

Cystic Fibrosis: A Review Article

Hani Raka Karrar (1), Mahmoud Ismail Nouh (1,2), Abdulmohsen Aqeel G. Alanazi (3), Sultan Essa Alharbi (4), Fahad Nuwayfi Almutairi (5), Hussain Ali Abdullah Alhammad (6), Abdullah Ali Hassan Sadeeg (7), Mohammed Aljunaid Alamin Alsheikh(8), Wafa mohammed alshaikh (9), Mohammed yousef Alyahya (8), Wejdan Ali Sulieman makki (10), Hashima Mohammed Alhazmi (7), Amal saleem Almutairi (11), Rehab Salah Aldin Alhendi (12)

(1) Pharmaceutical Care Department, General Network for Healthcare Providers Hospital, Jeddah, Makkah, Saudi Arabia.

(2) College of Medicine, Ibn Sina College, Jeddah, Makkah, Saudi Arabia.

(3) King Fahad Medical City, Saudi Arabia.

(4) Unaizah College of Medicine, Saudi Arabia.

(5) Al-Dawaa Pharmacy, Saudi Arabia.

(6) Diaverum Renal Center, Saudi Arabia.

(7) Jazan University, Saudi Arabia.

(8) Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia.

(9) King Faisal University, Ahsa, Saudi Arabia.

(10) King Abdulaziz Hospital, Saudi Arabia

(11) Security Forces Hospital, Saudi Arabia

(12) Ministry of Health, Makkah, Saudi Arabia

Corresponding author:

Hani Raka Karrar

Pharmaceutical Care Department, General Network for Healthcare Providers Hospital, Jeddah, Makkah, Saudi Arabia.

Tel.: +966 59 060 0263.

Email: hanywell2006m@hotmail.com

Received: January 2022; Accepted: February 2022; Published: March 1, 2022.

Citation: Hani Raka Karrar et al. Cystic Fibrosis: A Review Article. World Family Medicine. 2022; 20(3): 58-63.

DOI: 10.5742/MEWFM.2022.9525014

Abstract

Cystic Fibrosis is considered one of the most common autosomal recessive diseases that is associated with a decrease in the length of age in a Caucasian population. Also, it is considered as one of the most common life-shortening diseases in the white population in the United States. Cystic fibrosis affects around 30,000 people in the United States and more than 80,000 people worldwide. The incidence rate of this disease is 1 out of 3,500 births per year in the white population in the United States, while the incidence rate of the person becoming a carrier is 1:25 in the Caucasian population, the incidence of the disease is 1:2,500. The main cause for this disease is the mutation in Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator (CFTR) gene. This disease is considered a life-threatening genetic disease that causes a buildup of thick, viscous mucus secretions in organ systems. Cystic Fibrosis is considered a multiple system disease, but in most cases, the disease gets worse and mortality increases because of

respiratory manifestations such as bronchiectasis. Also, pancreatic damage in children is followed by severe wasting, malabsorption, and mortality is one of the recorded observations in children. This article aims to provide a brief introduction and the clinical picture of the disease, Etiology, Pathophysiology, Epidemiology, Nutrition, Prevention, and good practice management advice.

Keywords: Cystic Fibrosis, Bronchiectasis, Review Article, Airway Clearance Therapy, Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator gene.

Introduction

Cystic Fibrosis is considered one of the most common life-limiting autosomal recessive genetic diseases which are spread mostly in Europe, North America, and Australia. Cystic Fibrosis has been associated with a decrease in the length of age in the Caucasian population (1, 2). Also, it is considered as one of the most common life-shortening diseases in the white population in the United States (3). Cystic Fibrosis is mainly diagnosed early during infancy (4). The most common technique used to diagnose Cystic Fibrosis is Sweat Testing Technique (5). The Sweat Testing Technique works by analysis of electrolyte concentration in the content of sweat. Mainly this technique measures Chloride and sodium concentration after 48 hours of birth because sweat start rises over the first 24 hours of the infant's life. If the chloride level is very high this indicates the presence of Cystic Fibrosis (6, 7). Patients with Cystic Fibrosis may present acutely to their local hospital with a variety of complaints but the prominent respiratory component, bronchiectasis, is responsible for most of the morbidity and, eventually, the mortality. The main cause for this disease is the mutation in Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator (CFTR) gene. This gene has a major role in encoding epithelial ion channel which is responsible for transporting the chloride and bicarbonate ions, therefore mutation in this gene will lead to impaired mucus hydration and clearance (8). This disease considers a life-threatening genetic disease that affects epithelial cells and causes a buildup of thick, viscous mucus secretions in various organ systems, most commonly the gastrointestinal, pulmonary, and genitourinary systems (9). Cystic Fibrosis consider a multiple system disease, but in most cases, the disease worsens and mortality increases because of the respiratory manifestations such as bronchiectasis. (8, 10). This article aims to provide a brief introduction and the clinical picture of the disease, Etiology, Pathophysiology, Epidemiology, Nutrition, Prevention, and good practice management advice.

