

Molybdenum cofactor deficiency

Jochen Reiss, Rita Hahnewald

To cite this version:

Jochen Reiss, Rita Hahnewald. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Human Mutation, 2010, 32 (1), pp.10. 10.1002/humu.21390. hal-00602303

HAL Id: hal-00602303 <https://hal.science/hal-00602303v1>

Submitted on 22 Jun 2011

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Human Mutation

Molybdenum cofactor deficiency

 $\mathbf{1}$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{4}$ $\overline{7}$

Humu-2010-0323

Mutation Update

Supporting Information for this preprint is available from the

Human Mutation editorial office upon request (humu@wiley.com)

Example 18 Exercise Set Altantions in GPHN, MOC
 Example 18 Exhibition Altantion Set Altantists Set April: $\frac{1}{2}$ **, D-37073 Göt Molybdenum cofactor deficiency: Mutations in** *GPHN, MOCS1* **and** *MOCS2*

Jochen Reiss* and Rita Hahnewald

Institut für Humangenetik, Universitätsmedizin Göttingen, Germany

*Correspondence to: Jochen Reiss, Institut für Humangenetik der Universitätsmedizin Göttingen,

Heinrich-Düker-Weg 12, D-37073 Göttingen, Germany. E-Mail: jreiss@gwdg.de

ABSTRACT

gate the activities of all molybdoenzymes and result
hey, which is clinically very similar to isolated sulfit
the gene for the corresponding apoenzyme. Both de
nal-recessive disease and result in progressive neuro
in most All molybdenum-containing enzymes other than the bacterial nitrogenase share an identical molybdenum cofactor (MoCo), which is synthesized via a conserved pathway in all organisms and therefore also is called "universal molybdenum cofactor". In humans, four molybdoenzymes are known: aldehyde oxidase, mitochondrial amidoxime reducing component (mARC), xanthine oxidoreductase and sulfite oxidase. Mutations in the genes encoding the biosynthetic MoCo pathway enzymes abrogate the activities of all molybdoenzymes and result in the "combined" form of MoCo deficiency, which is clinically very similar to isolated sulfite oxidase deficiency, caused by mutations in the gene for the corresponding apoenzyme. Both deficiencies are inherited as an autosomal-recessive disease and result in progressive neurological damage and early childhood death in most cases. The majority of mutations leading to MoCo deficiency have been identified in the genes *MOCS1* (type A deficiency), *MOCS2* (type B deficiency), with one reported in *GPHN.*. For type A deficiency an effective substitution therapy has been described recently.

KEYWORDS: molybdenum cofactor, MoCo, *MOCS1, MOCS2, MOCS3*, *GEPH*

Historical Background

For Coractor of <u>n</u>itrate reductase and <u>x</u>anthine denyaro

eading to the cofactor and shared among all free-livi

in the bacterium *Escherichia coli*, where its absence

obic conditions (Rajagopalan and Johnson, 1992). Th The existence of a molybdenum-containing cofactor had been first postulated in 1964 (Pateman, et al., 1964) after the discovery of a series of pleiotropic mutations in the fungus *Aspergillus nidulans*, all of them affecting the enzymes nitrate reductase and xanthine dehydrogenase (hence the gene symbol *cnx* for cofactor of nitrate reductase and xanthine dehydrogenase, Table 1). The biosynthetic pathway leading to the cofactor and shared among all free-living organisms (Fig. 1) was elucidated mainly in the bacterium *Escherichia coli*, where its absence leads to chlorate resistance under anaerobic conditions (Rajagopalan and Johnson, 1992). This resulted in the gene symbol *chl*, which later in an attempt to unify the different nomenclature (Shanmugam, et al., 1992) was changed to *moa* through *mog* (see also Table 1).

The first case of a MoCo deficiency (MIM# 252150) has been described no earlier than in 1978 (Duran, et al., 1978) and the precise nature of the disease was only recognized in 1980 (Johnson, et al., 1980). The observation of two complementation groups among fibroblasts from different MoCo-deficient patients (Johnson, et al., 1989) was the basis to the understanding of the molecular basis of the human disease, which finally resulted in the identification of the gene *MOCS1* (Reiss, et al., 1998a; Reiss, et al., 1998b) mutated in the type A deficiency (MIM# 603707), and the gene *MOCS2* (Stallmeyer, et al., 1999a) and its mutations (Reiss, et al., 1999b) resulting in MoCo deficiency type B (MIM# 603708). Subsequently a mutation in the *GEPH* gene, resulting in the only described case of a type C deficiency (MIM# 603930), was reported (Reiss, et al., 2001).

readed in animal models (Novotny and Turntund,

For Periodical and intervelse and intervelse and intervelse and

For Periodical animal models (Rajagopalan, 1988). Active

For Peer Reviewal and Turntum of a Crohn's disease Anecdotic reports on molybdenum toxicity in humans might originate from the well-documented adverse effects of elevated molybdenum levels on ruminants.This effect, however, is strictly limited to the special conditions in the rumen (Clarke and Laurie, 1980). In fact, the human body can adapt to a wide range of molybdenum uptake (Novotny and Turnlund, 2007). Due to the ubiquitous presence of molybdenum in organic food a dietary-induced deficiency of molybdenum cannot be induced in animal models (Rajagopalan, 1988). Accordingly, only one case of molybdenum deficiency has so far been described worldwide , which has been observed after prolonged total parenteral nutrition of a Crohn's disease patient under omission of molybdenum supplementation (Abumrad, 1984). The possibility of a beneficial effect of drastically elevated levels of molybdenum on type C MoCo deficiency patients will be discussed below.

In contrast to molybdenum or molybdate, respectively, MoCo or its precursors cannot be recycled from nutritional sources. The simultaneous absence of endogenous rescue pathways requires all MoCo molecules to be synthesized *de novo*. All proteins involved in MoCo biosynthesis are encoded by autosomal genes and heterozygous mutations do not result in a noticeable phenotype. Homozygosity for non-functional mutant forms of any of the involved proteins, however, abolishes MoCo biosynthesis completely and thereby the activity of the MoCo-dependent enzymes sulfite oxidase, xanthine oxidoreductase, mARC (Havemeyer, et al., 2006) and aldehyde oxidase.

