### HEP-21-0718

## Supplemental section

## S.1 Hepatic endpoints

#### S.1.1. Development of fibrosis. Elastography and biochemical methods

Elastography assesses the stiffness of the liver and is closely correlated to fibrosis on liver biopsy in other liver diseases (1) and to HVPG (2). The most widespread method, transient elastography, by use of Fibroscan®, was evaluated in four studies in WD (3-6). In the largest (3), elastography correlated with histological fibrosis at diagnosis and was able to detect both progression and regression of fibrosis grade, although histological validations were not reported. Transient elastography is a potential surrogate endpoint but prospective studies providing data on the fibrosis progression/regression rate in WD are needed.

More advanced elastographic methods include shear wave elastography, acoustic radiation force impulse imaging, and magnetic resonance elastography (MRE). MRE may be more precise than Fibroscan® for quantifying fibrosis(7).

A new technology, multiparametric MR liver tissue characterization (LiverMultiScan<sup>™</sup>), may also measure fibro-inflammation, liver fat content and iron overload (8, 9) and should be evaluated in long-term studies in WD patients.

Steatosis is a frequent finding in WD. While transient elastography provides a grading of steatosis (10), MRI can accurately measure the percent hepatic fat. Reversibility of steatosis could be a sign of treatment response, but data are lacking. These measurements should therefore be regarded as exploratory endpoints.

Noninvasive biochemical markers of fibrosis include AST/platelet ratio (APRI), FIB-4 index and Enhanced Liver Fibrosis index (3). In 44 WD patients with measurements and biopsy less than 1 year apart, the areas under the receiver operating curves were 0.96 (0.90-1.0) for elastography, 0.79(0.65-0.93) for APRI and 0.84(0.83-0.96) for FIB-4 (3).

#### S.1.2 Markers of liver inflammation

**Aminotransferases.** ALT may be elevated due to hepatic steatosis, inflammation, necrosis and autophagy. In other liver diseases, such as autoimmune hepatitis, the normalization of ALT is well correlated to the clinical success of treatment and ALT can be considered a surrogate endpoint in clinical studies. In WD the relation between normalization of ALT and clinical improvement is less clear.

Many patients will present with elevated ALT. Most studies report ALT to decline towards normal values during treatment particularly within the first 2 years (11-18); but even after several years of treatment ALT remained elevated in a substantial fraction of patients (12, 13, 19).

The fact that ALT generally declines during treatment does not necessarily mean that a normalization of ALT is associated with a better clinical outcome in the individual patient. Attempts to establish such an association have been less conclusive.

Thus, validation against follow-up liver biopsies are inconclusive. In one study (15) with 12-23 years observation time, 7 patients with histological progression had higher ALT (mean $\pm$ SEM  $\pm 10\pm 9$  UI/L) than 33 non-progressors ( $55\pm 7$  IU/L) but the difference was not statistically significant. In another study including 12 patients and 2-12 years follow-up (17), there was also no statistically significant relation between histological progression of fibrosis and ALT.

In a few other studies, ALT was validated against non-histological measures of treatment success. Medici et al (14) followed 23 WD patients with hepatic presentation for 5 years; post-treatment ALT in non-responders was 74±24 (Mean±SD) IU/L and not statistically significantly higher than 43±27 IU/L in responders. In 20% of the patients ALT was elevated throughout the study with no signs of disease progression. Sini et al (15) reported similar observations after 12-23 years of follow up. (15). Arnon et al(16) followed 10 pediatric WD patients for 1-5 years and only 3 had normal ALT at last contact; the data suggested that non-adherence in 4 patients was associated with ALT elevations. Ranucci et al (20) observed a decline in ALT among 48 WD patients during 6 years of follow-up but ALT did not differ between treatment failures and non-failures. Iorio et al (13) reported ALT persistently above upper limit of normal in 25/109 pediatric WD patients with at least one year of follow-up (21) reported that in WD patients on zinc mono-therapy patients ALT was statistically significantly higher in non-responders than responders at 12 month by not at 6 months or  $\geq$ 24 months. Taken together, these studies did not show a clear relationship between ALT and clinical outcome of treatment.

Two studies including tetrathiomolybdate (TTM) and bis-choline-TTM further illustrates how difficult it may be to use ALT as an outcome measure. In a double-blind comparison of trientine and TTM (22) ALT elevations were more common in the TTM group than in the trientine group but the clinical outcome was better in the TTM group. Similar observations were reported in a single-arm study where bis-choline-TTM treatment of WD patients induced reversible ALT elevations in 39% of patients in a 28- week phase II trial, however overall mean ALT decreased during the study period (18).

