

α 1-Antitrypsin Deficiency, Emphysema, and Liver Disease Genetic Basis and Strategies for Therapy

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α 1-Antitrypsin (α 1AT)¹ deficiency, one of the most common lethal hereditary disorders of Caucasians of European descent, is an autosomal recessive disorder characterized by reduced serum levels of α 1AT, a 52-kD glycoprotein that functions as an antiprotease (1, 2). The deficiency state is caused by mutations in the α 1AT gene, a pleomorphic 12.2-kb, 7-exon gene on chromosome 14 at q31-31.2 (3). Normal α 1AT serum levels are 20–53 μ M (4, 5). Various homozygous and heterozygous combinations of at least 17 different mutations of the α 1AT gene are associated with α 1AT levels < 11 μ M and a high risk for developing emphysema (5–7). Some individuals with α 1AT deficiency develop reactive airways disease. A subset of mutations is associated with hepatitis and cirrhosis (8, 9). Rarely, α 1AT deficiency has been linked with hepatoma or relapsing panniculitis (7, 9). One rare mutation is associated with a fatal hemorrhagic disorder (10).

In the context that the major clinical importance of α 1AT deficiency relates to its association with emphysema and liver disease (1, 7, 9), this review will focus on the recent advances in defining the genetic basis of these manifestations of α 1AT deficiency and therapeutic strategies that have been developed to prevent them. For more details, the reader should consult prior reviews (1–12).

The major clinical manifestations of α 1AT deficiency relate to the function of α 1AT and where it is made. α 1AT serves as an inhibitor of neutrophil elastase (NE), a powerful, destructive proteolytic enzyme stored in neutrophils (2, 11). The liver is the major site of α 1AT gene expression, releasing 2 g of α 1AT into the circulation daily. α 1AT diffuses into most organs, where it protects extracellular structures from attack by NE released by activated or disintegrating neutrophils. The lower respiratory tract is particularly vulnerable to a deficiency of α 1AT, which normally represents > 90% of the anti-NE protective screen of the alveolar walls (13, 14). When serum α 1AT levels are < 11 μ M, there is insufficient α 1AT to protect the lower respiratory tract from its burden of NE, permitting progressive destruction of the alveoli, which culminates in emphysema (14). The pathogenesis of the liver disease is less well understood, but relates to the fact that hepatocytes are the

major site of α 1AT synthesis, and that certain mutations of the α 1AT gene cause derangements in the intracellular processing of α 1AT, culminating in hepatocyte injury (8).

α 1-Antitrypsin gene and protein

The α 1AT protein is a single chain of 394 amino acids with three complex carbohydrate side chains (Fig. 1 A). The microheterogeneity of α 1AT observed in isoelectric focusing (IEF) analysis of serum at pH 4–5 results mostly from differences in these carbohydrates (1, 6, 9).

The two parental α 1AT genes are codominantly expressed. Expression is controlled at the transcriptional level through sequences flanking, and within, the three 5' non-coding exons (Fig. 1 B). Hepatocytes are the major source of α 1AT, but the gene is also expressed in mononuclear phagocytes and neutrophils, and possibly megakaryocytes, islet cells, and intestinal epithelial cells (5, 15, 16). In transgenic mice, the α 1AT gene is also expressed in kidney and brain (see reference 5 for review).

α 1AT levels are increased in trauma, pregnancy, hemorrhage, and neoplasia. It is not known what stimuli actually upregulate the α 1AT gene in vivo. In cell culture, α 1AT mRNA levels are increased by phorbol esters and interleukin 6 (interferon β 2) but is not by interleukin 1 or tumor necrosis factor (15). In vivo administration of typhoid vaccine or estrogens increases α 1AT serum levels in normal humans (7, 9), but administration of lipopolysaccharide has no effect, despite the marked increase in other serum "acute-phase reactants."

Most liver α 1AT mRNA transcripts start in the middle of exon I_C, a region preceded by typical consensus promoter elements (3). In exon I_B there are two regions capable of binding the nuclear protein AP-1, a protein identical to the *c-jun* proto-oncogene product. Exon I_A does not appear to be important to the modulation of α 1AT gene expression, although it is flanked by 5' consensus promoter elements and mRNA transcripts including exon I_A are found in mononuclear phagocytes and hepatocytes (see reference 5 for review).

α 1-Antitrypsin biosynthesis. The biosynthetic pathway of α 1AT is relevant to the aberrant intracellular events associated with the different mutations of α 1AT coding exons causing α 1AT deficiency and to the understanding of the pathogenesis of the liver disease associated with certain α 1AT alleles (see below). α 1AT synthesis is typical for a secretory glycoprotein (17). The α 1AT mRNA codes for a 418-residue precursor protein containing a 24-residue amino-terminal signal peptide that is cleaved as the molecule enters the rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER), leaving the 394-residue mature polypeptide.

The plasma half-life of α 1AT is 4–5 d, a process dictated, at least in part, by the carbohydrate side chains. The bare polypeptide disappears from the circulation in hours, and deletion of even one side chain reduces the half-life significantly (18). Most of the α 1AT in the body comes from hepatocytes. The

