Transcriptome analysis of early-onset familial Alzheimer's disease and Sanfilippo syndrome zebrafish models reveals commonalities in disease mechanisms

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Abstract

Background: Autosomal recessive inheritance of Sanfilippo syndrome (mucopolysaccharidosis type III, MPS III) causes childhood dementia, while Alzheimer's disease is the most common type of adult-onset dementia. There are no approved treatments for Sanfilippo patients, and few options exist for those with Alzheimer's disease. Increasing evidence suggests commonalities in the disease processes. However, a direct comparison of animal models with the two disorders has never been performed.

Method: We used RNA-seq to compare the transcriptome of zebrafish with early-onset familial Alzheimer's disease (EOfAD, $psen1$ $^{Q96\_K97del/+}$), or MPS IIIB ($naglu$ $^{A603fs/A603fs}$) with their wild type siblings at 7 days post fertilisation and at 6 months of age (n = 8 fish per genotype).

Results: Differential gene expression and pathway analysis at each age revealed substantially more differentially expressed genes and pathways in MPS IIIB zebrafish relative to wild type than in the EOfAD-like zebrafish, consistent with MPS IIIB being a more severe, rapidly progressing and earlier onset form of dementia. Similar changes in gene expression were detected between the models in the extracellular matrix receptor interaction pathway in zebrafish larvae, and oxidative phosphorylation, ribosome and lysosome pathways in 6-month-old adult zebrafish brains. Cell type-specific changes in gene expression were detected for MPS IIIB zebrafish brains at 6 months of age, possibly reflecting altered proportions of oligodendrocytes, neural stem cells and inflammatory cells.

Conclusions: Our transcriptome analyses have illuminated possible shared disease mechanisms between EOfAD due to *PSEN1* mutations and MPS IIIB. Future work will investigate the nature of these commonalities.

Background

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common form of dementia (1), and is an increasing economic and social burden as societies age. Since the earliest descriptions of AD in the early 1900's (2), we still do not have effective pharmaceutical treatments which can halt cognitive decline in the long term. This reflects continuing uncertainty regarding the fundamental cause(s) of AD pathology (3, 4).

The majority of AD cases show late-onset (LOAD, after 65 years of age), and occur sporadically with no evidence of familial inheritance. Less commonly, AD can occur in younger individuals and may be linked to dominant mutations i.e. early-onset familial AD (EOfAD). These dominant mutations occur in the genes presenilin 1 (*PSEN1*) (5), presenilin 2 (*PSEN2*) (6, 7), amyloid β precursor protein (*APP*) (8), or sortilin-related receptor 1 (*SORL1*) (9, 10).

It is clear that the endo-lysosomal system plays a role in the pathogenesis of AD. All of the EOfAD genes express proteins with involvement in the cell's endo-lysosomal system (11-14). Additionally, many of the genes associated with increased risk for the development of LOAD show endo-lysosomal system involvement (15). In humans, enlarged endosomes are one of the earliest pathologies observed in AD progression (16). However, it is difficult to dissect the mechanisms which underlie endo-lysosomal dysfunction in AD, particularly *in vivo*. Damage to the brain observed in post-mortem AD brain tissue is extensive (17). Many of the lesions seen may be secondary responses to pathological processes so that the information gained may not be directly relevant to therapeutic interventions. Pathological processes which occur early during disease development are likely the most

responsive to therapeutic intervention. However, we cannot easily access early diseased

human brain tissue for detailed molecular analyses.

Experiments performed in human cell lines can give some insight into the molecular

mechanisms underlying AD pathogenesis. However, the relevance of any such

observations must be tested *in vivo* (i.e. in animal models), since cultured cells exist in

highly artificial environments and some AD-relevant phenomena may be emergent

properties of complex multicellular systems such as the brain. A large number of different

AD animal models have been developed to investigate AD pathological mechanisms *in*

vivo (reviewed in (18, 19)), although the quality/relevance of these models is debated (20,

21). Much of this uncertainty arises from questions regarding the pathological mode of

action of the mutant genes themselves (discussed in (22)). An alternative approach to

dissecting the role of the endo-lysosomal system in neurodegeneration is to examine

extreme forms of endo-lysosomal system dysfunction, as represented by those lysosomal

storage disorders that result in childhood dementia.

Sanfilippo syndrome, which is typified by childhood-onset dementia, has an incidence of

approximately 0.17–2.35 per 100,000 live births (23) and results from one of four

recessively inherited lysosomal storage disorders (mucopolysaccharidosis type III, or MPS

IIIA, B, C, D; OMIM: 252900, 252920, 252930, 252940, respectively). Like AD, there are

no effective therapies are currently approved to treat children with MPS III. However, the

genetics of MPS III and the primary pathological mechanisms underlying the disorder are

far better understood. MPS III is caused by recessive mutations in genes encoding

lysosomal enzymes required for catabolism of the mucopolysaccharide heparan sulfate:

N-sulfoglucosamine sulfohydrolase (*SGSH*) (24)*,* N-acetyl-alpha-glucosaminidase

(*NAGLU*) (25), heparan-alpha-glucosaminide N-acetyltransferase (*HGSNAT*) (26) and N-

acetylglucosamine-6-sulfatase (*GNS*) (27). Incomplete catabolism of heparan sulfate (HS)

leads to its accumulation in lysosomes. Mutations in each of these genes define subtypes

of Sanfilippo syndrome, i.e. mutations in *SGSH*, *NAGLU*, *HGSNAT*, & *GNS* define MPS

IIIA, IIIB, IIIC, & IIID respectively. (Note that arylsulfatase G deficiency causing MPS IIIE

has only been observed in mice (28)).

While AD and MPS III are distinct disorders, MPS III is often colloquially referred to as

"childhood Alzheimer's", due to the similarity to AD of symptoms experienced by children

living with MPS III. At the cellular level in the brain, there are commonalities of phenomena

such as oxidative stress (29, 30), inflammation (30-32), and, importantly, dysfunction of

the endo-lysosomal system (33). However, these two diseases have never been

compared directly within one experimental system.

