

1 **Mildly compromised tetrahydrobiopterin cofactor biosynthesis due to *Pts***
2 **variants leads to unusual body fat distribution and abdominal obesity in mice**

3
4 **Running title: Abdominal obesity in mice with mildly compromised BH₄ biosynthesis**

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53 **Compliance with Ethics Guidelines**

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55 Conflict of interest:

56 Germaine Korner, Tanja Scherer, Dea Adamsen, Alexander Rebuffat, Mark Crabtree, Anahita Rassi,
57 Rossana Scavelli, Daigo Homma, Birgit Ledermann, Daniel Konrad, Hiroshi Ichinose, Christian
58 Wolfrum, Marion Horsch, Birgit Rathkolb, Martin Klingenspor, Johannes Beckers, Eckhard Wolf,
59 Valérie Gailus-Durner, Helmut Fuchs, Martin Hrabě de Angelis, Nenad Blau, Jan Rozman, and Beat
60 Thöny declare that they have no conflict of interest.

61

62 Informed Consent: no studies with human subjects are included in this manuscript.

63

64 Animal Rights: All institutional and national guidelines for the care and use of laboratory animals were
65 followed. Animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the guidelines and policies of the
66 State Veterinary Office of Zurich and Swiss law on animal protection, the Swiss Federal Act on Animal
67 Protection (1978), and the Swiss Animal Protection Ordinance (1981). Animal studies presented here
68 received approval from by the Cantonal Veterinary Office, Zurich, and the Cantonal Committee for
69 Animal Experiments, Zurich, Switzerland.

70

71 Details of the contributions of individual authors:

72 Author contributions: GK, TS, DA, AR, MC, AR, RS, DH, BL, DK, CW, MH, BR, MK, and JB have
73 conducted the experiments, and HI, EW, VG-D, HF, MHA, NB, JR, and BT were involved in planning
74 and reporting of the work described.

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77

78 **Abstract** Tetrahydrobiopterin (BH₄) is an essential cofactor for the aromatic amino acid
79 hydroxylases, alkylglycerol monooxygenase and nitric oxide synthases (NOS). Inborn errors of BH₄
80 metabolism lead to severe insufficiency of brain monoamine neurotransmitters while augmentation of
81 BH₄ by supplementation or stimulation of its biosynthesis is thought to ameliorate endothelial NOS
82 (eNOS) dysfunction, to protect from (cardio-) vascular disease and/or prevent obesity and
83 development of the metabolic syndrome. We have previously reported that homozygous knock-out
84 mice for the 6-pyruvolytetrahydropterin synthase (PTPS; *Pts*-ko/ko) mice with no BH₄ biosynthesis die
85 after birth. Here we generated a *Pts*-knock-in (*Pts*-ki) allele expressing the murine PTPS-p.Arg15Cys
86 with low residual activity (15% of wild-type *in vitro*) and investigated homozygous (*Pts*-ki/ki) and
87 compound heterozygous (*Pts*-ki/ko) mutants. All mice showed normal viability and depending on the
88 severity of the *Pts* alleles exhibited up to 90% reduction of PTPS activity concomitant with neopterin
89 elevation and mild reduction of total biopterin while blood L-phenylalanine and brain monoamine
90 neurotransmitters were unaffected. Yet, adult mutant mice with compromised PTPS activity (i.e. *Pts*-
91 ki/ko, *Pts*-ki/ki or *Pts*-ko/wt) had increased body weight and elevated intra-abdominal fat.
92 Comprehensive phenotyping of *Pts*-ki/ki mice revealed alterations in energy metabolism with
93 proportionally higher fat content but lower lean mass, and increased blood glucose and cholesterol.
94 Transcriptome analysis indicated changes in glucose and lipid metabolism. Furthermore, differentially
95 expressed genes associated with obesity, weight loss, hepatic steatosis and insulin sensitivity were
96 consistent with the observed phenotypic alterations. We conclude that reduced PTPS activity
97 concomitant with mildly compromised BH₄-biosynthesis leads to abnormal body fat distribution and
98 abdominal obesity at least in mice. This study associates a novel single gene mutation with
99 monogenic forms of obesity.

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101 275 words

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103 Key words: tetrahydrobiopterin, endothelial dysfunction, eNOS/NOS3, neopterin, metabolic syndrome,
104 monogenic obesity

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107 Introduction

108

109 Tetrahydrobiopterin (BH₄) is synthesized *de novo* from guanosine triphosphate (GTP) by the three
110 enzymes GTP cyclohydrolase I (GTPCH), 6-pyruvoyltetrahydropterin synthase (PTPS) and
111 sepiapterin reductase (SR) (Thöny et al 2000; Werner et al 2011). BH₄ is an essential cofactor for the
112 aromatic amino acid mono-oxygenases, i.e. the phenylalanine hydroxylase (PAH), the tyrosine
113 hydroxylase (TH) and the two tryptophan hydroxylases (TPH1, TPH2). Besides providing L-tyrosine
114 (L-Tyr) for protein and catecholamine biosynthesis, the major role of the hepatic PAH is the prevention
115 from systemic L-phenylalanine (L-Phe) accumulation, which is toxic in the brain. TH and TPH1/2 are
116 the key enzymes in the biosynthesis of L-3,4-dihydroxyphenylalanine (L-Dopa) and 5-hydroxy-L-
117 tryptophan (5-HTP), respectively. BH₄ is also a cofactor for the three nitric-oxide synthases (NOS)
118 isoenzymes neuronal NOS (nNOS/NOS1), cytokine-inducible NOS (iNOS/NOS2) and endothelial
119 NOS (eNOS/NOS3) for nitric oxide production as well as for the alkylglycerol mono-oxygenase
120 (AGMO) which catalyzes the hydroxylation of alkylglycerols or ether lipids (Werner et al 2011).

