Antifibrotic and Anti-inflammatory Activity of the Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitor Nintedanib in Experimental Models of Lung Fibrosis^S

Lutz Wollin, Isabelle Maillet, Valérie Quesniaux, Alexander Holweg, and Bernhard Ryffel

Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG, Biberach, Germany (L.W., A.H.); UMR7355, INEM, CNRS and University of Orleans, Orleans, France (I.M., V.Q., B.R.); and IIDMM, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, Republic of South Africa (B.R.) Received July 22, 2013; accepted February 13, 2014

ABSTRACT

The tyrosine kinase inhibitor nintedanib (BIBF 1120) is in clinical development for the treatment of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. To explore its mode of action, nintedanib was tested in human lung fibroblasts and mouse models of lung fibrosis. Human lung fibroblasts expressing platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF) receptor- α and - β were stimulated with platelet-derived growth factor BB (homodimer) (PDGF-BB). Receptor activation was assessed by autophosphorylation and cell proliferation by bromodeoxyuridine incorporation. Transforming growth factor β (TGF β)-induced fibroblast to myofibroblast transformation was determined by α -smooth muscle actin (α SMA) mRNA analysis. Lung fibrosis was induced in mice by intratracheal bleomycin or silica particle administration. Nintedanib was administered every day by gavage at 30, 60, or 100 mg/kg. Preventive nintedanib treatment regimen started on the day that bleomycin was administered. Therapeutic treatment regimen started at various times after the induction of lung fibrosis. Bleomycin caused increased macrophages and lymphocytes in the bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) and elevated interleukin-1 β

Introduction

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is a progressive, severely debilitating disease with a high mortality rate (King et al., 2011). Mean survival after diagnosis ranges from 2 to 3 years (Raghu et al., 2011). Even though IPF is considered rare, it is the most common idiopathic interstitial lung disease (ATS and ERS, 2002). The pathomechanisms that result in IPF are not fully understood. It has been hypothesized that injuries of the lung lead to destruction of epithelial alveolar cells and that the resulting repair process is dysregulated, leading to the proliferation and migration of fibroblasts,

(IL-1 β), tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase-1 (TIMP-1), and collagen in lung tissue. Histology revealed chronic inflammation and fibrosis. Silica-induced lung pathology additionally showed elevated BAL neutrophils, keratinocyte chemoattractant (KC) levels, and granuloma formation. Nintedanib inhibited PDGF receptor activation, fibroblast proliferation, and fibroblast to myofibroblast transformation. Nintedanib significantly reduced BAL lymphocytes and neutrophils but not macrophages. Furthermore, interleukin-1 β , KC, TIMP-1, and lung collagen were significantly reduced. Histologic analysis showed significantly diminished lung inflammation, granuloma formation, and fibrosis. The therapeutic effect was dependent on treatment start and duration. Nintedanib inhibited receptor tyrosine kinase activation and the proliferation and transformation of human lung fibroblasts and showed antifibrotic and anti-inflammatory activity in two animal models of pulmonary fibrosis. These results suggest that nintedanib may impact the progressive course of fibrotic lung diseases such as idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis.

transformation to myofibroblasts, and excessive collagen deposition within the lung interstitium and alveolar space (Fernandez and Eickelberg, 2012). Progressive fibrosis with stiffening of the lungs leads to dyspnea and cough. The symptoms of IPF limit physical activity and reduce patients' quality of life and independence (De Vries et al., 2001; Swigris et al., 2005). Despite high medical need, the latest international guidelines for the management of IPF did not recommend any specific pharmacological treatments for the long-term treatment of IPF (Raghu et al., 2011).

Nintedanib (BIBF 1120) is a potent intracellular tyrosine kinase inhibitor targeting fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR) 1, 2, and 3, platelet-derived growth factor receptor (PDGFR) α and β , and vascular endothelial growth factor receptor (VEGFR) 1, 2, and 3. Nintedanib also inhibits the Src

ABBREVIATIONS: ANOVA, analysis of variance; BAL, bronchoalveolar lavage; BALF, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid; BIBF 1120, nintedanib, methyl (3Z)-3-[[(4-[*N*-methyl-2-(4-methylpiperazin-1-yl)acetamido]phenyl}amino)(phenyl) methylidene]-2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1*H*-indole-6-carboxylate ethane sulfonate salt; BrdU, 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine; CAB, chromotrope aniline blue; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; FGF, fibroblast growth factor; FGFR, fibroblast growth factor receptor; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase; IL, interleukin; IL-1Ra, interleukin-1 receptor antagonist (protein); IPF, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis; KC, keratinocyte chemoattractant; NHLF, normal human lung fibroblasts; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; PDGF BB, platelet-derived growth factor BB (homodimer); PDGFR, platelet-derived growth factor receptor; RTK, receptor tyrosine kinase; SMA, smooth muscle actin; TGF β , transforming growth factor β ; TIMP-1, tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase-1; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; VEGFR, vascular endothelial growth factor receptor.

Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on March 5,

, 2016

This study was funded by Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG. dx.doi.org/10.1124/jpet.113.208223.

S This article has supplemental material available at jpet.aspetjournals.org.

family tyrosine kinases Lck, Lyn, and Flt-3 (Hilberg et al., 2008). The contribution of inhibition of specific kinases to the mode of action of nintedanib in IPF has not been clarified, but distinct functions that may affect IPF pathology have been described for specific tyrosine kinases. FGFR1 is expressed on epithelial cells, endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, myofibroblast-like cells, and macrophages in the lungs of patients with IPF, and FGFR2 on smooth muscle cells, myofibroblast-like cells, and neutrophils (Inoue et al., 2002). Fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF-2) stimulates proliferation of lung fibroblasts from patients with IPF (Hetzel et al., 2005). In vivo abrogation of FGF signaling reduces bleomycin-treated mice (Yu et al., 2012).

PDGF is produced by alveolar macrophages and epithelial cells (Antoniades et al., 1990; Bonner, 2004). PDGF is a potent mitogen for fibroblasts (Clark et al., 1993) and appears to play an essential role in the expansion of myofibroblasts by stimulating proliferation, migration, and survival. Elevated levels of PDGF have consistently been observed in the fibrotic lesions of various organs (Bonner, 2004). Myofibroblasts, when too active or too numerous, deposit excessive connective tissue products in the alveolar wall. The result is a distorted alveolar architecture with compromised gas exchange (Katzenstein and Myers, 1998; Kim et al., 2006; Raghu et al., 2011). PDGFR-specific tyrosine kinase inhibitors reduce pulmonary fibrosis in animal models of lung fibrosis (Rice et al., 1999; Abdollahi et al., 2005; Aono et al., 2005; Vuorinen et al., 2007; Li et al., 2009).

Vascular abnormalities are a common feature in interstitial lung diseases, but the roles of angiogenesis and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) signaling in IPF are unclear. It is controversial whether angiogenesis plays a key role in abnormal extracellular matrix remodeling and fibrosis in the lung (Renzoni, 2004; King et al., 2011), and extensive temporal and spatial heterogeneity in angiogenesis has been observed in patients with IPF (Farkas and Kolb, 2011). However, experimental overexpression of VEGF in airways induces airway inflammation and remodeling, with mucus metaplasia and subepithelial fibrosis (Lee et al., 2011), and VEGF expression correlates with subepithelial fibrosis in patients with asthma (Chetta et al., 2005). Anti-VEGF gene therapy attenuates bleomycin-induced fibrosis in mice (Hamada et al., 2005).

