- 1 Title
- 2 Replenishing IRAK-M expression in retinal pigment epithelium attenuates outer retinal
- 3 degeneration

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- 5 Authors
- 6 Jian Liu¹*, David A. Copland¹, Alison J. Clare¹, Mathias Gorski², Burt T. Richards³, Louis Scott¹,
- 7 Sofia Theodoropoulou¹, Ursula Greferath⁴, Katherine Cox¹, Gongyu Shi¹, Oliver H. Bell¹, Kepeng
- 8 Ou¹, Jenna Le Brun Powell⁵, Jiahui Wu¹, Luis Martinez Robles⁶, Yingxin Li⁵, Lindsay B.
- 9 Nicholson^{1,6}, Peter J. Coffey⁷, Erica L. Fletcher⁴, Robyn Guymer⁸, Monte J. Radeke⁹, Iris M.
- Heid², Gregory S. Hageman³, Ying Kai Chan^{1,10}, Andrew D. Dick^{1,6,7,11}

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- Affiliations
- ¹Academic Unit of Ophthalmology, Bristol Medical School, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8
- 14 1TD, United Kingdom.
- ²Department of Genetic Epidemiology, University of Regensburg, Regensburg 93053, Germany.
- ³Sharon Eccles Steele Center for Translational Medicine, John A. Moran Eye Center, University
- of Utah School of Medicine, Salt Lake City, UT 84132, United States.
- ⁴Department of Anatomy and Physiology, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, 3010 VIC,
- 19 Australia.
- ⁵Translational Health Sciences, Bristol Medical School, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8 1TD,
- 21 United Kingdom.
- ⁶School of Cellular and Molecular Medicine, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8 1TD, United
- 23 Kingdom.

24	Institute of Ophthalmology, University College London, London ECTV 9EL, United Kingdom.
25	⁸ Centre for Eye Research Australia, Royal Victorian Eye and Ear Hospital, University of
26	Melbourne, Melbourne, 3010 VIC, Australia.
27	⁹ Neuroscience Research Institute, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA 93106, United
28	States.
29	¹⁰ Wyss Institute for Biologically Inspired Engineering, Harvard University, Boston, MA 02215
30	United States.
31	¹¹ National Institute for Health Research Biomedical Research Centre, Moorfields Eye Hospital
32	London EC1V 2PD, United Kingdom.
33	
34	*Corresponding author: Jian Liu, jian.liu@bristol.ac.uk
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47	OVERLINE: RETINAL DISEASE
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49	One-Sentence Summary: IRAK-M protects the retinal pigment epithelium and is a potential
50	therapeutic target for macular degeneration
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Abstract

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Chronic inflammation is a constitutive component of many age-related diseases, including agerelated macular degeneration (AMD). Here, we identified interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase (IRAK)-M as a key immunoregulator in retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) that declines during the aging process. Rare genetic variants of IRAK3, which encodes IRAK-M, were associated with an increased likelihood of developing AMD. In human samples and in mouse models, IRAK-M abundance in the RPE declined with advancing age or exposure to oxidative stress and was further reduced in AMD. Irak3-knockout mice exhibited an increased incidence of outer retinal degeneration at earlier ages, which was further exacerbated by oxidative stressors. The absence of IRAK-M led to a disruption in RPE cell homeostasis, characterized by compromised mitochondrial function, cellular senescence, and aberrant cytokine production. IRAK-M overexpression protected RPE cells against oxidative or immune stressors. Subretinal delivery of adeno-associated virus (AAV) expressing human IRAK3 rescued light-induced outer retinal degeneration in wild-type mice and attenuated age-related spontaneous retinal degeneration in *Irak3*-knockout mice. Our data support that replenishment of IRAK-M in the RPE may redress dysregulated pro-inflammatory processes in AMD, suggesting a potential treatment for retinal degeneration.

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Main Text

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INTRODUCTION

Cell-autonomous responses, such as metabolic regulation, autophagy and immune-mediated 81 inflammation, initiated by environmental stressors are active processes that help to maintain 82 homeostasis (1). However, loss of immune regulation and persistent inflammation can lead to 83 84 acute or chronic tissue damage. Chronic inflammation, accentuated by aging (inflammaging), is implicated in progression of many age-related degenerative disorders (2). 85 The retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) is essential for maintaining outer retinal function and ocular 86 immune privilege. RPE dysfunction results in photoreceptor (PR) loss and gradual decline of the 87 central visual acuity, as observed in age-related macular degeneration (AMD) (3-5). AMD, a 88 89 progressive, multifactorial disease, is a leading cause of irreversible severe vision loss among the elderly. Alongside aging, the interplay of oxidative stress and chronic inflammation, fueled by 90 genotype-predisposed susceptibility and environmental stressors, contributes significantly to 91 AMD pathogenesis. Genome-wide association studies have identified risk loci for AMD, including 92 genes in the complement pathway and age-related maculopathy susceptibility 2 (ARMS2)/HtrA 93 serine peptidase 1 (HTRA1) alleles (6, 7). Rare coding variants in complement regulatory genes 94 such as complement factor H (CFH) and complement factor I (CFI) have been associated with 95 AMD risk, leading to the development of complement inhibitors and gene therapies (8, 9). AMD 96 pathogenesis involves multiple pathways, including oxidative stress and innate immune responses 97 (10, 11). In mice, for example, a high-fat diet is required to initiate pathology on the background 98 99 of complement gene mutation (12). Therefore, elucidating the factors central to the diverse pathologies in AMD is critical, irrespective of genetic risk. 100 Several inflammatory pathways are associated with AMD progression, including activation of the 101 complement cascade, NLRP3 (nucleotide-binding domain, leucine-rich-containing family, pyrin 102 domain-containing-3) inflammasome, production of cytokines and chemokines, immune cell 103

infiltration, and immune activation of retinal microglia and RPE (13-17). Toll-like receptors (TLRs), particularly TLR2, 3 and 4, are implicated in AMD development (18-20). The Myddosome, an oligomeric complex consisting of myeloid differentiation primary response 88 (MyD88) and interleukin (IL)-1 receptor (IL-1R)-associated kinase (IRAK) family proteins, is essential for transmitting TLR and inflammasome-IL-1R axis-mediated signals (16). Myddosome signaling also promotes inflammasome activation (21). Although Myddosome overactivation has been observed in RPE from patients with geographic atrophy (late-stage atrophic AMD) (16), questions remain regarding its role in AMD progression and the specific Myddosome components driving TLR/IL-1R pro-inflammatory signaling dysregulation. The RPE exhibits a high number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) overlapping with those associated with aging and age-related retinal diseases (22). Disturbances in RPE intracellular processes, such as autophagy and senescence, compounded by oxidative stress, lead to inflammasome activation and IL-1β/IL-18 release (17, 23, 24). The magnitude of oxidative stressinduced inflammation is largely determined by various TLRs and balanced by counteracting mechanisms regulated by inhibitors including IRAK-M (encoded by IRAK3) (25, 26). IRAK-M is a pseudokinase that downregulates the pro-inflammatory cascade by impeding phospho-IRAK1/4 uncoupling from the Myddosome for transforming growth factor (TGF)-β-activated kinase 1 (TAK1)-dependent nuclear factor (NF)-κB activation, or by inducing downstream antiinflammatory responses through the IRAK-M/MyD88 complex and IRAK-M/MEKK3 (mitogen activated protein kinase kinase kinase 3) pathway (27, 28). IRAK-M expression is regulated by both epigenetic and transcriptional mechanisms, in response to numerous endogenous and exogenous factors including IL-1β, TGF-β1, granulocytemacrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), and adiponectin, as well as cell surface receptors or intracellular molecules including TLRs, triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 1 (TREM-1) and phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) (29, 30). Downregulation of IRAK-M

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signaling is associated with exaggerated oxidative stress and systemic inflammation in metabolic disorders such as insulin resistance and obesity (31). Reduced IRAK3 mRNA expression in monocytes and adipose tissues of obese patients leads to elevated mitochondrial stress, systemic inflammation, and metabolic syndrome (31). Multiple mutations in IRAK3 have been associated with early-onset chronic asthma in humans (32).

Given IRAK3 expression in RPE cells in vitro (23), we hypothesized its potential regulatory relevance in retinal aging and degeneration. The present study aimed to elucidate the role of IRAK-M in AMD by assessing genetic variants and their association with AMD risk. We also evaluated IRAK-M expression in patient samples and mouse models of retinal degeneration, alongside alterations in retinal function in Irak3-knockout (KO) mice. Furthermore, we explored the therapeutic potential of IRAK-M augmentation in protecting RPE and outer retina against degenerative processes in murine models.

RESULTS

In view of the observation of Myddosome activation in AMD (16), we asked whether variants in the genes encoding Myddosome components contribute to disease risk and pathogenic pathways. Single variant analyses have limited power to depict rare variants with association. Gene-based burden tests, which assess accumulated association from multiple rare variants per gene, complement such analyses and enhance the ability to detect a disease burden. As such, we applied burden tests of the genetic data from the International AMD Genomics Consortium (IAMDGC) that contains 16,144 late AMD cases versus 17,832 age-matched controls (6). The analysis revealed no association between rare variants of MYD88 and late AMD (P = 0.95). We then

examined the cumulative effect of rare protein-altering variants for the IRAK family kinases

Rare protein-altering variants of IRAK3 are associated with increased risk of late AMD

(IRAK1-4), which revealed a statistically significant late AMD risk-increasing signal for IRAK3 (P = 0.012) (Table 1). Table S1 lists the variants in the IRAK3 gene region, including 18 polymorphic variants that were detected in both AMD cases and controls and used in the gene burden test. As a comparator for IRAK3, rare variants of IL33, which encodes a Th2-oriented cytokine linked to retinal pathophysiology (33-35), were not associated with late AMD (P = 0.18).