Based on these data a recent review advised against the use of ALT as a measure of treatment success (23). AST is less well studied but may be of interest because it is more sensitive to mitochondrial stress.

**Other markers of inflammation**. In two cross sectional studies (24, 25) including 28 WD patients with acute liver failure and 176 with chronic disease the macrophage activation marker CD163 correlated to liver disease severity but longitudinal data are missing. Further studies to identify markers of hepatic inflammation in WD are encouraged.

### S.1.3. Other possible markers of liver disease severity.

Quantitative dynamic liver function tests include the clearance tests methacetin breath test (26) as standardized in the LiMAx test (27, 28) and the lidocaine clearance test (29) both of which depend on hepatic blood flow rate, and the galactose elimination maximal capacity test (30) which is a flow independent measure of hepatic metabolic capacity. Only the latter has been studied in a small group of WD patients (24) and longitudinal studies are missing.

## S.2. Neurological endpoints

### S.2.1 The Unified Wilson's Disease Rating Scale

The Unified Wilson's Disease Rating Scale (UWDRS) was developed as a tool for comprehensive evaluation of neurological signs and symptoms in patients with WD (31-33).

Part I of UWDRS assesses consciousness (0-4 points) while Part II (0-40 points) evaluates disability. Part III (0-142 points) involves a neurological examination and uses clinical rating scales to measure a wide spectrum of neurological items (speech, facial expression, tremor at rest, postural tremor, wing-beating tremor, rigidity, dystonia, posture, gait, chorea, pyramidal signs, and handwriting). In each part, a higher score indicates greater impairment. A fair correlation between

disability (UWDRS II) and neurological impairment ratings (UWDRS III) was observed in a crosssectional study of 53 newly diagnosed WD patients (34). The inter-observer agreement is good (31, 32) with most items, so single observer assessment can be used in clinical trials. At the same time day-to-day variation that could ensue due to patient stress and fatigue is unknown and may be a significant source of variation.

The UWDRS was used to assess neurological worsening or improvement during treatment with standard therapy with some correlation between change in UWDRS and clinical outcome (35-37). The UWDRS was also used in some recent studies. Thus, in the phase II treatment trial with bis-choline-tetrathiomolybdate (18) improvement in mean UWDRS scores was observed within 28 weeks: From mean 6.6 to 4.1 in UWDRS II and from 22.8 to 16.6 in UWDRS III. In another study, after liver transplantation in highly selected WD patients with severe neurological symptoms, UWDRS (parts I-III) improved in 14 survivors from median 96 (range 75-112) to 38 (18-56) and >20% improvement was seen in 12 out of 14 patients (38).

## S.2.2. MRI

MRI demonstrates the structural cerebral changes in WD with some correlation to neurological scores in cross sectional studies (39-46). Abnormalities are seen even in WD patients without neurological symptoms (47, 48). Different rating scales have been reported (40, 42, 49-51) but with uncertain relation to clinical status. Recently, Dusek et al constructed a MRI rating scale to separately assess acute "toxic" and potentially reversible disturbances and chronic changes in WD(45). The severity of MRI and UWDRS III scores correlated at baseline and at 24 months; however, a correlation between the changes in MRI and UWDRS scores was not found (personal communication from authors) possibly due to short observation time.

In a few small series with longitudinal observations, MRI abnormalities in WD partly reversed during treatment with trientine (52) or d-penicillamine (40, 45, 49, 53-56) or after transplantation (38, 57). In some (40, 49, 58) but not all (53, 59) studies, MRI changes correlated with clinical regression/progression at the individual level.

Until it is more clear how changes in MRI findings can be objectively correlated to clinical improvement or progression of WD, the use of MRI as an endpoint in clinical trials will be exploratory.

### S.2.3. Other possible neurological endpoints

**Evoked potentials.** A large fraction of WD patients have abnormal sensory evoked potentials including somato-sensory (SEPs), visually (VEPs) and auditory brain stem (BAEPs) (60-66). These

disturbances were related to the severity of neurological disease and findings on MRI (63, 67-69). Abnormalities were also reported in non-neurological WD patients and may reflect preclinical neurologic disease (70). In 6 WD patients on chelating treatment BAEPs and SEPs improved in parallel with symptomatic disease over a 36-month period (63). Further longitudinal studies are needed.

**Cognition.** Measurements of global cognition (71) are relevant to WD treatment trials because cognition relates to quality of life. However, changes during treatment are slow and sometimes minor (42, 72-76) so assessment of cognition will serve as exploratory endpoints in most treatment trials.

