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## Two covariance models for iron-responsive elements

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Abbreviations: IRE, iron-responsive element; IRP, iron regulatory protein; UTR, untranslated region

Iron-responsive elements (IREs) function in the 5' or 3' untranslated regions (UTRs) of mRNAs as post-transcriptional structured cis-acting RNA regulatory elements. One known functional mechanism is the binding of iron regulatory proteins (IRPs) to 5' UTR IREs, reducing translation rates at low iron levels. Another known mechanism is IRPs binding to 3' UTR IREs in other mRNAs, increasing RNA stability. Experimentally proven elements are quite small, have some diversity of sequence and structure, and functional genes have similar pseudogenes in the genome. This paper presents two new IRE covariance models, comprising a new IRE clan in the RFAM database to encompass this variation without over-generalisation. Two IRE models rather than a single model is consistent with experimentally proven structures and predictions. All of the IREs with experimental support are modeled. These two new models show a marked increase in the sensitivity and specificity in detection of known iron-responsive elements and ability to predict novel IREs.

### Introduction

The cis-acting iron-responsive element (IRE) was first discovered in human ferritin mRNA (FTHI).1 Since then, IREs have been found in both the 5' and 3' UTRs of diverse mRNAs over a wide phylogenetic range—mainly eukaryotic animals and also some prokaryotes, but not plants.2 Iron regulatory proteins 1 and 2 (IRP1 and IRP2) bind to IREs in low iron conditions. In high iron conditions IRP1 binds to iron complexes, adopting conformations unsuitable for IRE binding. IRP2 is degraded in high iron conditions, making it unavailable for binding.3 IRP binding to an IRE in the ferritin mRNA 5' UTR inhibits ferritin translation. Multiple IRPs bind to five IREs in the 3' UTR of the human transferrin receptor (TFRC), stabilizing these transcripts by blocking an endonucleolytic cleavage. 4 Thus, IREs represent a classic paradigm by which RNA regulatory elements can mediate the translation rate of specific mRNAs. This is required to provide a rapid response to iron, which is essential, but potentially toxic.5

Before experimental RNA structure data were available, predicted IRE secondary structures had invariably shown a 6 base apical hairpin loop, five based upper stem, bulged C8 and variable lower stem. It is the apical loop and mid-stem C8 bulge that are critical for IRE function and this has become a canonical model used by RFAM<sup>6</sup> and other databases.<sup>7,8</sup> However the data from an NMR study by Addess<sup>9</sup> and a crystal structure of IRP1 bound to a ferritin IRE by Walden<sup>10</sup> show that the C14 and G18 bases in the apical hairpin loop are in fact paired, producing a

tri-loop (A15, G16, U17) and that two bases (a C8 and U6) are bulged from the hairpin stem. These structures<sup>9,10</sup> did confirm the predicted secondary structure of an A-form helical stem, interrupted by a mid-stem C8 bulge, with an apical loop that presents conserved bases interacting with IRE binding proteins.

Predicted secondary structures suggested ferritin IREs might have an additional U6 bulge in the lower stem, this was confirmed by the NMR and crystal structure data. However, IREs found in transferrin receptor mRNAs (as well as IREs in *SLC40A1*, *SDHB*, *ACO2*, *SLC11A2*) lack the bulged U6 and this region is predicted to be paired. Thus the dual mid-stem bulge distinguishes the ferritin IREs from other IREs. This division is not novel<sup>11</sup>—those with the additional U6 bulge would correspond to the UGC (and variants) class of Picinnelli and Samuelsson 2007.<sup>12</sup> Most IREs predicted secondary structures conform better to the single bulge structure (IRE Family 1). Therefore, this new RFAM IRE clan divides the known IREs into two structural families—with and without the lower bulged U6.

In addition to the positional difference between IREs located in the 5' and 3' UTR there is notable heterogeneity in regulatory mechanisms and effects. For example: (1) The IRE in the 3' UTR of *SLC11A2* was shown to have a higher affinity for IRP1 than IRP2, in contrast to the *FTH1* IRE which was shown to have similar affinities.<sup>13</sup> (2) Both *TFRC* and *CDC42BPA* have IREs in their 3' UTR conferring RNA stability, yet in low iron conditions the mRNA of *CDC42BPA* showed greater stability than *TFRC*.<sup>14</sup> (3) Regulation of splicing could have a direct impact on post-transcriptional regulation for at least two IREs

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Table 1. List of known IRE-containing mRNAs used to build the covariance models, mRNAs are listed in chronologic order of discovery.

