

- EGD (1996) Methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase mutation and coronary artery disease. *Circulation* 94:2322–2323
- Papapetrou C, Lynch SA, Burn J, Edwards YH (1996) Methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase and neural tube defects. *Lancet* 348:58
- Pepe G, Rickards O, Camacho Vanegas O, Brunelli T, Gori AM, Giusti B, Attanasio M, et al (1997) Prevalence of factor V Leiden mutation in non-European populations. *Thromb Haemostasis* 77:329–331
- Rozen R (1997) Genetic predisposition to hyperhomocysteinemia: deficiency of methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR). In: Vermynen J, de Gaetano G, Arnout J, Deckmyn H, Holvoet P, Lijnen HR (eds) *Thrombosis and haemostasis: state of the art*. Schattauer, Stuttgart and New York, pp 523–526
- Scacchi R, Corbo RM, Rickards O, De Stefano GF (1994) Survey of seven plasma protein polymorphisms in the Amhara and Oromo populations of Ethiopia. *Am J Hum Biol* 6:773–781
- van Bockxmeer FM, Mamotte CDS, Vasikaran SD, Taylor RR (1997) Methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase gene and coronary artery disease. *Circulation* 95:21–23
- Wilcken DEL, Wang XL, Sim AS, McCredie M (1996) Distribution in healthy and coronary populations of the methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) C677T mutation. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 16:878–882

Address for correspondence and reprints: Dr. Guglielmina Pepe, Department of Biology, University of Rome "Tor Vergata," Via della Ricerca Scientifica s.n.c., 00133 Rome, Italy. E-mail: Pepe@Utovrn.it

© 1998 by The American Society of Human Genetics. All rights reserved.
0002-9297/98/6303-0041\$02.00

Am. J. Hum. Genet. 63:920–921, 1998

NTBC and Alkaptonuria

To the Editor:

La Du (1998) sounds an appropriate note of caution in posing the editorial question, "Are we ready to try to cure alkaptonuria?" (i.e., with homogentisate 1,2-dioxygenase [HGO] gene-replacement therapy). He suggests that localization of recombinant HGO to certain tissues might lead to accumulation of reactive intermediates of the tyrosine catabolic pathway. We would like to point out an alternative therapy for alkaptonuria (La Du 1995; MIM 203500) that obviates the problem of gene localization.

The potential treatment consists of oral administration of 2-(2-nitro-4-trifluoromethylbenzoyl)-1,3-cyclohexanedione, or NTBC, in combination with some dietary restriction of phenylalanine and tyrosine. NTBC is a member of the triketone class of herbicides, which cause plants to bleach. The triketone herbicides are inhibitors of 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase

(HPPD) (Schulz et al. 1993), the enzyme that produces homogentisic acid (HA). Hence, NTBC should prevent the production of HA, which is believed to cause the signs and symptoms of alkaptonuria. NTBC binds to 4-HPPD in a rapid and avid (inhibitory concentration $[IC]_{50} = 40$ nM), but reversible, fashion and inhibits both rat and human liver HPPD (Lindstedt et al. 1992; Schulz et al. 1993).

NTBC is the first effective drug therapy for the fatal hereditary disease tyrosinemia type I (Mitchell et al. 1997), which results from fumarylacetoacetate hydrolyase deficiency. By reducing the supply of HA, NTBC partially blocks the formation of fumarylacetoacetate and thus lowers the concentration of oxidizing metabolites, which cause severe liver disease, hepatocellular carcinoma, and renal tubular dysfunction in infants and children with tyrosinemia type I (Mitchell et al. 1997). Early studies have shown both biochemical and clinical efficacy of NTBC (Lindstedt et al. 1992), and case reports indicate improvement in peripheral neuropathy (Gibbs et al. 1993) and renal disease (Pronicka et al. 1996). A murine model of tyrosinemia type I was treated with NTBC and responded with increased longevity, improved liver function, and partially normalized expression of hepatic mRNAs (Grompe et al. 1995). The only side effect was liver steatosis.

In humans, NTBC appears to be well tolerated for short and midterm administration and has been used at least since 1992 (Lindstedt et al. 1992). Complications—namely, photophobia and the presence of corneal crystals—have been observed in only one NTBC-treated child. These findings disappeared within 48 h, when a phenylalanine and tyrosine-restricted diet was introduced, and did not recur subsequently (Mitchell et al. 1997). Theoretically, NTBC therapy could result in neurological problems associated with tyrosinemia type II (tyrosine aminotransferase deficiency) or with tyrosinemia type III (4-HPPD deficiency) (Mitchell et al. 1997). Tyrosinemia type III has been diagnosed in only two patients, both of whom were ascertained because of neurological problems. One patient had mild ataxia, and the other had seizures and cerebral atrophy. Since these patients were evaluated because of their neurological symptoms, a causal relationship between their biochemical abnormalities and neurological symptoms cannot be determined. Patients treated with NTBC have not been reported to experience neurological problems, but dietary restriction of tyrosine and phenylalanine may be important for the prevention of any neurological, ophthalmological, and dermatological side effects of high tyrosine levels.

