Iron Responsive Element (IRE)-mediated responses to iron dyshomeostasis in Alzheimer's disease

Author Details:

Nhi Hin*[†][a,b], Morgan Newman[b], Stephen Pederson[a], Michael Lardelli*[b]

a. Bioinformatics Hub, School of Biological Sciences, The University of Adelaide, North Terrace, Adelaide, SA 5005, Australia

b. Alzheimer's Disease Genetics Laboratory, School of Biological Sciences, The University of Adelaide, North Terrace, Adelaide, SA 5005, Australia

* corresponding authors

[†] Current Address: South Australian Genomics Centre, South Australian Health and Medical Institute, North Terrace, Adelaide, SA 5000, Australia

Author Full Names and Contact Details:

Nhi Hin – **Email:** nhi.hin@sahmri.com   **Phone:** +61 8 8128 4621

Morgan Newman – **Email:** morgan.newman@adelaide.edu.au

Stephen Pederson – **Email:** stephen.pederson@adelaide.edu.au

Michael Lardelli – **Email:** michael.lardelli@adelaide.edu.au   **Phone:** +61 8 8313 3212

Abstract

Background: Iron trafficking and accumulation has been associated with Alzheimer's disease (AD) pathogenesis. However, the role of iron dyshomeostasis in early disease stages is uncertain. Currently, gene expression changes indicative of iron dyshomeostasis are not well characterized, making it difficult to explore these in existing datasets.

Objective: We identified sets of genes predicted to contain Iron Responsive Elements (IREs) and used these to explore iron dyshomeostasis-associated gene expression responses in cultured cell, human, mouse, and zebrafish datasets.

Results: IRE gene sets were sufficiently sensitive to distinguish not only between iron overload and deficiency in cultured cells, but also between AD and other pathological brain conditions in different brain regions. Notably, we see changes in IRE transcript abundance as amongst the earliest observable changes in zebrafish familial AD (fAD)-like brains, preceding other AD-typical pathologies such as inflammatory changes. Unexpectedly, while some IREs in the 3' untranslated regions of transcripts show significantly increased stability under iron deficiency in line with current assumptions, many such transcripts instead show decreased stability, indicating that this is not a generalizable paradigm.

Conclusion: Our results reveal IRE gene expression changes as early markers of the pathogenic process in fAD and are consistent with iron dyshomeostasis as an important driver of this disease. IRE gene expression changes can also distinguish AD from other neuropathologies. Our work demonstrates how differences in the stability of IRE-containing transcripts can be used to explore and compare iron dyshomeostasis-associated gene expression responses in different species, tissues, and conditions.

Keywords

Iron responsive element, iron homeostasis, Alzheimer's disease, gene expression, Computational Biology, Transcriptomics, familial Alzheimer's disease

Introduction

The pathological processes underlying Alzheimer's Disease (AD) commence decades before symptoms become evident [1,2]. Since the early days of AD research, iron trafficking and accumulation has been observed to be altered in AD [3–7]. However, it is still unclear whether iron dyshomeostasis represents a late symptom or an early pathological driver of AD. Iron homeostasis is closely linked to many critical biological processes including cellular respiration, hypoxia, and immune responses, all of which are disrupted in AD. Consistent with this, discoveries over the past decade have shown that disruptions to iron homeostasis can drive feedback loops that worsen AD pathology [8,9]. However, evidence for iron dyshomeostasis as an early driver of the disease is only just emerging. While iron accumulation associated with amyloid plaque formation has been observed in various transgenic mouse models of AD [10–13], the age at which iron dyshomeostasis first occurs is uncertain [14].

Currently, gene expression patterns representing responses to iron dyshomeostasis are not well-characterized. Cellular responses to iron dyshomeostasis are complex and involve several systems and layers of regulation. The stability of the transcription factor HIF1α, (a component of HIF1, a master regulator of responses to hypoxia) is regulated by an iron-dependent mechanism so that transcriptional responses to iron deficiency can resemble hypoxia responses [15]. However, cellular iron homeostasis is also regulated at the post-transcriptional level by the IRP/IRE system [16–18]. In this system, altered levels of available

ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) cause Iron Responsive Proteins (IRP1 or IRP2) to change conformation

or stability respectively [19,20]. This alters their ability to bind *cis*-regulatory Iron Responsive

Element (IRE) stem-loop motifs in the 3' or 5' untranslated regions (UTRs) of genes

encoding products related to iron metabolism. Only a few IRE-containing genes have been

characterized in detail, including transferrin receptor 1 (*TFR1*; 3' UTR IRE), divalent metal

transporter 1 (*DMT1* or *SLC11A2*; 3' UTR IRE), ferritin heavy chain and ferritin light chain (

FTH1 and *FTL*; both 5' UTR IRE), and ferroportin (*SLC40A1*; 5' UTR IRE) [18]. In general,

these previously-characterized IRE-containing genes suggest that IRPs binding to 3' IREs

tend to stabilize transcripts to increase protein translation, while binding to 5' IREs

suppresses translation [17]. It is important to note that while the ancestral ferritin IRE is

present even in lower metazoans (including sponges), IRE elements in other genes have

likely more recently arisen through convergent evolution [21]. Perhaps because of this, some

heterogeneity in regulatory mechanisms and effects for IRE genes has been reported. For

example, *SLC11A2* is stabilized by IRP1 binding to a greater extent than by IRP2 binding

(as its 3' IRE has a greater affinity for IRP1) [22]. Similarly, while *CDC42BPA* and *TFRC*

both possess 3' IREs, *CDC42BPA* is stabilized to a greater extent than *TFRC* under iron

deficiency [23]. Currently however, global gene expression changes mediated by genes in

the IRP/IRE system have not been well-defined, and the overall expression patterns of IRE-

containing genes have not been explored in the context of AD. In addition, it is unclear how

expression of these genes might differ between AD and other neurodegenerative diseases,

or how AD risk factors such as aging and hypoxia might contribute.

In this study, we utilized the SIREs (Searching for Iron Responsive Elements) tool [24] to

predict and identify sets of IRE-containing genes in human, mouse, and zebrafish. We then

applied these gene sets to explore overall IRP/IRE-mediated iron dyshomeostasis-

associated responses in datasets involving: (1) a cultured cell line subjected to iron overload

and deficiency treatments, (2) a cohort of AD patients, healthy controls, and two other

pathological conditions affecting the brain, (3) 5XFAD mice used to model the amyloid and

tau pathology seen in AD, and (4) a zebrafish knock-in model possessing a familial AD

(fAD)-like mutation.

Our IRE gene sets displayed significant enrichment in AD, the 5XFAD mouse model, and an

fAD-like zebrafish model, demonstrating for the first time the early and extensive

involvement of IRP/IRE-mediated iron dyshomeostasis-associated gene expression

responses in the context of AD. IRE gene sets were sufficiently sensitive to distinguish not

only between iron overload and deficiency in a cultured cell line dataset, but also between

AD and other pathological conditions affecting the brain (pathological aging and progressive

supranuclear palsy), implying that the dysregulation of IRE-containing genes in AD may

differ from other conditions. Changes in IRE gene expression were already evident in young

adult brains of animal models of AD (3-month-old 5XFAD mice, 6-month-old fAD-like

zebrafish). Overall, our observations do not support the current assumption that IRP binding

to 3' IREs generally stabilizes transcripts as we observed both increases and decreases in

abundance of transcripts with either 3' or 5' IREs under most conditions.

Results

Defining sets of genes containing Iron Responsive Elements (IREs)

We utilized the SIREs (Searching for Iron Responsive Elements) tool, to define species-

specific IRE gene sets by searching for IRE and IRE-like motifs in the 3' and 5' untranslated

regions (UTRs) of the reference transcriptomes of human (hg38), mouse (mm10), and

zebrafish (z11). *SIREs* assigns a quality-score to all detected IREs, with "high-quality"

scores corresponding to canonical IREs and "medium-quality" or "low-quality" scores

reflecting deviations from the canonical IRE (alternative nucleotide composition in the apical

loop, one bulge at the 3' or one mismatch in the upper stem) that would still produce an IRE-

like motif with potential to be functional [24–28]. **Figure 1** summarizes the IRP/IRE

interaction effects on transcripts and gives examples of canonical and non-canonical IREs.

We defined four gene sets for each species as follows: ***HQ 3' IREs*** (high-quality predicted 3'

IRE genes), ***HQ 5' IREs*** (high-quality predicted 5' IRE genes)*, **all 3' IREs*** (including all low,

medium, and high-quality predicted 3' IRE genes), and ***all 5' IREs*** (including all low,

medium, and high-quality predicted 5' IRE genes). The size of these gene sets for each

species and the overlap present is shown in **Figure 2** and the gene sets are provided in

Supplementary Table 1. Overall, searching through human UTRs uncovered the largest

number of predicted IRE genes, followed by mouse, and then zebrafish. Overlap between

homologous genes from the IRE gene sets of different species was generally poor. The

largest sets of genes shared between species were consistently found between human and

mouse, which is reflective of their closer evolutionary divergence.

While not many high-quality IRE genes were identified across all three species, the few we

identified are consistent with known and well-characterized IREs in the literature [29,30]. For

example, the single shared ***HQ 3' IRE*** gene between the three species was *TFRC*

(transferrin receptor), while the shared ***HQ 5' IRE*** genes between the three species included

FTH1 (ferritin heavy chain 1) and *ALAS2* (5'-aminolevulinate synthase 2). We note that the

scoring of genes for the ***HQ 3' IRE*** and ***HQ 5' IRE*** sets is considered stringent (i.e. only

canonical IREs) and that other human genes with well-characterized IREs experimentally

shown to bind IRPs are recovered in the ***All 3' IRE*** and ***All 5' IRE*** sets across mouse and

zebrafish as well. These genes include *CDC14A* (3' IRE; [31]), *CDC42BPA* (3' IRE; [23,32],

SLC40A1 (5' IRE; [33]), and *FTL* (5' IRE; [34]). In addition, the 3' IRE of *SLC11A2* (also

known as *DMT1*) [22] which is only found in mammals was also recovered in the mouse ***All***

3' IREs set (but not for zebrafish). The expression of these previously characterized IRE

genes across the human, mouse, and zebrafish datasets analyzed in this current work is

described in **Supplementary Text 1** and discussed further in the analyses we later describe.

IRE gene sets are over-represented within up-regulated AD genes, but

overall not well-represented in existing gene sets

We explored the biological relevance of the predicted IRE gene sets described above by

testing whether genes within them were over-represented in existing gene sets from the

Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB; available at https://www.gsea-

msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb). MSigDB represents one of the largest publicly-available collection

of gene sets collated from existing studies and other biological databases [35]. We limited

our analysis to gene sets from the following collections: Hallmark (non-redundant sets of

~200 genes each representing various biological activities), C2 (gene sets from databases

including KEGG and Reactome and published studies), C3 (gene sets containing genes with

motif elements), and C5 (gene sets based on gene ontology terms) (see **Methods**). We

performed over-representation analysis for the predicted IRE gene sets (***all 3' IREs*** and ***all***

5' IREs) separately for each species (human, mouse, zebrafish), and used Wilkinson's

meta-analytic approach to determine gene sets that were significantly over-represented

across the three species' IRE gene sets. Our results indicated that 1,148 of 10,427 tested

gene sets displayed over-representation of IRE gene sets across all three species

(Bonferroni-adjusted Wilkinson's *p*-value < 0.05) (**Supplementary Table 2**). Remarkably,

the "Blalock Alzheimer's Disease Up" gene set from the C2 collection was significantly over-

represented in both the sets of ***all 3' IREs*** (Bonferroni-adjusted Wilkinson's *p*-value = 3.9e-

14) and ***all 5' IREs*** (Bonferroni-adjusted Wilkinson's *p*-value = 2.1e-26) in the meta-analysis,

and was also the gene set with the most significant over-representation of the human **all 3'**

IREs set (Bonferroni-adjusted Fisher's exact test p-value = 7.8e-58) (**Supplementary Table**

2). This supports that disturbance of iron homeostasis particularly distinguishes Alzheimer's

disease from other disease conditions and pathways represented within the C2 collection. In

addition, the top 15 MSigDB gene sets showing the most significant over-representation

generally differed between species. However, in all cases, a large proportion of IRE genes

from the predicted IRE gene sets were not contained within any of these top-ranked MSigDB

gene sets or within the Heme Metabolism gene set belonging to the Hallmark collection

(**Figure 3**). This demonstrates that the predicted IRE genes we defined are not fully

captured by existing gene sets and so may be uniquely useful for investigating gene

expression changes during the IRE-IRP response to iron dyshomeostasis.

Involvement of transcription factor regulation within IRE gene sets

To be confident that IRE gene sets accurately capture information about the IRP/IRE-

mediated responses, we needed to investigate possible co-ordinate regulation by other

factors. As a starting point, we examined whether known binding motifs for transcription

factors were significantly over-represented in the promoter regions of genes within each IRE

gene set (**all 3' IREs**, **all 5' IREs**, **HQ 3' IREs**, and **HQ 5' IREs**) for each species. We

detected significant over-representation of several transcription factors including the Klf14

motif in the zebrafish **all 3' IREs** set (FDR-adjusted p-value = 0.049), the E2F motif in the

human **all 5' IREs** set (FDR-adjusted p-value = 0.049) and the Bach1 (FDR-adjusted p-

value = 0.012), Nrf2 (FDR-adjusted p-value = 0.013), and NF-E2 (FDR-adjusted p-value =

0.019) motifs in the zebrafish **HQ 5' IREs** set (**Supplementary Table 3**). This suggests that

the following results should be interpreted with the knowledge that expression of subsets of

genes in some of the IRE gene sets may be influenced by factors other than iron ions.

Gene set enrichment testing approach

Our predicted IRE gene sets can be used in any standard gene set enrichment testing

approach to detect potential changes in iron homeostasis between conditions. Our workflow,

which we later apply on human, mouse, and zebrafish datasets, is shown in **Figure 4**. Due

to variability in the results produced by different gene set enrichment testing methods, we

were inspired by the EGSEA framework [36] to combine the results from different methods.

Based on an initial analysis using EGSEA, we chose *fry/mroast* [37,38], *camera* [39], and

fgsea [40,41] as the representative methods to use. (See **Supplementary Figure 2** for a

principal component analysis of results from different gene set enrichment analysis

approaches.) A summary of the different characteristics of the three methods is shown in

Table 1. The raw enrichment *p*-values from these approaches can be combined to obtain an

overall enrichment *p*-value for each gene set. In accordance with EGSEA default

parameters, we used Wilkinson's method to combine raw *p*-values, and then applied

adjustment for multiple testing on all combined *p*-values. Along with performing this gene set

enrichment testing on our IRE gene sets, we also recommend using the same method to

test for enrichment for the MSigDB Hallmark gene sets as the diverse biological activities

they represent help to provide context for interpreting the IRE enrichment results. To explore

further the results of IRE gene set enrichment analysis, we use UpSet plots to display the

overlap between sets of "leading-edge" genes in the **all 3' IREs** and **all 5' IREs** gene sets.

