

 Open access • Journal Article • DOI:10.1007/S40620-017-0427-5

## Treatment of primary membranous nephropathy: where are we now?

— [Source link](#) 

Andrea Angioi, Nicola Lepori, Ana Coloma López, Sanjeev Sethi ...+2 more authors

**Institutions:** Mayo Clinic

**Published on:** 01 Aug 2018 - Journal of Nephrology (Springer International Publishing)

**Topics:** Membranous nephropathy

Related papers:

- [M-type phospholipase A2 receptor as target antigen in idiopathic membranous nephropathy.](#)
- [\[Membranous glomerulonephritis \(MGN\), ongoing studies\].](#)
- [Treatment of membranous nephropathy: time for a paradigm shift](#)
- [Novel therapies for membranous nephropathy: focus on rituximab](#)
- [Treatment of Primary Glomerulonephritis](#)

Share this paper:    

View more about this paper here: <https://typeset.io/papers/treatment-of-primary-membranous-nephropathy-where-are-we-now-50kikqz0z>

# Treatment of primary membranous nephropathy: where are we now?

Andrea Angioi<sup>1</sup> · Nicola Lepori<sup>1</sup> · Ana Coloma López<sup>2</sup> · Sanjeev Sethi<sup>3</sup> ·  
Fernando C. Fervenza<sup>2</sup> · Antonello Pani<sup>1</sup>

Received: 16 May 2017 / Accepted: 26 July 2017  
© Italian Society of Nephrology 2017

**Abstract** In the last 10 years, basic science and clinical research have made important contributions to the understanding and management of primary membranous nephropathy (MN). The identification of antibodies directed against the M-type phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> receptor (PLA2R) and thrombospondin type-1 domain-containing 7A protein have added a new perspective on diagnosis, monitoring the immunological activity, predicting prognosis and guiding therapy in patients with primary MN. Mounting evidence suggests that quantification and follow-up of antiPLA2R Abs levels can help in assessing prognosis and evaluate the response to treatment. The kidney disease improving global outcomes guidelines published in 2012 have not been updated. New

data on the use of rituximab suggest it should be considered as a potential initial therapy in the treatment of patients with primary MN.

**Keywords** Membranous glomerulonephritis · Immunosuppression · Renal diseases · Glomerulopathies

## Introduction

Membranous nephropathy (MN) is the most common cause of nephrotic syndrome in Caucasian adults. Considering the incidence of the glomerulopathies in Italy, MN is relatively frequent, representing 44.1% of patients diagnosed with nephrotic syndrome [1].

Initial studies performed in rat models (Heymann's nephritis) documented that subepithelial immune deposits were formed in situ in the basal surface of podocytes following the autoimmune targeting of megalin, a protein not expressed in human podocytes [2]. The first proof of concept that the same pathogenic mechanism may occur in humans came from Debiec et al. describing in situ formation of immune deposits in a neonate born to a mother deficient in neutral endopeptidase (NEP), a protein expressed in the podocytes [3]. During previous pregnancies, the mother developed antibodies against NEP, which crossed the placenta and bound to the protein in the fetal podocytes, leading to the development of primary MN. However, these cases are extremely rare. A major breakthrough came when Beck et al. identified circulating autoantibodies against the M-type phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> receptor (antiPLA2R Abs) that are present in the serum of approximately 70% of patients with MN [4].

Subsequent studies by Tomas et al. identified new circulating autoantibodies against thrombospondin Type-1 domain-containing 7A (anti-THSD7A Abs) in 5–10% of

Andrea Angioi, Nicola Lepori, and Ana Coloma López contributed equally to this work.

✉ Antonello Pani  
antonellopani@aob.it

Andrea Angioi  
andrea.angioi@gmail.com

Nicola Lepori  
Lepori.Nicola@mayo.edu

Ana Coloma López  
acoloma@riojasalud.es

Sanjeev Sethi  
sethi.sanjeev@mayo.edu

Fernando C. Fervenza  
fervenza.fernando@mayo.edu

- <sup>1</sup> Division of Nephrology and Dialysis, Azienda Ospedaliera G. Brotzu, Piazzale Ricchi n 1, 09100 Cagliari, Italy
- <sup>2</sup> Division of Nephrology and Hypertension, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, USA
- <sup>3</sup> Department of Anatomic Pathology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA

patients with MN who are anti-PLA2R negative [5]. As such, in approximately 80% of the cases an autoantibody can be identified and the disease is considered primary MN. In the majority of the remaining cases, an underlying cause such as drugs, infections, malignancies or systemic autoimmune disease can be identified and the disease is considered secondary MN [6]. Antibodies to not yet recognized podocytes' antigens are likely to account for the remaining cases of 'idiopathic' MN.

In this review, we summarize the prognosis and the several lines of treatment proposed in the literature for primary MN.

### Anti-PLA2R antibodies as diagnostic tools

Among the blood tests currently available, the indirect immunofluorescence test (IIF) holds the best sensitivity for anti-PLA2R Abs; its semi-quantitative nature, however, makes it less useful in monitoring disease activity and response to immunosuppressive therapy. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) tests are less sensitive than IIF but are less time consuming and allow for accurate quantitation of the circulating anti-PLA2R Abs levels. On the other hand, the use of a high threshold for seropositivity in commercial ELISA tests (>14 RU/ml), may lead to consider low-titer samples falsely negative.

On renal biopsy the diagnosis of PLA2R related MN can be made by demonstrating PLA2R staining overlapping the granular pattern of immunoglobulin (Ig)G deposits (IgG4 dominant). This "enhanced" pattern must be differentiated from the weak background positivity of the PLA2R Ag which can be detected in normal kidney. Approximately 30% of patients with PLA2R Ag positive deposits on renal biopsy may have negative anti-PLA2R in the serum [7]. This scenario can be explained by two different mechanisms. In the first one anti-PLA2R Abs negativity reflects an immunologic remission (spontaneous or induced by immunosuppressive therapy) that precedes immunodeposits clearance and clinical remission. The second mechanism could be explained by a phenomenon called "kidney as a sink": anti-PLA2R Abs are cleared from the blood by the bind to target antigens in podocyte and they become detectable in the blood only when their rate of production exceeds the buffering capacity of the kidney [8].

The positivity of either serology or histology defines PLA2R-associated MN. In the serum, a positive anti-PLA2R Abs titer is extremely specific for MN (almost 100%), since circulating antibodies have not been detected in healthy individuals or in the setting of other autoimmune disorders [9]. Accordingly, some authors proposed that kidney biopsy can be avoided in patients who are antiPLA2R Abs positive, have normal renal function and do not have evidence

of secondary MN, e.g. hepatitis B/C, systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), malignancy, etc. [8–10]. In the case of negative serology for antiPLA2R Abs, however, a renal biopsy is mandatory to establish the diagnosis [11]. Of note, several cases of PLA2R-associated MN concomitant with hepatitis B, C, sarcoidosis and less frequently malignancies, have been reported [12–16]. It is unclear if MN is concomitant or secondary to the coexisting disease [8].

Similarly, recent evidence shows a prevalence of malignancies of up to 20% among patients with THSDA7A-related MN, particularly endometrial and gallbladder carcinomas, suggesting the need for an aggressive screening for cancer when these antibodies are detected [17]. A semi-quantitative indirect immunofluorescence test has been recently developed to detect circulating THSDA7A antibodies [18]. Theoretically, if both circulating PLA2R antibodies and PLA2R antigens on IF microscopy are negative, and immune deposits appear IgG4 dominant, a THSD7A-related MN should be ruled out. However, there are some additional elements that may help to differentiate cancer- vs. non cancer-related MN [19].

### Anti-PLA2R antibodies level to monitor disease activity and predict prognosis in primary MN

The natural history of the disease is heterogeneous. Approximately 20–30% of patients will develop spontaneous complete remission [20] and 30–40% of patients will progress to end-stage renal disease (ESRD) [8]. In the remaining patients mild to moderate proteinuria, with stable renal function, persists over time. Predicting disease progression is important in order to restrict immunosuppressive therapy to those patients with significant risk of progression to ESRD.

Traditionally, several factors have been suggested as predictors of poor prognosis for developing renal insufficiency in primary MN, including male gender, age >50 years, hypertension, histological markers, and proteinuria and creatinine at presentation [21]. Among these risk factors, persistent proteinuria, initial creatinine clearance and change in creatinine clearance over time have shown the best predictive value in identifying patients at increased risk of disease progression [22]. According to the Toronto Risk Score which has been validated in several countries three groups of risk were recognized:

1. a "low risk" group, defined by patients with normal serum creatinine/creatinine clearance and proteinuria consistently  $\leq 4$  g/24 h over a 6-month observation period,
2. a "medium risk" group, defined by patients with normal and stable kidney function and with proteinuria

- $>4 \leq 8$  g/24 h over 6 months of observation (55% probability of developing ESRD within 10 years),
3. a “high risk” group, defined as patients with persistent proteinuria  $>8$  g/24 h, independent of the degree of kidney function impairment (66–80% probability of progression to ESRD in 10 years).

