

# Recommendations for diagnosing and managing individuals with glutaric aciduria type 1: Third revision

Nikolas Boy<sup>1</sup>  | Chris Mühlhausen<sup>2</sup> | Esther M. Maier<sup>3</sup> |  
 Diana Ballhausen<sup>4</sup> | Matthias R. Baumgartner<sup>5</sup> | Skadi Beblo<sup>6</sup> |  
 Peter Burgard<sup>1</sup> | Kimberly A. Chapman<sup>7</sup> | Dries Dobbelaere<sup>8</sup> |  
 Jana Heringer-Seifert<sup>1</sup> | Sandra Fleissner<sup>3</sup> | Karina Grohmann-Held<sup>9</sup> |  
 Gabriele Hahn<sup>10</sup> | Inga Harting<sup>11</sup> | Georg F. Hoffmann<sup>1</sup> | Frank Jochum<sup>12</sup> |  
 Daniela Karall<sup>13</sup> | Vassiliki Konstantopoulous<sup>14</sup> | Michael B. Krawinkel<sup>15</sup> |  
 Martin Lindner<sup>16</sup> | E. M. Charlotte Märtnner<sup>1</sup> | Jean-Marc Nuoffer<sup>17</sup> |  
 Jürgen G. Okun<sup>1</sup> | Barbara Plecko<sup>18</sup> | Roland Posset<sup>1</sup> | Katja Sahn<sup>1</sup> |  
 Sabine Scholl-Bürgi<sup>12</sup> | Eva Thimm<sup>19</sup> | Magdalena Walter<sup>1</sup> |  
 Monique Williams<sup>20</sup> | Stephan vom Dahl<sup>21</sup> | Athanasia Ziajaki<sup>22</sup> |  
 Johannes Zschocke<sup>23</sup> | Stefan Kölker<sup>1</sup>

## Correspondence

Nikolas Boy, Division of Neuropaediatrics and Metabolic Medicine, Department of General Paediatrics, Centre for Child and Adolescent Medicine, University Hospital Heidelberg, Im Neuenheimer Feld 430, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany.  
 Email: [nikolas.boy@med.uni-heidelberg.de](mailto:nikolas.boy@med.uni-heidelberg.de)

## Funding information

Deutsche Gesellschaft für Kinder- und Jugendmedizin (DGKJ);  
 Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Pädiatrische Stoffwechselstörungen (APS);  
 Arbeitsgemeinschaft Wissenschaftlich-Medizinische Fachgesellschaften (AWMF)

**Communicating Editor:** Martina Huemer

## Abstract

Glutaric aciduria type 1 is a rare inherited neurometabolic disorder of lysine metabolism caused by pathogenic gene variations in *GCDH* (cytogenic location: 19p13.13), resulting in deficiency of mitochondrial glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase (GCDH) and, consequently, accumulation of glutaric acid, 3-hydroxyglutaric acid, glutaconic acid and glutarylcarnitine detectable by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (organic acids) and tandem mass spectrometry (acylcarnitines). Depending on residual GCDH activity, biochemical high and low excreting phenotypes have been defined. Most untreated individuals present with acute onset of striatal damage before age 3 (to 6) years, precipitated by infectious diseases, fever or surgery, resulting in irreversible, mostly dystonic movement disorder with limited life expectancy. In some patients, striatal damage develops insidiously. In recent years, the clinical phenotype has been extended by the finding of extrastriatal abnormalities and cognitive dysfunction, preferably in the high excreter group, as well as chronic kidney failure. Newborn screening is the prerequisite for pre-symptomatic start of metabolic treatment with low lysine diet, carnitine supplementation and

For affiliation refer to page 29

This is an open access article under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/) License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

© 2022 The Authors. *Journal of Inherited Metabolic Disease* published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of SSIEM.

intensified emergency treatment during catabolic episodes, which, in combination, have substantially improved neurologic outcome. In contrast, start of treatment after onset of symptoms cannot reverse existing motor dysfunction caused by striatal damage. Dietary treatment can be relaxed after the vulnerable period for striatal damage, that is, age 6 years. However, impact of dietary relaxation on long-term outcomes is still unclear. This third revision of evidence-based recommendations aims to re-evaluate previous recommendations (Boy et al., *J Inherit Metab Dis*, 2017;40(1):75–101; Kolker et al., *J Inherit Metab Dis* 2011;34(3):677–694; Kolker et al., *J Inherit Metab Dis*, 2007;30(1):5–22) and to implement new research findings on the evolving phenotypic diversity as well as the impact of non-interventional variables and treatment quality on clinical outcomes.

#### KEYWORDS

glutaric aciduria type 1, glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase, guideline, management, monitoring, newborn screening, therapy

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Glutaric aciduria type 1 (GA1, OMIM #231670) is an autosomal recessive neurometabolic disorder of lysine, hydroxylysine and tryptophan metabolism caused by inherited deficiency of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase (GCDH, EC 1.3.8.6) with an estimated worldwide incidence of 1:90 000–1:120 000 newborns<sup>1–4</sup> and over 600 affected individuals reported in the literature<sup>5</sup> since the first description in 1975.<sup>6</sup>

At least five populations with a higher carrier frequency (up to 1:10) and incidence (up to 1:250) are known, that is, the Amish Community in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, United States,<sup>7</sup> the Oji-Cree First Nations in Manitoba and Western Ontario, Canada,<sup>8</sup> the Irish Travellers in the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom,<sup>9</sup> the Lumbee in North Carolina, United States<sup>10</sup> and the Xhosa and other subgroups of the South African population.<sup>11</sup>

GA1 is caused by bi-allelic pathogenic variants in the *GCDH* gene on chromosome 19p13.13 which encodes a flavin adenine dinucleotide-dependent mitochondrial matrix protein catalysing the oxidative decarboxylation of glutaryl-CoA to crotonyl-CoA in the degradative pathway of lysine, hydroxylysine and tryptophan.<sup>12,13</sup> So far, 290 (confirmed or likely) pathogenic variants have been published and listed in the Human Gene Mutation Database (data drawn on 1st December 2021).<sup>14,15</sup>

GCDH deficiency results in accumulation of glutaric acid (GA), 3-hydroxyglutaric acid (3-OH-GA), glutaconic acid and glutarylcarnitine (C5DC) which can be detected in body fluids (urine, plasma, cerebrospinal fluid [CSF]) and tissues using gas chromatography/mass spectrometry

(GC/MS) or electrospray-ionisation tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS<sup>16,17</sup>), respectively.

Depending on the urinary GA concentration two biochemical subgroups have been arbitrarily defined, that is, *low* (LE) and *high* (HE) excretors.<sup>16</sup> Residual GCDH activity of 3%–30% is found in LE patients, while HE patients show a residual activity of 0%–2%.<sup>1,14,18</sup> The genotype correlates with the biochemical phenotype, but not with the clinical course in terms of risk for striatal injury and frequency of dystonic movement disorder (MD).<sup>5,19,20</sup> However, HE patients (compared to LE) show increased frequency of extrastriatal abnormalities and higher intracerebral concentrations of GA and 3-OH-GA detected by <sup>1</sup>H-MRS,<sup>21,22</sup> larger head circumference,<sup>23</sup> increased risk for subdural haemorrhage (SDH)<sup>24</sup> and poorer cognitive outcome.<sup>25</sup>

Most infants are asymptomatic or may develop unspecific neurologic symptoms like muscular hypotonia and delayed motor development, making a clinical identification of affected individuals difficult. Macrocephaly, being present at or shortly after birth, is a frequent (75%) but nonspecific finding with a low positive predictive value considering a 3% frequency of macrocephalic individuals in the general population, when referring to the 97th percentile of head circumference of the general population as the definition of macrocephaly.<sup>26,27</sup> Without treatment, 80%–90% of infants will develop irreversible striatal damage during a vulnerable period of brain development (mostly between age 3–36 months, with individual reports until age 72 months) following an acute encephalopathic crisis precipitated by intercurrent febrile illness, or surgical intervention.<sup>5,20,28–30</sup> These crises cause acute striatal damage, particularly affecting the putamen and

spreading from the dorsolateral to the ventromedial aspects, and, subsequently, a complex MD with predominant dystonia. Severe MD may progress to status dystonicus and often results in limited life expectancy due to secondary complications.<sup>1,20,31</sup> Although striatal damage is usually bilateral, unilateral striatal necrosis with concomitant hemidystonia has also been reported.<sup>32</sup>

Besides *acute-onset*, also individuals with *insidious-onset* type of striatal injury without an apparent crisis have been observed in up to 50% of symptomatic patients in newborn screening (NBS) cohorts, mostly associated with deviations from dietary treatment recommendations.<sup>1,5,18,20,28,30,33–36</sup> In contrast to *acute-onset* MD, striatal injury in *insidious-onset* is often restricted to the dorsolateral putamen, dystonia is less severe, manifests later in infancy, and may manifest clinically after a latency period of several years after onset of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) lesions. Additionally, also *acute-on-insidious* onset with a characteristic MRI pattern has been described for *insidious-onset* patients with an superimposed *acute-onset*.<sup>37</sup>

Some individuals have been diagnosed with first symptoms in adolescence or adulthood (*late-onset*) with unspecific neurologic symptoms, such as headaches, vertigo, transient ataxic gait, reduced fine motor skills or fainting after exercise<sup>21,38</sup> characteristic brain MRI abnormalities, such as periventricular white matter abnormalities, frontotemporal hypoplasia, and subependymal nodules, while the striatum is unaffected.<sup>21,39,40</sup> It remains doubtful whether this proposed *late-onset* subgroup truly forms a disease variant, since extrastriatal MRI abnormalities are also found in the HE group, regardless of striatal damage during infancy. Some late diagnosed individuals may not develop symptoms, and several asymptomatic women (maternal GA1) have been identified following work-up of the abnormal NBS results of their unaffected children.<sup>41–43</sup>

Due to the predominant neurologic phenotype GA1 is considered a ‘cerebral’ organic aciduria; however, involvement of the peripheral nervous system<sup>44</sup> and the kidney in the disease course has recently extended the phenotypic complexity.<sup>45</sup> As a first extracerebral manifestation, increased frequency of chronic renal failure has been reported in adolescents and adults<sup>1,45</sup> which has also been demonstrated in animal model studies.<sup>46,47</sup>

Disproving initial doubts on general treatability of the disease, metabolic treatment concepts have been developed and optimised during the last 40 years. Nowadays, GA1 is considered a treatable disorder. Evidence-based guideline recommendations have first been published in 2007,<sup>48</sup> and revised twice.<sup>49,50</sup> Metabolic maintenance treatment consists of a low lysine diet with administration of a lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced, arginine-

fortified amino acid mixture (AAM) and oral carnitine supplementation. Intensified intermittent emergency treatment is recommended for catabolic episodes of intercurrent illness or surgery. If administered according to guideline recommendations, this combined metabolic treatment has dramatically reduced the frequency of acute encephalopathic crises and MD and increased the probability for an asymptomatic disease course in early diagnosed individuals,<sup>1,2,20,28,30,34,35,51–56</sup> as recently demonstrated in a world-wide meta-analysis with 647 patients.<sup>5</sup> Dietary treatment has been demonstrated to be safe allowing normal anthropometric development until early adulthood in all but severely affected patients.<sup>23</sup>

A few cases of malignant brain tumours have been described in individuals not treated according to recommendations.<sup>44,57–59</sup> Whether GA1 generally increases the risk of brain neoplasms—like in L-2-hydroxyglutaric aciduria, another cerebral organic aciduria<sup>60</sup>—remains to be elucidated.

Since C5DC can be detected in dried blood spots (DBS) by MS/MS based NBS and early treatment is neuroprotective, GA1 has been included in many national NBS panels including 24 countries of the European Union and Switzerland.<sup>61</sup>

Although the clinical outcome of individuals with GA1 has been continuously improved during the last three decades, differences still exist in diagnosis and management of the disease. The aim of this third revision of recommendations is to re-evaluate previous recommendations<sup>48–50</sup> and formulate revised and—for new topics—new recommendations for diagnosis and management based on the best evidence available, clinical experience and perspectives of affected individuals.

## 2 | METHODS

### 2.1 | Guideline development

The GA1 guideline development process was initiated in 2003 and first published in 2007.<sup>48</sup> The first guideline revision<sup>50</sup> was based on first results of a prospective follow-up study evaluating the clinical impact of the guideline recommendations.<sup>28</sup> The following second revision<sup>49</sup> implemented increasing evidence on effects of treatment quality on outcome, and new findings such as the role of arginine, or maternal GA1. This third revision is based on the results of a GDG meeting on 21st September 2021 in Kassel, Germany, as well as four virtual meetings, with participation of 23 international experts in metabolic medicine, child neurology, clinical biochemistry, genetics, nutrition, (neuro-)radiology and psychology. Participation of 13 professional societies as well as a

representative of a patient support group (Glutarazidurie e.V.) resulted in a representative GDG composition (Table S6). Potential conflicts of interests were documented with maximum transparency. After finalisation, the GDG received feedback from external experts and the guideline was legitimised by all participating professional societies as well as the E-IMD consortium (European Network and Registry for intoxication type metabolic diseases; <https://www.eimd-registry.org>). All 24 recommendations are summarised in Table 1.

## 2.2 | Target group

This guideline is addressed to experts from paediatric and adult metabolic medicine, child neurology, genetics, (neuro-)radiology, nutrition, dietetics, psychology and provides information for neurology, laboratory medicine, NBS, transition medicine, social work as well as to all affected patients and their families, aiming at improving medical health care for all individuals with GA1. Since the GDG composition reflects health care systems of developed first world countries, its representativity and considerations may be limited for developing countries with limited access to medical health care facilities required to follow recommendations.

## 2.3 | Consensus procedure

Relevant key questions were identified by interdisciplinary consensus procedure comprising the recommendations of the second revision<sup>49</sup> and new key questions arising since then. A structured consensus process guided by moderation was conducted to achieve formal consensus. All key questions were systematically discussed by the GDG. For each recommendation, level of achieved consensus (and level of recommendation) included (1) the specific formulation of the recommendation and (2) the content of associated tables. Consensus was achieved for all recommendations and was strong (>95%) in 21/24 of them.

## 2.4 | Systematic literature review

The methodology by SIGN (*Scottish Intercollegiate Guideline Network*; URL: <http://www.sign.ac.uk>) and GRADE Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation<sup>65</sup> were used. For the period from 1975 to 2015, the literature review performed for the first two guideline revisions<sup>49,50</sup> was reviewed and re-evaluated.

For the period from November 2015 to October 2021 a systematic review of the literature was carried out using Medline, Embase, the Cochrane Library, MedLink and Orphanet databases. Internet searches were also performed on various websites including international and national societies for inborn errors of metabolism and those of support groups. Each working group selected and evaluated the literature before considered as evidence (Tables S1 and S2).

## 2.5 | Grading of recommendations

Practice/action-guiding recommendations support specific interventions based on a certain level of evidence which was assessed as high, moderate, low or very low by the GDG. According to methodologies of SIGN and GRADE grading of recommendations considered (1) level and consistence of evidence, (2) clinical relevance and experience, (3) balance of benefits and harms for affected individuals, (4) general preferences and perspectives of affected individuals, (5) ethical, legal and economic considerations and (6) general practicability thus resulting in recommendations likely to be implemented and acceptable. For maximum transparency, information on level of evidence, consistency of evidence, clinical relevance and rate of consensus are provided for each recommendation. For details see evidence table of systematic literature review (Table S2).

## 2.6 | Levels of recommendations (according to SIGN and GRADE)

*'Strong' recommendation for/against (Level A):* Undesirable consequences *clearly* outweigh/do not outweigh desirable consequences. (1) Evidence is of high quality, (2) there is high degree of certainty that effects will be achieved in practice, (3) there are only few side effects of therapy and (4) there is a high degree of acceptance among affected individuals. In some cases, strong recommendations were made based on only moderate or low levels of evidence but with high clinical relevance or benefit for affected individuals.

*Recommendation for/against (Level B):* Undesirable consequences *probably* outweigh/do not outweigh desirable consequences. (1) There are weaknesses in the evidence base, (2) there is a degree of doubt about the size of the effect that can be expected in practice, (3) there is a need to balance the upsides and downsides of therapy or (4) there are likely varying degrees of acceptance among affected individuals.

TABLE 1 Summary of all 24 recommendations

#	Diagnostic procedures	Level of recommendation <sup>a</sup>
1	When GA1 is suspected, (differential-) diagnostic work-up, development of treatment plans, appropriate education and training of affected individuals and their families should take place in a specialised centre experienced in managing inherited metabolic diseases. Affected individuals diagnosed elsewhere should be transferred to such centres without delay.	Strong recommendation for (A)
2	Positive (abnormal) NBS results and/or suggestive clinical, biochemical and/or neuroradiological signs should be confirmed by diagnostic work-up, including quantitative analysis of GA and 3-OH-GA in urine and/or blood, and, if abnormal, molecular genetic analysis of <i>GCDH</i> gene and/or <i>GCDH</i> enzyme analysis in leukocytes or fibroblasts (Figure 1).	Strong recommendation for (A)
3	In children with SDH/hygroma (fluid collections) in combination with further characteristic neuroradiologic signs (frontotemporal hypoplasia with widening of anterior temporal CSF spaces and the Sylvian fissure, Table S2), targeted diagnostic work-up (using the algorithm in Figure 1) is strongly recommended.	Strong recommendation for (A)
4	In children with a positive (abnormal) NBS result, but negative (normal) confirmatory diagnostic work-up, the mother may be informed about the possible condition of a maternal GA1 which can be further examined by targeted diagnostic work-up (Figure 1).	Recommendation for research (0)
<i>Metabolic maintenance treatment</i>		
5	Metabolic maintenance treatment should be implemented and regularly evaluated by an interdisciplinary team in a specialised centre experienced in managing inherited metabolic diseases.	Strong recommendation for (A)
6	A low lysine diet is strongly recommended in all patients up to the age of 6 years. To ensure sufficient protein intake, additional administration of lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced and arginine-enriched amino acid mixtures is strongly recommended.	Strong recommendation for (A)
7	After age 6 years, dietary treatment should follow an age-adapted, protein-controlled protocol which is based on safe levels for protein intake and avoids excessive intake of food with high lysine content. Dietary transition should be accompanied by regular dietary advice.	Recommendation for (B)
8	Since there is no evidence for clinical benefit of the use of arginine as a single amino acid for maintenance or emergency treatment in addition to arginine intake via natural food and AAM, an additional arginine supplementation is not recommended.	Recommendation for research (0)
9	Carnitine should be supplemented lifelong aiming to maintain the concentration of free carnitine in plasma or dried blood spots within the reference range.	Recommendation for (B)
<i>Metabolic emergency treatment</i>		
10	It is strongly recommended to start emergency treatment immediately and to perform it aggressively in any case of febrile illness, or alarming symptoms as well as during perioperative management within the vulnerable period for striatal injury (up to age 6 years).	Strong recommendation for (A)
11	Emergency treatment after age 6 years can be administered during episodes of severe illness or perioperative management in analogy to the age group 0–6 years with individual adaptation of glucose and fluid intake.	Recommendation for research (0)
<i>Neurologic complications</i>		
12	Diagnosis and therapy of neurologic (i.e. movement disorder, symptomatic epileptic seizures) or neurosurgically treatable manifestations (SDH) should be managed by a neuropaediatrician/ neurologist and/or neurosurgeon in close cooperation with metabolic specialists.	Strong recommendation for (A)
<i>Vaccinations</i>		
13	All patients with GA1 should be vaccinated according to national recommendations.	Recommendation for (B)
<i>Disease education</i>		
14	Age-specific education and information of affected patients and their families on disease course, treatment and prognosis as well as socio-legal advice and evaluation of quality of life should be regularly provided by an interdisciplinary team including experts in metabolic medicine, nutritional therapy, physiotherapy, social-advice and psychology.	Recommendation for (B)

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Clinical monitoring		
15	Therapeutic effectiveness and adverse side effects should be monitored by regular follow-up investigations and intensified in case of symptom progress or non-adherence to treatment recommendations. For recommended endpoints of clinical monitoring see recommendations #17–20, 23, 24 and Table 6.	Strong recommendation for (A)
16	Analysis of urinary concentrations of GA and 3-OH-GA should not be used for monitoring or adaption of treatment.	Recommendation for (B)
17	Concentrations of plasma amino acids should be regularly quantified in patients with low lysine diet (3–4 h postprandially) and be maintained within the age-specific normal range (Table 5).	Strong recommendation for (A)
18	Concentration of free carnitine in plasma or dried blood spots should be monitored regularly in all individuals with GA1. Trough level concentration of free carnitine (at least 12 h after last administration) should be maintained within the reference range.	Recommendation for (B)
19	Renal function should be assessed yearly starting from age 6 years (Table 7).	Recommendation for (B)
20	Patients should be admitted to a hospital and closely monitored for at least 24 h even after minimal or mild head trauma within the first 3 years of life due to the increased risk for developing SDH.	Recommendation for (B)
21	Neuroradiological examination should be performed in all age groups if neurological symptoms occur or deteriorate significantly.	Recommendation for (B)
22	Routine MRI investigations for detection and/or monitoring of extrastriatal abnormalities (subependymal noduli, white matter abnormalities) can be started from age 10 years and repeated depending on results, for example, every 2–5 years).	Recommendation for research (0)
23	Intelligence/developmental quotient, motor functions and language should be evaluated regularly to detect specific deficits and allow start of supportive treatment. For severely affected patients adjusted test batteries should be used (Table 6).	Recommendation for (B)
Transition		
24	Starting from age 14 years and depending on local health care structures, transition (interdisciplinary paediatric-internal consultation) followed by transfer to adult medicine should be broached and organised as a structured and standardised procedure.	Recommendation for (B)

<sup>a</sup>Level of recommendation according to.<sup>65,66</sup>

*Recommendation for research or conditional recommendation for use restricted to trials (Level 0):* Balance between desirable and undesirable consequences is closely balanced or uncertain.

