Quantitative Proteomics Analysis of Inborn Errors of Cholesterol Synthesis

IDENTIFICATION OF ALTERED METABOLIC PATHWAYS IN DHCR7 AND SC5D DEFICIENCY

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Smith-Lemli-Opitz syndrome (SLOS) and lathosterolosis are malformation syndromes with cognitive deficits caused by mutations of 7-dehydrocholesterol reductase (DHCR7) and lathosterol 5-desaturase (SC5D), respectively. DHCR7 encodes the last enzyme in the Kandutsch-Russel cholesterol biosynthetic pathway, and impaired DHCR7 activity leads to a deficiency of cholesterol and an accumulation of 7-dehydrocholesterol. SC5D catalyzes the synthesis of 7-dehydrocholesterol from lathosterol. Impaired SC5D activity leads to a similar deficiency of cholesterol but an accumulation of lathosterol. Although the genetic and biochemical causes underlying both syndromes are known, the pathophysiological processes leading to the developmental defects remain unclear. To study the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying SLOS and lathosterolosis neurological symptoms, we performed quantitative proteomics analysis of SLOS and lathosterolosis mouse brain tissues and identified multiple biological pathways affected in Dhcr7\(^{\Delta 3-5/\Delta 3-5}\) and Sc5d\(^{-/-}\) E18.5 embryos. These include alterations in mevalonate metabolism, apoptosis, glycolysis, oxidative stress, protein biosynthesis, intracellular trafficking, and cytoskeleton. Comparison of proteome alterations in both Dhcr7\(^{\Delta 3-5/\Delta 3-5}\) and Sc5d\(^{-/-}\) brain tissues helps elucidate whether perturbed protein expression was due to decreased cholesterol or a toxic effect of sterol precursors. Validation of the proteomics results confirmed increased expression of isoprenoid and cholesterol synthetic enzymes. This alteration of isoprenoid synthesis may underlie the altered posttranslational modification of Rab7, a small GTPase that is functionally dependent on prenylation with geranylgeranyl, that we identified and validated in this study. These data suggested that although cholesterol synthesis is impaired in both Dhcr7\(^{\Delta 3-5/\Delta 3-5}\) and Sc5d\(^{-/-}\) embryonic brain tissues the synthesis of nonsterol isoprenoids may be increased and thus contribute to SLOS and lathosterolosis pathology. This proteomics study has provided insight into the pathophysiological mechanisms of SLOS and lathosterolosis, and understanding these pathophysiological changes will help guide clinical therapy for SLOS and lathosterolosis. Molecular & Cellular Proteomics 9:1461–1475, 2010.

Smith-Lemli-Opitz syndrome (SLOS\(^{1}\); Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man 270400) is a multiple malformation syndrome with cognitive and behavioral deficiencies due to an inborn error of cholesterol synthesis. Typical findings in SLOS include dysmorphic facial features, limb defects, genital anomalies, growth retardation, cognitive disabilities, behavioral problems, and autistic features (for a review, see Ref. 1). The incidence of SLOS has been estimated to be on the order of 1/20,000–1/70,000 (1). SLOS is an autosomal recessive disorder caused by mutation of the 7-dehydrocholesterol reductase gene (DHCR7) (2–4). DHCR7 catalyzes the final step in the Kandutsch-Russel cholesterol biosynthetic pathway. Impaired DHCR7 activity results in increased 7-dehydrocholesterol (7DHC) and decreased cholesterol levels (Fig. 1A). Lathosterolosis is a rare “SLOS-like” malformation syndrome due to mutations of lathosterol 5-desaturase (SC5D) (5–7). SC5D catalyzes the conversion of lathosterol to 7DHC. Thus, in lathosterolosis, like SLOS, there is a deficiency of cholesterol. However, the accumulating precursor sterol is lathosterol rather than 7DHC (Fig. 1A). Because of its rarity and the fact that all known cases of lathosterolosis were ascertained due to similarity with SLOS, the phenotypic spectrum of lathosterolosis has not been defined.

Although the genetic and biochemical causes of SLOS are defined, the pathophysiological mechanisms contributing to specific malformations have not been delineated. The classic paradigm for the pathogenesis of an inborn error of metabolism includes the accumulation of a toxic precursor and/or deficiency of an essential product. In the case of SLOS, the observed defects are postulated to be caused, either singly or

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1 The abbreviations used are: SLOS, Smith-Lemli-Opitz syndrome; 2-DE, two-dimensional electrophoresis; 7DHC, 7-dehydrocholesterol; DHCR7, 7-dehydrocholesterol reductase; GGPS, geranylgeranyl-diphosphate synthase; HMGCS1, cytoplasmic hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA synthase; ID1, isopentenyl-diphosphate Δ-isomerase 1; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SC5D, lathosterol 5-desaturase; SREBP, sterol regulatory element-binding protein; c-SREBP, cleaved sterol regulatory element-binding protein; DSF, detergent-soluble fraction; DRM, detergent-resistant membrane.
in combination, by cholesterol deficiency or the accumulation of 7DHC (8, 9).

Cholesterol is an essential lipid with multiple critical functions. In addition to being a structural lipid in membranes and myelin, cholesterol is the precursor for bile acid, steroid hormone, neuroactive steroid, and oxyysterol synthesis. In cellular membranes, cholesterol rafts are microdomains that function in receptor-mediated signal transduction. Functional defects in IgE receptor-mediated mast cell degranulation and cytokine production (10), N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor function (11), and serotonin 1A receptor ligand binding (12, 13) have been reported in SLOS. The altered sterol composition in SLOS affects the physiochemical properties and function of lipid rafts. Membrane domains incorporating 7DHC differ from those containing only cholesterol in protein composition (14), packing (15), and stability (16–18). Substitution of 7DHC for cholesterol also decreases membrane bending rigidity (19). In addition, model membranes mimicking SLOS membranes have been reported to exhibit atypical membrane organization (20) and curvature (19). These alterations may have functional consequences. Depletion of cholesterol from hippocampal membranes and replenishment with 7-dehydrocholesterol does not restore ligand binding activity of the serotonin 1A receptor despite the recovery of the overall membrane order (12). Cholesterol is also necessary for maturation and function of the hedgehog family of morphogens during embryonic development, and several mechanisms by which sonic hedgehog signaling might be impaired in SLOS have been proposed (21–23).

