



Organelles in focus

Coenzyme Q₁₀ as a therapy for mitochondrial disease

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ABSTRACT

Treatment of mitochondrial respiratory chain (MRC) disorders is extremely difficult, however, coenzyme Q₁₀ (CoQ₁₀) and its synthetic analogues are the only agents which have shown some therapeutic benefit to patients. CoQ₁₀ serves as an electron carrier in the MRC as well as functioning as a potent lipid soluble antioxidant. CoQ₁₀ supplementation is fundamental to the treatment of patients with primary defects in the CoQ₁₀ biosynthetic pathway. The efficacy of CoQ₁₀ and its analogues in the treatment of patients with MRC disorders not associated with a CoQ₁₀ deficiency indicates their ability to restore electron flow in the MRC and/or increase mitochondrial antioxidant capacity may also be important contributory factors to their therapeutic potential.

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1. Introduction

The mitochondrial respiratory chain (MRC; Fig. 1) is located in the inner mitochondrial membrane and consists of five enzyme complexes: complex I (NADH:ubiquinone reductase; EC 1.6.5.3); complex II (succinate: ubiquinone reductase; EC 1.3.5.1); complex III (ubiquinol: cytochrome c reductase; EC 1.10.2.2) complex IV (cytochrome c oxidase; EC 1.9.3.1) and complex V (ATP synthase; EC 3.6.3.14; Land et al., 2004; Rahman and Hanna, 2009). However, the paradigm of the MRC as discrete enzymes present in the inner mitochondrial membrane has been superseded and the MRC enzymes are now thought to be associated as supercomplexes within the inner mitochondrial membrane existing as aggregates of complexes I, III, and IV, complexes I and III, and complexes III and IV as well as in their free enzyme forms (Lapiente-Brun et al., 2013). The major function of the MRC is to synthesise ATP via the process of oxidative phosphorylation which is essential for cellular function. Disorders of the MRC constitute a heterogeneous group of multisystemic diseases that develop as the result of mutations in nuclear or mitochondrial DNA (Rahman and Hanna, 2009). Once believed to be extremely rare, inherited disorders of the MRC are now thought to represent one of the more commoner groups of metabolic disease with a birth prevalence of 1 in 5000 (Haas et al., 2007). Treatment for MRC disorders is notoriously difficult and can be woefully inadequate and there is no overall consensus on the treatment of these disorders (Dimauro et al., 2004). To date coenzyme Q₁₀ (CoQ₁₀;

Fig. 2) and its analogues are the only agents which have proven to have some therapeutic potential (Geromel et al., 2002; Mahoney et al., 2002) in the treatment of MRC disorders by their ability to restore electron flow in the MRC chain, provide electrons to the chain and increase mitochondrial antioxidant capacity.

CoQ₁₀ is the predominant form of ubiquinone in humans where it serves as an electron carrier in the MRC (Ernster and Dallner, 1995a,b). A study by Benard et al. (2006) however has indicated that not all mitochondrial CoQ₁₀ is required for its MRC function. There appears to be two distinct pools of CoQ₁₀ in the inner mitochondrial membrane, one pool is protein bound and the other is free of such associations (Lass and Sohal, 1999). Although the exact function of these CoQ₁₀ pools is uncertain, given that approximately 30% of mitochondrial CoQ₁₀ has been reported to be protein bound (Lass and Sohal, 1999) and that in *Caenorhabditis elegans* a reduction of mitochondrial CoQ₁₀ content by 60–70% of original did not decrease MRC activity (Asencio et al., 2003) this may suggest that the protein bound CoQ₁₀ pool may be principally involved in oxidative phosphorylation. The free CoQ₁₀ pool may consequently be required for other functions including: serving as a potent lipid soluble antioxidant (Bentinger et al., 2007); regulation of the permeability transition pore opening and maintenance of body temperature via its role as a cofactor for the mitochondrial uncoupling proteins (Lopez-Martin et al., 2007). CoQ₁₀ also functions as an antioxidant in other cellular membranes and lipoproteins (Ernster and Forsmark-Andree, 1993). In addition it is also involved in other cell functions, these include: DNA replication and repair through its role in pyrimidine synthesis and the regulation of the physicochemical properties of cellular membranes (Lopez-Martin et al., 2007; Turunen et al., 2004). In humans CoQ₁₀ is present in most tissues of