## 2.7 | Disclaimer

The proposed recommendations are not intended to serve as a standard of management and care for affected individuals. Standards of care are formulated on the basis of all clinical data available and are influenced by scientific progress. Adherence to recommendations will not ensure correct diagnosis and optimal outcome in all patients. Final clinical assessments must be made by experienced healthcare professional(s) and should include discussions of diagnostic and therapeutic options with affected individuals and their families. However, these recommendations provide a rational basis for decisions in clinical management of GA1.

## 2.8 | Alterations since the second revision in 2016

To the best of our knowledge, none of the previous recommendations<sup>49</sup> has been proven invalid. However, grades of recommendations may have been adapted based on the criteria described above. Six new recommendations (#4, #13, #14, #19, #22 and #24) were formulated and one former ‘statement’ was changed to a recommendation (#8) resulting in a total of 24 recommendations which have been classified as [certified ( $n = 2$ ); modified ( $n = 15$ ); new ( $n = 7$ )] in relation to the previous version.

## 3 | DIAGNOSTIC PROCEDURES

### 3.1 | Differential diagnoses

GA1 is caused by biallelic pathogenic variants in the *GCDH* gene on chromosome 19p13.13 resulting in

deficiency of the corresponding mitochondrial enzyme. Accordingly, diagnosis is confirmed by detection of a disease-causing genotype and/or significantly reduced enzyme activity. Other laboratory abnormalities, clinical signs, or symptoms may be suggestive but not confirming, including macrocephaly, acute encephalopathy, bilateral basal ganglia injury, MD, SDH and retinal haemorrhages, as well as elevated concentrations of GA, 3-OH-GA and C5DC in body fluids.

Relevant differential diagnoses of GA1 comprise (1) benign familial macrocephaly, or communicating hydrocephalus, (2) other metabolic diseases associated with macrocephaly (e.g. Canavan disease), (3) hepatic and uraemic encephalopathies, (4) *metabolic stroke* in classic organic acidurias (methylmalonic and propionic aciduria), urea cycle defects (e.g. ornithine transcarbamylase deficiency), and mitochondrial disorders (e.g. Leigh syndrome), (5) non-metabolic encephalopathies (encephalitis, meningitis, intoxication, Aicardi Goutières syndrome), (6) multiple acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency, glutaric aciduria type 3, severe ketosis, bacterial contamination, renal insufficiency, 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency and pseudo-glutaryl carnitine-mia (in medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency) and (7) asphyxia, HIV encephalopathy, infantile cerebral palsy or child abuse.

Biochemical differential diagnoses of elevated GA and 3-OH-GA concentrations are summarised in Table S4.

acylcarnitines in DBS whereas *high-risk* screening is performed in neonates with a known increased a priori risk, that is affected family member.

**MS/MS:** The diagnostic metabolite for GA1 is C5DC in DBS. Some laboratories additionally use ratios to other acylcarnitines as secondary parameters.<sup>70</sup> Introduction of multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) to MS/MS analysis increased sensitivity and reduced the rate of false-positive results (screening reports of *German Society for Newborn Screening*, 2004–2019). Urinary acylcarnitines have been analysed in single patients, but have not been studied systematically as a screening method.<sup>71</sup>

**Cut-off levels:** A C5DC value above the cut-off is considered a positive (abnormal) screening result and requires follow-up analysis. Each NBS laboratory defines the C5DC cut-off level based on its own methodology and patient population. Controlled studies defining pathological values of acylcarnitines do not exist.

**Diagnostic pitfalls:** NBS does not reliably identify all affected individuals, since some LE patients may show only slightly increased or normal C5DC concentrations with consecutively false negative NBS results.<sup>1,28,72–76</sup> Sensitivity for C5DC screening in Germany was 95% in recent studies, but with a discrepancy between HE (100%) and LE patients (75%–84%).<sup>1,25,28</sup> Thus, a negative NBS result does not unambiguously exclude the

#### Recommendation #1 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	When GA1 is suspected, (differential-) diagnostic work-up, development of treatment plans, appropriate education and training of affected individuals and their families should take place in a specialised centre experienced in managing inherited metabolic diseases. Affected individuals diagnosed elsewhere should be transferred to such centres without delay.
Level of evidence	One study (SIGN level 2++) has demonstrated positive effect of supervision by a metabolic centre. <sup>28</sup>
Clinical relevance	High.

### 3.2 | Newborn screening

GA1 has been included in the disease panels of MS/MS-based national NBS programs in a constantly growing number of countries worldwide.<sup>61</sup>

**Major aims:** NBS aims at reducing the risk of developing irreversible neurologic disease due to striatal damage. Neonatal diagnosis and start of treatment strongly increase probability for an asymptomatic disease course.<sup>1,2,5,9,20,28,30,33–35,52,54–56,67–69</sup>

**Definitions:** Population-wide *newborn* mass screening for GA1 is performed by MS/MS analysis of

diagnosis of GA1. New analytic methods have been developed during the recent years to improve LE detection, such as improved LC–MS/MS or use of acylcarnitine ratios.<sup>77–79</sup> A carnitine loading test may increase diagnostic sensitivity, but systematic studies have not been performed.

**Differential diagnosis:** Increased C5DC concentration may also be caused by multiple acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency, renal insufficiency,<sup>80</sup> maternal GA1 (see recommendation #4) or pseudo-glutaryl carnitine-mia in medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency.<sup>81</sup>

### 3.3 | Confirmation of a positive NBS result

Pathological NBS results should be repeated in the same DBS sample (and if possible by the same laboratory) and confirmed by one or more alternative techniques, including quantitative analysis of GA and 3-OH-GA in urine and/or blood with GC/MS,<sup>16,82–84</sup> molecular genetic analysis of the *GCDH* gene,<sup>14,15</sup> and analysis of GCDH enzyme activity in leukocytes or fibroblasts.<sup>85</sup>

Normal urinary or plasma 3-OH-GA concentrations are not suggestive but do not reliably exclude GA1 since some LE patients intermittently may show concentrations within the normal range. A recent study has demonstrated a decrease of metabolite concentrations in a GA1 mouse model with variants in the *SUCGT* (succinyl-CoA:glutarate-CoA transferase) gene, but this has not been studied in GA1 patients.<sup>86</sup> In contrast, elevated levels of 3-OH-GA (usually in combination with elevated concentrations of GA) are highly suggestive for GA1. Pitfalls for organic acid analysis should always be considered (Table S4).

The range of borderline or slightly increased 3-OH-GA concentrations alone cannot differentiate between LE patients, heterozygous carriers (not disease-causing) or even pre-analytical problems. Therefore, no treatment stratification depending on biochemical abnormalities is recommended and metabolic treatment should always be immediately initiated if 3-OH-GA is elevated, that is, before genetic and/or enzymatic analysis confirms the diagnosis (Figure 1). Although *insidious-onset* manifested later than *acute-onset* dystonia in a prospective national follow-up study, also single neonatal cases of striatal lesions developing MD within the first year of life have been reported.<sup>1,35</sup>

Detection of a disease-causing genotype confirms the diagnosis and is relevant for genetic counselling of families and patients as well as for prenatal diagnostics. Sensitivity of genetic analysis is 98%–99%.<sup>15</sup> For some *GCDH* variants, a correlation with biochemical phenotype and residual enzyme activity has been reported, but not with the clinical phenotype and risk for striatal injury.<sup>1,14,19,20</sup> One case of a special *GCDH* variant with dominant-negative effect and abnormal NBS result has been reported. GCDH residual activity was 10%–20% (thus, in the range of symptomatic GA1 subjects and significantly lower than other heterozygous individuals showing GCDH activity of >30%), and no clinical or neuroradiologic abnormalities were observed.<sup>87</sup> At present, it is unclear whether treatment is indicated in these individuals. In general, heterozygous carrier status is not considered as

clinically relevant since heterozygous individuals remain asymptomatic without treatment.

If only one (or no) known disease-causing variant is detected but other suggestive clinical, biochemical and/or neuroradiologic features are present, an (by standard analysis technique) undetectable *GCDH* variant should be considered and GCDH activity should be determined in leukocytes or fibroblasts. Significantly reduced GCDH activity will confirm the diagnosis, while normal activity (or values in the range of heterozygous carriers) will exclude it. In symptomatic LE individuals, residual enzyme activities of up to 30% have been reported.<sup>19,20</sup> In contrast to broadly available molecular genetic analyses the determination of GCDH enzyme activity is currently only available in the laboratories of Prof. Salomons in Amsterdam, Netherlands and Prof. Wibrand in Copenhagen, Denmark.

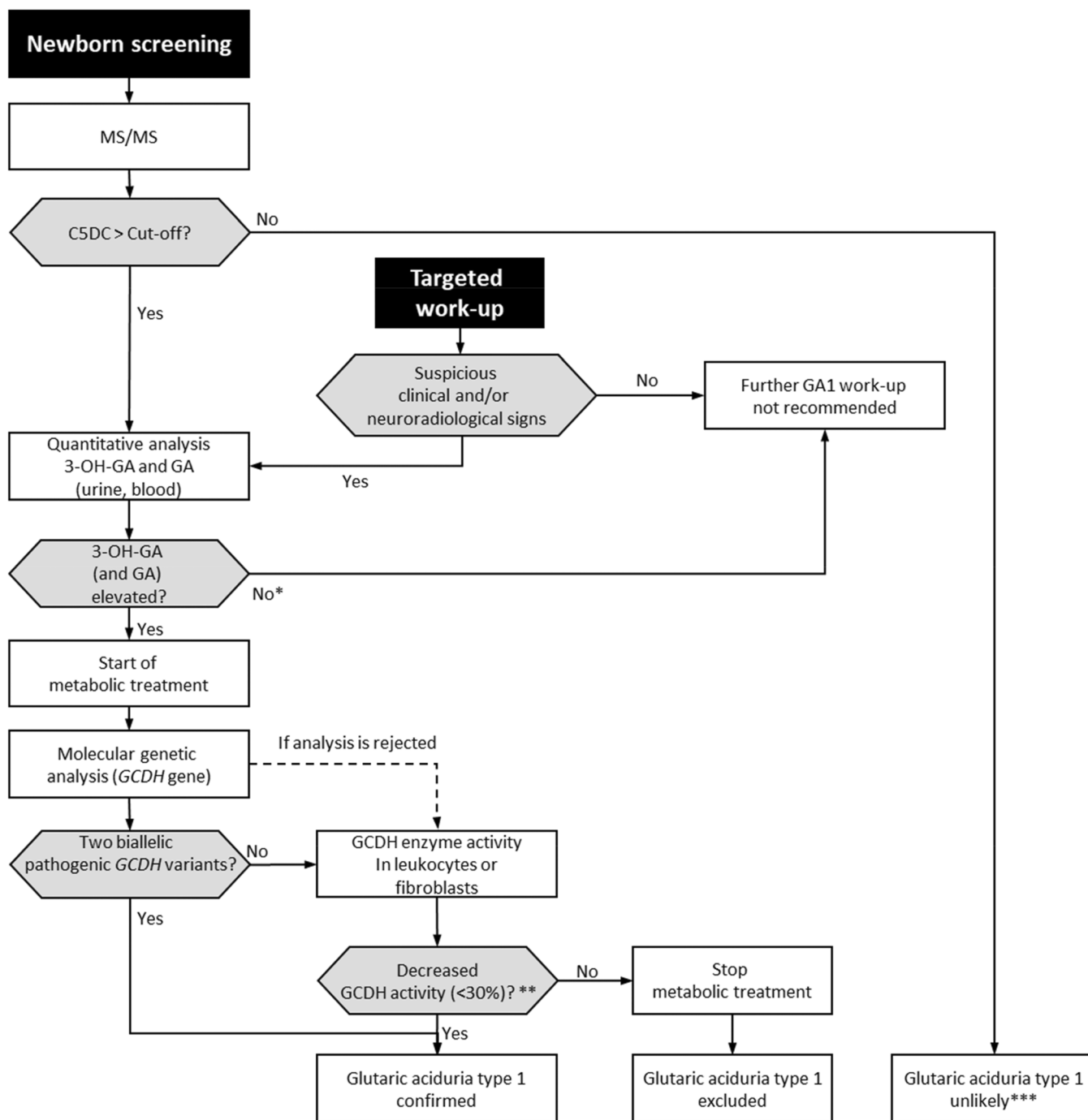
### 3.4 | Targeted diagnostic work-up due to suggestive clinical, biochemical or neuroradiological signs

Targeted diagnostic work-up should be performed if suggestive clinical, biochemical and/or neuroradiologic findings are present or if the a priori risk for GA1 is elevated (e.g. due to an index patient in the family or a specific ethnic heritage). With increasing worldwide implementation of GA1 into NBS programs, targeted diagnostic work-up has become less relevant nowadays but is still essential for individuals born before this era, in countries without NBS programs, or for LE patients missed by NBS. Thus, in case of suggestive findings, a targeted diagnostic work-up should always be performed, even if NBS was normal.

Beside macrocephaly, suggestive clinical signs comprise acute neurologic manifestations (e.g. occurring during febrile illness or other catabolic states) like acute or chronic onset of MD in infants, gait abnormalities or (truncal) muscular hypotonia.<sup>5,45,88–97</sup> Individuals with *late-onset* form may present with unspecific neurologic signs like polyneuropathy, incontinence, headache, early-onset dementia, epilepsy or tremor.<sup>21,40,44,57</sup> Neuroradiologic abnormalities occur frequently in all patients and are summarised in Table S3.<sup>21,35,98–104</sup>

**Methods:** Targeted diagnostic work-up uses the same methods as confirmatory work-up of positive NBS results (Figure 1). No systematic data or clinical experience is available for analysis of GA and 3-OH GA in CSF. Due to reduced sensitivity in individuals with secondary carnitine depletion and in LE patients, MS/MS analysis of acylcarnitines in DBS (and plasma) is of less importance for targeted diagnostic work-up (in





**FIGURE 1** Algorithm for diagnostic work-up in GA1. *Newborn screening* is performed using MS/MS analysing C5DC concentration in DBS. Diagnostic confirmation of abnormal NBS results includes quantitative analysis of GA and 3-OH-GA in urine and/or blood, molecular genetic analysis of *GCDH* gene and GCDH enzyme analysis. *Targeted diagnostic work-up* due to suggestive clinical, biochemical and/or neuroradiological signs starts with quantitative analysis of GA and 3-OH-GA in urine and/or blood and is performed in analogy to the described diagnostic work-up procedure. (\*) Low excretors may show (intermittently) normal concentrations of 3-OH-GA (and GA) in urine or blood. In case of highly suggestive signs for GA1, further diagnostic work-up should be considered on an individual basis. Since there is no dietary stratification depending on the biochemical subtype, all individuals receive the same metabolic treatment. (\*\*) Low excretors show a GCDH residual activity of 3%–30% while it is 0%–2% in high excretors. (\*\*\*) if individuals in this group develop suggestive clinical signs, further work-up according to targeted diagnostic work-up is recommended. Comment on molecular genetic and enzyme analysis: Due to (1) broader availability of *GCDH* gene analysis compared to GCDH enzyme analysis, and (2) importance of molecular genetic analysis for both disease confirmation and accurate genetic counselling and prenatal diagnosis, start with genetic testing for confirmation is recommended. However, initial GCDH enzyme analysis may be suitable depending on local availability, experience and the patient's and his family's preference.

contrast to NBS). In patients with normal C5DC in DBS, analysis of urinary C5DC is an alternative method but with low availability<sup>105</sup> and lower sensitivity than quantitative analysis of 3-OH-GA in urine by GC/MS.<sup>82</sup> Use of in vivo loading tests using lysine or prolonged fasting tests is potentially harmful and obsolete. Additional use of in vitro loading tests does not increase diagnostic sensitivity.<sup>106</sup>

Diagnosis may also be established by molecular genetic testing *without* previous biochemical analysis.<sup>107</sup>

Figure 1 summarises the diagnostic algorithm for GA1.

individuals with *isolated* SDH do not exist. Bilateral, but not unilateral, arachnoid cysts have been described in some patients and may be suggestive for GA1 but have only been verified in one of two patients on craniotomy,<sup>115–118</sup> and differentiation from frontotemporal hypoplasia is challenging.

### 3.5 | Maternal GA1

In several cases, diagnosis of maternal GA1 was established following (normal) diagnostic work-up of an ini-

#### Recommendation #2 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	Positive (abnormal) NBS results and/or suggestive clinical, biochemical and/or neuroradiological signs should be confirmed by diagnostic work-up, including quantitative analysis of GA and 3-OH-GA in urine and/or blood, and, if abnormal, molecular genetic analysis of <i>GCDH</i> gene and/or <i>GCDH</i> enzyme analysis in leukocytes or fibroblasts (Figure 1).
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 1+ to 3). Consistency of evidence is high.
Clinical relevance	High.

#### Recommendation #3 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	In children with SDH/hygroma (fluid collections) in combination with further characteristic neuroradiologic signs (frontotemporal hypoplasia with widening of anterior temporal CSF spaces and the Sylvian fissure, Table S3), targeted diagnostic work-up (using the algorithm in Figure 1) is strongly recommended.
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 2+ to 4). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.

*Subdural haemorrhage and arachnoid cysts.* GA1 is associated with an increased risk of developing traumatic or incidental SDH and hygroma. SDH manifests mostly during the first 3 years of life, with a peak in late infancy when extent of macrocephaly is maximal,<sup>24,98,104,108–112</sup> however, macrocephaly is often ‘relative’ (disproportion between skull and brain with consecutive enlarged external CSF spaces and clinically not apparent, see recommendation #20). Exact frequency of SDH in GA1 is unknown since affected individuals may remain asymptomatic. SDH may be mistaken as abusive head trauma<sup>104,109,113,114</sup> and thus might be a diagnostic pitfall. In all reported GA1 patients with SDH, additional characteristic neuroradiologic abnormalities were present, such as frontotemporal hypoplasia with widening of anterior temporal CSF spaces and the Sylvian fissure.<sup>24,104</sup> Systematic studies or case reports on prevalence of GA1 in

tially abnormal NBS of the mother’s child. GA1 was not confirmed in the children and biochemical parameters normalised during the following weeks.<sup>21,41–43,119</sup> Affected mothers developed no or unspecific neurologic symptoms.

## 4 | METABOLIC MAINTENANCE TREATMENT

### 4.1 | Start of treatment

Combined metabolic treatment consists of maintenance treatment (low lysine diet, oral carnitine supplementation) and intermittent intensified emergency treatment (during episodes potentially inducing catabolism like febrile infections or perioperative fasting periods) and should be started immediately when GA1 is suspected (Figure 1).

#### Recommendation #4 [new 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: 0	In children with a positive (abnormal) NBS result, but negative (normal) confirmatory diagnostic work-up, the mother may be informed about the possible condition of a maternal GA1 which can be further examined by targeted diagnostic work-up (Figure 1).
Recommendation for research	
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 2++ to 3). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	Unknown.

#### Recommendation #5 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A	Metabolic maintenance treatment should be implemented and regularly evaluated by an interdisciplinary team in a specialised centre experienced in managing inherited metabolic diseases.
Strong recommendation	
Level of evidence	High to moderate (SIGN level 1– to 2–). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.

Treatment and follow-up require the experience and expertise of an interdisciplinary, multi-professional team at a centre experienced in managing inherited metabolic diseases. Such teams should include specialists in inherited metabolic diseases, child neurology, (neuro-)radiology, nutritional medicine and therapy, dieticians, nurses, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, speech therapists, psychologists and social workers. Supervision by such centres allows (1) implementation of metabolic maintenance treatment, (2) creation of age-adapted dietary protocols, (3) regular education and training of patients and their families, (4) availability of a 24/7 metabolic emergency service, (5) regular follow-up investigations and (6) detection of potential adverse treatment effects (e.g. malnutrition, failure to thrive due to inadequate diet).