To understand the pathophysiological processes underlying cognitive defects found in SLOS, we need to consider the potential detrimental effects of decreased cholesterol-functional sterol levels versus the potential toxic effects of increased 7DHC. To give insight into pathological effects due to cholesterol deficiency and precursor accumulation, we have produced mouse models deficient in either 7-dehydrocholesterol reductase (11) or lathosterol reductase (6) activity (Dhcr7+/−/−, and Sc5d−/−, respectively). Although the two models are similar in many respects, significant differences exist. Dhcr7 pups have relatively few physical malformations other than a low frequency of cleft palate but die during the 1st day of life due to failure to feed (11). In contrast Sc5d mutant embryos are stillborn and have multiple developmental malformations (6). In addition, although secretory granule formation is altered in both models, consistent with differing physiochemical properties of the two precursor sterols, the specific changes differ between the two models (19). For these reasons, a comparison of the two models will provide insight into common mechanisms that are likely due to cholesterol/sterol deficiency and syndrome-specific mechanisms that are due to specific effects of one of the two precursors.

We now report the use of two-dimensional electrophoresis (2-DE) mass spectrometry proteomics analysis to identify proteins with altered expression in brain tissue from both Dhcr7 and Sc5d mutants with the goal of identifying novel pathophysiological mechanisms contributing to the neurological deficits in these two inborn errors of cholesterol synthesis. Because our focus was on identifying processes that could contribute to abnormal neurological development, our analysis was focused on brain tissue from E18.5 embryos. This embryonic age was selected because the biochemical defect increases with embryonic age (6, 11), and it is the latest time point for which we could obtain viable tissue for both mutants. Western blot analysis was used to validate selected individual proteins and pathways. Functional annotation suggested that alterations in mevalonate metabolism, glycolysis, oxidative stress, apoptosis, protein biosynthesis, intracellular trafficking, and cytoskeleton may contribute to the pathology of inborn errors of cholesterol synthesis. In addition, our data are consistent with the hypothesis that both cholesterol deficiency and increased precursor sterol levels contribute to SLOS and lathosterolosis pathology.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials—Analytical reagent grade chemicals were used unless stated otherwise. Distilled-deionized water was used throughout the experiments. Chemicals used for gel electrophoresis were purchased from Bio-Rad. Sodium orthovanadate (Na3VO4) and sodium fluoride (NaF) were obtained from Sigma. Protease inhibitor mixture was purchased from GE Healthcare. High performance LC grade acetonitrile was obtained from Fisher. Sequencing grade trypsin was obtained from Roche Applied Science.

Animal Care and Husbandry—Animal work was performed under an NICHD Animal Care and Use Committee-approved animal study protocol. For timed matings, identification of a copulatory plug was used to define E0.5. After euthanasia of the dam, E18.5 embryos were rapidly dissected from the uterus. Embryonic age was confirmed by inspection, and embryos were genotyped as described previously (6, 11). E18.5 tissues was examined because Dhcr7 mutant pups die soon after birth and Sc5d mutant pups are stillborn. E18.5 is thus the optional gestational age to allow for both central nervous system maturation and development of the biochemical defect. All mice were on a mixed 129/B6 background. To ameliorate variability resulting from a non-isogenic background, mutants were matched with littermate controls, two independent control sets were used for the Dhcr7 and the Sc5d experiments, and seven to eight individual brains corresponding to each genotype were pooled for analysis.

Protein Sample Preparation—Brain tissue was rapidly dissected from E18.5 embryos and immediately washed with ice-cold 1× PBS. Each brain was then dissolved in 500 μl of lysis buffer (7 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 4% CHAPS, 65 mM DTT, 40 mM Tris, protease inhibitor mixture, and phosphoprotease inhibitor (0.2 mM Na3VO4 and 1 mM NaF)). After homogenization, the suspension was sonicated at 100 watts for 30 s and centrifuged at 25,000 × g for 1 h. The supernatant contained proteins solubilized in an IEF-compatible buffer. Protein from seven or eight individual E18.5 embryos was pooled and used for both 2-DE analysis and initial Western blot validation. Protein concentration was determined using a Bradford assay. Samples were stored at −80 °C until analysis.

Two-dimensional Electrophoresis—2-DE was performed as described previously (24). Briefly, IPG-IEF was performed on an Ettan IPGphor 3 IEF System (GE Healthcare). Eighty micrograms of protein...
were mixed with DeStreak™ Rehydration Solution (GE Healthcare) containing 1% IPG buffer, pH 3–10 nonlinear, 0.2% DTT, and a trace of bromophenol blue to a total volume of 250 µL. The protein preparations were pipetted into an IPG strip holder. Precast IPG dry strips, pH 3–10 nonlinear (130 × 3 × 0.5 mm) (GE Healthcare), were applied and overlaid with mineral oil. The IPG strip holders were then placed onto the electrode plate of the IPGphor platform. After rehydration at 30 V for 12 h, IEF was conducted at 500 V for 1 h, 1000 V for 1 h, and then 8000 V for 8 h to obtain a total of 50–60 kV-h. Temperature was maintained at 20 °C for the duration of the isoelectric focusing.

Following IEF separation, the gel strips were equilibrated twice for 15 min each in buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.8, 6 M urea, 30% glycero1, 2% SDS, and a trace of bromophenol blue. One percent DTT was added to the first equilibration buffer, and in the second equilibration buffer, DTT was replaced with 4.5% iodoacetamide. The equilibrated gel strips were then applied onto 1-mm-thick 12% polyacrylamide vertical slab gels and sealed with 0.5% agarose. SDS-PAGE was performed in a Hoefer SE600 Ruby Electrophoresis Unit (GE Healthcare) for 15 min at a constant current of 10 mA/gel and then switched to 20 mA/gel until the bromophenol blue reached the bottom of the gels. Gels corresponding to each of the four genotypes were run in triplicate. Preparative 2-DE gels were loaded with 2 mg of protein.