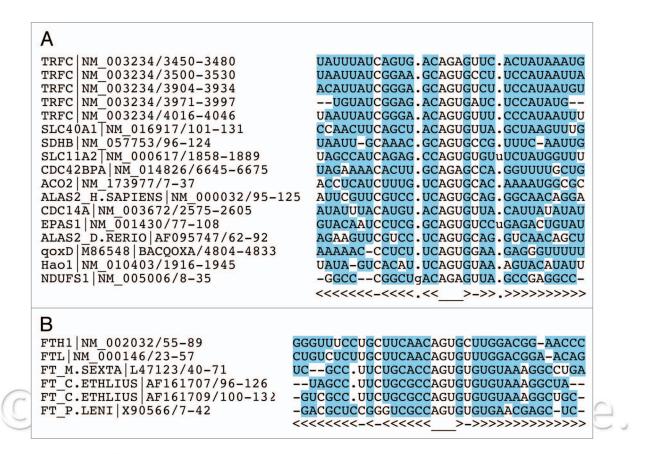
Gene	Species	Alternative name	Name	Location	Ref	Date
FTH1	Homo sapiens	FHC; FTH; PLIF; FTHL6; PIG15; MGC104426; FTH1	ferritin, heavy polypeptide 1	5' UTR	1	1987
FTL	Homo sapiens	NBIA3; MGC71996; FTL	ferritin, light polypeptide	5' UTR	25	1987
TFRC	Homo sapiens	TFR; CD71; TFR1; TRFR; TFRC	transferrin receptor (p90, CD71)	3' UTR	3	1989
ALAS2	Homo sapiens	ASB; ANH1; XLSA; ALASE; XLDPP; ALAS-E; FLJ93603; ALAS2	aminolevulinate, delta-, synthase 2	5' UTR	26	1991
SdhB	Drosophila melanogaster	CG3283; Dmel\CG3283; lp; SDH; SDH-lp; SDH-lP; sdhB; SDHb	succinate dehydrogenase com- plex, subunit B, iron sulfur (Ip)	5' UTR	14	1995
ACO2	Bos taurus		aconitase 2, mitochondrial	5' UTR	27	1996
Ferritin	Pacifastacus leni- usculus			5' UTR	28	1999
Нао1	Mus musculus	GOX; Gox1; Hao-1; MGC141211; Hao1	Hao1 hydroxyacid oxidase 1, liver	3' UTR	29	1999
qoxD	Bacillus subtilis		cytochrome aa 3-600 quinol oxi- dase (subunit IV)	3' UTR	30	1999
SLC11A2	Homo sapiens	DCT1; DMT1; NRAMP2; FLJ37416; SLC11A2	solute carrier family 11 (proton- coupled divalent metal ion trans- porters), member 2	3' UTR	11	2001
Ferritin	Manduca sexta		Manduca sexta ferritin heavy chain-like protein precursor	5' UTR	31	2001
NDUFS1	Homo sapiens	CI-75k; CI-75Kd; PRO1304; MGC26839; NDUFS1	NADH dehydrogenase (ubiqui- none) Fe-S protein 1, 75 kDa (NADH-coenzyme Q reductase)	5' UTR	32	2001
Ferritin	Calpodes ethlius		Calpodes ethlius fat body secreted ferritin S subunit precursor.	5' UTR	33	2002
SIc40a1	Mus musculus	MTP; Ol5; Pcm; Dusg; Fpn1; MTP1; IREG1; Slc11a3; Slc39a1; Slc40a1	solute carrier family 40 (iron-regulated transporter), member 1	5' UTR	34	2003
alas2	Danio rerio	sau; alas-e; cb1063; sauternes; alas2	aminolevulinate, delta-, synthase 2	5' UTR	35	2005
CDC42BPA	Homo sapiens	MRCK; MRCKA; PK428; FLJ23347; KIAA0451; DKFZp686L1738; DKFZp686P1738; CDC42BPA	CDC42 binding protein kinase alpha (DMPK-like)	3' UTR	12	2006
CDC14A	Homo sapiens	cdc14; hCDC14; CDC14A	CDC14 cell division cycle 14 homolog A (S. cerevisiae)	3' UTR	13	2006
EPAS1	Homo sapiens	HLF; MOP2; ECYT4; HIF2A; PASD2; bHLHe73; EPAS1	endothelial PAS domain protein 1	5' UTR	15	2007

(in *CDC14A*<sup>15</sup> and *SLC11A2*<sup>13</sup>) affected by alternative splice variants—with some transcripts omitting the element.

