

Skinner Lab Meeting

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Amyloid bioinformatics project

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Introduction

Questions:

How are amyloid diseases the same, and how are they different?

More specifically:

- 1) What molecular pathways are common to many or all amyloid diseases?
- 2) What molecular pathways are unique to certain amyloid diseases (such as prion disease or Alzheimer's disease?)

Rationale:

A bioinformatics approach allowing comparisons of gene expression, gene annotation, and protein-protein and protein-DNA interaction data may answer these questions and provide leads for biomarker discovery

Aims and Methods

1) Comparative microarray analysis:

Create a unified amyloid bioinformatics database using gene transcription data

Outcome: two target lists of genes of interest – by their expression across many amyloid diseases, or by expression unique to individual amyloid diseases

2) Ontology annotation and data integration:

Create a semi-automated text mining and gene annotation tool using known ontologies, as well as with associated gene-disease, protein-DNA and protein-protein interaction data

Outcome: function annotation and clustering of genes in the target lists above

3) Data visualization and network inference:

Create a data visualization and network inference tool, using as input the unified amyloid database and the ontology annotation tool described above

Outcome: concise data visualization and network inference to prioritize target lists of genes and gene products for further analysis as biomarkers

Next steps

Structure project as a Java plug-in for Cytoscape

Java and Cytoscape training

Identify and begin aggregating data

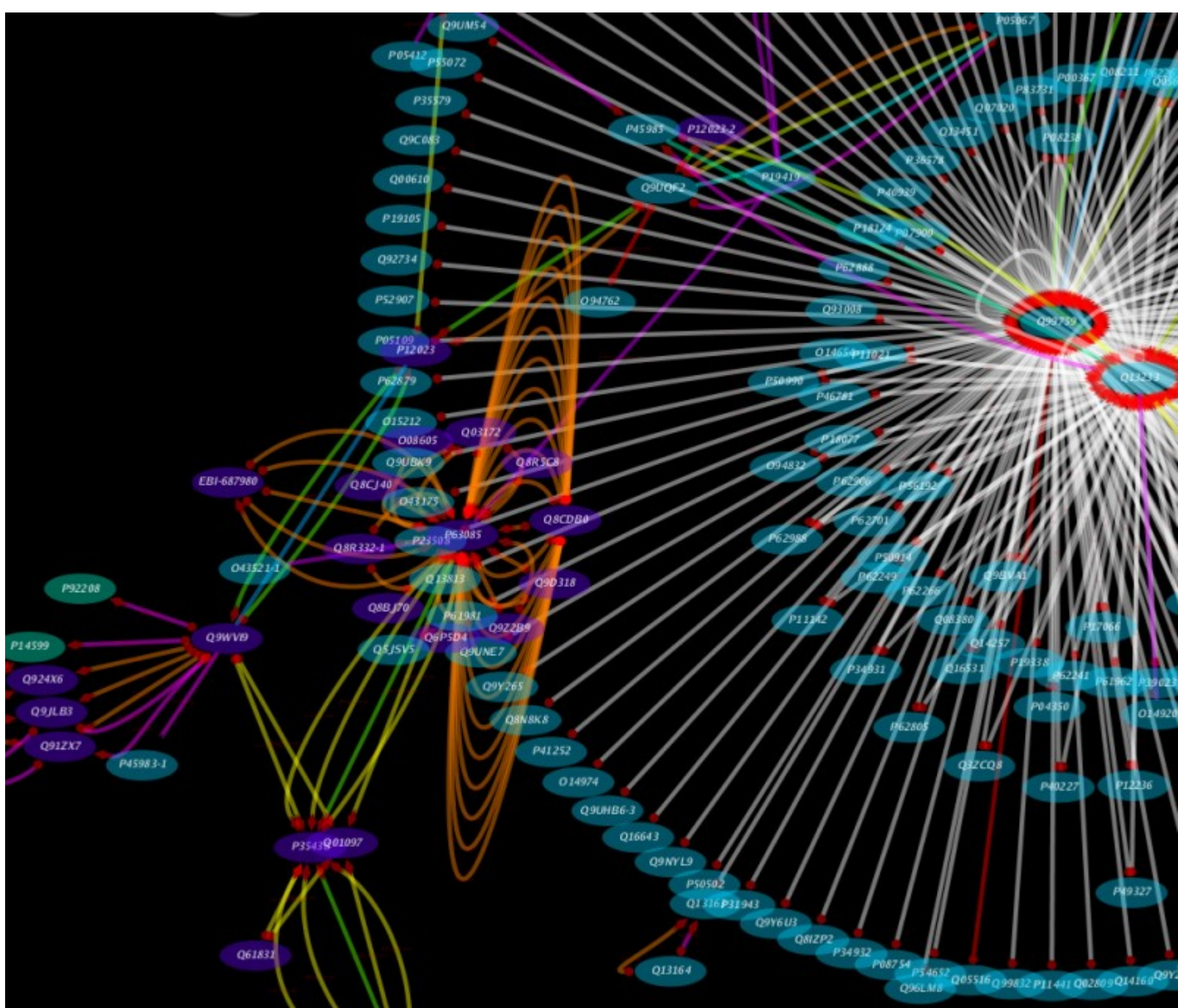
GEO – Gene Expression Omnibus at NIH/NCBI