Gel Staining—After 2-DE, the analytic gels were stained with ammoniacal silver nitrate as described previously (24). Briefly, the analytic gels were washed for 5 min in water and soaked for 1 h in ethanol:acetic acid:water (40:10:50) followed by overnight immersion in ethanol:acetic acid:water (5:5:90). Gels were then washed twice for 20 min each in water, fixed with 5% glutaraldehyde for 1 h, and then washed four times for 30 min each in water. The gels were stained for 45 min in 23.5 mM silver nitrate, 1% ammonia, and 20 mM NaOH. After staining, the gels were washed three times for 3 min each with water and developed using 0.005% citric acid and 0.0185% formaldehyde for 5–10 min. Development was terminated with 5% acetic acid.

In the MALDI-TOF/TOF work, tryptic peptides were applied as unseparated mixtures to sample plate wells. Typically, 0.5 µL of extracted peptide, 5% of total sample in acetonitrile and 0.1% TFA (1:1), was applied with an equal volume of cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid matrix (5 mg/ml in the same solvent as the sample); two internal standards were added to the matrix and along with tryptic autolysis peptides were used for mass scale calibration. The typical operating procedure is to acquire a 400-laser shot spectrum of the full peptide mixture in reflector mode and then to fragment four to six peptides that are both intense and well separated from others within the limits of the timed ion selector operated at a resolution of 300; fragmentation spectra were acquired as unimolecular decompositions (collision gas off) using 1000 laser shots. There is no evidence of sample depletion from this approach.

For the LC/ESI/MS/MS spectra, tryptic peptides were separated by reversed phase chromatography and electrosprayed directly into the sampling orifice of the mass spectrometer. MS/MS spectra were collected in a data-dependent manner with up to three of the most intense ions in each full MS scan subjected to isolation and fragmentation. BioWorks v2.0 (Thermo Fisher) was used to extract the MS/MS spectra as dta files using the default parameters, and the dta files for each LC/MS/MS run were merged into one file for database analysis.

MS/MS spectra from both the MALDI and LC/ESI measurements were then analyzed, and both b and y ion series were used to match to protein sequences present in the Mus musculus subset of the UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot/TREMBL database (database version 56.0; 392,667 sequence entries, July 22, 2008) using the Mascot v2.2 (Matrix Science) search program. Parameters for the database search with Mascot MS/MS ions Search software were set as follows: enzyme, trypsin; one missed tryptic cleavage site permitted; fixed modification, carboxymethylation of cysteine; variable modification, methionine oxidation; mass tolerance for precursor ions, ±1.2 (Deca) and ±0.15 Da (4800 Proteomics Analyzer); mass tolerance for fragment ions, ±0.6 (Deca) and ±0.06 Da (4800 Proteomics Analyzer). Only peptides with individual ions Mouse scores ≥32 indicating significant identity or extensive homology (p < 0.05) were used for protein identification. Scaffold v2.2 (Proteome Software, Portland, OR) was used to validate peptide and protein identifications. In Scaffold, the peptide identifications from Mascot were verified using the X! Tandem (v2007.01.0.2) database search program (26). Probabilistic validations of the peptide identifications were performed using Peptide Prophet (27), and corresponding protein probabilities were calculated by Protein Prophet (28). The cutoff for peptide identification was set at greater than 95.0% probability, and the cutoff for protein identification was set at greater than 99% probability with two or more identified peptides. In the event of peptides matching to multiple members of a protein family, the presented protein was selected based on the highest score and the highest number of matching peptides.

Preparation of Detergent-resistant Membrane of Mouse Brain Tissue—The detergent-soluble fraction (DSF) and detergent-resistant
membrane (DRM) of mouse brain tissue were prepared with the ReadyPrep™ Protein Extraction kit (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Briefly, brains were isolated from E18.5 embryos and lysed using the provided detergent solution. After centrifugation at 16,000 × g for 20 min at 4 °C, the supernatant was collected as the DSF, and the DRM pellet was dissolved in the provided protein solubilization buffer. Protein samples from six individual E18.5 embryos corresponding to each genotype (Dhcr7^+/−, Dhcr7^3/−/3−/3−, Sc5d^+/−, or Sc5d^−/−) were pooled and used for Western blot analysis. Protein concentration was determined using the Bio-Rad RC DC Protein Assay. Western blot analysis of clathrin heavy chain and transferrin receptor was used to validate the preparation efficiency as marker proteins for DRM and DSF, respectively.

Validation of Candidate Proteins—For Western blot analysis, 20 μg of individual or pooled E18.5 Dhcr7^+/−, Dhcr7^3/−/3−/3−, Sc5d^+/−, or Sc5d^−/− mouse brain protein preparations were separated by 4−12% NuPAGE Tris acetate gels (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Proteins were then transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane using iBlot (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer’s protocol, and chemiluminescence detection was performed using WesternBreeze kits from Invitrogen. The following primary antibodies were used for Western blot analysis: rabbit polyclonal anti-cytoplasmic hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA synthase (HMGS1) (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), rabbit polyclonal anti-geranylgeranyl-diphosphate synthase (GGPS) (1:1000; Abgent), rabbit polyclonal anti-sterol regulatory element-binding protein 1 (SREBP-1) (1:500; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), rabbit polyclonal anti-Rab5 (1:100,000; Sigma), rabbit polyclonal anti-cofilin-1 (1:2000; Cell Signaling Technology), rabbit monoclonal anti-transferrin receptor (1:2,000; Invitrogen), rabbit polyclonal anti-cleaved caspase-3 (1:500; Cell Signaling Technology), mouse monoclonal anti-Rab7 (1:100,000; Sigma), mouse monoclonal anti-Rab5 (1:100,000; Sigma), rabbit polyclonal anti-actin (1:5,000; Sigma), rabbit monoclonal anti-actin (1:10,000; Sigma), mouse monoclonal anti-clathrin heavy chain (1:10,000; Sigma), mouse monoclonal anti-transferrin receptor (1:2,000; Invitrogen), rabbit polyclonal anti-cofilin-1 (1:2000; Cell Signaling Technology), rabbit monoclonal anti-phosphocollin (Ser-3) (1:200; Cell Signaling Technology), rabbit polyclonal anti-Rab5 (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), rabbit polyclonal anti-vacuolar proton pump F subunit (1:500; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), rabbit polyclonal anti-pyruvate kinase isozyme M2 (1:1000; Cell Signaling Technology), rabbit polyclonal anti-dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 2 (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), and mouse monoclonal anti-actin (1:5000; Sigma). The appropriate secondary antibody (rabbit or mouse) was applied, and the resulting chemiluminescence signal was detected. Band intensity was quantified with the Quantity One software (Bio-Rad) and normalized to actin.

