Proteomic and Lipidomic Plasma Evaluations Reveal Biomarkers

for Domoic Acid Toxicosis in California Sea Lions

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ABSTRACT

Domoic acid is a neurotoxin secreted by the marine diatom genus, *Pseudo-nitzschia,* during toxic algal bloom events. California sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*) are exposed to domoic acid through ingestion of fish that feed on toxic diatoms, resulting in a domoic acid toxicosis (DAT), which can vary from mild to fatal. Sea lions with mild disease can be treated if toxicosis is detected early after exposure, therefore, rapid diagnosis of DAT is essential but also challenging. In this work, we performed multi-omics analyses, specifically proteomic and lipidomic, on blood samples from 31 California sea lions. Fourteen sea lions were diagnosed with DAT based on clinical signs and postmortem histological examination of brain tissue, and 17 had no evidence of DAT. Proteomic analyses revealed three apolipoproteins with statistically significant lower abundance in the DAT individuals compared to the non-DAT individuals. These proteins are known to transport lipids in the blood. Lipidomic analyses highlighted 29 lipid levels that were statistically different in the DAT versus non-DAT comparison, 28 of which were downregulated while only one was upregulated. Furthermore, of the 28 downregulated lipids, 15 were triglycerides, illustrating their connection with the perturbed apolipoproteins and showing their potential for use in rapid DAT diagnoses.

KEYWORDS

Domoic Acid, Proteomics, Lipidomics, California Sea Lion, Zalophus californianus, Ion Mobility Spectrometry, Multi-omics

SYNOPSIS

42   Multi-omics evaluations reveal blood apolipoproteins and triglycerides are altered in domoic

43   acid toxicosis in California sea lions.

45   **GRAPHIC ABSTRACT**

INTRODUCTION

Domoic acid is a naturally occurring toxin produced by the pennate diatom, *Pseudo-nitzschia*[1],

a harmful algal bloom that is increasing in frequency and extent along the U.S. west coast.[2] In

birds and mammals, domoic acid acts as an excitotoxin, affecting the brain and causing permanent

short-term memory loss, seizures, brain damage, and death in certain situations.[3, 4] Specifically,

exposure to domoic acid results in domoic acid toxicosis (DAT) in California sea lions (*Zalophus*

californianus) and other animals such as seabirds and even humans.[3,5,6] More specifically, sea lions

are exposed to domoic acid through anchovies and sardines in their diet that accumulate the toxin

from eating and swimming in the algae (**Figure 1**).[7] Following exposure, domoic acid binds to

glutamate receptors in the sea lion's brain causing neurological dysfunction including seizures and

Figure 1. California sea lion domoic acid exposure routes. First, *Pseudo-nitzschia* secretes domoic acid during algal blooms. The domoic acid is then accumulated in fish due to their diet of zooplankton that feed on algal cells, or the diatoms themselves. Finally, sea lions are exposed when eating contaminated fish. Depending on the amount of domoic acid present, this exposure can cause toxicosis, which can be fatal.

ataxia.[8] Additionally, the toxin can bind to receptors in the heart, giving rise to cardiomyopathy

and fatality.[3]

DAT has been impacting sea lions for over 25 years, causing them to strand on beaches and

need immediate medical attention.[5,6] In 1998, it was estimated that The Marine Mammal Center

(Sausalito, CA) rescued 400 sea lions, with at least 70 experiencing seizures, head weaving, or

even unresponsiveness (coma) from DAT.[6,7] Between 1998 and 2019, over 11,000 California sea

lions have been admitted to TMMC and evaluated for DAT.[6] Additionally, the annual rate of DAT

in sea lions is expected to continue rising based on the 2.1 % increase per year between 1998 and

2019.[6] More concerningly, the rapid diagnosis of DAT is challenging since domoic acid is rapidly

metabolized and not detected in urine or blood greater than 24 hours post exposure.[6] Current

diagnostic approaches include examining clinical signs such as behavioral changes (seizures,

coma, ataxia), antemortem MRIs, blood eosinophil cell counts, and histological samples of the

brain postmortem.[6] While these methods have been successful, they are not specific, and require

highly trained technicians and anesthesiologists. Furthermore, some can only be performed

postmortem.[6] Despite diagnosis being a challenge, treatment for DAT in sea lions does differ than

other ailments, for example, an individual suffering from DAT may be administered anti-seizure

medications as well as supportive subcutaneous fluids to induce flushing of the toxin out of the

body.[6] Thus, evaluating potential molecular biomarkers that can be found in blood samples taken

while the animal is alive and at early stages of DAT would facilitate effective treatment and reduce

DAT-associated mortality.