# S.3. Copper metabolism

## S.3.1. Measurements of the "free copper" in blood.

In the healthy person, total plasma copper is mainly irreversibly bound in ceruloplasmin. The rest is not really "free" but reversibly bound to albumin, aminoacids and peptides. This non-ceruloplasmin bound fraction is biologically active. In WD it is elevated and presumed to be responsible for organ toxicity.

*Nonceruloplasmin bound copper (NCC).* When NCC is estimated by subtracting ceruloplasminbound copper from the total serum copper concentration specific methodological issues must be taken into consideration (77-83). Since the immunologic assay does not discriminate between ceruloplasmin and the copper-free apoceruloplasmin, estimated NCC may be a negative value in up to 20%, a biologically impossible situation (50, 80, 81, 84, 85). The enzymatic method for ceruloplasmin determination (86) provides some improvement, but even then inaccuracies occur (84).

In clinical studies with longitudinal follow-up mean NCC values were above normal at diagnosis and declined with treatment with penicillamine or zinc towards normalization (11, 79, 87, 88) while this was less clear with trientine (79, 87). Reports of whether NCC normalization correlates with clinical outcome at the individual level are conflicting (11, 79, 87, 88) possibly because of the wide variation of results (79). Further longitudinal studies are needed to validate the correlation of NCC with other copper parameters and patient outcome for its use as a surrogate marker or endpoint.

Unique issues arise for NCC determination when copper is complexed in a non-bioavailable form in the circulation, and NCC must be corrected for this complexed copper. In the phase II trial of bischoline tetrathiomolybdate for WD, NCC was corrected for copper bound in a molybdate-albuminCu complex (NCC<sub>corrected</sub>) (18). Reduction of mean NCC<sub>corrected</sub> paralleled median UWDRS score improvements and stabilization of liver function.

**Exchangeable copper (CuEXC).** Exchangeable copper (CuEXC) is a direct measure of serum non-ceruloplasmin bound copper (89-91) obtained by incubation of serum with EDTA following removal of ceruloplasmin-bound copper by ultrafiltration. CuEXC is the remaining copper stripped by EDTA from albumin, other peptides and amino acids. In two cross sectional studies, CuEXC was elevated and correlated with UWDRS score in newly diagnosed patients (50) and in treated compliant patients (92). In a rodent model of WD progression of hepatic pathology and liver function tests correlated with increasing CuEXC (93). Longitudinal data in patients are needed for further validation.

*Other direct copper assays.* Solovyev and co-workers (94) developed a mass spectrometry method that separately measured the copper content of ceruloplasmin and total plasma. Their data suggest weaknesses with both the estimation of NCC and CuEXC methodology. Presently, their group and two others are performing clinical studies in WD to try to establish more reliable methods for measuring NCC. These assays will require validation in longitudinal studies prior to use as surrogate markers.

### S.3.2. Other potential Copper measures

**Kayser-Fleischer ring**. The KF ring is formed by copper disposition in the cornea and disappears with treatment. Its intensity can be quantified by anterior segment optical coherence tomography (95-99) and that may be a quantitative marker for the de-coppering of the body. Since Kayser-Fleischer rings are seen only in approximately 50% of patients with hepatic presentation (79, 100) and the rate of loss of rings in comparison to other disease-related symptoms is unknown, this surrogate marker of de-coppering cannot stand alone.

**Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF).** A few small longitudinal studies (101-104), each including from one to five patients, reported that CSF copper concentrations were elevated in neurologic WD patients and decreased in parallel with neurological improvement during decoppering therapy. CSF copper was normal in two WD patients with only hepatic symptoms(103). The CSF copper concentration appears to reflect copper accumulation in the brain and may be useful to monitor the efficacy of the decoppering during therapy. The invasive nature of the procedure is a concern in clinical studies.

# References

1. Brener S. Transient Elastography for Assessment of Liver Fibrosis and Steatosis: An Evidence-Based Analysis. Ont Health Technol Assess Ser 2015;15:1-45.

2. Kim G, Kim MY, Baik SK. Transient elastography versus hepatic venous pressure gradient for diagnosing portal hypertension: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Clin Mol Hepatol 2017;23:34-41.

3. Paternostro R, Pfeiffenberger J, Ferenci P, Stattermayer AF, Stauber RE, Wrba F, Longerich T, et al. Non-invasive diagnosis of cirrhosis and long-term disease monitoring by transient elastography in patients with Wilson disease. Liver Int 2020;40:894-904.

4. Sini M, Sorbello O, Civolani A, Liggi M, Demelia L. Non-invasive assessment of hepatic fibrosis in a series of patients with Wilson's Disease. Dig Liver Dis 2012;44:487-491.

5. Stefanescu AC, Pop TL, Stefanescu H, Miu N. Transient elastography of the liver in children with Wilson's disease: Preliminary results. J Clin Ultrasound 2016;44:65-71.