RESULTS

Differential Protein Expression in Dhcr7^3/−/3−, Sc5d^+/−, and Sc5d^−/− Mouse Brain Tissues

A procedural schematic for 2-DE proteomics analysis is presented in supplemental Fig. 1. To minimize effects of individual variation, whole brain protein extracts prepared from seven or eight E18.5 embryos corresponding to each genotype (Dhcr7^+/−, Dhcr7^3/−/3−/3−, Sc5d^+/−, or Sc5d^−/−) were pooled. For each genotype, triplicate 2-DE silver-stained gels were prepared for image analysis. Representative silver-stained gels are shown in Fig. 1B. A total of 1036 protein spots were matched among the four groups of gels.

After gel-to-gel matching and normalization, statistics analyses were performed to identify potential proteins with differential expression. To experimentally determine a predicted false positive rate, we compared control Dhcr7 and Sc5d brain tissues. Predicted false positive rates are shown in supplemental Table 1. Using criteria of p < 0.05 and intensity differences of either 1.2-, 1.5-, or 2.0-fold, we found predicted false positive rates of 33.9–36.5, 6.5–7.9, and 5.3–10.0%, respectively. Thus, to optimize candidate protein identification and minimize false positives, we selected criteria of r > 1.5 and p < 0.05 to identify proteins with altered expression. Using these criteria, 46 (46 of 1036; 4.4%) protein spots showed altered intensity in gels from Dhcr7^3/−/3−/3− embryos compared with control brain tissue. Of these protein spots, 33 were decreased (r < 0.67, p < 0.05), and 13 were increased (r > 1.50, p < 0.05) in mutant tissue. Similarly, 38 (38 of 1036; 3.5%) protein spots were differentially expressed in Sc5d^−/− embryonic brain tissue. Relative to controls, 19 protein spots showed decreased expression (r < 0.67, p < 0.05), and 19 protein spots showed increased expression (r > 1.50, p < 0.05) in mutant tissue. In total, 66 protein spots showed significant expression changes of more than 1.5-fold in Dhcr7^3/−/3−/3− or Sc5d^−/− mouse brains (Fig. 1B and supplemental Table 2). Of these 66 protein spots, 14 showed concordant changes in both mutants, four were discordant, 28 were only observed in the Dhcr7 comparison, and 20 were only observed in the Sc5d comparison (Fig. 1B and supplemental Table 2).

Protein Identification and Validation

These 66 differentially expressed protein spots were identified and excised from Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250-stained preparative gels. After in-gel digestion with trypsin, the resulting tryptic peptides were extracted and analyzed by both MALDI-tandem TOF mass spectrometry and LC/ESI/MS/MS. MS/MS spectra were searched using Mascot. Identified proteins are listed in Table II, and the peptide list used for identification of each protein spot is provided in supplemental Table 3. The peptide and protein identifications were validated using Scaffold (supplemental Table 4). Fifty-two proteins (52 of 66; 78.8%) were identified based on at least two unique peptides. Thirty-six (36 of 46; 78.3%) and 30 (30 of 38; 78.9%) were identified in the Dhcr7 and Sc5d experiments, respectively (Table I and Table II).

To validate the differentially expressed proteins identified by 2-DE mass spectrometry proteomics analysis, Western blot analysis was performed for seven proteins, including HMGS1, Rab7, caspase-3, vacuolar proton pump F subunit, cofilin-1, pyruvate kinase isozymes M1/M2, and dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 2. Altered expression consistent with the above proteomics analysis was confirmed for five (71%) of these proteins. The two proteins that failed validation were pyruvate kinase isozymes M1/M2 and dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 2. It should be noted that multiple issues, other than the identified protein being a false positive, could contribute to failure to validate a given protein. These include posttranslational modifications or alteration of a specific isoform with the total level of all isoforms being unaltered. These
types of changes could be appreciated on a 2-DE gel but not detected on a one-dimensional gel. An example of the former situation is that although total cofilin-1 levels were similar, phosphocofilin levels were significantly increased in mutant embryos (29). Thus, this 71% validation rate is a minimal estimate.

Functional Annotation

Functional annotation of the identified proteins suggests that multiple biological pathways are perturbed in embryonic Dhcr7 and Sc5d mutant brain tissues (Fig. 2 and Table II). These include mevalonate metabolism, glycolysis and tricarboxylic acid cycle, oxidative stress, apoptosis, protein biosynthesis, intracellular trafficking, cytoskeleton, transcriptional regulation, and mRNA processing. Comparison of the two data sets showed similar perturbation of mevalonate metabolism, protein biosynthesis, intracellular trafficking, and cytoskeleton in the two mutants, whereas glycolysis appeared to be more affected in Dhcr7 mutants, and the tricarboxylic acid cycle appeared to be more affected in Sc5d mutants (Fig. 2 and Table II). In the subsequent sections, we confirm the identification of altered mevalonate metabolism, intracellular trafficking, and apoptosis as functional groupings with altered expression. In addition, we have recently completed a functional analysis of cofilin-1 confirming alteration in cytoskeletal proteins in both Dhcr7 and Sc5d mutant brain tissues (29).

Activation of Presqualene Cholesterol Biosynthetic Pathway—Cholesterol is synthesized in the endoplasmic reticulum...
of mammalian cells, and the first committed step of this pathway involves the synthesis of mevalonate by hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA reductase (30–32) (supplemental Fig. 2). The presqualene portion of the cholesterol biosynthetic pathway generates isoprenoid precursor molecules for the synthesis of nonsterol isoprenoids, such as dolichol, ubiquinone, and geranylgeranyl diphosphate. Farnesyl and geranylgeranyl are involved in posttranslational modification of specific proteins, such as small GTPases (supplemental Fig. 2) (30–32). Two enzymes in the mevalonate pathway, HMGCS1 and isopentenyl-diphosphate Δ-isomerase 1 (ID1), were identified in differentially expressed spots based on 18 and three unique peptides, respectively (Fig. 3A, Table II, and supplemental Table 3). HMGCS1 showed 1.55- and 1.75-fold increased expression in Dhcr7 and Sc5d mutant brain tissues compared with controls, respectively. Similarly, ID1 showed 1.61- and 1.44-fold increased expression in Dhcr7 and Sc5d mutant brain tissues compared with controls, respectively (Fig. 3A and Table II). Increased expression of HMGCS1 in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−} brain tissues was validated by Western blot (Fig. 3, B and D). Confirming the extrapolation of individual protein identification to the identification of altered pathways by functional annotation, Western blot analysis also demonstrated increased expression of GGPS, another enzyme in the mevalonate pathway, in both Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−} (Fig. 3, B and D).