Gene Ontologies (GO)

Protein-protein/DNA interaction databases such as the Reactome
Knowledgebase

Design database

Example of
Cytoscape
network
visualization:



Amyloid diseases

- Amyloid diseases are characterized by extracellular deposition of insoluble fibrillar protein
 - all amyloid protein has a specific cross-beta core ultrastructure (reason for birefringence), with associated serum amyloid P (SAP) protein...
 - ...but the causes of amyloidosis are heterogeneous...
 - ...and about 35 different amyloid-forming proteins have been linked to human or animal diseases, either by their defective folding, or in their native state in high enough concentrations
- Can be inherited or acquired, localized or systemic, lethal or incidental
- Amyloid deposition may be reversible, by treating underlying cause
- In this patient, the amyloid was likely from monoclonal immunoglobulin light chains arising from her multiple myeloma (plasma cell tumors) – resulting in “AL amyloidosis”

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Lachmann HJ & Hawkins PN. Chron Respir Dis 2006;3;203-214.

Rosai and Ackerman's Surgical Pathology, 9th ed. Elsevier, 2004.

AL amyloidosis

- 60% of all systemic amyloidosis
- from monoclonal immunoglobulin light chains
- myeloma, and other lymphoproliferative disorders can cause it
 - Sjogren's syndrome, Castleman's disease, Waldenstrom's macroglobulinemia
 - about 10% of myeloma patients develop amyloidosis
- systemic AL: only about 10% 5-year survival, death usually by cardiac (50%), kidney or autonomic failure
- *dyspnea usually due to cardiac, not lung deposits*
- 30-90% of systemic AL have histologic pulmonary involvement shown at post mortem exam
 - may have restrictive pulmonary function pattern
 - rarely, reduced gas exchange

AA amyloidosis

- ‘reactive systemic’ amyloidosis
 - as a result of chronic inflammatory states – MANY different causes of this
- via fragments of an acute phase reactant, serum amyloid A protein (SAA)
- common kidney involvement - nephrotic syndrome