Zebrafish genetic models have emerged as powerful tools for studying cellular/molecular

phenomena in neurodegenerative diseases, particularly due to their ~70% genetic

similarity to humans (34) and their high fecundity (reviewed in (35)). We have previously

generated several zebrafish knock-in models of mutations causing early-onset familial AD

(36-40) and MPS III (41) and has analysed their brain transcriptomes. We have noted that

all the models of both diseases exhibit differential expression of genes involved in

metabolic pathways (41, 42). The most sensitive comparisons of these disease models is

best done within single zebrafish families, where genetic and environmental variation is

reduced between experimental groups of interest.

Here, we use intra-family analyses to compare the gene expression profiles of a zebrafish

model of EOfAD; *psen1*$^{Q96\_K97del}$ (43), with that of *naglu*^{A603fs}, a model of MPS IIIB (41).

We performed our analyses at two ages: 7 days post fertilisation (dpf) which models very

early, pre-symptomatic stages for both diseases, and in young adult brains (6 months of age), which still models pre-symptomatic disease stages for EOfAD but is symptomatic for MPS IIIB. We identified distinct changes in gene expression in each model at both ages. However, important age-related commonalities are also observed in genes implicating the extracellular matrix, energy metabolism, lysosomes and ribosomes, indicating fundamental, underlying similarities in pathological mechanisms.

Methods

Zebrafish husbandry and breeding strategy

The generation of the $naglu^{A603fs}$ and $psen1^{Q96\_K97del}$ lines of zebrafish used in this study was described in (41) and (43) respectively. All fish were maintained and raised in a recirculating water system with a constant temperature of approximately 26°C, salinity levels at approximately 300 ppm, and conductivity approximately 800 µS/cm. These parameters were measured using an ExStik EC500 meter (Extek Instruments, Nashua, New Hampshire, United States). The pH level was measured using pH strips (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, United States) and was maintained between 6 and 7. All fish were raised under a 14:10 hour light:dark cycle. Fish were fed twice daily with a diet of NRD 5/8 dry flake food (Inve Aquaculture, Dendermonde, Belgium) in the mornings and live *Artemia salina* (Inve Aquaculture) in the afternoon.

To generate the zebrafish samples for RNA-seq, we crossed a $psen1^{Q96\_K97del/+}$; $naglu^{A603fs/+}$ zebrafish with a $psen1^{+/+}$; $naglu^{A603fs/+}$ zebrafish, to generate a family of 100 sibling larvae with a variety of genotypes (**Fig.1**). These larvae were raised together in a 14 cm diameter plastic petri dish (VWR, Radnor, Pennsylvania, United States) in 150 mL

of E3 medium (44) (pH ~7) until 7 days post fertilisation (dpf). The E3 medium was

changed every two days.

At 7 dpf, all 100 sibling larvae were euthanised by cold shock, then individual larvae were

placed in 100 µL of RNA*later*™ Stabilization Solution (Invitrogen™, Waltham,

Massachusetts, United States). The larvae in RNA*later* were incubated overnight at 4°C.

Then, the tails of the RNA*later*-preserved larvae were removed for genotyping using

sterile needles to cut transversely at the level of the cloaca, see **Fig.1A**. The anterior ends

of the larvae were stored at -80°C until use.

For RNA-seq analysis of 6-month-old adult brains, we raised an additional family of

zebrafish spawned by a different parental pair (**Fig.1B**). All fish in the family were

euthanised by ice cold water shock, the sex of each fish was confirmed by dissection and

observation of testes or ovaries, entire heads were separated from bodies at the level of

the gills, and tails were removed for genotyping by PCR. Each entire head was

immediately placed in 600 µL of RNA*later* solution and incubated at 4°C overnight.

Subsequently, the RNA*later*-preserved brain was dissected from the skull, and then stored

in a fresh aliquot of 100 µL of RNA*later* at -80°C until analysis.

<u>PCR genotyping</u>

Genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from the tails of 7 dpf larvae and 6-month-old adults

by boiling in sodium hydroxide as described in (44). These gDNA preparations were then

used as templates for genotyping by polymerase chain reactions (PCRs). Our method of

genotyping involved PCR amplification across mutation sites using the primers described

in **Table 1** (purchased from Sigma Aldrich). Then, we subjected the amplified PCR

products to electrophoresis using gels consisting of 2-3% agarose (Sigma Aldrich) in 1 x

Tris-acetate-EDTA (1 x TAE) buffer for 2 hours at 90V, alongside DNA marker ladders

generated from the pHAPE plasmid (45). In this way, we could resolve two PCR products,

one each resulting from the wild type allele and/or mutant allele of each gene (see

Fig.S1,2).

Table 1: Genotyping primer details		
Gene	**Primer direction**	**Sequence 5' - 3'**
naglu	Forward	AGAGATATTCACAGACTGTTGCC
naglu	Reverse	TTGCTGGAAAGGATGCGG
psen1	Forward	ATGAGGTGGAGCTGAACGG
psen1	Reverse	GGGGTTGTATGGAGTGTGAGG

RNA extraction and sequencing.

Total RNA was isolated from the individual larval zebrafish and 6-month-old adult brain

samples using the *mir*Vana™ miRNA Isolation Kit (Invitrogen) following the

manufacturer's instructions. Only fish with genotypes *psen1* $^{+/+}$; *naglu* $^{+/+}$ (wild type),

psen1 $^{Q96\_K97del/+}$; *naglu* $^{+/+}$ (EOfAD-like) and *psen1* $^{+/+}$; *naglu* $^{A603fs/A603fs}$ (MPS IIIB) were

analysed as these represent the genetic state of the respective human diseases. For

analysis of adult brain, at least 3 fish of each sex per genotype were analysed. To remove

any genomic DNA, we treated the total RNA isolates with DNase I using the *DNA-free™*

DNA Removal Kit (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's instructions for routine DNase

digestion. 400 ng of total RNA from each of n = 8 larvae or adult brains per genotype were

then delivered to the South Australian Genomics Center (SAGC, Adelaide, South

Australia, Australia) for stranded polyA+ library preparation using Nugen Universal Plus

mRNA-seq (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland), protocol M01442 v2. The libraries were

further processed using the MGIEasy Universal Library Conversion Kit, Part No.

MGI1000004155 (MGI, Shenzhen, China), then sequenced (2 x 98 paired-end with 8 bp

unique molecular identifiers) using the MGI DNBSEQ-G400 platform across four lanes

which were subsequently merged.