The leading-edge genes can be interpreted as the core (often biologically important) genes

of a gene set that account for the significant enrichment as calculated by GSEA [41].

Differences in IRE gene set enrichment during iron deficiency and iron overload in a cultured cell line

We first tested how our enrichment approach illuminated the effects of iron overload and

deficiency in a cultured cell line microarray dataset from Caco-2 cells (GEO accession:

GSE3573). As only one cell type contributed to this dataset, interpretation of the IRE

enrichment results is simplified by not having to consider the differing iron requirements of

different cell types. This allowed us to focus on whether the iron dyshomeostasis treatments

(iron overload and iron deficiency) could be detected and distinguished in terms of their

IRP/IRE system-driven transcript abundance response. Because the dataset was from a

microarray experiment, we performed only the differential gene expression and gene set

enrichment testing portions of our workflow. The results of Principal Component Analysis

and differential gene expression analysis are provided in **Supplementary Figure 3**. We note

that this particular dataset was chosen despite not being derived from a central nervous

system cell type as maintaining iron homeostasis is fundamental to all cell types (regardless

of their tissue of origin). In addition, this particular dataset included iron deficiency and iron

overload treatments in the same batch and with sufficient sample number, and no other

cultured cell line gene expression dataset was publicly available at the time that fulfilled

these criteria.

In general, we found iron deficiency and iron overload treatments resulted in different gene

expression responses. In terms of classic IRE genes such as *TFRC, FTL,* and *FTH1*, iron

deficiency is associated with increased expression of *TFRC* (consistent with increased

transcript stabilization of this 3' IRE gene) and decreased expression of the 5' IRE genes

FTL and *FTH1,* while these changes are in the opposite direction during iron overload (see

Supplementary Text 1 and **Supplementary Figure 1A**). Differential gene expression

across all detected genes in the dataset additionally revealed that iron deficiency was

associated with 96 differentially expressed genes of which 10 possessed predicted IREs

while iron overload was associated with 212 differentially expressed genes (FDR-adjusted *p*-

value from *limma* < 0.05) of which 33 possessed predicted IREs (**Supplementary Figure**

3B). There were 17 differentially expressed genes in common between iron deficiency and

iron overload treatments, and all moved in opposite directions according to the treatment

(i.e. increased abundance under iron deficiency and decreased abundance under iron

overload, or vice versa). These clear differences between iron deficiency and iron overload

were reflected in gene set enrichment analyses using the MSigDB Hallmark gene sets,

where the gene sets involved and the proportions of gene transcripts with increased or

decreased abundance differed (**Figure 5A**). As expected, IRE gene sets also showed

significant enrichment under iron deficiency and overload conditions (**Figure 5B**) (Bonferroni

adjusted p-value < 0.05).

We expected that iron deficiency would result in increased expression of genes with 3' IREs

under the IRP/IRE paradigm similar to the *TFRC* gene as seen in **Supplementary Text 1**.

However, both the 3' and 5' IRE gene sets displayed mixed patterns of increased and

decreased expression under both the iron deficiency and iron overload treatments (**Figure**

5B). This indicates it would be difficult to distinguish between these conditions based purely

on overall increases or decreases in the expression of IRE gene sets. Despite this, we see

that the iron deficiency and iron overload treatments can be distinguished by their "leading-

edge" genes (those genes contributing most to the enrichment signal for the predicted IRE

gene sets (***all 3' IREs*** and ***all 5' IREs***) (**Figure 5C**). This supports that gene set enrichment

using predicted IRE gene sets may be sufficiently sensitive to detect whether iron

dyshomeostasis is present and potentially more informative than individual IRE genes in

distinguishing between different IRP-IRE system-mediated gene expression responses in

iron deficiency and iron overload treatments in this cell line.

A distinct iron homeostasis response in human AD patients compared to other neuropathologies

Given that IRE gene sets could distinguish between iron overload and deficiency in a

cultured cell line, we next tested our gene sets on a more complex dataset including

cerebellum and temporal cortex tissue samples from post-mortem human brains. The brains

originated from either healthy controls or patients afflicted with one of three conditions:

Alzheimer's disease (AD); pathological aging (PA), a condition involving amyloid pathology

but no significant dementia symptoms; or progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP), a

tauopathy without amyloid pathology [42]. An important characteristic of the dataset is that

both cerebellum and temporal cortex tissue samples were available from each patient. A

summary of the 236 patients whose data we included in this analysis is shown in **Table 2**

and the results of differential gene expression analysis and IRE gene set enrichment

analysis are shown in **Table 3** and **Figure 6A**. The expression of classic IRE genes

including *TFRC*, *FTL,* and *FTH1* in this dataset is shown in **Supplementary Text 1** and

Supplementary Figure 1B-C. In our analyses, we focus mainly on comparing conditions

within each tissue rather than between tissues. This is because we found significant

differences in the AD vs. control comparison in the temporal cortex compared to the

cerebellum (see **Supplementary Figure 4**).

Overall, our IRE enrichment analyses indicate significant enrichment of IRE gene sets in all

pathological conditions (AD, PA or PSP) compared to healthy controls within the cerebellum

and temporal cortex (**Figure 6A**). In all pathological conditions, 3' and 5' IRE gene

transcripts show overall mixed patterns of abundance (e.g. increased and decreased).

Further examination of the leading-edge genes from these IRE gene sets gives more insight

regarding potential differences and similarities between AD, PA, and PSP (**Figure 6B**).

Overall, AD, PSP, and PA appear to involve distinct yet partially overlapping IRE gene

expression responses in a tissue-specific manner. Within the temporal cortex, there are 435

3' IRE leading-edge genes and 178 5' IRE leading-edge genes exclusively present in the

"AD vs. control" comparison. These are greater numbers than for the other two conditions.

Interestingly, AD and PA share only relatively small numbers of leading-edge genes despite

the fact that many regard PA as a prodrome of AD [43]. Interestingly, in the cerebellum,

while AD and PSP share many 3' and 5' IRE leading-edge genes, PA is associated with a

large number of unique leading-edge 3' and 5' IRE genes, further emphasizing its difference

from AD and also PSP. These observations are supported when considering expression of

previously characterized IRE genes individually (see **Supplementary Text 1** and

Supplementary Figure 1B-C). The results in this Supplementary Text suggest that in

particular, some 3' IRE genes (e.g. *TFRC*, *CAV3*, *CDC14A*, *CDC42BPA, SERTAD2,*

TRAM1) show increased expression in AD (relative to controls) whereas PA and PSP do

not. Overall, our results suggest that IRP-IRE system-mediated gene expression changes

may be sufficiently sensitive to discern and identify potential differences in the way iron

homeostasis is regulated in AD compared to PA and PSP.

Age-dependent disruption of IRE-driven iron homeostasis in the 5XFAD

mouse model

Alzheimer's disease is thought to develop over decades [44–46]. However, detailed

molecular studies of AD brains can only be based on post-mortem tissues. To reveal the

early molecular changes that initiate the progression to AD we must study the brains of

animal disease models. Given that the IRE gene sets appear to work well in human

datasets, we then tested our mouse IRE gene sets on an RNA-seq dataset derived from

brain cortex tissue of the 5XFAD transgenic mouse AD model (GEO: GSE140286). The

5XFAD mouse is one of the most common systems used to model the amyloid beta

histopathology of AD brains and brain gene expression patterns in this model were

previously shown in a concordance analysis to resemble those of human AD brains more

than four other mouse models (3xTg, CK-p25, J20, and Tg2576) [47]. 5XFAD mice possess

two transgenes that include a total of five different mutations, each of which individually

causes fAD in humans. In this dataset, the mice analyzed were either 3, 6 or 12 months of

age. We acknowledge that the small sample size of this particular dataset means that results

should be interpreted tentatively (see Discussion).

Using gene set enrichment testing methods as before, we observed significant enrichment of

the **all 3' IREs** and **all 5' IREs** gene sets in several comparisons. These included 5XFAD vs.

wild type comparisons and wild type aging comparisons (Bonferroni-adjusted enrichment p-

value < 0.05) (**Figure 7**). Notably, even the youngest age group of 5XFAD mutant mice (3

months) displayed significant enrichment of genes containing 3' or 5' IREs compared to age-

matched wild types. This is consistent with an enrichment of immune-related Hallmark gene

sets that we observed in this age group (see **Figure 7B**) and with a previous transcriptome

analysis suggesting immune activation in 5XFAD mice as early as 2-4 months [48]. UpSet

plots of overlapping leading-edge genes suggest that the IRE responses due to aging and

due to the 5XFAD transgenes may involve partially overlapping gene expression changes

(**Figure 8**). In addition, the UpSet plots reveal subsets containing large numbers of IRE-

containing genes which uniquely contribute to enrichment of IRE gene sets in only one

comparison (e.g. 256 3' IRE genes only contribute to enrichment in the "*5xFAD vs WT at 6*

months" comparison). Notably, there are 126 shared 3' IRE genes contributing to enrichment

in the "*5xFAD vs WT at 6 months*" and "*5xFAD vs WT at 3 months*" comparisons, but no

genes shared between these comparisons and the "*5xFAD vs WT at 12 months*"

comparison. These 126 genes were found to show over-representation of Gene Ontology

terms including "Hsp70 protein binding" and "nuclear import signal receptor" (FDR-adj. p-

value < 0.05) (**Supplementary Table 4**), suggesting that subsets of leading-edge genes

may have biological relevance, and that these may give clues into the biologically distinct

age-dependent iron dyshomeostasis responses caused by the 5XFAD transgenes. Although

beyond the scope of our current analysis, further investigation into these subsets of genes

may further help to define differences in iron dyshomeostasis responses under different

biological conditions of interest.

Similarities in IRE-driven iron homeostasis responses during hypoxia and a familial AD-like mutation in a zebrafish model

Concerns have been raised over the relevance of transgenic mouse models in modelling the

early stages of AD (reviewed by [49]). Meanwhile, knock-in models of familial AD (fAD) (that

possess a single, heterozygous mutation in an endogenous gene like the human version of

the disease) only exhibit subtle pathological changes with little to no visible amyloid or tau

pathology present [50]. We make an important distinction between these fAD-like models

that resemble the genetic state of human fAD as closely as possible and other knock-in

models that invoke genetic states which have never been observed in human fAD (e.g.

models possessing homozygous mutations that have only been observed in a heterozygous

state in humans and/or several fAD-causative mutations simultaneously as described by

Saito et al. [51] or Serneels et al. [52]). Despite the comparatively more subtle pathology

seen in fAD-like knock-in models, because they more closely mimic the genetic state of fAD,

it would be expected that gene expression analysis of knock-in models may reveal

informative early molecular changes that are relevant to early fAD states in human brains.

We had access to whole-brain RNA-seq data from a knock-in zebrafish model of fAD

possessing a single fAD-like mutation in its endogenous *psen1* gene (*psen1*$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+)

(henceforth referred to as the "fAD-mutation-like" model in this paper). Previous analysis of a

subset of this dataset involving young adults (6-month-old brains) revealed gene expression

changes related to energy metabolism and mitochondrial function, especially ATP synthesis

and other ATP-dependent functions including lysosomal acidification [53]. (In contrast, the 3-

month-old young adult 5XFAD mouse brain dataset is dominated by immune/inflammation

responses, **Figure 7B**). Considering the critical role of iron homeostasis in energy

metabolism, we decided to revisit this zebrafish dataset. We performed IRE gene set

enrichment on the entire dataset in order to include exploration of the effects of aging and

acute hypoxia (two important risk factors for sporadic late onset AD) and to analyze how

these effects interact with the fAD-like *psen1*$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+ mutant genotype. The experimental

design and the results of the differential gene expression analyses and gene set enrichment

tests are summarized in **Figure 9**.

We first turned our attention to the comparison between young adult (6-month-old)

psen1$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+ mutant zebrafish and their wild-type siblings. At this age, gene expression

changes in the mutant fish likely represent early stresses driving the development of fAD in

humans. Gene set enrichment tests in this comparison identify alteration of energy

metabolism-related Hallmark gene sets (e.g. OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION,

GLYCOLYSIS) (**Figure 9B**) which is consistent with a previous analysis of gene ontology

terms with this dataset [53]. In addition, we see enrichment of other gene sets including

FATTY ACID METABOLISM, PI3K AKT MTOR SIGNALLING, MTORC1 SIGNALLING, and

HEME METABOLISM. All of these gene sets which show enrichment in 6-month-old

psen1$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+ mutants relative to wild-type siblings are also enriched in 24-month-old

psen1$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+ mutants relative to their wild-type siblings (**Figure 9B**). This supports that

the biological activities represented in these gene sets are amongst the earliest altered in

this particular fAD mutation model.

In Lumsden et al. [14] we predicted that fAD mutations in the major locus *PSEN1* would

cause an early cellular deficiency of ferrous iron due to the observation of insufficient

acidification of the endolysosomal pathway in in-vitro *PSEN1* mutation studies [54,55]. In

Newman et al. [53] we saw that GO analysis of 6 month old *psen1^(Q96_K97del)*/+ zebrafish brain

supported that lysosomal acidification was affected. Therefore, we decided to apply our IRE

enrichment analysis to test for evidence of iron dyshomeostasis in these fish. The

enrichment of the **all 3' IREs** set in 6-month-old *psen1^(Q96_K97del)*/+ zebrafish brains supports

that iron dyshomeostasis is an important stress in the early stages of fAD (**Figure 10A**).

While almost all pairwise comparisons in the zebrafish dataset show significant enrichment

of at least one IRE gene set (**Figure 10A**), the expression of IRE genes appears to differ in

terms of the proportions of IRE-containing transcripts which show increased versus

decreased abundance (**Figure 10B**). In addition, the Principal Component Analysis plot of

expression of the **all 3' IREs** set over all samples shown in **Figure 10C** suggests that

different conditions appear to have distinct expression patterns of these genes. Across the

first principal component, different age groups (6- and 24-month-old brains) differ in their

expression of predicted 3' IRE genes, while the second principal component appears to

separate *psen1*^(Q96_K97del)/+ mutants from their wild-type siblings. This separation between

psen1^(Q96_K97del)/+ mutants and wild type siblings is even more pronounced when both are

exposed to hypoxia.

