

PULMONARY HYPERTENSION (JR KLINGER, SECTION EDITOR)

# Medical Management of Pulmonary Hypertension with Unclear and/or Multifactorial Mechanisms (Group 5): Is There a Role for Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension Medications?

Jason Weatherald<sup>1,2,3,4</sup> · Laurent Savale<sup>1,2,3</sup> · Marc Humbert<sup>1,2,3</sup>

Published online: 18 October 2017 © Springer Science+Business Media, LLC 2017

#### Abstract

*Purpose of Review* The purpose of this review was to outline the mechanisms and to review recent literature on pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH) medications in group 5 pulmonary hypertension (PH).

*Recent Findings* The first steps in management are to understand the mechanisms and hemodynamic profile and to exclude chronic thromboembolic disease. Recent studies in the past 5 years have found that PAH medications may improve hemodynamics in patients with pre-capillary pulmonary hypertension due to sarcoidosis, pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis, lymphangioleiomyomatosis, and myeloproliferative disorders with dasatinib-induced PH. Improvements in exercise capacity are uncommon, and no survival benefit has been demonstrated. There is a risk of pulmonary edema in patients with pulmonary venous involvement or fibrosing mediastinitis when treated with PAH therapies.

*Summary* There is limited evidence supporting the use of PAH medications in group 5 patients, and they may be harmful in certain cases. In most patients with group 5 PH,

This article is part of the Topical Collection on Pulmonary Hypertension

Marc Humbert marc.humbert@aphp.fr

- <sup>1</sup> Univ. Paris–Sud, Faculté de Médecine, Université Paris-Saclay, Le Kremlin Bicêtre, France
- <sup>2</sup> AP-HP, Service de Pneumologie, Hôpital Bicêtre, Le Kremlin Bicêtre, France
- <sup>3</sup> INSERM UMR\_S 999, Hôpital Marie Lannelongue, Le Plessis-Robinson, France
- <sup>4</sup> Department of Medicine, Division of Respirology, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB, Canada

treatment should be directed to the underlying disease with PAH therapies reserved for patients with severe pre-capillary PH.

**Keywords** Pulmonary arterial hypertension · PAH · Group 5 pulmonary hypertension · Hypertension treatment

# Introduction

Pulmonary hypertension (PH) is classified into five groups according to similar underlying pathophysiology, hemodynamic profiles, and management strategies [1]. Group 5 consists of rare diseases that are associated with PH through multifactorial and/or poorly understood mechanisms (Table 1). Potential mechanisms vary between and within each condition, but may include pulmonary vasoconstriction, proliferation, and fibrosis of the pulmonary arteries and veins, parenchymal and vascular destruction, extrinsic compression or proximal pulmonary vessels, high cardiac output, and elevated left heart pressure (Fig. 1) [2, 3].

The objectives of the current review are to outline the pathophysiologic mechanisms of group 5 PH, to critically evaluate recent literature to address the role of therapies approved in group 1 PAH (pulmonary arterial hypertension, PAH) in each condition, and to clarify the role of other emerging or established medical therapies for group 5 PH.

# **Chronic Hemolytic Anemias**

PH is a significant complication of chronic hemolytic anemias, particularly sickle cell disease (SCD), but also other hemolytic anemias [4–6]. The pathophysiology of PH due to chronic hemolytic anemia is not fully understood, but multiple

Table 1 5th World Symposium clinical classification of pulmonary hypertension

1. Pulmonary arterial hypertension
1.1 Idiopathic PAH
1.2 Heritable PAH
1.2.1 BMPR2
1.2.2 ALK-1, ENG, SMAD9, CAV1, KCNK3
1.2.3 Unknown
1.3 Drug and toxin induced
1.4 Associated with:
1.4.1 Connective tissue disease
1.4.2 HIV infection
1.4.3 Portal hypertension
1.4.4 Congenital heart diseases
1.4.5 Schistosomiasis
1'. Pulmonary veno-occlusive disease and/or pulmonary capillary hemangiomatosis
1". Persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn (PPHN)
2. Pulmonary hypertension due to left heart disease
2.1 Left ventricular systolic dysfunction
2.2 Left ventricular diastolic dysfunction
2.3 Valvular disease
2.4 Congenital/acquired left heart inflow/outflow tract obstruction and congenital cardiomyopathies
3. Pulmonary hypertension due to lung diseases and/or hypoxia
3.1 Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
3.2 Interstitial lung disease
3.3 Other pulmonary diseases with mixed restrictive and obstructive pattern
3.4 Sleep-disordered breathing
3.5 Alveolar hypoventilation disorders
3.6 Chronic exposure to high altitude
3.7 Developmental lung diseases
4. Chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension (CTEPH)
5. Pulmonary hypertension with unclear multifactorial mechanisms
5.1 Hematologic disorders: chronic hemolytic anemia, myeloproliferative disorders, splenectomy
5.2 Systemic disorders: sarcoidosis, pulmonary histiocytosis, lymphangioleiomyomatosis

- 5.3 Metabolic disorders: glycogen storage disease, Gaucher disease, thyroid disorders
- 5.4 Others: tumoral obstruction, fibrosing mediastinitis, chronic renal failure, segmental PH

mechanisms are thought to contribute. The histological lesions observed in SCD are different than those observed in idiopathic PAH and mainly include in situ thrombosis, intimal and medial hypertrophy, and capillary hemangiomatosis [7, 8]. Moreover, hemodynamics are most often characterized by moderate elevation of pulmonary pressure with high cardiac output and/or post-capillary PH with an elevated pulmonary artery wedge pressure (PAWP) [5, 6]. Chronic hemolysis may lead to depletion of nitric oxide (NO) and its precursors, due to scavenging of endothelial derived NO by free hemoglobin, thereby impairing vascular endothelial function [9, 10]. Hemolysis promotes a hypercoagulable state via several pathways including NO depletion, platelet activation, and functional asplenia, which promote in situ thrombosis. Of note, cases of chronic thromboembolic PH (CTEPH, group 4 PH) have been reported in SCD, and some patients can be successfully treated with pulmonary endarterectomy [11] or balloon pulmonary angioplasty. The high cardiac output due to chronic anemia also may induce endothelial dysfunction from flowinduced shear stress.

In SCD, the estimated prevalence of PH ranges between 5 and 10% of patients, half of which correspond to pre-capillary PH (mPAP  $\geq$  25 mmHg and PAWP  $\leq$  15 mmHg). Because of the detrimental impact of PH on functional status and overall survival, early detection and adapted management are necessary [4, 7]. Prospective studies failed to demonstrate efficacy of PAH therapies and suggested specific safety issues in SCD patients. Two randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled studies assessed the effect of bosentan, a dual endothelin receptor antagonist (ERA), in SCD-associated PH. The ASSET-1 and ASSET-2 studies enrolled patients with pre-capillary and post-capillary PH. Due to insufficient enrolment (n = 26), these studies were terminated early and the primary efficacy end points (pulmonary vascular resistance [PVR] and 6-minute walk distance [6MWD]) were not analyzed [12]. The effect of sildenafil, a phosphodiesterase type 5 inhibitor (PDE5i), was studied in patients with increased tricuspid regurgitation velocity and a low exercise capacity (Table 2). This study was stopped because of a significant increase in hospitalization for pain in patients treated with sildenafil [13]. Therefore, PAH medication initiation in this population should probably be discussed only on a case-by-case basis and, more specifically, should be restricted to patients with severe pre-capillary PH with cardiac output impairment. Another alternative strategy in the management of PH in these patients is to intensify treatment of the underlying disease either by the initiation of treatment with hydroxycarbamide and/or by initiating an exchange transfusion program. This alternative therapeutic approach is important to consider and must be also properly and prospectively evaluated [14•].