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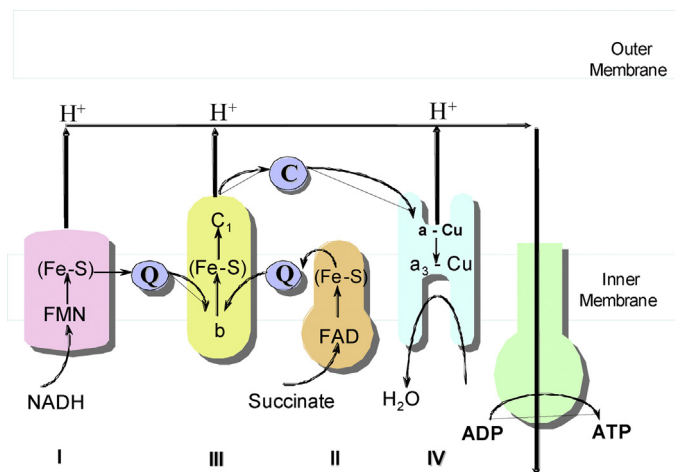


Fig. 1. A diagram showing the structure of mitochondrial respiratory chain. CoQ₁₀ is denoted as Q and cytochrome c as C.

the body, the highest levels being found in the heart, kidney, liver and muscle, 114, 67, 55 and 40 $\mu\text{g/g}$ wet weight of tissue, respectively. In contrast, the lowest levels are found in the lungs and colon, 8 and 11 $\mu\text{g/g}$ wet weight of tissue, respectively (Turunen et al., 2004). It is uncertain as yet whether the differences in tissue CoQ₁₀ status reflect disparities in tissue specific synthesis or variations in the level of mitochondrial enrichment as the mitochondria is the major site of CoQ₁₀ synthesis within the cell (Turunen et al., 2004). CoQ₁₀ present in tissues is mostly in its fully reduced, ubiquinol form apart from the brain and lungs where CoQ₁₀ predominates (67% and 65% of total, respectively) which may reflect the higher level of oxidative stress in these tissues (Aberg et al., 1992). Animal studies have indicated that there may be some decrease in the mitochondrial CoQ₁₀ status of some tissues in certain species with age although this has not been reported in human studies (Sohal and Forster, 2007). Although no studies have so far assessed the effect of CoQ₁₀ supplementation on ageing in humans, a study in rats has reported an attenuation of both the age related decrease in plasma total antioxidant capacity as well as the increase in DNA damage in lymphocytes following life-long CoQ₁₀ supplementation (Quiles et al., 2005).

Disorders of CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis can respond markedly to CoQ₁₀ supplementation if treatment is started early, although responses may vary between patients (Emmanuele et al., 2012). CoQ₁₀ has low toxicity and does not induce any serious side effects in humans at a dosage up to 1.2 g/day (Hidaka et al., 2008). Furthermore, CoQ₁₀ has been reported to be safe and well tolerated at doses as high as 3000 mg/day although further studies are required before the possibility of adverse side effects can be excluded at this dosage. Although CoQ₁₀ therapy may be relatively free of side effects, there are concerns that CoQ₁₀ may reduce the efficacy of warfarin (Landbo and Almdal, 1998), although a study by Engelsen et al., 2003 observed no influence of CoQ₁₀ on the clinical effect of warfarin.

