Hutchinson-Gilford Progeria Syndrome: Pathophysiology and Possible Treatments

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Abstract

Named after the two scientists who independently described the condition, Hutchinson-Gilford Progeria Syndrome (HGPS) occurs due to a mutation in the LMNA gene that codes for Lamin A, a filament protein that acts to form the nuclear lamina in the cell nucleus. This mutation is a single C-to-T substitution at nucleotide 1824 of the LMNA gene. As a result of this mutation, an abnormal protein named 'progerin' is synthesized instead of Lamin A, causing the nuclear membrane to be malformed. Since protein farnesylation is needed to target progerin to the nuclear rim, farnesyltransferase inhibitor has been proposed as a form of treatment that could reduce the occurrence of misshapen nuclei and alleviate HGPS symptoms.

Introduction

Aging is a process that’s inevitable. Over a typical lifespan, the body loses its ability to maintain homeostasis and fight off disease. The elderly also experience atherosclerosis that can lead to strokes and myocardial infarctions. Arthritic joint pain and stiffness are also common, as is thinning of the skin. Researchers have speculated about the precise physical changes in the body that manifest themselves as the process of aging (Burtner and Kennedy 2010).

The answer may lie in a very rare segment of the population who suffer from progeriod syndromes that cause accelerated aging. The most severe of this group is Progeria, which causes rapid aging in children and death by adolescence. The calculated mean lifespan in Progeria patients is only 13 years of age (Kudlow et al. 2007).

HGPS Pathophysiology

Hutchinson-Gilford Progeria Syndrome (HGPS) is caused by a de novo heterozygous point mutation, changing a GGC sequence to GGT in exon 11 of the LMNA gene. This mutation causes a 50 amino acid sequence deletion at the carboxyl terminus of prelamin A, producing a truncated progerin in the place of Lamin A (Neelam et al. 2012). Lamins are intermediate filament proteins that polymerize to form nuclear lamina, a meshwork forming the inner nuclear membrane. Lamin A belongs to the A-type lamins that includes Lamin A and Lamin C. Lamin C differs very slightly from Lamin A by its C-terminal extension, which has 90 less residues than Lamin A. Both Lamin A and C contribute to the shaping of the nuclear membrane. When progerin is present in place of Lamin A, the nuclear membrane takes on an abnormal morphology (Rakha, et al. 2011).

The Proteins of the nuclear lamina were once thought to play merely a structural role. Through studying diseases that affect these proteins, it has become apparent that they also play an important role in various cellular functions such as signal transduction and gene expression (Scaffidi and Misteli, 2006). Therefore, mutations affecting these proteins can have devastating effects on multiple organ systems in the body, as in the case of Hutchinson-Gilford Progeria Syndrome (HGPS).

HGPS is part of a group of rare diseases known as laminopathies, in which the proteins of the nuclear lamina are affected. These diseases all result from LMNA gene mutations and include lipodystrophy, muscular dystrophy, peripheral neuropathy and Progeria (Liu, et al. 2010). In lipodystrophy, symptoms begin at the onset of puberty and patients experience loss of subcutaneous fat, high cholesterol and type-II diabetes. Muscular dystrophy is similar in that symptoms appear close to puberty and cause progressive muscle wasting. Peripheral Neuropathy is a laminopathy that causes nerve dysfunction. Progeria is perhaps the most devastating of them all since symptom onset begins at a few months of age and death from cardiovascular

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illness is likely by age 13.

**HGPS Phenotypes**

HGPS disease symptoms include; slow growth, sclerodermatous changes of the skin, alopecia, osteoporosis and atherosclerotic vascular disease. (Yang, et al. 2006) These symptoms contribute to a very distinctive look common to all Progeria patients. They are sometimes described as appearing like ‘little aliens’ due to their diminutive stature, lack of hair, and small heads with prominent noses.

**Figure 1:** Face of a Progeria patient showing alopecia, loss of eyebrow and eyelashes and prominent eyes with a tapered nasal tip. (Agarwal, et al. 2010)

In one particular Chinese girl with Progeria, HGPS diagnosis was made at 2 months of age. The child was the second-born of healthy parents with no remarkable family medical history. The first symptom that raised concern was a loss of subcutaneous fat in her abdomen and buttocks, where a baby would normally exhibit plumpness. Her hair was also unusually sparse and her veins were noticeably prominent for 2 months of age (Chen, et al. 2012).