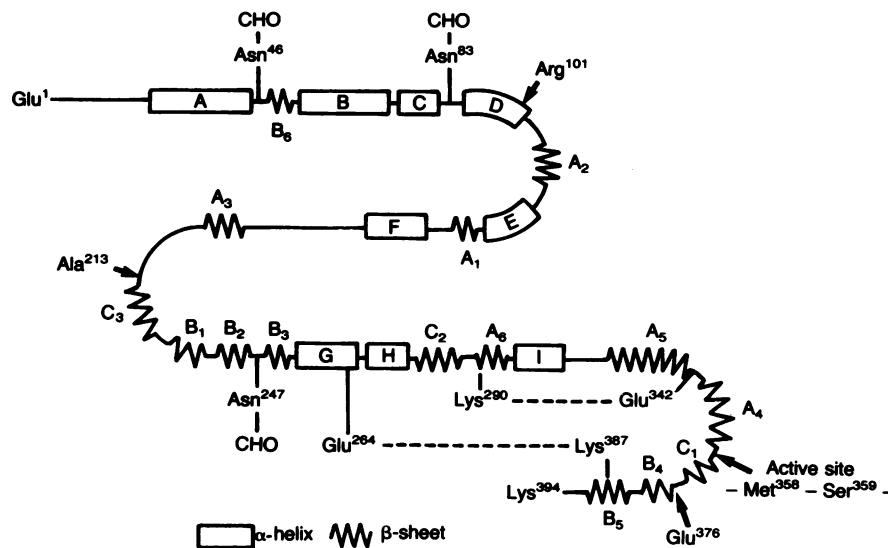
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Received for publication 20 November 1989 and in revised form 22 January 1990.

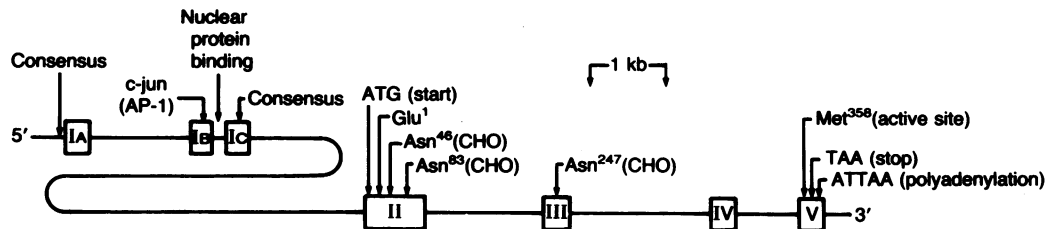
1. Abbreviations used in this paper: α 1AT, α 1-antitrypsin; ELF, epithelial lining fluid; IEF, isoelectric focusing; NE, neutrophil elastase; RER, rough endoplasmic reticulum.

The Journal of Clinical Investigation, Inc.
Volume 85, May 1990, 1343–1352

A. α 1-antitrypsin protein



B. α 1-antitrypsin gene



at these positions define the differences among the four common normal α 1AT alleles [M1(Ala²¹³), M1(Val²¹³), M2 and M3; see Table I, Fig. 2]. (B) The normal α 1AT gene. It spans 12.2 kb and consists of three noncoding exons (I_A, I_B, I_C) and four coding exons (II–V). Exons I_A–I_C are used by a variable degree by α 1AT synthesizing cells, with most α 1AT transcripts starting in the middle of exon I_C. 5' to exon I_A and in the middle of I_C are typical *cis*-acting consensus promoter sequences. In the region between I_B and I_C are sequences capable of binding at least two different hepatocyte nuclear proteins and within exon I_B are two sequences capable of binding the *c-jun* protein (AP-1). The start codon (ATG) is in exon II followed by sequences coding for a 24-residue signal peptide. Sequences for the 394-residue mature protein start in exon II (Glu¹) and end in exon V at the TAA stop signal. Also identified are the locations of sequences coding for the carbohydrate (CHO) attachment sites (Asn 46, 83, 247), the Met³⁵⁸ at the active inhibitor site, and the mRNA polyadenylation signal.

importance of local production of α 1AT within organs (e.g., by alveolar macrophages in the lower respiratory tract) is not known. Neutrophils contain α 1AT mRNA transcripts and actively synthesize and secrete functional α 1AT, but at low levels.

Neutrophil elastase and α 1-antitrypsin. NE, a serine protease (EC 3.4.21.37), is a 29-kD single-chain glycoprotein that normally functions as an extracellular protease (19). It destroys elastin, the rubberlike macromolecule that provides elastic recoil to the lung. NE also attacks all other major connective tissue matrix components, and thus can rapidly degrade the matrix providing the supporting architecture of the alveolar walls. When NE is instilled into the lungs of experimental animals, destruction of the lower respiratory tract follows, similar to human emphysema (see reference 11 for review). It is in this context that the concept developed that the emphysema associated with α 1AT deficiency occurs because of an imbalance of α 1AT (the major anti-NE of the lower respiratory tract) and NE (an enzyme capable of destroying the lower respiratory tract).

A single neutrophil contains ~ 2 pg of NE, but the amount varies among individuals, suggesting genetic variations in expression of the NE gene. Neutrophils disgorge the stored enzyme during phagocytosis, membrane perturbation, or cell lysis. In the normal lung, the burden of neutrophils is low, but chronic (13, 14). After leaving the circulation, neutrophils live for 1–2 d at most. Thus, whether through activation, or by cell lysis, the chronic burden of neutrophils forces the lung to contend with a chronic burden of NE.