IRAK-M expression in the RPE is reduced with age and to a greater extent in AMD patients. We next explored IRAK-M expression in the retina by performing immunohistochemistry on human retinal cryosections from a young-age normal eye (age and gender details reported in Table S2). We found abundant IRAK-M distribution at the RPE layer, with faint or subtle immunopositivity observed in other retinal layers, including GCL (ganglion cell layer), IPL (inner plexiform layer), OPL (outer plexiform layer), ONL (outer nuclear layer), POS (PR outer segment), and choroid (Fig. 1A and B). Immunohistochemistry of a second donor eye also demonstrated IRAK-M expression in RPE and choroid in sections from an old-age normal eye (Table S2, fig. S1, A and B). IRAK-M was detected in mouse RPE (fig. S1, C to E), consistent with our previously reported detection of *Irak3* transcript in a murine RPE cell line (*23*). We observed strong immunopositivity of IRAK-M in both inner (non-pigmented) and outer (pigmented) ciliary epithelium of human eyes (fig. S1, F and G), suggesting a potential regulatory role in barrier cells.

We next determined whether the abundance of IRAK-M altered during aging. Total RNA was harvested from 6-mm trephine tissue punches of 227 extramacular and 159 macular RPE/choroids, as well as 238 extramacular and 242 macular retinas. Total RNA yield and RNA integrity number (RIN) scores were measured to confirm the consistency of the quality of RNA samples across the age (fig. S2, A and B). Microarray analysis of these samples - identified an age-dependent decrease in *IRAK3* expression in the macular (R²=0.0408, P=0.0104; Fig. 1C) and extramacular (R²=0.0403,

P=0.0025; fig. S2C) RPE/choroid but no change in expression in the retina (Fig. 1C and fig. S2D). 179 Neither IRAK1 nor IRAK4 expression changed with age in RPE/choroid or retina (Fig. 1C and fig. 180 S2, C and D). Further analyses of IRAK-M protein abundance in sex-mixed human RPE/choroid 181 lysates across a range of age groups (Table S2) revealed significant reduction in samples from 182 183 elderly individuals (76-84y) compared to young (20-22y, P = 0.004) or middle-aged (52-59y, P = 184 0.041) samples (Fig. 1D). Increased abundances of phospho-IRAK4 and phosphor-NF-κB p65 were also detected (fig. S3A), suggesting activation of inflammatory signaling pathways. CFH and 185 C3 protein abundance did not change with age (fig. S3A). As with human samples, RPE isolated 186 from aged mice (19-24m) had lower IRAK-M protein abundance compared with younger mice (2-187 188 5m, fig. S3B). The abundance of IRAK-M protein in mouse retinal CD11b⁺ cells (MACS-isolated-189 microglia and perivascular macrophages) was also reduced with age (fig. S3C). 190 To ascertain whether IRAK3 expression was compromised in AMD, as compared to age-matched 191 controls, we analyzed a published RNA-seq dataset (GSE99248), which included PORTnormalized counts for both sense and antisense transcripts (36). In the IRAK family genes, only 192 IRAK3 mRNA in RPE/choroid/sclera, and not in the retina, was lower in AMD than age-matched 193 controls (Fig. 2A). IRAK1, IRAK2 and IRAK4 expression, as well as antisense RNAs specific to 194 any IRAK, were unchanged between AMD and controls (Fig. 2A). From the same dataset, we also 195 196 examined the expression of other known genes for negative regulation of TLR/IL-197 1R/MyD88/IRAK1/4 signaling (fig. S4), including PIN1 (peptidylprolyl cis/trans isomerase, NIMA-interacting 1, which inhibits TLR transcription factor IRF3), IL1RN (IL-1R antagonist), 198 SOCS1 (suppressor of cytokine signaling 1, which induces MAL ubiquitination required for 199 MyD88 activation), TOLLIP (Toll-interacting protein, which binds to IRAK1 to induce 200 translocation of TLRs to endosome for degradation), FADD (Fas-associated death domain, which 201 interacts with IRAK1/MyD88 to attenuate the signaling), and PTPN6 (Tyrosine-protein 202 phosphatase non-receptor type 6, which inhibits SYK activation and blocks MyD88 203

phosphorylation). None of these genes showed any significant difference between AMD and 204 controls (P > 0.05, fig. S4). 205 To further determine the spatial expression of IRAK-M protein within tissue associated with age 206 and AMD, we performed IHC on paraffin-embedded retinal sections of 2 'young' (30 and 59y-207 old) and 5 'aged' (76-97y) individuals without recorded ocular diseases, and 11 AMD patients 208 209 (76-95y). Table S2 contains detailed age and sex information for these samples. The paraffin slides were visualized using alkaline phosphatase-based IHC due to strong autofluorescence of the RPE 210 that was not fully blocked by Sudan black B quenching. IRAK-M (stained in red) was observed in 211 multiple layers of the retina, RPE and choroid (Non-AMD 59y, Fig. 2B and fig. S5A). In aged 212 control and AMD samples, the pattern and strength of IRAK-M-immunopositive signals was 213 variable, for example with a heightened signal in OPL/ONL (Non-AMD 97y, Fig. 2B and fig. 214 S5B), in INL/ONL/IS (inner segment) (Mild AMD 76y, Fig. 2B and fig. S5C), or in NFL (nerve 215 fiber layer) (Unidentified stage AMD 85y, Fig. 2B and fig. S5D). Furthermore, we observed an 216 intensified Bruch's membrane (BM) in retinal sections of AMD patients (Fig. 2B), which was not 217 seen in non-AMD samples (37). After color deconvolution using the Fiji package of ImageJ, 218 IRAK-M signal (red) and RPE pigment (brown) were separated for quantification. IRAK-M 219 expression was lower in AMD-macular RPE compared to age-matched non-AMD-macular RPE 220 221 (Fig. 2C). In macular areas of choroid or retina, despite a trend of reduction in AMD, the difference in IRAK-M expression between AMD and age-matched non-AMD was not statistically significant 222 (P > 0.05, Fig. 2C). In extramacular tissues, IRAK-M expression in RPE, choroid or retina did not 223 significantly differ between AMD and non-AMD samples (P > 0.05, Fig. S6). 224

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Irak3-KO mice acquire earlier outer retinal degeneration during aging

- We then investigated whether aging and lack of *Irak3* affected outer retinal degeneration in *Irak3*-
- 228 KO mice (*Rd8* mutation removed, as confirmed in fig. S7A). In this strain, the exons 9-11 of *Irak3*

were removed by homologous recombination, resulting in a mutant IRAK-M protein missing twothirds of the pseudokinase domain (38, 39). The multiple conserved cysteine residues within the dimeric structure of the pseudokinase domain of native IRAK-M are essential in forming an interactive interface with IRAK4 for the negative regulation of IRAK-Myddosome signaling (40). Pathological changes in the retina were tracked for 15 months using fundoscopy and optical coherence tomography (OCT). Repeated imaging of the same affected retinas unveiled the emergence of white spots with aging (Fig. 3A), along with an increase in the number of retinas displaying varying counts of fundus white spots in *Irak3*-KO mice, elevating from 5 out of 22 eyes at 2 months to 15 out of 30 eyes at 5 months (Fig. 3A and B, and fig. S7B). Fundus white spots in mice have been well described as a feature of foci of inflammation linked to accumulated macrophages/microglia in the outer retina and subretinal space, where they phagocytose damaged photoreceptors and RPE (41-45). The incidence of abnormal retinal appearance reached 21 out of 26 by 15m (Fig. 3B). In comparison, there was no progression of white spots in the retinas of WT mice to 12m; however WT retinas displaying white spots markedly increased as mice aged, with 16 out of 26 retinas displaying white spots by 19-21m (Fig. 3B). These data suggest accelerated agingassociated retinal abnormalities and degeneration associated with Irak3 mutation. We also noted that the early appearance of retinal white spots in *Irak3*-KO mice was accompanied by outer retinal lesions identified by OCT (Fig. 3C). Given the link between fundus spots and microglia/macrophage activation in various murine models of retinal degeneration (41-45), we evaluated the CD11b⁺ myeloid cell populations in the murine retina. As expected, increased numbers of CD11b⁺ cells in the ONL (fig. S7C) and CD11b⁺ cell accumulation in the subretinal space (fig. S7D) were observed in *Irak3-/-* mice, associated with increased number of TUNEL-positive RPE cells in multiple focal areas on the surface of RPE/choroidal flatmounts (Fig. 3D). Although no difference in retinal thickness was found at 5m between WT and Irak3-/- mice, the outer retina layers (ORL, see Supplementary Methods for

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definition) of $Irak3^{-/-}$ mice was thinner by 12-13m (Fig. 3E). By 12m there were significant increases (P < 0.05) in Ccl2 ($chemokine\ C-C\ motif\ ligand\ 2$) and $Il1b\ mRNA$ expression (normalized to RPS29) in $Irak3^{-/-}$ RPE/choroid compared to WT counterparts (Fig. 3F), suggesting a pro-inflammatory tissue environment. The relative mRNA expression of cytokines in the retina were all below 0.005 regardless of genotypes - much lower than those in RPE/choroid – although Il12 expression was upregulated in $Irak3^{-/-}$ retina (Fig. 3F). We were unable to compare tissue cytokine protein concentrations due to undetectability or trace amounts of the cytokines in RPE/choroid and retina samples. Systemically, concentrations of serum cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , monocyte chemoattractant protein (MCP)-1 and IL-10, in $Irak3^{-/-}$ mice were significantly higher than those in WT mice (P < 0.05, fig. S7E).