PH is also observed in other chronic hemolytic anemias such as hereditary spherocytosis, stomatocytosis, thalassemia, and paroxysmal nocturnal hematuria. Sildenafil therapy was evaluated in a non-randomized cohort of thalassemia patients with a Doppler-defined high risk of PH (n = 10), which resulted in improvement in New York Heart Association (NYHA) functional class and a moderate decrease in tricuspid regurgitation velocity; however, there was no improvement in 6MWD [15]. No data are available for PAH therapies in the other chronic hemolytic diseases.

Fig. 1 Mechanisms of increased pulmonary arterial pressure in patients with group 5 pulmonary hypertension



#### **Myeloproliferative Disorders**

Myeloproliferative disorders (MPD), including chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML), polycythemia rubra vera (PRV), essential thrombocytosis (ET), and primary myelofibrosis, are clonal hematopoietic diseases which may lead to PH through several potential mechanisms (Fig. 1) [3, 16]. Hyperviscosity, platelet activation, and thrombosis occur in PRV and ET, which may lead to CTEPH [17]. Splenectomy, which may be a treatment for MPDs, is also associated with CTEPH and a plexogenic arteriopathy resembling pathologic changes observed in idiopathic PAH [18, 19]. Medications used to treat MPDs may also cause PH: pulmonary veno-occlusive disease (PVOD) has been associated with anagrelide use for MPD and myelodysplastic syndrome [20], and dasatinib, a tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI) used in CML, can cause pre-capillary pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH) [21]. Portal hypertension, pulmonary infiltration by hematopoietic cells, and extramedullary hematopoiesis may also lead to pre-capillary PH [17, 22, 23]. Lastly, a highcardiac output state may also increase pulmonary artery pressure, or can cause left ventricular dysfunction and post-capillary PH (Fig. 1) [16, 22, 24]. The incidence of pre-capillary PH in MPDs is not known as many studies demonstrating PH used only echocardiography and did not perform right heart catheterization [25–28].

Given the heterogeneity and rarity of PH in MPDs, there are limited data to guide the use of PAH-specific therapies. Generally, the prognosis of patients with MPDs and PH is

Author, date of publication	Drug	Number of patients	Inclusion criteria	Primary endpoints	Results
Barst, 2010	Bosentan	26	<ul> <li>ASSET 1</li> <li>mPAP ≥ 25 mmHg / PAWP ≤ 15 mmHg</li> <li>PVR ≥ 160 dynes</li> <li>6MWD 150-450 m</li> <li>ASSET 2</li> <li>mPAP ≥ 25 mmHg</li> <li>PCWP ≤ 15 mmHg and PVR 100-160 dynes</li> <li>or PAWP 16-25 mmHg and PVR &gt; 100 dynes</li> </ul>	Change in PVR at week 16	<ul> <li>Studies were terminated due to slow site initiation and patient enrolment</li> <li>Primary end points not analyzed</li> <li>Non-significant decreases in PVR were observed with bosentan</li> </ul>
Machado, 2011	Sildenafil	74	- TRV ≥ 2.7 m/s - 6MWD 150–500 m	Change in 6MWD at week 16	<ul> <li>Study was stopped early due to a higher percentage of serious adverse events in the sildenafil arm</li> <li>Sildenafil appeared to increase hospitalization rates for pain in patients with SCD</li> <li>No significant effect on 6MWD</li> </ul>

 Table 2
 Prospective controlled trials with specific PAH medications in sickle cell disease-associated PH

6MWD six-minute walk distance, PAWP pulmonary artery wedge pressure, SCD sickle cell disease, TRV tricuspid regurgitation velocity

poor [29]. Cytoreductive therapy with agents such as hydroxyurea can control MPD but may not necessarily improve PH [29, 30]. A recent case report described resolution of PAH in a patient with myelofibrosis after allogeneic hematopoeitic stem cell transplant, allowing the discontinuation of PAH therapies [31]. In patients with CTEPH associated with MPDs, the treatment of choice is pulmonary endarterectomy [32]; however, some patients may not be candidates for surgery. Riociguat, a stimulator of soluble guanylate cyclase, may be considered for symptomatic patients with inoperable CTEPH or in those with residual PH post endarterectomy [33, 34]; however, there are no published data on riociguat use specifically in CTEPH related to MPDs. In patients with PAH induced by dasatinib, discontinuation of dasatinib alone may result in resolution or improvement of PAH [21, 35•]. We have recently reported 21 cases of dasatinib-induced PAH, most of which had CML. PAH therapies (n = 8) or calcium channel blockers (n = 2) were used in 10 patients with more severe hemodynamic abnormalities at baseline. Treated patients had similar long-term clinical and hemodynamic outcomes when compared to those who were untreated  $[35 \cdot]$ . We thus suggest that dasatinib-induced PAH patients with severe symptoms (NYHA III or IV) or with severe hemodynamic impairment (CI < 2.5-3.0 L/min/m<sup>2</sup>) receive PAH therapies in addition to discontinuing dasatinib [35•, 36]. Small case series and case reports have described the use of epoprostenol, ERAs, and PDE5i in patients with precapillary PAH with MPDs; however, there are inadequate data to determine whether these medications are safe or effective [17, 23, 29].

In a recent study by Tabarroki et al., ruxolitinib, an oral Janus kinase (JAK) inhibitor, improved echocardiographic measures of mean right ventricular systolic pressure (RVSP) from 50.6 to 35.6 mmHg, increased NO levels, and reduced NT-pro BNP and inflammatory cytokine levels in patients with myelofibrosis and PH [37]. These results suggest that abnormal JAK signaling in myelofibrosis may promote PH through NO depletion or through elevations in key inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin (IL)-6, which is known to be involved in the pathogenesis of group 1 PAH [37-40]. Paradoxically, a patient with mild resting PH on echocardiogram (RVSP 43 mmHg) developed severe pre-capillary PH and right ventricular dysfunction shortly after starting ruxolitinib for JAK2 mutation-positive myelofibrosis, which improved significantly after stopping ruxolitinib, suggesting a drug-induced aggravation [41]. Whether the beneficial effects of ruxolitinib are limited to patients without precapillary PH is unclear. Right heart catheterizations were not performed in the study by Tabarroki et al. so hemodynamic profiles of PH (pre-capillary, high cardiac output, post-capillary) were not known [37].

#### Splenectomy

The prevalence of splenectomy is increased in cohorts of patients with idiopathic PAH and CTEPH [18, 19]. A plexogenic arteriopathy has been observed in these patients, but distal or proximal chronic thromboembolic sequela mainly characterized the vascular pathological lesions in this setting. In the international prospective CTEPH registry, 3.4% of patients had a history of splenectomy [42]. These cases were more frequently associated with non-operability, highlighting the role of in situ thrombosis in distal CTEPH. The hypercoaguable state in asplenism could be due to abnormal post-splenectomy erythrocytes and platelet microparticles [43].

The assessment of patients with post-splenectomyassociated PH is based firstly on an evaluation for postembolic lesions. In cases with confirmed CTEPH, the management should be identical to other patients in group 4 (Table 1). Endarterectomy must be discussed for patients with proximal CTEPH. In patients with distal lesions, medical therapies and balloon pulmonary angioplasty are potential treatment options. The proportions of patients with a history of splenectomy in prospective clinical trials evaluating bosentan or riociguat in non-operable or recurrent CTEPH were not mentioned [33, 44]. Therefore, no specific data on medical therapies efficacy in this population are available.