6. Karlas T, Hempel M, Troltzsch M, Huster D, Gunther P, Tenckhoff H, Mossner J, et al. Non-invasive evaluation of hepatic manifestation in Wilson disease with transient elastography, ARFI, and different fibrosis scores. Scand J Gastroenterol 2012;47:1353-1361.

7. Loomba R, Wolfson T, Ang B, Hooker J, Behling C, Peterson M, Valasek M, et al. Magnetic resonance elastography predicts advanced fibrosis in patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: a prospective study. Hepatology 2014;60:1920-1928.

8. Banerjee R, Pavlides M, Tunnicliffe EM, Piechnik SK, Sarania N, Philips R, Collier JD, et al. Multiparametric magnetic resonance for the non-invasive diagnosis of liver disease. J Hepatol 2014;60:69-77.

9. Pavlides M, Banerjee R, Tunnicliffe EM, Kelly C, Collier J, Wang LM, Fleming KA, et al. Multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging for the assessment of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease severity. Liver Int 2017;37:1065-1073.

10. Myers RP, Pollett A, Kirsch R, Pomier-Layrargues G, Beaton M, Levstik M, Duarte-Rojo A, et al. Controlled Attenuation Parameter (CAP): a noninvasive method for the detection of hepatic steatosis based on transient elastography. Liver Int 2012;32:902-910.

11. Brewer GJ, Dick RD, Johnson VD, Brunberg JA, Kluin KJ, Fink JK. Treatment of Wilson's disease with zinc: XV long-term follow-up studies. J Lab Clin Med 1998;132:264-278.

12. Taylor RM, Chen Y, Dhawan A. Triethylene tetramine dihydrochloride (trientine) in children with Wilson disease: experience at King's College Hospital and review of the literature. Eur J Pediatr 2009;168:1061-1068.

13. Iorio R, D'Ambrosi M, Marcellini M, Barbera C, Maggiore G, Zancan L, Giacchino R, et al. Serum transaminases in children with Wilson's disease. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2004;39:331-336.

14. Medici V, Trevisan CP, D'Incà R, Barollo M, Zancan L, Fagiuoli S, Martines D, et al. Diagnosis and management of Wilson's disease: results of a single center experience. J Clin Gastroenterol 2006;40:936-941.

15. Sini M, Sorbello O, Sanna F, Battolu F, Civolani A, Fanni D, Faa G, et al. Histologic evolution and long-term outcome of Wilson's disease: results of a single-center experience. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2013;25:111-117.

16. Arnon R, Calderon JF, Schilsky M, Emre S, Shneider BL. Wilson disease in children: serum aminotransferases and urinary copper on triethylene tetramine dihydrochloride (trientine) treatment. J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr 2007;44:596-602.

17. Cope-Yokoyama S, Finegold MJ, Sturniolo GC, Kim K, Mescoli C, Rugge M, Medici V. Wilson disease: histopathological correlations with treatment on follow-up liver biopsies. World J Gastroenterol 2010;16:1487-1494.

18. Weiss KH, Askari FK, Czlonkowska A, Ferenci P, Bronstein JM, Bega D, Ala A, et al. Bis-choline tetrathiomolybdate in patients with Wilson's disease: an open-label, multicentre, phase 2 study. Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2017;2:869-876.

19. Camarata MA, Ala A, Schilsky ML. Zinc Maintenance Therapy for Wilson Disease: A Comparison Between Zinc Acetate and Alternative Zinc Preparations. Hepatol Commun 2019;3:1151-1158.

20. Ranucci G, Di Dato F, Spagnuolo MI, Vajro P, Iorio R. Zinc monotherapy is effective in Wilson's disease patients with mild liver disease diagnosed in childhood: a retrospective study. Orphanet J Rare Dis 2014;9:41.

21. Weiss KH, Gotthardt DN, Klemm D, Merle U, Ferenci-Foerster D, Schaefer M, Ferenci P, et al. Zinc monotherapy is not as effective as chelating agents in treatment of Wilson disease. Gastroenterology 2011;140:1189-1198.

22. Brewer GJ, Askari F, Lorincz MT, Carlson M, Schilsky M, Kluin KJ, Hedera P, et al. Treatment of Wilson disease with ammonium tetrathiomolybdate: IV. Comparison of tetrathiomolybdate and trientine in a double-blind study of treatment of the neurologic presentation of Wilson disease. Arch Neurol 2006;63:521-527.

23. Appenzeller-Herzog C, Mathes T, Heeres MLS, Weiss KH, Houwen RHJ, Ewald H. Comparative effectiveness of common therapies for Wilson disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis of controlled studies. Liver Int 2019;39:2136-2152.