Multi-omic analyses are a promising approach for DAT biomarker evaluation, as they reveal

molecular changes, such as protein and lipid changes, specific to DAT over other ailments.[9,10]

Proteomic analyses of California sea lion plasma and cerebral spinal fluid were performed in 2015,

resulting in 20 potential protein biomarkers for DAT with seven proteins upregulated in sea lion

cerebral spinal fluid and apolipoprotein E downregulated in plasma.[11,12] Here we performed

another proteomic assessment of sea lion plasma for 31 California sea lions (14 DAT and 17 non-

DAT) due to the recent release of a new sea lion genome and newer mass spectrometry

instrumentation. Additionally, due to previous detection of alteration of apolipoprotein E,[12] we

added lipidomic analyses to further evaluate molecular alterations in DAT and assess potential

biomarkers for better diagnosis of California sea lions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sea Lion Blood Sample Collection, Preparation, and Inclusion & Exclusion Criteria

The California sea lion plasma was collected between 2007 and 2012, near or at their time of

admission to The Marine Mammal Center (TMMC) in Sausalito, CA, following rescue due to

numerous illnesses[12]. The TMMC Internal Animal Care and Use Committee approved protocols

for this study (number 2007–2), and the research was conducted under the National Fisheries

Service MMPA permit numbers 932-1489-00 and 932-1905-00. Data analysis was approved under

NIST Research Protections Office (RPO) approval MML-AR20-0001. After collection, blood was

placed in Na-citrate tubes, centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 10 min, and the plasma layer was

transferred to a cryovial and stored at -80 °C within 2 h. Thirty-one California sea lion samples

were selected for the proteomic and lipidomic analyses due to their DAT and non-DAT statuses

as defined by Neely et al.[12] Of these, fourteen of the individuals were diagnosed with DAT and

the seventeen remaining had other ailments such as leptospirosis or were suffering from

malnutrition. The hematological and individual characteristics of each animal are provided in

Table S1 and **Table S2**.

Chemicals and Reagents

All chemical reagents unless otherwise stated were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific

(Waltham, MA). For specific catalog numbers for all chemicals, reagents, and equipment, see

Table S3.

Proteomic Sample Preparation

Prior to the study, the 31 sea lion plasma samples were randomized and assigned an

experimental key to avoid bias and minimize batch effects. Each sample was then thawed and

centrifuged at 13 000 x g_n for 8 min at 4 °C. Based on prior work with California sea lion and other

mammalian plasma, a protein concentration of approximately 50 μg/μL was assumed for

estimating the amount of enzyme for digestion. Therefore, 2 μL (approximately 100 μg protein)

of each sample was added to 78 μL of 50 mmol/L ammonium bicarbonate buffer in water in Lo-

Bind microcentrifuge tubes (Eppendorf; Hamburg, Germany); these aliquots from each sample

were briefly mixed by vortexing and immediately used for digestion. Simultaneously, a pool was

generated using 5 μL aliquots from each sample. The pool was digested in parallel to the individual

samples and later used as a technical replicate during the LC-MS/MS analysis (**Figure 2A**).

Proteins were reduced with 9 μL of 90 mmol/L DL-Dithiothreitol (DTT; final concentration of 9

mM) at 60 °C for 30 min, then cooled and alkylated with 9 μL of 200 mmol/L 2-chloroacetamide

(CAA; final concentration of 18 mM) at room temperature in the dark for 30 min. An additional

100 μL of 50 mmol/L ammonium bicarbonate was added prior to enzymatic digestion. First, LysC

(Thermo Scientific; Waltham, MA) was added at a 1:100 mass ratio (LysC:total protein) ratio,

using 2 μL of a 0.5 μg/μL solution, and incubated at 37 °C for 1 h. Next, trypsin (Pierce Trypsin