The Toronto Risk Score predicts with an 80–90% accuracy the risk of progression of patients affected by primary MN. However, a long period of observation (at least 6 months) is needed to calculate the risk score with a prolonged delay for the start of treatment [14, 23].

Since the discovery of anti-PLA2R Abs, an increasing body of evidence supports the quantification of these autoantibodies as a reliable tool to predict spontaneous remission, disease progression and monitor the response to treatment. The occurrence of spontaneous remission is more common in patients with low antibody titers compared to those with high antibody titers [24, 25]. Anti-PLA2R Abs levels may predict progression from sub-nephrotic proteinuria to full nephrotic syndrome [26]. High titers of anti-PLA2R antibodies have also been associated with the rate of relapses, lower response to immunosuppressive therapy and longer time to remission [27]. Furthermore, high antibody levels are associated with high rapid loss of kidney function [28].

The evolution of anti-PLA2R Abs levels in response to immunosuppression reliably predicts outcomes. Relapse rate also correlates with the level of antibodies at the time of clinical remission, with patients who become anti-PLA2R Abs negative having lower relapse rates than patients who remain anti-PLA2R Abs positive at the end of immunosuppression.

Hosfra et al. analyzed a cohort of 82 patients with primary MN, and showed an inverse correlation between anti-PLA2R Abs levels and rate of spontaneous remission (38 vs. 4% in the lowest and highest tertiles, respectively) [29]. High anti-PLA2R Abs levels can predict a more rapid loss of renal function [30]. The titer of autoantibodies was directly correlated with proteinuria and serum creatinine, strong predictors of disease activity [24].

In patients treated with rituximab, Beck et al. demonstrated that 88% of patients with a drop in antibody levels developed complete or partial remission by 24 months vs. 33% for those with no significant immunologic response to rituximab treatment [27]. Of note, decline in anti-PLA2R almost always preceded the decline in proteinuria by months. Subsequent studies showed that antibody levels decrease independently of the type of immunosuppressive therapy [28].

In 2015 Ruggenti et al. published a series of 132 patients with primary MN treated with rituximab, showing that all 25 complete remissions were preceded by anti-PLA2R Abs depletion, and lower baseline anti-PLA2R Abs level strongly predicted remission [31]. As initially

demonstrated by Beck et al., a 50% reduction of anti-PLA2R Abs titer anticipated an equivalent reduction of proteinuria by 10 months and re-emergence of circulating antibodies predicted relapses of the disease [31]. Furthermore, a study performed by Bech et al. included 48 patients with primary MN and high risk of progression treated with cyclophosphamide or mycophenolate mofetil in combination with corticosteroids for 12 months, with 33 patients positive for anti-PLA2R Abs. Although in this study the levels of autoantibodies at baseline did not predict the initial response, the anti-PLA2R Abs titer at the end of the therapy predicted long-term outcomes. After 5 years of follow-up, 14 of 24 patients with a negative titer of autoantibodies at the end of treatment were in persistent remission compared to 0 of 9 patients with persistent circulating anti-PLA2R Abs [27].

The prognosis for patients with primary MN and no circulating antibodies seems to be less clear; recently Hoxha et al. described a high proportion of spontaneous remission in anti-PLA2R Abs and anti-THSD7A Abs-negative patients [25]. Therefore, maximizing support therapy may be a reasonable initial approach in these cases. Serial anti-PLA2R Abs assessment is required in those patients with positive PLA2R Ag staining in renal biopsy, who are seronegative for anti-PLA2R Abs.

## Supportive therapy

Supportive therapy involves restricting dietary sodium to less than 2 g/day, restricting protein intake (0.8–1 g/kg/day), and controlling blood pressure (blood pressure targeted to 125/75 mmHg), hyperlipidemia, and edema. This approach is recommended by KDIGO guidelines for all patients with MN and nephrotic syndrome [32].

Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEi) or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs) should be the first line of therapy in all cases, due to their antiproteinuric effect. However, it should be considered that in patients with primary MN their antiproteinuric effect is modest (<30% decrease from baseline), in part because the majority of these patients are not hypertensive. Moreover, the antiproteinuric effect has been mainly observed in those patients with a lower degree of proteinuria [20] and use of ACEi or ARB therapy has not shown to be related to prognosis in patients with primary MN [33]. Dual blockade of the renin-angiotensin system can be used in patients who do not have diabetes or significant cardiovascular disease and can tolerate it.

In addition, supportive therapy must be directed to improve hyperlipidemia and lessen the risk of thromboembolism in patients with primary MN.

The effect of statins on cardiovascular disease in patients with primary MN has not been demonstrated in clinical trials. However, most clinicians consider hyperlipidemia as a significant risk factor for cardiovascular disease in patients with nephrotic syndrome.

The use of anticoagulant therapy should be considered in cases of primary MN with a high risk for thrombotic events (in particular: proteinuria >10 g/day, positive family history, previous thrombotic events, serum albumin less than 2 g/dl, obesity or physical inactivity). A recent study evaluating 898 patients with primary MN showed that venous thromboembolic events occurred in approximately 7% of patients, with an incidence rate significantly higher than for other causes of nephrotic syndrome. A serum albumin level less than 2.8 g/dl was the only independent predictor of venous thromboembolism [34].

### Immunosuppressive therapy

We will now review the most commonly used therapeutic approaches in clinical practice (Table 1) as well as the degree of evidence supporting such practices (Table 2).

### Corticosteroid monotherapy

In 1979, the first randomized controlled trial in patients with primary MN showed that a short course of high-dose prednisone monotherapy (125 mg every other day for 8 weeks) was associated with a reduced rate of deterioration in renal function when compared to placebo [35]. Nevertheless, this study was criticized because of the really poor rate of renal survival in the control group. Two subsequent studies failed to show a beneficial effect of corticosteroid monotherapy on survival, proteinuria and renal function in primary MN [36, 37]. Moreover, meta-analyses did not demonstrate a benefit on renal survival/death and complete remission rates [38, 39]. As such, the KDIGO guidelines do not recommend corticosteroid monotherapy in patients with primary MN [32].

### Alkylating agents

The combination of corticosteroids and cyclophosphamide or chlorambucil has improved substantially the prognosis of patients with primary MN (Table 2) [38–40]. In 1984, Ponticelli's group demonstrated the efficacy of a 6-month schedule of alternate monthly courses of glucocorticoids and chlorambucil in patients with primary MN, nephrotic syndrome and normal renal function. During a mean follow-up of 31 months, the intervention group showed a 72% rate of complete or partial remission compared to 30% in

the placebo group [41]. A 10-year follow-up revealed a higher rate of remission and dialysis-free survival in the treated group than placebo group (62 vs. 33 and 92 vs. 60%, respectively) [42]. In a subsequent study, chlorambucil was compared with cyclophosphamide (CYC) as an alkylating agent. Patients assigned to chlorambucil treatment received steroids on months 1, 3 and 5 (methylprednisolone 1 g iv on three consecutive days followed by prednisone 0.4 mg/kg/day for 27 days) and oral chlorambucil on months 2, 4 and 6 (0.2 mg/kg/day); in the CYC group, chlorambucil was substituted by oral CYC (2.5 mg/kg/day). The two groups did not show significant differences in remission rate (82% in the chlorambucil group and 93% in the CYC group after 1-year follow-up) and relapse rate (30.5 vs. 25% after 30 months of follow-up). The safety profile was more favorable in the CYC group, with lesser patients who had to stop treatment because of side effects (5% in CYC vs. 14% in the chlorambucil group) [43].

Similar results were found by Jha et al. in an open-label, randomized study comparing treatment with a CYC-based Ponticelli regimen (methylprednisolone 1 g/day for three consecutive days followed by oral prednisolone 0.5 mg/kg/day for 27 days on months 1, 3 and 5 and oral cyclophosphamide at 2 mg/kg/day on months 2, 4 and 6) versus supportive therapy, in adults with nephrotic syndrome and biopsy-proven primary MN. This study confirmed the efficacy of cytotoxic therapy in inducing remission (72 vs. 34% in the control group), leading to a superior long-term renal survival (89 vs. 65%, after a mean follow-up of 11 years) [44].

More recently, the UK Membranous trial attempted to identify the best approach for patients considered at high risk of progression (defined as a decline of estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR)  $\geq 20\%$  during the previous 2 years). A cohort of 108 patients was randomized to treatment with cyclosporine A (CSA) monotherapy (12 months), chlorambucil-based Ponticelli schedule (6 months) or supportive therapy alone. The risk of a further 20% decline in eGFR was significantly lower in the chlorambucil group, but not in the CSA group compared with supportive therapy alone. The rate of progression in the chlorambucil group (58%) was greater than in other randomized controlled trials (5–8%), raising concerns about the lesser effectiveness of late treatment in primary MN. The surrogate renal endpoint (20% reduction in eGFR) could be inappropriate, since several factors such as diuretic use or lowering of blood pressure might all contribute to slight changes in serum creatinine levels [45].

