

간 0형 당원축적병의 임상 표현형과 식사관리

순천향대학교 의과대학 소아청소년과학교실

신 영 림

Clinical Phenotypes and Dietary Management of Hepatic Glycogen Storage Disease Type 0

Young-Lim Shin

Department of Pediatrics, Soonchunhyang University Bucheon Hospital,
Soonchunhyang University College of Medicine, Bucheon, Korea

The hepatic glycogen storage disease type 0 (GSD type 0) is an autosomal recessive disorder caused by a deficiency of hepatic glycogen synthase encoded by the glycogen synthase 2 (GYS2) gene, leading to abnormal synthesis glycogen. The clinical findings of GSD type 0 are hyperketotic hypoglycemia at fasting state and accompanying postprandial hyperglycemia and hyperlactatemia. GSD type 0 has only been reported in a very small number so far, and the diagnosis is likely to be missed because symptoms are mild, severe hypoglycemia is rare or asymptomatic, or symptoms gradually disappear with age. Essential management strategies include feeding high-protein meals to stimulate gluconeogenesis, frequent meals to prevent hypoglycemia during the day and feeding complex carbohydrates such as uncooked cornstarch to slowly release glucose during night. GSD type 0 has a good prognosis, with appropriate treatment, normal growth can be achieved and no complications occur. Significant hypoglycemia occurs less common in adulthood, but ongoing dietary management may be necessary.

Key words: Glycogen storage disease 0, Liver, Carbohydrates, Hypoglycemia, Ketosis, Hyperglycemia, Hyperlactatemia

Introduction

Carbohydrates absorbed from the intestines are released into the circulation, and as blood sugar levels increase, insulin is secreted to increase the uptake of glucose into cells, which produces ATP or are stored primarily as glycogen in the liver or muscles. Several hormones contribute to glycogen synthesis and breakdown, such as insulin, glucagon, adrenaline and cortisol^{1,2}.

Glycogen is a multibranched polysaccharide polymer composed of a straight chain of glucose molecules as the main form of glucose storage. The mature form of glycogen can consist of up to 55,000 glucose units and is rapidly consumed when glucose levels drop.

Glycogen biosynthesis is accomplished through the cooperative action of three enzymes: glycogenin (GN), glycogen synthase (GS) and glycogen branching enzyme (GBE)³.

The process of glycogen synthesis requires a base protein known as glycogenin. The first step in the process involves glucose molecules being attached by UDP-glucose to the tyrosine residues of glycogenin

Corresponding: Young-Lim Shin
Department of Pediatrics, Soonchunhyang University Bucheon Hospital, 170 Jomaru-ro, Wonmi-gu, Bucheon 14584, Korea
Tel: +82-32-621-5407, Fax: +82-32-621-5016
E-mail: ylshin@schmc.ac.kr

via autoglucosylation. Glycogenin forms glucose chains of 8–12 residues with alpha 1,4 linkages. These chains continue to be elongated by glycogen synthase. Glycogen branching enzyme attaches new lateral chains by alpha 1,6 linkage to the growing glycogen molecules, which completes glycogen structure containing glycogenin at the center^{1,4)} (Fig.1).

The glycogen storage diseases (GSD) are inherited metabolic disorders of glycogen metabolism resulting in abnormal storage and/or utilization due to enzyme

defects in the synthesis or degradation of glycogen. The hepatic GSD type 0 (GSD type 0) is an autosomal recessive disorder caused by a deficiency of hepatic glycogen synthase encoded by the glycogen synthase 2 (*GYS2*) gene, leading to abnormal synthesis glycogen. GSD type 0 can be divided two different tissue-specific hepatic isoform (GSD type 0a, encoded by *GYS2*) and muscle isoform (GSD type 0b, encoded by *GYS1*). The hepatic GSDs can be categorized into three types⁵⁾; defective glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis (type I),