#### Sarcoidosis

Pulmonary vascular involvement is frequently observed in sarcoidosis, particularly in the advanced stage of the disease. The mechanisms that lead to PH in sarcoidosis are multiple and often combined. This observation justifies the classification of sarcoidosis-associated PH as group 5 PH. In cases of post-capillary PH on right heart catheterization (mPAP  $\geq$  25 mmHg and PAWP > 15 mmHg), specific left heart diseases or pulmonary vein compression by fibrosing mediastinitis must be systematically sought. In the setting of pre-capillary PH (mPAP > 25 mmHg and PAWP  $\leq$  15 mmHg), three main mechanisms have been identified and must be discerned in order to appropriately adapt patient management [45]. Pre-capillary PH may be secondary to parenchymal fibrosis leading to vascular bed destruction and/or vascular remodeling due to chronic hypoxia. In this situation, pulmonary pressures are usually moderately elevated (< 35 mmHg) and cardiac output remains conserved for a long time, as is often observed in group 3 PH due to lung diseases (Table 1). Some patients may develop more severe pre-capillary PH, suggesting the development of a granulomatous pulmonary vasculopathy. Several studies have reported both arterial and venular involvement combining typical sarcoid granulomata in the vascular wall and pulmonary vascular remodeling, leading to progressive elevation of PVR [45-47]. The last potential

Fig. 2 Main mechanisms of precapillary pulmonary hypertension and specific management in sarcoidosis. *PH* pulmonary hypertension, *PAH* pulmonary arterial hypertension



mechanism of PH is compressive mediastinal infiltration by adenopathy or fibrosing mediastinitis (Fig. 2) [48•]. Whatever the identified mechanism, PH is a major prognostic factor and impairs the functional capacity of patients with sarcoidosis. The 5-year-survival rate of sarcoidosis-associated PH was approximately 40% in a previous study [49] and 55% in a more recent study from our group [50••].

Therefore, screening for PH, accurate diagnosis of PH, and selection of an optimal treatment strategy are important issues in sarcoidosis. However, recommendations on the specific management of sarcoidosis-associated PH are lacking. The therapeutic strategy for such patients is mainly based on cohort studies with low numbers, uncontrolled trials, or clinical cases whose results are sometimes discordant. The use of PAH-specific medications could be an interesting option in selected patients with specific vascular involvement, but this remains to be adequately evaluated. Only one prospective randomized controlled trial reported a beneficial effect of bosentan on pulmonary hemodynamics at 16 weeks; however, there was no improvement in exercise capacity [51...]. Similarly, other retrospective studies observed improvement in hemodynamics with different PAH-targeted medications [52] or prostacyclin therapy [53•] without clear effects on exercise capacity. In our recent study of 126 patients with sarcoidosis-associated PH from the French PH Registry, PVR significantly improved from 9.7  $\pm$  4.4 to 6.9  $\pm$  3.0 Wood units and NYHA functional class improved in the 97 patients who received PAH therapies, but without a significant improvement in 6MWD [50..]. A major issue with PAHtargeted therapy in patients with parenchymal lung disease is the potential risk of worsening gas exchange due to worsening ventilation/perfusion mismatch. Their impact on gas exchange should be regularly assessed irrespective of the class of drugs used. Therefore, we consider that initiation of such therapies should be avoided in cases with advanced fibrosis and severe gas exchange impairment.

The effect of immunosuppressive therapy on sarcoidosisassociated PH needs to be specifically evaluated in patients with compressive lymphadenopathy or with specific arterial involvement by an inflammatory process. 18F-FDG PET scans may be helpful to detect patients with sarcoidosisassociated PH who might respond to immunosuppressive therapy [50...]. Isolated cases of hemodynamic improvement have been reported with immunosuppressive therapies alone [45, 50••]. In cases of pulmonary vascular stenosis from external compression, therapeutic successes have been reported with pulmonary angioplasty and stenting [54, 55]. However, the hemodynamic effects and long-term efficacy of these procedures are currently unknown. Venous stenting can be complicated by recurrent stenosis or thrombosis. Because of the poor prognosis of sarcoidosis-associated PH, eligibility for lung transplantation should be assessed relatively early in the management.

#### **Pulmonary Langerhans Cell Histiocytosis**

Pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis (PLCH) is a smoking-related lung disease that is characterized by airflow obstruction, granulomatous inflammation, parenchymal nodules, and cysts. Pre-capillary PH is highly prevalent (92-100%) in advanced PLCH [56, 57]. Although many advanced patients have hypoxemia and moderate-to-severe airflow obstruction, the severity of PH is not related to the degree of airflow obstruction [56]. A diffuse proliferative vasculopathy involving pulmonary arteries and arterioles may be present in PLCH patients with severe PH, and these changes usually occur in regions unaffected by parenchymal lesions [56]. Venous fibrotic obliteration and capillary dilatation are also observed and may resemble PVOD [56, 58]. In a study by Fartoukh et al., two patients who were treated with intravenous epoprostenol developed pulmonary edema, similar to what may occur in patients with PVOD [56, 59, 60].

The occurrence of pulmonary edema may have led clinicians to consider PLCH a relative contraindication to PAHspecific therapies for some time. Long-term functional and hemodynamic benefits with bosentan were published nearly a decade later [61]. Le Pavec et al. published a retrospective cohort of 29 patients with PH related to PLCH, 14 of whom received PAH therapies [62]. Patients who received PAH therapies had more severe hemodynamics (higher mPAP and PVR) with less severe airflow obstruction and less hyperinflation than patients not treated with PAH therapies. Among treated patients, short-term improvements in functional class occurred in 67%, improvements in 6MWD of  $\geq$  10% occurred in 45%, and there was a 33% decrease in PVR, which were sustained at long-term re-evaluation [62]. The 1-, 3-, and 5year survival rates in the Le Pavec et al. study were 96, 92, and 75%, respectively, and there was a trend to improved survival in patients treated with PAH therapies in univariate analysis [62]. Importantly, in contrast to the study by Fartoukh et al., patients treated with PAH therapies did not develop worsening oxygenation or pulmonary edema, suggesting that these therapies may indeed be safe and beneficial in pre-capillary PH related to PLCH [56, 62]. There have been no prospective or head-to-head comparisons of PAH-specific therapies in PLCH, but it is likely that ERAs and PDE5 inhibitors are effective. Supporting this notion is a recent case report describing the successful use of sildenafil to lower the mPAP and PVR by nearly 50% in order to bridge a 28-year-old patient with progressive PLCH-related PH who had failed oxygen, diuretics, and corticosteroids to lung transplantation [63].

Other recent case reports describe clinical responses to tadalafil [64], bosentan in conjunction with a cardiac rehabilitation program [65], sildenafil and iloprost [66], and smoking cessation [67]. In addition to corticosteroids and PAH-specific therapies, cladribine is an anti-proliferative nucleoside analogue that has been reported to improve lung disease in patients with PLCH [68–70] and also improved mPAP, PVR, and cardiac index in a patient with pre-capillary PH related to PLCH [71]. Although smoking cessation remains the most important intervention for all PLCH patients, oral PAH therapies may be considered to improve symptoms and hemodynamics and may potentially support patients with PH awaiting lung transplantation. However, because of frequent venous involvement, clinicians must be aware of the potential for pulmonary edema and monitor closely for clinical decompensation after starting PAH therapies.

## Lymphangioleiomyomatosis

Lymphangioleiomyomatosis (LAM) is a rare disease caused by neoplastic proliferation of abnormal smooth muscle cells that leads to diffuse cystic lung disease, chylous effusions and ascites, renal angiomyolipomas, and lymphangioleiomyomatosis [72•, 73]. LAM almost exclusively affects women and may occur sporadically or may be heritable in association with the tuberous sclerosis complex (TSC) [74]. Resting PH occurs in approximately 7–8% of patients with LAM; however, exertional hypoxemia and increases in pulmonary arterial pressure are common, even during low-intensity exercise [75, 76]. The prevalence of resting PH is higher (45%) in LAM patients referred for lung transplantation [77]; however, the severity of PH is generally milder (average mPAP 33 mmHg) compared to patients with end-stage PLCH (average mPAP 59 mmHg) [56].

