

EXPERT
REVIEWSPulmonary alveolar
proteinosis: time to shift?*Expert Rev. Respir. Med.* 9(3), 337–349 (2015)

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Pulmonary alveolar proteinosis (PAP) is categorized into hereditary, secondary and autoimmune PAP (aPAP) types. The common pathogenesis is the ability of the alveolar macrophages to catabolize phagocytized surfactant is affected. Hereditary PAP is caused by mutations involving the GM-CSF signaling, particularly in genes for the GM-CSF receptor and sometimes by GATA2 mutations. Secondary PAP occurs in hematologic malignancies, other hematologic disorders, miscellaneous malignancies, fume and dust inhalation, drugs, autoimmune disorders and immunodeficiencies. aPAP is related to the production of GM-CSF autoantibodies. PAP is characterized morphologically by the inappropriate and progressive 'occupation' of the alveolar spaces by an excessive amount of unprocessed surfactant, limiting gas exchange and gradually exhausting the respiratory reserve. Myeloid cells' immunity deteriorates, increasing the risk of infections. Treatment of PAP is based on its etiology. In aPAP, recent therapeutic advances might shift the treatment option from the whole lung lavage procedure under general anesthesia to the inhalation of GM-CSF 'as needed'.

KEYWORDS: autoimmune pulmonary alveolar proteinosis • granulocyte macrophage-colony stimulating factor • granulocyte macrophage-colony stimulating factor receptors a and b • hereditary pulmonary alveolar proteinosis • inhaled granulocyte macrophage-colony stimulating factor • lung and systemic infections • pulmonary alveolar proteinosis • secondary pulmonary alveolar proteinosis • surfactant • whole lung lavage

First described by Rosen *et al.* in 1958, 27 biopsy-proven patients 'histologically characteristic and similar from one patient to another', with an 'obscure' etiology disease [1]. Pulmonary alveolar proteinosis (PAP) is currently categorized into three etiologic forms: hereditary PAP, secondary PAP and autoimmune PAP (aPAP) [2,3]. In all the above conditions, the common pathogenesis is that the ability of the alveolar macrophages to catabolize phagocytized surfactant through different mechanisms is affected. PAP of any etiology is characterized morphologically by inappropriate and progressive 'occupation' of the alveolar spaces by an excessive amount of unprocessed surfactant, limiting gas exchange and gradually exhausting respiratory reserve, leading to respiratory failure and, if untreated, death. [1,4]. In addition, myeloid cells' immunity deteriorates, increasing the risk of severe lung and systemic infections [2,5,6]. Alveolar interstitial wall inflammation and/or fibrosis in the absence of a superimposed infection or inhaled dusts, almost always lack.

Hereditary PAP**GM-CSF receptor a/b related PAP**

Mutations in *CSF2RB*, the gene encoding for the β -chain of the GM-CSF receptor [7,8], are

monogenetic causes of PAP. They have been reported in a 36-year-old adult patient and in a 9-year-old child. In addition, in 20 cases aged between <1 year and 19 years, PAP was found to be caused by *CSF2RA* gene defects [9]. The protein encoded by the *CSF2RA* gene is the α -chain subunit of the heterodimeric GM-CSF receptor. This receptor regulates the production, differentiation and function of granulocytes and macrophages [10]. Interruption of GM-CSF signaling in the alveolar macrophage impairs the catabolism of surfactant and alveolar debris, thus expanding the intra-alveolar surfactant pool and filling up the alveoli with cellular debris. Additional and alternative factors not known in detail contribute to this process, explaining why subjects with the same disease-causing mutations have very different manifestations of their PAP. or, sometimes, lack the clinical syndrome of PAP (9). Subjects with PAP due to *CSF2RA* mutations are usually females (85%) and more than 55% have a history of consanguinity (9). Although it is a hereditary disease, the age at symptom onset is on average 4 years, ranging between 0.2 and 19 years. Usually, it takes about 1 year until the diagnosis is established (diagnostic latency

0–5.8 years). At presentation, about 70% of the children have dyspnea, more than 15% have tachypnea, 55% have hypoxemia and about one third have global respiratory failure; about 15% are endotracheally intubated and ventilated. Cough was reported to be relatively rare ($\geq 26\%$) (9). The overall outcome reported so far is favorable, that is, the majority ($>90\%$) of patients were alive at the last follow-up; however, only 30% were free of respiratory symptoms. The majority ($>70\%$) were managed by therapeutic whole lung lavages (WLLs; see below for technique). In these children and young adults, several comorbidities were identified, including failure to thrive (55%), hepatomegaly (5%) and pectus excavatum (10%) (9).