RNA-seq data pre-processing

We pre-processed the raw fastq files using a custom pipeline implemented in *snakemake*

(46). For details of this pipeline, see **Fig.S3** and https://github.com/karissa-

b/2021_MPSIIIBvQ96-RNAseq-7dpfLarve. Briefly, *fastp* (47) was used to trim adaptors

and filter the reads by quality and length. Then, the reads were aligned to the zebrafish

genome (GRCz11, Ensembl release 104) using *STAR* (48) to generate sorted .bam files.

These were subsequently indexed using *samtools* (49). After alignment, PCR duplicates

were de-duplicated using the *dedup* function of *umi-tools* (50). The number of reads

aligning to gene models of the GRCz11 genome were counted using *featureCounts* (51).

FastQC (52) and *ngsReports* (53) were used to assess the quality of the raw and trimmed

data, as well as the original and deduplicated alignments.

Statistical analysis of RNA-seq data

Statistical analysis of the RNA-seq data was performed using R (54). We first omitted

lowly expressed genes, which are statistically uninformative for differential gene

expression analysis. We defined a gene as lowly expressed if it contained a log counts per

million (logCPM) of less than 0.5. To account for genes expressed below this limit of

detection in some experimental groups, but not in the others, we retained the genes which

fell below this threshold if they contained sufficient logCPM values in at least 8 out of the

24 total RNA-seq samples (i.e. one of the mutant genotype groups) in each experiment for

each age.

Differential gene expression analysis was performed with *edgeR* (55), specifying a design

matrix with the wild type genotype as the intercept, and each of the mutant genotypes as

coefficients. At 7 dpf, zebrafish are yet to become sexually dimorphic and we (36, 38, 39)

and others (56, 57) have not detected a substantial effect of sex on zebrafish brain

transcriptomes, including in this dataset (**Fig.S4**). Therefore, we did not include the effect

of sex in the design matrix. We considered a gene to be differentially expressed (DE) if the

p-value after adjusting for the false discovery rate (FDR) was less than 0.05.

We observed biases for differential expression of genes due to their guanine-cytosine

content (%GC) and their length (**Fig.S5**). To account for this bias, we used conditional

quantile normalisation (*cqn,* (58)). The offset term generated by *cqn* was then included in

an additional differential gene expression analysis with *edgeR* to give the final list of DE

genes.

Over-representation of gene ontology (GO) terms (59, 60) within the DE genes was

identified using *goseq* (61), setting a %GC content measure as a co-variate for each gene.

This measure was calculated as the average %GC content per transcript, weighted by the

transcript length, to account for the fact that different alternative transcripts per gene will

have different %GC contents. We considered a GO term to be significantly over-

represented in the DE genes if the FDR-adjusted p-value from *goseq* was < 0.05.

Due to the highly overlapping nature of GO terms, and the limitation of the hard threshold

of considering a gene to be DE, we also performed gene set enrichment analysis of the

KEGG (62) pathway gene sets using an ensemble approach. We calculated the statistical

significance of the changes to gene expression in the KEGG pathways using three gene

set enrichment tools, each having different statistical methodologies: *fry* (63), *camera* (64)

and *GSEA* (65, 66) as described previously (38). Then, the individual p-values were

combined using the harmonic mean p-value (HMP) method, which has been shown

specifically to be robust to dependent tests (67). We considered a gene set to be

significantly altered if the FDR-adjusted HMP was < 0.05.

To assess the statistical power achieved in these experiments, we used the *ssize_vary*()

function of *ssizeRNA* (68) using default parameters. Briefly, we defined the number of

genes considered detectable, the average read counts in the wild type group, and the

dispersion estimate from each experiment. The proportion of non-DE genes was set to

0.9, the pseudo-sample size to 30, the FDR level to 0.05, and the range of absolute logFC

values from 0-2.

Results

What are the molecular pathologies shared by MPS IIIB and *psen1* EOfAD-like zebrafish larvae?

We sought to compare directly the changes in global gene expression occurring due to

heterozygosity for an EOfAD-like mutation in *psen1* (*psen1*$^{Q96\_K97del}$) or homozygosity for

loss-of-function mutations in *naglu* (*naglu*^{A603fs} , i.e. causing MPS IIIB (41)) in 7 dpf

zebrafish larvae using RNA-seq. First, to assess the overall similarity between samples,

we used principal component analysis (PCA). No distinct clustering of samples by

genotype was observed (**Fig. 2A**), supporting that these mutant genotypes do not result in

extensive changes to larval zebrafish bulk transcriptomes.

We next asked whether any genes were differentially expressed (DE) in both MPS IIIB

and EOfAD-like zebrafish larvae, which may support some shared pathological changes.

However, we did not identify any genes with an FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05 in the

EOfAD-like larvae (meaning that, at the single gene level, it was not possible to identify

any similarity in the changes to gene expression in EOfAD-like and MPS IIIB zebrafish

larvae). In contrast, 57 DE genes were identified for the MPS IIIB mutant genotype

(**Fig.2B,C, Supplemental Table 1**) consistent with the earlier onset and greater disease

severity of MPS III relative to EOfAD. The DE genes in the MPS IIIB larvae were

significantly over-represented with 8 GO terms (**Fig.2D, Supplemental Table 2**) and the

DE genes within these significant GO terms were typically linked to multiple GO terms.

Consequently, the enrichment of DE genes within these GO terms is influenced to some

extent by the same set of genes (**Fig.2E**).

To detect any subtle changes in gene expression, we then took an ensemble approach to

gene set testing, in which the input does not rely on pre-defining DE genes. We applied

this method to the gene expression data from both mutants, using the KEGG (62) gene

sets. In the MPS IIIB larvae we detected significant changes to gene expression in 13

KEGG gene sets (**Fig.3A, Supplemental Table 3**). Not surprisingly, the gene sets for

lysosome, *glycosaminoglycan degradation* and *other glycan degradation* were found to be

significantly altered, consistent with the primary disease mechanisms in MPS III (reviewed

in (69)) (**Fig.3A** and **Fig.S6**). Only 1 KEGG gene set was significantly altered in the

EOfAD-like mutant larvae; *ECM receptor interaction*. This gene set is also significantly

altered in the MPS IIIB larvae. A positive Pearson correlation was found for the logFC of

the genes in this gene set between the EOfAD-like and MPS IIIB mutants (**Fig.3B**), and

the genes in the pathway tended to be downregulated (**Fig.S7**). These observations

suggest that changes to ECM function could be a common, early disease mechanism

between EOfAD and MPS III.