Oxidative stress reduces RPE IRAK-M abundance, and loss of IRAK-M increases

susceptibility of outer retinal layers to oxidative damage

Age-associated accumulation of oxidative stress in the RPE is a recognised contributor to the progression of AMD. To examine if oxidative stress could be an independent factor for the reduction of IRAK-M, we applied oxidative stressors both in vitro and in vivo.

In vitro, we examined early passage (<8) human retinal pigment epithelial ARPE-19 cells to reduce variability. Confluent ARPE-19 cells exhibited RPE features, including cobblestone-like morphology, and expressed tight junction protein zonula occludens-1 (ZO-1) and RPE-specific protein RPE65 (fig. S8A). ARPE-19 cells were treated with different doses of paraquat) for up to 72h to induce mitochondrial ROS, which caused dose-dependent cytotoxicity as assessed by a lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) cytotoxicity assay (fig. S8B). IRAK-M abundance was suppressed by 72h exposure to a sub-toxic dose of paraquat (0.25mM) (fig. S8C). Reduction in IRAK-M was accompanied by increased secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines HMGB1 (high mobility group box 1), IL-18 and GM-CSF, and decreased secretion of anti-inflammatory IL-11 (fig. S8D).

Crucially, downregulation of IRAK-M also occurred in human induced pluripotent stem cell 279 (iPSC)-derived RPE cells following 72h treatment of sub-toxic doses of paraquat (0.25-0.5mM) 280 (fig. S8, E and F). 281 In vivo, retinal oxidative damage was introduced by fundus camera-directed light exposure 282 (100kLux for 20min) (46) or intravitreal administration of paraquat (2µl at 1.5mM) (47) in 283 284 C57BL/6J WT mice aged 8w. Western blot analyses showed that IRAK-M abundance in the RPE lysate was abated after 7 days in both models (Fig. 4, A and B). In separate experiments, 285 fundoscopy and OCT images obtained on day 14 displayed the fundal appearance of white spots 286 (red arrows, Fig. 4C and D), alongside thinning of the outer retina in the light-induced retinal 287 degeneration (LIRD) model (Fig. 4E), as well as reduced thickness in outer and a partial decrease 288 in inner retinal thickness in the paraguat model (Fig. 4F). Retinal oxidative stress was then induced 289 in adult WT and Irak3^{-/-} mice (8w old) by light induction. Irak3^{-/-} mice exhibited greater thinning 290 of the retina following light challenge, particularly the ORL (Fig. 4G). 291

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AP-1 regulates IRAK-M expression in RPE cells in age-dependent manner

Known transcription factors regulating IRAK-M expression in monocytes or lung epithelial cells 294 include AP-1 and C/EBP-β (29, 48). We found that, in addition to an age-associated reduction in 295 IRAK-M abundance (Fig. 1D), abundance of c-Jun, an AP-1 subunit, was decreased in aged 296 samples compared to young controls (fig. S9, A and B). c-Fos, another AP-1 subunit, was also 297 298 reduced in old age compared to middle-age samples, whereas there was no change in C/EBP-β 299 abundance between samples (fig. S9, A and B). The binding of c-Jun and c-Fos to the IRAK-M promoter region was confirmed by chromatin 300 immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay on ARPE-19 cells, and this was increased by 301 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) stimulation for 24h (fig. S9C). ARPE-19 cells treated with paraquat for 302 72h showed decreased phosphorylation of both c-Jun and c-Fos, and total c-Jun and c-Fos were 303

downregulated by higher dose of paraquat only (fig. S9D). The JNK inhibitor SP600125 or the c-Fos/AP-1 inhibitor T5224 at 20 μM also decreased IRAK-M abundance in ARPE-19 cells (fig. S9D). Consequently, treatment with SP600125 or T5224 resulted in enhanced ARPE-19 susceptibility to paraquat-induced cytotoxicity (fig. S9E), as did *IRAK3* siRNA (fig. S9F).

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IRAK-M deficiency induces RPE mitochondrial dysfunction and senescent phenotype which

is protected by IRAK-M augmentation

To elucidate metabolic mechanisms involved in IRAK-M deficiency-induced retinal degeneration, we examined RPE cell metabolism and senescence using primary mouse RPE cells. The RPE cells from Irak3^{-/-} mice showed reduced basal mitochondrial respiration (BR) and adenosine triphosphate (ATP) production compared to WT (fig. S10A), whereas no differences in basal glycolysis (BG) and maximal glycolytic capacity (MGC) were observed between genotypes (fig. S10B). These data suggest a role for IRAK-M in the maintenance of mitochondrial function in RPE cells. Irak3 -/- RPE cells were more prone to oxidative stressor (paraguat or H₂O₂)-induced senescent phenotype, with increased activity of senescence-associated β -galactosidase (SA- β -gal, fig. S10C), increased abundance of cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p21^{CIP1} and decreased nuclear lamin B1 (LB1, fig. S10D), and increased secretion of IL-6 (a senescence-associated cytokine) (17) (fig. S10E). The basal secretion of the pro-inflammatory cytokine HMGB1 of Irak3 ¹ RPE cells was higher than the WT cells, while secretion in response to oxidative stressors was comparable (fig. S10F). We then examined whether overexpression of endogenous IRAK-M protein could protect RPE via CRISPR/Cas9 (clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats and CRISPR-associated protein 9)-mediated gene expression. Following the augmentation of IRAK-M abundance in human iPSC-derived RPE cells confirmed by Western blot (fig. S11A), the cells were treated with either H₂O₂ or LPS. Oxygen consumption rate analysis demonstrated that basal and maximal

mitochondrial respiration were both sustained by IRAK-M overexpression, but impaired in shamtransfected cells following oxidative or immune stresses (Fig. 5A). Although untreated IRAK-Moverexpressing iPSC-RPE cells displayed lower maximal glycolytic activity than control plasmidtransfected cells, glycolytic activity remained stable upon H₂O₂ or LPS treatment, whereas glycolytic activity in control cells was reduced by 24h treatment with H₂O₂ or LPS (Fig. 5B). The lower glycolytic activity in un-stressed iPSC-RPE with overexpressed IRAK-M may indicate lower bio-energetic dependency on glucose, suggesting possible benefits to glucose-dependent photoreceptors (49). Overexpression of IRAK-M in ARPE-19 cells promoted the formation of autophagosomes [light chain 3B (LC3B)-green fluorescent protein (GFP)] and autolysosomes [LC3B-red fluorescent protein (RFP)] following H₂O₂ or LPS treatment, suggesting an upregulated autophagy flux (fig. S11, B and C). Moreover, IRAK-M overexpression in ARPE-19 cells ameliorated the SA-β-gal activity and HMGB1 secretion induced by sub-toxic doses of paraquat (0.25 mM) (fig. S11, D and E), and reduced the LDH release induced by a toxic dose of paraquat (1 mM) (fig. S11F). We created stably transfected RPE cell lines maintained in selective medium from a parent mouse B6-RPE07 cell line that expressed either mouse *Irak3* or human *IRAK3* mRNA, as evidenced by quantitative RT-PCR (fig. S12A). Expression of mouse *Irak1* and *Irak4* were not affected. Human IRAK3-expressing mouse cells showed a decrease in DNA binding activity of nuclear NF-κB after LPS stimulation (fig. S12B), supporting that transduced human IRAK3 is as functional as its murine counterpart in suppressing NF-κB activation in mouse RPE. Stably transfected RPE cells overexpressing human IRAK3 experienced less cytotoxicity than sham-transfected cells after four days of confluency (Fig. 5C) and exhibited a reduced stressor-induced cytotoxicity after treatment with paraquat (0.125 mM) or LPS (40 ng/ml) for 3 days (Fig. 5D). To exclude the possible contribution of native mouse *Irak3* to cell response observed, we performed transient transfection on primary RPE cells isolated from Irak3-/- mice. Similar to data from human iPSC-RPE cells

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using CRISPR/Cas9 activation plasmid (Fig. 5A and B), maximal mitochondrial respiration was retained in mouse primary *Irak3*-/- RPE cells transduced with human *IRAK3* after 24h H₂O₂ treatment (Fig. 5E). H₂O₂ -induced oxidative stress had no effect on glycolysis in *Irak3*-/- RPE cells, regardless of human *IRAK3* transduction (Fig. 5F).