The results of a phase II trial of nintedanib (the TOMOR-ROW trial) suggest that 12 months' treatment with nintedanib at a dose of 150 mg twice a day slows decline in lung function, reduces short-term exacerbations, and preserves quality of life in patients with IPF and has an acceptable safety and tolerability profile (Richeldi et al., 2011). Two phase III trials of nintedanib in patients with IPF have recently been completed.

The rationale for the in vitro and in vivo studies presented here was to elucidate the potential mode of action of nintedanib in fibrotic lung diseases such as IPF. In this report, we describe the anti-inflammatory and antifibrotic properties of nintedanib. We provide the cellular kinase profile of nintedanib and assess effects on the proliferation of fibroblasts. Further, we show that nintedanib reduces inflammation and fibrosis in two animal models of lung fibrosis.

Material and Methods

Cellular BA/F3 Tyrosine Kinase Assay. The cellular tyrosine kinase assay was performed by Carna Biosciences Inc. (Kobe, Japan). The assay principle builds on the work of Daley & Baltimore (Daley et al., 1987). In brief, the proliferation and survival of BA/F3 cells usually depends on interleukin-3 (IL-3). BA/F3 cells were transformed by inducing target kinase dimerization via viral vectors. Proliferation and survival were engineered to become dependent upon maintenance of activity of an introduced specific tyrosine kinase. Inhibition of this tyrosine kinase results in a directly proportional decrease in cell viability, which, as each cell is modified to produce a uniform quantity of luciferase, results in decreased luminescence. Nintedanib [methyl (3Z)-3-[({4-[N-methyl-2-(4-methylpiperazin-1-yl)acetamido] phenyl}amino)(phenyl)methylidene]-2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1H-indole-6carboxylate ethane sulfonate salt] was provided by Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG (Biberach, Germany) and was tested at concentrations of 10–1000 nM on FGFR1–4, PDGFR α/β , VEGFR 1-3, Flt-3, Lck, Lyn, and Src.

Inhibition of Receptor Tyrosine Kinase Phosphorylation and Proliferation of Normal Human Lung Fibroblasts. Normal human lung fibroblasts (NHLF) (no. AG CC-2512; Lonza, Basel, Switzerland) at passages 6 to 8 were stimulated with recombinant human platelet-derived growth factor BB (homodimer) (PDGF-BB, 220-BB; R&D Systems GmbH, Wiesbaden-Nordenstadt, Germany), b-FGF (234-FSE; R&D Systems), or VEGF (293-VE; R&D Systems). Stimulation of the respective receptor phosphorylation was explored by Western blot analysis (data not shown) and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). Fibroblast proliferation was assessed by 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine (BrdU) incorporation. Because only PDGF-BB stimulation led to a statistically significant increase in receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) phosphorylation of PDGFR α and PDGFR β and fibroblast proliferation, the pharmacology of nintedanib was only explored on these two receptors.

For RTK phosphorylation, 24 hours after seeding 15,000 NHLF/ well with 100 μ L/well fibroblast basal medium (no. CC-3131; Lonza), the cells were grown to ~90% confluence. Cells were starved for 24 hours and incubated with nintedanib at 0.128 nM–10 μ M for 30 minutes. Subsequently, the cells were stimulated with PDGF-BB (50 ng/ml) for 8 minutes. After lysis, the amount of phosphorylated receptor was determined by human phospho-PDGFR α and phospho-PDGFR β ELISA (DuoSet IC, DYC2114-5 and DYC1767-5, respectively; R&D Systems).

For proliferation, 24 hours after seeding, 2000 NHLF/well cells were grown to ~50% confluence. Cells were starved in fibroblast basal medium containing insulin for 24 hours, then incubated with nintedanib at 0.3–1000 nM for 30 minutes and stimulated with PDGF-BB at 50 ng/ml for 72 hours. Subsequently, BrdU incorporation was determined after 18 hours according to the manufacturer's instructions (assay no. 11647229001; Roche, Basel, Switzerland) to determine the inhibition of proliferation.

TGFβ-Stimulated Fibroblast to Myofibroblast Transformation. The activity of nintedanib on transforming growth factor (TGF)β2-induced α-smooth muscle actin (SMA) gene expression was explored in primary fibroblast cell lines according to Chaudhary et al. (2007). In brief, human lung fibroblasts from three patients (mixed sex) with lung fibrosis were incubated with TGFβ2 in the presence of nintedanib at concentrations ranging from 30 to 3000 nM. After incubation for 72 hours, the gene expression levels of α-SMA were determined by quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction and normalized relative to endogenous 18S RNA. Data are presented as a percentage of gene expression compared with vehicle alone.

Inhibition of RTK Activation In Vivo. Eight- to 10-week-old C57BL/6 mice (Charles River, Kissleg, Germany) were housed under a 12-hour light/dark cycle and received food and water ad libitum. Animal experimentation was conducted in accordance with German national guidelines and regulations. An aqueous solution of nintedanib was prepared by heating to 50°C while stirring. Nintedanib was administered by gavage at 3, 10, 30, and 100 mg/kg (n = 3 per group); 110 minutes later, the animals were anesthetized with 60 mg/kg i.p. pentobarbital sodium and 2.5 mg/kg i.p. xylazine. Five minutes later, recombinant mouse PDGF-BB (50 μ g/animal, ProSpec-Tany; TechnoGene Ltd., Ness-Ziona, Israel) or vehicle was administered intratracheally, and then, 5 to 30 minutes after PDGF-BB stimulation, whole lungs were excised.

Western Blot Analysis of Lung Tissue. Frozen lungs were lysed in 1 ml of lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6, 137 mM sodium chloride, 10% glycerol, 0.1% Igepal, 0.1% SDS, 50 mM sodium fluoride, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate) containing protease inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL) using an Ultrathurrax (IKA, Staufen, Germany). Lysates were cleared by centrifugation before the total protein determination with the BCA protein assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific). SDS PAGE and Western blotting were performed following a standard procedure using the Novex NuPAGE system (Life Technologies GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany). After this, the separation proteins were transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Millipore, Billerica, MA) in a wet blotting system (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). Afterward, membranes were blocked and then probed with antibodies directed against GAPDH, PDGFR β , phosphorylated PDGFR $\alpha\beta$ (Tyr849/Tyr857), phosphorylated extracellular signal-regulated kinases 1/2 (pERK1/2, Thr202/Tyr204), phosphorylated AKT (pAKT, Ser473) (all Cell Signaling Technologies, Danvers, MA), and PDGFR α (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA). The membranes were then washed in Tris-buffered saline/Tween 20 followed by incubation with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, West Grove, PA). Immunoreactive bands were detected by addition of an enhanced chemiluminescence substrate (PerkinElmer Life and Analytical Sciences, Waltham, MA). The relative signal intensity of each band was determined with the AIDA image analysis software (Raytest Isotopenmessgeraete GmbH, Straubenhardt. Germany) and corrected to the signal intensity of the loading control GAPDH.

