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Medical Benefit		Effective Date: 10/01/17	Next Review Date: 07/19
Preauthorization	Yes	Review Dates: 07/14, 07/15, 07/16, 07/17, 07/18	

Preauthorization is required.

The following protocol contains medical necessity criteria that apply for this service. The criteria are also applicable to services provided in the local Medicare Advantage operating area for those members, unless separate Medicare Advantage criteria are indicated. If the criteria are not met, reimbursement will be denied and the patient cannot be billed. Please note that payment for covered services is subject to eligibility and the limitations noted in the patient's contract at the time the services are rendered.

Populations	Interventions	Comparators	Outcomes
Individuals: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With signs and/or symptoms of a mitochondrial disease 	Interventions of interest are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Genetic testing 	Comparators of interest are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standard clinical workup without genetic testing 	Relevant outcomes include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Test validity • Other test performance measures • Symptoms • Functional outcomes • Health status measures • Quality of life
Individuals: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who are asymptomatic with a close relative with a mitochondrial disease and a known pathogenic variant 	Interventions of interest are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targeted familial variant testing 	Comparators of interest are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standard risk assessment without genetic testing 	Relevant outcomes include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Test validity • Other test performance measures • Changes in reproductive decision making • Symptoms • Functional outcomes • Health status measures • Quality of life

DESCRIPTION

Mitochondrial diseases are multisystem diseases that arise from dysfunction in the mitochondrial protein complexes involved in oxidative metabolism. There are many related but distinct syndromes, and some patients have overlapping syndromes. As a result, these disorders can be difficult to diagnose. Genetic testing has the potential to improve the accuracy of diagnosis for mitochondrial diseases. Genetic testing also has the potential to determine future risk of disease in individuals who have a close relative with a pathogenic variant.

SUMMARY OF EVIDENCE

For individuals who have signs and/or symptoms of a mitochondrial disease who receive genetic testing, the evidence includes case series and cohort studies. Relevant outcomes are test validity, other test performance measures, symptoms, functional outcomes, health status measures, and quality of life. There is some evidence

on clinical validity that varies by the patient population and testing strategy. Studies reporting diagnostic yield for known pathogenic variants using next-generation sequencing panels tend to report rates ranging from 15% to 25%. Clinical specificity is unknown, but population-based studies have indicated that the prevalence of certain variants exceeds the prevalence of clinical disease, suggesting that the variant will be found in some people without the clinical disease (false positives). Clinical utility is relatively high for confirming the diagnosis of mitochondrial diseases in people who have signs and symptoms of the disease. In these patients, a positive result on genetic testing can avoid a muscle biopsy and eliminate the need for further clinical workup. The evidence is sufficient to determine that the technology results in a meaningful improvement in the net health outcome.

For individuals who are symptomatic with a close relative with a mitochondrial disease and a known pathogenic variant and who receive targeted familial variant testing, the evidence includes case series and cohort studies. Relevant outcomes are test validity, other test performance measures, changes in reproductive decision making, symptoms, functional outcomes, health status measures, and quality of life. Clinical validity is expected to be high for targeted testing of a known familial variant, assuming sufficient analytic validity. Clinical utility can be demonstrated by testing of at-risk family members who have a close relative with a pathogenic variant. When a specific mitochondrial disease is present in the family that is severe enough to cause impairment and/or disability, genetic testing may impact reproductive decision making. The evidence is sufficient to determine that the technology results in a meaningful improvement in the net health outcome.

POLICY

Genetic testing to establish a genetic diagnosis of a mitochondrial disease may be considered **medically necessary** when signs and symptoms of a mitochondrial disease are present and genetic testing may eliminate the need for muscle biopsy.

Targeted genetic testing for a known familial variant in at-risk relatives may be considered **medically necessary** as preconceptual carrier testing under the following conditions:

- There is a defined mitochondrial disease in the family of sufficient severity to cause impairment of quality of life or functional status; AND
- A variant that is known to be pathogenic for that specific mitochondrial disease has been identified in the index case.

Genetic testing for mitochondrial disorders is considered **investigational** in all other situations when the criteria for medical necessity are not met.

POLICY GUIDELINES

Mitochondrial disorders can be caused by variants in mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) or nuclear DNA (nDNA). A three-generation family history may suggest a mode of inheritance. A family history in which affected women transmit the disease to male and female children and affected men do not transmit the disease to their children suggests the familial variant(s) is in the mtDNA. A family history consistent with Mendelian autosomal dominant or autosomal recessive inheritance or with X-linked inheritance suggests the familial variant(s) is in the nDNA. De novo pathogenic variants are also possible.