121

122 BH₄ deficiency is a heterogeneous group of rare disorders associated with a spectrum of phenotypes
123 ranging from mild, peripheral symptoms including hyperphenylalaninemia (HPA) due to lowered
124 hepatic PAH activity to severe morbidity due to compromised monoamine neurotransmitter synthesis
125 by dysfunction of TH and TPH in the brain (Blau et al 2010). Oral supplementation with BH₄ - in
126 combination with neurotransmitter precursors - has been successfully employed to treat patients.
127 Besides cofactor for the aromatic amino acid hydroxylases, BH₄ is an intracellular antioxidant and a
128 key regulator of cellular redox-signaling, and conditions of low BH₄ for NOS lead to NOS uncoupling
129 and production of superoxide rather than NO (Werner et al 2011; McNeill and Channon 2012). Since
130 NO is required to maintain vascular function, limited bioavailability of the NOS cofactor BH₄ is
131 associated not only to cell toxicity but also to vascular dysfunction (McNeill and Channon 2012). Thus,
132 perturbed homeostasis of BH₄ does not only lead to oxidative stress but is thought to be associated
133 with pathogenesis of cardiovascular and neurodegenerative diseases.

134

135 Over the last years, numerous experiments with rodents or patients were performed under conditions
136 of increased BH₄ by augmentation of cofactor through pharmacological supplementation, stimulation
137 of biosynthesis or protection from oxidation, and they basically all confirmed correction of eNOS

138 dysfunction to protect from (cardio-) vascular disease (Shi et al 2004; Forstermann and Munzel 2006).
139 Furthermore, the bioavailability of endothelial BH₄ for eNOS was found also to be important, besides
140 probably many other dietary factors (Wu and Meininger 2002), for the control of glucose and lipid
141 homeostasis (Duplain et al 2001; Wyss et al 2005), and various experiments in animal models and
142 patients suggest a role in, or progression to, type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)(Meininger et al 2000; Alp
143 et al 2003; Ihlemann et al 2003; Pannirselvam et al 2003; Meininger et al 2004; Nystrom et al 2004).
144 Oral supplementation of BH₄ over several weeks in rats prevented endothelial dysfunction and
145 restored adiponectin levels, a hormone secreted from adipose tissue and regulating glucose and fatty
146 acid catabolism (Wang et al 2007). It was speculated based on such experiments with animals and in
147 patients with T2DM that BH₄ might be a candidate for the treatment of the metabolic syndrome.
148 Increase of abdominal obesity is known to contribute to insulin resistance and metabolic abnormality
149 which is linked to development of T2DM and cardiovascular disease (Despres and Lemieux 2006; Fox
150 et al 2007; Rader 2007). However, the underlying mechanisms for the relation between arterial
151 hypertension, insulin resistance, and the metabolic syndrome are unclear (Despres and Lemieux
152 2006).

153

154 Various transgenic animal models are available to study pathophysiology and disease mechanism of
155 BH₄ cofactor deficiency (Werner et al 2011). We and others have reported on the perinatal lethal
156 phenotype of a homozygous *Pts*-knock-out mouse (*Pts*-ko/ko)(Sumi-Ichinose et al 2001; Elzaouk et al
157 2003). This mouse mutant exhibited complete absence of PTPS biosynthesis activity accompanied by
158 systemic HPA, severe brain monoamine neurotransmitter deficiency, IGF-1 depletion and dwarfism,
159 while whole brain NOS activity was normal. Due to its severe morbidity and perinatal mortality, this
160 mouse model turned out to be difficult for further and detailed studies on the natural history and
161 development of pathophysiology for classical BH₄ deficiency. We thus aimed at generating a mouse
162 model with a milder form of BH₄ deficiency. Here we report on the generation and characterization of a
163 *Pts*-knock-in (*Pts*-ki) allele with low but residual PTPS activity. Surprisingly, homozygous *Pts*-ki/ki or
164 heterozygous *Pts*-ki/ko mutant animals exhibited normal L-Phe levels and brain monoamine
165 neurotransmitters but abnormal body fat distribution and abdominal obesity.

