Prader-Willi Syndrome (PWS)

First description

Prader-Willi syndrome (PWS) was first described in 1956 by Prader, Labhart and Willi.

Genetics and molecular biology

PWS results from the absence of expression of the paternal allele of paternally expressed/maternally imprinted genes at the chromosomal locus 15q11-q13 (the PWS critical region). The commonest genetic mechanisms leading to PWS are: a) a *de novo* deletion at the PWS critical region on the chromosome of paternal origin (~ 70% of cases) and b) maternal uniparental disomy (mUPD) of chromosome 15 where both chromosomes are derived from the mother (~ 25% of cases). Other rarer causes of PWS include imprinting centre defects and unbalanced translocations. A number of paternally expressed/maternally imprinted genes have been identified within the PWSCR of which the largest is *SNRPN* (containing the imprinting centre) which codes for a small nuclear ribosomal protein involved in the control of synthesis of proteins related to hypothalamic function. Other paternally expressed/maternally imprinted genes in this region include *Necdin*, *MAGEL2*, *MKRN3*, *IPW*, *PAR-1* and snoRNAs including *HBII-85* and *HBII-438*. As yet, no single gene mutation has been identified as a cause of PWS, other than a mutation of the imprinting centre which itself influences the expression of several genes.

Incidence/prevalence

The estimated birth incidence is 1 in 29,000 and the prevalence is 1 in 52,000 (Whittington *et al*. 2001).

Natural history

The early phenotype is characterised by severe hypotonia after birth, which affects the infant's ability to suck, resulting in feeding problems and consequent failure to thrive which may necessitate gavage feeding. Hypothalamic dysfunction leading to growth hormone and steroidal sex hormone deficiency may account for several features of PWS (Goldstone 2004), including the control of birth processes, short stature, hypogonadism, aberrant body temperature control and daytime hypersomnolence. Characteristic facial features include dolichocephaly, narrow bifrontal diameter, almond shaped palpebral fissures, small down turned mouth and thin upper lip (Holm *et al*. 1993).

The onset of the striking characteristic of hyperphagia separates the early and late phenotype. Between the ages of 1 and 6 years, the child develops a propensity for eating which, if left unaddressed, can result in obesity and medical problems. The hyperphagia is considered to be hypothalamic in origin, and caused by failure of the normal satiety response following food intake (Holland *et al.* 1993; Hinton *et al.* 2005). Infertility remains almost universally present althoug there are rare reports of children being born to females with PWS.

Behavioural and psychiatric characteristics

The main behavioural techniques used to address hyperphagia include preventing access to food e.g. by locking cupboards, low calorie diets, all members of the household having the same diet and ongoing education about the risks of overeating. Appetite suppressants and gastric banding have not been shown to be useful. Octreotide has been shown to decrease concentrations of ghrelin in adolescents with PWS, but does not reduce appetite or BMI (De Waele *et al*. 2008).

Aside from the over-eating, the most common problem behaviours are temper tantrums, usually arising out of frustration or change to a familiar routine, and which can result in extreme aggression; mood swings which do not fulfil criteria for a defined psychiatric disorder; and self-mutilation in the form of skin-picking. Recent evidence suggests that modulation of the glutaminergic pathway may reduce the compulsive behaviours; oral N-acetylcysteine was found to reduce skin picking, although participants with PWS were not compared with a control group (Miller & Angulo 2013).

Relative to others with intellectual disability, people with PWS are more likely to exhibit severe problem behaviours (Dykens *et al*. 1997). Obsessional traits occur commonly, in particular needing to ask or tell, requiring routines, hoarding and repetitive questioning (Clarke *et al*. 2002). It has been found that people with PWS who are exposed to routines for longer before a change are more likely to engage in temper outburst behaviours (Bull *et al.* 2014).

The mUPD genetic subtype of PWS is strongly associated with the development of affective psychosis (Boer et al 2002). In a UK-wide sample of 119 adults with PWS, 62% of those with mUPD had a diagnosis of psychotic illness compared with 17% of those with a deletion (Soni *et al*. 2008). Atypical symptoms such as hypersomnia and confusion were seen, and those with mUPD had a more severe, difficult-to-treat illness with a poorer outcome compared to those with a deletion (Soni *et al*. 2007). However, once stability has been achieved in psychotic illness, recurrence rates are low (Larson *et al*. 2013). Dementias are now being documented as individuals survive into old age (Sinnema *et al*. 2010). Autism has been reported (Veltman *et al*. 2004); candidate genes for autism have been located within the 15q11-q13 region and there is evidence that those with mUPD may be more severely affected than those with a deletion (Ogata *et al*. 2014)

Neuropsychological characteristics

The full scale IQ is usually in the mild intellectual disability range, and a mean downward shift of approximately 40 points compared to the general population is seen (Whittington *et al*. 2004). Those with mUPD tend to have better verbal skills and those with a deletion have better visuo-spatial skills. Also seen are poor short-term memory, deficits in sequential processing, poor socialisation skills, deficits in comprehension, abstract reasoning, recognising emotions and appreciating the concept of time.

Neuroimaging findings

A study by Lukoshe et al. (2013) looked at high resolution structural magnetic resonance imaging in children with confirmed PWS. All children with PWS showed signs of impaired brain growth. Those with mUPD showed signs of early brain atrophy. In contrast, children with a deletion showed signs of fundamentally arrested, although not deviant, brain development and presented few signs of cortical atrophy. The authors suggest that there are divergent neurodevelopmental patterns in children with a deletion versus those with mUPD.

Physical health and endocrine

The most prevalent physical health problems in people with PWS are scoliosis, respiratory problems, dermatological lesions, hyperlipidaemia, hypothyroidism, Type 2 diabetes mellitus and lymphoedema (Laurier *et al.* 2014).

Growth hormone supplementation can increase height and the rate of growth, decrease mean body fat, improve respiratory muscle function and physical strength and improve facial dysmorphism. However, after cessation of growth hormone therapy, BMI can increase again, and long term therapy may be indicated (Oto *et al.* 2014). Furthermore, cessation of growth hormone therapy may lead to successive deterioration in behaviours in children with PWS (Bohm *et al.* 2014).

A study by Cohen *et al*. (2014) showed that central sleep apnea with associated oxygen desaturations is more prevalent in infants compared with older children with PWS. The authors found that supplemental oxygen was efficacious in treating central sleep apnea in infants and advised routine sleep surveillance for all children with PWS with consideration given to oxygen therapy.

Osteoporosis, osteopenia and fractures are relatively common in people with PWS. Growth hormone treatment can improve bone size and strength but not bone mineral density in people with PWS (Longhi *et al.* 2015).

Useful websites/associations for more information

- PWS Association UK: **http://pwsa.co.uk/main.php**
- PWS Association USA: **http://www.pwsausa.org/**
- Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM): **http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/dispomim.cgi?id=176270**

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The SSBP hopes that readers will find the syndrome information sheets useful. They represent the views of the authors who kindly prepared them, and not necessarily those of the SSBP.