α 1AT inhibits NE with great avidity with an association rate constant of 10^7 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ and estimated equilibrium constant of 10^{-14} M (19). Given the choice, NE prefers α 1AT to its natural substrates; it is this tight association that allows α 1AT to protect the lung from the potent destructive capacity of NE. α 1AT diffuses across endothelial and epithelial barriers and is present in lung epithelial lining fluid (ELF) at levels 10–15% of plasma (13, 14). The lung contains other antiproteases capable of inhibiting NE, including α 2-macroglobulin and the secretory leucoprotease inhibitor, but α 1AT contributes > 90% of the functional anti-NE protection of the alveolar walls (4, 13,

Figure 1. Structure of the α 1AT protein and gene. (A) The normal α 1AT protein shown in its linear form, a 394-amino acid single chain with three asparaginyl-linked complex carbohydrate side chains at residues 46, 83, and 247. During its synthesis, the molecule folds into a spheroid shape (see cover of this issue of the *Journal*) determined by nine α -helices (A \rightarrow I) and three β -pleated sheets made up of parallel and antiparallel strands (sheet A, strands 1–6; sheet B, strands 1–6; sheet C, strands 1–3). Two internal salt links (Glu³⁴²–Lys²⁹⁰, Glu²⁶⁴–Lys³⁸⁷) help stabilize the molecule and play an important role in the pathogenesis of common deficiency states. The three carbohydrate side chains are on the surface of one half of the spheroid while the Met³⁵⁸–Ser³⁵⁹ inhibitory site that combines with NE is localized at the opposite end. Shown are the residues at positions 101, 213, and 376 for the M1(Ala²¹³) allele; residues

14). In normals, the amount of α 1AT in the lower respiratory tract is far in excess of the NE burden, thus protecting the lung.

Genetic basis of α 1-antitrypsin deficiency

The α 1AT locus is pleomorphic, with approximately 75 alleles identified. The α 1AT alleles are conveniently categorized as “normal” and “at risk” (Table I). By convention, a normal allele is one that, when inherited in a homozygous fashion, is associated with serum α 1AT levels of 20–53 μ M. The at-risk alleles relevant to a risk for lung and liver disease include “deficient” alleles (an allele that when inherited in a homozy-

gous form is associated with serum levels < 20 μ M) and “null” alleles (no α 1AT in serum attributable to that allele).

THE NORMAL ALLELES

There are four common normal alleles: M1(Ala²¹³), M1(Val²¹³), M2, and M3. Among Caucasians of Northern European descent, M1(Val²¹³) is the most common (allelic frequency 0.44–0.49), with M1(Ala²¹³) (0.20–0.23), M2 (0.14–0.19), and M3 (0.10–0.11) less frequent, respectively (1, 5, 6). These alleles differ by single base mutations and respective amino acids (Figs. 1 and 2). M1(Ala²¹³) is likely the “oldest”

Table I. Sequence Differences among the “Normal” α 1-Antitrypsin Alleles and the “At Risk” α 1-Antitrypsin Alleles Relevant to Emphysema and Liver Disease

Category	Relative frequency*	Allele	Base allele‡	Mutation site (exon)§	Sequence compared to base allele
Normal	Common	M1(Ala ²¹³)			
		M1(Val ²¹³)	M1(Ala ²¹³)	III	Ala ²¹³ GCG → Val GTG
		M3	M1(Val ²¹³)	V	Glu ³⁷⁶ GAA → Asp GAC
		M2	M3	II	Arg ¹⁰¹ CGT → His CAT
	Rare	M4	M1(Val ²¹³)	II	Arg ¹⁰¹ CGT → His CAT
		B ^{al} hambra	Unknown	Unknown	Lys → Asp
		F	M1(Val ²¹³)	III	Arg ²²³ CGT → Cys TGT
		P ^{saint alban} §	M1(Val ²¹³)	V	Asp ³⁴¹ GAC → Asn AAC
				III	Asp ²⁵⁶ GAT → Asp GAC
		V ^{munich}	M1(Val ²¹³)	II	Asp ² GAT → Ala GCT
		X	M1(Val ²¹³)	III	Glu ²⁰⁴ → Lys
		X ^{christchurch}	Unknown	V	Glu ³⁶³ → Lys
		Z	M1(Ala ²¹³)	V	Glu ³⁴² GAG → Lys AAG
		S	M1(Val ²¹³)	III	Glu ²⁶⁴ GAA → Val GTA
At risk	Common				Pro ³⁶⁹ CCC → Leu CTC
		M ^{heerlen}	M1(Ala ²¹³)	V	Phe ⁵² TTC → Delete TTC
	Rare	M ^{malton}	M2	II	Gly ⁶⁷ GGG → Glu GAG
		M ^{mineral springs}	M1(Ala ²¹³)	II	Leu ⁴¹ CTG → Pro CCG
		M ^{procida}	M1(Val ²¹³)	II	Phe ⁵² TTC → delete TTC
		M ^{nichinan} ¶	Unknown	II	Gly ¹⁴⁸ GGG → Arg AGG
		I	M1(Val ²¹³)	II	Arg ³⁹ CGC → Cys TGC
		P ^{lowell}	M1(Val ²¹³)	III	Asp ²⁵⁶ GAT → Val GTT
		W ^{bethesda}	M1(Ala ²¹³)	V	Ala ³³⁶ GCT → Thr ACT
		Null ^{granite falls}	M1(Ala ²¹³)	II	Tyr ¹⁶⁰ TAC → delete C → 5' shift → stop ¹⁶⁰ TAG
		Null ^{bellingham}	M1(Val ²¹³)	III	Lys ²¹⁷ AAG → stop ²¹⁷ TAG
		Null ^{matawa}	M1(Val ²¹³)	V	Leu ³⁵³ TTA → Insert T → Phe ³⁵³ TTT → 3' shift → stop ³⁷⁶ TAG
		Null ^{isola di procida}	Unknown	II–V	Delete 10 kb including exons II–V
		Null ^{hong kong}	M2	IV	Leu ³¹⁸ CTC → delete TC → 5' shift → stop ³³⁴ TAA
		Null ^{bolton}	?	V	Pro ³⁶² CCC → delete C → 5' shift → stop ³⁷³ TAA
		Null ^{devon}	Unknown	II	Gly ¹¹⁵ → Ser
		Null ^{ludwigshafen}	M2	II	Ile ⁹² ATC → Asn AAC