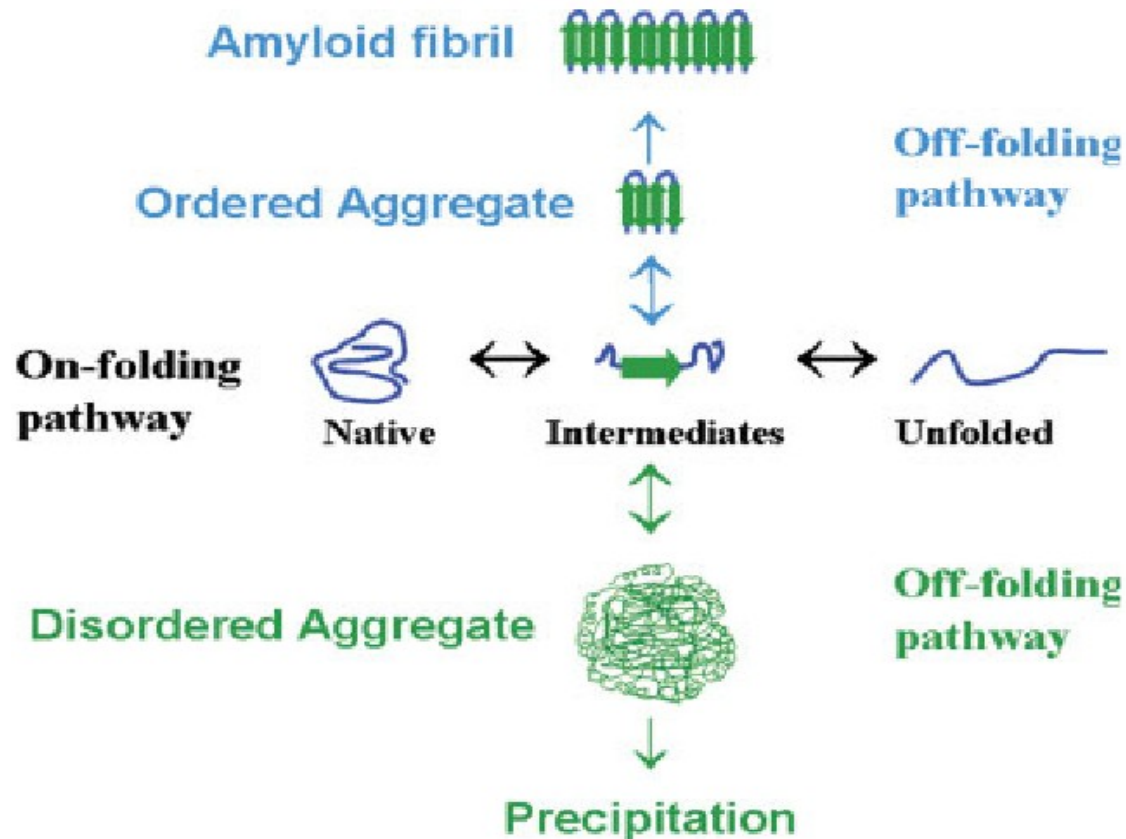
Table 2 Conditions associated with systemic AA (secondary) amyloidosis

Inflammatory arthritis	Hereditary periodic fevers
Adult Still's disease	Familial cold urticaria
Ankylosing spondilitis	Familial Mediterranean fever
Juvenile idiopathic arthritis	Hyperimmunoglobulin D syndrome
Psoriatic arthropathy	Muckle-Wells syndrome
Reiter's syndrome	TNF receptor associated periodic syndrome
Rheumatoid arthritis	Inflammatory bowel disease
Gout	Crohn's disease
	Ulcerative colitis
Chronic infections	Neoplasia
Bronchiectasis	Adenocarcinoma of the lung, gut, urogenital tract
Chronic cutaneous ulcers	Basal cell carcinoma
Chronic pyelonephritis	Carcinoid tumour
Leprosy	Castleman's disease
Osteomyelitis	Gastrointestinal stromal tumour
Q fever	Hairy cell leukaemia
Subacute bacterial endocarditis	Hepatic adenoma
Tuberculosis	Hodgkin's disease
Whipples disease	Mesothelioma
Immunodeficiency states	Renal cell carcinoma
Common variable immunodeficiency	Sarcoma
Cyclic neutropenia	Systemic vasculitis
Hyperimmunoglobulin M syndrome	Behcet's disease
Hypogammaglobulinaemia	Giant cell arteritis
Sex linked agammaglobulinaemia	Polyarteritis nodosa
HIV/AIDS	Polymyalgia rheumatica
Other conditions predisposing to chronic infections	Systemic lupus erythematosus
Cystic fibrosis	Takayasu's arteritis
Epidermolysis bullosa	Other
Injected drug abuse	Atrial myxoma
Jejuno-ileal bypass	Inflammatory abdominal aortic aneurism
Kartagener's syndrome	Retroperitoneal fibrosis
Paraplegia	SAPHO syndrome
Sickle cell anaemia	Sarcoidosis
	Sinus histiocytosis with massive lymphadenopathy