 $\mathbf{1}$ $\overline{2}$

Phenotype and diagnosis

Internal of the result of an isolated xanthine oxidoreduc

For P is the result of an isolated xanthine oxidoreduc

For P is caused by a defe

HMCS (Fig. 1) prior to incorporation into xanthine

Ida, et al., 2001). In sympt Four MoCo-dependent enzymes are known in humans: aldehyde oxidase, mARC, xanthine oxidoreductase and sulfite oxidase. No isolated form of aldehyde oxidase or mARC deficiency are known, which might originate from overlapping substrate specificities of the enzymes. Classical xanthinuria type I is the result of an isolated xanthine oxidoreductase deficiency (Ichida, et al., 1997), while classical xanthinuria type II is caused by a defect in the molybdenum cofactor sulfuration by HMCS (Fig. 1) prior to incorporation into xanthine oxidoreductase and aldehyde oxidase (Ichida, et al., 2001). In symptomatic patients xanthine stones due to elevated levels of xanthine are the most prominent effects, although they are not life-threatening. Isolated sulfite oxidase deficiency (MIM# 606887) is also an autosomal-recessive genetic disease even rarer than the "combined" MoCo deficiency. 21 cases worldwide have been summarized previously (Tan, et al., 2005).

Isolated sulfite oxidase deficiency and the combined deficiency of all MoCo-dependent enzymes due to MoCo deficiency are clinically indistinguishable and can be differentiated only by biochemical parameters like elevated xanthine and lowered uric acid as a result of the simultaneous loss of xanthine oxidoreductase deficiency in the combined form. They should be considered in the differential diagnosis of hypoxic-ischemic encephalopathy (Topcu, et al., 2001) and neonatal hyperekplexia (Macaya, et al., 2005). Both forms can simultaneously be detected by the use of commercial strip tests originally developed to measure sulfite concentrations in

wine and other beverages. False-negative results, however, are frequent, when the test is used shortly after birth (when the sulfite has not accumulated sufficiently for a positive test (Carragher, et al., 1999)) or when urine samples are not tested immediately and the sulfite is oxidized non-enzymatically. Sulfur-containing drugs can cause false-positive results. Metabolic changes are summarized in Fig. 2.

lead to progressive neurological damage (Sass, et al.
bution of other metabolites such as taurine, S-sulfoc
ion is not yet fully understood (Abbas, et al., 2008).
feeding difficulties remind of amino acid intolerance
riod Elevated sulfite levels lead to progressive neurological damage (Sass, et al., 2003; Zhang, et al., 2004), while the contribution of other metabolites such as taurine, S-sulfocystein and thiosulfate to the disease progression is not yet fully understood (Abbas, et al., 2008). Usually seizures start shortly after birth and feeding difficulties remind of amino acid intolerance. Those patients who survive the neonatal period in most cases show severe mental retardation as well as dislocated lenses and usually do not learn to sit or speak. The first 15 patients have been summarized elsewhere (Johnson and Wadman, 1989). Further reports followed (Appignani, et al., 1996; Arnold, et al., 1993; Coskun, et al., 1998; Hahnewald, et al., 2006; Ichida, et al., 2006; Ichida, et al., 2001; Kavukcu, et al., 2000; Leimkuhler, et al., 2005; Macaya, et al., 2005; Parini, et al., 1997; Per, et al., 2007; Pintos-Morell, et al., 1995; Salman, et al., 2002; Salvan, et al., 1999; Sass, et al., 2010; Schuierer, et al., 1995; Serrano, et al., 2007; Slot, et al., 1993; Teksam, et al., 2005; van Gennip, et al., 1994).

In general, the disease is not apparent at birth. Within the first week, feeding difficulties are observed accompanied by tonic/clonic seizures refractory to anticonvulsants with a prominent opisthotonus and an exaggerated startle reaction. A cerebral atrophy results in microgyria,

bilateral ventricular enlargement and is probably also responsible for facial dysmorphic features. A few patients with relatively mild symptoms have been described with presumedly at least one mutation allowing for significant residual enzyme activity. Although uric acid levels here occasionally were found to be normal (Arenas, et al., 2009; Johnson, et al., 2001), the biochemical parameters apparently do not correlate with the severity of the disease (Hughes, et al., 1998; Mize, et al., 1995; Ngu, et al., 2009).

hat the observed brain anomalies could at least in parather than sulfite toxicity (Rajagopalan and Johnson

stigation (Salman, et al., 2002) and studies in anima

this hypothesis. The disease has been found in a vari

alth It had been suggested that the observed brain anomalies could at least in part be also attributable to a sulfate deficiency rather than sulfite toxicity (Rajagopalan and Johnson, 1992), but neuropathological investigation (Salman, et al., 2002) and studies in animal models (Reiss, et al., 2005) did not support this hypothesis. The disease has been found in a variety of ethnic groups and all over the world, although it might be under-recognised in many countries. *De novo* mutations so far have not been described, but recently the first case of an uniparental disomy responsible for MoCo deficiency has been reported (Gumus, et al., 2010). Obligate heterozygotes display no symptoms. Prenatal diagnosis by enzyme activity assays has been described using amniotic cells and chorionic villi (Johnson, 2003; Johnson, et al., 1991), but nowadays can be substituted by DNA analysis (Reiss, et al., 1999a; Shalata, et al., 2000).

The *MOCS* **genes and alternative splicing**

The first cDNAs derived from *MOCS1* (Reiss, et al., 1998b) carried two open reading frames (ORFs) each coding for a protein homologous to different proteins known to be involved in MoCo synthesis in bacteria (Supp. Fig S3; Rajagopalan and Johnson, 1992) **[TO COPYEDITOR: QUERY AUTHOR ON PLACEMENT OF CITE FOR SUPP. FIG. S3]**. Later, an alternative splicing pattern was described leading to different monocistronic domain-

ncodes the protein MOCS1A with 385 amino acids I
g the glycine-glycine C-terminus conserved across a
Fig. S1A) and shown to be functionally important (I
8a). Splice forms 2 and 3 omit the stop codon by ski
(Fig. 3A), thus specific transcripts (Gray and Nicholls, 2000). A full length transcript contains a stop codon in exon 9 (Fig. 3A) and encodes the protein MOCS1A with 385 amino acids homologous to MoaA in E. coli, both carrying the glycine-glycine C-terminus conserved across all examined species except Archea (Supp. Fig. S1A) and shown to be functionally important (Hanzelmann, et al., 2002; Reiss, et al., 1998a). Splice forms 2 and 3 omit the stop codon by skipping exon 9 completely or partially (Fig. 3A), thus elongating the ORF into exon 10, which encodes the MOCS1B domain exclusively expressed as a MOCS1AB fusion protein (Supp. Fig. S1B). The physiological role of the alternative first exons and start codons (Gross-Hardt and Reiss, 2002) as well as other alternative splicing patterns (Arenas, et al., 2009) so far is unknown (Fig. 3B). A processed pseudogene (*MOCS1P1*) is located on chromosome 16 (NCBI NG_001271).