The IRE has a regulatory role in several mRNAs involved in iron metabolism. While the depth of knowledge regarding these genes and their products is variable, they are clearly diverse. FTH1 and FTL encode subunits of the iron storage complex, ferritin.<sup>5</sup> TFRC encodes a membrane receptor for transferrin, allowing cellular uptake of iron.<sup>5</sup> SLC11A2 (DMT1) encodes a divalent-cation transporter, a membrane protein mediating iron uptake from the intestinal lumen.<sup>16</sup> SLC40A1 (IREG1) encodes a membrane protein transporting iron in the duodenum to the circulation.<sup>17</sup> ALAS2 encodes a synthase catalysing the first step of the heme biosynthesis pathway.<sup>18</sup> SDHB encodes a subunit of a Kreb's cycle enzyme required for electron transport to quinones.<sup>19</sup> ACO2 encodes an isomerase catalysing the reversible isomerisation of citrate and

iso-citrate. <sup>20</sup> EPASI encodes a transcription factor involved in complex oxygen sensing pathways by the induction of oxygen-regulated genes under low oxygen conditions. <sup>21</sup> CDC42BPA encodes a kinase with a role in cytoskeletal reorganization. <sup>22</sup> CDC14A encodes a dual-specificity phosphatase implicated in cell cycle control <sup>23</sup> and also interacts with interphase centrosomes. <sup>24</sup> Table 1 shows a complete list of known IREs with direct experimental evidence.

Most of the IREs characterized to date have initially been identified in mammalian mRNAs. For insects the first functional IRE was found in the 5' UTR of the SDHB mRNA of Drosophila melanogaster.<sup>25</sup> There is no evidence of this IRE in the SDHB mRNA for humans or other mammals. A previously published phylogenetic analysis of iron-responsive elements has shown that the IRE of FTH1/FTL occurs in a majority of metazoa.<sup>12</sup> Whereas, IRE like sequences in ALAS2 and ACO2 are present



**Figure 1.** Structurally aligned IRE families. The secondary structure is shown below each family in WUSS notation and the sequences are highlighted to show base pairing conforming to the consensus structure. The identifier indicates the gene in which the sequence was found and the genbank locus with the position of the sequence. (A) IRE Family 1—with a C8 bulge between the upper and lower stems. (B) IRE Family 2—with an additional U6 bulge in the lower part of the helix.

in chordates, *SLC40A1* and *TFRC* contain IRE like sequences in vertebrates, and the IRE of *SLC11A2* (*DMT1*) is confined to mammals.<sup>12</sup>

Some IREs have unusual structures, for example the *EPASI* IRE was found by immunoprecipitation and the authors of that study reported that this element could not be found by the then available in silico approaches.<sup>26</sup> The *EPASI* IRE is predicted to have an additional U bulge in its upper stem and also an unpaired A opposite an unpaired C in the lower stem.

SIREs (Searching for IREs)<sup>27</sup> is the most recently developed web-accessible bioinformatic approach to predict IREs utilizing advanced regular expressions, and thermodynamic stability. It showed improved prediction ability on mRNA sequences, but has not been tested as a genomic search tool.

An alternative approach is to use the Infernal software package<sup>28</sup> to build a covariance model for this structured RNA element, as is done for many elements in the RFAM database. A covariance model is a stochastic context free grammar (SCFG) designed for modeling the consensus sequence and structure of RNAs. An SCFG provides a statistical method that scores not only nucleotide residues at single stranded positions but also base pairings, insertions and deletions given an alignment to a consensus secondary structure.<sup>28</sup> The resulting "bit score" is the logodds ratio of the probability of the target matching the model to

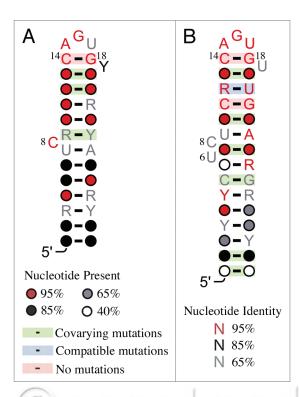
the probability of target matching random sequence. The RFAM database has primarily catalogued non-coding RNAs with the use of covariance models but also contains a growing group of cis-regulatory models such as the IRE.

The covariance model provided by RFAM has not been updated for some time and the current family does not include or detect many of the known elements documented here. These new models for the IRE keep this in silico approach current and are able to identify all the IREs with experimental support to date. The models' abilities to detect putative elements in human genomic sequences were assessed. Homologous genes from non-human species were searched in an assessment of the conservation of the new putative elements.

#### Results

Models. Figure 1 shows the structurally aligned experimentally supported IRE sequences divided into two families. These were used to build two covariance models designed to represent the diversity of IREs (Table S1).