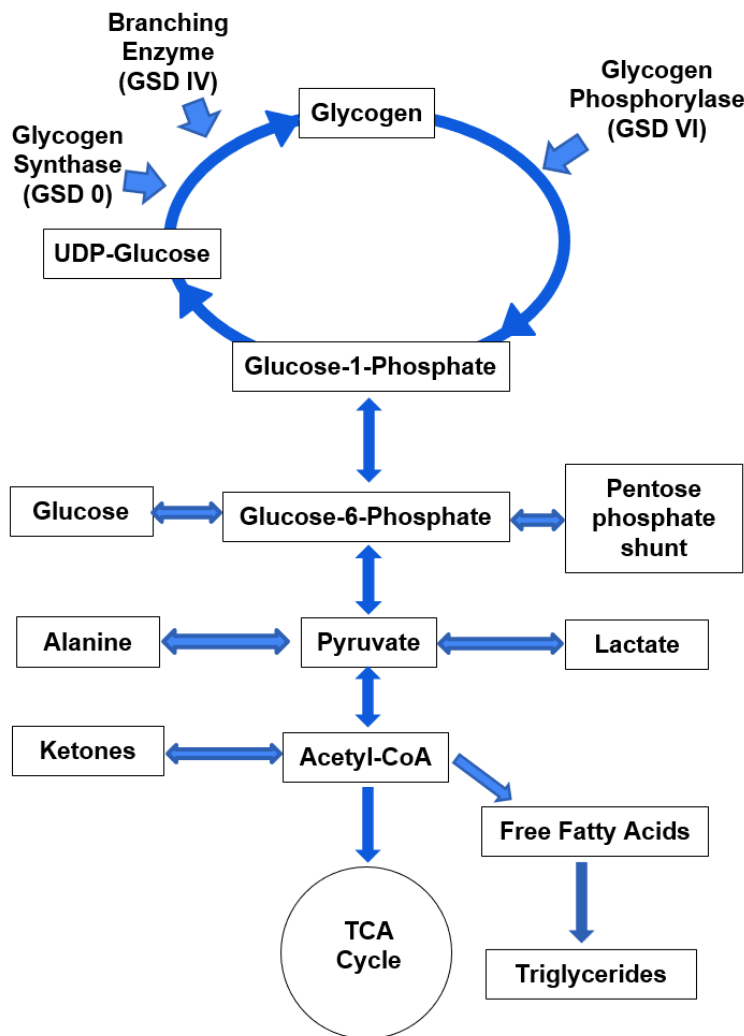


Fig. 1. Simplified pathway of glycogen synthesis in hepatocytes. GSD, Glycogen storage disease; UDP Glucose, Uridine diphosphate glucose; Acetyl-CoA, Acetyl coenzyme A; TCA, Tricarboxylic acid.

defective glycogenolysis but intact gluconeogenesis (types III, VI, IX), and altered storage of glycogen (types 0, IV, XI) The overall GSDs incidence is approximately 1:10,000 live births⁶.

Overview

GSD type 0 was first recognized in 1963⁷. To date, there have been a small number of cases, approximately 40 cases reported in the literature, accounting for less than 1% of all GSDs^{8,9}. Many cases of GSD type 0 are thought to remain underdiagnosed due to mild symptoms but recently reported cases with various symptoms and severity have been increasing⁸.

The clinical findings of GSD type 0 are fasting hyperketotic hypoglycemia. Postprandial hyperglycemia and hyperlactatemia are caused by carbohydrates derived from the meal being converted to lactate due to the inability of glucose to be converted to glycogen¹⁰. Unlike other hepatic GSDs, there is no hepatomegaly because glucose cannot be stored as glycogen in the liver, although liver enlargement has been reported in some cases of GSD type 0¹⁰⁻¹³. Symptoms of fasting hypoglycemia usually appear in late infancy after stopping overnight feedings or in childhood¹⁰. Most patients experience their first symptoms at an average of 3.5 years⁸. Affected children experience pallor, sweating, nausea, vomiting, lethargy, drowsiness and sometimes seizures^{10,14,15}. Hypoglycemia may occur more than 3 hours after the last feeding¹⁰. Generally, patients develop ketosis with hypoglycemia during fasting, stress, or infection. Because patients are unable to synthesize glycogen, lower blood sugar levels trigger the processes of gluconeogenesis and fatty acid oxidation, which increase ketones used as alternative fuels. Hyperketonemia and ketonuria are observed with hypoglycemia, but it is advisable to measure the ketone level in the blood since ketonuria is not constant¹⁰. It is known that approximately 2% of patients with iso-

lated ketotic hypoglycemia are GSD type 0 patients^{11,16}. Hyperglycemia occurs due to the inability to synthesize glycogen and decreased glucose uptake by the liver after consuming a carbohydrate-rich meal¹². Hyperlactatemia is observed because excess glucose is converted anaerobically to lactate^{11,12}. Patients with GSD type 0 generally have normal birth weight and height, but some patients exhibit failure to thrive, short stature, and osteopenia^{12,17,18}. Neurocognitive development in GSD type 0 patients is usually unaffected^{8-10,19}. Asymptomatic patients may be diagnosed incidentally, after being hospitalized for another disease, or after a sibling is diagnosed⁸. Phenotypes of varying severity may be associated with different liver enzyme activities¹⁴.