The *MOCS2* gene encodes the small and large subunit of molybdopterin synthase in two overlapping ORFs, i.e. the start codon of the second frame lies within the first frame (Fig. 4 and Supp. Fig. S4) **[TO COPYEDITOR: QUERY AUTHOR ON PLACEMENT OF CITE FOR SUPP. FIG. S4]**. Both ORFs are shifted relative to each other and thus do not share identical codons. Since the genomic structure of the gene was not completely characterized in the original report (Stallmeyer, et al., 1999a), a leaky scanning mechanism was suggested to allow expression of the second ORF. Within the human genome project an alternative first exon (exon

 $\mathbf{1}$

1b) was identified, which is located between exon 1(a), carrying the start codon of the first ORF, and the original exon 2. The use of the corresponding transcription start leads to a mature transcript rendering the start codon of the second ORF the first translation initiation site on the mRNA (Hahnewald, et al., 2006) thus allowing translation of MOCS2B according to a regular scanning mechanism (Kozak, 1978). MOCS2A, encoded by the first ORF, again carries a conserved glycine-glycine C-terminus (Supp. Fig. S2), whose free accessibility appears to be essential for catalytic function as in the case of MOCS1A (Unkles, et al., 1999).

protein believed to catalyze both the adenyl transport

Forminus of the small subunit of molybdopterin speculity

For PMP (Fig. 1). The sum of introns. A pseudogene (*MOCS3P1*) is 1

1002557). No disease-causing mutation h The gene *MOCS3* encodes a protein believed to catalyze both the adenyl transfer and subsequent thiocarboxylation at the C-terminus of the small subunit of molybdopterin synthase (Matthies, et al., 2004), thus providing the sulfur to be incorporated into cPMP (Fig. 1). This gene is located on chromosome 20 and contains no introns. A pseudogene (*MOCS3P1*) is located on chromosome 14 (NCBI NG_002557). No disease-causing mutation has so far been described in *MOCS3*.

The *GEPH* **gene**

The protein Gephyrin was originally identified by copurification with the mammalian inhibitory glycine receptor and named "bridging protein" due to its proposed function as a receptormicrotubule linker in subsynaptic receptor-clustering (Kirsch, et al., 1993; Prior, et al., 1992). Its

 $\mathbf{1}$

homology to MoCo biosynthesis genes was described in comparison to corresponding sequences from bacteria, fruitflies and plants (Kamdar, et al., 1994; Stallmeyer, et al., 1995). Later, a dual function in receptor clustering and MoCo biosynthesis was confirmed by the investigation of a murine *Geph* knockout model (Feng, et al., 1998), reconstitution assays (Stallmeyer, et al., 1999b) and by the detection of a disease-causing *GEPH* mutation in a deceased MoCo-deficient patient (Reiss, et al., 2001). The Gephyrin protein has two distinct domains, whose function is depicted in Table 1 and Fig. 1.

Mutations in MoCo deficiency

Fig. 1.
 For Peer Review Allen CEPH mutation in a single pation

the above described *GEPH* mutation in a single pation

mutations in MoCo deficiency have been described

000; Reiss and Johnson, 2003). Table 2 gives an With the exception of the above described *GEPH* mutation in a single patient (Reiss, et al., 2001), disease-causing mutations in MoCo deficiency have been described in *MOCS1* and *MOCS2* only (Reiss, 2000; Reiss and Johnson, 2003). Table 2 gives an update of the hitherto identified pathological mutations. The detection rate in biochemically confirmed cases (i.e. elevated sulfite and lowered uric acid levels) is > 99 %. Due to multiple start codons in different exons plus additional alternative splicing events, the nomenclature of mutations in the *MOCS* genes is not trivial. The first mutation reports preceded elucidation of the correct expression mechanisms.

 $\mathbf{1}$

Human Mutation

First described should be used to keep changes in no
 FOCSI, the "Larin" exon 1a upstream of the first described and the "Reiss" trailer (encoded by

downstream amino acid numbering (Fig. 3B). For the

should be the ba As we know now, the MOCS1B domain is not expressed as a distinct protein but rather as a fusion protein "MOCS1AB" (Fig. 3A) rendering some previously used numbers of corresponding mutation designations on the protein level not conform to nomenclature guidelines. This should be changed as listed in Table 2. For both *MOCS1* and *MOCS2*, we suggest to use the start codon of the first open reading frame for cDNA numbering throughout the complete gene on the basis of a full length transcript (Supp. Figures S1 and S2). In case of multiple first exons the first described should be used to keep changes in nomenclature to a minimum. In case of *MOCS1*, the "Larin" exon 1a upstream of the first described start codon (in exon 1b) should be addressed explicitly (Table 2), while an identical length of 41 amino acids for the "Larin" trailer (encoded by exon 1a) and the "Reiss" trailer (encoded by exons 1b and 1c) does not interfere with downstream amino acid numbering (Fig. 3B). For the MOCS1AB fusion protein, splice form II should be the basis, i.e. the longer form in comparison to the splice form III protein (Fig. 3).

In case of the *MOCS2* gene the nucleotide numbering upstream of the start codon will depend on the specification of the affected protein, i.e. into exon 1a in case of MOCS2A and into exon 1b in case of MOCS2B (Fig. 4). It is noteworthy that compound heterozygous patients carrying one mutation in the A domain and one in the B domain have not been observed in type A (*MOCS1*) neither in type B (*MOCS2*), indicating intragenic complementation via the different above described transcripts. An exception is the frameshift mutation c.1000insT located in the MOCS1A ORF (Table 2) and found together with c.1826T>C affecting the MOCS1B domain, which could be explained by a polar effect of the insertion (Fig. 3A). Within Europe a founder effect for most of the repeatedly identified mutations is still visible (Supp. Figure S5).