Although CYC and chlorambucil are equally effective in inducing remission, CYC has a better tolerability profile and is associated with less short and long-term side effects, in particular bone marrow suppression and hematological malignancies [43, 46]. For practical purpose, chlorambucil is no longer used as an alkylating agent in the treatment of

**Table 1** List of the most common regimens applied in clinical practice to treat primary MN

Regimen	References	Class of risk to ESRD <sup>a</sup>	Agents	Dose/levels	Timing	Line of approach
Chlorambucil-based “Ponticelli schedule”	Ponticelli et al. KI [42] (RCT)	→ Moderate	Chlorambucil + Prednisolone + Methylprednisolone	0.2 mg/kg/day	Months 2, 4, 6	First-line
	Reichert et al. Ann Intern Med 1994 (RCT)	→ High <sup>b</sup>		0.5 mg/kg/day 1000 mg iv	Months 1, 3, 5 Months 1, 3, 5. Three pulses	
Cyclophosphamide-based “Ponticelli schedule”	Ponticelli et al. JASN [43] (RCT)	→ Moderate	Cyclophosphamide + Prednisolone + Methylprednisolone	2.5 mg/kg/day	Months 2, 4, 6	First-line
	Jha et al. JASN 2007 (RCT) Howman et al. Lancet [45] (RCT) Reichert LJ et al. Ann Intern Med 1994 (RCT)	→ High		0.5 mg/kg/day 1000 mg iv	Months 1, 3, 5 Months 1, 3, 5. Three pulses	
Cyclosporine and steroids	Cattran et al. KI [49] (RCT)	→ Moderate	Cyclosporine + Prednisolone	3.5 mg/kg/day (divided in two daily doses)	For 26 weeks, then taper	First-line
	Alexopoulos et al. NDT [52] (RCT) Cattran et al. KI [48] (RCT)	→ High	or methylprednisolone	target: 150–200 ng/ml 0.15 mg/kg/day, max. 15 mg 0.4 mg/kg/day	CyA dose by 25% per month; continue treatment at 50% of dose until 12 months, then taper to lowest possible maintenance dose	
Tacrolimus	Praga et al. KI [50] (RCT)	→ Moderate	Tacrolimus	0.05 mg/kg/day (divided in two daily doses)—serum target 3–5 mcg/l or 5–8 if unresponsive after 2 months	Induction phase: 12 months, then 6-month taper	First-line
Rituximab	Dahan et al. JASN [65] (RCT)	→ Moderate	Rituximab	375 mg/m <sup>2</sup> —recommended CD19+ target: 0 cells	Induction phase: a single infusion every week (total: 2 infusions)	Resistant disease
Rituximab (lymphoma schedule)	Ruggenenti et al. JASN [63] (Observational)	→ Moderate	Rituximab	375 mg/m <sup>2</sup> —recommended CD19+ target: 0 cells	Induction phase: a single infusion every week (total: 4 infusions)	Resistant disease
Rituximab (rheumatoid arthritis schedule)	Fervenza et al. cJASN [62] (Observational)	→ Moderate	Rituximab	1000 mg—recommended CD19+ target: 0 cells	Induction phase: a single infusion at time 0 and after 15 days (total: 2 infusions)	Resistant disease
Synthetic ACTH	Ponticelli et al. AJKD [83] (RCT)	→ Moderate	Synthetic ACTH	Starting dose of 1 mg/week, increasing to 1 mg twice weekly	Taper after 6–9 months	Resistant disease
Mycophenolate mofetil and steroids	Chan et al. Nephrology (Carlton) 2007 (RCT) Senthil Nayagam et al. NDT 2008 (RCT)	→ Moderate	Mycophenolate mofetil + prednisone	2.0 g/day 0.5 mg/kg/day	For 6 months For 12 weeks	Resistant disease

ESRD end-stage renal disease, RCT randomized controlled trial, CYC cyclophosphamide, ACTH adrenocorticotropic hormone CyA

<sup>a</sup>According to Cattran et al., Kidney Int. 1997

<sup>b</sup>RCTs on chlorambucil in high risk patients are not available, but efficacy can be assumed from CYC trials and meta-analyses

**Table 2** In this table, we compared the most common regimens in literature against placebo/no treatment/no immunosuppressive therapy or other treatments, according to the results of the three most significant meta-analyses in the literature [37–39]

Comparison	Agent 2	References	Complete remission		Complete/partial remission		ESRD/death	
			Effect size RR (95% CI)	Patients, n (RCT)	Effect size RR (95% CI)	Trials, n	Effect size RR (95% CI)	Trials, n
Immunosuppression	No treatment or ACEi/ARBs	Chen et al. [38]	1.59 (0.87, 2.88)	761 (15)	<b>1.31</b> (1.01 to 1.70)	864 (16)	<b>0.58</b> (0.36 to 0.95)	791 (15)
Steroids	Placebo	Chen et al. [38]	At 24 months	31 (1)	At 24 months	31 (1)	0.75 (0.34, 1.63)	295 (3)
	No treatment	Hogan et al. [39]	5.33 (0.70, 40.54)	351 (4)	2.4 (0.93, 6.17)	/	/	/
CYC	Non-immunosuppressive therapy		1.55 (0.99, 2.44)		/	/	/	/
	Placebo	Chen et al. [38]	At 24 months	25 (1)	At 24 months	25 (1)	0.33 (0.01, 7.84)	102 (3)
Alkylating agents + steroids	No treatment	Chen et al. [38]	0.36 (0.02, 8.05)		2.17 (0.87, 5.37)			
	Non-immunosuppressive therapy							
CYC + steroids	Placebo	Chen et al. [38]	At 24 months	172 (2)	At 24 months	172 (2)	<b>0.44</b> (0.26, 0.75)	448 (8)
	Chlorambucil	Imperiale et al. [40] <sup>a</sup>	<b>13.86</b> (2.70, 71.21)	110 (3)	<b>4.02</b> (2.38, 6.77)	110 (3)	/	/
CSA	Other treatments	Hogan et al. [39] <sup>a</sup>	<b>3.0</b> (1.5–11.0)	142 (3)	<b>2.2</b> (1.4, 3.3)	/	/	/
	Steroids		<b>4.8</b> (1.44, 15.96)		/	/	/	/
TAC	Other treatments	Chen et al. [38]	At 32–39 months	119 (2)	At 32–39 months	119 (2)	1.17 (0.15, 9.36)	147 (3)
	Chlorambucil	Chen et al. [38]	2.52 (0.38, 16.81)		2.12 (0.48, 9.31)			
MMF	Other treatments	Chen et al. [38]	At 9–60 months	185 (5)	At 9–60 months	185 (5)	1.00 (0.47, 2.15)	202 (6)
	Steroids		1.03 (0.52, 2.03)		1.03 (0.73, 1.44)			
ACTH	Other treatments	Chen et al. [38]	At 12–30 months	121 (2)	At 12–30 months	121 (2)	0.31 (0.01, 7.20)	121 (2)
	Chlorambucil	Chen et al. [38]	0.91 (0.47, 1.74)		1.19 (0.91, 1.55)			
ACTH	Other treatments	Chen et al. [38]	At 12–24 months	77 (3)	At 12–24 months	77 (3)	/	/
	Chlorambucil	Chen et al. [38]	0.99 (0.35, 2.82)		0.88 (0.58, 1.35)			
ACTH	Other treatments	Chen et al. [38]	At 21–22 months	62 (2)	At 21–22 months	62 (2)	/	/
	Chlorambucil	Chen et al. [38]	3.81 (0.75, 19.27)		2.55 (0.45, 14.55)			

Effect size is expressed as relative risk (RR), if available

CYC cyclophosphamide, CSA cyclosporine A, TAC tacrolimus, MMF mycophenolate mofetil, ACTH adrenocorticotropic hormone, ACEi angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor, ARB angiotensin receptor blockers, RCT randomized controlled trial

Numbers in bold indicate statistical significance (p < 0.05)

Study design of the referenced trial are reported in italics

<sup>a</sup>Trials with alkylating agents without steroids were included

primary MN. However, serious adverse events secondary to CYC exposure have been widely reported (in particular following cumulative doses superior to 36 g), such as malignancies, infertility and severe bone marrow suppression. In a cohort of 293 patients with granulomatosis with polyangiitis, a cumulative CYC dose over 36 g was associated with an increased risk of cancer (bladder cancer and acute myeloid leukemia). Moreover, risk of gonadic toxicity has been reported with cumulative doses of 10–15 g in female patients and 200–250 mg/kg in male patients [6]. Taking into account that a patient of 80 kg treated with a course of CYC 2.5 mg/kg per day for 3 months would receive a cumulative dose of 18 g, CYC appears of limited utility in relapse treatment and its choice as first-line treatment should take into consideration the high risk of infertility [6].