Bleomycin- and Silica-Induced Lung Fibrosis in Mice. Eight-week-old female C57BL/6 mice (Janvier, Le Genest Saint Isle, France) were kept in groups of five. Animals had access to water and food ad libitum. All animal experiments were conducted according to the French government's ethical and animal experiment regulations, and the protocols were approved by the regional ethics committee (CL2007-021). Nintedanib was administered each day by gavage at 30, 60, or 100 mg/kg per day. The administration volume was 10 ml/kg body weight. The control animals received vehicle only. Depending on the model, the animals received a single dose of bleomycin (1 mg = 1000 IU, clinical grade, Bleomycine Bellon; Sanofi-Aventis, France) at 3 mg/kg or silica particles at 2.5 mg/mouse by intranasal instillation, as previously described elsewhere (Gasse et al., 2007; Lo Re et al., 2010). The controls received the respective saline solution by intranasal instillation.

The study settings and drug treatment protocols are shown in Table 1. In brief, in the preventive studies, nintedanib treatment started on the day of bleomycin or silica administration. In the therapeutic studies, nintedanib treatment started after the induction of lung fibrosis when the initial lung injury and inflammation were already abating. In each treatment group, 10 animals were included. All analyses were performed on the last day of the experiment. Lung function was analyzed in the bleomycin study only. For invasive measurement of airway resistance and dynamic lung compliance with a plethysmograph (Buxco, London, United Kingdom), the mice were anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of a solution containing ketamine/xylazine. Lung function testing was performed with half of the animals (n = 5 per group).

The mice were killed at the end of the experiment (Table 1). Total cell and differential cell counts were determined in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF), total lung collagen was determined in lung tissue by means of the Sircol assay, and IL-1 β , IL-6, keratinocyte chemoattractant (KC) and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase (TIMP-1) were determined in the lung homogenates. Details of the methods were according to Gasse et al. (2007).

After bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) and lung perfusion, the large lobe was fixed in 4% buffered formaldehyde, and sections of 3 μm were stained with H&E or chromotrope aniline blue (CAB). The severity of the morphologic changes (infiltration by neutrophils and mononuclear cells and destruction and thickening of the alveolar septae, and fibrosis and granuloma formation) were assessed semiquantitatively using a score of 0 to 5 by two independent observers blinded to the treatments.

Statistics. All data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. of *n* animals. Statistical differences between groups were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with subsequent Dunnett's multiple comparison test for all parametric data and Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test for nonparametric data (GraphPad Prism 5.04; GraphPad Software, Inc., La Jolla, CA). *P* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Inhibitory Activity of Nintedanib on RTKs in a Cellular BA/F3 Assay. Nintedanib inhibited FGFR1-4, PDGFR α/β , VEGFR 1-3, FLT-3, LCK, LYN, and SRC in a dose-dependent manner in BA/F3 cells engineered to be proliferation-dependent on a single RTK. The IC₅₀ values for nintedanib are shown in Table 2.

Effect of Nintedanib on PDGF-BB-Induced PDGFR α and - β Phosphorylation and Proliferation of NHLF. Nintedanib inhibited PDGF-BB-stimulated PDGFR α and - β phosphorylation in a concentration-dependent manner with IC₅₀ values of 22 nM and 39 nM, respectively (Fig. 1).

Nintedanib inhibited proliferation of PDGF-BB-stimulated fibroblasts with an IC₅₀ value of 64 nM. Complete inhibition of PDGFR α and $-\beta$ phosphorylation led to 70% inhibition of fibroblast proliferation (Fig. 1).

Effect of Nintedanib on TGF β -Stimulated Fibroblast to Myofibroblast Differentiation. Nintedanib inhibited TGF β -stimulated fibroblast to myofibroblast differentiation as detected by α SMA gene expression in human fibroblasts

ΤA	BL	Æ	1

Study settings and treatment protocols of the in vivo experiments

Q(]	Bleomycin-Induced Lung Fibrosis		Silica-Induced Lung Fibrosis	
Study	Preventive	Therapeutic	Preventive	Therapeutic
Dose (mg/kg) Study duration (day)	30, 60 14	30, 60 21	30, 100 30	30, 100 30
Compound administration (day)	0–14	7-21	0–30	10-30 20-30

Posology, once daily, oral.

TABLE 2

Tyrosine kinase inhibition of nintedanib in a cellular BA/F3 assay To compare the cellular activity of nintedanib on specific tyrosine kinase receptors, it was tested at 10–1000 nM in BA/F3 cells engineered to be proliferation-dependent on a single tyrosine kinase. IC₅₀ values for nintedanib to inhibit cell proliferation dependent on specific tyrosine kinases are listed in nanomoles.

Assay	IC_{50}
	nM
FGFR1	300-1000
FGFR2	257
FGFR3	300-1000
FGFR4	300-1000
$PDGFR\alpha$	41
$PDGFR\beta$	58
VEGFR1	300-1000
VEGFR2	46
VEGFR3	33
LCK	22
LYN	300-1000
SRC	811
FLT-3	17

from patients with IPF with an $\rm IC_{50}$ of 144 nM (data not shown).

Effect of Nintedanib on PDGFR Phosphorylation in Mouse Lungs. PDGFR α and $-\beta$ expression remained quite stable 5 to 30 minutes after PDGF stimulation (Supplemental Fig. 1). The maximum activation of the PDGFR detected by receptor phosphorylation was noted 5 minutes after stimulation with PDGF-BB (Supplemental Fig. 1), and the maximum downstream signaling of pAKT and pERK was detected at 15 minutes (Supplemental Fig. 1).

To explore the efficacy of nintedanib to inhibit PDGFR phosphorylation as a marker of receptor activation, nintedanib was dosed orally in mice, and 2 hours later PDGFR was stimulated by PDGF-BB. Nintedanib significantly inhibited PDGFR phosphorylation determined 5 minutes after PDGF stimulation in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 2, A and B). Downstream signaling of pAKT and pERK was also diminished in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 2A and Supplemental Fig. 2). The expression of PDGFR α and - β was slightly



Fig. 1. Nintedanib inhibits PDGF-BB-stimulated PDGFR α and β phosphorylation and proliferation of human lung fibroblasts. Human lung fibroblasts were incubated with nintedanib at different concentrations and stimulated with PDGF-BB (50 ng/ml). PDGFR α and $-\beta$ phosphorylation was determined by ELISA specific for the phosphorylated receptors. Proliferation was determined by BrdU incorporation. Concentration-dependent inhibition of PDGFR α (\blacklozenge) and $-\beta$ (\bigcirc) autophosphorylation and fibroblast proliferation (\blacksquare) is presented as mean \pm S.E.M. (n = 3 experiments).

elevated at higher doses of nintedanib 5 minutes after PDGF-BB stimulation (Supplemental Fig. 2).

