β-Glucocerebrosidase (GBA) hydrolyzes glucosylceramide (GlcCer) to generate ceramide. Previously, we demonstrated that lysosomal GBA1 and nonlysosomal GBA2 possess not only GlcCer hydrolase activity, but also transglucosylation activity to transfer the glucose residue from GlcCer to cholesterol to form β-cholesterylglucoside (β-GlcChol) in vitro. β-GlcChol is a member of sterol glycosides present in diverse species. How GBA1 and GBA2 mediate β-GlcChol metabolism in the brain is unknown. Here, we purified and characterized sterol glycosides from rodent and fish brains. Although glucose is thought to be the sole carbohydrate component of sterol glycosides in vertebrates, structural analysis of rat brain sterol glycosides revealed the presence of galactosylated cholesterol (β-GlChol), in addition to β-GlcChol. Analyses of brain tissues from GBA2-deficient mice and GBA1- and/or GBA2-deficient Japanese rice fish (Oryzias latipes) revealed that GBA1 and GBA2 are responsible for β-GlcChol degradation and formation, respectively, and that both GBA1 and GBA2 are responsible for β-GalChol formation. Liquid chromatography–tandem MS revealed that β-GlcChol and β-GalChol are present throughout development from embryo to adult in the mouse brain. We found that β-GalChol expression depends on galactosylceramide (GalCer), and developmental onset of β-GalChol biosynthesis appeared to be during myelination. We also found that β-GlcChol and β-GalChol are secreted from neurons and glial cells in association with exosomes. In vitro enzyme assays confirmed that GBA1 and GBA2 have transglucosylation activity to transfer the galactose residue from GalCer to cholesterol to form β-GalChol. This is the first report of the existence of β-GalChol in vertebrates and how β-GlcChol and β-GalChol are formed in the brain.

Glycosylation of lipids, including glycerolipids, sterols, and sphingolipids, is a highly-conserved system in living organisms. Sterglycosides are glycosylated sterols that are found in bacteria, fungi, plants, and animals (1). This evolutionary conservation of sterglycosides across domains of organisms indicates that they likely play critical roles in fundamental cellular processes. In vertebrates, cholesterol is the major sterol component, and its glycosylation forms β-cholesterylglucoside (1-O-cholesteryl-β-D-glucopyranoside (β-GlcChol)).2 Recently, Marques et al. (2) demonstrated that β-GlcChol is involved in the development of myelination. In the present study, we determined the structures of these glycosylated sterols and analyzed their abundance in vertebrate brains and in Japanese rice fish. Here, we report the identification of β-GalChol, a glucosylated cholesterol, and demonstrate the importance of this novel class of lipids in vertebrates and invertebrates.

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Galactosylated cholesterol in vertebrate brain

shown that β-GlcChol is present in human and mouse tissue, including brain, by using liquid chromatography (LC)-electrospray ionization tandem MS (ESI–MS/MS). Because purification of β-GlcChol from central nervous system (CNS) tissue has not been reported, and structural analysis based on the β-GlcChol-containing fraction has not been reported, we developed a multistep chromatographic purification protocol capable of isolating β-GlcChol from the brain, an organ that contains high levels of glucosylerceramide (GlcCer) and galactosylerceramide (GalCer). As they exhibit very similar chromatographic behavior to β-GlcChol, a method like ours is needed to differentiate it from GlcCer and GalCer. Although β-GlcChol is thought to be the sole steryglycoside in vertebrates, in embryonic chicken brain we found two more steryglycosides, the plant-type β-sitosterylβ-d-glucopyranoside (β-GlcSito) and an as-of-yet structurally and not fully-identified homologue termed GSX-2 (3). Available structural information on GSX-2 suggests high similarity with plant-type β-campesterylglucoside (1-O-campesteryl-β-d-glucopyranoside) (3).

Formation of β-GlcChol is mediated by glucocerebrosidase (GCase, GlcCer-degrading β-glucosidase) 1 and 2 (GBA1 and GBA2). GBA1 (lysosomal acid GCase, EC 3.2.1.45) is a watersoluble enzyme that can associate with lysosomal membranes. Homozygous mutations in the GBA1 gene cause Gaucher disease (GD), which is the most common lysosomal storage disorder. It is characterized by the accumulation of GlcCer in the lysosomal compartment of macrophages (4, 5). Heterozygous mutations in the GBA1 gene are a high-risk factor for Parkinson’s disease (PD) and multiple system atrophy (MSA) (6, 7). GBA2 (nonlysosomal GCase, EC 3.2.1.45) is a nonintegral membrane-associated protein that localizes at the cytosolic surface of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and Golgi apparatus (8–11). GBA2-deficient mice accumulate GlcCer in the testis, brain, and liver, and they exhibit male infertility (9) and delayed liver regeneration (12). Loss-of-function mutations in the GBA2 gene cause neurological disorders, such as cerebellar ataxia and spastic paraplegia (13–15). In mammalian cells in vitro, both GBA1 and GBA2 possess not only GlcCer hydrolase activity but also transferase activity, catalyzing a transglycosylation reaction to form β-GlcChol via transfer of the glucose residue from GlcCer to cholesterol (2, 16). GBA1 and GBA2 also possess β-GlcChol hydrolase activity, and both enzymes can transfer a glucose residue from β-GlcChol to ceramide, indicating that the enzymes catalyze a reversible transglycosylation reaction between GlcCer and β-GlcChol via a glucose molecule (2, 16).

The concentration of β-GlcChol is elevated in the liver and the plasma of a GD mouse model. It is also elevated in the plasma of GD patients, the liver of a Niemann-Pick disease type C (NPC) disease mouse model, and the plasma of NPC patients (2). β-GlcChol also increases in cells treated with U18666A, an amphiphilic compound that inhibits cholesterol transport and causes accumulation of cholesterol in lysosomes. U18666A-induced β-GlcChol elevation is inhibited by conduritol B epoxide (αL-1,2-anhydro-myoinositol; CBE), a specific inhibitor of GBA1 (2). GBA2-deficient mice have decreased levels of β-GlcChol in the thymus, the liver, and plasma (2), suggesting that GBA2 is responsible for β-GlcChol formation in vivo. Under normal conditions, GBA1 and GBA2 seem to contribute to β-GlcChol degradation and formation, respectively. In contrast, when excess cholesterol accumulates in lysosomes, such as that found in NPC disease, GBA1 actively generates β-GlcChol (2). Although β-GlcChol metabolism mediated by GBA1 and GBA2 has been studied in several kinds of cells and tissues and in plasma, the metabolism of steryglycosides in the brain is not understood.

Although glucose is considered as the sole carbohydrate headgroup in vertebrate steryglycosides, we previously reported the presence of a steryglycoside constituent from brain and sciatic nerve tissue exhibiting resistance against digestion by recombinant human GBA1 (rGBA1), Cerezyme® (2, 3). In contrast, GSX-2 and β-GlcSito fractions from embryonic chicken brains (E6 to E18) were digested completely by rGBA1 (3).

In this report, we describe the isolation of steryglycosides from 12-week-old rat brains, as previous reports suggested a higher content of the rGBA1-resistant steryglycosides in adult brains compared with early-stage embryonic brains (2, 3). Structural analysis of the isolated steryglycoside fractions revealed the presence of β-cholesterolgalactoside (1-O-cholesterol-β-d-galactopyranoside, β-GalChol), in addition to β-GlcChol, GSX-2, and β-GlcSito. To understand the biological significance of brain steryglycosides, we determined their developmental expression and cellular distribution. Using the brains of GBA2-deficient mice and GBA1- and/or GBA2-deficient Oryzias latipes (also known as Japanese rice fish or medaka), we demonstrated that GBA1 is involved in β-GlcChol degradation and β-GalChol formation and that GBA2 is involved in the formation of β-GlcChol and β-GalChol and degradation of GSX-2 and β-GlcSito in vivo. It has not been reported that GBA1 and GBA2 have GalCer-degrading β-gal activity. However, our in vitro enzyme assays revealed that GBA1 and GBA2 degraded GalCer and synthesized β-GalChol from GalCer and cholesterol. Our work described here is the first report to demonstrate the existence of β-GalChol in vertebrates and to demonstrate the metabolism of steryglycosides in vertebrate brain.

Results

Previously unidentified cholesterylglucoside-related lipid in adult rodent brain

A steryglycosides fraction was enriched and isolated from CNS tissues using a previously developed multistep chromatographic purification protocol (3). The glycerophospholipid fraction was hydrolyzed, and then steryglycosides were enriched by normal phase chromatography. We used a chloroform/methanol (C/M) gradient for normal-phase chromatography. For reversed-phase (RP) chromatography, we used a
methanol/water (M/W) gradient. To remove the large excess of GalCer that was enriched together with sterlyglycosides, we performed normal-phase chromatography again using a C/M gradient (Fig. 1A). Analysis of boronated high-performance TLC (HPTLC) revealed that the GalCer fraction was successfully separated. The bands co-migrating with standard β-GlcChol and β-GalChol in fraction 35 were designated GS1 and GS2, respectively; each was collected for further purification.

B–D, HPTLC mobilities of isolated GS1 and GS2 fractions using C/M/W (65:35:8, v/v/v) as a solvent system with Silica Gel 60 impregnated with 1% boric acid (C); and hexane/isopropyl alcohol/C/M/W (25:35:65:25:3, v/v/v/v/v) as a solvent system with Silica Gel 60 impregnated with 1% boric acid (D). Lipids were visualized with orcinol staining. Lane 1, GlcCer (d18:1-C18:0); lane 2, GalCer from bovine brain; lane 3, GS1 fraction purified from rat brains; lane 4, GS2 fraction purified from rat brains; lane 5, authentic β-GlcChol standard; and lane 6, authentic standard of β-GalChol.