TESTING STRATEGY

Individuals With a Suspected Mitochondrial Disorder

If the phenotype is highly suggestive of a specific disorder that is supported by the inheritance pattern noted in the family history, it would be reasonable to begin genetic testing with single genes or targeted multigene pan-

els that test for pathogenic variants specific for that disorder.

If a mitochondrial disorder is suspected, but the phenotype is nonspecific, broader genetic testing is appropriate under the guidance of a clinical geneticist and genetics counselor. For patients in whom the family history is suggestive of a disorder due to pathogenic variant(s) in mtDNA, multigene panels or sequencing of the mitochondrial genome may be appropriate. If multiple mtDNA deletions are noted, or the family history is suggestive of a disorder due to variants in nDNA, then multigene panels covering known nuclear genes associated with mitochondrial disease may be appropriate. Testing using whole exome sequencing is reviewed in the Whole Exome and Whole Genome Sequencing for Diagnosis of Genetic Disorders Protocol.

Individuals With a Family Member With a Mitochondrial Disorder and Known Familial Variant

Targeted testing for a known familial variant in at-risk relatives as part of preconceptual carrier testing is appropriate. At-risk relatives include only female relatives if the familial pathogenic variant is in the mtDNA but includes both male and female relatives if the familial pathogenic variant is in the nDNA.

GENETICS NOMENCLATURE UPDATE

The Human Genome Variation Society (HGVS) nomenclature is used to report information on variants found in DNA and serves as an international standard in DNA diagnostics. It is being implemented for genetic testing medical policy updates starting in 2017 (see Table PG1). The Society's nomenclature is recommended by the Human Variome Project, the HUman Genome Organization (HUGO) and by the Human Genome Variation Society itself.

The American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics and the Association for Molecular Pathology standards and guidelines for interpretation of sequence variants represent expert opinion from both organizations, in addition to the College of American Pathologists. These recommendations primarily apply to genetic tests used in clinical laboratories, including genotyping, single genes, panels, exomes, and genomes. Table PG2 shows the recommended standard terminology—"pathogenic," "likely pathogenic," "uncertain significance," "likely benign," and "benign"—to describe variants identified that cause Mendelian disorders.

Table PG1. Nomenclature to Report on Variants Found in DNA

Previous	Updated	Definition
Mutation	Disease-associated variant	Disease-associated change in the DNA sequence
	Variant	Change in the DNA sequence
	Familial variant	Disease-associated variant identified in a proband for use in subsequent targeted genetic testing in first-degree relatives

Table PG2. ACMG-AMP Standards and Guidelines for Variant Classification

Variant Classification	Definition
Pathogenic	Disease-causing change in the DNA sequence
Likely pathogenic	Likely disease-causing change in the DNA sequence
Variant of uncertain significance	Change in DNA sequence with uncertain effects on disease
Likely benign	Likely benign change in the DNA sequence
Benign	Benign change in the DNA sequence

ACMG: American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics; AMP: Association for Molecular Pathology.

GENETIC COUNSELING

Experts recommend formal genetic counseling for patients who are at risk for inherited disorders, and who wish to undergo genetic testing. Interpreting the results of genetic tests and understanding risk factors can be difficult. For some patients, genetic counseling helps individuals understand the impact of genetic testing, including the possible effects the test results could have on the individual or their family members. It should be noted that genetic counseling may alter the utilization of genetic testing substantially and may reduce inappropriate test-

ing; further genetic counseling should be performed by an individual with experience and expertise in genetic medicine and genetic testing methods.

MEDICARE ADVANTAGE

For Medicare Advantage genetic testing for mitochondrial disorders is considered **not medically necessary** if the above criteria are not met.

BACKGROUND

MITOCHONDRIAL DNA

Mitochondria are organelles within each cell that contain their own set of DNA, distinct from the nuclear DNA that makes up most of the human genome. Human mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) consists of 37 genes. Thirteen genes code for protein subunits of the mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation complex and the remaining 24 genes are responsible for proteins involved in the translation and/or assembly of the mitochondrial complex.¹ Additionally, there are over 1000 nuclear genes coding for proteins that support mitochondrial function.² The protein products from these genes are produced in the nucleus and later migrate to the mitochondria.