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AAV2.Cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter-mediated human IRAK3 expression suppresses

light-induced retinal degeneration in wild-type mice

To date, AAV2 is the best clinically validated AAV serotype to treat RPE-related retinal 361 pathologies when administrated subretinally and leads to durable gene expression and efficacy 362 without inducing deleterious immune activation (50). In non-human primates (NHPs) and mice, 363 subretinal injection of AAV2.CMV preferably transduces the RPE, and, at higher doses, 364 photoreceptors (51, 52). 365 We therefore administered AAV2.CMV subretinally to introduce human IRAK3 expression in 366 C57BL/6J mice. To identify the dose-dependent transduction efficacy, 2 µl of AAV2 encoding 367 enhanced GFP (EGFP) under the control of the constitutive CMV promoter (AAV2.CMV.EGFP) 368 at 1×10^{12} or 2×10^{11} gc/ml were subretinally delivered into mouse eyes. The 'high dose' $(1 \times 10^{12}$ 369 gc/ml in 2 µl, or 2×10⁹ gc/eye) induced more pronounced EGFP expression 2-11 weeks after 370 injection than the "low dose" (2×10¹¹ gc/ml or 4×10⁸ gc/eye) (fig. S13). Administration with 371 372 AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 induced a dose-dependent human IRAK3 mRNA expression in RPE/choroid two weeks after injection, compared to a similar vector but with no transgene used as a control 373 'null' vector (Fig. 6A). Low mRNA expression of exogenous human IRAK3 was detected in the 374 retina, at levels 17.1-fold lower than that in the RPE/choroid (Fig. 6A). Using an antibody specific 375 to human IRAK-M protein, we confirmed that the exogenous IRAK-M was largely expressed in 376 the RPE by immunohistochemistry (Fig. 6B). 377

To evaluate the protective effects of *IRAK3* transgene expression in vivo, we applied LIRD in mice 2 weeks after AAV injection (2×10⁹ gc/eye). Light exposure of the null AAV2-injected eyes resulted in a decrease of outer retinal thickness, whereas AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* treatment reduced light-induced outer retinal thinning two weeks after light exposure (Fig. 6C). TUNEL staining in the ONL was also reduced by AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* (Fig. 6D). Mitochondrial staining in the IS was improved in LIRD mice treated with AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* compared to null AAV2-injected mice (Fig. 6E). The differences of mitochondrial staining in the GCL, IPL and OPL between control and LIRD mice were not significant (P > 0.05), irrespective of AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* treatment (Fig. 6E).

RPE-specific IRAK3 expression attenuates light-induced RPE and outer retinal degeneration

in wild-type mice

We next utilized the RPE-specific Bestrophin-1 (Best1) promoter to elucidate whether AAV2-mediated overexpression of *IRAK3* exclusively in the RPE also conferred protection. In line with previous data showing the superiority of CMV promoter over Best1 promoter in driving transgene expression in mouse RPE (*53*, *54*), we found that AAV2.Best1 required a higher multiplicity of infection (MOI 100,000) to ensure comparable expression of human *IRAK3* mRNA in mouse B6-RPE07 cells than AAV2.CMV (MOI 50,000) (fig. S14). Similarly, a two times higher AAV2.Best1 vector dose (4×10⁹ gc/eye) than AAV2.CMV (2×10⁹ gc/eye) was needed to give robust expression of human *IRAK-M* protein in the RPE of mice (Fig. 7A). We therefore used AAV2.Best1.h*IRAK3* at 4×10⁹ gc/eye and AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* at 2×10⁹ gc/eye for subsequent treatments.

To evaluate therapeutic effects of *IRAK3* gene therapy under a more severe experimental setting, we augmented outer retinal damage using a fluorescein (FL)-assisted LIRD model that renders the

retina more susceptible to light exposure (46, 55). Three weeks after subretinal delivery of

AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* (2×10° gc/eye), AAV2.Best1.h*IRAK3* (4×10° gc/eye), or AAV2.CMV.Null (2×10° or 4×10° gc/eye), WT mice were subjected to the FL-assisted light injury (*46*). Two weeks after light exposure, while the FL-assisted approach in null vector-injected control eyes caused a reduction in ORL thickness by 43.9%, both AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* and AAV2.Best1.h*IRAK3* reduced the degree of ORL thinning (Fig. 7B). Whole RPE flatmounts were stained with antibodies recognizing a tight junction-associated protein (ZO-1) and a mitochondrial marker (translocase of outer mitochondrial membrane 20, Tom20). Three representative areas 0.4 mm distant to the optic nerve head of each flatmount were imaged. Light exposure induced RPE disorganization and mitochondrial damage, demonstrated by appearance of enlarged cells, disarray of hexagonal morphology, and loss of staining for ZO-1 and Tom20 (Fig. 7C). AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* and AAV2.Best1.h*IRAK3*, each resulted in amelioration of RPE morphological abnormalities and preservation of ZO-1 and Tom20 staining. Tom20 staining was more pronounced adjacent to the cell membrane of RPE cells (Fig. 7C), suggesting mitochondrial mobilization towards the intercellular junction sites (*56*).

AAV2.CMV-mediated IRAK3 expression suppresses spontaneous outer retinal degeneration

in *Irak3*^{-/-} **mice**

We then investigated whether AAV-*IRAK3* could attenuate outer retinal degeneration caused by *Irak3* knockout and aging. We administered AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* or AAV2.CMV.Null (2×10⁹ gc/eye) subretinally in young *Irak3* -/- mice (2-4m old) and allowed them to age. Six months after subretinal delivery of AAV vectors, AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* blunted the age-dependent occurrence of retinal spots (Fig. 8, A and B) and reduced the number of retinal spots in *Irak3* -/- mice compared to AAV2.CMV.Null (8-10m old; Fig. 8C). The effect was more pronounced within the treatment side of the retina receiving the vector, as expected (Fig. 8C). Compared to AAV2.CMV.Null-

treated mice, mice receiving AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* experienced less outer retinal thinning at 0.2mm from the optic nerve head (Fig. 8D).

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DISCUSSION

Here, we have demonstrated a protective role for the immune regulator IRAK-M in the metabolic 432 and immune homeostasis of the RPE. A feed-forward loop with aging, oxidative stress and decline 433 in abundance of IRAK-M may generate a pro-inflammatory microenvironment driving retinal 434 degeneration. We have shown that replenishing IRAK-M can maintain mitochondrial function, 435 436 inhibit senescence and promote cell survival, protecting the retina from degeneration in a LIRD mouse model and in Irak3^{-/-} mice. Because IRAK-M is reduced with aging, oxidative stress and 437 AMD, the replenishment of IRAK-M may be a therapeutic strategy for treating AMD patients. 438 Previous research has demonstrated expression of IRAK-M in cells other 439 monocytes/macrophages, including airway and intestine epithelium, fibroblasts, neurons, 440 neutrophils, dendritic cells basophils and B cells (39, 57, 58). Mutant IRAK3 has been link to 441 asthma (32). Tarallo et al. reported aberrant activation of NLRP3-inflammasome and Myddosome 442 signaling, such as increased phospho-IRAK1/4 expression in RPE lysates of patients with 443 444 geographic atrophy, but did not probe IRAK-M (16). Here we found that the abundance of IRAK-M declines with age in the RPE but not retinal tissue and is reduced further in patients with AMD 445 compared to age-matched controls. Furthermore, IRAK-M was expressed by bilayer ciliary 446 epithelium, suggesting distribution in other ocular epithelium barriers. The RPE regulates and 447 protects against excessive oxidative stressors, inflammasome activation, mitochondrial 448 impairment, lipid accumulation and cellular senescence (4, 17, 26, 59), all pathways that can 449 accelerate AMD progression (13, 14). We showed that Irak3-/- mice incurred greater oxidative 450 damage, including RPE cell mitochondrial dysfunction, senescence, and early AMD-like 451

pathologies such as subretinal accumulation of myeloid cells, outer retinal lesions, and cell death. 452 The focal RPE cell death seen here in *Irak3*-/- mice supports findings of RPE heterogeneity in mice, 453 like humans (60-62) and has been observed in other murine models of retinal degeneration, such 454 as Ccl2/ Cx3cr1 (CX3C motif chemokine receptor 1) double knockout (DKO), LysMCre-455 $Socs3^{fl/fl}Cx3cr1^{gfp/gfp}$ DKO, and systemic injection of sodium iodate (63-65). 456 457 Differential expression of IRAK-M is context-dependent in different disease settings. For instance, upregulation of IRAK-M was identified following ischemia-reperfusion of liver and brain (66, 458 67), and in infarcted heart (68), where it was thought to limit the magnitude of immune responses 459 and repair pro-inflammatory damage. In a mouse model of cerebral ischemia, IRAK-M was 460 461 induced by hypoxia inducible factor 1 subunit alpha (HIF1α) and played a neuroprotective role by inhibition of NF-κB signaling and production of cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2), TNF-α, NLRP3 and 462 inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS). In comparison, Irak3-/- mice developed exacerbated 463 infarcts (58). In contrast to acute responses, downregulation of IRAK-M expression was associated 464 with chronic diseases, exemplified by alcoholic liver disease, inflammatory bowel disease, insulin 465 resistance and metabolic syndrome (25, 30, 31). Indeed, although acute alcohol intake increases 466 IRAK-M abundance in human monocytes, chronic alcohol exposure results in decreased 467 abundance and enhanced inflammation (69). In obese patients, reduced IRAK3 expression in 468 469 monocytes and adipose tissues leads to mitochondrial oxidative stress and systemic inflammation 470 (31). Furthermore, age-related decreases in the basal expression of IRAK-M and its inducibility upon TLR activation have been discovered in peripheral blood mononuclear cells and fibroblasts 471 in rodents (70, 71). We localized the decline in IRAK-M expression to the RPE, rather than to the 472 473 retina or choroid, in aging, oxidative stress and AMD, and increasing IRAK-M in the RPE via boosting endogenous gene expression or exogenous gene delivery helped to maintain 474 mitochondrial activity and autophagy and inhibit cellular senescence and NF-κB activity, 475 supporting the importance of IRAK-M for RPE health. 476