A collection of mRNAs containing the known IREs were searched using the new models. The new models now find known IREs in the mRNAs that were missed by the old model-SDHB, SLC11A2, ACO2, EPAS1, CDC42BPA, CDC14A, NDUFS1 and



**Figure 2.** IRE Families sequence/structure. IUPAC codes corresponding to the seed sequences in each model are shown. Conserved bases and pairings are highlighted. (A) IRE Family 1. (B) IRE Family 2.

SLC40A1 (Table S2). Conserved bases and pairings can be further visualized in Figure 2.

Reviewing the sequences as shown in Figure 1 it is apparent that additional bulges to the consensus structures are more common in the lower part of the IRE stem. This can be further visualised in Figure 2 where the most highly conserved pairs are in the upper part of the stem. Perfect conservation can be seen in the bases shown to interact with the iron-responsive protein in the crystal structure<sup>10</sup> whereas covariance consistent with maintaining structure can be seen in other bases.

The new models were used to search the entire human genome. The number of hits over a range of bit score thresholds were counted in 5' UTRs, 3' UTRs, coding regions and introns. There are several pseudogenes for some of the known IRE containing genes—e.g., ferritin.<sup>40</sup> The exons containing the established IREs were used in a blast search to identify regions where a likely explanation for a hit was a match against a possible pseudogene (Table 2).

The models were also used to search the RFAMSEQ10 database. This database includes nucleotide sequence from many species—all of the nucleotide transcript data for the EMBL species as well as data from whole genome shotguns and environmental sequence. Extraneous datasets such as ESTs and synthetic sequences are excluded.<sup>41</sup> In order to assess these hits, all the known protein sequences encoded by the mRNAs with experimentally established IREs were obtained and tblastn was used to search the RFAMSEQ10 database. Table 3 shows where the new IRE Family hits were found in conjunction with these known protein matches. For IRE Family 1 at a bit score threshold of 19, 67% of hits were not closely associated with regions identified by the protein search (524/775). For IRE Family 2 at a threshold of 28 it was 75% (1,117/1,482).

The hits found by the models on the human genome may be retrieved from our companion site and visualised using the UCSC genome browser (mrna.otago.ac.nz/stevens2011a).

Sensitivity and specificity. The sensitivity of the new models to detect the experimentally established IREs was assessed (Table 2). IRE Family 1 requires a low bit score cut off of 19 to give 100% sensitivity with a bit score cut off of 25 providing a sensitivity of 93% (failing to detect only the experimentally supported NDUFS1 IRE). For IRE Family 2 a bit score cut off of 28 gives 100% sensitivity while maintaining 100% specificity.

The specificity of the new models was assessed using similar criteria to the recently published SIREs.<sup>27</sup> Shuffled sequences of 150 randomly selected mRNAs were searched. SIREs reports specificity of between 91.3% and 99.3% depending on stringency using this method. We reproduced these results using the SIREs web server and our randomly selected mRNAs and found a similar 88.0% to 99.3% specificity. No hits were detected in the same random sequences using the new models published here (100% specificity at all bit scores over 10 according to this method).

Shuffled sequences for much of the human genome (2.8 Gb) were searched in order to better assess the specificity of the new covariance models. The number of hits found in random sequence in proportion to the size of genomic regions searched is shown in Table 2. For IRE Family 1 at the low bit score cut off of 19 (100% sensitivity to known IREs) there are 17 hits in 28 million bases of 3' UTR, 8 of which are known IREs. In shuffled sequence of the same size only 3.3 are detected on average. This indicates that the model is detecting much more than expected by chance.

The specificity of the results is better for IRE Family 2. At a bit score cut off of 28, both of the two known elements are matched whereas no chance hits are detected—even in the whole shuffled genome.

The number of IRE hits found by the models in the human genome overlapping repeat regions as predicted by RepeatMasker was determined. RepeatMasker identified repetitive sequences covering 48.8% of the whole human genome. A hit was deemed to overlap a repeat region if there was at least an 80% overlap. For IRE Family 1 at a bit score threshold of 19 there were 171 overlapping hits out of 1,020 total hits (16.8%). For the same family at a threshold of 25 there were only two overlapping hits out of 29 (8%). For IRE Family 2 at a threshold of 28 there were no overlapping hits out of 27 (0%).