Regular supervision by such centres significantly increases the probability of an asymptomatic disease course.<sup>28</sup>

## 4.2 | Effectiveness of treatment

The vast majority of individuals remain asymptomatic if maintenance and emergency treatment are started in the newborn period before onset of symptoms and are continuously maintained according to the guideline recommendations.<sup>1,2,9,20,28,30,34–36,51,52,54–56,68,120–122</sup> This positive effect was recently confirmed in a meta-analysis including 647 patients worldwide.<sup>5</sup> The low lysine diet is safe and allows normal anthropometric development until early adulthood in most individuals while severe MD is associated with impaired weight and length development.<sup>23,30,51</sup> Quality of treatment has the strongest impact on neurologic outcome, and consequent

adherence to guideline recommendations is associated with the best neurologic outcome: More than 90% of individuals adhering to recommended maintenance and emergency treatment remained neurologically asymptomatic, and rarely developed MD (7%). In contrast, non-adherence to emergency treatment resulted in (mostly severe) MD in 100% of cases, and non-adherence to maintenance treatment significantly increased the risk for (mostly mild to moderate) *insidious-onset* MD.<sup>1,5,28</sup>

Effectiveness of treatment implemented *after* manifestation of neurologic disease is strongly limited has only been observed in single patients.<sup>18,20,26,31,33,91,94</sup> However, some individuals may benefit from prevention of progressive neurologic deterioration.<sup>88,89,93</sup>

## 4.3 | Dietary treatment

*International recommendations and individualisation of treatment:* Dietary recommendations considering age-dependent needs of a growing child have been developed by international organisations like World Health Organisation (WHO) or *German, Austrian and Swiss Nutrition Societies* (D-A-CH), are usually based on *safe level* (=mean + 2 SD of daily required intake) and may vary substantially due to the use of different protein requirements and use of average versus safe levels. The GDG is mostly experienced in the use of revised safe levels<sup>62</sup> and D-A-CH recommendations (revised 2019) for calculating individualised dietary protocols that are therefore used for this guideline, have been used in many clinical trials and are associated with a positive outcome.<sup>1,2,23,28,36</sup> Recommendations for nutrient and energy intake in healthy children by D-A-CH were revised in (2019), and its recent version is similar

to the previous recommendations of D-A-CH (2015) as well as the recommendations of the joint WHO/Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO)/United Nations University (UNU) expert consultation (World Health Organisation 2007) except for minimal differences in the first months of life. Dystonic patients may show need for increased energy intake requiring adaption of maintenance treatment to individual patient's needs,<sup>51,123,124</sup> see also 'Individuals with dystonic movement disorder' below.

**Principles of low lysine diet until age 6 years:** Lysine is an essential amino acid and must therefore be provided by nutritional intake to allow normal growth. 'Diet' stands for adjusted oral intake of food aiming at influencing the health state; 'nutritional therapy' aims at improving the identified nutritional problem considering individual needs including dietary treatment, education, counselling and monitoring.<sup>125</sup> The main goal of low lysine diet in GA1 is to *reduce* the daily intake of lysine, the quantitatively most relevant amino acid precursor of neurotoxic metabolites, while maintaining an adequate supply of all essential micronutrients (Table 2 and Table S5). In animal models, cerebral concentrations of GA and 3-OH-GA can be modulated by the amount of dietary lysine intake.<sup>126–128</sup> Since in vivo measurement of metabolites requires invasive methods, analogous data

for individuals with GA1 are scarce and knowledge is based on a post-mortem study.<sup>129</sup> However,<sup>1</sup>H-magnetic resonance spectroscopy allows for non-invasive quantification of cerebral GA and 3-OH-GA concentrations but has not been used for treatment adaption.<sup>22</sup>

Compared to a low lysine diet, the approach of a 'low protein diet' with limitation of protein intake concomitantly reducing lysine intake is less precise since lysine content in natural foods varies considerably, for example, 2%–4% (lysine/protein) in cereals and 9% (lysine/protein) in fish (Table S5). Therefore, *direct* calculation of lysine intake instead of total natural protein intake is more precise, reduces day-to-day variability of lysine intake,<sup>123,124</sup> and has been used in many clinical trials in combination with the administration of a lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced and arginine-enriched AAM aiming to provide adequate supply of essential amino acids and—with some product-specific variations—also minerals, trace elements and vitamins. This maintenance treatment (low lysine diet, AAM supplementation, carnitine supplementation) and intermittent emergency treatment has been associated with the most favourable neurologic outcome in many studies,<sup>1,2,20,28,34,36,51,56,68</sup> including a meta-analysis of 647 patients.<sup>5</sup> In contrast, less pronounced clinical effect could be demonstrated in individuals calculating protein intake instead of lysine

**TABLE 2** Metabolic maintenance treatment

Treatment		Age				
		0–6 months	7–12 months	1–3 years	4–6 years	>6 years
1. Low lysine diet						
Lysine (from natural protein) <sup>a</sup>	mg/kg/day	100	90	80–60	60–50	Controlled protein intake using natural protein with a low lysine content and avoiding lysine-rich food; for example, according to national recommendations like 'Optimix' <sup>b</sup>
AAM (synthetic protein) <sup>c</sup>	g/kg/day	1.3–0.8	1.0–0.8	0.8	0.8	
Energy <sup>d</sup>	kcal/kg/day	100–80	80	94–81	86–63	
2. Micronutrients <sup>d</sup>						
	%	≥100	≥100	≥100	≥100	≥100
3. Carnitine <sup>e</sup>						
	mg/kg/day	100	100	100	100–50	50–30

*Note:* Treatment should be modified according to individual needs in case of growth and development disturbances.

Abbreviation: AAM, amino acid mixtures.

<sup>a</sup>Lysine/protein ratios vary considerably in natural food and thus natural protein intake in children on a low lysine diet is dependent on the natural protein source. The natural protein intake is relatively high if patients predominantly use natural protein with a low lysine content. For this reason, numerical data on natural protein are not provided.

<sup>b</sup>Optimix<sup>®</sup>, National nutritional recommendations for children and adolescents, by *Research Department for Child Nutrition, Bochum, Germany*; URL: <https://www.fke-shop.de/das-neue-fke/>.

<sup>c</sup>Lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced, arginine-fortified AAM should be supplemented with minerals and micronutrients as required to maintain normal levels. Adequate intake of essential amino acids is provided from natural protein and AAM supplements. Amount of AAM is adjusted to reach at least the 'safe levels'.<sup>62</sup>

<sup>d</sup>According to international dietary recommendations.<sup>63</sup> Recent updates on recommendations for energy intake<sup>64</sup> do not refer to body weight anymore.

<sup>e</sup>Carnitine dosage may be adapted to maintain the concentration of free carnitine within the reference range.

and omitting AAM.<sup>20,35,130</sup> In the recently published largest worldwide NBS cohort in the US, 47% of patients with a low protein diet developed a MD, while only 7% of patients with a low lysine diet developed MD thus confirming previous observations in the second largest NBS cohort in Germany.<sup>1,30</sup>

**Biochemical subtype and metabolic treatment:** Although evidence is increasing on neuroradiological and clinical differences between HE and LE patients,<sup>21,24,25,101</sup> treatment effects on these abnormalities has not been confirmed. Thus, metabolic treatment should not be stratified based on biochemical subtype.

'vulnerability' has ended and striatal injury is not manifesting anymore, (2) clinical impact of extrastriatal CNS abnormalities, that are frequently found even in early treated NBS patients, is unclear and (3) renal manifestation seems to be independent of treatment quality. However, continuation of lysine restriction is recommended since (1) clinical long-term course is unknown, (2) extra-neurologic (renal) manifestations in adolescent and adult patients starting in school age have been described,<sup>1,92</sup> (3) extrastriatal abnormalities expressing chronic neurotoxicity are progredient<sup>21</sup> and malignant CNS tumours were found in single patients,

#### Recommendation #6 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	A low lysine diet is strongly recommended in all patients up to the age of 6 years. To ensure sufficient protein intake, additional administration of lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced and arginine-enriched amino acid mixtures is strongly recommended.
Level of evidence	High (SIGN level 1+ to 2+). Consistency of evidence is high.
Clinical relevance	High.

**Dietary treatment after age 6 years:** Long-term outcome in GA1 is still poorly understood. Besides *acute-onset*, the *insidious-onset* and *late-onset* disease forms have been described with neurologic symptoms and correlating striatal and extrastriatal manifestations in MRI *without* a preceding crisis.<sup>1,5,18,28,30,33,35,37,39,40,57,101</sup> Within the 'window of vulnerability' during the first 6 years of life *insidious-onset* MD manifested significantly later (median age 630 days) than the *acute-onset* form (median age 270 days).<sup>1</sup> In contrast, individuals with *late-onset* form present during adolescence or adulthood with unspecific (non-striatal) neurologic symptoms.

The low lysine diet can be liberalised to a 'protein-controlled diet' using natural protein with a low lysine content and avoiding lysine-rich food (e.g. according to national recommendations like Optimix<sup>®</sup>, formulated by the *Research Institute of Child Nutrition*, Bochum, Germany), after age of 6 years since (1) the 'window of

however, of unknown causality<sup>58</sup> and (4) some late-diagnosed adult patients show progredient neurologic symptoms such as polyneuropathy, epilepsy and dementia.<sup>21</sup>

Of note, clinical effects and required intensity of lysine restriction in this age group are still unknown. In one of the largest NBS cohorts, individuals with protein-controlled diet showed age-appropriate anthropometric development until adulthood except for patients with severe MD,<sup>23</sup> and none of the patients developed new motor symptoms after age 6 years, which was also confirmed in the large U.S. NBS cohort.<sup>30</sup> Thus, liberalisation of dietary treatment seems not to be associated with a health risk, but is still variable in practice in the US and South America.<sup>131</sup> To prevent growth disturbance or malnutrition, the transition from low lysine diet to protein-controlled diet *after* the age of 6 years and the following period should be accompanied by regular dietary advice by nutritional experts.

#### Recommendation #7 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	After age 6 years, dietary treatment should follow an age-adapted, protein-controlled protocol which is based on safe levels for protein intake and avoids excessive intake of food with high lysine content. Dietary transition should be accompanied by regular dietary advice.
Level of evidence	High to moderate (SIGN level 2++ to 3). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.

**Infant feeding:** Breastmilk is physiological and beneficial for infants.<sup>132</sup> Initially, evidence for successful breastmilk feeding of babies with inherited metabolic diseases was limited to phenylketonuria (PKU)<sup>133,134</sup> but was recently extended to other intoxication-type metabolic diseases.<sup>135</sup> Breastmilk feeding in infants with GA1 is used worldwide and should be encouraged. The GDG is mostly experienced in breastmilk feeding on demand *after* administration of a lysine-free and tryptophan-reduced AAM thus limiting lysine intake in analogy to PKU.<sup>136</sup> This procedure has been used in several trials and is associated with beneficial clinical outcome.<sup>1,2,28,36,51</sup> Clinical experience with administration of AAM *after* breastmilk feeding is limited.<sup>137</sup> Since the amount of lysine in breast milk (86 mg/100 ml<sup>138</sup>) and formula milk used for bottle feeding are known, daily lysine intake can be easily calculated.

**Children with feeding problems:** Those patients need close supervision of a metabolic dietitian and further supportive measures, such as tube feeding, pharmacotherapy or surgery (i.e. fundoplication, gastrostomy, jejunostomy) should be considered to sustain adequate energy supply.

**Children with dystonic MD:** Depending on the level of muscular activity, energy demand may be increased up to 130%–150% (and beyond, especially in status dystonicus) in individuals with MD (*personal communication, B. Assmann, Heidelberg*). Anthropometric and nutritional status as well as amount of subcutaneous fat may be used as clinical parameters to guide the evaluation in a chronic setting. Urinary ketone bodies excretion should be monitored in status dystonicus. With increased sweating and breathing, water and salt are lost and need to be replaced on an individual basis. However, also decreased energy demand has been reported in individuals with severe MD due to immobility.<sup>139</sup> Therefore, intensive clinical and dietary monitoring is necessary to adapt energy intake to maintain anabolism and avoid catabolism. Individuals with severe MD are also at increased risk of aspiration pneumonia, feeding problems, malnutrition and growth impairment<sup>2,23,51,123,124</sup> and show increased mortality rates compared to patients with mild or moderate MD.<sup>1</sup>

**Education:** The clinical success of metabolic treatment (<sup>5</sup> and recommendation #5) critically depends on sufficient information and education of parents, affected individuals and caregivers. It is essential that they receive continued support and education from the interdisciplinary metabolic team. Based on the guideline recommendations, a pragmatic parental guide has been developed, revised and translated into six languages including English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Russian and Arabic (<https://www.awmf.org/leitlinien/detail/ll/027-018.html>).

**Arginine:** In contrast to lysine, the semi-essential amino acid arginine is synthesised within the body. Only 40% of exogenous dietary arginine reaches circulation after intestinal digestion and metabolism.<sup>140</sup> Comparable to lysine, arginine content in natural protein varies considerably. Arginine intake in a GA1 patient is particularly determined by the amount of arginine in lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced AAM and natural protein in their diet, but recommendations for optimal arginine intake have neither been formulated for healthy children nor for patients with GA1.

In theory, the competitive mechanism of lysine and arginine for cerebral uptake via the CAT1 transporter across the blood-brain barrier can be exploited for treatment which has been named ‘complementary dietary therapy’.<sup>34,36</sup> However, only supraphysiologic doses of arginine supplementation used in the animal model resulted in additional decrease of GA and 3-OH-GA concentrations.<sup>127</sup> In the same study, low lysine diet was shown to be much more effective in reducing cerebral levels of neurotoxic metabolites. In a recent study in healthy adults, IV administration of high-dosed arginine (300–600 mg/kg/d, i.e. higher than in patients with urea cycle disorders) reduced lysine oxidation in addition to lysine restriction.<sup>141</sup> Potential adverse effects of arginine administration comprise metabolic acidosis or arterial hypotension.

The arginine content in commercially available AAMs in Germany and, consequently, daily arginine intake may vary considerably during the first year of life while less variability exists in AAMs used for older children. In 34 patients whose arginine intake through AAM differed during the first year of life (90 vs. 48 mg/g protein) and converged later, clinical outcome was similar.<sup>36</sup> In contrast, several studies showed a positive impact of dietary therapy with administration of lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced and arginine-fortified AAM on outcome.<sup>2,20,28,36,51</sup> Thus, arginine intake within the low lysine diet could partially contribute to the overall beneficial effect of nutritional therapy. In recent large NBS cohort studies and a meta-analysis, outcome of patients receiving dietary treatment with lysine restriction and supplementation with a lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced and arginine-fortified AAM (plus oral supplementation of carnitine and emergency treatment) was superior to protein restriction without AAM supplementation (plus oral supplementation of carnitine and emergency treatment) with regard to prevention of MD, as well as morbidity and mortality.<sup>1,5,30</sup> Clinical impact of decreased arginine plasma concentrations observed during acute illness, but also common in acutely ill children without GA1, is unclear.<sup>142</sup> No evidence exists for beneficial clinical effects of an additional arginine supplementation as a single amino acid in addition to AAM for maintenance or emergency treatment.

#### Recommendation #8 [new 2022; majoritarian approval]

Level of recommendation: 0 Recommendation for research	Since there is no evidence for clinical benefit of the use of arginine as a single amino acid for maintenance or emergency treatment in addition to arginine intake via natural food and AAM, an additional arginine supplementation is not recommended.
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 2+ to 2-). Consistency of evidence is moderate, selective effect of arginine from AAM cannot be evaluated.
Clinical relevance	High.

## 4.4 | Pharmacotherapy

**Carnitine supplementation:** Besides its essential role for mitochondrial long-chain fatty acid transport, carnitine is important for physiological detoxification by removing toxic CoA compounds that accumulate in organic acidurias. In GA1, accumulating glutaryl-CoA conjugates with carnitine forming non-toxic, water-soluble and renally excretable C5DC, but increasing accumulation of glutaryl-CoA is proposed to reduce the intracellular CoA pool, a central cofactor in intermediary metabolism.<sup>143</sup> The resulting secondary carnitine depletion is frequently found in untreated patients<sup>33,94,143,144</sup> and recently, cerebral deficiency of free carnitine was demonstrated in a rat model for GA1.<sup>128</sup> Oral carnitine supplementation can compensate carnitine depletion as demonstrated in a mouse model<sup>127</sup> and has positive effects on oxidative stress parameters.<sup>145,146</sup> Carnitine supplementation is associated with risk reduction for developing striatal injury and MD in early-diagnosed individuals<sup>1,2,28,34,52,54,56,68</sup>

individually adjusted to maintain the plasma or DBS free carnitine concentration within the normal range.<sup>2,54</sup> No severe adverse effects have been reported so far, and dosage reduction due to diarrhoea and fishy odour may only be necessary for single patients. Fishy odour, caused by metabolism of carnitine to trimethylamine (TMA), was reduced by treatment with riboflavin in single patients.<sup>149</sup>

One experimental study demonstrated increased production of trimethylamine-N-oxide (TMAO), a pro-atherogenic metabolite of carnitine formed by intestinal microbiotic metabolism, after carnitine intake from red meat.<sup>150</sup> Whether long-term carnitine supplementation in GA1 is associated with an increased risk for developing atherosclerosis is unknown, and a vegetarian-based diet as used in GA1 seems to be protective. At present, the benefits of carnitine supplementation are believed to most probably outweigh the potential risks.

**Riboflavin:** Although biochemical effects (decreased GA and 3-OH-GA concentrations) following riboflavin

#### Recommendation #9 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Carnitine should be supplemented lifelong aiming to maintain the concentration of free carnitine in plasma or dried blood spots within the reference range.
Level of evidence	High to moderate (SIGN level 2++ to 4). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.

and reduces mortality in symptomatic individuals.<sup>20</sup> As a consequence, carnitine supplementation is recommended lifelong,<sup>49</sup> although no randomised controlled studies evaluating the selective effect of carnitine on clinical outcome are available.<sup>147,148</sup> In general, compliance rate of oral carnitine supplementation is good<sup>20,26,33,54</sup> comprising 100% of patients aged 0–6 years in a recent large NBS cohort study in Germany,<sup>1</sup> and also the majority of older individuals.<sup>23</sup>

An initial oral dosage of 100 mg carnitine/kg/day divided into three doses is recommended and then

supplementation have been reported,<sup>144,151,152</sup> there is no evidence that riboflavin improves the clinical outcome.<sup>20</sup> No standardised protocol for evaluation of riboflavin responsiveness exists, and no predictive genotype is known. Riboflavin can cause adverse gastrointestinal symptoms such as nausea and abdominal pain.

**Neuroprotective agents:** Drugs used with neuroprotective intention, such as antiepileptics (e.g. phenobarbital, topiramate, carbamazepine), creatine monohydrate, glutamate receptor antagonists (e.g. dextromethorphan) and antioxidants are not beneficial in GA1.<sup>31,54,153,154</sup>

Table 2 summarises recommendations for metabolic maintenance treatment.

## 5 | EMERGENCY TREATMENT

Since maintenance treatment alone is not sufficient to avoid acute encephalopathic crises, it is essential to conduct intermittent intensified emergency treatment during potentially catabolic episodes, for example, febrile illness, or perioperative/peri-interventional fasting periods during the first 6 years.<sup>2,28,33,35,53,54</sup> In the last three decades, emergency treatment has been established and recommended as an essential part of combined metabolic treatment.<sup>1,24,28,30,34,49,52,56,68,155–158</sup> Quality of emergency treatment is the strongest predictor of neurologic outcome, as demonstrated by several studies and a recent meta-analysis.<sup>1,5,30,34</sup> While individuals receiving adequate emergency (and maintenance) treatment mostly remain asymptomatic, inadequate or delayed start of emergency treatment results in a high risk of striatal

injury with mostly severe MD.<sup>1,5,28,158</sup> To avoid this, possible causes for delays should be identified, and preventive strategies should be followed (Table 3). Emergency treatment should be initiated immediately, with low clinical suspicion and intensified stepwise.

*Principles:* Emergency treatment follows elementary principles based on promoting anabolism and initiating specific detoxification measures that have been established for *intoxication-type* metabolic diseases<sup>159,160</sup>: (1) prevention or reversal of (potential) catabolism by administration of a high-energy intake (plus insulin in case of hyperglycaemia and/or lipids if required); (2) reduced production of neurotoxic GA and 3-OH GA by transient decrease or omission of natural protein for 24 (–48) h; (3) support of endogenous detoxification mechanisms and prevention of secondary carnitine depletion by increased carnitine supplementation and (4) if applicable, correction of dehydration, electrolyte imbalance and altered pH status via IV fluids.