GATA2 deficiency

About 20% of the patients with disease-causing mutations in *GATA2*, a zinc finger transcription factor essential for hematopoiesis and lymphatic angiogenesis, have PAP. The additional phenotype of the disease is very wide, including viral and bacterial infections, cytopenias, myelodysplasia, myeloid leukemias and lymphedema. The disease may present at any time in life, mostly in adolescence to early adulthood period [11]. Symptomatic treatment by WLL is possible and the causative treatment is possibly by bone marrow transplantation.

Surfactant dysfunction disorders

Disorders associated with mutations in the surfactant genes, *SFTPB*, *SFTPC*, *ABCA3* and *TTF1*, primarily manifest during the neonatal period and later during infancy and childhood [12–19]. In particular, during presentation in the neonatal period and in infancy, these diseases have histopathological pattern similar to that of PAP. Clinical and radiographic appearance may resemble aPAP [18,19]. In addition to filling of the alveolar spaces with periodic acid-Schiff-1 positive material in these entities, the interstitial tissue is frequently broadened [18]. In agreement with this, WLL treatment does not appear to be helpful (own observations). The prognosis of these diseases is often very limited, with death occurring during early infancy. PAP has also been described in Niemann Pick disease. In particular, in Niemann Pick Type C2 (NPC2) patients, PAP is a presenting feature; WLL has been tried without long-term success [20].

Secondary PAP

Secondary PAP is related to several nosologic conditions [21] such as hematological malignancies [22–34] and other hematological disorders [35–42], miscellaneous malignancies [43–48], inhalation of dusts (both organic and inorganic) and fumes [49–61], drugs [62–67], autoimmune disorders [68–74] and immunodeficiencies with or without associated chronic lung infections (TABLE 1) [11,75–78]. In all the above conditions, the common denominator for the development of PAP relates to an acquired presumed or real inability (transient or permanent) of the alveolar macrophages to handle and catabolize surfactant. Alveolar macrophages may present in reduced numbers with a reduced functional ability to metabolize phagocytized surfactant,

including an acquired loss of GM-CSF signal perception, or in normal numbers but ‘engulfed and occupied’ by a different phagocytized material and others. In some instances, secondary PAP and aPAP may overlap, since some patients developing PAP after dust exposure may also present high titers of anti GM-CSF autoantibodies and vice versa. Patients diagnosed with aPAP may present in their history significant and compatible dust exposure [79,56]. Secondary PAP presents the same imaging and histopathology hallmarks of aPAP, but prognosis may be even worse depending on the associated condition.

Autoimmune PAP

aPAP, the most common form of PAP ($>90\%$ of patients), is caused by the inappropriate production of IgG class autoantibodies against GM-CSF, a 23 kDa hematopoietic cytokine [80,81]. Anti GM-CSF autoantibodies show high affinity and avidity for their target, neutralizing its entire bioactivity on the alveolar macrophages and, thereby, their ability to catabolize phagocytized surfactant, leading to its accumulation in the alveolus and related airspace-occupying consequences.

Till 1996, aPAP was considered idiopathic, after which a new era in its history unfolded when two independent groups of investigators working with GM-CSF-deficient mice made a serendipitous observation of the death of their animals from a disease phenotypically identical to PAP and, therefore, the stimulating role of GM-CSF on alveolar macrophages’ ability to catabolize surfactant became evident [82,83]. Soon after, it also became evident that several lung and systemic infections caused increased mortality in GM-CSF-deficient mice, discovering in this way the second major characteristic of PAP patients, that is, their susceptibility to severe microbial infections [84–89]. In 1999, another group of investigators discovered the presence of high titers of GM-CSF neutralizing autoantibodies and a few years later, their pathogenetic role in the disease was demonstrated by elegant experimental studies on primates [80,90].

aPAP is an ultra-rare disease with a worldwide distribution [4,59,91–93], and its incidence is estimated to be 0.2 cases per million per year [94] and its prevalence is 3.7 patients per million population. It affects males more frequently with a 1.3–2:1 male/female ratio for smokers and a 1:1 ratio for non-smokers, and appears more frequently in the fourth to fifth decade of life [4,59,91,92]. Clinically, the disease presents insidiously with progressively deteriorating exertional dyspnea and chronic cough. In some patients, the disease presents as an unexpected finding on a chest radiogram performed for other reasons, since one-third of the cases are asymptomatic. Fever is uncommon and should alert the physicians for the coexistence of lung or systemic opportunistic infections. On physical examination, finger clubbing is usually absent, though it is reported in some patients [92]; in the absence of lung infection, the chest auscultation is usually normal. Pulmonary function tests in a symptomatic patient present a restrictive pattern with low diffusing capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide (DLCO) and hypoxemia deteriorating on exercise. Pulmonary hypertension is not a characteristic of the disease. Disease progression as well as

the response of patients to treatment modalities may be extremely variable (see below). Occasionally, spontaneous remission may be observed [95,96].