The largest study of PH in LAM patients was from the French Registry by Cottin et al. who described the characteristics, management, and outcomes of 20 patients [78]. Most patients had severe airflow obstruction (FEV<sub>1</sub> < 50% predicted) and mild-moderate PH (mPAP  $32 \pm 6$  mmHg and PVR  $4.7 \pm 2.3$  Wood units); however, two patients had more severe "out-of-proportion" PH (mPAP > 35 mmHg with a normal FEV<sub>1</sub>). Exercise capacity, FEV<sub>1</sub>, PaCO<sub>2</sub>, and DLCO were lower in LAM patients with PH compared to those without PH. Lung pathology showed LAM cell and perivascular epithelioid cell proliferation in addition to intimal fibrosis in some of these patients [78]. Severe PH is likely related to LAM-cell vasculopathy rather than parenchymal cystic destruction or a severe obstructive ventilatory defect and hypoxemia. Despite the presence of some pathologic similarities to group 1 PAH, such as intimal fibrosis in pulmonary arteries, the role of PAH therapies is unproven in LAM. Six patients (30%) in the series by Cottin et al. received PAH therapies (bosentan or sildenafil), with hemodynamic improvements and no detrimental effect on gas exchange or episodes of pulmonary edema, but no improvements in dyspnea or 6MWD were observed [78]. There have been no recent studies reporting the efficacy and safety of other PAH medications in LAM.

Sirolimus and everolimus inhibit the mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway and improve lung function, quality of life, chylous effusions, cystic lesions, and exercise capacity in patients with LAM [79–82]; however, it is unknown whether these agents have any effect on pulmonary hemodynamics in LAM patients with PH. Nevertheless, sirolimus is recommended for patients with abnormal or declining lung function or chylous effusions in recent international guidelines [72•], regardless of whether PH is present.

#### **Metabolic Disorders and Other Etiologies**

Glycogen storage diseases (GSD), lysosomal storage disorders (Gaucher disease), thyroid disorders, chronic renal failure, tumor emboli, and fibrosing mediastinitis can cause PH and are included in group 5 [1].

GSDs are genetic disorders of glycogen metabolism that lead to deposition of glycogen in multiple organs and are typically diagnosed in infancy or early childhood [83, 84]. PH has been best characterized in patients with GSD type I [85–87] but can occur in other types. Patients with PH related to GSD type I may have pathologic changes typical of idiopathic PAH (intimal fibrosis, plexiform lesions, smooth muscle hypertrophy) [85, 87] and have dramatically elevated serum serotonin levels, suggesting common pathogenic mechanisms to idiopathic PAH [86]. Given these similarities, PAH-specific therapies may be reasonable, but there are only case reports to support their efficacy [88]. Lee et al. described two patients with GSD type III and severe pre-capillary PH: one patient was treated with intravenous epoprostenol with an initial response but died of cardiopulmonary arrest 2 years later, while a second patient had a good clinical response to sildenafil and was alive 3 years later [89].

Gaucher disease is caused by deficiency in lysosomal beta-glucosidase, which results in accumulation of glucosylceramide within cells, commonly leading to complications such as hepatosplenomegaly and bone marrow infiltration [3]. Echocardiography changes suggestive of PH are detected in 7–30% of patients with Gaucher disease [90, 91], and a plexogenic pulmonary arteriopathy similar to idiopathic PAH has been described [90, 92]. Left ventricular disease and diastolic dysfunction are other potential mechanisms of PH in Gaucher disease [93]. Splenectomy and absence of enzyme replacement are associated with the development of severe PH and death [91, 94]. The use of enzyme replacement therapy has led to lower splenectomy rates [95], and it may be expected that severe PH will become less frequent in Gaucher disease [96, 97]. However, severe PH can still occur or may worsen in patients taking enzyme replacement therapy [98]. Successful treatment with intravenous epoprostenol has been reported in patients with Gaucher disease [91, 99]. Mistry et al. reported nine patients with severe PH, six of whom were treated with enzyme replacement, epoprostenol, and anticoagulation, and they noted improvements in functional class and RVSP [91]. Bosentan and sildenafil have also been used in Gaucher patients with clinical improvements [97, 100]. A recent case report described a patient who failed to improve with intravenous treprostinil or oral PAH therapies but dramatically improved with imatinib [101]; however, this TKI is not recommended to treat PH and it has been shown to have a high rate of complications in group 1 PAH [102].

A clear link between thyroid disease and PH has been established [103–105]. Hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism have been associated with PH via several mechanisms including autoimmunity, vascular proliferation, and high- or lowoutput heart failure [3, 104–106]. Autoimmune thyroid disease is also more frequent in patients with PAH [105], and low thyroid hormone levels and lack of thyroid replacement in PAH and CTEPH patients with hypothyroidism predict worse outcomes [107]. Restoration of normal thyroid function in patients with hyperthyroidism via medical treatment or surgical thyroidectomy may completely normalize pulmonary arterial pressure [108–110]. When pre-capillary PH persists despite normalization of thyroid function, PAH therapies may be introduced in accordance with current guidelines [111, 112•].

In dialysis-dependent patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD), the prevalence of PH on echocardiography increases with the severity of renal dysfunction, and the presence of PH in CKD is associated with higher mortality [113, 114]. Conversely, among patients diagnosed with PH, the presence of CKD is associated with higher mortality [115]. PH may develop in CKD for several reasons; however, it is most frequently post-capillary PH due to left ventricular systolic or diastolic dysfunction, hypervolemia, anemia, or high-output through arteriovenous fistulas [24, 113, 116]. Optimization of volume status, correction of anemia, and management of left heart disease are therefore the primary treatment strategies. Pre-capillary PH may persist in a minority after initiation of dialysis or optimization of other factors, which may warrant consideration of PAH therapy in symptomatic patients. Longer-acting PAH therapies such as tadalafil, ambrisentan, and macitentan should be avoided in patients with poor renal function. A recent case report described the addition of subcutaneous treprostinil to bosentan and sildenafil in a patient with severe pre-capillary PH on dialysis [117]. There was normalization of the patient's PVR and a decrease in mPAP from 30 to 25 mmHg, suggesting that prostanoids could be an option for patients failing oral therapy [117].

The French Registry recently reported the outcomes and management of 27 patients with PH due to fibrosing mediastinitis, which results from fibrous proliferation and compression of mediastinal vessels [48•]. Hemodynamics were consistent with pre-capillary PH, but some patients had post-capillary or combined pre- and post-capillary PH. Unfortunately, no significant improvement was observed in seven patients who received oral PAH therapies in this study and the authors cautioned the use of PAH therapies due to pulmonary venous compression and an increased risk of pulmonary edema [48•]. Corticosteroids may be effective in selected cases of fibrosing mediastinitis with PH due to sarcoidosis [48•, 50••], as discussed above, and rituximab was effective in three cases of fibrosing mediastinitis due to histoplasmosis [118]; however, none of these patients had coexisting PH. Finally, percutaneous dilation, stenting, or surgical reconstruction of pulmonary arteries and veins can be considered in certain cases with clear compression of the central vessels due to fibrosing mediastinitis [55, 119, 120].

## Conclusions

Group 5 PH is a heterogeneous collection of diseases that cause PH through multifactorial and/or poorly understood mechanisms. Importantly, there is very little data to support the use of medical therapies approved for group 1 PAH in group 5 PH patients and management is generally targeted towards the underlying disease process. Studies using PAH therapies are largely limited to registry-based case series and case reports, with only a few randomized trials being performed in this understudied group of diseases. Rational and cautious use of PAH therapies in group 5 PH must be based on an understanding of the potential underlying mechanisms in each disease subgroup and a proper assessment of hemodynamics. There is the potential for pulmonary venous involvement in many of these conditions, which could be made worse by pulmonary vasodilators.