 $\mathbf{1}$

Animal models and experimental therapies

Experience to neurological deficits caused by the loss of synap

second function of Gephyrin besides MoCo biosynt

the *Mocs*1 -/- mice die approximately 1 week after the

trapeutical studies since they truly reflect the b Knockout mice have been described for *Geph* (Feng, et al., 1998) and *Mocs*1 (Lee, et al., 2002). Homozygous *Geph* -/- mice die within 1 day after birth, but the comparison with *Mocs* 1 -/- mice suggests that this is due to neurological deficits caused by the loss of synaptic clustering of glycine receptors – the second function of Gephyrin besides MoCo biosynthesis. "Pure" MoCodeficient mice such as the *Mocs*1 -/- mice die approximately 1 week after birth and are an excellent model for therapeutical studies since they truly reflect the biochemical characteristics of the human disease. The absence of neuropathological findings in the MoCo-deficient mice might be explainable by (i) an improved maternal clearance due to reduced spatial conditions for biochemical gradients and/or (ii) the drastically accelerated progression of the sulfite poisoning (Reiss, et al., 2005). In this animal model, a substitution therapy with cPMP (Fig. 1) had already been described some years ago (Schwarz, et al., 2004).

Using the same animal model, a gene therapy option with AAV vectors has been demonstrated (Hahnewald, et al., 2009; Kugler, et al., 2007). Although the MoCo deficiency phenotype could be completely reverted by just a single injection of AAV capsids carrying a *MOCS1* expression cassette, these long term experiments revealed an increased risk for malignancies after recombinant AAV injections. Similar observations have been described by others albeit with different interpretations. While the first corresponding report could not offer an explanation at all

(Donsante, et al., 2001), specific transgenes such as the *lacZ* reporter have been held responsible for tumorigenesis (Bell, et al., 2006).

For Period Our data do not support a transgene hypothesis since we introduced the same expression cassette that was used for AAV studies also into the germline of MoCo wild-type and deficient mice via microinjection of fertilized oozytes and observed a tumor frequency of only 9 % over 2 years in 46 animals. In contrast, over 20 % of 44 AAV-treated animals, injected either neonatally or 40 days after birth, developed tumors in different organs. After intrahepatic injections predominantly hepatocellular carcinomas were seen, while intravenous applications resulted in a variety of tumors (data not shown).

Clinical studies

Early attempts to ameliorate the symptoms of MoCo deficiency included repeatedly the administration of high levels of inorganic molybdenum, which was found to be inefficient (Bamforth, et al., 1990; Endres, et al., 1988; Johnson, et al., 1980). It has been demonstrated in cell cultures, that this approach is sensible for type III patients with *GEPH* mutations (Reiss, et

al., 2001). The above cited molybdate treatment of patients, however, preceded gene and mutation identification, which revealed that *GEPH* mutations as the cause of MoCo deficiency are extremely rare. Most likely, patients with other mutations have been treated with molybdate in the published studies. The only patient with *GEPH* mutations described so far deceased before molecular analysis. It should be kept in mind, however, that this type of MoCo deficiency indeed might be curable with high molybdate concentrations. A diet low in sulfur amino acids has in some cases resulted in a significant reduction of abnormal sulfur metabolites although no neurological improvement could be observed (Johnson, et al., 1980).

a significant reduction of abnormal sulfur metabolite

hent could be observed (Johnson, et al., 1980).
 For Peer Review COMPACE 12
 For Peer Section 2
 For Peer Section 2
 For Peer Section 2
 For Peer Section 2
 For decades it had been speculated that at least a part of the MoCo-deficient patients might profit from substitution with precursor Z (now called cPMP, Fig. 1). This pursuit culminated in the decision of an Australian court to allow experimental treatment of "baby Z" (as it was called in the popular press) with a cPMP preparation tested before exclusively in mice (Veldman, et al., 2010). Before, animal studies had ruled out convincingly any adverse effects (Schwarz, et al., 2004). The affected baby was homozygous for the MOCS1B mutation G588R (Table 2) and thereby classified as type A defective in cPMP synthesis (Fig. 2). Cranial ultrasound examinations at 1 month showed cerebral atrophy and loss of gray/white-matter differentiation, Intravenous replacement therapy with cPMP started on day 36 by extrapolating the dose that had been most efficient in the mouse model (Schwarz, et al., 2004). Since the cPMP infusions were well tolerated and triggered no observable adverse effects, they were continued on a daily basis with occasional dosage adjustment. Within a few days normalization of the previously markedly elevated levels of S-sulfocysteine and thiosulfate were achieved. Within 2 days the infant became more alert and at an age of 18 months she is clinically free of seizures. In summary, the

 $\mathbf{1}$

 $\mathbf{1}$

Human Mutation

substitution therapy cannot reverse cerebral injury observed before commencing cPMP supplementation. However, ongoing neurotoxicity and further deterioration definitely can be excluded. Four more type A patients are currently cPMP-treated with similar outcome (Günter Schwarz, personal communication).

Future prospects

The availability of a causative treatment immediately raised the question about screening possibilities for MoCo deficiency. A practicable (and affordable) way to the early identification of curable patients might be the routine determination of the ratio of uric acid and xanthine concentrations, which in case of lowered values and in the absence of other immediate explanations should be followed by a test for elevated sulfite levels. If the latter confirms a lack of active MoCo, the precise type of the deficiency must be determined either biochemically or by genetic testing. Although the ethnic origin of a patient often renders specific mutations to be found more likely than others (Supp. Figure S5), the speed of sequencing complete genes (if not genomes) reached by now suggests a complete analysis of *MOCS1* and *MOCS2* in a first step, which results in a mutation detection rate of more than 99 percent. Only in the case of negative results up to here, sequencing of the genes *GEPH* and *MOCS3* appears to be indicated.

 $\mathbf{1}$

Despite the demonstration of successful treatment possibilities for type A in clinical studies and for type C in cell culture experiments, type B deficiencies so far appear to be incurable. The relative instability of molybdopterin (with or without molybdenum) hampers substitution therapy analogue to cPMP supplementation. Theoretical options still to be explored are enzyme replacement therapy with MOCS2 proteins or functional sulfite oxidase and safe avenues of gene therapy. The latter might include the use of AAV vectors, if parameters such as titer, serotype and route of application are optimized in terms of a minimal malignancy risk.

Acknowledgments

For Personal Assume Set Assume that the School Set Assume School Set Assume The Personal School Set Assume that the authority of the manuscript. Research on molybdenum cofactor deficiency and its treatment in the authors' laboratory was supported by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG Re768/5, 12, 13). We thank two excellent referees for their help to further improve the manuscript.