*Start of emergency treatment:* acute encephalopathic crises may occur during *any* febrile illness, or

**TABLE 3** Strategies to optimise emergency treatment

Target topic	Proposed strategy
Education and training of parents	Parents should be informed in detail about natural history, maintenance and emergency treatment, prognosis and the particular risk for the manifestation of an acute encephalopathic crisis. Education should be performed regularly by the responsible metabolic centre.
Treatment protocols/Emergency cards	Written protocols for maintenance and emergency treatment should be regularly updated and provided to all persons involved (parents, metabolic centres, local hospitals and paediatricians). Also, an emergency card (preferably laminated) should be provided summarising key information and principles of emergency treatment and containing contact information of the metabolic centre.
Supplies	Adequate supplies of specialised dietetic products (maltodextrin, lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced amino acid mixtures) and medication required for maintenance and emergency treatment (carnitine, antipyretics) should always be maintained at home.
Close cooperation with local hospitals and paediatricians	After new diagnosis of GA1 in a child, the closest hospital and local paediatrician should be informed and instructed. Essential information including written treatment protocols should be provided <i>before</i> inpatient emergency treatment might be necessary. Inpatient emergency treatment can take place in the closest hospital if the responsible metabolic centre is far away. The responsible metabolic centre should be contacted for supervision without delay.
Holiday management	Those metabolic specialists/centres closest to the holiday resort should receive information about GA1 and the recent treatment <i>before</i> start of the vacation. Parents should be provided with contact information of the corresponding specialist.
Consultation of metabolic centre at infectious diseases	Parents or local hospitals/paediatricians should immediately inform the responsible metabolic centre if (1) temperature rises over 38.5°C, (2) vomiting/diarrhoea or other symptoms of intercurrent illness develop or (3) new neurologic symptoms occur. Management of emergency treatment should always be supervised by the responsible metabolic centre.
Perioperative management	If an elective surgical intervention is planned, the responsible metabolic centre should be informed <i>in advance</i> to discuss with surgeons and anaesthesiologists. In case of emergency surgical intervention, the responsible metabolic centre should be informed without delay to supervise perioperative management.



perioperative fasting periods during the striatal ‘window of vulnerability’ (age 0–6 years). Alarming symptoms include conditions that accelerate catabolism, such as fever, repeated vomiting and diarrhoea (with or without fever), and (new) manifestation of neurologic symptoms (i.e. reduced consciousness, muscular hypotonia, irritability, rigour, dystonia, chorea), which should all result in immediate start of emergency treatment. After the age of 6 years, no acute striatal injury has been reported<sup>5,20,26,33,54</sup> and clinical impact of emergency treatment is unclear, although not systematically studied. However, since potential subclinical cerebral injury during catabolic crises cannot be excluded the threshold to start emergency treatment should be low in these individuals.<sup>28,35,49</sup>

body temperature is below 38.5°C (101 °F), oral intake is tolerated and no alarming symptoms (i.e. alteration in level of consciousness, diarrhoea, vomiting, irritability, hypotonia, dystonia) are present. The child should be reassessed every 2 h for level of consciousness, fever and feeding tolerance requiring adequate training and education of the parents and reliable telephonic consultation by the supervising centre in case of emergency. For sufficient energy supply, parents may apply maltodextrin solutions or comparable carbohydrate supplementations orally or via tube feeding. If body temperature rises above 38.5°C, antipyretics such as ibuprofen or paracetamol should be administered as reduction of fever reduces energy requirement and has a positive effect on well-being, pain and feeding tolerance. If outpatient emergency treatment is well tolerated and alarming

#### Recommendation #10 [certified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	It is strongly recommended to start emergency treatment immediately and to perform it aggressively in any case of febrile illness, or alarming symptoms as well as during perioperative management within the vulnerable period for striatal injury (up to age 6 years).
Level of evidence	High to moderate (SIGN level 1+ to 4). Consistency of evidence is high.
Clinical relevance	Very high.

## 5.1 | Outpatient emergency treatment

Outpatient emergency treatment may be conducted at home if the individual is clinically well despite fever, the

symptoms do not occur, maintenance treatment should be reintroduced stepwise during the next 48 (–72) h.

Table 4 summarises recommendations for outpatient emergency treatment.

TABLE 4 Outpatient emergency treatment (up to age 6 years)

A. Oral carbohydrates <sup>a</sup>				
Age (years)	% <sup>b</sup>	kcal/100 ml	kJ/100 ml	Volume (ml)/day orally
Up to 0.5	10	40	167	Min. 150 ml/kg
0.5–1	12	48	202	120 ml/kg
1–2	15	60	250	100 ml/kg
2–6	20	80	334	1200–1500 ml
B. Protein intake				
Natural protein	According to emergency dietary plan. 50% reduction or stop for maximum of 24 h, then reintroduce and increase stepwise until the amount of maintenance treatment plan is reached within 48–72 h.			
AAM	AAM should be administered according to maintenance treatment, if tolerated (Table 2).			
C. Pharmacotherapy				
Carnitine	Double carnitine intake: for example, 200 mg/kg/d p.o. in infants.			
Antipyretics	If body temperature rises above 38.5°C (101 F), antipyretics, such as ibuprofen or paracetamol (each 10–15 mg/kg per single dose, 3–4 doses daily, maximum daily dose 60 mg/kg) should be administered.			

Note: AAM, lysine-free, tryptophan-reduced, arginine fortified amino acid mixtures.

<sup>a</sup>Maltodextrin solutions<sup>160</sup> should be administered every 2 h day and night. Concentrations may be adapted if clinically indicated. If AAM is tolerated it may be fortified with maltodextrin. Individuals should be reassessed every 2 h for level of consciousness, feed tolerance, fever and alarming symptoms.

<sup>b</sup>Referring to volume percent, that is, 100 g maltodextrin in 1000 ml water result in a 10% solution.

## 5.2 | Inpatient emergency treatment

Individuals should be transferred to the supervising metabolic centre or the closest local hospital (under supervision of the metabolic centre) without delay for immediate start of inpatient emergency treatment if alarming symptoms develop such as recurrent vomiting and/or diarrhoea, reduced feeding tolerance or intake of nutrients, high fever or suspicious neurologic signs.

Table 5 summarises recommendations for inpatient emergency treatment.

## 5.3 | Emergency treatment after age 6 years

Although acute encephalopathic crises have not been reported after age 6 years,<sup>2,5,20,26,28,54</sup> the possibility that febrile illness or surgical procedures may cause subclinical cerebral damage in this age period cannot be excluded. For this reason, emergency treatment after age 6 years may be administered during episodes

of severe illness or perioperative management in analogy to emergency treatment in younger patients with age-adapted glucose (age 7–10 years: 6–8 g/kg/24 h or 4–6 mg/kg/min; age 11–15 years: 4–7 g/kg/24 h or 3–5 mg/kg/min; >16 years: 3–5 g/kg/24 h or 2–4 mg/kg/min) and fluid supply. Clinical effect of emergency treatment in adolescents and adults has not been systematically studied, and only case reports are available.<sup>161,162</sup>

## 5.4 | Peripartum management in women with GA1

Systematic analyses on the effectiveness or necessity of emergency treatment during the peripartum period are not available and therefore, specific recommendations cannot be formulated. Uneventful clinical course for mother and child has been reported in two women receiving emergency treatment during the peripartum period,<sup>161,163</sup> but also in women not receiving emergency treatment.<sup>42</sup>

TABLE 5 Inpatient emergency treatment (up to age 6 years)

A. Intravenous infusions		
Glucose	Age (years)	Glucose (g/kg/day IV) <sup>a</sup>
	0–1	(12–) 15
	1–3	(10–) 12
	3–6	(8–) 10
Insulin	If persistent hyperglycaemia >150–180 mg/dl (>8–10 mmol/L) and/or glucosuria occurs, start with 0.025–0.05 IU insulin/kg/h IV and adjust the infusion rate according to serum glucose (aim: normoglycemia).	
B. Protein intake		
Natural protein	Stop for 24 (max. 48) h, then reintroduce and increase stepwise until the amount of maintenance treatment plan is reached within 48 (–72) h.	
AAM	AAM should be administered according to maintenance treatment, if tolerated, (Table 2).	
C. Pharmacotherapy		
Carnitine	Carnitine i.v. according to normal daily dose, that is, 100 mg/kg/d IV in infants (Table 1).	
Antipyretics	If body temperature rises >38.5°C (101 F), antipyretics, such as ibuprofen or paracetamol (each 10–15 mg/kg per single dose, 3–4 doses daily, maximum daily dose 60 mg/kg) should be administered.	
Sodium bicarbonate	In case of acidosis; alkalinisation of urine facilitates urinary excretion of organic acids	
D. Monitoring		
Vital signs	Heart rate, blood pressure, temperature, diuresis; Glasgow Coma Scale if reduced consciousness; assessment for neurologic signs (hypotonia, irritability, rigour, dystonia)	
Metabolic parameters	Blood: glucose, blood gases, creatine kinase, amino acids (plasma) <sup>b</sup> , carnitine (plasma or dried blood spots) Urine: ketone bodies, pH	
Routine laboratory	Electrolytes, blood count, creatinine, C-reactive protein, blood culture (if indicated)	

Abbreviation: AAM, amino acid mixtures.

<sup>a</sup>mg/kg/min \* 1.44 = g/kg/day.

<sup>b</sup>During the recovery phase.

**Recommendation #11 [modified 2022; consensus]**

Level of recommendation: 0 Recommendation for research	Emergency treatment after age 6 years can be administered during episodes of severe illness or perioperative management in analogy to the age group 0–6 years with individual adaptation of glucose and fluid intake.
Level of evidence	Low (SIGN level 3). Consistency of evidence is low.
Clinical relevance	Moderate to high.

## 6 | NEUROLOGIC COMPLICATIONS

Major neurologic complications comprise *acute* or *insidious-onset* of dystonic MD and SDH/hygrogram (mostly within the first 3 years of life). Prevalence of epilepsy was not increased in early treated individuals of the two largest NBS cohorts worldwide, but has been reported in symptomatic patients not identified by NBS.<sup>1,30,92</sup>

### 6.1 | Management of movement disorders

Striatal injury results in a complex MD mostly manifesting as dystonia (and/or chorea) with superimposed muscular hypotonia. With age, dystonic MD might evolve from being mobile to fixed and might be associated with akinetic-rigid parkinsonism or spasticity.<sup>20,28,33,54,154,164</sup> Dystonia reduces quality of life, causes pain and possibly life-threatening crises (status dystonicus). Severe dystonia is associated with increased mortality.<sup>1</sup>

including cerebral palsy and is recommended for assessment of generalised dystonia, but does not assess individual body areas and has not been evaluated for GA1.<sup>168,169</sup>

#### 6.1.2 | Drug therapy

Dystonic MD is generally difficult to treat, and evidence regarding the effectiveness of specific drugs is scarce<sup>170</sup> making a specific recommendation for treating MD impossible. Most frequently used substances are listed as follows.

**Baclofen:** Baclofen is a derivative of gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) and a centrally active muscle relaxant increasing spinal presynaptic inhibition and thus, decreasing muscle tone. Together with benzodiazepines, baclofen (as mono- or combination therapy) is the mostly used and apparently effective drug for long-term treatment of MD in GA1,<sup>33,154</sup> and dosing should follow general recommendations. In younger children with prominent axial hypotonia, use of baclofen may be limited due to worsening of muscular hypotonia. In several studies, also intrathecal administration of baclofen was successful if oral treatment was ineffective.<sup>31,171–173</sup>

**Recommendation #12 [certified 2022; consensus]**

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	Diagnosis and therapy of neurologic (i.e. movement disorder, symptomatic epileptic seizures) or neurosurgically treatable manifestations (SDH) should be managed by a neuropaediatrician/neurologist and/or neurosurgeon in close cooperation with metabolic specialists.
Level of evidence	High to moderate (SIGN level 2++ to 3).
Clinical relevance	High.

#### 6.1.1 | Dystonia rating scales

Evaluation of dystonic MD should comprise clinical localisation and severity. The *Barry–Albright Dystonia Rating Scale*<sup>165,166</sup> has been used in some studies,<sup>28,167</sup> but may be of limited use in infants and young children since it likely underestimates the severity of MD in this age group due to severe truncal hypotonia.<sup>28</sup> The *Fahn–Marsden Dystonia Rating Scale (FMDRS)* has been used in hyperkinetic MD

**Benzodiazepines:** Diazepam and clonazepam are often used in combination with baclofen and showed positive effects in more than 90% of symptomatic individuals.<sup>31,33,154</sup> Dosages should be administered according to general recommendations. To prevent tachyphylaxis, intermittent treatment may be necessary.

**Zopiclone and Zolpidem:** Zopiclone is a cyclopyrrolone with sedative, hypnotic, anxiolytic and muscle-relaxant qualities. In contrast to other benzodiazepines, its

pharmacodynamic effect is non-selectively mediated by the GABA<sub>A</sub> and GABA-Ω-(BZ1 and BZ2) receptor complex and modulation of chloride channel with a low risk of developing tolerance and addiction. Treated individuals do not show increased daytime sleepiness but, in contrast, are more relaxed and awake during the day as they are less affected by their MD during night-time. Cautious dose adaptation and stepwise reduction are important, preferably provided in an inpatient setting. Positive effects of zopiclone, primarily used in non-metabolic dystonia, were demonstrated by reducing the hyperkinetic elements of MD and muscle tone.<sup>174</sup>

Zolpidem, an imidazopyridine, is a benzodiazepine-like drug with hypnotic qualities and an agonist with high affinity to Ω-(BZ1) receptor subunit of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. It showed positive effects in a study with 34 dystonic adults, particularly on generalised dystonia and dystonia primarily affecting the hands. Effects were shown to be comparable with trihexyphenidyl.<sup>175</sup>

**Anticholinergic drugs:** If treatment with baclofen and/or benzodiazepines is not effective or adverse effects occur, anticholinergic drugs may be considered as second-line medication. Evidence on trihexyphenidyl is heterogeneous. It was shown to be effective in individual cases,<sup>170</sup> also in children with secondary dystonia.<sup>176,177</sup> A recently published review assessed trihexyphenidyl as possibly ineffective in patients with dystonic cerebral palsy.<sup>171</sup> Some adverse effects (e.g. blurred vision and dry mouth) usually are temporary whereas memory loss and confusion mostly persist and require dosage reduction. Ocular tonometry should be regularly performed in adults.

**Botulinum toxin:** Botulinum toxin type A, usually administered every 3–6 months, was successfully used to prevent hip dislocation and reduce limb dystonia.<sup>170</sup> Some individuals may develop antibodies against the toxin requiring cessation of treatment.<sup>178</sup>

**Gabapentin:** Gabapentin modulates voltage-dependent calcium channels reducing excitatory neurotransmission in the CNS. It decreases muscle tone, has additional analgetic and antiepileptic qualities and had positive effects on dystonia, pain, quality of life and sleep in a retrospective study with 69 children without GA1.<sup>179</sup>

**Drugs without benefit or adverse effects:** In the past, also anticonvulsive medication has been used for treating MD in GA1<sup>31,33,154</sup>: *Vigabatrin* and *valproate* showed clinical benefit in 10%–25%. *Vigabatrin* may induce peripheral visual field defects and (mostly reversible) T2-hyperintensities in pallidum, thalamus and brainstem as putative side effects. *Valproate* may influence mitochondrial acyl-CoA/CoA ratio negatively. Therefore, these drugs should not be used for treatment in GA1. In the clinical experience of the GDG, *Carbamazepine*, *L-DOPA* and *amantadine* were ineffective.

### 6.1.3 | Neurosurgery

Stereotactic surgery (pallidotomy) has been reported for three severely dystonic individuals with GA1. In two patients, clinical outcome was poor,<sup>54</sup> whereas short-term improvement of dystonia was reported in another.<sup>180</sup> Data on long-term outcome after pallidotomy are not available. Bilateral deep brain stimulation of the internal globus pallidum reduced dystonia and slightly improved motor function in one patient<sup>181</sup> while minor improvement was also observed in a patient with atypical hemi-dystonia due to unilateral striatal necrosis after acute encephalopathic crisis.<sup>32</sup> However, no effect was detected in another patient with classical, severe *acute-onset* MD (*personal communication Dr. Cif, Montpellier*). Although positive effects on pain scale were reported,<sup>182</sup> disparate motor outcome with slight improvement but also decline after deep brain stimulation was observed in patients with hereditary degenerative dystonia including two GA1 patients.<sup>183</sup> A recent review, however, not including GA1, showed a positive effect primarily in 52 children with primary dystonia (e.g. *DYT1*-associated) in contrast to heterogeneous outcome in 24 individuals with secondary dystonia.<sup>184</sup>

### 6.1.4 | Orthopaedic treatment

In a retrospective study, 30% of 114 symptomatic patients underwent surgery due to orthopaedic complications (e.g. scoliosis, hip dislocation).<sup>185</sup>

## 6.2 | Epilepsy

Prevalence of epilepsy was not increased in early treated individuals of the two largest NBS cohorts worldwide,<sup>1,30</sup> but was reported in single late diagnosed patients.<sup>92</sup> Seizures are particularly reported during or shortly after an acute encephalopathic crisis<sup>20,31,33,54,153</sup> but dystonic MD may also be mistaken as seizures.<sup>186</sup> Studies on effectiveness of antiepileptic agents do not exist. Therefore, choice of treatment should follow seizure semiology and EEG patterns. *Valproate* and *vigabatrin* should be avoided due to their risk of developing mitochondrial dysfunction.

## 6.3 | Subdural haemorrhage and arachnoid cysts

**Neurosurgery (see also recommendation #12):** Only a few older reports of individuals with GA1 undergoing neurosurgical procedures to treat arachnoid cysts and/or SDH

are available.<sup>112,115,117,118</sup> Postoperative neurologic outcome was mostly poor, and symptoms often worsened. In addition, neurosurgical interventions in undiagnosed and untreated individuals increase the risk for acute encephalopathic crisis. Perioperative metabolic management should be based on recommendations no. 10 and 11 for emergency treatment and be supervised by a specialised centre experienced in treatment of inherited metabolic diseases.

## 7 | VACCINATIONS

Systematic studies on vaccination in individuals with GA1 do not exist. Importantly, besides upper respiratory tract infections, gastroenteritis, pneumonia and meningitis are the main trigger factors for developing acute encephalopathic crises<sup>20</sup> and quality of preventive emergency treatment has the strongest impact on neurologic outcome. Since the reduction of potential risk factors for developing acute encephalopathic crisis is of essential importance immunisation according to national recommendations should be performed in individuals with GA1 without any limitations. The GDG has not experienced any complications in GA1 patients in relation to vaccination since implementation of NBS. In single cases without NBS, GA1 was unmasked by febrile reactions after vaccination.<sup>187</sup> For treatment of febrile reaction to vaccinations see recommendations #10 and chapter 'emergency treatment'.

## 7.1 | Education concomitant to treatment

According to the German-Nutrition Care Process (G-NCP) 'process-guided nutrition therapy' comprises nutrition assessment, diagnosis, intervention, monitoring and evaluation as well as regular interaction with the treatment team<sup>125</sup> aiming at optimising treatment quality. In GA1, treatment quality is the prognostically most relevant factor and should therefore be regularly discussed in detail with patients and their families to ensure sufficient understanding and compliance.<sup>1,5</sup> Systematic education comprises information on pathogenesis, clinical course, treatment and prognosis and should include written information (parental guide, emergency card, dietary treatment plans).

Regular education and consultation help to improve outcomes and quality of life and were also demanded by affected families as well as the patients' representative in the GDG.<sup>188</sup>

## 8 | CLINICAL MONITORING

### 8.1 | General aims

Biomarkers predicting outcome in GA1 are not known. Clinical monitoring and regular follow-up examinations aim at evaluating and controlling effectiveness of treatment, assessing the patient's development and

#### Recommendation #13 [new 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	All patients with GA1 should be vaccinated according to national recommendations.
Level of evidence	Low to moderate, since systematic data are not available (SIGN level 2– to 3) but level of evidence on association of febrile illness with development of acute encephalopathic crises and strong impact of preventive emergency treatment on outcome is high (1– to 2+). The recommendation is based on clinical experience of the GDG and the high clinical relevance.
Clinical relevance	High.

#### Recommendation #14 [new 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Age-specific education and information of affected patients and their families on disease course, treatment and prognosis as well as socio-legal advice and evaluation of quality of life should be regularly provided by an interdisciplinary team including experts in metabolic medicine, nutritional therapy, physiotherapy, social-advice and psychology.
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 3). Consistency of evidence is high.
Clinical relevance	High.

clinical status, adapting dietary treatment plans, and detecting new symptoms, complications or side effects of maintenance and pharmacologic treatment. Recommended parameters for monitoring should (1) be reliable and predictive for outcome, (2) allow therapeutic decisions, (3) have acceptable reproducibility, (4) be sufficiently affordable and (5) practical<sup>189</sup> and should include expertise from paediatricians, metabolic specialists, nutritional therapists and dietitians as well as consultations from other specialities (e.g. neuropaediatricians, psychologists, physiotherapists, speech therapists, occupational therapists and social workers).

Table 6 summarises recommendations for clinical monitoring.

## 8.2 | Biochemical monitoring

**Organic acids:** Quantification of urinary GA and 3-OH-GA biochemically confirms the diagnosis GA1 and classifies patients as HE or LE. While GA and 3-OH-GA remain elevated in most patients, also initial decrease in HE patients has been reported after start of maintenance treatment,<sup>29,33,34,54</sup> but not in LE.<sup>153</sup> A subgroup of HE patients (termed *intermediate*) with moderately elevated GA concentrations prior to treatment (100–1000 mmol/mol creatinine) shows decrease to the range of LE under maintenance treatment.<sup>25</sup>

Urinary or plasma concentrations of GA and 3-OH-GA do not correlate with the clinical course, risk for developing *acute-* or *insidious-onset* MD and renal function and therefore are not useful as biomarkers.<sup>1,5,19,20,51,52,56</sup> Clinical impact of more frequent extrastriatal abnormalities and increased in vivo concentrations of intracerebral GA in HE patients is unclear.<sup>21,22</sup> Moreover, HE phenotype seems to be a risk factor for long-term cognitive impairment, while individuals with LE and intermediate phenotype showed normal development, as recently demonstrated.<sup>25</sup> However, differences between HE and LE are not influenced by treatment quality (see ‘Biochemical subtype and maintenance treatment’).