#### **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

**Conflict of Interest** Dr. Humbert reports personal fees from Actelion Pharmaceuticals Ltd., grants and personal fees from Bayer, grants and personal fees from GSK, personal fees from Pfizer and United Therapeutics, during the conduct of the study; and personal fees from Novartis, outside the submitted work. Dr. Weatherald reports grants from the European Respiratory Society, grants from the Canadian Thoracic Society, grants from the Canadian Vascular Network, personal fees and non-financial support from Actelion, and personal fees and non-financial support from Bayer, outside the submitted work. Dr. Savale reports grants, personal fees and non-financial support from Bayer, grants, personal fees and non-financial support from Bayer, grants and personal fees and non-financial support from Bayer, grants and personal fees and non-financial support from GlaxoSmithKline, grants, personal fees and non-financial support from MSD, outside the submitted work.

Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

# References

Papers of particular interest, published recently, have been highlighted as:

- Of importance
- •• Of major importance
  - Simonneau G, Gatzoulis MA, Adatia I, Celermajer D, Denton C, Ghofrani A, et al. Updated clinical classification of pulmonary hypertension. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2013;62:D34–41.
  - Peacock A. "Group 5". Pulmonary hypertension with unclear and/ or multifactorial mechanisms. *Pulm. Circ.* 4th Edition. Boca Raton: Taylor & Francis; 2016. p. 552–6.
  - Lahm T, Chakinala MM. World Health Organization group 5 pulmonary hypertension. Clin Chest Med. 2013;34:753–78.
  - Gladwin MT, Sachdev V, Jison ML, Shizukuda Y, Plehn JF, Minter K, et al. Pulmonary hypertension as a risk factor for death in patients with sickle cell disease. N Engl J Med. 2004;350:886– 95.
  - Parent F, Bachir D, Inamo J, Lionnet F, Driss F, Loko G, et al. A hemodynamic study of pulmonary hypertension in sickle cell disease. N Engl J Med. 2011;365:44–53.

- Fonseca GHH, Souza R, Salemi VMC, Jardim CVP, Gualandro SFM. Pulmonary hypertension diagnosed by right heart catheterisation in sickle cell disease. Eur Respir J. 2012;39:112–8.
- Mehari A, Alam S, Tian X, Cuttica MJ, Barnett CF, Miles G, et al. Hemodynamic predictors of mortality in adults with sickle cell disease. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2013;187:840–7.
- Graham JK, Mosunjac M, Hanzlick RL, Mosunjac M. Sickle cell lung disease and sudden death: a retrospective/prospective study of 21 autopsy cases and literature review. Am J Forensic Med Pathol. 2007;28:168–72.
- Hsu LL, Champion HC, Campbell-Lee SA, Bivalacqua TJ, Manci EA, Diwan BA, et al. Hemolysis in sickle cell mice causes pulmonary hypertension due to global impairment in nitric oxide bioavailability. Blood. 2007;109:3088–98.
- Villagra J, Shiva S, Hunter LA, Machado RF, Gladwin MT, Kato GJ. Platelet activation in patients with sickle disease, hemolysisassociated pulmonary hypertension, and nitric oxide scavenging by cell-free hemoglobin. Blood. 2007;110:2166–72.
- Mahesh B, Besser M, Ravaglioli A, Pepke-Zaba J, Martinez G, Klein A, et al. Pulmonary endarterectomy is effective and safe in patients with haemoglobinopathies and abnormal red blood cells: the Papworth experience. Eur J Cardiothorac Surg. 2016;50:537– 41.
- Barst RJ, Mubarak KK, Machado RF, Ataga KI, Benza RL, Castro O, et al., ASSET study group\*. Exercise capacity and haemodynamics in patients with sickle cell disease with pulmonary hypertension treated with bosentan: results of the ASSET studies. Br J Haematol. 2010;149:426–35.
- Machado RF, Barst RJ, Yovetich NA, Hassell KL, Kato GJ, Gordeuk VR, et al. Walk-PHaSST investigators and patients. Hospitalization for pain in patients with sickle cell disease treated with sildenafil for elevated TRV and low exercise capacity. Blood. 2011;118:855–64.
- 14.• Klings ES, Machado RF, Barst RJ, Morris CR, Mubarak KK, Gordeuk VR, et al. American Thoracic Society Ad Hoc Committee on Pulmonary Hypertension of Sickle Cell Disease. An official American Thoracic Society clinical practice guideline: diagnosis, risk stratification, and management of pulmonary hypertension of sickle cell disease. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2014;189:727–40. This recent international guideline recommended hydroxyurea and transfusion therapy for patients with sickle cell disease and pulmonary hypertension. They recommended against the use of PAH therapies in most patients, but suggested prostacyclin agonists or endothelin receptor antagonists could be tried in patients with elevated PVR and a normal PAWP.
- Morris CR, Kim H-Y, Wood J, Porter JB, Klings ES, Trachtenberg FL, et al., Thalassemia Clinical Research Network. Sildenafil therapy in thalassemia patients with Doppler-defined risk of pulmonary hypertension. Haematologica. 2013;98:1359–67.
- Adir Y, Elia D, Harari S. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with chronic myeloproliferative disorders. Eur Respir Rev. 2015;24: 400–10.
- Guilpain P, Montani D, Damaj G, Achouh L, Lefrère F, Le Pavec J, et al. Pulmonary hypertension associated with myeloproliferative disorders: a retrospective study of ten cases. Respiration. 2008;76:295–302.
- Hoeper MM, Niedermeyer J, Hoffmeyer F, Flemming P, Fabel H. Pulmonary hypertension after splenectomy? Ann Intern Med. 1999;130:506–9.
- Jaïs X, Ioos V, Jardim C, Sitbon O, Parent F, Hamid A, et al. Splenectomy and chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension. Thorax. 2005;60:1031–4.
- Willems E, Canivet J-L, Ghaye B, de Leval L, Radermecker M, Preiser J-C, et al. Pulmonary veno-occlusive disease in myeloproliferative disorder. Eur Respir J. 2009;33:213–6.

- Montani D, Bergot E, Günther S, Savale L, Bergeron A, Bourdin A, et al. Pulmonary arterial hypertension in patients treated by dasatinib. Circulation. 2012;125:2128–37.
- García-Manero G, Schuster SJ, Patrick H, Martinez J. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with myelofibrosis secondary to myeloproliferative diseases. Am J Hematol. 1999;60:130–5.
- Singh I, Mikita G, Green D, Risquez C, Sanders A. Pulmonary extra-medullary hematopoiesis and pulmonary hypertension from underlying polycythemia vera: a case series. Pulm Circ. 2017;7: 261–7.
- Reddy YNV, Melenovsky V, Redfield MM, Nishimura RA, Borlaug BA. High-output heart failure: a 15-year experience. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2016;68:473–82.
- 25. Gupta R, Perumandla S, Patsiornik Y, Niranjan S, Ohri A. Incidence of pulmonary hypertension in patients with chronic myeloproliferative disorders. J Natl Med Assoc. 2006;98:1779–82.
- Altintas A, Karahan Z, Pasa S, Cil T, Boyraz T, Iltumur K, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with essential thrombocythemia and reactive thrombocytosis. Leuk Lymphoma. 2007;48:1981–7.
- Cortelezzi A, Gritti G, Del Papa N, Pasquini MC, Calori R, Gianelli U, et al. Pulmonary arterial hypertension in primary myelofibrosis is common and associated with an altered angiogenic status. Leukemia. 2008;22:646–9.
- Mattar MM, Morad MAK, El Husseiny NM, Ali NH, El Demerdash DM. Correlation between JAK2 allele burden and pulmonary arterial hypertension and hematological parameters in Philadelphia negative JAK2 positive myeloproliferative neoplasms. An Egyptian experience. Ann Hematol. 2016;95:1611–6.
- Dingli D, Utz JP, Krowka MJ, Oberg AL, Tefferi A. Unexplained pulmonary hypertension in chronic myeloproliferative disorders. Chest. 2001;120:801–8.
- Marvin KS, Spellberg RD. Pulmonary hypertension secondary to thrombocytosis in a patient with myeloid metaplasia. Chest. 1993;103:642–4.
- Faiz SA, Iliescu C, Lopez-Mattei J, Patel B, Bashoura L, Popat U. Resolution of myelofibrosis-associated pulmonary arterial hypertension following allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. Pulm Circ. 2016;6:611–3.
- Delcroix M, Lang I, Pepke-Zaba J, Jansa P, D'Armini AM, Snijder R, et al. Long-term outcome of patients with chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension: results from an international prospective registry. Circulation. 2016;133:859–71.
- Ghofrani H-A, D'Armini AM, Grimminger F, Hoeper MM, Jansa P, Kim NH, et al. CHEST-1 Study Group. Riociguat for the treatment of chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension. N Engl J Med. 2013;369:319–29.
- Simonneau G, D'Armini AM, Ghofrani H-A, Grimminger F, Hoeper MM, Jansa P, et al. Riociguat for the treatment of chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension: a long-term extension study (CHEST-2). Eur Respir J. 2015;45:1293–302.
- 35.• Weatherald J, Chaumais M-C, Savale L, Jaïs X, Seferian A, Canuet M, et al. Long-term outcomes of dasatinib-induced pulmonary arterial hypertension: a population-based study. Eur Respir J 2017; 50. Our recent study from of 21 patients with dasatinib-induced PAH, most of whom had chronic myelogenous leukemia, found that patients treated with PAH medications had more severe baseline hemodynamic impairment but similar long-term hemodynamic outcomes as those who were not treated. We suggested that dasatinib is discontinued for all patients and those with severe symptoms or low cardiac index are treated with PAH medications.
- Weatherald J, Chaumais M-C, Montani D. Pulmonary arterial hypertension induced by tyrosine kinase inhibitors. Curr Opin Pulm Med. 2017;23:392–7.