Epidemiology

Cystic fibrosis affects around 30,000 people in the United States and more than 80,000 people worldwide. The incidence rate of this disease is 1 out of 3,500 births per year in the white population in the United States (3). While the incidence rate of the person becoming a carrier is 1:25 in the Caucasian population, the incidence of the disease is 1:2,500 (1).

Pathophysiology

Pathophysiology of Cystic Disease starts with the mutation in Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator (CFTR) gene (11). Mainly this gene controls the encoding epithelial ion channel which is responsible for transport and movement of the chloride and bicarbonate ions across the epithelial cell membrane (11-13). When the mutation occurs in one or multiple copies of this gene, the ion transport across the epithelial cell membrane will be affected and defective (13, 14). Consequently, a

thick mucus membrane will build up throughout the body cavities, leading to respiratory insufficiency with other fetal systemic obstructions and abnormalities (15, 16). Also, the combination of altered ions transportation, accumulation of mucus, and decreased mucociliary clearance will permit organism colonization especially bacteria (17). The most common Bacteria which colonize include *Pseudomonas*, *Haemophilus influenza*, and *staphylococcus aureus*. Less common bacteria which colonize include *Burkholderia*, *Stenotrophomonas*, *Achromobacter*, *Pandorea*, and *Ralstonia* (17-25). Mainly these organisms will affect the respiratory tract and will cause severe repetitive inflammation. Consequently, Repetitive inflammation and chronic infection by these organisms will lead to respiratory destruction (26, 27).

Diagnosis

Most cases of cystic fibrosis are diagnosed during early infancy (4).

1. Sweat Testing Technique

The loss of Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator (CFTR) gene function in Cystic Fibrosis patients will lead to elevating the levels of sodium and chloride in the sweat gland secretions because of poor reabsorption of these electrolytes in the ducts of glands. The sweat test technique is the analysis of electrolyte concentration in the content of sweat because chloride is more dependent on CFTR function and sodium flux can be mediated by CFTR independent pathway. But, sweat chloride is the main ion analyzed. Some institutions measure sodium to evaluate quality control. Also, the large discrepancy between sodium and chloride may give the alarm that there is a measurement error. Unaffected individuals have a sweat chloride less than 40 mmol/L. Values between 40 to 59 mmol/L are considered indeterminate and need further evaluation. This measurement should be obtained after 48 hours because sweat electrolytes rise over the first 24 hours of the infant's life. Sweat chloride levels rise over days after birth. The normal maximum limit of the level of chloride sweat in infants aged less than 3 months is 30 mmol/L. Finally, the patient is diagnosed with Cystic Fibrosis if the sweat chloride level is higher than 60 mmol/L (6, 7).

2. Newborn screening

Cystic Fibrosis newborn screening (NBS) started in Colorado (1982) then continued in Wisconsin (1985) (28). In (2003), The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention convened a workshop devoted to reviewing the outcomes of Cystic Fibrosis newborn screening and the potential benefits and risks. The final results of this workshop were that Cystic Fibrosis newborn screening is justified and the potential benefits outweigh the risks. Nowadays, several states in the United States have started performing this screening of newborn neonates, and in the future, all states in the United States will have this screening test (7).

Gene Expression

Cystic fibrosis is the result of a mutant gene located on chromosome 7 (29, 30). Cystic fibrosis is caused by mutations in the transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gene (31, 32). Cystic Fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) is located in the membranes of most of the cell lines and is responsible for chloride ion conduction. In addition, CFTR influences the expression of several other gene products (33). More than 2,000 different CFTR mutations have been reported (12), but there are six common classes of mutation and the most common one is class 2 mutation which is a protein processing abnormality and it includes F508del which accounts for 70% of all mutations (34).

