

X-LINKED ADRENOLEUKODYSTROPHY: CLINICAL CHARACTERISTICS, DIAGNOSIS AND MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

Adrenoleukodystrophy (X-ALD) is a rare X-linked peroxisomal disease, which usually presents in affected males with one of three phenotypes: adult-onset adrenomyeloneuropathy (AMN, 45%), childhood-onset cerebral demyelination (CALD, 35%), or primary adrenal insufficiency (PAI, 10%). Occasionally, X-ALD patients may suffer from less specific symptoms resembling those of other neurological conditions. Variability in presentation and age of onset can make the diagnosis challenging. AMN should be considered in patients presenting with spastic paraparesis. Female carriers manifest a late-onset mild form of myelopathy and/or neuropathy. Inclusion of testing for X-ALD in newborn screening programs is expected to expand our understanding of the disorder's natural history. Newborn screening should enable early detection of affected individuals and allow timely therapeutic interventions. Such interventions include corticosteroid replacement therapy for PAI, allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation for CALD, and approved gene therapy (elivaldogene autotemcel) for suitable candidates with childhood CALD. Currently, no effective treatment exists for the neurological manifestations of AMN, the commonest presentation of X-ALD. Hopefully, in the near future, novel gene therapy approaches, similar to those recently approved for other rare neurogenetic diseases may also be developed for X-ALD.

Key words: X-linked adrenoleukodystrophy; adrenomyeloneuropathy; primary adrenal insufficiency; HSCT; elivaldogene autotemcel

Introduction

X-linked adrenoleukodystrophy (X-ALD, OMIM #300100) is a lipid-storage disease, which primarily affects the nervous system, adrenal cortex, as well as testicular function [1-4]. X-ALD represents the most common peroxisomal disorder, with a recently estimated birth incidence of approximately 1:18,000

[3]. As shown in Box1, clinical manifestations of the disorder vary, with patients presenting with either of the following three basic clinical phenotypes; cerebral X-ALD (CALD), adrenomyeloneuropathy (AMN), and primary adrenal insufficiency (PAI) [4].

X-ALD is due to mutations in the *ABCD1* gene, located on chromosome Xq28, coding for ALDP, a

Box 1. X-ALD Clinical Phenotypes

Males
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cerebral form (CALD) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Childhood ○ Adolescent ○ Adult • Adrenomyeloneuropathy (AMN) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ With cerebral involvement ○ Without cerebral involvement • Primary adrenal insufficiency (PAI), "Addison's only" phenotype • Asymptomatic/Presymptomatic
Females
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • AMN-like phenotype • Asymptomatic/Presymptomatic

peroxisomal ATP-binding cassette protein [5-7]. As of June 11, 2021, 3, 247 variants of *ABCD1* have been reported, of which 913 are non-recurrent and 247 are variants of unknown significance (<https://adrenoleukodystrophy.info/mutations-biochemistry/mutation-statistics>). No correlation between genotype and disease phenotype has been found, even within the same family [8].

ALDP serves as a transmembrane channel which enables the transportation of very long-chain fatty acids \geq C22:0 (VLCFA) into the peroxisome, for β -oxidation [9]. The defective function of ALDP prevents degradation of VLCFA, resulting in its accumulation in tissues and plasma, which is regarded as X-ALD's biochemical hallmark [10]. VLCFA levels are increased in the plasma of all male carriers and in approximately 80-85% of female carriers [11, 12].

In 2006, Hubbard et al. found raised levels of C26:0 lysophosphatidyl choline, measured via LC-MS/MS assay, in postnatal venous dried blood spots from X-ALD males [13]. This finding has allowed the emergence of a newborn screening diagnostic test for X-ALD with several countries incorporating it in their newborn screening programs [14]. Therapeutic management has also evolved, with corticosteroid replacement therapy and hematopoietic stem cell transplant (HSCT) remaining the mainstay of treatment, but with new therapeutic options, such as gene therapy for eligible candidates suffering from CALD, also emerging [15, 16]. As X-ALD patients have no neurological deficits at birth, early diagnosis through newborn screening has opened a "window of opportunity" for the use of these therapies.

In this review, we intend to enlighten the reader about the disorder's basic pathophysiology and clinical characteristics, as well as provide an update on diagnosis and management of X-ALD.