Diagnosis

GSD type 0 should be considered in patients with postprandial hyperglycemia or glycosuria following ketotic hypoglycemia. Additionally, GSD type 0 requires differential diagnosis from early stages of diabetes and Fanconi-Bickel syndrome²⁰. The difference from GSD type 0 is that Fanconi-Bickel syndrome is not associated with postprandial hyperlactatemia²⁰. In the past, it was diagnosed through liver biopsy, but now it is confirmed through genetic analysis. More recently, patients with similar clinical and biochemical findings have been able to simply, quickly and usefully diagnose metabolic diseases with genetic heterogeneity by applying next generation sequencing technology (as gene panel or clinical exome)^{21,22}.

Genetics

Hepatic glycogen synthase is encoded by *GYS2* gene located on chromosome 12p12.2, consisting of 16 exons²³. According to the literature so far, 40 patients with hepatic GSD type 0 with 25 different variants in the *GYS2* gene have been documented^{8,10}.

Treatment

The therapeutic goal of GSD type 0 is to prevent fasting hypoglycemia, hyperketosis and postprandial hyperlactatemia through dietary interventions^{12,24}. Therefore, essential management strategies include feeding high-protein meals to stimulate gluconeogenesis, frequent meals to prevent hypoglycemia during the day and feeding complex carbohydrates such as uncooked cornstarch to slowly release glucose during night^{11,15,20}.

Since the 1970s, researchers have tried to find carbohydrates that can maintain blood sugar levels for more than 3 hours, and they found that cornstarch was the most effective²⁵. Cornstarch was introduced as a treatment for GSD in 1982, which gradually improved metabolic control and long-term prognosis²⁵. If the pump fails or leaks during continuous feeding, blood sugar levels drops rapidly in a high insulin state. Insulin also has the effect of suppressing the production of alternative fuels such as ketones and lactic acid, which can worsen hypoglycemia and even cause convulsions. Cornstarch has the effect of further lowering insulin concentration because the amount of glucose required to maintain normal glucose concentration is less than that of a continuous feeding²⁶. In the ketotic GSDs (type 0, III, VI, IX, and XI), when glucose levels decrease, ketones are produced through fatty acid oxidation, and ketones can be used as an alternative fuel, preventing excessive glycogen storage or hypoglycemia⁵. Although GSD type 0 patients have milder symptoms than other GSDs patients, some still require overnight treatment. To prevent fasting hypoglycemia in the morning, it is necessary to take uncooked cornstarch before bedtime, and it should be taken regularly during infection. And consuming small amounts of uncooked cornstarch frequently during the day may better maintain blood glucose levels and improve metabolic control²⁷. Cornstarch requirements are lower for GSD

type VI and IX compared to GSD type I, and may be even lower for GSD type 0.

The dose of cornstarch is initially administered in small amounts and then gradually increased depending on blood glucose level and tolerance²⁸. Children who consume 1 gram of cornstarch per body weight at bedtime can maintain normal blood glucose levels for 4 to 8 hours. Infants younger than 12 months may not be able to digest cornstarch well due to insufficient amylase, a digestive enzyme^{5,29}. Adults require less cornstarch per kg of body weight compared to children because they have lower calorie requirements and are better able to control oral intake. Excessive doses of cornstarch can cause diarrhea, weight gain and insulin resistance, and treatment with less than appropriate dose can cause hyperketonemia at relatively normal glucose concentrations because the process of gluconeogenesis and fatty acid oxidation processes are normal²⁸. According to recent studies, uncooked cornstarch should be taken every 3–5 hours to maintain euglycemia and improve metabolic control, so it was necessary to consume cornstarch at least once in the middle of the night²⁷.