Several limitations exist in this study. Firstly, the influence of rhythmic/circadian photoreceptor outer segment phagocytosis on IRAK-M abundance in the RPE remains unknown. Given the challenges in obtaining consecutive human postmortem RPE samples for circadian analysis, collecting murine RPE samples during daytime and nighttime intervals could offer insights into this investigation for expression and gene regulation. Secondly, we cannot rule out a potential contribution of IRAK-M from other cell types to outer retinal degeneration. Conditional knockout mice via Cre/loxP or CRISPR/Cas9 will be essential for discerning pathologies arising from IRAK-M deficiency or inactivation in specific cell types, for example the RPE or retinal microglia. Thirdly, due to restricted availability of human donor eyes, we could not pinpoint the specific stage of AMD at which IRAK-M abundance is predominantly affected. Fourthly, our in vivo assessment did not show ocular toxicity when overexpressing IRAK-M for more than 6 months in Irak3^{-/-} mice. However, it should be noted that all murine models of retinal degeneration, including the Irak3^{-/-} mice and the murine LIRD model, do not exactly phenocopy human AMD (72); for preclinical safety and efficacy assessment, large animal studies will be required. Lastly, while early passage of ARPE-19 cell line shares RPE features, they are not fully differentiated RPE cells. Data from ARPE-19 should be used to supplement findings from human samples, in vivo and primary cell experiments. In conclusion, we have identified an age-related decline of IRAK-M abundance, largely restricted to the RPE, which is worsened in AMD. Our findings suggest that IRAK-M plays a crucial role to maintain RPE cell homeostasis and function via co-targeting mitochondrial health, oxidative stress, autophagy and inflammation. Gene augmentation of IRAK-M demonstrates translational benefit in counteracting side-effects of aging or oxidative stress and reducing outer retinal degeneration in preclinical disease models, suggesting a therapeutic strategy via manipulating IRAK-M in the RPE in patients with AMD.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design

The overall goals of this study were to define IRAK-M expression in RPE during the aging process 505 and in AMD. The subsequent goal was to develop a targeted gene therapy for age-related and 506 507 inflammation-driven RPE and retinal degeneration. For investigations on human ocular samples in all respective institutions, experiments were conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki 508 principles and in compliance with approved institutional guidelines. All animal protocols were 509 approved by University of Bristol Ethical Review Group. The primary experimental procedures 510 511 are described below, with detailed descriptions listed in the Supplementary Materials and 512 Methods. For Microarray analyses of age-related progressive changes in mRNA expression of IRAKs in 513 human ocular samples, donor ages ranged from 35 to 97 years old (mostly between 65-85). 514 Samples were collected from donors without clinically recorded AMD (color fundus and/or OCT 515 imaging) where patient medical files could be queried. For donor eye tissue samples where no 516 ocular history was available, we carefully analyzed the macular region of dissected globes under 517 a dissecting microscope for drusen, RPE hyperpigmentation and indications of CNV bleeding. 518 519 Samples were processed and run on a microarray platform in a random non-sequential order. All 520 samples were given a random sample number and blinded to all scientists. For age-dependent 521 results, the sample identity was unknown and only microarray gene probe name, intensity and age were compared. Inclusion required ocular tissue samples with no clinically recorded or obvious 522 tissue AMD pathology and total mRNA RIN scores ≥7. Samples that had obvious AMD or RIN 523 524 scores <7 were excluded from these analyses. Age- or AMD-related changes of IRAK-M protein expression in human ocular tissues were 525 determined by Western blot or immunohistochemistry using postmortem eye tissues or paraffin-526

embedded sections, respectively. The absence of other co-morbid ocular diseases or clinicallyclassified AMD stage of individual donor eye sample was identified by eye banks (see Supplementary Materials) according to the medical records. Sections from donor eyes diagnosed with wet AMD were excluded in the immunohistochemistry study. All samples were randomly selected from each group for analyses. For clinical assessment of retinal pathology in different murine models associated with aging, IRAK-M deficiency or oxidative stress, eyes were examined at indicated time points using Micron IV-guided fundoscopy and OCT and assessed by investigators blinded to the origin of images. For assessment of IRAK-M replenishment by subretinal administration of AAV2-expressing human IRAK3 in mice, animals were randomly allocated to different treatment groups. The subretinal injection procedure created a temporary subretinal bleb, where a part of the retina was elevated and separated from the RPE to accommodate the injected fluid. Mice that had no retinal blebs immediately after the injection were excluded from the study. In all cases, null AAV2 vehicle injections served as a negative control to determine baseline tissue responses. Laterality of injected eyes was randomized, and the investigators were blinded to the vector type throughout intervention and analysis. The sample size was chosen empirically based on the results of previous studies and preliminary experiments according to the 3R principles, and varied between experimental settings. In animal experiments, we collected all samples during the daytime (lights ON between 7:00am and 7:00pm) to avoid potential day-night fluctuation. For all experiments, the number of replicates, statistical tests used, and P values are reported in the figure legends.

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Human sample analyses

We used gene burden test on the GWAS data (6) to analyze whether there was a genetic association between rare variants of *IRAK3* and AMD, compared to other Myddosome-associated genes.

Microarray analysis was used to explore age-related changes in mRNA expression of *IRAKs* in

extramacular and macula RPE/choroid or retina. AMD-associated changes in mRNA expression of *IRAKs* and known genes involved in the negative regulation of TLR/IL-1R/MyD88/IRAK1/4 pathways were discerned by data mining of RNA-seq data (GSE99248). AMD-associated changes in IRAK-M protein expression was examined by immunohistochemistry of postmortem eye sections from patients with AMD or age-matched controls. The processing and staining of all sections were executed at the same time with the same vials of reagents and antibody to avoid batch effects.

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Irak3^{-/-}, aging mice and oxidative stress induction

We used Irak3-/- and WT mice to define whether ageing and/or lack of IRAK-M affected outer retinal degeneration. Only male mice from the established Rd8-negative Irak3-/- colony were used to avoid possible sex-associated variation in immune responsiveness (73). Clinical examinations on retinal pathology, including retinal structure, fundus spots and thickness, were performed using Micron IV-guided fundoscopy and optical coherence tomography (OCT) in Irak3-/- mice (aged 2-15 months) and WT mice (aged 2-21 months). Primary endpoints were RPE cell death, subretinal accumulation of macrophages, and cytokine expression at indicated time points. To determine whether oxidative stress could be an independent factor affecting IRAK-M expression, we applied oxidative stressors to different RPE cells in vitro and 8-week-old WT mice in vivo. Two types of LIRD model with different severity of outer retinal injury were performed via fundus cameradirected light exposure using either a light-only protocol (100 klux for 20 minutes), or a FLassisted light challenge protocol where overnight dark adapted mice were intraperitoneally administered with 100 µl of 2% fluorescein before light challenge to the retina (16 klux for 5 minutes) (46). Paraquat-induced retinal degeneration was conducted by intravitreal injection of paraquat diluted in PBS (2 μl; 1.5mM) (47). The contralateral eye was left without light challenge or injected intravitreally with PBS as a control.

To elucidate metabolic mechanisms involved in *Irak3*-KO-induced retinal degeneration, we isolated primary RPE cells from 5-month-old *Irak3*-- versus WT littermates and characterized cell metabolism and senescent phenotype. To demonstrate whether IRAK-M had a protecting role for RPE cells against oxidative or immune challenges in vitro, we overexpressed *IRAK3* by either endogenous CRISPR/Cas9 activation or exogenous *IRAK3* delivery via plasmid vectors. In vitro cell responses to stressors and *IRAK3* gene delivery were assessed for mitochondrial respiration and glycolytic activities, autophagy flux, cytokine secretion, and expression of senescence markers (see Supplementary Materials and Methods).

Therapeutic approaches

Subretinal administration of AAV2-expressing human *IRAK3* in two murine models of retinal degeneration, light-induced outer retinal degeneration in young WT mice and spontaneous outer retinal degeneration in aging *Irak3*. mice. In both models, null AAV2 vehicle injections served as a negative control to determine baseline responses. The control AAV2 and *IRAK3*-expressing AAV2 were both under the control of constitutive CMV or RPE-specific Best1 promoter. A pilot experiment to determine viral dose-dependent transduction efficacy was performed by subretinal injection of 2×10⁹ gc (high dose) or 4×10⁸ gc (low dose) of AAV2.CMV.EGFP to each eye and evaluated by fundal fluorescence imaging for 11 weeks. AAV-mediated human *IRAK3* transgene expression in mice RPE/retina was verified by qRT-PCR and immunohistochemistry of retinal samples. Retinas were exposed to light challenge at two (LIRD) or three (FL-LIRD) weeks after AAV injection, and retinal pathologies were examined two weeks after AAV injection by fundoscopy, OCT, and histology for TUNEL⁺ cell death and mitochondrial content. *Irak3*. mice (2-4m old) were monitored for 6 months following subretinal injection of AAV vectors using quantitative parameters such as retinal fundus spots and outer retinal thickness, measured by fundoscopy and OCT.

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Statistics

Results are presented as means \pm standard deviation (SD). A simple linear regression was utilized using GraphPad Prism 9.5 to analyze the correlation between gene expression and human aging using microarray data. All other statistical analyses were conducted using Prism 10.1.2. All primary data associated with the statistical analyses are presented in Data file S1. For data analysis on experiments with one variable, normal distribution of samples was determined using Shapiro-Wilk test, and equality in variances across groups with normal data was measured using F-test for two groups or Brown-Forsythe test for more than two groups (Data file S2). Comparison between two groups with a single variable was performed using unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test for normal data with equal variances, Welch's t-test for normal data with unequal variances, or Mann-Whitney *U*-test if at least one group has nonnormal samples. For experiments involving more than two groups and one variable, comparisons were measured using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Bonferroni post-hoc multiple comparisons tests if all groups are normal and equal, Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA with Dunnett's T3 tests if groups are normal but unequal, or Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA with Dunn's tests if at least one group is nonnormal. In experiments involving two independent variables, we used two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-hoc tests for all human sample, in vitro, and most animal experiments. In experiments assessing the impact of acute oxidative stress (induced by light or intravitreal injection of paraquat) on murine retinal thickness (Fig. 4, C, F and G), Holm-Sidak post-hoc tests were employed to enhance statistical power and minimize the need for additional animals in the experiments. For two-way ANOVA, certain degrees of nonnormally distributed data can be tolerated by ANOVA, which is robust to violations of normality (74, 75). All specific statistical tests and post-hoc methods are specified in figure legends. Differences between groups were considered significant at P < 0.05.