We did not detect any differentially expressed genes in the n = 8 individual EOfAD-like

mutants (**Fig.2B,C**), while our previous analysis of this EOfAD-like mutation that was

performed on n = 6 pools each of 40 larvae at 7 dpf had identified 228 DE genes (70).

Therefore, we hypothesised that our experiment was statistically underpowered for the

use of individual larvae. Subsequently, we performed a post-hoc power calculation using

ssizeRNA (68). Indeed, based on the variation observed within the wild type genotypes,

our experimental structure had achieved an estimated 51% power to detect DE genes. A

sample of size of > 20 individual larvae would be required to achieve 70% power (**Fig.S8**).

This is not feasible to achieve within a single zebrafish family as, in our experience, the

maximum size for a single clutch of zebrafish rarely exceeds 150 viable embryos.

Therefore, we decided to repeat the analysis using adult zebrafish brains, where we have

previously shown that n = 6 generally gives approximately 70% power to detect significant

changes in gene expression (38).

What do MPS IIIB and _psen1_ EOfAD-like zebrafish have in common in young adult brains?

PCA performed on brain transcriptome data from 6-month-old adult zebrafish revealed

some clustering of samples: the MPS IIIB samples formed a cluster distinct from the wild

type and EOfAD-like samples (**Fig.4A**). This suggests that the 6-month-old MPS IIIB brain

transcriptome does not represent a wild type state, and that significant changes are

apparent. This is consistent with the results of the differential gene expression analysis,

where 18 and 259 DE genes were identified in the EOfAD-like and MPS IIIB mutant brains

respectively (**Fig.4B, Supplemental Table 1**). The DE genes in the MPS IIIB mutant

brains were significantly overrepresented with 53 GO terms and the DE genes in the

EOfAD-like mutant brains were significantly over-represented with 9 GO terms. The

statistical significance of the GO terms in the EOfAD-like mutants were exclusively driven

by three genes: *nenf, mt2* and *slc30a1a*. The significantly enriched GO terms in the MPS

IIIB larvae were driven by several shared DE genes (**Fig.S9**). Therefore, the biological

interpretation of the significance of these GO terms is challenging. Nevertheless, the 10

most significantly over-represented GO terms are shown in **Fig.4C** and the full outputs

from goseq can be found in **Supplemental Table 2**.

To overcome the complications of the highly overlapping and largely redundant nature of

many of the GO terms, and for consistency with our analysis of larvae, we tested the

KEGG gene sets using the ensemble approach. By this method, we detected 10 gene

sets significantly altered in the EOfAD-like mutant brains and 15 gene sets significantly

altered in the MPS IIIB mutant brains **(Fig.5A, Supplemental Table 3)**. The KEGG gene

set *Alzheimer's disease* was only significantly altered in the EOfAD-like zebrafish brains,

and the gene set for *glycosaminoglycan degradation* was only significantly detected in the

MPS IIIB zebrafish, supporting the specificity for each disease of these models.

Four KEGG gene sets were found to be affected in the brains of both EOfAD-like and

MPS IIIB zebrafish: *lysosome*, *oxidative phosphorylation*, *ribosome*, and *other glycan*

degradation. Overall, the genes in the *oxidative phosphorylation*, *ribosome* and *lysosome*

gene sets show broad upregulation (**Fig.S10-12**). However, a significant positive

correlation of the changes to gene expression in these gene sets between the mutants

was only observed in the *ribosome* gene set (**Fig.5C-E**). We note that the statistical

significance of the *lysosome* and *other glycan degradation* gene sets in EOfAD-like brains

appears to be driven partially by the relatively large logFC value of the *hexa* gene

(**Fig.5C,E**). Additionally, in the *lysosome* and *oxidative phosphorylation* gene sets,

concordance apparently exists in the direction of the logFC values of genes encoding

protein subunits of the vacuolar ATPase complex (v-ATPase, **Fig.S10,13**).

Are changes in cell type proportions influencing the observed changes to gene expression?

In the analysis of bulk tissue using RNA-seq, differences in the proportions of cell types between comparison groups may result in differences in gene transcript representation between those groups that are not related to changes in cellular functions. To assess whether this has occurred for the larval and adult brain tissues we analysed here, we utilised single cell RNA-seq datasets from 5 dpf Tg(olig2:GFP)vu12 zebrafish larvae (71) and from wild type (Tübingen) adult brain (72) to define gene sets consisting of marker genes of the various cell types (we could not find a suitable dataset of 7 dpf zebrafish larvae in the literature). We then tested whether these marker gene sets were significantly enriched with up- or downregulated genes using *fry* (63) with a directional hypothesis. No statistical evidence was found for changes to cell type gene sets in the EOfAD-like mutants at either age (**Fig.6A,B**, **Supplemental Table 3**). However, significant changes to gene expression in marker genes of neural cell types were identified in 6-month-old MPS IIIB brains (**Fig.6B**). Notably, a broad downregulation of genes expressed in oligodendrocytes (**Fig.6C,E**) and neural stem cells (**Fig.6D**), and a broad upregulation of genes expressed in microglia (**Fig.6G**) and macrophages (**Fig.6F**) was observed. Generally, only a small proportion of the leading edge genes (those genes driving the statistical significance of the gene sets) were overlapping between these significantly altered gene sets (**Fig.S13**), although 17 leading edge genes were shared between the *microglia* and *macrophage_grn high* gene sets, representing 71% of all the microglial leading edge genes. Therefore, the significance of the microglial gene set is mostly driven by the same genes that drive the macrophage gene set. This gene expression signal suggests that inflammatory processes are occurring in these brains. Collectively, these results indicate the presence of cell type-specific dysfunction in the brains of 6-month-old

350   MPS IIIB zebrafish, potentially accompanied by alterations in the relative proportions of

351   these cell types.

No observed effect on the expression of genes responsive to intracellular iron levels.

Our previous analysis of the EOfAD-like mutation $psen1^{Q96\_K97del}$ in 6-month-old female

zebrafish brains (73) revealed significant changes in gene expression in genes regulated

by intracellular iron levels. Specifically, the changes in expression occurred for genes

containing consensus or non-consensus iron-responsive elements (IREs) in the 3'

untranslated regions of their transcripts. However, we did not detect any statistical

evidence for changes in expression of genes possessing IREs in either mutant at either

age (**Fig. S14, Supplemental Table 3**). Therefore, these datasets do not support that

intracellular iron levels are abnormal.