Refining hits. It is desirable to focus on the predicted novel IREs for further investigation. To narrow down hits one approach is to combine other sources of information. The clearest criteria being that they would be in UTRs—though this annotation is not always available. In the results shown in Table 2, gene and UTR annotation from the Refseq genes at UCSC were used. In addition to the known IRE containing genes, the new models predicted IREs in several other genes. These are documented with a brief description in Table 4. Gene ontology analysis shows VHL in "the response to oxygen levels" category along with the known

Table 2. IRE hits in human genome (hg18, UCSC) using the new RFAM IRE models

Base	coverage	28,130,973	8,316,280	33,733,356	26,763	68,275,928	5,017,407,839	1,129,670,779		
>	4.		mRNA		0	0	nic	<u>s</u>	ity	ity
Family	Score	3' UTRs	5' UTRs	CDS	Pseudo	Exon U Pseudo	Intergenic	Introns	Sensitivity	Specificity
IRE 1	19	17 (3.3)	7 (1.0)	6 (4.0)	14 (0.0)	30 (8.1)	794 (593.4)	203 (133.6)	100	100
IRE 1	25	8 (0.1)	5 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	13 (0.0)	14 (0.1)	13 (8.8)	2 (2.0)	93	100
IRE 2	28	1 (0.0)	2 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	27 (0.0)	27 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	100	100

The number of hits found at different bit score thresholds within Refseq annotated regions for 5' UTRs, 3' UTRs, coding regions and introns are shown. Pseudo refers to the regions identified by blast search with IRE containing exons as described in the Methods. Hits outside annotated genes and possible pseudogenes are recorded as intergenic. Hits found in either exons or possible pseudogenes are shown under "Exons U Pseudo." Some hits overlap annotation boundaries and so are counted in multiple columns. Sensitivity is calculated based on the ability to detect experimentally established IREs. Specificity is calculated using the SIREs method to allow comparison. Figures in brackets denote the number of hits expected in that region by searching random sequence of the same size. See **Supplemental S3** for full results over a wide range of scoring thresholds. See **Supplemental S4** for more detailed information regarding the hits within exons described in this table.

IRE containing genes, *SLC11A2*; *ALAS2*; *EPAS1* and *TFRC*. This analysis also shows that both *VHL* and *ENPEP* have biological function in blood vessel development along with the known IRE containing gene *EPAS1*.<sup>42</sup>

A complementary approach is to consider evolutionary conservation. Homologene (an NCBI database) and Ensembl were used initially to find the homologues of human genes with IRE hits—these were searched using the new covariance models (Table 5). Two of the novel candidates, *DSTN* and *MGAT4A*, had IREs predicted by the new RFAM covariance models with matches in several other species.

The SIREs web service was also used to search for IREs in these homologous sets. For 85 of the transcripts both SIREs and the covariance models presented here had a hit. In 25 transcripts only SIREs had a hit, and in 26 transcripts only the covariance models presented here had a hit.

We compared the conservation of the human IRE hits within Refseq annotated UTRs to all the human UTRs using phyloP.<sup>54</sup> Both the IRE Family 1 hits (bit score >19) and the IRE Family 2 hits (bit score >28) showed phyloP scores significantly higher than the UTRs (p-value <1 x 10<sup>-6</sup>). The IRE Family 1 hits were however significantly less conserved than all the experimentally demonstrated IREs (p-value <1 x 10<sup>-6</sup>). As expected IRE Family 2 hits had similar conservation to all the experimentally established IREs. (Mean phyloP scores for IRE Family 1 = 1.42; IRE Family 2 = 3.43; Experimentally supported IREs = 3.11; UTRs = 0.52).

#### **Discussion**

Models. The results show these new covariance models have the ability to detect a wider range of experimentally demonstrated IREs than the previous single model. The new families include in their primary seeds a comprehensive collection of experimentally

Table 3. IRE hits in RFAMSEQ10 using the new RFAM IRE models

Model	Bit score threshold	Matched to known protein	No match to known protein	Total number of hits
IRE Family 1	19	251	524	775
IRE Family 1	25	226	433	659
IRE Family 2	28	365	1117	1482

The proportion of hits occurring near regions that encode a protein encoded by an mRNA having an IRE. The regions identified were extended by 2 kb to include potential UTRs (see Methods). See **Supplemental S5** for a wider range of scoring thresholds.

established IRE sequences. The approach of using a covariance model is quite different from the regular expression type searches of SIREs and earlier published methods. Although it is computationally more intensive this search was able to detect experimentally established elements in mRNAs such as *NDUFS1* missed by the SIREs searches.