To gain more insight into the similarities and differences between the IRE responses in the

psen1^(Q96_K97del)/+ vs. wild type comparison, we plotted UpSet plots of overlapping leading-

edge genes (**Figure 10D**). These plots suggest that the IRE responses during hypoxia,

aging, and due to this fAD-like mutation are mostly distinct from each other with unique

leading-edge genes. However, similarities in the IRE response between different conditions

are suggested by the existence of some shared leading-edge genes. For example, for the

set of **all 3' IREs**, the "*6-month-old psen1^(Q96_K97del)/+ vs. wild type*" comparison shares 19

leading-edge genes with the "*24-month-old psen1$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+ vs. wild type*" comparison. As

an initial exploration of the biological relevance of these genes, we submitted them to the

STRINGR tool. This indicated that the proteins products of these genes were significantly

associated with each other (e.g. in terms of text-mining from PubMed articles, experimentally

determined interactions, and co-expression). These proteins were significantly over-

represented in the sets "MAPK pathway", "AP-1 transcription factor", "Jun-like transcription

factor", and "signaling by TGF-beta family members" (FDR-adjusted over-representation p-

value < 0.05; **Supplementary Figure 5**). The AP-1 and MAPK pathways have previously

been shown to be stimulated by iron depletion [56,57]. Therefore, mechanistically, it is

possible that the IRE-IRP response to iron dyshomeostasis in the fAD-like zebrafish mutant

might involve these pathways, although this requires confirmation *in vivo.*

The fact that aging, hypoxia, and a fAD-like mutation all cause changes in the abundance of

IRE-containing transcripts in zebrafish raised concerns regarding the specificity of such

changes. Therefore, as a negative control, we examined changes in IRE transcript

abundance in a brain transcriptome dataset derived from zebrafish heterozygous for a *psen1*

mutation now thought not to be fAD-like, *psen1^{K97fs}* [58]. In this dataset, *psen1^{K97fs}*/+

zebrafish are compared to their wild type siblings at 6 and 24 months. We tested this dataset

for enrichment using our zebrafish 3' and 5' IRE gene sets but found no significant

enrichment of any of our predicted IRE gene sets in *psen1^{K97fs}*/+ vs. wild type comparisons

at any age (**Table 4**; **Supplementary Figure 6**). Reassuringly, we still observed significant

enrichment of both 3' and 5' IRE gene sets during wild type aging (*24-month-old wild types*

vs. 6-month-old wild types), consistent with the equivalent comparison in the

psen1$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+ dataset. These results support that IRE-containing transcript abundance

changes are sufficiently sensitive to reflect differences in iron homeostasis between different

mutation models.

Simultaneous stabilization of some 3' IRE transcripts and destabilization of others

In the cultured cell line dataset analyzed above, we noticed that even a straightforward iron

deficiency treatment resulted in the simultaneous increase and decrease in expression of 3'

IRE-containing genes. These findings are difficult to reconcile with the current paradigm that

stabilization of 3' IRE-containing genes occurs under iron deficiency and suggest that the

current model of the IRP/IRE system may be incomplete or insufficient for describing the

regulation of non-canonical IREs. Given that many predicted 3' IRE genes with non-

canonical IREs (e.g. in the **all 3' IREs** set) displayed enrichment and different gene

expression patterns in the fAD-like zebrafish dataset, we decided to explore further the

stability changes of these genes by comparing the expression of spliced and unspliced

transcripts for each gene (**Supplementary Text 2**). We found that transcripts of some

predicted 3' IRE genes were significantly increased in stability while others were significantly

decreased in stability (**Supplementary Figure 7**; **Supplementary Table 5**).

Discussion

In this study we identified comprehensive sets of genes predicted to contain IREs in human,

mouse, and zebrafish. Surprisingly, IRE gene sets were generally not well-represented in

existing gene sets, and because of this, we believe they represent a novel resource for

researchers interested in exploring iron dyshomeostasis gene expression responses in

detail. Notably, our finding that IRE genes were most significantly over-represented in an

existing gene set previously shown to be up-regulated in AD brains (the "Blalock Alzheimer's

Disease Up" gene set from MSigDB) supports the unique importance of IRE genes in AD.

Furthermore, IRE gene sets displayed significant enrichment in postmortem brains from a

human AD cohort, 5XFAD mouse model, a zebrafish model of a fAD-like mutation. Taken

together, our results demonstrate for the first time the involvement of a coordinated IRP/IRE-

mediated gene expression response associated with AD.

Overall, IRE gene sets were sensitive enough to capture several interesting phenomena.

The relatively tightly controlled conditions in the mouse and zebrafish model datasets

revealed a strong age-dependent effect on the transcript abundances of these predicted

IRE-containing genes. Notably, 3' IRE gene expression changes were amongst the earliest

changes observable in the zebrafish fAD-like mutation model alongside changes in energy

metabolism. These 3' IRE gene expression changes preceded other signals of pathological

change in the transcriptome (such as altered expression of inflammatory response

pathways) commonly associated with AD. Our findings raise the question of how early IRE

gene expression changes and iron dyshomeostasis more broadly may start to occur in fAD

brains. In a recent analysis of transcriptome data from pools of 7-day-old larvae

heterozygous for the fAD-like mutation $psen1^{Q96\_K97del}$ (compared to wild type half-siblings),

we have observed over-representation of the GO term "iron ion transport" without significant

changes in 3' IRE or 5' IRE transcript abundance [59]. This supports that the 3' IRE

transcript abundance signal in 6-month-old brains of this mutant line reflects changes in

ferrous iron abundance that develop with age in response to an underlying defect in cellular

iron regulation.

In relation to our findings associated with the 5XFAD mouse model, we acknowledge that

the low sample number is a limitation in this analysis and constrains our interpretation of

results from this particular model. Unfortunately, to our knowledge, no other publicly-

available 5XFAD mouse dataset was available containing (1) both young and aged adults in

the same batch (where young is defined as ~2-4 months old mice as this is when the earliest

signs of pathology are observed for this model [60,61]), (2) 5XFAD and WT genotype mice

in the same batch, (3) information about biological sex for each sample (so that sex-specific

effects could be accounted for in the statistical model for differential gene expression), and

(4) separation of groups by biological factors (e.g. age, genotype) rather than unidentifiable

batch effects when inspected with Principal Component Analysis. Our original rationale for

analyzing the 5XFAD mouse model came from results from an independent concordance

analysis from various mouse models and human AD [47]. In that study, it was found that

5XFAD mice brain transcriptomes showed greatest (although still fairly poor) concordance to

human AD compared to other mouse models including the 3xTg model. However, we also

acknowledge the limitations associated with only analyzing the 5XFAD mouse model here,

and note that it would be useful to analyze other mouse models of AD in the future to

compare the involvement of IRE genes across different models. Likewise, we anticipate that

further analysis of fAD-like mutation models in general will help to extend our knowledge of

the early molecular changes contributing to the development of AD.

Notably, both classic IRE genes (e.g. *TFRC*, *FTL*, and *FTH1*) or IRE gene sets were

sufficiently sensitive to distinguish not only between iron overload and deficiency in a

cultured cell line dataset, but also between AD and other neuropathologies (i.e. PA and

PSP). This suggests that the dysregulation of IRE-containing genes and iron homeostasis in

general in AD may differ from other neuropathological conditions. The differences in both

classic IRE genes and IRE gene set expression between AD and PA are of particular

interest. Considering that presence of amyloid pathology is required to diagnose individuals

with AD [62,63] and sufficient for preclinical AD [2], it will be interesting to explore further the

biological relevance and impact of these IRE gene expression differences using other

techniques in future work to gauge whether PA is a prodrome of, or a separate pathological

condition to, AD.

One of our original intentions for IRE gene set analysis of the human AD and animal model

datasets was to gain insight on whether these brains were in a state of iron deficiency or

overload at the gene expression-level. Unfortunately, it became clear that interpretation of

IRE gene expression changes was more complex than expected, both because of the use of

bulk brain tissue samples for the human and animal model datasets (which obscured

differences between cell type and tissue) and because the regulation of IRE-containing

genes we observed did not follow the expected paradigm. To address the former issue, in

future work we would like to expand the use of IRE gene sets to single cell RNA-seq

(scRNA-seq) datasets so that the IRE gene expression patterns of different cell types can be

deconvoluted. Recently, a large-scale scRNA-seq study of AD brains indicated highly cell-

type specific changes related to inflammation during early stages of disease progression

within the prefrontal cortex [64], highlighting the importance of studying iron homeostasis

responses at the single-cell level in the context of AD. The failure of 3' IRE genes to follow

the expected expression paradigm is a limitation that we did not foresee when beginning this

work. Findings indicating that many predicted 3' IRE genes were able to show both

increased and decreased expression under iron deficiency in a cultured cell line (suggesting

they are not stabilized as would be predicted by the IRE paradigm) and the decreased

stability of many 3' IRE transcripts in the fAD-mutation-like zebrafish model are interesting

and challenge the simplistic paradigm of stabilization of 3' IRE-containing transcripts under

ferrous iron deficiency. Previous research holds that under iron deficiency, 3' IRE-containing

genes such *TFRC* are stabilized and hence increased in expression [20] in order to

increase ferrous iron availability. However, our findings reveal that this same principle may

not apply to other 3' IRE-containing genes, including those with canonical IREs (e.g.

SLC11A2 in the cultured cell line), and genes with IRE-like elements deviating from the

canonical IRE sequence. Many of these IRE-like elements are likely to have some

functionality [26–28], and their expression changes in our analyses indicate that they are

associated with AD and able to distinguish AD from other neuropathological conditions (i.e.

PSP and PA). Detailed characterization of these genes and their biological significance is

beyond the scope of this current work. We expect our findings to provide a starting point for

further research involving IRE genes and their regulation beyond the classic paradigm.

It is important to acknowledge that at least some part of the complexity seen with IRE gene

expression may be due to other activities known to influence expression of IRE genes,

including oxidative stress [65–67]), oxidative phosphorylation [68], and cell cycle control

[69,70]. In addition, several transcription factor motifs potentially associated with other

biological pathways were also found in our analysis to be over-represented in IRE gene sets.

These biological activities may be expected to show some alteration in AD, other

neurodegenerative diseases, and during normal aging, which is likely to explain at least

some of the IRE gene set enrichment observed in the datasets analyzed, and potentially

some of the expression changes that are otherwise difficult to explain (e.g. decreased

expression of 3' IRE genes). Changes in expression patterns in predicted IRE genes which

we observed in these datasets must be carefully interpreted as not only reflecting iron

dyshomeostasis responses, but also co-occurring changes in other linked processes. The

overlap between gene expression responses to iron dyshomeostasis and other processes

was particularly evident in our analysis of the Caco-2 cultured cell line dataset where even

straightforward iron overload and iron deficiency treatments resulted in significant

enrichment in gene sets related to the reactive oxygen species pathway and hypoxia. We

expect that future work deconvoluting IRE expression patterns at the cellular level will be

required to determine to what extent IRE expression changes are influenced by cell / tissue

type compared to other linked biological activities.

Most previous work has assumed that accumulation of iron in the brain with age (a

phenomenon observed broadly across animal phyla [71,72]) is indicative of cellular iron

overload driving oxidative stress [73]. Indeed, iron accumulation and oxidative stress

apparently contribute to the insolubility of amyloid plaques and neurofibrillary tangles in AD

brains [74]. However, a recent publication by Yambire et al. [75] showed that disturbed

lysosomal function leading to increased lysosomal pH causes a deficiency of functional

ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) while non-functional ferric iron (Fe^{3+}) accumulated in lysosomes. The

deleterious effects of this on the brains of mice (defective mitochondrial biogenesis and

function and stimulation of inflammatory responses) could be alleviated by increasing the

levels of iron in their diet. The observations of Nixon and colleagues that acidification of the

endolysomal pathway is affected both by fAD mutations in *PSEN1* [54] and excessive

dosage of the amyloid beta A4 precursor protein (*AβPP*) gene [76], together with our

observations from our fAD-mutation-like *psen1*$^{Q96\_K97del}$/+ mutant zebrafish both in this study

and in ref. [53] (where gene expression changes associated with lysosome and mitochondria

for this model were first described), support the possibility that AD brains may suffer a

ferrous iron deficiency in a background of ferric iron overload. This is discussed further

below.

Although the evidence from human AD brains is more tentative at this stage, our findings of

increased expression of *TFRC* expression and other well-characterized 3' IRE genes in the

temporal cortex tissue of human AD brains is consistent with a cellular ferrous iron

deficiency, although more research is required to confirm this at the single-cell level.

Intriguingly, the greatest genetic risk factor for late onset AD, the ε4 allele of the gene *APOE*,

appears to increase lysosomal pH [77] but ε4's increased risk of AD is alleviated in

individuals who possess the *HFE* 282Y allele that predisposes to the iron overload disease

hemochromatosis [78]. Given that many other risk loci for sporadic late onset AD also affect

endolysosomal pathway function (reviewed in [79]) it is reasonable to suggest that disturbed

iron homeostasis may afflict brains with this disease.

The proposal that fAD mutations drive a ferrous iron deficiency that contributes to AD

pathology is not necessarily in disagreement with the experimental data recently reported in

Tsatsanis et al. [80] regarding an association between amyloidogenic processing of AβPP

and impaired export of iron from cells. In that study, the authors extended investigation of

the idea that the protein product of the fAD locus *AβPP* stabilizes the iron exporting protein

ferroportin, providing a connection between *AβPP* and iron homeostasis in AD. The idea that

AβPP interacts with ferroportin has been the subject of some contention [81,82]. Tsatsanis et

al. observed that inhibition of the amyloidogenic cleavage of AβPP by the enzyme β-

secretase in mouse N2a neuroblastoma cells is associated with stabilization of ferroportin on

the cell surface and a reduced, intracellular labile iron pool. However, these authors did not

consider the evidence that the ferroxidase hephaestin, (well established as complexing with,

and stabilizing, ferroportin to export iron [83–85]), is likely also cleaved by β-secretase (see

Figure 7 in [86]). It is probable that reduced β-secretase activity increases the hephaestin

available to stabilize ferroportin.

We have previously noted that all the fAD mutations of AβPP (including gene duplications)

are expected to have the singular quality of increasing the abundance of the amyloidogenic

β-CTF / C99 fragment of AβPP (see Figure 2 in Lumsden et al. [14]). Recently Jiang et al.

[76] showed that increased β-CTF reduces lysosomal acidification. According to the results

of Yambire et al. cited above, this would be expected to reduce cellular ferrous iron levels

(while causing accumulation of ferric iron in lysosomes). This idea is consistent with the

existence of an IRE in the 5' UTR of AβPP transcripts that inhibits AβPP translation (and

hence β-CTF production) when cytosolic ferrous iron levels are low [87]. Thus, AβPP may

influence cellular ferrous iron levels by modulating lysosomal pH to regulate importation of

ferrous iron into the cytosol, rather than by modulating ferroportin stability to regulate iron

export from the cytosol.

Overall, our results demonstrate for the first time the involvement of a coordinated IRP/IRE-

mediated gene expression response in the context of AD. By searching entire human,

mouse, and zebrafish transcriptomes for all genes containing potential IREs, we formed

comprehensive gene sets applicable to the analysis of any human, mouse, or zebrafish

gene expression dataset. For the first time, our work suggests the existence of gene

expression changes associated with the IRP/IRE system in the young, pre-pathology brains

of *PSEN1* fAD mutation carriers, and is consistent with the idea of iron dyshomeostasis as

an early contributor to the disease process. It also reinforces the critical importance of IRE

genes in general in the development of the late onset, sporadic form of AD. More broadly,

our approach highlights how changes in the stability and abundance of IRE-containing

transcripts can be used to give insight into iron dyshomeostasis-associated gene expression

responses in different species, tissues, and conditions.