SREBP-2 regulates the expression of cholesterol biosynthetic and lipid synthetic enzymes in response to intracellular cholesterol levels. In response to decreased cholesterol, SREBP-2 undergoes a series of proteolytic cleavages to yield a transcriptionally active protein (c-SREBP-2) (33–38). Consistent with increased protein expression of enzymes in the mevalonate pathway (Fig. 3, A, B, and D), Western blot analyses demonstrated increased c-SREBP-2 in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} (Fig. 3, C and D) and Sc5d^{−/−} (Fig. 3, C and E) mouse brains. This appears to be specific because a corresponding activation of SREBP-1, a homologous regulator of lipid synthetic genes, was not observed (Fig. 3, C and D) in either of the two mutants. It should be noted that altered expression of GGPS and SREBP-2 was not detected in our proteomics screen. Rather, the potential of these changes was inferred from the functional annotation of the identified proteins (Fig. 2).

**Altered Expression of Rab7 and Rab5 in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−} Brain Tissues**—The Rab family of small GTPases functions to regulate intracellular vesicular transport. Over 60 mammalian Rab proteins have been identified, and each Rab protein regulates a distinct step in intracellular vesicular transport (39, 40). In this study, we observed differential expression of Rab7 in two independent protein spots (spots 50 and 51), which migrated with distinct isoelectric points. The identification of Rab7 was based on seven and nine peptides, respectively, for the two spots (Fig. 4A, Table II, and supplemental Table 3). The identification of Rab7 in two spots suggested the possibility of altered posttranslational modification. Rab proteins are known to be modified by prenylation, methylation, and phosphorylation. In the more acidic spot (spot 50), expression was increased 2.06- and 1.43-fold relative to control animals in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−} embryonic brain tissues, respectively. However, in the second, more basic Rab7 spot (spot 51), expression was decreased 3.85- and 2.94-fold in Dhcr7^{3–6/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−}, respectively (Fig. 4A and Table II). Western blot analyses confirmed increased expression of total Rab7 in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} (Fig. 4, B and C) and Sc5d^{−/−} (Fig. 4, B and D) mouse brains.

Rab7 functions subsequent to Rab5, and sequential action of Rab5 and Rab7 regulates early and late endosomal trafficking, respectively (40–44). Thus, we investigated whether expression of Rab5 could be altered in either Dhcr7 or Sc5d mutant brain tissue. Total Rab5 was increased in both Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} (Fig. 4, B and C) and in Sc5d^{−/−} (Fig. 4, B and D) mouse brains, indicating that endocytosis regulated by Rab5 and Rab7 might be affected in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−} mouse brains. Identification of altered Rab5 expression further validates the use of functional annotation to infer disturbances in biological pathways.

**Activation of Caspase-3 in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−} Brain Tissue**—Caspase-3 is a critical protein that promotes apoptosis by catalyzing the proteolysis of members of the Bcl-2 family of apoptosis-related proteins. In response to various death signals, the caspase-3 proenzyme is cleaved by initiator caspases at Asp-28 and Asp-175 to generate the active large (p17) and small (p12) subunits, forming an active heterotetramer (45). In this study, we identified caspase-3 precursor based on five unique peptides from the differential protein spot 39, which showed 1.79- and 1.39-fold decreased expression in Dhcr7 and Sc5d mutant brain tissues compared with controls, respectively (Fig. 5A, Table II, and supplemental Table 3). To validate the identification of caspase-3, we performed Western blot analysis with an antibody that detects both precursor and activated caspase-3. Although no significant decrease of caspase-3 precursor was observed by Western blot analysis, the cleaved caspase-3 (p17) was significantly increased in Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} and Sc5d^{−/−} brain tissues (Fig. 5, B, C, and D). Functional characterization further indicated that cleaved caspase-3 was increased in both detergent-soluble fraction and detergent-resistant membrane of Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} brain tissue (Fig. 5E). However, caspase-3 precursor was not detected in detergent-resistant membrane of control and Dhcr7^{3–5/3–5} brain tissues (Fig. 5E).
## TABLE II

Identified proteins that exhibited significant differential expression (>1.5-fold) in Dhcr7Δ3−5/Δ3−5 or Sc5d−/− embryonic brain tissue