Effect of Nintedanib on Pulmonary Inflammation and Fibrosis in a Mouse Model of Bleomycin-Induced Lung Injury and Fibrosis. A single intranasal administration of bleomycin was well tolerated and not associated with clinical adverse effects, except for an initial loss of body weight in the preventive study of ~5%, and a more sustained loss in the therapeutic study of up to 10% of body weight reaching its maximum between days 9 and 11. Bleomycin administration caused a significant increase in lung weight at day 14 in the preventive study (vehicle control, 0.24 ± 0.010 g compared with bleomycin control, 0.32 ± 0.013 g, P < 0.01) and at day 21 in the therapeutic study (vehicle control, 0.28 \pm 0.014 g compared with bleomycin control, 0.41 ± 0.023 g, P <0.001). Neither airway resistance nor lung compliance was significantly changed by bleomycin administration at day 14 compared with the vehicle-treated controls (data not shown). In contrast, at day 21 bleomycin administration led to an increase in airway resistance (2.8 \pm 0.49 cmH₂O/ml*s, P < 0.05) and a decrease in lung compliance (0.013 \pm 0.0028 ml/ cmH_2O , P < 0.05) compared with vehicle-treated animals $(1.39 \pm 0.059 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/ml}^*\text{s} \text{ and } 0.024 \pm 0.0012 \text{ ml/cmH}_2\text{O},$ respectively). Nintedanib treatment did not influence lung weight or lung function.

Regardless of whether it was analyzed after 14 days or 21 days, bleomycin administration caused a similar significant increase in total cells (Figs. 3A and 4A), macrophages (Figs. 3B and 4B), and lymphocytes (Figs. 3C and 4C) measured in the BALF, whereas neutrophils were not detectable in the BALF (data not shown). Nintedanib significantly reduced lymphocyte counts in the preventive study at doses of 30 and 60 mg/kg (Fig. 3C; P < 0.001) and in the therapeutic study only at a dose of 60 mg/kg (Fig. 4C; P < 0.01) but had no effect on total cell (Figs. 3A and 4A) or macrophage counts (Figs. 3B and 4B).

Bleomycin administration significantly increased IL-1 β (Figs. 3D and 4D) and TIMP-1 concentrations (Figs. 3F and 4F) determined in lung tissue homogenates compared with controls. The increase in IL-1 β was similar at days 14 (Fig. 3D) and 21 (Fig. 4D). TIMP-1 concentration further increased 1.9-fold between days 14 and 21 (Figs. 3F and 4F, respectively). IL-1 β was normalized by nintedanib in the preventive study (Fig. 3D) and significantly reduced at a dose of 60 mg/kg in the therapeutic study (P < 0.05; Fig. 4D). Nintedanib reduced TIMP-1 at doses of 30 and 60 mg/kg (Fig. 3F; P < 0.001) in the preventive study and at a dose of 60 mg/kg (P < 0.05) in the therapeutic study (Fig. 4F). KC concentrations were not changed (Figs. 3E and 4E).

Bleomycin administration significantly elevated the total collagen concentration in lung tissue compared with controls to a similar extent at days 14 and 21 (Figs. 3G and 4G). Significantly elevated semiquantitative histology scores indicated inflammation (Figs. 3H and 5B) and fibrosis (Figs. 3I and 6B) at day 14 after bleomycin administration, which was slightly increased at day 21 in the therapeutic study (Figs. 4, H and I, 5F, 6F). Nintedanib significantly reduced total lung collagen (Fig. 3G), inflammation (Figs. 3H and 5, C and D), and fibrosis (Figs. 3I and 6, C and D) in the preventive study (P < 0.01, P < 0.01, and P < 0.05, respectively). In the therapeutic study, the efficacy of nintedanib was slightly reduced (Fig. 4, G and H), except for the significant reduction







of the fibrotic score (Figs. 4I and 6, G and H) (P < 0.05 and P < 0.01, respectively).

Effect of Nintedanib on Pulmonary Inflammation, Granuloma Formation, and Fibrosis in a Mouse Model of Silica-Induced Lung Injury and Fibrosis. Silica administration was also well tolerated and not associated with any clinical adverse effects in mice. Silica administration caused a similar significant increase in lung weight in the preventive study (vehicle control, 0.30 ± 0.037 g compared with silica control, 0.35 ± 0.029 g, P < 0.01) and in the therapeutic study (vehicle control, 0.29 ± 0.034 g compared with silica control, 0.36 ± 0.035 g, P < 0.01). In the preventive study, nintedanib at a dose of 100 mg/kg reduced the silicainduced increase in lung weight by 44%, but this did not reach statistical significance. However, in the therapeutic study, silica-induced lung weight increase was significantly reduced by 74% at a dose of 30 mg/kg (P < 0.01) and by 86% at a dose of 100 mg/kg (P < 0.01) if nintedanib treatment was started at day 10. If nintedanib treatment was started at day 20, reductions of 32% at a dose of 30 mg/kg and 43% at a dose of 100 mg/kg were detected (which did not reach statistical significance).

In both the preventive and the therapeutic study, silica administration caused significant increases in total cells (Figs. 7A and 8A), macrophages (Figs. 7B and 8B), lymphocytes (Figs. 7C and 8C), and neutrophils (Figs. 7D and 8D) measured in the BALF (P < 0.001 for all cell types compared with negative control). Similar to the bleomycin study, nintedanib reduced silica-induced elevation in lymphocyte counts at a dose of 30 mg/kg (Fig. 7C; P < 0.01) in the preventive study, but not total cell counts (Fig. 7A) or macrophages (Fig. 7B). Neutrophil counts were reduced significantly by nintedanib at doses of 30 and 100 mg/kg (Fig. 7D; P < 0.01). In the therapeutic study, the significant reduction by nintedanib of lymphocyte count was dependent on dose and start of treatment (Fig. 8C). Higher dose, earlier start of treatment, or longer treatment period provided better efficacy. Nintedanib reduced silica-induced neutrophil invasion, but only if the treatment was started at day 10 (Fig. 8D; P < 0.001).

Silica administration significantly increased IL-1 β (Figs. 7E and 8E), KC (Figs. 7F and 8F), and TIMP-1 concentrations (Figs. 7G and 8H) determined in lung tissue homogenates to similar extents in both studies compared with saline-treated control lungs (P < 0.001 for all mediators). IL-6 concentration was only significantly increased in the therapeutic study (Fig. 8G; P < 0.01). In the preventive study, nintedanib significantly reduced IL-1 β (Fig. 7E), KC (Fig. 7F), and TIMP-1 (Fig. 7G) concentrations independent of dose. In the preventive studies, nintedanib reduced IL-1 β (Fig. 8H) if treatment was started at day 10, but not if treatment was started at day 20.

Silica administration slightly but significantly elevated the total collagen concentration in lung tissue compared with saline-treated controls in both studies (Figs. 7H and 8I). Semiquantitative analysis of the histology showed that silica administration led to elevated histology scores, indicating inflammation (Figs. 7I and 8J), granuloma formation (Figs. 7J and 8K), and fibrosis (Figs. 7K and 8L) in the lungs. Representative histology micrographs are shown as Supplemental



Fig. 3. Preventive nintedanib treatment reduces bleomycin-induced lung inflammation and fibrosis. C57Bl/6 mice received an intranasal instillation of 3 mg/kg NaCl or bleomycin. Nintedanib was administered each day by gavage at 30 and 60 mg/kg for 14 days. Analyses were performed at day 14. BAL cell differentiation is expressed as cells per mouse lung. (A) Total cell count. (B) Macrophages. (C) Lymphocytes. Mediator concentrations in whole lung homogenates were determined by ELISA. (D) IL-1 β . (E) Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1/KC. (F) TIMP-1. Total lung collagen was determined by Sircol assay in lung homogenate (G). H&E and CAB trichrome stained slices of the left lung were semiquantitatively scored for inflammation (H) and fibrosis (I), respectively. All groups (n = 10 per group) were compared versus bleomycin-treated control animals by ANOVA followed by Dunnet's multiple comparison test for nonparametric data. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Values are presented as mean \pm S.E.M.