Consistency with other changes in gene expression previously observed in EOfAD-like zebrafish.

Our failure to observe changes in IRE gene sets in the 6-month-old EOfAD brains

described here, led us to examine the consistency between all our analyses of the

$psen1^{Q96\_K97del}$ mutation across independent experiments. We have previously analysed

the effect of this mutation in n = 6 pools each of 40 larvae at 7 dpf (70), as well as in

female 6-month-old zebrafish brains at n = 4 fish per genotype (43, 73). To assess the

overall similarity between samples across the experiments at each age, we performed

PCA on the logCPM values of genes considered detectable in each experiment. This

revealed that the samples separated based on their experiment of origin and not by

genotype. This supports that the overall effect of genotype is very subtle in these samples,

relative to the effect of experimental design (**Fig.7A,B**). We then applied our ensemble

approach to gene set testing to each of the previous datasets to identify whether similar

changes to the KEGG pathways could be identified. In 7 dpf larvae, this detected 85

significantly altered KEGG gene sets (**Fig.S15**), with the *ECM receptor interaction* gene

set having the highest level of statistical significance (the 10 most significantly altered

gene sets from the Dong et al. dataset (70) and their corresponding p-values from the

current dataset are shown in **Fig.7C**). In the 6-month-old female adult brain dataset

described in (43, 73), we detected 10 significantly altered KEGG gene sets, 6 of which

were significantly altered in this experiment (all gene sets found to be significantly altered

and their corresponding levels of statistical significance are shown in **Fig.7D**). Notably,

there was a lack of correlations of the logFC values of the genes within these gene sets

between the independent experiments (**Fig.7E-J**). Together, these results suggest that,

while extensive variation is apparent, particularly at the single gene level, when the same

mutation is analysed, common biological themes are still identified.

Discussion

In this study, we exploit the intra-family analysis strategy facilitated by zebrafish to

provide, for the first time, a sensitive and direct comparison of genetic models of two

inherited forms of early-onset dementia; EOfAD and MPS IIIB. We observed changes to

gene expression in the extracellular matrix genes very early in these disease models,

followed by changes to mitochondrial (oxidative phosphorylation), lysosomal and

ribosomal gene expression at later stages. We also identified changes to marker genes of

specific neural cell types in MPS IIIB zebrafish brains, indicating these cell types may be

particularly dysfunctional in this disease.

Changes to ECM function could be an early, common disease mechanism in AD and MPS III.

The extracellular matrix (ECM) is a complex network of proteins and carbohydrates that surrounds cells in multicellular organisms, providing mechanical support and playing a critical role in cellular functions such as tissue organisation and maintenance of tissue integrity. It consists primarily of proteins such as collagens and elastins, and glycoproteins such as laminins and fibronectin (reviewed in (74, 75)). Glycosaminoglycans incorporating heparan sulfate also form part of the ECM.

We observed subtle, yet statistically significant (**Fig.3C**), broad downregulation (**Fig.S7**) of the ECM genes in both MPS IIIB and EOfAD-like zebrafish larvae at 7 dpf. In particular, the collagen and fibronectin genes were downregulated to a similar extent in both disease models (**Fig.S7**). Collagen and fibronectin proteins together with heparan sulfate proteoglycans form part of the basal lamina of the extracellular matrix (76). Given that the core pathology of MPS IIIB hinges on deficiency of NAGLU enzymatic activity, leading to lysosomal accumulation of the heparan sulfate degradation product, the significant alterations in the expression of ECM protein-encoding genes in MPS IIIB larvae is not unexpected. The broad downregulation of these genes implies that the cells making up the bulk larval tissue are detecting excess ECM components. This is consistent with the observation of increased extracellular HS in a *NAGLU* deficient cell line (77). Increased extracellular substrates have been observed in several other lysosomal storage disorders (reviewed in (78)). Collagen-encoding genes were found to be upregulated in MPS IIIB human fibroblasts relative to the other MPS III subtypes and MPS IV (79). However, the collagen genes did not appear to be DE in comparison to a wild type control cell line (79). This may be due to issues in the design of that transcriptome analysis such as low

statistical power (one cell line per MPS disease) and an inappropriate control cell line which

may prevent detection of changes to ECM-related gene expression. Additionally, these

observations made in human fibroblasts may not capture the processes which occur in

neural cells. ECM genes were observed to be downregulated in iPSC-derived neurons

generated from fibroblasts of human patients with MPS IIIB (80).

While the observed changes to ECM gene expression in the EOfAD-like larvae are subtle,

we are confident in their reality due to the replication of the result in our previous,

independent experiment in pools of larvae at the same age (70). Our observations in

EOfAD-like zebrafish larvae are consistent with the transcriptome analyses of several

iPSC-derived neuron lines with *PSEN1* mutations (81-83), as well as in directly induced

neurons (iNs) from AD patients (84), which more closely retain their epigenetic aging

profiles than iPSC-derived neurons. In humans, increased collagen and fibronectin levels

have been observed in post-mortem AD brains (85). Changes to extracellular matrix

proteins are strongly associated with neuropathological traits and cognition in human AD

brains relative to controls (86) and were found to be the earliest detectable biomarker in

EOfAD patient cerebrospinal fluid proteomes, occurring 30 years before symptom onset

(87). However, the precise role of the ECM very early in AD is poorly understood and

requires further investigation.

Common changes to mitochondrial, lysosomal and ribosomal function occur in

young adulthood

Zebrafish are recently sexually mature at 6 months of age and we consider this equivalent

to early adulthood in humans. For MPS IIIB, this is considered relatively late in disease

progression as children typically succumb in their teenage years. This contrasts with

EOfAD, where changes in cognition are not expected until the fourth decade of life or

later. The dysregulation of genes associated with oxidative phosphorylation observed in

the young adult brains of zebrafish models of EOfAD and MPS IIIB (**Fig.5B** and **Fig.S10**)

suggests a potential shared molecular pathway underlying the changes which occur in

these seemingly disparate conditions.