24. Bjorklund J, Laursen TL, Sandahl TD, Moller HJ, Vilstrup H, Ott P, Gronbaek H. High hepatic macrophage activation and low liver function in stable Wilson patients - a Danish cross-sectional study. Orphanet J Rare Dis 2018;13:169.

25. Glavind E, Gotthardt DN, Pfeiffenberger J, Sandahl TD, Bashlekova T, Willemoe GL, Hasselby JP, et al. The macrophage activation marker soluble CD163 is elevated and associated with liver disease phenotype in patients with Wilson's disease. Orphanet J Rare Dis 2020;15:173.
26. Gorowska-Kowolik K, Chobot A, Kwiecien J. (13)C Methacetin Breath Test for

Assessment of Microsomal Liver Function: Methodology and Clinical Application. Gastroenterol Res Pract 2017;2017:Article ID 7397840.

27. Rubin TM, Heyne K, Luchterhand A, Jan B, F WRV, Polychronidis G, Malinowski M, et al. Kinetic validation of the LiMAx test during 10 000 intravenous (13)C-methacetin breath tests. J Breath Res 2017;12:Article ID 016005.

28. Stockmann M, Lock JF, Malinowski M, Niehues SM, Seehofer D, Neuhaus P. The LiMAx test: a new liver function test for predicting postoperative outcome in liver surgery. HPB (Oxford) 2010;12:139-146.

29. Oellerich M, Burdelski M, Lautz HU, Schulz M, Schmidt FW, Herrmann H. Lidocaine metabolite formation as a measure of liver function in patients with cirrhosis. Ther Drug Monit 1990;12:219-226.

30. Ranek L, Andreasen PB, Tygstrup N. Galactose elimination capacity as a prognostic index in patients with fulminant liver failure. Gut 1976;17:959-964.

31. Czlonkowska A, Tarnacka B, Moller JC, Leinweber B, Bandmann O, Woimant F, Oertel WH. Unified Wilson's Disease Rating Scale - a proposal for the neurological scoring of Wilson's disease patients. Neurol Neurochir Pol 2007;41:1-12.

32. Leinweber B, Moller JC, Scherag A, Reuner U, Gunther P, Lang CJ, Schmidt HH, et al. Evaluation of the Unified Wilson's Disease Rating Scale (UWDRS) in German patients with treated Wilson's disease. Mov Disord 2008;23:54-62.

33. Volpert HM, Pfeiffenberger J, Groner JB, Stremmel W, Gotthardt DN, Schafer M, Weiss KH, et al. Comparative assessment of clinical rating scales in Wilson's disease. BMC Neurol 2017;17:Article ID 140.

34. Czlonkowska A, Litwin T, Dziezyc K, Karlinski M, Bring J, Bjartmar C. Characteristics of a newly diagnosed Polish cohort of patients with neurological manifestations of Wilson disease evaluated with the Unified Wilson's Disease Rating Scale. BMC Neurol 2018;18:Article ID 34.

35. Czlonkowska A, Litwin T, Karlinski M, Dziezyc K, Chabik G, Czerska M. Dpenicillamine versus zinc sulfate as first-line therapy for Wilson's disease. Eur J Neurol 2014;21:599-606.

36. Litwin T, Dziezyc K, Karlinski M, Chabik G, Czepiel W, Czlonkowska A. Early neurological worsening in patients with Wilson's disease. J Neurol Sci 2015;355:162-167.

Burke JF, Dayalu P, Nan B, Askari F, Brewer GJ, Lorincz MT. Prognostic significance of neurologic examination findings in Wilson disease. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2011;17:551-556.
Poujois A, Sobesky R, Meissner WG, Brunet AS, Broussolle E, Laurencin C, Lion-Francois L, et al. Liver transplantation as a rescue therapy for severe neurologic forms of Wilson disease. Neurology 2020;94:e2189-e2202.

39. Sinha S, Taly AB, Ravishankar S, Prashanth LK, Venugopal KS, Arunodaya GR, Vasudev MK, et al. Wilson's disease: cranial MRI observations and clinical correlation. Neuroradiology 2006;48:613-621.

40. Sinha S, Taly AB, Prashanth LK, Ravishankar S, Arunodaya GR, Vasudev MK. Sequential MRI changes in Wilson's disease with de-coppering therapy: a study of 50 patients. Br J Radiol 2007;80:744-749.

41. Zhong W, Huang Z, Tang X. A study of brain MRI characteristics and clinical features in 76 cases of Wilson's disease. J Clin Neurosci 2019;59:167-174.