2. X-ALD Basic Pathophysiology

VLCFA mainly accumulate in the nervous system, adrenal cortex, and testicular Leydig cells, a process already taking place in utero [17-20]. Unidentified molecular events prompt the transition from the metabolic phase, i.e. VLCFA accumulation, to neuroinflammation and demyelination in the brain in CALD, or to axonal degeneration in the spinal cord in AMN [21].

In 2010, Singh and Pujol, in an attempt to describe the mechanisms underlying CALD, proposed the "three-hit hypothesis"; excess of VLCFA and lower plasmalogen levels (antioxidant phospholipids) result in oxidative stress (first hit) that successively, with the contribution of environmental, genetic or epigenetic factors, triggers a neuroinflammatory response (second hit), which further disrupts the peroxisomal function (third hit), leading to a progressive

inflammatory demyelinating disease [22-24]. Similarly, regarding the myeloneuropathy's pathophysiology, oxidative stress along with defective mitochondrial function result in the disruption of ATP-dependent axonal transport, inducing a distal non-inflammatory dying-back axonopathy [25].

In the adrenal glands, VLCFA are preferentially found in the zona fasciculata and zona reticularis, thus glucocorticoid and androgen deficiencies are more common in X-ALD [19, 26, 27]. The suggested mechanisms that elicit the aforementioned deficiencies are summarized as follows: a) VLCFA accumulation exhibiting a direct cytotoxic effect to cells, followed by apoptosis due to oxidative stress [23], b) inadequate free cholesterol availability for steroid hormones' formation owing to the accumulation of cholesterol esters with VLCFA [28], c) incorporation of VLCFA into cell membranes, interfering with adrenocorticotrophic hormone's (ACTH) ability to attach to its receptor [29]. A similar pathology is thought to lead to abnormal hormonogenesis in testes' Leydig cells, with low testosterone levels leading to testicular dysfunction [30].

3. X-ALD Clinical Characteristics

Various different X-ALD clinical phenotypes have been described, each of them characterized by specific clinical manifestations (see Table 1). However, considering the disorder's progressive nature and the fact that some phenotypes evolve into others, one could speak of a clinical spectrum of disease (see figure 1). Interestingly, the X-ALD phenotype shows no correlation, either to VLCFA plasma levels or to the *ABCD1* pathogenic variant involved, even in the same family [31-33]. Moreover, in contrast to previous understanding, it is now widely accepted that X-ALD not only affects males, but, female heterozygotes as well, who eventually develop primarily AMN symptoms [34].

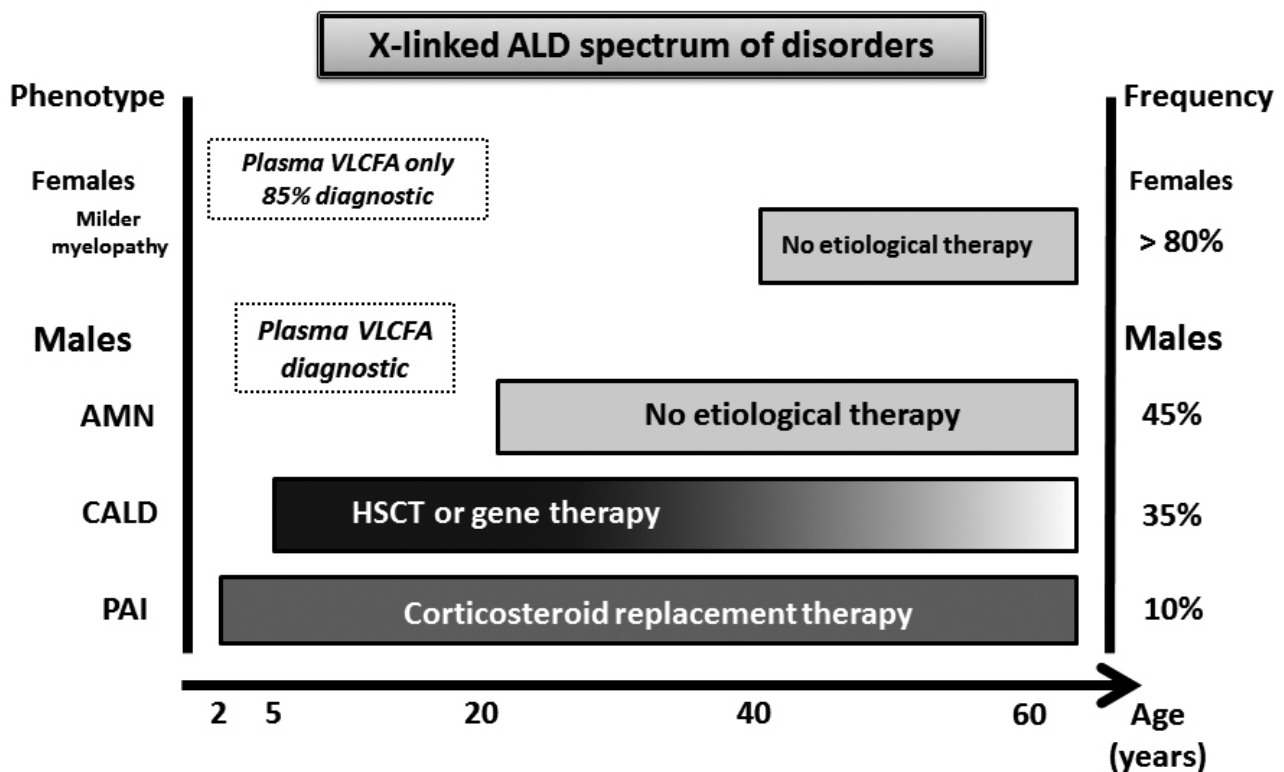
3a. Presentations Most Commonly Seen in Affected Males