Protease, Thermo Scientific; Waltham, MA) was added at a 1:20 mass ratio (trypsin:total protein)

using 5 μL of 1 μg/μL solution. Samples were incubated at 37 °C for 4 h, after which the reaction

was halted by adding 5 µL of 4 % formic acid (volume fraction). Peptide samples were purified

for LC-MS/MS using Pierce C18 spin columns (8 mg C18 resin) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Briefly, 0.5 % trifluoroacetic acid (volume fraction) in 5 % acetonitrile (volume

fraction) was used for wash steps, while 60 µL of 70 % acetonitrile (volume fraction) was used for

elution. The samples were reduced to dryness in a vacuum centrifuge at low heat and stored at -20

°C. Samples were then reconstituted with 100 µL of 0.1 % formic acid (volume fraction), vortexed

for 10 min, and the Pierce quantitative fluorometric peptide assay was used to determine sample

peptide concentrations with a BioTek Synergy HT plate reader (Agilent Technologies; Santa Clara,

CA).

Proteomic nanoLC-MS/MS Instrumentation

Figure 2. Proteomic and lipidomic sample workflows. **A)** For the proteomic workflow, a tryptic digest of sea lion was separated with nanoflow liquid chromatography and data acquired with a Fusion Lumos orbitrap mass spectrometer. Data was searched with FragPipe and analyzed in R. **B)** The lipidomic workflow consisted of a modified-Folch lipid extraction of the plasma, followed by LC-IMS-CID-MS analysis. Lipidomic data sets were processed using Skyline software with in-house libraries containing over 1,000 lipids with LC retention time, CCS, and *m/z* values for each. Statistics and data visualization were performed using MetaboAnalyst 6.0 and RStudio. The figure was created with BioRender.

Peptide mixtures in 0.1 % formic acid (volume fraction) were analyzed using an UltiMate 3000

nanoLC coupled to a Fusion Lumos Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific;

Waltham, MA). Peptide mixtures were loaded onto a PepMap 100 C18 trap column (75 µm id x 2

cm length; Thermo Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA) at 3 µL/min for 10 min with 2 % acetonitrile

(volume fraction) and 0.05 % trifluoroacetic acid (volume fraction) followed by separation on an

Acclaim PepMap RSLC 2 µm C18 column (75µm id x 25 cm length; Thermo Fisher Scientific;

Waltham, MA) at 40 °C. A randomized sample order and injection volumes were determined for

1 µg loading (between 2.8 µL and 7.7 µL). Peptides were separated along a 65 min gradient with

mobile phase A (MPA) consisting of 0.1 % formic acid (volume fraction) in water and mobile

phase B (MPB) being 80 % acetonitrile (volume fraction) and 0.08 % formic acid (volume fraction)

in water. A two-step gradient was used, beginning with 5 % to 30 % MPB over 50 min followed

by 10 min ramp to 45 % MPB, and lastly to 95 % MPB over 5 min, and held at 95 % MPB for 5

min, all at a flow rate of 300 nL/min. The Fusion Lumos was operated in positive polarity with 30

% RF lens, data-dependent mode (topN, 3 sec cycle time) with a dynamic exclusion of 60 s (with

10 ppm error). Full scan resolution using the orbitrap was set at 60 000, the mass range was m/z

375 to 1500. The full scan ion target value was 4.0×10^5 allowing a maximum injection time of

50 ms. Monoisotopic peak determination was used, specifying peptides and an intensity threshold

of 2.5×10^4 was used for precursor selection, including charge states 2 to 6. Data-dependent

fragmentation was performed using higher-energy collisional dissociation (HCD) at a normalized

collision energy of 32 with quadrupole isolation at m/z 1.3 width. The fragment scan resolution

using the orbitrap was set at 15 000 for m/z 100 as the first mass, ion target value of 2.0×10^5, and

30 ms maximum injection time. The MS1 data was collected as profile data, while the MS2 data

was collected as centroid data. The function, inject all ions for parallelizable time, was not used in

the analysis. The raw data and tissue specific search results along with all databases used are

available at the ProteomeXchange Consortium[13] via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset

identifiers PXD020366 and 10.6019/PXD020366.[14]

Protein Identification and Label-free Quantification

The data-dependent acquisition data was searched with FragPipe (v20.0), a software package

that includes the MSFragger search algorithm (v3.8),[15] Philosopher protein inference model