Figs. 3 and 4. Total lung collagen (Fig. 7H), lung inflammation (Fig. 7I), granuloma formation (Fig. 7J), and lung fibrosis (Fig. 7K) were significantly reduced by nintedanib in the preventive study. In the therapeutic study, significant reduction of the pathology by nintedanib was limited to total lung collagen at a dose of 30 mg/kg (P < 0.05; Fig. 8I), granuloma formation at a dose of 100 mg/kg (P < 0.05; Fig. 8K), and lung fibrosis at doses of 30 and 100 mg/kg (P < 0.05; Fig. 8L) if treatment was started at day 10, but not if treatment was started at day 20.

Discussion

To improve understanding of the mode of action of nintedanib in fibrotic lung diseases such as IPF, this study explored the inhibitory activity of nintedanib in cellular assays specific for selected tyrosine kinases, in human primary fibroblasts, and in two animal models of pulmonary fibrosis.

A cellular BA/F3 assay confirmed the potent inhibitory activity of nintedanib on PDGFR α and PDGFR β , VEGFR-2 and VEGFR-3, and Lck and Lyn and its lower potency on FGFR-3 and FGFR-4, as reported in in vitro kinase assays (Hilberg et al., 2008). Differences in IC₅₀ values between the cellular BA/F3 assay and the in vitro assay were found for FGFR-1 and FGFR-2 and for VEGFR-1, with the cellular BA/F3 assay showing lower potency for nintedanib. Because BA/F3 cells are artificially engineered cells, these results can only be taken as a first indication of cellular activity. Compared with the cellular assays in endothelial cells, pericytes, and vascular smooth muscle cells described by Hilberg et al. (2008), the IC₅₀ values are in concordance.

More important insights were obtained with human lung fibroblasts stimulated with PDGF-BB. PDGF-BB stimulates PDGFR α and $-\beta$ causing $\alpha\alpha$ and $\beta\beta$ homodimerization or $\alpha\beta$ heterodimerization (Heldin et al., 2002) and autophosphorylation of the receptor, which leads to stimulation of fibroblast proliferation (Hetzel et al., 2005). We demonstrated that nintedanib inhibited PDGFR α and $-\beta$ phosphorylation and proliferation of human lung fibroblasts, an observation that is relevant to the pathology of IPF (Gunther et al., 2012). The potency of nintedanib was quite similar on all the cellular systems tested, with IC_{50} values ranging from 22 to 64 nM. However, complete inhibition of PDGFR α and $-\beta$ phosphorylation led to only 70% inhibition of fibroblast proliferation, indicating that a proportion of fibroblast proliferation is PDGFR independent. Nintedanib also inhibited TGFβ-induced fibroblast to myofibroblast differentiation, but only at higher concentrations (IC₅₀ = 144 nM).



Fig. 4. Therapeutic nintedanib treatment reduces bleomycin-induced lung inflammation and fibrosis. C57Bl/6 mice received an intranasal instillation of 3 mg/kg NaCl or bleomycin. Nintedanib was administered each day by gavage at 30 and 60 mg/kg starting at day 7. Analyses were performed at day 21. BAL cell differentiation is expressed as cells per mouse lung. (A) Total cell count. (B) Macrophages. (C) Lymphocytes. (D) IL-1 β . (E) Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1/KC. (F) TIMP-1. Total lung collagen was determined by Sircol assay in lung homogenate (G). H&E and CAB trichrome stained slices of the left lung were semiquantitatively scored for inflammation (H) and fibrosis (I), respectively. All groups (n = 10 per group) were compared versus bleomycin-treated control animals by ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test for parametric data and Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test for nonparametric data. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Values are presented as mean ± S.E.M.

To show that nintedanib exerts similar effects on PDGFR activation in vitro and in vivo, we demonstrated that nintedanib dose-dependently inhibited PDGFR phosphorylation and downstream signaling via pAKT and pERK in mouse lung tissue after oral dosing. Zhuo et al. (2004) demonstrated that PDGFR α phosphorylation was greater in bleomycintreated mouse lungs compared with control lungs. Hence, it can be assumed that at least the proliferation of lung fibroblasts activated by PDGF/PDGFR interaction in mice is diminished in vivo by the nintedanib doses administered in the bleomycin- and probably in the silica-induced lung fibrosis studies.

The in vivo experiments revealed that nintedanib exerted antifibrotic activity, as shown by reduced fibrosis in the histologic analysis and by diminished lung collagen, reflecting reduced extracellular matrix production and/or deposition. We also found that TIMP-1, a key factor in the fibrogenic response to bleomycin in mice (Manoury et al., 2006), was significantly reduced by nintedanib in mouse lung tissue. In general, the antifibrotic activity of nintedanib was similar in the preventive and therapeutic studies of the silica-induced and bleomycin-induced fibrosis models except that there was reduced inhibition of TIMP-1 and total lung collagen at a dose of 30 mg/kg in the therapeutic bleomycin study and no inhibitory activity in the therapeutic silica model if nintedanib treatment was started at day 20. Either the late treatment start or the short treatment duration or both could be responsible for the observed reduction in antifibrotic activity.

Nintedanib exerted anti-inflammatory activity, demonstrated by reduced lymphocyte and neutrophil counts in the BALF, diminished IL-1 β and KC concentrations in lung homogenates, and reduced inflammation and granuloma formation in the histology analysis. In general, the antiinflammatory activity of nintedanib was weaker in the therapeutic studies than in the preventive studies. This might be related to the fact that, in the therapeutic studies, inflammation had peaked before nintedanib treatment was started. Reduction in the BALF lymphocyte count seems to be the parameter most sensitive to nintedanib treatment: even though treatment was started late (at day 20) in the therapeutic silica study, nintedanib significantly reduced BALF lymphocytes.

Bleomycin-induced deterioration in lung function was not influenced by nintedanib in the course of the experiments. This might be related to the relatively short treatment period of 14 days in the preventive as well as in the therapeutic part of the bleomycin study.

The strong and consistent inhibitory activity of nintedanib on IL-1 β is an interesting finding. An imbalance of the IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Ra)/IL-1 β ratio, resulting in increased



Fig. 5. Nintedanib treatment reduces bleomycin-induced lung inflammation and fibrosis. Representative micrographs of H&E-stained lung sections from mice of the treatment groups are shown. C57Bl/6 mice that received an intranasal instillation of 3 mg/kg bleomycin (B and F) showed a prominent peribronchial and interalveolar inflammation that was absent in control animals (A and E). Nintedanib was administered each day by gavage at 30 mg/kg (C and G) and 60 mg/kg (D and H). Daily nintedanib treatment from days 0 to 14 in the preventive study (C and D) and from days 7 to 21 in the therapeutic study (G-H) reduced bleomycin-induced lung pathology. Analyses were performed on the last day of the study, which was day 14 (A-D) or day 21 (E-H).