Changes to the expression of the oxidative phosphorylation genes have been observed in

young, pre-symptomatic animal models of AD. We previously analysed the effects of

seven different AD-related mutations in 6-month-old zebrafish brains and found that these

all resulted in changes to oxidative phosphorylation gene expression (42). Mice

engineered to express a humanised version of the human ε4 allele of the apolipoprotein E

gene (*APOE4*, the strongest genetic risk factor for LOAD) also show changes to gene

expression in the oxidative phosphorylation pathway at young ages (42, 88). In humans,

changes to the oxidative phosphorylation genes are found early in AD, both in blood (89)

and in post-mortem brains (90). Additionally, brain glucose metabolism as measured by

fluoro-D-glucose positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) consistently shows changes

to glucose uptake during disease progression (reviewed in (91, 92)).

The role of mitochondrial dysfunction in MPS III is not extensively characterised. How

brain glucose metabolism changes with disease severity in children with MPS III is poorly

understood. Mitochondrial abnormalities and/or signs of oxidative stress (that can arise

from dysfunctional mitochondrial respiration) have been observed in the brains of mouse

models of MPS IIIA (93), IIIB (94), and IIIC (95, 96). Ultrastructural abnormalities (97) and

signs of oxidative stress have also been observed in MPS IIIB human brain tissue (30). A

mouse model of MPS VII (lysosomal accumulation of several mucopolysaccharides

including HS (98, 99)) showed a generally decreased abundance of the oxidative

phosphorylation proteins which were not detected by microarray in age matched samples

of the same strain (100). While the precise mechanism(s) of how and why mitochondria

are affected throughout MPS III disease course is unclear, these may be consequences of

defective autophagy/mitophagy (reviewed in (101)) caused by lysosome dysfunction.

Our analyses also detected significant changes to genes encoding lysosomal enzymes

and proteins (**Fig.5A, Fig.S12**) in both EOfAD-like and MPS IIIB zebrafish brains. While

the correlation of the logFC values of these genes was low (**Fig.5C**), they were broadly

upregulated in both models (**Fig.S12**). Lysosomes maintain an acidic lumen with pH

values generally within a range of 4.5 – 5 (102) via a mechanism involving v-ATPase

(reviewed in (103, 104)). The genes encoding the components of this complex are

upregulated in both EOfAD-like and MPS IIIB zebrafish brains (**Fig.S10** and **S12**),

suggesting that lysosomal acidification may be defective in these models. The

upregulation of these genes may reflect how the cells constituting these bulk brain RNA-

seq samples are attempting to restore the normal pH of defective lysosomes to maintain

cellular homeostasis. Lysosomal acidification defects have been detected in *PSEN1*-

deficient and primary *PSEN1*-EOfAD fibroblasts (105), as well as several other models of

AD mutations (106-109). Lysosomal pH was not detected as significantly altered in MPS

IIIA mouse embryonic fibroblasts (110). However, the existence of defective lysosomal

acidification requires exploration in other MPS III subtypes, and in other models.

Particularly as it has been observed in several other lysosomal storage disorders (110-

113) including MPS I (114).

Sufficient lysosomal acidification is required for the release of ferrous iron into the cytosol

for absorption by mitochondria (115). We did not observe significant changes to iron

homeostasis-related genes in either mutant at either age (**Fig.S14**), despite previous

detection of changes to iron transport gene expression in pools of EOfAD-like larvae at 7

dpf (70), changes in the *all 3' IRE* gene set (*ire-3all*) in female EOfAD-like brains at 6

months of age (73), and in all IRE gene sets in MPS IIIA zebrafish brains at 3 months of

age (41). This was unexpected, and the reason(s) for this discrepancy are not fully known

(discussed later). However, there is evidence supporting iron dyshomeostasis in mild

cognitive impairment (the precursor to AD) (116, 117), AD (118, 119), and in post-mortem

AD brains (120, 121). Iron homeostasis in MPS IIIB is far less understood. However,

increased iron levels are observed in the cortex of a MPS IIIB mouse model in its

symptomatic disease stages (122), as well as in a human MPS IIIB patient (123). We

suspect that changes to iron homeostasis genes in young adult zebrafish brains are very

subtle, and may be detected more consistently at later ages.

We observed broad, yet subtle, upregulation of ribosomal protein genes in EOfAD-like and

MPS IIIB zebrafish brains (**Fig.5D**). Upregulation of the ribosomal gene *RPLPA* was

observed in a MPS IIIB patient-derived fibroblast line (and downregulation of the

ribosomal genes *RPL10* and *RPL23* was observed in fibroblasts from other MPS III

subtypes (79)). However, the functionality of ribosomes in MPS III is poorly understood.

Early in AD, protein synthesis rates by ribosomes appear to be decreased (124), possibly

due to oxidation (by redox-active iron) of ribosomal proteins or RNA (125). The observed,

broad upregulation of the ribosomal gene set could reflect a homeostatic response to

defects in protein synthesis in both EOfAD and MPS IIIB. Alternatively, we have

speculated previously that it may be due to changes in mTOR signalling caused by

changes in lysosomal function (discussed in (42)).

Cell type-specific changes to gene expression in MPS IIIB zebrafish brains

In MPS IIIB adult brains, we observed statistical evidence for changes to gene expression

in five different cell types. The two most statistically significantly altered marker gene sets

were those of oligodendrocytes and neural stem cells. These showed broad

downregulation (**Fig.6C**) with minimal overlap in the genes driving the significance

(**Fig.S7**). Significant reduction of the expression of the oligodendrocyte gene set was

observed in the brains of all three of our zebrafish models at 3 months of age (41), as well

as in a mouse model of MPS VII at approximately 5 months of age (126). These gene

expression changes are consistent with the observed demyelination in the cerebral cortex

of MPS IIIB mice (127) and the corpus collosum of MPS IIIC mice (128) at 6 months of

age. Intriguingly, mucopolysaccharides have been shown to inhibit oligodendrocyte

maturation (129-131). Together, our results along with previous literature of animal models

of MPS diseases support that changes to oligodendrocyte differentiation and/or function

occur due to the excess mucopolysaccharides in symptomatic MPS disease stages. In

children with MPS III, loss of myelin (132, 133), and reduction of key oligodendrocyte

proteins (128) has been observed. However, changes to oligodendrocyte function and

myelination are not currently regarded as significant contributors to symptom

manifestation.