Perilous lung and systemic opportunistic infections constitute a real threat of life in aPAP patients and may influence the sudden slow progression of the disease [97]. Infection-related deaths in PAP are estimated to be around 20% [4]. Several microbial pathogens have been involved in lung and systemic infections in aPAP patients, such as bacteria [91,97–104], mycobacteria [91,97,98,105–109], fungi [91,97,98,110–113], *Pneumocystis jirovecii* spp. [91,97,98,114,115], and viruses (TABLE 2) [91,97,98,116–118]. Infections occur because GM-CSF is necessary for the maturation and integrity of the immune status in differentiated myeloid cells including alveolar macrophages. On the myeloid cells, GM-CSF acts through an increase in the production of the transcription factor PU.1 [2]. PU.1 is necessary for several antimicrobial cell activities such as chemotaxis, cellular adhesion, receptor signaling, cytokines and chemokines production, reactive oxygen species production, microbial Fc receptor-mediated phagocytosis, intracellular killing and others [6]. Analogous functional antimicrobial defects have also been described on the circulating neutrophils, adding to the defects in intra-alveolar and systemic immunity [119].

The diagnosis of aPAP presents no significant difficulties, though the disease frequently remains undiscovered and is confused with other disorders because of its rarity. On chest radiograms, aPAP presents with bilateral diffuse airspace opacities with ground-glass appearance more or less confluent and symmetrical (FIGURE 1). The extension of the infiltrates in most patients is disproportionate to symptom perception that is usually mild or even absent: 'clinoradiologic discrepancy'. Reticular or reticulonodular pattern, as well as airspace consolidation with air bronchograms may also be observed in some patients [120]. The computed tomographic appearance seems even more characteristic showing the so-called 'crazy-paving' pattern, a network of septal lines of the dimensions of the secondary pulmonary lobule upon a 'ground-glass' background (FIGURE 2). The above pattern is characteristic but not pathognomonic of the disease, since it may be observed in

Table 1. Causes of secondary pulmonary alveolar proteinosis.

Hematological disorders/malignancies [22–34]	
Myeloid disorders	Lymphoid disorders
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Myelodysplastic syndrome, • chronic myeloid leukemia, • overlap myeloproliferative neoplasm, • chronic myelomonocytic leukemia, • primary myelofibrosis, • acute myeloid leukemia, • polycythemia vera, • essential thrombocytosis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acute lymphoid leukemia, • lymphoma (Hodgkin's and non-Hodgkin's), • adult T cell leukemia/lymphoma, • thymic lymphoplasia, • cutaneous T cell lymphoma, • chronic lymphocytic leukemia
Miscellaneous hematologic conditions [35–42]	Non-hematologic malignancies [43–48]
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fanconi's anemia, • aplastic anemia, • congenital dyserythropoietic anemia, • multiple myeloma/plasmacytoma, • idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura, • IgG monoclonal gammopathy, • status post-hematopoietic stem cell or bone marrow transplantation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lung cancer, • melanoma, • mesothelioma, • glioblastoma, • thymoma
Dust/fume inhalation [49–61]	Drugs [62–67]
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Silica, • cotton-linen, • cement, • fibrous insulation material, • titanium, • aluminum, • indium, • ONB, • flour, wood, • chlorine gas, NO₂, gasoline, plastics, • fentanyl patch smoke 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sirolimus, • leflunomide, • imatinib mesylate, • mycophenolate mofetil, • cyclosporine, • dasatinib, • busulfan
Autoimmune disorders/others [68–74]	Immunodeficiencies [11,74–78]
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sjögren's syndrome, • GPA, • juvenile dermatomyositis, • Behçet's disease, • ANCA-related vasculitis, • amyloidosis, • Hermansky–Pudlak syndrome 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HIV infection, • DCML syndrome, GATA2 deficiency, • hypogammaglobulinemia/agammaglobulinemia, • IgA deficiency

ANCA: Antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibody; DCML: Dendritic cell, monocyte, B and NK lymphoid; GPA: Granulomatosis with polyangiitis; ONB: Orasol Navy Blue.

other lung disorders such as alveolar hemorrhage, diffuse alveolar damage, *P. jirovecii* species pneumonia or other lung infections, bronchoalveolar carcinoma, lymphangitic carcinomatosis, drug-induced and radiation pneumonitis, hypersensitivity pneumonia, cryptogenic organizing pneumonia and few others. Both macroscopic and microscopic appearances of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid significantly add to diagnosis and may obviate surgical biopsy, which was once considered the gold

Table 2. Opportunistic infections in autoimmune pulmonary alveolar proteinosis.