Mitochondrial DNA differs from nuclear DNA (nDNA) in several important ways. Inheritance of mtDNA does not follow traditional Mendelian patterns. Rather, mtDNA is inherited only from maternal DNA so disorders that result from variants in mtDNA can only be passed on by the mother. Also, there are thousands of copies of each mtDNA gene in each cell, as opposed to nDNA, which contains only one copy per cell. Because there are many copies of each gene, variants may be present in some copies of the gene but not others. This phenomenon is called heteroplasmy. Heteroplasmy can be expressed as a percentage of genes that have the variant ranging from 0% to 100%. Clinical expression of the variant will generally depend on a threshold effect (i.e., clinical symptoms will begin to appear when the percentage of mutated genes exceeds a threshold amount).³

MITOCHONDRIAL DISEASES

Primary mitochondrial diseases arise from dysfunction of the mitochondrial respiratory chain. The mitochondrial respiratory chain is responsible for aerobic metabolism, and dysfunction, therefore, affects a wide variety of physiologic pathways dependent on aerobic metabolism. Organs with a high-energy requirement, such as the central nervous system, cardiovascular system, and skeletal muscle, are preferentially affected by mitochondrial dysfunction.

The prevalence of these disorders has risen over the last two decades as the pathophysiology and clinical manifestations have been better characterized. It is currently estimated that the minimum prevalence of primary mitochondrial diseases is at least one in 5000.^{1,4}

Some specific mitochondrial diseases are listed next:

- Mitochondrial encephalopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke-like episodes syndrome;
- Myoclonic epilepsy with ragged red fibers syndrome;
- Kearns-Sayre syndrome;
- Leigh syndrome;
- Chronic progressive external ophthalmoplegia;
- Leber hereditary optic neuropathy;
- Neurogenic weakness with ataxia and retinitis pigmentosa.

Most of these disorders are characterized by multisystem dysfunction, which generally includes myopathies and neurologic dysfunction and may involve multiple other organs. Each defined mitochondrial disease has a characteristic set of signs or symptoms. The severity of illness is heterogeneous and can vary markedly. Some patients will have only mild symptoms for which they never require medical care, while other patients have severe symptoms, a large burden of morbidity, and a shortened life expectancy.

Diagnosis

The diagnosis of mitochondrial disorders can be difficult. The individual symptoms are nonspecific, and symptom patterns can overlap considerably. As a result, a patient often cannot be easily classified into one particular syndrome.⁵ Biochemical testing is indicated for patients who do not have a clear clinical picture of one specific disorder. Measurement of serum lactic acid is often used as a screening test, but the test is neither sensitive nor specific for mitochondrial disorders.²

A muscle biopsy can be performed if the diagnosis is uncertain after biochemical workup. However, this invasive test is not definitive in all cases. The presence of “ragged red fibers” on histologic analysis is consistent with a mitochondrial disease. Ragged red fibers represent a proliferation of defective mitochondria.¹ This characteristic finding may not be present in all types of mitochondrial diseases and also may be absent early in the course of disease.²

Treatment

Treatment of mitochondrial disease is largely supportive because there are no specific therapies that impact the natural history of the disorder.⁵ Identification of complications such as diabetes and cardiac dysfunction is important for early treatment of these conditions. A number of vitamins and cofactors (e.g., coenzyme Q, riboflavin) have been used, but empirical evidence of benefit is lacking.⁶ Exercise therapy for myopathy is often prescribed, but the effect on clinical outcomes is uncertain.⁵ The possibility of gene transfer therapy is under consideration, but is at an early stage of development and untested in clinical trials.

Genetic Testing

Mitochondrial diseases can be caused by pathogenic variants in the maternally inherited mtDNA or one of many nDNA genes. Genetic testing for mitochondrial diseases may involve testing for point mutations, deletion and duplication analysis, and/or whole exome sequencing of nuclear or mtDNA. The type of testing done depends on the specific disorder being considered. For some primary mitochondrial diseases such as mitochondrial encephalopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke-like episodes and myoclonic epilepsy with ragged red fibers, most variants are point mutations, and there is a finite number of variants associated with the disorder. When testing for one of these disorders, known pathogenic variants can be tested for with polymerase chain reaction, or sequence analysis can be performed on the particular gene. For other mitochondrial diseases, such as chronic progressive external ophthalmoplegia and Kearns-Sayre syndrome, the most common variants are deletions, and therefore duplication and deletion analysis would be the first test when these disorders are suspected. Table 1 provides examples of clinical symptoms and particular genetic variants in mtDNA or nDNA associated with particular mitochondrial syndromes.^{5,7} A repository of published and unpublished data on variants in human mtDNA is available in the MITOMAP database.⁸ Lists of mtDNA and nDNA genes that may lead to mitochondrial diseases and testing laboratories in the United States are provided at the Genetic Testing Registry of the National Center for Biotechnology Information website.⁹