**Amino acids:** Quantitative analysis of plasma amino acids aims at evaluating supply with essential amino acids in patients with a low lysine diet.<sup>123,124</sup> There is no clear-cut correlation between plasma lysine concentrations and lysine intake.<sup>36,51</sup> Although the ‘optimal’ lysine concentration within the age-specific normal range is unknown, concentrations of essential amino acids in patients on a low lysine diet with AAM supplementation and favourable neurologic outcome have shown to be mostly within the normal range.<sup>30,51</sup> Plasma amino acids profiles may furthermore be helpful for detecting deviations from maintenance treatment recommendations (e.

g. too low/ high lysine/ protein intake or feeding problems) that are associated with an increased risk for *insidious-onset-dystonia*.<sup>1,5</sup>

Since implementation of lysin-free, tryptophan-reduced AAMs, tryptophan deficiency has not been reported in individuals receiving these AAMs. If tryptophan deficiency is clinically suspected, plasma tryptophan level should be measured using HPLC or MS/MS as tryptophan cannot be measured accurately by conventional amino acid analysis.<sup>190,191</sup>

**Carnitine status:** Carnitine supplementation compensates secondary depletion of free carnitine and, in combination with dietary treatment, has a positive impact on neurological outcome.<sup>2,5,20,26,28,30,33,143</sup> Selective effect of carnitine on outcome remains unknown. Carnitine status also provides useful information on treatment compliance. There are no systematic analyses on differences between free carnitine concentrations in plasma vs. DBS. Internal analysis of 99 samples (metabolic laboratory Heidelberg) showed a linear correlation of analysis in DBS (unbutylated MS/MS method) and plasma (butylated photometric analysis), and therefore both methods are feasible. However, use of butylated method in DBS may result in false-high concentrations of free carnitine (*personal communication, Prof. Okun, Metabolic Laboratory Heidelberg, September 2021*). Plasma concentration of carnitine peaks 2–4 h after intake<sup>192</sup> and thus, analysis as 12 h trough level is recommended. Plasma concentrations of carnitine usually are within the upper (normal) range if administered according to recommendations in Table 2.<sup>51,52</sup>

**Acylcarnitine profile:** C5DC concentrations increase markedly with carnitine supplementation,<sup>3,17,75</sup> but regular analysis of C5DC or other acylcarnitines in DBS or serum are not useful for monitoring.

### 8.2.1 | Renal function

Increased frequency of chronic renal dysfunction in adolescent and adult patients has been reported as a new, extra-neurologic disease manifestation appearing independently of the neurological phenotype.<sup>45</sup> Prospectively followed patients identified by NBS showed mild decline of kidney function ( $n = 3$  CKD stage 2;  $n = 10$  intermittent CKD stage 2–3a) independently from biochemical subtype or treatment quality starting in school age to adolescence and adulthood.<sup>1</sup> Clinical relevance is unclear and according to the literature and experience of the GDG, none of the patients underwent dialysis. Moreover, acute renal failure has been described in single patients, including a case of lethal atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome.<sup>193–195</sup> Pathomechanistic studies revealed

TABLE 6 Clinical monitoring

Domain	Clinical endpoints	Frequency at age			
		0–1 year	1–6 years	>6 years	>18 years
History	General history and development, intercurrent infections, outpatient or inpatient emergency treatment, dietary treatment, pharmacotherapy, vaccinations, regular paediatric preventive examinations	Every 3 months	Every 6 months	1/year	1/year
Anthropometrics	Body weight, body length, head circumference	Every 3 months	Every 6 months	1/year	1/year
Clinical status	General examination, developmental milestones, neurologic status including fine motor skills, evaluation of MD like dystonia, chorea, tremor, muscle weakness, speech articulation and reception, behaviour, concentration, development	Every 3 months	Every 6 months	1/year	1/year
Nutrition therapy	Daily lysine intake (mg/kg/day), daily intake of natural protein and protein from AAM (g/kg/day), calories (kcal/kg/day), fat intake (g/kg/day)	Every 3 months	Every 6 months	1/year	1/year
Laboratory parameters	See Table 7	Every 3 months	Every 6 months	1/year	1/year
Neuroradiology	cMRI (see recommendation #21) detection/follow up of extrastriatal abnormalities (see recommendation #22)	At any neurologic deterioration		If applicable from age 10 years, every 2–5 years	
Developmental parameters of motor and psychologic functions	Regular evaluation of intelligence, motor function and speech/language (see recommendation #23)	At 12 and 24 months: <i>BSID-III/Denver-Scales</i> At 3 years: <i>WPPSI-III/IV</i> At 5 years: <i>WPPSI-III/IV</i> Patients with (severe) MD: <i>Raven's Progressive Matrices 2, 2019</i> (if cognitive functions allow participation) <i>Vineland Adaptive Behaviour Scales, Third Edition, 2021</i> (if cognitive functions do not allow participation)		At 8 years: <i>WISC-V</i>	At 18 years: <i>WAIS-IV</i>
Quality of life	Separate assessment of quality of life for affected individuals and their parents	1/year			

(Continues)

TABLE 6 (Continued)

Domain	Clinical endpoints	Frequency at age			
		0–1 year	1–6 years	>6 years	>18 years
Psychosocial counselling	Reimbursement of expenses for medication or travel, handicapped ID, etc.	At initial presentation	On request		
Genetic counselling	Basic genetic information, examination of further family members, family planning, prenatal diagnostics, etc.	At diagnosis and on request during follow-up (i.e. in context of transition).			

Abbreviations: BSID-III, Bayley Scales of Infant and Toddler Development, Third Edition 2006; cMRI, cerebral magnetic resonance imaging; MD, movement disorder; WAIS-IV, Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, Fourth Edition, 2012; WISC-V, Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Fifth Edition, 2017; WPPSI-III, Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence, Third Edition 2006; WPPSI-IV, Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence, Fourth Edition 2018.

#### Recommendation #15 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	Therapeutic effectiveness and adverse side effects should be monitored by regular follow-up investigations and intensified in case of symptom progress or non-adherence to treatment recommendations. For recommended endpoints of clinical monitoring see recommendations #17–20, 23, 24 and Table 6.
Level of evidence	High to moderate (SIGN level 1+ to 4).
Clinical relevance	Depending on each endpoint.

#### Recommendation #16 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Analysis of urinary concentrations of GA and 3-OH-GA should not be used for monitoring or adaption of treatment.
Level of evidence	Moderate to high (SIGN level 1+ to 3). Consistency of evidence is high.
Clinical relevance	Low.

#### Recommendation #17 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: A Strong recommendation	Concentrations of plasma amino acids should be regularly quantified in patients with low lysine diet (3–4 h postprandially) and be maintained within the age-specific normal range (Table 5).
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 2++ to 4). Consistency of evidence is high.
Clinical relevance	High.

#### Recommendation #18 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Concentration of free carnitine in plasma or dried blood spots should be monitored regularly in all individuals with GA1. Trough level concentration of free carnitine (at least 12 h after last administration) should be maintained within the reference range.
Level of evidence	Moderate to high (SIGN level 1+ to 4). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.



TABLE 7 Routine laboratory monitoring

Parameter	Rationale	Frequency at age			
		0–1 years	1–6 years	>6 years	>18 years
Amino acids (plasma)	General nutritional status	Every 3 months	Every 6 months	Every 12 months	Every 12 months
Carnitine status (plasma, serum or DBS)	Secondary carnitine depletion, compliance	Every 3 months	Every 6 months	Every 12 months	Every 12 months
Creatinine, cystatin C, GFR If applicable, spot urine	Kidney function <sup>a</sup>	–	–	Every 12 months	Every 12 months
Complete blood count, calcium, phosphorous, albumin, liver enzymes, parathormone, ferritin, vitamin B12, alkaline phosphatase, CK	General nutritional and metabolic status, bone metabolism <sup>b</sup>	Only at clinical abnormalities, that is, signs for malnutrition, failure to thrive, feeding problems or signs of deviations from maintenance treatment recommendations. CK only in case of severe dystonia/status dystonicus and/or new clinical symptoms (pain/weakness) or signs of rhabdomyolysis.			

Abbreviations: CK, creatine kinase; DBS, dried blood spots; GFR, glomerular filtration rate.

<sup>a</sup>Kidney function (GFR) can be measured in blood by measuring creatinine or cystatin C (calculation of GFR according to Schwartz formula). In dystrophic patients, creatinine concentration may be reduced. Screening analyses in spot urine allow differentiation between tubular and glomerular nephropathy (protein-to-creatinine-ratio,  $\alpha 1/\beta 2$ -microglobuline). Time-consuming analysis in 24 h urine depends on methodically correct specimen and therefore is per se not justified.

<sup>b</sup>If abnormal bone mineralisation is suspected, additional tests are required (e.g. radiological investigations for bone age and density).

strong GCDH expression,<sup>196</sup> and interference of GA and 3-OH-GA with organic anion transporters in proximal renal tubule cells,<sup>197</sup> as well as acute nephrotoxic effects induced my metabolic crisis but also chronic nephrotoxic effects in animal models.<sup>46,47</sup>

## 8.2.2 | Biochemical monitoring during acute illness

Patients are at increased risk for developing acute encephalopathic crisis during episodes of fever, recur-

Recommendation #19 [new 2022; strong consensus]	
Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Renal function should be assessed yearly starting from age 6 years (Table 7).
Level of evidence	Moderate to high (SIGN level 2++ to 4). Consistency of evidence is moderate to high.
Clinical relevance	Moderate.

*Additional laboratory monitoring:* Basic laboratory and nutritional parameters (Table 7) may be helpful for detecting insufficient intake of micronutrients or energy substrates,<sup>93,124</sup> but are usually normal during the first 6 years of life in patients receiving adequate maintenance treatment.<sup>51</sup> Therefore, it is sufficient to analyse these parameters only in case of clinical indication or deviations from maintenance treatment recommendations.

Table 7 summarises recommendations for routine laboratory monitoring.

rent vomiting, diarrhoea and/or reduced intake of nutrients and fluids, possibly resulting in dehydration, imbalance of electrolytes and metabolic acidosis which should be assessed and recognised on admission followed by adjusted emergency treatment (Table 5) aiming at timely metabolic compensation.<sup>20,26,31,33,54,69</sup> CK concentration should be monitored in case of severe MD/status dystonicus and/or signs of rhabdomyolysis.<sup>198</sup>

## 8.2.3 | Neuroradiological monitoring

*Clinical monitoring after head trauma:* GA1 is associated with increased risk of developing traumatic or incidental SDH (see diagnostics, subdural haemorrhage and arachnoid cysts). SDH may occur even under recommended treatment and without macrocephaly.<sup>199</sup> Exact frequency of SDH after head trauma in GA1 has not been studied. A recent study including eight patients with SDH demonstrated that (1) manifestation of SDH peaks at age 10–14 months, but does not occur after age 36 months, (2) has only been observed in HE patients, but, (3) individuals with incidental SDH mostly remain asymptomatic and (4) rarely show ‘absolute’ but rather ‘relative’ macrocephaly, that is, widened external CSF spaces and disproportion of cranial cavity versus brain tissue resulting in widened arachnoid spaces, which declines with age.<sup>24</sup> Therefore, even after minimal or mild head trauma, patients should be closely monitored in an inpatient setting. Of note, planned clinical observation in such individuals has been shown to reduce the use of neuroradiological imaging.<sup>200</sup>

*acute-on-insidious onset* MD mostly manifest clinically within the first 3 years of life and can be distinguished neuroradiologically by different striatal patterns. However, single *insidious-onset* patients may show a latency phase of several years between MRI and clinical manifestation.<sup>37</sup> Since development of MD may not be prevented therapeutically after striatal injury has already occurred, there is no evidence for the necessity of serial MRI scans *without* clinical indication during the phase of striatal vulnerability, that is, the first 6 years of life. However, MRI imaging should always be performed in all age groups in case of (new) clinical signs of MD, SDH or other new or significantly aggravated neurologic symptoms.

Brain MRI including diffusion-weighted imaging detects striatal lesions earlier and more precisely than computer tomography.<sup>35,56,68,98,100,111,191,201–205</sup> Frontotemporal hypoplasia can also be detected by cranial ultrasound,<sup>206</sup> even prenatally during last trimester of pregnancy.<sup>207,208</sup>

Minimum technical criteria for MRI scans comprise age-adapted sequences, axial T2-, FLAIR and T1-

### Recommendation #20 [modified 2022; consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Patients should be admitted to a hospital and closely monitored for at least 24 h even after minimal or mild head trauma within the first 3 years of life due to the increased risk for developing SDH.
Level of evidence	Moderate to high (SIGN level 1– to 4). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	Moderate to high. Effect of inpatient clinical monitoring has not been systematically investigated but is supported by the clinical experience of the GDG.

*Detection/monitoring of striatal and extrastriatal CNS abnormalities:* GA1 patients show characteristic patterns of striatal and extrastriatal MRI abnormalities (Table S3,

weighted sequences, diffusion-weighted sequence with ADC maps, and, if applicable, 3D-sequence for detection of small subependymal nodules.

### Recommendation #21 [modified 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Neuroradiological examination should be performed in all age groups if neurological symptoms occur or deteriorate significantly.
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 2+ to 4). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.

Figure 1, recommendation #2).

*Striatal abnormalities:* Striatal abnormalities, particularly in the putamen, have a high clinical relevance and are strongly associated with dystonic MD.<sup>100,102</sup> *Acute-onset* (median age 270 days, range 147–570), *insidious-onset* (median age 630 days, range 180–1680 days) and

*Extrastriatal abnormalities:* Extrastriatal abnormalities in GA1 occur frequently, are inter-individually variable and dynamic with age.<sup>101</sup> Presumably caused by chronic neurotoxicity their clinical relevance remains unknown.<sup>21</sup> Compared to LE, HE patients show progressive extrastriatal abnormalities and increased

concentrations of GA and 3-OH-GA with age detected in vivo by  $^1\text{H-MRS}$ .<sup>22</sup> Late-diagnosed (*late-onset*) patients characteristically show frontotemporal hypoplasia and subependymal nodules at the ventricular roof starting from age 12 years with slow progression, so far without histopathological investigation,<sup>21,44,57</sup> and also reported in single early-treated patients identified by NBS.<sup>21,209</sup> Furthermore, three cases of malignant brain tumours (medulloblastoma, glioblastoma) in individuals not receiving guideline-according maintenance treatment have been published. However, causal association with GA1 remains unclear.<sup>58</sup> A recent retrospective French study revealed thickening of the chiasma opticum in six of 10 patients.<sup>210</sup>

Serial MRI scans may prove effectiveness of metabolic treatment, that is, normalisation of extrastriatal abnormalities such as frontotemporal hypoplasia as a correlate of effective reduction of neurotoxicity,<sup>101,211</sup> but do not have an immediate clinical impact. However, progredient subependymal mass lesions may potentially develop clinical relevance due to the theoretical risk of CSF circulatory dysfunction and malignancy.

years ago, it was assumed that the intellect is 'spared' in GA1<sup>7</sup> which was confirmed in small case series without control groups using differing methodologies.<sup>52,68,213</sup> A Taiwanese study reported on nine children identified by NBS with normal cognitive functions.<sup>55</sup> Another study with 30 patients using computer-based test battery for information processing showed similar neuropsychological functions in asymptomatic patients compared to a healthy control group, whereas dystonia primarily influenced performance in tests measuring motor speed but not tests with higher cognitive demand.<sup>167</sup> A recent US study reported on normal psychomotor development in 60 patients identified by NBS and normal cognitive functions in 10 of them.<sup>30</sup>

In contrast, IQ and cognitive dysfunction may also be impaired in early and late-treated children.<sup>214–216</sup> Cognitive performance of 72 prospectively followed individuals identified by NBS in Germany was lower than average range (mean IQ of 87) and impacted by biochemical subtype with LE patients showing normal cognitive performance (mean IQ 98) while HE patients had significantly lower results (mean IQ 84), independent of treatment quality or motor

#### Recommendation #22 [new 2022; strong consensus]

Level of recommendation: 0	Routine MRI investigations for detection and/or monitoring of extrastriatal abnormalities (subependymal noduli, white matter abnormalities) can be started from age 10 years and repeated depending on results, for example, every 2–5 years.
Recommendation for research	
Level of evidence	Moderate (SIGN level 2+ to 3). Consistency of evidence is high.
Clinical relevance	Moderate.

### 8.2.4 | Monitoring of specific neurologic functions

**Polyneuropathy:** So far, polyneuropathy was only reported in two adult *late-onset* patients,<sup>21,44</sup> but systematic studies on prevalence in early or lately treated patients do not exist.

**Hearing function:** A recent Taiwanese study with 13 patients, with methodical limitations, however, reported on mild hearing impairment, particularly in patients after intensive care treatment.<sup>212</sup> It is unknown whether early or late-treated individuals with GA1 are generally at increased risk for developing hearing impairment.

### 8.2.5 | Developmental diagnostics of motoric and psychological functions

Chronic neurotoxicity and frequent structural abnormalities (Table S3) may influence cognitive functions. Thirty

phenotype.<sup>25</sup> There are also case reports on cognitive decline and dementia in late diagnosed patient.<sup>21,40</sup>

Standardised monitoring of psychological functions should include intelligence (developmental quotient in younger children), motor functions (including fine motor skills), and language (Table 6) and, in case of detection of specific deficits, enable start of supportive treatment intervention, such as occupational, speech or psychotherapy. Since cognitive studies only included a small number of patients with severe MD, adjusted test instruments are recommended for these patients (Table 6).

### 8.2.6 | Quality of life

Since metabolic diseases treated with diet have a huge influence on average-day life, assessment of psychosocial factors and quality of life in affected individuals and families is an important part of long-term management.<sup>217–219</sup> Individuals with organic acidurias show more

**Recommendation #23 [modified 2022; strong consensus]**

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Intelligence/developmental quotient, motor functions and language should be evaluated regularly to detect specific deficits and allow start of supportive treatment. For severely affected patients, adjusted test batteries should be used (Table 6).
Level of evidence	Moderate to high (SIGN level 2++ to 3). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.

behavioural and emotional problems, and impact of the disease may be a greater burden on the family than on the patient.<sup>220</sup> Therefore, psychosocial effects and quality of life should be regularly assessed in affected patients and their families (see recommendation #14).

## 9 | MEDICAL HEALTH CARE PROCEDURE

No systematic studies are available to determine optimal health care management of GA1. Based on the best clinical experience the GDG recommends the following procedure.

After confirmation of diagnosis (Figure 1), the patient is admitted to an interdisciplinary centre experienced in managing metabolic diseases for a short-period inpatient stay. Maintenance treatment is initiated (Table 2), and parents are theoretically and practically educated in the importance of metabolic maintenance and emergency treatment and recognising symptoms that indicate impending catabolism. Psychosocial advice, emergency cards including optimising strategies (Tables 3 and 4) and contact information of the metabolic centre are provided. Frequency and content of regular follow-up investigations are explained. Use of interpreters may be required. Long-term management requires close cooperation of the metabolic centre with local hospitals (e.g. for emergency treatment), local general paediatricians (e.g. vaccinations,

day-care centres. Moreover, translation of new research findings into clinical management is of huge importance.

### 9.1 | Transition to adult medicine and long-term care

In analogy to other metabolic diseases, adult patients with GA1 should be followed by adult physicians experienced in managing metabolic diseases aiming at (1) maintaining and monitoring general treatment compliance, (2) detection of disease-specific long-term complications and (3) managing of adult-specific medical issues (e.g. metabolic syndrome, diseases of musculoskeletal system, fertility and family planning). Transition should be broached early (e.g. starting at age 14 years) and organised as a continuous and interdisciplinary process. In Germany, Austria and Switzerland, transitional care concepts for rare diseases are increasingly being developed in which adult internal specialists initially see affected individuals together with the paediatric treatment team, and later on independently.<sup>221</sup> If supervision by adult specialists is not possible, follow-up should be continued by the paediatric metabolic centre.

In chronic diseases, problems with compliance in puberty and early adulthood may negatively impact outcome.<sup>222</sup> As long-term course of metabolic diseases is still unknown, continuous supervision by a metabolic is essential.

**Recommendation #24 [new 2022; strong consensus]**

Level of recommendation: B Recommendation	Starting from age 14 years and depending on local health care structures, transition (interdisciplinary paediatric-internal consultation) followed by transfer to adult medicine should be broached and organised as a structured and standardised procedure.
Level of evidence	Low (SIGN level 3). Consistency of evidence is moderate.
Clinical relevance	High.

regular medical check-ups), specialised outpatient departments, family support groups (exchange of experience) and other facilities, such as schools, kindergartens and

Although several aspects of neuropathogenesis, phenotypic spectrum and clinical long-term course are still unclear, knowledge on GA1 has continuously increased

since the first publication of the guideline 15 years ago.<sup>48</sup> Following the first two revisions of the guideline<sup>49,50</sup> treatment concepts have further been optimised and implemented into clinical practice. Early timepoint of diagnosis facilitated by NBS and continuous adherence to maintenance and emergency treatment recommendations have led to significantly improved outcomes. For this third revision of proposed recommendations new recent research findings, such as increasing evidence for the impact of treatment quality on outcome, evolving phenotypic diversity and variant disease courses, long-term outcome, neuroradiological and extraneurological manifestations as well as the perspective of affected individuals have been implemented, and hopefully will be accepted and practiced.

### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Some authors have already been involved in the initial guideline developmental process (2003–2006), the first publication of the guideline,<sup>48</sup> the first revision and publication,<sup>50</sup> and the second revision and publication,<sup>49</sup> whereas others have contributed for the first time. This third guideline revision followed the criteria of SIGN (*Scottish Intercollegiate Guideline Network; publication no. 50, 2014*) and GRADE (*Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation*). For this purpose, selection and formulation of guideline topics and systematic search and evaluation of the literature have been performed. The guideline development group (GDG) met to discuss levels of evidence, clinical relevance and benefit and harms for affected individuals and to formulate recommendations. Writing and review of draft versions of single recommendations and repeated discussions followed. Members of the GDG worked in sub-groups on three major topics, that is, (1) diagnostic work-up, (2) metabolic maintenance, emergency treatment and management of neurologic manifestations and (3) clinical monitoring. All GDG members have contributed to the manuscript which has also been reviewed and revised by external consultants. The following list specifies authors' involvement and contribution to different working groups. Nikolas Boy (Guarantor): Chairman of the guideline group, coordinator for working group 3; writing of the draft manuscript. Esther M. Maier: Coordinator for working group 1. Chris Mühlhausen: Coordinator for working group 2. E. M. Charlotte Märtner: Secretary of the guideline group. Stefan Kölker: Working group 2, initial guideline group coordinator (2003–2015), writing of the draft manuscript. Diana Ballhausen: Working group 2. Peter Burgard: Moderation. Sandra Fleissner: Working group 2. Karina Grohmann-Held: Working group 3. Gabriele Hahn: Working group 1. Inga Harting: Working groups 1 and 3. Jana Heringer-Seifert: Working

group 3. Georg F. Hoffmann: Working group 1. Frank Jochum: Working group 2. Daniela Karall: Working group 3. Michael B. Krawinkel: Working group 2. Martin Lindner: Working group 1. Jürgen G. Okun: Working group 1. Barbara Plecko: Working group 2. Roland Posset: Working group 2. Katja Sahn: Working group 2. Eva Thimm: Working group 2. Stephan vom Dahl: Working group 3. Magdalena Walter: Working group 3. Johannes Zschocke: Working group 1. *External consultants:* Vassiliki Konstantopolous: External consultant focusing on working group 2. Jean-Marc Nuoffer: External consultant focusing on working group 1. Sabine Scholl-Bürgi: External consultant focusing on working groups 1–3. Athanasia Ziaqaki: External consultant focusing on working groups 1–3. Skadi Beblo: External consultant focusing on working groups 1–3. Dries Dobbelaere: External consultant focusing on working groups 1–3. Matthias R. Baumgartner: External consultant focusing on working groups 1–3. Kimberly A. Chapman: External consultant focusing on working groups 1–3. Monique Williams: External consultant focusing on working groups 1–3.

### AFFILIATIONS

<sup>1</sup>Centre for Child and Adolescent Medicine, Department of General Paediatrics, Division of Neuropaediatrics and Metabolic Medicine, University Hospital Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany

<sup>2</sup>Department of Paediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, University Medical Centre, Göttingen, Germany

<sup>3</sup>Dr von Hauner Children's Hospital, Ludwig-Maximilians-University of Munich, University of Munich Medical Centre, Munich, Germany

<sup>4</sup>Paediatric Metabolic Unit, Paediatrics, Woman-Mother-Child Department, Lausanne University Hospital and University of Lausanne, Switzerland

<sup>5</sup>Division of Metabolism and Children's Research Centre, University Children's Hospital Zurich, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

<sup>6</sup>Department of Women and Child Health, Hospital for Children and Adolescents, Centre for Paediatric Research Leipzig (CPL), University Hospitals, University of Leipzig, Leipzig, Germany

<sup>7</sup>Rare Disease Institute, Children's National Health System, Washington, District of Columbia, USA

<sup>8</sup>Department of Paediatric Metabolism, Reference Centre of Inherited Metabolic Disorders, Jeanne de Flandre Hospital, Lille, France

<sup>9</sup>Centre for Child and Adolescent Medicine, University Hospital Greifswald, Greifswald, Germany

<sup>10</sup>Department of Radiological Diagnostics, UMC, University of Dresden, Dresden, Germany

<sup>11</sup>Department of Neuroradiology, University Hospital Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany

<sup>12</sup>Evangelisches Waldkrankenhaus Spandau, Berlin, Germany

<sup>13</sup>Clinic for Paediatrics I, Inherited Metabolic Disorders, Medical University of Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria

<sup>14</sup>Department of Paediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria

<sup>15</sup>Institute of Nutritional Science, Justus Liebig University Giessen, Giessen, Germany

<sup>16</sup>Division of Metabolic Diseases, University Children's Hospital Frankfurt, Frankfurt, Germany

<sup>17</sup>University Institute of Clinical Chemistry, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland

<sup>18</sup>Department of Paediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Division of General Paediatrics, University Children's Hospital Graz, Medical University Graz, Graz, Austria

<sup>19</sup>Division of Experimental Paediatrics and Metabolism, Department of General Paediatrics, Neonatology and Paediatric Cardiology, University Children's Hospital, Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany

<sup>20</sup>Department of Paediatrics, Centre for Lysosomal and Metabolic Diseases, Erasmus MC University Medical Centre, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

<sup>21</sup>Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Infectious Diseases, University Hospital, University of Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany

<sup>22</sup>Centre of Excellence for Rare Metabolic Diseases, Interdisciplinary Centre of Metabolism: Endocrinology, Diabetes and Metabolism, University-Medicine Berlin, Berlin, Germany

<sup>23</sup>Division of Human Genetics, Medical University Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This third guideline revision was supported by the *German Society of Paediatrics* (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Kinder- und Jugendmedizin, DGKJ). We thank A. Boneh, A. P. Burlina, E. Christensen, M. Duran, M. Kyllermann, J. V. Leonard, E. Müller, E. R. Naughten and B. Wilcken for their contribution to the initial guideline development and first revision of guideline recommendations.<sup>48,50</sup>

Moreover, we thank D. M. Koeller, A. B. Burlina, M. Dixon, A. Garcia-Cazorla and C. R. Greenberg for their contribution to the second first revision of guideline recommendations.<sup>49</sup> We additionally would like to express our sincere condolences, and also gratefulness, respect and appreciation to Stephen I. Goodman (†October 30, 2020), Section of Genetics and Metabolism, Department of Paediatrics, and Director of the Biochemical Genetics Laboratory at Children's Hospital Colorado, University of Colorado, USA, for his pioneer work in the field of GA1, including the discovery of the disease in 1974, followed

by valuable contributions increasing knowledge on characterising, diagnosing and managing GA1 and many other inborn errors of metabolism. We are thankful for valuable discussions with Birgit Assmann (Heidelberg) and Laura Cif (Montpellier), that have been implemented as personal communications within the manuscript. Additionally, we thank Ms. Mirjam Kallmes as a representative of a support group for individuals with GA1 for her valuable input at the GDG meeting. Open Access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.

## FUNDING INFORMATION

The development process for the third guideline revision was financially supported by the *German Society of Paediatrics* (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Kinder- und Jugendmedizin, DGKJ), logistically supported by the *German Association for Paediatric Metabolic Disorders* (Arbeitsgemeinschaft für Pädiatrische Stoffwechselstörungen, APS) and methodically supported by the *National Association of Scientific Medical Societies* (Arbeitsgemeinschaft Wissenschaftlich-Medizinische Fachgesellschaften, AWMF). The guideline process has not been influenced by the financing organisations.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Consideration of conflicts of interest followed a recently recommended procedure.<sup>223</sup> All authors declare that the answers to all other questions on the JIMD competing interest form are 'NO'. The authors confirm independence from sponsors. The GDG did not accept direct funding from medical product companies or company foundations. Eight members (Karina Grohmann-Held, Inga Harting, Jana Heringer-Seifert, Mirjam Kallmes, Stefan Kölker, Michael B. Krawinkel, Martin Lindner, Jürgen G. Okun) declare that they have no conflict of interest. Three members (Sandra Fleissner, Georg F. Hoffmann, Roland Posset) were consultants for a pharmaceutical company; five members (Nikolas Boy, Sandra Fleissner, Katja Sahm, Eva Thimm, Magdalena Walter) gave presentations during meetings organised by a pharmaceutical company; three members (Diana Ballhausen, Gabriele Hahn, Roland Posset) received financial funding for research. Eight members (Diana Ballhausen, Frank Jochum, Daniela Karall, Esther M. Maier, Chris Mühlhausen, Barbara Plecko, Johannes Zschocke, Stephan vom Dahl) worked in the Advisory Board of a nutrition or pharmaceutical company. All conflicts of interest were assessed as minor or without any thematic relation to the guideline process. No moderate or serious conflict of interest was declared. An overview on all competing interests is available online (<https://www.awmf.org/leitlinien/detail/ll/027-018.html>). The content of this article has not been influenced by the sponsors.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Seven translated versions (English, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, Russian, Turkish) of the parental guide based on the guideline recommendations can be found at <https://www.awmf.org/leitlinien/detail/ll/027-018.html>.

## ORCID

Nikolas Boy  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7665-6602>

## REFERENCES

- Boy N, Mengler K, Thimm E, et al. Newborn screening: a disease-changing intervention for glutaric aciduria type 1. *Ann Neurol*. 2018;83(5):970-979. doi:10.1002/ana.25233
- Kolker S, Garbade SF, Boy N, et al. Decline of acute encephalopathic crises in children with glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency identified by newborn screening in Germany. *Pediatr Res*. 2007;62(3):357-363. doi:10.1203/PDR.0b013e318137a124
- Lindner M, Kolker S, Schulze A, et al. Neonatal screening for glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2004;27(6):851-859. doi:10.1023/B:BOLI.0000045769.96657.af
- Therrell BL Jr, Lloyd-Puryear MA, Camp KM, Mann MY. Inborn errors of metabolism identified via newborn screening: ten-year incidence data and costs of nutritional interventions for research agenda planning. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2014;113(1-2):14-26. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2014.07.009
- Boy N, Mengler K, Heringer-Seifert J, Hoffmann GF, Garbade SF, Kölker S. Impact of newborn screening and quality of therapy on the neurological outcome in glutaric aciduria type 1: a meta-analysis. *Genet Med*. 2021;23:13-21. doi:10.1038/s41436-020-00971-4
- Goodman SI, Markey SP, Moe PG, Miles BS, Teng CC. Glutaric aciduria; a "new" disorder of amino acid metabolism. *Biochem Med*. 1975;12(1):12-21.
- Morton DH, Bennett MJ, Seargeant LE, Nichter CA, Kelley RI. Glutaric aciduria type I: a common cause of episodic encephalopathy and spastic paralysis in the Amish of Lancaster County, Pennsylvania. *Am J Med Genet*. 1991;41(1):89-95. doi:10.1002/ajmg.1320410122
- Haworth JC, Booth FA, Chudley AE, et al. Phenotypic variability in glutaric aciduria type I: report of fourteen cases in five Canadian Indian kindreds. *J Pediatr*. 1991;118(1):52-58.
- Naughten ER, Mayne PD, Monavari AA, Goodman SI, Sulaiman G, Croke DT. Glutaric aciduria type I: outcome in the Republic of Ireland. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2004;27(6):917-920. doi:10.1023/B:BOLI.0000045777.82784.74
- Basinger AA, Booker JK, Frazier DM, Koeberl DD, Sullivan JA, Muenzer J. Glutaric acidemia type 1 in patients of Lumbee heritage from North Carolina. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2006;88(1):90-92. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2005.12.008
- van der Watt G, Owen EP, Berman P, et al. Glutaric aciduria type 1 in South Africa-high incidence of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency in black south Africans. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2010;101(2-3):178-182. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2010.07.018
- Fu Z, Wang M, Paschke R, Rao KS, Frerman FE, Kim JJP. Crystal structures of human glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase with and without an alternate substrate: structural bases of dehydrogenation and decarboxylation reactions. *Biochemistry*. 2004;43(30):9674-9684. doi:10.1021/bi049290c
- Greenberg CR, Reimer D, Singal R, et al. A G-to-T transversion at the +5 position of intron 1 in the glutaryl CoA dehydrogenase gene is associated with the Island Lake variant of glutaric acidemia type I. *Hum Mol Genet*. 1995;4(3):493-495.
- Goodman SI, Stein DE, Schlesinger S, et al. Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase mutations in glutaric acidemia (type I): review and report of thirty novel mutations. *Hum Mutat*. 1998;12(3):141-144. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1098-1004(1998)12:3<141::AID-HUMU1>3.0.CO;2-K
- Zschocke J, Quak E, Guldberg P, Hoffmann GF. Mutation analysis in glutaric aciduria type I. *J Med Genet*. 2000;37(3):177-181.
- Baric I, Wagner L, Feyh P, Liesert M, Buckel W, Hoffmann GF. Sensitivity and specificity of free and total glutaric acid and 3-hydroxyglutaric acid measurements by stable-isotope dilution assays for the diagnosis of glutaric aciduria type I. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 1999;22(8):867-881.
- Chace DH, Kalas TA, Naylor EW. Use of tandem mass spectrometry for multianalyte screening of dried blood specimens from newborns. *Clin Chem*. 2003;49(11):1797-1817.
- Busquets C, Merinero B, Christensen E, et al. Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency in Spain: evidence of two groups of patients, genetically, and biochemically distinct. *Pediatr Res*. 2000;48(3):315-322. doi:10.1203/00006450-200009000-00009
- Christensen E, Ribes A, Merinero B, Zschocke J. Correlation of genotype and phenotype in glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2004;27(6):861-868. doi:10.1023/B:BOLI.0000045770.93429.3c
- Kolker S, Garbade SF, Greenberg CR, et al. Natural history, outcome, and treatment efficacy in children and adults with glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *Pediatr Res*. 2006;59(6):840-847. doi:10.1203/01.pdr.0000219387.79887.86
- Boy N, Heringer J, Brackmann R, et al. Extrastriatal changes in patients with late-onset glutaric aciduria type I highlight the risk of long-term neurotoxicity. *Orphanet J Rare Dis*. 2017;12(1):77. doi:10.1186/s13023-017-0612-6
- Harting I, Boy N, Heringer J, et al. (1)H-MRS in glutaric aciduria type 1: impact of biochemical phenotype and age on the cerebral accumulation of neurotoxic metabolites. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2015;38(5):829-838. doi:10.1007/s10545-015-9826-8
- Martner EMC, Maier EM, Mengler K, et al. Impact of interventional and non-interventional variables on anthropometric long-term development in glutaric aciduria type 1: a national prospective multi-Centre study. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2021;44(3):629-638. doi:10.1002/jimd.12335
- Boy N, Mohr A, Garbade SF, et al. Subdural hematoma in glutaric aciduria type 1: high excreters are prone to incidental SDH despite newborn screening. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2021;44(6):1343-1352. doi:10.1002/jimd.12436
- Martner EMC, Thimm E, Guder P, et al. The biochemical subtype is a predictor for cognitive function in glutaric aciduria type 1: a national prospective follow-up study. *Sci Rep*. 2021;11(1):19300. doi:10.1038/s41598-021-98809-9
- Bjugstad KB, Goodman SI, Freed CR. Age at symptom onset predicts severity of motor impairment and clinical outcome of glutaric acidemia type 1. *J Pediatr*. 2000;137(5):681-686. doi:10.1067/mpd.2000.108954
- Renaud DL. Leukoencephalopathies associated with macrocephaly. *Semin Neurol*. 2012;32(1):34-41. doi:10.1055/s-0032-1306384

28. Heringer J, Boy SP, Ensenauer R, et al. Use of guidelines improves the neurological outcome in glutaric aciduria type I. *Ann Neurol*. 2010;68(5):743-752. doi:10.1002/ana.22095
29. Hoffmann GF, Trefz FK, Barth PG, et al. Glutaryl-coenzyme a dehydrogenase deficiency: a distinct encephalopathy. *Pediatrics*. 1991;88(6):1194-1203.
30. Strauss KA, Williams KB, Carson VJ, et al. Glutaric acidemia type 1: treatment and outcome of 168 patients over three decades. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2020;131(3):325-340. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2020.09.007
31. Kyllerman M, Skjeldal O, Christensen E, et al. Long-term follow-up, neurological outcome and survival rate in 28 Nordic patients with glutaric aciduria type 1. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol*. 2004;8(3):121-129. doi:10.1016/j.ejpn.2003.12.007
32. Demailly D, Vianey-Saban C, Acquaviva C, et al. Atypical Glutaric aciduria type I with Hemidystonia and asymmetric radiological findings misdiagnosed as an ischemic stroke. *Mov Disord Clin Pract*. 2018;5(4):436-438. doi:10.1002/mdc3.12633
33. Hoffmann GF, Athanassopoulos S, Burlina AB, et al. Clinical course, early diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of disease in glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *Neuropediatrics*. 1996;27(3):115-123. doi:10.1055/s-2007-973761
34. Strauss KA, Brumbaugh J, Duffy A, et al. Safety, efficacy and physiological actions of a lysine-free, arginine-rich formula to treat glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency: focus on cerebral amino acid influx. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2011;104(1-2):93-106. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2011.07.003
35. Strauss KA, Lazovic J, Wintermark M, Morton DH. Multimodal imaging of striatal degeneration in Amish patients with glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *Brain*. 2007;130(Pt 7):1905-1920. doi:10.1093/brain/awm058
36. Kolker S, Boy SP, Heringer J, et al. Complementary dietary treatment using lysine-free, arginine-fortified amino acid supplements in glutaric aciduria type I - a decade of experience. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2012;107(1-2):72-80. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2012.03.021
37. Boy N, Garbade SF, Heringer J, Seitz A, Kölker S, Harting I. Patterns, evolution, and severity of striatal injury in insidious vs acute-onset glutaric aciduria type 1. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2019;42(1):117-127. doi:10.1002/jimd.12033
38. Zhang Y, Li H, Ma R, et al. Clinical and molecular investigation in Chinese patients with glutaric aciduria type I. *Clin Chim Acta*. 2016;453:75-79. doi:10.1016/j.cca.2015.12.003
39. Bahr O, Mader I, Zschocke J, Dichgans J, Schulz JB. Adult onset glutaric aciduria type I presenting with a leukoencephalopathy. *Neurology*. 2002;59(11):1802-1804.
40. Kulkens S, Harting I, Sauer S, et al. Late-onset neurologic disease in glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *Neurology*. 2005;64(12):2142-2144. doi:10.1212/01.WNL.0000167428.12417.B2
41. Crombez EA, Cederbaum SD, Spector E, et al. Maternal glutaric acidemia, type I identified by newborn screening. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2008;94(1):132-134. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2008.01.005
42. Garcia P, Martins E, Diogo L, et al. Outcome of three cases of untreated maternal glutaric aciduria type I. *Eur J Pediatr*. 2008;167(5):569-573. doi:10.1007/s00431-007-0556-2
43. Vilarinho L, Rocha H, Sousa C, et al. Four years of expanded newborn screening in Portugal with tandem mass spectrometry. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2010;33(Suppl 3):133-138. doi:10.1007/s10545-010-9048-z
44. Herskovitz M, Goldsher D, Sela BA, Mandel H. Subependymal mass lesions and peripheral polyneuropathy in adult-onset glutaric aciduria type I. *Neurology*. 2013;81(9):849-850. doi:10.1212/WNL.0b013e3182a2cbf2
45. Kolker S, Valayannopoulos V, Burlina AB, et al. The phenotypic spectrum of organic acidurias and urea cycle disorders. Part 2: the evolving clinical phenotype. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2015;38(6):1059-1074. doi:10.1007/s10545-015-9840-x
46. Thies B, Meyer-Schwesinger C, Lamp J, et al. Acute renal proximal tubule alterations during induced metabolic crises in a mouse model of glutaric aciduria type 1. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2013;1832(10):1463-1472. doi:10.1016/j.bbdis.2013.04.019
47. Gonzalez Melo M, Fontana AO, Viertl D, et al. A knock-in rat model unravels acute and chronic renal toxicity in glutaric aciduria type I. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2021;134(4):287-300. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2021.10.003
48. Kolker S, Christensen E, Leonard JV, et al. Guideline for the diagnosis and management of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency (glutaric aciduria type I). *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2007;30(1):5-22. doi:10.1007/s10545-006-0451-4
49. Boy N, Muhlhausen C, Maier EM, et al. Proposed recommendations for diagnosing and managing individuals with glutaric aciduria type I: second revision. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2017;40(1):75-101. doi:10.1007/s10545-016-9999-9
50. Kolker S, Christensen E, Leonard JV, et al. Diagnosis and management of glutaric aciduria type I—revised recommendations. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2011;34(3):677-694. doi:10.1007/s10545-011-9289-5
51. Boy N, Haeghe G, Heringer J, et al. Low lysine diet in glutaric aciduria type I—effect on anthropometric and biochemical follow-up parameters. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2013;36(3):525-533. doi:10.1007/s10545-012-9517-7
52. Couce ML, Lopez-Suarez O, Boveda MD, et al. Glutaric aciduria type I: outcome of patients with early- versus late-diagnosis. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol*. 2013;17(4):383-389. doi:10.1016/j.ejpn.2013.01.003
53. Monavari AA, Naughten ER. Prevention of cerebral palsy in glutaric aciduria type 1 by dietary management. *Arch Dis Child*. 2000;82(1):67-70.
54. Strauss KA, Puffenberger EG, Robinson DL, Morton DH. Type I glutaric aciduria, part 1: natural history of 77 patients. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet*. 2003;121C(1):38-52. doi:10.1002/ajmg.c.20007
55. Tsai FC, Lee HJ, Wang AG, et al. Experiences during newborn screening for glutaric aciduria type 1: diagnosis, treatment, genotype, phenotype, and outcomes. *J Chin Med Assoc*. 2017;80(4):253-261. doi:10.1016/j.jcma.2016.07.006
56. Viau K, Ernst SL, Vanzo RJ, Botto LD, Pasquali M, Longo N. Glutaric acidemia type 1: outcomes before and after expanded newborn screening. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2012;106(4):430-438. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2012.05.024
57. Pierson TM, Nezhad M, Tremblay MA, et al. Adult-onset glutaric aciduria type I presenting with white matter abnormalities and subependymal nodules. *Neurogenetics*. 2015;16(4):325-328. doi:10.1007/s10048-015-0456-y
58. Serrano Russi A, Donoghue S, Boneh A, Manara R, Burlina AB, Burlina AP. Malignant brain tumors in patients