Several cases of *Pneumocystis jirovecii* pneumonia have been reported in patients exposed to alkylating agents; therefore, prophylactic treatment with trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole is recommended [47].

### Calcineurin inhibitors (CNI)

CSA and tacrolimus (TAC) can be used to induce remission in patients affected with primary MN with preserved renal function (creatinine clearance >60 ml/min); these drugs are not mutually exclusive, and resistance to CSA does not mean resistance to TAC or vice versa [45]. According to the KDIGO guidelines (2012), these drugs are considered an alternative therapy when alkylating agents combined with corticosteroids are contraindicated or refused by the patient [32].

Support for CNI use comes from two randomized controlled trials (RCTs) from Canada. The first study involved patients diagnosed with progressive primary MN, identified by an absolute decrease in creatinine clearance  $\geq 8$  ml/min and persistent nephrotic range proteinuria after 12 months of supportive therapy. The patients were randomly assigned to CSA (initial dose: 3.5 mg/kg/day, desired 12-h trough level between 110 and 170  $\mu\text{g/l}$  for 12 months) or placebo. After 12 months, the CSA group showed a greater improvement in creatinine clearance slope and proteinuria; these results were sustained in 75% of CSA patients [48]. A subsequent study compared CSA (3.5 mg/kg/day adjusted according to serum levels between 125 and 225  $\mu\text{g/l}$  for 6 months) plus low dose steroids (prednisone 0.15 mg/kg/day up to a maximum daily dose of 15 mg) to low dose steroids alone in 51 patients with corticosteroid-resistant disease. After 26 weeks of treatment, the CSA arm achieved 75% of remissions compared to 22% in the placebo arm. The relatively short course of CSA was associated with a high rate of relapses of 43% at week 52 and 48% at week 78 [49].

Current KDIGO guidelines recommend that in patients who achieved remission, CSA treatment should be continued for at least 12 months before considering discontinuation [32].

TAC was introduced after a successful clinical trial from Spain, which expanded the experience inherited from renal transplantation. A total of 48 patients were randomly assigned to receive either supportive therapy and TAC monotherapy (0.05 mg/kg/day for 12 months and then tapered over 6 months, with a desired trough level of 3–5 ng/ml) or supportive therapy alone. After 18 months, 76% of the patients treated with TAC achieved complete or partial remission vs. 30% in the control group. As observed in CSA, 47% of patients had a relapse within 18 months of TAC withdrawal (mean time to relapse 4.2 months) [50]. The remission rates of the Spanish study were recently confirmed in a multicenter retrospective study, where primary MN patients (34% of whom previously treated with other regimens) achieved 84% of complete or partial remission; as previously described, 44% of the responders relapsed after the treatment was tapered [51].

Hypertension and nephrotoxicity are the major side effects seen in patients treated with CNI. This is particularly important since many responders will become CNI dependent. Worsening in renal function in these patients may be managed by decreasing the daily dose of CNI [52].

### Mycophenolate mofetil (MMF)

MMF is a potent, selective and reversible inhibitor of inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase, a crucial enzyme of the *de novo* pathway of guanosine nucleotide synthesis. T- and B-lymphocytes are highly dependent on this pathway and its inhibition results in a significant cytostatic effect. This immunosuppressive agent presents a better safety profile compared to CYC and is widely used for the treatment of glomerular diseases, in particular lupus nephritis.

Initial reports were published about the clinical efficacy of MMF monotherapy for patients with primary MN resistant to CNI and cytotoxic agents. A case series described 16 patients resistant to multiple therapeutic regimens who were treated with an initial dose range from 500 to 2000 mg/day for a mean 8 months. Partial or complete remission occurred in eight patients (50%) [53]. A subsequent randomized controlled trial involved 19 patients-naïve treated with MMF monotherapy (2 g per day) for 12 months and 17 patients with conservative therapy. After 1 year of follow-up, no differences were found between groups in terms of remission rate (37% in the intervention group vs. 41 in the control group) and proteinuria [54].

A Dutch study compared 32 patients treated with MMF (1 g twice a day) with 32 historic controls treated with CYC



(1.5 mg/kg/day) for 12 months; both groups also received pulses of methylprednisolone (3 g iv on months 1, 3 and 5) and alternate-day prednisone (0.5 mg/kg every other day). The median follow-up of the MMF group was 23 months. MMF combined with high-dose steroids was as effective as CYC in increasing serum albumin and decreasing proteinuria through a period of 12 months, with a remission rate of 66% in the MMF group vs. 72% in the CYC group. However, MMF-treated patients showed a higher rate of primary non response and more frequently experienced relapses 2 years after the end of treatment (70 vs. 20% in the CYC group) [55].

For these reasons, although the combination of MMF with a high dose of corticosteroids appears effective, KDIGO guidelines do not recommend MMF as the first line of treatment for patients with primary MN [32].

### Azathioprine (AZA)

AZA was considered as a low side-effect alternative to alkylating agents. Some case series described the efficacy of an association of AZA and corticosteroids [56], but a prospective observational study showed no benefits in rates of remission of proteinuria (51 vs. 58%,  $p=NS$ ) and progression to ESRD (21 vs. 18%,  $p=NS$ ) in patients treated with corticosteroids plus AZA compared to the control group in the long-term period (10 years) [57].

### Rituximab (RTX)

RTX is a chimeric monoclonal antibody directed against the membrane protein CD20 expressed on the surface of mature B-lymphocytes, but not on hematopoietic stem cells and plasma cells. Since it has been approved in 1997 by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for the treatment of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, the use of RTX has expanded into the field of immune-mediated glomerular disease, such as anti-neutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies-associated vasculitis, lupus nephritis, minimal change disease, focal segmental glomerulosclerosis and primary MN [58].

The first study of RTX in primary MN reported a case series of 8 patients treated with the 'lymphoma protocol' (375 mg/m<sup>2</sup> weekly for four doses). Sixteen weeks after the end of the treatment, two patients achieved complete remission and three patients partial remission [59]. After 12 months of follow up, all five patients maintained remission and RTX revealed also an antiproteinuric effect in the remaining three patients, with a reduction of more than 40% compared to baseline proteinuria. No major side effects were reported, only three adverse events with the first infusion [60].

Afterwards, in an open-label pilot trial from Mayo Clinic, 15 patients with primary MN were treated with 1 g of RTX at time 0 and repeated after 15 days for a total of two doses ('rheumatoid arthritis' protocol). After a follow-up of 6 months, proteinuria decreased by 50%; at 1-year follow-up, two and six patients achieved complete and partial remission, respectively [61]. A subsequent study was performed, by the same group, using the lymphoma protocol in a cohort of 20 patients. After 1 year, the remission rate was 50%, increasing to 80% after 2 years, with four patients in complete remission and 12 in partial remission; moreover, only one patient (5%) relapsed [62]. These studies showed a more effective depletion of CD20+ cells with the lymphoma regimen, but no differences in the effectiveness were demonstrated. Moreover, in both studies, no relationship was found between the response and number of B-cells in the blood, CD20+ cells in renal tissue, degree of tubulointerstitial fibrosis, starting proteinuria or creatinine values [62].

A subsequent case series from Mario Negri's group described RTX treatment in 100 patients with primary MN and nephrotic syndrome resistant to inhibitors of the renin-angiotensin system or other immunosuppressive regimens (32%). The majority received only a single dose of RTX (according a B-cell titrated protocol); complete or partial remission was achieved in 65% of cases and proteinuria decreased over time from 9.1 to 4, 2 and 1.5 g/day at 1, 2 and 3 years of follow-up, respectively [63]. Similarly, another case series of 12 patients with primary MN resistant to other immunosuppressive regimens (CSA or alkylating agents) underwent a RTX-lymphoma regimen with 12 months of follow-up. Complete and partial remission was achieved in 21.4 and 50%, respectively [64]. No treatment-related serious adverse events were reported in either study.

More recently, a multicenter randomized trial of RTX performed by the GEMRITUX study group compared RTX (375 mg/m<sup>2</sup>, day 1 and 8) plus conservative therapy vs. conservative therapy alone. At 6 months, the study group did not find any difference in complete plus partial remission rates (35.1% in RTX group vs. 21.1% in the conservative therapy group). However, post-RCT observation after a median follow-up of 17 months revealed a higher remission rate in the RTX group (64.9%) than the conservative group (34.2%) [65].