Bacteria [91,97,105]	Fungi [91,97,98,110–113]
<i>Nocardia</i> spp., <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> , <i>Legionella pneumophila</i>	<i>Aspergillus</i> spp., <i>Cryptococcus</i> spp., <i>Histoplasma capsulatum</i> , <i>Pneumocystis jirovecii</i> [91,97,114,115]
Mycobacteria [91,97,98,105–109]	Viruses [91,97,98,116–118]
<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i> , <i>Mycobacterium avium</i> complex, <i>Mycobacterium kansasii</i>	Epstein–Barr virus, cytomegalovirus, human parainfluenza virus

standard for diagnosis. In most of the patients, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid macroscopically presents a viscid milky appearance and cytology preparations on light microscopy stained with May–Grünwald-Giemsa show a confused background of granular cellular and acellular debris (FIGURE 3) that stains with periodic acid-Schiff which also shows numerous large, engulfed, foamy or degenerated, ‘exploded’ macrophages (FIGURE 4). On biopsy specimens, if necessary for diagnosis, the above-described material is included within the alveolar structures with intact and non-inflammatory walls. Immunohistochemistry discloses surfactant proteins.

Treatment modalities

Treatment of PAP is certainly related to its etiology. Hereditary disease requires mechanical removal of inappropriate surfactant accumulation through WLL procedures as needed [121–123]. Secondary PAP treatment requires the resolution of the etiologic determinant plus the administration of WLL if needed, until the achievement of the primary objective and the remission of the disease. In aPAP, both WLL and the exogenous administration of GM-CSF singularly administered or in combination may benefit patients, and the definition of the best treatment modality is under development.

Whole lung lavage

Nothing sounds more rational than treating an ‘alveolar filling’ disease through an ‘alveolar emptying’ procedure. Indeed, in the early 1960s, Dr. José Ramirez-Rivera conceived of a radical technique combining the blind instillation of warm saline in the lungs through a transtracheal endo-bronchial catheter with physical positioning and violent coughing four-times a day for 2–3 weeks to remove the ‘white viscid material’ that accumulated in the alveolar spaces of PAP patients. This was called ‘segmental flooding’ and was the first therapy in the history of PAP that resulted in reproducible and clinically significant amelioration in the signs and symptoms of the disease [124]. This initially distressing procedure was further developed by Ramirez-Rivera and his co-workers into a trial of WLL under local anesthesia [125–127]. In the last 50 years, the initial WLL technique has been greatly refined and declared as ‘the standard of care’ for the treatment of PAP [4]. Although official

international guidelines are missing, the decision to perform WLL, in the first place, is mostly based on the availability of the technique and the presence of a serious symptomatic disease. The procedure is now performed in an operating room or in an intensive care unit bed under general anesthesia and muscle paralysis, the patient being intubated by a double-lumen endobronchial tube, the appropriate placement of which is checked by bronchoscopy. The patient is placed in the lateral decubitus position with the dependent lung being ventilated with a

high inspiratory oxygen fraction and the non-dependent lung being actively deflated and degassed and then washed. Lavage is performed by the injection of tidal volumes of saline warmed at 37°C that is then drained by gravity through a large-bore tubing system. Manual or mechanical percussion is usually performed to ameliorate drainage. Normally, the initially milky outflow gets less and less opaque to become finally clear after a mean time of a few hours and the instillation of 15–25 l of saline for a single lung lavage. Lavage of the second lung may be performed on the same day, but is usually scheduled in the next 24–48 h. The procedure is safe in the hands of an experienced team and no death or major morbidity has been reported in the last years. However, complications do occur, such as difficulties in oxygenation during the procedure, pneumothorax, pleural effusions, convulsions and fever. The patient is closely monitored and supported and may be extubated a few hours later [4,94,128–130].

In infants and small children, different techniques must be used, since due to size limitations, double-lumen endobronchial tube cannot be placed. Some use bronchoscopic lavage washing segment by segment and others use extracorporeal membrane oxygenation to wash via a tracheal tube. However, the bronchoscopic techniques may lead to local irritation and injury and the extracorporeal membrane oxygenation procedures are quite invasive and cannot be repeated frequently if needed for extensive time periods. We have developed a technique which – having obtained some experience – is feasible in infants and small children [123,131]. Lavage of one lung is done through a pulmonary artery catheter with a balloon, placed into one lung, whereas the other is ventilated through an endotracheal tube. Such a technique may be used over years, until the child is large enough to be lavaged via a double-lumen tube [128].