 $\mathbf{1}$

Human Mutation

$\overline{2}$

References

Abbas AK, Xia W, Tranberg M, Wigstrom H, Weber SG, Sandberg M. 2008. S-sulfo-cysteine is an endogenous amino acid in neonatal rat brain but an unlikely mediator of cysteine neurotoxicity. Neurochem Res 33(2):301-7.

Abumrad NN. 1984. Molybdenum--is it an essential trace metal? Bull N Y Acad Med 60(2):163-71.

- Appignani BA, Kaye EM, Wolpert SM. 1996. CT and MR appearance of the brain in two children with molybdenum cofactor deficiency. AJNR Am J Neuroradiol 17(2):317-20.
- Arenas M, Fairbanks LD, Vijayakumar K, Carr L, Escuredo E, Marinaki AM. 2009. An unusual genetic variant in the MOCS1 gene leads to complete missplicing of an alternatively spliced exon in a patient with molybdenum cofactor deficiency. J Inherit Metab Dis 32(4):560-9.
- Arnold GL, Greene CL, Stout JP, Goodman SI. 1993. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency. J Pediatr 123(4):595-8.
- Bamforth FJ, Johnson JL, Davidson AG, Wong LT, Lockitch G, Applegarth DA. 1990. Biochemical investigation of a child with molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Clin Biochem 23(6):537-42.
- factor deficiency. AJNR Am J Neuroradiol 17(2):317-20.
Vijayakumar K, Carr L, Escuredo E, Marinaki AM. 2009. A
OCS1 gene leads to complete missplicing of an alternativ
lybdenum cofactor deficiency. J Inherit Metab Dis 32(4 Bell P, Moscioni AD, McCarter RJ, Wu D, Gao G, Hoang A, Sanmiguel JC, Sun X, Wivel NA, Raper SE and others. 2006. Analysis of tumors arising in male B6C3F1 mice with and without AAV vector delivery to liver. Mol Ther 14(1):34-44.
- Carragher FM, Kirk JM, Steer C, Allen J, Dorche C. 1999. False negative thiosulphate screening test in a case of molybdenum cofactor deficiency. J Inherit Metab Dis 22(7):842-3.
- Clarke NJ, Laurie SH. 1980. The copper-molybdenum antagonism in ruminants. I. The formation of thiomolybdates in animal rumen. J Inorg Biochem 12(1):37-43.
- Coskun T, Yetuk M, Yurdakok M, Tekinalp G. 1998. Blood uric acid as a pointer to the diagnosis of molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Acta Paediatr 87(6):714-5.
- Donsante A, Vogler C, Muzyczka N, Crawford JM, Barker J, Flotte T, Campbell-Thompson M, Daly T, Sands MS. 2001. Observed incidence of tumorigenesis in long-term rodent studies of rAAV vectors. Gene Ther 8(17):1343-6.
- Duran M, Beemer FA, van de Heiden C, Korteland J, de Bree PK, Brink M, Wadman SK, Lombeck I. 1978. Combined deficiency of xanthine oxidase and sulphite oxidase: a defect of molybdenum metabolism or transport? J Inherit Metab Dis 1(4):175-8.
- Endres W, Shin YS, Gunther R, Ibel H, Duran M, Wadman SK. 1988. Report on a new patient with combined deficiencies of sulphite oxidase and xanthine dehydrogenase due to molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Eur J Pediatr 148(3):246-9.
- Feng G, Tintrup H, Kirsch J, Nichol MC, Kuhse J, Betz H, Sanes JR. 1998. Dual requirement for gephyrin in glycine receptor clustering and molybdoenzyme activity. Science 282(5392):1321-4.
- Gray TA, Nicholls RD. 2000. Diverse splicing mechanisms fuse the evolutionarily conserved bicistronic MOCS1A and MOCS1B open reading frames. RNA 6(7):928-36.
- Gross-Hardt S, Reiss J. 2002. The bicistronic MOCS1 gene has alternative start codons on two mutually exclusive exons. Mol Genet Metab 76(4):340-3.
- her R, Ibel H, Duran M, Wadman SK. 1988. Report on a n
encies of sulphite oxidase and xanthine dehydrogenase on
ty. Eur J Pediatr 148(3):246-9.
I, Nichol MC, Kuhse J, Betz H, Sanes JR. 1998. Dual requ
clustering and molybd Gumus H, Ghesquiere S, Per H, Kondolot M, Ichida K, Poyrazoglu G, Kumandas S, Engelen J, Dundar M, Caglayan AO. 2010. Maternal uniparental isodisomy is responsible for serious molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Dev Med Child Neurol 52(9):868-72.
- Hahnewald R, Leimkuhler S, Vilaseca A, Acquaviva-Bourdain C, Lenz U, Reiss J. 2006. A novel MOCS2 mutation reveals coordinated expression of the small and large subunit of molybdopterin synthase. Mol Genet Metab 89(3):210-3.
- Hahnewald R, Wegner W, Reiss J. 2009. AAV-mediated gene therapy for metabolic diseases: dosage and reapplication studies in the molybdenum cofactor deficiency model. Genet Vaccines Ther 7:9.

 $\mathbf 1$ $\overline{2}$

Human Mutation

- Hanzelmann P, Hernandez HL, Menzel C, Garcia-Serres R, Huynh BH, Johnson MK, Mendel RR, Schindelin H. 2004. Characterization of MOCS1A, an oxygen-sensitive iron-sulfur protein involved in human molybdenum cofactor biosynthesis. J Biol Chem 279(33):34721-32.
	- Hanzelmann P, Schwarz G, Mendel RR. 2002. Functionality of alternative splice forms of the first enzymes involved in human molybdenum cofactor biosynthesis. J Biol Chem 277(21):18303-12.
- Havemeyer A, Bittner F, Wollers S, Mendel R, Kunze T, Clement B. 2006. Identification of the missing component in the mitochondrial benzamidoxime prodrug-converting system as a novel molybdenum enzyme. J Biol Chem 281(46):34796-802.
- Hughes EF, Fairbanks L, Simmonds HA, Robinson RO. 1998. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency-phenotypic variability in a family with a late-onset variant. Dev Med Child Neurol 40(1):57-61.
- Ichida K, Amaya Y, Kamatani N, Nishino T, Hosoya T, Sakai O. 1997. Identification of two mutations in human xanthine dehydrogenase gene responsible for classical type I xanthinuria. J Clin Invest 99(10):2391-7.
- re mitochondrial benzamidoxime prodrug-converting system and the 281(46):34796-802.