Although RTX and alkylating agents have not been directly compared in a single RCT, RTX has shown an excellent side-effect profile. The most common adverse effects are infusion related [61, 63] and can be significantly reduced by pretreatment with acetaminophen, methylprednisolone and antihistamine. As for alkylating agents, pneumocystis prophylaxis should be considered. However, RTX is not devoid of potential severe side effects. In 2006, the FDA issued a Drug Safety newsletter regarding two cases of fatal progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (PML) in patients affected

with non-Hodgkin's lymphoma who had been treated with RTX [66]. These patients received high-dose chemotherapy before or in association with RTX. Other cases related to PML have been reported in patients with hematological disorders or rheumatologic disorders (including SLE) [67]. Remarkably, to the best of our knowledge, no such case has been reported in patients treated with RTX monotherapy.

Fatal fulminating hepatitis due to reactivation of hepatitis B virus after RTX has been reported [68]. As such, treatment with RTX in patients with hepatitis B should be carefully evaluated and requires the use of antiviral prophylaxis [69].

Data about risk of malignancies in RTX-treated patients mainly come from the experience in treatment of hematologic malignancies. Two different studies showed that RTX-containing regimens were not associated to an increased risk of malignancy compared to non-RTX containing regimens in B-cell non Hodgkin lymphoma [70, 71]. An increase in solid tumors were, instead, reported when RTX was used with high-dose chemotherapy (HDT) and autologous stem cell transplantation [72]. However, it should be stressed that long-term data on risk for malignancies are not available for RTX monotherapy.

Considering the toxicity of the alkylating agents, particularly in patients with relapsing disease, the available evidence suggests that RTX could be considered as a first line of therapy in primary MN. Unfortunately, RTX is expensive: the cost of a 'rheumatoid arthritis schedule' is around €8268. On the other hand, a single dose of 375 mg/m<sup>2</sup> (as envisaged in the B-cell driven protocol) costs €3200 for an average 70 kg patient [73, 74] compared to a cost of €450 for a corticosteroid-based regimen with CYC for 6 months at the currently recommended doses [74]. However, if we consider the low rate of moderate to severe side effects (as discussed above) as well as the low rate of relapse, the cost-gap of RTX-based regimens appears to narrow when compared with the standard of care. In fact, hospitalization in Italy costs around € 800/day (excluding therapeutic interventions) [75]. These considerations closely match those with other experiences in immunology [75, 76] and hematology [77].

Three randomized controlled trials with RTX are ongoing:

1. The MEMbranous Nephropathy Trial Of Rituximab (MENTOR) study (NCT01180036) is an open-label RCT designed to evaluate RTX (1000 mg, iv day 1 and 15, repeated after 6 months if the reduction of proteinuria is >25%) versus CSA (3.5–5 mg/kg/day; target levels 125–175 ng/dl) for 6 months, and continued for an additional 6 months if proteinuria reduction is >25%, in maintenance of remission at 24 months from randomization [78]. Results are anticipated in late 2017.
2. The Sequential treatment with Tacrolimus–Rituximab vs. steroids plus cyclophosphamide in patients with

primary MEMbranous Nephropathy (STARMEN) trial (NCT01955187) is now in the recruitment phase and will compare a TAC-RXT treatment (experimental group) with Ponticelli's schedule (control group). The experimental group will receive TAC for 9 months (initial dose of 0.05 mg/kg/day, adjusted to achieve blood trough levels between 5–7 ng/ml, maintained for 6 months and then progressively tapered) plus RTX 1 g iv at month 6. The rates of remission, relapse, preservation of renal function and adverse effects will be evaluated in a 2-year follow-up [79].

3. The RI-CYCLO trial (NCT03018535) is recruiting patients from Italian facilities to provide a head-to-head comparison between RTX (1000 mg, day 1 and 15) and Ponticelli's schedule (month 1, 3 and 5: 1000 mg iv methylprednisolone daily × 3 followed by prednisone 0.5/mg/kg/day; month 2, 4 and 6: oral cyclophosphamide 2.0 mg/kg/day), since RCTs are still missing.

### Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH)

ACTH is physiologically produced by the pituitary gland and stimulates the production of endogenous glucocorticoids and indirectly activates the melanocortin receptors, which play a role in various physiologic functions, including melanin synthesis, immunomodulation, anti-inflammation, lipolysis stimulation and modulation of exocrine function [80]. Basic research in rodents identified gene expression of these receptors in podocytes, glomerular endothelial cells, mesangial cells and tubular epithelial cells. In animal models of primary MN treated with a specific melanocortin receptor agonist, it significantly reduced proteinuria, oxidative stress and improved podocyte morphology [81].

The first pilot study evaluated 14 patients with primary MN who were treated with synacthen, a synthetic version of ACTH. Patients received synacthen starting at 1 mg intramuscularly every other week with the dose increased to 1 mg intramuscularly 3 times/week for 8 weeks. There was a 90% reduction in proteinuria at the end of the treatment. A subgroup of five patients, who were severely nephrotic and non-responsive to previous therapies, underwent a total treatment period of 12 months: 18 months after the end of treatment, all of them were still in remission [82]. These data were confirmed in an Italian RCT showing no differences between patients treated with cyclic steroids (methylprednisolone 1 g iv on three consecutive days, then 0.4 mg/kg/day orally for 27 days on month 1, 3 and 5) + CYC (2.5 mg/kg/day orally on month 2,4 and 6) versus synacthen (initially 1 mg intramuscularly every other week then increased up to 1 mg twice weekly for a total treatment period of 1 year), with remission rates of 94 and 88%, respectively [83]. A second open-label, prospective study demonstrated beneficial

effects of natural ACTH (ACTHar gel 80 IU subcutaneously twice weekly) in resistant glomerular diseases, including five patients with primary MN and significant reduction in renal function (eGFR < 45 ml/min) who were resistant to other immunosuppressive agents: three of these patients achieved immunologic remission with a negative anti-PLA2R Abs titer after 4 months of treatment, with a clinical partial remission occurring in two of them [84].

In 2014, Hladunewich et al. published a prospective open label study in 20 patients with primary MN and eGFR > 40 ml/min, receiving subcutaneous ACTHar gel at a dose of 40 or 80 IU twice weekly for a total of 12 weeks. Results showed an improvement in proteinuria (decrease  $\geq 50\%$  from baseline) in 65% of patients after 12 months of follow-up, with two complete remissions and ten partial remissions. An improvement in serum albumin and lipid profile was also demonstrated. Lower doses of ACTH (40 IU twice weekly) were associated with a poor response with no significant improvement in proteinuria after 12 weeks of treatment. Five patients who were initially treated with 40 IU twice weekly were continued on ACTHar gel 80 IU twice weekly for an additional 12 weeks. Interestingly, these patients showed a significant improvement in proteinuria after 12 months of follow-up; these results suggest that the effect of ACTH is dose dependent. The drug was well tolerated and safe [85]. The most frequent side effects were weight gain and hyperglycemia [83, 84].

### Novel therapeutic perspectives

Ofatumumab is an anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody, which differs from RTX in terms of the different target-epitope: it showed efficacy in the treatment of B-cell lymphomas and other hematological malignancies which had previously not responded to RTX [86, 87]. Ruggenti et al. recently described two cases of clinical remission of primary MN in patients who developed primary or secondary resistance to RTX [74]; these patients belong to a larger unpublished cohort of nephrotic patients with normal renal function successfully treated with ofatumumab as rescue therapy after failure of RTX. Resistance to RTX in these cases, is likely due to a change in the CD20 antigen conformation, which prevents B cell-RTX binding and the consequent B-cell depletion [74].

The B lymphocyte stimulator protein (BLyS, also known as BAFF) is a soluble member of the tumor necrosis factor family, which plays a fundamental role in B lymphocyte activation and differentiation [88]. Belimumab, a monoclonal antibody directed against BLyS, has been tested in 14 proteinuric patients with antiPLA2R-positive primary MN from six different centers in UK [89]. The treatment protocol consisted in 10 mg/kg iv belimumab every 4 weeks for at

least 28 weeks up to week 100 (frequency increased to every 2 weeks if urine protein-creatinine ratio > 1000 mg/mmol) and supportive therapy. After 12 weeks, the anti-PLA2R antibody titer showed a significant reduction (-46%) and the urine protein-creatinine ratio decreased by 38% after 38 weeks. BLyS inhibition seems to induce apoptosis and depletion of autoreactive B cells: this mechanism of action has been proposed as the main cause of the slower effect of belimumab with respect to rituximab, which likely induces complement-mediated cytolysis of CD20-positive cells [74].

There is also increasing interest in the use of anti-plasma cell agents as rescue treatment in resistant primary MN. The rationale for this approach is related to the hypothesis that in some cases of MN resistant to anti-CD20 treatments autoantibodies are produced by long-lived memory plasma cells CD20 negative.