This list includes the 29 α 1AT alleles for which a partial or complete sequence is known at the gene or protein level. Details regarding these alleles can be found in the references in reviews 1, 5, 6, and 9 and in reference 45. For a list of alleles identified by IEF of serum but for which the sequence is not known, see reference 1. * Relative frequency for that category. For the “normal” alleles, “common” represents allelic frequencies > 10%; for the “at-risk” alleles, “common” represents allelic frequencies > 1%. ‡ “Base allele” represents the common, normal allele upon which the mutation developed; M1(Ala²¹³) is believed to be the oldest human α 1AT allele from which all other alleles derived (see reference 5 for review); unknown, only partial sequence known, and thus base allele cannot be determined. § Unknown, data limited, obviating exact location of mutation. || The DNA sequence data for M4 suggests it could have derived from the M1(Val²¹³) or M2 alleles; since M1(Val²¹³) is the more common allele, it is assumed to be the base allele. ¶ For P^{saint alban} and M^{nichinan}, there are two mutations distinguishing the allele from its respective base allele, suggesting there may be intermediate, as yet unidentified, alleles.

Table III. "At Risk" α 1-Antitrypsin Alleles Categorized by the Different Mechanisms Causing the α 1-Antitrypsin Deficiency State and the Corresponding Risk for Emphysema and Liver Disease

Dominant mechanism causing the deficiency state*	Allele	Risk for disease	
		Emphysema [‡]	Liver
Gene deletion	Null _{isola di procida}	Yes	No
mRNA degradation	Null _{bellingham}	Yes	No
	Null _{granite falls}	Yes	No
	Z	Yes	Yes
Intracellular protein accumulation	M _{malton}	Yes	Yes
	Null _{hong kong}	Yes	? [§]
	S	Yes	No
Intracellular protein degradation	P _{lowell}	Yes	No
	W _{bethesda}	Yes	No
	M _{mineral springs}	Yes	No

The alleles listed represent only those in which the dominant biological mechanism by which the mutation causes the deficiency state is known; information regarding Null_{isola di procida} is unpublished (H. Takahashi and R. Crystal) as is W_{bethesda} (M. Holmes, M. Brantly, and R. Crystal); for details regarding other alleles, see references 1, 5, 6, 22, 26, and 27.

* If more than one mechanism is involved for the allele, the dominant mechanism is listed (e.g., the Z allele causes intracellular protein accumulation and poor function of the protein as an inhibitor, but the accumulation mechanism dominates).

[‡] The relative risk for each emphysema varies among the different alleles; see Table II and text.

[§] Although the mechanism causing the deficiency state is known, the clinical information regarding liver disease is not available.

of the dominant mechanism causing the deficiency state with the relative risk for emphysema and/or liver disease. Whereas all are associated with a risk for emphysema to some degree, only mutations causing intracellular accumulation of the newly synthesized α 1AT are associated with a risk for liver disease.

Z mutation. The Z allele is the most common cause of the major clinical manifestations of α 1AT deficiency, with Z homozygotes at risk for both emphysema and liver disease (6). With an allelic frequency of 1–2% in Caucasians of Northern European descent, there are 20,000–40,000 Z homozygotes in the United States (1, 9). The Z mutation is a single-base substitution in exon V of the normal M1(Ala²¹³) allele causing a Glu³⁴² → Lys substitution in the molecule (6, 20). The number of α 1AT mRNA transcripts in the α 1AT synthesizing cells of Z homozygotes is normal, but the cells secrete 10–15% of that of normal cells (16). The deficiency in secretion results from an accumulation of α 1AT molecules in the RER of α 1AT synthesizing cells, a phenomenon observed in liver biopsies of Z homozygotes, frog oocytes injected with Z-type α 1AT mRNA, heterologous cells transfected with a Z-type α 1AT cDNA, and transgenic mice receiving the Z cDNA (16, 21, 22).

The mechanisms responsible for the intracellular accumulation of α 1AT in association with the Z gene are unclear. The Glu³⁴² → Lys mutation causes a loss of a normal internal salt bridge between Glu³⁴² and Lys²⁹⁰ (23) (Fig. 2 B). Site-directed mutagenesis studies suggest that the effects of the Z mutation, a positively charged Lys at 342, can be counteracted by changing the normal Lys²⁹⁰ to the negatively charged Glu (22), consistent with the concept that this salt bridge stabilizes the molecule. Other data suggest that the insertion of a positive charge at residue 342 per se causes the α 1AT to accumulate, independent of the charge of residue at 290 (24). It is hypothesized that the Z form of α 1AT folds into its three-dimensional form at a slow rate, allowing the α 1AT molecules to aggregate through