At 2 years of age, the child had already lost all of her hair and was beginning to develop a characteristic Progeria face. Her forehead jutted out, her eyes were prominent and her jaw was undersized. Imaging studies taken over ages 4 and 5, showed patterns of bone resorption in her clavicles and distal phalanges along with hip displacement and dental crowding (Ibid).

The symptoms progressed rapidly and by age 6 the deformities caused speech and swallowing difficulties and hearing loss. When measured at age 8, she fell below the 3rd percentile in both height and weight compared to other her age and she remained very thin and small in stature (Ibid).

Diagnoses came later for an Indian boy who showed up at a Dermatology clinic at age 4. He had loss of hair, including eyelashes and eyebrows since age 1, and stunted growth. Doctors noticed his distinct prominent veins and eyes, beaked nose and high-pitched voice. His problems were far from merely dermatological, and he was diagnosed with Progeria after confirmatory imaging studies (Agarwal, et al. 2010)

**Vertebrate Progeriod Models**

Researchers attempting to better understand and treat Progeria, need models to work with. The incidence of Progeria is so infrequent in the population due to the rarity of the specific LMNA mutation that causes it. Nearly all Progeria patients in the world today are well known and have participated in studies by contributing medical data and samples. In the century or so since the discovery of the syndrome, only about 100 cases have been documented (Mohamed and Jayachandran 2009) and today, with only 48 known patients whose lifespans are short, these samples are severely limited.

Human Progeria research subjects are not only limited in number, it often isn’t safe for them to participate in early stages of drug trials. Before a drugs potency can be determined, use in humans is unethical. Thus, creating animal models to test Progeria drugs is an important key to ultimately finding a cure.

After much trial and error, mice have been successfully genetically modified to be ZMPSTE24 deficient, causing the expression of Progeria-like symptoms (O sorio, et al. 2009). ZMPSTE24 is an enzyme that completes the post-translational processing of Pre-lamin A by cleaving it into its mature form of lamin A (Liu, et al. 2010). Without the ZMPSTE24 enzyme, Pre-lamin A processing is halted and this results in a truncated Lamin A protein similar to the progerin protein found in patients with HGPS.

Zebrafish models expressing truncated Lamin A
proteins have also been genetically engineered and studied. Using a splice-block method to delete the 8 amino-acid site of pre-lamin A cleavage in zebrafish embryos, researchers created progeriod zebrafish models. These zebrafish then exhibited accelerated aging and shortened lifespans along with other symptoms such as cell-cycle arrest and cartilage defects that appeared as craniofacial abnormalities (Koshimizu, et al. 2011).

Both the ZMPSTE24 deficient mice and the progeriod zebrafish models were genetically altered in a way where Lamin A was not able to be processed into its mature form. Another mouse model however, was modified so that it would not produce the Lamin A protein at all. This lamin A deficient mouse would only produce Lamin C, a similar Lamin protein normally produced alongside Lamin A. The Lamin C-only mice had no tissue abnormalities and appeared non-diseased (Fong et al. 2006).

In a state of complete lack of Lamin A, Lamin C seems to compensate and therefore, no pathologies result. It seems that the truncated, pre-lamin or progerin form of the Lamin A that accumulates when the protein’s processing is halted, is the cause of the diseased cell (Fong et al. 2006). This realization can help researchers treat laminopathic diseases by developing drugs that can prevent immature lamin proteins from doing harm and possibly trigger the non-affected Lamin types (unaffected Lamin C in Progeria patients) to compensate for the missing protein.

**FTI Treatment**

The advantage of farnesyltransferase inhibitor (FTI) is that it can mask HGPS symptoms even while the abnormal Progerin protein is still being expressed. By preventing progerin from attaching to the nuclear rim, FTI can increase the amount of normal-shaped nuclei (Capell, et al. 2005).

Prelamin A requires a 3-step prenylation processing to be converted into mature Lamin A. The prenylation occurs rapidly and unprocessed Prelamin A is barely detectable (Gao, et al. 2009). A similar form of post-translational modification occurs in all CaaX proteins. This category of proteins contains a specific amino acid sequence at the c-terminal consisting of a cysteine residue, 2 alipathic residues and another c-terminal acid ‘x’ that varies, hence the acronym ‘CaaX Protein’. In Prelamin A, the CaaX terminal is made of cysteine, alipathic serine and isoleucine, and methionine (CSIM) (Dominici, et al. 2009).