Proteasome inhibitor bortezomib induced complete remission in a nephrotic patient resistant to high-dose steroid treatment [90] and in a case of post-transplantation recurrent MN resistant to RTX [91]. The development of a second generation of proteasome inhibitor, which presents a better safety profile with respect to bortezomib, could open new perspectives for the use of anti-plasma cell treatment in resistant MN. Another class of anti-plasma cell drugs with potential to be useful in MN treatment is represented by monoclonal antibodies, such as daratumumab or isatumumab, which target CD38, a multifunctional cell surface protein highly expressed by plasma cells but not in other blood cells or solid tissues [92].

The experience regarding the use of these new agents in MN treatment is still limited and, therefore, more data about their efficacy and safety is needed. New studies are necessary for a better understanding of the role that new anti-CD20 agents, belimumab and anti-plasma cells treatment can play in resistant disease.

### A serological approach to treatment

As discussed above, the traditional approach for the clinical decision regarding immunosuppressive therapy has been based on the Toronto Risk Score [22]. The advantage of this model is that it only requires an assessment of kidney function and proteinuria, and the risk can be calculated repeatedly during the period of follow-up. The problem with this model is that that proteinuria and serum creatinine may not accurately reflect disease activity nor discriminate between immunologically active disease and irreversible structural glomerular damage. On the other hand, changes in anti-PLA2R levels typically precede reduction of proteinuria by several months. In patients with high anti-PLA2R levels, the observation period required using the proteinuria model may delay treatment resulting in significant kidney damage.

As such, an individualized serology-based approach that complements and refines the traditional proteinuria-driven approach has been recently proposed [8]. Patients with low or decreasing anti-PLA2R antibody levels are more likely to go into spontaneous remission and thus should be treated conservatively. On the other hand, high baseline or increasing anti-PLA2R antibody levels are associated with nephrotic syndrome and progressive loss of kidney function, favoring prompt initiation of immunosuppressive therapy. Monitoring serum anti-PLA2R antibody levels reliably predicts the response to therapy, and levels at completion of therapy may forecast the long-term outcome. Re-emergence of or increase in antibody titers precedes a clinical relapse.

The hope is that such an approach will improve prognostic accuracy and provide for an individualized treatment of patients with PLA2R-associated MN while limiting unnecessary exposure to immunosuppressive therapy. An RCT comparing the serology-based with the traditional approach is needed to confirm that such an approach is valid and applicable in clinical practice [8].

## Conclusions

The discovery of anti PLA2R Ab has revolutionized our approach to MN. With some exceptions, we now have the tools to definitively identify an aspecific histological lesion with a specific etiology, limiting the previously wide grey zone called “idiopathic MN”. The availability of anti-PLA2R Abs assays helps clinicians in the timing and monitoring of immunosuppressive therapy and in some selected cases could even allow to avoid renal biopsy, especially in cases of increased risk of complication.

Today, our therapeutic panel against primary MN has been enriched with RTX-based regimens which have been widely used in numerous case series and reports. Consistent evidence in terms of efficacy and side effects has been published. Two RCTs still ongoing should further elucidate whether treatment with RTX is as effective as conventional therapies in inducing remission of proteinuria in patients with MN as well as in maintaining these patients in remission long-term, while showing a favorable side-effect profile.

**Acknowledgements** The authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest that positively or negatively influenced the article’s content.

**Funding** We did not receive any funding to support this review.

**Compliance with ethical standards**

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

**Ethical approval** This research does not involve human subjects and human data, but only reports clinical trials and observational studies published in the literature in peer reviewed journals.

## References

1. Gesualdo L, Di Palma AM, Morrone LF, Strippoli GF, Schena FP, Italian Immunopathology Group ISON (2004) The Italian experience of the national registry of renal biopsies. *Kidney Int* 66(3):890–894
2. Heymann W, Hackel DB, Harwood S, Wilson SG, Hunter JL (1959) Production of nephrotic syndrome in rats by Freund’s adjuvants and rat kidney suspensions. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 100(4):660–664
3. Debiec H, Guignon V, Mougnot B, Haymann JP, Bensman A, Deschenes G, Ronco PM (2003) Antenatal membranous glomerulonephritis with vascular injury induced by anti-neutral endopeptidase antibodies: toward new concepts in the pathogenesis of glomerular diseases. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 14(Suppl 1):S27–S32
4. Beck LH Jr, Bonegio RG, Lambeau G, Beck DM, Powell DW, Cummins TD, Klein JB, Salant DJ (2009) M-type phospholipase A2 receptor as target antigen in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 361(1):11–21
5. Tomas NM, Beck LH Jr, Meyer-Schwesinger C, Seitz-Polski B, Ma H, Zahner G, Dolla G, Hoxha E, Helmchen U, Dabert-Gay AS et al (2014) Thrombospondin type-1 domain-containing 7 A in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 371(24):2277–2287
6. Hofstra JM, Fervenza FC, Wetzels JF (2013) Treatment of idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 9(8):443–458
7. Ramachandran R, Kumar V, Kumar A, Yadav AK, Nada R, Kumar H, Kumar V, Rathi M, Kohli HS, Gupta KL et al (2016) PLA2R antibodies, glomerular PLA2R deposits and variations in PLA2R1 and HLA-DQA1 genes in primary membranous nephropathy in South Asians. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 31(9):1486–1493
8. De Vriese AS, Glassock RJ, Nath KA, Sethi S, Fervenza FC (2017) A proposal for a serology-based approach to membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 28(2):421–430
9. Ronco P, Debiec H (2015) Pathophysiological advances in membranous nephropathy: time for a shift in patient’s care. *Lancet* 385(9981):1983–1992
10. Du Y, Li J, He F, Lv Y, Liu W, Wu P, Huang J, Wei S, Gao H (2014) The diagnosis accuracy of PLA2R-AB in the diagnosis of idiopathic membranous nephropathy: a meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 9(8):e104936
11. Pani A, Porta C, Cosmai L, Melis P, Floris M, Piras D, Gallieni M, Rosner M, Ponticelli C (2016) Glomerular diseases and cancer: evaluation of underlying malignancy. *J Nephrol* 29(2):143–152
12. Timmermans SA, Ayalon R, van Paassen P, Beck LH Jr, van Rie H, Wirtz JJ, Verseput GH, Frenken LA, Salant DJ, Cohen Ter-vaert JW et al (2013) Anti-phospholipase A2 receptor antibodies and malignancy in membranous nephropathy. *Am J Kidney Dis* 62(6):1223–1225
13. Qin W, Beck LH Jr, Zeng C, Chen Z, Li S, Zuo K, Salant DJ, Liu Z (2011) Anti-phospholipase A2 receptor antibody in membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 22(6):1137–1143
14. Xie Q, Li Y, Xue J, Xiong Z, Wang L, Sun Z, Ren Y, Zhu X, Hao CM (2015) Renal phospholipase A2 receptor in hepatitis B virus-associated membranous nephropathy. *Am J Nephrol* 41(4–5):345–353
15. Larsen CP, Messias NC, Silva FG, Messias E, Walker PD (2013) Determination of primary versus secondary membranous