(v5.0.0),[16] and an IonQuant label-free quantification algorithm (v1.9.8).[17] The parameter file used

(which can be viewed and loaded into FragPipe) is also available as supplemental **File S1**. The

search parameters were chosen for trypsin and LysC, and it is known that non-specific enzyme

activity occurs in biofluids. Broadly, the parameters included semitryptic cleavage with a strict

trypsin cleavage rule (cut after KR) and allowing for two mis-cleavages. The precursor and

fragment mass tolerances were initially set to 20 ppm for precursor and fragment mass tolerance,

though MSFragger runs a mass calibration and optimization step to set these tolerances

automatically. Oxidized methionine, protein n-term acetylation, and peptide n-term pyroGlu were

allowed as variable modifications and carbamidomethylation of cysteine was a fixed modification.

The LFQ-MBR (label-free quantification match between runs) workflow was used, which is

IonQuant-based MS1 quantification with match between runs. The built-in FragPipe function of

fasta selection was used to select the UniProtKB *Zalophus californianus* (California sea lion; taxon

ID 9704) proteome UP000515165 (47 492 sequences; retrieved 8 August 2023). This proteome is

based on an updated NCBI RefSeq annotation that used the 2020 Vertebrate Genome Project

Genome mZalCal1.pri.v2 assembly, but still used the underlying RNAseq data previously

deposited[18]. Using FragPipe, 118 contaminant sequences (such as human keratin or porcine

trypsin) were added, and finally the fasta was concatenated with reverse entries (95,230 entries

total).

Protein Ortholog Mapping

The UniProtKB *Zalophus californianus* (California sealion; taxon ID 9704) proteome

UP000515165 contained mostly gene symbol IDs, therefore there was not a drastic need to perform

orthology mapping on all 485 initially identified proteins (note some without quantification, see

below). Instead, only 71 of the identified proteins were missing gene symbols and had locus

numbers (ex. LOC118356106 for serum amyloid protein A). Human orthologs were assigned to

these 71 proteins using a series of python scripts (Anaconda v2023.07; conda v23.5.2; Python

v3.8.17) from Github on the following two repositories: pwilmart/PAW_BLAST and

pwilmart/annotations, retrieved October 12, 2021. First, the 71 identifiers in question were used to

create a subset fasta (make_subset_DB_from_list_3.py), which was then searched against a human

fasta [UniProtKB *Homo sapiens* (Human; taxon ID 9606) canonical proteome UP000005640;

2023_03 release] using the db_to_db_blaster.py script, which used a local installation of BLAST+

2.11.0. This list was manually confirmed by comparing sea lion to human ortholog protein names,

and when needed, running BLAST with sea lion entries against all mammals. Incorrect

assignments can happen when a protein is not present in humans (e.g., beta-lactoglobulin 1;

UniProtKB A0A6P9EXQ1), or if the human BLAST hit disagrees with the original annotation, in

which case the original annotation is preserved (e.g., sea lion haptoglobin was matched to human

haptoglobin-related protein, but we kept the original name of haptoglobin and the HP symbol).

Once all 485 identified sea lion proteins had gene symbols, any proteins with all zeros by MaxLFQ

intensity were removed (this can occur when a tandem mass spectrum is identified in FragPipe,

but a quantity not calculated). Next, any remaining duplicate gene symbol entries were summed

together into a single nonredundant entry. This resulted in 245 proteins identified experiment-

wide, which were used for statistical testing (**Table S5**).

Proteomic Statistical Data Analysis

A two-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test (equivalent to the Mann-Whitney U-test) was used to

detect statistically significant proteins. This was performed with R (v4.2.0) and the dplyr package

(v1.1.0) using the *wilcox.test* function and p-value correction with the Benjamini and Hochberg

method, using the *p.adjust* function specifying 'BH'.[19] Proteins with adjusted $p < 0.05$ (*i.e.,* FDR

< 0.05) were deemed significantly different.[19] Since zeros cannot be used to calculate fold-change,

all zeros were replaced with ½ the lowest observed non-zero value for each given protein. This

imputation did not affect rank sum statistics but is used solely to provide a reference for protein

change between groups.