WLL is so far considered as the ‘standard of care’ for the treatment of PAP. However, due to the rarity and the nature of the disease, randomized prospective trials are lacking in literature, and therefore, our opinion on the true impact of WLL on the natural history of PAP is based on several differently designed, mostly retrospective studies, in which many indices of response to treatment are not uniformly quantified and, therefore, are not reliably documented (TABLE 3). The mortality rate in PAP approached 30% prior to the broad application of WLL. In the 2002 study of Seymour and Presneill where

410 cases of PAP (up to 1998, the year when GM-CSF appeared as a treatment option for idiopathic PAP) were thoroughly examined, a significant 5-year survival benefit of $94 \pm 2\%$ was reported for patients having been treated with WLL, compared with $85 \pm 5\%$ for those not treated with WLL [4]. Furthermore, according to literature reports, PAP patients undergoing WLL show significant amelioration in radiographic, functional and gas exchange parameters such as chest x-ray findings, Forced vital capacity and alveolar-arterial oxygen gradient, and O_2 , as early as 1 week after the procedure. DLCO and exercise limitation improve in a slower and steeper way; however, improvement of all parameters is continuous and sustained in patients presenting with disease remission during follow-up of at least 1–3 years [128,132]. The duration of such benefit varies from 15 months to 3 years between studies. As a result, the number of patients remaining free of disease at 3 years post-WLL ranges from <20 to 70%. [4,128]. A significant number of patients will need repeated WLL sessions. In the study of Campo *et al.* in a referral center in Italy, one-third of patients underwent multiple WLLs, whereas at the Royal Brompton Hospital, the median number of WLLs needed for long-term remission was estimated at 4. An interesting finding from the German cohort of 70 PAP patients is that smokers require on average five WLL sessions to achieve remission, compared to almost half this number for non-smokers. In the same cohort, the number of WLL sessions required to reach remission ranged from 1 to 16 [59,129,133]. In cases where WLL under general anesthesia is too dangerous to perform, successful attempts of WLL through multiple segmental or lobar lavage by fiberoptic bronchoscopy have been reported [134–136].

Inhaled GM-CSF

Soon after the recognition of the role of GM-CSF in the etiology of aPAP, several groups of investigators attempted the administration of GM-CSF through different routes, extrapulmonary and inhaled, in experimental animals, co-opting for the inhaled route because of its efficacy [137]. Different groups of contemporary investigators attempted the subcutaneous administration of GM-CSF in humans, which proved somewhat unexpectedly effective in most but not all patients (TABLE 4) [138–148]. Again, around the same time, a single case report, also in humans with aPAP, proved the effectiveness of the inhaled route of GM-CSF administration [149]. Subsequent studies confirmed the effectiveness of the inhalational route of administration in aPAP, as well as its superiority (TABLE 4) [150–152]. In addition to the above studies, few other case reports confirmed the effectiveness of inhaled GM-CSF (iGM-CSF) in treating aPAP. They comprise a total of seven patients who received iGM-CSF in a dose of 250–500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{day}$, and all but one responded [149–158]. These case reports add to the existing literature and further confirm that iGM-CSF is an effective treatment for aPAP. From the above inhalational studies [149–158], it appears that GM-CSF administration for 12–24 weeks and occasionally for longer periods, and by using slightly different dosage schedules, proved safe in all, but was effective only in a



Figure 1. Posteroanterior chest radiogram showing bilateral airspace infiltrates asymmetrically distributed in a young lady with autoimmune pulmonary alveolar proteinosis. No lymphadenopathy, cardiomegaly or pleural fluids are evident.

proportion of patients, thus dividing them into responders and non-responders, with the only therapeutic alternative for non-responders being the WLL approach.

More recently, in a study including six patients with aPAP, our group of investigators attempted a different schedule of GM-CSF inhalation, focusing on the effectiveness and safety of a very long-term administration of the drug, in order to obviate non-responders (TABLE 4) [159]. The reasons for the modification of the already published schedules were as follows: the extreme severity of the disease of two patients leaving in the antechamber of intubation, the non-availability of a reliable WLL clinic in Greece and the ineffectiveness of WLL performed in centers

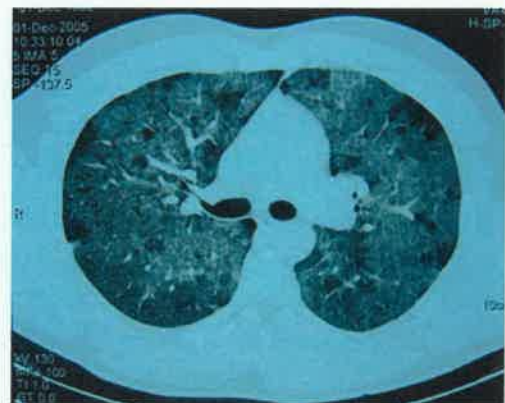


Figure 2. A computed tomography scan of the chest, showing 'the crazy-paving' pattern of airspace opacities in a young male with autoimmune pulmonary alveolar proteinosis.