- glomerulopathy utilizing phospholipase A2 receptor staining in renal biopsies. *Mod Pathol* 26(5):709–715
16. Stehle T, Audard V, Ronco P, Debiec H (2015) Phospholipase A2 receptor and sarcoidosis-associated membranous nephropathy. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 30(6):1047–1050
  17. Hoxha E, Wiech T, Stahl PR, Zahner G, Tomas NM, Meyer-Schwesinger C, Wenzel U, Janneck M, Steinmetz OM, Panzer U et al (2016) A mechanism for cancer-associated membranous nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 374(20):1995–1996
  18. Hoxha E, Beck LH Jr, Wiech T, Tomas NM, Probst C, Mindorf S, Meyer-Schwesinger C, Zahner G, Stahl PR, Schopper R et al (2017) An indirect immunofluorescence method facilitates detection of thrombospondin type 1 domain-containing 7 A-specific antibodies in membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 28(2):520–531
  19. Murtas C, Ghiggeri GM (2016) Membranous glomerulonephritis: histological and serological features to differentiate cancer-related and non-related forms. *J Nephrol* 29(4):469–478
  20. Polanco N, Gutierrez E, Covarsi A, Ariza F, Carreno A, Vigil A, Baltar J, Fernandez-Fresnedo G, Martin C, Pons S et al (2010) Spontaneous remission of nephrotic syndrome in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 21(4):697–704
  21. Pei Y, Cattran D, Greenwood C (1992) Predicting chronic renal insufficiency in idiopathic membranous glomerulonephritis. *Kidney Int* 42(4):960–966
  22. Cattran DC, Pei Y, Greenwood CM, Ponticelli C, Passerini P, Honkanen E (1997) Validation of a predictive model of idiopathic membranous nephropathy: its clinical and research implications. *Kidney Int* 51(3):901–907
  23. van den Brand JA, Hofstra JM, Wetzels JF (2012) Prognostic value of risk score and urinary markers in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 7(8):1242–1248
  24. Hofstra JM, Beck LH Jr, Beck DM, Wetzels JF, Salant DJ (2011) Anti-phospholipase A(2) receptor antibodies correlate with clinical status in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 6(6):1286–1291
  25. Hoxha E, Harendza S, Pinnschmidt HO, Tomas NM, Helmchen U, Panzer U, Stahl RA (2015) Spontaneous remission of proteinuria is a frequent event in phospholipase A2 receptor antibody-negative patients with membranous nephropathy. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 30(11):1862–1869
  26. Hoxha E, Harendza S, Pinnschmidt H, Panzer U, Stahl RA (2014) PLA2R antibody levels and clinical outcome in patients with membranous nephropathy and non-nephrotic range proteinuria under treatment with inhibitors of the renin-angiotensin system. *PLoS One* 9(10):e110681
  27. Bech AP, Hofstra JM, Brenchley PE, Wetzels JF (2014) Association of anti-PLA(2)R antibodies with outcomes after immunosuppressive therapy in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 9(8):1386–1392
  28. Kanigicherla D, Gummadova J, McKenzie EA, Roberts SA, Harris S, Nikam M, Poulton K, McWilliam L, Short CD, Venning M et al (2013) Anti-PLA2R antibodies measured by ELISA predict long-term outcome in a prevalent population of patients with idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Kidney Int* 83(5):940–948
  29. Hofstra JM, Debiec H, Short CD, Pelle T, Kleta R, Mathieson PW, Ronco P, Brenchley PE, Wetzels JF (2012) Antiphospholipase A2 receptor antibody titer and subclass in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 23(10):1735–1743
  30. Hoxha E, Harendza S, Pinnschmidt H, Panzer U, Stahl RA (2014) M-type phospholipase A2 receptor autoantibodies and renal function in patients with primary membranous nephropathy. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 9(11):1883–1890
  31. Ruggenenti P, Debiec H, Ruggiero B, Chianca A, Pelle T, Gaspari F, Suardi F, Gagliardini E, Orisio S, Benigni A et al (2015) Anti-phospholipase A2 receptor antibody titer predicts post-rituximab outcome of membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 26(10):2545–2558
  32. Kidney Disease (2012) Improving global outcomes (KDIGO) glomerulonephritis work group. KDIGO clinical practice guideline for glomerulonephritis. *Kidney Int Suppl*(2):186–197
  33. du Buf-Vereijken PW, Branten AJ, Wetzels JF (2005) Idiopathic membranous nephropathy: outline and rationale of a treatment strategy. *Am J Kidney Dis* 46(6):1012–1029
  34. Lionaki S, Derebail VK, Hogan SL, Barbour S, Lee T, Hladunewich M, Greenwald A, Hu Y, Jennette CE, Jennette JC et al (2012) Venous thromboembolism in patients with membranous nephropathy. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 7(1):43–51
  35. A controlled study of short-term prednisone treatment in adults with membranous nephropathy (1979) Collaborative Study of the adult idiopathic nephrotic syndrome. *N Engl J Med* 301(24):1301–1306
  36. Cattran DC, Delmore T, Roscoe J, Cole E, Cardella C, Charron R, Ritchie S (1989) A randomized controlled trial of prednisone in patients with idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 320(4):210–215
  37. Cameron JS, Healy MJ, Adu D (1990) The medical research council trial of short-term high-dose alternate day prednisolone in idiopathic membranous nephropathy with nephrotic syndrome in adults. The MRC Glomerulonephritis Working Party. *Q J Med* 74(274):133–156
  38. Chen Y, Schieppati A, Chen X, Cai G, Zamora J, Giuliano GA, Braun N, Perna A (2014) Immunosuppressive treatment for idiopathic membranous nephropathy in adults with nephrotic syndrome. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2014(10):CD004293
  39. Hogan SL, Muller KE, Jennette JC, Falk RJ (1995) A review of the therapeutic studies of idiopathic membranous glomerulopathy. *Am J Kidney Dis* 25(6):862–875
  40. Imperiale TF, Goldfarb S, Berns JS (1995) Are cytotoxic agents beneficial in idiopathic membranous nephropathy? A meta-analysis of the controlled trials. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 5(8):1553–1558
  41. Ponticelli C, Zucchelli P, Imbasciati E, Cagnoli L, Pozzi C, Passerini P, Grassi C, Limido D, Pasquali S, Volpini T et al (1984) Controlled trial of methylprednisolone and chlorambucil in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *N Engl J Med* 310(15):946–950
  42. Ponticelli C, Zucchelli P, Passerini P, Cesana B, Locatelli F, Pasquali S, Sasdelli M, Redaelli B, Grassi C, Pozzi C et al (1995) A 10-year follow-up of a randomized study with methylprednisolone and chlorambucil in membranous nephropathy. *Kidney Int* 48(5):1600–1604
  43. Ponticelli C, Altieri P, Scolari F, Passerini P, Roccatello D, Cesana B, Melis P, Valzorio B, Sasdelli M, Pasquali S et al (1998) A randomized study comparing methylprednisolone plus chlorambucil versus methylprednisolone plus cyclophosphamide in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 9(3):444–450
  44. Jha V, Ganguli A, Saha TK, Kohli HS, Sud K, Gupta KL, Joshi K, Sakhuja V (2007) A randomized, controlled trial of steroids and cyclophosphamide in adults with nephrotic syndrome caused by idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 18(6):1899–1904
  45. Howman A, Chapman TL, Langdon MM, Ferguson C, Adu D, Feehally J, Gaskin GJ, Jayne DR, O'Donoghue D, Boulton-Jones M et al (2013) Immunosuppression for progressive membranous nephropathy: a UK randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 381(9868):744–751
  46. Pani A (2013) Standard immunosuppressive therapy of immune-mediated glomerular diseases. *Autoimmun Rev* 12(8):848–853
  47. Torres A, Dominguez-Gil B, Carreno A, Hernandez E, Morales E, Segura J, Gonzalez E, Praga M (2002) Conservative versus immunosuppressive treatment of patients with idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Kidney Int* 61(1):219–227

