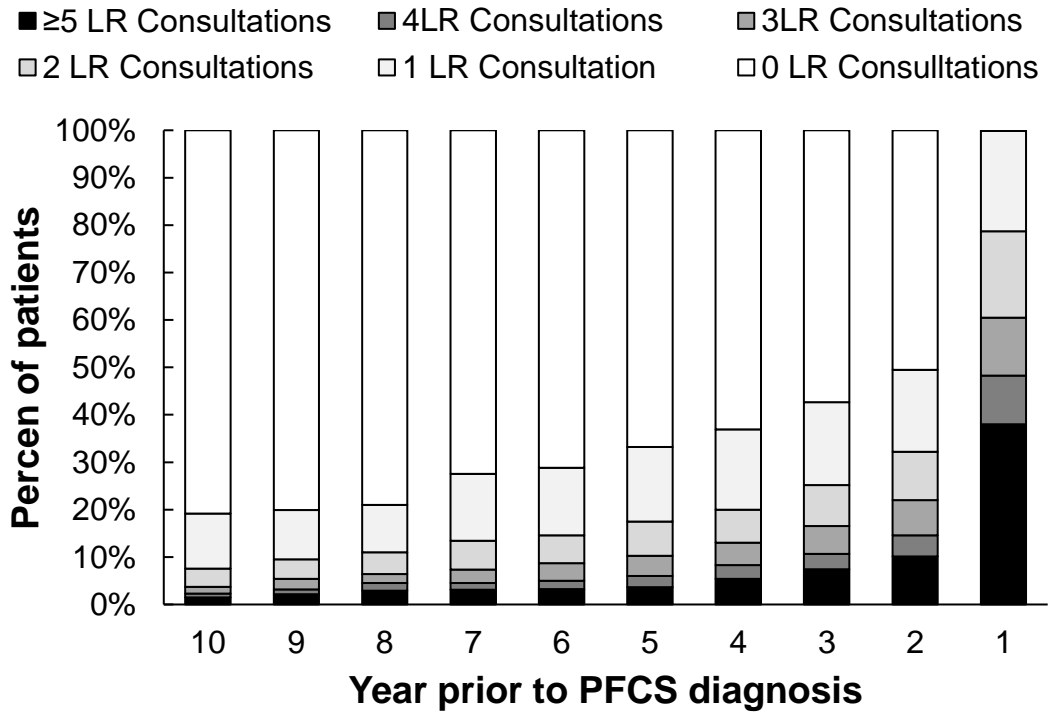
Number of patients with non-missing data in year 10 to year 1 prior to PFCS diagnosis: 1474, 1533, 1598, 1686, 1772, 1861, 1944, 2019, 2087, 2223

Fig. 3. Temporal HRU trends in the 10 years prior to PFCS diagnosis



Number of patients with non-missing data in year 10 to year 1 prior to IPFCS diagnosis: 1474, 1533, 1598, 1686, 1772, 1861, 1944, 2019, 2087, 2223

Fig. 4. Distribution of LR healthcare contacts over the 10 years prior to PFCS diagnosis



Number of patients with non-missing data in year 10 to year 1 prior to PFCS diagnosis: 1474, 1533, 1598, 1686, 1772, 1861, 1944, 2019, 2087, 2223

Table 1. Baseline characteristics at time of PFCS diagnosis

Characteristic	n = 2,223
Male sex, n (%)	1,399 (62.9)
Age at index date (y), mean (SD)	72.6 (9.7)
BMI (kg/m²), mean (SD)	27.3 (7.0)
Smoking status	
Never	688 (32.8)
Current	280 (13.4)
Former	1,127 (53.8)
Comorbidities, n (%)	
COPD	503 (22.6)
Asthma	309 (13.9)
Ischaemic heart disease	720 (32.4)
Heart failure	249 (11.2)
Hypertension	118 (5.3)
Myocardial infarction	258 (11.6)
Lung Cancer	401 (18.0)
Sleep Apnoea	18 (0.8)
GERD*	170 (7.7)
Anxiety and depression	55 (2.5)
Any prescriptions in year prior to PFCS diagnosis, n (%)	
SABA	514 (23.2)
SAMA	133 (6.0)
ICS	196 (8.8)
ICS/LABA	210 (9.4)
Lung Function	
Without comorbid COPD	
n = 245	
FVC (L), mean (SD)	2.9 (5.7)
FEV1/FVC ratio, mean (SD)	0.78 (0.1)
With comorbid COPD	
n = 74	
FVC (L), mean (SD)	2.5 (0.9)
FEV1/FVC ratio, mean (SD)	0.72 (0.2)

*Active comorbidities defined as recorded within two years prior to diagnosis; SABA: short-acting beta-agonist; SAMA: short-acting anti-muscarinic; ICS: inhaled corticosteroid; GERD: gastroesophageal reflux disease

Table 2. Temporal trends in healthcare resource utilisation in the 10 years prior to PFCS diagnosis

	Year prior to PFCS diagnosis									
	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
n (non-missing)	1474	1533	1598	1686	1772	1861	1944	2019	2087	2223
Primary care, mean (SD) pppy										
LR consultations	0.36 (1.3)	0.44 (1.3)	0.51 (1.4)	0.61 (1.5)	0.68 (1.7)	0.80 (1.9)	0.98 (2.0)	1.23 (2.3)	1.57 (0.9)	4.45 (1.6)
Prescriptions issued for LR complaints, mean (SD) pppy										
Antibiotics	0.08 (0.3)	0.11 (0.5)	0.12 (0.5)	0.14 (0.5)	0.17 (0.6)	0.19 (0.6)	0.27 (0.7)	0.31 (0.8)	0.37 (0.5)	0.81(0.7)
Acute oral steroid	0.02 (0.2)	0.02 (0.2)	0.05 (0.3)	0.05 (0.3)	0.07 (0.4)	0.07 (0.4)	0.12 (0.5)	0.15 (0.7)	0.52 (0.4)	1.07 (0.6)
Secondary care, mean (SD) pppy										
LR hospital admissions*	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	0.3(0.1)	0.08 (0.2)
LR hospital admissions (sen [†])	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.01 (0.1)	0.05 (0.1)
Diagnostics, mean (SD) pppy										
Chest X-Rays	0.03 (0.2)	0.04 (0.2)	0.05 (0.3)	0.06 (0.3)	0.06 (0.3)	0.07 (0.3)	0.08 (0.3)	0.10 (0.4)	0.14 (0.2)	0.40 (0.5)

*LR code recorded on same day as inpatient admission; †LR code recorded within 14 days of an inpatient admission.

sen: sensitivity