In the first processing step of polyisoprenylation, farynesyltransferase recognizes methionine and adds a 15 carbon farnesyl to the CSIM sequence. Proteolysis is next, in which endoprotease ZMPSTE24 removes the ‘SIM’ portion of the CSIM sequence (Dominici, et al. 2009). In the final prenylation step, carboxyl methylation of the farnesylated prelamin A occurs via methyltransferase to produce carboxymethylated-farnesylated prelamin A (preLA-farnesyl-C-H3).

**Figure 2:** Prenylation process of the CAAAX proteins. The protein prenylation process includes 3 steps: polyisoprenylation, proteolysis, and carboxyl methylation. Polyisoprenylation is the attachment of an isoprenoid lipid by protein farnesyltransferase (FTase) or geranylgeranytransferase type I (GGTase-I) to CAAAX box. In the second step, the CAAAX residues are proteolyzed by prenyl protein peptidase RCE1 family to release CAAAX. This is followed by subsequent endoproteolytic trimming and carboxyl methylation significantly increases the hydrophobicity.
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damage (Zaremba-Czogalla et al. 2011). Structurally, the nuclear membrane will also become misshapen and stiff. This characteristic is known as nuclear blebbing and is a distinct phenotype of progeria.

Lonafarnib, a farnesyltransferase inhibitor drug initially used for cancer treatment, has recently been tested on patients with HGPS in a clinical trial. In 2007, 25 progeria patients from 16 countries around the world came to Boston, Massachusetts over a period of 2 years to receive Lonafarnib. They were measured for changes in weight, skeletal rigidity, hearing and cardiovascular health. The study showed that the children improved in at least one or more of the measured areas over the course of the trial. Most importantly, in the essential area of cardiovascular health, which is the cause of death in progeria patients, all but one participant showed improvement (Gordon, et al. 2012)

Other Treatments

In the presence of farnesyltransferase inhibitors, the cell will often adapt and turn to other processing pathways such as geranylgeranylation (Gordon et al. 2008). In place of polyisoprenylation (addition of a 15-carbon farnesyl) via farnesyltransferase, a similar enzyme, geranylgeranyltransferase I (GGTase I) can add a 20-carbon geranylgeranyl group to the Pre-lamin A (Sousa et al. 2008). This adaptation mechanism can lessen the effectiveness of FTI treatment. A combination of statins and amino bisphosphonates, combined with FTI treatment can inhibit both farnesylation and geranylgeranylation pathways.

Although not originally developed for progeria, the statin Pravastatin and the aminobisphosphonate Zoledronic acid have been implemented in a 2012 clinical trial, along with FTI Lonafarnib, in progeria patients. Pravastatin, an HMG-CoA inhibitor, is often prescribed to lower cholesterol levels and keep atherosclerosis from worsening. Zoledronic acid is used in bone cancers and multiple myeloma, can help prevent hypercalcemia that occurs in Progeria patients. These two drugs work principally by preventing farnesylation group formation, a process vital to progerin in the course of the disease (Neelam et al. 2012).

Lastly, stem Cell use has been researched as a form of treatment. Since Lamin A expression is developmentally regulated, it isn’t present in embryonic cells and stem cells (Mounkes et al. 2003). This can be seen in the normal appearance of Progeria-modeling mouse embryos and progeria patients up until a few months of age, when progerin starts to proliferate in cells in place of Lamin A. Stem cell use has been explored as a means of initiating tissue regeneration and offsetting the accelerated rate of cell apoptosis that causes rapid aging in Progeria patients (Halaschek-Wiener and Brooks-Wilson 2007).

Conclusion

Progeria is a rare, devastating and terminal disease caused by a single gene mutation. Since the mutation is located on the LMNA gene, the Nuclear Lamina Proteins are affected. A single nucleotide substitution causes a 50 base pair deletion of pre-lamin A (Lain A pre-cursor). Lamin A is then prevented from completing its processing and remains in an immature form called progerin. The accumulation of progerin has a multi-systemic effect leading to rapid aging and early death from complications of atherosclerosis. Lonafarnib, a FTI inhibitor, has been proposed as a form of treatment and recent studies have shown it is effective in alleviating some of the symptoms of Progeria.

References


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