For Peer Peer 281(46):34796-802.

For Peer Reviewald Meurol 40

For Peer Reviewald Meurol 40

(atani N, Nishino T, Hosoya T, Sakai O. 199 Ichida K, Aydin HI, Hosoyamada M, Kalkanoglu HS, Dursun A, Ohno I, Coskun T, Tokatli A, Shibasaki T, Hosoya T. 2006. A Turkish case with molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Nucleosides Nucleotides Nucleic Acids 25(9-11):1087-91.
- Ichida K, Matsumura T, Sakuma R, Hosoya T, Nishino T. 2001. Mutation of human molybdenum cofactor sulfurase gene is responsible for classical xanthinuria type II. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 282(5):1194-200.
- Johnson JL. 2003. Prenatal diagnosis of molybdenum cofactor deficiency and isolated sulfite oxidase deficiency. Prenat Diagn 23(1):6-8.
- Johnson JL, Coyne KE, Rajagopalan KV, Van Hove JL, Mackay M, Pitt J, Boneh A. 2001. Molybdopterin synthase mutations in a mild case of molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Am J Med Genet 104(2):169-73.
- Johnson JL, Rajagopalan KV, Lanman JT, Schutgens RB, van Gennip AH, Sorensen P, Applegarth DA. 1991. Prenatal diagnosis of molybdenum cofactor deficiency by assay of sulphite oxidase activity in chorionic villus samples. J Inherit Metab Dis 14(6):932-7.
- Johnson JL, Wadman SK. 1989. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency. In: Scriver CR, Beaudet AL, Sly WS,

Valle D, editors. The metabolic basis of inherited disease. New York: McGraw-Hill. p 1463-1475.

- Johnson JL, Waud WR, Rajagopalan KV, Duran M, Beemer FA, Wadman SK. 1980. Inborn errors of molybdenum metabolism: combined deficiencies of sulfite oxidase and xanthine dehydrogenase in a patient lacking the molybdenum cofactor. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 77(6):3715-9.
- etabolism: combined deficiencies of sulfite oxidase and x
ng the molybdenum cofactor. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 7
1M, Mandell R, Shih VE. 1989. Molybdenum cofactor bio
two complementation groups of cofactor-deficient patie
 Johnson JL, Wuebbens MM, Mandell R, Shih VE. 1989. Molybdenum cofactor biosynthesis in humans. Identification of two complementation groups of cofactor-deficient patients and preliminary characterization of a diffusible molybdopterin precursor. J Clin Invest 83(3):897-903.
- Kamdar KP, Shelton ME, Finnerty V. 1994. The Drosophila molybdenum cofactor gene cinnamon is homologous to three Escherichia coli cofactor proteins and to the rat protein gephyrin. Genetics 137(3):791-801.
- Kavukcu S, Soylu A, Sahin B, Turkmen M, Aydin A, Dirik E. 2000. Clinical quiz. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Pediatr Nephrol 14(12):1145-7.
- Kirsch J, Wolters I, Triller A, Betz H. 1993. Gephyrin antisense oligonucleotides prevent glycine receptor clustering in spinal neurons. Nature 366(6457):745-8.
- Kozak M. 1978. How do eucaryotic ribosomes select initiation regions in messenger RNA? Cell 15(4):1109-23.
- Kugler S, Hahnewald R, Garrido M, Reiss J. 2007. Long-term rescue of a lethal inherited disease by adeno-associated virus-mediated gene transfer in a mouse model of molybdenum-cofactor deficiency. Am J Hum Genet 80(2):291-7.

 $\mathbf{1}$

Human Mutation

- Kuper J, Llamas A, Hecht HJ, Mendel RR, Schwarz G. 2004. Structure of the molybdopterin-bound Cnx1G domain links molybdenum and copper metabolism. Nature 430(7001):803-6.
	- Lee HJ, Adham IM, Schwarz G, Kneussel M, Sass JO, Engel W, Reiss J. 2002. Molybdenum cofactordeficient mice resemble the phenotype of human patients. Hum Mol Genet 11(26):3309-17.
	- Leimkuhler S, Charcosset M, Latour P, Dorche C, Kleppe S, Scaglia F, Szymczak I, Schupp P, Hahnewald R, Reiss J. 2005. Ten novel mutations in the molybdenum cofactor genes MOCS1 and MOCS2 and in vitro characterization of a MOCS2 mutation that abolishes the binding ability of molybdopterin synthase. Hum Genet 117(6):565-70.
	- rization of a MOCS2 mutation that abolishes the binding

	ynthase. Hum Genet 117(6):565-70.

	uup G, Mendel RR, Schwarz G. 2006. The Mechanism of r

	sertion into molybdopterin. A novel route toward metal

	8343-50.

	nandez-Ca Llamas A, Otte T, Multhaup G, Mendel RR, Schwarz G. 2006. The Mechanism of nucleotide-assisted molybdenum insertion into molybdopterin. A novel route toward metal cofactor assembly. J Biol Chem 281(27):18343-50.
	- Macaya A, Brunso L, Fernandez-Castillo N, Arranz JA, Ginjaar HB, Cuenca-Leon E, Corominas R, Roig M, Cormand B. 2005. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency presenting as neonatal hyperekplexia: a clinical, biochemical and genetic study. Neuropediatrics 36(6):389-94.
	- Matthies A, Rajagopalan KV, Mendel RR, Leimkuhler S. 2004. Evidence for the physiological role of a rhodanese-like protein for the biosynthesis of the molybdenum cofactor in humans. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101(16):5946-51.
	- Mize C, Johnson JL, Rajagopalan KV. 1995. Defective molybdopterin biosynthesis: clinical heterogeneity associated with molybdenum cofactor deficiency. J Inherit Metab Dis 18(3):283-90.
	- Ngu LH, Afroze B, Chen BC, Affandi O, Zabedah MY. 2009. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency in a Malaysian child. Singapore Med J 50(10):e365-7.

Novotny JA, Turnlund JR. 2007. Molybdenum intake influences molybdenum kinetics in men. J Nutr 137(1):37-42.