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167

168 Materials, methods and animal husbandry169 *Pts* gene targeting

170 A genomic clone containing the murine *Pts* gene was as described previously, isolated from a 129/Sv-
171 λ phage library (Turri et al 1998). For targeting vector (pMSY211) construction, a 1.3 kb fragment of
172 the *Pts* gene spanning exon 1 was used as short arm of homology (see Supplementary Figure S1B).
173 A phosphoglycerate kinase promoter (*Pgk*)-diphtheria toxin (DT) gene cassette, essential for the
174 negative selection of the embryonic stem (ES) cells, was added 5' to the short arm of homology. The
175 long arm of homology was a 5.1 kb fragment containing exons 2, 3 and 4 of the *Pts* gene, and as a
176 positive selective marker, the "floxed" *Pgk*-neomycin resistance gene (*neo*) cassette that was
177 introduced between the short and the long arm of homology. After successful construction, the
178 pMSY211 targeting vector was linearized and electroporated into ES cells derived from
179 129S6/SvEvTac strain. ES cell clones with correct homologous recombination were confirmed by
180 nested PCR under standard amplification conditions with 40 cycles with primers MSY220: 5'-
181 GCACCCAAGGTAGCCAAGAATTTG-3' and MSY221: 5'-TTCTTCGCCACCCCGAAATTGATG-3',
182 followed by 25 cycles with primers MSY226: 5'-ACCGGGCTGGAGAACATCTGATAAG-3' and
183 MSY228: 5'-TCAGCAGCCTCTGTTCCACATACAC-3'. For further confirmation of correctly targeted
184 ES cell clones, Southern blot analysis was performed (not shown). One correctly targeted ES cell
185 clone was chosen for blastocyst injection. Blastocyst injection (FVB/N host embryos) led to generation
186 of one 50% chimeric male that, when sexually mature, was mated with FVB females. The chimera
187 revealed germline transmission resulting in the generation of heterozygous *Pts*-R15C knock-in (*Pts*-ki)
188 targeted mice. Correct genotype was confirmed on genomic DNA from tail or ear biopsies by *Pts*-ki or
189 *Pts*-ko genotyping PCR (for genotyping, see Supplementary Fig. S1C and S1D plus supplementary
190 information).

191

192 Mouse husbandry

193 Animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the guidelines and policies of the State
194 Veterinary Office of Zurich and Swiss law on animal protection, the Swiss Federal Act on Animal
195 Protection (1978), and the Swiss Animal Protection Ordinance (1981). Animal studies presented here
196 received approval from by the Cantonal Veterinary Office, Zurich, and the Cantonal Committee for
197 Animal Experiments, Zurich, Switzerland. All mice, including the wild-type controls, are based on
198 C57BL/6-background. The high fat diet was from Research Diets D12331 (with 58% kcal% fat

199 w/sucrose Surwit Diet) for up to 10 weeks of feeding mice *ad libitum*. At the GMC mice were
200 maintained in IVC cages with water and standard mouse chow (Altromin 1314, Altromin, Lage,
201 Germany) according to the GMC housing conditions and German laws. All tests performed at the
202 GMC were approved by the responsible authority of the district government of Upper Bavaria,
203 Germany.

204

205 More materials and methods are described in the Supporting Materials and Methods.

206

207 **RESULTS**

208

209 **Generation of a *Pts* knock-in mouse (*Pts*-ki)**

210 To generate a viable mouse model for BH₄ deficiency, we chose to knock-in a single point mutation in
211 the murine *Pts* gene, c.43C>T leading to mPTPS-p.Arg15Cys. This mutation corresponds to the
212 human mutation *PTS*-c.46C>T/hPTPS-p.Arg16Cys which was found in a patient with a mild phenotype
213 with lowered BH₄ biosynthesis in the periphery but normal BH₄ and neurotransmitter levels in the CNS
214 (Supplementary Fig. S1A)(Thöny et al 1994; Oppliger et al 1995). Expression studies of recombinant
215 hPTPS-p.Arg16Cys and mPTPS-p.Arg15Cys in COS-1 cells revealed enzyme activity of 12% and
216 15%, respectively, compared to wild-type PTPS (not shown). Details for the targeting vector construct
217 and strategy for knocking-in the mPTPS-p.Arg15Cys allele (*Pts*-ki), including mouse genotyping, are
218 described in Materials and Methods and are illustrated in Supplementary Figures S1B - S1D.

219

220 **Homozygous *Pts*-ki/ki or compound heterozygous *Pts*-ki/ko mice exhibit lowered PTPS activity,**
221 **elevated neopterin and lowered BH₄ in liver and brain, but normal plasma L-Phe levels**

222 Upon breeding *Pts*-ki mice to homozygosity, we found the expected Mendelian ratio for a recessive
223 allele with ~25% *Pts*-ki/ki mice, and no behavioral or visible abnormalities compared to wild-type
224 littermates. In the following, we bred all possible viable *Pts* genotypes, excluding homozygous knock-
225 outs which are perinatal lethal, and analyzed in 10-12 weeks old adults for PTPS expression, pterin
226 content in liver and brain, L-Phe in blood, and monoamine neurotransmitter metabolites in the brain.

227 First we quantified *Pts* gene expression in liver and brain by RT-PCR and western analyses (Table 1).

228 For the *Pts*-mRNA, we found no difference in *Pts*-ki/wt and *Pts*-ki/ki compared to homozygous wild-
229 type controls, and an expected ~50% reduction in mice with one *Pts*-ko null allele. For the PTPS
230 protein, we found a roughly 50% reduction in the liver of mice with one *Pts*-ko null allele compared to
231 wild-type and *Pts*-ki/wt mice. An exception was the somewhat unprecedented elevation of PTPS
232 expression in *Pts*-ki/ki mice, which might be due to a compensatory action due to low PTPS activity.

233 The PTPS protein in (whole) brain extracts could not be quantified, as expression levels were below
234 detection limit for our anti PTPS-antibody.

235 Next, we investigated PTPS enzyme activity in different tissues from mice carrying various *Pts* alleles.

236 As depicted in Fig. 1A, PTPS activity was only slightly but not significantly reduced in liver and brain of
237 *Pts*-ki/wt, and in brain of *Pts*-ko/wt compared to wild-type mice, while *Pts*-ki/ki, *Pts*-ko/wt and *Pts*-ki/ko

238 mice showed a strong reduction of activity in brain and liver. Taken together, progressive reduction of
239 PTPS activity in mice with different *Pts* alleles was as follows: ko/wt > ki/ki > ki/ko > ko/ko (for *Pts*-
240 ko/ko see (Elzaouk et al 2003)).