Because NTBC side effects have been reported for only a few patients, it may be prudent to await a more-detailed analysis of the entire group of tyrosinemia type I patients who have been treated with NTBC. However,

in anticipation that the side effects will prove to be minimal, we propose to evaluate the safety and efficacy of NTBC for alkaptonuria patients. With the cooperation of Dr. C. Ronald Scott of the University of Washington, we now are attempting to secure NTBC for use in the treatment of alkaptonuria.

Whereas gene therapy generally involves specific tissue localization, pharmacotherapy routinely employs a wide range of targets. For many metabolic disorders, this provides a distinct advantage. For example, in the treatment of cystinosis, cysteamine has beneficial effects upon a variety of organs and tissues (Gahl et al. 1995), including the kidney, muscle, cornea, and thyroid (Kimonis et al. 1995). NTBC could have multisystemic salutary effects as well, meaning that we really *are* ready to try to cure alkaptonuria.

YAIR ANIKSTER,^{1,2} WILLIAM L. NYHAN,³ AND
WILLIAM A. GAHL²

¹Medical Genetics Branch, National Human Genome Research Institute, and ²Section on Human Biochemical Genetics, Heritable Disorders Branch, National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD; and ³Department of Pediatrics, University of California–San Diego, San Diego

Electronic-Database Information

Accession number and URL for data in this article are as follows:

Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Omim> (alkaptonuria [MIM 203500])

References

- Gahl WA, Schneider JA, Aula P (1995) Lysosomal transport disorders: cystinosis and sialic acid storage diseases. In: Scriver CR, Beaudet AL, Sly W, Valle D (eds) *The metabolic and molecular bases of inherited disease*, 7th ed. McGraw-Hill, New York, pp 3763–3797
- Gibbs TC, Payan J, Brett EM, Lindstedt S, Holme E, Clayton PT (1993) Peripheral neuropathy as the presenting feature of tyrosinaemia type I and effectively treated with an inhibitor of 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 56:1129–1132
- Grompe M, Lindstedt S, Al-Dhalimy M, Kennaway NG, Papanconstantinou J, Torres-Ramos CA, Ou C-N, et al (1995) Pharmacological correction of neonatal lethal hepatic dysfunction in a murine model of hereditary tyrosinaemia type I. *Nat Genet* 10:453–459
- Kimonis VE, Troendle J, Yang ML, Rose SR, Markello TC, Gahl WA (1995) Effects of early cysteamine therapy on thyroid function and growth in nephropathic cystinosis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 80:3257–3261
- La Du BN (1995) Alkaptonuria. In: Scriver CR, Beaudet AL, Sly W, Valle D (eds) *The metabolic and molecular bases of*

inherited disease, 7th ed. McGraw-Hill, New York, pp 1371–1386

- (1998) Are we ready to try to cure alkaptonuria? *Am J Hum Genet* 62:765–767
- Lindstedt S, Holme E, Lock EA, Hjalmarson O, Strandvik B (1992) Treatment of hereditary tyrosinaemia type I by inhibition of 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase. *Lancet* 340:813–817
- Mitchell GA, Lambert M, Tanguay RM (1997) Hypertyrosinemia. In: Scriver CR, Beaudet AL, Sly W, Valle D (eds) *The metabolic and molecular bases of inherited disease*, 7th ed. McGraw-Hill, New York (CD-ROM)
- Pronicka E, Rowinska E, Bentkowski Z, Zawadski J, Holme E, Lindstedt S (1996) Treatment of two children with hereditary tyrosinaemia type I and long-standing renal disease with a 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase inhibitor (NTBC). *J Inher Metab Dis* 19:234–238
- Schulz A, Ort O, Beyer P, Kleinig H (1993) SC-0051, a 2-benzoyl-cyclohexane-1,3-dione bleaching herbicide, is a potent inhibitor of the enzyme *p*-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase. *FEBS Lett* 318:162–166

Address for correspondence and reprints: Dr. William A. Gahl, 10 Center Drive, MSC 1830, Building 10, Room 9S-241, National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892-1830. E-mail: bgahl@helix.nih.gov

© 1998 by The American Society of Human Genetics. All rights reserved. 0002-9297/98/6303-0042\$02.00

Am. J. Hum. Genet. 63:921–926, 1998

Gene Localization for Aculeiform Cataract, on Chromosome 2q33-35

To the Editor:

Aculeiform cataract (MIM 115700) is a form of congenital crystalline cataract that originally was described by Vogt in 1922 and was referred to as “Spiesskatarakt” (Vogt 1922). Since its original description, this entity also has been referred to as “frosted cataract,” “needle-shaped cataract,” or “fasciculiform cataract” (Parker 1956). This phenotype is characterized by fiberglasslike or needlelike crystals projecting in different directions, through or close to the axial region of the lens (fig. 1). Some crystals may be >1 mm in length, and their biochemical composition is not known. This type of cataract is considered to be different from the coralliform cataract, which does not show the needlelike projections. This opacity does not appear to respect the sutures or the direction of the lens fibers (François 1963) and appears to originate from the fetal and postnatal nuclei, suggesting a congenital origin with some postnatal progression, if any. The opacity causes a variable degree of