- with glutaric aciduria type I. *Mol Genet Metab.* 2018;125:276-280. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2018.08.006
59. Korman SH, Jakobs C, Darmin PS, et al. Glutaric aciduria type 1: clinical, biochemical and molecular findings in patients from Israel. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol.* 2007;11(2):81-89. doi:10.1016/j.ejpn.2006.11.006
  60. Patay Z, Mills JC, Lobel U, et al. Cerebral neoplasms in L-2 hydroxyglutaric aciduria: 3 new cases and meta-analysis of literature data. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol.* 2012;33(5):940-943. doi:10.3174/ajnr.A2869
  61. Loeber JG, Platis D, Zetterstrom RH, et al. Neonatal screening in Europe revisited: an ISNS perspective on the current state and developments since 2010. *Int J Neonatal Screen.* 2021;7(1):15. doi:10.3390/ijns7010015
  62. Dewey KG, Beaton G, Fjeld C, et al. Protein requirements of infants and children. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 1996;50(Suppl 1):S119-S147. discussion S147-S150.
  63. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Ernährung, Österreichische Gesellschaft für Ernährung, Schweizerische Gesellschaft für Ernährungsforschung, Schweizerische Vereinigung für Ernährung (Hrsg.). *Referenzwerte für die Nährstoffzufuhr, 2 Auflage.* Umschau/Braus; 2015.
  64. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Ernährung, Österreichische Gesellschaft für Ernährung, Schweizerische Gesellschaft für Ernährungsforschung, Schweizerische Vereinigung für Ernährung (Hrsg.). *Referenzwerte für die Nährstoffzufuhr, 3 Auflage.* Umschau/Braus; 2019.
  65. Guyatt G, Oxman AD, Akl EA, et al. GRADE guidelines: 1. Introduction-GRADE evidence profiles and summary of findings tables. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 2011;64(4):383-394. doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2010.04.026
  66. SIGN. *SIGN 50, A guideline developer's handbook.* SIGN-Edinburgh; 2019.
  67. Bijarnia S, Wiley V, Carpenter K, Christodoulou J, Ellaway CJ, Wilcken B. Glutaric aciduria type I: outcome following detection by newborn screening. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2008;31(4):503-507. doi:10.1007/s10545-008-0912-z
  68. Lee CS, Chien YH, Peng SF, et al. Promising outcomes in glutaric aciduria type I patients detected by newborn screening. *Metab Brain Dis.* 2013;28(1):61-67. doi:10.1007/s11011-012-9349-z
  69. Heringer J, Valayannopoulos V, Lund AM, et al. Impact of age at onset and newborn screening on outcome in organic acidurias. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2016;39(3):341-353. doi:10.1007/s10545-015-9907-8
  70. Lindner M, Ho S, Fang-Hoffmann J, Hoffmann GF, Kölker S. Neonatal screening for glutaric aciduria type I: strategies to proceed. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2006;29(2-3):378-382. doi:10.1007/s10545-006-0284-1
  71. Minkler PE, Stoll MSK, Ingalls ST, Hoppel CL. Selective, accurate, and precise quantitation of Glutaryl-carnitine in human urine from a patient with Glutaric Acidemia type I. *J Appl Lab Med.* 2017;2(3):335-344. doi:10.1373/jalm.2017.024281
  72. Gallagher RC, Cowan TM, Goodman SI, Enns GM. Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency and newborn screening: retrospective analysis of a low excretor provides further evidence that some cases may be missed. *Mol Genet Metab.* 2005;86(3):417-420. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2005.08.005
  73. Smith WE, Millington DS, Koeberl DD, Lesser PS. Glutaric acidemia, type I, missed by newborn screening in an infant with dystonia following promethazine administration. *Pediatrics.* 2001;107(5):1184-1187. doi:10.1542/peds.107.5.1184
  74. Treacy EP, Lee-Chong A, Roche G, Lynch B, Ryan S, Goodman S. Profound neurological presentation resulting from homozygosity for a mild glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase mutation with a minimal biochemical phenotype. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2003;26(1):72-74.
  75. Wilcken B, Wiley V, Hammond J, Carpenter K. Screening newborns for inborn errors of metabolism by tandem mass spectrometry. *N Engl J Med.* 2003;348(23):2304-2312. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa025225
  76. Foran J, Moore M, Crushell E, Knerr I, McSweeney N. Low excretor glutaric aciduria type 1 of insidious onset with dystonia and atypical clinical features, a diagnostic dilemma. *JIMD Rep.* 2021;58(1):12-20. doi:10.1002/jimd.12187
  77. Estrella J, Wilcken B, Carpenter K, Bhattacharya K, Tchan M, Wiley V. Expanded newborn screening in New South Wales: missed cases. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2014;37(6):881-887. doi:10.1007/s10545-014-9727-2
  78. Moore T, Le A, Cowan TM. An improved LC-MS/MS method for the detection of classic and low excretor glutaric acidemia type 1. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2012;35(3):431-435. doi:10.1007/s10545-011-9405-6
  79. Peng G, Tang Y, Cowan TM, Enns GM, Zhao H, Scharfe C. Reducing false-positive results in newborn screening using machine learning. *Int J Neonatal Screen.* 2020;6(1):16. doi:10.3390/ijns6010016
  80. Hennermann JB, Roloff S, Gellermann J, Grüters A, Klein J. False-positive newborn screening mimicking glutaric aciduria type I in infants with renal insufficiency. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2009;32(Suppl 1):355-359. doi:10.1007/s10545-009-9017-6
  81. Napolitano N, Wiley V, Pitt JJ. Pseudo-glutaryl-carnitinaemia in medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency detected by tandem mass spectrometry newborn screening. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2004;27(4):465-471. doi:10.1023/B:BOLL.0000037343.90450.8d
  82. Al-Dirbashi OY, Jacob M, Al-Amoudi M, et al. Quantification of glutaric and 3-hydroxyglutaric acids in urine of glutaric acidemia type I patients by HPLC with intramolecular excimer-forming fluorescence derivatization. *Clin Chim Acta.* 2005;359(1-2):179-188. doi:10.1016/j.cccn.2005.03.048
  83. Shigematsu Y, Hata I, Tanaka Y, et al. Stable-isotope dilution gas chromatography-mass spectrometric measurement of 3-hydroxyglutaric acid, glutaric acid and related metabolites in body fluids of patients with glutaric aciduria type 1 found in newborn screening. *J Chromatogr B Analyt Technol Biomed Life Sci.* 2005;823(1):7-12. doi:10.1016/j.jchromb.2005.03.031
  84. Simon GA, Wierenga A. Quantitation of plasma and urine 3-hydroxyglutaric acid, after separation from 2-hydroxyglutaric acid and other compounds of similar ion transition, by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry for the confirmation of glutaric aciduria type 1. *J Chromatogr B Analyt Technol Biomed Life Sci.* 2018;1097-1098:101-110. doi:10.1016/j.jchromb.2018.09.007
  85. Christensen E. Improved assay of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase in cultured cells and liver: application to glutaric aciduria type I. *Clin Chim Acta.* 1983;129(1):91-97.
  86. Leandro J, Bender A, Dodatko T, Argmann C, Yu C, Houten SM. Glutaric aciduria type 3 is a naturally occurring biochemical trait in inbred mice of 129 substrains. *Mol Genet Metab.* 2021;132(2):139-145. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2021.01.004

87. Bross P, Frederiksen JB, Bie AS, et al. Heterozygosity for an in-frame deletion causes glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency in a patient detected by newborn screening: investigation of the effect of the mutant allele. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2012;35(5):787-796. doi:10.1007/s10545-011-9437-y
88. Badve MS, Bhuta S, McGill J. Rare presentation of a treatable disorder: glutaric aciduria type 1. *N Z Med J*. 2015;128(1409):61-64.
89. Fridakis MJ, Liadinioti C, Stefanis L, et al. Rare late-onset presentation of Glutaric aciduria type I in a 16-year-old woman with a novel GCDH mutation. *JIMD Rep*. 2015;18:85-92. doi:10.1007/8904\_2014\_353
90. Gupta N, Singh PK, Kumar M, et al. Glutaric Acidemia type I—Clinico-molecular profile and novel mutations in GCDH gene in Indian patients. *JIMD Rep*. 2015;21:45-55. doi:10.1007/8904\_2014\_377
91. Kamate M, Patil V, Chetal V, Darak P, Hattiholi V. Glutaric aciduria type I: A treatable neurometabolic disorder. *Ann Indian Acad Neurol*. 2012;15(1):31-34. doi:10.4103/0972-2327.93273
92. Kolker S, Garcia-Cazorla A, Valayannopoulos V, et al. The phenotypic spectrum of organic acidurias and urea cycle disorders. Part 1: the initial presentation. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2015;38(6):1041-1057. doi:10.1007/s10545-015-9839-3
93. Ma J, Tan L, Chen S. A case of choreoathetosis due to glutaric aciduria type 1. *Mov Disord*. 2013;28(13):1808. doi:10.1002/mds.25722
94. Wang Q, Li X, Ding Y, Liu Y, Song J, Yang Y. Clinical and mutational spectra of 23 Chinese patients with glutaric aciduria type 1. *Brain Dev*. 2014;36(9):813-822. doi:10.1016/j.braindev.2013.11.006
95. Zaki OK, Elabd HS, Ragheb SG, Ghoraba DA, Elghawaby AE. Demographic and clinical features of glutaric acidemia type 1; a high frequency among isolates in upper Egypt. *Egypt J Med Hum Genet*. 2014;15(2):187-192.
96. Zhang X, Luo Q. Clinical and laboratory analysis of late-onset glutaric aciduria type I (GA-I) in Uighur: a report of two cases. *Exp Ther Med*. 2017;13(2):560-566. doi:10.3892/etm.2016.4007
97. Ulmanova O, Koens LH, Jahnova H, et al. Inborn errors of metabolism in adults: two patients with movement disorders caused by Glutaric aciduria type 1. *Mov Disord Clin Pract*. 2020;7(Suppl 3):S85-S88. doi:10.1002/mdc3.13054
98. Brismar J, Ozand PT. CT and MR of the brain in glutaric acidemia type I: a review of 59 published cases and a report of 5 new patients. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 1995;16(4):675-683.
99. Doraiswamy A, Bhanu K, Ranganathan L. Batwing appearance—a neuroradiologic clue to glutaric aciduria-type 1. *Int J Epilepsy*. 2015;2:44-48.
100. Garbade SF, Greenberg CR, Demirkol M, et al. Unravelling the complex MRI pattern in glutaric aciduria type I using statistical models—a cohort study in 180 patients. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2014;37(5):763-773. doi:10.1007/s10545-014-9676-9
101. Harting I, Neumaier-Probst E, Seitz A, et al. Dynamic changes of striatal and extrastriatal abnormalities in glutaric aciduria type I. *Brain*. 2009;132(Pt 7):1764-1782. doi:10.1093/brain/awp112
102. Mohammad SA, Abdelkhalek HS, Ahmed KA, Zaki OK. Glutaric aciduria type 1: neuroimaging features with clinical correlation. *Pediatr Radiol*. 2015;45(11):1696-1705. doi:10.1007/s00247-015-3395-8
103. Singh P, Goraya JS, Ahluwalia A, Saggar K. Teaching NeuroImages: Glutaric aciduria type 1 (glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency). *Neurology*. 2011;77(1):e6. doi:10.1212/WNL.0b013e31822313f6
104. Vester ME, Bilo RA, Karst WA, et al. Subdural hematomas: glutaric aciduria type 1 or abusive head trauma? A systematic review. *Forensic Sci Med Pathol*. 2015;11(3):405-415. doi:10.1007/s12024-015-9698-0
105. Tortorelli S, Hahn SH, Cowan TM, Brewster TG, Rinaldo P, Matern D. The urinary excretion of glutarylcarnitine is an informative tool in the biochemical diagnosis of glutaric acidemia type I. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2005;84(2):137-143. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2004.09.016
106. Schulze-Bergkamen A, Okun JG, Spiekerkötter U, et al. Quantitative acylcarnitine profiling in peripheral blood mononuclear cells using in vitro loading with palmitic and 2-oxoadipic acids: biochemical confirmation of fatty acid oxidation and organic acid disorders. *Pediatr Res*. 2005;58(5):873-880. doi:10.1203/01.PDR.0000181378.98593.3E
107. Marti-Masso JF, Ruiz-Martinez J, Makarov V, et al. Exome sequencing identifies GCDH (glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase) mutations as a cause of a progressive form of early-onset generalized dystonia. *Hum Genet*. 2012;131(3):435-442. doi:10.1007/s00439-011-1086-6
108. Carman KB, Aydogdu SD, Yakut A, Yasar C. Glutaric aciduria type 1 presenting as subdural haematoma. *J Paediatr Child Health*. 2012;48(8):712. doi:10.1111/j.1440-1754.2012.02513.x
109. Hartley LM, Khwaja OS, Verity CM. Glutaric aciduria type 1 and nonaccidental head injury. *Pediatrics*. 2001;107(1):174-175. doi:10.1542/peds.107.1.174
110. Köhler M, Hoffmann GF. Subdural haematoma in a child with glutaric aciduria type I. *Pediatr Radiol*. 1998;28(8):582. doi:10.1007/s002470050420
111. Twomey EL, Naughten ER, Donoghue VB, Ryan S. Neuroimaging findings in glutaric aciduria type 1. *Pediatr Radiol*. 2003;33(12):823-830. doi:10.1007/s00247-003-0956-z
112. Woelfle J, Kreft B, Emons D, Haverkamp F. Subdural hemorrhage as an initial sign of glutaric aciduria type 1: a diagnostic pitfall. *Pediatr Radiol*. 1996;26(11):779-781. doi:10.1007/BF01396200
113. Morris AA, Hoffmann GF, Naughten ER, et al. Glutaric aciduria and suspected child abuse. *Arch Dis Child*. 1999;80(5):404-405. doi:10.1136/adc.80.5.404
114. Vester ME, Visser G, Wijburg FA, et al. Occurrence of subdural hematomas in Dutch glutaric aciduria type 1 patients. *Eur J Pediatr*. 2016;175(7):1001-1006. doi:10.1007/s00431-016-2734-6
115. Hald JK, Nakstad PH, Skjeldal OH, et al. Bilateral arachnoid cysts of the temporal fossa in four children with glutaric aciduria type I. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 1991;12(3):407-409.
116. Jamjoom ZA, Okamoto E, Jamjoom AH, et al. Bilateral arachnoid cysts of the sylvian region in female siblings with glutaric aciduria type I. report of two cases. *J Neurosurg*. 1995;82(6):1078-1081. doi:10.3171/jns.1995.82.6.1078
117. Lütcherath V, Waaler PE, Jellum E, Wester K. Children with bilateral temporal arachnoid cysts may have glutaric aciduria type 1 (GAT1); operation without knowing that may be harmful. *Acta Neurochir*. 2000;142(9):1025-1030. doi:10.1007/s007010070058

118. Martinez-Lage JF, Casas C, Fernandez MA, et al. Macrocephaly, dystonia, and bilateral temporal arachnoid cysts: glutaric aciduria type 1. *Childs Nerv Syst.* 1994;10(3):198-203. doi:[10.1007/BF00301092](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00301092)
119. Lin Y, Wang W, Lin C, et al. Biochemical and molecular features of Chinese patients with glutaric acidemia type 1 detected through newborn screening. *Orphanet J Rare Dis.* 2021;16(1):339. doi:[10.1186/s13023-021-01964-5](https://doi.org/10.1186/s13023-021-01964-5)
120. Afroz B, Yunus ZM. Glutaric aciduria type 1—importance of early diagnosis and treatment. *J Pak Med Assoc.* 2014;64(5):593-595.
121. Gokmen-Ozel H, MacDonald A, Daly A, et al. Dietary practices in glutaric aciduria type 1 over 16 years. *J Hum Nutr Diet.* 2012;25(6):514-519. doi:[10.1111/j.1365-277X.2012.01269.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-277X.2012.01269.x)
122. Radha Rama Devi A, Ramesh VA, Nagarajaram HA, Satish SPS, Jayanthi U, Lingappa L. Spectrum of mutations in Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase gene in glutaric aciduria type I—study from South India. *Brain Dev.* 2016;38(1):54-60. doi:[10.1016/j.braindev.2015.05.013](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.braindev.2015.05.013)
123. Muller E, Kolker S. Reduction of lysine intake while avoiding malnutrition—major goals and major problems in dietary treatment of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2004;27(6):903-910. doi:[10.1023/B:BOLI.0000045775.03183.48](https://doi.org/10.1023/B:BOLI.0000045775.03183.48)
124. Yannicelli S, Rohr F, Warman ML. Nutrition support for glutaric acidemia type I. *J Am Diet Assoc.* 1994;94(2):183-188. 191, quiz 189-190.
125. Verband der Diätassistenten – Deutscher Bundesverband e.V. (VDD) German Dietitian Association. *Manual für den German-Nutrition-Care-Process (G-NCP)—Leitlinie für die Ernährungstherapie und das prozessgeleitete Handeln in der Diätetik.* Pabst Science Publishers; 2015.
126. Zinnanti WJ, Lazovic J, Wolpert EB, et al. A diet-induced mouse model for glutaric aciduria type I. *Brain.* 2006;129(Pt 4):899-910. doi:[10.1093/brain/awl009](https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awl009)
127. Sauer SW, Opp S, Hoffmann GF, Koeller DM, Okun JG, Kölker S. Therapeutic modulation of cerebral L-lysine metabolism in a mouse model for glutaric aciduria type I. *Brain.* 2011;134(Pt 1):157-170. doi:[10.1093/brain/awq269](https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awq269)
128. Gonzalez Melo M, Rémacle N, Cudre-Cung HP, et al. The first knock-in rat model for glutaric aciduria type I allows further insights into pathophysiology in brain and periphery. *Mol Genet Metab.* 2021;133(2):157-181. doi:[10.1016/j.ymgme.2021.03.017](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ymgme.2021.03.017)
129. Kolker S, Hoffmann GF, Schor DS, et al. Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency: region-specific analysis of organic acids and acylcarnitines in post mortem brain predicts vulnerability of the putamen. *Neuropediatrics.* 2003;34(5):253-260. doi:[10.1055/s-2003-43261](https://doi.org/10.1055/s-2003-43261)
130. Boneh A, Beauchamp M, Humphrey M, Watkins J, Peters H, Yapfite-Lee J. Newborn screening for glutaric aciduria type I in Victoria: treatment and outcome. *Mol Genet Metab.* 2008;94(3):287-291. doi:[10.1016/j.ymgme.2008.03.005](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ymgme.2008.03.005)
131. Bernstein LE, Coughlin CR, Drumm M, Yannicelli S, Rohr F. Inconsistencies in the nutrition Management of Glutaric Aciduria Type 1: an international survey. *Nutrients.* 2020;12(10):3162.
132. Dewey KG, Heinig MJ, Nommsen-Rivers LA. Differences in morbidity between breast-fed and formula-fed infants. *J Pediatr.* 1995;126(5 Pt 1):696-702. doi:[10.1016/s0022-3476\(95\)70395-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-3476(95)70395-0)
133. Huner G, Baykal T, Demir F, Demirkol M. Breastfeeding experience in inborn errors of metabolism other than phenylketonuria. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2005;28(4):457-465. doi:[10.1007/s10545-005-0457-3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10545-005-0457-3)
134. MacDonald A, Depondt E, Evans S, et al. Breast feeding in IMD. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2006;29(2-3):299-303. doi:[10.1007/s10545-006-0332-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10545-006-0332-x)
135. Pichler K, Michel M, Zlomy M, et al. Breast milk feeding in infants with inherited metabolic disorders other than phenylketonuria—a 10-year single-center experience. *J Perinat Med.* 2017;45(3):375-382. doi:[10.1515/jpm-2016-0205](https://doi.org/10.1515/jpm-2016-0205)
136. Francis DEM, Smith I. Breast-feeding regime for the treatment of infants with phenylketonuria. In: Bateman C, ed. *Applied Nutrition.* John Libbey; 1981:82-83.
137. van Rijn M, Bekhof J, Dijkstra T, Smit PGPA, Moddermam P, van Spronsen FJ. A different approach to breast-feeding of the infant with phenylketonuria. *Eur J Pediatr.* 2003;162(5):323-326. doi:[10.1007/s00431-003-1182-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00431-003-1182-2)
138. Souci WSW, Kraut H. *Die Zusammensetzung der Lebensmittel, Nährwert-Tabellen.* Wissenschaftliche Verlagsgesellschaft; 2008.
139. Thomas JA, Bernstein LE, Greene CL, et al. Apparent decreased energy requirements in children with organic acidemias: preliminary observations. *J Am Diet Assoc.* 2000;100(9):1074-1076. doi:[10.1016/S0002-8223\(00\)00313-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-8223(00)00313-8)
140. Castillo L, Chapman TE, Yu YM, Ajami A, Burke JF, Young VR. Dietary arginine uptake by the splanchnic region in adult humans. *Am J Physiol.* 1993;265(4 Pt 1):E532-E539. doi:[10.1152/ajpendo.1993.265.4.E532](https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpendo.1993.265.4.E532)
141. Schmidt Z, Murthy G, Ennis M, Stockler-Ipsiroglu S, Elango R. Impact of enteral arginine supplementation on lysine metabolism in humans: a proof-of-concept for lysine-related inborn errors of metabolism. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2020;43(5):952-959. doi:[10.1002/jimd.12233](https://doi.org/10.1002/jimd.12233)
142. Luiking YC, Poeze M, Ramsay G, Deutz NEP. The role of arginine in infection and sepsis. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr.* 2005;29(1 Suppl):S70-S74. doi:[10.1177/01486071050290S1S70](https://doi.org/10.1177/01486071050290S1S70)
143. Secombe DW, James L, Booth F. L-carnitine treatment in glutaric aciduria type I. *Neurology.* 1986;36(2):264-267.
144. Lipkin PH, Roe CR, Goodman SI, Batshaw ML. A case of glutaric acidemia type I: effect of riboflavin and carnitine. *J Pediatr.* 1988;112(1):62-65. doi:[10.1016/s0022-3476\(88\)80123-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-3476(88)80123-9)
145. Guerreiro G, Amaral AU, Ribeiro RT, et al. L-carnitine prevents oxidative stress in striatum of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficient mice submitted to lysine overload. *Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Basis Dis.* 2019;1865(9):2420-2427. doi:[10.1016/j.bbadis.2019.06.007](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2019.06.007)
146. Guerreiro G, Faverzani J, Jacques CED, et al. Oxidative damage in glutaric aciduria type I patients and the protective effects of l-carnitine treatment. *J Cell Biochem.* 2018;119(12):10021-10032. doi:[10.1002/jcb.27332](https://doi.org/10.1002/jcb.27332)
147. Nasser M, Javaheri H, Fedorowicz Z, et al. Carnitine supplementation for inborn errors of metabolism. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2009;2:CD006659. doi:[10.1002/14651858.CD006659.pub2](https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD006659.pub2)
148. Walter JH. L-carnitine in inborn errors of metabolism: what is the evidence? *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2003;26(2-3):181-188. doi:[10.1023/a:1024485117095](https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1024485117095)