241 Systemic accumulation of neopterin, the oxidized and dephosphorylated substrate of the PTPS
242 enzyme, is one of the diagnostic hallmarks of PTPS deficiency (Werner et al 2011). In accordance
243 with the observation of lowered PTPS activity, we found slightly elevated neopterin in *Pts*-ki/ki mice at
244 least in liver (but not in brain), but significantly elevated neopterin in liver and brain of the more
245 severely affected *Pts*-ki/ko mice (Fig. 1B). Furthermore, mice mutants with severely reduced PTPS
246 activity had a two to maximally three-fold reduction of total biopterin while the ratio of BH₄ versus 7,8-
247 BH₂ remained without any significant changes (Fig. 1C-D). We also analyzed the biopterin content in
248 mammary glands of females because it was reported that this tissue had probably the highest
249 biosynthesis activity and thus concentration of biopterin, and a potential reduction of biopterin in milk
250 might have an effect on the development of offsprings (Leeming et al 1976; Matsubara and Gaull
251 1985). Yet, there was no difference in mouse mother milk between *Pts*-wt/wt, *Pts*-ki/wt, *Pts*-ko/wt and
252 *Pts*-ki/ki (Fig. 1E). In all mice, blood L-phenylalanine was unaffected as we found no indication for
253 (systemic) elevation of L-Phe or L-Tyr analyzed in peripheral blood (Fig. 1F). Plasma L-Phe remained
254 also unchanged when *Pts*-ki/ki mice were exposed to high levels of L-Phe (300 mg/l) for 5 days in the
255 drinking water (not shown).

256

257 **Brain monoamine neurotransmitter levels and TH expression are not altered in *Pts* mice with** 258 **lowered PTPS activity**

259 Since compound heterozygous *Pts*-ki/ko and homozygous *Pts*-ki/ki mice were compromised in their
260 brain PTPS activity with elevated neopterin and reduction of total biopterin (Figs. 1A-D), we analyzed
261 the brain monoamine neurotransmitter metabolites dopamine, norepinephrine, epinephrine and
262 serotonin. As depicted in Fig. 1G, these compounds did not differ in the different *Pts* backgrounds.
263 Next, tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) was analyzed in the brain of these mice because TH expression
264 and/or stability were reported to be reduced under conditions of BH₄ and/or PAH deficiency (Sumi-
265 Ichinose et al 2001; Joseph and Dyer 2003; Embury et al 2007). However, we found no difference in
266 TH expression in adult brains between *Pts*-ki/ko mice compared to their *Pts*-wt/wt, *Pts*-ki/wt and *Pts*-
267 ko/wt controls (Supplementary Fig. S2).

268 In summary, we did not observe any abnormality in homozygous *Pts*-ki/ki or compound heterozygous
269 *Pts*-ki/ko mice regarding brain TH expression and monoamine neurotransmitter biosynthesis, despite
270 the reduction of BH₄ biosynthesis.

271

272 **Heterozygous *Pts* mutant mice exhibit abnormal body weight and intra-abdominal fat content**

273 Since heterozygous *Pts*-ko/wt mutant synthesized potentially less BH₄ as we found a ~50% reduction
274 at least after birth but normal levels at later ages (Elzaouk et al 2003; Thöny et al 2004), we initially
275 hypothesized that these animals might be prone to cofactor limitation under for instance acute
276 hyperglycemia. Yet, in standard oral glucose tolerance tests we could not see any difference in
277 glucose clearance between groups of wild-type and *Pts*-ko/wt mice (not shown). At the same time, we
278 found that *Pts*-ko/wt mice tend to have a slightly higher relative increase in body weight and in intra-
279 abdominal fat than their wild-type litter mates. This phenomenon seemed to be more pronounced in
280 male mice than in females, and we therefore limited the following analyses to male mutants. By
281 serendipity, we further observed in the same male mice during autopsies an increase in intra-
282 abdominal fat content. A representative quantification of such an early observation is summarized in
283 Table 2: upon feeding limited number of male mice (n = 4) over a period of several weeks with high fat
284 diet (58 kcal% fat with sucrose compared to normal diet with 11 kcal% fat with corn starch), we saw a
285 two-fold increase in intra-abdominal adipose tissue compartments in *Pts*-ko/wt mice compared to an
286 only 1.6-fold increase in wild-type control mice. For these first observations, we decided to dissect and
287 weigh the sum of epididymal (or perigonadal) fat tissues, termed 'intra-abdominal fat', as a marker for
288 fat increase. An *in vivo* determination of whole-body fat in mice using time-domain magnetic
289 resonance analysis (TD-NMR) was only performed later to confirm these observations in *Pts*-ki/ki
290 mouse mutants (see below). Next we extended our investigations with male *Pts*-ko/wt male mice by
291 analyzing various metabolic parameters in a larger cohort of mice fed with high fat diet (see
292 Supplementary Table S1). This study corroborated the previously observed increase in intra-
293 abdominal fat in *Pts*-ko/wt mice (p < 0.05), while metabolic, inflammatory and oxidative stress
294 parameters were either unchanged or only slightly and statistically not significantly increased in *Pts*-
295 ko/wt mice compared to wild-type controls. As shown in Supplementary Table S1, these parameters
296 included triglycerides in liver and plasma, plasma cholesterol and HDL, blood glucose, and
297 adiponectin and *Il6* gene expression in fat tissue.