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629 LIST OF SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

- 630 Materials and Methods
- 631 Figs. S1 to S14
- Table S1 and S2
- Data files S1 and S2
- 634 References (76-82)

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Author contributions

- Conceptualization: ADD, JL, YKC and LBN. Methodology: JL, ADD, YKC, GSH, IMH, MG,
- BR, UG, MJR, ELF, RG, PJC, DAC and LBN. Investigation: JL, YKC, DAC, AJC, MG, BTR,
- 960 GSH, LS, ST, UG, KC, GS, OHB, KO, JLBP, JW, LMR and YL. Visualization: ADD, JL, YKC
- and LBN. Supervision: ADD, JL and YKC. Writing—original draft: JL, ADD and YKC.
- 962 Writing—review & editing: all authors.

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Competing interests

- 965 ADD, JL and YKC are named inventors on an International Patent Application No:
- PCT/EP2022/082518. ADD and YKC are co-founders of Cirrus Therapeutics and hold equity. JL
- and DAC hold equity in Cirrus Therapeutics. ADD is consultant for Hubble Tx, Affibody, 4 DMT,
- Novartis, Roche, UCB, Amilera, Janssen, ActivBio and Apellis. YKC is Consultant or Advisor to
- Ally Therapeutics, AlphaSights, Anjarium Biosciences, Arthur D. Little, Celestial Therapeutics,
- Cirrus Therapeutics, FirstThought, Pacira Biosciences, Santé, University of Bristol and Xora
- Innovation, and has received consulting fees and/or equity. RG is consultant for Roche, Genentech,
- 972 Apellis, Novartis, and Bayer.

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Data and materials availability

- All data associated with this study are present in the paper or the Supplementary Materials. Genetic
- data analyzed for gene burden tests (Table 1 and Table S1) are accessible from the original paper
- 977 (6) and permitted for sharing by respective Institutional Review Boards, and summary statistics

978	reported in the paper are archived in the database of Genotypes and Phenotypes (dbGaP) under
979	accession phs001039.v1.p1. Microarray data used to analyze the IRAK3, IRAK1 and IRAK4
980	expression correlated with aging (Fig. 1C and Fig. S2) are available from G.S.H. under a material
981	transfer agreement with the University of Utah Technology Licensing Office, Utah, United States.
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Gene	CHROM	Start	End	N	Increasing/decreasing	P
Symbol				Markers	risk for AMD	value
IRAK3	12	66,582,994	66,648,402	18	Increasing risk	0.012
IRAK1	X	153,278,500	153,284,192	2	Increasing risk	0.35
IRAK2	3	10,219,555	10,280,654	12	Increasing risk	0.91
IRAK4	12	44,172,041	44,177,510	3	Decreasing risk	0.22

The cumulative effect of rare protein-altering variants in the 16,144 late AMD cases versus 17,832 controls of four *IRAK* genes in the IAMDGC data was examined using gene burden test.

Figure legends

Fig. 1. IRAK-M is abundant in the RPE and its expression is reduced with age. (A and B) Confocal images of human retinal sections from a 20-year-old donor (without recorded ocular disease). Anti-RPE65 was used to stain the RPE (red, A), anti-rhodopsin was used to stain the photoreceptor outer segment (red, B), and DAPI was used to stain nuclei (white, A and B). GCL: ganglion cell layer; INL: inner nuclear layer; ONL: outer nuclear layer; POS: photoreceptor outer segment; RPE: retinal pigment epithelium; CHO: choroid. (C) Graphs showing relative probe intensities for *IRAK3*, *IRAK1*, and *IRAK4* in the RPE/choroid (top) and retina (bottom), according to age of donor, as assessed by microarray. (D) Western blots (left) and densitometry quantification (right) of IRAK-M abundance in human RPE/choroidal lysates. Donor age, sex, and eye are indicated at the top of the blot. IRAK-M abundance was normalized to β-actin (20-22y: n=4; 52-59y: n=4; 76-84y: n=6). *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ns, nonsignificant. Comparison by simple linear regression (C), or one-way Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA test with Dunnett's T3 tests (D).

Fig. 2. IRAK-M expression in RPE is reduced in AMD. (**A**) PORT-normalized gene counts from RNA-seq data (GSE99248) of *IRAK3*, *IRAK1*, *IRAK2* and *IRAK4* in the RPE/choroid/sclera (left; n=8 AMD, pink; n=7 age-matched controls, teal) and retina (right; n=8 AMD, pink; n=8 controls, teal). (**B**) Representative IHC images (top row) of human retinal sections from two donors without AMD (non-AMD, 59-year and 97-year old, respectively), a donor with mild AMD (76-year old), and a donor with AMD at unidentified stage (85-year old) were color-deconvoluted using ImageJ to separate IRAK-M staining (red, bottom row), pigment (brown, third row) and nuclei (blue, second row). Scale bar: 100 μm. Lower magnification images are shown in fig. S5. (**C**) Quantification of mean staining intensity of the RPE, choroid, and retina for IRAK-M abundance (n=2 non-AMD young, teal; n=5 non-AMD aged, pink; n=11 AMD, orange). *P <

0.05; ns, nonsignificant. Comparison by multiple unpaired two-tailed Welch's t-tests (RPE/Cho/Scl in A) or Mann-Whitney *U*-tests (Retina in A) followed by Sidak-Bonferroni correction, or two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc tests (C).

Fig. 3. $Irak3^{\checkmark}$ mice spontaneously display early retinal abnormalities. (A) Representative fundal images of $Irak3^{\checkmark}$ mouse retinas at 5m, 8m, 10m, and 13m. White spots are indicated by red arrows. (B) Graph showing incidence of flecked retina (number of spots > 3) in $Irak3^{\checkmark}$ mice (pink) compared to WT controls (teal) at different ages. Each value is a ratio of number of flecked retinas to total number of retinas at each time point. (C) Representative fundal (top) and OCT (bottom) images from 5m-old $Irak3^{\checkmark}$ mice. White spots are indicated by red arrows. Yellow double-arrow lines indicate the boundaries of outer retinal layers (ORL), blue double-arrow lines indicate the boundaries of inner retinal layers (IRL). (D) TUNEL staining (left) and quantification (right) of RPE/choroidal flatmounts from $Irak3^{\checkmark}$ mice (pink, n=10) versus WT controls (teal, n=8) at 5m of age. (E) Quantification of OCT images to assess ORL (left) and IRL (right) thickness in $Irak3^{\checkmark}$ mice (pink, n=11) and WT controls (teal, n=12) aged 12-13m. (F) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of mRNA expression of Ccl2, Illb, and Ill2 (normalized to RPS29) in RPE/choroid tissues from 12m-old $Irak3^{\checkmark}$ mice (pink, n=6) and WT controls (teal, n=6). *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ****P < 0.0001; ns, nonsignificant. Comparison by unpaired two-tailed Welch's I-test (D), two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni tests (E and F).

Fig. 4. Oxidative stress reduces IRAK-M abundance in the RPE of WT mice, and *Irak3*-/mice are more vulnerable to light-induced retinal degeneration. Retinal oxidative stress was
induced in 8-week-old C57BL/6J mice by either fundus-light induction (100kLux for 20min, **A**,

C and **E**) or intravitreal administration of paraquat (2μl at 1.5mM, **B**, **D** and **F**). (**A**) Western blots
(left) and densitometry (right) showing IRAK-M abundance in RPE lysate on day 7 after light

exposure (pink) compared with control (teal) (n=4). (**B**) Western blots (left) and densitometry (right) showing IRAK-M abundance in RPE lysate on day 7 after paraquat injection (pink) compared with PBS control (teal) (n=5). (**C**) Representative fundoscopy (top) and OCT images (bottom) obtained on day 14 after light exposure. (**D**) Fundoscopy (top) and OCT images (bottom) obtained on day 14 after paraquat injection. Retinal lesions are indicated by red arrows, yellow double-arrow lines indicate the thickness of outer retinal layers (ORL), and blue double-arrow lines indicate thickness of inner retinal layers (IRL). (**E**) Quantification of OCT images to assess ORL (left) and IRL (right) thickness in LIRD mice (pink, n=8) and controls (teal, n=8). (**F**) ORL (left) and IRL (right) thickness in paraquat-injected mice (pink, n=11) and PBS-injected control (teal, n=9). (**G**) Eight-week-old WT and *Irak3*^{-/-} mice were subjected to retina light-induced oxidative insults. Quantification of ORL (left) and IRL (right) thickness *Irak3*^{-/-} mice (pink, n=8) compared to WT controls (teal, n=16) 14 days after light induction, as assessed by averaging of temporal and nasal measurements by OCT. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001; ns, nonsignificant. Comparison by unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test (A and B), or two-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak post-hoc tests (E, F and G).