Parini R, Briscioli V, Caruso U, Dorche C, Fortuna R, Minniti G, Selicorni A, Vismara E, Mancini G. 1997. Spherophakia associated with molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Am J Med Genet 73(3):272-5.

Pateman JA, Cove DJ, Rever BM, Roberts DB. 1964. A Common Co-Factor for Nitrate Reductase and Xanthine Dehydrogenase Which Also Regulates the Synthesis of Nitrate Reductase. Nature 201:58-60.

- Per H, Gumus H, Ichida K, Caglayan O, Kumandas S. 2007. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency: clinical features in a Turkish patient. Brain Dev 29(6):365-8.
- Pintos-Morell G, Naranjo MA, Artigas M, Roge M, Rodes M, Coll MJ, Johnson JL, Rajagopalan KV. 1995. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency associated with Dandy-Walker malformation. J Inherit Metab Dis 18(1):86-7.
- kish patient. Brain Dev 29(6):365-8.

MA, Artigas M, Roge M, Rodes M, Coll MJ, Johnson JL, I

factor deficiency associated with Dandy-Walker malforn

hingloh G, Pribilla I, Multhaup G, Beyreuther K, Maulet Y,

rsr. 1992. P Prior P, Schmitt B, Grenningloh G, Pribilla I, Multhaup G, Beyreuther K, Maulet Y, Werner P, Langosch D, Kirsch J and others. 1992. Primary structure and alternative splice variants of gephyrin, a putative glycine receptor-tubulin linker protein. Neuron 8(6):1161-70.

Rajagopalan KV. 1988. Molybdenum: an essential trace element in human nutrition. Annu Rev Nutr 8:401-27.

Rajagopalan KV, Johnson JL. 1992. The pterin molybdenum cofactors. J Biol Chem 267(15):10199-202.

Reiss J. 2000. Genetics of molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Hum Genet 106(2):157-63.

Reiss J, Bonin M, Schwegler H, Sass JO, Garattini E, Wagner S, Lee HJ, Engel W, Riess O, Schwarz G. 2005. The pathogenesis of molybdenum cofactor deficiency, its delay by maternal clearance, and its expression pattern in microarray analysis. Mol Genet Metab 85(1):12-20.

Reiss J, Christensen E, Dorche C. 1999a. Molybdenum cofactor deficiency: first prenatal genetic analysis. Prenat Diagn 19(4):386-8.

 $\mathbf 1$ $\overline{2}$

Human Mutation

Reiss J, Christensen E, Kurlemann G, Zabot MT, Dorche C. 1998a. Genomic structure and mutational spectrum of the bicistronic MOCS1 gene defective in molybdenum cofactor deficiency type A. Hum Genet 103(6):639-44.

- Reiss J, Cohen N, Dorche C, Mandel H, Mendel RR, Stallmeyer B, Zabot MT, Dierks T. 1998b. Mutations in a polycistronic nuclear gene associated with molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Nat Genet 20(1):51-3.
- Reiss J, Dorche C, Stallmeyer B, Mendel RR, Cohen N, Zabot MT. 1999b. Human molybdopterin synthase gene: genomic structure and mutations in molybdenum cofactor deficiency type B. Am J Hum Genet 64(3):706-11.
- eyer B, Mendel RR, Cohen N, Zabot MT. 1999b. Human r

fructure and mutations in molybdenum cofactor deficien

-11.

Fristensen E, Schmidt P, Mendel RR, Schwarz G. 2001. A

iitter receptor-clustering protein gephyrin causes Reiss J, Gross-Hardt S, Christensen E, Schmidt P, Mendel RR, Schwarz G. 2001. A mutation in the gene for the neurotransmitter receptor-clustering protein gephyrin causes a novel form of molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Am J Hum Genet 68(1):208-13.
- Reiss J, Johnson JL. 2003. Mutations in the molybdenum cofactor biosynthetic genes MOCS1, MOCS2, and GEPH. Hum Mutat 21(6):569-76.

Salman MS, Ackerley C, Senger C, Becker L. 2002. New insights into the neuropathogenesis of molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Can J Neurol Sci 29(1):91-6.

- Salvan AM, Chabrol B, Lamoureux S, Confort-Gouny S, Cozzone PJ, Vion-Dury J. 1999. In vivo brain proton MR spectroscopy in a case of molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Pediatr Radiol 29(11):846-8.
- Sass JO, Gunduz A, Araujo Rodrigues Funayama C, Korkmaz B, Dantas Pinto KG, Tuysuz B, Yanasse Dos Santos L, Taskiran E, de Fatima Turcato M, Lam CW and others. 2010. Functional deficiencies of sulfite oxidase: Differential diagnoses in neonates presenting with intractable seizures and cystic encephalomalacia. Brain Dev 32(7):544-9.
- Sass JO, Kishikawa M, Puttinger R, Reiss J, Erwa W, Shimizu A, Sperl W. 2003. Hypohomocysteinaemia and highly increased proportion of S-sulfonated plasma transthyretin in molybdenum cofactor deficiency. J Inherit Metab Dis 26(1):80-2.
- Schuierer G, Kurlemann G, Bick U, Stephani U. 1995. Molybdenum-cofactor deficiency: CT and MR findings. Neuropediatrics 26(1):51-4.
- Schwarz G, Santamaria-Araujo JA, Wolf S, Lee HJ, Adham IM, Grone HJ, Schwegler H, Sass JO, Otte T, Hanzelmann P and others. 2004. Rescue of lethal molybdenum cofactor deficiency by a biosynthetic precursor from Escherichia coli. Hum Mol Genet 13(12):1249-55.
- Serrano M, Lizarraga I, Reiss J, Dias AP, Perez-Duenas B, Vilaseca MA, Artuch R, Campistol J, Garcia-Cazorla A. 2007. Cranial ultrasound and chronological changes in molybdenum cofactor deficiency. Pediatr Radiol 37(10):1043-6.
- Shalata A, Mandel H, Dorche C, Zabot MT, Shalev S, Hugeirat Y, Arieh D, Ronit Z, Reiss J, Anbinder Y and others. 2000. Prenatal diagnosis and carrier detection for molybdenum cofactor deficiency type A in northern Israel using polymorphic DNA markers. Prenat Diagn 20(1):7-11.
- md others. 2004. Rescue of lethal molybdenum cofactor
cursor from Escherichia coli. Hum Mol Genet 13(12):124
eiss J, Dias AP, Perez-Duenas B, Vilaseca MA, Artuch R, C
Cranial ultrasound and chronological changes in molybd
 Shanmugam KT, Stewart V, Gunsalus RP, Boxer DH, Cole JA, Chippaux M, DeMoss JA, Giordano G, Lin EC, Rajagopalan KV. 1992. Proposed nomenclature for the genes involved in molybdenum metabolism in Escherichia coli and Salmonella typhimurium. Mol Microbiol 6(22):3452-4.
- Slot HM, Overweg-Plandsoen WC, Bakker HD, Abeling NG, Tamminga P, Barth PG, Van Gennip AH. 1993. Molybdenum-cofactor deficiency: an easily missed cause of neonatal convulsions. Neuropediatrics 24(3):139-42.
- Stallmeyer B, Drugeon G, Reiss J, Haenni AL, Mendel RR. 1999a. Human molybdopterin synthase gene: identification of a bicistronic transcript with overlapping reading frames. Am J Hum Genet 64(3):698-705.