Nutrition

Cystic fibrosis is the most common association with energy deficiency in children and adults. Chronic malnutrition will lead to failure to thrive, wasting, and stunting of linear growth. Nutrition and survival are strongly related to cystic fibrosis. Cystic Fibrosis can be considered as an energy imbalance. The most common specific nutrient deficiencies in Cystic Fibrosis are the deficiency in fat-soluble vitamins such as vitamin A, Vitamin D, Vitamin E, and Vitamin K. Recent studies highlight the problems with bone density and prevalence of fat-soluble vitamins deficiency. Management of problems related to nutrition can be complex (35-38).

Management

1 Bronchodilator

Cochrane Review 2005 guidelines recommended the use of both short-acting and long-acting β_2 -adrenergic receptor agonists because they provide better outcomes, such as decreased exacerbations or increase the quality of life (QOL) (39).

2 Mucolytic Agents

Nowadays, there are two drugs given through aerosol that have been used to treat abnormal pulmonary secretions in Cystic Fibrosis patients such as N-acetylcysteine and dornase alfa. Both drugs have the same mechanism of action which is to act by disrupting the disulfide bonds in mucus (NAC) or enzymatically breaking down DNA (dornase alfa) in airway secretions (40).

3 Anti-Infectives

3.1 Azithromycin can be used in individuals with persistent *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in airway cultures. Cochrane Review 2005 guidelines highlight the efficacy for improving lung function and reducing exacerbations (41).

3.2 Inhaled Aztreonam attacks *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* which is the most common pathogen that affects the respiratory tract inpatient with Cystic Fibrosis. It is used to improve FEV1 by (6.3 – 10.3) percentage. The dose of inhaled aztreonam ranges from 75 mg up to 225 mg, administered three times daily for 28 days (42, 43).

4 Steroids

Steroids can be given to patients with bronchial hyperreactivity which is a common feature of cystic fibrosis. Patients with intermittent or persistent wheezing have little or no response to inhaled ipratropium bromide, disodium cromoglycate, or inhaled steroids. Some patients respond to bronchodilators alone, but if not, then oral steroids are effective. The suggestion is that prednisolone given on alternate days may help lung function in mildly affected patients (44, 45).

5 CFTR modulators

Utilization of CFTR modulator therapies such as Ivacaftor by a dose of 50-75 mg given twice daily, have been shown to be safe in children 2-5 years of age with CFTR gating mutations. After using Ivacaftor the sweat chloride concentration decreased by a mean of 47 mmol/L and weight, height, and body mass index improved during treatment. After 24 weeks of treatment, the FEV1 increased by (5.5) percentage points and body weight increased by 3.3 kg (46, 47).

6 Lung Transplant

Lung disease is considered a primary cause of death in cystic fibrosis disease; in around 80% of patients (1, 10). Around 14% of all lung transplants are for patients with Cystic Fibrosis. A lung transplant may be under consideration if the Forced Expiratory Volume (FEV1) falls below 30% and the function becomes limited. Some important points should be mentioned before preparation and assessment of patients for transplantation, such as (Optimal Nutrition, Body Mass Index [BMI] less than 17, bone density, control of extrapulmonary manifestations such as Diabetes and liver, and the psychological status because it may affect the adherence to therapy). Additionally, Post-transplant management is very complex and needs good communication between the patient and the transplant center. Also, patient adherence to their immunosuppressant medications is one of the major complications of lung transplantation (10, 48-50).

7 Novel Therapy

Gene Therapy for selective gene mutation has become one of the options that can treat patients who suffer from Cystic Fibrosis, Furthermore, this type of treatment is designed to treat lung disease only (29). Also, new small-molecule agents that aim to facilitate defective CFTR function of processing have now been developed. Ivacaftor is a new agent that has recently been investigated in patients carrying the G551D mutation (6% of all CF patients) (51).

Monitoring

Monitoring of bacterial pathogens should be done regularly (monthly) through throat swabs or specimens of sputum to detect the right antibiotic treatment. A routine following with a health care unit every 1.5 to 3 months is recommended to detect any prognosis and check the medication compliance. Additionally the monitoring includes weight, height, and lung function (including chest radiograph every 6 months). An abdominal ultrasound

development of the condition, such as enlargement in the spleen and gallstone. Finally, it is important to educate and counsel the patient and their family on how to manage the disease (52-54).