Lipidomic Sample Preparation

For the lipidomic analyses, lipids from the 31 individual plasma samples, as well as four pooled

samples, were extracted using a modified-Folch extraction.[20] This lipid extraction method was

previously described and validated by Kirkwood et al., using NIST SRM 1950 (metabolites in

frozen human plasma) as a quality control to compare with other extraction methods.[22] The

modified-Folch extraction resulted in a comparable amount of lipids, as well as category

compositions, as various other extraction methods performed by the LIPID MAPS consortium.[22]

See **Figure 2B** for the lipidomic workflow used in the present study. Briefly, 50 µL of plasma was

transferred into a 1.7 mL Sorensen SafeSeal™ Microcentrifuge tube (Waltham, MA) with 600 µL

of 2:1 (volume ratio) chloroform/LC-MS grade methanol at -20 °C. Each sample was vortexed for

30 s at 1200 rpm using a Digital Vortex Mixer (Thermo Scientific; Waltham, MA) and then 150

µL of LC-MS grade water was added, prior to mixing again for 30 s. The samples were then left

at room temperature for 5 min to allow adequate time for phase separation, centrifuged at 12 000

rpm for 10 min at 4 °C for further phase separation, and immediately placed on ice to prevent

degradation.[21] Since this liquid/liquid extraction results in both a top (aqueous) and bottom

(organic) extraction layer, 100 µL of the bottom layer was aliquoted into a new tube and dried

down using a SpeedVac vacuum concentrator (ThermoFisher Scientific; Waltham, MA).

Following dry down, the lipid extract was immediately reconstituted in 10 µL of chloroform and

190 µL of LC-MS grade methanol. The samples were stored in 2-mL amber glass LC autosampler

vials (Agilent Technologies; Santa Clara, CA) at -20 °C until analysis (less than 1 week). The

lipidomic pooled quality control sample was made by combining equal amounts of each individual

sample into a new 1.7 mL Sorensen SafeSeal™ Microcentrifuge tube (Sorensen Bioscience, Inc.;

Murray, UT). The pool was then vortexed for 30 s and underwent the same modified-Folch

extraction steps as above in parallel with the rest of the sample set. The final QC sample was split

into four vials to provide technical replicates for the LC-IMS-CID-MS analyses.

Lipidomic LC-IMS-CID-MS Instrumentation

Lipidomic analyses of the 31 plasma samples were performed using a previously described

untargeted platform combining liquid chromatography, ion mobility spectrometry, collision-

induced dissociation, and mass spectrometry (LC-IMS-CID-MS).[22] **Figure 2B** illustrates the

lipidomic workflow. These separations were performed on an Agilent 1290 Infinity UPLC system

(Agilent Technologies; Santa Clara, CA) coupled to an Agilent 6560 IM-QTOF platform (Agilent

Technologies; Santa Clara, CA) with a commercial gas kit and a MKS Instruments precision flow

controller (Andover, MA).[22] Prior to all lipidomic studies, Agilent ESI-L Low Concentration

tuning mix solution (Agilent Technologies; Santa Clara, CA) was injected in the 6560 IM-QTOF

platform to verify mass accuracy and collision cross section (CCS) values of the platform. Brain

total lipid extract standard (Avanti Polar Lipids; Alabaster, AL) was run prior to samples to assess

lipidomic separations and quality. Then, 10 µL of each individual plasma lipid extract was injected

onto a Waters Acquity UPLC CSH™ C18 column (Milford, MA) (3.0 mm x 150 mm x 1.7 µm

particle size), where MPA was comprised of 40:60 (volume ratio) LC-MS grade ACN/H_2O and

10 mmol/L ammonium acetate and MPB consisted of 90:10 (volume ratio) LC-MS grade

IPA/ACN with 10 mmol/L ammonium acetate. The 34 min LC gradient had a constant flow rate

of 0.25 mL/min and time to MPB ratio as follows [time (min):MPB (%; volume fraction to MPA)):

0:40, 2:50, 3:60, 12:70, 15:75, 17:78, 19:85, 22:92, 25:99, and 34:99]. The gradient was followed

by a 3 min column wash step as follows [flow rate (mL/min): time (min):MPB (%; volume fraction

to MPA)): 0.30:34.5:40, 0.30:35:99, 0.30:35.5:99, 0.35:36:40, 0.30:37:40, and 0.25:38:40]. For

the IMS-MS analyses, the Agilent Jet Stream ESI source was utilized, and the platform was

operated in both negative and positive ionization modes. For the IMS analyses, the funnel trap fill

time was set to 10 ms with a release time of 400 µs. Following drift time separation, the CID

analysis consisted of a data-independent approach where lipid ions were fragmented using a CID

ramp based on the precursor ion's drift time (**Table S4**). Finally, a quadrupole time-of-flight

(QTOF) mass spectrometer evaluated ion from 50 to 1700 *m/z*, and a .d file was collected

containing the multidimensional LC, IMS, CID, and MS information.