The cerebral form of X-ALD can occur at any age (childhood, adolescence, early adulthood), but mostly between four and eight years of age, with the childhood cerebral form occurring in ~35% of affected individuals [35, 36]. Affected schoolboys exhibit cognitive deficits (behavioral and/or learning), which may resemble those of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. As the demyelinating process progresses, more serious symptoms arise, such as hemiparesis or spastic tetraparesis, apraxia, astereognosia, difficulty in understanding speech despite intact hearing, lack of spatial orientation, visual disturbances, cerebellar ataxia, and seizures [36]. By the time the neurologic disturbances appear, most patients have

Table 1. Clinical manifestations of X-ALD's most common phenotypes and their lifetime prevalence

Phenotypes	Clinical manifestations	Lifetime prevalence
Males		
Cerebral form	cognitive deficits resembling attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, signs of dementia, visual disturbances, aphasia, apraxia, astereognosia, auditory agnosia, lack of spatial orientation, hemiparesis or spastic tetraparesis, cerebellar ataxia, seizures	~60%
AMN	spastic paraparesis, sensory ataxia, sphincter disturbances, sexual dysfunction	~100%
Adrenocortical insufficiency	increased skin pigmentation, orthostatic hypotension, fatigue, anorexia, weight loss or poor growth, gastrointestinal symptoms	~80%
Females		
AMN-like phenotype	sensory ataxia, sphincter disturbances, sensory symptoms, gait spasticity, neuropathic pain	>80%

Figure 1 legend. Diagram summarizing main diagnostic, phenotypic and therapeutic issues in X-linked adrenoleukodystrophy. Percentages, presented separately for males and females, represent phenotypes at presentation; ALD: adrenoleukodystrophy; AMN: adrenomyeloneuropathy; CALD: cerebral ALD; PAI: primary adrenal insufficiency; HSCT: Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation; gene therapy refers to elivaldogene autotemcel



also developed adrenocortical insufficiency. Eventually, progressive functional decline leads to total disability followed by death, two to four years after symptom onset.

A proportion of affected males suffering from CALD may develop the so-called "chronic or arrested cerebral X-ALD". In such cases, a spontaneous arrest of the demyelinating process is observed, followed by

several years of disease stability. Nevertheless, a small number of those patients may, at some point, shift to the progressive form of CALD, reflecting the recurrence of the cerebral demyelinating process [37, 38].

The proportion of affected individuals presenting with symptoms suggestive of adrenomyeloneuropathy is estimated as high as ~40-45% [39]. AMN typically affects men between their second and fourth

decade of life, who develop progressive symptoms such as spastic paraparesis, sensory ataxia, sphincter disturbances, and sexual dysfunction [37]. As made apparent by its clinical manifestations, AMN should be considered in patients with spastic paraparesis of undetermined cause [40, 41]. Adrenal insufficiency is usually already evident as of AMN diagnosis' establishment. Despite initial absence, about 40%-45% of patients suffering from AMN eventually develop some degree of brain involvement, which in some cases becomes severely progressive and may even lead to death [42].