298 The observation of body weight increase in mildly compromised *Pts* (male) mutants, i.e. *Pts*-ko/wt
299 compared to wild-type, was also seen in a parallel study including *Pts*-ki/ki males (see Table 3). Here
300 we found differences in body weight (but not in plasma glucose) when mice were kept over several
301 weeks under standard chow or under high fat diet. From these results we concluded that a somewhat
302 lowered PTPS activity that is connected to detectable reductions of BH₄ is a potential risk factor for
303 weight increase with a tendency for abdominal obesity at least in male mice. For further analysis, we
304 undertook in a next step a comprehensive and standardized analysis towards a potential metabolic
305 phenotype with our homozygous *Pts*-ki/ki mutant mice.

306

307 **Comprehensive phenotyping of *Pts*-ki/ki mice revealed higher fat content and lower lean mass,**
308 **and an increase in fasting plasma glucose, plasma cholesterol and triglycerides**

309 *Pts*-ki/ki mice were systematically characterized in the standardized “primary screen” of the German
310 Mouse Clinic (Gailus-Durner et al 2005; Gailus-Durner et al 2009). 78 mice (40 mutants and 38 wild-
311 type littermates, age of 12-13 weeks) were analyzed in the screens dysmorphology, behavior,
312 neurology, eye, nociception, energy metabolism, clinical chemistry, immunology, allergy steroid
313 metabolism, cardiovascular function, lung function, and pathology. In addition, liver and brain tissue
314 samples were used for microarray based analysis of differential gene expression. *Pts*-ki/ki mice
315 showed phenotypic alterations indicating a mild metabolic phenotype. Despite no difference in body
316 mass in 13 weeks old mutants compared to wild-type controls, fat mass was increased especially in
317 male mutants whereas lean mass was reduced (Figs. 2A-C and Table 4). The monitoring of daily
318 energy expenditure and substrate utilization by indirect calorimetry in male control and mutant mice
319 revealed no differences between genotypes (see Supplementary Table S2). Clinical chemistry
320 analyses of plasma samples revealed for both sexes a mild increase of fasting glucose levels in *Pts*-
321 ki/ki mice and significantly higher cholesterol and triglyceride concentrations in plasma of *ad libitum*
322 fed mutant mice as compared to corresponding controls. Additionally, alkaline phosphatase activity in
323 plasma of mutant mice was slightly increased compared to controls, pointing towards a potential liver
324 dysfunction (Supplementary Table S3). The remaining parameters analyzed did not show significant
325 genotype-related differences.

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329 Liver and brain transcriptome profiles of *Pts*-ki/ki mice

330 To potentially identify differential gene regulation in *Pts*-ki/ki mice with reduced PTPS enzyme activity
331 and elevated neopterin in brain and liver, transcriptome profiles of these organs were performed (see
332 Supplementary Tables S4 for liver and S5 for brain). Slightly increased expression levels of *Pts* were
333 detected in both organs comparing *Pts*-ki/ki with *Pts*-wild-type mice (fold change: brain 1.45 ± 0.48 ;
334 liver 1.66 ± 0.33) which is similar to what we found by RT-qPCR (see Table 1) and which might be a
335 compensatory effect due to reduced PTPS enzyme activity. Statistical analysis revealed 36
336 significantly regulated genes in brain and 347 in liver of *Pts*-ki/ki mice (see Suppl. Table S4 and S5).
337 An overlap of 22 differentially down-regulated genes was found between the analyzed organs: *Alg*,
338 *Atm*, *Cd14*, *Cd207*, *Ch25h*, *Hp*, *Hspb1*, *Lcn2*, *Lrg1*, *Mkks*, *Ms4a6d*, *Miacr1*, *Osmr*, *Retnlg*, *S100a8*,
339 *S100a9*, *Serpina3f*, *Serpina3g*, *Socs3*, *Srpr*, *Tmem25*, and *Zfp235*. Several of these common genes
340 were associated with cytokine activity (*Mkks*, *Osmr*, *Serpina3f*, *Serpina3g*, and *Socs3*), immune
341 processes (*Atm*, *Cd14*, *Cd207*, *Lrg2*, *S100a8* and *Tmem25*) and metabolism (*Ch25h*, *Lcn2*, *Osmr*,
342 *S100a8* and *Socs3*).