| Spot no. | Accession no. | Protein name | Ratio Dhcr7 (Δ3−5/Δ3−5/+ ) | Ratio Sc5d (−/−/+ ) | Theoretical molecular mass (Da)/pI | Experimental molecular mass (kDa)/pI | No. of unique peptides (Mascot) | No. of unique peptides (Scaffold) | Sequence coverage % |
|----------|---------------|--------------|---------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| **Mevalonate metabolism** | | | | | | | | | |
| 17 | Q8JZK9 | Hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA synthase, cytoplasmic | 1.55 | 1.75 | 58,160/5.65 | 58.2/5.65 | 17 | 19 | 36 |
| 49 | P58044 | Isopentenyl-diphosphate Δ-isomerase 1 | 1.61 | 1.44 | 26,615/5.79 | 26.0/5.90 | 3 | 8 | 19 |
| **Apoptosis-related** | | | | | | | | | |
| 39 | P70677 | Caspase-3 precursor | 0.56 | 0.72 | 31,911/6.45 | 34.0/6.08 | 5 | 7 | 22 |
| 47 | P61982 | 14-3-3 protein γ | 0.48 | 1.18 | 28,456/4.80 | 28.5/4.71 | 8 | 12 | 51 |
| 53 | P63028 | Translationally controlled tumor protein | 2.02 | 1.85 | 19,564/4.76 | 21.5/4.85 | 4 | 4 | 30 |
| **Intracellular trafficking** | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 | O08599 | Syntaxin-binding protein 1 | 0.62 | 0.56 | 67,925/6.49 | 66.1/6.94 | 13 | 26 | 28 |
| 11 | Q62188 | Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 3 | 1.56 | 0.85 | 62,296/6.04 | 59.5/5.96 | 20 | 17 | 51 |
| 50 | P51150 | Ras-related protein Rab7a | 2.06 | 1.43 | 23,760/6.40 | 22.7/6.90 | 7 | 8 | 40 |
| 51 | P51150 | Ras-related protein Rab7b | 0.26 | 0.34 | 23,760/6.40 | 22.6/6.97 | 9 | 10 | 54 |
| 56 | Q9G288 | Vacuolar protein sorting-associated protein 29 | 1.10 | 1.68 | 20,654/6.29 | 20.2/6.64 | 5 | 6 | 31 |
| 59 | P48078 | ADP-ribosylation factor 1 | 0.57 | 0.97 | 20,741/6.32 | 17.1/6.02 | 4 | 5 | 33 |
| 64 | Q9D1K2 | Vacular proton pump F subunit | 0.65 | 1.34 | 13,362/5.52 | 13.4/5.42 | 4 | 6 | 41 |
| **Antioxidant** | | | | | | | | | |
| 40 | Q9J99 | 3-Mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase | 0.11 | 0.76 | 33,231/6.11 | 33.2/6.11 | 6 | 9 | 27 |
| 54 | Q9CPU0 | Lactoylglutathione lyase | 0.60 | 1.07 | 20,967/5.24 | 21.2/5.11 | 7 | 11 | 39 |
| 60 | P02228 | Superoxide dismutase (Cu/Zn) | 0.51 | 0.62 | 16,104/6.02 | 16.1/6.02 | 6 | 7 | 46 |
| **Glycolysis** | | | | | | | | | |
| 12 | P52480 | Pyruvate kinase isozymes M1/M2 | 0.32 | 0.84 | 58,378/7.18 | 59.8/9.99 | 8 | 15 | 37 |
| 13 | P52480 | Pyruvate kinase isozymes M2/M2 | 0.29 | 0.72 | 58,378/7.18 | 59.9/9.01 | 6 | 11 | 26 |
| 36 | Q90392 | Transaldolase | 0.67 | 1.07 | 37,534/6.57 | 38.7/6.04 | 13 | 13 | 34 |
| 48 | Q9DBJ1 | Phosphoglycerate mutase 1 | 0.65 | 1.11 | 28,928/6.67 | 28.2/6.96 | 12 | 14 | 68 |
| **Protein biosynthesis** | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | P58252 | Elongation factor 2 (EF-2) | 1.13 | 0.59 | 96,222/6.41 | 91.0/6.88 | 26 | 40 | 42 |
| 24 | P60843 | Eukaryotic initiation factor 4A-I | 0.36 | 0.15 | 46,353/5.32 | 46.4/5.32 | 5 | 13 | 14 |
| 45 | P63073 | Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E | 0.78 | 0.62 | 25,266/5.79 | 26.0/5.48 | 4 | 4 | 20 |
| 61 | P63323 | 40S ribosomal protein S12 | 0.67 | 1.71 | 14,858/8.62 | 14.9/8.62 | 3 | 5 | 22 |
| **Cytoskeleton-associated** | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | O08553 | Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 2 | 1.69 | 2.13 | 62,638/5.95 | 71.6/5.65 | 9 | 22 | 24 |
| 7 | O08553 | Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 2 | 0.57 | 1.01 | 62,638/5.95 | 64.2/6.08 | 6 | 13 | 13 |
| 15 | P99024 | Tubulin β-5 chain | 0.65 | 1.08 | 50,095/4.78 | 58.6/4.72 | 15 | 17 | 46 |
| 19 | P99024 | Tubulin β-5 chain | 0.54 | 0.86 | 50,095/4.78 | 47.2/4.96 | 21 | 26 | 62 |
| 22 | P20152 | Vimentin | 0.91 | 1.93 | 53,712/5.06 | 46.6/4.90 | 7 | 9 | 15 |
| 58 | P18760 | Cofilin-1 | 3.81 | 2.61 | 18,776/8.22 | 17.8/6.05 | 4 | 7 | 33 |
| **Molecular chaperone** | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | P20029 | 78-kDa glucose-regulated protein | 0.66 | 1.15 | 72,492/5.07 | 72.5/5.07 | 14 | 18 | 26 |
| 10 | P80317 | T-complex protein 1 subunit ζ | 0.96 | 0.54 | 58,424/6.63 | 60.5/6.96 | 21 | 32 | 48 |
| 16 | P80314 | T-complex protein 1 subunit β | 0.65 | 0.66 | 57,783/5.97 | 58.8/5.56 | 25 | 28 | 63 |
| 62 | Q9CMW4 | Prefoldin subunit 1 | 1.71 | 1.04 | 14,246/7.93 | 14.4/5.96 | 4 | 5 | 29 |
| Spot no. | Accession no. | Protein name | Ratio Dhcr7 (Δ3–5/Δ3–5/+/+) | Ratio Scc5d (−/−/+/*+) | Theoretical molecular mass (Da)/pI | Experimental molecular mass (kDa)/pI | No. of unique peptides (Mascot) | No. of unique peptides (Scaffold) | Sequence coverage |
|---------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| mRNA processing | | | | | | | | | |
| 29 | Q9Z204 | Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoproteins C1/C2 | 0.81<sup>a</sup> | 1.57 | 34,421/4.92 | 41.0/5.02 | 8 | 11 | 29 |
| 32 | Q9Z204 | Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoproteins C1/C2 | 0.95<sup>a</sup> | 1.54 | 34,421/4.92 | 39.4/5.01 | 4 | 7 | 21 |
| 34 | P60335 | Poly(C)-binding protein 1 | 0.60 | 0.58 | 37,987/6.66 | 38.7/6.04 | 8 | 14 | 49 |
| 37 | O88569 | Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoproteins A2/B1 | 1.11<sup>a</sup> | 0.52 | 37,437/8.97 | 37.4/8.97 | 8 | 17 | 26 |
| Transcription regulation | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | Q8C854 | Myelin expression factor 2 | 1.04<sup>a</sup> | 0.44 | 63,482/8.96 | 61.0/9.00 | 6 | 14 | 13 |
| 9 | Q8C854 | Myelin expression factor 2 | 0.29 | 0.80 | 63,482/8.96 | 60.7/9.12 | 9 | 11 | 17 |
| 14 | Q99K48 | Non-POU domain-containing octamer-binding protein | 0.18 | 0.89<sup>a</sup> | 54,620/9.01 | 59.4/9.01 | 2 | 6 | 4 |
| 27 | Q921F2 | TAR DNA-binding protein 43 | 1.16<sup>a</sup> | 0.36 | 44,918/6.26 | 43.6/5.87 | 9 | 13 | 30 |
| 46 | Q8CCT4 | Transcription elongation factor A protein-like 5 | 1.39<sup>a</sup> | 1.94 | 22,082/5.95 | 29.1/5.74 | 3 | 5 | 16 |
| 65 | P84089 | Enhancer of rudimentary homolog | 0.92<sup>a</sup> | 1.51 | 12,422/5.63 | 12.4/5.46 | 2 | 3 | 26 |
| Tricarboxylic acid cycle | | | | | | | | | |
| 28 | P54071 | Isocitrate dehydrogenase (NADP), mitochondrial | 1.08<sup>a</sup> | 0.41 | 51,330/5.88 | 44.4/8.99 | 11 | 19 | 27 |
| 35 | Q9D6R2 | Isocitrate dehydrogenase (NAD) subunit α | 0.89<sup>a</sup> | 1.54 | 40,069/6.27 | 39.0/5.47 | 6 | 8 | 18 |
| Other | | | | | | | | | |
| 25 | Q9EQ5 | Phosphatase 2A inhibitor I2PP2A | 0.43 | 1.82 | 33,358/4.22 | 45.0/4.31 | 4 | 9 | 12 |
| 26 | Q9S186 | Reticulocalbin-1 precursor | 1.38<sup>a</sup> | 2.01 | 38,090/4.70 | 45.4/4.62 | 4 | 6 | 15 |
| 30 | Q9EQ5 | Phosphatase 2A inhibitor I2PP2A | 0.25 | 1.07<sup>a</sup> | 33,358/4.22 | 39.5/4.20 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| 31 | Q9EQ5 | Phosphatase 2A inhibitor I2PP2A | 0.61 | 1.78 | 33,358/4.22 | 39.4/4.41 | 4 | 4 | 16 |
| 42 | Q8X0N0 | α-β-Hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase | 0.92<sup>a</sup> | 0.65 | 38,603/9.14 | 32.9/9.14 | 7 | 11 | 23 |
| 44 | P70195 | Proteasome subunit β type-7 precursor | 1.54 | 0.64 | 30,214/8.14 | 29.6/5.88 | 8 | 14 | 38 |
| 63 | Q9E2088 | Hemoglobin subunit β-1<sup>f</sup> | 1.58 | 1.47 | 15,944/7.12 | 13.7/7.96 | 12 | 15 | 95 |