In order to maintain normal blood glucose levels longer and reduce nighttime feeding, waxy maize extended-release cornstarch (Glycosade) was developed and has been approved worldwide since 2009³⁰. The extended-release cornstarch formulation has been approved for use in children over 2 years of age in several countries, but has been approved for use in patients over 5 years of age in the United States. This may be because there is little research on efficacy and safety for infants and young children, and the low tolerance due to the rapid growth and immaturity of the gastrointestinal tract^{31–33}. Adverse effects are known to include abdominal distension, diarrhea, and flatulence, and in the case of GSD type 1b, inflammatory bowel disease and gastrointestinal intolerance are likely to occur, so caution is required^{31,32}. In 2015, a study

reported that treatment with an extended-release cornstarch from waxy maize in GSD types 0, III, VI and IX had the effect of maintaining euglycemia for longer during the night³¹. However, not all GSD type 0 patients require a middle-of-the-night feeding and this treatment should be considered in patients who frequently develop fasting morning hypoglycemia and ketosis³¹. There is a lack of research on carbohydrate requirements in GSD type 0 patients, and for types VI and IX, it is recommended that carbohydrates provide 45–50% of daily calories⁵.

Since protein is used as a precursor in gluconeogenesis, adequate protein supplementation is also important²². In patients with ketotic GSDs, a high-protein diet may allow amino acids to be used as precursors for gluconeogenesis, dietary protein may serve as a direct energy fuel for muscle, and replacement of some carbohydrates with protein may reduce glycogen stores²⁸. In particular, animal food proteins have high biological value, are a good source of amino acids required for gluconeogenesis. It is recommended to provide 2 to 3 g of protein or ~20 to 25% of total calories per kilogram of body weight as a high protein diet, and to consume protein at every meal, before bedtime and before exercise^{5,28}. Patients with GSD 0 are at risk of osteoporosis and should also supplement calcium and vitamin D¹². It is important to adjust the appropriate amount of protein and carbohydrates according to age and to determine to balance well by measuring blood glucose and ketone in the morning. If hypoglycemia and ketosis occur overnight due to lack of proper treatment, short stature, osteopenia, and neurological complications may occur^{22,34}.

For good metabolic control and monitoring of complications, an appropriate follow-up plan is necessary, and nutritional evaluations and blood tests must be performed regularly. Calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D should also be checked regularly to ensure adequate intake. GSD type 0 has a good prognosis, with appro-

priate treatment, normal growth can be achieved and no complications occur. Significant hypoglycemia occurs less common in adulthood, but ongoing dietary management may be necessary¹².

Conclusions

GSD type 0 has only been reported in a very small number so far, and the diagnosis is likely to be missed because symptoms are mild, severe hypoglycemia is rare or asymptomatic, or symptoms gradually disappear with age^{9,12,35,36}.

Symptoms can be expressed in various ways, and fasting ketotic hypoglycemia can be misdiagnosed as substrate-limited ketotic hypoglycemia, which is common in infants and young children, or it can be mistaken for early diabetes due to the findings of postprandial hyperglycemia. In addition, because there is no hepatomegaly, it is often not diagnosed with GSD type 0 or is diagnosed late. Therefore, in the case of hyperketotic hypoglycemia in the fasting state and accompanying postprandial hyperglycemia and hyperlipidemia, some hyperlipidemia, fasting hypalaninemia, and mildly elevated hepatic transaminase findings, an active investigation of GSD type 0 can be conducted, and only in this case, a genetic test through the NSG panel can be performed if necessary. If GSD type 0 is strongly suspected, a *GYS2* genetic test may be performed. Genetic diagnosis can be used to select siblings with or without symptoms⁹.

GSD type 0 can be treated without complications by preventing hypoglycemia through an appropriate diet. To make an immediate diagnosis, it is recommended to carefully check the clinical symptoms and perform genetic testing in children with fasting hyperketotic hypoglycemia accompanied by postprandial hyperglycemia but do not have hepatomegaly¹⁰.

요 약

간 당원축적병 0형은 glycogen synthase 2 유전자에 부호화되어 있는 간 당원 합성효소의 결핍으로 비정상적으로 당원 생성이 되는 상염색체 열성 유전 질환이다. 당원축적병 0형의 임상 양상은 공복시에 고케톤혈증 저혈당증을 나타내고 식사후 고혈당과 고젖산혈증을 보인다. 당원축적병 0형은 현재까지 적은 수만 보고되었는데 증상이 경하거나 심한 저혈당이 드물고 또는 무증상이거나 나이가 들에 따라 점차 증상이 사라지는 양상을 보이기 때문에 진단을 놓치는 경우가 있을 것으로 생각된다. 필수적 치료 전략은 포도당신생성을 자극하기 위해 고단백 식사, 낮동안 저혈당을 방지하기 위해서 잦은 식사 횟수, 밤 동안 천천히 포도당을 방출하기 위해 생옥수수전분가루 같은 복합 탄수화물을 먹는 것이다. 당원축적병 0형은 예후는 좋고 적절한 치료를 하면 정상적으로 성장하며 합병증도 발생하지 않는다. 성인이 될수록 심한 저혈당은 보이지 않게 되지만 지속적인 식사 관리의 필요하다.