The .d LC-IMS-CID-MS data files were then single-field calibrated to calculate CCS values

for all lipids in the samples using the Agilent MassHunter Workstation Software IM-MS Browser

Version B.10.00 and the previously mentioned Agilent tuning mix.[23] All raw data files were

evaluated using Skyline software, an open source, non-vendor specific software to process various

types of mass spectrometry data (MacCoss Lab Software, v. 22.2).[24,25] In Skyline, lipids were

annotated based on how closely the extracted ion chromatograms matched our in-house spectral

lipid library, which contained 877 lipids and is publicly available at

https://tarheels.live/bakerlab/databases/.[22,26] The parameters manually assessed were retention

time index, *m/z* values with a mass error of less than 5 ppm, and CCS values within the resolving

power window of 50.[26] Peaks were additionally validated by precursor isotope distribution and

fragmentation spectra. The raw data is available on Panorama at

https://panoramaweb.org/sealionlipids.url.

Lipidomic Statistical Analysis

The list of lipid identifications and their corresponding peak areas in the samples from Skyline

were then normalized via total ion current and $\log_2$ transformed. The normalized and transformed

peak areas were imported into MetaboAnalyst 6.0 to assist in data visualization using hierarchical

clustering (based on Euclidean distances) in the form of a heatmap to assess differences between

the DAT and non-DAT sea lions.[27] Additional statistical analyses were also performed using

RStudio (R version 4.3.1) including the following packages: dplyr and Lipid Mini-On (rodin).[19,28]

In the same fashion as the proteomic statistical analysis, the lipidomic statistical comparisons

included a two-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test and fold change comparisons. Additionally, volcano

plots and bar charts were used for data visualization.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Proteomic Analyses

In the proteomic analyses of the 31 plasma samples, 245 proteins were identified from 9079

peptides (**Table S5**) and statistical assessments of the DAT versus non-DAT groups found 31

proteins were statistically significant (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05, **Table S7**).

Of these proteins, three were apolipoproteins (APO): APOC3, APOE, and APOB (noted with * in

Figure 3) and an additional eight apolipoproteins were also detected with specific trends. Since

APOE was observed to be of statistical significance and decreased in this sample previously using

2D-gel, its results were not surprising.[12] However, APOC3 downregulation in DAT individuals

was of great interest as its high levels have been linked to hypertriglyceridemia in humans,

indicating a potential for hypotriglyceridemia in the DAT group.[29] Downregulation of APOB has

also been linked with decreased triglyceride availability in humans, and as the protein plays a role

in lipid metabolism, this further illustrates the need for a lipidomics assessment.[30] Additionally, of

Figure 3. Eleven apolipoproteins detected in the sea lion proteomic analyses and illustrated in **A)** rank abundance and **B)** protein response graphs. Apolipoproteins are highlighted in either red or blue, indicating up (red) or downregulation (blue), while all other detected proteins are shown in grey. The dashed line in **B)** represents a 1:1 reference, where proteins above are upregulated and below are downregulated. The statistically significant apolipoproteins are noted with asterisks.

the 11 apolipoproteins detected in this study while eight were not statistically significant they did

have interesting trends. For example, APOC1 and APOC4 had lower abundances in the DAT

group and are thought to be involved in triglyceride metabolism, although the function of

endogenous APOC4 is not completely known.[31,32] APOC2 was also not statistically significant but

trended higher in the DAT group, and high APOC2 levels have been associated with

downregulation of plasma TGs in humans.[32] Since this study size is small, the trends in these non-

significant apolipoproteins are also notable.