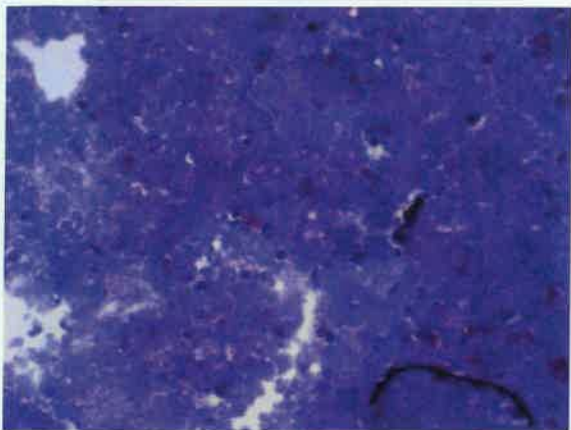


Figure 3. Bronchoalveolar lavage cytology preparations on light microscopy stained with May-Grünwald-Giemsa, showing a confused background of granular cellular and acellular debris.

of excellence abroad since two other patients had undergone 64 and 14 WLL procedures, respectively, and still needed more. We followed a specific treatment protocol according to which 250 mcg of iGM-CSF was administered once daily for 4 days followed by 4 days of abstinence (4 days on and 4 days off). This therapeutic scheme was continued until the achievement of disease remission (defined as the two of the following three criteria: absence of dyspnea on exertion, oxygen desaturation during 6 minute walking test lower than 4% and significant improvement of infiltrates on chest x-ray). When remission was achieved, the dose of iGM-CSF was decreased. All patients achieved disease remission (all responders) and surprisingly, they continued to improve (according to the results of the radiological and functional examinations) even with lower doses of iGM-CSF, allowing us to further reduce dosage

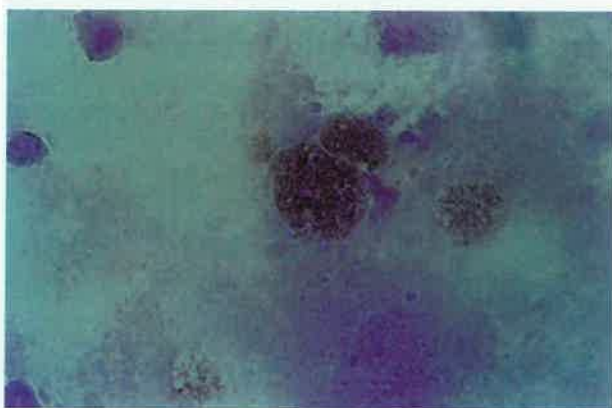


Figure 4. Bronchoalveolar lavage cytology preparations on light microscopy stained with periodic acid-Schiff, showing numerous large, engulfed, foamy or degenerated, 'exploded' macrophages upon a granular background.

and define the lowest effecting dose for each patient. If the decrease in administered dose of the iGM-CSF resulted in disease deterioration (it was observed in two patients), the patients were advised to return to the previous dose that proved to be effective. To date, all patients are in remission and receive the lowest effective dose. Finally, in order to investigate the safety of the very long-term administration of the iGM-CSF, especially its bone marrow overstimulation, specific tests were performed including complete blood cell counts, assessment of CD34⁺ cells, detection of granulocyte macrophage progenitor colony-forming units and burst forming unit erythroid before and after therapy with iGM-CSF. The aforementioned tests did not reveal any abnormality in any of our patients.

From the above study, it became evident for the first time that: iGM-CSF may prove effective in all, but 'needs time'; 'de-escalation' of the inhaled dose is possible after 'remission attainment', maintaining or even further extending improvement; the definition of a 'lowest effective dose' in aPAP patients is achievable, minimizing costs; and finally the eventually needed 'very long-term' administration appears safe because no stimulatory activity on hematopoiesis was observed in any patient [159]. Actually, in an era where new efficacious treatments of aPAP such as iGM-CSF are emerging, the future of what is considered so far as the 'standard of care' for the treatment of PAP should be re-examined. Its role in the modification of response to iGM-CSF and in combination treatment strategies should be extensively studied based on the evidence that the partial restoration of the alveolar microenvironment following WLL could facilitate the action of iGM-CSF accelerating time to remission and anticipating dose de-escalation [159,160]. Furthermore, despite evidence for its efficacy in the treatment of aPAP, the administration of iGM-CSF as a sole therapy or in combination with WLL remains still 'off label'. This is most probably due to the lack of randomized controlled trials related to the rarity of the disease, which are needed to obtain official approval. The 'off-label' status of iGM-CSF in combination with its high cost creates many ethical, legal and policy problems, all of which are being faced only by patients and physicians and not by health authorities as they ought to. It is our belief and suggestion that the already gathered scientific evidence should encourage conducting properly designed studies empowered not only to prove the efficacy of iGM-CSF but also to justify the official approval of the drug as the mainstay of treatment in aPAP.