Methods

Defining IRE gene sets for human, mouse, and zebrafish

We extracted all 3' and 5' UTR sequences from the human, mouse and zebrafish genome

assemblies using the Bioconductor packages BSgenome.Hsapiens.UCSC.hg38,

BSgenome.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10 and BSgenome.Drerio.UCSC.danRer11, and gene

definitions from the Ensembl 94 release. Each set of UTR sequences was then submitted

input into the SIREs web server (v.2.0 [24]). The SIREs algorithm assigns quality scores to

predicted IREs taking into account whether the sequence is canonical, whether it contains

any mismatches and bulges, and the free energy of the secondary structure. Canonical

sequences are tagged by SIREs as being high-quality, while IRE-like sequences are tagged

as low or medium quality. Given that High-quality IRE predictions miss the majority of true

IREs, this enables a more comprehensive sampling of IRE motifs. For human, mouse, and

zebrafish, we separately defined the following four gene sets: *HQ 3' IREs* and *HQ 5' IREs*

(representing genes with high-quality predicted IREs), along with *all 3' IREs* and *all 5' IREs*,

which included genes containing any predicted IRE in the respective UTR. Comparisons

between gene sets were performed using the UpSetR package (v.1.4.0 [88]) with gene ID

mappings between species obtained by BioMart [89].

Over-representation of IRE gene sets in existing MSigDB gene sets

We downloaded the following gene set collections from MSigDB (v.6.0 [35]): Hallmark, C2

(gene sets from online pathway databases and biomedical literature, including KEGG and

the REACTOME databases), C3 (motif gene sets based on regulatory targets), and C5

(gene sets defined by Gene Ontology terms). We excluded the following collections from

analysis: C1 (specific to human chromosomes and cytogenetic bands, while our analysis

involves different species), C4 (computationally-defined cancer-focused gene sets), C6

(oncogenic signatures) and C7 (immunologic signatures). C4, C6, and C7 were not included

as the level of detail in the gene sets in these specific collections is more domain-specific

rather than broad-level. We used Fisher's exact test to determine whether any IRE gene set

was significantly over-represented in each MSigDB gene set. Gene sets were defined as

having significant enrichment for IRE gene sets if the FDR-adjusted p-value from Fisher's

exact test was below 0.05. UpSet plots were produced using the UpSetR package (v.1.4.0

[88]) while network representations were produced in Gephi (v.0.9.3 [90]). To produce

network visualizations, we first exported node and edge tables from R. The nodes table

contained the following gene sets: top 15 gene sets (ranked by Fisher's exact test p-value),

Hallmark Heme Metabolism gene set, **all 3' IREs**, **all 5' IREs**, and all genes contained within

these gene sets. The edges table contained gene – gene set edges which indicated the

gene set(s) that genes belonged to. To create the network plots in Gephi, we used "Force

Atlas 2" as the initial layout algorithm, followed by the "Yifan Hu" [91] layout algorithm to

improve visual separation between distinct groupings of genes.

Over-representation analysis of transcription factor motifs in IRE gene

promoters

Defining promoter regions as being 1500 bp upstream and 200 bp downstream of the

transcription start site for each gene, we used the findMotifs.pl script from HOMER (v.4.11)

[92,93] to search for known transcription factor binding site (TFBS) motifs in the promoters of

each IRE gene set. The HOMER Motif database contains 363 vertebrate transcription factor

binding motifs based on analysis of high-quality public ChIP-seq datasets

(http://homer.ucsd.edu/homer/motif/HomerMotifDB/homerResults.html). We considered

TFBS motifs as being significantly enriched in a gene set if the FDR-adjusted p-value (q-

value provided in HOMER output) was less than 0.05.

Gene set enrichment testing

We performed all gene set enrichment tests in R v3.6.1 [94] using *fry* [37,38], *camera* [39], and *fgsea* [40,41]. For *fry*, and *camera,* we used model fits obtained using *limma* [95,96], whilst for *fgsea*, a ranked list was obtained using *moderated t*-statistics taken from *limma*. All genes were used in gene set enrichment tests (i.e. not just DE genes). We combined the raw *p*-values from *fry, camera*, and *fgsea* using Wilkinson's method [97] with default parameters, followed by FDR-adjustment. When performing gene set enrichment testing on the MSigDB Hallmark gene sets, we applied FDR-adjustment to combined *p*-values and defined significant enrichment as gene sets having an adjusted *p*-value < 0.05. When performing gene set enrichment on the four IRE gene sets (**all 3' IREs**, **all 5' IREs**, **HQ 3' IREs**, **HQ 5' IREs**), we applied Bonferroni-adjustment to combined *p*-values to further protect against Type I errors and defined significant enrichment as gene sets having an adjusted *p*-value < 0.05. Depending on the species in the dataset being analyzed, we used the respective IRE gene sets defined for human, mouse, or zebrafish.

Analysis of the Caco-2 cultured cell line dataset

We downloaded processed microarray data from GEO (accession number: GSE3573). This study investigated gene expression responses to iron treatments, including iron deficiency (cells in iron-free medium vs. cells cultivated in ferric ammonium nitrate, and iron overload (cells cultivated in DMEM-FBS medium with hemin vs. cells in DMEM-FBS medium) [98]. We performed differential gene expression analysis using the "lmFit" and eBayes" functions in *limma* [95]. Genes were defined as differentially expressed when their FDR-adjusted *p*-value < 0.05.

Analysis of the Mayo Clinic RNA-seq dataset

No experiments of human subjects were performed in this study as all human data was accessed from public databases and was anonymous. We downloaded processed CPM count data from Synapse (https://www.synapse.org/#!Synapse:syn5550404). We matched cerebellum and temporal cortex samples by their patient ID, and only retained genes which were present across all samples and patients for which there were both cerebellum and temporal cortex samples (n=236 patients with measurements for cerebellum and temporal cortex, 472 samples in total). We performed analysis using *limma* [95,96] and determined differentially expressed genes between conditions. In addition, we used the "duplicateCorrelation" function in *limma*, setting the "block" parameter to the patient ID. Genes were considered differentially expressed if their FDR-adjusted *p*-value < 0.05.

Zebrafish husbandry and animal ethics

All zebrafish work was conducted under the auspices of the Animal Ethics Committee (permit numbers S-2017-089 and S-2017-073) and the Institutional Biosafety Committee of the University of Adelaide. Tübingen strain zebrafish were maintained in a recirculated water system.

fAD-like *psen1*^{Q96_K97del/+} zebrafish

The isolation of the *psen1*^{Q96_K97del} mutation has previously been described [53]. Mutations were only analyzed in the heterozygous state in this study.

Acute hypoxia treatment of zebrafish

764　*psen1*^{Q96_K97del/+} mutants and their wild-type siblings were treated in low oxygen levels by

765　placing zebrafish in oxygen-depleted water for 3 hours (oxygen concentration of 6.6 ± 0.2

766　mg/L in normoxia and 0.6 ± 0.2 mg/L in hypoxia.

768　Whole brain removal from adult zebrafish

769　After normoxia or hypoxia treatment adult fish were euthanized by sudden immersion in an

770　ice water slurry for at least ~30 seconds before decapitation and removal of the entire brain

771　for immediate RNA or protein extraction. All fish brains were removed during late

772　morning/noon to minimize any influence of circadian rhythms.

774　RNA extraction from whole brain

Total RNA was isolated from heterozygous mutant and WT siblings using the *mir*Vana

miRNA isolation kit (Thermo Fisher). RNA isolation was performed according to the

manufacturer's protocol. First a brain was lysed in a denaturing lysis solution. The lysate

was then extracted once with acid-phenol:chloroform leaving a semi-pure RNA sample. The

sample was then purified further over a glass-fiber filter to yield total RNA. Total RNA was

DNase treated using the DNA-free™ Kit from Ambion, Life Technologies according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA was then sent to the Genomics Facility at the South

Australian Health and Medical Research Institute (Adelaide, Australia) to assess RNA quality

and for subsequent RNA sequencing *(using poly-A enriched RNA-seq technology, and*

estimated gene expression from the resulting single-end 75 bp reads using the reference

GRCz11 zebrafish assembly transcriptome)

Pre-processing of the fAD-like *psen1*^{Q96_K97del/+} zebrafish dataset:

RNA-seq libraries contained single-end 75bp Illumina NextSeq reads. We performed quality

trimming with *AdapterRemoval* using default parameters, followed by quality assessment

with FastQC and ngsReports. Trimmed reads were pseudo-aligned to the reference

zebrafish transcriptome using *Kallisto* (v.0.45) [99] and transcript descriptions from Ensembl

release 94. The "catchKallisto" function from *edgeR* [100] was used to import and

summarise counts from transcript-level to gene-level, with all subsequent analyses

performed at the gene-level.

Differential gene expression analysis for fAD-like zebrafish dataset

For differential gene expression analysis, we retained all genes with expression of at least 1

cpm in 4 or more samples, and used voomWithQualityWeights to downweight lower quality

samples [96]. Contrasts were defined to include all relevant pairwise comparisons between

conditions, and genes were considered as differentially expressed using an FDR-adjusted *p*-

value < 0.05. The *limma* model used to create the design matrix for this dataset included

biological sex as a variable (~0 + biologicalSex + group, where biologicalSex is either male

or female and group refers to the combination of age, hypoxia treatment, and genotype of

the samples) to minimize any sex-specific effects in the gene expression analysis. More

details regarding the modest effects of biological sex in this dataset are provided in

Supplementary Text 3.

Estimation of spliced and unspliced gene expression in fAD-like zebrafish dataset

For spliced transcripts in Ensembl release 94, we additionally defined unspliced genes

including intronic regions. Unspliced transcripts were appended to the end of the reference

transcriptome and used to build a new Kallisto [99] index. Estimated counts for spliced

transcripts and unspliced genes were imported into R using the "catchKallisto" function from

edgeR [100].

815 Gene set enrichment tests for non-fAD-like (K97fs/+) zebrafish dataset

Please refer to ref. [53] for details on RNA-seq data processing and analysis of the non-fAD-

like dataset. In the current work, we used the gene expression counts matrix with *limma*. The

voom, design, and contrasts objects produced as part of the *limma* analysis were used for

gene set enrichment analysis with the zebrafish IRE gene sets we defined as well as the

MSigDB Hallmark gene sets. Significantly enriched Hallmark gene sets had FDR-adjusted p-

value < 0.05 while IRE gene sets were considered significantly enriched if the Bonferroni-

adjusted p-value < 0.05.

824 Gene set enrichment tests for 7-day-old Q96_K97del/+ dataset

Please refer to ref. [59] (GEO accession: GSE148631) for details on RNA-seq data

processing and analysis. In the current work, we used the gene expression counts matrix

with *limma* to perform gene set enrichment analysis. IRE gene sets we defined as well as

the MSigDB Hallmark gene sets. Significantly enriched Hallmark gene sets had FDR-

adjusted p-value < 0.05 while IRE gene sets were considered significantly enriched if the

Bonferroni-adjusted p-value < 0.05.

832 Differential transcript stability analysis

The estimated spliced and unspliced transcript count estimates from *kallisto* [99] were

imported into R using the catchKallisto function from *edgeR* [100]. We used *limma* [95] to

determine the logFC of spliced transcripts and unspliced transcripts for each comparison. To

test for whether there was a significant difference in the logFC of the spliced and unspliced

transcripts, we used Welch's *t*-test with the *s2.prior* values from *limma* as the variances of

the spliced and unspliced transcripts. We defined the null (no stabilization of transcript) and

alternate (stabilization of transcript) hypotheses for each gene as follows, where s and u

refer to the spliced and unspliced versions of a particular gene:

$$H_0: \ \mathrm{logFC_s} = \mathrm{logFC_u}$$

$$H_a: \ \mathrm{logFC_s} \neq \mathrm{logFC_u}$$

We defined genes with FDR-adjusted *p*-values < 0.05 as having differential stability.

Checks that observed gene expression differences are not artifacts of

differences in proportions of cell types

The Mayo Clinic RNA-seq study, 5XFAD mice, and fAD-like zebrafish datasets are bulk

RNA-seq datasets. To confirm that any gene expression changes were likely due to altered

transcriptional programs rather than changes in cell type proportions, we compared

expression of marker genes for four common neural cell types (astrocytes, neurons,

oligodendrocytes, microglia) in conditions within each dataset. The marker genes for

astrocytes, neurons, and oligodendrocytes were obtained from MSigDB gene sets from [101]

which were based on studies in mice. The marker genes for microglia were derived from

[102] which was based on studies in human and mouse. All gene IDs were converted to

human, mouse, or zebrafish Ensembl IDs using BioMart [89] for each dataset. Please refer

to **Supplementary Text 4** and **Supplementary Figures 8-10** for details.

859
860
861
862

Declarations

Acknowledgements and Funding

The authors thank the Carthew Family and Prof. David Adelson for their encouragement and helpful discussions. This work was financially supported by grants GNT1061006 and GNT1126422 from the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia (NHMRC) and by funds from the Carthew Family Charity Trust. Lead author NH was supported by an Australian Government Research Training Program Scholarship and by the South Australian Genomics Centre after graduation. Co-author MN was supported by funds from the grants listed above. Joint senior co-authors SP and ML were/are academic employees of the University of Adelaide respectively. The authors also thank the University of Adelaide's Phoenix HPC team for providing supercomputing resources for this work.

Conflict of Interest / Disclosure Statement

The authors have no conflict of interest to report.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

No experiments of human subjects were performed in this study as all human data was accessed from public databases and was anonymous. All zebrafish work was conducted under the auspices of the Animal Ethics Committee (permit numbers S-2017-089 and S-2017-073) and the Institutional Biosafety Committee of the University of Adelaide.

Consent for publication

All authors give consent for publication of the manuscript.

Datasets and Data Articles

The fAD-like zebrafish dataset supporting the conclusions of this article is available in the GEO repository with accession number GSE149149.

Authors' contributions

NH performed the bioinformatics analysis and drafted the manuscript. MN generated the mutant zebrafish, isolated brain RNA and protein, drafted the description of this and edited the manuscript. SP directly supervised NH, guided the analysis, and edited the manuscript. ML conceived the project, supervised all aspects of it, and edited the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

References

[1] Jack CR, Bennett DA, Blennow K, Carrillo MC, Dunn B, Haeberlein SB, Holtzman DM, Jagust W, Jessen F, Karlawish J, Liu E, Molinuevo JL, Montine T, Phelps C, Rankin KP, Rowe CC, Scheltens P, Siemers E, Snyder HM, Sperling R, Elliott C, Masliah E, Ryan L, Silverberg N (2018) NIA-AA Research Framework: Toward a biological definition of Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's Dement* **14**, 535–562.