343 Further overlap was detected among the over-represented functional annotations of the regulated
344 genes: proliferation and differentiation of cells, cell death, leukocyte migration and vascular disease
345 (Supplementary Table S6) which might be an indication for inflammatory processes. Exclusively,
346 genes annotated with glucose (e.g. *Cxcl14*, *Dusp1*, *Fabp5*, *Myd88*, *Nnmt*, *Nos3*, *Pilrb*, *Ptpn1*, *Retnlb*,
347 *Serpina3*, *Stat3*, *Timp1*, *Tlr2*, *Vcam1*, *Xbp1*) and lipid metabolism (e.g. *Abcb1b*, *Adora1*, *Adrb2*,
348 *Apoa4*, *Atf3*, *Cebpb*, *Fabp5*, *Fas*, *Lbp*, *Lcn2*, *Lgals3*, *Ptpn1*, *Saa1*, *Stat3*, *Xbp1*), protein synthesis (e.g.
349 *Arntl*, *Bag3*, *Casp4*, *Gdf9*, *Hdc*, *Hmox1*, *Lgmn*, *Mkks*, *Mt1e*, *Mt1h*, *Myd88*, *Rcan1*, *S100a9*, *Sgms1*,
350 *Slc39a14*, *Thbd*, *Tlr2*), obesity (e.g. *Adora1*, *Adrb2*, *Atf3*, *Cebpb*, *Fabp5*, *Gas6*, *Hhex*, *Icam1*, *Lbp*,
351 *Mfsd2a*, *Mkks*, *Mt1e*, *Mt1h*, *Ppargc1b*, *Socs3*, *Stat3*), weight loss (e.g. *Adh7*, *Apcs*, *Arntl*, *Atf3*, *Bag3*,
352 *Cdkn1a*, *Ikbke*, *Mt1e*, *Mt1h*, *Nfkb2*, *Tlr2*, *Tpmt*), hepatic steatosis (e.g. *Adora1*, *Atf4*, *Cyp4a11*, *Fabp5*,
353 *Igfbp1*, *Il18*, *Il1b*, *Lbp*, *Mfsd2a*, *Retnlb*, *Ripk2*, *Stat3*, *Steap4*, *Tlr2*) and insulin sensitivity (e.g. *Arntl*,
354 *Cebpb*, *Ptpn1*, *Socs3*, *Spp1*, *Stat3*, *Tgm2*, *Tlr2*, *Xbp1*) were over-represented in liver. These gene
355 ontology (GO) terms might be of particular interest with regard to changes in fat content and elevated
356 blood glucose and cholesterol levels in *Pts*-ki/ki mice. It has to be emphasized that we found reduced
357 gene expression levels for *Nos3* only in hepatic transcriptome profiling analysis which would give
358 evidence towards a mildly compromised eNOS/NOS3 function, whereas a “validation” by RT-qPCR
359 did not necessarily confirm this in the various *Pts*-mice tested (see Supplementary Table S7).

360 Furthermore, we did not find any measurable difference in NOS activity in liver of fat tissues between
361 mice with the various genotypes (not shown). Nevertheless, a potential association between the
362 reduced BH₄-biosynthetic activity, abnormal body fat distribution and abdominal obesity, and the
363 reduced gene expression levels of *eNos/Nos3* found in liver will be discussed below.

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368 **Discussion**

369

370 The here presented *Pts*-ki mouse was initially thought to represent a hypomorphic model that mimics
371 human BH₄ deficiency due to severely reduced PTPS activity which, if untreated, may be lethal in
372 patients but *not* at birth as it is observed in *Pts*-ko/ko mice. We found that a reduction of up to 90% of
373 PTPS activity and lowered biopterin biosynthesis (in *Pts*-ki/ko mice) does *not* lead to systemic
374 hyperphenylalaninemia concomitant with brain monoamine neurotransmitter abnormality.
375 Unexpectedly, such mice turned out to exhibit compromised or limited cofactor availability without
376 classical signs of BH₄ deficiency but rather with abnormal body fat distribution and abdominal obesity.
377 An indirect measure of BH₄ limitation due to low PTPS activity is the elevated neopterin that is clearly
378 detectable in liver and less striking in brain in at least *Pts*-ki/ko mice. As described in the introduction,
379 it was found that conditions of increased BH₄ may protect from cardiovascular diseases, endothelial
380 dysfunction and potentially also from progression to T2DM through endothelial BH₄ for eNOS (for
381 references see Introduction). Yet, whereas the role of increased BH₄ in abdominal obesity or the
382 metabolic syndrome has been investigated, the opposite condition i.e. *decreased* BH₄ – but not
383 classical BH₄ deficiency – in these processes has not been studied to our knowledge under *in vivo*
384 conditions. By serendipity, we found in our first mouse model with potentially limited BH₄, i.e. in the
385 heterozygous *Pts*-ko/wt mice, abnormal fat distribution which was later confirmed also in homozygous
386 *Pts*-ki/ki mice.

387

388 A follow-up study by a comprehensive and standard systemic and phenotype analysis of *Pts*-ki/ki mice
389 revealed slight alterations in energy metabolism with proportionally higher fat content and lower lean
390 mass, and mildly increased fasting blood glucose as well as cholesterol and triglyceride levels in these
391 mutant animals. Transcriptome analysis of liver indicated changes in glucose and lipid metabolism,
392 including genes such as *Adora1*, *Adrb2*, *Apoa*, *Atf3*, *Atf4*, *Cebpb*, *Cxcl14*, *Dusp1*, *F13a1*, *Fabp5*,
393 *Map3k14*, *Nos3*, *Ppargc1a*, *Rgs16*, *Socs3*, *Stat3*, *Steap4* and *Zc3h12a*. Furthermore, several of the
394 differentially regulated genes in liver are associated with obesity, weight loss, hepatic steatosis and
395 insulin sensitivity, which are consistent with the phenotypic alterations found in *Pts*-ki/ki mice. Genes
396 such as *Adrb2*, *Apoa4*, *Adora*, *Atm* and *Ripk2* play roles in lipid accumulation in liver and
397 hepatosteatosis. Deficiency of *Ripk2*, also down-regulated in our study, exacerbates hepatosteatosis
398 (Wang et al 2013). However, *Adrb2* and *Atm*, recently linked with activation of fatty liver-induced