Multisystem Co-morbidities

1 Endocrine, and bone mineral.

Cystic fibrosis has a strong relation with reduced bone mineral density (BMD) and an increased incidence rate of fracture (55). The most common endocrine disorder in Cystic Fibrosis patients is Cystic Fibrosis related diabetes (CFRD) (56).

2 Gastrointestinal Health/Nutrition

It is a very important component of Cystic Fibrosis patients' care to achieve an optimal nutritional status and reduce gastrointestinal morbidity. There are specific nutritional parameters that can help in continuing to improve growth in the Cystic Fibrosis population. Also, early diagnosis in pancreatic insufficient patients may lead to increase in adult height and magnitude of growth in a person in a long-term follow-up (57).

3 Thrombosis

Thrombosis is considered a major complication in patients with Cystic Fibrosis. This thrombosis may be for a short duration (weeks) or long duration (years) (58).

4 Mental Health

Depression and anxiety are considered some of the most common important targets of Cystic Fibrosis because research demonstrates that there is a high increased prevalence of Cystic Fibrosis compared to the general population and this can adversely affect other health outcomes (59).

Prevention

1 Mucolytic Agents

Chronic endobronchial sepsis and profuse airway have strong relation with Cystic Fibrosis, So, mucolytic agents are considered one of the good option treatments for Cystic Fibrosis patients. Mucolytic treatment helps in reducing the acute exacerbations. The evidence related to the usage of these drugs is still limited and needs further investigation (60).

2 N-Acetylcysteine

In 1999, a Systematic review article highlighted the use of inhaled N-acetylcysteine as treatment of Cystic Fibrosis, but the finding shows there is no benefit on lung function in short-term and long-term trials. Also, no evidence shows the efficacy in reducing the severity of respiratory exacerbations or the number of episodes in patients who have Cystic Fibrosis (61).

3 Hypertonic saline

Usage of Inhaled hypertonic saline has been shown to increase mucociliary clearance and produce improvements in lung function in people with Cystic Fibrosis in short-term trials (62).

Special Cases

1 Pregnancy

In Cystic Fibrosis, the percentage of premature birth is common, especially in reduced lung function, low body mass index, Cystic Fibrosis-related diabetes, chronic microbial colonization, and transplanted lungs. In this case, the optimization of treatment is recommended during pregnancy planning (63-65).

2 Children

Cystic fibrosis used to be considered a fatal disease of childhood. With improved treatments and better ways to manage the disease, many people with cystic fibrosis now live well into adulthood. Adults with cystic fibrosis experience health problems affecting the respiratory, digestive, and reproductive systems. Also, there are related GIT disturbances in infants with CF dysfunction (66, 67).

Conclusion

As we mentioned before Cystic Fibrosis is considered one of the most common autosomal recessive diseases that is associated with a decrease in the length of age in the Caucasian population and also, it is considered one of the most common life-shortening diseases in the white population in the United States. But, nowadays, the improving state of Cystic Fibrosis has become predominant and the outlook is bright thanks to novel small molecule pharmacological treatments.

DEFINITIONS, ACRONYMS, ABBREVIATIONS

CFTR: Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator

Authors' Contributions

'H. Karrar' supervised the team and direct the research. 'M. Nouh' wrote the nutrition, epidemiology, complication, and Conclusion paragraph. 'A. Alanzi' Wrote the Special Cases paragraphs. 'S. Alharbi' and 'R. Alhendi' will revise the article. 'F. Almutairi' Wrote the diagnosis paragraph. 'H. Alhammad' Wrote the Monitoring paragraph. 'A. Sadeeg' Wrote the Special Cases paragraph. 'M. Alsheikh' Wrote the Introduction paragraph. 'W. Alshaikh' Wrote the Gene Expression paragraph. 'M. Alyahya' Wrote the Pathophysiology paragraph. 'W. Makki' Wrote the Treatment paragraph. 'H. Alhazmi' Wrote the Prevention paragraph. 'A. Almutairi' Wrote the Gene Expression paragraph. The authors had full access to the data and take full responsibility for the integrity of the data. All the authors gave their approval for the submission of the final manuscript.

ORCID URL

Rehab Salah Aldin Alhendi; <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0543-5831>.

Mahmoud Ismail Nouh; <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6264-6996>.