[2] Sperling RA, Aisen PS, Beckett LA, Bennett DA, Craft S, Fagan AM, Iwatsubo T, Jack CR, Kaye J, Montine TJ, Park DC, Reiman EM, Rowe CC, Siemers E, Stern Y, Yaffe K, Carrillo MC, Thies B, Morrison-Bogorad M, Wagster M V., Phelps CH (2011) Toward defining the preclinical stages of Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's Dement* **7**, 280–292.

[3] Bartzokis G, Sultzer D, Mintz J, Holt LE, Marx P, Kelly Phelan C, Marder SR (1994) In vivo evaluation of brain iron in Alzheimer's disease and normal subjects using MRI. *Biol Psychiatry* **35**, 480–487.

[4] Bartzokis G, Tishler TA (2000) MRI evaluation of basal ganglia ferritin iron and neurotoxicity in Alzheimer's and Huntingon's disease. *Cell Mol Biol (Noisy-le-grand)* **46**, 821–833.

[5] Ding B, Chen KM, Ling HW, Sun F, Li X, Wan T, Chai WM, Zhang H, Zhan Y, Guan YJ (2009) Correlation of iron in the hippocampus with MMSE in patients with alzheimer's disease. *J Magn Reson Imaging* **29**, 793–798.

[6]   Langkammer C, Ropele S, Pirpamer L, Fazekas F, Schmidt R (2014) MRI for

iron mapping in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurodegener Dis* **13**, 189–191.

[7]   Van Duijn S, Bulk M, Van Duinen SG, Nabuurs RJA, Van Buchem MA, Van

Der Weerd L, Natté R (2017) Cortical Iron Reflects Severity of Alzheimer's

Disease. *J Alzheimer's Dis* **60**, 1533–1545.

[8]   Mills E, Dong XP, Wang F, Xu H (2010) Mechanisms of brain iron transport:

Insight into neurodegeneration and CNS disorders. *Future Med Chem* **2**, 51–

64.

[9]   Yamamoto A, Shin R-W, Hasegawa K, Naiki H, Sato H, Yoshimasu F,

Kitamoto T (2004) Iron (III) induces aggregation of hyperphosphorylated τ and

its reduction to iron (II) reverses the aggregation: implications in the formation

of neurofibrillary tangles of Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurochem* **82**, 1137–1147.

[10] Telling ND, Everett J, Collingwood JF, Dobson J, van der Laan G, Gallagher

JJ, Wang J, Hitchcock AP (2017) Iron Biochemistry is Correlated with Amyloid

Plaque Morphology in an Established Mouse Model of Alzheimer's Disease.

Cell Chem Biol **24**, 1205-1215.e3.

[11] Leskovjan AC, Kretlow A, Lanzirotti A, Barrea R, Vogt S, Miller LM (2011)

Increased brain iron coincides with early plaque formation in a mouse model of

Alzheimer's disease. *Neuroimage* **55**, 32–38.

[12] Gong NJ, Dibb R, Bulk M, van der Weerd L, Liu C (2019) Imaging beta

amyloid aggregation and iron accumulation in Alzheimer's disease using

quantitative susceptibility mapping MRI. *Neuroimage* **191**, 176–185.

[13] El Tannir El Tayara N, Delatour B, Le Cudennec C, Guégan M, Volk A,

Dhenain M (2006) Age-related evolution of amyloid burden, iron load, and MR

relaxation times in a transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer's disease.

Neurobiol Dis **22**, 199–208.

[14]   Lumsden AL, Rogers JT, Majd S, Newman M, Sutherland GT, Verdile G,

Lardelli M (2018) Dysregulation of neuronal iron homeostasis as an alternative

unifying effect of mutations causing familial alzheimer's disease. *Front*

Neurosci **12**, 533.

[15]   Lane DJR, Merlot AM, Huang MLH, Bae DH, Jansson PJ, Sahni S, Kalinowski

DS, Richardson DR (2015) Cellular iron uptake, trafficking and metabolism:

Key molecules and mechanisms and their roles in disease. *Biochim Biophys*

Acta - Mol Cell Res **1853**, 1130–1144.

[16]   Gray NK, Hentze MW (1994) Iron regulatory protein prevents binding of the

43S translation pre-initiation complex to ferritin and eALAS mRNAs. *EMBO J*

13, 3882–3891.

[17]   Hentze MW, Muckenthaler MU, Andrews NC (2004) Balancing acts: Molecular

control of mammalian iron metabolism. *Cell* **117**, 285–297.

[18]   Muckenthaler MU, Galy B, Hentze MW (2008) Systemic Iron Homeostasis and

the Iron-Responsive Element/Iron-Regulatory Protein (IRE/IRP) Regulatory

Network. *Annu Rev Nutr* **28**, 197–213.

[19]   Basilion JP, Rouault TA, Massinople CM, Klausner RD, Burgesst WH (1994)

The iron-responsive element-binding protein: Localization of the RNA-binding

site to the aconitase active-site cleft (UV cross-linking/base hydrolysis).

Biochemistry **91**, 574–578.

[20]   Pantopoulos K (2004) Iron metabolism and the IRE/IRP regulatory system: An

update. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **1012**, 1–13.

[21]   Piccinelli P, Samuelsson T (2007) Evolution of the iron-responsive element.

974   *RNA* **13**, 952–966.

975   [22]   Gunshin H, Allerson CR, Polycarpou-Schwarz M, Rofts A, Rogers JT, Kishi F,

976   Hentze MW, Rouault TA, Andrews NC, Hediger MA (2001) Iron-dependent

977   regulation of the divalent metal ion transporter. *FEBS Lett* **509**, 309–316.

978   [23]   Cmejla R, Petrak J, Cmejlova J (2006) A novel iron responsive element in the

979   3′UTR of human MRCKα. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **341**, 158–166.

980   [24]   Campillos M, Cases I, Hentze MW, Sanchez M (2010) SIREs: searching for

981   iron-responsive elements. *Nucleic Acids Res* **38**, W360-367.

982   [25]   Goforth JB, Anderson SA, Nizzi CP, Eisenstein RS (2010) Multiple

983   determinants within iron-responsive elements dictate iron regulatory protein

984   binding and regulatory hierarchy. *RNA* **16**, 154–169.

985   [26]   Henderson BR, Menotti E, Kühn LC (1996) Iron regulatory proteins 1 and 2

986   bind distinct sets of RNA target sequences. *J Biol Chem* **271**, 4900–4908.

987   [27]   Henderson BR, Menotti E, Bonnard C, Kuhn LC (1994) Optimal sequence and

988   structure of iron-responsive elements. Selection of RNA stem-loops with high

989   affinity for iron regulatory factor. *J Biol Chem* **269**, 17481–17489.

990   [28]   Butt J, Kim HY, Basilion JP, Cohen S, Iwai K, Philpott CC, Altschul S, Klausner

991   RD, Rouault TA (1996) Differences in the RNA binding sites of iron regulatory

992   proteins and potential target diversity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **93**, 4345–

993   4349.

994   [29]   Surinya KH, Cox TC, May BK (1998) Identification and characterization of a

995   conserved erythroid-specific enhancer located in intron 8 of the human 5-

996   aminolevulinate synthase 2 gene. *J Biol Chem* **273**, 16798–16809.

[30]   Theil EC (1990) Regulation of ferritin and transferrin receptor mRNAs. *J Biol*

Chem **265**, 4771–4774.

[31]   Sanchez M, Galy B, Dandekar T, Bengert P, Vainshtein Y, Stolte J,

Muckenthaler MU, Hentze MW (2006) Iron regulation and the cell cycle:

Identification of an iron-responsive element in the 3′-untranslated region of

human cell division cycle 14A mRNA by a refined microarray-based screening

strategy. *J Biol Chem* **281**, 22865–22874.

[32]   Cmejla R, Ptackova P, Petrak J, Savvulidi F, Cerny J, Sebesta O, Vyoral D

(2010) Human MRCKα is regulated by cellular iron levels and interferes with

transferrin iron uptake. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **395**, 163–167.

[33]   Lymboussaki A, Pignatti E, Montosi G, Garuti C, Haile DJ, Pietrangelo A

(2003) The role of the iron responsive element in the control of

ferroportin1/IREG1/MTP1 gene expression. *J Hepatol* **39**, 710–715.

[34]   Aziz N, Munro HN (1987) Iron regulates ferritin mRNA translation through a

segment of its 5' untranslated region. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **84**, 8478–

8482.

[35]   Liberzon A, Subramanian A, Pinchback R, Thorvaldsdóttir H, Tamayo P,

Mesirov JP, Bateman A (2011) Databases and ontologies Molecular

signatures database (MSigDB) 3.0. *Bioinformatics* **27**, 1739–1740.

[36]   Alhamdoosh M, Law CW, Tian L, Sheridan JM, Ng M, Ritchie ME (2017) Easy

and efficient ensemble gene set testing with EGSEA. *F1000Research* **6**, 2010.

[37]   Wu D, Lim E, Vaillant F, Asselin-Labat M-L, Visvader JE, Smyth GK (2010)

ROAST: rotation gene set tests for complex microarray experiments.

Bioinformatics **26**, 2176–2182.

[38] Giner G, Smyth GK, Giner G, Smyth GK (2016) <p>FRY: a fast approximation

to ROAST gene set test with mean aggregated set statistics</p>.

F1000Research **5**,.

[39] Wu D, Smyth GK (2012) Camera: a competitive gene set test accounting for

inter-gene correlation. *Nucleic Acids Res* **40**, e133.

[40] Sergushichev AA (2016) An algorithm for fast preranked gene set enrichment

analysis using cumulative statistic calculation. *bioRxiv* 060012.

[41] Subramanian A, Tamayo P, Mootha VK, Mukherjee S, Ebert BL, Gillette MA,

Paulovich A, Pomeroy SL, Golub TR, Lander ES, Mesirov JP (2005) Gene set

enrichment analysis: A knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-

wide expression profiles. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **102**, 15545–15550.

[42] Allen M, Carrasquillo MM, Funk C, Heavner BD, Zou F, Younkin CS, Burgess

JD, Chai HS, Crook J, Eddy JA, Li H, Logsdon B, Peters MA, Dang KK, Wang

X, Serie D, Wang C, Nguyen T, Lincoln S, Malphrus K, Bisceglio G, Li M,

Golde TE, Mangravite LM, Asmann Y, Price ND, Petersen RC, Graff-Radford

NR, Dickson DW, Younkin SG, Ertekin-Taner N (2016) Human whole genome

genotype and transcriptome data for Alzheimer's and other neurodegenerative

diseases. *Sci Data* **3**, 1–10.

[43] Ossenkoppele R, Van Berckel BN, Prins ND (2011) Amyloid imaging in

prodromal Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's Res Ther* **3**, 26.

[44] Protas HD, Chen K, Langbaum JBS, Fleisher AS, Alexander GE, Lee W,

Bandy D, De Leon MJ, Mosconi L, Buckley S, Truran-Sacrey D, Schuff N,

Weiner MW, Caselli RJ, Reiman EM (2013) Posterior cingulate glucose

metabolism, hippocampal glucose metabolism, and hippocampal volume in

cognitively normal, late-middle-aged persons at 3 levels of genetic risk for

alzheimer disease. *JAMA Neurol* **70**, 320–325.

[45]   Caldwell CC, Yao J, Brinton RD (2015) Targeting the Prodromal Stage of

Alzheimer's Disease: Bioenergetic and Mitochondrial Opportunities.

Neurotherapeutics **12**, 66–80.

[46]   Vermunt L, Sikkes SAM, van den Hout A, Handels R, Bos I, van der Flier WM,

Kern S, Ousset PJ, Maruff P, Skoog I, Verhey FRJ, Freund-Levi Y, Tsolaki M,

Wallin ÅK, Olde Rikkert M, Soininen H, Spiru L, Zetterberg H, Blennow K,

Scheltens P, Muniz-Terrera G, Visser PJ, Vellas B, Reynish E, Ousset PJ,

Andrieu S, Burns A, Pasquier F, Frisoni G, Salmon E, Michel JP, Zekry DS,

Boada M, Dartigues JF, Olde-Rikkert MGM, Rigaud AS, Winblad B, Malick A,

Sinclair A, Frölich L, Scheltens P, Ribera C, Touchon J, Robert P, Salva A,

Waldemar G, Bullock R, Tsolaki M, Rodriguez G, Spiru L, Jones RW, Stiens

G, Stoppe G, Eriksdotter Jönhagen M, Cherubini A, Lage PM, Gomez-Isla T,

Camus V, Agüera-Morales E, Lopez F, Savy S, Cantet C, Coley N (2019)

Duration of preclinical, prodromal, and dementia stages of Alzheimer's disease

in relation to age, sex, and APOE genotype. *Alzheimer's Dement* **15**, 888–898.

[47]   Hargis KE, Blalock EM (2017) Transcriptional signatures of brain aging and

Alzheimer's disease: What are our rodent models telling us? *Behav Brain Res*

322, 311–328.

[48]   Bundy JL, Vied C, Badger C, Nowakowski RS (2019) Sex-biased hippocampal

pathology in the 5XFAD mouse model of Alzheimer's disease: A multi-omic

analysis. *J Comp Neurol* **527**, 462–475.

[49]   Drummond E, Wisniewski T (2017) Alzheimer's disease: experimental models

and reality. *Acta Neuropathol* **133**, 155–175.

[50]   Xia D, Watanabe H, Wu B, Lee SH, Li Y, Tsvetkov E, Bolshakov VY, Shen J,

1071   Kelleher RJ (2015) Presenilin-1 knockin mice reveal loss-of-function

1072   mechanism for familial alzheimer's disease. *Neuron* **85**, 967–981.

1073   [51]   Saito T, Matsuba Y, Mihira N, Takano J, Nilsson P, Itohara S, Iwata N, Saido

1074   TC (2014) Single App knock-in mouse models of Alzheimer's disease. *Nat*

1075   *Neurosci* **17**, 661–663.

1076   [52]   Serneels L, T'Syen D, Perez-Benito L, Theys T, Holt MG, De Strooper B

1077   (2020) Modeling the β-secretase cleavage site and humanizing amyloid-beta

1078   precursor protein in rat and mouse to study Alzheimer's disease. *Mol*

1079   *Neurodegener* **15**, 60.

1080   [53]   Newman M, Hin N, Pederson S, Lardelli M (2019) Brain transcriptome analysis

1081   of a familial Alzheimer's disease-like mutation in the zebrafish presenilin 1

1082   gene implies effects on energy production. *Mol Brain* **12**, 43.