399 steatoapoptosis and fibrosis (Daugherty et al 2012; Ghosh et al 2012), were down-regulated in liver of
400 *Pts*-ki/ki mice. Additionally, over-expression of *Apoa4* and *Adora*, both genes associated with
401 reduction of lipid accumulation (VerHague et al 2013; Yang et al 2013), give evidence for protection of
402 liver dysfunction. Several genes associated with insulin sensitivity showed decreased expression in
403 *Pts*-ki/ki mutants. While *Atf3* has antidiabetic effects (Park et al 2010), *Tgm2* null mice were glucose
404 intolerant (Burke et al 2012) and *Fabp5* was described to modulate systemic glucose metabolism and
405 insulin sensitivity (Babaev et al 2011). Changes in fat content correlated also to the down-regulation of
406 genes annotated with obesity, e.g. the adipocyte specific transcription factor *Cebpb* (Wang et al 2013),
407 *Dusp1*, expressed in visceral adipose tissue of several obese man (Guenard et al 2013) and *Nik*, a
408 gene that protect against hyperglycemia and glucose intolerance in obese mice (Sheng et al 2012).

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410 A potential direct link between reduced BH₄ biosynthetic activity to abnormal body fat distribution and
411 abdominal obesity can potentially be through a mildly compromised eNOS/NOS3 function as
412 suggested at least by the hepatic transcriptome profiling analysis with reduced expression of
413 *eNos/Nos3* in liver. It was reported that increased NO signaling inhibits insulin-induced glycogen
414 synthesis in hepatocytes (Tsuchiya and Accili 2013), therefore reduced NO signaling might increase
415 hepatic gluconeogenesis and fasting glucose levels. Furthermore, expression and stability of eNOS-
416 mRNA are influenced by many epigenetic and external factors that could also account for differences
417 seen in the degree of reduction in gene expression (Tai et al 2004). Since we have not found yet a
418 molecular mechanism, including no changes in NOS activity at least in liver and fat tissues, we can
419 only speculate about an influence of potential BH₄-cofactor limitation in e.g. endothelial tissues that is
420 propagated in the organism through a (mildly) compromised eNOS/NOS3. For instance, we observed
421 that BH₄/BH₂ ratios were generally higher in brain (between 2.35. to 7.02 in Fig. 1D) compared to liver
422 (between 0.08 to 2.55 in Fig. 1C). This might explain a peripheral or “metabolic” rather than a central
423 brain phenotype (with normal neurotransmitter homeostasis) due to the relative higher content of BH₂
424 which might act as a competitive antagonist for NO production in the liver. An alternative link between
425 the mildly reduced biopterin biosynthesis and the observed obesity could be accumulation of the by-
426 product neopterin which was detectable at least in liver tissue from *Pts*-ki/ko and *Pts*-ki/ki mice while
427 *Pts*-ko/wt mice had only an insignificant neopterin increase after birth (Elzaouk et al 2003). Neopterin
428 was proposed to reflect oxidative stress induced by immune system activation in general, and was
429 found to be elevated in patients with inflammation and atherosclerosis (De Rosa et al 2011). Recently,

430 neopterin was also shown to negative affect expression of various transporters involved in cellular
431 cholesterol efflux and foam cell formation and thus to have an aggravating effect on atherosclerosis
432 (Yan et al 2013). Clearly, more studies are required to confirm a connection to eNOS/NOS3 and/or
433 neopterin. Nevertheless, our study associates a single gene mutation with monogenic forms of
434 obesity, a well known phenomenon related to the so-called leptin-melanocortin pathway, that regulates
435 energy balance and food intake, and, if compromised, may lead to obesity (for a review see (Farooqi
436 and O'Rahilly 2005)). Association of recessive mutations in the pterin-carbinolamine dehydratase
437 (PCD), required for biopterin recycling (Werner et al 2011), leading to a monogenetic MODY-form of
438 diabetes was recently found for the PCD-encoding gene *PCBD1*, as the PCD protein has a second
439 "moonlight" function as DCoH1, i.e. dimerization-cofactor of the liver-specific transcription factor HNF-
440 1a (Simaite et al 2014).

441 In conclusion, a reduction in BH₄-biosynthetic activity caused by a single heterozygous gene mutation
442 leads in mice to abnormal body fat distribution and abdominal obesity. Whether such an effect is also
443 visible in humans that are carriers of a mutation in the *PTS* gene (or in other BH₄-cofactor
444 metabolizing genes) needs to be verified by future studies.

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449 **Acknowledgements** We thank the Division of Clinical Chemistry and Biochemistry of the University
450 Children's Hospital for determination of L-Phe from dried blood spots and routine clinical chemistry
451 parameters, the animal facilities of the university hospital for cooperativity, and F. H. Sennhauser for
452 continuous support. We thank Ann-Elisabeth Schwarz, Anke Bettenbrock and Elfi Holupirek for expert
453 technical assistance. We are grateful for financial support by the ZNZ PhD program of the University
454 of Zurich (BT), the Swiss National Science Foundation (NB & BT), the Hartmann Müller Stiftung (BT)
455 and Stiftung für wissenschaftliche Forschung University of Zürich (Baumgarten Stiftung; BT) and the
456 Novartis "Stiftung für medizinisch-biologische Forschung" (BT). GMC researchers were funded by the
457 German Federal Ministry of Education and Research Infrafrontier grant (01KX1012) and by the
458 German Diabetes Research Center (DZD e.V.), and JB by the Helmholtz Alliance ICEMED.