References

- 1) Roach PJ, Depaoli-Roach AA, Hurley TD, Tagliabracci VS. Glycogen and its metabolism: some new developments and old themes. *Biochem J* 2012;441:763-87.
- 2) Gümüş E, Özen H. Glycogen storage diseases: An update. *World J Gastroenterol* 2023;29:3932-63.
- 3) McCorvie TJ, Loria PM, Tu M, Han S, Shrestha L, Froese DS, et al. Molecular basis for the regulation of human glycogen synthase by phosphorylation and glucose-6-phosphate. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* 2022;29:628-38.
- 4) Marr L, Biswas D, Daly LA, Browning C, Vial SCM, Maskell DP, et al. Mechanism of glycogen synthase inactivation and interaction with glycogenin. *Nat Commun* 2022;13:3372.
- 5) Ross KM, Ferrecchia IA, Dahlberg KR, Dambaska M, Ryan PT, Weinstein DA. Dietary management of the glycogen storage diseases: evolution of treatment and ongoing controversies. *Adv Nutr* 2020;11:439-46.
- 6) Beyzaei Z, Geramizadeh B, Karimzadeh S. Diagnosis of hepatic glycogen storage disease patients with overlapping clinical symptoms by massively parallel sequencing: a systematic review of literature. *Orphanet J Rare Dis* 2020;15:286.
- 7) Lewis GM, Spencer-Peet J and Stewart KM. Infantile hypoglycaemia due to inherited deficiency of glycogen synthetase in liver. *Arch Dis Child* 1963;38:40-8.
- 8) Arko JJ, Debeljak M, Tansek MZ, Battelino T, Groselj U. A patient with glycogen storage disease type 0 and a novel sequence variant in GYS2: a case report and literature review. *J Int Med Res* 2020;48:300060520936857.
- 9) Kasapkara ÇS, Aycan Z, Açoglu E, Senel S, Oguz MM, Ceylaner S. The variable clinical phenotype of three patients with hepatic glycogen synthase deficiency. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab* 2017;30:459-62.
- 10) Kamenets EA, Gusarova EA, Milovanova NV, Itkis YS, Strokova TV, Melikyan MA, et al. Hepatic glycogen synthase (GYS2) deficiency: seven novel patients and seven novel variants. *JIMD Rep* 2020;53:39-44.
- 11) Brown LM, Corrado MM, van der Ende RM, Derks TG, Chen MA, Siegel S, et al. Evaluation of glycogen storage disease as a cause of ketotic hypoglycemia in children. *J Inherit Metab Dis* 2015;38:489-93.
- 12) Weinstein DA, Correia CE, Saunders AC, Wolfsdorf JI. Hepatic glycogen synthase deficiency: an infrequently recognized cause of ketotic hypoglycemia. *Mol Genet Metab* 2006;87:284-8.
- 13) Matei L, Teodorescu MI, Kozma A, Iordan Dumitru AD, Stoicescu SM, Carniciu S. Persistent asymptomatic severe hypoglycaemia due to type 0a Glycogenesis—general and oro-dental aspects. *Acta Endocrinol (Buchar)* 2019;15:526-30.
- 14) Spiegel R, Mahamid J, Orho-Melander M, Miron D, Horovitz Y. The variable clinical phenotype of liver glycogen synthase deficiency. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab* 2007;20:1339-42.
- 15) Soggia AP, Correa-Giannella ML, Fortes MA, Luna AM, Pereira MA. A novel mutation in the glycogen synthase 2 gene in a child with glycogen storage disease type 0. *BMC Med Genet* 2010;11:3.
- 16) Nessa A, Kumaran A, Kirk R, Dalton A, Ismail D, Hussain K. Mutation analysis of the GYS2 gene in patients diagnosed with ketotic hypoglycaemia. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab* 2012;25:963-7.
- 17) Hacıhamdioğlu B, Özgürhan G, Çaran B, Meydan-Aksanli E, Keskin E. Glycogen storage disease type 0 due to a novel frameshift mutation in glycogen synthase 2 (GYS2) gene in a child presenting with fasting hypoglycemia and postprandial hyperglycemia. *Turk J Pediatr* 2018;60:581-3.
- 18) Chen MA, Weinstein DA. Glycogen storage diseases: diagnosis, treatment and outcome. *Translat Sci Rare Dis* 2016;1:45-72.
- 19) Heller S, Worona L, Consuelo A. Nutritional therapy for glycogen storage diseases. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol*