42. Frota NA, Barbosa ER, Porto CS, Lucato LT, Ono CR, Buchpiguel CA, Caramelli P. Cognitive impairment and magnetic resonance imaging correlations in Wilson's disease. Acta Neurol Scand 2013;127:391-398.

43. Tarnacka B, Szeszkowski W, Golebiowski M, Czlonkowska A. MR spectroscopy in monitoring the treatment of Wilson's disease patients. Mov Disord 2008;23:1560-1566.

44. Tarnacka B, Szeszkowski W, Golebiowski M, Czlonkowska A. Metabolic changes in 37 newly diagnosed Wilson's disease patients assessed by magnetic resonance spectroscopy. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2009;15:582-586.

45. Dusek P, Smolinski L, Redzia-Ogrodnik B, Golebiowski M, Skowronska M, Poujois A, Laurencin C, et al. Semiquantitative Scale for Assessing Brain MRI Abnormalities in Wilson Disease: A Validation Study. Mov Disord 2020;35:994-1001.

46. Smolinski L, Litwin T, Redzia-Ogrodnik B, Dziezyc K, Kurkowska-Jastrzebska I, Czlonkowska A. Brain volume is related to neurological impairment and to copper overload in Wilson's disease. Neurol Sci 2019;40:2089-2095.

47. Viveiros A, Beliveau V, Panzer M, Schaefer B, Glodny B, Henninger B, Tilg H, et al. Neurodegeneration in Hepatic and Neurologic Wilson Disease. Hepatology 2020.

48. Tinaz S, Arora J, Nalamada K, Vives-Rodriguez A, Sezgin M, Robakis D, Patel A, et al. Structural and functional brain changes in hepatic and neurological Wilson disease. Brain Imaging Behav 2020.

49. Kim TJ, Kim IO, Kim WS, Cheon JE, Moon SG, Kwon JW, Seo JK, et al. MR imaging of the brain in Wilson disease of childhood: findings before and after treatment with clinical correlation. AJNR Am J Neuroradiol 2006;27:1373-1378.

50. Poujois A, Trocello JM, Djebrani-Oussedik N, Poupon J, Collet C, Girardot-Tinant N, Sobesky R, et al. Exchangeable copper: a reflection of the neurological severity in Wilson's disease. Eur J Neurol 2017;24:154-160.

51. Dezortova M, Lescinskij A, Dusek P, Herynek V, Acosta-Cabronero J, Bruha R, Jiru F, et al. Multiparametric Quantitative Brain MRI in Neurological and Hepatic Forms of Wilson's Disease. J Magn Reson Imaging 2020;51:7.

52. Park HK, Lee JH, Lee MC, Chung SJ. Teaching NeuroImages: MRI reversal in Wilson disease with trientine treatment. Neurology 2010;74:e72.

53. King AD, Walshe JM, Kendall BE, Chinn RJ, Paley MN, Wilkinson ID, Halligan S, et al. Cranial MR imaging in Wilson's disease. AJR Am J Roentgenol 1996;167:1579-1584.

54. Roh JK, Lee TG, Wie BA, Lee SB, Park SH, Chang KH. Initial and follow-up brain MRI findings and correlation with the clinical course in Wilson's disease. Neurology 1994;44:1064-1068.

55. Thuomas KA, Aquilonius SM, Bergstrom K, Westermark K. Magnetic resonance imaging of the brain in Wilson's disease. Neuroradiology 1993;35:134-141.

56. Prashanth LK, Taly AB, Sinha S, Ravishankar S, Arunodaya GR, Vasudev MK, Swamy HS. Prognostic factors in patients presenting with severe neurological forms of Wilson's disease. QJM 2005;98:557-563.

57. Wu JC, Huang CC, Jeng LB, Chu NS. Correlation of neurological manifestations and MR images in a patient with Wilson's disease after liver transplantation. Acta Neurol Scand 2000;102:135-139.

58. Sinha S, Taly AB, Ravishankar S, Prashanth LK, Vasudev MK. Central pontine signal changes in Wilson's disease: distinct MRI morphology and sequential changes with de-coppering therapy. J Neuroimaging 2007;17:286-291.

59. da Costa Mdo D, Spitz M, Bacheschi LA, Leite CC, Lucato LT, Barbosa ER. Wilson's disease: two treatment modalities. Correlations to pretreatment and posttreatment brain MRI. Neuroradiology 2009;51:627-633.

60. Chu NS. Sensory evoked potentials in Wilson's disease. Brain 1986;109 (Pt 3):491-507.

61. Arendt G, Hefter H, Stremmel W, Strohmeyer G. The diagnostic value of multimodality evoked potentials in Wilson's disease. Electromyogr Clin Neurophysiol 1994;34:137-148.