- Tabarroki A, Lindner DJ, Visconte V, Zhang L, Rogers HJ, Parker Y, et al. Ruxolitinib leads to improvement of pulmonary hypertension in patients with myelofibrosis. Leukemia. 2014;28:1486–93.
- Miyata M, Ito M, Sasajima T, Ohira H, Kasukawa R. Effect of a serotonin receptor antagonist on interleukin-6-induced pulmonary hypertension in rats. Chest. 2001;119:554–61.
- Humbert M, Monti G, Brenot F, Sitbon O, Portier A, Grangeot-Keros L, et al. Increased interleukin-1 and interleukin-6 serum concentrations in severe primary pulmonary hypertension. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 1995;151:1628–31.
- Steiner MK, Syrkina OL, Kolliputi N, Mark EJ, Hales CA, Waxman AB. Interleukin-6 overexpression induces pulmonary hypertension. Circ Res. 2009;104:236–44. 28p following 244
- 41. Low AT, Howard L, Harrison C, Tulloh RMR. Pulmonary arterial hypertension exacerbated by ruxolitinib. Haematologica. 2015;100:e244.
- 42. Pepke-Zaba J, Delcroix M, Lang I, Mayer E, Jansa P, Ambroz D, et al. Chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension (CTEPH): results from an international prospective registry. Circulation. 2011;124:1973–81.
- 43. Frey MK, Alias S, Winter MP, Redwan B, Stübiger G, Panzenboeck A, et al. Splenectomy is modifying the vascular remodeling of thrombosis. J Am Heart Assoc. 2014;3:e000772.
- 44. Jaïs X, AM D'A, Jansa P, Torbicki A, Delcroix M, Ghofrani HA, et al. Bosentan Effects in iNopErable Forms of chronIc Thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension Study Group. Bosentan for treatment of inoperable chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension: BENEFiT (Bosentan Effects in iNopErable Forms of chronIc Thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension), a randomized, placebo-controlled trial. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2008;52:2127–34.
- Nunes H, Humbert M, Capron F, Brauner M, Sitbon O, Battesti J-P, et al. Pulmonary hypertension associated with sarcoidosis: mechanisms, haemodynamics and prognosis. Thorax. 2006;61: 68–74.
- Hoffstein V, Ranganathan N, Mullen JB. Sarcoidosis simulating pulmonary veno-occlusive disease. Am Rev Respir Dis. 1986;134:809–11.
- Smith LJ, Lawrence JB, Katzenstein AA. Vascular sarcoidosis: a rare cause of pulmonary hypertension. Am J Med Sci. 1983;285: 38–44.
- 48.• Seferian A, Steriade A, Jaïs X, Planché O, Savale L, Parent F, et al. Pulmonary hypertension complicating fibrosing mediastinitis. Medicine (Baltimore). 2015;94:e1800. This is the largest series (n = 27) of PH related to fibrosing mediastinitis and noted no clear improvements with the use of PAH therapies. One patient with sarcoidosis-related fibrosing mediastinitis and vascular compression did significantly improve with corticosteroids.
- 49. Baughman RP, Engel PJ, Taylor L, Lower EE. Survival in sarcoidosis-associated pulmonary hypertension: the importance of hemodynamic evaluation. Chest. 2010;138:1078–85.
- 50.•• Boucly A, Cottin V, Nunes H, Jaïs X, Tazi A, Prévot G, et al. Management and long-term outcomes of sarcoidosis-associated pulmonary hypertension. Eur Respir J 2017 [In Press]. This recent study of 156 patients with severe sarcoidosis-associated PH (mPAP > 35 or 25–35 mmHg with low cardiac index) is the largest study of pre-capillary PH in sarcoidosis to date and the first to describe the long-term outcomes of these patients. Fiveyear survival was 55%, and hemodynamics and NYHA functional class improved in the 97 (77%) patients who received PAH therapies, but there was no improvement in 6-minute walk distance.
- 51.•• Baughman RP, Culver DA, Cordova FC, Padilla M, Gibson KF, Lower EE, et al. Bosentan for sarcoidosis-associated pulmonary hypertension: a double-blind placebo controlled randomized trial.

Chest. 2014;145:810–7. This is one of the only randomized controlled trials of a PAH therapy (bosentan) in a group 5 etiology (sarcoidosis). Forty-three patients were enrolled and 35 completed the 16-week protocol. There was a placebocorrected decrease in mPAP of 5 mmHg and a corrected decrease in PVR of 1.9 Wood units; however, no improvements in 6-minute walk distance, dyspnea, or quality of life were observed.