1083   [54]   Lee JH, Yu WH, Kumar A, Lee S, Mohan PS, Peterhoff CM, Wolfe DM,

1084   Martinez-Vicente M, Massey AC, Sovak G, Uchiyama Y, Westaway D, Cuervo

1085   AM, Nixon RA (2010) Lysosomal proteolysis and autophagy require presenilin

1086   1 and are disrupted by Alzheimer-related PS1 mutations. *Cell* **141**, 1146–1158.

1087   [55]   Lee JH, McBrayer MK, Wolfe DM, Haslett LJ, Kumar A, Sato Y, Lie PPY,

1088   Mohan P, Coffey EE, Kompella U, Mitchell CH, Lloyd-Evans E, Nixon RA

1089   (2015) Presenilin 1 Maintains Lysosomal Ca2+ Homeostasis via TRPML1 by

1090   Regulating vATPase-Mediated Lysosome Acidification. *Cell Rep* **12**, 1430–

1091   1444.

[56]   Yu Y, Richardson DR (2011) Cellular iron depletion stimulates the JNK and

p38 MAPK signaling transduction pathways, dissociation of ASK1-thioredoxin,

and activation of ASK1. *J Biol Chem* **286**, 15413–15427.

[57]   Riera H, Afonso V, Collin P, Lomri A (2015) A Central Role for JNK/AP-1

Pathway in the Pro-Oxidant Effect of Pyrrolidine Dithiocarbamate through

Superoxide Dismutase 1 Gene Repression and Reactive Oxygen Species

Generation in Hematopoietic Human Cancer Cell Line U937. *PLoS One* **10**,

e0127571.

[58]   Hin N, Newman M, Kaslin J, Douek AM, Lumsden A, Nik SHM, Dong Y, Zhou

XF, Manucat-Tan NB, Ludington A, Adelson DL, Pederson S, Lardelli M (2020)

Accelerated brain aging towards transcriptional inversion in a zebrafish model

of the K115fs mutation of human PSEN2. *PLoS One* **15**, e0227258.

[59]   Dong Y, Newman M, Pederson S, Hin N, Lardelli M (2020) Transcriptome

analyses of 7-day-old zebrafish larvae possessing a familial Alzheimer's

disease-like mutation in psen1 indicate effects on oxidative phosphorylation,

mcm functions, and iron homeostasis. *bioRxiv* 2020.05.03.075424.

[60]   Oakley H, Cole SL, Logan S, Maus E, Shao P, Craft J, Guillozet-Bongaarts A,

Ohno M, Disterhoft J, Van Eldik L, Berry R, Vassar R (2006) Intraneuronal

beta-amyloid aggregates, neurodegeneration, and neuron loss in transgenic

mice with five familial Alzheimer's disease mutations: potential factors in

amyloid plaque formation. *J Neurosci* **26**, 10129–10140.

[61]   Landel V, Baranger K, Virard I, Loriod B, Khrestchatisky M, Rivera S, Benech

P, Féron F (2014) Temporal gene profiling of the 5XFAD transgenic mouse

model highlights the importance of microglial activation in Alzheimer's disease.

Mol Neurodegener **9**,.

[62]   Deture MA, Dickson DW (2019) The neuropathological diagnosis of

Alzheimer's disease. *Mol Neurodegener* **14**, 1–18.

[63]   Jack CR, Albert MS, Knopman DS, McKhann GM, Sperling RA, Carrillo MC,

Thies B, Phelps CH (2011) Introduction to the recommendations from the

National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic

guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's Dement* **7**, 257–262.

[64]   Mathys H, Davila-Velderrain J, Peng Z, Gao F, Mohammadi S, Young JZ,

Menon M, He L, Abdurrob F, Jiang X, Martorell AJ, Ransohoff RM, Hafler BP,

Bennett DA, Kellis M, Tsai LH (2019) Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of

Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* **570**, 332–337.

[65]   Martins EAL, Robalinho RL, Meneghini R (1995) Oxidative stress induces

activation of a cytosolic protein responsible for control of iron uptake. *Arch*

Biochem Biophys **316**, 128–134.

[66]   Pantopoulos K, Hentze MW (1995) Rapid responses to oxidative stress

mediated by iron regulatory protein. *EMBO J* **14**, 2917–2924.

[67]   Yang L, Wang D, Wang X ting, Lu Y peng, Zhu L (2018) The roles of hypoxia-

inducible Factor-1 and iron regulatory protein 1 in iron uptake induced by acute

hypoxia. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **507**, 128–135.

[68]   Popovic Z, Templeton DM (2007) Inhibition of an iron-responsive element/iron

regulatory protein-1 complex by ATP binding and hydrolysis. *FEBS J* **274**,

3108–3119.

[69]   Yu Y, Kovacevic Z, Richardson DR (2007) Tuning cell cycle regulation with an

iron key. *Cell Cycle* **6**, 1982–1994.

[70]   Fu D, Richardson DR (2007) Iron chelation and regulation of the cell cycle: 2

Mechanisms of posttranscriptional regulation of the universal cyclin-dependent

kinase inhibitor p21CIP1/WAF1 by iron depletion. *Blood* **110**, 752–761.

[71]   Zecca L, Youdim MBH, Riederer P, Connor JR, Crichton RR, Stankowski JN,

Dawson VL, Dawson TM, Kawamoto M, Horibe T, Kohno M, Kawakami K,

Duce JA, Tsatsanis A, Cater MA, James SA, Robb E, Wikhe K, Leong SL,

Perez K, Johanssen T, Mark A, Cho H-H, Galatis D, Moir RD, Masters CL,

McLean C, Tanzi RE, Cappai R, Barnham KJ, Ciccotosto D, Rogers JT, Bush

AI, Greenough M a, Cho H-H, Galatis D, Moir RD, Masters CL, McLean C,

Tanzi RE, Cappai R, Barnham KJ, Ciccotosto GD, Rogers JT, Bush AI, De

Domenico I, McVey Ward D, Kaplan J (2011) Iron-export ferroxidase activity of

β-amyloid precursor protein is inhibited by zinc in Alzheimer's disease. *Cell*

142, 359.

[72]   Jacomin A-C, Geraki K, Brooks J, Tjendana-Tjhin V, Collingwood JF, Nezis IP

(2019) Impact of Autophagy and Aging on Iron Load and Ferritin in Drosophila

Brain. *Front Cell Dev Biol* **7**, 142.

[73]   Ayton S, Lei P, Bush AI (2013) Metallostasis in Alzheimer's disease. *Free*

Radic Biol Med **62**, 76–89.

[74]   Smith MA, Harris PLR, Sayre LM, Perry G (1997) Iron accumulation in

Alzheimer disease is a source of redox-generated free radicals. *Proc Natl*

Acad Sci U S A **94**, 9866–9868.

[75]   Yambire KF, Rostosky C, Watanabe T, Pacheu-Grau D, Torres-Odio S,

Sanchez-Guerrero A, Senderovich O, Meyron-Holtz EG, Milosevic I, Frahm J,

Phillip West A, Raimundo N (2019) Impaired lysosomal acidification triggers

iron deficiency and inflammation in vivo. *Elife* **8**,.

[76] Jiang Y, Sato Y, Im E, Berg M, Bordi M, Darji S, Kumar A, Mohan PS,

Bandyopadhyay U, Diaz A, Cuervo AM, Nixon RA (2019) Lysosomal

dysfunction in down syndrome is app-dependent and mediated by APP-βCTF

(c99). *J Neurosci* **39**, 5255–5268.

[77] Prasad H, Rao R (2018) Amyloid clearance defect in ApoE4 astrocytes is

reversed by epigenetic correction of endosomal pH. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*

115, E6640–E6649.

[78] Tisato V, Zuliani G, Vigliano M, Longo G, Franchini E, Secchiero P, Zauli G,

Paraboschi EM, Singh AV, Serino ML, Ortolani B, Zurlo A, Bosi C, Greco A,

Seripa D, Asselta R, Gemmati D, Vikram Singh A, Serino ML, Ortolani B, Zurlo

A, Bosi C, Greco A, Seripa D, Asselta R, Gemmati D (2018) Gene-gene

interactions among coding genes of iron-homeostasis proteins and APOE-

alleles in cognitive impairment diseases. *PLoS One* **13**, e0193867.

[79] Van Acker ZP, Bretou M, Annaert W (2019) Endo-lysosomal dysregulations

and late-onset Alzheimer's disease: Impact of genetic risk factors. *Mol*

Neurodegener **14**, 1–20.

[80] Tsatsanis A, Wong BX, Gunn AP, Ayton S, Bush AI, Devos D, Duce JA (2020)

Amyloidogenic processing of Alzheimer's disease β-amyloid precursor protein

induces cellular iron retention. *Mol Psychiatry* 1–9.

[81] Dlouhy AC, Bailey DK, Steimle BL, Parker H V., Kosman DJ (2019)

Fluorescence resonance energy transfer links membrane ferroportin,

hephaestin but not ferroportin, amyloid precursor protein complex with iron

efflux. *J Biol Chem* **294**, 4202–4214.

[82] Lahiri DK, Maloney B, Wang R (2019) APPealing for a role in cellular iron

efflux. *J Biol Chem* **294**, 9365.

[83]   Yeh K, Yeh M, Glass J (2011) Interactions between ferroportin and hephaestin

in rat enterocytes are reduced after iron ingestion. *Gastroenterology* **141**, 292-

299.e1.

[84]   Yeh K, Yeh M, Mims L, Glass J (2009) Iron feeding induces ferroportin 1 and

hephaestin migration and interaction in rat duodenal epithelium. *Am J Physiol

Liver Physiol* **296**, G55–G65.

[85]   Han O, Kim E-Y (2007) Colocalization of ferroportin-1 with hephaestin on the

basolateral membrane of human intestinal absorptive cells. *J Cell Biochem*

101, 1000–1010.

[86]   Pigoni M, Wanngren J, Kuhn PH, Munro KM, Gunnersen JM, Takeshima H,

Feederle R, Voytyuk I, De Strooper B, Levasseur MD, Hrupka BJ, Müller SA,

Lichtenthaler SF (2016) Seizure protein 6 and its homolog seizure 6-like

protein are physiological substrates of BACE1 in neurons. *Mol Neurodegener*

11, 1–18.

[87]   Rogers JT, Randall JD, Cahill CM, Eder PS, Huang X, Gunshin H, Leiter L,

McPhee J, Sarang SS, Utsuki T, Greig NH, Lahiri DK, Tanzi RE, Bush AI,

Giordano T, Gullans SR (2002) An iron-responsive element type II in the 5′-

untranslated region of the Alzheimer's amyloid precursor protein transcript. *J

Biol Chem* **277**, 45518–45528.

[88]   Conway JR, Lex A, Gehlenborg N UpSetR: an R package for the visualization

of intersecting sets and their properties. *Bioinformatics*.

[89]   Smedley D, Haider S, Ballester B, Holland R, London D, Thorisson G,

Kasprzyk A (2009) BioMart - Biological queries made easy. *BMC Genomics*

10, 22.

[90]   Bastian M, Heymann S, Jacomy M (2009) Gephi: An Open Source Software

for Exploring and Manipulating Networks Visualization and Exploration of

Large Graphs. *Third Int AAAI Conf Weblogs Soc Media*.

[91]   Hu Y (2011) *Algorithms for Visualizing Large Networks*.

[92]   Benner C HOMER (Hypergeometric Optimization of Motif EnRichment).

[93]   Heinz S, Benner C, Spann N, Bertolino E, Lin YC, Laslo P, Cheng JX, Murre

C, Singh H, Glass CK (2010) Simple Combinations of Lineage-Determining

Transcription Factors Prime cis-Regulatory Elements Required for

Macrophage and B Cell Identities. *Mol Cell* **38**, 576–589.

[94]   Team RC (2018) R: A language and environment for statistical computing.

[95]   Ritchie ME, Phipson B, Wu D, Hu Y, Law CW, Shi W, Smyth GK (2015) Limma

powers differential expression analyses for RNA-sequencing and microarray

studies. *Nucleic Acids Res* **43**, e47.

[96]   Law CW, Chen Y, Shi W, Smyth GK (2014) Voom: Precision weights unlock

linear model analysis tools for RNA-seq read counts. *Genome Biol* **15**,.

[97]   Wilkinson B (1951) A statistical consideration in psychological research.

Psychol Bull **48**, 156–158.

[98]   Chicault C, Toutain B, Monnier A, Aubry M, Fergelot P, Le Treut A, Galibert

MD, Mosser J (2006) Iron-related transcriptomic variations in CaCo-2 cells, an

in vitro model of intestinal absorptive cells. *Physiol Genomics* **26**, 55–67.

[99]   Bray NL, Pimentel H, Melsted P, Pachter L (2016) Near-optimal probabilistic

RNA-seq quantification. *Nat Biotechnol* **34**, 525–527.

[100] Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK (2009) edgeR: A Bioconductor

package for differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data.

Bioinformatics **26**, 139–140.

[101] Lein ES, Hawrylycz MJ, Ao N, Ayres M, Bensinger A, Bernard A, Boe AF,

Boguski MS, Brockway KS, Byrnes EJ, Chen L, Chen L, Chen TM, Chin MC,

Chong J, Crook BE, Czaplinska A, Dang CN, Datta S, Dee NR, Desaki AL,

Desta T, Diep E, Dolbeare TA, Donelan MJ, Dong HW, Dougherty JG, Duncan

BJ, Ebbert AJ, Eichele G, Estin LK, Faber C, Facer BA, Fields R, Fischer SR,

Fliss TP, Frensley C, Gates SN, Glattfelder KJ, Halverson KR, Hart MR,

Hohmann JG, Howell MP, Jeung DP, Johnson RA, Karr PT, Kawal R, Kidney

JM, Knapik RH, Kuan CL, Lake JH, Laramee AR, Larsen KD, Lau C, Lemon

TA, Liang AJ, Liu Y, Luong LT, Michaels J, Morgan JJ, Morgan RJ, Mortrud

MT, Mosqueda NF, Ng LL, Ng R, Orta GJ, Overly CC, Pak TH, Parry SE,

Pathak SD, Pearson OC, Puchalski RB, Riley ZL, Rockett HR, Rowland SA,

Royall JJ, Ruiz MJ, Sarno NR, Schaffnit K, Shapovalova N V., Sivisay T,

Slaughterbeck CR, Smith SC, Smith KA, Smith BI, Sodt AJ, Stewart NN,

Stumpf KR, Sunkin SM, Sutram M, Tam A, Teemer CD, Thaller C, Thompson

CL, Varnam LR, Visel A, Whitlock RM, Wohnoutka PE, Wolkey CK, Wong VY,

Wood M, Yaylaoglu MB, Young RC, Youngstrom BL, Yuan XF, Zhang B,

Zwingman TA, Jones AR (2007) Genome-wide atlas of gene expression in the

adult mouse brain. *Nature* **445**, 168–176.

[102] Bonham LW, Sirkis DW, Yokoyama JS (2019) The transcriptional landscape of

microglial genes in aging and neurodegenerative disease. *Front Immunol* **10**,

1170.