<sup>a</sup> The gel locations for the numbered spots are indicated in Fig. 1B.
<sup>b</sup> Swiss-Prot/TrEMBL primary accession number.
<sup>c</sup> Unique peptides matched using Mascot with scores greater than identity cutoff score (ion score ≥ 32 indicates identity or close homology, p < 0.05).
<sup>d</sup> Unique peptides matched using Scaffold (Mascot and X! Tandem combined searches) with probability score ≥ 95% as specified by Peptide Prophet.
<sup>e</sup> Percentage of amino acids in protein matched to peptides identified using Mascot.
<sup>f</sup> A mixture of protein isozymes were detected in gel spot, but only the predominant form is listed here (see supplemental Table 3 for a complete list of isozyme peptides).
<sup>g</sup> p > 0.05; no statistical significance.
DISCUSSION

Although the primary molecular and enzymatic defects that cause SLOS and lathosterolosis are known, the pathophysiological processes that underlie the congenital malformations and cognitive impairment are not defined. It is unlikely that a single pathogenic mechanism can explain the pleiotropic phenotypic findings and symptoms observed in SLOS and lathosterolosis (1, 46). To identify biological pathways that potentially contribute to the SLOS and lathosterolosis phenotypes, we performed comparative proteomics analysis of control, Dhcr7α3−5/Δ3−5, and Sc5d−/− embryonic mouse brains. Comparison of the proteomic changes in Dhcr7α3−5/Δ3−5 and Sc5d−/− E18.5 embryonic brain tissue may also help elucidate whether protein expression was altered due to decreased cholesterol or a toxic effect of sterol precursors.

Both Cholesterol Deficiency and Sterol Precursor Accumulation May Contribute to Pathology of SLOS and Lathosterolosis—Cholesterol levels are decreased in brain tissue from both Dhcr7α3−5/Δ3−5 and Sc5d−/− mice; however, the accumulating precursor sterol is 7DHC and lathosterol, respectively (6, 11). Sterol precursors, such as 7DHC and lathosterol, could be bioactive themselves or give rise to bioactive products (8, 9). Because the cholesterol deficiency is similar in both mouse models, our comparison of proteomic changes in Dhcr7α3−5/Δ3−5 and Sc5d−/− mice allows for identification of changes that might be specifically due to or potentiated by a toxic effect of the accumulating precursor sterol. Of the 66 proteins expressed in Dhcr7α3−5/Δ3−5 and Sc5d−/− E18.5 embryonic brain tissue.