 $\mathbf 1$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{\mathbf{4}}$ $\overline{7}$ $\bf 8$

Human Mutation

Veldman A, Santamaria-Araujo JA, Sollazzo S, Pitt J, Gianello R, Yaplito-Lee J, Wong F, Ramsden CA, Reiss J, Cook I and others. 2010. Successful treatment of molybdenum cofactor deficiency type A with

cPMP. Pediatrics 125(5):e1249-54.

Zhang X, Vincent AS, Halliwell B, Wong KP. 2004. A mechanism of sulfite neurotoxicity: direct inhibition of glutamate dehydrogenase. J Biol Chem 279(41):43035-45.

Legends to Figures

Personal Person Figure 1. Biosynthesis of MoCo via an ancient pathway common to all free-living species and types of diseases as a consequence of mutations in the different genes. MOCS1A belongs to the superfamily of S-adenosylmethionine-dependent radical enzymes, members of which catalyze the formation of radicals by a protein-bound [4Fe-4S] cluster (Hanzelmann, et al., 2004). It is speculated that the B domain of the MOCS1AB fusion protein might function as a radical acceptor (Teschner, et al., 2010). The two MOCS2 proteins A and B are subunits of molybdopterin synthase incorporating sulfur groups delivered by the MOCS3 sulfurylase (Matthies, et al., 2004). Finally, molybdenum is attached to these sulfur groups in a two stepreaction catalyzed by the *GEPH*-encoded two domain-protein Gephyrin (Kuper, et al., 2004; Llamas, et al., 2006).

Figure 2. Metabolites influenced by MoCo deficiency.

Figure 3. Alternative splicing of the *MOCS1* transcript. (A) Use of the first stop codon in exon 9 leads to an active MOCS1A protein with the strictly conserved and functionally obligate two glycine residues at the C-terminus in splice form I. Splice forms II and III lead to a fusion protein with an inactive A domain and the functional B domain. (B) The exons 1a and 1b are mutually exclusive. The two different trailers of the most common Larin and Reiss variants have an identical length of 41 amino acids.

Figure 4. Expression of the *MOCS2* gene. Exons 1a and 1b are mutually exclusive and lead to the expression of two distinct proteins via spliceforms I and III, respectively. Spliceform II cannot be found in the databases anymore and probably was an artifact. The open reading frames of the small and large subunit of molybdopterin synthase overlap in exon 3. The essential Gly-Gly C-terminus of MOCS2A is in red color.

FOR THE REVIEW

Table 1. Nomenclature of homologous genes or protein domains, respectively, involved in

MoCo synthesis among different species

 $\overline{1}$

c.1838_1843del 6 insCC Exon 10 p.C 608 fs

Personal communication³

 $\mathbf{1}$ $\overline{2}$ 3 $\overline{4}$ 5

10 11

12

¹Nucleotide numbering reflects cDNA numbering with $+1$ corresponding to the A of the ATG translation initiation codon in the reference sequence GenBank AJ224328.1 for MOCS1 (see also Supp. Fig. S1) and Genbank AF091871.1 for MOCS2 (see also Supp. Fig. S2), according to journal guidelines [\(www.hgvs.org/mutnomen](http://www.hgvs.org/mutnomen)). The initiation codon is codon 1.

 Cecile Acquaviva, Service Maladies Hereditaires du Metabolisme, Centre de Biologie Est – Groupement Hospitalier Est, 59, bd Pinel – 69677 BRON cedex

 $\,8\,$

 $\boldsymbol{9}$

 $\mathbf 1$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{\mathbf{4}}$ $\overline{7}$

241x368mm (600 x 600 DPI)

241x368mm (600 x 600 DPI)

207x81mm (72 x 72 DPI)

 $\mathbf{1}$

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Reiss - variant

Larin - variant

B

158x114mm (600 x 600 DPI)

 $\mathbf{1}$ $\overline{2}$

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

 $\mathbf{1}$

Reiss et al., *Human Mutation*

Supp. Figure S1. Alignment of the proteins MOCS1A (A) and MOCS1AB (B). Conserved amino acid positions are shaded. The essential Cys clusters (Menendez, et al., 1996) are boxed.

Reiss et al., *Human Mutation*

MOCS2B (B). **Supp. Figure S2.** Alignment of the proteins MOCS2A (A) and MOCS2B (B). Conserved amino acid positions are shaded.

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

 $\mathbf{1}$ $\overline{2}$

```
Page 43 of 47
```


Page 44 of 47

Human Mutation

Reiss et al., *Human Mutation*

 $\overline{1}$

Page 45 of 47

 $\mathbf{1}$

Human Mutation

Supp. Figure S3. Sequences of the *MOCS1* cDNA and the proteins MOCS1A and MOCS1AB. Nucleotide numbering refers to the full length transcript including the complete exon 9 (spliceform I). Mutations in exon 1a should be explicitly marked "Larin variant" since they are not included in the reference sequence (GenBank AJ224328.1). Mutations in exon 10 affect the MOCS1AB fusion protein, which should be specified in the nomenclature for the predicted effect.

-
-

Page 46 of 47

 $\mathbf 1$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{\mathbf{4}}$ $\overline{7}$ $\bf 8$

Human Mutation

Supp. Figure S5. Geographical distribution of MOCS1 and MOCS2 mutations found in more than one family within Europe. Each box represents one allele. For each family only one index patient was counted.