Of the other 28 proteins found to be statistically significant altered in DAT in the study, other

interesting trends were observed and angiopoietin-like 3 (ANGPTL3), hepatocyte growth factor

activator (HGFA), coagulation factor XII, and CD5 antigen-like protein (CD5L) were of particular

interest. For example, ANGPTL3 had the lowest $\log_2$ fold change (approximately -4) out of all the

significant proteins and is involved in blood TG regulation.[33] HGFA and coagulation factor XII,

which were higher in DAT individuals, are both proteases thought to activate hepatocyte growth

factor signaling,[34] a signaling pathway activated when there is injury to tissues.[34] Furthermore,

coagulation factor XII has been linked to pro-inflammatory cytokines in antigen-presenting cells

in atherosclerosis-prone mice, indicating an increased immune response,[35] which could help

explain why sea lions with DAT may suffer from cardiomyopathy. Lastly, CD5L, which was

downregulated in the DAT individuals, is involved in lipid homeostasis and immunomodulation.

Additionally, it has been linked to mediate autoimmunity by altering fatty acid composition and

inhibiting cholesterol biosynthesis.[36,37] Thus, in addition to the apolipoproteins, all four of these

proteins of interest have been linked to lipids and further support our hypothesis that lipids are

dysregulated in individuals with DAT.

 Lipidomics Analyses

In the lipidomic analyses of the 31 sea lion plasma samples, 331 unique lipids in five lipid

categories (fatty acyl, sterol, glycerolipid, glycerophospholipid, and sphingolipid) were identified

at a Schymanski confidence level of 2 or 3.[22,26,38] Of the identified lipids, 29 were found to be

statistically significant in the DAT versus non-DAT comparison, with 28 downregulated and 1

upregulated (**Table S8**). Moreover, while the statistically significant lipids span four out of the

five lipid categories assessed, 15 of the 29 were triglycerides (TGs), illustrating their potential link

to DAT and its apolipoprotein dysregulation. In general, the glycerolipids (TGs and diglycerides

(DGs)) were remarkably enriched, making up just 15 % of all 331 detected lipids and 55 % of the

significant. Furthermore, all but one of the significant lipids were lower in the DAT sea lion

Figure 4. Lipids detected and dysregulated in the DAT versus non-DAT California sea lion plasma comparison. Blue data points show downregulated lipids, red show upregulated, and grey show those not statistically significant in the comparison. Of the significant lipids, 50 % are triglycerides. The full list of significant lipids is included in **Table S8**.

plasma, including all TGs as shown in the volcano plot in **Figure 4**. The single upregulated

significant   lipid   was   a   phosphatidylinositol   species   (PI(18:0_20:3)).   Interestingly,

phosphatidylinositols are precursors for DGs, which is another glycerolipid like TGs but with one

less fatty acyl chain.[39] This is worth noting because one diglyceride, DG(18:1_18:1), was found to

be downregulated and statistically significant in the DAT individuals, which indicates that a lack

of DG(18:1_18:1) synthesis may a consequence when a higher abundance of PI(18:0_20:3) is

observed due to the PI not being converted to a DG, but requires more investigation.

To further evaluate the lipidomic changes in DAT individuals, the significant lipids   were

Figure 5. Hierarchical clustering of the California sea lion plasma samples for significant lipids detected in both positive and negative mode. Only the significant lipids are shown in each mode. Lipids with higher abundances are shown in red and those with less abundant in blue. The Euclidean distances were calculated and clustered using the Ward method.

assessed hierarchical clustering in Metaboanalyst 6.0[27](**Figure 5**). Here, hierarchical clustering

illustrated that the DAT and non-DAT individuals clustered, and similar trends were observed in

all glycerolipids, including the 15 TGs and 1 DG, plus 1 glycerophospholipid, PE(18:1/18:1).