References

1. Horsley A, Cunningham S, Innes A. Cystic Fibrosis (Oxford Respiratory Medicine Library). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; 2011 2011-09.
2. Konstan MW, Pasta DJ, VanDevanter DR, Wagener JS, Morgan WJ. Epidemiologic Study of Cystic Fibrosis: 25 years of observational research. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2021;56(5):823-36.
3. Brown SD, White R, Tobin P. Keep them breathing: Cystic fibrosis pathophysiology, diagnosis, and treatment. *Journal of the American Academy of PAs.* 2017;30(5):23-7.
4. Farrell PM, Rosenstein BJ, White TB, Accurso FJ, Castellani C, Cutting GR, et al. Guidelines for Diagnosis of Cystic Fibrosis in Newborns through Older Adults: Cystic Fibrosis Foundation Consensus Report. *The Journal of Pediatrics.* 2008;153(2):S4-S14.
5. Brown A, Jenkins L, Reid A, Leavy A, McDowell G, McIlroy C, et al. How to perform and interpret the sweat test. *Arch Dis Child Educ Pract Ed.* 2020;105(4):230-5.
6. Rosenstein BJ, Cutting GR. The diagnosis of cystic fibrosis: a consensus statement. Cystic Fibrosis Foundation Consensus Panel. *J Pediatr.* 1998;132(4):589-95.
7. Grosse SD, Boyle CA, Botkin JR, Comeau AM, Kharrazi M, Rosenfeld M, et al. Newborn screening for cystic fibrosis: evaluation of benefits and risks and recommendations for state newborn screening programs. *MMWR Recomm Rep.* 2004;53(Rr-13):1-36.
8. Shteinberg M, Haq IJ, Polineni D, Davies JC. Cystic fibrosis. *Lancet.* 2021;397(10290):2195-211.
9. Miah KM, Hyde SC, Gill DR. Emerging gene therapies for cystic fibrosis. *Expert Rev Respir Med.* 2019;13(8):709-25.
10. Leitch AE, Rodgers HC. Cystic fibrosis. *J R Coll Physicians Edinb.* 2013;43(2):144-50.
11. Moran O. The gating of the CFTR channel. *Cell Mol Life Sci.* 2017;74(1):85-92.
12. Sosnay PR, Raraigh KS, Gibson RL. Molecular Genetics of Cystic Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator: Genotype and Phenotype. *Pediatr Clin North Am.* 2016;63(4):585-98.
13. Savant AP, McColley SA. Cystic fibrosis year in review 2018, part 1. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2019;54(8):1117-28.
14. Wine JJ, Brayden DJ, Hagiwara G, Krouse ME, Law TC, Müller UJ, et al. Cystic fibrosis, the CFTR, and rectifying Cl⁻ channels. *Adv Exp Med Biol.* 1991;290:253-69; discussion 69-72.
15. Lynch JP, 3rd, Sayah DM, Belperio JA, Weigt SS. Lung transplantation for cystic fibrosis: results, indications, complications, and controversies. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med.* 2015;36(2):299-320.
16. Schwarz C, Staab D. [Cystic fibrosis and associated complications]. *Internist (Berl).* 2015;56(3):263-74.
17. Mahenthiralingam E. Emerging cystic fibrosis pathogens and the microbiome. *Paediatr Respir Rev.* 2014;15 Suppl 1:13-5.
18. Akil N, Muhlebach MS. Biology and management of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in cystic fibrosis. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2018;53(S3):S64-s74.
19. Goss CH, Muhlebach MS. Review: *Staphylococcus aureus* and MRSA in cystic fibrosis. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2011;10(5):298-306.
20. Malhotra S, Hayes D, Jr., Wozniak DJ. Cystic Fibrosis and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: the Host-Microbe Interface. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2019;32(3).
21. Drevinek P, Mahenthiralingam E. *Burkholderia cenocepacia* in cystic fibrosis: epidemiology and molecular mechanisms of virulence. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2010;16(7):821-30.
22. Gallagher T, Phan J, Oliver A, Chase AB, England WE, Wandro S, et al. Cystic Fibrosis-Associated *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* Strain-Specific Adaptations and Responses to pH. *J Bacteriol.* 2019;201(7).
23. Green HD, Bright-Thomas R, Kenna DT, Turton JF, Woodford N, Jones AM. *Ralstonia* infection in cystic fibrosis. *Epidemiol Infect.* 2017;145(13):2864-72.
24. Isler B, Kidd TJ, Stewart AG, Harris P, Paterson DL. *Achromobacter* Infections and Treatment Options. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2020;64(11).
25. Kenna DTD, Coward A, Perry C, Pike R, Schaefer U, Turton J, et al. Investigation of a *Pandoraea apista* cluster common to adult and paediatric cystic fibrosis patients attending two hospitals in the same city. *J Med Microbiol.* 2019;68(7):1081-95.
26. Adam D, Roux-Delrieu J, Luczka E, Bonnomet A, Lesage J, Mérol JC, et al. Cystic fibrosis airway epithelium remodelling: involvement of inflammation. *J Pathol.* 2015;235(3):408-19.
27. Nichols D, Chmiel J, Berger M. Chronic inflammation in the cystic fibrosis lung: alterations in inter- and intracellular signaling. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol.* 2008;34(2):146-62.
28. Rock MJ. Newborn Screening for Cystic Fibrosis. *Clinics in Chest Medicine.* 2007;28(2):297-305.
29. Riordan JR, Rommens JM, Kerem B, Alon N, Rozmahel R, Grzelczak Z, et al. Identification of the cystic fibrosis gene: cloning and characterization of complementary DNA. *Science.* 1989;245(4922):1066-73.
30. Castellani C, Assael BM. Cystic fibrosis: a clinical view. *Cell Mol Life Sci.* 2017;74(1):129-40.
31. Bienvenu T, Lopez M, Girodon E. Molecular Diagnosis and Genetic Counseling of Cystic Fibrosis and Related Disorders: New Challenges. *Genes (Basel).* 2020;11(6).
32. Goss CH. Acute Pulmonary Exacerbations in Cystic Fibrosis. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med.* 2019;40(6):792-803.
33. Linsdell P. Mechanism of chloride permeation in the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator chloride channel. *Exp Physiol.* 2006;91(1):123-9.
34. Maule G, Ensink M, Bulcaen M, Carlon MS. Rewriting CFTR to cure cystic fibrosis. *Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci.* 2021;182:185-224.
35. Brownell JN, Bashaw H, Stallings VA. Growth and Nutrition in Cystic Fibrosis. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med.* 2019;40(6):775-91.