Other treatments

Although aPAP is caused by anti-GM-CSF autoantibodies, conventional immunosuppression has not been effective. Rituximab is a chimeric monoclonal antibody targeted against protein CD20 on the surface of B cells. Thus, rituximab, depleting the B cells, could reduce the production of anti-GM-CSF autoantibodies and be effective in treating aPAP. In the study of Kavuru *et al.* [161], 10 aPAP patients were treated with rituximab, which resulted in significant improvement in oxygenation and a reduction in anti-GM-CSF IgG levels in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid, although the serum levels of

Table 3. Comparison between published cohorts of patients with pulmonary alveolar proteinosis treated with whole lung lavage.

Study (year)	Patients lavaged/ total number of patients (%)	Median n of WLL performed (range)	Median duration of clinical benefit from WLL	Responders (free of recurrence)	Ref.
Seymour <i>et al.</i> (2002)	146/231 (54%)	2 (1–22)	15 months	20% beyond 3 years	[4]
Briens <i>et al.</i> (2002)	25/41 (61%)	Not reported	Not reported	92% (time not reported)	[92]
Inoue <i>et al.</i> (2008)	Not reported/248	Not reported	Not reported	Not reported	[91]
Xu <i>et al.</i> (2009)	140/241 (59%)	1.06 (not reported)	Not reported	Not reported	[93]
Bonella <i>et al.</i> (2011)	63/70 (90%)	3.9 (1–16)	Not reported	52% (time to remission 3.7 ± 3.4 years)	[59]

WLL: Whole lung lavage.

anti-GM-CSF autoantibodies were not reduced. Similar is the rationale for using plasmapheresis in aPAP, that is, depletion of circulating anti-GM-CSF autoantibodies. There are only few case reports describing this treatment modality with conflicting results [162–164]. However, we remain skeptical if a patient with a condition such as PAP that predisposes to severe lung infections should receive an immunosuppressive therapy, and similar criticism on the use of immunosuppressive therapy in these patients was already considered earlier when a low-intensity regimen was adopted to reduce complications [162,163].

Pulmonary macrophage transplantation therapy is on the horizon and has been established in mouse models which develop a myeloid cell disorder identical to hereditary PAP in children with *CSF2RA* or *CSF2RB* mutations [165].

In conclusion, in aPAP, recent therapeutic advances might shift the treatment option from the WLL procedure under general anesthesia to the inhalation of GM-CSF ‘as needed’. As already expressed in a previous editorial, ‘the sleeping beauty, aPAP, may need no more... water bucket challenge, WLL, but just a kiss from her... beloved drug, inhaled GM-CSF’ [166].

Expert commentary

WLL is considered so far as the ‘standard of care’ for the treatment of PAP. However, due to the rarity and the nature of the disease, randomized prospective trials are lacking in literature, and therefore, our opinion on the true impact of WLL on the natural history of PAP is based on several differently designed, mostly retrospective studies, in which many indices of response to treatment are not uniformly quantified and, therefore, are not reliably documented. Soon after the recognition of the role of GM-CSF in the etiology of aPAP, several groups of investigators attempted the administration of GM-CSF through different routes, extrapulmonary and inhaled, initially in experimental animals and subsequently in humans, co-opting for the inhaled route because of its efficacy. From the inhalational studies, it appeared that GM-CSF administration for

12–24 weeks and occasionally for longer periods, and by using slightly different dosage schedules, proved safe in all, but was effective only in a proportion of patients, thus dividing them into responders and non-responders, with the only therapeutic alternative for non-responders being the WLL.

More recently, a different schedule of GM-CSF inhalation, focusing on the effectiveness and safety of a very long-term administration of the drug in order to obviate non-responders was attempted. From this last study, it became evident for the first time that: iGM-CSF may prove effective in all, but ‘needs time’; ‘de-escalation’ of the inhaled dose is possible after ‘remission attainment’; maintaining or even further extending improvement, the definition of a ‘lowest effective dose’ in aPAP patients is achievable minimizing costs; and finally the eventually needed ‘very long-term’ administration appears safe because no stimulatory activity on hematopoiesis was observed in any patient.