Approximately 10% of male carriers exhibit, at presentation, signs of primary adrenal insufficiency, i.e. increased skin pigmentation, orthostatic hypotension, fatigue, anorexia, weight loss or poor growth, and gastrointestinal symptoms, resulting in a diagnosis of Addison's disease [37]. PAI, if left untreated, may lead to adrenal crisis, a potentially life-threatening situation. Therefore, testing for X-ALD seems reasonable in all male probands showing signs of Addison's disease [43]. Although most affected male individuals will exhibit signs of adrenal dysfunction at some phase of the disease, adrenal function is usually normal in female carriers [44].

Another 5%-10% of affected males present with one the following constellation of symptoms: a) signs of localized brain disease including hemiparesis, aphasia, and visual field defects, and symptoms due to elevated intracranial pressure, such as headache, b) progressive behavioral disturbance, dementia and paresis in an adult, c) ataxia in a child or adult, d) only evidence of sphincter and sexual dysfunction in male carriers [45]. Lastly, a small proportion of male carriers may remain asymptomatic/ presymptomatic. This marked phenotypic heterogeneity has been attributed to the existence of possible disease modifiers, such as environmental triggers but also genetic factors [46]. Numerous reports from studies that aim at identifying modifier genes in X-ALD have been published, an extensive discussion of which is beyond this review's intentions [47].

3b. Presentations Most Commonly Seen in Female Carriers

For a long time, X-ALD was regarded as a disorder that only affects males. However, nowadays, studies have shown that despite adrenocortical insufficiency and CALD affecting less than 1% of female carriers, more than 80% show signs of neurological dysfunction by the age of 60 years [48]. As expected, the disease is less severe and progresses at a slower rate in female carriers. Symptom onset predominantly occurs between the 4th and 5th decade of life, resembling an AMN-like phenotype. Affected women typically present with symptoms suggestive of my-

elopathy and/or peripheral neuropathy such as sensory ataxia, fecal incontinence, bladder dysfunction, sensory symptoms and gait spasticity [49]. They often suffer from neuropathic pain, a symptom that is not generally present in males with AMN [50]. Women very rarely develop the cerebral form of the disease, this occurring only in the context of two possibilities a) woman carrier of two mutated *ABCD1* alleles, or b) complete inactivation of the normal X-chromosome in all tissue cells [51].

4. X-ALD: Establishing the Diagnosis

The implementation of X-ALD testing in newborn screening programs has undoubtedly led to a new era regarding X-ALD diagnosis in several countries [52]. In such countries, as expected, the burden has now been placed on monitoring of diagnosed infants and extensive discussions are underway, regarding monitoring protocols. Families that give birth to infants with a positive newborn screen are referred to specialized centers for confirmatory testing and genetic advice. The infant is respectively closely followed by pediatric neurologists and endocrinologists [14].

In countries where newborn screening is not available, diagnosis remains a matter of clinical suspicion. When X-ALD is suspected in a male, measurement of VLCFA in blood is diagnostic, with high specificity and sensitivity as all males with X-ALD have elevated VLCFA levels. However, about 15% of female carriers might have normal plasma VLCFA levels, rendering mutation analysis as the diagnostic test of choice in females [35, 53]. In males suffering from primary adrenal insufficiency, the clinician should consider the possibility of X-ALD and test for plasma VLCFA levels [54]. Similarly, boys and young adults with suggestive neurological symptoms, with or without typical lesions on brain MRI, should be considered for X-ALD. Furthermore, both male and female patients with symptoms consistent with chronic myelopathy should be tested for X-ALD, after ruling out more common causes, such as multiple sclerosis, vitamin deficiencies, compressive lesions, radiation, infections, or primary lateral sclerosis, and before or at the same time as embarking on genetic testing for hereditary spastic paraparesis [55]. In males, the coexistence of progressive myelopathy and early baldness may facilitate establishing the diagnosis, as most affected males will already have some signs of adrenal insufficiency by the time they develop myelopathy.