[103] Wu D, Lim E, Vaillant F, Asselin-Labat M-L, Visvader JE, Smyth GK (2010)

1261   ROAST: rotation gene set tests for complex microarray experiments.

1262   *Bioinformatics* **26**, 2176–2182.

1263 [104] Giner, Smyth G, K G (2016) FRY: a fast approximation to ROAST gene set

1264   test with mean aggregated set statistics. *F1000Research*.

1265 [105] Wu D, Smyth GK (2012) Camera: a competitive gene set test accounting for

1266   inter-gene correlation. *Nucleic Acids Res* **40**, e133.

1267 [106] Subramanian A, Tamayo P, Mootha VK, Mukherjee S, Ebert BL, Gillette MA,

1268   Paulovich A, Pomeroy SL, Golub TR, Lander ES, Mesirov JP (2005) Gene set

1269   enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-

1270   wide expression profiles. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **102**, 15545–15550.

1271

1272

Tables

Table 1. Summary of gene set testing approaches used in our analyses.

Method	Hypothesis	Focused / battery approach	Accounts for inter-gene correlation	R implementation
Fry / Roast	Self-contained null hypothesis (genes within a set have no association with experimental condition)	Focused (each gene set is tested on its own terms, and multiple testing adjustment is applied afterwards)	Yes	fry() and mroast() functions in the *limma* Bioconductor package [103,104]
Camera	Competitive null hypothesis (genes within a set do not have a stronger association with experimental condition compared to a random gene set)	Focused (each gene set is tested on its own terms, and multiple testing adjustment is applied afterwards)	Yes	camera() function in the *limma* Bioconductor package [105]
fgsea (fast implementation of GSEA in R)	Self-contained null hypothesis (genes within a set have no association with experimental condition)	Battery (gene sets are pitted against each other to determine which ones are more significantly enriched)	No	fgsea() function in the *fgsea* Bioconductor package [40,106]

1280 **Table 2. Samples analyzed from Mayo Clinic RNA-seq study.**

1281

Group	Total number	% Female	Mean age ± s.d (years)	Diagnosis
Alzheimer's disease (AD)	134	56.7	82.6 ± 7.3	Braak Stage ≥ 4, diagnosis according to NINCDS-ADRDA criteria
Control	130	46.2	82.9 ± 8.3	Braak Stage ≤ 3, No or sparse CERAD neuritic and cortical plaque density, no diagnoses for any neurodegenerative disease
Pathological Aging (PA)	44	54.5	84.5 ± 4.3	Braak Stage ≤ 3, CERAD neuritic and cortical plaque density of 2 or more, no diagnoses for any neurodegenerative disease or mild cognitive impairment
Progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP)	164	40.2	73.8 ± 6.5	Braak Stage ≤ 3, no or sparse CERAD neuritic and cortical plaque density

1282

1283

1284

 Table 3. Differential gene expression and IRE gene set enrichment results from Mayo

 Clinic RNA-seq study. Asterisks (*) indicate significant enrichment (Bonferroni-adjusted

 Wilkinson's *p*-value from *fry*, *camera*, and *fgsea* < 0.05).

	Comparison	No. of DE genes (FDR p-value < 0.05 and abs(logFC) > 0.5)	*All 3' IREs* enrichment *p*-value	*All 5' IREs* enrichment *p*-value	*HQ 3' IREs* enrichment *p*-value	*HQ 5' IREs* enrichment *p*-value
Effect of Alzheimer's disease	AD vs. control (cerebellum)	Down: 1,422 Up: 1,308	0.0109*	0.128	0.770	0.770
	AD vs. control (temporal cortex)	Down: 1,650, Up: 1,929	9.03E-15*	2.44E-14*	4.50E-15*	8.95E-08*
Effect of pathological aging (amyloid pathology, no dementia symptoms)	PA vs. control (cerebellum)	Down: 254, Up: 463	0.000116*	0.00139*	0.0201*	0.770
	PA vs. control (temporal cortex)	Down: 466, Up: 512	0.000521*	0.0461*	0.000065*	0.0000682*
Effect of progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP)	PSP vs. control (cerebellum)	Down: 2,550, Up: 1,080	1.81E-22*	3.45E-22*	1.43E-12*	0.0399*
	PSP vs. control (temporal cortex)	Down: 1,271, Up: 622	3.58E-11*	5.17E-13*	1.39E-06*	0.0399*
Differences between Alzheimer's disease and pathological aging	AD vs. PA (cerebellum)	Down: 1,728, Up: 1,006	0.000116*	0.00139*	0.0201*	0.770
	AD vs. PA (temporal cortex)	Down: 2,633, Up: 2,174	0.000521*	0.0461*	0.000065*	0.0000682*
Differences between Alzheimer's disease and progressive supranuclear palsy	AD vs. PSP (cerebellum)	Down: 108, Up: 659	0.0019*	0.00184*	0.158	0.158
	AD vs. PSP (temporal cortex)	Down: 2,052, Up: 2,354	9.12E-22*	2.10E-22*	5.35E-16*	0.040*
Differences between cerebellum and temporal cortex tissue	Cerebellum vs. temporal cortex in controls	Down: 10,925, Up: 9,302	0.00E+00*	0.00E+00*	2.82E-269*	1.60E-81*
	Cerebellum vs. temporal cortex in AD	Down: 11,966, Up: 9,950	0.00E+00*	0.00E+00*	7.71E-302*	9.35E-92*
	Cerebellum vs. temporal cortex in PA	Down: 10,200, Up: 8,737	1.87E-153*	5.88E-160*	1.22E-89*	1.31E-88*
	Cerebellum vs. temporal cortex in PSP	Down: 11,552, Up: 9,576	0.00E+00*	0.00E+00*	0.00E+00*	4.74E-104*

Table 4. Enrichment of Iron Responsive Element (IRE) gene sets in fAD-like zebrafish dataset. Raw *p*-values from *fry, camera* and *fgsea* were combined with Wilkinson's method, with combined *p*-values then Bonferroni-adjusted for multiple testing. The same process was repeated for the K97fs/+ dataset, which involves an independent family of fish (†).

	Comparison	*All 3' IREs* enrichment *p*-value	*All 5' IREs* enrichment *p*-value	*HQ 3' IREs* enrichment *p*-value	*HQ 5' IREs* enrichment *p*-value
Effect of *psen1* mutation	6-month-old Q96_K97del/+ vs. 6-month-old +/+ all under normoxia	0.0109	0.128	0.770	0.770
	6-month-old Q96_K97del/+ vs. 6-month-old +/+ all under hypoxia	9.03E-15	2.44E-14	4.50E-15	8.95E-08
	24-month-old Q96_K97del/+ vs. 24-month-old +/+ all under normoxia	0.000116	0.00139	0.0201	0.770
	24-month-old Q96_K97del/+ vs. 24-month-old +/+ all under hypoxia	0.000521	0.0461	0.000065	0.0000682
	6-month-old K97fs/+ vs. 6-month-old +/+ all under normoxia †	0.199	0.289	0.0197	0.289
	24-month-old K97fs/+ vs. 24-month-old +/+ all under normoxia †	0.116	0.115	0.00000118	0.979
Effect of hypoxia	6-month-old +/+ under hypoxia vs. 6-month-old +/+ under normoxia	1.10E-18	1.10E-18	8.19E-13	1.27E-08
	24-month-old +/+ under hypoxia vs. 24-month-old +/+ under normoxia	3.67E-15	7.98E-11	2.94E-07	3.31E-05
	6-month-old Q96_K97del/+ under hypoxia vs. 6-month-old Q96_K97del/+ under normoxia	1.13E-24	9.88E-22	2.28E-13	2.86e- 3
	24-month-old Q96_K97del/+ under hypoxia vs. 24-month-old Q96_K97del/+ under normoxia	0.000521	0.015	0.128	0.770
Effect of aging	24-month-old +/+ vs. 6-month-old +/+ all under normoxia	6.80E-35	4.82E-27	3.41E-18	1.26E-21
	24-month-old +/+ vs. 6-month-old +/+ all under hypoxia	1.55E-35	6.84E-31	2.36E-20	7.40E-23
	24-month-old Q96_K97del/+ vs. 6-month-old Q96_K97del/+ all under normoxia	1.85E-27	1.03E-21	8.09E-17	1.07E-17
	24-month-old Q96_K97del/+ vs. 6-month-old Q96_K97del/+ all under hypoxia	3.77E-30	1.59E-23	2.11E-19	2.46E-16
	24-month-old +/+ vs. 6-month-old +/+ all under normoxia (K97fs family) †	1.69E-10	3.96E-08	5.95E-10	4.59E-06
	24-month-old K97fs/+ vs. 6-month-old K97fs/+ all under normoxia †	0.199	0.289	0.0197	0.289

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Iron Responsive Element (IRE) background. A. Model of altered transcript stability due to the IRP/IRE system under iron dyshomeostasis. When cellular iron levels (through FeS) are low, Iron Responsive Proteins (IRP1 or IRP2) bind IREs in the 5' or 3' untranslated regions (UTRs) of genes involved in iron homeostasis. In general, genes with IREs in their 3' UTRs will be stabilised and hence increased in expression while genes with IREs in their 5' UTR will have repressed translation from IRP binding. However, when cellular iron levels are high, IRP1 undergoes a conformation change and is now unable to bind IREs. IRP1 now acts as a cytosolic aconitase (ACO1). IRP2 is degraded in high iron conditions and is also unable to bind IREs. Without IRPs binding to IREs, genes with 5' IREs will have increased translation, while those with 3' IREs will have decreased mRNA stability, causing their expression to be decreased. **B. Consensus IRE secondary structure and examples of high-quality and IRE-like motifs predicted by SIREs.** IRE-like motifs with non-canonical structure are able to be detected by SIREs if they have up to one mismatch pair in the upper stem (e.g. *Hao1*) or 1 unpaired bulge nucleotide on the 3' strand of the upper stem (e.g. *EPAS1*). For more details on the prediction of non-canonical IRE motifs, please refer to Figure 1 of Campillos et al. [24].

Figure 2. Overlap between predicted IRE gene sets for human, mouse, and zebrafish. The number of genes in the gene set for each species is shown at the bottom-left bars of each UpSet plot, while genes with shared homologs across species are indicated in the main plot region. IRE genes in mouse and zebrafish gene sets were excluded from this plot if they did not have a human homolog.

Figure 3. MSigDB gene sets showing over-representation of predicted 3' and 5' IRE genes in human, mouse, and zebrafish. The top 15 MSigDB gene sets ranked by Fisher's

exact test *p*-value (testing for over-representation of the ***all 3' IREs*** and/or ***all 5' IREs*** sets)

are shown for each species. In the network plots, the top 15 MSigDB gene sets are shown

as large nodes, with genes represented as small nodes. Edges connecting genes to gene

sets indicate the gene set(s) that a gene belongs to. Overall, the ***all 3' IREs*** and ***all 5' IREs***

gene sets have a large proportion of genes which are not included in any of the top ranked

MSigDB gene sets for each species.

1326

1327   **Figure 4. IRE-containing gene expression analysis workflow.** The section including

1328   identification of candidate 3' IRE genes stabilized under iron deficiency was only applied to

1329   the fAD-like zebrafish dataset due to unavailable raw RNA-seq reads for the other datasets

1330   needed to identify expression of unspliced genes.

1331

Figure 5. Analysis of Caco-2 cultured cell line microarray dataset. A. Gene set

enrichment testing results for human predicted IRE gene sets for the iron overload

and iron deficiency treatments. Dots indicate if a gene set was considered significantly

enriched (Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-value < 0.05) in the iron overload (on left) or iron deficiency

(on right) treatment. **B. Gene set enrichment testing results for MSigDB Hallmark gene**

sets in the iron overload and iron deficiency treatments. Dots indicate if a gene set was

considered significantly enriched (FDR-adjusted *p*-value < 0.05) in the iron overload (on left)

or iron deficiency (on right) treatments. **C. UpSet plots showing overlap between iron**

overload and iron deficiency treatments in GSEA leading-edge genes for the *All 3'*

***IREs* and *All 5' IREs* gene sets**. The bars to the lower-left indicate the number of the

leading-edge genes for iron overload and iron deficiency treatments, while the bars in the

main plot region indicate the number of leading-edge genes which are unique or shared

between the treatments.

1345

Figure 6. Analysis of Mayo Clinic RNA-seq dataset with human IRE gene sets. A.

Enrichment analysis results of IRE gene sets in comparisons of AD (Alzheimer's

Disease), PA (Pathological Ageing) and PSP (Progressive Supranuclear Palsy) vs.

control. The proportions of IRE genes within each IRE gene set with increased, decreased,

or unchanged expression are indicated as coloured bars. The dots indicate that the IRE

gene set was significantly enriched (Bonferroni-adjusted enrichment p-value < 0.05). **B.**

UpSet plots showing overlap between leading-edge IRE genes in comparisons of AD

(Alzheimer's Disease), PA (Pathological Aging), and PSP (Progressive Supranuclear

Palsy) vs. control. The bars to the lower-left region of each UpSet plot indicate the number

of leading-edge IRE genes for each comparison, while bars in the main plot region indicate

the number of leading-edge IRE genes which are unique or shared between comparisons.

1357

Figure 7. Analysis of 5XFAD mouse dataset. A. Experimental design and results of

IRE gene set enrichment analysis. The gene sets *all 3' IREs* and *all 5' IREs* derived from

searching for IRE sequences in the UTRs of genes in the reference mouse genome mm10

are represented here as "3' IRE" and "5' IRE" respectively. Asterisks (*) indicate that the

gene set was significantly enriched in a particular comparison (Bonferroni-adjusted p-value <

0.05). **B. Proportions of genes in IRE and MSigDB Hallmark gene sets which are**

increased (t > 2) or decreased (t < -2) in expression in all "5XFAD vs. wild type"

comparisons. A dot next to a bar indicates that the gene set was significantly enriched

(FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05).

1367

1368 **Figure 8. UpSet plots showing the overlap in GSEA leading-edge genes between all**

1369 **comparisons in the 5XFAD mouse datasets for the gene sets all 3' IREs and all 5'**

1370 **IREs**. Numbers of genes for each intersection are shown above intersection bars.

1371

Figure 9. Differential gene expression and gene set enrichment analysis in the fAD-

like zebrafish dataset. A. Results of differential gene expression analysis. Genes

which were significantly increased or decreased in expression are indicated in boxes.

These differentially expressed genes have FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05. **B. Gene set**

enrichment with MSigDB Hallmark gene sets. The comparisons between Q96_ K97del/+

fAD-like mutants and their wild-type siblings are shown for the 6-month-old (young adult)

and 24-month-old (infertile adult) age groups. Dots indicate gene sets which are significantly

enriched (FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05).