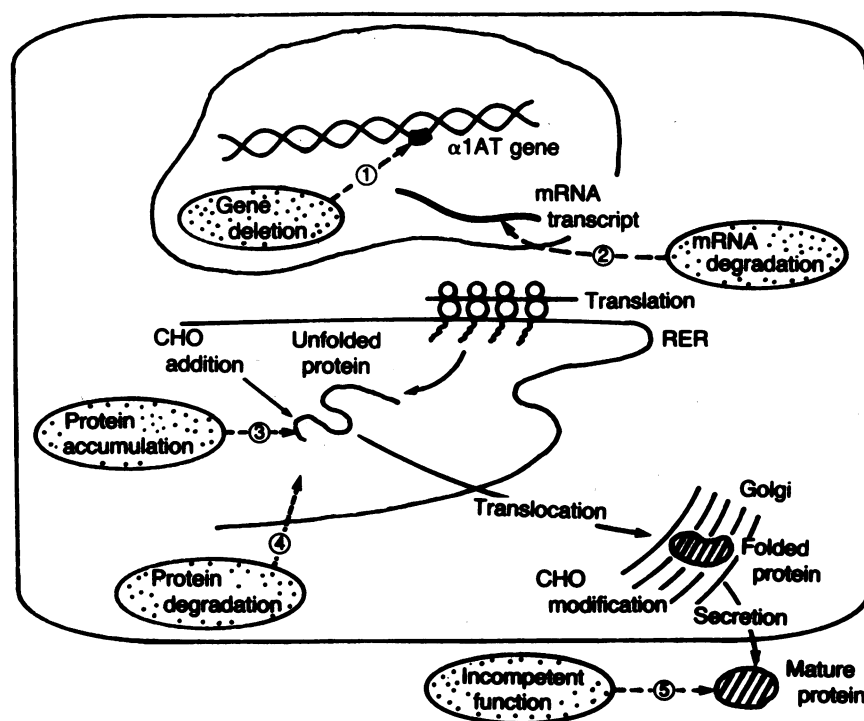


Figure 3. Classifications of the mutations of the α 1AT gene by the mechanisms by which they cause α 1AT deficiency. Shown is a hepatocyte synthesizing and secreting α 1AT through the normal pathways of transcription of the α 1AT gene, translation of the α 1AT mRNA on the rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER), addition of carbohydrate (CHO) side chains in the RER, translocation to the Golgi, modification of the CHO side chains, and secretion. Mutations of the α 1AT gene cause α 1AT deficiency by one or more mechanisms, including: (1) deletion of the α 1AT gene; (2) degradation of unstable α 1AT mRNA; (3) intracellular accumulation of the newly synthesized α 1AT protein; (4) intracellular degradation of the newly synthesized α 1AT protein; and (5) incompetent function of the mature secreted protein as an inhibitor of neutrophil elastase.

interactions of normally hidden internal hydrophobic residues, preventing α 1AT translocation to the Golgi. Alternatively, the Z mutation might cause a loss of translocation signal within the primary or tertiary structure of the molecule, i.e., the accumulation of the α 1AT could result from a lack of recognition of the α 1AT to be vectored to the Golgi.

There is also evidence that the Z molecule does not function normally as an inhibitor of NE; at the concentrations found in the lung, inhibition of NE by the Z form of α 1AT takes 12-fold longer to inhibit an equivalent amount of NE than does normal α 1AT (25). Thus, the actual "deficiency" is a combined defect of reduced amounts of a partially incompetent molecule, leaving the lung of the Z homozygote almost defenseless against NE.

S mutation. The S allele is more common than Z, with an allelic frequency of 2–4% in Caucasians of Northern European descent (1, 5, 9). Because the deficiency is relatively mild, and since the S molecule functions reasonably well as an inhibitor of NE, the S homozygote is not at increased risk. However, inheritance of the S allele with an allele causing a profound deficiency of α 1AT (e.g., Z) puts the affected individual at mild risk. The S mutation (Glu²⁶⁴ → Val) affects a salt bridge (Glu²⁶⁴–Lys³⁸⁷), i.e., like the Z mutation, the S mutation modifies the internal architecture of α 1AT, a concept supported by mutagenesis studies (Fig. 1 A). However, the consequences of the S mutation are very different from the Z mutation. In α 1AT synthesizing cells of S homozygotes, α 1AT mRNA is transcribed in normal form and amount, but some of the newly synthesized S molecule is degraded, probably shunted from the RER into lysosomes (26).

Other "at-risk" mutations (Tables I and III). Like the Z mutation, M_{malton} and Null_{hong kong} are associated with accumulation of α 1AT in the α 1AT synthesizing cell. Like the S mutation, P_{lowell} and W_{bethesda} cause intracellular degradation of the newly synthesized α 1AT. Null_{isola di procida} results from deletion of a 17-kb fragment that includes exons II–V of the α 1AT gene. Most of the other known "null" α 1AT at-risk alleles result from the formation of stop codons in coding exons of the α 1AT gene. For Null_{granite falls} and Null_{bellingham}, evaluation of α 1AT-synthesizing cells shows an absence of α 1AT mRNA transcripts. One α 1AT allele, (M_{mineral springs} [Gly⁶⁷ → Glu]) causes a profound deficiency state primarily because the α 1AT protein functions poorly as an inhibitor of NE (27).

LABORATORY DIAGNOSIS OF α 1-ANTITRYPSIN DEFICIENCY

Detection of the deficiency state is a simple measurement of the serum α 1AT level, usually by radial immunodiffusion or nephelometry. Identification of the α 1AT phenotype or genotype provides important information relevant to the relative risk for emphysema and/or liver disease, and thus plays a critical role in the laboratory diagnosis of α 1AT deficiency. Phenotyping is conventionally done by IEF of serum (6, 9). α 1AT genotyping can be accomplished by a variety of methods, but most laboratories either use the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to amplify individual segments of the coding exons which are then evaluated with labeled specific oligonucleotide probes or by gradient gel analysis, or with the technique of "allele-specific amplification", where only specific alleles are amplified depending on the specificity of the primer (28).

α 1-Antitrypsin deficiency and emphysema

Emphysema is the most common manifestation of α 1AT deficiency, and was the clinical disorder recognized by Laurell

and Eriksson (29) when they discovered the deficiency state. Longitudinal studies of adults with α 1AT deficiency suggest they have a shortened life span of 10–15 years compared to the normal population. In the United States, individuals with α 1AT deficiency known to have emphysema who are at least 18 yr old, have a 52% chance of being alive at age 50 (compared with 93% for the general population) and a 16% chance of being alive at age 60 (compared with 85%). A Scandinavian study showed similar mortality statistics with the important addition that, if the individual with α 1AT deficiency had a history of cigarette smoking, life expectancy was reduced at least by 10 yr, i.e., an acquired factor (smoking) markedly modulates the response to the deficiency state (see reference 30 for review).