We did not observe any evidence supporting oligodendrocyte dysfunction in EOfAD-like

zebrafish at 7 dpf or 6 months of age. However, increasing evidence supports a role for

oligodendrocytes in this disease. A brain imaging study of EOfAD patients revealed that

white matter hyperintensities may be occurring as early as 22 years prior to symptom

onset (134), which likely reflects demyelination and damage to the axons of neurons

(135). Intriguingly, expression of *PSEN1* in the human brain is highest in oligodendrocytes

(136). It is possible that oligodendrocytes in EOfAD-like zebrafish are affected, just not

detectable at the transcriptome level at these ages. Oligodendrocytes in EOfAD-like

zebrafish should be investigated further.

Consistent changes to gene expression can be detected at the pathway level across

independent experiments

The changes to gene expression we observed in the EOfAD-like zebrafish in this

experiment were consistent with our previous analyses (42, 43, 70, 73). In each of those

datasets, we observed significant changes to gene expression in pathways associated

with the ECM in larvae, and in mitochondria, ribosomes and lysosomes in EOfAD-like

adult brain. However, comparisons made at the single gene level did not reveal

consistency (**Fig.7**). The differences at the single gene level may be attributed to technical

factors inherent to conducting experiments independently, such as differences in sample

preparation and sequencing platforms. Moreover, the inherent biological variability within

the zebrafish models analysed at different times may lead to distinct outcomes when

comparisons are not performed within a single experiment. This exemplifies the

importance of interpreting results at the pathway or gene set, rather than single gene level

when analysing transcriptome data.

Limitations

In the work described in this paper, we have employed zebrafish as a model organism due

to its unique advantages of being a commonly used vertebrate model species with high

fecundity, genetic tractability, and fairly high genetic similarity to humans (reviewed in

(137)). It is important to acknowledge that zebrafish may not fully recapitulate all aspects

of human neurodegenerative diseases (particularly for AD), and the relative simplicity and small size of zebrafish brains may limit their equivalence to the human brain diseases we are attempting to model. Additionally, zebrafish are exceptionally regenerative, including the ability to regenerate brain tissue (138). Therefore, zebrafish are not an ideal model to study the mechanisms of neurodegeneration specifically. Consequently, while our zebrafish models offer valuable insights into disease mechanisms preceding neurodegeneration, any findings should be interpreted with consideration of potential species-specific differences. Additionally, our findings should be verified with protein expression and/or functional assays.

We observed broad upregulation of microglial/macrophage marker genes and downregulation of oligodendrocyte marker genes in MPS IIIB zebrafish brains. This could be interpreted as indicating that the functions of these cell types are particularly disturbed by the MPS IIIB genotype. Alternatively, it could imply that there are significant changes in the proportions of these cell types constituting the MPS IIIB bulk brain transcriptome samples. In future work, we will dissect the changes to gene expression in MPS IIIB brains at the level of single cells to explore cell-type specific changes to gene expression, and whether there are changes to proportions of these cell types.

Conclusion

Here, we provide the first direct comparison of zebrafish models of MPS IIIB and EOfAD, which lead to childhood and adult-onset dementia respectively. While the upstream genetic causes of these diseases are independent, our results suggest there may be disease mechanisms in common, particularly with respect to lysosomal dysfunction. This

581   poses the question of whether common therapeutic strategies could be applied with

582   benefit for people living with either of these two devastating diseases.

Figures

Fig.1: Intra-family transcriptome analysis strategy. A) A female zebrafish heterozygous for both the *naglu*[A603fs] (MPS IIIB) and the *psen1*[Q96_K97del] (EOfAD-like) mutations was mated with a male zebrafish only heterozygous for *naglu*[A603fs]. The subsequent family of ~100 sibling zebrafish larvae was raised in a single petri dish at 28.5 °C. At 7 days post fertilisation (dpf), the entire family was euthanised simultaneously and each larva placed individually in RNAlater solution. After 24 hours, each larva was bisected transversely at the cloaca. The tail end was used for genomic DNA extraction and genotyping, while the remaining head and trunk was used for RNA-seq. **B)** A different pair of zebrafish with the same *psen1* and *naglu* mutant genotypes was mated to generate the adult brain analysis family. The entire family was raised until 6 months of age. Then all fish in the family were euthanised, and their entire heads removed and immersed in 6 volumes of RNAlater solution each, and stored at 4°C overnight. Brains were subsequently dissected out of the RNAlater-preserved heads while their corresponding tails were used for genotyping by PCR. **C)** Table showing expected genotype proportions in the MPS IIIB/EOfAD-like families. **D)** Schematic showing the pairwise comparisons between MPS IIIB and EOfAD-like zebrafish to wild type zebrafish in each RNA-seq experiment for each age.

A 7 dpf larvae

Family of 100 siblings
Raised to 7 dpf

Euthanise
RNAlater 4°C overnight

Cut at cloaca

RNA-seq

Genotyping

B 6 month adult brain

Family of 100 siblings
Raised to 6 months of age

Euthanise

Cut at gill & tail

RNAlater 4°C
Remove brain

RNA-seq

Genotyping

C

Genotype		% of progeny
naglu	*psen1*	
+/+	+/+	12.5
mut/+	+/+	25
mut/mut	+/+	12.5
+/+	mut/+	12.5
mut/+	mut/+	25
mut/mut	mut/+	23.5

D

wt

psen1 +/+
naglu +/+
N = 8

MPS IIIB

psen1 +/+
naglu mut/mut
N = 8

EOfAD-like

psen1 mut/+
naglu +/+
N = 8

Fig.2: Differential gene expression analysis in zebrafish larvae at 7 days post fertilisation

(dpf). A) Principal component analysis (PCA) on the $\log_{10}$ counts per million (logCPM) values after

adjusting for %GC and length bias using cqn (58). Each point represents a larval zebrafish

transcriptome sample which is coloured by genotype. The percentage variations that principal

component 1 (PC1) and 2 (PC2) explain in the dataset are indicated in parentheses in the axis

labels. **B)** Numbers of differentially expressed genes for each mutant genotype relative to wild type

zebrafish larvae. **C)** Volcano plots showing the log fold change (logFC) and negative $\log_{10}$ of the p-

value of the genes expressed in MPS IIIB and EOfAD-like larval zebrafish samples. Each point

represents a gene which is coloured red if the differential expression FDR-adjusted p-value was

less than 0.05. The x-axis labels are constrained to within -2 and 2 for visualisation purposes. **D)**

The 10 most significantly over-represented Gene Ontology (GO) terms among the differentially

expressed genes in MPS IIIB zebrafish larvae. **E)** Network visualisation indicating the overlap of

DE genes within the significantly over-represented GO terms in MPS IIIB larvae. GO term nodes

(black) are connected by unweighted edges to the nodes representing DE genes (blue) to which

they are assigned.