Figure 1. Purification of sterlyglycosides from 12-week-old rat brains. A, HPTLC analysis of the sterlyglycoside elution profile from a silica gel column during enrichment, visualized by orcinol staining. The bands co-migrating with standard β-GlcChol and β-GalChol in fraction 35 are designated GS1 and GS2, respectively; each was collected for further purification. B–D, HPTLC mobilities of isolated GS1 and GS2 fractions using C/M/W (65:35:8, v/v/v) as a solvent system with Silica Gel 60 impregnated with 1% boric acid (C); and hexane/isopropyl alcohol/C/M/W (25:35:65:25:3, v/v/v/v/v) as a solvent system with Silica Gel 60 impregnated with 1% boric acid (D). Lipids were visualized with orcinol staining. Lane 1, GlcCer (d18:1-C18:0); lane 2, GalCer from bovine brain; lane 3, GS1 fraction purified from rat brains; lane 4, GS2 fraction purified from rat brains; lane 5, authentic β-GlcChol standard; and lane 6, authentic standard of β-GalChol.

To gain further structural insight of the main constituents in GS1 and GS2, each fraction was subjected to reversed-phase LC (RPLC)-ESI–MS/MS analysis. A neutral-loss scan of the carbohydrate moiety following collision-induced dissociation (CID) revealed a single peak for each sample corresponded to a parent ion [M + NH4]⁺ at m/z 566 (Fig. 3, A and B). The peak in GS1 and GS2 exhibited similar elution time compared with authentic β-GlcChol and β-GalChol standards, respectively. MALDI-TOF/TOF analysis of the lithium adduct of GS1 and GS2 main constituents at [M + Li]⁺ m/z 555.4 (Fig. 3, C and D) followed by high-energy CID (Fig. 3, E and F) revealed a dominant ion at m/z 187 in the product ion spectra, corresponding to [hexose + Li]⁺. These results revealed the presence of glycosylated sterols in GS1 and GS2 fractions.
Figure 2. NMR analysis of GS1 and GS2 fractions isolated from brains of 12-week-old rats. A, $^1$H NMR spectra of GS1 fraction, GS2 fraction, authentic $\beta$-GlcChol standard, and authentic $\beta$-GalChol standard. B, two-dimensional (2D) multiplicity-edited $^1$H-$^3$C HSQC spectrum ($\text{CH}_2$, red; $\text{CH}$, black) of the GS1 fraction. C, two-dimensional HOHAHA spectrum of GS2 fraction. Mixing time was set to 20 ms.
To determine the aglycon structure in GS1 and GS2, each fraction was subjected to enzymatic deglycosylation, followed by GC/MS (GC/MS) of the liberated aglycons (Fig. S1). The major sterol liberated from fractions GS1 and GS2 eluted at 20.2 min (Fig. S1, A, peak 1, and D, peak 2). The elution time and fragmentation pattern of the major sterol (Fig. S1, B and E) coincided well with authentic cholesterol. The liberated aglycons from fraction GS2 exhibited an additional peak eluting at 27.2 min (Fig. S1, D, peak 3). The absence of the m/z 129 fragment (Fig. S1F), usually present in Δ3-3-hydroxysteroid TMS derivatives (17), and the late elution time of peak 3 did not allow its identification.

Taken together, structural analysis of the fraction GS1 from adult rat brains confirmed the presence of β-GlcChol, and fraction GS2 revealed the presence of β-GalChol.

**Characterization of sterylglycosides in brain**

To characterize the expression pattern of brain sterylglycosides, we developed an analytical method using LC-MS. First, β-GalChol was chemically synthesized according to the method described under “Experimental procedures.” Hexosylcholesterol, including β-GlcChol and β-GalChol, was monitored using hydrophilic interaction chromatography (HILIC)-ESI–MS/MS. HILIC columns, which are widely used for

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*Figure 3. MS analysis of GS1 and GS2 fractions isolated from brains of 12-week-old rats. A and B, RPLC–ESI–MS/MS spectrum of GS1 (A) and GS2 (B) fractions during neutral-loss scan of [M + NH4]+. Total ion count (TIC) chromatogram and individual MS/MS spectra of indicated peaks are shown. C–E, analysis of GS1 and GS2 fractions by MALDI-TOF/TOF in positive-ion mode. MS1 spectra of GS1 fraction (C) and GS2 fraction (D). High-energy CID MS/MS spectra of GS1 fraction (E) and GS2 fraction (F) show selected precursor ion [M + Li]+ m/z 555.4.*
increased. This means that the GlcCer content in a 10-week-old
Because the ionization efficiency of
Multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) analysis revealed that
Chol in mouse brain were comparable.
GalCer with long-chain fatty acid (H9252
is different, we quantified
&tional neurons by a sequential centrifugation. The resulting
EVs containing exosomes were prepared from the culture
lation (20). The lipid composition of lipid rafts is similar to that
stantially increased after postnatal day (P) 10. Thus, at postnatal
increased -GlcChol and -GalChol separately
To monitor the developmental expression of sterylglycosides in the brain, we used HILIC–ESI–MS/MS to analyze brain lipid extracts obtained from mice of different ages, i.e. embryonic
day (E) 12 to postnatal week 10. The lipid extracts were added to
multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) analysis revealed that
-β-GlcChol detected in E12 mouse brain was four times greater than
in contrast to the modest increase of -β-GlcChol during early development, the amount of -β-GalChol
substantially increased after postnatal day (P) 10. Thus, at postnatal
weeks 4 and 10, the concentrations of -β-GlcChol and -β-GalChol in mouse brain were comparable.

GalCer and GalCer were monitored along with the sterylglycosides. The amount of GalCer detected in E12 mouse brain was 90 times higher than that of -β-GlcChol. GlcCer content decreased during development, whereas -β-GlcChol slightly increased. This means that the GlcCer content in a 10-week-old postnatal mouse brain was four times greater than the -β-GlcChol content. As with -β-GalChol levels, the amount of GalCer (d18:1-C18:0) and GalCer (d18:1-C24:1) increased substantially after P10, suggesting -β-GalChol expression relates to
GalCer with long-chain fatty acid (>18 carbon atoms).

Next, we investigated the distribution of brain sterylglycosides. We previously reported that in the lipid raft fraction of human fibroblasts, -β-GlcChol is formed through transglucosylation (20). The lipid composition of lipid rafts is similar to that of exosomes, extracellular vesicles (EVs) ranging in size from 70 to 150 nm in diameter (21–24). This prompted us to investigate whether sterylglycosides are released from cells via exosomes. EVs containing exosomes were prepared from the culture media of human neuroglioma H4 cells and mouse primary cortical neurons by a sequential centrifugation. The resulting 100,000 × g pellet was separated by continuous sucrose density gradient centrifugation. The exosomal proteins Alix, tumor susceptibility gene 101 protein, and flotillin-1 were detected in sucrose density fractions corresponding to a density range of 1.07–1.18 g/ml (Fig. 6, A and D), similar to previous reports (25, 26). We did not detect a marker protein for Golgi and an ER

retention sequence in the pellet GM130 and Lys–Asp–Glu–Leu (abbreviated KDEL), respectively.

Analysis of exosomal particle size revealed that the subcellular material in the pellet contained mainly small membrane vesicles of 70–150 nm in diameter (Fig. 6, B and E). The concentrations of sterylglycosides, ceramide, sphingomyelin (SM), GlcCer, and GalCer were analyzed by LC–ESI–MS/MS (Fig. 6, C and F). Consistent with previous reports (23, 24), exosomes derived from H4 cells and mouse primary cortical neurons exhibited higher concentrations of GlcCer and GalCer compared with their cells of origin (Fig. 6, C and F). Although ceramide and SM are reportedly enriched with exosomes (21, 23, 24, 27), we only detected enrichment of ceramide in exosomes derived from H4 cells but not from mouse primary cortical neurons, and SM was not enriched in exosomes (Fig. 6, C and F). Interestingly, -β-GlcChol, -β-GalChol, and -β-GlcSito were detected in exosomes derived from H4 cells and mouse primary cortical neurons. -β-GalChol was enriched in exosomes derived from H4 cells, whereas -β-GlcSito was enriched in exosomes derived from both H4 cells and mouse primary cortical neurons (Fig. 6, C and F). GSX-2 content was below the detection threshold in all analyzed exosomes and their cells of origin.

Brain sterylglycosides are metabolized by GBA1 and GBA2 in vivo

The metabolism of sterylglycosides has been described in various tissues, but not in brain tissue. Thus, we investigated the involvement of GBA1 and GBA2 in sterylglycoside metabolism. We used the brains of GBA2-deficient (Gba2−/−) mice and GBA1- and/or GBA2-deficient medakas (O. latipes) for this study.

PCR-based genotyping of mice was used to identify Gba2+/+ and Gba2−/− homozygous offspring (Fig. 7A). The concentrations of sterylglycosides, GlcCer, and GalCer in the brains of WT and Gba2−/− mice were analyzed by HILIC–ESI–MS/MS (Fig. 7B). In the brains of Gba2−/− mice, -β-GlcChol levels were decreased. This is consistent with the down-regulation of -β-GlcChol observed in the liver, thymus, and plasma of GBA2-deficient mice (2). Unexpectedly, -β-GalChol levels were also decreased in the brains of Gba2−/− mice. GSX-2 and -β-GlcSito levels, however, were increased. To date, the levels of GlcCer and GalCer in the brains of Gba2−/− mice have not been reported. Our analysis showed that the level of GlcCer but not GalCer was increased in the brains of Gba2−/− mice. This is consistent with the finding that in Gba2−/− mice GalCer is up-regulated in the testis, liver, kidney, and small intestine (9, 19).