- Barnett CF, Bonura EJ, Nathan SD, Ahmad S, Shlobin OA, Osei K, et al. Treatment of sarcoidosis-associated pulmonary hypertension. A two-center experience. Chest. 2009;135:1455–61.
- 53.• Bonham CA, Oldham JM, Gomberg-Maitland M, Vij R. Prostacyclin and oral vasodilator therapy in sarcoidosisassociated pulmonary hypertension: a retrospective case series. Chest. 2015, 148:1055–62. This study reported significant improvements with PAH therapies in 26 patients with sarcoidosis-associated PH. There was a significant 71% improvement in cardiac index and a 49% decrease in PVR in patients who were treated with prostanoids; however, survival was no different in prostanoid-treated patients compared to those treated with oral PAH therapies.
- Condado JF, Babaliaros V, Henry TS, Kaebnick B, Kim D, Staton GW. Pulmonary stenting for the treatment of sarcoid induced pulmonary vascular stenosis. Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis. 2016;33:281–7.
- Hamilton-Craig CR, Slaughter R, McNeil K, Kermeen F, Walters DL. Improvement after angioplasty and stenting of pulmonary arteries due to sarcoid mediastinal fibrosis. Heart Lung Circ. 2009;18:222–5.
- Fartoukh M, Humbert M, Capron F, Maître S, Parent F, Le Gall C, et al. Severe pulmonary hypertension in histiocytosis X. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2000;161:216–23.
- Dauriat G, Mal H, Thabut G, Mornex J-F, Bertocchi M, Tronc F, et al. Lung transplantation for pulmonary langerhans' cell histiocytosis: a multicenter analysis. Transplantation. 2006;81: 746–50.
- Hamada K, Teramoto S, Narita N, Yamada E, Teramoto K, Kobzik L. Pulmonary veno-occlusive disease in pulmonary Langerhans' cell granulomatosis. Eur Respir J. 2000;15:421–3.
- Humbert M, Maître S, Capron F, Rain B, Musset D, Simonneau G. Pulmonary edema complicating continuous intravenous prostacyclin in pulmonary capillary hemangiomatosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 1998;157:1681–5.
- Montani D, Lau EM, Dorfmüller P, Girerd B, Jaïs X, Savale L, et al. Pulmonary veno-occlusive disease. Eur Respir J. 2016;47: 1518–34.
- Kiakouama L, Cottin V, Etienne-Mastroïanni B, Khouatra C, Humbert M, Cordier JF. Severe pulmonary hypertension in histiocytosis X: long-term improvement with bosentan. Eur Respir J. 2010;36:202–4.
- 62. Le Pavec J, Lorillon G, Jaïs X, Tcherakian C, Feuillet S, Dorfmüller P, et al. Pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosisassociated pulmonary hypertension: clinical characteristics and impact of pulmonary arterial hypertension therapies. Chest. 2012;142:1150–7.
- Yoshida T, Konno S, Tsujino I, Sato T, Ohira H, Chen F, et al. Severe pulmonary hypertension in adult pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis: the effect of sildenafil as a bridge to lung transplantation. Intern Med. 2014;53:1985–90.
- 64. Nemoto K, Oh-Ishi S, Inui T, Nakazawa M, Hyodo K, Nakajima M, et al. Long-term improvement during tadalafil therapy in a patient with pulmonary hypertension secondary to pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis. Respir Med Case Rep. 2016;18: 54–7.
- 65. Fukuda Y, Miura S, Fujimi K, Yano M, Nishikawa H, Yanagisawa J, et al. Effects of treatment with a combination of cardiac

🖄 Springer

rehabilitation and bosentan in patients with pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis associated with pulmonary hypertension. Eur J Prev Cardiol. 2014;21:1481–3.

- Held M, Jany B, Warth A, Wilkens H. Pulmonary hypertension and Langerhans' cell granulomatosis: successful treatment with sildenafil and iloprost. Dtsch Med Wochenschr. 2013;138:524–7.
- Kinoshita Y, Watanabe K, Sakamoto A, Hidaka K. Pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis-associated pulmonary hypertension showing a drastic improvement following smoking cessation. Intern Med. 2016;55:491–5.
- Lazor R, Etienne-Mastroianni B, Khouatra C, Tazi A, Cottin V, Cordier J-F. Progressive diffuse pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis improved by cladribine chemotherapy. Thorax. 2009;64:274–5.
- Lorillon G, Bergeron A, Detourmignies L, Jouneau S, Wallaert B, Frija J, et al. Cladribine is effective against cystic pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2012;186:930–2.
- Epaud R, Ducou Le Pointe H, Fasola S, Ploussard S, Delestrain C, Sileo C, et al. Cladribine improves lung cysts and pulmonary function in a child with histiocytosis. Eur Respir J. 2015;45: 831–3.
- 71. Grobost V, Khouatra C, Lazor R, Cordier J-F, Cottin V. Effectiveness of cladribine therapy in patients with pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis. Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2014;9:191.
- 72.• McCormack FX, Gupta N, Finlay GR, Young LR, Taveira-DaSilva AM, Glasgow CG, et al. Official American Thoracic Society/Japanese Respiratory Society clinical practice guidelines: lymphangioleiomyomatosis diagnosis and management. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2016;194:748–61. This recent international guideline makes evidence-based recommendations on the treatment of patients with LAM; however, no specific comments or recommendations are given for the use of PAH therapies in LAM patients with PH.
- Johnson SR, Cordier JF, Lazor R, Cottin V, Costabel U, Harari S, et al. Review Panel of the ERS LAM Task Force. European Respiratory Society guidelines for the diagnosis and management of lymphangioleiomyomatosis. Eur Respir J. 2010;35:14–26.
- Carsillo T, Astrinidis A, Henske EP. Mutations in the tuberous sclerosis complex gene TSC2 are a cause of sporadic pulmonary lymphangioleiomyomatosis. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000;97: 6085–90.
- Taveira-DaSilva AM, Hathaway OM, Sachdev V, Shizukuda Y, Birdsall CW, Moss J. Pulmonary artery pressure in lymphangioleiomyomatosis: an echocardiographic study. Chest. 2007;132:1573–8.
- 76. Freitas CSG, Baldi BG, Jardim C, Araujo MS, Sobral JB, Heiden GI, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in lymphangioleiomyomatosis: prevalence, severity and the role of carbon monoxide diffusion capacity as a screening method. Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2017;12:74.
- Reynaud-Gaubert M, Mornex J-F, Mal H, Treilhaud M, Dromer C, Quétant S, et al. Lung transplantation for lymphangioleiomyomatosis: the French experience. Transplantation. 2008;86:515–20.
- Cottin V, Harari S, Humbert M, Mal H, Dorfmüller P, Jaïs X, et al., Groupe d'Etudes et de Recherche sur les Maladies "Orphelines" Pulmonaires (GERM"O"P). Pulmonary hypertension in lymphangioleiomyomatosis: characteristics in 20 patients. Eur Respir J. 2012;40:630–40.
- Taveira-DaSilva AM, Hathaway O, Stylianou M, Moss J. Changes in lung function and chylous effusions in patients with lymphangioleiomyomatosis treated with sirolimus. Ann Intern Med. 2011;154:797–805. W-292–293
- McCormack FX, Inoue Y, Moss J, Singer LG, Strange C, Nakata K, et al., National Institutes of Health Rare Lung Diseases Consortium,

MILES Trial Group. Efficacy and safety of sirolimus in lymphangioleiomyomatosis. N Engl J Med. 2011;364:1595–606.