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461 **Supplementary information is available at Journals website.**

462

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464

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578

579 **Figure Legends**

580

581 **Figure 1. Biochemical analysis of blood, milk, liver and brain tissues from (male and female)**
582 **mice carrying the various *Pts* alleles *Pts-wt/wt*, *Pts-ki/wt*, *Pts-ki/ki*, *Pts-ko/wt* and *Pts-ki/ko*. (A)**
583 **PTPS enzyme activity (μ U/mg protein) in liver and brain, (B) neopterin (pmol/mg protein) in liver and**
584 **brain, (C-D) BH₄, 7,8-BH₂ and total biopterin (pmol/mg protein) in liver and brain, (E) biopterin and**
585 **neopterin in mother milk (nmol/l), (F) blood amino acids L-Phe and L-Tyr concentrations (μ mol/l), and**
586 **(G) brain monoamine neurotransmitter metabolites dopamine, norepinephrine, epinephrine and**
587 **serotonin (pmol/mg protein). Five mice, 10-12 weeks old, were used for all measurements, with the**
588 **exception of 3 mice per group in (E). Genotypes are indicated by bar color (except for (E)): *Pts-wt/wt***
589 **(white), *Pts-ki/wt* (left striped), *Pts-ko/wt* (right striped) *Pts-ki/ki* (gray), and *Pts-ki/ko* (black). Significant**
590 **difference from the corresponding wild-type value is indicated by asterisks: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***,**
591 **0.001 (Student's two tailed *t*-test). The age of the animals was between 3-6 months (young adults).**

592

593

594 **Figure 2. Body composition analysis by non-invasive NMR. (A) Body mass (in g). (B) Non-**
595 **invasive NMR scans to determine the lean mass (in g), and (C) fat mass (in g). Open circles, *Pts-wt/wt***
596 **females (n = 9); grey circles, *Pts-ki/ki* females (n = 10); open squares, *Pts-wt/wt* males (n = 10); grey**
597 **squares, *Pts-ki/ki* males (n = 10). The age of the animals was between 12-13 weeks (young adults),**
598 **and all mice were analyzed at the same day. Significant difference from the corresponding wild-type**
599 **value is indicated by asterisks: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, 0.001 (Student's two tailed *t*-test).**

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603 **Supplementary Figure Legends**

604

605 **Supplementary Figure S1.** Generation of the murine *Pts*-ki allele. **(A)** Primary amino acid sequence
606 alignment of human and mouse PTPS, which share 82.1% sequence identity. The human mutation
607 *PTS*-p.Arg16Cys (hR16C) and the corresponding mouse mutation *Pts*-p.Arg15Cys (mR15C), both
608 located in exon 1, are marked with arrows. **(B)** Schematic representation of genomic structure of the
609 murine *Pts* wild-type allele (top), the targeting vector pMSY211 including the mR15C mutation (E1'),
610 the p.L16L mutation to destroy the *Bss*SI restriction site, a *Pgk*-DT-gene-cassette (DT) for negative
611 selection, and a "floxed" *Pgk*-neo-gene-cassette (PGK neo) for positive selection (middle), and the
612 resulting targeted mutant allele (bottom). **(C)** Schematic representation of the genotyping concepts for
613 the *Pts*-wt, *Pts*-ki and *Pts*-ko alleles with genomic DNA and the primer pairs a/b (*Pts*-ki PCR) and c/d/e
614 (*Pts*-ko PCR). *Pts*-ki PCR: primers a and b are located upstream and downstream from exon 1 (E1),
615 respectively. They generate a 730 bp for the wild-type/knock-out alleles and a 751 bp PCR fragment
616 for the knock-in allele (due to additional targeting vector sequence; see **C**). Digestion with restriction
617 enzyme *Bss*SI, 3 bp downstream of the mR15C-c.43C>T mutation, leads to a 444 bp and a 286 bp
618 fragment for the wild-type/knock-out PCR products. The PCR fragment derived from the *Pts*-ki allele
619 can not be digested with *Bss*SI because the silent p.L16L/c.48C>G mutation destroys the *Bss*S1-
620 recognition site. The *Pts*-wt and the *Pts*-ko alleles can not be distinguished by the *Pts*-ki genotyping
621 using primer pair a/b. *Pts*-ko PCR: genotyping according to our previously published method (Elzaouk
622 et al 2003). Primer c is upstream of exon 2 (E2), primer d is specific for exon 2 and primer e is specific
623 for the *lacZ* gene. The primer pair c/d results in a wild-type fragment of 287 bp and a knock-in
624 fragment of 316 bp whereas primer pair c/e generates mutant fragment of 355 bp (due to the
625 difference in the *Pts*-intron 1 sequence between the 129/Ola and C57BL/6J mice strains; see **C**). **(D)**
626 Conventional 2% agarose gel representative PCR-genotyping for the *Pts*-ki allele (top; after *Bss*SI
627 digestion) and *Pts*-ko allele (bottom).

628

629

630 **Supplementary Figure S2. TH protein expression in brain of *Pts*-ki/ko mice.** Western blot analysis
631 and densitometric quantification of TH in brains from **(A)** newborn mice (n = 3 *Pts*-wt/wt, 5 *Pts*-ko/wt,
632 24 *Pts*-ki/wt, and 19 *Pts*-ki/ko) and **(B)** young adult animals (n = 3 *Pts*-wt/wt, 7 *Pts*-ko/wt, 12 *Pts*-ki/wt,
633 and 13 *Pts*-ki/ko); always males and females. For details see also Materials and Methods.