GBA1- and/or GBA2-deficient medakas were generated by crossing Gba1−/−/Gba2−/− heterozygous mutants. The resulting offspring had one of nine possible genotypes: Gba1−/−/Gba2−/+ (WT); Gba1−/+/Gba2−/+, Gba1−/−/Gba2−/−, Gba1−/+/Gba2+/+, Gba1−/+/Gba2−/−, Gba1−/+/Gba2−/−, Gba1−/+/Gba2+/−, Gba1−/−/Gba2−/− and Gba1−/−/Gba2−/−. HILIC–ESI–MS/MS was used to determine the concentrations of sterylglycosides in medaka brains of each of the nine geno-

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3 E. Nakanishi, N. Uemura, H. Akiyama, M. Kinoshita, H. Yamakado, S. Takeda, Y. Hirabayashi, and R. Takahashi, submitted for publication.
Figure 4. Quantification of β-GlcChol and β-GalChol by HILIC–ESI–MS/MS. A, elution pattern of β-GlcChol and β-GalChol from HILIC. Authentic standards of β-GlcChol and β-GalChol and lipids extracted from the brain of a 10-week-old C57BL/6J male mouse were analyzed by HILIC–ESI–MS/MS. Monitored precursor–product ion pair was 566/369. B, different concentrations of authentic standards of β-GlcChol and β-GalChol were analyzed using HILIC–ESI–MS/MS, and peak areas were integrated. Data (n = 3) are means ± S.E. Differences were analyzed by unpaired t tests. **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001; #, p < 0.0001.
types (Fig. 7C). In Gba1−/−/Gbα2+/+ medakas, β-GlcChol levels were increased in the brains. This was consistent with the finding that β-GlcChol is up-regulated in the liver and plasma of GBA1-deficient mice (2). β-GlcChol levels were also increased in the brains of Gba1−/−/Gbα2−/− medakas. The pattern was different for the other genotypes: in the brains of Gba1+/+/Gbα2−/−, Gba1−/+/Gbα2−/−, and Gba1−/−/Gbα2−/− medakas, β-GlcChol and β-GalChol levels were decreased. This is the pattern we observed in the brains of Gba2−/−/− mice. β-GalChol levels were also decreased in the brains of Gba1−/−/Gbα2−/− medakas, although this decrease was not statistically significant. In Gba1−/−/Gbα2+/−, Gba1−/+/Gbα2−/−, Gba1−/−/Gbα2−/−, and Gba1−/−/Gbα2−/− medakas, GSX-2 and β-Glcsito levels were increased in the brains. These results suggest that GBA1 and GBA2 are both involved in the metabolism of brain sterylglucosides in vivo.

**Cholesterol galactosylation is catalyzed by transgalactosylation of GBA1, GBA2, and GALC in vitro**

To identify the enzyme responsible for β-GalChol formation, we experimentally down-regulated GBA1, GBA2, GALC (galactosylceramidase, galactocerebroside, EC 3.2.1.46), and CGT (UDP-galactose ceramide galactosyltransferase, EC 2.4.1.45) proteins by introducing specific targeting siRNA into β-GalChol- and GalCer-expressing H4 cells. GALC is a lysosomal enzyme responsible for degrading GalCer and galactosylphingosine (GalSph). CGT is an enzyme responsible for synthesizing GalCer from ceramide and UDP-galactose (UDP-Gal). siRNA-mediated knockdown (KD) of GBA1, GBA2, GALC, or CGT reduced the level of each protein compared with that in control H4 cells; H4 cells received scrambled siRNA (Fig. 8A).

HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analysis of GalCer and β-GalChol showed that GBA1 KD or GBA2 KD reduced β-GalChol levels by about 50% (Fig. 8B). GBA1 KD or GBA2 KD did not alter GalCer levels. GALC KD resulted in the up-regulation of β-GalChol. We could not detect alteration of GalCer levels in H4 cells after GALC KD. Consistent with the results presented in Fig. 5, CGT KD reduced β-GalChol and GalCer levels, suggesting that β-GalChol expression depends on GalCer. These results suggest that GBA1, GBA2, and CGT are involved in β-GalChol formation and that GALC is involved in β-GalChol degradation.

Next, we examined whether glycolipids featuring terminal β-galactosyl residues, such as lactosylceramide, GA1, GM1, and GD1b, are suitable galactose donors for β-GalChol formation. We used HeLa cell mutants deficient in UGCG, a gene encoding UDP-glucose:ceramide glucosyltransferase (GlcCer synthase, EC 2.4.1.80). HeLa cell mutants deficient in UGCG (UGCG−/−) express GalCer, but not GlcCer and GlcCer-derived glycolipids featuring terminal β-galactosyl residues (28). As expected, GlcCer and β-GlcChol concentrations were significantly reduced in UGCG−/− HeLa cells compared with WT HeLa cells (UGCG−/+) (Fig. 8C). However, GalCer, β-GalChol, and β-Glcsito concentrations were not altered in UGCG−/− HeLa cells. The concentration of GSX-2 was below detection threshold in both cell lines. These results suggest that GalCer is one of the galactose donors needed for β-GalChol formation, whereas glycolipids featuring terminal β-galactosyl residues are not suitable galactose donors.

These findings prompted us to determine whether GBA1 and GBA2 could generate β-GalChol via transgalactosylation. We also examined whether GALC could also generate β-GalChol, even though GALC might be involved in β-GalChol degradation. Transgalactosylation in vitro was assessed using 25-NBD–cholesterol (NBD–chol) as a glycosyl acceptor. HPTLC and fluorescence scanning were used to detect any
25-NBD–galactosyl-cholesterol (NBD–GalChol) formed. We used three enzyme sources: rGBA1, GBA2 (in the form of homogenates of GBA2-expressing HEK293T cells), and a recombinant human galactosylceramidase (rGALC). Each enzyme preparation was incubated with NBD–chol as the glycosyl acceptor and the following glycosyl donors: GlcCer (d18:1-C18:1); glucosylsphingosine (GlcSph); GalCer (d18:1-C12:0); GalSph; or UDP-Gal. Following incubation at optimal conditions for each enzyme, lipids were extracted and subjected to HPTLC.

Consistent with previous reports (2, 16), 25-NBD–glucosyl-cholesterol (NBD–GlcChol) was generated using 20 ng of rGBA1 protein and GlcCer (d18:1-C18:1) as glycosyl donor; NBD–GlcChol exhibited a similar $R_f$ value as an authentic /H9252-GlcChol standard. NBD–GlcChol formation was reduced by inhibiting GBA1 with CBE (Fig. 9A). Although NBD–GalChol
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Figure 7. Effect of Gba1 and/or Gba2 knockout on ster glycoside formation in brains of mice and medaka. A and B, effect of Gba2 knockout on ster glycoside formation in mouse brain. A, PCR genotyping of WT (Gba2+/+) and Gba2−/− male mice genomic DNA. A 640-bp product was generated from the mutant allele, and a 530-bp product was produced from the WT allele. B, concentrations of ster glycosides, GlcCer, and GalCer in brains of 10-week-old Gba2−/− and Gba2−/− male mice were analyzed by HILIC–ESI–MS/MS. Quantitative values of GlcCer or GalCer having various lengths of fatty acid chains (C16:0, C18:0, C20:0, C20:1, C22:0, C22:1, C23:0, C23:1, C24:0, C24:1, C25:0, C25:1, C26:0, and C26:1) are summarized. Data (n = 4–5) are means ± S.E. Differences were analyzed by unpaired t tests. **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001; #, p < 0.0001. C, effect of Gba1 and/or Gba2 knockout on ster glycoside formation in medaka brain. Concentrations of ster glycosides in the 3.5-month-old medaka brains were analyzed by HILIC–ESI–MS/MS. These medakas were generated by crossing heterozygous mutants, which had a Gba1+/−/Gba2−/− genotype. Data (n = 3) are means ± S.E. Differences were assessed by unpaired t tests. *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01 compared with WT (Gba1+/−/Gba2−/−).
formation was not detected using 20 ng of rGBA1 protein, NBD–GalChol was generated when we used more protein. Incubating 2 μg of the rGBA1 protein and GalCer (d18:1-C12:0) as glycosyl donor resulted in the formation of NBD–GalChol. The production of NBD–GalChol was reduced by CBE. In contrast, NBD–GalChol was not generated using rGALC and GalSph or UDP-Gal as glycosyl donors (Fig. 9A). The activity of rGBA1 toward NBD–GalChol formation was more than 1,000 times lower than that toward NBD–GlcChol formation. Consistent with a previous report (2), NBD–GalChol was generated using 20 μg of protein in homogenates derived from GBA2-overexpressing HEK293T cells and GlcCer (d18:1-C18:1) as glycosyl donor. As expected, inhibition of GBA2 with N-(n-butyl)deoxygalactonojirimycin (NB-DGJ) reduced the amount of NBD–GalChol formed (Fig. 9B). When using GalCer (d18:1-C12:0) as a glycosyl donor, more protein (200 μg of protein in HEK293T cell homogenates) was required to generate NBD–GalChol. NB-DGJ–mediated inhibition of GBA2 reduced the amount of NBD–GalChol formed (Fig. 9B). When GalSph or UDP-Gal was used as glycosyl donors in the presence of HEK293T cell homogenates, no NBD–GalChol was generated (Fig. 9B). The activity of GBA2 (in the homogenates) toward NBD–GalChol formation was more than 50 times lower than that toward NBD–GlcChol formation. As shown in the HPTLCs of Fig. 9C, NBD–GalChol was generated using rGALC and GalCer (d18:1-C12:0) as glycosyl donors; however, no NBD–GalChol was detected when GalSph or UDP-Gal was used as glycosyl donors.

We repeated the in vitro transgalactosylation activity assay using natural cholesterol as glycosyl acceptor and GalCer (d18:1-C12:0) as glycosyl donor. Formation of β-GalChol was assessed using HILIC–ESI–MS/MS (Fig. 9D). Again, β-GalChol was formed after incubating cholesterol for 2 h with rGBA1, homogenates from GBA2-overexpressing HEK293T cells, or rGALC. CBE and NB-DGJ, respectively, inhibited rGBA1- and GBA2-associated β-GalChol formation. Unexpectedly, a small amount of β-GalChol was formed in the absence of rGALC or without incubation (Fig. 9D, right panel). HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analysis confirmed that there was no β-GalChol contamination in any of the rGALC reaction mixtures (data not shown). This result indicates that trace amounts of β-GalChol could be formed by nonenzymatic reactions.