The therapeutic potential of CoQ₁₀ in the treatment of MRC disorders that are not the result of a defect in CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis would indicate the possibility of a secondary CoQ₁₀ deficiency associated with these diseases. In deed, evidence of a deficit in CoQ₁₀ status has been reported in a variety of MRC disorders most recently in mitochondrial DNA depletion syndrome which will be discussed in this review. The ability of CoQ₁₀ and its analogues (generically known as quinones) to demonstrate clinical/biochemical improvements in patients with MRC disorders that are not associated with a CoQ₁₀ deficiency suggests that their therapeutic potential may not purely result from a replenishment of

the endogenous quinone pool. The therapeutic efficacy of quinones has been reported to rely on both their ability to restore electron flow in the MRC and increase mitochondrial antioxidant capacity and this will be discussed in the following review (Geromel et al., 2002).

1.1. Disorders of CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis and their treatment

The first patients to be reported with a suspected defect in CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis were two sisters born to unrelated parents who presented with recurrent rhabdomyolysis, associated with seizures and mental retardation (Ogasahara et al., 1989). The muscle CoQ₁₀ status of these patients was approximately 3.7% of mean control values indicating a primary defect in CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis although to date no genetic diagnosis has been reported. Since this time 149 patients have been described and CoQ₁₀ deficiency appears to have a particularly heterogeneous clinical presentation. However, there appears to be five distinct clinical phenotypes: encephalomyopathy; severe infantile multisystemic disease; nephropathy; cerebellar ataxia and isolated myopathy (Emmanuele et al., 2012). In most cases the family history suggests an autosomal recessive mode of inheritance and the reader is referred to the review by Rahman et al. (2012) which discusses the genetics of coenzyme Q₁₀ deficiency in detail.

In view of its hydrophobicity and large molecular weight, only a small fraction (less than 5%) of orally administered CoQ₁₀ reaches the plasma (Bhagavan and Chopra, 2007). Therefore, high doses and long term administration of exogenous CoQ₁₀ may be required to elicit clinical improvement in patients with a CoQ₁₀ deficiency (Quinzii et al., 2007). It has been recommended that CoQ₁₀ supplementation with oral doses of 12,000–3000 mg/day for adults and up to 30 mg/kg/day for children should be administered to patients (Emmanuele et al., 2012; Rahman et al., 2012). It is recommended that solubilised formulations of CoQ₁₀ rather than powder based CoQ₁₀ are used therapeutically as the former have superior bioavailability as indicated by their enhanced plasma response (Bhagavan and Chopra, 2007). At present the level of plasma CoQ₁₀ that may have therapeutic potential is uncertain. In a study by Langsjoen and Langsjoen, 1998 a blood concentration of approximately 4.1 μM was required before any therapeutic benefit was reported in patients with congestive heart failure. No studies to date have assessed this parameter in patients with CoQ₁₀ deficiency although a study by Lopez et al. (2010) reported an improvement in bioenergetic status as indicated by increased ATP/ADP ratio and normalisation of cellular oxidative stress in CoQ₁₀ deficient fibroblasts following 7 days of treatment with 5 μM CoQ₁₀. However, it has been suggested that blood mononuclear cells (BNC) may represent a more appropriate surrogate than plasma for the assessment of endogenous CoQ₁₀ status (Duncan et al., 2005). This was indicated by the significant ($p < 0.02$) correlation between skeletal muscle and BNC CoQ₁₀ status in 12 patients with no evidence of a MRC disorder. In contrast, no correlation was observed between plasma and skeletal muscle CoQ₁₀ status (Duncan et al., 2005). The close relationship between skeletal muscle and BNC CoQ₁₀ status was also reported by Land et al. (2007) in a cohort of 22 patients with no evidence of an MRC disorder. The possibility arises however that there may be tissue specific isoenzymes in the CoQ₁₀ biosynthetic pathway and therefore, although the CoQ₁₀ status of BNC may represent that of skeletal muscle it may not be an appropriate surrogate for other tissues (Ogasahara et al., 1989). Therefore, the establishment of therapeutic ranges of BNC CoQ₁₀ status may have more clinical utility.

Whilst the muscle symptoms associated with CoQ₁₀ deficiency have been reported to improve in most cases upon CoQ₁₀ supplementation, neurological symptoms appear to be only partially ameliorated (Emmanuele et al., 2012). In patients with the

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