36. Kaminski BA, Goldsweig BK, Sidhaye A, Blackman SM, Schindler T, Moran A. Cystic fibrosis related diabetes: Nutrition and growth considerations. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2019;18 Suppl 2:S32-s7.
37. Ratchford TL, Teckman JH, Patel DR. Gastrointestinal pathophysiology and nutrition in cystic fibrosis. *Expert Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 2018;12(9):853-62.
38. van der Haak N, King SJ, Crowder T, Kench A, Painter C, Saxby N. Highlights from the nutrition guidelines for cystic fibrosis in Australia and New Zealand. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2020;19(1):16-25.
39. Halfhide C, Evans HJ, Couriel J. Inhaled bronchodilators for cystic fibrosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2005(4):Cd003428.
40. Henke MO, Ratjen F. Mucolytics in cystic fibrosis. *Paediatr Respir Rev.* 2007;8(1):24-9.
41. Southern KW, Barker PM, Solis-Moya A, Patel L. Macrolide antibiotics for cystic fibrosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2012;11(11):Cd002203.
42. McCoy KS, Quittner AL, Oermann CM, Gibson RL, Retsch-Bogart GZ, Montgomery AB. Inhaled aztreonam lysine for chronic airway Pseudomonas aeruginosa in cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2008;178(9):921-8.
43. Retsch-Bogart GZ, Quittner AL, Gibson RL, Oermann CM, McCoy KS, Montgomery AB, et al. Efficacy and safety of inhaled aztreonam lysine for airway pseudomonas in cystic fibrosis. *Chest.* 2009;135(5):1223-32.
44. Cohen-Cymbarknoh M, Blau H, Shoseyov D, Meizahav M, Efrati O, Armoni S, et al. Intravenous monthly pulse methylprednisolone treatment for ABPA in patients with cystic fibrosis. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2009;8(4):253-7.
45. Pantin CF, Stead RJ, Hodson ME, Batten JC. Prednisolone in the treatment of airflow obstruction in adults with cystic fibrosis. *Thorax.* 1986;41(1):34-8.
46. Taylor-Cousar J, Niknian M, Gilmartin G, Pilewski JM. Effect of ivacaftor in patients with advanced cystic fibrosis and a G551D-CFTR mutation: Safety and efficacy in an expanded access program in the United States. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2016;15(1):116-22.
47. Putman MS, Greenblatt LB, Bruce M, Joseph T, Lee H, Sawicki G, et al. The Effects of Ivacaftor on Bone Density and Microarchitecture in Children and Adults with Cystic Fibrosis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2021;106(3):e1248-e61.
48. Ramos KJ, Smith PJ, McKone EF, Pilewski JM, Lucy A, Hempstead SE, et al. Lung transplant referral for individuals with cystic fibrosis: Cystic Fibrosis Foundation consensus guidelines. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2019;18(3):321-33.
49. Yeung JC, Machuca TN, Chaparro C, Cypel M, Stephenson AL, Solomon M, et al. Lung transplantation for cystic fibrosis. *J Heart Lung Transplant.* 2020;39(6):553-60.