1380

Figure 10. Iron Responsive Element (IRE)-containing gene expression in the fAD-like

zebrafish dataset. A. Results of gene set enrichment testing using predicted IRE gene

sets. We represent the gene sets all 3' IREs and all 5' IREs derived from searching for IRE

and IRE-like sequences from z11 reference zebrafish gene UTRs as "3' IRE" and "5' IRE" in

the panel. **B. Proportions of predicted IRE genes which are increased (t > 2) or**

decreased (t < -2) in expression for each pairwise comparison in the dataset. C.

Principal component analysis of all genes in the sets all 3' IREs and all 5' IREs for all

samples. Circles on the 3' IRE plot show that different conditions generally have distinct

expression of genes in the *all 3' IREs set* but not in the *all 5' IREs* set. **D. UpSet plot**

showing overlap in leading-edge genes for the *all 3' IREs* gene set for select

comparisons.

1392

1393

Supplementary Information

Supplementary Text

- **Supplementary Text 1.** Expression of previously characterized 3' and 5' IRE genes in the gene expression datasets analyzed in this paper
- **Supplementary Text 2.** Identifying predicted 3' IRE genes with altered stability.
- **Supplementary Text 3.** Effects of biological sex on gene expression in the fAD-mutation-like zebrafish dataset.
- **Supplementary Text 4.** Neural cell type proportions in the gene expression datasets analyzed in this paper.

Supplementary Tables

- **Supplementary Table 1.** Iron Responsive Element (IRE) gene sets defined from human, mouse, and zebrafish transcriptomes. The untranslated regions (UTR) of all known genes were searched for IRE and IRE-like motifs. Four gene sets are included for each species: *all 3' IREs* (all genes with predicted IRE in their 3' UTR), *all 5' IREs* (all genes with predicted IRE in their 5' UTR), *HQ 3' IREs* (genes with high-quality predicted IRE in 3' UTR), and *HQ 5' IREs* (genes with high-quality predicted IRE in 5' UTR). Genes are provided as ENSEMBL gene identifiers.
- **Supplementary Table 2.** Molecular Signature Database (MSigDB) gene sets with significant over-representation of IRE gene sets in human, mouse, and zebrafish. Gene sets were defined to have significant over-representation of IRE gene sets if the FDR-adjusted Fisher's exact test p-value was < 0.05.
- **Supplementary Table 3**. Promoter motif over-representation analysis results for all IRE gene sets in human, mouse, and zebrafish. Promoter regions were defined as being 1500 bp upstream and 500 bp downstream of genes. See Methods for details. We define significant over-representation as FDR-adjusted enrichment p-value < 0.05.
- **Supplementary Table 4.** Gene ontology (GO) analysis results for leading edge genes shared between the "5XFAD vs. WT (3-months-old)" and "5XFAD vs. WT (6-months-old)" comparisons. Significant over-representation of GO terms was determined as GO terms having an FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05.

- **Supplementary Table 5.** Altered stability of transcripts in the fAD-mutation-like zebrafish dataset. See Methods and Supplementary Text 2 for details on how stability was defined and calculated. Genes which contain a 3' IRE (belonging to one of the 3' IRE gene sets) or 5' IRE (belonging to one of the 5' IRE gene sets) are indicated with the "has3ire" or "has5ire" columns.

Supplementary Figures

- **Supplementary Figure 1.** Expression of previously characterized IRE genes in datasets analyzed. **A.** Caco-2 cell line dataset. **B.** Mayo Clinic RNA-seq (Human) dataset – Temporal Cortex tissue. **C.** Mayo Clinic RNA-seq (Human) dataset – Cerebellum tissue. **D.** 5XFAD mouse dataset. **E.** fAD-mutation-like zebrafish dataset.
- **Supplementary Figure 2.** Principal Component Analysis of results from different gene set testing methods.
- **Supplementary Figure 3.** Analysis of cultured Caco-2 cell line dataset. **A.** Principal Component Analysis plot of gene expression in the cultured Caco-2 cell line dataset. **B.** Volcano plots indicating differential gene expression due to iron overload (DMEM-FBS Medium + Hemin vs. DMEM-FBS Medium) and iron deficiency (Iron-free medium vs. Iron-free medium + FAC) treatments in the Caco-2 cell line dataset.
- **Supplementary Figure 4.** Gene set enrichment testing results for the AD vs. control comparison in cerebellum and temporal cortex.
- **Supplementary Figure 5.** STRINGR protein-protein interaction network plot between the 19 shared leading-edge genes between the *psen1*$^{Q96\_K97del/+}$ and *psen1*$^{+/+}$ comparisons at 6 and 24-months-old.
- **Supplementary Figure 6.** Principal Component Analysis plots showing lack of clear association between IRE gene expression and the *psen1*$^{K97fs/+}$ mutant genotype.
- **Supplementary Figure 7.** Predicted 3' IRE containing transcripts with significant differences in stability between conditions in the fAD-like zebrafish dataset.
- **Supplementary Figure 8.** Age-dependent expression of neural marker genes (microglia, astrocyte, neuron, oligodendrocyte) in the Mayo Clinic RNA-seq dataset.
- **Supplementary Figure 9.** Age-dependent expression of neural marker genes (microglia, astrocyte, neuron, oligodendrocyte) in 5XFAD mouse dataset.
- **Supplementary Figure 10.** Age- and hypoxia- dependent expression of neural marker genes (microglia, astrocyte, neuron, oligodendrocyte) in fAD-like zebrafish dataset.

A

Low Iron Conditions

Decreases mRNA translation — IRP1/2 — IRP1/2 — **Increases mRNA stability to increase translation**

G^m — 5' UTR — Start — // — Stop — 3' UTR — AAAAAAAAAA

mRNA

High Iron Conditions

IRP1 as ACO1 (FeS)

IRP2 (degraded)

Translational activation (Increases mRNA translation) — **Decreases mRNA stability to decrease translation**

G^m — 5' UTR — Start — // — Stop — 3' UTR — AAAAAAAAAA

mRNA

C

consensus IRE

Example of a high-quality (canonical) predicted IRE — FTL

Examples of predicted IRE-like motifs — EPAS1, Hao1

Figure 1. Iron Responsive Element (IRE) background. A. Model of altered transcript stability due to the IRP/IRE system under iron dyshomeostasis. When cellular iron levels (through FeS) are low, Iron Responsive Proteins (IRP1 or IRP2) bind IREs in the 5' or 3' untranslated regions (UTRs) of genes involved in iron homeostasis. In general, genes with IREs in their 3' UTRs will be stabilised and hence increased in expression while genes with IREs in their 5' UTR will have repressed translation from IRP binding. However, when cellular iron levels are high, IRP1 undergoes a conformation change and is now unable to bind IREs. IRP1 now acts as a cytosolic aconitase (ACO1). IRP2 is degraded in high iron conditions and is also unable to bind IREs. Without IRPs binding to IREs, genes with 5' IREs will have increased translation, while those with 3' IREs will have decreased mRNA stability, causing their expression to be decreased. **B. Consensus IRE secondary structure and examples of high-quality and IRE-like motifs predicted by SIREs.** IRE-like motifs with non-canonical structure are able to be detected by SIREs if they have up to one mismatch pair in the upper stem (e.g. Hao1) or 1 unpaired bulge nucleotide on the 3' strand of the upper stem (e.g. EPAS1). For more details on the prediction of non-canonical IRE motifs, please refer to Figure 1 of Campillos et al. [24].

Figure 2. Overlap between predicted IRE gene sets for human, mouse, and zebrafish. The number of genes in the gene set for each species is shown at the bottom-left bars of each UpSet plot, while genes with shared homologs across species are indicated in the main plot region. IRE genes in mouse and zebrafish gene sets were excluded from this plot if they did not have a human homolog.

Figure 3. MSigDB gene sets showing over-representation of predicted 3' and 5' IRE genes in human, mouse, and zebrafish. The top 15 MSigDB gene sets ranked by Fisher's exact test *p*-value (testing for over-representation of the ***all 3' IREs*** and/or ***all 5' IREs*** sets) are shown for each species. In the network plots, the top 15 MSigDB gene sets are shown as large nodes, with genes represented as small nodes. Edges connecting genes to gene sets in-dicate the gene set(s) that a gene belongs to. Overall, the ***all 3' IREs*** and ***all 5' IREs*** gene sets have a large proportion of genes which are not included in any of the top ranked MSigDB gene sets for each species.

Figure 4. IRE-containing gene expression analysis workflow. The section including identification of can-didate 3' IRE genes stabilised under iron deficiency was only applied to the fAD-like zebrafish dataset due to unavailable raw RNA-seq reads for the other datasets needed to identify expression of unspliced genes.

Figure 5. Analysis of Caco-2 cultured cell line microarray dataset. A. Gene set enrichment testing results for human predicted IRE gene sets for the iron overload and iron deficiency treatments. Dots indicate if a gene set was considered significantly enriched (Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-value < 0.05) in the iron overload (on left) or iron deficiency (on right) treatment. **B. Gene set enrichment testing results for MSigDB Hallmark gene sets in the iron overload and iron deficiency treatments.** Dots indicate if a gene set was considered significantly enriched (FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05) in the iron overload (on left) or iron deficiency (on right) treatments. C. **UpSet plots showing overlap between iron overload and iron deficiency treatments in GSEA leading-edge genes for the "All predicted 3' IRE genes" and "All predicted 5' IRE genes" gene sets.** The bars to the lower-left indicate the number of the leading-edge genes for iron overload and iron deficiency treatments, while the bars in the main plot region indicate the number of leading-edge genes which are unique or shared between the treatments.

Figure 6. Analysis of Mayo Clinic RNA-seq dataset with human IRE gene sets. A. Enrichment analysis results of IRE gene sets in comparisons of AD (Alzheimer's Disease), PA (Pathological Aging), and PSP (Progressive Supranuclear Palsy) vs. control. The proportions of IRE genes within each IRE gene set with increased, decreased, or unchanged expression are indicated as coloured bars. The dots indicate that the IRE gene set was significantly enriched (Bonferroni-adjusted enrichment p-value < 0.05). **B. UpSet plots showing overlap between leading-edge IRE genes in comparisons of AD (Alzheimer's Disease), PA (Pathological Aging), and PSP (Progressive Supranuclear Palsy) vs. control.** The bars to the lower-left region of each UpSet plot indicate the number of leading-edge IRE genes for each comparison, while bars in the main plot region indicate the number of leading-edge IRE genes which are unique or shared between comparisons.

Figure 7. Analysis of 5XFAD mouse dataset. A. Experimental design and results of IRE gene set enrichment analysis. The gene sets *all 3' IREs* and all *5' IREs* derived from searching for IRE sequences in the UTRs of genes in the reference mouse genome mm10 are represented here as "3' IRE" and "5' IRE" respectively. Asterisks (*) indicate that the gene set was significantly enriched in a particular comparison (Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-value < 0.05). **B. Proportions of genes in IRE and MSigDB Hallmark gene sets which are increased (t > 2) or decreased (t < -2) in expression in all "5XFAD vs. wild type" comparisons.** A dot next to a bar indicates that the gene set was significantly enriched (FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05).

Figure 8. UpSet plots showing the overlap in GSEA leading-edge genes between all comparisons in the 5XFAD mouse datasets for the gene sets *all 3' IREs* and *all 5' IREs*. Numbers of genes for each intersection are shown above intersection bars.

B

Normoxia
6 month old Q96K97/+ vs. wild-type

Normoxia
24 month old Q96K97/+ vs. wild-type

-	PANCREAS BETA CELLS	-
-	ANGIOGENESIS	●
●	NOTCH SIGNALING	●
-	HEDGEHOG SIGNALING	-
-	REACTIVE OXIGEN SPECIES PATHWAY	●
-	WNT BETA CATENIN SIGNALING	-
-	MYC TARGETS V2	-
-	APICAL SURFACE	-
-	TGF BETA SIGNALING	●
-	IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING	-
-	CHOLESTEROL HOMEOSTASIS	-
-	INTERFERON ALPHA RESPONSE	-
-	ANDROGEN RESPONSE	●
●	PROTEIN SECRETION	●
-	BILE ACID METABOLISM	●
-	PEROXISOME	●
●	UNFOLDED PROTEIN RESPONSE	●
-	COAGULATION	●
●	PI3K AKT MTOR SIGNALING	●
●	SPERMATOGENESIS	●
-	DNA REPAIR	●
-	APOPTOSIS	●
●	UV RESPONSE DN	●
●	FATTY ACID METABOLISM	●
-	INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE	●
-	ALLOGRAFT REJECTION	-
-	KRAS SIGNALING DN	●
●	E2F TARGETS	●
●	HEME METABOLISM	●
-	UV RESPONSE UP	●
-	INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE	-
●	ESTROGEN RESPONSE EARLY	●
-	XENOBIOTIC METABOLISM	●
-	TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB	●
-	ESTROGEN RESPONSE LATE	●
-	COMPLEMENT	●
-	KRAS SIGNALING UP	●
●	MYC TARGETS V1	●
●	OXIDATIVE PHOSPHORYLATION	●
●	GLYCOLYSIS	●
-	P53 PATHWAY	●
●	G2M CHECKPOINT	●
-	IL2 STAT5 SIGNALING	●
-	HYPOXIA	●
-	APICAL JUNCTION	●
●	MTORC1 SIGNALING	●
-	ADIPOGENESIS	●
-	MYOGENESIS	●
●	EPITHELIAL MESENCHYMAL TRANSITION	●
-	MITOTIC SPINDLE	●

250 200 150 100 50 0   0 50 100 150 200 250

Number of genes   **Number of genes**

Non-significant
Decreased expression ($t < -2$)
Increased expression ($t > 2$)

Figure 9. Differential gene expression and gene set enrichment analysis in the fAD-like zebrafish dataset. A. Results of differential gene expression analysis. Genes which were significantly increased or decreased in expression are indicated in boxes. These differentially expressed genes have FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05. **B. Gene set enrichment with MSigDB Hallmark gene sets. The comparisons between Q96_K97del/+ fAD-like mutants and their wild-type siblings are shown for the 6-month-old (young adult) and 24-month-old (infertile adult) age groups.** Dots indicate gene sets which are significantly enriched (FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05).

Figure 10. Iron Responsive Element (IRE)-containing gene expression in the fAD-like zebrafish dataset. A. Results of gene set enrichment testing using predicted IRE gene sets. We represent the gene sets *all 3' IREs* and *all 5' IREs* derived from searching for IRE and IRE-like sequences from z11 reference zebrafish gene UTRs as "3' IRE" and "5' IRE" in the panel. **B. Proportions of predicted IRE genes which are increased (t > 2) or decreased (t < -2) in expression for each pairwise comparison in the dataset. C. Principal component analysis of all genes in the sets *all 3' IREs* and *all 5' IREs* for all samples.** Circles on the 3' IRE plot show that different conditions generally have distinct expression of genes in the *all 3' IREs* set but not in the *all 5' IREs* set. **D. UpSet plot showing overlap in leading-edge genes for the "all predicted 3' IRE genes" for select comparisons.**