To transfer a galactose moiety from GalCer to cholesterol, hydrolysis of GalCer is necessary. Therefore, we analyzed the GalCer hydrolysis activity of rGBA1, of GBA2 in homogenates from GBA2-overexpressing HEK293T cells, and of rGALC using Cε−NBD–GalCer. HPTLC and fluorescence scanning was used to monitor the formation of the hydrolysis product, Cε−NBD–ceramide (Fig. 9E). We also analyzed GlcCer hydrolysis activity using Cε−NBD–GlcCer. GlcCer hydrolysis occurred in the presence of rGBA1 and the HEK293T cell homogenates. GlcCer hydrolysis activity of rGBA1 and GBA2 (in homogenates) was inhibited by CBE and NB-DGJ, respectively. GalCer hydrolysis occurred in the presence of rGBA1, the HEK293T cell homogenates, and rGALC. The GalCer hydrolysis activity of rGBA1 and GBA2 (in homogenates) was inhibited by CBE and NB-DGJ, respectively. rGBA1 activity toward Cε−NBD–GalCer hydrolysis was ~200 times lower than that toward Cε−NBD–GlcCer hydrolysis. The GBA2 activity in homogenates toward Cε−NBD–GalCer hydrolysis was ~7 times lower than that toward Cε−NBD–GlcCer hydrolysis. These results suggest that GBA1, GBA2, and GALC have GalCer hydrolysis activity and transgalactosylation activity. These reactions transfer a galactose moiety from GalCer to cholesterol to form β-GalChol in vitro.

Sterglycoside abnormalities in the brains of NPC disease model mice

NPC disease is a neurodegenerative lysosomal storage disease caused by loss–of–function mutations in either the NPC1 or NPC2 gene, genes that encode proteins essential for exporting cholesterol from lysosomes. Impairment of NPC1 or NPC2 leads to the accumulation of cholesterol in lysosomes; this accumulation is the primary defect in NPC disease (29, 30). β-GlcChol is remarkably elevated in the liver of Npc1−−/− mice.
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Figure 8. Sterylglycosides in cells manipulated in glycosphingolipid-metabolizing enzymes. A and B, effect of siRNA-mediated KD of GBA1, GBA2, GALC, or CGT on β-GalChol formation in H4 cells. GBA1, GBA2, GALC, and CGT proteins were down-regulated by introducing specific targeting siRNA into H4 cells. A, Western blot analysis of GBA1, GBA2, GALC, and CGT protein expression in H4 cells in which specific targeting siRNA was introduced. B, HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analysis of β-GalChol and GaLCer concentration in H4 cells in which specific targeting siRNA was introduced. The quantitative values of GalCer having various lengths of fatty acid chains (C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0, C22:1, C23:0, C23:1, C24:0, C24:1, C25:1, C26:0, and C26:1) are summarized. Data (n = 3–5) are means ± S.E. Differences were analyzed by unpaired t tests. *, p < 0.05; ***, p < 0.001; #, p < 0.0001. C, effect of UGCG knockout on sterylglycoside formation in HeLa cells. HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analyses of sterylglycosides, GlcCer, and GalCer concentration in HeLa-mCAT#8 cells (UGCG<sup>+/+</sup>) and HeLa-mCAT#8 cell mutants deficient in UGCG (UGCG<sup>−/−</sup>) are shown. Quantitative values of GlcCer or GalCer having various lengths of fatty acid chains (C14:0, C16:0, C18:0, C20:0, C20:1, C22:0, C22:1, C23:0, C23:1, C24:0, C24:1, C25:1, C26:0, and C26:1) are summarized. Data (n = 3–4) are means ± S.E. Differences were assessed by unpaired t tests. ***, p < 0.001; #, p < 0.0001; N.D., not detected (below the detection threshold).

(NPC disease model), being 25 times higher compared with WT mice (2). β-GlcChol is also elevated in the plasma of patients with NPC disease (2). These findings prompted us to determine the concentration of sterylglycosides in the brains of Npc<sup>1<sup>−/−</sup></sup> mice. The concentration of sterylglycosides, GlcCer, and GalCer was analyzed using HILIC–ESI–MS/MS (Fig. S2). Consistent with the up-regulation of β-GlcChol in the liver of Npc<sup>1<sup>−/−</sup></sup> mice (2), the β-GlcChol level was elevated in the brains of Npc<sup>1<sup>−/−</sup></sup> mice. Although the β-GalChol level was unchanged in the brains of Npc<sup>1<sup>−/−</sup></sup> mice, levels of GSX-2 and β-GlcSito increased. As reported previously (31), we also found that GlcCer level was up-regulated and that GalCer level was down-regulated in the brains of Npc<sup>1<sup>−/−</sup></sup> mice.

Discussion

Recently, we demonstrated aglycon heterogeneity in embryonic chicken brain—derived sterylglycosides by confirming the presence of β-GlcChol, GSX-2, and β-GlcSito (3). Here, we isolated two sterylglycoside fractions from 12-week-old rat brains. Structural analyses of steroylglycoside fractions GS1 and...
GS2 revealed the presence of β-GlcChol and β-GalChol, respectively, representing the first report of β-GalChol in vertebrates. β-GalChol has previously been identified in Borrelia burgdorferi (32, 33), a bacterium causing Lyme disease. Lyme disease is the most common tick-borne disease in the Northern hemisphere. Additionally, the presence of GSX-2 and β-
This suggests that GBA2 is the responsible enzyme for brains of GBA2-deficient mice and GBA2-deficient medakas. Consistent with a previous report (2), GBA1 seemed to be responsible for the degradation of β-GalChol in vertebrate, leading to the formation of β-GalChol. This newly-detected activity against GalCer is significantly lower compared with their known activity against GlcCer. This enzyme’s “promiscuity” of GBA1 and GBA2 has not been reported until now. Supporting our findings, it is known that d-galactose-configured deoxyxojirimycins inhibit GBA1 and GBA2 (41). Also, in Thermoanaerobacterium xylanolyticum, a thermophilic anaerobic Gram-negative bacterium, not only does GBA2 have β-glucosidase activity, but it also has β-gal activity toward 4-nitrophenyl β-D-galactoside (35), and GBA1- and/or GBA2-deficient medakas. In this study, our lipid analysis of GBA2-deficient medakas. In this study, our lipid analysis of GBA2-deficient medakas.

We showed that sterlyglycosides are secreted from H4 cells and mouse primary cortical neurons in association with exosomes (Fig. 6). β-GlcChol has been demonstrated to be a neurotransmitter in vitro (35), and β-GlcSito is a neurotransmitter in vivo (36, 37) and in vitro (37–39). Thus, the secretion of β-GlcChol and/or β-GlcSito via exosomes might represent a cellular response to the buildup of toxic lipids in cells, providing a way to remove them from the cells. Exosomes have been hypothesized to participate in transferring pathogenic proteins between cells (40), such as β-amyloid peptide and α-synuclein, known to be associated with PD and MSA. Because mutations in GBA1 appear to be involved in pathogenesis of PD and MSA (6, 7), it will be interesting to examine what role GBA1-metabolized sterlyglycosides play in exosomal distribution of α-synuclein.

The levels of sterlyglycosides were altered in the brains of GBA2-deficient mice and GBA1- and/or GBA2-deficient medakas. Consistent with a previous report (2), GBA1 seemed to be responsible for the degradation of β-GlcChol, and GBA2 for the formation of β-GlcChol. The level of β-GalChol was reduced in H4 cells in which specific targeting siRNA of GBA1 was introduced. β-GalChol was barely detected in the brains of GBA2-deficient mice and GBA2-deficient medakas. This suggests that GBA2 is the responsible enzyme for β-GalChol formation in vivo. Although it did not reach a statistically significant decline, β-GalChol levels were decreased in the brains of GBA1-deficient medakas, suggesting the involvement of GBA1 in β-GalChol formation. GBA2 seemed to be responsible for the degradation of GSX-2 and β-GlcSito. However, in the case of GBA2 deficiency, GBA1 seemed capable of degrading GSX-2 and β-GlcSito. Because GBA1 and GBA2 are localized to different cellular compartments, further experiments will be needed to determine the subcellular distribution of GSX-2 and β-GlcSito in order to understand the GBA1- and GBA2-mediated metabolic pathways.

It remains to be determined whether GSX-2 and β-GlcSito are de novo–synthesized in the brain and cultured cells, or whether they are derived from dietary intake or content in the culture media, respectively. The level of β-GlcSito did not change in ITGCG/H11022-HeLa cells compared with WT HeLa cells. This suggests that GlcCer might not be the glucose donor for β-GlcSito formation in vertebrates. In plants, UDP-glucos:sterol glucosyltransferase (UDPG-SGTase, EC 2.4.1.173) is the enzyme responsible for β-GlcSito formation (1). Resolution of β-GlcSito formation in vertebrates remains stalled, as molecular cloning of the mammalian gene that shares homology with the known UDPG-SGTase gene has been unsuccessful.

Our in vitro enzyme assays revealed that GBA1, GBA2, and GALC exhibited β-gal activity and transgalactosylation activity. This reaction transfers a galactose residue from GalCer to cholesterol, leading to the formation of β-GalChol. This newly-detected activity against GalCer is significantly lower compared with their known activity against GlcCer. This enzyme’s “promiscuity” of GBA1 and GBA2 has not been reported until now. Supporting our findings, it is known that-d-galactose-configured deoxyxojirimycins inhibit GBA1 and GBA2 (41). Also, in Thermoanaerobacterium xylanolyticum, a thermophilic anaerobic Gram-negative bacterium, not only does GBA2 have β-glucosidase activity, but it also has β-gal activity toward 4-nitrophenyl β-D-galactoside (35), and GBA1- and/or GBA2-deficient medakas. In this study, our lipid analysis of GBA2-deficient medakas.