There are many
amyloid diseases
other than AL and
AA:

<p>Table 1</p> <p>Some of the diseases associated with amyloid fibril formation and the main protein component of the aggregates formed</p>	
Disease	Main component of aggregates associated with disease
Alzheimer's disease	A β peptides, Tau
Frontal-temporal dementias	Tau
Parkinson's disease	α -Synuclein
Dementia with Lewy bodies	α -Synuclein
Transmissible spongiform encephalopathies (<i>e.g.</i> Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease and Mad Cow)	Prion
Huntington's disease	Huntingtin
Type II diabetes	Amylin
Senile systemic amyloidosis	Transthyretin
Familial amyloid polyneuropathy I	Transthyretin
Familial amyloid polyneuropathy III	Apolipoprotein AI
Haemodialysis-related amyloidosis	β_2 -Microglobulin
Injection-localized amyloidosis	Insulin
Hereditary nonneuropathic systemic amyloidosis	Lysozyme
Spinocerebellar ataxias	Ataxins
Spinocerebellar ataxia 17	TATA-box binding protein
Primary systemic amyloidosis	Ig light chains
Secondary systemic amyloidosis	Serum amyloid A
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis	Superoxide dismutase I
Medullary carcinoma of the thyroid	Calcitonin

Amyloid formation



- A protein folds to its native state via partially folded intermediates
- Under conditions in which partially folded intermediates persist (e.g. during times of cellular stress or due to mutation), they can mutually associate via exposed hydrophobic regions normally buried in the core of the protein.
- When this occurs, intermediates aggregate via either a disordered or ordered mechanism, leading to the formation of amorphous (disordered) precipitates or ordered amyloid fibrils