Some IRE like elements were not included in either of the models. This was primarily due to insufficient evidence for IRP binding, but also in one case because of a highly divergent sequence. A sequence in the α-hemoglobin stabilizing protein resembles an IRE<sup>55</sup> but while a mutagenesis study shows regulatory involvement in high iron conditions, the study did not clearly show IRE/IRP binding. Furthermore, the sequence has a midstem bulged A rather than the bulged C of all other characterised human IREs. Another sequence in *Trichomonas vaginalis*<sup>56</sup> seems to be following an IRE-IRP like interaction and yet it shows little in common with the well-known IREs both structurally and at a sequence level. Sequences such as these cannot be included while maintaining the specificity of the models. An IRE in the ferritin mRNA of *Lampetra fluviatilis*<sup>57</sup> could not be included in the seed as there was no sequence record in Genbank.

Table 4. Genes with putative IREs identified using the new RFAM models

	Gene	Description	Ref
œ	HMGB1	Transcription factor that also acts as a cytokine in immune response.	42
	HAS3	Transmembrane protein that synthesises hyaluronan—a polysaccharide involved in connective tissue and in cell behaviour during embryonic development and inflammation.	43
	MGAT4A	Glycosyltransferase with several isoforms and potential physiological roles.	44
3' UTR	VHL	Protein targeting the hypoxia-inducible transcription factor for polyubiquitination and degradation.	45
m	LHFPL4	Product that appears to be a tetraspan transmembrane protein. It is not well studied but does have homology with TMHS which is reported to have a role in the morphogenesis of cilia in the ear.	46
	PLEKHA8	Adaptor protein that transfers glucosylceramide to specific sites for the synthesis of glycosphingolipids.	47
	FKTN	Transmembrane protein localized to the Golgi complex with a role in glycosylation.	48
	TMEM202	Transmembrane protein (inferred from protein domains via Uniprot) but has no known function.	
	Tom1L1	Adaptor protein thought to be involved in mitogenic signaling.	49
CDS	DSTN	Protein with a functional role in actin depolymerization and filament dynamics.	50
Ū	ENPEP	Protease acting in the metabolism of angiotensin.	51
	SEC63	Protein forming part of a transmembrane complex. This complex transports other proteins across the membrane of the endoplasmic recticulum.	52
	FTH1P3, GUCY2GP and MYH16	Refseq annotated pseudogenes	
	LOC145783	Refseq annotated hypothetical non-coding RNA	

Each gene's name and the position of the IRE according to Refseq annotation are shown. A brief description of the gene's function is given.

A clear result from this study is that due to sequence and structural similarity it is impossible to distinguish good matches in pseudogenes (e.g., FTH1, FTL) from true positives. In wellannotated genomes hits in pseudogenes are more readily identified. Even for these cases pseudogenes that consist largely of UTR fragments cannot be identified as such using protein based similarity searches. In databases broad enough to include large amounts of unannotated sequence (e.g., RFAMSEQ10) it is particularly difficult to distinguish hits in genes or pseudogenes from hits in intergenic regions. Matches in the IRE families' full alignments that are semi-automatically generated from RFAMSEQ10 undoubtedly contain hits that will correspond to pseudogenes and intergenic regions. For this reason when following an iterative approach to extend the primary seed it is probably best to limit this to sequences closely associated with genes homologous to those with experimental evidence. This observation will apply to cis-acting elements other than the IRE.

Another point to note is that when dealing with large and developing datasets such as the annotation of the human genome there is likely to be the odd unusual feature. The IRE Family Model 2 results showed a high scoring hit in the 3' UTR—this turned out to be *FTH1P3*—a ferritin pseudogene with a misannotated 3' UTR. Also in the search of RFAMSEQ10 there was a hit in *Vaccinia virus GLV* that was due to the engineering of a human *TFRC* sequence into this viral vector.

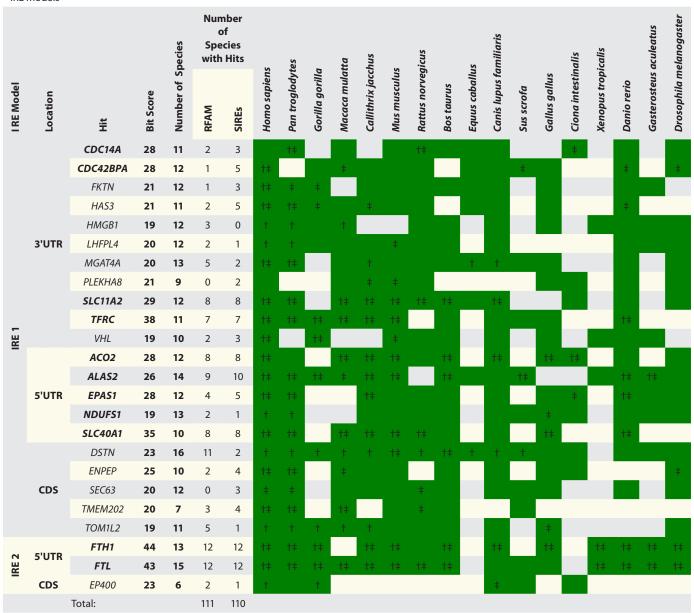
Sensitivity and specificity. Inevitably lowering bit score cut offs yields more potential IRE candidates with the sacrifice of specificity. Simply limiting search results to gene exons, particularly UTRs, gives greater certainty that a hit is not due to random occurrence. We have calculated specificity according to the method used by SIREs in order to allow comparison.<sup>27</sup> According to this measure the models presented here offer