We demonstrated in the brains of Npc1-/- mice several abnormalities of sterlyglycosides, including up-regulation of β-GlcChol, GSX-2, and β-GlcSito. In NPC disease, excess cholesterol accumulates in lysosomes (30). GBA1 seems to promote β-GlcChol degradation under normal conditions; however, with excess cholesterol accumulation in lysosomes, GBA1 most likely synthesizes β-GlcChol (2). Therefore, the increased β-GlcChol in the brains of Npc1-/- mice might be synthesized by GBA1. Marques et al. (31) showed that GBA2 activity is increased in the brains of Npc1-/- mice. This increased GBA2 activity might also cause up-regulation of β-GlcChol in the brains of Npc1-/- mice. In this study, our lipid analysis of GBA2-defi-
cent mouse brain revealed that GBA2 is responsible for degradation of GSX-2 and β-GlcSito. Although GBA2 activity is reportedly increased in the brains of Npc1−/− mice (31), we found that GSX-2 and β-GlcSito were elevated in the brains of Npc1−/− mice. It remains unclear where GSX-2 and β-GlcSito are distributed subcellularly and whether NPC1 exports GSX-2 and β-GlcSito from lysosomes. However, one explanation for the up-regulation of GSX-2 and β-GlcSito we detected in Npc1−/− mice is that export of GSX-2 and β-GlcSito from lysosomes is impaired.

Our results also have other significant implications for the treatment of GD, PD, MSA, cerebellar ataxia, and spastic paraplegia. It will be interesting to determine how these previously unrecognized functions of GBA1 and GBA2, demonstrated in this study, will aid our understanding of the role of GBA1 and GBA2 mutations in GD, PD, MSA, cerebellar ataxia, and spastic paraplegia.

**Experimental procedures**

**Materials**

β-GlcChol, GalCer from bovine brain, deuterated cholesterol (CDCl₃, 99.96% D), 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHB), salt (UDP-galactose, UDP-Gal) were all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 2,5-Dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHB), N-acetylneuraminic acid, N-ethylmaleimide, formic acid and ammonium acetate from Acros Organics (Geel, Belgium). Formic acid and ammonium acetate were purchased from FUJIFILM Wako (Osaka, Japan).

**Animals and tissue collection**

C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Japan SLC, Inc. (Hamamatsu, Japan). Gba2+/− mice (C57BL/6J-129S6/SvEv mixed background) were generated as described previously (9). Breeding pairs of Gba2−/− mice (C57BL/6J-129S6/SvEv mixed background) were a kind gift from Prof. Dr. Dagmar Wachten, University of Bonn (Bonn, Germany). Gba2−/− mice were back-crossed to the C57BL/6J background for 10 generations. Gba2−/− mice with the C57BL/6J background, along with WT littermates (Gba2+/+), were generated by crossing the back-crossed Gba2−/− males and females in-house. Offspring were genotyped by PCR using genomic DNA as described previously (9). These mice were housed in the RIKEN Center for Brain Science animal housing facilities under a 12-h light/12-h dark on/off cycle and at a constant room temperature of 23 ± 2 °C. The mice had free access to water and standard mouse chow (CRF-1, Oriental Yeast Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan).

Experimental protocols for the animal experiments were approved by RIKEN’s Wako Animal Experiments Committee.

For collection and preparation of tissue for biochemical analyses, postnatal mice were deeply anesthetized and perfused with PBS. Whole brains were surgically removed, directly snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80 °C until lyophilized. After lyophilization, samples were stored at −80 °C until further use. For tissue collection from embryonic mice, we used embryos of pregnant C57BL/6J mice that were purchased from Japan SLC, Inc. Pregnant mice were deeply anesthetized, and the uterus together with the embryos were transferred to ice-cold PBS. The uterus was cut, and the embryonic sacs were removed to release embryos into the PBS. The released embryos were transferred to ice-cold Hanks’ balanced salt solution (Nacalai Tesque, Inc., Kyoto, Japan). Whole brains were surgically removed, directly snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80 °C until lyophilized. After lyophilization, samples were stored at −80 °C until further use. From P10 to postnatal week 10, male mice were used for tissue collection. From E12 to P2, sex of the mice was not discriminated.

Npc1−/− mice (Npc1−/− BALB/c background), along with WT littermates (Npc1+/+), were generated as described previously (2). These mice (±3 weeks old) received the rodent AM-112 diet (Arie Blok Diervoeders, Woerden, The Netherlands). The mice were housed at the Institute Animal Core Facility in a temperature- and humidity-controlled room with a 12-h light/dark on/off cycle, and they were given free access to food and water ad libitum. Offspring were genotyped by PCR using genomic DNA, as described previously (48). Experimental protocols for these animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Welfare Committee of the Academic Medical Centre Amsterdam in the Netherlands. For collection and preparation of tissue for biochemical analyses, male mice were first anesthetized with an intramuscular injection of Hypnorm® (comprising 0.315 mg/ml phenyl citrate and 10 mg/ml fluan-
sone; VetaPharma Ltd., Leeds, UK) and Dormicum (5 mg/ml midazolam; Teva Pharmaceutical Industries Ltd., Parsippany, NJ). The dose was adjusted according to their weight (80 μl/10 g bodyweight). These mice were euthanized by cervical dislocation. Whole brains were surgically removed, rinsed with PBS, directly snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80 °C until lyophilized. After lyophilization, samples were stored at −80 °C until further use.

**Generation of Gba1+/−/Gba2+/− medakas and preparation of medaka brains**

Medakas (*O. latipes*) are an ideal vertebrate animal model for our purposes, because deletion of *Gba1* in fish does not cause perinatal death (49–51). Previously, Uemura et al. (49) generated *Gba1* nonsense mutant (*Gba1−/−*) medaka. In contrast to the perinatal death in humans and mice lacking *GBA1* activity, *Gba1−/−* medakas survived for months, enabling biochemical and behavioral analyses of adult stage.

The ethics statement and maintenance of medakas were described previously (49). Medaka experiments were approved by the Animal Experiments Committee of Kyoto University and were conducted in accordance with Japanese national guidelines. Medakas were maintained in an aquaculture system with recirculating water at 27 °C in a 14-h light/10-h dark cycle.

Medakas of the Kyoto-cab strain, a substrain of Cab, were used. The details of *Gba1−/−* medakas were reported previously (49). GBA2-deficient medakas were generated by using clustered, regularly-interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR)/CRISPR-associated9 (Cas9) system, as reported previously (52). Briefly, the cDNA sequence of medaka GBA2 was determined by RT-PCR and rapid amplification of cDNA ends.

The medaka *GBA2* gene consists of 18 exons that encode 858 amino acids. The crRNAs were generated using the CRISPR design tool (RRID:SCR_018159), and the following crRNA was used: 5′-GGAGGCGAAGCAGCTTCGGG-3′. The crRNAs and tracrRNA were constructed by Fasmac Co. (Kanagawa, Japan). The Cas9 RNA was synthesized from a pCS2+ hSpCas9 vector (catalogue no. 51815, Addgene, Watertown, MA) using a mMessage mMachine SP6 kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The RNA mixture was injected into single-cell-stage embryos. The injected founders (*F₀*) were raised to sexual maturity and back-crossed with WT medakas for generating *F₁* s. The *Gba2* gene of the *F₁* s was sequenced, and the novel GBA2-deficient (*Gba2+/−*) medakas with 21 bases deleted and two bases inserted into exon 5 were obtained. Three deletions and insertions resulted in a frameshift mutation (*Gba1+/−/Gba2+/−* medakas). Medaka brains collected by surgery were directly snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and then stored at −80 °C until use.

**Enrichment of sterylglycosides**

Frozen brains of 12-week-old male Wistar rats were purchased from Japan Lamb Ltd. (Hiroshima, Japan). Total lipids were extracted from lyophilized brains (100 brains, 45 g dry weight) using 400 ml of chloroform and methanol (C/M at 2:1, v/v) twice and 200 ml of C/M (1:1, v/v). After evaporation, the combined extracts were hydrolyzed for 3 h at room temperature in C/M (2:1, v/v, 240 ml) containing 0.1 M KOH. The reaction mixture was subjected to Folch’s partition (55), and the lower phase was evaporated to dryness. The resulting lipid film was resuspended in chloroform (100 ml) and applied to a col-

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**Cell cultures**

Human neuroglioma H4 cells (HTB-148™) were purchased from the ATCC (Manassas, VA). They were cultured in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM, FUJIFILM Wako) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS). Cultures were maintained in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C. HeLa-mCAT#8 cells, a parent cell line, and HeLa-mCAT#8 cell mutants deficient in *UGCG* (28) were a generous gift from Dr. Toshiyuki Yamaji of the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (Tokyo, Japan). *UGCG* is a gene that encodes UDP-glucose:ceramide glucosyltransferase (GlcCer synthase) (53). These cells were also cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and were maintained in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C. Stable human GBA2-expressing human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293T cells were generated as described previously (54). HEK293T cells were cultured in DMEM (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS, 200 μg/ml penicillin/streptomycin, and 1% (v/v) GlutaMAX and were maintained in a 7% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C. For enzyme assays, cell pellets of the stable human GBA2-expressing HEK293T cells were obtained using standard methods. The cell pellets were suspended in McIlvaine buffer (0.1 M citric acid and 0.2 M NaHPO₄ (pH 5.8)) containing 0.1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) and were then sonicated.

For primary neuron cultures, we used embryos of pregnant Slc:ICR mice that were purchased from Japan SLC, Inc. These cultures were prepared from the cerebral cortices of Slc:ICR mouse brains on embryonic day 14, according to the methods of Yuyama et al. (26), with some modifications. Briefly, neurons for culturing were obtained from the isolated cerebral cortices using a neuron dissociation solution (FUJIFILM Wako). The dissociated cells were plated onto poly-L-ornithine–coated dishes at a density of 3.16 × 10⁵ cells/cm² and cultured in Neurobasal™ medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with GlutaMAX™ supplement (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 100 units/ml penicillin, 100 μg/ml streptomycin, and B-27™ supplement (Thermo Fisher Scientific). One day after plating, cytosine β-d-arabinofuranoside (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the culture at a final concentration of 10 μM to inhibit the proliferation of dividing non-neuronal cells. Three and 6 days after plating, half of the culture supernatant from each dish was collected and replaced with fresh medium. Nine days after plating, all the culture supernatants were collected. The collected culture supernatants were combined and then used for exosome isolation.