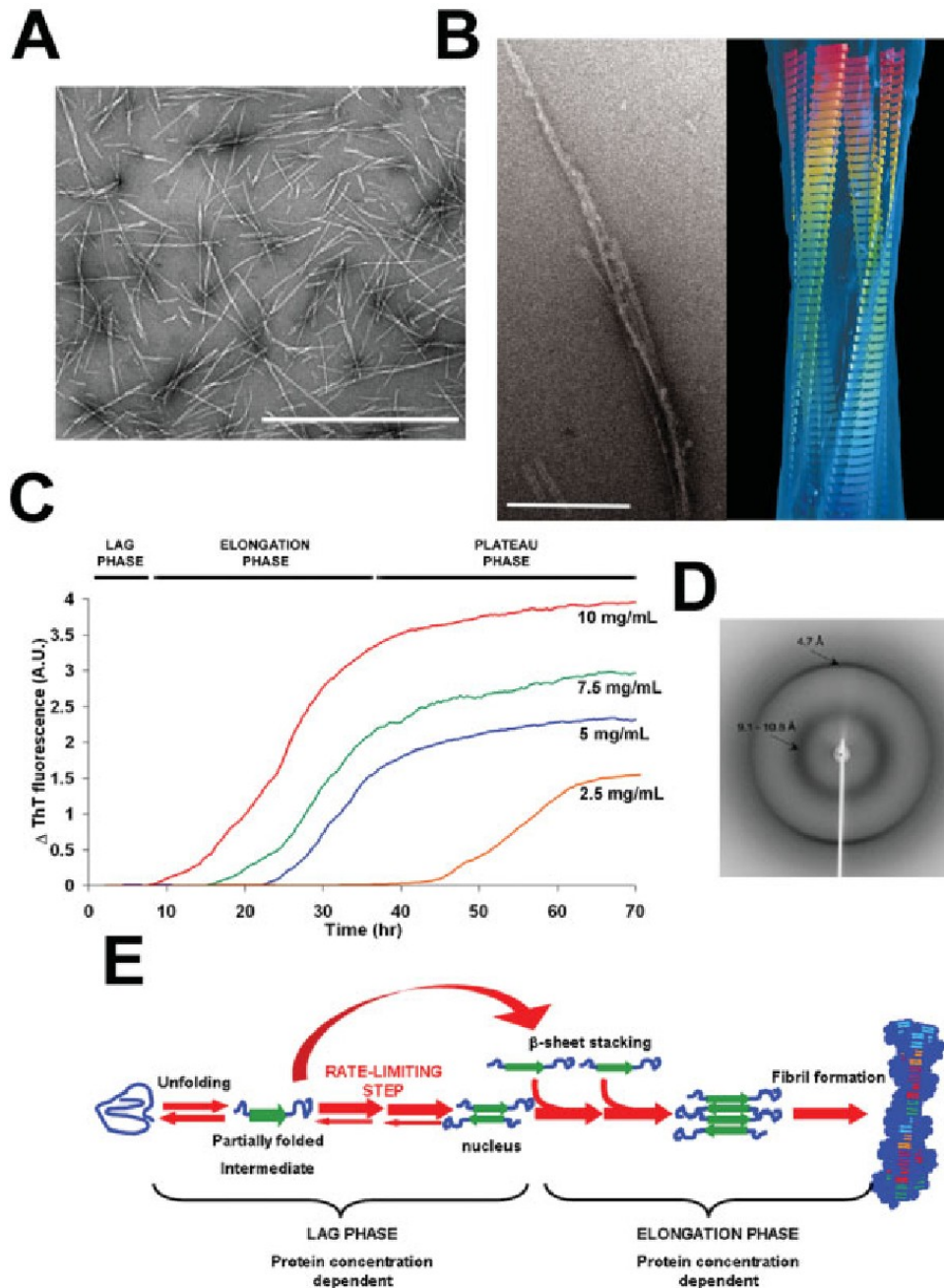


Figure 2. Monitoring the formation of amyloid fibrils and their generic core architecture.

(A) The typical structure of amyloid fibrils as viewed by transmission electron micrograph showing them as long, unbranched, rope-like fibers. Scale bar is 1 μ m.

(B) In the left panel, a magnified view of an a-synuclein fibril highlighting its internal protofilament substructure (scale bar is 200 nm). In the right panel, a schematic view of an amyloid fibril formed from insulin. This model shows the core structure of each filament, that is, the typical cross b-sheet array formed from sheets of b-strands lying perpendicular to the axis of the fibril and the aligning of these b-sheets into individual filaments.

(C) Monitoring amyloid fibril formation via the change in fluorescence of the amyloidogenic dye thioflavin T upon its binding to the fibril. The kinetics of fibril formation include a lag phase, elongation phase, and plateau phase. Typically, as the concentration of protein increases, the lag phase of the reaction decreases and the rate of fibril elongation increases.

(D) X-ray fiber diffraction of amyloid fibrils showing the diagnostic meridional and equatorial reflections which form the “cross b-sheet” pattern.

(E) The standard nucleation-dependent model of amyloid fibril formation. Fibril formation commences with the unfolding of a native protein, forming a pool of partially folded intermediates, a process that is reversible. The partially folded intermediates are able to associate with each other until they reach a critical size/mass at which a stable nucleus is formed. The formation of this nucleus from the partially folded intermediates is slow and rate-limiting in the overall process of fibril formation (lag phase). Fibril elongation then proceeds via the addition of intermediates to the growing nucleus. The mechanism also explains how seeding the reaction increases the reaction rate and decreases the lag phase because addition of preformed fibrils overcomes the time required to form nuclei.

Ecroyd H, Carver JA. Life 2008;60(12):769-774.