149. Inwood A SS, Spicer J, Atthow C, et al. Two children with organic acidurias and a fish-like odour treated with riboflavin, 3–6 September 2019, Rotterdam, The Netherlands; 2019.
150. Koeth RA, Wang Z, Levison BS, et al. Intestinal microbiota metabolism of L-carnitine, a nutrient in red meat, promotes atherosclerosis. *Nat Med*. 2013;19(5):576-585. doi:10.1038/nm.3145
151. Brandt NJ, Gregersen N, Christensen E, Grøn IH, Rasmussen K. Treatment of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency (glutaric aciduria). Experience with diet, riboflavin, and GABA analogue. *J Pediatr*. 1979;94(4):669-673. doi:10.1016/s0022-3476(79)80048-7
152. Chalmers RA, Bain MD, Zschocke J. Riboflavin-responsive glutaryl CoA dehydrogenase deficiency. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2006;88(1):29-37. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2005.11.007
153. Greenberg CR, Prasad AN, Dilling LA, et al. Outcome of the first 3-years of a DNA-based neonatal screening program for glutaric acidemia type 1 in Manitoba and northwestern Ontario, Canada. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2002;75(1):70-78. doi:10.1006/mgme.2001.3270
154. Kyllerman M, Skjeldal OH, Lundberg M, et al. Dystonia and dyskinesia in glutaric aciduria type I: clinical heterogeneity and therapeutic considerations. *Mov Disord*. 1994;9(1):22-30. doi:10.1002/mds.870090105
155. Marigliano M, Anton G, Sabbion A, et al. Difficult management of glucose homeostasis in a 21-month-old child with type 1 diabetes and unknown glutaric aciduria type I: a case report. *Diabetes Care*. 2013;36(9):e135-e136. doi:10.2337/dc13-0724
156. Mushimoto Y, Fukuda S, Hasegawa Y, et al. Clinical and molecular investigation of 19 Japanese cases of glutaric acidemia type 1. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2011;102(3):343-348. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2010.11.159
157. Pusti S, Das N, Nayek K, et al. A treatable neurometabolic disorder: glutaric aciduria type 1. *Case Rep Pediatr*. 2014;2014:256356. doi:10.1155/2014/256356
158. Mhanni A, Aylward N, Boy N, et al. Outcome of the Glutaric aciduria type 1 (GA1) newborn screening program in Manitoba: 1980–2020. *MGM Reports* 2020;
159. Prietsch V, Lindner M, Zschocke J, Nyhan WL, Hoffmann GF. Emergency management of inherited metabolic diseases. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2002;25(7):531-546. doi:10.1023/a:1022040422590
160. Dixon MA, Leonard JV. Intercurrent illness in inborn errors of intermediary metabolism. *Arch Dis Child*. 1992;67(11):1387-1391. doi:10.1136/adc.67.11.1387
161. Ituk US, Allen TK, Habib AS. The peripartum management of a patient with glutaric aciduria type 1. *J Clin Anesth*. 2013;25(2):141-145. doi:10.1016/j.jclinane.2012.06.023
162. Jamuar SS, Newton SA, Prabhu SP, et al. Rhabdomyolysis, acute renal failure, and cardiac arrest secondary to status dystonicus in a child with glutaric aciduria type I. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2012;106(4):488-490. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2012.05.018
163. Stepien KM, Pastores GM, Hendroff U, et al. Two uneventful pregnancies in a woman with Glutaric aciduria type 1. *JIMD Rep*. 2018;41:29-36. doi:10.1007/8904\_2017\_81
164. Gitiaux C, Roze E, Kinugawa K, et al. Spectrum of movement disorders associated with glutaric aciduria type 1: a study of 16 patients. *Mov Disord*. 2008;23(16):2392-2397. doi:10.1002/mds.22313
165. Barry MJ, VanSwearingen JM, Albright AL. Reliability and responsiveness of the Barry-Albright dystonia scale. *Dev Med Child Neurol*. 1999;41(6):404-411.
166. Monbaliu E, Ortibus E, Roelens F, et al. Rating scales for dystonia in cerebral palsy: reliability and validity. *Dev Med Child Neurol*. 2010;52(6):570-575. doi:10.1111/j.1469-8749.2009.03581.x
167. Boy N, Heringer J, Haeghe G, et al. A cross-sectional controlled developmental study of neuropsychological functions in patients with glutaric aciduria type I. *Orphanet J Rare Dis*. 2015;10:163. doi:10.1186/s13023-015-0379-6
168. Elze MC, Gimeno H, Tustin K, et al. Burke-Fahn-Marsden dystonia severity, gross motor, manual ability, and communication function classification scales in childhood hyperkinetic movement disorders including cerebral palsy: a ‘Rosetta Stone’ study. *Dev Med Child Neurol*. 2016;58(2):145-153. doi:10.1111/dmcn.12965
169. Albanese A, Sorbo FD, Comella C, et al. Dystonia rating scales: critique and recommendations. *Mov Disord*. 2013;28(7):874-883. doi:10.1002/mds.25579
170. Burlina AP, Zara G, Hoffmann GF, Zschocke J, Burlina AB. Management of movement disorders in glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency: anticholinergic drugs and botulinum toxin as additional therapeutic options. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2004;27(6):911-915. doi:10.1023/B:BOLI.0000045776.50573.52
171. Fehlings D, Brown L, Harvey A, et al. Pharmacological and neurosurgical interventions for managing dystonia in cerebral palsy: a systematic review. *Dev Med Child Neurol*. 2018;60(4):356-366. doi:10.1111/dmcn.13652
172. Frenkel M, Meyer EJ, Stadler JA 3rd. Intrathecal baclofen for hypertonia secondary to Glutaric aciduria type I. *Cureus*. 2020;12(6):e8818. doi:10.7759/cureus.8818
173. Ghatan S, Kokoszka MA, Ranney AM, Strauss KA. Intravenous baclofen for treatment of severe dystonia associated with Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency (GA1): report of two cases. *Mov Disord Clin Pract*. 2016;3(3):296-299. doi:10.1002/mdc3.12278
174. Bogdanova-Mihaylova P, Walsh RA. Poststroke Choreodystonia responsive to Zopiclone: further evidence of a role for the “Z-drugs” in hyperkinetic movement disorders. *Mov Disord Clin Pract*. 2017;4(4):616-618. doi:10.1002/mdc3.12471
175. Miyazaki Y, Sako W, Asanuma K, et al. Efficacy of zolpidem for dystonia: a study among different subtypes. *Front Neurol*. 2012;3:58. doi:10.3389/fneur.2012.00058
176. Rice J, Waugh MC. Pilot study on trihexyphenidyl in the treatment of dystonia in children with cerebral palsy. *J Child Neurol*. 2009;24(2):176-182. doi:10.1177/0883073808322668
177. Sanger TD, Bastian A, Brunstrom J, et al. Prospective open-label clinical trial of trihexyphenidyl in children with secondary dystonia due to cerebral palsy. *J Child Neurol*. 2007;22(5):530-537. doi:10.1177/0883073807302601
178. Carr WW, Jain N, Sublett JW. Immunogenicity of botulinum toxin formulations: potential therapeutic implications. *Adv Ther*. 2021;38(10):5046-5064. doi:10.1007/s12325-021-01882-9
179. Liow NY, Gimeno H, Lumsden DE, et al. Gabapentin can significantly improve dystonia severity and quality of life in children. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol*. 2016;20(1):100-107. doi:10.1016/j.ejpn.2015.09.007

180. Rakocevic G, Barohn R, McVey AL, et al. Myasthenia gravis, thymoma, and intestinal pseudo-obstruction: a case report and review. *J Clin Neuromuscul Dis*. 2003;5(2):93-95. doi:10.1097/00131402-200312000-00004
181. Air EL, Ostrem JL, Sanger TD, Starr PA. Deep brain stimulation in children: experience and technical pearls. *J Neurosurg Pediatr*. 2011;8(6):566-574. doi:10.3171/2011.8.PEDS11153
182. Perides S, Lin JP, Lee G, et al. Deep brain stimulation reduces pain in children with dystonia, including in dyskinetic cerebral palsy. *Dev Med Child Neurol*. 2020;62(8):917-925. doi:10.1111/dmcn.14555
183. Tustin K, Elze MC, Lumsden DE, Gimeno H, Kaminska M, Lin JP. Gross motor function outcomes following deep brain stimulation for childhood-onset dystonia: a descriptive report. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol*. 2019;23(3):473-483. doi:10.1016/j.ejpn.2019.02.005
184. Hale AT, Monsour MA, Rolston JD, Naftel RP, Englot DJ. Deep brain stimulation in pediatric dystonia: a systematic review. *Neurosurg Rev*. 2020;43(3):873-880. doi:10.1007/s10143-018-1047-9
185. Imerci A, Strauss KA, Oleas-Santillan GF, Miller F. Orthopaedic manifestations of glutaric acidemia type 1. *J Child Orthop*. 2020;14:473-479. doi:10.1302/1863-2548.14.200059
186. Cerisola A, Campistol J, Perez-Duenas B, et al. Seizures versus dystonia in encephalopathic crisis of glutaric aciduria type I. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2009;40(6):426-431. doi:10.1016/j.pediatrneurol.2008.12.009
187. Mahajan V, Gupta R. AEFI surveillance—the learning curve continues. *Indian Pediatr*. 2018;55(8):707-711.
188. Piercy H, Yeo M, Yap S, Hart AR. What are the information needs of parents caring for a child with glutaric aciduria type 1? *BMC Pediatr*. 2019;19(1):349. doi:10.1186/s12887-019-1742-x
189. Glasziou P, Irwig L, Mant D. Monitoring in chronic disease: a rational approach. *BMJ*. 2005;330(7492):644-648. doi:10.1136/bmj.330.7492.644
190. Krstulovic AM, Brown PR, Rosie DM, Champlin PB. High-performance liquid-chromatographic analysis for tryptophan in serum. *Clin Chem*. 1977;23(11):1984-1988.
191. Laich A, Neurauter G, Widner B, Fuchs D. More rapid method for simultaneous measurement of tryptophan and kynurenine by HPLC. *Clin Chem*. 2002;48(3):579-581.
192. Rebouche CJ. Quantitative estimation of absorption and degradation of a carnitine supplement by human adults. *Metabolism*. 1991;40(12):1305-1310. doi:10.1016/0026-0495(91)90033-s
193. du Moulin M, Thies B, Blohm M, et al. Glutaric aciduria type 1 and acute renal failure: case report and suggested pathomechanisms. *JIMD Rep*. 2018;39:25-30. doi:10.1007/8904\_2017\_44
194. Pode-Shakked B, Marek-Yagel D, Rubinshtein M, et al. Glutaric aciduria type I and acute renal failure—coincidence or causality? *Mol Genet Metab Rep*. 2014;1:170-175. doi:10.1016/j.ymgmr.2014.03.001
195. Poge AP, Autschbach F, Korall H, et al. Early clinical manifestation of glutaric aciduria type I and nephrotic syndrome during the first months of life. *Acta Paediatr*. 1997;86(10):1144-1147. doi:10.1111/j.1651-2227.1997.tb14827.x
196. Braissant O, Jafari P, Remacle N, Cudré-Cung HP, do Vale Pereira S, Ballhausen D. Immunolocalization of glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase (GCDH) in adult and embryonic rat brain and peripheral tissues. *Neuroscience*. 2017;343:355-363. doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2016.10.049
197. Hagos Y, Krick W, Bräulke T, Mühlhausen C, Burckhardt G, Burckhardt BC. Organic anion transporters OAT1 and OAT4 mediate the high affinity transport of glutarate derivatives accumulating in patients with glutaric acidurias. *Pflugers Arch*. 2008;457(1):223-231. doi:10.1007/s00424-008-0489-2
198. Chow SL, Rohan C, Morris AA. Rhabdomyolysis in glutaric aciduria type I. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2003;26(7):711-712. doi:10.1023/b:boli.000005635.89043.8a
199. Zielonka M, Braun K, Bengel A, Seitz A, Kölker S, Boy N. Severe acute subdural hemorrhage in a patient with Glutaric aciduria type I after minor head trauma: a case report. *J Child Neurol*. 2015;30(8):1065-1069. doi:10.1177/0883073814541479
200. Singh S, Hears SJ, Borland ML, et al. The effect of patient observation on cranial computed tomography rates in children with minor head trauma. *Acad Emerg Med*. 2020;27(9):832-843. doi:10.1111/acem.13942
201. Neumaier-Probst E, Harting I, Seitz A, Ding C, Kolker S. Neuroradiological findings in glutaric aciduria type I (glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency). *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2004;27(6):869-876. doi:10.1023/B:BOLI.0000045771.66300.2a
202. Desai NK, Runge VM, Crisp DE, Crisp MB, Gill Naul L. Magnetic resonance imaging of the brain in glutaric acidemia type I: a review of the literature and a report of four new cases with attention to the basal ganglia and imaging technique. *Invest Radiol*. 2003;38(8):489-496. doi:10.1097/01.rli.0000080405.62988.f6
203. Elster AW. Glutaric aciduria type I: value of diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging for diagnosing acute striatal necrosis. *J Comput Assist Tomogr*. 2004;28(1):98-100. doi:10.1097/00004728-200401000-00016
204. Kurtcan S, Aksu B, Alkan A, Guler S, Iscan A. MRS features during encephalopathic crisis period in 11 years old case with GA-1. *Brain Dev*. 2015;37(5):546-551. doi:10.1016/j.braindev.2014.09.001
205. Oguz KK, Ozturk A, Cila A. Diffusion-weighted MR imaging and MR spectroscopy in glutaric aciduria type 1. *Neuroradiology*. 2005;47(3):229-234. doi:10.1007/s00234-005-1350-3
206. Forstner R, Hoffmann GF, Gassner I, et al. Glutaric aciduria type I: ultrasonographic demonstration of early signs. *Pediatr Radiol*. 1999;29(2):138-143. doi:10.1007/s002470050558
207. Lin SK, Hsu SG, Ho ES, et al. Novel mutation and prenatal sonographic findings of glutaric aciduria (type I) in two Taiwanese families. *Prenat Diagn*. 2002;22(8):725-729. doi:10.1002/pd.392
208. Mellerio C, Marnigier S, Roth P, et al. Prenatal cerebral ultrasound and MRI findings in glutaric aciduria type 1: a de novo case. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2008;31(6):712-714. doi:10.1002/uog.5336
209. Patel B, Pendyal S, Kishnani PS, McDonald M, Bailey L. Early diagnosed and treated Glutaric Acidemia type 1 female presenting with subependymal nodules in adulthood. *JIMD Rep*. 2018;40:85-90. doi:10.1007/8904\_2017\_66
210. Ntorkou AA, Daire J, Renaldo F, et al. Enlargement of the optic chiasm: a novel imaging finding in Glutaric aciduria type 1. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 2021;42(9):1722-1726. doi:10.3174/ajnr.A7199

211. Numata-Uematsu Y, Sakamoto O, Kakisaka Y, et al. Reversible brain atrophy in glutaric aciduria type 1. *Brain Dev.* 2017;39(6):532-535. doi:10.1016/j.braindev.2017.01.003
212. Chen YC, Huang CY, Lee YT, et al. Audiological and otologic manifestations of glutaric aciduria type I. *Orphanet J Rare Dis.* 2020;15(1):337. doi:10.1186/s13023-020-01571-w
213. Brown A, Crowe L, Beauchamp MH, Anderson V, Boneh A. Neurodevelopmental profiles of children with glutaric aciduria type I diagnosed by newborn screening: a follow-up case series. *JIMD Rep.* 2015;18:125-134. doi:10.1007/8904\_2014\_360
214. Bekiesinska-Figatowska M, Duczkowski M, Duczkowska A, Taybert J, Krzywdzinska A, Sykut-Cegielska J. Increasing the spectrum of white matter diseases with tigroid pattern on MRI: glutaric aciduria type 1—case report. *BMC Pediatr.* 2021;21(1):146. doi:10.1186/s12887-021-02603-5
215. Yang L, Yin H, Yang R, Huang X. Diagnosis, treatment and outcome of glutaric aciduria type I in Zhejiang Province, China. *Med Sci Monit.* 2011;17(7):PH55-PH59. doi:10.12659/msm.881834
216. Zayed H, El Khayat H, Tomoum H, et al. Clinical, biochemical, neuroradiological and molecular characterization of Egyptian patients with glutaric acidemia type 1. *Metab Brain Dis.* 2019;34(4):1231-1241. doi:10.1007/s11011-019-00422-3
217. de Ridder D, Geenen R, Kuijjer R, van Middendorp H. Psychological adjustment to chronic disease. *Lancet.* 2008;372(9634):246-255. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(08)61078-8
218. Gramer G, Haege G, Glahn EM, Hoffmann GF, Lindner M, Burgard P. Living with an inborn error of metabolism detected by newborn screening—parents' perspectives on child development and impact on family life. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2014;37(2):189-195. doi:10.1007/s10545-013-9639-6
219. Zeltner NA, Landolt MA, Baumgartner MR, et al. Living with intoxication-type inborn errors of metabolism: a qualitative analysis of interviews with Paediatric patients and their parents. *JIMD Rep.* 2017;31:1-9. doi:10.1007/8904\_2016\_545
220. Jamiolkowski D, Kolker S, Glahn EM, et al. Behavioural and emotional problems, intellectual impairment and health-related quality of life in patients with organic acidurias and urea cycle disorders. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2016;39(2):231-241. doi:10.1007/s10545-015-9887-8
221. Grasemann C, Matar N, Bauer J, et al. Ein strukturierter Versorgungspfad von der Pädiatrie in die Erwachsenenmedizin für Jugendliche und junge Erwachsene mit einer seltenen Erkrankung. *Monatsschr Kinderheilkd.* 2020;170:61-69. doi:10.1007/s00112-020-00929-5
222. Watson AR. Non-compliance and transfer from paediatric to adult transplant unit. *Pediatr Nephrol.* 2000;14(6):469-472. doi:10.1007/s004670050794
223. Zschocke J, Baumgartner MR, Morava E, Patterson MC, Peters V, Rahman S. Recommendations and guidelines in the JIMD: suggested procedures and avoidance of conflicts of interest. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2016;39(3):327-329. doi:10.1007/s10545-016-9931-3

## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

**How to cite this article:** Boy N, Mühlhausen C, Maier EM, et al. Recommendations for diagnosing and managing individuals with glutaric aciduria type 1: Third revision. *J Inherit Metab Dis.* 2022; 1-38. doi:10.1002/jimd.12566