The fact that the α 1AT molecule has a Met³⁵⁸ residue at its active site provides a direct explanation for why cigarette smoking accelerates the development of emphysema. With smoking, the anti-NE defenses of the lung are further compromised because the Met³⁵⁸ is vulnerable to free radicals, in cigarette smoke, and released by inflammatory cells recruited to the lung in response to smoking. When the Met³⁵⁸ is oxidized, the association rate constant defining the inhibition of NE by α 1AT decreases more than 1,000-fold (19); i.e., cigarette smoking renders an already poorly defended lung completely defenseless.

One unanswered question relating to the pathogenesis of the emphysema is the variability of the extent of the disease even when affected individuals are matched by age, α 1AT serum levels, α 1AT phenotype, and smoking history. One possibility is genetic variations in the expression of the NE gene. Consistent with this concept, Z homozygotes between ages 30 and 45 yr matched for α 1AT serum levels and smoking history demonstrated higher levels of NE in neutrophils in those with severe disease compared with those with minimal or no emphysema (31).

α 1-Antitrypsin deficiency and liver disease

Liver disease in association with α 1AT deficiency was first recognized by Sharp et al. (32). It occurs in two distinct age groups. Approximately 10% of neonates with α 1AT deficiency develop cholestasis with hepatitis, occasionally progressing to cirrhosis (32). In the age group > 40 yr, hepatitis and cirrhosis can develop, but in a small proportion of α 1AT-deficient individuals (8). This can proceed to liver failure. Significant lung and liver disease rarely coexists in the same individual.

The association of α 1AT deficiency and liver disease is incontestable, but why α 1AT deficiency is associated with liver disease is controversial. Two facts dominate the current thinking in the field. First, no liver disease has been observed in individuals with the Null-Null phenotype. Since such individuals have no serum α 1AT, it is not likely the deficiency of α 1AT per se that causes the liver disease; i.e., the liver disease is not secondary to a NE- α 1AT imbalance as is the pathogenesis of the emphysema. Secondly, although a variety of mutations of the α 1AT gene cause α 1AT deficiency, only two mutations, Z and M_{malton}, have been clearly associated with an increased risk for liver disease (Table III); i.e., there is something about these mutations directly relevant to the pathogenesis of the liver disease.

One clue comes from the morphologic features of the liver disease. In addition to inflammation, and later cirrhosis, all cases of liver disease associated with α 1AT deficiency are also characterized by an accumulation of α 1AT in hepatocytes (8,

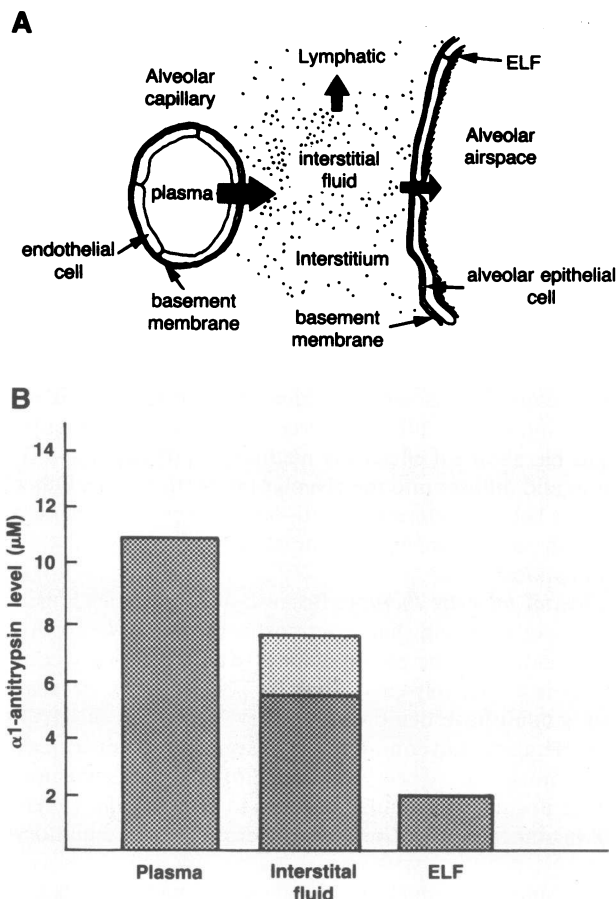


Figure 4. Equivalent α 1AT levels necessary for “biochemical efficacy” of therapy to augment the anti-NE screen of the lower respiratory tract in α 1AT deficiency. (A) α 1AT protection of the alveolar walls in normal individuals. α 1AT in plasma normally diffuses across the alveolar capillary endothelial barrier into the interstitium. The process is dynamic, with most α 1AT in the interstitial fluid leaving via the lymphatics, and with some moving across the epithelial barrier into the alveolar epithelial lining fluid (ELF). (B) Minimal levels of α 1AT required to protect the alveolar walls from its usual burden of NE. In normal individuals, plasma α 1AT levels are 20–53 μ M, interstitial fluid levels are 10–40 μ M, and ELF levels are 2–5 μ M. Studies correlating α 1AT phenotypes, α 1AT levels and risk for emphysema suggest a “threshold” of plasma levels of 11 μ M that is necessary to provide sufficient α 1AT to protect the alveolar walls. This translates to minimal interstitial fluid levels of 5–7 μ M and minimal ELF levels of 1.7 μ M. For any form of anti-NE augmentation therapy, the levels of protection in the interstitial fluid and ELF must be equivalent of these minimal amounts of α 1AT. With intravenous weekly or monthly α 1AT augmentation therapy, such levels can be readily achieved.