Five-year view

Despite evidence for its efficacy in the treatment of aPAP, the administration of iGM-CSF as a sole therapy or in combination with WLL still remains ‘off label’. This is most probably due to the lack of randomized controlled trials related to the rarity of the disease, which are needed to obtain official approval. The ‘off-label’ status of iGM-CSF in combination with its high cost creates many ethical, legal and policy problems, all of which are being faced only by patients and physicians and not by health authorities as they ought to. It is our belief and suggestion that the already gathered scientific evidence should encourage conducting properly designed studies empowered not only to prove the efficacy of iGM-CSF but also to justify official approval of the drug as the mainstay of treatment in aPAP.

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Table 4. Published studies of GM-CSF treatment in pulmonary alveolar proteinosis.

Study (year)	Patients (n)	Route of administration	GM-CSF dosage schedule	Treatment duration	Time to perceptible response	Responders	Ref.
Kavuru <i>et al.</i> (2000)	4	Subcutaneous	250 µg/day, if needed increase to 5 µg/kg/day in the fifth week, and if needed, increase to 7–9 µg/kg/day in the ninth week	12 weeks	8–12 weeks	3/4 (75%)	[140]
Seymour <i>et al.</i> (2001)	11	Subcutaneous	3 µg/kg/day, increase to 5 µg/kg/day on the sixth day; if no hematologic response, increase to 7.5–10–15–20–30 µg/kg every other 3 days at least	10–26 weeks	6–10 weeks	6/14 (43%)	[139]
Tazawa <i>et al.</i> (2005)	3	Inhalational	125 µg/kg/day b.i.d. every other week	24	Not available	3/3 (100%)	[150]
Venkateshiah <i>et al.</i> (2006)	25	Subcutaneous	250 µg/day, increase to 5 µg/kg/day in the second month, increase again to 9 µg/kg/day in the third month. If no response, increase to 12–18 µg/kg/day	12–52 weeks	8–12 weeks	12/25 (48%)	[142]
Case reports	8	Subcutaneous	3–8 µg/kg/day	8–12 weeks	8–12 weeks	7/8 (88%)	[138,141,143–148]
Wylam <i>et al.</i> (2006)	12	Inhalational	250 µg b.i.d. every other week; if no response, after 12 weeks, increase to 500 µg/kg/day b.i.d. every other week	>12 weeks	4 weeks	11/12 (92%)	[151]
Tazawa <i>et al.</i> (2010)	39	Inhalational	125 µg b.i.d. on days 1–8, 0 µg on days 9–14 for six 2-week cycles, then 125 µg/kg/day on days 1–4, 0 µg on days 5–14 for six 2-week cycles	24 weeks	12 weeks	24/39 (62%)	[152]
Case reports	7	Inhalational	250–500 µg/day in alternate weeks	24–56 weeks	12–56 weeks	6/7 (86%)	[149,153–158]
Papiris <i>et al.</i> (2014)	6	Inhalational	250 µg/day, days 1–4; 0 µg days 5–8; and upon remission, de-escalation to 250 µg/day, days 1–3; 0 µg days 4–8 with further de-escalation to 250 µg/day days 1–2; 0 µg days 3–8 in case of persistence of remission	14–65 months	14–38 months (remission)	6/6 (100%)	[159]

b.i.d.: Two-times a day.

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Key issues

- Pulmonary alveolar proteinosis (PAP) is categorized as hereditary, secondary and autoimmune PAP (aPAP).
- Hereditary PAP is caused by mutations involving the GM-CSF signaling, particularly in genes for the GM-CSF receptor and sometimes by mutations in *GATA2*, *NPC*, *SFTPB*, *SFTPC*, *ABCA3* and *TTF1*.
- Secondary PAP occurs in hematologic malignancies, other hematologic disorders, miscellaneous malignancies, fume and dust inhalation, drugs, autoimmune disorders and immunodeficiencies.
- aPAP is related to production of GM-CSF autoantibodies.
- Anti-GM-CSF autoantibodies have high affinity and avidity for their target, neutralizing its entire bioactivity on the alveolar macrophages and, thereby, their ability to catabolize phagocytized surfactant, leading to its alveolar accumulation and related airspace-occupying consequences.
- aPAP is an ultra-rare disease with a worldwide distribution.
- Treatment of PAP certainly relates to its etiology.
- Hereditary disease due to mutations in the GM-CSF receptor require mechanical removal of the inappropriate surfactant accumulated through whole lung lavage procedures as needed.
- Secondary PAP treatment requires the resolution of the etiologic determinant plus the administration of whole lung lavage, if needed, until the achievement of the primary objective and the remission of the disease.
- In aPAP, both whole lung lavage and the exogenous administration of GM-CSF, singularly administered or in combination, may benefit patients, and the definition of the best treatment modality is under development.

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