improved specificity. These models also detect an experimentally proven IRE not matched by SIREs (in *NDUFSI*). The SIREs webserver does however detect more IREs in homologues of *CDC42BPA*. These methods may be used together in a complementary approach. Another useful direction may be to extend the IRE models presented here beyond the experimental data. This could be done by including currently weak scoring IREs from some of the homologues of genes known to contain IREs.

The hits produced by the models have been shown to match the human genome much more frequently than in random sequence. However, the models could also be matching similar, but as yet unidentified, enriched functional elements other than the IRE in the genome. The analysis with RepeatMasker showed that only a small fraction of the hits found by IRE Family 1 are in repeat regions and IRE Family 2 results do not coincide with repeat regions at all.

Novel predicted IRE motifs conserved across species. Our results from searching the RFAMSEQ10 database shows IRE hits in many species. These results are consistent with the study by Piccinelli and Samuelsson in not identifying IREs in taxa such as Acoelomata. This earlier work additionally identifies IREs for ferritin orthologues in diverse taxa such as Crustacea and Porifera. At the thresholds used here these new models do not identify these IREs. The models presented here could be employed for further evolutionary study. In an evolutionary analysis the IRE sequences searched may be targeted to known IRE containing genes using protein homology. A lower bit score threshold would be justified due to the smaller size of the search space and the homology information. The cautious addition of plausible seed sequences lacking experimental support could also be considered. We have started with a set of experimentally supported seed sequences and a higher more conservative bit score

**Table 5.** Screening for IREs in homologous genes (from Homologene and Ensembl) of the predicted human IRE-containing mRNAs by the new RFAM IRE models



The bit score shown is from the initial search of the human genome. Bit score thresholds used are 19 for IRE family 1 and 23 for IRE family 2. Shaded areas indicate the identification of a homologous RNA transcript. The genomic locations (UTR/CDS) are for the hit in the human gene. Hits in other species are considered anywhere in the transcript. Results are only shown for selected species. Complete results are available from mrna.otago.ac.nz/stevens2011a. Gene names shown in bold have mRNAs containing experimentally demonstrated IREs. Note that for CDC14A Homologene links to a transcript variant for *Homo sapiens* that lacks the experimentally demonstrated IRE sequence and is not detected. †, IRE match found using the new RFAM IRE families. ‡, IRE match found using the SIREs web server.

threshold for the purposes of helping to find the most likely novel IREs.

There are several novel IREs predicted in mRNAs with high bit scores and conservation across species (**Table 5**). Several have scores higher than the lowest true positive (*NDUFSI*, bit score 19). The 3' UTR of *MGAT4A* contained an IRE like element with a bit score of 20 (1.8 of 14 hits predicted to be due to chance—**Table S2**). mRNAs that contain one or multiple IREs in their 3' UTRs are expected to show decreased expression under high iron conditions. High throughput mRNA expression studies from the

GEO database that tested iron effects were examined. In a study of rat duodenal mucosa in response to dietary iron, covering postnatal development of rats<sup>58</sup> there was decreased *MGAT4A* mRNA for high iron conditions but only at the 6–12 week stage of development. This change was similar but smaller to the change seen for *TFRC* expression where IRE/IRP binding in the 3' UTR has been shown to prevent endonucleolytic cleavage of the *TFRC* mRNA.<sup>4</sup> Other high throughput studies showed no significant difference in iron dose related *MGAT4A* mRNA expression.<sup>59-61</sup> The limited developmental window could explain why the IRE

motif hasn't so far been identified in studies involving cultured cells or mature organisms.

The predictions were extended to the coding parts of mRNAs, although a role for IREs in these regions has not been tested or demonstrated. Of these one of the highest scoring was an IRE like element in the coding region of *DSTN* (Score 23, 0.3 of 2 hits due to chance)—it is found in eleven homologous mRNAs. This hit is interesting given recently published evidence suggesting that *CDC42BPA* regulates iron uptake via transferrin mediated endocytosis dependent on cytoskeletal structure. DSTN has a functional role in actin depolymerisation and filament dynamics. A hypothesis is that this element is part of a molecular localization mechanism for the *DSTN* mRNA.