**Human neuroglioma H4 cells (HTB-148™)** were purchased from the ATCC (Manassas, VA). They were cultured in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM, FUJIFILM Wako) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS). Cultures were maintained in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C. HeLa-mCAT#8 cells, a parent cell line, and HeLa-mCAT#8 cell mutants deficient in *UGCG* (28) were a generous gift from Dr. Toshiyuki Yamaji of the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (Tokyo, Japan). *UGCG* is a gene that encodes UDP-glucose:ceramide glucosyltransferase (GlcCer synthase) (53). These cells were also cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and were maintained in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C. Stable human GBA2-expressing human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293T cells were generated as described previously (54). HEK293T cells were cultured in DMEM (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS, 200 μg/ml penicillin/streptomycin, and 1% (v/v) GlutaMAX and were maintained in a 7% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C. For enzyme assays, cell pellets of the stable human GBA2-expressing HEK293T cells were obtained using standard methods. The cell pellets were suspended in McIlvaine buffer (0.1 M citric acid and 0.2 M NaHPO₄ (pH 5.8)) containing 0.1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) and were then sonicated. For primary neuron cultures, we used embryos of pregnant Slc:ICR mice that were purchased from Japan SLC, Inc. These cultures were prepared from the cerebral cortices of Slc:ICR mouse brains on embryonic day 14, according to the methods of Yuyama et al. (26), with some modifications. Briefly, neurons for culturing were obtained from the isolated cerebral cortices using a neuron dissociation solution (FUJIFILM Wako). The dissociated cells were plated onto poly-L-ornithine–coated dishes at a density of 3.16 × 10⁵ cells/cm² and cultured in Neurobasal™ medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with GlutaMAX™ supplement (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 100 units/ml penicillin, 100 μg/ml streptomycin, and B-27™ supplement (Thermo Fisher Scientific). One day after plating, cytosine β-d-arabinofuranoside (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the culture at a final concentration of 10 μM to inhibit the proliferation of dividing non-neuronal cells. Three and 6 days after plating, half of the culture supernatant from each dish was collected and replaced with fresh medium. Nine days after plating, all the culture supernatants were collected. The collected culture supernatants were combined and then used for exosome isolation.
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umn of Silica Gel 60 (Kanto Chemical Co., Inc.) equilibrated with chloroform. Glycolipids, including sterylglycosides, were eluted using a stepwise gradient, starting with pure chloroform (400 ml) and then with C/M (98:2, v/v, 400 ml), C/M (95:5, v/v, 400 ml), C/M (91:9, v/v, 600 ml), and C/M (8:2, v/v, 600 ml). The fractions eluted with C/M (91:9, v/v) containing sterylglycosides alongside hexosylceramide were pooled and evaporated until dry. The lipid film was resuspended in ~150 ml of a methanol/water mixture (M/W at 95:5, v/v), and the soluble fraction (~120 ml) was subjected to RP column chromatography over Silica Gel 120 (RP-18; Kanto Chemical Co., Inc.), which was equilibrated with M/W (95:5, v/v). Elution was facilitated by using a stepwise gradient of M/W (95:5, v/v, 300 ml) and methanol (200 ml). The presence of sterylglycosides was evaluated using HPTLC, and positive fractions were pooled and dried.

**Isolation of sterylglycosides**

The enriched sterylglycoside fraction was further purified by normal-phase HPLC. The lipid film was resuspended in a small volume of mobile phase A (C/M at 98:2, v/v), applied to a PEGASIL Silica SP100–3 column (4.6 mm inner diameter × 250 mm, particle size, 3 μm; Senshu Scientific Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan), and eluted with the following gradients of mobile phase B (C/M/W at 80:20:0.2, v/v/v): 10 min, 0%; 60 min, 0–100% linear gradient; and 10 min, 100% (washing step). The flow rate was kept constant at 0.5 ml/min, and the column was maintained at room temperature. The eluent was collected once per min. The presence of sterylglycosides was evaluated using HPTLC, and positive fractions were pooled and dried.

The further enriched sterylglycosides fraction was dissolved in a small volume of C/M (2:1, v/v), applied to a HPTLC plate (Silica Gel 60; Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), impregnated with 1% boric acid, and developed with hexane/isopropl alcohol/C/M/W (25:35:65:25:3, v/v/v/v/v). Lipids were stained with primuline reagent (0.002% primuline, 80% acetone) and visualized with long-wave UV. The band that co-migrated with standard cholesterol (FUJIFILM Wako) was collected and extracted by Folch’s partition. The organic layer was separated and dried. Lipids were stained by primuline reagent and visualized by long-wave UV. The band that co-migrated with standard cholesterol (FUJIFILM Wako) was collected and extracted by Folch’s partition. The organic layer containing the released aglycons was separated and dried under a stream of N2.

**GC/MS analysis**

The lipid containing released aglycons was suspended in 25 μl of TMS and was incubated at room temperature for 30 min. The resulting trimethylsilylated material was subjected to GC/MS analysis on a GC system 7890A (Agilent Technologies Inc., Santa Clara, CA) attached to a mass spectrometer, JMS-T100G CV AccuTOF GCv 4G (JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). An HP-5ms capillary column (30 m × 0.25 mm, film thickness of 0.25 μm; Agilent Technologies Inc.) was interfaced with the GC system. We employed the following temperature gradient: from 130 to 250 °C at a heating rate of 20 °C/min, and from 250 to 300 °C at a heating rate of 5 °C/min.

**MALDI-TOF/TOF analysis**

The GS1 fraction, GS2 fraction, and authentic standards of β-GlcChol and β-GalChol were each dissolved in C/M (2:1, v/v) at a concentration of ~0.5 μg/μl, then mixed with MALDI matrix A (10 μg/μl of DHB in C/M, 1:1, v/v) and B (1 μg/μl of LiCl in methanol) at a ratio of 1:1:1 (v/v/v). One μl of the resulting mixture was spotted onto an MTP 384 target plate of polished steel BC (Bruker, Billerica, MA) and dried. The samples were analyzed with an autoflex speed TOF/TOF (Bruker) equipped with the TOF/TOF option. A Smartbeam II Nd:YAG laser pulse of 355 nm was operated at 2 kHz. For product–ion mass spectrum acquisition, argon collision gas was introduced. The collision energy of 6 keV was used to induce high-energy CID.

**LC–ESI–MS/MS analysis**

The LC–ESI–MS/MS analysis was performed on an LC system Nexera X2 (SHIMADZU, Kyoto, Japan) attached to a triple-quadrupole linear ion trap mass spectrometer, QTRAP4500 (SCIEX, Tokyo, Japan). The LC–ESI–MS/MS datasets were analyzed with MultiQuantTM (version 2.1) and Analyst software (SCIEX). Target lipids were monitored in MRM mode using specific precursor–product ion pairs, as detailed in Table S2.

GlcCer, GalCer, and sterylglycosides were analyzed, as reported previously (3, 18), by HILIC–ESI–MS/MS with minor modifications. In brief, the lipid extracts were dissolved in C/M (2:1, v/v) and diluted 10-fold with mobile phase A (acetonitrile/methanol/formic acid, 97:2:1, v/v/v, with 5 mM ammonium formate). Aliquots (10 μl) were applied to an Atlantis silica HILIC column (2.1 mm inner diameter × 150 mm, particle size, 3 μm; Waters) maintained at 40 °C. Samples were eluted at a flow rate of 0.05 ml/min using the following gradient of mobile phase B (methanol/water/formic acid, 89:9:1, v/v/v, with 20 mM ammonium formate): 3.3 min, 0%, 23.4 min, 0–35% linear gradient; 1.3 min, 35–70% linear gradient, 0.05–0.15 ml/min linear gra-
dient flow rate; 8 min, 70% (washing step); 29 min, 0%, flow rate increased to 0.2 ml/min (equilibration); 2 min, 0%, flow rate decreased to 0.05 ml/min. The mass spectrometer was set to positive ion mode (ion spray voltage, 5500 V; curtain gas pressure, 30 p.s.i.; nebulizer gas pressure, 90 p.s.i.; heating gas pressure, 30 p.s.i.; temperature, 100 °C) using MRM detection for a targeted analysis. Ionization efficiency of GlcCer and GalCer were similar under the employed conditions.

Ceramide, SM, and steryl glycosides were analyzed by RPLC–ESI–MS/MS. The lipid extracts were dissolved in C/M (2:1, v/v) and were diluted 10-fold with mobile phase B (M/W 85:15, v/v, with 5 mM ammonium acetate). The diluted lipid extracts were applied onto an RP column (Luna C18(2) column: 2 mm inner diameter × 250 mm, particle size, 3 μm; Phenomenex, Torrance, CA) maintained at 36 °C and at a flow rate of 0.15 ml/min. The samples were then eluted with the following gradients of mobile phase A (methanol with 5 mM ammonium acetate): 2 min, 0%; 13 min, 0–100% linear gradient; 40 min, 100% (washing step); 15 min 0% (equilibration). For ceramide and SM analysis, the mass spectrometer was set to positive ion mode (ion spray voltage, 5500 V; curtain gas pressure, 40 p.s.i.; nebulizer gas pressure, 70 p.s.i.; heating gas pressure, 80 p.s.i.; temperature, 600 °C) using MRM detection for targeted analysis. For steryl glycoside analysis, the mass spectrometer was set to negative ion mode (ion spray voltage, 5500 V; curtain gas pressure, 30 p.s.i.; nebulizer gas pressure, 90 p.s.i.; heating gas pressure, 30 p.s.i.; temperature, 100 °C) using MRM detection for targeted analysis. Ionization efficiency of GlcCer and GalCer were similar under the employed conditions.