Table 1. Examples of Mitochondrial Diseases, Clinical Manifestations, and Associated Pathogenic Genes

Syndrome	Main Clinical Manifestations	Major Genes Involved
MELAS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stroke-like episodes under 40 years of age Seizures and/or dementia Pigmentary retinopathy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>MT-TL1</i>, <i>MT-ND5</i> (> 95%) <i>MT-TF</i>, <i>MT-TH</i>, <i>MT-TK</i>, <i>MT-TQ</i>, <i>MT-TS₁</i>, <i>MT-TS₂</i>, <i>MT-ND1</i>, <i>MT-ND6</i> (rare)

Syndrome	Main Clinical Manifestations	Major Genes Involved
MERFF	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lactic acidosis • Myoclonus • Seizures • Cerebellar ataxia • Myopathy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>MT-TK</i> (> 80%) • <i>MT-TF, MT-TP</i> (rare)
CPEO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External ophthalmoplegia • Bilateral ptosis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Various deletions of mitochondrial DNA
Kearns-Sayre syndrome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External ophthalmoplegia at under 20 years of age • Pigmentary retinopathy • Cerebellar ataxia • Heart block 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Various deletions of mitochondrial DNA
Leigh syndrome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subacute relapsing encephalopathy • Infantile onset • Cerebellar/brainstem dysfunction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>MT-ATP6, MT-TL1, MT-TK, MT-TW, MT-TV, MT-ND1, MT-ND2, MT-ND3, MT-ND4, MT-ND5, MT-ND6, MT-CO3</i> • mitochondrial DNA deletions (rare) • <i>SUCLA2, NDUSFx, NDFVx, SDHA, BCS1L, SURF1, SCO2, COX15</i>
LHON	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Painless bilateral visual failure • Male predominance • Dystonia • Cardiac pre-excitation syndromes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>MT-ND1, MT-ND4, MT-ND6</i>
NARP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peripheral neuropathy • Ataxia • Pigmentary retinopathy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>MT-ATP6</i>
MNGIE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intestinal malabsorption • Cachexia • External ophthalmoplegia • Neuropathy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>TP</i>
IOSCA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ataxia • Hypotonia • Athetosis • Ophthalmoplegia • Seizures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>TWINKLE</i>
SANDO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ataxic neuropathy • Dysarthria • Ophthalmoparesis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>POLG</i>
Alpers syndrome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intractable epilepsy • Psychomotor regression • Liver disease 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>POLG, DGUOK, MPV17</i>
GRACILE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Growth retardation • Aminoaciduria • Cholestasis • Iron overload • Lactic acidosis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>NDUSFx</i>
Coenzyme Q ₁₀ deficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encephalopathy • Steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome • Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy • Retinopathy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>COQ2</i> • <i>COQ9</i> • <i>CABC1</i> • <i>ETFDH</i>

Syndrome	Main Clinical Manifestations	Major Genes Involved
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hearing loss 	

Adapted from Chinnery et al (2014)⁵ and Angelini et al (2009).⁷

CPEO: chronic progressive external ophthalmoplegia; GRACILE: growth retardation, aminoaciduria, cholestasis, iron overload, early death; IOSCA: infantile onset spinal cerebellar atrophy; LHON: Leber hereditary optic neuropathy; MELAS: mitochondrial encephalomyopathy, lactic acidosis, and stroke-like episodes; MERFF: myoclonic epilepsy with ragged-red fibers; MNGIE: mitochondrial neurogastrointestinal encephalopathy; NARP: neuropathy, ataxia, and retinitis pigmentosa; SANDO: sensory ataxia, neuropathy, dysarthria and ophthalmoplegia.

REGULATORY STATUS

Clinical laboratories may develop and validate tests in-house and market them as a laboratory service; laboratory-developed tests (LDTs) must meet the general regulatory standards of the Clinical Laboratory Improvement Amendments (CLIA). Genetic testing for mitochondrial disorders is under the auspices of the CLIA. Laboratories that offer LDTs must be licensed by CLIA for high-complexity testing. To date, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration has chosen not to require any regulatory review of this test.

Services that are the subject of a clinical trial do not meet our Technology Assessment Protocol criteria and are considered investigational. *For explanation of experimental and investigational, please refer to the Technology Assessment Protocol.*

It is expected that only appropriate and medically necessary services will be rendered. We reserve the right to conduct prepayment and postpayment reviews to assess the medical appropriateness of the above-referenced procedures. **Some of this protocol may not pertain to the patients you provide care to, as it may relate to products that are not available in your geographic area.**

REFERENCES

We are not responsible for the continuing viability of web site addresses that may be listed in any references below.

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