48. Cattran DC, Greenwood C, Ritchie S, Bernstein K, Churchill DN, Clark WF, Morrin PA, Lavoie S (1995) A controlled trial of cyclosporine in patients with progressive membranous nephropathy. Canadian Glomerulonephritis Study Group. *Kidney Int* 47(4):1130–1135
49. Cattran DC, Appel GB, Hebert LA, Hunsicker LG, Pohl MA, Hoy WE, Maxwell DR, Kunis CL, North America Nephrotic Syndrome Study G (2001) Cyclosporine in patients with steroid-resistant membranous nephropathy: a randomized trial. *Kidney Int* 59(4):1484–1490
50. Praga M, Barrio V, Juarez GF, Luno J (2007) Grupo Espanol de Estudio de la Nefropatia M: Tacrolimus monotherapy in membranous nephropathy: a randomized controlled trial. *Kidney Int* 71(9):924–930
51. Caro J, Gutierrez-Solis E, Rojas-Rivera J, Agraz I, Ramos N, Rabasco C, Espinosa M, Valera A, Martin M, Frutos MA et al (2015) Predictors of response and relapse in patients with idiopathic membranous nephropathy treated with tacrolimus. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 30(3):467–474
52. Alexopoulos E, Papagianni A, Tsamelashvili M, Leontsini M, Memmos D (2006) Induction and long-term treatment with cyclosporine in membranous nephropathy with the nephrotic syndrome. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 21(11):3127–3132
53. Miller G, Zimmerman R 3rd, Radhakrishnan J, Appel G (2000) Use of mycophenolate mofetil in resistant membranous nephropathy. *Am J Kidney Dis* 36(2):250–256
54. Dussol B, Morange S, Burtey S, Indreies M, Cassuto E, Mourad G, Villar E, Pouteil-Noble C, Karaaslan H, Sichez H et al (2008) Mycophenolate mofetil monotherapy in membranous nephropathy: a 1-year randomized controlled trial. *Am J Kidney Dis* 52(4):699–705
55. Branten AJ, du Buf-Vereijken PW, Vervloet M, Wetzels JF (2007) Mycophenolate mofetil in idiopathic membranous nephropathy: a clinical trial with comparison to a historic control group treated with cyclophosphamide. *Am J Kidney Dis* 50(2):248–256
56. Baker LR, Tucker B, Macdougall IC, Oommen R (1997) Treatment of progressive renal failure and nephrotic syndrome with azathioprine and prednisolone. *Postgrad Med J* 73(864):647–648
57. Goumenos DS, Ahuja M, Davlourous P, El Nahas AM, Brown CB (2006) Prednisolone and azathioprine in membranous nephropathy: a 10-year follow-up study. *Clin Nephrol* 65(5):317–323
58. Kattah AG, Fervenza FC (2012) Rituximab: emerging treatment strategies of immune-mediated glomerular disease. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol* 8(5):413–421
59. Remuzzi G, Chiurciu C, Abbate M, Brusegan V, Bontempelli M, Ruggenti P (2002) Rituximab for idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Lancet* 360(9337):923–924
60. Ruggenti P, Chiurciu C, Brusegan V, Abbate M, Perna A, Filippi C, Remuzzi G (2003) Rituximab in idiopathic membranous nephropathy: a one-year prospective study. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 14(7):1851–1857
61. Fervenza FC, Cosio FG, Erickson SB, Specks U, Herzenberg AM, Dillon JJ, Leung N, Cohen IM, Wochos DN, Bergstralh E et al (2008) Rituximab treatment of idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Kidney Int* 73(1):117–125
62. Fervenza FC, Abraham RS, Erickson SB, Irazabal MV, Eirin A, Specks U, Nachman PH, Bergstralh EJ, Leung N, Cosio FG et al (2010) Rituximab therapy in idiopathic membranous nephropathy: a 2-year study. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 5(12):2188–2198
63. Ruggenti P, Cravedi P, Chianca A, Perna A, Ruggiero B, Gaspari F, Rambaldi A, Marasa M, Remuzzi G (2012) Rituximab in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 23(8):1416–1425
64. Busch M, Ruster C, Schinkothe C, Gerth J, Wolf G (2013) Rituximab for the second- and third-line therapy of idiopathic membranous nephropathy: a prospective single center study using a new treatment strategy. *Clin Nephrol* 80(2):105–113
65. Dahan K, Debiec H, Plaisier E, Cachanado M, Rousseau A, Wakselman L, Michel PA, Mihout F, Dussol B, Matignon M et al (2017) Rituximab for severe membranous nephropathy: a 6-month trial with extended follow-up. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 28(1):348–358
66. US Food and Drug Administration. Drug safety communications. <https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drugsafety/postmarketdrugsafetyinformationforpatientsandproviders/ucm126519.htm>. Accessed 2 June 2017
67. Calabrese LH, Molloy ES, Huang D, Ransohoff RM (2007) Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy in rheumatic diseases: evolving clinical and pathologic patterns of disease. *Arthritis Rheum* 56(7):2116–2128
68. Kusumoto S, Tanaka Y, Ueda R, Mizokami M (2011) Reactivation of hepatitis B virus following rituximab-plus-steroid combination chemotherapy. *J Gastroenterol* 46(1):9–16
69. Reddy KR, Beavers KL, Hammond SP, Lim JK, Falck-Ytter YT, American Gastroenterological Association (2015) I: American Gastroenterological Association Institute guideline on the prevention and treatment of hepatitis B virus reactivation during immunosuppressive drug therapy. *Gastroenterology* 148(1):215–219 (**quiz e216–217**)
70. Cho SF, Wu WH, Yang YH, Chang CS (2015) Risk of second primary cancer in patients with B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma receiving rituximab-containing chemotherapy: a nationwide population-based study. *Anticancer Res* 35(3):1809–1814
71. Fleury I, Chevret S, Pfreundschuh M, Salles G, Coiffier B, van Oers MH, Gisselbrecht C, Zucca E, Herold M, Ghielmini M et al (2016) Rituximab and risk of second primary malignancies in patients with non-Hodgkin lymphoma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Oncol* 27(3):390–397
72. Tarella C, Passera R, Magni M, Benedetti F, Rossi A, Gueli A, Patti C, Parvis G, Ciceri F, Gallamini A et al (2011) Risk factors for the development of secondary malignancy after high-dose chemotherapy and autograft, with or without rituximab: a 20-year retrospective follow-up study in patients with lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol* 29(7):814–824
73. Cravedi P, Ruggenti P, Sghirlanzoni MC, Remuzzi G (2007) Titrating rituximab to circulating B cells to optimize lymphocytolytic therapy in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 2(5):932–937
74. Ruggenti P, Fervenza FC, Remuzzi G (2017) Treatment of membranous nephropathy: time for a paradigm shift. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 13(9):563–579
75. Benucci M, Saviola G, Baiardi P, Manfredi M (2011) Cost-effectiveness treatment with Rituximab in patients with rheumatoid arthritis in real life. *Rheumatol Int* 31(11):1465–1469
76. Porter D, van Melckebeke J, Dale J, Messow CM, McConnachie A, Walker A, Munro R, McLaren J, McRorie E, Packham J et al (2016) Tumour necrosis factor inhibition versus rituximab for patients with rheumatoid arthritis who require biological treatment (ORBIT): an open-label, randomised controlled, non-inferiority, trial. *Lancet* 388(10041):239–247
77. Danese MD, Reyes CM, Gleeson ML, Halperin M, Skettino SL, Mikhael J (2016) Estimating the population benefits and costs of rituximab therapy in the United States from 1998 to 2013 using real-world data. *Med Care* 54(4):343–349
78. Granata F, Petraroli A, Boilard E, Bezzine S, Bollinger J, Del Vecchio L, Gelb MH, Lambeau G, Marone G, Triggiani M (2005) Activation of cytokine production by secreted phospholipase A2 in human lung macrophages expressing the M-type receptor. *J Immunol* 174(1):464–474
79. Rojas-Rivera J, Fernandez-Juarez G, Ortiz A, Hofstra J, Gesualdo L, Tesar V, Wetzels J, Segarra A, Egido J, Praga M (2015) A European multicentre and open-label controlled randomized trial

- to evaluate the efficacy of Sequential treatment with TAcrolimus-Rituximab versus steroids plus cyclophosphamide in patients with primary MEmbranous Nephropathy: the STARMEN study. *Clin Kidney J* 8(5):503–510
80. Gong R (2011) The renaissance of corticotropin therapy in proteinuric nephropathies. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 8(2):122–128
  81. Lindskog A, Ebefors K, Johansson ME, Stefansson B, Granqvist A, Arnadottir M, Berg AL, Nystrom J, Haraldsson B (2010) Melanocortin 1 receptor agonists reduce proteinuria. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 21(8):1290–1298
  82. Berg AL, Nilsson-Ehle P, Arnadottir M (1999) Beneficial effects of ACTH on the serum lipoprotein profile and glomerular function in patients with membranous nephropathy. *Kidney Int* 56(4):1534–1543
  83. Ponticelli C, Passerini P, Salvadori M, Manno C, Viola BF, Pasquali S, Mandolfo S, Messa P (2006) A randomized pilot trial comparing methylprednisolone plus a cytotoxic agent versus synthetic adrenocorticotropic hormone in idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Am J Kidney Dis* 47(2):233–240
  84. Bomback AS, Canetta PA, Beck LH Jr, Ayalon R, Radhakrishnan J, Appel GB (2012) Treatment of resistant glomerular diseases with adrenocorticotropic hormone gel: a prospective trial. *Am J Nephrol* 36(1):58–67
  85. Hladunewich MA, Cattran D, Beck LH, Odutayo A, Sethi S, Ayalon R, Leung N, Reich H, Fervenza FC (2014) A pilot study to determine the dose and effectiveness of adrenocorticotropic hormone (H.P. Acthar(R) Gel) in nephrotic syndrome due to idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 29(8):1570–1577
  86. Jain P, O'Brien S (2013) Anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Expert Opin Biol Ther* 13(2):169–182
  87. Cang S, Mukhi N, Wang K, Liu D (2012) Novel CD20 monoclonal antibodies for lymphoma therapy. *J Hematol Oncol* 5:64
  88. Hahn BH (2013) Belimumab for systemic lupus erythematosus. *N Engl J Med* 368(16):1528–1535
  89. Willcocks L, Barrett C, Brenchley P, Schmidt T, Gisbert S, Cai G, Savage C, Jones R (2015) Effect of belimumab on proteinuria and anti-Pla2r autoantibody in idiopathic membranous nephropathy-6 months data. *Nephrol Dial Transpl* 30(3):iii32–iii33
  90. Hartono C, Chung M, Kuo SF, Seshan SV, Muthukumar T (2014) Bortezomib therapy for nephrotic syndrome due to idiopathic membranous nephropathy. *J Nephrol* 27(1):103–106
  91. Barbari A, Chehadi R, Kfoury Assouf H, Kamel G, Jaafar M, Abdallah A, Rizk S, Masri M (2017) Bortezomib as a novel approach to early recurrent membranous glomerulonephritis after kidney transplant refractory to combined conventional rituximab therapy. *Exp Clin Transplant* 15(3):350–354
  92. van de Donk NW, Janmaat ML, Mutis T, Lammerts van Bueren JJ, Ahmadi T, Sasser AK, Lokhorst HM, Parren PW (2016) Monoclonal antibodies targeting CD38 in hematological malignancies and beyond. *Immunol Rev* 270(1):95–112