Fig. 2. Functional annotation of differentially expressed proteins that were identified in Dhcr7α3−5/Δ3−5 and Sc5d−/− embryonic brain tissues. A, functional annotation of 36 differentially expressed (r > 1.5, p < 0.05) proteins in Dhcr7α3−5/Δ3−5 embryonic brain tissue. B, functional annotation of 30 differentially expressed (r > 1.5, p < 0.05) proteins in Sc5d−/− embryonic brain tissue.
protein spots with differential expression >1.5-fold (Table II, supplemental Table 2), 14 showed concordant changes in both mutants, suggesting that altered expression was a consequence of decreased cholesterol. In contrast, 42 protein spots showed discordant changes, suggesting that altered expression may be due to a specific effect of either 7DHC or lathosterol. Toxic effects of either 7DHC or lathosterol could either be a direct consequence of the sterol precursor or a metabolite of the precursor sterol. These toxic effects could be potentiated by the concurrent cholesterol deficiency. Functional annotation of the differentially expressed proteins showed concordant changes in mevalonate metabolism, protein biosynthesis, apoptosis, intracellular trafficking, and cytoskeleton in both Dhcr7 and Sc5d mutants. In contrast, the tricarboxylic acid cycle appeared to be specifically affected in Sc5d mutants, whereas glycolysis appeared to be more affected in Dhcr7 mutants (Fig. 2 and Table II). Although future studies will need to explore this in detail for all of the identified proteins and pathways, both identification of specific proteins and functional annotation support the hypothesis that both decreased cholesterol/functional sterol and toxic effects of elevated concentrations of sterol precursors contribute to the phenotypic findings and symptoms observed in SLOS and lathosterolosis. This is consistent with the different but related phenotypes observed for SLOS and lathosterolosis mouse models and consistent with the fact that the syndromic phenotypes associated with mutations of NSHDL (congenital hemidysplasia with ichthyosiform erythroderma and limb defects (CHILD) syndrome) and EBP (Conradi-
Hu¨ nermann–Happle syndrome), two genes that encode postsqualene cholesterol synthetic enzymes, are distinct from SLOS (47). The concordant changes observed for multiple proteins and biological pathways likely result from sterol deficiency that is common between the two disorders.

Multiple Biological Pathways, Including Isoprenoid Synthesis, Are Affected in Developing Dhcr7^33–5/3^3–5 or Sc5d^{−/−} Mouse Brain Tissue—Compared with control, we identified 46 and 38 differentially expressed protein spots in Dhcr7^33–5/3^3–5 and Sc5d^{−/−} embryonic mouse brains, respectively. Mass
spectrometric analysis identified 36 (36 of 46; 78%) and 30 (30 of 38; 79%) of these spots, respectively (Tables I and II). An experimentally determined false positive rate of 6.5–7.9% and a minimal validation rate of 71% strongly support the use of the reported protein identifications to guide development of future experiments investigating pathological processes contributing to the development of the SLOS and lathosterolosis phenotypes. Consistent with pleiotropic phenotypic findings and symptoms observed in SLOS and lathosterolosis, functional annotation of the differentially expressed proteins identified multiple biological pathways that may be affected in Dhcr7 

Altered glucose metabolism has been implicated as a pathological mechanism contributing to pathophysiology in neurodegenerative disorders, including neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis (62, 63), chromosomal disorders, such as Down syndrome (64), and inborn errors of metabolism, such as phenylketonuria (65–68). In the current study, we identified decreased expression of pyruvate kinase isozymes M1/M2, transaldolase, and phosphoglycerate mutase 1 in Dhcr7 

Mevalonate metabolism encompasses multiple presqualene and postsqualene enzymatic steps that contribute to the synthesis of cholesterol. Cellular cholesterol levels are tightly regulated by a feedback regulation mechanism in which sterol regulatory element-binding proteins coordinate regulation of expression of the cholesterol biosynthetic enzymes (30–35). The data presented in this study show increased expression of HMGC51, IDI1, and GGPS as well as increased activation of SREBP-2 in both Dhcr7 

In addition to the synthesis of cholesterol, presqualene cholesterol synthetic enzymes contribute to the synthesis of nonsterol isoprenoids such as dolichol, ubiquinone, farnesyl, and geranylglyeryl diphosphate (supplemental Fig. 2). Thus, due to the coordinate regulation of the expression of cholesterol synthetic genes by SREBP-2, altered regulation of cho-
lusterol synthesis may also affect synthesis of nonsterol isoprenoids. Nonsterol isoprenoids play critical roles in multiple cellular processes. Clinical studies support the possibility of increased synthesis of presqualene isoprenoids in SLOS. Steiner et al. (70) have shown that total sterol synthesis is reduced to 60% of normal in SLOS patients. However, under the same conditions, urinary mevalonate excretion is normal (71). Normal mevalonate excretion in the context of decreased sterol synthesis could be explained by diversion of mevalonate into the synthesis of nonsterol isoprenoids or metabolism by the mitochondrial mevalonate shunt pathway. Evidence for both processes is provided by prior clinical studies. Kelley and Kratz (72) reported increased mevalonate shunt activity in SLOS children, and Pappu et al. (46) reported increased urinary excretion of ubiquinone and dolichol. Previous work by Dallner and co-workers (31, 73, 74) has shown that the first committed enzymes of dolichol and ubiquinone biosynthesis have higher affinities for the branch point intermediate farnesyl pyrophosphate than the first committed enzyme of sterol biosynthesis, thus favoring nonsterol isoprenoid synthesis. Increased activation of SREBP-2 and increased expression of presqualene isoprenoid synthetic enzymes as reported in this study combined with increased affinities of the enzymes involved in nonsterol isoprenoid synthesis are consistent with increased synthesis of nonsterol isoprenoids in both SLOS and lathosterolosis.

Increased synthesis of biologically active nonsterol isoprenoids may contribute to the SLOS and lathosterolosis phenotype. Specifically altered nonsterol isoprenoid synthesis may contribute to defects in intracellular trafficking and cytoskeletal function, two functional domains identified in this study. Geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate is a nonsterol isoprenoid that is utilized in the posttranslational modification of Rho and Rab GTPases. Prenylation of Rho and Rab GTPases is essential for membrane attachment and cycling between active GTP-bound and inactive GDP-bound states (39, 40). Increased prenylation due to increased production of geranylgeranyl bound and inactive GDP-bound states (39, 40). Increased prenylation due to increased production of geranylgeranyl bound and inactive GDP-bound states (39, 40). Increased prenylation due to increased production of geranylgeranyl bound and inactive GDP-bound states (39, 40). Increased prenylation due to increased production of geranylgeranyl bound and inactive GDP-bound states (39, 40).

In conclusion, this study reports the first quantitative proteomics analysis of SLOS and lathosterolosis tissues. In addition to identifying multiple biological pathways where altered function could contribute to the pathophysiological processes underlying SLOS and lathosterolosis and separating the effects of decreased cholesterol from increased sterol precursors, this work also suggests potential novel therapeutic interventions that can be tested in subsequent studies.

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