62. Grimm G, Madl C, Katzenschlager R, Oder W, Ferenci P, Gangl A. Detailed evaluation of evoked potentials in Wilson's disease. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1992;82:119-124.

63. Grimm G, Oder W, Prayer L, Ferenci P, Madl C. Evoked potentials in assessment and follow-up of patients with Wilson's disease. Lancet 1990;336:963-964.

64. Satishchandra P, Swamy HS. Visual and brain stem auditory evoked responses in Wilson's disease. Acta Neurol Scand 1989;79:108-113.

65. Topcu M, Topcuoglu MA, Kose G, Nurlu G, Turanli G. Evoked potentials in children with Wilson's disease. Brain Dev 2002;24:276-280.

66. Satishchandra P, Ravishankar Naik K. Visual pathway abnormalities Wilson's disease: an electrophysiological study using electroretinography and visual evoked potentials. J Neurol Sci 2000;176:13-20.

67. Das M, Misra UK, Kalita J. A study of clinical, MRI and multimodality evoked potentials in neurologic Wilson disease. Eur J Neurol 2007;14:498-504.

68. Langwinska-Wosko E, Litwin T, Szulborski K, Czlonkowska A. Optical coherence tomography and electrophysiology of retinal and visual pathways in Wilson's disease. Metab Brain Dis 2016;31:405-415.

69. Albrecht P, Muller AK, Ringelstein M, Finis D, Geerling G, Cohn E, Aktas O, et al. Retinal neurodegeneration in Wilson's disease revealed by spectral domain optical coherence tomography. PLoS One 2012;7:e49825.

70. Ecevit C, Ozgenc F, Gokcay F, Celebisoy N, Baran M, Yagci RV. The diagnostic value of multimodal evoked potentials in the determination of subclinical neurological involvement of Wilson's disease. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2012;24:627-632.

71. Mattis S: Mental status examination for organic mental syndrome in the elderly patient. In: Bellak LK, T., ed. Geriatric psychiatry. New York: Grune og Stratton, 1976; 77-121.

72. Dening TR. The neuropsychiatry of Wilson's disease: a review. Int J Psychiatry Med 1991;21:135-148.

73. Litwin T, Dusek P, Czlonkowska A. Symptomatic treatment of neurologic symptoms in Wilson disease. Handb Clin Neurol 2017;142:211-223.

74. Seniow J, Bak T, Gajda J, Poniatowska R, Czlonkowska A. Cognitive functioning in neurologically symptomatic and asymptomatic forms of Wilson's disease. Mov Disord 2002;17:1077-1083.

75. Wenisch E, De Tassigny A, Trocello JM, Beretti J, Girardot-Tinant N, Woimant F. Cognitive profile in Wilson's disease: a case series of 31 patients. Rev Neurol (Paris) 2013;169:944-949.

76. Ma H, Lv X, Han Y, Zhang F, Ye R, Yu F, Han Y, et al. Decision-making impairments in patients with Wilson's disease. J Clin Exp Neuropsychol 2013;35:472-479.

77. Scheinberg IH, Sternlieb I. Wilson's disease. Philadelphia: WB Saunders, 1984.

78. EASL. EASL Clinical Practice Guidelines: Wilson's disease. J Hepatol 2012;56:671-685.

79. Pfeiffenberger J, Lohse CM, Gotthardt D, Rupp C, Weiler M, Teufel U, Weiss KH, et al. Long-term evaluation of urinary copper excretion and non-caeruloplasmin associated copper in Wilson disease patients under medical treatment. J Inherit Metab Dis 2019;42:371-380.

80. Twomey PJ, Viljoen A, House IM, Reynolds TM, Wierzbicki AS. Limitations of nonceruloplasmin-bound copper in routine clinical practice. Gut 2007;56:154.

81. Twomey PJ, Wierzbicki AS, Reynolds TM, Viljoen A. The copper/caeruloplasmin ratio in routine clinical practice in different laboratories. J Clin Pathol 2009;62:60-63.

82. Twomey PJ. Effect of a different caeruloplasmin assay method on the relationship between serum copper and caeruloplasmin. Postgrad Med J 2008;84:549-551.

83. Roberts EA, Schilsky ML. Diagnosis and treatment of Wilson disease: an update. Hepatology 2008;47:2089-2111.

84. Dziezyc K, Litwin T, Chabik G, Czlonkowska A. Measurement of urinary copper excretion after 48-h d-penicillamine cessation as a compliance assessment in Wilson's disease. Funct Neurol 2015;30:264-268.

85. Duncan A, Yacoubian C, Beetham R, Catchpole A, Bullock D. The role of calculated non-caeruloplasmin-bound copper in Wilson's disease. Ann Clin Biochem 2017;54:649-654.