IL-1 β activity, has been reported in BALF macrophages from patients with IPF (Mikuniya et al., 1997). Polymorphisms in *IL1RN* influence IL-1Ra mRNA expression, suggesting that lower levels of IL-1Ra predispose to developing IPF (Korthagen et al., 2012). IL-1 β is a well-known proinflammatory cytokine produced by the macrophages of patients with IPF (Zhang et al., 1993). IL-1 β was shown to have an important role in driving the development of fibrosis (Wilson et al., 2010). The inhibition of IL-1 β by nintedanib may help to dampen the profibrotic milieu in the lung. A further interesting finding is the significant inhibition of TIMP-1 by nintedanib. TIMP-1 inhibits many matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), including MMP-1 (also known as collagenase-1) which is capable of degrading type I and II fibrillar collagens (Pardo and Selman, 2012). TIMP-1 expression has been found to be elevated in interstitial macrophages (Selman et al., 2000), fibroblasts (Ramos et al., 2001), and sputum (Beeh et al., 2003) from patients with IPF. Thus, the reduction in lung collagen produced by nintedanib might be at least partly attributable to its inhibitory activity on TIMP-1.



Fig. 6. Nintedanib treatment reduces bleomycin-induced lung inflammation and fibrosis. Representative micrographs of CAB-stained lung sections from mice of the treatment groups are shown. C57Bl/6 mice that received an intranasal instillation of 3 mg/kg bleomycin (B and F) showed a prominent peribrachial and perivascular collagen accumulation and peribronchial and interalveolar inflammation that was absent in control animals (A and E). Nintedanib was administered each day by gavage at 30 mg/kg (C, G) and 60 mg/kg (D and H). Daily nintedanib treatment from days 0 to 14 in the preventive study (C and D), and from days 7 to 21 in the therapeutic study (G and H) reduced bleomycin-induced lung pathology. Analyses were performed on the last day of the study, which was day 14 (A-D) or day 21 (E-H).

Although in this study only the inhibitory activity of nintedanib on PDGFR was explored in vitro, it is likely that inhibition of other tyrosine kinases contributes to the efficacy of nintedanib in vivo. According to Hilberg et al. (2008), exposure in mice after oral administration of 60 and 100 mg/kg nintedanib is sufficient to inhibit FGFRs, VEGFRs, Lck, Src, and Flt-3 in the animal experiments presented here. The integrated antifibrotic and anti-inflammatory activity of nintedanib might be dependent on its inhibitory activity on multiple kinases. It is well documented that the PDGF/ PDGFR signaling cascade is implicated in the development of pulmonary fibrosis (Bonner, 2004), but inhibition of FGFRs might also have a role in the in vivo efficacy of nintedanib. Enhanced FGF levels as well as increased expression of FGFR1 on epithelial, endothelial, and smooth muscle cell/ myofibroblast-like cells and increased expression of FGFR2 on interstitial cells have been detected in the lungs of patients with IPF (Inoue et al., 2002). In vivo abrogation of FGF signaling has been shown to reduce bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis and improve survival in bleomycin-treated



Fig. 7. Preventive nintedanib treatment reduces silica-induced lung inflammation and fibrosis. C57Bl/6 mice received an intranasal instillation of NaCl or silica particles at 2.5 mg/animal. Nintedanib was administered each day by gavage at 30 and 100 mg/kg for 30 days. Analyses were performed at day 30. BAL cell differentiation is expressed as cells per mouse lung. (A) Total cell count. (B) Macrophages. (C) Lymphocytes. (D) Neutrophils. The mediator concentrations in whole-lung homogenates were determined by ELISA. (E) IL-1 β . (F) Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1/KC. (G) TIMP-1. Total lung collagen was determined by Sircol assay in lung homogenate (H). H&E and CAB trichrome stained silces of the left lung were semiquantitatively scored for inflammation (I), granuloma formation (J), and fibrosis (K). All groups (n = 10 per group) were compared versus silica-treated control animals by ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test for parametric data and Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test for parametric data and Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test for parametric data mean \pm S.E.M.

mice (Yu et al., 2012). The role of VEGF in IPF remains to be further explored, but experimental evidence in rats suggests that inhibition of VEGFR may reduce fibrosis (Hamada et al., 2005). No specific role in the pathology of IPF has been described for Lck, Src, and Flt-3, but the anti-inflammatory effects of nintedanib could potentially be partly attributable to its inhibitory activity on these tyrosine kinases (Das et al., 2006).

No animal model is available resembling the exact pathology and chronicity of human IPF. In our attempt to elucidate the mode of action of nintedanib, inhibitory activity was explored in two well-described animal models of lung inflammation and fibrosis: the bleomycin-induced (Gasse et al., 2007) and the silica-induced model (Lo Re et al., 2010). Both these models reflect at least some aspects of the pathology seen in patients with IPF. When designing our studies, we followed the recommendations of Moeller et al. (2008) in that all potential antifibrotic compounds should be evaluated in the phase of established fibrosis, rather than in the early period of bleomycin-induced inflammation, for assessment of antifibrotic properties.

Both models show similarities but also differences in lung pathology. The bleomycin model is reported to show initial lung injury, with strong but transient neutrophilic inflammation subsequently leading to lung fibrosis (Izbicki et al., 2002). Bleomycin is metabolized in the lung, leading to a decrease in neutrophilic inflammation and a fibrotic response that spontaneously resolves after 2 to 3 months (Walters and Kleeberger, 2008). In the silica model, the stimulating crystals are not cleared from the lung, leading to ongoing inflammation, granuloma formation, and progressive fibrosis (Callis et al., 1985; Brass et al., 2012). In our study,



Κ

oma score

2 ibrosis

20

100



600 KC [pg/mL]

400

G

100

80

IL6 [pg/mL] 60

Fig. 8. Therapeutic nintedanib treatment reduces silica-induced lung inflammation and fibrosis. C57Bl/6 mice received an intranasal instillation of NaCl or silica particles at 2.5 mg/animal. Nintedanib was administered each day by gavage at 30 and 100 mg/kg starting at day 10 (clear bars) or day 20 (hatched bars). Analyses were performed at day 30. BAL cell differentiation is expressed as cells per mouse lung. (A) Total cell count. (B) Macrophages. (C) Lymphocytes. (D) Neutrophils. The mediator concentrations in whole-lung homogenates were determined by ELISA. (E) IL-1β. (F) Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1/KC. (G) IL-6. (H) TIMP-1. Total lung collagen was determined by Sircol assay in lung homogenate (I). H&E and CAB trichrome-stained slices of the left lung were semiquantitatively scored for inflammation (J), granuloma formation (K), and fibrosis (L), respectively. All groups (n = 10 per group) were compared versus silica-treated control animals by ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test for parametric data and Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test for nonparametric data. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Values are presented as mean \pm S.E.M.

lung inflammation and fibrotic score were quite similar in both models except for the strong neutrophilic inflammation and granuloma formation only detected in the silica-treated lungs and the stronger increase in lung weight in the bleomycin-treated lungs, which might be related to stronger matrix deposition indicated by the higher lung collagen increase. The consistent inhibitory effects shown by nintedanib in both animal models suggest that the antifibrotic activity demonstrated in this study is an intrinsic feature of nintedanib and not only an indirect activity caused by suppressing the initial inflammatory response.