Fig. 5. Overexpression of *IRAK3* **in RPE cells supports metabolic activities and inhibits cell death against stressors.** (**A** and **B**) Metabolic flux analysis of human iPSC-RPE cells transfected with *IRAK3* CRISPR activation plasmid or control plasmid for 48h, and then challenged by 30 μM H₂O₂ or 1 μg/ml LPS for 24h. OCR (**A**) and ECAR (**B**) profile (left) and parameters (right) of the iPSC-RPE cells (n=5 control plasmid group, teal; n=6 *IRAK3* activation plasmid, pink; n=4 control plasmid + H₂O₂, blue; n=7 *IRAK3* activation plasmid + H₂O₂, orange; n=3 control plasmid + LPS, lime; n=4 *IRAK3* activation plasmid + LPS, moroon). (**C**) LDH cytotoxicity analysis of mouse B6-RPE07 cells stably transfected with pUNO1-human *IRAK3* plasmid (pink) or pUNO1 control plasmid (teal) over 5 days since confluency (d1, d4, d5: n=4; d3: n=8). (**D**) Cytotoxicity assay of

stably transfected B6-RPE07 cells treated with paraquat (125 μ M, n=4) or LPS (40 ng/ml, n=2) for 72h, compared to untreated cells (n=4). (**E** and **F**) Metabolic flux analysis of transfected primary mouse $Irak3^{-/-}$ RPE cells treated by 60 μ M H₂O₂ for 24h. OCR (**E**) and ECAR (**F**) profile (left) and parameters (right) of the cells (pUNO1, teal; pUNO1-h*IRAK3*, pink; pUNO1 + H₂O₂, orange; pUNO1-h*IRAK3* + H₂O₂, brown; all n=3). *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ****P < 0.0001; ns, nonsignificant. Comparison by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc tests.

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Fig. 6. Subretinal delivery of AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 protects against light-induced retinal damage in wild-type mice. (A) Two weeks after subretinal injection of AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 or AAV2.CMV.Null (high dose 2×10⁹ gc/eye, top; low dose 4×10⁸ gc/eye, bottom), RPE/choroid and retina were analyzed for human IRAK3 expression using qRT-PCR, normalized to RPS29 (n=5). (B) Retinal cryosections were examined for high dose AAV-mediated IRAK-M expression using an antibody specific to human IRAK-M (green). DAPI staining of nuclei in blue. Representative confocal images were shown. (C to E) Two weeks after subretinal injection with the high dose of AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 or AAV2.CMV.Null, each mouse was subjected to lightinduced retinal degeneration in one eye, followed by assessment of retinal pathology and therapeutic response after a further two weeks. (C) Representative fundoscopy (top left) and OCT images (bottom left) and quantification (right) show light-induced retinal lesions (red arrows) and averaged ORL thickness in AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3-treated (n=10, pink) or AAV2.CMV.Nulltreated (n=11, teal) mice. (**D**) Representative confocal images of TUNEL staining on retinal sections (top) and quantification (bottom) of 3 sections from each eye treated with AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 (pink) or AAV2.CMV.Null (teal). n=6 for light challenge groups; n=3 for control (no light challenge) groups. (E) Confocal images of MitoView Green staining for mitochondrial content (top, DAPI staining shown in white) and MFI measurement (bottom) in 3 different fields from two sections of each eye treated with AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 or AAV2.CMV.Null. MFI analysis was performed at different retinal layers (IS: inner segment, teal;

OPL: outer plexiform layer, pink; GC/IPL: ganglion cell/inner plexiform layer, orange). n=6 for

light damage groups; n=3 for no light groups. **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001; ****P < 0.0001.

Comparison by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni tests (C-E).

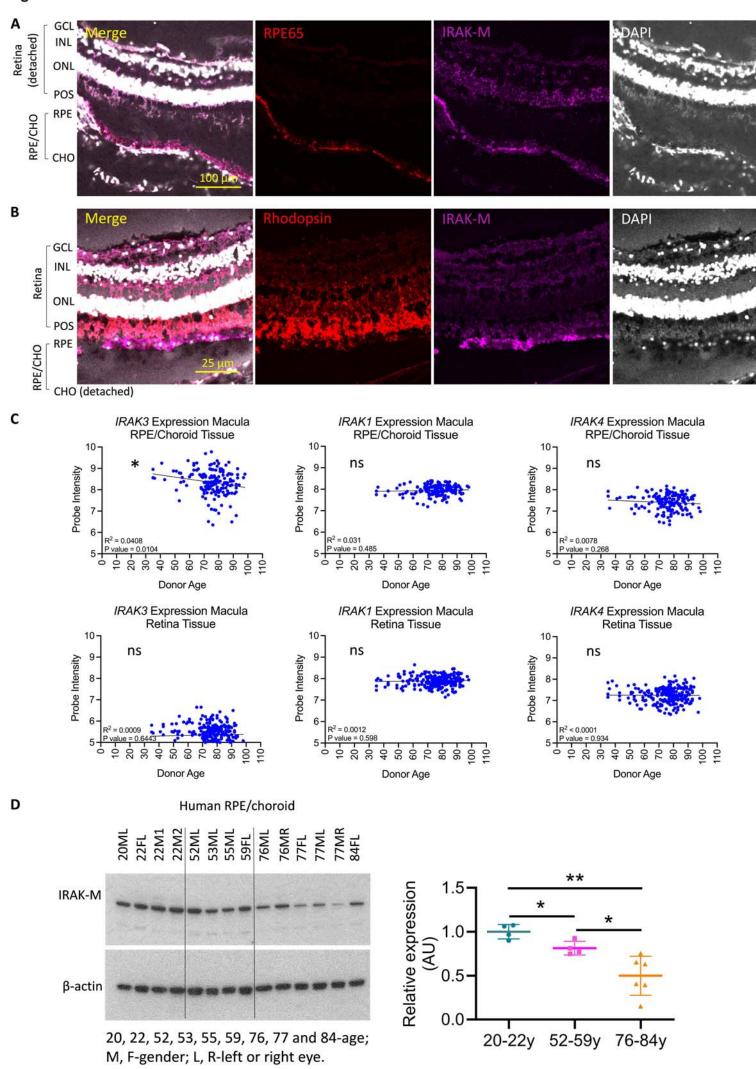
Fig. 7. Higher dose of AAV2.Best1.h*IRAK3* **is required to transduce comparable expression of exogenous IRAK-M as AAV2.CMV.h***IRAK3*. **(A)** Two weeks after subretinal injection of AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* (2×10⁹ gc/eye), AAV2.Best1.h*IRAK3* (2 or 4×10⁹ gc/eye) or AAV2.CMV.Null (2 or 4×10⁹ gc/eye), retinal cryosections were prepared and stained with an antibody specific to human IRAK-M. Representative confocal images show the staining of transduced human IRAK-M (green) and DAPI (blue). **(B and C)** Three weeks after subretinal delivery of AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* (2×10⁹ gc/eye), AAV2.Best1.h*IRAK3* (4×10⁹ gc/eye) or AAV2.CMV.Null (2 or 4×10⁹ gc/eye), each mouse was subjected to a fluorescein (FL)-assisted light-induced retinal degeneration in one eye and assessment of retinal pathology and therapeutic response were undertaken two weeks later. **(B)** Representative fundoscopy (top left) and OCT images (bottom left) and quantification (right) of averaged ORL thickness (n=6-7). **(C)** Representative confocal images of RPE flatmounts stained for tight junction protein ZO-1 (green) and mitochondrial marker Tom20 (magenta). DAPI is shown in blue. Higher magnification panels on right. **P < 0.01; ****P < 0.0001; ns, nonsignificant. Comparison by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni tests (B).

Fig. 8. Subretinal delivery of AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* prevents age-related spontaneous retinal degeneration in *Irak3*-/- mice. 2×10⁹ gc of AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* were injected subretinally in one eye of each *Irak3*-/- mouse (2-4m old), with AAV2.CMV.Null injected subretinally into the contralateral eye. Mice were then monitored by fundoscopy and OCT for 6 months. (A)

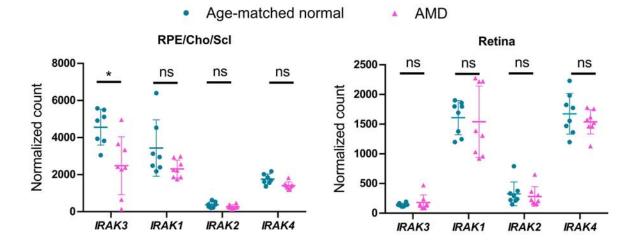
Representative fundal images of 8m-old *Irak3*-/- mice with AAV administration at the age of 2m. Blue lines separate the retina into two sides based on the injection site (indicated by red arrows).

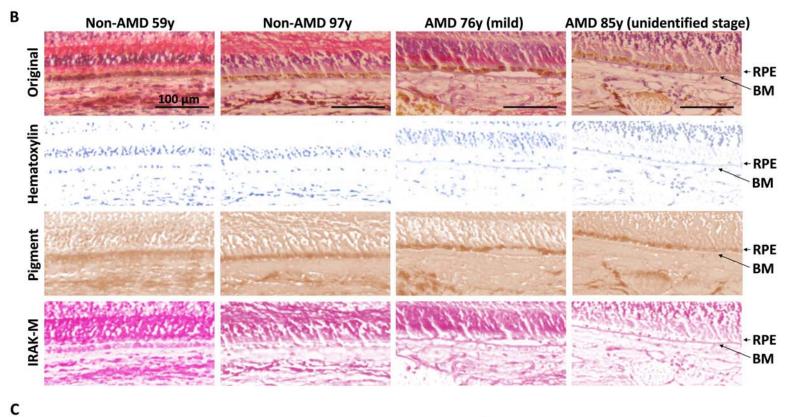
(B) Time course of incidence of flecked retina in *Irak3*-/- mice treated with AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* (n=15, pink) or AAV2.CMV.Null (n=16, teal). (C) Numbers of retinal spots in whole retina (left) or on the injection side (right), were blind-counted for comparison between AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* (n=15, pink) and AAV2.CMV.Null (n=16, teal)-treated mice at 8-10m of age. (D) OCT quantification of ORL thickness at 0.2 mm and 0.4 mm distant from the optic nerve head in 8-10m-old *Irak3*-/- mice treated with AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK3* (n=15, orange), 8-10m-old *Irak3*-/- mice treated with AAV2.CMV.Null (n=16, pink), and WT littermates (n=12, teal) that did not receive injections. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ****P < 0.0001; ns, nonsignificant. Comparison by unpaired two-tailed Mann-Whitney *U*-tests (C) or two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc tests (D).