86. Walshe JM, Clinical Investigations Standing Committee of the Association of Clinical B. Wilson's disease: the importance of measuring serum caeruloplasmin non-immunologically. Ann Clin Biochem 2003;40:115-121.

87. Brewer GJ, Askari F, Dick RB, Sitterly J, Fink JK, Carlson M, Kluin KJ, et al. Treatment of Wilson's disease with tetrathiomolybdate: V. Control of free copper by tetrathiomolybdate and a comparison with trientine. Transl Res 2009;154:70-77.

88. Lowette KF, Desmet K, Witters P, Laleman W, Verslype C, Nevens F, Fevery J, et al. Wilson's disease: long-term follow-up of a cohort of 24 patients treated with D-penicillamine. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2010;22:564-571.

89. El Balkhi S, Poupon J, Trocello JM, Leyendecker A, Massicot F, Galliot-Guilley M, Woimant F. Determination of ultrafiltrable and exchangeable copper in plasma: stability and reference values in healthy subjects. Anal Bioanal Chem 2009;394:1477-1484.

90. El Balkhi S, Trocello JM, Poupon J, Chappuis P, Massicot F, Girardot-Tinant N, Woimant F. Relative exchangeable copper: a new highly sensitive and highly specific biomarker for Wilson's disease diagnosis. Clin Chim Acta 2011;412:2254-2260.

91. Woimant F, Djebrani-Oussedik N, Poujois A. New tools for Wilson's disease diagnosis: exchangeable copper fraction. Ann Transl Med 2019;7:S70.

92. Guillaud O, Brunet AS, Mallet I, Dumortier J, Pelosse M, Heissat S, Rivet C, et al. Relative exchangeable copper: A valuable tool for the diagnosis of Wilson disease. Liver Int 2018;38:350-357.

93. Schmitt F, Podevin G, Poupon J, Roux J, Legras P, Trocello JM, Woimant F, et al. Evolution of exchangeable copper and relative exchangeable copper through the course of Wilson's disease in the Long Evans Cinnamon rat. PLoS One 2013;8:e82323.

94. Solovyev N, Ala A, Schilsky M, Mills C, Willis K, Harrington CF. Biomedical copper speciation in relation to Wilson's disease using strong anion exchange chromatography coupled to triple quadrupole inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry. Anal Chim Acta 2020;1098:27-36.

95. Telinius N, Ott P, Hjortdal J. Comment on Advantages of Anterior Segment Optical Coherence Tomography Evaluation of the Kayser-Fleischer Ring in Wilson Disease. Cornea 2017;36:e19.

96. Telinius N, Ott P, Hjortdal J. Detection of Kayser-Fleischer ring using Scheimpflug imaging. Acta Ophthalmol 2017;95:e248-e249.

97. Telinius N, Ott P, Sandahl T, Hjortdal J. Scheimpflug Imaging of the Danish Cohort of Patients With Wilson Disease. Cornea 2019;38:998-1002.

98. Zhao T, Fang Z, Tian J, Liu J, Xiao Y, Li H, Chen B. Imaging Kayser-Fleischer Ring in Wilson Disease Using In Vivo Confocal Microscopy. Cornea 2019;38:332-337.

99. Broniek-Kowalik K, Dziezyc K, Litwin T, Czlonkowska A, Szaflik JP. Anterior segment optical coherence tomography (AS-OCT) as a new method of detecting copper deposits forming the Kayser-Fleischer ring in patients with Wilson disease. Acta Ophthalmol Scand 2019;97:e757-e760.

100. Steindl P, Ferenci P, Dienes HP, Grimm G, Pabinger I, Madl C, Maier-Dobersberger T, et al. Wilson's disease in patients presenting with liver disease: a diagnostic challenge. Gastroenterology 1997;113:212-218.

101. Weisner B, Hartard C, Dieu C. CSF copper concentration: a new parameter for diagnosis and monitoring therapy of Wilson's disease with cerebral manifestation. J Neurol Sci 1987;79:229-237.

102. Stuerenburg HJ. CSF copper concentrations, blood-brain barrier function, and coeruloplasmin synthesis during the treatment of Wilson's disease. J Neural Transm (Vienna) 2000;107:321-329.

103. Kodama H, Okabe I, Yanagisawa M, Nomiyama H, Nomiyama K, Nose O, Kamoshita S. Does CSF copper level in Wilson disease reflect copper accumulation in the brain? Pediatr Neurol 1988;4:35-37.

104. Hartard C, Weisner B, Dieu C, Kunze K. Wilson's disease with cerebral manifestation: monitoring therapy by CSF copper concentration. J Neurol 1993;241:101-107.