Specifically, these lipids exhibit downregulation in the DAT samples, suggesting a link between

DAT and decreased TGs. Furthermore, many of the trending downregulated proteins are involved

with lipoprotein lipase, such as APOA1 and APOC2, which is responsible for the regulation of TG

degradation.[32] This further couples with the observed proteomic and lipidomic changes observed

in DAT. Interestingly, this was an unsupervised heatmap, thus the sample groups clustered

together without supervision. Consequentially, this clustering revealed another trend: four non-

DAT individuals had similar molecular compositions as those in the DAT group. Two of those

individuals were diagnosed with leptospirosis, another condition that is common among sea lions.[6]

One of those had trauma to the eye as well, which is worth noting because of the two that did not

have leptospirosis in that clustered group, one of them had flipper trauma. The last individual was

malnourished, which might explain why their abundance of TGs was lower than the rest of the

non-DAT individuals, since they may have had to rely on lipid energy stores to survive. The

malnourished individual is the left most sample in the heatmap, indicating that it clustered more

with the non-DAT samples. This illustrates a potential continuum between TG abundance and

DAT but requires further research to state conclusively.

To further probe lipid structure, trends in the degrees of unsaturation and fatty acyl chain

lengths were investigated to find patterns in the types of lipids found to be potential biomarkers

(**Figure 6**). Specifically, 58 % of the statistically significant lipids were found to have at least one

degree of unsaturation and 48 % had at least one fatty acyl chain with 18 carbons (considered long

chain fatty acids (LCFA)). Furthermore, diunsaturated lipids represented 9 % of the total lipids

detected but increased in representation to almost 18 % of the lipids found to be statistically

significant in DAT individuals. This 18-carbon fatty acyl chain and diunsaturation trend is further

supported by the volcano plot in **Figure 4**. Specifically, TG(18:0_18:1_20:1) which has two 18

carbon chains (all three LCFAs) and 2 double bonds has the lowest *p*-value (of the lipids with fatty

acyl chain assignments) and highest magnitude $\log_2$ fold change. Other statistically significant TGs

were also observed with 18 carbon chains and unsaturation (**Figure 5**), illustrating how TGs could

be quite informative of DAT in sea lions. The 15 statistically significant TGs downregulated in the

DAT group also support the idea that a simple TG blood panel assay could be developed for a

more accessible DAT evaluation platform, such as ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy. This would

enable rapid and affordable diagnostic testing for DAT and be extremely beneficial for the

veterinarians and sea lions.

Figure 6. Saturation and chain length trends for detected and significant lipids in the DAT California sea lion plasma. **A)** The number of double bonds present in the fatty acyl chains of the significant and detected lipids, and **B)** variations in long chain fatty acids (13-20 carbons) or very long chain fatty acids (greater than 20 carbons). MCFA = medium chain fatty acids (6-12 carbons), LCFA = long chain fatty acids, and VLFA = very long chain fatty acids.

Although apolipoprotein and TG candidate biomarkers were determined in this work, this

study does not go without limitations. First, the sample size of the study was only n = 31. This is

a small group compared to the population of sea lions, especially considering the DAT group

consisted of less than half of the total, n = 14. In addition to the study size, no healthy control

group was present, as the non-DAT group had other ailments such as leptospirosis and starvation.[12]

However, healthy controls would be less useful for this study, as molecular markers for DAT are

specifically needed for diagnosis and the treatment of sick animals presenting with a specific set

of symptoms. Thus, future work using a larger sample size with more illnesses represented in the

non-DAT group as well as true healthy controls would be important for confirming the results

found in this study.

CONCLUSIONS

In this study, multi-omic analyses were conducted on California sea lion plasma to identify

potential biomarkers as diagnostic tools for DAT. The proteomic analyses confirmed APOE as a

DAT plasma biomarker from a previous study[12] and showcased 2 other apolipoproteins as

statistically significant and downregulated in the DAT sea lion plasma. In addition, 8 other

apolipoproteins were noted as having specific trends in the analyses but were not noted as

statistically significant, potentially because of the small sample size.[12] Lipidomic analyses of the

plasma further illustrated the effects of apolipoprotein dysregulation in 15 TGs, which are

associated with these proteins in the literature and were found to be less abundant in the sea lions

with DAT as well as four non-DAT with similar symptoms. Since the TGs made up over 50 % of

the significant lipids, they also provide a molecular class of interest that could be assayed (either

with LC-MS or a less complex, but robust instrument such as UV-Vis) by veterinarians in

conjunction with clinical signs such as seizures to provide a rapid diagnostic assessment. Although

a larger study would help validate our findings, the proteins and lipids noted to differentiate DAT

from non-DAT animals are extremely important for both understanding DAT molecular

perturbations and creating potential diagnostic and treatment strategies.

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