50. Falque L, Gheerbrant H, Saint-Raymond C, Quétant S, Camara B, Briault A, et al. [Selection of lung transplant candidates in France in 2019]. *Rev Mal Respir.* 2019;36(4):508-18.
51. Ramsey BW, Davies J, McElvaney NG, Tullis E, Bell SC, Dřevínek P, et al. A CFTR Potentiator in Patients with Cystic Fibrosis and the G551D Mutation. *New England Journal of Medicine.* 2011;365(18):1663-72.
52. Brown SD, White R, Tobin P. Keep them breathing: Cystic fibrosis pathophysiology, diagnosis, and treatment. *Jaapa.* 2017;30(5):23-7.
53. David TJ. Cystic fibrosis. *Arch Dis Child.* 1990;65(1):152-7.
54. Nissenbaum C, Davies G, Horsley A, Davies JC. Monitoring early stage lung disease in cystic fibrosis. *Curr Opin Pulm Med.* 2020;26(6):671-8.
55. Cairoli E, Eller-Vainicher C, Morlacchi LC, Tarsia P, Rossetti V, Pappalettera M, et al. Bone involvement in young adults with cystic fibrosis awaiting lung transplantation for end-stage respiratory failure. *Osteoporos Int.* 2019;30(6):1255-63.
56. Granados A, Chan CL, Ode KL, Moheet A, Moran A, Holl R. Cystic fibrosis related diabetes: Pathophysiology, screening and diagnosis. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2019;18 Suppl 2: S3-s9.
57. Borgo G, Mastella G, Gasparini P, Zorzanello A, Doro R, Pignatti PF. Pancreatic function and gene deletion F508 in cystic fibrosis. *J Med Genet.* 1990;27(11):665-9.
58. Munck A, Kheniche A, Alberti C, Hubert D, Martine RG, Nove-Josserand R, et al. Central venous thrombosis and thrombophilia in cystic fibrosis: A prospective study. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2015;14(1):97-103.
59. Havermans T, Willem L. Prevention of anxiety and depression in cystic fibrosis. *Curr Opin Pulm Med.* 2019;25(6):654-9.
60. Bell SC, Robinson PJ. Exacerbations in cystic fibrosis: 2 . prevention. *Thorax.* 2007;62(8):723-32.
61. Duijvestijn YC, Brand PL. Systematic review of N-acetylcysteine in cystic fibrosis. *Acta Paediatr.* 1999;88(1):38-41.
62. Robinson M, Regnis JA, Bailey DL, King M, Bautovich GJ, Bye PT. Effect of hypertonic saline, amiloride, and cough on mucociliary clearance in patients with cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1996;153(5):1503-9.
63. Shteinberg M, Taylor-Cousar JL, Durieu I, Cohen-Cymbarknoh M. Fertility and Pregnancy in Cystic Fibrosis. *Chest.* 2021;160(6):2051-60.
64. Lau EM, Moriarty C, Ogle R, Bye PT. Pregnancy and cystic fibrosis. *Paediatr Respir Rev.* 2010;11(2):90-4.
65. Michl RK, Mues S, Mainz JG, Markert UR. [Pregnancy and cystic fibrosis - an overview]. *Z Geburtshilfe Neonatol.* 2015;219(4):170-5.
66. Ranganathan SC, Hall GL, Sly PD, Stick SM, Douglas TA. Early Lung Disease in Infants and Preschool Children with Cystic Fibrosis. What Have We Learned and What Should We Do about It? *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2017;195(12):1567-75.
67. Elbasan B, Tunali N, Duzgun I, Ozcelik U. Effects of chest physiotherapy and aerobic exercise training on physical fitness in young children with cystic fibrosis. *Ital J Pediatr.* 2012;38:2.