NMR spectroscopy
Highly-purified steryl glycoside fractions and authentic standards were dissolved in CDCl3 containing tetramethylsilane as an internal chemical shift reference. One-dimensional 1H NMR and two-dimensional double-quantum filtered correlation spectroscopy, homonuclear Hartmann–Hahn (HOHAHA) spectra, and 1H–13C multiplicity–edited HSQC spectra were recorded on an Avance-500 spectrometer (Bruker BioSpin, Yokohama, Japan) equipped with a triple-resonance (TXI) cryogenic probe and an Avance-600 spectrometer with a TXI probe. Probe temperature was set at 25 °C. The NMR data were processed with TopSpin software (version 2.1; Bruker BioSpin), and the spectra were displayed using TopSpin Plot Editor (version 2.1; Bruker BioSpin).

Chemical synthesis of 1-O-cholesteryl-β-D-galactopyranoside
All solvents and reagents were purchased from commercial suppliers as reagent grade and were used as is. Reactions with anhydrous solvents (Kanto Chemical Co., Inc.) were performed under an argon atmosphere. Flash column chromatography was performed with Silica Gel 60 N (40–100 mesh, Kanto Chemical Co., Inc.) and the indicated solvent systems. Analytical TLC was performed on Silica Gel 60 F256 plates (Merck Millipore). Mass spectra were recorded on an AccuTOF JMS-T700LCK (JEOL) using ESI. NMR spectra were obtained on an ECX-500 spectrometer (JEOL) in the indicated solvent system at 25 °C using residual nondeuterated solvent signals as chemical shift references.

Cholesteryl 2,3,4,6-tetra-O-acetyl-β-D-galactopyranoside was synthesized as follows. 2,3,4,6-Tetra-O-acetyl-α-D-galactopyranosyl 2,2-trichloroacetimidate (2.0 g, 4.06 mmol, 1.2 Eq) and cholesterol (Chol) (1.3 g, 3.37 mmol, 1.0 Eq) were dissolved in anhydrous dichloromethane (20 ml) at −40 °C. After 10 min, the coupling was initiated by addition of TMS (20 μl, 24.6 mg, 0.11 mmol) and stirred for 2 h at −40 °C. The reaction was quenched with triethylamine (3 ml); the organic layer was increased with dichloromethane (20 ml); and the resulting mixture was extracted twice against water (20 ml) and once against brine (20 ml). The organic layer was dried over Na2SO4, concentrated under reduced pressure, and subjected to flash chromatography (hexane/ethyl acetate = 4:1) to yield cholesteryl 2,3,4,6-tetra-O-acetyl-β-D-galactopyranoside (1.45 g, 2.02 mmol, 60%) as a white solid. TLC, hexane/ethyl acetate = 5:1; 1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl3): δ 5.37 (d, 1H, J = 3.4, Gal), 5.36 (m, 1H, J = 5.2, Chol DB), 5.18 (dd, 1H, J = 10.3, J = 8.0, Gal), 5.02 (dd, 1H, J = 10.3, J = 3.4, Gal), 4.54 (d, 1H, J = 8.0, Gal H-1), 4.18 (dd, 1H, J = 11.2, J = 6.6, Gal), 4.12 (dd, 1H, J = 14.3, J = 6.9, Gal), 3.88 (dd, 1H, J = 6.9, J = 6.3, Gal), 3.48 (m, 1H, Chol H-3), 2.14 (s, 3H, Ac CH3), 2.06 (s, 3H, Ac CH3), 2.04 (s, 3H, Ac CH3), 1.98 (s, 3H, Ac CH3), 2.27–1.80 (n.r., 8H, Chol), 0.99 (s, 3H, Chol CH3), 0.91 (d, 3H, J = 6.3, Chol CH3), 0.87 (d, 3H, J = 2.3, Chol CH3), 0.85 (d, 3H, J = 2.3, Chol CH3), 1.68–0.85 (n.r., 20H, Chol), 0.67 (s, 3H, Chol CH3) ppm; 13C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl3): δ 170.8, 170.7, 170.6, 169.8 (4C, Ac CO), 140.7 (1C, Chol DB), 122.5 (1C, Chol DB), 100.6 (1C, Gal C-1), 9.87 (1C, Chol C-3), 71.4, 70.9, 69.4, 67.4 (4C, Gal CH), 61.7 (1C, Gal CH2), 57.1, 56.5, 50.5, 47.2, 40.1, 39.9, 39.3, 37.5, 37.1, 36.5, 36.1, 32.3, 32.2, 29.9, 28.6, 28.4, 24.6, 24.2, 23.2 (18C, Chol), 22.9 (2C, Chol CH3), 21.4 (1C, Chol), 21.2, 21, 21 (4C, Ac CH3), 19.7 (1C, Chol CH2), 19.1 (1C, Chol CH2), 12.2 (1C, Chol CH3) ppm.

β-GalChol was synthesized as follows. Cholesteryl 2,3,4,6-tetra-O-acetyl-β-D-galactopyranoside (0.7 g, 0.98 mmol, 1.0 Eq) was dissolved in anhydrous dichloromethane (10 ml) and treated with freshly-prepared sodium methoxide solution (10 ml of anhydrous methanol with 10 mg of sodium). The suspension was stirred for 2 h at room temperature, quenched with acetic acid (52 μl, 50 mg), and evaporated to dryness. The resulting solid was suspended in hot ethanol and filtered, and the filter cake was further rinsed with hot ethanol. The filter cake was dried under high vacuum to give β-GalChol (300 mg, 0.547 mmol, 56%) as a white solid.

The filtrate was evaporated and subjected to flash chromatography (gradient of chloroform/methanol = 20:1 to 10:1, v/v). TLC, chloroform/methanol = 9:1 (v/v), Rf = 0.56; 1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl3/methanol = 1:3, v/v): δ 5.34 (d, 1H, J = 5.2, Chol DB), 4.33 (d, 1H, J = 8.0, Gal H-1), 3.88 (m, 1H, Gal), 3.79–3.72 (n.r., 2H, Gal), 3.61–3.56 (n.r., 2H, Chol, Chol H-3), 3.50–3.46 (n.r., 2H, Gal), 2.38 (m, 1H, Chol), 2.25 (m, 1H, Chol), 2.01–1.78 (n.r., 5H, Chol), 1.73–0.90 (n.r., 21H, Chol), 0.99 (s, 3H, Chol CH3), 0.90 (d, 3H, J = 6.3, Chol CH3), 0.85 (d, 3H, J = 6.9, Chol CH3), 0.84 (d, 3H, J = 6.3, Chol CH3), 0.67 (s, 3H, Chol CH3) ppm; 13C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl3): methanol = 1:3): δ 141.5 (1C, Chol DB), 123.1 (1C, Chol DB), 102.6 (1C, Gal C-1), 79.9 (1C, Chol C-3), 75.7, 74.6, 72.5, 69.9 (4C, Gal CH), 62.4 (1C, Gal CH2), 30.7 (1C, Gal CH3), 21.4 (2C, Chol), 19.3 (2C, Chol CH3), 18.1 (2C, Chol CH2), 16.3 (2C, Chol CH2), 12.2 (1C, Chol CH3) ppm;
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Gal CH₂), 57.8, 57.2, 51.3, 43.4, 40.8, 40.6, 39.7, 38.3, 37.8, 37.2, 36.8, 33, 30.7, 30.6, 29.3, 29, 25.3, 24.9 (1C, Chol CH₃), 23.7, 23.5 (2C, Chol CH₃), 22.1 (1C, Chol), 20.3 (1C, Chol CH₃), 19.7 (1C, Chol CH₃), 12.8 (1C, Chol CH₃) ppm; ESI-MS calculated for C₃₃H₅₆O₆ [M + Na]+: m/z 571.397, and found: 571.36.

Quantification of lipids in animal tissue

Lyophilized tissue and frozen tissue were homogenized, and total lipids were extracted with C/M (2:1, v/v, 5 ml) mixture added to 5 pmol/mg lyophilized tissue or to 1 pmol/mg frozen tissue of GlcCer (d18:1-C12:0), and β-GlcCer-d₄ (3) served as internal standard. Extracts were dried under a flow of N₂ and hydrolyzed for 2–3 h at room temperature in C/M (2:1, v/v, 2–3 ml) containing 0.1 M KOH. After neutralization with 7.5 μl of glacial acetic acid, the reaction mixture was subjected to Folch’s partition, and the lower phase was dried under a flow of N₂. The resulting lipid film was suspended in C/M (2:1, v/v) at a concentration of ~40 μg of lyophilized tissue/μl or ~100 μg of frozen tissue/μl, and diluted 10-fold with mobile phase A for HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analysis. Aliquots (10 μl) were subjected to HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analysis. The resulting peak areas were integrated and quantified relative to the associated internal standard.

Quantification of lipids in cultured cells and exosomes

Frozen cells and frozen exosomes were resuspended in 250 μl of water and sonicated. Protein concentration was determined by a Pierce™ BCA protein assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Water was added to the homogenate up to 400 μl, and then 1.5 ml of C/M (1:2, v/v, ~10 pmol of GlcCer (d18:1-C12:0), β-GlcCer-d₄, ceramide (d18:0-C12:0), and SM (d18:1-C18:0)) was added to the remaining pellet, and then the sample was sonicated and centrifuged as described above. The supernatant was collected and combined with the first supernatant.

Next, lipids were extracted according to the method of Bligh and Dyer (57) by adding 1 ml of chloroform and water each; the lower phase was taken to dryness under a flow of N₂. For glycolipid analysis, a portion of the sample was hydrolyzed with KOH as described above. The resulting lipid film was suspended in C/M (2:1, v/v) at a concentration of ~150 μg of protein/μl and diluted 10-fold with mobile phase B for RPLC–ESI–MS/MS analysis or mobile phase A for HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analysis. Aliquots (10 μl) were subjected to RPLC–ESI–MS/MS or HILIC–ESI–MS/MS analysis, respectively. The resulting peak areas were integrated and quantified relative to the associated internal standard. For comparing lipid concentrations of exosomes and their cells of origin, the lipid concentrations were normalized with lipid phosphate, which was determined using a total phosphorous assay (58).