Fig. 3. KEGG pathway analysis in zebrafish larvae at 7 days post fertilisation (dpf). A)
Heatmap indicating the KEGG gene sets significantly altered in at least one of the mutant larval
zebrafish samples. Cells in the heatmap are coloured by the $\log_{10}$ of the harmonic mean p-value
(i.e. the brighter, more yellow cells are more statistically significant). These appear shaded and
grey if the p-value did not reach the significance threshold of $p < 0.05$. The numbers inside the
heatmap are the FDR-adjusted harmonic mean p-values. **B)** Pearson correlation of the logFC
values of genes in the KEGG gene set for extracellular matrix (ECM) receptor interaction. Grey
shading indicates confidence intervals.

Fig.4: Differential gene expression analysis in zebrafish brains at 6 months of age. A) Principal component analysis (PCA) on the $\log_{10}$ counts per million (logCPM) values after adjusting for %GC and length bias using *cqn* (58). Each point represents an adult zebrafish brain transcriptome sample coloured by genotype and shaped by sex (F: female, M: male, wt: wild type). The percent variations that principal component 1 (PC1) and 2 (PC2) explain in the dataset are indicated in parentheses in the axis labels. **B)** Volcano plots showing the log fold change (logFC) and negative $\log_{10}$ of the p-value of the genes expressed in MPS IIIB and EOfAD-like zebrafish adult brains. Each point represents a gene which is coloured red if the gene was differentially expressed at a FDR-adjusted p-value of less that 0.05. The x-axis labels are constrained to within -2 and 2 for visualisation purposes. **C)** The 10 most significantly over-represented Gene Ontology (GO) terms among the differentially expressed genes in EOfAD-like and MPS IIIB zebrafish brains. The bars are coloured by the proportion of genes within the GO term found to be differentially expressed in each mutant, and appear lighter in colour if the FDR-adjusted p-value was less than 0.05.

 Fig.5: KEGG gene sets significantly altered in zebrafish brains at 6 months of age. A)

Heatmap indicating those KEGG gene sets significantly altered in at least one of the mutant

zebrafish brains. Cells in the heatmap are coloured by the $\log_{10}$ of the harmonic mean p-value (i.e.

the brighter, more yellow cells are more statistically significant). They appear grey if the p-value

did not reach the significance threshold of < 0.05. **B)** Scatterplot indicating the Pearson

correlations between the log fold change (logFC) of genes in the KEGG gene sets for *oxidative*

phosphorylation, **C)** *lysosome*, **D)** *ribosome* and **E)** *other glycan degradation* in EOfAD-like and

MPS IIIB mutant zebrafish brains.

A

Fig.6 Changes to cell type proportions. A) Heatmap indicating the statistical significance of cell

type marker gene sets in 7 days post fertilisation (dpf) larvae and **B)** 6 months of age (6m) adult

brains. The cells in the heatmap are coloured by the $\log_{10}$ of the harmonic mean p-value (i.e. the

brighter, more yellow cells are more statistically significant). They appear grey if the FDR-adjusted

p-value did not reach the threshold of < 0.05. **C)** Heatmap indicating the logFC values of the genes

expressed in oligodendrocytes, **D)** neural stem cells, **E)** macrophages with high *grn1* expression,

F) microglia, **G)** neuroblasts and **H)** meningeal mural lymphatic endothelial cells.

Fig.7 Consistent changes to KEGG pathways can be detected across independent

experiments analysing EOfAD-like zebrafish. **A)** Principal component (PC) analysis of logCPM

values in wild type (wt) and EOfAD-like zebrafish larvae at 7 days post fertilisation when analysing

individuals (this experiment) or pools of 40 larvae (70). **B)** PC analysis of logCPM values in 6-

month-old wt (wild type) and EOfAD-like zebrafish brains in this experiment and from the data

described in Hin et al. (73) **C)** Dumbbell plot showing the -$\log_{10}$ of the harmonic mean p-value of

the 10 most significantly altered KEGG gene sets in 7 dpf individuals (red) or pooled (blue)

EOfAD-like zebrafish larvae. **D)** Dumbbell plot showing the -$\log_{10}$ of the harmonic mean p-value of

the KEGG gene sets significantly altered in the brains of 6-month-old EOfAD-like zebrafish in this

experiment (red) or in the experiment described by Hin et al. (73) (blue). Points in **C)** and **D)**

appear grey if they did not reach the threshold for being considered statistically significant at FDR

< 0.05. **E)** Pearson correlation of the logFC values for genes in the KEGG gene set *ECM receptor*

interaction in 7 dpf zebrafish larvae. **F)** Pearson correlation of the logFC values in 6-month-old

EOfAD-like zebrafish brains for genes in the KEGG gene sets **F)** *oxidative phosphorylation*, **G)**

ribosome, **H)** *Alzheimer's disease*, **I)** *lysosome* and **J)** *Parkinson's disease*.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

All experiments involving zebrafish were conducted under the auspices of the Animal Ethics Committee of the University of Adelaide (approval numbers S-2021–067 and S-2021–041), and Institutional Biosafety Committee (PC2 NLRD 15037).

Availability of data and materials

The raw fastq files from these analyses have been deposited to the GEO database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) under the accession numbers GSE217196 (7 dpf larvae) and GSE242370 (adult brain). The data arising from our previous analyses of the EOfAD-like mutations can be obtained from the GEO database under accession numbers GSE148631 (pools of 7 dpf larvae) and GSE149149 (6-month-old adult brain). All code to reproduce these analyses can be found at https://github.com/karissa-b/2021_MPSIIIBvQ96-RNAseq-7dpfLarve.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' contributions

KB and ML conceived the project. KB performed all experiments and analyses described in this manuscript, prepared the figures, and wrote the first draft under the supervision of KH and ML. All authors read and contributed to the final manuscript.

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