Α

total cells x10⁵

В

nacrophages x10⁵

3

2

0 С

25

ymphocytes x10⁴

D

neutrophils x10⁵ 3

Silica

Nintedanib [mg/kg]

2

10

8

6

0

In summary, we have shown that nintedanib inhibits RTK activation and the proliferation and transformation of human lung fibroblasts. In vivo nintedanib showed consistent antifibrotic and anti-inflammatory activity in two animal models that reflect aspects of pulmonary fibrotic diseases. We propose that the antifibrotic and anti-inflammatory activities demonstrated

in this study are likely aspects of the mode of action of nintedanib in fibrotic lung diseases. The inhibitory activity of nintedanib on lung fibrosis in the therapeutic studies raises the hope that nintedanib might reduce disease progression in patients with lung fibrosis. The antifibrotic and antiinflammatory activity of nintedanib may impact the clinical course of pulmonary fibrotic diseases such as IPF.

10 20 10 20

30 30 100 100

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Prof. J. Müller-Quernheim, University Hospital Freiburg, Germany, for kindly providing lung fibroblasts from patients with IPF. They also gratefully acknowledge the excellent technical assistance of Verena Brauchle and Angela Ostermann (Respiratory Diseases Research, Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG, Biberach an der Riss, Germany) and editorial assistance of Wendy Morris (Fleischman-Hillard Group, Ltd) during the preparation of this article.

Wollin et al.

Authorship Contributions

Participated in research design: Wollin, Quesniaux, Holweg, Ryffel. Conducted experiments: Wollin, Maillet, Holweg, Ryffel.

Performed data analysis: Wollin, Maillet, Quesniaux, Holweg, Ryffel. Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: Wollin, Maillet, Quesniaux, Holweg, Ryffel.

References

- Abdollahi A, Li M, Ping G, Plathow C, Domhan S, Kiessling F, Lee LB, McMahon G, Gröne HJ, and Lipson KE, et al. (2005) Inhibition of platelet-derived growth factor signaling attenuates pulmonary fibrosis. J Exp Med 201:925–935.
- American Thoracic Society (ATS) European Respiratory Society (ERS) (2002) American Thoracic Society/European Respiratory Society International Multidisciplinary Consensus Classification of the Idiopathic Interstitial Pneumonias. This joint statement of the American Thoracic Society (ATS), and the European Respiratory Society (ERS) was adopted by the ATS board of directors, June 2001 and by the ERS Executive Committee, June 2001. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 165: 277–304.
- Antoniades HN, Bravo MA, Avila RE, Galanopoulos T, Neville-Golden J, Maxwell M, and Selman M (1990) Platelet-derived growth factor in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. J Clin Invest 86:1055-1064.
- Aono Y, Nishioka Y, Inayama M, Ugai M, Kishi J, Uehara H, Izumi K, and Sone S (2005) Imatinib as a novel antifibrotic agent in bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis in mice. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 171:1279–1285.
- Beeh KM, Beier J, Kornmann O, and Buhl R (2003) Sputum matrix metalloproteinase-9, tissue inhibitor of metalloprotinease-1, and their molar ratio in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and healthy subjects. *Respir Med* **97**:634–639.
- Bonner JC (2004) Regulation of PDGF and its receptors in fibrotic diseases. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev 15:255–273.
- Brass DM, Spencer JC, Li Z, Potts-Kant E, Reilly SM, Dunkel MK, Latoche JD, Auten RL, Hollingsworth JW, and Fattman CL (2012) Innate immune activation by inhaled lipopolysaccharide, independent of oxidative stress, exacerbates silicainduced pulmonary fibrosis in mice. *PLoS ONE* 7:e40789.
- Callis AH, Sohnle PG, Mandel GS, Wiessner J, and Mandel NS (1985) Kinetics of inflammatory and fibrotic pulmonary changes in a murine model of silicosis. J Lab Clin Med 105:547–553.
- Chaudhary NI, Roth GJ, Hilberg F, Müller-Quernheim J, Prasse A, Zissel G, Schnapp A, and Park JE (2007) Inhibition of PDGF, VEGF and FGF signalling attenuates fibrosis. *Eur Respir J* 29:976–985.
- Chetta A, Zanini A, Foresi A, D'Ippolito R, Tipa A, Castagnaro A, Baraldo S, Neri M, Saetta M, and Olivieri D (2005) Vascular endothelial growth factor up-regulation and bronchial wall remodelling in asthma. *Clin Exp Allergy* 35:1437–1442.
- Clark JG, Madtes DK, and Raghu G (1993) Effects of platelet-derived growth factor isoforms on human lung fibroblast proliferation and procollagen gene expression. *Exp Lung Res* 19:327-344.
- Daley GQ, McLaughlin J, Witte ON, and Baltimore D (1987) The CML-specific P210 bcr/abl protein, unlike v-abl, does not transform NIH/3T3 fibroblasts. Science 237: 532–535.
- Das J, Chen P, Norris D, Padmanabha R, Lin J, Moquin RV, Shen Z, Cook LS, Doweyko AM, and Pitt S, et al. (2006) 2-Aminothiazole as a novel kinase inhibitor template. Structure-activity relationship studies toward the discovery of N-(2chloro-6-methylphenyl)-2-[[6-[4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazinyl)]-2-methyl-4-pyrimidinyl] amino)]-1,3-thiazole-5-carboxamide (dasatinib, BMS-354825) as a potent pan-Src kinase inhibitor. J Med Chem 49:6819–6832.
- De Vries J, Kessels BL, and Drent M (2001) Quality of life of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis patients. *Eur Respir J* 17:954–961.
- Farkas L and Kolb M (2011) Pulmonary microcirculation in interstitial lung disease. Proc Am Thorac Soc 8:516–521.
- Fernandez IE and Eickelberg O (2012) New cellular and molecular mechanisms of lung injury and fibrosis in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Lancet* 380:680–688. Gasse P, Mary C, Guenon I, Noulin N, Charron S, Schnyder-Candrian S, Schnyder B,
- Gasse P, Mary C, Guenon I, Noulin N, Charron S, Schnyder-Candrian S, Schnyder B, Akira S, Quesniaux VF, and Lagente V, et al. (2007) IL-1R1/MyD88 signaling and the inflammasome are essential in pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis in mice. *J Clin Invest* 117:3786–3799.
- Günther A, Korfei M, Mahavadi P, von der Beck D, Ruppert C, and Markart P (2012) Unravelling the progressive pathophysiology of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Eur Respir Rev* 21:152–160.
- Hamada N, Kuwano K, Yamada M, Hagimoto N, Hiasa K, Egashira K, Nakashima N, Maeyama T, Yoshimi M, and Nakanishi Y (2005) Anti-vascular endothelial growth factor gene therapy attenuates lung injury and fibrosis in mice. J Immunol 175: 1224–1231.
- Heldin CH, Eriksson U, and Ostman A (2002) New members of the platelet-derived growth factor family of mitogens. Arch Biochem Biophys **398**:284–290.
- Hetzel M, Bachem M, Anders D, Trischler G, and Faehling M (2005) Different effects of growth factors on proliferation and matrix production of normal and fibrotic human lung fibroblasts. *Lung* 183:225-237.
 Hilberg F, Roth GJ, Krssak M, Kautschitsch S, Sommergruber W, Tontsch-Grunt U,
- Hilberg F, Roth GJ, Krssak M, Kautschitsch S, Sommergruber W, Tontsch-Grunt U, Garin-Chesa P, Bader G, Zoephel A, and Quant J, et al. (2008) BIBF 1120: triple angiokinase inhibitor with sustained receptor blockade and good antitumor efficacy. *Cancer Res* 68:4774–4782.