HPTLC

The extracted lipids were dissolved in C/M (2:1, v/v), applied to a HPTLC plate (Silica Gel 60; Merck Millipore) or a HPTLC plate impregnated with 1% boric acid, and developed with C/M/W (65:35:8, v/v/v) or hexane/isopropyl alcohol/C/M/W (25:35:65:25:3, v/v/v/v). The carbohydrate portion of the lipids was visualized with orcinol reagent (120 °C, 10 min). β-GlcCer, GlcCer, and GalCer were identified by co-migration with their respective commercial standards, such as β-GlcCer, GlcCer (d18:1-C18:0), and GalCer from bovine brain. β-Glc was identified by co-migration with its synthetic standard.

siRNA delivery and transfection

For RNA-mediated interference (RNAi) experiments, we used Stealth RNAi™ siRNAs (Thermo Fisher Scientific) carrying the following sequences: 5’-CCCAUCCAGGCUAUAUCACCGGCA-3’ (sense) and 5’-UGGCCGUGUAGUUGCCUGAUGG-3’ (antisense) for GBA1; 5’-CCUGAGAUUGUUGCUGACGGUUUU-3’ (sense) and 5’-AUAAACUGCA-GCACAACUCAGG-3’ (antisense) for GBA2; 5’-GGUAUCAUGCCUAUACCAG-3’ (sense) and 5’-AAACAGUGGUAUGAGCUGAACC-3’ (antisense) for GALT; and 5’-CAGCGCUACCCAGGGAUCUUUAC-3’ (sense) and 5’-UGUAAAGAUCCCUGUGGAGCCUG-3’ (antisense) for CGT. Stealth RNAi™ siRNA negative control was obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific. siRNAs were delivered with Lipofectamine™ RNAiMAX transfection reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. After incubation for 72 h, medium containing transfection reagents was removed, and cells were harvested using standard methods after first washing with PBS. The cells were then subjected to lipid extraction.

To obtain material for Western blotting, the harvested cells were incubated with lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Nonidet P-40, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 1 tablet/10 ml cOmplete™ Mini EDTA-free protease inhibitor mixture (pH 7.4) (Roche Applied Science, Basel, Switzerland)) for 5 min at 4 °C, and then centrifuged at 18,000 × g for 30 min at 4 °C. The obtained supernatants were processed for Western blotting.

Exosome isolation

Exosomes were prepared from culture supernatants of H4 cells and mouse primary cortical neurons as described previously (26). For H4 cells, culture medium was replaced with serum-free medium 1 day before exosome isolation; culture supernatants were collected 24 h later. For the primary cortical neurons, culture supernatants were collected according to the method described under “Cell cultures.” The collected culture supernatants were sequentially centrifuged at 3,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C, 4,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C, and 10,000 × g for 30 min at 4 °C to remove cells, dead cells, and debris. To obtain exosomes as pellets, the material was centrifuged again at 100,000 × g for 1 h at 4 °C. The resulting pellets were then subjected to lipid extraction, particle size analysis, and sucrose gradient centrifugation.

For sucrose gradient centrifugation, each exosome pellet was suspended with 1 ml of 2.3 m sucrose in 20 mM HEPES and transferred into centrifugal tubes (Ultra-Clear™, 14 × 89 mm; Beckman Coulter K.K., Tokyo, Japan). The sucrose gradient (11 ml of 0.25–2.3 m sucrose in 20 mM HEPES) was subsequently layered onto 1 ml of resuspended exosomes and then centri-
fuged in an SW41TI swinging rotor (Beckman Coulter K.K.) at 100,000 \( \times \) g for 18 h at 4 °C. After centrifugation, fractions of 1 ml (typically 11–12 fractions in total) were collected from the top layer of the gradient, diluted with \( \sim 2 \) ml of 20 mM HEPES, and pelleted by centrifugation for 1 h at 100,000 \( \times \) g. The resulting pellets were resuspended in PBS and subjected to Western blotting.

**Analysis of exosomal particle size**

A qNano System (Izon Science, Ltd., Christchurch, New Zealand) was used to analyze the particle size of H4 primary cortical neuron-derived exosomes resuspended in 50 mM HEPES, 150 mM KCl (pH 8.0). We followed the manufacturer’s instructions.

**Western blotting**

Extracted proteins from cell lysates and exosomes were subjected to SDS-PAGE followed by Western blotting. The protein concentration was determined by a Pierce™ BCA protein assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Typically, proteins present in the cell lysates were separated by SDS–PAGE and transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Bio-Rad). We used the following primary antibodies in separate detections with the indicated dilutions: anti-GBA1 (catalogue no. G4171, Sigma-Aldrich; 1:1,000 dilution); anti-GBA2 (catalogue no. ab205064, Abcam, Cambridge, MA; 1:200 dilution); anti-GALC (catalogue no. sc-67352, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc., Dallas, TX; 1:200 dilution); anti-CGT (catalogue no. sc-292071, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc.; 1:200 dilution); anti-β-actin (catalogue no. PM053, Medical and Biological Laboratories Co., Ltd., Nagoya, Japan; 1:10,000 dilution); anti-GM130 (catalogue no. 610822, BD Biosciences; 1:1,000 dilution); anti-KDEL (catalogue no. PM059, Medical and Biological Laboratories Co., Ltd.; 1:1,000 dilution); anti-Alix (catalogue no. sc-53538, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc.; 1:200 dilution); anti-tsg101 (catalogue no. sc-7964, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc.; 1:200 dilution); and anti-flotillin-1 (catalogue no. 610820, BD Biosciences; 1:1,000 dilution). KDEL is an ER retention sequence. Alix (ALG-2 interacting protein X) is a cytoplasmic protein and is concentrated in exosomes. Tsg101 is a tumor susceptibility gene 101 protein and is concentrated in exosomes.

For secondary antibodies, we used the following: horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (catalogue no. 170-6515, Bio-Rad; 1:20,000 dilution) or HRP-conjugated antimouse IgG (catalogue no. 170-6516, Bio-Rad; 1:20,000 dilution). Immunovisualization was performed using an enhanced chemiluminescence system (Nacalai Tesque).

**In vitro assay of transglycosylase activity**

The transglycosylase assay was carried out according to the method we established previously (59), with slight modifications. The reaction mixture in a total volume of 20 \( \mu l \) contained 40 \( \mu M \) NBD–chol, 80 or 200 \( \mu M \) glycolipid donor (GlcCer (d18:1-C18:1), GalCer (d18:1-C12:0), GlcSph, or GalSph), or 360 \( \mu M \) UDP-Gal dissolved in appropriate buffer, 2% ethanol, and a desired amount of enzyme. The assay for rGBA1 was performed with 10 \( \mu l \) of McIlvaine buffer (pH 5.3) and CHAPS (final 0.5%, w/v) (Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan). The assay for the homogenate of human GBA2-expressing HEK293T cells was performed with 15.9 \( \mu l \) of McIlvaine buffer (pH 5.8) containing 0.1% (w/v) BSA. According to the method described in Ref. 56, the assay for rGALC was performed with 10 \( \mu l \) of McIlvaine buffer (pH 4.1), CHAPS (final 0.5%, w/v), Triton X-100 (final 0.01–0.02%, v/v), oleic acid (final 2 \( \mu g/\mu l \)), and sodium taurocholate (final 7 \( \mu g/\mu l \)). After incubation at 37 °C for 2 h, the reaction was terminated by adding chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v), and the lipids were extracted and analyzed as reported previously (59).

The assay of transglycosylase activity was also performed with natural cholesterol as the acceptor. The reaction mixture in a total volume of 40 \( \mu l \) contained 40 \( \mu M \) cholesterol, 80 or 200 \( \mu M \) GalCer (d18:1-C12:0) dissolved in the appropriate buffer as described above, 2% ethanol, and a desired amount of enzyme. The volume of McIlvaine buffer in the reaction mixture was 2 \( \times \) greater than described above. After incubation at 37 °C for 2 h, the reaction was terminated by adding chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) containing 800 fmol of \( \beta \)-GlcChol-\( \Delta_4 \), as an internal standard to normalize extraction efficiency. Lipid extraction was performed by Folch’s partition, and the organic phase was pooled and evaporated. The extracted lipids were separated by HPTLC with chloroform/methanol (85:15, v/v). Lipids were stained with primuline reagent and visualized using long-wave UV. The bands co-migrating with standard \( \beta \)-GlcChol and \( \beta \)-GalChol were collected, combined, and extracted using Folch’s partition. The organic layer containing steroylglycosides was collected and dried under a stream of \( \mathrm{N}_2 \). The extracted lipids were subjected to HILIC–ESI–MS/MS, and formation of \( \beta \)-GalChol was determined.

**In vitro assay of GlcCer or GalCer hydrolase activity**

The GlcCer and GalCer hydrolase assay used in this study was carried out according to the method we described previously (16), with some modifications. The reaction mixture in a total volume of 20 \( \mu l \) contained 100 pmol of \( \mathrm{C}_{16} \)-NBD–GlcCer or \( \mathrm{C}_{16} \)-NBD–GalCer dissolved in appropriate buffer and a desired amount of enzyme. The assay for rGBA1 was performed with 10 \( \mu l \) of McIlvaine buffer (pH 5.3), Triton X-100 (final 0.25%, w/v), and sodium taurocholate (final 0.6%, w/v). The assay for the homogenate of human GBA2-expressing HEK293T cells was performed with 16.6 \( \mu l \) of McIlvaine buffer (pH 5.8) containing 0.1% (w/v) BSA and ethanol (final 1%). The assay for rGALC was performed with 10 \( \mu l \) of McIlvaine buffer (pH 4.1), Triton X-100 (final 0.01%, v/v), oleic acid (final 2 \( \mu g/\mu l \)), and sodium taurocholate (final 7 \( \mu g/\mu l \)). After incubation at 37 °C for 30 min, the reaction was terminated by adding chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v); the lipids were extracted, and \( \mathrm{C}_{16} \)-NBD–ceramide formation was analyzed as reported before (16).

**Statistical analysis**

Statistical analyses and univariate descriptive statistics were performed using GraphPad Software, version 5.02 for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). Group means ± S.E. was calculated. To assess group differences, at least three independent experiments were assessed using unpaired \( t \) tests.
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