Fig. 1









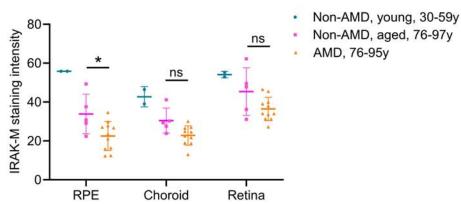


Fig. 3

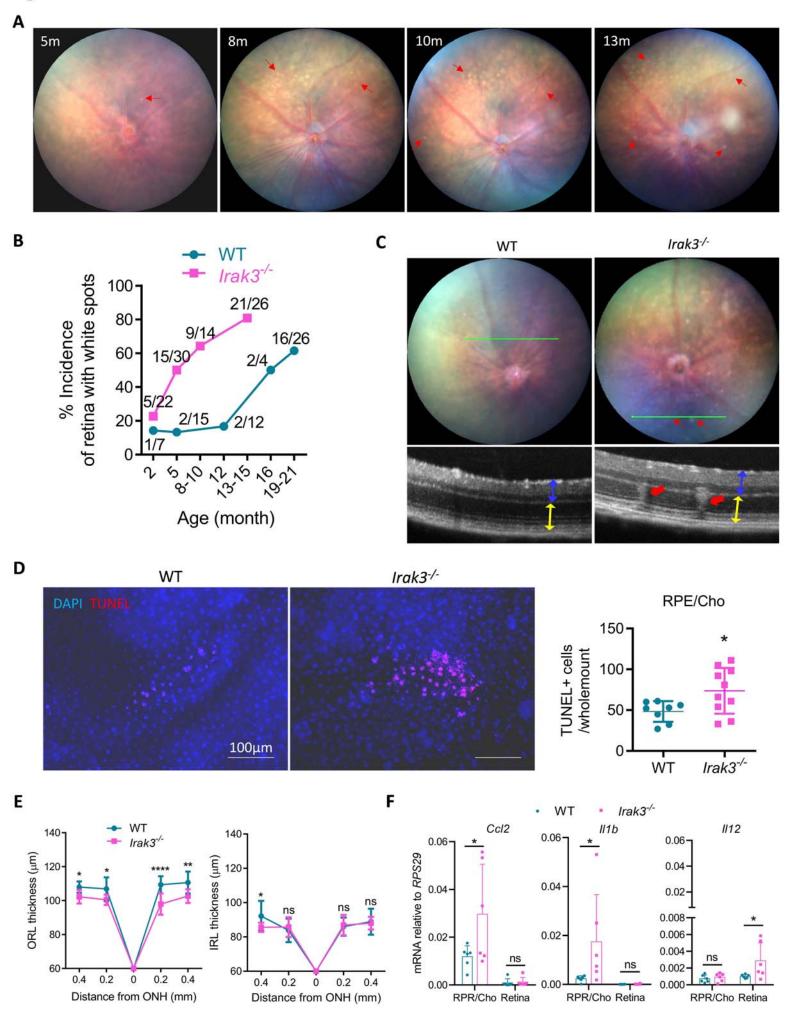


Fig. 4

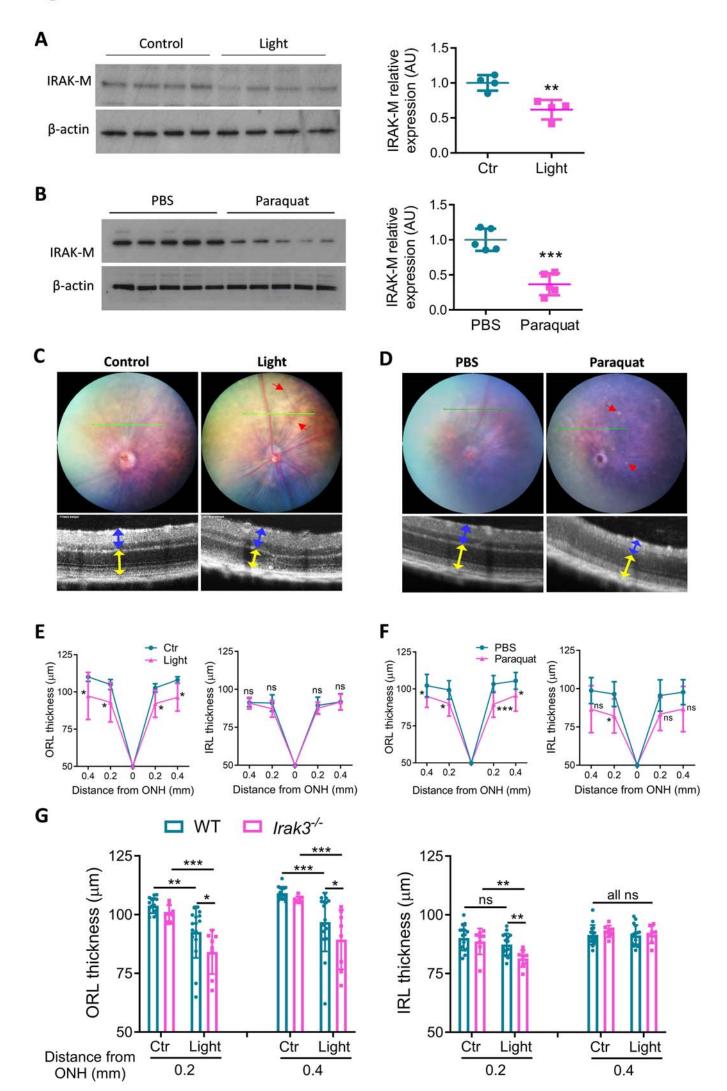


Fig. 5

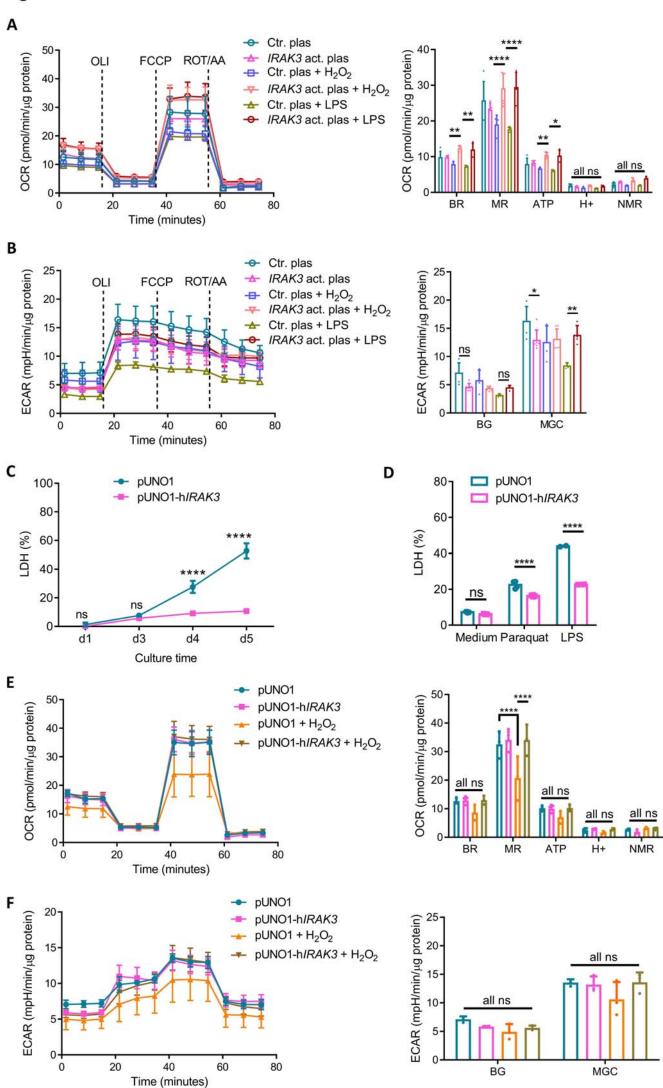


Fig. 6 A В AAV2.CMV.Null
AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 DAPI / hIRAK-M GL Relative expression of human IRAK3 mRNA to RPS29 High dose AAV AAV2.CMV.Null 0.20 0.15 ONL 0.10 0.05 50µm 0.00 RPE RPE/Cho Relative expression of human IRAK3 mRNA to RPS29 Low dose AAV AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 GL 0.20-0.15 INL 0.10 ONL 0.05 RPE RPE 0.00 50µm RPE/Cho Retina C No light Light damage AAV2.CMV.Null
AAV2.CMV.h/RAK3 AAV2.CMV.Null AAV2.CMV.Null AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 125 ORL thickness (μm) 100-75 50 25 Light damage Holight D Ε AAV2.CMV.Null AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 AAV2.CMV.Null AAV2.CMV.hIRAK3 No light No light 100µm Light damage Light damage IS OPL GC/IPL 60 AAV2.CMV.Null AAV2.CMV.h*IRAK*3 MFI of Mito staining 150 TUNEL+ cell number/section 40 125 100 20 75 AAV? CINI, THE AKS LIGHT 50 AAV2 CHN AUHHJOH ARVI COMINIRARS 25 Light damage Holight

Fig. 7