5. Monitoring of X-ALD patients

Once the diagnosis is established in a patient, genetic testing seems reasonable in the entire family. If the affected individual is a male infant/child, the American Pediatric Endocrine Society suggests laboratory screening of cortisol and ACTH levels (every

Box 2. X-ALD diagnosis

Suspect X-ALD
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In males with symptoms and signs compatible with adrenal insufficiency. • In males with neurological symptoms and signs compatible with cerebral X-ALD. • In patients with progressive myelopathy after exclusion of most frequent causes.
If X-ALD is suspected
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obtain plasma VLCFA levels. • Proceed to ABCD1 gene mutation analysis.
Ancillary paraclinical evaluation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brain and/or spinal cord MRI. • Laboratory testing for ACTH, cortisol, electrolytes (potassium, sodium), glucose.

Box 3. Sample collection for plasma VLCFA levels determination

<p>According to the Greek Institute of Child Health, sample collection should be carried out as follows:</p> <p>Time of blood collection: In the morning, fasting blood sample.</p> <p>Type of sample: Take 5 cc of blood in a heparinized syringe (Heparin sodium) and transfuse in an empty tube.</p> <p>Transport conditions for samples: Preferably immediate after blood sample collection. If not possible, place samples in cold storage at +2°C to +8°C until shipment via cooled transport (4 °C).</p> <p>Special cautions: Inform the laboratory in case of prior blood transfusion. In case of hemolysis, obtain a new sample as hemolysis might increase VLCFA levels. Other factors affecting VLCFA levels include: ketogenic diet, liver disease, and dyslipidemia.</p>

3-4 months in the first 2 years and every 4-6 months after 2 years of age) [56]. Regarding MRI surveillance, the following protocol has been recently proposed: a) Obtain an MRI between 12 and 18 months old; b) Obtain a second MRI 1 year after baseline; c) Between 3 and 12 years old, obtain a contrast-enhanced MRI every 6 months; d) After 12 years, obtain an annual MRI. For the time being, no guidelines exist for neuroimaging in adults [57]. T2 hyperintensities can be observed in the involved areas, i.e. corpus callosum, visual pathway, supratentorial white matter and major projection fibers. The presence of gadolinium enhancing lesions reflects the disruption of the blood brain barrier and marks the transition to the demyelinating stage of the disease [38].

The Loes MRI Severity Score is a grading system used to assess the severity of MRI lesions and may range from 0, meaning no disease activity, to 34, which is indicative of the most severe disease. This score is of importance as therapeutic interventions are indicated for subjects with a score between 0.5 and 9 [58]. If the affected individual is female, routine monitoring is not recommended, neither for adrenal insufficiency nor for cerebral ALD. Spinal cord atrophy may be observed amongst individuals suffering from AMN [37]. A recent study showed that patients' spinal cord cross-sectional area correlates with the severity of myelopathy, suggesting that it may serve as a monitoring tool for AMN patients [59].

6. Therapeutic management of X-ALD patients

As expected, a multidisciplinary approach is recommended for the therapeutic management of X-ALD patients. For patients suffering from adrenomyeloneuropathy, no established etiological therapeutic options exist so far. Physical therapy along with treatment of urologic complications and counseling might be of value [60, 61]. If adrenal insufficiency is diagnosed in an affected male, corticosteroid replacement therapy is vital [56, 62]. X-ALD newborn screening in some countries, along with the improvement of imaging modalities, have allowed for more timely intervention, as hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT) is only indicated for early cerebral disease states. Substantial research is currently underway, using various approaches, in order to identify new effective therapeutic options, offering promising prospects for X-ALD patients [63].

6a. Allogeneic Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation

Allogeneic Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT) is a treatment, suitable for boys and adolescents in early stages of CALD. HSCT is thought to halt neurologic progression when performed in these stages, though the underlying mechanism remains unclear [64, 65]. In contrast to neurologic progression, HSCT has no impact on the progression of ad-

Box 4. Monitoring of X-ALD patients

Upon establishment of X-ALD diagnosis, the following management protocol is proposed:

- **Adrenal insufficiency** surveillance
 - Every 3-4 months, if age \leq 2 years.
 - Every 4-6 months if age $>$ 2 years.

In case of **abnormal** findings, refer to an **endocrinologist** for **corticosteroid replacement** therapy.

- **MRI** surveillance
 - Obtain an MRI between 12 and 18 months old.
 - Obtain a second MRI 1 year after baseline.
 - Between 3 and 12 years old, obtain a contrast-enhanced MRI every 6 months.
 - After 12 years, obtain an annual MRI.

In case of **abnormal** findings, refer to an **HSCT/gene therapy** specialized center.