- Yao J, Taveira-DaSilva AM, Jones AM, Julien-Williams P, Stylianou M, Moss J. Sustained effects of sirolimus on lung function and cystic lung lesions in lymphangioleiomyomatosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2014;190:1273–82.
- Goldberg HJ, Harari S, Cottin V, Rosas IO, Peters E, Biswal S, et al. Everolimus for the treatment of lymphangioleiomyomatosis: a phase II study. Eur Respir J. 2015;46:783–94.
- 83. Kishnani PS, Austin SL, Abdenur JE, Arn P, Bali DS, Boney A, et al. American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics. Diagnosis and management of glycogen storage disease type I: a practice guideline of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics. Genet Med. 2014;16:e1.
- Hicks J, Wartchow E, Mierau G. Glycogen storage diseases: a brief review and update on clinical features, genetic abnormalities, pathologic features, and treatment. Ultrastruct Pathol. 2011;35: 183–96.
- Pizzo CJ. Type I glycogen storage disease with focal nodular hyperplasia of the liver and vasoconstrictive pulmonary hypertension. Pediatrics. 1980;65:341–3.
- Humbert M, Labrune P, Sitbon O, Le Gall C, Callebert J, Hervé P, et al. Pulmonary arterial hypertension and type-I glycogen-storage disease: the serotonin hypothesis. Eur Respir J. 2002;20:59–65.
- Humbert M, Labrune P, Simonneau G. Severe pulmonary arterial hypertension in type 1 glycogen storage disease. Eur J Pediatr. 2002;161(Suppl 1):S93–6.
- Ueno M, Murakami T, Takeda A, Kubota M. Efficacy of oral sildenafil in a beraprost-treated patient with severe pulmonary hypertension secondary to type I glycogen storage disease. Circ J. 2009;73:1965–8.
- Lee TM, Berman-Rosenzweig ES, Slonim AE, Chung WK. Two cases of pulmonary hypertension associated with type III glycogen storage disease. JIMD Rep. 2011;1:79–82.
- Elstein D, Klutstein MW, Lahad A, Abrahamov A, Hadas-Halpern I, Zimran A. Echocardiographic assessment of pulmonary hypertension in Gaucher's disease. Lancet. 1998;351:1544–6.
- Mistry PK, Sirrs S, Chan A, Pritzker MR, Duffy TP, Grace ME, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in type 1 Gaucher's disease: genetic and epigenetic determinants of phenotype and response to therapy. Mol Genet Metab. 2002;77:91–8.
- den Bakker MA, Grünberg K, Boonstra A, van Hal PTW, Hollak CEM. Pulmonary arterial hypertension with plexogenic arteriopathy in enzyme-substituted Gaucher disease. Histopathology. 2012;61:324–6.
- Lo Iudice F, Barbato A, Muscariello R, Di Nardo C, de Stefano F, Sibilio M, et al. Left ventricular diastolic dysfunction in type I Gaucher disease: an echo Doppler study. Echocardiography. 2015;32:890–5.
- 94. Weinreb NJ, Barbouth DS, Lee RE. Causes of death in 184 patients with type 1 Gaucher disease from the United States who were never treated with enzyme replacement therapy. Blood Cells Mol Dis 2016.
- 95. van Dussen L, Biegstraaten M, Dijkgraaf MG, Hollak CE. Modelling Gaucher disease progression: long-term enzyme replacement therapy reduces the incidence of splenectomy and bone complications. Orphanet J Rare Dis. 2014;9:112.
- Cox TM, Aerts JMFG, Belmatoug N, Cappellini MD, vom Dahl S, Goldblatt J, et al. Management of non-neuronopathic Gaucher disease with special reference to pregnancy, splenectomy, bisphosphonate therapy, use of biomarkers and bone disease monitoring. J Inherit Metab Dis. 2008;31:319–36.
- Lo SM, Liu J, Chen F, Pastores GM, Knowles J, Boxer M, et al. Pulmonary vascular disease in Gaucher disease: clinical spectrum, determinants of phenotype and long-term outcomes of therapy. J Inherit Metab Dis. 2011;34:643–50.

- Goitein O, Elstein D, Abrahamov A, Hadas-Halpern I, Melzer E, Kerem E, et al. Lung involvement and enzyme replacement therapy in Gaucher's disease. QJM. 2001;94:407–15.
- Bakst AE, Gaine SP, Rubin LJ. Continuous intravenous epoprostenol therapy for pulmonary hypertension in Gaucher's disease. Chest. 1999;116:1127–9.
- Fernandes CJC, Jardim C, Carvalho LAS, Farias AQ, Filho MT, Souza R. Clinical response to sildenafil in pulmonary hypertension associated with Gaucher disease. J Inherit Metab Dis. 2005;28:603–5.
- Al-Naamani N, Roberts KE, Hill NS, Preston IR. Imatinib as rescue therapy in a patient with pulmonary hypertension associated with Gaucher disease. Chest. 2014;146:e81–3.
- 102. Hoeper MM, Barst RJ, Bourge RC, Feldman J, Frost AE, Galié N, et al. Imatinib mesylate as add-on therapy for pulmonary arterial hypertension: results of the randomized IMPRES study. Circulation. 2013;127:1128–38.
- Vallabhajosula S, Radhi S, Cevik C, Alalawi R, Raj R, Nugent K. Hyperthyroidism and pulmonary hypertension: an important association. Am J Med Sci. 2011;342:507–12.
- Chu JW, Kao PN, Faul JL, Doyle RL. High prevalence of autoimmune thyroid disease in pulmonary arterial hypertension. Chest. 2002;122:1668–73.
- Li JH, Safford RE, Aduen JF, Heckman MG, Crook JE, Burger CD. Pulmonary hypertension and thyroid disease. Chest. 2007;132:793–7.
- Al Husseini A, Bagnato G, Farkas L, Gomez-Arroyo J, Farkas D, Mizuno S, et al. Thyroid hormone is highly permissive in angioproliferative pulmonary hypertension in rats. Eur Respir J. 2013;41:104–14.
- Richter MJ, Sommer N, Schermuly R, Grimminger B, Seeger W, Tello K, et al. The prognostic impact of thyroid function in pulmonary hypertension. J Heart Lung Transplant. 2016;35:1427–34.
- Nakchbandi IA, Wirth JA, Inzucchi SE. Pulmonary hypertension caused by Graves' thyrotoxicosis: normal pulmonary hemodynamics restored by (131)I treatment. Chest. 1999;116:1483–5.
- Soroush-Yari A, Burstein S, Hoo GWS, Santiago SM. Pulmonary hypertension in men with thyrotoxicosis. Respiration. 2005;72: 90–4.
- Muthukumar S, Sadacharan D, Ravikumar K, Mohanapriya G, Hussain Z, Suresh RV. A prospective study on cardiovascular dysfunction in patients with hyperthyroidism and its reversal after surgical cure. World J Surg. 2016;40:622–8.
- 111. Galiè N, Humbert M, Vachiery J-L, Gibbs S, Lang I, Torbicki A, et al. 2015 ESC/ERS guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of pulmonary hypertension: the Joint Task Force for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Pulmonary Hypertension of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and the European Respiratory Society (ERS): Endorsed by: Association for European Paediatric and Congenital Cardiology (AEPC), International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation (ISHLT). Eur Heart J. 2016;37:67–119.
- 112.• Galiè N, Humbert M, Vachiery J-L, Gibbs S, Lang I, Torbicki A, et al. 2015 ESC/ERS guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of pulmonary hypertension: the Joint Task Force for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Pulmonary Hypertension of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and the European Respiratory Society (ERS): Endorsed by: Association for European Paediatric and Congenital Cardiology (AEPC), International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation (ISHLT). Eur Respir J. 2015;46:903–75. These are the most recent European guidelines, which provide evidence-based recommendations on the diagnosis and management of pulmonary hypertension.
- Navaneethan SD, Roy J, Tao K, Brecklin CS, Chen J, Deo R, et al. Chronic renal insufficiency cohort investigators. Prevalence,

predictors, and outcomes of pulmonary hypertension in CKD. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2016;27:877–86.

- 114. Reque J, Garcia-Prieto A, Linares T, Vega A, Abad S, Panizo N, et al. Pulmonary hypertension is associated with mortality and cardiovascular events in chronic kidney disease patients. Am J Nephrol. 2017;45:107–14.
- Navaneethan SD, Wehbe E, Heresi GA, Gaur V, Minai OA, Arrigain S, et al. Presence and outcomes of kidney disease in patients with pulmonary hypertension. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol. 2014;9:855–63.
- 116. Pabst S, Hammerstingl C, Hundt F, Gerhardt T, Grohé C, Nickenig G, et al. Pulmonary hypertension in patients with chronic kidney disease on dialysis and without dialysis: results of the PEPPERstudy. PLoS One. 2012;7:e35310.
- 117. Watanabe T, Abe K, Horimoto K, Hosokawa K, Ohtani K, Tsutsui H. Subcutaneous treprostinil was effective and tolerable in a patient with severe pulmonary hypertension associated with chronic kidney disease on hemodialysis. Heart Lung. 2017;46:129–30.
- Westerly BD, Johnson GB, Maldonado F, Utz JP, Specks U, Peikert T. Targeting B lymphocytes in progressive fibrosing mediastinitis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2014;190:1069–71.
- 119. Doyle TP, Loyd JE, Robbins IM. Percutaneous pulmonary artery and vein stenting: a novel treatment for mediastinal fibrosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2001;164:657–60.
- Brown ML, Cedeño AR, Edell ES, Hagler DJ, Schaff HV. Operative strategies for pulmonary artery occlusion secondary to mediastinal fibrosis. Ann Thorac Surg. 2009;88:233–7.