33). Consistent with this, transfer of the Z gene to transgenic mice causes an accumulation of α 1AT in hepatocytes and hepatitis (21). In contrast, homozygous inheritance of the S gene is associated with no hepatocyte α 1AT accumulation and no liver disease. Likewise, for all the rare alleles in which the dominant mechanism causing the deficiency state is other than intracellular α 1AT accumulation, no liver disease has been observed.

From these observations, it is reasonable to conclude that if the mutation causes intracellular accumulation of α 1AT, the individual is at risk for liver disease. However, while compel-

ling, this concept is based on relatively few cases other than those in association with the Z mutation. Furthermore, even if true, it is not clear how the accumulation of α 1AT causes injury to hepatocytes, and inflammation in the local milieu. One interesting possibility relates to the observation that cells with the Z mutation also exhibit increased levels of heat-shock proteins (34). Although this may be unrelated to the liver disease, it is of interest that a member of the HSP 70 heat-shock gene product family facilitates intracellular protein translocation, perhaps related to protein unfolding (17). In the context that the newly synthesized Z and M_{malton} proteins accumulate in the RER, it is conceivable that abnormalities in translocation processes and hepatocyte injury are intimately linked.

It is not understood why only a minority of Z homozygotes ever develop liver disease or why only a portion of those infants affected go on to develop cirrhosis (see references 1 and 7–9 for review). It has been suggested that another gene may be involved, but the evidence for this is not convincing.

Therapy for the emphysema associated with α 1-antitrypsin deficiency

With the overwhelming evidence that the emphysema associated with α 1AT deficiency results from an insufficient anti-NE protective screen for the alveolar walls, strategies to prevent the progressive lung destruction have focused on reestablishing the NE/anti-NE balance in the lower respiratory tract in favor of the anti-NE defenses. The central question is: how much anti-NE defense is required to take the individual out of the at-risk group? Normally, > 90% of the anti-NE protection to the alveolar wall comes from plasma α 1AT that diffuses across the alveolar wall (Fig. 4). With the knowledge that serum levels of 11 μ M are sufficient to protect the lung, the target levels of equivalent anti-NE protection for the alveolar interstitium can be determined from the knowledge of α 1AT levels in the lung in normal and α 1AT deficiency states. For the epithelial surface of the lung, the minimum protective level is 1.7 μ M. For the interstitium the threshold α 1AT levels are estimated to be 5–7 μ M. Thus, for an anti-NE therapy to be effective, it must provide the equivalent protection.

Augmentation therapy with intravenous α 1-antitrypsin purified from plasma. We initially approached the problem of preventing the emphysema associated with α 1AT deficiency with the same strategy used to treat hemophilia: i.e., since the affected individual is α 1AT “deficient,” the clinical manifestations of the disease should be preventable by augmenting α 1AT levels in the lung by administering intermittent intravenous infusions of α 1AT. In 1979, Gadek et al. (35) demonstrated this was feasible with weekly administrations of purified α 1AT. When sufficient amounts of purified α 1AT became available to mount larger-scale clinical trials, Wewers et al. (14) showed that once weekly infusions with 60 mg/kg α 1AT resulted in the chronic maintenance of α 1AT serum levels above levels sufficient to bring the individual out of the at-risk group for emphysema, the infused α 1AT diffused into the lower respiratory tract, and the α 1AT reaching the lung was functional, chronically providing a sufficient anti-NE screen to protect the lower respiratory tract from its burden of NE. On the basis of this demonstration of the “biochemical efficacy” of augmentation therapy, administration of weekly intravenous α 1AT was approved for general use, and more than 1,000 α 1AT-deficient individuals are receiving this therapy worldwide. In an attempt to reduce the frequency of infusions, Hubbard et al. (36) hypothesized that fourfold more α 1AT

(250 mg/kg) could be given once monthly. This approach works, with similar biochemical efficacy in the lung. However, 250 mg/kg apparently is the limit that the body will accept, since administration of larger amounts by plasma exchange failed to extend beyond 1 mo the time at which plasma levels remained above the threshold level of 11 μ M (unpublished observations).

Importantly, augmentation therapy is safe, with minor adverse reactions and no evidence of anti- α 1AT antibodies or immune complexes, and no evidence of HIV seroconversion or development of hepatitis B (4, 14). Despite the fact that the plasma exchange approach to therapy is not effective, it does demonstrate that administration of up to 40 g of α 1AT can be administered without adverse effects, an observation important to the development of strategies for gene therapy (see below).

Aerosol augmentation therapy. Since some α 1AT normally diffuses from plasma through the alveolar wall, it is reasonable to assume that the process could work in reverse: i.e., that plasma α 1AT might be administered by aerosol as a means of augmenting anti-NE lung defenses in α 1AT deficiency (37). While simple in concept, there are a number of hurdles that must be overcome for such an approach to be effective, including: (a) the α 1AT must be able to tolerate being aerosolized; (b) the droplets containing α 1AT must be 0.2–3 μ m in diameter, a size optimal to delivery to the lower respiratory tract; (c) the anti-NE defenses on the alveolar epithelial surface must be augmented above the threshold level; (d) the interstitial threshold levels must be surpassed; and (e) the therapy must be safe. Hubbard et al. (37) have shown such an approach is feasible in humans, demonstrating that aerosolized plasma α 1AT can be recovered from the alveolar surface in an intact, functional form that reestablishes the anti-NE protective screen of the epithelium in a safe fashion. The intact molecule can be detected in blood of treated individuals, and studies in experimental animals have shown the α 1AT is present in lung lymph, indicating that it is present in alveolar interstitial fluid (37, 38). The interstitial levels, however, appear to be lower than that required for effective reestablishment of the anti-NE protective screen, and if aerosol therapy is to become a reality, this obstacle will have to be overcome.