- **Genetic testing** and **counselling** seem reasonable in possibly affected family members.

renal insufficiency. Transplantation, when performed in appropriate candidates, not only offers a survival advantage, but also prevents the development of major functional disability. In order to be considered for HSCT, patients must have few lesions on brain MRI and remain in a good clinical condition, as determined by the ALD-specific Neurologic Function Scale (NFS) and the Loes MRI severity score [58]. HSCT is ineffective in patients with advanced disease and cannot reverse neurologic impairment already present at the time of the procedure. In addition, disease stabilization occurs 3-24 months after HSCT, leading to a possible accumulation of disability in the meantime [15, 66]. As expected, allogeneic HSCT may be associated with acute mortality and late complications, such as failure of donor cell engraftment and graft-versus-host disease [15]. Finally, recent reports have drawn attention to a potential beneficial effect of HSCT even in adult patients with CALD [67, 68].

6b. Gene therapy

For the purpose of overcoming allogeneic HSCT's limitations, i.e. finding of a suitable donor and possibility of developing graft versus host disease, transplantation of autologous, genetically-modified hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells (HSPCs) was proposed [69]. A normal copy of the responsible gene is delivered via gene transfer to the HSPCs, which are then infused into the patient. Before the infusion, busulfan, a myeloablative agent with the ability to facilitate the engraftment of the transplanted HSPCs in the hematopoietic and the central nervous system, is administered to the patient [70].

In July 2021, elivaldogene autotemcel (SKYSO-NA™, eli-cel; Lenti-D™ gene therapy) received approval for the treatment of early cerebral X-ALD in patients below the age of 18, for whom an HLA-

matched sibling-hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) donor is not available. The approval study protocol involved 30 boys aged 4 to 14 years with early CALD. According to the study's results, after two years, 90% of the treated boys showed no signs of major functional disability and approximately 96% of the boys experienced a stable Gross Neurological Function Measure score (a score measuring the developing child's ability to achieve expected motor milestones) after two years. Furthermore, there was evidence of continuing benefit for up to 8 years [71]. Developing gene therapy techniques, such as antisense oligonucleotides and small interfering RNAs, may also have a place in the future treatment of X-ALD [72].

6c. Lipid modulation

Lorenzo's oil is a mixture comprising a 4:1 mix of oleic and erucic acids, that, in conjunction with a low-fat diet, normalizes plasma VLCFA levels. Despite several studies arguing against its efficacy in preventing CALD progression once it already exists, Moser et al., reported that it could prevent the development of CALD in presymptomatic subjects [73]. There have also been some reports of benefit of Lorenzo's oil in males suffering from AMN, but came from studies with questionable methodology [74].

In a recently published paper, Moser et al. reported the VLCFA-lowering effect of the antihypertensive irbesartan in cultured skin fibroblasts from an X-ALD patient, implying a potential beneficial effect in X-ALD that should be further validated [75].

Lastly, it has been recently shown *in vivo*, that metabolic rerouting of saturated to monounsaturated VLCFAs by upregulating the enzyme Stearoyl-CoA Desaturase-1 (SCD1 induction) may decrease lipid toxicity, a strategy that may prove of benefit in X-ALD [69].

6d. Antioxidant therapy

In a small open-label trial, 13 patients suffering from AMN were administered a high dose of α -tocopherol, N-acetylcysteine, and α -lipoic acid in combination. Normalization of biomarkers suggestive of oxidative stress and inflammation was observed, as well as a beneficial effect on the 6-min walk test, justifying larger future placebo-controlled trials [76].

Leriglitazone is a newly developed full PPAR γ agonist which can cross the blood brain barrier. It has been proved to decrease oxidative stress, increase adenosine 5'-triphosphate concentrations, as well as exert a neuroprotective effect in animal models of AMN. The study's findings also suggest a potential beneficial role for cerebral X-ALD, as it was shown to prevent the progression to disrupted blood-brain barrier [77].

7. Conclusion

Increasing understanding of X-ALD pathophysiology has resulted in the emergence of new promising treatment options. Newborn screening for X-ALD enables the identification of patients at high risk for life-threatening adrenal insufficiency and cerebral ALD early in the disease course, allowing early corticosteroid replacement therapy and timely HSCT or gene therapy for suitable candidates. Hopefully, gene therapy approaches similar to those recently approved for other neurologic monogenic diseases, such as spinal muscular atrophy and Duchenne muscular dystrophy, may be developed for X-ALD in the near future.

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