The refinement of the IRE families in this study provides testable predictions as to the functional parts of the IRE. The predictions of novel IREs using these models suggest avenues for further experimentation.

#### **Materials and Methods**

Models. A literature search was conducted to include all IREs for which there was direct experimental evidence. The data was audited to establish the experimental support for each element to be included in the families. Demonstration of an IRP-IRE binding was considered sufficient for inclusion of the element sequence though most studies also included assays showing a regulatory effect. The sequences corresponding to the established elements were obtained from Genbank.<sup>63</sup> The list of known IREs with experimental evidence shown in Table 1 was used to construct the new families.

The full Stockholm alignment comprising the new RFAM IRE families can be found as **Sup S1** and has been submitted to the RFAM database.

The entire assembled human genome (hg18-obtained from UCSC) was searched using cmsearch (part of the Infernal package). Both strands were considered for matches to the covariance models of both IRE Family 1 and IRE Family 2. Refseq gene annotations were obtained from UCSC via the Table browser interface. The annotations for complete genes, 3' UTRs, 5' UTRs, coding regions and introns were all separately obtained as BED intervals. Results obtained from searching using the covariance models were intersected with these intervals—taking into account the strand of the identified regions.

In order to identify possible pseudogenes for IRE containing genes (e.g., FTHI, FTL), exons with experimentally demonstrated IREs in Homo sapiens were first extracted from NCBI. These sequences were used as queries for blastn in searching the human genome (hg18-obtained from UCSC) using a word size of 8. A BED interval file was created corresponding to the blastn hits (Sup. S6). This method aims to provide some explanation for IRE hits in intergenic and intronic regions rather than to formally identify pseudogenes.

To identify sequence regions in RFAMSEQ10 corresponding to genes with known IREs, protein sequences were first obtained from NCBI corresponding to the nucleotide records containing experimentally established IREs. These protein sequences were then used to search the RFAMSEQ10 nucleotide database with tblastn. A 2 kb flanking region was added to each end of the tblastn search results so as to capture the corresponding UTRs. These regions were then intersected with hits for the IRE Families generated using the RFAM pipeline.

Sensitivity and specificity. Experimentally established IREs were identified with reference to the original publications (see Table 1). Where applicable, their genomic locations on version hg18 of the human genome (from UCSC) were recorded in BED interval files for each of the IRE families (Sup. S7). These data were used in assessing sensitivity of results from cmsearch—calculated by dividing the number of results intersecting the true positives by the number of true positives.

Chromosomes 1–22, X and Y of the human genome (hg18) were shuffled into random order and searched on one strand. This provided 2,858,013,655 random bases with base frequencies identical to the human genome. The new IRE models were used to search this random sequence and thereby arrive at an expected number of hits by chance at each bit score cut off. The size of the genomic locations identified by the annotations used in the intial search of the human genome was determined along with the size of the possible pseudogene sequences and intergenic sequence outside all these regions. The number of hits expected in random sequence of similar size was calculated for each of the genomic regions of interest—allowing for the fact that the search was conducted on both strands.

Repeat regions obtained from the UCSC browser track, "RepMask 3.2.7" via the Table browser interface were intersected with IRE hits found by the new RFAM IRE Family models. The count of unique results determined the number of IRE hits corresponding to repeat regions.

Hits in orthologous mRNAs. Bit score cut offs of 19 for IRE Family 1 and 23 for IRE Family 2 were applied to the results from the covariance model search of the human genome. A similar methodology was followed for both IRE families. Using genes identified with hits in exonic regions (5' UTR, 3' UTR or CDS), corresponding Homologene records at NCBI were obtained. From these associated nucleotide sequences were retrieved for all taxonomies—limiting the results to "biomol mrna" [prop]. In addition homologous transcript records with annotated UTRs were obtained from Ensembl. The retrieved sequences were searched using cmsearch using the same bit score cut off as in the initial search of the human genome for the corresponding family. Matches were recorded for all available species for each gene of interest.

The SIREs web server (ccbg.imppc.org/sires/index.html) was used to search these same sequences in order to obtain a comparison of results.

The phyloP scores for genomic regions corresponding to Refseq UTRs and the IRE hits located within these were obtained for hg18 from the UCSC Conservation track (44-way vertebrate). A Student t-test was used to compare the scores from the different regions.

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Supplemental materials can be found at: www.landesbioscience.com/journals/rnabiology/article/16037

Note

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