- Nutrition 2008;47:15-21.
- 20) Bachrach BE, Weinstein DA, Orho-Melander M, Burgess A, Wolfsdorf JI. Glycogen synthase deficiency (glycogen storage disease type 0) presenting with hyperglycemia and glucosuria: report of three new mutations. *J Pediatr* 2002;140:781-3.
 - 21) Ponzi E, Maiorana A, Lepri FR, Mucciolo M, Semeraro M, Taurisano R, et al. Persistent hypoglycemia in children: targeted gene panel improves the diagnosis of hypoglycemia due to inborn errors of metabolism. *J Pediatr* 2018;202:272-8.
 - 22) Massese M, Tagliaferri F, Dionisi-Vici C, Maiorana A. Glycogen storage diseases with liver involvement: a literature review of GSD type 0, IV, VI, IX and XI. *Orphanet J Rare Dis* 2022;17:241.
 - 23) Nuttall FQ, Gannon MC, Kubic VL, Hoyt KJ. The human liver glycogen synthase isozyme genes located on the short arm of chromosome 12. *Genomics* 1994;19:404-5.
 - 24) Aynsley-Green A, Williamson DH, Gitzelmann R. Hepatic glycogen synthetase deficiency. Definition of syndrome from metabolic and enzyme studies on a 9-year-old girl. *Arch Dis Child* 1977;52:573-9.
 - 25) Chen YT, Cornblath M, Sidbury JB. Cornstarch therapy in type I glycogen storage disease. *N Engl J Med* 1984;310:171-5.
 - 26) Crigler JF, Folkman JI. Glycogen storage disease: new approaches to therapy. *Ciba Found Symp* 1978;55:331-51.
 - 27) Weinstein DA, Wolfsdorf JI. Effect of continuous glucose therapy with uncooked cornstarch on the long-term clinical course of type Ia glycogen storage disease. *Eur J Pediatr* 2002;161:35-9.
 - 28) Kishnani PS, Goldstein J, Austin SL, Arn P, Bachrach B, Bali DS, et al. Diagnosis and management of glycogen storage diseases type VI and IX: a clinical practice resource of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG). *Genet Med* 2019;21:772-89.
 - 29) Wolfsdorf JI, Holm IA, Weinstein DA. Glycogen storage diseases: phenotypic, genetic, and biochemical characteristics and therapy. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am* 1999;28:801-23.
 - 30) Correia CE, Bhattacharya K, Lee PJ, Shuster JJ, Theriaque DW, Shankar MN, et al. Use of modified cornstarch therapy to extend fasting in glycogen storage disease types Ia and Ib. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2008;88:1272-6.
 - 31) Ross KM, Brown LM, Corrado MM, Chengsupanimit T, Curry LM, Ferrecchia IA, et al. Safety and efficacy of long-term use of extended release cornstarch therapy for glycogen storage disease types 0, III, VI, and IX. *J Nutri Thera* 2015;4:137-42.
 - 32) Ross KM, Brown LM, Corrado MM, Chengsupanimit T, Curry LM, Ferrecchia IA, et al. Safety and efficacy of chronic extended release cornstarch therapy for glycogen storage disease type I. *JIMD Rep* 2015;26:85-90.
 - 33) Bhattacharya K, Orton RC, Qi X, Mundy H, Morley DW, Champion MP, et al. A novel starch for the treatment of glycogen storage diseases. *J Inherit Metab Dis* 2007;30:350-7.
 - 34) Tsilianidis LA, Fiske LM, Siegel S, Lumpkin C, Hoyt K, Wasserstein M, et al. Aggressive therapy improves cirrhosis in glycogen storage disease type IX. *Mol Genet Metab* 2013;109:179-82.
 - 35) Bhattacharya K. Investigation and management of the hepatic glycogen storage diseases. *Transl Pediatr* 2015;4:240-8.
 - 36) Orho M, Bosshard NU, Buist NR, R Gitzelmann, A Aynsley-Green, P Blümel, et al. Mutations in the liver glycogen synthase gene in children with hypoglycemia due to glycogen storage disease type 0. *J Clin Invest* 1998;102:507-15.