The development of the aerosol route has opened up the possibility that recombinant DNA produced forms of α 1AT may be used for α 1AT augmentation therapy. Human α 1AT has been produced in *E. coli* and yeast directed by the normal M1(Val²¹³) cDNA (39, 40). Despite the fact that the recombinant molecules are not glycosylated, they function normally as inhibitors of NE. However, the lack of carbohydrate side chains on the molecule causes the plasma half-life to be severalfold reduced, obviating the intravenous route to treat α 1AT deficiency on a chronic basis. However, aerosolization of recombinant α 1AT to experimental animals and to humans (see reference 40 for review) has demonstrated that it augments epithelial anti-NE defenses, and the molecule diffuses across the alveolar epithelium in an intact fashion. However, as with aerosolization of plasma α 1AT, there is as yet no proof that the interstitial threshold levels can be achieved by this route.

If aerosol therapy can be effectively developed, the recombinant molecule offers the advantage that it can be modified to form a "better" α 1AT. Using site-directed mutagenesis, the α 1AT inhibitory site centered at Met³⁵⁸ has been modified, to

prevent it from being rendered impotent by oxidants, such as those from inflammatory cells (10, 39). The best substitution is Leu³⁵⁸; such recombinant α 1AT molecules are oxidant resistant, have excellent anti-NE capacity, and also inhibit cathepsin G, another neutrophil protease capable of modulating connective tissue injury. Such a molecule may be useful for conditions in which there is a NE burden together with an oxidant burden in the lung, e.g., adult respiratory distress syndrome, cigarette smoking-induced lung disease, and cystic fibrosis.

In addition to recombinant α 1AT, a recombinant form of the upper airway secretory leucoprotease inhibitor (rSLPI) has been developed. This inhibitor can be aerosolized, it is an excellent inhibitor of NE, and aerosolization to experimental animals has shown it effectively augments epithelial anti-NE defenses and diffuses into the alveolar interstitium (41). Other molecules being developed for anti-NE augmentation therapy include pharmacologic NE inhibitors, including β -lactams and small peptides.

Potential for gene therapy. Because α 1AT deficiency is a deficiency of a protein that functions in the extracellular milieu, prevention of the emphysema of α 1AT deficiency conceptually is a relatively easy target for gene therapy. Because human studies have demonstrated very high levels of α 1AT can be tolerated, tight control of gene expression is not critical. Several strategies have been considered to safely place the normal gene in sufficient numbers of cells to produce and secrete α 1AT in sufficient quantities to protect the lower respiratory tract.

First, since mononuclear phagocytes normally express the α 1AT gene (15, 16), and since alveolar macrophages (the pulmonary representative of the mononuclear phagocyte system) are derived from circulating blood monocytes and hence bone marrow, it should be possible to provide augmentation of local α 1AT production by inserting the normal α 1AT cDNA into bone marrow precursor cells, with consequent eventual repopulation of alveolar macrophages producing α 1AT in the lower respiratory tract.

Secondly, by inserting the α 1AT cDNA with appropriate controlling elements into cells that do not normally produce α 1AT, and transplanting these cells in the recipient, a mass of α 1AT-producing cells could be established in affected individuals sufficient to adequately augment α 1AT levels. This approach has been evaluated using a retroviral vector containing the human α 1AT cDNA driven by a constitutive promoter (42). After packaging into an infectious virus, the provirus was permanently integrated into murine fibroblasts, directing the cells to produce and secrete human α 1AT that was glycosylated, reacted with human NE in a normal fashion, and had a normal half-life in plasma. When these cells were transplanted into the peritoneal cavity of nude mice, evaluation 1 mo later demonstrated human α 1AT in plasma and, most importantly, in lung epithelial lining fluid. With a similar construct, human cells that do not normally express the α 1AT gene can be easily converted into α 1AT-producing cells. The cell target being considered for human studies is the T lymphocyte. The T cell not only will produce α 1AT when appropriately modified by gene transfer (43), but it has the advantage that it can be grown rapidly in vivo with interleukin 2, and the presence of the T cell antigen receptor may permit in vivo expansion for the numbers of α 1AT-secreting cells, as well as possible localization of the α 1AT producing cells to specific sites.

Finally, the epithelial cells lining the lower respiratory tract are an inviting target for gene therapy for α 1AT deficiency. In vitro studies have shown that lung epithelial cells can be modified by gene transfer to produce and secrete α 1AT (44).

Therapy for the liver disease associated with α 1-antitrypsin deficiency

Other than transplantation, there is no available therapy for the liver disease associated with α 1AT deficiency. If the liver disease is secondary to the accumulation of α 1AT in the RER, then it may be possible to reduce α 1AT synthesis and/or increase the rate of its translocation from the RER. Consistent with the concept that the liver disease does not develop because of the lack of anti-NE protection, our experience with intravenous augmentation therapy with plasma α 1AT suggests that the mild liver function abnormalities in some adults with emphysema are unaffected by therapy.

The strategies for gene therapy of the liver disease are simple in concept but difficult to achieve in vivo. Since Z homozygotes are at risk for developing clinically significant liver disease, but MZ heterozygotes are not (8), the strategy would be to insert the normal cDNA into hepatocytes, converting them into the equivalent of MZ heterozygote cells. The normal gene can be put into hepatocytes in culture and can be made to express in the liver (using an α 1AT promoter) in transgenic mice. How this will be achieved in vivo in man, however, is not clear, although a variety of targeting vehicles are being considered.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank M. Holmes, M. Brantly, B. Trapnell, and R. Hubbard for their help in preparing this review.

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