- Inoue Y, King TE, Jr, Barker E, Daniloff E, and Newman LS (2002) Basic fibroblast growth factor and its receptors in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and lymphangioleiomyomatosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 166:765–773.
- Izbicki G, Segel MJ, Christensen TG, Conner MW, and Breuer R (2002) Time course of bleomycin-induced lung fibrosis. Int J Exp Pathol 83:111-119. Katzenstein AL and Myers JL (1998) Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: clinical rele-
- vance of pathologic classification. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 157:1301–1315.
- Kim DS, Park JH, Park BK, Lee JS, Nicholson AG, and Colby T (2006) Acute exacerbation of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: frequency and clinical features. *Eur Respir J* 27:143–150.
- King TE, Jr, Pardo A, and Selman M (2011) Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. Lancet 378:1949–1961.
- Korthagen NM, van Moorsel CH, Kazemier KM, Ruven HJ, and Grutters JC (2012) IL1RN genetic variations and risk of IPF: a meta-analysis and mRNA expression study. *Immunogenetics* 64:371–377.
- Lee CG, Ma B, Takyar S, Ahangari F, Delacruz C, He CH, and Elias JA (2011) Studies of vascular endothelial growth factor in asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Proc Am Thorac Soc 8:512–515.
- Li M, Abdollahi A, Gröne HJ, Lipson KE, Belka C, and Huber PE (2009) Late treatment with imatinib mesylate ameliorates radiation-induced lung fibrosis in a mouse model. *Radiat Oncol* 4:66.
- Lo Re S, Dumoutier L, Couillin I, Van Vyve C, Yakoub Y, Uwambayinema F, Marien B, van den Brûle S, Van Snick J, and Uyttenhove C, et al. (2010) IL-17A-producing $\gamma\delta$ T and Th17 lymphocytes mediate lung inflammation but not fibrosis in experimental silicosis. *J Immunol* **184**:6367–6377. Manoury B, Caulet-Maugendre S, Guénon I, Lagente V, and Boichot E (2006) TIMP-1
- Manoury B, Caulet-Maugendre S, Guénon I, Lagente V, and Boichot E (2006) TIMP-1 is a key factor of fibrogenic response to bleomycin in mouse lung. Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol 19:471–487.
- Mikuniya T, Nagai S, Shimoji T, Takeuchi M, Morita K, Mio T, Satake N, and Izumi T (1997) Quantitative evaluation of the IL-1 beta and IL-1 receptor antagonist obtained from BALF macrophages in patients with interstitial lung diseases. Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis 14:39–45.
 Moeller A, Ask K, Warburton D, Gauldie J, and Kolb M (2008) The bleomycin animal
- Moeller A, Ask K, Warburton D, Gauldie J, and Kolb M (2008) The bleomycin animal model: a useful tool to investigate treatment options for idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis? Int J Biochem Cell Biol 40:362–382.
- Pardo A and Selman M (2012) Role of matrix metaloproteases in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Fibrogenesis Tissue Repair* **5** (Suppl 1):S9.
- Raghu G, Collard HR, Egan JJ, Martinez FJ, Behr J, Brown KK, Colby TV, Cordier JF, Flaherty KR, and Lasky JA, et al.; ATS/ERS/JRS/ALAT Committee on Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis (2011) An official ATS/ERS/JRS/ALAT statement: idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: evidence-based guidelines for diagnosis and management. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 183:788-824.
- Ramos C, Montaño M, García-Alvarez J, Ruiz V, Uhal BD, Selman M, and Pardo A (2001) Fibroblasts from idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and normal lungs differ in growth rate, apoptosis, and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases expression. Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol 24:591–598.
- Renzoni EA (2004) Neovascularization in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: too much or too little? Am J Respir Crit Care Med 169:1179–1180.
- Rice AB, Moomaw CR, Morgan DL, and Bonner JC (1999) Specific inhibitors of platelet-derived growth factor or epidermal growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase reduce pulmonary fibrosis in rats. Am J Pathol 155:213-221.
- Richeldi L, Costabel U, Selman M, Kim DS, Hansell DM, Nicholson AG, Brown KK, Flaherty KR, Noble PW, and Raghu G, et al. (2011) Efficacy of a tyrosine kinase inhibitor in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. N Engl J Med 365:1079–1087.
- Selman M, Ruiz V, Cabrera S, Segura L, Ramírez R, Barrios R, and Pardo A (2000) TIMP-1, -2, -3, and -4 in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. A prevailing nondegradative lung microenvironment? Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol 279: L562-L574.
- Swigris JJ, Kuschner WG, Jacobs SS, Wilson SR, and Gould MK (2005) Healthrelated quality of life in patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: a systematic review. *Thorax* **60**:588–594.
- Vuorinen K, Gao F, Oury TD, Kinnula VL, and Myllärniemi M (2007) Imatinib mesylate inhibits fibrogenesis in asbestos-induced interstitial pneumonia. *Exp Lung Res* 33:357-373.
- Walters DM and Kleeberger SR (2008) Mouse models of bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis. Curr Protoc Pharmacol 5:U5.46 DOI: 10.1002/0471141755.ph0546s40.
- Wilson MS, Madala SK, Ramalingam TR, Gochuico BR, Rosas IO, Cheever AW, and Wynn TA (2010) Bleomycin and IL-1β-mediated pulmonary fibrosis is IL-17A dependent. J Exp Med 207:535–552.
- dependent. J Exp Med 207:535-552.
 Yu ZH, Wang DD, Zhou ZY, He SL, Chen AA, and Wang J (2012) Mutant soluble ectodomain of fibroblast growth factor receptor-2 IIIc attenuates bleomycininduced pulmonary fibrosis in mice. Biol Pharm Bull 35:731-736.
- Zhang Y, Lee TC, Guillemin B, Yu MC, and Rom WN (1993) Enhanced IL-1 beta and tumor necrosis factor-alpha release and messenger RNA expression in macrophages from idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis or after asbestos exposure. J Immunol 150:4188–4196.
- Zhuo Y, Zhang J, Laboy M, and Lasky JA (2004) Modulation of PDGF-C and PDGF-D expression during bleomycin-induced lung fibrosis. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol 286:L182–L188.

Address correspondence to: Lutz Wollin, Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG, Biberach, Germany. E-mail: stefan-lutz.wollin@boehringeringelheim.com